



## **Human Poverty and Socially Disadvantaged Groups in India**

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**Sukhadeo Thorat\***

**Assisted by  
M. Mahamallik and S. Venkatesan**



**H D R C**

Human Development Resource Centre





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## SECTION I

# Introduction

### Human Development and Group Inequality

Preparation of Human Development Reports has brought about a significant shift in the notion of human development insofar as the emphasis is now placed on “outcomes of development”, not only in terms of expansion of income, but also achievement (or translation of increased income) in terms of the quality of people’s well-being. This perspective recognises that though higher per capita income is a pre-requisite for human development, a rise in income alone may not necessarily guarantee what people need most for their development. Therefore, the focus is centered on generation of more income, but simultaneously, on improvement in the quality of people’s lives.

Articulating the shift in perspective, Mahbub-Ul-Haq observed, “For long, the recurrent question was how much was a nation producing? Increasingly, the question now being asked is, how are its people faring? Income is only one of the options - and an extremely important one - but it is not the sum-total of human life. Health, education, physical environment and freedom may be just as important” (Mahbub-Ul-Haq 1995). From this perspective, the emphasis is on expansion of the capacities of people - the capability to lead a healthy and creative life, to be well nourished, to be secure, to be well informed and educated, to be freer and to be equal. With this shift, human development began to be measured in terms of new evalua-

tive criteria relating to three essential elements of human life - longevity, knowledge, and decent living standard - and estimated through Human Development Index (HDI) and Human Deprivation/Poverty Index (HPI).

In the course of this development however, the notion of human development itself has been further widened in terms of its dimensions. Among others, the conceptual issues which have occupied the efforts of researchers in widening the dimensions of the concept of human development are those which relate to the distributional aspects, particularly the inequalities in human development across groups, and its causes. It is recognised that the measure of human development failed to capture the distributional dimensions in human development. They are averages that conceal wide disparities in the overall population. Therefore efforts were made to make the analysis of human development more distribution-sensitive (Sagar and Najam, 1998 and UNDP, 1990).

Incorporation of the distributive aspects first necessitated disaggregating the HDI and HPI by various groups, such as class, ethnicity, religion, caste, and other disadvantaged groups and second, it also necessitated the analysis of causal factors associated with lower level of human development among certain disadvantaged groups.

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*Human deprivation of disadvantaged groups works through the societal process of exclusion, involving differential treatment and unequal access, which hinder human development*

Since, among other factors, the deprivation of marginalised groups like women, ethnic, social, religious and other minorities generally occurs through the process of exclusion and discrimination, the efforts are directed towards understanding the societal inter-relations and the institutions of exclusion, the forms of exclusion, discrimination, and their consequences on the deprivation of these groups.

Limited instances of disaggregating indicators of human development by social groups are to be found in the HDRs of some countries. In India, it is also true for national and State Human Development Reports. The countries which have disaggregated the individual indicators of HDI by groups include Malaysia, Gabon, Nepal, USA, Canada, Guatemala and India. In the Malaysia HDR for instance, the HDI has been worked out separately for the Chinese, Indian and Malay ethnic groups. Similar exercises have been initiated in the United States involving African Americans, Native Americans, and American whites (Halis Akder, 1994). In Nepal too, the HDI has been worked out for the low caste and the high caste groups.

The attempts made in developing concept and methodology to assess the impact of social exclusion on human deprivation are, however, limited in number. The efforts to develop the indicators of exclusion and to capture them in indices are even fewer. The HDRs of 2000 (*Human Rights and Human Development*) and 2004 (*Cultural Liberty in Today's Diverse World*) made some headway with respect to dimensions of exclusion as well as indicators of exclusion.

At the conceptual level, the HDR 2000 brought to the fore the close link between

equal human rights and human development and emphasised the role of equal opportunity and choices as one of the pillars of human development. Exclusion and discrimination restrict and deny human rights implying denial of freedom and equal opportunity to disadvantaged groups. It is recognised that the human deprivation of disadvantaged groups works through the societal process of exclusion, involving differential treatment and unequal access, which hinder human development. Therefore, freedom from discrimination becomes a necessary pre-condition for human development. The HDR 2004 extended the focus to cultural liberty, and asserted its centrality in advancing the capabilities of people. In the context of minorities in multi-ethnic States and indigenous people, it recognised two forms of cultural exclusion, namely,

- (a) Living mode exclusion, which denies recognition and accommodation of life style that a group would choose to have; and
- (b) Participation exclusion, involving denial of social, political and economic opportunities for development to groups which are discriminated against.

Living mode exclusion often overlaps and intertwines with social, economic and political exclusion through discrimination and disadvantages in access to resources, employment, housing, schooling and political representation.

### **India's Human Development Report and Socially Disadvantaged Groups**

Following the HDRs, the Indian government also initiated the preparation of the National Human Development Reports

(hereafter referred to as NHDRs), and similar reports for individual States. The first NHDR was prepared in 2001 and so far, 17 States have released their Human Development Reports.

Given the iniquitous and hierarchal character of Indian society, and exclusion linked deprivation of a large section of excluded groups and groups which are discriminated against, viz. the Scheduled Castes (SCs), the Scheduled Tribes (STs) and the Other Backward Castes (OBCs), which constitute almost half of India's population, and for whom there are specific Constitutional provisions, legal safeguards and reservation policies, the national and State Human Development Reports (SHDRs) dealt with dimensions of human development in relation to these disadvantaged groups. So far such exercises are, however, confined to disaggregating the individual indicators of human development and human poverty in a selective manner, without estimating the composite index of human development or human poverty of the social groups.

The indicators used to disaggregate data by social groups vary from State to State. The NHDR 2001 disaggregated the consumption expenditure, access to toilet facilities, safe drinking water, electricity and literacy level at all India level and observed that the attainment levels for the SCs and the STs seemed to be lower than the Others (non-SC/STs) (NHDR 2001 p. 11).

Similar methods of assessing the attainment levels of social groups by employing selective indicators have been followed by a number of SHDRs as well. Most of them employ indicators of literacy, and only a few States supplement literacy by

using poverty ratio, land ownership, and health indicators. For instance, the SHDRs of Karnataka, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, Sikkim, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan, Assam and Punjab give attainment rates for literacy for SCs, STs, and non-SC/STs (the Himachal Pradesh SHDR also reported enrolment ratio by social groups). Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu also provided poverty level by social groups. The SHDRs of Madhya Pradesh, Sikkim and West Bengal also disaggregate land ownership and share of land and beneficiaries of land reform by social groups. Some States like Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal also give work participation rate, unemployment rate, sex ratio, and urbanisation rate by social groups. The Punjab SHDR provides disaggregated results by social groups for literacy rate, employment pattern including employment under reservation, and child mortality rates.

Data provided in the SHDRs relating to the SCs and STs is selective and limited in the choice of indicators. Nevertheless it clearly shows that any simple disaggregation by social groups, for example education (literacy rate, enrolment ratio), health (child mortality), access to resources (land ownership, employment rate), and urbanisation, reveals that the SCs and the STs lag very far behind the other sections of Indian society.

The central and State governments have adopted a group focus approach in the development policy (in terms of recognition of their specific problems, provision of legal safeguards, reservation and various other affirmative action policies), with the stipulated objective of reducing the gaps in human development and human poverty be-

*The national and State human development reports dealt with dimensions of human development in relation to these disadvantaged groups*

*There is limited discussion on conceptualising caste- and ethnicity-based exclusion and discrimination and its linkage with human deprivation of disadvantaged groups*

tween them and other sections of the Indian population. However, SHDRs generally do not deal with the issue of inter-social group disparity in human development and human poverty in a focused manner, either by using a coherent set of indicators of human development (e.g. life expectancy, literacy rate, enrolment ratio, and some measure of access to resources), and human poverty (e.g. illiteracy, drop-out rate, mortality rate, and access to safe drinking water, public health services and electricity), or through estimation of a composite index of human development and human poverty by social groups. This is due to non-availability of data.

Also, there is limited discussion on conceptualising caste- and ethnicity-based exclusion and discrimination and its linkage with human deprivation of disadvantaged groups. Similarly, there is no attempt to develop the indicators of exclusion and discrimination and the impact variables. In this context, the observations of the Madhya Pradesh Human Development Report are relevant as it recognised the need to address this issue.

*“There is a need to look inward, within the country to identify groups that fare poorly in human development as against spatially in terms of how districts fare or sector fare. Deprivation in India has an obvious face of exclusion, the Schedule Castes due to social exclusion, and the Schedule Tribes due to geographical and cultural exclusion. The Schedule Castes suffer from deprivation on account of the residual power of a discriminatory caste system, which though made illegal, continues to sway as a social force, whereas the Scheduled Tribes see their predicament as victims of the state, which denies them property rights to their habitat. A Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe development index needs to*

*be developed by professionals to capture their deprivations, so as to goad the state policy to address them. A broad attainment index, does not effectively address the roots of these very important deprivations in the Indian context. The process of democracy is at work drawing these people in the mainstream and seeking to address their specific concerns. How well this is being done needs to be assessed through the development of Scheduled Caste-/Schedule Tribe development index.*

*(Madhya Pradesh State Development Report 2002, p. 9).*

## **The Purpose and Approach**

This paper is written taking into account the limitations as well as positive insights from earlier academic efforts in the global HDR and Indian national and State HDRs on the issue of inter-social group inequalities in human development and human poverty and exclusion-linked deprivation of socially disadvantaged groups in Indian society. The study attempts to address three interrelated issues.

**First**, it tries to conceptualise the nature and dimensions of “Exclusion-Linked Deprivation” of socially disadvantaged groups in Indian society. It elaborates the concept and meaning of caste- and ethnicity-based exclusion, and its implications for human development of excluded groups.

**Second**, it maps the status of disadvantaged groups of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and non-SC/STs with respect to human development and human poverty and captures the inter-social group inequalities.

**Third**, it tries to analyse the economic and social factors for high deprivation of socially disadvantaged groups in terms of lower access to resources, human capital,

social needs and also the lack of freedom to development through restrictions (or non-freedom) to civil, social, cultural, political and economic rights, which are closely linked with societal processes and institutions of caste and untouchability. It provides empirical evidence on the nature of exclusion and discrimination in multiple spheres to show how the human development of disadvantaged groups is closely linked with the societal processes of caste- and ethnicity- based exclusion and discrimination.

With this in mind, the paper undertakes a theoretical and empirical analysis to address four interrelated issues:

**First**, drawing from prevailing theoretical literature, it discusses the concept and meaning of social exclusion in general, and of caste- untouchability- and ethnicity-based exclusion in particular.

**Second**, it measures the attainment in human development and human poverty among disadvantaged groups by constructing the HDI and HPI and also analyzing the situation with respect to individual indicators of well-being.

**Third**, it analyses the economic factors associated with low human development or high

human poverty of disadvantaged groups in terms of lack of access to resources, employment, education and social needs, and

**Fourth**, it examines the role of caste discrimination in economic, civil, social and political spheres, involving denial or selective restrictions on right to development or equal opportunities to socially disadvantaged groups.

The paper is divided into six sections. *Section Two* presents the conceptual and methodological background of the study and discusses the database, the indicators of human development and human poverty, and the method of measurement. *Section Three* deals with the ‘concept of exclusion, discrimination and government policies against discrimination’. *Section Four* presents the comparative status of SC, ST and non-SC/STs with respect to human development and human poverty and the individual indicators of well-being. *Section Five* deals with ‘the economic factors associated with the lower human development of disadvantaged groups compared to other groups’. The last section presents main findings and policy suggestions to overcome the challenge of caste based exclusion and discrimination.



## SECTION II

# Conceptual Framework, Methodology and Database

*The SCs were historically denied the right to ownership of agricultural land, or to undertake business. Hence, government policy since independence has been geared towards improving their access to agricultural land, non-land capital assets, and improving levels of education*

The main objective of this paper is to assess the status of human development and human poverty of three social groups, namely the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs relative to each other. According to the 2001 Census, SCs and STs together account for about one fourth of India's population. Among the two most deprived groups, the SCs account for about 17 percent (equivalent to 167 million) of the total Indian population, and the *Adivasis* (STs) for about 8 percent (equivalent to about 86 million) of the total Indian population.

The relative attainment in human development and human poverty is measured using the expanded human development framework in terms of 'Human Development Index', 'Human Poverty Index' and individual indicators of 'well-being'. It is important to recognise here that the SCs were historically denied the right to ownership of agricultural land, or to undertake business (other than few occupations such as scavenging, which are considered inferior and polluting). Hence, government policy since independence has been geared towards improving their access to agricultural land, non-land capital assets, and improving levels of education. In view of this, the analysis at the level of individual indicators will focus on the relative improvement in these areas as well as employment (other than wage labour).

We also empirically assess the situation of the SCs with respect to caste- and untouchability-based discrimination in civil, political, and economic spheres to the extent possible, and try to encapsulate, in a descriptive manner, the consequences on the human deprivation of the SCs.

### Human Development Index and Human Poverty Index

The individual indicators of attainment and composite indices attempt to capture human development from two perspectives - achievement and deprivational. The achievement perspective captures advances made by society as a whole and the deprivational perspective assesses the level of deprivation. We present the achievement in human development by different social groups in terms of index (HDI) using three indicators namely

- Infant Mortality Rate<sup>1</sup>, (a substitute variable for life expectancy),
- Literacy rate, and
- Inflation adjusted monthly per capita consumption expenditure (as substitute variable for income).

The HPI measures deprivation in basic human development dimensions - health, education and income. Deprivation in these three dimensions is captured by the following indicators:

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<sup>1</sup> Infant Mortality Rate generally captures the deprivational aspect but here the same variable is used to capture the achievement aspect by using the reciprocal value of IMR.

- (1) IMR (as a substitute for ‘probability at birth of not surviving to age 40’),
- (2) The percentage of adults who are illiterate, and
- (3) Economic dimension is captured by constructing a composite variable in terms of head count ratio of poverty, percentage of non-institutional deliveries, percentage of non-vaccinated children and percentage of children under-weight for age (as a substitute for un-weighted average of population without sustainable access to an improved water supply and children underweight for age)<sup>2</sup>.

For HDI, the higher the value, the higher will be the achievement and vice versa, whereas for HPI the higher the value, the higher will be the deprivation and vice versa.

We have also developed a “Social Justice Index” in terms of number of cases of crime include per lakh population for the SCs and STs (See Technical Note). In the case of SCs, the cases of crime ‘incidence of caste discrimination’, ‘caste-related atrocities and violence’ and ‘other caste-related offences registered under Anti-Discrimination Act and Prevention of Atrocities Act; and ‘Atrocities’ in the case of scheduled tribes.

To estimate disparities in human development and human poverty and other related variables between SC and non-SC/STs and between STs and non- SC/STs, a “Disparity Ratio” has been used.

### Disparity Ratios



Value approaching 1 in either direction indicates ‘tending towards equality’ and vice versa. It does not matter whether the disparity is for HDI or HPI, but it should tend towards 1. For example, the HDI value at all India level for SC vs. OC was 0.57 in 1980 and increased to 0.77 in 2000, indicating improvement of the situation in terms of tendency towards decrease in disparity. Similarly, the disparity ratio of HPI for SC vs. OC reduced from 1.41 to 1.22 for West Bengal during 1990 - 2000, indicating a decline in disparity. This has been defined as

Disparity Ratio (A, B) = achievement of group A/achievement of group B.

This ratio measures the attainments of group A (say SC/ST) relative to group B (say non-SC/ST). In the case of HDI, values lower than 1 will show lower achievement for group A and vice versa. But in the case of HPI, values lower than 1 indicate less deprivation of group A and vice versa. This is because the indicators of HDI are the inverse of HPI indicators.

### Database

The starting point for this study has been the preparation of an extensive database covering several indicators in terms of social groups. The entire data set has been compiled for three points of time namely, 1980s, 1990s and 2000s, at national and State levels from various sources, such as Census of India, the National Sample Survey, National Family Health Surveys, Report on Differential in Mortality in India (Vital Statistics), Reports on Crime in India and other official surveys as well as some independent sources. Human Development Indices are prepared for the 1980s and 2000s and Human Poverty Indices are prepared for the 1990s and 2000s.

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<sup>2</sup> For details see the Technical Note II.

## SECTION III

### Conceptual Framework

#### Concept of Social Exclusion

The central purpose of the study is to analyse the status of socially marginalised groups of SCs and STs, with respect to disparities in the attainment of human development. We discuss the concept of social exclusion in general, and caste and untouchability-based exclusion and discrimination in particular, since these are seen as causative factors for the deprivation of these groups.

In social science literature there is general agreement on the core features of social exclusion - its principal indicators and the way it relates to poverty and inequality. (Mayara Buvinic, 2005). Social exclusion is the denial of equal opportunities imposed by certain groups on others rebutting in the inability of an individual to participate in the basic political, economic and social functioning of the society.

Two defining characteristics of social exclusion are particularly relevant. First, deprivation is multidimensional, that is, there is denial of equal opportunity in multiple spheres. Second, it is embedded in the societal relations and societal institutions - the processes through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live (Haan, 1997).

There are the diverse ways in which social exclusion can cause deprivation and poverty. The consequences of exclusion thus depend crucially on the functioning of so-

cial institutions, and the degree to which they are exclusionary and discriminatory. Social exclusion has a considerable impact on an individual's access to equal opportunity if social interactions occur between groups in a power-subordinate relationship. The focus on groups recognises the importance of social relations in the analysis of poverty and inequality (Buvinic, 2005)

Amartya Sen draws attention to various meanings and dimensions of the concept of social exclusion (Sen, 2000). Distinction is drawn between the situation where some people are being kept out (or at least left out), and where some people are being included (may even be forcibly included) - at greatly unfavourable terms, and described these two situations as "unfavourable exclusion" and "unfavourable inclusion." Unfavourable inclusion", with unequal treatment may carry the same adverse effects as "unfavourable exclusion".

Sen also differentiated between "active and passive exclusion". He defined "active exclusion" as the deliberate exclusion of people from opportunity through government policy or other means. "Passive exclusion", as defined by Sen, works through the social process in which there are no deliberate attempts to exclude, but nevertheless, may result in exclusion from a set of circumstances.

Sen further distinguishes the "constitutive relevance" of exclusion from that of "instru-

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mental importance”. In the former, exclusion and deprivation have an intrinsic importance of their own. For instance, not being able to relate to others and to take part in the life of the community can directly impoverish a person’s life, in addition to the further deprivation it may generate. This is different from social exclusion of “instrumental importance”, in which the exclusion in itself is not impoverishing, but can lead to impoverishment of human life.

Mainstream economic literature throws more light on discrimination that works through markets and develops the concept of market discrimination with some analytical clarity. In the market discrimination framework, exclusion may operate through restrictions on entry into the market, and/or through “selective inclusion”, but with unequal treatment in market and non-market transactions (this is close to Sen’s concept of unfavourable inclusion).

These developments in social science literature enable us to understand the meanings and manifestations of the concept of social exclusion, and its applicability to caste- and ethnicity-based exclusion in India. Two crucial dimensions involving the notion of exclusion, are emphasised, namely the “societal institutions” (of exclusion) and their “outcome” (in terms of deprivation). In order to understand the dimensions of exclusion, it is necessary to understand the societal interrelations and institutions which lead to exclusion of certain groups and deprivation in multiple spheres - civil, cultural, political and economic. Thus, for a broader understanding of the concept of exclusion, the insight into the societal processes and institutions of exclusion is as important as the outcome in terms of deprivation for certain groups.

## Concept of Caste- and Ethnicity-based Exclusion and Discrimination

In India, exclusion revolves around the societal interrelations and institutions that exclude, discriminate, isolate and deprive some groups on the basis of their identity like caste and ethnicity (Thorat & Louis, 2003). Historically, the caste system has regulated the social and economic life of the people in India. (Thorat, 2003). The nature of exclusion revolving around the caste system particularly needs to be understood and conceptualised. It is this caste-based exclusion which has formed the basis for various anti-discriminatory policies in India (Thorat, 2004).

Theoretical formulations by economists recognised that in its essential form, caste as a system of social and economic governance or organisation (of production and distribution) is governed by certain customary rules and norms, which are unique and distinct (Akerlof 1976, Scoville 1991, 1996; Lal 1988, Ambedkar 1936 and 1987). The organisational scheme of the caste system is based on the division of people into social groups (or castes) in which the civil, cultural and economic rights of each individual caste are pre-determined or ascribed by birth and made hereditary. The assignment of civil, cultural and economic rights is, therefore, unequal and hierarchal. The most important feature of the caste system, however, is that it provides for a regulatory mechanism to enforce the social and economic organisation through the instruments of social ostracism (or social and economic penalties). The caste system is reinforced further with justification and support from philosophical elements in the Hindu religion (Lal 1988, Ambedkar 1936 and 1987).

*In the market discrimination framework, exclusion may operate through restrictions on entry into the market, and/or through “selective inclusion”, but with unequal treatment in market and non-market transactions*

*Due to differential ranking and the hierarchical nature of the caste system, the entitlements to various rights become narrower as one goes down the hierarchical ladder*

The caste system's fundamental characteristics of fixed civil, cultural and economic rights for each caste with restrictions for change, implies "forced exclusion" of one caste from the rights of another caste, or from undertaking the occupations of other castes. Exclusion and discrimination in civil, cultural and particularly in economic spheres, (such as occupation and labour employment), is therefore, internal to the system, and a necessary outcome of its governing principles. In the market economy framework, occupational immobility would operate through restrictions in various markets such as land, labour, credit and services necessary for any economic activity. Labour, being an integral part of the production process of any economic activity, would obviously become a part of market discrimination.

This theorisation implies that the caste system involves the negation of not only equality and freedom, but also of basic human rights, particularly of the low caste 'untouchables', impeding personal development. The principles of equality and freedom are not the governing principles of the caste system. Unlike many other societies, the caste system does not recognise the individual and his/her distinctiveness as the centre of the social purpose. In fact, for the purpose of rights and duties, the unit of Hindu society is not the individual. (Even the family is not regarded as a unit in Hindu society, except for the purposes of marriage and inheritance). The primary unit in Hindu society is caste, and hence, the rights and privileges (or the lack of them) of an individual are on account of him/her being a member of a particular caste (Ambedkar, first published in 1987). Also, due to dif-

ference of the caste system, the entitlements to various rights become narrower as one goes down the hierarchical ladder. Various castes get artfully interlinked and coupled with each other (in their rights and duties), in a manner such that the rights and privileges of the higher castes become the causative reasons for the disadvantage and disability for the lower castes, particularly the 'untouchables'. Castes at the top of the social order enjoy more rights - at the expense of those located at the bottom. Therefore the 'untouchables', located at the bottom of the caste hierarchy, have far fewer economic and social rights. (Thorat, 2002 & Thorat and Deshpande, 1999)

Since the civil, cultural and economic rights (particularly with respect to occupation and property rights) of each caste are ascribed and compulsory, the institution of caste necessarily involves forced exclusion of one caste from the rights of another. The unequal and hierarchical assignment of economic and social rights by ascription obviously restricts the freedom of occupation and human development.

## **Forms of Exclusion and Discrimination**

The practice of caste-based exclusion and discrimination thus necessarily involves failure of access and entitlements, not only to economic rights, but also to civil, cultural and political rights. It involves what has been described as "living mode exclusion" (Minorities at Risk, UNDP HDR 2004). Caste, untouchability and ethnicity-based exclusion thus reflect the inability of individuals and groups like former 'untouchables', *Adivasis* and similar groups to interact freely and productively with others and to take part in the full economic, social and political life of a community

(Bhalla and Lapeyre, 1997). Incomplete citizenship or denial of civil rights (freedom of expression, rule of law, right to justice), political rights (right and means to participate in the exercise of political power), and socioeconomic rights (economic security and equality of opportunities) are key to impoverished lives (Zoninsein, 2001).

In the light of the above, caste- and untouchability-based exclusion and discrimination can be categorised in the economic, civil, cultural and political spheres as follows:

(1) Exclusion and the denial of equal opportunity in the ***economic sphere*** would necessarily operate through market and non-market transactions and exchange.

*Firstly*, exclusion may be practiced in the labour market through denial of jobs; in the capital market through denial of access to capital; in the agricultural land market through denial of sale and purchase or leasing of land; in the input market through the denial of sale and purchase of factor inputs; and in the consumer market through the denial of sale and purchase of commodities and consumer goods;

*Secondly*, discrimination can occur through what Amartya Sen would describe as “unfavorable inclusion”, namely through differential treatment in terms and conditions of contract, or reflected in discrimination in the prices charged to and received by groups which are discriminated against. This can be inclusive of the price of factor inputs, and in the case of consumer goods, price of factors of production such as wages for labour, price of land or rent on land, interest on capital, rent on residential houses, charges or fees on services such as water and electricity. Such

groups can get lower prices for the goods that they sell, and could pay higher prices for the goods that they buy, as compared with the market price or the price paid by other groups;

*Thirdly*, exclusion and discrimination can occur in terms of access to social needs supplied by the government or public institutions, or by private institutions in education, housing and health, including common property resources (CPR) like water bodies, grazing land, and other land of common use; and

*Fourthly*, a group (particularly the ‘untouchables’) may face exclusion and discrimination from participation in certain categories of jobs (the sweeper being excluded from jobs inside the house), because of the notion of purity and pollution of occupations, and engagement in so-called unclean occupations.

(2) In the ***civil and cultural spheres***, the ‘untouchables’ may face discrimination and exclusion in the use of public services like roads, temples, water bodies and institutions delivering services like education and health.

Due to the physical (or residential) segregation and social exclusion on account of the notion of untouchability, they can suffer from a general societal exclusion.

Since there is a societal mechanism to regulate and enforce the customary norms and rules of the caste system, the ‘untouchables’ usually face opposition in the form of social and economic boycott and violence, which act as a deterrent to their right to development.

*Exclusion and discrimination can occur in terms of access to social needs supplied by the government or public institutions, or by private institutions in education, housing, and health, including common property resources (CPR) like water bodies, grazing land, and other land of common use*

- (3) In the *political sphere*, the ‘untouchables’ can face discrimination in access to political rights, and participation in the decision-making process.

Having clarified the concept of caste-based discrimination from which the ‘untouchables’ suffer the most, we now consider another form of exclusion from which groups like *Adivasis* (STs) suffer. This type of exclusion is linked with the ethnic identity of a group. Anthropologists tend to define ethnicity as a set of cultural elements shared by a community of individuals who organise their daily life around them. In rural areas, ethnicity is an attribute commonly associated with native communities that have limited contact with other communities (Torero et al, 2004).

Historically, the *Adivasis* have suffered from isolation, exclusion and underdevelopment due to their being ethnically different from the mainstream Indian society, and due to them having a distinct culture, language, social organisation and economy (they generally practice hunting, food gathering, shifting cultivation, and inhabit river valleys and forest regions). As a result, they are considerably deprived. In addition the *Adivasis* can suffer from what Amartya Sen would call the “constitutive relevance” of exclusion, which arises due to their inability to relate to others, to take part in the life of the community, and thus, directly impoverishes them.

This overview of the development of the concept of the “exclusion” in general, and that of caste-untouchability and ethnicity-based exclusion and discrimination in particular, highlights various dimensions of the concept in terms of its nature, forms, and consequences. Caste-and untouchability-based exclusion and discrimination are es-

entially “structural in nature” and comprehensive and multiple in coverage, involving denial of equal opportunities, particularly to excluded groups like the former ‘untouchables’. In the case of *Adivasis*, exclusion is not systemic or structural in nature and therefore the process of exclusion is different, although in outcome it is similar to that of former ‘untouchables’ in many respects, if not all.

### **Government Policy against Discrimination and for Social and Economic Empowerment**

The Indian State has recognised the problems of the Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) arising out of exclusion and discrimination and has developed policies to overcome their problems. The government’s approach towards the SC/STs draws primarily from the provision in the Constitution. The Constitution guarantees equality before the law (Article 14) (overturning the customary rules of the caste system); makes provision to promote the educational and economic interests of the SC/STs and protects them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation (Article 46); and provides for special measures through reservation in government service, and seats in democratic political institutions (Articles 330 and 335). The Indian Constitution has abolished the practice of untouchability and discrimination arising out of untouchability (Article 17). It also provides for the establishment of a permanent body to investigate and monitor the social and economic progress of the SCs and STs on an annual basis and the setting up of a monitoring mechanism at the central and the State levels.

Generally, the approach and strategy of the government towards the SC/STs has been influenced by two main considerations:

*Historically, the Adivasis have suffered from isolation, exclusion and underdevelopment due to their being ethnically different from the mainstream Indian society, and due to them having a distinct culture, language, social organisation and economy*



- (a) First, to provide safeguards against continuing exclusion and discrimination in civil, cultural, political and economic spheres in the society through legal protection
- (b) Second, to undertake specific measures to overcome the deprivation due to denial of equal opportunities in the past and to improve access and participation in social, economic and political spheres by developing inclusive policies and bring them on par with other sections of Indian society to the extent possible.

