

An Analysis of Village Economy since the 1950s

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Abstract

India is mostly a rural nation, with about two thirds of the population living in villages. Over the past twenty years, India's rural economy has seen a significant social and economic upheaval. As a result, the current study is a compilation of several studies that have been published in several esteemed publications throughout the past few decades. The planning commission also put top priority to village studies, which assisted in rural rebuilding, as a means of resolving socioeconomic issues in rural India. Therefore, the primary goal of the current inquiry is to conduct a review of the literature and to identify the facilities, developments, and major issues that arise when policies for the welfare of rural people are implemented. The entire investigation is supported by secondary sources drawn from a variety of publications and other online sources. The results of various pertinent research are deemed significant for achieving predetermined objectives, and a review of rural regions aids in village area reconstruction and provides the basis for the evaluation. The results of the evidence that is currently available indicate that India's rural economy is experiencing a noticeable improvement over the periods in terms of education level, healthcare facilities, safe drinking water, women's empowerment, occupation diversification, rural-urban migration, and other social and physical infrastructure, etc.

Keywords: Facilities, rural homes, employment, migration, and women's empowerment are all related to rural development and socioeconomic status (SES)

Introduction

India is the second-largest nation by population and is very large. More than 6.5 lakh villages existed, and roughly 69 percent of Indians reside in rural areas (census of India 2011). Therefore, the advancement of the nation is equivalent to the advancement of the inhabitants of rural areas. The definition of a village provided by the government is "a cluster of human settlements with a population ranging from 500 to 2500, which is greater than a hamlet but smaller than the town." Any location can be classified as a village if it meets two criteria: 1) At least two-thirds of the male population works in agriculture 2) There must be at least 400 people per square kilometre of land (census of India 2011). In terms of production strategy, social structure, and political mobilisation, the rural sector has been viewed as backward and weak. Since ancient times, agriculture has been a top occupation for people, and other industries are either directly or indirectly dependent on it, meaning that the majority of the workforce in the nation depends on farming activities not because they are lucrative but rather because there are few alternatives available, which is a major factor in the development of Indian agriculture. It is evident that an economy based solely on agriculture lags even behind the dominance of agriculture. According to statisticstimes.com, in the 1950s, 82 percent of the workforce in India worked in agriculture, which was responsible for almost 45 percent of the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Additionally, the vast bulk of the poor masses resided in rural rather than urban locations.

The bulk of the workforce in the nation was dependent on farming activities, not because it was lucrative but rather because there were few opportunities for alternative

employment. This was the main factor contributing to the agriculture's backwardness in India. It is also regarded as significant because of the numerous limitations that the residents of the hamlet suffer, including a lack of infrastructure amenities and technological advancement. Rural populations lack access to even basic necessities like clean drinking water, primary healthcare, and transportation. In addition, poor education is still another significant barrier to rural development. Additionally, there is a significant skew in who owns land and other household possessions. But Mahatma Gandhi always thought that India would never be able to eradicate its extreme poverty and misery without improving the rural areas.

Rural development has since taken centre stage in the country's economic strategy. Both industrialised and developing nations around the world highly value the idea of "Rural Development" as a fundamental concern. However, there is no agreed definition of rural development, and the term has many different connotations in a variety of contexts. As a concept, it can be used to underline the general development of rural areas with the goal of raising the standard of living of rural residents. This makes it a multifaceted and all-encompassing notion that also takes into account the growth of rural communities' human resources as well as their agricultural and related sectors, cottage industries, and socioeconomic infrastructure. Rural development can be compared to the motion of a train, with each coach pushing the one in front of it and being pushed by the one behind it, but for the train to move further, it needs a strong engine. Finding and, if necessary, creating a suitable engine to attach to the train is key to its success. To find the right growth engines, there aren't any universally accepted

rules, though. It is quite challenging to define what rural development entails because, as economists, we have varying perspectives on the idea. Rural development is typically defined as the improvement of all rural areas through the extension of irrigation facilities, raising educational standards, increasing employment opportunities, and enhancing farming practises and medical infrastructure, among other things. However, this definition seems to have a narrow focus. Rural development, according to our definition, is the process of creating and utilising human and natural resources, technologies, infrastructure, institutions, and organisations, as well as government policies and programmes, in order to promote and hasten economic growth in rural areas, create jobs, and enhance the quality of rural life in order to achieve self-sustainability.

