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**EFFECTIVENESS OF DEVELOPMENTAL
PROGRAMMES FOR SCHEDULED CASTES
& SCHEDULED TRIBES IN MAHARASHTRA**

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CHAPTER : 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes for a long time faced severe discrimination in the form of untouchability, social and economic transactions, inequality, deprivation, \ poverty and access to opportunities. These all culminated into a hindrance to their social and economic development. Whereas, the other groups of the society had better access to the developmental opportunities as well as resources. The developmental inequality, thus, continued to increase unabated. After the Independence specific and general statutory safeguards were provided to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Constitution of India. From the First Five Year Plan, a policy of positive discrimination was adopted and emphasis was laid on growth with social justice.

This was continued in all the successive Five Year Plans. Several developmental schemes were framed and implemented by the Central Government as well as by the State Governments and other agencies. The plan expenditure on the welfare of Backward Classes(SC,ST. & OBC's) was Rs. 457 lakhs in the First Five Year Plan and it reached to Rs. 15,577 lakhs (at constant prices) during the Seventh Five Year Plan.

These efforts indicate possibilities of substantial change in the living conditions of these groups as they are availing the benefits of several multi-objective programmes. The report of the Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes for the years 1987-89 (GOI, 1989b) did not notice expected changes, despite the plan efforts through expenditure on various programmes, Constitutional safeguards and strong emphasis on bringing these groups in to the mainstream of socio-economic development. It was pointed out in the report that the inequalities have increased and continued to increase. The main philosophy behind the different developmental initiatives was to provide social justice to the deprived classes of the society and to fulfill this purpose, a policy of positive discrimination was accepted as the major thrust of the philosophies. Another important area dealing with the social discrimination was relating to the Constitutional safeguards. Since these could not provide sufficient economic opportunities, the emphasis was shifted to the employment and income generating activities. Thus the structure of the programmes changed according to the thrust area of the philosophies behind their implementation.

In the background of this, it becomes necessary to analyse the structure, direction, emphasis and the impact of the developmental programmes being operated in the country for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The analysis

of effectiveness of the programmes can be broadly organised into four groups according to the spirit of the programme philosophies, namely socio-economic condition, poverty, educational development and the impact of developmental programmes. The effectiveness of these programmes can thus be defined as the impact matching with the ex-ante presumptions. In order to analyse the influence of these programmes on the living condition of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes, it becomes necessary to test the effectiveness of the efforts undertaken and any such exercise would require mapping of the matrix of efforts, undertaken through Government programmes, in such a way that their influence on the socio-economic parameters can be segregated. An important component of such an exercise is to identify the factors determining the effectiveness of the programmes. In view of the above, the present study attempts to study the effectiveness of developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in Maharashtra and to locate the variables responsive to policy changes.

1.2 THE PROBLEM

The society of Indian people is divided into various castes from ancient periods. The caste is a distinctive feature of Indian society. Mainly 'caste' is used to show the origin of the communities as well as to distinguish the communities from each other. In addition to this, the term caste indicates their traditional occupation, certain

obligations, restrictions and hierarchical rank order in relation to the social activities. The membership of the caste is decided by birth only. The caste groups follow their own pattern^{of} life and customs eventhough they have their different characteristics, such as dress, food, models of workship and cultural activities. The differences are observed between regions and within the same caste group. The castes have their own panchayats to solve their internal disputes as well as external problems. They are interdependent for their religion, social, political and economic activities.

The hierarchy of the castes is initially expressed in terms of four varnas i.e. Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Sudras. The sudras are treated as inferior and untouchables. The untouchables are identified with the unclean occupations or 'depressed castes'. They do not have any respectable status, be it religion, social, political or economic activity of the society. Further they are prohibited to access to public places such as schools, temples, hotels and better economic vocations.

During the British period and particularly after the Independence the earlier picture of caste system and its rigidities have reduced. But still these communities are facing the problem of low income, illiteracy, poor health standards, proper access to the resources, inequality, poverty and unequal opportunities at various levels. This

culminates into a vicious circle of deprivation from one generation to another generation and it is self perpetuating.

The Constitution of India provides safeguards to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to remove the inequality rooted in the traditional system and to construct a modern society which provide equal opportunities to all. In this respect, equal opportunities in education and employment have been ensured through specific programmes. Thus the main purpose of most of the programmes is to ensure that the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes participate in the mainstream developmental efforts and acquire equal status in the society. No doubt, the measures undertaken have yielded some results but not sufficient enough to eradicate the inequality and discrimination.

The Central Government and the State Governments are implementing various developmental programmes for the Backward Classes, particularly for the development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes like, Tribal Sub Plan (TSP) and Special Component Plan (SCP) for Scheduled Castes. In addition to this, there has been substantial financial outlays over the programmes for the development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes; but the implementation of these has not yielded substantial changes. Moreover, Special Central Assistance (SCA) is also made

available to the State Governments, but sometimes this remains unutilised.

As the Report of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes 1986-87 mentioned "we have come a long way but much remains to be done", (GOI, 1987, P. ii). These special programmes have effected many changes in these weaker sections; though not to the expected level. The effect of these programmes are noticed on income, assets, educational level and consumption pattern of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. But the extent of the effects of these programmes on the above indicators have not been examined sufficiently. Thus, it becomes essential to highlight at once the effectiveness as well as the inadequacies of the programmes. The study makes an attempt on these lines.

Socio-economic well being of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is a complex multifaceted and multi-dimensional phenomenon. The process of the positive change is usually understood as an improvement in the standard of living. The standard of living would thus involve three basic aspects viz. economical, social and health. The studies conducted in the field have gone into some of the basic aspects relating these. The review of literature attempted in this study is accordingly divided into four broad groups¹. The studies generally concentrate on one of

i) Detailed review of literature is discussed in second chapter.

the following aspects. i) The persistence of the poor socio-economic conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes despite the policy efforts. Unfortunately caste has not only remained as a principal source of social division but still continues to be a comprehensive system of life, possibly neglecting the long term impact of such system. ii) Poverty among the group the of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It was noted that the poorest of the poor might indeed have been further impoverished in the process. iii) The impact of infrastructural development on the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicates that it has benefited a large number of populations from the weaker sections. iv) There are mixed opinions about the impact of the programmes. A sharply emerging scenario, is the need for the proper direction and magnitude of the programmes.

The review of the past studies on the effectiveness of the programmes and condition of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population, points out that effectiveness is not sufficiently, explained by the studies conducted so far. The effectiveness of the programmes on social and the qualitative aspects is also not sufficiently considered in the earlier studies. It clearly emerged that there is a need to look into the whole spectrum of the problem at the micro level by taking the tangible as well as intangible benefits of the programmes.

The issues that emerged out of the discussions are :

1. Is the successive planwise expenditure, from Central Government and State Government of Maharashtra for the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, adequate ? What are the difficulties for the success of these programmes ?
2. Is the impact of the developmental programmes for the upliftment of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes on the expected lines ?
3. What enabled the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to cross the poverty line in the planning period, particularly under the Integrated Rural Development programme?, and
4. What changes are necessary in the welfare programmes implemented for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Keeping in view the emerging issues discussed above and the prominent gaps out of the review of the literature, it becomes necessary to have a clear look at the effectiveness of the developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the post-independence period. It can be broadly hypothesised that the programmes were not as effective as expected at the formulation stage. The programme philosophies, design as well as implementation might have caused such differential impact. Furthermore, the structural determinants in the society and certain important

economic parameters are also responsible for such differential impact. On the basis of the issues, the identified gaps and with the focus of the programmes, the following objectives are identified for the present study.

1.3 : OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The specific objectives of the study are :

1. To attempt a schematic review of the studies analysing the problems and programmes for the development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes covering specifically the economic aspects and the process of discrimination.
2. To analyse the emergence of the caste system and important theories governing it as well as to ascertain its influence on the inequalities and discrimination in the light of various models of caste as an institution.
3. To ascertain the growth and distribution of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the country as well as in the state of Maharashtra and to analyse the strategies adopted towards amelioration of their conditions during various plan periods from the point of view of changes in the philosophy and expenditure pattern.
4. To obtain a perceptible view of the changes in different economic parameters and social conditions of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes due to the operation of different programmes in the sample region at micro level.

5. To analyse the effectiveness of the developmental programmes at micro-level, in terms of the determining factors for effectiveness represented by the economic parameters.

Keeping in view the above stated objectives, the study attempts the analysis of the structure of the Indian society and the cycle of deprivation for these castes as reflected through the literature. The basic focus of our analysis does not remain confined simply to the genesis and perpetuation of the caste system but also tries to highlight the theoretical link between the social and economic deprivation. It also attempts to analyse the problem through the main features of the Hindu society, which is based on the caste system. The analysis focuses on the emergence of the caste system, caste criteria, caste models, varna system, untouchability and problems of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India. The major thrust, however, remains the emergence of the present structure of economic and social deprivation of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In addition, an attempt to analyse socio-economic programmes initiated by the Government of India and the state Government of Maharashtra also forms the spread as well as concentration of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population over the country and the state is an important variable attempted here. Further the review of the design and strategy of the on-going programmes also

becomes necessary. This needs to be supported by the analysis of the pattern of expenditure through the various plan periods as well as to understand the philosophy behind the various programmes for the upliftment of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The programme's effectiveness is determined by several factors. The contributing as well as the retarding factors of the programme effectiveness are to be established to understand the extent of effectiveness with the help of household level data. The parameters determining the effectiveness of the developmental programmes for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have to be identified with the help of multivariate discriminant analysis.

The broad indicators of effectiveness have been classified into 10 groups such as, income, value of assets, total assistance, consumption pattern, land holdings, scheme participation, loan and repayments, educational level and social and political status. The relative importance of the indicators with their power to discriminate between the two groups of the sample households is pointed through this analysis. In order to classify the households clearly into two groups, a Programme Effective Index (PEI) is computed. The analysis gives the division point which helps to identify the two separate groups. Further, the discriminant analysis can also give some clues relating to the major

discriminating variables. In other words, the variables which determine the group behaviour could be easily identified with the help of this analysis.

1.4 : METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The study utilises data, both at secondary as well as primary levels. The secondary level data are used in order to understand the trends in plan efforts of the developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The data are also utilised to understand the spread of population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes across the region and their growth. Sources utilised for the secondary data are the population Census, Five Year Plan documents, Budgets, Reports of the Commission and Commissioners for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The data and information was also collected from Agricultural Census, District Rural Development Agency (DRDA), Zilla Parishad Office, District Industrial Centre, (DIC) Lead Bank of the District, Block Development Offices of the selected Talukas, Primary Co-operative Societies and Village Development Officer (Gramsevak-VDO). For the collection of the primary data, the field schedule was prepared. It was spread over the sub-components namely general information of sample households, employment situation, agriculture, participation in various developmental schemes, cost-benefits of the programme availed, value of asset and consumption pattern, etc., for

the purpose of the micro level study. This schedule was canvassed in two Talukas of Ahmadnagar district. The procedure and criteria followed for selection are discussed seperately in Chapter five. The district is divided into four subdivisions which cover talukas on the basis of collected information from District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) Office. A complete enumeration survey of the weaker sections of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was undertaken before the implementation of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in the State. The results of this survey gave a systematic list of the poor households belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes from the villages and Talukas. We selected two talukas on the basis of shortfall of coverage under this major anti-poverty programme, (See chapter V). Three stage systematic random sampling procedure was followed with the first stage as the Talukas, second as villages and the third stage as the selection of households. The total number of selected sample households are 178.

The methodology of analysis involves use of simple statistical techniques and Tables based on the collected data. To identify the major discriminating factors determining effective use of programme assistance multivariate discriminant analysis (MDA) is used in the study.

This study covers the period from 1951 to 1990. The field work of the study commenced in the first week of April 1990 and was completed by the end of July 1990. Thus the survey was mainly carried out in the calendar year 1990.

The scope of the present study is confined mainly to the effectiveness of the Developmental programmes implemented by Central and State Government of Maharashtra for the upliftment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in Sangamner and Nevasa Talukas of Ahmadnagar district. Thus, the results of the study are limited to the study area particularly 178 selected sample households only.

1.5 : ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

This study analyses the effectiveness of the programmes by taking the pre-assistance condition of the beneficiaries as control situation. It looks into the improvement from the pre-assistance situation to post assistance. It analyses the situation in two Talukas with a view to ascertain the impact of the programmes in different places and not necessarily to compare the effectiveness between the Talukas.

1.6 : THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study contains eight chapters. The first chapter is introductory and gives the nature of the problem and methodology used in the study. The second chapter gives a brief review of the literature. The literature relating to the study is broadly divided into four groups according to their approaches and factors included in these studies. The

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groups are : (i) Socio - Economic conditions, (ii) Poverty estimates, measurements and determinants, (iii) Educational development and (iv) The impact of the programmes. The third chapter discusses various theories governing the caste system in general and Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Indian society in particular. This chapter covers the emergence of the caste system, caste criteria, caste models, Varna system, untouchability and definition of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Lastly, this chapter presents vicious circle of deprivation of caste system in Indian society. The fourth chapter deals with the analyses of the developmental programmes implemented by the Central, State government and various agencies. The first sub-section contains the analysis of growth, spread as well as concentration of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population over the country and the states. The next sub-section covers the analysis of the strategies of expenditure in real terms through the various plan periods to understand the philosophy and impact of the programmes. The fifth chapter presents the characteristics of the study area. In this chapter topography, rainfall, population profile, cropping pattern, live-stock assets and availability of infrastructural amenities in the district are discussed. The sixth chapter attempts a micro-level analysis based on the socio-economic factors of the sample households. This chapter is divided into five major sub-sections. First sub-

section presents the population profile and includes literacy and occupation&l structure. The participation of sample households in various programmes discussed in second sub-section. The third sub-section deals with the agricultural development and market habits of the sample households. The correlation between the various indicators (variables) is presented in the fourth sub-section and the following sub-section of this chapter provides the details of the consumption pattern (food and non-food) of the sample households. An analysis of the determinants of the effectiveness of the programmes is attempted here by employing regression analysis. The seventh chapter of the study deals with the discriminating variables by using multivariate discriminant analysis. The coefficient contribution of individual characteristics, to the programme effectiveness index values of the individual sample households have been worked out. The last sub-section includes the division point and on the basis, it separates the two groups of sample households i.e. (i) those who have effectively used the programme assistance and (ii) not used the programmes assistance that effectively. The focus of the chapter is to identify the variables which mainly help in discrimination. The last chapter brings out some broad conclusion emerging out of the analysis.

APPENDIX - 1.1

CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

Some of the important concepts and definitions used in the study are defined as below :

1. **Household :-** A group of persons normally living together and taking food from a common kitchen constituted a household.
2. **Household size :-** The number of normally resident members of a household is its size.
3. **Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribes :-** The list of Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribes according to census of India 1981, series - 12 Maharashtra. Part XIII District Census Handbook part XIII-A & B village & town Directory, villagewise and Town Wardwise primary census Abstract. Ahmadnagar District, P.15.
4. **Agricultural Labour Household :-** Agricultural Labour households which have derived major portion of their total income during the last 365 day preceding the date of survey from wage paid manual labour in agricultural occupations i.e. farming, dairy farming production cultivation raising of livestock, poultry etc. only were regarded as agricultural labour.
5. **Principal and Subsidiary Occupation of Household :-**
If the household is engaged in more than one occupation the occupation that fetches maximum income is regarded

as the principal occupation. Next to principal occupation, that occupation which fetches maximum income out of the remaining occupations is regarded as subsidiary occupation.

6. **Industry Occupationwise classification of Households :-**
Cultivators or labourers engaged in Agriculture were categorized under Agricultural industry. Households engaged in manufacturing industries like blacksmith, carpentry, Shops etc. were classified under manufacturing.

7. **Extent of landholding (Total operational holding) :-**
Land holding (Total operational holding) = Land owned + Land leased in - Land Leased out.

8. **Land cultivated :-** The total area of the land cultivated by the household during the last agricultural year (July 1989 to June 1990) was taken into consideration. Land cultivated was obtained by deducting from the acreage (or hectare) of the land possessed in any of the following types :-

- i. Forest area
- ii. Barren and uncultivable wastes.
- iii. Land put to non-agricultural uses.
- iv. Cultivable wastes.
- v. Permanent pastures and other grazing land.

9. **Net Farm Income :-**

Net Farm Income = Gross Farm Income - production cost

10. Gross Farm Income :-

Income through farm activities such as income from crop production including Animal husbandry, poultry, fishery, horticulture, and his own agricultural wages. etc.

11. Farm investment income :-

It is farm business income (i.e. profit at cost A) - imputed value of family human labour.

12. Net Non-Farm Income. :-

Gross Non-Farm Income-Consequential Expenditure

13. Gross Non-Farm Income :- Gross Non-farm Income means income other than farm income of the beneficiary household from activities such as trade and services.

14. Total Net Income :-

Total Net Income means Net Farm Income + Net non-farm income.

15. Annual per capita Income of the household :-

$$\text{Annual per capita Income of the Household} = \frac{\text{Annual total Net Income of the household}}{\text{Total number of members of the household}}$$

16. Household Expenditure :-

- a] Food : This includes the cost of cereals, pulses and other articles which form a part of the daily diet of the cultivator.
- b] Non-food :
- i] Fuel - This consists of cattle dung-cakes, fire wood, kerosene and other by products of the farm or collected from other farmers of the village, which are used for this purpose.

ii] Clothing - This includes the expenditure on clothes of every day use, those for special occasions, presented to relatives, friends and others, and expenditure on beddings.

17. Total consumption Expenditure :-

Consumption expenditure is a total of expenditure on Food, Fuel, Clothing etc.

18. Saving :- Disposable income - [minus] Consumption expenditure.

19. Per Capita Expenditure :-

$$\text{Per Capita Expenditure} = \frac{\text{Total Expenditure of the household (s)}}{\text{Total number of member of the household (s)}}$$

20. Per Capita Saving :-

$$\text{Per capita Saving} = \frac{\text{Total Saving of the household (s)}}{\text{Total number of member of the household (s)}}$$

21. Total loan availed :-

Total loan availed means total amount of loan which a particular household has availed on the date of survey (April 1990 to July 1990)

22. Loan Repaid :- The amount of loan repaid by the household from total loan availed.

23. Outstanding Amount :-

Outstanding Amount = Total loan availed - loan repaid.

24. Gini Ratio :-

This is useful tool to summarise the degree of concentration of income .

25. Concentration Ratio :-

$$\text{Concentration Ratios} = \frac{\text{Population of SC or ST/Total Population of State or District or Taluka}}{\text{Population of SC or ST/Total Population of Country or State or District.}}$$

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Socio-economic well-being of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is a complex, multifaceted and multi-dimensional phenomenon. The process of the positive change can be understood as an improvement in the standard of living of the weaker sections of the society. The standard of living would involve three basic aspects, viz. 1. Economical, 2. Socio-Educational and 3. Health. When elaborated, economic development encompasses income, consumption, and saving, out of the main and secondary profession such as agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage industry and forestry, whereas, social development involves social and political awareness, educational development, general literacy, awareness of professional, entrepreneurial, vocational as well as technical education and class stagnation. Development of health requires provision of drinking-water facilities, Primary health centers, immunisation, family planning and nutritional programmes. Thus the standard of living as well as change in it becomes difficult phenomena to comprehend.

In India, the studies on socio-economic well being of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are not of recent origin both in theoretical framework and in the pattern

of their analysis. Hence, the studies have to be grouped on their broad approaches instead of chronological sequences. We group them as follows :

- I. The studies pertaining to the Castes and Tribes and their approaches towards socio-economic conditions;
- II. The studies dealing with the poverty estimates, measurement, and determinants of poverty in India
- III. The studies analysing educational development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, and
- IV. The studies relating the impact of the programmes like IRDP, NREP, RLEGP, EGS, etc.

Thus this chapter is divided into four sections according to the above groups.

2.2 STUDIES PERTAINING TO THE CONDITION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

The analysis of the socio-economic conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes by social anthropologist, usually involves identification of the caste or social stratification as the major determinants of differential development. Some studies describe the origin of the castes, customs, inequality and social stratification as a theoretical approach of castes and tribes. Whereas, certain other studies are based on the empirical findings. Most of the empirical studies focus on economic conditions, educational development,

occupation and urbanisation of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India. However, these studies (see Appendix A 2.1) can be broadly divided into two groups.

1. Studies based on the theoretical approach of the Castes and Tribes,
2. The studies based on empirical evidence used for determination of socio-economic status.

The first group includes some important studies like the study by Kane(1941), and Panikar (1933). They reviewed the historical evidence from Dharmashastra (medieval Religion and Civil Law) and other related works in order to describe caste. Here, they made an attempt to trace the origin of the caste basically enlisting the major characteristics and features of the caste system. A descriptive and deterministic approach was adopted by Panikar (1933). He noted caste as not merely a principal of social division but a comprehensive system of life, possibly neglecting the long term impact of such system, (Panikar, 1933). Kane (1941) on the other hand based his arguments on the review of Dharmashastra and other related studies.

The relationship among three major dimensions of social structure in modern India i.e. economic groups, social-stratification, and political positions was examined by Bhatt (1975). After discussing the Classical Caste Model of social stratification, he emphasised that the definition of social, economic, and

political life on the basis of circumstance at birth is quite irrational.

On similar lines, an elaborate and descriptive study (Huttan, 1951) traces the background of the Caste system from its origin till the middle of the 20th century. He elaborated the system as a self perpetuating social institution. However, it is significant to note that he did not consider economic aspects as an important cause. The emergence and nature of caste through the ages, and the influence of the British rule on the Caste system as well as the role of class have been analysed by Ghurye (1950). The elaborate discussion he had undertaken emphasized the fact that the recent transformation of caste has proceeded almost on the lines of the British social classes without developing the social harmony that existed among them, till about the middle of the 18th century. Considering the similarity of the caste system with the "estates system"¹, he argued that its emergence is quite natural and the transformation should install harmonious structure of social classes as was the case with Britain's "estates system" (Ghurye, 1950, p.228).

1 : "Estates System" recognised by the feudal society of Britain. There are four standard estates 'the nobles', 'the Clergy', 'the free farmers' and 'the serfs' or 'the villeins'. The feudal system was both a matter of law regarding land as well as of the social rank. In the caste system the caste of Brahmin, charged with the propagation of learning and religion was the highest. In the estates society, the warriors or nobles, the counterpart of the Kshatriyas occupied the first rank. The members of the different estates could not originally intermarry at all (Ghurye, 1950, 211-213 & 223).

Srinivas approaches the study of caste system from a micro angle and describes the complexes as they exist in an Indian village through a case study of Rampura village (Srinivas, 1987, p.17). In the process he analysed the system through the concept of "Sanskritization²," the 'Dominant caste' and 'vote banks'. Thus he directly related the socio-political aspects to the caste system.

A totally different approach was taken by Ambedkar (1948). He investigated the origin of untouchability. The book clearly deals with almost all questions connected with untouchability. The focal point of his thesis is that the concept of untouchability originated some time about 400 A.D., and out of the struggle for supremacy between Buddhism and Brahmanism which has so completely moulded the history of India, and so woefully neglected by students of Indian history (Ambedkar, 1948, p.155). Thus the origin of the caste system according to Ambedkar (1948) lies in the irrational control of the socio-political powers by a group of people who termed themselves as the proponents of the religion.

2 : 'Sanskritization' means a low caste takes over, as far as possible the customs, rites and beliefs of the Brahmins, and the adoption of the Brahminical way of life by a low caste seems to have been frequent though forbidden. This process has been called "Sanskritization", in preference to "Brahminization, as certain Vedic rites are confined to Brahmins and the two other "twice-born castes" (Srinivas, 1952, 24-31).

Hutton (1951) as well as Ghurye (1950) ascribe the origin of caste system to the role of class in Indian society. However, on this background the thesis put forward by Ambedkar (1948) is quite interesting and important. He elaborately describes the caste system generated out of the struggle of supremacy. He emphasised the control of resources or dominating role of a group in the society as the prime factor for the discrimination. Untouchability and other irrational social norms were used as tools to perpetuate and strengthen this control, (Ambedkar, 1948, P. 155).

The Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Report for the year 1988-90 states that a "dualistic system"³ is getting established in our country. It pointed towards the dualistic system in the society for penetrating the deprivation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The modern organised sector comprises of the upper segment of the system while the traditional unorganised sector includes the lower segment. Consequently, even amongst the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes two different segments are getting established exactly in the same fashion. The dualistic

3 : According to this report "dualistic system" included two sectors, first modern organised sector which is the upper class of the society and second, traditional unorganised sector which is the lower class of the society.

system is by its very nature inequitous. In a hurry for development, the country has accepted the questionable premise of "development first" and "social equality" later or at a secondary position, (GOI 1989 and Ilaiah, 1990). This has further widened the gap between the socially privileged against the socially handicapped.

Many studies are available especially dealing with the complex problems of the caste system and deprivation inflicted by such system. The issues analysed however, have both dynamically and spatially different approaches and results. Thus we shall deal with the issues as and when these arise.

Maharashtra has high concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, and therefore the problem of deprivation as well as social tensions is far more complex in the state. Many studies have been conducted dealing with various aspects of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population of the state. It is difficult to include all these in this review because of the multiplicity of the issues tackled by them. A large number of them stressed the fact of deprivation, unequal access to resources, atrocities on the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. viz. Kane (1941), Panikar (1933), Bhatt (1941), Patil (1974), Pandit (1979), Karve (1968) and Zinkin (1962). There are three basic aspects as far as our review is concerned. Firstly, it is the analysis of caste

system in the historical perspective in the state of Maharashtra viz. Kane (1941), Karve (1968), Panikar (1933), Patil (1974), Pandit (1979) and Zinkin (1962). Second comes the attitude towards the caste system and its strengthening the beliefs in the society and continuation of it over generation; viz. Paranjape (1970), Gare and Limaye (1973), Nadkarni (1988), Patil (1980), and Pandit (1979). The third aspect is the control of the resources and deprivation in terms of access to resource for this group of people. viz. Kulkarni (1980), Government of Maharashtra (1967, 1977, 1978, 1982, 1984, 1986).

An extensive survey of Maharashtra was undertaken by the Rashtriya Sevadal and Jati Nirmulan Sanstha. (Gare and Limaye, 1973). The survey concluded that inspite of all the Constitutional protections, social efforts and welfare schemes, the Scheduled Castes continued to suffer from various social disabilities and untouchability was being practiced in the villages. Another report of Harijan Sevak Sangh stated that 60.94 (755) per cent villages spread over 12 states prohibited the use of drinking-water wells, 73.28 (908) per cent villages prohibited the entry to the temple and 58.84 (729) per cent villages prohibited entry in the hotel to the Scheduled Castes⁴. (Patil, 1980).

A study by Paranjape (1970) approaches the problem from the point of view of psychological setting gives the

4 : (for details see Appendix : A 2.2).

reactions of the youths in three caste groups, i.e. Brahman, Maratha and Harijan through a survey of College students in Pune city. The study concluded that the beliefs and attitudes relating to the caste system were deeply rooted in the young generation of the society, (Silva and et al., 1978) highlights the difficulties in accessing resources of Scheduled Tribes and their struggle for land in Palghar of Thane district. This also brings out a further aspect about the control of resources and struggle for ownership or access to resources.

A report in response to the recommendations of the State Government of Maharashtra's Legislative Committee on the Welfare of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Vimukta Jatis and Nomadic Tribes was prepared recently. The report attempted to assess the relative benefits from the Government schemes for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and non-Scheduled Castes and Tribes (non-SC/ST). The report pointed out that although the schemes have been formulated to benefit the poorest of the poor or assetless families, but usually the benefits are cornered by the more resourceful families i.e. non-Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Non-SC/STS), in terms of agricultural inputs, credit facilities, education as well as drinking water, (Nadkarni, 1988).

2.3 POVERTY : ESTIMATES, MEASUREMENTS AND DETERMINANTS

Analyses of poverty and related issues become important here because the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are the major group among the poor of India. The dynamics of poverty clearly indicates the connection of social deprivation leading to economic deprivation and the process is self generating. The studies on poverty may be divided broadly into two groups, viz.

1. Theoretical studies dealing with the generation and perpetuation of poverty.
2. Empirical studies, particularly with special reference to India. The empirical studies can further be divided into two broad groups. These are : (i) Measurement of poverty and (ii) The determinants of poverty, especially concerned with deprivation. Empirical studies on poverty in India are either based on field data or make use of the data given by National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO).

Among the theoretical studies, the notable studies are by Atkinson (1979) Sen (1976), Dandekar and Rath (1971), Lipton (1977), Kakwani and Subba Rao (1990). Theoretically two broad strains are common in the literature, one addresses to the questions about explanation of poverty and why does it originate?, the second group tried to define the concept and seek its measurement.

Among the explanations of poverty the notable contribution is the Lipton's (1977) thesis about 'Why Poor People Stay Poor' and the operation of the vicious circle of poverty through dual face of the resource distribution. Amartya Sen's approach of entitlement gives interestingly, the methodology of measurement and bypasses the issue of social deprivation as well as other basic necessities like education, housing etc. At least on theoretical basis these are included in the concept of 'entitlement' of Sen or 'asset control theory' of Lipton (1985). The second plausible interpretation of the theoretical paradigm of Lipton's dualistic nature of development process and the urban bias theory can include the deprived class as a single group bypassed by the process of development. This has created two large groups in the society, one with large ownership and access to resources (Urban Characteristic) and the other without it. The economic gains and the control of the first group transcends into perpetuating the poverty of the other. This interpretation comes quite close to the analysis of deprivation of Scheduled Castes by Ambedkar (1948).

Among the empirical studies, the notable studies are Bardhan (1971), Dandekar and Rath (1971), Ojha (1970), Ahluwalia (1978), Kurien (1978), Radhakrishna, Sastry and Reddy (1984) and Minhas, Jain, and Tendulkar (1992). In the empirical studies prominently three issues emerge quite frequently. First, one is about the measurement and

TABLE 2.1 : POVERTY NORMS FOR THE POPULATION OF BELOW POVERTY LINE

SR. NO.	AUTHOR'S	STUDY YEAR	SOURCE OF DATA	POVERTY NORM
1.	MAN H H	1918 & 1948	Village Surveys	NA
2.	Lydall H F	1955 - 56	---	Monthly income less than Rs. 20 per capita
3.	Ojha P D	1968 - 61	N S S	Foodgrains consumption of 518 gas. (1800 calories) per day per person Rural and 432 gas. (1500 calories) Urban.
4.	Dandekar V N and Rath N	1968 - 61	N S S	Per capita consumer expenditure less than Rs. 15 per month Rural, Rs. 22.5 per month Urban
5.	Bardhan P K	1964 - 65	N S S	Per capita consumer expenditure less than Rs. 15 per month Rural, at 1960-61 prices
6.	Dandekar V N	1971 - 73	N S S	Energy intake less than 2750 calories per day per person
7.	Ministry of Programme Implementation, Goa, Annual Report 1987-88	1977 - 78	C S O	Per capita consumption expenditure of Rs.49 per month Rural (2400 calories per day) and Rs. 75 per month Urban (2100 calories per day) at 1973 - 74 prices.
8.	Planning Commission (Seventh Five Year Plan)	1983 - 84 (Provisional)	N S S	--Do--

Notes : 1. N S S = National Sample Survey 2. C S O = Central Statistical Organisation

Source : Krishnaswamy, 1990, P. 6.

determinants of poverty. Second group deals with the regional variations, and third, one is the one which examines dynamics of poverty and analyses the policy interventions. More frequently all the group of studies referred have dealt with complex issues but some how the interface between social deprivation and poverty evaded a close scrutiny.

As indicated above, major issues discussed among empirical studies involved measurement and explanation of poverty. From the pioneering study of Dadabhai Nauroji till recently, the discussion is focused on food availability and its quantum. The studies by Planning Commission (1985), Ojha (1970), Dandekar and Rath (1971), Bardhan (1974) and many others (see Table 2.1) have used minimum dietary requirement as the norm for deciding the food basket at poverty line. But this approach faced challenge from two directions, the first one led by Sukhatme's statement that the normative nutrition mark overstates the undernutrition due to inter and intra individual variations (Sukhatme, 1978). A large part of literature is occupied on the issues relating measurement or incidence of poverty. The other dimension of the studies on poverty is the direction of its trend and determinants. Notable among these are Ahluwalia (1978) Krishnaswamy 1990, Minhas, Jain and Tendulkar (1991).

There are micro level studies specifically addressing the question of the dimensions and determinants of poverty Reddappa (1984), Khan and Eddy (1984), Gaur (1986), Bhattacharya, et al.(1991). But most of these do not touch the core aspect of social deprivation and economic opportunities as a determinant of the level of poverty. No doubt there are indications of awareness but analysts have not attempted any explanation. Further, what Rao (1977), Kurien (1978) and Krishnaswamy (1990) argued happen to be a quite important aspect of the poverty studies. They consider the non-inclusion of expenditure on health and education in the normative poverty line accounts for a serious error. Rao (1977) calls the nutritional norm causing "the poor as defined also include the non-poor and the non-poor include the poor" (Rao 1977). He calls for poverty to be identified with deficiency in the quality of life. This point of view was further taken up by Krishnaswamy (1990), when he speaks of the intra-group differences among those below poverty line. Specifically, he argued that "reduction in the population of the people below the poverty line does not tell us much about the condition of those at the very bottom, the poorest of the poor might indeed have been further impoverished in the process", (Krishnaswamy, 1990, P.10). In the similar vein, Rao (1991) also pointed out the absence of the allowances for health, housing education

etc. while defining the minimum level of living. He states that "dimensions other than open hunger would get low priority in this approach," (Rao, 1991).

A synthesis of all these, directs to the fact that the debate on poverty has always evaded the social deprivation as a cause as well as a tool for measurement of poverty. The measurements have remained mechanical and considered the normative nutritional norms only. As a result, there is hardly any attention paid to the fact of wide intra-group differences among the poor and the impact of anti-poverty policy on such groups. More specifically, the caste composition of the group of poor brings to the fore a fact that there are two extremes existing among these, One with little social deprivations and the other as completely neglected.

2.4 : EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

It is aptly said that education is an insurance against poverty, discrimination and inequality. Dr. Babasaheb R. Ambedkar (GOM, 1982) rightly said that, "Unless compulsion in the matter of Primary Education is made obligatory and unless the admission to primary schools strictly enforced, conditions essential for educational progress of the Backward Classes will not come into existence," (GOM, 1982, P.427). Being one of the major indicators of quality of life, the need for education was

expressed by all the social reformers⁵. Many of them have started educational institutions, which were open to all including the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and non-Scheduled Castes and Tribes.

The philosophy behind approaching the problem of poverty through education can best be analysed under the quality of human capital hypothesis of Schultz. Access to skill and information leads to higher opportunities. For a long time access to education was not class neutral or socially neutral. After Independence, the Government of India and the State Governments are giving special emphasis on the development of education for the weaker sections of society through the special educational programmes (See Appendix : A 2.3).

The development of education over the last four decades raised quite a few significant issues relating its impact on the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. An important question emerging out of the debate is the effectiveness of education in enhancing the quality of life of the deprived castes. In the background of this, a few issues emerge very strongly. These are :

1. Progress and quality of education provided to the Scheduled Castes and Schedule Tribes.

5 : Especially in Maharashtra like Mahatma Phule (1827-1890), Shahu Chhatrapati (1884-1922), Sayajirao Gaikwad (1863-1939), Dr. B.R. Ambedkar (1891-1956), Bhaurao Patil (1887-1959) and others.

2. Dropouts among Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students, and the reasons for this;
3. Impact of education on employment, earnings, inequality and poverty, and
4. Policy for the educational development in India with specific emphasis on the development of deprived castes.

Our attempt here is to review some selected studies falling under the above broad groups.

2.4.1 : PROGRESS AND QUALITY OF EDUCATION

There are quite a few studies analysing the progress and quality of education provided to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Some of these studies attempt to look into the spread of educational facilities and access to these for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Gadgil's (1952) study is one of the pioneering study dealing with this aspect. While analysing the access to education from 1896 to 1931, he observed that the boys and girls of the depressed class fall considerably behind the students of the Hindu community, and he showed further that after 1921 there was a rapid growth of education among the children of depressed castes. (Gadgil, 1952). In a study on access to education in Pune city, Desai (1981) concluded that only 19 per cent of non-Brahmins were enrolled in schools as against two third Brahmin students, (Desai 1981, P. 819). In this context

another important study by Tilak (1978) attempted to find out the socio-economic relation with educational development including income, inequality and poverty (Tilak, 1978,). In the recent past, Bandopadhyay (1991) reviewed the Acharya Ramamurti Committee Report (1980) and it was noted that awareness for education was not spread among poor including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, (Bandopadhyay 1991,).

As regard the quality of education, it was strongly felt that emphasis has to be on the functional education rather than pure literacy. A strong criticism was levelled stating that the modern system does not prepare the new generation to face the economic realities of life. (Singh and Sharma, 1979). A study by Nimbalkar (1986) also highlighted this issue while analysing National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) in Goa. Apart from the functional characteristics of education, the social background of the instructors has also been one of the important questions discussed. Most of the instructors/teachers belonged to the upper castes, which was recorded as one of the reasons for dropouts in the schools (Nimbalkar, 1986). Similar observation was also made by Chauhan and Narayan (1986). The quality of education also included the provision of infrastructural facilities at the educational institutes. These became crucial factors for the students of weaker

sections as they do not have adequate educational background at their house. Some other studies underscores the inadequacy of infrastructure, even in the schools run by religious missionary groups in the tribal areas. He pointed out bare inadequacies in the tribal belt of Maharashtra and also made suggestions regarding the content of education and institutional structure of the school in the tribal areas.

On similar line there are two more studies which are quite important. First one is conducted by the Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) and the second by the National Committee on the Development of Backward Areas constituted by the Planning Commission (1981). The ICSSR study brought together a group of social scientists from all over the country to design and execute a nation wide study of the educational problems of the high school and college students belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Report noted that the task of the upliftment of the Scheduled Castes should not be left entirely to the Government policies and programmes but efforts have to be made by the Scheduled Caste Communities themselves (Chitnis, 1981). However, it is quite evident that there are not many economically strong groups among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Further, due to the weak economic base as well as the dependent social characteristic of this

group, it is obviously difficult for them to support self developmental programmes. The Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (1983) in the Fifth Report pointedly brought out the difficulties faced by the Students belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. These include inadequacy and delays of scholarship amounts, discrimination from teachers as well as classmates, (GOI, 1983, P. 186).

Even with the limited access, inadequate infrastructure along with other bottlenecks, it is interesting to note that the students from Scheduled Caste groups scored better than those from the forward castes. Chal am (1990) brought out this point very sharply in his study of Andhra Pradesh. He pointed out that while the average per cent growth of forward caste students was 2.45 percent and for backward class it was 17.44 per cent. (Chalam, 1990).

2.4.2 PROBLEM OF DROPOUTS

Availability of infrastructure does not automatically guarantee the access to education to the students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Infact access would not merely mean only approach to educational facilities but also include sustenance of the students of these group in the educational system. We have seen earlier that quite a few

studies have pointed out the gap between the social background of the teacher and the students, causes dropouts (Nimbalkar, 1986). Therefore, the problem of school dropouts is more severe in the case of the students belonging this groups⁶. The high rate of school dropouts among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was observed by Subrahmaniyan (1986). This was ascribed to inadequate structure of incentives. Similarly, Bopegange A and Ratna Rao noted the high dropout rates among Scheduled Tribe students. Ramanamma A and Bambawale (1978) assessed the reason for school dropouts of the Scheduled castes and Scheduled Tribes. The various reasons for the dropouts noted were : 1. Psychological, i.e. intelligence, external constraints and gap in knowledge, 2. Socio-economic, i.e. sociological, cultural and economic, and , 3. Educational, i.e. school system (internal and external), (Ramanamma and Bambawale , 1978).

In this regard, the Ramamurti Committee (1990) pointed out that there are a large number of dropouts at the primary and the secondary stage of education. The majority of the drop-outs belong to poor and deprived sections of the community. Large number of girls dropout of the school than boys. In this connection the Committee

6. Ramanamma and Bambawale (1978), Bopegange and Rao (1978), Subrahmaniyan (1986) and Bandopadhyay 1991).

has made a number of useful recommendations, these included (1) flexible school hours, (2) open exit and entry system, (3) modular system of school education, (4) increasing degree of vocationalisation of curriculum, (5) teacher must ensure that the needy and relatively backward students get extra help and encouragement, (Bandopadhyay, 1991, P.364).

