



Munich Personal RePEc Archive

The role of household income and public provision of social services in satisfaction of basic needs in Pakistan: A cross district analysis

Siddiqui, Rizwana

Pakistan Institute of DEvelopment Economics

2007

Online at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/4409/>

MPRA Paper No. 4409, posted 10 Aug 2007 UTC

The Role of Household Income and Public Provision of Social Services in Satisfaction of Basic Needs in Pakistan: A Cross District Analysis

Rizwana Siddiqui*

Abstract

Is household income enough for human development or government should heed to direct provision of social services to improve capabilities of individual. The former emphasized by the World Bank and later by the UNDP. This paper tests the argument by estimating a basic need policy model for Pakistan using cross district data. The results are consistent with the view that government provision of social services affects human capabilities significantly. However, the ultimate constraints on the sustainable capability development are material resources.

I. Introduction

Since Pakistan came into being, lack of opportunities has been an acute socio-economic problem. In 1970 about 25 million people lived in income poverty whereas 42 million suffered from the poverty of basic human opportunities in health, education and material well being. Over the years its acuteness in relation to the other variables has accentuated despite significant economic growth and the generous foreign assistance ¹[UNDP (1999), Hussain (2003)]. However, wide variation across regions of Pakistan can be observed from district level statistics of Pakistan. It shows that some areas have achieved the level of developed countries but some areas lagged far behind. For instance, infant mortality rate (IMR) [a measure of satisfaction of four basic needs (Goldstein, 1985, and Hicks and Streeten, 1985)] was 32 per thousand live births in Islamabad compared to 98 per 1000 live births in Sargodha, in 1998-99. Similarly, literacy rate was very high in Islamabad, 91.3 per cent and very low in Layyah, 20 per cent. Layyah is also very poor in terms of income poverty with 91 percent of its population consuming less than the income required to fulfil their basic needs. In this situation, there is an urgent need to find effective remedial measures to build the basic human capabilities to bring districts with poor performance closer to the level of the districts with extremely good ones.

Among various approaches, 'Basic Need' approach is seen as a more direct route to raise the capabilities of the poor. The approach defines deprivation not in terms of income but in terms of inability to meet the certain basic human needs that are defined by the hunger and

*Rizwana Siddiqui is a Research Economist at the Pakistan Institute of Development Economics, Islamabad.

¹ During the last twenty years, government expenditure on education and health varies between 1 to 4 percent of GDP.

malnutrition, ill health, lack of education, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, and the decent housing² [Goldstein, 1985 and Hicks and Streeten, 1985]. The critical question is: how Pakistan can achieve the goal of human development(or satisfaction of basic needs): through growth oriented policies or through public provision of social services? The rout may vary by district due to difference in level of the development in base year and variation in socioeconomic indicators.

In the literature, two approaches the growth and the public provision of social services particularly basic health and education in the development of human capabilities are widely discussed³. The former emphasized by the World Bank⁴ and later by the UNDP⁵. World Bank emphasizes on maximization of the production with a view that a large volume of output per head increases capabilities of the people and enhances human well being as the people in rich regions have more access to the basic health and education facilities and more choices to lead a full and productive life compared to the people living in the poor region. South Korea is a good example of these policies. Whereas UNDP emphasizes on the public provision of social services and seen it as a direct attack on human poverty. The proponents of this approach give a number of reasons to follow this approach. First, people are not sufficiently knowledgeable about their health and nutrition and therefore not spend incremental income wisely. Second, there is a serious skewed distribution of incomes within a household, which could be overcome only through direct provision of the goods and services. For example, female education can be increased by constructing more public schools for girls near their houses. Third, some basic need can only be met through public provisions such as sanitation facilities and to some extent safe drinking water. Fourth, the public provision of these facilities are expected to help all people equally, while focusing on the growth oriented policies such as increasing labour skill and their productivity or employment opportunities benefit a certain group of people not all. A comparison of socio economic indicators of the developing countries showed that the government program had played a pivotal role in the improvement in infant mortality rate. For instance, in Sri Lanka half of the reduction in IMR is due to anti malaria program of the government [Hanmer, *et al*]. However, no body (including World Bank and UNDP) deny the importance of economic growth⁶ as resource-constraint has been a major reason for the low

² Housing means decent shelter, which have sanitation facilities and safe drinking water.

³ Hanmer et al(2003), White, 1999, Sen, 1997, UNDP, 1996, Siddiqui, 1995, WB, 1995 and 1990, Griffin and McKinley, 1994, Anand and Ravallion, 1993, Kanbur, 1987, Hicks, 1979, etc

⁴ See Christiaensen.*et al*, 2002, Alwang *et al*, 2002, Worldbank 1990.

⁵ United Nation Development Program

⁶ In Zimbabwe, it is found that individuals invested in human capital but the economy did not create the types and quantities of jobs to reward

public investment in the social sectors in the developing countries.

Before exploring the role of household income and public provision of social service in capability development, understanding the poverty creating mechanism is necessary in order to devise an effective solution at the district level. Therefore, the objective of the study is two fold. First, using micro household survey data, the study estimates head count ratio of poverty, inequality, literacy rates and a number of indices for public provision of social services at the districts level⁷. These indicators help us to understand the reasons why a district has achieved the level of a developed country while the others are lagging behind. In what ways do the some districts with exceptionally good human development contrast with those with exceptionally bad one, etc. Second it develops a simple basic need policy model to explore the routes to the capabilities development. The results of the study can be used to develop effective anti poverty strategies.

The plan of the study is as follows. Section II describes data sources. A basic need policy model is developed in section III, along with a number of socio economic indicators , which have been used as input in the model. Major finding based on descriptive statistics and estimated model are reported in two subsections-a and b- of section IV. Final section concludes identifying the need at the district level.

