Indian Association of Social Science Institutions

20th ANNUAL CONFERENCE

27-29 February 2020
Bengaluru, India

Summaries of the Conference Papers

Organised by

Institute for Social and Economic Change (ISEC)
Bengaluru - 560072
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ABOUT THE CONFERENCE

The 20th Annual Conference of the Indian Association of Social Science Institutions (IASSI) is being held during 27-29 February 2020 at the Institute for Social and Economic Change, Bengaluru, India. Professor Virendra Kumar Malhotra, Member-Secretary, Indian Council of Social Science Research, New Delhi is the Conference President. Professor Parmod Kumar, Agricultural Development & Rural Transformation Centre (ADRTC), Institute for Social and Economic Change, Bengaluru is the Local Organising Secretary of the Conference.

Conference Theme

The Annual Conference covers the following three themes:

i. Social and Economic Inequalities: Emerging Perspectives;

ii. Child Development: A Fair Chance to Every Child; and

iii. Challenges of Urban Transformation.

Researchers, professionals, and other experts, within and outside India, have been invited to contribute conceptual and/or empirical papers on various topics/sub topics relating to the Conference themes.
ABOUT THE ORGANISER

Institute for Social and Economic Change

The Institute for Social and Economic Change (ISEC) is an All India Institute for Interdisciplinary Research and Training in the Social Sciences, established in 1972 by the late Professor V K R V Rao. It is registered as a Society under the Karnataka Societies Registration Act, 1960, to create a blend of field-oriented empirical research and advances in social science theories leading to better public policy formulation.

The thrust of the institute is to integrate the social science research skills in initiating, complementing, participating and furthering the social, economic and political changes of the societies with an emphasis on equity and justice. Prof. Rao’s vision was to build purposeful interactions within social science disciplines as well as with other life science streams to create a strong interdisciplinary work. ISEC’s concern for the social and economic welfare of the poor and disadvantaged groups reflects strongly in the large number of studies it has undertaken to understand the various dimensions of poverty and human development. Analytical and applied research studies particularly in policy-related areas have also been areas of priority at ISEC. Central, state and local level governments have come to rely on the Institute for evaluation of various policies and programmes.
CONFERENCE THEMES

THEME 1
Social and Economic Inequalities: Emerging Perspectives

Inequality is one of the most widely discussed development problem across the world. Theories of income distribution have existed in the literature of economics since the time of Adam Smith. Several philosophers and economists have discussed inequality in their work. Ricardo characterized income distribution as the principal problem of economics. Other well-known economists like Amartya Sen and John Rawls have also examined the nature of inequality in their work. There is abundant research available on inequality undertaken by both international agencies like IMF, OECD and World Bank as well as individual scholars at the global and the country level. When inequality crosses a tripping point, it may erode social cohesion and political stability which is undesirable in a democracy.

A lot of attention has been paid to poverty than on inequality in India, but this is now changing as a result of growing inequality. There are two main arguments behind the need for inequality reduction; first is an ethical or philosophical argument according to which equality is important for its own sake (intrinsic value) while the second one believes that reduction in inequality is essential for sustainability of economic growth and well-being (instrumental value). Thus, rising inequality can result in reducing the economic growth apart from the normative dimension to equality. It is also useful to distinguish between inequality of outcome and inequality of opportunity.

Economists usually measure inequality in terms of assets, income or expenditure. Inequality of opportunity is often measured by studying non-income dimensions such as health, education, access to basic services and human development. Inequalities in income, assets and consumption are part of the income dimension while health, education, sustainability of natural resources etc. refer to the non-income dimension. Inequalities have a significant relationship with the well-being of different sections of the population.
Labour market inequalities are high all over the world. In fact, most economic and social inequalities will have a labour market dimension. Therefore, employment and wage should be given important focus for addressing the inequalities. Like many other developing countries, the Indian labour market has the characteristics of high dependence on agriculture, domination of informal sector, virtual absence of unemployment insurance or social wage, problem of ‘working poor’, a large share of self-employment, gender bias and seasonal migration. Other peculiar characteristics are that of caste, tribe, community, kinship etc. which remain important determinants of access to quality employment. Labour market segmentation is another significant aspect of inequality. Wage differentials cannot be explained by economic factors alone despite of increasing occupational and geographical mobility. Labour market inequality reflects in several manifestations such as gender, region, social identity and education-based inequalities. Female labour participation is much lower in India as compared to other countries. The most basic divide among social groups in terms of SC/ST and others in India also plays a very powerful role in labour market inequality and in employment. Although, there has been some progress in reduction of the gap, however, it continues to persist in India.

What are the policies needed to reduce inequality and raise productive employment and well-being? These policies include redistribution measures, macro policies like fiscal, monetary and trade, sectoral policies on agriculture, industry and services, skill development, policies on informal sector, labour institutions, technology, social policies on education and health, social protection policies and gender related policies. However, there is no-one size fits all for policies tackling inequality. In developed countries, more reliance on wealth and property taxes, progressive income taxation, better targeting of social benefits are needed. In emerging market countries, better access to education and health services along with well-targeted conditional transfers can help in reducing the inequality.

Rising inequalities is a concern in many advanced and developing countries of the world. An inclusive approach is needed for several reasons. In the context of ethics and humanism, equality is important for its own sake. Reducing inequality is also required for sustainability of growth. If we reduce personal, social, gender, rural-urban and regional disparities, both the objectives of ethics and growth of equality will be achieved. Lower inequalities would result in higher demand from the bottom deciles, the vulnerable and the disadvantaged sections and eventually lead to higher growth.
Against this background, papers containing empirical analysis at the macro or micro level on the following sub-themes have been invited:

- Review of trends in inequality of income and wealth
- Inequality in ownership of assets
- The pattern of economic growth and inequality
- Trends in labour markets inequality
- Gender inequality
- Inequalities in opportunity such as in health and education
- Role of affirmative action on reducing inequality
- Caste-based inequalities
- Social policy and inequalities

**THEME 2**

*Child Development – A Fair Chance to Every Child*

Child development encompasses children of all ages starting from birth to 19 years of age. Hence, the problems and issues differ from one age group to the other. Issues concerning child development deal with child survival, child nutrition, child health, child education, child protection and child rights. Gender discrimination cuts across the entire gamut of child concerns at all the ages. To give a fair chance to all children, programmes and policies will have to be put in place. The topic assumes urgency in view of the sustainable development framework adopted in July 2017 by the United Nations and targets set for the year 2030. In this context, data on 44 child related indicators identified, have been analysed in the report titled “Progress for Every Child in the SDG Era”, released in March 2018. Goal 3 on health and goal 4 on education have child specific targets and indicators.

The long-term effects of maternal and child under nutrition on economic development are well known due to the vast literature available. All forms of child under nutrition can be prevented now through a defined set of strategies, policies, and interventions. According to UNICEF, largest number of child deaths occur in sub Saharan Africa and south Asia. Infant and child mortality rates have been declining
in India over time. Yet, the regional differences are glaring in India. Urban-rural differences across the social groups and religious groups are large owing to a number of causes such as poverty, illiteracy, food inadequacy in drought years, incidence of diseases such as diarrhoea, respiratory infections due to poor sanitation, water and air pollution and lack of health facilities.

The report on progress made by the world with respect to child related SDGs emphasized the point that “the world will meet neither the 2030 SDG Targets to halve the number of stunted children nor the 2025 World Health Assembly targets to reduce the prevalence of low birth weight by 30 percent. This year’s report warns that one in seven live births (20.5 million babies born globally) was characterized by low birth weight in 2015 – many of these low birth weight babies were born to adolescent mothers.”

In India, while child mortality rates have been falling, child under-nutrition represented by underweight, stunting and wasting remains very high. India is already among the countries that would miss the target by 2030. Unlike child mortality, under-nutrition prevails not only in poor families but also among higher socio-economic groups in some of the states. Studies point to the widening inequality in the average malnutrition rates between the rich and the poor. Emerging evidence of links between inadequate sanitation, lack of toilets and malnutrition makes sanitation a policy priority. Children suffer from diarrhoea, respiratory diseases and anaemia and do not receive full immunization. Access to quality health care is limited. The link between malnutrition and impaired learning ability is another area of interest that enhances the focus on child nutrition. A number of randomized control trials have shown that the conditional cash transfers help the poor to avail public health facilities.

Along with better nutrition, now research has shown that play and early learning experiences are crucial in the initial few years as the brain grows at the maximum rate during early childhood. This leads to advocacy of pre-school education. Obtaining quality education is the foundation for creating sustainable development. In addition to improving quality of life, access to inclusive education can help in local innovation.

In India, access to education has improved and enrolments in primary and secondary schools have been impressive. Education is free to all children till 10th class. Dropout rates are high for girls and some particular social groups. However, even those in school lack basic skills in math and reading. Academic performance is
particularly poor in the residential government schools that provide better nutrition to the child and government schools that provide free mid-day meals to children. Private schools are relatively better. Teacher commitments, parental background, low cognitive skills among poor children are some of the reasons behind the poor performance of government schools. Studies based on randomized control trials have shown the importance of having additional teachers and teaching aids. There is an urgent need for improving the quality of primary, secondary and higher secondary education in India. Schools lack vocational training and skill development. Social inclusion and gender equity need to be promoted. Differently abled children need special schools.

Protection of children from violence, exploitation and abuse is important. Child labour, corporal punishments and bullying by older children in schools, child marriages, sexual abuse, drug abuse in schools are some of the common ways in which children are exploited. Though all of them are prohibited by law, child exploitation goes on unabated. Child trafficking is prevalent in many parts of the world including India.

In India, in many parts of the country, child marriages are very common. Sex selective abortion is a violence against the unborn female foetus. Girl child is more vulnerable to child abuse than a male child. Children displaced by conflict or caught in disasters need special protection. India is a signatory to United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child since 1992. Hence, it honours all the rights mentioned therein. In addition to protection from abuse, the rights cover all the aspects related child welfare and child rights. A number of legislations have been enacted over time to ensure protection of these rights.

Adolescent problems are related to various issues concerning nutrition education, protection against exploitation and abuse. Their special needs have put them in a separate category.

Papers on the following themes have been invited for the Conference:

– Issues in Child Development
– Child Health and Nutrition
– Education
– Trends in Child Development Schemes
– Child Rights
– Child Labour
India is one of the fastest growing economies in the world and has seen an increasing trend towards urbanization since many centuries. The urban population is growing in India and because of this, opportunities are increasing as well. Population and economic growth have fostered urbanization in the country and the number of urban towns and cities have drastically increased. The pattern of urbanization in India is characterized by continuous concentration of population and activities in large cities.

The nature of growth process, driven largely by an expansion of service sector, has not improved the rate of urbanization, nor has it substantially reduced crowding in agrarian sector, with still about half of the working force dependent on it. This is in sharp contrast with that of the developed countries and the newly industrialized countries, wherein growth was accompanied by the expansion of manufacturing sector. Urban development has so far received scanty attention in the planning process of the country. The limited urban growth that has occurred has been largely unplanned and informal, resulting in mushrooming of squatters and slum settlements. Furthermore, small and medium towns hardly received any attention in terms of planning and provision of infrastructure. It is only in the recent years that a major mission, titled the Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission, was launched in the country. The current government, while continuing this mission in the name of Atal Mission for
Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT), has launched a major initiative of “Smart Cities” bringing a fresh focus onto the urban planning.

There have been significant changes in the trends and patterns of the urbanisation process in recent years which have been accompanied by a large decline in agricultural employment and an increase in the non-agricultural employment even within the rural areas. It is widely believed that this process of diversification of the workforce from agriculture would continue as India is likely to experience a high rate of economic growth, coupled with the ‘youth bulge’ which is set to continue during the next couple of decades.

The current emphasis of the Government of India on manufacturing, as manifested in the slogan “Make in India”, is likely to give a further impetus to it. There has also been a distinct change in the policy regime. This includes a mega mission to transform 100 big cities into ‘Smart Cities’. Many of them would be in the proximity of large cities while others would be lower order towns. The need to revive small and medium towns to usher in a spatially balanced growth process in the country has also been conceived through AMRUT.

India, thus, is likely to witness an accelerated pace of urbanisation in the country. This has huge implications for the nature of economic activities, livelihoods, well-being of the population, access to basic services and the overall pattern of urbanisation. Given that India has a low level of urbanisation, this offers huge opportunities for launching an inclusive and sustainable urban development strategy. This is necessary to reap the benefits of the ‘Demographic Dividend’.

Launch of the strategy would require meticulous planning in terms of physical infrastructure, transport, housing, access to health facilities and sanitation, along with employment creation to ensure an inclusive urban development process. Finally, environment has been a highly neglected issue in urban development which needs to be kept at the centre given the growing recognition of the strong ecological footprints in large cities.

In the wake of the above-mentioned on-going processes, papers on the following themes have been invited:
- Trends and patterns of Urbanization
- Urban slums and squatter settlements
– Infrastructure development and urban planning
– Urban- rural inequalities
– Urban poverty
– Urban economic development and livelihoods
– Urban solid waste management
– Urban local governance
– Issues of urban governance including urban inequalities and violence
– Urban Sanitation
– Urbanity and the making of the urban middle class
Theme 1
SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC INEQUALITIES:
EMERGING PERSPECTIVES
KEYNOTE PAPER

Social and Economic Inequalities: Emerging Perspectives Inequalities in Well-being in India

S. Madheswaran, Acting Director, Institute for Social and Economic Change, Bengaluru

The rising public debate on inequality shows that it matters in the process of development. It is increasingly observed across the world the attention given in the policy arena to reduce income disparities across the population and has been gaining ground as ‘the agenda’ of many governments today. This is because the grave issue of inequality can create tensions that result in political instability and social conflicts. High inequality might imply large concentration of people either at the extreme ends of the spectrum resulting in hallowing out of the middle income group. This can cause socio-political tensions leading to rising vulnerability.

Inequality is not all about inequality of outcome (which is commonly measured by income or consumption), or inequality caused by differences in “effort,” which is referred to as “the choice variable for which a person should be held responsible” (Stiglitz, Sen, and Fitoussi 2010). There is another component of inequality, which is termed as the inequality of opportunity and is caused by differences in [exogenous or uncontrollable] “circumstances,” or “attributes of a person’s environment for which he should not be held responsible”. Inequality of opportunity is considered unacceptable under the egalitarianism principle, should be reduced and should inform the public policy design. Therefore, Well-being is a multi-dimensional concept. There are many dimensions of well-being that the economic resources are not able to capture. Income, wealth and consumption are the crude measures of the quality of life because they are not able to fully describe what people can really achieve with these resources. They cannot clearly describe the reasons behind strong differences and inequalities in standards of living among people with same income or wealth status. Therefore, other than income inequality, it is also interesting to examine inequality using non-income-based indicators such as access to education and other basic services, especially those among Social and Religious groups.
Current literature and debate on inequality largely puts emphasis and is dominated by income inequality. But there exist non-income disparities too and as Sen (1995) pointed out, society should also be concerned with inequality in different dimensions of well-being such as health, education, employment, and living conditions, among others. Further a series of widely acclaimed studies dealing with various aspects of inequality such as The Price of Inequality (2012) by Joseph Stiglitz, Capital in the Twenty-First Century (2013) by Thomas Piketty, Inequality: What Can Be Done? (2015) by Anthony Atkinson, and the Globalization of Inequality (2015) by François Bourguignon. In view of the above, this paper examines inequality in multi-dimensions of well-being and Inequality of Opportunities, with the empirical analysis carried out in the context of Indian States.

Section I: Multi-Dimensional Well Being

What is the Meaning of Well-being?

As we mentioned above, largely both in academic and policy circle, Well-Being was solely measured using per-capita GDP and related income measures but due to the rising criticisms and limitations of this measure, in the 1970’s, the focus shifted on proposing alternative measures of development. Social indicators, quality of life, and basic needs were accordingly suggested as new approaches to well-being in some of the most acclaimed studies. However, there persists a need for a conceptual framework for measuring well-being.

However, despite these indicators were related to the concept of well-being, there persist a need for a conceptual framework that defines and measures well-being. In this regard, Sen (1984, 1985, 1987) formally developed a framework.

Sen (1985) writes, “ultimately, the focus has to be on what life we lead and what we can or cannot do, or can be or cannot be”. This understanding of well-being by Sen is based on the premise of ideas of functionings and capabilities. In this context, analysis of economic development and social progress has included the conceptualisation of framework given by Sen in terms of functionings and capabilities. Though it is well-known that well-being is a dynamic, complex phenomena that includes varied domains (e.g. education, employment and work, income, housing, social relations, health, safety, leisure, political participation, public services), varied components (e.g. economic, social,

1. Hicks and Streeten (1979), Hicks (1979), Drenowski (1974), Morris (1979), Sen (1973), Streeten (1979), Sheehan and Hopkins (1979), and Dasgupta (1990)
emotional, psychological well-being) and different systems (e.g. individual, societal, local, regional, national levels), there is no unanimity on the conceptualization of different dimensions of well-being and its relations with key concepts of development. There is further no consensus on measuring and analyzing the multidimensional wellbeing (both on the level of domain-specific indicators and of comprehensive synthetic measures).

**Why is Inequality in Wellbeing important?:**

Focusing on averages can hide important underlying variation within and between population groups, places or regions. Differences in wellbeing show the gap between those who feel their lives are progressing well and those who feel they are languishing. They can show differences between groups, e.g. between Scheduled caste and Forward castes; those in and out of work; between areas. They can also show differences in wellbeing within a certain group such as SC/ST. For example, within a region what are the factors that define those who feel they are doing well compared to those who are struggling? When we make comparisons over time, increases in wellbeing averages may be entirely due those who already have high levels of wellbeing getting happier. This leaves those at the low end of the distribution unaffected, or possibly even worse off. We need to focus resources where they will make the biggest difference, which is where a better understanding of inequalities in wellbeing can help. John Helliwell,(2018) have shown how inequalities in our wellbeing vary across regions, and in which regions there are greater wellbeing ‘penalties’, such as having lower levels of education.

Based on various research and concrete initiatives developed around the globe, Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi's 2010 report outlines major key dimensions to be considered in measuring well-being. These dimensions are: (i) material living standards such as income, consumption, or wealth; (ii) health; (iii) education; (iv) personal activities including work; (v) political voice and governance; (vi) social connections and relationships; (vii) environment, both present and future conditions; and (viii) insecurity of economic as well as physical nature. These dimensions provide us a holistic list that shape well-being. Nevertheless, the report fails to recommend measurable indicators corresponding to each of these dimensions. The ensuing paragraph of the paper discusses indicators of well-being based on this framework.

It is to be pointed here that, though OECD has designed a set of indicators representing ten dimensions it would be difficult to use the same framework as most of the indicators would be not relevant for developing country like India. Based on broad guidelines
of OECD, seven dimensions viz., living conditions, work, housing condition, health status, education & skill, political and social network and indicators reflecting insecurity and economic wellbeing with twenty one indicators are used to measure well-being in the Alkire and Foster framework. Concentration Index is used to capture the inequity in multidimensional well-being across income. IHDS two waves of data i.e., 2004-05 and 2011-12 are used for analysing levels and inequity in well-being.

Multidimensional well-being households are proportionately more in urban areas and more among Brahmins, Forward Caste and religious minorities like Christians, Sikhs, Jains etc... Labourers in particular among the occupational category had lowest proportion of wellbeing households. Across States one can clearly see a link between the development and well-being i.e., States with high per capita GSDP were also the States with high percent of multidimensional well-being households. Results also indicate an association between measure of wellbeing and concentration index suggesting that inequality should be addressed to improve society’s well-being. Policies need to be designed to improve the people at the bottom of the distribution, more so among Adivasis, Dalits groups, and improve their access to different dimensions of well-being which enables people to lead a better lives.

Section II: Inequality of Opportunities

What are the dimensions of inequality that matter for human well-being? How are inequalities in different dimensions of well-being distributed among individuals, households and specific groups within a population? These two questions have long been central to discussions of inequality in development discourse and policy. By now, it is well established above that human well-being is multi-dimensional. Recent approaches see well-being as “arising from a combination of what a person has, what a person can do with what they have, and how they think about what they have and can do” (IDS, 2009). In other words, well-being has three core dimensions: the material that emphasizes practical welfare and standards of living; the relational that emphasizes personal and social relations; and the subjective that emphasizes values and perceptions. The three dimensions are interlinked and their demarcations are highly fluid.

Despite the inherent multidimensionality of human well-being, development theory has largely been concerned with inequality in the material dimension—that is, with inequalities in standards of living such as inequalities in income/wealth, education, health and nutrition. Much of this discussion has boiled down to a debate
between two perspectives: the first is primarily concerned with the *inequality of outcomes* in various material dimensions of human well-being, such as the level of income or level of educational attainment; and the second with the *inequality of opportunities* (that matter for equitable outcomes), such as unequal access to employment or education.

Unequal outcomes, particularly income inequality, it is argued, play a key role in determining variations in human well-being. This is made evident by the strong association between income inequality and inequalities in health, education and nutrition (WHO, 2008). Moreover, when the privileged exercise sufficient political control and influence, and when this kind of influence affects job availability or access to resources, then income inequality compromises the economic, political and social lives of those less privileged and limits the opportunities they have to secure their well-being (Birdsall, 2005).

If higher incomes provide people with opportunities to secure their well-being and to get ahead in life, then a person’s initial income matters. Initial income inequality can positively or negatively affect the likelihood and speed with which a person can get ahead in life. Put differently: to have meaningful equality of opportunity, income inequality needs to be moderated so that people start their lives from roughly equal starting points. The second perspective emphasizes the fact that certain individuals and groups face consistently inferior opportunities—economic, political and social—than their fellow citizens. Individuals, it is argued, can hardly be held responsible for the circumstances of their birth: their caste, sex or urban or rural location. Yet these predetermined background variables make a major difference for the lives they lead. In other words, the opportunities that people have to reach their full human potential are vastly different from the outset through no fault of their own. Not surprisingly, unequal opportunities lead to unequal outcomes (World Bank, 2006).

Specifically, the inequality of opportunity is that part of the inequality of outcomes (such as income) attributed to differences in individual circumstances such as race, gender or ethnicity. The rest is attributed to differences in ‘talent and effort’. In other words, this perspective is primarily concerned with the fairness of processes that lead to outcomes. A key difference between the two perspectives hinges on the direction of causality between outcomes and opportunities. Will higher incomes lead to improved opportunities or will greater opportunity lead to improved outcomes in human well-being? This, however, is a false dichotomy, since outcomes and opportunities are in fact highly interdependent. Equal outcomes cannot be achieved without equal
opportunities, but equal opportunities cannot be achieved when households have unequal starting points.

In view of the above, this paper also attempts to measure the equality of opportunity among children in India at state level based on two waves (2004-05 and 2011-12) of data from Indian Human Development Survey (IHDS). The measurement of access to basic services adjusted for differences associated with circumstances – commonly known as the Human Opportunity Index (HOI) is used following the World Bank methodology. This paper also adopts multidimensional framework and modifies the HOI, to account for access to multiple services to individuals and termed it as Multidimensional Human Opportunity Index (MHOI). The change in the MHOI between the two period viz. 2004-05 and 2011-12 have been decomposed into scale effect and the distribution effect.

The empirical findings of this paper show that the opportunities to access services is quite low and inequitable at all India level, except the access to safe drinking water. Over the period of seven years, there is an increase in MHOI from 26.8 to 41.1 percent and much of the increment is mainly due to scale effect (66.9 percent) and not so much due to the distribution effect (33.1 percent). Among the circumstance variables, location of residence and per capita expenditure were found to be crucial in influencing equitable access to basic services. Most of the BIMARU states had low and inequitable access to opportunities. We also found that location of residence (rural/urban) played an important factor in influencing equitable access to services at the state level. Access to most of the services in rural areas is substantially lower compared to urban areas.

Thus, policy makers whose charge is ensuring human well-being must address inequality in all of the dimensions that matter for well-being, focusing especially on those households and groups who remain so consistently on the margins of economic, social and political life.

Section III:

Missing Link Between Income Inequality and Economic Growth

There are contrasting theories on the relationship between income inequality and growth, and the empirical evidence is similarly mixed. This column highlights the neglected role of equality of opportunity in mediating this relationship. Using the World Bank’s new Global Database on Intergenerational Mobility, shekar Aiyar et.al
shows that in societies where opportunities are unequally distributed, income inequality exerts a greater drag on growth.

A surge of literature on income inequality and growth has emerged over the last two decades. On one hand, this literature addresses the causation from growth to inequality, and disputes about the Kuznets (1955) and the “augmented” Kuznets hypothesis (Milanovic, 1994), according to which economic development (and other socioeconomic and political aspects) should eventually reduce income inequality. On the other hand, the reverse causation is studied, i.e., the effects of income inequality on growth. We concentrate on this second channel of influence, whose related literature has led to controversial conclusions. The analysis of the relationship between inequality and growth suggests many channels through which inequality can affect growth. Accumulation of savings (Galenson and Leibenstein, 1955), unobservable effort (Mirrless, 1971), and the investment project size (Barro, 2000) are some of the main routes through which inequality may enhance growth. On the contrary, inequality can negatively affect growth through the following channels: unproductive investments (Mason, 1988), levels of nutrition and health (Dasgupta and Ray, 1987), demand patterns (Marshall, 1988), capital market imperfections (Banerjee and Newman, 1991), fertility (Galor and Zang, 1997), domestic market size (Murphy et al., 1989), political economy (Persson and Tabellini, 1994), and political instability (Alesina and Perotti, 1996). Thus, overall inequality would affect growth positively or negatively depending on the channels that dominate.

However, the existing empirical literature does not indicate that any of these channels has a predominant influence. As a result, the relationship between inequality and growth turns out to be ambiguous. Empirical papers tend to justify this ambiguity through the quality of data (Deininger and Squire, 1996), the inconsistent nature of inequality measures (Knowles, 2001), the type of inequality index (Székely, 2003), the econometric method (Forbes, 2000) or the set of countries considered and their degree of development (Barro, 2000). Thus, Ehrhart (2009, p. 39) acknowledges that the overall rather inconclusive econometric results suggest that either the data and the instruments are not sufficient to estimate the true relationship between inequality and growth or the transmission mechanisms really at work are different from those mentioned in the literature.

