

The Routledge Handbook of Exclusion, Inequality and Stigma in India

Edited by NMP Verma and Alpana Srivastava

THE ROUTLEDGE HANDBOOK OF EXCLUSION, INEQUALITY AND STIGMA IN INDIA

This handbook critically examines the three concepts of exclusion, inequality and stigma and their interrelationship in the Indian context. Divided into five parts, the volume deals with the issues of exclusion, inequality, gender discrimination, health and disability, and assault and violence. It discusses important topical themes such as caste and social exclusion in rural labour markets, impact of poverty and unemployment, discrimination in education and literacy, income inequality and financial inclusion, social security of street vendors, women social entrepreneurs, rural—urban digital divide, workplace inequality, women trafficking, acid attacks, inter-caste marriages, honour killings, health care and sanitation, discrimination faced by those with disabilities, and regional disparities in India.

The book traces rising socio-economic inequality and discrimination along with the severe lack of access to resources and opportunities, redressal instruments, legal provisions and implementation challenges, while also looking at deep-rooted causes responsible for their persistence in society. With emphasis on affirmative action, systemic mechanisms, and the role of state and citizens in bridging gaps, the volume presents several policies and strategies for development. It combines wide-ranging empirical case studies backed by relevant theoretical frameworks to map out a new agenda for research on socio-economic inequality in India with important implications for public policy.

Comprehensive and first of its kind, this handbook will serve as a key reference to scholars, researchers and teachers of exclusion and discrimination studies, social justice, political economy, sociology, anthropology, economics, political science, development studies, education and public administration. It will also be useful to policymakers, bureaucrats, civil society activists, non-governmental organisations and social entrepreneurs in the development sector, in addition to those interested in third world studies, developing economies and the global south.

NMP Verma is Professor, Head and Dean at the Department of Economics, School of Economics & Commerce and former Vice Chancellor, Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow, India. He is founder President of the Association of the Socio-Economic Development Studies, as well as Conference President (2019), Uttar Pradesh-Uttarakhand Economic Association.

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PREFACE

In today's scenario, 'free-market' is escalating inequalities of income, wealth, education and citizenship. These pose the gravest threat to future social, economic and political stability. To counter this threat, we require a much better understanding of the conceptual relationship between stigmatisation and inequalities. Stigma is one of the most frequently used but least developed concepts in social sciences. A deeper theoretical understanding of stigma is frequently absent from sociological analysis. The centrality of stigma in producing economic and social inequalities has been obscured in literature, but stigma is widely accepted to be a major factor in determining life chances. Yet research on stigma is fragmented and dispersed across academic disciplines. The stigma in India is not only confined to persons with disability or based on age, gender, etc. but has moved to acid attack victims, sexual workers, workplace harassment and others. This needs a well governed policy on the one hand and social conscientisation on the other. The surging economic growth of India has improved the living conditions of its citizens, but these improvements are not uniformly distributed among India's diverse population. Despite being among the richest countries in the world, India has attracted negative attention in recent years as the second most unequal country in the world, after Russia. The sharp rising inequality in India will lead to slower poverty reduction, undermine the sustainability of economic growth, compound the inequalities between men and women and drive inequalities in health, education and life chances.

Discrimination and exclusion in one form or other exist in all social, political and economic systems/institutions, whether it is big or small, all over the world in some or the other form. But because of cultural diversity in a large country like India, this is a real, concerning issue. This prevails from macro levels (caste, religion, racism etc.) to micro levels (family, individual etc.). Vulnerable individuals or weaker sections of society have always become an easy prey for discrimination. Within a family, vulnerable family members like children, old or widowed parents, poor relatives or unemployed youth become easy preys of discrimination. And in a society, poor, illiterate and ignorant people usually become victims of exploitation. Discrimination can be either direct or indirect. At present, discriminatory attitudes based on marital status, caste affiliation, sexual orientation, disability, religion or food preferences do not come within the law's scope. The constitution and relevant laws do prohibit the practice of untouchability but do not address situations where a private landlord refuses to let out his house to Dalits, Muslims, homosexuals or non-vegetarians. The law also does not cover situations where discrimination

on various grounds is practiced in private sector organisations, clubs, societies, NGOs, educational institutions, hospitals and panchayats. The anti-discrimination bill brings all these entities within its ambit, as well as many more issues to ensure the better well-being of Indian citizens.

Inequality of all types in India is largely a result of deep-rooted social and economic structures that perpetuate privilege and limit opportunities for the marginalized. The convergence of economics of inequality and the politics of majoritarianism has made India a more divided and unequal society than it was in past. Inequality in income distribution lies at the root of rising inequalities in India. The increasing concentration of wealth in the hands of the few has resulted in large-scale impoverishment across society. Over the last decade, real wages did not rise at the same level as the rate of growth of GDP. This implies that the larger section of the population, the wage earners, have not been able to reap the benefits of a high rate of growth. The unorganised sector (which includes mostly daily wage earners in sectors such as agriculture, construction, manufacturing, petty trade and services, etc.) is one of the largest sectors of employment in India and also the most vulnerable one. The workers in this sector remain deprived of their basic labour rights and social securities. They often work at less than the stipulated minimum wage norms. Gender-based inequalities arise from the bias against women existing in different aspects of life. They are manifested in various spheres like access to health care, access to education, female feticide, political representation and access to land and labour market. One needs to challenge the patriarchal social norms that reinforce stereotypes about women, rendering them as unequal citizens. Analysis of social inequalities from the perspective of gender is crucial in understanding the deep impact that such social biases generate.

