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## New economic policy and problem of inequality in India

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### Abstract

The most significant impact of new economic policy on Scheduled Castes can be seen in the changes in wage employment under income generation programs. The government has given top priority to rural development schemes and programs for the upliftment of the poor people, especially the category of Scheduled Castes.

**Keywords:** Inequality, poverty, health, education, economic growth, economic development, economic policy

### Introduction

The Government of India announced the new economic policy package in 1991. This policy was fundamental in the approach and content of policies adopted by the government after independence. Managing shock therapy for the economy was a strategy. The policy was announced in the important circumstances of the Indian economy. The fiscal deficit, which was 5.4 percent of GDP in 1981-82, was 8.4 percent of GDP in 1990-91. The government's interest liability had increased to 36.4 percent of the total government expenditure. Increasing adverse balance of payments put the economy in debt trap. Due to declining foreign exchange reserves, increase in the normal price level, poor performance in PSUs and a huge increase in oil prices due to Gulf War were the major factors responsible for the balance of payments crisis in India. It was in all these circumstances that India asked for a bailout loan of \$ 1.8 billion from the IMF, in exchange for demanding reform in India. Therefore, new economic policy was introduced on the basis of liberalization, privatization and globalization.

### New Economic Policy

When we move on the pattern of this policy, the strategy was also suggested by the World Bank (1989) [29]. According to the World Bank (1989) [29], "There is a dialogue between the slowness of the reforms and the end result, because slow reform inherent interests are adversely affected by policy reforms which increase the support and prevent the process. Allows". Indeed, the seeds of economic reforms were sown in the very first Five Year Plan of India, when the documents of the first plan made it clear that the greater responsiveness of the party to the opinion of the government, the more its effect would be greater. Action (GOI 1953) [11].

Consequently, the main components of the new economic policy include the control of the domestic industry and the promotion of foreign direct investment, the liberalization of trade regime, measures to strengthen capital markets and institutes, along with the improvement in the domestic interest rate and the beginning of public development reform. The liberalization package sought to remove the entry point restrictions in India's economic system. Regulatory setup gradually developed over a long period of time. Import restrictions were imposed for conservation of limited foreign currency resources. The role of foreign private capital was determined by our desire to achieve our identity. Regarding monopoly laws, industrial licensing, control over capital issues, foreign exchange regulations and reservation on small scale and public sector enterprises had its justification and desirability.

Privatization of Indian public enterprises was an important component of new economic policy as some of these enterprises were in huge loss and as a result, the government decided to adopt a policy of disinvestment in the public sector so that privatization could be

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encouraged. In fact, these public sector enterprises enjoyed monopoly since their inception and hence, their management improved slightly, resulting in heavy losses. It was in these circumstances that a policy of privatization was introduced in India. Similarly, the process of globalization was associated with openness, increasing economic independence and deepening economic integration in the world economy. Unrestricted flow of goods and services, capitalization and technology transfer were the main variables affecting our economy under globalization.

New economic policy has positive and negative impact on India. In the positive effect, economic activities have picked up and the GDP growth rate has shown an impressive growth. Industrial production was also excited. Due to the significant increase in government revenue, the fiscal deficit decreased. Large flows of goods and services have examined the rising rate of inflation. Consumer sovereignty expanded and foreign currency reserves increased significantly. As a result of all these effects, Indian economy has been recognized as an emerging economic power in the world economy. In its negative effects, the new economic policy completely neglected the agricultural sector. Concentration was only in urban areas; therefore, the rural area was ignored. The growth of multinational corporations can eventually result in economic colonization. Consumerism has increased rapidly. Cultural values have eroded and the unilateral development of the Indian economy has grown. Despite all these limitations, the overall impact of the new economic policy has remained favourable to the Indian economy so far.

### **New Economic Policy and Poverty Trends**

Poverty patterns depend on poverty estimates which can be done on various criteria. Estimates of poverty created by the World Bank are based on international poverty line, which is determined by purchasing power parity per person per day at \$ 1.25. At this level, estimates made for the year 2005 by the World Bank show that one third of the global poor lives in India. If the poverty line is fixed two dollars per day, the number of poor in India is 828 million, which is three quarters of the total population. However, the estimates made by the Planning Commission are based on the figures of National Sample Survey, in which the criteria used in the per capita consumption expenditure in urban and rural areas are used. Consequently, the results, as well as the trend, are different from the estimates of the World Bank. The estimation of the Planning Commission for the current study is more relevant because the estimates of the World Bank are only relevant to international comparisons.