In this paper, we defend the idea based on review of literature on this area that this ambiguity can be due to the concept of inequality that has been used in the literature.
We base our argument in the idea that income inequality is actually a composite measure of at least two different sorts of inequality: inequality of opportunity (IO) and inequality of returns to effort (IE) (Roemer, 1993; Van de Gaer, 1993). As we mentioned above, Inequality of opportunity refers to that inequality stemming from factors (called circumstances) beyond the scope of individual responsibility like caste, race and socioeconomic background. Inequality of returns to effort defines the income inequality caused by individual responsible choices. This concept reflects the consequences of factors for which individuals can be held responsible like the number of hours worked and occupational choice. Thus, overall inequality can be seen as the result of heterogeneity in social origins and other factors such as the exerted effort. We hypothesize that these two types of inequality may affect growth in an opposite way. On one hand, IO can reduce growth as it favors human capital accumulation by individuals with better social origins or circumstances, rather than by individuals with more talent or skills (Loury, 1981; Chiu, 1998). The greater the IO, the stronger the role that background plays, rather than responsibility. On the other hand, income inequality among those who exert different effort can stimulate growth because it may encourage people to invest in education and effort (Mirrless, 1971). In sum, the relationship between income inequality and growth can be positive or negative depending on which kind of inequality prevails on the overall measure.

**Inequality of Opportunity and the Inequality–Growth Debate**

The last decade has witnessed an intensive debate about the effects of inequality on growth. Meanwhile, the inequality-of-opportunity literature has also increased in importance during the last decade. In this section, attempts to bring the inequality-of opportunity issue into the inequality–growth debate. Two different conceptions of equality of opportunity appear in the literature. The first one is about meritocracy (Lucas, 1995, Arrow et al., 2000). In this approach, individuals are completely responsible for their outcome (income, health, employment status, or utility). As a consequence, total inequality is due to individual responsible choices. The second conception, which has been developed over the last two decades, considers that equal opportunity policies must create a “level playing field”, after which individuals are on their own. The “level playing field” principle recognizes that an individual's outcome is a function of variables beyond and within the individual’s control, called circumstances (e.g., socioeconomic, cultural background or race) and effort (e.g., investment in
human capital, number of hours worked and occupational choice), respectively. IO refers to those outcome inequalities that are exclusively due to different circumstances. Individuals are, therefore, only responsible for their effort. The meritocracy approach is an extreme case for which circumstances are not considered.

Two sets of models have been proposed in the inequality–growth literature: models where inequality is beneficial for growth and models where inequality is harmful for growth. On one hand, we find three main reasons for a positive relationship between inequality and growth. First, income inequality is fundamentally good for the accumulation of a surplus over present consumption regardless of whether the rich have a higher marginal propensity to save than the poor do (Kaldor’s hypothesis). Then, more unequal economies grow faster than economies characterized by a more equitable income distribution if growth is related to the proportion of national income that is saved. Second, following Mirrless (1971), in a moral hazard context where output depends on the unobservable effort borne by agents, rewarding the employees with a constant wage, which is independent from output performance, will discourage them from investing any effort (Rebelo, 1991). Third, since investment projects often involve large sunk costs, wealth needs to be sufficiently concentrated in order for an individual to be able to initiate a new industrial activity. Barro (2000) proposes a similar argument for education. Accordingly, investments in physical or human capital have to go beyond a fixed degree to affect growth in a positive manner. On the other hand, we find three main sets of models in which inequality can discourage growth. The first set refers to models of economic development where three general arguments can be found (Todaro, 1994): unproductive investment by the rich (Mason, 1988); lower levels of human capital, nutrition and health by the poor (Dasgupta and Ray, 1987); and biased demand pattern of the poor towards local goods (Marshall, 1988). The second set groups models of imperfect capital markets, fertility and domestic market size. Wealth and human capital heterogeneity across individuals produces a negative relationship between income inequality and growth whether capital markets are imperfect and investment indivisibilities exist. According to the endogenous fertility approach, income inequality reduces per capita growth because of the positive effect that inequality exerts on the rate of fertility. Moreover, the production of manufactures is only profitable if domestic sales cover at least the fixed setup costs of plants. Consequently, redistribution of income may increase future growth by inducing higher demand of manufactures. Finally, the third set of models
refers to the political economy literature, where two arguments can be found. First, in a median-voter framework, a more unequal distribution of income leads to a larger redistributive policy and thus to more tax distortion that deters private investment and growth. Second, strong inequality may result in political instability.

As a conclusion from the above paragraphs, inequality may affect growth through a large variety of opposite routes. Therefore, from a theoretical perspective, the prevalence of a positive or negative relationship between overall inequality and growth depends on which channel predominates. This fact is clearly reflected by the empirical evidence linking income inequality to economic growth: cross-sectional and panel data studies are generally inconclusive. Cross-sectional analysis showing a negative relationship between both dimensions include, among others, Alesina and Rodrik (1994), Persson and Tabellini (1994), Clarke (1995), Perotti (1996), Alesina and Perotti (1996) and Alesina et al. (1996). However, other authors find a positive relationship between growth and income inequality, such as Partridge (1997) and Zou and Li (1998). Barro (2000) shows a very slight relationship between both variables when using panel data, while Forbes (2000) finds a positive relationship.

The final message to the researchers is to revisit the relationship between inequality and growth, distinguishing between the IO and IE components. Therefore there is a need to evaluate the relationship between IO and growth. For this task, the researchers can combine the growth literature from macroeconomics and the inequality-of-opportunity literature from microeconomics. Further research concerning these issues is clearly needed. However, we believe that a complete understanding of the relationship between inequality and growth requires more effort in constructing appropriated databases that properly represent social origins.
Economic inequality prevails all around the world and India is no exception to that. The fact is that India had been preoccupied with poverty eradication programmes but economic inequality has accentuated catastrophic situation for growth and development process of the country. Economic inequality and non-economic inequality have become wider area of research for why it matters and what to do about it. In today’s world it is important to sharpen measurement and to have a deeper understanding of how inequality will affect in the context of economic, social and environmental transformations.

In this paper global comparison is done on the basis of income and wealth inequality level of select countries based on stipulated criteria. Further it highlights on labour income distribution of different income group countries. The analysis affirms that informal sector is the major source for economic inequality in India among others like low productivity, exploitation of workers, unskilled labour, weak bargaining power, stringent labour laws etc are the reasons. According to the report published in the year 2018 around 57.00 percent of regular Indian employees earns ₹10000/- or less a month. This earning is well under the Seventh Central Pay Commission (CPC) minimum stipulated salary of ₹18,000 per month. India confronts the challenge of dealing with major inequality crisis in all forms. By critically evaluating literature many factors have been brought forward for the same. In-depth study is required for policy
targeting and immediate elimination of such factors. Driven by major problems like poverty, India has been suffering from policy issues keeping the goal of inclusive growth amidst inequality crisis. From the overview it is quite clear that though India has attained some progress over the years still concentrate its benefits in hands of very few. The inclusive growth factors will have to be given emphasis by policy makers to reassure their efforts to generate more productive jobs, equalise opportunities in employment, education and health. Without policies focused on such goals, India may not attain long term growth with equity. For reaping the benefits of growth to all, major structural changes are required. Many countries in the world in the same income group differ at their inequality level. This recommends for the policy review. Countries differ in their social, economic and political factors, level of technology and development and again they differ in population count. There is a need for country specific measures to reduce inequality in all forms between countries and within the boundaries of the county. Other countries in the world with same level of development shows less inequality when compared to India. Hence, India should modify its own policies by giving due importance to policies of other countries for reducing inequality.

**Crime, Inequality and Poverty:**
**Recent Empirical Evidence from NCRB Data**

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The official figures, in addition to the often-heard news on crime, largely against women, show that the rate of crime in India is an alarming number. One of the reasons why it has been hard to study the causes and consequences of crime in India is the lack of accurate crime statistics and corresponding characteristics of criminals at a macro or micro level. It is assumed that the reporting and recording of crime in India must be far from complete and could also vary across the regions and types of crime. The concern, however, remains that the reported rate of crime, (which could be an underestimated one) is notably high, with a high incidence of violent crime, especially, the heinous crime against women. The recent statistics from the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) also reveals that the rate of crime is highly uneven across the states and cities of India like with many other development indicators. It is
argued that the crime of different nature is sensitive to some of the socio-economic indicators and policy measures. Given the rise in income inequality in India and wide divergence in growth rates across the states, the study attempts to revisit the empirical relationship between crime, poverty and inequality along with other socio-economic indicators using the latest available crime data from the national crime records bureau. We use the stepwise regression to estimate three initial models separately for an overall rate of crime under IPC, rate of violent crime and rate of property crime as dependent variables with relevant socio-economic indicators as independent variables. Percentage of minority population, sex ratio, literacy rate, poverty rate, per capita state domestic product, human development rank, unemployment rate, gini coefficient, gross enrolment ratio in college per lakh of population, pass out ratio from college, actual population per policeman, percentage of urban population are taken as independent variables in the initial model. Regression analysis conducted using the forward method of stepwise regression retains only two models as none of the variables explained the rate of property crime. Gini coefficient representing income inequality and sex ratio emerges as two significant variables explaining the overall rate of crime, and poverty and unemployment emerge significantly explaining the violent crime in India. The current study stands in support of earlier studies carried at a global level that income inequality and weakening of social structures are a cause of crime. The empirical evidence also supports the Merton’s strain theory and Social Disorganization theory by Shaw and McKay that individuals who are low in social structure are frustrated by their failure to achieve the material attributes of success and this failure is more significant when faced with the success of those around them. Social disorganization theory, on the other hand argues that crime takes place due to the weakening of mechanisms of social control.

**Peep into the Pathways of Women Prisoners:**

**Social Revelations of Inequalities**

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Individuals take birth in the womb of the society of which they become natural members by birth. The formation of social institutions converts individuals into institutionalized individuals in the sense that they are subjected to the rules and
norms that were developed by society to be followed by all members of that society. Many questions arise when we confront relative locations-cum-values in a particular society. Does it make sense for a woman to assert herself in a public place when she is looked upon as ‘commodity’ in public place? Does it make sense for a young lonely lady (abandoned, widowed, separated) to expect to live a life free from prying looks of the neighbours? Should a person without any property be asked whether he values honesty or money? The point in short is, do the apparently vulnerable sections of the society have the right to survive and live with dignity? The very processes by which the people in the front seat of the society-economy attained the front seat are the reasons why they should open the path for inclusion of ‘others’ at least to get some seat.

The historical evidence reveals that women had been the foundation stone of a family and society. Given the patriarchally construed gender roles in the Indian society, women have been seen as the preserver of social norms, traditions, customs, morality and family cohesiveness. At the outset when we try to understand the pathways to the crime of women, we tend to assume them as criminals (or as crime doers). The practical experiences reveal that most of the women convicted as criminals are silent victims of the pathetic judicial system. They were in the trap of indifferent judicial system and often battered by the police to forcefully admit to crimes even not committed. Many women were not even aware of their crime. They were somehow in the victims of conditions that were detrimental to them. These women are sentenced for heinous crimes like murder, theft, NDPS etc. and ordered to suffer prison terms life term or more than ten years. These women languishing in jails often fail to understand the legal procedures and due to their poor socio-economic background, they fail even to fight their legal battle. Therefore, it’s also a case of mere submission or fait accompli. In such circumstances it is difficult to understand the pathways to crime, and rather the focus turns to more on the pathways to imprisonment and punishment wherein poverty and ignorance become prime drivers.
Inequalities in Labour Market Participation across Social Groups in India: Review and Evidence from NSS Data

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The Indian economy in recent years is characterized by high unemployment and labour market inequalities across social groups. The vision of creating an inclusive and enriched India in coming years is possible when all sectors and all sections of the country participate in the growth process. The Lewisian transformation is still awaited in most part of the country where still large sections of the population are depending on agriculture and the majority of agricultural labourer belongs to the bottom of social hierarchy. It seems that the mobility of labour for better earning among these classes is very low. In this context, occupational segmentation theory and human capital theory in labour market participation are largely relevant. The present paper using data from the National Sample Survey Organisation examines the social and economic attainment of households and occupational classification of households belonging to different social class on the basis of Indian administrative classifications such as Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribe (ST), Other Backward Class (OBC) and Others. The OBCs, being a recent phenomenon have a maximum proportion of households in successive NSS rounds. The land holding status of households reveals that Scheduled Caste households lag far behind other social classes, however, irrespective of social classes, there was a gradual decline in the land ownership as the land size goes up. This signifies that gradually land is being subdivided and turning out to become small and marginal. Relatively a higher proportion of households belonging to Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population work as agriculture labourer. The educational status of households reveals a gradual increase in literacy over successive NSS rounds. Literacy level in the urban area is better than in rural areas and males perform better than their female counterparts in both regions. However, the educational attainment, especially under higher education and technical skills components SC and ST households lag far behind which have its implications on the participation in the labour market.

The analysis also reveals that irrespective of gender and region, the SC and ST households have reported a lower rate of unemployment, which indicates they cannot
afford to remain unemployed due to their poor economic position. Therefore, the nature of their work would be rather because of economic compulsion. The data reveals that SC and ST households mostly concentrates under casual work component both in rural and urban areas and further that these households have fewer shares under the self-employment category, both in rural and urban areas. This may be due to the fact that these households lack adequate resources and have the poor educational and skill base, preventing them to initiate self-employment economic activities, consequently, poverty ratio is higher among them. The study recommends industrialization and developing entrepreneurial mind among the lower strata of society to finds gainful self-employment as well as wage employment. Adequate emphasis needs to be laid on the small and tiny sector by developing the base of infrastructure such as skills, training, credit, market support etc. This could, to some extent reduce the socio-economic discrimination and deprivation to population belonging these sections of society.

Intergenerational Educational and Occupational Mobility among Scheduled Caste in India

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Low socioeconomic mobility among SC’s in Indian society often entails social exclusion, inequalities and impoverishment. The historically persistent social exclusion and discrimination limited the capability formation of SC’s, alienated them from mainstream development and that has spillover effect for the successive generations. In the globalised era the market openness, structural transformation and social change underway provided equality in opportunity across caste group and is breaking down the caste-based barriers. To bring convergence in socioeconomic opportunities across the social groups and reduce caste-based inequality, a number of welfare measures and affirmative policies have been implemented. Convergence of social classes in accessing socioeconomic opportunities during the development process has been taking place however, that may not be transmitted to all subsection of the community in a scenario of widening economic inequality. The present study explores intergenerational mobility in education and occupation among scheduled caste community in rural Bihar. Contrary to the available studies that treated scheduled caste as a homogenous
entity, this paper examines the pattern of intergenerational mobility within SC’s; and explores the underlying mechanisms responsible for this through a primary study of ten villages of Gaya- one of the districts with highest prevalence of SC population in Bihar.

Mobility across generation was measured through the transition matrix and linear regression analysis has been applied to explore the correlates of mobility. The results show family characteristics, financial resources and redistributive measures of the state mainly shaped the opportunities for moving upward in the social class. The study finds a gradual incremental change at the lower level of education and occupation-a reflection of low vertical mobility. The findings of the present study support the evidence that intergenerational stickiness in certain occupation as substantial proportion of low-skilled and low-paid workers’ sons remained in the same occupations as their fathers and hence, low occupational mobility. However, the shift from agricultural to non-agricultural labourer also is an indication of the weakening of patron-client relationship in the caste-based society and upward social mobility.

Public policies of the state are succeeded to some extent in closing the gaps in socioeconomic inequalities, however, had a little impact on reducing intra-caste inequalities as the economic returns to these programmes are limited for the marginalised social class. The redistributive measures of the state have not addressed adequately the vertical inequality within the scheduled caste; thus, the state has to create enabling environment and policy responses to mainstream the more disadvantaged group into the process of development.

**Gender Differentiated Impacts of Ecological Changes and Capital Transformation on the Labour Processes and Division of Labour within Fisheries**

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While focus on fisheries itself has itself been limited in academic research, little attention has been paid to the role of fisherwomen and their coping mechanism in the face of capital transformation and environmental changes within fisheries. In this paper, I seek to focus on the effects of fish depletion due to various factors on the labour processes within fisheries. Gender is an important axis of differentiation that shapes
one’s relationship with the environment. Through this study, I also try to look into the impact of ecological changes on gendered labour processes. Artisanal and small-scale fishers have been affected the most by the changing environmental conditions as many of them have been forced to work as waged labourers under boat owners or migrate in search of better economic opportunities. With the decline in fish stock and the corresponding loss of livelihoods of fishermen, the dependence on women’s work has increased over time, in order to meet household needs. In this development, women are increasingly expected to participate in economic processes, but at the same time, they are constrained by structural factors that impinge upon their involvement in economic activities which also tends to have an effect on their coping mechanisms. Gender norms inform men’s and women’s life experiences and economic processes differentially; within these norms, space and time are conceptualized differently for different genders. This differentiation, in turn, plays a key role in the livelihood strategies that each social group adopts. Fishermen’s absence from the households on account of long fishing expedition or migration to neighbouring towns and cities leads to redefining of the existing patterns of division of labour within families. Loss of livelihood opportunities within fisheries has increased the periods of such absences during which fisherwomen are expected to take over the reins in managing their households in the absence of their husbands. This results in the redefining of gender relations within households as well as on the outside.

Literature has pointed out that while fisherwomen are marginalised within the hegemonic gender framework, they are also consistently engaged in negotiating with the structure to enable their participation in labour processes. Such social and moral constraints are specific to women’s labour mainly, stressing on the need to understand fisherwomen’s labour. The relationship between gender and labour processes is studied with the underlying premise that gender does not operate in a vacuum, it operates along with other forms of social stratification in the society in the form of caste, class, religion, ethnicity, and age to produce diverse experiences even within a gendered population. Therefore, the gendered division of labour in fisheries cannot be completely generalised as it varies with respect to a host of other factors, at least in praxis even if cultural notions exist to the contrary. As these changes in the labour processes demonstrate a connection, it is important to address the inter-linkages between capitalist modernisation, environmental changes, change in labour relations, and migration while looking into their cumulative effect on the gendered division of labour in fisheries.
Gender Inequality in Agricultural Wages and Employment: 
Some Evidence from Cuttack District in Coastal Odisha

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Women are discriminated in the rural labour market by being engaged in low-paid and low-status jobs and lower wages than that of their male counterparts for similar work. The paper aims to analyse gender-based inequality in agricultural wages and employment in Cuttack district in coastal Odisha. To examine the impact of technological change on gender discrimination in wages and employment, data was collected from 50 female labourers, 20 male labourers and 10 employers in one non-irrigated village and a nearby irrigated village via direct interview method through designed questionnaires. On the basis of survey findings, the paper concludes that even with agricultural development and technological change, gender-based wage differential persists. These disparities in wages arise from the gender-based specialization of specific farm operations. Agricultural operations such as transplanting and weeding which carry lower wages are largely performed by female workers while operations such as ploughing, sowing, fertilizer application, spraying pesticides and post-harvest operations with relatively higher wages are performed by male workers. At the same time for the same work, female labourers are paid lower wages than male. There are also different modes of the wage payment system in the village namely daily wage rate, piece rate and share rate. For the female specific jobs like transplanting, employers prefer to pay wages on a piece rate basis to extract the maximum work effort from the female labourers. Female labourers accept lower wages due to their immobility as they have to take domestic work burden as well. The paper suggests that there is a need to reduce the male-female wage disparity by enforcing the laws and regulations on equal pay for equal work, improving working conditions and empowerment of female agricultural labourers.
Our contemporary moment is a moment of rising inequality. Economists such as Thomas Picketty, Joseph Stiglitz and Amartya Sen have drawn our attention to the problems of rising global economic inequality within and across nations. But their critiques of rising global economic and social inequality is not consciously accompanied by visions, practices and movements of global responsibility. In my presentation, I would like to offer a contemporary critique, reconstitution and transformation of global inequality by linking it to new visions, practices and movements of global responsibility. In the accompanying text, I elaborate visions and practices of global responsibility and in my presentation, I would develop further critiques of contemporary global inequality and link to new visions and practices of global responsibility.

Globalization is now in every body’s lips but some crucial issues related to it such as justice, responsibility and dialogue have received little attention in both theory and practice. It is by now incontrovertible that we live in a more globally interconnected world but what should be the character and direction of this evolving globality? Should globalization mean only economic globalization, and even corporate globalization, or should it mean humanization and planetary realizations? Corporate globalization with its slavish surrender to technology and profit maximization presents us a narrow view of human person in terms of economic self-interest and technical mastery. But globalization as humanization strives for a fuller human realization and for integral development (spiritual, political, economic and social) of self and society. Globalization as humanization seeks to ensure universal self-realization of each of us. Universal self-realization refers to processes by which all of us can realize ourselves in
terms of elementary practices of human development such as food and freedom and realize our potential. Planetary realizations refer to a new cosmopolitan realization that all of us are children of Mother Earth and it calls for transformation of existing boundaries of rationality, nation-state and anthropocentrism. Planetary realizations involve post-national transformations which go beyond the boundaries of nation-states and is reflected in contemporary transnational citizens’ movements around the world for peace and justice which is a counter to rising xenophobia and politics of hatred emerging around the world. It also involves transformation of anthropocentrism suggesting that this world does not belong only to humans and human beings are now challenged to overcome their human primacy and embody responsible guardianship of all species on earth.

In my presentation, I explore how we can bring a responsibility frame to bear upon the challenge of global inequality today. Responsibility here includes both initiatives in justice—global justice—as well dialogues across cultures and civilizations. I explore how cross-cultural dialogue and transcivilizational conversations on the meaning of good life, equality, quality and meaning of life leading to a realization that for realizing good life one does not have to be a slave of money and materialism can help us transform the contemporary pathologies of social and economic inequalities.

**Uneven Human Development:**
**Impact of Political Governance and Stability**

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Presence of the different languages and communities make Indian culture rich and diverse. This cultural diversity clubbed with political diversity represents different ideologies which makes India socially as well as a politically diverse country. India has such a federal structure where legal decision-making power has been distributed across national, state and local governments. There exist huge regional disparities in terms of human development in India unlike the other developed federal structure such as Canada, USA, Australia and the EU (Kelkar, 2019). Moreover, India has been experiencing a strong inter-state migration which in turn influences considerable ambiguity in revenue receipts and expenditure demand which eventually brings in political pressure. In India, state wise disparity in revenue generation capacity, government spending and variations in public services indicate a violation of the
principle of “horizontal equity” or “equal treatment of equals” in a federal structure. There is no second opinion that it might not be politically viable in India to bring in corrective adjustment such as where richest State with much more per capita GSDP of the poorest can entirely offset the fiscal incapacities to permit the low income states for equalising their per capita expenses which would decrease these increasing disparities (Rao, 2017). Hence, central transfer and own plan outlay and grants to the states based on the recommendations of the Finance Commissions became very crucial for the long run development of the states. The trend of disparity in central transfers leads to mounting variations in infrastructure levels and human development causing divergence of incomes across Indian states. A detailed analysis of the determining factor of the degree of association between political concentration and fiscal federalism for human development of an economy should be the priority to understand the potential and net effective development of the economy.

A new human development index has been constructed on the basis of the income, health and education indicators for 15 major Indian states. A new ‘effective number of political party’ index is constructed using the HHI (Herfindahl-Hirschman Index) method to capture the degree of the government coalition. Further, ‘fractionalization index’ and ‘polarization index’ are created to measure social diversity and social polarization. The share of female representatives in the legislative assembly has been included to estimate the degree of social inclusion. Moreover, political federalism has been estimated through the proportion of number of Member of Parliament from winning party elected from the State. This study tries to measure the impact of the degree of the government coalition, political federalism, as well as social structure on the human development of the study states by using dynamic panel data analysis.

The research study supports the theoretical explanation of the impact of the political and social structure on the development. The political decision mechanism has a very important role in the process of development. Delay in the political decision will always affect development adversely. Social polarization can have a social cost. On the other hand, inclusive politics is important for inclusive development. Therefore, the policies and efforts should be taken to stabilize the government and increase the inclusiveness of politics. The research shows that the political stability, political inclusiveness and political decisions are important factors which determine the development for Indian
states. It is recommended that institutions must be constructed and restructured to stabilize the government. Monopolized government i.e. government formed by one party with the absolute majority is not good for human development but even if more parties are forming the government, parties should encourage dialogues among themselves so that there won’t be any lags in the decision-making system as well in the process of the implementation.

**An Analysis of Labour Migration from BIMARU States of India: Policies to Reduce the Inequalities**

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The term ‘BIMARU’ was coined to address the states of India which were ill-performing in terms of economic growth. These states are Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh and Uttarakhand; this paper focuses particularly on Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh (BIMARU). It aims at analysing the trends and patterns of migration in BIMARU states of India by using the Census 2011 data. It highlights that the BIMARU states contribute 30 per cent to the total migration in India. The study also observes that rural migration to total migration of India at all ages in the BIMARU states has been exorbitant high compared to urban migration to the total population. Moreover, in the total rural migration out of all ages, the persons in their working-age i.e. from 15 years to 65 years are the ones who prominently migrate. Interestingly, by using descriptive analysis and ANOVA the paper has noticed that the education wise migration pattern in these states are very similar. As the working population is asset for any economy and is the one which adds to the net value of the economy, the paper specifically tries to find reasons for migration from these states. ‘Marriage’ and ‘moved with households’ has been the dominant reason for migration in all the four states followed by ‘work/employment’. It is worth noticing that the BIMARU states have not shown significant development despite huge ratio of migrant population, contradicting the concept that higher migration reduces poverty. By analysing the Census data on migration from
these states, the paper proposes policy recommendation towards due recognition of the abundant resources these states have and linking them with the labour force by instilling appropriate skills in them. The paper recommends that the Ministries of Rural Development, along with other Union Ministries, States Department of Rural Development and gram panchayats can build profound grounds to reduce potential migration from the BIMARU states. The study suggests using the Germanic model of skill development rather than the existing Anglo-Saxon model for skill development in these states. The study also suggests ‘targeted investment’ and ‘spread effect’ for growth of these states taking examples from the Canadian model and ‘development of steel cities’ in India respectively.