To investigate the reasons why villages lag behind towns and cities in development, numerous committees were established. Finally, the government of India and policymakers have come to the conclusion that planning at the local level is necessary for the improvement of the villages. The government agencies launched a number of schemes and programmes to improve the conditions in rural areas in order to achieve the aforementioned goal.

The research' findings show that rural areas have undergone significant change during the past forty years. The primary motivators are

- i) Non-farm employment within villages
- ii) Rural-urban linkages and demonstration effects
- iii) Public investments in sanitation, health, and education
- iv) Safety-net programmes like public distribution systems, and Women empowerment through self-help groups, among other things.

In India, the tradition of village studies is as old as the tradition of social science empirical study. Village studies were the first step in the scientific knowledge of Indian society. In terms of style and temperament, village studies in India do not follow a standardized tradition. Over the years, in response to issues on a national and international scale, the socioeconomic conditions (SECs) have undergone substantial changes. It makes sense that in the past 70 years, India and its villages have seen significant change in terms of infrastructure, women's empowerment, employment, migration, cropping patterns, etc. Because of the improvement in social conditions, society is currently developing more quickly than a less developed economy. The person's social standing heavily influences his or her economic situation (income). No community can advance if even one aspect of it lags. Therefore, a methodical socioeconomic growth can enhance the area's well-being and health.

Review of Literature

Numerous significant and important studies have been conducted on various facets of improving the socioeconomic circumstances of a village.

Singh (2014) investigated the initiatives taken by village education committees (VEC) in Varanasi to increase enrollment and retention of students. Information was gathered from three villages in the Varanasi area of Uttar Pradesh using a self-made questionnaire. The findings demonstrate that enrollment and retention by VEC members in the Varanasi district are effective for identifying and evaluating medical camps, for discussing the household survey for enrollment, and for enrollment through the "School Chalo Abhiyan" campaign. Sreekanthachari and Nagaraja

(2013) did study on rural education and asserted that compared to prior times, the education system in Indian villages has improved. While some rural areas lack necessary infrastructure, resources, transportation conveniences, extracurricular activities, etc. Additionally, Sursha and Mylarappa (2012) looked at the socioeconomic status of female students in higher education who fell under the SC category and discovered that women's socioeconomic status had a significant impact on them. An increased inclination for educating female offspring is correlated with better economic position. Additionally, Javed *et al.* (2008) used primary data from approximately 100 randomly selected households to explore the effect of education on socio-economic status in Shrien Wala village of the Faisalabad district and made the case that education is essential for the development of human capital. However, the region lacked adequate primary schooling. According to Artha (2006), community involvement has significantly improved the quality of education in Indonesia. Furthermore, the author made recommendations for how to strengthen several strategies, including school committee participation, school accountability, and parent participation in various committees, in order to raise the quality of education. To further improve education, teaching time should be expanded by one hour every day. Similar to this, Kanti (1970) looked into the educational advancement of underprivileged groups in rural Bengal. The data was gathered from four villages in south Bengal, and it was asserted that as enrollment in schools rises, so too is the quality of education in these underdeveloped rural areas.

Various studies on rural areas have also been done. The socioeconomic standing of Marwa village in Jharkhand was assessed by Harishev (2018). The importance of the non-farm sector was highlighted, and several plans for rural development were discussed. The findings showed that the majority of villagers were unable to obtain government employment, which was the main contributor to poverty. Additionally, the government failed to carry out a number of programmes like MGNREGA and tribal sub-plan programmes; as a result, the people did not receive any advantages from these programmes. In addition, the majority of villagers drop out of school owing to financial difficulties and lack appropriate basic amenities like toilets built into their homes. Additionally, about two-thirds of households received bank loans, with the majority of those loans going for land development. With the aid of a questionnaire, information was gathered from 120 families as part of a study on the SES of households in Pundur village, Kanchipuram district, that was investigated by Nivedita (2014). According to the findings, the village has a lower literacy rate than the state. Furthermore, farming accounts for roughly 50% of household employment. Similar to this, more than 50% of households had an annual income of less than Rs10000. Additionally, more than 97 percent of households spent the majority of their income on food. 52 percent of households keep their money in banks rather than using alternative investment vehicles like mutual funds, stock markets, etc., according to the data. The bulk of the families in the hamlet own their own irrigational property, and the village has decent electrical connectivity. The hamlet does, however, have very few transportation options. Islam and Mustaqim (2014) estimated SES based on the income of locals in the West Bengali village of Udaipur, and initial data was chosen at random from 80 homes. Overall, the findings show that only a small minority of people led better lives, while the majority of people were