Towards this end, the government has used a two-fold strategy, namely

- (a) **Remedial measures** and safeguards against discrimination in various spheres and
- (b) **Developmental and empowering measures**, particularly in the economic sphere.

Remedial measures against discrimination include enactment of the Anti-untouchability Act of 1955 (renamed Protection of Civil Rights Act in 1979) and Scheduled Caste/Tribe Prevention of Atrocities Act, 1989 under which the practice of untouchability and discrimination in public places and community life is treated as an offence. The second Act provides legal protection to the SC/STs against violence and atrocities by the non-SC/STs.

Government policy however does not stop with legal protection against discrimination but goes beyond, developing measures to give equal opportunity and fair participation in the economic and political spheres.

The Reservation Policy\* falls under measures which intend to ensure fair and equal participation for the SC/STs.

The measures and safeguards against discrimination in the form of Reservation Policy\* are however, confined to State run and State supported sectors and the private sector - viz., agriculture, private industry and cooperative sector, where the bulk of the SC/ST workers (or population) are engaged - does not come under the umbrella of the Reservation Policy. So the State has used “general programmes” for economic, educational and social empowerment of the SC/STs. The focus has been to improve private ownership of fixed capital assets like agricultural land, non-land capital assets, education and skill development, as well as access to social and basic services like housing, health, drinking water, electricity and others. The strategy for improving private ownership of capital assets or building human resource capabilities has been undertaken primarily as part of anti-poverty and other economic and social programmes for the poor, by targeting or fixing specific informal quotas for SC/ST households in the case of divisible schemes. These measures in the private economic domain are in a way, akin to informal measures for affirmative action.

The distribution of surplus land from the ceiling and government land to landless households, with supportive schemes of supply of credit and inputs at subsidised rates to the SC/ST households in rural areas is to increase the ownership of agricultural land and the productivity of land assets. The

*Government policy does not stop with legal protection against discrimination but goes beyond, developing measures to give equal opportunity and fair participation in the economic and political spheres*

\* Reservation Policy: A specific quota is reserved in proportion to the population in government services, public sector undertakings, insurance and government banking institutions, State run and supported educational institutions, public housing and other public spheres as well as in various political democratic bodies including the parliament, State assemblies, and panchayat institutions from district, taluk and down to village levels

*While SC and ST women share common problems of gender discrimination with their high caste counterparts, they also suffer from problems specifically related to their caste and ethnic backgrounds*

schemes to provide financial capital, training and information to undertake new business or improve existing ones, include measures to improve ownership of capital and business and to strengthen capacity to undertake entrepreneurial activities. The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is the earliest self-employment programme meant to enable identified rural poor families to augment their income through acquisition of credit-based productive assets. For the wage labour households, wage employment is provided under various wage employment schemes.

The social needs include provision of education, drinking water, housing, electricity, sanitation, etc. Educational development constitutes the major programme of the government (about half of the Central government spending on the SC/STs is on education). Government educational schemes include measures to

- (a) Improve educational infrastructure, particularly in areas populated predominantly by SC/STs
- b) Increase admission in educational institutions through reservation of seats and other measures,
- (c) Provide financial support at various levels of education, including scholarships/fellowships (national and international),
- (d) Provide remedial coaching to improve quality of education and capabilities,
- (e) Provide special hostels for boys and girls.

In all these schemes, there will be a special focus on girls' education. (*Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment Report, Delhi, 1996*)

Government has also developed schemes to improve the access of SC/STs to civic

amenities like drinking water, housing, sanitation, electricity and roads.

Since the settlements of SCs in rural areas are mostly segregated, the civic amenities often fail to reach to them. Special assistance is given to the State (under the special central assistance to Special Component Plan for SC and Tribal sub-Plan) to ensure supply of these amenities.

Problems faced by SC and ST women occupy a special place in the government programmes. While these women share common problems of gender discrimination with their high caste counterparts, they also suffer from problems specifically related to their caste and ethnic backgrounds - extremely low levels of literacy and education; heavy dependence on wage labour; discrimination in employment and wages; heavy concentration in unskilled, low paid and sometimes hazardous manual jobs; violence and sexual exploitation; and as victims of religious and social superstitions such as in the *Devadasi* system. Therefore in each of the programmes, special focus is given to the SC/ST women. Legislations have been enacted and schemes developed to overcome their specific problems.

About one-third of the total funds of the Central government are allocated for economic empowerment, about half to education and the remaining one-fifth to social services like housing. (*Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment Annual Report and Ministry of Tribal Affairs Manual*)

### **Administrative Set-up for Implementation and Monitoring**

An elaborate administrative machinery has been developed at the Centre and in the State/Union Territories for SCs. The nodal ministries at the Centre are the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment

for SCs and Ministry of Tribal Affairs for STs which support and supplement the financial efforts of other Union Ministries, State governments, Union Territories and NGOs. These ministries are entrusted with the work of policy framing, monitoring and evaluation of Central government programmes, which are mainly implemented through the individual States. The ministries work closely with the Planning Commission (Ministry of Planning), in formulation and evaluation of Special Component Plan for SCs and Tribal sub-Plan for STs. At the Centre, most of the ministries have a division or section, which looks after specific schemes of the SC/STs. The ministries also have Research and Training programmes which evaluate the efficacy of the ongoing programmes to improve implementation.

The other important independent administrative institutions which supervise, monitor and offer suggestions for effective implementation of laws and schemes are the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Commission for Safai Karamcharis and Standing Committee of Parliamentarians on Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is a statutory body which oversees the development of the SCs and STs and prepares an annual report about their progress which has been discussed in the Parliament every year since 1950.

A similar administrative set-up also exists at the State level, although there are considerable variations across the States. Most of the States have a separate ministry for SC/STs, whose function is to formulate policies, as well as implement, monitor and evaluate the programmes for SC/STs.

The programmes are generally implemented through a special department at the State, division and district levels and in many cases at the *Taluk* level. Many States have Commissions for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, as at the Centre.

### **Financial Mechanism - Special Component Plan and Tribal sub-Plan**

Over a period of time, the Central and State governments have developed a specific mechanism for allocation of funds for schemes of the SC/STs. Till the end of the Fourth Plan (1979-80) the only funds available for the development of SC/STs were under the general head of ‘Backward Class Sectors’. From the Sixth Plan onwards, a new mechanism for allocation of funds from general sectors for development of SC and ST was developed - the Special Component Plan for Scheduled Castes and Tribal sub-Plan for Scheduled Tribes. The present mechanism or strategy of financial allocation is operationalised through these special plans.

The flow of funds (and hence the benefits) is canalised from the general sectors in the plans of State and Central Ministries for the development of SCs and STs both in physical and financial terms. These plans aim to identify schemes in the general sectors of development which would benefit SC/STs, quantify funds from all divisible programmes under each sector (generally in proportion to the share of the population) and determine specific targets, in terms of number of families which are to be benefited from the programmes under each sector. The practice followed so far has been to finalise sectoral outlays when finalising the annual plan of a particular State - the share under Special Component

*At the Centre, most of the ministries have a division or section, which looks after specific schemes of the SC/STs. The ministries also have Research and Training programmes which evaluate the efficacy of the ongoing programmes to improve implementation*

Plan (SCP) and Tribal sub-Plan from each sector is determined thereafter. The Special Central Assistance to SCP is to supplement the States' efforts for additional thrust for speedy development of the SCs by providing additional support to SC families to enhance their productivity and income in order to bring about occupational diversification.

The Central government and most State governments have also established financial institutions, like the Scheduled Caste Finance Corporation, to provide capital for undertaking business and other economic activities. The main function of the Scheduled

Caste Development Corporations in the States is to mobilise institutional credit for economic development schemes of SC entrepreneurs by functioning as catalysts, promoters and guarantors. These Corporations provide credit to SC/ST persons for business purposes and encourage the financial institutions, particularly commercial banks, to give credit to SC/STs. Under the priority sector guidelines, nationalised banks are also required to provide at least 10 percent of their total advances to the weaker sections, which include SC/ST borrowers. The guidelines give high priority to SC/STs in bank advances.



## SECTION IV

### Status of Human Development and Human Poverty

We assess the progress of the SCs and STs in comparison to the rest of the population, in terms of human development and human poverty at all India and State levels. The assessment of attainment in human development is done by taking a composite index of human development and human poverty, and by analysing improvement in individual indicators used in the human development framework. We also assess the attainment in ownership of agricultural land, employment in general and regular salaried jobs in particular. The incidence of wage labour and incidence of human rights violations and violence against the SCs and the STs are also discussed to capture the aspects which have been the focus of government policies and measures.

#### Status of Human Development: Social Groups- 2000<sup>3</sup>

The achievement by different sections of the population in various spheres is summarised in terms of HDI. The HDI is a composite index of three indicators, namely infant mortality rate (reciprocal value), literacy rate (age 7plus), and average monthly per capita consumption expenditure (at 1993 base price). The HDI takes values between 0 and 1; higher development for a group means a value closer to 1. In this case, it would imply that the entire population of the group has achieved minimal attain-

ment on each of the dimensions considered. Table 1.1 gives the values of the HDI by social groups for the year 2000. (See also Technical Note I and II)

The Human Development Index (HDI) has been calculated for the years 1980 and 2000 for all major States, excluding the State of Jammu and Kashmir and the north-eastern States. The value of HDI estimated in this report would vary from the value calculated by UNDP for the paper submitted to Twelfth Finance Commission (Human Development Indices in India: Trends and Analysis), due to difference in the use of indicators<sup>4</sup>.

The level of human development is analysed at all India as well as State levels, for the year 2000 only. The exclusion of the disadvantaged groups is analysed using the disparity ratios between SC/ST and non-ST/SC across the States. This is followed by an analysis of temporal changes in the HDI (2000 over 1980) for all India and across States with respect to level and disparity.

#### All Groups

The HDI, estimated to be 0.366 for all India, shows a variation across the States, from 0.279 for Bihar to 0.715 for Kerala. There are seven States which have HDI values less than the all India average and nine States which have HDI value higher than all-India average.

*The incidence of wage labour and incidence of human rights violations and violence against the SCs and the STs capture the aspects which have been the focus of government policies and measures*

<sup>3</sup> In this report HDI is estimated for the period of 1980s and 2000s and HPI for the period of 1990s and 2000s. During the estimation of both HDI and HPI, variables are taken for the closest year available (if exact year variables are not available) or for the exact year.

<sup>4</sup> Please refer to the Technical Note II for details regarding the indicators used by UNDP and indicators used for this report for estimating the HDI as well as HPI.

## High and Low HDI States

		SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All Groups
<div>H</div> <div>↓</div> <div>L</div>	High HDI States	Kerala	Kerala	Kerala	Kerala
		Himachal Pradesh	Assam	Himachal Pradesh	Himachal Pradesh
		Maharashtra	Tamil Nadu	Maharashtra	Maharashtra
		Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Tamil Nadu	Tamil Nadu
		Gujarat	Maharashtra	West Bengal	Punjab
		Assam	Karnataka	Punjab	Haryana
		West Bengal	<b>India</b>	Gujarat	West Bengal
		Punjab	Rajasthan	Haryana	Gujarat
		Haryana	West Bengal	Karnataka	Karnataka
		Karnataka	Uttar Pradesh	<b>India</b>	<b>India</b>
	Low HDI States	<b>India</b>	Madhya Pradesh	Andhra Pradesh	Assam
		Madhya Pradesh	Andhra Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	Andhra Pradesh
		Rajasthan	Orissa	Rajasthan	Rajasthan
		Orissa	Bihar	Orissa	Madhya Pradesh
		Andhra Pradesh		Assam	Orissa
		Uttar Pradesh		Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh
		Bihar		Bihar	Bihar

### Scheduled Castes

The HDI at all India level for SCs is estimated to be 0.303 which is lower than the HDI for non-SC/ST at 0.393. Values range from 0.661 for Kerala to 0.195 for Bihar. There are 10 States with HDI value higher than all India average for SCs and six States with HDI value lower than all India average for SCs (See Fig. 1(a)).

### Scheduled Tribes

The HDI for Scheduled Tribes is estimated for 13 out of 16 major States. The HDI at all India level for STs is estimated to be 0.270, which is significantly less than HDI for non-SC/ST (0.393). Among the 13 States, the HDI value is highest in Kerala (0.613), followed by Assam (0.361). It is lowest in Bihar (0.201). The gap between the two top States is quite large

because the performance of Kerala is better with respect to the three components of HDI. The literacy rate for STs in Kerala is 64.35 percent followed by Assam with 62.52 percent. The MPCE of STs in Kerala is also high at Rs. 456 compared with Rs. 285 for Assam. The variable which pushes Kerala to the highest position however, is IMR, which is 21, compared to 59 for Assam (See Fig. 1(b)).

### Non-SC/STs

The HDI at all India level for non-SC/STs is estimated to be 0.393, which is higher than the HDI for the SCs, STs and all groups. Across States, the HDI value shows a variation from 0.755 for Kerala to 0.301 for Bihar.

Inter-State variations are quite similar to that for SC and STs. Nine States have HDI value higher than all India average

*The variable which pushes Kerala to the highest position is IMR, which is 21, compared to 59 for Assam*

(see Table: High and Low HDI States). However, the State of Kerala is way ahead.

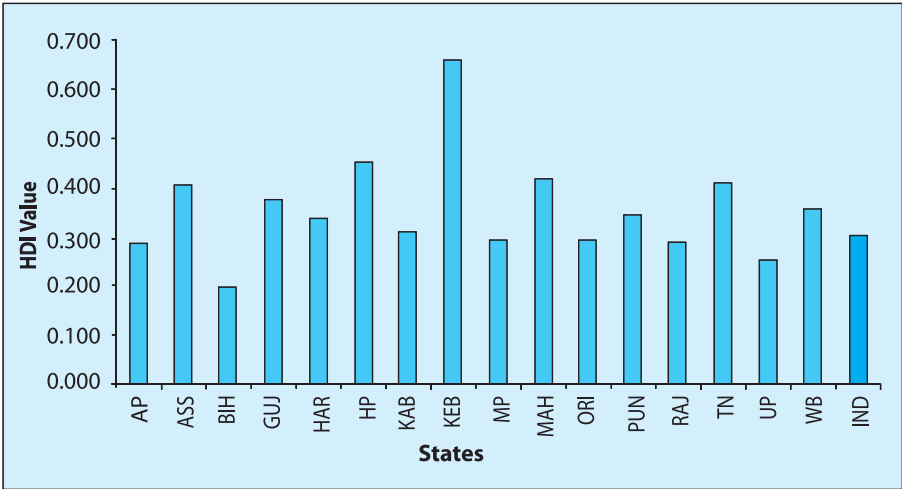
### Inter - social Group Variations

The regional pattern of HDI by social groups indicates that there is a group of States where HDI is relatively low for all three social groups (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh in that order). There is also group of States which shows a high level of human development (Kerala, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, in that order). Given that the same States show a low level of human development for SCs and STs and the non-SC/STs (namely Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa, and Madhya Pradesh), it is important to examine the factors for such low levels of HDI, and also to note factors specific to social groups, if any.

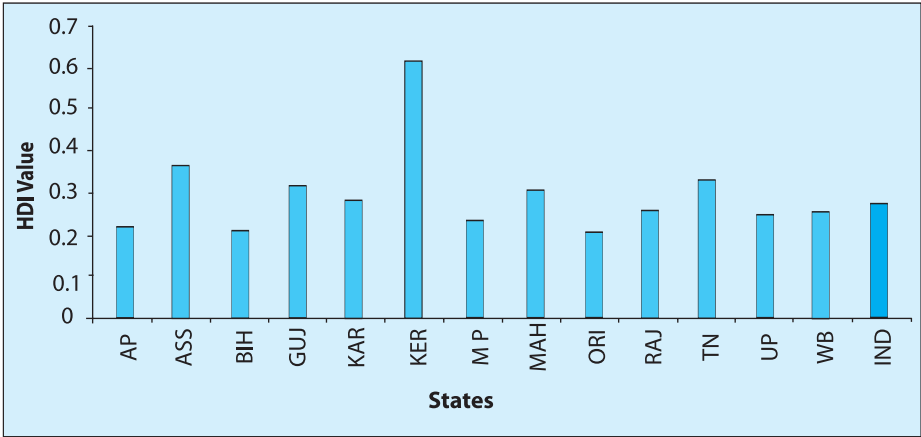
In this section we look at the differences in the levels in human development across social groups. Table 1.1 (see Table on p.57). gives the values of HDI for the three social groups, and the disparity ratios between the SCs and the non-SC/STs, and the STs and the non-SC/STs for the year 2000 at all India and State levels. A disparity ratio less than 1 means lower attainment in human development for the SCs and the STs compared to the non-SC/STs and vice-versa.

In 2000, the HDI for the SCs was about 0.303, compared to 0.393 for the non-SC/STs. The disparity ratio in this case works out to 0.77, indicating that the human development achievement of the SCs was less

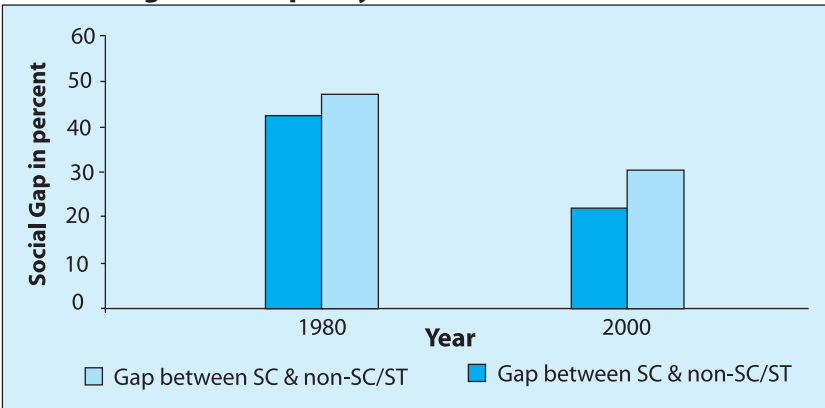
**Figure1(a): Human Development Index for SC-Regional Variations, 2000**



**Figure1(b): Human Development Index for ST-Regional Variations, 2000**



**Figure 2: Disparity in HDI 1980-2000, All-India**



by 23 percent compared to non-SC/STs (Table 1.1 and Fig 2).

In all the States, the HDI values were lower for the SCs as compared to non-SC/STs.

*Given the lower base of human development for the SCs and the STs in the base year, the annual rate was relatively higher for them as compared with the non-SC/STs*

The disparity level was higher in Bihar (0.65), Andhra Pradesh (0.74), Karnataka (0.74), Punjab (0.77) and UP (0.77). Attainment level of human development was about 35 percent lower among the SCs as compared with non-SC/STs in Bihar, and about 26 percent lower in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka (Fig 3 and Table 2.1(a)). The disparity was relatively less in the States of Kerala (0.89), Tamil Nadu (0.88), Maharashtra (0.87), Gujarat and Himachal Pradesh (0.86), as the values of the disparity ratio are closer to 1. These States, with lower disparity ratios, also happen to be the regions with high human development. Lower disparity levels seem to go hand in hand with high level of human development among the SCs. In case of the STs, the gap between them and the non-SC/STs was higher as compared with the SCs.

Comparing HDIs at the national level in the year 2000, the HDI for the STs was 0.270, as compared to 0.393 for the non-SC/STs. The disparity ratio was 0.69, indicating 31 percent lower HD human development among the STs (Fig 2). The disparity ratio was less than 1 in all the States except Assam, ranging from 0.56 to 0.67

in seven States (West Bengal, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, and Bihar). In other words, compared to the non-SC/ST, the HDI was lower by a margin of about 44 to 33 percent for STs.

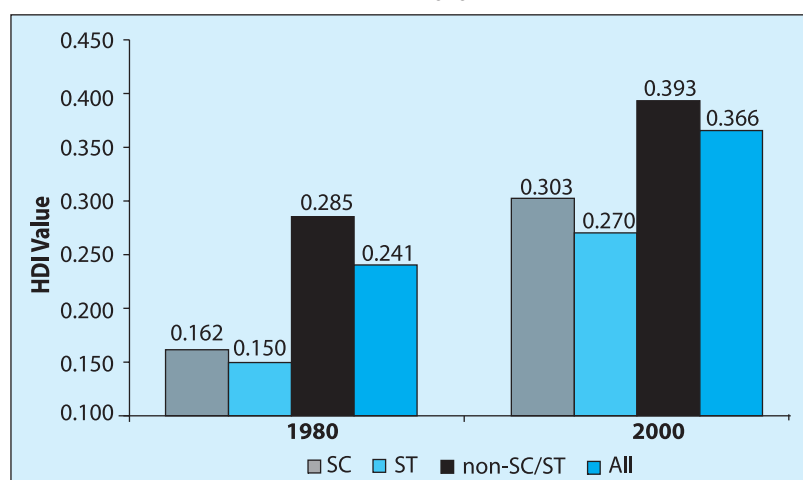
## Changes in the Level of Human Development Index by Social Groups

In this section, we look at the changes in human development between 1980 and 2000 by social groups. Between 1980 and 2000, the HDI improved in the case of all the three social groups; however, there are significant differences in terms of rate of change. Given the lower base of human development for the SCs and the STs in the base year, the annual rate was relatively higher for them as compared with the non-SC/STs, implying greater improvement of SC and STs in terms of the human development indicators as compared to the non-SC/STs (Fig 3). The annual rates of growth were 3.55 percent, 3.34 percent, and 1.80 percent for the SCs, the STs, and non-SC/STs respectively (Table 1.1).

There are also differences in the rate of change for the individual States between each of the social groups (Table 2.1 (b)).

In the case of the SCs, there are eight States where the rates of change in HDI values are found to be higher than the all India average, varying from 7.15 percent in Assam to 3.70 percent in Madhya Pradesh. The States in this group include Assam, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Himachal Pradesh, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh. However, in the remaining 8 States (Haryana, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Bihar, Kerala,

**Figure 3: Human Development Index for Social Groups, All-India**



Punjab and Gujarat) the rate of change of HDI values are found to be lower as compared to all India value - varying from 2.17 (Gujarat) to 3.51 percent (Haryana). Except for Bihar, the rate of improvement is relatively higher in States where the value of HDI in the base year was low, compared to States where the value in the base year was relatively high.

In the case of the STs, at all India level the value of HDI increased at the rate of 3.34 percent per annum. The rate of increase was higher than the all India average in four States - Assam, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Rajasthan. In the remaining nine States the HDI increased at a rate that was lower than the all India average.<sup>5</sup>

Lastly, in the case of non-SC/STs, the HDI increased by 1.8 percent per annum at the all India level. The rate of increase was lower in Punjab, Kerala and Karnataka. In the remaining States, the annual rate of increase

was higher than all India average. In the case of non-SC/STs also, the rate of change in HDI is found to be low for high HDI states compared to low HDI states.

### Changes in Disparity - 1980 to 2000

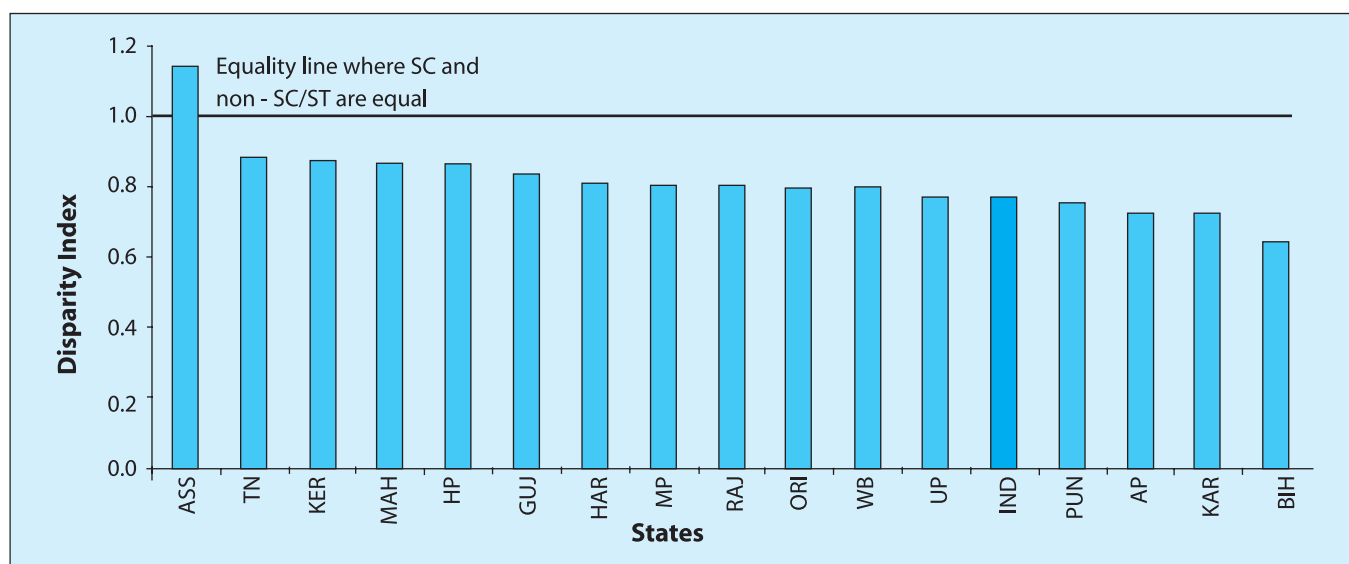
The preceding discussion on the changes in HDI during the period 1980-2000, indicated improvement in the level of HDI for all social groups in all the States. Since the HDI improved at a faster rate for the SCs and STs than non-SC/STs it is expected that the disparity in the HDI between them and the non-SC/STs would be further reduced.

The disparity ratio between the SCs and the non-SC/STs, improved from 0.57 in 1980, to 0.77 in 2000, thereby approaching the equality value of 1<sup>6</sup>. Between the 1980s and 2000s, the decline in disparity in the HDI between the SCs and the non-SC/STs was fairly widespread across the States(Fig 4).

A similar trend is visible in the case of STs. The disparity ratio between STs and non-

*The rate of improvement is relatively greater in States where the value of HDI in the base year was low, compared to States where the value in the base year was relatively high*

**Figure 4: Disparity between SC and non-SC/ST in HDI, 2000**



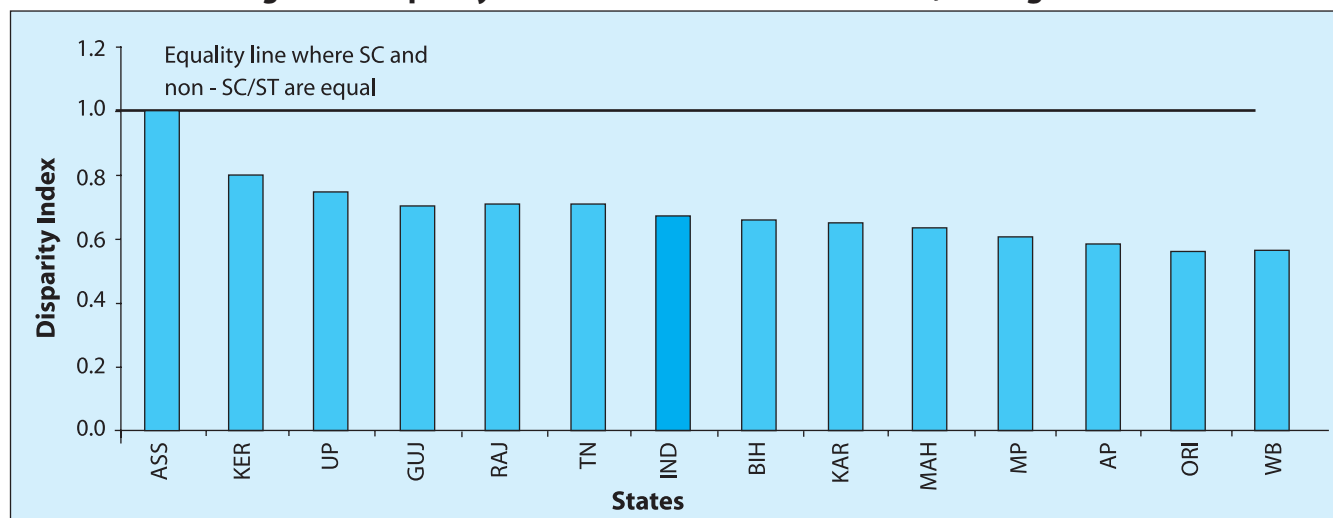
Note: Distance between Equality line and the bars indicates the extent of gap.

<sup>5</sup> HDI index is calculated for 13 major states, in case of STs. Haryana, H.P. and Punjab excluded due to non availability of data on 46 Sts.

<sup>6</sup> Disparity ratio approaching one (1) indicates it is in the process of reduction in inequality. It does not matter whether the figure is <1 or >1, what matters the value should approach to the magic figure one.



**Figure 5: Disparity between ST and non-SC/ST HDI, during 2000**



SC/STs improved from 0.52 in 1980s to 0.69 in 2000, approaching the equality value of 1, but not enough to reduce the difference substantially (Fig 5).

