Dietary Changes, Calorie Intake and Undernourishment: 
A Comparative Study of India and Vietnam

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by

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Abstract

This paper examines the changes in the nature and quantity of Food consumption in India during the reforms decade of the 1990s, and analyses their implications for calorie intake and undernourishment. The study documents the decline in cereal consumption, especially in the urban areas, and provides evidence that suggests an increase in the prevalence of undernourishment over the period, 1987/88 – 2001/2002. The results also point to a significant number of households, even in the top expenditure decile, suffering from undernourishment. This calls for a reassessment of the current strategy of directing the Targetted Public Distribution System (TPDS) exclusively at households “below the poverty line” (BPL). This study shows that, both as a source of subsidised calories and as a poverty reducing instrument, the PDS is of much greater importance to the female headed households than it is to the rest of the population. Another important result is that, notwithstanding the sharp decline in their expenditure share during the 1990s, Rice and Wheat continue to provide the dominant share of calories, especially for the rural poor. The Indian experience is in sharp contrast to that in Vietnam which witnessed a large increase in calorie intake and, consequently, a decrease in the prevalence of undernourishment in the late 1990s. The Vietnamese diet displayed increased diversification during the 1990s with a greater role for protein rich animal products and a more balanced diet of nutrients than in India.

Keywords:  Calorie Intake, Prevalence of Undernourishment, Calorie Price Inflation, Public Distribution System, Backward Classes, Female headed Households.

JEL Classification: D12, I12, O18, O53.
1. Introduction

There are few topics that are of greater importance to individual survival and human development than that of nutritional adequacy and food security. With the availability of improved and disaggregated survey information on food consumption, attention has shifted from an almost exclusive focus on monetary indicators such as poverty measures and per capita income to a range of measures that include non monetary indicators such as energy intake, dietary diversity and the prevalence of undernourishment. Strong empirical support for such a shift in emphasis to a more encompassing approach has been provided by the Vietnamese evidence presented in Baulch and Masset (2003) which shows that monetary and non monetary indicators do not always tell the same story.

The present exercise looks at the comparative experiences of India and Vietnam in the related areas of food security, dietary changes, calorie intake and the prevalence of undernourishment during the 1990s and the early part of the new millennium. While the focus of this study is on India, the comparison with Vietnam is instructive in view of several contrasts in their experiences. Both these countries have been pursuing economic reforms, with the Vietnamese initiating the “Doi Moi” reforms in the mid 1980s, while the Indian economic reforms started later in the early 1990s. The Vietnamese experience of a sharp fall in the prevalence of undernourishment and a rise in calorie intake contrasts with the Indian evidence presented here and in Sen (2005, Table 5) and Ray (2007, Table 12).

The 1990s witnessed widespread economic reforms and liberalisation in India. Much of the discussion on the effects of economic reforms in India has centred around the temporal movement in the poverty and inequality magnitudes [see, for example, Dubey and Gangopadhyay (1998), Meenakshi and Ray (2002), Bhalla (2003), Sen and Himanshu (2004), Ray and Lancaster (2005)]. Relatively little attention has been paid, until recently, to changes in the magnitude and pattern of food consumption over the reforms period, even though such
changes ought to be linked to poverty movements via the calorie basis of the original definition of the poverty line in India [see Dandekar and Rath (1971)]. However, as Ray and Lancaster (2005) have shown, the link has weakened to the extent that the official poverty line in India today is quite out of step with that based on the household’s minimum calorie requirements.\(^1\) This is reflected in a dissonance, even contradiction, between the expenditure based poverty magnitudes and the calorie based measures of hunger or under nourishment.\(^2\)

This points to the need to analyse the magnitude and trend in Food, especially Cereals, consumption over the reforms period in India in view of their strong implications for Food and nutrition security. Such an analysis, which is the main motivation for this study, is necessitated by the failure of expenditure and income based poverty magnitudes to depict the true picture on Food and nutrition security in a period of significant changes in the nature of Food consumption with strong implications for the household’s calorie intake. This study provides evidence, at both state and All India levels, on the magnitude and trends in Food consumption. It, then, uses calorie conversion factors to calculate calorie intake and, from them, estimates of under nourishment in both urban areas and the rural countryside. The prevalence of under nourishment (POU) is measured by the percentage of households who are unable to meet their daily calorie requirement.\(^3\)

This paper is a contribution to the recent literature on Food security and calorie intake in India during the reforms period [for example, Meenakshi and Vishwanathan (2003), Radhakrishna (2005), Rao, N. (2005), Rao, C.H.H. (2005), Chand (2005), Ray and Lancaster (2005), Sen (2005), Suryanarayana and Silva (2007)],\(^4\) Apart from extending the recent evidence to the new millennium by considering the 57\(^{th}\) round (2001/2) of the National

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\(^1\) See. also, Subramanian (2005) for an analytical critique of the methodology generally adopted in India for calculating poverty.


