

Social Development in Rural Pakistan: Growth, Performance and Problems

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Abstract - Social development means development of social structure such as Education, Health, Sanitation, Drinking water, Residence etc. Generally two kind of resources, one is natural and second is human resources but human resources is more important because they use of natural resources and make a developed country. So social development for any country is more important for development. Defined Social Development in terms of three basic criteria (The Copenhagen Social Summit 1995) Poverty Eradication and Employment Generation and Social Harmony. According to Amartya Sen "Social Development is equality of social opportunities." Social Development is the stability of a sustainable society with human dignity. Its mean that the empowering marginalised groups of society.

Keywords: Social Development, Rural areas, Growth and Development, Economic and Social Structure etc.

I. INTRODUCTION

Situated in the Northwest corner of the Indian subcontinent, the Islamic Republic of Pakistan occupies a position of historic importance. Its strategic location, its role in the birth of civilisation, and its influence as a crossroads of political and religious ideologies has kept it at the forefront of world events. Geographically, present-day Pakistan has long been a gateway between Eurasia and the subcontinent and between East and West. Its culture and history have been enriched by the countless invaders, traders, and settlers who have been a part of the region's past.

Until the arrival of Muslim traders, missionaries, and armies in the late seventh and early eighth centuries, the population of South Asia was primarily Hindu and Buddhist. By A.D. 1100 a number of Indo-Muslim states had been established, and by the sixteenth century the Mughal Empire dominated northern India [1]. The British formally disbanded the empire in 1858, at which time about one-quarter of India's population were Muslims. They were concentrated in East Bengal, the Northwest Frontier, Punjab, Sindh, and Baluchistan, with large Muslim minorities in present-day Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh. India's Muslims slowly adapted to British rule yet maintained their identity, establishing the Aligarh Muslim University (1875) and the Muslim League (1906). The latter, dominated by wealthy landowners and Muslim professionals, was largely secular in orientation, though a basic concern was the fate of Muslims in a mainly Hindu political order. There was no suggestion of a separate Muslim State until 1930, when the

Punjabi poet-politician Mohammed Iqbal raised the idea [2]. Three years later a group of Indian students at Cambridge proposed naming it Pakistan. As the prospects for British withdrawal from South Asia increased, the Muslim League, led by the lawyer-politician Mohammed Ali Jinnah (born December 1876, died September 1948), declared its support for the idea of Pakistan at its 1940 Lahore session; one year later the most powerful of the religious—or Islamist—groups, the Jamaat-i-Islami, was founded. Following negotiations between the British, the secular but largely Hindu Indian National Congress, and the Muslim League in 1946, the state of Pakistan was born on August 14, 1947, and India gained independence on August 15.

At independence, Jinnah was appointed Pakistan's governor-general, and his close associate, Liaquat Ali Khan, became prime minister, but neither man had deep roots in the new state. Jinnah was from Bombay and Liaquat had spent much of his career in North India. Then both suffered untimely deaths that threw the country into political chaos. Jinnah succumbed to tuberculosis on September 11, 1948, and Liaquat was assassinated at a political rally in Rawalpindi on October 17, 1951. Toward 1954 the Muslim League, whose supporters were in large part migrants from India, went into decline, losing power in both wings [3].

Control fell to a coalition of emerge politicians, bureaucrats, and, eventually, the army [4]. Also in 1954 the four provinces of West Pakistan were combined into a single administrative entity under a "One-Unit" scheme, to balance the more populous East Wing. It was not until March 23, 1956, that the Constituent Assembly approved the first constitution, which renamed the state the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. A former soldier, Iskander Mirza, became president under the new constitution, which he abrogated two and a half years later, on October 7, 1958. Mirza was himself displaced in a 1958 coup by General Ayub Khan, beginning Pakistan's long experiment with military rule.

After independence no consensus emerged on the idea of Pakistan until one was imposed by the military, and even it proved elusive. Having failed to establish enduring and credible political institutions, Pakistan continued to face instability [5].

II. SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND KEY INDICATORS

Development is a dynamic process of many sectors. Social development means development of social structure such as Education, Health, Sanitation, Drinking water, Residence etc. Generally two kind of resources, one is natural and second is human resources but human resources is more important because they use of natural resources and make a developed country. So social development for any country is more important for development. Defined Social Development in terms of three basic criteria (The Copenhagen Social Summit 1995) Poverty Eradication and Employment Generation and Social Harmony. According to Amartya Sen "Social Development is equality of social opportunities." Social Development is the stability of a sustainable society with human dignity. Its mean that the empowering marginalised groups of society.

Aim of this article is to study the concept of rural social development and its current scenario in Pakistan. The paper hypothesises that the main indicators of social development can be reached out by proper distribution of public expenditure in rural areas both at the national and provincial levels [6]. This is examined in the paper with special reference to rural areas of Pakistan.

III. PERFORMANCE OF RURAL PAKISTAN IN KEY SECTORS

Pakistan's performance in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) remains very adverse, especially in the field related to health, education and gender. The primary reasons cited for this poor performance in the social development among the rural societies in Pakistan is due to lack of proper policies. The national and provincial governments in Pakistan have been least concern about reducing these inequalities in the society. Whereas, it is well considered view that the goal of inclusive and sustainable development cannot be accomplished unless equal access to economic and social opportunities and services is ensured for all groups of society. However, in the case of Pakistan the goals of inclusive growth and development in society remain a dream since very long time. It is this neglected policy domain of the state necessitates a critical analysis of the rural social development to understand the existing problems and performance in Pakistan.

A. Educational Status in Rural Areas of Pakistan [7]

The Constitution of Pakistan has placed the responsibility for basic education on the State. This obligation is reflected in the principles of policy in Article 37, which declares: "The State shall: (a) Promote, with special care, the educational and economic interests of backward classes or areas. (b) Remove illiteracy and provide free and compulsory secondary education within minimum possible period." Although Article 37 (b) exclusively dealt with

removal of illiteracy and provision of free and compulsory secondary education it did not prescribe a time period rather the provision mentioned is 'within minimum possible period'.

The 18th Amendment in the Constitution of Pakistan has abolished the "concurrent list" and gives much more provincial autonomy in education, health and several other sectors. Section 9 of the Constitution (Eighteenth Amendment) Act inserted a new Article 25a in the Constitution, with effect from April 19, 2010. It says: "Right to education - The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of 5-16 years in such manner as may be determined by law". Through this amendment in the Constitution, education has become an enforceable right.

The caveat however, remains that compulsory education to all children shall be provided, 'as may be determined by law'. Unfortunately there is no law on the subject at the moment. The subordinate legislation has to be enacted by the respective provincial legislatures. So far, none of the members of the Provincial Assembly in Pakistan have to table the necessary legislation.

Despite these caveats and anomalies in the Constitution, various governments have, over the years, formulated an assortment of policies and plans to fulfil the constitutional commitment of providing education to the people and removing inequalities. Success has been limited, though, with the result that the current state of education in Pakistan is deplorable.

Education in Pakistan has suffered from myriad issues, as reflected by various educational indicators including low levels of public spending, high levels of dropout from the schooling system and more importantly, acute gender, provincial and regional inequalities.

There is consensus among development economists that equitable access and learning is vital for sustained development. Education inequality in various dimensions results in asymmetrical growth that may relegate the already marginalised population and groups to unending poverty.. One of the important dimensions of inequality is the urban-rural divide. It is estimated that a rural child is 32 percent less likely to go to school than an urban child. The relative disadvantage of the rural areas compared to the urban becomes more discriminating at the secondary level and above.

Thus to highlight the major characteristics of schooling in rural Pakistan, this chapter presents a situation analysis through indicators of access, equality and quality of education. A cohort-wise analysis is carried out to look at the prevailing situation across provinces [8].

TABLE I EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF RURAL CHILDREN OF 5-9 AGE GROUP (PERCENTAGE-2010-11)

Description	Panjab	Sindh	KPK	Balochistan	Pakistan
Out of School	28.4	49.9	35.9	55.9	36.3
Enrolled in Public School	48.1	46.6	49.9	43.4	47.8
Enrolled in Private School	22.7	2.7	13.8	0.5	15.3
Enrolled in Religious School	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4
Enrolled in School Run by NGOs	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.3

(Source: SPDC estimates based on household level data of Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM) 2010-11)

B. Access to Rural Education

Above the table displays the educational status of rural children for the 5-9 years age group. Overall, about 36 percent (approximately 10 million) children of the primary age group were out of school in the year 2011. The lowest incidence (28.4 percent, approximately 4 million) of children is not attending the school as observed in the Punjab province. As expected, a relatively dismal picture is evident with reference to out-of-school children in rural Baluchistan and in rural Sindh where about half the rural children of primary age were not attending school.

