THE DYNAMICS OF SOCIAL INCLUSION OF SCHEDULED CASTES IN KERALA: A STUDY BASED ON SC DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

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By

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Certificate

This is to certify that the Ph.D. thesis entitled "THE DYNAMICS OF SOCIAL INCLUSION OF SCHEDULED CASTES IN KERALA: A STUDY BASED ON SC DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS" submitted by Mrs. Aparna S is a record of bonafide research work carried out by her under my supervision and guidance in the Department of Applied Economics in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Cochin University of Science and Technology. The thesis has not formed the basis for award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title of any other University or Board and is worth submitting for the award of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences of Cochin University of Science and Technology. I also certify that all the relevant corrections and modifications as suggested by the audience during the pre-synopsis seminar and recommended by the Doctoral Committee of the candidate have been incorporated in the thesis.

D. Rajasenan
Supervising Guide

Declaration

I hereby declare that the dissertation entitled ***"THE DYNAMICS OF SOCIAL INCLUSION OF SCHEDULED CASTES IN KERALA: A STUDY BASED ON SC DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS "*** *is a record of bona fide research work done by me under the guidance of Prof. (Dr.) D. Rajasenan, Department of Applied Economics, Cochin University of Science and Technology, and that it has not been previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or any other title of recognition.*

Aparna S

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Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abbreviations

SC	:	Scheduled Caste
SCDD	:	Scheduled Caste Development Department
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
HDI	:	Human Development Index
KIRTADS	:	Kerala Institute for Research Training and Development Studies of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes
CSSEIP	:	Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy
NSSO	:	National Sample Survey Organisation
MGNREGS	:	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme
GoI	:	Government of India
GoK	:	Government of Kerala
TPDS	:	Targeted Public Distribution System
BPL	:	Below Poverty Line
SHG	:	Self Help Group
SCSP	:	Scheduled Castes Sub Plan
SCA	:	Special Central Assistance
PCI	:	Per Capita Income
PCE	:	Per Capita Expenditure
MPCI	:	Marginal Per Capita Income
MPCE	:	Marginal Per Capita Expenditure
HCI	:	Head Count Index

PGI	:	Poverty Gap Index
SPGI	:	Squared Poverty Gap Index
SLI	:	Standard of Living Index
ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
FGT	:	Foster- Greer- Thorbecke
BLR	:	Binary Logistic Regression
KMO	:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

Chapter 1

The Dynamics of Social Inclusion of the Scheduled Castes (SCs) in Kerala: A Study Based on SC Development Projects

Introduction

Scheduled Castes in India is a constitutionally protected community to overcome caste-based oppression and suppression that had been rooted in the Vedic period to a historically downtrodden group classified on the lowest-cum-ignoble level of the occupational hierarchy. This is the reason for naming them as "Untouchables", mostly doing works related to dealing with human waste. In the 19th Century the SCs were named as "Dalits", which means the broken/scattered or spurned people. But Gandhiji popularised them with the name Harijan, which means children of god. But the SC community in general, is not happy with the name and in as much as the government of India or even state governments prevent its use in the official activities. 71 years since independence the fate of the SCs has not changed much or the strategy of inclusion of the excluded still remains a mystery in spite of plethora of development schemes and programmes aiming to uplift the socially and economically handicapped sections or to move freely in a dynamic and progressive Kerala society. The terminology 'the Scheduled Castes (SCs)' is an outcome of the Government of India Act 1935, explains the need for inclusion in various facets like social, economic, cultural and political for a community groups who have been excluded from the main stream of the society for centuries. For the transformation from the scheduled caste to a mere caste with dignity needs institutional support and good governance. For historical reasons the SC population of Kerala is less in comparison to other Indian states, as the SCs in Kerala is around 9.5

percent of the total population. Though Kerala is considered to be a progressive state, the ills of caste system is also paradoxically progressive. Accordingly, the socio-economic indicators like, literacy, education (primary, secondary and higher education), Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) are piteously low in comparison to other social groups in Kerala. Together with this the issue of high dropouts, both in the school and higher education levels, makes it more vulnerable.

Historical background of Dalit community in India

Dalit community in India is a historically left out community from the main activities of the society and economy. This is generally considered as the reason for the low economic status and living in the society. The principle reason for making such demarcation is the existence of caste system and the associated demarcation of each caste to do a certain activity for about 3000 years. The system accordingly is based on 'jathi' and 'varna'. Prolific authentication of the caste system has been found in Hindu literatures and it is glorified in the writings of Manu and in his book 'Manusmriti'. The content of the book gives more to 'Varna system' than to 'Caste system'. He gives importance to a social system giving thrust to qualities, action and activities of individuals. In this way it is authentic to define varna, a Sanskrit word 'gives to meaning to choose'. It therefore shows that the varna system is entirely different and not rigid in comparison to the present nature of the caste system. The system of varna a four-fold division of the individuals in the society is identified on the basis of occupation like Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vysyas and Shudras. But the Dalits, or untouchables have not been part of the four-fold varna system. This in turn has led to the formation of another varna, the fifth one (Panchama), who are doing the polluting and menial jobs in the society.

In this sense it is pertinent to understand the roots of the Dalits in India. This is well connected with two theoretical underpinnings, the first in this respect is connected with the Aryan invasion in the Indian continent and subjugating the original Hindus of India called the Dravidians. This made the Dravidians to do the menial jobs and they are even forbidden from learning and knowledge acquiring. Here comes the Dalits as per the first theory. But one thing is important that the Dravidians are the aborigines as well as the real Hindus. Second theory in this respect is based on Manusmriti's chathur varna. Juxtaposing these two the second theory is closer to the real situation.

Further gauging the terminology'Dalits', it seems that it has two roots, first in Sanskrit and also in Marathi languages. Dalit in classical Sanskrit infers divided, split, scattered, broken etc. Subsequently the term Dalits took a new shape in Sanskrit to explain a person not belonging to the original varna system. It is Jyotirao Phule, a social reformer, and an ardent supporter of the oppressed worked for the Dalits. In the British period prior to the Census of 1935, the Dalits term was given a new name as 'depressed classes'. This is reversed again by the Indian constitutional architect and also a Dalit, Dr. B.R Ambedhkar by endorsing lot of constitutional protection to the Dalits with the intention of Dalit upliftment. This has got further momentum with the Dalit Panthar movement in Maharashta during the 1970s, which became a cementing force in popularising the term 'Dalits'. But Gandhiji's preference is to use the term 'Harijans' (children of God) instead of Dalits. But the National Commission for Scheduled Castes clarified that the term Dalits has already become Scheduled Castes as per the constitution. The British government in 1932 accorded separate electorates to Dalit leaders for selecting Communal Awards. This was put

forwarded by Ambedkar, whereas Gandhiji opposed this, and finally this has culminated in the form of Poona Pact. This helped to influence the Government of India Act, 1935 for introducing reservation to the scheduled castes community. Nonetheless, this policy of reservation to the scheduled castes has been continued in the independent India so as to escape the SCs from the excluded situations.

Paradox of Caste Discrimination

Caste in India is noticeably important in every walks of human life. It is more significant in the case of outlier communities like the SCs. Socio-economic layering process in the Indian society is determined by the caste one belongs to (Thorat and Newman, 2007). The octopian tentacle of caste system is still prevalent in the 21st century India in the social, political, economic and organisational arenas. It is not the paucity of programmes and strategies meant for the upliftment of the SCs, but the depth of the untouchability owing to caste practices make the system unfulfilled because of the half-heartedness and governance lacunae.Hence violence and atrocities against SC women have been a matter of routine affair in India. Incident of Chakkaliyas community in Givindapuram of Palakkad district makes Kerala, the most literate and progressive state, in shame as the SC community like Chakkaliyas still face untouchability and caste exclusion from the upper castes. The main job of the Chakkaliya community traditionally is burying dead bodies of upper caste Hindus like the gounders. These Chakkaliyas can take water only from one public tap meant for them and they are served tea in separate glass in the local tea-shops.

Lewis (1985) commentary in this regard is worth mentionable “those we look down on we feel free to exploit” as inequalities acts as a source for

prejudice and discrimination. This results in the dichotomy of prominent versus subordinate groups. The prominent groups never consider the subordinate groups or consider them with low esteem. This kind of in-groups out-groups distinction the out-groups are not only discriminated but even denied the access to the means of production and also wages according to their productive efficiency. This helps to set the vicious circle in motion as discrimination leads to inequalities which in turn leads to distortion in the distribution of opportunities.

Caste is not mere behavioral pattern but it has wide impact in the society and thereby is affecting each and every human sphere of life. Hence, it distorts much planned strategies of economic, social and cultural development in the society. Modern democracy and politics are molded in caste entity and in some situation, it even impends the very nature and structure of democracy. The administrative groups and the elites in academics are helpless in such a situation. Struggles and reform movements could not help to refrain from the ill-effects of caste system and the associated evils of exclusion and discrimination. Because of all these caste-free or caste-neutral still remains an utopian dream.Weiner's quote still remains an adage in social discourse in Indian life and society and the importance that is given to the caste system- "the movement for change is not a struggle to end caste, rather to use caste as an instrument of social change. What is emerging in India is a social and political system which institutionalises and transforms but does not abolish caste".

The legacy of social Exclusion in India- various levels

In order to understand the legacy of social exclusion, it needs to understand the matrix of exclusion and its dimensions and interlinkages in

the society and economy. Exclusion *per se* is multidimensional in characteristics, a simple exclusion, say for example the caste-based exclusion works in myriad forms as in cultural, political, economic, education, employment and civil. Exclusion can also happen naturally or forcefully and both have different impacts in society. In this caste-based exclusion is implemented through traditional social institutions and the impact of it is numerous. Within the cultural ambience the Dalit symbols have been considered insignificant. To restrict this tendency the government considered legal and constitutional measures to counter the issue of untouchability. But this is more of a psychological behaviour of individuals, which could not be corrected with legal measure alone. This is well enunciated in the Indian Human Development Survey (2012), though the issue of untouchability is constitutionally banned, it is still practised as per the 30 percent of the respondence of the rural households. This hinders them to procure agricultural land and capital assets and hence oppression and exclusion continued incessantly.

This makes the untouchable to lead separate social life of which the mainstream society does not have any connection. They are living specific areas quite often called SC colonies and these areas lack most of the basic facilities for a decent life. They are forced to do menial and shameful works to eke out their living. Society imposes restriction in marrying an untouchable. If it happens, it may lead to honour killing. This is widely reported from the rural areas of the country. In the socially forward and literate state of Kerala have several episodes of honour killing of the boy or girl of a lower community either by the relatives or the parents themselves. These exclusionary actions do have wide impacts to the SC community to earn and learn and thereby ending them in the vicious nexus of poverty trap.

This spreads and transmits intergenerationally in the areas of asset generation, education and employment distributions. Hence their participation rate in the nation building is meagre with scanty income share so as to generate any impact in their income propagation and associated dynamics in the income distribution.

Dalits in Kerala

There exists a speciality in caste structure in Kerala compared to other parts of India. Because of the Namboodiri Brahman superiority, others in the four-fold caste hierarchy are insignificant in Kerala. This is indeed a ritualised system of chathur varna as found in other parts of India. In short, the conditions of the shudras were much worse in Kerala as compared to rest of the country and they are even addressed as 'slave caste' in lieu of oppressed class. Dalit history is entangled with the Dalit Christians and Dalit Muslims and hence they are not Hindu alone in Kerala. The role of Christian missionaries made a new rhythm in the caste practices and untouchability in Kerala. Robin Jeffrey using the quote of the wife of a Christian missionary in 1860 "... a Nair can approach but not touch a Namboodiri Brahmin: a Chovan [Ezhava] must remain thirty-six paces off, and a Pulayan slave ninety-six steps distant. A Chovan must remain twelve steps away from a Nair, and a Pulayan sixty-six steps off, and a Parayan some distance farther still. Pulayans and Parayars, who are the lowest of all, can approach but not touch, much less may they eat with each other" illustrates the real spirit of caste practices in Kerala. To have a good status in Kerala society and also to nullify the revulsions of untouchability, outliers' conversion to Christianity seemed to be an entity for survival. Though it had some solace in the beginning, it intensified the problem of

untouchability further. This is because the Syrian Christians of Kerala also adopted and practised untouchability in its severity.

Poyikayil Yohannan, a Dalit liberation theologist and a believer of the Marthomachurch, through the Prathyaksha Raksha Daiva Sabha (PRDS) vehemently criticised the discriminatory attitude of the church towards the Dalits. The church was strong enough to expel him from the church. This also explains the strangeness of the spirit of untouchability worked in Kerala. His writing really helped the Dalit Christians in Kerala, but the works of PRDS for the Dalit Christians eclipsed after the death of Yohannan owing to the absence of a strong and charismatic leader.

Soon, wealth forms the centre of social status and the have nots become the slaves in economic basis in Kerala. Who could amass or accumulate wealth took the control of the social system and in that sense, Dalits are generally considered as people with no wealth. The reason is that they were mere tillers of the land with no ownership in land or the agricultural field they worked. Soon the social system became severe as the Dalits had been prohibited in using the roads near Vaikom, Guruvayoor and other main temples in Kerala.

This kind of division of society is the off-shoot of the political process of the Chera Empire in the period of 400-500 AD. This has helped the Brahmins to establish their superiority and they extended distinct privileges to other people who had supported them. Meanwhile the division of labour based on economic stratification helped to mark a group of people degraded and controlled and later they became the untouchables destined to work for the masters in the fields and other places. The masters could even sell, mortgage for their benefits. Logan explained this in 1887 that this was

done stealthily to avoid penalties of the Indian Penial Code passed in 1862 relating the Sections under 370 and 371.The proclamation of 1936 involving the temple entry was in fact a progressive reform to eradicate untouchability. This is progressive in the sense that such an action was taken in the Madras state only in the year 1946. It was so significant that, even in Madras such a step was taken only in 1946. The temple proclamation gave free entry to any Hindu by birth to the temples under the control of the Maharajah or his government. This period also witnessed several social reform movements in order to revolt against the caste-based exclusion and untouchability with the noble and visionary leaderships from Sri Narayana Guru and Ayyankali. These reform movements helped a lot in changing the life and livelihood of the outlier communities of Kerala.

Another important impetus that happened in the case of SCs and other marginalised communities of Kerala is the class struggle ignited by the communist party in achieving the rights of the Dalits of Kerala. But slowly the communist party seems to withdraw from the class-based contestation and therefore has been trying to make class-compromises based on caste-based politics. A form of vote-bank politics and in this most of the communal parties have formed their own political parties and gained political representation in the Kerala assembly. Some communities in Kerala because of these actions their bargaining power in the power sharing process is very high. Nonetheless, the Dalits are out of this alien and they still are happy with the constitutional reservation quota.

Research Problem

Kerala's inclusive development pattern, peculiar among the Indian states, giving opportunity to everyone in development discourse with high

doses of investment in education and health sectors was considered as a special model to be imitated by the development thinkers globally as 'Kerala Model of Development'. This was probably an apt one to a country or state with low per-capita income for the 1960s and 1970s and hence Kerala model of development became a global dialogue in the development of development thinking. But the situation in Kerala in the mid-1980s made a big shift with the increased inflow of foreign remittances. Soon exclusionary leanings with noticeable inequality in income distribution and associated ramifications in poverty and education attainments. Nonetheless, the development indicators turned to be true only in a central tendency level, it is untrue in statistical dispersion framework identifying some communities in Kerala as outliers of the development dynamics and the Scheduled Caste's in Kerala is one such group. A cursory touch of their socio-economics gives clear evidence that they are miserably backward and excluded in the areas of education, health, land owning and even in socio-cultural settings. Intensive institutional interferences in the form of development schemes since independence, starting with Integrated Rural Development Projects to the present Scheduled Caste Development Projects both on the part of the Central and State governments, have resulted, in instead ofuplifting the SC community to a situation of increasing immiseration, exclusion and hatred. Distilling the result in a development process of the Scheduled Castes, it shows implementation and a governance lacuna, which in turn dampens the dynamics of development and hence it does not generate the requisite multiplier originally contemplated. In the light of this, it is worthy to identify the ins and outs for the formulation of such dampening dynamics of development of the SC community despite heavy doses of spending year to year to bring the outliers from the shackles

of shame to fame and inclusion. To address these, it seems necessary to camouflage the perception of the community before embarking on any specific inclusion agenda in SC development activation.

In the ambit of this research problem the major objectives of the study are

Objectives

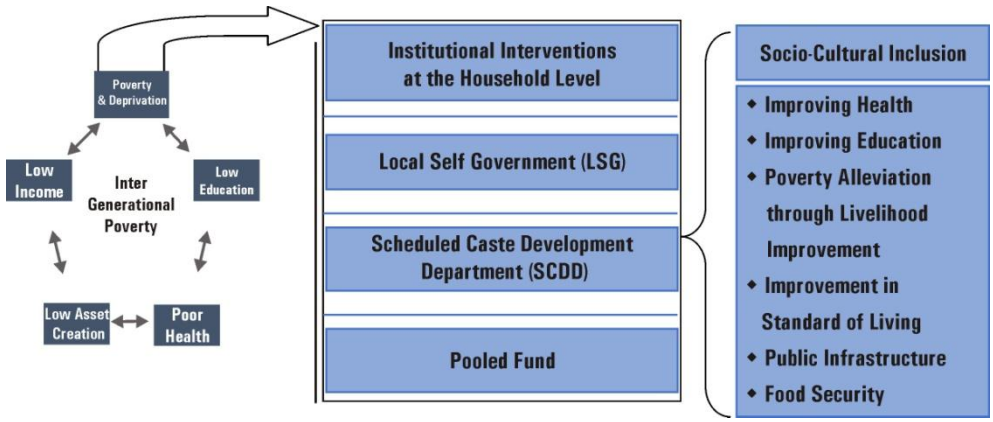
1. To analyse the socio-economic condition of SCs in Kerala based on SLI framework.
2. To develop a profile of different SC community prevalent in the state so as to work out their standard of living by using poverty index method.
3. Analyse inclusion/exclusion based on of SC Developmental projects in a social class framework.
4. Work out the sustainability of SC development schemes based on the perception of the beneficiaries.

Conceptual Framework

Conceptually, the Scheduled Castes development of Kerala is based on poverty trap framework, according to it poverty breeds poverty and therefore it moves forward unintermittingly and hence ending to poverty trap framework. This is falling deleteriously in all walks of their life as of employment, income, education, asset holding and socio-politic spheres with differing vicissitudes. Social and economic oppression for long period make them to have only low educational attainments which in turn helps them to attain low profile jobs with very low material achievement. This is working in a vicious circle of poverty level and finally they are entrapped in

poverty trap. It is developing into a specific form like 'culture of poverty' and it is not seen in a time span but inter-generational in characteristic. Hence, the SC community is always entwined with this danger of poverty trap, but this can effectively be mitigated with righteous institutional household development interventions in a time bound manner. Though several plans and schemes are available in this respect to lift the community from the haunted stage to a phase of hope, it needs prioritisation of the schemes and its effective implementation with whole hearted spirit on the part of the implementing agency as the stage of under-development to development transition of a downtrodden community is not that much easy. Hence to be dealt with caution that the money spent for their upliftment is used fully for the needy. This will help for inclusion of the excluded and without this it will be a threat of prosperity to any society, state or nation. Figure 1.1 shows the conceptual framework in detail.

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework



Research question

1. What are the reasons for the low socio-economic profile of SCs irrespective of several development schemes for their upliftment?

2. How to address the prioritisation of schemes and implement these effectively for the SC development?
3. Are there any perception reality gaps in the areas of socio-cultural and economic areas?
4. What policy options are required for an inclusive development strategy?

Review of literature

The search for scholarly articles around the socially excluded communities like the Scheduled Castes of Kerala, the literature kitty remains scant. The reasons for these are manifold as caste linked community-based issues remain unnoticed by the social scientists. It does not mean that this community is free from social issues and livelihood problems, but the institutional mechanism is too weak to implement a social engineering process. Again, it is not fool-proof to argue that the percentage share of this group is less than two-digit level, juxtaposing with another marginalised group of Kerala, the Scheduled Tribes, with one fourth of its size is a heavily researched area with prolific literature.

Historical Evolution of Caste System in India

Caste system according to Deshpande (2000) is an off-shoot of the Medieval system of Varna proliferated years back during 3500 to 4000. It is the embodiment of Karma and the hierarchy of the Varna system is based on avocations and generally categorised into five clear disjoint groups. The varna hierarchy system in India is of four groups with Brahmins at the top doing work as priest and teachers, the next in the line is Kshatriyas (warriors and royal try), following this is the trading community the Vaisyas and the

last in the system is the Sudras doing the menial job. It is from the Sudra group another sub-community called the Ati-Sudras is formed to do the most polluted menial job. This is the evolution of the 'untouchables' in the caste hierarchy. Hence Bayly (1990) distinguishes Indian caste system from other societies, its organisational pattern is linked to hierarchical-cum-occupational levels of civil, cultural and economic rights. Thekaekara and Gaag (2002) explain that caste system in India also leads to the concept of division of labour leading to occupational stratification and hence has been used as an instrument for social control. In this way the caste hierarchy works for the formation of the socio-economic organisation which in turn results in social exclusion. The economic status and social right of the untouchables and their denial from the basic rights are well narrated by Thorat, (2002) and Thorat and Deshpande, (1999).

Ambedkar (1987) cites that caste acts as the primary unit in Hindu society and accordingly the rights and privileges by its fact is based on the membership in a caste. The low status of the Avranas according to the upper caste groups is hypothesised to an utopian theory of bad 'Karma' in their earlier past life. Though this theory is refuted by the Avranas as they have been destined to work in the occupations that are polluting, it is rather their inability to deny those polluting or inferior jobs (Hira, year). According to the French sociologists, Dumont (1966) rather than 'pollution and purity' he distinguishes it in inequality dimensions. Moreover, his distinction of pure and impure is based on three features as division of labour, concept of superiority of pure over impure and easy separation of the two. He is also of the opinion that division of labour is only a skeleton of the caste structure which is culturally linked and not on economic basis. This strong caste view of Dumont is confronted with scathing criticism from (Cohen, 1968; Dirks,

1989a; 1989b; 1987; Deliege, 1993; Rudolph and Rudolph, 1960; 1967; Quigley, 1993 and 1999; Searle and Sharma, 1994) as it misses the complexity of the Indian caste relation, over emphasising the social rankings and ignoring the dynamics associated with historical changes in caste system. Despite this Dumont theory is valid in several angles in the Indian context. These explanations are valid backdrops for analysing and evaluating the Scheduled Castes and their complexities (Arun, 2007; Ciotti, 2006; Saavala, 2001).

Gupta's (2000) arguments of accessibility in the areas of economic and political resources is crucial in determining the power and status in the caste hierarchy. Obviously, the inaccessibility lowered the status of a caste. This is determined by the relation of production and property rights, which in turn explains exploitation as historically the upper caste is the land-owning groups and, in this way, controls the means of production and exploitation (Beteille,1996). Accordingly, Dalits are well integrated into the system to make them as an agent of production through various economic tasks as a material base of production (Srinivas, 1995). This is because land is considered as the basic material form of production and even existence in the society and the principal source of livelihood of its owners. Therefore, it is a truism that land and its material aspects of production forms the origin and associated horrors in the development of the caste system.

Selvam (2007) explains Srinivas's theory of sanskritization in order to highlight the Scheduled Castes exclusion from the castes hierarchy. Sanskritisation is explained as a process how the low castes like the scheduled castes changes its way of life, customs or rituals with the active direction of the prominent castes. In this sense castes are not rigid and unchanging institutional set ups and an example to justify this is that of the

Viswakarma caste who claims to have the status of Brahmanical groups and they follow some features of the Brahmanical community, but this is seldom accepted outside their community. Hence sanskritization gives space for caste flexibility and it marks the actual flexibility of caste relations. In this respect Gupta (2000) clearly argues that castes with higher status may go down to lower levels in the passage of time. Citing the evidences of certain Indian villages, the process of sanskritisation is well elucidated by Srinivas (1966 and1989) with the SCs better access to occupations and facilities.

Varna in the social sequence explains that men are not unique in capabilities and hence performs activities of unequal importance to God and in this Karma determines the caste status. In this the position of the SCs is uncertain in the varna system. Hence, they do not belong to four-fold division of the caste ladder and are placed below that who are doing the menial or polluting works (Bayly,1990; Iversen, 2011). Along with this occupational stickiness and segregation has paved the way for the age-old practise of varna system and this nature is even visible in the present social structure of India. Opposing views are also seen in the works of several caste related literatures. In this Nadkarni (2003) argues that the growth and survival of caste system is not the sole outcome of Hinduism but is linked heavily with socio-economic and ecological factors. It is also factual to argue that occupational immobility contributes profusely in several Hindu literature and in Manusmriti.

Socio-economic Status of SCs

Dalits face the brunt of oppression and suffering right from the Vedic period onwards in a multi-faceted way. Deshpande (2000) and Omvedt (2013) believe the rigid caste system hampers the social and economic

progress of the country and this nature continues unless the rigidity in caste structure and discrimination is changed. Even in the 21st century the agony of the caste structure and discrimination is unabated. Thorat (2009) opines that immense privilege, social, economic and political interests make the social system to continue the caste system and discrimination. It is true that institutional interventionalist policies helps to eradicate feudalism both in the levels of material and productive angles but the authoritarian structure with caste edifice still prevails (Oommen, 1993 and Mannathukaren, 2010). Caste and economic structures are in a way determined by the access to productive resources (Gerth and Mills, 1946; Dumont,1980). Corrie (1992) explains the physiological environment of the Dalits and tribes and he cites several indicators are low like female literacy rate, calorie intake levels, sanitation, water and health. But the government in the post-independent period follows the policy of inclusive growth with the concept of 'trickle-down effect' has allotted specific schemes for the development of these communities (GoI, 2011).

The proactive measures taken for poverty reduction of the SC communities according to Oxfam (2017) have resulted in considerable reduction in poverty in two periods of 1993-94 to 2004-05 and 2004-05 to 2011-12 in comparison to the general population. Both urban and rural poverty have also come down in the two the periods, but the reduction of poverty is more in the periods of 2004-05 than that of 1993-94. Analysing poverty reduction on the Tendulkar basis of the SCs seems to be impressive. It is worth to note that the income redistribution aspects for equalisation of the SCs are more visible in the rural areas but poverty level has come down mostly in the urban areas. The recent researches in the area of poverty also delineate improvement in welfare and poverty reduction in the last decade

for the marginalised communities like the SCs (Bhagat 2013). This hypothesis is also well supported in the study of Mamgain (2013), but it also gives the inference that all types of discrimination against the SCs are to be ensured for assuring the concept of social inclusion. But this study lacks empirical validity to make any kind cross validation among communities or castes. Singh (2014) explains the vicious nexus of the land rights hierarchy, political power, religious and secular ideology for the inequality that exists among different caste groups. Goli et. al (2015) explain the reasons for the multidimensional poverty among the SCs is the skewed land and wealth distribution and educational differences. This seems to be a vicious circle and several policy measures are required to come out of it. Borooah et al (2014) try to demarcate the consumption expenditure and distributional aspects and the caste bias in identifying poverty and inequality using household data. The empirical estimates highlight the fact that caste acts as major determinant of poverty of the households. In the quintile-based classification the SCs are more likely to be in the lowest quintile of consumption and are likely to be poor in comparison to the high cast Hindu households. The study shows the asset pattern of the SCs and their asset acquisition rate are hampering them to exit from poverty. Studies show that growth in the consumption expenditure of agricultural households helps in curtailing the poverty of poor farmers and other wage earners, but this is not the situation of the SC farmers, hence requires appropriate strategies to the SC farmers. This is because the SC farmers have performed very badly for the 2005-10 period so to protect them needs special packages in the product and factor markets (Thorat, Mahamallick and Nidhi 2010; Thorat, Regina and Sirohi 2010). The study of Borooah (2005) explains with the help of NCAER HDI survey data that there is variation in mean level of income and

the probability of being poor, between SC and Non-SC Hindu households. With the help of Oaxaca- Blinder decomposition method and its extension to multinomial probability model shows that at least one third of the average income/probability differences between Non-SC Hindu and the SC households are the result of the unequal treatment of the SCs.

India Human Development Survey (IHDS, 2016) gives a clear picture on the entry into and exit from poverty by explaining it as basically traditional caste and religious differences. This is important as it is happening in a rapidly growing economy by way of traditional caste and religious differences create havoc in exiting from poverty and has same or more impact in falling into poverty. Though educational attainment and employment show positive impacts in overcoming poverty, it seems still difficult in escaping from the clutches of poverty when one is already in the vulnerability of poverty.

A relevant study which exhibits a different dimension of poverty in India is done by Sadath (2016) study in this respect is connecting different aspects of socio-economic dimensions of energy poverty. It is also all pervasive, but it is well linked with deprivations as of income poverty and social backwardness. In this respect the SCs and Tribes are poor in socio-economic dimensions and hence, they are energy poor, which is by and large determines the real freedom and welfare of the poor. Mahadeva (2013) study gives a starling information as caste determines food security in India. Hence, a new agenda is required to redefine the poverty line as the existing method of food security and associated poverty line demarcations are faulty in several levels. India's high growth is meaningless if it is not shared in the rural India and also with the marginalized including the Dalits (Kijima, 2006). It is equally important to identify a Poverty-Inequality Trade-off

(Ravallion, 2005) as it explains high inequality leads to low poverty and vice-versa. This is based on the Kuznets hypothesis, rising tides flatten itself, growth initially triggers inequality but will settle later (Kuznets (1955).

According to Mahbub-Ul-Haq (1995) income by its fact is not the only component of welfare, but it needs to incorporate distributional aspects in measuring welfare. Human development measure is mere mimics of averages, but it does not consider the dispersion within. In this level it is essential to consider the distributional aspects in human development (Sagar and Najam, 1998 and UNDP, 1990). The basic ingredient in the social basket contains drinking water, sanitation, housing, education, electricity and health amenities. NHDR (2001) highlights that basic amenities like toilet facilities, electricity, safe drinking water and literacy are very bleak for the SCs, which explains their low attainment in comparison to the general population.

Thorat (2007) gives the picture that there exists a positive correlation between disparity of the SCs and the non-SCs as high HDI states have lesser disparity in comparison. Presently, instead of making disparity analysis with HDI a robust measure like Human Poverty Index (HPI) is used as it includes two more variables for analysis like health and nutritional status. Empirical estimates of disparities based on HPI for different states of India show high differences and vary over time periods. HPI for the SC and non-SC increased from 1.29 to 1.32 (1990 to 2000) giving an annual rate of .34 percent.

Health

Health acts as a significant factor for the socio-economic backwardness or forwardness of a caste or community. The situation of Dalits in this area impacts the community for its backwardness. Thorat and Attewel(2007) cite a congruency of caste system and health deprivation of the SCs. They infer three conditions like genetics, early environment, and opportunities relating to mobility in substantiating the low health situation of the SCs. The major problem according to them is inaccessibility in maternal and immunisation problems. Data show that about 72 percent of the delivery of the SC women happens at home. Poel and Speybroeck (2009) explain the reasons for malnutrition of the SC community are educational backwardness, non-availability of proper health care facilities and poor socio-economic status. They suffer the worst kind of inaccessibility with reference to the basic health care facilities like maternity care and immunisation. Statistics showthat about 72 per cent of the births of SC women took place at home. This creates issues of high infant mortality rate (Vella et al, 1992; Pelletier et al, 1993; Mendez and Adair, 1999). This is not the only problem in the arena of health ailments, but the situation of adult mortality rate is also equally high in the case of SCs (Subramanian et al, 2006). The ailments of the aged, particularly above 50 years of age have chronic disorders and higher levels of disability than the non-SCs (Thorat and Attewel, (2007). Poel and Speybroeck(2009) show two basic components in health deprivation 'social exclusion' and 'physical accessibility'. Tanahashi (1978) explains five stages in explaining the health deprivation of the marginalised groups as (i) availability (ii) acceptability (iii) accessibility (iv) effectiveness and (v) contact of client services. Availability depends on the availability of intervention. Acceptability

explains willingness to use service. Accessibility explains the reach of service. Effectiveness explains how the service is received. Contact explains the use of service.

Employment

Employment and unemployment are two distinctive features which makes the life of a community distinctive. In this respect unemployment is acting as a major factor makes the life of the SCs backward. The high rate of unemployment or menial or degraded nature of employment of the SCs with very low remuneration is the result of caste based occupational linkage. This is the reason for the caste-based clustering and the resultant social exclusion (Mendelsohn and Vicziany, 1998). Poverty of the SCs is associated with this kind of incidence of wage labour, which in turn leads to high rate underemployment and the resultant low consumption and high poverty (Thorat, 2002). The historical lenience of the caste-based forbiddance of the ownership of the means of production including land forced them to work as casual labourers. This impedes education and asset generation for generating any kind of multiplier effect for the income generation and employment. Many actions are there on the part of the policy makers to circumvent the situation, still the situation of employment and income earning levels of the SCs are worrisome. Though, modern India through constitutional entitlement has banned untouchability, still the situation of the SCs have not changed much (Dhesi, 1998). This situation of the SCs are still unrelieved in the era of liberalisation as the present system of discriminatory education is only helping the privileged to obtain the lucrative jobs and of course a portion of the well-off group of the SCs. Das (2000) is of the view that since liberalisation of the economy the public sector has been dwindling and this

in turn is also affecting the employment potential of the SCs and for getting the competitive private sector jobs specific skills are lacking, hence they end up with low skilled and menial jobs with very low wages. Thorat and Newman (2007) exemplify this with occupational immobility because of the rigid caste based economic rights.

Chronic poverty of the Dalits according to Thorat (2011) is high dependency in the agriculture as landless labourers for livelihood with very low wages. Another logical explanation was given by Gang (2008), the pitiable position of the SCs in comparison to the non-SCs for explaining the poverty incidence gap and in this the poverty incidence gap is considerably high to the SCs in comparison to the non-SC counterparts. This again is compared with the level of education and earning of the SCs and non-SC households in income earning of identical jobs and thereby points out that the SC households have significantly low-income flows. The pertinent reason quite often cited in this respect is social constrains in occupational diversification owing to caste structure in lieu of returns in occupational structure leading to poverty incidence gap. Constraints in the land holding and capital make the SCs difficult to work as self-employed workers and this is not a situation of the rural areas, but it is well functioning in the urban areas as well (Thorat, 1999). Comparison of the self-employment and non-farm activities of the SCs and non-SCs is interesting to make inferences about the pathetic condition of the SCs, it is only one-fourth in the case of SC households as against half in the case of others (Thorat, 2011). In the case of cultivation own land for agricultural purposes for the SCs has also declined from 20 percent (2000) to 14.8 percent (2011) amplifies the situation of the SCs in the recent period (Census, 2011). The other area which is equally alarming in the case of SCs is the number of main workers

working for more than six months at a stretch is also decreased from 73 percent (2001) to 70 percent (2011), shows diversification of the work force is lower and difficult.

It is also observed that the employment in the government sector is showing an uptrend and hence the condition of the SCs working in the government sector shows improvement and this is purely related to the reservation policy. It is also noticed an occupational convergence to the SCs in comparison to the non-SC households (Gang, 2012). In this respect it is empirically proved based on discontinuity model of regression analysis that NREGA has helped in reducing lean season poverty of the SC households about 50 percent.

Education

For the empowerment of an outlier community like the SCs education plays a crucial role. With this end in view the government initiates a plethora schemes that are meant to educate the marginalized for their socio-economic upliftment, which includes measures to improve educational infrastructure in most of the SC/ST hubs, provide reservation in admissions, financial help in the form of grants to the students (Thorat, 2007). Though, there is an improvement in the literacy rate of the SCs, they still lag in the higher and technical education sectors. Still, the disparity of the SCs with non-SCs is higher, the disparity rate worked out is 0.79, shows a gap of 21 percent in comparison to others (Thorat, 2009). But in a progressive and literate state of Kerala the SCs have a lower literacy rate than non-SCs (Corrie,1992). Comparing two sets illiterate households data, one from the SC households and another from the non-SC households, Borooah et al (2007), the empirical estimate shows the probability of being

poor is significantly higher for SC households. This further infers that controlling for illiteracy, caste acts as a significant parameter for the probability of being poor.

Krishna (2003) on the other hand shows that that education has benefited the SCs and this in turn helps to reduce the gap between the SCs and non-SCs in the case of educational attainment. It is also illustrated that education together with political attainment has helped in overcoming their social stigma and hence have more choices. Schemes like SarvaShikisha Abhiyan (SSA), Constitution Amendment Act 2002 to make universal elementary education compulsory, free mid-day meals and SC students remedial coaching have helped in improving the educational level of the SCs. Another scheme meant for the socialisation of the SC students are inter-dining benefits the SCs in breaking the caste barriers (Ramachandran and Naorem, 2013). Muralidharan(1997) tries to address the problem of delivery in education of the marginalised groups in the rural areas and stresses the need for quality in education for SC empowerment. For attaining quality in education, it is necessary for Dalit mobilisation as is visualised in the areas of political and cultural areas. In addition to that, Dreze and Kingdon (2001) argue it in a different angle as educational backwardness of the Dalits is lack of parental motivation. This nature is well christened in (Becker and Tomes, 1984) model as learning capacity is determined by genetic and cultural legacies. Both are mostly inherited.

Facets of Social Exclusion

Exclusion is a part of the history and this exists in multifarious dimensions. Considering the marginalised community's exclusion is explained in two levels, SCs mostly face social exclusion and the STs face

both geographical and cultural exclusion. In these SCs exclusion is mostly residuary in nature as they face caste bound exclusion (Thorat et al, 2007). Thorat and Louis, (2003) evaluate the amplitude of exclusion with respect to human development and poverty. It is true that caste system has profound influence on the social and economic life of the people in India. Among different aspects of exclusion caste based is considered important and hence forms the base for anti-exclusionary policies (Thorat, 2004).

Thorat et. al (2007) again explain the cultural exclusion of the minorities in dual form as living mode exclusion and participation exclusion. In these, the former explains denial of recognition and life style, whereas the latter excluding a group from social, economic and political participation. This can overlap or entangle each other and work as an obstacle to avail basic needs and resources. Though exclusions of different types and in different magnitudes are visible, its indicators and impact variables have not been identified properly (UNDP HSR, 2004). Caste-based exclusion is 'living mode exclusion' as it involves the inability of individuals community to interact in the socio-economic and pollical discourse freely (Bhalla and Lapeyre, 1997). In this background it is a challenging venture to fight exclusion rather than addressing the issues of poverty among the SCs and this is because of its link with 'exclusion induced deprivation'. Lack of vertical mobility of SCs generally ends up with menial jobs and this according to Dunn (1993) is the wide-ranging social hindrance and exclusion with the non-SC groups (Babu et al, 2001).

Social exclusion embraces logical blockings of individuals/groups in their normal rights (housing, healthcare and employment etc) and opportunities to usher social progress (Silver, 1994). Social science literature gives ample substantiations regarding the indicators of social

exclusion (Buvinic, 2005). The two such features are deprivation (which is multidimensional) and embedded societal relations and societal institutions (Haan, 1997). Sen (2000) defines social exclusion in a unique level with unfavourable dimensions of inclusions and exclusions, unfavourable exclusion connects with some people are excluded and some are included even (unfavourable inclusion). Sen (2000) also goes to the extent of defining active and passive exclusions; active implies deliberate exclusion, whereas passive means a mere social process of excluding. Exclusion according to Thorat (2007) is internal to the societal system as well, like civil, economic and cultural spheres. Economic type normally operates through market, non-market and exchange transactions. This is mostly practised in the form of denial of jobs in the labour market and denial of access to capital, denial of inputs in the factor market, denial in the sale of land in the agricultural land market and in the product market with the denial of consumer goods and commodities. Banerjee and Knight (1985) explain that this kind of caste-based discrimination happens in urban areas as the 'untouchables' disproportionately end up low paid dead-end jobs. Wage differential between the SCs and non-SCs shows two types of discriminations in the labour market; wage discrimination and job discrimination. The first type explains different wages for the same occupation and the second one attaches certain jobs to the Dalit community. It shows several random components in the wage-cum-job discrimination types as it shows a cause and effect relationship; wage discrimination dominates job discrimination. A different inference is identified while dealing discrimination and exclusion with variables like labour market earnings, reservation wages, and the costs of finding regular employment that less wage discrimination is noticeable whereas the disadvantaged

groups find difficulty in obtaining a regular employment as it involves high transaction costs. This is indeed a contrasting conclusion of Banarjee and Knights (1985).

Cultural exclusion is visible even in the education institutions, according to Akerlof (1984) in higher education institutions mostly Dalit students are assigned Dalit guides. These kinds of irrational happenings based on caste discrimination are the result of multiple identities like caste, gender, religion and migrant status, which in turn impedes their pattern of employment and the level of exclusion (Scoville 1991, 1996; Deshpande 2005 and Johdka, 2002).

Modern Development and the SCs

Modern development and the SCs to be linked with the globalisation euphoria. It is important to visualise whether modernisation begets any specific benefits to the SC community. Beck (1998) explains that modernisation in India influences many changes in the traditional caste bound society and is referred as 'traditionalism', which means "the exhaustion, dissolution, and disenchantment for identity and meaning with collective and group-specific sources in the areas of caste, ethnicity and class consciousness. This results in reflexive modernity and thereby collapsing the traditional social relationship of the caste ridden society.A different view is cited by Pick and Dayaram (2006) that globalization connected change in the social system requires caste inequalities and other related issues for the capitalistic system to flourish. Meerman (2005) shows that the backwardness of Indian Dalits is high levels of discrimination owing to poor education status with low employment potential. It is also highlighted that all development imperatives have bypassed the SCs and this

is more so in the labour market (Banerjee and Knight, 1985; Borooah et al., 2007; Madheswaran and Attewell, 2007; Thorat and Attewell, 2007). According to Madheswaran and Attewell (2007), wage gap due to discrimination becomes the biggest part in the wage employment.

Programmes, Polices and Schemes for SC development

SC development schemes in India start with the Article 17 of the Indian Constitution itself. It is true that Article 14 guarantees equality but it is not sufficient to protect them from discrimination and the age-old practice of untouchability. Therefore, it is necessary to develop an integrated programme for the SC development. Several policies in this respect include Article 46 for developing the SCs in the areas of education and economic levels as an aspect of positive discrimination reservation in government jobs and also in parliament and assembly elections under Articles 330 and 335. As a protective and constructive mechanism, the National Commission on SC and ST is developed in 1992. The duties of the commission are to investigate, evaluate and monitor, advise and suggest measures for the constitutional safeguards of the SCs. Policies such as anti-poverty, building human resource capabilities for developing ownership of capital assets are also targeted for the SCs (Thorat, 2007).

Scheduled Caste Sub Plan (SCSP)

It is essentially important to understand the development programme that has been routed through the Scheduled Caste Sub Plan for the SC development. As an initiative for SC development the SCSP starts functioning in the sixth five-year plan as SCP development programme (Krishnan, 2009). Though it has started in the sixth plan it works prominently in the eleventh plan as a combination of Special Component

Plan of the states, Special Central Assistance and Scheduled Castes Development Corporations in various States (GoI, 2014). According to Thorat et. al (2007),special assistance is given under special component plan so as to ensure provision of basic amenities like drinking water, electricity, housing, roads, sanitation etc. SCP is meant to help the SC families to improve productive capacity and wellbeing. It is also aimed to improve equality and social justice of the SCs with the idea of sharing the resources as per the share of the population (Dag-Erik, 2014). Hence the quintessence of SCP is to bring the SCs above the poverty line and thereby ensure social and economic justice (Chandra and Mittra, 2003). The caveat in this area is the lack of political will and hence in most of the SC programmes the amount allotted is grossly unspent (NHRC, 2004; Planning Commission, 2005).

Land alienation problems and land struggles

An agrarian economy like India land is the be all and end all of all activities for livelihood and status. The idea of exclusion and deprivation also start from land itself. Even though their dependency on land is very high, they are considered to be the most disadvantaged. It is true that 77 percent of the SCs are landless, majority are disadvantaged again with productive assets for employment and livelihood (Mohanty, 2001). Thorat (2009) observation posits the real situation of the SCs as only a small section of SCs holds land and in that only a miniscule group cultivates land. Land is a prime mover in determining the status of the individuals in the rural areas, which in a way determines the social status and living conditions of the people. Though, they possess any land, it is exploited by the upper caste landlords. Pick and Dayaram (2006) see that affirmative actions and social reforms do not help the backward SCs the benefits of getting the land

in time. This is because of the reflective awareness of the issue of caste in consonance with the reflective habit of reverting to the tradition of caste from the upper caste people.

Land redistribution is still an unsolved mystery in the case of the Dalits. The existing struggle and the resultant violence are based on the issues of land disputes relating to the allotment and distribution of government land (CSCST, 1988). Myrdal(1972) begets this as loopholes of the laws created, hence the issue is unabated in the case of SCs. This according to Dhanagare (1983) is the perennial source for some kinds of peasant movements clamoring for the modifications in the methods of land control. Anand(2016) highlights this empirically quoting the Land and Livestock Survey of the NSSO 70th round the availability of excess land for redistribution.

Thorat (2007) posits the issues of landlessness as the basic issue of the SC households as only 26.78 percent and 16.4 percent are cultivators and self-employed as per NSSO definition. Comparing this with the non-SC/ST households, they are very high in comparison with 47 percent and 38 percent respectively as cultivators and self-employed. Hence, he sees only one solution to counter this issue is to redistribute the government land to landless SC households and also to provide them with requisite credit and inputs to take up self-employment activities. According to Hans (2007) landlessness is a major cause for poverty and the land reforms has not helped the SCs to overcome the issue of landlessness. Another major problem of the land issue of the SCs is non-availability of "pattayas", even though some kind of land allotment has been made, which in turn results in several levels of litigations (Murdia, 1975). SC land struggle in Kerala is famous and one such is the Chengara land struggle and this soon forms like

a social movement mobilising the SCs, Dalit Christians and some of the Muslims and other caste members in the Chengara area (Manosmita et al, 2012). Soon this is spread to Muthanga and other areas of Kerala.

Dalit Issues in International forum

The Dalit activists believe that taking up the issues of the SCs to the international attention will help to develop necessary solution. In this respect they have raised this issue in the World Conference on Racism, Racial Discrimination and Xenophobia WCAR (2001) in Durban. The idea behind the conference is not only connected with the issues of racism but it also focuses on discrimination connected to "descent" and "occupation (Thorat and Umakant, 2004). In this conference Dalits articulates casteism is a derivate of racism. The Government of India tries to oppose the idea with the clarification that Scheduled Castes issues are not coming under racial discrimination (MOEA,2001). However, it is the first time that the Dalits activate caste as a form of racism. Anyhow the Dalit issues have crossed the national boundary and even become a global issue. The statement of Ambedkar (1916) in this respect is worth to mention "caste as a local problem but can capable of much wider mischief, observing that if Hindus migrate to other regions on earth, Indian caste would become a world problem". This triggered for developing similar conferences in many places connecting the Dalits issues like the Vancour Conference (2003) which insists international financial institutions like the World Bank for attaching special fund component for the socio-economic and sustainable development of the Dalits in India. It is important to note the role that has been played by the Dalit diaspora to raise the Dalit problems in international platforms for getting increased attention. In this respect it is clear that winning of Right Livelihood Award in 2006 by a Dalit activist like Ruth

Manorama is an evident manifestation of Dalit issues as an international agenda (RLF, Annual Report).

Pre-independence, Post-Independence, Globalisation and Dalits

The Rigveda, the literary masterpiece of the Hindu gives a clear espousal of the Avranas. Hence the subsequent Indian literature posits identical views about the Dalits Hindu society and hence the Dalits form the worst deplorable groups in the pre-independence India. Society is socially fragmented in the form of religion, racial, cultural, and linguistic differences (Okediji,2005). This generates issues of ethnic conflicts and thereby synthesising into differing socio-economic outcomes like human capital, economic growth, unemployment and political instability giving way to a vicious cycle of poverty and poverty trap. In this social process the Dalits are mere spectators of oppression and exclusion and they do not have the strength and power to make any change. Raman (2010) explains that the slavery in the agrarian set up is closely linked with caste and agricultural relations of production exits in the pre-colonial and colonial era. After 1931, there was a move to change the title from "depressed classes to "Exterior castes" as it is a broader tile which could probably include those who had been caste out. The Census Report (1931) stipulates some criteria for the depressed castes. Subsequently, it starts to change 'depressed caste' to 'exterior castes'. The colonial rulers propose for the formation of Scheduled Caste in the Government of India Act,1935, but the post-colonial authorities want to list them as castes. Marc Galanter (1984) is of the view that the basis of the 1935 Act forms the Scheduled Castes Order, 1936 by the colonial rulers including all the untouchables. This helps for listing the SCs in one category in the Constitution of India. According to Béteille (1996) the

very term 'Scheduled Caste' is a contribution of the Simon Commission so as to incorporate it in the Government of India Act of 1935 by considering those people as the "oppressed of the oppressed and lowest of the low".

Christian missionaries and social reformers try to develop an egalitarian society with modern outlook in India with an inward-looking society as the Dalits are mostly banned from the Hindu social life. In this respect they follow the principle of 'Sanskritization' to uplift the untouchables. (Geetanjali, 2011). The issue of the Dalits is well narrated by Du Bois (1994) as the issue of the twentieth century is akin to this the issue of the twenty-first century India is the issue of caste difference. He further explains that caste makes a psychological barrier and even cripples physical mobility of SCs. Though they faced deprivation and exclusion in the pre-colonial period, look forward to having a better way of life and social inclusion in the post-independent period. But soon they realise that they have been deprived from the development initiatives in the independent India (Badri, 2009). The Nehruvian policy and Ambedkar's legal framework do not help to usher in any social change of the Dalits. Hence the government follows the reservation policy to ameliorate the condition of the Dalits in education, employment and in parliament and assemblies. Choudary (2005) is of the view that Nehru strongly believes that reservation does not help the Dalits to come out from their deprivation and they need to compete with the main stream. As Ramaswamy(1984) views that the SCs know that they are not only a constitutionally protected group but also is a group taking advantage of the benefits of reservation, which in turn helps them to come to the main frame population with in a period of ten years. However, the situation of the Dalits has continued unchanged and Choudary (2005) again cites the need for reservation, minimum wages and education

and other economic packages. Dalits according to Sankar (2001) is a vulnerable social stratum need economic emancipation and continued assistance as pre-condition for social transformation.

It is a fact that untouchability is lawfully abolished in India, but it is still in its vicious form. According to Shah (2001) the malicious crime against the Dalits are not only on the basis of caste factors but it is equally strong with respect to material interests and political power. In spite of several affirmative actions and financial packages the conditions of the SCs still remain unaltered to a greater extent and the gap between the SCs and non-SCs in the socio-economic spheres are only widening after 70 years of independence (Pande, 2003; Besley et al., 2004; Chin and Prakash, 2011). This seems worth to mention the foresightedness of Nehru in the reservation policies as it does not act as cushion hence Rao (2009) highlights the need for limiting their dependence for SC upliftment.

In the 1970s several changes mark the SC sphere and particularly in "Dalit Panthers Movement in Maharashtra in the year of 1972. It challenges the hegemony of the Hindus in the area of culture and politics. This is more visible in the writings of Kanchallaiah (1996), Dalits as a cultural identity and even linking the term Dalit as Bahujan. This works in the anti-caste traditions which form the basis for the electoral sphere of the Bahujan Samaj Party of Kanshi Ram. Omvedt (2013) uses a specific materialistic approach to analyse the issues related to Dalits in democratic revolution. However, some advocate the combination of both caste and class and thereby developing a wider spectrum (Shankar, 2001). Mandal agitation in 1990s helps to fruition dramatic rise of the BSP as well as the Dalit. This is well argued by Srinivas (1995) as in democracy caste gives way to a new

colour. Here starts caste as a major trump card in politics. Hence a new system transformation takes in politics as politicisation of caste for generating it into a new transformation process which in turn leads to the transformation of the caste system (Mutatkar, 2005). This according to Anupama (2009) is caste reform and emergence of Dalit political identity, which are working as centrifugal forces in Indian democracy. Rudolph (1986) views this in a different angle as this has resulted in the formation of new interest groups in democracy and politics.

Citing the impact of green revolution among the Dalit community, Naumann (2008) explains that the cost of inputs like pesticides, fertilisers and machines negatively affect the the Dalits. Some successful Dalits even procure more reservation-based jobs in the schools and thereby increase their share to help the needy poor. It has also come to the notice that the increased use of pesticides owing to green revolution has resulted in ill-health among the Dalits. With the help of an example this is further substantiated a case in a rural village of which 12 Dalits have dead as a result of pesticide spraying and nobody has been given any compensation (Osella,2008). Mungekar (1995) suggests that globalisation has also not helped the Dalits and as the growth is merely a jobless growth and hence it does not help to reduce poverty. The globalisation and the subsequent attraction of MNCs in India according to Kumar (2003) have helped the new generation degree holders as in computer engineering and management and in these levels also the Dalits are excluded. The reason for this kind of exclusions of the SCs is late starters in education. Most are denied technical and higher education and most rely on social and basic sciences and they do not have the wherewithal to do the core courses (Gopalguru, 2000). Here

most of the affirmative actions to overcome backwardness give way to globalisation catchwords like "excellence", "competition" and "globalization" to give a transition for command economy to a market economy (Harish and Ratnam, 1994). In this respect Giddens (1994) uses caste in a new framework like re-invented, re-structured and re-justified suiting the needs of global capitalism. This is really contradicting to the caste in the Indian modern society. The New Economic Policy and concomitant reforms in 1990s leads to the insignificance of the public sector and the resulting reduction in employment of the Dalits and finally ending them in the low graded and menial jobs in the private sector (Gurcharan, 2004). Thorat and Newman(2007) explain this as labour stickiness and occupational immobility. Caste based backwardness make them devoid of the basic social as well as cultural capital owing to poor family background, education, social networks, sophistication, cultural exposure, personal skills and confidence, financial security and poor English language skill so as to compete with the non-SC counterparts (Jodhka and Newman, 2007). Therefore, reservation of jobs in the public sector does not help the SCs as jobs are only generating in the private sector. Only solution to counter the situation is self-employment for the overall development of the SC community (Turnham et al., 1990). Social networking is important for getting jobs in the corporate sector and presently 3.5 percent SC are only in the boards of the corporate world (Donker et al., 2012). This is the reason for the over representation of SCs in the informal sector in comparison to the general population (NCEUS,2007).

Gail (2002) gives a different approach to liberalisation based on historical materialistic approach connected with Dalit democratic revolution.

It is true that globalisation unleashes tremendous opportunity for the marginalised communities like the SCs as it has helped in highlighting the deprivation. Rao (2002) demarcates this as 'the internationalisation of the problem of untouchability'. Thorat(2009) explicates this as opening new avenues of opportunities for the SCs to have better living and thereby stand themselves to fight against oppression and caste-based inequalities. He is also of the view that the India's institutional structures are so rigid and favourable to the Hindu feudal paradigm, begetting contempt and rampant violence against the Dalits.