India has the highest number of acid attacks in the world but the worst conviction rates. Acid attack is the worst of the crimes that take place not only in India but in the world. Acid attacks are treated with official apathy and societal indifference. The victims are usually women between the ages of 14 and 35 years, and the attack often occurs as revenge for rejecting a marriage proposal or sexual advances, showing the peculiar mind set of male entitlement and power, and no right for a woman to refuse. Unequal access to health care in India, reflected in poor health indicators, shows the status of public health system in India. Government spending on health care in India, for a long time, has been far below the required levels. The health care inequality arises due to imbalanced resource allocation, limited physical access to quality health services and inadequate human resources for health; high out-of-pocket health expenditures, health spending inflation; and behavioural factors that affect the demand for appropriate health care. Major priorities for future include:

- reforms of money lending: especially in rural areas,
- breaking the cycle of poverty and debt,
- · annihilating prejudice and discrimination, based on caste system,
- continuing to ensure the security of tenure and
- improving the education and opportunities for women.

This book represents the fruits of the national seminar on Emerging Socioeconomic Inequalities in India, jointly organised by Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University and the Association of the Socio-Economic Development Studies (ASEDS), December 4–5, 2017. After the seminar, chapters were reviewed and revised by respective authors and finally edited by the editors. This book brings out practical problems faced by society through various research papers addressing these lacunas by establishing the relationship between growing inequalities and heightened stigmatization in daily life and public discourse. In all, the book comprises 32 chapters authored by scholars, academics and professionals across the country. The chapters

cover various types of socio-economic inequality, exclusion and stigma faced in day-to-day life. They also emphasize legal policies involved in curbing these along with throwing light on future research dimensions. The contributions of Prof Girish Chandra Saxena, who inaugurated the seminar, Prof S K Jain, the keynote speaker, and Prof Manoj Dixit, who made the opening remarks, along with Prof PK Sinha, are especially appreciated. Constructive comments were received at various stages of the review process from our reviewers, Dr I C Awasthi. The editors would like to thank all the 32 contributors for their sincere efforts and generating lively interplay of ideas. Last but not least, we would like to thank our research scholars: Mr Pawan Kumar Gupta, Ms Deepanjali Das, Ms Pratinidhi, Ms Kanti Devi, Mr Altaf Ahmed, and Mr Shanu for their never-ending efforts.

In the end, we are extremely grateful to the experts and the editorial team of Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group to consider publishing this book. We hope that this volume will match the global academic standards and serve as literary motivation for academic reference of post-graduate students, research scholars, top academics and policy planners of social science disciplines. It may also be used as an augmenting source of progressive research.

ABBREVIATIONS

ATM Automated Teller Machine

BARC Broadcast Audience Research Council

BMI Body Mass Index

CDI Consciousness Development Index

CSAAAW Campaign and Struggle against Acid Attacks on Women

CSO Central Statistical Organisation
CSR Corporate Social Responsibility

CWAS Current Weekly Activity Status Worker
CWVI Children with Visual Impairment

DBT Direct Benefit Transfer
DF Degree of Freedom
EGF Editors Guild of India

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization

FCI Food Corporation of India FGD Focused Group Discussion

FICCI Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry

FPS Fair Price Shop

GDP Gross Domestic Product
GeM Government e-Marketplace
GHI Global Hunger Index

GOUP Government of Uttar Pradesh

GST Goods and Service Tax
GVA Gross Value added

HH Household

ICT Internet and Communication Technologies

IHDS India Human Development Survey
 ILO International Labour Organisation
 IMF International Monetary Fund
 IT Information Technology
 KMO Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

LFPR Labour Force Participation Rate

Abbreviations

LOC Line of Control MDM Mid-Day Meal

MGNREGS Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme

MIB Ministry of Information and Broadcasting

NABARD National Bank of Agriculture and Rural Development

NACDOR National Confederation of Dalit Organisation

NBA National Broadcasting Association

NCR National Capital Region NDP Net Domestic Product

NGO Non-Government Organization

NITI National Institute of Transforming India

NNP Net National Product

NOFN National Optical Fiber Network NSSO National Sample Survey Organisation

NUEPA National University of Educational Planning and Administration

OBC Other Backward Caste

PCA Principal Component Analysis

PCI Press Council of India

PMGSY Pradhan Mantri Gramin Sadak Yojana

PPP Purchasing Power Parity
PQLI Physical Quality of Life Index

PSU Public Sector Unit
PWD Public Work Department
RTE Right to Education
SC Scheduled Caste

SECC Socio-Economic and Caste Census

SHG Self Help Group Sign. Significance Level SSA Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

sSTEP Society for Social Transformation and Protection

ST Scheduled Tribe

TED Technology Entertainment Design
TLM Teaching Learning Materials
TRP Television Rating Point
UD Underdeveloped