\(^3\) See Sen (2005) for a comprehensive critique of the calorie norm concept and its relevance in the context of poverty calculations and the poverty debate in India.

\(^4\) See Shah (1983) for earlier evidence (1967/68) on food consumption and undernourishment in the state of Kerala in South India.
Sample Survey, this study has the following features. It presents the magnitude and trend in
the quantities and expenditure shares of the principal items of Food consumption, works out
the corresponding calorie intake and calorie shares of the Food items, and then calculates the
magnitude of under nourishment during the reforms period. The study pays special attention
to the calorie intake of two minority groups, namely, female headed households and the
backward classes. Evidence is presented on the role of the public distribution system (PDS)
in providing cheap calories to the household, especially those belonging to these minority
groups. This is a topic of some policy importance in the Indian context in view of recent
discussions on the effectiveness of the PDS as an anti hunger strategy, and the efforts to
target the PDS exclusively at households “below the poverty line” (BPL). The results of this
study suggest that such a strategy may be counter productive since a lot of households that
are “above the poverty line” (APL), especially in the rural areas, suffer from under
nourishment. Such APL households are missing out on the provision of subsidised Rice and
Wheat, via the PDS, because they are now outside the purview of this system.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. While Section 2-5 relate to India,
Section 6 relates to Vietnam. Section 2 describes the Indian data sets and reports the State
wise changes in the per capita consumption of the principal Food grain items and of the
composition of Food expenditure between 1987/88 and 2001/2. Section 3 analyses the
nutritional implications of the changes in the Food expenditure pattern, presents the calorie
share of each Food item in the household’s total intake of calories and reports the movement
in these calorie shares in India over the sample period. The importance of the PDS in
providing subsidised calories in India and its effectiveness as an anti poverty strategy is
examined in Section 4 with special reference to the female headed households and the
backward classes. Section 5 presents and discusses the State wise changes in the magnitude
of under nourishment in India between 1987/88 and 2001/2. Section 6 reports the comparable
Vietnamese experience on calorie intake and under nourishment. Section 7 concludes the paper.

2. Changes in Indian Food Consumption

The Indian data sets used in our analysis are from the 43rd (July, 1987 – June 1988), 50th (July, 1993 – June, 1994), 55th (July, 1999 – June, 2000) and 57th (July, 2001 – June, 2002) rounds of the National Sample Survey (NSS). The 55th round data provides information, at the household level, on calorie intake. These, in conjunction with the conversion factors of Indian foods provided in Gopalan, et.al. (1999), were used to calculate calorie consumption figures in the other rounds. In the present study, we have overlooked the distinction between the “availability” and the actual “intake” of calories, in the absence of necessary information. Another potential complication that we have overlooked is the possible non comparability between the 30 day food expenditure figures in NSS round 55 with those in the other rounds because of the inclusion of questions on the seven-day recall figures on food expenditure in the same questionnaire [Sen (2000)]. It is difficult to speculate on the nature and magnitude of the bias, if any, in the 30 day consumption figures in round 55 since, as Sen (2000) found, “because the RSEs … do not differ very substantially for these item groups (food, pen, tobacco and intoxicants), the RSE criterion does not really clinch the issue…” (pgs. 4507/4508). Also, as Sen and Himanshu (2004) point out, “on proper comparison 55th round results agree reasonably with trends from other NSS rounds during the 1990s, testifying to the integrity of NSS field operations….”, (p. 4249).

Tables 1, 2 report the State wise changes in the monthly per capita consumption (kgs.) of the principal Food items between 1987/88 (Round 43) and 2001/2 (Round 57) in the rural, urban areas respectively. The following features are worth noting. First, Cereals consumption

5 Note, however, that the present study is mostly based on a comparison between NSS rounds 43 and 57 for which this is not an issue. Moreover, the bias is more likely to be felt in case of the non Food items which are not considered here.
is generally much higher in the rural areas than in the urban, mainly due to the higher consumption of Rice by the rural household. The reverse is the case for Meat/Fish/Eggs and Fruits/Vegetables. Second, there has been a marked decline in the consumption of all the Cereal items over the period, 1987/88 – 2001/2 in nearly all the States and in both rural and urban areas, with the reduction being particularly sharp in case of the smaller Cereal items, namely, barley, maize and cereal substitutes such as tapioca. Third, there has been a switch in preferences towards non Cereal items such as Meat/Fish and Fruits/Vegetables and, once again, this picture holds generally.