Dalits in Kerala

Unlike other Indian states SC based literature in Kerala is pitiably scant. SCs form the backbone of Kerala's agricultural economy and they are the real producers with pathetic living conditions and poverty and the social movements under the left parties have helped to a certain extent the class-based contestation for improving their social and economic status. But in spite of all these they remain mostly as workers in the agricultural and resource-based sectors with meagre benefits (Rammohan, 2008). Though SCs form the linchpin of the agrarian set up of Kerala, SCs continue as landless even after the progressive land reform and several social movements. Saradamoni (1981) with the help of a study in the Vengannur panchayat of the Trivandrum district shows that the prominent SC community of Kerala are mainly engaged in agricultural activities, but in comparison to the other two SC communities like theTandan and Mannan. She is also of the view that it is not possible to do away with the reservation policy immediately as it has several ineffectiveness and hence needs to overcome the situation of the SCs. Sivanandan(1976) also expresses the

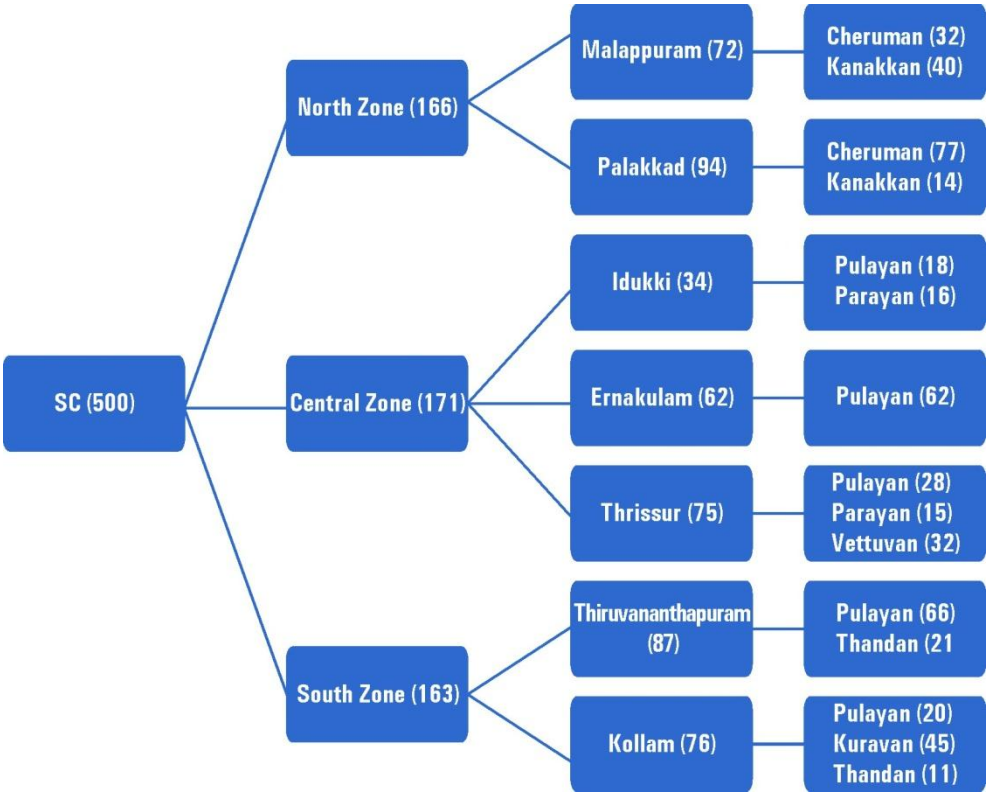
view identical to that of Saradamoni (1981)and the need for periodical review until social, cultural, economic and political development is attained.

The moot theme of the study is the modalities for social inclusion of the SCs and this according to him is attained on the basis of certain social indicators like health status and living conditions. Census of India (2011) shows the exclusion of the majority of the SCs as liveable housing facility in Kerala for the SC is for only 3 lakhs. Similarly, other facilities to the SCs are also very low as 2 lakh SCs in the state have no bathroom facility. Financial inclusion as per Census (2011) gives the picture that the number of SC households using banking services is only 4 lakhs. Statistics of the SCs in comparison to other backward communities show a bleak representation as majority of the SCs in the state are socially and economically backward. Glyn (2013) shows that the social, cultural and political inclusion of the SCs in Kerala is also depressing and this in turn point towards the need of decentralisation process in moulding the required political interests of the SC communities.

Scope and Methodology

For inferential purpose the methodology uses a three-zone demarcation and this is made as per SC concentration in the State and two districts therefore make one zone again on SC concentration in the total population in the district. Data are amassed with due consideration of the SC sub-community (intra-community) so as to work out the inclusion/exclusion based on SC development schemes in each zone. This will help to develop the sampling process based on multi-stage–proportionate-stratified-random

sampling. 500sample households constitute the total sample size for the study.



The study uses statistical techniques like Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Factor Analysis, Correspondence Analysis, Binary Logistic Regression, etc. To estimate the relative poverty among the different SC-ST groups, a Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) Poverty Index has been worked out using the additive or the decomposition method. Gini Coefficient and Lorenz Curve are used to find out the income inequality. The present level of exclusion is worked out using Binary Logistic Regression. Factor Analysis is estimated to identify the problems of SCs. Correspondence analysis is used at

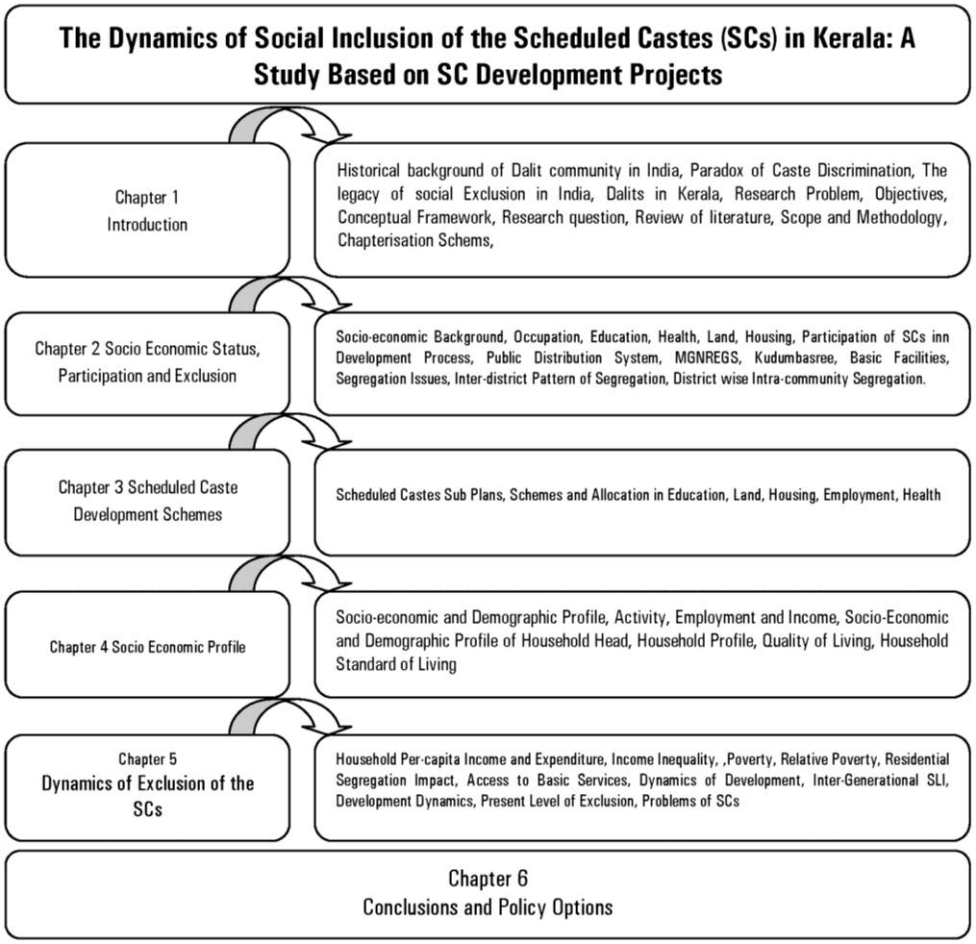
various levels to work out the inter-community, inter-regional and inter-generational differences in living standards and access to facilities.

Chapterisation Schems

The study is divided into six chapters. The first chapter gives what the study intends to cover, i.e., research problem, literature review, objectives, hypotheses, methodology and scheme of the thesis.

Chapter 4 with the aid of primary data presents the socio economics and livelihood profile of the SCs. Chapter 5 is an evaluation of perception and dynamics of Exclusion of SCs in Kerala. Chapter 6 gives conclusions and policy options.

Figure 1 Chapterisation Scheme



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Chapter 2

Socio-economic Status, Participation and Exclusion

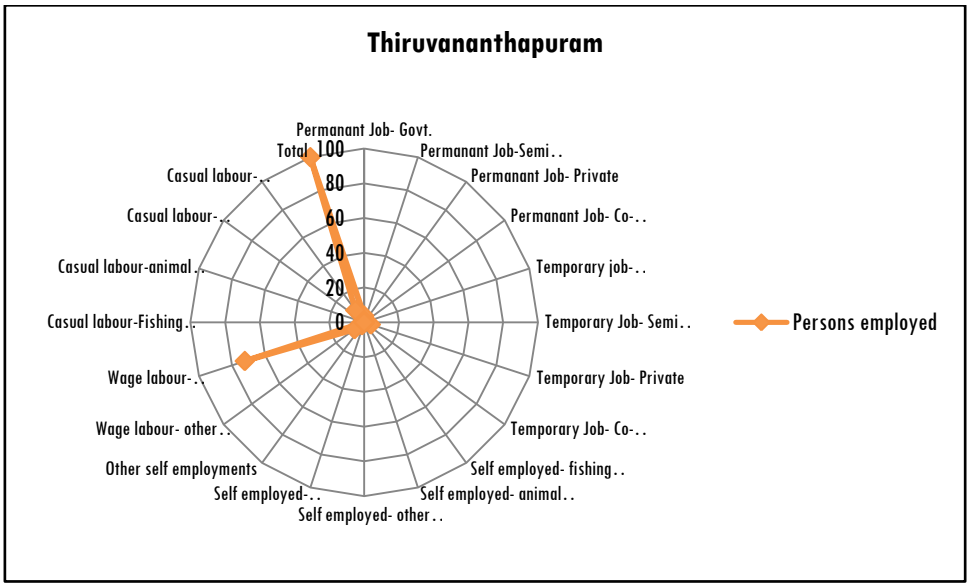
The basic indicators of the SC community in Kerala is comparatively poor in tandem with other social groups in Kerala. This has made the SCs in Kerala as a constitutionally protected community considering their very bad socio-economic conditions. Though the state of Kerala is globally famous in achieving social development and other human development indicators with poor economic indicators, the SC community is an outlier groups in this process. They are not only backward in income earning capacity but they are miserably poor in land holding, employment, housing and education conditions. It is not the paucity of schemes targeted for the development of the SCs of Kerala both on the part of the central and state governments but the administrative and political will make these schemes incapable of producing the desired benefits. Though SCs development started in the beginning of the 1960, its impact to the community is undesirable. A mere look into the socio economics of the community, their access and participation would help to reveal the reality and relative dimensions to other social groups in Kerala. For that it is required to explain the socio-economic indicators of SCs, their access to mainstream utility system and their participation in it. Also, Chapter 2 exposits the situation of the SCs in Kerala are segregated socially in the participation process and how their access is denied in using the social resources for their development

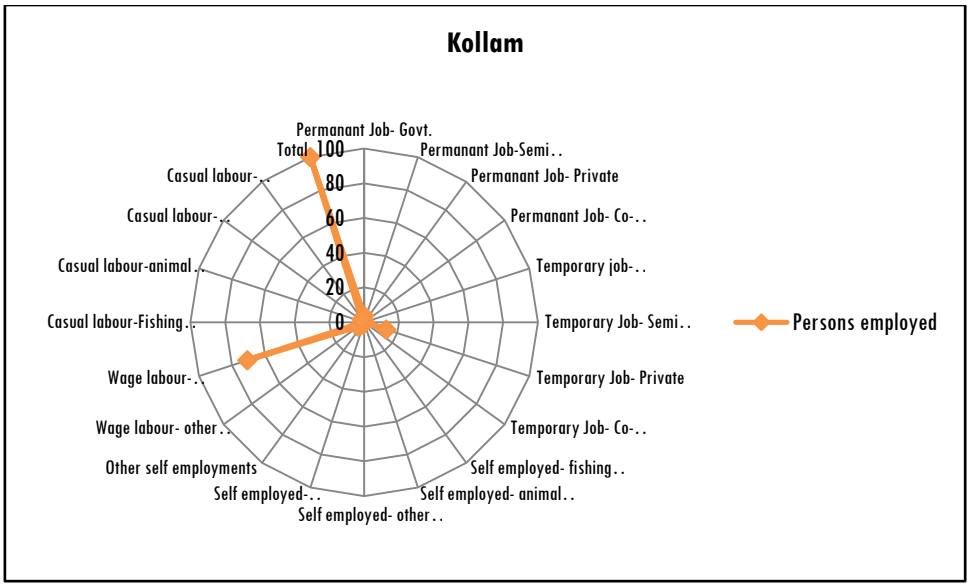
2.1 Socio-economic background

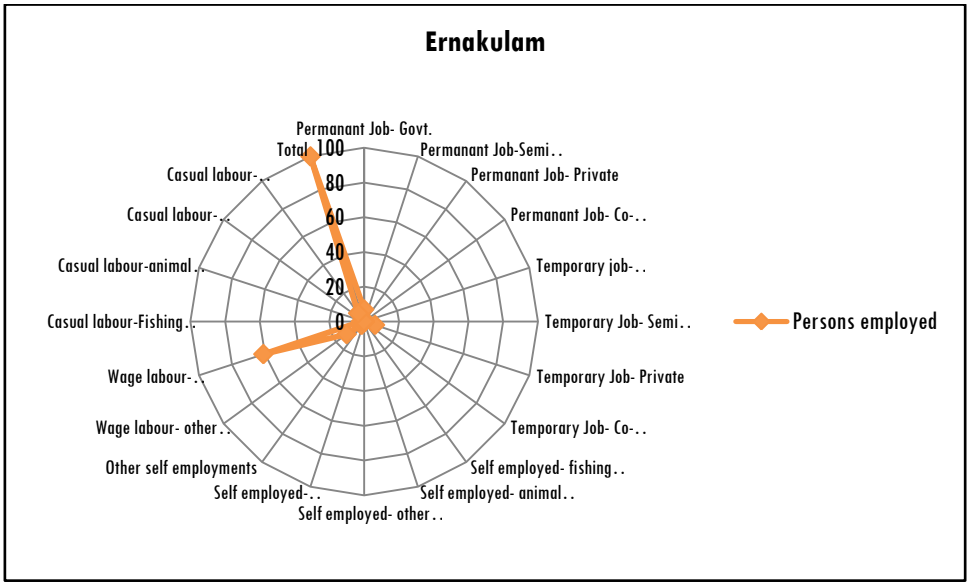
2.1.1Occupational pattern

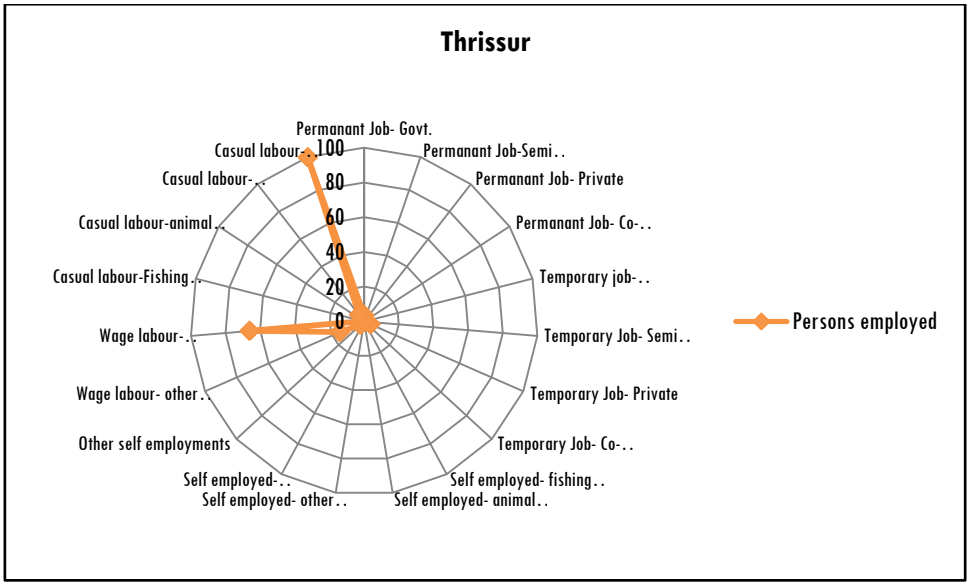
The SCs in Kerala are mostly wage labourers in the agriculture and other related sectors. Figure 2.1 shows identical pattern of work irrespective of districts. Data show that public sector employment comes only to 3-4 percent and this is one of the reasons for negating their socio economics. The recent trend of privatisation has a adverse impact in the employment potential of the SCs in the state. Majority of the SCs in Thiruvananthapuram (72 percent) are working as wage labourers in the agricultural sector. The spurt that happened in the construction has also attracted SC community in the form of casual workers and this is mostly seen in Thiruvananthapuram and Malappuram (more than 8 percent). Private sector too is employing SC workers in temporary nature. Likewise in Thiruvananthapuram, Kollam SCs are basically agricultural workers. But a difference is seen in the Thrissur district as bout 15 percent are working as wage labourers and that is also in non-agricultural sectors. It also shows that permanent jobs in the private sector are more in Kollam with 13 percent, followed by Idukki with 11 percent.

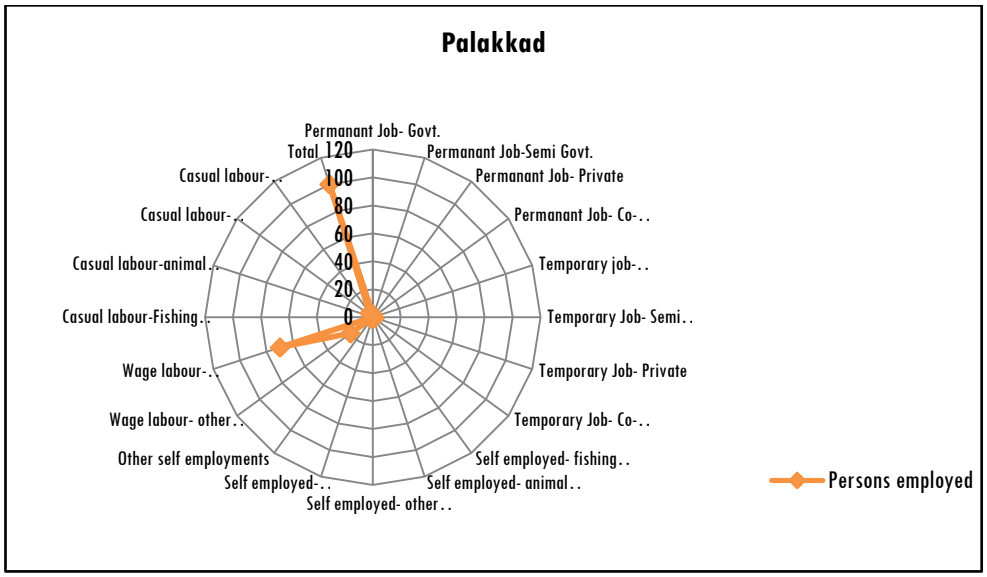
Figure 2.1 Occupational Pattern of SC communities in Kerala and in Districts

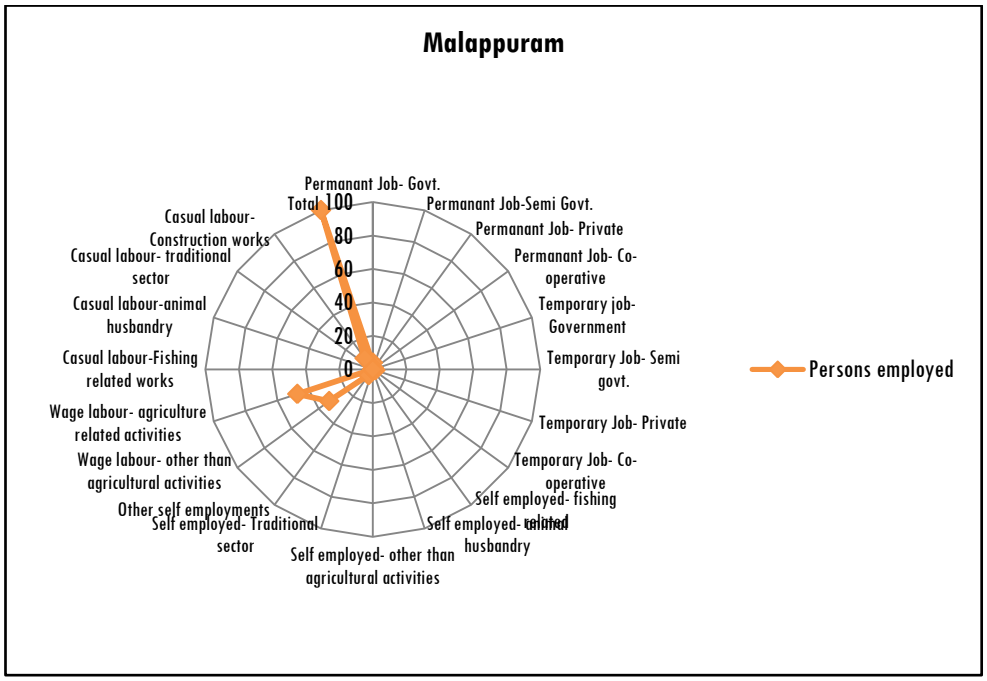


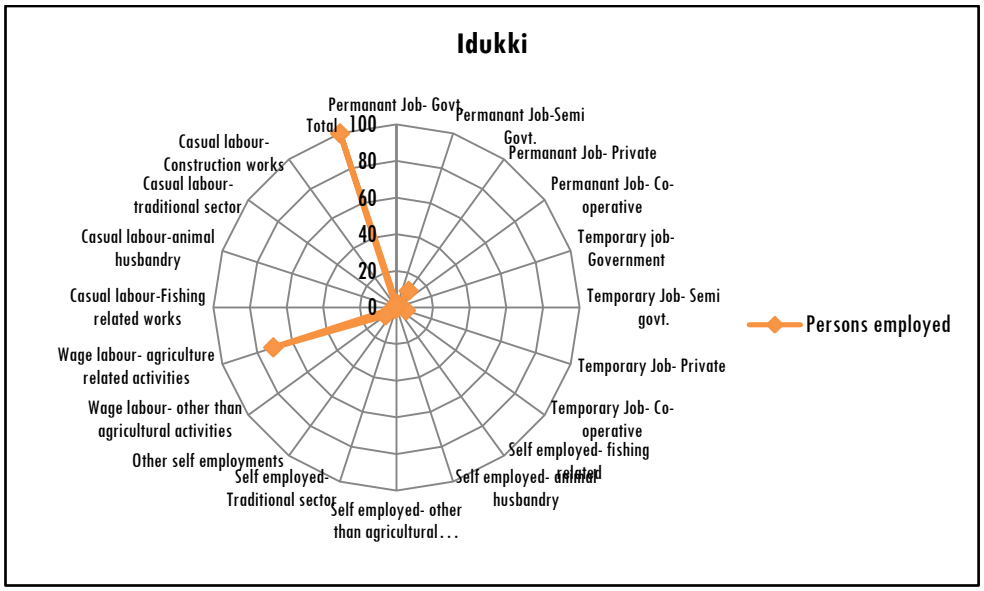


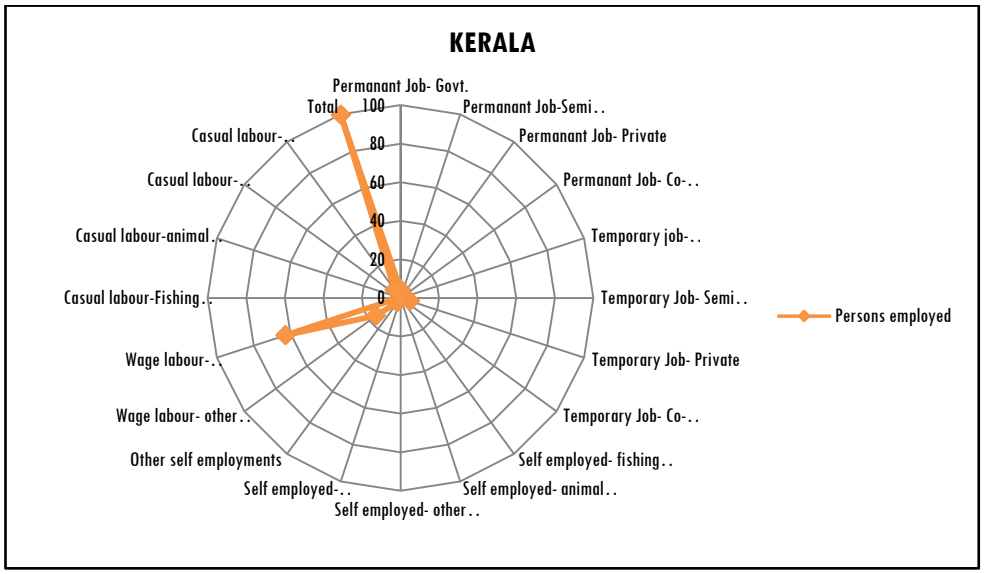

Ernakulam
Permanant Job- Govt.
Permanant Job-Semi..
Permanant Job- Private
Permanant Job- Co-..
Temporary job-..
Temporary Job- Semi..
Temporary Job- Private
Temporary Job- Co-..
Self employed- fishing..
Self employed- animal..
Self employed- other..
Self employed-..
Other self employments
Wage labour- other..
Wage labour-..
Casual labour-Fishing..
Casual labour-animal..
Casual labour-..
Casual labour-..
Total
100
80
60
40
20
0
Persons employed


Thrissur
Permanant Job- Govt.
Permanant Job-Semi..
Permanant Job- Private
Permanant Job- Co-..
Temporary job-..
Temporary Job- Semi..
Temporary Job- Private
Temporary Job- Co-..
Self employed- fishing..
Self employed- animal..
Self employed- other..
Self employed-..
Other self employments
Wage labour- other..
Wage labour-..
Casual labour-Fishing..
Casual labour-animal..
Casual labour-..
Casual labour-..
100
80
60
40
20
0
Persons employed


Palakkad
Permanant Job- Govt.
Permanant Job-Semi Govt.
Permanant Job- Private
Permanant Job- Co-..
Temporary job-..
Temporary Job- Semi..
Temporary Job- Private
Temporary Job- Co-..
Self employed- fishing..
Self employed- animal..
Self employed- other..
Self employed-..
Other self employments
Wage labour- other..
Wage labour-..
Casual labour-Fishing..
Casual labour-animal..
Casual labour-...
Casual labour-...
Total
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Persons employed


Malappuram
Permanant Job- Govt.
Permanant Job-Semi Govt.
Permanant Job- Private
Permanant Job- Co-operative
Temporary job-Government
Temporary Job- Semi govt.
Temporary Job- Private
Temporary Job- Co-operative
Self employed- fishing related
Self employed- animal husbandry
Self employed- other than agricultural activities
Self employed- Traditional sector
Other self employments
Wage labour- other than agricultural activities
Wage labour- agriculture related activities
Casual labour-Fishing related works
Casual labour-animal husbandry
Casual labour- traditional sector
Casual labour-Construction works
Total
100
80
60
40
20
0
Persons employed





Source: Survey data

2.1.2 Educational profile

Though Kerala is a highly literate and educationally prominent state, the SCs are lagging behind in both. The recent Law stipulating the universalisation of education has also helping the SCs to get the advantage. Data show that

about 35 percent of the SC children attend primary schools. Even though the pace is slow, the positive trend shows good sign. But in the technical and medical field the trend is not appreciable for developing the SCs to obtain a decent job for a better livelihood. Their share percentages in the engineering and medicine are respectively 0.05 per cent and 0.01 (Figure 2.2b).

Figure 2.2 (a) Stage-wise education profile of the SCs

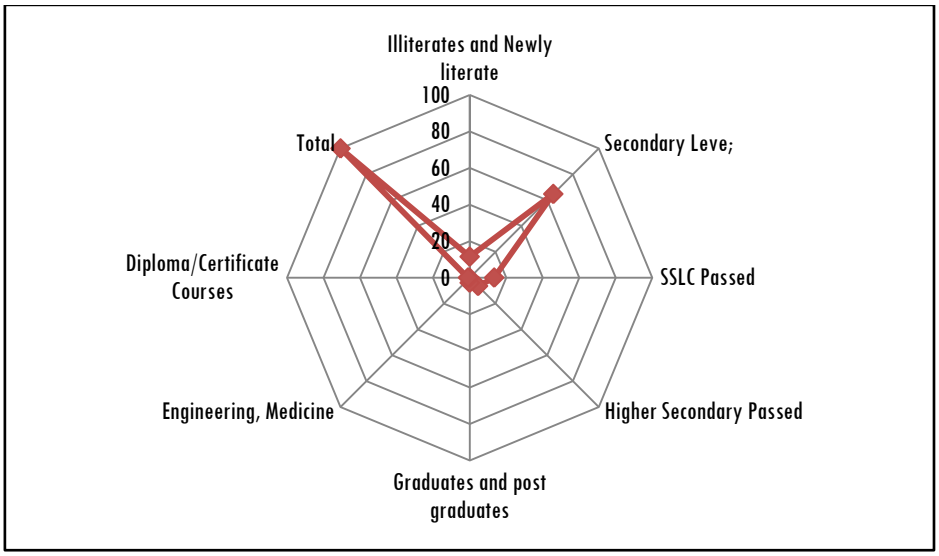
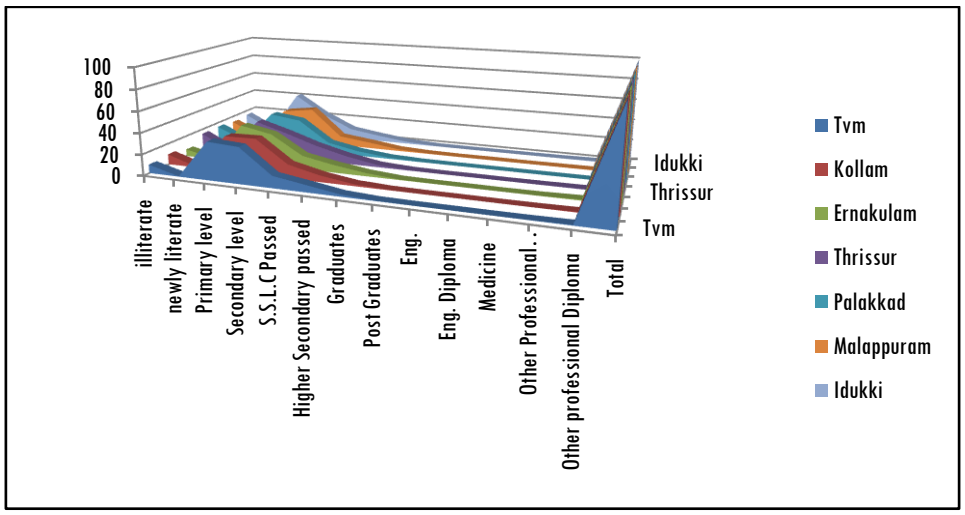


Figure 2.2 (b) Stage-wise education profile of the SCs

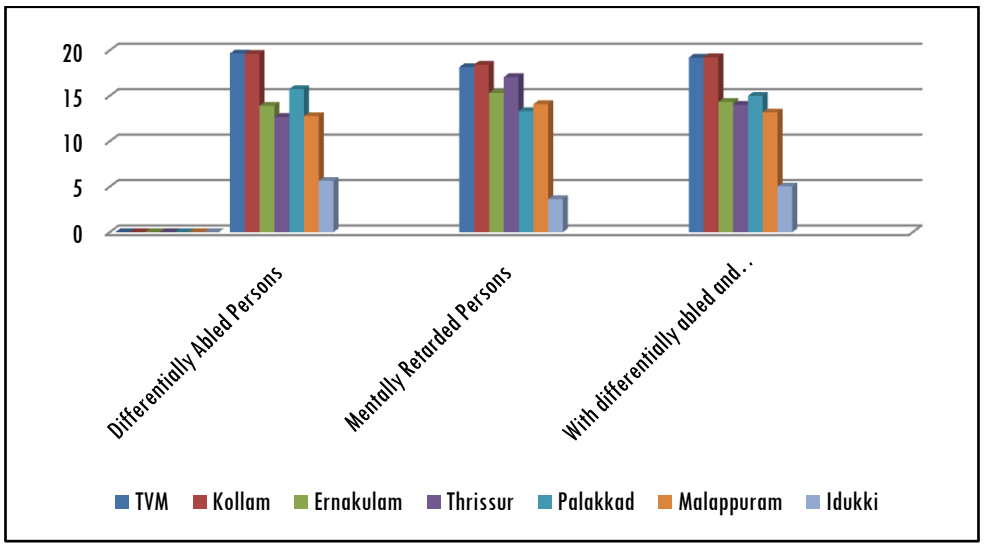


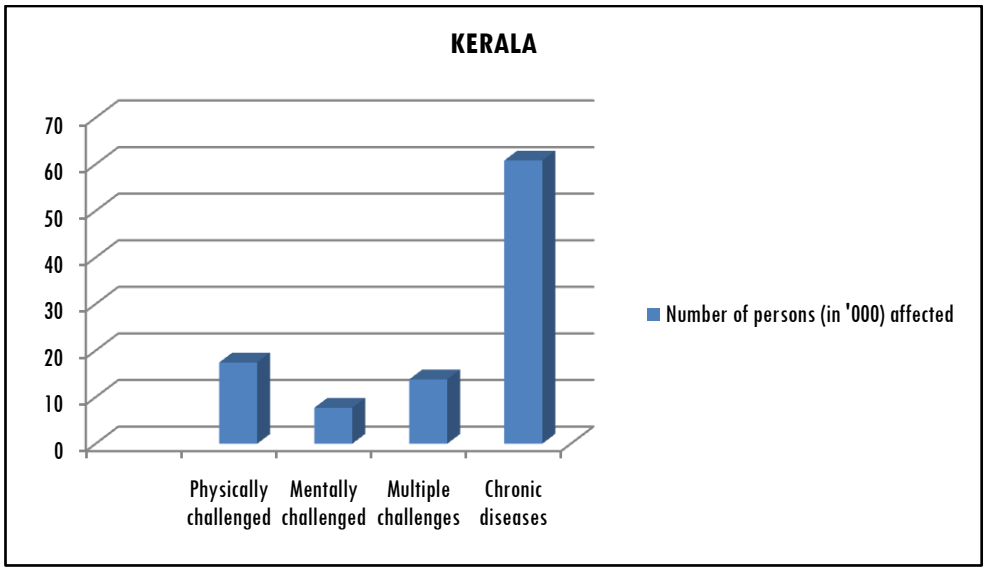
Source: Survey data

2.1.3 Health Condition

The so-called state funded health care system makes the people of Kerala to have better health care facilities. But the present system of health care the so called 'American Model' of health care giving thrust to ability to pay criterion with many private hospitals with all kind of facilities, really is impacting the health care system of the marginalised communities like the SCs of Kerala. The ailment statistics show pathetic situation of the SCs as about 10 percent of them are showing symptoms of chronic diseases (Figure 2.3). In the sample districts the situation of the SCs are highly problematic, as many are having mental and differentially abled diseases. The reason for the perilous situation of the SCs is because of their dependency of the public health care system, which does not have enough facilities compared the private system. The reason for this is the increasing financial problem of the state for spending health care activities of the public hospitals.

Figure 2.3 Issues Related to the Health of the SCs





Source: Survey data

2.1.4 Land Use Pattern of SCs

The land use pattern of the SCs is classified based on five major uses of land like housing, agriculture, other purposes, fallow land and barren lands. Table 2.1 shows that major part of SC land area is used for, which comes to 45 percent, for constructing (23 percent) houses. Other than these purposes about 11 percent of the land area is used for other purposes. Yet another one in the classification is the fallow land, and this is defined as the ploughed land, but not sown and remained uncultivated for a time after successive crop. This is practised to gain the fertility of the soil and this comes to 14 percent of land area. Non-usable land comes to around 4 percent.

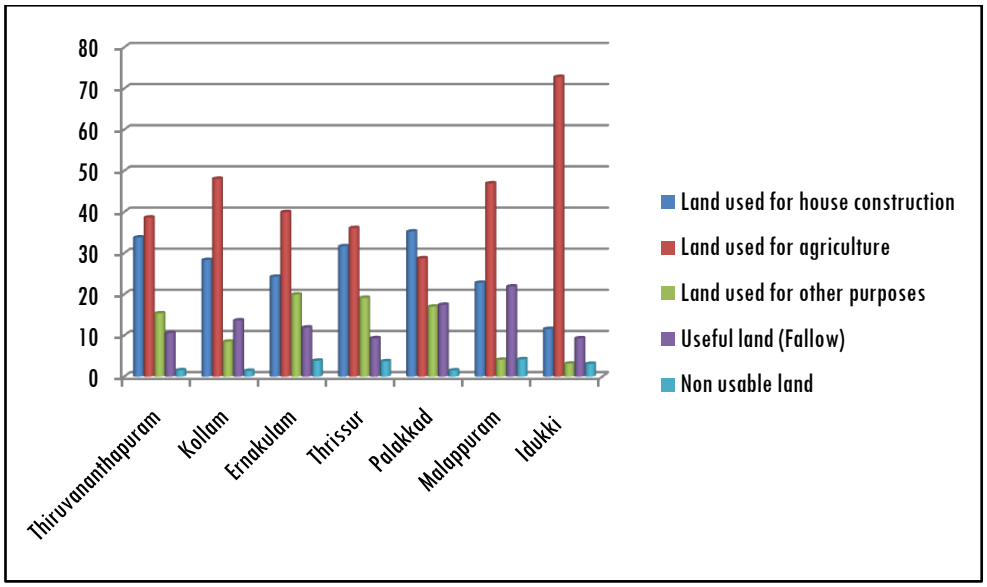
Table 2.1 Utilisation of Land in SC Colonies

Utilisation of Land in SC colonies (KERALA)			
Serial No.	**Land Utilisation**	**Land in acre**	**%**
1	**Land used for house construction**	9289	23
2	**Land used for agricultural purpose**	16300	45
3	**Land used for other purposes.**	4077	11
4	**Tharish Bhoomi**	5113	14
5	**Land areas with no use**	1281	4
	Total	**36085**	**100**

Source: SCDD data

Figure 2.4 shows the pattern of land usage among the 7 sample districts. Among the seven districts, Thiruvananthapuram SC uses 39 percent of geographical land for agricultural purpose. About 34 percent of the total SC land area is used for housing purposes. But in Kollam district, about half of the land available to SC is used for agricultural purposes and 28 percent is also used for housing. In Ernakulam district 28 percent of the land is used for agriculture, housing 28 percent and this district has unused fallow land as 20 percent. Thrissur district exhibits an identical pattern of land use with that of the Ernakulam district. In Palakkad district, situation is different with a high land use pattern for agriculture (29 percent) and housing (35 percent). Here more land is used for housing than agricultural activities. But in Malappuram district, the fallow land comes as the major percentage while evaluating the land (21 percent) use pattern. In Idukki district about 75 percent of land availability to the SC is used for agricultural purposes alone, whereas it is 12 percent for housing purposes.

Figure 2.4 Land Utilisation Pattern among SCs



Source: Survey data

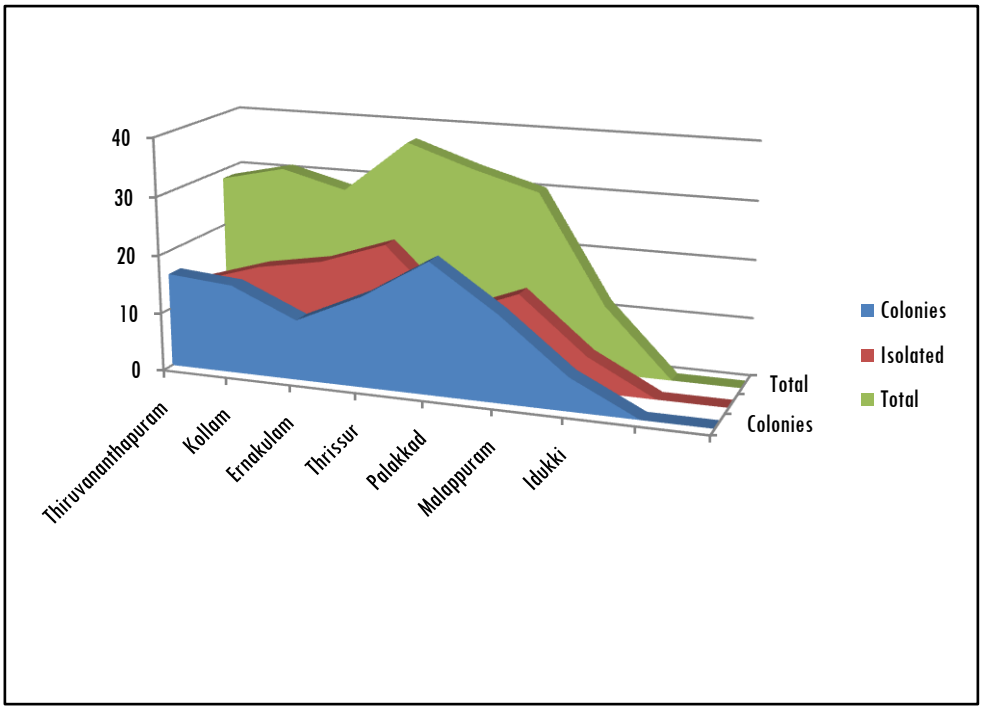
2.1.5 Landless and Houseless SC families

The SCs are the major landless group in the social-class wise categorisation. This is well highlighted in the Socio Economic and Caste Census (2011). This shows the SCs in Kerala is the major group in India in the case of landlessness with 72 percent (Figure 2.5). The paradox is that two states in India have introduced the land reforms in India, Bengal and Kerala and these two states have the highest SC landless groups in India. It is true that historical practises and customary rules hinder the SCs to own lands. Another reason cited in this respect is the shift of the SCs from agricultural to manual work and this is the reason for the deprivation and exclusion of the SCs in the state.

Data show that 5.58 lakh SC families' share only 59375 acres of total land and this is miniscule compared to other social groups ownership in Kerala. The situation of the extent of landlessness and homelessness of the

SCs in the sample districts are highlighted in Figure 2.5. It is clear that Palakkad comes to the top in the case of landless and houseless SCs. Based on secluded living nature the Trissur district SCs are more in number compared to other sample districts.

Figure 2.5 Landless and Houseless Families



Source: Survey data

Population percentage-wise the SCs do not possess the percentage land share and most of the SCs in the state hold less than 10 cents of land on an average as shown in Figure 2.6. The case of area operated as well the situation of the SCs are not different in comparison to the general population.

Figure 2.6 (a) Share of SCs in the number of operational holdings and share in the area operated

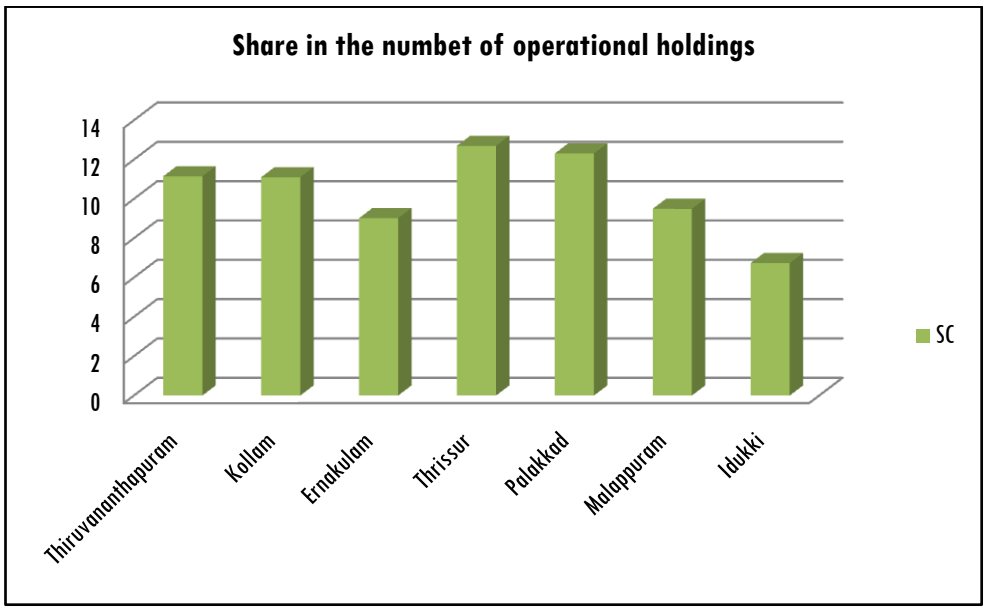
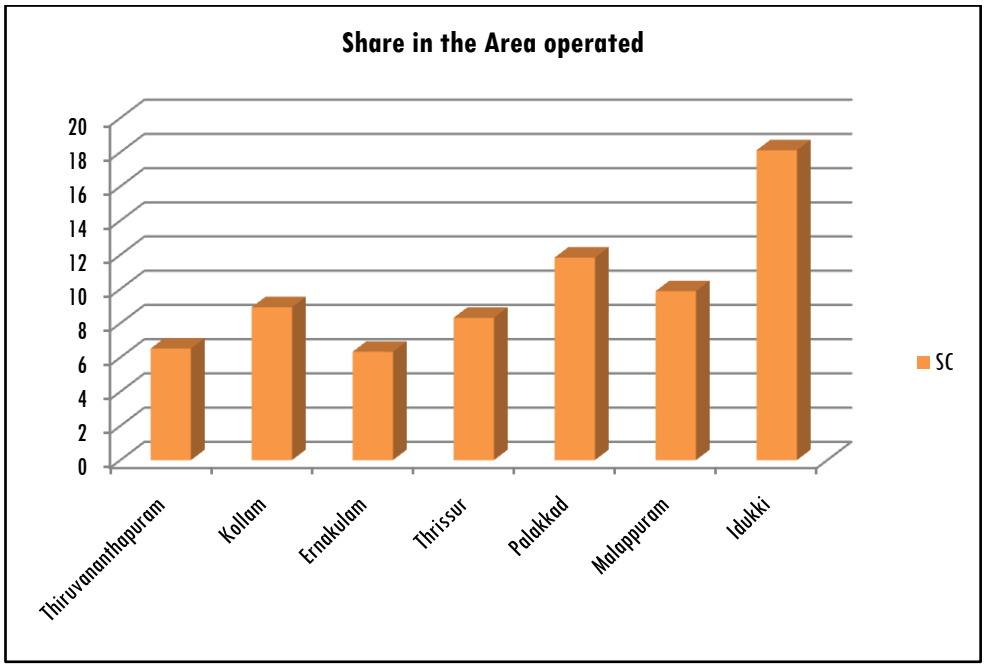


Figure 2.6 (b) Share of SCs in the number of operational holdings and share in the area operated

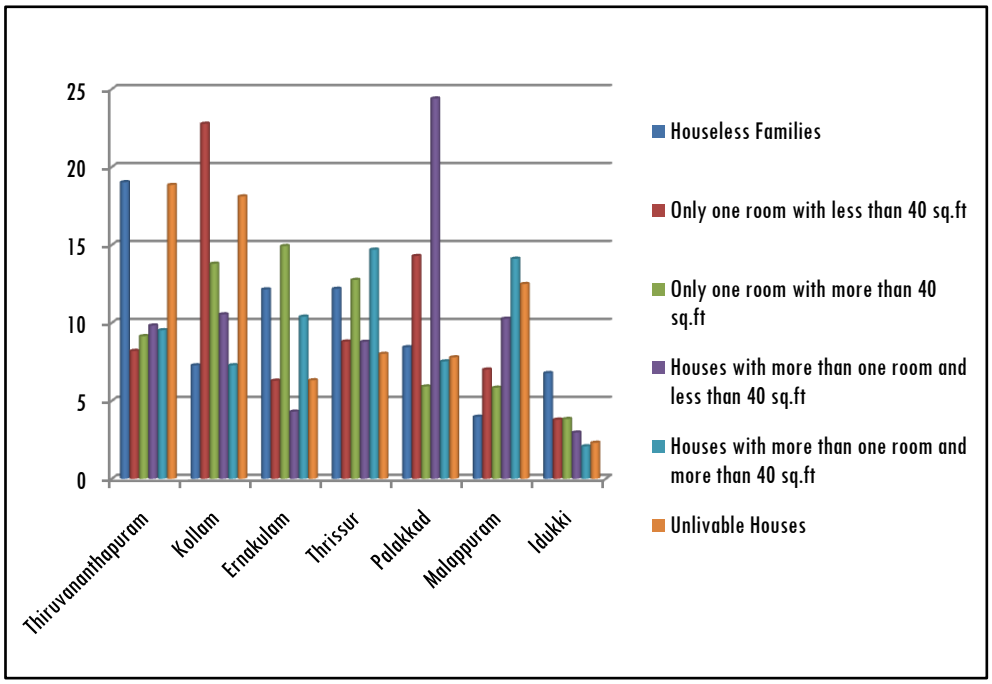


Source: Survey data

2.1.6 Housing condition

It seems that most of the housing schemes, both central and state governments, are not helpful in providing the SCs safe and liveable houses. Figure 2.7 explains the critical state of the housing conditions of the SCs of Kerala in the sample districts. It is clear that 19 percent in Thiruvananthapuram, 12.18 percent in Thrissur and 12.14 percent in Ernakulam are houseless. Those who have houses will only have one room or even less than 40 sq. ft. In Thiruvanathapuram and Kollam districts 18 percent of SCs houses are unliveable and this shows the need for concerted attention on the part of policy makers for effective implementation of both the central and state housing schemes effectively.

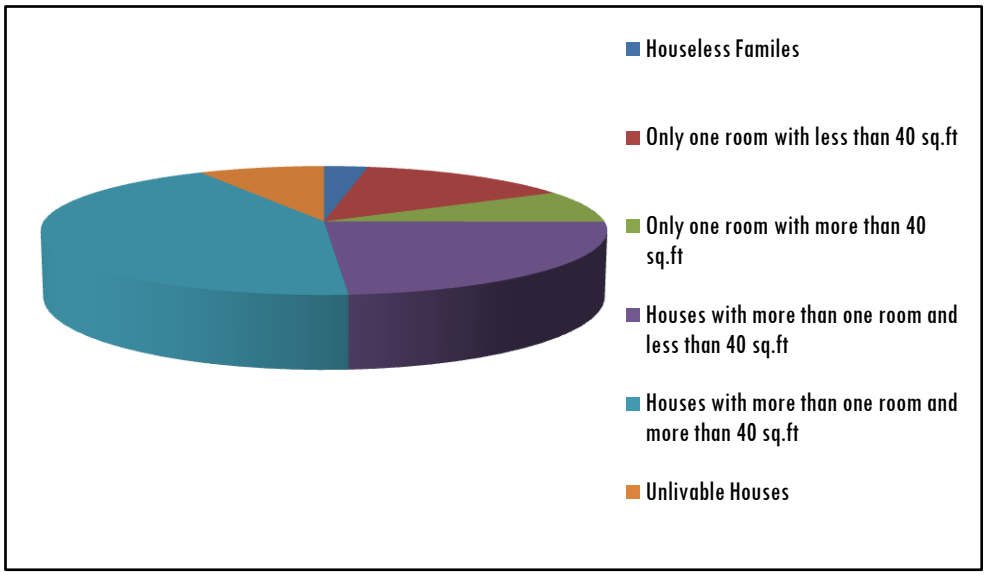
Figure 2.7 Conditions of SC houses in each districts



Source: Survey data

It is also to be considered that the housing schemes of central and state governments make some changes in the housing condition of SCs in the state, which in turn helps to obtain about 40 percent of the SCs with houses of more than a room with more than 40 sq. ft. area. It is equally important that 23 percent still lives in one room houses with less than 40 sq. ft. (Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.8 Condition of SC houses- KERALA



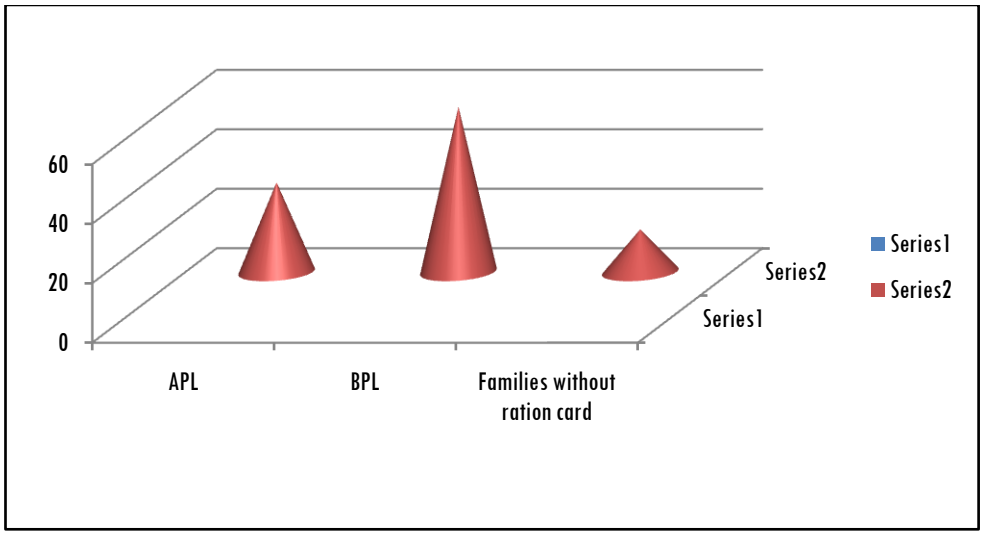
Source: Survey data

2.1.7 Participation of the SCs in the Development Process

Participation of an outlier community like the SCs in the development process is important as part of the inclusion agenda. Though it started early during the fourth plan period itself, it gained high priority recently. But it is important to state that Kerala has implemented several poverty eradication programmes to include the SCs in the development process of the state. To ensure food security to the marginalised including the SCs the state has implemented the public distribution system and the

same has been revised to Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS). Based on this all BPL card holders are given 25 kg of rice at Rs 1 per kg, Andyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) ration card holders have been given 35 kg of rice at Rs 1 per kg and Annapoorna card holders obtain 10 kg rice at free of cost in addition to this necessity like sugar and kerosene at concessional rates are given as shown in Figure 2.9. Social-class basis most of the beneficiaries are the SCs as they are the poorest of the poor in the state with BPL ration cards.

