

Chapter 1 : Rural poverty - Wikipedia

Rural Households in Emerging Societies: Technology and Change in Sub-Saharan Africa by Margaret Haswell and a great selection of similar Used, New and Collectible Books available now at calendrierdelascience.com

You can help by adding to it. Insufficient access to markets[edit] A lack of access to markets - whether due to poor infrastructure or productivity , limited education, or insufficient information - prevents access to both labor and capital. In many rural societies, there are few job opportunities outside of agriculture, often resulting in food and income insecurity due to the precarious nature of farming. Rural workers are largely concentrated in jobs such as owners-cultivators, tenant farmers, sharecroppers , informal care workers, agricultural day-laborers, and livestock herders. Without access to other labor markets, rural workers continue to work for extremely low wages in agricultural jobs that tend to have seasonal fluctuations and thus little income security. In addition to labor, the rural poor often lack access to capital markets and financial institutions, hindering their ability to establish savings and obtain credit that could be used to purchase working capital or increase their supply of raw materials. When coupled with scarce job opportunities, poor access to credit and capital perpetuates rural poverty. Yet there is very little evidence of anyone attempting to actually address and alleviate the problem by introducing handcarts and wheelbarrows into remote and rural areas where they would be most beneficial. Rural versus Urban Poverty--United States[edit] In the United States , where rural poverty rates are higher and more persistent than in urban areas, rural workers are disadvantaged by lower wages and less access to better paying labor markets. Moreover, the promotion of export-oriented agriculture has been linked to decreased food security for rural populations. Inadequate education regarding health and nutritional needs often results in under-nutrition or malnutrition among the rural poor. Social isolation due to inadequate roads and poor access to information makes acquiring health care and affording it particularly difficult for the rural poor, resulting in worse health and higher rates of infant mortality. There have been noted disparities in both Asia and Africa between rural and urban areas in terms of the allocation of public education and health services. A similar trend is found in access to neonatal care, as those living in rural areas had far less access to care than their urban counterparts. There are also far more malnourished children in rural areas of Africa than in urban areas. In Zimbabwe , for example, more than twice the share of children are malnourished in rural areas 34 percent rate of malnourishment than in urban areas 15 percent rate of malnourishment. Inequality between urban and rural areas, and where rural poverty is most prevalent, is in countries where the adult population has the lowest amount of education. This was found in the Sahelian countries of Burkina Faso , Mali and Niger where regional inequality is 33 percent, In each of these countries, more than 74 percent of the adults have no education. Overall, in much of Africa, those living in rural areas experience more poverty and less access to health care and education. Policies to combat rural poverty[edit] Land reform[edit] Access to land can alleviate rural poverty by providing households a productive and relatively reliable way to make an income. Achieving legislative reform and implementing redistributive policies, however, is a difficult task in many countries because land ownership is a sensitive cultural and political issue. Yet in China, for example, land redistribution policies have found some success and are associated with a reduction in rural poverty and increased agricultural growth. It also involves allowing women to have separate tenancy rights and granting women the right to claim an equal share of family land and resources upon divorce , abandonment, widowhood , and for inheritance purposes. Bangladesh[edit] Improved infrastructure in Bangladesh increased agricultural production by 32 percent through its effect on prices and access to inputs and technology. Moreover, because of increased mobility among rural households, a rise in access to social services was noted, as well as an increase in overall health. The most effective innovations are based on the active participation of small farmers, who are involved in both defining the problems and implementing and evaluating solutions. Smallholder technological developments have focused on processes such as nutrient recycling, integrated pest management, integration of crop agriculture and livestock, use of inland and marine water sources, soil conservation, and use of genetic engineering and biotechnology to reduce fertilizer requirements. Access to credit[edit] Providing access to credit and financial

