

Raichur District
Human Development Report 2014

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Zilla Panchayat Raichur
and
Planning, Programme Monitoring and Statistics Department
Government of Karnataka

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SIDDARAMAIAH
CHIEF MINISTER

VIDHANA SOUDHA
BANGALORE - 560 001

CM/PS/234/2014

Date : 27-10-2014

MESSAGE

I am delighted to learn that the Department of Planning, Programme Monitoring and Statistics is bringing out District Human Development Reports for all the 30 districts of the State, simultaneously.

Karnataka is consistently striving to improve human development parameters in education, nutrition and health through many initiatives and well-conceived programmes. However, it is still a matter of concern that certain pockets of the State have not shown as much improvement as desired in the human development parameters. Human resource is the real wealth of any State. Sustainable growth and advancement is not feasible without human development. It is expected that these reports will throw light on the unique development challenges within each district, and would provide necessary pointers for planners and policy makers to address these challenges.

The District Human Development reports are expected to become guiding documents for planning and implementation of Programmes within the districts. I urge the Members of Parliament, Legislators, Zilla Panchayat, Taluk Panchayat and Gram Panchayat Members, vis-a-vis representatives of Urban Local Bodies to make conscious attempt to understand the analysis that has been provided in the district human development reports and strive hard to ensure that the identified gaps are bridged through effective planning and implementation.

A number of people from many walks of life including administrators, academicians and people representatives have contributed in making of these reports. I commend each and every one associated with the preparation of the District Human Development Reports. I acknowledge the efforts put in by district committees headed by Chief Executive Officers and Officers of the Planning Department in completing this challenging task.

It gives me great pride to share with you that Karnataka is the first state in the country to prepare district human development reports for all the districts. I am hopeful that this initiative will spur us to double our efforts to make Karnataka, a more equitable progressive State.

Siddaramaiah

(SIDDARAMAIAH)



S.R. PATIL
Minister for Planning &
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Science & Technology
And
Bagalkot District Incharge Minister

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MESSAGE

I am happy to learn that the District Human Development Reports (DHDRs) for all the 30 districts in the State are being placed in public domain shortly. A painstaking and massive effort has gone into the preparation of these reports. I heartily congratulate the Zilla Panchayats and the Planning Department for this commendable work.

The reports, I am sure, would help policy makers, administrators, researchers, social organizations and the public at large to understand the critical concerns of human development in the Districts and Taluks of our State and also to bridge such deprivations by initiating suitable policy and programme interventions.

(S R Patil)

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Message

The quest for an appropriate approach to development continues even today. The concept of human development revolutionalized the thinking on development and has become the catch-word in all countries and regions. HD champions the creation of an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy, and creative lives. The concept of human development focuses on the actual well-being of the people in terms of indicators like education, health-life expectancy income and gender equity. The Millennium Development Goals have reiterated the importance of putting people at the centre stage. The national and state level HDRs published in India have adopted a similar framework and analyzed the development achievements and gaps in aspects that touch human lives.

Karnataka state has been in the forefront of preparing such reports and plans. In the last decade, apart from two state level HDRs, district level HDRs were prepared for Bijapur, Gulbarga, Mysore and Udupi districts which helped in strengthening their development plans. Now, the government has pushed this activity deeper and is attempting to measure human development at the taluk levels. A uniform methodology and format is adopted for better comparability and effectiveness. The exercise involves the preparation of indices relating to gender inequality, child development, food security, urban development and comprehensive taluk development.

The Raichur District HDR deals with various important sectors like education, health, women and child development, status of SCs and STs, urban development, governance, etc., relating to Raichur district. The present status of the sectors, problems and probable solutions are discussed under various chapters. A considerable amount of data and information have been generated and inferences drawn. The secondary data is supplemented through four small area studies and a pilot survey on dalit development.

The report is a product of an interactive process involving stakeholders such as local bodies, NGOs, academia, various departments of the Zilla Panchayat and others. I congratulate all those who were involved in this exercise under the leadership of Mr. Shri T.Gnanaprakash, Dr. Muddu Mohan and Shri S.N. Nagaraju, the previous CEOs, and Smt. Vijaya Jyothsna, the present CEO. I also congratulate Prof.S.T.Bagalkoti of Karnatak University, Dharwad, the Lead Agency for preparation of this Report. As a useful reference in development planning, this Report is especially dedicated to the local governments and their leaders to assist them in reviewing policies and interventions to maximize their efficiency in accordance to geographical uniqueness. I hope the report will generate further discussions and would help in improving the quality of life of the people in Raichur district of the state of Karnataka.

Dr.Sharanaprakash R. Patil
Minister of State for Medical Education
Government of Karnataka and
Raichur District In-Charge Minister

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3-3-2015

Message

I am glad to know that the first District Human Development Report (DHDR) for Raichur district is being brought out by the Zilla panchayat in collaboration with the Planning Department, Government of Karnataka. This initiative provides a framework for a people-centric development process. Human Development has been conceived as a process that enables people to improve their skills, capabilities and choices to live long, healthy and fulfilled lives.

The DHDR of Raichur attempts to make an independent assessment of the status of Human Development in the district. It highlights the status of literacy, skills, key health indicators and livelihood options available to the people of the district and brings out intra-district variations in respect of identified Human Development indicators. It also underscores the challenges ahead and offers new opportunities for the people of the district.

It is hoped that this exercise will help in evolving an appropriate development strategy that ensures effective and efficient use of available resources for furthering wellbeing of the people and encourages sharing of development benefits and opportunities in an equitable manner.

I would like to thank the Planning Department, Government of Karnataka for its assistance and support for the preparation of the DHDR of Raichur district and look forward to future cooperation in following up the recommendations of this report.

I congratulate all those who were involved in this exercise under the leadership of Shri T.Gnanaprakash, Dr. Muddu Mohan and Shri S.N.Nagaraju, the previous CEOs, and Smt. Vijaya Jyothsna, the present CEO. I wish the report would help people of Raichur district benefit from the findings and recommendations.

ಸರೋಜಮ್ಮ

President
Zilla Panchayat,
Raichur.

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PREFACE

"Wealth is evidently not the good we are seeking, for it is merely useful for the sake of something else", Aristotle said in ancient Greece, which is quite relevant even today. The GDP of a country has no correlation with the quality of life of its people. It was first launched in 1990 with the single goal of putting people back at the center of the development process. The goal was both massive and simple, with far-ranging implications – going beyond income to assess the level of people's long-term well-being to bringing about development of the people, by the people, and for the people, and emphasizing that the goals of development are choices and freedom.

The Human Development reports have been published at national level and state level in past. Karnataka state has gone ahead in publishing district level HDRs as well. Now the same exercise is taken forward and district HDRs are being published for all districts with a common methodology and framework. This is the first HDR for Raichur district.

Raichur is a part of very backward region in the state and has been ranked at the least developed district in many parameters. The demographic characteristics of the district reflect that it is predominantly rural and has a high concentration of weaker sections, i.e., ST and SC communities. Despite a huge population being within the working age group, the quality of it in terms of literacy and health standards is quite low. The gender disparity and child malnourishment levels are higher.

The district is predominantly agricultural with less industrial activity. The only respite is the canal irrigation which makes cultivation possible despite the district falling in less rainfall area. However, yield levels are lower making the sector and people poorer. Though, Raichur is considered to be one of the severely food insecure districts of the State, physical availability of food is ensured through local production and support from the Government through various schematic provisions.

This report captures the achievements in vital sectors such as education, health, women and child development, food security and nutrition, livelihood and poverty, status of marginalized groups including the local Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Women in

particular, urban development, governance related issues. Critical gaps are identified and suitable interventions suggested. The report underscores that there are several challenges that need to be tackled for continuously improving human development indicators in the district.

This exercise started with a district level workshop involving all the line departments, Panchayat functionaries and other government officials. The District Core Committee was formed to oversee the collection of data, validate it and guide the overall progress. Workshops were conducted at taluka levels to sensitize all the stake holders about the importance of the process. The interaction and consultation also helped in identifying topics for small area studies that have added value to the findings. This has helped in identification of barriers to human development in this district. The draft report was presented again at the district level involving all stakeholders before finalization and based on their inputs, the report has been revised.

The whole process has created a large pool of professionals; sensitization of administrators to human development concerns; to reorient policies, schemes and governance for human development; strengthening district and state plans; and creation of mechanism for tracking HD indicators at the Gram Panchayat level.

The HDR is the culmination of the concerted efforts put in by several institutions, officials, elected representatives and experts for over a year. I acknowledge the help and support they have rendered in bringing out this report. I specifically thank Prof.S.T.Bagalkoti of Department of Economics, Karnatak University, Dharwad for his painstaking efforts in preparing this report as the lead agency. I hope that this report provides useful reference points for all local level institutions from which they can plan for furthering human development of the people of Raichur district.

Chief Executive Officer
Zilla Panchayat, Raichur.

Dr. S. T. Bagalkoti
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3-3-2015

Acknowledgements

The report is a collective effort of many agencies, officials and individuals. It is with their support and co-operation that the report has taken shape. I take this opportunity to thank profusely all of them for complementing my efforts.

At the outset, I thank the Planning Department of the Government of Karnataka, Shri Sanjiv Kumar, the former Principal Secretary; Smt. Anita Kaul, I.A.S., former Additional Chief Secretary; and V. Manjula, I.A.S., the present Principal Secretary, Planning, Programme Monitoring and Statistics Department for giving the dynamic leadership to the whole process. Sri.Rajiv Ranjan, I.F.S., Secretary, Planning, Programme monitoring and Statistics Department also guided the work. However, a major credit should go to Dr.Shashidhar, the State Level Consultant and Co-ordinator for preparation of DHDRs. He left no stone unturned. Right from arranging general and technical trainings; sharing vast amount of data; providing regular guidelines and instructions; monitoring the progress and reminding about various phases and deadlines; he kept the clock ticking and is mostly responsible for realization of this ambitious project of the Government. My gratitude to all these authorities is beyond words. UNDP and Planning Commission of India supported the preparation of the DHDR, under their project *'Human Development: Towards Bridging inequalities*'. Their support is profusely acknowledged.

Dr.Sharanaprakash R. Patil, Hon'ble Minister of State for Medical Education and District-in-charge Minister, evinced keen interest in the preparation of the Report. Shri B.V.Nayak (MP, Raichur) and Shri Karadi Sanganna (MP, Koppal); and the legislators of the district, Dr.Shivaraj Patil (MLA); Shri Hampayya Sahukar (MLA); Shri M.Venkatesh Nayak (MLA); Shri Hampanagouda Badarli (MLA); Shri Manappa D. Vajjal (MLA); Shri Pratapgouda Patil (MLA); Shri Sharanappa Mattur (MLC); Shri N.S.Bosaraju (MLC) and Shri Amarnath Patil (MLC) have provided the necessary guidance in preparation of the Report. They are keenly interested in the outcome and policy implications of the report. I thank them for their involvement and their contribution to the report.

The President of Raichur Zilla Panchayat, Smt.Sarojamma Basavaraj; Vice President Shri Jaffer Ali Patel and Members were ready for interaction in different forums and extended complete support in collection of data and finalization of the report. They offered useful suggestions during the workshops and meetings and that helped the report to be rooted to the ground level. My sincere thanks are to them also. I similarly thank all the presidents, vice-presidents and members of all taluk and gram panchyats who provided useful insights about local problems and helped in preparation of the report. In the same manner I heartily thank all the elected representatives of all urban local bodies in Raichur District for their support.

My deepest gratitude is to all the former CEOs of Raichur ZP Shri T.Gnanaprakash, Dr. Muddu Mohan and Shri S.N. Nagaraju, who were involved in various stages of this report preparation. As the Chairpersons of the District Core Committee they were instrumental in calling for data and validating it; and at my every call were available for consultation. They were very enthusiastic about the results and provided a solid support to the activity. The present CEO and Smt. Vijaya Jyothsna, I.A.S., is also equally co-operative and enthusiastic about the report. I thank all of them whole heartedly.

The members of the Core Committee participated in the whole process of collecting and validating data, conducting taluk and district level workshops, finalizing the topics and sites for small area studies and in meticulously going through the draft report. They were the ones on whom I relied upon for much of the basic information. I thank them profusely.