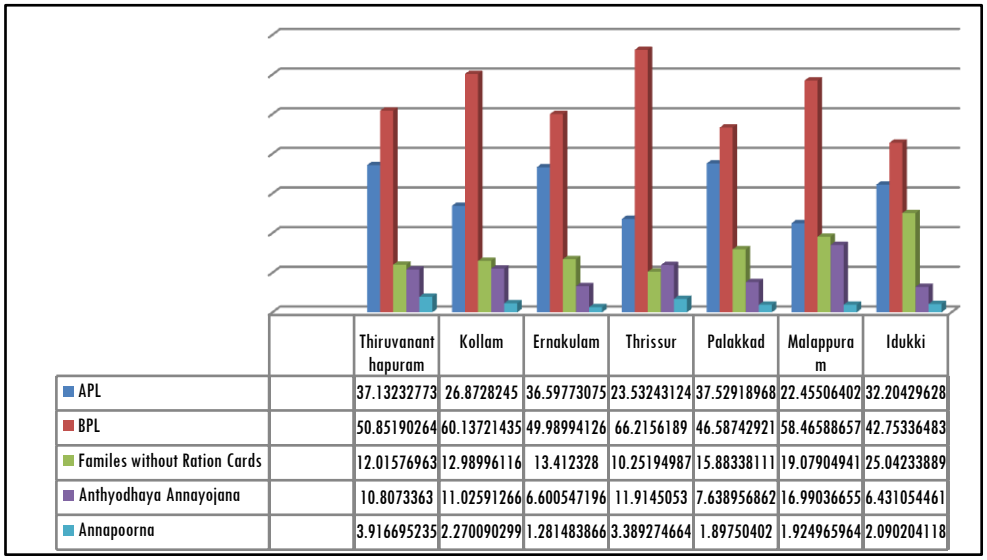
Figure 2.9 Participation in Targeted Public Distribution System



Source: Survey data

Data on SC population show that 3.1 lakhs of the SC families are living below poverty line and hence have the BPL ration cards. The APL card holders in the SC category comes to 1.68 lakhs and most of them in this category are employed SC groups. Inclusion of the SCs into the social nesting of ration system has so far not been materialised and the major hindrance in this respect is that about 80000 SC families do not have ration cards which is evinced in Figure 2.10.

Figure 2.10. Participation in Targeted Public Distribution System



		Thiruvananthapuram	Kollam	Ernakulam	Thrissur	Palakkad	Malappuram	Idukki
APL		37.13232773	26.8728245	36.59773075	23.53243124	37.52918968	22.45506402	32.20429628
BPL		50.85190264	60.13721435	49.98994126	66.2156189	46.58742921	58.46588657	42.75336483
Familes without Ration Cards		12.01576963	12.98996116	13.412328	10.25194987	15.88338111	19.07904941	25.04233889
Anthyodhaya Annayojana		10.8073363	11.02591266	6.600547196	11.9145053	7.638956862	16.99036655	6.431054461
Annapoorna		3.916695235	2.270090299	1.281483866	3.389274664	1.89750402	1.924965964	2.090204118

Source: Survey data

Statistics relating to the PDS system in the 7 sample districts show identical patterns in the SC families. But the proportion of BPL, APL ratio is high in Thrissur district with 66 percent of SCs are coming below poverty line, whereas only 23 percent under APL and only 23 are in the category of above poverty line. Anthyodhaya Annayojana benefit holders of SC in the district is about 11 percent and they are given 'the PDS yellow card' to distinguish this group. In the case of Annapoorna scheme 3 percent are coming. In Kollam district the SCs under poverty line (BPL) is about 60 percent, whereas SCs with APL and AAY categories are 26 and 11 percent respectively. But the SCs with no ration card come to around 12 percent in Kollam. It shows that SCs with ration card is more in Malappuram district with 19 percent and also about 17 percent of the SCs come under AAY food subsidies scheme in Malappuram district. In the case of Palakkad district 15 percent of the SCs do not have ration card and the SCs getting the benefits of AAY and Annapoorna programmes come to 8 and 2 percentages respectively.

2.1.8 Participation in Kudumbashree

Kudumbashree is a women empowerment programme by women themselves in the form of Self Help Groups (SHGs). The basic idea behind this is poverty eradication through livelihoods to women organised by the State Poverty Eradication Mission (SPEM) of Kerala in the year 1998. The period envisaged for poverty eradication through the participation of the local self-government is 10 years and is ignited with the 73rd and 74th Amendments of the Indian Constitution. This specific Mission is launched by the State with the proliferation of the Central Government. The NABARD has used a specific methodology akin to the community-based organisations for addressing poverty through livelihoods to the poor women. For achieving this the Mission adopts a process approach instead of a project approach.

Kudumbashree is a specific community organization targeting women empowerment not only in the rural areas, it is also targeted in the urban areas. Though it is contemplated as a programme to eradicate poverty and empowerment of women, it is really targeting economic empowerment. Women as part of the SHGs work in several areas like health, agriculture, nutrition etc. for income generation activities with the help of micro-credit. It has an administrative set up in Kerala with the Minister of LSG as the chairman and each district has a field officer. This official structure supports and facilitates the activities of the community network across the state. Kudumbashree is non-conventional method of poverty eradication as it gives more thrust to deprivation of money.

Kudumbashree-SHG activity in the state has been beneficial more to the SCs as they are the most under-privileged groups in the Kerala society, its

participation undoubtedly helpful to the SCs of Kerala as it helps in bettering their life. Table 2.2 gives the district-wise participation of the SCs in Kudumbashree activities. It shows that their own Kudambashree units are less in number in comparison to the ones that are functional with the SCs and non-SCs. Though SCs are also working in the Kudambashree units, majority of the poor SCs are still not covered under the scheme. Data show that several SC colonies in the state do not have Kudumbashree units. Nonetheless, identical units meant for the men, named as SHGs are run by SC women.

In the case of the sample districts, the Kudumbashree numbers are more in Palakkad with 933 SC Kudumbashree units. The numbers in other sample districts are in Thrivananthapuram (909), Idukki (353) and Thrissur (523) etc. But the sample districts have large number of Kudumbashree units with combination of SC and non-SC members. It is quite interesting to understand that the evil of social exclusion based on caste is not visible in the case of Kudumbashree units as the SCs and non-SCs are working together in harmony. This type of units in Trissur come to 3967, in Palakkad with 3440, Thiruvannathapuram (2531), Kollam (2245) and in Malappuram (2739). But it is also worrisome to note that several SC families in each district is without any Kudambashree participation as of Palakkad with 17439 SC families. In the case of SC colonies also many have no Kudambashree units as in Kollam with 1289 and Palakkad with 1091.

Table 2.2 Performance in Kudumbashree

Kudumbasree/ Ayalkuttam						
Sl. No.	**District**	**Kudumbasree units with only SCs as members**	**Units with both SCs and Non-SCs as members**	**The SC families not participating in Kudumbasree units**	**The SC Colonies with no Kudumbasree units**	**SC colonies having Purusha swayamsahaya sangam (Self Help Groups)**
1	**Thiruvananthapuram**	909	2531	11427	932	142
2	**Kollam**	616	2245	14881	1289	71
3	**Ernakulam**	550	1585	5338	411	34
4	**Thrissur**	523	3967	10913	716	60
5	**Palakkad**	953	3440	17439	1091	19
6	**Malappuram**	549	2739	8935	802	17
7	**Idukki**	353	908	3382	238	98
8	**Alappuzha**	482	1367	4165	269	157
9	**Pathanamthitta**	413	1560	5235	331	39
10	**Kottayam**	298	877	2714	228	45
11	**Kannur**	130	587	1820	218	23
12	**Wayanad**	76	204	613	55	17
13	**Kozhikod**	233	1662	3001	300	90
14	**Kasargod**	117	470	1391	282	17

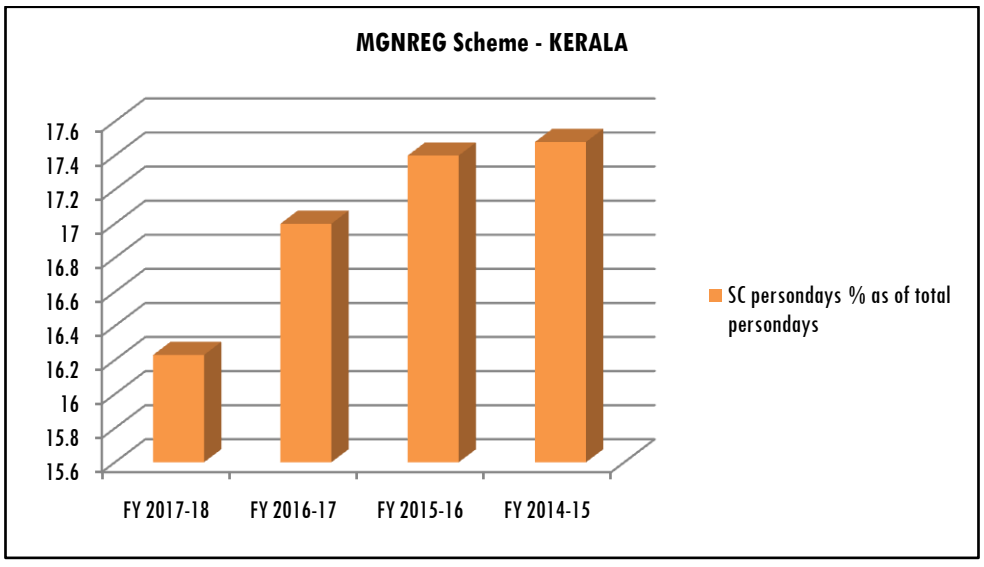
Source: SCDD data

2.1.9 MGNREG

Based on an Act in 2005, a special scheme the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee (MGNREG) has been introduced to give 100 days of unskilled work in a financial year to a rural household. The scheme is meant to create infrastructural asset generating perpetual livelihood with the idea of social inclusion and the work associated with this is demand driven.

The details of the MGNREG of the SC community is given in Figure 2.11 and the details of work display that the SC participation is showing a declining trend in comparison to the non-SCs. Data during the period 2014-15 show that the total SC work days come to 17.40 percent only, which is close to the state percentage. But a change is noticed in the period 2016-17 to 17 percent from 17.40. The declining trend continued in the period 2017-18 to 16.2 percent. Though it is a poverty eradication scheme, the community with high poverty rate has been excluded from the new path of development of the poor.

Figure 2.11 SC Participation in MGNREG Scheme



Source: Survey data

Table 2.3 shows the SCs participation in MNREGS in the state in district basis for the recent four financial years. In this Malappuram and Thrissur show good progress in its participation. It also shows that period 2017-18 marks a big decline irrespective of districts with respect to SC participation.

Table 2.3 Participation of SCs in MGNREGS

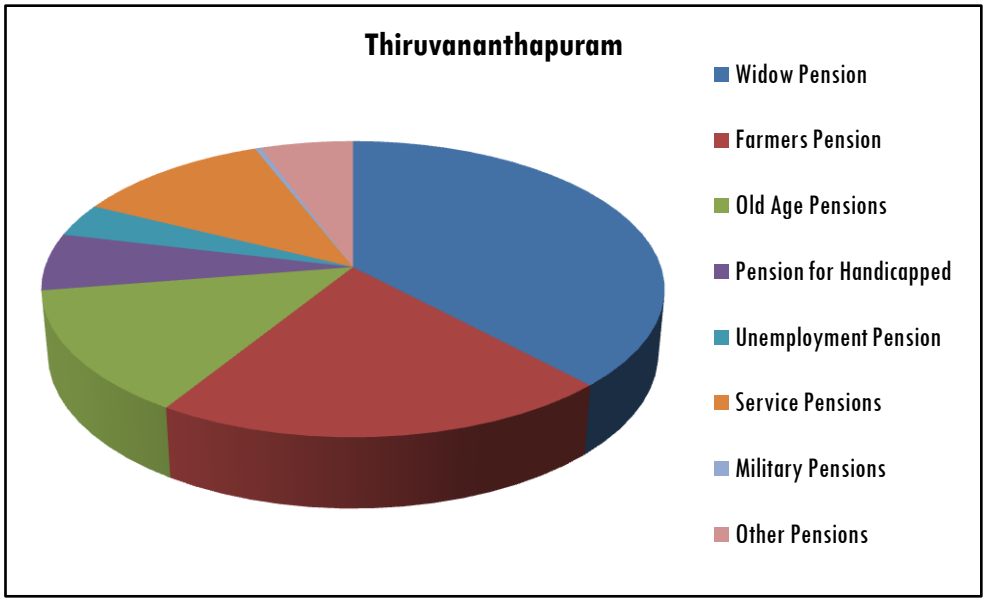
Participation of SCs under MGNREGA in Kerala (Percent)					
Serial No.	District	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-2018
1	Thiruvananthapu	12.86702	13.0048	12.8092	12.44
2	Kollam	11.89131	12.738	13.1453	12.9
3	Ernakulam	19.83256	20.0301	20.7999	20.29
4	Thrissur	31.08152	30.9086	31.4269	31.38
5	Palakkad	31.31372	30.8868	30.2804	3093
6	Malappuram	33.5892	32.4559	33.4997	33.55
7	Idukki	11.06725	11.9861	10.6219	9.45
8	Alappuzha	14.91347	14.1331	13.9755	13.52
9	Kottayam	11.78613	12.3675	12.6658	11.83
10	Pathanamthitta	23.25413	24.4859	25.1368	24.29
11	Kannur	3.245842	3.68711	3.87266	4.02
12	Wayanad	4.470926	4.6796	4.70689	4.71
13	Kozhikod	16.26996	15.3063	14.7811	13.91
14	Kasargod	4.845631	4.86471	5.06011	4.97
Source:www.nrega.nic.in					

2.1.10 Pensions

Pension is a welfare activity of the government and Kerala is famous for various kinds of pension schemes meant for the unemployed, aged and destitute people. The state is making huge allocation for the pension scheme itself. In the financial year 2018-19 the government has allotted Rs 1950 crores for various pension schemes as part of the state welfare measures. Though it is given mostly for the poor and marginalised group of the society, the SCs coming under the ambit of pension scheme is very less. The

following is a brief inference on various pension schemes the SCs are getting in the 7 sample districts.

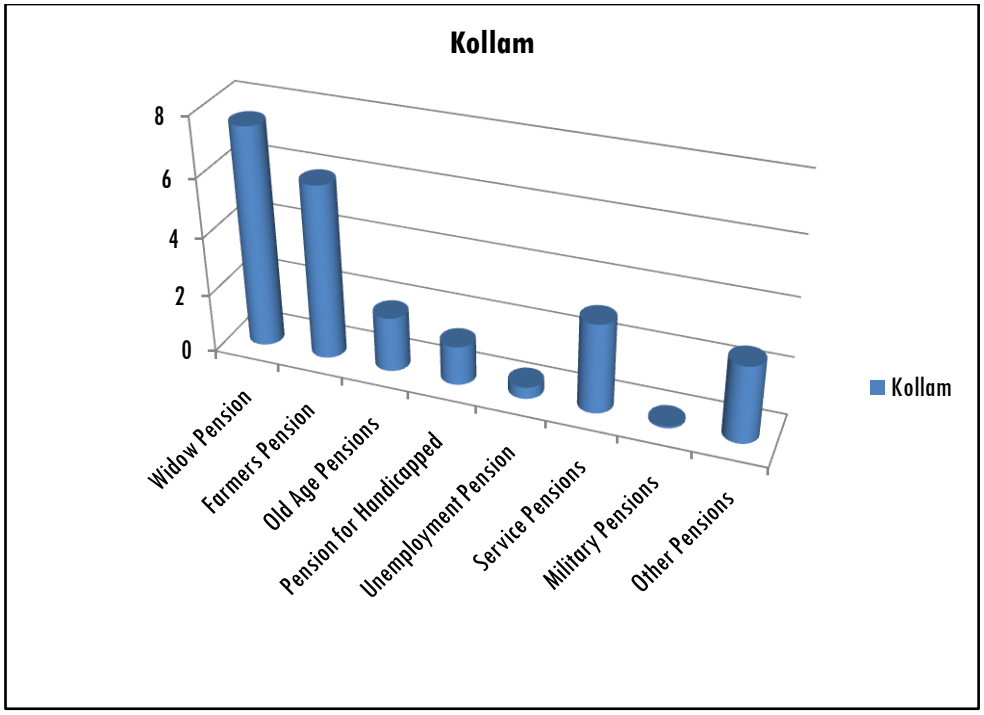
Figure 2.12 (a) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions



Source: Survey data

Figure 2.12 shows that in Thiruvananthapuram district about 24 percent of the SCs are receiving pension of any type from the government. It shows that majority (9 percent) in the district receive widow pension, 5 percent with farmers pensions. Though most of the SCs are working in the agricultural sector, their share in the agricultural pension is very less. It is obvious that the unemployment rate among the SCs is quite high, but only 0.03 percent of the SCs in the district receive unemployment pensions. The major reason cited in this aspect is the lack of awareness of the SCs in applying the various pension schemes meant for them.

Figure 2.12 (b) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions



Source: Survey data

As in Thiruvanathapuram, the SCs in Kollam receives mostly widow and farmers pensions. Statistics show that about 23 percent of the SCs in the district is getting different types of governmental pensions (See Figure 2.12b). About 2 percent get old age pensions, 1.33 percent receive handicapped pension and 0.39 percent get unemployment pensions in the district.

Figure 2.12 (c) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions

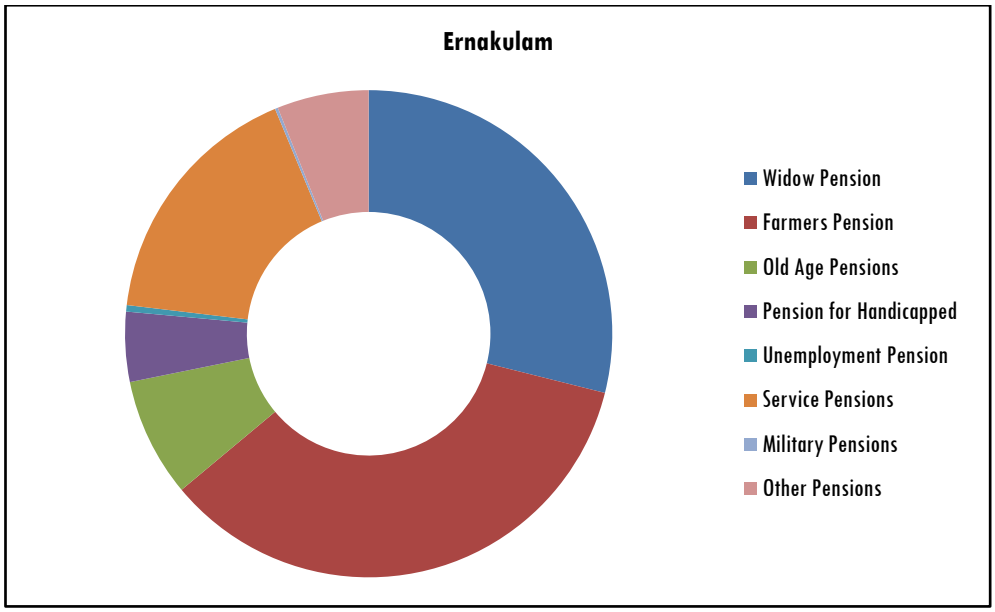
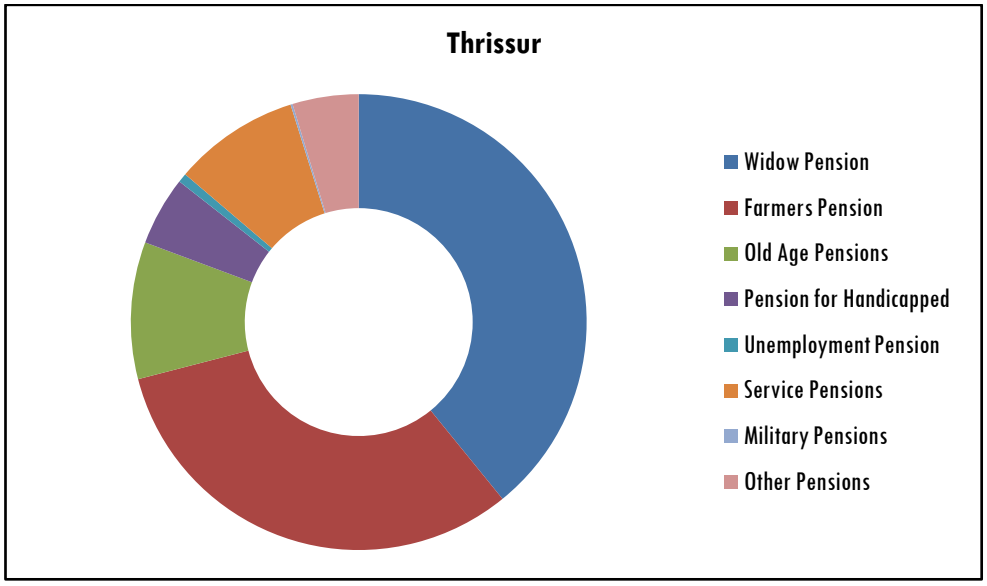


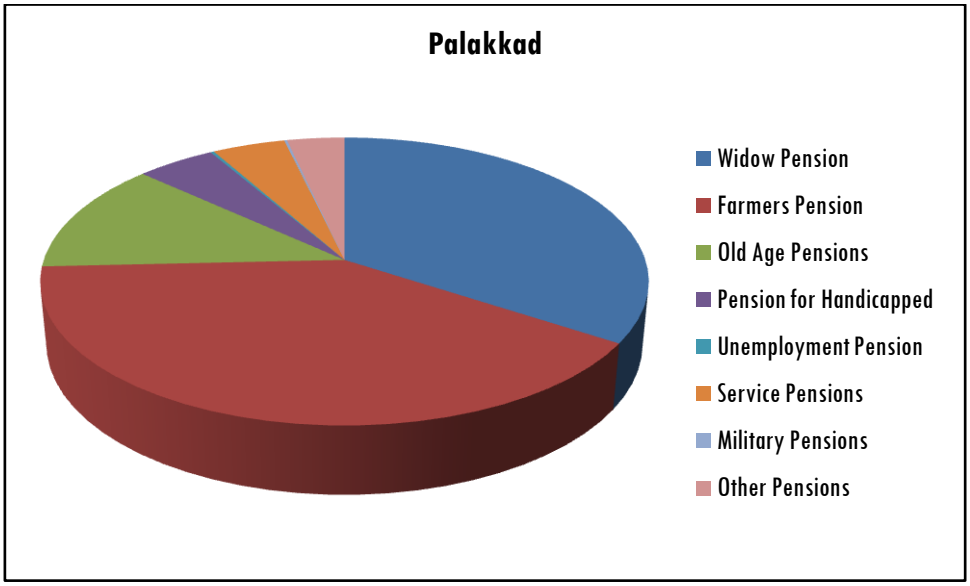
Figure 2.12 (d) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions



Source: Survey data

In Ernakulam district most of the SCs receive widow pension and farmers pension. But in Thrissur district, 8 percent of the SCs receive widow pension, which is high in comparison to other types of pensions they receive. Data show that about 21 percent of the SCs in the district get some type of welfare pensions. In the Thrissur district about 1.9 percent receive old age pension, 7 percent get farmers pension.

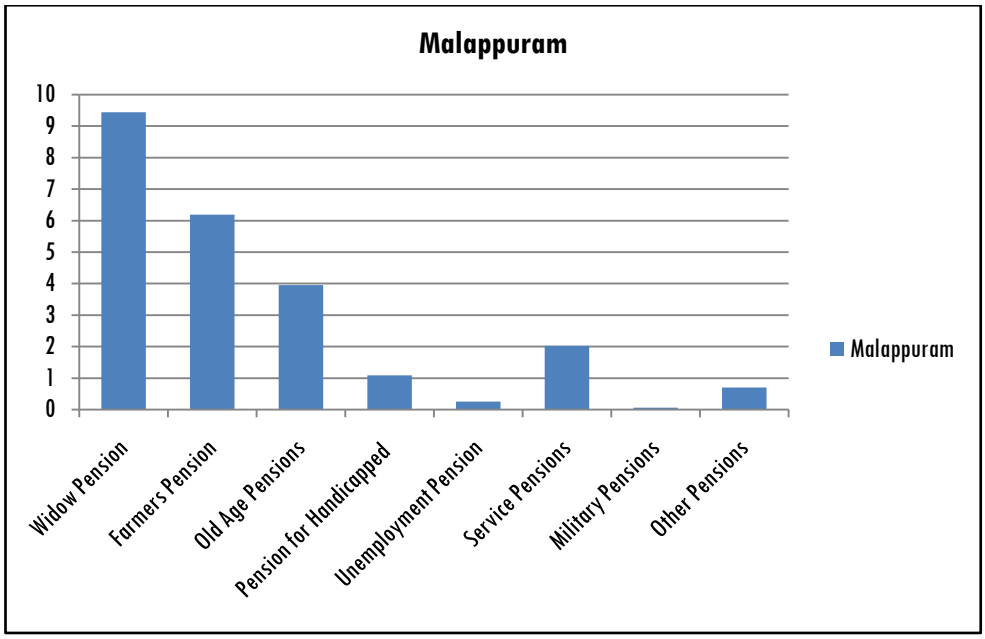
Figure 2.12 (e) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions



Source: Survey data

As the SCs are mainly agricultural workers about10 percent of the SCs in the Palakkad district receive farmers pension, 8 percent widow pension, 1.13 with old-age pension in Palakkad (See Figure 2.12e).

Figure 2.12 (f) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions

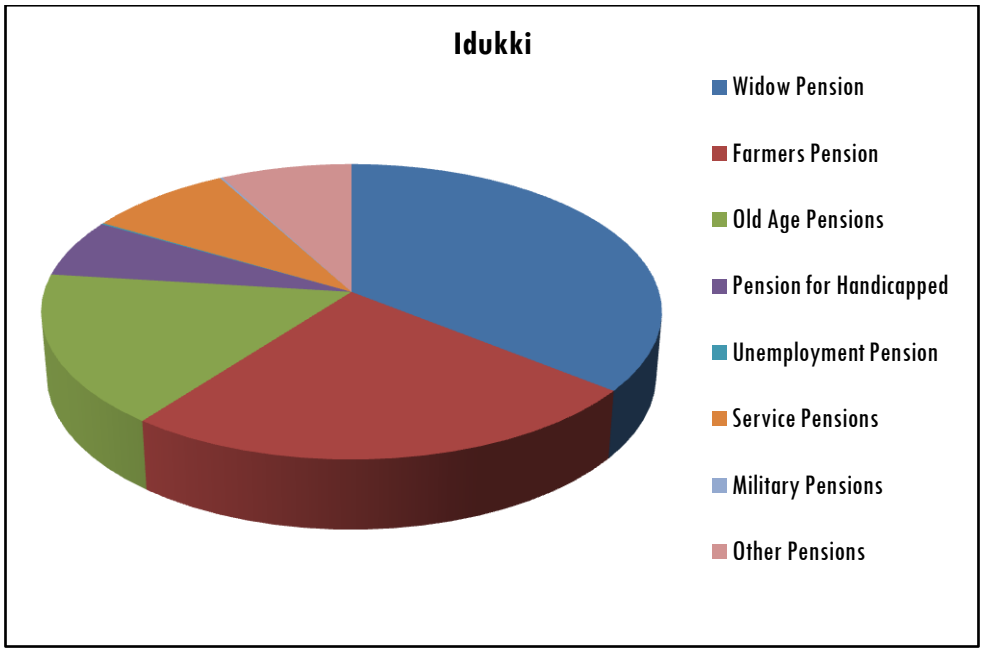


Source: Survey data

In the case of Malappuram those who receive widow is higher than farmers pension. Number of widow pensioners is higher compared to those who receive farmers' pension. By considering the total persons receiving the pension in the Malappuram district come to 23.71 percent (See Figure 2.12f).

But in Idukki district only 6.45 percent of the SCs are getting some kind of pensions. Data show that widow pensioners with 2.30 percent, farmers pension with 2 percent and unemployment pension with 0.008 percent in the district (See Figure 2.12g).

Figure 2.12 (g) Percentage of SCs getting various kinds of pensions



Source: Survey data

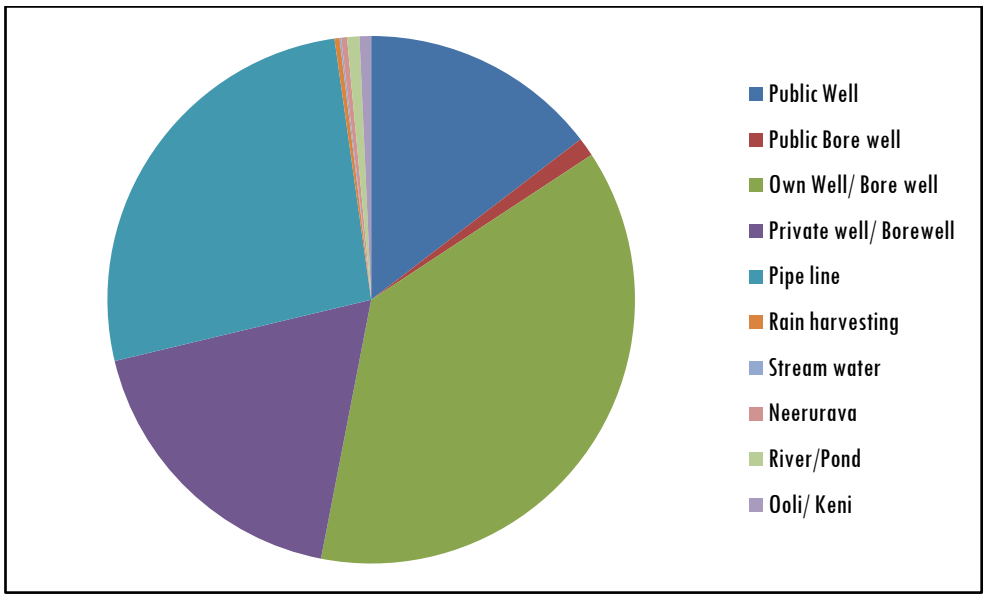
2.2 Basic Facilities

2.2.1 Availability of water

The main cause of concern of the SCs in the state is the availability of potable water. Their major source of water is shown in Figure 2.13. It shows that about one third of the SC families have own source of drinking water from the well. About 16 percent of the SCs still depend on public tap water for drinking and cooking and most of the SCs do not have the habit of rain water harvesting. In the colonised living pattern, they have a public well for a group and about 18 percent of the families use private well and, in some colonies, there is pipeline connection for drinking water purposes and about 26 percent of the SC families use these pipelines. The usage of river,

stream, pond water sources in comparison to the ST families are rarely used by the SC community.

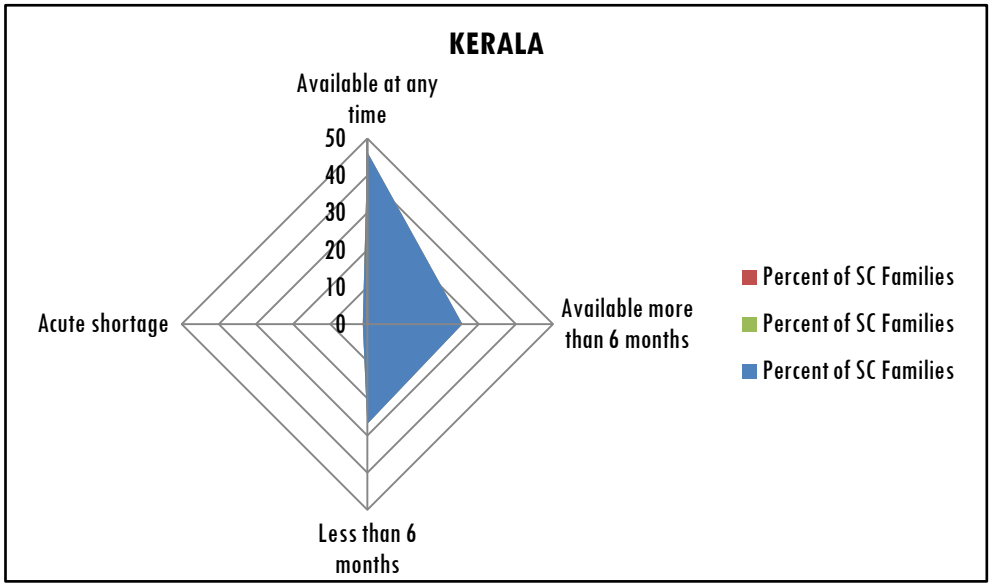
Figure 2.13 Source of Drinking Water



Source: Survey data

Data show that the SCs are faced with the problem of acute water shortage and in this respect only 1.2 percent of the SCs do not face the problem of water for drinking and cooking. But based on regularity, it is clear that only 26 percent get water only for 6 months regularly, which necessitates the need for governmental intervention for assuring water schemes in the colonies as given in Figure 2.14.

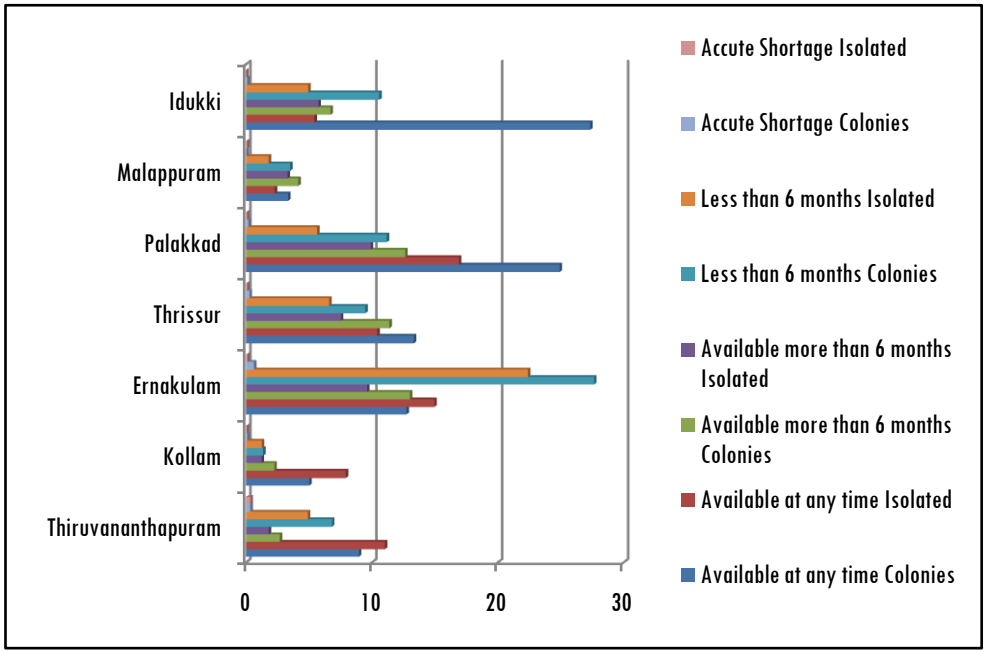
Figure 2.14 Drinking Water availability



Source: Survey data

Sample districts evaluation of the water availability shows that the SC colonies in Ernakulam have acute water shortage. In the SC colonies of Thiruvananthapuram 8 percent get regular water, whereas in the isolated SC groups in the district 11 percent (Figure 2.15) regular water. The SC colonies in Idukki get (22 percent) water at all the times in an year, whereas 22 percent of the families in the colonies and 27 percent of the isolated families get water only in less than 6 months. In the Malappuram district SC colonies, 3 percent get water only less than 6 months in a year and about 1.7 percent of the SCs have water shortage for more than 6 months a year.

Figure 2.15. Drinking water availability in various districts



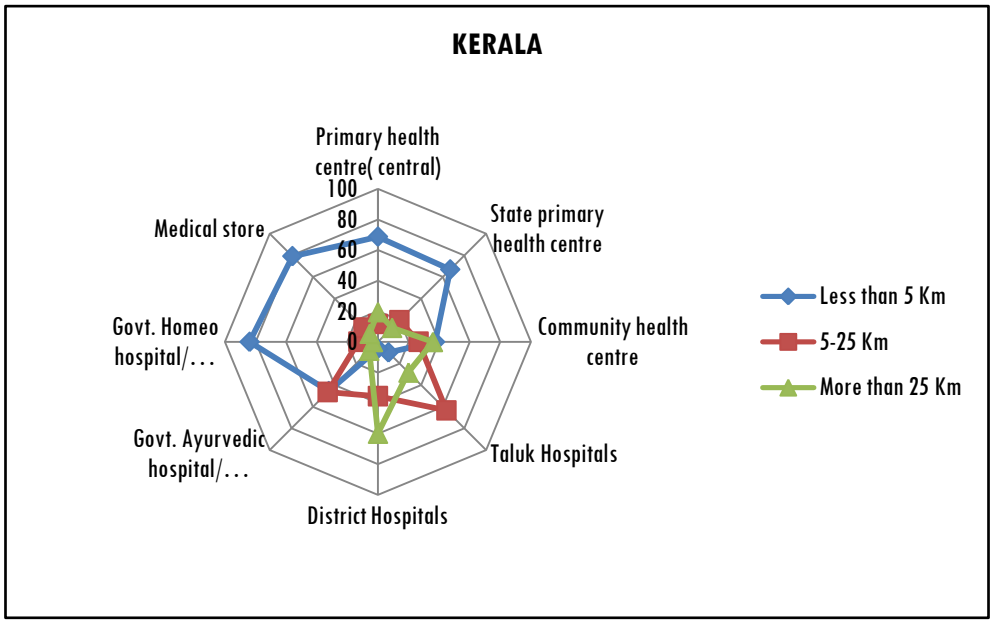
Source: Survey data

2.2.2 Health Facilities

Health is an important aspect for any community in Kerala, so also the case for the SCs. Though the SCs are the poorest of the poor and any expenditure in health will make them to reduce their consumption expenditure, it is a fact that the SCs of Kerala depend heavily on public health and health care provisions as they cannot afford the private health care facilities as it is costly and hence they cannot afford. The government with this end in view is also spending huge money for the public health care system in Kerala. Figure 2.16 explains the accessibility of various healthcare systems by the SCs of Kerala. It is clear that most of the SCs avail health schemes of both the central and state governments available through the primary health centres and it is available within a radius of 5 kms of their colony. The same is the case with the community health centres

(available within 5 kms) within their colonies. But specialised facilities are unavailable in these primary and community health centres and for these facilities they need to travel in the case of serious medical issues. The reason for this is the location of the thaluk and district hospitals as 9 percent of the taluk and 4 percent of the district hospitals are located near to their colonies. In the case of the district hospital 59 percent are located away from their colonies, i.e. more than 25 kms. The issue of non-availability is mitigated to a certain extent with the ayurvedic (45 percent) and homeo hospitals (84 percent) in their close proximity of 5 kms.

Figure 2.16 Access to Health Care Facilities

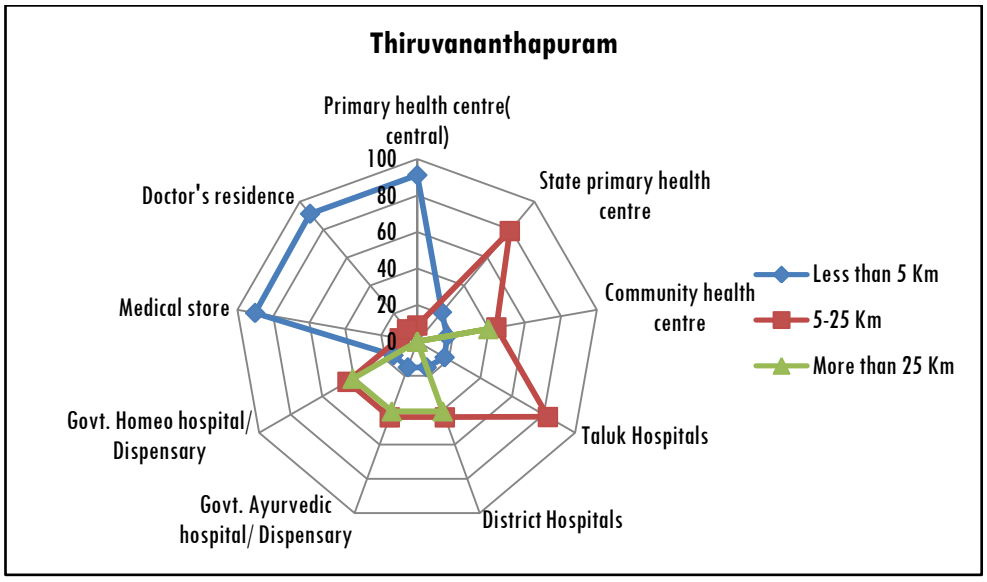


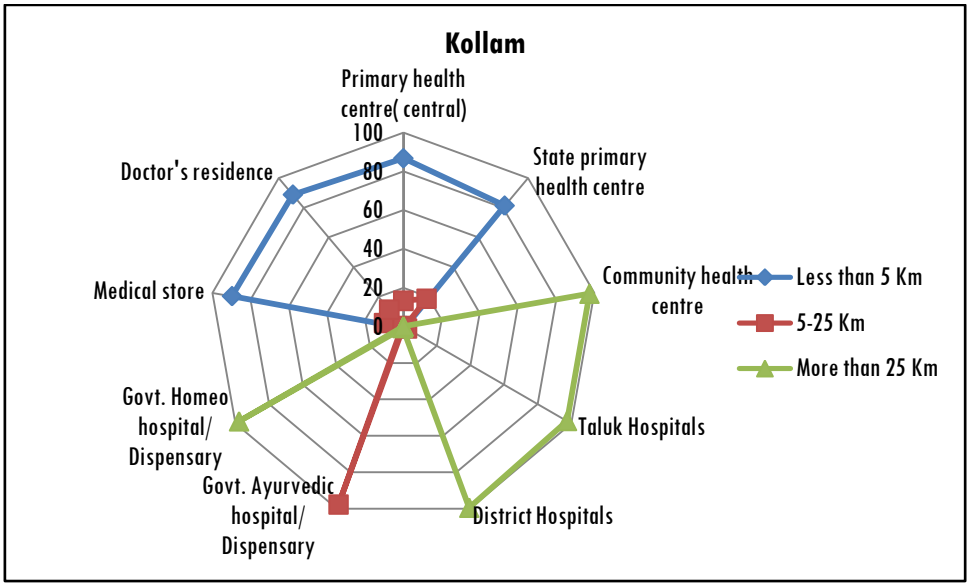
Source: Survey data

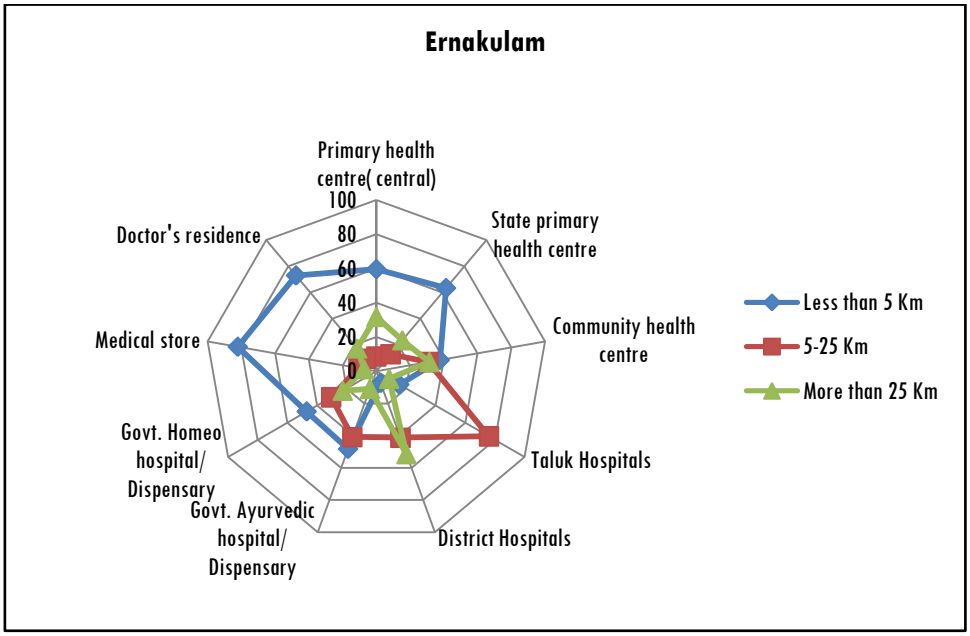
An evaluation of the 7 sample districts it is clear that both primary and community health centres are available within 5 kms of the SC colonies. 91 percent of the primary health centres are within the radius of 5 kms in Thiruvananthapuram district. Though the network of primary and

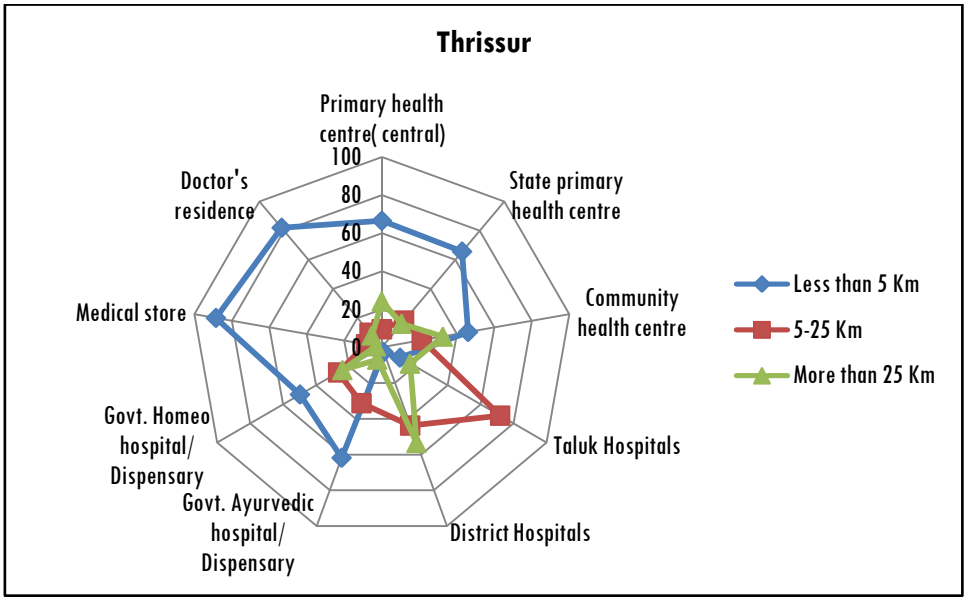
community health centres is good in Thiruvanathapuram, it is clear that 15 percent of the district hospitals are way from the radius of 5 kms of the SC colonies in the district. But in Kollam, the availability of district hospital within the radius of 5 kms of the SC colonies is the least (0.04 percent) in the district (Figure 2.17). In Idukki, the SCs have good access and the condition is different in Thrissur (3 percent) and Malappuram (4 percent) and the district hospitals in these districts are away from 25 kms from the SC colonies. Field inference gives the idea that most of the SC colonies have the services of doctors.

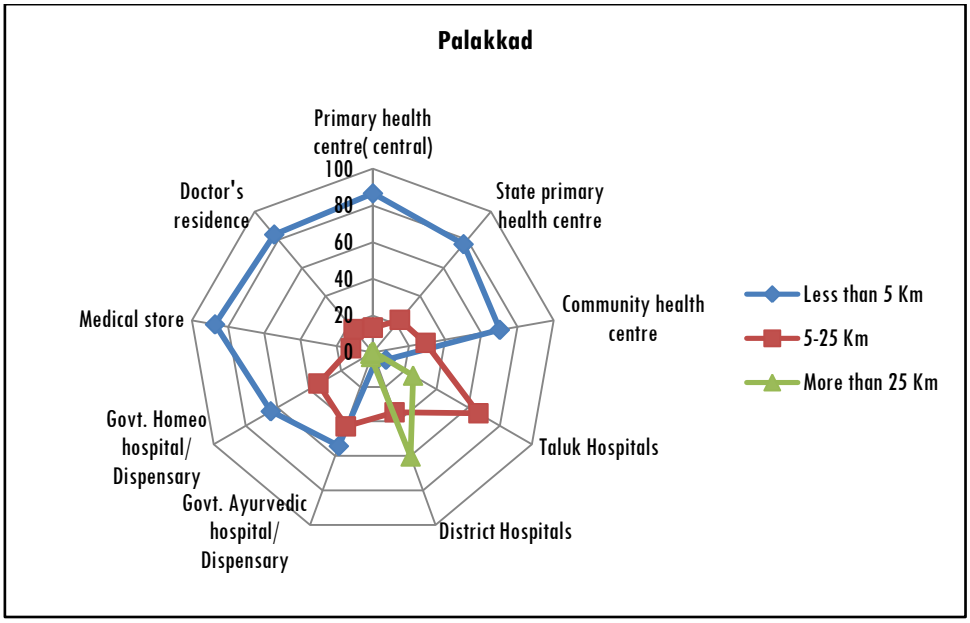
Figure 2.17 Access to health care facilities in various districts

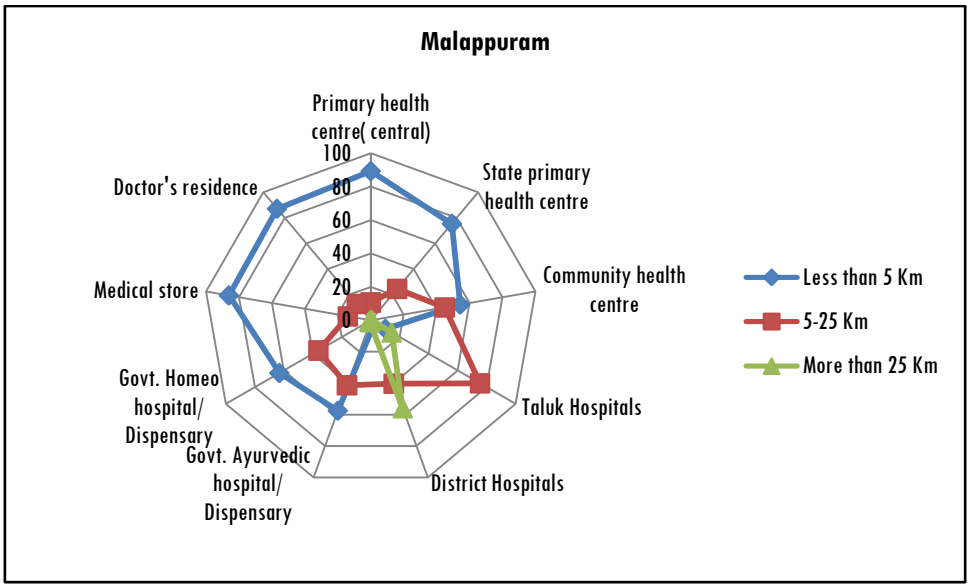


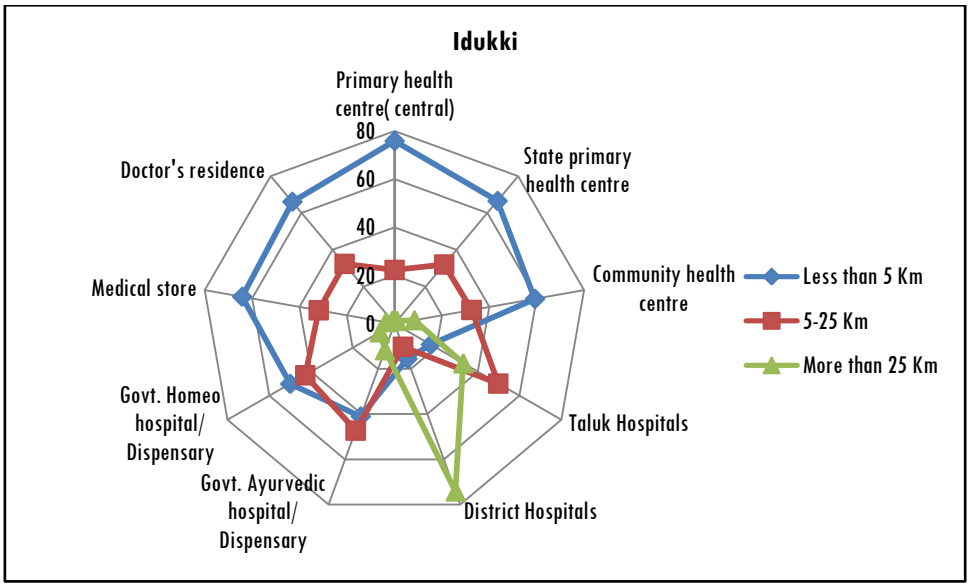

Kollam
Primary health centre(central)
State primary health centre
Community health centre
Taluk Hospitals
District Hospitals
Govt. Ayurvedic hospital/ Dispensary
Govt. Homeo hospital/ Dispensary
Medical store
Doctor's residence
100
80
60
40
20
0
Less than 5 Km
5-25 Km
More than 25 Km


Ernakulam
Primary health centre(central)
State primary health centre
Community health centre
Taluk Hospitals
District Hospitals
Govt. Ayurvedic hospital/ Dispensary
Govt. Homeo hospital/ Dispensary
Medical store
Doctor's residence
100
80
60
40
20
0
Less than 5 Km
5-25 Km
More than 25 Km


Thrissur
Primary health centre(central)
100
80
60
40
20
0
State primary health centre
Community health centre
Taluk Hospitals
District Hospitals
Govt. Ayurvedic hospital/ Dispensary
Govt. Homeo hospital/ Dispensary
Medical store
Doctor's residence
Less than 5 Km
5-25 Km
More than 25 Km


Palakkad
Primary health centre(central)
100
80
60
40
20
0
State primary health centre
Community health centre
Taluk Hospitals
District Hospitals
Govt. Ayurvedic hospital/ Dispensary
Govt. Homeo hospital/ Dispensary
Medical store
Doctor's residence
Less than 5 Km
5-25 Km
More than 25 Km





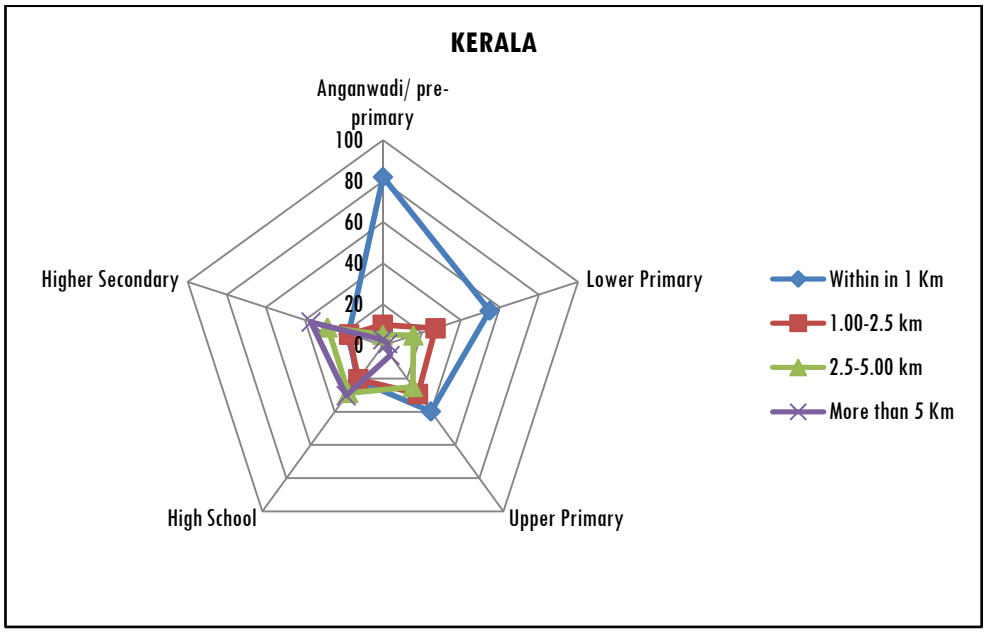
Source: Survey data

2.2.3 Educational Institutions

Kerala is blessed with education institutions in the level of primary schools in every location irrespective of SC or ST colonies. This is indeed a

covetable achievement on the part of the government in providing elementary education to the marginalised communities. The situation varies in the case of secondary education as the SCs have to travel more than 5 kms from their colonies and this creates a situation of high level of dropouts. Hence, steps are needed to start high schools and higher secondary schools within a limit of 5 kms in the SC colonies for the effective learning of the SCs without dropouts. The details of these are given in Figure 2.18.

