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A Review on Income Based Poverty Measures with Poverty Alleviation Programs in Delhi

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Abstract– India's national development plan, which aims to create a just and equitable society, places a strong emphasis on the elimination of poverty, which has remained a major concern since the nation's independence. Poverty measurement is important because it may be used to assess the effectiveness of initiatives to reduce poverty and promote equitable growth. If a person or household cannot afford to maintain even the most basic standards of living, they are considered to be in poverty. However, the concept of poverty can vary throughout time and among various countries. Determining the minimum amount (or income) required meeting a basket of need for goods and services is the conventional approach to assessing poverty. This level of expenditure is known as the poverty line. The collection of products and services needed to address fundamental human needs is known as the Poverty Line Basket (PLB). Poverty (with the incidence of poverty expressed as the head count ratio (HCR) or the poverty ratio, which is the proportion of the poor to the general population) can be calculated using the number of people living below this line. This essay summarises the estimations of poverty from various specialist organisations in Delhi. It also discusses the government's plan and related initiatives.

Keywords: *Poverty, Poverty Alleviation Programs, Delhi NCR, Income based Poverty etc.*

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of poverty has multiple dimensions. It is a fact that head-count ratios of those living below the poverty line accurately reflect expenditure poverty. We don't even have data on income poverty because the National Sample Survey (NSS) doesn't gather income data. The current official poverty lines for both rural and urban areas in India were initially established based on per capita total consumer expenditure (PCTE). These lines have been modified over time and between states to account for variations in the prices of the goods and services that make up the rural and urban underlying all-India reference poverty line baskets (PLBs). The term "capability poverty" describes the loss of rights, opportunities, and choices. To put it briefly, poverty is defined as the denial of possibilities that would otherwise improve one's ability to live a decent life. In the framework of developing policies and assessing their effectiveness, the idea of poverty and approximations of its scope and makeup are highly pertinent. It is especially important in low-income developing nations like India, which have been implementing policies and development plans aimed at achieving "Growth with Poverty Reduction." In line with this policy concern, the definition of poverty and the standard for defining it have changed over time in response to information accessibility, current circumstances, policy demands, and objectives. One significant standard that is regularly applied to determine the poverty line has to do with nutrition, namely the energy intake criterion. Observed consumption patterns have altered as a result of structural and technological changes brought about by economic growth and development. This can be a reflection of shifting minimal dietary needs. It seems that the definition of poverty or even its standard should be updated. Official data from 2009–10 indicates that approximately 29.8% of Indians were thought to be living in absolute poverty. Furthermore, between one-third and one-half of the population was thought to be sensitive to poverty, suggesting that they may quickly become impoverished in the event of a negative shock. As a result, attempts to reduce poverty will remain a crucial undertaking in India for a very long time. Poverty monitoring, which is a frequent and systematic attempt to monitor the welfare status of society as an early warning system, is an important component of this endeavour. An efficient system for monitoring poverty will be able to spot indicators that people's welfare is declining, allowing the right authorities to intervene in a timely manner to keep the situation from getting worse. An efficient poverty monitoring system must include regular and frequent efforts to gather household-level data since such monitoring mechanisms necessitate regular and frequent calculations of various welfare indices.

