

**LEVELS AND PATTERNS OF LIVING IN  
RURAL MIZORAM:  
A CASE STUDY OF LUNGLEI DISTRICT**

**A B S T R A C T**

SUBMITTED  
IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE  
**DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**  
IN  
ECONOMICS

By

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SHILLONG – 793022

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## ABSTRACT

This research project is an attempt to estimate the levels and pattern of living in the rural areas of Mizoram taking Lunglei District as a case study. The state of Mizoram lies in the north-eastern frontier of India. Forests and ranges of hills cover almost the whole of the state. Only a small portion of this state is flat land suitable for settled agriculture. The hill slopes are also not suitable for terraced farming or any other mechanised farming due to scarcity of water. Perhaps due to these topographical constraints, jhuming has been practised in this region since the days of our forefathers, and is still the main occupation of the people. Not only is *jhuming* the main occupation of the people in this state, but also it has become a way of life in this backward State.

The Mizo tribal community dominates the state of Mizoram. The Mizos were self-reliant and self-supporting jhumias before. But the continuous practice of unscientific shifting cultivation, the gradual increase in population and some other factors have posed many economic problems in this thinly-populated State since four or five decades ago. At present, the main economic problems which

confront the people of Mizoram are poverty and unemployment, the two inseparable problems. Like many other states of India, unemployment - poverty spiral has become a hydra-headed monster in Mizoram. These twin problems are quite rampant in both rural and urban areas.

In spite of several poverty-alleviation and employment-generating programmes launched by the Central and State Governments, the problem of poverty persists and unemployment is on the rise. Meanwhile, the Planning Commission Expert Group under the chairmanship of Prof. D.T. Lakdawala, in its report submitted in July 1993, placed Mizoram in the 9<sup>th</sup> position in terms of poverty ratio arranged in ascending order. According to the compilation and computation done by the Planning Commission on the basis of Report of the Expert Group on Estimation of Proportion and Number of Poor (1993), the poverty ratio, i.e., percentage of poor to total population, in this state fell from 50.33 per cent in 1973-74 to 32.52 per cent in 1987-88.

Apart from the above, the Planning Commission, in its estimate of the population falling below the poverty line (Planning Commission, 1988; Ninth Five-Year Plan, 1997-02 Vol. I; and Press Release of the Planning Commission dated 22<sup>nd</sup> February, 2001 Regarding

Poverty Estimates for 1999-2000) placed Mizoram in the 11<sup>th</sup> position among the 32 states and union territories of India in terms of poverty ratio arranged in an ascending order. As per this estimate, the poverty ratio in this state declined from 27.5 per cent in 1987-88 to 25.7 per cent in 1993-94, and further to 19.5 per cent in 1999-00. The poverty reduction, so achieved in this State, was recorded to be 1.8 % during the 7- year period of 1987-88 to 1993-94 and 6.2 per cent during the next 7 years commencing from 1993-94 to 1999-00. In conformity with the second three Planning Commission figures, the Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram, in its latest publication, put the poverty figures in Mizoram for 1993-94 and 1999-00 at 25.66 per cent and 19.47 per cent respectively (Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2002, P. 9, Table 1.10). However, contrary to all these figures, the Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram, in its earlier publication 'Mizoram at a glance 2001', dubbed 17,513 families in this State as poor (below the poverty line). These households accounted for 46.96 per cent of the then total population of the state.

The above contradicting figures have called for the need to conduct a proper survey on the incidence of poverty in the State. Since the incidence of poverty in the state might have varied from

region to region and from village to village, it is imperative to carry out poverty analysis at the village or micro level so as to enable the economic planners to be guided by more reliable and dependable data in implementing rural employment and poverty-alleviation programmes. This study is thus a modest exercise in such a direction.

Therefore, in the first chapter of my thesis entitled “General Introduction”, I have explained the nature of the problem and also stated the objectives of this study which are laid down below:-

- i. To ascertain the incidence of absolute poverty and relative poverty in Lunglei District of Mizoram;
- ii. To estimate the extent and the magnitude of both absolute poverty and relative poverty in the rural villages of Lunglei District;
- iii. To assess the consumption and living pattern of the people in the study area; and
- iv. To suggest suitable policy measures to combat the twin problems of rural poverty and unemployment.

Besides, I have also presented the sampling design, data base and methodology for the study in this chapter. As enumerated above, the primary objective of this study is to estimate the levels and pattern of living in the rural areas of the state of Mizoram. However, due to financial, time and other constraints, I have taken up only one of the

then three districts, i.e., Lunglei District, as a case study. From each and every rural development block of this district, I have selected three (3) villages in accordance with the principle of Random Proportional Sampling in order to give proportionate weightage to each rural development block of the District, making a total of twelve (12) villages at the second stage of sampling. The randomly-selected 12 villages distributed across the four rural development blocks in Lunglei District.

- A. W. Bungmun Rural Development Block: **1. DARNGAWN;**  
**2. SESAWM; 3. LAISAWRAL;**
- B. Lungsen Rural Development Block: **4. CHHUMKHUM;**  
**5. RUALALUNG; 6. THEHLEP;**
- C. Lunglei Rural Development Block: **7. SOUTH PHAILENG;**  
**8. NEW RALVAWNG; 9. SAIREP;**
- D. Hnahthial Rural Development Block: **10. AITHUR;**  
**11. DENLUNG; and 12. SOUTH LUNGLENG.**

Every household in each selected village was covered in the third and last stage of sampling, making a total study of five hundred and twenty nine (529) households. A brief structured schedule, covering a household's level and sources of income during the past 365 days and levels and pattern of consumption during the past 30 days, was canvassed by the Researcher of the present study with the help of a trained

investigator. An adult, male or female, available in the house/household at the time of the visit, was taken as the respondent. The raw data so collected, undoubtedly suffers from memory and measurement biases, but have yet proved useful in indicating the levels and pattern of living and the incidence of absolute and relative poverty in the rural areas of the district. This is indeed the valuable contribution of our research work. Based on this information, I have been able to construct a few important absolute and relative poverty indices. Accordingly, I have estimated the pattern of living at the village, rural development block and district levels. Besides, I have also estimated the extent and magnitude of the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty at the village level as well as at the development block level, and then aggregate for the District.

The second and third chapter of my thesis are devoted to description of the study site. In the second chapter entitled “Economy of Mizoram”, I have tried to present an elaborate discussion on Mizoram’s ecological base in relation to her rural economy and society. Therefore, in this chapter, the geographical location and area, topography and physical feature, social environment and social structure of Mizoram, the administrative development, population and demographic trends, the development problems and prospects of agriculture, *jhuming* (shifting

cultivation) practice, wet rice cultivation (W.R.C.), minor irrigation, development problems and prospects of horticulture, industrialization, growth of infrastructure, poverty and unemployment, development of education, health facilities and medical institutions, state income (Net State Domestic Product and Per Capita Income), food and civil supplies, land use pattern and land tenure system, and inner line regulation in the State are presented.

In the third chapter of my thesis entitled “Lunglei District: Socio-Economic Review”, I have tried to present a brief discussion on some important socio-economic features of Lunglei District. Therefore, in this chapter, the particulars of the four rural development blocks of Lunglei District, the trends in population, sex ratio and literacy, and the levels of socio-economic development are presented.

In the fourth chapter, entitled “Poverty: Identification, Definition and Measurement”, I have had a thorough review of literature on the (a) Study of the incidence of rural poverty in India; (b) Conceptual and measurement problems related to poverty; and (c) Methodology adopted in the present study of the incidence of rural poverty in Mizoram. The chapter is thus a review of literature on the measurement of poverty and the problems related to data base for such studies. It examines some conceptual problems regarding identification, definition and measurement

of poverty. Besides, various poverty indices are critically evaluated, based on the objective appeal and other welfare criteria. This chapter also rediscusses the sources of data, sampling design and methodology, adopted in the present study of the levels and pattern of living in the rural areas of Mizoram.

In the fifth chapter of my thesis entitled “Pattern of Living”, I have presented the analysis of data on household details, consumption, income, possession of assets, employment, production, land held and operated by households in the chosen area and the results thereof. This chapter also highlights the income and asset base of the sample households.

The sixth chapter of my thesis, entitled “Incidence of Poverty: Empirical Results”, deals with the analysis of data on the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty in the chosen area and the empirical results thereof. I have relied upon a number of instruments for this purpose, important of which are the Head Count and the Poverty-Gap Ratios. Sen’s Modified Index on poverty is also estimated. Besides, I have also estimated mean annual household income in each village covering all poor households. Since incomes are bound to vary across households, the inequality or instability of income has been estimated by the Gini Coefficient for the poor. This study has utilized the primary data obtained from an empirical survey carried out by this scholar in 1997.

In the last chapter of my thesis entitled “Conclusions and Policy Prescriptions”, I have summarized the findings and laid down policy prescriptions.

While ascertaining the incidence of absolute poverty and relative poverty in Lunglei District of Mizoram, the present study put the poverty figure in the district at almost 40 per cent (36.67 per cent to be exact) for the year 1997–98. However, this figure is larger than that worked out on the basis of household monthly consumption expenditure of less than or equal to Rs.1,400/- as the poverty line (19.85 per cent). The validity of these two different figures representing the poverty ratio in the district may be best explained on the basis of the following two reasons: (a) While the value of self-produced goods constituted a significant proportion in the total amount of monthly consumption expenditure, the same was not reflected in the total annual income of these households. Had there been no problem in the assessment of all sundry incomes for inclusion in the total annual income, the respective total annual incomes would rise considerably; (b) Our survey was carried out during the period May 17 to December 12, 1997. This period is an agricultural bumper period, as a result of which more items are available for consumption. Therefore, the value of self-produced goods accounted in the household consumption expenditure was bound to be high.

The village-level analysis exhibits inequalities were most villages in the two Bangladesh-bordering rural development blocks of W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development Block have exhibited lower incomes and larger dispersion around low mean income levels as compared to the sample villages in the urbanized Lunglei Rural Development Block and the Myanmar-bordering Hnahthial Rural Development Block. The same was observed in the block-level analysis.

Some policy prescriptions were made in the last chapter.

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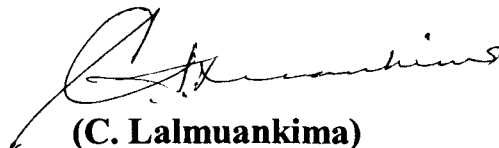
*Dedicated to my Parents*

**NORTH-EASTERN HILL UNIVERSITY  
DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS**

I, *C. Lalmuankima*, hereby declare that the subject matter of the thesis is the record of the work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/Institute.

This is being submitted to the North-Eastern Hill University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics.

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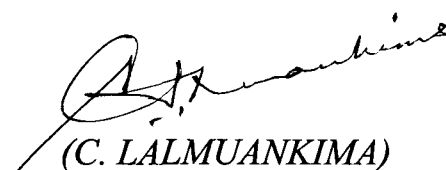
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# Chapter I

## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

The State of Mizoram lies in the north-eastern frontier of India. It has strategic importance geographically and politically for the nation, because it is sandwiched between Myanmar (formerly Burma) and Bangladesh, and shares a common international boundary of 285 kilometres with these two countries. Almost the whole of Mizoram is covered by forests and ranges of hills stretching from north to south. Only a small portion of this State is flat land suitable for settled agriculture. The hill slopes are generally very steep, and so most hill slopes are not suitable for terraced farming or any other mechanized farming due to topographical constraint and scarcity of water. In an economically underdeveloped and technologically backward state like Mizoram, such physical features call for an age-old traditional agriculture known as “*Jhuming*” or “*Shifting Cultivation*”. Perhaps due to these topographical and other physical constraints, *jhuming* has been practised in this region since the days of our forefathers, and is still the main occupation of the people. Not only is *jhuming* the main occupation of the people, but it has become a way of life in this backward state.

Mizoram is inhabited by the Mizo-dominated tribal community. The Mizos were self-reliant and self-supporting *Jhumias* or shifting cultivators before. But the continuous practice of unscientific shifting cultivation, the gradual increase in population and some other factors have posed many economic problems in this thinly-populated state since four or five decades ago. At present, the main economic problems which confront the people of Mizoram are poverty and unemployment. In fact, poverty and unemployment are inseparable problems. Like many other states of India, unemployment-poverty spiral has become a hydra-headed monster in this small state. These twin problems are quite rampant in both rural and urban areas.

In spite of several poverty-alleviation and employment-generating programmes launched by the Central and the State Governments, the problem of poverty persists and unemployment is rising rapidly. Meanwhile, the Planning Commission Expert Group under the chairmanship of Prof. D.T. Lakdawala, in its report submitted in July 1993, placed Mizoram in the 9<sup>th</sup> (ninth) position in terms of poverty ratio arranged in ascending order. According to the compilation and computation done by the Planning Commission on the basis of Report of the Expert Group on Estimation of Proportion and Number of Poor (1993), the poverty ratio (i.e., percentage of poor to total population) in

this State fell from 50.33 in 1973-74 to 32.52 in 1987-88, which implies a reduction by 17.81 per cent within 14 years and an annual reduction by 1.3 per cent. Besides, the Planning Commission in its estimate of population below poverty line<sup>1</sup> placed Mizoram in the 11<sup>th</sup> position among the 32 states and union territories of India in terms of poverty ratio and poverty reduction percentage arranged in an ascending order. As per this Planning Commission estimate, the poverty ratio in this State declined from 27.5 in 1987-88 to 25.7 in 1993-94, and further to 19.5 in 1999-00; the poverty reduction so achieved in this State was recorded to be 1.8 per cent during the 7-year period of 1987-88 to 1993-94, and 6.2 per cent during the next 7-year period commencing from 1993-94 to 1999-00.

In conformity with the second Planning Commission figures quoted above, the Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram also put the poverty ratio in Mizoram for 1993 – 94 and 1999 – 00 at 25.66 and 19.47 respectively.

The above contradicting figures have called for the need to conduct proper survey on the incidence of poverty in this State. Since the incidence of poverty in Mizoram seems to vary from region to region or village to village, it is imperative to carry out an empirical survey and

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<sup>1</sup> [Planning Commission (1988), Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997-2002), Vol. I and Press Release of the Planning Commission dt. 22<sup>nd</sup> of February, 2001 regarding Poverty Estimates for 1999-2000]

make poverty analysis at the *village level* or *micro level*, so as to enable economic planners to chalk out fruitful rural employment and poverty-alleviation programmes especially in matters of fund allocation and related logistics. This study is thus a humble exercise in such a direction, and its primary objective is to estimate the levels and pattern of living in rural areas of Mizoram. Due to financial constraint and time limitation, we have taken Lunglei District as a case study. Accordingly, we estimate the level and extent of the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty at the village, block and district levels.

As discussed above, most households in the rural areas of this State are engaged in agriculture, and the agriculture which has been practised here is the primitive shifting cultivation. This kind of agriculture can, at best, give them mere subsistence. Since most of the cultivators in the rural areas of this State do not have other gainful employment, the general masses are poor and they are firmly in the clutch of seasonal and disguised unemployment. To aggravate the problem of unemployment, educated unemployment has also confronted the educated youths in the rural areas of Mizoram in addition to the afore-said two types of unemployment. Therefore, to estimate the levels and pattern of living in Mizoram is to estimate the magnitude and extent of the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty. The study will ascertain the incidence of

absolute and relative poverty in Lunglei District and assess the extent and magnitude of both absolute poverty and relative poverty. The study will also assess whether or not there is inequalities in the incidence of poverty at the village and rural development block levels.

## **1.2 Objectives and Hypotheses**

**Objectives:** The objectives of this study are enumerated below:

- i. To ascertain the incidence of absolute poverty and relative poverty in Lunglei District of Mizoram,
- ii. To estimate the extent and the magnitude of both absolute poverty and relative poverty in the rural villages of Lunglei District,
- iii. To assess the consumption and living patterns of the people in the study area, and
- iv. To suggest suitable policy measures to combat the twin problems of rural poverty and unemployment.

**Hypotheses:** Following are the hypotheses, which have been put to empirical testing in this study:

- a. The incidence of absolute poverty in Lunglei District is less acute as compared to the All-India level.
- b. There are acute inter-block and inter-village variations in the incidence of poverty in the Lunglei District.

### 1.3 The Concepts

Poverty is a socio-economic phenomenon, which defies any precise definition. Its concept and content vary from country to country depending upon what a particular society accepts as a reasonably good living standard for its people. Thus, in California (U.S.A.), it would not be surprising if a family owning less than two cars is dubbed as poor. But in India, poverty manifests itself in its starkest form as a visual of semi-starved, ill-clad, deprived millions of countrymen, thousands of whom are dying every day from malnutrition, ill-health and lack of basic amenities, a picture which is both appalling and agonizing from any standards of human existence.

Therefore, poverty may be defined as a social phenomenon in which a section of the society is unable to fulfill even its basic necessities of life. When a substantial segment of a society is deprived of the minimum level of living and continues at a bare subsistence level, that society is said to be plagued with mass poverty. The third world countries exhibit invariably the existence of mass poverty, although pockets of poverty exist even in the developed countries of Europe and America.

Attempts have been made in all societies to define poverty, but all of them are conditioned by the vision of minimum or good life obtaining in society. For instance, the concept of poverty in Japan would be

significantly different from that in India because the average person is able to afford a much higher level of living in Japan. There is an effort in all definitions of poverty to approach the average level of living in a society and as such these definitions reflect the existence of inequalities in a society and the extent to which different societies are prepared to tolerate them. For instance in India, the generally accepted definition of poverty emphasizes minimum level of living rather than a reasonable level of living. This attitude is borne out of a realization that it would not be possible to provide even a minimum quantum of basic needs for some decades and, therefore, to talk about a reasonable level of living or good life may appear to be wishful thinking at the present stage. Thus, political considerations enter the definitions of poverty because programmes of alleviating poverty may become prohibitive as the vision of a good life widens. The upshot of the entire argument is that the absolute standard of poverty expressed in terms of minimum requirements of cereals, pulses, milk, vegetables, butter, clothing or calorie intake is conditioned by the relative levels of living prevalent in the country. The deprivation of a significant section of the society of minimum basic needs in the face of a luxurious life for the elite classes makes poverty more glaring.

Two types of standards are common in economic literature: the absolute and the relative. In the absolute standard, minimum physical

quantities of cereals, pulses, milk, butter, etc. are determined for a subsistence level and then the price quotations convert into monetary terms the physical quantities. Aggregating all the quantities included, a figure expressing per capita consumer expenditure is determined. The population whose level of income (or expenditure) is below the figure is considered to be below the poverty line. According to the relative standard, income distribution of the population in different fractile groups is estimated and a comparison of the levels of living of the top 5 to 10 per cent with the bottom 5 to 10 per cent of the population reflects the relative standards of poverty. The defect of the latter approach is that it indicates the relative position of different segments of the population in the income hierarchy. Even in affluent societies, such pockets of poverty exist. But for underdeveloped countries, it is the existence of mass poverty that is the cause for concern.

In India, absolute poverty has invariably been equated to the lack of physical standardized level of living. On the other hand, absolute poverty in Switzerland connotes socially acceptable standardized level of living. Poor, in the relative sense, have been defined as those who are worse-off than other members of the community in which they live. While drawing the relative poverty line, there arises a basic question as to how much short of the average must a person fall to be considered as

poor? To this question, there cannot be a unique answer. Therefore, like absolute poverty, relative poverty is also determined and guided by subjective considerations.

Poverty in both senses of the term is a feeling of deprivation. And in a low-income economy, absolute poverty as defined by Rowntree (1901) has a special relevance. Serious disagreements would arise, however, with regard to the identification of minimum needs and their respective minimum quantities. For both, an expert judgment is needed. That granted, the next step is to draw the absolute poverty line. In this direction, three approaches, namely, (a) Consumption-basket approach, (b) Engel's coefficient approach, and (c) Actual behaviour approach have been suggested.

Consumption-Basket Approach: Under the consumption-basket approach, Rudra (1974) listed alternative diets as suggested respectively by Patwardhan (1960) and Sukhatme (1981) as the minimum calorie intake for an adult. The costs of these diets at 1960-61 prices were Rs.15 and Rs.18 per person per month (Sukhatme) for rural and urban population, and Rs.13 per person per month for rural population (Patwardhan). Quantification of minimum needs based on expert judgement is questionable because it imposes norms on tastes and values held by other individuals.

Engel's Coefficient Approach: Under the Engel's coefficient approach (Orshansky, 1965; Friendman, 1965; Watt, 1977), households having a higher Engle's coefficient for food items are considered poor. Since, the ratio between food and non-food prices keeps changing, Engel's coefficients are found unstable and, therefore, unreliable. The comparative picture of poverty at two points of time would, therefore, get distorted if relative prices change sizably with no major change in income levels.

Actual Behaviour Approach: Under the actual behaviour approach, an absolute poverty line is drawn to include only those who fail to meet one or more needs. India's Planning Commission (1984) used to consider only one basic need, i.e. food, and has defined poverty threshold as the per capita monthly expenditure of Rs.49/- in rural India at 1973-74 prices. This poverty line corresponds roughly to a typically-structured, typically-spending household exactly meeting its per capita daily requirement of 2,400 calories in rural areas. Taking the same line of thinking, Kakwani (1992) and Tendulkar and Jain (1995) have defined poverty thresholds as the per capita monthly total expenditure of Rs.49.09 (rounded off to Rs.50.00 by Kakwani) in rural India.

#### 1.4 Poverty Measures

Three poverty measures belonging to the Foster-Green-Thorebecke class (1988) have been used by us. Of these, the first measure is the Head Count Ratio ( $H$ ):

$$H = \frac{q}{n} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

It is the simplest that takes the number of poor ( $q$ ) as a proportion to total population ( $n$ ). This measure ( $H$ ) ignores how poor the poor are, and therefore, remains unchanged when poor becomes poorer or move upwards on income ladder.

The total income needed to bring all the poor upto the poverty line is given by an average poverty gap ( $GAP$ ) as:

$$GAP = (z - m)q \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

where  $m$  is mean-income of the poor and  $z$  is the poverty line expressed in monetary terms and  $q$  is the number of poor. From this expression is derived our second measure known as the Poverty Gap Ratio Index (Sen, 1976). If the degree of misery suffered by an individual is proportional to the income shortfall of that individual from the poverty line, then the sum total of these shortfalls may be considered as an adequate measure of

poverty. Such a measure is called the Poverty Gap Ratio Index ( $g$ ) and can be written as:

$$g = \left[ \frac{(z-m)}{z} \right] H \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

The measure  $g$  will provide adequate information about the intensity of poverty if, and only if, all poor households are assured to have exactly the same income, which is less than the poverty line. In practice, the income of the poor is unequally distributed and, therefore, a  $g$  can not be an adequate measure of poverty. It is an improvement on the Head Count Ratio, nonetheless. Besides, it has an interpretation which makes it extremely attractive from a policy point of view. It indicates the poverty gap as a fraction of total income needed to support everyone in the population at the poverty line.

Thus, the transfer of resources required to eradicate poverty completely could be assessed with this index. Although, perfect targeting of resources is not possible, this index provides at least a lower bound on the amount of transfers. Its limitation, in being insensitive to the redistribution of income among the poor, is corrected by modified Sen's index ( $P$ ) that assigns a specific rank order to individuals according to the

extent of poverty. A higher rank to the person farther away from the poverty line is assumed by Sen such that:

$$P = \frac{q[(z - m)(1 - G)]}{z.n} \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

where  $G$  is the Gini Coefficient of the distribution of income among the poor and the other terms carry the same definitions. So, if  $G$  is zero, the modified Sen's index is reduced to the Sen's index as given by equation (3). We may note that the Sen's modified poverty index takes into consideration the income inequality among the poor and is the product of Head Count measure and the proportion of the equally distributed income of the poor from the poverty line. Its value lies between zero and unity. It assumes zero value when everyone's income is above the poverty line  $z$  and becomes unity when everyone has zero income. Both possibilities are unlikely to occur. This study works out and discusses all these indices.

### **1.5 Sampling Design, Data Base and Methodology**

Till the last part of 1997, there were only three civil administration districts in Mizoram, viz., Aizawl District, Lunglei District and CHhimtuipuri District. The subsequent alteration of district boundaries consequent upon the bifurcation of CHhimtuipui District and the quinfurcation of Aizawl District in 1997 and 1998 did not affect Lunglei District. The boundary of this District remained unaltered and its civil

administration subdivisions and rural development blocks also remained unchanged.

As stated earlier, Lunglei District has been chosen for carrying out our empirical survey on the levels and pattern of living in the rural areas of this State. This District has four (4) rural development blocks, namely, W. Bunglei Rural Development Block, Lungsen Rural Development Block, Lunglei Rural Development Block and Hnahthial Rural Development Block. Besides, the District has three (3) urban towns, namely, Lunglei (the majority area falling within the Lunglei Rural Development Block and a small portion in the Lungsen Rural Development Block), Hnahthial (which is within the Hnahthial Rural Development Block), and Tlabung (which is within the Lungsen Rural Development Block). The population of Lunglei, Hnahthial and Tlabung towns, as per the 2001 Census, are 47,355, 7,123 and 3,675 respectively.

Recourse has been taken to the utilization of household primary data collected during May - December 1997. The basic unit of enquiry was the household. As stated earlier, out of all the three districts (now eight) of Mizoram, only one district (Lunglei District) was randomly selected at the first stage of sampling. From each and every rural development block of this district, three (3) villages were selected in accordance with the principle of Random Proportional Sampling in order

to give proportionate weightage to each rural development block of the District, making a total of twelve (12) villages at the second stage of sampling. The randomly selected 12 villages distributed across the four rural development blocks in Lunglei District as follows: -

A. W. Bungmun Rural Development Block:

1. DARNGAWN; 2. SESAWM; 3. LAISAWRAL.

B. Lungsen Rural Development Block:

4. CHHUMKHUM; 5. RUALALUNG; 6. THEHLEP.

C. Lunglei Rural Development Block:

7. SOUTH PHAILENG; 8. NEW RALVAWNG; 9. SAIREP.

D. Hnahthial Rural Development Block:

10. AITHUR; 11. DENLUNG; and 12. SOUTH LUNGLENG.

Every household in each selected village was covered in the third and last stage of sampling, making a total study of 529 (five hundred and twenty nine) households. A brief structured schedule, covering a household's level and sources of income during the last 365 days, and levels and pattern of consumption during the last 30 days was canvassed by this scholar with the help of a trained and experienced investigator. An adult, male or female, available in the house at the time of our visit, was interviewed by means of a questionnaire. The raw data so collected undoubtedly suffer from memory and measurement biases, yet, have

proved useful in indicating the levels and pattern of living in the rural areas of this State. This is indeed the valuable contribution of our research work. Based on this information, we have been able to construct a few important absolute poverty indices. In all fairness, a brief discussion on poverty would not be out of place here. Our study did not permit us to carry out the cause-effect analysis. However, the data permits us to use tabular analysis based on ratios and percentages to analyze the information towards fulfillment of the objectives of this study.

## **1.6 Chapter Scheme**

In the succeeding chapter, i.e., chapter II, Mizoram's ecological base in relation to her rural economy and society will be discussed elaborately.

In chapter III, we shall discuss some important socio-economic features of Lunglei District briefly.

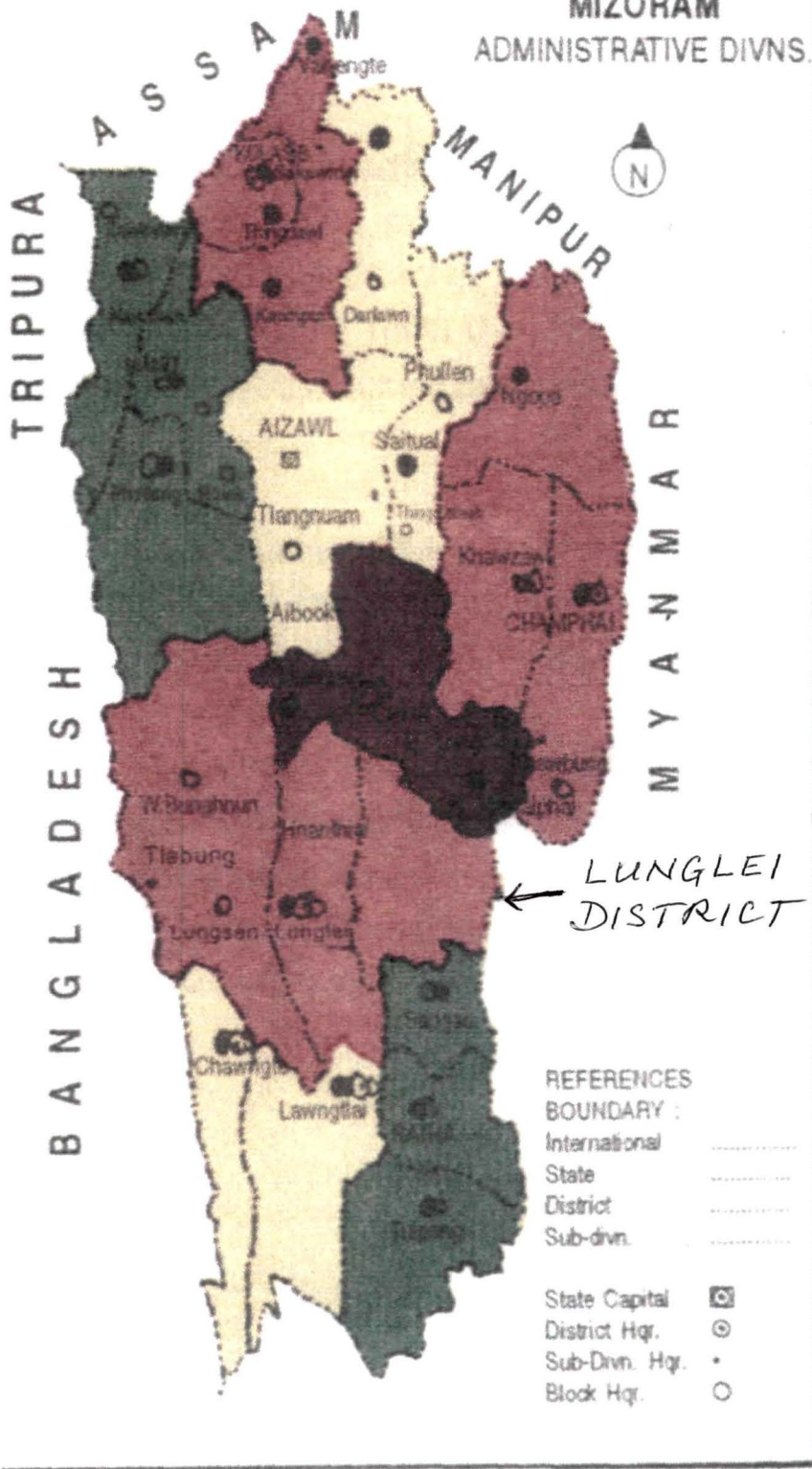
In chapter IV, we shall review the literature on the (a) incidence of rural poverty in India; (b) conceptual and measurement problems related to poverty; and (c) the methodology adopted in the present study of the incidence of rural poverty in Mizoram.

In chapter V, we shall deal with the analysis of data on consumption, employment and asset and the results thereof.

In chapter VI, we shall deal with the analysis of the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty in the chosen area.

Lastly, chapter VII will contain the conclusions and policy prescriptions.

**MIZORAM**  
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVNS.



## **Chapter II**

### **ECONOMY OF MIZORAM**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

After being annexed by the British in 1891, Lushai Hills area in the North remained under Assam with headquarters at “Fort Aijal” while the southern half remained under Bengal with headquarters at “Fort Lungleh”. Apart from subduing the Mizos, The British had no interest on land and in the people. As a result, the area remained neglected and isolated from the outside world. In 1898, the two districts were amalgamated and brought under Assam as one of the districts, i.e. Lushai Hills District. District Council was set up in 1952 under the Sixth Schedule to the Constitution of India and the civil district was renamed as Mizo District in 1954.

The State of Mizoram, lying in the extreme north-eastern corner of India, is a relatively unexplored area. Mizoram was formerly known as “Lushai Hills District” of Assam State by an Act of Parliament called “The Lushai Hills District (Change of name) Act, 1954” (Act 18<sup>th</sup> of 1954). The name “Lushai Hills District” was changed to “Mizo District” from April 29, 1954. Subsequently, this district became a Union Territory on January 21, 1972 following the reorganization of the State of Assam under the North Eastern Areas (Reorganization) Act of 1971.

Again, consequent upon the passing of the Constitution (53<sup>rd</sup>) Amendment Bill and the State of Mizoram Bill (1986) by the Parliament on August 07, 1986, statehood was conferred upon Mizoram on the 20<sup>th</sup> of February 1987 to become the 23<sup>rd</sup> state of the Indian Union. Initially, there were three administrative districts in the state, namely, Aizawl, Lunglei and CHhimtuipui. Later at the fag end of 1997, the Aizawl District, having a larger proportion of population and geographical area of the state, was trifurcated into three new districts. The names of these three new districts are Aizawl District, Aizawl East District and Aizawl West District, and their respective headquarters are Aizawl, CHamphai and Mamit. Again in 1998, two new districts known as ‘Aizawl North District’ with headquarters at Kolasib and ‘Aizawl South District’ with headquarters at Serchhip were formed out of the afore-said three districts. The CHhimtuipui District was also bifurcated into two new districts - CHhimtuipui East District (with headquarters at Saiha) and CHhimtuipui West District (with headquarters at Lawngtlai). Since its creation, Lunglei District has not changed geographically.

Another development worth mentioning regarding the formation of new districts in Mizoram is that the names of all the new districts except

Aizawl District were changed in 1999 as follows: -

Aizawl North District became *Kolasib District*;

Aizawl West District became *Mamit District*;

Aizawl East District became *CHamphai District*;

Aizawl South District became *Serchhip District*;

CHhimituipui East District became *Saiha District*;

CHhimituipui West District became *Lawngtlai district*.

Therefore, at present, there are eight administrative districts, viz. Kolasib District, Mamit District, Aizawl District, CHamphai District, Serchhip District, Lunglei District, Saiha District and Lawngtlai District. Besides, there are three autonomous district councils as provided under the Sixth Schedule to the Constitution of India. These three autonomous district councils are the Mara Autonomous District Council (M.A.D.C.), the Lai Autonomous District Council (L.A.D.C.) and the Chakma Autonomous District Council (C.A.D.C.). All these Autonomous District Councils are within Saiha and Lawngtlai Districts in the extreme southern corner of Mizoram.

Initially, there were nine community development blocks with headquarters at Aizawl, Kolasib, Mamit, Serchhip, Saitual, CHamphai, Lunglei, Hnahthial and Lawngtlai. An additional block later functioned at

Saiha to look after the more backward areas in Pawi–Lakher region. On becoming a union territory in 1972, the Union Territory was divided into three districts, viz. Aizawl, Lunglei and CHhimtuipui with nine subdivisions. The number of community development blocks also increased to 20 (twenty), of which twelve blocks (Tlangnuam, Aibawk, Serchhip, Thingsulthliah, Reiek, Zawlnuam (formerly known as Lokicherra), W. Phaileng, Ngopa, Khawzawl, E. Lungdar, Thingdawl and Darlawn) are in Aizawl District; four blocks (Lawngtlai, Sangau, Tuipang and CHawngte) are in CHhimtuipui District; and four blocks (W. Bunghmun, Lungsen, Lunglei and Hnahthial) are in Lunglei District. Three District Councils, namely, Chakma District Council, Lakher District Council and Pawi District Council (all within CHhimtuipui District) were formed while the Mizo District Council was permanently dissolved.

### **2.1.1 Geographical Location and Area**

Mizoram lies between 21° 58'N - 24° 35'N latitude and 92° 15'E - 93° 29'E longitude. The tropic of cancer, i.e. 23° 30'N latitude cuts across the region in Serchhip District, CHamphai District and Mamit District, traversing places like CHamphai, CHhawrtui, Darlung, Phuldungsei, etc. This imaginary line divides the region (Mizoram) into two almost equal parts. In other words, the Tropic of Cancer runs through the heart of

Mizoram, i.e. it passes just southern periphery of the Aizawl City at 23° 30'N latitude.

Mizoram has a geographical area of 21,087 sq. kms. Its length from North to South is about 277 kms., while its width from East to West is about 121 kms. Sandwiched between Myanmar in the East and in the South, Bangladesh and Tripura in the West, and Assam and Manipur in the North, the State of Mizoram occupies an area of great strategic importance in the north-eastern corner of India. It has a total of

**Table 2.1**  
**LENGTH OF INTERNATIONAL AND INTER-STATE BORDERS**  
**OF MIZORAM**

Serial Number.	Border	Length in Kilometre
(1)	(2)	(3)
1.	INTERNATIONAL BORDER a) With Myanmar b) With Bangladesh	404 318
2.	INTER-STATE BORDER a) With Assam b) With Tripura c) With Manipur	123 (Approx.) 66 (Approx.) 95 (Approx.)

*Source:* 1. Directorate of Land Revenue & Settlement, Government of Mizoram.  
2. Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram.

722 kilometres of international boundary with Myanmar and Bangladesh (Table 2.1). It also has a total of about 284 kilometres of inter-state boundary with Manipur and Assam in the North and Tripura in the West.

This signifies that the region, though small and relatively insignificant in size (Mizoram constitutes only 0.64 per cent of the total geographical area of India), has a high strategic importance, both geographically and politically.

### **2.1.2 Climate/Rainfall**

The climatic condition of Mizoram is in general cool and wet. Mizoram enjoys a moderate climate owing to its tropical location. It is neither very hot nor too cold throughout the year. The western part is hotter than the eastern part. The eastern part is pleasant and cool even in summer. The whole region falls under the direct influence of the South-West Monsoon. As such, the region receives an adequate amount of rainfall. The climate is humid tropical, characterized by a short winter and a long summer with heavy rainfall.

The salient thermo-characteristic of Mizoram is that the temperature does not fluctuate much throughout the year, excepting in the low-lying valley areas. The highest temperature is observed during the months of May, June and July. Thereafter, the onset of monsoon brings down the temperature. The temperature continues to fall with the break of the monsoon rains, and it is the lowest in December and January.

In autumn, the temperature is usually between 18° C to 25° C, while the winter temperature is normally between 11° C to 23° C. The summer temperature is between 21° C to 31° C. During the last 30 years or so, the temperature has been rising steadily. This may be due to mainly the large-scale degradation of vegetation and mismanagement of the environment. Depending on the variation in temperature and general weather conditions, three different types of seasons are observed in Mizoram. They are the cold season or winter, the warm season or spring, and the rainy season or summer.

The entire State of Mizoram is under the direct influence of the monsoon. It rains heavily from May to September. The average rainfall is 250 cms. per annum. The north-western portion of the state receives the highest rainfall, i.e. more than 350 cms. per annum. The rainfall also increases southward with increase in humidity. Precipitation is heavy in summer, normal from May to September, and lasts till late October. July and August are the most wet months, while December and January are the driest months.

### **2.1.3 Topography and Physical Feature**

The physical set-up of Mizoram is composed predominantly of mountainous terrain of tertiary rocks. The mountain ranges are inclined in

a north to south direction in parallel series. The ranges are separated from one another by narrow and deep river valleys. The elevation ranges from 40 metres at Bairabi to 2,157 metres (7,100 ft.) at Phawngpui. There are only few small patches of flat lands and these are mostly intermont-plains. The terrain of Mizoram is young and immature. It shows prominent relief features with steep slopes, and is still undergoing denudation in response to various exogenetic (isostatic gravity) processes.

The hills of Mizoram, or the Mizo hills, are very steep, more on the western sides of the ranges. The general height of these ranges is about 900 metres (or 3,000 ft.) though here and there are peaks over 1,800 metres (or 6000 ft.) in height. In general, the hills ranging towards the East are higher than those ranging towards the West. The hills of southern Mizoram are generally smaller and more fragmented by small brooks as compared to those of northern Mizoram, and the top soil erosion here is rapidly resulting in less fertility than the northern hills.

There are a few small plains in the state situated in the midst of hills and narrow valleys. They have, as a rule, an elevation of about 1,350 metres (or 4,500 ft.) and are covered with a thick layer of rich alluvial soil. They are surrounded by hills that slope gently towards the plains but are very steep, often precipitous on the outer side. The largest of this

plain is CHamphai, which has a length of about 7 miles (or 11.27 kms.) and at the widest part is nearly 3 miles (or 4.83 kms.) The whole area of this plain is used for permanent wet rice cultivation.

The second largest plain is situated at North Vanlaiphai in the south-eastern corner of Serchhip District. Thenzawl is another important plain in the Serchhip District, which has been brought under permanent wet rice cultivation. Mention also may be made to those numerous small flat patches like Tuisenhnar of Khawzawl in the East, Zawlpui by the bank of Mat River, Phaisen of Vairengte, CHemphai of Bilkhawthlir, Buhchang of Bilkhawthlir, Tuichhuahen, CHhimluang and Meidum of Kolasib in the North, and Hortoki and Bairabi along the River Tlawng. There is also a vast area called "CHamdur" in the western part of CHhimtuipui District, which at present is thickly vegetated.

There are plenty of small, deep and rugged rivers in Mizoram. They flow mostly in the direction of North to South or South to North separating the hill ranges. They are fed by the monsoon rain only. They swell rapidly during the rains and recede shortly after. They are not so useful because the volume of water in these rivers is usually less during winter and most of them are almost dry during the dry season.

The most important and useful rivers of the state are Tlawng (also known as Dhaleswari), Tuirial (also known as Sonari), and Tuivawl in the northern side, and CHhimtuipui (also known as Kolodyne) and Khawthlangtuipui (also known as Karnaphuli) and their tributaries in the South. These rivers have an immense scope to generate hydro-electric power but are not yet exploited.

#### **2.1.4 Soil Resources**

The soils of Mizoram are dominated mainly by loose sedimentary formation. They are generally young, immature and sandy. Derived soil with red, loamy texture is also found with high-level laterite. The soil acidity is high, low in potash and phosphorus. But in an uneroded soil, the content of nitrogen is quite high, fostered by accumulation of organic matters. The soils in the valleys are heavier as they were brought down by rainwater from the high altitudes.

Sankar and Nandy (1976) have classified the soil of Mizoram into three orders of soil taxonomy, viz. 1. Entisols, 2. Inceptisols and 3. Ultisols.

**Entisols:** These soils have little or no evidence of profile development. They occur on steep, actively eroding slopes and ridges, or on flood plains that receive new deposits of alluvium at frequent intervals. In the

order of Entisols, the following soils have been identified at the family level classification: -

- a) Mixed Hyperthermic, typic Udipsamments – which occurs in narrow valleys especially on river courses in a very limited area.
- b) Loamy Skeletal, mixed hyperthermic, lithic Udorthents – occurs only in ridge tops which have been severely eroded due to indiscriminate felling of forests. The soils have coherent strata with 50-cm. thickness. Exposed rock sequences are seen at few places.
- c) Loamy Skeletal mixed hyperthermic, typic Udorthents – these soils have been encountered in erosional areas on ridge tops and terraces. These are found as dominant units on ridges, which are under scrubs. The soils are having 40 to 60 per cent of coarse gravels. These soils can support good vegetation if properly managed.

**Inceptisols:** This order of soils occurs widely in a sub-humid region. The common horizon sequence is an ochric epipedon over a Cambic horizon. Freely drained inceptisols are classified as Ochrepts. The following families of sub-group typic Dystrochrepts have been identified in Mizoram.

