

industrial impact, (4) the diffusion, (5) the high-pay off input and (6) induced innovation. A brief statement of each model is as under:

**Frontier Model:** From the beginning of the civilization expansion of the area cultivated or grazed has represented the dominant source of increase in agricultural production. In the earlier phase of the history, the discovery of new continents such as North and South America, Australia became increasingly important source of food and agricultural raw materials for the development of the metropolitan countries of Western Europe. Later on intensification of land use in villages, establishment of new villages, agricultural colonization and opening of forest or jungle land to cultivation in Europe, Asia and Africa continued the process of increasing agricultural production by the expansion of area cultivated.

In favourable soil conditions such as in the great river basins and plains, new villages gradually intensified their system of cultivation. In the unfavourable soil conditions such as in hilly and upland regions, new areas were opened up to shifting cultivation or nomadic grazing.

The limits of frontier model were quickly realised under the condition of rapid population growth. Crop yields were low in terms of output per unit of seed rather than per unit of crop area. Output per hectare and per man-hour tended to decline. Up to 1960, there were still areas of the world where this model could present an efficient source of growth. 1960's saw "closing of the frontier" in most areas of South Asia.

**Conservation Model:** The conservation model of agricultural development evolved series of advances in crop and livestock husbandry. The application of law of diminishing returns to labour and capital was introduced. The model also emphasized the evolution of a sequence of increasingly complex land and labour intensive cropping systems, the production and use of organic manures, and labour-intensive capital formation in form of drainage, irrigation and other physical facilities to more effectively utilize land and water resources. The inputs used in this conservation system of farming – land improvement, agricultural labour force, physical capital, animal power and plant nutrients – were all largely produced or supplied by the agricultural sector itself.

This model has been capable in many parts of the world of sustaining rates of growth in agricultural production in the range of 1.0% per year over relatively long period of time. And it was the only approach to intensification of agricultural production available to the most world's farmers. The model remains an important source of production

ivity growth in most poor countries and an inspiration to agrarian fundamentalists and the organic farming movement in developing countries.

**Urban-Industrial Impact Model:** Initially the model was developed in Germany by J.H. Von Thuman. He explained geographic variations in the intensity of farming system and the productivity of labour in an industrializing society. Later on, the model was extended to explain the more effective performance of the input and product markets linking the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors in regions characterised by urban-industrial development than in regions where the urban economy had not made a transition to the industrial stage.

The rationale of the model was develop in terms of more effective input and product markets in areas of rapid urban-industrial development. It is said that industrial development stimulated agricultural development by expanding demand for agricultural products, supplying industrial inputs needed to improve agricultural productivity and drawing away surplus labour from agriculture. The empirical tests of the urban-industrial impact model have repeatedly confirmed that a strong-non-farm market is an essential pre-requisite for improving labour productivity and the incomes of the rural population. This model appears to be more relevant for rapidly growing less developed countries.

**Diffusion Model:** The spreading out of agricultural products and animals from the new-world to the old - rubber, maize, potatoes and cassava - and from the old world to the new - wheat, sugar, and domestic animals was an important by-product of trade during fifteenth to the nineteenth century. The diffusion approach is based upon the empirical observation of substantial differences in land and labour productivity among farmers and regions. In this view, agricultural development is considered to be based upon effective dissemination of technical knowledge and upon narrowing of the productivity differences among farmers and among regions.

The diffusion model provided the basis of the research and extension effort in farm management and production economics. It also helped in providing the intellectual foundation of the research of agricultural economics and rural sociology as a separate subdisciplines linking the agriculture and the social sciences. During 1960, the limitation of diffusion model as a basis for the design of agricultural development policies became apparent as technical assistance and rural development programmes based on this model failed to generate either rapid modernisation of traditional agricultural communities or rapid growth in agricultural production.

**High-Pay Off Input Model:** The inadequacy, limitation and failure of aforesaid models led to a new perspective in 1960 and was transforming a traditional agricultural sector into a productive source of economic growth through investment on making modern high-pay off inputs available to farmers in poor countries. This was developed by T.W. Schultz in his book; *Transforming Traditional Agriculture*. He insisted that farmers in traditional societies remain poor because there were only limited technical and economic opportunities available to them. The new, high-pay off inputs provide the (1) new technical knowledge; (2) new technical inputs and (3) technical skills of using new inputs effectively.

This model has been accepted with great enthusiasm. New high productivity grain varieties has been successfully developed in Mexico and new High-Yielding rice varieties has been developed in the Philippines. These varieties were highly responsive to industrial inputs such as fertilizer and other chemicals and to more effective soil and water management. The high returns associated with these new varieties and the associated technical inputs and managements practices have led to rapid diffusion of the new varieties among farmers in a number of countries in Asia, Africa and Latin-America. India is one of such countries where H-Y-V programmes has been successfully adopted.

**Induced Innovation Model:** The high-pay off model also shows various limitations and was incomplete on various counts. It was not complete in the sense that it failed to incorporate fully the mechanism where resources are allocated among education, research and other public and private sector economic activities. It failed to explain how economic conditions induce the development and adoption of an efficient set of technologies for a particular society. Not it attempted to explain the process by which input and product-price relationships induce investment in research in a direction consistent with a nation's particular resource endowments.