U-DISE Unified District Information on School Education

UNDP United Nations Development Program

UPWSRP Uttar Pradesh Water Sector Restructuring Project

USOF Universal Service Obligation Fund

INTRODUCTION

NMP Verma and Alpana Srivastava

This handbook pivots around three core challenges of exclusion, inequality and stigma that an Indian individual or the Indian society continues to confront even in the millennial century. With India mapping its niche in the globe as an emerging economy, the agenda of inclusiveness and equality has to be given preference for comprehensive social and economic development of the nation as a whole. Towards this intent, this handbook is a dedicated repository that not only collates the problems of exclusion based on gender, caste, religion, ethnicity, colour, race and nationality but also discusses effective and practical suggestions to mitigate these issues in India. There are limitations to the economic analysis regarding inequality and inclusive approach. Hence, the contextual framework of this handbook also includes relevant literature studies on several noneconomic factors such as norms, culture and beliefs that influence the level of inclusion in the present scenario. Furthermore, this repository critically examines the structural stigma towards culture, gender, race, illness and disease and the role of various institutions, individuals and society in handling it.

Exclusion: Exclusion implies a state of complete or partial denial of involvement of a group of people from political, social and economic rights, opportunities and advantages. French administrator Rene Lenoir (1974), who was the Secretary of State for Social Action during the Chirac Government, was the first to use this term. He estimated that "the excluded" comprised 10% of the French population that included the mentally and physically handicapped, suicidal people, aged invalids, abused children, drug addicts, delinquents, single parents, multi-problem households, marginals, asocial persons and other "social misfits." Ever since then, this terminology has led to several deliberations and discussions on the types of exclusions that people contend with. For instance, political exclusion reflects the refutation of citizens' rights by not allowing participation or representation in political matters and by placing curbs on freedom of speech and expression. Economic exclusion shows low or stagnant real wages, job insecurity among workers and people having inadequate financial resources or assets which are insufficient to protect them during contingencies. Social exclusion includes discrimination on the basis of social variables such as caste, creed, race, gender and colour. These variables affect the involvement of people in the labour market and services. Cultural exclusion refers to the variables of cultural aspects such as values, traditions, convention and how they are being accepted.

Evidently, exclusion is the vector for inequality, unemployment, poverty, illiteracy and other miseries that torment the socio-economic growth of individuals and the nation as a whole.

Social conflicts among people of different classes and castes are also the result of exclusion. It leads towards stigmatization and marginalization. A pertinent mention in this regard is the study on exclusion done in Canada (2015). It depicts the status of exclusion in four different groups over 1996 to 2010 in Canada (white Canadian born, racial minority Canadian born, racial minority immigrant, and white immigrant), further underlining the fact that exclusion, anywhere in the world, is also the cause of low standards of living, which affects the economic development of a country. It leads to overall exploitation of people as well. It can be reduced by the greater participation of people, i.e., democratic society, awareness drive, protection from discrimination and exploitation and larger access to resources. Thus identifying exclusion as the nucleus of many ills that still decelerate a society's evolvement, the first section of this handbook comprises six chapters that discuss in detail issues relating to exclusion. Recently, the Government of India also introduced Jan Dhan Yojna for financial inclusion.¹

Inequality: In today's scenario, the free-market is escalating inequalities of income, health, education and citizenship, asset and wealth. These conditions pose the gravest threat to future social, economic and political stability. To set things right, we need a much better understanding of the conceptual relationship between stigmatization and inequalities. The surging economic growth of up to 7% in India has decidedly improved the living conditions of its citizens, but these improvements are not uniformly distributed among India's diverse population. Despite being included among the moderate richest countries, India has attracted negative attention in recent years as being the second in terms of inequality, next only after Russia. This sharply rising inequality in India will lead to slower poverty alleviation and undermine the sustainability of economic growth and prosperity. The recent decline in growth rate to 5% and even less than anticipated will further aggravate the problem. Differential treatments, in one form or other and whether big or small, exist in all the social, political and economic systems all over the world. However in India, the world's largest democracy which takes pride in its cultural diversity, inequality is probably one of the gravest issues threatening to undo the country's multicultural ethos. Disparity prevails from the macro level (caste, religion, race, etc.) to the micro level (family or individual). The vulnerable and the weaker sections of the society become easy victims for discrimination. Within a family, vulnerable members like children, old or widowed parents, poor relatives or unemployed youth become easy targets. In a society, the poor, illiterate and ignorant people usually become victims of exploitation and are discriminated directly or indirectly (Verma 2014).

Inequality of all types in India is largely a result of chronic social and economic structures that cater to the privileged and limit opportunities for the marginalized. Inequality in income distribution lies at the root of rising inequalities in India. The increasing concentration of wealth in the hands of the few has resulted in large-scale impoverishment across the country. The unorganised sector which includes mostly the daily wage earners working in agriculture, construction, manufacturing, petty trade and MSMEs is one of the largest sectors of employment in India, but ironically, also the most vulnerable one. Workers in this sector remain deprived of their basic labour rights and social security, and often work at less than the stipulated minimum wage norms. Over the last decade, real wages did not rise at the same level as the rate of growth in GDP. This implies that the larger section of the population, the wage-earners, have not been able to reap the benefits of a high rate of growth.