2.4.3. IMPACT OF EDUCATION

As we have discussed earlier the provision of education provides access to larger information, better employment opportunities and insurance against poverty. Many studies have attempted to look into the impact of education on employment, income, poverty and inequality. It is not surprising that, most of the studies indicate a definite positive impact of education on these factors. Tupe (1986) credits the educational institutions for the removal of poverty. A notable study by Tilak (1978) concluded that education has substantially improved income and reduced the effects of poverty. It also contributed to the reduction of inequality among the groups of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. (Tilak, 1978). Another notable work by Borkar and Kurulkar (1982) also indicated that the general rate of unemployment was very high among the graduates belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Borkar and Kurulkar, 1982). It is interesting that the educated

students belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes showed greater preference for the Government jobs. (Lal 1976). This is quite possible because of the job security and lower level of social discrimination faced in the Government offices.

2.4.4 EDUCATIONAL POLICY

There are a few studies discussing the policy of education, among them the notable one by Bandopadhyay (1991), discusses the education policy for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes which has not been discussed substantially except in some studies after the education policy of 1986. Since independence the Government of India as well as the Governments of all the states have been trying to improve educational standard and expand educational facilities for the students and particularly those belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The policies envisaged are : i) Early childhood care and education and integrated child development service. ii) Universalisation of elementary education through formal and non-formal methods, so as to realise the goal by 1995. iii) Reduction of wastage and involvement of local community in the management of elementary education etc. (GOI, 1988, P.178).

The National policy for Education was adopted in May 1986 and its Programme of Action was adopted in August, 1986. In May, 1990 the Government of India announced the appointment of a Committee under the Chairmanship of Acharya Ramamurti to review the National Policy of Education 1986. The Committee submitted its final report to the Minister of Human Resource Development on December 26, 1990. Some of the recommendations and suggestions of the Ramamurti Committee are :

1. The semester system, continuous evaluation and abolition of the public examination as parts of its recommendations for examination reform.
2. Delinking degree from jobs through the instrumentality of letting user agencies build up their own testing mechanisms and modifying the recruitment policy of the Government and the public sector accordingly.
3. The educational system should establish effective linkages with the Community and the environment. The effective linkages can be established in the well defined areas of social and community activities.
4. Mother tongue as a medium of instruction at all level.
5. Special care in respect of women's education and conscious effort to remove biases and disparities in the field of educations.
6. The Committee has suggested 6 per cent of the Gross National Product (GNP) towards education and,
7. Special emphasis and attention to the education of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and backward class candidates. The special scheme should be drawn up, so that the educationally backward communities and areas get a positive push towards improvement in the field of educational attainment., (Bandopadhyaya, 1991).

2.5 : PERFORMANCE OF THE PROGRAMMES

As we have seen earlier, the need for special development programmes was felt even before the independence. Thus, the first task after the independence was to design developmental programmes for the weaker sections. This was a natural outcome of the socialistic policy. We shall be reviewing all the developmental programmes in one of the forthcoming chapters. Here we shall focus only on the poverty related programmes especially in the phase of target group specific developmental initiatives.

There are several programmes taken up for ameliorating the conditions of the rural poor and the deprived classes. These have been implemented with different objectives and expectations. One common finding relates to the provision of employment and infrastructure to these groups so that income can be generated with their own efforts. For the purpose of review, we group the studies in this section in the following broad categories.

1. Studies on the poverty eradication and asset generating programme i.e. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP).
2. Studies on employment related programmes i.e. NREP, RLEGP, EGS, TRYSEM, etc.
3. Studies on assistance from financial institutions to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.
4. Specific programmes of assistance.

2.5.1 POVERTY ERADICATION AND ASSET GENERATING PROGRAMMES

The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is of comparatively recent origin. There are quite a few studies evaluating the performance of the programme across the country. IRDP focused on providing productive assets to the rural poor so as to make provision for generating income to overcome the poverty line. The studies relating IRDP range from pointing out the theoretical fallacies to the implementation bottlenecks. Four major studies with a large coverage were reviewed by Bandopadhyay⁷ (1986). The main observations are as follows.

1. The period of the study of all the four organisations was so that it did not allow the benefits to percolate to the poor strata, and
2. There is the usual problems associated with "before" and "after" type of data collection.

The emphasis of these programmes is mainly on the provision of the non-land assets to the poor which has helped only a small proportion of the rural poor (Rath, 1985). Further, it is argued that IRDP is not really an integrated programme. The assets are provided but the lack

7 : These studies are (i) Reserve Bank of India (1984), (ii) The National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development study of 1984, (iii) The programme Evaluation Organisation Planning Commission Study of 1985, and (iv) The Institute for Financial Management and Research study of 1984.
(See Appendix : A 2.4).

of forward linkages do not allow the assets to be used fruitfully. Giving cattle and other assets to poor has helped little in eradication of poverty and actually it needs a multi-pronged strategy. The central part of the strategy has to be the provision of massive wage employment opportunities on private and public account in rural areas, especially creating further infrastructure. The other programmes will provide opportunities only for the able and the enterprising among the poor and this group is not large among the rural poor (Rath, 1985). Taking the issue with Rath (1985), Dantwala (1985), argued that a massive wage employment programme as the central piece of anti-poverty strategy would make dependence of the poor on employers. And he asks that,

"can we be sure that schemes for wage employment will not suffer from the same infirmities which have been detected in the beneficiary schemes? Is it being suggested that the poor should not aspire to own assets even a house site, a cow or a goat, a fishpond, a chakra or a loom? Should we also not bother to upgrade their status? The failure of strategy does not necessarily prove its irrelevance. The programme under Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) may have achieved very little and many have been misconceived, but that does not prove that the strategy of generating assets for the poor and upgrading their skills is wrong"; (Dantwala, 1985, pp. 475-476).

An important point was also made by Guhan (1985) that there was no information at all about those of the poor, who having crossed the poverty line and might have receded back into it again. But this point relates to the long term impact of the programme. Generally commenting on the

methodology of Reserve Bank of India (RBI), National Bank for Agricultural and Rural Development (NABARD), and Institute for Financial Management and Research (IFMR) studies, Rao (1985) states in brief the choice of the drought year to be reference closing year; and the absence of control group, undoubtedly constitute serious shortcomings of the RBI and NABARD studies, by contrast the IFMR study is methodologically superior, but this study allows only 15 months after the inception of the programme, an admittedly short period for the benefits to percolate (Bandopadhyay, 1986). Government of Maharashtra (1986) gave a report on Regional Level Evaluation study of Integrated Rural Development Programme for the period 1983-84. This study revealed that as per the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) records in the states, 25 per cent of the beneficiaries were from the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe classes. Further, this study showed an encouraging support to the weaker sections in the state through Integrated Rural Development Programme, but almost at the same time the evaluation of Integrated Rural Development Programme under Tribal Development Programme (TDP) indicated lower level of subsidies to the tribal beneficiaries as against the non-tribals (GOM, 1986). Similar observation was also recorded in a study conducted in non-tribal area (Jath and Walwa Talukas of Satara district). The incremental income was not sufficient even to pay the installments.

(Gadam, 1986, p.II). But Rao and Rangaswamy observed significant increase in incremental income despite low level of assistance, (Rao and Rangaswamy, 1988). International Labour Organization (ILO-1988) found that so far IRDP has been ineffective in most cases largely because the scale of the programmes was often too small and because the micro-economic policies were often inconsistent with the objectives of the programmes (ILO, 1988).

On the whole, we could get two different situations regarding the impact of Integrated Rural Development Programme. One which showed positive gains to the beneficiaries and the other extreme was that the beneficiaries could not generate even sufficient incremental income to pay the installments. This indicates differential impact across regions, which may be due to specific regional characteristics and the structural weights of different classes. Further, in the weak regions, the inability of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in paying back the installments might have left them further in the debt trap. Therefore, the question asked by Guhan (1985) that how many of the poor have retraced back their path below the line of poverty assumes importance in the context of this group.

2.5.2 EMPLOYMENT GENERATING PROGRAMMES

We shall approach the problem of poverty from another angle. Provision of employment gives guarantee of minimum flow of income and at the same time the beneficiary is not

tied with any asset-related credit. Thus the impact of this programme is likely to be different from the asset-related programmes. The Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (1988) reviewed the studies relating these programmes i.e. National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) Rural Landless Employment Guarantees programme (RLEGP), and Training for Rural Youth and Self Employment Programme (TRYSEM) etc. The commission observed that in most of the cases these schemes have failed to raise the income of the beneficiaries above the poverty line. The commission has observed that the IRDP, NREP, RLEGP, TRYSEM etc., had a substantial impact in stabilising the wages in the rural areas and states that these programmes are more effective than the IRDP. The Commission recommended that the density of such centers in the tribal areas and also in the regions with higher concentration of the Scheduled Castes may be increased (GOI, 1988). In India a Rural Manpower Programme was introduced in 1960-61 and it came to an end in 1968-69⁸. Regarding this programmes Asian Regional Team for Employment Promotion (ARTP-1986) observed the evaluation studies and pointed out that most of these studies considered the success of the programme in raising the level of the income of a large number of targeted beneficiaries i.e. Scheduled

8. This was followed by the crash scheme for Rural Employment Programme in 1972. The Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS) in the Maharashtra State was introduced in 1972, the Food for Works Programme (FWP) in 1977 and National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) since 1980. A Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) was also started in 1983.

Castes and Scheduled Tribes. An evaluation study of the EGS⁹ indicated that four districts of the State, namely, Nasik, Solapur, Beed and Bhandara, had only about 5 per cent of the total households belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (GOI, 1981, P.136).

2.5.3 ASSISTANCE FROM FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

The financial institutions increased their active interest in Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes after the 'Nationalisation' of the Commercial Banks. Special schemes were devised for the Scheduled castes and Scheduled Tribes. A good number of studies analysed the impact of such schemes on the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Theoretically, the lending assistance from commercial banks requires larger amount of incremental income. Further, the commercial lending does not necessarily involve any monitoring and technical assistance and thus the chance of failure of the schemes is quite large.

Many studies observed that indebtedness of the farmers is increasing after the schemes are introduced by the financial institutions. Choudhari's (1975) study of tribal region of West Bengal indicated that the indebtedness among the tribals of West Bengal has been increasing at as earning

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9. Planning Commission of India and the Directorate of Economic and Statistics of the State Government of Maharashtra for the period April 1976 to October 1978, about 5 per cent of the total households belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (GOI, 1981, p.136).

rate and during the recent years, with the fall of fixed agricultural wages, the tribal laborers have further been pushed below the poverty line. In a similar note but from different angle, Reddy (1986) concluded that almost 26 per cent of the beneficiaries are willful defaulters, (Reddy, 1986). He attributes this to the Socio-economic factors influencing the borrowers to repay the co-operative dues. Reddy and Reddy (1990) concluded that the association between economic factors and repayment of co-operative dues brings out the association. But, it is not significant between caste, land holding, amount of loans borrowed and earning members of the family and repayment of co-operative dues. On the other hand, there is a significant association between occupation, type of crops grown, political affiliation, literacy, irrigation and repayment of co-operative dues, which indicates that these factors influence the repayment, (Reddy and Reddy, 1990).

It may be relevant to refer to a study undertaken by the Tribal Research and Training Institute, in respect of the "Consumption Finance" in the State of Maharashtra, about 80 per cent members of Adivasi Co-operative Societies had been covered under the scheme. It was observed that an average assistance of Rs.112 was inadequate and it may not be possible to replace the old exploitative system through such a meagre assistance; and the recovery of loans was not at all satisfactory (GOI, 1980). In other words, the

tribals continue to be under the bondage despite the assistance provided and further loaded with repayment for the scheme. Accessibility of the weaker sections to the institution of finance itself is limited. It was concluded that proper management of the cases of misutilisation, repayment problems, monitoring and providing further infrastructural facilities to the rural area, will help the poor to become economically viable. Thus, the provision of credit alone may not solve their problems relating poverty, (Mohansundaram, 1985).

Apart from the financial institutions, even the voluntary organisations also provided assistance to the rural poor. In one such study, Bhatt (1989) examined the poverty alleviation programme in Vansada Taluka of South Gujarat district undertaken by Bhartiya Agro-Industries Foundation (BAIF). The author calls it as a "Rehabilitation Approach" to poverty alleviation as it attempts to settle the poor tribals of 15 villages in Vansada taluka. He observed that poverty alleviation in a country depends primarily on the politics and economics of the nation rather than the approaches through micro-level projects and programmes.

2.6 : CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter, we reviewed the process of positive change in the standard of living of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The factors included socio-economic conditions, poverty estimates, their measurements and

determinants, educational development and the impact of developmental programmes. The historical evidence showed that the caste is not a principle of social division but a comprehensive tool for perpetuating the social discrimination towards establishing the stronghold on economic resources. The use of caste as a basis for the socio-economic and political life is quite irrational. Sociologist as well as anthropologist did not assign due weightage to the economic aspects in the analysis of the impact of caste system on development. Ambedkar's (1948) approach was different regarding the question of castes as well as untouchability. He described the caste system as generated out of the struggle of supremacy between Brahminism and Buddhism (Ambedkar, 1948, p.155). The struggle was basically to control the resources and it became a dominating factor for discrimination. Untouchability and other irrational norms were used as the tools to perpetuate the control. In the hurry of development process in India, we had accepted the "development" first and "Social equality" as a secondary level objective for a long term planning. A large number of studies stressed on deprivation, unequal access to resources and atrocities. In spite of the Constitutional safeguards, the discrimination still continues and being practiced.

The studies on poverty covered theoretical as well as empirical aspects. Among the theoretical studies the first group explained the origin of poverty, whereas, the second group attempted to define and measure poverty. The "entitlement" or "asset control theory" are two important emerging approaches which included the deprived class as a group bypassed by the process of development. The second group of studies considered the social indicators as the important explanatory factors. The empirical studies, firstly, focused on normative nutrition requirements. This occupied the large body of the literature. Another group of studies dealt with the trend of poverty and its determinants. But hardly any of the studies touched the aspect of social and economic deprivation. In fact, the population below the poverty line does not necessarily indicate much about the condition of those at the bottom. In other words, the compositions of the people below poverty line has two distinct groups, one with a normal access to productive resources and the other with restricted access. This puts the other group at highly disadvantageous position and therefore, the problem of this group of poor can not be clubbed together with all the poor.

Education was regarded as the most important factor to deal with the problems of socially deprived. The studies relating to education dealt mostly with the progress and quality of education, dropouts, impact of education and

policy of education for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The boys and girls of depressed class fall considerably behind the students of the other castes in the access to the facilities. The modern system does not prepare the new generation to face the economic realities of life. The major reasons for such trend is that the pattern of education has not undergone change. The main factors responsible for the dropouts are : i) psychological, ii) socio-economic and educational. The majority of the dropouts belonged to poor and deprived class. Most of the instructors/teachers belonged to the upper castes, which was recorded as the major reason for dropouts. This was mainly noted in the tribal regions. Further, these schools are facing the problem of the inadequacy of infrastructure.

Another issue that cropped up due to the inadequacy of infrastructure was that the task of the upliftment of backward communities should not be left entirely to the Government policies and programmes and thus blamed the inadequacy of infrastructure. Private institutions must share this task. The scholarships are inadequate and have large delays in their payments. There is a need to structure the entire process and policy of education to this class of poor. Even with the above stated problems, the students from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes scoring better than those from the forward castes. The overall impact of education on employment and income is positive.

After the independence Government of India took various programmes for the upliftment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The studies relating to the programmes taken up for ameliorating the conditions of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes can be grouped into four broad categories, i) Poverty eradication and asset generating programmes, ii) Employment generating programmes iii) Specific programmes of assistance, and iv) Assistance from financial institutions.

It was observed that the non-land asset group benefited only a small proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Further, the incremental income was not sufficient even to pay the installments. The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), was noted to be ineffective largely because the scale of the programme was small and macro economic policies were often inconsistent with the objectives of the programmes. Most of the cases, developmental schemes have failed to raise the income of the beneficiaries above the poverty line. The Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS) of Maharashtra state has benefited only 5 percent of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population of the state. The indebtedness was noted as increasing among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The assistance provided to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was also noted as inadequate and it seemed difficult to replace the old exploitative system under these

constraints. The micro-level projects and programmes were more successful than the macro-level programmes. The programme review indicated lapses not only in implementation but at times the design of the programmes also had problems. This has resulted in the programme working even against the basic philosophy envisaged in their design.

The major issues emerging out of the review can be grouped into three groups. Firstly, the composition of poor is not homogeneous and it differs across region and classes. The differentials can be explained in terms of certain socio-economic characteristics. Secondly, the programmes as well as the responses to the incentives created through the programmes differ widely. Thirdly, the whole structure of the caste system and the policy orientation must be reviewed to judge the direction as well as the influence of the plan programmes.

APPENDIX A2.1
A REVIEW OF STUDIES - CASTE APPROACH AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

SR.NO.	Author/year	Objectives	Methodology	Covered study/region	Activity/programme	Observation/Findings	Remarks
1	Kane PV 1941	An attempt made to trace the origin of SC & STs from vedic times.	Reviewed the evidence of ancient sanskrit & medieval and castes in modern times and theories of castes from Indian & Western literature.	India as a whole	Origin & Theories of Castes.	Point out Characteristics - heredity, indogamy & exogamy, restriction on tubing food, occupation gradation of castes.	
2.	Panikar K N, 1933	Whether caste and democracy are incompatible forces utterly opposed to and completely destructive	Reviewed the literature	India as a whole	Caste & democracy	Caste is not merely a principal of social division but a comprehensive system of life & changing social order.	
3.	Faranaipje AC, 1970	Attempt to give the relationship between Brahman, maratha & Harijan	Primary of college students - 503 (Brahman 168, Maratha 168 & Harijan 167)	The restricted to the college student of the Pune city.	Relationship between Brahmin, Maratha & Harijans SC & STs	Caste required careful handling, because values and feelings, associated with it.	
4.	Shetty P & Subramanian 1972	To find out the socio-economic relationship between Harijan & Hindus.	Field survey.	Village Pithalaipatti Dist-Madurai of Tamilnadu State.	Socio-economic relation between Harijans & Hindus	Harijan were not allowed to participate in village sports, Puja & living rooms.	

Author/year	Objectives	Methodology	Covered study/region	Activity/program	Observation/Findings	Remarks
Sharma G B 1975	An attempt to analyse the causes of the failure of untouchability. Offense Act-1955	Review the literature	India & particularly Rajasthan state	Untouchability offence Act 1955	Not at all possible to eradicate untouchability.	
Rashtra Seva Dal & Jati Nirman Sanstha 1970 (Marathi) Gare GN & Limaye, 1973	To obtain factual Picture of the Socio-economic condition of Scheduled Castes.	Field survey, and observation method 4475 schedules	Maharashtra 8 Talukas from 8 district, 230 villages covered by survey, Shirol (Kolhapur) & Mahad (Kulaba) Talukas.	Livelihood pattern education, housing Untouchability etc.	Scheduled Castes are still depressed section. The Five Year Plan not improved their economic condition.	
Harijan Sevak Sangha 1983 (Patil 1990)	To find out the extent to which untouchability is observed in India	Village level survey conducted villages = 1239	India 12 states AP, Guj, Krt, Kerala, Mah, MP, Orri, Hry, Raj, TN UP, HP & Madurai district.	Well, Temple & Hotel entry.	Well prohibited village = 755 Temple entry prohibited villages = 908, Hotel entry prohibited villages = 729	The commissior for the SC/ST has accepted l report & place before the legislative of Rajasthan in March 1983.
Shasnal KC, 1972	To study Bari(SC) People, their present social structure	Village level survey villages-8	8 villages of Hilly district of Karnataka state	Social setting of Bari(SC) people, Manners, customs etc.	Baris were adjusted to themselves in the local cultural fold.	

SR.NO.	Author/year	Objectives	Methodology	Covered study/region	Activity/program	Observation/Findings	Remarks
9.	Silva GVS & all, 1978	To study the role and significance of Bhoomi Sena (Land Army) a movement of Tribals.	Village visits, participation, and interviews, study period was August 1977 to August 1978	Jungleputti, Thane district of Maharashtra State	Adivasis constitute 65% of the population but they have less than 20% land	Bhoomi Sena has done very little with regard to the land, and productive activities.	
10.	Kanchan Ilaiah, 1990	To study the 29th RCrSCST, (1990)	Review of the report	India	Socio-economic condition of SC & STs	Commissioner ^{ed} has rightly pointed out the problem of SC & STs	
11.	Bhatt Anil 1975	Examines the relationship among socio-economic, social stratification & Political Postions and Classical caste model.	Field Work 1966-67	India AP, Guj. UP, WB Total interview 2637	Caste, Class and Political and social stratification	The study shows that an individuals socio economic and political life today is not entailed by his caste position in any significant measure	
12.	Subha T. 1986	An attempt to show relations - Nepalese society.	field survey in Darjeeling	Nepalese society of Sikkim	caste, class & agrarian relations	There significant variations in the region as regards the caste, class and agrarian relations.	
13.	Sachidanand 1977	An attempt to study the status of educated elite	The study based on 200 Interview of Scheduled Caste social worker in Bihar	Bihar	B R Ambedkar's solution of conversion discrimination	The conflict is not between castes but between classes as an modern advance societies.	
14.	Sharma KL 1974	Analysed the structure and process of stratification system.	field study of 6 villages in Rajasthan the study period 1965-66 workers = 1900	Rajasthan villages = 6	structure and process of stratification occupations.	Untouchables castes engaged in their traditional	

SR.NO.	Author/year	Objectives	Methodology	Covered study/region	Activity/program	Observation/Findings	Remarks
15.	Anand Santak 1972	Analysed the changing concept of caste	Primary data field survey in Urban and Rural area around the city of Agra study period - June 1968	Agra city,urban and rural area of around the Agra City.	Changing concept of castes.	Constitutional measures influenced the caste attitude and breaking down the traditional functional & Occupational system.	
16.	Nadkarni AS, 1988	To assess the impact of agricultural development programmes of the Govt. of Maharashtra of SC & STs	Field survey, villages = 220, households = 54833 survey period = May 1981 - May 1982, 7 Universities students power used for survey.	Maharashtra (except Bombay) District = 25 villages 220	Development, socio-economic agricultural development programmes	SC & STs disadvantage with compare to the non SC & STs particularly schemes, education drinking water, land and assets.	

Note : RCrSCT = Report of the Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, 1990.

APPENDIX A2.2

STATUS OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES IN THE MAJOR STATES OF INDIA

SR. NO.	STATES	TOTAL VILLAGE SURVEYED	VILLAGE WELLS PROHIBITED	TEMPLE ENTRY PROHIBITED	HOTEL ENTRY PROHIBITED
1.	ANDHARA PRADESH	60	17	16	14
2.	GUJARAT	141	89	130	126
3.	KARNATAKA	100	100	100	100
4.	KERALA	68	68	68	68
5.	MAHARASHTRA	61	29	26	4
6.	MADHYA PRADESH	199	92	95	95
7.	ORRISA	50	50	50	50
8.	HARYANA	44	7	23	-
9.	RAJASTHAN	75	61	63	-
10.	TAMIL NADU	148	115	136	36
11.	MADURAI DISTRICT	72	72	72	72
12.	UTTAR PRADESH	170	55	78	113
13.	HIMACHAL PRADESH	51	-	51	51
TOTAL		1239	755 (60.94)	908 (73.28)	729 (58.84)

SOURCE - PATIL (1990) P. 2738
 NOTE - FIGURES IN THE BRACKETS SHOW THE PERCENTAGE TO TOTAL VILLAGES SURVEYED.

A REVIEW OF THE STUDIES, EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

:SR.:	Author/Year	Objectives	Methodology	Covered study	Activity /	Observation/
:NO.:	:	:	:Source of data	:Region	:Programmes	:Findings
: 1	:Gadgil D. R. :[1952]	:1] To findout :the school :osition of :depressed dass :boys and girls :with compare to :other Hindu :Category pupils	:Elementary school :record of Municipi- :pal Primary School := Maharashtra.	:- Pune Municipal : Primary School := Maharashtra	:Progress in :education among :depressed classes	:1] No girl pupil of :the depressed classes :was shown in the :municipal primary :school date till :- 1921 : :2] The growth in the :number of pupils of :the depressed classes :from 1896 to 1921 :was less than :10 per cent. : :3] There was rapid :growth of :pupils during 1921-1925 :and a real leap forward :during 1925-1931.
: 2	:Singh Raj and Sharma M.L. :[1979]	:an attempts for :a awarness and :observances of :the Act of rural :Leaders :regarding the :School.	:Rural area :Haryana :Field survey	:Rural area of :Haryana state :Villages = 22 :Interview NO. 270	- Caste - Education - landholding - communication facilities.	:1] Upper Strata of the :society send their :wards to school more :frequently and observed :the Act more than rest : :2] Up to date school :for each village commu- :nity. : :3] Non-involvement of :our people.

:SR. NO.:	Author/Year	Objectives	Methodology/ Source of data	Covered study Region	Activity / Programmes	Observation/ Findings
5	Hourya R.O. [1985] :[Source, Sharma K.R. : 1983, PP - 33 - 38]c	:Attempt : :1] Reasons of : backwardness : of tribale : students	:Interviews, filed :work and :supervision	:Madhya Pradesh :Tribles	:Educational :Backwardness	:Reasons : :1] Financial 2] Academic :3] Family 4] Social :5] Insufficient : Scholarship.
6	Ramonaama a and :Bambwale Usha :[1979]d	:Assess : :School dropouts :Among SC/STs.			:School dropouts :Among SC/STs.	:Reasons : :1] Psychological :2] Socio-economic, and :3] Educational.
7	Subrahmanyam S. :[1986]e	:Attempt : :School dropouts :Among SC/STs.	:Dropouts = 300	:Andhra Pradesh :District : 3 :Areas = 30	:School dropouts :Among SC/STs.	:Problems : :1] Adjustment :2] Economic :3] Social :4] Early Marriage, etc.
8	Bopeganage A & :Ratna N. :[1978]	:Evolution : :Educational :Progress of :tribals and :dropouts	:Data of state & :Central Govt. :Report of SC/STs :Commissioner	:Maharashtra	:Educational dropouts: :Facility to tribals :1] 80 % First stage :2] 3/4 at class 3rd :3] 2.5 to 3 % : continues their : education.	

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:SR.:	Author/Year	Objectives	Methodology/	Covered study	Activity /	Observation/
:NO.:	:	:	Source of data	Region	Programmes	Findings
: 9	:Chitnis Suma	:Study :	:College = 250	:States = 15	:Problems of	:The task of the
:	: [1981]	:Educational	:from selected	:Students = 250	:SC/ST students	:Educational Development :
:	: [ICSSR, study Report-	:Problems of	:state	:	:	:of SC/STs should not
:	: 1977]	:college	:	:	:	:be left to Govt.
:	:	:students	:	:	:	:
:	:	:- a Committee	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:10	:The Commissioner for	:Study :	:field work and	:States = 2	:Impact of Education	:Gap between boys & girls:
:	: SC/STs [1983]	:Impact of education	:interviews	:Bihar District = 2	:on SC/ST youths	:More married students :
:	:	:on SC/ST youths	:	:Patna & Gaya	:	:50 % landless family :
:	:	:	:	:Madhya Pradesh	:	:
:	:	:	:	:District = 2	:	:
:	:	:	:	:Bhopal & Morena	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:11	:The Commissioner for	:Study :	:Visit & supervision	:Trible areas	:Study :	:Need of improvement
:	: SC/STs [1983]	:Development of	:	:	:Development of	:in educational
:	:	:trible areas	:	:	:trible areas	:standard
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:12	:Yilak B.G. J.	:Examine :	:Primary data	:State - Andhra	:Education inequality	:Educational level rduces:
:	: [1987]	:Economics facts	:- 1977	:Pradesh - Godavari	:and Discrimination	:inequality and
:	:	:of inequality	:	:District,	:	:discrimination
:	:	:	:	:Rural = 206	:	:
:	:	:	:	:Urban = 209	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:

:SR.:	Author/Year	Objectives	Methodology/ Source of data	Covered study Region	Activity / Programmes	Observation/ Findings
:13	:Borkar & :Kuruikar [1982]	:Assesment : :employment experience: :of SC/ST/DNTs :students	:Marathwada University: :Aurangabad [1977, :1978 and 1979 :year]	:Sample size - 1054 :High caste = 560 :Low caste = 494	:1] Time lag :2] Low paid jobs : to low caste	:1] Close relation low : caste and time lag :2] Unemployment : low caste = 73 % : high caste = 59 %
:14	:Naitiyal K.C. : [1987]	:Examines : :Relation between :education and :earning. [1976-77 :to 1980-81]	:Secondary data : : :	:Uttar Pradesh :Distric = 19 : :	:Examines : :Relation between :education and :earning.	:Forward classes :enjoying better :economic status : : :
:15	:Nimbalkar M.R. : [1986]	:Evaluation : :NAEP : : :	:Interviews [1978-82] : : :	:District = Goa : : :	:NAEP : : :	:Adult belongs to :upper caste 913 :out of 1000 : : :
:16	:Tupe S.D. : [1986]	:Role : :Educational :Institution in :poverty eradication	:Review and :observation : :	:Satara - :Rayat Shikshan :Sanskis. :Maharashtra.	:1] N.S.S. :2] Vocational : education :3] Earn and learn : scheme helps : to eradicate : poverty.	: "Earn and learn" : scheme helps : to eradicate : poverty. : : :

Remarks and Suggestions :

- a : 1] To attract Students increase the amount and number of scholarships.
2] Adult Education Programme for illiterate Scheduled Caste families.
- b : Help of UNISEF, 1984, 1] Supply of Infrastructure should be adequate
- c : Provide, 1] Books, 2] Cash Scholarship, 3] Hostel, 4] Cultural Activities, 5] School timing.
- d : 1] Incentives to students and parents 2] Special programmes
- e : 1] Personal care, 2] Adequate incentives, 3] Reservation, 4] Sympathy, 5] Hostels, etc.

APPENDIX A2.4

REVIEW OF THE STUDIES OF INTERGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME [IRDP] EVALUATION STUDIES

SR. NO.:	Author/Year	Objectives	Methodology/ Source of data	Covered study Region	Observation/ Findings	Remarks
1	Institute of Financial Management and Research- IFMR [1984]	Evaluation of IRDP	Field Survey	1] State : 2 2] Districts : 5 3] Blocks- 17 4] Sample Size-1859 5] % of sample to the total beneficiary families : 0.011	1] Crossed the poverty line - NR 2] % OF Sample households which received Incremental Income - 84.2 [happn with IRDP]	1] Methodologically Superior 2] After 15 months of the Inception of IRDP
2	Reserve Bank of India - RBI [1984]	Evaluation of IRDP	Field Survey	1] State : 16 2] Districts : 16 3] Blocks- 16 4] Sample Size-730 5] % of sample to the total beneficiary families : =0.004	1] Crossed the poverty line - 17 2] % OF Sample households which received Incremental Income - 51	Income of the beneficiaries at current prices were discounted by 27 per cent in order to arrive at their real income at march 1981 prices.
3	National Bank of Rural Development :- NABARD [1984]	Evaluation of IRDP	Field Survey	1] State : 15 2] Districts : 30 3] Blocks- 60 4] Sample Size-1498 5] % of sample to the total beneficiary families : =0.009	1] Crossed the poverty line - 47 2] % OF Sample households which received Incremental Income = 82	15 % families identified were ineligible

:SR.:	Author/Year	Objectives	Methodology	Covered study	Observation/	Remarks
:NO.:			Source of data	Region	Findings	
4	Programme Evaluation on organisation [PEO] [1985]	Evaluation of IRDP	Field Survey	1] State : 16 2] Districts : 33 3] Blocks- 66 4] Sample Size-1170 5] % of sample to the total benefi- ciary families =0.007	1] Percentage of Sample households which Crossed the poverty line - 49.4 2] % OF Sample households: which received Incren- ental Income = 88	16 per cent of the assisted beneficiaries: higher than Rs.3500
5	Gokhale Institute of Politics & Economics - GIPE - [Gudam 5] [1986]	Evaluation of IRDP	Field Survey	Maharashtra State Sangali District Talukas- Jath and Walva Villages = 15 Sample Size=350	1] Percentage of Sample households which Crossed the poverty line - 14.55	The over all ICOR for all sectors was = 4.9

NR= Not Reported.

CHAPTER III

THE CASTE SYSTEM IN THE INDIAN SOCIETY

1 INTRODUCTION :

In order to analyse the effectiveness of the programmes for development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, it is necessary to understand the background of the social system in which they exist. The society in India is based on a unique form of social order namely 'Caste System'. The society is divided horizontally and vertically into a large number of castes. Thus, it becomes a prerequisite to understand the genesis of this penetrating system before getting into the analysis of the developmental programmes for the deprived castes.

In the present chapter, we shall try to analyse the structure of the Indian society and deprivation cycle of Backward Classes particularly of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as reflected through the literature. The subject has always been a point of discussion for sociologists, though a cohesive social science approach does not seem to be available in the research work on the problem. The basic focus of our analysis does not remain confined simply to the understanding of the genesis and perpetuation of the caste system but also tries to highlight the link between the social and economic deprivation.

We have analysed the problem through the main features of Hindu society which include - 1] Caste System, Caste Criteria and Models, 2] Varna System, 3] Untouchability, 4] Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India, 5] Discrimination based on the Castes and 6] Caste discrimination and inequality, 7] Poverty and inequality.

3.2 THE CASTE SYSTEM

3.2.1 THE ORIGIN OF THE CASTE SYSTEM

The word "caste is not of Indian origin". It is derived from the Portuguese word "CASTA", which means 'breed', 'race' or 'class'. The word in common use amongst the Hindus is 'Jat' or 'Jati', which means 'birth' or descent (James & others, Encyclopedia, 1958, P.234). Caste system is a moral system that differentiates and ranks the whole population of a society in corporate units (castes) generally defined by descent, marriage and occupation. Elaborately differentiated and ranked caste systems have developed especially in the regional societies of India and related population in the territories of modern Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal and Sri Lanka over the past 2000 years, (The New Encyclopedia Britannica, 1975, P.982).

The earliest evidence for caste and untouchability dates back to more than 2000 years. Varna is first mentioned in a late Vedic text and by the time of Manusmriti (200 B.C. to AD 200) Varna and 'Jati' (or caste) coexisted as similarly ranked social orders. A vast number of extant

castes of this period are explained and ranked by Manu according to a theory of mixture between the varna categories (Hoffatt, 1979,P.33). This follows not only from the Dharmasastras but also from the ancient Buddhist works and from the meagre existing fragments of the work of Magasthenes on India. Though Magasthenes was confused in his statements about the caste systems prevalent in his days, some propositions are clearly deducible therefrom. He states that the whole population of India was divided into seven castes: [1] Philosophers, [2] Husbandmen, [3] Neutherds and shepherds. [4] Artisans [5] Military [6] Overseers, and [7] Councilors and Assessors. Out of these, 1 and 5 correspond to Brahmins and Kshatriyas respectively, 2-3 to Vaishas, 4 to Shudras, But he equates 6 and 7 Adhyakas and Amatyas (as in Kautilya's Arthasastra) which are not really castes but occupations . He probably regards them as castes because the offices of the Adhyakas and Amatyas were generally hereditary. Magasthenes further stated that the prevailing tendency was that caste had become exclusive and mostly occupational in his days, though there must have been exceptions of which he was unaware (Kane, 1941, p 50).

3.2.2 CASTE CRITERIA

According to Hutton (1946) caste conforms the following criteria : [i] a caste is endogamous [ii] There are restrictions and commonality between members of different

castes. [iii] There is hierarchical grading of castes, the best recognised position being that of the Brahmin at the top. [iv] In various kinds of context, a member of a 'high' caste is liable to be 'polluted' by a member of a 'low' caste. [v] Castes are very commonly associated with traditional occupations. [vi] A man's caste is finally determined by the circumstances of his birth, unless he comes to be expelled from his caste for some ritual offense. and [vii] The system as a whole is always focused around the prestige accorded to the Brahmins (Hutton, 1946, P. 49).

When once the Brahmins were differentiated as a class they soon came to develop a group consciousness which operated against the others. According to Panikar (1933) the origin of caste in Southern India is slightly different. Before the Aryas ventured South of Vindhya, the caste system had taken its final shape. The Aryan invasion of Southern India was a peaceful penetration. As the Dravidian communities of Southern India were gradually subjected to the onslaught of different cultural topologies, a slow transformation took place in their composition. The evidence afforded by the Rigveda conclusively proves that when Aryas first entered India and settled down in the region of Punjab, they had not developed system of caste. The pre-Aryans inhabitants of India at that time, lived far from each other without the cohesion and unity to protect

themselves from the invading Aryas. The conflict between the two races resulted in the conquest of the aborigines of North India by force of arms and thus came into existence the primary difference of castes. The division in the early days was based entirely on colour (since Aryans were fair coloured as compared to the aboriginals)and rituals. But soon a tendency which was a characteristic of all primitive societies began to assert itself. The vital line of differentiation in the caste system did not lie in the four Varnas as is generally believed, but in the division between the "twice born" Aryans (Dwijas) and the Shudras, who are "born once".

3.3 CASTE MODELS

3.3.1 THE CLASSICAL MODELS OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

In an institutionalised economy, the system of stratification began with caste as its major determinant. Thus, the economic inequalities generalised in the system that can be termed as mutilated "institutionalised inequality " and these are perpetuated with the support of social system.

The classical model of social stratification in India is that of summation of statuses. The status summation model envisages a congruence among various positions. The other positions are dependent upon and entailed by the ascriptive caste position. The model thus emphasizes ascription rather than achievement. Defining the procedure for different roles

and position in the system .Bhatt A (1975) pointed out that there are two major views as highlighted:

- 1] The first is the " Older View".It portrays caste as a system of stratification in which little, if any, mobility ever occurred, in which there were no incongruities between the individual's position in the "caste" dimension and his position in other dimension of the social order", (Bhatt , 1975, p 4.).
- 2] The second is the "Empirical View ". It is based on empirical studies carried out by social anthropologists during the last three decades. These studies have noted that there were poor men in the higher castes and there were some wealthier people in low castes. But they do not show the extent of such differentiation or whether there was a greater socio-economic dispersion within higher status castes or lower status castes, (Bhatt ,1975, p 4). Galanter Marc¹ (1968) proposed four models to describe the judicial conceptualisation of the caste groups. The models point to different ways of visualising the caste group and view of caste. The

1. Galanter Marc (1968) has presented a paper to the conference as social structure and social change in India held at the University of Chicago, June 3-5, 1965. The conference was co-sponsored by the Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research and the Committee on Southern Asian Studies of the University of Chicago.

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four models are [1] Sacral view model [2] Sectarian view model [3] Organic view model, and [4] Associational view model.

3.3.2 SACRAL VIEW MODEL:-

The first model sees the caste group as a component in an overarching sacral order of Hindu society. Hindu society is seen as a differentiated but integrated order in which the different parts may enjoy different rights, duties, privileges and disabilities, these are determined by the position of the caste group in relation to the whole. This is called the sacral view of caste.

3.3.3 SECTARIAN VIEW MODEL :

The Sectarian view, which sees the caste as an isolable religious community distinguished from others by idiosyncratic doctrine, ritual or cultural. It is a self-contained religious unit, disassociated from any larger religious order. The rights and duties of the group and its members follow from its own characteristics, not from its place in a larger order.

3.3.4 ASSOCIATIONAL VIEW MODEL :

The first of this second pair might be called the "associated" view of caste. Here, the caste is seen as an autonomous association with its own internal order and rule-making powers, but characterized neither by a fixed place in some larger religious order nor by distinctive and idiosyncratic religious beliefs or practices. It is a body

with its own principles of affiliation and its own internal order. These may be in some respects like those of a corporation, a club, a dissenting church (in English Law) or some other voluntary association but they render the caste a form of association.

3.3.5 ORGANIC VIEW MODEL:

The fourth view of caste models is called the "Organic View ". The organic view sees the standing of a caste as determined, not by its possession of Hindu ritual values as does the Sacral view, but by its share of mandate accomplishments and resources. It does not take religious

FIGURE 3.1 CHART OF CASTE MODELS

CHARACTERISATION OF THE GROUP IN TERMS OF ITS POSITION IN THE LARGER SOCIETY				
		YES	NO	
Conchisiveness of Religious factors in characterizing the group	YES	SACRAL View	SECTARIAN View	Religious View
	NO	ORGANIC View	ASSOCIATIONAL	Secular Views
		HOLISTIC View	SEGMENTAL Views	

Source : Galanter Marc, (1968), P. 301.

factors as the sole or primary determinant of the nature of the caste group, in this respect it resembles the associational view. But, this organic view, in contradiction to both the associational and sectarian views, does not see the caste as an isolated or idiosyncratic entity. (Galanter Marc, 1968, pp 300-301). These models are schematized in figure 3.1.

3.4 THE VARNA SYSTEM

Theories of caste are distinct from the caste models as these describe the origin of caste as discussed by social scientists. There are five major currents in the theories.