- a) Loamy Skeletal, mixed hypothermic typic Dystrochrepts - found on the concave part of the slope in narrow patches of hill top ridges.

Generally, these soils are deep with 40-50 cm. thick solum, below which weathered soft rocks are found. They are well suited for forest species.

- b) Fine, loamy, mixed hyperthermic, typic Dystrochrepts - commonly occurring on the steep slopes in narrow valleys and on terraces. They are generally covered with dense scrubs and grasses. The soils are fine, loamy in texture with a few rock fragments.

**Ultisols:** Ultisols are commonly found on the footslopes. The soils have horizons, which are rich in translocated Silicate clays. The main sub-orders of these soils are Aquults, Humults and Udults.

- (a) Aquults - Only one family of this sub-order, i.e. mixed hyperthermic, fine loamy, typic Palequults have been found to exist in Mizoram. It is found in the flat lands.

- (b) Humults - Only one family of this sub-order has been identified. These soils are rich in humus and generally support rain forests.

- (c) Udults - is fairly widespread in Mizoram. They are fairly drained, poor in humus, associated with humid climate with high rainfall.

To summarize, the hilly terrain, where the slopes are steep to very steep, consists mainly of Hapludults, Paleudults and Palchumults. These soils are highly leached, poor in bases, rich in iron and low in pH value.

They have wider occurrence as compared to other soil types. In narrow valleys, the soils are young and sandy. The extents are very much limited and are of least importance for land use. The soils in flat lands are poorly drained and have high ground water-table.

The soils of Mizoram as a whole are well-drained except in a few flat lands, and are capable of providing substantial oxygen supply for plant growth. The soils of the region also have capability to retain soil moisture and maintain its supply throughout the growing season of normal crops. They have low inherent fertility in the form of poor supply of base and mineral reserves. This implies the necessity of inputs and proper management for utilization.

### 2.1.5 State Income

About one-third of the total Net State Domestic Product (N.S.D.P.) is contributed by agriculture and its allied sectors and an almost similar share is from public administration and other services (Table 2.2). The Per Capita Income of Mizoram at current prices was Rs. 1,289 in 1980-1981, and this increased to Rs.12,535 in 1998-1999 (Table 2.3).

**Table 2.2**  
**NET STATE DOMESTIC PRODUCT OF MIZORAM**  
**(At Current Prices)**

Sl. No.	Industry Group	1984 - 1985 (in lakh Rs.)	1997 - 1998 (in lakh Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	Agriculture, Forestry and Logging, Fishing, Mining and Quarrying	3,461 (33.75%) of N.S.D.P.	30,126 (30.05%) of N.S.D.P.
2.	Manufacturing, Construction, Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	1,842 (17.96%) of N.S.D.P.	12,561 (12.53%) of N.S.D.P.
3.	Transport, Communication and Trade	1,362 (13.28%) of N.S.D.P.	16,454 (16.41%) of N.S.D.P.
4.	Banking and Insurance, Real Estate, Ownership of Dwelling & Business Services	182 (1.77%) of N.S.D.P.	12,162 (12.13%) of N.S.D.P.
5.	Public Administrations and Other Services	3,409 (33.24%) of N.S.D.P.	28,963 (28.89%) of N.S.D.P.
<b>TOTAL :</b>		<b>10,256</b>	<b>1,00,266</b>

*Source:* Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Mizoram.

**Table 2.3**

**STATE DOMESTIC PRODUCT (G.S.D.P. & N.S.D.P.) AND PER CAPITA  
INCOME OF MIZORAM AT CURRENT PRICES (1980-1981 TO 1998-1999)**

Sl. No.	Year	Total G.S.D.P. (in lakh Rs.)	Total N.S.D.P. (in lakh Rs.)	Per Capita Income (in Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	1980-1981	6,807	6,218	1,289
2.	1981-1982	7,753	7,005	1,383
3.	1982-1983	8,736	7,766	1,471
4.	1983-1984	10,602	9,471	1,724
5.	1984-1985	13,535	10,256	1,773
6.	1985-1986	18,126	15,725	2,658
7.	1986-1987	21,435	19,413	3,165
8.	1987-1988	28,559	25,886	4,077
9.	1988-1989	29,432	26,007	4,026
10.	1989-1990	31,177	28,076	4,135
11.	1990-1991	34,084	30,560	4,474
12.	1991-1992	46,511	41,733	5,941
13.	1992-1993	53,276	47,810	5,699
14.	1993-1994	71,146	61,812	8,158
15.	1994-1995	73,877	67,178	8,558
16.	1995-1996	93,654	85,874	10,563
17.	1996-1997	1,07,234	98,293	11,648
18.	1997-1998	1,12,319	1,02,239	11,667
19.	1998-1999	1,24,590	1,13,896	12,535

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2000.  
2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.

## **2.2 Population and Demographic Trends**

### **2.2.1 Population Trends**

The State of Mizoram is sparsely populated. It is one of the least populated states of India. It ranks the third last among the 28 states and 7 union territories of India in population size. According to the 2001

Census (Provisional), the population of Mizoram is 8,91,058 (Table 2.4), while that of the Indian Union is 1,027,015,247. The State of

**Table 2.4**  
**DECADAL AND CENTENNIAL VARIATION IN THE POPULATION**  
**OF MIZORAM SINCE 1901**

Dist- rict/ State	Year of Cen- sus	Male Popu- lation	Female Popu- lation	Total Number of Persons	Decadal Variation	Percen- tage Decadal Varia- tion	Lite- racy Percen- tage	Den- sity of Popu- lation per Sq. km.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
LUSHAI HILLS DISTRICT/ MIZO DISTRICT/ MIZORAM	1901	39,004	43,430	82,434	-	-	N.A.	N.A.
	1911	43,028	48,176	91,204	+ 8,770	+10.64	N.A.	N.A.
	1921	46,462	51,754	98,406	+ 7,202	+ 7.90	N.A.	N.A.
	1931	59,186	65,218	1,24,404	+ 25,998	+ 26.42	N.A.	N.A.
	1941	73,855	78,931	1,52,786	+ 28,382	+ 22.81	N.A.	N.A.
	1951	96,136	1,00,066	1,96,202	+ 43,416	+ 28.42	31.13	9
	1961	1,32,465	1,33,598	2,66,063	+ 69,861	+ 35.61	44.01	13
	1971	1,70,824	1,61,566	3,32,390	+ 66,327	+ 24.93	53.79	16
	1981	2,57,239	2,36,518	4,93,757	+1,61,367	+ 48.55	59.88	23
	1991	3,58,978	3,30,778	6,89,756	+1,95,999	+ 39.69	82.27	33
2001	4,59,782	4,31,276	8,91,058	+2,01,302	+ 29.18	88.49	42	

- Source:*
1. Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram.
  2. Census of India.

Mizoram, therefore, accounts for only 0.08 per cent of the total population of India. The density of population per square kilometre in Mizoram as per 2001 Census (Provisional) is 42, while it is 324 in the country.

Mizoram has a conspicuously high percentage of tribal population. Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes together account for 93.58 per cent of the total population of Mizoram in 1981, which is highest in the nation (23.51 per cent). It is followed by Nagaland with 83.99 per cent and Meghalaya with 80.99 per cent. According to the 1981 Census, there were 4,61,913 persons categorised under Scheduled Tribes, and 135 persons belonging to Scheduled Castes in Mizoram. The percentage of Scheduled Tribe to the total population of the state is 93.55, while that of Scheduled Caste is 0.02 only.

According to 1981 Census, 75 per cent of the population of Mizoram lived in the rural areas indicating a rural dominance of population. However, the 1991 Census figure showed that 3,71,810 persons were living in the rural areas and 3,17,946 were living in the urban areas (Table 2.5). This works out to 53.90 per cent of the population living in the rural areas and 46.10 per cent living in the urban areas. In other words, population in the urban areas has registered a phenomenal growth rate of 161.01 per cent during 1981-1991.

The growth of urbanization is the fall out of industrial prosperity. However, this is not the only reason for the rapid growth of urban

population in the state. There are certain factors apparent towards this phenomenon, such as:

- a) Addition of new towns to the already existing towns during the last Census;
- b) Expansion of areas of the towns already existing during the last Census; and
- c) Phenomenon of high birth rate and low death rate in the urban areas existing during the period.

Prior to 1971, there was only one class IV town in the whole state, i.e. Aizawl. At present, there are 22 towns recognised as towns.

**Table 2.5**

**RURAL AND URBAN COMPOSITION OF POPULATION AND  
DECADAL GROWTH OF URBAN POPULATION IN MIZORAM (1951-  
2001)**

<b>Year of Census</b>	<b>Number of Towns</b>	<b>Total Population</b>	<b>Rural Population</b>	<b>Urban Population</b>	<b>Percentage of Rural Population</b>	<b>Percentage of Urban Population</b>	<b>Decadal Growth Rate of Urban Population (%)</b>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1951	1	1,96,202	1,89,252	6,950	96.46	3.54	
1961	1	2,66,063	2,51,806	14,257	94.64	3.36	+105.85
1971	2	3,32,390	2,94,631	37,759	88.64	11.36	+164.85
1981	6	4,93,757	3,71,943	1,21,814	75.33	24.67	+222.61
1991	22	6,89,756	3,71,810	3,17,946	53.90	46.10	+161.01
2001	22	8,91,058	4,50,018	4,41,040	50.50	49.50	+ 38.71

- Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1987, 1992 and 2002.  
2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.  
3. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 - '01

Some other notable features of urbanisation in Mizoram are mentioned below: -

1. Aizawl, the state capital, is the biggest town. It is more than five times bigger than the second largest town, Lunglei. Nearly half of the total urban population of the state resides in Aizawl town alone.
2. Although towns of Mizoram are comparatively small in population, yet, they cover extensive areas. For instance, Aizawl covers 110 sq. kms., Lunglei covers 85 sq. kms., and Saiha covers 53 sq. kms. There are abundant urban lands in all the towns of Mizoram for further development.

### **2.2.2 Occupational Structure**

The cultivators in the state constitute 60.89 per cent of the total main workers as against the all-India figure of 38.75 per cent in 1991 (Table 2.6). Another 34.13 per cent of the main workers are engaged in tertiary activities. Agricultural labourers account for 3.73 per cent and household industrial workers 1.25 per cent of the total workers.

The proportion of cultivators among the main workers in Mizoram has declined significantly since 1971. In 1971, as much as 83.53 per cent of the workers were cultivators, in 1981, it declined to 70.63 per cent, in 1991, it declined further to 60.89 per cent, and ultimately in 2001, it

declined further to 53.91 per cent. The percentage decline of workers in the agricultural sector has been much more in the case of Mizoram than the country as a whole.

**Table 2.6**  
**PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS:**  
**MIZORAM AND INDIA (1971 - 2001)**

Occupation	Percentage of Workers to Total Main Workers							
	1971		1981		1991		2001 (Provisional)	
	Mizo- ram	India	Mizo- ram	India	Mizo- ram	India	Mizo- ram	India
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Cultivators	83.53	40.08	70.63	41.58	60.89	38.75	53.91	N.A.
Agricultural Labourers	0.37	26.69	2.49	24.94	3.73	26.15	5.85	N.A.
Workers in Household Industry	0.32	3.57	0.85	3.47	1.25	3.63	1.40	N.A.
Other Workers	15.78	26.66	26.03	30.01	34.13	31.47	38.84	N.A.

*Note:* N.A. = Not Available.

*Source:* 1. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000-'01.

2. Census of India, 1991 Series 17, Mizoram, Paper I of  
1991 Supplement Provisional Population Total p. 24.

The non-agricultural working population increased from 16.10 per cent in 1971 to 35.38 per cent in 1991 and it increased further to 40.24 per cent in 2001. This rate of growth is much faster than the country as a whole. The proportions of workers in other categories have, therefore, shown a definite upward trend. In other words, sectors other than the

traditional ones have started to gradually absorb more and more labour force.

**Table 2.7**

**PERCENTAGE OF MALE AND FEMALE WORKERS IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS TO TOTAL MAIN WORKERS IN MIZORAM (1981-1991)**

Occupation Category	Cultivators		Agricultural labourers		Workers in Household Industry		Other Workers	
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Male	61.38	52.59	2.67	3.96	0.74	1.24	35.21	42.21
Female	86.31	73.83	2.16	3.38	1.05	1.25	10.48	21.54
<b>Total</b>	<b>70.64</b>	<b>60.89</b>	<b>2.48</b>	<b>3.73</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>1.25</b>	<b>26.03</b>	<b>34.13</b>

*Source:* Census of India 1991, Series 17, Mizoram, Paper I of 1991  
Supplement Provisional population Total p. 25.

There are more female cultivators than male cultivators (Table 2.7), while males dominate the 'Other Workers' category.

The occupational structure of Mizoram is depicted by the following bar chart: -

**Figure 2.1**  
**PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS**  
**IN MIZORAM (1971 - 2001)**

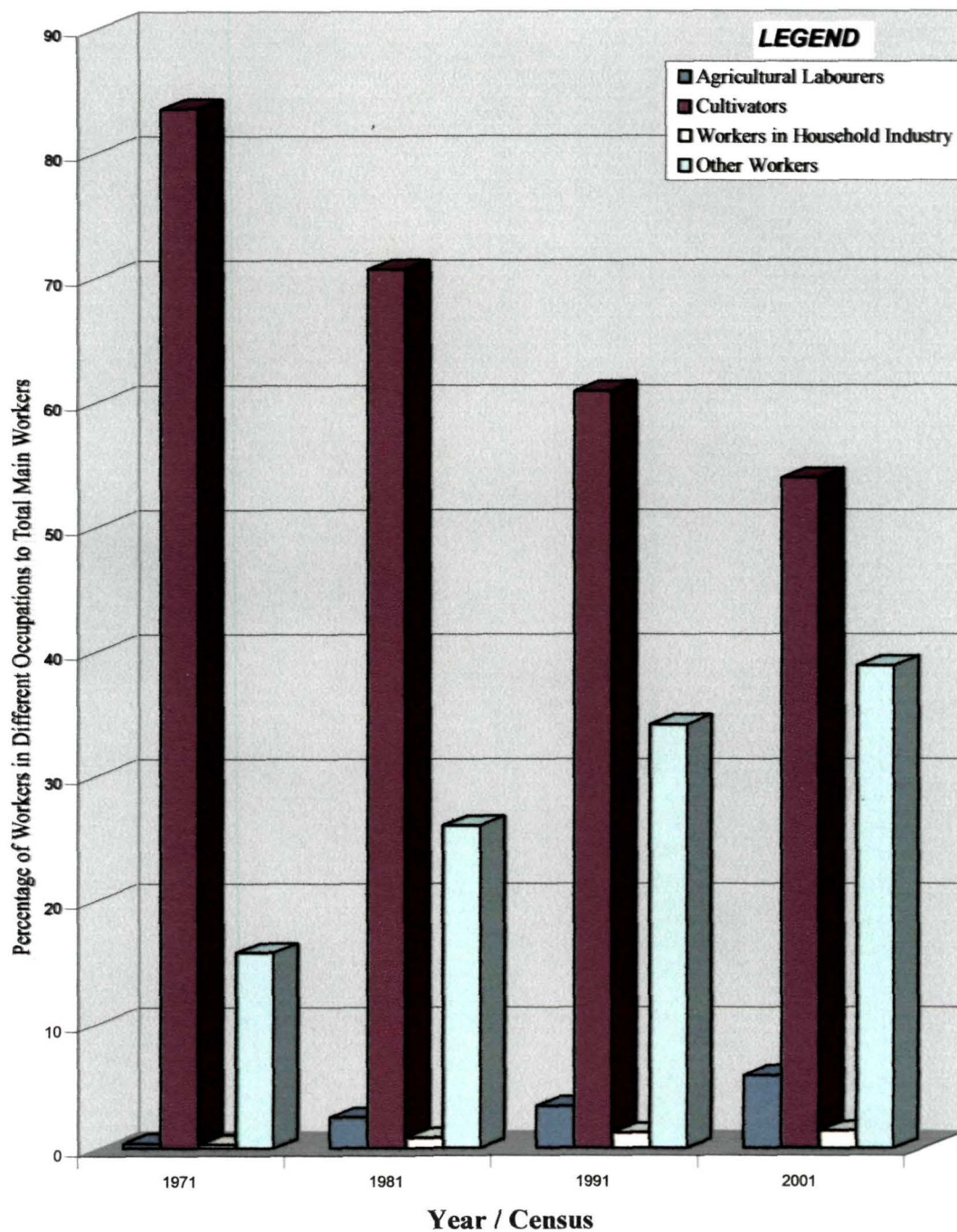


Table 2.8 gives the break-up of workers in the government, semi-government, autonomous bodies and the banking & insurance sectors. The percentage of government and semi-government employees to the total population of Mizoram has remained stable at 5.5. The percentage of government and semi-government employees to the total main workers of the state is about 12. The number of female employees under the State Government, Central Government, Semi-Government, Banking and Insurance is increasing gradually and steadily in the state.

**Table 2. 8**  
**CENSUS OF GOVT./SEMI-GOVT. EMPLOYEES IN MIZORAM**  
**(1993-1999)**

Statutory	1993			1997			1999		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
State Government	26,936	7,740	34,676	34,212	9,051	43,263	31,171	9,467	40,638
Central Government	2,949	186	3,135	2,544	165	2,709	3,762	278	4,040
Semi-Government	323	130	453	606	220	826	525	254	779
Autonomous Dist. Council	808	204	1,012	2,586	607	3,193	2,175	530	2,705
Banking & Insurance	308	100	408	375	131	506	586	196	782
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>31,324</b>	<b>8,360</b>	<b>39,684</b>	<b>40,323</b>	<b>10,174</b>	<b>50,497</b>	<b>38,219</b>	<b>10,725</b>	<b>48,944</b>

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1993, 1998, & 2000.  
2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.

### 2.2.3 Birth and Death Rates

The birth and death rates at the national level have shown downward trend since 1951. Both the birth and death rates are lower in Mizoram than at the national level (Table 2.9). While the birth rate has declined from 22.0 per cent in 1991 to 17.0 per cent in 1999, the death rate has increased from 4.1 per cent to 5.5 per cent during the same period.

**Table 2.9**

**BIRTH AND DEATH RATES IN MIZORAM (1991, 1999 & 2001)**

Mizoram /India	Year	Rural		Urban		Over-all / Combined	
		Birth Rate	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Death Rate
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mizoram	1991	24.31	5.06	19.52	2.96	22.0	4.1
India	1991	-	-	-	-	30.0	10.0
Mizoram	1999 (Provisional)	18.7	6.9	14.8	3.7	17.0	5.5
India	1999	-	-	-	-	26.1	8.7
Mizoram	2001 (Provisional)	18.85	3.74	24.97	5.30	21.88	4.51

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1992 & 2002.  
 2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.  
 3. Office of Registrar General, and Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Annual Report (2000 – '01).

## 2.2.4 Sex Ratio

The sex ratio, unlike other states of the North-Eastern Region, is almost equal in Mizoram. The ratio of sex (number of females per 1,000 males) in Mizoram was 1,040 in 1951, and now stands at 938 (2001 Census Provisional) (Table 2.10). The corresponding national

**Table 2.10**

**VITAL POPULATION STATISTICS OF MIZORAM (1951-2001)**

Census/Year	Total Population	Decadal Growth Rate of Population	Literacy Rate	Density of Population per sq. km.	Sex Ratio i.e., Number of Females per 1000 Males.	Percentage of Urban Population to Total Population	Decadal Growth Rate of Urban Population	Percentage of Main Workers to Total Population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1951	1,96,202	+28.42	31.13	9	1,040	3.54	-	N.A.
1961	2,66,063	+35.61	44.01	13	1,008	5.36	+105.14	47.23
1971	3,32,390	+24.93	53.79	16	945	11.36	+164.85	45.61
1981	4,93,757	+48.55	59.88	23	919	24.67	+222.61	41.73
1991	6,89,756	+39.69	82.27	33	921	46.20	+160.27	42.09
2001	8,91,058	+29.18	88.49	42	938	49.50	+38.71	40.83

- Note:* 1. Literacy rates for 1951 and 1971 relate to population aged 5 and above. The rates for the years 1981, 1991 and 2001 relate to population aged 7 and above.  
2. The term, "Main workers" is used for 1981, 1991 and 2001 Census. In case of the previous ones, the reference is to workers only.

- Source:* 1. Census of India 1961 Mizo Hills.  
2. Census of India 1981 Series 31 Mizoram.  
3. Census of India 1991 Series 17 Mizoram. Provisional population totals.  
4. Census of India 2001 Provisional population totals.  
5. Mizoram at a glance 2001.  
6. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 - '01.  
7. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2002.

figures for 1951 and 2001 are 946 and 933 respectively. It is observed that the sex ratio in Mizoram exhibits a downward trend during 1951–1981 while it exhibits an upward trend during 1981–2001.

### **2.2.5 Migration of Population**

According to the 1981 Census, 33,538 persons comprising of 6.79 per cent of the total population were born outside Mizoram (Table 2.11 & 2.12). Migration is not significant in this state due to political restrictions. Of the total migrants, 75.01 per cent are from other states and union territories of India, and international migrants comprised of 24.99 per cent of the total migrants.

The movement of population within the state or internal migration rate is estimated at 3.40 per cent. Internal migration in rural areas tends to be higher with 3.61 per cent, while it is only 2.62 per cent in the urban areas.

The inflow of national migrants is more from the adjoining states like Assam (18.64 per cent) and Tripura (18.62 per cent). A considerable number of migrants came from Bihar (12.14 per cent) and Uttar Pradesh (5.05 per cent). Migrants from Assam and Tripura are found to be engaged in clerical and construction works, as well as in business, as skilled and semi-skilled labourers. The migrants from

**Table 2.11**  
**POPULATION OF MIZORAM CLASSIFIED BY PLACE OF BIRTH AND**  
**PLACE OF ENUMERATION (1981)**

Place of Birth			Total Popula- tion of Mizoram	Total	Rural	Urban
				4,93,757	3,71,943	1,21,814
A	I.	<b>Within the State of enumeration</b>	Total	4,60,219	3,49,612	1,10,607
			Rural	3,96,671	3,43,152	53,519
			Urban	63,004	5,956	57,048
	(a)	Born in the place of enumeration	Total	2,75,816	2,24,644	51,202
			Rural	2,24,644	2,24,644	-
			Urban	51,202	-	51,202
	(b)	Born elsewhere in the districts of enumeration	Total	1,67,554	1,14,462	53,092
			Rural	1,58,580	1,09,345	49,234
			Urban	8,606	4,776	2,932
	(c)	Born in other districts of the State	Total	16,819	10,506	6,313
			Rural	13,448	9,162	4,285
			Urban	3,195	1,181	2,014
	II.	States in India beyond Mizoram	Total	24,994	15,251	9,743
			Rural	18,166	12,836	5,330
			Urban	6,352	2,146	4,206
	(a)	Assam	Total	6,210	3,158	3,052
			Rural	3,796	2,482	1,315
			Urban	2,357	637	1,719
	(b)	Tripura	Total	6,204	5,933	271
			Rural	5,547	5,358	189
			Urban	457	377	80
(c)	Bihar	Total	4,044	2,489	1,555	
		Rural	3,625	2,350	1,275	
		Urban	349	120	229	
(d)	Uttar Pradesh	Total	1,683	936	747	
		Rural	1,319	608	711	
		Urban	331	125	206	
(e)	Others	Total	6,853	2,934	3,919	
		Rural	3,877	2,038	1,843	
		Urban	2,836	884	1,972	
B.	<b>Born in other country</b>		Total	8,545	7,079	1,463
	(a)	Bangladesh	Total	4,373	4,255	118
	(b)	Burma/Myanmar	Total	1,935	1,503	432
	(c)	Nepal	Total	1,927	N.A.	N.A.
	(d)	Elsewhere	Total	93	89	6

Source: Migration Tables, Census of India, 1981. Series 31, Mizoram. pp. 19-23.

Table 2.12

## PERCENTAGE OF IN-MIGRANTS BY PLACE OF BIRTH TO TOTAL

Place of birth		Actual (Total)	Total (%)	Rural (%)	Urban (%)
A	<b>States / U.T.'s in India Beyond Mizoram</b>	<b>24,994</b>	<b>75.01</b>	<b>54.16</b>	<b>18.91</b>
	1 Assam	6,210	18.64	9.48	9.16
	2 Tripura	6,204	18.62	17.81	0.81
	3 Bihar	4,044	12.14	7.47	4.67
	4 Uttar Pradesh	1,683	5.05	2.81	2.24
	5 Others	6,853	20.56	8.80	11.76
B	<b>Born in Other Countries Beyond India</b>	<b>8,328</b>	<b>24.99</b>	<b>N.A.</b>	<b>N.A.</b>
	1 Bangladesh	4,373	13.12	N.A.	N.A.
	2 Burma/Myanmar	1,935	5.81	N.A.	N.A.
	3 Nepal	1,927	5.78	N.A.	N.A.
	4 Elsewhere	93	0.28	N.A.	N.A.
C	<b>Total of A and B</b>	<b>33,322</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>N.A.</b>	<b>N.A.</b>

## MIGRANTS (PERCENTAGE TO TOTAL IN-MIGRANTS) IN MIZORAM

*Note:* N.A. = Not Available.

*Source:* Calculated from Migration Tables, Mizoram, Census of India, 1981, Series 31 Mizoram, pp. 19-23.

Bihar and Uttar Pradesh are found engaged in repairing and construction works as semi-skilled and manual labourers. It is to be noted here that the migrants mostly settled down in rural areas where they could engage themselves in tertiary activities that were not normally practised by the local inhabitants.

Bangladesh accounted for 13.12 per cent of the total migrants to Mizoram, or 52.51 per cent of the migrants from abroad. Most of these migrants belong to the Chakma community. They are mostly dependent

on jhum cultivation. Migrants from Myanmar constituted 5.81 per cent of total migrants (1981 Census) and Nepal contributed 5.78 per cent of total migrants in Mizoram.

### 2.2.6 Growth of Literacy

The growth of literacy in Mizoram is spectacular and amazing. It started with less than 1 per cent in 1901 and now ranks second in the country with 88.49 per cent (Table 2.13) next only to Kerala (90.92 per cent). The male literacy in this state is 90.69 per cent, while the female literacy is 86.13 per cent.

**Table 2.13**

**GROWTH OF LITERACY IN MIZORAM (1951 – 2001)**

Year of Census	Total Population	Total Number of Male Literates	Total Number of Female Literates	Number of Literates per 1,000 Persons			Rate of Literacy in Percentage		
				Male	Female	Combined	Male	Female	Combined
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1951	1,96,202	44,415	16,711	462	167	311	46.15	16.70	31.13
1961	2,66,063	70,736	46,358	534	347	440	53.40	34.69	44.01
1971	3,32,390	1,03,348	75,451	605	467	538	60.48	46.70	53.79
1981	4,93,757	1,65,919	1,29,848	645	549	599	64.45	54.91	59.88
1991	6,89,756	3,07,285	2,59,991	856	786	823	85.60	78.60	82.27
2001	8,91,058	4,17,022	3,71,329	907	861	885	90.69	86.13	88.49

*Source:* Mizoram at a glance 2001.

### 2.2.7 Poverty and Unemployment

The number of persons living below the poverty line in 1999- 2000 in Mizoram is 1.8 lakhs (Table 2.14). The poverty ratio in the state is 19.5

per cent, which is lower than the all-India average (26.1 per cent). The figure of the Planning Commission differs from that of the State Government. This will be discussed in subsequent chapters.

**Table 2.14**  
**PLANNING COMMISSION ESTIMATE OF POPULATION**  
**BELOW POVERTY LINE**

India/ Mizoram	Number of Persons in lakh			Poverty Ratio (% of Population)			Poverty Reduction	
	1987 to 1988	1993 to 1994	1999 to 2000	1987 to 1988	1993 to 1994	1999 to 2000	1987-88 to 1993-94	1993-94 to 1999-00
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
India	3,070.5	3,203.7	2,602.5	38.9	36.0	26.1	2.9	9.9
Mizoram	1.7	1.9	1.8	27.5	25.7	19.5	1.8	6.2

*Source:* Planning Commission, (1998) Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002), Vol. 1 and Press Release of the Planning Commission dt. 22<sup>nd</sup>. of February 2001 regarding Poverty Estimates for 1999-2000.

In the following Table 2.15, the magnitude and growth of unemployment in the state during the last two decades (1980-2000) is highlighted. As per the Live Register in the state, the number of unemployed has risen from 14,040 persons in 1980 to 96,233 in 2000 (Table 2.15). The maximum numbers of unemployed in the year 2000 are the unskilled workers or those who have read below Class X (40,107 persons). This is followed by those who have passed their H.S.L.C. Examinations (27,010 persons). There are also 699 post-graduates who are jobless as on April 01, 2000.

**Table 2.15**  
**EMPLOYMENT: LIVE REGISTER, MIZORAM (1980-2000)**

Sl. No.	Qualification	As on 31.3.1980	As on 01.4.1985	As on 01.4.1991	As on 31.3.1996	As on 01.4.2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1.	Unskilled / Below Cl. X / Below H.S.L.C	7,403	N.A.	17,910	17,424	40,107
2.	H.S.L.C.	5,400	4,622	10,222	16,333	27,010
3.	P.U.C.	363	955	2,609	4,543	12,519
4.	B.A.	223	831	1,700	2,163	6,335
5.	B.Sc.	7	22	138	196	507
6.	B.Com.	6	12	86	80	315
7.	B.Ed./ B.P.Ed., etc.	-	5	211	97	134
8.	B.Sc.(Agri.)	-	-	-	78	129
9.	M.B.B.S.	-	-	-	15	47
10.	B.E./B.Tech/B.Arch	-	-	-	87	188
11.	B.V.Sc.	-	-	-	10	22
12.	L.L.B.	-	-	-	-	14
13.	B.D.S.	-	-	-	-	20
14.	M.A.	36	58	225	119	530
15.	M.Sc.	1	7		48	108
16.	M.Com.	-	-		13	25
17.	M.Ed.	-	-		2	15
18.	M.Sc. (Agri.)	-	-		-	14
19.	M.B.A.	-	-	-	3	7
20.	Drivers	232	N.A.	1,987	1,772	2,735
21.	Physically Handicapped	-	-	64	63	95
22.	Passed-out Trainees	369	N.A.	2,151	2,754	4,416
23.	Others	-	-	-	9	941
<b>TOTAL:</b>		<b>14,040</b>	<b>6,512</b>	<b>37,303</b>	<b>45,809</b>	<b>96,233</b>

*Source:* Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1981, 1983, 1985, 1996 & 2000.

### 2.2.8 Labour Composition

The total number of healthy persons with capability to work constitutes the human resources of a country. Thus the human resources

of a state include all those persons with the ability to work, that is, those who are actually at work and those who are not at work due to reasons other than ill-health.

The workforce of a country represents the number of people actually at work during some particular period. The workforce of Mizoram according to the 1991 census was 42.09 per cent, which was slightly higher than that of the 1981 census (41.73 per cent). However, the workforce of this state according to the 2001 census (Provisional) was 40.83 per cent, which was slightly lower than that of the 1981 census. Table 2.16, presented below, shows that the workforce in Mizoram was ever higher during 1971 census with 45.61 per cent of the population comprising the workforce. The decline in 1981 was not due to depletion of working population, but was on account of a change in conceptual definition of workers in the later census.

The workforce of Mizoram which had declined in 1981 census from 1971 census level has shown a marginal improvement in 1991. The increase is mainly due to increase in participation rate of females as main workers. It is also to be noted that while the workforce of Mizoram has been much more than the corresponding rate for India as a whole and while workforce for females has been at a much higher level

**Table 2.16**  
**WORKFORCE OF MIZORAM AND ALL-INDIA (1971-2001)**  
**(PROPORTION OF MAIN WORKERS TO TOTAL POPULATION)**

Total Workforce Male / Female	Percentage of Main Workers to Total Population							
	1971		1981		1991		2001 (Provisional)	
	Mizo- ram	India	Mizo- ram	India	Mizo- ram	India	Mizo- ram	India
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Male Workers	51.43	52.61	50.39	52.60	49.59	51.60	49.29	51.90
Female Workers	39.46	12.06	32.32	19.70	33.95	22.70	31.82	25.70
Total Workers	45.61	33.06	41.73	36.70	42.09	37.70	40.83	39.20

- Source:* 1. Census of India, 1991.  
2. Registrar General of India.  
3. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 – '01.

in Mizoram than in the country as a whole, the patterns of decline for male workers, both for India and Mizoram, have been almost identical.

The total number of workers in Mizoram in 1981 was 2,24,367, of which 2,06,064 were the main workers and 18,303 were the marginal workers. The total population of Mizoram being 4,93,757, the rate of work participation was 45.44 per cent and the population of non-workers was 2,69,390. As against this, the total number of workers in Mizoram in 2001 was 4,69,597, of which 3,63,858 were the main workers and 1,05,739 were the marginal workers. The total population of Mizoram being 8,91,058, the rate of work participation was 52.70 per cent and the population of non-workers was 4,21,461.

## 2.3 Infrastructure

### 2.3.1 Power and Electricity

Out of 699 inhabited villages in the state, 691 have been electrified (Government of Mizoram, 2001). The installed power capacity is 34.35 megawatts (Diesel: 26.15 megawatts and Hydel: 8.20 megawatts) (Government of Mizoram 2000-2001) as in 2001. The net

**Table 2.17**

**CATEGORY – WISE CONSUMPTION OF ELECTRICITY IN MIZORAM**

Sl. No.	Category	Unit	1991	1995-1996	2000-2001
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	Domestic	MKWH/GWH/ Milion Units	31.99	68.494	96.97
2.	Commercial	“	2.84	8.914	7.04
3.	Public Lighting	“	3.81	6.534	10.84
4.	Industrial (LT)	“	1.04	4.384	1.88
5.	Public Water Works	“	5.50	11.384	14.62
6.	Bulk Supply	“	1.54	4.834	6.05
<b>Total</b>		“	<b>46.72</b>	<b>104.540</b>	<b>137.40</b>

*Source:* Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000-'01.

generation of electricity with imports for the same period was 254.91 million units (Diesel: 5.87 million units, Hydel: 6.58 million units and Imports: 242.46 million units). The total consumption of electricity is 137.40 MKWH, with domestic consumption alone being 96.97 MKWH (Table 2.17).

### 2.3.2 Industries

In Mizoram, industrialization is still at an infantile stage. The entire state had been notified as industrially backward area and categorized as 'No Industry District' due to non-existence of a large-scale or medium-scale industry. As such, Mizoram continues to remain an industrially backward state.

**Table 2. 18**  
**NUMBER OF INDUSTRIES IN MIZORAM**

Year	Number of Units			Industrial Institution	Remarks
	Large	Medium	Small		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
As on 31/03/1994	-	-	2,621	14	-
As on 31/03/1995	-	-	2,759	-	-
As on 31/03/1996	-	-	3,087	-	-
As on 31/03/2001	-	-	4,600	14	-

*Source:* Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 – '01.

The state has 4,600 registered small-scale and cottage industrial units as on March 31, 2001 (Table 2.18). The main units are Tailoring, Furniture Workshop, Knitting & Embroidery, Bakery, Automobile Workshop, Handloom, Candle-Making and Blacksmithy, and these account for more than 80 per cent of the total industrial units in the state.

### 2.3.3 Transport and Communication

The location and topography of Mizoram have hindered the development of transport system to a great extent, thereby creating a bottleneck for the economic progress of the state. Road transport occupies the most important means of communication as there are practically no other means of transport. There is one airport at Lengpui 40 kilometres away from the capital Aizawl where the airline service connects Kolkata thrice in a week. Since 1991, Mizoram has figured in the railway map of India. However, the total railway line extended to Mizoram is only 1.5 kilometres, with a small railway station at Bairabi in the northern fringe of the state. This is a metre gauge line extended from Katakhal junction (Assam) under NF Railway. One mixed train carrying both goods and passengers arrives at this station once everyday.

**Table 2.19**

**ROAD LENGTH OF NH 54 IN MIZORAM**

<b>Sl.No.</b>	<b>Particulars</b>	<b>Surfaced</b>	<b>Unsurfaced</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Under B.R.O./B.R.T.F.	559 km.	-	559 km.
2.	Under State P.W.D.	270 km.	-	270 km.
<b>Total:</b>		<b>829 km.</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>829 km.</b>

*Source:* Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2000.

Mizoram is connected with Assam through one national highway whose total length is 829 kilometres within the state (Table 2.19). Road

construction activities in Mizoram are mainly undertaken by the Public Works Department (P.W.D.) and Border Road Organisation (B.R.O.).

**Table 2.20**  
**ROAD IN MIZORAM AS ON 31 – 03 - 2001**

Sl. No.	Category /Type of Road	Length in Km.	Percentage Share
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	National Highway (Under B.R.O./ B.R.T.F.)	559.00	12.09
2.	National Highway (Under State P.W.D.)	270.00	5.84
3.	State Highway	169.76	3.67
4.	Major District Road	1,105.90	23.92
5.	Other District Road	711.61	15.39
6.	Village Road	1,053.01	22.78
7.	Satellite Town & Village Road	213.86	4.63
8.	Town Road	540.23	11.68
<b>Total:</b>		<b>4,623.37</b>	<b>100.00</b>

*Source:* Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 – '01.

Arterial road network of Mizoram are classified as National Highway, State Highway, Major District Road, Other District Road, Village Road, Town Road, and Satellite Town & Village Road. Many other unclassified roads linking villages and economically potential areas are also maintained by the Agriculture Department, Environment & Forest Department and Rural Development Department.

By the end of 2000-2001, the total length of classified roads under the State P.W.D. was 4,064.37 kilometres (Table 2.20) and the total length of national highway was 829 kilometres (270 under P.W.D. + 559 under B.R.O./B.R.T.F.). Therefore, the total length of road network of

classified roads in the state both under P.W.D. and B.R.O./B.R.T.F. as on March 31, 2001 was 4,623.37 kilometres.

The national highway is an all-weathered, truckable metalled road, while other roads including the state highways are both surfaced and unsurfaced. Out of the total length of these roads (3,794.37 kms.), 1,950 kilometres (51.39 per cent) were surfaced and the rest 1,844.37 kilometres (48.61 per cent) were unsurfaced.

The only and the most important means of communication for the transportation of goods as well as passengers within the state is road transport. Besides private transport operators, the Mizoram State Transport (M.S.T.) under the State Government has been operating bus service for the movement of passenger traffic within and outside the state for the last three decades. Upto 31-03-2001, the State Transport Department has been running a fleet of 79 buses to a total number of 45 destinations. The total route length covered by the M.S.T. as on 31-03-2001 was 5,552 kilometres.

There were a total of 26,333 vehicles in the state as on March 31, 2000, the majority being two-wheelers (Table 2.21).

Table 2.21

## NUMBER OF VEHICLES IN MIZORAM AS ON 31-03-2000

Sl. No.	Type of Vehicle	Private	Government	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Two-Wheeler	11,267	538	11,805
2.	Car	2,494	233	2,727
3.	Taxi	2,013	-	2,013
4.	Jeep	2,423	1,106	3,519
5.	Gypsy	1,733	1,011	2,744
6.	Jonga	97	-	97
7.	One-Tonner	277	46	323
8.	M.M.V. Truck	353	119	472
9.	M.M.V. Bus	268	117	385
10.	H.M.V. Truck	1,058	73	1,131
11.	H.M.V. Bus	145	105	250
12.	Tourist Bus	4	-	4
13.	Night Bus	25	-	25
14.	Tractor	146	34	180
15.	Maxi Cab	110	-	110
16.	Auto-Rickshaw	216	-	216
17.	Trailer	83	156	239
18.	Recovery Van	-	8	8
19.	Ambulance	-	25	25
20.	Fire Tender	-	9	9
21.	Prison Van	-	6	6
22.	4 - Van	-	9	9
23.	Sumo	-	5	5
24.	Tripper	-	4	4
25.	Tanker	-	11	11
26.	Road-Roller	-	1	1
27.	Others	15	-	15
<b>Total :</b>		<b>22,717</b>	<b>3,616</b>	<b>26,333</b>

Source: Mizoram at a Glance 2001.

### 2.3.4 Banking

Banking in Mizoram started with the opening of a branch of State Bank of India at Aizawl on December 30, 1971. There are a total of 90 bank branches in Mizoram (Table 2.22).

Table 2.22

## NUMBER OF BRANCHES OF COMMERCIAL BANKS IN MIZORAM

Sl. No.	Name of Commercial Banks	Number of Branches	Profit in the Previous Year (in lakh Rs.)	Loss in the Previous Year (in lakh Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Mizoram Co-operative Apex Bank	9	20.96	NIL
2.	Mizoram Rural Bank	54	61.26	NIL
3.	MUCO Bank	1	NIL	227.79
4.	Vijaya Bank	1	166.00	NIL
5.	United Commercial Bank	1	21.00	NIL
6.	State Bank of India	24	N.A.	N.A.
<b>Total:</b>		<b>90</b>	<b>269.22</b>	<b>227.79</b>

Source: Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2000.

### 2.3.5 Education

With the coming of Christian missionaries in Mizoram at the fag end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (i.e. 1894 A.D.), educational institution at primary level spread rapidly throughout the state. Roman script was introduced among the Mizos who had earlier no script of their own. In 1901, the literacy rate was only 0.09 per cent. This increased to 59.88 per cent in 1981 and further to 88.49 per cent in 2001.

At present, there are 2,410 schools, 30 colleges including one theological college, and one central university (Table 2.23). There are also a number of training institutes.

Table 2.23

## GROWTH OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN MIZORAM

Sl. No.	Levels of Institutions or Type of Schools	As on April 01, 1980			As on April 01, 2000		
		Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1.	Primary School	550	102	652	1,044	219	1,263
2.	Middle School	78	216	294	337	420	757
3.	High School	13	115	128	151	219	370
4.	Higher Secondary School	2	-	2	14	6	20
5.	College	2	6	8	8	21	29
6.	Theological College	-	1	1	-	1	1
7.	University	1	-	1	1	-	1
<b>TOTAL :</b>		<b>646</b>	<b>440</b>	<b>1,086</b>	<b>1,555</b>	<b>886</b>	<b>2,441</b>

Source: 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1981 & 2000.

2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.

### 2.3.6 Health

The number of medical institutions with bed-strength under the Government of Mizoram is presented in Table 2.24. There are seven Hospitals, eight Community Health Centres, forty three Primary Health Centres and thirteen Sub-Health Centres in Mizoram as on 01-04-2000 (Table 2.24), all these are government institutions. Besides these, there are five private medical hospitals, of which four are in the capital Aizawl. There is a total bed-strength of 1,816 (Government: 1,448 + Private: 368) in these facilities (Table 2.25).

**Table 2.24**  
**DITRICT-WISE NUMBER OF MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS WITH**  
**BED-STRENGTH UNDER GOVERNMENT OF MIZORAM**  
**(As on 1.4.2000)**

Name of District	General Hospital		Community Health Centre		Primary Health Centre		Sub-Health Centre		Main Centre	Health Sub-Centre
	No.	Bed-Strength	No.	Bed-Strength	No.	Bed-Strength	No.	Bed-Strength	No.	No.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Aizawl District	2	350	1	30	9	90	1	10	14	78
Lunglei District	2	130	2	60	7	70	1	10	12	67
Saiha District	1	60	-	-	4	40	1	10	8	33
CHamphai District	1	50	2	60	8	80	2	20	13	56
Serchhip District	1	42	-	-	3	30	3	30	7	28
Kolasib District	-	-	1	46	4	40	2	20	7	27
Mamit District	-	-	1	30	6	60	1	10	9	30
Lawngtlai District	-	-	1	30	2	20	2	20	5	27
<b>TOTAL :</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>632</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>430</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>346</b>

*Source:* Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2000.