The features that emerge from this discussion on human development of the social groups in 2000 are as follows:

- Firstly, the HDI among the SCs and the STs is found to be lower, as compared with the non-SC/ST groups. During 1980-2000, the HDI improved overall for all the social groups, as well as in all States. Given the lower base of HDI in 1980 for the SCs and the STs, the rate of change among them was higher, as compared with non-SC/STs.
- In 2000, compared to non-SC/ST the level of HDI of the SCs and the STs was lower by a margin of about 25 percent and 30 percent respectively.
- Finally, there is a set of States, where human development was found to be relatively low for all the three groups. This includes the States of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh. On the other hand the HDI was found to be high for another set of States comprising

Kerala, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu for all the three groups.

### **Status of Human Poverty - 2000**

The HPI not only measures deprivation in basic human development dimensions which are included in HDI, but also includes additional aspects related to social needs like access to health and nutritional status, etc. For the purpose of estimating HPI, the variables are Infant Mortality Rate, Illiteracy Rate, Poverty Ratio (Head Count Ratio), health status (which includes variables that capture access to public health services, like percentage of children not vaccinated, and percentage of non-institutional deliveries) and nutritional status (in terms of underweight children, etc). Together these variables capture deprivation of social groups in the essential spheres.

The HPI has been calculated for 1990 and 2000. The level of human poverty is analysed at all India and the State levels (see Table 1.2 a). This is followed by an analysis of changes in the HPI between 1990 and 2000 for all India and across States.

### **All Social Groups**

The value of HPI is estimated to be 33.63 for all social groups taken together at all

*The HPI not only measures deprivation in basic human development dimensions which are included in HDI, but also includes additional aspects related to social needs like access to health and nutritional status*

India level. There are six States where the HPI values are more than the all India value implying greater deprivation as compared to the all India average. These States are Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa, Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. States where the level of deprivation is lower as compared to all-India level are West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Haryana, Karnataka, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Punjab, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. Among the more deprived States, the HPI value varies from 37.79 percent (Rajasthan) to 46.4 percent (Bihar) and among less deprived States it varies from 11.77 percent in Kerala to 32.44 percent in West Bengal.

### **Scheduled Castes**

The HPI for Scheduled Castes is estimated to be 41.47 percent for all India, which is much higher compared to non-SC/STs (31.34 percent). The HPI revealed significant variation across the States with values ranging from 18.62 percent to 59.36 percent. It is to be remembered here that the higher the value, the greater the deprivation and vice versa<sup>7</sup>. The level of deprivation is greatest in Bihar (59.36 percent) followed by Uttar Pradesh (50.03 percent), Orissa (47.66 percent), Rajasthan (43.78 percent) and Madhya Pradesh (43.68 percent), as compared to the all-India level (41.47 percent). In the remaining 11 States, the rate of deprivation is lower than the all-India value. The deprivation is found to be least in Kerala (18.62 percent). (Figure 6)

### **Scheduled Tribes**

In the case of Scheduled Tribes the HPI is calculated for 13 major States (Figure 7). The HPI is 47.79 percent for all-India and it ranges from 27.65 percent in Kerala to 60.69 percent in Orissa. Six

States have higher HPI than the all-India average. There are eight States where the values are less than the all-India average, implying that in these States the level of deprivation is lower as compared to other States, from 27.65 in Kerala to 47.72 in West Bengal (See Figure 7). For both the SCs and the STs the illiteracy rate is closely associated with high level of deprivation.

### **Non SC/STs**

It is important to note that the deprivation among the non-SC/STs is lower compared to SCs and STs at all-India level as well as in the States. It is estimated that in the case of non-SC/STs, the HPI values are higher than the all-India value in eight States including Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Haryana and Punjab. The HPI values in these States vary from 31.47 percent in Punjab to 43.2 percent in Bihar. In the remaining eight States, the HPI values are lower than the all-India HPI value, indicating lower deprivation.

### **Inter - Social Group Variations**

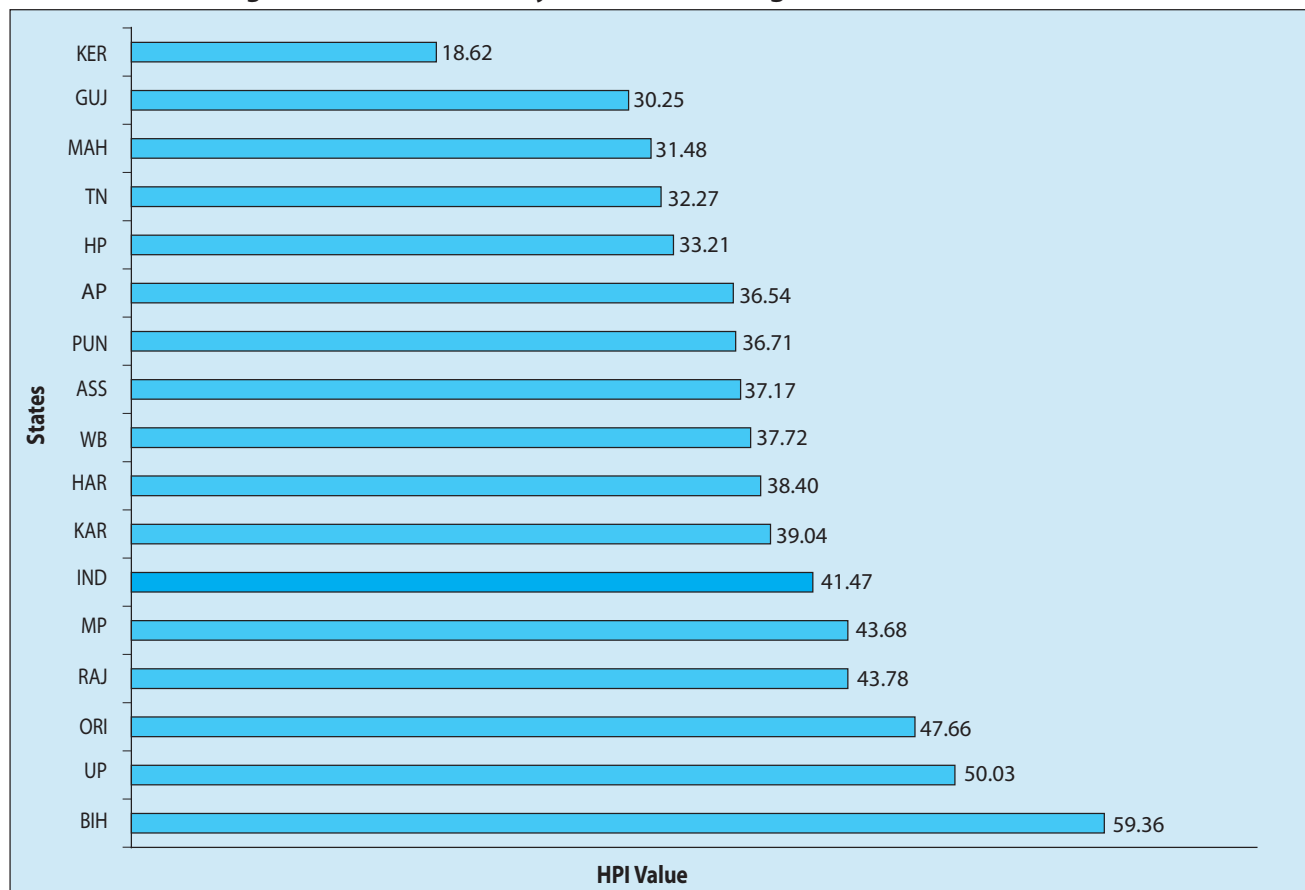
Having examined the inter-State variations, 23 we now analyse the inter-social group variation in HPI. In 2000, at all-India level, the HPI was 33.63 percent but its value varied across the three social groups. The HPI are higher for the SCs and the STs, compared to the non-SC/STs overall, indicating a higher level of deprivation. The values of HPI were 41.47 percent, 47.79 percent, and 31.34 percent for the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs respectively (Table 1.2).

The inter-social group differences between the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs are reflected in the disparity ratio (Table 1.2). The difference in HPI between the SCs and the non-SC/STs at all-India level was 10

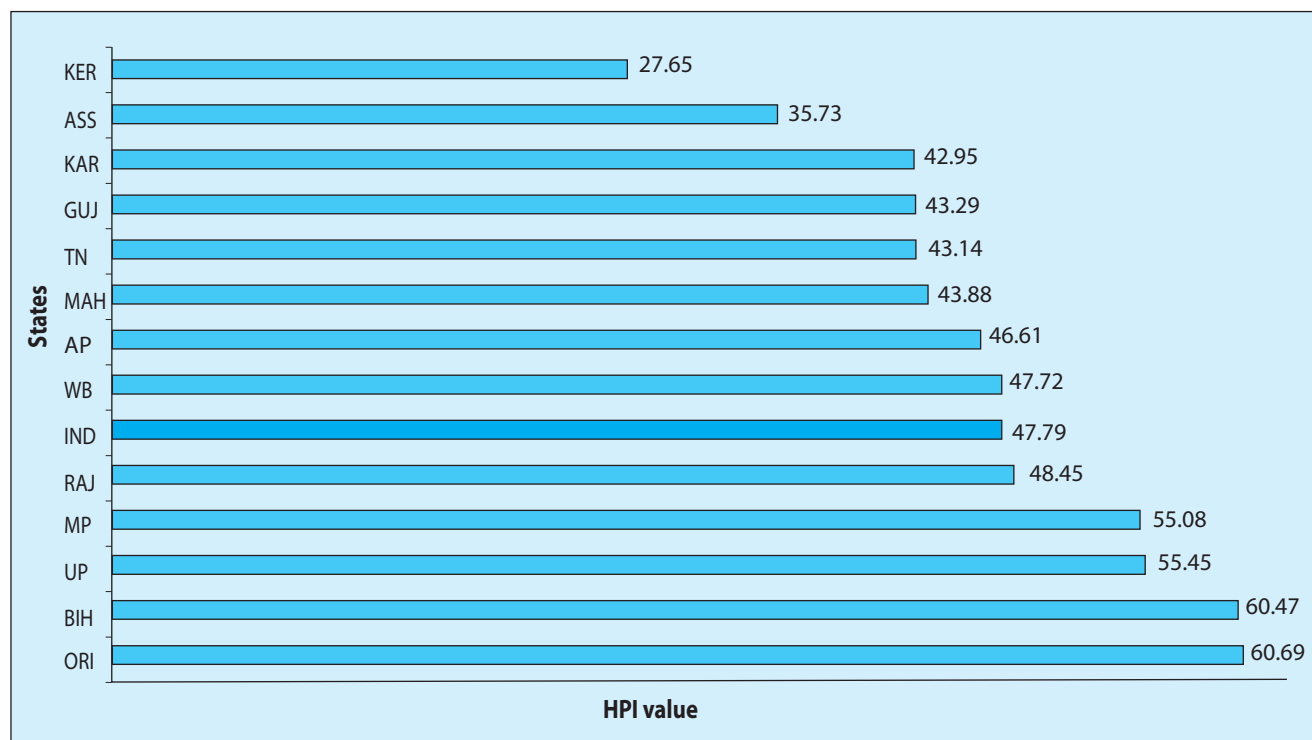
*The deprivation among the non-SC/STs is lower compared to SCs and STs at all-India level as well as in the States*

<sup>7</sup> It was mentioned earlier that where Human Development Index captures the achievement aspect the Human Poverty Index captures the deprivation aspect of human well-being

**Figure 6: Human Poverty Index for SC, Regional Variation, 2000**



**Figure 7: Human Poverty Index for ST, Regional Variation, 2000**





percentage points. The disparity ratio worked out to 1.32<sup>8</sup>, indicating that among the SCs, the HPI was higher by 32 percent, compared to the non-SC/STs. The disparity ratio for SCs vs. non-SC/STs at State level was greater than 1 for all States except Assam, indicating greater deprivation of SCs as compared to non-SC/STs.

Similarly, the HPI for the STs was 47.79 percent, compared to 31.34 percent for the non-SC/STs, the disparity ratio being 1.52. HPI among the STs was about 50 percent greater than the non-SC/STs in 2000.

Andhra Pradesh was the only State that had both HDI and HPI lower than the all-India average. This means that it had both low attainment and low deprivation whereas indices for other States indicate a different relationship, where low HDI is matched with high HPI. This is true for Bihar, Uttar

Pradesh, Orissa, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan.

HPI was high for SCs, STs and non-SC/STs in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and for all groups in Bihar, Orissa and Uttar Pradesh. HPI was lowest in Kerala for all social groups - SCs, STs and non-SC/STs - as well as overall for all groups.

### Changes in the Level of Human Poverty Index by Social Groups: 1990-2000

Unlike HDI, we do not have comparable data for 1980, and therefore the changes in HPI are analysed for 1990 and 2000. During 1990-2000, the HPI declined for all social groups. In 1990s, the HPI declined from 54.36 percent, 60.32 percent, and 42.09 percent to 41.47 percent, 47.79 percent,

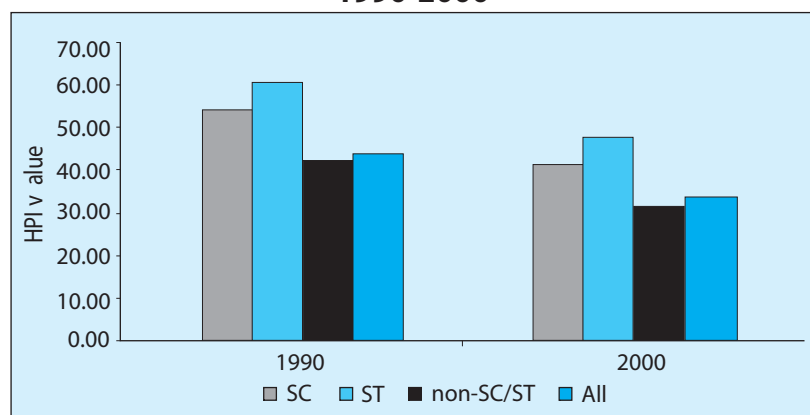
*Andhra Pradesh was the only State that had both HDI and HPI lower than the all-India average*

### High and Low HPI States

		SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All Groups
H ↓ L	High HPI States	Bihar	Orissa	Bihar	Bihar
		Uttar Pradesh	Bihar	Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh
		Orissa	Uttar Pradesh	Assam	Orissa
		Rajasthan	Madhya Pradesh	Rajasthan	Assam
		Madhya Pradesh	Rajasthan	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh
		<b>India</b>	<b>India</b>	Orissa	Rajasthan
	Low HPI States	Karnataka	West Bengal	Haryana	<b>India</b>
		Haryana	Andhra Pradesh	Punjab	West Bengal
		West Bengal	Maharashtra	<b>India</b>	Andhra Pradesh
		Assam	Tamil Nadu	West Bengal	Himachal Pradesh
		Punjab	Gujarat	Andhra Pradesh	Haryana
		Andhra Pradesh	Karnataka	Himachal Pradesh	Karnataka
		Himachal Pradesh	Assam	Karnataka	Gujarat
		Tamil Nadu	Kerala	Maharashtra	Maharashtra
		Maharashtra		Gujarat	Punjab
		Gujarat		Tamil Nadu	Tamil Nadu
		Kerala		Kerala	Kerala

<sup>8</sup> Disparity Ratio <1 implies lower deprivation of numerator group and vice versa; when it is equal to one it indicates equality. That means higher the value of HPI higher will be the deprivation and vice versa.

**Figure 8: Human Poverty among Social Groups in India, 1990-2000**



and 31.34 percent in 2000 for the SCs, the STs and non-SC/STs respectively (Figure 8).

At the aggregate level, HPI declined at an annual rate of 3.66 percent. However the decline was at a lower annual rate for the SCs (3.79 percent), and the STs (3.27 percent), as compared to the non-SC/STs (4.13 percent).

At the State level, the HPI declined at a higher rate than the national average of 3.27 percent per annum for SCs in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, and Tamil Nadu. Conversely, the HPI declined at much slower rate in

Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Gujarat.

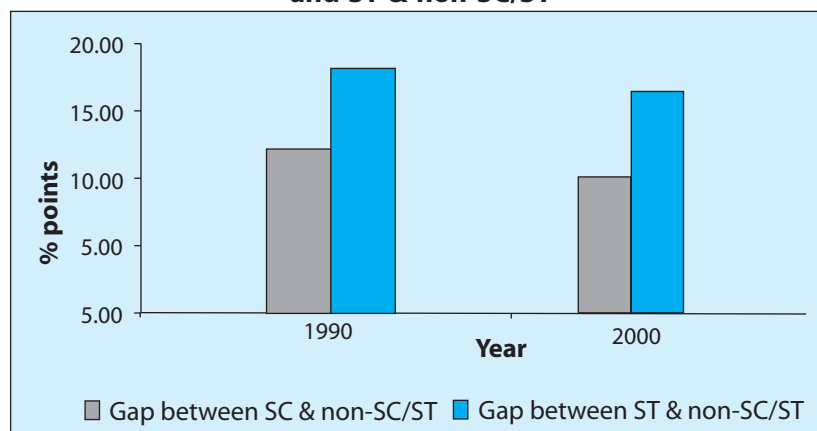
In the case of STs, a relatively high rate of decline occurred in only two States, viz. Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. The decline was quite slow in Uttar Pradesh, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Bihar. All these are high human poverty regions. with the exception of Gujarat (Table 3.1(b)).

### Changes in Disparity- 1990 to 2000

We now discuss the changes in inter-social group disparities in HPI at all-India as well as State levels. In the case of SC vs. non-SC/STs, the disparity ratio increased from 1.29 in 1990 to 1.32 in 2000, an annual rate of 0.34 percent. The trend was the same for the ST vs. non-SC/STs; the HPI disparity ratio increased from 1.43 in 1990 to 1.52 in 2000, an annual rate of 0.89 at all-India level. The increase in the disparity ratio of HPI between the SCs and non-SC/STs and the STs and the non-SC/STs between 1990 and 2000 is closely associated with a slower decline in the level of HPI between 1990 and 2000 for SCs and STs (Figure 9).

The disparity figures vary across States not only in terms of intensity (magnitude) of change but also in terms of direction of change. Here it is important to recognise that the decline in the disparity between the SCs and the non-SC/STs at overall levels during 1990-2000, was limited to nine States i.e. Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan and West Bengal, indicating an improvement in the situation. In the remaining seven States under study it had increased. These States were Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, and Uttar Pradesh. As many as 11 States indicated an increase in HPI

**Figure 9: Disparity (% points) in HPI between SC & non-SC/ST and ST & non-SC/ST**



disparity between STs and non-SC/STs. The disparity ratio was found to have declined only in Kerala and Maharashtra.

This discussion condenses some of the features related to the status of human poverty during 2000, and changes in the level and disparity across social groups between 1990 and 2000.

- In 2000, the HPI was higher overall for the SCs and the STs as compared to the non-SC/STs.
- The inter-social group differences in HPI were reflected both in terms of the difference as well as disparity ratios. The difference in HPI between the SCs and non-SC/STs and STs and non-SC/STs worked out to 10 and 16 points respectively. The disparity ratio for the SCs vs. non-SC/STs worked out to about 1.32, indicating that the prevalence of human poverty among the SCs was higher by about one-third. In the case of the STs, the disparity ratio was 1.52, indicating that the incidence of human poverty among the STs was higher by more than 50 percent.
- During the period 1990-2000, the HPI declined for all the social groups, but it declined at lower annual rates for the SCs and the STs, as compared to the non-SC/STs.

The disparity between the SC/STs and the non-SC/STs in terms of difference declined only marginally. Due to the minimal decline in the difference in the HPI, the disparity ratios indicated no improvement in reducing the gap in the HPI between SC/STs and the non-SC/STs in 2000 from its level in 1990. On the contrary, the gap widened.

- At the State level, with the exception of one or two States, a group of similar States comprising Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan indicated a higher level of HPI for the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs.

### **Individual Dimensions of Human Development: Level, Disparity and Changes**

Since the composite indices of HDI and HPI capture the overall achievements of human well-being, in order to make the analysis more insightful we now examine the attainment levels for selected dimensions of HDI and HPI. These include Infant Mortality Rate, Literacy Rate, Per Capita Consumption Expenditure, Incidence of Poverty, access to Health Services and Nutritional Status. This kind of disaggregated analysis enables targeting of policy efforts on specific public expenditure for social groups.

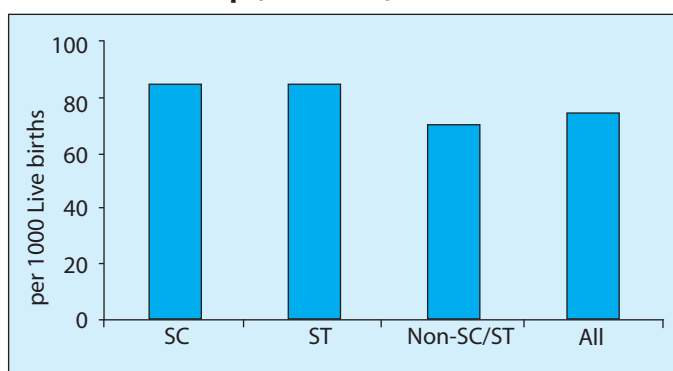
#### **Infant Mortality Rate- 2000**

Infant mortality rate (IMR) is considered to be an important indicator of the health status of a given society. The IMR is calculated on the basis of the number of children dying before their first birthday (per 1000 live births). Though we have chosen this indicator, and used its reciprocal value to construct the HDI, in this section we present the actual value of IMR for different social groups in 2000, and the respective changes in IMR during 1983-2000.

The IMR for the SCs at all-India level was 83, which was considerably higher than the non-SC/STs (68). The IMR among

*Infant mortality rate (IMR) is considered to be an important indicator of the health status of a given society*

**Figure 10: Infant Mortality Rate among Social Groups, All-India, 1998-99**



the SCs was higher than the non-SC/STs in all the States (See Table 1.3 (a) and Figure 10).

The IMR varied from a high of about 110 in Uttar Pradesh, to only 20 in Kerala. The IMR was particularly high in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh.

The IMR was relatively low in the States of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Assam and Himachal Pradesh - the high HDI States. In the remaining States (Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Punjab and West Bengal), the IMR for the SCs was around the national average of 83 per 1000 (Table 4.1(a)).

In case of STs, the IMR was 84 per 1000, which is almost the same as the SCs, but much higher than that for the non-SC/STs. At the State level, the IMR was relatively high in Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal, while it was relatively low for Assam, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

In the case of non-SC/STs also, the IMR varies quite significantly across the States. The IMR was relatively lower in States of Kerala, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab and West Bengal, and relatively higher in Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh.

IMR is an important indicator of human development. The disparity ratio works out to be roughly 1.22 for the SCs vs. the non- SC/STs, and about 1.24 for the STs vs. non-SC/STs. This implies that among the SCs and the STs, the IMR was higher by about 25 percentage points as compared to the non-SC/STs (See Table 3.1). Except for three States, the disparity ratios were more than 1 and in those too, the problem seems to be related to the data, indicating higher IMR for the SCs and the STs. The disparity ratios were particularly high for the States of Andhra Pradesh, Punjab, Gujarat, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Himachal Pradesh.

### ***Changes in Level and Disparity: 1983-2000***

Table 4.1(b) presents the changes in the levels and in disparity ratios in IMR during 1983 and 2000. IMR improved at national level for all the three social groups. The IMR declined at an annual rate of 2.19 percent - a rate more or less similar to the SCs (2.31 percent), and the non-SC/STs (2.07 percent). The analysis also brought to the fore the fact that the IMR declined at much lower rate in case of STs, i.e. by 1.02 percent per annum during the period 1983 to 2000.

The decline in IMR was also reflected in the decline in differences in IMR during 1983-2000 for the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs by 44, 17, 31 points respectively. The disparity ratio for the IMR, however, did not show much improvement. The disparity ratio between the SCs and the non-SC/STs declined only by 0.06 points, i.e. from 1.28 in 1983, to 1.22 in 2000, or a decline of 2.5 percent per annum during 1983-2000. In the case of the STs and the non-SC/STs, the disparity ratio increased by 0.22 points - an

*Among the SCs and the STs, the IMR was higher by about 25 percentage points as compared to the non-SC/STs*

annual rate of 1.28 percent during 1983-2000.

This indicates that although the IMR declined in absolute terms for the SCs, the rate of decline was not high enough to reduce the gap between them and the non-SC/STs. As a result the IMR levels in 2000 were close to the ones in 1983.

In the case of STs, the rate of decline in IMR was much lower compared with the non-SC/STs, and as a result in the calendar year 1983\*, the disparity ratio between the two social groups increased.

To summarise, we find that in 2000, at all-India level, the IMR was much higher among the SCs and the STs as compared to the non-SC/STs, though the IMR improved at the national level for all the three social groups. The IMR for SCs declined at a rate similar to that for non-SC/STs; the decline was however, much less for the STs. The decline in IMR also led to a net decline in differences in IMR between the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs. However, the rate of decline in IMR was not high enough to bring substantial decline in the disparity ratios between the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs.

### Literacy Rate, 2001

The literacy rate is defined as the proportion of total population aged 7 years and above, who can both read and write with understanding in any language. Literacy rates are indicative of one of the means of capacity and capability building, which enables individuals to overcome constraints, and in the process, enlarge their choices to attain better human development.

According to 2001 census, the literacy rates for both SCs and STs were lower as compared to the non-SC/STs. Literacy rate at all-India level is 65 percent, whereas for the SCs, STs, and the non-SC/STs they stood at 55 percent, 47 percent, and 69 percent respectively (Table 1.3(a) and Figure 11).

Literacy rates among the SCs were lower than the non-SC/STs by about 14 percentage points. The disparity ratio worked out to 0.79, indicating about 21 percent lower literacy levels among the SCs as compared to the non-SC/STs.

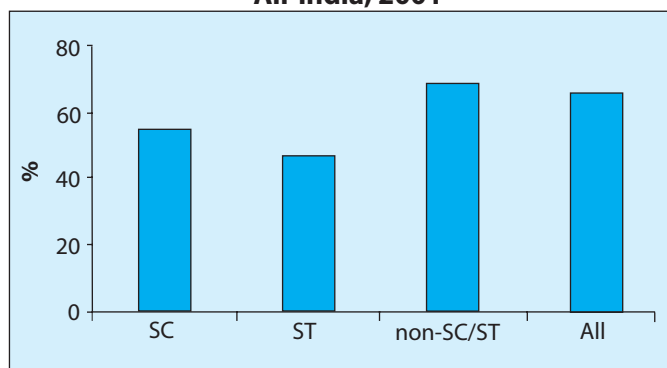
In the case of STs, the difference in the literacy rates between them and non-SC/STs was about 22 percent. The disparity ratio worked out to 0.68, indicating 32 percent lower literacy among the STs (Table 1.3 (a)).

### Changes in Level and Disparity: 1983–2000

Between 1983 and 2001, the literacy rates improved for all the three social groups. The literacy rate improved at about 5 percent per annum in the case of SCs and STs (from 24.49 percent in 1981 to 55.22 percent in 2001), as compared to 2.13 percent in the

*Literacy rates are indicative of one of the means of capacity and capability building, which enables individuals to overcome constraints, and in the process, enlarge their choices to attain better human development.*

**Figure 11: Literacy Rate among Social Groups**  
**All-India, 2001**



\* Generally, all reports refer to the financial year, e.g. 1993-94, except for one report of 1983, which referred to the calendar year, January to December 1983.



case of the non-SC/STs (from 18.79 percent in 1981 to 47 percent in 2001). Overall, the literacy rates increased at an annual rate of 2.52 percent. It is also important to mention here that the increase in literacy rate was experienced by all States for this period.

The improvement in the literacy rate was faster among the SCs and the STs than non-SC/STs. This has considerably reduced the gap in literacy rates between them and non-SC/STs. The disparity ratios improved from 0.52 in 1983 to 0.79 in 2000 in the case of SCs and from 0.40 to 0.68 in case of the STs. The rate of improvement was higher in the case of STs (3.04 percent per annum), as compared with the SCs (2.38 percent per annum) (Table 5.1(b)).

The disparity ratios for the SCs and the STs too, improved for all the States, the exceptions being Kerala in the case of SCs, and Bihar, Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh in the case of STs.

### **Monthly Per Capita Expenditure-2000**

Separate data on household income, which is an overall measure of well-being of the population, were not available separately for the social groups, and therefore, we have used monthly per capita expenditure

as a proxy variable for income in HDI. The average Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (hereafter MPCE) is in real terms (at 1993 prices).