II. Data and Methodology

The data is assembled at the district level for the four provinces of Pakistan, Punjab, Sindh, NWFP, and Balochistan. The distinction among districts located in the rural and the urban areas is also made to capture the rural/urban differences. Initially we have 107 districts from four provinces of Pakistan. Some districts are excluded from the analysis due to data limitation. The present analysis is based on 78 districts(distinguished by rural and urban), 39 from the urban (24 from Punjab, 5 from Sindh, 7 from NWFP, 3 from Balochistan) and 39 from the rural (24 from Punjab, 6 from Sindh, 7 from NWFP, 2 from Balochistan). The sample is dominated by Punjab [being a largest province] and more districts from the provinces other than Punjab are dropped due to unavailability of consistent data set and due to data problem such as misreporting. Various sources have been used to gather data at the district level, i.e.,

this investment. Resultantly, returns to human capital declined substantially and cannot reduce poverty. On the other hand, the relationship between physical assets ownership and well being remained constant(Alwang *et al.* 2002). Whereas, case of Sri Lanka's indicates that progress in human development can be achieved through government intervention independent of economic growth(Anand and Ravallion, 1993).

⁷ When district level data is not available, we used stratum-which include more than one district. However, variables are defined on per capita basis.

Pakistan Socio Economic Survey⁸ (PSES) (Pakistan, 1998-99), Pakistan Integrated Household Survey-(PIHS) (Pakistan, 1998-99). The socio-economic indicators of provinces are taken from Census data –1998 (Pakistan, 2002a, b, c, d) and Mahmood (2003).

Government expenditures on public provision of education, health services, water supply, and sanitation facilities at the district level are not easily available. In order to get an idea of public provision of social services at the district level, input indicators called public policy indicators (PPI) have been developed to portray the level of public provision of social services; education, health, water and sanitation facilities. This information is not available from PSES. It has been taken from HIES-1998-99 (Pakistan, 1999) for the rural areas and from socio-economic indicators⁹(Pakistan, 2001) for Pakistan. Using these two sources of data, information for urban areas has been extracted. Infant mortality rates at the district level are taken from a study by Mahmood (2003). He has estimated IMR from Population Census conducted in March 1998 at the districts level in the rural and the urban areas of Pakistan.

a. Monetary Variables

1. *Households' income per capita (Y_{PCH})*. Y_{PCH} is total household income of a district divided by its population.

2. *Poverty (POV)*: Poverty is perceived in terms of income. It is measured by head count ratio using basic need poverty line i.e., percentage of population consuming less than income required to satisfy their basic needs.

3. *Basic Need Poverty Line*: Poverty lines for the rural and the urban areas for the year 1989-90 are taken from Siddiqui and Kemal¹⁰ (2006) and updated for the year 1998-99 after adjusted for inflation. Poverty lines are Rs. 8464 and Rs 7017 per year per person for the urban and the rural areas¹¹, respectively.

4. *Inequality (Gini)*: Differences in income measure difference in opportunities for reducing poverty. Gini coefficients measure inequality within a specific region. Poverty and

⁸ PSES is conducted by Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS) in 1998-99 under MIMAP project of Pakistan Institute of Development of Economics. It consists of all urban and rural areas of the four provinces of Pakistan. The sampled households covered during 1998-99 are 3564 (2268 rural and 1296 urban). It provides information on income, consumption, labour force, education, and health etc. To keep consistency in variables, majority of variables are taken from PSES.

⁹ Socio economic indicators at the district level are developed by Federal Bureau of Statistics and Provincial Bureau of Statistics jointly. This is the first attempt of compilation of socio-economic indicators at the district level.

¹⁰ For detailed methodology to estimate poverty line (see Siddiqui and Kemal, 2006).

¹¹ Ideally poverty line should be adjusted for various regions to reduce regional bias due to variation in prices across the region. And also because people living in mountain areas need more calories from food and use more fuel to cope with the cold temperature. Thus using same poverty line for all areas may over estimate or under estimate poverty (Chakrabarty, 2003). The use of poverty line estimated on the basis of the averages for the rural and urban areas may under estimate incidence of poverty.

inequality is calculated on the basis of PSES-1999 using DAD program (Duclos, 2001).

b. Non-Monetary Variables

Two non-monetary variables, infant mortality rate (IMR) and literacy rate (LR), are used to reflect aggregates of individual capabilities.

5. *Infant Mortality Rate (IMR)* is defined as infant death rate per 1000 live births. It reflects satisfaction of at least four basic needs (Goldstein (1985)) and considered the best indicator to measure the capabilities development.

6. *Literacy Rate (LR)*: It measures educational status (stock) of a district. It is defined as the ratio of literate persons to the population of 10 years and above.

Both IMR and LR are bounded variables. Once a direction of the relationship is established, beyond some point they become indeterminate. For example, LR cannot go beyond 100 percent. In the model it is assumed that targeted values of IMR and LR are 5 per thousand live births (minimum level of IMR a country has achieved) and 100 percent, respectively. A non linear transformation of the infant mortality rate $-\log (IMR-5)$ measures proportionate gap between the actual and the desired level of capabilities. Similarly, $\log (100-LR)$ measures the proportionate gap between target of 100 percent literacy rate and actual literacy rate in a district.

7. *Female Education*: Female literacy rate and mothers education in number of years of schooling are also calculated from PSES-survey and included among other explanatory variables. The empirical literature suggest that mother's education and infant mortality rate are negatively associated (Sathar. Z. A, 1987, Shehzad, (2003)). However, there is some evidence that this variable is not significant for the countries, where females are less empowered (Kabeer, 2003). It is included among other explanatory variables to evaluate its impact on capability development in case of Pakistan.

8. *Public Policy Indicators (PPI)*: Three input indicators have been developed to portray the level of public provision of social services; 'education', 'health', and 'water and sanitation' facilities. They measure the level of public investment in education, health units, supply of clean water and sanitation facilities. A brief description of these indicators is given below.

8a. *Public provision of education*: Paper focuses on the primary education only because study assumes that basic education is a necessary condition for the development of human

capabilities¹². Budget allocation among various sectors is important as well as budget within the sector is important in determining the development of human capabilities of the poor. If a large portion of budget for education is allocated to the tertiary or university education rather than primary education. Such pattern is likely to be biased against the poor segmentation of population. Therefore, primary enrolment and number of primary school are taken as indicators of public provision of basic education.

The number of public/primary schools in a district determines the level of government investment in primary education in absolute term. While, primary school age population per school in a district determines the size of public investment in primary school relative to their needs. To some extent it also indicates the quality of education, as population per school rises, the standard of education is expected to decline.

8b. *Public Provision of health facilities (PPH)*: Population per health units and population per bed are used as proxies to measure the size of health facilities per district provided by the government. The indicators are constructed by giving different weights to various health facilities, highest to hospital and lowest to other health units. The ratio of population to aggregate number of health facilities determines the population per unit of health facilities.