**Social Enterprises for Equitable Education:**

**A Case of Innovative CSR Model**

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Education is essential for development of a person not only for making him better person but it also enhances his chances of employability and to grow in this era of knowledge for progress. Availability of quality education at preliminary level and specially its availability at government schools become necessary for children belonging to socio-economic backward family. As education is only means to bring underprivileged children from perpetual cycle of poverty and to facilitate development of integral society by defeating caste phenomena in distribution and availability of education, policy interventions are required for equitable distribution of children in private schools for equity in education. Further, geographical disparity is also required to be fought out. Present scenario reflects that quality education is not being limited by geographical constraint for the elite class. So, if there is will, the same can be made available to the poor people as well. CSR could play great role in this endeavor as well.

Corporate social responsibility is now mandatory for the companies and hence it has started applying innovative CSR models, which helped in complying legal
aspects, earns good will and certificate of ethical behaviour by the larger society for
direct benefit given to community and society at large and leveraging benefit for the
company as well. Though some companies have a good record of CSR activities
and on broader terms undertaken important initiatives earning accolades from outer
world, yet at micro level some sections are left behind and they require policy and
planning intervention. This gap can be fulfilled by collaboration and partnership
with social enterprises which require corporate funds and investment for sustaining
and scalability. Many industries are located in districts which are categorized as least
developed like Sonebhadra district of Uttar Pradesh, Singrauli of Madhya Pradesh,
Korba of Chhattishgarh, Bongaigaun of Assam etc. These industries have positive
externalities like improved connectivity, employment opportunities, hospitals with
modern equipment and qualified practitioners, state-of-the-art schools run by
premier institutions like DAV Public School, Convent schools, central schools etc.
To illustrate, in Myorepure block of Sonebhadra district, based on the information
collected from Block officer, for assessing the current poverty scenario, there was
a total 1458 households below poverty line among five Gram Panchayats, Bijpur,
Sirsoti, Dodhar, Jarha and Nemna. Out of this 47 % or 689 people belong to SC/ST
communities. Further, BPL households were highest in Nemna and Jarha. Moreover
this paper reflects that government schools have children from poor and lower caste
family background while rich and children belonging to upper castes are studying in
public schools. Moreover, government schools are deprived of basic facilities while
private schools have state-of-the-art facility supported by government agencies. For
fighting such situations for equitable distribution, multiple actions should be taken
like supporting local NGOs for setting library-cum-coaching centers for preparing
competitive examinations in each and every village. Further, self-study centers for girls
and boys separately should be developed in different locations of each village. For
harnessing maximum capacity of public schools of the township, one third strength
of these schools should be reserved for poor strata of the society by issuing loan
coupons following social enterprise model. As education is national resource, it should
be provided to all segments of the society and hence all industries either in public
sector or in private sector should develop innovative CSR for initiating, collaborating
and partnering with social enterprises for developing human resources in their locality
for inclusive growth and development.
The State of Food Security of Farm and Labour Household with a Special Reference to Tea Plantation in the Nilgiris

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There seems to be a growing concern with respect to the linkage between trade and other development goals of a nation-state in general and its potential impact on food security, in particular. The process of trade reform effect on food security is studied mainly through two channels: whether global food availability is affected by imports and exports between nations and, secondly, whether a given country’s food availability is dependent on imports and production (FAO, 2003). It is in this context that the issue of a possible linkage between trade and food security gained momentum in the academic literature and policy making in the late 1990s. In this context, it is important to take look at series of case studies undertaken by FAO as part of assessing the impact of the WTO Agreement on Agriculture (AoA) on agricultural trade in general and food security in particular. Even though the findings of the studies were inconclusive, they did bring trade and food security issue to the forefront of discussion. It can be observed that during this reform period, household incomes increased to the extent of claiming a reduction in poverty. However, stocking of food grains by the government drove up their prices leading to a reduction in the consumption of cereals and thereby to a protein and calorie deficiency problem, a major indicator of food security. Thus, reforms came to be criticized on the ground that they led to an increase in the prices and to a subsequent reduction in the consumption of food grains. For instance, post 1991 reforms, both the procurement and wholesale prices of wheat and rice increased more than the general price index in India, thereby increasing the retail and the Public Distribution System (PDS) prices, which, in turn, resulted in a decline in the per capita food consumption (FAO, 2006). In addition to this, the net per capita availability of food grains registered a sharp fall from 501 gm per day in 1991 to 443 gm as of 2007 (Saxena, 2011).

Within a rural household, the consumption and nutritional deficiency differed across farm and labour household (FAO, 2006): In that, while labour households in India experienced a marginal deprivation of cereals while was offset by the consumption of other nutrition-rich commodities such as pulses, fruits and vegetables,
farm households faced a greater nutritional deficiency in view of a sharp decline in the consumption of cereals and other products such as fruits, vegetables or livestock products. It is against this background that this paper examines the state of food security in the context of tea plantations in the Nilgiris. The reason for choosing the plantation sector for a comprehensive analysis lies in its export potential as well as its importance in meeting the domestic requirements. In the process, it acts as a major channel for employment generation and poverty alleviation programs in the rural sector.

### Caste Discrimination in Access to Maternal Health Benefit Scheme (JSY) in India: Evidence from NFHS Data

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The implementation of welfare schemes, in general, in India is biased against targeted group due to caste identity. In this context, the paper investigates the access to maternal health benefit (JSY) among different social groups to establish that caste still plays a pivotal role and quantify the discrimination faced by scheduled groups in accessing it.

Paper uses NFHS-IV 2015-16 data. Fairlie decomposition model is used to determine the discrimination and benefit in accessing JSY by scheduled and non-scheduled groups respectively.

It is found that there due to endowment variables the access to JSY is explained by 72%. The remaining unexplained percentage indicates that there is caste discrimination against SC/ST’s in access to JSY. The highest difference between the SC/ST and non-SC/ST in access to JSY is wealth quintile and the positive sign indicates that the gap between SC/ST and non-SC/ST is widening more around 54%.

It is deemed necessary for the government to implement a better way to counter the caste-based discrimination in access to maternal health benefit. In this regard, ASHA and Anganwadi workers must be trained to identify the right beneficiary to get the JSY benefit which could reduce the influence of dominant caste groups.
Supermarkets and Smallholders in India –
A Case Study of Reliance Fresh

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Drawing upon insights from growing strand of value chain literature, the present paper examines primary data collected from farmers supplying cauliflower and spinach to Reliance Fresh in the outskirt of Jaipur to understand implication for farmer households of emergence of supermarket in a smallholder dominated setting. The paper finds that as a lead firm, Reliance Fresh is adopting flexible models of sourcing, devoid of any resource provision, to procure fresh produce of required quality and standards. This means that the integrated supply chain solution that is suggested by advocates of liberalization of FDI in the retail sector is not happening in the present Indian context. While the extant literature on supermarket focus on marginalization of smallholders through simple binary of exclusion or inclusion, the question of heterogeneous nature of smallholder participation in value chain of different crops and its distributional implication is overlooked. The present paper makes an attempt to address this gap. The study notes that barrier to participation of smallholders in supermarket driven agri-food system varies across crops, depending on resource intensity of crops. Participation of smallholders, poorly endowed with human and physical capital, is limited in resource intensive crop such as cauliflower because of high entry barrier in terms of requirement of assets. In contrast, entry barrier is low for smallholders in labour intensive crop such as spinach, but competition among them, endowed with family labour, bid the rent down to the minimum. Gini decomposition exercise indicates that the emergence of supermarket driven agri-food system has adverse distributional consequence in rural agrarian setting. An increase in share of produce sold to RF by farmer households in the sample has the effect of accentuating inequality of farm income. Such effect is relatively higher in case of cauliflower where smallholders face high entry barrier because of high resource intensity of the crop.

In larger context, the form and shape of supermarket driven agrarian value chain and its welfare implications for smallholders are shaped by rural India’s political economy. The past two and half decades of India’s economy have witnessed insertion of agri-business driven value chain, accompanied by increasing withdrawal of the state from the provision of extension services. Promotion of wholesale market with better
infrastructure and encouragement of farmer federation as institutional innovations are suggested for inclusive agri-food marketing system. The study further notes that the state needs to play an active role by enacting new regulatory measures, encouraging supermarkets to come forward with contract, entailing resource provision to enable smallholder participation. Such contract would reduce entry barrier for resource poor smallholders and make value chain more effective.

**Performance and Growth of Percussion Artists in the Percussion Art Industry: A Narrative Analysis**

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Competition within professions is an inevitable factor today. The dynamics within each profession vary greatly which in turn influences the fortunes of some, allows some to grow while keeping others marginalised. The percussion art industry is no exception. While formal sectors of the economy receive attention and more support, the problems of the informal sector do not find much expression which also blocks an outsider vision to these issues. The percussion artists are part of such an informal economy. The paper attempts to identify both internal and external factors that function within the Kerala temple percussion art forms which impede the prospects of performance and growth of percussion artists. We have collected primary data from thirty artists through in-depth interviews and analysed them using the analytic frame of narrative analysis. The study finds that factors such as caste, income, institutional affiliations and social networks work in myriad and overlapping ways to promote or marginalise the artists.

One of the major conclusions arrived at through the analysis is that there exists a very strong caste dimension operating in the growth trajectories of these artists. To overcome the stigma of being born in a particular caste category, one needs to have access to influential upper caste social networks. Suggestions for policy formulations have also been attempted at the end, after a thorough analysis of the livelihood strategies, performance opportunities and prospects of growth of the percussion artists.
The high inequality in the distribution of income and land assets continues to be a prominent feature of agrarian society in Tamil Nadu despite well-known State welfare programmes. In terms of both relative income and land assets, Schedule Castes still stand at the bottom of socio-economic status/hierarchies. In this background, the paper investigates into the nature and extent of inequality in land assets prevailing between Scheduled Caste vis-a-vis other social groups in the State. The paper also looks into how land inequality plays a significant role in causing multiple deprivations and accentuate accumulation of resources and power among certain groups. The analysis in the paper is based on extensive use of data drawn from Census, Agricultural Census, National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) and All India Debt and Investment Survey (AIDIS) reports.

The findings of the study underline a complete failure of land reforms in Tamil Nadu in altering the prevailing inequality in land ownership pattern. We found a higher degree of rural proletarianisation among the SCs in the State. There has been a consistent decline in the share of cultivators among the SCs (from 18.4 per cent in 1971 to 7 per cent in 2011). Moreover, as far as the quality and viability of land under possession are concerned, the share of un-irrigated holdings and unviable parcels are quite high among the SCs. The incidence of near landlessness (homestead holdings - 78 per cent against other 59 per cent) and agricultural labourers is quite high among the SC households. The marginalization of landholding has forced many SC households to take up the job of agricultural labourers and other menial work. Since the nineties increased diversification of the agricultural workforce to the non-farm sector is evident among the SC and Others in the State. Such occupational diversification has not helped
SC households significantly improve their economic conditions as a significant chunk of them work as casual labourers.

Land deprivation encouraged the rural poor such as landless, marginal and small farmers to lease-in land in order to enhance agricultural income. The leasing-in and leasing out was found highest among the landless households’ ranges between 65-75 per cent across social groups. Within the marginal holdings, SCs households have leased-in the highest (34 per cent) followed by Other Backward Caste (OBCs). Similarly, a high share of leasing out by the SC farmers who are themselves marginalized indicates de-peasantisation as an outcome of distress due to possessing unviable holding. With the present poor state of agriculture, such a high dependency on the land market implies a greater vulnerability of this group. The possession of land asset is the decisive factor in determining the household’s income, investment, socio-economic standing and borrowing capacity in the informal market. The deprivation in owning land asset, therefore, remains a significant cause in preventing the owning of non-land asset(s) and higher incidence of socio-economic deprivations among SCs households in the rural agrarian society. For example, the lack of ‘bankable assets’ deprive them access to the formal credit market and led to higher reliance on informal credit market to meet their financial needs. The increasing financial liberalization of banking institutions and relaxation terms of conditions and implementation of “Priority Sector Lending” rules have also played their critical roles in a reduction in access to the formal credit sources and increasing dependence on formal credit sources (from 36 per cent to 69 per cent from 1991 to 2003) in general and for the weaker section in particular. Similarly, a visible trend of decline in availing borrowing at concessional rate of interest among SCs also indicates the reduction in the state support measures in the formal credit market.

**An Essay on Economic Inequality: The Genesis of Envy and Happiness**

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With the recent advancement in behavioural economics, the idea of rationality has been redesigned to analyse human behaviour when it comes to decision making. Presently, it is also trying to understand various aspects such as envy and happiness. Although both
of them are subjective in nature, economists have mostly focused on the latter. While
the latter is considered as a measure of welfare by the utilitarianists, the former had
been responsible for the emergence of various social and political revolutions.

Hirschman and Rothschild’s tunnel effect theory was among the first economic
theories to bring in the idea of envy in economic literature. To briefly state the theory;
the theory exemplifies a two-way tunnel where the cars are stuck in a traffic jam. If a
person sitting in a car in one of these tunnels sees the cars in the other tunnel have
started moving, he might expect that the traffic jam will get over soon and he will be
able to move forward with his car. However, if that doesn’t happen after a certain
point in time, he might feel ‘envious’. The example had been used to describe how
heterogeneous societies in developing economies respond to uneven growth. Initially,
there will be a tolerance for inequality as the economy grows. However, after a certain
point of time, if the benefits of growth don’t reach everyone, this tolerance will cripple
down into envy.

The present essay tries to argue how the tunnel effect can be a starting point in
understanding economic crimes, crimes against minorities, riots, and others. Secondly,
by disentangling the concepts of relative deprivation and inequality, it argues how envy
is more closely related to relative deprivation rather than inequality. However, it doesn’t
try to undermine the impact of inequality on envy, as inequality has its implications on
the way institutions work and their responses to economic changes.

The second part of the essay tries to discuss the literature on happiness by beginning
with the theory of Easterlin paradox. This section discusses various attempts made by
different economists to define Easterlin paradox. The essay brings up the explanations
given by Clark, which is based on social comparison and income adaption. Besides,
Clark also made propositions on the difference between happiness and utility, the
relevance of reference points and the challenges that might come up while working
with the happiness data. It has been argued that happiness increases with the increase
in one’s own income, and decreases with the increase in others’ income (external
reference income) and own aspirations.

From the theoretical and empirical literature on envy and happiness, the essay
concludes how both of these aspects are dependent on inequality. Although happiness
increases with the increase in relative income or, say, the decrease in others’ income;
envy increases with the increase in others’ income. However, the relationship between envy and happiness is not linear; rather, there are intersections which make it more complex. At a given point of time, a person can be happy considering the fact that his income has increased over the past few years (based on internal reference points). At the same time, he might feel envious because his income is lower in comparison to the others.

Challenges of Elected Presidents of Dalits: A Study on Gram Panchayats in Telangana and Andhra Pradesh

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The successful functioning of the panchayats largely depends upon the availability of resourceful, imaginative, and active grassroots leadership. Still there are doubts on the functioning of the system in terms of leadership, functional aspects of administration, elections, development and welfare in the political process of building democratic-political society. The last decadal studies (Singh 1986; Khanna 1966; Mathur, Narain, and Sinha 1966; Sinha 1966; Desai 1969; Reddy and Sheshadri 1972; Rao and Hazarika 1978; Sharma 1979; Jain et al., 1985; Patil and Kittur 1990; Biju 1995) have signified different position and brought minor modifications in different cases. In this contextual lacuna, the study tried to understand the dynamics of grassroots politics of elected presidents of Dalits in the eve of 25th year of the 73rd Amendment to the Constitution by 2017 which given constitutional rights to representation of SCs. In such situations and political dynamics of elected presidents of Dalits at grass roots, the study tried to understand leadership issues. It was observed that electoral politics has been a major draw as the lack of financial resources made them dependent on locally strong land holding families. Institutional decision making at respective gram panchayats became an issue of dependency on Deputy Sarpanches who were generally from feudal classes. Overwhelming majority reported that they had good relations with people during their tenure though social tensions and conflicts were evident in the village politics. It was observed in Manthani Gram Panchayat of Nizamabad district, as the Sarpanch mentioned, that “it is indispensable to be good with people otherwise they (land holding castes) create troublesome situation in the village. We have Village
Development Council in the village which consists of all castes but the decisions take only by them (Guradi Kappu). These (Guradi Kappu) are influential people and can control politics. They meet any demand which rises any point of time whether it may be money matter or anything else. Majority in the village are dependent on them for money in urgency.

Major problems include discrimination in allocating funds between SCs/SCs Sarpanches and other Castes. The reason is that leaders of SCs don’t meet higher level elected leaders but in the case of others’ leaders, they always roam along with leaders and get funds from different sources. They cannot depend only on funds from 14th Finance Commission but also try to get for other sources. This is the reason why other leaders spend huge amount of money during elections. Study found that there must be political mobility through which there would be possibility to get more funds. Another important observation is that there is inferiority among these (SCs and STs) leaders. Because of inferiority, leaders cannot meet others but other castes’ leaders meet regularly. The dynamics of traditional village committees and village leaderships are also vibrant in the rural political systems which are also to great extent hurdles to the marginal leadership.

**Income Inequalities among Marginal and Small Farmers Community in Uttar Pradesh: A Field-Based Study**

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Growing inter- and intra-state income inequalities have been at the centre stage of policy discourse in India. A disaggregated analysis of income inequalities among agricultural households and the associated factors can be useful in deliberating the role of public policies. Agriculture and farmers have always been a matter of great issue of concern in countries like India. The study has analysed farm households’ access to a different source of income and inequality, based on the field survey in Uttar Pradesh.

In the era of doubling of farmers’ income, the primary survey data indicate large inequalities of income among marginal and small farmers through different sources like cultivation, agriculture labour, animal farming, non-farm income and
small businesses. Among these farmers groups, negative income through cultivation is one of the major drawbacks in this state. Especially the present paper wants to examine the income inequalities among the marginal and small farmers groups in Purvanchal and Bundelkhand regions of Uttar Pradesh. To achieve this objective primary data has been collected from 35 districts of both the regions. From each district, two blocks were selected through systematic sampling without replacement process. In each block proportionately on the basis of population of the village, 2 to 5 villages were surveyed. In each village around 30 households’ data has been collected.

The study revealed that the Non-farm income is the major source of income for the farming community. Agriculture is dominating in the total income especially for the small farmers in the state. The Gini-Coefficient and Lorenz curve will be employed for the primary data to see the inequalities among the farmers’ group income levels. An inverse relationship between the farm-size and income has also been found in the state. It was concluded that while small landholders were superior in the term of production performance, they are eventually weaker in terms of generating sufficient income for their livelihood. Finally, the findings suggest that there is a need of agricultural mainstreaming with the non-agricultural sector in the rural areas to be embedded in the local levels of living, resources and institution to meet the challenge of the state.

Land, Gender and State: An Exploratory Study on Struggle of Khond Tribal Women

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Globally, the land is considered as a key element in the identities of indigenous people. It is more than a material resource and forms a metaphor for their culture, language, social and indeed their very identity. In the context of the feminization of agriculture, the land has become an asset to women to create livelihood option which helps to generate the income and fulfil their basic needs but they still struggle for owning the land as well as controlling and accessing to have legal rights over the land.
So focusing on the tribal areas of Andhra Pradesh, this study aims to understand by what process women come to own land and analyze how independent land ownership translates into socio-economic status of women in terms of health, violence and decision making within the family. This study is conducted in the two tribal villages, Dallapali and Burguchettu of Vishakapatnam District. The subject population is the women belonging to the Khond tribe in the age group of 25-60 years. They are mostly engaged in agricultural work and often work as agricultural labourers due to lack of livelihood options in the villages. The field research was conducted using purposive sampling to understand the struggles faced by women in claiming land from the state and non-state actors. The sample size of the study comprised of 14 respondents including single and married women. The data collection included both primary and secondary data for the research: Semi-structured interviews, observation, transect walk, participant observation. For the study, the analytical framework to understand the bargaining of women on land claims within the family and state is based on Amartya Sen’s model of Co-operation conflicts. Some of the important findings of the research include the Bargaining gender relations within the family: the data analysis show how women contest for land claims differently in a different context. The bargaining of women at the household level shows that women assert their identities in different ways, sometimes by abiding by the social norms and sometimes resisting it depending on their interest. Hence getting land rights cannot be exclusive to social relations. Despite having land rights, women are not able to have full access to it as it is not just a physical asset but it carries identities and social relations with it. Hence land alone cannot be a fulfilment of women’s aspirations but it requires social legitimization and acceptance over the land. Another important finding is the Dispossession, violence and coercion faced with the state: The data analysis show how the state has actively resisted in providing legal help to women in the cases of violence and dispossession of land. Also, the poor implementation of the Forest Right Act 2005 in the villages has not improved the conditions of women. There is a need to understand that women’s land right is not a struggle over a physical asset but it is a struggle over masculinity, power relations and gendered work patters.
Low-Income Migrant Masculinities in India: Context and Outcomes

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Urban migrants play a key role in urbanisation and urban transformation. But their inclusion into urban planning, policy-making and urban spaces remains a huge challenge in India. Present paper is based on findings of fieldwork conducted in Guahati (Assam) and Jalandhar (Punjab), under ESRC-ICSSR Collaborative Project “From the margins: Exploring Low-income Migrant Workers’ Access to Basic Services and Protection in the context of India’s Urban Transformation”, with specific focus on their experiences of violence and access to healthcare services. The project used a sociological and ethnographic lens to study migrants’ experience in these two “second-tier” fast-growing cities, in addition to usually dominant economic framework. Various research methods were deployed to study migrant population, including ethnographies, surveys, in-depth interviews and photo-voice (visuals-based participatory research method), to reflect on aspects of migrants’ lives which are accessible and which are not accessible, through each method. An important methological challenge has been collective nature of migrant lives in the city, which raises questions about methods assuming single respondent at a time. We discover that any claim about migrant population is highly contextual and conditional, as migrant population consists of enormous diversity in its characteristics, despite its assumed homogeneity. The paper goes on to discuss experiences of migrant men in the city, with an exploration into factors that impinge on their lives and expressions of masculinities. Particularly focusing on Jalandhar city, paper discusses one derogatory label, ‘Bhaiya’, that is used for Hindi-speaking migrants from poorer regions of country, with an extensive focus
on how a respectful word of Hindi language takes on a derogatory connotation when brought into Punjabi. Various stereotypes and resulting neglect of migrants in the city is analysed in context of this label and assumed inferiority of Bhaiya migrants. The indifference and apathy towards migrants results in their continued and heightened exclusion and marginalisation. We find that lives of migrant men are structured in such a way that they have networks which involve other migrant men only, with hardly any Punjabi in their social circle. This limits their access to information about provisions pertaining to them in the city and how to access these. Even if they try, lack of socio-political-economic capital denies them much avenues to get their concerns addressed. In this context, we discuss phenomenon of kho-mari (snatching), that migrant men are particularly susceptible to, due to their long working hours and odd commute timings. Analysing role of justice and redressal mechanisms, we discuss how a focus on migrant narratives poses a threat to dominant narratives about migrants being at root of drug menace in Punjab. The responses of migrant men to this phenomenon, though varied, have largely followed traditionally feminine response pattern. Next, migrant men’s lives are discussed in relation to migrant women and local-Punjabi men, dissecting their relationships and how migrant men manage threat to their bread-winner and/or masculine status, even though this status remains very tenuous. These strategies involve their way of dealing with and managing their stay in the city, including expressions through leisure activities, sometimes also challenging hegemonic conceptions of what it means to be a man. In the end, paper analyses socio-political structural factors that sustain migrants’ exclusion from urban spaces and argues that one needs to pay close attention to migrant experiences, rather than forcing researchers’ conception onto them.

Agricultural and Socio-economic Disparities in India

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Regional imbalances or socio-economic disparities mean wide differences in per capita income, health, literacy rates, infrastructure development and levels of urbanization, etc. between different regions or state. In India, there are tremendous imbalances on various accounts. In January 2018, at the World Economic Forum at Davos, India is
the second-most unequal country globally with 1% of millionaires controlling 54% of its wealth. The present study is conducted to identify level of development and inequality in India on major objective: 1) to identify the indicators for developing composite index, 2) to access the level of development of the state with respect to agriculture, 3) to access the level of development of the states to overall indicators and 4) policy suggestion to reduce inequality. The level of socioeconomic development of different states of India was obtained with the help of composite index based on the optimum combination of forty developmental indicators. The present study is a two decadal comparative study for the period of 2007-08 and 2017-18 to observe the socioeconomic inequality in India. Twenty-nine states for 2008 and thirty states for 2018 have been included and the data on various indicators for the year 2008 and 2018 were used in the study. Further, Agricultural development data was also obtained for 2017-18 agricultural year with twenty-two agricultural indicators and the same methodology was followed. The results of socioeconomic development showed wide disparities among the regions (state) of India but in both 2008 and 2018 Kerala was ranked first and Bihar was ranked last. On the Agricultural development, Punjab ranked first and Mizoram ranked last with respect to the selected variables. To enhance the level of development of the low developed state, the model state should be identified, and potential targets of various developmental indicators can be obtained. But however location-specific technology of agricultural development shall be adopted in order to attain a higher level of development of less developed regions.
TECHNICAL SESSION 1.4

Reservation Policy:
A Way to Social Equality in Indian Society

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All human societies are stratified. A person or a group of persons living in the society are never the same in terms of rights, condition and status. This disparity begets inequality in society. This socio-economic inequality creates various problems in society. In India, the caste system is responsible to create all kinds of disparities or inequality. This caste system had rejected the social, economic, religious, political and educational rights to some social groups. This caste-based tradition was being followed by everyone and had been deeply rooted in the society. The Bhakti Movement and Neo Vedantic Movement spread awareness among the people against the caste system. But the caste system could not be rooted out completely. In Maharashtra, efforts taken by Mahatma Jyotiba Phule and Dr. Bhimrao Ambedkar to eradicate this system became successful. Mahatma Jyotiba Fule through the Satyashodhak Samaj demanded to bring an end to this inhuman system and opened the schools for the boys and girls belonging to the weaker section of the society. Dr. Ambedkar’s efforts in eradication of caste system became considerably successful. He, with the help of the constitution, was successful in making laws to eradicate disparities on the basis of caste. He declared the need of reservation plan for the upliftment of the backward castes in India. Reservation is a fair format of positive discrimination. The aim behind it was to bring the backward categories in the streamline of the development. This reservation policy has a constitutional base to eliminate socio-economic inequality and to establish social equality and justice in society.