services provides an entry point to improve rural productivity as well as stimulating small-scale trading and manufacturing. Increased credit helps expand markets to rural areas, thus promoting rural development. The ability to acquire credit also combats systems of bonded or exploitative labor by encouraging self-employment. Credit policy is most effective when provided in conjunction with other services such as technology and marketing training. Diversification[edit] Agricultural diversification can provide rural families with higher income and greater food security. Policies related to diversification have also focused on crop rotation to increase productivity, as well as improving the production of traditional food crops such as cassava, cowpeas, plantains, and bananas rather than promoting the growth of more precarious cash crops. These crops tend to be at the core of farming systems among the rural poor and are generally more drought resistant and can survive under poor soil conditions. Improving the productivity and marketing of these crops promotes food and income security among rural households. Requirements are based on knowledge and expertise of practice and that all nurses work within their scope of practice. The CNO is responsible for providing quality care to the public including making healthcare accessible. Barriers to Accessing Health Care[edit] For those living in rural Canada, they may face various challenges when trying to access health care. Difficulties which rural areas experience when accessing health care include long distances between health services, lack of transportation, increase amount of elderly, fewer health care providers , and limited awareness of resources available. Transportation is a significant factor that is a barrier to accessing health care. In rural areas an individual may have to travel great distances to seek medical attention, road quality may be very poor, weather conditions effecting driving, and rural areas seldom have access to public transportation. A large percentage of people over 65 have a number of comorbidities , and need regular visits to a family doctor, the cost of regular transportation to a healthcare provider can be substantial. For many living in rural poverty, financial difficulties impede a person from being able to own a vehicle. Although the Canada Health Act provides everyone with access to health care without financial obligation, people of lower socioeconomic status typically had lower education level and were less likely to seek medical advice from a health care professional. Individuals at risk for living in poverty are those with mental health issues, disabilities , single mothers, individuals suffering from addiction , and immigrants unable to speak English. The individuals seeking the assistance are left to cope on their own. Community donations and volunteers play a large role in community support remaining open to the public in rural setting. Physician Accessibility[edit] The Canadian public feel that accessing health care is perceived as poor, people wait longer periods of time to see physicians. There a few physicians available to support this population. This beings challenges as some relationships take years to develop trust with a family physician, and a bad experience with one can bring challenges when having to transfer to a new physician. There is an increase in number of those living with chronic illness, greater elder population, and fewer health care professionals available in rural communities. Although rural living can be challenging for any population, there are several groups in which are considered more vulnerable to poverty. Although single male parent families are at risk, families with a woman as the only parent are at a much greater risk. Formal education is also a challenge for rural women because of the general low income status and high cost of education. Without formal education, rural women often cannot find good paying jobs that provide stability and benefits to support their families. In order to find affordable housing for a single parent income, one must often look outside of town to more remote areas. Although housing is cheaper, the employment opportunities decrease; causing women to look for employment closer to town or within the community. Wages in rural Canada are lower than those in urban areas , which contributes to the overall lower income and poor income status among these families. For women supporting a family, the poor wages, low employment rate, high cost of living and lack of financial support are the risk factors in which increase the incidence of poverty among this population. If the children in the family attend school, transportation to school is often limited to those residing in remote areas. Providing or paying for alternative transportation for children to attend school is also an additional cost. With a more direct focus on elderly poverty, rural women over the age of 65, are found to have a much lower annual income than adults living in non-rural communities. There are several factors that put the rural elderly, especially women, at risk of poverty. Rural women over the age of 65 had the least amount of public sector funding and government

