CHAPTER –2
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT STATUS AMONG SOCIAL GROUPS IN INDIA AND KARNATAKA

2.1. INTRODUCTION

“My study of the caste problem involves four main points: (1) that in spite of the composition make-up of the Hindu population, there is a deep culture unity;(2) that caste is a parceling into bits of a large cultural unity;(3) that there was one caste to start with and (4) that classes have become caste through initiation and excommunication”

-Dr. B.R. Ambedkar

The present chapter attempts to understand disparities or discrimination among social groups in India and Karnataka. One of the distinctive and pervasive features of Indian society is its division into castes and sub-castes. Scheduled caste and Scheduled tribe for a long time faced problems such as untouchability, social and economical discrimination, inequality and poverty hindering their economic and social development and deprivation of access to opportunity as well as resource, reflecting the vicious circle deprivation. These deprived social groups do not have enough economic opportunity to earn their livelihood through gainful employment, and do not have social political status in the society. In the absence of this they either become dependent on the better off sections of the society serving their interest or adopt to crime and violence.

After independence, safeguards were provided to SC/ST in the Constitution of India. From the First Five Year Plan, a policy of positive discrimination was adopted and the emphasis was laid on “growth with
justice”. This continued in all the successive five year plans, several developmental schemes were formed and implemented by the central, state government and other organization.

The Human Development Report (HDR) of 2000, on “Human Right and Human Development”, brings to the fore the close link between equal human rights and human development. The HDR observed that the principle of equality in opportunity and choices in all spheres of life as one of the pillars of human development. In so far as exclusion and discrimination, involve restrictions, in its consequences, it implies denial of freedom and of equal opportunity to affected groups. Deprivation of discriminated groups thus, works through exclusion, differential treatment, and unequal access, and hinder human development. Therefore, freedom from discrimination becomes a necessary pre-condition for human development.

Today in India, discrimination, untouchability, deprivation, still continue and Caste based exclusion, thus, of necessity involves failure of access and entitlements, not only to economic right, but what’s more to civil, cultural and political right. It occupies what has been described as living mode exclusion. Caste and Untouchability and traditions based exclusion thus reflected the inability of individuals and groups like former untouchables, adivasi and similar groups to interact feely and productively with others and to take part in the full socio-economic and political life of a community (Thorat 2007). The human development paradigm, if properly implemented, will reduce such discrimination.
2.2. DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Human Resource Development (HRD), as a separate branch of study in social sciences, has gained prominence with publication of the first United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) report on Human Development in 1990. Before this the concept of human resources entered the literature of social sciences with genesis of the concept of ‘Human Capital’ in the 1960s. Schultz, (1961), the concept was later developed by Hector Correa (1963), defined as ‘Human Capital’ in Schultz presidential address to the American Economic Association Meeting in 1960. HRD concentrates on five major categories: (i) health facilities and services, broadly conceived to include all expenditures that affect life expectancy, strength and stamina and the vigour and vitality of people (2) on the job training, including old style apprenticeship organized by firms, (3) formally organized education at elementary, secondary and higher levels, (4) study programmes for adults that are not organized by firms, including extension programmes, notably in agriculture, and (5) migration of individuals and families to adjust to changing job opportunities’. But the concept and its contents, as conceived and defined by Schultz, became obscure for about three decades until the UNDP Human Development Report developed the human development paradigm in 1990. Human development was defined as ‘the process of enlarging the range of people’s choices, increasing their opportunities for education, health care, income and employment and covering the full range of human choices from a sound physical environment to economic and political freedoms’ (UNDP 1990). In the transition from HRD
to the holistic term of human development between 1960 and 1990, the concept has given birth to several advancements in economic literature such as economics of education, manpower planning, economics of human resources, and so on. Of these developments, the subject of human resources has overgrown its content. Governments in both developed and underdeveloped countries started renaming their departments of education, health, welfare, culture and so on, as departments of human resources. As with other concepts in economics, human capital too was transformed into a new guise as human resource in the hands of management science and slowly entered the departments of labour and training. Now, the concept has become an independent discipline called HRD. This is creating several problems and some confusion. Among these ambiguities is the difference between ‘human resource’ used in the singular, and human resources referred to in the plural, as originally conceived by economists. The concept of HRD in which one category of researches is interested in ‘man in relationship to the world of work, and such work involves producing things and providing services of all kinds in the social political, cultural and economic development of nations’ (Harbison 1973). He, reported, that human beings are treated as resources like mineral and other material resources that are used as inputs in the production process. Human beings are only means, not ends. They have no soul, or spirit or feelings to enjoy the company of art, literature, music and other good things in life. In this context, human resources is a plural term with animate spirit, the quality of which depends upon motivation and values, health and welfare, skills
and abilities, employment and income, awareness and environment, and above all creating a world that is more humane, more stable, more just. In this sense, human resources should be studied from an interdisciplinary approach across the narrow boundaries of economics and management. However, the alienation of this concept from other items of investment allowed researchers to develop different branches of specialization such as economics of health, economics of manpower planning, economics of population and so on, within the broad framework of human resources. Over the years, HRD became closer to human development, matching the horizons of defining development.