Figure 2.18. Access to Educational Institutions



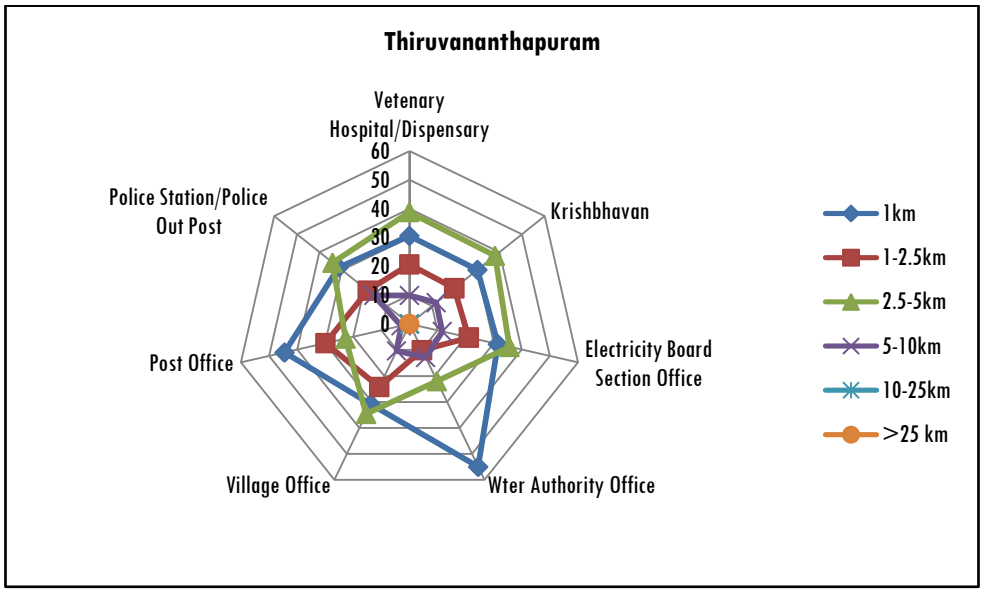
Source: Survey data

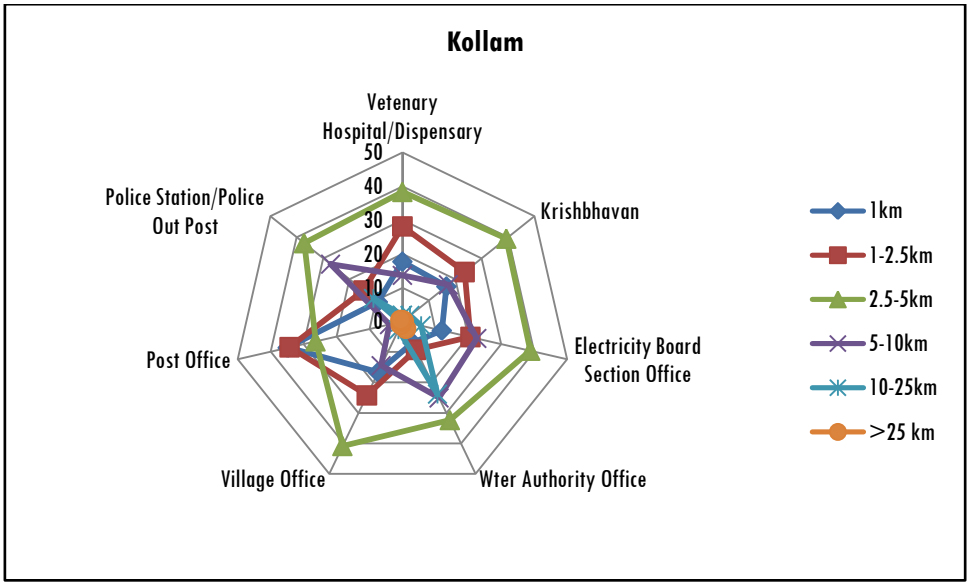
2.2.4 Public utilities

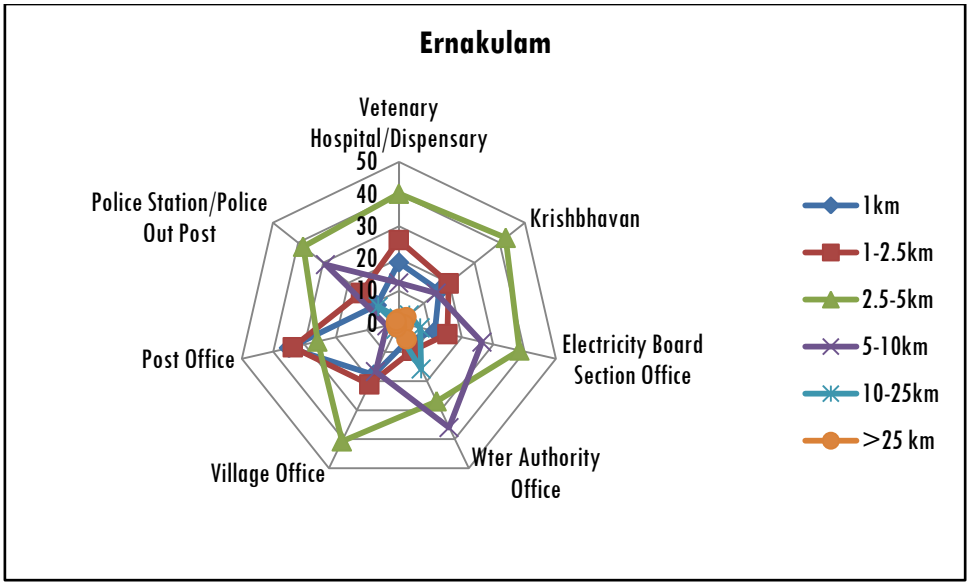
Public utilities are pre-requisites for effective living of any community. Sample districts evaluation shows that Thiruvananthapuram has better accessibility in comparison to other districts. Data show that electricity office, agriculture office, veterinary hospital etc. are located within 5 kms distance. The situation is entirely different in Idukki district as

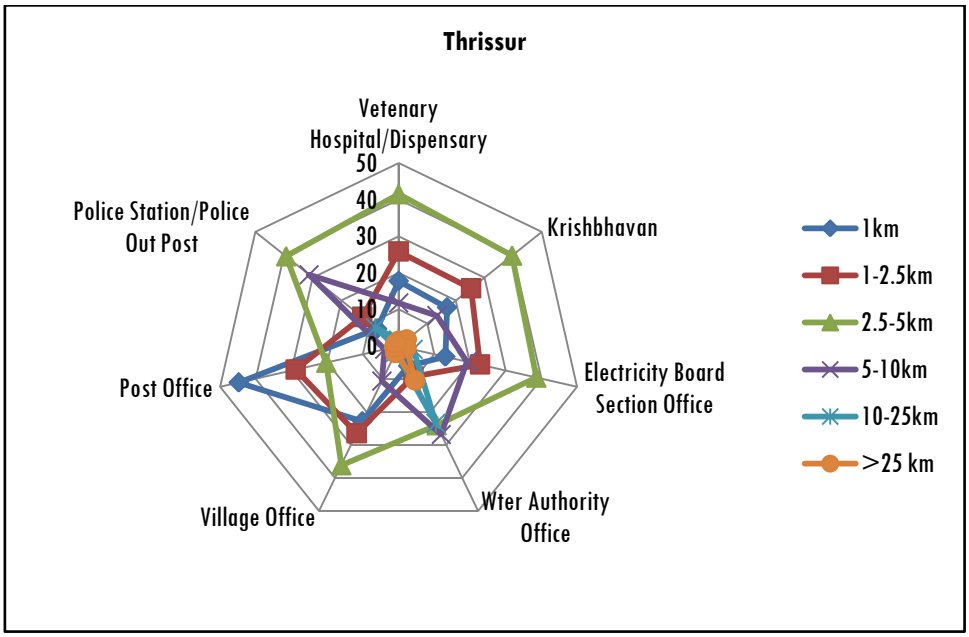
most of the public utility institutions are located away from 10-25 kms. This may be due to the topography of the district (Figure 2.19)

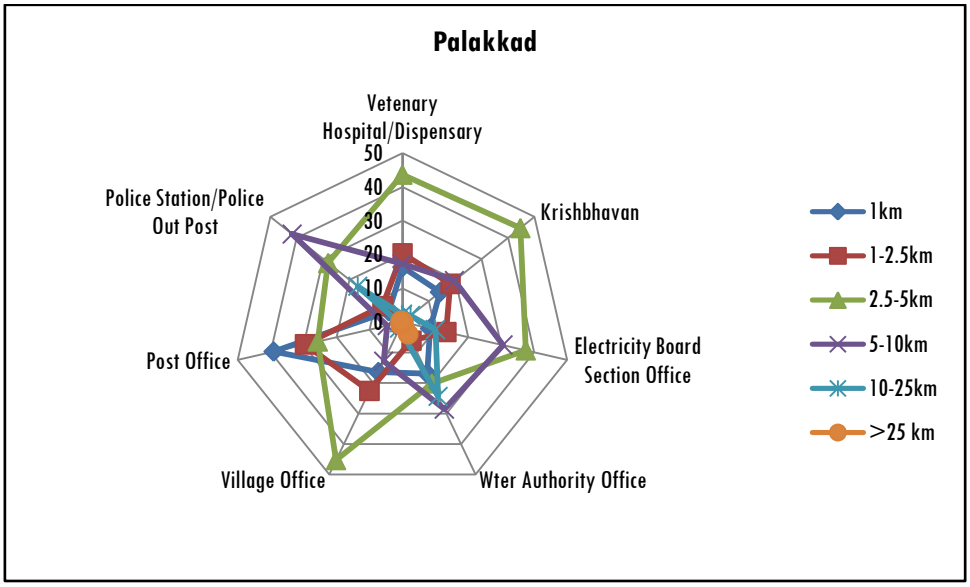
Figure 2.19 Access to Public Utility Institution






Ernakulam
Vetenary Hospital/Dispensary
Krishbhavan
Electricity Board Section Office
Wter Authority Office
Village Office
Post Office
Police Station/Police Out Post
50
40
30
20
10
0
1km
1-2.5km
2.5-5km
5-10km
10-25km
>25 km


Thrissur
Vetenary Hospital/Dispensary
Krishbhavan
Electricity Board Section Office
Wter Authority Office
Village Office
Post Office
Police Station/Police Out Post
50
40
30
20
10
0
1km
1-2.5km
2.5-5km
5-10km
10-25km
>25 km


Palakkad
Vetenary Hospital/Dispensary
Krishbhavan
Electricity Board Section Office
Wter Authority Office
Village Office
Post Office
Police Station/Police Out Post
50
40
30
20
10
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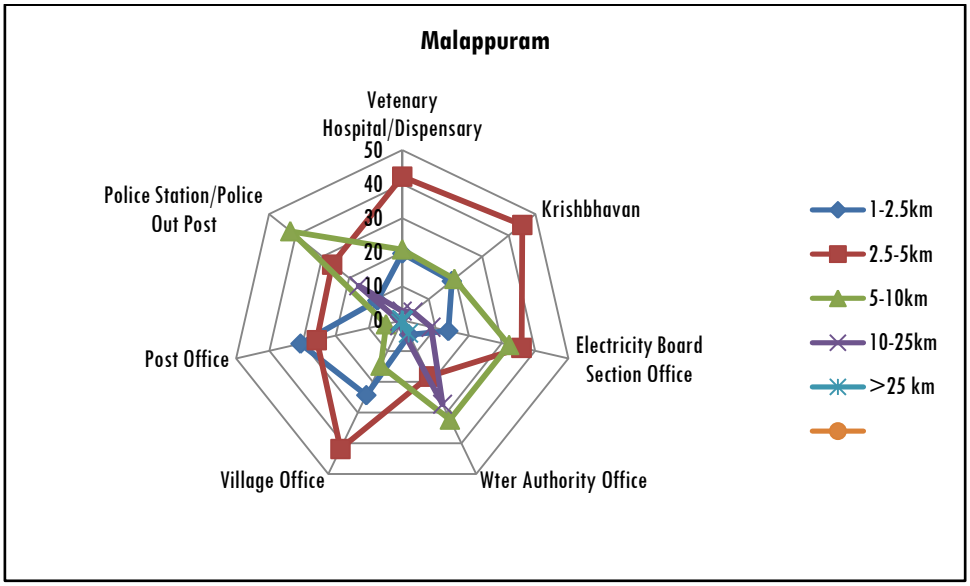
Malappuram
Vetenary Hospital/Dispensary
Krishbhavan
Electricity Board Section Office
Wter Authority Office
Village Office
Post Office
Police Station/Police Out Post
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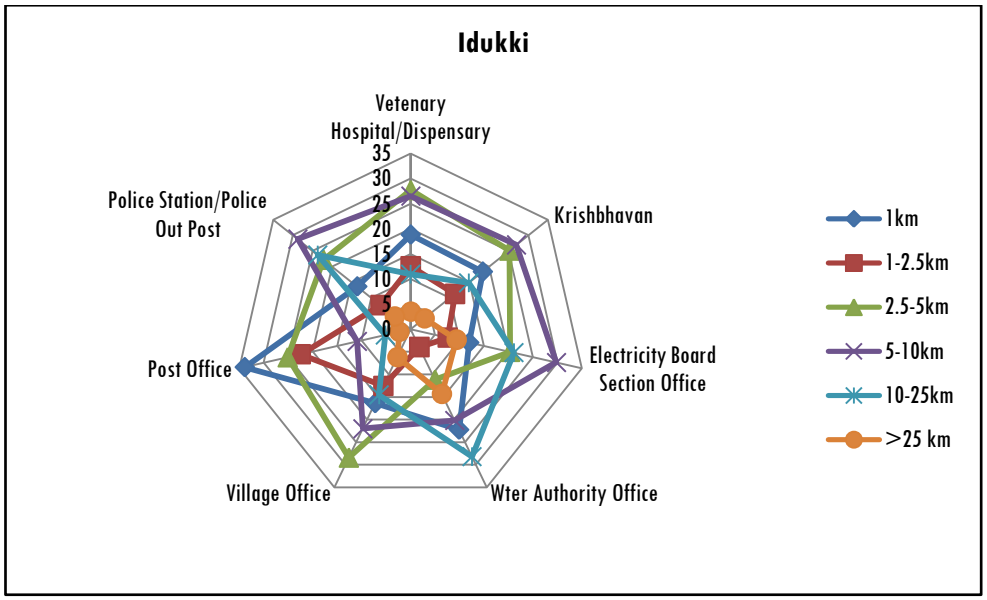
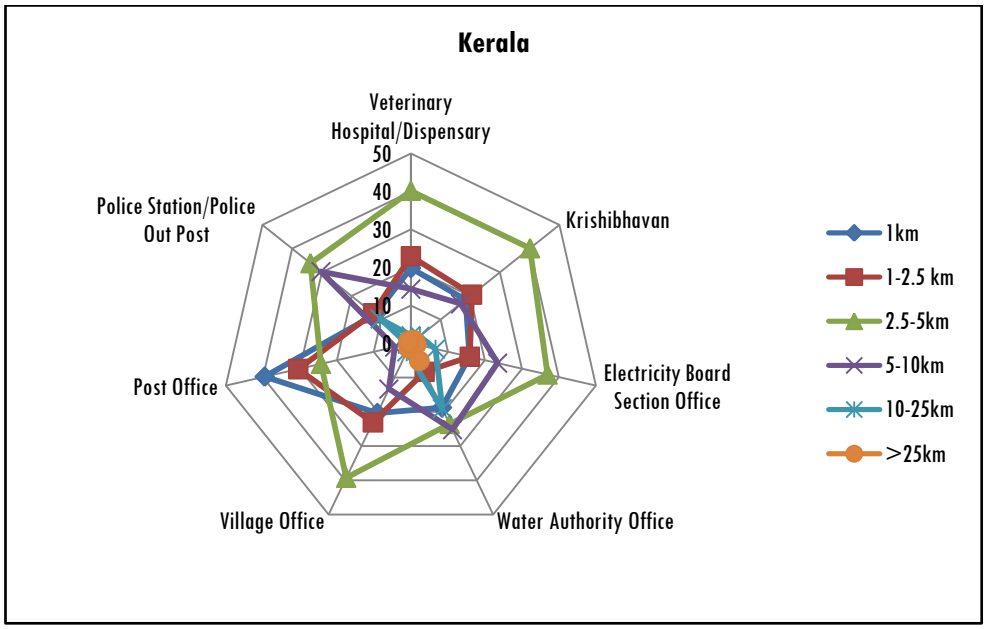


Source: Survey data



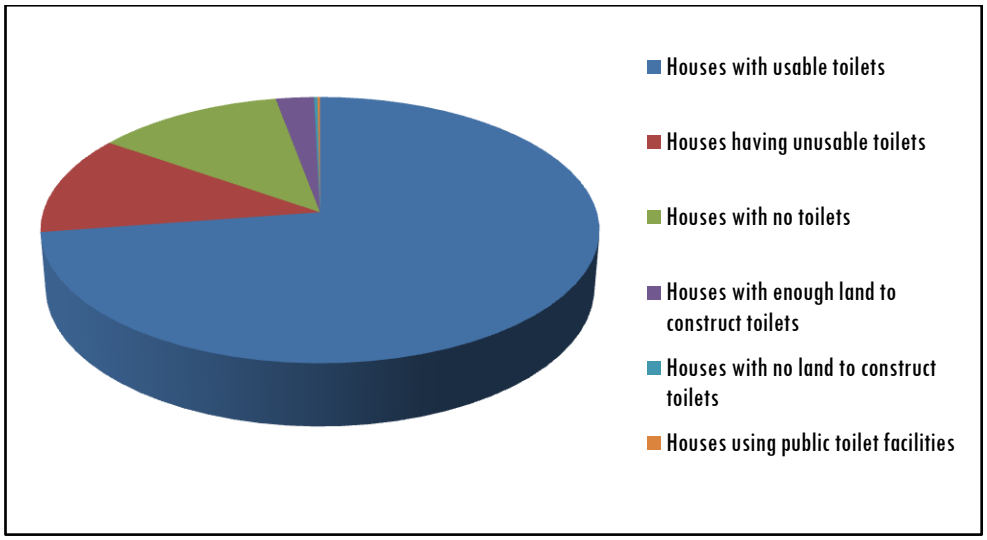
Source: Survey data

2.2.5 Sanitation facilities

Good sanitation facilities show the health and quality of life of the people in the society and this is truer in the marginalised communities like the SC. But this facility is inadequate to most of the rural households and colonies of the SCs. Sanitation now a days is considered to be very important and this is one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Inadequate sanitation facilities will be the result of the spread of diseases like cholera, diarrhoea, and dysentery and this is mostly seen in SC and other poor people dwelling places.

Though Kerala provides good sanitation facilities to the people, it is a fact that SCs lag behind the states sanitation achievement. Figure 2.20 highlights that 12.39 percent of SC houses do not have proper sanitation facilities. Though it is available, most (12 percent) are in unusable conditions in the SC colonies. Several reasons are cited for the non-availability of toilets, the important one is non-availability of land (3 percent) and other is the financial difficulties. Through the sanitation mission of the government of India these two are to be immediately solved for including the SCs in the national sanitation scheme.

Figure 2.20 Toilet facilities in SC houses



Source: Survey data

The situation or toilet facilities of the sample districts is given in Table 2.4. It shows that Thrissur with 82 percent has the largest number of SC households with toilet facilities. But the number of houses of the SC with no toilets comes to 16 percent in the district. Almost identical situation is noticed in Kollam district with 17 percent of the SC households have no toilet facilities. The situation changes if we move to Thiruvananthapuram as only 0.5 percent have no toilet facilities. Though 17 percent of SC houses have toilets, most are in unusable conditions. In Idukki, most of the SC households have (75 percent) usable toilets. However, the district has no toilet facility (12.62 percent) and unusable toilets (9 percent).

Table 2.4 Toilet Facilities in SC houses across districts

District	Houses with usable toilets	Houses having unusable toilets	Houses with no toilets	Houses with enough land to construct toilets	Houses with no land to construct toilets	Houses using public toilet facilities
Thiruvananthap	67.15118	13.0288	16.05759342	2.661981	0.625643	0.474803
Kollam	63.67519	17.1417	17.15515647	1.816072	0.171518	0.040357
Ernakulam	72.70459	17.78386	6.94254446	2.297417	0.185081	0.086505
Thrissur	82.15961	9.322288	7.749561547	0.615973	0.115495	0.037072
Palakkad	76.85381	6.152555	14.02083479	2.634412	0.212543	0.125848
Malappuram	80.04894	7.67229	10.18491392	1.993899	0.065487	0.034467
Idukki	74.56547	9.319012	12.62590249	2.567074	0.552634	0.369908

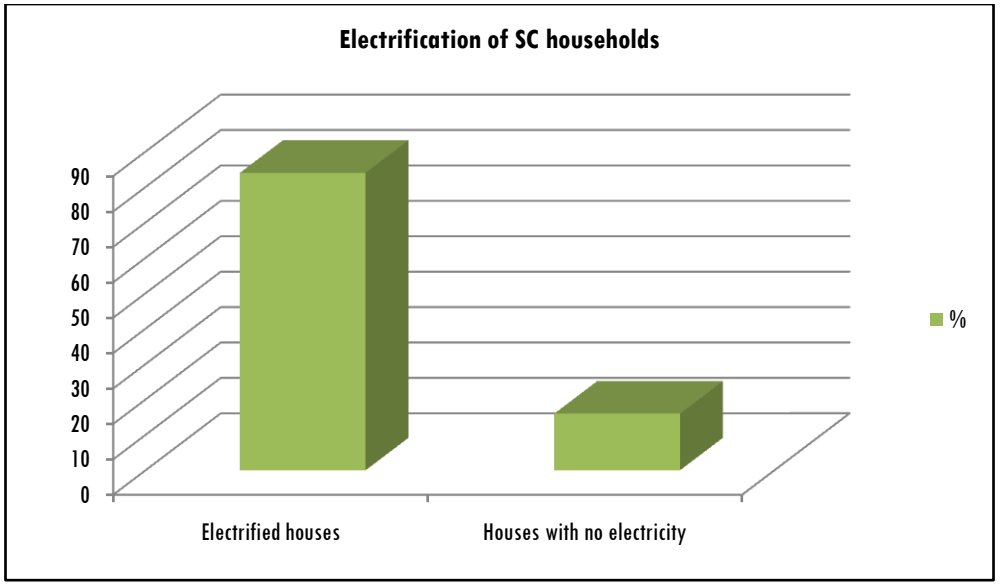
Source: SCDD data

The present sanitation plan of the government of India needs concerted effort on the part of the policy makers to ensure sanitation facilities to the outliers of the society like the SCs, which needs a comprehensive, sustained and multi–faceted approach ensuring that the money spent for this purpose should reach to the needy based on need-based and location-based approaches.

2.2.6 Electricity Connectivity

Though electricity availability is high in the state, the SC colonies still face the problem of electricity connection. Government sources give the inference that transmission line from the grid is available in each village and hence qualified to be electrified. Electrification process faces many challenges since independence owing to logistical challenges in making electricity available in various settlement and colonies. This is more so in the SC colonies of the rural areas of India. But the situation of the SCs in Kerala is in better position compared to other Indian states, in a social class way several miss-matches are identifiable in this respect. From Figure 2.21, it is clear that the SC houses (84 percent) have been electrified. In a state targeting for 100 percent electrification in each village the gap of 16 percent in the SC household is really untenable.

Figure 2.21 Electrification of SC households



Source: Survey data

The situation of electricity connectivity in the 7 sample districts is shown in Table 2.5. It shows that 2 to 3 percent on an average of the SC colonies have no electricity connectivity. The sample districts data show that 35 to 36 percent of the SC colonies only have electricity connection. In Thiruvananthapuram 38 percent of SC colonies are fully electrified, of which 22 percent colonies have street light connection, but 6 percent are unusable. In the no power connection sample district, Idukki comes the top with 4 percent, Thiruvananthapuram 2 percent. With respect to SC electrified colonies, Malappuram has 41 percent, Thrissur with 27 percent, Kollam with 36 percent.

Table 2.5 Electric connectivity in SC colonies across districts

Electrification of SC Colonies							
Sl. No	Districts	Colonies with no electricity(%)	Electrified colonies(%)	electrified colonies with street lights(%)	Electrified colonies with out street lights(%)	Colonies with usable street lights(%)	Colonies with non-usable street lights(%)
1	Thiruvananthapuram	37.7570093	2.00267023	22.48331108	15.27369826	15.92790387	6.55540721
2	Kollam	36.1566967	1.48226575	26.20434092	9.952355744	18.93859185	7.265749074
3	Ernakulam	35.9984985	1.52027027	26.48273273	9.515765766	20.04504505	6.437687688
4	Thrissur	35.2339709	2.2615181	27.27054012	7.963430771	19.94466498	7.325875135
5	Palakkad	36.3914909	1.33940296	25.87761534	10.51387551	17.77116344	8.106451895
6	Malappuram	41.0211028	1.00748809	16.95030633	24.07079646	10.10211028	6.848196052
7	Idukki	38.7548263	4.05405405	18.43629344	20.31853282	12.25868726	6.177606178

2.3 Segregation issues

2.3.1 Housing Segregation

The basic feature of the SC communities is their isolated living in colonies. This is true in the case of urban or rural settlements of SCs, a pattern of segregated living. Government through several schemes followed a policy to break this segregated living of the SCs of Kerala, one of the important steps in this direction is 'Laksham Veedu Colony' for settling the SCs of Kerala in various districts (one lakh housing scheme). But the sad fact is that these colonies have also SC segregated colonies owing to the increase in number of the family members. The SCs are totally unhappy with this sorry state of affairs and the disillusionment becomes visible in their land struggle organised at 'Arippa', demanding land not for developing colonies but for agricultural activities to generate a perpetual livelihood.

2.3.2 Distribution of the SC Colonies in Kerala

The colonisation process is well explained in Table 2.6 and it shows that the number of SC colonies is more in Palakkad (16.46 percent), Malappuram (11.78 percent), Thrissur and Thiruvananthapuram (11 percent each). But the colonized nature of living of the SC is less in the districts of Wayanad, Kannur and Kasaragod.

Table 2.6 Scheduled Caste Colonies in Kerala

Scheduled Caste Colonies in Kerala		
District	**Number**	**Percentage**
Thiruvananthapuram	2978	11.36
Kollam	2844	10.85
Pathanamthitta	1706	6.51
Alappuzha	1465	5.59
Kottayam	1022	3.9
Idukki	887	3.38
Ernakulam	1999	7.63
Thrissur	3090	11.79
Palakkad	4314	16.46
Malappuram	3087	11.78
Kozhikode	1429	5.45
Wayanad	226	0.86
Kannur	612	2.33
Kasargod	539	2.05
Total	26198	100
Source: SCDD data		

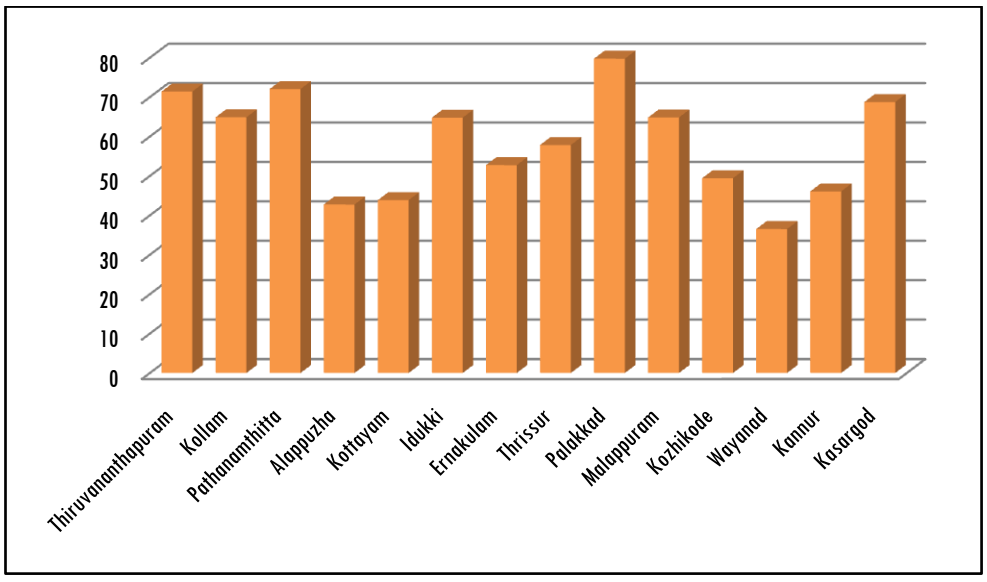
2.3.3 Distribution of Families According to Segregation

Majority of the families (61.26 percent) of the SCs are segregated in Kerala. The percentage in district-wise is Palakkad (80 percent), Pathanamthitta (72 percent) and Thiruvananthapuram (71 percent). But Family-wise segregation distribution is less in districts of Kannur, Kasaragod and Wayanad (Table 2.7). The basic reason for this pathetic nature of segregation is the result of the low land holding nature and poverty.

Table 2.7 Distribution of Families According to Segregation

Distribution of families					
Districts	Living in Colonies	%	Isolated Houses	%	Total
Thiruvananthapuram	40929	71.418	16380	28.5819	57309
Kollam	38582	64.877	20887	35.1225	59469
Pathanamthitta	21612	72.05	8384	27.9504	29996
Alappuzha	18076	42.741	24216	57.2591	42292
Kottayam	12715	43.854	16279	56.1461	28994
Idukki	14537	64.787	7901	35.2126	22438
Ernakulam	26216	52.74	23492	47.26	49708
Thrissur	39370	57.836	28702	42.1642	68072
Palakkad	57083	79.753	14492	20.2473	71575
Malappuram	37616	64.825	20411	35.175	58027
Kozhikode	17689	49.419	18105	50.5811	35794
Wayanad	2554	36.522	4439	63.4778	6993
Kannur	8059	46.078	9431	53.9222	17490
Kasaragod	6926	68.751	3148	31.2488	10074
Total	341964	61.259	216267	38.7415	558231
Source: SCDD data					

Figure 2.22 Percentage distribution of families in Colonies



Source: Worked out from SCDD data

The comparison of SCDD data of 2008 with SCDD data of 2012, brings the clear picture that the horror of segregation has been continuing in Kerala as shown in Figure 2.22. This has been happening in spite of many land-cum-housing schemes meant for the SCs during the last 7 decades.

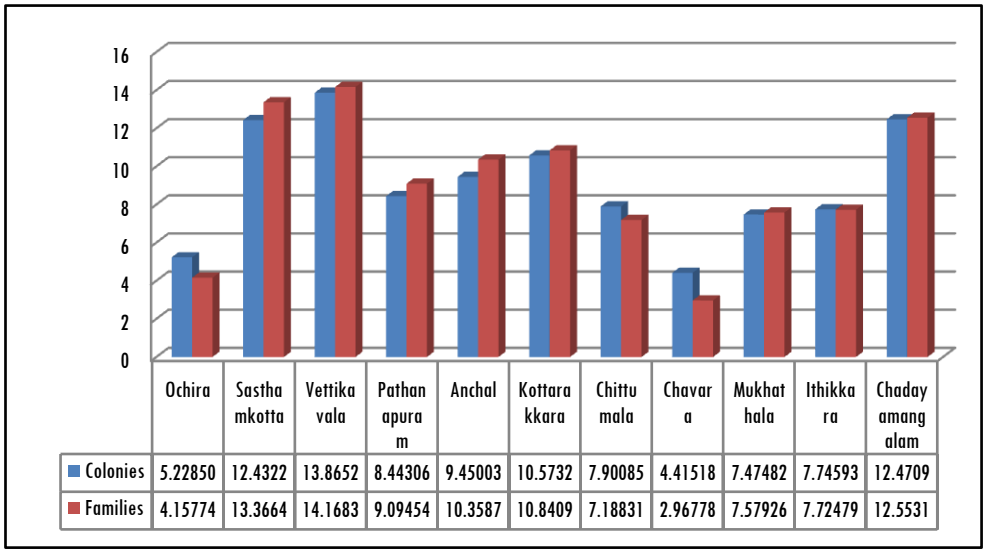
2.3.4 Inter-District Pattern of Segregation

It seems that SC segregation in Kerala is ubiquitous, its magnitude varies spatially. Here the issue of segregation is evaluated in the 7 sample districts.

2.3.4.1 Kollam

Data show that about 13 percent of the SC colonies are located in Vettikavala block. This block is considered to be the highly concentrated SC colony with a population percentage of about 14 percent. Figure 2.23 shows the difference with respect to colonies and population proportion as small.

Figure 2.23 Spatial segregation of the SC population in Kollam district



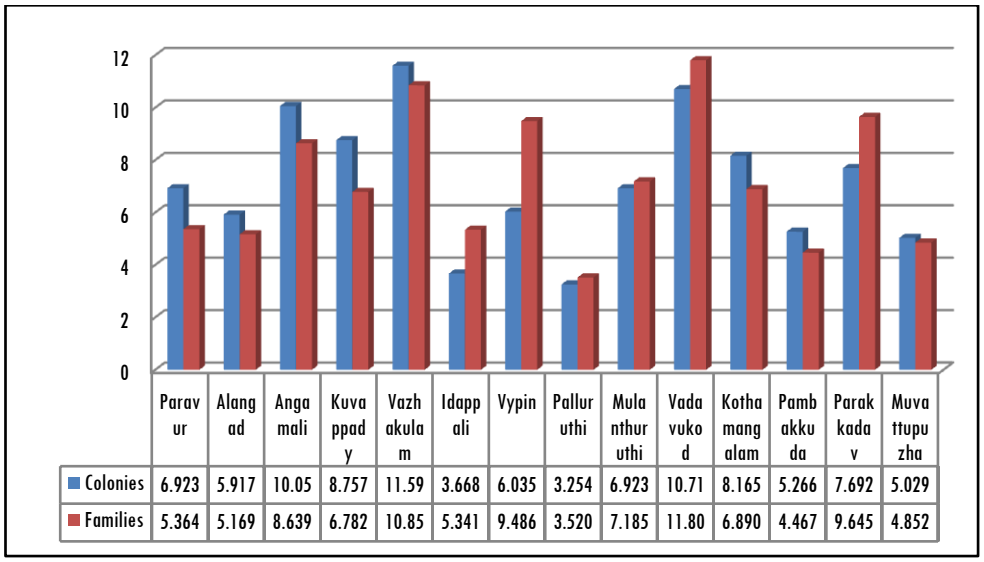
	Ochira	Sastha mkotta	Vettika vala	Pathan apura m	Anchal	Kottara kkara	Chittu mala	Chavar a	Mukhat hala	Ithikka ra	Chaday amang alam
Colonies	5.22850	12.4322	13.8652	8.44306	9.45003	10.5732	7.90085	4.41518	7.47482	7.74593	12.4709
Families	4.15774	13.3664	14.1683	9.09454	10.3587	10.8409	7.18831	2.96778	7.57926	7.72479	12.5531

Source: Survey data

2.3.4.2 Ernakulam

Among the 15 blocks panchayaths in the district, 14 blocks are SC predominated blocks. Based on SC colonies the Vazhakulam block comes the biggest, but Vadavukad block is in respect of family-wise population. However, Vypin block has 6 percent in terms of colonies and 10 percent in terms of family-wise of the total SC in the district (Figure 2.24).

Figure 2.24. Spatial segregation of the SC population in Ernakulam district



	Paravur	Alangad	Angamali	Kuvappady	Vazhakulam	Idappali	Vypin	Pallurthi	Mulanthuruthi	Vadavukod	Kothamangalam	Pambakkuda	Parakkadav	Muvattupuzha
Colonies	6.923	5.917	10.05	8.757	11.59	3.668	6.035	3.254	6.923	10.71	8.165	5.266	7.692	5.029
Families	5.364	5.169	8.639	6.782	10.85	5.341	9.486	3.520	7.185	11.80	6.890	4.467	9.645	4.852

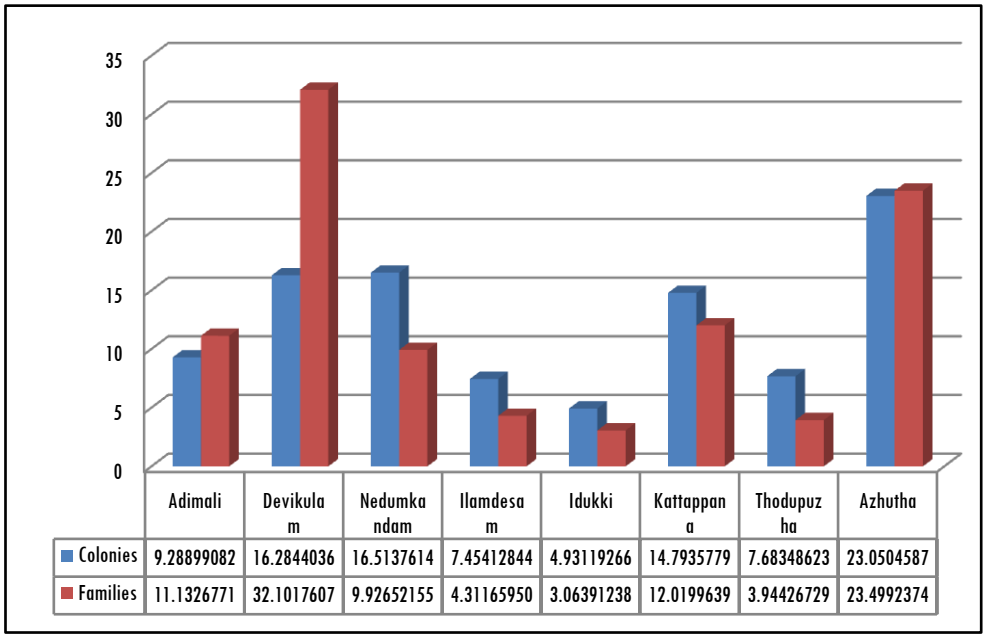
Source: Survey data

2.3.4.3 Idukki

In the Idukki district 8 Block Panchayats have high SC population density and the Azhutha block with 23.5 percent of the colonies is the largest in terms of SC colonies with 23 percent of the SC families in the district. In the Devikulam block with 16 percent of colonies has the largest number of SC families (32 percent) (Figure 2.25). This block also shows high rate of segregation of SC families in comparison to other blocks in the

districts. However, in Nedumkandam block has 10 percent of the SC families with 16 percent colonies.

Figure 2.25 Spatial Distribution of SCs in Idukki



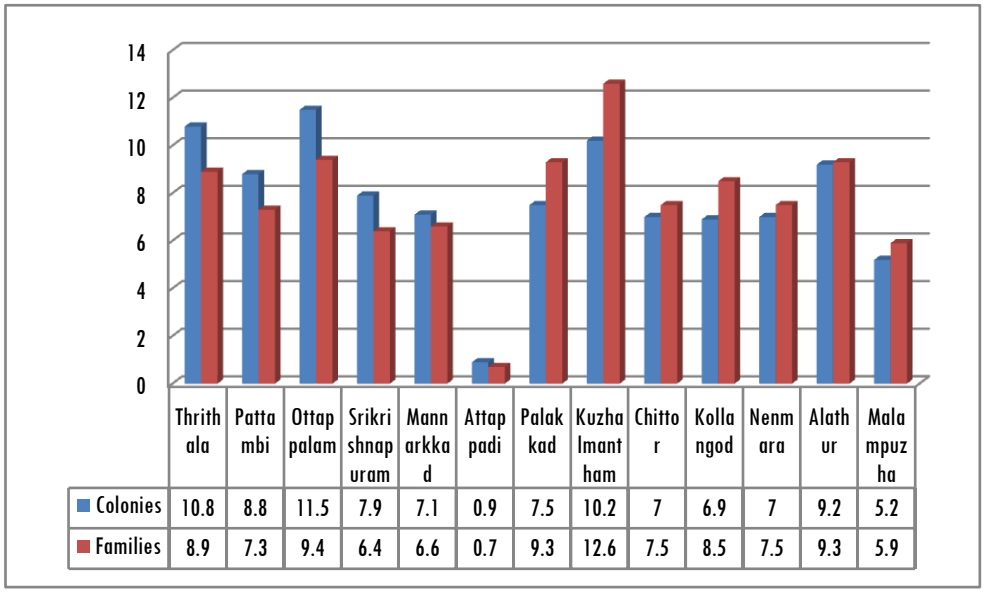
	Adimali	Devikulam	Nedumkandam	Ilamdesam	Idukki	Kattappana	Thodupuzha	Azhutha
Colonies	9.28899082	16.2844036	16.5137614	7.45412844	4.93119266	14.7935779	7.68348623	23.0504587
Families	11.1326771	32.1017607	9.92652155	4.31165950	3.06391238	12.0199639	3.94426729	23.4992374

Source: Survey data

2.3.4.4 Palakkad

All the blocks in Palakkad have SC colonies and the colony distribution is somewhat identical in all the blocks in the district. The tribal hub of Palakkad, the Attappady block has only very less percent of the SC population (Figure 2.26).

Figure 2.26. Spatial distribution of SCs in Palakkad



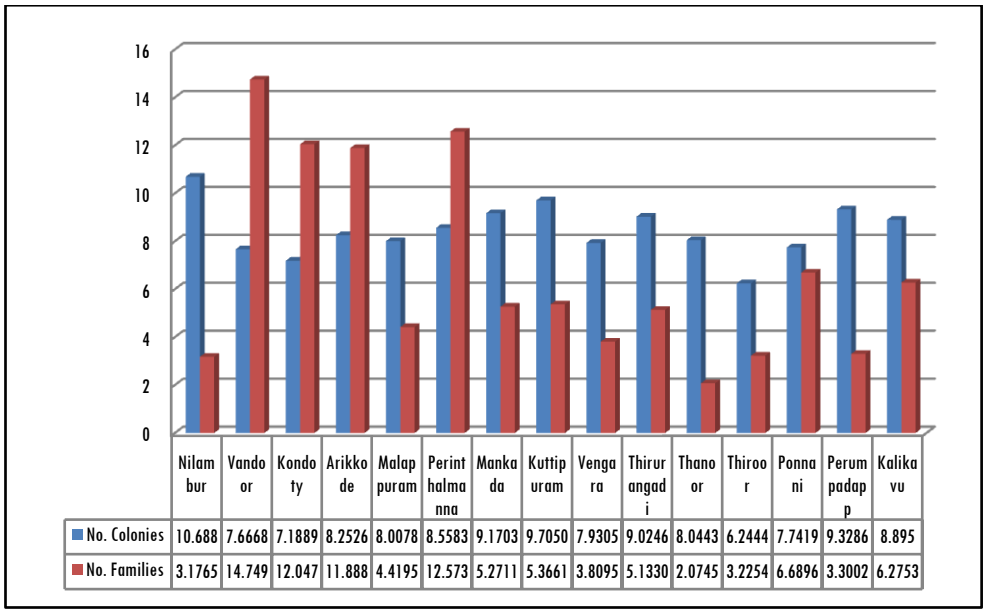
	Thrithala	Pattambi	Ottappalam	Srikrishnapuram	Mannarkkad	Attappadi	Palakkad	Kuzhalmanthan	Chittor	Kollangod	Nenmara	Alathur	Malampuzha
Colonies	10.8	8.8	11.5	7.9	7.1	0.9	7.5	10.2	7	6.9	7	9.2	5.2
Families	8.9	7.3	9.4	6.4	6.6	0.7	9.3	12.6	7.5	8.5	7.5	9.3	5.9

Source: Survey data

2.3.4.5 Malappuram

In Malappuram district every block has SC colonies. Nilambur block has the highest number of colonies, but family-wise Vandoor block comes the first in the district. Malappuram block has 8 percent colonies with 4 percent of the SCs in the district. But in Kondoty block has 7 percent of the colonies with 12 percent of total SC families.

Figure 2.27. Spatial segregation of SCs in Malappuram district



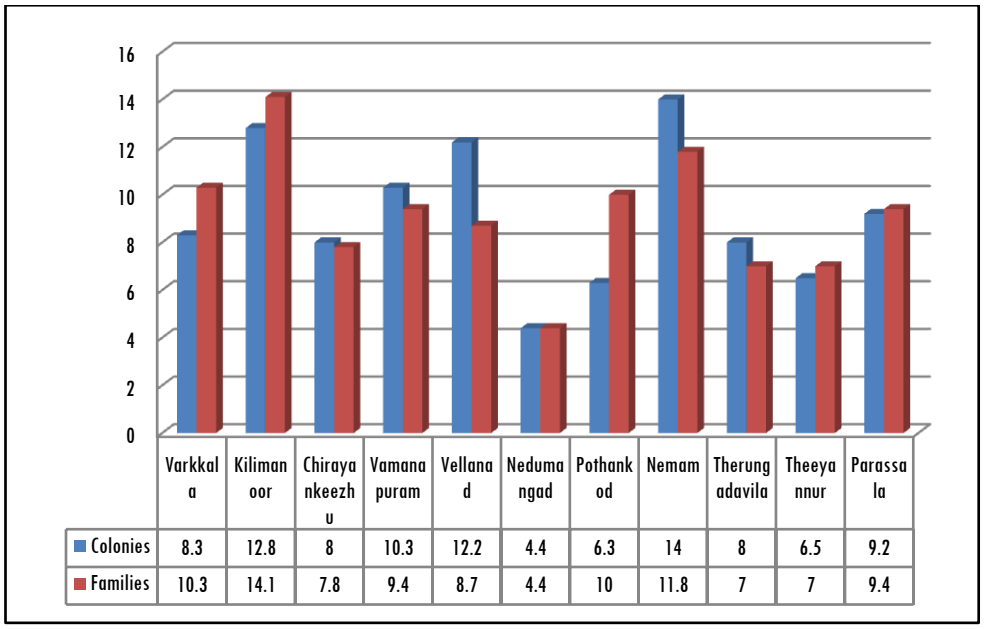
	Nilambur	Vandoor	Kondoty	Arikkode	Malappuram	Perinthalmanna	Mankada	Kuttipuram	Vengara	Thirurangadi	Thanoor	Thiroor	Ponnani	Perumpadapp	Kalikavu
No. Colonies	10.688	7.6668	7.1889	8.2526	8.0078	8.5583	9.1703	9.7050	7.9305	9.0246	8.0443	6.2444	7.7419	9.3286	8.895
No. Families	3.1765	14.749	12.047	11.888	4.4195	12.573	5.2711	5.3661	3.8095	5.1330	2.0745	3.2254	6.6896	3.3002	6.2753

Source: Survey data

2.3.4.6 Thiruvananthapuram

There exists difference in concentration in SC colonies and family-wise percentages. Nemam block has the largest colonies, but Kilimanoor block is having the largest number of families. (Figure 2.28).

Figure 2.28. Spatial distribution of SCs in Thiruvananthapuram

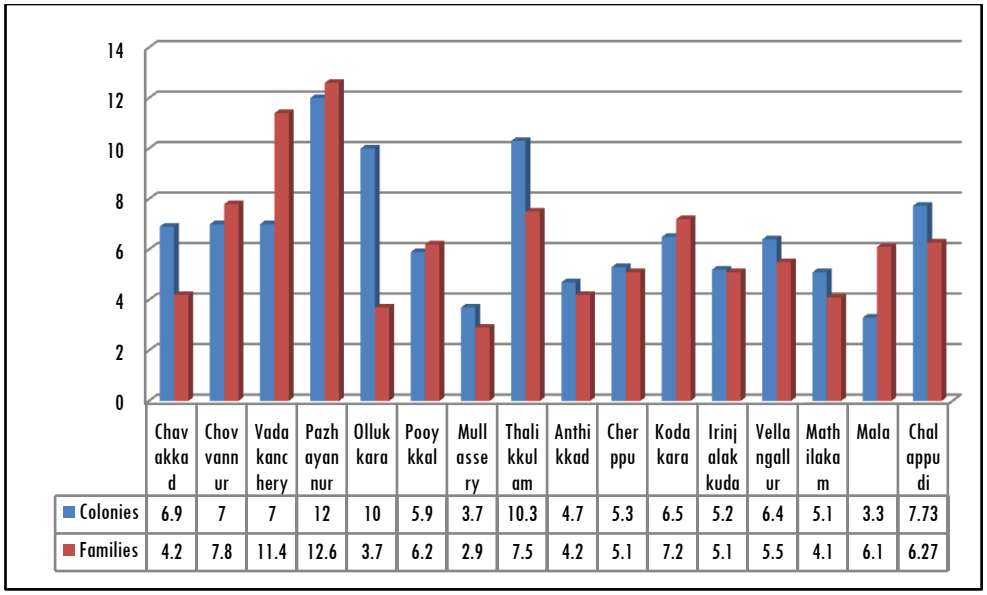


Source: Survey data

2.3.4.7 Thrissur

Thrissur district has high level of concentration both colony-wise and family-wise. Among the various blocks in the district Pazhayannur block has more concentration both in respect of SC colonies and SC families. But the Vadakkanchery block shows the lowest percent of colonies comparing SC families. However, Thalakkulam block is more concentrated with SC colonies than SC families (Figure 2.29).

Figure 2.29 Spatial distribution of SCs in Thrissur



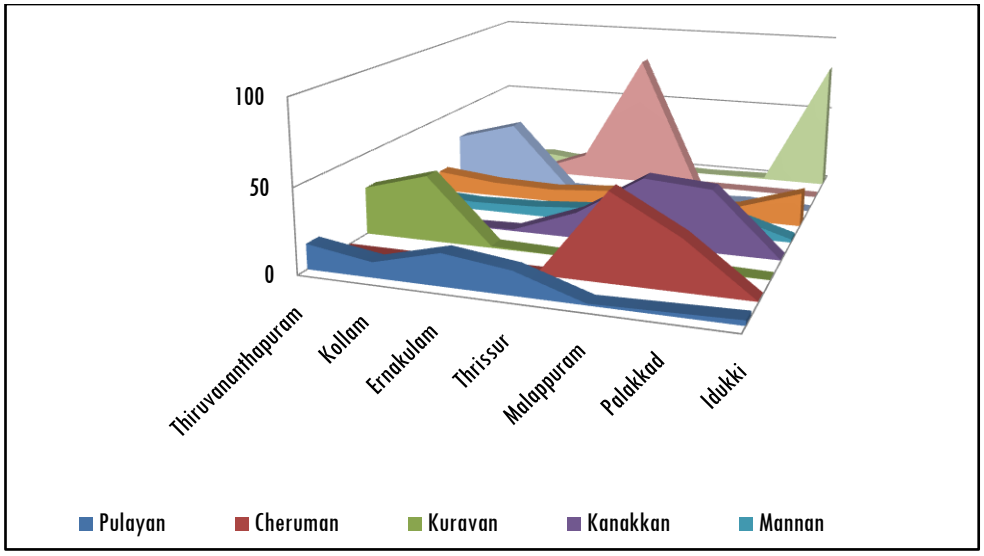
	Chavakkad	Chovvannur	Vadakanchery	Pazhayannur	Ollukara	Pookkal	Mullassery	Thalikkulam	Anthikkad	Cherppu	Kodakara	Irinjalakkuda	Vellangallur	Mathilakam	Mala	Chalappudi
Colonies	6.9	7	7	12	10	5.9	3.7	10.3	4.7	5.3	6.5	5.2	6.4	5.1	3.3	7.73
Families	4.2	7.8	11.4	12.6	3.7	6.2	2.9	7.5	4.2	5.1	7.2	5.1	5.5	4.1	6.1	6.27

Source: Survey data

2.3.5 District-wise Intra-Community Segregation

Inter-community and intra-community segregations are important in terms of segregation level evaluations. This is identifiable in terms of colony pattern or isolated patterns. To evaluate the intra-community vicissitudes at the sub-community levels give important inferences for explaining the forces of segregation. This is well elucidated in Figure 2.30, this will help to identify the intra-community changes in segregation. This too is a clear espousal of the inter-community segregation in Kerala.

Figure 2.30 Spatial distribution of Communities in Kerala



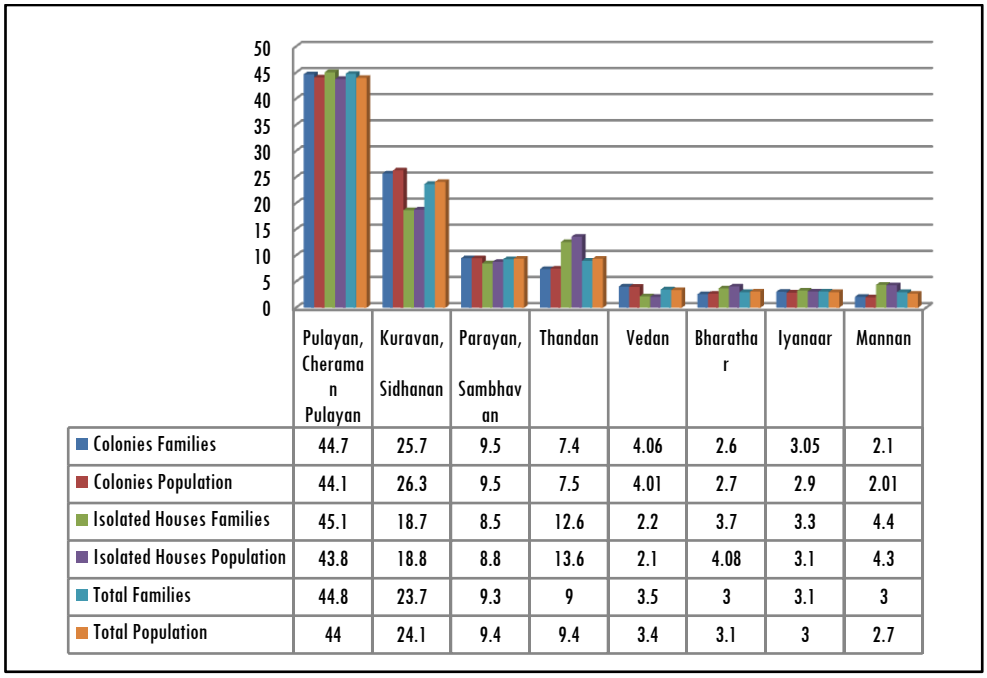
Source: Survey data

Among the various SC sub-communities of Kerala, the Pulayan sub-caste in the community is predominant in Ernakulam, Thiruvananthapuram and Thrissur district. The Pulayan belongs to Thiruvananthapuram is named as Cheraman Pulayar, who are part of the Christian tradition, whereas they follow Hindu tradition in other districts. The three SC sub-communities like the Cheruman, Kanakkan and the Panan are located in the districts of Palakkad, Thrissur, while the Kuravan (40 percent) and Thandan with 30 percent are seen mostly concentrated in Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram. Two SC communities like the Mannan and the Parayyan are very few in Kerala. The two SC communities of Pallan (84 percent) and Vettuvan (85 percent) are mostly distributed in Idukki and Thrissur districts. The SC sub-community of Kanakkan is distributed mostly in Malappuram.