The Chief Planning Officer (CPO) has been the pivot around whom all the process revolved. But for the co-operation and involvement of Dr.T.Roni, the CPO, the Report would not have seen the light of the day. It is his active persuasion of officials which resulted in finalization of the draft report. I am deeply indebted to him.

The member of the Quality Monitoring Group (QMG), Dr. T.R.Chandrashekhar, Professor (Retd), Department of Development Studies, Kannada Vishwavidyala, Hampi was insightful in his ideas and comments about the data. Dr.R.N.Achuta, former faculty of the Institute of Development Studies, Mysuru and currently Visiting Professor at the Administrative Training Institute, Mysuru, peer reviewed the report and offered incisive comments and suggestions that have made the report more relevant. I thank him for the suggestions. Prof.T.R.Chandrashekhar provided a ready reckoner of technical terms in Kannada and I thank him for it.

Back in the University I am highly obliged to the Honorable Vice Chancellors, Prof. H.B.Walikar (former), Prof.S.S.Hugar (present); Registrars- Prof.S.B.Hinchigeri, Prof.S.A.Patil, Prof.G.B.Nandana, Prof.C.S.Kanagali and Prof.M.N.Joshi - who permitted me to undertake the task of preparation of Dharwad DHDR and allowed me to utilize the facilities at the University. Without their willingness and inspiration, the report would not have materialized. A special mention has to be made of Smt. Rajashree and Prof.R.L.Hyderabad, the Finance Officers; Prof.B.M.Ratnakar, the Development Officer; and Prof.I.M.Khazi, Director, PMEB, who were instrumental in processing for payment and other office correspondences. I thank all of them.

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Research scholars at the Department of Economics helped me in preparation of the report. Shri Ashwath Naik, Shri Raju Talawar, Shri Suresh Banakar, Smt. R.G.Kadapatti, Shri Ravi Naik helped in various stages of data preparation and other research assistance. Miss Manjula Kandagal provided the office assistance. Shri Ramanand Hegde of Krupa Computers, Dharwad took special interest in type-setting the Report and making it ready for printing.

I must admit the suggestions and help I received from all these people have helped to make this report immensely better than it would otherwise have been.



S.T.Bagalkoti
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CONTENTS

Message by the Hon'ble Chief Minister	iii
Message by the Hon'ble Minister for Planning & Science & Technology	iv
Message by District Incharge Minister	v
Message by the President, Zilla Panchayat, Raichur	vi
Preface by the Chief Executive Officer, ZP, Raichur	vii
Acknowledgements	ix
List of Tables	xvi
List of Figures	xix
List of Boxes	xxi
List of Maps	xxi
List of Annexures	xxii
List of Acronyms	xxiii
Part - I : Executive Summary	xxv

Part-II Report

Chapter No.	Description	P.No.
1	**Introduction**	**3-20**
1.1	Concept and Methodology	3
1.2	Factors Contributing to Human Development	13
1.3	Data Collection, Compilation and Validation	14
1.4	Measurement of Indices	15
1.5	Concluding Remarks	18
2	**Raichur District: An Overview**	**23-36**
2.1	Introduction	23
2.2	Background and Brief Regional History	23
2.3	Physiographic Divisions of the District	24
2.4	Land, Soil and Natural Resource Endowments	25
2.5	Demography	28
2.6	Literacy	30
2.7	Industry	31
2.8	Irrigation	32
2.9	Infrastructure	32
2.10	Regional Perspectives and Backwardness	32
2.11	An Overview	34

3	**Computation of Human Development and Other Indices**	**39-56**
3.1	Introduction	39
3.2	Human Development Index (HDI)	40
3.3	Gender Inequality Index (GII)	43
3.4	Child Development Index (CDI)	47
3.5	Food Security Index (FSI)	48
3.6	Urban Development Index	51
3.7	Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI)	53
3.8	Concluding Remarks	54
4	**Literacy and Education**	**59-90**
4.1	Introduction	59
4.2	Literacy Profile of the District	60
4.3	Enrolment	65
4.4	Attendance, Dropout, Out of School Children and Mainstreaming of Children	68
4.5	Transition Rates for Children	70
4.6	Secondary School Enrolment and Dropout Rates	71
4.7	Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)	74
4.8	Infrastructure and Access	75
4.9	Eight Basic Facilities - Infrastructure Index	75
4.10	School Completion Ratio - Pass Percentage in SSLC/PUC Examinations	76
4.11	Post-Secondary Education including Professional and General Degree Colleges, ITI/ Polytechnic and other Skill Development Institutions	78
4.12	Schemes for Promotion of Literacy	78
4.13	Per Capita Expenditure on Education	80
4.14	Radar Analysis for Education	81
4.15	Water, Sanitation and Health in Schools: A Small Area Study	82
4.16	An Overview and Persisting Educational Gaps in the District	88
5	**Health and Nutrition**	**93-116**
5.1	Introduction	93
5.2	Demography: Population by Place of Residence, Sex and Social Groups	94
5.3	Infant and Maternal Mortality Rates (IMR and MMR)	97
5.4	Couple Protection Issues and Family Welfare	98
5.5	Infrastructure and Health Personnel	99
5.6	ANC Coverage and Anaemia among Pregnant Women	101
5.7	Institutional Delivery	104
5.8	Immunization of Children	104
5.9	Under-weight Children	104
5.10	Communicable Diseases	105
5.11	Performance of Various Health Schemes	106
5.12	Expenditure Analysis on Health Sector	107
5.13	Radar Analysis for Health	108
5.14	Small Area Study: Malnutrition and its Correlates in a Backward Village Introduction	109
5.15	An Overview: Performance and Inadequacies of Health Care System	115

6	**Income, Poverty and Employment**	**119-146**
6.1	Introduction	119
6.2	District and Taluk Income	120
6.3	Agriculture: Cropping Pattern, Irrigation and Livestock	122
6.4	BPL Households, MGNREGA	125
6.5	Landless households	127
6.6	Employment and Unemployment	128
6.7	Main and Marginal Workers	131
6.8	Work Participation Rate (WPR)	132
6.9	Occupational Pattern	132
6.10	Child Labour	135
6.11	Radar Analysis for Living Standard	136
6.12	Small Area Study - HD Aspects of Migration	137
6.13	Concluding Remarks	144
7	**Standard of Living**	**149-166**
7.1	Introduction	149
7.2	Housing Status	149
7.3	Site-less Households	150
7.4	Households with Pucca Houses	151
7.5	Households without Proper Houses	152
7.6	Households and Asset Status	153
7.7	Schemes for Housing Facilities	155
7.8	Drinking Water	156
7.9	Electricity	158
7.10	Traditional and Modern Fuel	160
7.11	Sanitation	160
7.12	Open Defecation and Toilet Requirement in Raichur District	163
7.13	Concluding Remarks	166
8	**Gender and Development**	**169-190**
8.1	Introduction	169
8.2	Gender Differentials in the District	169
8.3	Gender Patterns of Literacy and Enrolment	171
8.4	Trends in Work Participation	173
8.5	Marginalization of Women's Work	178
8.6	Trends in Political Participation	180
8.7	Community Attitudes and Social Prejudices, if any, affecting Women and Girl Children	181
8.8	Crimes against Women	181
8.9	Role of Women's Groups and SHGs	182
8.10	Adolescent Marriages and its Human Development Dimensions - A Small Area Study	184
8.11	Concluding Remarks	189
9	**Status of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes**	**193-216**
9.1	Introduction	193
9.2	Demographic Profile of SCs and STs	194

9.3	Literacy and Educational Profile	196
9.4	Health Awareness and Institutional Delivery	200
9.5	Occupational pattern – Income and Employment – Livelihood Opportunities and Development Programmes	201
9.6	Housing, Sanitation and Drinking Water Facilities	205
9.7	Comprehensive Dalit Development Index (CDDI)	206
9.8	Concluding Remarks	214
10	**Governance and Human Development**	**219-244**
10.1	Introduction	219
10.2	Local Governance Structure in India	221
10.3	Panchayat Raj Institutions: Structure and Process	222
10.4	Urban Local Bodies: Structure, Issues and Processes	227
10.5	Improving Service Delivery Mechanisms: e – Initiatives	227
10.6	Role of NGOs and Other Voluntary Groups	232
10.7.	Representation of Women and Marginalized Sections of Society in Governance	241
10.8	Financing Human Development	241
10.9	Concluding Remarks	242
11	**Urban Issues in Human Development**	**247-260**
11.1	Introduction	247
11.2	Service Delivery Issues	249
11.3	Solid and Liquid Waste Management	251
11.4	Access to Other Basic Amenities and Urban Livelihood in ULBs	253
11.6	Concluding Remarks	258
12	**Way Forward**	**263-274**
12.1	Introduction	263
12.2	Discussion and Analysis	264
12.3	Concluding Remarks	272
	Annexures	277
	References	307

■■

List of Tables

No.	Title	PageNo.
1.1	Evolution of Indices Measuring Human Development	12
1.2	The Process of Computation of HDI	13
2.1	Cropping Pattern in Raichur District, 2011-12	27
2.2	Demographic Features and Tendencies in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	28
2.3	SC/ST Population in Raichur District	30
2.4	Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2011 (%)	30
2.5	Industrial Units in Raichur District, 2011-12	31
2.6	Select Infrastructural Facilities in Raichur District	33
2.7	Relative Development of Taluks of Raichur District, 2001	34
2.8	District wise HDI and GDI – 1991 and 2001	34
3.1	HDI Across Taluks with Dimension Indices and Ranking in Raichur District, 2011-12	41
3.2	Gender Development and Inequalities in Raichur District, 2011	44
3.3	GII Across Taluks with Dimension Indices and Ranking in Raichur District, 2011-12	46
3.4	Number of Crimes Against Women, 2011, 2012 and 2013	47
3.5	CDI Across Taluks with Dimension Indices and Ranking in Raichur District, 2011-12	48
3.6	Food Security Dimensions in Raichur District, 2011-12	50
3.7	Dimension Indices and values CTDI in Raichur District, 2011-12	52
3.8	Taluk wise and Index wise Ranking, 2011-12	55
4.1	Taluk-wise Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	61
4.2	Characteristics of Illiterates in Raichur District, 2011	62
4.3	Literacy Rates by Place of Residence and Gender in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	63
4.4	Change in Literacy Rates, 2001 - 2011 (% points)	63
4.5	Urban - Rural Gaps in Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	64
4.6	Gender Gaps in Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	64
4.7	Literacy Rates by Social Groups in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	65
4.8	Enrolment in Primary Schools in Raichur District, 2005-06 and 2011-12	66
4.9	GER and NER in Raichur District (%)	68
4.10	Dropout Rates Primary Schools in Raichur District (%)	69
4.11	Number of OOSC in Raichur District, 2011-12	69
4.12	Retention Ratios in Primary Schools in Raichur District (%)	70
4.13	Transition Rate of children enrolled in 5th standard and moving on to 6th standard, 2011-12 (%)	71
4.14	Distribution of Schools by Management, 2011-12 (%)	71
4.15	Features of Secondary School Enrolment in Raichur District, 2011-12	72
4.16	Taluk Wise Retention Rate in Raichur District in 2011-12 (%)	73
4.17	Dropout Rates at Secondary level, 2011-12 (%)	75
4.18	Transition Rates at Secondary Education Level in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)	74
4.19	Pupil-Teacher Ratios in Raichur District, 2011-12	74
4.20	Infrastructural Deficiency in Schools in Raichur District, 2011-12 (% Schools)	76
4.21	Students Passing in SSLC Examinations (%)	77
4.22	PUC Pass percentage Rate, 2011-12	77
4.23	Number of Residential Schools and Hostels in Raichur District, 2011-12	80