The proportion of India's population below the poverty line has decreased widely, but the overall trend is downward. Based on estimates of Planning Commission, the trend of poverty can be broadly divided into three phases. In the first phase, which occurs in the mid-1950s from 1970, poverty reduction does not show any significant tendency. Between the poverty line, forty percent of the total population in India was seen in 1951, which was upto four-three percent by the end of the first five year plan. By the end of the second Five Year Plan, it again came back to forty five percent and it was fifty percent by the end of the fifth five year plan. It is clear that the trends during the first phase are irregular

The second phase starts from the middle of the 1970s and ends until the start of the new economic policy. During the

Sixth and Seventh Five Year Plans, the percentage of people below the poverty line declined significantly. By the end of the Sixth Five Year Plan, rural poverty had come down from fifty percent to 25 percent, when this decline was high. By the end of the Seventh Five Year Plan it increased to thirty-four percent. Urban poverty also decreased by forty percent from thirty percent to rural poverty and thirty-three percent during the same period.

Third phase of poverty trend in India starts with the beginning of new economic policy. In the trend of rural and urban poverty, from the beginning of thirty five to thirty percent and 33 percent from 33 percent. Revealed percentage increase. However, in 1993, the rural poverty trend declined to 37 percent. Similarly, urban poverty also declined to 32 percent in the same period. When the level of poverty compare to the level of poverty at the end of the Seventh Five Year Plan, there is little improvement in the trend. This means that the immediate effect of the new economic policy on poverty reduction was negligible. However, the positive impact of this policy on poverty reduction can be seen when this level has decreased to 26.1 percent in 1999-2000. However, for the year 2004-05, the NSS survey revealed that poverty was 28.3 percent in rural areas and 25.7 percent in urban areas, while it was 27.5 percent in the entire country.

Srinivasan (2004) <sup>[28]</sup> and Radhakrishnan (2004) <sup>[25]</sup> have also been seen by economic studies on the trend of poverty. He explained the trends of poverty on the basis of domestic consumption expenditure and concluded that there has been a lot of improvement in the financial condition of the poor, although there is still a lot to be done in this regard. For Srinivasan (2004) <sup>[28]</sup> 1992-93 and 1998-99 period, for rural and urban areas, the country as a whole describes the distribution of homes with a score of 0 to 6 overall. Srinivasan (2004) <sup>[28]</sup> revealed that with the period of economic reforms, the infrastructure of the houses has improved greatly during the 1990s. In 1992-93, 4.4 percent of the households were in 'Abyss Depreciation' (overall score of 0) and dropped from 2.8 percent or 36 percent in 1998-99. Similar tendency is also seen in the 'Moderated Deprived' (MD) category, while during this period, it decreases from 25.4 percent to 19.57 percent. This kind of decline is seen in both rural and urban areas.

According to calculations from various trips of National Expenditure Survey (NSS) between 1970-71 and 1999-00, the per capita expenditure of food consumption and food intake, for three expenditure groups, i.e. below 30 percent, middle 40 percent per cent and The top 30 percent, indicates that the growth rate of rural per capita expenditure (PCE) at 1990-91 prices decreased from 0.75 percent during 1990-98 (if it includes 1.60 percent in the 55th and 56th rounds) 19 Percentage during 70-89 On the contrary, the urban annual growth rate increased from 1.92% during 1970-89, to about 2.84% during the 1990-98 (3.01% when joining the 55th and 56th round). The annual growth rate of rural per capita real expenditure has increased from 0.37 per cent during 1970-89 to 1.80 per cent in the 1990s. It clearly shows that the rural-urban divide became wider in the 1990s. It is also worth noting that urban areas had high growth inequality (Radhakrishna 2004) <sup>[25]</sup>.