- 1] The traditional view of the origin of caste according to the Code of Manu - that caste is based on the four varnas or colours.
- 2] That is entirely derived from the occupation, which is the theory advanced by Nesfield who regarded the present division of Indian society into castes, as largely occupational.
- 3] Ibbetson's theory of development of caste as a result of a combination of tribal origins, functional guilds and religion.
- 4] The family or genetic explanation by Senart. This theory is more far reaching because the "genes: correspond to gotras, which instead of being synonymous with caste, run counter to it,

5] Risley's explanation of the origin of caste as being from colour and hypergamy. This theory fails to explain the taboo and food and marriage (Shivam, 1955, P. 447).

The first reference to the caste system and to the word 'Shudras' occurs in a late hymn of the Rigveda in its famous Purshasukta " The Brahman springs from the mouth, the Kshatriyas from the arms, the Vaishas from the thighs and the Shudras from the feet of the creator " (Tiwari Chitra, 1963, P.7).

The word 'Varna' means 'colour' or 'light' in most passages of Rigveda. But in some verses of the Rigveda, the word 'Varna' is associated with groups of people having a skin of dark or fair colour. Kane (1941) pointed out that the Aryas and dashyas were living in opposite camps and both were designated 'Varnas' on account of the colour of their skins. (Kane, 1941, P. 25).

This is clear indication that the Shudras who took the place of the dashyas were placed on the same level with the other three classes in the matter of the receipt of light from God and that far from being looked upon as an enemy; he has come to be looked upon as a member of the society (though the lowest in the scale). The Shudras were termed as a moving burial ground and therefore one should not read the Veda in the vicinity of a Shudras. (Kane, 1941, P.34).

3.5 THE UNTOUCHABILITY

The practice of untouchability was not sanctioned in ancient Indian scholars rather importance was attached to the practice of treating all human beings as equals. Great Indian teachers like Shankara, (788-838), Ramanuja (1017-1137), Chaitanya (1485-1534), Guru Nanak (1469-1538), Ramkrishna (1836-1886), Dayanand Saraswati (1824-1883), Swami Vivekanand (1863-1902) and a host of others proclaimed that there was nothing like untouchability in Hinduism. Later the Hindu reformers belonging to the Brahma Samaj, the Arya Samaj, and the Prarthana Samaj and pioneers like Keshab Chandra Sen, (1838-1884), V. R. Shinde (1873-1944) etc., took a lead in their educational reform.

Untouchability is not an institution, it is a corollary of the institution of caste. Many of the untouchable castes were, in some parts of India, considered to be hereditary slaves, others were confined to "Unclean " occupations. To all, education was totally denied. The restrictions, not only included untouchability, unapproachability, in many cases denial for use of public wells, or roads and of the right to worship in Hindu temples also. These were all based on the idea that the untouchables by their mere presence contaminate and pollute caste Hindus. Even the Gods who could bear the presence of animals would be polluted by the

approach of the non-caste men. Untouchability thus was used as an instrument for economic differentiation in the society. The differentiation in the caste-penetrated social structure and the economic base perpetuating as well as strengthening the irrational discrimination leading to the erosion of economic base, thereby causing inequality and poverty. Though the concept of untouchability has a relevance only under social order, its influence on the economic fiber^{is} extensive.

3.6 : SCHEDULED CASTES IN INDIA :

The caste system has a penetrating influence on Indian social structure. There are 2000 sub-castes in each linguistic area (Ghurye, 1932, P.27). The Shudras were required to stay outside the village settlements. Mahatma Gandhi (1869-1948) named them as Harijans, where 'Hari' meant people of God.

The expression "Scheduled Castes" was first coined by the Simon Commission and embodied in the Government of India Act (1935). While the castes were listed systematically in the 1931 Census of India, the term "Scheduled Castes" (SC) was applied to these castes for the first time in the Government of India Act of 1935. Then the Government of India published

a list of Scheduled Castes² under the Government of India (Scheduled Castes) Order 1936 (Kamble, 1979, P.36-37). After the independence, with the order of the President of India in pursuance of provisions of Article 341 and 342, inter alia specified various castes and tribes as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in relation to respective states and Union Territories. These orders were extended and modified as and when new states and union Territories came into existence either by reorganisation or transfer of Territories. In the light of Backward Classes Commission Report (GOI 1955, Kalelkar Commission 1955) and other works, the Government of India declared a list of castes to be included under Scheduled castes and Scheduled Tribes.

2. : Article 341 : Scheduled Castes (1) The President [may with respect to any State [or Union territory] and where it is a state, after consultation with the Governor there of,] by public notification, specify the castes, races or tribes or parts of or groups with in castes, races or tribes which shall for the purposes of this Constitution be deemed to be Scheduled Castes in relation to that State [or Union Territory, as the case may be].

(2) : Parliament may by law include in or exclude from the list of Scheduled Castes specified in a notification issued under clause (1) any State, race or tribe, but save as aforesaid a notification issued under the said clause shall not be varied by any subsequent notification, (Constitution of India, 1990, P. 85).

The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were enumerated from 1951 Census onwards. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are those notified by the President under Articles 341 and 342 of the Constitution.

But in pursuance to the approach, some criteria are developed to identify the main characteristics of Scheduled Castes. An attempt by Shivam (1955) is worth citing here. According to him prior to 1931 census, the Scheduled Castes were classified as 'depressed'. There was a lot of criticism against the use of this word since it meant as 'out caste'. Hence, the word 'exterior' was substituted in 1931. As it was found difficult to decide which castes should be included in the list of 'exterior' the following nine possible points were taken into consideration while tabulating the exterior castes :

1. Whether the castes or class in question can be served by Brahmins or not ?
2. Whether the caste or class in question can be served by barbers, water-carriers, tailors etc. Who serve the caste Hindus?
3. Whether the caste in question pollutes a high caste Hindu by contact or by proximity?
4. Whether the caste or class in question is one from whose hands a caste Hindu can take water ?

5. Whether the caste or class in question is debarred from the use of public conveniences such as roads, ferries, wells or schools?
6. Whether the caste or class in question is debarred from the Hindu temples ?
7. Whether in ordinary social intercourse a well- educated member of the caste or class in question will be treated as an equal by high caste men of the same educational qualifications?
8. Whether the caste or class in question is merely 'depressed' on account of its own ignorance, illiteracy or poverty and but for that would be subject to no social disability ?
9. Whether it is depressed on account of the occupation followed and whether but for that occupation it would be subject to no social disability? (Census of India, 1931, P. 472 and Shivam, 1955, PP.449-451).

Though a large amount of work by sociologists and other social scientists addressed to the problem of identifying the characteristics of the group of castes, the list included in the Constitution of India Article 341 and 342 serves as the best point of reference till to date.

3.7 : SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIAN SOCIETY :

In general the word "Tribe" is taken to denote a primary aggregate of people living in a primitive condition under a headman or chief. The 'tribe' is a technical term denoting a territorially defined political unit. The International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, generalises that the tribal societies are restricted in the spatial and temporal range of their social and political relations and a process, a morality, religion and world view of corresponding dimensions. The tribal languages are unwritten and hence, the extent of communication both in time and space is inevitably narrow. There is a corresponding unity and coherence in tribal villages that are intimately related to social institutions and are endowed with an intensity characteristic of all 'closed' systems of thoughts. The tribal societies are supremely ethnocentric. Economic relations are usually of the subsistence type, although trade and barter often extended outside the community. In these circumstances social change tends to be on limited scale, reproducing rather than drastically alternating the existing order, and innovations are profoundly affected by the established institutions of society, (Sills David 1968, International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, PP. 146 - 151).

The Government of India (1968)³ conceptualised their condition and nature of the tribals in India in the following words. The Scheduled Tribes are living in the hilly regions and the plains also. They lead a separate excluded existence, and are not fully assimilated in the main body of the people. There is no generally accepted definition for the identification of tribal communities. The Constitution does not indicate any criterion for distinguishing a tribe or a tribal community from other communities. The state wise list of Scheduled Tribes prescribed under the Constitution have been evolved from the list of 'Primitive Tribes' prepared during the 1931 Census, the list of 'Backward Tribes' adopted under the Government of India Act 1935. The list of 'Scheduled Tribes, notified in 1950 were revised in 1956 by Acts of Parliaments, to accommodate recommendations made by the

3. : Article 342 : Scheduled Tribes (1) The President [may with respect to any State [or Union territory] and where it is a state, after consultation with the Governor there of,] by public notification, specify the tribes or tribal communities are parts tribes which shall for the purposes of this Constitution be deemed to be Scheduled Tribes in relation to that State [or Union Territory, as the case may be].

(2) : Parliament may by law include in or exclude from the list of Scheduled Tribes specified in a notification issued under clause (1) any tribe or tribal community or part of or group within any tribe or tribal community, but save as aforesaid a notification issued under the said clause shall not be varied by any subsequent notification, (Constitution of India, 1990, P. 95).

Backward Classes Commission (GOI, 1955) and the territorial changes following the reorganisation of the states. The list may not be strictly based, on any scientific and or uniform criteria.

The problems of Tribal people (Adivasis) are rather different from those of the Scheduled Castes(Harijans). They are isolated rather than segregated, ignored rather than mistreated, resource plenty rather than resource deprived and thus on the extreme lower level of economic equilibrium rather than forcibly deprived. They were thus relatively better-off than untouchables, at least in certain aspects, but it is difficult to integrate them into the rest of the economy without destroying their culture, and turning them into castes.

The main cause for the relative backwardness of the Scheduled Tribes is their environment. Before independence, no positive steps had been taken for promoting their social and economic welfare and, administrative system failed to take into account the special needs of tribal communities. Their main sources of livelihood are agriculture and forest produce. Poor and eroded soil, primitive methods of cultivation and vagaries of the weather result in low agricultural returns. Forests have been gradually denuded, in the extraction and marketing of forest produce. Tribals are often exploited by contractors and traders. Basically

the problem of economic development of the tribal areas are in no way different from those of the other economically backward areas and communities.

3.8 : DISCRIMINATION BASED ON THE CASTES :

The process of discrimination started with the hierarchical classification of the society. Finally inflicted a process of overall discrimination generating almost a destitute group within the society deprived of the basic human dignity. The process of discrimination began as social discrimination and got further sanctions of economic discrimination which strengthened the hold of higher classes on the deprived. Therefore, it is necessary to look into the problem of economic discrimination.

3.8.1 : ECONOMIC DISCRIMINATION

Economic discrimination can be said to occur against members of a group whenever, their earnings fall short of the amount warranted by their abilities. Public interest has usually been centered on groups which are either numerical minorities (such as Negroes in the United States, Untouchables in India, Jews in the Soviet Union, Laplanders in Sweden, and Chinese in Indonesia) or are political, social or economic minorities (such as the Blacks in South Africa, immigrants from Africa in Israel, and women in most countries). According to Sills David (1968), until recent years, economic discrimination was generally seen as an evidence of exploitation of minorities by majorities. This

interpretation clearly emerges in the writing of Marxian academicians, although it is found in the other literature. In the past, economists neglected the study of discrimination against the minorities, primarily because they were reluctant to interpret any appreciable economic phenomena in terms of "exploitation", which stems from what was interpreted either as monopsony or monopoly power in the neo-classical literature. The growing interest of economists in the discrimination during the last decade has been stimulated by an approach which is not based on exploitation as a consideration but may involve even a sharper break with traditional economic theory. In this approach, members of a group earn less than their abilities warrant, if other persons are willing to 'pay' (i.e. give up resources) in order to avoid employing, working with, lending to training or educating these members. (Sills, 1968, P. 208).

Myrdall G.(1962) gives a neat scheme of rank order economic discrimination based on Negro problem in North American society. i) First Order : The bar against intermarriage and sexual intercourse involving women of upper class. ii) Second Order : The barriers against dancing, bathing, eating, drinking together, and social intercourse generally, peculiar rules as to hand shaking, head lifting, use of titles, house entrance to be used, social forms when meeting on streets and in work, and so forth

called "social equality". iii) Third Order : The segregation and discrimination in use of public facilities such as schools, churches, and means of conveyance. iv) Fourth Order : Political disfranchisement. v) Fifth Order : The discrimination in law courts by the police and other public servants. and vi) Last Order : The discriminations in securing land, credit, jobs, or other means of earning a living, and discriminations in public relief and other social welfare activities (Myrdall, 1962, PP 60-61).

Economic discrimination which originates out of the social phenomena (Untouchability in case of our analysis) leads to deterioration of quality of life and deprivation. Myrdal's classification and the earlier analysis indicate the logical chain of the arguments. The discrimination thus leads to deepening of the inequalities and exploitation.

3.8.2 : CASTE DISCRIMINATION AND INEQUALITY:

The concept of inequality has been analysed and understood in two different ways by two schools of thought. First, comes the functional explanation of stratification of the society. This type of inequality is universal and concentrates mainly on operational stratification. The conflict theory or the Marxian analysis, in which inequality is based on the question of power and decision making mark the second approach.

According to Beteille, (1969) inequality can be studied by two ways, first a mode of existence and secondly a mode

of consciousness. Societies are different not only in their division into groups and categories and the arrangement of these in a hierarchical system; they differ also in the extent to which these divisions are regarded as right, proper and desirable, (Beteille A 1969, PP. 9-14 & 362-380). Wright (1989) has distinguished social inequalities on two dimensions, first, monadic and relational attributes and second monadic and relational processes. First dimension involves monadic attribute where the influence of other factors is not presented. Monadic process of inequalities are thus inherited in the economic-social efficiency of the society. As opposed to this, the distribution process originating from attributes involves strong interrelationship with different social parameters. Thus the process of inequality is generated in the social system. The discrimination across castes can be said to have originated from a strong relational process deepened by monadic attributes. The models of inequality in the literature combine both the process and hence help in comprehending the caste inequality poverty nexus, (Wright, 1989, pp. 815-819).

More than any other kind of inequality, inequality of material welfare has been the object of study by social scientists (Wright, 1989). There are two distinct conceptualizations which have dominated the analysis of the kind of inequality in market society. These are the achievement and exploitation perspectives.

The achievement model of income determination fundamentally views income acquisition as a process of individuals acquiring income as a return for their own efforts; past and present. In both the sociological and economic versions, these relational mechanisms of income determination produce deviation from pure achievement models which means that certain kinds of people are prevented from getting full income pay-offs from their individual efforts. The inner logic of the process, in short, is monadic with contingent relational disturbances.

Exploitation models of income inequality regard the income distribution process as fundamentally relational. The basic argument is as follows: In order to obtain income, people enter into a variety of social relations. These will vary historically and can be broadly classified as based on different models of production, (Wright, 1989, PP. 815-819).

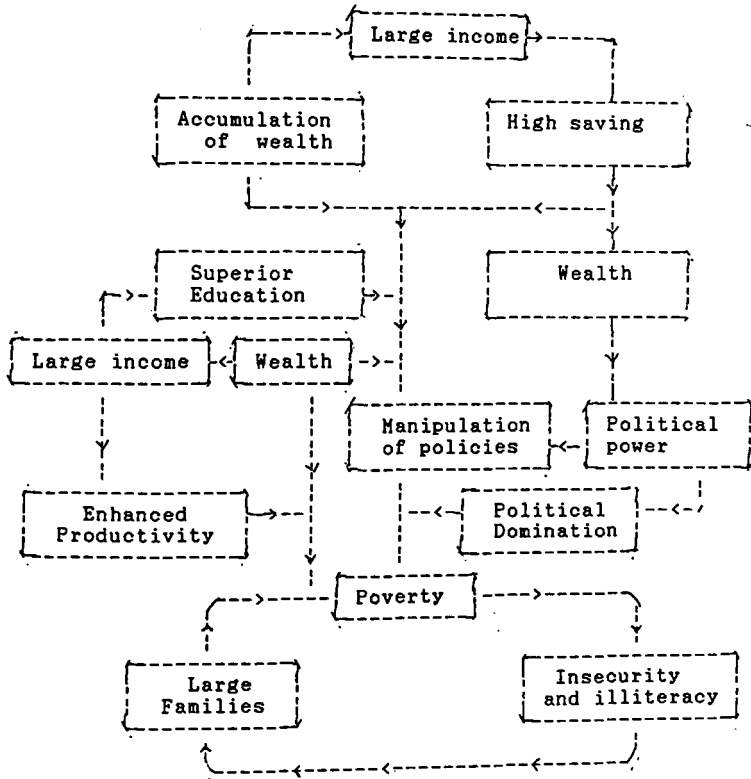
In the exploitation model of income distribution, the central empirical problem is to investigate the relationship between the variability in the form and degree of exploitation and income inequality. The material inequality is one of the central factors underlying the formation of social classes and class conflict. Conflicts between classes in capitalist societies, therefore, basically reflect either cognitive distortions on the part of economic operators or irrational motivations (Wright, 1989 PP. 819-828).

The exploitation model comes quite close to the problem of inequality originating through social deprivation. This is more prevalent in developing countries rather than in the developed market economies. The interests of the upper group would depend mainly on the perpetuation of inequality and this would gain support from the organisation of the social structure leading to increasing the gap between two extremes.

Poverty and inequality though related reflect different facets of discrimination. Inequality assumes importance as it throws light on the class tensions. Whereas, poverty is the culminating point of inequality and calls for policy intervention. In other words, inequality only reflects the distribution but poverty clearly shows the direction of it. Theories relating poverty indicate a self-perpetuating phenomenon and a strong linkage with the social deprivation.

The most obvious factor leading to the self-perpetuation of inequality stems from the interaction of the distribution of wealth and income. The rich can manipulate the socio-economic system to enhance their privileges. They can save more and thus acquire assets. Wealth is often translated into political power in which case, the rich may come to dominate the political system. The interactions between wealth and education further contribute to the vicious circle. Demographic factors also contribute largely to this. The poor have larger demographic pressures than affluents which perpetuates the inequality. The poor are

Figure No. 3.2 : The vicious circles of inequality.



Source : Modified from, Killik Tone, (1981), P. 126.

unable to save and afford good education for their children. This is depicted systematically in the Figure 3.2. The powerful economic and social forces at work both worsening and perpetuating inequalities in Indian societies. Therefrom it became quite obvious that once established, inequalities are self perpetuating.

3.9 : CONCLUSIONS

There are distinct approaches as well as theories governing the origin of the caste system and at the same time present ranked social order on the basis of the historical evidence. One approach argued that the caste system originated probably out of Adhyakas and Amatyas and became hereditary. The characteristics of caste and criteria came to be decided by the circumstances of birth and second theory stresses the conflict between the races of Aryans and Pre-Aryans. Since the division was based on colour, it assumed the name of 'Varna System'.

Among the theories governing the origin as well as perpetuation of caste system five important theories are rev iewed here. First theory of caste is based on Varna system and originated according to the code of Manu. Second theory is entirely based on the division of the occupation. Third theory of caste is a result of origins and religion. Fourth theory explains the genes corresponding to gotras and the last theory of castes states that origin of the caste is colour and hypergamy. As distinct from these, Ambedkar's (1948) view was different regarding the theory of castes and origin of the caste in Indian society. He states that the caste originated out of the struggle of supremacy between Brahminism and Buddhism. The struggle was basically to control the resources and it became a dominating factor for discrimination. Untouchability and other irrational norms were used as tools to perpetuate the control.

In the caste system, inequality is institutionalised and it is perpetuated, which is explained in the Classical Model of Social Stratification. This model portrays two views i.e. (i) Older view and (ii) Empirical view. The first view states that caste is a system in which there is little social mobility and the second view, which is based on empirical studies, states that there were poor in the higher caste and some wealthier in the low caste. The models describing the caste system proposed by Galanter (1968) which visualised the caste group and changes in the legal view of castes. The first Sacral View model determined by the position of the caste group. The Sectorial View model views this as a self contained religious unit. The third Association View model considers the caste as an autonomous association with its own internal order. The last Organic View Model of Caste does not take a religious factor as the primary determinant of the caste group.

There is no clear and a single criteria adopted to identify the castes but the 1931 Census of India enumerated the Castes and Tribes and listed them systematically. For the first time they considered nine possible tests to identify the castes. In pursuance of the provisions of Article 341 and 342, the President of India after the promulgation of the Constitution made two orders in 1950 in relation to the lists of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Then, a Bill called a "Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Order (Amendment) Bill 1976," providing for the

bathing and handshaking, (iii) use of public facilities viz. schools and churches, (iv) political disfranchisement and (v) in law courts (Myrdal, 1962, PP. 60-61). The discrimination creates the problem of inequality in the society.

The analysis of inequality is done utilising two approaches. First, inequality is universal and concentrating mainly on the operational stratification and the second approach is based on the question of power and decision making. Similarly, the social inequality is distinguished on two dimensions. First, monadic and relational attributes, secondly, monadic and relational process. They explained inequality on the basis of two models i.e. "achievement model" and "exploitation model" .

Poverty and inequality get reflected in social and economic discrimination. While inequality throws the light on class tension, poverty eradication can be achieved through the policy intervention programmes. The theories relating to the poverty bring out a strong linkage with the social deprivation. The rich can save more and acquire assets, and thereby dominate political power. At the same time, they can also afford better quality of education. On the other side, the poor are facing larger demographic problem and consequently this situation perpetuates the inequality. This type of inequality has come to be established in the Indian society. Thus the vicious circle continues to exist over generations.

APPENDIX 1.1

THE OBSERVED UNTOUCHABILITY ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS 1931

:SR.:	:Castes	:NINE POINTS								
		:1	:2	:3	:4	:5	:6	:7	:8	:9
:1	:Mochis/	:Only in marriage	:Only tailors serve	:By contact	:No	:Debarred from	:Yes	:Not always.	:Only due	:Same as
:	:	:and death ceremo-	:them by touching	:but reduced	:	:using wells even	:	:The high	:to birth	:the point
:2	:Chambhars/	:nies and at the	:them in large towns	:in cities.	:	:though they are	:	:caste Hin-	:low caste:	:8.
:	:	:Satyanarayan Puja	:and cities. Others	:	:	:notified. Only at	:	:dus still	:	:
:3	:Dhors/	:or so. Except in	:do not serve them	:	:	:some places some	:	:observe	:	:
:	:	:Khandesh, where	:except washermen	:	:	:wells are open.	:	:distinction.	:	:
:	:	:they do not serve	:at some places	:	:	:When schools are	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:privately.	:	:	:in temples, they	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:are not allowed.	:	:	:	:
:4	:Mahars	:Brahmins go, ex-	:Only tailors serve	:pollutes by	:No	:Over and above	:	:	:	:
:	: [Bhats also]	:cept in Khandesh	:them for new	:contact	:	:entry into	:	:	:	:
:	:	:but generally these	:clothes. They take	:	:	:shops refused	:	:	:	:
:	:	:people do not call	:the measurements	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:them	:by touching them	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:only in cities and	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:large towns. In	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:villages, they do	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:not touch even them.	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:5	:Mangs/	:Brahmins go but	:Do.	:	:No	:Do.	:	:	:	:
:6	:Man-garudies/	:stand at a distance	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:7	:Molar	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

:SR.:	:	NINE POINTS								
:NO.:	Castes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8	Koli-Dhor :[Dhor-koli]	Served by Brahmins :at all times; mixing: :with them	All people serve :them	No.	Serve as: :domestic: :servants:	Allowed every- :where.	No.	Just like :backward :classes	Yes	Only due to: :backward- :ness
9	Katkaris :[Dhor Katkaris: :Thana Dist.	Do.	Like Manos.	Only :staunch :Brahmins	No.	Just like mahars.	Yes		Yes	First they :were :carrian :eaters but :now they :have stop- :ped it.
10	Ranoshis			tion by :contact						
11	Timali or :Tirmali	Do.	They are backward :classes only, so all: :serve them	High class :Hindus will :not take it.	Allowed :every :where	Allowed every :where	Not :definite		Yes	...
12	Garudis	Do.	Do.	Only :staunch :Brahmins :will take :pollution by: :contact	High :class :Hindus :will not :take it.	Do.			Yes	Due to :profession

		NINE POINTS								
:SR.:	:Castes:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
:13	:Bhangis	:Brahmins come but	:Just like Mahars.	:Pollution	: No.	:like Mahars.	: Yes	: No.	:Only due	:Due to low
:	:	:stand at a distance	:	:by contact	:	:At some places	:	:	:to birth	:birth and
:	:	:	:	:and even	:	:not allowed in	:	:	:in low	:also due to
:	:	:	:	:proximity	:	:long as even	:	:	:castes	:Bhangi
:	:	:	:	:in Ratnagiri	:	:	:	:	:	:profession
:	:	:	:	:and Kolaba.	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

Source : Modified from Bhatt, V. 1941, PP. 48-51.

Notes :

- 1) Whether the caste or class in question can be served by clean Brahmins or not.
- 2) Whether the caste or class in question can be served by the barbers, water-carriers, tailors etc. who serve the caste Hindus.
- 3) Whether the caste in question pollutes a high caste Hindu by contact or proximity.
- 4) Whether the caste or class in question is one from whose hands a caste Hindu can take water.
- 5) Whether the caste or class in question is debarred from using public conveniences such as roads, ferries, wells or schools.
- 6) Whether the caste or class in question is debarred from the use of Hindu temples.
- 7) Whether in ordinary social intercourse a well educated member of the caste or class in question will be treated as an equal by high caste men of the same educational qualifications.
- 8) Whether the caste or class in question is merely depressed on account of its own ignorance, illiteracy or poverty and but for that would be subject to no social disability.
- 9) Whether it is depressed on account of the occupation followed and whether but for that occupation it would be subject to no social disability. (Census of India 1931 (1933), P. 472).

CHAPTER - IV

ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO ECONOMIC PROGRAMMES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

After Independence, the task of tackling the problem of social inequality alongwith economic deprivation was taken as a major policy initiative. Over centuries, the society was divided on certain irrational social rules. This was to be corrected through the policy and programmes formulated, keeping in view the process of reverse discrimination. Various programmes with different philosophies were tried to ameliorate the sufferings of the deprived. These programmes had considered various aspects for development of the deprived class.

In the present chapter, an attempt is made to analyse the Socio-economic programmes initiated by the Government of India and the State Governments over the last forty-five years. Initially, it is necessary to understand the spread as well as the concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the country as well as across the districts in the State of Maharashtra. The first part of analysis here involves the spread of the target groups and the investment across the regions. Secondly, an attempt is made to review the design and strategy of the ongoing

programmes in the planning period. Thirdly, the densities of the expenditure through the various planning period are calculated. Lastly, a discussion about the philosophy behind the various programmes for the upliftment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes during the planning period is attempted.

4.2 POPULATION OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

The population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India is 10.6 crores and 5.4 crores respectively according to 1981 Census. This constitutes 15.5 per cent and 7.9 per cent respectively of the total population of the country. The population of the Scheduled Caste increased by about 24.3 percent during the 1971-1981 decade. This increase is slightly higher than the total population growth. It can be noted that the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population recorded highest rate of growth during 1971-81 and this rate tapered off in the following decade. In this, 4.1 million Neo Buddhist specified as Scheduled Castes during 1990, should be added to get a comparable figure. The Planning Commission of India (1992) gives projected figures for 1991 of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population in the 8th Five Year Plan (Vol., II, P.417), assuming the same decadal increase as for the general population. The projected population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes would be 134.74 million (13.47 crores) and 67.4 million (6.7 crores)

respectively. The 1991 Census data indicates 13.82 crores (16.48 per cent) and 6.77 crores (8.08 per cent) population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes respectively.

Table 4.2.1 presents the changes in the population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes over the censuses. There are fluctuations in the share as well as growth of the population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in this period. The growth, however, is quite sharp in the case of Scheduled Tribe population than the Scheduled Castes. Similarly, the across census growth rate indicated highest growth among Scheduled Castes population for the decade ending 1981 (table 4.2.2), at the same time the Scheduled

TABLE :4.2.1 :- POPULATION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES AND THEIR PERCENTAGES SINCE 1961-TO 1991 (MILLIONS)

Year Census	Total Population	S.C. Population	S.C. % of total	S.T. Population	S.T. % of total
1961 ^a	439	65	14.6	30	6.8
1971 ^a	548	80	14.5	39	7.1
1981 ^a	685	106*	15.5	54*	7.9
1991 ^b	846	134.74	15.9	67.4	7.97
1991 ^c	839	138.22**	16.5	37.8	8.08

Notes : * Includes projected estimates for Assam
 ** Excluding Assam and Jammu and Kashmir,

Source : a= GOI, (1985), p.329
 b= GOI, (1992), p.417 (Planning Commission's
 Projected Figures).
 c= Census, 1991 (1992), Vol.II, P. 15

Tribes population also increased substantially. It is also observed that except for one decade, the population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes consistently have higher rates of growth than the total population, which indicates increasing density of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population.

TABLE 4.2 POPULATION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES AND THEIR GROWTH RATES IN VARIOUS PERIODS.

Year Census	Total Population	S.C. Population	S.T. Population
1961-71	2.24	2.10	2.66
1971-81	2.26	2.85	3.31
1981-91	2.13	2.43	2.24
1961-81	2.25	2.48	2.98
1961-91	2.10	2.46	2.73
1971-91	2.19	2.64	2.77
1981-91	2.13	2.43	2.24

Source : calculated from Table 4.1.

4.3. CONCENTRATION RATIO OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

The regional spread of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicates another angle of their economy. More than the total growth of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe

population, the regional spread is an important aspect. The proportion of the Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribe population across regions would not give such spread but this has to be standardised with respect to the State share.

Following the definition of location theory, we have defined the Concentration Ratios of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, for the State across the country as follows :

$$\text{Concentration Ratio} = \frac{\text{Population of SC or ST / Total Population of state or District or Taluka}}{\text{Population of SC or ST / Total Population of country or state or district.}}$$

We have computed Concentration Ratios of Scheduled Castes and Schedule Tribes for the States, Districts of the State of Maharashtra for the Census years 1981 and 1992. The value of Concentration Ratio above 1 indicates higher relative Concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the regions as compared to the country average. Those states which show concentration between 0.75 and 1 indicate the border line cases. It can be seen from the Table 4.3.2 that Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh show almost the same level of concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes among the states. Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamilnadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, are the States having highest concentration of Scheduled Castes. Whereas, Bihar, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh,

TABLE 4.3.1 CONCENTRATION RATIO OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND TRIBES FOR THE STATES OF INDIA

Sr. No.	State	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes	
		1981 ^a	1991 ^b	1981 ^a	1991 ^b
1	Andhra Pradesh	0.94	0.97	0.76	0.78
2	Arunachal Pradesh	NA	0.03	NA	7.88
3	Assam*	NA	0.45	NA	1.59
4	Bihar	0.92	0.88	1.07	0.95
5	Goa	NA	0.13	NA	0.03
6	Gujarat	0.42	0.45	1.83	1.85
7	Haryana	1.21	0.48	NST	NA
8	Himachal Pradesh	1.56	1.54	0.59	0.52
9	Jammu and Kashmir*	0.53	NA	NST	NA
10	Karnataka	0.86	0.99	0.63	0.53
11	Kerala	0.64	0.60	0.13	0.14
12	Madhya Pradesh	0.90	0.88	2.96	0.88
13	Maharashtra	0.45	0.67	1.18	1.15
14	Manipur	0.08	0.13	3.51	4.26
15	Meghalaya	0.002	0.03	10.38	10.50
16	Mizoram *	NA	0.01	9.85	11.73
17	Nagaland	NSC	NA	10.82	10.85
18	Orissa	0.93	0.98	2.89	2.75
19	Punjab	1.71	1.72	NST	NA
20	Rajasthan	1.08	1.05	1.57	1.54
21	Sikkim	0.37	0.36	3.00	2.77
22	Tamil Nadu	1.17	1.16	0.14	0.13
23	Tripura	0.96	0.99	3.38	3.83
24	Uttar Pradesh	1.34	1.28	0.002	0.03
25	West Bengal	1.40	1.43	0.72	0.69
	Union Territories				
26	Chandigarh	LA	1.00	NST	7.88
27	D & N Haveli	LA	0.12	NA	9.78
28	Delhi	1.25	1.16	NST	NA
29	Daman & Diu	LA	0.23	NST	1.43
30	Lakshadweep	NSC	NA	12.09	NA
31	Pondichery	1.02	0.99	NA	NA
	India	1	1	1	1
		(15.7%)	(16.48%)	(7.8%)	(8.08%)

Notes : * Projected figures,
 NSC = No SC population
 LA = less than one lakh
 NA = Not available
 NST = No ST population

Source : a. Census of India 1981(1984) Series 1 India paper 2 of 1984 pp 14-17
 b. Census of India 1991(1993) Series 1 India paper 1 of 1992 PP 15-19

Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim and Tripura are the states which have highest concentration of the Scheduled Tribes.

Districtwise concentration ratio of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of Maharashtra State according to the 1981 and 1991 Censuses are presented in Table 4.3.3. The Table indicates that out of 30 districts, two districts i.e. Solapur (1.17) and Osmanabad (1.09) have the highest concentration ratio of the Scheduled Castes. It is further observed that out of the 30 districts of Maharashtra State two districts i.e. Dhule (1.57) and Chandrapur (1.03) showed the concentration ratio of the Scheduled Tribes was higher than 1.

The analysis of the concentration ratio indicated location density of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes across the states and the districts of Maharashtra State. The uneven growth and distribution of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is more a historical phenomena. However, it is not just co-incidence that the two districts with high concentration of the Scheduled Castes also happened to be prominent in the group of underdeveloped districts of the state. Similar thing is true about the districts with pre-dominant concentration of the Scheduled Tribes. It would be interesting to look into the spread of expenditure and alleviation measures of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

TABLE 4.3.2 : DISTRIBUTION OF STATES ACCORDING TO THE CONCENTRATION RATIO OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES.

Sr. No.	Concentration Ratio	States	
		Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes
1	2	3	4
1	Above 1	Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal	Bihar, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tripura
2	0.75-1	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Tripura	Andhra Pradesh
3	Below 0.74	Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya	Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal

Source: Table No 4.3.1.

TABLE 4.3.3 CONCENTRATION RATIO OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES FOR THE DISTRICTS OF MAHARASHTRA STATE

Sr. No.	District	Districts			
		Scheduled Castes 1981 ^a	Scheduled Castes 1991 ^b	Scheduled Tribes 1981 ^a	Scheduled Tribes 1991 ^b
1	Greater Bombay	0.68	0.57	0.11	0.11
2	Thane	0.35	0.47	2.37	1.96
3	Raigad	0.24	0.25	1.39	1.38
4	Ratnagiri	0.30	0.16	0.16	0.10
5	Sindhudurg	ND	0.46	ND	0.05
6	Nasik	0.87	0.77	0.26	2.61
7	Dhulia	0.59	0.48	4.41	4.41
8	Jalgaon	0.83	0.84	0.90	1.06
9	Ahmadnagar	0.59	1.12	0.75	0.77
10	Pune	0.06	1.03	0.41	0.42
11	Satara	0.87	0.86	0.07	0.08
12	Sangli	1.56	1.13	0.09	0.05
13	Solapur	2.00	1.39	0.21	0.16
14	Kolhapur	1.69	1.15	0.12	0.05
15	Aurangabad	0.87	1.26	0.34	0.41
16	Jalna	ND	1.17	ND	0.22
17	Parbhani	0.82	0.99	0.47	0.57
18	Bid	1.61	1.21	0.05	0.12
19	Nanded	1.58	1.67	1.11	1.28
20	Osmanabad	2.15	1.47	0.25	0.19
21	Latur	ND	1.72	ND	0.24
22	Buldhana	0.87	1.04	0.48	0.55
23	Akola	0.77	1.08	0.88	0.76
24	Amravati	0.85	1.58	1.41	1.55
25	Yavatmal	0.69	0.99	2.32	2.32
26	Wardha	0.55	0.81	1.67	1.08
27	Nagpur	0.99	1.70	1.49	1.50
28	Bhandara	1.37	1.52	1.76	1.59
29	Chandrapur	0.92	1.52	2.91	2.13
30	Gadchiroli	ND	1.10	ND	4.18
Maharashtra State		1 (7.13%)	1 (11.09%)	1 (9.19%)	1 (9.27%)

Note : ND. These are the districts created after Census 1981

Source : a. Census of India 1981, (1984), Series -1 India, Paper -2 1984, pp. 48-51 b.
b. Census of India 1991, (1993), Series -1 India, Paper -1 1992, Vol-II, pp. 50-52

4.4 STRATEGIES ADOPTED IN THE PLANNING PERIOD FOR DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

In British India, socially and economically advanced classes got the advantage of education and developmental programmes mainly due to their affinity with the ruling class and the prevailing social structure. Consequently, the depressed classes of the society, particularly the untouchables, could not avail the benefits of the developmental programmes. As a result they were relegated backward in respect of employment opportunities and economic well being. However, it was quite natural, that after the Independence the socio-economic development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes received a great attention. The architects of the Constitution, planners, policy makers, administrators, and political and social reformers, had taken the issue of social discrimination quite seriously. The Constitution of India provided the social order with equality for all the sections of the society, free from any form of discrimination on the grounds of religion, race, caste and sex. Thus, the developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes became an important item on the agenda for development.

The problem of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are different mainly because the Scheduled Castes are discriminated within the society, but the Tribes are

segregated from the society .Possibly because of this fact the planners and policy makers have adopted different policy structures for the socio-economic development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It was realised that untouchability practiced in the society was the major evil of such deprivation. It not only inflicts deep insult on the community but also restricts access to better economic activities. Mahatma Gandhi realised the economic evil of untouchability, quite early and lodged a struggle against it. Apart from the untouchability, the level of illiteracy, economic and social exploitation, absence of representation in the democratic institutions were aspects of policy framework at the time of the Independence. Therefore, it was felt necessary to have four fold approach to deal with the discrimination of the deprived castes.

1. Removal of untouchability by law
2. Removal of illiteracy.
3. The practice of democratic behavior in social and creative life, and
4. Opportunities offered by State and private agencies for self development and expression for the betterment of health, economic life and living conditions.

In the attempts towards ameliorating the conditions of the Scheduled Castes from 1 st to 7 th Five Year Plan, changes were noted in the objectives, aims and strategies to achieve the goals of developed society. Even in various Five

Year Plans, the planners and policy makers have introduced various developmental programmes with the above broad objectives for all the society or specific region or community.

The tribals in India are at widely different stages of social as well as economic development. The first Planning Commission (1952) observed that the Britishers adopted the policy of "Isolation" and tried to keep the tribals away from the mainstream of Indian life. It is only after the Independence that the policy of assimilation was persuaded with the intention of bringing them into the mainstream. The Planning Commission (1952) states that "there has been a positive policy of assisting the tribal people to develop their natural resources and to evolve a productive economic life wherein, they will enjoy the fruits of their labour and will not be exploited by more organised economic forces" (GOI, 1952 Cha. 37, pp.1-11). In the following Five year plans, development of the tribals was an important part of the total developmental efforts. This resulted in some investment for the development of tribals. The programmes were started at highly concentrated tribal region to provide infrastructural facilities for the development of the tribal areas. In the Fifth Five Year Plan, the emphasis shifted from the development of infrastructure to the development of individuals living in the tribal areas. It continued in Seventh Five Year Plan. This involved identification of the

weaker elements of the tribal society and providing these people with essential economic infrastructure.

The initial development policy framework immediately after the Independence does not clearly indicate any specific approach towards the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It seems to be very clear that the policy framework for this group of the society was more a "programme based and legally supported approach" rather than forming a part of the overall development strategy. During the First Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission had accepted the community developmental approach. This approach failed in fulfilling its objectives mainly because the focus of the programme was on the entire community who lived in the rural area, thus making the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as one of the many groups covered. During the Second Five Year Plan, emphasis was given more on the heavy industries and hence the agricultural production stagnated. As a result, during the Third Five Plan emphasis was shifted from community development to growth in agriculture and thus began the "Green Revolution". It was pointed out by the critics that the small and marginal farmers and agricultural labour^{ers} including the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes hardly benefited from the technological change and the benefits were largely availed by the higher class of farmers of irrigated area. Then the emphasis shifted from growth in agriculture to the question of poverty removal.

Subsequently, the Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plans introduced large number of programmes for specific area and specific groups¹. (GOI, 1990, P. 329). It is during this phase that the group of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes became important components of the intended programme beneficiaries.