4.24	Pupil Teacher Ratios and Pass Percentages in Board Examinations	84
4.25	Expenditure on Education, School Infrastructure and Literacy Attainment, 2011	84
5.1	Demographic Characteristics of Raichur District,	95
5.2	Age Group-wise Population in Raichur District, 2011	95
5.3	Trends in Sex Ratio in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	96
5.4	Trends in Child Sex Ratios in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	96
5.5	Health Infrastructure in Raichur District, 2011-12	100
5.6	Features of AWCs and ICDS in Raichur District, 2011-12	103
5.7	Health Schemes for Improving Maternal and Child Health and Survival in Raichur District, 2011-12	107
5.8	Households Reporting Prevalence of Different Illnesses (%)	112
5.9	Households Obtaining Benefits from Anganwadi Centres in Nagadadinni Village, Raichur (%)	113
6.1	Taluk Domestic Product (TDP) in Raichur district, 2004-05 and 2008-09	121
6.2	Source Wise Net Irrigated Area (NIA) in Raichur District, 2011-12 (% of NSA)	123
6.3	Irrigation and Cropping Intensity and Per Capita Food Grain Production in Raichur District, 2011-12	124
6.4	Livestock and Livestock Products in Raichur District, 2011-12	124
6.5	Working of MGNREGS in Raichur District, 2011-12	127
6.6	Change in Population and Workers in Raichur District, 2001-2011 (%)	129
6.7	Work Participation Rate in Raichur District, 2001& 2011	132
6.8	WPR by Gender and Rural and Urban Areas, 2001 and 2011	133
6.9	Occupational Pattern in 2001 and 2011 (as % of total workers)	133
6.10	Occupational Pattern (Rural and Urban) in 2011 (per cent)	134
7.1	Number of Houseless households in Raichur District, 2011	149
7.2	Pucca Houses in Raichur District by Rural and Urban Areas, 2011	152
7.3	Households Possessing and Not Possessing Assets in Raichur District, 2011	153
7.4	Households Possessing Modern Assets and Availing Bank Services (%), 2011	154
7.5	Number of Houses Constructed/in Progress in Raichur District, 2011-12	155
7.6	Percentage of households with access to safe drinking water facility	157
7.7	Percentage of Households with access to Electricity in Raichur District, 2011	159
7.8	Households with Access to Clean Cooking Fuel, 2011 (%)	160
7.9	Households with Access to Toilet Facility (%), 2011	161
7.10	Households Having Drainage Facility (%), 2011	162
8.1	Demographic Features of Women in Raichur District	170
8.2	Sex Ratios by Residence in 2001 and 2011	170
8.3	Literacy Rates in Raichur District by Gender, 2001 & 2011	172
8.4	Enrolment Characteristics in Raichur District, 2005-06 and 2011-12	173
8.5	Share of Female Workers to Total Workers, 2001 and 2011	174
8.6	Occupational Distribution of Workers in Raichur District (%), 2001 & 2011	176
8.7	Growth Rates of Workers (%), 2001-2011	177
8.8	% Female Elected Representatives in Local Bodies	180
8.9	Number of Crimes against Women, 2011, 2012 and 2013	181
8.10	Stree Shakti SHGs in Raichur District, 2011-12	182
8.11	SHGs Formed by NGOs in Raichur District, 2012-13	183

9.1	SC/ ST Population in Raichur District, 2011	195
9.2	Literacy Attainments by Social Groups in Raichur District, 2011	197
9.3	Share of SC and ST students in Enrolment at the Elementary Level	198
9.4	Percentage Change in Enrolment by Social Groups, 2005-06 to 2011-12	199
9.5	GER for SC and ST Children in Raichur District, 2011-12	199
9.6	Retention Rates in Raichur District, 2011-12	199
9.7	Retention Ratios in High schools	200
9.8	Work Characteristics of SC and ST Population in Raichur District, 2011	201
9.9	Working of MGNREGS in Raichur District, 2011-12	203
9.10	Hostels, Residential Schools and Scholarships Availed by SC in Raichur District, 2011-12	204
9.11	SC and ST Households Living in Good Houses, 2011 (%)	205
9.12	Access of SC and ST Households to Basic Amenities, 2011 (%)	205
9.13	Access of SC and ST Households to Other Amenities, 2011 (%)	206
9.14	Components of Dalit Development Index and their Values, Raichur District	211
10.1	Features of PRIs in Karnataka State and Raichur District	225
10.2	Type and Number of ULBs in Raichur District	227
10.3	Vacancy Level of Officers' Positions at District and Taluka Levels in Raichur District, October 2014 (% to sanctioned positions)	231
11.1	Population and Urban Characteristics in Karnataka and Raichur (Lakhs)	248
11.2	Urbanization Characteristics of ULBs in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	249
11.3	Status of Water Supply in ULBs of Raichur, 2011-12	250
11.4	Households with Access to Toilets and Drainage Facility (%), 2011	251
11.5	Municipal Solid Waste and its Management in ULBs of Raichur District	252
11.6	Households Having Access to Basic Amenities (%)	253
11.7	Features of Slum Population in Raichur District, 2011	254
11.8	Literacy Rates among Slum Households of Raichur District, 2011	255
11.9	Work Characteristics of Slum Residents	255
11.10	Karnataka Urban Service Level Benchmarking for ULBs of Raichur District, 2009-10	257

■■

List of Figures

No.	Title	PageNo.
1.1	Components of HDI	9
1.2	Components of HDI	14
2.1	Geographical Area of Taluks of Raichur District (%)	25
2.2	Rainfall statistics in Raichur District	27
2.3	Decadal Variations in Population of Raichur district during 20th Century	29
2.4	PCGDP of Taluks of Raichur District, 2008-09	33
3.1	India's HDI: A Time Trend	39
3.2	Human Development Status among SCs and STs in Raichur District, 2011	43
3.3	UDI in Raichur District, 2011-12	53
3.4	Levels of Deprivation in Raichur District, 2011-12	55
4.1	Progress in Literacy in India, 1951-2011	61
4.2	Literacy Rates in Karnataka State and Raichur District, 2011	61
4.3	Gender Gap and Change in Literacy in Raichur District, 2001-2011	62
4.4	Gaps in Literacy Attainments	66
4.5	Share of Enrolment by Social Groups (%), 2005-06 and 2011-12	67
4.6	Dropout Children Mainstreamed in Raichur District (%)	70
4.7	Secondary School GER in Raichur District, 2011-12	72
4.8	NER in Raichur District	73
4.9	Schools Having Basic Facilities (%)	75
4.10	School Infrastructure Index in Raichur District, 2011-12	76
4.11	Per capita Expenditure on Education (Rs), 2011-12	81
4.12	GER and NER at Primary Level and Literacy Rates, 2011	81
4.13	Mainstreaming, Retention and Literacy Rates	81
4.14	Pupil Teacher Ratios and Pass Percentages in Board Examinations	82
4.15	Expenditure on Education, School Infrastructure and Literacy Attainment, 2011	82
5.1	IMR and CMR in Raichur District, 2011-12	98
5.2	ANC Coverage and Anaemic Pregnant Women in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)	101
5.3	Institutional Delivery in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)	104
5.4	Immunization Coverage of Children in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)	105
5.5	Incidence of Malnourishment and Underweighting among Children in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)	105
5.6	Per Capita Expenditure on Health in Raichur District (Rs.), 2011-12	107
5.7	Radar for Health Indicators - 1	108
5.8	Radar for Health Indicators - 2	108
5.9	Radar for Health Indicators - 3	109
5.10	Radar for Health Indicators - 4	109
5.11	Usage of PDS Grains (Kgs.)	112
5.12	Malnutrition and Related variables	114
6.1	Sectoral Composition of Taluk Income in Raichur District, 2004-05 and 2008-09 (%)	121
6.2	Cropping Pattern in Raichur District (per cent to NSA), 2011-12	122
6.3	BPL Families Provided with Ration Cards	125

6.4	Job Cards Issued and Employment Provided under MGNREGS in Raichur District, 2011-12	127
6.5	Change of Total Workers in Raichur District (%), 2001-2011	129
6.6	Share of Main Workers to Total Workers in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011(%)	131
6.7	Share of Female Workers to Total Workers, 2001 and 2011	131
6.8	Occupational Pattern in Raichur District, 2001 & 2011	134
6.9	Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 1	136
6.10	Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 2	136
6.11	Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 3	137
6.12	Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 4	137
7.1	Site-less Households in Raichur District, 2011-12	150
7.2	Households having Pucca Houses in Raichur District, 2011	151
7.3	Houses Constructed for Poor People (%)	155
7.4	Habitations Supplied More Than 40 LPCD of Water in Raichur, 2011-12 (%)	156
7.5	Habitations by contaminants (%)	158
7.6	Population by contaminants (%)	158
7.7	Distribution of Habitations and Population of Raichur District Affected by Various Water Contaminants, 2013-14 (%)	158
7.8	Per cent Households Resorting to Open defecation in Raichur District, 2011	164
7.9	Number of Toilets to be Constructed in Raichur District to Achieve Zero Open Defecation by 2019	164
8.1	WPRs and Gender Gaps in Work Participation in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011	175
8.2	Share of Female Workers in Census Occupation Categories,2011 (%)	176
8.3	Median age at first marriage among women of age 25-29 by different population characteristics in India – (NHFS) 2005-06	184
8.4	Age of Marriage (years)	186
8.5	Respondents by Education (%)	186
8.6	Age at First Delivery (Years)	188
9.1	Growth in Total Population and SC/ST Population	196
9.2	Sex Ratio by Social Groups in Raichur District	196
9.3	Gaps in Literacy Level across Social Groups	197
9.4	Health Awareness and Utilization by SC and ST Communities, 2007-08	200
9.5	Occupational Pattern across Social Groups in Raichur District, 2011 (% of total workers)	201
9.6	Share in Number and Area of Operational holdings by Social Groups, 2010-11	202
9.7	Agricultural Land Holdings across Social Groups (%)	203
9.8	Comprehensive Dalit Development Index for Raichur District	212
10.1	Representation of SC, ST, OBCs and Women in PRIs in Raichur District (%)	241
10.2	Purpose wise Expenditure of Raichur ZP, 2011-12 (%)	242
11.1	Talukwise Urbanization Ratios in Raichur District, 2001and 2011	248

■■

List of Boxes

No.	Index	PageNo.
1.1	What all does GDP measures?	3
1.2	Gross National Happiness	10
2.1	Article 371-J	35
3.1	MDGs on Child Development	47
4.1	Millennium Development Goals on Education	60
5.1	UN Millennium Development Goals with respect to Health	95
8.1	Agricultural Holdings of Women	179
9.1	Why are SCs and STs Poorer?	206
10.1	Five Principles of Good Governance	221

■■

List of Maps

No.	Index	PageNo.
3.1	Taluka HDIs in Raichur District, 2011-12	41
3.2	Taluk GII in Raichur District, 2011-12	46
3.3	Taluk CDI in Raichur District, 2011-12	48
3.4	Taluk FSI in Raichur District, 2011-12	51
3.5	CTDI in Raichur District, 2011-12	53
5.1	Health Facilities in District Raichur	100

■■

List of Annexures

No.	Description	P.No.
1.1	Parameters and Variables of DHDR	277
1.2	Note on Estimation of IMR, CMR and MMR	280
1.3	A Brief Note on Preparation of DHDR of Raichur District	282
1.4	Data Quality and Limitations	284
2.1	Demographic Information of Raichur District, 2011	285
3.1	Human development Indicators for Raichur District, 2011-12	286
3.2	HD Indicators among SC and ST Households, 2011	294
4.1	Number of Illiterates in Raichur District, 2011	295
4.2	Schools Possessing Infrastructural Facilities	296
4.3	Colleges and Enrolment in Raichur District, 2011-12	297
5.1	Demographic Details of Raichur District, 2011	298
5.2	Allopathic Hospital Infrastructure in Raichur District (Numbers), 2011-12	299
7.1	Households Possessing Select Assets in Raichur District (%), 2011	300
9.1	Livelihood Opportunity Index for SC and ST Population	301
9.2	Questionnaire Used for Collection of Data for Computation of CDDI	302
10.1	List of 29 Subjects as per Eleventh Schedule (Article 243G) for Devolution to the Panchayati Raj Institutions	304
10.2	List of Functions of ULBs	305
10.3	Public Expenditure for Human Development in Raichur, 2011-12	306