Radhakrishna (2004) <sup>[25]</sup> found that in urban expenditure groups, the difference in the rate of development is reflected in the vast urban inequality. During 1990-98, the top 30 per cent of the urban population grew at a rate of 3.52 per cent

(3.29 per cent and 3.29 per cent for the 55th and 56th rounds) in actual expenditure, while at the lowest level of 30 per cent Increase of 1.50 percent (2.32) if percentage is included in 55th and 56th rounds). In the case of rural areas, below 30 percent of the growth rate decreased from 1.73 percent in 1970-89 to 0.44 percent during 1990-98 (1.48 percent if included in the 55th and 56th round). Analysis shows that in the 1990s, urban areas and top 30 percent increased substantially, while a relative decline in rural areas, although all rural groups have improved their position. The results are strong, whether we include 55th and 56th rounds from analysis or do out.

The three traditional measures of poverty, i.e. Head Count Ratio (HCR), Poverty Gap Ratio (PGR) and Foster-Greer-Thorbeck Index (FGT) show lack of adequate poverty during 1970- 2001. Performance in urban areas is better than rural areas (Radhakrishna 2004) <sup>[25]</sup> and all poverty measures showed that rural-urban trenching was more broadened in the 1990s' poverty reduction demonstration. The decline in the severity of poverty is faster than the extent of poverty or deeper. For example, during 1990-2001, while the annual rate of FGT was 7.32 percent in rural areas and 10.87 percent in urban areas, PGR was down by 5.25 percent in rural areas and 7.19 percent in urban areas. Due to the rapid decline in the severity of poverty, the percentage of poor too has been reduced by faster rate than PGR and HCR but the rate is less than FGT.

It is worth noting that compared to HCR and PGR, FGT is much more closely related to the occurrence of very bad tracks. Thus, there is conclusive evidence to show that declining urban poverty has accelerated in the 1990s. For example, FGT for urban areas dropped at an annual rate of 4.09 percent during 1970-1989 and during 1990-14 at 10.87 percent. The conclusions remain unchanged whether we include or exclude the 55th and 56th NSS rounds. However, in the case of rural areas, the picture is not clear; Depending on the change in the growth rate, we include or exclude 55th and 56th rounds. Including both the 55th and the 56th rounds, however, suggests improvement in poverty reduction rates, although at a very low rate compared to urban areas.

Radhakrishna (2004) <sup>[25]</sup> also found that with the exception of Assam and Orissa, between 1993-94 and 1999-00, in all the states, there is considerable reduction in the incidence of poor, very poor and extremely poor. Poverty levels were more or less in Assam and Orissa alone. Bakshi (2008) <sup>[2]</sup> found that the stabilization and structural adjustment policies implemented by the Indian government since 1991 have had a profound effect on the level of life of the poor in agriculture, rural development and rural India.

An aspect of the new policy internationally is an attempt to replace classical land reform - in which "a section of landowners spread, and distribution of land, and increase the freedom of the sections of farmers and agricultural labourers" spread by Zamindarism and Is exploited "- which is known as" market-driven land improvement. "However, studies have shown that the lack of capital In the economy, there is a limited scope for achieving equal distribution of resources through market operations (Bakshi 2008) <sup>[2]</sup>. They think that redistribution land reform not only increases production and reduces poverty, but also a democratic revolution. The part that frees the people of the country from the womb of landowning. One important requirement for real land reforms is that the state producer's resources

The intervention to ensure access to s, do not have mainly access to land, social classes and traditionally land for groups and free from social and economic oppression these sections.

The nature of poverty has been accepted as a multidimensional by the Report of Expert Group formed by the Planning Commission (GOI 2009) <sup>[16]</sup>. The group decided that poverty estimates would be based on the private expenditure of the Indian domestic consumers collected by the NSSO. Given this fact, it has been decided to move away from the calorie intake norms to remove the poverty line, that the consumption of calories collected and collected by the NSSO is related to the special survey, overtime or nutritional results seen from the entire space. Has not been found; The group noticed that the poverty line line (PLB) is the context of the consumption of household items and services consumed by those households on the poverty line household goods and border line which separates the poor from the poor. Even while moving away from the calorie norms, it has been validated by examining the adequacy of the actual private expenditure per person near poverty line on food, education and health by comparing the proposed poverty line with the ideal expenditure in line with nutrition, education and health outcomes. Went. It was also seen that to determine a new poverty line, there is a need for overall consideration, and under the current constitutional arrangement, factors responsible for the decline in the poverty line have to go on so that the impact of new economic policy on falling trends has been affected. Poverty in India is clearly visible.