support out of all of the Canadian populations. For many, this is not enough to meet their daily living needs, let alone health care expenses and additional cost of living expenses. Although all populations are affected, the elderly experience a major negative impact. This means that other means of transportation is required; however there are very limited public transportation services available, especially for individuals living in extreme remote areas. The elderly in rural Canada often live in older, single family homes that often have larger property sizes. Maintaining a home is costly. In rural areas, public services are often hard to find and can be expensive. With the lack of services, the elderly often find they are unable to maintain their homes or perform maintenance duties. Single parent families in rural communities are more likely to have a low income and poor economical status. In addition, financial support is often not enough to ensure the children are provided with the basic essential of daily living. Children of poverty are less likely to achieve a high school diploma or a post secondary education , due to the financial strain of the family and inability to afford to get to school or to move away. Young adults in rural Canada are extremely susceptible to poverty for many additional reasons. Jobs are incredibly hard to find for young adults because of their lack of experience. Employers will often require experience in order to be a successful candidate. With the huge shortage of jobs already existing, young rural Canadians find it challenging to start their careers. There are very few post secondary institutions located in remote and rural Canada , meaning that most people would have to travel or relocate in order to attend. Furthermore, financial assistance or employment insurance is not always an option because in order to be eligible, one must obtain a specific amount of working hours. If a young adult is unable to find work, this type of assistance would be denied due to the lack of worked hours and employment. There is a massive job shortage among these reserves. With that being said, many attempt to seek employment outside of the reserves within the rural community. The cost of food and daily living supplies are more expensive in rural areas than in urban cities. Although some rural housing and land may come at a lower cost than urban areas, the maintenance and up-keep of the housing is a costly factor that contributes to poverty among aboriginals. For rural aboriginals in Canada, poverty can affect the availability as well as eliminate educational options. Some individuals find that they have to leave high school in attempt to find a job to help support their struggling families. People cannot find jobs because they do not have the educational background, but in yet their families cannot afford the cost of education. Disability is defined as a long term difficulty with daily living activities such as mobility, learning , hearing or communicating. Among the rural jobs, many of which involve physical labor and less than ideal working conditions. This contributes to the risk of poverty among rural residents, because the inability to work has a significant impact on their income. Especially for those living in rural areas, home care and home services are limited which creates a challenge for some. In addition, rural living has an increased risk of injury due to the remote locations and few health services. This also because a challenge for individuals with a disability. When looking at Canadians diagnosed with congestive heart failure being admitted to hospital, lower admission rates were found in metropolitan areas than non metropolitan areas. A visit to a metropolitan hospital costs more as they are more services such as angiography available to metropolitan citizens. Rural poverty potentiates the risk of post-op infection as well. Alcoholism , diabetes and obesity are often health outcomes related to rural poverty which makes recovering from any illness of surgery more difficult for Canadians living in rural poverty [66] Social supplementary[edit] Rural Canadians who live in poverty have a difficult time accessing care and social supports.

Chapter 2 : Rural society in China - Wikipedia

*Rural Households in Emerging Societies: Technology and Change in Sub-Saharan Africa [Margaret Haswell, Diana Hunt] on calendrierdelascience.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. The constantly changing circumstances of rural life in sub-Saharan Africa have brought with them both successes and failures.*

During the pre period, the CPC played a major role in transforming rural life in areas it influenced or controlled. A major area was land reform, where control was taken from traditional land owners and wealthy peasants, and appropriated to the state, that is, collectivized. China in the early post period saw increases in mechanization of agriculture, the spread of electricity, running water, and modern technology to rural areas. However, by the late s, much remained to be done. Mao noted that most benefits were accruing not to the rural areas, where the vast majority of Chinese still lived, and who were the ostensible focus of the revolution, but to urban centers. Identity card systems channeled unequal degrees of resources, including food rations, to urbanites and rural dwellers. The "rustication" of the Cultural Revolution failed. This mostly involved small-scale production, such as the smelting of "backyard" steel. Tens of millions were mobilised to produce a single commodity that was symbolic of industrialisation—steel. Approximately 25,000 communes were set up, each with around 5,000 households. The hope was to industrialize by making use of the massive supply of cheap labor and avoid having to import heavy machinery. Small backyard steel furnaces were built in every commune where peasants produced small nuggets of cast iron made from scrap metal. Simultaneously, peasants communities were collectivised. The Great Leap Forward is now widely seen, both within and outside China, as a major economic disaster. Peasants often abandoned farming to produce steel or work in other industrial production. The three years between and were known as the "Three Bitter Years," the Three Years of Natural Disasters although this name is now rarely used in China, and the Great Leap Famine, as the Chinese people suffered from extreme shortages of food. The period had a profound impact on the history of rural life in China. Township and Village Enterprises brought industrial production to rural areas—predominantly along the southern coasts—helping open these rural communities to greater economic prosperity. The idea of industrial production in rural areas had been attempted under Mao but with much more limited success; for instance, industrial plants in highly remote areas found their ultimate production efforts hampered. Soon, however, an imbalance appeared where northern, interior, and western China remained at a far lower degree of economic development, a situation which persists to the 21st century. However, there are multiple, complex factors contributing to this state of affairs. For instance, distances are much farther, and geography often more challenging, in western and interior regions. Population is more spread out; social structures may also play a role, in that the demographics and social structures of these regions often differ significantly from those of coastal China. At the local level, material incentives, rather than political appeals, were to be used to motivate the labor force, including allowing peasants to earn extra income by selling the produce of their private plots at free market. Not only did rural markets increase agricultural output, they stimulated industrial development as well. With peasants able to sell surplus agricultural yields on the open market, domestic consumption stimulated industrialization as well and also created political support for more difficult economic reforms. Development remains uneven, with many highly prosperous areas far outpacing deeply impoverished regions where parents have great difficulty attaining enough income to ensure their children can be sent to school, despite the already-low education fees. Indeed, educational and social imbalances are a salient feature of this uneven development. One emerging trend since at least the s is the "floating population" or "black e. Until recent developments, rural residents lacked the legal permission to resettle in urban areas without approval, yet between tens and hundred of millions did resettle in search of jobs. Many have found work, in the form of construction and other sectors with relatively low wages and benefits, and high workplace hazards. Numerous social issues have developed as a result, namely discrimination of ruralites in cities, psychological isolation of rural migrants, some of which has led to crime. In this sense, then, rural life has "entered" the cities. Lack of employment opportunities has increasingly made life in many rural regions difficult, hence the apparent enticement to resettle in urban areas. Of course, jobs are