The most common type of data used to quantify poverty or welfare states is household consumption expenditure. This is particularly true in developing nations, where it is seen to be harder and less accurate to collect household income data. Utilising spending data also has the benefit of being already expressed in monetary units, which is highly understandable and intuitive. Thus, one can simply compute the poverty headcount rate, or the percentage of people living below the poverty line, after calculating a poverty line using the method of their choice. But in practice, things are a little more complicated. The process of gathering data on household consumption expenditures is labour-intensive and time-consuming. It's a challenging and time-consuming task. First of all, since respondents typically have to self-document their expenses for a period of time, it takes a significant amount of patience and willingness on their part. It also takes a significant amount of trust on the part of the enumerator to believe that the respondents are accurately noting their actual expenditure. Second, the cost of food in India is very high and takes a long time roughly one week. Thirdly, since a significant portion of the population is still illiterate, dependability is a major concern if the questions ask on memory recall for the previous year's non-food expenses in India. Faced with these challenges, several research conducted in underdeveloped nations have attempted to solve this empirical issue by proposing a surrogate for poverty or spending. The proxy is computed using a number of well-established techniques, utilising data on household characteristics—such as asset ownership, education level, and availability of physical facilities—that are simpler to gather and have been shown to have a substantial impact on poverty. The primary goal is to obtain a number that would place households in the same position if they were ranked according to per capita consumption expenditure. This allows for the direct measurement of poverty on a larger scale, known as multidimensional poverty. In summary, this idea contends that poverty encompasses not just the spending and income aspects but also other aspects including leisure, health, education, and social standing.

2. POVERTY MEASURMENT

One way to think of the process of measuring poverty is as two steps. Identifying the impoverished is the first step. The aggregation phase, which takes place in the second stage, involves combining all the data to provide an overall assessment of poverty. Establishing a poverty line and classifying everyone below it as impoverished characterises the identification stage for one-dimensional poverty measurement (38). Several poverty measures, such as the headcount ratio or the poverty-gap measure, can be employed for the aggregation stage.

1.Income Measures of Poverty

We require an income threshold or poverty line to identify the impoverished in order to estimate the incidence of poverty. It's common to see income thresholds as arbitrary when determining who is impoverished. The minimal amount needed by a person to lead a healthy life is known as the poverty line. Items that are not food can also be included in the minimal need. Here, a few significant income poverty metrics are covered. Index of Headcount (HCR) This is a standard and often used indicator of poverty. The percentage of the population that is classified as poor relative to the entire population is calculated using this approach. This metric makes it easy to calculate the incidence of poverty by dividing the number of impoverished people by the total population. The HCR is given as a percentage. The HCR is simple to create, comprehend, and compare among the many 39 subgroups or locations at a given moment in time. Policy makers can comprehend the rate of poverty eradication with the help of HCR. But according to Siddiqui (2006), this measure is unable to convey the breadth and depth of the poverty. Even if the number of people living in poverty increases, it won't change.

$$Poverty\ HCR = \frac{No.of\ people\ below\ poverty\ line(Np)}{Total\ population(N)} \times 100 \qquad (1)$$

Index of Poverty Gap (PGI) PGI is a measure of poverty based on distribution of income and/or expenses. This metric includes the degree of poverty and indicates the distance from a predetermined poverty line.

The degree of poverty and the gap between income and poverty are indicated by this indicator. The mean distance below the poverty line is calculated using this metric. The population's mean is calculated, and those who are not impoverished are counted as having no poverty gap Siddiqui (2006).

$$PGI = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Z - Yi)|Z \qquad (Y_{-1} < Z) \tag{2}$$

To be more precise, the poverty gap (Gi) is the difference between the poverty line (z) and the real income (yi) of the poor. For everyone else, the gap is regarded as 0. Index of Squared Poverty (SPI) An alternative name for this metric is the Foster, Greer, Thorbecke (FGT) index. This represents the average value of each person's squared depth of poverty. This calculation accurately assesses the degree of poverty, giving greater weight to the really poor and accounting for the disparities among the impoverished (Siddiqui 2006).

$$SPI = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{n}((Z - Yi)|Z)^2(Y_1 < Z) \tag{3}$$

where Z is the poverty line, Yi is the income/consumption expenditure, and N is the total population. Sen Index (Ps) The Sen Index records the difference between the average consumption of the impoverished and the poverty line, as well as the disparity in consumption between the impoverished. This index was created by Prof. Sen and takes into account the quantity, severity, and distribution of poverty among the group of people.

$$P_S = P_O\left(1 - (1 - G^P)\frac{\mu^P}{Z}\right) \tag{4}$$

where Gp is the Gini coefficient of poverty inequality, P_0 is the head count index, and μp is the mean income (or spending) of the poor.