The area development programmes were intended to reduce the regional imbalances and the target group specific programmes dealt with the removal of poverty. The approach of rural development shifted from area approach to employment focused approach. The main reason for the poor performance of these programmes cited are discontinuity in programmes, ineffective implementation, lack of trained officers, overlapping objectives of the various programmes, lack of proper coordination in implementing agencies, lack of infrastructural facilities, short period target oriented

-
1. a] Specific Area Programmes included Drought Prone Area Programmes (DPAP), Command Area Development Programmes (CADP), Desert Development Programmes (DDP) Hill Area Development Programmes (HADA), Tribal Development Agency Programmes (TDAP), etc.
 - b] Specific Group Programmes for Rural People included Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA), Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Laborers Development Agency (MFAL), Crash Scheme for Rural Development (CSRE), Food target oriented programmes and lack of people participation. As a result of all these limitations, the programmes did not achieve the objectives in the planning period. Food for Work Programmes (FWP), The Twenty Point Programmes (TPP), Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS), Minimum Needs Programmes (MNP), etc.

programmes and lack of people participation (GOI, 1987, P. 48). As a result of all these limitations, the programmes did not achieve in full measure the objectives set forth in the planning period. The group of the Scheduled Castes and Schedules Tribes were also almost incidental inclusions, though some other specific programmes were designed for them during this phase.

During the Sixth Five Year Plan, a single Integrated Rural Development Approach, was accepted to cover the whole country. In this approach, the twin objectives are, raising families in the identified target groups above the poverty line and creating substantial additional employment opportunities in rural area. It meant a total approach to improve the socio-economic condition of the poor with direct intervention by the Government in alleviating the problem of rural poverty. This approach was continued in Sixth and Seventh Five Year Plan and it would be continued in Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-93 to 1997-98)².

The experience of the developmental programmes in the post independence period indicated two major components for the benefits of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Firstly, the overall developmental approach believed in the trickledown of benefits to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes which certainly was a mistake of the

2 : For classification of programmes please see the Appendix No A.4.1.

Rs.457 lakhs, which came upto Rs. 6904.06³ crores in the 8th Five Year Plan. This constitutes 0.87 per cent of the total outlay (Rs. 796000 Crores) of the Eighth Plan. In terms of per cent allocation on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the plan allocation has declined from 6.96 per cent during the First Plan to 3.54 per cent in the Seventh Plan. In the First Five Year Plan, total outlay was 49,535 lakhs, out of this Rs 457 lakhs was planned expenditure for all the categories of Backward Classes, such as the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes. In Second Five Year Plan, the total plan expenditure was Rs 95,304 lakhs, out of this Rs 1,185 lakhs (0.92%) was planned expenditure for the Backward Classes. From the beginning of the Third Five Year Plan the yearwise plan expenditure figures are available. It is observed from the available yearwise expenditure data on the welfare of Backward Classes by the Central Government that it has been increasing in absolute terms over the plan period⁴. In order to make the data comparable we have converted actual

3 : According to base year 1960-61 the All India General and Food Consumer Price Index for Agriculture Laborers has increased up to 724 and 791 respectively in 1988-89.

4 : An Outlay Central Sector Rs. 2548 crores, which included Rs. 1125 crores as Special Central Assistants for Special Component Plan for Scheduled Castes, and for State Plan under Backward Classes Sector Rs. 3086.06 crores and Special Central Assistance to Tribal Sub Plan Rs. 1250, (GOI, 1992, P. 425).

expenditure at current prices to constant prices with 1960-61 as base. The actual expenditure was deflated by Consumer Price Index Numbers for Agricultural Labourers (CPIAL).

TABLE 4.5.1 : ALLOCATION FOR THE WELFARE OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE FIVE YEAR PLANS.

(Proportion to total allocation)

Sr. No.	Plan	Year	% of the total plan outlay
1	First Plan	1951-56	6.96
2	Second Plan	1956-61	6.40
3	Third Plan	1961-66	7.78
4	Annual Plan	1966-69	4.77
5	Fourth Plan	1969-74	5.21
6	Fifth Plan	1974-79	3.27
7	Sixth Plan	1980-85	2.59
8	Plan Revised	1980-85	2.58
9	Seventh Plan	1985-90	3.54
10	Annual Plan*	1991-92	NA
11	Eighth Plan*	1992-97	0.87

Notes : N A = Not available.

Sources : GOI, 1986, P.74.

* : GOI, 1992, P. 425.

WELFARE OF SC AND STs

(REF : TABLE 4.5.1)

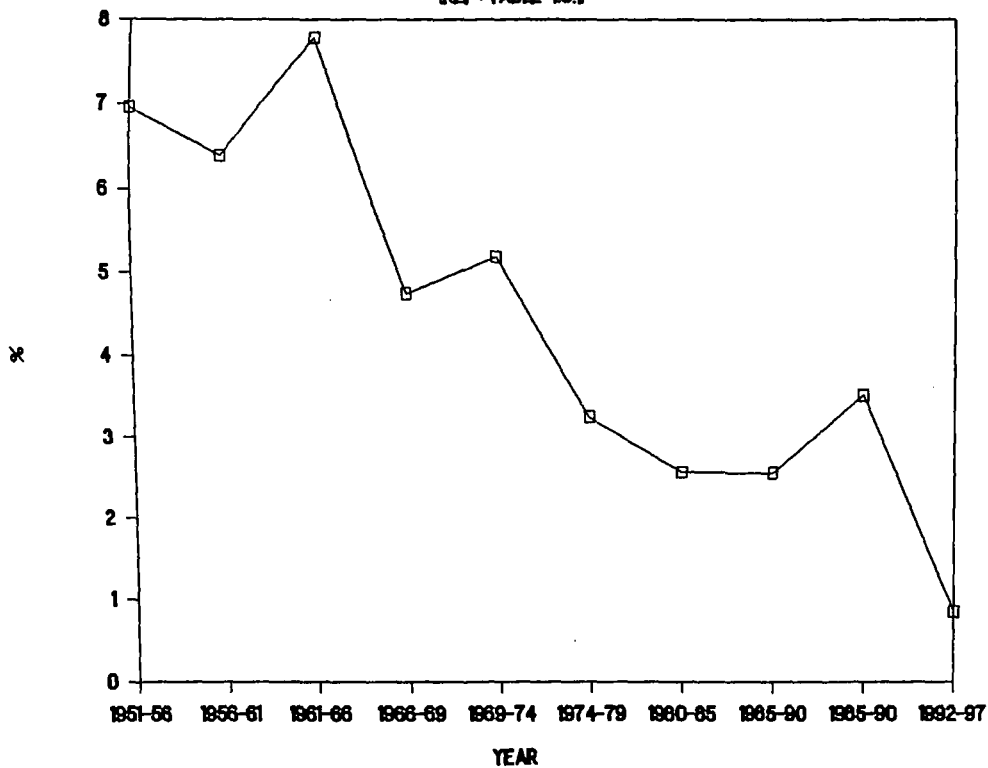


TABLE 4.5.2 : REAL DEVELOPMENTAL EXPENDITURE FOR THE WELFARE OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE PLANNING PERIOD

(At constant prices with 1960-61 as base)

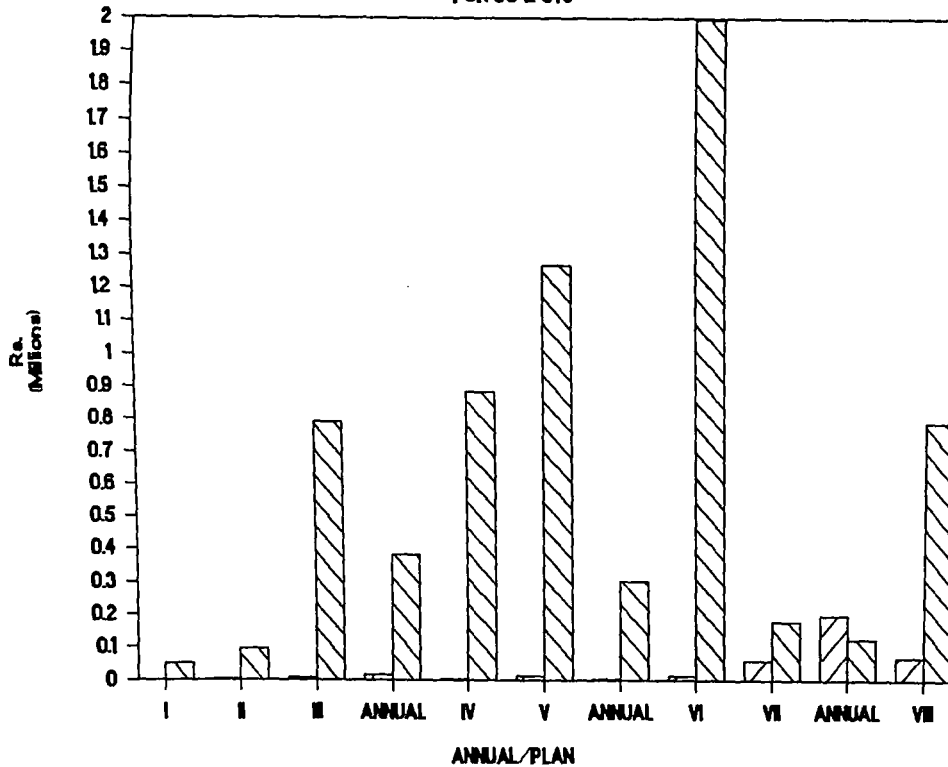
SR. NO.	PLAN	YEAR	EXP. FOR SC/STs (Rs. in lacs)	TOTAL EXP. (Rs. in lacs)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	I	1951-52 1955-56	457	49535
2	II	1955-56 1960-61	1185	95304
3	III	1960-61 1965-66	3888	793207
4	Annual (3yrs)	1965-66 1967-68	1461	385581
5	IV	1968-69 1973-74	2743	891285
6	V	1973-74 1978-79	9937	1275361
7	Annual	1979	2248	306930
8	VI	1979-80 1984-85	11948	1996781
9	Annual	1984-85	11577	2777579
10	VII	1985-90	58699	180000
11	VIII*	1992-97	690406	7980000

- NOTES: 1 From Annual Plans (1965-66 - 1967-68)
 2 Expenditure calculated in Real Terms (1960-61 = 100)
 3 Per Capita expenditure on Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population was not computed for the first three plans as the expenditure data do not clearly refer to this group.
 4 Provision under Article - 275 (1951-52 to 84-85).
 5 Annual Plan (1990 - 92)
 * Current Prices.

Sources - 1 : Chandhok H.L. and the Policy Group, (1990), p.p.474
 2 : GOI, Planning Commission, Annual Plans for various years.

REAL DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE

FOR SC & STs



(SOURCE - TABLE 4.5.2)

TABLE 4.5.3 PER CAPITA EXPENDITURE FOR SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIA AND MAHARASHTRA : 1981-1993

(At constant prices 1980-81 as base)

No	Year	Maharashtra	India
1	1981	16.17	65.32
2	1982	18.14	57.96
3	1983	34.79	57.26
4	1984	22.35	66.30
5	1985	20.36	67.13
6	1986	27.51	69.22
7	1987	23.37	63.70
8	1988*	25.29	60.17
9	1989	50.42	29.97
10	1990	35.92	24.75
11	1991	37.58	25.42
12.	1992	41.83	26.36
13.	1993	55.59	27.90

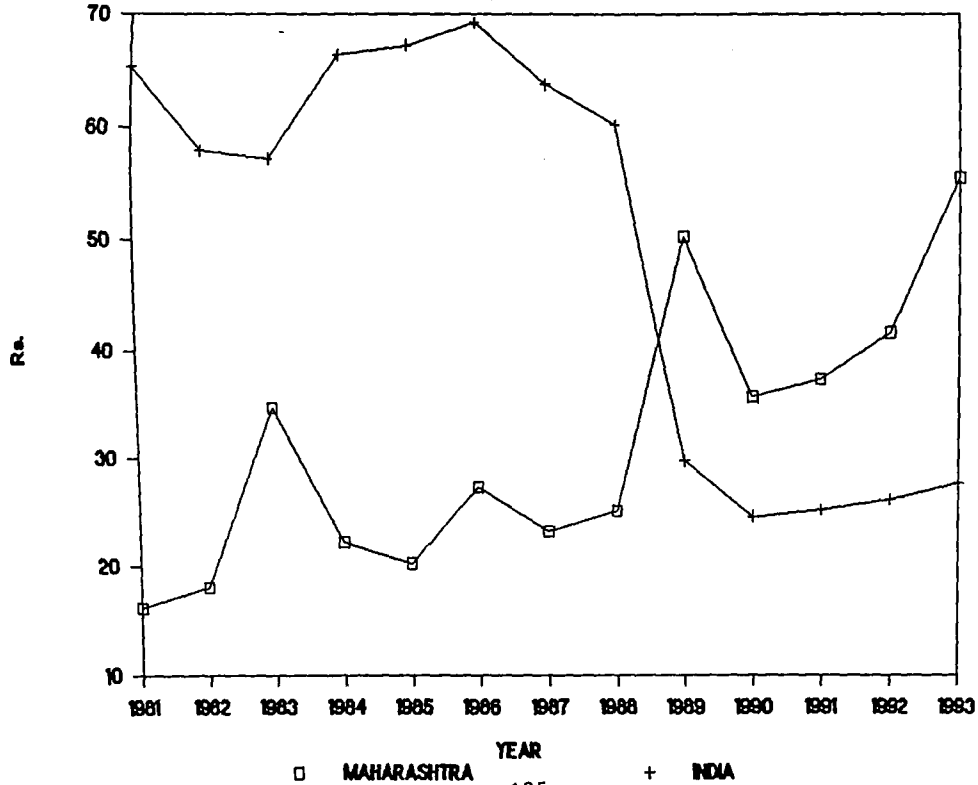
Notes : * Provision under Article - 275, (1981-88).

** Annual Estimates of Population figures are used to calculate the per capita expenditure.

Sources : 1: GOM, Performance Budgets.
 2: GOI, Annual Plans.
 3: GOI, 1994, P.122.
 4: RBI Bulletin, 1994, P.5874.
 5: Chandhok and Policy Group, 1990, P.474.

PER CAPITA EXPENDITURE

REF : TABLE 4.5.3)



The per capita expenditure of the Backward classes for the period 1964 to 1973 indicates that during this period the expenditure on the programmes⁵ for this group has increased, substantially. But the Backward Classes included other groups other than Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Hence, it is not possible to calculate per capita plan expenditure for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. From the beginning year of the 5th Five Year Plan, we can get the plan expenditure figure for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Thus per capita plan expenditure of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes can be computed for this period.

According to the all India Consumer General Price Index Number for Agricultural Labourers (base year 1960-61 =100), during the year 1974 to 1988 the per capita plan expenditure varied from Rs 17 to Rs 14, except the year 1974 and 1982 during which it was RS 8.79 and Rs. 13.92 respectively.

The per capita expenditure at constant prices of Government of Maharashtra on development programmes for the upliftment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes during 1980-81 to 1993-94 is presented in Table 4.5.3.

It can be observed from the Table that the per capita expenditure is highest in 1983, i.e. is Rs 34.79 and lowest in 1981, i.e. Rs. 17.17. The corresponding figures are

5 : Classification of programmes is given in Appendix 4.2.

significantly lower than that of the total per capita Government expenditure (Table 4.5.3). The total expenditure has increased from Rs.1,65,789 thousands in 1981 -82 to Rs 2,97,672 thousands in 1988-89 at constant prices.

The real development expenditure during plan period of the Central Grants to States and Union Territories for welfare of Backward Classes was computed on the basis of All India Consumer General and Food Price Index Number for Agricultural Labourers (base 1980-81 =100). It was noted that the per capita expenditure varies from Rs. 57 to Rs 70 during 1980-81 to 1988-89. It was highest in the year 1986-87 (Rs.69.22) and lowest in 1983-84(Rs.57.26).

Broadly, we can conclude, with the help of above analysis of the expenditure of the successive Five Year Plans, that the investment on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is inadequate for the economic and social upliftment of these communities. The per capita investment picked up more rapidly from the 5th Five Year Plan and up to the year 1988-89. Further it revealed that the per capita plan expenditure is declining at the country level but shows a slight increase in the State of Maharashtra.

The trends in expenditure at constant prices in absolute as well as at per capita term are shown in the graph G4.1 . It can be seen that there was a steady increase in the per capita expenditure from 3rd Plan to 1979 but

after that the per capita expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes remained almost at the same level . The graph G4.2 presents the trend in per capita expenditure on the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes at constant (1980-81 = 100) prices . It can be seen that till 1986, there was some increasing trend in the per capita expenditure on the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. But beyond that the per capita expenditure has almost stagnated. This also holds true in the case of Maharashtra State.

4.6 IMPACT OF THE EXPENDITURE ON THE WELFARE OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES - SOME CORRELATES

The expenditure on the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes across the states presents a cross section of the efforts on the part of different State Governments. In the absence of the data for 1991, we have used 1981 data. A cross sectional comparison of certain development indicators with the expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicates a relationship between the two. For the purpose of the analysis, we have taken three variables namely 1) Outlay of the State sector allocation for Backward classes (1981-82). 2) Percentage of population below the poverty line by the States for rural areas in 1980, and 3) per capita income at current prices for 1980-81. The rank correlations between these variables with the proportion of the Scheduled Castes

and Scheduled Tribes population as well as the expenditure incurred on their welfare are computed. The correlation broadly indicates the relationship between the expenditure incurred on welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes on one hand and the 1) Outlay of the State sector allocation for Backward Classes (1981-82), 2) percentage of population below the poverty line by the states for rural areas in 1980 and 3) per capita income at current prices 1980-81, on the other. Secondly, the relationship between the expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and the proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes across States are also computed.

The relationship between the expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and the Proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of different States indicates the rationale behind the density of the welfare measures. In other words, we are interested in knowing, whether the states with higher proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes allocate higher resources as compared with the states, which have lower Percent of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Population.

The correlation matrix in Table 4.6.1 shows no relationship between the per capita income of the state with the plan allocation for the backward classes. Surprisingly, the relationship between outlay and the proportion of

TABLE 4.6.1 RANK CORRELATION TABLE OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL INDICATORS IN MAJOR STATES

Sr. No.	Indicators	Variables					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	1981-82, Outlay of the state Sector allocation for backward classes.	1.00	0.05	-0.35	0.19	0.44	0.31
2.	Per capita income at current prices.		1.00	0.30	0.29	0.30	-0.48
3.	% of Scheduled Caste population.			1.00	-0.60	-0.38	0.34
4.	% of Scheduled Tribe population.				1.00	-0.48	0.44
5.	Gini coefficient of state Rank in 1972 - 1982 according to inequality in asset distribution of rural households.					1.00	0.12
6.	% of population below the poverty line by states for rural areas in 1980.						1.00

Scheduled Castes was negative. The proportion of below poverty line as well as the Gini coefficient of inequality has positive and high correlation with the public outlay on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. One of the interesting observation of Table 4.6.1 relates to the positive relationship between the per capita income and the proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population on one hand and the negative relationship between

TABLE 4.6.2 : A COMPARISON OF SELECTED INDICATORS OF MAJOR STATES AND THEIR

PERCENTAGE OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES POPULATION.

Sr. INDICATORS NO.	UNIT	VALUE	STATE % OF SC POPULATION**		STATE % OF ST POPULATION***	
			ABOVE	BELOW	ABOVE	BELOW
1. Outlay of the State Sector location for Backward Classes. (1981-1982) ^a	Average Rs.634.8 lakhs.	Above	Tamil Nadu Uttar Pradesh	Andhra Pradesh Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra	Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra	Andhra Pradesh Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh
		Below	Rajasthan Punjab, Himachal Pradesh West Bengal	Assam, Bihar Kerala, Orissa Karnataka	Assam, Bihar Orissa Rajasthan	Himachal Pradesh Karnataka, Kerala Punjab, West Bengal
2. Percentage of population below the poverty line by the States for rural areas in 1988 ^b	All India 47.83%	Above	Uttar Pradesh Tamil Nadu West Bengal	Assam, Bihar Karnataka, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa.	Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh Maharashtra, Orissa	Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh West Bengal
		Below	Himachal Pradesh Punjab, Rajasthan	Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Kerala	Gujarat, Rajasthan	Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh Kerala, Punjab
3. Per capita Income at current prices. 1988-81 ^c	All India Rs.1433.67	Above	Himachal Pradesh, Punjab	Maharashtra	Gujarat, Maharashtra	Himachal Pradesh, Punjab.
		Below	Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal	Andhra Pradesh Assam, Bihar Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Keral, Orissa, Karnataka.	Assam,Bihar, Madhya Pradehs, Orissa,Rajasthan	Andhra Pradesh, Kerala,Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal.

Notes : 1. The estimates derived by using the poverty line of Rs. 65 per capita per month in 1977-78, price corresponding to minimum daily calories requirement of 2400 per person in rural areas, and the poverty line of Rs. 75 corresponding to calories requirement of 2100 in urban areas.

** India SC population = 15.7 per cent, (Census 1981).

*** India ST population = 7.8 per cent, (Census 1981).

Sources : a. 601, 1992, P. 20.
b. Ghosh and Ghosh, 1991, P. 684.
c. Ezekiel, 1984, PP. 212-213.

the formers and the proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes on the other. Broadly, the table of correlation indicates that there is not a uniform policy across the states relating allocations for the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Moreover, the percent of population below poverty line has a positive relationship with the proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, thereby indicating larger concentration of poor among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes .

In order to analyse the distribution of states across the three variables mentioned above with the proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population, we have cross-classified the states into four groups dividing them on the basis of the national average regarding the allocation of the public expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Table 4.6.2). We find two interesting groups. Rajasthan, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and West Bengal are the states with the lower outlay but higher concentration of Scheduled Castes population. In the case of the Scheduled Tribe population, Assam, Bihar, Orissa and Rajasthan fall in this category. Maharashtra falls in the category of allocation above the national average, despite the concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes lower than the national average. Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Tamil Nadu have population of poor above the country average and at the same time, these states

also depict higher proportion of the Scheduled Castes population. In the case of the Scheduled Tribes Maharashtra, Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa, the per capita state income at current prices is lower than the national average in Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal along with high proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It is possible that the classification may change slightly if we take the data for a different year. However, the changes will not be extreme. Maharashtra happens to fall in the category with the better economic base but with higher level of poverty and about 7.14 per cent of Scheduled Castes and 9.19 per cent of Scheduled Tribes.

4.7 PHILOSOPHY BEHIND THE PROGRAMMES

The main focus of the developmental programme is to provide social justice to the deprived classes of the society on whom the deprivation is imposed through wrong social practices over ages. A review of the planning process shows the policy framework utilised to provide economic and social justice to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, through the specific programmes. To fulfill this purpose, the Planning Commission has accepted positive discrimination policy under the Constitution. Hence, the planners have made special provisions for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in various programmes. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes would get these advantages out of various

programmes. In order to bridge the gap between those who were deprived over ages and the higher classes, it is necessary to provide them employment. By provision of employment, assured wages would be guaranteed to these people and possibly help them to come over the economic deprivation. Attempts to provide minimum wages and policy of implementing agencies have failed miserably. Always the wages and the labour market is controlled by those who are in control of disproportionate assets. Hence, it was always advisable to provide an opportunity to these classes to earn their own wages out of their work.

The provision of economic opportunities was the first philosophical approach. Thus, however, in the plan programmes the amelioration of social deprivation was the starting point of the philosophical structure of the programme.

The amelioration of social deprivation was supported through the overall income and employment generation activities. Among these were the national development programmes of late sixties and early seventies. Right from the beginning of the First Plan, the educational programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were taken up in order to equip them with the most crucial input, namely information. The period during the fifties and sixties witnessed a gradual change in the information base and awakening of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population. The major responsibility for such awakening

cannot be fully assigned to the Government initiated programmes, there were large number of movements with the non-governmental support which have caused the basic change in the attitudes of these deprived classes. This awakening has led to the pressure exerted on the political group forcing the famous 'Garibi Hatao' approach. The philosophy behind 'Garibi Hatao' approach was a target group specific treatment as against the top to down flow approach. The important change in the philosophical stand behind the measures for ameliorating the conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was witnessed during this phase. There were four important shifts in the approach. Firstly, the target group was approached directly instead of going through the usual trickle down effect, Secondly the focus of the programme was both on employment generation as well as asset creation. The expectation was that this approach will provide for a stability in income. Thirdly, at this stage the policy involves the other financial institutions like Nationalised Banks and Cooperatives. Lastly, the shift in the policy witnessed during seventies continued further in the eighties with the new trends in globalisation and the reduction of the expenditure on subsidies. This is likely bring about a new approach in the philosophy.

4.8 CONCLUSIONS

Various programmes with different philosophies were undertaken during the planing period to ameliorate the conditions of the deprived classes. An attempt is made here to analyse the socio economic programmes initiated by the State as well as the Central Government. The spread and density of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as also the allocation of the expenditure on the welfare programmes are the two important factors analysed here. The analysis of the distribution of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicated two important factors. Firstly, Rajasthan and Tripura (followed by Orissa) are the states with high concentration of both the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Whereas, Kerala and Karnataka have very low concentration. Secondly, there are changes in the concentration ratios. In the case of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Tripura and West Bengal, the concentration ratios have changed upwards and in the case of Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Rajasthan, Sikkim and Tamil Nadu, the concentration ratios have changed downwards. In the case of the rest of the states, these ratios stayed almost the same.

The concentration and spread of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicated only the density of these groups. The allocation of plan resources over the planning period indicate the trends in the efforts for the welfare of

this group. The initial development policy framework for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes does not clearly indicate any focussed and specific approach. The strategy of development programmes shifted from the development of the area approach focussing on infrastructure to development of individuals or households. Over the plan periods, the proportion of allocation on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes has declined steadily. The coverage of the large number of programmes and inclusion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in them might have caused this steady decline. Further, the trends in the expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have indicated almost stagnation in terms of per capita expenditure at constant prices. The trends at all India level as that for Maharashtra were similar.

The target group approach dealt with the removal of poverty and provision of employment and assets. Thus, the rural development focus shifted from area approach to employment approach. The main reason for the poor performance of the programme cited are discontinuity in the programmes, ineffective implementation, and overlapping objectives. In the seventies, the developmental programmes have not only created the awareness in the group but seems to have helped them to deal with the problem of poverty.

Cross sectional comparisons were attempted between certain developmental indicators i.e. (i) Outlay of the

state sector allocation for Backward Classes (1981-82) (ii) Percentage of population below the poverty line by the rural areas in 1980, and (iii) per capita income at the current prices (1980-81) with the expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The relationship between the outlay and the proportion of the Scheduled Castes across the States was negative. The proportion of people below the poverty line as well as the Gini coefficient of inequality in assets distribution of rural households (1972-1982), have positive and high correlation with the outlay on welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The percent of population below the poverty line also has a positive relationship with the proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It indicates larger concentration of poor among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes communities.

In the analysis of cross-classification, it was noted that Rajasthan, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and West Bengal are the States with lower outlay but higher concentration of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population. In the case of Scheduled Tribe population, Assam, Bihar, Orissa and Rajasthan fall in the category of allocation above the national average despite the low concentration of both the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population. Thus Maharashtra happens to fall in the interesting category of better economic base, but with higher level of poverty among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The changes in the development philosophies regarding the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes after the post - independence can be broadly grouped into five phases. The first phase began with the direct attack on the social deprivation of the group to reduce or eradicate the irrational concepts, untouchability and provide social equality. This was not supported clearly by any other economic programmes. Hence, it gave scope for rationalist movements. The second phase which was almost parallel to the first phase, however, dealt with the constitutional provisions to ensure social equality and provided through a large number of educational programmes and equality in access. The policy of positive discrimination was an important component of this phase. This was followed by the third or "trickledown phase", which inherently assumed the participation of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the development programmes. The trickledown approach dealt with a large number of developmental programmes. These programmes have considered the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as another group along with the others. But at the same time, there were certain specific arrangements taken up for the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The fourth phase began with the realisation of the failure of the trickledown philosophy. The natural outcome of this was the target group specific programmes. These

programmes were designed for the poor as well as for the weaker sections of the society. The approach involved provision of employment and assets to strengthen economic base. The phase also gave rise to the fifth phase, in the development scenario. The social awakening among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes marks the sixth phase in their struggle for development. The social movements started immediately after the ^{Independence} became stronger in the late seventies and during eighties. The group of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes asserted their due share rightly and through strong awakening. This entire scenario of development brought about some change in the conditions of this class of the society.

APPENDIX : 4.1

THE DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES FOR THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

4.1. ECONOMIC UPLIFTMENT

4.1.1. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT SPONSORED PROGRAMMES FOR THE ECONOMIC UPLIFTMENT OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES .

4.1.1.1 REMOVAL OF POVERTY AND EMPLOYMENT GENERATING PROGRAMMES

Integrated Rural Development programmes (IRDP) (1980-81)(2) Land Reforms (3) The Twenty point programme (TPP) (1974)(4) Special component plan (SCP) (6th plan)

4.1.1.2 WAGE EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMES

Wage Employment Programmes are implemented by the Central Government viz (1) National Rural Employment Programme (NREP)1980 (2) Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP)(1983). (3) Implementation of Minimum Wage Act and (4) Government of Maharashtra viz Employment Guarantee Scheme.

4.1.1.3 SPECIFIC PROGRAMMES FOR PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATION GROUPS AND THEIR TRAINING PROGRAMMES

(1) Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM). (2) Leather workers. (3) Weavers Handicrafts Artisans, (4) Fisherman, (5) Rikshaw pullers (6) Cart pullers (7) Head load workers (8) Construction workers (9) Khadi and Village Industries.

4.1.1.4 NEED BASED IMPLEMENTATION OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES :

(1) Minimum Needs Programmes (MNP), (2) Animal Husbandry (3) Shifting Cultivation, (4) Sheep and Goat Development (5) Minor Irrigation, (6) Sericulture (7) Horticulture, (8) Forestry programmes, (9) Fertilizers and Manure scheme etc.

4.1.1.5 ASSISTANCE FROM FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS :

(1) Nationalised Banks, (2) Regional Rural Banks (RRBS), (3) Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporations, (4) Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA). (5) Differential Rate of Interest Scheme (DRI) (6) Crop Insurance Schemes etc.

4.1.1.6 SPECIAL PROGRAMMES FOR SCHEDULED TRIBES

(1) Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) (2) Special Central Assistance (SSA) for TSP, (3) Tribal Development Agency (TDA) Programme, (4) Hill Area Development (HAD), (5) Private Voluntary Health Organisation Programme (6) Assistance to Scheduled Tribe Families Scheme etc.

4.1.1.7 OTHER PROGRAMMES :

(1) Integrated Child Development Service. (ICDS), (2) Housing for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes etc.

4.1.2 STATE SPONSORED SCHEMES FOR ECONOMIC UPLIFTMENT OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

(1) Employment Cell, (2) Tailoring and Typewriting Classes (3) Financial Assistance to Cooperative Societies of Backward Classes for Construction of Houses and Mangalore Tiles.

4.2. EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

4.2.1 CENTRAL GOVERNMENT SPONSORED PROGRAMMES* FOR THE EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES :

4.2.1 CENTRAL SPONSORED SCHEMES

Central Government sponsored schemes are implemented by State Government These schemes are as follows :-

(1) Post Matric Scholarship for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe Students. (2) Pre-matric Scholarship for the Children of those Engaged in Unclean Occupations, (3) Book Banks Scheme for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe Students in Medical and Engineering Colleges, (4) Girls Hostel Scheme for Scheduled Castes, (5) Coaching Allied Scheme for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, (6) National Overseas Scholarships (7) Ashram Schools (8) Grant of Tuition Fees, (9) Examination Fees.

4.2.2 UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION (UGC) SPONSORED SCHEMES**

These schemes are as follows :- (1) Reservation of Scholarship/ Fellowship, (2) Reservation for Teacher Fellowships, (3) Remedial Courses, (4) Junior Research Fellowships, (5) Post-Graduate Scholarships in Science and Humanities, (6) Research Fellowships in Engineering and Technology (7) Creation of Special Cells in Humanities, (8) Reservation of Seats in Humanities/ Colleges, Hostels.

4.3. PROGRAMMES FOR THE REMOVAL OF UNTOUCHABILITY
(PROPAGANDA GRANT IN AID)***

(1) Prizes to Villages Doing Outstanding Work in the Field of Removal of Untouchability, (2) Arranging Kirtan and Lokanatya Programmes, (3) Honorarium to Writers, Arranging Shibirs of Social Workers /Pracharaks, Prizes to Films, (4) Celebration of Removal of Untouchability Fortnight, (5) Propaganda for Removal of Untouchability, (6) Assistance for SC/ST/NT/VJ Victims of Atrocities. (7)Improvement of Harijan Bastis, (8) Encouragement Grants to Intercaste Marriages.

* The programmes for the Educational Development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are sponsored by Central Government and University Grants Commission and are implemented by all State Governments and Union Territories.

** University Grants Commission sponsored schemes are implemented by all the State Governments through the Universities of the State

*** In order to take special programmes for the removal of untouchability, the Government of Maharashtra have sanctioned the above mentioned schemes.

APPENDIX: 4.2

CLASSIFICATION OF VARIOUS PROGRAMMES ACCORDING
TO SPECIFIC COMMUNITY

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
E1	Grant In code	1885	Depressed classes	Education
E5	D.H.B.Started Committee Dr.B.R.Ambedkar A.B.Thakar(members)	1910	Backward Classes	Classification of classes.
E4	Montague Chelmsford Reforms	1919	Depressed classes	Seperate representation in Public bodies
E2	Resolution passed by legislature * Revised	1921 1927	Non-Brahmins States five broad categories	Representation in in Govt.Services Reservation of seperate quota
E3	L.C.Miller Committee	1921	Non-Brahmins	Special facilities Education,Recruitment in services
E14	Scavengers living conditions Enquiry Committee V. N.Barve	1949	Scavenging engaged group	Improvement of working conditions
E6	Constitution of India	1950a	Backward Classes SC/ST/OBCs	Reservation seats of seats in Assembly Legislature,Jobs Parliament,economic interests
F1	Commissioner for SC/ST	1950	SC/ STs	Investigate the matter relating safeguards under constitution under article 340

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
E7	First Backward Classes commission Kalekar Committee	1953	Backward classes	Classification of the Backward classes
E8	Untouchability Offence Act 1955 amended 1972 revised Civil Rights Act 1955.	1955, 1985	Untouchables	To provide stringent provisions in cases of untouchability
E9	Central Advisory	1956	Harijans	" "
E10	A Committee on Special Multi purpose Tribal Blocks Dr.Verrien Elwis	59-60	Tribals	Multi purpose
E11	A Committee Sat Renuka Ray	1959	Backward Classes	To Specify the Ministry, Home Affairs
E12	Commission Prof.N.R.Malkani	1959	Emerging Untouchables	Scavenging conditions of the untouchables.
E13	Study Groups on Welfare of Weaker Sections Shri.Jayprakash Narayan	1959	Weaker sections	To study the village community of weaker sections
E16	Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes Commission V.N.Bhaba	1960	Tribals	Study conditions
E17	Dept.of Social Security	1964	Backward classes	Creation of Department of social security
E18	Committee L.Elayaperumal	1965	Scheduled castes	To study problems of economic upliftment and education.
E19	Committee Hari Singh	65-67	Tribals	To study Tribal Economy

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
E20	Committee on Customary Rights of Scavenging	1965	Tribals Scavenging	To examine the question of isolation of customary rights of scavenging
E21	Dept.Of Social Welfare	1966	Backward classes	Dept. of Social security redesigned
E22	Study Team on Tribal Development Shri P.Shiln A.O.	66-69	Tribals	Programmes
D1	Crash Rural Employment Programae	1969-70	All States Landless labourers rural unemployed	To provide employment on cultivable barren lands and other public works not requiring skilled labour.
D2	Drought Prone Areas (DPAP)	1970-71	554 Blocks, 73 districts Landless labourers and other rural unemployed poor	To ensure that rural works taken up under this programme is of a lasting nature and to provide employment through construction works
B1	Tribal Development	1972-73	AndhraPradesh Bihar,U.P Tribals and Semi-tribals	To foster the economic developaent of tribal population and to make impact on agricultural development of the areas occupied by them
D3	Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS)	1972	Maharashtra 87 Talukas 12 districts, Rural unemployed landless labourers	To guarantee employment to all able bodied person in rural areas willing to work in manual and unskilled jobs

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
D4	Pilot Rural Employment Project	1972-73	All States, Rural unemployed & landless,	To provide employment on work projects which do not require skill of high order
B2	Hill Area Development Project (HAD)	1973-74	Kanjara NP, Alora UP, Nilgiri TN, Tribals and Semi-tribal agricultural labour farmers	To maximize agricultural production through multiple cropping, HYV horticulture
E27	Tribal Sub Plan (TSP)	5th plan 1973	Tribals	Streamline the process of development
E23	Central Coordination Committee	1974	Tribal/backward classes	Flow of resources coordination programmes
E15	Chairman Sallapa	1975	Scavenging engaged groups	Improvement of working conditions.***
C1	Special Livestock Programme	1976-76	21 States & Union Territories Weaker Sections of rural population	To provide employment opportunities to weaker Sections.
D5	Minimum Needs Programme(MNP)	1976-77	All States, Landless labourers	To improve rural health, water supply, etc.
D6	Command Area Development Programme (CMD)	1976-77	All States, Poor farmers, landless labourers	To improve areas through minor irrigation, horticulture, animal husbandry
A1	Food for Work Programme(FWP)	1977	All States Scheduled Castes & Tribes	To provide employment opportunities for target groups

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
A2	Antyodya	1977	Jaipur, Jodhpur Kutta & Chittor districts, Rajasthan Scheduled Castes & Tribes	To provide employment opportunities
A3	Environmental	1977-78	Country wide	To improve living conditions
B3	Private Health	1977-78	Countrywide, Tribals and rural poor	To provide community based health services in tribal and rural areas Expand and improve basic and preventive health services
B4	Assistance	1977-78	Maharashtra, Gujarat, Scheduled Tribes	To extend employment, health care and other facilities to Scheduled Tribes
C2	Karim Nagar	1977	Andhra Pradesh Backward and weaker sections	To experiment with concentrated efforts in transplanting resources, men and material in backward area
D7	Allotment of House Sites to Rural Area	1977-78	Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat Landless labourers	To provide house sites to landless labourers.
D8	Provision of Drinking Water to Problem Areas	1977-78	Maharashtra, Landless labourer	To provide drinking water to land- less labourers

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
F2	Commissioner for SC/STs	1978	SC/STs	To study the problems of SC/STs
F5	Scheduled Castes Development Corporation Scheduled Tribes Finance Corporation	1978	SC/STs	To finance
E24	2nd Backward Class Commission	1979	Backward classes and O.B.C.	Identification of B.C. and O.B.C.
E25	Dept of Social Welfare	1979	do	Independent Ministry
E26	High Power Panel on SC, ST and Weaker Dr.Gopal Singh	1979	Weaker sections	To ascertain the level of benefits, development policies of Central and State Govts.
E28	Special Component Plan (SCP)	6th Plan 1979	Scheduled Castes	To streamline the process of development
A4	Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)	1980-81	All States	Below poverty lines families including SC/ST, economically backward
A5	National Rural Employment Programme(NREP)	1980	All States, Scheduled Castes & Tribes	To provide employment opportunities for target groups
A6	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP)	1983	All States, Union-territories Unemployed landless labour SC/ST	1) To improve employment and providing guarantee for 100 days 2) Creating durable assets for strengthening rural infrastructure 3) Priority to SC/ST.

CODE NO.	PROGRAMME	YEAR	COVERAGE/TARGET GROUP	OBJECTIVES
1	2	3	4	5
A7	Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY)	1989	In 120 backward districts Pref.to SC/ST for employment Earmarking funds for SC/ST and MWS 15 %	1) Employment in rural areas 2) Creation of productive community assets 3) Improvement of quality of life
E29	Ministry of Welfare	1985	SC,ST and OBC	Nodal Ministry for overall policy planning coordination
F3	National Commission	1987	SC/STs	Members committee formed.
F4	Amendment	1989	SC/STs	Commission for SC/ST would cease to function
F6	The National Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Finance Development Corporation	1989	SC/STs	Enhance the per capita assistance
E30	SC and ST Prevention of Atrocities Act	1990	SC/STs	To check crimes against SC/ST committed by non SC ST classes

Notes

- A : Classification of Programmes According to the Specific Communities
 B : Programmes for Scheduled Tribes
 C : Programmes of the Weaker Sections of the Population
 D : Programmes for the Landless Agricultural Labour
 E : Creation of Department, Ministry of Welfare
 F : Institutions for Welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India. All
 Institutions are by Government Of India.

Agencies : Government of Madras

|| Government of India

||| Government of Karnataka

In all other cases Government of India

a = The central Government has provided Reservations in Government Employment for
 Scheduled Castes since 1943 and for Scheduled Tribes since 1950

CHAPTER V

SOCIO ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY AREA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter sets the background for the study. Here an attempt is made to analyse the basic features affecting and deciding the economic structure of the region which includes topography, rainfall, population profile, agriculture and availability of the infrastructural amenities in the district. This study relies mainly on the secondary sources of information such as District Census Handbook, District Statistical Abstract , Agricultural Census and other similar sources. A comparative analysis of the district with the State is also attempted. This chapter focuses on the location as well as the broad district parameters viz, population profiles, occupational pattern, literacy, land holding, cropping pattern, live stock and amenities. The last section gives some broad conclusions relating to development indicators. The focus here is to prepare a background for the intended analysis by examining broad features of the District as well as the sample region.