According to Mahbub ul Haq (1995), the main difference between the economic growth and the human development is that the first focuses exclusively on the expansion of only one choice - income - while the second embraces the enlargement of all human choices - whether economic, social, cultural, or political.

It could be argued that an increase in income would enlarge all other choices as well. But this is exactly what Haq and others have questioned by asserting that the fundamental link between expanding income and expanding human choice depend on the quality and distribution of economic growth, not only on the quantity of such growth. They have argued that a relation flanked by income growth and human welfare have to be created knowingly through public policies which aim at providing services and opportunities as equitably as possible to all citizens. This not is absent to the market mechanisms, because these are essentially very unfriendly to the poor, in the direction of the weak,
and to the susceptible. UNDP's work on human development contains some attempts at identifying causal relationships and barrier to the enhancement of welfare and the magnification of opportunities and choices on an equitable basis. Plan for overcoming these obstacles have also been evolved. Based partly on UNDP's contributions in this area, the next section discusses briefly some of the main strategies for promoting human development. I have added to this a few observations on the possible roles that donor agencies may play in relation to this plan.

The later reports on human development have further clarified several issues that have been raised in popular discussions of the first report and also due to the availability of results of several studies in HRD. It is emphasized that human development deals with human capabilities, leading some people to believe that human development is limited to social sectors, such as health or education. These investments in people are vital, but are only part of the whole picture. The concept of human development does not focus on social issues at the expense of economic issues. But it is equally concerned with how human capabilities are to be used by people. This will facilitate people to participate freely in social, political and economic decisions making. Thus, human development is not limited to specific sectors nor can it be confined to a few areas of study as individual experts claim. Further, subsequent reports of human development have brought in new issues like environmental concerns, human freedom, political freedom, gender empowerment into its orbit as well. All these indices are strengthening the scope of education in enriching HRD.
From the balance sheet prepared by the UNDP Human Development Report, it is clear that indicators relating to education play a very important role in human development of both developing countries and the industrialized countries. Thus education, which was a major indicator of HRD, is directly related to human development (Chalam, 2007).

The human development involves primarily to the preference in three essential areas: the opportunity to lead a long and healthy life; the opportunity to acquire awareness; and the opportunity to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. To this was later added several other dimensions and aspects, and the name of the concept itself was changed from 'human development' to 'sustainable human development' in order to highlight the importance of sustaining all forms of capital and resources - physical, human, financial, and environmental - as a precondition for meeting the needs also of future generations.

In India Governments, both at the central and at the state levels have started several policies and programme to improve the quality of life. Some of these policies have failed to improve the levels of literacy, quality of health services, and so on. Therefore, there is a need to evaluate these policies and to provide an alternative to the existing ones. Such a policy will be expected to specify its targets or expected consequences. In a country like India where more than 40 per cent of the population is still illiterate, an educational policy cannot be uni-dimensional, and should focus on various problems of the target groups. Keeping these dimensions in analysis, the present work examines the
matter that is directly related to the development of human resources. Educational development is given importance here, though health, nutrition, employment, and consequently on, is part of the development of human resources in India and Karnataka State. Consequently, an analysis of educational development and some parameters of health and welfare such as fertility rate, infant mortality rate and so on, will allow us to understand the nature and magnitude of human development through the developments in India and Karnataka. This is studied with particular reference to the Dalits section.

2.3. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX

The concept of HDI according to (UNDP) combines normalized measures of life expectancy, literacy, educational attainment, and GDP per capita for countries worldwide. It is claimed as a standard means of measuring human development, process of widening the options of persons, giving them greater opportunities for education, health care, income, employment, etc. The basic use of HDI is to measure a country’s development.