### **Socio-Economic Inequality**

Scheduled castes are those castes which have been specified in a list according to Article 341 of the Constitution of India. People of these castes are considered to be excluded and classified as untouchables. They are at the bottom of the social hierarchy and are socially deprived, discriminated and exploited. Therefore, special attention is needed for their development. Specific provisions have been included in the Constitution of India to provide social justice to the members of these castes through the policy of protective discrimination.

Economic development with social justice has been the main objective of planning process and rural development programs in India. The government has not only taken into account the economic goals but also has taken into consideration the social aspects like providing extra to the deprived classes of society. In India, the Central and State Governments have implemented various schemes and programs, including the Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana, the Indira Awas Yojana and the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, which are for the upliftment of the poor families, including Scheduled Castes Living down the line are living. The Indian government has also set up a National Scheduled Caste Finance and Development Corporation and the National Scheduled Castes Commission to go into problems and prevent them from discrimination. Currently, Scheduled Castes in India constitute 16.2 percent of the total population out of them 45.6 percent landless agricultural labourers and 20 percent of the farmers fall under the category of mostly small and marginal farmers.

One-third of the small and marginal farmers live below the poverty line and do not have access to basic needs like food,



clothes and shelter and large number of Indian labour force engaged in Patti businesses, including agricultural labour, construction work and other low-grade jobs. Various studies have been undertaken to assess the limits of development of scheduled castes. Forrester (1974) <sup>[9]</sup> saw the status of people of scheduled castes in the social scale index, which includes items like poverty, social status, health, life expectancy, literacy and education, most of which are at the bottom of this scale. Another study conducted by Singh and Malik (1989) <sup>[26]</sup> states that implementation of the schemes and programs for scheduled castes in India was very poor. Nancharia (1990) <sup>[24]</sup> mentioned aspects of the development of Scheduled Castes, in which they were referring to excessive land, commercial distribution, access to education and poverty. He observed that although there has been a cognitive improvement in the development of Scheduled Castes, it was not enough because most of the members of the community are agricultural labourers and they do not occupy the land. On the basis of all these studies, it can be seen that the root cause behind their miserable socio-economic status is lack of education, lack of necessary skills, and lack of income creation income, land reform and inequalities in the agricultural structure due to inequalities. The main issue of concern for Scheduled Castes is poverty and social discrimination, which requires proper attention under the five-year plans. In India, the impact of development and poverty among Scheduled Castes can be done on a variety of basis, including education, health, work force participation ratio, business, wage employment, representation in government jobs and access to basic infrastructure of life.

### Health and Education

Education is an essential element of human resource development. It helps in improving the knowledge and development of skills between individuals. Compared to other developing countries in the world, the overall propagation of education is relatively small, whereas the rate of raw literacy among Scheduled Castes is still worse. In 1961, it was 10.2.3 percent, which increased from 19.3 percent in 21.3 percent and 2001 to 45.20 percent, while in 2001 it was 54.1 percent for the total population. The number of primary and middle schools increased from 2.23 lakh in 1951 to 12.3 lakh in 2005-06. According to the Economic Survey of India. During these years, enrolment of Scheduled Castes students increased. However, drop-out rates among children of Scheduled Castes are high and it needs to be reduced considerably by providing economic incentives.

The state of health is multi-functional in nature and is clearly a bit difficult to measure. It depends on many indicators including death rates, nutrition status, calorie intake, life expectancy at birth, etc. In all these indicators, the birth rate and life expectancy at birth are commonly used to measure the health status of people in a community. The more benefits and benefits of the public health system are quite unevenly between the well-endowed and weaker sections of the society. Based on this condition in relation to health services, a policy structure was developed by the National Health Policy in 2002 to reduce the inequalities. Consequently, according to the National Family Health Survey, 2005-2006, the infant mortality rate declined by 66.4 percent in the scheduled castes compared to the total infant mortality rate of 57 percent. Similarly, according to

this report, Child Mortality Rate among Scheduled Castes also came to 23.2 percent in comparison to 18.4 percent in the whole country. These figures show that the condition of health among the Scheduled Castes has improved and there is not much difference in comparison to the health status of the population for the country.