The Paper aims to examine the impact of reservation policy and show the extent to which the efforts taken in the elimination of socio-economic disparity in India proved successful.
Demographic Status of Scheduled Areas in Telangana State

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The criteria for declaring any area as a ‘Scheduled Area’ under Study on the Demographic features of a place/state would enable us not only to identify the size of the area, population, but also assess issues, areas for research and formulation of policies to ensure there development protection in a planned manner. To improve the wellbeing of people living in the area. In this context, it is more important to study demographic status of tribals in scheduled areas of Telangana. Government declared nine scheduled districts, 85 mandals-intermediate institutions in PRIs (30 mandals are wholly scheduled area and rest 55 mandals are partially scheduled area) and 1174 villages as scheduled areas. Besides the government departments, these areas are governed by four ITDAs.

The major Scheduled Tribes inhabiting the Scheduled Areas are Gond, Kolam, Pradhan, Thoti, Naikpod, Koya, Konda Reddi and Chenchu, while a large number of Lambada, Yerukula and Yanadi are found in the non-scheduled areas. Each group has its own distinct identity in terms of language, social customs, economy, etc., which require special programmes to address them properly. Further, except a few tribal groups, they are thinly spread over across the districts; some of them migrated to the urban areas in search of livelihood. These factors are posing problems to the government to focus on the development of tribals.

The present paper seeks to examine important demographic features of STs in the State. The study reveals that an overwhelming percentage of tribals (70%) are residing in the partially Scheduled Areas, while the remaining (30%) are residing in Scheduled Areas. The Sex ratio of the population of the Scheduled Areas is 996; the child sex ratio is also very low (i.e. 941); literacy rate of males is 55.5%, while that of females is 42.9%. Nevertheless, there are inequalities- gender, literacy, workers, etc. among the tribals, particularly in Scheduled Areas.

Symbolic Powers: A Red Flag

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Have the words pink and city together ever brought any other idea into your head? For me, it was always associated with the ‘The Pink city of Jaipur.’ The vacation I went on
when I was in class 4. But why was the whole city painted pink? The kings that once ruled and controlled city of Jaipur believed pink to be a colour that symbolized royalty and elegance and demanded the city be built with pink stones. As the contemporary counterpart started being identified with its colour it came to be known as the ‘Pink City”. The City administrators painting the later structures pink was welcomed. It actually drew in hordes of tourists from across the world aiding the economy of the state that sustains itself on the gleaming eyes of those hunting for a rich culture.

One cannot overlook the reasons behind the change in symbolic powers. These changes could either be political, cultural or economical. The peasants belonging to a tribe in Siliguri started their own armed revolt against the zamindars or landowners. This movement started in the Naxalbari block of Siliguri, West Bengal, giving the protest its name- The Naxalbari uprising. This movement was led by the local tribals but got active support from the communist leaders of Bengal which also led to the rise of the Communist Party of India. This party brought in the red flag of communists into the city of Kolkata. The symbolic power with the most long-lasting impact on the masses of Kolkata.

With the shift in the political allegiance of the people and entry of the new chief minister Mamata Banerjee, the city of Kolkata sang a new tune of blue and white. This new dispensation had its own agenda. Those who painted the new blue colour palate on their houses enjoyed one-year exemptions on property taxes.

When people heard of the blue and white City of Joy, they immediately asked me how the communist city had changed its colour. The colour red was the face of an ideology. As hard as it is to remove the connotation of Communism with the city of Kolkata, it was imperative on the part of the present government to change the colour of the city by changing the outer appearance of the city, to indicate a change in its ideology. Especially with a city like Kolkata, wherein every individual has their own book full of ideas when it comes to politics. The citizens seem to be completely unaware of the Pavlovian Classical Conditioning that they are undergoing. Being accustomed to a change is not the style of the city of Kolkata, the age-old rules seem like a comfortable cocoon to them, yet they don’t even know what it is that has already hit them.

Art is a beautiful way of expressing one’s emotions and can be used to associate others with the same thought process. For instance, a cow might have represented agriculture at one time but subsequently came to be associated strongly with religious beliefs. With the strong religious undertones of a political ideology the humble cow
turned into a powerful political symbol. Art at the basic level enchants the masses but its true effects and ramifications are revealed on a deeper dwelling.

This, in my view, is what Foucault sought to convey in his theory of Governmentality. The way in which people are instructed to govern themselves can be influenced by the distribution of power from the centre to the rest of the population. According to him, the thought process of individuals can be controlled by the central leadership through indirect means.

Bourdieu also speaks of the concept of symbolic power where objects or semiotic symbols hold the power to evoke emotions in one. This paper aims to deal with the various symbolic powers that governments use to influence control and govern masses and determine their perspectives while giving them an illusion of autonomy and indirectly restricting freedom. Freedom here refers to the freedom of the people to define their political ideology. The paper aims to study this process with the help of Bengal in general and Kolkata in particular as its primary case study. A symbolic power can be formed by that which is sacred rather than that which is profane. This paper also aims to look at those who hold the power to mould ideas of the sacred and the profane within the masses.

**Dynamics of Class Inequalities in Crop Production:**

**Evidence From Village Studies**

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The agrarian relations in the Indian countryside depict high levels of spatial variations and class differentiation. These inequalities are imbibed further into the production conditions and market relations in agrarian economy. Indian agriculture is still dominated by the majority of the workforce involved in crop production. The recent agrarian crisis and the peasant struggles around remunerative prices following the same reflect emerging dynamics surrounding crop production in India. Given this backdrop, this paper focuses on: a) Household income and other forms of inequalities amongst caste-heterogeneous agrarian households in village economy; b) the political economy of cost, prices and incomes from crop production; c) regional variations and similarities in components of the cost of production across farming classes; d) identifying factors behind these unequal production relations.

This paper is based on the primary data archive based on village studies under the Project on Agrarian Relations in India (PARI) of the Foundation for Agrarian Studies.
(FAS). The research objectives are met by using the empirical data analysis around the questions of the economics of farming. To depict and inter-regional picture, the selected four villages are from three different states of India; namely Bihar, Rajasthan, and West Bengal. The villages showed huge disparities in the caste-class composition. In almost all the villages, a common pattern of socio-economic characteristics of the households was visible. Most of the manual workers belonged to the scheduled caste category. For the capitalist farmer, there was caste heterogeneity, as some of them were traditional landlords with caste hierarchy but a few others later accumulated and reached the socio-economic status through investment and extraction of surplus over the period.

The findings reveal that the capitalist households were involved in more mechanized production systems and the components of purchased inputs were higher in the cost of production. On the other hand, the lower peasant faced the component of family labour to be a major component. Also, for villages with improved tenancy relations, the rent component also added up hugely to the costs of the lower peasants. Profitability over cost C2 is a real concern for lower peasantry, where the magnitude of income goes well beyond the minimum and they have to incur huge losses per quintal. Apart from productivity, market relations are marked as key factors that affect profitability directly. Firstly, the price received by farmers and a few studies indicates the possibility of class bias in the same. Secondly, the marketable surplus that a cultivating household has to sell in the market. This factor also locates the class bias as the lower peasantry’s are mostly engaged in subsistence farming. Further enquiry into the class analysis of prices and market relations is required with time-series data to understand the bargaining power for different classes of households. The magnitude of changes in incomes over cost A2 and C2 is huge for the lower peasantry and the implications of the changing the price policy accordingly shall have serious effect at the household level income.

Asset Inequalities: A Case in Alwala Village, Kurnool District of Andhra Pradesh

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Water and sanitation are very important for rural households in day to day life. The quality of water provides good health and leads to the edification of the entire human body. Census data has been used and at the same time primary survey was conducted.
covering a total 567 households. Hence the study had chosen total households. The main objectives of the paper are to investigate the water and sanitation practices in study village. Secondly, to investigate assets inequalities among the castes in study village? The main objective of the study is to know who is having more assets in Alwala village in Kurnool district. For the purpose of measuring inequalities, the study chose some assets like House type, own land and size of land, farmers categories, family size, household income, drinking water, public stand post (PSP), hand pump (HP), open bore well and other water sources, owning toilet, type of toilet and usage of toilet. The study finds that, firstly, among the social groups (castes), majority of the other caste (97%) households are having pucca houses, followed by SC (79%) and BC (69%). The data indicate that OCs are more advanced than the other two social groups. Nearly 78 per cent of the OCs (77.9%) and BC (78.3%) households are having own land in Alwala village. But in case of SCs, 69 per cent of them own land. The average land size is higher in OC (4.8 acres) community and BC (0.94 acres) and SC (0.58 acres). Large farmers are available in OCs and BCs. And there are no large farmers in SC community. The OC (1,07,282) households’ average income is more as compared to BC (82, 699) and SC (60, 075).

Secondly, in our study sample, all social group households are fetching water from Public Stand Post (PSP) and this water is using for drinking purpose. The study households are using PSP water for drinking and other purposes. Thirdly, the majority (90%) of them are not having own toilet facilities, and nearly 10 per cent of them are having a toilet. Among the social groups, OCs (37%) are having more own toilet and followed by BC (7%) and SC (0.8%). Among the sample toilet having total households, 87 per cent of the households are used the toilet. The use of toilet by women is 104 per cent and men (70%) and children (53%) also used toilets. The study finds that 90 per cent of them are practising open defecation. The policy suggestions by the paper are: firstly, Gram Panchayat (GP) has to connect individual tap connection for all households. Secondly, government has to provide 100 per cent subsidy for construction of toilet for poor people in the village. Finally, the NGO/ volunteers/ educated youth have to create awareness to usage of the toilet.
Indian economy is growing at a significantly high rate over the last few decades. Over the years in India, the proportion of people below the poverty line has also fallen significantly. Despite this, a large segment of the population in this economy is still unable to earn their living and a significant portion of the total population in every Indian state still suffers from multiple deprivations. Studies analysing the poverty challenge of different states in India have tried to explain the case mainly focusing on the growth experiences of the economy and the policy suggestions to eradicate poverty mostly focus on targeted government expenditure. In this regard, we find that not enough attention has been given to the role of the quality of governance to initiate, act and monitor the measures taken to eradicate poverty across states. For any economy, maintenance of good governance and delivering a hunger-free society supplemented with basic needs are of utmost priority. To ensure pro-poor growth and development, good governance is a necessity. Ensuring good governance, control of corruption, administrative effectiveness, and state capacity is a must so that the economic prosperity of the state can be maintained and pro-poor government policies can be properly implemented.

Indian states are very much different from each other. Their differences in geographic, socio-economic, cultural and other aspects have put them in different growth trajectories. These differences are also visible in their experiences to eradicate poverty. States like Kerala, Goa, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu and Himachal Pradesh have been able to reduce poverty at a much higher pace compared to the other states. Whereas, Bihar is still the poorest and more than half of the population in this state are in poverty. Bihar, Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh together constitute more than half of all multidimensionally poor people in India. In this paper, we have
studied the role of governance to explain the experiences of different states in India to fight the challenge of poverty. Looking at the experiences of 26 states in India in terms of multidimensional poverty over the period 2001 to 2016, this study evaluates the role of quality of governance in poverty experience of the states. The study finds that quality of governance plays a very significant role to explain the poverty situation across Indian states. States with better performance with respect to governance, have also performed better in terms of poverty reduction. The interesting findings in our results to note that controlling for the income of the state and its production pattern to define the poverty situation in a state, we find that quality of governance is another very important factor in this respect. As the quality of governance improves in a state it directly translates into a reduction in multidimensional poverty incidence. We have repeated the exercise to estimate multidimensional poverty estimates for different dimensions of deprivations separately also. The relation between the quality of governance and poverty incidence holds significant even when we consider different dimensions of deprivations or alternate indicators of multidimensional poverty.

**Development and Relative Deprivation:**

**A Case Study of Gadchiroli District, Maharashtra**

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The Indian state is the largest democracy in the world where multiple domestic grievances and conflicts have been escalated in the post-independence period. One of the biggest and growing challenges to the state’s internal security is the Naxal conflict which is also called as Left-wing extremism in central India. In underdeveloped areas, the conflict resolution policy of the state has concerned to counter the factors that are leading to violent conflict. The state has adopted the counterinsurgency policy that is comprised of ensuring good governance, formulating national policies and action plan, four-pronged strategy in the areas of security, ensuring rights, the entitlement of local communities and management of public perception, etc. The research paper has its focus on analysis and evaluation of the state development schemes-the Integrated Action Plan (additional central assistance plan), and the Forest Rights Act, in the Gadchiroli district, Maharashtra. On the basis of numerical data taken from government offices and qualitative studies collected in the district, this paper
finds deprivation in infrastructures of human development indicators and relative-deprivation led discontents in implementation of the forest rights act in the selected villages of the Gadchiroli district, Maharashtra.

Asymmetric Implementation of Fat Tax in India – An Evidence based Study

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Public Policy is an instrument to regulate not only fiscal aspects but also psychological aspects of the economy. The effectiveness of public policy is to render a solution by supporting government institutions. The welfare of the citizens of the country to a larger extent depends on the performance of the economy. In the realm of economics and finance, the role of public policy plays a determining role. Evidence-based policy is widely used in public policy where decisions making is based on rigorous research-based objectives. There are certain areas of research paving the path for debate making it difficult for the policy makers to collect relevant evidence. Good data, analytical skills and political support to the use of scientific information as such are typically seen as the important elements of an evidence-based approach. This paper attempts to analyze the skewed implementation of FAT TAX as a public policy. A fat tax is a kind of surcharge on fattening and junk food. A Fat tax is a distinct example of Pigovian Tax which is imposed on market activity that generates negative externalities. Fat tax ignores the social cost which is not included in the private cost. These taxes are executed to rectify market failures by setting taxes.

Exploring Inequality and Migration Experience: A Socio-economic Analysis of Inter State Migrant Workers in the State of Kerala

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The process of migration is not new in the development journey of an economy. Migration is a part of human history and the process of moving from one place
to another contributes to the economic development, cultural diversity and social dynamics of the people and the place. The state of Kerala is known for its success in achieving high human development despite relatively low per capita income. The state has experienced high levels of emigration to the Middle East and abroad, this emigration has created both wealth and job opportunities at home. As a result the state is able to provide relatively well paying jobs. Inter-state migrants have become one of Kerala’s wealth creators and their numbers have increased exponentially. In the initial times the state of Kerala experienced migration mainly from southern states but recently there has been an influx of inter-state migrants from the northern states. The migrant labourers are employed in all sectors irrespective of rural or urban localities. They are mainly working in the informal sector doing unskilled or semi-skilled job and have percolated into all sections for employment. The inter-state migrants face lot of problems in terms of inequality and exclusion at the destination state. This could be due to the low educational qualification and poorer asset base of the people. Migration is an alternative livelihood option for many people. Seasonal migration is also gaining relevance in the migration discourse as the migration is mostly temporary in nature. 

The present paper analyses the migration experience and the socio-economic condition of the inter-state migrants working in the construction from their living and working environment. The paper looks into the inequality issues that the migrants face in terms of wages, employment and their living arrangements. The theoretical understanding on the process of migration helps to determine the migration decision framework considering not just the income aspect but also other non-economic factors as well. The paper tries to study the social security scheme called Aawaz which is introduced by the Kerala government to protect the rights and privileges of the migrant population in the state. Therefore it is also the state and the government that need to impart the sense of security and inclusion in the social, economic and political activities of the migrants. The fact that they are not unionised and are unaware of their labour rights and obligations makes it even more challenging to the government. It is important to study the social wellbeing of the inter-state migrant workers who come to Kerala from a rights based approach and see how they have become part of the development process in the state. It is essential to formulate migration policy initiatives that will enhance the socio economic and political conditions of the migrants.
The Division of Labour and the Division of Labourers Dichotomy in Indian Society

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Division of labour and Division of labourers, both play a prominent part in the Indian socio-economic foundation. They not only have a historical perspective but also lay as the basic foundation to the society even today. The division of labour and the division of the labourers which have a very close relationship to one another is widely different in its essence. Nevertheless, they both cause a different effect on society in addition to themselves. In the Indian society these both travel together with contradictions, also with the various interferences by the external politics and reformational changes taking place they significantly have changes that also directly apply on the society since the time they were formed. Research in these two aspects is required to understand the society and move it forward. The research about Division of labourers has to be undertaken from various disciplines. The historical, dialectical and empirical analysis is the most important. It is the most effective when combinedly put together to sharply understand nature and also the cause and effect of Division of labourers.

Social Care: Family and Community Support System – A Sociological Study

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The growing number of elderly is bringing about dramatic changes in family life, in the nature and extent of interventions necessary to support an aging population, and in our notions about respective roles of family and community in providing for these needs. Although, older people manage independently with only the ordinary assistance family members provide each other, growing numbers of the oldest old and persons suffering from frailty and incapacity require more extensive social care. The term “social care” is often used synonymously with “formal community services,” but the concept is broader, also encompassing informal family care. Social care is directed
toward needs critical to independence: socialization and self-development help in tasks of daily living, and assistance with personal care. At present, older people prefer that social care be provided within a family context, turning to formal community interventions only when families are unable to provide the required assistance. But given increases in numbers of working women, the restructuring of the family, and changing attitudes about the community’s role as service provider, a more carefully articulated partnership between family and community will be required in the future. This paper aims to explore the necessary social care that exclusively needed to support family and community systems and their related changing trends followed in achieving the social care. Community support system strategies promote behaviour and social change that are particularly relevant, and in many cases, essential to development programmes as they seek the achievement of the overall development of children and women indirectly to family. However, anyone in development or humanitarian work who wants to positively influence community’s economic, cultural, social and political worlds through communication will find shared interests constitutes of social care for a progressive society. This includes helping heal the wounds of injustice, prejudice and poverty inflicted especially on children and women. Healing can be accelerated where the marginalized, vulnerable and most disadvantaged are specifically included, and where communication tries to restore dignity, give due respect to culture and tradition, eliminate stereotypes, reduce gender disparities and promote social care.

Self Exploitation of Scheduled Tribes: The Case of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh

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Scheduled Tribes (STs) constituted about 7 and 9 per cent of total population respectively in the states of Telangana (TS) and newly carved Andhra Pradesh (AP) as of 2011 census. They are among the most marginalised communities. They live in inhospitable terrain. The literacy rate among them is lower than for All Social Groups – about 50 per cent for the tribal groups and 66 per cent for all in 2011 census in the Undivided Andhra Pradesh (UAP). Over four-fifths of the STs population of the states is forced to eke out a living in low productive agriculture. This is higher than the figure for All Social Groups. These circumstances expose them to exploitation by non-tribal groups. A multitude of institutions and programmes seek to better their lot.
The article has the limited objective of showcasing how the STs Population stretches its every sinew and nerve while cultivating land under its possession. The hypothesis that Scheduled Tribes spare no effort in cultivating the land under their possession, even while doing so is clearly uneconomic, is tested in the article employing the data available from Agricultural Census. The practice leading to ‘self-exploitation’ of Scheduled Tribes is seen to be in vogue in Telangana State as also in Andhra Pradesh. Despite the fact that the land under the possession of Scheduled Tribes is of poor quality, the cultivable land sown by them is comparable to that sown by All Social Groups.

The general conclusion has to be that STs, to eke out a living, spare no effort and utilise as much land as possible. Sowing as much of the cultivable area as possible may not be viable – economically rewarding. Yet they do so, to secure the extra morsel of food (however little it may be), because ensuring the survival of household members is uppermost in their minds. They are led by the mouths to be fed in the family and not by economic considerations. This is what Chayanov calls self-exploitation of the peasantry. Labourers (producers) in the family strive to ensure socially acceptable standards of consumption for the consumers of the family and in the bargain they produce every morsel of food that is possible on the family farm. It is only when acceptable standards of consumption are achieved – at the intersection of the curves of the marginal utility of labour and the marginal disutility of effort – the self-exploitation of the peasant labourer ceases.

Caste Inequalities and Development Experience of Scheduled Castes in India: Empirical Evidence from Karnataka

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In India, based on the identity of caste certain groups are discriminated, deprived, isolated and excluded. This becomes a societal process which creates a vicious circle that revolves around institutions of caste and untouchability. The social history of India clearly demonstrates that the social and economic life of people was mainly regulated by the caste system and the same has been continuing even today in the present modern India. The present day development theorists have given their widest
approval for the increase of real per capita income, decrease of absolute poverty, and equal distribution of income in understanding the process of development in any developing nation. However “upward movement of the entire social system” remains the fundamental objective of the development process in Indian society. Mere economic growth measured in terms of per capita and national income proves to be utterly insufficient to understand the overall development of different social sections of Indian society. The present study has made an attempt to examine the question of development and exclusion of Dalits in Karnataka. It has tried to assess the levels of poverty, unemployment, access to resources, political participation and empowerment, education and inclusion, untouchability and discrimination, and Dalit movement and empowerment in selected villages of Karnataka. As the development question of a given community needs to be understood in a multi-dimensional and comprehensive manner, the forms of discrimination and exclusion in each of these areas are captured to understand the question of development of Dalits in Karnataka. In this context, the study proposes to look at the question of Dalit development in Karnataka through the framework of social exclusion with main objectives of examining the status of poverty and lack of access to resources among Dalits in Karnataka, the nature of discrimination against Dalit children in schools, political participation and empowerment of Dalits in local governance, and nature and extent of violence against Dalits in Karnataka. The analysis is based on the household data of fifty villages from five districts of Karnataka. The panchayats, schools and civil society organisations are also part of the study universe. Thus study makes an attempt to capture the comprehensive picture of Dalit’s development experiences in the context caste inequalities in Indian society.
Socio-Economic Conditions of Women Domestic Labours and Social Work Interventions in Nelamangala: An Empirical Study

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Women have forever been contributing to the economy to accomplish outstanding progress. However, it is the gender prejudice that also prevails at each social division. It’s additionally incapable to soak up this perceptible participation of women in all spheres of her life. Financial conditions and state area unit, the factors that have created the way for the ladies to enter into the unorganized sector. Thanks to the shortage of substitute, the ladies from lower socio-economic background having low level of education and illiteracy, area unit affected to figure as domestic labourers. It’s detected that the women’s participation within the unorganized sector is escalating day by day particularly within the domestic work. In keeping with census report 2011, 41.3 lakhs were domestic labourers in Asian nations within which girls were 27.9 lakhs. These women domestic labourers area unit from the marginalized section of the society and area unit migrants from geographical region. During this context case worker has got to play very important role in improvement the socio-economical conditions of women domestic staff. Case worker has got to intervene with girls domestic staff issues by numerous social service practices like substance, Assessment, awareness, Advocacy, stretch services. The main objectives of the study area unit to understand the socio-economic conditions of the ladies domestic labourers in Nelamangala; to check the issues of domestic employee and to convey appropriate suggestions and suggestions for the well-being of those domestic staff. This study was supported the each primary and secondary information from completely different sources and field. It’s tried to hunt and to bring out new prospects within the lifetime of the migrant girls domestic labourers in Nelamangala. This study used descriptive analysis style and a hundred domestic staff was elite. Women domestic labourers were vulnerable within
the unorganized sector. The study indicated that the ladies domestic staff are unit from low socio-economic background and their formal education level was low. Quite 1/2 girls domestic labourers were married, a number of them single they satiated that they were less revered within the society this affects their sureness and their overall development. In urban center rural only a few studies were conducted that’s the explanation the issues of girls domestic working person weren’t addressed. The legislations and programmes for this cluster additionally terribly less thus through this study the research worker has tried to bring some realities associated with girls domestic labourers this may helps to bring some new alternatives for the betterment of them. Key words: Women Domestic employee, Socio-economic Conditions, issues of domestic staff, Social Work Interventions, Security.

The Formation of the Creation of the “Other” – Caste Casting

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An effective means of disorientation is well nurtured and the manure for the same is abetted by the media. This results in a successful formation into the creation of an ‘Other’, who no longer becomes a part of the social economic system. This can be majorly seen through varied dimensions, but all these varied dimensions results in a convenient construct of resorting into a single definition which is the Caste. Hence this process of resorting to a homogenous methodology of Caste definition, calls for a multi-disciplinary approach wherein annihilation to the creation of an ‘Other’ can be achieved only when thought’s alone become macro and plural in its upbringing. These thoughts can be seen in the form of practices through a social, genetic, political, economic, gendered and almost any subjects one can think off. For the very same reason, Caste along with Class are used as an effective and efficient hierarchical step, to disorient many resulting in an internalization of the dignified. Hence the article tries to orient the measures used to disorient, by trying to create an antagonistic research relationship of contestations, by using the same prevalent thoughts that are earlier used for the singularization of one’s being and becoming. The rationale employed in the article is “only if there is a mix of the ‘here and now’ along with the understanding of the ‘then’, the time and space become a civilized existence of social understanding that is bereft of caste and class consciousness.”
A Study on Perception and Information Seeking Behaviour of Women Regarding Nutrition during Pregnancy

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Imbalanced and inadequate diet leads to malnutrition among Indian women. There is a perception that more food intake during pregnancy may increase the size and weight of baby which ultimately cause foetal distress during normal delivery or can go for caesarean section. So mostly the pregnant ladies fear to take more food which can result in anaemia and malnourishment among the mother and child. This study attempts to find out eating behaviour in pregnant women by focusing on their perception, attitudes and nutrition-related information seeking practices during pregnancy. Descriptive survey method is used in the study with a systematic random sampling of 192 pregnant women of Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Chhattisgarh. About 48% got information regarding nutrition during pregnancy from the antenatal clinic or VHND session followed by 34% who got to know about good nutrition from home itself. 78% concluded that they increase their diet uptake during pregnancy. 49% are increasing their nutritional uptake for a better baby. During pregnancy, there is more demand for nutrient and energy by the mother for the growing foetus in her womb. Specific and need-based health talk should be encouraged on each antenatal day and female health workers or Physicians should put more emphasis on nutrition to combat malnutrition.