The private school phenomenon also does not exist significantly in rural Sindh and Baluchistan. Overall, about 15 per-cent (approximately 4 million) rural children were enrolled in private institutions according to the estimates from household survey (PSLM, 2011). The highest (23 percent) prevalence of private school enrolment is observed in Punjab, followed by 14 percent in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. Moreover, the table indicates that less than 1 percent (approximately 200,000) rural children in the 5-9 age group were enrolled in religious schools or schools run by non-governmental organisations during the survey year of 2011. The incidence of religious school enrolment is however relatively more pronounced in rural Punjab and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa provinces.

The trend in the incidence of out of schooling at primary level is highlighted; in Overall about 8 percentage point decline is observed in the incidence of out of school children. Highest drop in the incidence of out-of-school children (and thus highest improvement in enrolment) is evident in Punjab with 3.3 percent annualised reduction. The improvement in enrolment is more or less the same in the rural areas of Sindh and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa provinces, while about 9 percentage point decline (2.2 percent annual decline) in the incidence of out of school children is observed in rural Baluchistan .

The phenomenon of private schooling is an increasingly important factor in education in Pakistan, particularly at the primary level. Contrary to popular belief, private schools

are no longer an urban elite phenomenon. They are not only prevalent in rural areas but also are affordable to middle and even low income groups. While the rural-urban gap is enormous and still remains, the growth trends showed a marked improvement in rural private schooling.

TABLE II ADULT LITERACY RATE IN RURAL AREAS 2010-11
(15 PLUS AGE)

Pakistan	44.9 (Overall)	60.0 (Male)	29.9 (Female)
Punjab	48.7	60.9	36.7
Sindh	38.6	48.0	17.2
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	42.5	62.4	23.8
Balochistan	30.2	49.2	9.0

Source: SPDC estimates based on household level data of PSLM 2010-11

Above the table documents the adult (15 plus age cohort) literacy rates for rural Pakistan, while the growth in literacy during the period 2005-2011. According to the table, literacy rates in rural Pakistan are 45 percent for the overall rural population, with 60 percent for males and 46 percent for females. The trend across provinces is more or less similar to the pattern in school enrolment. Rural Punjab and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa have a clear edge over rural Sindh and Balochistan in terms of overall and gender literacy rates. Highest (37 percent) female literacy rate is observed in rural Punjab, whereas only 9 percent females are literate in rural Balochistan.

C. Health Status in Rural Areas

It is widely acknowledged that human capital is vital to the growth and development of a nation; the significance of

improved health status in this regard has also been well recognised. Therefore, keeping the masses healthy is as important as providing them with basic education. The state of people's health in Pakistan is characterised by poor health indicators, including high levels of infant, child and maternal mortality. There is significant incidence of communicable diseases, low life expectancy, and a high rate of population growth. Urban-rural disparities further contribute to aggravation of the problems. Poor health status and high fertility rates are believed to be among the major obstacles for poverty eradication. The issues related to health in Pakistan become more evident when national indicators of health outcomes are compared with other regional countries [9].

Health indicators of the rural population are particularly poor. A review of selected national health indicators depicts a gloomy picture of rural areas; urban-rural gaps are significantly wide, indicating that the rural population is at a clear disadvantage in terms of access to health services [10].

The level of malnutrition, which is indirectly responsible for 35 percent of childhood deaths, is alarmingly high in Pakistan, particularly in rural areas (2011). Currently, about 32 percent of children are underweight and 44 percent are stunted. Although the ratio of underweight children has shown a slight decline over the last decade, the ratio of stunting has actually increased. The urban-rural divide is also evident where the ratio of underweight children in rural areas is 33 percent, as compared to 27 percent in urban areas. Similarly, 46 percent of children in rural areas are stunted as opposed to 37 percent in urban areas [11].