8c. *Public Provision of water supply and sanitation facilities (PPWS)*: Three indicators for public provision of water and sanitation facilities are constructed: 1) availability of tap water (PPTW), 2) availability of two types of sanitation facilities, covered (CSEW) and open (OSEW), 3) availability of government services to collect garbage.

First, a dummy variable “D” is defined as D=1 if facility exists in a district then weighted by the percentage of population using that facility. Primarily, separate indicators for each facility are developed by measuring percentage of population using the facility. Then indicators have been integrated to develop a composite indicator by taking average of PPTW, CSEW, OSEW.

Three variables described in the sections, 8a to 8c determine policies adopted by the government at the district level. Each index is divided by their respective highest value and multiplied by 100. The ratio varies between ‘0’ and ‘100’. It provides a measure of disparities across the district. The closer the value of index to ‘100’ the minimum is the disparity from developed district. However, a large disparity in income and in public provision across the districts tends to coexist with under investment in human capital that translates into lower welfare

¹² Thus primary education is primarily focussed.

indicators such as IMR and literacy rate.

III. Basic Need Policy Model

The satisfaction of the basic needs reflects [in aggregates] individual capabilities such as live long and healthy life, acquire knowledge, have enough resources to buy food and other necessities. Empirical studies measure individual's capabilities by various indicators such as infant mortality rate (IMR), life expectancy (LE) and literacy rate (LR) etc [Goldstein, 1985, Annand and Ravallion, 1993, Kanbur, 1987, Hicks, 1979, Hanmer *et al* (2003)].

Let a set of capabilities 'B' defined over capability indicators IMR, LE, and LR.

$$B = [IMR , LE , LR]$$

First indicator —infant mortality rate (IMR) — is considered the best welfare indicator among other. Because it measures availability of at least four basic needs (Goldstein (1985)) i.e., an outcome variable of inputs- health and nutrition. Infants are very sensitive to water born diseases. Thus, it is a good indicator of availability of clean water too. Second capability development indicator is literacy rate (LR). It indicates accumulation of the knowledge. Third indicator is life expectancy, which is highly correlated with IMR. The decline in infant death rate accompany by an increase in life expectancy at birth. Due to unavailability of data, it is dropped from the set of capabilities development indicators¹³.

The next question is which rout should be followed for capabilities development, growth proposed by the World Bank or the public provision of social services proposed by the UNDP. Both of them do not deny the importance of the other as income is one of the many options that people would like to have to buy basic necessities. First we assume that satisfaction of basic needs or capability development is a function of income, an equation is defined in log form as follows.

$$(1) \quad \text{Log} (B_i) = \alpha + \beta \text{Log} (Y_{HPC_i})$$

Here Bis measured in terms of gap between actual and desired level of capability indicators such as IMR and LR, Y_{HPC} = household per capita income, i = Districts

¹³ The conclusion about life expectancy can be drawn on the basis of the results for IMR.

A negative sign of β indicates that economic growth expands the human capabilities directly. It increases individual's command over goods and services such as food, health, education that ultimately reduces IMR- an indication of development of individuals' capabilities. This view is based on the assumption of equal distribution of income. At the second stage income distribution variable-GINI- coefficient is included in the equation based on the view that not only growth but growth with equal distribution is important.

$$(2) \quad \text{Log}(Bi) = \alpha + \beta \text{Log}(Y_{HPC_i}) + \delta \text{GINI}$$

Another view is that relationship between income per capita and capability development is steepest at low income and flat beyond some point (Annand and Ravallion, 1993). This suggests that social outcomes can only be improved significantly if income poverty is reduced. Therefore, they suggest that the relationship between income and capability development should be tested empirically after controlling for incidence of absolute poverty measured by the head count ratio. Thus equation-1 is extended by including poverty estimates measured by percentage of the population consuming less than the income required for satisfaction of the basic needs.

$$(3) \quad \text{Log}(Bi) = \alpha + \beta \text{Log}(Y_{HPC_i}) + \gamma \text{Log}(POV_i)$$

Where POV stands for FGT index of poverty - head count ratio

If β ceases to be significantly different from zero and γ turns out to be statistically significant, then it can be concluded that it is not growth in income that is important but reduction in poverty help to achieve the goal of capabilities development.

The model is further extended by including public provision of social services to explore the answer to the crucial question: Does the relationship between income and IMR or poverty and IMR coexist with public provision of social services? This hypotheses is tested by re-estimating the equation-1. It includes indicators of public provision of social services such as population per health unit, the number of schools, primary enrolment, and the provisions of sanitation and supply of clean water facilities. Here model postulates that Bi depends not only on individual's command over the goods measured in terms of per capita income (Y_{HPC}),

poverty reduction, but also on the public provision of social services (PPI_j). The relationship is tested estimating the following equation.

$$(4) \quad \text{Log}(Bi) = \alpha_i + \beta_1 \text{Log}(Y_{HPC_i}) + \beta_2 \text{Log}(POV_i) + \beta_{4i} \sum_{j=1}^3 \text{Log}(PPI_j)$$

Where PPI = Public Policy Index for Government provided social services, and i stands for districts and j stands for various indicators for Public provision of social services, education, health, sanitation facilities and clean water supply

If the relationship between IMR and income or/and IMR and poverty vanishes in the presence of public provision of the social services that suggests that public provision of the health services is the main force behind the capability development. However, income plays an important role in the development of individuals' capabilities as growth not only raises household income but also increase government revenue. Public provision of social services depends on the available resources. The link between government provided social services and income per capita rests largely on the assumption that increase in income of a district contributes to GDP growth, which provides resources for social expenditure. An equation for public provision of social services at the district level is defined as a function of per capita income of district to test the hypotheses that income is a necessary if not sufficient condition for capabilities development.

$$(5) \quad \text{Log}(PPI_{ik}) = C_0 + C_1 \text{Log}(Y_{HPC})$$

k = Education, health, water and sanitation facilities

The primary enrolment and the number of primary schools in a region are included as indicators of public provision of basic education. Population per health unit are used to measure health facilities at the district level. Separate equations are estimated for health and education services as a function of income per capita. Lastly an equation for safe drinking water and sanitation facilities is also estimated.