2. The Human Poverty Index (HPI)

In 1997, UNDP developed the HPI to quantify poverty using social indices. This is partially due to the fact that the majority of developing nations at the time faced poverty-related problems such as hunger, illiteracy, epidemics, and a lack of access to good water and health care. Since these problems are implied by the concept of deprivation, the Human Progress Index (HPI) was created to quantify poverty as a result of deprivation in the three fundamental areas of human existence that the Human Development Index (HDI) previously measured: longevity, knowledge, and standard of living. The percentage of people predicted to die before age is used to measure the first element, lifespan. The fraction of adults who lack literacy serves as a proxy for the second deprivation, knowledge. Three indicators determine the ultimate deprivation, or standard of living: the proportion of the population without access to safe drinking water, health care, or education, and the percentage of under-five-year-olds who are undernourished. As was previously said, since income has no direct impact on human welfare, these three deprivations do not include income in the HPI. Human welfare is impacted first, followed by the costs of products and services. Thus, an increase in personal income does not equate to an improvement in the welfare of people. Further contends that, contrary to what the UNDP claims, the personal income of the impoverished is typically used for food and sustenance, making it preferable to concentrate on material deprivation in cases of hunger and malnutrition rather than income. However, the UNDP acknowledges that certain clarifications are necessary regarding the most recent deprivation and the reason income is not included in the HPI.

3. POVERTY ESTIMATES OF DELHI

According to the planning commission's 2009 release of poverty estimates, the rural Delhi poverty line was assessed to be Rs. 747.8 per person per month for consumption expenditure, while the all-India figures for the rural area sector were Rs. 672.8 per person per month. Similarly, the urban Delhi poverty line has been calculated to be Rs. 1040.3 per person per month, whereas the All India level is Rs. 859.6 per person per month. In Delhi, there are 22.3 lakh persons living below the poverty level, or 14.2% of the city's total population. In Delhi, the population living below the poverty line has grown by two times, from 11.49 lakhs in 1999–2000 to 22.3 lakhs in 2009–2010. This is a significant problem, especially considering the fact that government spending on assistance programmes has risen throughout this time. By enforcing a minimum quota for EWS, the private sector is also regulated to service the economically weaker portion (EWS) in the health and education sectors. The number of impoverished people has increased despite the Delhi government's actions.

Table 1: Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (MPCE) based Poverty Line, Delhi, 1973-74 to 2009-2010

Year	Rural		Urban		Total no. of people
	MPCE poverty line (in Rs.)	No. of people	MPCE poverty line	No. of people	
1973-74	49.95	1.06 (24.44)	67.95	21.78(52.23)	22.84(49.61)
1977-78	59.37	1.35 (30.19)	80.17	16.81(33.51)	18.16(33.23)
1983	88.57	0.44 (7.66)	123.29	17.95(27.89)	18.39(26.22)
1987-88	122.90	0.10 (1.29)	176.91	10.15(13.56)	10.25(12.41)
1993-94	233.79	0.19 (1.90)	309.48	15.32(16.03)	15.51(14.69)
1996-97	289.31	-	404.96	-	-
1999-2000	362.68	0.07 (0.40)	454.11	11.42 (9.42)	11.49 (8.23)
2004-05	410.38	0.63 (6.9)	612.91	22.30 (15.2)	22.93 (14.7)
2009-10	747.8	0.3 (7.7)	1040.3	22.9 (14.4)	23.3(14.2)

Table 1 illustrates how Delhi's poverty incidence has changed over time. In 1973–74, the percentage of the population living in poverty was 49.61%; by 1987–88, it was 12.41%. The percentage rose to 14.69% once more in 1993–94, while the total number of impoverished people increased to 15.51 lacs from 10.25 lacs in 1987–88. The percentage of people living in poverty fell from 14.69% to 8.23% in 1999–2000, and there were 4.02 lac poor people overall. According to the Tendulkar committee's report, the estimates of poverty in Delhi were revised in 2004–05 and 2009–10, showing a rise to 14.7% in 2004–05 and a continued 14.2% in 2009–10. The information in the table demonstrates how different poverty estimates based on consumption data are according to the standards used by the Indian Planning Commission to evaluate poverty.