TABLE III POPULATION (IN THOUSANDS) PER RURAL HEALTH FACILITY

Year	Basic Health Unit (BHU)	Mother and Child Health Centre (MCH)	Rural Health Centres (RHC)
1990	18	74	188
2000	18	109	176
2013	21	165	174

Source: Estimates based on Pakistan Economic Survey 2013-14

Moreover, as asserted by Zaidi (1998), health services in Pakistan are highly inequitable and urban biased. Keeping aside the governance issues related to service delivery, coverage of public health facilities in rural areas seems to have deteriorated over the years (Table III). Population per BHU has increased from 18,000 to 21,000 during 1991 and 2011. Similarly, two decades ago there was one MCH centre available for a population of 74,000 which now serves 165,000 people. Rural Health Centre (RHC) is the highest level of public health facility in rural areas. Population per RHC has increased from 168,000 to 174,000. In addition to the issue of coverage, the quality of service

delivery is adversely affected by poor infrastructure and maintenance, inadequate supply of equipments and medicines, shortage of doctors and paramedics (particularly for retention of female staff) and absenteeism of staff.

TABLE IV MATERNAL HEALTH IN RURAL AREAS

Years	Private Hospital Delivery	Government Hospital Delivery	Delivery at Home
2005-06	23	15	60
2012-13	29	12	59

Source: www.pbs.gov.pk/pslm

The poor condition of the country's health sector is generally attributed to the ineffective delivery of services as well as to the low level of public spending on health. Pakistan's National Health Accounts for 2007-08 show that out of total health expenditures in the country, 25 percent are funded by the government, over 70 percent through private sector (mainly out of pocket expenses by households). Development partners/donors organisations have a 3 percent share in total health expenditures. Hence, with the private sector being the major service provider, most of the burden of health expenditures remains on the households.

The state of the health sector in Pakistan is characterised by poor health indicators, low level of public spending and ineffective delivery of service provision. The situation of rural areas is particularly poor. Large disparities exist among urban and rural areas in terms of health outcome indicators such as malnutrition, infant mortality, maternal mortality and immunisation. Geographic coverage and accessibility of public health services in rural areas is also very poor, which has serious implications for people's health. Federal and provincial governments have made attempts to introduce alternate models of service delivery in the form of public private partnerships, which have achieved some success. Moreover, vertical programmes of the federal government have also played an important role in supplementing the efforts of the provincial government. However, the dismal situation of health indicators demands that much more be done, possibly in every domain of the health sector [12].

D. Drinking Water & Sanitation

Most of the households in Pakistan do not have access to adequate potable or shallow water. Many of them also lack toilets and adequate sanitation systems. The Government aims to expand access to clean facility drinking water and to improve sanitation particularly in rural areas. The Government basic strategy of the water supply is to improve the performance and operation of water supply systems by promoting community responsibility for the management and maintenance of systems. To improve sanitation, the government is promoting the construction of household

latrines, the construction of open surface drains with street pavements and providing hygiene education.

The main source of drinking water in Pakistan is the hand pump. Hand pumps and motor pumps together provide 65 per cent of household's drinking water in 2005-06, as compared to 62 percent in 2004-05. However, comparing with the previous surveys in 2001-02 and 2004-05 the usage of hand pump is declining whereas it is increasing for the motor pump both in urban and in rural areas. Moreover, the percentage of households depending on lower water sources i.e. dug wells and other. Usage of tap water during 2004-05 and 2005-06 remain at the level of 34 percent, NWFP has the best water supply of 47 percent in 2005-06 compared to 44 percent in 2004-05 amongst the provinces in terms of tap water. The vast majority of the population of Punjab (68 percent) has water either from hand pump or motor pump and only 5 percent of the population depend on a dug well or other sources (river, canal or stream). Sindh has remained at almost same level in terms of tap water (43 percent) in 2005-06 as compared to 44 percent in 2004-05. Baluchistan province has shown increase in tap water from 33 percent in 2004-05 to 36 percent in 2005-06, increase is more evident in rural areas (22 percent to 25 percent) in spite of the fact that in urban areas same has declined.

The water supply situation in NWFP and Baluchistan has improved as compared to 2004-05. In these two provinces, 32 and 60 percent of the rural population in 2005-06, as compared to 45 percent & 70 percent respectively in 2004-05, depend on water from a dug well or from another source (river/canal/stream, etc.).