The HDI takes values between 0 and 1; in such a way that higher development for particular groups will be reflected by a value closer to 1. As a consequence, a value closer 1 would imply that the enter population of the respective social groups had achieved a minimal level of attainments in terms of each of the dimension considered.
2.3. i. Construction of the Human Development Index

The human Development index is a composite measure made up of three component- longevity, as measured by life expectancy at birth, adult literacy, and per capita income. It is calculated on the basis of the methodology of the UNDP (Human Development Report 1996), in calculating the HDI we have to first ascertain educational achievement (E), life expectancy at birth (L) and per capital income (Y). However, the value for these variables have to be converted into indices lying between 0 and 1. Let us assume that we have to compute the HDI for ‘n’ over ‘t’ periods. Let indices by ‘i’ and time period by ‘j’. Let index for ever variable by the corresponding in small letter. Then we have 1990 as per:

\[ L = \frac{(\text{Min } L)}{(\text{Max } L - \text{Min } L)} \]

Similar indices can be compound for E and Y

\[ H = \frac{(e + 1 + y)}{3} \]

2.3. ii. The Methodology for Computing Human Development Index:

The methodology for calculate the HDI, first an index requests to be created for each of above three dimensions. Individual dimension index is defined as:

Dimension Index = \( \frac{(actual \ value \ - \ minimum \ value)}{(Maximum \ Value- \ Minimum \ Value)} \)

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 community separately, the formula can be: the HDI value of the \( j^{th} \) group \((I_j)\) for the \( i^{th} \) variable is defined as the average of these variables.

\[
I_j = \frac{\sum I_{ij}}{3} \quad i = 1, 2, 3
\]

\( j = SC, ST \text{ and Others} \)

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

2.4. CONCEPT OF THE CASTE AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

The concept of social exclusion in general and the caste un-touchability based exclusion and discrimination in particular which are seen as causative factors for the deprivation of these groups.

To define this concept, Amartya Sen (2000), draws attention to various meanings and dimensions of the concept that at social exclusion distinction is drawn between the situation where some people are being kept out, and where some people being included (may even be forced to be included) in deeply unfavorable terms and described the two situations as “unfavourable exclusion” and “unfavourable inclusion”. The “unfavourable inclusion” with unequal treatment may carry the same adverse effects as “unfavourable exclusion.

Sen also differentiated between “active and passive exclusion”. For the casual analysis and policy response, Sen argued that “It is important to distinguish between “active exclusion – fostering of exclusion through the deliberate policy intervention by the government or by any other willful agents
(to exclude some people from some opportunity) and “Passive exclusion” with works through the social process in which there are no deliberate attempts to exclude but nevertheless may results in exclusion from a set of circumstances.

2.5. CASTE BASED EXCLUSION

Research studies on Dalits shows that Dalit suffer from lower access to capital assets like agricultural land and non land assets (and or) low productivity of the assets, lower level of urbanization and employment diversification away from agriculture, exceptionally high dependence on casual labour high unemployment, lower daily wage, particularly in non-farm activities and low level of literacy and education not better for health compared with non-Dalit groups in Indian society.

What is the reason that the SC/ST has poor access to all resource which directly and indirectly determines the level of income and capability of secure of other source of income? And why the ownership of agricultural land and nonagricultural land assets is low compared with other (all). Why is the unemployment rates too high particularly among Dalits compared with non SC/ST? Why the literacy rate and education level are much lower when compared with non-Dalits? Why is the daily wage, earning of SC/ST in non-farm activities low compared with SC/ST.

In the Hindu Social order, it is reasonable to assume that the persisting inequality in command over resource, human capabilities and lack of equal opportunity in civil and political rights, among forces can be partly attributed to
the exclusion and social rights in the past and also continuing process of exclusion, discrimination of Dalits. The present research has tried to provide some empirical evidence to seem the negative role of discrimination and exclusion and denial of equal opportunity to SC/ST and their lower access to capital assets, employment, human development and high human poverty. Due to constraint of the data, I have confined my empirical evidence to SC/ST caste, drawing from diverse source to provide empirical evidence about the nature of social political and economic discrimination.

2.6. SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC EXCLUSION THEORETICAL FORMULATION

The Hindu Social order in India, exclusion revolves around the societal inter relations and institutions that exclude discriminate and deprivation of some groups on the basis of group’s identities like caste and ethnicity. The exclusion of caste system particularly needs to be understood and conceptual. It is the caste based exclusion which has formed the basis for various anti-discrimination policies in India. Historically the caste system has regulated the social and economic life of the people in India.