In the literature, education is the most important single variable. Evidence from the empirical studies reveals that social returns from female education are higher in terms of

reduced fertility, reduced infant mortality, lower school dropout rates or high literacy rates, (Sathar, 1987) etc. Here, mothers' literacy rate/mothers' education measured in number of years of schooling are also included among other explanatory variables. Other variables such as quality of public provision measured by primary school age population per primary school, the ratio of female literacy to male literacy rates have been included in the model during the estimation procedure.

Next it is assumed that not only income but capabilities development also work to reduce income poverty¹⁴. Lower capabilities cause higher poverty and vice versa. Therefore, a poverty equation is defined as follows

$$(6) \quad \text{Log}(POV_i) = P_0 + P_1 \text{Log}Y_{HPC_i} + P_2 \text{Log}(IMR_i - 5)$$

Model is estimated by two stage least square (2SLS) method with two types of explanatory variables, monetary and non-monetary.

IV. Results

First, socio-economic status of districts is discussed. The variation in socio economic indicators across the district within a province and differences across the provinces is an indicative of regional disparities in quality of life. Second section focuses on regression results of the model.

a. Socio-Economic Indicators by Districts

Ranking of district in each province with respect to socio economic indicators is given Table 1 Appendix I. The results in the table reveal that some districts have achieved high level of capabilities reflected in low mortality rate and high literacy rate accompanied by very low income poverty [see Table 1 in Appendix 1]. These districts also have large public facilities. For instance, 'Islamabad', the capital of Pakistan, which comes at rank 1 with respect to (w.r.t) IMR and at rank 2 w.r.t income poverty. Other indicators of public provision of social services also show that Islamabad ranks very high with respect to public provision of social services such as population per school, population per health unit, sewerage facilities. It has 91.3

¹⁴ Income poverty and 'how can it be reduced in the country where 32 percent population, about 45 million people, do not have enough income to satisfy their basic needs has been the focus of many development policies of the country.

percent literacy rate with 93 and 90.4 percent literacy rate for male and female, respectively. On the other hand, some districts have been left far behind such as ‘Layyah’ - a poorest district in rural Punjab. It has more than ninety percent population below poverty line and 20 percent literacy rate.

If we compare results in urban areas, a wide disparity across the districts is evident from the aggregates of individual capabilities as well as from income based poverty. Table 1 in Appendix I reveals that in urban areas of Punjab, status of Rawalpindi is very high wrt to all indicators. Whereas, Vehari has a very low status. It has very high IMR with low per capita income(comes in lowest 20 percent). It also shows that a large proportion of population is below poverty line. However, literacy rate is not very low that can be attributed to larger facilities of public provision of education in urban areas. Here it seems that the only constraint to their welfare is income. Increase in employment opportunities via growth enhancing policies would help to improve standard of living.

In urban areas of Sindh, Dadu, Karachi and Hyderabad comes in the upper group, while Khairpur and Nawabshaw stands at lower group based on all indicators except income inequality. Income inequality is highest in Karachi.

Urban area of NWFP shows that infant mortality rate is not very high in any district. This can be attributed to availability of clean water from natural resources¹⁵. However, income poverty is high in majority of districts, highest in Lower Dir and relatively low in DIKhan and Peshawar. Other indicators also reflects the same status[Table 1 in Appendix I].

‘Kalat’ a district in Balochistan shows very low mortality rate with low income per capita and high incidence of poverty. Here, low IMR can be attributed to provision of public health facilities¹⁶.

The overall results for urban areas show that the highest incidence of poverty in terms of income is in NWFP, 58.7 % population below poverty line. But capability aggregates (IMR) shows that poverty is highest in Punjab, 90 infant deaths per thousand live births in Vehari. With reference to literacy rate, it is lowest in Sindh with 67.9 percent literacy rate and highest in one district of Balochistan with only 41.9 percent literate population.

In the rural areas, districts ‘Sheikhupura’, ‘Peshawar’ and ‘Sibi’ show achievements level equal to the urban areas. But the results are hard to explain. First two districts show low per capita income, high absolute poverty, and poor public provisions, we cannot explain the

¹⁵ This is area where clean water availability is high from natural resources.

¹⁶ In the absence of enough representation, results for Balochistan may be biased.

reason of such a low mortality rates. This may be due to data misreporting or due to availability of clean water from natural resources.

In rural areas of Punjab, Sargodha shows very high mortality rate. Here, sewerage and tap water facilities seem to be the major problem. High mortality rate in Muzzaffargarh and Bahawalnagar can be explained by a number of factors such as very low per capita income, very high absolute poverty and very poor water supply and sewerage system. On the other hand Sheikhpura and Gujranwala have high per capita income, but poor public provision of social services. High IMR can be attributed to poor public services.

In rural areas of Sindh, Shikarpur show very low IMR but very high income poverty. On the other hand Hyderabad shows highest IMR but lowest income poverty within rural areas of Sindh. Both districts show very poor public provision of social services. But literacy rate is higher in the former than the latter. In rural areas of NWFP, the lowest rank of sewerage system shows poor quality of services, Peshawar shows lowest IMR and income poverty, whereas DIKhan shows highest IMR and highest income poverty. Other socio economic indicators also confirm their position in NWFP. Former district show better public provision and literacy rate than latter.

It can be seen from table 1 in appendix I that in rural areas of Balochistan Sibi is relatively in better position than Kalat. The ranking of these two districts remains the same based on all socio economic indicators. However, this needs to be explored further as we have only two district from rural areas of Balochistan.

Overall results shows, in rural areas, sewerage system is very poor after that availability tap water seems to be the problem. Other indicators of public provision of social services also reveal low level of public investment. But some districts in rural areas have achieved the level of urban districts. However, some groups of population especially living in remote areas have been left far behind. But it is found that public provision of social services [education and health] can play important role to help households.

Table 2 in Appendix I reports descriptive statistics of various indicators such as infant mortality rate, literacy rate (total), female literacy rate, mother's education, poverty and inequality along with various measures of public provision of social services for rural and urban areas. Table shows that there is considerable variation within and across provinces. The results show that larger income as well as capability inequality occurs in Punjab in both rural and urban areas. The table shows that highest income inequality exist in districts of Punjab in both rural and urban areas, 0.9 and 0.6, respectively. Highest and lowest literacy rates are also in the

districts in urban areas of Punjab., whereas in rural areas highest literacy rate is in Punjab and lowest in NWFP, 76.5 and 12.9 percent, respectively. A large disparity in the area of health exists in urban areas of Sindh, but disparity is higher for a district in NWFP in rural areas, which is reflected in population per health units and population per bed. The composite index of supply of tap water, garbage collection and sanitation facilities are lowest in Balochistan. The index also shows largest disparity in public provision of tap water and sanitation facilities in Balochistan reflected in standard deviation of this index.