In PSLM survey, interviewers were told to record the ultimate source of drinking water. For example, water piped directly from a stream and delivered through a tap, without passing through a settlement tank, would have streams as its source, not tap in houses. Richer households are substantially more likely to have water piped to a tap in the household. This relationship is strong in urban areas, but very weak in rural areas. On the other hand the use of dug wells and river/canal/stream is more likely for poor households. A small proportion of households pay for drinking water. In the population as a whole, only 24 per cent of households pay for water and this proportion reaches only 12 per cent in rural areas. Since 2004-05, the proportion paying has remained Increasing in rural and in urban areas.

The 2005-06 PSLM recorded information on who installed the water system used by the household. It shows that households themselves are the largest single supplier of drinking water, having arranged their own supply in 57 per cent of cases. Provincial and local government in the form of the LG&RDD, the PHED and other local government bodies installed the water supplies of some 35 percent of households. They installed 92 per cent of all piped water supplies; however the coverage of Local government was

least important in Punjab and played the largest role in Baluchistan.

Households that depend on the poorest supplies also have to travel the furthest for the water. Some 8 percent of households whose drinking water comes from a river, canal, stream or pond travel zero to 0.5 km for the water. Comparing provinces, Punjab is favoured with the best access while Balochistan has the worst, with over half of the households depending on sources outside the home.

In Pakistan as a whole, 30 per cent households do not have any toilet facility. This varies largely between urban and rural areas i.e. 3 per cent of urban households have no toilet compared to 44 percent of rural households. The percentage of households with no toilet facility is highest in rural Baluchistan (56 percent) and lowest in NWFP (29 percent) in 2005-06.

The use of flush toilets is 93 percent for the urban households, Punjab with 95% is highest and Baluchistan with 61 percent is the lowest.

Richer households have much greater use of flush toilets than poor households. The use of flush toilets is 98 percent almost universal for the richest urban households, compare to 64 percent in richer rural area. Some 58 per cent of rural households do not have any form of sanitation system in 2005-06 compare to 66 percent in 2004-05. Balochistan rural with highest 92 per cent households are without any system while Punjab rural with 48 per cent is the lowest one.

As would be expected, richer households are more likely to have a connection to a sanitation system than poor households. The relationship is much stronger in urban areas, 92 percent as compared to 42 percent in rural areas. 79 percent of households reported that they had no garbage collection system, reaching 97 percent in rural areas. In rural areas, the pattern is more or less same for all the four provinces. Even in urban areas, only 44 per cent households benefited from municipal garbage collection services and 43 per cent of urban households had no garbage collection system at all in 2005-06.

The current status of sanitation and poor hygiene practices has led to significant public costs, such as premature deaths, economic and financial costs due to diseases attributable to poor sanitation, environmental costs, and other welfare costs. For example, as of 2006: The coverage level for sewage collection was estimated at 50 percent nationally (with only 20 percent coverage in rural areas), and only 10 percent of sewerage was being effectively treated. Treatment plants existed only in a few cities, and few of them were fully functional. Forty-two percent of the population were living with unimproved toilet facilities in 2006 out of which 11 percent had access to facilities that were either shared and/or unimproved.

Approximately 50.1 percent of households had access to improved toilets, of which 55.8 percent had a sewer connected to a flush toilet, and 29.1 percent had a flush toilet connected to a septic tank. The total population, approximately 50 million people (31 percent) defecated in the open, and an estimated 8 million people (5 percent) used shared toilets. While 90 percent of the urban population had access to improved sanitation (that is, the kind that hygienically separates human excreta from human contact), this compares with just 40 percent of the rural population. In rural areas, 45 percent of the population still practiced open defecation [13].

IV. REASON OF POOR DEVELOPMENT IN SOCIAL SECTOR

Politically and economically, Pakistan has had a troubled domestic history. Periods of civilian rule marked by corruption and political gridlock have alternated with years of military dictatorships. Financially stunted at birth, Pakistan has seen improvements in the economy since, which though impressive, have still left the vast majority of its citizens living in poverty. And the dilemma over the role of Islam in government and society continues to stoke contention. The primary reasons cited for this poor performance in the social development among the rural societies in Pakistan is due to lack of proper policies. It is well considered view that the goal of inclusive and sustainable development cannot be accomplished unless equal access to economic and social opportunities and services is ensured for all groups of society.