Theoretical formulation by economics recognized that it is essential from caste as a system of social and economic governance organization (of production and distribution) is governed by certain customary rules and norms which are unique and distinct (Akerlof 1976 and Dr. Ambedkar 1936 and 1987). The organization scheme of the caste system is based on the division of people in social groups (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, culture and economic rights is therefore, unequal and hierarchal. The most important of caste system, however is that it provides for a regulator in mechanism to enforce the social and economic organization through the instrument of social ostracism, and reinforces it further with physical elements in the Hindu religion (Ambedkar, 1936-1987).

The Hindu social order civil, cultural and economic rights for each caste with restrictions for change in plies “forced exclusion” from the rights of other caste, or from undertaking the occupation of other castes. The exclusion and discrimination of Dalit people suffering from socio-economic problems of life, like, education, water, culture and particularly in economic spheres such as occupation and labour employment also in the country.

Totally, it can be said that the Dalits who almost one of the Indian population suffer most acutely from social and economic violence emanating from caste system which prescribes their position as being inequality located at the “Varna System” caste hierarchy. The SC/ST people in Indian society negotiate social and economic life spheres from this Hindu Social Order position at the abyss of the caste system. While in the other spheres, untouchability excludes them from transaction with the dominant community in society.

2.7. CASTE AND ECONOMIC RULE IN INDIA

The consequences of caste-based exclusion on the access to income earning assets, education, Health, employment, social requirements, and
ultimately on poverty of the excluded and discriminated groups are far more serious. As assets under the caste system are assigned unequally across the castes; income distribution is generally cruel along the caste lines. The unequal and hierarchical task of occupational and property among social groups implies that although every caste, excepting those at the top of caste order, suffers in a varying magnitude from an unequal division of the socio-economic. The former untouchables, who are broth in feet of the caste hierarchy, suffer the majority as they mouth “exclusion and discrimination” from access to socio-economic property, and education, except the manual labour or service to the SC/ST above them. The institution of “untouchability” adds an additional dimension to their economic discrimination and exclusion, as they are prohibited from social intercourse, and participation in several economic activities due to the stigma of pollution associated with their SC/ST. The economic and the social impact on “low-caste untouchables”, is therefore, far more negative than for any other social group in the Hindu society.

Today Caste has been used as strength of social and economic muscle stages in India. Therefore, upper castes have used it as property of the group of people who inherit a particular caste by birth. Upper caste rule as domination is exercised by social action, which in India is implemented through the operation of upper caste cleavages. These cleavages have existed in India as they did in English society in a slight manner before 1990. It is a recognized fact that public sector undertakings particularly the powerful banking sector is under the control of ‘Brahmin’. It is difficult to explain how financial
institutions can be manipulated by an ordinary person like Harshad Mehta to
the extent of crores of rupees and the action still remain unpunished. The
allegation that money laundering is involved in the so-called boom of IT where
upper caste bourgeoisie is involved has not been interrogated by scholars yet
(Chalam 2007).

The New Economic Policy has provided good opportunities to the upper
castes to consolidate their social and economic development by deals and
amalgamation. Public money in the form of forced savings of the middle
classes and Dalits is being diverted to private individuals belonging to upper
castes in the name of disinvestment. The current publication by a news agency
of a list of 100 rich persons in India does not contain even a single Dalit. The
emergence of multi-caste corporations (MCC) in metropolitan centers in the
areas of financial companies, agriculture business, and other sectors provide
unlimited opportunities to the dvija castes while similar opportunities are
denied to Dalits. This is happening because of the fact that caste has re-
emerged as an influential economic weapon after the New Economic Policy. It
is systematically planned to leave the urban service sector and the un-
remunerative traditional agriculture to the Dalits and artisan castes. Even the
‘telecom scam’ of the 1990s is a pointer to indicate the exercise of power by
upper castes in India. It is not unusual to find upper caste investors emerge as
billionaires overnight without any initial investment while similar opportunities
are not available for qualified and talented Dalits. This difference in
opportunities and market efficiency is to be found not in the abilities of the
persons but their social background of belonging to upper castes. The reason why organizations like the Confederation of Indian Industries (CII) and other social formations of MCC did not want the present social arrangement to be disturbed is because caste interests and economic benefits converge here. The present economic policies of all the political parties as mentioned in their election manifests clearly indicate that they are interested in market efficiency through privatization. The policies will definitely provide some opportunities to Dalits and others, not in the primary and secondary sectors of the economy, but in the tertiary sector and particularly in the service sector. The traditional caste system provided space for the non-upper castes particularly Dalits and service castes who are ‘supposed’ to serve the Brahmins (Upper castes). Now the space created by the service sector will be filled in by Dalits and backward castes. In other words, the Varnashrama Dharma will be recreated in the 21st Century.