**Table 2.25**  
**HOSPITALS / COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTRES (C.H.C.) IN MIZORAM**  
**AS ON 01-04-1999**

Sl. No.	Name of Hospital/ Community Health Centre	Bed-Strength	Govt. or Private	Name of District
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Aizawl Civil Hospital	300	Govt.	Aizawl
2.	Dist. T.B. Hospital, Zemabawk	65	Govt.	Aizawl
3.	Saitual C.H.C.	30	Govt.	Aizawl
4.	P.C. Synod Hospital, Durtlang	200	Private	Aizawl
5.	Greenwood Hospital	30	Private	Aizawl
6.	Seventh Day Hospital	14	Private	Aizawl
7.	AMSHA	10	Private	Aizawl
8.	Lunglei Civil Hospital	100	Govt.	Lunglei
9.	Christian Hospital, Serkawn	100	Private	Lunglei
10.	Leprosy Hospital, Tlabung	20	Govt.	Lunglei
11.	Tlabung C.H.C.	30	Govt.	Lunglei
12.	S. Vanlaiphai C.H.C.	30	Govt.	Lunglei
13.	CHamphai Hospital	60	Govt.	CHamphai
14.	Khawzawl C.H.C.	30	Govt.	CHamphai
15.	Ngopa C.H.C.	30	Govt.	CHamphai
16.	Kolasib C.H.C.	46	Govt.	Kolasib
17.	Serchhip Hospital	42	Govt.	Serchhip
18.	Mamit C.H.C.	30	Govt.	Mamit
19.	Lawngtlai C.H.C.	30	Govt.	Lawngtlai
20.	Saiha Civil Hospital	62	Govt.	Saiha
<b>Total:</b>		<b>1,786</b>		

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1998 & 2000.  
2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.

## 2.4 Land Utilisation and Land Tenure System

### 2.4.1 Resources

The resources of a state like land, soil, mineral, water, forest, etc., need some effort on the part of human beings to convert them into use. In other words, a society's resources may be said to consist not only of free

gifts of nature, such as land, forests and minerals, but also human resources, both mental and physical, and all sorts of man-made aids to further production, such as tools, machinery and building.

The resources of Mizoram can be broadly categorized under the following heads: 1. Land Resources, 2. Mineral Resources, 3. Water Resources, 4. Forest Resources, 5. Livestock Resources and 6. Fishery Resources.

**Land Resources:** In Mizoram, more than two-thirds of the total area is under forest, which is considerably higher than the national average (22 per cent). Out of the total geographical area of 2,108.700 thousand hectares, land not available (suitable) for cultivation is 130.390 thousand hectares and other uncultivated land is 58.410 thousand hectares, while fallow land is 192.094 thousand hectares. In other words, as much as 9.11 per cent of the total geographical area of Mizoram is fallow land. The net sown area is 101.331 thousand hectares that constitute only 4.81 per cent of the total geographical area of the state.

Out of 21 lakh hectares of land in Mizoram, 6,87,295 hectares have been covered under soil survey for land cultivation for different uses (1989). The following land evaluation and their distribution patterns are worked out for developmental activities like agriculture, horticulture, and

fodder and forestry development. The following table shows land evaluation and distribution pattern in Mizoram: -

**Table 2.26**  
**LAND EVALUATION AND DISTRIBUTION PATTERN IN**  
**MIZORAM**

SL. No.	Land Capacity Classes	Percentage Distribution	Expected Area to be Covered in the Whole State (Hectares)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	II	1.26	26,460
2.	III	9.43	1,98,030
3.	IV	18.23	3,82,830
4.	VI	11.08	2,32,680
5.	VII	57.75	12,12,750
6.	VIII	2.25	47,250

*Source: Agriculture Today in Mizoram, 1989*

On the basis of soil survey conducted, it is seen that Class I type of land is absent in Mizoram (Table 2.26). Class II and Class VIII types are also not much (1.26 and 2.25 per cent respectively). Class III, IV and VI are suitable for horticultural crops. This moderate sloped class comprised about 4.45 hectares.

About 63,000 hectares, i.e. 3 per cent of the total area of the state, is considered as available potential land for the cultivation of paddy and other seasonal crops. The area under permanent cultivation of paddy and other seasonal crops is 15,850 hectares and the area under horticulture is 6,760 hectares.

The potential area available for agriculture (Wet Rice Cultivation), terracing, horticulture and forestry in 1991 is as follows: -

1. 0-8 % slopes suited for W.R.C. is 50,021 hectares.
2. 8-20 % slope suited for terracing, plantation, etc., is 87,824 hectares.
3. 20-50 % slope suited for horticulture, etc., is 9,33,168 hectares.
4. Above 50 % slope suited for forestry is 9,88,369 hectares.

The final area and production of crops for the year 1990-1991, as per figures of the Directorate of Agriculture, Government of Mizoram, revealed that the net sown area is 76,078 hectares, gross cropped area is 87,000 hectares, and net irrigated area is 6,259 hectares. The forest area covered about 8, 50,600 hectares.

**Mineral Resources:** No major mineral deposits of economic importance have been reported so far in the state. However, special attention was given to locate mineral deposits by way of contacting the interested local people and carrying out systematic mapping in accordance with the field programme of Geological Survey of India (G.S.I.). Most of the land in Mizoram is composed of Surma sediments, which is an alternation of sandstone, siltstone and shally rocks. Shale limestone has been found at

Muthi, Tuirial Bridge, South Hlimen, CHamphai and Mamit areas. The  $\text{CaCO}_3$  content of the shale limestone is only 25 to 40 per cent. The Department of Industry, Government of Mizoram has taken up detailed investigation at Muthi and other areas in order to assess the quality and quantity of limestone. As per the investigation, the estimated reserve is about 1, 00,844 cu.m.

Out of the mineral deposits located so far, an occurrence of a 3m. long and 10cm. thick grey pyrite bearing lignite streak in ferruginous brownish yellow soft Boka hill sandstone at a place south of CHuhvel village and rare disseminations of pyrite in siltstone on the west bank of Dhaleswari River between Buichali Bridge and Lengpui along the road section deserve attention.

The massive, hard, compact bluish-ash to grey coloured lower and upper Bhuban sandstones are being used as road metal in different parts of Mizoram by the Border Road Task Force (B.R.T.F.). The quantities of these types of sandstone, though not estimated, are large. It can also be used for the construction of buildings.

Indications of the occurrence of oil, saline spring and a few gas seepages in the central part of northern Mizoram have been reported. The

Oil and Natural Gas Commission (O.N.G.C.) is now working in this area and has succeeded in locating several gas seepages.

**Water Resources:** Like air and food, water is essential for our survival. For the development of agriculture, fishery and animal husbandry, and for taking up many industrial projects, water is available both underground and overground. Average rainfall and soil condition affect the availability of water in a particular area and in different periods. Existence of waterfalls on the hill slopes may also encourage hydro-electric projects for generation of electric power. Water for irrigation purposes may be available both from surface-run water and underground water.

Though Mizoram receives quite a significant amount of rainfall each year, still the region experiences scarcity of water in the dry season due mainly to lack of storage facility and ignorance on the part of the people. There are innumerable rivers, streams, brooks and waterfalls which flow to the brim in the monsoon. Important rivers and their length in kilometres are: Tlawng – 185.15; Tiau – 159.39; CHhimtuipui – 138.46; Khawthlangtuipui – 128.08; Tuichang – 120.75; Tuirial – 117.53; Tuichawng – 107.87; Mat – 90.16; Tuipui – 86.94; Tuivawl – 72.45; Teirei – 70.84; Tuirini – 59.57; and Serlui – 56.35.

The state has a good hydro-electric power potential. Besides the existing micro-hydel projects already commissioned like Serlui A (Capacity: 1 x 500 + 2 X 250 KW.), Tuirivang (Capacity: 1 x 300 KW), Khawiva (Capacity: 3 x 350 KW), Tuipui (Capacity: 2 x 250 KW), Tuitlak (Capacity: 2 x 15 KW) etc., there are some other potential sources of power: 1. Bairabi Hydel-Project (120 MW); 2. Tuirial (60 MW); 3. Tuivai (210 MW); Kolodyne Phase – I (60 MW), etc. Investigations have already been done on the above-mentioned projects. Kolodyne Phase II is another potential, but it is not possible to know how much power will be generated as investigation is not yet done.

Again, under Minor Irrigation Scheme, against the total estimated potential of 70,000 hectares, 10,900 hectares had been brought under irrigation till the end of the Sixth Plan. The expenditure was Rs. 151.63 lakhs. During 1985–1986, it was targetted to bring another 750 hectares under irrigation with an outlay of Rs. 75 lakhs.

**Forest Resources:** Forests induce rainfall, control floods and soil erosion, provide timber, firewood and fodder, protect wildlife and give medicinal plants and herbs. Raw materials for paper, matches, saw mills, furniture, cane and bamboo handicrafts, plywood, railway sleepers, etc.,

are supplied from forests. Forests also help to keep ecological balance, regulate climate and rainfall, and also conserve soil.

The forests in Mizoram can be classified into three types, viz. Tropical Wet Evergreen Forests, Tropical Semi-Evergreen Forests and Montane Sub-Tropical Pine Forests. Of the three types, the most important is Tropical Wet Evergreen Forests, which is rich in valuable evergreen timber species in the top canopy. This specie consists of *Dipterocarpus turbinatus*, *Artocarpus chaplasha*, *Terminalia myriocarpa*, *Amoora Wallichii*, *Michelia Champaca*, *Callophylum inophyllum*, *Mesuaferrea*, etc. Bamboo also occurs abundantly in the middle and lower storeys in evergreen type, and cane is conspicuously present in this type.

The common species in the tropical semi-evergreen forests are *Michelia champaca*, *Schima Wallichii*, *Gmelina arborea*, *Toon ciliata*, *Chukrassia tabularis*, *Sterculia Villosa*, etc. Bamboo and cane are also abundant in this type, especially in shady and low-lying areas.

The common species in sub-tropical pine forests include *Pinus keseya*, *Quercus incana*, *Quercus serrata*, *Quercus semiserrata*, *Castanopsis hystrix*, *Myrica*, *Rhododendron*, *Rubus*, *Clerodendron*, etc.

Mizoram has vast natural forest resources, but due to the age-old practice of shifting cultivation, vast areas comprising valuable timber,

trees and other forest resources have been converted into degraded land. Most of the forests are now located in inaccessible areas in small pockets.

**Table 2.27**  
**MIZORAM AND ITS FORESTS (1999 – 2000)**

Sl. No.	Type of Forests	Area in Sq. km.	Percentage of Forest Area to Total Geographical Area
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	Protected Forest Area	959.000	4.55 per cent
2.	Reserved Forest Area	3,057.249	14.50 per cent
3.	Wildlife Sanctuary	1,044.200	4.95 per cent
4.	Innerline Reserved Forest	561.813	2.66 per cent
5.	Total Reserved Forest	5,622.262	26.66 per cent
6	Total Forest Area	16,264.750	77.13 per cent

*Source:* Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram, 2001.

The percentage of forest area to the total geographical area in Mizoram was 77.13 per cent (Table 2.27). This is quite significant. The state, therefore, has a good prospect for starting forest-based industries for her development, though harvesting should be systematic.

The forest out-turns of Mizoram during 1986-87 and 1999-00 are given in Table 2.28 below. Considering the size of the forest area in the state, the out-turn (products) of the forests is not significant enough. Had there been proper exploitation of the forest resources, more products would have been available. In terms of revenue collection on the part of

**Table 2.28****FOREST OUT-TURN OF MIZORAM (1986-87 & 1999-00)**

Sl.No	Type of Products	1986 – 1987		1999 – 2000	
(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)	
1.	Round timber	2,739.7117	Cu.M.	4.84	Cu.M.
2.	Sawn timber	2,095	“	656.773	“
3.	Firewood	1,20,375.05	Qtls.	6,481.0596	Qtls.
4.	Charcoal	9,172.26	“	73,022.50	“
5.	Bamboo	6,25,541	No's.	191,74,000	No's.
6.	Broomstick	1,546	Qtls.	N.A.	
7.	Sand/Gravel	15,656	Cu.M.	30,109.19	Cu.M.
8.	Stone	15,427.17	“	2,12,237.58	“
9.	Poles	22,955	No's.	681	No's.
10.	Cane	5,350	Rm.	19,096	Rm.
11.	Fish	208	Kgs.	437.72	Qtls.

*Note:* Cu. M. = Cubic metre; Qtls. = Quintals; No's. = Numbers;

Rm. = Realm; and N.A. = Not Available.

*Source:* Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000-'01.

the Forest & Environment Department of the state, it was Rs. 155.91 lakhs in 1994-95 and Rs. 125.84 lakhs in 1999-00. In spite of her vast natural forest resources, the Government of Mizoram has been collecting extremely small revenue annually due to improper exploitation of these resources.

Thus, it can be seen that Mizoram has considerable industrial potentialities based on her forest resources. To name a few, mention may

be made of starting paper, sugar, plywood industries, etc. The 1998-Project Profiles prepared by K.L. Nanjappa, the then Industrial Adviser to the Government of Mizoram, included project profiles like manufacture of saw dust briquettes as domestic industrial fuel, manufacture of straw boards, paper cups and paper plates, paper envelops, cement hollow blocks, coir mats and matting, flower garlands, lending of poles and fixtures for R.C.C. works, etc.

**Livestock Resources:** Livestock is a reproducible biological resource. A large number of rural people in the State of Mizoram undertook livestock rearing as their secondary occupation. In 1987-88, the total livestock area in Mizoram was 21,081 sq. kms., and the livestock density per sq. km. was 7.9. This clearly indicates that there is ample scope for increasing livestock population in this state.

The population of sheep, mithun and ducks are small in Mizoram (Table 29). The estimated meat production in Mizoram during 1987-1988 was 3,573.93 tonnes of beef, 4,277.31 tonnes of pork, 144.93 tonnes of mutton, and 68,82,427 kgs. of milk. The year-wise production of eggs by poultry farms in Mizoram was 3,44,013 numbers in 1985-1986, 3,36,351 numbers in 1986-1987 and 2,44,617 numbers in 1987-1988. Milk produced during 1988-1989 was 81,73,518 kgs.

**Table 2.29**  
**SPECIE-WISE LIVESTOCK AND POULTRY**  
**IN MIZORAM (1987 & 1997)**

Sl. No.	Particulars	Total Number in 1987	Total Number in 1997
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	Cattle	50,355	33,312
2.	Buffaloes	5,602	5,365
3.	Mithun	2,103	2,594
4.	Horses and Ponnies	2,302	2,002
5.	Sheep	799	699
6.	Goats	19,668	16,036
7.	Dogs	15,443	33,746
8.	Pigs	81,505	1,63,181
9.	Poultry	8,31,815	1,29,485
10.	Duck	9,212	12,171
11.	Donkey	N.A.	5
12.	Cats	N.A.	19,737
13.	Rabbit	N.A.	1,547

*Source:* 1. Statistical Abstracts of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary  
1987-1988, Mizoram.  
2. Mizoram Statistical Handbook 1998 & 2000.

**Fishery Resources:** The water resources of Mizoram comprise approximately 10,000 hectares, inclusive of 1,600 hectares of large and small water pools/reservoir-type fisheries developed by the fish farmers with the technical guidance and financial support rendered by the Government of Mizoram.

Table 2.30 gives the position of Fish Seed Farm, Area of Nurseries and Composite Fish Culture in Mizoram. The inland fish production is

1,970 MT. in 1984, 2,066 MT. in 1985, 2,250 MT. in 1986, 2,400 MT. in 1987, 2,605 MT. in 1988, and 2,900 MT. in 2001.

**Table 2.30**  
**FISH SEED FARM, AREA OF NURSERIES AND COMPOSITE FISH CULTURE IN MIZORAM (1984-1989 & 2001)**

Sl. No.	Year	Number of Fish Seed Farm	Area of Nurseries in Hectares	Area under Composite Fish Culture in Hectares	Fish Production in Metric Tonne
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	1984	N.A.	N.A.	6	1,970
2.	1985	1	0.20	5	2,066
3.	1986	2	0.40	4.8	2,250
4.	1987	2	0.40	1.6	2,400
5.	1988	2	0.40	N.A.	2,605
6.	1989	3	0.49	N.A.	N.A.
7.	2001	8	N.A.	N.A.	2,900

*Note:* MT. = Metric Tonne and N.A. = Not Available.

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1989 & 2002.

2. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000-'01.

#### 2.4.2 Land Use Pattern

Out of the total geographical area of 2,108.700 thousand hectares in Mizoram, land not available (suitable) for cultivation is 130.390 thousand hectares and other uncultivated land is 58.410 thousand hectares, while fallow land is 192.094 thousand hectares (Table 2.31). In other words, about 9.00 per cent of the total geographical area of Mizoram is fallow land. The net sown area is 101.331 thousand hectares

that constitutes only 4.81 per cent of the total geographical area of the state.

**Table 2.31**

**LAND UTILIZATION STATISTICS OF MIZORAM (2000-2001)**

Sl. No.	Uses of Land	Area ('000 Hectares)	Percentage to the Total Area
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	Forest	1,626.475	77.13 %
2.	Not Available for Cultivation (Non-Agricultural Uses, Barren and Uncultivable)	130.390	6.18 %
3.	Other Uncultivated Land (Permanent Pastures, Grazing Land under Tree Crops, Cultivable Waste)	58.410	2.77 %
4.	Fallow Land	192.094	9.11 %
5.	Net Area Sown	101.331	4.81 %
<b>Total Geographical Area:</b>		<b>2,108.700</b>	<b>100.00 %</b>

*Source:* Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 – '01.

Land in Mizoram, except for the areas covered by towns and Government reserve forests, belongs to the community and the power of allotment of this communal land for housing, gardening and jhuming purposes is vested in the respective village councils within their jurisdictions. The power of allotment of land for other purposes, however, rests with the State Government. The allotment of communal land by the village councils is either a permanent or temporary basis. If the purpose is for housing or gardening, the allotment is permanent, and if it is for jhuming, the allotment is made on a temporary basis.

Since shifting cultivation (jhuming) is practised, tenancy system is not possible due to the fact that the land is suitable for cultivation for a period of one or two years only and the area changes from year to year. Earlier, the chiefs were the owners of land and so they distributed their lands to the villagers with the help of Ramhual<sup>1</sup>. The distribution was need-based. The village economy was self-contained and the chief maintained some sort of equality in the society by giving economic aid and other protection to the needy villagers.

### **2.4.3 Agriculture and Horticulture**

Out of the total geographical area of 2,108.700 thousand hectares in Mizoram, the final area and production of crops for the year 1990-1991, as per figures of the Directorate of Agriculture, Government of Mizoram, revealed that the net sown area is 76,078 hectares, gross cropped area is 87,000 hectares, and net irrigated area is 6,259 hectares.

The fertilizer consumption rate per hectare in 1980-1981 was 5.08 kgs. This had gone up to 16.23 kgs. per hectare in 1988-1989. And in 1993 (October), the fertilizer consumption rate was 25 kgs. per hectare. Agriculture in Mizoram is in a transitional stage at the moment. The farmers have been motivated to cultivate high yielding varieties of rice

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<sup>1</sup> *Ramhual were the second-class ministers of the Mizo chiefs, they were expert in land – affairs like Patwary in the plain areas of India.*

and other cereals. They have started utilizing irrigation water in areas where irrigation projects have been completed.

With the increasing number of processing units like Maize Milling Plant at Khawzawl, Fruit Processing Unit at Sairang and Vairengte, Oil Extraction Plant at Zuangtui, Flour Mill at Zuangtui, Citronella Distillation Plant at Khawhai, Fruit Juice Concentration Plant at CHhingchhip, the farmers are getting a better price for their produce. A Tapioca Processing Unit at Thingdawl Farm is also to be commissioned shortly.

There has been certain improvement in respect of marketing of agricultural produces recently. The Government of Mizoram has fixed procuring/procurement prices for several crops. The Cold Storage Plant at Neihbawih Farm, Sihphir was commissioned on January 06, 1994.

The Cattle Control Act has been implemented in 144 villages of the state. This has facilitated cultivation of double crops, particularly winter crops like winter paddy, wheat and winter vegetables.

**Jhuming (Shifting Cultivation):** Jhuming or Shifting Cultivation is the principal method of cultivation in Mizoram and her neighbouring hilly states. The yield in jhum system is very low although heavy and constant

labour is required. It is estimated that an average yield in jhum cultivation in Mizoram is about 12 quintals per hectare.

The essential features of jhumming or shifting cultivation are – first, fields are rotated and short period of cropping is undertaken alternately with long period of natural fallow. Second, slash and burn method is used to clear vegetation for the cultivation of crops. Third, fertility of the soil is maintained by allowing the vegetation to regenerate. Harvesting methods vary. Some shifting cultivators pick cereal heads by hands, others reap with sickles, while root crops are dug out with iron sticks and hoes.

This system has been practised from time immemorial, and thus, a large quantity of natural forest wealth is being burnt every year resulting in soil erosion and gradual reduction of crop yields. The value of forests destroyed by jhumming is estimated to be over Rs. 100 crores annually. Moreover, input of heavy manual labour is necessary. This input of labour could have been much more productive if utilised in alternative economic activities.

**Wet Rice Cultivation (W.R.C.):** Out of the total area that has been brought under cultivation in Mizoram, only 1.4 per cent is now under permanent wet rice cultivation. Permanent cultivation of wet rice is

confined only in the flat valleys of CHamphai, South Vanlaiphai, Thenzawl, Phaisen, Buhchang, CHemphai, Meidum, etc.

**Horticulture**: Out of the total area of Mizoram, the total area available for horticulture crops is estimated to be 6,31,000 hectares. About 35,984 hectares has been put under horticulture so far.

**Table 2.32**  
**AREA AND PRODUCTION OF HORTICULTURAL CROPS IN**  
**MIZORAM (1985 – 1990)**

Year of Production	Orange		Banana		Pineapple		Different Citrus	
	Area in Hectares	Production in Quintals	Area in Hectares	Production in Quintals	Area in Hectares	Production in Quintals	Area in Hectares	Production in Quintals
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1985-1986	1,500	6,000	1,000	5,000	360	5,000	266	900
1986-1987	1,700	6,500	1,500	6,000	400	5,200	350	1,200
1987-1988	1,664	6,000	1,711	7,784	520	6,000	405	1,150
1988-1989	3,150	7,500	2,150	7,800	900	6,500	610	1,250
1989-1990	3,600	8,500	2,350	8,500	975	7,000	735	1,700

*Source:* Directorate of Agriculture & Fisheries, Government of Mizoram.

Orange plantation occupies the largest area followed by banana, pineapple, and different citrus crops (Table 2.32). The area under horticultural crops had increased two-fold between the periods 1985-1990, but the production of these crops has not increased in the same proportion.

#### **2.4.4 Minor Irrigation**

The ultimate irrigation potential under minor irrigation scheme in Mizoram is estimated to be about 70,000 hectares, of which 45,000 hectares is for flow irrigation, and 25,000 hectares for lift irrigation. Flow or Canal Irrigation is not applicable in most of the places due to physical constraints, and therefore, necessitates Lift Irrigation. However, this calls for regular supply of electricity.

Under minor irrigation scheme, the State Government has implemented and completed 76 projects with a total command area of 3,358 Ha. upto the year 2000-01, and there are 23 on-going projects with a total command area of 1,238 Ha. Out of the total projects, 70 projects with a command area of 2,988 Ha. comprise of flow irrigation and 6 projects with a command area of 370 Ha. are of lift irrigation.

The state has a total gross cropped area of about 1,04,689 hectares against which the gross irrigated area in 2000-01 was 11,629 hectares. In 2000-01, the percentage of gross irrigated area to the gross cropped area was 11.1 in the state and the net irrigated area was 9,686 hectares.

## **2.5 Cultural and Social Structure**

### **2.5.1 Social Environment and Social Structure**

Nearly the whole of Mizoram is inhabited by the Mizos. The extreme southern corner is occupied by the tribesmen called “Bawm” and “Pang”, and another tribal community called “Bru” settles in the extreme western corner bordering Tripura. Besides, there is an influx of Chakma refugees in the extreme south-western corner bordering Bangladesh.

The Mizos are honest, sincere, simple, outspoken, sturdy and courageous tribesmen. They are friendly and hospitable. They are also a close-knit, homogeneous society with no class distinction from social, religious and economic point of view and no discrimination on ground of sex. They love singing and they sing at all times, in times of joy, and also in times of sorrow. Their religion is Christianity.

Social relationship of the Mizo is practically free from barriers and restrictions of the caste system. Distinction, even if there exists, is functional and not social. A man of the meanest occupation and position may share a plate of food with any other. The Mizo follows the patrilocal pattern or patriarchal system of family. While the male, the head of family, controls the social, economic and religious affairs, the female has a place of honour in the family.

The institution of chieftainship was strongly embedded in the early history of the Mizo people. Each village was ruled by its own chief. The chief was the guardian of his people, leader and defender in times of attack by their enemy and above all, giver of food in times of scarcity. In battle, he would lead his men. The fugitives in war sought refuge in his palace.

The village administration, after the abolition of chieftainship<sup>2</sup>, was carried on through a democratic institution known as the “Village Council”. Since the land is a communal property with no individual ownership, the task of allotment of land for cultivation to the villagers is performed by these councils. However, recently land is being allotted to the individuals in order to introduce terracing and settled farming and orchard plantation in certain villages. But such ownership of land is very insignificant.

### **2.5.2 Language**

Mizoram is a monolingual state in which Mizo or Lusei is the lingua-franca of the state. The Mizo language belongs to the Assam-Burma branch of Tibeto-Burmese family of language.

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<sup>2</sup> Chieftainship was abolished on the 1<sup>st</sup> of April 1958 under the Assam Lushai Hills District (Acquisition of Chief's Right) Act, 1954.

The languages spoken by more than 1.0 per cent of the population in the state are as follows: -

Mizo/Lusei	-	75.55 %
Chakma	-	6.99 %
Lakher	-	3.49 %
Pawi	-	3.10 %
Riang	-	2.95 %
Hindi	-	1.57 %
Nepal	-	1.35 %
Hmar	-	1.36 %

The speakers of these languages together accounted for 96.0 per cent of the total population of the state. Mizo/Lusei alone constituted three-fourths of the total speakers of the state.

The rapidly increasing Chakma population had brought a remarkable change in the percentage share of languages spoken in the State. In 1981, the speakers of Chakma language constituted 8.08 per cent of the total state's population, bringing down the percentage of the speakers of Mizo/Lusei language to 71.15 per cent from 75.55 per cent in 1971. The percentage of the speakers of Lakher language also decreased to 3.38 per cent in 1981 from 3.49 percent in 1971, while that of Pawi rose to 4.65 per cent from 3.10 per cent and Hmar from 1.36 per cent to 1.75 per cent during the same period.

### 2.5.3 Religious Composition

The composition of the major religions in Mizoram are shown in Table 2.33 below: -

**Table 2.33**  
**POPULATION COMPOSITION BY RELIGION IN MIZORAM**  
**(1981 & 1991)**

Sl. No.	Religious Community	Number of Persons		Percentage to Total Population	
		1981	1991	1981	1991
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	Christians	4,13,840	5,91,342	83.81	85.73
2.	Buddhists	40,429	54,024	8.19	7.83
3.	Hindus	35,245	34,788	7.14	5.04
4.	Muslims	2,205	4,538	0.45	0.65
5.	Sikhs	421	299	0.09	0.04
6.	Jains	11	4	0.002	0.005
7.	Other Religions & Persuasions	1,606	4,761	0.32	0.69

- Source:*
1. Census of India, 1981, Series 31, Mizoram Paper I of 1985, p.v.
  2. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1987 & 1996.

Majority of the people in Mizoram are Christians. Christianity was brought to the state in 1894 by the English missionaries. Having no definite religion, so influential and conducive was Christianity to the Mizo, that within a span of only half a century it became the major religion of Mizoram. The other religions pursued by some small sections of the population are Buddhism, Hinduism, Jainism, Islam and Sikhism.

#### **2.5.4 Inner Line Regulation**

After annexing the Lushai Hills, the British administrators felt it necessary to protect plainsmen from the Mizos and the Mizos from plainsmen by certain laws. The Assam Frontier Regulation 11 of 1880 was applied to the whole of Lushai Hills. Further, the British wanted more stringent control of commercial relations of their subjects with the frontier tribes inhabiting the eastern, northern and south-eastern borders of the Brahmaputra Valley. Towards this end, the Government introduced the Chin Hills Regulations on the 13<sup>th</sup> of August, 1896. As per this regulation, no outsiders other than the natives of Lushai Hills were allowed to enter the area without an Inner Line Pass issued by the Deputy Commissioner. One who violated this order was liable to be punished. However, this Regulation was not enforced for long.

Prior to the Chin Hills Regulation, there was already another inner line regulation, i.e. Inner Line Regulation of 1873 framed by the Lt. Governor of West Bengal and approved by the Governor General in Council. This regulation gave power to the Lt. Governor to prescribe a line to be called "The Inner Line" in each of tribal areas beyond which no plains people (British subjects) and certain classes of foreign residents could enter without holding a pass or license issued by the Superintendent

or the Deputy Commissioner. Rules were also laid down regarding trade, possession of land beyond the line and other matters, which gave the Executive Government effective control.

Under a notification by the Government of India dated August 20, 1875 (modified on June 19, 1878), and in accordance with the provisions of section 2 of Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation 1 of 1873, the Inner Line for Cachar District affecting the Northern Lushai Hills was laid down. Similar Inner Line for Chittagong Hill Tracts, affecting the Southern Lushai Hills was laid down by the Government of Bengal on the 20<sup>th</sup> of June, 1879, as per section 2 of Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation 1 of 1873. The Inner Line for the Lushai Hills was separately issued vide a notification dated August 28, 1930 by the Governor-in-Council. Prohibition order to all plainmen passing through the Lushai Hills District other than officers on government duty without the permission of the Superintendent or Deputy Commissioner was issued vide Notification No. 9104 A.P. dated August 28, 1930. These regulations were subsequently superceded by other notifications.

Although these restrictions were meant only for keeping the border to maintain political relationships with the tribes, the "Inner Line" continued to exist even after the annexation of the territories. The

Regulation continued to be in force even after the elevation of the Mizo District to the status of a union territory on January 21, 1972. The present Government of the State of Mizoram also enforces the Inner Line Regulation strictly. The continuance has been allowed by the Government mainly to prevent economic exploitation and the loss of ethnic and cultural identity of the tribes.

## **2.6 Summary**

The State of Mizoram has a geographical area of 21,087 sq. kms. It is sandwiched between Myanmar in the East and in the South, Bangladesh and Tripura in the West, and Assam and Manipur in the North. It has a total of 722 kilometres of international boundary, and about 284 kilometres of inter-state boundary with Manipur, Assam and Tripura.

The climatic condition of Mizoram is in general cool and wet. The average rainfall is 250 cms. per annum. Forests and steep ranges of hills cover almost the whole of this state. The soils of Mizoram as a whole are well-drained except in a few flat lands. 77.13 per cent of the geographical area is under forest cover. With regards to land use pattern, land not available (suitable) for cultivation is 130.390 thousand hectares and other

uncultivated land is 58.410 thousand hectares, while fallow land is 192.094 thousand hectares.

Land in Mizoram, except for the areas covered by towns and Government reserve forests, belongs to the community and the power of allotment of this communal land for housing, gardening and jhuming purposes is vested in the respective village councils within their jurisdictions. Since shifting cultivation (jhuming) is practised, tenancy system is not possible due to the fact that the land is suitable for cultivation for a period of one or two years only and the area of cultivation changes from year to year.

According to the 2001 Census (Provisional), the population of this state is 8,91,058 and it accounts for only 0.08 per cent of the total population of India. The density of population per square kilometre is 42 as against 324 in the country. The state has a conspicuously high percentage of tribal population. Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes together account for 93.58 per cent of the total population. The sex ratio (number of females per 1,000 males) is 938. The birth rate has declined from 22.0 per cent in 1991 to 17.0 per cent in 1999, while the death rate has increased from 4.1 per cent to 5.5 per cent during the same period. According to 1981 Census, 75 per cent of the population of Mizoram

lived in the rural areas, while in 1991, this figure came down to 53.90 per cent. According to the 1981 Census, 33,538 persons comprising of 6.79 per cent of the total population were migrants, and of these, three-fourths are from other states of India.

Literacy in Mizoram has had a spectacular growth. It was less than 1 per cent in 1901 and now ranks second in the country with 88.49 per cent. The male literacy rate is more than that of the female. The workforce of Mizoram was 40.83 per cent (2001). The proportion of cultivators among the main workers in Mizoram has declined significantly since 1971. Consequently, 40.24 per cent are now non-agricultural workers. The number of unemployed in the state had risen from 14,040 persons in 1980 to 96,233 in 2000. The unskilled constituted the largest proportion of the unemployed, followed by the matriculates. There is a sizable number of post-graduates who are jobless.

Regarding infrastructural development, almost all inhabited villages in the state have been electrified. Industrialization is still at an infantile stage. The entire state had been notified as industrially backward area and categorized as 'No Industry District' due to non-existence of a large-scale or medium-scale industry. There is one airport 40 kilometres away from the state capital Aizawl. The state has one rail head at Bairabi

in the northern fringe. The total length of road network of the state as on March 31, 2001 was 4,623.37 kilometres. At present, there are a total of 90 bank branches in in this state. There are 2,410 schools, 30 colleges, one central university and a number of training institutes. The state has twelve Hospitals, eight Community Health Centres, forty three Primary Health Centres and thirteen Sub-Health Centres.

The water resources of Mizoram comprise approximately 10,000 hectares. There are 8 fish seed farms and the inland fish production rose from 1,970 MT. in 1984 to 2,900 MT. in 2001. The gross cropped area is 1,04,689 hectares out of which the gross irrigated area is 11,629 hectares and net irrigated area is 9,686 hectares.

With the increase in the number of food and fruit processing units in the state, the farmers are getting a better price for their produce. There has also been an improvement in respect of marketing of agricultural produces. The Cattle Control Act has facilitated cultivation of double crops, particularly winter crops like winter paddy, wheat and winter vegetables. Jhuming or Shifting Cultivation is the principal method of cultivation in Mizoram. The estimated average yield in jhum cultivation in the state is about 12 quintals per hectare. This system has been practised from time immemorial, and thus, a large quantity of natural

forest wealth is being burnt every year resulting in soil erosion and gradual reduction of crop yields. Thus, out of the total area that has been brought under cultivation in Mizoram, only 1.4 per cent is under permanent wet rice cultivation. Horticulture crops are grown in 35,984 hectares, and orange is the major crop followed by banana, pineapple, and different citrus crops.

About one-third of the total Net State Domestic Product is contributed by agriculture and its allied sectors and an almost similar share is from public administration and other services. The Per Capita Income of Mizoram at current prices increased from Rs. 1,289 in 1980-1981 to Rs.12,535 in 1998-1999.

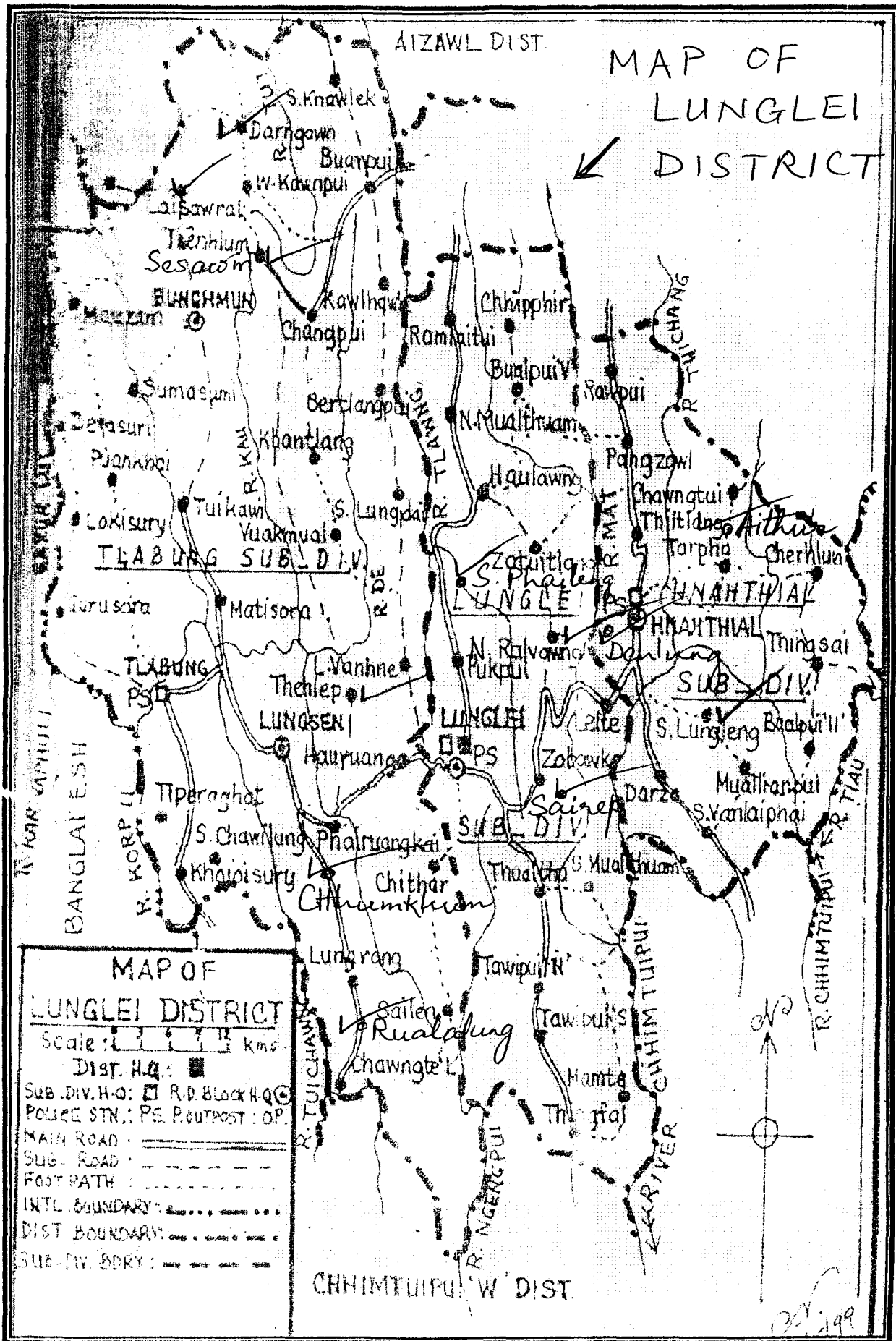
The number of persons living below the poverty line in 1999- 2000 in Mizoram is 1.8 lakhs (Planning Commission of India). The poverty ratio in the state is 19.5 per cent, which is lower than the all-India average (26.1 per cent). However, the poverty figure of the Planning Commission differs from that of the State Government.

Nearly the whole of Mizoram is inhabited by the Mizos. They are a homogeneous society with no class distinction, and no discrimination on ground of sex. The Mizo follows the patrilocal pattern or patriarchal system of family. Majority of the people in Mizoram are Christians. The

other religions are Buddhism, Hinduism, Jainism, Islam and Sikhism. Mizoram is a monolingual state in which Mizo or Lusei is the lingua-franca of the state. The Mizo language belongs to the Assam-Burma branch of Tibeto-Burmese family of language.

In order to protect the local inhabitants, the Inner Line Regulation of 1873 was adopted wherein the Lt. Governor was empowered to prescribe a line to be called "The Inner Line" in each of tribal areas beyond which no plains people (British subjects) and certain classes of foreign residents could enter without holding a pass or license issued by the Superintendent or the Deputy Commissioner. Rules were also laid down regarding trade, possession of land beyond the line and other matters, which gave the Executive Government effective control. Although these restrictions were meant only for keeping the border to maintain political relationships with the tribes, the "Inner Line" continued to exist even after the annexation of the territories. The Regulation continued to be in force even after the elevation of the Mizo District to the status of a union territory on January 21, 1972. The present Government of the State of Mizoram also enforces the Inner Line Regulation strictly. The continuance has been allowed by the Government

mainly to prevent economic exploitation and the loss of ethnic and cultural identity of the tribes inhabiting the state.



## **Chapter III**

### **LUNGLEI DISTRICT: SOCIO-ECONOMIC REVIEW**

#### **3.1 Lunglei District**

Lunglei District is one of the eight administrative districts of the State of Mizoram. The total geographical area covered by this district is 4,538 square kilometres, which constitutes 21.52 per cent of the total geographical area of Mizoram. It has three administrative sub-divisions:

- i). Lunglei Sub-Division covering 3,178.57 square kilometres with sub-divisional headquarters at Lunglei;
- ii). Tlabung Sub-Division covering 880.01 square kilometres with sub-divisional headquarters at Tlabung; and
- iii). Hnahthial Sub-Division covering 479.42 square kilometres with sub-divisional headquarters at Hnahthial.

##### **3.1.1 Location - District Boundary and Headquarters**

Lunglei District has an international boundary with Bangladesh and Myanmar. The length of her international boundary with Bangladesh in the West is nearly three times the length of her international boundary with Myanmar in the East. It also has an inter-district boundary with Mamit District, Aizawl District, Serchhip District, Saiha District and Lawngtlai District. Among the three sister districts of Mizoram which

border Lunglei District on the North, Serchhip District has the longest inter-district boundary with Lunglei District, Mamit District has the second longest, and Aizawl District has the shortest inter-district boundary with Lunglei District. Among the two sister districts of Mizoram which border Lunglei District on the South, Lawngtlai District has a comparatively longer inter-district boundary with Lunglei District, while Saiha District has a comparatively shorter boundary.

The capital of Lunglei District is Lunglei town. Lunglei town is the second biggest town in Mizoram. Its altitude is 1,128 metres above sea level. The distance of Lunglei town from Aizawl, the capital of Mizoram is 235 kilometres along National Highway 54. The population of Lunglei town as recorded in the census of 1981, 1991 and 2001 are 17,205, 35,599 and 47,355 respectively. Its area being 85 square kilometres, the density of population per square kilometre in this town is 202 in 1981, 419 in 1991 and 557 in 2001. Lunglei town has also been the administrative headquarters of the Government on the South since the British subdued the Mizos and annexed the southern half of Mizoram to Bengal Province in 1891. Besides, it is the most important trade centre for the people of southern Mizoram.

### 3.1.2 Trends in Population and Literacy

**Trends:** Among the eight districts of Mizoram, Lunglei District, being the biggest in terms of geographical area, has the second largest population. The population of Lunglei District had increased rapidly and steadily during the last three decades. It was 62,136 in 1971, 86,511 in 1981, 1,11,415 in 1991 and 1,37,155 in 2001 (Table 3.1). The population of Lunglei District now constitutes 15.39 per cent of the total population of Mizoram.

The decadal growth rate of the population of Lunglei District for the periods 1971-1981, 1981-1991 and 1991-2001 are 39.23 (as against 48.55 for all-Mizoram), 28.79 (as against 39.69 for all-Mizoram) and 23.10 (as against 29.18 for all-Mizoram) respectively. The corresponding national figures for these periods are all less.