These features are confirmed in Table 3 which presents the All India average values of both the (monthly) Food consumption quantities and the Food expenditure shares at the beginning (1987/88) and end (2001/2) of our sample period. The Engel Food share in total expenditure, also, registered a sharp decline over this period, especially in the urban areas. While some, such as Rao, C.H. (2005), have interpreted these movements as evidence of urbanisation and increased household affluence, others such as Mehta and Venkatraman (2000), have argued that such changes have been involuntary reflecting the loss in access to common property resources by the rural poor. Whatever the underlying factors causing these changes, these have led to significant declines in calorie consumption, as we report later, due to the switch from calorie intensive cereal items to non Cereals which are more expensive sources of calories.

3. **Calorie Share of Items in India**

The switch in Food spending throughout the 1990s from Cereals, which are a source of cheap calories, to more expensive calorie sources such as Meat, Fish and Eggs and Fruits/Vegetables, resulted in a decline in calorie intake as documented in, for example, Ray and Lancaster (2005), Rao, C.H. (2005). While the previous section reported the decline in
Cereal consumption in both absolute quantities and in terms of expenditure share over the period, 1987/88 – 2001/2, this raises the question: how did the composition of the household’s total calorie intake from the various items change during this period? The answer is provided by Table 4 which reports, at the All India level, the temporal movement in the calorie shares during this period. The sharp decline in Cereals consumption, evident in the earlier discussion, did not translate into declines of similar magnitude in case of the calorie shares of Rice and Wheat. In fact, in the rural areas, while the calorie shares of Rice registered an increase, that of Wheat fell over the period, 1987/88 – 2001/2. The calorie share of the composite item, called “Other Cereals”, consisting of the smaller cereal items such as barley, maize and tapioca, recorded larger declines in both rural and urban areas over this period. Another feature worth noting is that, notwithstanding the sharp rise in the consumption of Meat, Fish & Eggs during the 1990s, the calorie share of this composite item remained virtually unchanged around an insignificant 1%. There has been a modest increase in the calorie share of Fruits and Vegetables which, from the nutritional viewpoint, strongly dominated Meat, Fish & Eggs in importance. A comparison of the calorie shares in Table 4 with the expenditure shares in Table 3, shows that Cereals, as a whole, is far more calorie important in the Indian diet than is revealed by the expenditure share figures. The calorie importance of Cereals (as a whole) fell only marginally during the reforms period and that too due to the marked decline in the calorie share of the smaller cereal items. In both rural and urban areas, the PDS items, Rice and Wheat, together, continued to supply well over 50% of the household’s total calorie intake.

Further insight into the nutritional importance of the various Food items is provided in Table 5 which reports their calorie shares by the three expenditure percentile groups, namely, the bottom 30%, middle 40% and the top 30% of households in the per capita expenditure distribution. The calorie share of Rice goes down with increasing affluence in both rural and
urban areas but, in the case of Wheat, this is so only in the urban areas, not in the rural. Consistent with the expenditure shares presented earlier, Rice contributes a greater share of calories in the rural areas than in the urban, but the reverse is the case for Wheat. Note, incidentally, that the calorie content of the Indian food diet is spread more evenly between Rice and Wheat in the urban areas than in the rural, suggesting a greater diversification in the dietary pattern of the urban household, both within and beyond Cereals. Note, also, that the relative insignificance of Meat, Fish and Eggs in the calorie content, that was noted earlier, holds for all the three expenditure percentiles and that, in comparison, Fruits and Vegetables are of much greater importance in the Indian diet.

4. Role of the Public Distribution System (PDS) in Providing Cheap Calories in India

The Public Distribution System (PDS) in India is quite unique in terms of the extent and intensity of its coverage. With a network of about 4.75 lakh Fair Price Shops (FPS) in 2004, the PDS is possibly the largest distribution network of its type in the world. It is a major instrument in the government’s anti poverty programme and serves as a safety net for the poor. Responding to criticisms that the PDS has an urban bias and fails to serve the poor, the government introduced in June, 1997 the targeted PDS (TPDS) which distinguished between “below the poverty line” (BPL) and “above the poverty line” (APL) families in setting the quantity and issue price of the subsidised food grain items. In a further tightening of the public distribution system, the government introduced on December 25, 2000, the “Antyodaya Anna Yojana” (AAY) scheme that makes the TPDS more focussed by targeting the very poor, i.e. the destitute, who formed a population of one crone families out of a total of 6.52 crone BPL families covered under TPDS.