In these section discussed about possible to seem to be at some of the indicators of human development in order to capture the aggregate impact of formal and informal affirmative action policies, as well as, the general economic and social development trends. Over point in time there has been a helpful improvement of the human development for SC/ST. The optimistic changes are reflected in the aggregate indicators of human development – income level, employment, social needs like education and health, and ultimately, in poverty.
2.8. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF DALITS

Dalits today not only constitute numerically an important section of the society but also represent a community still struggling to break out of the centuries of mental bondage of the oppressive and hegemonic Brahmanical Hindutva order and in human existence.

In 2001, the SC and ST constituted 24.4 percent of India’s population (16.2 % SC and 8.2 % ST) and in Karnataka state constitute 22.8 percent of Karnataka’s population (16.20% SC and 6.6 % ST). As per the 2001 census among total population was 166.67 million SC and 84.32 million ST respectively (Table-2.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>166635700</td>
<td>84326240</td>
<td>1028377436</td>
<td>16.20</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>8563930</td>
<td>3463986</td>
<td>52850562</td>
<td>16.20</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India, 2001

2.8.1. Sex Ratio

Sex ratio, defined as the number of females per thousand males is an important social indictor to measure the context of prevailing in equality between males-females in a society at given point of time. As per 2001 census sex ratio among social groups in India and Karnataka, as given in the Figure-2.1 shows that the sex ratio of SC (936) is a lower than the ST (978) but higher than the
general population (933). In Karnataka state, the sex ratio of SC (973) is higher than the ST (972) and SC and ST also much higher than the All (965). Thus, Karnataka is well placed in terms of sex ratio and SC/STs with respect to general population.

**Figure-2.1**

Source: Census of India, 2001

### 2.9. Education among Dalits

Today, in the case of education, the provision relates to non-discrimination in educational institutions, equal representations, and measures for educational promotions. Article 15 (4) states that “Nothing in this article shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes”. Article 29 (2) provides protection for admission and against discrimination in any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them. Access to education could act as a catalyst to change. Inter-generational occupational mobility might be
facilitated through education. In fact, persons acquiring education, even at lower levels, could break through some of the social and cultural norms associated with certain occupations. In such circumstances education could help break the vicious cycle of poverty. However, access to education and the capacity to use it for economic betterment could differ by caste and religion. A large number of indigenous communities in India, with languages and cultural practices relatively distinct from the mainstream, were characterized as tribes by the British in the nineteenth century. Such tribes and certain ex-untouchable castes were listed in Article 312 of the Indian Constitution as ‘Scheduled Tribes’ and ‘Scheduled Castes’. These communities faced social exclusion and suffered centuries of discrimination. The table-2.2 gives the comparative picture of education among social groups in Karnataka and India.

Table-2.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Scheduled Caste</th>
<th>Scheduled Tribe</th>
<th>General</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>54.69</td>
<td>47.10</td>
<td>65.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>52.87</td>
<td>48.30</td>
<td>67.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India, 2001

The table reveals low education status of SCs and STs in both Karnataka and India. While literacy among STs is very low, that among SCs also fallen short considerably. Although, Karnataka reports a higher general literacy, that for SCs and STs is quite low.
2.10. HEALTH

Health as a relative concept depends on several demographic social and economic factors. These factors determine the health status of community. Factors such as age, sex, marital status, education, occupation, income, type of family, size of family etc., are noteworthy here. Because, it is not possible to raise the level of people’s health without making changes in their economic, social and cultural environment.

Good health is valuable attainment of life. Better health contributes directly to Economics and social growth of a nation, because healthy people contribute their strength to the production of the country. The health condition is assessed using set of miserable indicators that reflect various dimension of health on which reasonable, reliable data are available. This includes indicators of mortality and nutrition status boldly called “Health Outcomes” and access to and utilization preventive, primitive and culture services broadly called health care. Several indicators are used to evaluate the quality of health of people. Unfortunately data on many health indicators is not available on regular periodical basis for SC and STs except for NFHS surveys.

Infant, child and under-five mortality rates are other final indicators of deprivation. The rates are defined as follows:

**Infant mortality:** This is a measure of the probability of dying before exact age one expressed per thousand live births.