### Workforce Participation

Workforce participation rate is the percentage of total population of total workers. During the long-term growth rate of labour force during the period 1983-2005, the population growth rate was 1.97 percent per year. However, during the period 2002-2005, the population growth rate was 1.71 percent, while during the same period the labour force growth rate was 2.97 percent more per annum. At the all India level, work participation rate is 40.4 percent more in the scheduled castes than 30.3 percent among the general population. This means that the Scheduled Castes are doing well on the job front, as far as the participation rate of the workforce is concerned. The business status of the population reflects their relative reliance on various economic activities. It has been observed by the Planning Commission in its report of 2005-2006 that 20 percent of Scheduled Castes in the Scheduled Castes are involved in basic agricultural activities compared to 25 percent of the general category workers. Among non-agricultural activities, the share of these two categories is 34.4 percent and 46.8 percent, respectively. Since 1981, the business distribution pattern of both categories has changed. The percentage of Scheduled Caste workers decreased from 28.17 percent in 1981 to 20 percent in 2001 and the same as agricultural labourers from 48.22 percent to 45.6 percent. However, the percentage of workers belonging to scheduled caste classes engaged in non-agricultural activities increased from 23.61 percent in 1981 to 34.4 percent in 2001. Hence it can be seen that most of the Scheduled Castes people live as agricultural labourers, although the tendency in commercial distribution of population among the Scheduled Castes is gradually changing. Although changes related to farming can be seen in non-agricultural activities, which can show some improvement in their standard of living.

The Scheduled Caste (GOI 2008) <sup>[14]</sup> in government jobs has been possible due to the protective discrimination policy of the Government of India. Reservations have been provided in jobs, which facilitates the entry of salaried services because education opportunities alone will not be of any use without the beneficial employment. Reservations related to reservation in jobs and studies and benefits received by Scheduled Castes indicate that their reservation in top most services is negligible. The representation of Scheduled Castes in class A in the Central Government was only 9.09 percent in 1991, which increased marginally to 11.42 percent in 2001. Similarly, for class B and C categories, representation changed from 11.8 percent to 12.82 percent and from 15.65 percent to 16.25 percent. (GOI 2008-2009) <sup>[15]</sup>. It is clear that during the first decade of the new economic policy, the representation of scheduled castes in top-class government jobs has not increased significantly. The government's failure to provide higher education to scheduled castes and to implement a policy of reservations for higher class posts for Scheduled Castes population is responsible for this.

After the implementation of the new economic policy, there has not been much improvement in access to infrastructure

like electricity and drinking water for Scheduled Castes. According to the Planning Commission (GOI 2009) <sup>[16]</sup>, in 1991, the percentage of households with electricity surplus was 48.1 percent while the Scheduled Castes population was only 28.1 percent. In 2001, it turned into 61.4 percent and 44.3 percent, respectively. There is also a slight improvement in the supply of safe drinking water. According to the location, the total percentage of households with drinking water sources was 39 percent, households with 44.3 percent and 16.7 percent had water sources far away from their homes. However, the total percentage of SC households was not favourable as compared to the total percentage of the household according to the source of drinking water. Only 27 percent of scheduled castes had water sources within their premises, 53.5 percent of their premises and 19.5 percent away from their premises. It is clear that most Scheduled Caste families are either dependent on the water provided by municipalities or they have to go very far to bring water (GOI 2001) <sup>[31]</sup>.

Nadkarni (1997) <sup>[23]</sup> believes that social mobility often happens with individuals or families, and sometimes with individual communities, whereas the broad-based society refers to society as its overall form and its power structure. Apart from this, to the extent that relocation of livelihood from one reference to another occurs without any significant change in the relations of the group with others, it becomes less than the broadest base. If the upward social mobility of a community is with the upgradation or marginalization of another community, then a wider base cannot be generated unless the community experiencing vertical mobility is numerically much stronger than the other.