A. Governance, Political Instability and Poverty

Political stability is fundamental to the creation of an enabling environment for growth and development. Economic agents, particularly investors, must be reassured with regard to the continuation of policies, should have confidence in the government's credibility in order to operate effectively, and in the case of investors, be induced to take risks. The perceived security threat on its eastern border which has dominated Pakistan's political culture has resulted in the domination of the military in politics, excessive public spending on defences at the expense of social sectors, and erosion of the rule of law. Politically, Pakistan has alternated with regularity between democratic and military governments. Between 1947 and 1988, military governments were in power for 24 out of the 41 years [15].

B. Non Transparency in Resource Allocation

The lack of transparency in public sector planning, budgeting and allocation of resources in Pakistan has ensured that those who do not constitute the political elite are unable to make political leaders and the Government responsive to their needs or accountable to promises. This has led to a supply driven approach to service provision, with development priorities being determined not by potential beneficiaries but by the bureaucracy and a political

elite which may or may not be in touch with the needs of the citizens. The results manifest themselves in, for example, the existence of "ghost schools" (which exist only on paper), absenteeism of health and education staff in rural areas (who are not held accountable by the authorities, and are often political appointees rather than public functionaries appointed on merit) and deterioration in the quality of services wherever they do exist. In addition, the absence of a public debate on resource allocation, and allocation within the social sectors has resulted in distortions such as the emphasis on provision of tertiary services in urban areas rather than primary services in rural areas [16].

C. Weak Public Sector Capacity

Public sector capacity in Pakistan, considered in the 1960s to be in league with that of the top performing Asian countries, has eroded significantly for several reasons. This is despite the massive growth in the numbers of staff employed by the public sector over these years. The first and foremost reason for this decline in capacity has been the inability of the public sector to remain competitive in attracting better qualified and competent people owing to the dismal financial and career incentives offered. Secondly, there has been a steady weakening of meritocratic selection procedures in recruitment of staff as a consequence of rampant systemic corruption and nepotism. This has worsened in the last decade, during periods of elected civilian governments, when recourse to political interference and influence became common and, in fact, almost a pre-condition in getting public sector jobs. As a consequence, the autonomy and objectivity of institutions such as the Federal and Provincial Public Service Commission's charged with carrying out recruitment for a major proportion of public sector jobs has been affected, and confidence of citizens in these institutions has weakened. Finally, training, capacity development, and skills enhancement opportunities across the board have historically been very limited due to which there is no serious and systematic effort at capacity upgrading of in-service employees in most public sector departments. Somewhat ironically, however, together with this declining capacity to deliver, the State assumed added functions in a number of different areas and sectors that were perhaps best left to the private sector. This has led to an unsustainable and unnecessary over-extension of the public sector with the result that whatever internal capacity there was had to be more thinly spread over in diverse sectors rather than being concentrated in a few key ones such as regulation and law and order. The result of this development has been the realisation of diseconomies of scale in the public sector (as is evidenced from the many examples of loss-making state-owned enterprises), and an accompanying disenfranchisement of the private sector that has given rise, as mentioned earlier, to the flight of capital and of entrepreneurship from the country. Finally, over-centralisation in the public sector has led to inefficient delivery of social sector related and other services with the resulting disenchantment of the citizenry in the ability of the

State to provide effective and accessible services. At the same time, the role of the private and civil society sector has not been systematically encouraged to build synergistic public-private partnerships to achieve greater scale and coverage in the delivery of these services [17].