**Child mortality:** This indicator gives the probability of dying between the first and fifth birthday expressed per thousand live births

**Under five mortality:** This is the probability of dying between birth and exact age five expressed per thousand live births.
Infant and child mortality rates can be considered as indicators universally related to quality of life in the society. All these indicators are the highest for the STs followed by SCs (Figure-2.2). In other words, these two groups lag considerably behind other sections of the society with respect to input as well as final impact measures of deprivation.

**Figure-2.2**

![Infant and Child Mortality by Social Groups: Karnataka and All India, 2005-06(NFHS-3)](image)

Source: National Family Health Survey, 2005-06.

**2.11. HOUSING**

In the 1991 Census, terms such as ‘pucca’ and ‘kutcha’ were used to describe the quality of housing. The 2001 Census replaced these terms with ‘permanent’, ‘semi-permanent’ and ‘temporary’ to describe the quality of houses. Housing shortage is an Indian phenomenon; how-ever the problems are more acute throughout India. Particularly in case of scheduled caste and scheduled tribes in the state and country due to significant growth in population, per capita income, poverty, and unemployment etc. But government source is limited in the country.
The following figure shows that category wise housing in Karnataka. The per cent of SC (51.9) STs (43.70) and All (54.94) live permanent house, STs is the lower than SC, and SC is much lower than total household (Figure-2.3).

**Figure-2.3**

Category-Wise Housing in Karnataka as Per, 2001

Source: Census 2001, Register General of India

About 36.65(SCs), and (STs) 39.02 per cent dwell in Semi-Permanent house compared with All household (35.52) per cent. On data seemed STs is higher percent live in semi-permanent house than the SCs, and SCs is the higher than total. About temporary house SCs (12.2) is lower than STs (17.25) and (9.51) total household much lower than. Totally, we can say that more number of STs live in temporary houses.

**2.12. WATER**

Dalits are the most affected community characterised by lack of safe water and sanitation facilities. Women are the ones who spend hours fetching
water and they also face considerable health and security risks when they go out to defecate in open at night or early hours of the morning for privacy. When women go out to fetch water the girl children are retained at home to look after the household and younger siblings and this affects their educational opportunities. Often they are withdrawn or not sent to school to act as additional help in household work. Dalit women face greater problems as they live in segregated communities located even further from clean water sources. Besides the sources of water are also segregated according to caste and Dalits are allowed to take water from sources only within these segregated localities which could be of bad quality and polluted. Another problem in most Dalit communities is that the water they have access to in their localities through hand pumps is saline and not fit for consumption. This keeps them dependent on upper castes and has implications on the physical security of women who are the ones responsible for getting water even facing discrimination. On the basis table-2.3 it is noticed that there is a variations among social groups to access safe drinking water by social groups in Karnataka and India.

Table-2.3
Access to Safe Drinking Water by Social Groups in Karnataka, 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>88.82</td>
<td>84.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Registrar General of India, Census 2001 and MDG A Status Report, 2006

In India 45.2 per cent household among the general population are having drinking water source within premises whereas on 27.0 per cent Scheduled Caste and 15.2 per cent Scheduled Tribes households have this
facility. Compared to India it is higher in Karnataka i.e., 90.0 per cent of SC population are having drinking water, 88.82 per cent ST and 84.6 per cent households have drinking water facilities.

2.13. ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY

With regard to the data on electricity, the households’ Amenities data census of India 2001 report that, 55.8 per cent of the households in the country have access to electricity. The extent of attainments and deprivation among Social groups vis-à-vis All regarding to availability of the electricity. The percentage access for all households is 61.40 per cent, for SC it is 44.30 per cent and for ST it is 36.50 per cent respectively. Thus, SC has better than the ST and All have much better position converge in terms of access to electricity in India. Karnataka has performed well in the providing better electricity facilities to SC, ST, and All household, when compared to the country (India). Thus, All have electricity connectivity is much high than SC and ST households. According to the 2001 census a 78.50 per cent of All, SC 68.50 per cent and ST 64.70 per cent households have access electricity in Karnataka (Figure-2.4).