6 See, however, Thorat and Lee (2005) for a recent account of the patterns of exclusion and caste discrimination that afflict the PDS in several parts of India.
The role of the PDS has figured prominently in discussions on the economic reforms undertaken in India in the 1990s. Table 6 provides some evidence on this issue by reporting the share of the household’s intake of calories that is contributed by the PDS.\(^7\) The calculations were performed not only State wise and for all households but, also, separately for the female headed households and the backward classes. Table 6 shows that the importance of the PDS in supplying inexpensive calories to the household varies sharply between the constituent states of the Indian Union. For example, a much larger share of the total calorie intake is supplied through the PDS in the southern States, especially Kerala and Tamil Nadu, than in the northern States such as Punjab, Rajasthan, Haryana and Bihar.\(^8\) This is partly due to the caste based discrimination and exclusion prevailing in the northern states that allow the backward classes very limited access to the PDS. Another feature that is apparent from Table 6, is that, in the calorie poor states though not everywhere, the female headed households and the backward classes obtain a greater share of their total calories from their PDS food rations than the rest of the population. Since these minority groups are more poverty prone than the others [see, for example, Meenakshi and Ray (2002), Ray and Lancaster (2005)], this feature needs to be kept in mind in the ongoing debate on the future of the PDS. A comparison of the calorie shares of the PDS items between NSS rounds 50 (1993/94) and 55 (1999/2000) reported in Table 6 shows that, notwithstanding the market driven agenda of economic reforms and the sharp rise in the issue prices of Rice and Wheat [see Rao, C.H. (2005, p. 190)], there is not much evidence of any significant decline in the importance of PDS in supplying calories to the household especially at the All India level.

Further evidence on the role of PDS in calorie consumption is contained in Table 7 which presents the average per capita calorie intake in the rural areas in NSS round 55 (1999/2000), and its breakdown between the open market and the PDS. This table suggests

\(^7\) The evidence relates to the sub period, 1993/94 – 2000/2000, because the question of whether to keep the PDS in its present form was a live issue in the second half of the 1990s, not in the earlier or the later period.

\(^8\) See Dreze and Sen (1995, Appendix Table A3) for similar evidence for the earlier, pre reform year 1986/87.
that the backward classes generally record lower calorie intake than the female headed households and the other household groups. This table shows the calorie consumption by female headed households in a more favourable light, vis-à-vis that by the male headed households, than is actually the case. This is because the use of uncorrected household size as the calorie deflator tends to bias downward the per capita calorie intake of the male headed households which have more children and enjoy more size economies than the female headed households. As Meenakshi and Ray (2002) found on NSS expenditure data, the apparent relative affluence of the female headed household, vis-à-vis the others, is quickly reversed once we allow adult child relativities and household size economies via the use of adult equivalence scales as the expenditure deflator. Other notable features include the fact that the Southern states generally consume less calories than the Northern states [see, also, Ray and Lancaster (2005), Sen (2005)]. Also, in most regions, especially in the Southern states, the female headed households get more calories from the PDS than do the rest of the population. In other words, the PDS enjoys double importance in the female headed households since it supplies not only a greater share of the total calorie intake in such households, compared to the rest of the population (Table 6), but, also, supplies them more calories than it does to other households.


The Indian poverty lines for rural and urban population are based on calorie norms of 2400 and 2100 kcal per capita per day, respectively. The age-sex specific daily calorie requirements, corresponding to the overall rural calorie norm, are available from the website www.Medindia.net. These estimates are close to, though not exactly the same as, the energy allowances recommended by an Export Group of the Indian Council of Medical Research [see ICMR (2002)]. The corresponding urban figures can be obtained by scaling down these
numbers by a factor, 0.875 (being the ratio of 2100 and 2400). A household is classified as (calorie) poor (non poor) if its observed calorie intake turns out to be less (more) then the required amount. The prevalence of under nutrition (POU) is, then, measured as the percentage of households who are unable to meet their daily calorie requirement.

The estimates of POU in rural and urban India in NSS rounds 43 (1987/88) and 57 (2001/2) are presented in Tables 8, 9 respectively. These estimates are much higher than the expenditure based poverty magnitudes using the official poverty line [see Ray and Lancaster (2005)]. Many argue that the POU and the expenditure based poverty estimates are not directly comparable, since while the former measures “hunger”, the latter measures the failure to buy a minimum bundle of items, both Food and non Food, necessary for survival. The POU measure has been used extensively by the FAO in world wide calculations of hunger [FAO (1992)]\(^9\) and in the case of individual countries and regions [Harriss (1990)].\(^{10}\)