These limitations led Yujiro Hayami and V.W. Ruttan to develop a model of agricultural development in which technical change is treated as endogenous rather than an exogenous factor to the development process.<sup>14</sup>

The productivity levels of the farmers in most advanced countries are high which reflects the level of technical progress achieved by these countries. These levels are not available in most low-productivity countries. They can be made available by investing on agricultural research needed to develop technologies appropriate to the country's natural and institutional environment and by investing on physical and

institutional infrastructure needed to realise the new production potential opened up by technological advances.

It has been historically proved that technology has been developed to facilitate the substitution of relatively abundant (hence cheap) factors for relatively scarce (hence expensive) factors of production. The constraints imposed on agricultural development by an inelastic supply of land have been removed by the development of High-yielding crop varieties designed to facilitate the substitution of fertiliser for land. Similarly, the constraints imposed by an inelastic supply of labour in most advanced countries have been removed by technical advances leading to the substitution of animal and mechanical power for manpower.

Developing countries which are incapable of evolving technical and institutional innovations in agriculture suffers two major constraints on its development of productive agriculture. One is that they are unable to take advantage of advances in biological and chemical technologies suited to labour-intensive agricultural systems. And second is that their size of farming is small and hence the imported technology will not work productively. The imported technology will be useful only under conditions of large-scale agricultural organisation.

During the last two decades number of developing countries have begun to establish to institutional capacity to generate technical changes based upon national and regional resource endowments. A new system of international crop and animal research institutes has also emerged which became both important source of new knowledge and technology and increasingly effective communication links among the developing national research systems.

The lag in shifting from a natural-resource-based to science-based system of agriculture continues to be a source of national differences in land and labour productivity. Lags in the development and application of knowledge is also an important source of differences in regional productivity within the countries. In countries like India differential rates of technical change have been an important source of the widening disparities in the rate of growth of total agricultural output, in land and labour productivity and in incomes and wage rates among regions. Hence, productivity differences in agriculture are increasingly a function of investments in science and industrial capacity and in the education of rural people sector than of natural resource endowments.

The effects of education on productivity are particularly important during periods in which a nation's agricultural research system begins to introduce new technology. In a condition of static technology, the

gains from education to be realised are few in rural areas. Rural people who lived for generations with the same resources and with the same technology have learned from long experience what their efforts can get out of the resources available to them. The skill which the children acquire from their parents are worthwhile. Formal schooling has little economic value in agricultural production.

This situation changes as soon as the new technical opportunities are available. Technical changes need the acquisition of new husbandry skill; acquisition from non-traditional sources of additional resources such as new-chemicals, new-equipment new-seed and new-skills in dealing with both natural resources and input and product markets; institution linking agriculture with the non-agricultural sector. The process by which new knowledge can alter the rate and direction of technical change in agriculture are, however, substantially greater than the knowledge of the processes by which resources are brought to bear on the process of institutional innovation and transfer. Yet, the need for viable institutions to support more rapid agricultural growth and rural development is more compelling to-day than a decade ago.

### AGRICULTURE AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

A close contact between agriculture and economic development has been discussed in the previous two parts – "Place of Agriculture In Development Economics: A Historical Perspective" and "A Brief Note on Models of Agricultural Development". While the first part dealt with the gradual changing attitude of the economists in viewing the role of agriculture in economic development, the second part explains in brief, the stages of the penetration of agriculture in the development process in various forms of models.

The importance of agriculture in the economic development of any country, developed or developing, is born out of the fact that it is the oldest and the most basic of all human professions and is the primary sector of the economy which not only provides the basic ingredients necessary for the existence of mankind but also provides the basic raw materials for the development of important and essential industries which when transformed into finished products serve as basic necessities and comforts of human race. In a preponderantly agrarian economy like India, agriculture plays a most strategic role in maintaining the high rate of economic growth. Basically, agricultural production must be increased to keep pace with population growth. When economy moves towards industrialisation, the urbanisation also expands quickly. This may then be expected to bring with it rising per capita demand for food, based on the increasingly high per capita incomes.

In addition to supplying food, agriculture also provides many raw materials to our most important industries. The fate of our textiles, silk, wool, leather, sugar, tobacco, edible oil, food processing, brew and many more crucially affected by the supply of raw materials produced in agricultural sector. Hence, the pace of advance in a wide range of consumer goods manufactures is eventually be affected by the pace of agricultural development.

Moreover, agriculture also generates exports surpluses in-order to earn foreign exchanges. These foreign exchange are used to finance the import of capital goods and certain kinds of industrial raw materials.

However, agriculture is not only a supplier of goods for domestic and export needs but is also a supplier of production factors such as labour and capital. A rapidly growing industrial sector necessarily require some labour force which the rural sector provides abundantly. Moreover, in one form or other, agriculture is called upon to save and hence it finances a significant part of the investment for an expanding industrial, transport and other sectors.

In brief the crucial significance of the agricultural sector in the economic development is that it constitutes an important source of supply of goods, manpower, capital and saving as well as of earning foreign exchange.