**Sex Ratio:** The sex ratio in Lunglei District had increased rapidly and steadily during the last three decades. The number of females per 1,000 males in Lunglei District was 842 in 1971, 881 in 1981, 910 in 1991 and 959 in 2001. These ratios are, however, higher at the all-India and Mizoram levels during all periods except in 2001.

**Table 3. 1**  
**DECADAL VARIATION IN THE POPULATION OF LUNGLEI**  
**DISTRICT (1971 – 2001)**

Year of Census	Male Population	Female Population	Total Population	Decadal Variation in Population	Percentage of Decadal Variation in Population	Density of Population per Sq. km.	Percentage of Literate Persons to the Total Population	Number of Females per 1,000 Males
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1971	33,736	28,400	62,136	-	-	14	N.A.	842
1981	45,998	40,513	86,511	+24,375	+39.23	19	56.89	881
1991	58,331	53,084	1,11,415	+24,904	+28.79	25	77.73	910
2001	70,026	67,129	1,37,155	+25,740	+23.10	30	69.41	959

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1983, 1992, 2000 & 2002.

2. Mizoram at a Glance, 2001.

3. Census of India, 2001, Series 1, Paper of 2001,  
 Provisiol Population Totals.

It is interesting to note that though the State of Mizoram was having higher sex ratio than our country as a whole (all-India) in most of the census, yet, this district (Lunglei District) had never had higher sex ratio than the country until 2001 census. At par with this fact, the sex ratio of Lunglei District had always stood below the sex ratio of our state (all-Mizoram) till the 1991 census. Among the eight districts of Mizoram, Lunglei District ranked fourth in terms of sex ratio.

**Density of Population:** The density of population per square kilometre in the last four successive census was 14, 19, 25 and 30 respectively

(Table 3.1). Comparing this density with that of the state (which were 16, 23, 33 and 42 in 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 respectively), we observe that the population per square kilometre in this district is pretty lower than the all-Mizoram average. The density figures are also lower than the nation's average of 178 in 1971, 216 in 1981, 267 in 1991 and 324 in 2001. Among the eight districts of Mizoram, Lunglei District ranks fourth in terms of density of population.

**Literacy Rate:** As stated earlier, the growth of literacy in Mizoram has been fast and spectacular during the last hundred years. Among the 28 states and 7 union territories of India, this state recorded the second highest literacy rate (2001 census), although education was ushered by the Christian Missionaries only in 1894.

As expected, the literacy rate in Mizoram in 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 are all higher than the corresponding national rate, further, the state exhibited higher literacy rate in the cases of both males and females as compared to the nation. Lunglei District has recorded a higher literacy rate than at the national level in the last three decades.

Lunglei District has experienced a lower rate of growth of literacy than at the state level during the last three decades. Besides, it is interesting to note that the percentage of literacy in this district declined

from 77.73 in 1991 to 69.41 in 2001. The decline in the literacy rate during the last decade in Lunglei District may be attributable to the influx of large Chakma refugees from Bangladesh.

**Table 3.2**

**DEVELOPMENT (PROGRESS) OF LITERACY IN INDIA, MIZORAM  
AND LUNGLEI DISTRICT (1971-2001)**

Year of Census	Rate of Literacy in Percentage								
	All-India			All-Mizoram			Lunglei District		
	Per- sons	Males	Fe- males	Per- sons	Males	Fe- males	Per- sons	Males	Fe- males
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1971	34.5	46.0	22.0	53.79	60.48	46.70	N.A	N.A	N.A
1981	41.4	53.4	28.5	59.88	64.45	54.91	56.89	N.A	N.A
1991	52.2	64.1	39.3	82.27	85.60	78.60	77.73	N.A	N.A
2001	65.4	75.8	52.1	88.49	90.69	86.13	69.41	N.A	N.A

*Note:* Literacy rate for 1971 relates to the population aged five (5) years and above. The Literacy rates for 1981, 1991 and 2001 relate to the population aged 7 (seven) years and above.

*Source:* 1. Census of India 2001, Series 1 of India, Paper 1 of 2001.  
2. Mizoram at a Glance, 2001.  
3. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2002.  
4. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 – '01.

In this state, it is observed that larger the number of Chakmas and other nomadic communities (who have the lowest literacy rates) in the district, lower is the literacy rate in the district.

### **3.1.3 Rural Development Blocks (R.D.B.)**

Of the 22 rural development blocks of the State of Mizoram, four, viz. W. Bunglei R.D.B., Lungsen R.D.B., Lunglei R.D.B., and

Hnahthial R.D.B. are in this district. The number of villages covered by these four rural development blocks and the block-wise population of Lunglei District are furnished in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3**  
**BLOCK-WISE NUMBER OF VILLAGES AND**  
**POPULATION OF LUNGLEI DISTRICT (1981 – 2001)**

Sl. No.	Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)	Number of Villages Covered			Population		
		1981	1991	2001	1981	1991	2001
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1.	W.Bunghmun R.D.B.	39	46	34	12,239	15,549	16,508
2.	Lungsen R.D.B.	55	70	67	21,127	26,496	30,704
3.	Lunglei R.D.B.	43	39	39	34,530	48,493	64,863
4.	Hnahthial R.D.B.	26	24	25	18,615	20,877	25,080
<b>TOTAL:</b>		<b>163</b>	<b>179</b>	<b>165</b>	<b>86,511</b>	<b>1,11,415</b>	<b>1,37,155</b>

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1983, 1985, 1992, 1996 & 2002.  
2. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000 – '01.

The headquarters of W. Bunghmun R.D.B., Lungsen R.D.B., Lunglei R.D.B. and Hnahthial R.D.B. are the towns by the same name. There are three urban towns in the district. Tlabung town and a small portion of Lunglei town are within Lungsen R.D.B., almost the whole of Lunglei town falls within Lunglei R.D.B., and Hnahthial town is within Hnahthial R.D.B. W. Bunghmun R.D.B. has no urban town. The number of villages covered by all the four rural development blocks had fluctuated much during 1981 to 2001, while their respective population

for the same period had shown a steady increase. The main factor responsible for fluctuation in the number of villages in Mizoram is internal migration within the state. Internal migration may be of two types: (i) rural to urban migration; and (ii) rural to rural migration. Of these two, rural to rural migration is much more rampant among the villagers in Mizoram. Another interesting characteristic feature to be noted regarding fluctuation in the number of villages in Lunglei District is that a significant number of tribesmen known as “Tuikuk” (they call themselves “Bru” or “Riang”) and “Chakma” settle in this district, especially on the western side. These tribesmen are half-nomadic people. They are shifting cultivators or jhumias and they usually dwell near their jhums.

The areas where Tuikuks and Chakmas have settled are in W. Bnghmun, Lungsen and Lunglei Rural Development Blocks. Lungsen Rural Development Block has the highest population of Chakmas and Tuikuks followed by W. Bnghmun Block. It is observed that higher the percentage of Chakmas or Tuikuks to the total population in the block, greater is the fluctuation in the number of villages within that block.

**W. Bnghmun Rural Development Block:** W. Bnghmun Block is sandwiched between Thentlang River in the East and Harina River in the

West (this also forms the border between Bangladesh and Mizoram). The northern limit is determined by River Mat and the tributaries of Tut and Tlawng Rivers, while the southern limit is covered by the River De and River Kau which join Khawthlangtuipui (Karnaphuli) River in the West.

**Lungsen Rural Development Block:** The Ngengpui Lui (*aka* Mengpui Lui), Kongten Lui, and Hmawngre Lui form the eastern boundary of the block while the River Theka forms the western boundary. In the South, Tuichawng and the tributary of Phairuang form the southern limit, while the River Sazuk, River De and Sailui form the northern limit.

**Lunglei Rural Development Block:** This block is flanked by the River Ngengpui and Tlawng in the West, and Mat and CHhimtuipui in the East. The River Ngengpui and its tributary form the southern limit while the northern limit is set by the Aibawk Rural Development Block of Aizawl District.

**Hnahthial Rural Development Block:** This block is separated by the River Mat in the West and Tiau in the East. The southern limit is shared by the River Mat and CHhimtuipui and their small tributaries, while northern limit is set by the River Buchun in the East and the Tuichang River in the West.

### **3.1.4 Rainfall**

The average rainfall, recorded in 1984, 1986, 1988, 1990, 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998, and 1999 are 2,383.0 mm., 2,183.2 mm., 3,142.8 mm., 2,909.4 mm., 1,529.4 mm., 2,012.6 mm., 2,652.3 mm., 3,023.0 mm., and 3,326.0 mm., respectively. This reveals that Lunglei District has been receiving regular and sufficient rainfall during the last 16 years. It is endowed with more rainfall as compared to the other districts of Mizoram in the northern and eastern sides.

### **3.1.5 Education**

The number of Primary schools have increased by 109.73 per cent, Middle schools have increased by 170.59 per cent, High schools have increased by 200.00 per cent and Colleges have increased by 300.00 per cent during the last two decades in the district (Table 3.4). As against this, the number of Primary schools, Middle schools, High schools, and Colleges in the state have increased by 93.71 per cent, 157.48 per cent, 189.06 per cent, and 262.05 per cent respectively. The percentage increase in the total number of educational institutions during 1980-1985 (53.51 per cent) was also nearly ten times that of the total number of educational institutions during 1995–2000 (5.49 per cent).

**Table 3.4**  
**GROWTH OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN LUNGLEI**  
**DISTRICT (01-04-1980 TO 01-04-2000)**

Stage or Level of Educational Institution	As on 01-04-1980			As on 01-04-1985			As on 01-04-1995			As on 01-04-2000		
	Govt	Private	Total	Govt	Private	Total	Govt	Private	Total	Govt	Private	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Primary School	96	17	113	140	45	185	187	55	242	187	50	237
Middle School	17	34	51	18	58	76	53	66	119	54	84	138
High School	3	17	20	4	17	21	25	29	54	25	35	60
Higher Secondary School	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	3
College	1	-	1	1	1	2	1	3	4	1	3	4
University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>TOTAL:</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>185</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>284</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>153</b>	<b>419</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>442</b>

*Source:* Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1981 1987, 1996, & 2000.

Regarding the rate of increase in the number of Higher Secondary schools, no mention is made in the above comparative study because the 10+2 system of education has been introduced in this state since 1997 only.

### 3.1.6 Public Distribution System

Variations in the number of Government Fair-Price Shops, Godowns and Warehouses in Mizoram and Lunglei District are displayed in the following Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5**  
**NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT FAIR-PRICE SHOPS, GODOWNS AND**  
**WAREHOUSES IN MIZORAM AND LUNGLEI DISTRICT (1990-2000)**

District/ State	1990-1991		1997-1998		1999-2000	
	Govt. Fair- Price Shops	Godowns/ Warehouses	Govt. Fair- Price Shops	Godowns/ Warehouses	Govt. Fair- Price Shops	Godowns/ Warehouses
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Lunglei District	155	41	183	33	185	27
Mizoram	873	203	1,073	191	1,096	168

*Source:* Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1992, 1998 and 2000.

It is seen that the number of Government Fair-Price Shops had risen, while the number of Godowns and Warehouses had fallen during 1990-2000. The percentage of government fair-price shops in Lunglei District to that in the state was 17.75 per cent in 1990-1991, 17.05 per cent in 1997-1998 and 16.88 per cent in 1999-2000. The percentage of government supply godowns and warehouses in the district to that in the state was 20.20 per cent in 1990-1991, 17.28 in 1997-1998 and 16.07 per cent in 1999-2000.

**Table 3.6**

**STATISTICS OF THE FOUR RURAL DEVELOPMENT BLOCKS OF LUNGLEI DISTRICT**

Sl. No	Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)	Area of Rural Development Block in sq. km.	1981 Census			1991 Census			2001 Census		
			Population	Density of population per sq. km.	Percentage of Literacy	Population	Density of population per sq. km.	Percentage of Literacy	Population	Density of Population per sq. km.	Percentage of Literacy
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1.	W. Bunghmun R.D.B.	1,117.07	12,239	11	46.29	15,549	14	55.61	16,508	14	65.00
2.	Lungsen R.D.B.	1,046.29	21,127	20	37.53	26,496	25	52.19	30,704	29	53.29
3.	Lunglei R.D.B..	1,389.26	34,530	25	68.09	48,493	35	92.08	64,863	48	82.00
4.	Hnahthial R.D.B.	985.39	18,615	19	65.03	20,877	21	N.A.	25,080	25	77.49
<b>Lunglei District Total: -</b>		<b>4,538.00</b>	<b>86,511</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>56.89</b>	<b>1,11,415</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>77.73</b>	<b>1,37,155</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>69.41</b>
<b>Mizoram:-</b>		<b>21,087.00</b>	<b>4,93,757</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>59.88</b>	<b>6,89,756</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>82.26</b>	<b>8,91,058</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>88.49</b>

(Table 3.6 Continued)

As on April 01, 2001											
Number of Males	Number of Females	Total Population	Density of Population per sq. km.	Number of Females per 1,000 Males	Number of Villages	Number of Households	Number of Houses	Average Size of Households	MEDICAL FACILITIES		
									Hospital/Community Health Centre (C.H.C.)	Primary Health Centre (P.H.C.)	S.H.C./Main Centre/Health Sub-Centre
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)
8,366	8,142	16,508	14	973	34	2,763	3,106	6	0	2	12
15,821	14,883	30,704	29	941	67	5,689	6,000	5	2	1	20
32,856	32,007	64,863	48	974	39	12,448	14,320	5	2	2	31
12,983	12,097	25,080	25	932	25	4,524	4,883	6	1	2	17
<b>70,026</b>	<b>67,129</b>	<b>1,37,155</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>959</b>	<b>165</b>	<b>25,424</b>	<b>28,309</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>4,59,783</b>	<b>4,31,275</b>	<b>8,91,058</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>938</b>	<b>732</b>	<b>1,61,947</b>	<b>1,61,570</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>434</b>

(Table 3.6 Continued)

As on April 01, 2001															
Number of Electrified Houses	Number of V/C. Elected Members	Number of Community Halls	Number of Play-Grounds	College		Higher Secondary School		High School		Middle School		Primary School		Other Educational Training Institutes	Library
				Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private		
(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)
1,465	76	12	25	0	0	0	0	2	2	11	3	23	7	0	0
2,057	89	13	25	0	0	0	0	3	5	9	16	38	6	0	6
12,391	188	24	38	1	2	3	0	12	17	43	36	74	25	3	27
4,175	70	12	24	0	1	1	0	8	11	15	10	52	12	1	29
20,088	423	61	112	1	3	4	0	25	35	78	65	187	50	4	62
1,16,019	2,686	400	569	8	22	27	4	151	219	405	399	1,044	219	29	372

(Table 3.6 Continued)

As on April 01, 2001												
Number of Post Offices, i.e., Sub-Post Offices & Branch Post Offices	Number of Church Buildings	Number of Fish Ponds	Inspection Bungalow (I.B.) / Departmental Rest House / Tourist Lodge / Way-Side Hotel/Restaurant				Number of Public Water Points	Number of Drilled Water Points (Hand-Pump)	Number of Water Connections	Number of Liquefied Petroleum Gas (L.P.G.) Consumers	Number of Telephone Subscribers	Number of Police Stations
			Government			Private						
			Number of Inspection Bungalows (I.B.)	Number of Departmental Rest Houses	Number of Tourist Lodges	Number of Wayside Hotels/Restaurants						
(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)
11	41	8	0	4	0	0	89	5	0	301	130	1
17	106	22	5	5	0	12	161	5	139	622	298	2
12	196	251	4	8	2	20	248	74	4,669	7,478	2,571	3
18	90	184	5	12	2	18	222	39	25	1,141	692	2
<b>58</b>	<b>433</b>	<b>465</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>720</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>4,833</b>	<b>9,542</b>	<b>3,691</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>380</b>	<b>2,358</b>	<b>3,406</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>174</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>244</b>	<b>4,006</b>	<b>716</b>	<b>21,703</b>	<b>73,512</b>	<b>30,091</b>	<b>46</b>

Source: 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2002.

2. Socio-Economic Review Mizoram 2000-'01.

### **3.1.7 Fishery and Pisciculture**

465 (or 13.65 %) of the 3,406 fish ponds in the state are in Lunglei District. 8 of them are in W. Bunglei Rural Development Block (1.72 per cent), 22 are in Lungsen Rural Development Block (4.73 per cent), 251 are in Lunglei Rural Development Block (53.98 per cent), and 184 are in Hnahthial Rural Development Block (39.57 per cent). Lunglei District is, therefore, relatively worse off than many other districts of Mizoram in this aspect. The majority of the fish-farmers or pisciculturists in this state belong to the richer section of the society and they carry on fish-farming or pisciculture as a mere hobby rather than an occupation. To them, fish-farming or pisciculture is simply an enjoyment and whatever incomes they derive from their fisheries are, at best, subsidiary incomes.

### **3.1.8 Drinking Water**

The supply of drinking water to the people of Mizoram, in the urban areas and in some of the rural areas as well, has been undertaken by the State Government through its Public Health Engineering Department for the last 25 years or so. The people are given water through piped water supply, drilled wells and private water connections. Besides these

systems, the people of some urban towns are also given drinking water through emergency water supply by trucks as and when required.

The numbers of public water points, drilled water points (hand-pumps) and private water connections in Mizoram as on April 01, 2001 are 4,006, 716 and 21,703 respectively. Out of these 4,006 public water points, 720 are installed in Lunglei District constituting 17.97 per cent of the total number of public water points in the state (Table 3.6). Out of the total number of hand-pumps (Drilled Water Points) installed in Mizoram, i.e. 716, 123 are in Lunglei District and this constitutes 17.18 per cent of the total number of drilled water points installed in the state. Out of the 21,703 private water connections in the state, the share of this district is 4,833 that constitute 22.27 per cent of the total number of private water connections allotted in the state.

**Block-Wise Number of Public Water Points:** W. Bunglei Rural Development Block has 89 public water points, Lungsen Block has 161 public water points, Lunglei Block has 248 public water points, and Hnahthial Block has 222 public water points as on April 01, 2001. The proportion of public water points installed within these blocks works out to 12.36 per cent in W. Bunglei R.D.B., 22.36 per cent in Lungsen R.D.B., 34.45 per cent in Lunglei R.D.B., and 30.83 per cent in Hnahthial

R.D.B. Therefore, more than 65.00 per cent of the District's public water points are installed within Lunglei and Hnahthial Blocks and the rest are distributed within the other two rural development blocks.

**Block-Wise Number of Drilled Water Points (Hand-Pumps):** Table 3.6 also shows that the number of drilled water points (hand-pumps) installed within W. Bughmun Block, Lungsen Block, Lunglei Block and Hnahthial Block as on April 01, 2001 are 5, 5, 74 and 39 respectively, which works out to 4.06 per cent, 4.06 per cent, 60.17 per cent and 31.71 per cent respectively. Thus, 91.88 per cent of the district's drilled water points are in Lunglei and Hnahthial Blocks, while the rest 8.12 per cent are equally distributed between the other two rural development blocks.

**Block-Wise Number of Private Water Connections:** It is also seen in Table 3.6 that the number of private water connections allotted is 0 (nil) in W. Bughmun Block, 139 in Lungsen Block, 4,669 in Lunglei Block and 25 in Hnahthial Block as on April 01, 2001. This works out to 0.00 per cent, 2.88 per cent, 96.60 per cent and 0.52 per cent respectively. Thus, nearly 97.00 per cent of the district's private water connections are in Lunglei Block, while W. Bughmun Block has no such connection allotted and Lungsen Block has barely 0.52 per cent of the district's private water connections.

### 3.1.9 Poverty

**Table 3.7**  
**BLOCK-WISE NUMBER OF B.P.L. FAMILIES IN**  
**LUNGLEI DISTRICT AS ON 15-12-1999**

<b>Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)</b>	<b>Population of the Rural Development Block</b>	<b>Number of B.P.L. Families</b>	<b>Proportion of the B.P.L. Families to the R.D. Block Population</b>	<b>Proportion of the B.P.L. Families to the Total Number of B.P.L. Families in Lunglei District</b>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
W. Bunglei R.D.B.	16,208	2,305	71.10 %	13.20 %
Lungsen R.D.B.	29,854	4,800	80.40 %	27.40 %
Lunglei R.D.B.	54,407	6,986	64.20 %	39.90 %
Hnahthial R.D.B.	25,115	3,422	68.10 %	19.50 %
<b>Lunglei District Total</b>	<b>1,25,584</b>	<b>17,513</b>	<b>Proportion of the District Total Number of B.P.L. Families to the District Total Number of Families is 71.27%</b>	<b>Proportion of the District Total Number of B.P.L. families to the State Total Number of B.P.L. Families is 21.9%</b>

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2000.  
2. Mizoram at a Glance, 2001.

The block-wise number of families, which were living below the poverty line in Lunglei District, as on December 15, 1999, is presented in Table 3.7. Lunglei District alone has as much as 21.90 per cent of the total number of B.P.L families in the state, while the other

seven districts together contribute the rest 78.10 per cent of the B.P.L. families in Mizoram (Table 3.7).

Lungsen Rural Development Block has the highest proportion of B.P.L. families in the district (80.40 per cent) compared to the total population in the block. This is followed by W. Bunglemun Rural Development Block (71.10 per cent), Hnahthial Rural Development Block (68.10 per cent) and Lunglei Rural Development Block (64.20 per cent).

### **3.1.10 Unemployment**

Like the people in other districts of Mizoram, the people in Lunglei District too have been facing a crucial unemployment problem since the later part of 1960s. The types of unemployment, which confront the people of this district, are:

- i. Seasonal unemployment;
- ii. Disguised unemployment;
- iii. Educated unemployment; and
- iv. Under-employment.

Since no reliable statistics are available, we cannot furnish the real extent and magnitude of unemployment in this district. The only figures available with us are those of the Employment Exchange. However,

several unemployed persons have not come forward to register themselves in this Employment Exchange. Meanwhile, all those persons, who have registered themselves in this Employment Exchange, may not be all unemployed. Some of them may have been employed while some others may be under-employed elsewhere.

The co-incidence of seasonal unemployment and disguised unemployment is inevitable in a hilly district like Lunglei District, where jhumming or traditional shifting cultivation is still carried on as the main occupation of the people. Moreover, the problem is bound to persist and it will become worse and worse unless the said system of cultivation is replaced by modern method of cultivation.

Owing to too much pressure on land, the people of Lunglei District are confronted with what is called “disguised unemployment”. Disguised unemployment is defined as that excess of labour, which can be drained off without decreasing total agricultural output with the same technique of cultivation. In this case, the marginal productivity of labour has fallen to zero or even negative. The natural growth of population or simply the increase in population aggravates the problem of disguised unemployment. Since economic development does not keep pace with the

population growth, the number of job opportunities does not increase at the same rate with the increase in population.

Besides these, unemployment is also widespread among the rural artisans, craftsmen, and other such persons who do not find much gainful activity to support and sustain their living. In Lunglei District and other districts of Mizoram, the incidence of middle class or educated unemployment is quite high even in the rural areas.

The urban unemployment in Lunglei District may be of four types, viz.

- i. Educated unemployment or middle class unemployment;
- ii. Under-employment;
- iii. Seasonal unemployment; and
- iv. Industrial unemployment or unemployment among the industrial workers.

On the question of why seasonal unemployment is also occurring in the urban areas of this district, we should bear in mind that in Mizoram, several urban residents still indulge in agriculture and practise shifting cultivation.

**Table 3.8****EMPLOYMENT: LIVE REGISTER, LUNGLEI DISTRICT**

<b>Qualification of Job-Seekers</b>	<b>As on 01.04.1986</b>	<b>As on 01.04.1991</b>	<b>As on 01.04.1996</b>	<b>As on 01.04.2000</b>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Below H.S.L.C.	2,620	2,291	1,897	3,053
H.S.L.C.	1,142	1,450	1,897	2,317
P.U.C.	247	320	386	829
B.A.	155	212	202	440
B.Sc.	5	14	24	46
B. Com.	-	3	3	7
M.A.	21	21	17	34
M. Sc.	-	-	12	8
Drivers	122	179	110	105
Physically Handicapped	-	2	4	5
Passed out Trainees including I.T.I.	333	320	378	451
<b>TOTAL :</b>	<b>4,645</b>	<b>4,812</b>	<b>4,930</b>	<b>7,295</b>

*Source:* Statistical Handbook Mizoram 1987, 1992, 1996, & 2000.

The number of uneducated job-seekers in Lunglei District during the last 15 years has risen from 2,742 to 3,163 persons, i.e. by 15.35 per cent (Table 3.8). The number of educated job-seekers in this district during the same period, however, has increased from 1,903 to 4,132, i.e. by 117.13 per cent.

As seen in the above table (Table 3.8), the total number of job-seekers in the district during the last fifteen years rose by 57.05 per cent. Further, according to the Live Register of Employment Exchange, the total number of job-seekers as on April 01, 2000 in Mizoram State was

96,233, which accounted for about 10 per cent of the population of the state, while the corresponding figure in Lunglei District was 7,295, which accounted for about 6 per cent of the population of the district.

### **3.2 Block-Wise Socio-Economic Structure and Trends**

#### **3.2.1 Demographic Trends**

The rural development blocks of Lunglei District cover comparatively a larger geographical area. These four blocks account for 15.39 per cent of the total population of Mizoram, while their total geographical area is 21.52 per cent of Mizoram's geographical area. This implies that the four rural development blocks are sparsely populated and all of them have relatively a thin population.

**Size of Population:** Lunglei Block has the largest population among the four blocks of the district, followed by Lungsen, Hnahthial and W. Bunghmun Blocks (Table 3.6).

The population of Lunglei Block increased from 34,530 in 1981 to 64,863 in 2001 (Table 3.6). The population of Lungsen Block increased from 21,127 in 1981 to 30,704 in 2001. The population of Hnahthial Block increased from 18,615 in 1981 to 25,080 in 2001. Lastly, the population of W. Bunghmun Block increased from 12,239 in 1981 to 16,508 in 2001. The respective shares of these four rural development

blocks in the total population and geographical area of the state as on April 01, 1981 and April 01, 2001 are illustrated with the help of the following Table 3.9.

**Table 3. 9**

**RESPECTIVE SHARES OF R.D. BLOCKS OF LUNGLEI DISTRICT IN THE TOTAL POPULATION AND GEOGRAPHICAL AREA OF MIZORAM AS ON 01-04-1981 AND 01-04-2001**

Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)	Share in the Total Population		Share in the Total Geographical Area	
	1981	2001	1981	2001
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
W. Bunglemun R.D. Block	2.48 %	1.85 %	5.30 %	5.30 %
Lungsen R.D. Block	4.28 %	3.45 %	4.96 %	4.96 %
Lunglei R.D. Block	6.99 %	7.28 %	6.59 %	6.59 %
Hnahthial R.D. Block	3.77 %	2.81 %	4.67 %	4.67 %
<b>Lunglei District:</b>	<b>17.52 %</b>	<b>15.39 %</b>	<b>21.52 %</b>	<b>21.52 %</b>

*Source:* Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram.

**Density of Population:** As discussed earlier in this chapter, the density of population in Lunglei District is lower than the density of population in Mizoram as a whole. Among the rural development blocks of Lunglei District, the most populous one is Lunglei Block. The density of population in this block is higher than the density of population in Lunglei District as a whole, and is also higher than the density of population in the state as a whole. The density of population per square

kilometre estimated for this Rural Development Block in 1981 is 25, in 1991 is 35, and in 2001 is 48.

Lunglei Block is followed by Lungsen Rural Development Block in terms of density of population. The density of population per square kilometre in Lungsen Block does not exceed the district's average and it is much less than that of the state. Next comes Hnahthial Block whose density of population per square kilometre increased from 19 in 1981 to 25 in 2001, but is less than that of Lunglei District. The least populated per square kilometre is W. Binghamun Block. The density was 11 in 1981, and rose to 14 in 2001. This block also has the lowest rate of growth of population among all the four blocks.

**Literacy Rate:** Till the 1991 census, the progress of literacy in Lunglei District was satisfactory and the percentage of decadal variation in the number of literate persons in this district was quite significant. However, the literacy rate in the district had shown a negative growth during the last decade. Among the four rural development blocks of Lunglei District, Lunglei Rural Development Block and Hnahthial Rural Development Block have maintained better records as compared to the other two blocks, although all of them have got a fairly high percentage of literacy.

The comparatively lower percentages of literacy in W. Binghamun and Lungsen Blocks may be attributable to the presence of a large number of Chakmas and Tuikuks in these two rural development blocks. In comparison with the Mizo community, the percentage of literacy among these nomadic communities is usually lower.

**Sex Ratio:** As stated earlier, while Mizoram had a sex ratio higher than that of the country in most of the census, Lunglei District's sex ratio was lower than that of the country or the state till 1991 census. However, the sex ratio of the district was higher than that of the country or the state in 2001.

The sex ratio in the four rural development blocks of Lunglei District in 2001 was 973 in W. Binghamun Block, 941 in Lungsen Block, 974 in Lunglei Block and 932 in Hnahthial Block. At the block level, Lunglei Block and W. Binghamun Block have a sex ratio larger than that of the nation/state/district, while the other two blocks, namely, Lungsen and Hnahthial Blocks have a sex ratio, which is smaller than that of the district. Among the four rural development blocks of Lunglei District, the only block which has a sex ratio smaller than that of the country/state/district is Hnahthial Block.

**Household Size:** The average household size in Lunglei District is 5. The average household size in W. Bunglei and Hnahthial Blocks are 6, while it is 5 in Lungsen and Lunglei Blocks.

### 3.2.2 Education

From Table 3.10, we observe that Lunglei District has: 4 out of 30 colleges of the state (13.33 per cent), 4 out of 31 higher secondary schools (12.90 per cent), 60 out of 370 high schools (16.22 per cent), 143 out of 804 middle schools (17.79 per cent), and 237 out of 1,263

**Table 3.10**  
**NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN**  
**MIZORAM AND LUNGLEI DISTRICT**  
**AS ON 01-04-2001**

Sl. No.	Level of Educational Institution	Total Number of Educational Institutions	
		Lunglei District	Mizoram
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	College	4	30
2.	Higher Secondary School	4	31
3.	High School	60	370
4.	Middle School	143	804
5.	Primary School	237	1,263

*Source:* 1. Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2002.

2. Mizoram at a Glance 2001.

primary schools (18.76 per cent). Besides these educational institutions, there are 29 training institutes in Mizoram, of which 4 are in Lunglei District.

Lunglei District also has a few Hindi schools and some informal education centres in its urban areas. A National Open School has started functioning at Lunglei a few years back and a study centre of the Indira Gandhi National Open University has recently been opened at Lunglei Government College.

**Educational Institutions in W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block:**

W. Bunghmun Block has no College or Higher Secondary School. It had 4 High schools (6.67 per cent of the total in the district), 14 Middle schools (9.79 per cent of the total in the district), and 30 Primary schools (12.66 per cent of the total in the district) as on April 01, 2001.

**Educational Institutions in Lungsen Rural Development Block:**

Lungsen Rural Development Block too has no College or Higher Secondary School. The number of different educational institutions in this block, as on April 01, 2001, are 8 High schools (13.33 per cent of the total in the district), 25 Middle schools (17.48 per cent of the total in the district) and 44 Primary schools (18.57 per cent of the total in the district).

**Educational Institutions in Lunglei Rural Development Block:**

The number of different educational institutions in Lunglei Rural Development Block as on April 01, 2001 are 3 Colleges (75.00 per cent

of the total in the district), 3 Higher Secondary schools (75.00 per cent of the total in the district), 29 High schools (48.33 per cent of the total in the district), 79 Middle schools (55.24 per cent of the total in the district), and 99 Primary schools (41.77 per cent of the total in the district).

### **Educational Institutions in Hnahthial Rural Development Block:**

The number of different educational institutions in Hnahthial Rural Development Block as on April 01, 2001 are 1 College (25.00 per cent of the total in the district), 1 Higher Secondary school (25.00 per cent of the total in the district), 19 High schools (31.67 per cent of the total in the district), 25 Middle schools (17.48 per cent of the total in the district) and 64 Primary schools (27.00 per cent of the total in the district).

### **3.2.3 Power**

Electricity came to Lunglei District in 1969 when Lunglei town was electrified with a diesel generator. The electrification of Lunglei town was improved and extended by means of grid power and higher capacity diesel generators. At the same time, the programme pertaining to electrification of the rural areas of this district was also launched with the help of grid power. This programme had been carried on more successfully and with faster progress since the Rural Electrification Corporation Limited, acting as an agency to physically and financially

monitor the programme, took up the all-villages electrification programme consequent upon the upgradation of Mizoram from a union territory to a state.

The total number of villages electrified in Mizoram as on April 01, 2000 is 691. Out of these 691 villages, the number of villages that belongs to Lunglei District is 161. Thus, we come to know that 23.30 per cent of the total villages electrified in the state are in Lunglei District.

Out of 1,61,570 houses in Mizoram, the total number of houses already electrified as on April 01,2001 is 1,16,019, which implies that 71.81 per cent of the houses had been electrified in the state. In Lunglei District, out of 28,309 houses, 20,088 houses have been electrified constituting 70.96 per cent of the total number of houses in the district.

**W. Bnghmun Rural Development Block:** In W. Bnghmun Block, 1,465 out of 3,106 houses (47.17 per cent) have been electrified during this period. As against this, the corresponding figures at the all-Mizoram and Lunglei District levels are 71.81 per cent and 70.96 per cent respectively.

**Lungsen Rural Development Block:** In Lungsen Block, 2,057 out of 6,000 houses (34.28 per cent) have been electrified during this period. As

against this, the corresponding figures at the all-Mizoram and Lunglei District levels are 71.81 per cent and 70.96 per cent respectively.

**Lunglei Rural Development Block:** In Lunglei Rural Development Block, 12,391 out of 14,320 houses (86.53 per cent) have been electrified during this period. As against this, the corresponding figures at the all-Mizoram and Lunglei District levels are 71.81 per cent and 70.96 per cent respectively.

**Hnahthial Rural Development Block:** In Hnahthial Block, 4,175 out of 4,883 houses (85.50 per cent) have been electrified during this period. As against this, the corresponding figures at the all-Mizoram and Lunglei District levels are 71.81 per cent and 70.96 per cent respectively.

### **3.2.4 Postal Services**

Out of the 380 post offices (Head Post Office, Sub-Post Offices and Branch Post Offices) in the state, the share of Lunglei District is 58 constituting 15.26 per cent (Table 3.6). Hnahthial Rural Development Block has comparatively more postal institutions/facilities than any other block in the district.

**Distribution of Post Offices, i.e. Sub-Post Offices/Branch Post Offices in Lunglei District:** As on April 01, 2001, there are 58 Sub- Post Offices/Branch Post Offices in Lunglei District (Table 3.6). 11 of these

are within W. Bunglemun Block, 17 are in Lungsen Block, 12 are in Lunglei Block, and 18 are in Hnahthial Block.

### **3.2.5 Medical Facilities**

There are 4 Hospitals/Community Health Centres, 7 Primary Health Centres and 80 Sub-Health Centre/Main Centres/Health Sub-Centres in Lunglei District as on April 01, 2001 (Table 3.6). Besides, there is 1 private Hospital at Serkawn, Lunglei. The total bed-strength of these medical institutions is 340. Thus, the availability of hospital beds in the district is 403 persons for every one bed as against each 491 persons per bed at the state level.

This implies that 22.73 per cent of the hospitals/community health centres, 15.22 per cent of the primary health centres, and 18.43 per cent of the subsidiary health centres/main centres/health sub-centres of the state are in this district where only 15.39 per cent of the population of Mizoram reside.

**Block-Wise Distribution of Health Centres:** Out of the 5 hospitals /community health centres (C.H.C.), one is in Hnahthial Block, and two each in Lungsen and Lunglei Blocks. W. Bunglemun Block has no hospital or C.H.C. as on April 01, 2001 (Table 3.6). Out of the 7 primary health centres, 1 is located in Lungsen Block, and 2 each in W.

Bunghmun Block, Lunglei Block and Hnahthial Block. Of the remaining 80 health centres (Sub-Health Centres/Main Centres/Health Sub-Centres) in the district, 12 are within W. Bunghmun Block, 20 in Lungsen Block, 31 in Lunglei Block and 17 in Hnahthial Rural Development Block.

### **3.2.6 Rest Houses and Restaurants**

Inspection Bungalows, Departmental Rest Houses and Tourist Lodges are the Government properties. Therefore, the existence of inspection bungalow/departmental rest house or a tourist lodge in a village or a town indicates official importance of that place or area. There are 5 Inspection Bungalows in Lungsen Block, 4 in Lunglei Block, and 5 in Hnahthial Block as on 01-04-2001 (Table 3.6). There are no Inspection Bungalows in W. Bunghmun Block as on April 01, 2001. There are also 4 Departmental Rest Houses in W. Bunghmun Block, 5 in Lungsen Block, 8 in Lunglei Block, and 12 in Hnahthial Block as on 01-04-2001. There are also 2 Tourist Lodges each in Lunglei and Hnahthial Blocks as on 01-04-2001. There are no Tourist Lodges in W. Bunghmun and Lungsen Blocks as on April 01, 2001.

The existence of hotels in a village or a town indicates, among others, the commercial importance of that place. There are also a few hotels in some towns in Mizoram that provide fooding and lodging.

Those way-side or road-side restaurants/dhabas are generally run in villages and towns along the National Highway, the state highway and the district roads.

There are 12 hotels/restaurants in Lungsen Block, 20 in Lunglei Block and 18 in Hnahthial Block (Table 3.6). There are no hotels/restaurants in W. Bunglemun Block as on April 01, 2001.

### **3.2.7 Other Socio-Economic Trends**

**Block-Wise Number of Community Halls:** The total number of community halls in Mizoram, as on 01-04-2001, is 400. Of these, Lunglei District has 61, constituting 15.25 per cent (Table 3.6). There are 12 community halls in W. Bunglemun Block, 13 in Lungsen Block, 24 in Lunglei Block and 12 in Hnahthial Block as on 01-04-2001. W. Bunglemun Rural Development Block, therefore, has 19.67 per cent of the district's community halls, Lungsen Rural Development Block has 21.31 per cent, Lunglei Rural Development Block has 39.35 per cent and Hnahthial Rural Development Block has 19.67 per cent.

**Block-Wise Number of Play-Grounds:** The existence of a play-ground in a village or locality is indicator of social change or socio-economic development of that place or area. The number of play-grounds in W. Bunglemun Block, Lungsen Block, Lunglei Block and Hnahthial Block,

as on 01-04-2001, are 25, 25, 38 and 24 respectively (Table 3.6), which works out to 22.32 per cent, 22.32 per cent, 33.93 per cent and 21.43 per cent respectively.

**Block-Wise Number of Elected Village Council Members:** The existence of village council in a village or a locality is indicator of socio-political development of that place or area. There are 710 village councils in Mizoram as on April 01, 2002. 126 of these are in Lunglei District, which works out to 17.75 per cent of the total number of village councils in the state. Out of the 2,686 elected village council members in the state, as on April 01, 2001, 423 are the members of village councils in this district constituting 15.75 per cent of the total number of elected village council members in the state.

The representation of people in a village council has been done according to the number of households or houses. Therefore, the number of village council members which a rural village or an urban village is entitled to is calculated on the basis of the number of houses or households possessed by that village as follows: -

- i. 30 to 199 houses: 3 V/C. members;
- ii. 200 to 399 houses: 5 V/C. members;
- iii. 400 to 699 houses: 7 V/C. members;

- iv. 700 to 1,499 houses: 9 V/C. members;
- v. 1,500 & above: 11 V/C. members;

A village that has less than 30 households or houses is not entitled to have a village council of its own.

W. Bunglemun Block has 76 elected V/C members, Lungsen Block has 89, Lunglei Block has 188 and Hnahthial Block has 70 as on 01-04-2001 (Table 3.6), constituting 17.97 per cent, 21.04 per cent, 44.44 per cent and 16.55 per cent respectively to the total number of elected village council members in the district.

**Block-Wise Number of Police Stations:** The existence of a police station in a village or a locality indicates administrative development as well as official importance of that place or area. There are 8 police stations in Lunglei District as on 01-04-2001, which constitute 17.39 per cent of the total number of police stations in the state. One of these is in W. Bunglemun Block, three are in Lunglei Block, and two each are in Lungsen and Hnahthial Blocks (Table 3.6).

**Block-Wise Number of Libraries:** Out of the 372 libraries of Mizoram, 62 are in Lunglei District as on 01-04-2001 (Table 3.6), constituting 16.67 per cent of the total in the state. There are 6 libraries in Lungsen Block, 27 in Lunglei Block and 29 in Hnahthial Block. This works out to

9.68 per cent, 43.55 per cent and 46.77 per cent respectively of the total number of libraries in the district. There are no libraries in W. Bunglemun Rural Development Block as on 01-04-2001.

**Block-Wise Number of L.P.G. Consumers:** There are 9,542 consumers of liquefied petroleum gas (L.P.G.) in Lunglei District as on April 01, 2001, constituting 12.98 per cent of the total number of L.P.G. consumers in the state. 301 of these are in W. Bunglemun Block, 622 are in Lungsen Block, 7,478 are in Lunglei Block and 1,141 are in Hnahthial Block (Table 3.6), which works out to 3.15 per cent, 6.52 per cent, 78.37 per cent and 11.96 per cent respectively of the total number of L.P.G. consumers in the district.

**Block-Wise Number of Telephone Subscribers:** Out of the 30,091 telephone subscribers in Mizoram, 3,691 are in Lunglei District as on 01-04-2001 (Table 3.6). These constitute 12.27 per cent of the total number of telephone subscribers in the state. The number of telephone subscribers in W. Bunglemun Block, Lungsen Block, Lunglei Block and Hnahthial Block are 130, 298, 2,571 and 692 respectively, which works out to 3.52 per cent, 8.07 per cent, 69.66 per cent and 18.75 per cent respectively of the total number of telephone subscribers in the district.

### 3.3 Summary

The total geographical area covered by Lunglei District is 4,538 square kilometres, which constitutes 21.52 per cent of the total geographical area of Mizoram. The capital is Lunglei town, which is the second biggest town in Mizoram. Lunglei District has an international boundary with Bangladesh and Myanmar. It also has an inter-district boundary with Mamit, Aizawl, Serchhip, Saiha and Lawngtlai Districts of the state.

Four out of the 22 rural development blocks in the state are in Lunglei District. They are W. Bunglei R.D.B., Lungsen R.D.B., Lunglei R.D.B., and Hnahthial R.D.B. There are three urban towns in the district. The number of villages in the four development blocks of the district had fluctuated much during 1981 to 2001, while their respective population for the same period had shown a steady increase. The main factor responsible for fluctuation in the number of villages in Mizoram is internal migration within the state.

Lunglei District, being the biggest in terms of geographical area, has the second largest population in the state. The population of this district now constitutes 15.39 per cent of the total population of Mizoram. However, the percentage decadal increase in the population of Lunglei

District during the last three decades is less than that of the state. According to the 2001 Census (Provisional), the number of females per 1,000 males in Lunglei District is 959 and the density of population per square kilometre is 30. Among the eight districts of Mizoram, Lunglei District ranks fourth in terms of sex ratio as well as density of population. This district has experienced a lower rate of growth of literacy than at the state level during the last three decades; in fact, the percentage of literacy in this district declined from 77.73 in 1991 to 69.41 in 2001.