At present, discriminatory attitudes based on marital status, caste-affiliation, sexual orientation, disability, religion or food preferences do not come within the scope of law. The constitution and relevant laws do prohibit the practice of untouchability, but do not address situations when a private landlord declines to let out his house to Dalits, Muslims, homosexuals, or non-vegetarians. The law also does not cover situations where discrimination on various grounds is

practiced in private organisations, clubs, societies, NGOs, educational institutions, hospitals and panchayats. The anti-discrimination bill brings all these entities within its ambit, as well as many more issues to ensure the better well-being of Indian citizens (Verma 2002a, 2007).

Unequal access to health care, as reflected in poor health indicators, shows a miserable Public Health System in India. Government spending on health care in India has been for a long time far below the required level. The health care inequality arises due to imbalanced resource allocation, limited access to quality health services and inadequate human resources for health, high out-of-pocket health expenditures, health spending inflation, and behavioural factors which affect the demand for proper health care. Major priorities for the future include reforms of money lending, especially in rural areas, to break the cycle of poverty and debt, breakdown of the of the caste system continuing to ensure the security of tenure and improving the education and opportunities for women (Devi and Verma 2019).

Gender-based inequalities arise from the biases against women existing in different aspects of life. They are manifested in various forms such as restricted access to health care and education, female feticide, political representation and access to land and labour markets. One needs to challenge the patriarchal social norms that reinforce stereotypes about women, rendering them unequal citizens. Analysis of social inequalities from the perspective of gender is crucial in understanding the deep impacts that such social biases generate (Verma 1998, 2000).

Economic growth that spreads its benefits equitably among the people is always appreciable. Growth that is distributed unequally needs to be evaluated not simply based on overall change but on the ground of equity. There are two reasons to understand skewed income and wealth distribution. First, there are sympathetic and ethical grounds for reducing inequality. There is no reason why individuals should be viewed differently in terms of their access to economic resources. People have preferences over the course of their lifetime for which only they are held responsible. They are poor because of the "lack of jobs." In many cases, this may indeed be true, but in many cases the unequal treatment begins from the beginning. Parental wealth and parental access to resources can start two children off on an unequal footing, and for this fact there is little ethical logic. To hold descendants accountable for the backwardness of their ancestors is perhaps overstating. We run into a separate ethical dilemma. To resolve the unequal treatment of individuals from the first day of their lives, we must deprive parents of the right to bequeath their wealth to their children. Eventually, economic inequality is the primary disparity that permits one individual certain substance choices, while denying the other individual those same choices. There is no reason to throw up our hands and say that no meaningful comparisons are possible. Disparities in personal income and wealth at any point of time, in relation to the broader issues of freedom and capabilities, mean something socially inhuman. This statement is even truer when studying economic disparities within a country because some of the broader issues can be regarded (at least approximately so) as understanding everyone in the same way. It is in this spirit that we study income and wealth inequalities. Human Development Report measures inequality in terms of two indicators. The first indicator is the Gini coefficient, which measures the deviation from a perfectly equal distribution of income (or consumption) among individuals within a country. The Gini coefficient (also known as the Gini index or Gini ratio) is a measure of statistical dispersion intended to measure inequality. The coefficient varies between 0, which reflects complete equality, and 100 (or 1), which indicates complete inequality (one person possesses all the income and others have none). It was developed by the Italian statistician and sociologist, Corrado Gini, in 1912.

For India, the Gini coefficient was 35.7 in 2010–11 which has gone up above 45. The study of Piketty (2015) is well known. In this respect, inequality is lower in India as compared to the other developing countries, e.g., South Africa (57.8), Brazil (53.3), Turkey (41.9), Sri Lanka

(39.8), China (38.6), as well as countries like the United States (41.5), which are otherwise ranked very high in terms of Human Development Index (HDI).

The second indicator is the quintile income ratio, which is a measure of average income of the richest 20% of the population to that of the poorest 20%. The quintile income ratio for India was 5.0 in 2012–13. Countries like the UK (7.2), Mexico (10.7), Philippines (8.3), Vietnam (5.9), Russian Federation (7.3), Brazil (20.6), China (10.1) and South Africa (25.3) had higher ratios. This implies that the inequality between the top and bottom quintiles in India was lower than many countries.

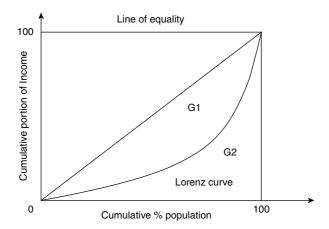


Figure 0.1 Diagram showing inequality

The Lorenz curve shows the percentage of total income earned by a cumulative percentage of the population. In a perfectly equal society, the "poorest" 25% of the population would earn 25% of the total income, the "poorest" 50% of the population would earn 50% of total income, and the Lorenz would follow the path of the 45-degree line of equality.