Tables 8, 9 suggest that in India over the period, 1987/880 – 2001/2, there has been rising hunger, i.e. increasing failure to meet the calorie requirement at the household level. This upward trend is a continuation of that observed between NSS rounds 43 (1987/88) and round 55 (1999/2000), reported in Coondoo, Lancaster, Majumder and Ray (2005). For example, at the All India level, the rural POU rate increased from 48.16\% in 1987/88 to 66.90\% in 2001/2. The rise in hunger or undernourishment stands in sharp contrast to much of the evidence from the expenditure based poverty literature, and used routinely in poverty debates on India, suggesting a decline in poverty over this period. Moreover, as the NSS based calculations reported in Coondoo, et.al. (2005, Table 7) show, the POU rates, which measure calorie deprivation, exceed the official poverty line based poverty rates by a large margin in each of the last three large survey rounds of the NSS, namely, Round 43 (1987/88), 50 (1993/94), and 55 (1999/2000). This is confirmed by Tables 8, 9 which present (for

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\(^{10}\) See, also, the articles in the volume edited by Osmani (1992).
comparison) the head count poverty rates in NSS Round 43 as calculated and reported in Sen
and Himanshu (2004). This raises serious questions about the continued usefulness of the
official poverty line today as a measure of the true cost of purchasing the minimal calorie
requirement, an issue that has been discussed extensively in Ray and Lancaster (2005) and
Sen (2005)\textsuperscript{11}. Tables 8, 9, also reveal sharp differences between states on changes to the POU
with states such as (rural) Assam and (rural) Bihar improving their state of under
nourishment, while Orissa and Andhra Pradesh have fared badly in both rural and urban
areas. Consistent with previous evidence, the rural POU exceeds its urban counterpart,
largely reflecting the higher calorie requirements in the countryside due to the nature of work
done in the rural areas.

There has been, principally, three criticisms made of the use of the calorie based POU
measures. The first is based on the belief that the calorie requirements have come down over
the years due to lower requirements of physical labour in various occupations. The second
criticism made by, for example, Svedberg (2000), is that the POU estimates used in these
FAO type exercises are wildly sensitive to the a-priori specified minimum calorie
requirements. The third criticism, made by Coondoo, et.al. (2005) and Sen (2005), is that the
exclusive reliance on the calorie norm as a unidimensional requirement overlooks the
considerations of a “balanced diet” and the possibility of substitution between the
micronutrients such as fat, carbohydrates and protein in the production of the calories. The
first type of criticism does not have much operational significance since, to my knowledge,
no serious physiological study exists, at least in the Indian context, that seeks to scientifcally
quantify and revise the calorie requirements over time. Moreover, as Sen (2005, p.4612)
argues, “although it is true that both the population structure and the intensity of labour effort
have changed for the population as a whole, there is no evidence to show that such is the case

\textsuperscript{11} See, also, Ray (2007) for evidence on the divergence between calorie price inflation and consumer price
inflation during the 1990s.
for the population around the poverty line”. To examine the second criticism, we perform a sensitivity exercise by repeating the calculations at 80% of the original calorie requirements. This was done for all the major States in each of ten decile groups of households arranged in increasing order of affluence in the expenditure distribution. Tables 10, 11 present the POU estimates for households in the rural and urban areas, respectively, at the bottom (0-10%) and top (90-100%) deciles of the expenditure distribution, using two different vectors of age and gender specific calorie requirements. There is some support to Svedberg (2000)’s point about the high sensitivity of the POU estimates though such variation, also, reflects differences between the magnitude of mild and severe under nutrition. The rural POU exceeds the urban POU almost everywhere. Another feature worth noting is the significant number of households, even in the top expenditure decile, who are unable to meet their daily calorie requirement. For example, in the rural areas, West Bengal, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh stand out for their high POU in the top expenditure decile group, even when the calorie requirement is reduced to 80% of the original values. The obvious policy significance of this result is that, in restricting access to it to only the households that are “below the poverty line” (BPL), the PDS may be missing out several undernourished households that are above the poverty line (APL). Give the positive role that PDS can play in enhancing calorie intake, by providing subsidised Rice and Wheat through the “fair price” shops, there is clearly room for designing a more effective targeting strategy for the PDS than simply restricting it to BPL households, and missing out on APL households altogether. A similar comment applies to the mid day meal scheme for school children that is operational in several parts of India and is a useful tool for enhancing the nutrient intake of children in under nourished households.
6. The Comparable Vietnamese Experience on Dietary Diversity and the Prevalence of Undernourishment

The Vietnamese evidence, which will be reported and discussed in more detail in Mishra and Ray (2007), is based on the three Vietnamese Living Standard Surveys (VLSS) that were carried out in 1992/93, 1997/98 and 2004. These results add to the growing literature on food security and calorie consumption in Vietnam [see, for example, Hop (2003), Dien, Thang and Bentley (2004), Thang and Popkin (2004), Molini (2006)]. There have been several private and public initiatives to enhance food security in Vietnam in the 1990s. For example, the Dutch foundation, WOTRO, under its programme, Nutrition and Health, 1995-99, undertook a project entitled, “Nutritional Status and health of Women in relation to Household Food Security in Urban and Rural Vietnam”. The Government of Vietnam, formulated in 1990/91, a new Socio Economic strategy for the period up to 2000 designed to improve the nutritional levels for the whole community. As Hop (2003) notes, and the present results confirm, “the population’s dietary intakes have clearly improved in terms of both quality and quantity”.