5.2 BROAD DISTRICT PARAMETERS

5.2.1 LOCATION TOPOGRAPHY, SOIL AND WEATHER

Ahmadnagar district is one of the chronically drought-prone but economically prosperous districts of Maharashtra. This district is bounded on the North East by Aurangabad district, on the East by Beed and Osmanabad districts; On the South of the district is Solapur and in the South West is bounded by Thane district. It has a total geographical area of 17048 sq. kms., accounting 5.54 per cent of the total area of the state of Maharashtra.

Ahmadnagar district is situated partly in the upper Godavari basin and partly in the Bhina basin. It is served by Pravara and Mula rivers and by tributaries of Godavari and the Godavari itself which flows along the North Eastern boundary of the district. Pravara passes through Sanganner, Shrirampur, Nevasa and Rahuri Tahasils. Thus a portion of the district is served by Godavari and its tributaries bringing in irrigated agriculture for a sizeable area. The canal irrigation system on these two rivers alongwith the water available from Godavari has transformed the agricultural economy of Shrirampur, Kopergaon, Rahuri and Nevasa Tahasils from one of subsistence into that of Prosperity and plenty.

The main range of Sahyadri and its off shoots is the system of hills in the district. Thus the district has two major geographical regions, one characterised by hilly

terrain and the other is on the plains. Tribal population inhabits the hilly region.

The soils of the Ahmadnagar district can be classified into three groups viz, black, red and gray(barad). The soils in the Pravara valley particularly, Sanganner Tahasil are fairly deep, and alluvial, and are highly fertile. The depth of the soil is given in the Table 5.1. Largely the soils have depth ranging between 7.5 and 25 cms indicating predominance of shallow soils, a characteristic of drought-prone areas. There are several patches of soils with varying depths.

TABLE 5.1 : DEPTH OF THE SOIL IN THE DISTRICT

Sr.No	Depth in Cm.	Area covered %
1	Upto 25	49
2	25.1 & Above	51
		100

Source : GOM, 1981a, P.3.

Major part of the district is in the rainshadow region to the east of Western Ghats. On an average, there are 35 rainy days. Out of the 13 Tahasils in the district as many as 12 Tahasils and the Eastern one third part of Akola Tahasil falls in the scarcity tract. The range of annual rainfall in the part varies between 430 mm and 650 mm.

Ahmadnagar district is characterised by hot summer the relative humidities in monsoon period are between 60 and 80 percent. Sukhatankar Committee (1973) has identified a major part of the district as susceptible to drought conditions. The Committee considered normal precipitation, timeliness of rainfall with reference to cropping pattern and soils. The Committee excluded only a few Talukas as they have protective irrigation, while identifying drought prone areas. The Talukas identified as drought prone area are Akola, entire Tahasils of Pathardi, Parner, Nagar, Jamkhed, Shevgaon and area not served by large irrigation canal systems of Sangamner, Shrigonda, Kopergaon, Shrirampur, Nevasa, Rahuri and Karjat (GOM, 1981 P.5). It is generally experienced that out of every 5 years, 3 years are scarcity years in the districts. One year is about normal and one year turns out to be weatherwise good year.

5.2. HISTORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE SETUP

Ahmadnagar district has a chequered history since medieval times. It was the capital of the Nizam Shahi Kingdom founded by Malik Ahmad, the founder of the Nizam Shahi dynasty in 1494. The district headquarter is named after him. Ahmadnagar was formed as a district in the year 1818(Census of India, 1981, P.9). In 1882 its boundaries extended between Vani in Dindori sub-division of Nasik and Karmala in Solapur district. From the year 1830 to 1945 several reorganisations have taken place in the district.

These included additional areas and extension the boundaries of the Ahmadnagar district. In the 14th to 19th century, it represented a prosperous seat of power with sporadic disturbances. The accumulation of wealth in and around the district was quite evident in the historical period.

Ahmadnagar district was earlier included in Pune Revenue Division, however since February, 1981 it is included in the newly formed Nasik Revenue Division. The district is divided into four sub divisions, which cover 13 Tahasils, (Table 5.2).

TABLE 5.2 ADMINISTRATIVE SET UP OF THE DISTRICT

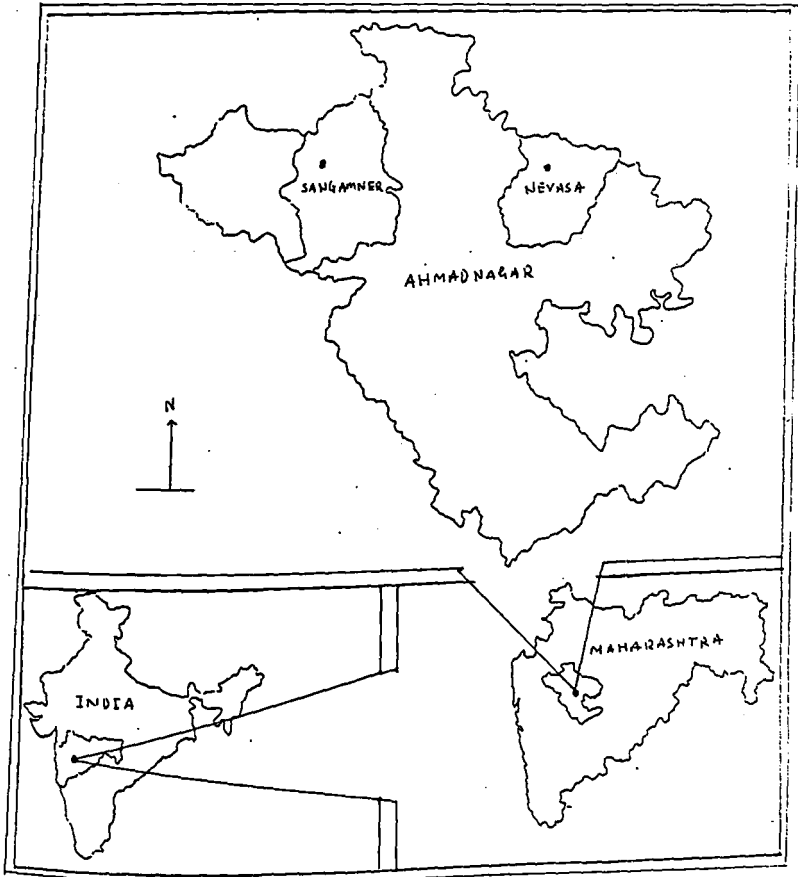
Sr No	Name of the Sub-division	Name of tahasil
1	Ahmadnagar	1. Nagar 2. Parner 3. Pathardi 4. Shevagaon
2	Karjat	1 Karjat, 2. Shrigonda, 3.Jankhed
3	Shrirampur	1.Shrirampur, 2.Nevasa 3.Rahuri
4	Sanganner	1.Akola, 2.Kopargaon 3.Kopargaon, 4.Akola

Source : GOM, 1992 P. 17.

5.3 POPULATION PROFILE

Ahmadnagar is not one of the densely populated districts. Its population density had always been lower than the state, largely due to its weak economic basis and forced

MAP 5.1 : GEOGRAPHICAL MAP OF THE STUDY AREA : SANGAMNER AND NEVASA TALUKAS OF AHMADNAGAR DISTRICT



outmigration due to low income generation. But within the district there are large variations. According to 1981 Census the population of the district was 27.08 lakhs, which increased to 33.62 lakhs in 1991. Thus recording a growth rate of 2.41 per cent per annum. The decadal changes in population as indicated through the censuses show an interesting picture.

Table 5.3 DECADAL CHANGES (GROWTH RATE) IN POPULATION OF THE STUDY AREA.

No	Decades	Ahmadnagar	Maharashtra
1	1901-11	1.29	1.07
2	1911-21	2.23 *	0.29
3	1921-31	3.48	1.48
4	1931-41	1.59	1.19
5	1941-51	2.56	1.93
6	1951-61	2.59	2.30
7	1961-71	2.77	2.75
8	1971-81	1.94	2.44
9	1981-91	2.41	2.54

Note * Indicates (-) change
Source : GOM, 1981a, P.6.

Table 5.3 indicates that the decadal growth rate of Ahmadnagar district was comparatively higher than that of the state, up to the year 1971. However the growth rate has

declined during the period 1971-81. An interesting picture emerges here that some Talukas like Shrirampur (362), Kopargaon (279), Nagar (241), Rahuri (186), Nevasa (170) and Sangamner (167) are high density Tahasils as against Parner (99) which has population density lower than the district average (159).

5.3.1 : SCHEDULED CASTE AND SCHEDULED TRIBE POPULATION

Ahmadnagar is one of the dominant districts with quite high concentration of Scheduled Caste population. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes whose total population is 418 thousand and 240 thousand respectively, according to the Census 1981, this constitutes 12.41 per cent and 7.12 per cent of the total population respectively. The comparison with the State of Maharashtra's proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population and the proportion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe population shows that the population in the district is more than the State (11.09 per cent) in respect of Scheduled Caste and less than the State (9.27 per cent) in respect of the Scheduled Tribe population. (Census of India, 1981 (1983), pp.50-52). According to 1981 Census, Scheduled Caste population in Ahmadnagar district was 2.87 lakh, including 1.46 lakh males and 1.40 lakh females. They constituted 10.62 per cent of total population of the district as against 9.32 percent in 1971.

Out of the total Scheduled Caste population more than 88 percent stays in the rural areas and only about 12 percent are urbanites. Similarly, according to 1981 census the Scheduled Tribe population in Ahmadnagar district was 1.87 lakh including 0.94 lakh males and 0.93 lakh females. They constituted 6.93 percent (6.42 percent in 1971) of the total population.

5.3.2 : CONCENTRATION RATIOS OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES POPULATION OF AHMADNAGAR DISTRICT

To understand the talukawise spread of density of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population, the concentration Ratios of both the communities in the district of Ahmadnagar for the censuses of 1981 and 1991 are calculated. These concentration Ratios are presented in Table 5.4 and Table 5.5 presents the distribution of Talukas falling above and below the district average.

Out of 13 Talukas of Ahmadnagar district, 9 Talukas have higher concentration and the rest have the lower concentration ratio according to the census of 1981. The same pattern for the Scheduled Castes is continued in census 1991, except for Shrigonda, Shrirampur Taluka has high concentration of the Scheduled Caste population followed by Karjat Taluka.

Secondly, nine Talukas of the district showed the density of the Scheduled Tribes below the average and 4 Talukas have this above the average according to the Census of 1981. The same spread of density of the Scheduled Tribes is continued in 1991 Census except for Shrirampur.

TABLE 5.4 : CONCENTRATION RATIO OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE STUDY AREA

SR. NO.	TALUKAS	SCHEDULED CASTES		SCHEDULED TRIBES	
		1981	1991	1981	1991
1.	NAGAR	1.10	1.11	0.24	0.34
2.	RAHURI	1.17	1.12	1.20	1.31
3.	SHRIRAMPUR	1.79	1.55	1.05	0.84
4.	NEVASA	1.20	1.141	0.63	0.67
5.	SHEVGAON	1.34	1.16	0.18	0.21
6.	PATHARDI	0.99	0.97	0.17	0.21
7.	JAMKHED	1.19	1.06	0.15	0.16
8.	KARJAT	1.33	1.14	0.14	0.17
9.	SHRIGONDA	1.05	0.97	0.28	0.32
10.	PARNER	0.53	0.56	0.56	0.55
11.	AKOLA	0.22	0.34	6.50	6.45
12.	SANGAMNER	0.67	0.69	1.20	1.37
13.	KOPARGAON	1.00	1.14	1.05	1.27
14.	AHMADNAGAR	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

SOURCES : 1) Census of India 1981 (1986), PP. 32-35.
 2) Census of India 1991 (1993), PP. 100-101.

TABLE : 5.5 DISTRIBUTION OF TALUKAS OF AHMADNAGAR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO THE CONCENTRATION RATIOS OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES, (CENSUS 1981 AND 1991).

Sr. No.	Group of Concentration Ratio	Scheduled Castes Taluka	Scheduled Tribes Taluka
1.	Above 1	Nagar, Rahuri, Shrirampur, Nevasa, Jamkhed, Karjat and Kopargaon	Rahuri, Akola Sanganner and Kopargaon
2.	Below 1	Parner, Pathardi, Akola, Shrigonda* and Sanganner	Nagar, Shrirampur* Nevasa, Shevagaon, Pathardi, Jamkhed, Karjat, Shrigonda, and Parner

Note : * Indicates Concentration above 1 in Census 1981 and Below 1 in Census 1991.

Source : Table 5.4

5.4 OCCUPATIONAL PATTERN IN THE DISTRICT

The percentage of workers to the total population in Maharashtra according to 1991 census was 39.2. It is 2.4 percent higher than that in India (36.8 percent), (GOM, 1992, p. xii). Census 1981 (1986) has recorded 41.55 per cent population of Ahmadnagar district as main workers and 4.13 per cent as marginal workers. The proportions for the state are 38.71 per cent, 3.85, and 57.44 per cent respectively. Among the main workers in the district 47.43 per cent are cultivators, 28.33 per cent agricultural labourers, 2.02 per cent engaged in household industry and 22.22 per cent are engaged in other services. The

corresponding figures for the State are 35.12 percent, 28.83 per cent, 2.55 per cent and 35.70 per cent. Three fourth of the workers in Ahmadnagar are directly engaged in agriculture as cultivators or agricultural workers. According to 1981 census 45.41, per cent and 43.07 per cent of the Nevasa and Sangamner Talukas population are main workers respectively , 3.78 per cent and 3.72 per cent as marginal workers and the remaining 50.08 per cent and 53.21 per cent as non-worker respectively. (Census of India 1981, 1986, pp. 17-20).

The economic status of the region can be visualised by the work participation rates (Table 5.6) A comparison of this within the district reveals that there are some leading and lagging regions. Our attempt here provides a background for discussion of the economic status of the region and not to conclude about work participation rate alone.

Table 5.7 presents distribution of Tahasils by work participation rates of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes in Ahmadnagar district according to the 1981 Census. Out of 13 Talukas of the district three Talukas (Kopargaon , Parner and Shrirampur) have lower work participation rate as compared with the district. Work participation rates for the Scheduled Castes are highest in Nevasa and Jankhed Talukas and lowest in Shrirampur Taluka. As regards the work participation rates of scheduled tribe population, these are higher than the district level for Akola ,Kopargaon , Nevasa

and Rahuri Talukas. It is further interesting to note that the work participation rate at district level is higher for the Scheduled Caste population as compared to the Scheduled Tribe population.

TABLE 5.6 : WORK PARTICIPATION RATE (WPR) OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES 1981 CENSUS

Sr. No.	Name of Taluka	WPR Scheduled Castes	WPR Scheduled Tribes
1.	Nagar	-	-
2.	Rahuri	0.48	0.54
3.	Shrirampur	0.42	0.52
4.	Nevasa	0.52	0.55
5.	Shevagaon	0.50	0.53
6.	Pathardi	0.47	0.48
7.	Jamkhed	0.52	0.41
8.	Karjat	0.49	0.40
9.	Shrigonda	0.47	0.47
10.	Parner	0.44	0.52
11.	Akola	0.47	0.47
12.	Sangamner	0.47	0.52
13.	Kopergaon	0.44	0.55
Total District		0.46	0.54

Source : Calculated from census of India 1981, (1982),

PP.32 - 35 and 108 - 111.

Table 5.7 : WORK PARTICIPATION RATES OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES OF AHMADNAGAR DISTRICT

Sr. No.	Particulars	Work participation rates	
		Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes
1	Talukas falling above district level	Rahuri, Nevasa Shevagaon Pathardi Jamkhed Karjat, Akola Shrigonda, Sanganner	Rahuri*, Nevasa Akola Kopargaon
2	Talukas falling below district level	Shrirampur Parner Kopargaon	Shrirampur, Parner Shevgaon, Pathardi Jamkhed, Karjat Shrigonda, Sanganner
	District level	0.46	0.54
	Highest	Nevasa & Jamkhed = 0.52	Akola = 0.57
	Lowest	Shrirampur 0.42	Karjat = 0.40

- Notes : 1. * Equal to district level
2. ** Information pertains to 12 Talukas
Information for Nagar Taluka not available.
3. Census of India 1981, (1982), pp.32-36 & 108-111.

Above analysis indicates three important factors. Firstly the concentration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes varied across the Talukas and the changes across the

census are marginal. Secondly, the work participation rates of the Talukas also varied across the regions and the work participation rates do not bear any visible relationship concentration ratios. Thirdly work participation rates are generally lower in the Talukas with higher concentration of these groups.

TABLE 5.8 : LITERACY RATES FOR THE SCHEDULED CASTE AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE STUDY AREA (CENSUS 1981).

No.	Name of Taluka	Literacy Rate Scheduled Castes	Literacy Rate Scheduled Tribes
1	Nagar	0.42	0.29
2	Rahuri	0.37	0.18
3	Shrirampur	0.37	0.18
4	Nevasa	0.30	0.17
5	Shevagaon	0.28	0.19
6	Pathardi	0.33	0.22
7	Jankhed	0.26	0.20
8	Karjat	0.33	0.24
9	Shrigonda	0.35	0.21
10	Parner	0.41	0.11
11	Akola	0.31	0.16
12	Sanganner	0.36	0.16
13	Kopargaon	0.36	0.16
Total District		0.35	0.17

Source : Calculated from Census of India 1981 (1982), PP. 32-35 and 108-111.

5.5 LITERACY AMONG SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES
IN THE DISTRICT.

Maharashtra state ranks sixth in respect of literacy percentage among all the States in India in 1991. The 1991 literacy picture is better than that in 1981. Literacy percentage in males was 74.84 and that in females was 50.51 (GOM, 1992, p.8)

Table 5.9 : DISTRIBUTION OF TALUKAS ACCORDING TO THE LITERACY RATE OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE DISTRICT.

Sr.No	Particulars	Literacy Rate Name of Talukas	
(1)	(2)	Scheduled castes (3)	Scheduled tribes (4)
1	Talukas above district level	Nagar, Rahuri Shrirampur Shrigonda * Parner, Sanganner Kopargaon (7)	Nagar , Rahuri Shrirampur Shevgaon, Pathardi Jankhed, Karjat Shrigonda, Nevasa* (9)
2	Talukas below level	Nevasa, Shevgaon Pathardi, Akola Jankhed, Karjat (6)	Parner, Akola Sanganner Kopargaon (4)
	District level	0.35	0.17
	Highest	Nagar 0.42	Nagar 0.29
	Lowest	Nevasa 0.30	Parner 0.11

Note : 1. * Equal to district level
2. Please see Appendix 5.2

Source : Census of India 1981, (1982), pp.32-35.

Ahmadnagar is not the leading district in terms of literacy in Maharashtra . It is moderately literate district falling close to the average. According to the 1991 census out of 33.62 lakhs ,16.92 lakhs were literate in the district. Male literacy was obviously higher than female literacy (50.33%). Out of the total males (17.22 lakhs), 10.71 lakhs (62.22 %) are literate and out of total females (16.40 lakhs), 6.20 lakhs (37.83 %) are literate in the district.

The figures on literacy were not available for 1991 at the time of writing for Talukas .But according to 1981 census among the various blocks in the district Sangamner (41.37%) and Nevasa (40.09%) rank 5th and 7th in terms of literacy rate.

Table 5.8 shows the talukawise literacy rates of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the study area. It is observed that for seven Talukas literacy rates are higher than the district. The literacy rate of Scheduled Castes is maximum in Nagar Taluka (42 per cent) and minimum in Jambhed Taluka (26 per cent). Nevasa and Sangamner fall on either side of the district average, according to literacy among Scheduled Castes. Sangamner has higher literacy rate than the district average whereas, Nevasa has literacy lower than the district average.

Incidentally Nevasa has recorded the lowest literacy rate among the Scheduled Castes in the district, (Table 5.9).

The literacy rates of the Scheduled Tribe population also indicated variations across the Talukas. Nevasa shows literacy rate almost equal to the district average whereas, Sangamner recorded the literacy of Scheduled Tribes below the district level.

The analysis of the level of literacy in general and the same for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicated a wide variation across the Talukas. The district falls in the lower side when compared with the other districts. There was no specific pattern in the level of literacy and other characteristics about the Talukas.

5.6 LAND HOLDING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE DISTRICT

Land is an important asset indicating the economic status for the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population. Both Sangamner and Nevasa Talukas were under Rayatwari system but historically had a truncated distribution in favour of the large owners. If the number of individual holdings is taken into consideration the marginal farmers constitute a dominant group among the Scheduled Castes whereas, the medium and the small farmers are dominant among Scheduled Tribes. The area shares indicate the medium and the large farmers dominating both the groups. This also holds true about the proportion of net sown area. As regards the size of holdings, Shrigonda Taluka has the largest average size of holding, (Table 5.10).

TABLE 5.18 LAND HOLDING CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHEDULED CASTES

AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN THE DISTRICT

No	Taluka	Individual holding		Total group		Net sown area group		Size holding Acres/No		% of net area sown to holding group		% of cultivable waste land to net sown area group		% of wholly irrigated holding to group	
		SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Nagar	MD	FD	FD	FD	NA	FD	BD	BD	NA	MD	NA	LD	NA	LD
2	Parner	MD	LD	LD	LD	NA	NA	BD	BD	MB	NA	FD	NA	SD	NA
3	Shrigonda	MD	FD	FD	FD	FD	FD	FD	MD	MD	NA	MD	MD	SD	MD
4	Karjat	FD	FD	LD	FD	LD	FD	FD	MD	MD	NA	MD	FD	MD	MD
5	Janhed	MD	FD	FD	FD	FD	FD	MD	MD	SD	NA	MD	NA	LD	NA
6	Shevagaon	MD	SD	FD	FD	FD	FD	BD	BD	MD	MD	FD	NA	FD	SD
7	Pathardi	MD	MD	FD	FD	FD	FD	BD	BD	MD	MD	NA	NA	LD	FD
8	Nevasa	MD	MD	FD	SD	SD	SD	BD	BD	MD	SD	LD	SD	MD	MD
9	Rahuri	MD	MD	FD	FD	FD	FD	BD	BD	MD	MD	MD	MD	SD	MD
10	Sangaoner	MD	FD	FD	LD	FD	LD	BD	BD	MD	MD	MD	MD	MD	MD
11	Akola	MD	MD	LD	LD	LD	LD	BD	BD	MD	FD	MD	MD	MD	MD
12	Kopargaon	MD	MD	FD	SD	FD	SD	BD	BD	MD	MD	BD	BD	MD	FD
13	Shirraapur	MD	MD	FD	FD	FD	FD	BD	BD	MD	FD	LD	NA	LD	MD
District		MD	MD	FD	LD	FD	LD	BD	BD	MD	MD	LD	LD	MD	NA

Notes :

- a) D dominance
- b) Marginal farmers 0.1 to 0.99 ha M
- c) Small farmers 1.01 to 1.99 ha S
- d) Medium farmers 2.01 to 3.99 ha F
- e) Large farmers 4.01 to 9.9 ha L
- f) Big farmers 10.01 and above ha B
- g) Not available A

Source - Agricultural Census Office, Maharashtra, Pune.

In addition to this, two other important variables namely, proportion of cultivable waste and proportion of wholly irrigated area have been looked into the distribution of land. Marginal farmers seem to be the largest group by recording higher proportion of cultivable waste among the the Scheduled Castes but among the Scheduled Tribes this picture is not very clear. Similarly, among the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe groups, Marginal holdings are dominant in the distribution of the wholly irrigated area. Both observations indicate optimum resource intensity among these groups. The interesting factor is that the large owners do not show either the large proportion of cultivable wastes or dominate in the distribution of irrigation within the groups of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, indicating non-polarisation of asset holding within the groups.

Regarding Nevasa and Sangamner it was found that percentage of net area sown to total holdings and percentage of wholly irrigated holdings to net sown area in individual holdings are dominated by Scheduled Castes in both the Talukas.

Scheduled Tribes in different variable groups in Sangamner and Nevasa Talukas. Mostly in Nevasa Taluka small farmers form the largest group in the distribution of total holdings. Percentage of net area sown to total holdings and percentage of cultivable wastes land and net sown area are also higher in the group of small farmers.

5.7 : CROPPING PATTERN

Cropping pattern and crop combinations are important decisions as far as the economy of the region is concerned. This study region has a curious combination of rainfed and irrigated regions where prosperity coexists with deprivation. It would therefore, be interesting to note the crop combinations of the area, share of crops as the final outcome of the decision making process.

Table 5.11 shows the changes in area under different crops in the district over two decades. The first decade refers to 1961-62 to 1970-71 and the second decade refers to 1970-71 to 1980-81. The crops are cereals, pulses, sugarcane, fruits and vegetables oil seeds and non-food crops.

It is observed from the Table 5.11 that the area under cereals and pulses decreased in all Talukas of the district except Shevagaon and Pathardi. Similarly, the area under sugarcane crop increased in all the Talukas of Ahmadnagar district, except Shrirampur and Kopergaon Talukas. During the second decade, the area under pulses increased in 6 Talukas. Rahuri Taluka recorded decrease in the area under fruits and vegetables in both the decades while all the other Talukas except Shevagaon and Pathardi indicate that the area under fruits and vegetables has increased in the second decade. In the case of Talukas viz. Nagar, Pathardi, Karjat and area under oilseeds increased in both decades

while Shirampur and Akola recorded a decrease in the area under oilseeds in both decades. The area under non-food crop increased in Jamkhed and Akola Talukas. However, decreased in 4 Talukas (i.e. Rahuri, Nevasa, Shevagaon and Pathardi). Shirampur, Sangamner and Kopargaon Talukas indicate that the area under non-food crop decreased in the first decade but increased in the second decade. Overall Table 5.11 shows that the area under sugarcane, fruits and vegetables increased but at the cost of pulses and oilseeds. In the first decade the area under cereals increased but decreased in the second decade. The area under non-food crops also decreased in the first decade but increased in the second decade.

5.8 LIVESTOCK IN THE DISTRICT

Animal husbandry is an important supplementary economic activity of the Backward Classes, especially this is true about Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Hence, the study intends to look into the changing pattern of livestock in the district across the Talukas especially in the selected region. Table 5.12 shows the percentage change in livestock in the district of Ahmadnagar. This study considers two periods, the first between 1978 and 1982, and subsequently the period between 1982 and 1987.

TABLE 5.11 : CHANGES IN AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS IN THE DISTRICT.

No	Taluka	Total cereals	Total pulses	Sugar-cane	Fruits-veg.	Total oil	Total non-food	GCA/NCA
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Nagar	DI	D	I	I	I	ID	DI
2	Rahuri	D	DI	I	D	ID	D	D
3	Shrirampur	DI	DI	ID	I	D	DI	DI
4	Nevasa	D	D	I	I	ID	D	ID
5	Shevagaon	I	DI	I	ID	ID	D	ID
6	Pathardi	I	DI	I	ID	I	D	DI
7	Jankhed	ID	D	I	SI	DI	I	I
8	Karjat	DI	D	I	I	I	ID	DI
9	Shrigonda	D	D	I	I	I	ID	ID
10	Parner	D	DI	I	DI	ID	ID	I
11	Akola	D	D	I	I	D	I	DI
12	Sangamner	ID	ID	I	I	DI	DI	D
13	Kopargaon	ID	DI	ID	DI	DI	DI	DI
Total		ID	D	I	I	D	DI	ID

Notes :

a :

- Ist decade 1961-62 to 1970-71
 2nd decade 1970-71 to 1980-81
 Averages : 1. 1960-61, 1961-62, 1962-63
 2. 1969-70, 1970-71, 1971-72
 3. 1979-80, 1980-81, 1981-82
 4. 1990-91, 91-92, 92-93 not available

b :

- I = increase in both decades.
 D = decrease in both decades.
 ID = increase in first decade and decrease in second decade.
 DI = decrease in first decade and increase in second decade.
 SI = stagnant in first decade and increase in second decade.
 DS = decrease in first decade and stagnant in second decade.

Source : Various District Statistical Abstract of Ahmadnagar District.

The percentage change in the live-stock between 1978-1982, (first change) and 1982-1987 (second change) shows that the cattle decreased in 3 Talukas (Pathardi, Akola and Kopergaon), and Buffaloes decreased in 4 Talukas (Shrirampur, Karjat, Parner and Sangamner). Sheep decreased in two Talukas (Shrigonda and Sangamner); Goat decreased in 2 Talukas (Jamkhed and Karjat). While poultry also shows a decline in the first change, in the second change it registered increase in 8 Talukas (Nagar, Rahuri, Nevasa, Shevagaon, Pathardi, Karjat, Shrigonda and Kopergaon). But overall picture shows that the total livestock and poultry increased in the district over the period. Table 5.12 reveals that buffaloes, sheep and goat decreased between 1978 to 1982 but it increased between 1982 to 1987. Only domestic cattle increased between 1978-1982 and decreased between 1982-1987. But in the latter period, hybrid cattle increased substantially in the district.

5.8 AVAILABILITY OF AMENITIES IN THE DISTRICT

The availability of the infrastructural amenities is a basic need of the socio-economic development. Still in India, regions and villages lack in the basic amenities. Among the basic infrastructural amenities, schools, medical facilities, the source of drinking water, power supply and communication system, i.e., post and telegraph, transport facility, power supply are considered in this study to see the comparative picture of the availability of

TABLE 5.12 : CHANGE IN LIVESTOCK TALUKAS AND THE DISTRICT
1978-82 AND 1982-1987

No	Taluka	Cattle	hybrid cattle	buffaloes	Sheep	Goat	Total total live poultry stock
1	Nagar	I	I	I	DI	I I	DI
2	Rahuri	DI	I	I**	DI	DI I	DI
3	Shrirampur	DI	I	D	DI	DI DI	I
4	Nevasa	I	I	I	DI	DI I	DI
5	Shevagaon	I	I	I	I	DI I	DI
6	Pathardi	D	I	I	ID	DI DI	DI
7	Jamkhed	ID	I	DI	DI	D ID	ID
8	Karjat	ID	I	D	DI	D D	DI
9	Shrigonda	ID	I	I	D	I I	DI
10	Parner	ID	I	D	ID	DI ID	I
11	Akola	D	I	I	ID	I I	I
12	Sangamner	ID	I	ID	D	DI I	I
13	Kopergaon	D	I	D	ID	DI I	DI
Total District		ID	I	DI	DI	DI I	I

Note : 1. * 1978-1982 Figures are not available

** 1982-87 figures are not available

Source : Various District Statistical Abstract
of Ahmadnagar District.

infrastructural amenities. Table 5.13 gives the information regarding the availability of these amenities in the district and in the study area. Primary education facilities are available in almost all the villages in the district. The density of primary schools, middle schools, matriculation middle schools and junior colleges per lakh of population in the district were 56.81, 13.21, 8.78 and 1.36 respectively in 1981. The average number of primary school, middle school, matriculation school and junior colleges in the district were 118.46, 27.54, 18.31 and 2.85 respectively in Ahmadnagar district. The Table 5.13 indicates that there is a wide gap between the availability of the amenities in the study area. Out of 13 Talukas five Talukas show the primary school, middle level educational institution above the district average.

Four Talukas show that the number of dispensaries and Primary Health Centres (PHC) were above the district average and remaining Talukas these were below district average. The proportion of dispensary, primary health centre and family planning centre shows 7.52, 3.32 and 1.22 respectively for one lakh population of the district.

TABLE 5.13 AVAILABILITY OF IMPORTANT AMENITIES IN THE STUDY AREA

Sr. NO.	Amenities	Density of amenities per 1 lakh population	Average of districts	Names of Talukas having amenities higher than district average	Number of Talukas lower than district average
1	EDUCATION				
1.1	Primary schools	56.81	118.46	Nevasa, Pathardi, Parner, Akola, Sanganner (5)	8
1.2	Middle schools	13.21	27.54	Rahuri, Pathardi, Karjat, Sanganner, Kopargaon (5)	8
1.3	Matriculation	8.78	18.31	Nagar, Shrirampur, Shevagaon, Parner, Akola, Kopargaon (6)	7
2	MEDICAL				
2.1	Dispensary	7.52	15.69	Nagar, Shrirampur, Nevasa, Pathardi, Parner, Sanganner, Kopargaon (7)	6
2.2	P.H.C	3.32	6.92	Rahuri, Shrirampur, Karjat, Akola (4)	9
2.3	Villages having no medical facilities		86.23	Nevasa, Pathardi, Shrigonda, Parner, Akola, Sanganner (6)	7
3	DRINKING WATER				
3.1	Tap	2.78	5.69	Shrirampur, Shevagaon, Shrigonda, Nagar (4)	9
3.2	Well	52.19	188.85	Nagar, Nevasa, Pathardi, Sanganner, Parner, Akola (6)	7
3.3	River	28.18	41.92	Rahuri, Nevasa, Karjat, Akola, Sanganner, Kopargaon (6)	7
3.4	More than one	38.91	64.46	Nagar, Nevasa, Sanganner, Pathardi, Karjat, Parner, Akola (7)	6
4	Post offices	22.82	45.92	Nagar, Shevagaon, Shrigonda, Parner, Kopargaon (5)	8
5	Bus stop	37.22	77.62	Nagar, Pathardi, Karjat, Parner, Akola, Shevagaon (6)	7
6	Availability of power	43.77	91.95	Nagar, Rahuri, Nevasa, Shevagaon, Parner, Akola, Sanganner, Kopargaon (8)	5
Total				72	97
				42.68	57.68
average within				5.54	7.46

Note : Remaining Talukas show less than district average.
Source : Census of India 1981, (1986), pp. 136-137.

Well is the main source of drinking water in the district. The number of wells for one lakh population was 52.19 in the district. The power supply was available in all the Talukas, but some villages were lacking in this facility. The power supply was available in 79.17 per cent of villages in all Talukas and remaining 20.83 do not have power supply.

In Ahmadnagar district five Talukas have the primary schools with more than district average including Nevasa and Sangamner Talukas in 1981.

Six Talukas, including Nevasa and Sangamner show that less medical facilities were available in the villages. Post Offices and bus stops are more than the district average in the five Talukas. According to 1981 Census the availability of power supply is low in five Talukas excluding Nevasa and Sangamner Talukas of the district.

5.10 TALUKAWISE PROGRESS OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL SCHEMES :

Among the various developmental programmes taken up for the Scheduled Casts and Scheduled Tribes in the district, Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRD) was the only attempt which began with the identification of the final intended target group. All the other programmes were area based programme and hence it is difficult to analyse the exact benefits realised by the beneficiaries. In order to understand the progress of the developmental programmes for the families below the poverty line including the Scheduled

Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the data for IRDP are analysed for the period 1981-82 to 1988-89. Table 5.14 gives the progress of IRDP in the district. In Ahmadnagar district, there are about 365000 families, out of these 49.30 per cent (179768) families are below poverty line (BPL). Among these 66.32 per cent (119226) were selected for the programme participation. After the selection out of the below poverty line families, 65.86 per cent (78528) were covered under the various schemes of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) during 1981-82 to 1988-89 period. Among the total families below poverty line 23.85 per cent (28433) and 18.10 percent (21584) families belonged to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes communities respectively in the district. During the period 1981-82 to 1988-89, 61.45 per cent (17473) Scheduled Castes and 38.70 per cent (8354) Scheduled Tribes families were covered under the various developmental schemes of Integrated Rural development Programme (IRDP). An attempt is made here to understand the talukwise progress of the implementation of the various schemes on the basis of the selected number of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes families below the poverty line. The talukwise surplus and shortfall of below poverty line families are worked out to note the Talukwise surplus and shortfall. Out of the 13 Talukas of Ahmadnagar district 6 Talukas shows surplus whereas 7 Talukas indicated shortfall. The distribution of Talukas according to their surplus and shortfall is presented in Table 5.15.

TABLE 5.14 : TALUKAWISE PROGRESS OF INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

(TOTAL OF 1981-82 TO 1988-89)

Sr. Name of No. Taluka	No. of Families	BPL Families	BPL Selected	Covered Beneficiaries	Total SC Families	Covered SC Families	Total ST Families	Covered ST Families
1 NAGAR	8.83	6.59	8.34	6.93	10.71	7.93	3.29	2.89
2 PATHARDI	7.17	8.12	10.87	8.21	11.30	6.69	2.60	3.51
3 KARJAT	6.81	3.45	4.48	6.55	7.81	8.41	1.48	0.95
4 SHRIGONDA	7.59	4.78	6.82	5.89	8.78	6.51	1.96	1.78
5 PARNER	7.88	12.55	8.63	8.73	6.58	7.17	4.23	4.37
6 SHRIRAM.	9.13	13.10	8.85	9.11	11.58	11.97	9.87	6.89
7 KOPARGAOM	9.67	10.86	13.13	9.55	8.67	10.87	11.48	8.79
8 RAHURI	7.59	5.46	6.10	6.77	5.32	7.22	7.33	11.52
9 NEVASA	7.14	7.58	4.47	9.47	6.20	9.16	3.26	8.49
10 SHEVGAON	7.57	6.96	3.48	6.69	4.99	7.63	8.87	1.86
11 JAMKHEDE	4.21	4.58	5.21	6.14	6.88	7.87	1.25	1.68
12 AKOLA	7.73	9.55	11.23	8.62	3.65	2.88	48.98	48.77
13 SANGAMNER	9.46	7.29	9.19	7.31	7.69	5.69	12.21	7.39
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
TOTAL	(364633)	(179768)	(119226)	(78528)	(28433)	(17473)	(21584)	(8354)

Notes : 1) BPL = Below Poverty Line., 2) Figures are in Percentages.
 3) SC = Scheduled Castes, 4) ST = Scheduled Tribes.

Source : District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) Office, Ahmadnagar.

The main purpose of the exercise is to calculate the talukawise progress of various developmental schemes in terms of surplus and shortfall and also to identify the talukawise performance of the programmes in Ahmadnagar district. The exercise revealed that out of 13 Talukas 6

**TABLE 5.15 : DISTRIBUTION OF TALUKAS OF AHMADNAGAR DISTRICT
ACCORDING TO THEIR PROGRESS (SURPLUS AND SHORTFALL) FOR THE
PERIOD OF 1981-82 TO 1988-89**

SR. NO.	PARTICULARS	TALUKAS	
1.	Surplus	1) Nevasa 2) Shevagaon 3) Rahuri	4) Jankhed 5) Karjat 6) Parner
2.	Shortfall	1) Sangamner 2) Pathardi 3) Nagar 4) Kopargaon	5) Akola 6) Shrigonda 7) Shrirampur

Source : Calculated from Table 5.14.

Talukas have surplus and 7 Talukas have shortfall in various developmental schemes. The highest surplus is recorded in Nevasa Taluka whereas, the value of shortfall is largest in Sangamner Taluka. The below poverty line families including the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes families are benefited more than any other Taluka of the Ahmadnagar district. At the same time, the value of shortfall as seen for Sangamner Taluka indicated that, the below poverty line families including the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes families are benefited here less than any other Taluka of the district. These two Talukas Nevasa and Sangamner of the district Ahmadnagar provide the facts behind the success as well as failure of the various developmental programmes. On the basis of these two extrem situations, it is possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

5.11 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Ahmadnagar district is one of the drought-prone but socially and economically prosperous districts of the State of Maharashtra. According to 1991 Census the Scheduled Castes population was 418 thousand and Scheduled Tribes population was 240 thousand. It constitutes 12.41 thousand per cent and 7.12 per cent respectively. Among the main workers in the district, 47.43 per cent are cultivators, 28.33 per cent are agricultural labourers, 2.02 per cent are engaged in household industry and 22.22 per cent are engaged in other services in 1981 Census. Rate of work participation of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was higher in 4 Talukas than the district level. According to the 1981 Census among the blocks of the district Sangamner and Nevasa ranked 5th and 7th in terms of the literacy rates and lower than the district level. Among the individual land holdings, marginal farmers constitute dominant group among Scheduled Castes whereas, the medium and small farmers are dominant among Scheduled Tribes.

The concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population in the district is quite close to the State Average. The work participation rate as well as other economic indicators of the district across Talukas, indicator significantly different patterns of development. There are Talukas which have yet to get into the mainstream of development and at the same time there are prospering

Talukas. Various developmental Programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are being implemented in the district. Integrated Rural Development programme is the only programme which began with the identification of the beneficiaries families and thus gives a clear picture of the spread of the people below poverty line in the districts as well as the concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes among the beneficiaries. The analysis of the coverage under IRDP indicates the surplus and shortfall in terms of the targets covered for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In terms of this coverage Sangamner and Nevasa are the two Talukas which show the highest shortfall and surplus respectively. Therefore we have selected these two Talukas for the purpose of the analysis.