The Gini coefficient is equivalent to the size of the area between the Lorenz curve and the 45-degree line of the equality divided by the total area under the 45-degree line of equality. In the figure, it is depicted as area G1 divided by area (G1 + G2). The Gini coefficient can be presented as a value between 0 and 1 or as a percentage. A coefficient of 0 reflects a perfectly equal society in which all income is equally shared; in this case, the Lorenz curve would follow the line of equality. The further the Lorenz curve deviates from the line of equality, the higher the resulting value of the Gini coefficient will be. A coefficient of 1 (or 100%) represents a perfectly unequal society wherein all income is earned by one individual. Hence, to address this prevailing ground of disparities, the second section of this handbook aggregates nine chapters on the issues related to various types of inequalities faced by the Indian society.²

Stigma: Stigma is another key social issue. It is a Greek word which means "mark," more like a cut or a burn mark on the skin to identify criminal slaves to be shunned in public. However, to phrase more aptly, stigma is ostracism or being classed as ones who are to be excluded from society due to conditions they themselves did not choose or over which they may have little control. This is best explained with the instance of "existential stigma" that one faces due to one's sexual identity, mental retardation or even marital status. Stigma may also be described as a label that is affixed to a person for representing a set of unwanted characteristics which do not conform to the socially acceptable and culturally approved stereotypes. Once people identify and label one's differences, others assume that is just how things are, and the person will remain

stigmatized until the stigmatizing attribute is undetectable. Emile Durkheim, a French sociologist, was the first to highlight stigma as a social phenomenon in 1895. He exhorted his readers to assume that there is a society of saints where ideally no crime happens. However, if some scandal does happen in such a society, then, if this society has the power to judge and punish, it will identify these acts as immoral or deviant and will treat them as such. Thus, the stigma is manifested. According to Erving Goffman, "[S]tigma is a feature, behaviour or reputation which is in a social context discrediting in a particular way" (Goffman 1963). He also defined "stigma" as a special gap between vital social identities. Therefore, stigma comprises two components: the recognition of difference and devaluation (Arjan 2013; Frost 2011).

In the present context, though, stigma and its debilitating effect can be perceived in the plight of the people with mental health conditions who have felt discriminated against in a number of areas. Often, in the labour market they are not offered roles, or they do not apply for roles (Verma 2005). In the education sector such as schools and universities, such people are labelled as different/slow and not offered opportunities similar to advanced students. Media also misrepresents those who are afflicted with mental health difficulties. Not just community or society but even families, at times, have an intolerant approach towards the family member with mental ailments. Stigmatising attitudes towards people with mental illness can unleash a series of detrimental effects wherein the afflicted person would shy away from seeking help for treating the illness and, worse, continue to live with impaired relationships.

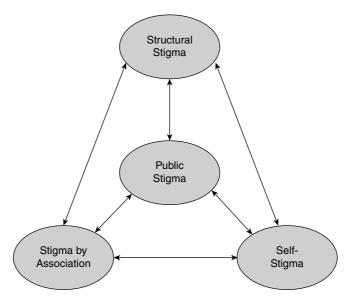


Figure 0.2 The manifestations of stigma

Source: Pryor and Reeder, 201

In 2011, Pryor and Reeder articulated a conceptual model that seeks to bring greater clarity on the current literature on stigma. This model depicts four dynamically interrelated manifestations of stigma. Public stigma is the main component of the Pryor and Reeder model and represents people's social and psychological reactions to someone they perceive to have a stigmatized condition. The second type of stigma in Pryor and Reeder's model is self-stigma, which reflects the social and psychological impact of possessing a stigma. The third type of stigma is by association, which is analogous to Goffman (1963). Stigma entails social and psychological reactions to

people associated with a stigmatized person as well as people's reactions to being associated with a stigmatized person. And lastly, structural stigma is the "legitimization" and perpetuation of a stigmatized status by society's institutions and ideological system.

Furthermore, after Goffman's research, structural factors that promote and maintain stigma gained more attention and paved the way for acknowledging structural factors in the development and presentation of stigmatization (Link and Phelan 2001). Social structure empowers and privileges some people, often at the expense of others. Power differences are vital for the production of stigma (Parker and Aggleton 2003). In the last few years, our understanding of the relationship between the brain and social behaviour has increased phenomenally, and stigma has now become an important research priority. In the coming decades, we believe that the scientific study of stigma will be characterised by interdisciplinary approaches.³ Long after the publication of Goffman's classic book, we can say that. Tracing the various manifestations of stigma that exist in the Indian context, the third section of this handbook profiles detailed studies on gender-related issues. India records the highest number of acid attacks in the world but the worst conviction rates. An acid attack is the worst of all the crimes that take place not only in India but in the world. Acid attack victims are treated with official apathy and societal indifference. The victims are generally women between the ages of 14 and 35, and the molestation often occurs as revenge for rejecting a marriage proposal or sexual advances, showing the peculiar mindset of male entitlement and power, with no right for a woman to refuse.

Foregrounded in this theoretical and empirical premise, the handbook encapsulates five sections: Exclusion, Inequality, Gender Discrimination, Health, and Violence and Trafficking, which cover the diversified issues, challenges and stigma attached to them. The six chapters in the first section dwell on Exclusion, its ramifications and possible alleviation of the crisis. The second section contains nine chapters on issues related to various types of inequalities besetting Indian society. Gender-related issues are covered in the third section in eight chapters.

The fourth section presents a discussion of health issues with six insightful chapters. The fifth section focuses on violence, assault and trafficking problems faced in Indian society. The chapters in this section throw light on the severity of the problems and suggest potential solutions. This handbook has been envisioned as a useful reckoner for social scientists, academics and research scholars who are concerned with socio-economic inequities and who are seeking credible solutions to mitigate them.