The overall results indicate wider inequality with respect to poverty and inequality in terms of income as well as in terms of capabilities occurs in districts of Punjab. But inequality in public provision of water and sanitation facilities is higher in Balochistan and rural areas of Sindh. Inequality in public provision of health services is higher among the districts of rural NWFP. From this government can deduce the targeted areas for specific investment such as in health, education and sanitation facilities and develop an effective poverty reduction strategy.

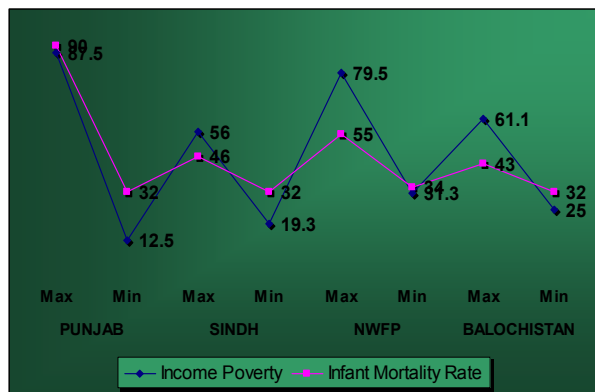


Figure 1. Income Poverty Vs Capability aggregates

Figure 1 shows that both variables, aggregate of human capabilities (IMR) and income poverty move together. But this is not clear from the figure 1 what is cause and what is effect. The answers to this question come in the next section.

B. Results of the Basic Need Model

A non-linear transformation of IMR- $\log(\text{IMR}-5)$, a measure the proportionate gap between the actual and the desired level- is regressed against the log of mean income of districts. The results show that one percent rise in per capita income of households reduces the gap

between actual and targeted value of IMR by 0.6 percent. The result suggests that higher the per capita income of a district, the more likely it is that its population would be healthy and able to enjoy a full, long, and healthy life. This result indicates that the constraints on mortality decline are those of material resources. It suggests that economic growth, a key to human development, should be focused to promote human development in poor districts of Pakistan. But question is: does the relationship co-exist with poverty and public provision variables?

At the next stage, relationship between income and capability development is empirically tested controlling either for the incidence of absolute poverty measured by the head count ratio or by the public provision of social services. First, equation-1 is extended by including log of poverty index (head count ratio) on the right hand side. The results reveal that the relationship between per capita income and capabilities development vanishes when we control for poverty (see results for equation 2 in column 2 of table 1). The coefficient of $\log(Y_{HPC})$, in fact reverses the sign and it ceases to be significantly different from zero. Thus, it is concluded that it is not growth in income but reduction in poverty that should be focused to achieve the goal of capabilities development. It suggests that social outcome can only be improved significantly if income poverty is reduced.

The next question is: Does the relationship persist after inclusion of public provision of social services? The model is extended to explore the answer to this crucial question by including indicators developed in previous section for public provision of social services; population per health units. After inclusion of this variable, the relationship between 'IMR and income' and 'IMR and poverty' vanishes. The results of this equation suggest that the public provision is the main force behind capability development in Pakistan¹⁷. Sri Lanka is a good example of it, which has followed this route and achieved remarkable improvement in social outcome (Annad and Ravallion, 1993). At the second stage other indices of public provision such as covered sanitation facilities and availability of tap water are also included in the equation. The results show that as percentage of population using covered sanitation facilities rises, infant mortality rate falls. This again indicates the importance of public provision in the satisfaction of basic needs. The role of female education is often found to be a significant variable to raise welfare of household. Boehmer and Williamson, 1996. showed that female status "the control over resources" significant mediating variable. However, in this study, female education comes out insignificant. It is an indication of disempowerment and low status of women in Pakistan. Hobcraft *et al*

¹⁷ Some countries like Sri Lanka has followed this route and achieved remarkable improvement in social outcome(Annad and Ravallion, 1993)

(1984, 1985) and recent work by Desai and Alva (1998) also found that this variable is significant only for few countries. However, this needs to be explored further.

Table 1
Results of ‘Basic Need Policy Model’

Variables	Ln(IMR-5) Equation 1	Ln(IMR-5) Equation 2	Ln(IMR-5) Equation 3	Ln(IMR-5) Equation 4	Ln(IMR-5) Equation 5	Ln(100-LR) Equation 6	Ln(100-LR) Equation 7	Ln(Population /Health Unit) Equation 8	Ln(No of Primary Schools) Equation 9	Ln(POV) Equation 10
Constant	9.51 (5.01)	0.22 (0.11)	-5.08 (0.48)	3.80 (4.07)	1.82 (2.74)	21.32 (4.81)	6.2 (4.89)	42.4 (4.32)	-7.92 (2.11)	6.50 (7.71)
Ln(Y _{hpc})	-0.62 (2.90)	0.14 (0.98)	0.58 (0.66)	-0.07 (-0.71)		-1.95 (4.44)	-0.09 (0.59)	-3.64 (3.33)	1.49 (3.56)	-0.4 (5.09)
Ln(Pov)		0.61 (3.07)	0.72 (1.10)		0.33 (2.37)					
Ln(No of Primary Schools)							-0.49 (3.79)			
Ln(POP/ School)							-0.22 (3.0)			
Ln(POP/ Health Unit)			0.08 (2.35)	0.07 (2.22)	0.06 (2.07)					
CSEWI				-0.004 (2.26)	0.004 (0.8)					
Ln(Female Literacy Rate)				-0.04 (0.76)	0.05 (0.96)					
Ln (IMR)							0.20 (1.4)			0.33 (3.63)
Ln(Mothers Education)										-0.19 (3.14)
F-Statistic	8.7	8.08	6.11	5.7	7.6	16.11	9.84	11.06	12.67	31.94
R ²	0.09	0.16	0.16	0.20	0.26	0.16	0.31	0.12	0.13	0.55

- Head count
- Value in Parentheses are t-statistics
- CSEWI Index for covered sewerage system

A similar test is applied to other indicators of human development-literacy rate [LR]. The results are similar to the results with IMR. The results again suggest that income per capita affect literacy rate very significantly in the absence of the indicator of social services; i.e., one percent increase in mean income of district reduce the proportionate gap between desired literacy rate (100 %) and the actual literacy rate by two percent. But after inclusion of quantity and quality variables of public provision measured by number of primary schools and primary school age population per schools, respectively, the relationship between LR and per capita income of district disappears. The coefficients of quantity as well as quality variables are significantly different from zero [Table 1]. The results again confirm that the public provision is the main force behind capability development in Pakistan. Here, mothers education is found to affect literacy rate significant that can be attributed to the fact that literacy rate also include educated women. All these results show that direct impact of income on human development disappears in presence of public provision of social services. Should we conclude that growth does not play any role in capability development?