Acronyms

AL	:	Agricultural Labour/er/s
ANM	:	Auxiliary Nurse Midwife
APL	:	Above Poverty Line
ASHA	:	Accredited Social Health Activist
AWC	:	Anganawadi Centre
AWW	:	Anganwadi Worker
BPL	:	Below Poverty Line
CPIAL	:	Consumer Price Index for Agricultural Labour
CPIIW	:	Consumer Price Index for Industrial Workers
CTDI	:	Comprehensive Taluka Development Index
DDP	:	District Domestic Product
DES	:	Directorate of Economics and Statistics
DHO	:	District Health Office
DOR	:	Dropout Rate
FLR	:	Female Literacy Rate
GDI	:	Gender Related Development Index
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GER	:	Gross Enrolment Rate
GII	:	Gender Inequality Index
GoI	:	Government of India
GoK	:	Government of Karnataka
GP	:	Gram Panchayat
HD	:	Human Development
HDI	:	Human Development Index
HDR	:	Human Development Report
HPI	:	Human Poverty Index
ICDS	:	Integrated Child Development Service
IGNOAPS	:	Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme
IGNWPS	:	Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme
IGNDPS	:	Indira Gandhi National Disability Pension Scheme
IMR	:	Infant Mortality Rate
LEB	:	Life Expectancy at Birth
LOI	:	Livelihood Opportunity Index
MGNREGA/S	:	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act/ Scheme
MLALADS	:	Member of Legislative Assembly Local Area Development Scheme

MLR	:	Male Literacy Rate
MPI	:	Multidimensional Poverty Index
NER	:	Net Enrolment Ratio
NFBS	:	National Family Benefit Scheme
NRHM	:	National Rural Health Mission
NSA	:	Net Sown Area
NSAP	:	National social Assistance Programme
NSSO	:	National Sample Survey Organization
OBC	:	Other Backward Castes
O&M	:	Operation and Maintenance
OOSC	:	Out of School Children
PCDDP	:	Per Capita District Domestic Product
PCGDP	:	Per Capita Gross Domestic Product
PCI	:	Per Capita Income
PDS	:	Public Distribution System
PPP	:	Purchasing Power Parity
PRI	:	Panchayat Raj Institution
PTR	:	Pupil Teacher Ratio
RLR	:	Rural Literacy Rate
RMSA	:	Rashtriya Madhyamika Shiksha Abhiyan
SC	:	Scheduled Castes
SHG	:	Self Help Group
SSA	:	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
SSY	:	Sandhya Suraksha Yojane
ST	:	Scheduled Tribes
TDP	:	Taluka Domestic Product
TLR	:	Total Literacy Rate
TMC	:	Town Municipal Committee
TOP	:	Town Panchayat
TV	:	Television
ULB	:	Urban Local Body
ULR	:	Urban Literacy Rate
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UWS	:	Urban Water Supply
WB	:	World Bank
WPR	:	Work Participation Rate
ZP	:	Zilla Panchayat

Part - I

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



Executive Summary

1. Introduction

Understanding of the concept and measurement of development has undergone substantial changes. Policy makers worldwide are using 'Human Development (HD)' for assessing development as well as for prioritizing resource allocation. HD is about how the basic requirements needed for 'living a life that they value' are created by people themselves and how the administration responds to their requirements. It is a people centred process which seeks to reduce deprivations and expand the 'choices' and 'opportunities' available to people. It also involves creation of 'capabilities' in them to lead a life that they value the most. This paradigm of development is based on Amartya Sen's ideology of promoting capabilities and choice and opportunities available to people. He says 'richness of human life is more important than the richness of the economy itself'.

Based on the above premise, UNDP perceived the basic capabilities required for a decent living as health, knowledge and income. Considering level and progress in these dimensions, the UNDP since 1990 has tried to measure and compare development by defining and constructing the 'human development index (HDI)'. Since then the annual Human Development Reports (HDR) and HDI have been very influential instruments in shaping the development policies and principles throughout the world.

The same ideology and approach has been adopted to measure performance of states and regions below state levels everywhere. In this context, Karnataka government has already prepared two state level HDRs (in 1999 and 2006) and has used them in resource devolution for development of backward regions. The current exercise involves preparation of similar report for all districts to assess HD levels at taluk levels for identifying deprivations in its different dimensions and initiate measures to reduce the same.

In the present report HDI and other indices are constructed at taluk level for the year 2011-12. Development is analysed at micro level and deprivation of people tried to be identified using *Gender Inequality Index (GII), Child Development Index (CDI), Food Security Index (FSI), Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI),* and *Composite Dalit Development Index (CDDI),* apart from *HDI* itself.

The data has been compiled from the Census documents, DSO, DLHS, publications of individual departments at the district level like HMIS, SSA/RMSA and unpublished data available with them. The HDD of the Planning Department shared a huge amount of standardized data and provided detailed guidelines and training of the process involved in preparation of HDRs. At the district level, the District Core Committee was responsible for collection, compilation and validation of data and review of the progress. Thus, the Raichur District Human Development Report has been the result of a participative and consultative process prepared with the help of all stakeholders and dedicated to the people of Raichur district.

Raichur district has been a historically backward region. The Report tries to identify the levels of backwardness in each of the selected dimension and for different sections of the population, based on which suitable suggestions are made. People having been subject to multiple deprivations, a comprehensive intervention is required for improving their conditions.

2. Human Development:

In spite of the district having a vast cultivated area and agriculture being the predominant occupation, due to the inadequacy and uncertainty of rainfall, agricultural productivity is very low rendering the people poor. Similarly due to non-availability of mineral resources industrial activity is not significant in the district. Excepting few agro-based industries like rice mills, the industrial map of the district is not rich. These have resulted in low incomes. The infrastructure and basic amenities are also not adequate and do not support the enhancement of health and educational levels. For instance, the proportion of non-pucca houses being very high, availability of safe drinking water, toilets and drainage facilities is very poor. Owing to these, the HD of the district is lower in the state. Very low level of education has also contributed to very low HD. Technical and professional education needs to be extended in the district. Hence, unavailability of skills has been responsible for underdevelopment of the district. Minimal non-agricultural employment, high levels of mortality and very low standard of living have rendered the HD to be very low. The situation of SCs and STs is still deplorable.

3. Gender and Child Development:

The still lower female literacy has constrained them to participate actively in socio-political and economic life of the district. The low female literacy has also resulted in a higher population growth; high infant, child and maternal mortality rates. Women do not have adequate

employment opportunities and crimes against them are still considerable. Lack of awareness has contributed to high levels of malnourishment among children. Not all children are enrolled in schools and not all enrolled children finish their schooling. Since, girl students dominate in this, higher drop out leads to deprivation of a whole generation to education and its benefits.

4. Food Security:

The low agricultural productivity has kept the food availability low in the district. The government schemes of providing ration cards and opening PDS outlets have improved the accessibility indicators. But the absorption indicators like safe drinking water, sanitation and female literacy being minimal, have resulted in lower food security index in all taluks, hence the district.

5. Composite Taluk Development:

In 2002, Dr.Nanjundappa Committee measured the overall development of a taluk by constructing a composite development index. Based on it, not only taluks were classified by development but a Special Development Plan for development of was also rolled out with differential allocation of resources for taluk development. This Report takes the exercise forward by measuring the composite development of taluks. Accordingly, Sindhnur comes at the top followed by Raichur, Lingsugur, Manvi and Devadurga in the last position. Health and education indices have predominantly affected the performance of taluks and wherever, they are stronger, taluk development is better.

6. Dalit Development:

Scheduled caste (SC) and scheduled tribe (ST) population is about 40 per cent and their backwardness is reflected in overall backwardness of the district. Their school enrolment is lower and they have virtually no non-agricultural employment. Their population growth is high as their access to reproductive health facilities is lower. Discrimination is found to be lower wherever statutory provisions are there, but is still continued in different forms in other social, economic and political spheres.

7. Urban Development:

The population living in urban areas is growing rapidly and therefore, it is necessary to analyze the deprivations of people living in urban areas. Raichur city Municipal Council (CMC) is the most developed mainly because of better amenities, lower rates of crimes and accidents and higher mobilization of own resources. Sindhnur CMC is in the second place of development. As far as town municipal councils (TMC) are concerned, Manvi is in the first place followed by Lingsugur and

Devadurga TMCs. In fact, Devadurga TMC is the least developed urban area in the district. Mudgal town panchayat is in last but one place in overall urban development in the district. The urban development is mainly guided by the availability of basic amenities, mobilization of own resources, and the incidence of accidents and crimes.

8. Achievements and Gaps:

Education

- Literacy rates, especially female literacy rates are at very low levels;
- Gender gaps in literacy in rural areas being twice those in urban areas is really distressing;
- The literacy among SCs and STs is also lower than that of others, and literacy deprivation is higher among STs;
- The proportion of drop out and out of school children is higher and is intensive in rural areas;
- The pass percentage in SSLC and PUC of the district is not satisfactory compared to the other districts and the state;
- The per capita expenditure on education in the district being very low Rs. 467 is one of the prime reasons for low level of educational development.

Health

- Mortality rates and proportion of anemia among pregnant women are higher in the district;
- There is a severe shortage of health institutions and personnel;
- Couples not using contraceptives is 26 per cent and female sterilization is the major contraceptive type adopted;
- The per capita expenditure on health is also very low leading to low level of health development.

Livelihood

- The district is a low income and slow growing district;
- The share of agriculture in district's income is higher;
- The dependence for work in agriculture as cultivators and agricultural laborers is 70 per cent in the district compared to 49 per cent at the state level;
- Agricultural labour is the predominant livelihood option in the rural areas;
- Employment growth is confined to urban areas and that too for males;
- There is a stagnation of employment growth for females in rural areas;
- Migration still being rampant, implementation in MGNREGS is not encouraging;
- Agricultural productivity and per capita food grains production are very low in the district.

Quality of Life

- Non-pucca houses being 30 per cent is a major challenge;

- Only 26 per cent of habitations are supplied with more than 40 litres of water per capita per day;
- Fluoride contamination being extensive, nearly three-fourths of population is affectd by it. Shortage of water and contaminated water has resulted in higher incidence of communicable diseases;
- Only 16 per cent of households use clean fuel; 20 per cent of households have access to toilets; and 36 per cent of households have access to drainage facility
- Sanitation is worse as about 71 per cent households (83 per cent in rural areas) resort to open defecation. The situation is still worse in rural and backward areas. Since there is a significant negative association between availability of toilets and child nutrition, improving toilet facilities can bring about reduction in child malnutrition and improve HD outcomes.
- If possession of assets is an indicator of prosperity, in taluks of Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur a significantly high proportion of households do not possess any asset like phone, TV, computer or motor vehicle. This reveals their poverty.

9. Overall Analysis of HD Indices

Raichur and Lingsugur taluks are the developed taluks with respect to HD; Devadurga and Manvi are backward; and Sindhnur is in the middle position. The gender inequality is lower in the district, especially in Lingsugur, Manvi and Sindhnur. The child development corresponds to human development across taluks wherein Lingsugur and Raichur reveal higher child development but Devadurga and Manvi reveal very low levels of child development. Raichur district has the maximum FSI and better overall taluk development. Sindhnur has higher CTDI.

Devadurga taluk is the least developed, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks are backward in many indices. Excepting GII, in all other indices, Raichur and Lingsugur taluks being in higher ranks indicates that development within the district is inequitable. On the other hand, Devadurga and Manvi are in lower ranks in many indices.

Table 1: Taluk Ranks in Various Indices

Rank	HDI	GII	CDI	FSI	CTDI
1	Raichur	Sindhnur	Lingsugur	Raichur	Sindhnur
2	Lingsugur	Devadurga	Raichur	Lingsugur	Raichur
3	Manvi	Lingsugur	Sindhnur	Sindhnur	Lingsugur
4	Sindhnur	Raichur	Manvi	Manvi	Manvi
5	Devadurga	Manvi	Devadurga	Devadurga	Devadurga

10. Suggested Interventions:

- Focus must be on **rural areas, women, children and the disadvantaged sections** of the society
- Priority to Devadurga, Manvi, Sindhnur, Lingsugur and Raichur in that order

Resources to be allocated for:

1. Increased spending on education, health and sanitation aspects
2. Improving sanitation, especially construction and use of toilets
3. Enhancing female literacy
4. Increasing male participation in family planning
5. Strengthening of Anganwadis
6. Intensifying mainstreaming of dropouts
7. Promoting non-agricultural work in rural areas
8. Promoting skill based and professional education
9. Strengthening Health Institutions and Personnel
10. Increasing the number and effectiveness of SHGs
11. Increasing the nutritional support to children and pregnant women
12. Improving the quantity and quality of drinking water
13. Promoting the use of alternative fuels
14. Improving water use efficiency and agricultural productivity
15. Enhancing physical and social security of women, children, aged, physically disabled and other disadvantaged sections of the society
16. Awareness programmes to women and disadvantaged sections for their inclusion in the development process.
17. Strengthening of urban infrastructure and amenities and increased own resource mobilization
18. Increasing staff strength in all departments of district administration, especially those directly linked to HD
19. Appointing more number of women and especially of those from disadvantaged section in education and health sectors
20. Complete spending of grants meant for SCs and STs; increasing their participation; and appointing them in education and health sectors

11. Conclusion

Raichur district being predominantly agricultural, priority should be for increasing agricultural productivity through efficient water management. Implementing the employment guarantee scheme effectively and encouraging more women to participate in it should also be emphasized. The migration can be checked through this. Enhancing

non-agricultural employment is another way of improving the incomes and standard of living of people. Increasing female literacy and strengthening their social capabilities must be high on development agenda. Education and awareness programmes will ensure a greater participation of people in development.