Lunglei District has been receiving regular and sufficient rainfall for the last 16 years, and is endowed with more rainfall as compared to the other districts of Mizoram in the northern and eastern sides.

Lunglei District has as much as 21.90 per cent of the total number of B.P.L families in the state and the unemployed constitutes 6 per cent of the population of the district.

There are 237 Primary schools, 143 Middle schools, 60 High schools, 4 Higher Secondary schools, 4 Colleges, 4 training institutes and 62 libraries. 23.30 per cent of the villages that have been electrified in the state are in this district, and 70.96 per cent of the houses have been electrified.

The district has 5 Hospitals/Community Health Centres, 7 Primary Health Centres and 80 Sub-Health Centre/Main Centres/Health Sub-Centres. There are 58 Post offices and branches. There are 3,691 telephone subscribers and 9,542 consumers of liquefied petroleum gas (L.P.G.). There are 185 fair-price shops in the district.

15.25 per cent (61 nos) of the state's community halls are in the district. There are 112 play-grounds. There are 126 village councils and 423 elected village council members.

With regards to socio-economic development, Lunglei District has experienced a gradual and steady growth and her share in the respective state totals are also comparatively larger than that of many other districts of Mizoram. However, the district is lagging behind in the development of transport and communications. There is also a disparity among the rural development blocks of Lunglei District in socio-economic development.

## **Chapter IV**

### **POVERTY: IDENTIFICATION, DEFINITION AND MEASUREMENT**

This chapter examines some conceptual problems regarding the identification, definition and measurement of poverty. Besides, various poverty indices are critically evaluated based on the objective appeal and other welfare criteria.

#### **4.1 The Concept of Poverty**

Poverty is a socio-economic phenomenon, which defies any precise definition. Its concept and content vary from country to country depending upon what a particular society accepts as a reasonably good living standard for its people. Thus, in California (U.S.A.), it would not be surprising if a family owning less than two cars is dubbed as poor. But in India, poverty manifests itself in its starkest form as a visual of semi-starved, ill-clad, deprived millions of countrymen, thousands of whom are dying every day from malnutrition, ill-health and lack of basic amenities.

Therefore, the term “Poverty” has been defined by different authors in different ways. Poverty has been defined in both absolute and relative senses. In India, the absolute dimensions of poverty are so large that it would be meaningful to concentrate precisely on this aspect of poverty, although defining “Absolute Poverty Line” in itself is a difficult job.

Towards this end, poverty indices suggested by Rowntree (1901), Orshanky (1965), Planning Commission (1984) and Paul (1989) offer many alternative definitions. Very few will disagree with the Rowntree's definition of absolute poverty, where it has been defined as "that level of income, which is inadequate to obtain even the minimum necessities for the maintenance of human efficiency." According to this definition, estimation of absolute poverty requires us to answer the logical question as to what is the minimum level of income that guarantees efficiency. We must also address to the question as to what are the absolute minimum quantities of such absolute necessities to bring about efficiency in human existence. Surely, the identification of minimum absolute necessities and their respective minimum quantities would vary from one historical epoch to another and from one region to another. And within one historical epoch and one region, there are bound to be inter-personal variations in understanding and interpreting the term "minimum". The survey of literature suggests that absolute poverty in India has invariably been equated to the lack of physical standardized level of living. On the other hand, in the U.S.A., absolute poverty connotes socially acceptable standardized level of living. Thus, we see that in two different countries, *absolute poverty norms have different standards. In fact, defining absolute poverty is not free from subjectivity. As a result, whenever*

absolute poverty line has been drawn, subjectivity has guided its construction.

On the other hand, poor in the relative sense has been defined as those who are worse-off than other members of the community in which they live. Relative poverty, therefore, can be defined on the basis of individual or families of certain types having total income of less than half or two-thirds of the average. While drawing the relative poverty line, there arises a basic question as to how much short of the average must a person fall to be considered as poor? To this question, there cannot be a unique answer. Relative poverty is also, therefore, determined and guided by subjective considerations. This is indirectly to suggest that both absolute and relative poverty definitions involve subjectivity in content and approach. That is why, a third concept of poverty is in circulation – that of subjective poverty.

Under the subjective poverty definitions, it is the individual who himself classifies whether he is poor or non-poor. Goedhart *et al.* (1977) has defined a family as poor if its actual income was found less than what the family considers as just sufficient. Similarly, Leveson (1973) has defined it as the existence of a low level of utility. Attempts have been made to estimate the society's poverty line empirically on the basis of such subjective considerations. In this direction, exercise carried out by

Goedhart *et al.* (1977) deserves a special mention. He asked the head of the selected family in a sample what he considered to be the minimum income at which his family could make both ends meet. The respondent's answer was found naturally to be variant to his actual income and family size. He fitted double log linear equations to his sample of 1,748 observations. For a given family size, there existed an income level at which the typical respondent's stated minimum income was equal to his actual income. At this point of equality, he drew the poverty line. If for a family, its actual income lies below the minimum stated income, the family is considered as poor. This definition has also been called the empirical definition of poverty. The advantage in using the empirical definition of poverty is that no *a priori* definition of poverty line is imposed upon the respondent by either the researcher himself or by the state agency. It is purely based upon the understanding of "term" by the society's members themselves.

Poverty is a feeling of deprivation, either absolute in sense or relative in nature. In a low-income society like ours, absolute poverty has a special relevance, and in this direction, Rowntree's definition of absolute poverty is appealing, although it is non-functional. Serious disagreement would arise as we stated earlier with regards to the identification of the minimum needs and their respective minimum

quantities. For both, an expert judgement is needed. That granted, the next step is to draw the absolute poverty line. In this direction, three approaches, namely, (i). Consumption-Basket Approach; (ii). Engel's Coefficient Approach, and (iii). Actual Behaviour Approach have been suggested.

Under the Consumption-Basket Approach, Rudra (1974) listed three alternative diets as suggested respectively by Sukhatme, F.A.O., and Patwardhan as the minimum calorie intake for an adult. The costs of these diets at 1960-61 prices are Rs.18/- per person per month (Sukhatme), Rs.21/- per person per month (F.A.O.) and Rs.13/- per person per month (Patwardhan). Lack of unanimity among experts shows a major weakness of this approach. Further, quantification of needs on the basis of expert judgement is questionable because it imposes norms on tastes and values held by individuals.

Under the Engel's Coefficient Approach, methods suggested by Orshansky (1965), Friedman (1965) and Watt (1967) are well-known. In general, those households which have a higher Engel's coefficient for food items are considered poor. But since the ratio between food and non-food prices keeps changing, this affects individual budgetary allocations on these two heads of expenditure and, therefore, the Engel's Coefficient. The comparative picture of poverty at points of time would, therefore, get

disturbed if relative prices change sizably with no major change in income levels.

Under the Actual Behaviour Approach, an absolute poverty line is drawn to include only those who fail to meet one or more needs. The Planning Commission (1979) has used this method while drawing urban and rural absolute poverty lines for India. The Planning Commission has considered only one basic need, i.e. food. Although this method may be extended to incorporate umpteen numbers of commodities, when extended to many commodities, the problems related to aggregation would arise. The Planning Commission's method requires knowledge of the relationship between consumption expenditure (or absolute level of income) and calorie-intake. The Planning Commission (1979) has defined poverty threshold as the per capita monthly expenditure of Rs.49/- in rural India at 1973-'74 prices. This poverty line corresponds roughly to the per capita expenditure at which a typically-structured, typically-spending household exactly meets its per capita daily requirement of 2,400 calories in rural areas.

#### **4.2 Poverty: Methodology**

To analyze poverty, economic welfare of each individual is a matter of concern. Income of an individual has normally been used to reflect the level of satisfaction enjoyed by a household, although income,

as a proxy variable, has serious drawbacks. Household income in rural India sees wide fluctuations, which are averaged out in the long run. The household consumption, however, is more stable both in the short and long runs and, therefore, is considered as a better indicator of the actual economic welfare of a household. Household's permanent income is also a good indicator of the level of satisfaction enjoyed by it.

The National Sample Surveys provide reasonably comparable time series data on the levels of distribution of household consumption expenditure. These statistics are presented in 13 to 14 expenditure classes. Each class contains information on (a). the estimated number of persons, (b). the average consumption expenditure in rupees per person. To estimate poverty from such data, interpretation methods are employed. "A commonly-used procedure is to fit a density function to the entire consumption function to the entire consumption range, and then, compute poverty measures from parameter of the fitted function" (Kakwani and Rai, 1992). Most Indian studies have employed a two-parameter long-normal distribution (Minhas, Jain, Kausal and Saluja, 1987). This distribution tends to over-correct the positive skewness of the income distribution, and thus, fits poorly to the observed data. Kakwani (1980) suggested general interpolation device which utilizes within each expenditure range, a separate continuous differentiable function that

exactly fits to the data points. The inequality and poverty measures are then computed by linking this function. He has used a polynomial of third degree to represent the Lorenze Curve within each income interval, except the first and the last expenditure ranges. A Pareto Curve has been used.

Ideally speaking, consumption expenditure should include all outlays incurred by the households exclusively on domestic account including consumption out of home-grown produce or out of transfer receipts. Home-grown produce should be evaluated at some prices, viz. ex-farm prices. Besides, one should also include the depreciated value of consumer durables, which are in stock in the household. And since stock values are not available, monetary value of consumer durables acquired during the reference period is included in the total expenditure. The danger in doing so is that it may distort the results on consumption inequality.

When the index of aggregate household welfare is constructed, the next logical step is to determine the welfare of each individual in the family, and then, aggregate it. Kakwani (1986) assigned each individual an expenditure welfare weight equivalent to the per capita consumption for that household. If there are severe intra-household differences in the

distribution of food and non-food items, poverty and inequality will both be under-estimated.

Once a suitable index of economic welfare for individuals or households is agreed upon, the next logical step is to find a threshold welfare level below which an individual is poor. Kakwani (1992) in his study, following the Planning Commission, defined poverty threshold as the per capita monthly expenditure of Rs.49.09 (rounded off to Rs.50/- by Kakwani) in rural India. The previous expressions of poverty line by the Planning Commission of India were generally in terms of annual income at current prices. For instance, in the Seventh Five-Year Plan (1987-1992), the Planning Commission defined the “Poor” as those households whose annual income was equal to or less than Rs.6,400/-. In fact, following this line of thinking, the Ministry of Rural Development (MORD 1993) in its Concurrent Evaluation of the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (J.R.Y.) programme expressed poverty line for a household as an annual income of equal to or less than Rs.6,400/- at 1991-'92 prices. Further, the “poor” were classified into four categories as under: “Destitute” households – those receiving Rs.2,265/- or less annually, “Very Very Poor” households – those receiving an income of Rs.2,266/- to Rs.3,500/- annually, “Very Poor” households – those receiving an income of Rs.3,501/- to Rs.4,800/- annually, and “Poor” households –

those receiving an income of Rs.4,801/- to Rs.6,400/- annually. All those receiving more than Rs.6,400/- annually were considered above the poverty line. One of the main objectives of this study is to estimate the level and extent of the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty at the village, rural development block, and district levels in the Lunglei District of the State of Mizoram for the year 1997-1998. The then expression of poverty line by the Planning Commission was in terms of average monthly income per person at current prices. The Planning Commission defined the "Poor" as those households whose average monthly income per head of the family as less than or equal to Rs.280.70. Based on this Planning Commission figure and taking the average household in Mizoram to consist of 5 persons, the "Poor Household" has been defined in the study as those receiving an annual income of less than or equal to Rs.17,000/-.

Following the MORD's classification of income intervals, we have classified the poor households also in four income intervals (in the same proportion). In the first income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income less than or equal to Rs.6,016/-, and term these households as "Destitutes". In the second income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income of Rs.6,017/- to Rs.9,297/-, and term these households as "Very Very Poor". In the third

income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income of Rs.9,298/- to Rs.12,750/-, and term these households as “Very Poor”. In the last income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income ranging from Rs.12,751/- to Rs.17,000/- and term these households as “Poor”. All those receiving more than Rs.17,000/- annually are considered above the poverty line.

### **4.3 Poverty: Need for an Ideal Index**

Having decided on the poverty line for the purpose of our study, the next step is to measure the incidence of poverty and its intensity. Various measures have been put forward with regards to its measurement and intensity and, therefore, the choice becomes difficult. The selection of an appropriate measure must take into account the following desired axioms (properties):

1. Monotonicity Axiom (A1): A reduction in the level of income of a person below the poverty line must increase the poverty index (Sen, 1976).
2. Transfer of Axiom (A2): A pure transfer of income from a person below the poverty line to another who is richer must increase the poverty measure (Sen, 1976).
3. Population Symmetry Axiom (A3): If two or more identical populations are pooled together, the poverty index of the joint

distribution and of the parts should not change (Thon, 1983a and 1983b).

4. Proportion of Poor Axiom (A4): An increase in the relative number of the poor should increase the poverty index (Hagenaar, 1987).
5. Focus Axiom (A5): The poverty index should be independent of the income of the non-poor persons (Sen, 1982).
6. Transfer Sensitivity Axiom (A6): If income is transferred from a poor person to a less poor person, then the increase in poverty index should be smaller the larger the level of income of transferee (Kakwani, 1980).
7. Decomposability Axiom (A7): A poverty index should be decomposable into sub-group poverty indices (Foster, Green and Thorebecke, 1984).
8. Rigidity in Definition Axiom (A8): A poverty index should be rigidly defined (Clark, Hemming and Ulph, 1981).

#### **4.4 Poverty Measures**

Not all of the poverty measures suggested in literature fulfill all these axioms together (Table 4.1). Most of these axioms are simultaneously fulfilled only in the Foster, Green and Thorebecke (1984) Poverty Measure, and that suggested by Hagenaar (1987). Further, most of the composite poverty indices fail to meet the basic requirements of

rigidity in definition and decomposability axioms. However, these two major requirements are satisfied by the crude poverty indices like the head count ratio and the poverty gap ratio. Sen's Normalization Index (1976) led to a large theoretical literature on the measurement of poverty. The major works in this line of direction are those of Takayama (1979), Kakwani (1980), Clark, Hemming and Ulph (1981), and Foster, Green and Thorebecke (1984). The main difficulty with Sen's measure is that it is not additively decomposable. Measures suggested by Takayama (1979), Kakwani (1980) and Clark, Hemming and Ulph (1981) also do not fulfill this axiom. Therefore, it is awkward to compute such measures for the district rural population using the block level expenditure distributions. "Moreover, additively decomposable poverty measures are

**Table 4.1**

**POVERTY INDICES: SATISFACTION OF AXIOMS**

Poverty Measures	Axioms							
	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8
Head Count	F	F	S	S	S	F	S	S
Poverty Gap Ratio	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	S
Sen's Normalization Index	S	F	S	S	S	F	F	S
Watt's Index	S	F	S	S	S	S	F	S
Takayama	F	F	S	F	S	F	F	S
Kakwani	S	S	S	S	S	S	F	S
Clark <i>et al.</i>	S	S	S	S	S	S	F	F
Foster <i>et al.</i>	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	F

*Note:* 1. 'S' and 'F' denote 'Satisfied' and 'Failed' respectively.

2. This table draws upon Hagenaar (1987).

useful because they allow assessment of the effects of changes in sub-group poverty upon total poverty” (Kakwani, 1980).

**The Head Count Ratio (H):**

$$H = \frac{q}{n} \dots\dots\dots (4.1)$$

is the simplest of all poverty measures that takes the number of poor ( $q$ ) as a proportion to total population ( $n$ ). This measure ( $H$ ) ignores how poor the poor are. It, therefore, remains unchanged when the poor become poorer.

The total income needed to bring all the poor upto the poverty line is given by an index based on average poverty gap ( $GAP$ ) as:

$$GAP = (z - m) q \dots\dots\dots (4.2)$$

where  $m$  is mean income of the poor and  $z$  is the poverty line and  $q$  is the number of poor.

Another index known as the poverty gap ratio ( $g$ ) is also suggested in the literature. If the degree of misery suffered by an individual is proportional to the income shortfall of that individual from the poverty line, then the sum total of these shortfalls may be considered as an adequate measure of poverty. This measure is called the poverty gap ratio ( $g$ ) and can be written as:

$$g = \left[ \frac{(z - m)}{z} \right] H \dots\dots\dots (4.3)$$

The measure  $g$  will provide adequate information about the intensity of poverty if all the poor are assured to have exactly the same income which is less than the poverty line. In practice, the income of the poor is unequally distributed and, therefore,  $g$  cannot be an adequate measure of poverty. However, it is sensitive to both the numbers of the poor and to how poor they are, and further, it is an improvement on the Head Count Ratio. Besides, it has an interpretation that makes it extremely attractive from a policy point of view. It indicates the poverty gap as a fraction of total income needed to support everyone in the population at the poverty line. The transfer of resources required to eradicate poverty completely could, therefore, be assessed with this index. Although a perfect target distribution of resources is not possible, this index at least provides a lower bound on the amount of transfers. However, this measure is insensitive to the redistribution of income within the poor. Sen himself corrects this drawback of the index when he derived a modified Sen's index by considering a specific rank order weighing scale. A higher rank to the person farther away from the poverty line is assumed in comparison to one near the poverty line. The

construction of weighing scale is, nonetheless, arbitrary. This may be written as:

$$P = \frac{q[(z - m)(1 - G)]}{z.n} \dots\dots\dots (4.4),$$

where  $G$  is the Gini Coefficient of the distribution of income among poor. So, if  $G$  is zero, the modified Sen's index is reduced to the Sen's index as given by the last equation. We may note that the Sen's modified index takes into consideration the income inequality among the poor and is the product of Head Count Measure and the proportion of the equally-distributed equivalent income of the poor from the poverty line. Its value lies between zero and unity. It assumes zero value when everyone's income is above the poverty line  $z$  and becomes unity when everyone has zero income.

Kakwani's index is based on the following normalization:

$$K = \frac{q(z - m)}{n.y} \dots\dots\dots (4.5),$$

where  $y$  is the mean income of the total population. It is interpreted as the proportion of the total income needed to close the poverty gap so that the income of everyone below the poverty line could be raised to poverty line. And if the poor among poor are ranked ordered as Sen did, the modified Kakwani's index reads as:

$$K_* = \frac{q[(z-m)(1-G)]}{n.y} \dots\dots\dots (4.6),$$

and it lies between 0, and  $\frac{z}{y}$ . As said earlier, it does not fulfill the decomposability axiom.

In 1968, Watts proposed an additively decomposable poverty measure ( $W$ ) which can be obtained by substituting  $g(x)$  in Equation (4.3) by  $(\log z - \log x)$  so as to read

$$W = \int_0^z (\log z - \log x) f(x) dx \dots\dots\dots (4.7)$$

Though this is not a well-known measure, yet it is simple to compute and has all the important attributes. It satisfies Sen's monotonicity and transfer axioms and also Kakwani's (1986) transfer sensitivity axiom. It is also closely related to income inequality. If instead of  $z$ , we use  $\mu$  (the mean income of the entire population) and evaluate the integral

$$g = \left[ \frac{(z-m)}{z} \right]_H$$

over the whole range of  $x$ , we obtain:

$$T = \int_0^a (\log \mu - \log x) f(x) dx \dots\dots\dots (4.8)$$

This is one of the Theil's (1967) two inequality measures. This measure can be expressed as the sum of the 'between' and 'within' group inequalities, and here lies its attractiveness.

In the present exercise, we have used only the Head Count and the Poverty Gap Ratios to derive poverty and inequality in each of the twelve selected villages in the Lunglei District of Mizoram.

#### **4.5 Poverty: Review of Data Base**

A working group constituted in July 1962 at a seminar on "Some Aspects of Planning" set up by the Planning Commission (Visaria, 1992), recommended a national minimum desirable per capita consumption of Rs.20/- and Rs.25/- in rural and urban areas respectively at 1960-61 prices. This per capita consumption excluded the expenditure on health and education. This recommendation was made considering a balanced diet that would provide a required minimum calorie intake and a modest need of some non-food items. This standard was sought to be achieved by 1975-76. Several scholars have reviewed this standard, and Bardhan (1974) brought this figure to Rs.15/- for rural areas, while Dandekar and Rath (1971) adjusted it to Rs.22.50 for urban areas. Rudra (1974) questioned the empirical basis of the cost of minimum standard, but these figures have been utilized extensively. Minhas *et al.* (1987) has reviewed the problems to the adjustment of these poverty lines for the rise in the

cost of living. This approach could be termed as the standard approach. One objection to this approach, however, was that it does not take into consideration the food habits of the heterogeneous groups of people. Such food habits in terms of the food basket differ from region to region and from community to community in one region. An exercise that does not take into account such factors would present results that are far from the real picture.

Consumption is no doubt a better indicator of poverty than income. Such adjustments in the poverty lines for changes in the cost of living have been applied to National Sample Survey (N.S.S.) estimates of the level of consumption expenditure. However, the problems involved in collecting such data need to be analysed.

The period taken into consideration for measuring consumption expenditure needs to be properly examined. The period of consumption in the N.S.S. data has been taken as one month. This is a long period where the respondent is not expected to accurately remember all the items, quantities and values of each commodity consumed by him throughout that period. Some Asian countries have considered a much shorter period of one week taking the consumption of the last three days only. A diary method has also been used in some countries but without any encouraging results. The other method of calorie-intake has shown an

exaggerated incidence of poverty in an affluent country like U.S.A.; this method could be called the “Behavioural Approach”.

Surveys on employment/unemployment have been linked with surveys on consumer expenditure from the 27<sup>th</sup> Round of N.S.S., conducted during 1972-73. Subsequently, the surveys in 1977-78, 1983-84 and 1987-88, 1993-94 (50<sup>th</sup> Round) and 199-2000 have furnished a rich data-base on some correlates of poverty. Attempts have also been made on the biases with regard to calorie-intake and had taken the form of such questions as to meals served to employees and meals taken out, either paid for or not. The 38<sup>th</sup> Round of N.S.S. had also posed a question as to whether or not the respondent’s family had two square meals per day. In the rural areas, about 81 per cent felt that they had two square meals per day throughout the year, 16 per cent responded that they had the same in some months of the year, and about 2 per cent responded “no” to the question. The percentage in the urban area was 93 per cent, 6 per cent and 1 per cent respectively. This question was, however, dropped from the 43<sup>rd</sup> Round of N.S.S. as it was felt that the question was subjective and likely to be affected by other factors. Certain other items on the characteristics of the household as contained in the schedule of the 43<sup>rd</sup> Round and later are an improvement over that asked in the 27<sup>th</sup>

Round. Information as to the size of the village and its distance from another will also be important.

This Behavioural Method also has its share of objections. One objection could be that of determining the unique level of minimum calorie-intake. Secondly, the calorie-intake of a particular individual may be low or high for reasons other than economic ones. Thirdly, a poverty line so derived would have to be updated for other years from the base year taking into account temporal changes. Again, such adjustments can be possible only when data are available for a number of years.

The approach to determining the poverty line by pure calorie norms, or minimum cut-off consumption expenditure, has the following limitations. (1) it is difficult to conceive a unique level of calorie as the cut-off point; (2) poverty is, in fact, a state of the level of living. Calorie-intake as such does not indicate any level of living; (3) a poverty line, as derived for a base year, needs to be updated for other years to study the temporal change, and such an updating is possible if, and only if, data exist for all the years.

Poverty can be viewed as an economic, social or cultural phenomenon. Defining deprivation in the cultural or social context may pose tremendous measurement difficulties. Thus, poverty is usually measured in terms of economic criterion.

An estimate of the incidence of poverty is not sufficient in indicating how unwealthy the poor are. This is essential to any policy-maker who would desire to know that income level necessary to lift the poor upto or above the poverty line. Thus, who are the poor and what income or expenditure would be required to lift the poor above the poverty line are questions to be answered.

Poverty is also a concept that is subjective. There are methodological differences in the definition of poverty and the derivation of the poverty line, which have led to controversies in the incidence of poverty and changes in poverty levels.

Any attempt, however, to measure poverty by a single index is likely to be misleading. Poverty could be approached through an absolute or relative measure. Many aspects of absolute poverty have been ignored or underplayed by official definitions of poverty. Consumption of food items, housing conditions, stock of consumer durables and semi-durables, availability and use of health facilities, availability and use of educational facilities, and mortality rate, especially of minors, are some such aspects. Absolute poverty, therefore, is not simply low income or expenditure, but also low or under-nutrition, poor health and education among others. It is a multi-dimensional concept and the poverty line is thus, an aggregate of each of the dimensions. However, any consumption basket of goods and

services of a household or consumer unit depends on the social and economic position of the society in which that unit lives among other factors. Thus, poverty as an absolute measure cannot be delinked from the social and cultural dimensions.

Many have criticized the N.S.S. data and we have summarized the same in the subsequent paragraphs. For national accounting, independent data have been utilized and N.S.S. data compare well with them. The distribution of aggregate private consumption over households and regions cannot be gainfully used in the national accounts statistics. N.S.S. data, however, can be used and examined for this purpose. Secondly, N.S.S. data on aggregate expenditure on foodgrains look over estimated while the same cannot be said for such data of the poorer sections of the society. Thirdly, the data collected in N.S.S. Rounds, are not perfectly comparable among the various rounds of survey as the canvassed schedules have major differences. However, the N.S.S. data could be comparable both for cross-section or time-series studies.

Data on household consumption in N.S.S. estimates do reflect upon several indicators of the level of poverty or otherwise - the calorie-intake per consumer unit, the total household consumer expenditure per consumer unit, the Engel's ratio, and the per consumer unit physical consumption of cereals, etc. Regarding the second and third indicators

cited above, one must have price data and make allowance for price changes for comparison over time and over space. The fourth indicator, namely, the per consumer unit physical consumption of cereals, may appear to be the easiest to use, but has its limitations as will be discussed later. The per consumer unit intake of calorie has its limitations in that approximations and, perhaps, assumptions have to be made as one cannot easily estimate the nutrition standards through data procured from a household expenditure survey. The N.S.S. conducted a full-fledged enquiry on housing conditions in the 28<sup>th</sup> Round and results on this are available.

Per capita private consumption has not shown much improvement over the years, while the housing conditions have shown a marked improvement. Qualitative aspects of the conditions of housing are, of course, difficult to study.

Data on the stock of durables, etc. were collected in early N.S.S. surveys, but the results are scanty. Such durables could be umbrellas, transistors, torchlights, etc. Data on semi-durables like clothing have seldom been collected, though these are also revealing on the level of poverty or otherwise of household.

Data on the consumption of public goods and services like health, transport, education, etc. are available from various economic census as

well as from some of the N.S.S. Rounds. The N.S.S. 35<sup>th</sup> (1980-81) and 42<sup>nd</sup> (1986-87) Rounds have brought out some data on the utilization of such public goods and services. However, a monetary valuation of most of such facilities is difficult.

Mortality rates have shown a declining trend though infant mortality is still high. An enquiry was made by Bhattacharya *et al.* (1989) in purposively chosen villages in West Bengal, where a total of 62 “Very Poor” households were selected purposively. These villages were visited daily for six months (January to June). Data on shelter, clothing, household equipment, bedding, daily intake of food and all cash transactions were collected. The result showed that (a) 50 per cent of the adult females did not have even two sarees per head, (b) 90 per cent of them did not have petticoats, (c) 28 per cent of the men had less than two dhotis per head, (d) 90 per cent of the households had no bedding of any kind while 20 per cent of them used gunny-bags to lie on, 25 per cent used mats for this purpose, and some had blankets or quilts for use during the winter, (e) 70 per cent of the households did not have any utensils made of steel, brass or glass for cooking, serving or taking food, and (f) a good proportion of children had no frocks or half-pants.

Thus, an extensive study of poverty would also benefit by looking at these aspects of absolute poverty.

In India, poverty is viewed from the subsistence perspective where a consumer unit needs some basic food and non-food items for subsistence. Food requirements can be worked out in terms of nutrition or calorie norm. This naturally varies with age, sex, occupation, culture and climate. It has been found in India that if the required calorie-intake is satisfied, then protein deficiency is less. This norm can then be translated to monetary units in terms of food expenditure. To this, expenditure on non-food items is added to arrive at a poverty line. Dandekar and Rath (1970) had in a study taken the per capita per day calorie-intake of 2,250 as the calories norm. Patwardhan (1960), Sukhatme (1978), Panikkar (1972), Rudra (1974) and Bardhan (1974) have adopted a minimum diet approach or a balanced diet approach, and the poverty line was drawn at the level of expenditure, able to cover this minimum diet. While drawing the poverty line, only the aggregate cost of the balanced diet, and not its composition, is retained. However, the poor may have consumption expenditure much above this balanced diet while non-poor may fall below this specified level - all this depends on the tastes and performances etc. of the consumer unit. An extension to this calorie-expenditure approach has been made. Another approach based on the per capita expenditure criterion is through the food-total expenditure ratio.

**Multivariate Approach:** The N.S.S. data could prove to be more meaningful if a multivariate analysis of the monthly per capita household expenditure of the rural and urban areas was made. Viseria (1983) studied the results of an analysis for Gujarat in 1983 and compared the same with those of 1972-73. He has attempted a multiple classification analysis, which explains the relative importance of the different variables in explaining variance in per capita household expenditure. This method is claimed to take into consideration the various categories of nominal variables that can not be quantified. Those variables can be classified into two main categories, namely, aggregate variables and the household type. Under the first category, we have the type of region, the type of household in terms of employment/occupation, the household per capita land in possession, the size of the household, the child dependency ratio (proportion of 0-14 years old children to 15-59 years old working persons), and aged dependency ratio (proportion of those over 60 years to those in the working class). In the second category, those variables, ultimately considered for analysis, were the age group, sex, literacy and education, usual activity and broad industry division of the head of the household.

The results obtained showed that six variables accounted for about 24-25 per cent of the variance for the monthly household per capita

expenditure in the rural and urban areas. For the rural areas, it was the size of the household, the literacy, the educational status of the household head, and the per capita land and region of residence that proved to be the more important explainers of Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (MPCE). For urban areas, the household head's educational status, size of family, child dependency ratio and the status and industry were the more important explanatory factors.

The region was one of the more significant explanatory variables. Out of the five sample regions taken in the study in Gujarat, it was found, on a general study, that only the head's educational status and size of the family were the more significant explanatory variables in all the regions in the rural areas. In the urban areas, no variables proved to be statistically significant. An attempt was also made by Visaria (*op. cit.*) to identify the explainers of the MPCE of the poor households. For this purpose, Minhas' definition of poverty line (Rs.91.92 for rural and Rs.109.43 for urban) was used. The poor households in the rural and urban areas in Gujarat accounted for 34 per cent and 25 per cent respectively. There was no inverse relationship between household size and MPCE. Further, a multiple classification analysis was made separately for the poor households. It was found that four variables, viz. region, child dependency ratio, size of households and educational status

of the household's head, explained about 20 per cent of the variance in the MPCE of the rural poor. In the urban areas, it was status, industry and region that turned out to be the more significant explanators. However, there are a number of questions that this analysis has raised and a more in-depth and consistent research is called for to identify and study the determinants of MPCE.

A poverty line expressed in monetary terms for a base year needs to be updated in subsequent years to correct for the influence of the change in prices. There are three suggested alternatives on the choice of an appropriate price index. They are (a) C.S.O.'s consumption expenditure deflator, (b) wholesale price index, and (c) consumer price index (CPI). CPI should include that of agricultural labourers, industrial workers (weighted average) and non-manual workers of urban areas. Of these three alternatives, Agricultural Labourer Consumer Price Index (ALCPI) was preferred by many as a deflator in the rural areas since it would be relatively closer to the price indices relevant to the target group in these areas.

Most researchers, who derived the poverty lines on the basis of calorie-intake, used the data of the N.S.S. which was on the basis of per capita consumer expenditure over a period of time at the State as well as the All-India levels. This makes an inter-temporal study possible.

However, N.S.S. data have been criticized on a number of other counts as well.

We had earlier touched on the point of inadequacy of N.S.S. data on household expenditure where the National Sample Survey Organisation's (N.S.S.O.) survey, while spread throughout the 12 months, collects data for the last 30 days' expenditure of the household unit. This approach may, however, not portray a true picture of the economic status of a particular household. The seasonality of household expenditure must also be borne in mind when such data are collected so that seasonal and short run fluctuations do not unduly affect the data. Data on income of the poor are even more difficult to assess due to the effect and presence of seasonality. Further, total income includes other components which are difficult to quantify.

Another criticism of the N.S.S. data on consumer expenditure is that it is usually published in an aggregate form, either for rural or urban sectors. In this case, the nature of poverty of various groups is difficult to assess and defeats the purpose of identifying the target groups for assistance and upliftment.

One of the serious criticisms of the N.S.S. data is that those differ a great deal from those estimated by the National Accounts Statistics (N.A.S.). The latter's estimates have shown to be higher than that of the

N.S.S. This is because the N.S.S. data include only private households and exclude those that are houseless or those who live in institutions like prisons, orphanages and hospitals. The N.A.S.'s data include, besides the above, the consumption expenditure of non-profit and charitable organizations. These differences, however, cannot have a significant effect on the difference between the two sets of estimates. Another point of criticism of the N.S.S. data has been that it under-estimates the consumption of certain durable items, which are usually consumed by the more affluent society. Further, discrepancies have been observed more in non-food items than in food items, where expenditure in non-food items has been under-reported. On the other hand, the N.A.S. estimates of foodgrains consumption are less than that of N.S.S. However, in the 43<sup>rd</sup> Round, more households from the affluent bracket have been included in the survey. The Planning Commission has, therefore, matched the two sets of estimates by adjusting the N.S.S. distribution of household consumption expenditure on pre-rate basis and prior to the determination of the poverty line. This adjustment, however, distorts the N.S.S. distribution.

Estimates on nutrition-intake based on a consumer expenditure basis may not meet all the requirements of the study. Responses on the quantities of food items consumed are subject to recollection and biases.

Even if one was to weigh the quantities of foodgrains consumed before recording the same, this too may not present a true picture as “over” or “under” consumption may take place on that particular date or dates. Quantities of food consumed separately by individuals are also not recorded by the N.S.S. investigator. The per consumer calorie-intake may, however, be deducted by considering age and sex differentials. This may again not prove satisfactory. Lastly, N.S.S. data do not take into account the food that is wasted, either through discarding the same or through the calorie loss through a method of cooking. Such losses, however, would be less in the case of the poor. Nevertheless, when one considers the cost of survey and feasibility, the N.S.S. data are not ill-suited for deriving the calorie-intake of the population on the average.

#### **4.6 Data Base for the Present Study**

Poverty is spread unevenly among the regions of the developing world, among countries within those regions, and among states/provinces within those countries. South Asia accounts for roughly 30 per cent of the world’s population and nearly half the world’s poor live here. In this region, the poor are often concentrated in certain places in rural areas with high population densities such as the Gangetic Plains of India and the island of Java, Indonesia, and in resource-poor areas such as the Andean Islands and the Sahel. Often the problem of poverty, population

and environment are interlinked. Earlier patterns of development and the pressure of rapidly expanding populations mean that many of the poor live in areas of acute environment degradation.

The weight of poverty falls most heavily on certain groups and women in general are disadvantageous. In poor households, they often shoulder more workload than men, are less educated and have less access to remunerative activities. Children too suffer disproportionately and the future quality of their lives is compromised by inadequate nutrition, health care, and education. This is especially true for girls whose primary enrolment rates are less than 50 per cent in many African countries. The incidence of poverty is often high among ethnic groups and minorities. In many cases, low incomes go hand in hand with other forms of deprivation. In India, for example, life expectation for the poorest 10 per cent of the population is many years less than for the richest 10 per cent. Similarly, the primary enrolment rate of those poorest sections is half that of the richest.

In the 1950's and 1960's, many saw growth as the primary means of reducing poverty and improving the quality of life (QOL). The Indian Planning Commission viewed rapid growth as the main instrument for achieving this objective. In the 1970s, attention shifted to the direct provision of health, nutritional and educative services - this was seen as a

matter of public policy. In the 1980's, it was argued that improvement in health, education and nutrition of the poor were important not only in their right but also to promote growth in income, including the income of the poor. The experience, the world over, has shown that rapid and politically sustainable progress on poverty is achieved by a strategy having two generally important elements. The first element is to promote the productive use of the Poor's most abundant asset - labour. It calls for policies that harness market incentives, social and political institutions, infrastructure and technology to that end. The second is to provide the basic social services to the poor, where primary health care, family planning, nutrition, and primary education is especially important. Progress has been the greatest in those countries that have implemented both components of this strategy.

Till the last part of 1997, there were only three civil administrative districts in Mizoram, viz. Aizawl District, Lunglei District and CHhimtuipui District. The whole northern Mizoram, which constituted a little more than 50 per cent of the total geographical area of the State, was covered by Aizawl District. The southern Mizoram was divided into two equal halves, of which, the northern half formed Lunglei District while the southern half formed CHhimtuipui District. Lunglei District was, therefore, sandwiched between the two other districts. The population of

Aizawl District was 4,78,465, Lunglei District was 1,11,415, and CHhimtuipui District was 99,876, as per 1991 Census, making a total of 6,89,756 in the State. However, the population of Lunglei District according to the 2001 Census (Provisional) is 1,37,155. Out of the 20 (now 22) rural development blocks of the State, the Aizawl District had 12 blocks, Lunglei District had 4 blocks and CHhimtuipui District had 4 blocks. The District has three urban towns, namely, Lunglei, Hnahthial and Tlabung.

The primary objective of our study is to estimate the levels and patterns of living in the rural areas of Mizoram. We have chosen Lunglei District as a case study for carrying out the necessary survey. This District has four rural development blocks, namely, W. Bunglemun Rural Development Block, Lungsen Rural Development Block, Lunglei Rural Development Block and Hnahthial Rural Development Block.

Recourse has been taken to the utilization of household primary data collected during May 1997 to December 1997. The basic unit of enquiry was the household. Out of all the three districts (now eight) of Mizoram, only one district was randomly selected at the first stage of sampling. Thus, only Lunglei District was covered in the study. From each and every rural development block of this District, three villages were selected in accordance with the principle of Random Proportional

Sampling in order to give proportionate weightage to each rural development block in the District, making a total of twelve (12) villages at the second stage of sampling. The randomly selected 12 villages are distributed across the four rural development blocks as follows: -

W. Bingham Rural Development Block:

1. Darngawn;
2. Sesawm;
3. Laisawral.

Lungsen Rural Development Block:

1. CHhumkhum;
2. Rualalung;
3. Thehleplep.

Lunglei Rural Development Block:

1. South Phaileng;
2. New Ralvawng;
3. Sairep.

Hnahthial Rural Development Block:

1. Aithur;
2. Denlung;
3. South Phaileng.

Each and every household in all the selected villages were covered in the third and last stage of sampling, making a total study of five hundred and twenty nine (529) households. A brief structured schedule, covering a household's level and sources of income during the past 365 days and levels and patterns of consumption during the past 30 days, was canvassed by the researcher of the present study with the assistance of a trained investigator. An adult, male or female, available in the house at the time of the visit, was taken as the respondent. The raw data so collected, undoubtedly suffers from memory and measurement biases, but

have yet proved useful in indicating the levels and patterns of living or the incidence of absolute and relative poverty in the rural areas of the District. This is the valuable contribution of our research work. Based on this information, we have been able to construct a few important absolute poverty indices.

## Chapter V

### PATTERN OF LIVING

This chapter examines the pattern of living of the community living in the four development blocks of Lunglei District. Besides the assets possessed and land utilization are also examined.

#### 5.1 HOUSEHOLD DETAIL

This section deals with the population structure and educational status of the household in the selected 12 villages of the 4 blocks. All persons above 14 years of age are classified as adults in this study, while those below 14 years are classified as children.

##### 5.1.1 Sex-wise Break-Up of Population

**Darngawn:** Darngawn village has 76 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 137 adult males, 84 male children, 142 adult females and 76 female children. The total number of males is 221 while that of females is 218. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 986 females per 1000 males, which is higher than either the national (933 females per 1000 males), state (938 females per 1000 males), or district figure (959 females per 1000 males).

**Sesawm:** Sesawm village has 57 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 102 adult males, 60 male children, 94 adult females and 65

Table 5.1

## POPULATION STRUCTURE AND LITERACY

Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Village	Number of House-holds	Male			Female			Grand Total (5+8)	No. of Illiterate Adult Males	% of Illiterate Adult Males to Total Adult Males	No. of Illiterate Adult Females	% of Illiterate Adult Females to Total Adult Females
		Adults	Children	Total	Adults	Children	Total					
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
<b>W. Bunghmun R.D.B.</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>359</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>582</b>	<b>350</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>571</b>	<b>1,153</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>05.57</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>11.71</b>
Darngawn	76	137	84	221	142	76	218	439	6	04.38	13	09.15
Sesawm	57	102	60	162	94	65	159	321	8	07.84	14	14.89
Laisawral	73	120	79	199	114	80	194	393	6	05.00	14	12.28
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>186</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>244</b>	<b>498</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>03.23</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>05.99</b>
CHhumkhum	30	57	16	73	41	18	59	132	2	03.51	0	00.00
Rualalung	31	69	25	94	69	35	104	198	3	04.35	6	08.70
Thehlelep	35	60	27	87	57	24	81	168	1	01.67	4	07.02
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>230</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>329</b>	<b>218</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>333</b>	<b>662</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>02.17</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>10.09</b>
South Phaileng	47	86	42	128	87	52	139	267	2	02.33	11	12.64
New Ralvawng	54	89	36	125	86	38	124	249	2	02.25	5	05.81
Sairep	30	55	21	76	45	25	70	146	1	01.82	6	13.33
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>248</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>247</b>	<b>495</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>04.43</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>11.39</b>
Aithur	30	46	33	79	48	34	82	161	5	10.87	9	18.75
Denlung	39	69	36	105	64	31	95	200	2	02.90	5	07.81
South Lungleng	27	43	21	64	46	24	70	134	0	00.00	4	08.70
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>529</b>	<b>933</b>	<b>480</b>	<b>1,413</b>	<b>893</b>	<b>502</b>	<b>1,395</b>	<b>2,808</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>04.07</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>10.19</b>

Source: Based on Primary Survey carried out by the Scholar.

female children. The total number of males is 162 while that of females is 159. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 981 females per 1000 males, which is higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

**Laisawral:** Laisawral village has 73 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 120 adult males, 79 male children, 114 adult females and 80 female children. The total number of males is 199 while that of females is 194. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 975 females per 1000 males, which is higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

**CHhumkhum:** CHhumkhum village has 30 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 57 adult males, 16 male children, 41 adult females and 18 female children. The total number of males is 73 while that of females is 59. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 808 females per 1000 males, which is lower than either the national, state or district figure.

**Rualalung:** Rualalung village has 31 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 69 adult males, 25 male children, 69 adult females and 35 female children. The total number of males is 94 while that of females is 104. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 1,106 females per 1000 males, which is much higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

**Thehlep:** Thehlep village has 35 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 60 adult males, 27 male children, 57 adult females and 24

female children. The total number of males is 87 while that of females is 81. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 931, which is almost the same as in the state or national level, but a bit lower than the corresponding district figure.

**South Phaileng:** South Phaileng village has 47 households (Table 5.1).

In this village, there are 86 adult males, 42 male children, 87 adult females and 52 female children. The total number of males is 128 while that of females is 139. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 1086 females per 1000 males, which is much higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

**New Ralvawng:** New Ralvawng village has 54 households (Table 5.1).

In this village, there are 89 adult males, 36 male children, 86 adult females and 38 female children. The total number of males is 125 while that of females is 124. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 992 females per 1000 males, which is higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

**Sairep:** Sairep village has 30 households (Table 5.1).

In this village, there are 55 adult males, 21 male children, 45 adult females and 25 female children. The total number of males is 76 while that of females is 70. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 921 females per 1000 males, which is lower than either the national, state, or district figure.