2.3.5.1 Thiruvananthapuram

Fifty percent of the SC population in Thiruvananthapuram are of two SC-sub groups - Pulayar or Cherumar Pulayar. But Kuravar or the Sidhanar sub-groups are also in the district as given in Figure 2.31. The district also has 9 percent SC-sub groups like the Thandan and the Parayan. But the settlement pattern of these SC sub-groups are different, the Thandan lives in an isolated form, whereas, the Pulayan and the Kuravan prefer a colony pattern.

Figure 2.31. Community wise segregation of SC population in Thiruvananthapuram district



	Pulayan, Cheraman Pulayan	Kuravan, Sidhanan	Parayan, Sambhavan	Thandan	Vedan	Bharathar	Iyanaar	Mannan
Colonies Families	44.7	25.7	9.5	7.4	4.06	2.6	3.05	2.1
Colonies Population	44.1	26.3	9.5	7.5	4.01	2.7	2.9	2.01
Isolated Houses Families	45.1	18.7	8.5	12.6	2.2	3.7	3.3	4.4
Isolated Houses Population	43.8	18.8	8.8	13.6	2.1	4.08	3.1	4.3
Total Families	44.8	23.7	9.3	9	3.5	3	3.1	3
Total Population	44	24.1	9.4	9.4	3.4	3.1	3	2.7

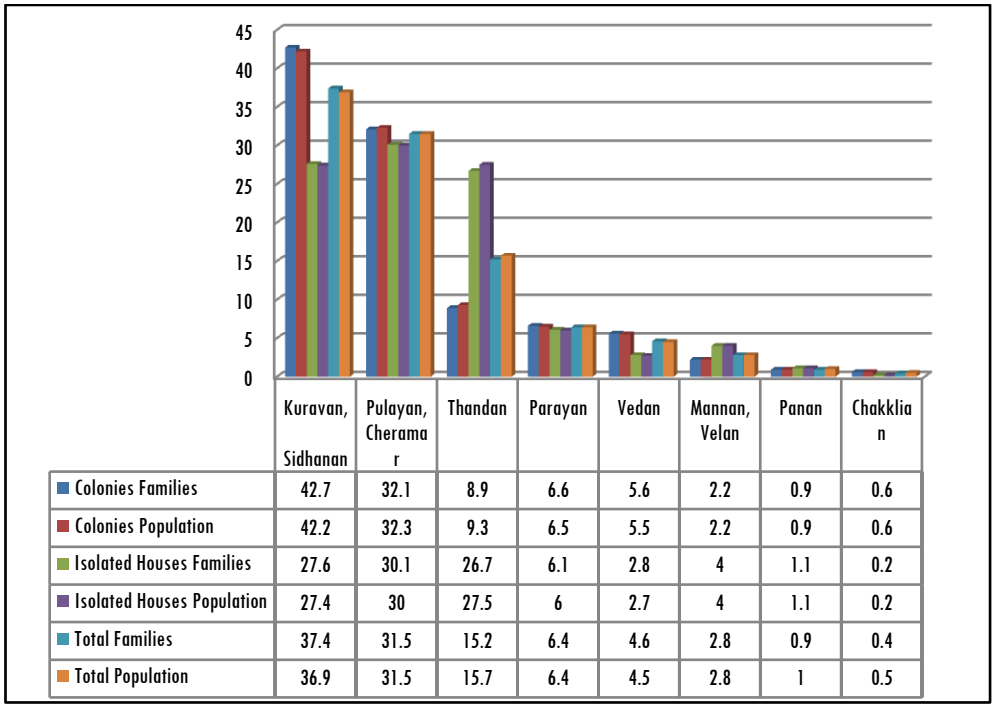
Source: Survey data

2.3.5.2 Kollam

In Kollam 37 percent of the SC community are from the two sub-groups like the Kuravan or the Siddhanan. These two sub-groups show a

colony pattern of settlement (42 percent), whereas the other predominant SC sub-group the Thandan (15 percent) shows an isolated pattern of settlement as shown in Figure 2.32.

Figure 2.32 Community wise segregation of SC population in Kollam district



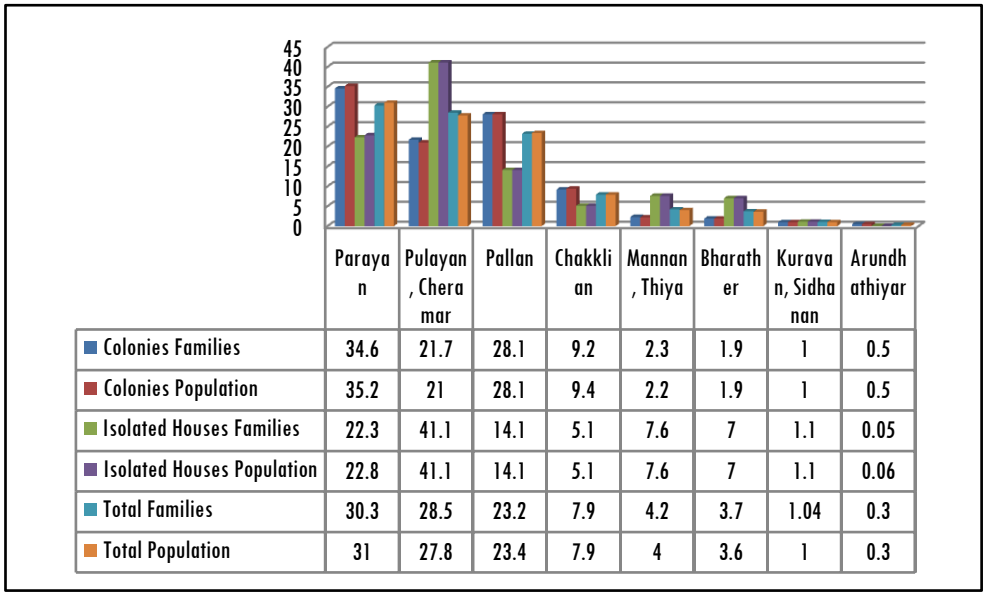
	Kuravan, Sidhanan	Pulayan, Cheramar	Thandan	Parayan	Vedan	Mannan, Velan	Panan	Chakkliian
Colonies Families	42.7	32.1	8.9	6.6	5.6	2.2	0.9	0.6
Colonies Population	42.2	32.3	9.3	6.5	5.5	2.2	0.9	0.6
Isolated Houses Families	27.6	30.1	26.7	6.1	2.8	4	1.1	0.2
Isolated Houses Population	27.4	30	27.5	6	2.7	4	1.1	0.2
Total Families	37.4	31.5	15.2	6.4	4.6	2.8	0.9	0.4
Total Population	36.9	31.5	15.7	6.4	4.5	2.8	1	0.5

Source: Survey data

2.3.5.3 Idukki

The Parayan and Pulayan are the two major sub-groups of the SC population in the district who live in colony pattern, whereas the Pulayan SC sub-group shows an isolated settlement pattern as given in Figure2.33.

Figure 2.33. Community wise segregation in Idukki district



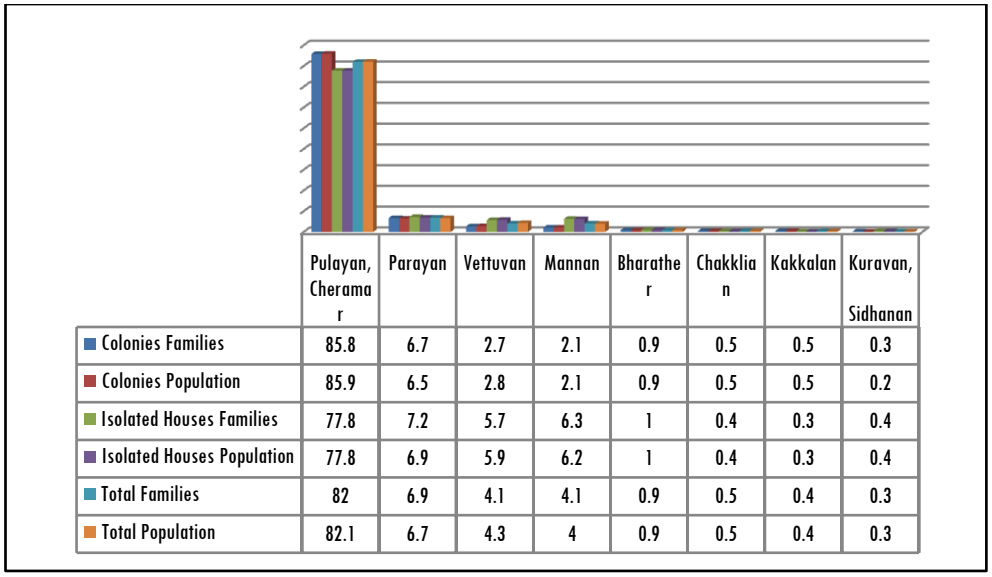
	Parayan	Pulayan, Cheramar	Pallan	Chakkilian	Mannan, Thiya	Bharather	Kuravan, Sidhanan	Arundhathiyar
Colonies Families	34.6	21.7	28.1	9.2	2.3	1.9	1	0.5
Colonies Population	35.2	21	28.1	9.4	2.2	1.9	1	0.5
Isolated Houses Families	22.3	41.1	14.1	5.1	7.6	7	1.1	0.05
Isolated Houses Population	22.8	41.1	14.1	5.1	7.6	7	1.1	0.06
Total Families	30.3	28.5	23.2	7.9	4.2	3.7	1.04	0.3
Total Population	31	27.8	23.4	7.9	4	3.6	1	0.3

Source: Survey data

2.3.5.4 Ernakulam

The Pulayan sub-community forms the majority with 82 percent in the district and they mostly (85 percent) prefer a colony dwelling pattern (Figure 2.34). The reason quite often cited for this high level of colony pattern of settlement is the high land value in comparison and hence they move to low value land areas and live in a colony pattern.

Figure 2.34. Community wise segregation in Ernakulam district



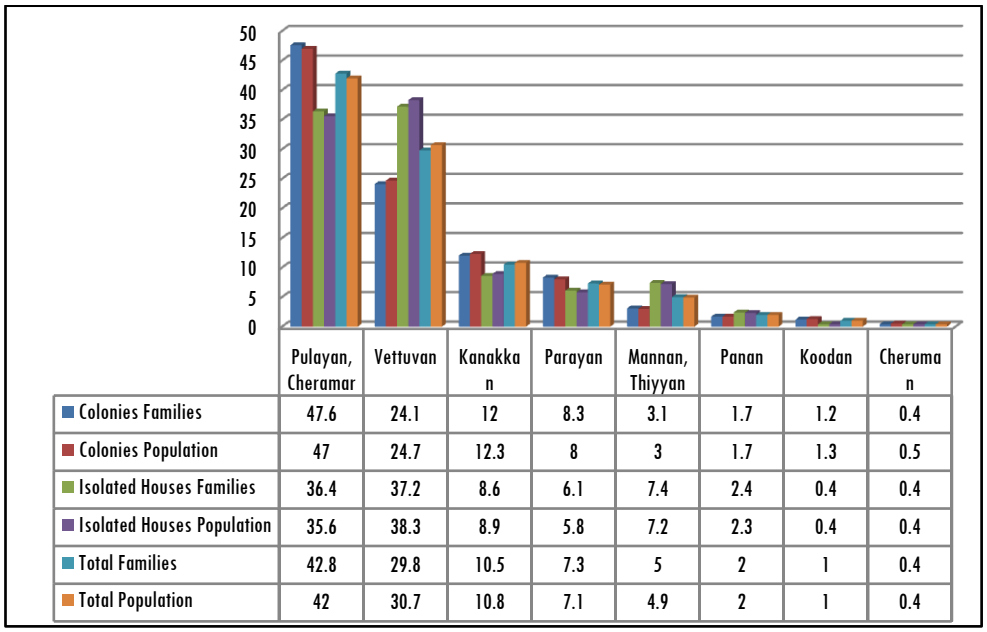
	Pulayan, Cheramar	Parayan	Vettuvan	Mannan	Bharathe r	Chakklia n	Kakkalan	Kuravan, Sidhanan
Colonies Families	85.8	6.7	2.7	2.1	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.3
Colonies Population	85.9	6.5	2.8	2.1	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.2
Isolated Houses Families	77.8	7.2	5.7	6.3	1	0.4	0.3	0.4
Isolated Houses Population	77.8	6.9	5.9	6.2	1	0.4	0.3	0.4
Total Families	82	6.9	4.1	4.1	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.3
Total Population	82.1	6.7	4.3	4	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.3

Source: Survey data

2.3.5.5 Thrissur

Thrissur's main SC sub-community is the Pulayan (42 percent) followed by the Vettuvan (30 percent) and the Kanakkan (10 percent). These three SC sub-communities prefer an isolated and segregated settlement pattern as highlighted in Figure 2.35.

Figure 2.35 Community wise segregation of SC population in Thrissur district



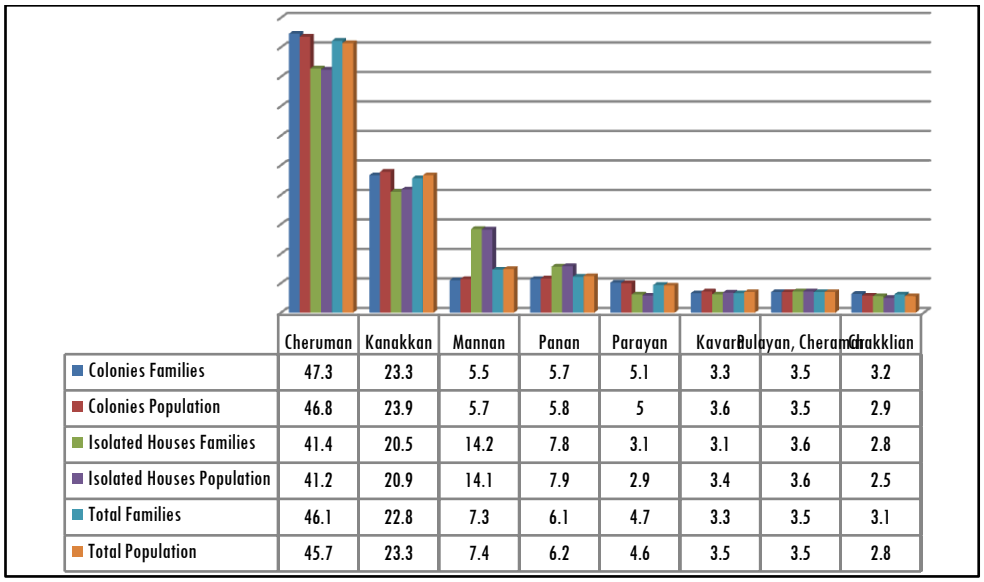
	Pulayan, Cheramar	Vettuvan	Kanakkan	Parayan	Mannan, Thiyyan	Panan	Koodan	Cheruman
Colonies Families	47.6	24.1	12	8.3	3.1	1.7	1.2	0.4
Colonies Population	47	24.7	12.3	8	3	1.7	1.3	0.5
Isolated Houses Families	36.4	37.2	8.6	6.1	7.4	2.4	0.4	0.4
Isolated Houses Population	35.6	38.3	8.9	5.8	7.2	2.3	0.4	0.4
Total Families	42.8	29.8	10.5	7.3	5	2	1	0.4
Total Population	42	30.7	10.8	7.1	4.9	2	1	0.4

Source: Survey data

2.3.5.6 Palakkad

In the Palakkad district two SC sub-groups are predominant as of Cheruman (46 percent) and Kanakkan (22 percent). These two sub-communities have a colony pattern of settlement as illustrated in Figure (2.36).

Figure 2.36 Community wise segregation of SC population in Palakkad district



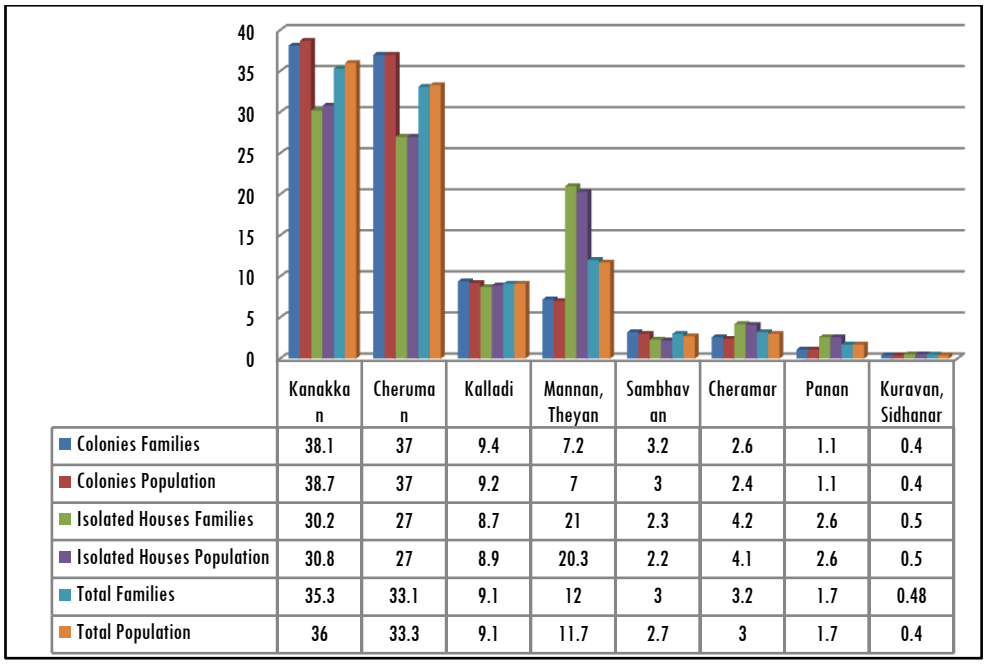
	Cheruman	Kanakkan	Mannan	Panan	Parayan	Kavara	Pulayan, Cheramar	Arakklian
Colonies Families	47.3	23.3	5.5	5.7	5.1	3.3	3.5	3.2
Colonies Population	46.8	23.9	5.7	5.8	5	3.6	3.5	2.9
Isolated Houses Families	41.4	20.5	14.2	7.8	3.1	3.1	3.6	2.8
Isolated Houses Population	41.2	20.9	14.1	7.9	2.9	3.4	3.6	2.5
Total Families	46.1	22.8	7.3	6.1	4.7	3.3	3.5	3.1
Total Population	45.7	23.3	7.4	6.2	4.6	3.5	3.5	2.8

Source: Survey data

2.3.5.7 Malappuram

In the Malappuram district the Kanakkan sub-group has the highest percentage (35 percent). Other sub-groups like Cheruman, Mannan or Theeyan, Cheraman and Sambhavan are also distributed in the district. In these Sambhavan's show an isolated pattern of settlement, whereas the Cheraman prefers to colony pattern (Figure 2.37).

Figure 2.37 Community wise segregation in Malappuram district



	Kanakkan	Cheruman	Kalladi	Mannan, Theyan	Sambhavan	Cheramar	Panan	Kuravan, Sidhanar
Colonies Families	38.1	37	9.4	7.2	3.2	2.6	1.1	0.4
Colonies Population	38.7	37	9.2	7	3	2.4	1.1	0.4
Isolated Houses Families	30.2	27	8.7	21	2.3	4.2	2.6	0.5
Isolated Houses Population	30.8	27	8.9	20.3	2.2	4.1	2.6	0.5
Total Families	35.3	33.1	9.1	12	3	3.2	1.7	0.48
Total Population	36	33.3	9.1	11.7	2.7	3	1.7	0.4

Source: Survey data

Chapter 2 highlighting the issues of the SC communities in Kerala with secondary data in the various facets like socio-economics, basic facilities, segregation of the SCs and sub-community levels are really dark spots in the Kerala's social development maps. The quality of life of the SCs in the state is unfortunately miserable in comparison to other social groups in Kerala. Scheme-wise there are plenty, but these do not produce the desired results to make the SCs life in the society with dignity. The basic facilities like health, roads, infrastructure, education, public utilities are unevenly distributed in the state with less in the SC hubs and colonies to make a decent and trouble-free living. In spite of everything, the issues of segregation of the SC community and even among the SC sub-groups make the feeling that the SC community is still in the panics of exclusion and untouchability.

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Chapter 3

Scheduled Caste Development Schemes

Chapter 2 shows the basic facilities, socio-economics and the exclusion the community is facing in Kerala society. To overcome the low socio-economic status of the community and align them with the levels of other social groups several schemes both central and state have been implemented. These schemes meant to provide basic facilities so as to improve the quality of life of the SC communities and these include areas like education, health, housing, infrastructure in their vicinity and also land to the landless and these become the basic agenda of chapter 3. There are no lacunae for the development funds meant for the SCs but the life of the community is still in miserable condition. Hence the idea of chapter 3 is to understand the various schemes based on secondary data and the manner in which it goes into the development of the community in an evaluative framework.

In Kerala, the former Harijan Welfare Department is dichotomized into two in the year 1975 into Tribal welfare Department and Scheduled Castes Development Department. The former deals with the development of the tribal community and the latter for the development of the scheduled castes. Though, the main agenda of the Scheduled Caste Department is to develop the community in all facets of development, several other departments are also implementing various schemes for the upliftment of the SC community such as the Directorate of Scheduled Castes Development, Kerala Institute for Research Training and Development studies for SCs and STs (KIRTADS) and the Kerala State Development Corporation for Scheduled Castes.

3.1 Schedule Caste Sub Plan (SCSP)

The scheme provides pro-rata population-based allocation of funds for the development of the SC community in the State. This Special

Component Plan gives the specific details of financial and physical targets, which is an integral part of Plan Documents of States/UTs and Centre. Most of these schemes include composite income generating activities meant for the poor SC communities covering most of the occupational groups of the SCs like the agricultural labourers, fishermen, small and marginal farmers, sweepers, share croppers, scavengers, urban unorganized labourers below the poverty line. The Special Component Plan also includes schemes that are intended to improve the quality of life of the Scheduled Castes as of drinking water supply, house-sites, link roads, housing improvements, establishment of other infrastructure schemes. The outlay of these schemes relating to the Scheduled Caste Sub Plan is given in Table 3.1. It shows an increase from year to year from 398 crores in the year 2002-03 to 1178 crores during 2010-11 and further to 2599 crores in 2017-18.

Table 3.1 Scheduled Caste Sub Plan Year-wise Outlay

SCSP Year-wise Outlay		
Sl No.	**Year**	**SCSP (in crores)**
1	2002-03	398.26
2	2003-04	390.76
3	2004-05	419.37
4	2005-06	501.72
5	2006-07	605
6	2007-08	681.8
7	2008-09	755.95
8	2009-10	874.73
9	2010-11	983.45
10	2011-12	1178.18
11	2012-13	1289.21
12	2013-14	1667.7
13	2014-15	1962
14	2015-16	1968.5
15	2016-17	2354.4
16	2017-18	2599.65

Source: Economic Review (2007,2014,2017)

Table 3.2 gives the 12th plan outlay and expenditure of SCSP schemes of the SC Development Department and Local Self Governments. Data show that the department efficiently utilized the funds with 86 percent utilization for the funds that have been allotted to LSGs with the intention of developing the SCs. The utilization of the funds of the SCDD is only 80 percent. It seems a slight increase in the percentage of allocation of SCSP to state plan in the year 2015-16. The trend in the allocation of the SCSP shows an increase over the years.

Table 3.2 Outlay and Expenditure of SCSP Schemes by the SC Development Department and LSG

Outlay and Expenditure of SCSP Schemes by the SC Development Department and LSG in the XII Five-Year Plan, in crore							
Year	Total Allocation	% Allocation of SCSP to State Plan	LSGs			Department	
			Outlay BE	Fund Available	Expenditure (including OB)	Outlay	Expenditure
2012-13	1,374.38	9.81	824.63	1,066.56	665.97	549.75	519.48
2013-14	1,667.70	9.81	828.2	1,209.06	882.48	839.5	790.16
2014-15	1,962.00	9.81	927.58	1,253.97	811.55	1,034.42	693.45
2015-16	1,968.50	9.84	927.58	1,370.27	856.28	1,040.92	752.19
2016-17	2,354.40	9.81	1,038.90	1,345.04	726.02	1,315.50	1,099.91
Total	9,326.98	9.81	4,546.89	6,244.90	3,942.30	4,780.09	3,855.19

Source: SCDD Report

In the area of housing itself about Rs 1024 crores have been spent for the period 2012-17, benefitting 35790 families with new houses. In the case of renovating the houses the schemes helped to benefit 20000 families and the scheme meant for the land to the landless benefitted about 17454 families who are getting about Rs 521 crores. Grants for various treatment under the plan period benefitted about 80000 persons, in the case of

marriage assistance about 4000 families have been benefited with Rs 200 crores. In the free laptop scheme 10000 students are benefitted. In the case of self-sufficient village scheme 495 villages get benefit of about Rs 210.32 crores which includes basic facilities like roads, drinking water, electricity, biogas plants, renovation of houses, waste management, drainage, footpath and income generating schemes etc.

Table 3.3 Physical Achievements of Major Schemes (XII Plan)

Physical Achievements of Major Schemes for the Welfare of Scheduled Castes during XII Plan period			
Sl.No	**Name of Scheme**	**No. of Families/ Persons benefitted**	**Expenditure (Rs in crore)**
1	Housing Scheme	35790 families	1024.91
2	House renovation	27228 families	110.2
3	Assistance for vulnerable persons	1445 persons	60.23
4	Land to landless	17454 landless families	521.8
5	Treatment grant	79717 persons	117.12
6	Marriage assistance	40376 families	202.01
7	Assistance for seeking foreign employment	895 persons	3.68
8	Laptops	10939 students	149.81
9	Stethoscopes	771 students	0.43
10	Inter caste marriage assistance	9700 persons	48.39
11	Self-sufficient village scheme	495 villages	210.32

Source: Economic Review 2017

The outlay and expenditure under the critical gap filling scheme are elicited in Table 3.4. This is basically meant to human resource development, basic needs and thereby the economic development of the SC community. This fund, about one third, is spent on population proportion basis and it started form from 2014-15 onwards. The schemes that have been undertaken in the period 2016-17 include treatment grant, self-employment, construction of toilets, subsidy, honorarium to SC promoters and Vinjanvadi. The central allocation under the critical gap filing scheme

has been fully utilized by the state. In percentage basis about 90 percent of the funds have been utilized in the corresponding year.

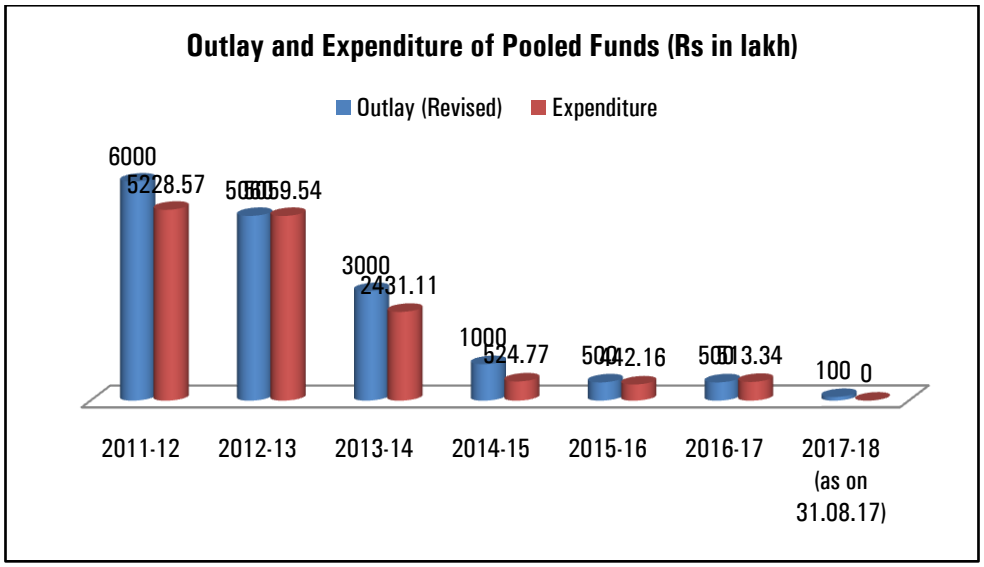
Table 3.4 Critical Gap Filling Scheme- Outlay and Expenditure

Outlay and Expenditure under Critical Gap Filing Scheme (Corpus Fund) (Rs in lakh)			
Year	SCSP		
	Outlay	Expenditure	% of expenditure
2011-12	13614	13436.69	98.7
2012-13	11500	11481.19	99.84
2013-14	18172.85	17750.89	97.65
2014-15	12300	12722	103.43
2015-16	20761	14609.4	70.36
2016-17	24523	22848.01	93.17
2017-18 (as on 31.08.17)	7888	1006.74	12.76

Source: Economic Review 2018

Pooled fund scheme is a system of specifying a portion of SCSP fund for consideration to the State Planning Board to furnish projects for the development department and agencies for consideration. This will be forwarded to SCDD by the State Planning Board for final approval. The usage of the fund under the scheme is used in varying quantum and in the period2012-13 100 per cent of the total fund earmarked for this purpose is utilized and in the period 2014-15 52 percent is only utilized.

Figure 3.1 Pooled Funds-Outlay and Expenditure



Source: Economic Review 2018

Another special scheme of the central government for the SC community to the state is the Special Central Assistance (SCA) giving 100 percent assistance. This is given in addition to the existing SCSP to the state. The special feature of this scheme is its flexibility for the state to choose the schemes and it is used to revitalize the vital sectors like agriculture, education and health. 75 percent of the fund is allotted to the district collectors based on SC population for utilization under special central assistance to SCSP. The remaining 25 percent of the fund will be utilized by the Director, Scheduled Caste Development Department for various activities of the special schemes. In many times it is utilized for subsidy to the community for the bank connected income generating activities. Table 3.5 shows the outlay and expenditure under SCA to the SCSP for the years 2011-17 (as on 31.8.17).

Table 3.5 Outlay and Expenditure under SCA to SCSP

Outlay and Expenditure under SCA to SCSP (Rs in lakh)			
Year	**Outlay**	**Expenditure**	**Percentage**
2011-12	700	698.66	99.80857
2012-13	1000	905.99	90.599
2013-14	2000	1391.79	69.5895
2014-15	2200	1293.01	58.77318
2015-16	2400	1057.02	44.0425
2016-17	2400	1063.85	44.32708
2017-18 (as on 31.08.17)	1500	9.9	

Source: Economic Review 2014, 2018

The division of the funds under the SCSP is based on two third to the LSGs and the remaining one third to Scheduled Caste Development Departments and other Development Departments. In the financial year 2015-16 Rs 1370.46 crore had been given to LSGs on the basis of plan grant under SCSP. The details of the LSGS in this respect is given in Table 3.6. Year-wise inference shows that the fund allocated to LSGs for the year 2016-17 declined to 1345.03 crore. Table 3.6 evinces the fact that Block Panchayath gets the major chunk of the fund under the SC development programmes for the Development Department for implementation rather than the LSGs.

Table 3.6 Development Funds- Outlay and Expenditure of LSGs

Development Funds- Category wise outlay and Expenditure for 2015-16 (Rs in crore)				
Types of LSGs	SCSP			
	Budgeted outlay	Fund allocated	Expenditure	% (to fund available)
Grama Panchayats	461.13	670.98	436.95	65.12
Block Panchayats	159.54	192.49	157.63	81.89
District Panchayats	159.54	248.96	149.58	60.08
Muncipalities	85.55	145.59	71.82	49.33
Corporations	61.81	112.44	41.06	36.52
Total	927.58	1370.46	857.04	62.54
2016-17				
Grama Panchayats	516.47	630.11	357.36	69.19
Block Panchayats	178.69	211.65	139.37	78
District Panchayats	178.69	248.59	123.65	69.2
Muncipalities	96.21	145.21	68.48	71.18
Corporations	69.23	109.47	37.16	53.68
Total	1039.29	1345.03	726.02	69.86

Source: SCDD Report, Economic Review 2015, 2016

The main activity of the Kerala State Development Corporation for Scheduled Caste is to fund for income generating activities and thereby to achieve the economic and social development of SC community in Kerala. Among other things, the programmes of the Corporation include skill development and entrepreneurship development activities for improving the skill of the SC community. The Corporation also envisages concessional education loans for improving education of the community including professional and post-graduate education and research degrees. Table 3.7 explains the various schemes that are implemented by the Kerala State Development Corporation for SCs Limited along with its financial and physical achievement of the schemes for the period 2016-18.

Table 3.7 Schemes implemented by Kerala State Development Corporation for SCs Limited

Kerala State Development Corporation for SCs Limited					
Sl.No	Scheme	Financial achievement (Rs in lakh)		Physical achievement	
		2016-17	2017-18 (upto 31.08.17)	2016-17	2017-18 (Upto 31.08.17)
1	**Income Generating Schemes**				
A	**KSDC SCHEMES**				
1	Beneficiary oriented scheme	2049.88	752.95	1963	634
2	Foreign employment scheme	1	0	2	0
3	Professional service scheme	2	2	2	1
4	Transport scheme XL (Auto)	88.85	17.59	44	9
5	Woman empowerment programme for SHGS	10.5	0	30	0
6	Multi Purpose Unit Loan	12.75	30.15	2	5
7	Working capital loan to petroleum dealers	37.5	0	5	0
B	NSFDC SCHEMES				
1	Land purchase scheme for agri-labourers	183.53	8	63	3
2	Mini venture loans	3.06	0	1	0
3	LaghuVyavasaya Yojana	19.23	38.1	10	17
4	Micro credit finance scheme	111	24.5	222	49
5	Mahila Samridhi Yojana	119	40	238	80
6	Transport Scheme XLV (Auto taxi)	10	0	4	0
II	**Other Social Welfare Schemes**				
A	**KSDC SCHEMES**				
1	Education loan	27.61	7.72	21	6
2	Foreign Education Loan		0		
3	Marriage Assistance	2080.11	1111.66	1627	748
4	Computer loan to SC students	8.67	10.6	22	27
5	Personal loan to Govt Employees	403.25	113.73	416	121
6	Two wheeler loan to Govt employees	1.5	0	3	0
	TOTAL	5169.44	2157	4675	1700

Source: Economic Review 2016, 2017, 2018

Devolution of plan fund to the scheduled caste development is done on the basis of plan allocation to the department and the local governments. In this respect the centrally sponsored schemes and schemes that are included in

State plans are implemented by the Scheduled Caste Development Department (SCDD) for the development of the SC population in the state. The schemes that are included in the SCSP encompasses education, economic, social and welfare activities of the scheduled caste and its development. Outlay and expenditure scheme-wise and its physical achievements for the period 2016-18 (as on 31-8-2017) is highlighted in Table 3.8. In this, in the year 2016-17 Rs 174.97 crores was set aside for giving land to landless families and thereby benefitting about 4465 persons. For the scheme for constructing houses to the SC families 4567 houses were constructed in 2016-17 and 5114 construction activities of the houses are in progress in the year 2017-18 (as on 31-08-2017). Though, 5215 houses were sanctioned in the year 2015-16, only 1183 houses were constructed giving rise to one fifth of its achievement. An amount of Rs 265 crores have been allotted during the annual plan period of 2017-18 for partial completion of the houses and also for improving the dilatated houses.

Financial assistance is provided for construction of houses, purchase of land and also for allied activities to vulnerable SC communities like Nayadi, Vedan, Kalladi and Chakliya/Arunthathiyar and the allocation for this purpose is Rs. 7,25,000 of which Rs 3.75 lakhs is for buying 5 cents of land and 3.25 lakh for building houses. Applications in this respect are limited to SC families with an annual income of less than 50000 and the application for this could be submitted to the scheduled caste development officers of the Block/Municipal/Corporations. The SCDD to overcome the difficult circumstances of inter-caste marriages gives Rs. 50,000 if one of them belongs to SC community. Financial assistance in this respect is given to the couples in a range of one to three years with a co-living certificate with restriction of annual income limit of Rs. 40,000. To overcome social

discrimination of the SC community Protection of Civil Rights Act is ensured in the state by the department and in this respect to create awareness of the rights of the SCs department conducts awareness camps and seminars. They are also given training for generating awareness under the Prevention of Atrocities Acts.

Table 3.8 Various Schemes of SCs-Outlay and Expenditure

Scheme wise Outlay and Expenditure of Scheduled Castes (Rs in lakh)					
Sl. No	Name of scheme	Annual Plan 2016-17		Annual Plan 2017-18	
		Outlay	Expenditure	Outlay	Expenditure (as on 31-8-2017)
I	State Scheme				
A	*Schemes through SCDD*				
1	Land, housing and other development programmes				
a	Land to landless families for construction of houses	17497	17572.15	18000	2975.69
b	House to houseless, completion of partially constructed houses,improvement of dilapated households	26500	37366.64	50000	13868.07
c	Development programme for vulnerable communities among SC	1700	1743.22	1700	394.25
2	Pooled fund for special projects proposed by other departments under SCSP	500	513.34	100	0
3	Modernization and e-governance initiatives in development department	800	540.96	500	14.58
4	Corpus fund for SCSP (Critical Gap filling)	24523	22848	7888	0
5	Contribution to SC Federation	200	200	150	0
6	Financial assistance for marriage of SC girls	5000	5260.6	5500	1791.9
7	Management of Model Residential Schools including Ayyankali Memorial Model Residential School for Sports, Vellayani	1500	1434.71	1500	269.25
8	Assistance for education of SC students	38000	13259.04	40410	2824.1
9	Assistance for training, employment and human resource development	4000	3446.32	4000	777.52
10	Share capital contribution to Kerala State Development Corporation for Scheduled castes (51 % state share)	2500	1728.28	2500	0
11	Implementation of Protection of Civil Rights (PCR) Act and Prevention of Atrocities (POA) Act (50% state share)	500 &200	469.67 & 123.88	575 & 200	282.56 & 0
12	Valsalyanidhi			1000	0
	Transferred Schemes				
13	Pre- primary education	90	38.58		0

14	Boarding grant	70	89.82		0
15	Tution system	250	144.45		0
	Schemes through rural development department				
16	Pradhan ManthriAwas Yojana (PMAY) SCSP (40% State share)	5120	2381.82	5951	0
17	DeenDayalAnthyodaya Yojana (DAY NRLM) SCSP (40% State share)	700	183.86	700	0
	Schemes through PWD				
18	Works and Buildings	1500	507.53	1500	228.98
19	Contribution of Boy's hostel (50% State share)	400	138.13	436	0
20	Construction of working women hostel in all districts			150	0
	Total State Plan scheme (A)	131550	109991	142760	23426.9
	Centrally sponsored / Assisted schemes				
21	Special Central Assistance to Scheduled Caste Sub plan (outside state plan)	2400	456.31	1500	9.9
B	*Centrally sponsored schemes (50 %)*				
22	Implentation of Protection of Civil Rights (PCR) Act and Prevention of Autrocities (POA) Act (50% State share)	500 & 200	469.67 & 111.38	575 & 200	282.56 & 0
23	KSDC (49 % Central share)	2402	699.72	2402	0
24	Construction of Boy's hostels SC (50 % Central share)	400	138.13	436	0
	Sub Total CSS (50%)	3502	1418.9	3613	282.56
C	*Centrally Sponsored Schemes (100%)*				
25	Post matriculation studies	26000	25916.11	28600	8167.69
26	Upgradation of merit of SC students	20	20	20	0
27	Pre-matric Scholarships to the Children of those engaged in unclean occupations	40	25.76	40	0
28	Construction of Girl's hostels (post matric)	400	121.4	400	0
29	Pre matric scholarship for SC Students studying in classes IX and X (100 % CSS)	2000	2000	2000	0
	Rural Development Scheme				
30	PradhanmanthriAwaz Yojana - Geamin (PMAY)- SCSP (60 % Central Share)	7680	3572.73	8927	0
31	DeenDayalAnthyodaya Yojana (DAY NRLM) SCSP	1050		1050	0
	Sub Total Central Schemes (100 %)	37190	31656	41037	8167.69
	Total Central Schemes (B+ C)	40692	33074.9	44650	8460.15
	Grand Total (A+B+C)	172242	143065.9	187410	8460.15

Source: Economic Review 2016, 2017, 2018

Physical achievement of the schemes that have been mentioned in Table 3.8 is explained in Table 3.9. It shows that about 4465 families are benefitted from the scheme of land to landless in the period 2016-17. About 10523 SC

girls have been benefitted for marriages during 2016-17, about 2322 SC students have got laptop at free of cost through educational assistance schemes.

Table 3.9 Physical Achievement of Various SC Schemes

Physical Achievement of Schemes for Welfare of Scheduled Castes			
Sl.No	**Name of Scheme**	**Achievement 2016-17**	**Achievement 2017-18 (As on 31.08.2017**
I	State Schemes		
A	Schemes through SCDD		
1	Land to landless families for construction of houses	4465	1384
2	House to houseless	New houses - 967 Spillover - 4567	Additional Room - 226 Spillover – 5114
3	Development programme for the Vulnarable communities among SC	House construction- 378 families Land purchase- 210 families	
4	Pooled Fund for SCSP	29 Homeo Health Centre 115 Cow diary units	
5	Implementation of Protection of Civil Rights (PCRO Act and prevention of autrocities (POA) Act (50 % state share)	Inter caste marriage - 1466 Victims- 267	Inter caste marriage - 639 Victims- 117
6	Financial Assistance for marriage of SC Girls	10523	2735
7	Critical Gap filling Scheme (Corpus fund)	Treatment grant - 23073 persons, Medical units in three districts	Treatment grant – 3479
8	Assistance for education of SC Students	Hostel entrolment - 701, Ayyankali Scholarship - 1199, Primary education aid - 133420, Study tour - 1040, Laptop- 2322, Stethoscope- 313	
9	Assistance for training and employment	Self employment- 542, Foreign employment assistance- 446	Self employment subsidy- 58, Foreign employment - 366, Honorarium to SC promoters- 2740, Stipend to apprentice clerk- 437
	Centrally Sponsored Scheme 100%		
10	Post matriculation studies	PMS - 182780, Foreign study - 3, Outside state- 476	PMS - 1536, Outside state- 113
11	Pre- matric scholarship for SC students studying in classes 9 and 10 (100 % CSS)	Scholarship for 9th and 10th students	68127

Source: Economic Review 2016, 2017

3.1.1 Education

Education is the be all and end all of a socially excluded communities' growth and development. In this respect several schemes have been put forwarded by the government through the central and state schemes to uplift the community from the educational backwardness. It is obvious that development through education is possible only through concerted effort as the community has been denied such a facility for centuries. Hence, the important consideration of the SCDD is to provide education to the SCs for their progress. In this respect the SCDD runs nursery schools for giving primary education as the Department provides daily food charges, learning materials and uniforms. This is given in the form of grant for the students in the rate of Rs. 30/- per daily as food charges, Rs. 300/- for uniforms and Rs. 150 as lump sum grant. It is worked out that in the year 2016-17 about 323895 students have been benefitted with lumpsum grants. In addition to this, stipend is also given to students of the Vulnerable SC groups like Vedan, Nayadis and others. The various stipend amount under this heading for the period 2016-17 is to the tune of Rs 937.25 crores, and this has helped in benefitting about 58645 SC students. As special scholarship under CSS the students of the SC community studying in the 9^{th} and 10^{th} standards will also be given. Those studying in the unaided schools have the facility of reimbursement of their tuition fees up to 10^{th} standard, if the school is a government approved unaided school.

To give better education facilities to the SC students starting from standard 5, the government runs 9 Model Residential Schools. The admission to the school is based on merit in the state level examinations. Admission to this programme is notified in the months of January and

February. Application formalities include caste certificates, income certificates and eligibility certificate from the head of the present institution where the student is studying and the annual income of parents do not to exceed Rs. 1,00,000. The application with all documents should be submitted to the District Development Officer.

In the case of post metric education, the Department provides financial assistance through E-grants systems. Online facilities are provided through Akshaya Kendras. Along with the online application, it is also required to submit the copies of the original certificates to the District Scheduled Caste Development Officer through the head of the institution. The monthly grants in the plus 2 level are Rs. 900 for degree Rs 950 and post graduate course Rs 1250. Table 3.10 evinces clearly the various grants the SC students are getting from the Department.

Table 3.10 Number of Scheduled Caste students benefited - Lumpsum grant, Scholarship during 2016-17

Number of Scheduled Caste students benefited - Lumpsum grant, Scholarship etc during 2016-17 (upto 31.10.17)												
Course	Lumpsum Grant		Stipend		Pocket money		Paying guest fees		Contigency		Project	
	No. of beneficiaries	Amount	No.of beneficiaries	Amount	No. of beneficiaries	Amount	No. of beneficiaries	Amount	No of beneficiaries	Amount	No. of beneficiaries	Amount
Nursery School	7	1330										
Lower primary	101392	34532000	2289	1494000								
Upper primary	77339	50693000	1328	811000	42	14000						
High school	88814	84022000	1253	894000	98	30000						
B.A.M.S	12	20280	1	2520	11	8360						
B.Ed	449	592680	383	621639	31	10500	21					
B.H.M.S	4	9000			4	2376						

B.Sc Forestry	11	13090	5	12484	6	3286						
B.Sc (Nursing)	57	57000	1	363	40	11176						
D.Ed. SE	12	8310	6	13382	1	760						
Degree	24	36000			24	6768						
Degrree (BA. B.Sc. B.Com)	16139	19198010	14869	25253875	1101	497814	49					
Diploma in G.N.M	1	1320			1	1900						
Engineering	1411	3174750	643	698134	635	181103	79					
Food Craft Course	29	26570	31	35187			1					
Higher secondary	32416	36630980	32231	53923739	101	45306	4					
JDC	74	60680	74	131009								
LLB (3 Year)	14	26320	4	5130	10	2470						
LLB (5 Year)	18	29280	8	10260	6	1140	4					
LLM	1	1880	1	750								
M.Ed	15	19800	11	18220	3	1520	1	6000				
M.Tech	18	40500						9	109020			
MBA	12	15840	5	11250	7	4652						
MBBS	104	325520	11	16069	87	34762	3	6629				
MD/MS	25	76750										
MDS	1	2500										
Others	20	19590	20	39030	1	190						
Paramedicals	60	89730	36	57818	12	5234	10	25500				
PG Courses	1197	1903240	893	1428395	282	104474	24	60125				
Polytechnics	1327	1166500	1183	1908336	77	25846	44	153450				
Pre Primary TTC	17	10890	17	36090								
TTC	510	303150	431	725033	73	39259	3	12290				
Vocational Higher Secondary	1466	1656580	1457	2142152	8	3230						
ITI/ ITC	899	730380	1454	3435853								
M,phil									14	525500	10	1350
PhD									69	5290355	37	34007
Total	323895	235495450	58645	93725718	2661	1036126	243	662166	92	5924875	47	35357

Source: Economic Review 2017, SCDD Reports

3.1.2 Land

Land in Kerala society is very important and it is the source for livelihood and construction of the houses for the marginalized community like the SCs. In this respect the government policy is to provide land at least for the construction of houses for residential purposes. The government is giving financial help for buying house plots for the poor and other eligible SCs at the rate of 5 cents of land in village area and 3 cents of land under Municipality and Corporation areas. For this the financial assistance was revised from 7500 to 3.75 lakh in village areas, 90000 to 4.5 lakh in Municipal areas and from one lakh to 6 lakh in Corporation areas and selection of beneficiaries are done by the gramasabha. The amount allocated in this respect for the period 2015-16 is Rs 14967.96 lakh of which 14848 lakh Rs is utilized. This has benefitted 3736 SC persons. In the year 2016-17 the allotment for land purchase for the SCs has been increased to 17489 lakh giving benefits to 4465 SC persons belongs. In the year 2017-18 also the scheme allocation and expenditure is at an increasing trend as shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 Land to Landless Scheme

Details of Land Provided to SC during 2015-16, 2016-17 and 2017-18 (up to 31.10.2017) (Rs in lakh)										
Sl. No	Districts	2015-16			2016-17			2017-18 (Upto 31.10.2017)		
		Amount	Expenditure	Persons benefited	Amount	Expenditure	Persons benefited	Amount	Expenditure	Persons benefited
1	Thiruvananthapuram	2095.6	2095.6	505	2335.19	2335.19	566	2230	696.3	436
2	Kollam	1724.9	1721.15	412	1812.19	1812.19	442	1732.5	339.75	472
3	Pathanamthitta	711.39	700.14	189	960.83	960.83	249	930	39	10
4	Alappuzha	732.64	695.25	190	929.84	929.24	245	930	183.75	49
5	Kottayam	723	723	190	1095.95	1095.95	290	1072.5	162	43
6	Idukki	828.5	794.75	219	696.13	696.13	185	840	50.25	14
7	Ernakulam	1902.12	1902.12	496	1786.38	1786.38	470	1740	170.25	45
8	Thrissur	1642.35	1642.35	404	1594.394	1594.394	409	1552.5	445.74	109
9	Palakkad	1237.3	1236.7	322	1723.39	1723.39	451	1770	244.4	64
10	Malappuram	930	929	240	1131.02	1131.02	292	1117.5	153.75	42
11	Kozhikode	1304	1302	303	1239.15	1239.15	297	1357.5	174	30
12	Wayanad	328.5	328.5	85	651.65	651.65	169	697.5	73.5	10
13	Kannur	373.96	373.96	100	839.03	839.06	218	943	141.75	37
14	Kasargod	433.5	433.5	112	694.5	694.5	182	1065	86.25	23
	TOTAL	14967.96	14848.02	3767	17489.644	17489.6444	4465	18000	2960.69	1384

Source: Economic Reviews 2016, 2017, 2018, SCDD Reports

3.1.3 Housing

Assistance for house construction is increased from one to three lakh Rupees and the amount in this respect is given to the SC families stage by stage according to the progress of construction of the houses (1st instalment of Rs. 45,000 IInd instalment of Rs 90,000, IIIrd instalment of Rs. 1,20,000 and IVth instalment of Rs. 45,000). Selection of the beneficiaries for house construction is done by the Gramasabha. In addition to this assistance will also be given for house maintenance for the houses ranging from 7-25 years and also for constructing an additional room with an amount of Rs. 50,000 and this is given in two instalments. Amount for the construction of

renovation of houses are based on building plan and its estimate and the income cap for getting the assistance is not to exceed Rs. 50,000. The total beneficiaries according to the SC Department is 12753 houseless with an amount of Rs 51.61 crore in the year 2009-10. The SC house construction scheme for the houseless for various years is given in Table 3.12. It shows that the amount spent for various years for this scheme has been at an increasing trend. In most of the years the amount allocated for this scheme has also been fully utilised. In the year 2016-17 the amount utilised comes to 99.97 percent benefitting 14956 families out of the scheme.

Table 3.12 Outlay and Expenditure of Housing Scheme

Outlay and expenditure of housing scheme and number of families benefited from 2012-13 to 2016-17, in lakh			
year	**Outlay**	**Expenditure**	**No. of families benefited**
2012-13	10000	9997.54	5232
2013-14	12500	9923.01	6397
2014-15	15000	19392.44	4000
2015-16	18000	25811.42	5215
2016-17	26500	37366.64	14956

Source: Economic Review 2012, 2014, 2016

Data as per Table 3.13 show that the number of houses sanctioned and the number of houses completed are very low for the period 2008-09 to 2016-17. It also evinces the fact that the number of houses sanctioned under this scheme has also been declining year to year. In the period 2008-09, Department sanctioned for 1579 houses, but a big decline in the number of houses sanctioned as it is reduced to 231 for the period 2011-12. Whereas the number of houses sanctioned (1579) and completed (1253) are based on the data given in the parentheses. But the sanctioned (231) and completed (25) houses only in the period 2011-12. In the year 2016-17, the sanctioned houses were very less in number and only 2 percent were completed construction.

Table 3.13 Houses sanctioned and completed (2008-09 to 2016-17)

District	Houses sanctioned 2008-9	Houses completed 2008-09	Houses sanctioned 2009-10	Houses completed 2009-10	Houses sanctioned 2010-11	Houses completed 2010-11	Houses sanctioned 2011-12	Houses completed 2011-12	Houses sanctioned 2012-13	Houses completed 2012-13	Houses sanctioned 2013-14	Houses completed 2013-14	Houses sanctioned 2014-15	Houses completed 2014-15	Houses Sanctioned 2015-16	Houses completed 2015-16	Houses Sanctioned 2016-17	Houses completed 2016-17
Kollam	1579	1253	1108	731	800	174	231	25	515	79	736	260	404	21	540	222	810	15
Idukki	1033	818	798	526	400	93	200	59	255	44	294	108	214	92	239	125	359	23
Ernakulam	1256	884	1200	777	650	149	220	39	495	248	537	285	330	103	441	143	662	75
Palakkad	2180	1735	2175	1493	800	210	514	13	690	39	750	400	488	145	724	13	996	8
Thiruvananthapuram	1760	1496	1428	1077	819	344	330	51	595	179	866	530	458	38	614	34	920	28
Malappuram	976	702	1101	710	550	170	350	7	460	362	869	387	634	25	507		761	71
Thrissur	1186	812	1323	808	410	123	400	48	565	152	651	289	634	73	328	23	492	6

Source: SCDD Reports

It is a fact that the twin schemes of land and housing have indeed helped a lot in improving the quality of life of the SC community of Kerala. Table 3.14 highlights the physical achievement of these two schemes for the periods 2016-17 and 2017-18 (as on 31.08.2017). In the land scheme for the period 2016-17, about 4465 SC families have been benefited. In the same period of 2016-17, the housing scheme of constructing, maintenance and additional room construction for the SC families come to about 5534 families are benefitted. In this 967 families have got newly constructed houses. It also shows that about 1384 SC families have been allocated grants for purchasing land for the period 2017-18 (as on 31-08-2017). In the housing scheme 226 families are given benefits for additional room.