still limited, so many do relocate in cities only to find prospects much more meager than they had expected. Statistics suggest a very high proportion of residents of rural areas are unemployed or underemployed. The development of Special Economic Zones also spurred rural growth in some parts of China. The plan includes the promotion of new types of agricultural businesses, such as family farms and organized cooperatives, and encouraging industrial and commercial enterprises to invest in agriculture. This in itself was an unprecedented display of administrative and political power. The land reform had several related goals. In pursuit of the last goal, the party work teams convened extensive series of meetings, and they classified all the village families either as landlords, rich peasants, middle peasants, or poor peasants. Communes were large, embracing scores of villages. They were intended to be multipurpose organizations, combining economic and local administrative functions. Under the commune system the household remained the basic unit of consumption, and some differences in standards of living remained, although they were not as marked as they had been before land reform. Under such a system, however, upward mobility required becoming a team or commune cadre or obtaining a scarce technical position such as being a truck driver. But the collectivized system seemed to offer few possibilities for rapid economic growth. There was some discontent with a system that relied so heavily on orders from above and made so little allowance for local conditions or local initiative. In the late 1970s, administrators in provincial-level units with extensive regions of low yields and consequent low standards of living began experimenting with new forms of tenure and production. In most cases, these took the form of breaking up the collective production team, contracting with individual households to work assigned portions of collective land, and expanding the variety of crops or livestock that could be produced. The experiments were deemed successful and popular, and they soon spread to all districts. The agricultural reforms of the early 1980s led to a confusingly large number of new production arrangements and contracts. Underlying the variability of administrative and contractual forms were several basic principles and trends. In the first place, land, the fundamental means of production, remained collective property. It was leased, allocated, or contracted to individual households, but the households did not own the land and could not transfer it to other households. The household became, in most cases, the basic economic unit and was responsible for its own production and losses. Most economic activity was arranged through contracts, which typically secured promises to provide a certain amount of a commodity or sum of money to the township government in return for the use of land, or workshops, or tractors. The goal of the contracting system was to increase efficiency in the use of resources and to tap peasant initiative. The rigid requirement that all villages produce grain was replaced by recognition of the advantages of specialization and exchange, as well as a much greater role for markets. Some "specialized households" devoted themselves entirely to production of cash crops or provision of services and reaped large rewards. The overall picture was one of increasing specialization, differentiation, and exchange in the rural economy and in society in general. Rural incomes increased rapidly, in part because the state substantially increased the prices it paid for staple crops and in part because of economic growth stimulated by the expansion of markets and the rediscovery of comparative advantage. Role of the household[edit] Decollectivization increased the options available to individual households and made household heads increasingly responsible for the economic success of their households. In 1985, for example, it was legally possible to leave the village and move into a nearby town to work in a small factory, open a noodle stand, or set up a machine repair business. Farmers, however, still could not legally move into medium-sized or large cities. The Chinese press reported an increased appreciation in the countryside for education and an increased desire for agriculturally oriented newspapers and journals, as well as clearly written manuals on such profitable trades as rabbit-raising and beekeeping. As specialization and division of labor increased, along with increasingly visible differences in income and living standards, it became more difficult to encompass most of the rural population in a few large categories. During the early 1980s, the pace of economic and social change in rural China was rapid, and the people caught up in the change had difficulty making sense of the process. Consequences of rural reform[edit] The state retained both its powers and its role in the rural economy in the 1980s. Decollectivization, like the collectivization of the 1950s, was directed from the top down. Sometimes, apparently, it was imposed on communities that had been content with their collective methods. But in permitting households and communities greater leeway to decide what to produce