CHAPTER VI

FACTORS DETERMINING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAMMES - A MICRO LEVEL ANALYSIS

6.1 : INTRODUCTION :

Effectiveness of any developmental programme is a function of several pre-programme characteristics. It is also determined by the conditions during implementation as well as responses of the beneficiaries. Thus, defining effectiveness on a multiple scale becomes difficult. In fact, effectiveness would mean the change in the pre-programme parameters per unit of the change inducer. But most of the programmes have various focus and their spectrum or influence is also quite wide. These programmes are intended to touch various aspects of the socio-economic fibre of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The present chapter is intended to analyse the factors determining the effectiveness of the developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The analysis here is in two parts. The first part deals with the impact of the programme and the second part includes an attempt to locate the major determinants of the effectiveness of the developmental programmes.

For the purpose of the analysis, the data collected from the study area was divided into the following five sections. The Sections are : (1) Pre-assistance and present Socio Economic condition. (2) Identification of beneficiaries and procedure adopted by the sanctioning authorities for the sanction of the scheme. (3) Agricultural Development. (4) Asset, loan and overdue problem of the beneficiaries. (5) Consumption pattern.

The analysis under this section focuses mainly on identification of the present conditions of the beneficiaries of the programme which indicate one angle of the effectiveness. The last section deals with the determinants of the effectiveness.

6.1 PRE-ASSISTANCE AND PRESENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITION

The knowledge of Socio-Economic conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes communities before the assistance period and post assistance period is essential for an analysis of effectiveness of the development Programmes. Among the various parameters considered here, the important characteristics are population profile, literacy level, occupational structure, and level of income during both pre and post assistance periods of sample households.

6.1.1 POPULATION PROFILE :

The total population of 178 sample households is 1052. It includes 53.33 percent male and 46.67 percent females. The male-female sex ratio is quite low. Age composition is an indicator showing the proportion of work force in the population. Out of the total population, 2.76 percent population is more than 60 years old; 17.21 percent children aging below 6 years and 34.60 percent in the age group of 18 to 60 years, which is, the main workforce of the population, and 28.14 (296) percent is in the age group of 6 to 18, out of which 2.47 percent children work as a child labour and the remaining are attending the schools.

6.1.2 LITERACY PROFILE

Literacy is quite an important indicator of the socio-economic development. The improvement in the level of literacy can be one of the indicators to explain effectiveness of the developmental programmes implemented for the upliftment of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The literacy level of the sample population shows that every second person is literate but among the literates about half of them have attended only 4 years of schooling. Hardly a decile of the members of the selected households have crossed the eighth standard. The major reason for poor literacy is possibly the poverty. Nearly 50 percent of the dropouts are due to poor economic conditions of the family

which makes them to work for the family. The remaining dropouts have variety of other reasons.

The educational level also goes with the level of income. It was noted that 67.13 percent literate persons were in the income group of Rs.6,400 to Rs.20,000 and only 32.87 percent were below Rs.6400 income group. This explains that two third of the literates are from well to do family. Thus, economic condition is the major factor behind school drop outs.

It is also observed from educational level across assets of sample households that 65.52 percent literate persons were in the asset group of Rs.5,000 to Rs.20,000 and 34.48 percent illiterate persons were in the asset group below Rs.5,000. It indicates that the level of education is also a function of asset holding in the group of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

Consumption expenditure and educational level shows an interesting relationship. It is observed that 47.13 percent literate persons are in the annual consumption expenditure of Rs.12,000 and above. And 52.87 percent literate persons fall in the category of annual consumption expenditure below Rs.12,000. The data reveals that the level of literacy is very low across the total annual consumption expenditure below Rs 7000.

6.1.3 OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE :

The classification of sample households into different occupational groups is made on the basis of their principal occupation. The standard sectoral distribution used here i.e. primary, secondary and tertiary. It is evident from the Table 6.1.1 that as expected considerable share of the

TABLE 6.1.1 : OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS IN THE STUDY AREA.

SR. NO.	OCCUPATION	PERCENTAGE TO THE TOTAL SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS
1	2	3
1. PRIMARY SECTOR		
1.1	Cultivators	24.72
1.2	Fishery	3.37
1.3	Agricultural Labour	42.13
1.4	Live-Stock	7.33
	TOTAL	77.53
2. SECONDARY SECTOR		
2.1	Traditional Occupation *	16.29
2.2	Skilled	2.25
	TOTAL	18.54
3. SERVICE SECTOR		
3.1	Trade	1.69
3.2	Service	2.25
	TOTAL	3.93
	TOTAL (1+2+3)	178

NOTE : * Household industries of rural artisans.

1. Total in absolute figures.

sample households are engaged in primary sector which includes cultivators, agricultural labour and fisheries followed by secondary sector (18.54 percent) and Service Sector (3.93 percent).

6.1.4 : INCOME DISTRIBUTION

The information regarding the level of income of the beneficiaries before participating in any scheme of Integrated Rural Development Programme has been collected from the registers at the Block Development Office (BDO). This information was collected by the BDO in 1982-83 under the guidelines issued by the Central Government. There were

TABLE 6.1.2 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS ACCORDING TO THE PRE-ASSISTANCE INCOME

SR. NO.	INCOME GROUP (Rs.)	PERCENTAGE TO TOTAL SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS
1	up to 1000	26.40
2	1001- 1800	14.04
3	1801- 2500	24.16
4	2501- 3500	29.21
5	3501- 4800	19.10
6	4801- 8400	1.12
Total		178

- Notes :
1. Total is in absolute figure.
 2. In the State of Maharashtra this Survey was conducted between April and June 1982.
 3. In 1978-79 average size of family assumed was 5. Those families having an income from all sources less than Rs.3500 per annum were treated as below poverty line family.

three Survey Schedules (i) list of families, (ii) assessment of income and (iii) proforma of the scheme. Table 6.1.2 shows the distribution of the sample households according to the income from all sources before receiving the assistance.

The information furnished in Table 6.1.2 explains that more than 50 per cent or close to third of the beneficiaries of Integrated Rural Development Programme have income less than Rs. 2500. It also shows that nearly one fifth of the non eligible persons got the benefits of poverty alleviation programme, (Rs. 3500 poverty line in 1980-81).

6.2 : PARTICIPATION IN THE PROGRAMMES

There are quite a few programmes operating in the region and these are mutually non exclusive, in other words run simultaneously. It was noted that quite a few beneficiaries have availed benefits from more than one programme. The discussion here includes the sanctioning procedure and distribution of beneficiaries in the sample.

6.2.1 : PARTICIPATION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS IN VARIOUS DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES

Various developmental programmes are being implemented in the study area. Beneficiaries have participated in nine major programmes namely i) Hostel facilities ii) Indira Awas Yojana iii) Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) vi) Mahatma Phule Magasvargiya Vikas Mahanandal (Provides Basic Capital) v) Rajur Adivasi Vikas Mahanandal (Livestock and other Schemes) vi) Cooperative Societies vii)

TABLE 6.2.1 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS ACCORDING TO THE PROGRAMMES

Sr. No.	Name of the programme/ Institutions	Total No. of Sample House- holds in Sanganner and Nevasa Talukas
1.	Hostel	19.66
2.	Indira Awas Yojana	12.36
3.	Integrated Rural Development Programme	53.37
4.	Mahatma Phule Development Corporation, (Basic Capital)	2.25
5.	Rajur Adivasi Vikas Mahamandal (Livestock and other schemes)	1.69
6.	Co-operative Societies (Short Term Loans for Agriculture)	1.69
7.	Panchayat Samiti (House Sites)	0.56
8.	TRYSEM (Training of Service Sector)	6.74
9.	KVIC (Finance for Traditional Village Industries)	1.69
Total		178

Notes : 1) IRDP = Integrated Rural Development Programme.
2) TRYSEM = Training of Rural Youth for Self
Employment.
3) KVIC = Khadi and Village Industries Commission.

Panchayat Samiti (Provides House Sites) viii) Training of Rural Youths for Self Employment (TRYSEM - Training for service sector), and ix) Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC - Finance for Traditional Village Industries).

The importance of education is increasing over time in the rural area. The Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Communities are availing the boarding school facilities at increasing rate.

More than 10 percent of the respondents have come to own homes under the Programme of Indira Awas Yojana, (Table 6.2.1). In addition, they are also taking the financial assistance from the Mahatma Phule Magasvargiya Vikas Mahamandal in the study area. Tribals have their own problems and difficulties. To tackle their problems and difficulties, Tribal Development Corporation is working in the Tribal Areas. Primary Co-operative Societies provide working capital at the grass root level in the study area.

Integrated Rural Development Programme was focussed improve the welfare of the rural people. The main purpose of this programme is to provide assets to the families to generate additional income and employment which will enable them to cross the poverty line. More than half (53.37 per cent) of the sample households were benefited under the IRDP. Some training is provided under the TRYSEM scheme along with the stipend. Mahatma Phule Development

Corporation provides assistance to the poor families, particularly, the basic capital to those families who are not able to pay their share of the project to the financial institutions. The rural part of India mostly depends on village and traditional industries, which require relatively small amount of capital. Such type of capital is available from the Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC).

6.2.2 : SANCTIONING PROCEDURE

All the sample households were rural based and their houses are outside the village settlements therefore, they were unable to get any information about the Government Schemes. The main source of the information to them was the Village Development Officer (VDO - Gramsevak). The other sources of information were Bank managers, Chairmen of the Village Panchayat and teachers. Only a few get the information directly from the concerned Government agency. It is interesting to note here that the decision to participate in the programme is taken combinedly by all the villagers.

To fill the application form, the applicants have to incur some expenditure to collect various documents. The inquiry revealed that nearly half of the beneficiaries did not spend any amount to collect the documents. While the remaining have paid up to Rs. 200. This difference in the transaction cost explains the level of influence of some of the households with the officials as well as village

headman. After submitting the filled application form to the office, sanctioning of the scheme involves considerable time lag.

To acquire the assistance under Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) beneficiaries need to produce some security in the form of land or house. But most of the beneficiaries do not have either of their own land or house and they have to depend on the others. The security amount varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 400 according to the scheme. Though insuring the scheme assets was compulsory under IRDP, only 42 percent of the beneficiaries insured their assets at the time of purchasing. The insurance expenditure is included in the total price of the assets. After sanctioning the loan more than one third beneficiaries got the assistance in one instalment, the remaining received it in more than two instalments.

While half of the beneficiaries stated that they have received their assistance in kind, the remaining have received it in cash. The assets were purchased in the place suggested by the authorities in many cases. Similarly, above 72 per cent beneficiaries purchased the assets in their presence whereas for the other it was supplied. Some beneficiaries reported lack of resources for the purchase of the required asset.

6.2.3 : SCHEME INCOMES

Here an attempt has been made to work out the annual income generated by the assets provided under IRDP schemes. This explains the effectiveness of the scheme and the condition of the beneficiaries after participation in the scheme. The distribution of the sample households by their scheme income is presented in Table 6.2.2. It can be seen that nearly 47 per cent of the beneficiaries could not generate any income. This is almost the same in both the selected Talukas. Even among others nearly 20 per cent are generating less than Rs. 10,000. Whereas another 15 per cent have income upto Rs. 10,000.

TABLE 6.2.2 : SCHEME INCOME OF THE SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

SR. NO.	SCHEME INCOME GROUP (RS)	SANGAMNER	NEVASA	TOTAL
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Nil	46.73	47.89	47.19
2.	upto 500	21.50	11.27	7.42
3.	501 to 1000	5.61	1.41	3.93
4.	1001 to 2000	8.41	2.82	6.18
5.	2001 to 10000	4.67	16.90	9.55
6.	100001 to 25000	4.67	5.63	5.06
7.	Above 25000	8.41	14.08	10.67
TOTAL		107.00	71.00	178.00

Note : Total is in absolute figures.

Only 15 per cent of the beneficiaries fall in the income group more than Rs. 10,000. This means that the schemes has helped only 15 per cent of the people to cross the poverty line. Between the two Talukas Nevasa has shown better income generation from the schemes than Sanganner.

6.3 AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Having seen the distribution of beneficiaries on the basis of schemes availed, it is clear that the schemes falling under agriculture and live-stock play a significant part in the poverty alleviation schemes. Hence, it is necessary to understand the nature of agricultural development in general and the sample households in particular. This section makes an attempt to highlight the issues involved in the process of development of the weaker section.

The agrarian structure of the weaker section is highly uneven and the asset distribution is also in favour of the dominant farming communities. The weaker sections share a very small portion of the land holding in the rural areas. This is noticed in the study area also. The sample households have skewed distributed agricultural assets structure.

6.3.1. LAND HOLDINGS

The distribution of agricultural households on the basis of the ownership of land holding is presented in Table

6.3.1. About 46 per cent of the sample household is landless

1. This refers to IRDP Scheme Income alone and not the Total Income of the household.

and almost 98 per cent have the land holding below 4 hectares. Thus land is not a major asset among the sample household. It is generally observed that the group of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes hold very little land. As it represents social prestige, the other landed class does not allow this class to hold large portion of land.

TABLE 6.3.1 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS ACROSS THE SIZE OF LAND HOLDING

SR. NO.	FARM SIZE (ha.)	SANGAMNER	NEVASA	TOTAL
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Landless	42.99	50.70	46.07
2.	Upto 1 ha	24.30	32.39	27.53
3.	1.1 to 2.00 ha	17.76	11.27	15.17
4.	2.1 to 4.00 ha	11.21	4.23	8.43
5.	4.1 to 10.00 ha	3.74	1.41	2.81
6.	Above 10 ha	-	-	-
7.	TOTAL	107	71	178
8.	Average farm size (In hectares)	0.8	0.4	0.8

Note : The totals are in absolute figures.

6.3.2 MARKETING HABITS OF THE SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

At the village level, the access to inputs and market to dispose off the agricultural produce are the major hardships faced by the inhabitants. Since the markets are not in the close vicinity, the transportation cost of the commodities both from and to the market is relatively high. This puts the farmer in a critical situation of getting lower net price for their produce and paying higher price for purchasing the inputs. In other words, market access leads to larger inequality and thus the normal benefits get truncated. This particular problem is severely faced by the respondents. This is also true in the case of the factor market operations.

About 72 per cent of the respondents had to make regular visits to Taluka head quarters to purchase major inputs. The transport cost involved in transporting the purchased inputs was high and the quality of input supplied was also not of the acceptable standard. Information about marketing indicates that in Nevasa Taluka 85.71 per cent did not have enough agricultural production to meet even their domestic need. In Sangamner Taluka 80.33 per cent households reported that agricultural output is enough only for their family.

6.3.3 IMPROVED FARMING PRACTICES :

Since horizontal expansion of cultivable land is not possible and the wage rate for agricultural labour are also increasing, the cultivators are using intensive cultivation techniques and labour substituting inputs respectively. In India, the experience of cultivation shows that the use of modern inputs like High Yielding Variety (HYV) seeds, fertilizers, pesticides, electric pumpsets and tractors contribute to reduction in the cost of cultivation, and as a result, increasing per capita income. Even the Farm Mechanisation can give them more leisure time to avail other benefits. Hence, the use of tractors for the cultivation, chemical fertilisers, pesticides and electric pumpsets are emphasized in the modern agriculture. While some of the respondents (17 per cent) are using tractors in their small holdings, a significant number of respondents are using chemical fertilisers also. Those who are cultivating High Yielding Variety also apply pesticides to protect their crops from pests and diseases.

6.3.4 CROPPING PATTERN

The cropping pattern of the study area indicated that Bajara is the principal crop of almost all the land holders which account 70.83 per cent of area. The value of Bajara production is the highest and 47 per cent of the value of total production. Jowar and Wheat occupy the second and third place respectively. Math is a mixed crop with bajara.

But the area under bajara is lower with the increasing size of holding. The total area under kharif crops paddy, pulse, gram, bean and green bean constitute about 11 per cent. In Rabi season the total area under wheat and Jowar was 12.17 per cent and 10.26 per cent respectively. The area under Jowar is increasing across the farm sizes. The area under Wheat crop is decreasing across farm size in both Talukas of the study area.

The large area under food crops like Bajara, Jowar and wheat indicated that the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe households depend on these crops to meet the consumption needs. The Table also shows that the area under major food crops except Jowar is decreasing. It means that the farmers prefer the commercial crops like the drought tolerant oilseeds. A small number of sample households are cultivating oil seeds, onion and fodder crop, and their size of land is also very small.

8.3.5 : PRODUCTIVITY OF DIFFERENT CROPS

The productivity of the crop is an important indicator to find out the efficiency of the use of labours and other inputs in the production. The average land holdings of the study area is 1.16 ha. The value of total crop production is Rs.131026, (Table 6.3.2) with the total cultivated area of 111.54 ha. The productivity of all crops thus works out as Rs.1172 per ha. The productivity across size of holding indicated that the productivity of the farmers having land

less than 1 ha. is the highest (Rs.1550) followed by second and fourth group of farm sizes. The lowest productivity is observed in the third group of farm size. It cannot be concluded that the productivity is inversely related to the size of land holdings. However, productivity is increasing when the size of landholding is 4.1 to 10.00 ha. for certain crops.

TABLE 6.3.2 : PRODUCTIVITY OF THE CROPS

		(In Rs. per ha.)									
Sr. No.	Crops	Sangaaner				Nevasa				Total	
		I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	Sangaaner	Nevasa
1.	Jowar	926	3900	763	175	950	825	1513	183	1126	951
2.	Bajara	2192	1337	676	491	840	596	233	-	1111	646
3.	Wheat	3568	2881	1313	3857	2625	-	2863	-	2886	2250
4.	Pulse	-	-	-	-	-	955	-	-	-	955
5.	Bean	184	35	65	-	264	-	-	-	78	140
6.	Sugarcane	-	-	-	8333	-	-	-	-	8383	-
7.	Groundnut	-	7000	-	8250	-	-	-	8750	-	-
8.	Onion	6250	-	3800	1250	-	-	-	-	5989	-
9.	Green Bean	122	36	36	-	-	-	-	-	58	-
10.	Other Crops	765	2971	7600	1885	772	-	-	-	2868	722
Total		2098	1574	650	1180	762	685	1410	181	1279	861

Notes : 1) Other crops includes Rice, Gram, Fodder and vegetables.

2) I = Up to 1 ha. II = 1.1 to 2 ha.

 III = 2.1 to 4 ha. IV = 4.1 to 10 ha.

6.3.6 : SIZE OF HOLDINGS AND ANNUAL INCOME

The average annual income of all sample households is about Rs.13,000 per household. The highest average annual income is in the farm size group of 1 to 2 ha. and lowest is observed in the farm size group of 4.1 to 10 ha. The average annual income of the landless labourers is Rs.12,000.

Table 6.3.3 shows the distribution of sample households across levels and size of farm. The data reveals that 27.53 per cent of the households fall in the income group of Rs.6,401 to Rs.11,000. Out of 82 landless sample households, 71.17 are living below poverty line. If we consider Rs. 6,400 annual income limit as poverty line, 41.46 per cent sample households are living below poverty line and 58.54 (48) per cent landless sample households have crossed the poverty line and achieved higher income levels. It indicates that people who own lands could cross the poverty barrier more easily. This implies that the poverty alleviation programmes can make a positive impact on those who have some permanent immovable income generating assets.

6.4 VALUE OF ASSETS, LOAN AND OVERDUES

The data reveals that the highest value of assets was Rs.29,050 and the minimum total value of assets was Rs.1,000 of the individual sample households. The landless sample household's average total value of assets is Rs.7,306. Majority of the sample households (73.60 per cent) are living in huts which are made of mud and dried leaves. For

**TABLE 8.3.3 : AVERAGE INCOME AND LAND HOLDING SIZE ACROSS THE
INCOME AND SIZE OF THE LAND HOLDINGS (GROUPS)**

Sr. No.	Income Group RS.	Size of Land Holding					Total
		NIL	Upto 1 ha.	1.1to2 ha.	2.1to4 ha.	4.1to10 ha.	
1	Upto 1000						
	AI	209.0	208.0	434.0	0.0	265.0	251.0
	AH	0.0	0.0	1.05	0.0	4.0	0.5
2	1001 - 1800						
	AI	1536.0	1420.0	1369.0	0.0	0.0	1422.8
	AH	0.0	0.5	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.7
3	1801 - 2500						
	AI	2121.4	2135.0	2285.0	2160.0	0.0	2150.7
	AH	0.0	0.9	1.2	2.3	0.0	0.9
4	2501 - 3500						
	AI	3198.0	3360.0	3205.0	3158.5	0.0	3213.0
	AH	0.0	0.8	1.6	2.4	0.0	1.2
5	3501 - 4800						
	AI	4185.5	3996.0	4477.0	4590.0	0.0	4181.8
	AH	0.0	0.4	1.9	3.0	0.0	0.4
6	4801 - 6400						
	AI	5399.9	5607.8	5648.3	0.0	5912.0	5539.1
	AH	0.0	0.4	1.3	0.0	4.0	0.6
7	6401 - 11000						
	AI	7975.4	8281.7	9435.7	9358.0	10475.0	8367.3
	AH	0.0	0.3	1.3	2.0	4.8	0.5
8	11001- 20000						
	AI	15419.2	14217.3	16103.3	14885.3	12307.5	14745.8
	AH	0.0	0.4	1.3	2.5	5.0	1.0
9	ABOVE 20000						
	AI	41628.2	37130.3	35037.4	25252.3	0.0	37384.3
	AH	0.0	0.4	1.2	2.0	0.0	0.6
10	Total	82	49	27	15	5	178
	AI	12089.6	15435.0	14449.6	11428.5	8253.4	13204.8
	AH	0.0	0.4	1.3	2.3	4.6	0.6

Notes : 1. AI = Average Income
AH = Average Land Holdings.
2. Land size in hectares and income in Rs. per household.

building houses, they used mostly the shrub wood, durability of which is not more than 1-2 years. Every year, during the early rainy season, they have to repair their huts, and the walls are also made by the same leaves or similar material. The houses which are provided under the Scheme of Indira Awas Yojana were constructed outside the villages. The distance is more than half a kilometer from the original village settlement. Only 4.49 per cent of sample households reported that they have used tiles in their houses. About 78 and 21 per cent of the sample households are using kerosene lamps and electric lamps respectively. Whereas, only 2 households are using sweet oil for lighting purpose. Only two sample households reported to have latrine facilities in their house. Four houses have the facility of bathrooms. Only 32.27 per cent sample households reported that the drinking water is available to them through the private well.

Table 6.4.1 provides the distribution of sample households classified according to the value of their houses. This shows that more than 70 per cent of the respondents are living in the house worth less than Rs. 5000 and only 5 per cent of the households live in the houses valued more than Rs. 10000. This shows that the housing condition of the respondents is conspicuously poor.

TABLE 6.4.1 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS BY VALUE OF HOUSE

Sr. No.	Value (Rs.) of house	Proportion of Sample Households		
		Nevasa (%)	Sangamner (%)	Total (%)
1.	Upto 1000	15.48	11.21	12.82
2.	1001-2000	28.17	32.71	30.90
3.	2001-5000	29.58	32.71	31.46
4.	5001-10000	23.94	16.82	19.66
5.	10001-and more	2.82	6.54	5.06
Total		71	107	178

Note : The totals are in absolute figure.

Since the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes communities are mainly depending on agricultural labour for their livelihood, most of the households do not own any land and among those who own some land, the size of holding is very small. The Central Government and Government of Maharashtra have taken measures to improve the asset position of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The aim of the Integrated Rural Development programme was to provide income generating assets to the assetless people. Under this scheme some of the families were provided with the livestock. The livestock holders collect fodder from the neighbouring farmers or graze their stock in the common property resources in the village.

TABLE 6.4.2. : AVERAGE INCOME AND VALUE OF ASSETS BY SIZE CLASSES OF INCOME AND ASSETS

Income\Assets Group	Upto 1000	1001 to 2000	2001 to 3000	3001 to 5000	5001 to 7000	7001 to 10000	10001 to 15000	15001 to 20000	20001 and ABOVE	Total
Rs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Upto 1000										
AI	0.0	0.0	0.0	133.0	178.0	0.0	434.0	0.0	404.0	251.0
AA	500.0	2125.0	0.0	4750.0	5492.0	0.0	11525.0	0.0	25732.5	8770.0
2 1001 - 1800										
AI	0.0	0.0	1180.0	1536.0	0.0	1490.0	1660.0	1240.0	0.0	1422.0
AA	0.0	0.0	3000.0	5000.0	0.0	7400.0	12700.0	15430.0	0.0	8706.0
3 1801 - 2500										
AI	0.0	1872.0	1025.0	2265.0	1960.0	2285.0	2305.0	0.0	2120.0	2150.7
AA	0.0	2000.0	3000.0	4700.0	6500.0	9500.0	12350.0	0.0	20300.0	8783.0
4 2501 - 3500										
AI	3276.0	0.0	0.0	3205.0	3172.5	3360.0	3092.0	0.0	0.0	3213.0
AA	1000.0	0.0	0.0	4000.0	6350.0	9000.0	13930.0	0.0	0.0	6771.7
5 3501 - 4000										
AI	4165.0	3744.0	4590.0	4296.1	0.0	3900.0	4039.5	0.0	0.0	4181.0
AA	600.0	2000.0	3000.0	4181.3	0.0	8200.0	12612.5	0.0	0.0	5782.4
6 4001 - 6400										
AI	5067.0	5616.0	0.0	6076.0	5305.2	0.0	5644.0	0.0	5600.0	5539.1
AA	1000.0	1500.0	0.0	4500.0	6110.0	0.0	12356.3	0.0	31500.0	8265.0
7 6401 - 11000										
AI	0.0	8141.7	8047.3	7910.4	7750.6	8480.0	8290.0	9865.0	9600.5	8367.3
AA	0.0	1003.3	2607.5	4307.1	5935.7	8050.0	12546.1	17503.3	24170.0	8092.0
8 11001- 20000										
AI	0.0	13529.0	15146.0	13851.9	14930.0	14543.0	17263.0	15506.0	12712.5	14745.0
AA	0.0	1900.0	2575.0	4215.7	6033.3	8400.0	11400.0	17900.0	24975.0	8105.5
9 ABOVE 20000										
AI	0.0	37007.5	44442.0	33006.2	36000.0	39242.5	32624.0	35002.5	54323.5	37364.3
AA	0.0	2000.0	2500.0	4206.0	5045.3	9675.0	12540.1	16350.0	36750.0	9137.7
10 Total										
AI	3623.3	12531.9	16361.1	10600.7	16266.0	11931.7	12665.0	16702.5	15116.0	13204.0
AA	783.3	1092.3	2605.9	4326.9	5946.1	8755.0	12375.1	17005.0	26956.3	8371.5

Notes : a) AI = Average Income, AA = Average Value of Assets

Among the total households 32.02 per cent did not have any type of livestock assets. And remaining 67.98 per cent households had assets in the form of livestock. The data indicates that as the value of the livestock increases the income also increases.

Average income of the households across the occupational groups is presented in Table 6.4.3. Income through labour is the main source of livelihood followed by agriculture and livestock. It can be noted that skilled labour is quite low. Thus the major income earning professions have not changed over generations. The similar distribution of income sources was noted in Sanganner as well as Nevasa.

The occupational structure and the amount of loan of sample households is shown in Table 6.4.4. Out of the total sample household, 82.02 per cent do not have loan. The remaining 17.98 per cent sample households reported that they borrowed from various institutions and individuals.

Majority of the households are indebted sample households, farm labourers followed by agriculturists and others. Those who are skilled and working in service are not indebted either to any individuals or institutions. The maximum loan amount is Rs. 9900 in the traditional occupation group and minimum is Rs 250. Overall 17.98 per cent of sample households are indebted.

TABLE 6.4.3 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS ACROSS THE INCOME AND OCCUPATIONS

Income Group Rs.	AGRI. 1	TRADE 2	SERVICE 3	SKILLED 4	TRADITIONAL 5	FISHERY 6	LABOUR 7	LIVESTOK 8	OTHER 9	Total 10
1 Upto 1000	2	0	1	1	1	0	4	0	3	12
AI	566.0	0.0	600.0	200.0	600.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	534.0	620.0
2 1001 - 1000	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	5
AI	1575.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1358.0	1248.0	0.0	1422.8
3 1001 - 2500	4	0	0	1	3	0	1	0	1	10
AI	2173.0	0.0	0.0	1025.0	2140.0	0.0	2380.0	0.0	2190.0	2150.7
4 2501 - 3500	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	6
AI	3225.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	3276.0	0.0	3162.5	0.0	0.0	3213.0
5 3501 - 4000	2	0	0	0	2	1	11	0	1	17
AI	4155.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4042.5	4600.0	4139.9	0.0	4477.0	4181.0
6 4001 - 6400	5	0	1	1	1	0	7	0	0	15
AI	5594.6	0.0	4000.0	5600.0	6135.0	0.0	5400.4	0.0	0.0	5539.1
7 6401 - 10000	10	1	1	1	4	5	23	3	1	49
AI	8646.4	7200.0	6760.0	7000.0	10290.0	7312.0	8260.2	7776.0	10475.0	8367.3
8 10001 - 20000	0	0	0	0	3	0	18	0	0	29
AI	14117.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	16870.3	0.0	14671.0	0.0	0.0	14745.0
9 ABOVE 20000	0	2	1	0	14	0	7	0	3	33
AI	27490.4	34551.0	21370.0	0.0	43360.5	0.0	30465.4	0.0	58957.7	37364.3
10 Total	44	3	4	4	29	6	75	4	9	170
AI	18871.0	25460.7	8402.5	3078.3	24925.7	6074.0	10171.0	6144.0	21675.9	13204.0

Note : AI = Average Income

TABLE 6.4.4 : AMOUNT OF LOAN ACROSS DIFFERENT RANGES OF LOAN AND OCCUPATION

Sr. Occupation No. (Rs.)	Upto to 500	Size Classes of Loan Amount				Total
		501 to 2000	2001 to 5000	5001 to 7000	7001 and Above	
1 AGRI.	0.0	1000.0	2000.0	4333.3	0.0	454.5
2 TRADE	0.0	0.0	0.0	4000.0	0.0	1333.3
3 SERVICE	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4 SKILLED	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5 TRADITIONAL	0.0	850.0	2000.0	3250.0	9800.0	762.1
6 FISHERY	0.0	0.0	2000.0	2500.0	0.0	750.0
7 LABOUR	250.0	0.0	2000.0	3000.0	9000.0	283.3
8 LIVESTOCK	0.0	0.0	0.0	4000.0	0.0	1000.0
9 OTHER	0.0	700.0	0.0	4300.0	9000.0	1555.6
Total	250.0	900.0	2000.0	3608.3	9300.0	504.8

The repayment of loan and its proper utilization is related to the effectiveness of the developmental programmes. However, one of the important reasons for the poor recovery of loan is that the assistance provided under the Integrated Rural Development programme resulted in the skewed distribution of income generating assets. The households could not earn sufficient margin of income over expenditure which is required for repayment of the loans. Another reason for poor recovery was that the purpose for which loan was sanctioned did not get served due to the pungibility.

Loan has been sanctioned to the sample households for productive purpose, but it is doubtful whether, they have really used it for the purpose given. The data shows the income of sample households across amount of loan extended to them. Out of 178 sample households 82.02 per cent could repay the loan. In addition, the data indicate that 82.02 per cent sample households repaid the loan earlier than the stipulated period, because of that they became eligible to get the next loan. This can be attributed to the mandatory condition that all the earlier loans must be repaid before making a fresh demand for loan. Thus, the loan is repaid bad-neither because of the productive utilization of the loan by the sample households nor due to the effective implementation of the developmental programmes. Out of the total beneficiaries 56.19 per cent repaid the loan without delay. They repaid the loans because they wanted to participate again in the new schemes and "No Overdues Certificate" is a necessary pre-condition for availing the benefit of next scheme.

6.5 : CONSUMPTION PATTERN

There exists a major controversy among social scientists regarding the measurement of poverty in developing countries. In spite of such a controversy, the per capita income is commonly accepted as the indicator of poverty. In other words the poverty is measured in terms of minimum requirements of 2400 calories per day per person in

rural areas. The consumption expenditure is broadly divided into two broad groups namely expenditure on food, and non-food expenditure.

The information given in Table 6.5.1 reveals that out of the total consumption expenditure 74.37 per cent was spent on food. The remaining 25.63 per cent of the expenditure was allocated on non-food items.

6.5.1 EXPENDITURE ON FOOD ITEMS

The average per capita expenditure on food grain per month per sample household is Rs. 35.37. The monthly per capita food expenditure of the households is less than the average for about 54 per cent sample households. The average expenditure per month on edible oil worked out to be Rs. 44.08. Their monthly expenditure on cereals is Rs. 7.84 and Rs. 37.92 on pulses per person.

In general the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes are non-vegetarian. But according to the collected information 29.21 per cent of sample households are vegetarian. This is either because of economic reasons or due to the process of Sanskritisation. The average expenditure on meat is Rs. 51.16 per month. Five sample households reported that they never had the taste of sugar. Out of the total sample households 46.43 per cent of households reported inability to buy milk and out of 178 sample households 91.58 per cent reported that they could not afford to spend on fruits.

TABLE 6.5.1 : CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE OF FOOD AND NON-FOOD ITEMS OF THE SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS.

Sr. No.	Items (Rs.)	Annual per person	Monthly per person	Per day per person	Annual per family
A FOOD CONSUMPTION					
1	Staple Food	424.38	35.37	1.18	2508.08
2	Rice	285.60	23.80	0.87	1687.90
3	Edible oil	90.0	7.5	0.25	531.90
4	cereals	94.38	7.84	0.26	558.01
5	Pulses	75.60	6.94	0.21	446.80
6	Spices	83.28	41.04	0.23	492.18
7	Vegetables	99.70	16.87	0.56	689.23
8	Sweets	133.20	11.10	0.37	787.21
9	Milk	39.6	3.30	0.11	234.04
10	Fruits	46.80	3.80	0.13	276.59
11	Non Veg	104.40	8.70	0.29	617.00
	Total Food	1605.00	133.80	4.46	9485.55
B NON-FOOD					
12	Fuel	421.20	35.10	1.17	2489.29
13	Addiction	62.16	5.18	0.17	367.37
14	Medical Care	46.25	3.85	0.13	273.34
15	Foot wear	25.34	2.11	0.07	149.76
	Total Non-Food	554.94	46.20	1.54	3279.70
TOTAL		2159.94	180.00	6.00	12765.25

Note : Average family size = 5.91.

6.5.2 EXPENDITURE ON NON-FOOD ITEMS

The sample households are mainly using firewood as fuel for cooking. For lighting purpose, 75.98 per cent of household are using kerosene and the rest (40.45 per cent) are using electricity. The average expenditure on fuel per month is Rs 35.08. Among the total of sample households, 84 per cent have habit of consuming pan, tobacco and liquer. The average expenditure on these type of itens is Rs. 30.64 per month. The annual average household expenditure on medical care is Rs 273.37. Information regarding the expenditure on foot wear revealed that four families do not have any type of footwear. Among the remaining reported that their expenditure was between Rs. 50 to 100 for the period of 1 year.

6.5.3 : CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE ACROSS THE INCOME GROUPS OF THE SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

The classification of the consumption expenditure on the basis of the calory intake i.e. 2400 calories per person per day at the prices of 1960-61 suggests a poverty line of Rs. 170.80 per capita per annum of a rural household, which was later revised from time to time in India. Table 6.5.2 reports the consumption expenditure across the income of the sample households. Among the total sample households 56.18 Per cent sample household's consumption expenditure is below Rs. 12000. The remaining 48.82 (78) per cent of households total consumption expenditure is more than Rs 12000. The

TABLE 6.5.2 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS ACROSS THE INCOME AND TOTAL EXPENDITURE (FOOD & NON-FOOD) ON CONSUMPTION.

Sr. No.	Income\Consumption	Upto	5001	6001	7001	9001	12001	15001	18001	22001	Total
		5000	to 6000	to 7000	to 8000	to 9000	to 12000	to 15000	to 18000	to 22000 and ABOVE	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Upto 1000	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	2	0	6
	AI	600.0	0.0	0.0	265.0	867.0	600.0	0.0	330.0	0.0	501.3
	ATC	2697.0	0.0	0.0	8474.0	9253.0	12142.0	0.0	19553.0	0.0	11945.3
2	1001 - 1800	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	0	5
	AI	0.0	0.0	1536.0	0.0	0.0	1100.0	1466.0	0.0	0.0	1422.8
	ATC	0.0	0.0	6842.0	0.0	0.0	13744.0	16281.7	0.0	0.0	13086.2
3	1801 - 2500	1	0	1	1	3	1	1	2	0	10
	AI	1872.0	0.0	2340.0	2285.0	2323.3	1825.0	1960.0	2127.5	0.0	2150.7
	ATC	1727.0	0.0	6620.0	8632.0	10781.7	12397.0	17349.0	18858.0	0.0	11670.6
4	2501 - 3500	0	0	2	1	0	2	0	0	1	6
	AI	0.0	0.0	3184.0	3360.0	0.0	3172.5	0.0	0.0	3205.0	3213.0
	ATC	0.0	0.0	6589.0	8916.0	0.0	12825.0	0.0	0.0	24818.0	12093.7
5	3501 - 4800	4	2	3	0	1	3	0	3	1	17
	AI	3971.0	4390.0	4048.0	0.0	3918.0	4194.7	0.0	4434.7	4477.0	4181.8
	ATC	3947.0	5789.0	6591.3	0.0	10604.0	13525.0	0.0	19617.7	22005.0	10539.8
6	4801 - 6400	1	0	1	2	5	1	1	1	3	15
	AI	4934.0	0.0	5200.0	5616.0	5486.2	6252.0	3200.0	3352.0	5828.7	5539.1
	ATC	4467.0	0.0	6174.0	7990.0	10753.6	13086.0	15009.0	20076.0	39465.0	16517.0
7	6401 - 11000	3	5	7	7	11	9	3	1	3	49
	AI	7193.3	7716.8	7860.7	8174.3	9292.0	8398.3	6880.3	10420.0	9569.3	8367.3
	ATC	3997.3	5503.6	6578.7	8266.7	10407.7	13702.4	17200.7	21070.0	24912.7	18005.7
8	11001-20000	1	2	3	2	0	3	6	2	2	29
	AI	18333.0	14363.5	15542.0	13702.5	13889.3	15155.7	14753.7	15395.0	15242.5	14745.8
	ATC	4244.0	5678.0	6182.7	7741.0	10736.3	13511.3	16320.0	20255.0	32278.5	13070.4
9	ABOVE 200000	1	1	3	3	7	5	6	4	5	35
	AI	20300.0	41773.0	26373.7	44152.7	35256.9	47000.4	44628.4	34846.3	20957.8	37364.3
	ATC	2648.0	5729.0	6515.7	8667.3	11046.6	13676.0	16675.7	19642.0	29500.6	15022.9
10	Total	15	10	22	17	36	28	20	15	15	178
	AI	5566.9	11786.4	9470.9	13707.4	13869.7	13758.6	19423.4	13612.1	15276.7	13204.8
	ATC	3766.7	5618.1	6517.1	8314.9	10657.5	13517.0	16540.2	19700.7	30137.1	12579.4

Notes : AI = Average Income, ATC = Average Total Consumption (Food and Non-food).

lowest consumption expenditure observed is Rs. 2488 and the highest to be as Rs. 39465. The annual income of sample households is below Rs 11000 and the remaining (35.96 per cent) sample households income is more than 11000. Broadly, this analysis indicates that the consumption expenditure of many of the sample households is higher than their income.

6.6 : DETERMINANTS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES

The effectiveness of the developmental programmes can have multiple facets. First of all defining effectiveness would mean finding the positive changes in the intended parameters and standardising this change by expressing it in terms of the units of efforts taken. In other words, the change due to programme per unit of the efforts taken will indicate the effectiveness of the programmes. If two similar programmes are implemented to improve the economic well being of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (reflected by income earned due to the programme), then the the incremental income generated gives the impact of the programme. But such incremental income per unit of the efforts (represented by either the investment or total cost of the programme) will give a clear indicator of effectiveness. This will help in deciding the effectiveness not only across the programmes but also across the sample

households. Thus effectiveness can be defined mathematically as follows.

$$\text{Effectiveness Index (EIH)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^P (IA - IE)}{P} \times 100$$

Where,

- EIH = Effectiveness Index of the Household
- IA = Total Income after the programme participation
- IE = Income before the programme participation
- PI = Total Programme Investment (Loan + Subsidy)

The determinants of effectiveness could be analysed in two ways. Firstly, a look at the correlation matrix of the main sample characteristics offers important clues. These can be used in terms of broad indicators. The major parameters considered here can be grouped into some broad groups for the case of analysis. Secondly, after obtaining the broad clues from the correlation matrix, it becomes easy to fit regression models to certain chosen variables to locate their degree of influence on effectiveness. In the absence of any systematic study conducted earlier on this aspect, it is pertinent to use the secondary clues obtained from the tabular analysis as well as from the correlation matrix.