Does Public Expenditure Management Sufficient for Sustainable Fiscal Discipline?

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Public expenditure management is key to the economic development of countries. It requires the achievement of fiscal discipline, strategic priorities and operational efficiency
of public expenditure. The literature of public finance widely discusses the issues of public expenditure management (Schick 1999; Djurović-Todorović and Djordjević 2009). Mismanagement of public expenditure leads to persistent macroeconomic instability, microeconomic inefficiency, and distributional inequity in the developed as well as developing countries. Since the main objectives of all economic policies are: (i) growth, (ii) equity and (iii) stability, proper management of public expenditure is important. Financial stability requires fiscal discipline; economic growth and equity are pursued through allocation of resources across sectors (strategic prioritization) and the three objectives need efficient and effective use of resources (operational efficiency) (Campo and Tommasi 1999). The state and the central government made perennial efforts to achieve the objectives of public expenditure management in view of the inherent deficiency in tax capacity to meet the rising public expenditure in Odisha. It is important to examine public expenditure management by states since the Constitution assigns significant expenditure responsibilities to them. Further, the exploration of public expenditure management in states like Odisha, with high poverty and the wide disparity in socio-output indicators, assumes greater importance.

The paper re-examines the fiscal discipline and strategic prioritization of public expenditure using secondary data from 1980-81 to 2018-19 and operational efficiency of public expenditure using primary data. The study uses primary and secondary data to examine the issues of public expenditure management. Primary data is collected through personal interview method and focus group discussion with residents of two sample villages from Bijepur block in the Bargarh district of Odisha, selected through stratified and simple random sampling method in 2015-16 to examine the operational efficiency of public expenditures on the construction of a check dam. The data relating to the use of water reserved by the check dam for drinking, washing and bathing, and irrigation are collected from the sample village through interviews. Secondary data relating to major components- tax, revenue expenditures, capital expenditures, total expenditures, and deficits are collected from the Ministry of Finance, Government of Odisha. The data used to analyze fiscal discipline and strategic prioritization of public expenditure management from 1990-91 to 2018-19 mostly reflect post-economic reforms of India.

Since 82 years of Odisha's formation, perennial efforts have been made by the Central and State Governments for its economic development. Series of attempts have been undertaken to improve its tax capacity through the introduction of Sales Taxes to
Goods and Service Tax (GST). However, the tax capacity remains insufficient to meet the emerging trend of public expenditures. Keeping in mind the deficiency in tax capacity to meet swelling tendency of expenditures, remedial measures have been undertaken to manage the rising public expenditure. However, the state failed to achieve its basic objectives of public expenditure management. The smattering of fiscal discipline in the state is unsustainable due to a lack of strategic prioritization and operational inefficiency in public expenditure. To maintain sustainable fiscal discipline, the state must incur its expenditures on prioritization basis and achieve operational efficiency.


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This study examines market access provision which is the one of the important pillar among the three pillars of the Agreement on Agriculture (AoA), with special reference to wheat export from India. Market access is a policy instrument which is using in the field of international trade for removing tariff barriers. In the background of some countries which have increased their tariff rates (presently that kind of policy is imposed by the USA against many countries). We are analysing how it affects the total trade if the partner country reduces its import tariff. We are using the SMART-Simulation Partial Equilibrium Tool for computation of tariff reduction impact. For this analysis, we need secondary data, extracted from the Tariff Analysis Online Facility Provided by World Trade Organization (TAO). Results show that if any countries reduce their tariffs then it have generated basically three major impacts on the exported economy as trade creation, trade diversion and welfare effect or consumer surplus effect. In our research, we have analyzed all three impacts for five selected countries namely Nepal, Nigeria, Taiwan, Tanzania and Uganda. Suppose if Nepal agrees on free trade then India gains US$ 6577.039 thousand, it is 25.13 per cent greater than trade before tariff reduction. In case of Nigeria, India gains US$ 2.44 thousand and it is 12.73 per cent higher than trade before reduction. In the case of rest of the partners, India gains US$ 538.593 thousand, US$ 2.344 thousand and US$ 22.92 thousand wheat export to Taiwan, Tanzania and Uganda respectively.
There have been many transitions in the past. The most crucial and most difficult of all the transitions so far poverty the transition to global society which includes social and economic inequalities, increasing poverty due to the process of globalization. Rising inequalities is the biggest challenge in many advanced and developing countries of the world due to the negative effects of globalization in 21st century. Inequality has increased in almost all the developed & developing countries at alarming levels due to the process of globalization in the 21st century. This paper examines the effects of globalization including international trade and financial integration on income distribution and poverty. It reviews a large number of current theoretical and empirical studies about how globalization affects income inequality and poverty.

Economic Development and Inequality: In the 21st century, economic liberalization and globalization have been trumpeted across the whole world as a sure cure for poverty and inequality in the past two-and-a-half decades. Inequality has increased in almost all the developed & developing countries at alarming levels due to the process of globalization in the 21st century. This paper examines the effects of globalization including international trade and financial integration on income distribution and poverty. It reviews a large number of current theoretical and empirical studies about how globalization affects income inequality and poverty.

Theories of income distribution & economic growth: This paper examines how economic inequality is widening in today’s India and how this ‘wealth gap’ is increasing in the world scenario in other countries. The paper tries to explore the theories of income distribution & economic growth for human development in the age of globalization. The paper also tries to explore the policies needed to reduce inequality and raise productive employment, human development and well-being.
Need for Caste based Inequalities Reduction – A Study

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India offers an interesting scenario of social advancement and economic development in the context of post globalization. With various constitutional regulation, reservation system, political and legal regulation of economies, also has the potential to be a powerful contributor to caste related socio-cultural equality as a creator of new socio-psychological opportunities for lower caste people. The most basic divide among social groups in terms of SC/ST and others in India also plays a very powerful role in labour market inequality and in employment. Although, there has been some progress in the reduction of the gap, however, it continues to persist in India.

Lower caste people as a category of reservation in government policies need special focus and analysis. Discrimination against the lower caste people in India is an existing reality and it reflects serious caste based differences, inequalities and neglect. The complex interplay of culture and socio-psychological and economic factors combines to deprive the lower caste people in many ways. Societal attitudes towards caste are shaped by the culture of the community, which leads to different kinds of treatment based on their caste. In India, the general perception about the lower caste people in comparison to upper caste people is reflected in the political, socio-cultural, economic, technological environment, getting votes in an election, various parties in politics, etc.

Rising inequalities is a concern in many advanced and developing countries of the world. An inclusive approach is needed for several reasons. In the context of ethics and humanism, equality is important for its own sake. Reducing inequality is also required for the sustainability of growth. If we reduce personal, social, gender, rural-urban and regional disparities, both the objectives of ethics and growth of equality will be achieved. Lower inequalities would result in higher demand from the bottom deciles, the vulnerable and the disadvantaged sections and eventually lead to higher growth. The study discusses the following objectives.

– To study, how strongly the Social inequalities prevailed in the society
– To know the requirement of social change in reducing inequalities
– To understand recent initiatives necessary in strong determination to change
Theme 1: Social and Economic Inequalities: Emerging Perspectives

the social system in respect to reducing social inequalities

– The challenges to change the mindset of the people in society

The study used both quantitative and qualitative methods for gathering information and was primarily based on university students and employees survey conducted at Karnatak University, Dharwad. It was conducted on the basis of available information from a list of students/employees of various departments whose experiences have been considered themselves very much harassing social inequality practices for them.

Normal focus is there on the caste system and other unwanted practices in the curriculum due to regulations. To some extent Government implement constitutional privileges to untouchables, continuous improvement in the allocation of resources with the societal demand offer joint programmes with private sector participation. Bridging these inequality gaps through non-formal ways by various means by the interested person, Government, individual and institutional way.

The paper discussed the requirement of social change in reducing inequalities and recent initiatives necessary in strong determination to change the social system in respect to reduce social inequalities and what are the challenges are there to change the mindset of the people in the society and the study concludes with suggesting various measures to overcome this and build a new society to reduce inequalities.

Capturing the Effect of Political Conflict on West Bengal’s Roadmap to Development

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This paper attempts to capture the direct and indirect effects of political clash of interests and conflict paradigms on the unbiased and true development patterns of the livelihoods of West Bengal’s rural population. Since 1977 till date, West Bengal has seen a lot of change of hands when it came to the determination of power and authority to rule the state due to major political party struggles, conflicts and rivalry.
When the agricultural sector of the state is highly affected due to administrative lacunas and massacres, its impact should ideally be captured in the falling trends of GSDP, given that West Bengal is majorly dependent on agricultural produce for revenue generation. Especially in the upward trends of the state’s growth and development indicators including Gross State Domestic Product and Physical Quality of Life Index, the real scenario of rising social oppressions in social and productive sectors were left illusive. Administrative decisions are taken for the upliftment of the underprivileged population of the state, but those administrative policies and decisions needed to be executed keeping in mind the democratic structure of the governance. Clash of interests between political clans should ideally not involve or affect the citizens, yet conflicts having a forced incidence on the rural and helpless farmers and their families automatically have resulted in the loss of livelihood. Moreover, Government that has ruled for as long as thirty-four years in a state, eschewing their own beliefs of land reforms and indulging in the forced acquisition of cultivable lands in the name of development programs stands at stark contrast to the overall agenda of increasing opportunities and welfare for those in need. Year after year, the crime rate has risen and so has the fear of compromising safety amongst people. A change in Government, as seen for other parts of the country, generally takes place when people identify and expect a betterment of socio-economic conditions deliverable by another political party. Unlike that, them who extended the aid of relief and rehabilitation during the times of violence caused by the government, now have created an eyewash. In the process of studying the impact of development schemes for the rural population by the current government, this paper unearths through life-story data collected from focus groups of victims the true colours of a stagnant ruling party. It makes us wonder if, West Bengal, being the sixth-largest economy of India, has a major role to play in keeping the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) low over the years. Hence this study attempts to contextualize in the backdrop of the rural population of politically sensitive zones of West Bengal where masses are more susceptible to disturbances. It specifically aims at analysing the effect of political rivalry on general citizens of the state.
Economic Asset Inequalities in Antharagange GP in Shimoga District of Karnataka

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In rural areas, different socio-economic cultural background and religious people are living together in their villages. For the survival of the villagers, they need minimum basic economic assets. For the gaining of economic assets people are working in different occupations and through they are able to earn and generate their income. In India, village people social status is different from person to person. The culture differs from caste to caste and religion to religion across the country. Rural and urban people practice different kinds of culture in day to day life in their villages. The study conducted primary survey in Karnataka State. The study had purposively chosen Antharagange Gram Panchayat in Shimoga district, (GP) for the study. In Antharagange GP, 30 active participant households were selected who participated in MGNREGA manual labour work during 2016-17, 2015-16 and 2014-15. The 30 active households were selected through transit walk during our filed visit. In addition to that 10 inactive households were also selected and hence the total sample size is 40. The primary data was collected during the month of March-May, 2018. The objective of the study is to investigate the economic inequalities among the castes in Antharagange GP. The main findings of the study are: firstly, among the active participated households, 87 per cent of the head of the family is male and 80 per cent in inactive participated households; majority of the active participant head of the family age group is 41-60 and 31-40 years in active households; Nearly 40 per cent of the active participant household head is illiterate and middle school in inactive participant households. Secondly, half of the active participant head of the family primary occupation is agriculture & allied activities. But caste-wise, majority of the SC head of the household main occupation is wage labour. In case of inactive participated households’ head of the family, primary occupation is agriculture & allied activities. In our study, active participant households have semi-pucca houses and 70 per cent in inactive participated households. Thirdly, 67 per cent of active participant households have land and remaining 33 per cent of them do not. Many farmers are available in inactive participant households and they belong to BC
households and their land size is 14 acres. Our study observed that the average income differences are higher in active participant households. The main policy suggestions of the study are: Government has to provide the land for the weaker sections of the people particularly, SCs/STs in their villages. Secondly, Government has to provide pucca houses to the ones without it in GP/village.

Invisible in Public Space: The Sewer Workers of Punjab

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It has been more than five years when the Prohibition of Employment as Manual Scavengers and their Rehabilitation Act was passed in the Parliament of India in 2013. The “Prohibition of Employment as Manual Scavengers and their Rehabilitation Act, 2013” clearly defines “manual scavenger” as a person engaged or employed, at the commencement of this Act or at any time thereafter, by an individual or a local authority or an agency or a contractor, for manually cleaning, carrying, disposing of, or otherwise handling in any manner, human excreta in an insanitary latrine or in an open drain or pit. No wonder, this act failed to prohibit the scavenging in the country but the prohibition on the lives and deaths of these scavengers can surely be experienced. Despite of that, every year, more scavengers are added into the work of scavenging. This degraded and horrendous form of work violates the Human Rights Act and Article 46 of Constitution of India. In the urban areas, the sewage workers (comes under manual scavenging) are the lifeline of these cities. Since the year 2000, lives of 1760 sewer workers have been engulfed in the sewers. Sewers, the lifelines of modern cities are proving to be death lines for the sewer workers. How much more slaying it will take for the Government to declare it a national emergency? It is not only the question of human lives but also of human self-respect. There is a need for a movement that transcends caste and social structure and may emancipate the sewage workers from such menial jobs. An effort has been made to unfold the ignored realities of occupational challenges, potential health hazards and social exclusion of sewage workers through a survey on 60 sewer workers in Ludhiana city of Punjab state.
Theme 2

CHILD DEVELOPMENT:
A FAIR CHANCE TO EVERY CHILD
Child Development:
A Fair Chance to Every Child

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The enhancement of children’s capabilities has to be assessed against the backdrop of the many positive features that characterise India’s development over the past 25 years or so.

– India has enjoyed strong economic growth since the early 1990s
– Poverty has been declining at an increasingly rapid pace over the past two decades
– India is witnessing sharp declines in fertility and population growth rates
– Women in India enjoy far greater freedoms they did than two decades ago

India has also made steady progress in advancing child rights with improvements along many dimensions including child survival and nutrition, schooling, and access to basic social services.

However, despite the impressive economic growth and reductions in multidimensional poverty, three features stand out:

– India’s children do not fare as well as those in China and most countries of South Asia; and

– Progress of India’s children has been slow despite the country having strong laws, policies and schemes for promoting child rights

– Inequality of opportunities for children is striking. Progress among India’s children has been uneven.

Not all children get a fair chance in life.

Given that this is a Conference of Social Science Institutions, let me reflect on three broad questions relating to social science research and child well-being:

– How well has scientific research contributed to our understanding of the enhancement of children’s capabilities and the ending of childhood poverty?
– Why is specialized research more important today than it has been in the past?
– How can research and researchers stay relevant in the post-truth era?
Contribution of Research
I shall begin by reflecting on the contribution of scientific research to our understanding of children’s well-being. I notice an unfortunate reluctance to support research on childhood deprivations even by many agencies that have traditionally done so. I also notice that the grumbling against social science research has been growing over the past two decades or so. We need to understand why this is so.

The Need for more Specialized Research
There are a number of reasons why specialized research is perhaps more important today than that it has been so far.

– We face a real challenge in the development sector because “what you see is not what you get.”
– We live in a so-called post-truth era – where facts are distorted and lies are fabricated.
– We may not be tracking the right things – and so absence of evidence may not be evidence of absence
– Only research can help us understand causality and help design appropriate policies that address the roots of the problem.

Staying Relevant
In the concluding section of my presentation, I shall reflect on what is needed to ensure that both research and researchers stay relevant in the post-truth era.

– Good research and researchers ought to contribute to the social construction of truth and promote governance by discussion by actively engaging in public discussion and debates.
– Researchers should stop looking for piecemeal solutions and techno-managerial solutions to social problems.
– Specialized research should address three over-arching concerns if every child has to get a fair chance – and no one is left behind:
  • understand the reasons behind the shrinking role of the welfare state.
  • answer a related question: if the State is failing to fulfil in its responsibilities, can society rely on the private markets and the private sector to safeguard the interests of children?
  • understand the inter-connections between poverty, inequality, deprivations, child discrimination, and well-being.
This paper is an attempt to assess gender inequalities among children across the states in India in regard to demographic structure (Sex ratio of children of 0-6 years), health, nutrition, and education. The states have been classified in to three categories, viz., lagging states including North Eastern states, agricultural led growth states and urbanising states to examine the association between the nature of the states and gender inequalities among children. It is hypothesised that the gender inequalities will be lower in urbanising states and agriculture led growth states compared to those in lagging states.

This paper is based on the secondary data. The States with low urbanization rates, high GDP per capita and relatively higher share of agriculture are categorized as agricultural growth-led states, while high urbanization rates and high GDP per capita with reducing share of agriculture are labeled as urbanizing states. Further, the States with low urbanization rates and low GDP per capita and low productive agricultural sector drive growth are called as lagging States (Prabhu Pingali, et al, 2019).

The agricultural growth States include Punjab, Haryana, Andhra Pradesh, and Himachal Pradesh. The urbanising States are Kerala, Goa, Maharashtra, TamilNadu, Gujarat, Karnataka, Telangana and uttarakhand.Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, West Bengal, Rajasthan, Jammu and Kashmir and North Eastern States- Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Tripura and Arunaachal Pradesh.

From the analysis it is evident that the child sex ratios are better in the North Eastern States, lagging State and urbanizing and lagging states are in better position in comparison with the agricultural growth-led State. This analysis indicates that the
child sex ratios are better off in lagging states, but they become worse off in the agricultural-led growth state and again they become better off with urbanization when agricultural growth-led states go with higher urbanization.

It is striking to note that the mortality rates among girls are lower than those among boys across the states. Boys have suffered more than girls from anemia by and large across all the States except very few States. The gender parity ratios are not favorable for females at higher levels of education across all the category of States, except the agriculture growth-led states. On the whole gender inequalities among children have kept the same relationship with the category of states as the sex ratio has.

Thus, it is evident from the analysis that empowerment of women (from the experience of North-eastern states) and urbanization are highly associated with the reduction in gender inequalities. Further, the transformation process in terms of laggard State to agricultural growth-led State and thereon to urbanizing state may contribute considerably to the reduction in gender inequalities. This also indicates that hastening this transformation process would yield desirable outcomes in reducing gender inequalities among children.

Does Early Childhood Education Provisions in India Provide Any Dividend to Children?

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Childhood is the most important phase of human life and it forms the basis of intelligence, personality, and social behaviour (UNICEF, 2017; Benton, 2010; Evans et al., 2000). Children attending early education program is associated with cognitive gains and improved performance in school around the world (Weiland & Yoshikawa, 2013; Yoshikawa et al., 2013; Decicca & Smith, 2011; Dumas & Lefranc, 2012, Gormley et al., 2008). Early intervention is considered more decisive for children from a disadvantaged background and from the developing world (Linda et al., 2017; Waldfogel, 2015; Dumas & Lefranc, 2012; Patrice et al., 2011). However, on the one hand, it is found that attending childcare was associated with better cognitive and social development (NICHD ECCRN and Duncan, 2003; Peisner-Feinberg et al., 2003), on the other hand, it has also been witnessed that early, extensive, and continuous non-maternal care may have some development risks for young children and the larger society (Belsky, 2002, 2001).
India is home to approximately twenty per cent of the world’s child population in the age group of 0-6 years and has one of the world’s largest child development programs named Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS), in operation since 1975, along with several unregulated private provisions. Even though an increasing number of children attend various ECE provisions in India, its impact on children's development and well-being is not well documented. Studies evaluating the performance of the ICDS program were primarily focused on the nutritional development of children, whereas, cognitive and socio-emotional development were largely ignored (Government of India, 2011). There was some evidence showing the positive impact of the ICDS program on children’s nutrition, school enrollment, and better performance (Dutta and Ghosh, 2017; NIPCCD, 1992; NIPCCD 1992, 2006; UNESCO 2006). In addition, a recent study witnessed only a modest impact of the ICDS program on children’s socio-emotional development (World Bank, 2018).

Based on primary data of 1369 children, in the first grade in primary schools, from India, this study looked into the intrinsic worth of existing ECE provisions, particularly the public ones, in providing the foundation for a better future to the children in India. It explores two interrelated questions: First, do the children who attended preschool perform better at a later stage compared to their peers? Second, does attending private preschool provide any relative advantage to children compared to those attended public preschool?

It is evident from the result that the ECE provisions in India contribute to child development, but only partially in the form of social skill development. Whereas it seems helpful in improving children’s social skills, it does not appear to add to their cognitive development. Besides, the type of preschool attended does not provide any extra edge. Given the fact that not only preschool attendance but also the quality of the preschool matters (Sharon et al. 2019; Yoshikawa et al. 2015), it raises the question concerning the curriculum practiced and the quality of care they provide in the existing preschools in India. Given the fact that, ICDS is mainly targeted towards the marginalized section of the society, improving the quality of early education provided would certainly help children from disadvantaged backgrounds building a strong foundation.
Who Joins Nursing Education in Kerala? The Role of Family Background and Finance in Nursing Education

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There is a dearth of qualified nurses in India though tremendous efforts have been taken to improve nursing education in India. There is an increase in the number of courses, institutions and enrolment of students in nursing education. The cost of nursing education is increasing over time. It is becoming increasingly difficult for the government to fund education. Fees pose a big hurdle for socially and economically disadvantaged students to get access to education. With the rising costs of education, it is difficult to achieve access to quality education. This study focuses on the socio-economic background of the graduate students in Kerala using the data from Nurse Migration Survey in Kerala -2016. The survey was conducted by Professor Irudhaya S Rajan, Centre for Development Studies, Thiruvananthapuram, Professor Hisaya Oda, Ritsumeikan University, Japan and Professor Yulo Tsujita, Institute of Developing Economies, Japan for their study on ‘The Migration of Nurses: The case of Kerala, India’. This study finds that the educational endowment of the family plays a major role in the entry of students in the nursing field. The paper seeks to analyse the major sources of financing made by students from five wealth quintiles. The main source of financing is categorised into three groups: Formal, informal and family savings. The student’s dependency on informal resources is due to the lack of access to formal institutions like banks. Though no collateral is required for educational loans up to 4 lakhs, students from poor backgrounds are not able to get loans. The descriptive analysis shows that 67 per cent of the students who were dependent upon informal sources of financing were very happy at the time of admission and 33 per cent were happy at the time of their admission. 46 per cent of the students who utilized family savings for financing their education was very happy at the time of admission. 9 per cent of them were unhappy at the time of admission. 11 per cent of the students who used formal sources to finance their education were unhappy at the time of admission.
Learning Outcomes of Ninth Grade Students in Selected Schools with Reference to Social Inclusion

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School enrollments have been increasing but the quality of education has been declining in India. Levels of learning differ between children from higher income families and children from poor families. First-generation learners from poor and socially disadvantaged families face problems. To remedy the situation, the government of Andhra Pradesh runs free residential schools for the economically and socially disadvantaged. Recently, several low fees private schools have mushroomed in the education space. In this context, the paper examines the learning outcomes of the ninth-grade children in mathematics, and languages in selected government residential schools for the disadvantaged and the low fees private schools across the state of Andhra Pradesh. The sample survey of 300 students across 15 schools conducted across the three regions of Andhra Pradesh viz., North coastal Andhra, Central coastal Andhra and Rayalaseema, examines the learning outcomes of scheduled caste children across three school types; the schools run by social welfare department exclusively for scheduled caste children, residential schools run for children from economically poor families and low fees private schools. The aim is to see if scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children perform better in private schools compared to government residential schools. The study also examines the mean scores of each school type with a random sample drawn proportional to the caste distribution of the students in the ninth grade. A specially prepared test in Mathematics, English language and mother tongue Telugu language was administered to the students. It is found that the overall performance was poor in all schools, the schools run by social welfare department show relatively poorer performance. The mean scores of scheduled caste students are not significantly different across different school types. The average test scores are relatively better in private schools for English. When controlled for the educational background of the parents, the private school advantage is not significant. Further, the bimodal distribution of the test scores in schools clearly show that weak students who score less than 50% marks are neglected. The pass percentage in tenth grade is high in all schools showing that many children come out of the school system without much educational achievement.
Substance Abuse and Juvenile Delinquency: An Enquiry into Juvenile Crime & Stakeholder Perceptions

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Children are considered to be a vulnerable section of society due to initial years of an individual are their formative years as well as the years where their behaviour is also suggestible to their surrounding and circumstances at a higher incidence than adults. Multitude of children are subject to violent atmospheres at their households due to weak familial structures and many of the children who end up committing crimes or getting caught up in situations which are out of their control, yet they due to such activities result in them being arrested and being detained by the state authorities. Their immature understanding of the acts and offences they commit also is brought out in many studies over the years, due to which a separate juvenile justice system was set up for addressing children who end up committing crimes.

Many of the children who come into the juvenile justice system as juveniles in conflict with the law in Delhi belong to economically weaker sections, and are residents of slums and informal settlements of the city. The children who are detained on commission of crime have poor socio-economic backgrounds, have not finished their primary education, have dropped out of school, are engaged in criminal activities, most often in groups or ‘gangs’, such as gambling, smoking, consuming drugs and other such ‘delinquent’ or criminal behaviour. It becomes necessary to understand the children’s experiences upon coming into contact with the juvenile justice system, the circumstances surrounding the commission of their crime, the influence of peer groups and the activities undertaken by the individual in the group in the living experience of the child.

The functioning of the system itself needs an appraisal with an understanding of the practices of rehabilitation and reintegration. The follow-up on the children who leave the system and dearth community-based support for ex-addicts and CCLs is also a matter of concern.
Study of Working Children and Adolescent Workers in the State of Telangana

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The present study, “Study of Working Children and Adolescent Workers in the State of Telangana”, was conducted through the use of smart phones for eliciting information digitally on various aspects of child labour and adolescent workers. The objective of the study was to identify all working children and adolescents in hazardous occupations or processes in the target areas (village/mandals) from all the 10 districts of the State of Telangana as well as to assist the nodal department to formulate an effective implementation strategy for the National Child Labour Project Scheme (NCLPS).