and in allowing the growth of rural markets and small-scale industries, the state stepped back from the close supervision and mandatory quotas of the s and s. Decollectivization obviated the supervisory functions of low-level cadres, who no longer needed to oversee work on the collective fields. Some cadres became full-time administrators in township offices, and others took advantage of the reforms by establishing specialized production households or by leasing collective property at favorable rates. Former cadres, with their networks of connections and familiarity with administrative procedures, were in a better position than ordinary farmers to take advantage of the opportunities offered by the growth of markets and commercial activity. Village-level cadres in the mids were functioning less as overseers and more as extension agents and marketing consultants. The new, looser structure demonstrated the priority placed on efficiency and economic growth. Basic security, in the sense of an adequate supply of food and guarantees of support for the disabled, orphaned, or aged, was taken for granted. Increased specialization and division of labor were trends not likely to be reversed. In the rural areas the significance of the work unit appeared to have diminished, although people still lived in villages, and the actions of low-level administrative cadres still affected ordinary farmers or petty traders in immediate ways. The state and its officials still dominated the economy, controlled supplies of essential goods, taxed and regulated businesses and markets, and awarded contracts. The stratification system of the Maoist period had been based on a hierarchy of functionally unspecialized cadres directing the labors of a fairly uniform mass of peasants. It was replaced in the s by a new elite of economically specialized households and entrepreneurs who had managed to come to terms with the administrative cadres who controlled access to many of the resources necessary for economic success. Local cadres still had the power to impose fees, taxes, and all manner of exactions. The norms of the new system were not clear, and the economic and social system continued to change in response to the rapid growth of rural commerce and industry and to national economic policies and reforms. Regulations and favors[edit] Increased commercial activity produced a high degree of normative ambiguity, especially in areas like central Guangdong and Jiangsu provinces, where rural economic growth was fastest. Neither the proper role of local officials nor the rights and obligations of new entrepreneurs or traders were clear. The line between the normal use of personal contacts and hospitality and extraordinary and criminal favoritism and corruption was ambiguous. There were hints of the development of a system of patron-client ties, in which administrative cadres granted favors to ordinary farmers in return for support, esteem, and an occasional gift. The increased number of corruption cases reported in the Chinese press and the widespread assumption that the decollectivization and rural economic reforms had led to growing corruption probably reflected both the increased opportunities for deals and favors of all sorts and the ambiguous nature of many of the transactions and relationships. On the local level, where cadres and entrepreneurs were engaged in constant negotiation on the rules of their game, the problem was presumably being addressed in a more straightforward fashion. Today the state guarantees such security to those with no families to provide for them, and families and work units share long-term responsibility for the individual. The role of families has changed, but they remain important, especially in the countryside. Family members are bound, in law and custom, to support their aged or disabled members. The state, acting through work units , provides support and benefits only when families cannot. In both cities and villages, the highest incomes usually are earned by households with several wage earners, such as unmarried adult sons or daughters. In late traditional society, family size and structural complexity varied directly with class. Rural landlords and government officials had the largest families, poor peasants the smallest. The poorest segment of the population, landless laborers, could not afford to marry and start families. The need to provide for old age and the general association between the numbers of sons surviving to adulthood and long-term family success motivated individuals to create various non-standard family forms.