exposed to danger because of financial crises. The health status of people in rural areas is dependent on social categories, such as good health in wealthy families and poor health in low-income households, and similarly with the access to health care, according to Yesudian's (1981) research on the state of people in various rural communities. The study also showed that the majority of educated people were aware of medical facilities and preferred private hospitals over state hospitals because of the medical services offered. People from Schedule tribes used to get medical care in public health facilities where the care is free of charge. The significance of doctors and Asha workers at the village level was then painted in a depressing light by Venkatratnam (1980). Health professionals are trained by the government on how to care for patients in public health facilities. Rexed (1977), meantime, focused on the state of rural India's health and discovered that due of the shifting circumstances in rural communities, public health facilities now have modern laboratories and access to equipment. Mukherjee (1973) looked into the infrastructure facilities of public health institutions in the rural sector and found that they were in very bad shape due to a lack of resources.

Additionally, in the Haryana village of Khai, in the Fatehabad district, Shergill *et al.* (2018) looked at the livelihood patterns of landless farmers and those in the non-farm economy. According to the study, which covers demographic, income-expenditure pattern, occupation choice, housing conditions, etc. data collected through personnel interviews and focus group discussions with head members of the village, the area has a literacy rate that is higher than Haryana but lower than the country's average. All of the agrarian households were under the SC group. Landless people varied their job patterns by engaging in supplementary or local activities. Then, in order to investigate how land rights affect agricultural productivity, Reddy (2017) studied 36 tribal settlements in Telangana. Overall, it was suggested that out-migration was higher and that the majority of farmers used low input/high output farming without the use of modern technologies. Furthermore, the Tribe was unable to acquire support for farm extension, seeds, and other inputs from various government agencies and private organisations without owning land rights. Additionally, although less effectively, two flagship programmes, MGNREGA and PDS, are operating in the villages. In the meantime, Chand *et al.* (2017) noticed changes in India's rural economy. On the one hand, there was a perception that the primary sector dominated rural India, but on the other, rural people were earning nearly two-thirds of their income from the secondary and tertiary sectors rather than from farming, which demonstrated a positive approach to the rural economy's transition. The SES of farmers in a specific hamlet in the Latur district of the Marathwada region of Maharashtra was researched concurrently by Masudkar *et al.* (2017), and first-hand information was gathered from 75 people using an interview method. According to the findings, the majority of farmers are in their middle years and are actively involved in farming. Additionally, more than half of respondents had education levels equivalent to the middle class, and a majority of respondents were marginal farmers. As a result, barely one-fifth of informants had high socioeconomic position, while over two-thirds had poor socioeconomic status. According to Madhusudhan (2015), who looked at the value of agriculture in rural India, it is the most significant sector of the rural economy and employs the majority of the workforce either directly or indirectly. Namisiko (2013) also carried out research on the vast