The data collection for the study was undertaken in 10 identified districts of Telangana covered under the second phase. The Department of Labour provided the list of mandals (district wise) with the number of out of school children (OSC). In these mandals, all the villages and habitations were covered under the survey. The target group for the survey included child workers in the age group of 6-14 years and adolescent workers in the age group of 15-18 years engaged in hazardous occupations/processes. The data collection tools included household listing sheets to be used to identify child workers in households in demarcated areas of the villages/slums and child worker schedule to be used to elicit information about child workers’ age, sex, type of work done and the monthly income earned from work. The software (smartphone application) for the data collection on the child/adolescent worker was uploaded on to the smartphones of the investigators to enable them to collect information digitally using their smartphones.

The key findings of the survey were as follows:

- Children identified in the survey were all out of school children who were reported as working in the high OSC mandals.
- The total number of child-labour/adolescent-workers (6-18 years) identified in all OSC mandals was 7603.
- The estimated number of child labour/adolescent workers for all the mandals was 11,932.
- The total number of out of school children was 11,114.
– The total number of child labour/adolescent workers engaged in agricultural/non-agricultural activities was 7603.
– The average monthly earnings of children (9-14 years) were Rs.3695 and that of adolescent workers were Rs.4291.
– In 17 out of the 29 processes listed in Sec. 2 (cb) of the Factories Act, 1948, children (6-14 years) and adolescents (15-18 years) were found to be working, although all the processes listed in Sec. 2 (cb) of the Factories Act, 1948, are considered hazardous as per the CL (P&R) Amended Act, 2016.
– Altogether 164 children in the age group of 6-14 years (6 in the age group of 6-8 years and 158 in the age group of 9-14 years) were working in different activities as child labour, although child labour is completely banned as per the Amended CL Act, 2016.
– Similarly, 846 adolescents were working in different occupations/processes in all the districts combined, out of which quite a large number were engaged in work which are hazardous as per the CL (P&R) Amended Act, 2016.
Socio-Economic Inequalities in Health Outcomes and Health Care Utilization among Children Aged 0-5 Years: An Analysis of NSS 71st Round Data

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The maximum number of children (27 million) are born in India. This brings the opportunity to reap the benefits of demographic dividend, as India would have more population in the working-age group that can contribute to national income. In contrary, India is home to around one-third of the world’s undernourished children. Children are subject to varieties of vulnerabilities and deprivation depending on the socio-economic condition. Various factors like poverty, lack of literacy of the parents or caregivers, their work and living environment, access to the physical infrastructure and essential needs, shape the degree of the child deprivation and vulnerability. In the backdrop of opportunities to reap demographic dividend vis-à-vis challenges, this paper draws various aspects of health vulnerabilities of children followed by pattern of reported morbidity and hospitalization and health care utilization using data from NSSO 72nd round survey. Besides understanding some important socio-economic determinants the paper contributes to strengthening our existing understanding of the influence of sanitation for health in general and child health in particular.

The association among socioeconomic status, the status of health and health-seeking behaviour and mortality have been: people of higher economic status are more likely to report a higher level of illness and seek treatment in hospitals for their children as compared to the poor. But surprisingly children of higher socioeconomic status remain untreated despite a reported higher level of morbidity. The paradox is resolved by examining the disease pattern and causes of health in India. It emerges that poor people report their illness only when it becomes very serious and then resort to treatment. Again, it is evident that poor children suffer from diseases that are more life-threatening as far as causes of death in India is concerned.
In conclusion, we can be put that despite the doubt on self-reported morbidity as an appropriate measure of health outcome, the extent of health vulnerabilities among children belonging to lower socio-economic groups particularly those who are exposed to unhygienic latrine facility or poor sanitation is alarming. With the increasing urbanization, the number of notified and non-notified slums would increase in future and it would be a challenge for the civic authorities to ensure hygienic sanitation and drainage facility. Inadequate and improper functioning of these basic facilities deprives children of their fundamental right to life and health. This scenario needs serious attention in the area of preventive health care to reap benefits of the demographic dividend. It is very much essential that greater attention must be put on the younger generation to generate quality human resources.

**Investing in Child Human Capability Formation while Nurturing the Child and her Transition to Adulthood**

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Children comprise more than one-third of the total population across countries. The growth and development of children are being recognised as critical in the process of the overall development. The rights perspective has drawn further impetus of policy priority for the development of children. The paper is an attempt to develop an investment perspective for the child development on the lines of human capital, human development and child rights perspectives while proposing child budgeting as an analytical tool in this regard.

Research across relevant disciplines observes the importance of early childhood development in shaping adult outcomes. The paradigm shift in development along with the perspectives of human capital and human development observed such critical importance. Accordingly agenda 2030 of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) set an important place for children in the set of goals. However, children have been one of those most vulnerable population groups. Millions of children below 5 years of age die each year across the globe and millions of children who could survive do not reach their developmental potential. A considerable proportion of children across countries have been deprived of their developmental needs. High incidences and prevalence of neo-natal, infant and child mortality, the malnourishment or under-
nutrition reflected in the form of stunting, wasting and under-weight along with anaemia are the challenges. Further, incidences of child marriages, child trafficking and child abuse, child labour, street children, children of respective age-groups not attending pre-school and formal schooling and many are deprived of appropriate care and protection. Therefore, many children are vulnerable to risks involved with chances of survival, lack of or inadequate opportunities for their development and participation and lack of appropriate protective measures. All these risk factors and deprivations during the childhood phase would lead to the loss of their human (capability formation) potential. The severity of such phenomena is more prevalent in developing countries like India, and across relatively backward regions and it is associated with socio-economic conditions at the household level.

In this backdrop, the paper made an attempt to develop an investment perspective for child development in India on the lines of human capital, human development and child rights perspectives. As we present in the following discussion, holistic development at childhood and adolescence has far-reaching implications in human capability formation which has certain instrumental value for labour productivity, income and economic growth. While recognising the reality of disparities in socio-economic conditions at the households and disadvantages of the poor, although the family is the natural environment and parents are natural stakeholders, the nation-state or regional/local ones (governments) has to play a key role and hence the main stakeholder especially in the welfare state context. As has been shown by the research studies, along with private return, there are exceeding social returns to child schooling and development. Externalities (positive or negative) pertained to childhood development would result in certain social benefits (labour productivity, income gain, economic growth, social harmony etc.), lack of it has costs as well (delinquency, crime, social disharmony, etc.). The state mandate of social justice, social inclusion and economic growth with equity could be made possible with providing level playing field in the childhood for children of disadvantaged. Therefore, the household environment for child development along with child policy and prioritising the public spending on social protection and for child development that could be seen as public investment. In this regard, the present paper observes that the child budgeting as an analytical tool for the purpose.
Sexual Abuse on Children in India

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Day by day increasing population lead to different types of crimes which mainly include crimes against mankind. In our country, there are different types of governmental and nongovernmental cells which actively work against such crimes. There are various laws and commissions also set up by the government to protect the rights of mankind and to provide justice. Nowadays crime against children such as sexual abuse is increasing. In fact, even before the year 2012, we didn’t have any law against it. In our country, mainly we followed the POCSO Act and UN conventions to deal against such crimes.

Major responsible factors with respect to the issue of child sexual abuse are, social, political and technological. In the 21st-century, the use of technology has increased amongst all, irrespective of age which has played a vital role. Some hidden changes in society which lead to an increase instead of decline of this issue also exist. Different countries of the world have different understanding and connotations for this sensitive issue but the noteworthy thing is the human psyche. Individual ideology has a major role in bringing the behavioural change in society, and today the need arises to sensitize citizens all around the world to spread awareness and become a sound for innocent children. This paper is an attempt to understand some of the dimensions of the prevailing issue of child sexual harassment in our country and identifies ways for the same.

Inequality in Child Education: An Empirical Investigation

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Improved education can have vital concerns for the plans and implementation of development strategies and their impact on the poor. The overall quality of education in the state at each level of education remains low. The study reveals that there is no apparent gender discrimination in children continuing education from households currently engaged in the unclean occupation. Although higher of male children do go to English medium institution, yet Hindi is the most preferred medium compared to English for both females and males. A Higher percentage of 46.1 % of female
children goes to Hindi medium educational institutions in Mathura city. Hindi was the most preferred medium among the dropout children in Uttar Pradesh. Male dropout children were observed to be going to Hindi medium educational institutions. The urban poverty is the most prevailing factor that forces many from traditionally clean occupation to take up unclean work, as evident from the case of Ahir, Gadariya in Mathura, and Kashyap in Ghaziabad. The status of continuing education for boys is higher amongst Valmikis in Ghaziabad, and is lower for boys in Mathura. The urban poverty is the overriding factor that forces many from traditionally clean occupation to take up unclean work, as evident from the case of Kumhar and Ahir in Mathura. The dropout for boys is higher amongst Valmikis, Khatik, and Raigad. The situation of never entry is higher amongst Scheduled Castes Valmikis, and nil amongst Kashyap, Gadariya, Ahir caste communities. The status of continuing education is high when household heads are educated or literate. Parents’ illiteracy was not too much a factor leading to dropout. The situation of never attending any educational institution drops when the households’ heads have higher education. Thus, the study indicates that the education status of children associated with unclean occupation has improved to some extent because of Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, which provides for free and compulsory education to all children aged 6 to 14 which is anchored in principles of equity and non-discrimination. However, the education completion has not gone much at higher levels due to the fact that dropout is high at secondary and primary level. The reason for poor educational achievements is household related social and economic; poverty, low literacy of parents, intra-household and community settings and living conditions. Nevertheless, discrimination and exclusion happen to be the main issue for their educational backwardness in terms of access to school, school type, infrastructure, provisions and facilities in the school, inclusive behaviour and attitude of authorities in the institution, teachers and peer groups. These result in students’ participation, withholding, attainment, and completion of education. The disparity along caste lines is evident in the educational process. It is important to note the efforts being made through various policies and programmes in order to reduce social gaps and also the gap in education.
Employment Dynamics in Post Liberalized India:
A Multi-State Analysis

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In spite of achieving higher economic growth during the past decades, India could not
generate adequate employment opportunities for the youth. Neither the agriculture
nor the non-farm employment available is enough income-generating to the farmers.
The labour surplus country like India faces a stiff challenge in the generation of
quality of employment due to many factors. The uneven economic growth of the
states is supported by uneven labour dynamics. The paper focuses on capturing the
labour force trends in the post-liberalization period until the recent Periodic Labour
Force Survey (PLFS). The paper attempts to analyse key indicators of employment
and unemployment at the micro level by using Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status
(UPSS) of the labour force of BIMARU states and progressive states of Maharashtra,
Gujarat and Tamil Nadu. Thus, the study throws light on the macro and micro aspects
of labour force dynamics. LFPR and WPR of the urban female are extremely low
in India. More than 50 per cent of the workforce is engaged in the self-employment
activities which does not ensure meaningful income in rural India in the absence of
decent work opportunities. Regular wage employment opportunities are higher in urban
areas when compared to rural areas. The unemployment rate was highest among urban
females of all other categories. However, the data derived by NSSO and PLFS passed
through methodological changes in it. As a consequence, huge difference in numbers
of NSSO round and PLFS of 2017-18 in some key indicators might be attributed to it.
While analysing the states, the study found that the LFPR is higher in rural areas when
compared to urban areas for urban male and female. The states of Bihar and Uttar
Pradesh showed the lowest LFPR and WPR. Moreover, the majority of the workforce of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh are confined to self-employment opportunities due to lower regular wage opportunities. The states of Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Maharashtra provided regular wage opportunity in the survey period. The extent of casualisation of labour was highest in the states of Tamil Nadu followed by Bihar while it was lowest in the states of Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan. The state of Gujarat witnessed a drastic reduction in casual labour when compared to all other states. The unemployment rate was observed to be higher in the state of Bihar when compared to other states.

An Analysis of the Factors Contributing to Mortality among Children Under in India

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In India, child health is in the most alarming state due to a vast number of child deaths and needs more attention of policy makers and planners. Despite concerted efforts of the government and policy makers towards high level of infant and child mortality in India, desired outcomes are still not visible. The child mortality rates of under 5 children in India is devastating compared to other countries. UNIGME child mortality estimates show that the child mortality rates of Under 5 children were around 9 lakhs in 2018 which shows the state of the young children. Globally 7,000 new-borns were still dying every day as per the UNICEF 2019 estimates and nearly 35% of the deaths of under 5 children occurred in India alone in 2018 (UNIGME, 2019 child mortality estimates). India accounts for 76 per cent of the infant deaths occurred in the first month of life amounting to 6 lakh (0.6 million) neonatal deaths in 2016. The neonatal deaths in India declined from 6.3 lakh in 2015 to 5.5 lakh in 2018, a decline of 12.7% with annual rate of reduction (ARR) of 2.26 per cent. It is saddening to note that 10 per cent of the neonatal deaths occur within 24 hr of birth.

In this backdrop, the study makes an attempt to assess the causes of infant deaths among U5 children in India during 2011-12 and 2018-19 using the secondary data available from various government reports like HMIS, WHO, UNICEF reports and publicly available search engines. The study tries to estimate the percentage decline, the annual rate of reduction (ARR) for the estimates with trends and linear regression was modelled to estimate the causes and trends in child deaths. During 1990-2018
there was 74 per cent decline in U5 child deaths in India and ARR was estimated to be 4.72 per cent. Though there was an overall decline in child deaths during the period, the number of child deaths still remains prodigious.

The study finds that the number of stillbirths and abortions reported were the highest at 12.64 lakhs during 2016-17 and declined to 8.63 lakhs by 2018-19. The highest contributing factor to neonatal deaths is LBW (20%), thus revealing the severity of the need to protect the young lives. The number of children with LBW has increased by 25.6% from 20.46 lakhs to 25.7 lakhs during 2014-15 and 2018-19. It is found that the total children anaemic has been increasing from 64 per cent to 84 per cent during the period. The regression model reveals that the number of children having Hb< 11g/dl has increased by 35 lakhs per annum during the three year period (2014-16), while the children having severe anaemia has increased by 85 thousand per annum during the period. This study suggests for better policies for high coverage of good quality care during labour and birth which gives a quadruple return on investment by preventing maternal and neonatal deaths and also stillbirths and disability with improvements in child development. Thus there is a dire need for investing in healthcare for saving the young lives.

Emerging Inequalities in School Education in India

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The Draft New Education policy, 2019 has to be seen in the context of increasing privatization since 1991 and shedding of all inhibitions, in recent times, and declaring that private sector needs to be involved more meaningfully in expanding the reach and improving the quality of elementary education in the country. The partnerships that are being spoken in sustainable development goals also meant to be a partnership with the private sector. Earlier education commissions, beginning from University Education Commission under Dr. S. Radhakrishna in 1948, Secondary School Education Commission under Dr A.L. Mudaliar, Kothari Commission and up till National education policy, 1985, there were many a mentioning of the requirement of near complete presence of public funded education sector and keeping education away from the for-profit activity. The Draft New Education policy, 2019 without speaking about the increasing role of the private sector and resultant privatization
and commoditization of the education sector, is trying to project itself as having all-encompassing educationally idealistic vision of equity, quality and accessibility. And in fact, it is emphasising more of quality at the cost equity and genuine accessibility.

State intervention was the main basis of educational transformation in all most all the countries across the world. State action in school education without reliance on the private sector was responsible for educational transformation in Europe and America in the nineteenth century, later in Japan followed by the rapid expansion of schooling under communist rule in the Soviet Union, China, Cuba, Vietnam and elsewhere. Even in East Asia, where there was strong commitment to develop a privatized market economy in general, active state intervention was responsible for educational transformation (Jean Drez and Amartya Sen, 2013).

As against this, in India before and after independence, though there was a demand for education for all as part of freedom struggle and constitutional provisions favouring it, the complete state intervention was not given a serious attempt. And with neo-liberal economic reforms which began in the late 1980s, the thought of active and complete state intervention has been relegated and the policies of privatization are being encouraged leading to the overall unfavourable atmosphere for the continuation of public funded school education system.

Less allocation of budget, contractualization and casualization of the staff, increasing privatization and legitimization of multi-layer and discriminatory school system have led to a situation of decreasing space, in thought and action, for public funded school education. Privatization and commercialization of education in general and school education in particular making quality and “good education, instead of being available to all children, or at least to all the able children from every stratum of society, is available only to a small minority which is usually selected not on the basis of talent but on the basis of its capacity to pay fees. The identification and development of the total national pool of ability is greatly hampered. The position is thus undemocratic and inconsistent with the idea of an egalitarian society” (Kothari Commission).

In this overall context, my paper tries to explore, analyse and evaluate and the education policies and their implementation and how they have resulted in increasing privatization and simultaneous negligence of public funded school education in the country despite the ideals of the constitution that favour egalitarian order.
Inter State Disparities in Health Outcomes – Maternal and Infant Mortality

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Understanding the varied the performance of states in health outcomes is significant in the context that the share of health component in the Human Development Index is lower than income and education components. Enhancing the status of health will further improve the status of Human Development of the country and reduce inequalities across the states. Further, it is also important in working towards the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3 which aims at ensuring healthy life and promotion of well-being and the sets the targets for maternal and infant mortality to be declined by 2030.

Over the years, greater attention is being paid in regard to the allocation of funds on the development of health infrastructure and management of health care services including promotion of public-private partnerships. The Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) Programme has been designed to provide quality health care services to the child and mother (1996). The National Rural Health Mission (2006) is another landmark intervention for improving maternal health and child care in rural areas. The extent of access and utilization has been varied between states, which is responsible for differences in social development between them. Various studies attempted to examine the relationship between income inequality and health status in terms of child mortality (Joe et al. 2008 and James K.S and Shyamala, 2010). The study aims at examining the variations in mortality rates and their determinants across 19 major states of India. The study uses NFHS 4 -2015-16 and SRS -2015-17 data for mortality rates and RBI Handbook of Statistics, National Health Profile, 2018, Rural Health Statistics, 2017 and Census 2011 for socio-economic factors and maternal health care indicators. Correlation coefficients and regression equations have been estimated to understand the relationship between health outcomes and other socio-economic factors.

The results show that health outcomes in terms of maternal and infant ratios have been moving towards a declining trend across states of India. Assam, Bihar, Rajasthan, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Uttar Pradesh have shown higher mortality rates consistently than the national average. These low performing
states are not picking up sharply hence the gap is widening between states. The states with historically high mortality rates have shown a lower performance in all the determining factors- economic status, public health expenditure, health infrastructure, female literacy and maternal health care. Some of these states have not taken advantage of having higher per capita public health expenditure and higher health infrastructure index than that of other states. Thus, both, a low level of facilities and under or un-utilisation of resources cause the lagging behind of these states over other states in reducing their level of mortality rates. The significant negative correlation between mortality rates and maternal health care is important to increase the scale of operations in the deficient areas. Hence, area-specific policy support is needed to improve the health status of the country and also to move towards meeting the targets set by the SDG 3.

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The broad objective of the study is to examine the variations in health outcomes – focusing on maternal and child mortality and their determinants across the major states of India.

An Experiment with Service Learning:
Nursing the Students Social Responsibility

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This research paper discusses the potential of service-learning in enabling students to see the ground reality and engage with communities. Administration learning is focused learning which joins the ideas of ‘administration’ and ‘learning’ this is more of forced learning, this is one-way training, learning must empower to see the ground reality and draw from the reality from the context. The principle objective behind administration
learning information is instructed and intensity forced approach appears in learning. Service-learning helps students to use their knowledge base to understand social issues and explore the individual and collective actions they can take in the future to solve community problems. It studies the process of case studies. An exchange of ideas takes place when the communities and the students interact with each other; hence the researcher has chosen ‘Qualitative Method’ of data collection and case study method. Qualitative was the appropriate approach because it uses the ‘Inductive’ method wherein the explanations emerge from the data collected. The dominant themes and categories have been formed and analysed throughout the research period. Practical learning of the participant has been studied. The practice is termed as service-based learning only when the academic expertise of students is utilised in service. The paper tries to understand how the academic expertise of the students can be used for the benefit of the community. The paper also includes the reflections of students and teachers and the perspective of the organizations on the effectiveness of compulsory and voluntary service-learning.

**Child Development: A Fair Chance to Every Child**

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The vision of the Indian education system is to provide a high quality education to all children. The most challenging task for teaching professionals is to provide Inclusive and holistic education to children. The draft National Education Policy 2019, aims at equitable & inclusive education for every child in the country, with a special focus on under-represented groups (URGs). One of the policy recommendations is to move the teacher education system into multidisciplinary colleges and universities, to ensure that teachers are given the highest quality training in content, pedagogy, and practice. The National Council for Teacher Education ensures proper regulation of Norms and Standards in the teacher education system. The teacher education curriculum adopted enriches student-teachers knowledge on smooth and successful transition of knowledge, but the majority of teachers find classroom practices as a challenging task. The motto of the present paper is to brief on the need to educate student-teachers during Internship Programme conducted in the seventh semester on the importance of the Perspectives of Teacher Education to promote growth and development of every child; on the importance of self-observation to transform the leader within the
self to transform the school into a learning organization, and to commit all the school stakeholders to promote learning of all.

**English Language Learning and Its Problems in Karnataka**

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English language has been part and parcel of Indians irrespective of the class, caste, sex, age etc since the invasion of British on the country in such a way that even uneducated old and senile lot use English words like road, pension, bus, auto and several other Anglican words within the mother tongue in day to day routine. In the same way, English-speaking brings forth a kind of untold respect and awe among the people who speak and listen equally. The one who does not English is well-nigh considered as an ignorant nincompoop in the official as well as the familial atmosphere and the surrounding would ridicule such person as good for nothing. In first grade colleges of small towns and taluks, optional English courses compared to all others has been regarded as a paragon of erudition and scholarship. In such a scenario, the students of under graduation will confront myriad inexplicable problems in their learning in southern India. Moreover, they suffer from inferiority, shyness, and humiliation feeling the intense lack of proficiency in the language. This paper attempts to deal with the problems of English learning in UG classrooms.
Education is a weapon of human development indicator. Increase of education growth results in gross development production in the country. The present article attempts to throw light on the state of literacy among tribal groups and factors contributing to the generally educational attainment among them. A rough figure of about 573 scheduled tribes living in different parts of our country. Speaking more than 270 languages and maintaining exclusive identities. According to the 2011 census, the ST population was 1,04,27,10,347 or 8.6 percent of the country total population. According to Article 29 and 30 our constitution has provided the cultural and educational right to the people of Indians. In our country different culture, creed and religion people are living, one of the most important community i.e., Scheduled Tribes communities education situation plays a vital role in development of tribes. Education is regarded as a powerful instrument of social, economic, political cultural changes. The role, of education is to impart knowledge, develop skills and inculcate right type of attitudes, values and interests. The Kothari Commission suggested at education should relate to the life needs and aspirations of the people. By the end of Sixth Plan least 5 percent run primary classes as per the revised syllabi. In an adequate number of the usual educational institutions, vocational facilities should be provided e.g., agriculture training, industrial trades, sports, etc., so that services become actually available to the tribal. On the formal educational side also, both the qualitative and quantitative aspects should engage serious attention. Telangana gurukulam schools, Ashram schools, pre-matric scholarships, post matric scholarships, postmatric scholarships coaching for admission into foreign universities, university grants commission was sanctioned different fellowship for post-matric scholarship, doctoral fellowships,
post-doctoral fellowships to encourage the higher education of schedule tribes. Various educational policies and programmes to introduce government of India it has been focused to improve the literacy rate of the tribal communities. After 70 years of independence the tribal people are still lagging behind from the development basically in education field. Still high drop outs and illiteracy rate is high among the tribal in comparison to other communities. The present paper mainly discusses about the scheduled tribes education system in India and Telangana state programs for the scheduled tribes. In another point of view I studied two mandals of Warangal district, 101 families educational situations and observed that majority families are agricultural background, few respondents with private job and business. Educational status of respondents and their children’s studied upto graduation, post-graduation, professionals courses such as engineering, pharmactual sciences and bachelor of education. The central and state governments are still supporting to improve the scheduled tribal education.

Assess Nutrition – Status and Forecasting New Type of Vulnerabilities in Children: Study of Jharkhand

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Although the household survey data shows much slower rates of per capita consumption growth than do these national account estimates, even these slower rates are associated with substantial decrease in poverty since the early 1980s, Deaton and Drèze (2002), Himanshu (2007). Reports also suggest that undernutrition levels in India are still higher than for most of sub-Saharan countries. Unresolved puzzle is that despite increase in real per capita income there is decrease in calories consumption as historical evidence suggests and thus leading to a divergence between poverty measures which is decided by real expenditures and those which are calculated using calorie. In addition to this nutritional level has increased undeterred by decrease in calorie consumption in last few decades. So our objective to measure nutrition should be not one i.e. calorie of the many variables which causes the malnourishment but to prevail upon nutritional status itself.
Jharkhand which falls under agro-climatic zone VII (Eastern Plateau and Hilly region), with 26.3% Tribal Population. It is continuing to be one of the poorest states and has some specific rudimentary problems. National level study masks the actual condition of the state and that is why we have selected Jharkhand which has distinctive and divergent culture (geographically).

Objective of this paper is to analyze health-deprivation resulting from lower nutritional outcome and discrimination in health capital formulation between both genders among the children of the society. The study focuses on finding the determinants for health deprivation in the state of Jharkhand. Suggesting any policy prescription for this issue requires sound understanding of the nature and the effects of this problem. Our focus would be to highlight features suggestive of necessary interventions.