Expenditure on HD should be increased and for effectively utilizing the opportunity under 371 (j), adequate number of staff needs to be appointed. Since the number of women and SCs and STs is relatively higher in the district, the benefits of all programmes must be directed to them. Their development will enhance the district's development.

A fourpronged strategy for the overall development of the district is suggested, the components of which are:

Increased Employment Generation: Providing gainful employment to the rapidly rising population has to be the first priority. While construction activities and resource development activities can be better avenues for the unskilled workers, promoting rural entrepreneurship may be a desired means to tap the rural educated but unemployed youth. In the urban areas, jobs suitable to women need to be generated. Increasing literacy and deepening skills is a necessary condition for this.

Enhancing Agricultural productivity: Strengthening agricultural infrastructure, research and extension can increase agricultural productivity. The district has not only a large area under canal irrigation but also suffers from water stress. Promoting efficient water management can resolve the issue. Increased agricultural productivity also promotes non-agricultural development.

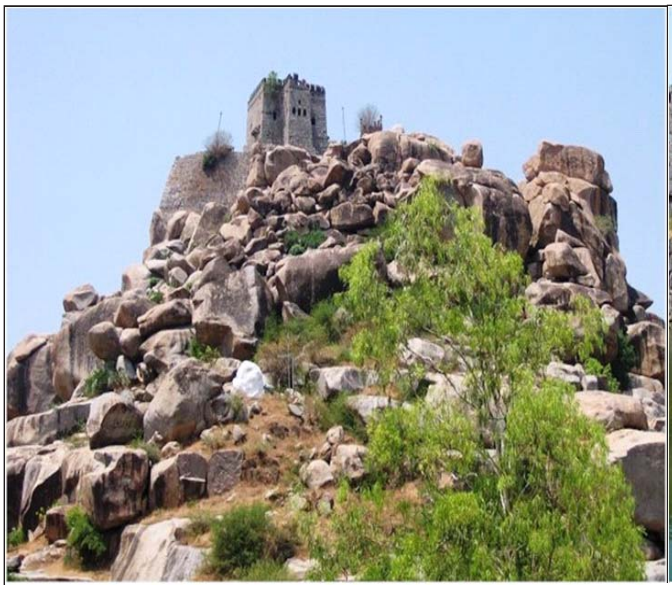
Strengthening Infrastructure: The focus needs to be on ensuring safe drinking water and better sanitation to all people. Good housing, health and education facilities also should be part of this strategy.

Effective Provisioning of Basic Services and Infrastructure: Governance plays an important role here. With illiteracy being higher, the administrative machinery needs to be proactive in adopting good practices and innovative interventions in reaching the people. Promoting private public partnership and using technology to implement and monitor programmes can bring in effective people's involvement in development. Recruitment of adequate staff is the most essential requirement for this.

■■



Historic Mudgal Fort





Part - II

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION



Introduction

1.1. Concept and Methodology

Development being a complex phenomenon has been eluding the thinkers as well as policy makers. The earlier paradigm of development predominantly advocated income growth which resulted in searching for strategies that increased the gross domestic product (GDP) of the countries. This economic growth in the form of a sustained increase in gross and per capita income was believed to contribute to the overall progress of a nation and its people. The market forces were assumed to pass on the benefits to all the people and thereby result in end of poverty. The focus was, therefore, on economic growth and growth in the GDP, defined as the market value of goods and services produced by a country within the period of one year, was a widely accepted indicator for measuring economic status and growth. Even today, it is used to compare the performance of countries. Per capita GDP is normally compared to judge the relative progress of countries.

However, thinkers have criticized it to be a partial measure as growth in no part of the world has automatically led to the reduction in poverty and inequality. A Report of the UN states that income growth in recent decades is not associated with reduction in inequality or poverty (UN, 2013, pp.29-30). Not only this inequality is masked by the GDP measure, it also includes goods as well as evils (see Box 1.1).

Since it is increasingly felt that the GDP is not meant to be an accurate measure of long term economic and social progress, agitation against the use of GDP as a measure of development is now widespread. According to Commission of the European Communities (2009), there is hardly any direct correlation between increased GDP and enhanced standard of living of the common man. Although GDP as a measure itself need not be blamed, economists have felt it necessary to supplement GDP with indices covering other economic, social and environmental issues, on

If a tree is standing, it does not contribute to GDP. But the moment it is cut and made into tradable timber, it adds to GDP.

Box 1.1: What all does GDP measures?

"Our Gross National Product...counts air pollution and cigarette advertising, and ambulances to clear our highways of carnage. It counts special locks for our doors and the jails for the people who break them. It counts the destruction of the redwood and the loss of our natural wonder in chaotic sprawl. It counts napalm and counts nuclear warheads and armoured cars for the police to fight the riots in our cities..., and the television programs which glorify violence in order to sell toys to our children. *Yet the Gross National Product does not allow for the health of our children, the quality of their education or the joy of their play. It does not include the beauty of our poetry or the strength of our marriages, the intelligence of our public debate or the integrity of our public officials. It measures neither our wit nor our courage, neither our wisdom nor our learning, neither our compassion nor our devotion to our country, it measures everything, in short, except that which makes life worthwhile.* And it can tell us everything about America except why we are proud that we are Americans (emphasis added)".

- Robert F. Kennedy, speech at the University of Kansas on March 18, 1968

"GNP (the Gross National Product) by itself does not promote happiness. The U.S. has had a three time increase of GNP per capita since 1960, but the happiness needle hasn't budged. Other countries have pursued other policies and achieved much greater gains of happiness, even at much lower levels of per capita income." - Jeffery Sachs, Economist and author of the World Happiness Report

which people's well-being critically depends, is felt necessary.

Therefore, the failure of 'trickle down' power of market forces to spread economic benefits and end poverty; increased human costs of the Structural Adjustment Programs, initiated in many countries; widespread prevalence of social ills (crime, the reduced social cohesion, HIV/AIDS, pollution, etc.) despite strong and consistent economic growth; and the increased hopes for people-centred models due to the democratization wave that swept in the early 90s gave rise to alternative development models.

1.1.1. Human Development (HD) Paradigm

Because of reasons mentioned above pressure to measure progress, well-being and sustainable development in a more comprehensive way; and account for it has been mounting. A series of attempts to measure development and human progress have been attempted and it is now accepted that the ultimate objective of economic development should be to promote a milieu, which supports the development of people; so that they can lead productive and creative lives and make informed choices according to their needs and interests. These attempts have resulted in combining socio-economic and political factors to develop indices of development (PQLI, for instance). These indices being more comprehensive than income are expected to reflect the progress and deprivation of people or groups of people.

The first HDR was built on the assertion that "income is not the sum total of human life" (UNDP 1990). Daly (2008) remarks that, "Economists have focused too much on the economy's circulatory system and have neglected to study its digestive tract. Throughput growth means pushing more of the same food through an ever larger digestive tract; development means eating better food and digesting it more thoroughly". Similarly, the Global Happiness Report (2013) mentions that there is now a rising worldwide demand that policy be more closely aligned with what really matters to people as they themselves characterize their lives. More and more world leaders are talking about the importance of well-being as a guide for their nations and the world.

Better Life Initiative of The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) is among the efforts to capture in a better way what is important to people. The *Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress* indicated, "... interest in alternative or complements to GDP resumed progressively during the 90s," a process led in many aspects by the Human Development Report Office with the instrument of Human Development Index (HDI). According to the Commission's

report, there were two synthetic indicators of social progress in 1990, increasing to about 30 in 2001-2002. Today there are more than 50 indicators capturing the social, environmental, economic and psychological aspects of people's lives.

All these efforts emphasize that the quality of life led by people should be at the centre of growth process. Income is only a means to the broader end of building capabilities of people. It is only a necessary condition of human well-being. More depends on how it is earned, who controls it and how society allocates its own resources. The HD paradigm that came into light in this context asserts that 'people are the real wealth of a nation and the ultimate aim of economic and social policy should be to improve their lives, and enhance their choices and capabilities'. This approach is derived from Amartya Sen's *Capabilities Approach*. Capabilities represent the minimum basic amenities and opportunities that enable the people to be well-nourished, decently housed, and in many other ways live lives that they deem worthwhile. The capability approach tries to answer the question "*What do we really want from development?*" The capabilities view shifts attention away from measures of income or wealth, and focuses instead on issues like opportunities for health and participation in society. Capability approach defines the '*beings*' and '*doings*' of human beings.

Mahabub Ul Haq, a Pakistani economist at the UNDP, synthesized the capabilities approach into a statistically measurable development parameter. It was an improvement over the Physical Quality of Life Indicator (PQLI) and was named as the Human Development Index (HDI). Based on such an ideology of promoting human well-being, not income alone, the UNDP started publishing Human Development Reports (HDR) on an annual basis since 1990. Since then, it has been universally accepted to be a measure of socio-economic well-being and a tool for resource allocation to bring about the desired nature of development. HDI is a composite indicator that successfully measures the multi-dimensionality of development.

HDI was also not free from criticisms. But the flexibility of the concept and methodology resulted in construction of a few more indices such as the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Human Poverty Index (HPI-1, HPI-2). In 2010 HDR, the introduction of Inequality adjusted HDI (IHDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII) and the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) has further improved the relevance of HD paradigm.

These indices have been so popular cutting across the disciplines, among academia, researchers, planners and program managers

Capabilities represent the minimum basic amenities and opportunities that enable the people to be wellnourished, decently housed, and in many other ways live lives that they deem worth-while.

"Not everything that can be counted counts; not everything that counts can be counted"
- Albert Einstein

that have been incorporated into the standard texts and widely used in planning and programme implementation at various levels. Many of the federal and state governments have taken active interest and have prepared the human development reports at the national and sub-national levels.

1.1.2. Concept of Human Development

Evolution of human development (HD) paradigm has provided a useful tool for initiating a people-centered development process. By arguing that all development should enlarge choices and opportunities should be available to all sections, the HD approach renders income to be a means of achieving those objectives, rather being an end in itself. The declaration of UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that are to be achieved in a time bound manner has predominantly underlined the HD aspects. Thus HD paradigm has become the pivot of all development discourses. Due to the deficiencies of the earlier multidimensional approaches, like PQLI, human development has emerged as a tool that would sensitize the academia, policy makers, administrators and general public about the pattern and direction of human progress.

But the concept is not new to social philosophers. For instance, Aristotle argued that "wealth is not the good we are seeking – it is merely useful for the sake of *something else.*" He distinguished a good political arrangement from a bad one in terms of its success in enabling people to lead "*flourishing lives*". Immanuel Kant treating human beings as the ends of all activities observes, 'So act as to treat humanity, whether in their own person or in that of any other, in every case as an end withal, never as means only'. Adam Smith advocated a model of economic development that would allow a person to mix freely with others "*without being ashamed to appear in public*" - a concept that gave importance to human dignity above and beyond income. Similar concerns are reflected in the works of thinkers and economists such as Karl Marx and John Stuart Mill. Thus, the human development approach contains two central theses about people and development – that improvements in human lives should be an explicit development objective, and that human achievements can be used as key indicators of progress.