The median figures for per capita daily calorie intakes in the various regions and for Vietnam as a whole have been presented in the top half of Table 12, with the corresponding figures for households below the food expenditure poverty line reported in the lower half of this table. After recording a small decline in calorie intake in most regions during the first half of the 1990s., there was a sharp increase in the period from the late 1990s to the middle of the present decade. The increase has occurred in all regions and for both poor and non poor households, though much more spectacularly in the urban than in the rural areas. A quick comparison with the monthly calorie consumption levels in rural India presented in Table 7 suggests that the Vietnamese enjoyed higher calorie consumption levels. Figures 1, 2 which
provide the kernel density plots, confirm that there has been an all round improvement in calorie consumption in Vietnam between 1992/93 and 2004.

It has been argued, however, by nutritionists and others [see Sen (2005), Coondoo, et.al. (2005)] that a simple comparison of calorie levels can be misleading since the calorie quality, underpinned by dietary diversity or the lack of it, may differ. To provide some evidence on this issue, Table 13 reports the movements in the calorie shares of the various Food items. These show that, after a period of sluggish movement in the early 1990s, there was a sharp diversification in the calorie sources of the Vietnamese diet in the late 1990s and the early part of the new millennium. The fact that this parallels the movements in calorie intake reported in Table 12, confirm the finding in Hoddinott and Yohannes (2002) that an increase in dietary diversity is associated with an increase in calorie intake. Note, in particular, that while the calorie share of Rice declined sharply in the late 1990s, Meat, which is rich in protein and other micronutrients, was providing a significant share of the total calorie intake by 2004, a much greater share than in the Indian diet [see Table 4]. This confirms the observation of Hop (2003), noted above, on the qualitative and quantitative improvements in the Vietnamese dietary habits in the late 1990s. In contrast, Table 4 does not reveal much movement in the calorie composition of the Indian diet over the longer period, 1987/88 – 2001/2.

The contrasts between the Indian and Vietnamese experiences is further highlighted by Tables 14, 15 which provide the POU rates in the various regions (Table 14) and across the various expenditure percentiles in Vietnam (Table 15). Mirroring the upward movement in calorie intake levels, reported in Table 12, the POU rates fell sharply in the late 1990s after recording small movements in the first half. Table 15 confirms the sharp downward movement in the POU rate as we move up the expenditure distribution. This suggests a much greater consistency between under nutrition and expenditure based poverty than in the Indian
case. Note, however, that even in 2004, a significant minority of urban households in Vietnam (approximately 20%) in the top half of the expenditure distribution were unable to meet their daily calorie requirement.

7. Concluding Remarks

This study examines the changes in the nature of household spending on Food in India over a time period that stretches from the late 1980s to the early part of the new millennium. Special attention was paid to the minority groups (typically, widows) and the backward classes. The paper analyses the implications of the consumption of the various Food items for calorie intake and the prevalence of undernourishment. The Indian experience is compared with that of Vietnam over a similar period. Both these countries undertook significant economic reforms, with the Vietnamese initiating the “Doi Moi” reforms in the mid 1980s, while the Indian reforms started later in the early 1990s.

The contrasts between the Indian and Vietnamese experiences are striking. While the Indian budget surveys show a decline in calorie intake and rise in undernourishment levels throughout the 1990s, the Vietnamese data shows the exact reverse with a sharp increase in calorie intake in the late 1990s. In addition, the Vietnamese diet showed much greater changes in favour of increased diversity with an increased share of protein rich animal products than happened in case of India. Moreover, while undernourishment is almost exclusively restricted to households in the lower expenditure percentiles in the Vietnamese context, this is not the case in India. Our results show that, on the basis of age and gender specific calorie requirements set out by the Indian Council of Medical Research, a significant number of affluent Indian households, i.e. in the top 10% of the expenditure distribution, are unable to meet their calorie requirements. This raises a serious policy issue in the Indian context since, with the sets of calorie deprived and expenditure poor households non
overlapping to such a large extent, one needs a comprehensive set of measures to reach both
types of households.