In year 2000, at the all-India level, the average expenditure for SCs and the STs was Rs. 285 and Rs. 260 respectively, much lower than the non-SC/STs (Rs. 393). Inter-group disparities in MPCE terms of disparity ratios were clearly visible in 2000. The disparity ratio between the SCs and the non-SC/STs was 0.73, indicating 27 percent lower consumption expenditure by the SCs (Table 1.3(a) and Figure 12)

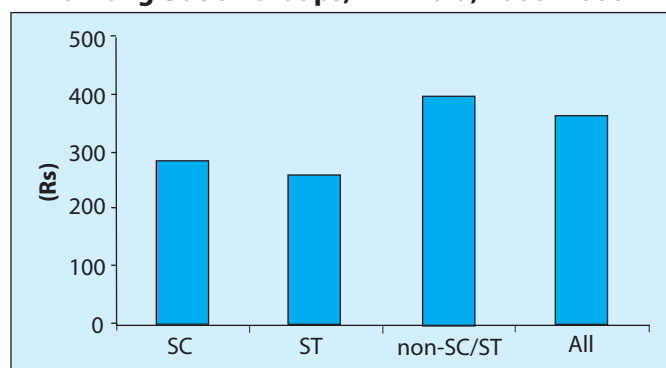
The disparity was relatively high in the States of Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Karnataka and Haryana wherein the MPCE of SCs was lower by about 40 percent. The disparity was relatively low in Assam, Bihar, Rajasthan, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

In the case of the STs and the non-SC/STs, the disparity ratio was 0.66, which was lower than between the SCs and non-SC/STs (0.73). Thus, as compared to the non-SC/STs, the MPCE of the STs was lower by 34 percent. The disparity level was higher than the national average in three tribal States, namely, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. It was relatively lower in Orissa, Assam, Bihar, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh (Table 6.1(a)).

The level of MPCE for the SCs and the STs varies significantly across States. The MPCE for the SCs ranges between Rs. 215 in Bihar to Rs. 403 in Kerala. For a number of States, MPCE for the SCs was less than the national average of Rs. 285. The larger States that fall in this category in-

*Monthly per capita expenditure has been used as a proxy variable for income in HDI*

**Figure 12: Average Monthly Per Capita Expenditure among Social Groups, All-India, 1999-2000**



clude Bihar (Rs. 215), Orissa (Rs. 223), Madhya Pradesh (Rs. 256), Andhra Pradesh (Rs. 262) and Uttar Pradesh (Rs. 265). By comparison, the MPCE in States like Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, and Haryana was much higher. The MPCE was in the medium range in Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal.

The MPCE for STs too, varies significantly across the States from Rs. 180 to Rs. 456. Among the tribal populated States, the MPCE was the lowest in Orissa (Rs. 180), followed by Madhya Pradesh (Rs. 213), Bihar (Rs. 227) and West Bengal (Rs. 246). By comparison, the MPCE was relatively higher in the tribal populated States of Himachal Pradesh (Rs. 426), Uttar Pradesh (Rs. 317), Rajasthan (Rs. 298) and Gujarat (Rs. 290). In the rest of the States, the MPCE was closer to the national average for the STs at Rs. 260.

In the case of the non-SC/STs, there are significant regional variations. The MPCE was relatively higher in Punjab, Haryana, Kerala, and Himachal Pradesh (in that order), and was much lower in the States of Bihar, Orissa, Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh.

### ***Changes in Level and Disparity: 1983–2000***

In real terms the MPCE indicated an increase during 1983–2000 at the all-India level. (Table 1.3(a)). This was also true for all the three social groups. The net increase in MPCE in real terms at the national level was Rs. 70. The net increase in the MPCE was lowest for the SCs and the STs, as compared to the non-SC/STs. The increase in MPCE in real terms for the SCs and the STs was about Rs. 53 and Rs. 80

respectively. The rate of increase however, was marginally lower for the SCs (1.14 percent per annum), as compared to the STs (1.29 percent per annum) and the non-SC/STs (1.27 percent per annum).

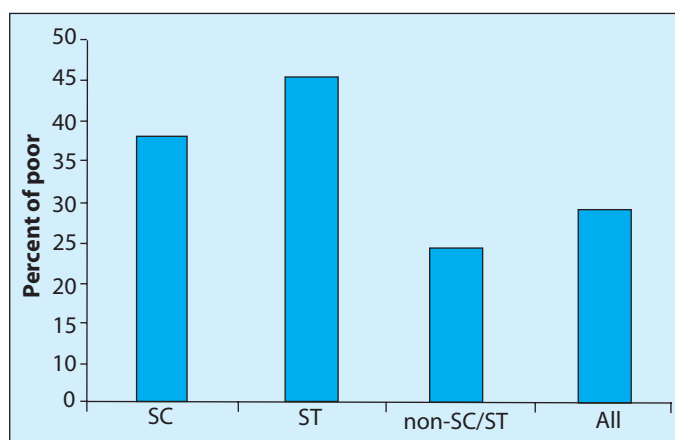
Among the States, the MPCE for the SCs increased at a relatively higher rate in Kerala (2.44 percent), Tamil Nadu (2.37 percent), West Bengal (1.76 percent), and Maharashtra (1.70 percent). The annual rate of increase was close to the national average for SCs in Bihar and Orissa at 1.53 percent. In the rest of the States, the annual rate of increase was less than 1 percent. In the case of the STs, the MPCE increased at higher rate in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, and West Bengal. In the rest of the States, the annual rate of increase was relatively low. (Table 6.1(b))

For the non-SC/STs, the States which experienced a higher increase in MPCE were Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Gujarat and Orissa. What is important is that during 1983–2000, a group of States, namely Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Gujarat, Orissa and West Bengal, showed a relatively higher increase in MPCE in real terms for all the three social groups. There were, however, a few exceptions. Gujarat, while indicating a higher increase in the case of STs and the non-SC/STs, indicated a low rate of increase for SCs. Similarly, Uttar Pradesh also indicated a lower annual change in MPCE for the SCs as compared to the STs and the non-SC/STs (although the difference was not as large as in the case of Gujarat). In Maharashtra, while the annual rate was relatively higher for the SCs and the non-SC/STs, it was low for the STs.

Despite the improvement in MPCE for the SCs and the STs, the relative increase in MPCE for the SCs and the STs was not high enough to reduce the gap between

*The annual rate of increase of MPCE was close to the national average for SCs in Bihar and Orissa at 1.53 percent. In the rest of the States, the annual rate was less than 1 percent*

**Figure 13: Poverty among Social Groups, All-India, 1999-2000**



*In 2000, in the rural areas about 45 percent of the SCs and 37 percent of the STs were poor compared to 21 percent among the non-SC/STs*

them and non-SC/STs. The disparity ratios for the SCs and the STs in 1983 were 0.74 and 0.66 respectively, and remained almost unchanged at 0.73 and 0.66 in 2000. There were however, large inter-State variations in the change in disparity in MPCE between the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs. In the case of SCs, the disparities between them and the non-SC/STs worsened in seven States. In the remaining States however, there was a considerable improvement in reducing the gap in MPCE between them and the non-SC/STs. In the case of STs, although the disparities between the STs and the non-SC/STs at overall level remained constant, they worsened in five States and improved in the remaining States. During 1983-2000, the MPCE of all social groups seems to have increased, but despite this, in 2000, the MPCE of the SCs and the STs was less by about 25 and 34 percentage points respectively, as compared to the MPCE of the non-SC/STs.

### **Poverty - 2000**

The MPCE is an aggregate measure of the well-being of people. The incidence of poverty in terms of head count ratio however, goes a step ahead, and estimates the proportion of persons not meeting a minimum level of consumption expenditure with re-

gard to calorie intake. We therefore assess the situation of the three social groups with respect to the incidence of poverty by social groups for 2000, and their respective changes during 1983-2000.

In 2000, in the rural areas about 45 percent of the SCs and 37 percent of the STs were poor compared to 21 percent among the non-SC/STs. Compared with the non-SC/STs, the incidence of aggregate poverty was 70 percent, and about 100 percent higher among the SCs and the STs respectively - the disparity ratio being 1.73 for SCs vs. non-SC/STs, and 2.12 for STs vs. non-SC/STs (Table 1.3(a) and Figure 13)).

The disparity in the aggregate poverty between the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs was glaring in some States. In the case of the SCs, the gap was particularly high in Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu and Himachal Pradesh with poverty disparity ratios of 4.30, 4.20, 2.24, 2.16, and 2.77 respectively (See Table 1.3 (a)). Thus, poverty was more than four times higher among the SCs in Punjab and Haryana, and more than two and a half times higher in Rajasthan, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, and Himachal Pradesh. The disparities were relatively lower in Assam, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh.

In the case of STs, the gap in aggregate poverty between them and the non-SC/STs was equally high. At the all-India level, the poverty among STs was about two times higher than the non-SC/STs - the disparity ratio being 2.12. At the State level, the poverty gap between the STs and the non-SC/STs was relatively higher in Gujarat and Orissa, poverty among the STs being more than two times higher as compared to the non-SC/STs.



The incidence of poverty was consistently higher among the SCs and the STs as compared to the non-SC/STs in all the States. However, we observed a group of States with high incidence of poverty for the respective social groups. In the case of SCs, the poverty was higher in Bihar, Orissa and Assam, whereas for the STs the States of Orissa, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal constitute the high poverty States. In the case of the non-SC/STs Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Assam are the high poverty States. Thus, a group of six States comprising Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Assam turned out to be the pockets of high poverty in 2000 (Table 7.1(a)).

#### ***Changes in Level and Disparity: 1983–2000***

During 1983–2000, aggregate poverty declined overall, and also among all the social groups. At overall level, the incidence of poverty declined by 18 percentage points or at an annual rate of 3 percent. Poverty declined at a slower rate among the SCs and the STs as compared to the non-SC/STs. While poverty declined at an annual rate of 3.35 percent for the non-SC/STs, the rate of decline was 2.63 percent for the SCs, and only 1.93 percent per annum for the STs. (Table 1.3(a))

At the State level, poverty levels declined at faster rate in Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Kerala and Himachal Pradesh, followed by Gujarat, Haryana and Andhra Pradesh. In the case of the STs, the rate of decline in poverty occurred at a relatively high rate in the States of Rajasthan, Karnataka and Gujarat (Table 7.1(b)).

The trends in disparity levels for poverty among social groups show mixed results.

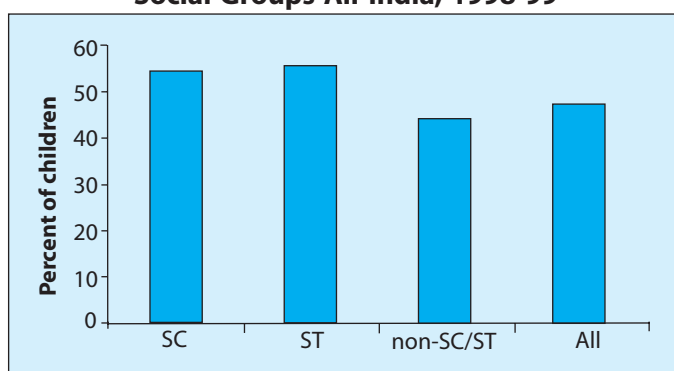
While there was a considerable decline in the inter-group disparity levels with regard to poverty (in terms of percentage point difference), in terms of disparity ratios, the poverty gap increased between 1983 and 2000. For instance, in 1983, the gap in poverty of the SCs and the non-SC/STs was 20 percentage points, which reduced to 15 percentage points in 2000. In the case of STs, the gap, which was 18 percent in 1983, remained at the same level in 2000. But the disparity ratio for the SCs, and the non-SC/STs which stood at 1.53 in 1980, increased to 1.73 in 2000. Similarly, the disparity ratios for the STs and the non-SC/STs increased from 1.65 in 1983, to 2.12 in 2000. Thus, in relative terms the poverty gap between the SCs, the STs, and non-SC/STs increased between 1983 and 2000.

Out of 16 major States, it is only in four States that disparity ratios for SCs vs. non-SC/STs seem to have reduced during 1983–2000. Similarly, in the case of the STs vs. non-SC/STs, only two States indicate reduced disparity ratios.

Some features clearly emerge from an analysis of poverty among the social groups. Compared with the non-SC/STs, the incidence of aggregate poverty was 70 percent and about 100 percent higher among the SCs and STs respectively. Between 1983 and 2000, the incidence of poverty, in terms of head count ratio declined for all the social groups, but the rate of decline was lower among the SCs and the STs, as compared to the non-SC/STs. Further, the poverty gap between the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs increased during 1983–2000 at least in relative terms (if not in terms of percentage points), mainly due to the slower decline in poverty for the social groups.

*While there was a considerable decline in the inter-group disparity levels with regard to poverty (in terms of percentage point difference), in terms of disparity ratios, the poverty gap increased between 1983 and 2000*

**Figure 14 : Undernourished Children among Social Groups All-India, 1998-99**



### Nutritional Status – Under-nutrition and Malnutrition

The deprivation in nutritional status is measured by the percentage of underweight children. In 2000, at all-India level, about 47 percent children were under-nourished- 54 percent for the SCs, 56 percent for STs, and 44 percent for non-SC/STs. The disparity ratio worked out to 1.23 and 1.27 for SCs and the STs respectively, indicating 23 percent and 27 percent more under-nourished children among the SCs and the STs, as compared with the non-SC/STs in 2000 (Table 1.3(a) and Figure 14).

At the State level, the disparity between the SCs and the non-SC/STs is particularly high for the SCs in Kerala and Punjab, and between the STs and the non-SC/STs in Kerala, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. Between 1990 and 2000, the “health status” indicated by IMR, percentage of non-vaccinated children, percentage of non-institutional delivery, and percentage of children under-weight for age shows an overall improvement for the three social groups, but by a low margin for the SCs and STs. The ‘nutritional status’ indicated by percentage of under-nourished children, reduced from 58 percent to 54 percent for SC and from 57 percent to 56 percent for the STs and from 52 to 44 percentage

points for the non-SC/STs; the net decline being 4 percent, 1 percent and 8 percent respectively. Thus, the decline in nutrition deprivation occurred at much lower rates in the case of the SCs (1.02 percent per annum), and the STs (0.24 percent per annum), as compared with the non-SC/STs (2.36 percent per annum) during the 1990s (Table 8.1(a) and Table 8.1(b)).

Thus, between 1990 and 2000, the access of all the three social groups improved, but by a low margin for the SCs and the STs.

### Access to Public Health Services

The index of access to public health services is estimated by taking the indicators of percentage of children not vaccinated, and the percentage of non-institutional deliveries. Thus, this index measures the extent of lack of access to public health. In 2000, overall, an average of about 40 percent persons/household did not have access to public health services. As is clear from Table 1.3 (a), the percentage of such persons/households was comparatively higher among the SCs and the STs, as compared to the non-SC/STs. The percentages for the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs were 44.15, 53.55, and 37.15 respectively. Thus, as compared to non-SC/STs, persons not having access to public health services was higher by 7 percentage points for SCs, and 16.4 percentage points for the STs respectively. The disparity ratios worked out to 1.19 for the SCs and 1.44 the STs, which means that the SCs, and the STs had 19 percent and 44 percent lower access to public health service, as compared to the non-SC/STs. At the State level, the disparity ratios were higher in Punjab, Gujarat, Haryana, and Andhra Pradesh for the SCs. In the case of STs, the disadvantage was relatively higher in the States of Karnataka,

*Between 1990 and 2000, the health index shows an overall improvement for the three social groups, but by a low margin for the SCs and the STs*

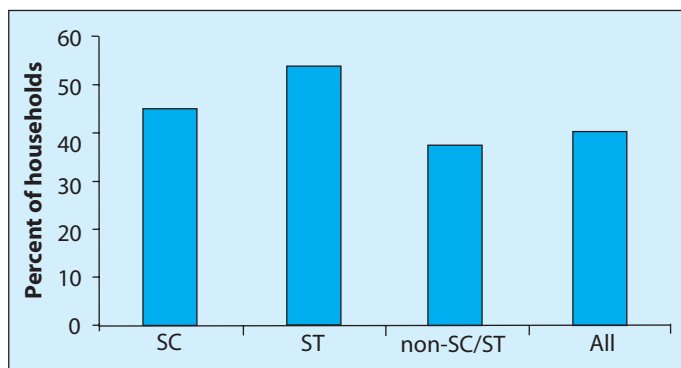
Maharashtra, and Orissa. Between 1990 and 2000, the health index improved at an overall level from 52 to 40, with an improvement for all the three social groups (Table 9.1(a)).

The access to public health services index declined from 60 percent, 76 percent and 49 percent in 1990, to 44 percent, 53 percent, and 37 percent in 2000 respectively for the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs. The annual rate of decline was around 4 percent for all the three social groups. The disparity ratios between the SCs and the non-SC/STs, and the STs and the non-SC/STs also declined, but only marginally. The disparities declined at an annual rate of only 0.50 percent for the SCs, and 1.11 percent for STs, and therefore the gaps in access to health between the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs were not significantly different from their levels in 1990. In fact, at State level, eight States for the SCs, and nine for the STs indicated either no change, or decrease, in access to public health services. Between 1990 and 2000, the access improved at overall levels. For all the three social groups, however, the rate of improvement was lower and as result, the gaps between them and the non-SC/STs in terms of access to public health services continued in 2000 (Table 9.1(b)).

### Caste and Gender - Dalit and Adivasi Women's Deprivations

The assessment of human development at aggregate level hides the gender differences. The women who belong to marginalised groups suffer from triple deprivations arising out of lack of access to economic resources, as well as caste and gender discrimination. The SC and ST women are perhaps the most economically deprived sections of Indian society. Most of them do not own

**Figure 15: Households not Having Access to Health Care, All-India, 1998-99**



agricultural land and work as wage labour. In 2001, about 57 percent of SC and 37 percent of ST women worked as agricultural wage labour in rural areas as compared to 29 percent for non-SC/ST (Table 9.1(c)). This ratio for SC and ST was about 16 percent and 14 percent respectively in urban areas as compared to only 6 percent among the non-SC/STs. Only 21 percent of SC women were cultivators, much lower compared to 51 percent for ST and 45 percent for non-SC/ST.

Besides this, a large number of SC women are engaged in so-called unclean occupations which are considered to be inferior in nature, such as scavenging. Because of their association with these occupations, these women face exclusion and discrimination in the social and economic spheres.

The SC and ST women who worked as wage labour faced discrimination in wage earning particularly in urban areas. In 2000, the SC and ST women casual wage labour received daily wage earning of Rs. 37 and Rs. 34 respectively as compared to Rs. 56 for non-SC/ST women, while the national average was Rs. 42.

The lack of educational development is another important problem for SC and ST women (Table 11). In 2000, the literacy rate among the SC and ST females (age

*The women who belong to marginalised groups suffer from triple deprivations arising out of lack of access to economic resources, as well as caste and gender discrimination*

*The high dependence on casual labour with relatively low earning among the SC and ST women resulted in a high degree of deprivation and poverty among them*

15 and above) in rural areas was 24 percent and 23 percent respectively as compared to 41 percent for non-SC/ST women and the national average of 29 percent. Disparities exist in urban areas also; in fact the literacy rate among SC females was the lowest, even lower than ST females. The literacy rates were 48 percent, 54 percent and 70 percent respectively for SC, ST and non-SC/ST females in urban areas, the national average being 57 percent. The relative disadvantage of the SC/ST female population in terms of educational development is thus clearly reflected in their literacy rates.

The drop-out rate among the SC and ST females is also relatively high at each stage of education. As we move up in educational level, from primary/middle to high school and higher secondary school and to graduate and above, the drop-out rate increases. Finally at graduate level and above, the share of SC and ST women (15 and above) is 0.4 percent and 0.3 percent respectively, as compared to 1.2 percent for non-SC/ST women, with the national average being 0.63 percent. In urban areas, these ratios worked out to 2.7 percent, 6.4 percent and 10.1 percent for SC, ST and non-SC/ST, respectively, with a national average of 11.12 percent (Table 11).

The high dependence on casual labour with relatively low earning among the SC and ST women resulted in a high degree of deprivation and poverty among them. While the gender break-up of poverty is not available, the high degree of deprivation is reflected in other indicators of well-being particularly in the high level of under-nutrition and related health indicators.

About 65 percent of ST and 56 percent of SC women suffered from anaemia compared to 47.6 percent among non-SC/ST women.

Malnutrition of the mother impacts on the children. In 1998-99, 21.2 percent of SC and 26 percent of ST children less than 4 years of age suffered from malnutrition (based on weight for age). Of these, 54 percent of SC and 56 percent of ST were severely under-nourished. There is a significant difference between SC and ST children and non-SC/ST children - 13.80 percent of non-SC/ST children are malnourished and 41.1 percent are under-nourished.

Among the morbidity conditions, fever, acute respiratory infection (ARI) and diarrhoea are the most common form of illness among SC and ST children. About 30 percent of SC and ST children suffered from fever followed by about 20 percent each for ARI and diarrhoea. The incidence of anaemia among the SC and ST children is quite high, at nearly 78 percent. The percentage is lower among the non-SC/ST children (72 percent).

While the Government of India has adopted the national goal of reducing the present level of IMR to 60 by 2000, IMR, child mortality rate and under-five mortality rate for SCs are 83.00, 39.50 and 119.3 respectively. The IMR, child mortality rate and under-five mortality rate are 84, 46.3 and 126 among the STs. In both cases, the mortality rates are much higher compared to non-SC/STs where the rates are at 61.8, 22.2 and 82.6 respectively.

Among the factors related to health care at birth which influence the survival chances of the newborn, place of delivery and the



type of assistance provided are most important. About 72 percent of the births to SC women and 81 percent of the births to ST women took place at home and the corresponding figure for non-SC/ST is 59 percent. This means only 21 percent of the births to SC women and 18 percent to ST women take place in medical institutions. Of the total deliveries of SC and ST women that took place at home, more than 40 percent of the SC deliveries were attended by a *Dai*. Births attended by a public health person are 23 percent in the case of ST and 36 percent in the case of SC.

A similar disparity emerged in the case of tetanus vaccination. Only about 74 percent of SC mothers and 61 percent of ST mothers received vaccination, compared to 81 percent for non-SC/ST women.

There are some specific caste-related deprivations which have evolved through social customs and religious practices in Hindu society, which affect only Scheduled Caste women. These social and religious practices have lead to a high degree of sexual exploitation of SC women in selected parts of India. Some of these customs include the *Devdasi*, and *Jogini* systems, under which unfortunate village girls are married to a village god and then become the subject of sexual exploitation by the upper castes in the village. The primary survey by *Organisation against Jogini* estimated the number of *Jogins* in six districts of Andhra Pradesh at around 21,421. A similar practice exists in States like Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Maharashtra, where they are designated as *Devdasis* (devotees of God). Because of low social status and low self-esteem, sexual exploi-

tation of SC/ST women is also of high order. On an average about 1000 cases of sexual exploitation of SC women are reported annually and another 400 cases are reported for the ST women (Tables 13 (c) and (d)).

### **Summary - Improved Level, Declining Disparity and Persistent Inequality**

In the preceding sections we have discussed the attainment of human development, and the human deprivation of the socially marginalised sections of Indian society, namely the SCs and the STs, during 2000, and also studied the changes in the levels and disparities in HDI and HPI (and individual components), between these socially marginalised groups and the rest of the Indian population during 1983-2000.

Three features regarding the status of human development and human poverty of the socially marginalised groups come out quite clearly from this discussion.

*First*, during 1983-2000, there has been an improvement in the HDI, and also in the indicators of human development and human poverty at all-India level, and for all groups, namely the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs. Similarly, with some exceptions, the disparities between the SCs, the STs, and the non-SC/STs for HDI, HPI, and individual components declined between 1983 and 2000, although the rate of decline was higher for some indicators than for others. Overall, there has been a declining trend in disparity between the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs.

*Second*, notwithstanding the positive improvement in the attainment of human development indicators, and subsequent narrowing of gaps in the attainment rates be-

*There are some specific caste-related deprivations which have evolved through social customs and religious practices in Hindu society, which affect only Scheduled Caste women. These social and religious practices have lead to a high degree of sexual exploitation of SC women in selected parts of India*

tween the SCs, the STs and the non-SC/STs, the rate of improvement during 1983-2000 (or in some cases 1990-2000), was not high enough to bridge the gap and bring the SCs and the STs at par with the non-SC/STs, which indeed has been the focus and objective of the government policies towards these sections. Therefore, in 2000, in spite of improved levels of human development, the disparities between socially marginalised groups of the SCs and STs and the non-SC/STs still persisted.

*Third*, although there has been an improvement in the HDI, HPI and their various components, since the relative improve-

ment in the case of SCs and STs has been, by and large, lower as compared to non-SC/STs the disparity between them and non-SC/ST, has not declined substantially enough to bridge the gap and bring the ratio closer to equality (value 1). As result, the socially marginalised groups of SCs and STs, lag behind the other sections of the Indian population with respect to attainment level in human development.

Finally, the situation of SC and ST women with respect to all indicators of well-being such as access to agricultural land, education and health is at a much lower level as compared to non-SC/ST women.



## SECTION V

### Factors Governing Human Development and Human Poverty

In this section, we try to get an insight into the status of SCs and STs in comparison with non-SC/STs with respect to sources of well-being for most recent year i.e. 2000. We try to study the status of SCs and STs in terms of access to resources, particularly the agricultural land, non land assets, employment in general and public employment in particular, education and other related spheres, which have been the focus of government's general pro-poor policies and affirmative action policies targetting the socially marginalised group of SCs and STs.

Depending on the availability of data, we have selected a set of indicators, which are given in Tables 10 and 11. These have been classified as follows:

- (a) Access to ownership of income earning capital assets - agricultural land and non land assets
- (b) Occupation/job diversification – captured through level of urbanisation, and share of workers in non-agricultural sector,
- (c) Employment and unemployment rate
- (d) Wages in farm and non-farm sector and
- (e) Education level, in terms of literacy rate and level of education

Tables 12(a) and 12 (b) give the values of these indicators for SCs, ST and non-SC/STs for 2000 at all-India level.

#### Factors Associated with Relatively High Human Development: Comparison of High and Low HDI States

Before we discuss the factors which are associated with low human development of the socially marginalised groups of SCs and STs, we look at the factors that are associated with a relatively high level of human development in India in terms of HDI during the period under study at the overall level. Table 10 provides an interesting comparison of States with low HDI and those with high HDI for 2000. It also provides the average values for important factors indicating access to resources, employment, education and other aspects, like level of urbanisation and job diversification. It gives the average of the three States with the lowest HDI (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa) and average of three States with the highest HDI (Kerala, Himachal Pradesh and Maharashtra).

It is interesting to note that in the high HDI States, on an average the ownership of capital assets per household is high as compared with low HDI States. The value of capital assets per household for high HDI States was Rs. 88,291, as against Rs.70,189 for low HDI States. The level of urbanisation and job diversification in favour of non-farm jobs, particularly regular salaried jobs, was also high among the high HDI States.

*In high HDI States, on an average the ownership of capital assets per household is high as compared with low HDI States*

*Greater access to capital assets, higher degree of urbanisation and shift in employment in favour of the non-farm sector, high employment and wage rates in farm and non-farm sector, and high levels of literacy and education seem to contribute high levels of human development*

The employment rates for all status (except the usual principal status) were higher in urban areas for high HDI States. Agricultural and non agricultural wages were invariably high among the States with high HDI. Furthermore, literacy rate and share of literates in primary/middle, high school and higher secondary school was also higher in high HDI States by a substantial margin in 2001.

Greater access to capital assets, higher degree of urbanisation and shift in employment in favour of the non-farm sector, high employment and wage rates in farm and non-farm sector, and high levels of literacy and education seem to contribute to high levels of human development.

### **Factors Associated with Low Human Development among Disadvantaged Groups**

Having obtained some insight into the factors that induce higher human development, we now look at the situation with respect to some of these indicators for SCs and STs who performed poorly in terms of human development in 2000. We particularly focus on factors such as access to resources or capital assets, employment and wages, urbanisation, employment diversification and education which emerged as important in promoting human development in high HDI States (Table 11).

#### **Scheduled Castes**

**Access to Resources:** Depending on the availability of data, a set of variables is developed to capture the access of SC/STs and non-SC/STs to income earning assets. Some of the variables are direct and some are proxy. The access to agricultural land is captured through variables like ownership of aggregate capital assets (in Rupees per household), percent-

age of landless households, percentage of landless and near landless households, (landless and those owning less than one acre of land ), percentage of cultivators, percentage of self-employed households in agriculture, percentage of wage labourers; while access to non-agricultural capital assets is captured through variables like percentage of self-employed households in rural and urban areas (Table 11).

In 2000, the SCs had much less access with respect to each of the indicators. The ownership of aggregate capital assets and agricultural land and non-land assets was much lower among the SCs compared to the non-SC/STs. The SC households on an average, owned capital assets of Rs. 49,189 as compared to Rs. 134,500 for ST or non-SC/STs. Similarly, the percentage of landless households among the SCs in rural areas (where more than 80 percent of SCs live) is about 10 percent as compared with 6 percent for non-SC/ST households. The percentage of landless and near landless among the SCs is about 75 percent as compared to 54 percent for the non-SC/STs.