For the purpose of analysis, with the help of correlation matrix, the variables were grouped into five broad groups, namely i) Income - Pre-assistance and ex-post income, income from wages, scheme income and other income, ii) Agriculture related variables - size of land holding, fallow land and irrigated/dry land; iii) Assets - Livestock, family assets and household assets, iv) Scheme related variables - scheme expenditure, loan amount, and subsidy; v) Consumption - size of family, consumption expenditure on food and non-food items and per capita consumption.

The first group of variables indicate the earnings of the family after participating in the programmes as well as from different sources. Agriculture income and wage income are the dominant sources of income. Therefore these have high and positive relationship with the total income. Similarly, the asset position of the households also has a positive relationship with income. It is interesting to note a positive relationship with non-food consumption expenditure. This indicates that as the income increases the consumption of non-food items also increases. Another aspect in the Table of correlation is that the area under rainfed conditions shows a negative relationship with the total income, thereby indicates that the farmers with larger area under dry lands do not have higher income. Surprisingly size of land holding does not bear any significant relationship with any of the income concepts. The variables representing

Table 6.6.1 : CORRELATION MATRIX OF RELEVANT INDICATORS SHOWING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THIS SCHEME

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
1. Scheme Expenditure																										
2. Loan Amount	-																									
3. Subsidy	-	0.44																								
4. Total Assistance	-	0.75	0.69																							
5. Total Loans	0.11	-	-	-																						
6. Scheme Income	-	0.12	-	-	0.13																					
7. Agriculture Income	-	-	-	0.38	0.22	-																				
8. Total Income	-0.21	0.08	-	-	-	0.88	0.13																			
9. OPL Income	-	-	0.12	-	-	0.15	0.24	0.23																		
10. Total Wages	-	-0.11	0.10	-	0.20	0.30	0.10	0.30	0.12																	
11. Wage Days Worked	-0.08	-0.18	-0.01	-0.16	-0.31	-0.12	0.19	0.18	0.15	0.67																
12. Asset (Horse)	0.11	-	-	-	0.15	0.23	0.17	0.20	0.17	-	-0.15															
13. Asset (implements)	-	-	0.22	0.13	-	0.18	0.15	-0.19	-	0.13	-	-														
14. Family Assets (amenities)	-	-	0.16	0.18	-	0.14	0.14	0.13	-	-	-0.14	0.20	0.07													
15. Total Assets	-	0.13	0.21	0.17	0.12	-	0.24	0.11	0.11	-	-0.14	0.74	0.68	0.44												
16. Asset (livestock & other)	-	-	0.17	-	-	-0.15	0.15	-0.10	-0.34	-	-	-	0.85	-	0.58											
17. Land Holdings	-0.13	-	-	-	0.15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.19	0.11	0.19	0.10										
18. Fallow Land	-	-	0.14	0.14	-	0.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.68										
19. Irrigated Land	-	-	-	-	0.31	-	0.50	-0.30	-	-	-0.14	-	0.30	-	0.25	0.11	0.33									
20. Dry Land	0.15	-	-	-	0.12	-0.17	0.24	-	-	0.12	-	-	-	-	0.80	-	0.72	0.42								
21. Food Expenditure	-	-	0.14	-	-	0.16	-	-	-	-	0.15	-	0.18	0.18	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.16								
22. Non-Food Expenditure	-	-	-	0.11	-	0.15	-	0.20	-	0.11	-0.12	0.31	0.20	0.33	0.10	0.19	-	-								
23. Total Consumption	-	-	0.16	-	-	0.16	0.14	-	0.12	0.26	0.16	0.17	0.31	0.14	0.24	0.23	0.88	0.55								
24. Family Size	-	-	-	-	-	0.26	0.22	-	0.39	-	0.10	-	0.10	0.15	0.19	-	-	-	0.23	0.15	0.29	0.26				
25. Per Capita Expenditure	-	-	0.11	0.23	-	0.22	-	-	-0.15	-0.13	0.12	-	0.13	0.15	-	-	-	-	0.25	-0.11	0.76	0.21	0.74	-0.35		

Notes : 1. 10 % *** indicates correlation significant (0.16).
 2. 5 % ** indicates correlation significant (0.19).
 3. 1 % * indicates correlation significant (0.23).

Table 6.6.1 : CORRELATION MATRIX OF RELEVANT INDICATORS SHOWING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THIS SCHEME

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
1. Scheme Expenditure																										
2. Loan Amount	-																									
3. Subsidy	-	0.44 ***																								
4. Total Assistance	-	0.95	0.69																							
5. Total Loans	0.11	-	-	-																						
6. Scheme Income	-	0.12	-	-	0.13																					
7. Agriculture Income	-	-	-	0.30 ***	0.22	-																				
8. Total Income	-0.21 **	0.08	-	-	-	0.88 ***	0.13 ***																			
9. BPL Income	-	-	0.12	-	-	0.15 ***	0.24 ***	0.23 ***																		
10. Total Wages	-	-0.11	0.10	-	0.20	0.30	0.10	0.30	0.12																	
11. Wage Days Worked	-0.08	-0.18	-0.01	-0.14	-0.31	-0.12	0.19	0.18	0.15	0.67																
12. Asset (Home)	0.11	-	-	-	0.15	0.25	0.17	0.20	0.17	-	-0.15															
13. Asset (implements)	-	-	0.22	0.13	-	0.18	0.15	-0.19	-	0.13	-	-														
14. Family Assets (amenities)	-	-	0.16	0.13	-	0.14	0.14	0.13	-	-	-0.14	0.20 **	0.07													
15. Total Assets	-	0.13	0.21 **	0.17 *	0.12	-	0.24 ***	0.11	0.13 ***	-	-0.14	0.76 ***	0.68 ***	0.44 ***												
16. Asset (livestock & other)	-	-	0.17	-	-	-0.15	0.15	-0.10	-0.34	-	-	-	0.85	-	0.58 ***											
17. Land Holdings	-0.13	-	-	-	0.15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.19 **	0.11	0.19 **	0.10										
18. Follow Land	-	-	0.14	0.14	-	0.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.60 ***											
19. Irrigated Land	-	-	-	-	0.31	-	0.50 ***	-0.30	-	-	-0.14	-	0.30 ***	-	0.25 ***	0.11	0.35 ***									
20. Dry Land	0.15	-	-	-	0.12	-0.17	0.24	-	-	0.12	-	-	-	-	0.80	-	0.72	0.62 ***								
21. Food Expenditure	-	-	0.14	-	-	-	0.16	-	-	-	-	0.13	-	0.18	0.18	0.10	0.10	-	0.18	-						
22. Non-Food Expenditure	-	-	-	0.11	-	0.15	-	0.20 **	-	0.11	-0.12	0.31 ***	0.20 **	-	0.33 ***	-	0.10	-	0.19 **	-	-					
23. Total Consumption	-	-	0.16	-	-	-	0.16 ***	0.14	-	0.12	-	0.26 ***	0.16	0.17	0.31 ***	-	0.14	-	0.24 ***	-	0.88 ***	0.55 ***				
24. Family Size	-	-	-	-	-	0.26	0.22	-	-	0.39 ***	-	0.10	-	0.10	0.15	-	0.19	-	-	0.23	0.15	0.29	0.26 ***			
25. Per Capita Expenditure	-	-	0.11	0.23	-	0.22	-	-	-	-0.15	-0.13	0.12	-	0.13	0.15	-	-	-	0.25 ***	-0.11	0.76	0.21	0.74 ***	-0.35	1	

Notes : 1. 10 & *** indicates correlation significant, (0.16).
 2. 5 & ** indicates correlation significant (0.19).
 3. 1 & * indicates correlation significant (0.23).

agricultural sector activities also have bearing on the effectiveness of the programme. Agricultural income shows a positive and high correlation with the total scheme assistance as well as with loans. A similar relationship is not seen with the other variables from the income group.

The variables relating to the scheme showed a positive relationship with assets, scheme income and scheme expenditure which was an expected result. Surprisingly the landholdings showed a negative relationship with scheme expenditure. The consumption pattern has a definite positive relationship with asset holdings as well as land under irrigation. Though most of the correlations are not significant, they indicate a trend towards identification of the determinants of effectiveness.

In order to identify the major determinant of effectiveness of the programmes we have taken three sets of variables and estimated the slope coefficient with the help of single variable simple additive model with the following specification.

$$Y = a + bX + u$$

where,

Y = Effectiveness Index

X = Independent variable as indicated in Table

a = Regression constant (intercept)

b = Slope coefficient

u = Stochastic error term

Table 6.6.2 shows that per capita durable assets as well as durable assets and the proportion of incremental programme income have a positive and significant relationship with programme effectiveness.

TABLE 6.6.2 : DETERMINANTS OF EFFECTIVENESS INDEX

(GROUP I)

Sr.No.	Dependent Variable : Effectiveness Index	Slope Coefficient
1	Proportion of durable assets to total assets	1.36 (2.36)**
2	Per Capita Durable Assets/ TPI	100.27 (2.14)**
3	Incremental programme Income/Scheme Income	0.02 2.05**
4	Wage Income as per cent of Total Income	-1.01 (2.56)
5	Total Assistance as percent of Total Income	-0.18** (2.94)
6	Assets per capita/size of land holding (ha)	-8.84 (0.12)
7	Net value of production (per ha.)	4.51 (0.35)
8	Expenditure on Scheme (main occupation)/Total Income	-489.70 (2.72)**

Notes : 1) * Indicates 5% Significant (1.645).
 2) ** Indicates 2.5% Significant (1.96).
 3) *** Indicates 1% Significant (2.326).
 4) TPI = Total Programme Investment.

Whereas proportion of wage income total assistance and the expenditure on the scheme of proportion of total income showed a negative relationship with effectiveness index.

TABLE 6.6.3 : DETERMINANTS OF EFFECTIVENESS INDEX

(GROUP II)

Sr. No.	Dependent Variable : Effectiveness Index	Slope Coefficient
1	Expenditure on Technology / TPI	-150.32 (1.04)
2	Total Consumption / TPI	18.51 (3.73)***
3	Per Capita Total Food Consumption / TPI	53.58 (2.32)**
4	Total Non-food Consumption / TPI	51.73 (3.77)***
5	Total Scheme Expenditure / Total Scheme Income	-57.41 (0.86)
6	Expenditure on Addiction Habits to Total non-food Consumption	-195.97 (1.25)

Notes : 1) * Indicates 5% Significant (1.645).
 2) ** Indicates 2.5% Significant (1.98).
 3) *** Indicates 1% Significant (2.326).
 4) TPI = Total Programme Investment.

Among the other group (Table 6.6.3) the food, non-food and total consumption showed a strong positive relationship with the effectiveness index.

Table 6.6.4 shows two interesting results. The number of schemes participated has shown a strong positive relationship with effectiveness index and or the sanetime proportion of repayment to the total scheme income also has a strong negative influence on the effectiveness of the Programmes. It may be because of the forceful repayment procedure that the beneficiaries have to forego a large share of their incremental income.

TABLE 6.6.4 : DETERMINANT OF EFFECTIVENESS INDEX

(GROUP III)

Sr. No.	Dependent Variable : Effectiveness Index	Slope Coefficient
1	Number of Schemes Participated	129.37 (4.22)***
2	Outstanding Loan Per Capita / TSI	-53.39 (0.16)
3	Repayment of Loan / TSI	-13.68 (2.20)**
4	Outstanding Loan Per Capita / TSI	-1.65 (0.12)
5	Total Market Participation (Per Capita)	-2.30 (0.24)
6	Value of Total Services Purchased (Per Capita)	8.25 (0.89)
7	Percentage of Adults (Above 18 Years) Educated	-7.55 (0.16)
8	Political and Social Participation Score	1.46 (0.11)

Notes : 1) * Indicates 5% Significant (1.645).
 2) ** Indicates 2.5% Significant (1.96).
 3) *** Indicates 1% Significant (2.326).
 4) TSI = Total Scheme Income.

The above analysis of single variable equations brings out indicated some important theoretical aspects. Firstly, the wealth or durable asset position has a positive and decisive impact on the effectiveness of the programme thereby indicating a restricted access to the rich among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Secondly, impact of wage income as well as total assistance and scheme

expenditure go against the poorer of the poor in terms of programme effectiveness. In other words, the results indicate that effectiveness of the programmes favoring is seen among those the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes who have better asset position and it does not help adequately the other group with wages as their dominant source of income. Thirdly, the pattern of consumption has an important influence on the effectiveness of the programmes or vice-versa. At the same time, the loan repayment has indicated a detrimental influence on the programme effectiveness as compared to the other variables. Lastly, though the effectiveness has been determined by various other factors, it certainly has a strong and positive relationship with the number of schemes participated by the beneficiaries.

The single variable equations do not consider the joint - impact of different variables and hence we have worked out Multiple Regression Model keeping in view the variables used in the above analysis. The specification of the model is as follows.

$$Y = f (\text{DATS, PADA, WITI, ETI, PCIFCT, TNFCT, APCSLH, NSP, TMPPC, PAE, PSPS, IAIB, SCST})$$

Where,

Y = Effectiveness Index.

The independent variables = (See Table 6.6.5)

The model used here is additive model.

Among the 11 equations shown in Table 6.6.6 most of the equations have very low R^2 . Relatively, the equation number 3, 4, 6 and 7 have higher R^2 as compared to the other equations. From these models, we find that the expenditure on non-food items emerged as a highly significant variable. This indicates that the non food consumption has a strong influence on the effectiveness of the programmes. It is essential to make it clear that the non-food consumption per day does not have any thing to increase or decrease the effectiveness index. But it is possible that the affluence among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes usually makes them to spend more on non-food consumption. Therefore, it is quite possible that this affluence initiated impact is causing higher level of effectiveness. In other words, the non-food consumption stands as a proxy for the social status of the household. It is not surprising that the wage income does not emerge with a significant coefficient, but the sign of the coefficient relating wage income has been constantly negative. Another important variable emerging with significant influence on the effectiveness index is the number of schemes participated. It is therefore, essential that the schemes operating for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes should be large in number as well as with broad coverage. The third important impact that can be highlighted out of the analysis here is the strong influence of the income differentials before the scheme between the

two groups, namely those with income below Rs. 11000 and the others who have the income above Rs. 11000. The rest of the variables do not show any consistent pattern of behaviour.

TABLE 6.6.5 : DEFINITIONS OF DIFFERENT VARIABLES USED IN THE MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION MODEL

Sr. No.	Abbreviations	Definition
1	DATS	Durable Assets x low/ total assets
2	PADA	Per capita durable Assets/ Total Programme Investment (TPI)
3	WITI	Wage Income as percent to Total Income
4	ETT	Expenditure on Technology / TPI
5	PCTFCT	Per capita total food consumption
6	TNFCT	Total non-food consumption / TPI
7	APCSLH	Assets Per Capita / Size of Land Holding In Hectares.
8	NSP	Number of Schemes Participated.
9	TMPPC	Total Market Participation Per Capita
10	PAE	Percentage Adults (Above 18) Educated
11	PSPS	Political and Social Participation Score
12	IAIB	Income Above Rs.11000 and Income Below Rs.11000. (Dummy Variable)
13	SCST	Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Dummy variables)

Notes : (i) * Indicates 5% significant (1.645).
(ii) * * Indicates 2.5% significant (1.96).
(iii) * * * Indicates 1 % significant (2.328).

TABLE 6.6.6 : EFFECTIVENESS INDEX : RESULTS OF MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION MODEL VALUES WITH THEIR SLOPE COEFFICIENT

Equation No. (1)	Constant (2)	DATS (3)	PADA (4)	WITI (5)	ETI (6)	PCTFCT (7)	TNFCT (8)	APCSLH (9)	HSP (10)	TUPPC (11)	PAE (12)	PSPS (13)	TAIB (14)	SCST (15)	R ² (16)	F Value (17)
1	-58.078 (0.801)	0.457 (0.801)	- (-1.155)	-0.449 (-1.155)	-	-	48.594 _{***} (3.662)	-	114.265 _{***} (3.668)	-	-7.986 (-1.778)	-	-	-	0.154	7.433
2	-30.961 (0.765)	0.432 (0.765)	- (-1.343)	-0.525 (-1.343)	-	-	51.316 _{***} (3.847)	-	113.722 _{***} (3.674)	-01.101 (-1.245)	-	-	-	-	0.161	7.357
3	-96.68 (1.158)	0.536 (1.158)	- (-1.480)	-0.474 (-1.480)	-	-	38.865 _{***} (3.530)	-	81.458 _{***} (3.183)	-2.974 (-0.408)	-	-	257.904 (9.243)	-	0.437	27.823
4	-89.581 (1.245)	0.594 (1.245)	- (-1.480)	-0.550 (-1.480)	-	-	38.854 _{***} (3.522)	-	81.136 _{***} (3.163)	-2.912 (-0.398)	-	-	257.924 (9.224)	-16.043 (-0.516)	0.435	27.447
5	-5.625	-	1.049 (0.021)	-0.579 (-1.491)	-	-	52.285 _{***} (3.587)	-	118.437 _{***} (3.874)	[-0.111] (-1.234)	-	-	-	-	0.182	7.384
6	-70.340	-	42.920 (1.026)	-0.499 (-1.568)	-	-	35.049 _{***} (2.904)	-	84.123 _{***} (3.326)	-4.718 (-0.633)	-	-	260.235 (9.267)	-	0.455	28.851
7	-64.069	-	43.107 (1.028)	-0.537 (-1.513)	-	-	35.092 _{***} (2.899)	-	84.264 _{***} (3.322)	-4.706 (0.630)	-	-	260.218 (9.241)	-7.434 (-0.246)	0.443	28.347
8	-76.169 (0.984)	0.571 (0.984)	-	-188.73 (-1.310)	60.334 _{***} (2.60)	-	-	118.850 _{***} (3.803)	-	-	-0.144 (-0.314)	-	-	-	0.139	5.552
9	-106.575 (1.001)	0.565 (1.001)	-	-	-	-	-50.110 _{***} (3.774)	1.236 (0.184)	121.909 _{***} (3.976)	-	-2.542 (0.058)	-	-	-	0.147	7.124
10	-34.022	-	-12.430 (-0.244)	-0.512 (-1.311)	-	-	51.462 _{***} (3.471)	-8.125 (0.120)	120.580 _{***} (3.901)	-	-2.197 (0.048)	-	-	-	0.146	6.847
11	145.757 (0.179)	-	9.268 (-2.175)	-0.865 (-2.175)	-	-	47.188 _{***} (3.092)	-1.163 (-0.166)	-	-	-	-1.991 (-0.160)	-	-	0.075	7.837

Notes : (i) * Indicates 5% significant (1.645). (ii) ** Indicates 2.5% significant (1.96). (iii) *** Indicates 1% significant (2.326).

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter, we focused on the identification of the present condition of the beneficiaries and discussed the determinants of the effectiveness of the programmes. For the purpose of analysis, the study utilises the household information before the participation in the scheme which has been collected from the Block Development Office and field work information. The collected information broadly divided into five sub-sections that is i) Pre-assistance and present socio-economic condition of the sample households ii) Identification of the beneficiaries iii) Agricultural Development, iv) Asset, loan and overdue problem, and v) consumption pattern. The last section deals with determining the effectiveness of the programmes with the help of correlation matrix, single variable additive model and Multiple Regression Model.

The study found that the working population is less than one third of the population. Every second person is literate, but among them only half of them have attended only four years of schooling. The considerable number of the sample households are engaged in primary sector. About two third of the sample beneficiaries have income less than Rs. 2500. More than fifty percent households benefited under

the scheme of integrated Rural Development Programme. Nearly, half of the beneficiaries have paid up to Rs. 200 for the collection of documents. The sanctioning of the scheme involves considerable time lag. Some beneficiaries paid for securities upto Rs. 400. More than one third of the beneficiaries insured their assets which was provided under the IRDP schemes. More than 70 percent sample beneficiaries reported that the assets were purchased in their presence. Nearly, 47 percent beneficiaries could not generate any income. Between the two Talukas, Nevasa shows better effectiveness of the scheme implementation than Sanganner Taluka. Among the beneficiaries, nearly 50 percent sample households are landless and almost 98 percent have the land holding below 4 hectares. More than seventy respondents had to make regular visits to Taluka headquarters for different purposes. Bajara accounts for more than seventy percent of the area and about fifty percent of the value of production. Jowar and wheat occupy the second and third places respectively. The gross value of productivity of all the crops is Rs. 1172 per hectares and the productivity across size of land less than 1 ha. is the highest. Income through the wage labour is the main source of livelihood followed by agriculture and animal husbandry. The average annual income

of the all sample households is about Rs. 13,000 per household. It is observed from the consumption pattern of the sample households that out of the total consumption expenditure 75 percent is spent on food items.

The analysis through correlation matrix for the chosen variables was broadly grouped into five groups namely, Income, Agricultural development, Assets, Scheme and Consumption. The first variable indicated the earning of the family after participation in the programme. Agricultural income and wage income have emerged with a positive relationship with non-food consumption expenditure. The scheme oriented variables showed a positive relationship with the assets.

In order to identify the major determinants of the effectiveness of the programmes, the study utilised three sets of variables and estimated the slope coefficients with the help of single variable additive regression model. The durable assets, incremental income, number of schemes participated showed a strong positive relation with the effectiveness index. Whereas, the proportion of wage income, total assistance, expenditure incurred to sanction the scheme and repayment of loan showed a strong negative relationship with the effectiveness index.

Apart from this, the study utilised multiple regression model to identify the joint impact of different variables on effectiveness index. Eleven equations were worked out with different variables. It was observed that expenditure on non-food items has emerged as a highly significant variable. It was noted that this variable was more as a proxy for the household economic status. It showed a strong influence on the effectiveness of the programmes. Wage income did not emerge with significant coefficient but it showed constantly negative sign. Lastly, the section highlighted the need of an important aspect, namely to differentiate between the two groups appropriately according to their availed benefits under the developmental schemes and on the basis of that we can confirm the factors determining the effectiveness of the programmes.

CHAPTER VII
FACTORS DISCRIMINATING
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF
THE DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Effectiveness of the developmental programmes of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes depends on many factors. It was analysed earlier that the factors dictating the effectiveness can be grouped into certain major groups. Keeping in view the earlier analysis, certain interesting questions arise here. First is how at micro level one can locate factors clearly responsible for effectiveness at certain threshold level. Secondly, how the aggregate programme influence on the structural characteristics of the households interacts in order to get a higher level of effectiveness. Thirdly, from the policy point of view, it becomes necessary to locate the factors discriminating between the levels of the effectiveness. Lastly, such an analysis can help in properly modifying the programmes.

The present chapter focuses mainly on the "Factors discriminating the effectiveness of the developmental programmes". The analysis is based on the field level data collected from the sample beneficiaries belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Effectiveness can be defined in multifaceted ways. However, in the process of economic analysis, the level of income and economic

discrimination are the two most important factors leading to the programme effectiveness. It is true that immediately after the Independence, income and poverty level were not the only factors for discrimination against the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes the social factors were also the most important during that period. Over the years and with the market intervention, the situation has changed and economic well-being was treated synonymously with the social well-being. Thus, more or less the economic status came to be identified with the social status. Therefore, we can define programme effectiveness as equivalent to the force which vertically pushes the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes households above the poverty line. The effectiveness thus means the force with which the households belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes push themselves above the poverty line with the help of major structural and economic factors.

Keeping in the view the arguments put forward in the above paragraphs, it was decided to utilise the Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis (MLDA) for the purpose of identifying the important factors responsible for segregation of these groups. The multiple regression analysis deals with the continuous dependent variables but the literature suggest the use of Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis as an effective tool for the purpose of discrimination between two groups when the dependent

variable is dichotomous. In other words, we have identified the households into two groups. First, those who have crossed the poverty line by effectively utilising the programmes (Adjusted to the current prices of the year 1990) (CPLE) and the other who failed to cross the poverty threshold (NCPLE) due to various reasons. With the help of Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis, the major discriminating variables are identified.

7.2 PREVIOUS STUDIES

In India only a few studies have used the Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis as a tool for the purpose of discrimination. First study attempted a classification of the farmers into efficient and inefficient groups. Radhakrishna [1969] separated these two group with the help of Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis, and concluded that the efficiency of the farmers cannot be measured by size of holding alone, [Radhakrishna, 1969]. Another study has utilised Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis for discriminating defaulters from non-defaulters in the primary credit co-operative societies. Reddy [1976] has identified the important characteristics of the defaulters and the non-defaulters. Prasad, Ramanna and Achoth [1988] calculated the impact of Integrated Rural Development Programme with the help of MLDA. The Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis identifies the segregating variables in two different situations. Similarly, Pandey and Murlidharan

[1977] presented the application of the discriminant function in agricultural finance [i.e. overdues of co-operative credit societies]. They have used Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis for discrimination between non-defaulters and defaulters. Reddy [1976] and Pandey and Murlidharan [1977] concluded that the discriminant function has been useful in order to assess the degree of risks involved. In a recent study, Goel and Vasisht [1982] utilised Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis to identify the relative importance of different factors to tackle the disparities arising in eight Tribal areas. An attempt was also made by Bhattacharya [1978] using MLDA to analyse the performance of companies.

The above brief review indicates a successful use of MLDA to identify the discriminating factors between the two groups under various situations. It is interesting that the results dealing with various aspects offer array of discriminating factors. There are different variations in the use of MLDA in the literature. Hence, we discuss below the method of analysis.

7.3 DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS - A THEORETICAL MODEL

The Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis¹ is an applied statistical technique. Fisher [1936] developed this technique and its applications. It is useful and used both

1 Bernstein Irate [1988], Altman Edward I [1968],
Friedman Jerome H [1989], Raveh Adi [1989], Johnson
Palmen O. [1948], Arajai A A and Finally R M [1971].

in social sciences as well as in Physical Sciences. But the application of Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis is not as widely prevalent as the Regression Analysis, Production Function, etc. According to Dunn and Frey [1976], Durand has used first Discriminant Analysis with four variables for distinguishing good and bad consumer installment under car loans, (Dunn and Frey, 1976).

Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis is a broad term which refers to several closely related statistical activities. According to Klecka "Discriminant Analysis is a statistical technique which allows the researcher to study the differences between two or more groups of objects with respect to several variables simultaneously." [Klecka, 1980 PP.7-8]. The Characteristics used to distinguish among the groups are called "Discriminating Variables". These variables must be measured at the interval or ratio level of measurement so that their means and variances can be calculated and legitimately employed in mathematical operations.

The assumption of the Discrimination Analysis are as follows.

1. Two or more groups : $g \geq 2$
 g = number of groups
2. At least two cases per group : $n_i \geq 2$
 n_i = number of cases in group i

3. Any number of discriminating variables, provided it is less than the total number of cases minus two : $0 < P < (n-2)$
4. Discriminating variables are measured at the interval level.
5. No discriminating variable may be a linear combination of an other discriminating variable.
6. The covariance matrices for each group must be [approximately] equal, unless special formulae are used.
7. Each group has been drawn from a population with a multivariate normal distribution on the discriminating variables; [Klecka, 1980, P.11].

The stepwise method is discussed below :

STEP - I

Assume that we have N normally distributed observations on P variables.

X_{it} ($i=1,2,-,-,-,P$, $t=1,2,-,-,-,N$). Classify these into two groups for $t=1,2--- N_1$ and $t=N_1+1, N_1+2 \dots N_1+N_2=N$.

The means are defined as follows :

$$1) \quad \bar{X}_i * = \frac{N_1}{\sum_{t=1}^{N_1}} \frac{X_{it}}{N_1} ,$$

$$\bar{X}_i \cdot * * = \frac{N}{\sum_{t=N_1+1}^N} \frac{X_{it}}{N_2}$$

[$i=1,2,3,\dots,P$].

Let the difference of the means be

$$2) d_i = \bar{X}_i - \bar{X}_1 \quad [i=1,2,3,\dots,p]$$

To find out the linear function of the differences of the means here, [Tinter, 1952].

STEP - 2

Discriminant function can be analysed as follows :

$$Z = 1_1 X_1 + 1_2 X_2 + 1_3 X_3 + \dots + 1_k X_k$$

Z = Total discriminant score for the sample households.

$1_k (k=1,2,3,\dots,n)$ are the Co-efficient of Linear Discriminant Function.

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N = Independent variables.

In this calculations of the discriminant function involves the solution matrix of equations notations.

$$[D] = [S] [L]$$

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} & \dots & S_{1k} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} & \dots & S_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ S_{k1} & S_{k2} & \dots & S_{kk} \end{pmatrix} \quad L = \begin{pmatrix} 1_1 \\ 1_2 \\ \vdots \\ 1_k \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \\ \vdots \\ d_k \end{pmatrix}$$

$$K = N$$

L_k = The vector of the co-efficient of D F

S_k = The pooled dispersion matrix

D_k = The vector of elements representing differences between the means of the two groups.

STEP - III

The squared distance (Mahalanobis's D^2) between the two samples considering both variables is defined as

$$D^2 = (D_1 \ D_2) \begin{pmatrix} S_1^2 & S_{12} \\ S_{12} & S_2^2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

[Li, 1964].

The Discriminant Function will be tested for the level of significance to examine, whether, or not the variables considered together are sufficiently discriminating between the groups of programme effectiveness and in-effectiveness. The Mahalanobis D^2 statistic has been used to measure the distance between the two groups. After transformation, this D^2 statistic becomes an F statistic of the following form which is then used to see if the two groups are different from each other.

$$F = \frac{Na \ Nb \ (Na + Nb - P - 1)}{p(Na + Nb) \ (Na + Nb - 2)} D^2$$

$$D^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{11} \sum_{k=1}^{11} C_{ik} \ d_i \ d_k$$

Where,

C_{ik} = inverted matrix for the coefficients.

$d_i \ d_k$ = a Matrix for the product of mean difference.

P = the number of characteristics.

This value of F is tested for its significance with (P) and $(na + nb - P - 1)$ degrees of freedom, [Pandey and Murlidharan, 1977].

STEP IV

After testing the F value and its significance with the degrees of freedom, an attempt should be made to construct the "Discriminant Index Value" of individual sample households with ascending [or descending] order of two groups, [See Appendix 7.2]. In two groups, there are some overlapping of Discriminant Index Values. To remove this overlapping between the two groups, another exercise is required, which will calculate the division (separation) point. In order to derive the division point, the following formula is used.

$$Y_c = \frac{b^1_y \bar{Y}_a + b_a \bar{Y}_p}{b^1_a + b^1_p}$$

Y_c = The calculated division point

\bar{Y}_a and \bar{Y}_p = The calculated means for the discriminant function of the effectively used developmental programme assistance and effectively not-used developmental programme assistance of the households.

b_a and b_p = The standard deviation for Y_a and Y_p are b_a and b_p respectively, (Dunn and Frey, 1976, P.64).

With the help of the division point, it is easy to divide the sample households in appropriate groups without any overlapping of their Index Values. This can be done on the basis of the Index Values which enable to assess the effectiveness and non-effectiveness.

7.4 INDICATORS OF EFFECTIVENESS

To understand the performance of effectiveness of the developmental programmes implemented for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes by the Central Government and the State Government of Maharashtra, the study is attempting to prepare an Households Effectiveness Index [HEI] which is to be prepared by using the variables [indicators]. These indicators have been broadly classified into following ten groups : [1] Income and related parameters, [2] Asset holding, [3] Total assistance, [4] Consumption pattern, [5] Land holdings, [6] Scheme participation, [7] Loan and Repayment, [8] Marketing habits, [9] Educational level, and [10] Socio-political status and participation.

This classification helps to identify the different facets of the economic structure of the households. Though a few of them are interdependent as well as indicate similar aspects, it was quite necessary to incorporate as many of these variables. The list of variables and their definitions are presented in Appendix 7.1.

[1] INCOME : [Variables No. 3,4,10 & 11,20,27]

Income is a major variable which as a proxy expresses all the socio-economic and political aspects of the household. The income variable also takes into account the employment conditions, size of land holdings, other assets, structure of occupation, poverty, etc. Particularly, the income indicator variables have a special importance in the

context of backward classes. If the income level is high, the household belonging to the backward classes can have some status in the society. The study considers net income of the households from all the sources viz. wage income, scheme income, agricultural income, etc. The analysis is based on their earlier income, [before the participation in the scheme] and their present income. An attempt is made to classify households into two groups, as the households successfully crossed the poverty line and those who could not do so. Variables relating income are the strong discriminating factors for two important reasons. Firstly, income is the sole determinant of households' efficiency because it directly decides the level of poverty. Secondly, income also directly decides the economic and social status of the household.

[2] VALUE OF ASSETS [Variables - 3,4, to 10 & 11]

Assets are the important factors of production as well as indicators of economic stability of the household. Assets decide the economic status and with the higher value of asset one can easily infer about the economic efficiency, which decides the effectiveness. The assets are divided into two groups, viz., durable assets and non-durable assets. The durable assets are agricultural implements, electric motor pump, etc. and the non-durable assets are live-stocks and wooden farm equipments, etc. The study has considered the value of house as an asset, furniture, amenities, i.e. T.V. Radio, Fans, Motor cycle, etc. are also included.

[3] TOTAL ASSISTANCE (Variable - 6)

As compared to the other variables, "the total assistance received" plays an important role in the analysis of the effectiveness. The banks also provide loans at concessional interest rate as well as offer an easy repayment schedule. The total assistance of the intensity of efforts from the programme side. It is not necessary that such intensity has positive relationship with the measure of effectiveness.

[4] CONSUMPTION PATTERN - [Variables 7,8 9 & 25]

Consumption pattern of the households can be used as an important indicator of standard of living (variable). The study has considered food and non-food consumption pattern of the sample households. Four ratio's are used to indicate the effectiveness of the developmental programmes. All these ratios indicate separate aspects of the change in standard of living. Consumption pattern indicates the standard of life especially two different aspects. The food consumption increases initially but it is not necessary that higher expenditure on food will go along with better economic status. Especially with in the group of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the non-food consumption, however, is a clear indicator of better quality of life.

[5] LAND HOLDINGS - (variables 12 & 13)

Land is an important asset in rural areas. The households belonging to the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe communities do not possess large own land. Among those who have their own land, size of holdings is very small. To understand the economic importance of land, two important indicators have been used. Land as such is an indicator of social status. Though the group of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes do not generally have large size of holding, those who possess land certainly claim better social status.

[6] SCHEME PARTICIPATION -

(Variables 3,10,11,14,15,16,18,19,20 & 27)

The main purpose of the study is to find out the effectiveness of the developmental programmes. Therefore, the participation of the sample households in various developmental schemes has been taken as a major indicator. The schemes such as Indira Vikas Yojana, Educational schemes, Agricultural schemes, Integrated Rural Developmental Programme, Training of Rural Youths for Self Employment are considered here. It is clear that, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes households participate in more than one programme. Therefore the effectiveness would be a clear function of scheme participation.

[7] LOAN AND REPAYMENTS - (Variables - 17,18 & 19)

The households have participated in the developmental programmes. They received the subsidy and loan from the various Government agencies. The agencies have provided loans at concessional interest rates and easy repayment of the loans. Three ratios are used as indicators (variables). First, outstanding loan per capita to total per capita income. Second, repayment of loan to total scheme income, and last, outstanding loan per capita to total scheme income.

[8] MARKETING HABITS (Variables, 21 & 22)

Marketing and communication habits are indicators of the developmental perspective of the household. What are they purchasing? where? and from whom? and what are they selling? where? and to whom? These informations indicate the marketing effectiveness of the households. For this purpose we have considered two major aspects. First, total market participation per capita, it includes their agricultural input purchased and sold, scheme input and output, consumer goods, etc. Second, value of total services purchased per capita which includes transport, medical expenditure, school expenditure, expenditure for the sanction of the schemes, etc. The market participation indicates the access to infrastructure as well as information. Therefore, this happens to be one of the important characteristics to ascertain programme effectiveness.

[9] EDUCATIONAL LEVEL [Variable 23]

Literacy level is a major social indicator of the standard of living in the society. Illiteracy raises many problems, such as, unskilled labour, unemployment status in the society, poverty, low wage rates, children's education, etc. Taking into account the importance of the literacy level, we have calculated the literacy level of the sample households.

[10] SOCIAL AND POLITICAL STATUS :

Social and political participation of these households is quite low when compared with the other forward groups. But now-a-days these communities also achieved some social and political status in the society. The Constitution of India provided some safeguards to improve their social and participation. The social and political participation is indicated by total score of the sample households on interval scale.

7.5 RESULTS OF THE MULTIVARIATE LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

In order to understand the relative importance of the chosen characteristics and their power of discrimination, we have separated the variables into two sets. This was done in order to avoid the weak discriminating variables on the basis of mean, standard deviation and correlation between the variables. The results are presented in Table 7.5.1 and 7.5.2. Between the two sets, difference is only for three

variables namely expenditure on technology, assets per capita/per hectare of holding and value of services.

The discriminant function for Set A (Table 7.5.1) shows that there are five major discriminating variables. These are i) total assistance as percent of total income, ii) percentage of educated adults, iii) number of schemes participated, iv) total non-food consumption as percentage to total project investment, and v) outstanding loan. It is clear that the major discriminating factor has been the Government efforts along with the level of education. The D^2 and Hotelling T^2 values are 2.94 and 37.30 respectively. T^2 is significant at 1 percent level indicating a good fit.

The Set B (Table 7.5.2) utilised two additional variables namely the expenditure on new technology and per capita assets standardised by size of holding. Here we have not taken the per capita value of total services purchased. The major discriminating variables are exactly the same but in this case the value of Hotelling's T^2 improved slightly. Surprisingly, the newly included variables do not emerge as important discriminating factors. In other words, technology as well as per capita per hectare assets do not help to differentiate between the two groups. The sample of 178 households was divided between the two groups, namely those who have used the scheme effectively and the others. In this case, crossing of the poverty barrier has been used as a proxy for effectiveness.

TABLE 7.5.1 : RESULTS OF THE MULTIVARIATE LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS (SET A)

Sr. No.	Variables	Coefficient	D ²	Percentage of D ²
1.	Per capita durable assets /TPI	-0.9287	0.0357	3.9539
2.	Wage income X 100/Total Income	-0.0041	0.0140	1.5517
3.	Total assistance as percent of total income	-0.0023	0.3030	33.5110
4.	Total non-food consumption/TPI	0.3305	0.0082	9.7525
5.	Total per capita income before programme /TPI	-1.7759	0.0202	3.1245
6.	Net value of agricultural production per hectare	0.0001	0.0191	2.1091
7.	Number of schemes participated	0.0254	0.1294	14.3190
8.	Outstanding loan per capita/Total scheme income	0.2246	0.0573	6.3328
9.	Total market participation per capita	-0.0001	0.0309	4.3043
10.	Value of total services purchased per capita	0.0000	0.0429	4.7410
11.	Percentage adults (above 18 years)educated	0.0136	0.1540	17.1235
12.	Political and social participation score	-0.0496	-0.0074	-0.8233

RESULTS :

$D^2 = 0.90404$

Hotelling $T^2 = 37.30435$

Degrees of Freedom = $N_1 + N_2 - P - 1$

$53 + 113 - 12 - 1 = 165$

Calculated $F = 2.914402$

at 1 percent level of significance

Value of Critical Factor $T^2 = 12.8$

Mean of Z for group 1 = 1.507635

Mean of Z for group 2 = 0.6035953

Mean of Z for Total = 0.9337221

Critical $T^2 = 12.8 \times 2.1040 = 27.96544$

1% Significant

$12.8 \times 1.7522 = 22.42816$

5% Significant

TABLE 7.5.2 : RESULTS OF THE MULTIVARIATE LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS (SET B)

Sr. No.	Variables	Coefficient	D ²	Percentage of D ²
1.	Per capita Durable assets/TPI	0.9174	0.0353	3.8930
2.	Wage Income X 100/Total income	-0.0045	0.0154	1.6971
3.	Expenditure on Technology/TPI	-0.0048	0.0156	1.7194
4.	Total assistance as percent of total income	-0.0024	0.3121	34.4001
5.	Total non-food consumption /TPI	0.3437	0.0895	9.8703
6.	Total per capita income before programme/TPI	-2.0194	0.0321	3.5411
7.	Assets per capita /size of Land holding (ha)	-0.0000	0.0022	0.2404
8.	Net value of agricultural production per ha.	0.0001	0.0550	6.1541
9.	Number of schemes participated	0.0001	0.1255	13.8342
10.	Outstanding loan per capita /Total per capita income	0.2190	0.0550	6.1541
11.	Total market participation per capita	-0.0001	0.0359	3.9572
12.	Percentage adults (above 18 years) educated	0.0153	0.1741	19.1989
13.	Political and social participation score	-0.0071	-0.0011	-0.1172

RESULTS :

$$D^2 = 0.9070472$$

$$\text{Hotelling } T^2 = 37.42844$$

$$\text{Degrees of Freedom} = \frac{N_1 \cdot N_2}{N_1 + N_2} - P - 1$$

$$= \frac{53 \cdot 113}{53 + 113} - 13 - 1 = 164$$

$$\text{Calculated } F = 2.914402$$

at 1 percent level of significance

$$\text{Value of Critical Factor } T^2 = 13.95122$$

$$\text{Mean of } Z \text{ for group 1} = 1.468011$$

$$\text{Mean of } Z \text{ for group 2} = 0.5617636$$

$$\text{Mean of } Z \text{ for Total} = 0.8929688$$

$$\text{Critical } T^2 = 13.95 \times 2.0385 = 28.437875$$

1% Significant

$$13.95 \times 1.6064 = 22.40928$$

5% Significant

7.6 COEFFICIENT CONTRIBUTION OF INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

To understand the relative importance of the characteristics (indicators) with their power to discriminate between the two groups of sample households and the percentages to the total, D^2 values were calculated and presented in two sets (Table 7.5.1 and 7.5.2). From the Table 7.5.1 (Set-I) and Table 7.5.2 (Set-II), it can be observed that there are more negative coefficients. These indicate the inverse scale of discrimination of the factors which negatively contribute towards distinguishing the two groups. According to Altman (1968.P.597) by and large, negative correlations are more helpful than positive correlations in adding of the new information to the discriminant function. The logic behind the high negative correlations in the ineffective group is that the sample households suffering from lack of so many things, viz. landholding, stock of capital, consumption, unemployment etc. It is observed from the Table 7.5.1 and 7.5.2 that all the variables display significant difference between the groups. The importance of Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis is its ability to separate groups using multivariate measures (Altman 1968, P.597).