**Aithur**: Aithur village has 30 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 46 adult males, 33 male children, 48 adult females and 34 female children. The total number of males is 79 while that of females is 82. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 1038 females per 1000 males, which is much higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

**Denlung**: Denlung village has 39 households (Table 5.1). In this village, there are 69 adult males, 36 male children, 64 adult females and 31 female children. The total number of males is 105 while that of females is 95. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 905 females per 1000 males, which is lower than either the national, state, or district figure.

**South Lungleng**: South Lungleng village has 27 households (Table 5.1). There are 43 adult males, 21 male children, 46 adult females and 24 female children. The total number of males is 64 while that of females is 70. Thus, the sex ratio in this village is 1094 females per 1000 males, which is much higher than either the national, state, or district figure.

### **Conclusion**

There are more males than females in W. Binghamun, Lungsen and Hnahthial Rural Development Blocks. Lunglei is the only block where females exceed males.

Summing up, the total number of males and females in the 12 villages of Lunglei District are 1413 and 1395 respectively, yielding a sex ratio of 987 females per 1000 males. This ratio is higher than the corresponding national, state, or district averages which are 933, 938 and 959 respectively.

### **5.1.2 Educational Status of the Population**

**Darngawn:** Out of the total number of 137 adult males in this village, only 11 have higher secondary/college/university education, 26 have high school education, 56 have middle school education, 42 have primary school education and 2 are illiterate (Table 5.2).

Of the 84 male children, none has read beyond middle school, only 8 have middle school level of education and 42 have primary school education.

Only 3 of the 142 adult females have higher secondary/college/university level of education, while 16 have read upto high school (Table 5.3). 46 of them have middle school level of education, and 72 have primary school education. 5 adult females have no formal education.

Table 5.2  
EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF MALES

NAME OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT BLOCK (R.D.B.)/ NAME OF VILLAGE	HOUSEHOLD DETAIL									
	EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF ADULT MALES					EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF MALE CHILDREN				
	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Higher Education	Illiterate & Informal Education	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Higher Education	Illiterate & Informal Education
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<b>W. Bunghmun R. D. B.</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>103</b>
Darngawn Village	42	56	26	11	2	42	8	0	0	34
Sesawm Village	46	36	11	4	5	33	5	0	0	22
Laisawral Village	48	36	27	4	5	27	5	0	0	47
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>27</b>
CHhumkhum Village	29	17	8	1	2	8	1	0	0	7
Rualalung Village	16	27	17	6	3	12	2	0	0	11
Thehleple Village	18	13	21	7	1	12	5	1	0	9
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>46</b>
South Phaileng Village	19	34	21	10	2	22	4	0	0	16
New Ralvawng Village	31	26	25	5	2	15	2	0	0	19
Sairep Village	18	20	15	1	1	8	2	0	0	11
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>39</b>
Aithur Village	22	11	7	1	5	13	7	0	0	13
Denlung Village	24	23	16	4	2	16	4	0	0	16
South Lungleng Village	18	10	14	1	0	9	2	0	0	10
<b>Lunglei District Total</b>	<b>331</b>	<b>309</b>	<b>208</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>215</b>

*Source:* Based on the primary survey carried out by the Scholar

Table 5.3  
EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF FEMALES

NAME OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT BLOCK (R.D.B.)/ NAME OF VILLAGE	HOUSEHOLD DETAIL									
	EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF ADULT FEMALES					EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF FEMALE CHILDREN				
	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Higher Education	Illiterate & Informal Education	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Higher Education	Illiterate & Informal Education
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<b>W. Bunghmun R.D.B.</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>80</b>
Darngawn Village	72	46	16	3	5	43	8	0	0	25
Sesawm Village	45	24	12	2	11	29	9	0	0	27
Laisawral Village	50	33	17	2	12	44	8	0	0	28
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>37</b>
CHhumkhum Village	31	8	2	0	0	9	0	0	0	9
Rualalung Village	24	21	18	0	6	12	3	0	0	20
Thehlep Village	20	20	13	0	4	11	5	0	0	8
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>46</b>
South Phaileng Village	34	26	12	5	11	30	4	0	0	18
New Ralvawng Village	35	25	19	2	5	19	5	0	0	14
Sairep Village	13	14	12	0	6	7	4	0	0	14
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>34</b>
Aithur Village	22	6	10	1	9	13	9	0	0	12
Denlung Village	34	16	6	3	5	16	0	0	0	15
South Lungleng Village	21	13	7	1	4	13	4	0	0	7
<b>Lunglei District Total</b>	<b>401</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>246</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>196</b>

*Source* : Based on the primary survey carried out by the Scholar.

Of the 76 female children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.3). Only 8 of them have middle school level of education and 43 have read upto primary school.

**Sesawm**: Out of the total number of 102 adult males in this village, only 4 have higher secondary /college/university standard of education (Table 5.2). 11 of them have high school standard of education, 36 have middle school standard of education, upto 46 have primary school standard of education and 5 have no formal education.

Of the 60 male children, none has studied beyond middle school. Only 5 of them have middle school standard of education and 33 have primary school standard of education. Only 2 of the 94 adult females have higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while 12 have high school education, 24 have middle school education and 45 have primary school standard of education (Table 5.3). 11 of them have no formal education.

Of the 65 female children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.3). Only 9 of them have middle school level of education and 29 have read upto primary school.

**Laisawral**: Out of the total number of 120 adult males in this village, only 4 have higher secondary/college/university standard of education,

27 have high school education, 36 have middle school education, 48 have primary school education and 5 are illiterate (Table 5.2).

Of the 79 male children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school; only 5 have middle school level of education and 27 have primary school education.

Only 2 of the 114 adult females have higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while 17 have read upto high school (Table 5.3). 33 of them have middle school level of education and 50 have primary school education. 12 adult females have no formal education.

Of the 80 female children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.3). Only 8 of them have middle school level of education and 44 have primary school standard of education.

### **Conclusion**

Only 5.29 per cent of adult males in W. Bingham Rural Development Block have higher secondary/college/university level of education, 17.83 per cent high school standard of education, 35.66 per cent middle school level of education and 37.88 per cent primary school education. Adult males who are illiterate constitute only 3.34 per cent. The corresponding figures for adult females work out to 2.00, 12.86,

29.43, 47.71 and 8.00 per cent respectively. There were no male children with high school standard of education. Male children with middle school education constituted 8.07 per cent, and 45.74 per cent had primary school education. The same trend is observed in female children.

Thus, the educational status of adult males is higher than that of adult females, while the educational status of male children is lower than that of female children in W. Bingham Rural Development Block. The overall male literacy is higher than that of females.

**CHhumkhum**: Out of the total number of 57 adult males in this village, only 1 has higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 8 of them have high school education, 17 have middle school education, 29 have primary school education and 2 are illiterate.

Of the 16 male children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school, only 1 has middle school level of education and 8 have primary school education.

Out of the 41 adult females, none has higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while only 2 have high school education (Table 5.3). 8 of them have middle school level of education and 31 have primary school education. None of them is illiterate.

Out of 18 female children, none has an educational standard higher than primary school and only 9 have primary school education (Table 5.3).

**Rualalung:** Out of the total number of 69 adult males in this village, only 6 have higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 17 of them have high school education, 27 have middle school education, 16 have primary school education and 3 are illiterate.

Of the 25 male children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school, only 2 have middle school level of education and 12 have primary school standard of education.

Out of the 69 adult females, none has a higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while 18 have high school education (Table 5.3). 21 of them have middle school level of education and 24 have primary school education. 6 adult females have no formal education.

Of the 35 female children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.3). Only 3 of them have middle school level of education and 12 have primary school standard of education.

**Thehlep:** Out of the total number of 60 male adults in this village, as many as 7 have higher secondary/college/university education (Table

5.2). 21 of them have high school education, 13 have middle school education, 18 have primary school education and 1 is illiterate.

Of the 27 male children, none has a higher secondary/college/university standard of education, only 1 has high school education, 5 have middle school level of education and 12 have primary school education.

Out of the 57 adult females, none has a higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while 13 have high school education (Table 5.3). 20 of them have middle school level of education and 20 have primary school education. 4 adult females have no formal education.

Of the 24 female children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.3). Only 5 of them have middle school level of education and 11 have primary school standard of education.

### **Conclusion**

Only 7.53 per cent of adult males in Lungsen Rural Development Block have higher secondary/college/university level of education, 24.73 per cent high school education, 30.64 per cent middle school education, 33.87 per cent primary school level of education and 3.23 per cent are illiterate. The corresponding figures for adult females are nil, 19.76,

29.34, 44.91 and 5.99 per cent respectively. The percentage of male children with high school education is 1.47 per cent, with middle school level of education 11.76 per cent, and with primary school standard of education 47.06 per cent. The corresponding figures for female children are nil, 10.39 and 41.56 per cent respectively.

Thus, the educational status of adult males is higher than that of adult females, while the educational status of male children is bit higher than that of female children in Lungsen Rural Development Block. The overall male literacy is higher than that of females.

**South Phaileng:** Out of the total number of 86 adult males in this village, only 10 have higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 21 of them have high school education, 34 have middle school education, 19 have primary school education and 2 are illiterate.

Of the 42 male children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.2). Only 4 of them have middle school level of education and 22 have primary school education.

Out of the 87 adult females, only 5 have higher secondary/college/university education, while 12 have high school education (Table 5.3). 26 of them have middle school level of education

and 34 have primary school education. 10 adult females have no formal education.

Of the 52 female children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.3). Only 4 of them have middle school level of education and 30 have primary school education.

**New Ralvawng:** Out of the total number of 89 adult males in this village, only 5 have higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 25 of them have high school education, 26 have middle school education, 31 have primary school education and 2 are illiterate.

Of the 36 male children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.2). Only 2 of them have middle school level of education and 15 have primary school education.

Out of the 86 adult females, only 2 have higher secondary/college/university education, while 19 have high school education (Table 5.3). 25 of them have middle school education and 35 have primary school education. 5 adult females are illiterate.

Of the 38 female children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.3). Only 5 of them have middle school level of education and 19 have primary school standard of education.

**Sairep:** Out of the total number of 55 adult males in this village, only 1 has a higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 15 of them have high school education, 20 have middle school education, 18 have primary school education and 1 is illiterate.

Of the 21 male children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.2). Only 2 have middle school level of education and 8 have primary school standard of education.

Out of the 45 adult females, none has a higher secondary/college/university education, while 12 of them have high school education (Table 5.3). 14 of them have middle school education and 13 have primary school education. 6 adult females are illiterate.

Of the 25 female children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school (Table 5.3). Only 4 of them have middle school education and 7 have primary school education.

### **Conclusion**

Only 6.96 per cent of adult males in Lunglei Rural Development Block have higher secondary/college/university standard of education, 26.52 per cent high school level of education, 34.78 per cent middle school level of education, 29.57 per cent primary school level of education, and 2.17 per cent with no formal education. The corresponding

figures for adult females are 3.21, 19.72, 29.82, 37.61 and 10.09 per cent respectively. The percentage of male children with middle school education and with primary school standard of education are 8.08 and 45.46 per cent respectively. The corresponding figures for female children are 11.30 and 48.70 per cent respectively.

Thus, the educational status of adult males is higher than that of adult females in Lunglei Rural Development Block. The overall male literacy is higher than that of females. The educational status of male children is, however, lower than that of female children in these three villages.

**Aithur**: Out of the total number of 46 adult males in this village, only 1 has a higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 7 of them have high school education, 11 have middle school education, 22 have primary school education and 5 are illiterate.

Of the 33 male children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school, Only 7 have middle school level of education and 13 have primary school education.

Out of the 48 adult females, only 1 has a higher secondary school/college/university standard of education, while 10 have high school education (Table 5.3). 6 of them have middle school level of

education, and 22 have primary school education. 9 adult females are illiterate.

Of the 34 female children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.3). Only 9 of them have middle school level of education and 13 have primary school education.

**Denlung:** Out of the total number of 69 adult males in this village, only 4 have higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 16 of them have high school education, 23 have middle school education, 24 have primary school education and 2 are illiterate.

Of the 36 male children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.2). Only 4 of them have middle school level of education and 16 have primary school education.

Out of the 64 adult females, only 3 have higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while 6 have high school education (Table 5.3). 16 of them have middle school level of education and 34 have primary school education. 5 adult females are illiterate.

Of the 31 female children, none has an educational standard higher than primary school, while 16 have primary school standard of education (Table 5.3).

**South Lungleng:** Out of the total number of 43 adult males in this village, only 1 has a higher secondary/college/university education (Table 5.2). 14 of them have high school education, 10 have middle school education, and 18 have primary school education. None is illiterate.

Of the 21 male children, none has an educational standard higher than middle school. Only 2 have middle school level of education and 9 have primary school education.

Out of the 46 adult females, only 1 has a higher secondary/college/university standard of education, while 7 have high school education (Table 5.3). 13 of them have middle school level of education and 21 have primary school education. 4 adult females are illiterate.

Of the 24 female children, none has studied beyond middle school (Table 5.3). Only 4 of them have middle school level of education and 13 have primary school education.

### **Conclusion**

Only 3.80 per cent of adult males in Hnahthial Rural Development Block have higher secondary/college/university level of education, 23.42 per cent high school level of education, 27.85 per cent middle school level of education, 40.50 per cent primary school level of education, and

4.43 per cent of adult males are illiterate. The corresponding figures for adult females are 3.16, 14.56, 22.15, 48.73 and 11.39 per cent respectively. The percentage of male children with middle school level of education and with primary school level of education are 14.44 and 42.22 per cent respectively, while the corresponding figures for female children are 14.61 and 47.19 per cent respectively.

Thus, the educational status of adult males is higher than that of adult females in Hnahthial Rural Development Block. The overall male literacy is higher than that of females. The educational status of male children, however, is lower than that of female children.

### **Conclusions on Educational Status of the Population**

Adult males with higher secondary/college/university standard of education account for only 5.89 per cent, while those with high school level of education constitute 22.29 per cent. 33.12 per cent of adult males have read upto middle school, 35.48 per cent upto primary school, and 3.22 per cent are illiterate. As against this, the corresponding percentage of adult females works out to 2.13, 16.12, 28.22, 44.90 and 8.73 per cent respectively.

Thus, even at the district level, the educational status of adult males is higher than that of adult females. This conforms to the census figures of the male and female literacy for the State of Mizoram.

Male children with high school standard of education constitute a pathetic 0.21 per cent at the district level, while 9.79 per cent of them have middle school education. 45.21 per cent of them have primary school education. As against this, the corresponding percentage of female children is nil, 11.75 and 49.00 per cent respectively. Thus, we see that the educational status of female children is better than the educational status of male children in the district.

## **5.2 HOUSEHOLD CONSUMPTION PATTERN**

All goods consumed by the people were grouped into the following 13 items: (i) Rice, (ii) Cooking Oil, (iii) Cooking Fuel (firewood, kerosene oil and charcoal), (iv) Engine Fuel (petrol and diesel), (v) Vegetables, (vi) Pulses, (vii) Fodder, (viii) Meat, etc. (ix) Eggs, (x) Milk, (xi) Toiletry, etc. (xii) Tea, etc. and (xiii) Other expenses (conveyance, education expenses, labour wages, etc.). To estimate the expenditure of the people on food and non-food items, the respective quantities and values of these items consumed by the households during the last 30 days

preceding the date of interview were collected by means of a questionnaire (Annexure I).

The Planning Commission of India, in its usual revision of the poverty line from time to time, defined the “Poor” as those households whose monthly income per person was less than or equal to Rs.280.70 at current prices for 1997–1998. Based on this poverty line which had been expressed by the Planning Commission, the monthly income of the poor household has been worked out at Rs.1,400/- ( $\text{Rs. } 280.70 \times 5 = \text{Rs. } 1,403.50$  rounded off to Rs.1,400/-) or less for this study assuming five (5) persons as an average household size.

The numbers of households, whose total consumption expenditure during the last 30 days preceding the date of our visit do not exceed Rs.1400/- in each of the 12 villages, are given in Table 5.4. The poor households which consume upto the poverty line during the past 30 days constitute 18.42 per cent in Darngawn village, 22.81 per cent in Sesawm village, 28.77 per cent in Laisawral village, 36.67 per cent in CHhumkhum village, 3.22 per cent in Rualalung village, 17.14 per cent in Thehlelep village, 14.89 per cent in South Phaileng village, 12.96 per cent in New Ralvawng village, 6.67 per cent in Sairep village, 16.67 per

cent in Aithur village, 20.51 per cent in Denlung village and 37.04 per cent in South Lungleng village.

**Table 5.4**  
**CONSUMPTION PATTERN OF HOUSEHOLDS**

Name Of Rural Development Block (RDB)/Village	Total Number Of Households	Number Of Households Consuming $\leq$ Rs.1400/- During The Last 30 Days Preceding The Date Of Survey
(1)	(2)	(3)
<b>W. Bunghmun R.D.B.</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>48 (23.30)</b>
Darngawn Village	76	14 (18.42)
Sesawm Village	57	13 (22.81)
Laisawral Village	73	21 (28.77)
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>18 (18.75)</b>
CHhumkhum Village	30	11 (36.67)
Rualalung Village	31	1 (3.22)
Thehlep Village	35	6 (17.14)
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>16 (12.21)</b>
South Phaileng Village	47	7 (14.89)
New Ralvawng Village	54	7 (12.96)
Sairep	30	2 (6.67)
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>23 (23.96)</b>
Aithur Village	30	5 (16.67)
Denlung Village	39	8 (20.51)
South Lungleng Village	27	10 (37.04)
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>529</b>	<b>105 (19.85)</b>

*Note:* Figures within brackets denote percentage to total households.

*Source:* Based on the primary survey carried out by the Scholar.

The block-level analysis reveals that the number of households whose total consumption expenditure during the past 30 days do not exceed Rs.1,400/- accounts for 23.30 per cent in W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block, 18.75 per cent in Lungsen Rural Development

Block, 12.21 per cent in Lunglei Rural Development Block and 23.96 per cent in Hnahthial Rural Development Block. The highest number of households consuming upto the poverty line is in Hnahthial Rural Development Block (23.96 %), followed by W. Bungmun Rural Development Block (23.30 %).

At the district level, the number of households whose total consumption expenditure during the last 30 days preceding the date of our visit do not exceed Rs.1,400/- is 105. This means that a minority of the total households in the district (19.85 per cent) consume below the poverty line. This is true at the block level as well, although in the South Lungleng village under Hnahthial Rural Development Block and CHhumkhum village under Lungsen Rural Development Block, these proportions shoot up to 37.04 per cent and 36.67 per cent respectively.

To conclude, it is worth-mentioning that among the rural development blocks, the most urbanized Lunglei Rural Development Block has the highest percentage of households consuming above the poverty line (87.79 per cent).

### **5.2.1 Household Consumption Pattern: Village Level Analysis**

**Darngawn**: The value of rice consumed in this village alone constitutes one-fourths of the total consumption expenditure. Other major items are

**Table 5.5**

**CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE OF HOUSEHOLDS DURING THE PAST 30 DAYS**

NAME OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT BLOCK/VILLAGE	RICE	COOKING OIL	COOKING & LIGHTING FUEL	VEGETABLE	PULSES	MEAT, PORK AND FISH
	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>W. Bungmun R.D.Block</b>	<b>1,33,576 (27.77)</b>	<b>9,444 (1.96)</b>	<b>78,122 (16.24)</b>	<b>92,875 (19.31)</b>	<b>13,940 (2.90)</b>	<b>14,400 (2.99)</b>
Darngawn Village	51,293 (25.69)	3,971 (1.99)	31,516 (15.78)	37,275 (18.67)	5,470 (2.74)	5,230 (2.62)
Sesawm Village	36,702 (29.22)	2,283 (1.82)	21,028 (16.74)	26,600 (21.17)	3,970 (3.16)	2,960 (2.36)
Laisawral Village	45,581 (29.28)	3,190 (2.05)	25,578 (16.43)	29,000 (18.63)	4,500 (2.89)	6,210 (3.99)
<b>Lungsen R.D.Block</b>	<b>63,115 (26.54)</b>	<b>5,190 (2.18)</b>	<b>41,100 (17.28)</b>	<b>31,950 (13.43)</b>	<b>6,556 (2.76)</b>	<b>8,265 (3.47)</b>
CHhumkhum Village	13,319 (22.40)	1,310(2.20)	12,560 (21.12)	8,350 (14.04)	1,960 (3.30)	2,070 (3.48)
Rualalung Village	27,311 (29.78)	1,783 (1.94)	17,660 (19.25)	11,925 (13.00)	2,470 (2.69)	3,535 (3.85)
Thehleple Village	22,485 (25.95)	2,097 (2.42)	10,880 (12.55)	11,675 (13.47)	2,126 (2.45)	2,660 (3.07)
<b>Lunglei R.D.Block</b>	<b>71,989 (21.40)</b>	<b>9,223 (2.75)</b>	<b>67,211 (20.00)</b>	<b>51,724 (15.40)</b>	<b>10,914 (3.25)</b>	<b>13,995 (4.17)</b>
South Phaileng Village	28,017 (23.64)	3,263 (2.75)	16,502 (13.92)	21,375 (18.04)	3,639 (3.07)	3,900 (3.29)
New Ralvawng Village	31,108 (22.80)	3,940 (2.89)	28,721 (21.05)	19,875 (14.56)	4,785 (3.51)	5,665 (4.15)
Sairep Village	12,864 (15.88)	2,020 (2.49)	21,988 (27.14)	10,474 (12.93)	2,490 (3.07)	4,430 (5.47)
<b>Hnahthial R.D.Block</b>	<b>43,238 (21.71)</b>	<b>3,845 (1.93)</b>	<b>30,739 (15.43)</b>	<b>38,735 (19.45)</b>	<b>6,343 (3.18)</b>	<b>7,556 (3.79)</b>
Aithur Village	16,630 (26.36)	1,385 (2.19)	10,280 (16.29)	13,735 (21.77)	1,973 (3.13)	2,660 (4.22)
Denlung Village	16,640 (20.11)	1,685 (2.04)	12,914 (15.60)	16,325 (19.73)	2,890 (3.49)	3,150 (3.81)
South Lungleng Village	9,968 (18.69)	775 (1.45)	7,545 (14.14)	8,675 (16.26)	1,480 (2.77)	1,746 (3.27)
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>3,11,918 (24.87)</b>	<b>27,702 (2.21)</b>	<b>2,17,172 (17.32)</b>	<b>2,15,284 (17.17)</b>	<b>37,753 (3.01)</b>	<b>44,216 (3.52)</b>

Table 5.5 (Continued).

EGG	MILK	TEA, SUGAR & GUR	TOILETRY, ETC.	ENGINE FUEL (Petrol/Diesel)	OTHER EXPENSES	TOTAL EXPENDITURE
Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.
(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
<b>2,442 (0.51)</b>	<b>3,700 (0.77)</b>	<b>26,792 (5.57)</b>	<b>26,143 (5.44)</b>	<b>2,256 (0.47)</b>	<b>77,266 (16.07)</b>	<b>4,80,956 (100.00)</b>
1,253 (0.63)	1,350 (0.68)	10,766 (5.39)	7,919 (3.96)	1,086 (0.54)	42,549 (21.31)	1,99,678 (100.00)
402 (0.32)	900 (0.72)	6,805 (5.42)	7,749 (6.17)	498 (0.40)	15,718 (12.51)	1,25,615 (100.00)
787 (0.51)	1,450 (0.93)	9,221 (5.92)	10,475 (6.73)	672 (0.43)	18,999 (12.21)	1,55,663 (100.00)
<b>994 (0.42)</b>	<b>3,600 (1.51)</b>	<b>12,034 (5.06)</b>	<b>16,962 (7.13)</b>	<b>1,530 (0.64)</b>	<b>46,550 (19.57)</b>	<b>2,37,846 (100.00)</b>
257 (0.43)	760 (1.28)	2,912 (4.90)	4,248 (7.14)	120 (0.20)	11,595 (19.50)	59,461 (100.00)
572 (0.62)	1,500 (1.64)	4,817 (5.25)	6,039 (6.58)	810 (0.88)	13,302 (14.50)	91,724 (100.00)
165 (0.19)	1,340 (1.55)	4,305 (4.97)	6,675 (7.70)	600 (0.69)	21,653 (24.99)	86,661 (100.00)
<b>2,336 (0.70)</b>	<b>3,380 (1.01)</b>	<b>20,732 (6.17)</b>	<b>22,104 (6.58)</b>	<b>1,355 (0.40)</b>	<b>61,012 (18.16)</b>	<b>3,35,975 (100.00)</b>
559 (0.47)	2,230 (1.88)	6,596 (5.57)	8,409 (7.10)	225 (0.19)	23,798 (20.08)	1,18,513 (100.00)
725 (0.53)	300 (0.22)	8,695 (6.37)	9,377 (6.87)	980 (0.72)	22,278 (16.33)	1,36,449 (100.00)
1,052 (1.30)	850 (1.05)	5,441 (6.72)	4,318 (5.33)	150 (0.18)	14,936 (18.44)	81,013 (100.00)
<b>1,712 (0.86)</b>	<b>4,460 (2.24)</b>	<b>9,886 (4.96)</b>	<b>10,992 (5.52)</b>	<b>475 (0.24)</b>	<b>41,208 (20.69)</b>	<b>1,99,189 (100.00)</b>
639 (1.01)	850 (1.35)	3,110 (4.93)	3,941 (6.25)	120 (0.19)	7,767 (12.31)	63,090 (100.00)
786 (0.95)	2,620 (3.16)	3,680 (4.45)	4,016 (4.85)	175 (0.21)	17,875 (21.60)	82,756 (100.00)
287 (0.54)	990 (1.86)	3,096 (5.80)	3,035 (5.69)	180 (0.34)	15,566 (29.18)	53,343 (100.00)
<b>7,484 (0.60)</b>	<b>15,140 (1.21)</b>	<b>69,444 (5.54)</b>	<b>76,201 (6.08)</b>	<b>5,616 (0.45)</b>	<b>2,26,036 (18.02)</b>	<b>12,53,966 (100.00)</b>

Note: Figures within brackets denote percentages to the row totals.  
Source: Based on the primary survey carried out by the Scholar.

Table 5.6

## CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE OF HOUSEHOLDS DURING THE PAST 30 DAYS

NAME OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT BLOCK /NAME OF VILLAGE	Rice		Cooking Oil		Cooking & Lighting Fuel	
	SELF- PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF- PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF- PRODUCED	BOUGHT
	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>W. Bungmun R.D.Block</b>	<b>85,563</b>	<b>48,013</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>9,444</b>	<b>65,442</b>	<b>12,680</b>
Darngawn Village	32,958	18,335	0	3,971	27,196	4,320
Sesawm Village	24,912	11,790	0	2,283	17,918	3,110
Laisawral Village	27,693	17,888	0	3,190	20,328	5,250
<b>Lungsen R.D.Block</b>	<b>49,425</b>	<b>13,690</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>5,190</b>	<b>33,123</b>	<b>7,977</b>
CHhumkhum Village	8,440	4,879	0	1,310	10,580	1,980
Rualalung Village	20,295	7,016	0	1,783	13,900	3,760
Thehleple Village	20,690	1,795	0	2,097	8,643	2,237
<b>Lunglei R.D.Block</b>	<b>45,026</b>	<b>17,963</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>9,223</b>	<b>61,099</b>	<b>6,112</b>
South Phaileng Village	21,880	6,137	0	3,263	12,479	4,023
New Ralvawng Village	28,350	2,758	0	3,940	27,550	1,171
Sairep Village	3,796	9,068	0	2,020	21,070	918
<b>Hnahthial R.D.Block</b>	<b>33,280</b>	<b>9,958</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3,845</b>	<b>27,257</b>	<b>3,482</b>
Aithur Village	13,640	2,990	0	1,385	9,320	960
Denlung Village	13,680	2,960	0	1,685	11,442	1,472
South Lungleng Village	5,960	4,008	0	775	6,495	1,050
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>2,22,294</b>	<b>89,624</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>27,702</b>	<b>1,86,921</b>	<b>30,251</b>

Table 5.6 (Continued)

Vegetable		Pulses		Meat, Pork & Fish		Egg	
SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT
Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.
(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
88,275	4,600	6,940	7,000	7,770	6,630	1,118	1,324
35,825	1,450	2,550	2,920	2,470	2,760	452	801
25,800	800	2,170	1,800	1,670	1,290	192	210
26,650	2,350	2,220	2,280	3,630	2,580	474	313
<b>30,500</b>	<b>1,450</b>	<b>3,710</b>	<b>2,846</b>	<b>3,625</b>	<b>4,640</b>	<b>439</b>	<b>555</b>
8,150	200	1,120	840	990	1,080	96	161
11,625	300	1,230	1,240	1,535	2,000	328	244
10,725	950	1,360	766	1,100	1,560	15	150
<b>44,650</b>	<b>7,074</b>	<b>6,020</b>	<b>4,894</b>	<b>6,430</b>	<b>7,565</b>	<b>1,614</b>	<b>722</b>
19,075	2,300	1,680	1,959	1,900	2,000	389	170
17,975	1,900	3,290	1,495	2,585	3,080	450	275
7,600	2,874	1,050	1,440	1,945	2,485	775	277
<b>35,935</b>	<b>2,800</b>	<b>3,500</b>	<b>2,843</b>	<b>3,756</b>	<b>3,800</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>896</b>
13,585	150	1,470	503	970	1,690	264	375
14,525	1,800	1,360	1,530	1,660	1,490	375	411
7,825	850	670	810	1,126	620	177	110
<b>199,360</b>	<b>15,924</b>	<b>20,170</b>	<b>17,583</b>	<b>21,581</b>	<b>22,635</b>	<b>3,987</b>	<b>3,497</b>

Table 5.6 (Continued)

Milk		Tea, Sugar & Gur		Toiletry, etc.		Engine Fuel (PETROL/DIESEL)	
SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT
Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.
(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)
1,260	2,440	1,815	24,977	2,333	23,810	0	2,256
450	900	500	10,266	405	7,514	0	1,086
360	540	540	6,265	990	6,759	0	498
450	1,000	775	8,446	938	9,537	0	672
1,450	2,150	760	11,274	1,825	15,137	0	1,530
300	460	240	2,672	575	3,673	0	120
600	900	520	4,297	710	5,329	0	810
550	790	0	4,305	540	6,135	0	600
1,400	1,980	3,425	17,307	2,232	19,872	0	1,355
850	1,380	970	5,626	765	7,644	0	225
0	300	1,305	7,390	1,307	8,070	0	980
550	300	1,150	4,291	160	4,158	0	150
2,635	1,825	1,940	7,946	1,275	9,717	0	475
550	300	960	2,150	790	3,151	0	120
1,425	1,195	385	3,295	325	3,691	0	175
660	330	595	2,501	160	2,875	0	180
6,745	8,395	7,940	61,504	7,665	68,536	0	5,616

Table 5.6 (Continued)

Other Expenses		Total Expenditure		
SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	SELF-PRODUCED	BOUGHT	COMBINED
Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.	Value in Rs.
(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
3,893	73,373	2,64,409 (54.98)	2,16,547 (45.02)	4,80,956 (100.00)
1,604	40,945	1,04,410 (52.29)	95,268 (47.71)	1,99,678 (100.00)
1,323	14,395	75,875 (60.40)	49,740 (39.60)	1,25,615 (100.00)
966	18,033	84,124 (54.04)	71,539 (45.96)	1,55,663 (100.00)
3,307	43,243	1,30,047 (54.68)	1,07,799 (45.32)	2,37,846 (100.00)
946	10,649	32,747 (55.07)	26,714 (44.93)	59,461 (100.00)
980	12,322	53,506 (58.33)	38,218 (41.67)	91,724 (100.00)
1,381	20,272	47,101 (54.35)	39,560 (45.65)	86,661 (100.00)
8,774	52,238	1,98,893 (59.20)	1,37,082 (40.80)	3,35,975 (100.00)
2,528	21,270	65,779 (55.50)	52,734 (44.50)	1,18,513 (100.00)
5,604	16,674	92,356 (67.69)	44,093 (32.31)	1,36,449 (100.00)
642	14,294	40,758 (50.31)	40,255 (49.69)	81,013 (100.00)
8,136	33,072	1,22,375 (61.44)	76,814 (38.56)	1,99,189 (100.00)
3,240	4,527	46,174 (73.19)	16,916 (26.81)	63,090 (100.00)
3,000	14,875	49,862 (60.25)	32,894 (39.75)	82,756 (100.00)
1,896	13,670	26,339 (49.38)	27,004 (50.62)	53,343 (100.00)
24,110	2,01,926	7,19,031 (57.34)	5,34,935 (42.66)	12,53,966 (100.00)

Note: Figures within brackets denote percentages to the row totals.

Source: Based on the primary survey carried out by the Scholar.

cooking & lighting fuel and vegetables. The respective values of these two goods contribute 15.80 per cent and 18.70 per cent to the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 60.20 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

A striking feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.1,99,678/-, the values of self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.1,04,410/- (52.29 per cent). Further, the total amount spent on food items is as high as 74.78 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Sesawm**: The value of rice consumed in this village alone constitutes more than one-fourths of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetables. The respective values of these two goods contribute 16.70 per cent and 21.20 per cent to the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major items together account for 67.10 per cent or two-thirds of the total value of goods consumed.

A striking feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.1,25,615/-, the

values of self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.75,875/- (60.40 per cent). It is also interesting to note that the total amount spent on food items is as high as 80.92 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Laisawral:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone constitutes nearly one-third of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetables. The respective values of these two goods account for 16.40 per cent and 18.60 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together account for 64.3 per cent or nearly two-thirds of the total value of goods consumed.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.5, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.1,55,663/-, the values of self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.84,124/- (54.04 per cent). Further, the total amount spent on food items is as high as 80.63 per cent of the total expenditure.

**CHhumkhum:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone accounts for more than one-fifth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in this village are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetables. The respective values of these two goods account for

21.10 per cent and 14.10 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 57.60 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

As in the case of the other villages, the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.59,461/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.32,747/- (55.07 per cent). Further, the total amount spent on food items is as high as 73.15 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Rualalung:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone constitutes nearly one-third of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetables. The respective values of these two goods account for 19.30 per cent and 13.00 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together account for 62.10 per cent or nearly two-third of the total value of goods consumed.

Again, one feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.91,724/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to

Rs.53,506/- (58.33 per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 78.03 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Thehlep:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone constitutes one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items are cooking lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods contribute 12.60 per cent and 13.50 per cent to the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together account for 52.00 per cent or a little more than half of the total value of goods consumed.

Again, there is a preponderance of self-produced goods in the consumption pattern. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.86,661/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.47,101/- (54.35 per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 66.62 per cent of the total expenditure.

**South Phaileng:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone accounts for nearly one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in this village are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 13.90 per cent and 18.00 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 55.50 per cent of the total value of goods consumed in this village.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.1,18,513/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.65,779/- (55.50 per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 72.63 per cent of the total expenditure.

**New Ralvawng:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone accounts for a bit more than one-fifth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in this village are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 21.00 per cent and 14.60 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 58.40 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.1,36,449/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.92,356/- (67.69

per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 76.08 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Sairep**: The value of cooking & lighting fuel consumed in this village alone accounts for more than one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in this village are rice and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 15.90 per cent and 12.90 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 55.90 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.81,013/-, the value of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.40,758/- (50.31 per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 76.05 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Aithur**: The value of rice consumed in this village alone accounts for more than one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in this village are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 16.30 per cent and 21.80 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values

of these three major consumption items together constitute 64.50 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.63,090/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.46,174/- (73.19 per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 81.25 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Denlung:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone accounts for one-fifth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 15.60 per cent and 19.70 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 55.40 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.82,756/-, the values of their self-produced goods, added together, amount to Rs.49,862/- (60.25 per

cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 73.34 per cent of the total expenditure.

**South Lungleng:** The value of rice consumed in this village alone accounts for nearly one-fifths of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in this village are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 14.10 per cent and 16.30 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 49.10 per cent of the total value of goods consumed while, the remaining nine consumption items together constitute 50.90 per cent of the total value of goods consumed in this village.

One feature of the household consumption pattern in this village is the preponderance of bought-goods in the items of consumption. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, i.e., Rs.53,343/-, the values of their bought-goods, added together, amount to Rs.27,004/- (50.62 per cent). The total amount spent on food items is as high as 64.79 per cent of the total expenditure.

### **5.2.2 Household Consumption Pattern: Block-Level Analysis**

**W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block:** The value of rice consumed alone accounts for more than one-fourth of the total consumption

expenditure in this block (27.77 per cent). Other major consumption items in this block are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 16.20 per cent and 19.30 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 63.30 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

A striking feature of the household consumption pattern in this block is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. Out of the total value of goods consumed, self-produced goods constitute 54.98 per cent. Further, the total amount spent on food items is as high as 78.03 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Lungsen Rural Development Block:** The value of rice consumed alone accounts for a bit more than one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure in this block (26.54). Other major consumption items in this block are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 17.30 per cent and 13.40 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 57.20 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

A striking feature of the household consumption pattern in this block is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, self-produced goods accounts for 56.07 per cent. The total amount spent on food items is as high as 72.65 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Lunglei Rural Development Block:** The value of rice consumed alone accounts for a bit more than one-fifth of the total consumption expenditure in this block (21.40). Other major consumption items in this block are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 20.00 per cent and 15.40 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 56.80 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

A striking feature of the household consumption pattern in this block is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed, self-produced goods account for 59.20 per cent. The total amount spent on food items is as high as 74.86 per cent of the total expenditure.

**Hnahtial Rural Development Block:** The value of rice consumed alone accounts for a little bit more than one-fifth of the total consumption

expenditure in this block (21.71). Other major consumption items in this block are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The respective values of these two goods account for 15.40 per cent and 19.40 per cent of the total value of goods consumed. The values of these three major consumption items together constitute 56.50 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

A striking feature of the household consumption pattern in these three villages of Hnahthial Rural Development Block is the preponderance of their self-produced goods. As shown in Table 5.6, out of the total value of goods consumed during the past 30 days, self-produced goods account for 61.44 per cent. The total amount spent on food items is as high as 73.56 per cent of the total expenditure.

### **5.2.3 Household Consumption Pattern in Lunglei District Summed Up**

As shown in Table 5.5, rice consumption in Lunglei District accounts for 24.87 per cent of the total expenditure, followed in that order by other expenses such as education, conveyance, wages of labourers, etc. (18.02 per cent), cooking & lighting fuel (17.32 per cent), vegetable (17.17 per cent), toiletry, etc. (6.08 per cent), tea, etc. (5.54 per cent), meat, etc. (3.52 per cent), pulses (3.01 per cent), cooking oil (2.21 per

cent), milk (1.21 per cent), engine fuel (0.45 per cent), and eggs (0.60 per cent).

The value of rice consumed alone accounts for nearly one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure. Other major consumption items in the district are cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable. The values of these three major consumption items (viz., rice, cooking & lighting fuel and vegetable) together constitute 59.36 per cent of the total value of goods consumed.

Out of the total value of goods consumed during the past 30 days, self-produced goods account for 57.34 per cent, while their bought-goods account for 42.66 per cent only. The total amount spent on food items (rice, cooking oil, cooking & lighting fuel, vegetables, pulses, meat, etc., egg, milk, and tea, etc.) is as high as 75.45 per cent of the total expenditure, while the remaining was spent on non-food items (toiletry, etc., engine fuel, and other expenses such as conveyance, education expense, labour wage, etc).

### **5.3 HOUSEHOLD POSSESSION OF ASSETS OR CONSUMER DURABLES**

To assess the value of assets or consumer durables possessed by each individual household in the twelve villages of Lunglei District, we considered 13 main assets, and then obtained information on them

through the questionnaire. The 13 assets are Dwelling houses, Utensils, Clothes, Furniture, Transistor/Tape-Player/Tape-Recorder, Television/Video Cassette Player/ Video Cassette Recorder/Video Compact Disc, Bicycle, Two/Four-Wheeler, Water-Reservoir/Water Tank, Sewing Machine, Paddy-Husker, Sugarcane-Crusher and Others.

### **5.3.1 Dwelling House**

Dwelling houses included all sheds that were used either for dwelling or business purposes. These buildings had been categorized into three types – Type-I (Assam-type and RCC structures), Type-II (Semi-Assam-type) and Type-III (purely thatch, timber and bamboo structures). All buildings of Type-I are valued at Rs.30,000/- or more, all buildings of Type-II are valued between Rs.20,000/- and Rs.30,000/- and all buildings of Type-III are valued at Rs.20,000/- or less.

In these 12 villages of the district, not a single re-enforced cement concrete (R.C.C.) building was found. The only Type-I building found in these villages were Assam-type of timber structure. Bricks had not been used even for the construction of walls; instead, the people used bamboo and tiles. Generally, they constructed the floors of their houses with bamboo or sawn timber and the roofs were made of thatch, G.C.I. sheets or tins. Out of the 529 houses in these twelve villages of Lunglei District,

27.60 per cent of the total number of houses were Type-I houses, 17.96 per cent were Type-II houses, and 54.44 per cent were Type-III houses (Table 5.7).

**Table 5.7**  
**HOUSING PATTERN AMONG HOUSEHOLDS**

Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B./Name of Village)	No. of Households	Number of Households Living in		
		Type-I Houses of >Rs.30,000 in Value	Type-II Houses of ≤Rs.30,000 But >Rs.20,000 in Value	Type-III Houses of ≤Rs.20,000 in Value
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<b>W. Bunghmun R.D.B.</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>42 (20.39)</b>	<b>31 (15.05)</b>	<b>133 (64.56)</b>
Darngawm	76	15 (19.74)	12 (15.79)	49 (64.47)
Sesawm	57	13 (21.81)	5 (8.77)	39 (68.42)
Laisawral	73	14 (19.18)	14 (19.18)	45 (61.64)
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>33 (34.37)</b>	<b>22 (22.92)</b>	<b>41 (42.71)</b>
CHhumkhum	30	7 (23.33)	4 (13.33)	19 (63.33)
Rualalung	31	13 (41.94)	6 (19.35)	12 (38.71)
Thehlelep	35	13 (37.14)	12 (34.29)	10 (28.57)
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>55 (41.98)</b>	<b>18 (13.74)</b>	<b>58 (44.27)</b>
South Phaileng	47	19 (40.42)	5 (10.64)	23 (48.94)
New Ralvawng	54	28 (51.85)	5 (9.26)	21 (38.89)
Sairep	30	8 (26.67)	8 (26.67)	14 (46.67)
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>16 (16.67)</b>	<b>24 (25.00)</b>	<b>56 (58.33)</b>
Aithur	30	7 (23.33)	3 (10.00)	20 (66.67)
Denlung	39	6 (15.38)	9 (23.08)	24 (61.54)
South Lungleng	27	3 (11.11)	12 (44.44)	12 (44.44)
<b>Lunglei District Total</b>	<b>529</b>	<b>146 (27.60)</b>	<b>95 (17.96)</b>	<b>288 (54.44)</b>

*Note:* Figures within brackets denote percentages to total number of households.

*Source:* Based on Primary Survey carried out by the scholar.