Because of the high incidence of landlessness and near landlessness, only 26.78 percent of rural households qualified to be called cultivators by the census definition and only 16.4 percent of them qualified to be called self-employed agricultural households by NSS definition. By comparison, among the non-SC/ST households, The proportion of cultivators and self-employed agriculture households was higher at 47 percent and 38 percent respectively.

Similarly, in 2000, with respect to access to non-land capital assets, the percentage of self-employed households engaged in non-farm economic business in rural and

urban areas was lower among the SC households. The percentage of self-employed in non agriculture in rural areas and self-employed in urban areas among the SCs was 9 percent and 20 percent respectively, compared to 13.30 percent and 30.62 percent, respectively for non-SC/ST households.

The consequence of the lack of ownership of viable capital assets is that an overwhelming proportion of SC persons/households in rural and urban areas depend on wage labour. In 2000, about 61.4 percent (Agricultural Labour and Other Labour from NSSO) of households in rural areas and about 64 percent in urban areas were wage labourers as against 31.2 percent and 53.8 percent respectively among the non-SC/ST households. In the case of casual wage labour in urban areas, the disparities were quite large. The percentage of casual labourers among SCs was about 25 percent as against only 12.4 percent for non-SC/STs. Disparities in the proportion of regular/salaried workers between SC and non-SC/ST were less at 38 percent and 46 percent respectively. The regular and salaried workers include persons employed in both private and public sector jobs. A relatively improved share in regular and salaried jobs reveals the positive impact of the reservation policy in public employment with respect to the SCs. However, at aggregate level, manual unskilled wage labour as a traditional occupation of SCs, continued as a main occupation in 2000, with 64 percent of wage labour households in rural areas and about one fourth in urban areas.

This also implies that despite the government policy of improving the access of SCs to agricultural land and financial capital, the historical impact of customary restrictions on ownership of agricultural land is clearly visible even today. By the end of

1996, the government had distributed about 18 lakh acres of land (through surplus land under ceiling and government land) to about 19 lakh SC beneficiaries - at the rate of 0.97 acre per beneficiary. These efforts in redistribution of agricultural land are meagre and have failed to improve the access of SCs to agricultural land and non land income earning capital assets.

**Access to Employment:** Since more than 61 percent of the SC households in rural areas and about 30 percent in urban areas depend on wage employment, their earnings are critically determined by level of employment and wage rates. But the situation with respect to employment and daily wage earning is not favourable. The SC workers suffered from higher under-employment in rural areas compared to their non-SC/ST counterparts. The daily status employment rate for SC males is about 46 percent as compared with 52 percent for non-SC/ST workers. The situation is the same in urban areas. The employment rates for SC workers based on usual, usual and subsidiary, current weekly and current daily status (CDS) are 49.80 percent, 50.3 percent, 48.6 percent and 45.8 percent, as compared to 51.14 percent, 51.8 percent, 51.3 percent and 49.9 percent respectively for non-SC/ST households. The lower employment is also reflected in CDS-unemployment rate for SCs 5.0 percent compared to 3.5 percent for other workers in rural and urban areas.

In the case of agricultural wages, there is not much difference in the wage rate of SCs and non-SC/STs. However, daily wages received in non agriculture are lower for SC wage labourers compared with overall wage rates: about Rs. 61 for males and Rs. 36 for females

*Despite the government policy of improving the access of SCs to agricultural land and financial capital, the historical impact of customary restrictions on ownership of agricultural land is clearly visible even today*

compared to Rs. 65 and Rs. 56 for non-SC/ST males and females respectively.

Thus the situation of SC wage labour who constitute bulk of the households and for whom daily employment and wage earning is critically important, is not favourable, insofar as they suffer both from under-employment and low daily wage earnings which is reflected in lower incomes and human development.

*The situation of SC wage labour who constitute bulk of the households and for whom daily employment and wage earning is critically important, is not favourable, insofar as they suffer both from under-employment and low daily wage earnings which is reflected in lower incomes and human development*

**Job Diversification and Education:** The urbanisation level among the SCs in 2001 is much lower as compared to their high caste counterparts - 20 percent as compared to 32 percent for non-SC/STs. (Table 11). Similarly the diversification of workforce in favour of non agricultural activities is also lower among the SCs.

In the case of literacy rate and level of education, we see distinct differences between SCs and non-SC/STs. The literacy rate both in rural and urban areas is lower for the SCs as compared with non-SC/STs, as is the share of literates for different levels of education such as primary/middle, high school and higher secondary school and graduate and above. For instance, the share of male literates in primary/middle, high school and higher secondary school and graduate and above for SCs are 27 percent, 22 percent and 2 percent compared to 33 percent, 32 percent and 4 percent respectively for non-SC/ST. Similarly in urban areas the male literate share in primary/middle, high school and higher secondary school and graduate and above is 35 percent, 35 percent and 6 percent compared to 31 percent, 39 percent and 15 percent for non-SC/STs respectively.

Thus, with respect to a number of indicators, like access to resources - agricultural land, non land capital assets - employment rate, level of urbanisation and employment diversification in favour of non farm jobs, non farm wages, literacy rate and education level, the SC population lags far behind the non-SC/ST population. This explains the low level of human development and higher level of deprivation among them in 2000.

### **Scheduled Tribes**

We now discuss the differences with respect to the same indicators between ST and non-SC/ST, in 2000. The situation of STs in some respects is different from that of SCs. With respect to ownership of agricultural land they are somewhat better placed compared to non-SC/ST. Similarly, there are no significant differences in the employment/unemployment rate in rural areas and unemployment rate in urban areas. However, for the rest of the indicators the STs lag behind the non-SC/ST group, which also explains the low level of human development among them, compared to the non-SC/ST (Table 11).

In 2000, the access of ST to capital assets in rural and urban areas was much lower compared to non-SC/ST. The aggregate assets per household among the STs were Rs. 52,660 as against Rs. 134,500 for non-SC/STs. The proportion of self-employed in non agricultural occupations in rural areas was only 5 percent as compared to 15 percent for non-SC/STs. Similarly, the percentage of self-employed in urban areas was 21.5 percent, as compared to 36 percent for non-SC/STs. The level of urbanisation and em-

ployment diversification was particularly low among the STs; and those who live in urban areas suffer from a lower level of employment.

Almost 92 percent of STs live in rural areas (compared with 70 percent for non-SC/STs) and their dependence on wage labour is much higher - almost half of ST rural households are wage labourers, compared to only one-third for non-SC/ST. The ST casual labourer however receives much lower agricultural and non agricultural wages com-

pared to the other labourers—Rs. 33 and Rs. 54 respectively, as compared to Rs. 41 and Rs. 65 respectively for non-SC/STs.

Similar disparities between STs and non-SC/STs are seen in the case of literacy rate and education level. The literacy rate among the rural STs is 48 percent, compared to 69 percent for non-SC/STs. The participation at each level of education in rural and urban areas is also low among the STs. Differences are equally visible in urban areas.



## Caste/Untouchability-based Discrimination

*The persisting inequality in command over resources and human capabilities could be the result of a number of factors, such as continuing process of exclusion and discrimination of SCs and limited impact of the pro-poor and anti-discrimination government policies*

Empirical evidence shows that the disparities in HDI and HPI and their individual components between SC/ST and non-SC/ST are closely linked with the lower access of the socially marginalised groups to sources of income and human capabilities. This results in lower access to capital assets, lower urbanisation and employment diversification away from agriculture, exceptionally high dependence on casual wage labour, high under-employment, lower daily wages particularly in non farm activities, and low level of literacy and education, compared to non-SC/ST groups.

The question remains as to why the SCs have poor access to all resources including agricultural land and non land capital assets which directly and indirectly determine the level of income and capabilities to secure other sources of income. Why are unemployment rates high, daily wage earnings in farm activities low and literacy rate and education levels much lower when compared to non-SC/STs?

The persisting inequality in command over resources and human capabilities could be the result of a number of factors, such as continuing process of exclusion and discrimination of SCs and limited impact of the pro-poor and anti-discrimination government policies. In this section, we try to provide some empirical evidence to show the negative impact of discrimination and exclusion in human development par-

ticularly among the SCs. While there is some systematic evidence of caste- and untouchability-based discrimination in social, cultural and political spheres, the evidence on economic discrimination is limited.

Caste-based discrimination through failure of entitlement and high deprivation can be analysed in four dimensions (Thorat 2001) namely,

- a) Discrimination through violence, atrocities, and crime;
- b) Discrimination in public services,
- c) Discrimination in labour and other markets; and
- d) Discrimination in government schemes.

The presentation of empirical evidence with regard to caste discrimination is based on official data of an all-India primary study and selected primary studies in civil, cultural and political spheres. The all-India study is based on a survey of 11 States in 2000.

### Discrimination in Public and Private Spheres - Macro Level Evidence

Table 13(a) presents the number of cases registered by 'untouchables' under the Anti-untouchability Act of 1955 and Prevention of SC and ST Atrocities Act. The table also gives the three year average for 1999-2001 at the all-India level. During this period, an average of 28,016 cases of discrimination and untouchability were registered



annually by the ‘untouchables’. This comes to about 3 cases per lakh population. The ratio of such cases was highest in Rajasthan (9.3); followed by Madhya Pradesh (7.7), and Uttar Pradesh (4.9). The ratio was about 3 cases per lakh population in Orissa, Karnataka, Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh. The break-up of crime against SCs for the year 2001 includes 763 cases of murder, 4547 of grievous hurt, 354 cases of arson and 1316 cases of sexual assault (rapes), and 12,200 cases of other offences. In the case of STs, an average of 4952 cases of crime was registered annually. Most of these cases were confined to Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh. The break-up was 167 cases of murder, 756 of hurt, 108 of arson and 573 of sexual assault (rape) and 2732 cases of other offences. Total atrocities (2001) against SCs was five times more than that for non-SC/STs and this is more or less true for different types of crimes also.

## Micro Level Evidence - Primary Studies

We now present the results of the most comprehensive study by ActionAid (2000), based on an intensive survey of 555 villages in 11 States across India. In this section we consider the practice of untouchability in the “secular public sphere”, standing for that area of public life, which is neither directly associated with the State, nor with purely individual aspects of community life. Thus, the sphere includes access to water sources, public thoroughfares, transport, and other village-level services and amenities like tea shops, barbers’ or water person’s services, and so on.

Panel 1 provides an overview of the different forms of untouchability that deny the SCs access to basic public services. Out of the total villages surveyed, complicit denial to the SC persons was observed in little less than half of villages - 48.4 percent in terms of access to public water/drinking places, 36 percent in terms of access to shops, 26 percent in terms of the use of restaurants/hotels, 21 percent in terms of entry to health centres/clinics, 9.2 percent in terms of public transport, and 3.2 percent in terms of entry to cinema halls/recreation facilities, etc. In the case of services provided by individual service providers also, the denial of access was apparent. Of the villages surveyed, denial was reported in access to the services of barbers in 46 percent of villages, in access to water person’s services in 46 percent of villages, carpenters’ services in 26 percent of the villages, and of potters in about 20 percent of the villages.

While complete denial of access to particular water sources (well, tank, tube well, etc.), village shops, health clinics, public transport, services offered by washer person, carpenter, tailor, potter, etc. are the most clear form of social exclusion, what is even more common is the imposition of differential treatment in access to these and other public services, which takes various forms. It is observed that in about one-third of the villages such discrimination was followed by making separate seating arrangements, or by giving separate cups to the ‘untouchables’. Similar forms of discrimination were observed in purchases from shops, entry into public transport and treatment in private health clinics, etc. (see Panel 2).

*Total atrocities (2001) against SCs was five times more than that for non-SC/STs and this is more or less true for different types of crimes also*

**Panel 1: Denial of Access to Basic Public Services**  
(Forms/sites arranged in decreasing order of incidence; pooled data from 11 states)

Public spheres	Percentage of villages where practiced		Percentage of villages where not practiced	Total villages surveyed
Water facilities	48.4	(255)	43.5	527
Barbers' services	46.6	(229)	41.3	491
Waterman's services	45.8	(194)	43.2	424
Carpenter's services	25.7	(117)	68.1	455
Potter will not sell pots	20.5	(75)	68.2	365
Entry into village shops	35.8	(186)	57.0	519
Entry into restaurants/hotels	25.6	(92)	64.9	359
Entry into private/public health centre/clinic	21.3	(74)	72.4	348
Entry into public transport	9.2	(41)	87.0	447
Entry/Seating in cinema halls	3.2	(6)	93.0	187

Note: Figures in brackets are number of villages where form is practiced. Villages where status of practice is ambiguous are excluded from both 'practiced' and 'not practiced' categories. Total surveyed villages exclude villages where relevant institution/site is absent.-

Source: *Action Aid study, 2000*

**Panel 2: Discriminatory Treatment in Public Services**  
(Forms/sites arranged in decreasing order of incidence; pooled data from 11 States)

Denial and/or discriminatory treatment	Percentage of villages where practiced		Percentage of villages where not practiced	Total villages surveyed
Separate seating in restaurants/hotels	32.7	(144)	58.0	441
Separate utensils in restaurants/hotels	32.3	(145)	58.1	449
Tailor will not take measurements	20.8	(96)	70.1	462
Untouchability during transactions in shops	18.5	(87)	73.8	470
No seating / last entry in public transport	12.8	(57)	82.9	444
Discriminatory treatment in private clinics	8.7	(24)	83.7	276

Note: Figures in brackets are number of villages where form is practiced. Villages where status of practice is ambiguous are excluded from both 'practiced' and 'not practiced' categories. Total surveyed villages exclude villages where relevant institution/site is absent.

Source: *Action Aid study 2000*

## Economic Discrimination

The ActionAid study, (2000) found that the discrimination in labour markets operates through exclusion in hiring and lower wages. In about 36 percent of the villages, the SCs were denied casual employment in agriculture. In about 25 percent villages, the SCs faced discrimination in terms of wage payments - the rate was

less than the market wage rate or wages paid to the non-SC workers. Belief in the concept of purity and pollution also come into effect in hiring of SC labourers in house construction - in about one-third of the villages the SCs were excluded from employment in construction of houses (Panel 3).

In the case of other markets, the study observed discriminatory treatment against SC

**Panel 3: Market Discrimination — Access to Work & Resources**  
(Forms/sites; pooled data from 11 States)

Form/Site of Untouchability Practice	Percentage of villages where practiced		Percentage of villages where not practiced	Total villages surveyed
(a) Labour Market				
Denied work as agricultural labour	35.5	(158)	60.0	445
No touching when paying wages	37.1	(174)	59.7	469
Paid lower wages for the same work	24.5	(119)	70.8	486
SC not employed in house construction	28.7	(152)	62.0	529
(b ) Input Market				
Denied access to irrigation facilities	32.6	(152)	59.4	466
(c) Common Properties Resources				
Denied access to grazing/fishing grounds	20.9	(76)	71.7	364
(d) Consumer Market – Sale & Purchase				
Not allowed to sell milk to cooperatives	46.7	(162)	48.1	347
Prevented from selling in local markets	35.4	(165)	54.9	466
Not allowed to buy from milk cooperatives	27.8	(100)	59.2	360

Note: Figures in brackets are number of villages where form is practiced. Villages where status of practice is ambiguous are excluded from both 'practiced' and 'not practiced' categories. Total surveyed villages exclude villages where relevant institution/site is absent.

persons in access to irrigation water, as well as public and private services. In a little more than one-third of the villages, the SCs were denied access to irrigation water for agriculture. In the case of agricultural land, selective evidence from some States reveals restrictions imposed by the high castes on the SCs in the purchase of private agricultural land, and use of public land for agriculture and housing. In the case of access to the Common Properties Resources (CPR) it included grazing land, fishing pond, and other resources. The SCs faced exclusion relating to CPR in about one-fifth (21 percent) of the sample villages.

Micro level studies such as those from Andhra Pradesh (Venketeswarlu, 1990) and Karnataka (Khan, 1995) provide some evidence on economic discrimination in occupation, employment, wages and the credit market as well as in other economic spheres. The Andhra Pradesh study ob-

served that SCs faced restrictions in efforts to change their occupation. Similarly, the Karnataka study revealed that nearly 85 percent of the SC respondents continue to be engaged in their traditional occupations - only 15 percent were able to make a switchover. The Orissa study (Tripathy, 1994) observed discrimination in land lease, credit and labour markets in rural areas. Nearly 96 percent of untouchable respondents in one village and all untouchable respondents in the second village were discriminated against in wage payment, with 28 percent in one village and 20 percent in another facing discrimination in payment of rent.

For urban areas, Banerjee and Knight (1985) observed that: 'there is indeed discrimination by caste, particularly job discrimination' and that 'discrimination appears to operate at least in part through tra-

*The 'untouchables' face considerable caste-related restrictions, which results in lack of access to resources, opportunities for employment, education, and other social needs and participation in public institutions. The restriction assumes various forms, ranging from social and economic boycott to physical violence*

ditional mechanisms, with 'untouchables' disproportionately represented in poorly-paid dead-end jobs...' Even if discrimination is no longer practiced, the effects of past discrimination could carry over to the present. This may help to explain why discrimination is greatest in operative jobs, in which contacts are more important for recruitment, and not in white-collar jobs in which recruitment involves formal methods.

This empirical overview, based on macro level official data and micro level primary evidence revealed the extent of discrimination faced by the members of the 'untouchable' community in civil, cultural, political and economic spheres. Given the qualitative nature of data, generalisations about the magnitude and trend are always risky. However it is reasonable to say that the 'untouchables' face considerable caste-related restrictions, which reduce their capacity to access civil, political and economic rights and opportunities. This results in lack of access to resources, opportunities for employment, education, and other social needs and participation in public institutions. The restriction assumes various forms, ranging from social and economic boycott to physical violence. The official Report of the Commission of the Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes 1998 observed,

*"Some of the major causes of atrocities and other offences against Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are related to issues of land and property, access to water, wage payments, indebtedness and bonded or forced labour. Issues of human dignity, including compulsion to perform distasteful tasks traditionally forced on Scheduled Castes, and molestation and exploitation of dalit women are also involved. Caste related tension is exacerbated by economic factors, which contribute to violence. It is the assertion of their rights, be they*

*economic, social or political, by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and their development, which often invite the wrath of the vested interests. Land and water is another sensitive issue. Accessibility of drinking water and water for irrigation and disposal of water removed from water logged areas become issues that can trigger off atrocities on SCs. Caste fervor during religious and social ceremonies, disputes arising during sowing and harvesting operations, and removal of crops from the granary after harvesting, have also been known to cause tension. Increasing awareness and empowerment of SCs, manifested in resistance to suppression, also result in clashes".*

## **Government Programmes and Discrimination**

The Centre and States have devised and implemented several schemes and programmes to uplift the poor and socially marginalised groups of society. These include wage employment, self-employment and social security programmes.

The intervention in social security is multi-dimensional and multi-sectoral, impacting services in the health, nutrition, and education sectors for all age groups. The Mid-Day Meal Scheme for children is one such programme, which encompasses all three sectors.

## **Caste Discrimination and Right to Food**

Empirical studies also show evidence of denial of access/access with differential treatment in food security programmes like Mid-Day Meal Schemes (MMS) and Public Distribution System (PDS). A study on Mid-Day Meal Scheme for Rajasthan reported the exclusion of SCs as cook and helper in almost 60 percent of sample villages. (Dreze and Goyal, 2003). Another study based on a sample of

about 550 villages from five States (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan), also reported exclusion and discriminatory treatment in operation of Mid-Meal Schemes and PDS. (Thorat and Lee, 2004).

The practice of discriminatory and exclusive behaviour towards Scheduled Castes remains widespread. Caste discrimination afflicts more than one out of three Fair Price Shops (FPS) and more than one out of three government schools serving mid-day meals (averages for five States of 35.5 percent and 37 percent, respectively). In terms of geographical spread, it is unquestionably a nationwide problem - from 24 percent in Andhra Pradesh to 52 percent in Rajasthan, to the vast majority in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar - respondent villages from every State report problems of caste discrimination and exclusion in the MMS. Likewise with the PDS, no State is free of patterns of discrimination - from 17 percent in Andhra Pradesh to 86 percent in Bihar. Every State reports a substantial percentage of dominant caste PDS dealers practicing caste-based discrimination in the distribution of PDS goods, e.g. preferential order of service by caste, or hierarchically segregated timings for dominant caste and *dalit* customers. While the problem is nationwide, the degree varies considerably from State to State. Where a higher percentage of MMS cooks and organisers are *dalit*, and where a higher percentage of mid-day meals are held in *dalit* colonies, lower incidence of caste discrimination in the MMS is reported. In Andhra Pradesh, where indicators of *dalit* participatory empowerment and access are relatively high (49 percent of respondent villages have *dalit* cooks, 45 percent have *dalit* organisers, and 46 per-

cent are held in *dalit* localities), reported caste discrimination in the MMS stands at 24 percent. In Tamil Nadu, where the same empowerment and access indicators are lower (31 percent, 27 percent, and 19 percent, respectively), reported discrimination stands at 36 percent. And in Rajasthan, where indicators are alarmingly low (8 percent *dalit* cooks, 0 percent *dalit* organisers, 12 percent held in *dalit* colonies), reported discrimination stands extremely high at 52 percent.

A similar pattern emerges in access to fair price shops, where higher proportions of *dalit* PDS dealers and fair price shops held in *dalit* colonies correspond with lower proportions of reported discrimination and “untouchability” practices.

### Access to Justice

A number of anti-discrimination statutes and other legal provisions exist as legal safeguards against caste- and untouchability-based discrimination. As mentioned earlier, the primary pieces of legislation designed to provide a measure of protection to SCs and STs against discrimination and to enforce their rights are the Anti-Untouchability Act, 1955 (renamed Civil Right Act in 1979) and Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Prevention of Atrocities Act, 1989. There are limited studies which examine the effectiveness of these legislations and access to the institutions of justice. However, the available evidence indicates that these legislative provisions are highly under-utilised. Besides, in seeking legal safeguards and protection, the SCs and STs also suffered from discriminatory access to the institutions of justice like the police and judiciary. In their efforts to register the

*The practice of discriminatory and exclusive behaviour towards Scheduled Castes remains widespread. In terms of scale, caste discrimination afflicts more than one out of three fair price shops (FPS) and more than one out of three government schools serving midday meals*



*The conviction rate in cases relating to civil rights violations and atrocities was less than one percent and sometimes close to zero*

case and to take matters to the level of various institutions of justice, the SC/STs face non-cooperation and discrimination from the village level functionaries (like village *Sarpanch*), the police, public prosecutors and other functionaries. This is essentially reflected in partial denial of justice by the various institutions involved in enforcement of anti-discrimination laws and other provisions. The official statistics and the results of studies based on primary studies bring out the character of the institutions of justice.

The data on the Civil Rights cases shows that, of the total cases registered in 1991, only 1.56 percent resulted in conviction. The conviction rate came down to 0.60 percent in 1999 and 0.85 percent 2000. This shows that the conviction rate in cases relating to civil rights violations and atrocities was less than one percent and sometimes close to zero.

An Andhra Pradesh study throws some light on the reasons for the low conviction rate, based on the analysis of 100 documented cases of atrocities during 2000-2003. The study observed that “the case studies indicated a disturbing trend of subversion of the rights of dalit to justice and compensation under the law once an atrocity take place.” (Agrawal and Gonsalves, 2005). The study observed negligence and collusion at the stage of registration, charge-sheeting and investigation, while seeking justice before the law in the court and in giving compensation. It revealed violations by police in terms of not registering the cases, pressuring the *dalit* to seek compromise, foisting false cases, refusing to register the case under SC/ST Atrocity Act, not citing proper section of Act, not arresting the accused, shielding the public servants from arrest, not following rules of investigation, not conducting inquiry of the incident for compensation, not providing allowances, and ignoring the conse-

quences of atrocities in terms of social boycotts. (Agrawal and Gonsalves 2005, AP Dalit Human Rights Monitor 2003). About the role of judiciary, the Dalit Human Rights Monitor, 2003 observed “If the low conviction rate under Act is any indication, the Judiciary has responded poorly to the Act.” (Dalit Human Rights Report – 2000, Andhra Pradesh, p. 109).

The Karnataka study (Khan, 1995) which examined the role of the police and judiciary covering a sample of 120 police officers, 95 judges and advocates and 16 public prosecutors dealing with the anti-discrimination laws came up with similar observations. The study observed non-cooperative and unsupportive attitude of the police in dealing with the cases of atrocities and discrimination.

The well-being of marginalized groups depends much on returns of their stake in public services, labour and other markets, and government schemes. Micro level studies have shown that the SCs have experienced caste-based discrimination in accessing basic public services. Despite continuous contribution to the goods and services market, the *dalits* in general and SCs in particular have been discriminated against and excluded in various markets - labour, input and consumer - as well as in use of common property resources. The government social welfare programmes of providing food such as mid-day meals for school children, and food grains through fair price shops have not been spared from discrimination. Due to low stake as a result of caste- and untouchability-based discrimination in social, political, and cultural spheres, their level of well-being also remains low. This calls for corrective measures, preferably through legal procedures, to bring about equality across social groups in all spheres.



## SECTION VII

# Main Findings and Policy Implications

### Main Findings

This paper assessed the attainment in human development and human poverty reduction and achievement for individual indicators, reflecting access to resources or income-earning assets like agricultural land and non land assets, employment, education. It also assessed social needs like health, water, housing and the extent and nature of caste- and untouchability-based exclusion and discrimination in economic, civil, cultural and political spheres and in food security programmes and institutions of justice for the SCs, STs and a residual category of non-SC/ST. The study covers the period between 1980 and 2000.

The analysis related to the attainment of human development and the human deprivation of socially marginalised sections and the changes in level and disparities in HDI, HPI and its individual components during 1983 and 2000 reveals the following trends.

**First**, there was a positive improvement in human development and human poverty situation (in terms of HPI) and individual components of human development and human poverty at the overall level and for all groups, namely the SCs, STs and non-SC/STs during 1980-2000 at the all-India level. With some exceptions, the gap or disparity between the SC/STs and non-SC/STs in HDI, HPI and in each individual component of these two indices also declined between 1980 and 2000,

although the rate of decline was more for some indicators than for others. Overall, there has been a declining trend in disparity between SC/STs and non-SC/STs.

**Second**, the rate of improvement between 1983-2000 was not enough to bridge the gap and to bring the SCs and STs at par with non-SC/STs, which indeed, has been the declared objective of the government policy towards these groups. Therefore in 2000, even at an improved level of human development, the disparities between the socially marginalised groups of SCs and STs and the non-SC/STs persisted to a significant degree.

In the case of HDI, the disparity ratio between SCs and non-SC/STs and STs and non-SC/STs improved in 2000 for almost all States and also at all-India level, approaching the equality value of 1. But since the base level of HDI for SC/STs was low, the disparity in HDI between them and non-SC/STs persisted (value is <1) in 2000.

There was a reduction in deprivation in terms of decline in the HPI value for all social groups at all-India as well as State levels. However, the disparity ratio increased during the period 1990 and 2000 for SCs vs. non-SC/STs at all-India level as well as for certain States like Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. In the same way, the disparity ratio for STs vs. non-SC/ST increased for all States except Kerala and Maharashtra. The increase

*In 2000, even at an improved level of human development, the disparities between the socially marginalised groups of SC and ST and the non-SC/STs persisted to a significant degree*

*During 1983-2000 the literacy rates improved at a higher rate for SCs and STs and this helped to reduce the gap between them and non-SC/STs*

in disparity of HPI between the SC/ST vs. non-SC/STs between 1990 and 2000 is due to the rate of decline in deprivation being lower for SC/STs as compared to non-SC/STs.

**Third**, while there was an improvement in various components of HDI and HPI, since the relative improvement in the case of SCs and STs was generally lower as compared to non-SC/STs, the disparity between SC/STs and non-SC/STs did not decline substantially enough so as to bring the ratio closer to equality (value 1). Consequently, the socially marginalised groups of SCs and STs lag behind the non-SC/STs with respect to attainment level in human development in 2000. As a result, human poverty among SCs and STs was also high. Similar disparities prevailed in different components of HDI and HPI.

*The Infant Mortality Rate* improved for all the three social groups during 1983-2000. The rate of decline in IMR however, was not high enough to result in a significant decline in the disparity ratio between SC/STs and non-SC/STs. As a result, the disparity ratio for SCs in 2000 was only a little less than in 1983, while in the case of STs, the disparity ratio increased in 2000.

*Literacy rate* improved for all the groups. During 1983-2000 the literacy rates improved at a higher rate for SCs and STs and this helped to reduce the gap between them and non-SC/STs.

*Monthly per capita consumption expenditure* increased for all social groups but the relative increase in the MPCE of SCs versus non-SC/STs and STs versus non-SC/STs was not high enough to reduce the gap between SC/ST and non-SC/ST. The disparity ratio for the SCs and STs vs.

non-SC/STs remained almost unchanged between 1983 and 2000.