D. Inadequate Access to Justice

Inadequate access to justice is widely perceived in Pakistan to be a key governance issue that directly contributes to the powerlessness of the poor and reinforces social and economic inequities widely prevalent in the institutional fabric of society. With the general deterioration of public sector institutions in the country, and their uncontrolled politicisation, those providing judicial services could not have been expected to remain insulated from this trend. Consequently, the state and level of public confidence in the ability of these institutions to administer justice in a fair and equitable manner has been compromised. One important result of the weakening of judicial institutions has been a general decline in the vitality and effectiveness of regulatory frameworks in the country on account of which the enforcement and protection of property rights, especially those of the poor, has suffered. Side by side, ineffective regulation and lack of timely judicial arbitration on matters of conflict has eroded confidence of investors and contributed to the observed stagnation in business activity in the country. The constraints to effective dispensation of justice in the country are well known, and summarised recently in an ADB project document. These include the weak governance and administration of the judicial system; lack of professional management; inadequate budgetary resources and basic infrastructure; long delays in court case decisions; absence of client focus; absence of grievance redressal procedures; and gender imbalances and under-representation of women in the judiciary. In addition, the access to justice of the citizenry at large is severely restricted by an inefficient and corrupt police system that is often accused of playing in the hands of the influential and victimising the poor and the underprivileged. In this regard, harassment by the police and its indiscriminate and exploitative abuse of power has been repeatedly reported by the poor to be a major source of insecurity and vulnerability for their lives and livelihoods [18].

E. The Structure of Society

Pervasive inequality in land ownership intensifies the degree of vulnerability of the poorest sections of rural society, because the effects of an unequal land distribution are not limited to control over assets. The structure of rural society, in areas where land ownership is highly unequal, tends to be strongly hierarchical, with large landowners or tribal chiefs exercising considerable control over the decisions, personal and otherwise, of people living in their area, as well as over their access to social infrastructure facilities. The system of intermediation is also likely to persist in cases where the private Sector or development agencies attempt to make inroads into a particular area. For

example, implementation of infrastructure and development projects in areas where feudal domination is strong, only proceeds after local landowners and tribal chiefs have given their full concurrence to the activity. Very often, they are asked to nominate people for employment opportunities generated by the project. The feudal elite has also been courted by all mainstream political parties in the country, and has invariably constituted the bulk of the strength of the elected legislatures, both national and provincial¹⁴. The composition of the legislature may have been the major factor in each successive elected government's inability to design and implement land reforms or even institute a tax on income from agricultural holdings. Analysts confirm that the predominance of the feudal elite has persisted in the recently held local bodies elections. The structure of society in Pakistan thus contributes significantly to perpetuating poverty in rural areas, through a combination of social, political and economic factors [19].

V. CONCLUSION

So, on the basis of above mentioned facts it may be stated that the development of social system in the rural areas is far less when compared to the urban areas of Pakistan. The main reasons for the less development of society in rural areas are lack of financial autonomy, concentration of power in the centre, conservative nature of the society in rural areas, political instability, corruption, etc. So, it is necessary that democracy should be strengthened at the grass root level for the development of rural areas in Pakistan. Development cannot be accomplished unless equal access to economic and social opportunities and services is ensured for all groups of society. The Government's development agenda provides a good balance between growth and social development. It is also realistic in recognising that in the medium-term macro economic stabilisation must be the priority, and during this period progress in poverty reduction and social development must depend largely on more effective use of existing resources. Seventy-five percent of Pakistan's poor live in rural areas, a large proportion of whom are pushed into poverty because of the volatility of income. ADB will support higher growth and greater stability of income and employment in rural areas by focusing on (i) getting the policy and institutional framework right; (ii) increasing agriculture productivity and diversification by moving to market-based agricultural prices, strengthening research and extension services, and expanding the role of the private sector in storage and agriculture support services; (iii) increasing confirm employment opportunities by developing agribusiness for exports and rural SMEs; (iv) promoting rural-urban linkages by improving communications, particularly rural roads; (v) expanding rural economic infrastructure, especially for irrigation, drainage, and water resource conservation and management; (vi) promoting financial intermediation, mobilising savings, and enhancing access to credit in the rural areas.

The Government's devolution plan can be instrumental in improving quality and access to education, health, and other public services. ADB strategy will assist the Government in making devolution a success. In addition, ADB will concentrate on improving provincial resource management capacity for better allocative efficiency of human development investments; establishing decentralised financing, planning, and delivery of selected social services (health and population, and education); financing For social development to be truly inclusive it must provide protection to the most vulnerable groups, particularly wom-en, children and the indigent. ADB's development strategy will target projects for women, and encourage gender main-streaming across all projects, in addition to promoting policy and institutional reforms for awareness and enforcement of women's rights and representation in all aspects of economic and social development [20].

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