Nadkarni (1997) <sup>[23]</sup> said that another powerful force which facilitates broad base is economic development, in which modern technology and urbanization are the attendant forces of growth. The development of technology can increase productivity and free humans from drudgery and can work under the following conditions and income. However, it can also be deprived of work opportunities and the rate of employment growth must be significant enough to compensate for the unemployment created initially by the replacement of obsolete technology. Urbanization can free the Scheduled Castes from the feudal oppression of the rural society and provide new opportunities for advancement, provided that urbanization is not the kind where the vulnerable people are being pushed from villages to urban slums. Although economic development is not similar to economic development, it has a huge potential for the convenience of a broad base. This is because with a given GNP and money, a person or community can only extend their well-being at the expense of others. It is a situation full of conflict ability. On the other hand, in the case of higher economic growth, more opportunities are created for the welfare of all. When economic development is clearly associated with the welfare programs for the poor, even then it becomes a better situation to see that the benefits of development share more equally. If this situation is combined with democracy on the basis of adult franchise, freedom of expression, and conscious political movements, as we, in India, we should have an ideal situation for a broad base. However, the rate of economic development in British India was close to zero, and even after independence until the 1980's, the growth of GNP was only slightly above the growth rate of the population. It is from the beginning of the 1990's that the growth of GNP is much higher than the

growth rate of the population. However, as long as economic development does not go towards social development through conscious policies and programs, and its nature is such that instead of reducing them, more jobs are created, it is not enough profit for the weak (Nadkarni 1997) <sup>[23]</sup> can bring.

Industrialization in rural areas is ending with poor quality of product, active marketing or poor distribution with distribution channels and a constant decency with low factor productivity. State policies, both narrowly sub-centre-centered and pursuing a subsistence approach to rural industrialization, in India, to solve the problem of rural poverty, fails both of the broad support in the important productive sector. And affect the technical mobility. Das (2009) <sup>[6]</sup> has seen an urgent need to influence the technical mobility, which increases the level of productivity of the firms and contributes significantly to the manufacturing. Poverty is particularly present in the rural areas, because large number of units are stuck with dated methods and instruments (Kurien 1989) <sup>[22]</sup> in the field of rural artisans. They also argued that the policy of rural industrialization for the upliftment of the poor should be sensitive to the fact of the co-existence of many levels of technology and skill in the entire area. It is a broad-based, flexible and inclusive approach that can help the rural and urban enterprises maintained by promoting symbiotic relations between farm and non-farm sector especially for the upliftment of poor people.

## Conclusion

The most significant impact of new economic policy on Scheduled Castes can be seen in the changes in wage employment under income generation programs. The government has given top priority to rural development schemes and programs for the upliftment of the poor people, especially the category of Scheduled Castes. Distribution of surplus land to these people was an important step towards their economic empowerment. Total number of declared and distributed surplus till 2002 was 53.94 lakh hectares which was distributed to 576 lakh beneficiaries, out of which 36 percent belonged to Scheduled Castes. Apart from this, the government allocated 50 percent of the amount of gram panchayats adopted under various schemes and programs, mostly in the Scheduled Castes. Under the Mahatma Gandhi National Employment Guarantee Act, 2.93 crore households were given employment, in which 57 percent of the people belonged to Scheduled Castes in 2008-2009. All these facts show that employment and income generating programs are increasing for the scheduled castes in India, but the change is emphasizing more effective efforts in this regard to improve the economic condition of the marginalized people. The trickle-down process has a narrow meaning for the same reasons. This means that as a result of the gross procedures like economic development, some benefits can be given to the Dalits which can be slightly better than before. But it cannot cover the gap between those who have power - social, economic and political - and others who are deprived. 'Trickle Down' does not suggest the achievement of empowerment and equity. Although empowerment is included in a broad base, it is useful to differentiate between two words. Empowerment of the deprived is the means by which a broad base is obtained. Empowerment can be done in different contexts. In a revolutionary process, the power structure can be expected to lead to the destruction.

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