Figure-2.4

Percentage of House having Access to Electricity, 2001

Source: Census of India, 2001
2.14. LAND

SC/ST caste groups largely own marginal land holdings. In Karnataka to 68.90% of SC household, and 55.60% of ST household were marginal cultivators (Table-2.4). The respective figures for SC and ST respondents holding marginal land at all India level were 74.90% and 46.90%. In the same manner mall land holders were 17% among SCs and 19% among STs respondents in Karnataka while the respective figures at all India level were 14.70% (SC) and 23.90 % (ST). A still smaller number of SC and ST respondents had semi-medium, medium and large land holdings. Thus, landless is problem among SC/STs and smaller area cultivated is the another major handicap in their economic emancipation.

Table-2.4

Size of Land Holdings of SC/ST Respondents in Karnataka and in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of landholding</th>
<th>Karnataka</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SC</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginal</td>
<td>68.90</td>
<td>55.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>19.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-Medium</td>
<td>08.10</td>
<td>17.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>04.40</td>
<td>05.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Marginal: Less than 0.40, Small: 0.41 to 1.00, Semi-Medium: 1.01 to 2.00, Medium: 2.01 to 4.00, Large: 4.01 & Above.

2.15. OCCUPATIONAL PATTERN OF DALITS

Caste-based occupation was the major means of livelihood for Dalit population up to couple of years ago but it has been gradually disappearing
over the years primarily due to three reasons: i) they themselves think that their occupation has lower social prestige and demeaning socially; ii) many young educated Dalit boys and girls do not like to follow their fathers’ foot-steps, and iii) they are finding difficulty in competing with others in the open market.

As majority Dalits of India, as well as Karnataka, population depended for their livelihood, through it, either in self-employment or in work for others, labour and issues such as employment, productivity and wage have been the center of attention in pre or post independent plans for the national development study the available employment data from various source in Karnataka. Data on mode of employment highlights policy implication for the social security, particularly for the venerable, labour. A profile of the distribution of the workforce is critical for an assessment of the relative importance of various employment opportunities (KHDR, 2005).

2.15. 1 Work Participation Rate

Population growth in the state and work participation also has been on increase in the economy. The WPR of the state SC population is 46.3 per cent, and for ST is 49.3 per cent, which are higher than that for the nation (Table-2.5). The WPR is the higher for STs, followed by SCs and than the general population.

Table-2.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>General</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>40.40</td>
<td>49.10</td>
<td>30.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>46.30</td>
<td>49.30</td>
<td>44.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census 2001, Registrar General of India.
2.15.2 Type of Occupations

As per the dalits, the occupation associated with their castes were invariably uncertain and degrading one such as scavenging, removal of carcass, night soil, beating the drum at funerals etc. Occasionally they were also employed in agriculture but as sorts of the landlords the important changes in the caste system has been the progressive dissociation of occupation from caste in the Hindu social order.

Figure-2.5, gives the information about occupational pattern in India and Karnataka state. This Figure shows that there is much variation of the occupational pattern among the social groups, particularly scheduled caste, most of population (percentage) is working agriculture labour. In case of ST is a most of people (percentage) are working under cultivators in national level.

**Figure-2.5**

**Type of Occupation of Social Groups in India and Karnataka-2001(In %)**

Source: Census 2001, Register General of India

Though, SC is 30 per cent and ST is 16 per cent and All is 37 per cent working under Other works in National level and Karnataka an SC, (33%) is a
higher than ST (23%) and All (40%) is a much higher than SC and ST worked Under Others works.

2.16. POVERTY AMONG DALITS

Untouchables in India suffer from both intolerance and poverty. Traditionally, they are excluded from mainstream social and economic development and as a result they are found to be most vulnerable to hunger and poverty. Poverty is basically considered as the non-availability of sufficient food, clothing and shelter. Ever since its conceptualization by English sociologist Charles Booth in 1889, it has undergone several changes in its connotation. It is referred to as ‘primary poverty’ when a bare subsistence minimum is available for physical efficiency. It is ‘secondary poverty’ when adequate income is available but cannot be spent due to lack of knowledge and other factors. Now the concept has been totally appropriated by economists and several measures put forward by them to measure poverty. In India, poverty is officially ‘linked to a nutritional base line measured in calories.'
Table-2.6
Population, inequality and poverty by social groups (1999-00)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Karnataka and All India</th>
<th>Rural Karnataka</th>
<th>Rural All India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Share in Total Population (%)</td>
<td>Average per capita consumption (Rs/month)</td>
<td>Proportion of poor population (Lorenz ratio %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>19.65</td>
<td>419.39</td>
<td>26.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td>404.28</td>
<td>24.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBC</td>
<td>39.15</td>
<td>507.45</td>
<td>16.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>33.31</td>
<td>560.08</td>
<td>12.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>499.60</td>
<td>18.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:

(ii) Estimates of rural and urban poverty correspond to the Government of India Expert Group Poverty Lines per month at current prices for the year 1999-2000 as follows: Rs.309.59 (Rural Karnataka), Rs.327.56 (Rural All-India), Rs.511.44 (Urban Karnataka) and Rs.454.11 (Urban India) published in Government of India (2001): Poverty Estimates for 1999-2000, Press Information Bureau, New Delhi.
The salient features of Table-2.6 are as follows:

1. The Scheduled Caste (SC) households account for about 20 per cent of the rural population. They, together with Scheduled Tribe (ST) households, form nearly 28 per cent of the rural population.

2. These two social categories have lowest levels of average consumption and highest incidence of poverty, about a quarter of their respective populations being poor.

3. In urban Karnataka, the combined population share of the SC and ST categories is about 15 per cent. Nearly half of these two social categories are poor whereas it is only a sixth for other households. Thus, the socially backward communities have a long way to catch up with the rest of the population in terms of improvement in levels of living.

2.17. STATUS OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT BY SOCIAL GROUPS- 2000

The achievements by different sections of population in different spheres of their life are summarized, and given in terms of HDI. As mentioned above, the HDI is a composite index of three indicators, namely infant mortality rate, literacy rate, and monthly per-capita consumption expenditure. The HDI takes values between 0 and 1, such that a 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 of minimal attainment on each of the dimensions considered. The figure.1 gives the values of the HDI by social groups for the most recent year that is, 2000, (Thorat, 2007).
The value of HDI value is obviously different across the social groups, namely the SCs, STs, and others. The HDI for these respective groups was 0.303, 0.270 and 0.393 respectively for the country. The HDI values for the SCs and the STs are thus; lower when compared with Non SC/ST (All) categories (Figure-2.6).

**Figure-2.6**

*Status of Human Development among Social Groups in India and Karnataka (1999-00)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Karnataka</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>0.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.366</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IIDS Data Bank

In Karnataka too, the HD status os SCs and STs is very low vis-à-vis others, and what is worsen the attanmation for SCs and STs is lower in Karanaraka is lower than all India figure. This shows that defrvation is more sense in the state than in the overall country.
2.18. CONCLUSION

From the foregoing analysis it is found that disparities or discrimination still continue among social groups in India and Karnataka as well as rural and urban area. Though, human development indictors reflecting that right to use to resources of income-earning assets like agricultural land and non land asset, employment, education are emphasized recent, nothing must been to have materialized. It also assessed social needs like health, water, and housing the extent nature of caste and untouchability-based exclusion and discrimination in economic, civil, cultural and political spheres and in socio-economic programmes and institution of justice for the SCs, STs and a residual category on upper castes.

The incidence of poverty in respect SC/ST appears to more as compared to others. It is found to ST their rural area. In urban are the combined population share of the SC/STs category about 15 percent namely that of these two social groups category are poor where it is only a sixth for others household. It is evident that the education status of respect of SC/STs is significantly lower as compared to others both in Karnataka and India. Nevertheless, there has been vista illiteracy in respect of SC/STs compared to the others. Though Karnataka and comparative picture reflected that SC/STs literacy rate is lower than others. Gm literacy rate is higher than National level (India) when compared with compared with Karnataka.

It has been found that in India and Karnataka especially in rural area a greater than illiteracy in respect good quality of employment either in
agriculture or non-agriculture. Consequently, the proportion of workers in casual wage employment is quality significant in case of SC/STs as compared with others.

The health condition and assessed using set of miserable indicator that reflect various dimension of health on which reasonable reliable data are available. The fertility arte are quite higher in respect of SC and ST as against others. The infant mortality and chilled mortality rate are quite significant in the case of SC/STs as compared to others. This clearly illustrates that the health status SC/STs vis-à-vis others if far from significant in Karnataka and India. Shortage of housing is a lower than is a big problem are more acute in Karnataka & India phenomena. The growth rate of population is significant increasing particular in the SC/STs. SC/ST household has low houses as compared to there in Karnataka and India.

It can noticed that majority of SC/ST population suffering from the upper caste people as in socio-economic condition and human development index, because, disparities and discrimination in Hindu social order of the people, therefore human development indictor also discrimination among social groups in India and Karnataka.
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Planning commission government of India (2007-12): Eleventh Five year plan; Oxford University press publishing, YMCA library building, jai sing road, New Delhi.