For the detailed study we decided to cover the whole state using data of NFHS-4. We calculated anthropometric measures which are based on age, height and weight and the indicators are stunting, wasting and underweight. The distribution of heights and weights in the reference population is used to set cut-offs. In addition to this we also studied in connection with rural and urban division, on the subject of sex of child, vaccination and immunization, antenatal check-ups of women, safe—drinking water as it comes out to be one of the important indicators of nutrition, prevalence of health and hygiene practices, Birth control Measures, Wealth, education etc. and analyzed the contiguous spread using bivariate technique. Further we do the multivariate analysis to determine the contributing factors of child and women malnutrition.

It comes out that cases of stunting, wasting and underweight is highest among Schedule Tribe population, with 43.72% cases of stunting and 32.21% cases of wasting. Cases of stunting are the highest in female child. As the scholastic attainment level of mother increases, there is little decline in the risk of malnourishment, and only after reaching the higher secondary level, there is a steep decline. As wealth level increases, risk falls; but shows bias towards male child except for the wealthiest sub-group. Urban and rural Jharkhand shows different path for their equitable investment of prosperity in health. Supportive evidences are attached under appendix.

Among all the districts pashchimi singhbhu, Saraikela Kharsawa, Jamtara, Godda and Deoghar has performed worst whereas Purbi singhbhum, Lohardaga and Ranchi has performed best. These anthropometric measures also get impacted by Some of the
major determinants are - income generating activities of mother, number of siblings, Toilet, BMI of mothers, educational level of mother.

An Analysis View on AUM of Life Insurers in Indian Insurance Industry

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Insurance exclusively life insurance sector plays an influential role in creation of Wealth, capital formation, and allocation of long term funds that is inevitable for comprehensive development of a nation. Mobilized insurance funds are required to circulate in an extensive manner so as to recompense the insurers to meet their obligation towards policy holders and the claims convention arrives. Therefore, Insurers have to systematize their assets in well sound managed and judicious practices, simultaneously achieve consistent in their risk profile and in liquidity. Consequently, insurance companies forever required to have an investment strategy, which is unconventional from the hindrance over the nature of business underwritten.

Therefore, risk-management function of life insurers should be assess on the back ground of aptness and investment policy associated with the market circumstance and further risk factors. During the latest era of insurance business environment in India horning that, there is massive scope for investment opportunities. Collectively new economic policy, together IRDA resolutions have curtailed over the reservation/restriction pursue on emerging investors, entrepreneurs particularly in the field of insurance sector. Insurers are probing themselves to exercise their assets in different ways rather than the traditional mechanism, inclusive of more insurance funds and internalize public investment strategy. Indian economy has been considered third largest emerging in the real world economy that substantiate with apprehensive GDP growth rate. The present paper tries to portray there is an unequal development in the financial sector where insurance sector has presumed to an emerging field enhances the flow of investment that is inevitable while realize the economic efforts. Large populated country like India people still for away from the aware of insurance service as well as fond of them self in traditional insurance products. More than a one hand half decades insurance sector has been opened to private service providers, unfortunately insurance sector struggling to self-sustained when compare to the developed countries,
it might be lack of illiteracy in the financial aspects, though, insurers are exercising via different insurance products but prevailed insurance market is dominance over the traditional products. Because, financial market in India is too mixture of organised and unorganised that is volatile. Hence, people hesitate to invest their funds on non-traditional products or purchasing such kind of investment products results in lower progress of asset under management. Therefore, insurance companies are required to have an investment strategy, complexity of which is dependent upon the nature of the business underwritten. The risk management function should assess on the appropriateness of the investment policy to changes in market conditions and other risk factors.

**From Street to Safety: Understanding Vulnerabilities and Utilizing Capacities of Street Children: A Long Road to SDGs**

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This paper can be previewed in twofold themes: Children and Disasters; and Street Children and Disasters. Beginning with Children and Disasters: with an overall increase in the frequency and the intensity of different types of disasters across several countries, children stand exposed to higher levels of vulnerability more because of their needed and unavoidable dependence on adults. Therefore, the chances of injuries and illness shoot up more for children, than adults. Researches related to identifying concerns of children generally rely on the assumptions of adults regarding how children feel and what they need, which leads to the word of the actual subject of concern remaining unheard.

Therefore, the need for the researchers and practitioners to understand children’s concerns from children’s perspective is highlighted. Having understood the vulnerabilities of children, we discuss the capacities that children possess which can contribute to the realization of Disaster Risk Reduction. It is here that the paper opens into the next subtheme of concern- Street Children and Disaster. This theme begins with an understanding of why street children is a specially categorized concern in the first place. The concept of ‘street children’ is not a fresh concern in any part of the world, and neither has it escaped the lens of academics completely. The concept of children living in the streets can be understood as an offshoot of
rapid industrialization as well as urbanization, specifically in developing countries like India. However, only a few studies have explored the resilience of children to disasters, and even fewer have focussed on street children in disasters, despite the presence of evidence of highly adaptive behaviours. The text highlights the efforts initiated by various Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) across the world to offer solutions to the challenges felt by street children. The significant point of lack of sufficient access to social capital by street children has been elaborated. Having understood the vulnerabilities and having identified the capacities of street children, here, the text discusses the potential challenges that can hinder research in this area. Any type of study on street children may be stifled by several challenges including operationalizing street children and sampling. Keeping this in view, few recommendations have been put forth to combat these challenges in order to make efforts to reduce the vulnerabilities of street children effectively. The text closes with explicitly establishing the link between the topic of this paper and the larger theme of Child Development: A Fair Chance to Every Child.

Education plays a significant role in the development of individual as well as the development of the State. Literacy is considered as one of the indicators of educational development of the State. Literacy refers to one’s ability to read, write and communicate well. The purpose of the study was to understand the role of educational policies on the literacy rate and to identify the disparities among the people who reside in urban and rural areas for literacy rate. It further tried to understand whether there were gender differences for literacy rate. It aimed at understanding how literacy rate over the time has increased among the regions and gender. The study was descriptive in nature. The data had been collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary sources comprised of census data on literacy rate and the Gazettes of Karnataka from 1991-2011. From the study it can be inferred that the educational policies played a significant role in increasing literacy rate in the State. The free and compulsory education has played a significant role in increasing the literacy rate. The Midday meal scheme of the government had a huge impact on increasing the literacy rate, increasing enrolment and decreasing the dropout rate. Supply of bicycles to girl students, financial assistance to poor students greatly helped the students and played important role in increasing the literacy rate. From the study it was also clearly evident that the difference was decreasing between male and female in terms of literacy rate in both urban and rural area. The State government implemented number of policies
and programmes to increase the female literacy rate but still we can find large kind of disparity in terms of literacy rate gender wise also. The total literacy rate programme and the Akshara Sene programme had greatly contributed to increase in the literacy rate. Further it was inferred from the data that there was regional disparity for individuals who resided in urban and rural areas in terms of literacy rate. There were wide disparities in the educational development between north and south districts. Certain districts like Dakshina Kannada who had highest literacy rate and certain districts where the literacy rate was very low such as Yadgiri. It is clearly evident from the data that there is need for adequate policies to increase literacy rate in the north Karnataka districts. The government was successful in increasing the literacy rate but simultaneously it can be inferred from the data that there was disparity existed both in terms of gender and region wise.
Theme 3

CHALLENGES OF URBAN TRANSFORMATION
Challenges of Urban Transformation Inclusive Urbanisation

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This paper examines some of the most relevant issues in making the process of urbanization in India more inclusive and sustainable. Inclusiveness re-enforces sustainability.

Majority of the world population lives in urban settlements today. Transformation from rural to urban world has been rather fast in the last few decades with the unprecedented growth in incomes and consumption boosted by highly accelerated growth in technology and productivity. Technology which has been largely harnessed for productivity growth has not been commensurately harnessed for social inclusiveness and cohesion.

Developed countries already are 80% to 90% urban. The rest of the world is catching up. Urbanisation process in India has been exceptionally slow. India was of 31.1% urban in 2011. This figure, though, has been questioned. Detailed sets of gridded estimates, based on satellite imageries would suggest urbanization level of upto 38%. Even with this, India is one of the least urbanized countries. But it is more or less certain that India will have to catch up with a more accelerated process of urbanization.

Problem of social exclusiveness, destitution, slums, pollution of rivers, water scarcity, air pollution, and use of polluting sources of energy etc. are already acute in towns and cities. An accelerated process of urbanization will add further to the intensity of these problems.

While metro agglomerations will keep expanding as they offer better infrastructure and services, most of the urban growth in future is likely to come from the transformation of villages into urban settlements. It is seen from earlier studies that cities have lower level of poverty than rural areas and smaller towns. But this is because of the traditional method of measuring poverty with main focus on food. Actually if poverty has to represent ‘deprivation’ and ‘destitution’, cost of food is no longer that important in urban areas. Cost of housing is important, and is the major cause
of destitution in bigger cities. Bigger cities also pose a lot of other environmental problems. Many of smaller towns and settlements are still not statutorily recognized in India and hence are deprived of funds for urban development. Poverty levels are high in smaller towns. There is no town planning. Infrastructure and services are acutely poor.

Across the states, India has varied experiences in urbanization, ranging from 10% to 60% and above. More urbanized states also show more evenly spread urbanization with better urban governance. There is much to learn from within the country.

The urban poor suffer from a large number of vulnerabilities: residential, occupational and social. Urban poor need to be identified on the basis of these vulnerabilities. If this is done, the magnitude of urban poverty may turn out to be much larger than what is generally believed.
TECHNICAL SESSION 3.1

Challenges of Urbanisation: A Case Study of Dehradun

Dhirendra Datt Dangwal, Professor, School of Liberal Studies, Ambedkar University, Delhi

Small towns and cities are growing very fast in the last few decades. Infrastructure and civic amenities have not been able to keep pace with the growth of population in these towns and cities. This is putting tremendous pressure on them; many of them are crumbling under their own weight. Scholars have not given enough attention to the study of these towns and cities.

In this paper I am focusing on Dehradun city, which was a small town, not far back in time. I am analyzing the transformation it has seen in the last two centuries, growing from a small town to a large town, and then a city and now rapidly growing capital of a state. In its journey, it kept changing its identity. Here in this paper I am discussing this process and exploring forces that transformed it over the years. It was a hamlet in a wide valley at the foot of the Himalaya when the British occupied it. They initially dreaded the valley for it contained swampy and marshy land with dense vegetation. Above the valley grew a new settlement, known as Mussoorie, which shortly by the middle of the nineteenth century emerged as a very popular hill station. The British, who visited Mussoorie, were quick to notice that the valley below was very fertile, hence worked for draining the marshy land and clearing dense vegetation. The urban settlement in the valley grew in close association with Mussoorie. In no time Dehradun became a popular town with Europeans, many of whom chose to settle down here after retirement. This paper looks into the factors of the growth and popularity of this town.

The Independence and partition reshaped Dehradun. A large number of inhabitants left for their home in Europe. And a large number of refugees came to settle down here changing the character of the town. At the same time many national institutions were set up here which contributed to retain and reinforce its cosmopolitan characteristic,
as well as its popularity as a best place for boarding schools. However, what affected
the town most was limestone query in the nearby hills. These mines not only created
white patches on the green hills of the valley but also adversely effected water supply
of Dehradun and Mussoorie, apart from causing air pollution. This resulted in one of
the first urban environmental movements in the country. This paper shall examine it.

Till recently Dehradun was able to retain its basic characteristics of a small and
beautiful city, but population explosion and its unplanned expansion at the cost of the
greenery of the valley from the 1990s completely changed it. The green valley has been
transformed in to concrete jungle. Two Master Plans have been made for it, in 1982
and 2008, but there is little hope that it can regain its glory. Its natural resource base
is shrinking day by day and it is struggling to provide basic amenities to its inhabitants.

Trends, Characteristics and the Emerging Pattern
of Urbanisation in Tamil Nadu

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Tamil Nadu is one of the most urbanised states in India. Its level of urbanisation
was consistently well ahead of the national figure ever since 1961. During the post-
-economic reforms period, both the level and the tempo of urbanisation increased
much in Tamilnadu than in the pre-economic reforms period. The district-level data
shows that 21 out of 32 districts had achieved urbanisation levels which are higher than
the national figure and 15 districts had outstripped the state’s figure in 2011. Chennai
district which achieved cent per cent urbanisation level long ago had been causing
the spill-over benefit of a faster pace of urbanisation in the neighbouring districts of
Thiruvallur and Kancheepuram. Notwithstanding the top position in urbanisation
level, severe district level inequalities can be observed as 17 districts had recorded
lower than the state’s figure and five districts had urbanisation levels which are lower
than 20 per cent. Efforts and focus must shift to the poorly urbanised districts so as
to attract investment and thereby faster urbanisation.
Challenges of Urbanisation in South India: Diverse Patterns and Different Learnings

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There are broadly two arguments regarding the urbanisation process in India. One, that the urbanisations process is centred in the large urban agglomerations and is exclusionary (Kundu: 2003); two, that the process is taking place primarily through the spread of small towns and census towns and is a dispersed pattern of urbanization (Guin and Das: 2015). When viewed from these two points of view, the urbanisation pattern in south India substantiates both the points. In the sense that the two large states, Karnataka and (united) Andhra Pradesh have seen the extraordinary growth of urban agglomerations of Bangalore and Hyderabad with urban primacy being the main feature, while the two other states of Tamil Nadu and Kerala have witnessed more dispersed urbanisation process over the census decade of 2001 to 2011. Thus, this paper argues that the while urbanisation pattern in the former two states i.e., Karnataka and (united) Andhra Pradesh, exemplified urban primacy and exclusionary urban growth exacerbating urban-rural inequalities, the pattern of urbanisation in Kerala and Tamil Nadu was more dispersed and thereby, to some extent, more inclusive. This is particularly true with Kerala wherein a number of new small and census towns have emerged between 2001 and 2011. The pattern in Tamil Nadu too is more or less the same. The former two states Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh point to the argument made by Kundun (Kundu: 2003) whereas the dispersed pattern of urbanisation in Kerala and Tamil Nadu substantiates the point made by Guin (Guin and Das: 2015). These patterns of urbanisation within South India are thus diverse and have significant policy implications. This throws up challenges for learning in policy making towards urbanisation from different states even within India in general and South India in particular.
Nature of Rural-Urban Continuum and the Trend of Urban Transformation in Kerala

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Among the urban systems of India, the experience of Kerala is unique. In Kerala, there is a phenomenon called the rural-urban continuum that means the rural-urban difference is blurred. Even though some studies have made reference to the rural-urban continuum, we could not come across with in-depth analysis of the problem. Another limitation of urban literature is the absence of micro studies on urban formation, i.e., studies concentrating on the evolution of a particular urban centre and its current position. Hence, the present paper tries to examine the nature of the phenomenon called Rural-Urban Continuum in Kerala by selecting two districts. The study depends on primary and secondary sources of information. Historical method is used to identify various stakeholders involved in the growth of cities in Thiruvananthapuram and Kollam districts during the ancient period and colonial period. To delineate the typology of settlement in the region, a sample survey has been conducted among the households in both the district through the interview method. Based on the proportionate sampling method, of the 400 samples are collected in which, 176 households from Kollam and 224 from Thiruvananthapuram districts are selected for the study. One municipality, one census town and a rural area are selected from Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram districts according to the random sampling method. Thus, 44 samples each are collected from four spatial units namely, corporation, municipality, census town and rural area from Kollam and 56 each from the spatial units of Thiruvananthapuram. A multivariate technique like discriminant analysis is used to classify the rural-urban characteristics based on 15 indicators. It is found that access to basic amenities, lifestyle, mode of transport and pollution are better indicators in discriminating rural-urban characteristic in Kollam and all other 11 indicators are incapable to delineate the typology of settlement in Thiruvananthapuram also. Thus, the present study on the nature of rural-urban continuum development in Kerala is highly relevant with regard to the renewed emphasis on decentralized governance in Kerala. The correct classification of rural and urban will provide an appropriate framework for implementing development programs and thereby can reduce the disparities in development across the State in the context of speedy urban transformation.
Patterns and Trends of Migration in Delhi and India Since the 1990s

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The paper gives evidence on migration trends in India from 1991-2011, using Census and NSS data, to show how migration has been rising significantly after the 1990s with employment opportunities reducing in the rural areas. On the basis of certain key movements, the analysis reveals that between Census 2001 and Census 2011, the migrants increasingly belonged to higher socio-economic strata. Though, rural areas continued to be the primary source and destination for migrants in both Census 2001 and 2011; a comparison of the two time periods describes how there was an increase in the migration to urban areas that offer more economic opportunities, and a fall in the migration to rural areas. The urban-urban migration stream, which is primarily associated with business, travel, transfer and better employment opportunities increased from 2001 to 2011. Migrants in this stream are considered better-off in their socio-economic status than migrants in the rural-rural migration stream. Therefore, an increase in the urban-urban stream and a decrease in the rural-rural stream is an indication of an improvement in the socio-economic status of migrants.

When one examines the reasons for employment, one finds a rise in the proportion of people migrating for education and accompanying their family from 1991-2001 to 2001-11. There was a slight increase in the male migrants below 15 years and above 60 years. This is a positive factor as it is indicative of people moving as students or with families that have the capacity to take them along. Hence, this period was marked by a rise in the dependent migration. An increase in the urban-urban migration stream, a decrease in the rural-rural migration stream and a rise in the dependent migration are reflective of the migrants belonging to an upper socio-economic stratum.

The paper specifically studies the migration trends in urban areas like Delhi which have a high migrant population and continue to attract more people by providing them with employment opportunities. There was a rise in the urban to urban migration stream to Delhi, and a fall in the rural to urban migration stream from Census 2001 to Census 2011, implying an improvement in the economic status of the migrants to Delhi. A fall in the proportion of unemployed and non-workers after migration implies that many of them become self-employed or work for regular wages after migration and improve
their economic status. In such cases, it is apparent that migration has a positive impact on their welfare. However, it would be unwise to think that this is an indication of only an improvement in the quality of migrant labour force in the country. Along with the better-off and skilled quality of migrants moving to urban areas, it could turn out to be that the poor and unskilled migrants are not able to migrate to urban areas and improve their wellbeing. While a large proportion of the male migrants who moved as they were unemployed, and subsequently found employment in Delhi, there could be many who could not get a foothold in the city and were left behind.

**Structural Change, Urbanisation and Emergence of New Rurality in Tamil Nadu**

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The paper analyses the latest periodic labour force survey data on employment, and national sample survey office (NSSO) data on employment and unemployment and argues that there is an emergence of new rurality in Tamil Nadu. We contextualise this development amidst the rapidly unfolding process of urbanisation and structural transformation. We categorise the rural households into three distinct groups ‘pure agricultural households’, ‘diversified households’ and pure ‘non-agricultural households’. We find that the ‘pure non-agricultural households’ (the households where all the employed members of the household are engaged in nonagricultural work) are more than 50 per cent of the rural households. This remarkable break from the primary dependence of rural people on the agriculture sector for employment and livelihood, we argue, implies the emergence of new rurality in Tamil Nadu. This development is invariably linked to the process of structural change and urbanisation. We use the method suggested by Timmer (2009) and analyse the data on Net State Domestic Product and NSSO data on employment and unemployment. We find from the analysis that the Tamil Nadu economy reached the turning point where ‘structural gap’ in the economy started declining since 2004-05. That is the gap/difference between the percentage contribution share of agricultural employment and the percentage contribution share of agricultural GDP is on the decline. In other words, ‘turning point’ is the point at which the rate of decline of the share of agriculture
Theme 3: Challenges of Urban Transformation

in employment becomes faster than the rate of decline of its share in GDP. Tamil Nadu is the most urbanised state in India with about 48 per cent of the population residing in urban areas (Census of India 2011). The state also has a very high town density. Purushothaman and Patil (2017) observe that the urbanisation process has both proximate and distant drivers. Based on the drivers involved, it can lead to either metropolitan agglomeration or subaltern urbanisation. Further, Himanshu (2011) notes that poverty reduction associated with the diversification of employment into the rural non-farm sector is accelerated if there is a consumption growth in the proximate urban areas, particularly small towns. It emerged from the analysis that the Coastal Northern region of Tamil Nadu which comprises districts like Thiruvallur and Kancheepuram (which are proximate to Chennai) had the highest share of ‘pure non-agricultural’ rural households. The study finds that certain characteristics of the household like education levels, social group and age playing an important role in increasing the likelihood of the households to be ‘pure non-agricultural’ households. We also suggest that the decline in inequality is associated with a reduction in ‘structural gap’ and the associated occupational diversification of the rural households. We further contend that the emergence of new rurality is sustained and shaped by the nature of the urbanisation process. The argument on the emergence of new rurality also moves away from the conventional absolutist ideas of space towards a more relational idea of space as put forward by Woods and Heley (2017). It also indicates a departure from the rural-urban dualism of earlier scholarship on this question.

Urban Commons and Bourgeoisie Environmentalism: How the Middle Classes Shape Urban Poor’s Access to Resources

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The term ‘urban’ conjures up an idea of spaces that are modern, planned, orderly, clean, and prosperous. Urban spaces are often structured to suit the needs and desires of the elites or the bourgeois, which are often to the disadvantage of the urban poor. The urban middle-classes dominate the public sphere and hence hold the capability to shape urban spaces and environments. Their idea of the urban environment is
linked to ‘quality of life’, which includes everything from green spaces and spaces for recreation, to issues of personal safety and health. This desire is invariably followed by laying claim over public spaces and cleansing them of poor and working classes. The urban poor, with limited or no resources of their own, depends upon common resources available in the city for their daily sustenance and livelihoods. However, the saturated nature of urban spaces puts them in a competing position with the elite city dwellers, and their usage of these common resources is often in conflict. This contested claim over commons often leads to exclusion of the poor from the resources that are important for their sustenance.

This environmentalism of the elite that holds personal well-being at its core manifests itself through an exercise of control over public urban space. This control arises from a growing significance of a middle-class based culture of consumption, and results in a spatial purification of urban spaces. While not all middle-class activism leads to inequality, “bourgeois environmentalism” (a term coined by Baviskar, 2002) essentially acts out through marginalisation of the already vulnerable, through laying claim over the common spaces that they access.

Urban poor are greatly dependent on urban commons. The pressure on land and the ongoing capitalist development in cities has led to the destruction of urban commons. Developmental activities like infrastructure development including construction of roads, railway lines, highways, bridges, pipelines, building of public housing and making of recreation spaces in the city- all require land. This land is acquired through displacing the urban poor from their homes and the common spaces they regularly access. Alienation of urban poor from commons takes place either through displacement or through restricting their access to these spaces. While the urban poor is alienated from commons through different processes of exclusion, like displacement due to developmental activities or slum redevelopment, this paper aims to understand how bourgeois environmentalism acts as a driving force in operationalizing such exclusion, and the consequences of it. The overall objective of this paper is to understand the role of bourgeois environmentalism in shaping the lives and livelihoods of the urban poor in relation to urban commons.
Levels of Living of Slum Dwellers of Unorganised Sector in Urban Centre- A Case Study

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The income is provided by occupation. Income in the formal sector is generally based on the worker’s productivity, while in informal sector no strict rules or guidelines apply, which broadly depends upon the demand for and supply of labour. A significant number of occupations may not require specified skills at a lower level of employment. Majority of casual labour is either marginally skilled or semi-skilled if not totally unskilled and also do not possess any recognized certificates or diplomas. Poverty and unemployment compel the labour to make many compromises with regard to the working conditions as well as wage. Slum-dwellers work in the informal sector as casual labourers. An attempt is made in this paper to examine the income and expenditure patterns with respect to the sample respondents in Tenali City. It is examined whether locality, occupation, social category and skill level have any impact on the income, expenditure and savings of the sample respondents. The sample consists of 420 slum dwellers working in various income-generating activities of the unorganized sector in Tenali city of Andhra Pradesh. Among all slums, five slums are identified namely, (i) B.C. Colony (ii) Gaddalagunta Palem (iii) Sultanabad (iv) Chinaravuru (v) Nagaralu (vi) Phule Colony.

An attempt is made to analyze the occupation wise as well as locality/slum wise distribution of average incomes of the sample households in the study area. Among the six occupation categories identified in the study area sample respondents engaged in the transport activity earn the highest average monthly income of Rs.11981 while the respondents engaged in manufacturing activity earn the lowest average income of Rs.10141. Regarding overall average monthly income of all the sample households by slum it is found as Rs.10921. The average incomes with reference to the slum locality, occupations, social category, education level and skill level are different. The average monthly income varies between the highest and lowest incomes is Rs.1801. Social category-wise the average income varies between Rs.11586 and Rs.9617 within a range of Rs.1969. Education level-wise it varies between Rs.11953 and Rs.10163 within a range of Rs.1790, while the monthly average income of the unskilled respondents is Rs.5183. It is found that both the semi-skilled and unskilled workers are earning
less than the average income of Rs.10921. The overall average monthly expenditure of total sample respondents is Rs.9982. It varies across localities, occupations, social categories and education levels. Slum-locality-wise, it varies between Rs.10864 and Rs.8257 within a range of Rs.2607, while occupation-wise the average expenditure varies between Rs.11056 and Rs.9006 within a range of Rs.2050. It is interesting to note that the average expenditure of the so called downtrodden sections of the society is higher than that open categories in the study area. The overall average monthly savings of the total sample respondents is Rs.939. The difference varies within a range of Rs.295 in the case of slum localities, a range of Rs.402 in respect of occupations, within a range of Rs.357 in the social category and within a range of Rs.217 as far as the educational level is concerned.
Urban Development in Andhra Pradesh: Prospects for Future Growth

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Urbanization connotes a behavioural pattern of the population, signifies the development of non-agricultural functions such as manufacturing, trade and commerce, and services; induces migration from rural to urban areas and creates an environment conducive for innovation and spread of technology. According to the Provisional Population Results of 2011 Census, the State of Andhra Pradesh contains 28.34 millions of urban population in 260 towns of different size-classes, which accounts for 33.49 per cent of the total population. The data according to the 2011 Census show that the urban population is unevenly distributed among different size-classes of towns and cities. More than 75 per cent of the urban population is concentrated in about 22 per cent of cities. In contrast to this, 26 per cent of small towns together account for only 2.4 per cent of the total population. These results do indicate that the distribution of urban population in Andhra Pradesh, according to 2011 Census, is top-heavy.