4. GOVERNMENT SCHEMES IN DELHI

A. Public Distribution System: Poverty Scheme

With an emphasis on the impoverished, the Indian government introduced the Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) in June 1997. The Union Territory (UT) and State governments share responsibility for the operation of TPDS. Food grains must be purchased, distributed, and transported by the Central Government to the Food Corporation of India's approved depots. The State/UT Governments are in charge of the lifting and distribution of the allotted food grains within their borders, as well as the identification of eligible Below Poverty Line (BPL) families, the ration cards that are issued to them, and the oversight of the distribution of the food grains to eligible card holders via the fair price shops. The first extension happened on June 5, 2003; the second on August 3, 2004; and the third on May 12, 2005. With each expansion, the number of families increased by 50 lakh, bringing the total number of AAY families covered to 2.50 crore. Among the BPL families covered by TPDS in the States, AAY planned to identify one crore poorest of the poor families and provide food grains to them at a heavily subsidised rate of Rs. 2 per kg.

B. PDS in Delhi

The TPDS was introduced in 2001 as a result of the government's determination to enhance and reform the PDS by concentrating on the underprivileged and needy segments of society. The goal is to identify individuals and families who fall below the federal poverty line (BPL) and provide them with a unique ration card that allows them to purchase specific grain products at PDS shops at prices that are specially subsidized—that is, half of what is normally charged under PDS. Families in Delhi who make no more than Rs 24,200 a year are considered to be below the poverty line. The Planning Commission of India estimated that in Delhi in 2004–05, there were roughly 22.93 lakh BPL individuals. As of March 31, 2008, the NCT of Delhi had 229666 BPL cards, 150235 Antyodaya Anna Yojna ration cards, and 109 Annapurna cards. BPL families are eligible to get 25 kg of wheat and 10 kg of rice each month under the programme. For those who prefer rice over wheat, it is composed of 10 kg of rice and 25 kg of wheat, priced at Rs. 6.15 per kg of rice and Rs. 4.65 per kg of wheat, respectively.

C. Antyodaya Anna Yojna: Scheme

The programme is intended for the lowest segment of the population, who cannot sustainably eat two square meals a day and whose purchasing power is so low that they cannot afford to buy food grains year-round, even at BPL rates. These families receive food grains under the initiative at a monthly rate of Rs. 2 for wheat and rice, up to a maximum of 35 kilogram's per family. The original scope of this initiative was restricted to 15.33% (or 62,000 families) of the lowest section of BPL families, as determined by the Planning Commission of the Government of India based on specific socioeconomic variables. Currently, AAY families have received 30% of BPL cards through the programme.

D. Annapurna Scheme

Under this initiative, food grains (10 kg per head per month) will be provided at no cost to impoverished individuals over 65 who do not get government pensions for old age. 20% of those who qualify for payments under the National Old Age Pension Scheme are covered; according to the scheme, their number is set at 8915. The individuals covered by this programme will not be eligible for an old age pension. Only 406 applications were received under this plan, despite extensive marketing. In 2008, there are 109 beneficiaries out of the 183 cards that were given to qualified recipients. The fact that most people would rather get a monthly pension than ten kilogram's of wheat could be the primary cause of the low beneficiary count. Additionally, people favour the AAY system, which provides 25 kg of wheat for Rs. 2 and 10 kg of rice for Rs. 3, with no pension restrictions.