The incidence of *poverty* also improved for all social groups, but again at a lower rate among the SCs and STs. The poverty gap between the SC/STs and non-SC/STs, in fact, increased during 1983-2000, at least in relative terms, mainly due to slower decline in poverty for these social groups.

The trend was the same for *nutritional status*. Between 1990 and 2000 the nutritional status of all three social groups improved, but by a lower margin for the SCs and STs.

*Access to public health* improved overall and for all the three social groups; however the rate of improvement was lower for SCs and STs and as a result, the gap between SC/ST and non-SC/STs in access to public health services continued in 2000.

**Fourth**, the results indicate that the disparities in the achievement level in HDI and HPI and their individual components between SC/STs and non-SC/STs are closely linked with the lower access of these socially marginalised groups to sources of income and human capabilities. Lower access to capital assets like agricultural land and non land assets (and/or low productivity of those assets); lower urbanisation and employment diversification away from agriculture; exceptionally high dependence on casual wage labour, accompanied by higher under-employment; lower daily wages, particularly in non-farm activities, and low levels of literacy and education were the main features.

**Fifth**, the empirical evidence also shows that lower access of socially marginalised groups to resources and opportunities compared with non-SC/ST groups, is closely

linked with the processes of exclusion and discrimination. This is partly carried forward through residual impact of denial of right to property and education in the past but also due to exclusion and discrimination faced by the 'untouchable' community in the present.

In the economic sphere, the empirical evidence indicates exclusion and discriminatory treatment in various markets, viz. agricultural land, capital, employment, market in consumer goods, as well as transactions conducted through non market channels. Discrimination is also experienced by the 'untouchable' community in access to public services related to education, health, public water sources, post-offices and participation in village political institutions. The 'untouchables' also faced restrictions in their attempts to secure human rights and lawful entitlements. The restriction assumes various forms, ranging from social and economic boycott to physical violence.

The evidence also reveals the exclusionary and discriminatory treatment by public institutions in implementation of food security schemes such as Mid-Day Meal Scheme and in enforcement of anti-discrimination laws by the police, judiciary and organs of the State involved in delivery of social justice. Insofar as enforcement of anti-discrimination laws depends on the State and that various organs of the State are not free of caste prejudice, State monitoring is inadequate to enforce equal opportunity and punish discrimination. The more worrisome aspect is the discriminatory attitude of organs of the State, like the police.

Thus societal discrimination and exclusion in multiple spheres and violent opposition by vested interests as well as some organs of the State drastically reduced the freedom and capacity of Scheduled Castes and Tribes to access civil, political and economic rights and equal opportunities. The failure of entitlements due to caste-based exclusion is significant. From the empirical evidence it becomes apparent that, among other reasons, caste/untouchability-based exclusion and discrimination of the SCs, and isolation and exclusion of STs in the past and present (through residual traditional attitudes) continue to be the main reasons for their lower human development and higher deprivations.

### Policy Implications

The approach of Indian policy makers to overcome the deprivations of SC and ST includes two types of measures, namely

- (a) **Measures against discrimination** including legal safeguards such as anti-untouchability law, fair access policy in the form of reservation in politics, employment, education and other spheres and
- (b) **General measures** for economic and social empowerment which come as part of anti-poverty and other programmes.

These policies have brought about positive changes but the rate of improvement has not been sufficient to reduce the absolute level of deprivation and the gap between the SCs and STs vs. non-SC/STs.

The analysis in the preceding sections, on the factors associated with lower level of human development and higher human poverty indicate that they are closely linked.

*Insofar as enforcement of anti-discrimination laws depends on the State and that various organs of the State are not free of caste prejudice, State monitoring is inadequate to enforce equal opportunity and punish discrimination*

*What is important is that the policies of equal and fair access, which are at present confined to the government sector need to be extended to the private sector, as the latter is also characterised by the practice of discrimination in various markets, including the employment market*

This implies that in order to improve the performance of the disadvantaged groups on the human development front, it is imperative that measures are taken to increase ownership and access to income earning capital assets like agricultural land, capital for non agriculture economic business activities; increase employment, and ensure living wages; and also to promote education and skill development so as to increase employability.

However as the evidence shows, given the continuing discrimination in multiple spheres (if not all), general economic and educational empowerment although a necessary pre-condition for human development, is not enough. Like other economically and educationally backward sections from higher castes, the SCs and STs require education and skill development to improve employability and access to capital assets. But unlike others, they face discrimination in economic and social spheres, and hence require additional safeguards to ensure fair access and participation. What is important is that the policies of equal and fair access, which are at present confined to the government sector need to be extended to the private sector, as the latter is also characterised by the practice of discrimination in various markets, including the employment market.

The high order of continuing “exclusion induced deprivation” of disadvantaged groups of SCs and STs indicates that addressing social exclusion is often a far more difficult challenge than material poverty. Social and cultural sources of exclusion (in economic, civil and political spheres)-including stigma, discrimination and denial of citizenship - are rooted in infor-

mal social structures and the institution of caste and untouchability not only in the private domain but also in the public domain governed by the State. In this context, the inclusion of excluded groups, becomes somewhat different from social inclusion of only materially deprived people. Poverty, even when broadly defined as exclusion from the means necessary for full participation in normal activities of society, is largely a question of access to resources and services. Exclusion of groups, or individuals within those groups, is first of all a denial of equal opportunity, respect and recognition of right to development. Group exclusion is “horizontal” in that it may affect even relatively better off members of excluded groups. Fighting discrimination therefore calls for additional policies complementing anti-poverty and economic development programmes. But there is also considerable overlap and therefore there is need to combine and complement (and not separate), pro-programmes against poverty and economic deprivation from policies for equal rights and social inclusion of disadvantaged groups.

Developing social inclusion policies however, requires information on the forms, nature and mechanism of exclusion in social, political and economic spheres and their consequences on human development. Facilitated by legal provisions, caste- and untouchability-based discrimination in social spheres has been well researched, but the studies on exclusion in political and economic spheres have received much less attention. In order to bring more insight on the forms and nature of economic discrimination, particularly political exclusion and market discrimination in the private do-

main, more research is necessary. This will enable us to understand the economic and political processes of exclusion and help to develop policies of inclusion which are

so essential in Indian society that is characterised by high degree of exclusion based inequalities, deprivation and poverty of a vast section of the population.

## End Notes

1. The essential elements of calculating a distribution-adjusted HDI were laid down in the very first Report (UNDP 1990). The second Report (UNDP 1991), actually calculated the distribution adjusted HDI for 53 countries for which data was available. Until the 1994 Report, these calculations were still available for probing in the Technical Notes section (UNDP 1994). However, these calculations have been omitted in more recent Reports (UNDP, 1995, 1996, 1997) (Ambul Sagar and Adil Najam, 1998).
2. The observations of the 2004 UNHDR in this respect are largely based on findings of the study, “The Minorities at Risk”, which studied cultural exclusion of minority groups worldwide, and estimated that about 900 million people belong to groups that are subjected to some form of living mode participation exclusion not faced by other groups. The study emphasised the need to develop and extend concepts, dimensions, indicators, and deprivation index to each country- where an understanding of the issues is likely to be greater. It also argued for producing data sets and cultural liberty indices, based on definite conceptual frameworks and indicators, which are measurable, comparable, and policy relevant. It also refers to the remedies used against discrimination in the form of affirmative action in countries like Canada, Australia, India, New Zealand and USA, wherein ethnic minorities, indigenous and tribal communities form a significant part of the population.
3. The 17 states include, Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, Punjab, Assam, Sikkim, Himachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Orissa, Gujarat, Chhattisgarh, Kerala, Arunachal Pradesh and Delhi. For more information, please see [www.undp.org.in/hdrc/shdr](http://www.undp.org.in/hdrc/shdr)



## List of Tables

**Table 1.1: Human Development Index - Levels and Disparity,  
1980–2000 (All-India)**

Index	Social Groups			
1. HDI Levels	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
1980	0.162	0.150	0.285	0.241
2000	0.303	0.270	0.393	0.366
2. Difference in HDI	SC-non SC/ST	ST-non SC/ST		
1980	0.123	0.135		
2000	0.090	0.123		
3. Change in HDI (1980/2000) (Percent per annum)	3.55	3.34	1.80	2.35
4. Disparity Ratio	SC*	ST**		
1980	0.57	0.52		
2000	0.77	0.69		
5. Change in Disparity Ratio				
Net diff. (1980/2000)	0.20	0.16		
Change (per annum rate)	1.72	1.52		

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: *IIDS Data Bank*

**Table 1.2: Human Poverty Index - Level, Disparity and Changes, 1990—2000 (All-India)**

	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
<b>1. HPI</b>				
1990	54.36	60.32	42.09	43.65
2000	41.47	47.79	31.34	33.63
<b>2. Difference in HPI</b>	<b>SC-non SC/ST</b>	<b>ST-non SC/ST</b>		
1990	-12.27	-18.23		
2000	-10.13	-16.45		
<b>3. Disparity Ratio</b>	<b>SC*</b>	<b>ST**</b>		
1990	1.29	1.43		
2000	1.32	1.52		
<b>4. Change in HPI (1990/2000 per annum)</b>	-3.79	-3.27	-4.13	-3.66
<b>5. Change in Disparity Ratio</b>	<b>SC*</b>	<b>ST**</b>		
Net change	0.03	0.09		
Percent change per annum	0.34	0.89		

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 1.3(a): HDI and HPI Individual Indicators - Levels and Changes, 1990—2000**

Indicators	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
<b>1. Infant Mortality Rate</b>				
1980	127	101	99	109
2000	83	84	68	73
Net change	-44	-17	-31	-36
Percent change per annum	-2.31	-1.02	-2.07	-2.19
<b>2. Literacy Rate</b>				
1980	24	19	47	41
2000	55	47	69	65
Net change	30	28	22	23
Percent change per annum	4.56	5.24	2.13	2.52
<b>3. AMPCE (1993-94 base)</b>				
1980	233	207	313	291
2000	285	260	393	361
Net change	53	54	80	70
Percent change per annum	1.14	1.29	1.27	1.21
<b>4. Poverty Rate</b>				
1990	51.26	48.45	31.05	36.15
2000	36.67	44.80	21.17	26.26
Net change	-15	-4	-10	-10
Percent change per annum	-4.67	-1.12	-5.33	-4.46
<b>5. Under-nourished children</b>				
1990	58	57	52	53
2000	54	56	44	47
Net change	-4	-1	-8	-6
Percent change per annum	-1.02	-0.25	-2.36	-1.70
<b>6. Lack of access to health</b>				
1990	60.45	76.55	49.1	52.00
2000	44.15	53.55	37.15	40.00
Net change	-16	-23	-12	-12
Percent change per annum	-4.39	-4.98	-3.91	-3.68

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 1.3(b): Trends in Disparities in Individual Indicators, 1990—2000**

Indicators	SC*	ST**
<b>1. IMR Disparity Ratio</b>		
1980	1.28	1.02
2000	1.22	1.24
Net difference	-0.06	0.22
Percent change per annum	-2.44	-1.28
<b>2. Literacy - Disparity Ratio</b>		
1980	0.52	0.40
2000	0.79	0.68
Net difference	0.27	0.29
Percent change per annum	2.38	3.04
<b>3. AMPCE - Disparity Ratio</b>		
1980	0.74	0.66
2000	0.73	0.66
Net difference	-0.02	0.00
Percent change per annum	-0.13	0.02
<b>4. Poverty - Disparity Ratio</b>		
1990	1.53	1.65
2000	1.73	2.12
Net change	0.21	0.46
Percent change per annum	0.70	1.38
<b>5. Undernourished - Disparity Ratio</b>		
1990	1.12	1.10
2000	1.23	1.27
Net change	0.11	0.18
Percent change per annum	1.38	2.16
<b>6. Lack of Health Care - Disparity Ratio</b>		
1990	1.23	1.56
2000	1.19	1.44
Net change	-0.04	-0.12
Percent change per annum	-0.50	-1.11

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 2.1(a): Human Development Index among Social Groups - Level and Disparity (State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1980				2000				1980		2000	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	0.163	0.183	0.262	0.237	0.283	0.221	0.382	0.348	0.62	0.70	0.74	0.58
Assam	0.283	0.241	0.296	0.274	0.407	0.361	0.358	0.36	0.95	0.81	1.14	1.01
Bihar	0.119	0.170	0.212	0.198	0.195	0.201	0.301	0.279	0.56	0.80	0.65	0.67
Gujarat	0.252	0.161	0.303	0.275	0.371	0.311	0.433	0.406	0.83	0.53	0.86	0.72
Haryana	0.182	NA	0.296	0.270	0.340	NA	0.419	0.428	0.62	NA	0.81	NA
H.P.	0.228	NA	0.346	0.287	0.450	NA	0.524	0.505	0.66	NA	0.86	NA
Karnataka	0.184	0.155	0.309	0.263	0.308	0.275	0.417	0.389	0.60	0.5	0.74	0.66
Kerala	0.448	0.464	0.565	0.539	0.661	0.613	0.755	0.715	0.79	0.82	0.88	0.81
Madhya Pradesh	0.153	0.126	0.247	0.206	0.294	0.226	0.368	0.326	0.62	0.51	0.80	0.61
Maharashtra	0.227	0.164	0.343	0.295	0.416	0.307	0.48	0.453	0.66	0.48	0.87	0.64
Orissa	0.145	0.124	0.241	0.201	0.289	0.207	0.364	0.316	0.60	0.52	0.80	0.57
Punjab	0.233	NA	0.376	0.331	0.343	NA	0.446	0.444	0.62	NA	0.77	NA
Rajasthan	0.144	0.113	0.230	0.196	0.291	0.262	0.365	0.338	0.63	0.49	0.80	0.72
Tamil Nadu	0.183	0.368	0.324	0.317	0.411	0.328	0.461	0.447	0.57	1.14	0.89	0.71
Uttar Pradesh	0.121	0.159	0.202	0.183	0.250	0.245	0.323	0.307	0.60	0.79	0.77	0.76
West Bengal	0.183	0.143	0.308	0.265	0.359	0.253	0.452	0.412	0.59	0.46	0.79	0.56
<b>India</b>	<b>0.162</b>	<b>0.150</b>	<b>0.285</b>	<b>0.241</b>	<b>0.303</b>	<b>0.270</b>	<b>0.393</b>	<b>0.366</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.69</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank



**Table 2.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in HDI,  
1980—2000 (State-wise)**

States	Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	3.10	1.07	2.11	2.15	0.97	-1.02
Assam	7.15	5.02	4.34	5.27	2.69	-0.20
Bihar	2.78	0.93	1.97	1.92	0.79	-1.01
Gujarat	2.17	3.72	2.00	2.19	0.17	1.69
Haryana	3.51	NA	1.96	2.60	1.53	NA
Himachal Pradesh	3.86	NA	2.34	3.18	1.48	NA
Karnataka	2.89	3.24	1.68	2.20	1.19	1.54
Kerala	2.19	1.56	1.63	1.58	0.55	-0.07
Madhya Pradesh	3.70	3.30	2.23	2.58	1.44	1.05
Maharashtra	3.41	3.54	1.89	2.42	1.49	1.62
Orissa	3.90	2.87	2.33	2.55	1.54	0.54
Punjab	2.18	NA	0.95	1.64	1.21	NA
Rajasthan	3.99	4.81	2.60	3.09	1.35	2.15
Tamil Nadu	4.58	-0.64	1.98	1.92	2.55	-2.57
Uttar Pradesh	4.11	2.44	2.64	2.89	1.43	-0.19
West Bengal	3.80	3.23	2.15	2.48	1.62	1.06
<b>India</b>	<b>3.55</b>	<b>3.34</b>	<b>1.80</b>	<b>2.35</b>	<b>1.72</b>	<b>1.52</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 3.1(a): Human Poverty Index among Social Groups - Level and Disparity, 1990—2000  
(State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1990				2000				1990		2000	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	51.5	60.65	40.61	43.56	36.54	46.61	28.24	30.49	1.27	1.49	1.29	1.65
Assam	47.86	44.39	46.93	46.82	37.17	35.73	39.22	39.55	1.02	0.95	0.95	0.91
Bihar	68.5	65.85	54.41	57.46	59.36	60.47	43.2	46.40	1.26	1.21	1.37	1.40
Gujarat	37.68	48.34	31.63	34.67	30.25	43.09	25.98	28.34	1.19	1.53	1.16	1.66
Haryana	49.3	NA	34.34	37.6	38.4	NA	32.21	30.06	1.44	NA	1.19	NA
Himachal Pradesh	50.39	NA	33.52	36.63	33.21	NA	27.89	30.08	1.50	NA	1.19	NA
Karnataka	50.19	53.58	36.6	39.27	39.04	42.95	26.63	29.04	1.37	1.46	1.47	1.61
Kerala	24.71	47.74	18.77	19.56	18.62	27.65	12.17	11.77	1.32	2.54	1.53	2.27
Madhya Pradesh	57.03	62.33	43.86	49.68	43.68	55.08	35.19	39.22	1.30	1.42	1.24	1.57
Maharashtra	43.96	58.89	32.65	35.99	31.48	43.88	26.22	27.57	1.35	1.80	1.2	1.67
Orissa	61.02	61.19	41.54	48.17	47.66	60.69	34.32	41.43	1.47	1.47	1.39	1.77
Punjab	47.72	NA	33.32	37.08	36.71	NA	31.47	25.18	1.43	NA	1.17	NA
Rajasthan	58.29	59.90	45.05	49.57	43.78	48.45	35.78	37.79	1.29	1.33	1.22	1.35
Tamil Nadu	43.07	54.60	29.71	33.07	32.27	43.14	20.82	22.91	1.45	1.84	1.55	2.07
Uttar Pradesh	58.37	55.24	47.8	52.17	50.03	55.45	40.49	42.17	1.22	1.16	1.24	1.37
West Bengal	53.96	56.30	38.23	41.3	37.72	47.72	30.91	32.44	1.41	1.47	1.22	1.54
<b>India</b>	<b>54.36</b>	<b>60.32</b>	<b>42.09</b>	<b>43.65</b>	<b>41.47</b>	<b>47.79</b>	<b>31.34</b>	<b>33.63</b>	<b>1.29</b>	<b>1.43</b>	<b>1.32</b>	<b>1.52</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 3.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in HPI, 1990—2000 (State-wise)**

States	Levels				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	-4.79	-3.69	-5.06	-4.97	0.29	1.44
Assam	-3.55	-3.05	-2.53	-2.38	-1.04	-0.54
Bihar	-2.03	-1.21	-3.24	-3.01	1.26	2.10
Gujarat	-3.09	-1.63	-2.77	-2.84	-0.32	1.18
Haryana	-3.51	Na	-0.91	-3.15	-2.62	NA
Himachal Pradesh	-5.78	Na	-2.59	-2.78	-3.27	NA
Karnataka	-3.52	-3.11	-4.44	-4.22	0.96	1.39
Kerala	-3.96	-7.51	-6.00	-7.00	2.18	-1.60
Madhya Pradesh	-3.74	-1.75	-3.10	-3.32	-0.66	1.39
Maharashtra	-4.66	-4.12	-3.09	-3.73	-1.62	-1.06
Orissa	-3.47	-0.12	-2.69	-2.13	-0.80	2.65
Punjab	-3.68	Na	-0.81	-5.38	-2.89	NA
Rajasthan	-4.01	-2.98	-3.24	-3.80	-0.79	0.26
Tamil Nadu	-4.04	-3.31	-4.96	-5.11	0.96	1.74
Uttar Pradesh	-2.18	0.05	-2.34	-2.99	0.17	2.45
West Bengal	-4.99	-2.34	-2.99	-3.39	-2.06	0.68
<b>India</b>	<b>-3.79</b>	<b>-3.27</b>	<b>-4.13</b>	<b>-3.66</b>	<b>0.34</b>	<b>0.89</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 4.1(a): Infant Mortality Rate among Social Groups - Level and Disparity,  
1980—2000 (State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1983-84				1998-99				1983-84		1998-99	
	SC	ST	Non- Sc/ST	All	SC	ST	Non- SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	97	70	75	81	95	104	60	71	1.29	0.93	1.58	1.73
Assam	150	100	91	114	45	59	64	62	1.65	1.10	0.70	0.92
Bihar	101	74	96	90	86	82	71	76	1.05	0.77	1.21	1.15
Gujarat	115	117	102	111	80	60	61	64	1.13	1.15	1.31	0.98
Haryana	113	NA	98	106	68	NA	56	59	1.15	NA	1.21	NA
Himachal Pradesh	123	NA	72	121	44	NA	39	40	1.71	NA	1.13	NA
Karnataka	88	122	69	93	70	85	59	62	1.28	1.77	1.19	1.44
Kerala	40	23	28	30	21	21	19	21	1.43	0.82	1.11	1.11
Madhya Pradesh	120	98	127	115	102	101	86	93	0.94	0.77	1.19	1.17
Maharashtra	107	119	69	98	53	74	50	53	1.55	1.72	1.06	1.48
Orissa	137	101	141	126	84	99	88	90	0.97	0.72	0.95	1.13
Punjab	77	NA	61	69	74	NA	47	57	1.26	NA	1.57	NA
Rajasthan	137	150	114	134	99	95	84	88	1.2	1.32	1.18	1.13
Tamil Nadu	99	24	74	66	42	51	53	51	1.34	0.32	0.79	0.96
Uttar Pradesh	182	145	147	158	110	83	91	95	1.24	0.99	1.21	0.91
West Bengal	98	87	76	87	55	85	45	51	1.29	1.14	1.22	1.89
<b>India</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>1.28</b>	<b>1.02</b>	<b>1.22</b>	<b>1.24</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 4.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in IMR,  
1980—2000 (State-wise)**

States	Change in Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	-0.12	2.22	-1.23	-0.71	-3.90	-2.64
Assam	-6.47	-2.89	-1.94	-3.31	-0.82	-0.07
Bihar	-0.89	0.57	-1.66	-0.96	-1.34	0.65
Gujarat	-2.00	-3.64	-2.82	-3.03	-2.15	-0.67
Haryana	-2.78	NA	-3.06	-3.18	-1.85	NA
Himachal Pradesh	-5.55	NA	-3.35	-5.98	-3.58	NA
Karnataka	-1.26	-1.99	-0.87	-2.23	-2.27	-5.06
Kerala	-3.52	-0.50	-2.13	-2.02	-2.51	0.54
Madhya Pradesh	-0.90	0.17	-2.14	-1.17	-0.63	0.55
Maharashtra	-3.83	-2.60	-1.77	-3.38	-2.72	-5.07
Orissa	-2.68	-0.11	-2.59	-1.87	0.42	1.21
Punjab	-0.22	NA	-1.44	-1.06	-3.74	NA
Rajasthan	-1.79	-2.51	-1.68	-2.30	-1.92	-2.18
Tamil Nadu	-4.65	4.28	-1.84	-1.39	-0.32	6.68
Uttar Pradesh	-2.76	-3.05	-2.63	-2.79	-2.22	0.59
West Bengal	-3.16	-0.13	-2.87	-2.92	-2.50	-4.19
<b>India</b>	<b>-2.31</b>	<b>-1.02</b>	<b>-2.07</b>	<b>-2.19</b>	<b>-2.44</b>	<b>-1.28</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank



**Table 5.1(a): Literacy Rate among Social Groups – Level and Disparity, 1981—2001 (State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1981				2001				1981		2001	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	20.14	18.79	38.59	34.09	53.52	37.04	63.81	60.47	0.52	0.49	0.84	0.58
Assam	61.28	42.30	55.62	53.45	66.78	62.52	63.06	63.25	1.10	0.79	1.06	0.99
Bihar	12.08	19.43	34.82	30.25	28.47	28.17	50.58	47.00	0.35	0.56	0.56	0.56
Gujarat	45.80	24.36	54.83	49.90	70.50	47.74	72.91	69.14	0.84	0.44	0.97	0.65
Haryana	23.54	NA	45.85	41.65	55.45	NA	60.42	67.91	0.51	NA	0.92	NA
Himachal Pradesh	36.30	45.51	53.26	48.74	70.31	65.50	79.18	76.48	0.68	0.85	0.89	0.83
Karnataka	23.87	23.25	48.88	43.92	52.87	48.27	70.97	66.64	0.49	0.48	0.74	0.68
Kerala	74.19	36.36	80.15	78.85	82.66	64.35	92.10	90.86	0.93	0.45	0.90	0.70
Madhya Pradesh	22.05	12.35	45.29	34.46	58.57	41.16	71.58	63.74	0.49	0.27	0.82	0.58
Maharashtra	40.67	25.67	57.64	53.54	71.90	55.21	79.74	76.88	0.71	0.45	0.90	0.69
Orissa	25.41	15.79	50.19	38.83	55.53	37.37	73.87	63.08	0.51	0.31	0.75	0.51
Punjab	27.59	NA	53.08	46.36	56.22	NA	57.82	69.65	0.52	NA	0.97	NA
Rajasthan	16.43	12.08	34.00	28.37	52.24	44.66	65.02	60.41	0.48	0.36	0.80	0.69
Tamil Nadu	29.70	19.37	56.45	52.63	63.19	41.53	76.24	73.45	0.53	0.34	0.83	0.54
Uttar Pradesh	17.33	23.83	35.16	31.37	46.27	35.13	58.9	56.27	0.49	0.68	0.79	0.60
West Bengal	28.03	15.03	54.17	46.32	59.04	43.40	73.55	68.64	0.52	0.28	0.80	0.59
<b>India</b>	<b>24.49</b>	<b>18.79</b>	<b>47.09</b>	<b>41.43</b>	<b>54.69</b>	<b>47.10</b>	<b>68.81</b>	<b>64.84</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>0.68</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: Calculated from –Compact Disk on Primary Census Abstract of India, Census of India.

**Table 5.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in Literacy Rate,  
1981—2001 (State-wise)**

States	Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	5.58	3.84	2.83	3.24	2.67	0.98
Assam	5.58	3.84	2.83	3.24	NA	NA
Bihar	4.88	2.08	2.10	2.48	2.73	-0.01
Gujarat	2.43	3.81	1.60	1.83	0.82	2.18
Haryana	4.88	NA	1.55	2.75	3.28	NA
Himachal Pradesh	3.74	2.04	2.23	2.53	1.48	-0.18
Karnataka	4.52	4.14	2.09	2.34	2.37	2.01
Kerala	0.60	3.22	0.78	0.79	-0.17	2.43
Madhya Pradesh	5.58	6.91	2.58	3.48	2.92	4.23
Maharashtra	3.22	4.35	1.82	2.03	1.37	2.48
Orissa	4.44	4.90	2.17	2.73	2.22	2.67
Punjab	4.03	NA	0.48	2.29	3.54	NA
Rajasthan	6.64	7.54	3.67	4.29	2.87	3.73
Tamil Nadu	4.28	4.33	1.68	1.87	2.56	2.60
Uttar Pradesh	5.61	2.18	2.91	3.30	2.62	-0.71
West Bengal	4.23	6.07	1.71	2.21	2.47	4.28
<b>India</b>	<b>4.56</b>	<b>5.24</b>	<b>2.13</b>	<b>2.52</b>	<b>2.38</b>	<b>3.04</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 6.1(a): Monthly Per Capita Expenditure among Social Groups-  
Levels and Disparity (State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1983				1999-00				1983		1999-2000	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	233	222	306	289	263	259	361	336	0.76	0.73	0.73	0.72
Assam	260	257	276	272	270	285	299	294	0.94	0.95	0.90	0.95
Bihar	174	184	228	216	215	228	278	262	0.76	0.80	0.77	0.82
Gujarat	290	216	349	321	336	290	454	416	0.83	0.62	0.74	0.64
Haryana	306	390	430	402	355	470	529	488	0.71	NA	0.67	NA
Himachal Pradesh	337	398	433	408	384	426	490	463	0.78	0.92	0.78	0.87
Karnataka	240	214	324	307	270	268	399	367	0.74	0.66	0.68	0.67
Kerala	262	340	367	355	403	456	523	511	0.71	0.93	0.77	0.87
Madhya Pradesh	217	189	301	258	257	214	334	295	0.72	0.63	0.77	0.64
Maharashtra	242	214	343	321	328	257	454	415	0.71	0.62	0.72	0.57
Orissa	170	142	227	198	223	181	293	252	0.75	0.63	0.76	0.62
Punjab	344	357	492	451	391	380	582	513	0.70	NA	0.67	NA
Rajasthan	287	235	360	333	324	298	405	374	0.80	0.65	0.80	0.74
Tamil Nadu	191	227	308	285	291	364	455	414	0.62	0.74	0.64	0.80
Uttar Pradesh	230	258	283	272	265	317	340	323	0.81	0.91	0.78	0.93
West Bengal	211	187	286	261	289	246	363	337	0.74	0.65	0.80	0.68
India	233	207	313	291	285	260	393	361	0.74	0.66	0.73	0.66

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: Calculated from Different Rounds of 'Consumer Expenditure Survey', National Sample Survey Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.