1.1.3. Defining Human Development

As stated in the HDR, 1990, HD 'is about more than GNP growth, more than producing commodities, and accumulating capital' which is only a means of enlarging people's choices. It is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accordance with their needs and interests. People are the real wealth of nations. Development is thus

about expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value. HD is defined as 'a process of enlarging people's choices'.

HD is multidimensional and its components are interconnected. A survey of definitions of HD suggests that the definition has been fairly stable over time, different reports emphasized different aspects of human development, but the underlying concept has provided a solid foundation which has not changed radically since its articulation in 1990 (Alkire, 2009).

The following paragraph, an adaptation of the HDR, 1990, enunciates the central theme of HD:

Human development aims to enlarge people's freedoms *to do and be* what they *value and have reason to value*. In practice, human development also *empowers people* to engage actively in development on our shared planet. It is people-centered. At all levels of development, human development focuses on *essential freedoms*: enabling people to lead long and healthy lives, to acquire knowledge, to be able to enjoy a decent standard of living and to shape their own lives. Many people value these freedoms in and of themselves; *they are also powerful means to other opportunities*. Human development also encompasses other worthwhile freedoms associated with human well-being in both developing and industrialized nations. The emphasis and particularities vary but often include secure, safe and meaningful livelihoods; caring and dignified relationships; protection against crime and violence; artistic, cultural and spiritual activities; participation in political and community activities; self-respect; and emotional well-being. HD is development *by* the people, *of* the people and *for* the people. Because human development views people not as passive victims but as entrepreneurs and active agents, it helps people to help themselves.

1.1.4. Principles of Human Development

HD approach rests on four basic principles, they are: equity, productivity/ efficiency, participation or empowerment and sustainability.

1. Equity: Equity refers to a concept of justice, impartiality or fairness**.** It recognizes that those who have unequal opportunities should receive differential treatment to put them on par with others. For example, children, women, differently-abled and disadvantaged and tribals face different kinds of deprivation. Their specific needs have to be addressed to enable them to make choices and utilize opportunities.

2. Efficiency/Productivity: Efficiency/ productivity broadly refers to effective use of available

The purpose of development must be to create enabling conditions through public policy for the pursuit of the ultimate goal of happiness by all citizens.

resources. From the HD perspective, it implies maximizing the use of material, human and community resources. Any effort made to enhance wellbeing should make use of all available resources in the best possible manner. This will have the maximum impact on widening of choices. Like equity, efficiency too is a dynamic concept, what may be efficient today may not be efficient in the long run and efficiency may mean different things for different people and communities.

3. Participation and Empowerment: Empowerment is a basic principle of HD. People have to be empowered to be able to shape their lives and exercise choices. People experience a sense of empowerment when they are involved in the planning and decision making processes of any initiative that affects them. People no longer remain mere beneficiaries of change but can pursue the goals they value.

4. Sustainability: Sustainable development broadly refers to development undertaken in such a way that it does not endanger the opportunities of the future generations. Sustainability is also a multidimensional concept which concerns itself with environmental, cultural, financial and social aspects of life. For example, developmental agendas that lead to excessive spending, increase in debt servicing burden and eventual debt trap are unsustainable.

The HD approach requires that all four principles are adhered to. Paying attention to any one dimension while ignoring others would be self- defeating.

1.1.5. Components of the HDI

Since 1990 the HDI has used three dimensions: a long and healthy life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. The indicators used to inform each dimension have, however, changed over time—most recently in the 2010 HDR. As shown in Figure 1.1, presently four indicators are used to measure the three dimensions.

i. Long and healthy life

The long and healthy life dimension uses life expectancy at birth as its indicator. Life expectancy at birth is: "the number of years a new born infant could expect to live if prevailing patterns of age-specific mortality rates at the time of birth were to stay the same throughout the child's life" (UNDP, 2010. p. 224). The life expectancy index is calculated using a minimum value of 20 years and maximum value of 83.2 years. The minimum value for life expectancy (20 years) is based on long-run historical evidence from Maddison (2010) and Riley (2005) which shows that if a society or a sub-group of society has a life expectancy below the typical age of reproduction, then that society would die out. The minimum level of 20 years is therefore the life expectancy needed for the

subsistence of a society. The maximum value meanwhile is the observed maximum value of the indicator from countries in the time series 1980–2010, and corresponds to that of Japan in 2010.

ii. Knowledge

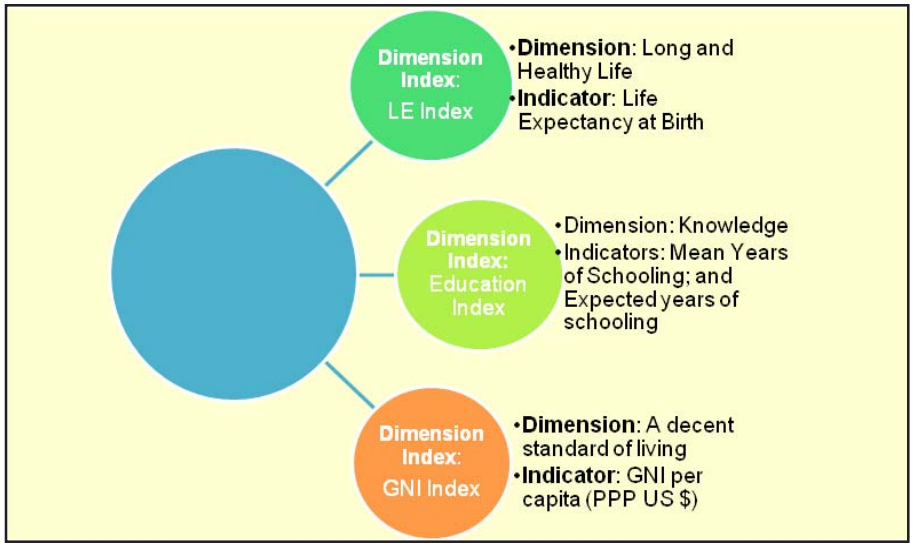
The education component of the HDI is measured by two indicators: mean years of schooling for adults aged 25 years and older, and the expected years of schooling for children of school going age. Estimates for mean years of schooling are based on the duration of schooling at each level of education. Expected years of schooling estimates are based on two factors: enrolment by age at all levels of education and the number of children of school age in the population for each level of education. The two indicators are first normalized using a minimum value of 0 and maximum value of 13.2 for mean years of schooling (from the USA in 2000) and 20.6 for expected years of schooling (from Australia in 2002). As societies can subsist without formal education, the minimum value of 0 years is used for both education variables. The maximum values are set to the actual observed maximum values of the indicators from the countries in the time series 1980–2010. Both indicators are then combined to produce an *education index,* which is the geometric mean of the two equally-weighted sub-indices for each education indicator. The dimension specific index for education overall is renormalized using the minimum value of 0 and the maximum observed value for the 1980-2010 series (0.951 for New Zealand in 2010).

iii. Decent standard of living

The decent standard of living component is measured by the natural logarithm of GNI per capita adjusted by PPP. For this component, the minimum value is PPP $163 which is the lowest value attained by any country, between 1980 and 2010 (in Zimbabwe in 2008). This value was selected as a basic level of income necessary to ensure survival. The maximum value used is PPP $108,211, again observed during the time series 1980-2010 in the United Arab Emirates in 1980. The HDI uses the natural logarithm of income to reflect the diminishing importance of income with increasing GNI per capita.

The essential capabilities considered for calculation of HDI are health, knowledge, and standard of living.

Figure 1.1: Components of HDI



Source: HDR 2010, Statistical Annex, p. 215.

The HDI has been criticized for its narrow focus and non-inclusion of critical dimensions such as employment, political freedom, human rights, environmental sustainability and people's self respect, arbitrary weighting of the components, possibility of substitution between the dimensions and inability to measure inequality in the distribution of human development within a country

The HDI provides a useful tool for the policy makers to gauge their own country's achievement vis-a-vis the other countries with respect to the individual indicators or to the overall HDI. Specifically the HDI is used to:

1. To capture the attention of policy makers, media and NGOs and to draw their attention away from the more usual economic statistics to focus instead on human outcomes.

2. To question national policy choices – asking how two countries with the same level of income per person can end up with such different HD outcomes (HDI levels). For example, Costa Rica and Iran have similar levels of income per person, but life expectancy and literacy differ greatly between the two countries, with Costa Rica having a much higher HDI value than Iran. These striking contrasts immediately stimulate debate on government policies on health and education, asking why what is achieved in one country is far from the reach of another.

3. To highlight wide differences within countries, between provinces or states, across gender, ethnicity, and other socio-economic groupings. Highlighting internal disparities along these lines has raised national debate in many countries. For instance, in nations with very low per capita incomes, many people do not have access to adequate food, clean water, or basic knowledge of health and sanitation. It is clear that, substantial increases in the provision of at least some goods and services are necessary to increase human well-being in such countries.

Over time, and on a society-wide scale, more income does not seem to be related to more happiness in already affluent societies. In 1957, for example, 35 percent of respondents to a U.S. survey indicated that they were "very happy." Between 1957 and 1998 the purchasing power of the average citizen of the U.S. roughly doubled. In 1998, the proportion saying they were "very happy" was a little lower, at 32 percent. At high income levels, other dimensions of human development, such as freedom from violence, closer and more peaceful families and communities, investments in the productive and creative capacities of the next generation, or the opportunity to have a satisfying work life (whether paid or unpaid) may be more important than having more marketed goods and services. An interesting innovation is the Gross National Happiness Index (Box 1.2).

1.1.6. Measurement of Human Development

HD is a multidimensional indicator of development which is dynamic in nature, changes with the perception of development or in the preferred choices overtime. Given the nature of human thinking, the choices and capabilities may be quite diversified. They need to be

reduced to observable and measurable parameters for the purpose of summarizing them into a single indicator for policy and administrative purposes. HDR, 1995 states, "the process of widening people's choices and the level of well-being they achieve are at the core of the notion of human development. Such choices are neither finite nor static." It is hard to collect reliable and comparable data on such perceptions/choices for capturing the level and trends in HD. With this in mind, the framers of HDI delineated 'observable and measurable' indicators, assigned maximum and minimum values of attainment (called as goal posts), adopted the technique of normalization, assigned weightages to each of the indicators and calculated indices of deprivation and finally, the HDI. HDI has been a useful tool of analysis for governments, the media and civil society, who employ it to evaluate and contrast human development achievements across nations, regions and groups, and over time. HDI is based on the following basic principles (Haq, 1995):

i. to measure the basic purpose of human development—to enlarge people's choices;

ii. to include a limited number of variables for simplicity and manageability;

iii. to present a composite index rather than a plethora of separate indices;

Box 1.2: Gross National Happiness

Gross National Happiness (GNH) is frequently mentioned as an alternative measure of progress. It was originally suggested by the King of Bhutan in the early 1980s as a more appropriate measure for his small kingdom than GDP. It was not an actual index, but a principle for guiding Bhutanese development in a fashion consistent with the country's culture and spiritual values rather than by focusing on increasing economic activity. Since 2004, the Bhutan government has sponsored four international conferences on GNH. Bhutan has established a Gross National Happiness Commission (Ura and Galay 2004). Of late National Happiness Index (NHI) is also being computed.

iv. to cover both social and economic choices;

v. to be sufficiently flexible in both coverage and methodology in order to allow gradual refinements, once better alternatives became available; and

vi. to be viable despite a lack of reliable and up-to-date data series.

The essential capabilities considered for calculation of HDI are health, knowledge, and standard of living. While good health enables an individual to be capable of actively participating in socio-economic and political life; knowledge helps him to make informed decisions to improve one's own status; and standard of living indicates the range of goods and services that he is able to utilize for a purposeful living. The index always falls between zero and one, with one being the highest level of development (UNDP, 2012).

Since inception of the HDI, it is explicitly recognized that concept of HD is larger than what can be measured by the index (Pineda, 2013). Therefore, despite its popularity, the HDI has been

The HDI provides a useful tool for the policy makers to gauge their own country's achievement vis-a-vis the other countries with respect to the individual indicators or to the overall HDI.

criticized for its narrow focus and non-inclusion of critical dimensions such as employment, political freedom, human rights, environmental sustainability and people's self respect, arbitrary weighting of the components, possibility of substitution between the dimensions and inability to measure inequality in the distribution of human development within a country (Kelley, 1991; Srinivasan, 1994; Ranis, Stewart and Samman, 2006). It was also opined that the components and indicators are not responsive to short term policy changes. The HDR, 2006 stated the need for measuring inequalities in the HDI for need based planning (UNDP, 2006).