Table 3.14 Physical Achievement of Land and Housing Scheme

Sl No.	SCHEMES	Achievement 2016-17	Achievement 2017-18 (As on 31.08.2017)
1	Land to landless families for construction of Houses	4465	1384
2	House to Houseless	New houses - 967 Spillover - 4567	Additional Room - 226 Spillover - 5114

Source: SCDD Report

3.1.4 Employment

In this scheme, self-employment to the SC community is given priority and it is implemented with loan and subsidies who are coming under the poverty line. The idea of the scheme is to give assistance to the poor SC families to cross the poverty line with sustainable employment opportunities. This scheme is composite in nature and is implemented based on the needs of the SC community who intend to take up self-employment activities as of weavers, fishermen, leather workers and Seri culturists etc. This is given to address issues of raw materials, developing market linkages

for products, introduction of modern technology and skill up-gradation. While providing this, special consideration will be given to the vulnerable groups of the SC community for their economic development (Table 3.15). The Department gives financial assistance to the individuals as well as self-help groups who are willing to take up self-employment. The project proposal highlighting the activity of self-employment has to be submitted to the bank for getting loan and the Department in this respect will give one-third as subsidy component. The amount of subsidy is capped as one lakh in the case of individuals and 3.5 lakh for self-help groups and the age limit for getting the loan and subsidy is 18-50. Minimum educational qualification fixed for this is 7th standard and no income limit is fixed in this respect and the application needs to be submitted to the block or municipal or corporation of the individual applying for the grant.

For self-employment scheme for the period 2016-17, Rs 368.74 lakh was sanctioned by the Department in the State. However, the amount spent (Rs 368.8) is more than the sanctioned for this scheme, which has helped to benefit about 542 SC persons. In the financial 2017-18, Rs 80.31 lakh was sanctioned (as per the data upto31-8-2017). Till 31-8-18 62 percent of the sanctioned amount is utilized benefiting about 58 SC persons in the state.

Table 3.15 Self Employment Schemes (2016-17 and 2017-18)

Number of persons benefitted under Self Employment Schemes during 2016-17 and 2017-18 (Rs in lakhs)							
Sl. No	Districts	2016-17			2017-18		
		Amount Sanctioned (2016-17)	Expenditure	Persons benefitted	Amount Sanctioned (2017-18)	Expenditure as on 31/08/17	Persons benefitted
1	Thiruvananthapuram	42.84	42.84	65	2.61	2.61	5
2	Kollam	15	15	22			
3	Pathanamthitta	17.34	17.34	36	2.19	2.19	1
4	Alappuzha	57.64	57.64	75	10.75	9.75	12
5	Kottayam	16.51	16.51	21	4.29	4.29	6
6	Idukki	10.33	10.33	14	3.23	0.67	1
7	Ernakulam	41.56	41.56	51	16.13	7.33	2
8	Thrissur	26.98	26.98	36	12.2	10.22	12
9	Palakkad	63.72	63.78	118	7.83	3.1	4
10	Malappuram	15.11	15.11	20	4.42	0	0
11	Kozhikode	4.69	4.69	6	1	1	1
12	Wayanad	6.47	6.47	9	3.32	1.66	2
13	Kannur	34.69	34.69	47	7.68	2.28	3
14	Kasargod	15.86	15.86	22	4.66	4.66	6
	TOTAL	368.74	368.8	542	80.31	49.76	58

Source: Economic Reviews 2016, 2017

3.1.5 Health

Health is imperative for the marginalized community like the SCs as they do not have money to use for the health issues. They depend totally for the government health institutions and health provisions. There are also specific schemes for benefitting the seriously ill people like cancer, hear, brain, kidney treatments to SC families below poverty line and this is given based on the recommendation of the doctor. In the financial year 2015-16, 21673 persons were given assistance and total amount spent by the Department in the aspect is Rs 45.67 crore. Up to October 31, 2016 of the financial year 2016-17, Rs 18.80 crores had been spent under the scheme, which in turn benefitted about 8309 persons. Similarly, during 2014-15,

financial assistance was given to 15327 persons and expenditure incurred was Rs. 28.30 crore. Data in Table 3.16 shows that 55473 persons have been benefitted with an expenditure of the SC Development Department for the last five financial years.

Table 3.16 Year- wise Outlay of Health Schemes

Sl No.	Year	Outlay	No. of Persons Benefitted
1	2012-13	NA	18560
2	2013-14	15.16	10164
3	2014-15	28.3	15327
4	2015-16	45.67	21673
5	2016-17 (as on October 31, 2016)	18.8	8309
	TOTAL	**107.93**	**55473**

Source: Economic Reviews 2012, 2014, 2016

Development schemes both central and state as elucidated in chapter 3 have helped in benefitting the SC community of Kerala to a greater extent. The specific scheme-based spending based on population proportion is in fact helpful in overcoming the issues of underdevelopment of a socially excluded community in a socially developed state. The special education scheme meant for the SC community like the Model Residential School and lumpsum grant for students studying in various classes has helped in reducing the rate of dropout of students in the pre-metric and post metric studies. Providing food for students in the special schools of the SC students and others have also helped the students in continuing their studies. Another laudable scheme is that of land to the landless for house purposes as the SCs in Kerala hold the lowest average in land ownership and the allotment of 5 cents and 3 cents depending upon the area for house construction and financial assistance for house construction have helped many SC families to own land and houses. Health assistance for the poor SC persons with chronic diseases are also

found to be helpful for the community. The area of employment is highly challenging to the SC community as they do not have the money to take up any kind of self-employment activity and the financial help for self-employment in individual or self-help group basis are also equally useful for the community to find a livelihood. In addition to this, the training assistance for skill upgradation to the SC people helps them to have a sustainable livelihood. It is true that there are many schemes that are available at present to develop the SC community from the issue of under-development, the SC Development Department is also doing good role to develop the SCs in Kerala. But the major issue is its timely utilization and thereby to attain the development dynamics associated with the investment through various schemes. The utilization of the money in various schemes in most of the cases is very poor. Along with this the ill-governance makes the schemes unfulfilled in many areas and the continued poverty of the SC in the State, which needs superior governance and whole hearted cooperation of all concerned for an all round development of the SCs in Kerala.

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Chapter 4

Socio Economics and Standard of Living

Chapters 2 and 3 have been explained the SC development features with the help of secondary data. It shows that through several schemes and projects the government has been spending huge amount with the intension of uplifting the socio-economic condition of the SCs of Kerala. In spite of all these the SC community still remains as an excluded community with poor socio-economic conditions in a state with high social, educational and human development indicators. To picturize this clearly the socio economics of the SC community is tried in Chapter 4 with the help of primary data covering most of the SC hubs of Kerala. With this end in view, Chapter 4 is dichotomized into sections of basic profiles and household characteristics.

Section I

4.1 Basic Profile

4.1.1 Socio-economic and Demographic Profile

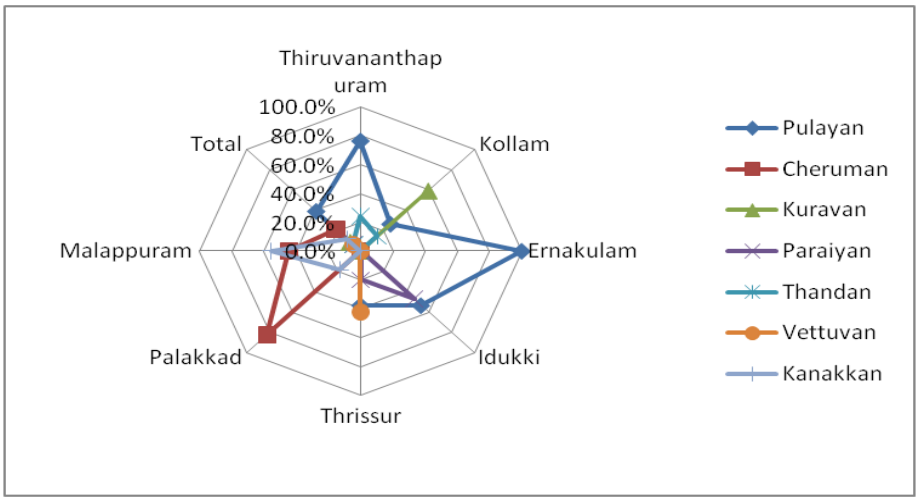
4.1.1.2 Community Composition

The samples for the SC households have been classified into three zones in Kerala, north, central and south zones. The analyses are performed both zone-wise and community-wise so as to make inter zonal differences and community wise differences in the basic profiles of the SC community. The sample spread of the 500 SC households in the seven SC prominent districts of Kerala is shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1. The SC communities in the sample are mainly from the three major SC sub-groups;Pulayan, Cheruman and Kanakkan. In the total sample, Pulayan sub-community is concentrated mainly in Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Kollam Districts. Cheruman is seen mostly in Palakkad District and Kanakkan is mainly concentrated in Malappuram District.

Table 4.1 District * Caste/Community Crosstabulation

			Caste/Community							Total
			Pulayan	Cheruman	Kuravan	Paraiyan	Thandan	Vettuvan	Kanakkan	
District	Thiruvananthapuram	Count	66	0	0	0	21	0	0	87
		% within District	75.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	24.1%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	34.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	65.6%	0.0%	0.0%	17.4%
	Kollam	Count	20	0	45	0	11	0	0	76
		% within District	26.3%	0.0%	59.2%	0.0%	14.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	10.3%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	34.4%	0.0%	0.0%	15.2%
	Ernakulam	Count	62	0	0	0	0	0	0	62
		% within District	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	32.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.4%
	Idukki	Count	18	0	0	16	0	0	0	34
		% within District	52.9%	0.0%	0.0%	47.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	9.3%	0.0%	0.0%	51.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.8%
	Thrissur	Count	28	0	0	15	0	32	0	75
		% within District	37.3%	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	42.7%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	14.4%	0.0%	0.0%	48.4%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	15.0%
	Palakkad	Count	0	77	0	0	0	0	17	94
		% within District	0.0%	81.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	18.1%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	0.0%	70.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	29.8%	18.8%
	Malappuram	Count	0	32	0	0	0	0	40	72
		% within District	0.0%	44.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	55.6%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	0.0%	29.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	70.2%	14.4%
Total		Count	194	109	45	31	32	32	57	500
		% within District	38.8%	21.8%	9.0%	6.2%	6.4%	6.4%	11.4%	100.0%
		% within Caste/Community	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Figure 4.1 Sample based on sub-groups



Source: Survey data

4.1.1.3 Gender, Age and Marital Status

In the 500 households surveyed in the seven districts of Kerala have 2081 members. The gender composition shows almost equal proportion of male and female members in the household (49.7 percent and 50.3 percent). The zone-wise and community-wise evaluation also shows similar results with some slight variations and these are shown in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

Table 4.2 Zone * Sex Crosstabulation

			Sex		Total
			Male	Female	
Zone	South Zone	Count	356	363	719
		% within Zone	49.5%	50.5%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	362	366	728
		% within Zone	49.7%	50.3%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	316	318	634
		% within Zone	49.8%	50.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	1034	1047	2081
		% within Zone	49.7%	50.3%	100.0%

Table 4.3 Caste_CommuFinal * Sex Crosstabulation

			Sex		Total
			Male	Female	
Caste_CommuFinal	Pulayan	Count	431	413	844
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	51.1%	48.9%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	212	217	429
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	49.4%	50.6%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	90	102	192
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	46.9%	53.1%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	57	60	117
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	48.7%	51.3%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	71	78	149
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	47.7%	52.3%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	69	76	145
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	47.6%	52.4%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	104	101	205
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	50.7%	49.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	1034	1047	2081
		% within Caste_CommuFinal	49.7%	50.3%	100.0%

4.1.1.4 Age

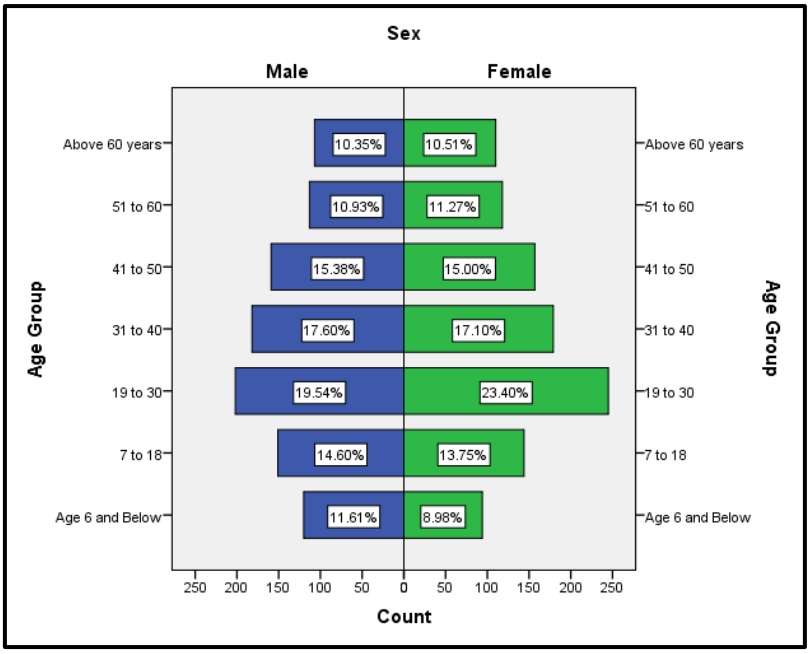
The average age of the sample respondent is 34.06 and most of the respondents are aged between 19 to 50 years (Table 4.4). The zone-wise difference in age pattern seems to be minimal with insignificant difference in the percentage values.

Table 4.4 Zone * Age Group Crosstabulation

			Age Group							Total
			6 and Below	7 to 18	19 to 30	31 to 40	41 to 50	51 to 60	Above 60	
Zone	South Zone	Count	80	103	153	125	103	89	66	719
		% within Zone	11.1%	14.3%	21.3%	17.4%	14.3%	12.4%	9.2%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	79	116	145	136	115	69	68	728
		% within Zone	10.9%	15.9%	19.9%	18.7%	15.8%	9.5%	9.3%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	55	76	149	100	98	73	83	634
		% within Zone	8.7%	12.0%	23.5%	15.8%	15.5%	11.5%	13.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	214	295	447	361	316	231	217	2081
		% within Zone	10.3%	14.2%	21.5%	17.3%	15.2%	11.1%	10.4%	100.0%

The population pyramid for age in gender-wise is shown in Figure 4.2. The age-composition is showing no difference in gender-wise as well with proportion of males and females are almost similar in all the age groups. The mean age of the sample is also same gender-wise.

Figure 4.2 Gender and Age



4.1.1.5 Marital Status

Most of the household members surveyed are married (56 percent), 37.1 percent are unmarried and 5.9 percent of the respondents are widow/widower. The results show that the widowed, divorced and separated constitute only very less percent of the total sample. The regional data is shown in Table 4.5, which evinces that marital status is same across the three zones.

Table 4.5 Zone and Marital Status

			Marital Status					Total
			Unmarried	Married	Widow / Widower	Divorced	Separated	
Zone	South Zone	Count	268	400	43	2	6	719
		% within Zone	37.3%	55.6%	6.0%	0.3%	0.8%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	282	390	49	0	7	728
		% within Zone	38.7%	53.6%	6.7%	0.0%	1.0%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	223	375	31	5	0	634
		% within Zone	35.2%	59.1%	4.9%	0.8%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	773	1165	123	7	13	2081
		% within Zone	37.1%	56.0%	5.9%	0.3%	0.6%	100.0%

Gender-wise evaluation of the marital status shows significant difference. This is evident from the results of Table 4.6 with more percentage of unmarried household members compared to females (41.6 percent males and 32.8 percent females). More widows are seen in the sample. Hence, the results show difference based on gender. This is further upheld with the aid of significant Chi-Square value which is shown in Table 4.7, which indicates towards significant difference in the marital status of the household members based on gender.

Table 4.6 Gender and Marital Status

			Marital Status					Total
			Unmarried	Married	Widow / Widower	Divorced	Separated	
Sex	Male	Count	430	578	21	3	2	1034
		% within Sex	41.6%	55.9%	2.0%	0.3%	0.2%	100.0%
	Female	Count	343	587	102	4	11	1047
		% within Sex	32.8%	56.1%	9.7%	0.4%	1.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	773	1165	123	7	13	2081
		% within Sex	37.1%	56.0%	5.9%	0.3%	0.6%	100.0%

Table 4.7 Chi-Square Tests: Gender and Marital Status

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	69.498[a]	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	74.885	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	46.307	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	2081		

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.48.

4.1.1.6 Education

The educational attainment is pivotal in determining the occupational profile and thereby the income earning capacity of an individual. It is more important in the case of marginalized social groups like the SCs as they do not have any inherited assets in most of the cases. Hence earnings of a community is based on better education and employment and these are the only options for these groups to escape from the clutches of vicious nexus of poverty, inequality and low living standards emerging from the segregated living pattern. Here, the data on educational profile of the household members is discussed for those above 6 years to get a clear grasp of the present situation of level of education and thereby connect further to it with employment and livelihood situation of those above 18 years. An inter-zone comparison of educational attainment is represented in Table 4.8. The level of illiteracy is 11.3 percent in the total sample. Graduates and above are less than 10 percent (9.5 percent). The difference based on zone is evident as the proportion of illiterates is more in the south zone. The difference based on region is restated with significant values of Chi-Square shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.8 Zone and Education

			Education									Total
			Illiterate	Literate without formal schooling	Primary	UP	Up to SSLC	SSLC pass	Pre-degree/ Plus II	Diploma/ Certificate course	Graduation and above	
Zone	South Zone	Count	54	9	115	106	157	51	80	15	51	638
		% within Zone	8.5%	1.4%	18.0%	16.6%	24.6%	8.0%	12.5%	2.4%	8.0%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	37	13	117	103	173	44	67	18	76	648
		% within Zone	5.7%	2.0%	18.1%	15.9%	26.7%	6.8%	10.3%	2.8%	11.7%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	119	10	92	80	132	28	49	16	50	576
		% within Zone	20.7%	1.7%	16.0%	13.9%	22.9%	4.9%	8.5%	2.8%	8.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	210	32	324	289	462	123	196	49	177	1862
		% within Zone	11.3%	1.7%	17.4%	15.5%	24.8%	6.6%	10.5%	2.6%	9.5%	100.0%

Table 4.9 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	87.061[a]	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	82.594	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.283	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1862		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.90.

An inter-community difference is evident when the educational profile is analysed based on the SC community. Table 4.10 and Figure 4.3 are clear elucidations of the same. It shows that illiterates are more among the Cheruman and Kanakkan (18.8 percent and 24.5 percent). Kanakkan has only 2.6 percent of the graduates which is less compared to the overall percentage. The proportion of graduates is less among the Kuravan and Thandan as well. The difference is further validated with the aid of Chi-Square test, the result of this is depicted in Table 4.11. The value shows significant difference in education based on the community. The educational profile clearly indicates towards an inter-community difference. This also signals further disparities based on community in terms of occupation and income and the resultant living standards.

Table 4.10 Community and Education

			Education									Total
			Illiterate	Literate without formal schooling	Primary	UP	Up to SSLC	SSLC pass	Pre-degree/Plus II	Diploma/Certificate	Graduation and above	
Community	Pulayan	Count	50	16	134	132	191	47	82	16	83	751
		%	6.7%	2.1%	17.8%	17.6%	25.4%	6.3%	10.9%	2.1%	11.1%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	72	9	52	47	99	22	29	9	45	384
		%	18.8%	2.3%	13.5%	12.2%	25.8%	5.7%	7.6%	2.3%	11.7%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	16	1	29	28	47	19	23	2	5	170
		%	9.4%	0.6%	17.1%	16.5%	27.6%	11.2%	13.5%	1.2%	2.9%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	8	1	19	13	28	10	10	2	16	107
		%	7.5%	0.9%	17.8%	12.1%	26.2%	9.3%	9.3%	1.9%	15.0%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	12	0	24	20	39	10	16	4	6	131
		%	9.2%	0.0%	18.3%	15.3%	29.8%	7.6%	12.2%	3.1%	4.6%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	5	4	26	16	25	9	16	9	17	127
		%	3.9%	3.1%	20.5%	12.6%	19.7%	7.1%	12.6%	7.1%	13.4%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	47	1	40	33	33	6	20	7	5	192
		%	24.5%	0.5%	20.8%	17.2%	17.2%	3.1%	10.4%	3.6%	2.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	210	32	324	289	462	123	196	49	177	1862
		%	11.3%	1.7%	17.4%	15.5%	24.8%	6.6%	10.5%	2.6%	9.5%	100.0%

Figure 4.3 Community and Education

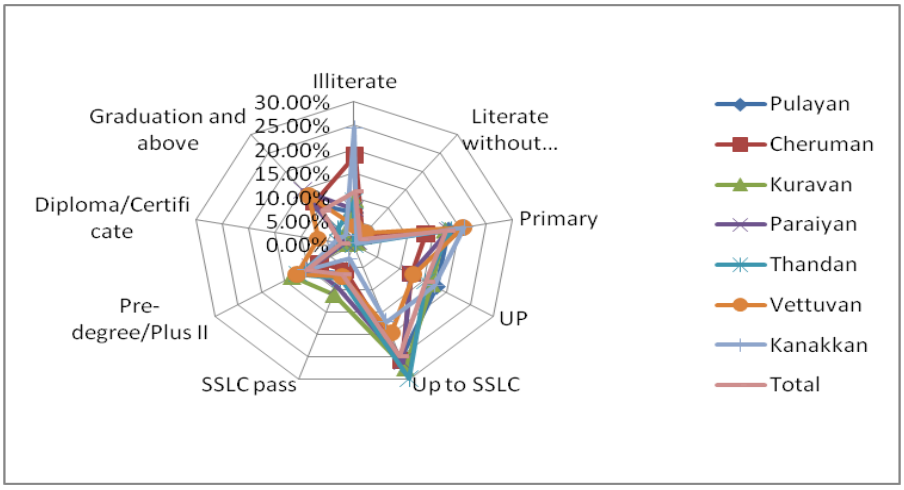


Table 4.11 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	159.631[a]	48	.000
Likelihood Ratio	161.502	48	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.707	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	1862		

a. 9 cells (14.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.84.

The educational profile also differs largely based on gender. The percentage of graduates and illiterates are more among the females than the males. The results of other educational profiles are similar with a trivial difference. The Cross-Tabulation in Table 4.12 and the details of Figure 4.4are clear indications of the inferences obtained. The results of the Chi-Square test are also significant as per Table 4.13.

Table 4.12 Education and Gender

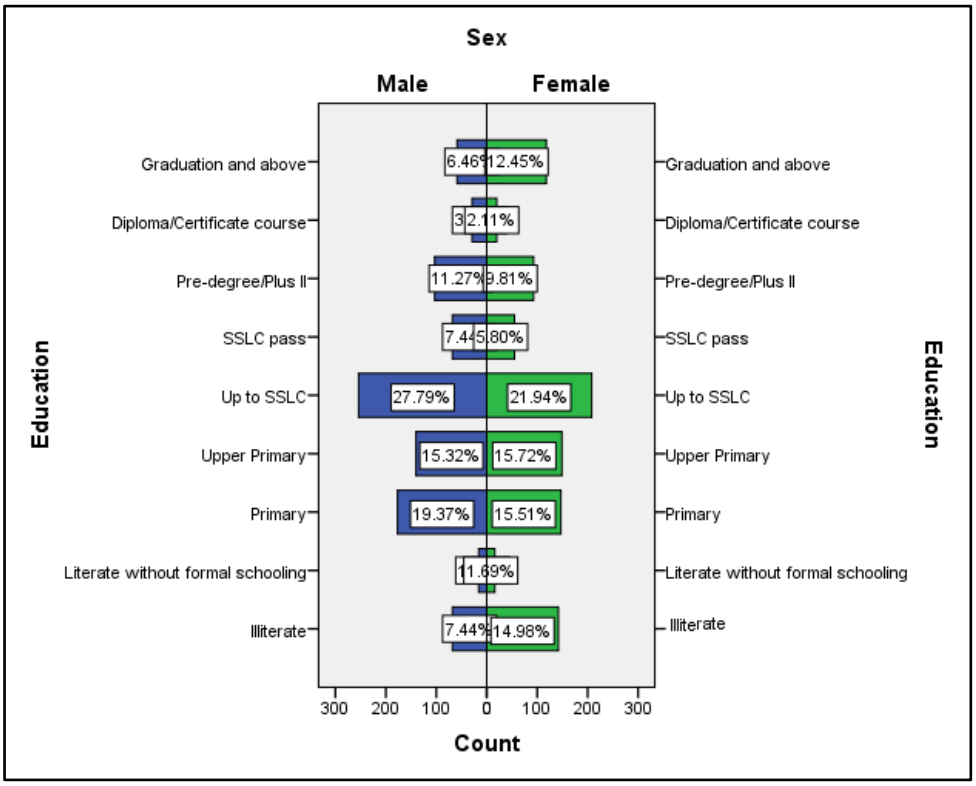
			Education									Total
			Illiterate	Literate without formal schooling	Primary	UP	Up to SSLC	SSLC pass	Pre-degree/Plus II	Diploma/Certificate course	Graduation and above	
Sex	Male	Count	68	16	177	140	254	68	103	29	59	914
		% within Sex	7.4%	1.8%	19.4%	15.3%	27.8%	7.4%	11.3%	3.2%	6.5%	100.0%
	Female	Count	142	16	147	149	208	55	93	20	118	948
		% within Sex	15.0%	1.7%	15.5%	15.7%	21.9%	5.8%	9.8%	2.1%	12.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	210	32	324	289	462	123	196	49	177	1862
		% within Sex	11.3%	1.7%	17.4%	15.5%	24.8%	6.6%	10.5%	2.6%	9.5%	100.0%

Table 4.13 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	56.316[a]	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	57.271	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.386	1	.535
N of Valid Cases	1862		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.71.

Figure 4.4 Gender and Education



The educational profile of the household members who are above 18 years of age is illustrated in Table 4.14. The educational profile is largely dependent on the age as per the data. The percentages of illiterates are more among the higher age groups. 43.8 percent of the members above 60 years are illiterate compared to very less proportion of illiterates when move down to the lower age groups. The percentage comes down to 28 percent in the 51-60 year category and then to 11.7 percent in the 41 to 50 age category. While evaluating the percentages in the high education category, the results are reverse with the proportions of more graduates in the lower age group category or the relatively younger groups. The significant difference in the educational profile based on age is further validated with the significant Chi-Square results shown in Table 4.15.

The educational profile based on the age is a clear proof that the elder generation of the SC communities have been averse in terms of getting educated, however various schemes and programmes and assistances have helped the younger groups to attain better education. In fact the field inference shows that the youngsters are more aware of the advantages of getting educated and the importance of education in getting a good job and respectable position in the society. However, another major finding from the field data is that the educational attainment of the younger groups is also less and confined to graduate level only.

Table 4.14 Age Group * Education Crosstabulation

			Education									
			Illiterate	Literate without formal schooling	Primary	UP	Up to SSLC	SSLC pass	Pre-degree/Plus II	Diploma/Certificate course	Graduation and above	Total
Age Group	19 to 30	Count	3	1	13	33	122	51	78	33	111	445
		%	0.7%	0.2%	2.9%	7.4%	27.4%	11.5%	17.5%	7.4%	24.9%	100.0%
	31 to 40	Count	10	4	26	57	140	32	44	8	37	358
		%	2.8%	1.1%	7.3%	15.9%	39.1%	8.9%	12.3%	2.2%	10.3%	100.0%
	41 to 50	Count	37	6	64	60	90	25	17	4	13	316
		%	11.7%	1.9%	20.3%	19.0%	28.5%	7.9%	5.4%	1.3%	4.1%	100.0%
	51 to 60	Count	65	6	77	41	36	4	1	0	1	231
		%	28.1%	2.6%	33.3%	17.7%	15.6%	1.7%	0.4%	0.0%	0.4%	100.0%
	Above 60 years	Count	95	13	63	16	15	4	0	2	9	217
		%	43.8%	6.0%	29.0%	7.4%	6.9%	1.8%	0.0%	0.9%	4.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	210	30	243	207	403	116	140	47	171	1567
		%	13.4%	1.9%	15.5%	13.2%	25.7%	7.4%	8.9%	3.0%	10.9%	100.0%

Table 4.15 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	816.278[a]	32	.000
Likelihood Ratio	863.795	32	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	593.097	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1567		

a. 2 cells (4.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.15.

An investigation into the educational profile of the SCs shows a clear difference based on community, region, gender and age. It is evident from the results that the employment pattern as well as the income levels will also differ based on the regional, demographic and socio-economic attributes. This will be further evaluated while comparing the employment and earning levels of the members with these indicators.

4.1.1.7 Activity, Employment and Income

4.1.1.7.1 Activity Status

The activity status of the members based on community is shown in Table 4.16. Overall, 49 percent of the total members are employed, 20.8 percent are students and 15.8 percent are doing household chores. Unemployment rate is 1.8 percent and dropouts are 1.3 percent (dropouts refer to the children at school going age who have discontinued their studies). Even though the unemployment rate and the dropout ratio are not alarming among the SC groups, the Cheruman and Kanakkan sub-communities have higher dropout ratios compared to others in the sample.

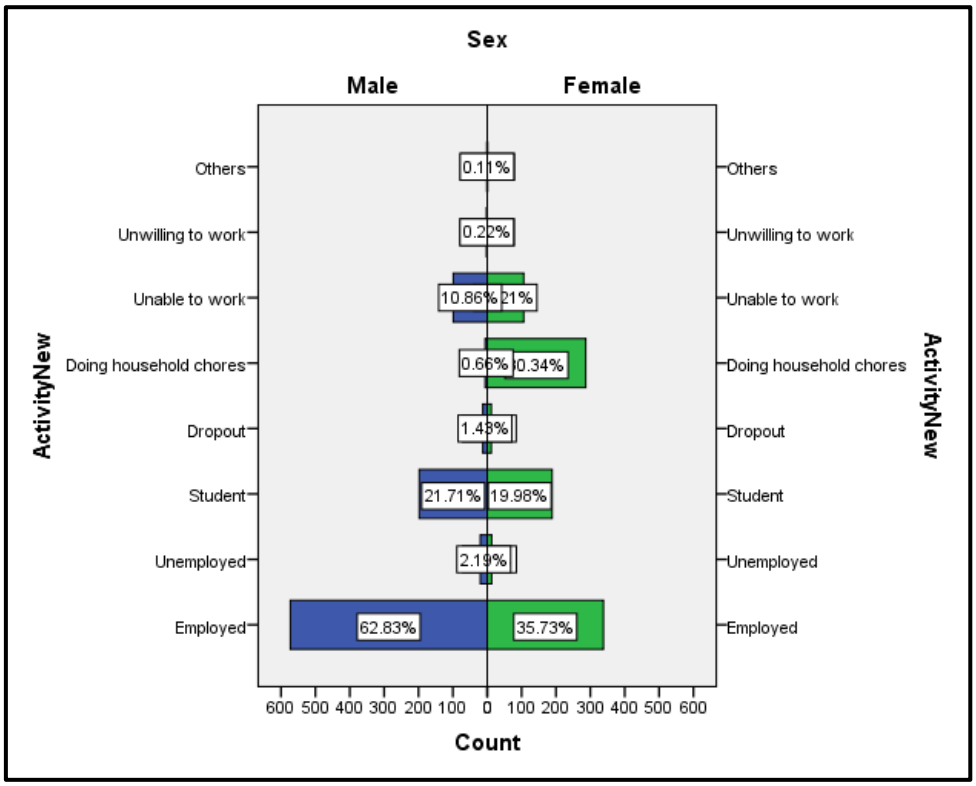
Table 4.16 Community and Activity Status

			Activity								Total
			Employed	Unemployed	Student	Dropout	Doing household chores	Unable to work	Unwilling to work	Others	
Community	Pulayan	Count	359	16	179	4	121	69	0	0	748
		%	48.0%	2.1%	23.9%	0.5%	16.2%	9.2%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	179	4	76	14	47	64	0	0	384
		%	46.6%	1.0%	19.8%	3.6%	12.2%	16.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	81	3	28	0	34	22	2	0	170
		%	47.6%	1.8%	16.5%	0.0%	20.0%	12.9%	1.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	54	3	22	0	18	8	0	2	107
		%	50.5%	2.8%	20.6%	0.0%	16.8%	7.5%	0.0%	1.9%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	66	0	28	1	25	11	0	0	131
		%	50.4%	0.0%	21.4%	0.8%	19.1%	8.4%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	61	5	22	0	25	13	0	0	126
		%	48.4%	4.0%	17.5%	0.0%	19.8%	10.3%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	111	2	32	6	23	18	0	0	192
		%	57.8%	1.0%	16.7%	3.1%	12.0%	9.4%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	911	33	387	25	293	205	2	2	1858
		%	49.0%	1.8%	20.8%	1.3%	15.8%	11.0%	0.1%	0.1%	100.0%

Table 4.17 Gender and Activity

			Activity								Total
			Employed	Unemployed	Student	Dropout	Doing household chores	Unable to work	Unwilling to work	Others	
Sex	Male	Count	573	20	198	13	6	99	2	1	912
		% within Sex	62.8%	2.2%	21.7%	1.4%	0.7%	10.9%	0.2%	0.1%	100.0%
	Female	Count	338	13	189	12	287	106	0	1	946
		% within Sex	35.7%	1.4%	20.0%	1.3%	30.3%	11.2%	0.0%	0.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	911	33	387	25	293	205	2	2	1858
		% within Sex	49.0%	1.8%	20.8%	1.3%	15.8%	11.0%	0.1%	0.1%	100.0%

Figure 4.5 Gender and Activity



Gender-wise activity status is shown in Table 4.17 and Figure 4.5. It is clear that 62.8 percent of the males are employed compared to 35.7 percent females. As expected, the females are more in "doing household chores" category. It is evident from Figure 4.5 that the gender difference in activity is visible for employed and household worker's category with proportion of males are more in the former than the latter.

4.1.1.7.2 Employment

In spite of the fact that the dropout ratio and unemployment are low, the inferences from the field shows that full-time and secured employment is still a myth among the majority. The type of employment for the 911 employed members is evaluated based on community and gender. Figure

4.6 shows the community-wise results. Majority (42.5 percent) of the SC community members are wage earners in the off -arm sector. Public sector and private-sector employment are 14.4 percent and 10 percent respectively. 12.4 percent employment is obtained from the employment guarantee scheme. Self-employment is very less at 11.6 percent (total for self-employed farming, off-farming and animal-husbandry). Community-wise, the proportion of government employees are more among the Pulayan and Vettuvan community. Thandan and Vettuvan, along with Pulayan have more private sector employees. Near to 26 percent from the Parayan community rely on MNREGS as their main income earning avocation. The difference based on the community is evinced further with the aid of significant values obtained from the Chi-Square test results which is depicted in Table 4.18.

The main employment particulars based on gender are shown in Figure 4.7. The proportion of females working in the off-farm sector as wage earners are less at 33 percent and 26 percent of the females work in the employment guarantee scheme compared to only 4 percent males. Government sector and self employed farmers are more among males. The difference based on gender is further tested with the Chi-Square analysis shown in Table 4.19. The result is significant indicating that there is gender-wise difference in the main employment of the SC communities.

Figure 4.6 Community and Main Employment

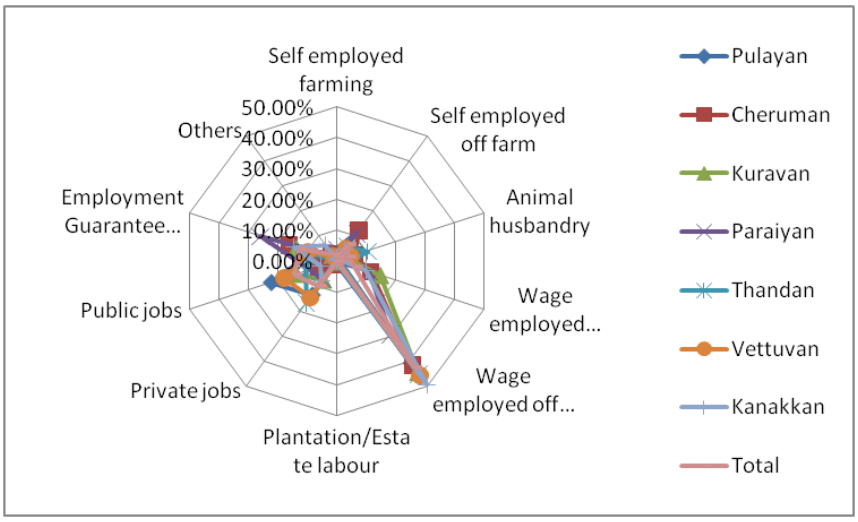


Table 4.18 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	170.032[a]	54	.000
Likelihood Ratio	188.074	54	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.312	1	.576
N of Valid Cases	911		

a. 32 cells (45.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

Figure 4.7 Gender and Main Employment

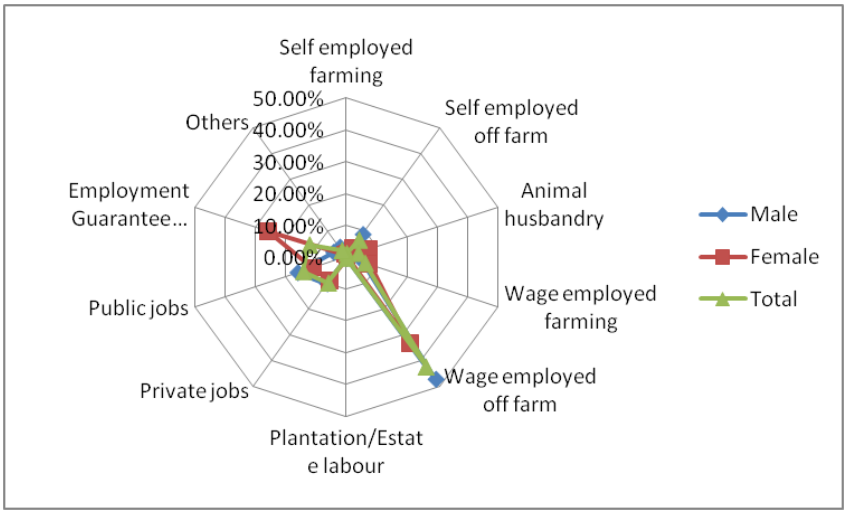


Table 4.19 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	130.776[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	131.431	9	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.330	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	911		

a. 3 cells (15.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.11.

The reservation in the government sector has largely helped the SC communities to get into the government sector regular jobs. However, even the 14 percent of the SC community members work in the government sector are working mostly in the lower ladder jobs like sweeper, peon or at most clerical jobs. This is due to the lack of education and low skill sets to obtain a good job.

Needless to say that the situation of the remaining SC community members are dismal in getting a regular employment is a major issue to most of the SCs. Land ownership among the SCs is very less and hence own agriculture activity not carried out by most of the members. Employment pattern shows that most are working as wage laborer's and this is highly seasonal in nature. The irregular pattern of employment makes their earning erratic and hence has a high toll on the household income levels. For the employment guarantee scheme as well, the number of days of employment are limited per year. Inferences from the field data show that there is very less distinction between the main and subsidiary employment. The MNREGS scheme has been the prime subsidiary employment for the SCs.

4.1.1.6.3 Individual Income

Individual earnings of the employed household members are compared based on gender and community and the average scores are shown in Table 4.20. Overall, the average male income is more than the

female income. However, among the Pulayan community, the mean income levels of females are more than the males. The Pulayan and Vettuvan have the highest mean income (Rs. 5802 and Rs. 5381) and the Kanakkan community has the lowest income of Rs. 3491. The community-wise average income is shown in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.9 shows the zone-wise mean income from which the difference based on urban regions and rural regions is visible. Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Thrissur have the high scores of average income and Idukki and Palakkad districts have lower scores. The average income for the three districts is more than Rs. 5500 whereas the income for Idukki and Palakkad is Rs. 3576 and Rs. 3721.

Table 4.20 Average Individual Income

Community	Sex	Income
Pulayan	Male	5600.2565
	Female	6164.3333
	Total	5802.9471
Cheruman	Male	4633.0893
	Female	3366.5075
	Total	4159.0056
Kuravan	Male	4648.2917
	Female	3259.6970
	Total	4082.5679
Paraiyan	Male	4982.7812
	Female	3976.5000
	Total	4572.8148
Thandan	Male	5043.9512
	Female	3678.6800
	Total	4526.8030
Vettuvan	Male	5918.6154
	Female	4430.3636
	Total	5381.8689
Kanakkan	Male	3724.3521
	Female	3076.9750
	Total	3491.0631
Total	Male	5046.4031
	Female	4521.6627
	Total	4851.7135

Figure 4.8 Community and Average Income

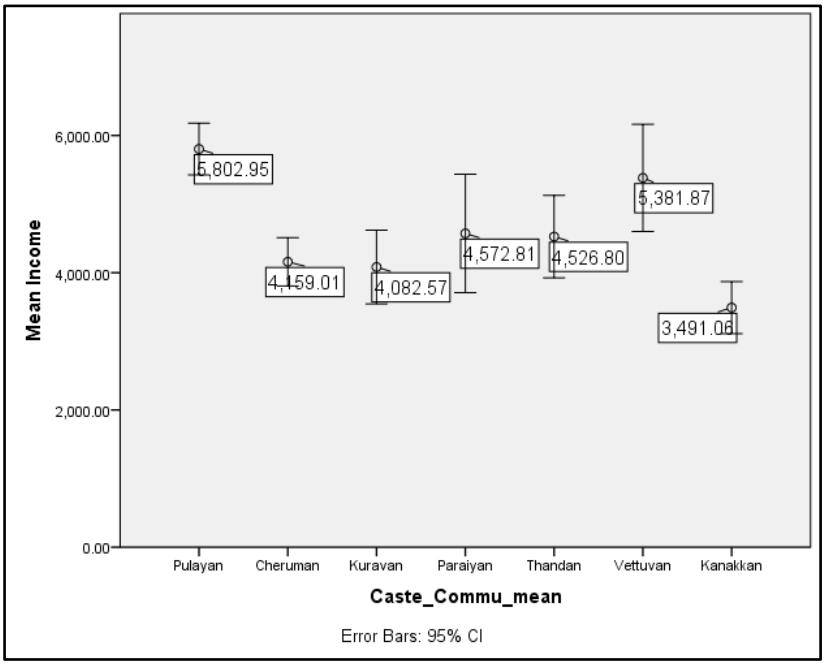
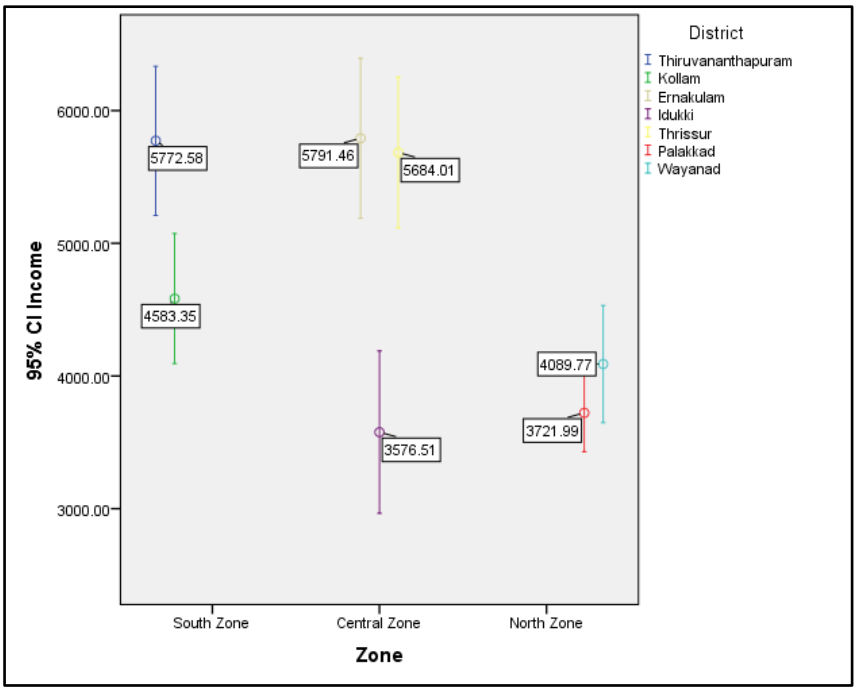


Figure 4.9 District and Individual Income



To further gauge the difference in income levels based on community and region, the ANOVA technique is used (Table 4.21). The ANOVA results for income are significant for zone, district and community and hence it is confirmed that there is significant difference in the earning levels of SCs in terms of zone, district and community.

Table 4.21 ANOVA

Zone					
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	384368968.970	2	192184484.485	20.646	.000
Within Groups	8451974941.254	908	9308342.446		
Total	8836343910.224	910			
District					
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	718913672.260	6	119818945.377	13.344	.000
Within Groups	8117430237.964	904	8979458.228		
Total	8836343910.224	910			
Community					
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	692464715.262	6	115410785.877	12.811	.000
Within Groups	8143879194.962	904	9008715.924		
Total	8836343910.224	910			

The results of ANOVA further reconfirm the fact that there is difference in average income based on region as well as on community. However, it is still unknown which groups (i.e. region or community) are different from each other. To validate this, Duncan's test is performed and results for zone, district and community are depicted in Tables 4.22, 4.23 and 4.24.

The north zone is in subset 1 and the central and south zones are in subset 2. District-wise Idukki and Palakkad are in subset 1. Wayanad features in subset 1 with Idukki and Palakkad and subset 2 with Kollam. Thrissur, Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam feature in subset 3 with highest income levels.

Table 4.22 Income

Zone	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
North Zone	290	3903.3448	
South Zone	304		5240.5559
Central Zone	317		5346.4101
Sig.		1.000	.669

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 303.265.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Table 4.23 Income

District	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Idukki	57	3576.5088		
Palakkad	147	3721.9932		
Wayanad	143	4089.7692	4089.7692	
Kollam	136		4583.3529	
Thrissur	138			5684.0072
Thiruvananthapuram	168			5772.5774
Ernakulam	122			5791.4590
Sig.		.220	.209	.799

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 116.496.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Four subsets are generated for the communities. Kanakkan, Kuravan and Cheruman are in subset 1. Kuravan and Cheruman feature in subset 2 with Thandan and Parayan. Thandan and Parayan also feature in subset 3 with Vettuvan. Vettuvan also finds place in subset 4 with Pulayan. Clearly, Pulayan has the highest average income score among the SC sub-communities surveyed.

Table 4.24 Income

Caste_Commu_mean	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05			
		1	2	3	4
Kanakkan	111	3491.0631			
Kuravan	81	4082.5679	4082.5679		
Cheruman	179	4159.0056	4159.0056		
Thandan	66		4526.8030	4526.8030	
Paraiyan	54		4572.8148	4572.8148	
Vettuvan	61			5381.8689	5381.8689
Pulayan	359				5802.9471
Sig.		.166	.331	.074	.353

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 87.730.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Section II

4.2 Household Characteristics

This section evaluates the living standards and characteristics of the SC households. Such an evaluation is necessary to get an in-depth overview of the impact of segregated living and land alienation due to development activities and displacement on their housing conditions and general living standards.

4.2.1 Socio-Economic and Demographic Profile of Household Head

A snapshot on the profile of the head of the household is discussed in the section in terms of age, gender, education, employment and income. Table 4.25 encompass all these.

Table 4.25 Profile of Household Head

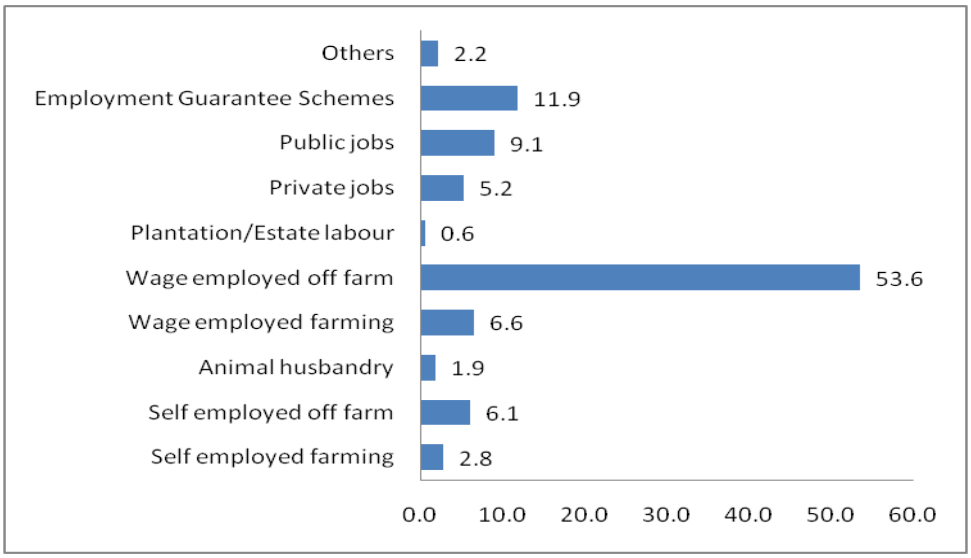
	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	391	78.2
Female	109	21.8
Age		
19 to 30	11	2.2
31 to 40	65	13.0
41 to 50	149	29.8
51 to 60	143	28.6
Above 60 years	132	26.4
Marital Status		
Unmarried	12	2.4
Married	390	78.0
Widow / Widower	87	17.4
Divorced/separated	11	2.2
Education		
Illiterate	96	19.2
Literate without formal schooling	21	4.2
Primary	123	24.6
Upper Primary	83	16.6
Up to SSLC	119	23.8
SSLC pass	24	4.8
Pre-degree/Plus II	17	3.4
Diploma/Certificate course	4	.8
Graduation and above	13	2.6
Activity		
Employed	362	72.4
Unemployed	12	2.4
Doing household chores	19	3.8
Unable to work	106	21.2
Others	1	.2

The majority i.e. 78.2 percent of the households are male headed. Most of the household heads are aged between 41 and 60 years (58.4 percent). Whereas, 26.4 percent are aged above 60 years. Only 2.2 percent are below 30 years and those between 31-40 years are 12 percent. With regard to

the marital status, 78 percent of the household heads are married and only 2.4 percent are unmarried. Education profile of the household head displays that the proportion of highly educated head of the households are very less as only 2.4 percent have an education of graduation and above. Illiteracy rate is high at 19.2 percent compared to 13.4 percent in the total sample. 72.4 percent of the heads are employed and 21.2 percent are unable to work.

The type of employment of the household heads is shown in Figure 4.10. As was the case with overall household members, majority are wage laborer's in the off farm sector and those in government and private sectors are only 9.1 percent and 5.2 percent of the total household heads. 11.9 percent of the household heads derive their income from the employment guarantee scheme. Self-employment is again less among the household heads. The average earning of the household head is Rs. 4407.

Figure 4.10 Type of Employment of the Household head



4.2.2 Household Profile

The household profile of the communities like the type of house, ownership, area of house, fuel used for cooking, source of water, source of light and living standards, etc are analyzed so as to measure the standard of living of the SCs in these regions. This in turn will help to appraise of the government housing schemes and other household infrastructure development schemes like sanitation, drinking water and electrification etc for measuring the quality of life of the community.

4.2.2.1 Quality of Living

Table 4.26 depicts the results of household attributes of the SCs. 94 percent of the households live in own house. Those living in rented/leased or relatives house are very less in the total sample. The house area is between 250-500 sq. ft for majority of the households in the sample. Households above 1000 sq. ft are very less in the sample. Government support is the major source for house construction for majority of the households. 67.4 percent of the houses have availed government fund for house construction. For 30.8 percent the main source for construction of house is own funds. Majority of the houses are serviceable kutcha or semi-pucca or Kutcha (47.2 percent and 35.2 percent). Among these, only 10.8 percent of the houses are pucca. This indicates that, despite government assistance for house construction, the condition of houses is pathetic. This is because of the fact that the funds provided by the government are inadequate for constructing a proper habitable house considering the high cost of construction materials, high labour costs, etc. Majority of households have cement floor and brick walls (64.6 percent and 86.4 percent). The

roofing material used is concrete for 53.2 percent of the houses and 29.2 percent of the houses have tiled roofs. 16.6 percent of the houses have no latrine facility. Only 15.8 percent of the houses have pucca latrines with water supply. 34.6 percent of houses have serviceable latrines and 33 percent have latrines with roof, wall and door. Lack of proper sanitation facility would result in several health hazards especially due to the fact that the SCs live in a segregated and colonized setup. This would be a perfect condition for diseases relating to lack of proper sanitation. Public well/tap is the major source of drinking water for about 40.4 percent of the households. 37.4 percent have in house pipe connection. Despite this, it is a fact that the supply of drinking water both through public tap as well as in the pipe connection in the SC colonies is largely erratic. Despite several drinking water schemes targeted specifically to cater to the needs of the SC colonies the fact remains that the supply of potable drinking water is still a major issue of concern to the SC colonies. Lack of political will and attitude of the government officials is a major reason. Lack of sanitation and drinking water facilities is a major issue in the SC colonies and these leads to health-related issues and hazards among the household members. Only 15.6 percent of the households use cooking gas as the main fuel, whereas 83.2 percent still use wood as the main fuel for cooking.

Table 4.26 Quality of Living

	Frequency	Percent
House ownership		
Own	470	94.0
Relatives	11	2.2
Rented	8	1.6
Leased	11	2.2
Area		
Below 250Sq.ft	127	25.4
Between 250-500Sq.ft	212	42.4
Between 500-750Sq.ft	127	25.4
Between 750-1000Sq.ft	21	4.2
Above 1000Sq.ft	13	2.6
Fund for construction of house		
Self	154	30.8
Govt. Support	337	67.4
Other Institutions	5	1.0
Friends/relatives	1	.2
Others	3	.6
Type of house		
Pucca	54	10.8
Semi Pucca	176	35.2
Serviceable Kucha	236	47.2
Unserviceable Kucha	34	6.8
Floor material		
Earth/mud	117	23.4
Cement	323	64.6
Tiles	58	11.6
Others	2	.4
Wall Material		
Earth/mud	49	9.8
Bamboo/Iron sheets	7	1.4
Cement/bricks	432	86.4
Timber (wood)	2	.4
Stone	7	1.4
Others	3	.6
Roofing material		
Thatch grass/palm leaves	6	1.2

Iron/tin sheet/asbestos	77	15.4
Tiles	149	29.8
Concrete	266	53.2
Others	2	.4
Sanitary latrines		
No latrines	83	16.6
Serviceable latrines	173	34.6
With roof, wall, door	165	33.0
Pucca latrines with water supply	79	15.8
Drinking Water		
House/Piped connection	187	37.4
Own well	49	9.8
Public well/Tap	202	40.4
Stream/Canal/river	12	2.4
Others	50	10.0
Main fuel used for cooking		
Wood	416	83.2
Kerosene	6	1.2
Gas	78	15.6

4.2.3 Household Standard of Living

The primary data and field inferences confirm considerable inter-community differences in the standard of living. To appraise this, a Standard of Living Index (SLI) is worked out based on the perceptions of the people. SLI normally explains the well being of the people either collectively or across social classes in a certain period of time. The index is developed mainly by considering variables like house type, ownership, sanitation, drinking water and fuel used for cooking etc. These are scrutinized in a three-point scale according to their combined score. These are further apportioned into 'Low', 'Medium' and 'High' SLI groups.