Since the consumption survey data that may be able to address this issue are not yet accessible, the effect of the TPDS on targeting remains unanswered. On the other hand, TPDS detractors contend that identification is a challenging procedure that would result in significant exclusion errors. Furthermore, they worry that by reducing PDS in order to assist the underprivileged, PDS retail locations' capacity to make a profit may suffer. Additionally, the TPDS ignores the potential for subsidising goods like coarse cereals that are especially popular among the impoverished. Given that the non-poor have chosen to opt out, the targeting may be more accurate. Additional analysis has revealed that the food subsidy is costly due to extra PDS distribution costs as well as illicit grain market diversions and transfers to the non-poor (compared to the private sector). The extent to which the government and its agents physically handle the grain is called into doubt by these findings. An alternate means of providing food subsidies through the private sector is through food vouchers or food stamps. In a centralised PDS, food subsidy programmes are unlikely to survive in the long run. More options for creating and implementing food subsidies that are suitable for local consumption patterns and capabilities should arise from a regionally varied safety net of subsidies (but subsidised mostly by central government money). By integrating the programmes with direct cash transfers and biometric UID cards (Adhaar cards), they may be made more leakage-proof and, by focusing on the appropriate areas, have an influence on poverty.

5. REVIEW OF LITERTURE RELATED TO POVERTY

According to R. Niranjan et al. [2017] [1], one of the most important objectives of the growth method since the beginning of planning in India is the generation of jobs and poverty. It is widely acknowledged that achieving sustainable economic growth entails making gradual adjustments to a nation's or society's socioeconomic structure in order to eliminate inequality, poverty, and unemployment as well as illiteracy, starvation, and poverty. Programmers working to combat poverty and increase employment creation were putting into practice the right strategy for doing away with poverty. The current study addresses the issues of poverty and employment generation in each of India's states using the notion of "poverty and employment generation." In order to comprehend the number of impoverished and the poverty ratio as determined by the Rangarajan and Tendulkar committees, the study analyses the percentage of the population, state by state, that lives below the poverty line. The study examines India's initiatives to reduce poverty as well as the increase in employment creation in the economy, the unemployment rate, and the absolute employment ratio in the country's key states. The planning commission report, the Indian government's ministry of labour and employment, and other secondary data sources served as the only foundation for this investigation. The right statistical methods and tools will be used for the analysis.

In their empirical study of cooperatives in India, V. Gaikar et al. [2015] [2] discussed how cooperatives in the country have progressed via the initiation of numerous five-year programmes. One of the primary pillars of the Indian economy was the cooperative sector; these rural economy-driven organisations spread throughout the institutional credit framework. An important part of the Indian economy is the cooperative sector. Nearly 98% of villages are served by cooperatives. With their founding, cooperatives' position in the Indian economy and their function in social and commercial matters took on a new significance. In India, the post-liberalization era saw a growth path largely characterised by the expansion of cooperatives. According to the Indian cooperative movement-a statistical profile-2012, there were 6, 10, 020 co-ops in India, comprising credit and non-credit co-ops. They had a substantial share capital of Rs. 3, 83, 284 and around 250 million members. World-famous cooperative brands like Amul and Mahananda were available in India. The research paper was divided into several sections, including an introduction to cooperatives, an explanation of cooperation, the study's goals, its scope and limitations, an examination of cooperative movements in India's various five-year plans, issues related to cooperatives, recommendations, and a conclusion.

Dr. Himanshuet al. [2008] [3] discussed the job structures and poverty effects of the Indian economy's recent growth patterns. The main focus of the analysis was the influence of the recent boom on redistribution and the degree to which changes in the labour market and employment characteristics account for the decline in poverty over the previous five years. A first analysis using the data at hand does point to a greater elasticity of growth in terms of reducing poverty. Nevertheless, the employment indicators, which indicate a decrease in wage rates for the majority of workers in the economy, did not fully support this conclusion. Regarding job patterns, the data also points to several distressing trends. However, the study also highlights several seemingly unremarkable but significant aspects of household demographics that indicate a positive improvement in overall household earnings in spite of modest wage rate growths. In addition, it draws attention to the significance of occupational diversification as a strategy for attaining redistributive justice.