Some of these criticisms of the HDI were addressed in the HDR 2010 that brought about major changes in the variables and methodology in the construction of HDI. To capture the growing inequality in human development, it added three indices, namely the Inequality adjusted HDI (IHDI), the Gender Inequality Index (GII) and the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) to the family of HDIs. The changes in methodology and the

Table 1.1: Evolution of Indices Measuring Human Development

Year	Index	Purpose	Components	Methodology
1995	GDI	Measure inequality of achievements in HD components across gender	Health: IMR; LEB at age 1; Knowledge: Combined primary, secondary and tertiary GER; Standard of Living: PCI US $ (PPP)	An arithmetic average of the three dimensional indices
1995	GEM	Measure political participation and decision making power, economic participation and command over resources of women	Political: Women's and men's per cent shares of parliamentary seats; Economic: Women's and men's per cent shares of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers; Women's and men's per cent shares of professional and technical positions Power over economic resources: Women's and men's estimated earned income (PPP US $)	An arithmetic average of the three dimensional indices
1997	HPI	Measure deprivations in choices and opportunities	Probability of not surviving till 40; per cent illiterate adults; per cent people without access to safe drinking water; per cent underweight children; and unemployment rate	An arithmetic average of the three dimensional indices
2010	IHDI	Measure inequality in HD attainments	Health: IMR; LEB at age 1; Knowledge: Mean and Expected Years of Schooling; Standard of Living: PCI US $ (PPP)	An arithmetic average of the three dimensional indices
2010	GII	Measure differences in the distribution of achievements between men and women	Labour Market: Labour force participation rate; Empowerment: Educational attainment level (secondary and above) and Parliamentary representation; Reproductive Health: Adolescent Fertility and Maternal Mortality	An arithmetic average of the three dimensional indices
2010	MPI	Measure overlapping deprivations	Health: Child mortality and Under nutrition; Education: Years of schooling and School enrolment ratios; and Standard of Living: Electricity, Drinking water, sanitation, flooring, cooking fuel and asset possession	The MPI is the product of two statistics: the headcount (H) - per cent of people poor; and the Average Intensity of deprivation (A) - which reflects the proportion of dimensions in which households are deprived

addition of the new indices were justified to capture the distribution of well-being for inequality, gender equity and poverty (UNDP, 2010). The indicators and methodological issues are presented in Table 1.1.

Hence, progress is continuously made in identifying indicator sets covering issues that are widely recognized as important around the world. As a result, the type of indices and the nature of indicators and even the methodology to compute the indices has been continuously evolving. Though these indices reflect methodological advancement, the practical applicability of these indices at the sub-national level is yet to be known.

1.1.7. Computing HDI

HDI being a composite indicator of average attainments in three dimensions follows a standardized methodology. The current process of computing global HDI is furnished in Table 1.2.

HDI is computed as an arithmetic mean of health, education and standard of living indices which are, in turn, calculated on the basis of observed values for a country/ region/community and goal posts specified for each indicator. Thus calculated, HDI affords comparability within and across countries and for individual dimensions as well as for the aggregate HDI.

Table 1.2: The Process of Computation of HDI

Dimension	Long and Healthy Life	Knowledge	Decent Standard of Living
Indicator	LEB	Mean Years of Schooling; & Expected Years of Schooling[1]	GNI per capita (US $ PPP)
Goal Posts	Min: 20 years Max: 83.4 years	Min: 0 Max: 0.978	Min: $ 100 Max: $107221
Dimension Index[2]	Health Index	Education Index	Income Index
Aggregation	Human Development Index (HDI)[3]		

Note: 1: These were Adult Literacy Rate and Combined GER prior to 2010
2: Dimension Index calculated as: $I_j = \{X_{ij} - Min(X_{ij})\} / \{Max(X_{ij}) - Min(X_{ij})\}$
3: HDI is the geometric mean of the three dimension indices: $(I_{health} * I_{education} * I_{income})^{1/3}$
Source: HDR, 2002

1.2. Factors Contributing to Human Development

According to Haq (n.d.), "the most basic capabilities for human development are to lead long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable, to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living and to be able to participate in the life of the community." It also means providing "better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and sense of participation in the community activities."(ibid). This statement hints at the factors that affect HD.

Human capabilities in the form of health and educational attainments are the foremost determinants. Health being defined as the complete physical, mental and social well-being presupposes

existence of a responsive public health system that regulates the ***mortality and morbidity*** especially among children, women, elderly and physically challenged. Development of ***skills*** via the educational system is essential to identify the ***opportunities*** available and exploit the same. The level of schooling and skill development largely determines the employment and unemployment status of an individual which, in turn, determines ***income*** and the ***standard of living***. Being healthy and informed is also essential for an individual to exercise his/her ***freedom*** and ***rights*** to ***participate*** in socio-political and economic activities and thereby improve ***quality of his life***. HD is also affected by the sense of ***equity*** in access to resources and opportunities as well as ***security*** to life and property and ultimate ***empowerment*** of all people, especially, those at the fringe of the social hierarchy and at the bottom of the development ladder. A ***governance system*** that is accountable to the people, transparent and efficient in delivery of crucial public goods and regulating social evils also affects the level and nature of HD. The variables chosen for preparation of this report, as presented in Annexure 1.1, broadly cover these dimensions.

Factors affecting HD are: mortality and morbidity; skills; income; freedom and rights to participate; equity; security; empowerment; governance system

1.3. Data Collection, Compilation and Validation

With HD dimensions being used widely for policy purposes, sub-national HDRs are being prepared for finer results and addressing problems in a more effective manner. The current exercise on preparation of District level HDR (DHDR) aims to measure the development and deprivations experienced by people at taluk (block) level. It is a novel idea that, so far the analysis limited itself to the district level. An important constraint for not going further below the hierarchy is the availability of reliable data on HD parameters. The assessment of HD in any unit of study is accomplished through certain indicators which are measurable and quantifiable. But often the direct indicators reflecting HD are not available at the sub-district level. Hence, it is inevitable to go for proxy indicators to measure HD. But, because HD is a flexible tool, the factors underlying its computation have been adjusted and a few novel indices thought of. Thus, the indices, parameters and variables conceived to be part of DHDRs are given in Annexure 1.1. A slightly modified methodology was employed for computation of various mortality rates and the same is described in Annexure 1.2.

The reference year being 2011-12, a large quantum of data is compiled from the census publications. Data on households, population and demographic features, nature of houses, basic amenities, assets, literacy, work and dependency status, etc., has been compiled from

the relevant census publications. A significant amount of data is compiled from various departments of district administration. Primarily publications of education, health, food and civil supplies, housing, MGNREGS, agriculture, social welfare, women and child development, social security schemes, ULBs and such other departments were accessed to cull out the necessary information. The District Statistical Office was a major source of data. The Human Development Division of the Department of Planning, Programme Implementation and Statistics, GoK was generous enough to share a huge amount of qualitative data which helped to finalize the data set.

However, it was the district level Core Committee (DCC) that was responsible for arranging to collect data, to scrutinize the data given for reliability and consistency and ultimately validate it. Apart from it, subject wise subcommittees were formed which were consulted often for checking the consistency and reliability of data. Raichur DCC met often to assist, guide, monitor and review the progress in data collection as well as overall progress in the preparation of the report (Annexure 1.3).

As part of the process workshops were conducted to sensitize the elected representatives, government officials, NGO functionaries and general public about the activity and involve them in it (Annexure 1.4). The workshops helped in identifying area specific problems and finalizing the small area studies which were later endorsed in the DCC. A brief note on preparation of DHDR is presented in Annexure 1.5.

1.4. Measurement of Indices

The DHDR preparation entails preparation of seven indices to assess and evaluate the development achieved in different spheres and measure gaps and deprivations. This exercise is expected to identify action plans specific to regions, sections of population and sectors of activity. The indices contemplated are: Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII), Child Development Index (CDI), Food Security Index (FSI), Urban Development Index (UDI), Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI) and Composite Dalit Development Index (CDDI).

Data Base

The data is basically collected from the secondary sources. Census 2011 is the most significant data source and was extensively used in the process. Similarly, the Raichur District at a Glance (RDAG), 2011-12, published by the District Statistical Office (DSO) was the next major source. The publications of the line departments including their online databases were also extensively used. Mention must be made of the Annual Work Plan and Progress (AW&P) under SSA and



Taluka level workshop at Lingsugur

Taluka level workshop at Manvi



RMSA as well as DISE of Education Department, and the HMIS database of the Health Department. The MDWS, RDPR and NREGA websites were relied upon for specific purposes. The Chief Accounts Officer (CAO) furnished data on the expenditure on education and health. Rajiv Gandhi Rural Housing Corporation provided data on housing related variables. The District Crime Records Bureau provided data on crimes and accidents. The records of various departments were also physically accessed. The HDD shared a substantial data on various aspects.



Taluka level workshop at Sindhnur

Methodology

The methodology for measuring these indices is adapted from the UNDP methodology itself. Normalization of indicators, calculation of dimension indices, weighting pattern and computation of final index are same as adopted by UNDP in its global HD computation. However, few adjustments are made in the selection of indicators to suit to the nature of data available at taluk level.

Computation of indices is done in a two-stage process. As a first step, minimum and maximum values are set for each of the above indicators to transform them into indices lying between zero and one. For this purpose, the observed minimum and maximum figures for each of the indicators are considered. Since the Geometric Mean was to be calculated, in the case of a positive indicator, the minimum value was taken as 10 per cent less than the observed minimum value in the Taluk. Similarly, in the case of a negative indicator, the maximum value was taken as 10 per cent more than the observed maximum value.

The index value (for a ***positive indicator***) is calculated using the formula:

Index Value = (Actual Value – Min. Value) / (Max. Value – Min.Value); and for a ***negative indicator*** it is calculated by using the formula:

Index Value = (Max. Value – Actual Value) / (Max. Value – Min. Value)

However, for per capita income, first the actual per capita income is converted into natural logarithmic values and then index is constructed. For computing sectoral indices (health, education and standard of living) geometric mean was used and the method of calculation is as given below. Thus, there were three sectoral indices - one for Standard of living, another for health and the last for education. Finally, HDI is computed as geometric mean of the three sectoral indices, i.e., **HDI = $(SIi \times SIh \times SIe)^{(1/3)}$** where SIi is the sectoral index for living standard, SIh is the sectoral index for health and SIe is the sectoral index for education. The same normalization method is used for all other indices except the GII.

For calculation of the GII, the following methodology was used:

1. Aggregating across dimensions within each Gender Group using Geometric Mean.

For Females:

$$G_F = \sqrt[3]{\left[(\frac{1}{MMR}) \times D \times ANE\right]^{1/3} * [R_F \times CHLD_F \times LIT_F]^{1/3} * [WPR_F \times NAG_F \times WAGE_F]^{1/3}}$$

For Males:

$$G_M = \sqrt[3]{1 * [R_M \times CHLD_M \times LIT_M]^{1/3} * [WPR_M \times NAG_M \times WAGE_M]^{1/3}}$$

2. Aggregating across Gender Group using a Harmonic Mean:

$$HARM(G_F, G_M) = \left[\frac{(G_F)^{-1} + (G_M)^{-1}}{2}\right]^{-1}$$

3. Calculating the Geometric Mean of the Arithmetic Means of the each Indicator:

$$G_{\overline{F},\overline{M}} = \sqrt[3]{\overline{health}.\overline{empowerment}.\overline{LFPR}}$$

Where

$$\overline{health} = \left[\frac{\left[(\frac{1}{MMR} \times D \times ANE\right]^{1/3} + 1}{2}\right]$$

$$\overline{empowerment} = \frac{[R_F \times CHLD_F \times LIT_F]^{1/3} + [R_M \times CHLD_M \times LIT_M]^{1/3}}{2}$$

$$\overline{LFPR} = \frac{[WPR_F \times NAG_F \times WAGE_F]^{1/3} + [WPR_M \times NAG_M \times WAGE_M]^{1/3}}{2}$$

4. Calculating the GII by comparing the equally distributed Gender Index to the reference standard. (total inequality across dimensions):

$$GII = 1 - \frac{HARM(G_F, G_M)}{G_{\overline{F},\overline{M}}}$$

The GII value ranges from zero (no gender inequality across dimensions) to one.