Before concluding this, the study explores answer to the question: Are the provision of social services sustainable in the absence of growth? The case of Sri Lanka shows that it is not sustainable without growth, while South Korea is a good example of growth oriented policies. In this study this is tested by estimating more equations. Assuming that higher income per capita of a district implies that it contributes more to overall growth of the country; indices for public provisions are regressed on per capita income of districts. The results suggest that income does affect human development through indirect channel, affecting public provisioning of social services positively. For a sustainable development growth is a necessary condition to provide resources for investment in social sector. Earlier results[Equations 1 to Equation 7] suggest that public assistance promote human development, independent of what is happening to incomes. But the results of equation (8 and 9) confirm presence of the indirect impact of income on capabilities development. It provides resources to government for investment. From this we can conclude that growth is necessary if not sufficient condition for capabilities development.

Last equation is estimated to show the route to reduce income poverty in Pakistan. The equation is estimated with poverty as a dependent variable and capabilities development indicators (IMR), income per capita and mothers' education as explanatory variables. The coefficient of income per capita is very strong leading to the view that increase in income per capita lead to lower absolute poverty. Capability development also affects poverty negatively and significantly. From this it can be concluded that human poverty is a cause of income poverty not the result. Hence the country should focus on development of human capability first, which also help to reduce income poverty. This result confirms Hicks (1979) argument that satisfaction of basic needs raise productivity.

V. Conclusions

The study shows that aggregate statistics at the national or provincial level hides region specific reasons of poverty and inequalities. The analysis reveals that some districts/strata have achieved high level of development with very low mortality rate, high literacy rate and low income poverty with large public provision of social services such as Islamabad-the capital of Pakistan. But some districts have been left far behind such as 'Layyah'- a district in rural Punjab. The variations in these indicators across the districts within a province and across the provinces are an indicative of the regional needs where improvement can be made. It can be in terms health facilities, education, tap water or sanitation facilities to improve quality of life.

Deleted: t

The results show that inequality in public provision of water and sanitation facilities is higher in Balochistan and in the rural areas of Sindh. Inequality in the public provision of health services is higher among the districts of rural NWFP. The analysis can help us to devise capabilities development strategy at the district level. For instance, government should give preference to invest in water and sanitation facilities in Balochistan and Sindh, Whereas NWFP need increase in health facilities to improve their condition.

The results of basic need policy model suggest that public provision of social services play an important role in capabilities development that lead to decline in income poverty. Therefore, public spending directed to social sector programs would help to reduce poverty effectively. Government should design its anti poverty strategy taking full consideration of region specific deprivations. Otherwise, poverty will continue to linger if not worsen. The study concludes that major constraint on the capability development is resource availability. Therefore, growth is necessary, but it may not be sufficient to achieve the goals of human development without directing the increase resources towards social sector.

REFERENCES

- Alwang, J, B. F. Mills, and N. Taruvinga (2002), "Why has Poverty Increased in Zimbabwe", Poverty Dynamics in Africa. World Bank, Washington, D. C. USA.
- Annand, S and M. Revallion (1993), "Human Development in Poor Countries: On the Role of Private Incomes and Public Services", *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, vol 7, No 1, p 133-150.
- Caldwell, John C. (1986), "Routs to Low Mortality in Poor Countries" *Population and Development Review*, 12:2 p 171-191.
- Chakrabarty, G. (2003), "Income Inequality and Material Well Welfare" Commonwealth Publisher, Delhi, India.
- Christiaensen. L, L. Demery, and S. Paternostro (2002), "Growth, Distribution, and Poverty in Africa", The World Bank, Washington, D.C. USA.
- Duclos JY., A. Araar et Carl Fortin (2001), 'DAD-4: A Software for Distributional Analysis /Analyse Distributive, MIMAP Program', International Development Research Centre, Government of Canada and CREFA, University of Laval, Canada.
- Goldstein, J. S. (1985), "Basic Human Needs: The Plateau Curve," *World Development*, 13:5,p 595-609.
- Griffin. K and T. McKinley (1994), "Implementing Human Development Strategy" Macmillon Press Ltd. UK.
- Hicks, Norman (1979), "Growth vs Basic Needs: Is There a Trade-Off" *World Development*, vol: 7, p 985-994.
- Hussain. Akmal. (2003), "Pakistan, National Human Development Report, 2003: Poverty Growth and Governance", UNDP, Pakistan,
- Hanmer. L, R. Lensink, and H. White (2003)"Infant and Child Mortality in Developing Countries: Analysing the Data for Robust Determinants", An unpublished paper, A part of study prepared for Cida.
- Kabeer, N. (2003) 'Gender Mainstreaming in Poverty Eradication and the Millenniums Development Goals: A Handbook for Policy-makers and other Stakeholders' Commonwealth secretariat, IDRC, Canada.
- McCulloch. N, and B Baulch (1999), "Distinguishing the Chronically from the Transitory Poor: Evidence from Pakistan", Working Paper 97, Poverty Research Programme, IDS, UK.

Mahmood. Arshad (2003), "Estimates of Mortality" in Population of Pakistan: An Analysis of 1998 Population and Housing Census, ed by A. R. Kemal, M. Irfan, N. Mahmood, Published by Pakistan Institute of Development Economics, Islamabad and UNFPA.

Pakistan, Government of (1999), "Pakistan Integrated Economic Survey" Federal Bureau of Statistics, Islamabad.