According to B. K. Pradhan et al. [1998] [4], research on poverty is crucial from a moral, intellectual, and political standpoint. There was also evidence to support the negative effects of poverty on growth. As a result, we had tried to go over some of the significant research on poverty in India. The idea of poverty refers to what society views as a lack of access to the necessities of life. In the Indian setting, a predetermined normative poverty level that represented the population's minimal standard of living was used to measure poverty. Therefore, defining a poverty line was the first step in the estimation process. The Expert Group (1993) states that minimal requirements for the consumption of food, clothing, shelter, fuel, health care, and other necessities were priced in order to create a poverty line that separated the impoverished from the non-poor. In actuality, though, the poverty lines simply set the standard for the amount of calories that one should consume.

According to Ravallion et al. [2007] [5], the most effective way to combat poverty and raise living standards in developing nations is through economic expansion. Rapid and sustained growth was essential to accelerating progress towards the Millennium Development Goals, not simply the first objective of halving the number of people living on less than $1 per day, as abundant data from cross-country research and country case studies shows. Positive cycles of opportunity and wealth can result from growth. Parents are better motivated to invest in their children's education by sending them to school when there is strong growth and employment opportunities. This might result in the formation of a powerful and expanding group of entrepreneurs, which would put pressure on the government to enhance governance. Thus, rapid economic expansion fosters human development, which in turn fuels economic expansion.

The Millennium Declaration designated 2015 as the target date for halving the number of people living in severe poverty, according to D. C. Godoy et al. [2010] [6]. Reaching that objective globally is feasible due to remarkable advancements in certain developing nations. By the target date, up to 1 billion people are projected to still be impoverished as many countries will fall well short of the goal. What made certain nations perform better than others? In order to address this topic, this research looks for traits that 25 emerging nations that have had remarkable achievement in lowering severe poverty during the previous 20 to 25 years have in common. Indicators of these nations' macroeconomic traits—particularly, those related to agriculture—were used for comparison. The nations selected for examination represent a rather varied mixture. Almost every geographic region is represented in the group, which includes some of the world's richest and poorest emerging nations. The political and economic systems of the two nations also diverge significantly. Their accomplishments, however, were strikingly similar not only in terms of decreasing poverty but also in terms of the wide range of macroeconomic and agricultural economic performance metrics that were employed in their comparison.

According to J. Weiss et al. [2004] [7], programmes aimed at reducing poverty may, in theory, be evaluated as projects using cost-benefit or cost-effectiveness analysis techniques. In situations when quantitative evaluations had been conducted, they primarily took the form of cost-effectiveness calculations based on the price per benefit unit that the impoverished got. Due to targeting issues of hidden age (because some impoverished are excluded) and leakage (since some beneficiaries are not impoverished), many poverty programmes appear to be high-cost. Other factors that contribute to problems include inadequate finance, challenges in defining the impoverished, design flaws, and ineffective governance. In addition to discussing conceptual concerns, this study uses empirical data from five national surveys that the ADB Institute commissioned. The study suggests that while addressing poverty is still vital, programmes must be modest and laser-focused in order to avoid the mistakes of the past. Edward Elgar will publish the complete set of underlying country studies for the Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia, India, and the People's Republic of China for the ADBI in early 2005 under the heading Poverty Targeting in Asia.