majority of farmers in a Kenyan hamlet. The author discovered that these farmers' inability to boost agricultural productivity and sell their harvest at a fair price is caused by an inadequate supply of information. Additionally, Krishna *et al.* (2013) conducted an empirical study on socioeconomic indicators in Jharkhand, covering a variety of elements like literacy rate, occupational structure, poverty, housing and other amenities, and other pertinent indicators for studying poverty levels in the state. The findings showed that because working class families are diversifying their economic activities, poverty has decreased among them (by 27 percent) compared to agricultural households (by 1.9 percent). Following that, information was acquired from 83 farm households (53 pure tenants and 30 pure landlords), which Tyagi and Himanshu (2011) used to assess certain potential alterations in a tenancy in Palanpur. The researcher discovered that the goal to increase profits, making use of extra family labour, and utilising other dwelling assets like a diesel pump set and financing were the main drivers of tenants leasing in land. Additionally, a landlord's primary motivations for leasing out their property were a lack of family labour and an urgent need for income; as a result, it acts as an alternative to taking out loans. Thus, it may be claimed that the needs of landlords and tenants are mutually supportive. The SES of Narasapura hamlet in the state of Karnataka was researched by Sathyanarayan *et al.* in 2010. The findings showed that the majority of livestock farmers were nuclear families, and that even in rural areas, the joint family system is on the decline. The authors also discovered that the majority of farmers belonged to cooperative organisations, and a comparable percentage of respondents came from low-income families with modest irrigated landholdings. Rajuladevi (2000) also focused on the SES of women working in agriculture without access to land. For analysis, the author chose wet and dry villages in Tamilnadu where more than 80% of the labour force is made up of landless workers, of which 70% falls under the schedule category. The findings revealed that only tractors, not animals, were used for ploughing, indicating that the landowner belonged to a higher caste. With the exception of the poorest, backward caste members undertook only weeding and transplanting out of respect for their caste. Due to a sex-based wage difference, men can earn more than women in both communities. Additionally, Laxminarayan (1990) emphasised the changes in the socioeconomic status of agricultural labour in three villages, namely Punjab, Haryana, and Eastern Uttar Pradesh, and discovered that there have been significant changes in these areas with regard to the spread of literacy, infrastructure amenities, health, etc. Priyanka and Megha (2018) observed that rural areas were turning to side jobs to support themselves. However, In Phiro village in the Wokha district, Vero and Odyuo (2021) assessed the primary factor driving rural-to-urban migration and its effects on the SES of the migrants. Primary data was gathered by the author via questionnaires and in-person interviews. The findings showed that the key factors driving people toward urban migration—which has a positive influence on migrants' SES—are inadequate educational infrastructure and a lack of viable employment options. Similar to this, Badole (2020) also made the case for substantial changes in the migratory population's job, health, and educational opportunities because of the links between rural and urban areas. The survey also showed that the main driver behind the rural population movement was a lack of employment possibilities. Since the green revolution, Punjab

has been regularly getting a significant number of migrants from Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, and Bihar. Lakhwinder *et al.* (2017) studied the relationship between migration and economic development in 36 villages in Punjab. The findings showed that the peak seasons in Punjab when migrant labourers are most needed are during wheat harvest, paddy sowing, and paddy harvest, and that following these seasons, most of them return to their respective home countries. Patel also investigated the village of Bakrol at the same time. Only one pump, which was insufficient to provide a facility for the hamlet to obtain drinking water, was found by the author to be available in this settlement. Additionally, this area lacked a functional drainage system and any form of transportation infrastructure. The only available educational facility in the village was a basic school, which was inadequate. Furthermore, there was a severe lack of health infrastructure. In the Himalayan region of the state of Uttarakhand, Kamala and Abhimanyu researched motives for migration from several sources. They discovered that migration fosters the development of economic conditions and human resources at the point of origin, as well as the potential for social conditions to deteriorate. Additionally, emigration has significantly raised inhabitants' incomes and standards of living in a number of ways. The demand for goods and services generated by the remittances in the source areas increases job and income opportunities there. Rao and Veena investigate the before and after circumstances of migrant workers who have arrived in Bengaluru in the interim because this state has the greatest migration rates. The findings showed that migration alone has caused favourable changes in migrants' standard of living. In their 2015 study, Dhillon *et al.* focused on how nuclear family systems and socio-economic and demographic factors were evolving in rural areas. In comparison to joint families, the author discovered that fewer families with elder members were nuclear families. Urbanization, population ageing, and educational advancements were the main factors in the improvement of nuclear family homes. In Bhairabpur in the Malda district, Ismail and Mustaqim (2013) studied the population's actual SES, the state of food security, and potential solutions to the issue at the microlevel. The entire hamlet has been divided into four equal units, and 22 households have been selected at random from each unit. 88 of the 432 homes have been taken into consideration for the study. Dhillon *et al.* 2015 study concentrated on the socio-economic and demographic changes occurring in rural areas, as well as the evolution of nuclear family systems. The author found that there were fewer nuclear households with older members than joint families. The key contributors to the expansion of nuclear family dwellings were urbanisation, population ageing, and educational breakthroughs. Ismail and Mustaqim (2013) investigated the actual SES of the populace, the level of food security, and feasible microlevel remedies in Bhairabpur in the Malda area. 22 households have been randomly chosen from each of the four equal units that make up the entire hamlet. 88 of the 432 residences have been considered for the (2011) used primary data to assess the household income in Pakistan's Faisalabad district. According to the author, there is an imbalance between land and income and cattle. In the research area, non-farm activities were also common. It was discovered that among farm revenue sources, land and livestock were positively correlated with household income while alone reliance on farm work was adversely correlated. Fieldwork was conducted at random in the villages of Shiromoni and Berachampa for the socioeconomic survey