The money value of most Type-III houses were less than Rs.10,000/-. W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block had the highest

number of Type-III or *kutchha* houses (64.56 per cent). On the other hand, Lunglei Rural Development Block had the highest percentage of Type-I or *pucca* houses (41.98 per cent). Interestingly, most of the Type-I houses across these 12 villages belong to government/semi-government servants and self-employed non- agricultural residents.

### **5.3.2 Utensils**

Utensils in the possession of the families were simple and few. Each family had one or two extraordinary big pots for storing water. They also had four or five smaller pots, a basin, two or three bowls, seven or eight plates and spoons, etc. The total value of utensils in the possession of a family was assessed at less than Rs.500/-. However, there were a few government/semi-government servants and self-employed non-agricultural workers such as teachers, businesspersons, etc., whose families were relatively better off, and, therefore, had more utensils and of a better quality.

### **5.3.3 Clothes**

Clothes included all kinds of dress and bedding materials such as quilts, blankets, mattresses, bed-sheets, etc. The bedding materials found in most of the houses were of a cheap quality. However, clothes for wearing such as trousers, shirts, skirts, jackets, etc., were not of inferior

quality. Perhaps this is the reason as to why the value of clothes constitute 24.40 per cent of the total value of assets at the district level, next only the value of houses (53.00 per cent).

The main factor for the people of this region requiring to spend relatively more of their income on clothes is the cold climate. As already stated in earlier chapters, forests and ranges of hills cover almost the whole of Mizoram, and this state regularly receives heavy rainfall. Therefore, the temperature in this region remains at a fairly low level throughout the year, necessitating mandatory expense by all households, no matter how poor they are, on warm clothes.

#### **5.3.4 Furniture**

The furniture possessed by most households in these villages were simple and few in number. The average household possession of furniture was one or two wooden benches, a wooden table and chair, two or three bamboo chairs, two or three wooden or bamboo beds, etc. Several households did not have a dining table or dining stools. It was found that the furniture of most households would not cost more than Rs.800/- on average.

### **5.3.5 Other Durable Goods**

Here, we assessed the remaining nine durable assets possessed by the people of the 4 blocks. Every household did not possess these remaining nine assets. Nearly half of the households owned transistors or tape-players/recorders. Again, one-fourth of the households had sewing machines. Only 29 per cent of the households had fairly big water tanks. A total of 33 households owned other machinery of some sort for business purpose – 22 households (4.16 per cent) possessed paddy-huskers and 11 households (2.08 per cent) owned sugarcane-crushers.

It may be mentioned that possession of most of the above mentioned goods by the households was mainly through the rural employment and poverty-alleviation programme known as “New Land Use Policy” launched by the State Government a few years back. Besides, mention may also be made that all households in one of our sample villages (South Phaileng) were given a fairly big water tank/reservoir each costing Rs.3,500/-.

### **Conclusion**

The following inferences may be drawn:

1. Shelter in the form of houses (53.03 per cent) accounted for the highest proportion in terms of value of assets.

2. Clothes accounted for the second highest in terms of value (24.44 per cent).
3. Utensils (5.16 per cent) and furniture (4.66 per cent) occupied the next positions.

#### **5.4 SANITARY FACILITIES**

Another indicator of the pattern of living that we have considered is the availability of sanitary facilities among the households. From the 529 households, not a single household owned a septic tank latrine. The only other sanitary system possessed by the households was the pit latrine. These pit latrines were small sheds with thatched roofs, bamboo walls and rough wooden floors. They were constructed over dug pits of 3 feet x 5 feet in area and 3 feet to 6 feet in depth. A few well-to-do families, however, constructed the roofs and walls of their latrines with G.C.I. sheets and tiles respectively. Thus, the money value of their toilets is assessed at Rs.50/- to Rs.1,000/-.

At the district level, 83.74 per cent of the total households had pit latrines (Table 5.8). Hnahthial Rural Development Block had the largest proportion of households without latrines, while Lungsen and Lunglei Rural Development Blocks had the largest proportion of households with latrines.

**Table 5.8**  
**SANITARY FACILITIES AMONG HOUSEHOLDS**

Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Village	Number of Households		Total Number of Households
	Without Toilet or Latrine	With Toilet or Latrine	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>W. Binghamun R.D.B.</b>	<b>39 (18.93)</b>	<b>167 (81.07)</b>	<b>206 (100.00)</b>
Darngawm	11 (14.47)	65 (85.53)	76 (100.00)
Sesawm	13 (22.81)	44 (77.19)	57 (100.00)
Laisawral	15 (20.55)	58 (79.45)	73 (100.00)
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>10 (10.42)</b>	<b>86 (89.58)</b>	<b>96 (100.00)</b>
CHhumkhum	7 (23.33)	23 (76.67)	30 (100.00)
Rualalung	2 (6.45)	29 (93.55)	31 (100.00)
Thehle	1 (2.86)	34 (97.14)	35 (100.00)
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>14 (10.69)</b>	<b>117 (89.31)</b>	<b>131 (100.00)</b>
South Phaileng	5 (10.64)	42 (89.36)	47 (100.00)
New Ralvawng	8 (14.81)	46 (85.19)	54 (100.00)
Sairep	1 (3.33)	29 (96.67)	30 (100.00)
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>23 (23.96)</b>	<b>73 (76.04)</b>	<b>96 (100.00)</b>
Aithur	8 (26.67)	22 (73.33)	30 (100.00)
Denlung	10 (25.64)	29 (74.36)	39 (100.00)
South Lungleng	5 (18.52)	22 (81.48)	27 (100.00)
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>86 (16.26)</b>	<b>443 (83.74)</b>	<b>529 (100.00)</b>

*Note:* Figures within brackets denote percentages to row totals.

*Source:* Based on Primary Survey carried out by the scholar.

## 5.5 HOUSEHOLD INCOME

In an attempt to assess the income of each household in the 12 villages of Lunglei District for the last 365 days preceding the date of our interview, we divided the sources of their income into 6 (six) groups under the following heads: (i) Crop cultivation, (ii) Wages and Salaries, (iii) Piggery, Poultry and Cattle, (iv) Carpentry and Blacksmithy,

Table 5.9

## INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT PATTERN AMONG HOUSEHOLDS

Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Village	Number of Households Earning Income From					
	Crop Cultivation	Wages & Salaries	Piggery/ Poultry/ Cattle	Carpentry / Blacksmithy	Business	Other Sources
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>W. Binghamun R.D.B.</b>	<b>197</b> (94.17)	<b>155</b> (75.24)	<b>128</b> (62.14)	<b>11</b> (5.34)	<b>21</b> (10.19)	<b>20</b> (9.71)
Darngawn Village	72 (94.74)	54 (71.05)	50 (65.79)	4 (5.26)	5 (6.58)	12 (15.79)
Sesawm Village	55 (96.49)	47 (82.46)	37 (64.91)	2 (3.51)	6 (10.53)	4 (5.48)
Laisawral Village	55 (96.49)	47 (82.46)	37 (64.91)	2 (3.51)	6 (10.53)	4 (7.02)
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>86</b> (89.58)	<b>78</b> (81.25)	<b>78</b> (81.25)	<b>6</b> (6.25)	<b>14</b> (14.58)	<b>7</b> (7.29)
CHhumkhum Village	28 (93.33)	24 (80.00)	20 (66.67)	2 (6.67)	5 (16.67)	4 (13.33)
Rualalung Village	30 (96.77)	28 (90.32)	28 (90.32)	2 (6.45)	6 (19.35)	2 (6.45)
Thehlelep Village	28 (80.00)	26 (74.29)	30 (85.71)	2 (5.71)	3 (8.57)	1 (2.86)
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>115</b> (87.79)	<b>97</b> (74.04)	<b>111</b> (84.73)	<b>7</b> (5.34)	<b>18</b> (13.74)	<b>12</b> (9.16)
South Phaileng Village	40 (85.11)	41 (87.23)	42 (89.36)	1 (2.13)	5 (10.64)	4 (8.51)
New Ralvawng Village	50 (92.59)	36 (66.67)	45 (8.33)	3 (5.55)	8 (14.81)	3 (5.55)
Sairep Village	25 (83.33)	20 (66.67)	24 (80.00)	3 (10.00)	5 (16.67)	5 (16.67)
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>90</b> (93.75)	<b>50</b> (52.08)	<b>90</b> (93.75)	<b>4</b> (4.17)	<b>12</b> (12.50)	<b>6</b> (6.25)
Aithur Village	29 (96.67)	17 (56.67)	29 (96.67)	0 (0.00)	3 (10.00)	2 (6.67)
Denlung Village	36 (92.31)	15 (38.46)	38 (97.43)	2 (5.13)	3 (7.69)	1 (2.56)
South Lungleng Village	25 (92.59)	18 (66.67)	23 (85.18)	2 (7.41)	6 (22.22)	3 (11.11)
<b>LUNGLEI DISTRICT</b>	<b>485</b> (91.68)	<b>380</b> (71.83)	<b>407</b> (76.94)	<b>28</b> (5.29)	<b>65</b> (12.29)	<b>45</b> (8.51)

Note: Figures within brackets denote percentages.

Source: Based on primary survey carried out by the scholar.

(v) Business and (vi) Other sources. It may be mentioned that over 70.00 per cent of the people received income from more than one occupation.

At the district level, 91.68 per cent of the households in these 12 villages received income from crop cultivation, 71.83 per cent from wages and salaries, 76.94 per cent from piggery/poultry/cattle, 5.29 per cent from carpentry or blacksmithy, 12.29 per cent from business, and 8.51 per cent from other sources such as rent, etc. (Table 5.9). From this, we may generalize that:

1. More than 70 per cent of the households were engaged in two to four different occupations at a time;
2. More than 90 per cent of the households were engaged in agriculture, particularly shifting cultivation or *jhuming* (The present study confirms this occupation as the mainstay of the people in Lunglei District);
3. A very low proportion of the people earned their livelihood from carpentry, blacksmithy, business or other sources like rent, etc.; and
4. Apart from government and semi-government services, all occupations, with the exception of agriculture, were being carried on

part-time jobs, because these occupations were not gainful employment for the villagers due to lack of marketing facilities, etc.

**Table 5.10**  
**INCOME DURING THE PAST 365 DAYS**

Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Village	Crop Cultivation	Wages and Salaries	Piggery, Poultry and Cattle
	Amount in Rs.	Amount in Rs.	Amount in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>W. Binghamun R.D.B.</b>	<b>20,86,900</b> <b>(43.10)</b>	<b>18,45,660</b> <b>(38.12)</b>	<b>6,92,750</b> <b>(14.31)</b>
Darngawn Village	7,46,900 (40.10)	7,60,000 (40.80)	2,81,400 (15.11)
Sesawm Village	6,11,200 (46.96)	4,50,700 (34.63)	1,83,200 (14.08)
Laisawral Village	7,28,800 (43.43)	6,34,960 (37.84)	2,28,150 (13.60)
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>9,15,000</b> <b>(33.90)</b>	<b>11,67,690</b> <b>(43.26)</b>	<b>3,87,100</b> <b>(14.34)</b>
CHhumkhum Village	1,86,500 (32.52)	2,07,300 (36.15)	98,900 (17.25)
Rualalung Village	3,51,000 (36.05)	3,92,540 (40.32)	1,47,700 (15.17)
Thehlelep Village	3,77,500 (32.76)	5,67,850 (49.27)	1,40,500 (12.19)
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>14,73,630</b> <b>(34.71)</b>	<b>16,13,786</b> <b>(38.02)</b>	<b>8,32,380</b> <b>(19.61)</b>
South Phaileng Village	4,83,660 (30.13)	8,12,340 (50.60)	1,85,520 (11.56)
New Ralvawng Village	7,41,870 (42.24)	5,63,280 (32.07)	3,44,115 (19.59)
Sairep Village	2,48,100 (28.09)	2,38,166 (26.96)	3,02,745 (34.27)
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>9,80,580</b> <b>(39.76)</b>	<b>5,29,994</b> <b>(21.49)</b>	<b>7,07,599</b> <b>(28.69)</b>
Aithur Village	3,64,500 (45.50)	1,54,760 (19.32)	2,15,860 (26.94)
Denlung Village	3,86,060 (39.30)	1,92,130 (19.56)	3,24,355 (33.02)
South Lungleng Village	2,30,020 (33.68)	1,83,104 (26.81)	1,67,384 (24.51)
<b>LUNGLEI DISTRICT</b>	<b>54,56,110</b> <b>(38.28)</b>	<b>51,57,130</b> <b>(36.18)</b>	<b>26,19,829</b> <b>(18.38)</b>

Table 5.10 (Continued)

<b>Carpentry and Blacksmithy</b>	<b>Business</b>	<b>All Other Incomes</b>	<b>Total Income</b>
<b>Amount in Rs.</b>	<b>Amount in Rs.</b>	<b>Amount in Rs.</b>	<b>Amount in Rs.</b>
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<b>19,100</b> <b>(0.39)</b>	<b>1,33,400</b> <b>(2.75)</b>	<b>64,400</b> <b>(1.33)</b>	<b>48,42,210</b> <b>(100.00)</b>
7,500 (0.40)	33,000 (1.77)	34,000 (1.82)	18,62,800 (100.00)
3,700 (0.28)	31,000 (2.38)	21,700 (1.67)	13,01,500 (100.00)
7,900 (0.47)	69,400 (4.14)	8,700 (0.52)	16,77,910 (100.00)
<b>13,860</b> <b>(0.51)</b>	<b>1,59,800</b> <b>(5.92)</b>	<b>56,000</b> <b>(2.07)</b>	<b>26,99,450</b> <b>(100.00)</b>
2,760 (0.48)	69,000 (12.03)	9,000 (1.57)	5,73,460 (100.00)
7,500 (0.77)	32,800 (3.37)	42,000 (4.31)	9,73,540 (100.00)
3,600 (0.31)	58,000 (5.03)	5,000 (0.43)	11,52,450 (100.00)
<b>35,160</b> <b>(0.83)</b>	<b>2,22,400</b> <b>(5.24)</b>	<b>67,500</b> <b>(1.59)</b>	<b>42,44,856</b> <b>(100.00)</b>
800 (0.05)	1,09,000 (6.79)	14,000 (0.87)	16,05,320 (100.00)
18,500 (1.05)	73,500 (4.19)	14,900 (0.85)	17,56,165 (100.00)
15,860 (1.79)	39,900 (4.52)	38,600 (4.37)	8,83,371 (100.00)
<b>5,920</b> <b>(0.24)</b>	<b>2,08,000</b> <b>(8.43)</b>	<b>34,200</b> <b>(1.39)</b>	<b>24,66,293</b> <b>(100.00)</b>
0 (0.00)	46,000 (5.74)	20,000 (2.50)	8,01,120 (100.00)
3,700 (0.38)	70,000 (7.13)	6,000 (0.61)	9,82,245 (100.00)
2,220 (0.33)	92,000 (13.47)	8,200 (1.20)	6,82,928 (100.00)
<b>74,040</b> <b>(0.52)</b>	<b>7,23,600</b> <b>(5.08)</b>	<b>2,22,100</b> <b>(1.56)</b>	<b>1,42,52,809</b> <b>(100.00)</b>

*Note:* Figures within brackets denote percentages to the row totals.

*Source:* Based on the primary survey carried out by the scholar.

The incomes of most households are pitifully low in these villages, although only 140 government/semi-government servants and a few others had higher incomes. However, as will be seen later, there were as many as 194 households constituting 36.67 per cent of the population, whose total incomes from all sources did not exceed Rs.17,000/- (Table 6.1 & 6.3).

Interestingly, at the district level, income derived from crop cultivation constituted only 38.28 per cent of the total income (Table 5.10) even though income share from crop cultivation was the highest. Income from wages and salaries was almost equal to that of agriculture, constituting as high as 36.18 per cent of the total income. At the block level, however, income from wages and salaries accounted for the highest proportion in Lungsen (43.26 per cent) and Lunglei (38.02 per cent).

## **5.6 OCCUPATIONAL PATTERN IN THE SAMPLE VILLAGES**

The total workforce in the twelve villages of Lunglei District, as on the date of our survey, was 1,656, which constituted 58.97 per cent of the population (Table 5.11). This figure exceeds the corresponding national average (39.20 per cent) and state average (42.09 per cent) according to the 2001 census.

**Table 5.11**  
**OCCUPATIONAL PATTERN AMONG THE TWELVE VILLAGES OF**  
**LUNGLEI DISTRICT (1997-1998)**

Name of Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Name of Village	Population	Total Number of Workers.	Government or Semi-Govt. Servants		Self-Employed			
			Number	% to Total No. of Workers	Agricultural		Non-Agricultural	
					Number	% to Total No. of Workers	Number	% to Total No. of Workers
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
<b>W. Binghamun R.D.B.</b>	<b>1,153</b>	<b>676</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>6.80</b>	<b>583</b>	<b>86.30</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>6.90</b>
Damgawn Village	439	260	19	7.30	227	87.30	14	5.40
Sesawm Village	321	189	10	5.30	170	89.90	9	4.80
Laisawral Village	393	227	17	7.50	186	81.90	24	10.6
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>498</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>9.90</b>	<b>279</b>	<b>86.70</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3.40</b>
CHhumkhum Village	132	97	5	5.10	89	91.80	3	3.10
Rualalung Village	198	125	12	9.60	109	87.20	4	3.20
Thehlep Village	168	100	15	15.00	81	81.00	4	4.00
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>662</b>	<b>376</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>9.90</b>	<b>317</b>	<b>84.30</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>5.80</b>
South Phaileng Village	267	136	18	13.20	107	78.70	11	8.10
New Ralvawng Village	249	155	11	7.10	137	88.40	7	4.50
Sairep Village	146	85	8	9.40	73	85.90	4	4.70
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>495</b>	<b>282</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>8.90</b>	<b>246</b>	<b>87.20</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3.90</b>
Aithur Village	161	88	6	6.80	79	89.80	3	3.40
Denlung Village	200	116	7	6.00	104	89.70	5	4.30
South Lungleng Village	134	78	12	15.40	63	80.80	3	3.80
<b>LUNGLEI DISTRICT.</b>	<b>2,808</b>	<b>1,656</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>8.40</b>	<b>1,425</b>	<b>86.10</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>5.50</b>

*Note:* Figures within brackets denote percentages to the row totals.  
*Source:* Calculated from primary survey data collected by the scholar.

Out of the total number of 1,656 workers in these twelve villages, the number of agricultural workers was 1,425, which constituted 86.10 per cent of the total number of workers. The number of government and

semi-government servants was 140 (8.40 per cent) and self-employed non-agricultural workers was 91 (5.50 per cent).

### **5.7 IMPACT OF ON-GOING RURAL EMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY-ALLEVIATION PROGRAMMES**

Among the on-going rural employment and poverty-alleviation programmes, the programme with which the people of these 12 villages were most benefited was the New Land Use Policy (N.L.U.P.). Truly speaking, other rural employment and poverty-alleviation programmes of the Government, such as the Integrated Rural Development Programme (I.R.D.P.), Training of Rural Youths for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Employment Assurance Scheme (E.A.S.), Indira Awas Yojana (I.A.Y.), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (D.W.C.R.A.), Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (J.R.Y.), etc., did not benefit the people because these programmes did not have as wide a reach as the New Land Use Policy.

These villages were covered with the New Land Use Policy (N.L.U.P.) in 1994 and 1995. All the households or families in these villages, except government servants or semi-government servants, were beneficiaries of this scheme. However, this programme had not left any sizeable impact even at the time of our survey. This scheme provided a few assets like paddy-huskers, sugarcane-crushers, cattle and pigs, and

some horticultural crops (most of which were yet to mature at the time of survey).

### **5.8 LAND-HOLDING, LAND-OPERATION AND CROPPING PATTERNS**

Land is collectively owned by the community in Mizoram. The absence of an authoritarian rule and the egalitarian relationship gave the Mizos a sense of cohesion and equality. The land distribution by the chiefs was supposedly need-based and this acted as a check on privatization of land as a property. Due to low pressure of population and consequent high land-man ratio with low level of technology, the economy was almost a self-contained one.

After Independence, chieftainship was abolished under the Assam Lushai Hills District (Acquisition of Chief's Rights) Act, 1954. Now the Village Councils allocate land among the cultivators in a democratic manner. The size of a *jhum*-field again depends on the resourcefulness of a family in terms of labour power and availability of seeds. However, there are about 2,000 influential families who own large tracts of land in the name of gardens and plantation under special garden passes called "Huan Pass". Besides, some families, who had chosen agricultural trade under the New Land Use Policy (N.L.U.P.), are also holding lands as per allotment made by the Government of Mizoram.

In Mizoram today, there are two types of land: (i) Communal lands and (ii) Private lands. Generally, the communal lands are far away from the villages and they are hill slopes. Some of them are very steep while others are not. These communal lands are used for shifting cultivation. The proportion of communal land to the total geographical area of Mizoram is much more than that of the private land. However, the private lands are nearer to the villages and a few of them are flat lands. These flat lands are brought under wet rice cultivation and the rest of the private lands are utilized for growing horticultural crops, plantation crops and some other cash crops like tobacco, ginger, tea, and fruits & vegetables, like passion fruit, squash, etc.

The *jhuming* practice in the rural areas of Mizoram starts with a decision or resolution of the village council as to which area of the communal land shall be cultivated in that particular year. The area of land, so selected by the village council, is divided into a number of plots, and then these plots are distributed among the villagers by means of lottery. The villagers then clear their respective plots of land, fell the trees, bamboo, and other plants and leave the debris under the sun to dry. Generally, the jungle clearing takes place in the months of January and February. The dry debris is burnt down in the month of March and this is

followed by cleaning of the land. Then the sowing of seeds of crops other than paddy is immediately done. Weeding is then undertaken in the *jhums*, and this is repeated as often as required.

The paddy seed is later sown in the month of May and it is the main crop of the villagers. The seeds are neither high-yielding varieties (H.Y.V.) nor a modern improved type. They are indigenous seeds and their yield per acre is comparatively low. Usually, they are of two varieties, viz., early-maturing and late-maturing. If sown in May, the early-maturing ones can be harvested in September and the late-maturing ones in November. But the early-maturing type has a lower yield per acre as compared to the late-maturing type, *ceteris paribus*.

The *jhumias* practise multiple cropping. However, multiple cropping in the state is not without disadvantages. The main defect of multiple cropping in Mizoram is that the productivity of crops is comparatively less and their yield per acre is extremely low. Moreover, it is difficult to make an accurate measurement of productivity of crops, especially rice, since other crops are simultaneously grown on the same plot of land.

Table 5.12 presents the land holding and pattern of utilization of land. The area of land owned by each individual household (Table 5.12

Table 5.12

## LAND HOLDING AND UTILISATION

NAME OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT BLOCK (R.D.B.)/ VILLAGE	PRIVATE LAND		COMMUNAL LAND CULTIVATED FOR JHUMING in Acres	TOTAL AREA OF LAND CULTIVATED in Acres	Rice		Tobacco	
	AREA HELD in Acres	AREA OPERATED in Acres			AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PRODUCTION in Quintals	AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PRODUCTION in Quintals
(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<b>W. Binghamun R. D. B.</b>	<b>177.1</b>	<b>103.7</b>	<b>374.5</b>	<b>478.20</b>	<b>348.5</b>	<b>1,441.5</b>	<b>28.0</b>	<b>109.5</b>
Darngawn Village	70.0	36.8	139.0	175.80	120.5	514.0	12.0	9.7
Sesawm Village	46.0	31.5	112.0	143.50	106.5	422.5	8.5	6.7
Laisawral Village	61.1	35.4	123.5	158.90	121.5	505.0	7.5	93.2
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>147.3</b>	<b>151.70</b>	<b>145.8</b>	<b>616.9</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>0.3</b>
Chhumkhum Village	11.6	0.4	36.3	36.70	38.3	123.5	1.0	0.3
Rualalung Village	33.6	4.0	52.5	56.50	51.0	210.5	0.0	0.0
Thehlelep Village	0.0	0.0	58.5	58.50	56.5	282.9	0.0	0.0
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>113.3</b>	<b>31.7</b>	<b>174.0</b>	<b>205.70</b>	<b>165.0</b>	<b>1,024.1</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>2.3</b>
South Phaileng Village	61.4	9.1	64.5	73.60	60.0	357.4	0.0	0.0
New Ralvawng Village	38.6	13.5	85.0	98.50	84.0	552.8	6.0	2.3
Sairep Village	13.3	9.1	24.5	33.60	21.0	113.9	0.0	0.0
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>79.5</b>	<b>34.1</b>	<b>124.4</b>	<b>158.50</b>	<b>120.9</b>	<b>710.7</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>0.5</b>
Aithur Village	19.7	10.7	48.0	58.70	47.5	269.7	1.0	0.5
Denlung Village	32.8	14.2	48.1	62.30	46.1	279.0	0.0	0.0
South Lungleng Village	27.0	9.2	28.3	37.50	27.3	162.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Lunglei District Total</b>	<b>415.1</b>	<b>173.9</b>	<b>820.2</b>	<b>994.10</b>	<b>780.2</b>	<b>3,793.2</b>	<b>36.0</b>	<b>112.6</b>

Table 5.12 (Continued)

Chilli		Sesame		Tea		Sugarcane		Orange		Ginger	
AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PROD- UCTION in Quintals	AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PROD- UCTION in Quintals	AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PROD- UCTION in Quintals	AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PROD- UCTION in Quintals	AREA OF CULTIVATION in Acres	PROD- UCTION in Quintals	PROD- UCTION in Quintals
(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
27.5	14.3	15.0	6.5	11.4	5.2	34.5	24.0	45.0	0.0	6.0	30.0
9.0	4.9	5.0	1.7	0.8	1.1	21.0	18.0	11.0	0.0	4.0	25.0
11.5	7.4	7.0	4.0	3.0	1.3	7.0	4.0	17.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
7.0	2.0	3.0	0.8	7.6	2.8	6.5	2.0	17.0	0.0	2.0	5.0
17.5	7.2	7.2	1.9	3.9	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5.0	1.3	2.0	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4.5	2.1	3.2	0.9	3.5	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
8.0	3.8	2.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
19.0	11.9	6.0	2.6	13.9	7.7	8.0	17.2	1.0	4.0	3.0	16.0
16.5	11.1	6.0	2.6	2.8	1.3	3.5	3.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	9.0
2.5	0.8	0.0	0.0	5.0	3.1	4.5	14.2	0.0	0.0	1.5	7.0
0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.1	3.3	0.0	0.0	1.0	4.0	0.0	0.0
3.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	11.3	5.5	4.8	19.0	2.0	0.0	11.8	87.5
0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.7	2.6	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	3.0	17.0
0.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.7	4.8	19.0	0.0	0.0	7.3	60.5
2.5	0.8	0.0	0.0	4.4	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	10.0
67.0	34.4	28.2	11.0	40.5	20.3	47.3	60.2	48.0	4.0	20.8	133.5

Source: Based on the primary data collected by the scholar.

Col. 1) includes only private land, and communal land allotted temporarily to the household in that particular year for *jhumming* is not included. Similarly, the area of land operated by each individual household (Table 5.12 Col. 2) includes only the private land operated by the household. Analogously, the area of land cultivated by the households for *jhum* (Table 5.12 Col. 3) includes only those communal lands temporarily allotted to them by the village council, and not their private lands.

The area cultivated and quantity produced of different crops as shown in Table 5.12 (Col. 5 to 20) considers both types of land, communal and private. However, plantation crops, horticultural crops and some cash crops are cultivated in private lands and seldom in *jhum*-lands due to the following reasons: -

- i. Most plantation crops and horticultural crops need at least one or two years to mature. The period of maturity differs from crop to crop. Some horticultural crops need a longer period ranging from 3 to 12 years for maturity. Besides, most plantation crops and horticultural crops can be harvested annually or half-yearly for a certain number of years. Hence, the cultivation of such crops necessitates permanent and private ownership of land.

- ii. Some private lands are either adjacent to the residences of the villagers or not far from the village. It is, thus, easy to watch the crops and protect them from thieves, animals and birds.
- iii. As *jhum*-lands are generally far from the village, the villagers will face a problem of transportation of their products if they cultivate plantation and horticultural crops in these lands.

Most families in the rural areas of Mizoram have large kitchen gardens or private lands adjoining their houses. The villagers also practise mixed cropping in their kitchen gardens. Usually, they grow pineapple, sugarcane, banana, tea, etc., together with some horticultural crops like oranges, mangoes, lemons, tamarind, guava, betel nut, travelers' taste, etc. in the kitchen-gardens. Apart from these, they also grow some monsoon vegetables during the rainy season and other vegetables in winter. Since their surplus products find absolutely no market, the households produce only what is home consumed. As a matter of fact, the villagers in the rural areas of Mizoram are raising plantation and horticultural crops together in their private lands with a view to maintaining self-sufficiency in these crops.

In multiple cropping in Lunglei District, the cultivation of these crops along with rice in the *jhum* fields is self-consumption. They are not,

in general, grown for sale or marketing. That is the reason why they are cultivated in very small quantities and grown simultaneously along with rice on the same plot of land.

As stated earlier, in the case of almost all crops, the yield per hectare cannot be worked out accurately due to multiple-cropping. However, according to the F.A.O. Production Year Book (1997), the actual productivity of rice in India in 1996 is 11.37 quintals per acre, while the corresponding figure in the area under study is roughly estimated at 4.9 quintals only.

Among the then five “agricultural districts” of Mizoram, it was Lunglei Agricultural District that had the least flat land. Consequently, its share in the total agricultural production of the state was also the smallest, and its productivity was the lowest. Table 5.13 presents the comparative figures regarding areas of land brought under *jhum* rice cultivation (JRC) and wet rice cultivation (WRC) separately in the 5 “agricultural districts” of Mizoram and the respective quantities of production thereon in 1989-1990 (both *Kharif* rice and *Rabi* rice are taken into account). The Lunglei Agricultural District recorded the lowest yield per hectare in the production of rice (0.72 MT) and her share in the total area of land that had been brought under WRC was also the smallest (1,201 hectares),

working out to 8.39 per cent of the total area of land under WRC in the state.

**Table 5.13**

**DISTRICT-WISE AGRICULTURAL AREA AND PRODUCTION OF RICE  
IN MIZORAM (1989-1990)**

Sl. No	Agricultural District	Area Under JRC (in.Ha)	Production (in MT)	Area Under WRC (in Ha.)	Production (in MT)	Total Area Under JRC & WRC (in.Ha)	Total Production (in MT.)	Average Yield Per Hectare (in MT.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1	Aizawl West	8,061	9,840	2,302	3,329	10,363	13,169	1.27
2	Aizawl East	11,700	11,917	4,987	7,187	16,687	19,104	1.14
3	Kolasib	7,493	5,289	4,191	7,616	11,684	12,905	1.10
4	Lunglei	5,847	4,128	1,201	1,007	7,048	5,135	0.72
5	CHhimitupui	5,248	3,819	1,629	2,395	6,877	6,214	0.90
<b>Total (Mizoram)</b>		<b>38,349</b>	<b>34,993</b>	<b>14,310</b>	<b>21,534</b>	<b>52,659</b>	<b>56,527</b>	<b>1.07</b>

*Source:* Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Mizoram.

Since this district has the least flat land, it is not suitable for settled rice cultivation. Nevertheless, agricultural development can take place in this region if modern scientific method of cultivation is applied. Although 1,201 hectares of land has been put under wet rice cultivation, modern methods of cultivation are not yet applied; irrigation facilities are almost absent, the application of fertilizers is negligible and H.Y.V. or improved seeds of crops are not used. Hence the productivity of rice under WRC (0.83 MT per hectare) is almost the same as in *jhum* cultivation (0.70 MT per hectare).

One distinct feature, however, is that in respect of rice production under shifting cultivation, the area under our study exhibit a higher yield per acre as compared to other areas of the district. The Lunglei Agricultural District, itself, ranked third in the production of rice under shifting cultivation in terms of productivity.

### **5.8.1 Some Facts about Crops and their Production in the 12 Villages**

**1. Rice:** In the hilly areas of Lunglei District, rice is generally grown on *jhumland*. The main reason why the shifting cultivators in this state grow rice on their *jhumlands* rather than on their private lands is that the *jhumlands* which are farther from their villages are usually more fertile than the private lands which are nearer to their villages. In our present study, all the growers of rice, except one household from Sairep village in Lunglei Rural Development Block, grew rice in their *jhums*.

**2. Tobacco:** Smoking is very popular among the rural workers in Mizoram. Mosquitoes, which are plenty in the jungle, harass and disturb the cultivators while working at their *jhumlands*. One way that cultivators can drive away these mosquitoes is by emitting smoke. The easiest and the most convenient way of emitting smoke for the cultivators is just to smoke tobacco. As such, many people in the rural areas of Mizoram, especially agricultural workers, both males and

females, indulged in smoking tobacco. Therefore, almost all shifting cultivators grow tobacco and try to be self-sufficient in tobacco production. Usually, it is grown on *jhumlands* along with rice and other crops. Some cultivators, who want to produce a surplus for marketing, grow tobacco separately on their *jhumlands* or private lands.

**3. Chilli:** This is another crop in which almost all the shifting cultivators in our study area are self-sufficient. Each and every shifting cultivator grows chilli because it is one of their most favourite food items. Chillis are generally grown on *jhumlands* along with rice and other crops.

**4. Sesame:** This crop is also grown by almost all the shifting cultivators in our study area. It is one of the important oilseeds produced in this state. As the loamy soil of the western part of Mizoram is suitable for the cultivation of sesame, it is largely grown in some parts of these areas. The oil extracted from this crop is used for cooking some food items. Besides oil extraction, sesame is a favoured food item. Some people eat a raw sesame preparation.

**5. Tea:** At some places, particularly in the eastern parts of Mizoram, tea is grown by the people as a permanent crop on their private lands. It is mostly grown in kitchen-gardens at an extremely small scale. Many rural

families are self-sufficient in tea production. A few families, however, grow tea in a larger scale for commercial purpose as in Sairep village.

**6. Ginger:** As the climate of Mizoram is congenial and the land is suitable for cultivating ginger, this cash crop is grown in Lunglei District. Although all cultivators grew ginger and were self-sufficient in this crop, only a few households living near link roads and markets produced it on a large scale.

**7. Kharif Crops:** By Kharif crops, we mean those monsoon crops whose fruits and some leaves are both edible. Some of these crops are creeping plants, e.g., pumpkin, bean, etc. Their leaves mature first and their fruits mature later on. The local people are fond of these leafy vegetables and they eat both the leaves and the fruits. The leaves and fruits of these kharif or monsoon crops occupy an important place in the dinner table. Most families grow kharif crops every year and try to be self-sufficient. These kharif crops, though generally grown on *jhumlands*, are also grown on private lands.

**8. Sugarcane:** In our study area, only a few families were growing sugarcane. Sugarcane is grown on private lands. The growers can be divided into two groups: those with a sugarcane-crusher (engine or bullock), and those without a sugarcane-crusher. Those families, who had

no sugarcane-crusher, produced sugarcane and sold their produce to the owners of sugarcane-crusher. A significant part of their produce was consumed by the growers themselves.

**9. Orange:** Out of the 529 households surveyed, only 29 households grew oranges. Oranges were grown only on private lands in this region and the area devoted for orange plantation by an individual household ranged from 0.5 acres to 5 acres, depending on the strength of household workforce. Although oranges were grown here in the past, they were for self-consumption only. It was only in the past few years that this fruit has been grown in this region for commercial purpose.

**10. Potato:** Potatoes have been successfully grown at some places in the eastern part of Mizoram. Within the area of our study, the people of only two villages, namely, Sairep and South Lungleng, grew potato. The land in the eastern side of this region is suitable for this cultivation. It is believed that potatoes if grown on a large scale by more people, will substantially wean away people from shifting cultivation. On the other hand, potato is heavy and its growers will unavoidably face serious problems regarding transportation of potatoes from the place of production to the place of marketing. Like ginger, development of transport and communication is the pre-requisite of potato production.

**11. Betel-Leaves:** Only an insignificant proportion of the people in our survey area have taken up the cultivation of betel-leaves.

## **5.9 SUMMARY**

The total number of males and females in the 12 randomly selected villages of Lunglei District are 1413 and 1395 respectively, which yield a sex ratio of 987 females per 1000 males. The educational status of adult males is higher than that of adult females in all the rural development blocks, while the educational status of male children is lower than that of female children except in Lungsen Block. Male literacy is higher than that of females in all blocks. The most urbanized Lunglei Rural Development Block has the lowest percentage of households consuming below the poverty line of Rs.1,400/- per month, while the blocks in the border have a higher percentage of such poor households.

Rice alone accounts for nearly one-fourth of the total consumption expenditure both at the district and block levels. Self-produced goods account for 57.34 per cent of the goods consumed at the district level, the remaining being bought. It is seen that three-fourth of the total expenditure is on food items alone. This is true at the block level too.

Housing constitutes the major possession (53.03 per cent) at the district level followed by clothing (24.44 per cent at the district level). This is true for all blocks. Most households in each block had pit latrines.

The majority of the people in each block received household income from more than one occupation (70.00 per cent at the district level). At the district level, over 90 per cent of the households received income from crop cultivation, over 70 per cent from wages and salaries, about 75 per cent from piggery/poultry/cattle rearing. The other occupations were carpentry, blacksmithy, business enterprises, etc. However, the income derived from crop cultivation constituted only 38.28 per cent of the total income. Of course, the income share from crop cultivation was the highest. The share of income from wages and salaries was almost equal to that of agriculture. Agricultural workers accounted for 86.10 per cent of the total number of workers, while government and semi-government servants were only 8.40 per cent of the total number of workers.

Among the on-going rural employment and poverty-alleviation programmes, the people of those 4 blocks of the district benefited most from the New Land Use Policy (N.L.U.P.). Other such programmes funded largely by the Central Government, such as the Integrated Rural

Development Programme (I.R.D.P.), Training of Rural Youths for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Employment Assurance Scheme (E.A.S.), Indira Awas Yojana (I.A.Y.), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (D.W.C.R.A.), and Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (J.R.Y.), did not provide the expected result.

In Lunglei District, there are two types of land: (i) Communal lands and (ii) Private lands. Generally, the communal lands are far away from the villages and they are hill slopes. These communal lands are used for shifting cultivation. However, the private lands are nearer to the villages and a few of them are flat lands. These flat lands are brought under wet rice cultivation and the rest of the private lands are utilized for growing horticultural crops, plantation crops and some other cash crops like tobacco, ginger, tea, and fruits & vegetables, like passion fruit, squash, etc.

Shifting cultivation or what is called *jhuming* is still the main agricultural practice in the blocks of this district. The people had also been accustomed to livestock rearing and animal husbandry, especially, piggery, cattle and poultry, though at a small scale. The *jhumias* practise multiple cropping. However, the productivity of crops in this practice is extremely low. Moreover, it is difficult to make an accurate measurement

of productivity of crops especially rice since many other crops are simultaneously grown along with it on the same plot of land. However, the productivity of rice in our study area is estimated at 4.9 quintals per acre only as against 11.37 quintals in India (F.A.O. 1997). Most families in these rural areas have kitchen gardens or private lands adjoining their houses. The villagers also practise mixed cropping in their kitchen gardens.

## **Chapter VI**

### **INCIDENCE OF POVERTY: EMPIRICAL RESULTS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter, we have presented empirical results on the incidence of poverty in twelve randomly selected villages distributed across four rural development blocks of Lunglei District in Mizoram. All households in these 12 sample villages have been covered in our estimate of the incidence of poverty. We have relied upon a number of instruments for this purpose, important of which are the Head Count and the Poverty-Gap Ratios. Sen's Modified Index on poverty is also estimated. Besides, we have also estimated mean annual household income in each village covering all poor households. Since incomes are bound to vary across households, the inequality or instability of income has been estimated by the Gini Coefficient for the poor. This study has utilized the primary data obtained from an empirical survey carried out by this scholar during May - December 1997.

#### **6.2 DISTRIBUTION OF THE POOR: ABSOLUTE POVERTY**

The Planning Commission of India, in its usual revision of the poverty line from time to time, defined the "**Poor**" as those households, whose average monthly income per person was less than or equal to

**Rs.280.70** for the year 1997–1998 at current prices. In this study, we have taken a family unit to consist of 5 members as this is the average household size in Mizoram. Based on this Planning Commission figure, the poor household has been defined in this study as those having an annual income of less than or equal to Rs.17,000/- (i.e., Rs.280.70 x 5 members x 12 months = Rs.16,842/-, rounded off to Rs.17,000/-). Indirectly, this is to suggest that the per capita income per annum is Rs.3,400/-. The annual income of each individual household was thus analyzed by means of this poverty line. All the households in the twelve villages were covered for this purpose.

**Table 6.1**  
**BLOCK-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL POOR/NON-POOR**  
**HOUSEHOLDS IN 12 VILLAGES**

Category	Rural Development Blocks (R.D.B.)				TOTAL
	W. Bungmun	Lungsen	Lunglei	Hnahthial	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Number of Poor Households	103 (50.00)	35 (36.46)	29 (22.14)	27 (28.13)	<b>194</b> <b>(36.67)</b>
Number of Non-Poor Households	103 (50.00)	61 (63.54)	102 (77.86)	69 (71.87)	<b>335</b> <b>(63.33)</b>
<b>Total Sample</b>	<b>206</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>96</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>131</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>96</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>529</b> <b>(100.00)</b>

*Note:* Figures within brackets denote percentages to column totals.

*Source:* Based on the primary survey carried out by the scholar.

At the total sample level of 529 households, as many as 194 households, forming 36.67 per cent of the total sample, were below the poverty line (Table 6.1). W. Bunghmun Block accounts for the highest proportion of poor (50.00 per cent), while Lunglei Block has the least number of poor families (22.14 per cent).

### 6.3 INCIDENCE OF POVERTY: MEAN INCOME LEVEL

Table 6.2

#### VILLAGE-LEVEL ESTIMATES ON MEAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME AND GINI COEFFICIENT

<b>Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Village</b>	<b>Mean Income of the Poor (Rs.)</b>	<b>Distance from Poverty Line (%)</b>	<b>Gini Coefficient</b>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>W. Bunghmun R.D.B.</b>	<b>10,508</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>0.196</b>
Darngawn Village	10,230	40	0.202
Sesawm Village	10,457	38	0.342
Laisawral Village	10,836	36	0.198
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>11,946</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>0.157</b>
CHhumkhum Village	10,903	36	0.178
Rualalung Village	12,537	26	0.077
Thehleple Village	13,831	19	0.112
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>13,596</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>0.123</b>
South Phaileng Village	13,733	19	0.191
New Ralvawng Village	13,716	19	0.109
Sairep Village	12,483	26	0.197
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>13,168</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>0.120</b>
Aithur Village	13,667	20	0.124
Denlung Village	13,090	23	0.107
South Lungleng Village	12,747	25	0.098
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>11,599</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>0.178</b>

Source: Based on the primary survey carried out by the scholar.

Not only is the incidence of absolute poverty sizeable, low incomes had also some degree of inequality or instability around mean income as is reflected in the high Gini Coefficients (Table 6.2). Important inferences drawn from Table 6.2 are listed below: -

Firstly, at the District level, the Poor's mean annual household income has been estimated at Rs.11,599/-. The distance from the poverty line at the total sample level is 32 per cent, while the Gini Coefficient of concentration of the Poor's incomes was estimated at 0.178. At the block level, W. Bingham Rural Development Block exhibited the lowest Poor's mean annual household income (Rs.10,508/-), the largest distance from the poverty line (38 per cent) and a larger value of Gini Coefficient (0.196). Resembling this, all the three villages in this Rural Development Block exhibited lower mean annual household income of the poor, a farther distance from the poverty line and larger values of Gini Coefficient as compared to the villages of the other Blocks. All other villages, except CHhumkhum, exhibited higher Poor's mean annual household income, shorter distance from the poverty line and smaller value of Gini Coefficient than the total sample or District level.