Overview of the chapters

Part I

To achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2020 developing economies like India need to combat poverty, unemployment and social exclusion. In India, the problem of poverty and educated youth unemployment, especially among the marginalized and disadvantaged sections of the society, continues to be the most prevalent one. This results in "social exclusion." Part I categorises various aspects of this malady in the Indian scenario through six chapters.

Chapter 1 discusses the issues of segregation in education due to the caste system. The chapter analyses the social group inequality in terms of literacy attainment among the disadvantaged social groups in India. The study affirms that there has been perceptible improvement in educational achievements of disadvantaged sections of society. However, the authors state that the literacy rate amongst the disadvantaged, particularly female literacy, is considerably lower as compared to other social groups, more so in the rural areas. The chapter observes that gender-based disparity is more alarming than caste-based disparity and that all social groups are

suffering from gender disparity in literacy. With respect to caste-based inequalities, Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) suffer the most on account of literacy. The condition of Other Backward Classes (OBCs) is better as compared to that of the SCs and STs. Among the SCs and STs, the performance of SCs is better in rural areas while STs are better in urban areas. The chapter iterates that, from the policy point of view, targeted intervention is needed so as to bring the deprived into the net of inclusive growth.

Chapter 2 discusses the most common problem of the developing world and highlights how the large sections of the world's population remain unbanked even in the 21st century. The chapter cites that many households with less income lack access to bank accounts. These households face problems at the time of opening a savings bank account or availing a loan due to lack of information and illiteracy. Participation in the financial system is necessary for economic growth. The study insists that as the majority of the population is still unbanked, the concept of financial inclusion would become a formidable challenge for the world economy.

Chapter 3 throws light on the macro problem of the impact of poverty and exclusion on a small region of India, Bundelkhand, Uttar Pradesh. From the sociological standpoint, the author has focused on the causes responsible for the perpetuation of poverty in this region vis-àvis employment opportunities, food and health status and eventually the interpersonal relations in the society. The article underlines that poverty in India has become a mounting tribulation in contemporary times. The study asserts that the word "poverty" conceptually symbolizes the inability of human beings to secure basic minimum needs for day-to-day sustenance and is reflected through a lack of income, inadequate housing and a polluted and unhygienic environment, and it eventually leads to discrimination and exclusion from mainstream society. A large chunk of population in Bundelkhand still lives below the poverty line and is unable to secure even the basic needs of food, clothing, house, education and health. On a micro level, the research empirically analyses the reason for this chronic poverty and concludes that the recurrence of drought, scanty rains, poor irrigation facilities and crop failure are the key causes for poverty. The findings of the chapter highlight that the persisting situation has adversely affected the development of the Bundelkhand region, and, as a result, the inhabitants are getting trapped into a vicious circle of poverty day after day.

Chapter 4 deals with a very sensitive issue of discrimination and exclusion in the education of the children of manual Scavenger Communities. The study emphasises that from time immemorial, the community that does manual scavenging has been and continues to be marginalized. Manual scavenging is a caste-based occupation and involves cleaning dry latrines, sewers, septic tanks etc. According to the Prohibition of Employment as Manual Scavengers and Rehabilitation Act 2013, manual scavenging was made punishable under law, but 180,657 households are still engaged in manual scavenging as per the Census of 2011. The study states that graded inequality is an endemic feature of caste system in India and Schedule Castes, especially the Valmiki caste whose hereditary occupation is manual scavenging, face extreme forms of discrimination and exclusion in society. They are demeaned as "outcasts" and considered as "lesser human." The basic objectives of this research study is to understand the socio-economic and cultural conditions that prevail among the Scavenger Communities in urban areas and to understand the patterns and forms of discrimination that are experienced by the children of the Scavenger Communities within the educational system.

Along a similar line of thought, Chapter 5 clearly brings out caste discrimination and inequality in artisans' community in Uttarakhand. The study focuses on the inequality faced by this caste in terms of land possession, employment and literacy attainment. The chapter emphasises that the welfare schemes launched by the government can reach the artisans only when the loopholes in the system are plugged.

Chapter 6 of Part I focuses on the problem of exclusion that persists in the labour market. The study observes that the labour market was traditionally regulated by a dominant group of the elite. This tradition of oligarchy continues to be passed on from one generation to the next. Thus, the new players entering the labour market have to confront the brunt of exclusion. Moreover, the chapter also throws light on the proportionate share of SC/ST employment in three broad specific sectors across the social groups in rural India. It also analyses the magnitude and trend of change in employment across the social groups. The high incidence of employment belongs to SC/ST in the unorganised sector and a share of casual workers across the landownership in India. The author also argues that low wages for the Scheduled Caste are due to a discrimination factor rather than an economic factor. So much so that the educational attainment and experience are still not determining employment opportunities as a labourer's caste takes precedence over skill. The study reiterates that societal exclusion creates involuntary unemployment and increases the inequality in rural India.