The Indian results underline the important role that the public distribution system
(PDS) plays in enhancing calorie intake and reducing hunger. The results of this study call for
a better targeting strategy than simply restricting it to BPL households and, thereby, missing
out on all undernourished APL households. The fact that female headed households, and the
backward classes rely more on the PDS than the others provides further ground for the belief
that, by simply restricting it to BPL households, the PDS may be losing its effectiveness in
providing Food and nutrient security.
Table 1: Per Capita Food Consumption\(^{(a)}\) (kg./30 days) in Rural Areas in India

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<td>Rice</td>
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<td>Other Cereals(^{(b)})</td>
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(a) Source: Own Calculations Based on NSS Rounds 43,57.
(b) Other Cereals consists of smaller cereal items such as barley, maize and cereal substitutes (e.g. tapioca).
### Table 2: Per Capita Food Consumption\(^{(a)}\) (kg./30 days) in Urban Areas in India

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\(^{(a)}\) Source: Own Calculations Based on NSS Rounds 43, 57.

\(^{(b)}\) Other Cereals consists of smaller cereal items such as barley, maize and cereal substitutes (e.g. tapioca).
Table 3: All-India Mean Consumption and Expenditure Shares

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<td>Rice</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>-14.2</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>-7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>-11.70</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>-15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Cereals</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>-32.5</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>-46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Cereals</td>
<td>11.05</td>
<td>9.44</td>
<td>-14.5</td>
<td>14.74</td>
<td>12.22</td>
<td>-17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulses</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>-18.8</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edible Oils</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat/Fish/Eggs</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veg/Fruit</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>13.44</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>9.48</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar/Spices</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>-10.4</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>-12.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food Items</th>
<th>Urban Share of Total Food Expenditure (%)</th>
<th>Rural Share of Total Food Expenditure (%)</th>
<th>Change (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>16.33</td>
<td>14.06</td>
<td>-13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>9.07</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>-4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Cereals</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>-34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Cereals</td>
<td>27.20</td>
<td>23.94</td>
<td>-12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulses</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>-8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>15.71</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edible Oils</td>
<td>8.65</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>-24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat/Fish/Eggs</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veg/Fruit</td>
<td>12.29</td>
<td>15.03</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar/Spices</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>-8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processed Food</td>
<td>13.59</td>
<td>13.49</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverages</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food Items</th>
<th>Share of Total Expenditure (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>66.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Cereals</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Cereals</td>
<td>91.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulses</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edible Oils</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat/Fish/Eggs</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veg/Fruit</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar/Spices</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processed Food</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverages</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own calculations based on NSS Rounds 43, 57.
Table 4: Changes in the Calorie Share (%) of Various Food Items in India between 1987/88 and 2001/2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NSS Round</th>
<th>Rural Shares</th>
<th>Urban Shares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Wheat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 43 (1987/88)</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>22.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 57 (2001/02)</td>
<td>42.98</td>
<td>18.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 43 (1987/88)</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 57 (2001/02)</td>
<td>29.42</td>
<td>25.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5: Calorie Share (%) of Various Food Items in India by Expenditure Class in 2001/2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expenditure Class</th>
<th>Rice</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Other Cereals</th>
<th>Pulses</th>
<th>Dairy</th>
<th>Edible Oils</th>
<th>Meat/Fish/Eggs</th>
<th>Veg/Fruit</th>
<th>Sugar/Spices</th>
<th>Processed Food</th>
<th>Beverages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom 30%</td>
<td>46.28</td>
<td>17.10</td>
<td>9.82</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle 40%</td>
<td>43.22</td>
<td>18.14</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top 30%</td>
<td>35.84</td>
<td>18.03</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>9.83</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Urban</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom 30%</td>
<td>33.03</td>
<td>27.48</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>8.77</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>6.89</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle 40%</td>
<td>28.69</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>9.07</td>
<td>10.39</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top 30%</td>
<td>20.76</td>
<td>20.13</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>12.78</td>
<td>10.47</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>13.17</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Calorie Share of PDS Items in Rural Indian Households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>All Households</th>
<th>Female Headed Households</th>
<th>SC/ST Households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.280</td>
<td>0.325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td>0.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All India</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.071</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.078</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.114</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7: Average Per Capita Monthly Calorie Consumption in Rural Indian Households in NSS Round 55 (1999/2000) \(^{(a)}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>All Households</th>
<th>Female Headed Households</th>
<th>SC/ST Households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non PDS</td>
<td>PDS</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>53735</td>
<td>9679</td>
<td>63414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>54623</td>
<td>4008</td>
<td>58632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>64948</td>
<td>1467</td>
<td>66415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>57909</td>
<td>4783</td>
<td>62691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>74229</td>
<td>1413</td>
<td>75642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>67572</td>
<td>11017</td>
<td>78589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>56937</td>
<td>7082</td>
<td>64019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>45426</td>
<td>17696</td>
<td>63123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>61866</td>
<td>2732</td>
<td>64598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>58121</td>
<td>5414</td>
<td>63536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>58381</td>
<td>7369</td>
<td>65750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>73298</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>74375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>74860</td>
<td>1862</td>
<td>76722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>44034</td>
<td>14058</td>
<td>58092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>71567</td>
<td>1939</td>
<td>73506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>62687</td>
<td>2244</td>
<td>64931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All India</td>
<td>61424</td>
<td>5241</td>
<td>66665</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{(a)}\) The Non PDS/PDS breakdown refers to the split of the total calorie intake between that which is obtained from the open market and that obtained from the public distribution system, respectively.
Table 8: Percentage of Rural Indian Households Undernourished (POU)\(^{(a)}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>52.34</td>
<td>73.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>60.57</td>
<td>73.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>49.14</td>
<td>50.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>56.56</td>
<td>77.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>24.80</td>
<td>63.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>22.46</td>
<td>40.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>54.52</td>
<td>77.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>65.85</td>
<td>71.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>45.78</td>
<td>77.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>56.35</td>
<td>67.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>56.22</td>
<td>68.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>31.45</td>
<td>54.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>31.74</td>
<td>53.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>67.31</td>
<td>84.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>36.30</td>
<td>56.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>53.58</td>
<td>68.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All India</strong></td>
<td><strong>39.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>48.16</strong></td>
<td><strong>66.90</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{(a)}\) POU measures the prevalence of undernutrition.