report (2011). The study's primary goal was to examine the distribution of loans, contemporary equipment use, and ownership patterns in the sample hamlet. 200 farmers who were involved in farming provided the initial data. This analysis revealed that both villages have been significantly impacted by the land reform. The study area's population of big landlords—those who own 30 bighas or more of land—and wealthy peasants—those who own 15 to 30 bighas—has expanded, and both groups now employ more than 30% of modern agro-machinery, according to the paper. As a result, the position of the rural affluent is gradually strengthening. The more intriguing result is that many middle-class peasants use Mahajan loans because the legal credit market cannot provide them with enough money for modern farming. In particular in India, William and Christopher (2011) focused on many aspects of rural development. Numerous social programmes put in place by the federal and state governments for rural development have been discussed. Furthermore, Himanshu *et al.* (2011) discovered, using the Western Uttar Pradesh hamlet of Palanpur as an example, that the non-farm sector in rural India has gradually increased over the past 30 years. Additionally, when Ackah and Medvedev (2010) studied migration across families with male and female heads, they discovered that male-headed households were more capable than their female counterparts in terms of earning, and as a result, were more likely to migrate. Additionally, Pundir and Singh (2001) looked at the type and degree of rural-urban connectivity as well as how it affected the SES of residents in two Gujarati villages. The study showed that the villages with good connections to urban regions appear to be in better shape than the villages without good connections to urban areas. Furthermore, compared to villages that are not connected to urban regions, the income level of residents in connected villages is higher. At the same time, Naik *et al.* examined how SES affected the health of Indian rural women. More than one-third of respondents, according to the author, had a medium degree of understanding about health practises, and an equal number had a high level of expertise. In addition, the standard of living and health care were strongly correlated. Visaria (2001) looked at the changes in rural India's demographics during the previous 50 years. The NSSO data were utilised for analysis (1961-2016). The findings indicate that due to urbanisation, the number of people over 60 is rising while family size is decreasing in rural India. The author also emphasised how important it is for older people to receive health care, as well as the resources they have at their disposal to do so. According to the study, about two-thirds of Gujarat's elderly women expected their sons to care for them in old age; meanwhile, less than ten percent anticipated receiving support from their daughters. In addition, a much smaller percentage of elderly women cited their assets or pension as a source of assistance. Social, political, and economic factors that were linked to migratory movement from villages were found by Dasgupta and Paisley (2000). In India, 40 villages across seven districts provided the primary data. They discovered that the levels of migration in villages were highly correlated with the literacy rate, occupational diversification, and commercialization of agriculture. Women typically migrate for one of the following four reasons: to work, to study, to travel with their husbands, or, if they are married, to travel with their families. Meenakshi and Ray (2005) studied how household size and family structure affected poverty in rural India. The author linked data on household size with state demographics, caste, the sex of the head of family, land ownership, and other socioeconomic