Part II

The second section contains nine chapters on issues related to various types of inequalities faced by the Indian society. The latest World Inequality Report and its findings placed India at the frontier of inequality. The biggest question haunting India is, when poverty is coming down, how is inequality increasing? The surveys done in the context of this pressing concern reveal that the growth dividends are not reaching the masses. As per official statistics, the share of the population living below the poverty line has come down drastically from 45% to 22% since 1994. But the poverty line in India is the minimum level of subsistence necessary for physical and social development of a person. It is set at \$1.90 per person per day in purchasing power parity in 2011. If the poverty line is "doubled," the number of people found between the poverty line and twice the poverty line is half the population of India in 2012. Thus, the study concludes that the country needs to craft policies and create institutions that would facilitate the elimination of inequality. This calls for increased investments in education and health care of rational quality, skill development and training for the creation of reasonably good jobs to afford a better quality of life for the masses.

Chapter 7 focuses on bringing out the causes responsible for the income inequality in India in the present scenario. The main causes identified in the study are increasing competition due to globalization, liberalization and privatization, inflation, jobless growth, tax evasion, labour market problems, uneven distribution, regional and interstate disparity, the law of inheritance and rigid social institution and caste. This repercussion of growth through a mixed economy needs a comprehensive introspection from the economists and policy makers. The richest 5% own 68.6%, while the peak 10% have 76.3%. The study cites that at the other end of the pyramid, the poorer half holds a mere 4.1% of the national wealth. The sluggish growth in manufacturing and the declining growth of agriculture are posing a big obstacle for GDP growth on one hand and increasing income inequality on other hand. The mitigation factors that this study points out include more investment in education and health care, encouragements to agrarian reforms, policy moves towards a cashless economy to curb corruption, promoting skill development and Made in India programs, while bringing reforms in wage distribution and emphasizing generating employment. The author asserts that such measures can only be the catalyst for sustainable and equitable growth in the country.

Chapter 8 dwells on the "Rural–Urban Divide: Digital Inequality." Digital India is a flagship programme started by the Government of India to enhance the support structure and to deliver

all government services electronically by improved online facilities (Internet infrastructure). Aiming to create the safe, secure, fast, transparent and cost-effective delivery of services, this programme is expected to make India digitally empowered. This article emphasizes the initiatives in terms of infrastructure, education and awareness that the government needs to build in order to get the complete benefits of Digital India program. It also compares digital inequalities between the rural and urban area due to the lack of infrastructure, digital literacy, income and awareness. The study also highlights the difficulties in the successful delivery of the programme and also suggests areas where the government needs to put more effort and investments.

Chapter 9 focuses on the urban livelihood and social security of street vendors. Street vending generates employment in the urban regions and contributes to the informal sector. However, the street vendors face inequalities in both the personal and the professional areas. The Government of India has introduced acts and policies like the Street Vendors Act, 2014, for controlling the inequities faced by the vendors. This chapter is an attempt to describe the socioeconomic issues faced by the vendors in Guwahati city, Assam. The study states that the Street Vendors Act, 2014, implemented by the government, comes with several setbacks resulting in failure to garner fruitful outcomes. Due to lack of awareness among the vendors and ignorance on the part of the authorities, the street vendors continue to be in a sorry state. Therefore, sincere efforts are required for their security and better quality of life.

Chapter 10 considers inequality in education to be the biggest challenge faced by India since independence. The article focuses on the educational facilities in Tripura, which are not evenly distributed in the tribal and the non-tribal areas. The analysis in the chapter cites that, though the state's literacy rate reflects a steady increase during the last three decades, the data indicates that the majority of tribal children are still deprived of even basic education facilities. The study also attempts to study the striking inequality in terms of area and as well as community. The author has deeply examined the inequalities in school enrolment rate, infrastructure availability and posited suggestions for the improvement of quality education among the depressed section of the society in Tripura.

Chapter 11 focuses on the disparity and disconnection in investment and unemployment among the Indian states. Although India is known as an economic power, the country is still suffering from economic problems like unemployment and possess relatively low investment capacity. Unemployment is a socio-economic problem which is the main cause of social inequality in India. The study postulates that unemployment can be reduced only by investment but that the disproportionate investment in different states has created unemployment.

Chapter 12 describes the problem of caste inequality and recommends the promotion of inter-caste marriages to overcome caste-centric discrimination. The chapter discusses the prevalent phenomenon of contentious marriages and elopements in the rural and semi-urban north India while concentrating on the State of Haryana. The study states that the young members are confronting the caste/kinship ideology upheld by the caste leadership of senior male members by infringing upon sexual codes and taboos. They are defying the demands of status or village exogamy by discarding the notions of "honour." Here, the author seeks to question the vested interests of the caste panchayat s behind the front of maintaining time-honoured customs and cultural practices. This chapter highlights the importance of derecognizing institutions like the Khap Panchayat, and it throws light on the response of the State and the police whose duty is to make the citizens of the country feel safe.

Chapter 13 focuses on women entrepreneurship that has recently gained momentum and is increasing rapidly. Women today are educated, transformed and innovative members of the overall population who possess the capacity to transform economies into flourishing enterprises.

Millennial women entrepreneurs have grown in number in recent years and have started ventures targeting areas of social concerns like health, education, information, employment, entrepreneurship development, microfinance, rural development and so on.