\(^{(b)}\) These poverty rates were calculated using National Poverty Line and reported in Sen and Himanshu (2004, Table 1a).
Table 9: Percentage of Urban Indian Households Undernourished (POU)\(^{(a)}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>37.35</td>
<td>57.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>34.65</td>
<td>47.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>30.46</td>
<td>43.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>43.04</td>
<td>57.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>29.03</td>
<td>56.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>12.08</td>
<td>26.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>37.71</td>
<td>50.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>49.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>34.28</td>
<td>58.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>38.66</td>
<td>51.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>29.39</td>
<td>39.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>31.97</td>
<td>41.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>30.37</td>
<td>41.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>51.19</td>
<td>63.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>32.80</td>
<td>52.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>41.17</td>
<td>50.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All India</strong></td>
<td><strong>38.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>36.97</strong></td>
<td><strong>51.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{(a)}\) POU measures the prevalence of undernutrition.

\(^{(b)}\) These poverty rates were calculated using National Poverty Line and reported in Sen and Himanshu (2004, Table 1b).
Table 10: Percentage of Rural Indian Households Undernourished in Bottom and Top Deciles in NSS Round 57 (2001/02)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Original (100%) Calorie Requirements</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>Original (100%) Calorie Requirements</th>
<th>80%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bottom 10%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>94.04</td>
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|------------------|                                      |     |                                      |     |
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| Bihar            |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Gujarat          |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Haryana          |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Himachal Pradesh |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Karnataka        |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Kerala           |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Madhya Pradesh   |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Maharashtra      |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Orissa           |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Punjab           |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Rajasthan        |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Tamil Nadu       |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| Uttar Pradesh    |                                      |     |                                      |     |
| West Bengal      |                                      |     |                                      |     |</p>
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Table 12: Median Kilo Calories Consumed (per capita per day) by Various Population Groups in Vietnam

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| Region                  | Food Poor Households\(^{(a)}\) |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|----------|----------|          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Red River Delta          | 2451.02 | 2389.82 | 2509.16  | -        |          |          |         |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| North East               | 2360.88 | 2485.44 | 2724.80  | -        |          |          |         |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| North West               | 2512.68 | 2251.09 | 2936.97  | -        |          |          |         |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| North Central Coast      | 2235.78 | 2354.54 | 2444.81  | 2377.88 | 2244.38 | 2666.10  |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |
| South Central Coast      | 2058.36 | 2208.59 | 2249.37  | 1655.73 | 1541.32 | 2287.45  |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |
| Central Highlands       | 2361.64 | 2367.47 | 2724.28  | -        |          |          |         |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| South East               | 1944.47 | 2087.07 | 2212.30  | 1284.49 | 1117.20 | 1889.71  |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |
| Mekong River Delta       | 2194.10 | 2183.23 | 2234.81  | 1620.34 | 1717.67 | 2358.30  |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |
| Overall                 | 2318.86 | 2287.37 | 2505.03  | 1660.70 | 1691.56 | 2455.18  |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |         |          |          |

Notes:
(a). Source: Authors’ calculations.
(b) Food poor household as defined by GSO Food Poverty line and using effective household size.
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Table 14: The Percentage of Vietnamese Households that are Undernourished: POU Rates

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Based on (Actual Calories < 0.8* Required Calories) Criterion

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Table 15: Percentage of Undernourished Vietnamese households in various expenditure percentiles

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<td>36.45</td>
<td>48.12</td>
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<td>Top 10%</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>22.54</td>
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