Pakistan, Government of and Pakistan Institute of Development Economics (1999) "Pakistan Socio-Economic Survey", Islamabad, unpublished.

Pakistan, Government of (2002a) "Socio-Economic Indicators at the District Level, Balochistan" Federal Bureau of Statistics, Statistics Division.

Pakistan, Government of (2002b) "Socio-Economic Indicators at the District Level, NWFP", Federal Bureau of Statistics, Statistics Division.

Pakistan, Government of (2002c) "Socio-Economic Indicators at the District Level, Punjab" Federal Bureau of Statistics, Statistics Division.

Pakistan, Government of (2002d) "Socio-Economic Indicators at the District Level, Sindh" Federal Bureau of Statistics, Statistics Division.

Sathar Z. A, (1987) "Seeking Explanation for High Levels of Infant Mortality in Pakistan", *The Pakistan Development Review*, vol. 26:1, p 55-70.

Shehzad. S. (2003), "How Can Pakistan Reduce Infant and Child Mortality Rates? Lessons from Other Developing Countries" Presented at Conference held by Sustainable Development Policy Institute in Islamabad.

Siddiqui, Rizwana (1995), "To What Extent Human Development Strategy Satisfy the Basic Needs" An unpublished paper.

Siddiqui. R. and Kemal, A.R. (Forthcoming)(2006), 'Remittances, Trade Liberalization, and Poverty in Pakistan: The Role of Excluded Variables, in Poverty Change Analysis', *The Pakistan Development Review*, 45(3).

Singh, Bishan, "People Centered Development" presented in Annual Sustainable Development Conference, Islamabad, August4-9, 1996.

UNDP (various issues) Human Development Report, Oxford, Oxford university press.

White. H (1999), "Global Poverty Reduction: are we heading in the right direction" *Journal of International Development*, 11.

World Bank (various issues), World Development Report, Washington, D.C. USA

Appendix 1: Table 1: Ranking of Different Socio Economic Indicators by District in Pakistan

Districts	Poverty	IMR	Gini	Mean Income	Literacy	Female Literacy	Population per health unit	Population per school	Sewerage	Tap water
Punjab Urban										
Islamabad	2	1	26	72	76	77	10	33	50	58
Rawalpindi	3	2	10	70	74	75	26	33	45	55
Sahiwal	20	9	14	57	59	57	20	5	41	33
Attock	1	11	5	73	73	72	15	22	46	58
Lahore	7	12	3	75	75	76	30	41	48	57
Mianwali	43	16	2	38	33	15	17	12	42	38
DGKhan	67	17	21	13	72	74	13	19	1	42
Faisalabad	11	19	32	74	44	51	38	38	26	23
Muzaffargarh	21	19	19	46	54	45	27	26	47	1
Gujrat	8	20	26	76	65	70	19	23	1	7
Multan	35	21	9	49	26	49	32	35	43	21
Kasur	25	23	21	50	50	53	28	25	27	22
Bahawalpur	31	23	13	55	67	71	36	13	40	1
Rajanpur	37	24	4	52	68	60	8	1	1	12
Bahkar	63	25	12	19	42	21	18	8	20	1
Toba Tek Singh	23	26	25	68	51	65	2	17	25	52
Jhelum	56	27	34	45	60	56	16	18	24	48
Khushab	26	29	25	36	55	52	14	30	17	53
Sialkot	15	30	22	63	70	73	24	27	29	44
Gujranwala	24	31	3	51	58	68	42	36	34	11
RahimYarKhan	66	32	15	12	45	54	23	29	37	32
Layyah	67	37	8	35	4	1	7	7	18	19
Sheikhupura	46	41	21	48	54	61	22	31	31	35
Vehari	59	50	9	16	47	47	6	21	35	40
Punjab Rural										
Islamabad	41	15	20	18	69	64	46	48	26	1
Rawalpindi	39	20	24	25	52	48	48	68	10	31
DGKhan	69	27	12	3	38	39	61	61	1	9
Faisalabad	52	28	21	21	22	30	76	57	2	14
Attock	40	31	17	28	39	35	65	73	1	1
Lahore	41	33	37	69	28	32	52	64	1	25
Jhang	47	34	30	26	16	16	75	54	5	15
Gujrat	50	35	27	8	40	45	62	76	3	1
Sialkot	32	36	18	32	49	55	71	74	1	6
Kasur	54	37	27	17	31	31	58	59	1	1
Jhelum	58	38	31	15	53	46	54	58	13	30
Sahiwal	65	39	40	78	17	27	60	72	4	13
Bahawalpur	33	40	19	31	14	29	70	60	1	4
Layyah	71	42	13	2	15	20	50	65	1	47
Multan	41	43	39	77	20	22	56	63	9	10
Khushab	41	44	9	34	19	25	59	53	1	41
RahimYarKhan	56	44	23	11	12	19	74	62	12	20
Bahkar	21	50	11	30	36	13	72	39	1	1
Gujranwala	53	50	36	54	30	42	67	77	8	3
Vehari	51	50	27	24	21	26	68	66	15	5
Sheikhupura	38	51	28	43	19	28	53	55	14	16
Muzaffargarh	68	51	16	6	8	9	78	56	6	8
Bahawalnagar	49	52	13	10	13	36	64	71	1	27
Sargodha	22	53	38	27	29	37	51	51	1	24
Sindh Urban										
Dadu	18	1	7	60	71	62	31	9	49	46
Karachi all	4	5	17	71	66	69	69	40	50	56
Hyderabad	5	6	1	64	62	67	43	24	44	54
Khairpur	30	7	7	42	61	59	33	15	32	17
Nawabshaw	12	13	3	56	57	50	34	14	30	37
Sindh Rural										