An inter-zone comparison of the SLI is shown in Table 4.27. Overall, 58.2 percent of the households possess medium SLI score and 34.6 percent of the households are in the low SLI category. The proportions of

households in the high SLI are only 6.8 percent. Zone-wise results show that north zone has higher proportion of households in the low SLI category (44 percent) compared to the central and south zones (31 percent and 28.8 percent). Those in the high SLI in the north zone are 3 percent, which is low compared to the other two zones. The inter-zone disparity in the standard of living is reconfirmed with the significant Chi-Square results in Table 4.28. Based on this, we reject the null hypothesis that the "Household Living Standards are same across Zones".

Table 4.27 Zone and SLI

			SLI			Total
			Low SLI	Medium SLI	High SLI	
Zone	South Zone	Count	47	101	15	163
		% within Zone	28.8%	62.0%	9.2%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	53	104	14	171
		% within Zone	31.0%	60.8%	8.2%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	73	88	5	166
		% within Zone	44.0%	53.0%	3.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	173	293	34	500
		% within Zone	34.6%	58.6%	6.8%	100.0%

Table 4.28 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.139[a]	4	.011
Likelihood Ratio	13.704	4	.008
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.141	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.08.

The difference in the SLI score is visible community-wise as well (Table 4.29). Kuravan, Parayan and Kanakkan have more than 50 percent of the households in the low SLI category. Vettuvan has the lowest (6.2 percent) of the households in the low SLI category and highest (84.4 percent) of the households in the medium SLI category. None of the Kuravan households is in the high SLI category. The differences in standard of living based on the community are reconfirmed with the significant Chi-Square test value shown in Table 4.30. Based on the results, the Null Hypothesis that "SLI is same across Community" is rejected.

Table 4.29 Community and SLI

			SLI			Total
			Low SLI	Medium SLI	High SLI	
Caste/ Community	Pulayan	Count	47	125	22	194
		% within Caste/Community	24.2%	64.4%	11.3%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	43	63	3	109
		% within Caste/Community	39.4%	57.8%	2.8%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	23	22	0	45
		% within Caste/Community	51.1%	48.9%	0.0%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	17	11	3	31
		% within Caste/Community	54.8%	35.5%	9.7%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	11	20	1	32
		% within Caste/Community	34.4%	62.5%	3.1%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	2	27	3	32
		% within Caste/Community	6.2%	84.4%	9.4%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	30	25	2	57
		% within Caste/Community	52.6%	43.9%	3.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	173	293	34	500
		% within Caste/Community	34.6%	58.6%	6.8%	100.0%

Table 4.30 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	51.094[a]	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	57.236	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.407	1	.006
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 5 cells (23.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.11.

Further to this, Correspondence Analysis is performed to illuminate the difference in the SLI scores based on community. Tables 4.31 and 4.32 show the Correspondence Table and summary Table respectively. Based on Table 4.31 it is inferred that the values are significant.

Table 4.31 Correspondence Table

Community	SLI			
	Low SLI	Medium SLI	High SLI	Active Margin
Pulayan	47	125	22	194
Cheruman	43	63	3	109
Kuravan	23	22	0	45
Paraiyan	17	11	3	31
Thandan	11	20	1	32
Vettuvan	2	27	3	32
Kanakkan	30	25	2	57
Active Margin	173	293	34	500

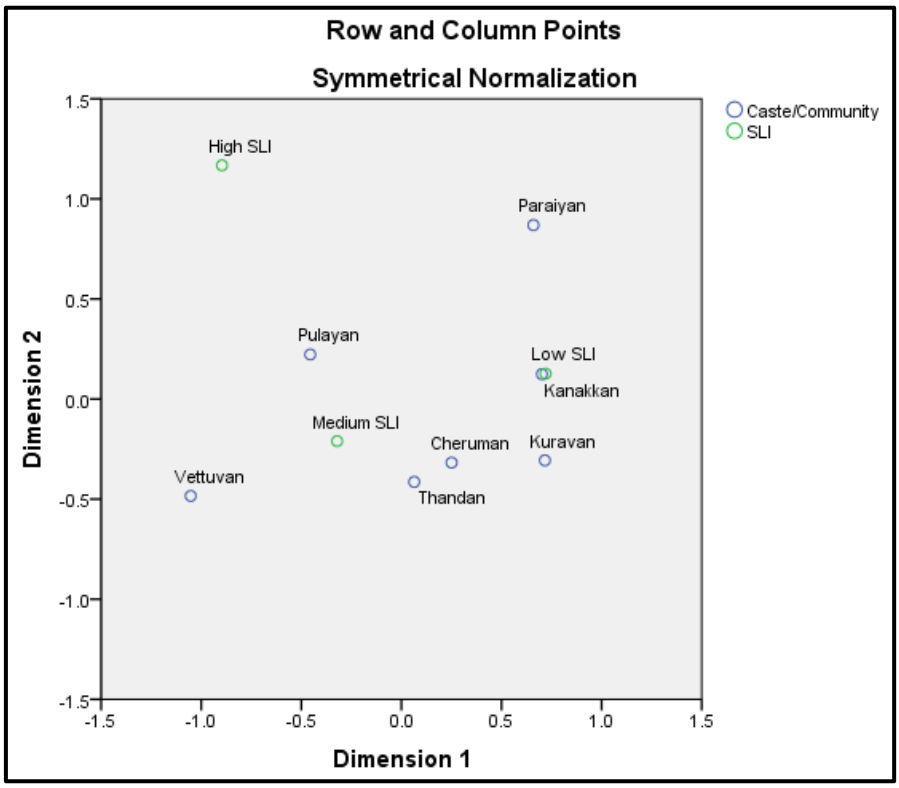
Table 4.32 Summary

Dimension	Singular Value	Inertia	Chi Square	Sig.	Proportion of Inertia		Confidence Singular Value	
					Accounted for	Cumulative	Standard Deviation	Correlation 2
1	.295	.087			.849	.849	.040	-.155
2	.124	.015			.151	1.000	.043	
Total		.102	51.094	.000[a]	1.000	1.000		

a. 12 degrees of freedom

Figure 4.11 shows the Correspondence Chart. It is evident that none of the communities is closer to the high SLI point. Pulayan, Vettuvan, Thandan and Cheruman are near to the medium SLI point. Cheruman is also close to low SLI. Kanakkan is exactly on the low SLI point, whereas Kuravan and Parayan are closer to the same.

Figure 4.11 Community and SLI



Socio-economic inference of the SC community, in Chapter 4 in two specific facets, shows deplorable situation. SC community in Kerala based on sub-community dimensions have a spatial relation. Among the various sub-groups of the community some are relatively good in employment and earning levels so also the nature of their socio-economics. Nonetheless, they are mostly working as casual workers with high prominence in getting employment from the MNREGS are clear authentication of their low standard of living and social exclusion. This is the reason why no one has come closer to the high standard of living index category. The visible factor for the low socio economics of the SC community is their backwardness in education and its associated tribulations in earning capacity and asset creation.

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Chapter 5

Dynamics of Exclusion of the Scheduled Caste Community

Chapter 4 has helped to portray the socio-economics of the SC community and their perilous situation using primary data in a state with high socio-economic deliberations. Chapter 5 tries to amplify the delineation of the dynamics of exclusion and its vicissitudes with the aid of primary data in areas of poverty and inequality and thereby the inequality in income distribution. In this respect the SC community members' perception of development dynamics is imperative in working out the level of social exclusion.

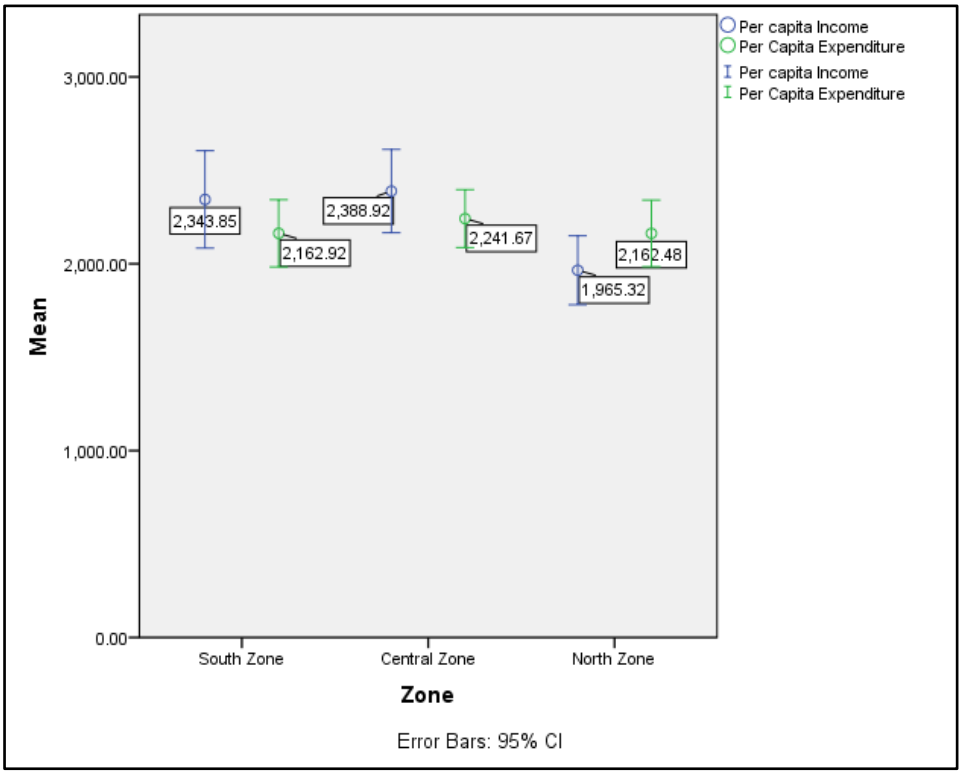
5.1 Household Per-capita Income and Expenditure

An inter-community and regional comparison of the household PCI and PCE is evaluated and given in Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1, which also shows the zone-wise comparison. Except for the north zone, mean household PCI is more than the PCE for the other two zones. Central zone has the highest PCI and PCE and the north zone has lowest. In terms of expenditure, the south and north zones have almost identical average scores.

Table 5.1 Zone-wise Income and Expenditure

Zone	HH Income	HH Expenditure	HH Per capita Income	HH Per Capita Expenditure
South Zone	9836	8862	2344	2163
Central Zone	10007	9114	2389	2242
North Zone	7055	7524	1965	2162
Total	8971	8504	2234	2190

Figure 5.1 Zone and Household PCI and PCE



The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is worked out to identify whether there is difference in household per-capita income and expenditure levels across zones (Table 5.2). The results are significant for income and insignificant for expenditure. The ANOVA results conclude that the PCI differs based on zones. However, to identify which zones are different in

terms of income, a Post Hoc Duncan's Test is performed. The result is shown in Table 5.3. North Zone is in subset 1, whereas the south and central zones are in subset 2 and hence the south and central zones are similar but different from the north zone in terms of PCI.

Table 5.2 ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Per capita Income	Between Groups	18054749.069	2	9027374.535	4.193	.016
	Within Groups	1070043287.600	497	2153004.603		
	Total	1088098036.669	499			
Per Capita Expenditure	Between Groups	701742.316	2	350871.158	.280	.756
	Within Groups	622201542.790	497	1251914.573		
	Total	622903285.107	499			

Table 5.3 Per capita Income

Zone	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
North Zone	166	1965.3152	
South Zone	163		2343.8511
Central Zone	171		2388.9208
Sig.		1.000	.779

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 166.602.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Community-wise, four out of seven communities have a mean household per capita expenditure more than the income. The Pulayan, Thandan and Vettuvan communities have average household PCI more than the household PCE. Figure 5.2 and Table 5.4 show the detailed results of the same. The Pulayan has the highest household income, household expenditure and the PCI. The Parayan has the highest MPCE among the SC sub-communities. The Cheruman has the lowest PCI score. Even though the

overall average score shows income level more than the expenditure, for some communities, the income is less than the average expenditure score which is pointing towards borrowings.

Figure 5.2 Community wise PCI and PCE

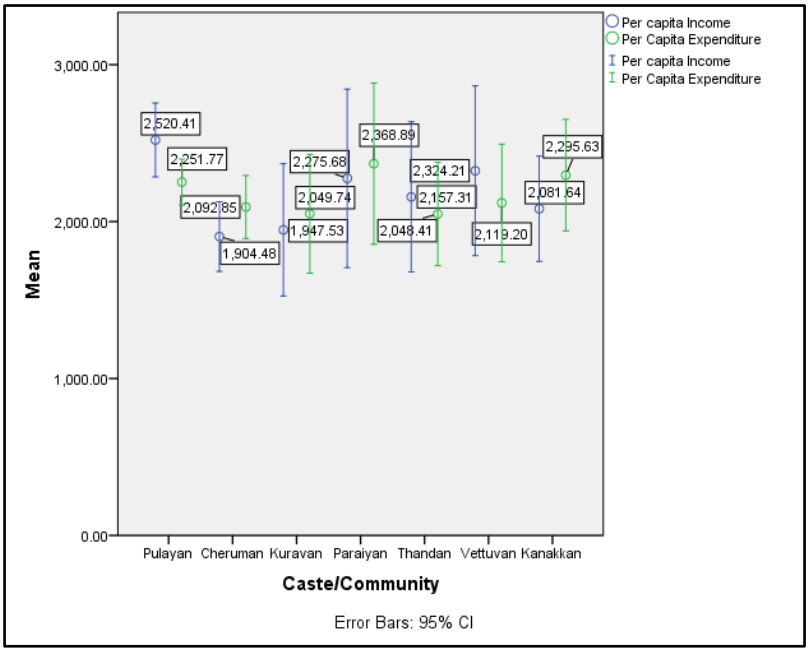


Table 5.4 Report

Caste/Community	HH Income	Expenditure	HH Per capita Income	HH Per Capita Expenditure
Pulayan	10823	9412	2520	2252
Cheruman	7190	7604	1904	2093
Kuravan	7349	7692	1948	2050
Paraiyan	7966	8144	2276	2369
Thandan	9602	9025	2157	2048
Vettuvan	10313	9057	2324	2119
Kanakkan	6798	7371	2082	2296
Total	8971	8504	2234	2190

Most of the community members as per the field inference find it difficult to access formal credit as they do not have secure employment, land or assets. They mainly depend on the money lenders for emergencies,

daily needs or for occasions like marriages, house construction, etc. The huge interest burden is still a cause of concern. Another issue is that most of the banks consider the colonies as a high credit risk area and hence desist from giving them loan.

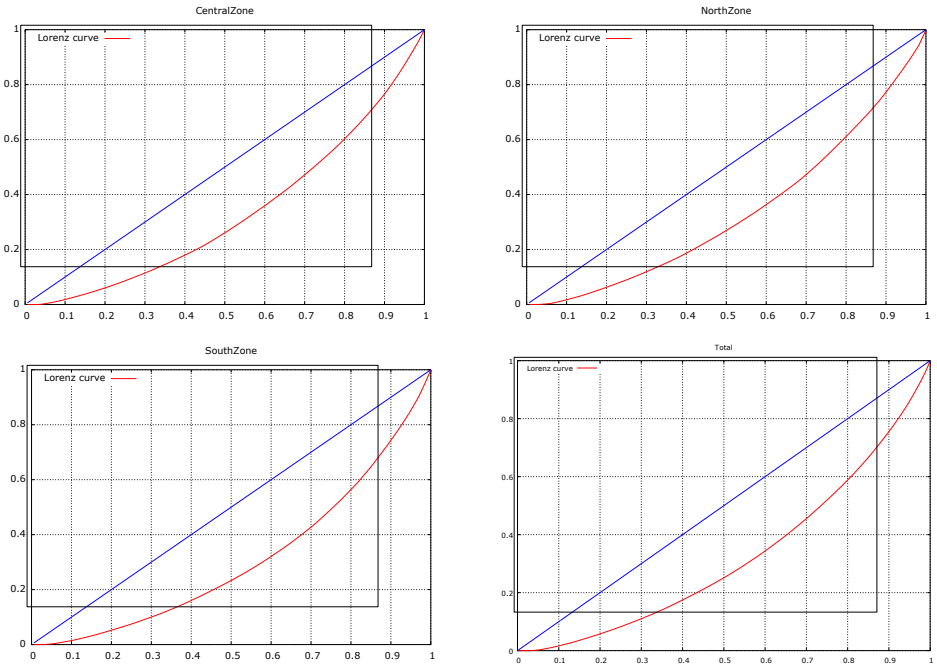
5.2 Income Inequality

The Lorenz Curve (LC) and Gini Coefficient (GC) are used to evaluate the inequality in income distribution across region and communities. The zone-wise GC and LC are shown in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.3.

Table 5.5 Zone and Gini Coefficient

North	0.33
Central	0.34
South	0.38
Total	0.36

Figure 5.3 Zone and Lorenz Curve



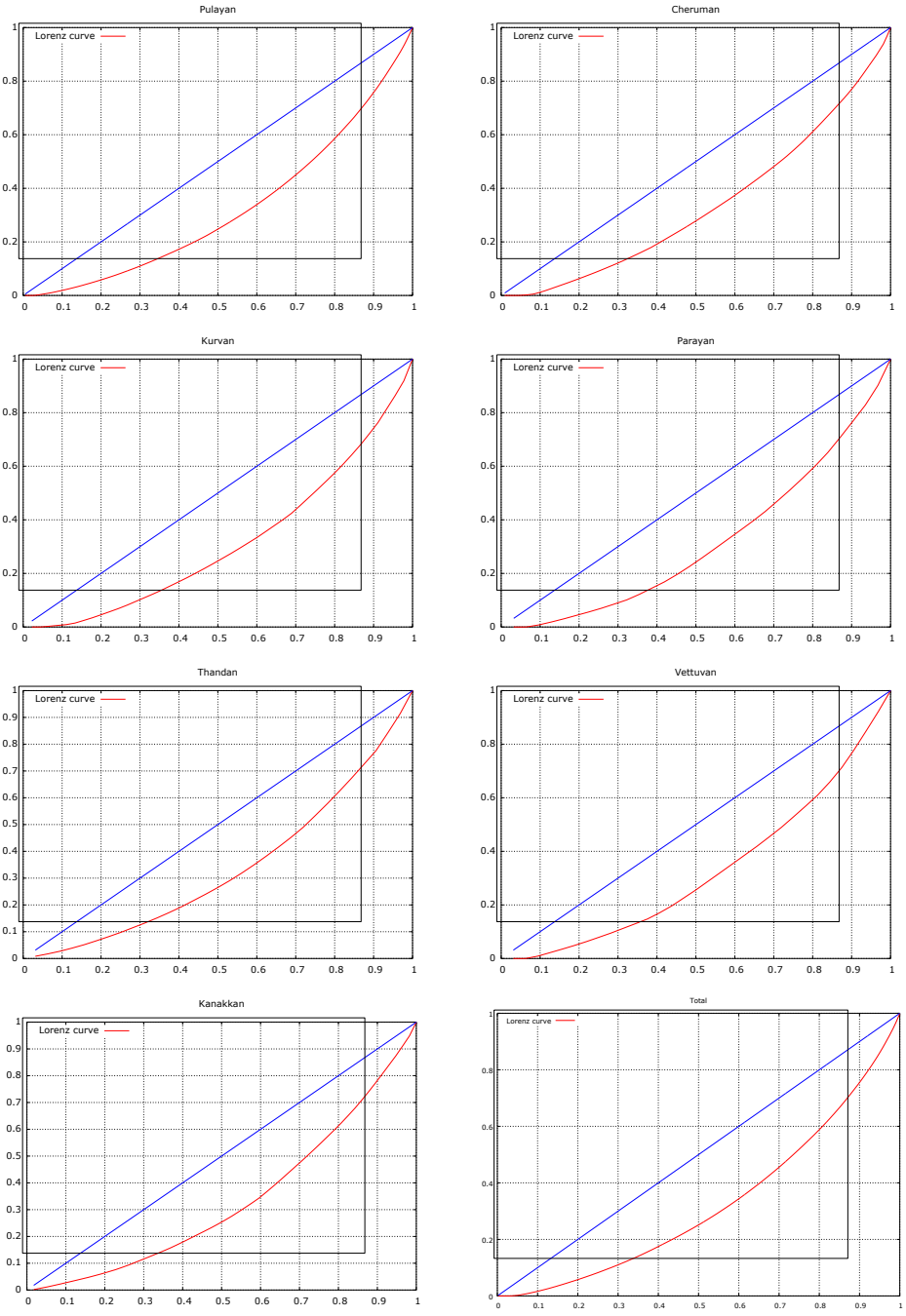
The GC scores indicate towards less income inequality within the zones. The overall as well as the scores of each zones is below 0.40. However, the GC for south zone is higher than the other two zones. This indicates that the income difference within the south zone is the highest compared to the other two zones. North zone has the lowest GC value. The LCs for the three zones are also clear testimony of the GC values discussed, even though the gap between the equality line and the LC is less, the LC for the south zone is farthest from the line of equality compared to the other two zones LCs.

The community-wise scores for the GC and the LC are depicted in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.4. As was the case with the inter-zone comparison results, within community inequality in income distribution seems to be less as per the GC values. The Kuravan and Parayan are the two communities with higher GC values and Cheruman has the lowest value. Altogether, the LCs for the communities are also similar. The fact that the GC is low for the communities would mean that the income difference within the community is less than 0.50 for all the communities and hence occupational as well as per capita earning pattern are similar. While it is a positive sign that the difference in terms of per-capita earnings is very less for the SCs, a further evaluation is needed to identify whether their income levels are so low that they are below the critical level of poverty.

Table 5.6 Community and GC

Pulayan	0.35746
Cheruman	0.324899
Kuravan	0.373977
Paraiyan	0.36581
Thandan	0.328443
Vettuvan	0.348619
Kanakkan	0.333064
Total	0.355125

Figure 5.4 Community and Lorenz Curve



5.3 Income Poverty/Expenditure Poverty

The level of poverty is worked out based on MPCE and MPCI zone-wise, district-wise and community-wise. In order to arrive the number of households and individuals below the poverty line based on MPCE, the estimates based on the official Planning Commission of India has been considered. The poverty level based on income is 20.4 percent and based on expenditure is 16.6 percent. This implies that as per the household PCI, 102 households are below poverty line and as per the household PCE 83 are below poverty line. The fact that the income poverty is more than the expenditure poverty implies that especially among the poor households, PCE is more than the PCI. Further investigation reveals that 19 households who are below poverty level in terms of PCI are above the critical mark of poverty if analyzed based on PCE.

The zone-wise results of the income and expenditure poverty are shown in Tables 5.7 and 5.8 as well as in Figure 5.5. Income poverty is the highest in the south zone (23.3 percent) and the lowest in the central zone at 16.4 percent. The central zone has the lowest level of expenditure poverty as well, i.e. 14.6 percent. The south and north zones are almost similar in terms of expenditure poverty levels. The results reveal that even though the central zone performs slightly better than the other two zones both in terms of income and expenditure poverty, the difference are minimal since it is not evident via the Chi-Square tests.

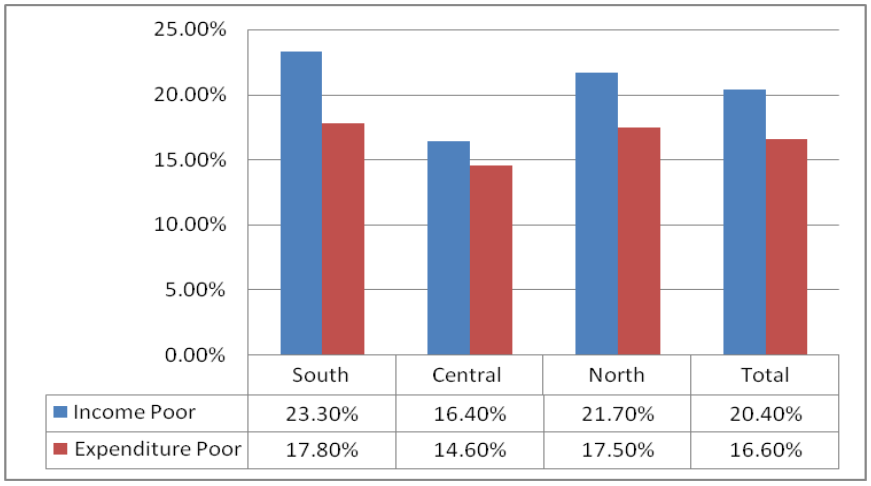
Table 5.7 Zone and Income Poverty

			Income Poor		Total
			No	Yes	
Zone	South Zone	Count	125	38	163
		% within Zone	76.7%	23.3%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	143	28	171
		% within Zone	83.6%	16.4%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	130	36	166
		% within Zone	78.3%	21.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	398	102	500
		% within Zone	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%

Table 5.8 Zone and Expenditure Poverty

			Expenditure Poor		Total
			No	Yes	
Zone	South Zone	Count	134	29	163
		% within Zone	82.2%	17.8%	100.0%
	Central Zone	Count	146	25	171
		% within Zone	85.4%	14.6%	100.0%
	North Zone	Count	137	29	166
		% within Zone	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	417	83	500
		% within Zone	83.4%	16.6%	100.0%

Figure 5.5 Zone-wise Comparison of Income and Expenditure Poverty



The difference based on zones for the income and expenditure poverty is insignificant which is evident from the results of the Chi-Square test in Tables 5.9 and 5.10.

Table 5.9 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.728[a]	2	.256
Likelihood Ratio	2.791	2	.248
Linear-by-Linear Association	.127	1	.721
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33.25.

Table 5.10 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.742[a]	2	.690
Likelihood Ratio	.754	2	.686
Linear-by-Linear Association	.005	1	.941
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.06.

An inter-district comparison of the poverty level shows interesting results (Tables 5.11 ,5.12 and Figure 5.6). The Ernakulam district has the lowest level of income and expenditure poverty level (11.3 percent). It is clear that 25 percent of the households are below poverty line in Kollam which is the highest, followed by Idukki (23.5 percent) and Malappuram (22.2 percent). In terms of expenditure poverty as well, the three districts have the highest level of poverty with Kollam 21.1 percent, Malappuram 20.8 percent and Idukki with 20.6 percent.

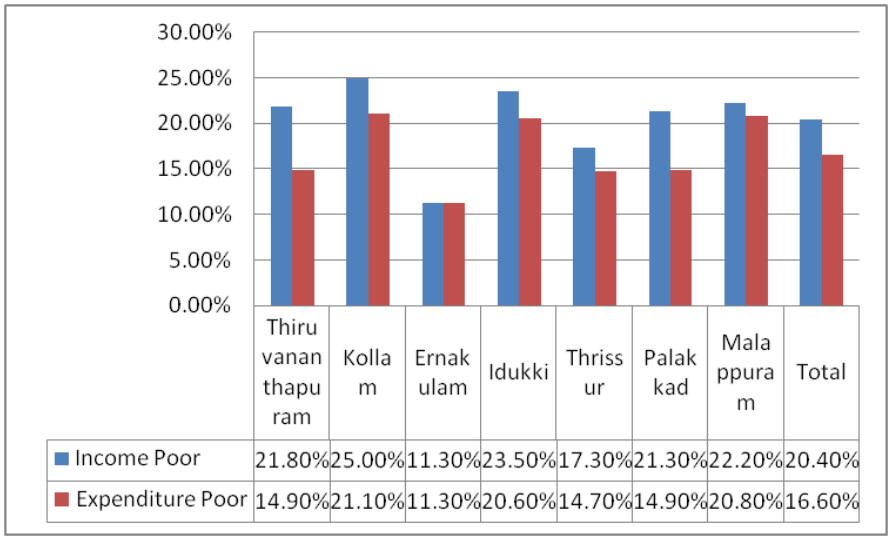
Table 5.11 District and Income Poor

			Income Poor		Total
			No	Yes	
District	Thiruvananthapuram	Count	68	19	87
		% within District	78.2%	21.8%	100.0%
	Kollam	Count	57	19	76
		% within District	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	Ernakulam	Count	55	7	62
		% within District	88.7%	11.3%	100.0%
	Idukki	Count	26	8	34
		% within District	76.5%	23.5%	100.0%
	Thrissur	Count	62	13	75
		% within District	82.7%	17.3%	100.0%
	Palakkad	Count	74	20	94
		% within District	78.7%	21.3%	100.0%
	Malappuram	Count	56	16	72
		% within District	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	398	102	500
		% within District	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%

Table 5.12 District and Expenditure Poor

			Expenditure Poor		Total
			No	Yes	
District	Thiruvananthapuram	Count	74	13	87
		% within District	85.1%	14.9%	100.0%
	Kollam	Count	60	16	76
		% within District	78.9%	21.1%	100.0%
	Ernakulam	Count	55	7	62
		% within District	88.7%	11.3%	100.0%
	Idukki	Count	27	7	34
		% within District	79.4%	20.6%	100.0%
	Thrissur	Count	64	11	75
		% within District	85.3%	14.7%	100.0%
	Palakkad	Count	80	14	94
		% within District	85.1%	14.9%	100.0%
	Malappuram	Count	57	15	72
		% within District	79.2%	20.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	417	83	500
		% within District	83.4%	16.6%	100.0%

Figure 5.6 District-wise Comparison of Income and Expenditure Poverty



The Chi-Square test results (Tables 5.13 and 5.14) are insignificant and hence it is infered that there is no district-wise difference in both income and expenditure poverty levels.

Table 5.13 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.101[a]	6	.531
Likelihood Ratio	5.525	6	.478
Linear-by-Linear Association	.009	1	.924
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.94.

Table 5.14 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.246[a]	6	.643
Likelihood Ratio	4.247	6	.643
Linear-by-Linear Association	.091	1	.763
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.64.

An inter-community comparison of the income and expenditure poverty is shown in Tables 5.15, 5.16 and Figure 5.7. Except Parayan and Kanakkan with income and expenditure poverty at similar levels, almost all the other communities have income poverty more than the expenditure poverty.The Parayan and Kuranvan have the highest percentage of households below poverty in terms of per-capita income (25.8 percent and 24.4 percent). The lowest percent of income poor are among Pulayan (17.5 percent) and Vettuvan (18.8 percent) communities. In fact, these two social groups have an income poverty of below 20 percent.

Table 5.15 Community and Income Poverty

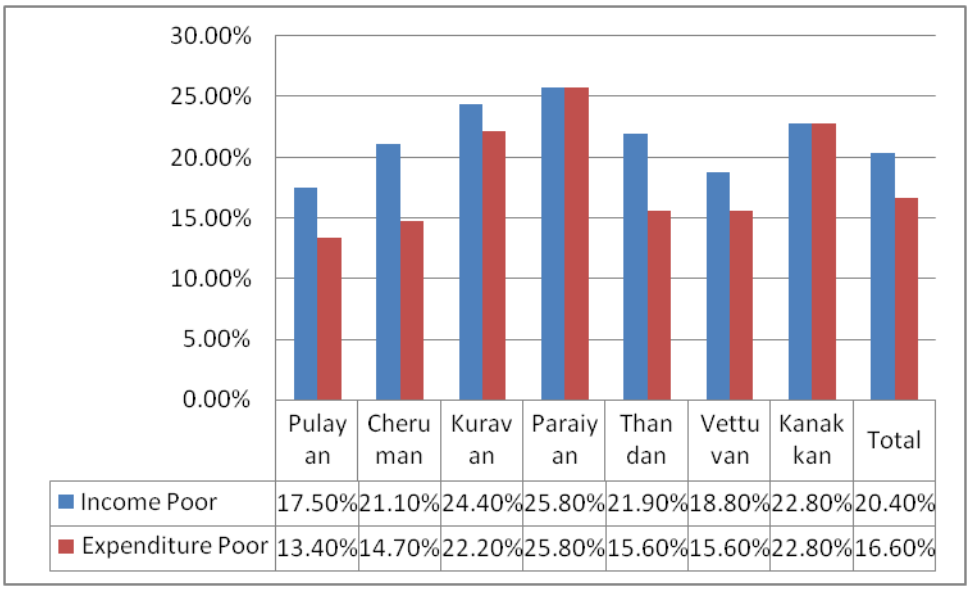
			Income Poor		Total
			No	Yes	
Caste/ Community	Pulayan	Count	160	34	194
		% within Caste/Community	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	86	23	109
		% within Caste/Community	78.9%	21.1%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	34	11	45
		% within Caste/Community	75.6%	24.4%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	23	8	31
		% within Caste/Community	74.2%	25.8%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	25	7	32
		% within Caste/Community	78.1%	21.9%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	26	6	32
		% within Caste/Community	81.2%	18.8%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	44	13	57
		% within Caste/Community	77.2%	22.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	398	102	500
		% within Caste/Community	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%

The Parayan, Kanakkan and Kurvan have the highest percentage of poor households in terms of PCE (25.8 percent, 22.8 percent and 22.2 percent). The Pulayan and Cheruman have an expenditure poverty of less than 15 percent.

Table 5.16 Community and Expenditure Poverty

			Expenditure Poor		Total
			No	Yes	
Caste/Community	Pulayan	Count	168	26	194
		% within Caste/Community	86.6%	13.4%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	93	16	109
		% within Caste/Community	85.3%	14.7%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	35	10	45
		% within Caste/Community	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	23	8	31
		% within Caste/Community	74.2%	25.8%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	27	5	32
		% within Caste/Community	84.4%	15.6%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	27	5	32
		% within Caste/Community	84.4%	15.6%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	44	13	57
		% within Caste/Community	77.2%	22.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	417	83	500
		% within Caste/Community	83.4%	16.6%	100.0%

Figure 5.7 Community-wise Income and Expenditure Poverty



Even though difference in terms of community is visible from the results, the difference is not so significant as per the Chi-Square Tables 5.17 and 5.18.

Table 5.17 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.331[a]	6	.887
Likelihood Ratio	2.311	6	.889
Linear-by-Linear Association	.788	1	.375
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.32.

Table 5.18 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.279[a]	6	.393
Likelihood Ratio	5.941	6	.430
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.897	1	.089
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.15.

5.4 Relative Poverty using Decomposition Method

To estimate the relative poverty among the different SC groups, a Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) Poverty Index has been worked out using the additive or the decomposition method. Household MPCE levels are considered to evaluate the relative poverty district-wise and community-wise. The decomposition method helps to identify the relative position of each sub-group in terms of poverty. It also helps to weigh the level of assistance (subsidy, grants, etc.) required to enhance their consumption level and thereby help them to escape from the poverty threshold. This will prove useful in framing effective poverty alleviation and other welfare oriented policy options in the future. Incidence of Poverty Index or Head Count

Index (HCI) and Relative Incidence of Poverty have also been computed so as to work out the FGT. Appraising the depth (PGI) and severity of poverty (SPGI) is important in designing plans aimed at reducing the number of people living below the poverty line.

The general form of FGT index is:

$$P(\alpha) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left[1-\frac{X_i}{\pi}\right]^{\alpha}$$

When $\alpha = 0$ ---------- $P(\alpha = 0)$ – Head Count Index (HCI)

$\alpha = 1$ ---------- $P(\alpha = 1)$ – Poverty Gap Index (PGI)

$\alpha = 2$ ---------- $P(\alpha = 2)$ – Poverty Severity Index (SPGI)

The higher the value of α, the greater is the sensitivity of the measure to the well-being of the worst off. An inter-zone comparison of the FGT is given in Table 5.19. South zone is the worst performer in terms of all the poverty indicators, followed by the North zone. The relative incidence is more than 1 for both these zones. The central zone has better indicator scores.

Table 5.19 Inter Zone FGT

Zone	non-poor	poor	Total	% Poor	Incidence of Poverty (HCI)	Rel.inci.	PGI (Poverty depth)	SPGI (Poverty severity)
South Zone	134	29	163	35	0.178	1.072	0.052	0.023
Central Zone	146	25	171	30	0.146	0.881	0.035	0.014
North Zone	137	29	166	35	0.175	1.052	0.037	0.018
Total	417	83	500	100	0.166	1.000	0.041	0.018

District-wise (Table 5.20), out of the total poor, the proportion of poor are the least in Ernakulam and Idukki. Kollam is the worst performer in terms of all the poverty indicators. Malappuram is the second in terms of HCI and

relative incidence. However, in terms of depth and severity, the Malappuram district is in the 6th and 7th positions respectively. Idukki is in the second position in terms of depth of poverty and Palakkad is the second position in terms of severity of poverty. In terms of poverty severity, Kollam, Palakkad and Idukki are in the first three positions and Ernakulam is in the sixth position. However, the difference between Malappuram and Ernakulam is 0.001 in terms of severity.

Table 5.20 District and FGT

District	non-poor	poor	Total	% Poor	Incidence of Poverty (HCI)	Rel.inci.	PGI (Poverty depth)	SPGI (Poverty severity)
Thiruvananthapuram	74	13	87	16	0.149	0.900	0.035	0.010
Kollam	60	16	76	19	0.211	1.268	0.071	0.037
Ernakulam	55	7	62	8	0.113	0.680	0.022	0.006
Idukki	27	7	34	8	0.206	1.240	0.056	0.023
Thrissur	64	11	75	13	0.147	0.884	0.036	0.017
Palakkad	80	14	94	17	0.149	0.897	0.044	0.027
Malappuram	57	15	72	18	0.208	1.255	0.028	0.005
Total	417	83	500	100	0.166	1.000	0.041	0.018

The community-wise poverty decomposition results are sho

wn in Table 5.21. The Parayan, Kanakkan and Kuravan have the highest values in terms of incidence and relative incidence. In terms of PGI, Kuravan is the worst performer followed by Parayan and Kanakkan. Kanakkan drops to fifth in terms of severity and Vettuvan occupies the third worst performer score. The Thandan who is in the fourth in terms of HCI and relative incidence has improved to better performer in terms of PGI and SPGI.

Table 5.21 Community and FGT

Community	non-poor	poor	Total	% Poor	Incidence of Poverty (HCI)	Rel.inci.	PGI (Poverty depth)	SPGI (Poverty severity)
Pulayan	168	26	194	31	0.134	0.807	0.033	0.012
Cheruman	93	16	109	19	0.147	0.884	0.032	0.018
Kuravan	35	10	45	12	0.222	1.339	0.085	0.049
Paraiyan	23	8	31	10	0.258	1.555	0.055	0.023
Thandan	27	5	32	6	0.156	0.941	0.032	0.008
Vettuvan	27	5	32	6	0.156	0.941	0.044	0.019
Kanakkan	44	13	57	16	0.228	1.374	0.046	0.017
Total	417	83	500	100	0.166	1.000	0.041	0.018

5.5 Residential Segregation Impact

The SCs mostly live in colonies with a segregated setup. In most cases, each sub- community has its own colony. These colonies lack basic facilities and hence it acts as an impediment to development of the SC groups. This is the reason for not having access to services and other amenities like healthcare, education, electricity and water supply, transportation, etc.

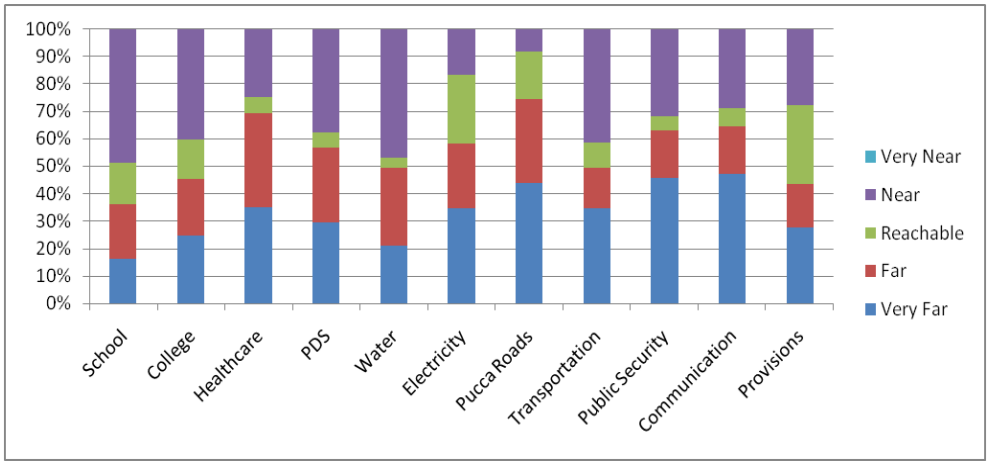
5.5.1 Access to Basic Services

The access to basic services like the educational institutions, healthcare, rationing, utilities, roads and transportations, etc. are done by categorizing these into a 4 point-scale, viz. near, reachable, far and very far. Table 5.22 and Figure 5.8 show that educational institutions, water supply and transportation are available nearby for most of the households. Public security, health care and pucca roads are unavailable for more than 40 percent of the households surveyed. Nearly 70 percent of the households feel that access to health care is very far or far. None of the household has recorded that the access to these 11 services that are very near to their household or colony. The results testify that the access to basic services is a difficult issue for the SCs living in a colonized/segregated setup. Despite several programmes and scheme for the welfare of the SC communities and their colonies, lack of proper implementation by the authorities show that the fund utilization has not been properly done.

Table 5.22 Access to Services

	School	College	Healthcare	PDS	Water	Electricity	Pucca Road	Transportation	Public Security	Communication	Provisions
Very Far	16.2%	24.6%	35.0%	29.4%	21.0%	34.6%	43.8%	34.8%	45.6%	47.4%	27.8%
Far	19.8%	20.8%	34.4%	27.6%	28.4%	23.8%	30.6%	14.8%	17.6%	17.0%	15.8%
Reachable	15.4%	14.4%	5.8%	5.4%	3.6%	25.0%	17.6%	9.2%	5.2%	7.0%	28.8%
Near	48.6%	40.2%	24.8%	37.6%	47.0%	16.6%	8.0%	41.2%	31.6%	28.6%	27.6%
Very Near	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Figure 5.8 Access to Services



The basic access indicators discussed above are considered to be an index for measuring the facilities of the colony or settlements by categorizing them into – difficult to access, moderate access and good access. An inter-regional evaluation of these facilities is done which is illustrated in Table 5.23. Idukki, Palakkad and Wayanad districts have more proportion of responses in the difficult to access category. The households in Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Thrissur have majority of responses in good access category. In fact, nearly 60 percent of the households have good index score in terms of access to facilities. Similarly nearly 68 percent of the households in Idukki have difficulty in accessing the facilities. To test the Null Hypothesis that the ***"Access to facilities is same across the categories of District"***, Kruskal-Wallis test is performed. Based on the test results, the Null Hypothesis is rejected. This is depicted in Figure 5.9.

Table 5.23 District and Access to Facilities

			Access to facilities			Total
			Difficult to access	Moderate access	Good Access	
District	Thiruvananthapuram	Count	14	34	39	87
		% within District	16.1%	39.1%	44.8%	100.0%
	Kollam	Count	26	31	19	76
		% within District	34.2%	40.8%	25.0%	100.0%
	Ernakulam	Count	14	11	37	62
		% within District	22.6%	17.7%	59.7%	100.0%
	Idukki	Count	23	9	2	34
		% within District	67.6%	26.5%	5.9%	100.0%
	Thrissur	Count	16	28	31	75
		% within District	21.3%	37.3%	41.3%	100.0%
	Palakkad	Count	43	37	14	94
		% within District	45.7%	39.4%	14.9%	100.0%
	Wayanad	Count	37	32	3	72
		% within District	51.4%	44.4%	4.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	173	182	145	500
		% within District	34.6%	36.4%	29.0%	100.0%

Figure 5.9 Kruskal-Wallis Test

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Access to facilities is the same across categories of District.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .0

A further comparison of the access to facilities based on districts is done with the aid of Correspondence Analysis. Table 5.24 shows the Correspondence Table and Table 5.25 depicts the summary results, which are significantly explained. Figure 5.10 shows the Correspondence Chart based on District for the Access Index.

Table 5.24 Correspondence Table

District	Access to facilities			
	Difficult to access	Moderate access	Good Access	Active Margin
Thiruvananthapuram	14	34	39	87
Kollam	26	31	19	76
Ernakulam	14	11	37	62
Idukki	23	9	2	34
Thrissur	16	28	31	75
Palakkad	43	37	14	94
Wayanad	37	32	3	72
Active Margin	173	182	145	500

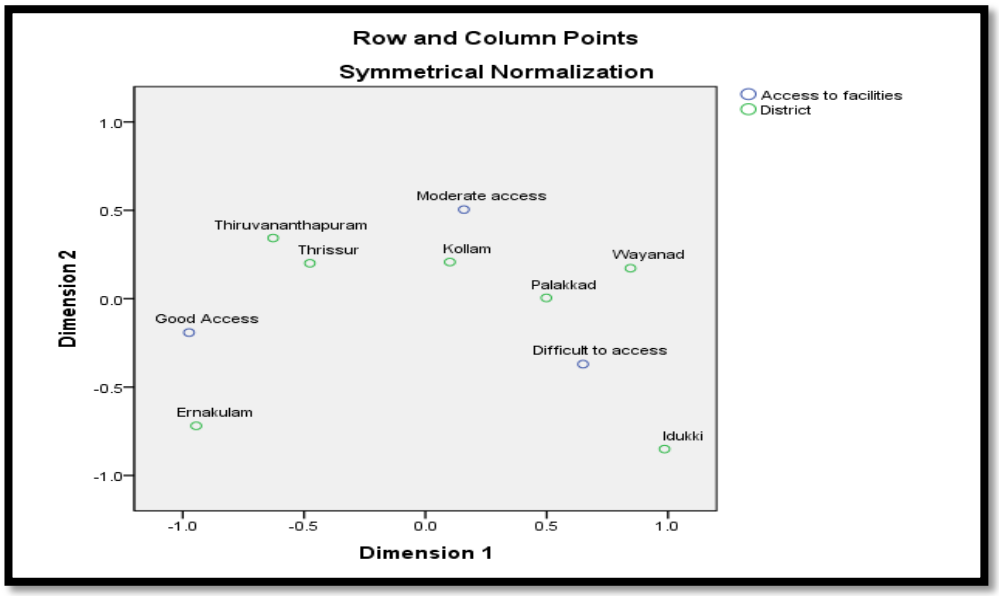
Table 5.25 Summary

Dimension	Singular Value	Inertia	Chi Square	Sig.	Proportion of Inertia		Confidence Singular Value	
					Accounted for	Cumulative	Standard Deviation	Correlation 2
1	.430	.185			.891	.891	.037	.063
2	.151	.023			.109	1.000	.040	
Total		.208	103.956	.000[a]	1.000	1.000		

a. 12 degrees of freedom

The district-wise difference is evident from the Correspondence Chart results. Ernakulam is closer to good access. Thiruvananthapuram and Thrissur are between good and moderate access. Wayanad, Palakkad and Idukki are closer to the difficult to access point.

Figure 5.10 District and Access to Facilities



The difference is visible also based on sub-community (Table 5.26). The Pulayan, Thandan and Vettuvan(44.3 percent, 46.9 percent and 50 percent) are the communities living in colonies with better access to facilities Index. However, 37.5 percent of the Thandan households live in colonies where it is difficult to access the services. The Cherumanhas the worst indicators or are living in colonies with difficulty to access. Most of the Parayan households have moderate access (48.4 percent). To test the Null Hypothesis that the "Access to facilities is same across the Community", Kruskal-Wallis test is performed. Based on the test results, the Null Hypothesis is rejected. This is depicted in Figure 5.11.

Table 5.26 Community and Access to Facilities

			Access to facilities			Total
			Difficult to access	Moderate access	Good Access	
Caste/ Community	Pulayan	Count	45	63	86	194
		% within Caste/Community	23.2%	32.5%	44.3%	100.0%
	Cheruman	Count	58	40	11	109
		% within Caste/Community	53.2%	36.7%	10.1%	100.0%
	Kuravan	Count	15	22	8	45
		% within Caste/Community	33.3%	48.9%	17.8%	100.0%
	Paraiyan	Count	13	15	3	31
		% within Caste/Community	41.9%	48.4%	9.7%	100.0%
	Thandan	Count	12	5	15	32
		% within Caste/Community	37.5%	15.6%	46.9%	100.0%
	Vettuvan	Count	8	8	16	32
		% within Caste/Community	25.0%	25.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Kanakkan	Count	22	29	6	57
		% within Caste/Community	38.6%	50.9%	10.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	173	182	145	500
		% within Caste/Community	34.6%	36.4%	29.0%	100.0%

Figure 5.11 Kruskal Wallis Test

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Access to facilities is the same across categories of Community.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .0

The community-wise Correspondence Table and Summary results are shown in Tables 5.27 and 5.28. The summary results are significant. Correspondence chart for community and access is shown in Figure 5.12. The Vettuvan and Pulayan are close to good access. The Thandan is between difficult and good access points. The Cheruman is close to difficult access. The Kuravan, Kanakkan and Parayan are close to moderate access point.

Table 5.27 Correspondence

Caste/Community	Access to facilities			
	Difficult to access	Moderate access	Good Access	Active Margin
Pulayan	45	63	86	194
Cheruman	58	40	11	109
Kuravan	15	22	8	45
Paraiyan	13	15	3	31
Thandan	12	5	15	32
Vettuvan	8	8	16	32
Kanakkan	22	29	6	57
Active Margin	173	182	145	500

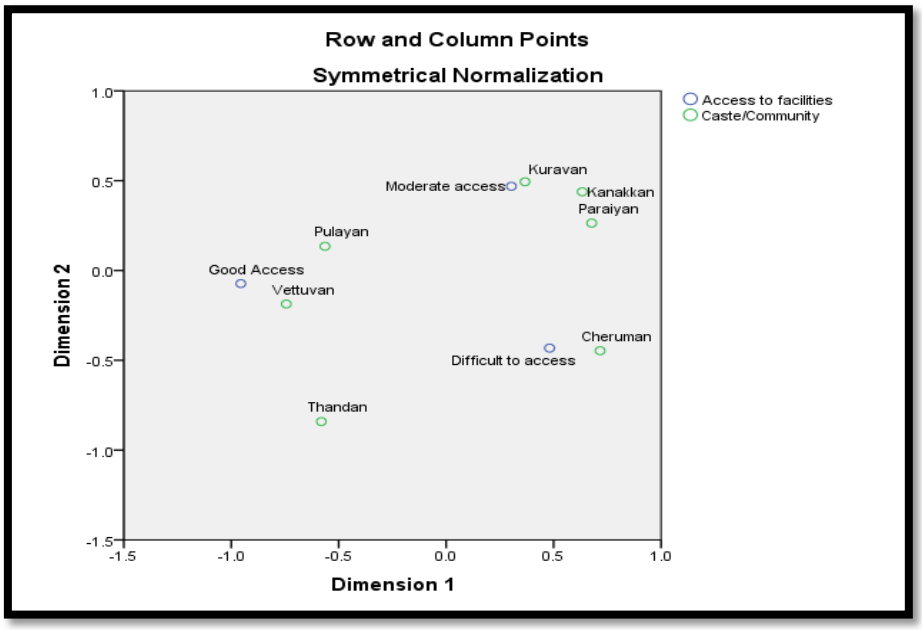
Table 5.28 Summary

Dimension	Singular Value	Inertia	Chi Square	Sig.	Proportion of Inertia		Confidence Singular Value	
					Accounted for	Cumulative	Standard Deviation	Correlation 2
1	.378	.143			.870	.870	.038	.010
2	.146	.021			.130	1.000	.045	
Total		.165	82.299	.000[a]	1.000	1.000		

a. 12 degrees of freedom

An inter-district and community-wise comparison of the Access to Facilities Index shows conflicting results with some communities are having better access to services. Unlike poverty and inequality, the differences based on community as well as region are evident from the results. Even though only some of the SC groups have reaped the benefits of reservation in jobs and attained better livelihood options, the difference is minimal as they are living in a segregated set-up, most of them live in close proximity with the mainstream population. The condition of SCs is different from the Scheduled Tribes where in terms of headcount poverty and other indicators studies have found clear inter-group disparity and forward-backward dichotomy (Rajasenan, 2014; Rajasenan, et. al, 2017; Rajasenan and Rajeev, 2018). For the SCs, the community wise difference is seen for the SLI and household access and poverty and inequality levels are almost similar.

Figure 5.12 Correspondence Chart: Community and Access



5.6 Inter-Generational SLI

The household living standard is evaluated on a generational basis to identify the temporal shifts across three generations (3G-third generation or present household head, 2G-second generation or father of the household head and 1G-first generation or grandfather of the household head). The household head or respondent is asked to record the SLI of each generation on a three point scale viz. low SLI, medium SLI and high SLI.

The inter-generational living standards show marked difference in the SLI across three generations (Table 5.29). Majority in the 1st generation are in the low SLI category and only 25.7 percent are in the medium SLI category. When we move to the 2nd generation, even though majority are in the low SLI, the proportion of households in the high SLI has increased to 38.3 percent compared to only 25.7 percent in the 1st generation. Only 2 percent of the households are in the high SLI category in the 2nd generation.

With regard to the present generation households, 58.6 percent are in the medium SLI category. However, only 6.8 percent are in the high SLI and remaining 34.6 percent are in the low SLI. The Null Hypothesis ***"Distribution of SLI is same across categories of Generation"*** is tested using Kruskal-Wallis Test (Figure 5.13). The results are significant and hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 5.29 Generation and SLI

			SLI			Total
			Low SLI	Medium SLI	High SLI	
Generation1	1G	Count	52	18	0	70
		% within Generation1	74.3%	25.7%	0.0%	100.0%
	2G	Count	159	102	5	266
		% within Generation1	59.8%	38.3%	1.9%	100.0%
	3G	Count	173	293	34	500
		% within Generation1	34.6%	58.6%	6.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	384	413	39	836
		% within Generation1	45.9%	49.4%	4.7%	100.0%

Figure 5.13 Kruskal-Wallis Test

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of SLI is the same across categories of Generation.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

A further comparison of SLI and the generation is done using correspondence analysis. Table 5.30 shows the Correspondence Table and Table 5.31 depicts the summary table. The result of this is significantly related. The results are illustrated with the aid of Correspondence Chart in Figure 5.14. 1st and 2nd generation are closer to low SLI point. 3rd generation is near to medium SLI. The results show a clear improvement in the SLI

across generations. However it is a fact that there is still room for improvement as those in the high SLI are very less.