It is evident from the data that three out of 13 districts stand out prominently as highly urbanized when compared with other districts for the period under consideration. These are the districts of Visakhapatnam, Krishna, and Guntur. The data for the earlier decades i.e., 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 also confirm that these three districts have registered higher proportions of the urban population. The most important and surprising feature, that is observed in 2011 census is that the relatively backward districts such as Chittoor, Cuddapah, Kurnool and Anantapur have the highest proportion of the urban population. These trends have to be studied with a detailed enquiry. The growth of agriculture in Andhra Pradesh is gradually decreasing while that for the tertiary sector is exhibiting a rising trend. With the shift
in economic activities, especially the concentration of services in urban areas, there will be a movement of population from rural areas to cities and towns. The sectoral shifts in the state are consistent with the national trend and pattern.

Increasing urbanization and concentration of population are bound to be associated with an escalation of problems in cities and towns in terms of high population density, traffic congestion, pollution, shortage of housing, civic services and infrastructure, slums, rise in urban poverty, environmental degradation etc. However, urbanization is considered inevitable and the problem of urbanization can be viewed as one emanating from poor city planning, management and finances. Comprehensive and holistic urban planning through a city development plan that mainstream sustainable habitat should be a key component. It is important to focus attention on integrated development of urban infrastructure and services with an emphasis on the provision of basic services to the urban poor including housing, water supply, sanitation, slum improvement, community toilets etc.

**Challenges of Urban Transformation and Migration:**
*An Empirical study on Labour Migration from Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal to Bangalore*

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Globalisation via trade liberalisation and market orientation has played a crucial role in transforming urban areas, particularly in the developing countries. In recent year urban areas have experienced an overall socio-economic-structural change and like any other change, such urban transformation comes with its own challenges. One of the major sources of challenge, faced by urban areas, is considered to be human migration.

It is an accepted fact that development triggers migration and migration can contribute to development in both origin and destination countries. In India interstate migration takes place mainly due to regional disparity in development between states, between rural-urban areas and here migration within the geographical the boundary is far greater in magnitude than migration across the country. Urbanisation in India is a consequence of demographic explosion and poverty induced migration towards the urban area.

Bangalore is one of the fastest growing cities in India attracts migrant labourers
from Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal and every year and the number is increasing. The objective of this paper is to identify the challenges faced by and generated by poverty driven migrant labourers of Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal to rapidly transformed and fastest growing city Bangalore.

The brief review of literature brings out different issues related to migration and the research gap which is necessary for further studies in the same field. Different economists have developed different sets of theories in isolation. Name a few: Ernst Gorge Ravenstein (1885), Lewis (1950) model, Tiebout migration (1956) model, Fei-Renis (1961) model, Harris-Todaro model (1970) etc.


The study is based on the primary data which have been collected from a random sampling of 100 respondents from railway stations (Yeshwantpur railway station, Bangalore central railway station) in Bangalore, using questionnaire method.

This study is descriptive in nature describes a particular phenomenon using data on migration and various statistical tools have been used such as charts, diagrams, tables and graphs.

The identified socio-economic variables in this study are gender, age, place, state, marital status, educational qualification, occupation, income, state, nature of migration and all these variables are considered as an independent variable which has an impact on challenges created and faced by migrants due to urban transformation.

In this paper mainly demographic-socio-economic aspects of migration has taken into consideration.

The data shows that though the destination is Bangalore for the three states Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal, Bihar shows the highest out migration (48%). It clearly indicates that though the destination is same, Bihar has more push factor for migration and that is an indication of regional disparity. The survey shows that 80% of people
migrated from cities of Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal to one of the fastest growing city Bangalore. This kind of urban-urban migration is causing a serious problem of urban gigantism and driving the city towards stagnation. Data reveals the fact that the migration trend is male dominated (94%), mainly the youth (76% in the age group of 18-31 years) have been migrated for economic reasons (79% in aggregate). Therefore, it has been increased competition in the job market pushing down the wage rate because of excessive labour supply. The pattern of educational qualification of the migrants is “inverted U shaped” i.e. people with secondary school level education have been migrated the most (1% illiterate and 7% PG and above have been migrated) and that has increased the causality (46%) in the workforce among the migrants in the destination. Though migration to Bangalore from the above-mentioned states has solved the problem of unemployment of the migrants it has reduced the job security of the migrants due to increased casualty. The survey shows that migration to a fastest-growing city like Bangalore has improved the economic situation of the migrants in terms of better wage but it is also true that the higher wage, to some extent, is perceived in nature as cost of living in a big city is higher than the place of origin. The survey also revealed that more than 98% of unmarried migrants and more than 36% married migrants move alone to the city and they send remittances to their left-behind families. In this context, the qualitative response of the migrants showed that the migrants are facing difficulties in sending remittances and repaying back old debts out of the wage they receive in Bangalore. The reason they have mentioned is, day by day increase in the cost of living since the majority of them stay in a rented place. Other than that, there is a psychological impact on migrants and their left-behind family. Migrants have also revealed that in the destination they face the problem of language which is often playing a barrier to entry into the job market. Not only migrants but also the place of destination, because of a higher rate of migration, come across the challenges like overpopulation, traffic congestion, scarcity of accommodation, the problem of sewage, scarcity of drinking water, expansion of slums which leads to environmental and health degradation.

In conclusion, it can be said that the root cause of migration towards urban areas is regional disparity. Due to imbalance in regional growth urban transformation attracted people from the less developed region and on the other hand as a consequence of huge migration urban areas are growing disproportionately leading towards “urban gigantism”. In order to resolve the challenges faced by the migrants in the destination
and also the socio-political-economical-environmental problems of big cities, a better planning towards balanced regional growth and the overall development is the need of the hour.

**Impact of Labour Migration on Urban Infrastructure: A Case of Alang Shipbreaking Yard**

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The massive movement of population in modern times has wide social, economic, political, demographic and economic implications. The unskilled labour migrates from their one place to another place to expect a very high economic gain as in the case of skilled workers or highly educated persons. The basic need for unskilled workers is primarily for continuous work throughout the year. The migration of this type is considered as migration from the underdeveloped region to a developed region or backward region to forward region. Alang shipbreaking is known as the world's largest ship breaking yard, which employs 30,000 labours directly, and 1.5 to 1.6 lakh labours indirectly in downstream and upstream industries. In Alang ship breaking yard majority of the labourers are migrated from different states of the country viz, U.P., Bihar, Orissa, Jharkhand and Gujarat. The present paper details with the migration of labour from their place of origin to Alang ship breaking yard and their impact on the nearby region and industry. The aim of this paper is to focus on the process of migration of labour to Alang ship breaking yard and also on the development aspect due to migration.

**A Systematic Review to Achieve Energy Consumption to Reduce Urban Heat Island in and around Kolkata**

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Urban heat island has become a matter of serious concern for all upcoming cities including Kolkata, West Bengal. The rapid urbanisation in this city leads to several
environmental problems such as air pollution, water pollution, land subsidence as well as the problems from the presence of Urban Heat Island leading to rise in general level of temperature on account of high energy consumption and other factors. The compound effect of heat island and global climate change are expected to create serious health impact and affect biodiversity in and around the city. This paper aims to bring about the actual picture of the impact of increased household energy consumption on Urban Heat Island for the city of Kolkata. It would be a maiden study of its kind on Kolkata. For the purpose of the analysis the city of Kolkata has been divided into six regions as per the electricity consumption. Coefficient of variation, two way regression has been calculated to quantify the slow but gradual level of increase in average temperature intensifying the degree of Urban Heat and leading to harmful effects.

**Urbanisation, Sustainable Development and Green Urban Strategies**

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Urbanization is a significant strategy for achieving inclusive growth. It provides many opportunities in the form of employment creation, entrepreneurship, urban agglomerations, increase in economic activities etc. According to the Census (2011), nearly 31% of the Indian population resides in the urban areas and it is expected to increase to around 600 million approximately by the year 2031. India’s unique pattern of urbanization shows that the cities have the potential to contribute around two-thirds of its economic output and around seventy per cent of future employment. Hence, there are significant opportunities as a result of urban transformation. However, in spite of the potential advantages of urban transformation, the urban success story of India demands a closer look. Many cities have unsustainable levels of stress on infrastructure, resources and public services. Hence, strategies are needed to be devised to make the growth process of sustainable nature and hence green urban strategies are required in the future. The Indian cities need to align their planning. Some green strategies such as use of energy-efficient buildings, building codes, increase in food production, green resilient infrastructure, use of intelligent system, financing sustainable cities, implementing emission charges, use of product charges and market permits and private-public collaboration can go a long way in view of the Agenda 2030 goals for Sustainable development.
Urban transformation is a fast developing narrative, particularly in a developing country like India. A common way to bring about transformation is a policy change, which is reflected by the multiple policies that have come about for the same, including the AMRUT scheme & the Smart Cities mission. Despite having policies & intent in place, a significant change has not yet been achieved due to multiple factors. For one, the planning stage of any policy is mostly skipped through and irrational targets are set up, mostly to please the political constituency and gain mileage. This paper is based on a year-long project on Electric Vehicles in Jaipur city. Through the course of this project, many challenges to the policy approach of urban transformation initiatives were diagnosed. This paper is an attempt to put together some of these findings in a systematic way by giving examples from the electric vehicles initiative. The key findings are derived from the academic fields of systems thinking and regulatory governance, whereby a step-by-step assessment of the problem at hand, potential solutions and feasibility of the proposed solutions is undertaken. In this case, it was observed that a robust data collection and monitoring mechanism should be the first leap forward in having a rationale planning for a policy. Post which, a systems view of the ecosystem, enabling the policymakers to assess the potential impacts of any action on the entire ecosystem is necessary. Once these are achieved, regulatory certainty and participatory governance becomes the pillars of drafting an effective policy. Like for any urban transformation initiative, electric vehicles also require a holistic thinking and a just transition approach. This paper draws evidence from EVs to inform the way forward for urban transformation initiatives in general. Keywords—urban policy, urban transformation, electric mobility, system’s analysis, Jaipur
Earnings in Street Vending: Does it Differ between Migrants and Natives?

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Urbanization has emerged as one of the most prominent dimensions of economic development the world over. According to World Urbanization Prospects, the 20th century has witnessed the rapid urbanization with a dramatic increase in the proportion of the global urban population from 13 percent (220 million) in 1900 to 29 percent (732 million) in 1950 to 39.4 per cent in 1980 to 41.2 per cent in 1990 to 49 per cent (3.2 billion) in 2005 to 52.8 per cent in 2010 and is projected to increase further up to 60 per cent (4.9 billion) by 2030 (World Urbanization Prospects, 2005). India, in particular, has witnessed an increasing trend towards urban population. In the last fifty years, the population of India has grown two and a half times, whereas urban India has grown almost five times. It is estimated that by 2030, 590 million people will live in Indian cities. Further, 2011 Census indicates an increase in urban population compared to the rural population, for the first time since independence.

The economic progress, especially in the urban areas, has translated into a boom in sectors such as the construction industry in urban India. Similarly, urbanisation has resulted in increased labour migration in the construction industry across the world. In the process of migration from rural to urban areas the children are the most affected as many remain out of school, many are forced to drop out and some become vulnerable to work as child labour due to seasonal mobility of their parents. Thus, mainstreaming these children in the development process is a big challenge in attaining the goal of universal primary education and inclusive growth. Adding to this, the temporary nature of work is featured by high labour turnover and constantly changing work environment.

Despite large number of workers involved in the construction works in major cities of India, there is limited information available or research carried out on the impact of such migration on the nutrition and educational status of the migrant workers’ children. There is a lack of evidence on the malnutrition and education
among the children both at the macro and micro levels. In this context, taking the case of Bengaluru City, the present study has examined the status of nutrition and education of construction workers’ children and emerging challenges.

The analysis based on a primary survey in Bengaluru across 14 construction sites and dwelling places of migrant construction workers reveal that the migrant construction workers have not availed any benefit from the government. The assistance provided for the migrant construction workers’ children in terms of scholarships, bus pass, etc. remain unclaimed. The survey also uncovers the nutrition status of these children. The prevalence of double burden of nutrition is clearly visible in the study area. This among others is attributed to the changing food habits – specifically towards consumption of processed food in the urban setting and ignorance about healthy food habits seems to affect these children.
R-urbanisation Governance: Need for Decentralisation for Livelihoods in India

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The paper highlights the need and position to the diversification of urbanization in India. Less than 200 years ago most people lived in villages. Today one half of the world’s population lives in Cities. During the 19th century, towns and cities expanded as people moved away from rural areas, works in new industries. First improvement Trust was created for Bombay in 1898 followed by Mysore (1903), Calcutta (1911), Lucknow and Kanpur (1919) and Allahabad (1920). Urbanization is seen as an indicator of economic progress in this modern age. In short, economic progress encourages urbanization. In industrially rich developed countries, the percentage of urbanization is more than 80 per cent. The urbanization in India seems to be 31.16 per cent. The number of the metro–cities has increased from 1 to 53 from 1901 to 2011. At present, there are 468 cities in the countries which have more than 1 lakh population.

The people in Delhi, are exposed to shocking levels of air toxins, much higher than officially measured ambient levels. For example, at 7-8 a.m on November 23, 2014, when the Delhi Marathon started at India Gate, the levels of particulate matter (p.m) 2.5 were 815 g. per cubic metre. This was 2.4 times the background ambient level of 339 g. per cubic meter. Growing urbanization had led to some sweeping changes in urban governance. It will make Metropolitan Cities as a Centre of Productivity, growth and inclusive development. Urban Development is a State subject. Urban development in India has traditionally got much fewer resources from the government in comparison to rural development. Cities and Towns of India constitute the world’s
second largest urban system. JNNURM was launched on Dec.3, 2005. A signature project of Prime Minister Modi, it envisages 100 Smart Cities, most of which will involve upgrade and conversion of existing ones.

R-urbanization Conceives urban and rural as one space to solve the urban-rural dichotomy. Made popular, by architect Tay Kheng, Singapore soon as ‘R-urbanization’, this concept refutes the idea of having an urban-rural boundary in spatial planning systems to ensure social, cultural and environmental sustainability. Reverse migration is encouraged by dispersing loci of development throughout the rural hinterland. This new perspective calls for an integrated development reinforced by environmentally sustainable technologies and ethical lifestyle. However, planners need to carefully evaluate plans so as to not encourage land grabbing, sprawl or haphazard co-R-urbanization, which would defeat the very ethos of a green and socially beneficial R-urban—development. Cities will also get access to a platform of resources they can tap into. We have to get information on everything from big data analytics, infrastructure, databases, economic risk analysis and steps to mitigate them, handling natural resources, cybersecurity and so on.

Ageing and its Impact on Elderly Citizens in Old Age Homes

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Ageing is a natural process which is inevitable. Everyone who is born in this world will eventually age with time. There is a rapid change in the demographic scenario and the growth rate of the older population is increasing gradually in India over the past few decades and it will continue to be so. This can be due to improvement in the field of the medical sector and various other factors as well. As a result, the aged are likely to suffer from problems related to health and health care, family composition, so on and so forth. In India, traditionally the concept of ‘Joint family’ was practiced but with the advent of urbanization, modernization, industrialization, and globalization, there have been major structural and functional transformations in the family. The joint family system is disappearing in the course of time as the people now do not have time for their family because of their work as they have to stay away from their family in different places. People have started believing in ‘Nuclear family’ system
because the standard and cost of living have gone high and working class people are not being able to look after their large family. This has led to the elderly people shift to the old age homes either forcefully or sometimes by their own choice. The elderly people suffer a lot emotionally. They go through a traumatic phase. At this stage of life, elderly people need a lot of care, love, support, and affection from their family. Deprivation from all these leads to depression, anxiety and sleep disorder and various other health problems like diabetes, hyper-tension, and high/low pressure, etc. including mental problems among elderly people. There is an immense need for proper human rights and health policies for the well-being and upliftment of the health of older people.

This research paper has tried to focus on the multi-dimensional factors that led to the shift of the elderly citizens to the old age home from their own children’s home, to study the family and family relationships with them. The paper has also attempted to focus on the present health care policies and its implementations regarding health and hygiene and the safety and rights of the elderly citizens.

**Urbanisation and Environmental Problems in the Global Economy**

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In any country Population is undoubtedly a very important factor. The entire social, economic and environmental problems of cities and rural areas are aggravated by rapid population growth. The large size of the population makes it difficult for governments to keep up current demands; rapid growth makes it virtually impossible to improve conditions and create a sustainable human presence. Most people in the world now live in urban areas. A large area where we find various public and private offices, educational institutions, permanent houses, police stations, hospitals, hotels, entertainment facilities like cinema theatres, small and large scale industries, transport facilities, etc., is known as a town. When a town grows larger and larger it becomes a city. The growth of such towns and cities in a country may be known as urbanization. The migration of people from rural to urban and reclassification of villages/towns over a period are the main causes of urbanization in India. About 28 per cent of people in India are in urban areas. Due to the acute shortage of the
housing, a large section of urban population lives in slums. The housing problem is taking alarming dimensions in the towns and cities in our country. In our cities, about 20 to 40 per cent of the population lives in slums. Employment potential in the urban sector attracts the immigration of rural population, causing expansion of urban slums.

Urbanization refers to the population shift from rural areas to urban areas, the gradual increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas, and the ways in which each society adapts to this change. Urbanization is the increase in the proportion of people living in towns and cities.

More than half of the world’s population lives in urban areas. Due to the ongoing urbanization and growth of the world’s population, there will be about 2.5 billion more people added to the urban population by 2050, mainly in Africa and Asia. The world’s urban areas are highly varied, but many cities and towns are facing problems such as a lack of jobs, homelessness and expanding squatter settlements, inadequate services and infrastructure, poor health and educational services and high levels of pollution.

India’s urban population has grown from 62 million in 1951 to 377 million according to Census data. Today there are 7,742 urban areas, home to about 65 million families. Urbanization will grow at 4% per year as per some estimates adding over 15 million persons every year. 53 million-plus cities are home to over 160 million persons.

Five states—Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Punjab, Maharashtra and Karnataka—will have more than half of their total population living in urban areas employed in industries or services. These five states also account for nearly 50% of India’s slum population.

Most cities and towns are Urban Basic Service Deficient. Basic services like safe access to home, predictable and sufficient water supply, proper sewerage system, safe energy sources, and waste disposal system including a sufficient number of toilets for each household have been denied to the majority. 16% of urban households do not have a toilet; 46% do not have a toilet with a flush system. Over two million are homeless living in the streets.

This study mainly focussed about the trends in urbanisation and the causes of urban growth and also the demographic, health, environmental and social consequences of urbanisation in the global Economy with reference to India.
Financial Inclusion in Urban Informal Sector
Workers – A Case Study of a Suburban Area in Kolkata

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The paper attempts to capture the reasons why the urban informal sector is excluded financially despite the various policies and efforts put into place by the Government and the Central Bank. Upliftment of the urban poor is as important as it is to uplift the rural poor if the nation has to eradicate poverty from the roots. It is important to understand that direct income transfer programmes will not achieve the desired results if significant efforts are not made to remove the intrinsic causes of this poverty. For these people to come out of poverty, the cyclical causes of poverty need to be arrested so that inter-generational transmission of poverty can be eliminated. It is observed that the most prevalent cause of poverty is the lack of formal sources of banking and credit, i.e. financial exclusion. Empirical studies conducted for gauging the reasons for financial exclusion among the rural poor have revealed factors such as lack of financial awareness, very few rural bank branches and very low incomes of the people as reasons. However, very few studies have attempted to capture the reasons why the urban poor are financially excluded. The reasons for exclusion of the urban poor from the financial sector is not just limited to administrative causes like lack of bank branches and large distances to be traversed to reach the nearest bank branch. Rural financial exclusion can also be attributed to the lack of knowledge about the available financial services and their benefits but in the case of the urban poor, it has been observed in this paper that not just lack of awareness about financial services, but the lack of education itself serves as a very important determinant in financial inclusivity of the target population. Apart from on educational grounds, financial exclusion among the urban poor can also be attributed to factors such as inability to recognise the ease with which they can involve themselves in the financial process. This paper, thus, attempts to capture the reasons for the inability of the urban poor to become financially included, along with empirically capturing the effects of education, annual income and distance to the banking branches on their financial
inclusivity and also tries to analyse the extent of their utilisation of the basic banking services. An attempt has also been made to provide some basic policy suggestions to bridge this gap and provide some key insights to see how complete financial inclusion can be attained to help the urban poor come out of their present vulnerable state.

**Challenges of Urban Transformation Urban Solid Waste Management in Mandya District of Karnataka**

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The problem of solid waste management (SWM) is acquiring an alarming dimension in India. The high rate of industrialization and urbanization has resulted in change in the lifestyle, because of which the quantity of solid waste generated has increased significantly and its characteristics have changed. Solid waste management is all about every city government provides safety sanitation of waste for its resident’s, and municipal authorities are responsible for such service. Lack of financial resources, institutional weakness, improper choice of technology and public apathy towards SWM has made this service far from satisfactory. According to the 2001 census, the population of India was 1,027 million out of which 28% live in cities and it is projected that by 2050 half of the Indians will live in cities. Urban India is facing a huge challenge to cope with the infrastructural requirements of its ever-increasing population. Municipal Solid Waste Management (MSWM) despite being the primary responsibility of the urban local bodies still remains as a major obligation that has to be improved. Various studies reveal that about 90% of MSW is disposed of unscientifically in open dumps and landfills, creating problems to public health and the environment. In the present study, an attempt has been made to provide a comprehensive review of the municipal solid waste management practices in Indian cities (generation, collection and transportation, disposal and treatment technologies). While service levels environmental impacts and costs vary dramatically from different cities, however, in India it is one of the worthless services, since the authorities apply the unscientific outdated and inefficient system to collect and dispose of the solid waste causing hazardous to its inhabitants. The collection and transportation system is far from satisfactory. Currently, at the level of waste generation and collection, there is no source segregation of compostable waste from the other non-biodegradable and recyclable waste. Most of the MSW in India is dumped on land in an uncontrolled manner. Such inadequate disposal practices
lead to problems that will impair human and animal health and result in economic, environmental and biological losses. The current regulations (MSWM rules, 2000) are very stringent. Norms have been developed to ensure a proper MSWM system. Unfortunately, clearly there is a large gap between policy and implementation. The present municipal laws are inadequate for the provisions of disposal of municipal solid waste. The current situation is becoming more critical with the rapid urbanisation. The segregation and the sorting are done in an unorganised sector. If the separation and the sorting are done efficiently the yield of recycling materials will be high. The MSW (Municipal Solid Waste) disposal is possible with the low cost through smart compression and transporting techniques. The present study deals with the detailed study of solid waste management of Mandya which has 4962 sq km area and 1,31,211 population as per 2016 census.

**Urban Transformation in Visakhapatnam – A Case Study**

**K. Parmeswara Rao**, Professor, ICSSR Senior Fellow, Andhra University

The process of urban transformation is a necessary condition for the development of any country. Urban transformations in particular cities are also identified. Visakhapatnam, a fishing village transformed into the city of destiny. Visakhapatnam urban city is richly endowed with natural resources and the establishment of various multi-dimensional industries. It is known as a tourist hub and economic capital of Andhra Pradesh. Visakhapatnam is the fastest growing city in the newly formed state of Andhra Pradesh.

Urbanisation requires solutions to a number of problems such as safe drinking water, transportation, housing, sanitation, pollution, etc. There is every need for the growing population, on one side urbanization, and on the other side it needs more attention towards the development of infrastructure, security, law and order, and peaceful living conditions.

An attempt is made in this paper to analyse the trends of urbanization, the pattern of urbanization and the emerging consequences of urbanization and the urban transformation of living conditions of the people.

Visakhapatnam is the gateway to the East-Coast of India. It has tremendous potential for development and growth of a wide spectrum of maritime activities such
as shipping, shipbuilding, industries, tourism, etc. State government initiating various developmental programmes to socio-economic upliftment of the people by creating employment opportunities, income-generating schemes, etc. Visakhapatnam, being a major growth centre on the east coast of India, has an impressive industrial arena. Special Economic Zones constitute an important element of the export promotion policy in India and the scheme is considered to be an effective instrument for the promotion of exports. The natural port city of Visakhapatnam is characterized by abundant natural resources in the hinterland and an impressive industrial base.

**Role of Educational Policies on Literacy Rate in Karnataka**

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Education plays a significant role in the development of individual as well as the development of the State. Literacy is considered as one of the indicators of educational development of the State. Literacy refers to one’s ability to read, write and communicate well. The purpose of the study was to understand the role of educational policies on the literacy rate and to identify the disparities among the people who reside in urban and rural areas for literacy rate. It further tried to understand whether there were gender differences for literacy rate. It aimed at understanding how literacy rate over the time has increased among the regions and gender. The study was descriptive in nature. The data had been collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary sources comprised of census data on literacy rate and the Gazettes of Karnataka from 1991-2011. From the study it can be inferred that the educational policies played a significant role in increasing literacy rate in the State. The free and compulsory education has played a significant role in increasing the literacy rate. The Midday meal scheme of the government had a huge impact on increasing the literacy rate, increasing enrolment and decreasing the dropout rate. Supply of bicycles to girl students, financial assistance to poor students greatly helped the students and played important role in increasing the literacy rate. From the study it was also clearly evident that the difference was decreasing between male and female in terms of literacy rate in both urban and rural area. The State government implemented number of policies and programmes to increase the female literacy rate but still we can find large kind of disparity in terms of literacy rate gender wise also. The total literacy rate programme and the Akshara
Sene programme had greatly contributed to increase in the literacy rate. Further it was inferred from the data that there was regional disparity for individuals who resided in urban and rural areas in terms of literacy rate. There were wide disparities in the educational development between north and south districts. Certain districts like Dakshina Kannada who had highest literacy rate and certain districts where the literacy rate was very low such as Yadgiri. It is clearly evident from the data that there is need for adequate policies to increase literacy rate in the north Karnataka districts. The government was successful in increasing the literacy rate but simultaneously it can be inferred from the data that there was disparity existed both in terms of gender and region wise.