**Table 6.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in Monthly Per Capita Expenditure, 1983—1999/2000 (State-wise)**

States	Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	0.66	0.86	0.92	0.83	-0.27	-0.07
Assam	0.21	0.58	0.45	0.43	-0.24	0.13
Bihar	1.18	1.20	1.10	1.08	0.09	0.10
Gujarat	0.82	1.66	1.47	1.44	-0.65	0.18
Haryana	0.83	1.05	1.16	1.09	-0.33	NA
Himachal Pradesh	0.73	0.39	0.69	0.71	0.04	-0.30
Karnataka	0.65	1.25	1.16	1.01	-0.50	0.10
Kerala	2.44	1.65	1.99	2.05	0.44	-0.34
Madhya Pradesh	0.93	0.69	0.58	0.74	0.35	0.10
Maharashtra	1.70	1.02	1.57	1.44	0.13	-0.54
Orissa	1.53	1.34	1.42	1.34	0.11	-0.08
Punjab	0.71	0.36	0.94	0.72	-0.23	NA
Rajasthan	0.67	1.32	0.65	0.65	0.02	0.67
Tamil Nadu	2.37	2.66	2.19	2.09	0.17	0.46
Uttar Pradesh	0.78	1.16	1.03	0.95	-0.24	0.13
West Bengal	1.76	1.53	1.33	1.43	0.42	0.19
<b>India</b>	<b>1.14</b>	<b>1.29</b>	<b>1.27</b>	<b>1.21</b>	<b>-0.13</b>	<b>0.02</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 7.1(a): Poverty among Social Groups - Levels and Disparity, 1983—1999/2000 (State-wise)**

States	Levels							Disparity Index				
	1983				1999-2000			1983			1999-2000	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	39.16	34.93	27.93	30.03	21.23	26.95	17.07	15.59	1.40	1.25	1.24	1.58
Assam	43.30	47.25	37.23	39.15	41.73	37.23	34.87	36.83	1.16	1.27	1.20	1.07
Bihar	78.66	74.89	56.10	60.93	59.18	57.46	35.03	42.75	1.40	1.33	1.69	1.64
Gujarat	42.45	57.75	29.01	33.81	22.11	29.81	10.24	13.94	1.46	1.99	2.16	2.91
Haryana	37.61	NA	16.42	21.55	20.57	NA	4.89	8.73	2.29	NA	4.20	NA
Himachal Pradesh	26.46	NA	13.06	16.09	12.71	NA	6.12	7.64	2.03	NA	2.08	NA
Karnataka	52.08	57.72	31.74	37.01	29.87	30.17	17.58	19.57	1.64	1.82	1.70	1.72
Kerala	61.83	NA	38.44	41.03	16.40	25.20	13.82	12.24	1.61	NA	1.19	1.82
Madhya Pradesh	61.11	65.56	42.58	50.16	44.06	56.00	31.31	37.43	1.44	1.54	1.41	1.79
Maharashtra	61.98	62.20	39.45	42.83	35.89	43.50	21.21	25.01	1.57	1.58	1.69	2.05
Orissa	74.92	84.63	52.80	63.54	54.46	72.88	33.52	47.39	1.42	1.60	1.62	2.17
Punjab	29.40	NA	12.02	16.87	12.13	16.14	2.82	6.24	2.45	NA	4.30	5.73
Rajasthan	40.82	61.56	30.13	35.05	24.96	25.04	11.16	14.99	1.35	2.04	2.24	2.24
Tamil Nadu	68.30	NA	50.65	50.54	34.85	32.69	12.57	21.12	1.35	NA	2.77	2.60
Uttar Pradesh	57.01	NA	45.19	47.33	43.63	30.71	27.74	31.14	1.26	NA	1.57	1.11
West Bengal	66.82	75.97	43.93	51.86	34.05	48.62	24.10	28.23	1.52	1.73	1.41	2.02
<b>India</b>	<b>57.69</b>	<b>62.43</b>	<b>37.78</b>	<b>44.42</b>	<b>36.67</b>	<b>44.80</b>	<b>21.17</b>	<b>26.26</b>	<b>1.53</b>	<b>1.65</b>	<b>1.73</b>	<b>2.12</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: Calculated from Different Rounds of 'Consumer Expenditure Survey', National Sample Survey Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.



**Table 7.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity  
in Poverty, 1983—1999/2000 (State-wise)**

States	Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	-3.34	-1.43	-2.70	-3.58	-0.66	1.31
Assam	-0.21	-1.32	-0.36	-0.34	0.16	-0.96
Bihar	-1.57	-1.46	-2.58	-1.95	1.04	1.15
Gujarat	-3.56	-3.61	-5.62	-4.80	2.19	2.14
Haryana	-3.30	NA	-6.50	-4.89	3.43	NA
Himachal Pradesh	-3.99	NA	-4.12	-4.05	0.14	NA
Karnataka	-3.04	-3.54	-3.23	-3.48	0.19	-0.32
Kerala	-7.11	NA	-5.53	-6.50	-1.67	NA
Madhya Pradesh	-1.80	-0.87	-1.69	-1.61	-0.11	0.84
Maharashtra	-2.99	-1.97	-3.39	-2.94	0.41	1.47
Orissa	-1.76	-0.83	-2.49	-1.62	0.76	1.71
Punjab	-4.80	NA	-7.74	-5.38	3.19	NA
Rajasthan	-2.69	-4.88	-5.37	-4.61	2.82	0.52
Tamil Nadu	-3.67	NA	-7.45	-4.73	4.09	NA
Uttar Pradesh	-1.47	NA	-2.67	-2.30	1.23	NA
West Bengal	-3.68	-2.45	-3.28	-3.32	-0.41	0.86
<b>India</b>	<b>-2.49</b>	<b>-1.83</b>	<b>-3.17</b>	<b>-2.88</b>	<b>0.70</b>	<b>1.38</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 8.1(a): Percent of Under-nourished Children among Social Groups (State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1992-93				1998-99				1992-93		1998-99	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	51	54	48	49	43	46	35	38	1.06	1.13	1.23	1.31
Assam	55	38	53	50	32	19	42	36	1.04	0.72	0.76	0.45
Bihar	66	62	62	63	59	60	53	54	1.06	1.00	1.11	1.13
Gujarat	59	54	41	50	45	57	41	45	1.44	1.32	1.1	1.39
Haryana	46		35	38	40	NA	33	35	1.31	0.00	1.21	NA
Himachal Pradesh	53	56	44	47	52	NA	41	44	1.20	1.27	1.27	NA
Karnataka	60	67	53	54	53	56	41	44	1.13	1.26	1.29	1.37
Kerala	32	60	28	29	43	43	25	27	1.14	2.14	1.72	1.72
Madhya Pradesh	57	62	56	57	58	65	51	55	1.02	1.11	1.14	1.27
Maharashtra	57	63	51	54	51	65	47	50	1.12	1.24	1.09	1.38
Orissa	61	61	50	53	59	59	51	54	1.22	1.22	1.16	1.16
Punjab	55		42	46	39	NA	23	29	1.31	0.00	1.7	NA
Rajasthan	46	45	39	42	56	59	47	51	1.18	1.15	1.19	1.26
Tamil Nadu	53	53	45	48	48	48	37	37	1.18	1.18	1.30	1.30
Uttar Pradesh	52	40	50	59	60	59	49	52	1.04	0.80	1.22	1.20
West Bengal	61	65	56	57	56	57	45	49	1.09	1.16	1.24	1.27
<b>India</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>1.12</b>	<b>1.10</b>	<b>1.23</b>	<b>1.27</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: National Family and Health Survey, I and II (1992-93 and 1998-99) and IIDS Data Bank.

**Table 8.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in  
Under-nourished Children, 1992/93—1998/99 (State-wise)**

States	Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	-2.41	-2.26	-4.41	-3.57	2.10	2.25
Assam	-7.45	-9.43	-3.27	-4.58	-4.32	-6.37
Bihar	-1.59	-0.47	-2.22	-2.18	0.64	1.79
Gujarat	-3.80	0.78	0.00	-1.49	-3.80	0.78
Haryana	-1.98	NA	-0.84	-1.17	-1.15	NA
Himachal Pradesh	-0.27	NA	-1.00	-0.94	0.74	NA
Karnataka	-1.76	-2.53	-3.60	-2.88	1.91	1.11
Kerala	4.31	-4.65	-1.61	-1.02	6.01	-3.09
Madhya Pradesh	0.25	0.68	-1.33	-0.51	1.60	2.03
Maharashtra	-1.58	0.45	-1.16	-1.09	-0.42	1.63
Orissa	-0.48	-0.48	0.28	0.27	-0.76	-0.76
Punjab	-4.79	NA	-8.24	-6.38	3.76	NA
Rajasthan	2.85	3.95	2.70	2.81	0.14	1.21
Tamil Nadu	-1.41	-1.41	-2.76	-3.65	1.39	1.39
Uttar Pradesh	2.07	5.71	-0.29	-1.79	2.36	6.01
West Bengal	-1.21	-1.86	-3.08	-2.14	1.92	1.26
<b>India</b>	<b>-1.02</b>	<b>-0.25</b>	<b>-2.36</b>	<b>-1.70</b>	<b>1.38</b>	<b>2.16</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank

**Table 9.1(a): Percent of Households without Access to Health Care among Social Groups, 1992/93 & 1998/99 (State-wise)**

States	Levels								Disparity Index			
	1992-93				1998-99				1992-93		1998-99	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**	SC*	ST**
Andhra Pradesh	46.45	46.45	40.05	42.50	34.45	34.45	23.70	27.50	1.16	1.16	1.45	1.45
Assam	66.50	58.60	64.65	66.50	53.80	61.50	57.50	57.50	1.03	0.91	0.94	1.07
Bihar	76.25	76.25	69.35	70.95	56.70	66.40	47.85	51.00	1.10	1.10	1.18	1.39
Gujarat	34.50	34.50	38.30	34.50	33.30	40.05	26.15	30.50	0.90	0.90	1.27	1.53
Haryana	59.10	NA	47.00	50.50	52.50	NA	40.75	44.00	1.26	NA	1.29	NA
Himachal Pradesh	48.80	NA	44.05	47.00	37.80	NA	36.30	42.00	1.11	NA	1.04	NA
Karnataka	46.00	46.00	37.10	38.50	33.90	41.35	25.25	28.50	1.24	1.24	1.34	1.64
Kerala	11.60	66.15	11.60	11.60	4.50	4.5	4.50	4.50	1.00	5.70	1.00	1.00
Madhya Pradesh	64.55	64.55	53.70	59.00	47.80	59.45	41.20	47.00	1.20	1.20	1.16	1.44
Maharashtra	32.00	78.40	29.90	32.00	20.60	38.70	23.20	24.50	1.07	2.62	0.89	1.67
Orissa	61.10	61.10	53.45	57.00	47.15	55.25	37.40	43.00	1.14	1.14	1.26	1.48
Punjab	52.70	NA	44.15	46.50	47.90	NA	36.00	36.00	1.19	NA	1.33	NA
Rajasthan	72.95	56.65	63.85	68.50	53.85	59.35	47.75	50.50	1.14	0.89	1.13	1.24
Tamil Nadu	31.15	31.15	16.90	19.50	15.65	15.65	13.50	13.50	1.84	1.84	1.16	1.16
Uttar Pradesh	74.25	65.90	63.65	65.90	60.30	73.40	54.95	57.50	1.17	1.04	1.10	1.34
West Bengal	52.10	45.00	43.90	45.00	33.10	37.00	37.00	37.00	1.19	1.03	0.89	1.00
<b>India</b>	<b>60.45</b>	<b>76.55</b>	<b>49.10</b>	<b>52.00</b>	<b>44.15</b>	<b>53.55</b>	<b>37.15</b>	<b>40.00</b>	<b>1.23</b>	<b>1.56</b>	<b>1.19</b>	<b>1.44</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: National Family and Health Survey, I and II (1992-93 and 1998-99) and IIDS Data Bank

**Table 9.1(b): Change in Level and Disparity in Access to Health Care, 1992/93—1998/99 (State-wise)**

States	Level				Disparity Index	
	SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All	SC*	ST**
Andhra Praesh	-4.18	-4.18	-7.22	-6.03	3.28	3.28
Assam	-2.98	0.69	-1.66	-2.06	-1.34	2.39
Bihar	-4.14	-1.96	-5.16	-4.61	1.08	3.38
Gujarat	-0.50	2.15	-5.31	-1.75	5.07	7.88
Haryana	-1.68	NA	-2.02	-1.95	0.35	NA
Himachal Pradesh	-3.58	NA	-2.73	-1.59	-0.88	NA
Karnataka	-4.27	-1.51	-5.35	-4.21	1.14	4.05
Kerala	-12.65	-31.89	-12.65	-12.65	0.00	-22.02
Madhya Pradesh	-4.20	-1.17	-3.71	-3.20	-0.51	2.64
Maharashtra	-6.10	-9.59	-3.56	-3.74	-2.63	-6.26
Orissa	-3.63	-1.43	-4.97	-3.95	1.41	3.73
Punjab	-1.36	NA	-2.87	-3.59	1.56	NA
Rajasthan	-4.24	0.67	-4.07	-4.26	-0.19	4.93
Tamil Nadu	-9.37	-9.37	-3.16	-5.12	-6.41	-6.41
Uttar Pradesh	-2.93	1.55	-2.08	-1.93	-0.87	3.71
West Bengal	-6.27	-2.76	-2.41	-2.76	-3.96	-0.35
<b>India</b>	<b>-4.39</b>	<b>-4.98</b>	<b>-3.91</b>	<b>-3.68</b>	<b>-0.50</b>	<b>-1.11</b>

$$SC^* = \frac{SC}{Non-SC/ST} \quad ST^{**} = \frac{ST}{Non-SC/ST}$$

Sources: IIDS Data Bank



**Table 10: Factors Governing HDI -1999/2000: Situation in Low and High HDI States**

Variables			Average of Three LOW HDI States*	Average of Three HIGH HDI States*
<b>Capital Assets</b>				
Aggregate Capital Assets	Ownership of Capital Assets -1991 (Rs. Per Household)		70,189	88,291
Access to Land	Percentage of Landless		5.92	7.90
	Percentage of Landless + Near Landless (Less than 1 acre)		57.79	64.07
	Percentage of Cultivators (Census)		43.81	40.31
	Percentage of Self-employed in Agriculture		32.40	27.79
Access to Non-Land Assets	Percentage of Self-employed in Non-agriculture (Rural)		10.15	9.14
	Percentage of Self-employed (Urban)		29.56	23.53
<b>Occupation Diversification</b>	Percentage of Urban population		12.22	19.24
	Percentage of Non-agriculture Workers (Census)		22.24	28.11
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture Workers (NSS)		27.82	36.31
	Percentage of Other Workers (Rural) (NSS)		11.91	14.12
	Percentage of Regular Salaried (Urban)		35.17	42.35
<b>Employment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	52.09 21.45	52.77 30.15
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	52.79 28.65	54.65 39.05
	Current Weekly Status	M F	50.67 23.71	51.82 33.37
	Current Daily Status	M F	46.40 16.69	47.23 26.52
<b>Employment Rate (Urban)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	46.12 22.89	52.30 17.33
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	46.61 15.72	53.04 21.63
	Current Weekly Status	M F	44.95 13.47	51.10 19.81
	Current Daily Status	M F	43.22 11.58	48.04 16.31
<b>Unemployment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	1.06 0.18	2.06 1.33
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	0.93 0.18	1.58 1.10

Variables			Average of Three LOW HDI States*	Average of Three HIGH HDI States*
	Current Weekly Status	M	1.98	2.83
		F	0.63	1.82
	Current Daily Status	M	3.56	5.19
		F	0.95	2.75
<b>Unemployment Rate (Urban)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M	2.97	2.46
		F	0.51	1.20
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M	2.88	2.90
		F	0.51	2.81
	Current Weekly Status	M	3.37	4.27
		F	0.69	2.06
	Current Daily Status	M	4.23	5.87
		F	0.77	10.50
<b>Dependent on Wage Labour and Wage Earnings</b>	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (Census)		27.94	17.06
	Percentage of Rural Wage Labour (RLE)		45.14	47.82
	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (RLE)		42.48	32.36
	Percentage of Non-Agricultural Labour (RLE)		16.28	24.12
	Percentage of Casual Labour (Urban)		22.48	21.23
<b>Wages</b>	Agriculture	M	32.33	49.12
		F	27.23	35.93
	Non-Agriculture	M	43.04	70.73
		F	31.13	43.21
<b>Education Level (Rural)</b>	Literacy Rate	M	51.11	66.41
		F	22.30	51.83
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M	22.91	38.41
		F	12.95	29.99
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M	21.63	37.29
		F	10.68	24.50
	Percentage Graduate and above	M	2.82	2.73
		F	0.48	1.44
<b>Education Level (Urban)</b>	Literacy Rate	M	71.79	86.73
		F	46.13	73.45
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M	34.38	41.37
		F	33.84	31.95
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M	34.98	44.16
		F	35.88	35.07
	Percentage Graduate and above	M	13.60	8.36
		F	5.79	5.08

Notes: HDI=Human Development Index

\*Low HDI States: Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa \*High HDI States: Kerala, Himachal Pradesh and Maharashtra

RLE: Rural Labour Enquiry Report

Sources: *Debt and Indebtedness Survey (1991)*, NSSO; *CD on Primary Census Abstract of India, Census of India; Various Reports on Rural Labour Enquiry*, NSSO; *Various reports of employment and unemployment situation in India among social groups*, NSSO

**Table 11: Situation with Respect to Factors Affecting Human Development - All India 1999/2000**

Variables			SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
<b>Capital Assets</b>						
Aggregate Capital Assets	Ownership of Capital Assets –1991 (Rs. Per Household)		49,189	52,660	134,500	78,783
Access to Land	Percentage of Landless		10	7.2	6.2	7.80
	Percentage of Landless + Near Landless (Less than 1 acre)		75	46.3	54.3	58.53
	Percentage of Cultivator (Census)		26.78	54.32	46.9	42.67
	Percentage of Self-employed in Agriculture		16.4	36.2	37.9	30.17
Access to Non-land Assets	Percentage of Self-employed in Non-Agriculture (Rural)		12	5.2	15.2	10.80
	Percentage of Self-employed (Urban)		27.3	21.6	36.55	28.48
<b>Occupation Diversification</b>	Percentage of Urban population		20.18	8.29	31.57	20.01
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture Workers (Census)		27.07	15.8	32.15	25.01
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture Workers (NSS)		32.2	24.2	37.95	31.45
	Percentage of Other Workers (Rural) (NSS)		10.2	10.1	15.7	12.00
	Percentage of Regular Salaried (Urban)		37.6	38	41.4	39.00
	Usual Principal Status	M F	52.4 25.2	55.3 37.7	51.6 19.6	53.10 27.50
<b>Employment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	53.1 32.5	55.8 43.8	52.6 26.3	53.83 34.20
	Current Weekly Status	M F	50.5 27	53.9 38.1	50.8 22.3	51.73 29.13
	Current Daily Status	M F	46.2 21.2	50.5 32.2	48 18	48.23 23.80
	Usual Principal Status	M F	49.8 15.2	47.4 18.3	52 11.3	49.73 14.93
<b>Employment Rate (Urban)</b>	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	50.3 18.5	48 20.4	52.4 13.4	50.23 17.43
	Current Weekly Status	M F	48.6 16.7	47.5 19	52 12.3	49.37 16.00
	Current Daily Status	M F	45.8 14	45.1 16.6	49.7 10.8	46.87 13.80
	Usual Principal Status	M F	1.2 0.3	0.7 0.2	1.2 0.4	1.03 0.30
<b>Unemployment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal excluding Subsidiary Status	M F	1 0.2	0.6 0.2	1 0.4	0.87 0.27
	Current Weekly Status	M F	2.5 1	1.5 0.8	2.1 1	2.03 0.93
	Current Daily Status	M F	5 2.1	3 1.5	3.4 1.4	3.80 1.67

Variables			SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
<b>Unemployment Rate (Urban)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	2.8 0.6	2.3 0.6	2.5 1	2.53 0.73
	Usual Principal excluding Subsidiary Status	M F	2.7 0.6	2.2 0.6	2.4 0.9	2.43 0.70
	Current Weekly Status	M F	3.7 0.7	2.7 0.9	2.9 1.1	3.10 0.90
	Current Daily Status	M F	5.2 1.2	3.7 1.1	3.8 1.2	4.23 1.17
<b>Dependent on Wages Labour and Wage Earnings</b>	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (Census)		51.4	39.7	24.1	38.40
	Percentage of Rural (Wage) Labour (RLE)		61.4	48.6	31.2	47.07
	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (RLE)		51.4	39.7	24.1	38.40
	Percentage of Non-Agricultural Labour (RLE)		10.2	10.1	15.7	12.00
	Percentage of Casual Labour (Urban)		26.5	25.6	12.4	21.50
<b>Wages</b>	Agriculture	M F	41.89 29.6	33.2 26.4	40.6 28.6	38.56 28.20
	Non-Agriculture	M F	61.06 36.82	54.38 34.5	64.9 56.1	60.11 42.47
<b>Education Level (Rural)</b>	Literacy Rate	M F	52.5 24.5	47.7 22.9	69.3 40.95	56.50 29.45
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M F	27.1 13.6	23.8 11.7	33.45 21.65	28.12 15.65
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M F	22.1 9.5	18.9 7.8	32.4 17.75	24.47 11.68
	Percentage Graduate and above	M F	2 0.4	1.5 0.3	4.15 1.2	2.55 0.63
<b>Education Level (Urban)</b>	Literacy Rate	M F	73.7 47.9	76.7 54.5	86.6 70.05	79.00 57.48
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M F	35.4 24.6	29.9 22.9	30.85 27.7	32.05 25.07
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M F	35.1 21.8	36.1 26	39 30.75	36.73 26.18
	Percentage Graduate and above	M F	6.3 2.7	11.3 6.4	15.75 10.1	11.12 6.40
<b>Percentage of SC/ST Teachers (Rural + Urban)</b>			8.99	5.74	25.78	13.50
<b>Percentage of SC, ST Habitation with School (Rural + Urban)</b>			64.27	NA	NA	NA

Notes: SC= Scheduled Caste ; ST = Scheduled Tribe

**Table 12(a): Factors Affecting HDI - Low HDI States, 1999/2000:  
(Average of Three Low HDI States\*)**

Variables			SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
<b>Capital Assets</b>						
Aggregate Capital Assets	Ownership of Capital Assets -1991 (Rs. Per Household)		41,771	52,543	1,16,254	70,189
Access to Land	Percentage of Landless		10.17	3.17	4.42	5.92
	Percentage of Landless + Near Landless (Less than 1 acre)		77.07	41.23	55.08	57.79
Access to Non Land Assets	Percentage of Cultivators (Census)		27.26	57.33	46.83	43.81
	Percentage of Self-employed in Agriculture		16.87	38.87	41.45	32.40
	Percentage of Self-employed in Non-Agriculture (Rural)		13.2	3.27	13.98	10.15
<b>Occupation Diversification</b>	Percentage of Self-employed (Urban)		32	15.6	41.08	29.56
	Percentage of Urban Population		11.05	6.51	19.1	12.22
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture Workers (Census)		24.73	14.32	27.67	22.24
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture Workers (NSS)		30.77	17.27	35.42	27.82
	Percentage of Other Worker (Rural) (NSS)		10.2	7.87	17.65	11.91
	Percentage of Regular Salaried (Urban)		32.77	37.23	35.5	35.17
<b>Employment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	50.63 19.27	57.13 34.87	48.5 10.2	52.09 21.45
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	51.53 28.13	57.33 41.53	49.5 16.3	52.79 28.65
	Current Weekly Status	M F	49.17 22.4	54.83 35.43	48 13.3	50.67 23.71
	Current Daily Status	M F	45.37 17.13	48.33 22.73	45.5 10.2	46.40 16.69
<b>Employment Rate (Urban)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	50 46.07	42.47 16.6	45.9 6	46.12 22.89
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	50.33 19.97	43.2 19	46.3 8.2	46.61 15.72
	Current Weekly Status	M F	47.87 17.07	41.37 16.13	45.6 7.2	44.95 13.47
	Current Daily Status	M F	45.53 13.73	39.43 14.7	44.7 6.3	43.22 11.58
<b>Unemployment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M F	0.93 0.13	0.77 0.13	1.47 0.27	1.06 0.18
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M F	0.87 0.13	0.63 0.13	1.3 0.27	0.93 0.18
	Current Weekly Status	M F	1.87 0.5	2.13 0.8	1.95 0.58	1.98 0.63
	Current Daily Status	M F	3.97 1.23	3.6 1.03	3.1 0.6	3.56 0.95

Variables			SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
Unemployment Rate (Urban)	Usual Principal Status	M	2.2	3.43	3.27	2.97
		F	0.23	0.73	0.57	0.51
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M	2.17	3.3	3.18	2.88
		F	0.23	0.73	0.57	0.51
	Current Weekly Status	M	3.13	3.5	3.47	3.37
		F	0.43	0.87	0.78	0.69
	Current Daily Status	M	4.27	4.5	3.92	4.23
		F	0.63	0.9	0.77	0.77
Dependent on Wages Labour and Wage Earnings	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (Census)		48.01	28.35	26.67	27.94
	Percentage of Rural Wage Labour (RLE)		59.60	49.00	26.83	45.14
	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (RLE)		52.23	42.87	32.34	42.48
	Percentage of Non-Agricultural Labour (RLE)		30.77	14.32	3.75	16.28
	Percentage of Casual Labour (Urban)		28	30.3	9.15	22.48
Wages	Agriculture	M	33.32	29.64	34.03	32.33
		F	27.71	26.53	27.44	27.23
	Non-Agriculture	M	45.54	38.15	45.44	43.04
		F	33.43	28.1	31.87	31.13
Education Level (Rural)	Literacy Rate	M	44.87	41.1	67.35	51.11
		F	14.53	16.1	36.27	22.30
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M	20.83	19.5	28.39	22.91
		F	7.23	14.93	16.68	12.95
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M	18.97	14.9	31.03	21.63
		F	5.57	11.3	15.17	10.68
	Percentage Graduate and above	M	2.07	1.2	5.18	2.82
		F	0.3	0.1	1.05	0.48
Education Level (Urban)	Literacy Rate	M	61.17	71.57	82.62	71.79
		F	33	43.23	62.15	46.13
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M	41.23	28.1	33.82	34.38
		F	33.9	26.23	41.38	33.84
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M	34.73	34.83	35.38	34.98
		F	34.13	27.37	46.15	35.88
	Percentage Graduate and above	M	10.8	10.33	19.67	13.60
		F	2.57	5.13	9.67	5.79

Notes: SC= Scheduled Caste ; ST= Scheduled Tribe; HDI=Human Development Index

\*For SC: Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa. For ST: Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh

RLE: Rural Labour Enquiry Report

Sources: Debt and Indebtedness Survey (1991), NSSO; CD on Primary Census Abstract of India, Census of India; Various Reports on Rural Labour Enquiry, NSSO; Various reports of employment and unemployment situation in India among social groups, NSSO;



**Table 12(b): Factors Affecting HDI - High HDI States, 1999/2000:  
(Average of Three High HDI States\*)**

Variables			SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
<b>Capital Assets</b>						
Aggregate Capital Assets	Ownership of Capital Assets -1991 (Rs. Per Household)		56,045	54,638	154,190	88,291
Access to Land	Percentage of Landless		7.27	10.4	6.03	7.90
	Percentage of Landless + Near Landless (Less than 1 acre)		78.2	48.9	65.1	64.07
	Percentage of Cultivator (Census)		28.21	52.2	40.51	40.31
	Percentage of Self-employed in Agriculture		15.23	37.8	30.35	27.79
Access to Non-Land Assets	Percentage of Self-employed in Non-Agriculture (Rural)		9.03	5.1	13.3	9.14
	Percentage of Self-employed (Urban)		20.47	19.5	30.62	23.53
<b>Occupation Diversification</b>	Percentage of Urban population		21.06	8.5	28.16	19.24
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture workers (Census)		40.05	16.6	27.69	28.11
	Percentage of Non-Agriculture Workers (NSS)		42.57	25.1	41.27	36.31
	Percentage of Other Workers (Rural) (NSS)		12.83	11	18.52	14.12
	Percentage of Regular Salaried (Urban)		45.07	42.2	39.78	42.35
<b>Employment Rate (Rural)</b>	Usual Principal Status	M	52.77	53.93	51.6	52.77
		F	31.23	31.03	28.2	30.15
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M	54.43	55.33	54.2	54.65
		F	40.33	38.93	37.9	39.05
	Current Weekly Status	M	50.67	53.7	51.1	51.82
		F	34.57	32.73	32.8	33.37
<b>Employment Rate (Urban)</b>	Current Daily Status	M	44.73	49.67	47.3	47.23
		F	26.63	26.53	26.4	26.52
	Usual Principal Status	M	52.47	51.93	52.5	52.30
		F	17.9	20.8	13.3	17.33
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M	53.2	52.33	53.6	53.04
		F	20.2	27	17.7	21.63
	Current Weekly Status	M	49.5	51.7	52.1	51.10
		F	18.13	26	15.3	19.81
<b>Unemployment Rate (Rural)</b>	Current Daily Status	M	45.9	48.73	49.5	48.04
		F	15.83	20.4	12.7	16.31
	Usual Principal Status	M	2.4	1.17	2.62	2.06
		F	1.77	0.33	1.88	1.33
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M	2	0.73	2	1.58
		F	1.6	0.17	1.53	1.10