factors that affect poverty status. The author discovered that female-headed homes belonged to the schedule category and were more economically impoverished than male-headed households. Additionally, using a few chosen indicators, Kumari (1991) conducted an empirical study on the SES of women-headed families in the Uttar Pradesh district of Jaipur. The survey made clear that while women's real roles differ depending on their caste, class, and other household circumstances, all have experienced discrimination in both the economic and social spheres. Therefore, a strategy should be suggested to enhance the status of families with female heads of household. While Jonti Das (2020) looked into the socioeconomic situation of women and the primary causes of their low status in Bodo village in Assam's Golaghat region. Using a standardised questionnaire, primary data were gathered from females. According to the findings, a third of women were married before they were 20 because of their families' dire financial circumstances. The author also discovered that there was an 80 percent female illiteracy rate in the area. Additionally, the majority of the women worked in home duties, which exhibit the largest dependency ratio and reflect unfavourable features of women's socioeconomic circumstances. Additionally, just 21% of women were capable of making decisions on their daily lives on their own. Lei-Lei also investigated the effects of government spending on rural infrastructure, particularly on transportation, on women's job status in the same year. The participation of non-agriculture work has been predicted using a multivariate logistic regression mode. The noteworthy findings showed that access to roads and transportation facilities had a positive impact on women's participation in non-agricultural activities. The impact of socioeconomic determinants on female education in the Pakistani district of Faisalabad was studied by Tauqir *et al.* in 2016. Interviews with 100 respondents served as the primary data collection method. The authors discovered that the occupation of the family, parental education level, and income were all strongly related to girls' education. Only 63 percent of respondents were in support of sending their females to school, compared to 91 percent who were in favour of sending their male children to school. Similar to this, Ashok (2015) examined the socioeconomic status of women in the Mysore district. The findings showed that tribal women's conditions are extremely poor due to their suffering from disease, illiteracy, poverty, a lack of access to food, and other ills. Rathirane (2013) then looked at how women might become more powerful by having more control over household decisions. Data on the ability to make decisions about income, savings, spending, children's education, and marriage have been gathered. The data was analysed to determine the relationship and significant differences using the correlation and ANOVA tests. According to the study, decision-making power and women's empowerment are closely related. Due to cultural conventions and other reasons, women are not permitted to make household level decisions. Self and Grabowski, meantime, looked at how economic, social, and political issues affected female autonomy in rural north India. The findings show that female autonomy and the presence of specific infrastructure types were substantially correlated. Additionally, the town offered a variety of off-farm options to generate non-farm income, which had a big impact on it. The communities with female Pardhan influence had a good effect on the political system. Age of the family head had a negative impact on family features, but female households had a positive impact. The study also showed that shifting gender dynamics in Uttar

Pradesh's society are reflected in the growing involvement of women in village governance. In parallel, Lumar investigated the role of microfinance in empowering women in two representative Tamil Nadu communities. 141 randomly chosen women clients were the source of the primary data collection. The results showed that although women are capable of increasing their income (73 percent) and spending (65 percent), they still have very little control over their assets (29 percent) and are unable to participate equally in the important family decisions. In addition, Rajeswari and Singh (2012) assessed the circumstances of women in Haryana during the course of the years from 2001 to 2012. Three variables—demographic, social, and economic—were examined in this study. Demographic indicators included age, child sex ratio, and overall sex ratio, whereas social indicators such as female literacy rate, the gender gap in literacy, and a crime against women have been considered and economic indicators include the earning capability which is generally shown by an indicator of the female work participation rate. Sharma (2012) examined the participation and problems of women workers in rural industries through a sample study of the Dhani block of Maharajganj district of Uttar Pradesh and found that women have neither job security nor social security. They were highly exploited in terms of strenuous work in unhygienic conditions for a long duration. Further, Coppeleta (2011) investigated the conditions of women through observation in Palanpur village. The author found that the sex ratio and literacy rates of females have increased since 1958. Moreover, women's contribution to employment is also helpful to enhance their social status in the family. However, till 2008 women have very little autonomy regarding mobility, freedom of decision-making, etc. Sinha (2011) investigated the nutritional status of the population of Palanpur village in Uttar Pradesh. Height and weight-related information were collected from every household for a better understanding of the nutritional status. The results highlight that majority of children less than five years were underweight and nearly half the population of adults females had less body mass index than normal. Hence, the condition of the village was substantially worse than the state and India on an average situation. During the same time, Sultana identified the factors that affect women's empowerment and decision-making power in families of rural Bangladesh. The study found that women's decision-making power is positively associated with education levels, employment, income, and gender-based awareness. Meanwhile, Sudha *et al* worked on women's status in the Jamnagar district. The results indicated that one-fifth of the women had 'no response' concerning the reproductive issues and similarly a quarter had no participation in economic decisions and around one-fifth (21.47 percent) had confronted domestic violence in some form. Further, education and occupation are positively associated with women's empowerment. Moreover, a research team of Demographic and Health survey (2006-07) examined women's empowerment in Shri Lanka. The results highlighted that the degree of autonomy of women's decision-making varies from family to family. Females are almost the solitary power to decide about cuisine and have access to money but can hardly purchase jewels of their own. Further, slightly less than one-third of women can decide about health care or get permission to go to a relative's house or market. Rahman and Rao (2004) discovered that women's autonomy is most strongly influenced by their mobility and the degree to which they can move without first getting their husband's consent.