Shikarpur	60	1	12	20	46	38	57	52	1	2
Thatta	27	3	22	53	34	18	44	45	19	1
Badin	14	7	14	41	9	8	66	50	1	8
Karachi all	16	8	20	65	25	17	29	37	36	50
Nawabshah	19	10	17	40	3	3	47	46	1	1
Hyderabad	13	14	6	47	5	11	55	47	1	1
NWFP Urban										
DIKhan	9	2	13	62	56	58	9	2	33	36
Mansehra	45	3	18	44	64	63	3	4	39	45
Swat	34	4	12	37	37	44	12	16	23	34
Peshawar	29	5	23	58	43	33	21	32	21	43
Abbotabad	17	10	13	59	63	66	11	11	38	51
Mardan	61	10	10	23	41	34	25	28	1	26
Bannu	42	21	30	22	32	41	35	3	28	58
Lower Dir	57	27	36	29	11	6	63	69	1	49
NWFP Rural										
Peshawar	48	1	21	14	18	14	73	75	1	18
Mardan	64	7	39	39	35	40	49	67	1	27
Kohat	55	18	33	1	6	5	45	49	1	39
Kark	56	20	29	4	23	24	39	42	1	41
Swat	62	22	35	9	27	23	77	70	7	29
DIKhan	70	28	16	5	1	2	41	34	1	58
Balochistan Urban										
Sibi	10	1	29	67	48	43	1	6	16	58
Kalat	36	1	23	33	24	10	4	20	1	1
Makran	6	10	18	66	10	12	5	10	22	58
Balochistan Rural										
Sibi	28	1	16	61	7	7	37	43	11	28
Kalat	44	43	23	7	2	4	40	44	1	15

Table 2
Regional Difference in Selected Socio-Economic Indicators

Count	Urban Province															
	PUNJAB				SINDH				NWFP				BALOCHISTAN			
	Max	Min	Med	Std.Dev	Max	Min	Med	Std.Dev	Max	Min	Med	Std.Dev	Max	Min	Med	Std.Dev
Poverty	87.5 ()	12.5	53.8	22.7	56.0	19.3	35.7	14.9	79.5	31.3	58.7	16.4	61.1	25.0	34.5	18.7
Income per Capita	20151.2	5322.6	8527.3	4668.5	16093.5	7675.7	9482.0	3267.6	10504.6	5705.4	7905.4	1876.7	13622.8	6833.0	13170.4	3796.2
Infant Mortality Rate	90.0	32.0	58.0	13.7	46.0	32.0	39.0	5.0	55.0	34.0	38.0	7.1	43.0	32.0	32.0	6.4
Literacy Rate Of District	91.3	20.0	64.7	15.9	78.0	65.9	67.9	4.9	71.2	45.5	51.5	10.8	54.2	28.0	41.9	13.1
Father Education	10.8	1.6	5.7	2.4	10.2	5.8	6.5	1.8	6.2	3.2	5.1	1.0	4.9	0.3	1.3	2.4
Mother Education	9.0	0.0	4.0	2.3	6.8	2.5	5.4	1.6	5.3	1.7	2.9	1.3	2.7	1.0	1.0	1.0
GINI	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.1
Population	3087.1	34.1	251.7	748.2	4227.9	131.9	360.7	1740.7	841.0	29.5	83.1	289.5	96.2	67.0	84.2	14.6
Population per Health units*	2249.0	217.7	746.0	454.0	3018.4	376.0	741.3	1057.1	989.0	79.1	292.4	301.9	1711.7	456.5	1019.2	628.7
Population per bed*	30.20	0.94	4.67	6.9	82.60	103.1	16.6	30.1	17.9	0.98	2.8	5.8	1.7	0.63	1.62	0.58
TAPWATER	101.0	0.0	60.4	35.9	97.7	22.4	82.9	30.9	100.0	40.6	76.5	20.2	100.0	0.0	100.0	57.7
Garbage Collection	101.0	13.7	75.5	28.7	101.0	48.2	78.6	22.3	94.2	24.9	64.9	23.9	80.8	4.7	40.6	38.1
Covered Sanitation	100.0	0.0	39.3	32.0	101.0	32.5	81.2	32.2	65.1	1.0	28.3	21.7	24.5	1.0	12.6	11.8
Composite Public Policy Index for water and Sanitation facilities	101.0	10.2	59.9	20.0	94.0	51.3	87.2	20.1	76.8	36.6	61.4	14.6	73.7	0.0	59.0	38.4
	Rural Province															
	PUNJAB				SINDH				NWFP				BALOCHISTAN			
Poverty	91.4	50.0	70.0	10.8	78.9	36.4	45.4	16.1	89.4	69.5	75.5	6.5	67.8	55.0	61.4	9.1
Income per Capita	43832.7	3583.3	6243.2	8628.4	11147.7	5634.2	7799.3	1814.8	7405.4	3448.1	5149.5	1399.9	9793.0	4826.8	7309.9	3511.6
Infant Mortality Rate	98.0	49.0	78.5	13.0	47.0	32.0	40.5	5.3	64.0	32.0	54.0	11.8	88.0	32.0	60.0	39.6
Literacy Rate Of District	76.5	24.1	41.2	10.8	53.1	16.3	33.7	14.9	47.2	12.9	38.3	12.1	23.9	15.3	19.6	6.1
Father Education	6.8	1.8	3.4	1.3	4.4	1.3	2.6	1.5	3.8	1.3	2.8	1.0	2.8	0.0	1.9	1.3
Mother Education	3.6	0.0	1.8	0.7	1.7	1.1	1.4	0.3	2.3	0.0	1.4	0.4	1.1	0.0	1.1	0.1
GINI	0.9	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.0
Population*	2771.6	115.6	1326.5	682.3	1231.1	165.6	516.9	356.3	2084.2	169.0	1126.0	728.4	616.9	615.9	616.4	0.7
Population per Health units*	255.0	46.0	64.3	44.5	73.1	8.3	53.1	22.9	154.8	23.7	53.0	49.6	25.9	18.7	22.3	5.1
Population per bed	29.0	2.5	7.9	5.7	25.0	1.3	10.3	8.6	1732.0	6.2	115.8	686.8	4.8	3.5	4.2	0.93
TAPWATER	83.1	0.0	13.0	22.8	89.1	0.0	2.1	35.3	101.0	25.8	64.9	26.3	45.3	17.7	31.5	19.5
Garbage Collection	18.6	0.0	0.0	5.7	60.8	0.0	7.9	23.4	85.2	0.0	19.7	30.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.0
Covered Sanitation	26.0	0.0	2.0	5.8	50.8	0.0	0.0	20.0	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.7	0.0	4.9	5.4
Composite Public Policy Index for water and Sanitation facilities	29.1	0.0	13.0	7.0	49.2	0.0	10.5	17.7	39.1	20.0	30.4	6.9	18.3	6.6	12.5	8.3