Variables			SC	ST	Non-SC/ST	All
	Current Weekly Status	M	3.93	1.53	3.03	2.83
		F	2.87	0.67	1.92	1.82
	Current Daily Status	M	7.33	3.2	5.03	5.19
		F	4.4	1.5	2.35	2.75
Unemployment Rate (Urban)	Usual Principal Status	M	2.37	1.8	3.22	2.46
		F	0.67	0.3	2.63	1.20
	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status	M	3.97	1.8	2.92	2.90
		F	3.17	3	2.25	2.81
	Current Weekly Status	M	6.67	2.33	3.82	4.27
		F	3.03	0.47	2.67	2.06
	Current Daily Status	M	8.77	3.83	5.02	5.87
		F	3.7	0.8	27	10.50
Dependent on Wages Labour and Wage Earnings	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (Census)		31.74	39.29	12	17.06
	Percentage of Rural Wage Labour (RLE)		62.83	46.20	34.47	47.82
	Percentage of Agricultural Labour (RLE)		42.13	37.07	17.88	32.36
	Percentage of Non-Agricultural Labour (RLE)		42.57	16.56	13.24	24.12
	Percentage of Casual Labour (Urban)		26.5	22.77	14.43	21.23
Wages	Agriculture	M	63.92	37.52	45.91	49.12
		F	41.99	29.38	36.41	35.93
	Non-Agriculture	M	82.98	61.51	67.71	70.73
		F	56.89	28.83	43.91	43.21
Education Level (Rural)	Literacy Rate	M	77.07	60.83	61.32	66.41
		F	52.63	36.5	66.35	51.83
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M	41.5	32.57	41.17	38.41
		F	31.8	22.23	35.93	29.99
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M	38.2	28.03	45.63	37.29
		F	25.17	15.17	33.17	24.50
Education Level (Urban)	Percentage Graduate and above	M	2.07	1.8	4.32	2.73
		F	0.77	1.13	2.43	1.44
	Literacy Rate	M	86.23	82.07	91.9	86.73
		F	71.13	67.73	81.48	73.45
	Percentage in Primary/Middle School	M	45.9	40.27	37.95	41.37
		F	33.27	29.8	32.77	31.95
	Percentage in High School and Higher Secondary School	M	38.33	47.13	47.02	44.16
		F	30.1	35.2	39.9	35.07
	Percentage Graduate and above	M	3.9	9.43	11.75	8.36
		F	2.73	5.47	7.03	5.08

Notes: SC= Scheduled Caste ; ST= Scheduled Tribe; HDI=Human Development Index

\*For SC: Kerala, Himachal Pradesh and Maharashtra; For ST: Assam, Gujarat and Maharashtra

RLE: Rural Labour Enquiry Report

Sources: *Debt and Indebtedness Survey (1991)*, NSSO; *CD on Primary Census Abstract of India, Census of India*; *Various Reports on Rural Labour Enquiry*, NSSO; *Various reports of employment and un-employment situation in India among social Groups*, NSSO;

**Table 13(a): Incidence of Crime against Scheduled Castes, 1999—2001**

States	Incidence of Total Crime				Percent of crime to All-India	Rate per lakh	Rank
	1999	2000	2001	Average of 3 years			
Andhra Pradesh	1749	1582	2933	2088	7.5	2.8	6
Assam	7	11	6	8	0.0	0.0	15
Bihar	820	741	1303	955	3.4	1.2	11
Gujarat	1781	1332	1242	1452	5.2	2.9	5
Harayana	121	117	229	156	0.6	0.7	12
Himachal Pradesh	54	52	110	72	0.3	1.2	10
Karnataka	1277	1329	1621	1409	5.0	2.7	7
Kerala	514	467	499	493	1.8	1.5	9
Madhya Pradesh	4667	4631	4212	4503	16.1	7.5	2
Maharashtra	605	489	625	573	2.0	0.6	13
Orissa	772	793	1734	1100	3.9	3.0	4
Punjab	39	34	134	69	0.2	0.3	14
Rajasthan	5623	5190	4892	5235	18.7	9.3	1
Tamil Nadu	883	1296	2336	1505	5.4	2.4	8
Uttar Pradesh	6122	7330	10732	8061	28.8	4.9	3
West Bengal	0	0	10	3	0.0	0.0	16
<b>All India</b>	<b>25093</b>	<b>25455</b>	<b>33501</b>	<b>28016</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2.7</b>	

Note: Figures are number of cases registered under Protection of Civil Rights Act, 1955 and Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989

Source: *Crime in India 1999-2001*, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs.

**Table 13. (b): State-wise Incidence of Crime against Scheduled Castes in India, 2001**

State/UT	Murder	Rape	Kidnap & Abd.	Dacoity	Robb- ery	Arson	Hurt	PCR Act	POA Act	Other Offences	Total
Andhra Pradesh	45	69	22	3	2	6	518	312	950	1006	2933
Assam	0	0	0	0	1	1	4	0	0	0	6
Bihar	28	35	8	2	1	17	378	81	513	240	1303
Gujarat	17	15	20	8	17	9	284	16	356	500	1242
Haryana	7	25	15	0	0	5	76	1	33	67	229
Himachal Pradesh	1	7	0	0	0	0	1	4	41	56	110
Karnataka	22	20	1	1	3	0	181	94	983	316	1621
Kerala	5	75	0	0	0	2	169	0	121	127	499
Madhya Pradesh	72	305	31	1	9	50	663	1	435	2645	4212
Maharashtra	14	51	5	4	3	5	48	61	146	288	625
Orissa	9	44	7	0	4	13	380	12	645	620	1734
Punjab	5	10	4	0	0	0	14	1	49	51	134
Rajasthan	51	151	35	0	5	47	419	0	2965	1219	4892
Tamil Nadu	38	27	16	5	1	18	422	22	682	1105	2336
Uttar Pradesh	423	412	219	16	83	178	821	12	4885	3683	10732
West Bengal	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	1	10
<b>All India</b>	<b>763</b>	<b>1316</b>	<b>400</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>133</b>	<b>354</b>	<b>4547</b>	<b>633</b>	<b>13113</b>	<b>12201</b>	<b>33501</b>

Note: Figures are number of cases registered under Protection of Civil Rights Act, 1955 and Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989

Source: *Crime in India 2001*, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs

**Table 13(c): State-wise Incidence of Crime against  
Scheduled Tribes in India, 1999—2001**

States	Incidence of Total Crime				Percent of crime to All-India	Rate per lakh	Rank
	1999	2000	2001	Average of 3 years			
Andhra Pradesh	178	202	512	297	6.0	0.4	6
Assam	2	0	0	1	0.0	0.0	15
Bihar	67	61	47	58	1.2	0.1	11
Gujarat	367	315	309	330	6.7	0.7	5
Haryana	0	0	0	0	0.0	0.0	12
Himachal Pradesh	19	11	4	11	0.2	0.2	10
Karnataka	60	64	276	133	2.7	0.3	7
Kerala	81	63	83	76	1.5	0.2	9
Madhya Pradesh	1756	1845	1535	1712	34.6	2.8	2
Maharashtra	171	142	238	184	3.7	0.2	13
Orissa	335	228	734	432	8.7	1.2	4
Punjab	5	6	0	4	0.1	0.0	14
Rajasthan	1221	1130	1023	1125	22.7	2.0	1
Tamil Nadu	105	9	9	41	0.8	0.1	8
Uttar Pradesh	58	78	254	130	2.6	0.1	3
West Bengal	0	0	2	1	0.0	0.0	16
<b>All India</b>	<b>4450</b>	<b>4190</b>	<b>6217</b>	<b>4952</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>0.5</b>	

Note: Figures are number of cases registered under Protection of Civil Rights Act, 1955 and Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989

Source: *Crime in India 1999-2001*, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs

**Table 13(d) State-wise Incidence of Civil Rights Violations, Atrocities and Other Crimes against Scheduled Tribes in India, 2001**

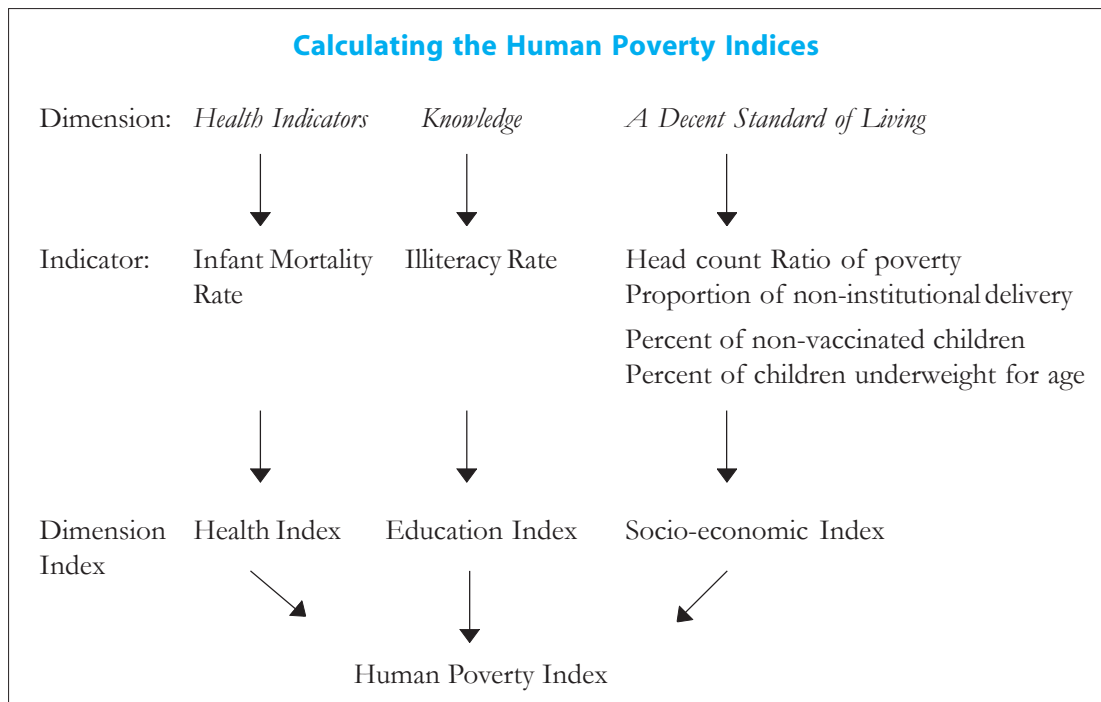
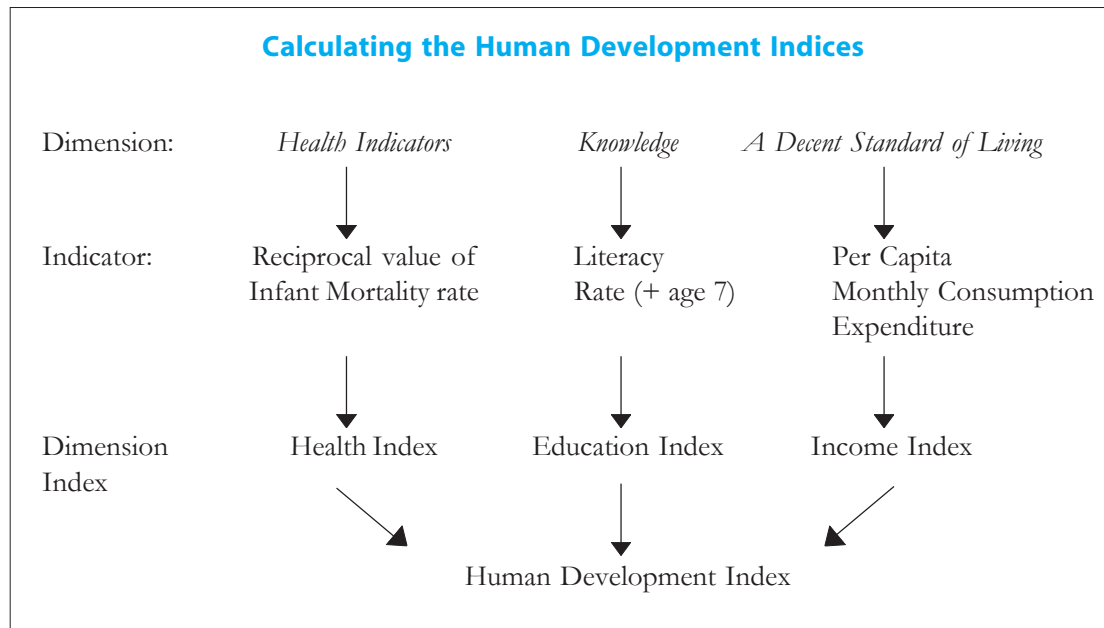
State/UT	Murder	Rape	Kidnap & Abd.	Dacoity	Robb- ery	Arson	Hurt	PCR Act	POA Act	Other Offen- ces	Total
Andhra Pradesh	4	21	5	0	0	1	106	26	129	220	512
Assam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bihar	1	4	1	0	0	0	5	8	10	18	47
Gujarat	7	23	6	12	33	5	47	3	90	83	309
Haryana	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Himachal Pradesh	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4
Karnataka	1	2	0	0	0	1	21	13	204	34	276
Kerala	4	23	0	0	0	0	20	0	14	22	83
Madhya Pradesh	28	238	14	0	3	7	195	2	243	805	1535
Maharashtra	6	60	4	0	0	3	14	0	41	110	238
Orissa	4	28	6	0	2	4	124	4	153	409	734
Punjab	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rajasthan	14	45	7	0	0	14	88	0	665	190	1023
Tamil Nadu	0	2	0	0	0	3	2	0	2	0	9
Uttar Pradesh	3	3	0	0	0	3	2	0	75	168	254
West Bengal	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
All India	167	573	67	16	73	108	756	58	1667	2732	6217

Note: Figures are number of cases registered under Protection of Civil Rights Act, 1955 and Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989.

Source: *Crime in India 2001*, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, GOI. New Delhi.



## TECHNICAL NOTE (I)



### Calculating the Social Justice Index

For the composite index of “Social Justice”, we use incidence of total crime (ITC) which includes murder, rape, kidnap and abuse, dacoity, arson, hurt, Prevention of civil Rights ACT, 1976 (PCR Act), Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Prevention of Atrocity (POA) Act and other offences. The State-wise data on total crime have been used for three years i.e. 1999, 2000 and 2001. To reduce the fluctuation of the data we have calculated the three year average and further divided it with the latest year population (2001) to get an annual average of atrocities and crime recorded against the vulnerable groups.

It is evident that the SCs and the STs have been facing continuous exclusion and discrimination historically in both economic and social spheres. The violence is a method of preventing them from getting into the mainstream. The Social Justice Index indirectly tries to capture the issue of restricted freedom and opportunities these marginalized groups are facing by virtue of the inhuman crimes against them. For the construction of this index we have used the limited available data as mentioned previously. Even if it is not possible to estimate the wider issue of social justice through these variables alone, it can throw some light on the restriction on the freedom and opportunity of marginalised groups.

$$\text{Social Justice Index} = \frac{\sum_{i=1999}^{2001} ITC_i}{3}$$

Here, ITC is ‘Incidence of Total Crime’, and ‘i’ is the time period we have taken (1999, 2000 and 2001). In other words it is a simple un-weighted average of three years incidence of total crime.

## The Human Development Index (HDI)

Human Development Index is a quantitative measure of the achievement level of human well-being. It generally covers three basic aspects of human subsistence

- (1) Health,
- (2) Knowledge/education and
- (3) A decent standard of living.

To calculate HD Index, a separate index needed to be calculated for each dimension like Health, Knowledge and Decent standard of living. To calculate these dimension indices, minimum and maximum values are chosen for each indicator separately. The formula used for the calculation of these indices is

Dimension index=

$$\frac{(\text{Actual Value} - \text{Minimum value})}{(\text{Maximum Value} - \text{Minimum value})}$$

Here the performance is expressed as a value between 0 and 1 by applying the above formula. The HDI is then calculated as a simple average of the dimension indices. To construct composite indices for different social groups e.g. Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other communities separately, the formula can be: the HDI value of the jth group (I<sub>j</sub>) for the ith variable is defined as the average of these variables.

$$I_j = \sum I_{ij} / 3 \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

j = SC, ST and Others

Therefore, the HDI value e.g. for SC = (health index value + education index value + consumption index value)/3.

### Scaling Norm for HDI

Indicators	Minimum	Maximum
Infant Mortality Rate	20 per 1000	---
Literacy rate for 7 + years	0	100
Average Consumption Expenditure (per capita per month)	Rs. 125	Rs. 1500

## Steps to Calculate the HDI

### (A) Calculating the Health Index

The health index of a group of Individuals measures the relative achievement in health status of that group vis-à-vis other groups and across states. The variable we have chosen here to measure the health achievement is 'Infant Mortality Rate'. As the chosen variable reflects the deprivation aspect of the situation, to measure the achievement aspect we have used the reciprocal value of this variable (This is because of the unavailability of the other reliable health variable across social groups to measure the achievement aspect of the Health Index).

#### (A.1) Calculating the reciprocal value of Infant Mortality Rate

Identify the lowest value of the domain (here in this case lowest 'Infant Mortality Rate' in the caste state matrix). Then divide each value (of infant mortality rate) with that 'lowest single value' - the lowest value of the domain. The values in different shells of the new matrix will be the reciprocal figure of the respective shell of the original matrix.

$$\text{Reciprocal Health Index (Infant Mortality Index)} = \frac{\text{Lowest Single value}}{\text{Original respective value}}$$

In this way we will get values for all the states across all social groups. From these Reciprocal values the real reciprocal health index can be calculated using formula:

Reciprocal Health Index (Reciprocal Infant Mortality Index)=

$$\frac{\text{Actual Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}{\text{Maximum Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}$$

### (B) Calculating the Education Index

In UNDP reports Education Index is calculated with the help of two variables-Adult literacy rate and Gross enrolment rate with 2/3 and 1/3 weight respectively. In the present report, The Education Index measures the relative achievement in literacy level alone by so-

cial groups across states as because we realise that the available enrolment data across social group is misleading.

Education Index =

$$\frac{\text{Actual Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}{\text{Maximum Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}$$

### (C) Calculating MPCE Index

In the present report instead of GDP/GSDP (Gross Domestic Product per capita as taken by UNDP reports), Average Monthly Per Capita Consumption Expenditure (at 1993 prices) is used for calculation of HDI. It captures the relative achievement of opportunities/capabilities in terms of purchasing power in their hand. The MPCE index can be calculated as follows:

MPCE Index =

$$\frac{\text{Actual Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}{\text{Maximum Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}$$

### (D) Calculating the HDI

The HDI value can be obtained by a simple average of the above individual dimension indices.

(Reciprocal Health Index +

$$\text{HDI} = \frac{\text{Education Index} + \text{MPCE Index}}{3}$$

### Calculating HPI

While HDI measures average *achievement*, the HPI measures *deprivations* in the three basic dimensions as in HDI. Calculating the HPI is more straightforward than calculating the HDI. The indicators used to measure

the deprivations are already normalised between 0 and 100 (because they are expressed as percentages), so there is no need to create dimension indices as for the HDI. Infant mortality rate, illiteracy rate, poverty (head count ratio), lack of access to health care and under-nutrition are the key indicators which have been used to estimate the human poverty index.

The formula for calculating the HPI is as follows:

$$\text{Where: HPI} = \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} (P_1^\alpha + P_2^\alpha + P_3^\alpha + P_4^\alpha) \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}$$

$P_1$  = infant mortality rate in percent

$P_2$  = illiteracy rate (for age 7 years and above population) and

$P_3$  = Head count Ratio of poverty

$P_4$  = composite indicator on health related variables (This is an un-weighted average of  $P_{41}$  and  $P_{42}$ ) where

$P_{41}$  = Percentage of households not having access to public health facilities (this is an un-weighted average of percent of non-vaccinated children and percent of non institutional deliveries

$P_{42}$  = Percentage of children underweight for age.

### Why $\mu = 4$ in calculating the HPI

The value of  $\infty$  has an important impact on the value of the HPI. If  $\infty=1$ , the HPI is the average of its dimensions. As  $\infty$  rises, greater weight is given to the dimension in which there is the most deprivation. Thus as  $\infty$  increases towards infinity, the HPI will tend towards the value of the dimension in which deprivation is greatest.

## TECHNICAL NOTE (II)

For the composite index of human development, we use infant mortality rate (reciprocal value has been used to get the achievement value), literacy rate and average monthly per capita expenditure (at 1993-94 prices). The infant mortality indicators have been developed from two sets of sources, namely Mortality Differentials in India, Vital Statistics for the early 1980s and the National Family Health Survey I and II for the early 1990s and for recent period, i.e. 1999-2000. In the case of literacy rate, population census has been used for all the three time periods. The literacy rate is measured as the proportion of literate population in the age group of 7 years and above to the total population of the same age group for 1991 and 2001, whereas for 1981, the literacy rate is for the population aged of 5 years and above. The third indicator used for the composite index is average monthly per capita expenditure (at 1993-94 prices). This has been drawn from the unit level data on consumption expenditure survey obtained from the National Sample Survey for 1983 and 1999-2000. Deprivation indicators (a detailed list is given on p. 96) have been used to estimate the HPI. The IMR has been used to capture the deprivation in the health dimension, illiteracy rate to capture educational deprivation and proportion of people living below the poverty line to capture economic deprivation. Other di-

mensions of human poverty include lack of access to public provisions viz. health and nutrition, proportion of non-institutional deliveries, proportion of non-vaccinated children and proportion of children who are underweight for age. These indicators are derived from the National Family Health Survey I and II.

The data on other human development related indicators such as access to land and capital, status of employment and unemployment, wage earnings and human rights violations are collected from various sources. These include population census, NSS employment surveys, NSS decennial land holding surveys, NSS consumption expenditure surveys, Rural Labour Enquiry Reports, and Reports on Crime in India, National Commission for SC/ST and National Human Rights Commission Report. In the case of non-SC/ST groups, some variables like employment/unemployment rate, percentage of self-employed in agriculture and self-employed in non-agriculture, variables related to ownership of land are given separately for non-SC/ST (designated as Others in NSS terminology). For other variables like urban population, non-farm and farm worker, cultivator, literate and those under different level of education are not given separately for non-SC/ST and hence had to be worked out by deducting the number of SC/STs from general figures to arrive at non-SC/ST category. In the case of some variables, this

method could not be used as the data is available in ratio form (and not in absolute numbers). Hence we had no choice but to use them in their general form for non-SC/ST. These variables however are only few in number and relate to farm and non farm wages in rural areas, rural wage labour and agricultural wage labour.



	Indian Institute of Dalit Studies	UNDP Reports (This data is from 2004 Report)
<b>Human Development Index</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Reciprocal value of Infant Mortality Rate</li> <li>2. Literacy Rate (Age 7+)</li> <li>3. Average Monthly Per Capita Expenditure</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Life expectancy at birth</li> <li>2. Adult Literacy Rate and Gross Enrolment Rate</li> <li>3. GDP Per Capita</li> </ol>
<b>Human Poverty Index</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Infant Mortality Rate</li> <li>2. Illiteracy Rate</li> <li>3. Head count Ratio of poverty</li> <li>4. Percentage of non-institutional deliveries</li> <li>5. Percentage of non-vaccinated children</li> <li>6. Percentage of children underweight for age</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Probability at birth of not surviving to age 40</li> <li>2. Adult Illiteracy Rate</li> <li>3. Un-weighted average of population without sustainable access to an improved water source and children underweight for age</li> </ol>

## Data Sources

Main Index	Time Period	Minor Index	Variable Used	Universe	Time Period	Sources
HDI	1980s and 2000s	(1) Health Index (2) Education Index (3) Income Index	Infant Mortality rate (Reciprocal Value)  Literacy Rate (+age 7)  Average Monthly Per Capita Consumption Expenditure	SCs, STs, non-SC/STs, All Groups  -For SCs calculated for 16 major States and all India level  -For STs calculated for 13 major States and all India level  -For non-SCs/STs and All Groups calculated for 16 major States and all India level	1984,1992-93 and 1998-99  1981 and 2001  1983 and 1999-2000	Vital Statistics and NFHS  Census of India NSSO
HPI	1990s and 2000s	(1) Health Index (2) Education Index (3) Socio-Economic Index	Infant Mortality rate (Reciprocal value)  Illiteracy Rate (age 7+)  Head Count ratio of Poverty  Percentage of not vaccinated children  Percentage of non institutional delivery  Percentage of children underweight for age	SCs, STs, non-SC/STs, All Groups  -For SCs calculated for 16 major States and all India level  -For STs calculated for 13 major States and all India level  -For non-SCs/STs and All Groups calculated for 16 major States and all India level	1984,1992-93 and 1998-99  1991 and 2001  1993-94 and 1999-2000  1992-93 and 1998-99  1992-93 and 1998-99  1992-93 and 1998-99	NSSO Vital Statistics and NFHS Census of India NSSO NFHS NFHS NFHS
Social Justice Index	2000		Incidence of Total Crime	SCs, STs, non-SC/STs, All Groups  For SCs and STs calculated for 16 major States and all India level	1999, 2000 and 2001	Crime in India

## Appendix

### Human Development Index: IIDS and UNDP Comparison

The Human Development Values calculated in this report for the all social groups are comparatively lower compared to the UNDP values at all India level as well as state level. The reason for the lower value of HDI estimated by IIDS is due to the choice of variables<sup>8</sup>. However with a few exceptions the ranking of the states in both estimates is more or less similar (see Table below).

In both estimates a definite set of states have higher HDI value and another definite set of states have lower HDI value. There are however differences in the ordering of the states. This may possibly be due to two reasons namely

- (1) the choice of variables in the construction of HD Index used by IIDS and UNDP,
- (2) inclusion of some newly formed states<sup>9</sup>.

	States with HDI Value higher than All-India Value	States with HDI Value lower than All-India value
Based on IIDS estimates	(1) Kerala (2) Himachal Pradesh (3) Maharashtra (4) Tamil Nadu (5) Punjab (6) Haryana (7) West Bengal (8) Gujarat (9) Karnataka	(10) Assam (11) Andhra Pradesh (12) Rajasthan (13) Jharkhand (14) Madhya Pradesh (15) Orissa (16) Uttar Pradesh (16) Bihar
Based on UNDP estimates	(1) Goa (2) Kerala (3) Maharashtra (4) Tamil Nadu (5) Nagaland (6) Punjab (7) Gujarat (8) Sikkim (9) Manipur (10) Himachal Pradesh (11) Karnataka (12) Tripura (13) West Bengal (14) Haryana (15) Arunachal Pradesh (16) Meghalaya	(17) Andhra Pradesh (18) Jammu and Kashmir (19) Chhattisgarh (20) Rajasthan (21) Jharkhand (22) Assam (23) Madhya Pradesh (24) Orissa (25) Uttar Pradesh (27) Bihar

Sources: IIDS Data Bank on social groups and UNDP calculation based on paper on "Human Development Indices in India: Trends and Analysis".

<sup>8</sup> A detailed description of variables used at both the levels (IIDS and UNDP) is given in the Technical Note (II).

<sup>9</sup> In case of the inclusion of some newly emerged states like, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh, the value of prime variables (MPCE, IMR, Literacy Rate) may get disturbed. In IIDS analysis these states are parts of some other states but here these are independent states. So it affects the ordering of the states in both ways- that is the original states as well as the newly emerged state.

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According to the Global Human Development Report, 2005, social justice and morality, redistribution, growth and efficiency, political legitimacy and public policy goals are some of the mutually reinforcing intrinsic and instrumental reasons for reducing inequalities. Within the human development framework, inequalities matter on two counts: first, being a fundamental issue of human development, extreme inequalities in opportunity and life chances have a direct bearing on human capabilities and thus are particularly unacceptable from a rights perspective; secondly, inequalities hamper progress towards Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Without progress for all sections of society and the empowerment of poor and marginalised, none of the MDGs will be achieved.

This paper attempts to address three interrelated issues. First it tries to conceptualise the nature and dimensions of "Exclusion-Linked Deprivation" of socially disadvantaged groups in India. Second, it maps the status of disadvantaged groups of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Others (non SC/STs) with respect to human development and human poverty and captures the inter-social group inequalities by calculating the Human Development Index (HDI) and the Human Poverty Index (HPI) across two time points. And third, it tries to analyse the economic and social factors leading to lower access to resources, human capital and social needs for the socially disadvantaged.



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