Additionally, involvement in home decisions is closely linked to women's autonomy. In addition, Kothari (2003) examined the occupations that women in Rajasthan worked in. The author has divided the workforce into the agricultural, industrial, and service sectors in an effort to find a link between women's occupations and literacy rates. According to the findings, literacy rate is positively correlated with secondary and tertiary occupations while negatively correlated with primary occupation. According to Makombe and Temba (1999), the sex ratio and poverty levels have improved during the past year. Moreover, an observation can be seen in women's participation in household decision-making and control over resources, and freedom to use their time. Furthermore, Nagaich (1997) worked on "changing conditions of women in Rural India" to discover the impact of literacy and urbanization on women's involvement in the occupation. The author found that the female participation rate has remained low despite industrialization, urbanization, and education. Jaiswal (1993) highlights that only working women have achieved a little bit of power and recognition in salary spending. Moreover, women's economic status helps to acquire property but still, it is owned by their husband or any other male member of the family. This condition of women has not improved in a significant way. Kethan (1993) examined the condition of females in rural areas. The result shows that there is significant positive changes have come in women's autonomy in respect of marriage, education, social participation, and mass media due to urbanization, education, and employment. However, the results also revealed that even educated women are not able to modify their old and traditional rituals and perceptions. During the same period, Upreti and Sunita researched Nepal and found that the majority of females have been able to adjust to job and house duties. They were satisfied with their job and reported that their status was equal to their male counterparts.

Additionally, Salgotra (2017) used a stratified sampling technique to evaluate the SES of rural BPL families in the Uttarakhand village of Pauri. With the aid of a questionnaire, primary information was gathered from BPL families regarding their occupation, income, and educational status in order to understand their SES. The study found that the main source of employment in the studied area was agriculture and related activities. Wage work, the second type of occupation listed by BPL households, had a participation rate for women that was practically on par with that of men. Due to the absence of an industrial sector, only 19% of BPL families in the area work in the private sector; the remaining BPL families are employed in wage jobs and agriculture.

Additionally, Bhalla and Sumandeep (2017) came to a conclusion regarding the effects of industrial development on the socio-economic framework of the Sathrota village in Gujarat's Panchmahal district. Due to a lack of irrigation sources and insufficient timely rainfall for agriculture, it was discovered from this study that more than 40% of the population of this hamlet is dependent on jobs in industries other than agriculture. The study's findings demonstrate both positive and negative effects on the population's infrastructure, health, education, and means of subsistence. They also offer suggestions for ways to make the Village better and grow it further. The availability of government programmes in the Odisha village of Dungri was studied by Patnaik (2017). The study used 248 respondents to a structured questionnaire, interviews, and secondary data from a variety of sources (MSF proposal, monitoring, and evaluation). The purpose of this research was to assess the

accessibility of the community to the various social welfare schemes and programs of the government and the gaps in the implementation of the program. The author found that several persons are eligible to access various Government schemes but they are not getting it due to a lack of awareness. Dasgupta (2016) examined the village socio-economic system with the help of primary data collected through official and non-official sources from 126 villages selected by purposive method rather than random. The main objective of this study was detailed micro-level studies based on 14 variables by the agro-economic Research Centre (AERC). The study used three schedules namely: Village schedule, household schedule, and opinion schedule. From this study, they found that there have been a lot of changes in villages concerning education, women's status, employment, etc.

Sukhvinder (2012) focused on the status of rural families from Kurukshetra and Kaithal in Haryana as well as rural development. The occupation, income, saving, and investment patterns of households are the main variables used in this study. This study's main goal was to determine how residents of these villages have been impacted by economic growth and other social and economic dynamics as a result of particular government policy initiatives. According to the findings, Kaithal village has much superior income, savings, and investment trends than Kurukshetra. But compared to Kaithal Village, Kurukshetra has a higher literacy rate.

Conclusion

The majority of the workforce is diversifying their economic activities away from agriculture and toward secondary and tertiary sectors, according to the findings of various studies, which generally concluded that the rural economy has undergone a significant change since India gained its independence. Because of numerous development programmes like midday meals, scholarships, stipends, etc., the gender ratio and literacy rate have also increased along with the standard of education. In addition to this, it has been noted that health facilities have been enhanced due to improvements in the infrastructure and accessibility of transportation. People are probably more likely now to receive sophisticated medical treatment. Some studies also point out that women's standing has altered because they now participate in economic activities almost equally with men and have more political and social clout. However, some villages in India still lack basic amenities, which must be addressed as soon as feasible for the economy's general growth.

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