Table 5.30 Correspondence Table

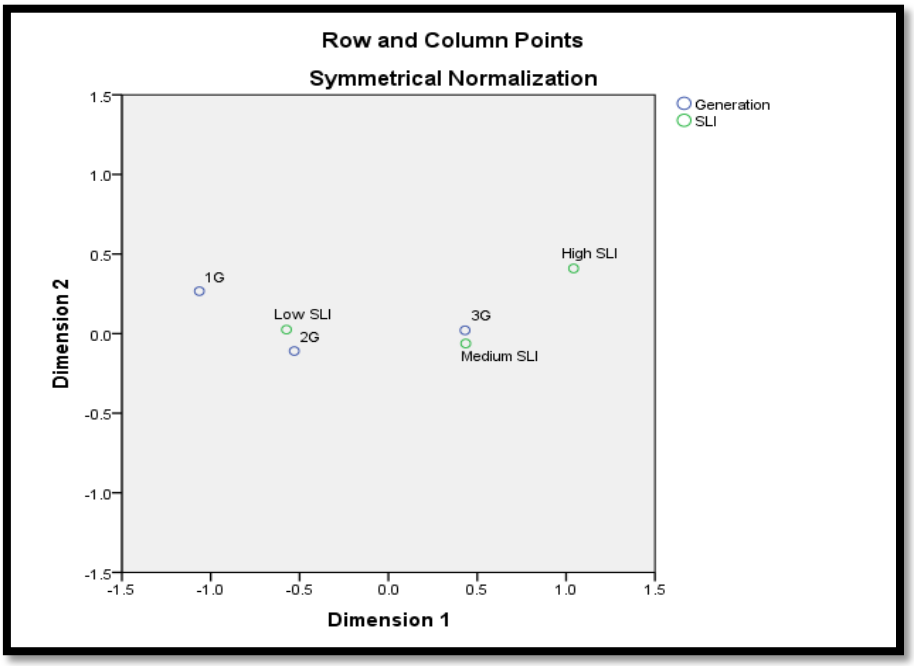
Generation	SLI			
	Low SLI	Medium SLI	High SLI	Active Margin
1G	52	18	0	70
2G	159	102	5	266
3G	173	293	34	500
Active Margin	384	413	39	836

Table 5.31 Summary

Dimension	Singular Value	Inertia	Chi Square	Sig.	Proportion of Inertia		Confidence Singular Value	
					Accounted for	Cumulative	Standard Deviation	Correlation 2
1	.295	.087			.999	.999	.032	.152
2	.010	.000			.001	1.000	.019	
Total		.087	72.996	.000[a]	1.000	1.000		

a. 4 degrees of freedom

Figure 5.14 Correspondence Chart: Generation and SLI



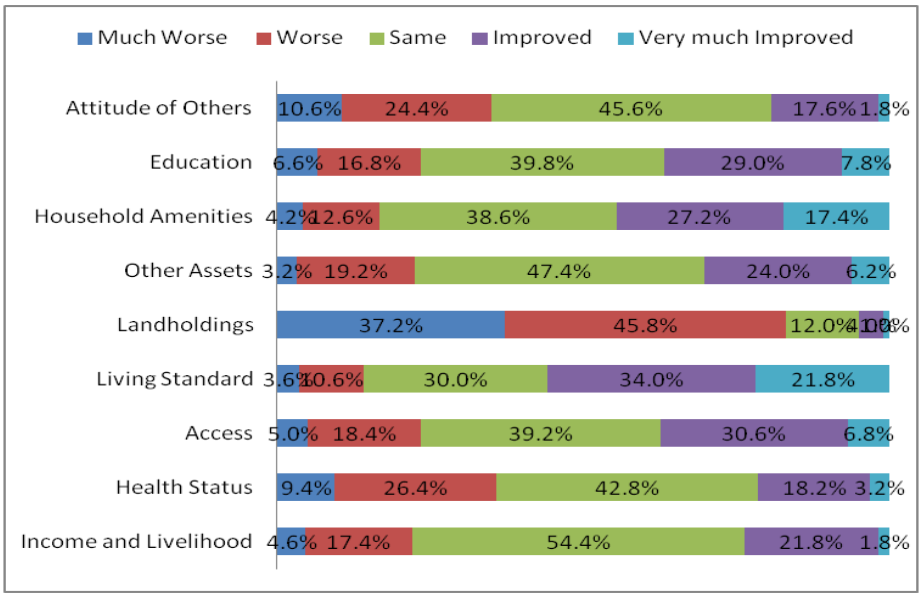
5.7 Development Dynamics

The dynamics of development over a period of 20 years is evaluated by recording the perception firstly after recording whether the situation is better or worse than 20 years ago by recording the perception on a five point scale. The responses were recorded based on the perception of either the household head or the eldest member of the households. The improvement parameters compared to the 20 year period for nine of the indicators have been recorded in the five point scale (Much Worse, Worse, Same, Improved and Very Much Improved). In most of the cases, old and the same implies that situation was worse 20 years ago and has remained same at present as well. The results are shown in Figure 5.15. Livelihood options for the SCs are similar during the last 20 year period for 54.4 percent of the respondents. For 21.8 percent it has improved and 17.4 percent have perceived that the situation is worse compared to the earlier period. Household assets are important in determining the household economic development. However, for 47.4 percent the asset holding pattern is old and the same and for 30 percent the asset holding has improved. The living standards have improved for 55.8 percent, whereas for 30 percent it has remained old and the same. Access has also shown an improvement for 37.4 percent but has remained same for 39.2 percent. Land is one of the major asset classes and according to the data the land holding pattern is worse than before for the majority. This is because the value of land has gone up and also the procurement of land has become difficult for the households. While the health status is same for 43 percent of the respondents, for 35.8 percent it is worse than before whereas for 21.4 percent the situation has improved. Educational status has improved or stayed the same for the majority. Attitude of the mainstream society to the SCs has remained same (45.6 percent) and worsened for 35

percent of the respondents. This implies that the SCs still face social exclusion from the mainstream.

The results show that the condition of the SCs has been miserable compared to 20 year period situation, where most of the attributes have remained unchanged or even worsened (land holdings). This has happened despite numerous schemes and programmes and development assistance provided to the SCs. While some of the benefits of development has reached the SCs, a marked change in the overall living standards, asset holding, livelihood, education and health has not happened as well as the exclusion and deprivation they face from the mainstream society has not reduced. The situation warrants for a thorough examination of the development schemes to see whether they have got the desired results.

Figure 5.15 Development Dynamics



5.8 Present Level of Exclusion

The marginalized group like the SCs face exclusion and deprivation in multi-facet angles be it social, financial, exclusion in terms of amenities, employment exclusion, health and education exclusion, etc. The SCs were asked whether they face exclusion due to their colonized living pattern. The multi-facet impact of exclusion is evaluated for the SCs with the aid of Binary Logistic Regression (BLR) model. The classification table shows that from 62.4 percent initially (Table 5.32), the full model correctly predicts 85.2 percent (Table 5.33) face exclusion. The statistical significance of the model is validated with the aid of Tables 5.34 and 5.35. The performance of the model in Table 5.35 using Omnibus test shows a P value of 0.000 and hence it can be inferred that the overall model is statistically significant. The pseudo r-square statistics values in Table 5.36 indicate that more variation is explained by the model to a maximum of 1. Table 5.37 shows that except for health, all the variables are significant for the SCs. Exclusion in terms of lack of amenities, social exclusion and lack of assets have the highest Wald score and has been a form of exclusion for the SCs. Access and SLI are also factors determining exclusion of the SCs.

The results show the sorry state of the SCs in terms of exclusion and deprivation they experience. Social exclusion is a major problem faced by the SCs. They still feel that other community members do not treat them equally or with respect. Lack of access to amenities, low asset holdings, lack of livelihood options and low living standards are also some problems. The backwardness in terms of education is a major reason impacts them in the form of the above issues. The land holding pattern is also a cause of concern. Most of the houses in the SC colonies have limited area of land holdings. Any expansion or construction activity is not possible for them.

Due to lack of income and livelihood as well as due to lack of formal credit, they cannot afford purchasing land outside their settlement which is costly. Another issue is with regard to the health status. Living in a colonized setup together with lack of basic amenities, proper drinking water, drainage, etc. would imply that the household members are prone to health hazards and epidemic. Consumption of alcohol, smoking and chewing of tobacco was also identified. However, it seems that the members do not perceive that they are ill and hence the variable health is not significant.

Table 5.32 Classification Table[a,b]

	Observed		Predicted		
			Overall Exclusion		Percentage Correct
			No	Yes	
Step 0	Overall Exclusion	No	0	188	.0
		Yes	0	312	100.0
	Overall Percentage				62.4

a. Constant is included in the model.
b. The cut value is .500

Table 5.33 Classification Table[a]

	Observed		Predicted		
			Overall Exclusion		Percentage Correct
			No	Yes	
Step 1	Overall Exclusion	No	148	40	78.7
		Yes	34	278	89.1
	Overall Percentage				85.2

a. The cut value is .500

Table 5.34 Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	.507	.092	30.103	1	.000	1.660

Table 5.35 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	301.859	9	.000
	Block	301.859	9	.000
	Model	301.859	9	.000

Table 5.36 Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	360.213[a]	.453	.617

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 6 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 5.37 Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1[a]	Li_e	1.151	.380	9.189	1	.002	3.162
	Ac_e	1.337	.386	11.986	1	.001	3.809
	Ami_e	1.952	.319	37.343	1	.000	7.042
	Land_e	.727	.273	7.070	1	.008	2.068
	Asset_e	1.513	.316	22.923	1	.000	4.542
	Health_e	.044	.648	.005	1	.945	1.045
	Sli_e	1.055	.319	10.949	1	.001	2.871
	Edu_e	1.186	.404	8.606	1	.003	3.275
	Soc_e	1.656	.290	32.533	1	.000	5.239
	Constant	-2.339	.266	77.366	1	.000	.096

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Li_e, Ac_e, Ami_e, Land_e, Asset_e, Health_e, Sli_e, Edu_e, Soc_e.

5.9 Problems of SCs

To identify the major problems faced by the SCs 10 statements relating to the issues of SCs due to their colonized living are recorded on a five point scale and Factor Analysis is performed. The KMO score closer to 1 is considered to be good for estimating FA. The test value of 0.842 (Table 5.38) is higher than the generally accepted minimum score. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is also significant. Variability is shown via communalities in Table 5.39.

Table 5.38 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1623.447
	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.39 Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Discrimination due to caste/community	1.000	.790
No better social life	1.000	.785
Denial of Services like Loan	1.000	.614
Lack of basic amenities	1.000	.670
Lack of clean surroundings	1.000	.667
Lack of proper housing	1.000	.438
Less Security for the members	1.000	.313
Low education	1.000	.774
Low income and livelihood options	1.000	.758
Lack of infrastructure	1.000	.521

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

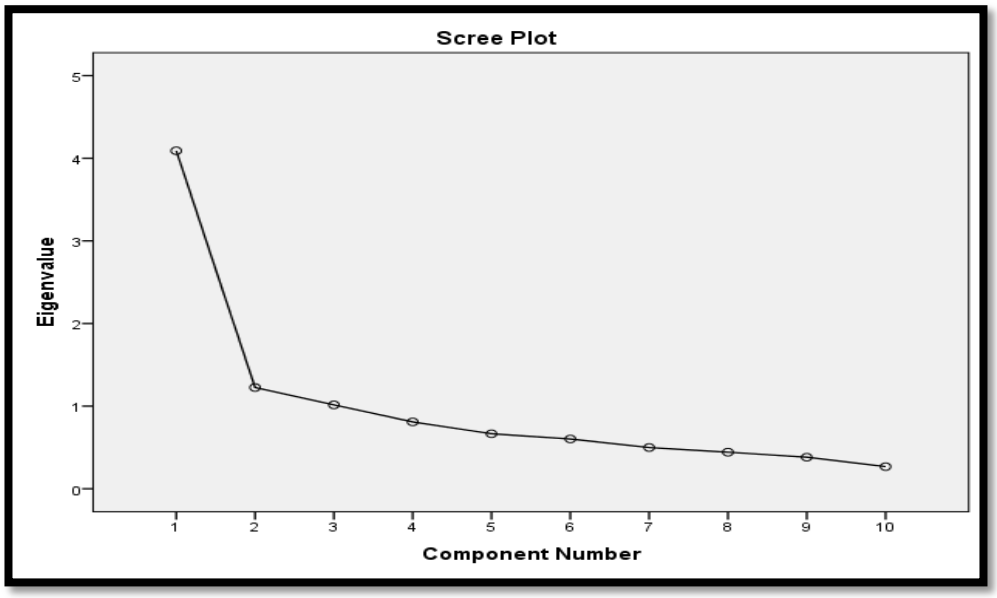
As per the Total Variance Explained in Table 5.40, three factors with eigen values of more than 1 were extracted which accounted for 63 percent of the total variance. In the rotated solution the first three factors account for 24.261 percent, 21.509 percent and 17.538 percent of the total variance, respectively. The Scree plot for the same is depicted in Figure 5.16.

Table 5.40 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.090	40.903	40.903	4.090	40.903	40.903	2.426	24.261	24.261
2	1.225	12.252	53.155	1.225	12.252	53.155	2.151	21.509	45.770
3	1.015	10.153	63.308	1.015	10.153	63.308	1.754	17.538	63.308
4	.809	8.093	71.400						
5	.666	6.655	78.056						
6	.603	6.027	84.083						
7	.499	4.993	89.076						
8	.442	4.425	93.501						
9	.382	3.820	97.320						
10	.268	2.680	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 5.16 Scree Plot



The Component Matrix is shown in Table 5.41. Since the results are inconclusive the rotated solution is worked out and the results are depicted in Table 5.42. Table 5.43 shows the Component Transformation Matrix. The first two statements in Factor 1 shows the social exclusion and discrimination faced by the SCs and the third statement in the first factor shows the financial implications of living in a segregated and excluded setup. Lack of amenities, cleanliness, housing facilities and infrastructure are four statements featuring as second factor. Lack of education and livelihood options feature as the third factor.

Table 5.41 Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Discrimination due to caste/community	.735	-.391	-.311
No better social life	.732	-.402	-.296
Denial of Services like Loan	.712	-.284	-.164
Lack of basic amenities	.563	.076	.589
Lack of clean surroundings	.698	-.047	.422
Lack of proper housing	.605	-.019	.268
Less Security for the members	.512	.091	-.208
Low education	.547	.617	-.308
Low income and livelihood options	.548	.655	-.169
Lack of infrastructure	.690	.062	.204

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 3 components extracted.

Table 5.42 Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Discrimination due to caste/community	.861	.189	.117
No better social life	.857	.199	.102
Denial of Services like Loan	.712	.295	.141
Lack of basic amenities	.043	.812	.095
Lack of clean surroundings	.283	.758	.114
Lack of proper housing	.281	.579	.153
Less Security for the members	.387	.149	.376
Low education	.158	.106	.859
Low income and livelihood options	.069	.217	.840
Lack of infrastructure	.321	.583	.280

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 5.43 Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.661	.608	.441
2	-.573	.028	.819
3	-.486	.794	-.366

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

The results very well portray the exclusion and deprivation faced by the SCs. The SCs often face discrimination and exclusion based on caste and their social life in terms of interaction with other community members is minimal. Even though financial inclusion of the marginalised has been part of the development agenda put forth by the government through banks and other financial institutions, getting formal credit is still a cumbersome process for them due to lack of assets like land, gold, etc. Basic amenities are lacking. Lack of proper infrastructure and proper housing are also some issues. Most of the SC colonies are packed with no proper drainage and other facilities which is the reason why the respondents have perceived about the lack of cleanliness. Dropouts is a major cause of concern and hence despite the reservation in government jobs, those working in government sector are very less. In the government sector, the SC employment is confined mostly to low level jobs. This is the main reason for lack of sound livelihood options.

The exclusion dynamics of the SC explanation in Chapter 5 shows that all the sub-communities of the SCs face exclusion in all the levels. The Pulayan sub-community shows minor increase in the per-capita income and also per-capita expenditure stages. It also shows minor variation in the equality with in three zones. The low Gini coefficient ratio of all the sub-communities explains similar earning capacities and does not show much inequality among the sub-groups. Income and expenditure poverty also shows a mixed picture in the three zones. However, it is slightly better in the central zone with respect to income and expenditure poverty, as it is showing some positive signs of employment and earning levels in the central zone. It is interesting to infer that other than the Parayan and Kanakkan sub-groups, all other sub-communities have income poverty more

than expenditure poverty in poverty based on FGT analysis . The dynamics associated with housing segregation shows that the Pulayan, Thandan and Vettuvan sub-communities have better access to facilities than other sub-communities of the SC groups. The development dynamics gives the reality that the SC community is still in the backward and excluded situations. This needs a post mortem of the development schemes as the Binary Logistic Model used for evaluating the development dynamics shows that 60 to 82 percent of the SC communities still face exclusion and are out of the ambit of development process in the state.

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Chapter 6

Conclusions and Policy Options

The thesis, with the help of primary and secondary data, gives a comprehensive picture of the Scheduled Caste community of Kerala in five chapters. It explains clearly that the socio-economic indicators of the SC community are comparatively poor in tandem with other social groups in Kerala. They are not only poor and backward but a socially excluded community and thereby preventing them from the income generating activities for generating a sustainable livelihood and asset creation for ushering in any kind of dynamics in income growth and development so as to fit properly in a growing economy like that of Kerala. Hence, chapter 6 is coined to elicit the conclusion of the study in an area specific approach.

6.1 Basic Indicators

Educationally attainment of the SCs showed that they were lagging behind in both the school and higher education levels. It showed that about 35 percent of the SC children attended primary schools. Even though the pace was slow, the positive trend showed good sign. Kerala is blessed with education institutions in the level of primary schools in every location irrespective of SC or ST colonies. The situation varies in the case of secondary education as the SCs have to travel more than 5 kms from their colonies and this creates a situation of high levels of dropouts. But in the technical and medical field the trend is not appreciable for developing the SCs to obtain a decent job for a better livelihood. Their share percentages in the engineering and medicine are respectively 0.05 per cent and 0.01.

The health care system based on the so called 'American Model' of health care giving thrust to ability to pay criterion with many private hospitals with all kind of facilities, really impacted the health care system of the marginalised communities like the SCs of Kerala. The ailment statistics showed pathetic situation of the SCs as about 10 percent of them were showing symptoms of chronic diseases. In the sample districts the situation of the SCs were highly problematic, as many were having mental and differentially abled diseases. The reason for the perilous situation of the SCs was because of their dependency of the public health care system, which lacked facilities compared the private system.

In the case of land the SCs faced the big challenge in Kerala. Major part of SC land area was used for constructing houses. Other than these purposes about 11 percent of the land area was used for other purposes. It is true that historical practises and customary rules hinder the SCs to own lands. Another reason was the shift of the SCs from agricultural to manual work and this was the reason for the deprivation and exclusion of the SCs in the state. SCs did not possess the percentage land share and most of the SCs in the state held less than 10 cents of land on an average.

Most of the housing schemes, both central and state governments had not been helpful in providing the SCs safe and liveable houses. Majority of SCs houses were unliveable and this showed the need for concerted attention on the part of policy makers for effective implementation of both the central and state housing schemes effectively.

SC participation in MGNREGS showed a declining trend in comparison to the non-SCs. Data during the period 2014-15 showed that the total SC work days was 17.40 percent only, which was close to the state

percentage. But a change was noticed in the period 2016-17 to 17 percent from 17.40. The declining trend continued in the period 2017-18 to 16.2 percent. Though it was a poverty eradication scheme, the community with high poverty rate had been excluded from the new path of development of the poor.

The main cause of concern of the SCs in the state has been the availability of potable water. About one third of the SC families have own source of drinking water from the well. About 16 percent of the SCs depended on public tap water for drinking and cooking and most of the SCs did not have the habit of rain water harvesting. In the colonised living pattern, they have a public well for a group and about 18 percent of the families used private well and, in some colonies, there was pipeline connection for drinking water purposes and about 26 percent of the SC families used these pipelines. The usage of river, stream, pond water sources in comparison to the ST families were rarely used by the SC community.

Sample districts evaluation showed that Thiruvananthapuram has better accessibility with respect to public utility facilities in comparison to other districts. Data showed that electricity office, agriculture office, veterinary hospital etc. were located within 5 kms distance. The situation was entirely different in Idukki district as most of the public utility institutions were located away from 10-25 kms. This might be due to the topography of the district.

SC colonies faced the problem of electricity connection. Electrification process faced many challenges owing to logistical challenges in making electricity available in various settlement and colonies. It showed that 84 percent of the SC houses had been electrified. In a state targeting for

100 percent electrification in each village the gap of 16 percent in the SC household was really untenable.

The SCs in Kerala lagged behind the states sanitation achievement. Several reasons were cited for the non-availability of toilets, the important one was non-availability of land (3 percent) and other was the financial difficulties

In the case of urban or rural settlements of SCs, a pattern of segregated living was identified. The SCs are totally unhappy with this sorry state of affairs and the disillusionment became visible in their land struggle organised at 'Arippa', demanding land not for developing colonies but for agricultural activities to generate a perpetual livelihood. The colonisation process was well explained and showed that the number of SC colonies was more in Palakkad (16.46 percent), Malappuram (11.78 percent), Thrissur and Thiruvananthapuram (11 percent each). But the colonized nature of living of the SC was seemed to be less in the districts of Wayanad, Kannur and Kasaragod.

It showed that majority of the families (61.26 percent) of the SCs were segregated in Kerala. The percentage in district-wise was Palakkad (80 percent), Pathanamthitta (72 percent) and Thiruvananthapuram (71 percent). But Family-wise segregation distribution was less found in the districts of Kannur, Kasaragod and Wayanad. The basic reason identified for this pathetic nature of segregation was the result of the low land holding nature and poverty. Inter-community and intra-community segregations were also found to be important in terms of segregation level evaluations. This has been identified in terms of colony pattern or isolated patterns. The intra-

community vicissitudes at the sub-community levels showed important inferences for explaining the forces of segregation.

Among the various SC sub-communities of Kerala, the Pulayan sub-caste in the community became the predominant community in Ernakulam, Thiruvananthapuram and Thrissur district. The three SC sub-communities like the Cheruman, Kanakkan and the Panan were located in the districts of Palakkad, Thrissur, while the Kuravan (40 percent) and Thandan with 30 percent were seen mostly concentrated in Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram. Two SC communities like the Mannan and the Parayyan were very few in Kerala. The two SC communities of Pallan (84 percent) and Vettuvan (85 percent) were mostly distributed in Idukki and Thrissur districts. The SC sub-community of Kanakkan was distributed mostly in Malappuram.

6.2 Development Schemes

In various development schemes several SC members had been benefited and the amount spent for these schemes were substantial. In the area of housing about Rs 1024 crores had been spent for the period 2012-17, benefitting 35790 families with new houses. In the case of renovating the houses the schemes helped to benefit 20000 families and the scheme meant for the land to the landless benefitted about 17454 families who were getting about Rs 521 crores. Grants for various treatment under the plan period benefitted about 80000 persons, in the case of marriage assistance about 4000 families have been benefited with Rs 200 crores. In the free laptop scheme 10000 students were benefitted. In the case of self-sufficient village scheme 495 villages got benefit of about Rs 210.32 crores which included basic facilities like roads, drinking water, electricity, biogas plants,

renovation of houses, waste management, drainage, footpath and income generating schemes etc.

The schemes that had been undertaken in the period 2016-17 included treatment grant, self-employment, construction of toilets, subsidy, honorarium to SC promoters and Vinjanvadi. The central allocation under the critical gap filing scheme was fully utilized by the state. In percentage basis about 90 percent of the funds had been utilized in the corresponding year.

In the financial year 2015-16 Rs 1370.46 crore had been given to LSGs on the basis of plan grant under SCSP. Year-wise inference showed that the fund allocated to LSGs for the year 2016-17 declined to 1345.03 crore. Block Panchayath got the major chunk of the fund under the SC development programmes for the Development Department for implementation rather than the LSGs.

Devolution of plan fund to the scheduled caste development was done on the basis of plan allocation to the department and the local governments. In this respect the centrally sponsored schemes and schemes that were included in State plans were implemented by the Scheduled Caste Development Department (SCDD) for the development of the SC population in the state. The schemes that were included in the SCSP encompasses education, economic, social and welfare activities of the scheduled caste and its development. In the year 2016-17 Rs 174.97 crores was set aside for giving land to landless families and thereby benefitting about 4465 persons. For the scheme for constructing houses to the SC families 4567 houses were constructed in 2016-17 and 5114 construction activities of the houses were in progress in the year 2017-18 (as on 31-08-

2017). Though, 5215 houses were sanctioned in the year 2015-16, only 1183 houses were constructed giving rise to one fifth of its achievement. An amount of Rs 265 crores have been allotted during the annual plan period of 2017-18 for partial completion of the houses and also for improving the dilatated houses. Financial assistance was provided for construction of houses, purchase of land and also for allied activities to vulnerable SC communities like Nayadi, Vedan, Kalladi and Chakliya/Arunthathiyar and the allocation for this purpose was Rs. 7,25,000 of which Rs 3.75 for buying 5 cents of land and 3.25 lakh for building houses.

The SCDD to overcome the difficult circumstances of inter-caste marriages gives Rs. 50,000 if one of them belongs to SC community. Financial assistance in this respect was given to the couples in a range of one to three years with a co-living certificate with restriction of annual income limit of Rs. 40,000. To overcome social discrimination of the SC community Protection of Civil Rights Act is ensured in the state by the department and in this respect to create awareness of the rights of the SCs department conducted awareness camps and seminars. They were also given training for generating awareness under the Prevention of Atrocities Acts. About 10523 SC girls had been benefitted for marriages during 2016-17, about 2322 SC students got laptop at free of cost through educational assistance schemes.

In the case of primary education SCDD provided daily food charges, learning materials and uniforms. This was given in the form of grant for the students at the rate of Rs. 30/- per daily as food charges, Rs. 300/- for uniforms and Rs. 150 as lump sum grant. In this scheme for the year 2016-17 about 323895 students had been benefitted with lumpsum grants. In addition to this, stipend was given to students of the Vulnerable SC groups

like Vedan, Nayadis and others. As special scholarship under CSS the students of the SC community studying in the 9th and 10th standards had also been given. Those studying in the unaided schools have the facility of reimbursement of their tuition fees up to 10th standard, if it were a government approved unaided school. To give better education facilities to the SC students starting from standard 5, the government ran 9 Model Residential Schools.

In the case of post metric education, the Department provided financial assistance through E-grants systems. Online facilities were provided through Akshaya Kendras. Along with the online application, it was also required to submit the copies of the original certificates to the District Scheduled Caste Development Officer through the head of the institution. The monthly grants in the plus 2 level were Rs. 900 for degree Rs 950 and post graduate course Rs 1250.

The government provided financial help for buying house plots for the poor and other eligible SCs at the rate of 5 cents of land in village area and 3 cents of land under Municipality and Corporation areas. For this the financial assistance was revised from 7500 to 3.75 lakh in village areas, 90000 to 4.5 lakh in Municipal areas and from one lakh to 6 lakh in Corporation areas and selection of beneficiaries are done by the Gramasabha. The amount allocated in this respect for the period 2015-16 was Rs 14967.96 lakh of which 14848 lakh Rs was utilized. This had benefitted 3736 SC persons. In the year 2016-17 the allotment for land purchase for the SCs had been increased to 17489 lakh giving benefits to 4465 SC persons. In the year 2017-18 also the scheme allocation and expenditure were at an increasing trend. About 1384 SC families have been allocated grants for purchasing land for the period 2017-18 (as on 31-08-

2017). In the housing scheme 226 families were given benefits for additional room.

6.3 Socio Economics

The level of illiteracy of the sample SC households were 11.3 percent. Graduates and above were less than 10 percent (9.5 percent). An inter-community difference was evident when the educational profile was analysed based on the SC community. It showed that illiterates were more among the Cheruman and Kanakkan. Kanakkan has only 2.6 percent of the graduates which was less compared to the overall percentage. The proportion of graduates was less among the Kuravan and Thandan as well. The percentage of graduates and illiterates were more among the females than the males.

The Sample data showed that 49 percent of the total members were employed, 20.8 percent are students and 15.8 percent were doing household chores. Unemployment rate was 1.8 percent and dropouts were 1.3 percent. Even though the unemployment rate and the dropout ratio were not alarming among the SC groups, the Cheruman and Kanakkan sub-communities have higher dropout ratios compared to others in the sample. Data showed that 62.8 percent of the males were employed compared to 35.7 percent females. As expected, the females were more in "doing household chores" category.

In spite of the fact that the dropout ratio and unemployment were low, the inferences from the field showed that full-time and secured employment was a myth among the majority. Majority (42.5 percent) of the SC community members were wage earners in the off-farm sector. Public sector and private-sector employment were 14.4 percent and 10 percent respectively. 12.4 percent employment were obtained from the employment guarantee scheme.

Self-employment was very less at 11.6 percent (total for self-employed farming, off-farming and animal-husbandry). Community-wise, the proportion of government employees were more among the Pulayan and Vettuvan community. Thandan and Vettuvan, along with Pulayan have more private sector employees. Near to 26 percent from the Parayan community relied on MNREGS as their main income earning avocation

SC community members were dismal in getting a regular employment and it was a major issue to most of the SCs. Land ownership among the SCs was very less and hence own agriculture activity was not carried out by most of the members. Employment pattern showed that most were working as wage laborer's and this was highly seasonal in nature. The irregular pattern of employment made their earning erratic and hence had a high toll on the household income levels. For the employment guarantee scheme as well, the number of days of employment were limited per year. Inferences from the field data showed that there was very less distinction between the main and subsidiary employment. The MNREGS scheme has been the prime subsidiary employment for the SCs.

It showed a difference in income earning levels based on gender. Overall, the average male income was more than the female income. However, among the Pulayan community, the mean income levels of females were more than the males. The Pulayan and Vettuvan have the highest mean income (Rs. 5802 and Rs. 5381) and the Kanakkan community has the lowest income of Rs. 3491. The difference based on urban regions and rural regions were visible. Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Thrissur have the high scores of average income and Idukki and Palakkad districts have lower scores. The average income for the three

districts was more than Rs. 5500 whereas the income for Idukki and Palakkad was Rs. 3576 and Rs. 3721.

The household head analysis showed that the majority i.e. 78.2 percent of the households are male headed. Most of the household heads were aged between 41 and 60 years (58.4 percent). Whereas, 26.4 percent were aged above 60 years. Only 2.2 percent are below 30 years and those between 31-40 years were 12 percent. With regard to the marital status, 78 percent of the household heads were married and only 2.4 percent are unmarried. Education profile of the household head displayed that the proportion of highly educated head of the households were very less as only 2.4 percent have an education of graduation and above. Illiteracy rate was high at 19.2 percent compared to 13.4 percent in the total sample. 72.4 percent of the heads were employed and 21.2 percent were unable to work. As was the case with overall household members, majority were wage laborer's in the off-farm sector and those in government and private sectors were only 9.1 percent and 5.2 percent of the total household heads. 11.9 percent of the household heads derived their income from the employment guarantee scheme. Self-employment was again less among the household heads. The average earning of the household head was Rs. 4407.

House ownership pattern showed that 94 percent of the households lived in own houses. Those living in rented/leased or relatives house were very less in the total sample. The house area was between 250-500 sq. ft for majority of the households in the sample. Households above 1000 sq. ft were very less in the sample. Government support was the major source for house construction for majority of the households. 67.4 percent of the houses have availed government fund for house construction. For 30.8 percent the main source for construction of house was own funds. Majority

of the houses were serviceable kutcha or semi-pucca or Kutcha (47.2 percent and 35.2 percent). Among these, only 10.8 percent of the houses were pucca. This indicated that, despite government assistance for house construction, the condition of houses was pathetic. This is because of the fact that the funds provided by the government were inadequate for constructing a proper habitable house considering the high cost of construction materials, high labour costs, etc. Majority of households have cement floor and brick walls (64.6 percent and 86.4 percent). The roofing material used was concrete for 53.2 percent of the houses and 29.2 percent of the houses has tiled roofs. 16.6 percent of the houses have no latrine facility. Only 15.8 percent of the houses have pucca latrines with water supply. 34.6 percent of houses have serviceable latrines and 33 percent have latrines with roof, wall and door.

Lack of proper sanitation facility resulted in several health hazards especially due to the fact that the SCs lived in a segregated and colonized setup. This would be a perfect condition for diseases relating to lack of proper sanitation. Public well/tap was the major source of drinking water for about 40.4 percent of the households. 37.4 percent have in-house pipe connection. Despite this, it was a fact that the supply of drinking water both through public tap as well as in the pipe connection in the SC colonies was largely erratic. Despite several drinking water schemes targeted specifically to cater to the needs of the SC colonies the fact remained that the supply of potable drinking water was a major issue of concern to the SC colonies. Lack of political will and attitude of the government officials is a major reason. Lack of sanitation and drinking water facilities were major issues in the SC colonies and these led to health-related issues and hazards among the household members. Only 15.6 percent of the households used cooking gas

as the main fuel, whereas 83.2 percent used wood as the main fuel for cooking.

The primary data confirmed considerable inter-community differences in the standard of living. Overall, 58.2 percent of the households possessed medium SLI score and 34.6 percent of the households were in the low SLI category. The proportions of households in the high SLI were only 6.8 percent. Zone-wise results showed that north zone has higher proportion of households in the low SLI category (44 percent) compared to the central and south zones (31 percent and 28.8 percent). Those in the high SLI in the north zone were 3 percent, which was low compared to the other two zones. Kuravan, Parayan and Kanakkan have more than 50 percent of the households in the low SLI category. Vettuvan has the lowest (6.2 percent) of the households in the low SLI category and highest (84.4 percent) of the households in the medium SLI category. None of the Kuravan households was in the high SLI category.

6.4 Dynamics of Exclusion

Per-capita income analysis of the SC household showed that except for the north zone, mean household PCI was more than the PCE for the other two zones. Central zone has the highest PCI and PCE and the north zone has lowest. In terms of expenditure, the south and north zones have almost identical average scores. The ANOVA results concluded that the PCI differed based on zones. Community-wise, four out of seven communities have a mean household per capita expenditure more than the income. The Pulayan, Thandan and Vettuvan communities have average household PCI more than the household PCE. The Pulayan has the highest household income, household expenditure and the PCI. The Parayan has the highest

MPCE among the SC sub-communities. The Cheruman has the lowest PCI score. Even though the overall average score showed income level more than the expenditure, for some communities, the income was less than the average expenditure score which is pointing towards borrowings.

Most of the community members found it difficult to access formal credit as they did not have secured employment, land or assets. They mainly depended on the money lenders for emergencies, daily needs or for occasions like marriages, house construction, etc. The huge interest burden was still a cause of concern. Another issue was that most of the banks consider the colonies as a high credit risk area and hence desisted from giving them loans.

The Gini Coefficient scores indicated towards less income inequality within the zones. The overall as well as the scores of each zone was below 0.40. However, the GC for south zone was higher than the other two zones. This indicated that the income difference within the south zone is the highest compared to the other two zones. North zone has the lowest GC value. The Lorenz Coefficients for the three zones were also clear testimony of the GC values discussed, even though the gap between the equality line and the LC was less, the LC for the south zone was farthest from the line of equality compared to the other two zones LCs.

Within community inequality in income distribution seemed to be less as per the GC values. The Kuravan and Parayan were the two communities with higher GC values and Cheruman has the lowest value. Altogether, the LCs for the communities were also similar. The fact that the GC was low for the communities would mean that the income difference within the community was less than 0.50 for all the communities and hence

occupational as well as per capita earning pattern were similar. While it was a positive sign that the difference in terms of per-capita earnings was very less for the SCs.

The poverty analysis of the SCs based on MPCE and MPCI zone-wise, district-wise and community-wise was done to arrive the number of households and individuals below the poverty line. The poverty level based on income was 20.4 percent and based on expenditure was 16.6 percent. This implied that as per the household PCI, 102 households were below poverty line and as per the household PCE 83 were below poverty line. The fact that the income poverty was more than the expenditure poverty implied that especially among the poor households, PCE was more than the PCI. Further investigation revealed that 19 households who were below poverty level in terms of PCI were above the critical mark of poverty if analyzed based on PCE. Income poverty was the highest in the south zone (23.3 percent) and the lowest in the central zone at 16.4 percent. The central zone has the lowest level of expenditure poverty as well, i.e. 14.6 percent. The south and north zones were almost similar in terms of expenditure poverty levels. The results revealed that even though the central zone performs slightly better than the other two zones both in terms of income and expenditure poverty, the difference were minimal. The difference based on zones for the income and expenditure poverty was insignificant.

The Ernakulam district showed the lowest level of income and expenditure poverty level (11.3 percent). It was clear that 25 percent of the households were below poverty line in Kollam which was the highest, followed by Idukki (23.5 percent) and Malappuram (22.2 percent). In terms of expenditure poverty as well, the three districts have the highest level of

poverty with Kollam 21.1 percent, Malappuram 20.8 percent and Idukki with 20.6 percent.

Except Parayan and Kanakkan with income and expenditure poverty at similar levels, almost all the other communities have income poverty more than the expenditure poverty. The Parayan and Kuranvan have the highest percentage of households below poverty in terms of per-capita income (25.8 percent and 24.4 percent). The lowest percent of income poor were among Pulayan (17.5 percent) and Vettuvan (18.8 percent) communities. In fact, these two social groups have an income poverty of below 20 percent. The Parayan, Kanakkan and Kurvan have the highest percentage of poor households in terms of PCE (25.8 percent, 22.8 percent and 22.2 percent). The Pulayan and Cheruman have an expenditure poverty of less than 15 percent.

District-wise analysis showed that out of the total poor, the proportion of poor were the least in Ernakulam and Idukki. Kollam was the worst performer in terms of all the poverty indicators. Malappuram was the second in terms of HCI and relative incidence. However, in terms of depth and severity, the Malappuram district was in the 6^{th} and 7^{th} positions respectively. Idukki was in the second position in terms of depth of poverty and Palakkad was the second position in terms of severity of poverty. In terms of poverty severity, Kollam, Palakkad and Idukki were in the first three positions and Ernakulam was in the sixth position. However, the difference between Malappuram and Ernakulam were 0.001 in terms of severity. The Parayan, Kanakkan and Kuravan have the highest values in terms of incidence and relative incidence. In terms of PGI, Kuravan was the worst performer followed by Parayan and Kanakkan. Kanakkan drops to fifth in terms of severity and Vettuvan occupied the third worst performer

score. The Thandan who was in the fourth in terms of HCI and relative incidence has improved to better performer in terms of PGI and SPGI.

Public facility availability in the SC households/colony gave the picture that educational institutions, water supply and transportation were available nearby for most of the households. Public security, health care and pucca roads were unavailable for more than 40 percent of the households surveyed. Nearly 70 percent of the households felt that access to health care was very far. None of the household has recorded that the access to these 11 services that were very near to their household or colony. The results testified that the access to basic services was a difficult issue for the SCs living in a colonized/segregated setup. Despite several programmes and scheme for the welfare of the SC communities and their colonies, lack of proper implementation by the authorities showed that the fund utilization has not been properly done.

Households in Idukki, Palakkad and Wayanad have been identified as difficult access category districts. The households in Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Thrissur have majority of responses in good access category. In fact, nearly 60 percent of the households have good index scores in terms of access to facilities. Similarly nearly 68 percent of the households in Idukki have difficulty in accessing the facilities.

The Pulayan, Thandan and Vettuvan (44.3 percent, 46.9 percent and 50 percent) were the communities living in colonies with better access to facilities Index. However, 37.5 percent of the Thandan households lived in colonies where it is difficult to access the services. The Cheruman has the worst indicators or are living in colonies with difficulty to access. Most of the Parayan households have moderate access (48.4 percent). As per the

Correspondence Chart results, The Vettuvan and Pulayan were close to good access. The Thandan was between difficult and good access points. The Cheruman was close to difficult access. The Kuravan, Kanakkan and Parayan were close to moderate access point.

An inter-district and community-wise comparison of the Access to Facilities Index showed conflicting results with some communities were having better access to services. Unlike poverty and inequality, the differences based on community as well as region were evident from the results. Even though only some of the SC groups have reaped the benefits of reservation in jobs and attained better livelihood options, the difference was minimal as they are living in a segregated setup, most of them lived in close proximity with the mainstream population. For the SCs, the community wise difference was seen for the SLI and household access and poverty and inequality levels were almost similar.

Majority in the 1st generation were in the low SLI category and only 25.7 percent were in the medium SLI category. When moved to the 2nd generation, even though majority were in the low SLI, the proportion of households in the high SLI has increased to 38.3 percent compared to only 25.7 percent in the 1st generation. Only 2 percent of the households were in the high SLI category in the 2nd generation. With regard to the present generation households, 58.6 percent were in the medium SLI category. However, only 6.8 percent were in the high SLI and remaining 34.6 percent were in the low SLI. As per the Correspondence Analysis results, 1st and 2nd generation were closer to low SLI point. 3rd generation was near to medium SLI. The results showed a clear improvement in the SLI across generations. However, it was a fact that there was room for improvement as those in the high SLI were very less.

Livelihood options for the SCs were similar during the last 20-year period for 54.4 percent of the respondents. For 21.8 percent it has improved and 17.4 percent have perceived that the situation was worse compared to the earlier period. Household assets were important in determining the household economic development. However, for 47.4 percent the asset holding pattern was old and the same and for 30 percent the asset holding has improved. The living standards have improved for 55.8 percent, whereas for 30 percent it has remained the same. Access has also shown an improvement for 37.4 percent but has remained same for 39.2 percent. Land was one of the major asset classes and according to the data the land holding pattern was worse than before for the majority. This was because the value of land has gone up and also the procurement of land has become difficult for the households. While the health status was same for 43 percent of the respondents, for 35.8 percent it was worse than before, whereas for 21.4 percent the situation has improved. Educational status has improved or stayed the same for the majority. Attitude of the mainstream society to the SCs has remained same (45.6 percent) and worsened for 35 percent of the respondents. This implied that the SCs still face social exclusion from the mainstream.

It showed that the condition of the SCs has been miserable compared to 20-year period situation, where most of the attributes have remained unchanged or even worsened (land holdings). This has happened despite numerous schemes and programmes and development assistance provided to the SCs. While some of the benefits of development has reached the SCs, a marked change in the overall living standards, asset holding, livelihood, education and health have not happened as well as the exclusion and deprivation they faced from the mainstream society has not reduced.

The marginalized group like the SCs faced exclusion and deprivation in multi-facet angles be it in social, financial, exclusion in terms of amenities, employment exclusion, health and education exclusion, etc. The multi-facet impact of exclusion was evaluated for the SCs with the aid of Binary Logistic Regression (BLR) model. The results showed the sorry state of the SCs in terms of exclusion and deprivation they experienced. Social exclusion was a major problem faced by the SCs. They felt that other community members did not treat them equally or with respect. Lack of access to amenities, low asset holdings, lack of livelihood options and low living standards were also some problems. The backwardness in terms of education was a major reason impacted them in the form of the above issues. The land holding pattern was also a cause of concern. Most of the houses in the SC colonies have limited area of land holdings. Any expansion or construction activity is not possible for them. Due to lack of income and livelihood as well as due to lack of formal credit, they could not afford purchasing land outside their settlement which was costly. Another issue was with regard to the health status. Living in a colonized setup together with lack of basic amenities, proper drinking water, drainage, etc. would imply that the household members are prone to health hazards and epidemic. Consumption of alcohol, smoking and chewing of tobacco were also identified. However, it seemed that the members did not perceive that they were ill and hence the variable health was not significant.

The results of the Factor Analysis very well portrayed the exclusion and deprivation faced by the SCs. The SCs often faced discrimination and exclusion based on caste and their social life in terms of interaction with other community members was minimal. Even though financial inclusion of the marginalised has been part of the development agenda put forth by the

government through banks and other financial institutions, getting formal credit was a cumbersome process for them due to lack of assets like land, gold, etc. Basic amenities were lacking for most of the SC households. Lack of proper infrastructure and proper housing were also some issues. Most of the SC colonies were packed with no proper drainage and other facilities which was the reason why the respondents have perceived about the lack of cleanliness. Dropouts is a major cause of concern and hence despite the reservation in government jobs, those working in government sector were very less. In the government sector, the SC employment was confined mostly to low level jobs. This was the main reason for the lack of sound livelihood options.

6.5 Policy Recommendations

The study posits several policy potions for the overall development of the SC communities and thereby helping to overcome the social exclusions the community is facing in Kerala.

Skill development is seemed to be essential in overcoming the livelihood and unemployment issues of the SCs. The government has to take steps to start skill development centres for the SCs in Kerala based on the need of the community and also locality they belong to as each of the sub-subcommunity has specific skills and any training suiting to the changing situation will be beneficial for their livelihood problems. The youngsters in the community are weak in the modern skill areas for getting remunerative employment in the private and public sectors. English language skill of the community members are below the level for competing with others in getting employment other than the quota of reservation of jobs in the government sectors. Hence the need for these types of skill development

centres and the government should take necessary steps to start these in various palaces targeting the SC students.

The present policy of reservation of jobs in a way helped them to enter into the government sector for jobs, but most of them are working in the lower levels. Therefore, policy options are required to extent this to each and every ladder. The supreme court recent judgment in this regard will be helpful for the policy makers to adopt this.

Presently there is less evaluation mechanism for the utilisation of money for various development schemes of the SCs. As policy matter each scheme to be evaluated annually its allocation and its achievement so as to reduce the waste and leakages. A panchayat level monitoring committee with active participation of the SCs will help to develop the real development multiplier of various schemes and this help to analyse whether the particular scheme for the SCs are to be continued or not. Moreover, the policy makers should see that the inter-community and inter-regional differences of the SC community is minimised.

In the present sanitation plan of the government, the policy makers have to ensure the sanitation facilities of the SCs with multi–faceted approach and thereby ensuring that the money spent for this purpose reaches on need-based and location-based approaches.

Education policy of the SCs should be need-based and requirement-based and also based on the capability of the students to complete the courses. As several mismatches are seen at present in various self-financing courses where the SC students are getting assistances but the pass percentage is very low and this denies them from getting a job. Hence,

remedial teaching needs to have high priority rather than giving financial assistance for students in technical and medical courses.

6.6 Scope for Future Research

The study envisions ample scope for further studies in the area. The present study is only a micro aspect of the dynamics of exclusion the SC community is facing in Kerala. But it has a big span and each component gives good scope for further research so as to give a true picture of the dynamics of social exclusion the community is facing at present. Another area connected to this is the types of evaluation mechanism to be framed so as to identify the perpetual income generating aspect of various development schemes in inter-temporal and interspatial dimensions. Yet another area is how to use the traditional skill set of the community in the changing scenario of development for generating more employment and income for the SCs of Kerala. The area which gives immense potential for research and analysis is the quality of life and social progress of the SC community vis-à-vis other social groups of Kerala in a cohort framework inter-temporally on regional and sub-community basis.

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Household Schedule No:	

Interview Schedule

Identification Particulars

District……Taluk……

Village……

Panchayat……Ward No……..

Name of the Respondent……

Age ……

Religion……Caste/Community……

Colony name……...

House Name/No.....

SECTION A

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Profile of household members

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Member **ID**	Name **(Head of the HH first)**	Sex **(Male-1 Female-2)**	Age	Year of Birth	Relation **(Code-1)**	Marital Status **(Code-2)**	Educational Qualification **(Code-3)**	Activity Status **(Code-4)**
M1			…	……				
M2			…	……				
M3			…	……				
M4			…	……				
M5			…	……				
M6			…	……				
M7			…	……				
M8			…	……				
M9			….	……				
M10								

Code-1	**Code-2**	**Code-3**	**Code-4**
Head of the HH-1 Father/ Mother-2 Husband/Wife-3 Unmarried children-4 Married children-5 Son in law/Daughter in law-6 Grandchild-7 Father in law/Mother in law-8 Brother/sister-9 Others (specify).....10	Unmarried-1 Married-2 Widow / Widower-3 Divorced-4 Separated-5	Illiterate-1 Literate without formal schooling-2 Primary-3 Upper Primary-4 Up to SSLC-5 SSLC pass-6 Pre-degree/Plus II-7 Diploma/Certificate course-8 Graduation -9 Post graduation (PG) -10 Professional course-11	Employed-1 Unemployed-2 Student-3 Doing household chores -4 Unable to work-5 Unwilling to work-6 Others 7

Monthly household Expenditure (Average): ……

Sl no	Particulars	Monthly
1	Food	
2	Alcohol& Tobacco	
3	Health	
4	Education	
5	Clothes/equipments	
6	Travel	
7	Communication	
8	Repayments	
9	Other utilities/bills	
10	Other miscellaneous	

Activity/livelihood details of the members:

No.	11		12		13		14		15		16		17		18
Member ID (Earning member only)	Employment (Main-**E** Subsidiary-S) **(Code -5)**		Employment Type **(Code-6)**		Place of Work **(Code-7)**		Type of emolument **(Code-8)**		Salary/Wage **(Amount)**		No. of Days worked in last seven days		No. of Days worked Last month		Average monthly income from all sources **(Amount)**
	E1	**S1**	**E1**	**S1**	**E1**	**S1**	**E1**	**S1**	**E1**	**S1**	**E1**	**S1**	**E1**	**S1**	
M……															
M……															
M……															
M……															
M……															
M……															
M……															
M……															

Code-5
Self employed farming- 1
Self employed off farm- 2
Animal husbandry- 3
Wage employed farming- 4
Wage employed off farm- 5
Plantation/Estate labour- 6
Private jobs- 7
Public jobs- 8
Employment Guarantee Schemes- 9
Others…… 10

Code-6
Permanent- 1
Contract- 2
Part time - 3
Full time - 4
Seasonal- 5
Others…….....6

Code-7
At home- 1
Outside home, in Village- 2
Outside Village- 3
Outside District- 4
Outside Kerala
in India- 5
Out of India- 6

Code-8
Daily- 1
Weekly- 2
Monthly- 3
Seasonal- 4
Others……..5

Remarks

……

……

Housing, Basic Amenities and Assets

House type, ownership and other amenities

SL	Infrastructures	Current year			
1	House ownership **(Code 9)**		**Code 9** Own-1 Parents- 2 Relatives -3 Rentedt-4 Leased -5 Others-6	**Code 13** Earth/mud-1 Bamboo/Iron sheets-2 Cement/bricks-3 Timber (wood)-4 Stone-5 Others-6	**Code-16** Possession only-1 Common Pattayam-2 Single individual Pattayam-3 No Possession deed/no pattayam-4
2	Fund for construction of house**(Code 10)**				
3	Type of house **(Code 11)**				
4	Floor material **(Code12)**				
5	Wall Material **(Code 13)**				
6	Roofing material **(Code14)**		**Code 10** Self-1 Govt.Support-2 Other Institutions-3 Friends/relatives-4 Others.....5	**Code 14** Thatch grass/palm leaves-1 Iron/tin sheet/asbestos-2 Tiles-3 Concrete-4 Others…… -5	**Code 17** House/Piped connection-1 Own well-2 Public well/Tap-3 Stream/Canal/river-4 Rain water harvesting-5 Others……-6
7	No. of Rooms				
8	Area of House (Sq.ft)				
9	Sanitary latrines **(Code15)**				
10	Whether you are using it? **(Yes-1;No-0)**				
11	House area land holding **(in acres)**		**Code 11** Pucca-1 Semi Pucca-2 Kucha-3 Serviceable Kucha-4 Unserviceable Kucha-5	**Code 15** No latrines-1 Serviceable latrines -2 With roof ,wall,door-3 Pucca latrines with water supply -4	**Code 18** Wood-1 Kerosene-2 Gas-3 Electricty-4 Others……..- 5
12	Total land holdings **(in acres)**				
13	Cultivated area **(in acres)**				
14	Type of ownership (House area land) **(Code 16)**		**Code 12** Earth/mud-1 Cement-2 Tiles -3 Others-4		
15	Type of ownership (Agriculture land) **(Code 16)**				
16	i. Drinking Water **(Code 17)**				
17	ii. Agriculture **(Code 17)**				
18	iii. House uses **(Code 17)**				
19	i. Main fuel used for cooking**(Code-18)**				
20	ii. Substitute Fuel for cooking **(Code 18)**				

Household Access to Services

Service	**(Near-1, Rachable-2, Far-3,Very far-4)**
School	
College	
Healthcare	
PDS/Ration shop	
Water	
Electricity	
Pucca road	
Transportation	
Public security	
Communication	
Provisions	

Household Assets and other Equipment

Name of asset	Availed (Yes-1;No-0)	How Procured (Code-19)	Name of asset	Availed (Yes-1;No-0)	How Procured (Code-19)
Domestic Appliances			**Transportation**		
Television			Bicycle		
Cable /dish TV			Motorcycle		
Radio/ Tape recorder			Auto-rickshaw		
DVD player			Car/jeep		
Fixed/Land phone			Others……		
Mobile phone			**Agricultural equipment**		
Computer			Hoes/Chopper		
Refrigerator			Spades/shovel		
Mixer grinder			Ploughs/Axes		
Cooker			Sprayer		
Gas and Stove			Irrigation pump		
Bed and coat			Others……		
Chair/Sofa set/ Almirah			**Code-19** Self -1; Loan/Hire -2; Provided by friends/relatives-3; By govt. Prog-4; Grants/subsidies-5; By NGO/other instititions-6; Other……7 (specify)		
Dining table					
Sewing machine					
Mosquito nets/protection					
Fan and lights					
Water pump					
Water tank					
Others……..					

Current Status of Indebtedness

SL NO	From Whom	Amount (Rs)	Purpose (Code-20)	Year	Collateral (Code 21)	Mode of repayment (Code 22)	Source of repayment (Code 23)
1	Bank	……		……			
2	Private Money lender	……		……			
3	Kudumbashree	……		……			
4	Cooperative society	……		……			
5	Local shopkeepers	……		……			
6	Friends/neighbors/Relatives	……		……			
7	MGNRGP	……		……			
8	Other (specify)	……		……			
Total		……		……			

Code 20:
Education –1
Treatment –2
Purchase of land –3
Marriage –4
Self employment-5
Farming and Livestock-6
Construction of houses-7
Day to day expenditure -8
Other…… ……-9

Code 21
No Collateral-0
Land-1
Jewelry-2
Salary certificate-3
Other …….. 4

Code 22
Regular-1
Irregular-2
Defaulted-3

Code 23
Own income-1
Borrowed from others-2
Loans-3
Others-4

5

Inter-Generational SLI

Service	**Low SLI-1, Medium SLI-2, High SLI-3**
1-Generation	
2-Generation	

Development Dynamics

Codes: (Much Worse-1; Worse-2; Same-3; Improved-4; Very much improved-5)	**Code**
Attitude of Others	
Education	
Household Amenities	
Other Assets	
Landholding	
Living Standard	
Access	
Health Status	
Income and Livelihood	

Exclusion

Do you face exclusion due to your living pattern? Yes/No

Exclusion faced in

	Yes/No
Livelihood	
Access	
Amenities	
Land	
Asset	
Health	
Standard of Living	
Education	
Social Exclusion	

Problems Faced

No	**Codes: (Strongly agree-1; Agree-2; Don't know-3; Disagree-4; Strongly Disagree-5)**	**Code**
1	Discrimination due to caste/community	
2	No better social life	
3	Denial of Services like Loan	
4	Lack of basic amenities	
5	Lack of clean surroundings	
6	Lack of proper housing	
7	Less Security for the members	
8	Low education	
9	Low income and livelihood options	
10	Lack of infrastructure	

Remarks……

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