Chapter 14 is a unique chapter on television in India. In 1959, Doordarshan was started to inform, educate and entertain people. But the picture changed after 1991 when private television news and entertainment channels entered the Indian news market. The Prime Time concept was shaped and marketed to collect more revenue. Private television channels declined to adhere to the pattern of Doordarshan. The objective of this research work is to find out the shifting role of television from being that of development to becoming profit-centric and to understand the interrelationship between television rating points (TRPs) and revenue as the main cause. This new development in media is posing challenges, and, due to the aforementioned lackadaisical attitude of news media conglomerates, it is leading to the widening of socio-economic inequalities.

Chapter 15 emphasises, by alluding to the example of Odisha, that the main problem of rural India is the socio-economic inequality in agriculture. Income, housing, education, justice, health care and other issues have also been also been highlighted in the chapter so as to focus on the plight of the rural sector. The influx of manpower from rural to urban zones and its impact on the rural inequalities has also been elaborated upon in the chapter. The chapter analyses the distributions of public grant according to social norms, and the author concludes that inequality in rural Odisha is a complex process that needs more intervention from the government. There is a suggestion for the regular monitoring of various public schemes to increase the efficiency in the system.

Part III

The next part is a compilation of eight exhaustive studies to highlight gender specific issues.

Chapter 16 examines the perceptions of young men and women towards gender equality. The study insists that even in the most progressive of times like the present, the country is still battling with gender bias. Expectations from a woman to behave in a specific manner, do only specified jobs, have access only to specified education and so on are still practiced in the country. Over time, though, women have been empowered. Yet alarming gender differences remain in various socio-economic arenas. The chapter analyses this discrimination based on various factors like culture, freedom of expression and mobility, employment opportunities and so on.

Chapter 17 highlights gender-based discrimination as a universal phenomenon. Women partake half of the world's population and perform two-thirds of the work. However, they earn only a third of the total income and own less than a tenth of the resources. This discrimination is due to the lack of economic power. The construction sector is the biggest employer in India. More than 31 million people work in the construction industry, second only to the agricultural sector. More than 35% of construction workers are women, and they get poor remuneration and are discriminated in terms of the payment of wages. While the male workforce in the construction industry has promotional opportunities, women have no opportunities to acquire skills and become masons or supervisors. The chapter calls for imminent redemptive actions.

Chapter 18 centre-stages gender inequality and policy initiatives. The harsh reality is that India is facing dire consequences due to gender differences. This situation is more egregious in the rural areas where the women are deprived of basic rights to sanitation, socio-economic participation and at times even life. All this is leading to the socio-economic exclusion of women, and rural India faces the maximum heat. The chapter intends to understand gender inequality in rural India and analyse the policies and programmes of the government in this direction.

Chapter 19 draws on an important issue of working women in private sector. With the increasing corporate culture, globally and across India, the number of women employees engaged in this sector has also increased. The chapter concludes that, on the basis of its findings, there is much scope for business organisations as well as the government in the area of finding credible solutions and taking policy initiatives to ensure the fair and equitable treatment of working women in India.

Chapter 20 is a comprehensive discussion on gender inequality in India with special reference to legal provisions. The study underlines that the experience of women trapped in the midst of armed conflict is multifaceted. The myriad states that women go through during any war means separation, loss of relatives, physical and economic insecurity, an increased risk of sexual violence, wounding, detention, deprivation and even death. The author states that though each woman's feeling is subjective, the predicament faced by women in such conditions should be viewed as the plight of a homogeneous group. Hence, to map remedial action for the rehabilitation of women victimised by war, the researcher advocates for the needs and rights of women in the conflict areas. This study also focuses on the efforts of the UN and the ICRC to protect the rights of the female victims of war.

Chapter 21 is a contextual study on India's employment scenario with special reference to its working age population and female participation. The study points out that women comprise 48.5% of the population and that, with India's demographic window of opportunity already having been opened in the immediate past, the benefits should be accruing to women. The study calls for effective policies to promote female employment by investing in sectors that afford a more flexible and enabled environment for women's participation and involvement.

Chapter 22 investigates the very sensitive issue of disabled women who face double discrimination. Patriarchy and capitalism operate in the creation of disabling social structures. It excludes women with disability on the grounds of a dual system of discrimination based on sexuality and disability. The author contends that the presence of disabled women was disregarded not just by the able-bodied men but also by disabled men who failed to incorporate the notions of motherhood, femininity, emotional labour and code of conduct imposed on women. Education and employment of the disabled in society will be possible only when social attitudes are transformed; otherwise, laws that have been passed will only be of token value. This chapter looks at the history of movements, primarily feminist, demanding the inclusion of women with disabilities in society.

Chapter 23 throws light on the challenges faced by women in terms of political participation after two decades of enactment of the Seventy-Fourth Constitutional Amendment Act. Women's participation has been recognized as an important measure of the status of women in society. This chapter presents success stories of the Elected Women Representatives of Lucknow which explain the impact of good governance and decentralization on decision making and effective participation of women through representation at the local level of governance. It deals with the factors associated with the performance of women representatives in local governance. The research draws attention to reforms that would improve women's economic and social opportunities to ensure an increase in women's participation in governance.

Part IV

The fourth section revolves around health issues with six thoughtful chapters.

Chapter 24 deals with the health assessment of women. The author refers to health as a state of physical, mental and social well-being. Health is an important issue for all developing and