The Discriminant Functions considering the selected developmental characteristics (indicators) fitted to the data for the two groups i.e. for Set A and Set B are presented below.

$$\text{Set A : } Z = 0.9287 - 0.0041 - 0.0023 + 0.3385 - 1.7759 + \\ 0.0001 + 0.8254 + 0.2246 - 0.0001 + 0.0000 + \\ 0.0136 - 0.0496$$

$$\text{Set B : } 0.5174 - 0.0045 - 0.8848 - 0.0024 + 0.3437 - \\ 2.0194 - 0.0000 + 0.0001 + 0.8001 + 0.2190 - \\ 0.0001 + 0.0153 - 0.0071$$

D^2 and hoteling T^2 Statistics were worked out to be 0.90404 and 37.30435 for Set A and 0.9070472 and 37.42844 for Set B respectively. A test to determine the overall discriminating power of the model is the common 'F' value. In the study, 'F' value is calculated according to the formula of $N - P - 1$ degrees of freedom, (Li 1964, P.417). The computed values of F are 2.91 (Set A) and 2.68 (Set B) whereas, the table value of F at the 1 per cent level of significant is 2.18. This shows that the results are significant at 1% level of significance. Further critical value of T^2 is calculated as follows based on the Table value of F.

$$\text{Critical } T^2 = \frac{(N-2)P}{N-P-1} F$$

Where,
N=Total number of sample households.
P=Number of Variables.
F=Table Value of F at the given level of significance.

$$T^2 = 12.8 * 2.1848 \\ = 27.96544$$

(1 per cent significance level)

$$T^2 = 12.8 * 1.7522 = 22.42816$$

(at 5 % significance level)

Since computed T^2 , which is 37.30435 for Set A and 37.42844 for Set B, are higher than the computed critical values of T^2 at 1 % level of significance, this indicates, that the difference between the two groups is highly significant in the study. Which would mean that the 12 characteristics in Set A and 13 characteristics in Set B considered together are useful in classifying the sample households into the two groups namely those who have effectively availed the benefits of the developmental programmes to cross poverty barrier and the others who could not do so. It is clear from the above discussion that the results of the two sets are almost similar in all the respects therefore, for the purpose of further analysis we made use of the results of Set A.

The sample of 178 households was segregated into two groups as indicated earlier based on the field data. These groups include 65 households in group CPLE and 113 households in group NCPLE. By using the discriminant coefficients and the group distributions we calculated from the sample households the number of households falling into the two groups based on the individual measurement index. In the first group we found 70.77 percent accuracy and 29.23 per cent error and in the second group we found 67.26 accuracy and 32.34 per cent error.

TABLE 7.6.1 : DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS INTO TWO GROUPS.

Group	Identified with the help of MLDA	Percent correct	percent error	Earlier Identification
Group I (CPLE)	46	70.77	29.23	65
Group II(NCPLE)	76	67.26	32.74	113
Total	122	68.54	31.46	178

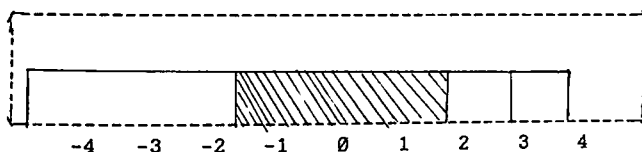
Note : 56 households fall in the 'Gray Zone'.

7.7 INDEX VALUES OF THE INDIVIDUAL SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

The index values for the sample households are shown in Appendix 7.2. It may be observed from the Appendix 7.2 that the maximum index value for an effectively successful household is 3.70227 and the minimum index value for an effectively successful sample household is -0.7410586. The maximum index value for an unsuccessful household is 2.753254 and the minimum index value is -4.900982. There are some overlapping of the index values from the two groups. The index values are arranged in ascending order (Appendix 7.2). It comes out clearly that all the sample households having an index value (Z score) of greater than -0.7410586 falls into the "efficient" user of the programme, (CPLE) at the same time those sample households having a index value (Z score) in the range of (-0.74 to 2.75) can be included in NCPLE. The area between the two groups can be called as the "zone of ignorance" or "gray area", (Altman 1968, P.606).

This area is observed because of the susceptibility to the error, (Figure 7.1). Hence, it is desirable to establish a guideline for classifying households appropriately to avoid the overlapping. In other words, it is necessary to find out the "division point" and with the help of such division point it would be possible to discriminate two groups properly.

FIGURE - 7.1 "GRAY ZONE" ACCORDING TO HOUSEHOLDS EFFECTIVENESS INDEX (HEI)



Group 1 = -4.900982 to 2.753254

Group 2 = -0.7410586 to 3.702270

* Boundary of Group 1 (CPLE)

** Boundary of Group 2 (NCPLE)

7.8 DIVISION POINT TO SEPARATE THE TWO GROUPS :

The Division point is calculated by the following formula.

$$Y_c = \frac{b_y Y_a + b_a Y_p}{b'a + b'p}$$

Y_c = The calculated Division point

Y_a and Y_b = The calculated means for the discriminant function of CPLE and NCPLE.

b_a and b_p = The standard deviations for Y_a and Y_p are b_a and b_p respectively, (Dunn and Frey, 1976, P. 64).

TABLE 7.8.1 COMPOSITE GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION

Sr. No.	Group	Composite Group means	Standard Deviations
1	1	1.5076320 (Ya)	0.7555977 (ba)
2	2	0.6035953 (Yp)	1.0390630 (bp)

$$Y_c = 1.1270113$$

The Multivariate Linear Discriminant Function results can be used to indicate whether a beneficiary of any development programmes is likely to use the programme assistance effectively or otherwise. After calculating the mean value (Z_1) for effective use of programme assistance to cross the poverty barrier and (Z_2) for the others, the values can be used to indicate the group identity of household.

The calculated division point is 1.127011. Now for any individual sample households if their index value (HEI) is more than 1.127011, it can be included in the group of those who have effectively used the developmental programme assistance to cross the poverty barrier or in group CPLE. Thus the high values of "Z" correspond to the effective use of the developmental programme assistance to cross the poverty barrier and low values indicate the other side of the argument. This can be shown as below in Table 7.8.2.

TABLE 7.8.2 : RESULTS BASED ON THE DIVISION POINT

SR. NO.	PARTICULARS	RESULTS (VALUES)
A.	Mean Z Score for the CPLR	1.507635
B.	Z Score division (separating) point of the Group - I and Group - II	1.127011
C.	Mean Z Score for NCPLR	0.6035953
D.	Number of household classified under CPLR using the division point.	83 (46.63 %)
E.	Number of households classified under NCPLR using the division point.	95 (53.37 %)

Thus from the Table 7.8.2 four important things can be inferred. Firstly, the division point of CPLR and NCPLR falls at Z score of 1.127011. This indicates that households scoring the total of the Z score ⁱⁿ this division point can effectively use the programme assistance to cross the barrier of poverty line. Secondly, the Table 7.8.2 gives the clear classification of total households in two groups by clarifying the position of the households about the falling in Gray Zone. Thirdly, 46.63 percent of the households seems to have used the developmental programme assistance effectively as against 53.37 percent of the households who could not make use of the programmes due to various constraints. Lastly these constraints come out very clearly in the form of discriminating variables.

7.9 CONCLUSIONS :

The analysis of the effectiveness of developmental programme has revealed some fundamental aspects in the field of programme policy formulation and their implementation. The developmental programmes generate additional income as well as influences the other important factors like assets, social and political status. The task to identify the households which effectively use the programme assistance is very difficult for policy makers as well as for the programme implementing agencies. More information about the households is required to identify the below poverty line families and on the basis of the available information, we can construct an index value (HEI) for a particular family. Such an index value (HEI) for a particular family can be helpful in identifying the beneficiaries for the developmental programme. It is possible also to deal with the crucial developmental characteristics in order to make a programme successful. Hence, in this Chapter, we have attempted to construct an index value (HEI) for the sample households, on the basis of primary data and with the help of MLDA. It was found that ^{44.63} per cent of the beneficiaries have used the programme assistance effectively to cross the poverty barrier. Whereas, ^{53.37} per cent households could not use the programme assistance effectively due to various constraints.

The MLDA is used here to find a discriminant function and the relative coefficient of discriminations for variables chosen out of ten groups. The group of variables includes [1] Income and related parameters, [2] Asset holding, [3] Total assistance, [4] Consumption pattern, [5] Land holdings, [6] Scheme participation, [7] Loan and Repayment, [8] Marketing habits, [9] Educational level, and [10] Socio-political status and participation.

Different variables were prepared and on the basis of the group means, standard deviation and the correlation matrix, two Sets were chosen for the purpose of the analysis. The major groups for the purpose of MLDA are those households who have effectively used the programme assistance to cross the poverty barrier successfully (CPLE) and those who could not achieve such level due to various socio-economic constraints (NCPLE). The major discriminating factors emerging out of the analysis from the Set A (Table 7.5.1 and Table 7.5.2) are i) total assistance as percent of total income, ii) percentage of educated adults, iii) number of schemes participated, iv) total non-food consumption as percentage to total project investment, and v) outstanding loan. It is clear that the major discriminating factor has been the Government efforts along with the level of education.

In order to segregate the two groups, a division point was computed on the basis of the discriminant function.

By using the discriminant coefficient, the households were categorised into the two groups. It was found that about 69 percent of the households were correctly classified on the a priori information. The remaining households^{were} further classified with the help of division point. The division point worked out to be 1.27011.

The results of the analysis indicate five important points. Firstly, the economic effectiveness of the programmes can^{be} defined in terms of crossing the poverty barrier. Secondly, using such division obtained, the population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes can be grouped into two separate groups, among these the group which is handicapped on the basis of income level has to be the target group for developmental initiatives. Thirdly, our analysis indicates major socio-economic characteristics which help in discriminating the two groups with strong power of discrimination. It is true that these characteristics are not free of the region bias. Fourthly, once such characteristics are identified, it becomes easy to compute an index value for separating the two groups. Lastly, in the analysis of such separation, it is possible to identify the weak of the weaker sections and design special programmes for them or develop new programmes to influence the important discriminating factors.

From the analysis of MLD function, we could obtain four important things. Firstly, the division point of CPLE and NCPLE is at Z score of 1.127011. This indicated that those households scoring total of the Z score (this division point) can effectively use the programme assistance to cross the barrier of poverty line. Secondly, the analysis gives the clear classification of total households in two groups by clarifying the position of the households falling in the Gray Zone. Thirdly, 46.63 percent of the households seems to have used the developmental programme assistance effectively as against 53.37 percent of the households who could not make use of the programmes due to various constraints. Lastly, these constraints came out very clearly in the form of discriminating variables.

APPENDIX 7.1 DEFINITION OF THE VARIABLES

Sr. No.	Variable Definitions
1.	Durable assets X 100 /Total assets
2.	Per capita Durable assets /TPI
3.	Incremental Programme Income /Scheme Income
4.	Wage Income X 100 /Total Income
5.	Expenditure Technology /TPI
6.	Total Assistance as percent of total income
7.	Total Consumption /TPI
8.	Per Capita Total food consumption /TPI
9.	Total Non-food consumption /TPI
10.	Total Income after programme - Income before /TPI
11.	Total Per Capita Income before programme /TPI
12.	Assets per capita/size of landholding (ha)
13.	Net value of agricultural production per hector
14.	Expenditure on scheme/Total Income
15.	Scheme expenditure/TPI
16.	Number of Schemes participated in
17.	Outstanding Loan per capita/total per capita income
18.	Repayment of loan/Total scheme income
19.	Outstanding loan per capita/Total scheme income
20.	Total scheme expenditure/Total scheme income
21.	Total market participation per capita
22.	Value of total services purchases per capita
23.	Percentage adults (above 18 years) educated
24.	Political and social participation score
25.	Expenditure an addition habits to total non-food consumption
26.	Durable assets/TPI
27.	Scheme Income/TPI

APPENDIX 7.2 INDEX VALUES OF THE INDIVIDUAL SAMPLE
HOUSEHOLDS (HOUSEHOLDS EFFECTIVENESS INDEX -
HEI)

GROUP - 1

SR. NO.	SEQ. NO.	Z VALUES	SR. NO.	SEQ. NO.	Z VALUES
1	1	2.141566	75	34	1.405294
2	2	1.068219	82	35	.1176901 *
3	3	1.36122	86	36	1.411501
7	4	1.274829	89	37	2.231589
8	5	.2893641 *	90	38	1.478465
9	6	2.198015	93	39	1.406061
10	7	2.002472	96	40	2.103048
11	8	1.601492	99	41	.7828941 *
14	9	1.554578	104	42	2.080643
15	10	1.610242	110	43	3.174716
16	11	1.315437	125	44	1.526535
18	12	1.71403	133	45	2.646741
25	13	.5564332 *	134	46	1.483465
34	14	1.052623	138	47	.7410586 *
35	15	1.722718	142	48	.5743107 *
39	16	.8214655 *	146	49	.1918385 *
40	17	1.666128	152	50	1.455258
41	18	2.263127	153	51	.812539 *
45	19	1.798663	154	52	1.162926
48	20	.9009749 *	157	53	2.005052
52	21	.9750868	158	54	1.533248
54	22	1.225522	159	55	1.11656
57	23	1.208736	160	56	1.190408
58	24	1.665607	161	57	1.361618
60	25	.6882213 *	162	58	1.115879
63	26	1.540866	163	59	3.445036
64	27	1.715517	164	60	2.675918
66	28	2.289239	169	61	.815504 *
67	29	1.682802	170	62	1.551979
68	30	1.991065	171	63	1.077779
69	31	1.79384	172	64	1.124057
70	32	2.257002	173	65	3.702227
71	33	2.264732			

*star values are misclassification in respective groups in relation to general average of Z values.

GROUP - 2

SR. NO.	SEQ. NO.	Z VALUES	SR. NO.	SEQ. NO.	Z VALUES	SR. NO.	SEQ. NO.	Z VALUES
4	1	.7563026	72	39	1.881981 *	121	77	1.418775 *
5	2	1.248134 *	73	40	-1.815649	122	78	1.504464 *
6	3	.5038397	74	41	1.670458 *	123	79	-.1164031
12	4	1.017755 *	76	42	1.644923 *	124	80	-.5499612
13	5	-1.038998	77	43	-4.800982	126	81	8.120367E-02
17	6	-.1221244	78	44	2.002822 *	127	82	-.1132441
19	7	.7309076	79	45	1.16417 *	128	83	.5890194
20	8	.5342095	80	46	-.8895522	129	84	9.401119E-02
21	9	.9032983	81	47	-2.162236E-02	130	85	-.2999957
22	10	.6956955	83	48	-.497037	131	86	.6369357
23	11	1.490727 *	84	49	-.341117	132	87	-.4772319
24	12	.9582069 *	85	50	.6207896	135	88	.4987441
26	13	1.310054 *	87	51	2.246048 *	136	89	.4188324
27	14	-.4861993	88	52	.923372	137	90	-1.167024
28	15	.6280189	91	53	-.575654	139	91	1.155966 *
29	16	.9515776 *	92	54	.6219531	140	92	2.297948 *
30	17	.7829774	94	55	1.440824 *	141	93	.4067842
31	18	.2104816	95	56	2.753254 *	143	94	1.13142 *
32	19	-.2684501	97	57	1.49665 *	144	95	-.7880885
33	20	.6662403	98	58	2.686391 *	145	96	1.489364 *
36	21	.8727307	100	59	1.578858 *	147	97	.2600523
37	22	1.686623 *	101	60	.1004291	148	98	1.214679 *
38	23	1.429783 *	102	61	1.693581 *	149	99	-1.091725E-02
42	24	1.459639 *	103	62	.9878841 *	150	100	2.592857 *
43	25	.1595844	105	63	-5.316849E-02	151	101	2.445158 *
44	26	.3518099	106	64	1.119339 *	155	102	1.082918 *
46	27	1.25327 *	107	65	-.5362452	156	103	.7940359
47	28	.2904692	109	66	-1.19762	165	104	2.056784 *
49	29	-1.019966	111	67	-.165191	166	105	1.884717 *
50	30	.1340569	112	68	-.1171084	167	106	-.3228536
51	31	1.273078 *	113	69	-.7315788	168	107	1.269671 *
53	32	.7527512	114	70	.5603262	174	108	1.14228 *
55	33	.6991116	115	71	-.6506083	175	109	-.1331371
56	34	.9668031 *	116	72	.6716448	176	110	1.354591 *
59	35	.161594	117	73	6.180319E-02	177	111	.660634
61	36	.1130202	118	74	1.172911 *	178	112	.8415896
62	37	1.224635 *	119	75	.8567007	179	113	.7729043
65	38	1.324072 *	120	76	.1291097			

*star values are misclassification in respective groups in relation to general avargae of Z values.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 THE PROBLEM

The Constitution of India provided safeguards to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to construct a casteless modern society. This was intended to provide equal opportunities in employment and education, as well as to remove the discrimination which is responsible to perpetuate the social inequality. The Central Government and the state Governments have implemented several developmental programmes for the development of weaker sections. In addition to this, the Governments are making considerable change in the policy and in financial outlays through the five year plans. However, some earlier studies including Reports of the Commissioner and Commission of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, observed the condition of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes on their income and asset conditions, educational level and consumption pattern. It is reported that the measures still do not yield sufficient results. The available studies have not examined the effects of indicators sufficiently. The present study makes an attempt to highlight the inadequacies in earlier studies and assess the effectiveness of the developmental programmes at micro level.

The specific objectives of the study are :

1. To attempt a thematic review of the past studies relating to the present study.
2. To analyse the emergence of the caste system and important theories governing it.
3. To ascertain the growth and distribution of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the country as well as in the state of Maharashtra and to analyse the strategies adopted towards amelioration of their conditions.
4. To obtain a perceptible view of the changes in different economic parameters and social conditions, and
5. To analyse the effectiveness of the developmental programmes at micro-level, in terms of the determining factors for effectiveness represented by the economic parameters.

The study utilises data both at secondary as well as primary levels. The secondary level data are used in order to understand the trends in the plan efforts of the developmental programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The data are also utilised to understand the spread of population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes across the region and their growth. For the collection of the primary data, the structured field schedule

was used. This was spread over sub-components, namely, general information of sample households, employment situation, agriculture, participation in various developmental schemes, cost-benefits of the programme availed, value of asset and consumption pattern etc. For the purpose of micro level study, we have selected one of the backward districts of Maharashtra, namely Ahmadnagar. The district has four subdivisions which cover Talukas on the basis of collected information from District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) Office.

A complete enumeration survey of the weaker sections of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was undertaken by the Government of Maharashtra before the implementation of the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in the State. The results of this survey gives a systematic list of the poor households from the villages and Talukas. We selected two Talukas on the basis of shortfall of coverage under this major anti-poverty programme. Three stage systematic random sampling procedure was followed with the first stage as the Talukas, second as villages and the third stage as the selection of households. The total number of selected sample households is 178, (with 107 from Sanganner and 71 from Nevasa) The methodology of analysis involves use of simple statistical techniques and tables based on the collected data. To identify the major discriminating factors determining effective use of programme assistance to cross

the poverty barrier, Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis (MLDA) was used in the study.

The study contains eight chapters. The first chapter is introductory in nature, giving the nature of the problem, methodology and concepts used in the study. The second chapter gives a brief review of literature. The third chapter discusses various theories governing the caste system and Scheduled Tribes in the Indian society. The fourth chapter deals with the analysis of developmental programmes implemented by the Central and the State Governments and various agencies. The fifth chapter presents the characteristics of the study area. The sixth chapter attempts to assess the socio-economic condition of the sample households. The seventh chapter deals with evaluating the effectiveness of developmental programmes with the help of multivariate linear discriminant analysis (MLDA). The last chapter brings out some broad conclusions emerging out of the analysis.

This study analysed the process of positive change in the standard of living of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The components studied are socio-economic conditions, poverty estimates and their measurements as well as determinants, educational development and the impact of developmental programmes. The study shows that historically caste is not a principle of social division but a comprehensive tool used for perpetuating the social

discrimination towards establishing the stronghold on economic resources. It was found that the use of caste as a basis for the socio-economic and political life is quite irrational. Sociologist as well as anthropologist did not assign due weightage to the economic aspects in the analysis of the impact of caste system on development. A large number of studies stressed on deprivation, unequal access to resources and atrocities. In spite of the Constitutional safeguards, the discrimination still continues and being practiced.

The studies on poverty covered theoretical as well as empirical aspects. Among the theoretical studies, the first group explained the origin of poverty, whereas, the second group attempted to define and measure poverty. In empirical studies, the normative nutrition requirement approach occupied the large body of the literature. Another group of studies dealt with the trend of poverty and its determinants. But hardly any of the studies touched the aspect of social and economic deprivation. The measurement of poverty on the basis of poverty line does not indicate the condition of the households. In other words, the compositions of the people below poverty line has two distinct groups, one with a normal access to productive resources as well as opportunities and the other with restricted access. This puts the later group at a highly disadvantageous position and therefore, the problem of this group of poor cannot be clubbed together with all the poor.

The studies relating to education dealt mostly with the progress and quality of education, dropouts, impact of education and policy of education for the weaker sections. The review also found that the boys and girls from the depressed class fall considerably behind the students of the other castes in the access to the facilities. The main factors responsible for the dropouts are : i) psychological, ii) socio-economic and iii) educational.

One issue emerged from the review is that the task of the upliftment of backward communities should not be left entirely to the Government. It was also found that overall impact of education on employment and income is positive. The studies relating to the programmes taken up for ameliorating the conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are grouped into four broad categories, First, poverty eradication and income generating asset programmes; Second, Employment generating programmes; Third, Specific programmes of assistance, and Last, Assistance from financial institutions.

It was observed that only a small proportion of non-land asset group benefited from these schemes. Further, the incremental income was not sufficient even to pay the installments. The review also showed that the Employment Guarantee Scheme of Maharashtra state has benefited only 5 percent of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population of the state. The assistance provided to the

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was also noted as inadequate and it seemed difficult to replace the old exploitative system. The programme review indicated lapses not only in implementation but at times the design of the programmes also had problems. This has resulted some times in the programme working even against the basic philosophy envisaged in its design.

The analysis of the origin of caste system and the ranking of social order brought out that there are two broad approaches and five theories of caste. In the first approach, it is argued that the caste system originated probably out of **Adhyakas** and **Anatyas** and became hereditary. The characteristics of caste and criteria came to be decided by the circumstances of birth. The second approach, however, stresses the conflict between two races of Aryans and Pre-Aryans. Since the division of that time was based on colour, it assumed the name of 'Varna System'.

First theory of caste, is based on **Varna system** and originated according to the code of Manu. Second theory, is entirely based on the division of occupation. Third theory, of caste is a result of tribal origins and religion. Fourth theory, explains the genes corresponding to gotras. The last theory of caste states the origin of the caste as colour and hypergamy. Apart from these, Ambedkar's (1948) view was different regarding the theory of castes and origin of the caste in Indian society. He argued that the caste originated

out of the struggle for supremacy between Brahminism and Buddhism. The struggle was basically to control the resources and it became a dominating factor for discrimination. Untouchability and other irrational norms are used as the tools to perpetuate the control.

In the caste system, the inequality is institutionalised and it is perpetuated. Which is explained in the Classical Model of Social Stratification. This model portrays two views i.e. (i) Older view, (ii) Empirical view. The first view states that caste is a system in which there is little social mobility and the second view, which is based on empirical studies, states that there were poor in the higher caste and some wealthier in the low caste. There was no clear definition of Caste and Tribes in India prior to 1931 census. First time in 1931 census, it was attempted with 9 possible test to identify castes. Though, there are a large amount of work by sociologists and other social scientists, the list of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (1931 census) still serves as the point of reference till date. The problem of the Scheduled Tribes are different from those of the Scheduled Castes. They are isolated rather than resource deprived. They are relatively better off than untouchables in certain aspects but live in extreme poverty.

The spread of density of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, as well as the allocation of the expenditure on the welfare programmes are the two important

factors analysed here. The analysis of the distribution of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes indicated two important observations. Firstly, Rajasthan and Tripura (followed by Orissa) are the States with high concentration of both the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Whereas, Kerala and Karnataka have very low concentration. Secondly, there are changes in the concentration ratios. In the case of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Tripura and West Bengal, the concentration ratios have changed upwards and in the case of Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Rajasthan Sikkim and Tamil Nadu, the concentration ratios have changed downwards. In the case of the rest of the States, these ratios stayed almost the same.

The allocation of plan resources over the planning period indicated the trends in the efforts for the welfare of this group. The initial development policy framework for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes does not clearly indicate any focused and specific approach.

The strategy of development programmes shifted from the development of the area approach focusing on infrastructure to development of individuals or households. Over the plan periods, the proportion of allocation on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes has declined steadily. Further, the trends in the expenditure on the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have indicated almost stagnation in terms of per capita expenditure at

constant prices. The trends at all India level as well as those for Maharashtra were similar.

The target group approach dealt with the removal of poverty and provision of employment and assets. Thus, the rural development focus was shifted from area approach to employment approach. The main reason for the poor performance of the programme cited are discontinuity in the programmes, ineffective implementation, overlapping of the objectives.

A cross sectional comparison attempted between certain developmental indicators found that the relationship between the outlay and the proportion of the Scheduled Castes across the States was negative while the proportion of people below the poverty line as well as the Gini coefficient of inequality in asset distribution or rural households (1972-1982) has positive and high correlation with the outlay on welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The percent of population below the poverty line also showed a positive relationship with the proportion of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It indicated larger concentration of poor among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes communities.

The State of Maharashtra happens to fall in the interesting category of better economic base but with higher level of poverty. The changes in the development philosophies for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

after the post - independence can be broadly grouped into six phases. The first phase began with the direct attack on untouchability and provided opportunities for social equality. The second phase was marked with constitutional provisions, educational programmes and equality in access. The third phase included the trickle down approach in the policy of positive discrimination. With the realisation of the failure of the trickle down philosophy, the fourth phase concentrated on the target group specific programmes. Employment, income and asset generation were the focus of the programmes. This phase also gave rise to the fifth phase in the development scenario. The social awakening among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes marks the last phase in their struggle for development.

The analysis of the characteristics of the study area showed that among the individual land holdings groups, marginal farmers constituted dominant group among the Scheduled Castes, whereas, the medium and small farmers are dominant among the Scheduled Tribes.

The concentration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population in the district is quite close to the State Average. The work participation rate as well as other economic indicators of the district across Talukas, indicated a significantly different patterns of development in the district. There are Talukas which are yet to get into the mainstream of development and at the same time there are

prospering Talukas. Various developmental Programmes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are being implemented in the district. Integrated Rural Development programme is the only programme which began with the identification of the beneficiary families and thus, gives a clear picture of the spread of the people below poverty line in the districts as well as the concentration of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes among the beneficiaries. The analysis of the coverage under IRDP indicates the surplus and shortfall in terms of the targets covered for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Out of 13 Talukas, 6 Talukas have surplus and 7 Talukas have shortfall in various developmental schemes. The highest surplus is recorded in Nevasa Taluka. Whereas, the value of shortfall is largest in Sangamner Taluka. Therefore, these two Talukas were selected for the purpose of the analysis.

The analysis of the Taluka level data indicated quite a few interesting aspects. Overall cropping pattern and crop combinations in the district during the first decade (1961-62 to 1970-71) and the second decade, (1970-71 to 1980-81) showed that the area under sugarcane, fruits and vegetables increased but at the cost of pulses and oilseeds. In the first decade, the area under cereals increased but decreased subsequently in the second decade. The area under non-food crops also decreased in first decade but increased in the second decade.

Among the basic infrastructural facilities, the primary education facilities are available in almost all the villages of the district. In four Talukas, the number of dispensaries and Primary Health Centres were above the district average. The main source of drinking water in the district is well. The power supply was available in more than 75 percent villages.

Out of the total (365 thousand) families, about 50 percent of the families are below poverty line (BPL). Among these, two third were selected for the programme participation and out of the selected BPL families, two third were covered under the various schemes of the Integrated Rural Development Programme during 1981-82 to 1988-89 period. Among the BPL families, about 40 percent belonged to the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe communities. Out of these, more than 60 percent of the Scheduled Castes families and 38 percent of the Scheduled Tribe families were covered under various schemes of IRDP.

The effectiveness of the developmental programmes has multiple facets. The effectiveness means finding the positive changes in the intended parameters and standardising such change by expressing it in terms of the units of efforts taken. In other words, the change due to the programme per unit of the efforts taken will indicate the effectiveness of the programme. If two similar programmes are implemented to improve the economic well

being of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the incremental income generated gives the impact of the programme but such incremental income per unit of the efforts (represented by either the investment or total cost of the programme) will give a clear indicator of the effectiveness. This will help in deciding the effectiveness not only across the programmes but also across the sample households. Thus, the effectiveness of any developmental programme is a function of several characteristics. To evaluate the effectiveness of the developmental programmes, first, the study has focused on the identification of the present conditions of the beneficiaries which indicated one angle of the effectiveness and subsequently the determinants of the effectiveness are analysed.

The knowledge of socio-economic condition of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes before the assistance period and post assistance period is essential for any analysis of the development programmes. The information regarding their level of income before participating in any scheme has been collected from the registers at the Block Development Office. For the purpose of the analysis, the collected data was divided into following sections. i) Pre-assistance and present Socio-economic condition ii) Identification of beneficiaries for the sanction of the scheme iii) Agricultural Development iv) Asset, Loan and Overdue problem v) Consumption pattern and Last Section is determining the effectiveness.

The rural population of the sample households was 1052. It included more than fifty percent male. The productive population was less than 35 per cent and about 2.5 percent children are working as child labour. The literacy level of the sample population shows that every second person is literate. Among the literates, about half have attended only four years of schooling. A considerable share of the sample households are engaged in primary sector occupation followed by secondary.

About two third of the sample beneficiaries have income less than Rs. 2500 and it also shows that nearly one fifth of the non eligible persons got the benefits of the poverty alleviation programmes. There are quite a few other programmes operating in the region. More than fifty percent of the sample households were benefited under the Integrated Rural Development Programme and the remaining were benefited under the other programmes like, Indira Awas Yojana, Mahatma Phule Magasvargiya Vikas Mahamandal, Rajur Adivasi Vikas Mahamandal, Co-operative Societies, Training of Rural Youths for self Employment, School hostel facilities and Khadi and village Industries commission. Nearly half of the beneficiaries did not spend any amount to collect the documents but remaining have paid upto Rs. 200 for obtaining the sanction of the scheme. This also involved considerable time lag. Some beneficiaries were required to produce securities and for that they have spent upto Rs. 400. More

than one third of the beneficiaries have insured their assets under IRDP scheme at the time of purchasing. Similarly, more than seventy percent beneficiaries purchased the asset in their presence, whereas, for the others, it was supplied.

Nearly, 47 percent of beneficiaries could not generate any income. This is almost the same in both the selected Talukas. The scheme has helped only 15 percent¹ households to cross the poverty line. Between the Talukas, Nevasa has shown better effectiveness of the scheme than Sangamner.

In the study area, it is noted that the weaker sections have very meagre land holdings. About 46 percent of the sample households are landless and almost 98 percent have the land holding size below 4 hectares. The average of land holdings of the study area is 1.16 ha., of which 1.3 ha. and 0.83 ha. of land from Sangamner and Nevasa Talukas respectively.

It is observed from the cropping pattern of the study areas that Bajara is the principal crop of almost all the land holders which account for more than seventy percent of the area. The value of Bajara production is highest and it accounts fifty percent of the value of total production. Jowar and Wheat occupy the second and third place respectively. The productivity across size of holding

1. This refers to IRDP Scheme income alone and not total income of the household.

indicated that the productivity of the farmers having land less than 1 ha. is the highest.

The average annual income of all sample households is about Rs. 13,000 per household. More than 70 percent sample households are living in huts. Nearly, one third sample households reported that they are facing infrastructural facilities i.e., drinking water, electric supply and fuel. The majority of the respondents are living in the house worth less than Rs. 5000 and only 5 percent of the households live in the houses valued more than Rs. 10,000. Among the total households, about one third do not own any type of livestock assets in the form of live-stock.

Income through labour is the main source of livelihood followed by agriculture and live-stock. Nevasa as well as Sangamner Talukas had a similar distribution of income. Out of the total, more than eight percent households have not borrowed any loan. Majority of the indebted sample households are farm labourers. However, one of the important reason for the poor recovery is that the households could not earn sufficient margin of income over expenditure, which is required for repaying the loans.

It is observed from the consumption pattern of the sample households that out of the total consumption expenditure, 75 percent is spent on food and remaining expenditure is being allocated to non-food items. The annual average consumption across the income groups of the sample

households indicated that the consumption expenditure of many of the sample households is higher than their income.

The analysis of the determinants of effectiveness was attempted through two approaches. Firstly, a look at the correlation matrix of the main sample characteristics offered some important clues. Secondly, after obtaining the broad clues from the correlation matrix. Variables were located according to their degree of influence on effectiveness. The variables were broadly grouped into five groups, namely, i) Income, ii) Agriculture iii) Assets iv) Scheme and v) Consumption. The first variable indicated the earning of the family after participation in the programmes. Agricultural income and wage income are the dominant sources of income. A positive relationship of income was noted with the non-food consumption expenditure. Another aspect observed was a negative association with the size of dry land. Agricultural income indicated a positive and high correlation with the total scheme assistance as well as with loans. The scheme related variables indicated a positive relationship with assets and scheme income and the consumption pattern showed positive relationship with asset holdings as well as irrigated land. In order to identify the major determinants of the effectiveness of the programmes, we used three sets of variables and estimated the slope coefficients with the help of a single variable additive model. The results of the first set indicated that the

durable assets, proportion of incremental programme income show a positive and significant influence on the programme effectiveness. Whereas, proportion of wage income, total assistance and the expenditure on the scheme expressed as proportion of total income showed a negative impact on the effectiveness index. The second set indicates that the number of schemes participated has emerged as a strong positive determinant of the effectiveness index and at the same time, expenditure of the sanction of the schemes showed a negative impact. The third set indicated that the proportion of repayment of loan to the total scheme income has a strong negative influence on effectiveness of the programmes.

Apart from the above analysis, the study also considered the multiple regression models to identify the joint impact of different variables on the effectiveness index. The study worked out 11 equations with different variables. It was noted from the analysis that the expenditure on non-food items emerged as a highly significant variable constantly. This indicated that the non-food consumption has a strong influence on the effectiveness of the programmes. The wage income does not emerge with significant coefficient but the sign of the coefficients relating to the wage income has been constantly negative. The other important variable emerging with the significant influence on effectiveness index is the number

of schemes participated by the respondents. This indicates that the larger the participation in the number of schemes, better is the effectiveness.

The analysis of the effectiveness of the developmental programme, has revealed some fundamental aspects in the field of developmental programme policy and their implementation. The developmental programmes generated additional income as well as influenced the other important factors like assets, social and political status. The task to identify the households which effectively used the programme assistance is very difficult for policy makers as well as programme implementing agencies. More information about the households is required to identify the below poverty line families and on the basis of the available information, we can construct an index value, namely, Household level Efficiency Index (HEI) for a particular family. Such an index (HEI) for a particular family can be helpful in identifying the potentially efficient beneficiaries for the developmental programme based on certain crucial developmental characteristics. It is possible also to deal with the crucial developmental characteristics of the weak households in order to make a programme successful. Keeping this in view, we have attempted to construct an index value (HEI) for the sample households on the basis of the primary data and with the help of Multivariate Linear Discriminant Analysis.

The MLDA is used here to find a discriminant function and the relative coefficients of discrimination for variables chosen out of the ten groups. The variable groups identified for the purpose of analysis included, [1] Income and related parameters, [2] Asset holding, [3] Total assistance, [4] Consumption pattern, [5] Land holdings, [6] Scheme participation, [7] Loan and Repayment, [8] Marketing habits, [9] Educational level, and [10] Socio-political status and participation.

Different variables were prepared and on the basis of the group means, standard deviation and the correlation matrix, two sets were chosen for the purpose of the analysis. The major groups for the purpose of MLDA were identified as those households who have effectively used the programme assistance to cross the poverty barrier successfully (CPLE) and those who could not achieve such level due to various socio-economic constraints (NCPLE). The major discriminating factors emerging out of the analysis from the Set A were, i) total assistance as percent of total income, ii) percentage of educated adults, iii) number of schemes participated, iv) total non-food consumption as percentage to total project investment, and v) outstanding loan. It is clear that the major discriminating factor has been the Government efforts along with the level of education. In other words, certain values of these five variables act as important threshold to help in identifying the potentially efficient household.

By using the discriminant coefficients, the households were categorised afresh into two groups. It was found that about 69 percent of the households were correctly classified on the *a priori* information. The remaining households falling under the gray zone were further classified with the help of division point.

The results of the analysis indicated five important aspects. Firstly, the economic effectiveness of the programmes can be defined in terms of crossing the poverty barrier. Secondly, once such a division is obtained, the population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes can be grouped into two separate groups. Among these two groups, the one which is handicapped on the basis of income level has to be the target group for the developmental initiatives. Thirdly, our analysis indicates major socio-economic characteristics which help in discriminating the two groups with strong power of discrimination. It is true that these characteristics are not free of the region bias, but they have extremely good potential to identify a potentially efficient beneficiary. Fourthly, once such characteristics are identified, it became easy to compute an index value for separating the two groups. Such index value was computed in the present study. Lastly, in the analysis of such separation, it is possible to identify the weak of the weaker sections and design special programmes for them

or develop new programmes to influence the important discriminating characteristics.

From the analysis of MLD function, we could obtain the division point of CPLE and NCPLE. This indicated that those households scoring the total of the Z score (this division point) can effectively use the programme assistance to cross the barrier of poverty line. The analysis gave the clear classification of total households in two groups by clarifying the position of the households falling in the Gray Zone. About 46.63 percent of the households seems to have used the developmental programme assistance effectively as against 53.37 percent of the households who could not make use of the programmes due to various constraints. Lastly, these constraints came out very clearly in the form of discriminating variables.

Poverty and inequality get reflected in social and economic discrimination. While inequality throws the light on the class tension, poverty eradication can be achieved through the policy intervention and programme implementation. The theories relating to the poverty explained that it has a strong linkage with the social deprivation. The rich can save more and acquire assets, and thereby dominate the political powers. At the same time, they can also afford the better quality of education. On the other side, the poor are facing larger demographic problems and consequently this situation perpetuates the inequality.

This type of inequality has come to be established in the Indian society. Instead of achieving "equality", the vicious circle of inequality continued over generations. In such situation, the design and implementation of the developmental programmes should be such that these can be efficiently used by the weak of the weaker sections. A multi-pronged inter-disciplinary approach is necessary to formulate the programmes, keeping in view the crucial discriminating factor. On this background, the prophetic words of Ambedkar convey more than volumes of analysis -

" . . . (On the contrary), whatever progress in improving the terms of associated life between individuals and classes has been made in the course of history, is due entirely to the recognition of the ethical doctrine that what is wrongly settled is never settled and must be resettled."

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