Secondly, the highest mean annual household income was observed in Lunglei Rural Development Block (Rs.13,596/-), followed in that order by Hnahthial Rural Development Block (Rs.13,168/-), Lungsen

Rural Development Block (Rs.11,946/-), and W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block (Rs.10,508/-). The mean income for the poor had fallen short of the poverty line by 38 per cent in W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block, 30 per cent in Lungsen Rural Development Block, 22 per cent in Hnahthial Rural Development Block and 20 per cent in Lunglei Rural Development Block.

Thirdly, the village-level analysis exhibited even more inequalities. Most villages in the two rural development blocks bordering Bangladesh (W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development Block) had exhibited lower incomes and larger dispersion around low mean income levels as compared to the villages in the urbanized Lunglei Rural Development Block and the Hnahthial Rural Development Block bordering Myanmar.

Fourthly, the village-level analysis also reveals that all the three villages in the W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block showed lower mean income levels than villages in other rural development blocks, and therefore, the deviation from the poverty line is the maximum here. In fact, the mean income levels in all villages in this rural development block fell short of the poverty line by as much as 36 to 40 per cent. As against this, in all villages in the other three rural development blocks,

with the exception of CHhumkhum village, the mean income levels fell short of the poverty line by less than 30 per cent.

Fifthly, the mean household incomes revealed some degree of inequality or instability as reflected by the estimated Gini Coefficient. Mean incomes were not only the lowest in the villages of W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block, but these villages had also shown comparatively higher degree of inequality or instability. For instance, the estimated Gini Coefficients in Sesawm village, Darngawn village and Laisawral village were 0.342, 0.202 and 0.198 respectively as against 0.178 at the District aggregate level.

#### **6.4 INCIDENCE OF POVERTY: STUDIES OF THREE MEASURES**

**Head Count Ratio:** For the district as a whole, 36.67 per cent of the total sample households were found below the poverty line (Table 6.3). At the rural development block level, W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block presented the bleakest picture exhibiting 50.00 per cent of its households below the poverty line. A Poor's head count ratio (HCR) of 36.46 per cent was registered for Lungsen Rural Development Block, followed in that order by 28.12 per cent in Hnahthial Rural Development Block and 22.14 per cent in Lunglei Rural Development Block.

Table 6.3  
VILLAGE-LEVEL ESTIMATES ON THREE POVERTY MEASURES IN  
LUNGLEI DISTRICT

Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/Village	Head Count Ratio (HCR) $H = \frac{q}{n}$	Poverty Gap Ratio $\left[ \frac{(z-m)}{z} \right] H$	Modified Poverty Gap Ratio $P = \left[ \frac{q\{(z-m)(1-G)\}}{zn} \right]$
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>W. Binghamun R.D.B.</b>	<b>50.00</b>	<b>19.09</b>	<b>0.154</b>
Darngawn Village	48.68	19.39	0.155
Sesawm Village	52.63	20.26	0.133
Laisawral Village	49.31	17.88	0.143
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>36.46</b>	<b>10.84</b>	<b>0.091</b>
CHhumkhum Village	63.33	22.71	0.187
Rualalung Village	25.81	06.77	0.063
Thehlep Village	22.86	04.26	0.038
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>22.14</b>	<b>04.43</b>	<b>0.039</b>
South Phaileng Village	27.66	05.31	0.043
New Ralvawng Village	24.07	04.65	0.041
Sairep Village	10.00	02.66	0.021
<b>Hnahthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>28.12</b>	<b>06.34</b>	<b>0.056</b>
Aithur Village	30.00	05.88	0.052
Denlung Village	23.08	05.31	0.047
South Lungleng Village	33.33	08.34	0.075
<b>Lunglei District</b>	<b>36.67</b>	<b>11.65</b>	<b>0.096</b>

*Source:* Based on the primary survey carried out by the scholar.

The village-level results presented an even more interesting picture. Firstly, all the villages in W. Binghamun Rural Development Block, viz., Sesawm, Laisawral and Darngawn, registered high head count ratios (HCR) of 52.63 per cent, 49.31 per cent and 48.68 per cent respectively. Secondly, CHhumkhum village in the relatively well-off

rural development block of Lungsen registered an HCR of poor of 63.33 per cent. In fact, among all the twelve villages, this was the largest HCR exhibited. Thirdly, all the villages in Lunglei Rural Development Block, viz., Sairep, New Ralvawng and South Phaileng, and Hnahthial Rural Development Block, viz., Denlung, Aithur and South Lungleng, registered relatively low head count ratios (HCR) of 10.00 per cent, 24.07 per cent, 27.06 per cent, 23.08 per cent, 30.00 per cent and 33.33 per cent respectively.

However, we observe that although CHhumkhum village in Lungsen Rural Development Block registered the highest HCR of Poor, the other two villages in the same block, viz., Thehlelep and Rualalung, registered a comparatively low HCR of 22.86 per cent and 25.81 per cent respectively.

*We, therefore, see that it is imperative to carry out such poverty analysis at the village level. The planners of poverty-alleviation programmes ought to take note of such inequalities, as otherwise, the existence of sharp inequalities in the incidence of poverty at the village level or micro level, is bound to cause failure of economic planning in general and poverty-alleviation programmes in particular. Such glaring inequalities were not clearly visible at the rural development block level,*

*because the extremely large or small villages might influence the Head Count Ratio at the block levels.*

**Poverty-Gap Ratio:** In Table 6.3, we have also presented the estimates on Sen's poverty-gap ratio. The poverty-gap ratio has an extremely attractive interpretation from a policy point of view. It indicates poverty as a fraction of total income needed to support everyone in the population at the poverty line. Thus, the larger the estimate, the larger is the requirement of resources to guarantee the entire population an income equivalent to the poverty line. And, its smaller estimated value denotes lesser resource requirement to do the needful.

The empirical results, when analysed, help us in deriving the following inferences:-

Firstly, the poverty gap ratio is influenced by both the head count ratio and the deviation of mean income of the Poor from the poverty line. In a situation where the head count ratio is high, but the gap between mean income and poverty line is small, the Sen's Index of poverty gap ratio may assume a low or high value, depending on the relative size of these two influencing components. That is why we observe that between Darngawn Village (HCR of 48.68 per cent) and Laisawral Village (HCR of 49.31 per cent) in the W. Bingham Rural Development Block (Table

6.3), the poverty gap ratio was lower in the latter although it had a higher HCR.

Secondly, going by our results, the poverty gap ratio was found higher in all those villages where the HCR was also high and low where the HCR was also low. This was found uniformly true across all villages in all rural development blocks. This fact was influenced by the concentration of poor households in the respective lower or upper income brackets falling below the poverty line as will be discussed briefly in the next section. The HCR, therefore, plays a dominant role between the two influencing factors (HCR and deviation of Mean Income of the Poor from the Poverty Line).

Thirdly, the largest effort to bring the population near the poverty line was required in the villages of W. Bingham Rural Development Block, which borders Bangladesh. The lowest poverty gap ratio, on the other hand, was found in Sairep village of the urbanized Lunglei Rural Development Block.

**Modified Sen's Index of Poverty-Gap Ratio:** As stated earlier, Sen's modified poverty measure overcomes the limitation of his earlier measure, namely the Poverty-Gap Ratio. The former measure suffers from the limitation of being insensitive to the redistribution of income among the poor. The modified index of poverty-gap ratio overcomes this

drawback by the use of a specific rank-order weighing scale. Empirical values of the modified measure of poverty-gap ratio lie between zero and unity. It assumes zero value when everyone's income is above the poverty line and becomes unity when everyone has zero income. We may, therefore, infer that the lower the value of this measure, the closer is the distribution of the poor to the poverty line and vice versa. The empirical results are presented for each block/village in Table 6.3.

The measure of the modified poverty-gap ratio assumed values closest to zero in the Lunglei Rural Development Block (0.039), 0.056 in the Hnahthial Rural Development Block, 0.091 in the Lungsen Rural Development Block, and in all the sample villages across these three rural development blocks, with the exception of CHhumkhum village, thereby indicating that the distribution of the poor is closer to the poverty line. In the W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block, the value for this measure was 0.154 and ranged between 0.133 and 0.155 in the Block's three villages. This indicates the preponderance of poor households near the poverty line as compared to the villages in the other Blocks. The highest value of the modified Sen's poverty-gap ratio was observed in the CHhumkhum village of Lungsen Rural Development Block (0.187). Such low values in all cases suggest that there is no sizeable deviation of poor

households across the latter two income brackets, as will be seen in the next section.

Thus, among the four rural development blocks of Lunglei District, the only rural development block that exhibited larger value of the modified Sen's poverty-gap ratio than the District aggregate level (0.096) was W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block (0.154). All the three villages of this Block and CHhumkhum village of Lungsen Rural Development Block also exhibited larger values of the modified Sen's poverty-gap ratio than at the District aggregate level.

#### **6.5 DISTRIBUTION OF POOR HOUSEHOLDS ACROSS INCOME INTERVALS: RELATIVE POVERTY**

The previous expressions of poverty line by the Planning Commissions of India were generally in terms of annual income at current prices. For instance, in the Seventh Five-Year Plan (1987-1992), the Planning Commission defined the "**Poor**" as those households whose annual income was equal to or less than **Rs.6,400/-**. In fact, following this line of thinking, the Ministry of Rural Development (MORD, 1993) in its concurrent evaluation of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (J.R.Y.) expressed poverty line for a household as an annual income of equal to or less than Rs.6,400/- at 1991-92 prices. Among the poor, '**Destitute households**' were defined as those getting Rs.2,265/- or less annually. '**Very Very**

**Poor households'** were described to fall in the annual income bracket of Rs.2,266/- to Rs.3,500/- annually. Those receiving an annual income of Rs.3,501/- to Rs.4,800/- were termed as '**Very Poor households'**. Those falling within an annual income bracket of Rs.4,801/- to Rs.6,400/- were termed as '**Poor households'**. And those getting more than Rs.6,400/- annually were considered to be above the poverty line.

The main objective of this study is to estimate the level and extent of the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty at the village, block and district levels in the State of Mizoram for the year 1997-1998. The then expression of poverty line by the Planning Commission was in terms of average monthly income per person at current prices. The Planning Commission defined the "**Poor**" as those households, whose average monthly income per person was less than or equal to **Rs.280.70**. Based on this Planning Commission figure, the '**poor household**' has been defined as those receiving an annual income of less than or equal to **Rs.17,000/-** in this study.

Following the MORD's classification furnished above, we have also classified the poor households in four income intervals so as to enable us to estimate the level and extent of the incidence of relative poverty. In the first income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income **less than or equal to Rs.6,016/-**, and term these

**Table 6.4**  
**VILLAGE-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS**  
**ACROSS FOUR INCOME GROUPS**

Rural Development Block (R.D.B.)/ Village	Income Intervals or Brackets				Aggregate Sample Level (Total Poor)	Total Non-Poor Households	Total Households
	Upto Rs.6,016 (Destitute)	Rs.6,017 to Rs.9,297 (Very Very Poor)	Rs.9,298 to Rs.12,750 (Very Poor)	Rs.12,751 to Rs.17,000 (Poor)			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<b>W.Bunghmun R.D.B.</b>	<b>14</b> (13.59)	<b>24</b> (23.30)	<b>38</b> (36.90)	<b>27</b> (26.21)	<b>103</b> (100.00)	<b>103</b>	<b>206</b>
Darngawn Village	7 (18.92)	7 (18.92)	15 (40.54)	8 (21.62)	37 (100.00)	39	76
Sesawm Village	3 (10.00)	9 (30.00)	11 (36.67)	7 (23.33)	30 (100.00)	27	57
Laisawral Village	4 (11.11)	8 (22.22)	12 (33.33)	12 (33.33)	36 (100.00)	37	73
<b>Lungsen R.D.B.</b>	<b>1</b> (2.86)	<b>7</b> (20.00)	<b>11</b> (31.43)	<b>16</b> (45.71)	<b>35</b> (100.00)	<b>61</b>	<b>96</b>
CHhumkhum Village	1 (5.26)	6 (31.58)	6 (31.58)	6 (31.58)	19 (100.00)	11	30
Rualalung Village	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	4 (50.00)	4 (50.00)	8 (100.00)	23	31
Thehlepe Village	0 (0.00)	1 (12.50)	1 (12.50)	6 (75.00)	8 (100.00)	27	35
<b>Lunglei R.D.B.</b>	<b>1</b> (3.45)	<b>2</b> (6.90)	<b>7</b> (24.14)	<b>19</b> (65.51)	<b>29</b> (100.00)	<b>102</b>	<b>131</b>
South Phaileng Village	0 (0.00)	1 (7.70)	4 (30.77)	8 (61.53)	13 (100.00)	34	47
New Ralvawng Village	0 (0.00)	1 (7.70)	3 (23.08)	9 (69.22)	13 (100.00)	41	54
Sairep Village	1 (33.33)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (66.67)	3 (100.00)	27	30
<b>Hnabthial R.D.B.</b>	<b>1</b> (3.70)	<b>2</b> (7.40)	<b>7</b> (25.92)	<b>17</b> (62.98)	<b>27</b> (100.00)	<b>69</b>	<b>96</b>
Aithur Village	1 (11.11)	0 (0.00)	1 (11.11)	7 (77.78)	9 (100.00)	21	30
Denlung Village	0 (0.00)	1 (11.11)	2 (22.22)	6 (66.67)	9 (100.00)	30	39
South Lungleng Village	0 (0.00)	1 (11.11)	4 (44.44)	4 (44.44)	9 (100.00)	18	27
<b>Total Sample</b>	<b>17</b> (8.77)	<b>35</b> (18.04)	<b>63</b> (32.48)	<b>79</b> (40.71)	<b>194</b> (100.00)	<b>335</b>	<b>529</b>

*Note:* The figures within brackets denote percentages to the row totals.

*Source:* Based on the primary survey carried out by the scholar.

households as '**destitute**'. In the second income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income of **Rs.6,017/- to Rs.9,297/-**, and term these households as '**very very poor**'. In the third income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income of **Rs.9,298/- to Rs.12,750/-**, and term these households as '**very poor**'. In the fourth income bracket, we put all those households which have an annual income of **Rs.12,751/- to Rs.17,000/-**, and term these households as '**poor**'. All those receiving **more than Rs.17,000/-** annually are considered **non-poor** and they are placed above the poverty line. It is quite relevant to ask the questions as to how poor the poor are, and how many of them fall in what income bracket below the poverty line.

The incidence of poverty across the earlier-defined four income intervals presents a picture of relative poverty in the chosen villages and blocks.

The number of households falling under the Destitute Category was very low both at the total sample level (8.77 per cent) and across all sample villages in all the rural development blocks (Table 6.4). In six villages of Rualalung, Thehle, South Phaileng, New Ralvawng, Denlung and South Lungleng, not a single poor household fell in this category. Meanwhile, the percentages of poor households, which fell under the destitute category in Sairep, Darnagawn, Laisawral, Aithur, Sesawm and

CHhumkhum, are 33.33, 18.92, 11.11, 11.11, 10.00 and 5.27 respectively. Among the rural development blocks, it was only W. Bingham Rural Development Block that presented higher percentage of destitute households than the total sample level.

The proportion of poor households falling in the second bottom stratum termed as 'Very Very Poor' formed 18.04 per cent at the total sample level. In comparison, three villages, viz., Sairep, Rualalung and Aithur had no such 'Very Very Poor' households, while South Phaileng, New Ralvawng, Denlung, South Lungleng and Thehlep barely had 7.70 per cent, 7.70 per cent, 11.11 per cent, 11.11 per cent and 12.50 per cent respectively of Very Very Poor households. In contrast, four villages, viz., CHhumkhum, Sesawm, Laisawral and Darngawn having 31.58 per cent, 30.00 per cent, 22.22 per cent and 18.92 per cent respectively of Very Very Poor households, presented larger proportions in this category than at the total sample level. Among the rural development blocks, W. Bingham Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development Block showed higher percentages of such 'Very Very Poor' households than at the District level.

The proportion falling in the 'Very Poor' stratum was 32.48 per cent at the total sample level. Among the villages, Rualalung, South Lungleng, Darngawn, Sesawm and Laisawral having 50.00 per cent,

44.44 per cent, 40.54 per cent, 36.67 per cent and 33.33 per cent respectively, presented larger proportions in this category than at the district level, while Aithur, Thehlep, Denlung, New Ralvawng, South Phaileng and CHhumkhum having 11.11 per cent, 12.50 per cent, 22.22 per cent, 23.08 per cent, 30.77 per cent and 31.58 per cent respectively, presented smaller proportions in this category than at the total sample level. One feature to be noted here is that Sairep village had no poor household that belonged to this category. Among the rural development blocks, again it was W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block only, which showed a higher percentage of households in this category.

At the total sample level, the households falling in the 'Poor category' constituted the majority of the total poor households (40.71 per cent). Three rural development blocks, viz., Lunglei Rural Development Block, Hnahthial Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development Block had larger proportions of households in this category and exceeded the District aggregate. The only rural development block that presented smaller proportion than the total sample level in the 'Poor category' was W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block.

As many as 73.19 per cent of all poor households at the total sample level (last rows) fell in the two upper income brackets. Barely 8.77 per cent fell in the category of "destitute" and the remaining 18.04

per cent fell in the other category of “very very poor”. This experience was in no way different at the rural development block and District levels. Thus, it is seen that relatively large proportions of poor households fell in the ‘Very Poor’ and ‘Poor’ categories. The village-level analysis on the incidence of relative poverty presented a similar pattern. All villages belonging to Lunglei Rural Development Block and Hnahthial Rural Development Block presented larger proportions in the ‘Poor’ category than the total sample level, and all villages belonging to Lungsen Rural Development Block, except CHhumkhum, also presented larger proportions in this category than the total sample level. In contrast, all sample villages from W. Bunglemun Rural Development Block presented smaller proportions in this category than the total sample level. In this regard, those villages, presenting larger proportions in this category, were found to have lower percentages of other categories, particularly the two bottom strata and vice-versa.

Combining ‘Destitute’ and ‘Very Very Poor’ strata to form a new category of the ‘**Poorest households**’, the proportion of households in this new category is 26.81 per cent. The remaining 73.19 per cent of households fell in the two top income brackets re-christened here as ‘**Poor**’. In the most urbanized rural development block, i.e., Lunglei Rural Development Block, barely 10.35 per cent of the total poor fell in

the 'poorest' category, while in the Hnahthial Rural Development Block bordering Myanmar, as low as 11.10 per cent of the total poor fell in the 'poorest' category. In sharp contrast, in the two rural development blocks bordering Bangladesh, i.e., W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development Block, such proportions of the 'Poorest' ranged between 22.86 per cent and 36.89 per cent.

It was also found that most of the villages in the rural development blocks bordering Bangladesh had larger proportions in the 'Poorest' category than the total sample level: the respective percentages of the 'Poorest households' in Sesawm, Darngawn, CHhumkhum and Laisawral (arranged in descending order) are 40.00, 37.84, 36.85 and 33.33. At the same time, all villages, except Sairep, in the other two rural development blocks (i.e., those not bordering Bangladesh) presented smaller proportions in the 'Poorest' category than the total sample level: the respective percentages of the poorest households in South Phaileng, New Ralvawng, Aithur, Denlung and South Lungleng (arranged in ascending order) are 7.70, 7.70, 11.11, 11.11 and 11.11.

The study, thus, confirms that:

- a. the incidence of poverty in the villages bordering Bangladesh is more acute than the incidence of poverty in the other villages;

- b.** the incidence of poverty in the rural development blocks bordering Bangladesh, particularly W. Bunglemun Rural Development Block, is more acute in comparison with the incidence of poverty in other rural development blocks; and
- c.** the farther the village from an urban area, more acute is the incidence of poverty in that village. In support of this finding, mention may be made that the poorest villages, viz., CHhumkhum, Sesawm, Laisawral, Darngawn and South Lungleng, are all located comparatively farther away from the urban areas. In contrast, the richest of the 12 villages, i.e., Sairep, is only 15 kms. away from Lunglei town. Lunglei is the second biggest town in Mizoram and the headquarters of Lunglei District. The lack of good transport and communication facilities, stated in chapter II and chapter III, had also contributed towards the existence of such imbalance or inequalities.
- d.** The rural development blocks bordering Bangladesh were found to have more infiltrators as compared to the other rural development blocks. This may be one of the reasons for the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty being comparatively more acute in these rural development blocks.

## Chapter VII

### CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY PRESCRIPTIONS

#### 7.1 Socio-economic Indicators of the District

Land in Lunglei District (as in the whole of Mizoram), belongs by and large to the community and the power of allotment of this communal land is vested in the village councils. Since shifting cultivation (*jhuming*) is practised, tenancy system is not possible due to the fact that the land is suitable for cultivation for a period of one or two years only and the area of cultivation changes from year to year. The average yield in *jhum* area is as low as 12 quintals per hectare. The *jhumias* practice multiple cropping. Only about 1 per cent of the cultivated area is under wet rice cultivation. The state has a conspicuously high percentage of tribal population. Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes. While Mizoram accounts for only 0.8 per cent of the total population of the country, Lunglei District has 15.39 per cent of the states population. The sex ratio is 987:1000 as against the corresponding national average of 933:1000 and similar district figure of 938:1000. While the literacy rate in the district is as high as 91.40 per cent as against the state and national average of 88.49 and 65.38%, the literacy rate of males is better than that of females. The Inner Line Regulation of 1873 is enforced in the state to prevent economic exploitation and the loss of ethnic and cultural identity

of the tribes inhabiting the state. Almost three-fourths of the inhabited villages in the district have been electrified. However, there are no large-scale or medium industries. The district greatly lacks in transport and communications facilities.

## **7.2 Patterns of Living**

About 20 per cent of the households within the study area have a monthly consumption expenditure below the poverty line of Rs.1,400. This figure, however, exhibits inter-block variations. Of the items consumed, rice alone accounts for nearly one-fourth of the total expenditure. A major value of the goods consumed pertains to self-produced goods. Most crops etc. grown are for home consumption. Shelter in the form of houses accounted for the highest proportion of total value of assets possessed, though a majority of these houses were of the cheapest type (assessed at below Rs.20,000/- each). Clothes accounted for the next highest proportion of total value of assets possessed. Most households had pit latrines only.

Nearly three-fourths of the households received income from more than one occupation. While about 90 per cent of the sample population were cultivators, household income from this occupation (though accounting for the largest share) accounted for only 40 per cent. Wages and salaries (almost equal to agriculture), and animal husbandry were the

next highest contributors of household income. More than 70 per cent of the households were engaged in two or more different occupations simultaneously. Almost 40 per cent of the total number of households had annual income levels below the poverty line of Rs.17,000/-. Out of the sample population, 57 per cent were workers. Of these, almost 90 per cent were involved with agriculture.

The land held/operated by each household is small and fragmented, and works out to an average of 1.88 acres only.

The block-wise distribution of some of the above indices is given in Table 7.1 below.

**Table 7.1**  
**BLOCK-WISE COMPARISON OF PATTERNS OF LIVING INDICES**

Highest/Lowest Recorded Indices (√=Higest; X=Lowest)	W. Binghamun Rural Development Block	Lungsen Rural Development Block	Lunglei Rural Development Block	Hnahthia Rural Development Block
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
% of Literacy	X	√		
% of Households Consuming Below the Poverty Line	√		X	
% of Households with Type-III Buildings	√	X		
% of Households Without Sanitary Facilities		X		√
% of Govt./Semi-Govt. Servants	X	√	√	
% of Workers to the total population	√	X	X	

*Source:* Based on Primary Survey carried out by the scholar.

### 7.3 Poverty Indicators

At the total sample level (529 households), almost 40 per cent of the population are below the poverty line of Rs. 17,000/- annually. W. Bungmun Block presents the worst picture exhibiting 50.00 per cent of its households below the poverty line. A lowest head count ratio (HCR) of 22.14 per cent is registered in Lunglei Rural Development Block (Table 6.3).

At the village-level, firstly, all the sample villages in W. Bungmun Rural Development Block register high poor's head count ratios and show resemblance to the rural development block-level HCR. Secondly, CHhumkhum village in the relatively well-off rural development block of Lungsen registers the highest HCR of poor of 63.33 per cent. Thirdly, all the sample villages in Lunglei Rural Development Block (and Hnahthial Block) register relatively low poor's head count ratios and show resemblance to rural development block-level head count ratios.

The incidence of absolute poverty is not only sizeable, but low incomes of the poor have also a high degree of inequality and instability around mean annual income as is reflected in the high Gini Coefficients (Table 6.2).

The poor's mean annual household income at the district level is Rs. 11,599/-. This varies from Rs.13,596/- in Lunglei Rural Development

Block to Rs.10,508/- in W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block. The mean income for the poor has, therefore, fallen short of the poverty line by 20 per cent in Lunglei block and 38 per cent in W. Bunghmun Block. The village-level analysis exhibits even more inequalities were most villages in the two Bangladesh-bordering rural development blocks of W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development Block have exhibited lower incomes and larger dispersion around low mean income levels as compared to the sample villages in the urbanized Lunglei Rural Development Block and the Myanmar-bordering Hnahthial Rural Development Block.

In Table 6.3, we have also presented the estimates on Sen's poverty-gap ratio. The poverty-gap ratio is influenced by both the head count ratio of poor and the deviation of mean annual income of the poor from the poverty line. Going by our results, the poverty-gap ratio is found higher in all those villages where the HCR is also high. This is found uniformly true across all villages in all rural development blocks. This fact is influenced by the concentration of poor households in the upper two income brackets falling just below the poverty line. This study reveals that the largest effort to bring the population near the poverty line is required in the villages of W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block

bordering Bangladesh. The lowest poverty-gap ratio, on the other hand, is found in Sairep village of the relatively urbanized Lunglei Block.

The measure of the modified poverty-gap ratio assumes values close to zero in the Lunglei Rural Development Block (0.039), in the Hnahthial Rural Development Block (0.056), in the Lungsen Rural Development Block (0.091), and in all the sample villages across these three rural development blocks with the exception of CHhumkhum village, thereby indicating that the distribution of the poor is closer to the poverty line. In the Bangladesh-bordering W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block, the value for this measure is 0.154 and ranges between 0.133 and 0.155 in this Block's three sample villages. This again indicates the preponderance of poor households near the poverty line. The highest value of the modified Sen's poverty-gap ratio, i.e., 0.187, is observed in the CHhumkhum village of Lungsen Rural Development block.

Among the four rural development blocks of Lunglei District, the only rural development block that exhibits larger value of the modified Sen's poverty-gap ratio than the total sample of District aggregate level (0.096) is W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block (0.154). All the three sample villages of this Rural Development Block and the CHhumkhum village of Lungsen Rural Development Block too exhibit larger values of

the modified Sen's poverty-gap ratio than the total sample or District aggregate level (Table 6.2).

We have grouped or classified the poor households in four income intervals so as to enable us to estimate the level and extent of the incidence of relative poverty. The distribution of poor households across these four income intervals is as follows:

(i) The number of households falling under the 'Destitute' category (i.e., all those households receiving less than or equal to Rs. 6,016/- as annual income) is very low both at the total sample level (8.77 per cent) and across all sample villages in all the rural development block;

(ii) The proportion of poor households falling in the second bottom stratum termed as 'Very Very Poor' (i.e., all those households receiving more than Rs.6,016/- but less than or equal to Rs.9,297/- as annual income) forms 18.04 per cent at the total sample level;

(iii) The proportion falling in the 'Very Poor' stratum (all those households receiving more than Rs.9,297/- but less than or equal to Rs.12,750/- as annual income) is 32.48 per cent at the total sample level; and

(iv) At the district (total sample) level, the households falling in the 'Poor' category (all those households receiving more than Rs.12,750/-

but less than or equal to Rs.17,000/- as annual income) constitutes 40.71 per cent of the total number of poor households.

Combining 'Destitute' and 'Very Very Poor' strata to form a new category of the 'poorest' households, the proportion in this new category is 26.81 per cent of the total poor households. The rest 73.19 per cent fall in the two top income brackets rechristened as 'poor'. In the most urbanised Lunglei Rural Development Block, barely 10.35 per cent of the total numbers of poor households fall in the 'poorest' category, whereas in the Myanmar-bordering Hnahthial Rural Development Block, as low as 11.10 per cent of the total number of poor households fall in the 'poorest' category. In sharp contrast, in the two Bangladesh-bordering rural development blocks (W. Binghamun Rural Development Block and Lungsen Rural Development block), such a proportion ranges between 22.86 per cent and 37.84 per cent.

The block-wise comparison of poverty indices is given in Table 7.2

below:

**Table 7.2**  
**BLOCK-WISE COMPARISON OF POVERTY INDICES**

Highest/Lowest Recorded Indices (√=Higest; X=Lowest)	W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block	Lungsen Rural Development Block	Lunglei Rural Development Block	Hnahthia Rural Development Block
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<b>Mean Annual Income of the Poor</b>	X		√	
<b>Gini Co-efficient</b>	√			X
<b>Poor's Head Count Ratio</b>	√		X	
<b>Poverty-Gap Ratio</b>	√		X	
<b>Modified Sen's Poverty-Gap Ratio</b>	√		X	
<b>Distance of Poor's Mean Annual Income From the Poverty Line</b>	√		X	
<b>% of Households in the "Poor" Category</b>	X		√	
<b>% of Households in the "Poorest" Category</b>	√		X	

*Source:* Based on Primary Survey carried out by the scholar

The figures for W.Bunghmun are analogous in that all indices reflect it as the poorest rural development block, while Lunglei Development Block appears to be better off in the district. Some of the factors that perhaps explain this are:

Location of Area: Among the blocks of the district, W. Bunghmun Rural Development Block is the only block that does not cover any urban town within its boundary. The nearest urban town is 100 kilometres away. In

contrast, Lunglei Block comprises of nearly the entire urban Lunglei town, which is the headquarters of the district and the second biggest town in the State.

Availability of infrastructure: No national highway links W. Bunglei Block and most its villages are not yet connected even by a metalled road. Moreover, most link roads are only fair-weathered ones. There are no telephones, postal facilities are very poor, and the supply of electric power is inadequate and irregular. In contrast, the national highway links Lunglei Block and metalled roads connect some of her villages. Besides, there are more postal facilities, better supply of electric power and telephone facilities are available in this block. Again, there are no higher secondary schools or even community health centres in W. Bunglei Block.

Other factors: Another factor attributable to such inequality in the incidence of poverty is that the bordering villages of W. Bunglei Block have larger proportion of +intruders from Bangladesh in their population. Generally, these immigrants are half-nomadic tribal people who are extremely poorer than the sons of the soil.

#### **7.4 Poverty Ratio in Mizoram: A Controversial Figure**

Consequent upon the constitution of an 'Expert Group' under the chairmanship of D.T. Lakdawala in September 1989 by the Planning

Commission to consider the methodological and computational aspects of estimation of proportion and number of poor in India, Mizoram's poverty ratio was also estimated. According to the compilation and computation done by the Planning Commission on the basis of Report of this Expert Group on Estimation of Proportion and Number of Poor (1993) submitted in July 1993, Mizoram stood in the 9<sup>th</sup> (Ninth) position in terms of poverty ratio arranged in an ascending order. The poverty ratio in this State fell from 50.33 per cent in 1973-74 to 32.52 per cent in 1987-88. Besides, the Planning Commission in its estimate of population of below poverty line<sup>1</sup> placed Mizoram in the 11<sup>th</sup> (Eleventh) position among the 32 states/union territories of India in terms of poverty ratio and poverty reduction percentage arranged in an ascending order. As per this Planning Commission estimate, the poverty ratio in this State declined from 27.5 per cent in 1987-88 to 25.7 per cent in 1993-94, and further to 19.5 per cent in 1999-2000; the poverty reduction so achieved in this State was recorded to be 1.8 per cent during the 7-year period of 1987-88 to 1993-94; and 6.2 per cent during the next 7-year period commencing from 1993-94 to 1999-2000.

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<sup>1</sup> Planning Commission (1988), Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997 – 2002), Vol. I and Press Release of the Planning Commission dt. 22<sup>nd</sup> of February 2001 regarding Poverty Estimates for 1999 – 2000

From the above, it is seen that the Planning Commission figures representing the same thing, i.e., poverty ratio, in Mizoram for the year 1987–88 are not similar. It is 32.52 per cent in one and 27.5 per cent in another.

Again, in conformity with the second three Planning Commission figures, the Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram put the poverty figures in Mizoram for 1993–94 and 1999–2000 at 25.66 per cent and 19.47 per cent respectively.<sup>2</sup> However, contrary to all these figures, the Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram, in an earlier publication ‘Mizoram at a Glance 2001’, dubbed 17,513 families in this State as poor – this works out to 46.96 per cent of the then total population of the State.

While ascertaining the incidence of absolute poverty and relative poverty in Lunglei District of Mizoram, the present study put the poverty figure in the District at almost 40 per cent (36.67 per cent to be exact) for the year 1997–98. However, this figure is larger than that worked out on the basis of household monthly consumption expenditure of less than or equal to Rs.1,400/- as the poverty line (19.85 per cent). The validity of these two different figures representing the poverty ratio in the district may be best explained on the basis of the following reasons:

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<sup>2</sup> Statistical Handbook Mizoram 2002, P. 9, Table 1.10.

(a) Sundry incomes: While the value of self-produced goods, such as firewood, fodder, milk, chicken, meat, fish, egg, charcoal, etc., constituted a significant proportion in the total amount of monthly consumption expenditure, the same was not reflected in the total annual income of these households. Had there been no problem in the assessment of all sundry incomes for inclusion in the total annual income, the respective total annual incomes would rise considerably.

(b) Period of Study: Our survey was carried out during the period May 17 to December 12, 1997. This period is an agricultural bumper period, as a result of which more items are available for consumption. Therefore, the value of self-produced goods accounted in the household consumption expenditure was bound to be high.

## **7.5 Policy Prescriptions**

The following policy prescriptions may be made. Firstly, there is an urgent need to carry out comprehensive surveys to ascertain the levels and rates of poverty incidence at the disaggregate village and block levels, so that fund allocation will match the needs of the community in such different administrative and geographical units. Further, poor households alone need to be covered in such poverty alleviation programmes.

Secondly, infrastructure like regular markets and warehouses, transport and communication facilities, education and health care, veterinary support, and adequate and regular power need to be urgently developed/ensured.

Thirdly, irrigation projects need to be taken up and feed/fodder and fertilizers have to be made available to the people within a reasonable distance, and horticulture may be encouraged.

Fourthly, water catchments need to be preserved/protected, and portable drinking water made available within the village itself.

Fifthly, with the above development exercise, incentive schemes to wean away the *jhumias* to settled cultivation (in areas where it is feasible) and conservation schemes (both soil and forest) have to be taken up in earnest.

Lastly, non-farm activities have to be encouraged. This will not only raise the income levels, but will also add value to the state products, particularly in the handicraft sector.

# ANNEXURE 1

## A: PARTICULARS OF VILLAGE

1. STATE : \_\_\_\_\_
2. DISTRICT : \_\_\_\_\_
3. NAME OF R.D. BLOCK: \_\_\_\_\_
4. NAME OF VILLAGE : \_\_\_\_\_
5. DATE OF SURVEY : \_\_\_\_\_
6. RAINFALL:
  - (i) Rainfall During the Year – **Normal/Below Normal/Above Normal**
  - (ii) Rainfall During the Last Year - **Normal/Below Normal/Above Normal**
7. IRRIGATION:
  - (i) Total Cropped Area : \_\_\_\_\_
  - (ii) Percentage of the Cropped Area Irrigated: \_\_\_\_\_
8. MARKETING FACILITIES:
  - A. Weekly Market:
    - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
    - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_
  - B. Whole-Sale Market:
    - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
    - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_
9. CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING SOCIETY:
  - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
  - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_
10. REPAIR / SERVICE CENTRE:
  - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
  - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_
11. VETERINARY FACILITIES (Dispensary, A.I., etc.):
  - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
  - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_
12. AVAILABILITY OF FEED / FODDER:
  - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
  - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_
13. CREDIT FACILITIES:
  - (i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_
  - (ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## 14. TRANSPORT FACILITIES:

## A. Bus Station:

(i)

Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## B. Approach Road:

## (i) Metalled Road:

Links the Village/At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_

## (ii) Fair-Weather Road:

Links the Village/At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_

## 15. HEALTH FACILITIES:

## A. Hospital / Community Health Centre:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## B. Primary Health Centre (P.H.C.) / Sub-Health Centre / Main Centre:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## C. Health Sub-Centre / Dispensary:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## 16. EDUCATION FACILITIES:

## A. College / Higher Secondary School:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## B. High School:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## C. Middle School:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## D. Primary School:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## E. Anganwadi / Crech Centre:

(i) Within the Village : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) At a Distance From the Village (in Km.): \_\_\_\_\_

## 17. LOCAL WAGE RATE (in Rs.):

(i) Male Adult : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) Female Adult: \_\_\_\_\_

## 18. VILLAGE COUNCIL SET-UP:

A. Whether There is Elected Village Council in Position or Not?

YES / NOT

C. Number of Elected Village Council Members:

(i) Scheduled Tribe : \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) Scheduled Caste : \_\_\_\_\_

(iii) Others : \_\_\_\_\_

(iv) Total : \_\_\_\_\_

(v) Women Out of (iv): \_\_\_\_\_

## 19. SOURCES OF DRINKING WATER:

(i) Village Water Source: \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) P.H.E. Supply : \_\_\_\_\_

(iii) Both : \_\_\_\_\_

## 20. IS THE VILLAGE ELECTRIFIED?

YES / NO

## 21. POPULATION OF THE VILLAGE:

	<i>According to the 1991 Census</i>	<i>As on the Day/Date of Survey</i>
Scheduled Tribe:	_____	_____
Scheduled Caste:	_____	_____
Others :	_____	_____
Total :	_____	_____
Number of Households :	_____	_____

## B: PARTICULARS OF EACH FAMILY

1. RESPONDENT'S NAME : \_\_\_\_\_
2. DATE OF SURVEY : \_\_\_\_\_
3. NAME OF THE HEAD OF FAMILY: \_\_\_\_\_

### 4. HOUSEHOLD DETAILS

Sl. No.	Name	Gender	Age	Occupation/ Profession	Educational Status
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

### 5. SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD:

- (i) Total Male Adults : \_\_\_\_\_
- (ii) Total Female Adults : \_\_\_\_\_
- (iii) Total Male Children and Infants : \_\_\_\_\_
- (iv) Total Female Children and Infants: \_\_\_\_\_
- (v) Total of (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) : \_\_\_\_\_

6. TOTAL CONSUMPTION/CONSUMER EXPENDITURE IN THE  
PRECEDING MONTH (For the Past 30 Days)

Sl. No.	Items	Self-Produced		Bought		Total	
		Kg./Lt./Unit	Value in Rs.	Kg./Lt./Unit	Value in Rs.	Kg./Lt./Unit	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1.	Rice						
2.	Cooking Oil						
3.	Cooking Fuel						
	(a) Firewood						
	(b) S.K.O. (Superior Kerosene Oil)						
	(c) Charcoal						
4.	Vegetable						
5.	Pulses						
6.	Meat/Pork/Fish						
7.	Egg						
8.	Milk						
9.	Soap, Surf, etc.						
10.	Medicine						
11.	Tobacco						
12.	Tea						
13.	Sugar/Gur						
14.	Milk Powder						
15.	Petrol (Motor Spirit)						
16.	H.S.D. (High Speed Diesel)						
17.	Others (Conveyance, Labour Wage, School Fees, Electric Bill, Exercise Book, Pencil, etc.)						
18.	Fodder						
TOTAL:							

## 7. EXPENDITURE ON CONSUMER DURABLES (ASSETS)

Sl. No.	Name of Assets	Present Value in Rs.	Remarks (Type, Size, etc.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	House: (a) Dwelling House (b) Shop (c) Factory/Workshop		
2.	Utensils		
3.	Clothes		
4.	Furniture		
5.	Transistor		
6.	Tape Player/Recorder		
7.	Television		
8.	V.C.D./V.C.P./V.C.R.		
9.	Bicycle		
10.	Scooter/Motor Cycle		
11.	Four-Wheeler		
12.	Water Reservoir/Water Tank		
<b>TOTAL:</b>			

8. TOILET SYSTEM: Does the family have toilet of its own? If so, what type? Septic Tank / Pit Latrine

## 9. TOTAL ANNUAL INCOME

Sl. No.	Sources of Income	Amount in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)
1.	Crop Cultivation (Total Production x Market Price)	
2.	Wages and Salaries	
3.	Piggery	
4.	Poultry	
5.	Cattle	
6.	Carpentry	
7.	Blacksmithy	
8.	Business	
9.	Others (Rent, etc.)	
<b>TOTAL:</b>		

## 10. EMPLOYMENT DETAILS

Sl. No.	Name (The same person may be employed in different occupations)	Sources of Employment	Number of Days in Employment	REMARKS
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

## 11. LAND-HOLDING (in Acres):

- (i) Total area of land owned : \_\_\_\_\_
- (ii) Total area of land leased in : \_\_\_\_\_
- (iii) Total area of land leased out: \_\_\_\_\_
- (iv) Total area of land operated : \_\_\_\_\_

## 12. CROPPING PATTERN:

Sl. No.	Crops	Land Allocated During That Season (in Acre)	Total Production During the Past Season (in Kg./Qtl.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

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## **BIO-DATA**

**NAME:** C.LALMUANKIMA

**FATHER'S NAME:** Lalnghakliana (L)

**ADDRESS:** Diakkawn, Kolasib,  
Mizoram, Pin - 796081

**DATE OF BIRTH:** July 14, 1959

**EDUCATIONAL  
QUALIFICATION:** Passed M.A. (Economics) from North-Eastern  
Hill University, Shillong in First Division in  
1984.

**OCCUPATION:** Working as Lecturer in the Department of  
Economics, Government Kolasib College,  
Kolasib, Mizoram from March 26, 1985  
onwards.

plain is CHamphai, which has a length of about 7 miles (or 11.27 kms.) and at the widest part is nearly 3 miles (or 4.83 kms.) The whole area of this plain is used for permanent wet rice cultivation.

The second largest plain is situated at North Vanlaiphai in the south-eastern corner of Serchhip District. Thenzawl is another important plain in the Serchhip District, which has been brought under permanent wet rice cultivation. Mention also may be made to those numerous small flat patches like Tuisenhnar of Khawzawl in the East, Zawlpuoi by the bank of Mat River, Phaisen of Vairengte, CHemphai of Bilkhawthlir, Buhchang of Bilkhawthlir, Tuichhuahen, CHhimluang and Meidum of Kolasib in the North, and Hortoki and Bairabi along the River Tlawng. There is also a vast area called "CHamdur" in the western part of CHhimtuipui District, which at present is thickly vegetated.

There are plenty of small, deep and rugged rivers in Mizoram. They flow mostly in the direction of North to South or South to North separating the hill ranges. They are fed by the monsoon rain only. They swell rapidly during the rains and recede shortly after. They are not so useful because the volume of water in these rivers is usually less during winter and most of them are almost dry during the dry season.