These contributions can be summed-up under four broad headings:

- (i) Agriculture production contribution,
- (ii) Agriculture market contribution,
- (iii) Agriculture factor contribution, and
- (iv) Agriculture foreign exchange contribution.

**Production Contribution:** The growth of product within the agricultural sector itself is the first and the basic contribution to economic development. An increase in the net output of agriculture represents a rise in the product of the country since the latter is the sum of the increase in the net products of several sectors. Hence, agriculture product not only keeps a growing population alive but also keeps alive the other sectors and so the nation as a whole. This is quite obvious that if agricultural output — food and raw material — does not keep pace with the rate of population and industrial growth, the nutritional level of the growing population and the expansion of the most of consumer-goods industries both will adversely be effected. The nutritional level either will be lowered or will be maintained by increasing food imports. Similarly, the expansion of the consumer-goods industries will also be possible on importing strategic raw materials. Spending meager foreign

exchange reserves on food and raw material would mean hamper the imports of most important capital goods and technology which are crucial but in short supply in the initial stages of economic development. Poor agricultural performance in terms of output, thus, declines the macro-dimensions of growth rate.

The slow growth of agricultural output, amidst high rate of population growth and industrialisation process, generates inflationary pressures. Aggregate demand for farm output increases on two fronts. It increases because of population growth and because of rising of per capita income. Since all developing countries show relatively high income elasticity of demand for food, most part of the increased income has been spent on food and other essential consumption goods. On the basis of the growth of population, income and income elasticity for food, the increase in the demand for food can be measured as<sup>16</sup>

$$Gr = Pr + (YED)Yr$$

Where

Gr = the rate of growth of food demand.

Pr = the rate of growth of population

Yr = the rate of growth of per capita income

YED = Income elasticity of demand for food

If suppose "Pr" is 2.5 per cent, "Yr" 3.5 per cent and "YED" is 0.5, then "Gr" will be 4.25 per cent. If YED is higher than 0.5, say 0.9, then Gr will be 5.6 per cent. Thus, to keep pace with the growing demand for food, agriculture production must increase by 4.25 per cent or 5.6 per cent respectively. According to NSS, YED IN INDIA is 0.8. Keeping this income elasticity and possibilities of increase in population and per capita consumer expenditure in view, Planning Commission has estimated that the demand for agricultural commodities is likely to increase at the rate of 4.7 per cent per annum. Accordingly, the nation can remain self-reliant in agriculture only if agricultural output rises at least at the rate of 5 per cent per annum. If domestic food production is not growing by these rates and imports are also limited by foreign exchange constraints, both the absolute and relative price of food will tend to rise. Such inflationary pressure is more burdensome to those poor nations who spend more than 50 per cent of the income on food. This leads to the conclusion that increasing food and raw material output is crucial to achieve a sustained multi-dimensional rate of growth.

Simon Kuznets<sup>17</sup> examines the product contribution of agriculture in terms of its share to the growth of total net or gross product and to the growth of product per capita. Algebraic notation of it is given as under:

- $P_a$  = output of agricultural sector (Sector A)  
 $P_b$  = output of all other sector (Non Agricultural Sector B)  
 $P$  = Total output  $P_a + P_b$   
 $\Delta p$  = Increment in total output  
 $r_a$  = Rate of growth of  $P_a$   
 $r_b$  = Rate of growth of  $P_b$ , so that  
 $p_{a1} = p_{a0} (1 + r_a)$ , the subscripts are referring to time  
 $p_{b1} = p_{b0} (1 + r_b)$

$$\text{Then } \Delta p = P_{ara} + P_{brb}$$

The equation for the share of agricultural output in the growth of total output is therefore:

$$r = \frac{P_a r_a}{\Delta P} = \frac{1}{1 + \left( \frac{P_b}{P_a} \times \frac{r_b}{r_a} \right)}$$

Kuznets pointed out that the product contribution to the economic growth of a country will be higher, if: (1) the share of agriculture in a country's labour force is larger and (2) the ratio of product per worker in agriculture in relation to non-agricultural sector is also higher. When economic growth moves towards industrialisation the share of agriculture in the labour force decreases and hence there will be a continuous decrease in the proportional contribution of agriculture to economic growth.

Several important conclusions in regard to the contribution of agriculture to net-output have been drawn by Kuznets. Firstly, "so long as the rate of growth of the non-agricultural sector is higher than that of agriculture, all other conditions being equal, the proportional contribution of agriculture to the growth of total product will decline". Indian economy proves it well. A study indicated: "A point to be noted from the point of view of structural changes is that contribution of agriculture to the growth is still very large, in spite of its low growth related to other sectors. Out of over 5 per cent of total growth during the eighties, 1 per cent point has come from agriculture, a little over 0.9 percentage point has come from registered manufacturing and 0.4 percentage point share come from unregistered manufacturing. Thus, the manufacturing, registered and unregistered together, share for the first time during the eighties, increased their contribution to growth to 1.36 percentage points which is more than the contribution of agriculture".<sup>19</sup> Since the contribution of non-agricultural sector to total growth is higher than the agricultural sector, the share of agriculture to Gross