6. REVIEW OF BASED LITERTAURE ON POVERTY ALLIVATION IN INDIA

According to D. Suresh et al. [2012] [8], over 40 crore people in India live in poverty and do not earn enough money to be included in a consumption basket that determines what constitutes poverty. 83.36 percent of these were located in rural areas.2. In India, 33% of the impoverished live below the global poverty level. Considering that eliminating poverty had been one of the main goals of the development planning process, the high rate of poverty was concerning. Yes, poverty was a worldwide problem. Its elimination was seen as essential to the human race's pursuit of sustainable development. Therefore, reducing poverty in India was essential to achieving both national and global objectives. The majority of the rural poor are wage earners in agriculture, small and marginal farmers, and casual labourers involved in non-agricultural occupations. For households that relied on land-based activities for their subsistence, poverty was a result of small land holdings and low productivity. Poverty is also sustained by a poor educational foundation and a lack of additional vocational skills. Owing to the inadequate foundation of physical and social capital, a significant segment of the population was compelled to pursue jobs in industries with remarkably low productivity and pay. For development planners and administrators, creating jobs for the unskilled labour force has been a significant concern. In India, reducing poverty had served as one of the tenets of the planning process. Three main pillars of India's anti-poverty policy for both urban and rural areas: human development, economic growth promotion, and focused programming to address the multifaceted character of poverty. It was well known that economic expansion gave the populace additional options for work. The growth-oriented approach has been strengthened by concentrating on particular industries that offer more chances for individuals to take part in the process of progress. Throughout the planning process, the many aspects of poverty that pertain to health, education, and other necessities had been gradually integrated. The allocations made by the federal and state governments for the provision of health, education, sanitation, and other amenities that support the well-being of the impoverished have been significantly increased. Investments in a forestation, area development initiatives, and agriculture open up new revenue and job opportunities. Although special initiatives had been implemented, the lives of Indians remained unchanged. I attempted to concentrate on the realities of poverty in India, as well as the actions taken by the union government and their effects, in this article in light of the above discussion.

According to A. Olivier et al. [2010] [9], the international community has gradually begun using instruments to reach the poor as a result of budgetary restrictions and policy reforms aimed at enhancing the efficiency of programmes in decreasing poverty. Targeting poverty reduction policies was one of them. This study examines certain strategies aimed at reducing poverty in emerging nations and attempts to pinpoint the major variables influencing their effectiveness.

According to A. Tyagi et al. [2017] [10], the largest obstacle to development planning in India is the issue of poverty. As a socio-economic issue, poverty was closely linked to inequality, low human resource development, deprivation, illiteracy, poor quality of life, and malnutrition. Human productivity, efficiency, and health are all negatively impacted, which has an impact on people's income. Considering that eliminating poverty had been one of the main goals of the development planning process, the high rate of poverty was concerning. When certain groups of people are pushed to the margins of society, no nation can legitimately claim to have experienced economic progress. Twenty-two percent of the world's poor lived in India. Considering that eliminating poverty had been one of the main goals of the development planning process, the high rate of poverty was concerning. Yes, poverty was a worldwide problem. Its elimination was seen as essential to the human race's pursuit of sustainable development. Therefore, reducing poverty in India was essential to achieving global objectives. Thus, the goal of this research article was to examine governmental policies and initiatives aimed at ending poverty.

7. CONCLUSION

The concept of poverty has multiple dimensions. It includes aspects like housing, education, health, nutrition, voicelessness, vulnerability, fear, freedom, and the like in addition to money and consumption. The traditional method of measuring poverty relies heavily on consumption and income, and it has established a dominant body of work in the field. Since the method employs a statistical approach to quantify poverty and expresses its measurement in monetary terms, it is perceived as objective and quantitative. Furthermore, the strategy is seen as being simple to implement because statistics on consumption and income in each nation are easily accessible and can be gathered through a sample household survey. Other dimensions are taken into account by human capability or multidimensional approaches to poverty. These include not only spending and income but also nourishment, health, education, vulnerability, voicelessness, fear, and freedom. These methods are challenging to apply in the local setting since they do not offer a comprehensive list of indications. It is important to comprehend the level at which the causes originate. This comprehension relates to whether the causes originate at the individual, micro, or structural levels, or at both levels in concert.

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