CDI is calculated as an arithmetic average of normalized values of health, nutrition and education attainments. FSI is computed as an arithmetic average with respect to availability, accessibility and absorption indices, which themselves are average normalized values of 18 relevant component indicators. CTDI is again a composite index computed as average attainment in livelihood, health and education indices which are computed based on values of 68 component indicators.

A populous nation like India which is predominantly rural and farm based is confronted by dual realities - prosperity and poverty. On one hand, according to Business Today, India is ranked 15th among nations with 175 millionaires and on the other, it is ranked 63rd in Global Hunger Index - 2013 and 136th in HDI - 2013, way off from

UDI is also an arithmetic average of normalized values for 11 indicators across ULBs of the district.

The CDDI is computed as an arithmetic average of attainments with respect to education, exclusion, discrimination, freedom, living standard, gender equality and access to basic amenities of the selected gram panchayat and the sample dalit households. One gram panchayat in the district, viz. Mundaragi, with not less than fifty dalit households, was selected for the study.

1.5. Concluding Remarks

Initially approaches to development presumed a close link between growth in GDP and well being of people. Development being a multidimensional concept with numerous quality dimensions, is not adequately captured in unidimensional concept of income and its growth. However, the persistence of poverty, inequality and deprivation compelled the policy makers to search for alternative approaches to measure development. The HD approach arose in part as a result of growing criticism to the approaches prevailing in the 1980s, which presumed a close link between national economic growth and greater well-being. According to the UNDP, the idea of human development embodies the objective of expanding the range of people's choices and creating an enabling environment for people to attain important capabilities of leading a long, healthy and creative life, to participate in decision making, with a focus on poor and the marginalized. Therefore in the words of Amartya Sen, it posited that human development is about, "advancing the richness of human life, rather than the richness of the economy in which human beings live". The HD approach iterates that people are the real wealth of nations. The basic objective of development is to enable all people to flourish in varied and creative ways.

The definition of HD has always been flexible and open-ended and there are as many dimensions of human development as there are ways of enlarging people's choices. But applying the approach generally requires one to identify things that matter to a particular community at a point in time and the HDRs, since the first in 1990, have published the HDI as a measure of HD. The HDI is a summary composite index that measures a country's average achievements in three basic aspects of human development: health, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. Health is measured by life expectancy at birth; knowledge is measured by a combination of the expected years; and mean years of schooling; and standard of living by GDP per capita (PPP US$). The index always falls between zero and one, with one being the highest level of development.

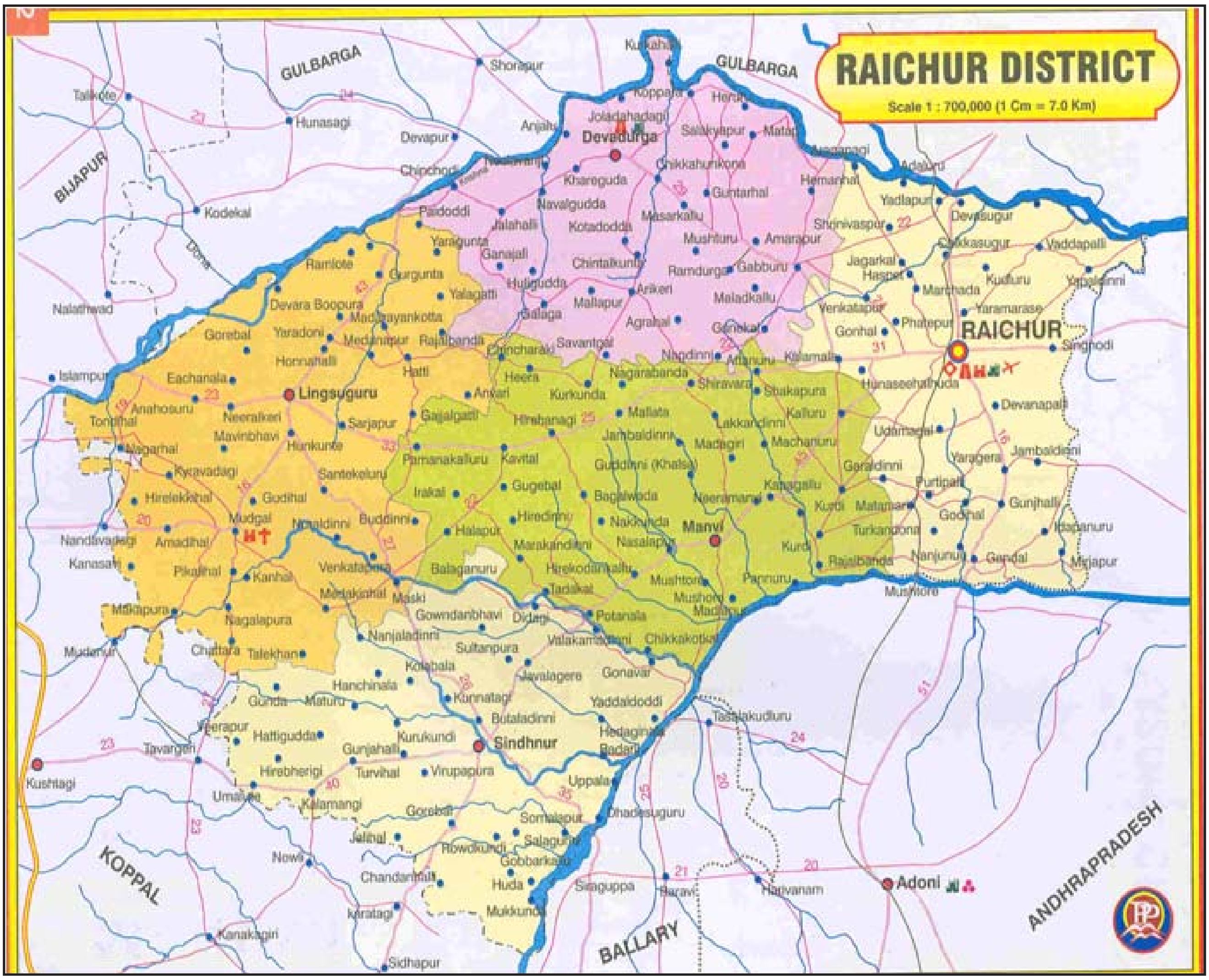
Since HDI is a flexible tool, many related indices to measure human development and deprivations at various levels have been developed. The GDI, GEM, HPI, IHDI, GII and MPI are few prominent ones that are widely used by nations to monitor their progress and select policy options with a great degree of effectiveness. Not only that, the indices have been computed at sub-national and regional levels for a more purposeful development.

In India, the HDI is extensively used at the national and state levels, and very recently attempts are made to prepare HDRs for lower units of administration, i.e. the districts. Karnataka state has already prepared two state level HDRs and four district level HDRs during the last decade. The lessons of these exercises have motivated the policy makers to compute HDI at the lowest level of administration - the gram panchayats and the taluks. However, owing to data problems, the current exercise attempts to compute HDI for the taluks for the year 2011-12. In order to understand the development dynamics in its totality and measure deprivations in all major respects, few more indices, viz., GII, CDI, FSI, UDI, CTDI and CDDI are being computed.

Local expertise is being used, the district administration is dovetailed to the process and considerable amount of data is gathered and processed for the purpose. The UNDP methodology is modified to suit the local conditions and data availability.

■■




RAICHUR DISTRICT
Scale 1 : 700,000 (1 Cm = 7.0 Km)
GULBARGA
GULBARGA
BIJAPUR
KOPPAL
BALLARY
ANDHRAPRADESH
Devadurga
Lingsuguru
Sindhnur
Manvi
RAICHUR
Adoni
Kushtagi
Mudgal
Maski
Talikote
Hunasagi
Kodekal
Nalathwad
Islampur
Shorapur
Devapur
Tavargera
Kanakagiri
Karatagi
Sidhapur
Siraguppa
Mantralayam
Mukkunda
Gabbur
Jalahalli
Kavital
Turvihal
Hatti
Mattur
Gorebal
Yapaldinni
Singnodi
Shakapura
Kalmala
Gillesugur
Chandrabanda
Udamagal
Nagarhal
Chattara
Talekhan
Somalapur
Salagunda
Gobbarkal
Huda
Gunjahalli
Virupapura
Uppala
Hatti
Santekeluru
Sarjapur
Rajalbanda
Anwari
Kurkunda
Mallata
Madagiri
Machanuru
Kalluru
Balaganuru
Hirebanagi
Venkatapura
Potanala
Kurdi
Pannuru
Amaresvara

Chapter 2

RAICHUR DISTRICT : AN OVERVIEW



Raichur District: An Overview

2.1. Introduction

Human development being a composite index consisting of education, health and livelihood parameters depends largely on the region-specific factors. Especially the historical and cultural background, the resource base, agro-climatic factors, infrastructure facilities and institutions to promote development are very important. Especially livelihood is dependent on soil, climate, mineral resource availability, agricultural and industrial activity and facilities for furthering these activities. In this context, the present chapter presents a brief historical, physiographical, climatic and developmental background of Raichur district. This helps in understanding the factors affecting the level of present human development and identifying the constraints that need to be addressed for improving development in the future.

2.2. Background and Brief Regional History

Being located in the rain shadow area of northern maidan region of Karnataka state and adjoining to the rayalaseema region, Raichur evokes a picture of drought, backwardness, poverty, migration and deprivations. The HPCFRRI classifies it as one of the most backward districts in the state. Accordingly, not only the state government has classified it as a backward district, even the central government has done so under the BRGF scheme. However, despite such efforts, the district continues to remain backward. For instance, the two Karnataka Human Development Reports (KHDR) prepared in 1999 and 2005, put Raichur as the least developed district and Devadurga as the least developed taluk in the whole state. It is one of the five districts in Karnataka currently receiving funds from the Backward Regions Grant Fund Programme. How are the physio-geographical features responsible for this situation? How have the historical and cultural factors affected the development? What has been the level and quality of infrastructure? We seek to provide answers to these questions for placing the HD in Raichur district in its proper perspective.

The two Karnataka Human Development Reports (KHDR) prepared in 1999 and 2005, put Raichur as the least developed district and Devadurga as the least developed taluk in the whole state.

2.2.1. Brief Regional History

The district of Raichur has a hoary past. It has had a rich beginning from the days of the Mauryan King Ashoka. A number of inscriptions, rock edicts and other records, temples, forts and battlefields bear testimony to this fact. The recorded history of the district is traced to the third century B.C. Three minor rock edicts of Ashoka - one at Maski in Lingsugur taluk and the other

HGML - The only Gold Mining Company in India

Hutti Gold Mines Company Limited (HGML), Government of Karnataka Undertaking (Established in 1947 as Hyderabad Gold Mines), has the unique distinction of being the only producer of primary gold in the country. HGML has been active in the exploration, development and exploitation of gold deposits occurring in Karnataka. The Company's Corporate Office is situated in Bangalore and it operates two units-The Hutti Gold unit (HGU) ,in Raichur district and the Chitradurga Gold Unit (CGU) in Chitradurga district with an operating mine at Ajjanahalli (Tumkur District) .HGU is a fully integrated unit with a capacity to produce 5,50,000 tonnes per annum.

two near Koppal found in this district prove that this area was included in the territory of the great Mauryan king Ashoka (273 - 236 B.C.). Early in the Christian era, the district was a part of the kingdom of the Satavahanas. The Vakatakas reigned over the region during the 3rd and 4th centuries A.D., after which it came under the Kadamba control. The next dynasty of importance, which ruled over this region, was that of the Chalukyas of Badami. According to an inscription from Aihole, Pulikeshi-II defeated the Pallavas, occupied this area and made it a province in his empire under the governance of his son Adityavarma. Later it was included in the dominions of the Rashtrakutas, who rose to power in the 8th century. According to an inscription from Manvi taluk, one Jagattunga, a subordinate ruler under the Rashtrakuta king Krishna-II, was ruling the province of Adedore Eradusavirapranta, i.e., the area constituting the present Raichur district.

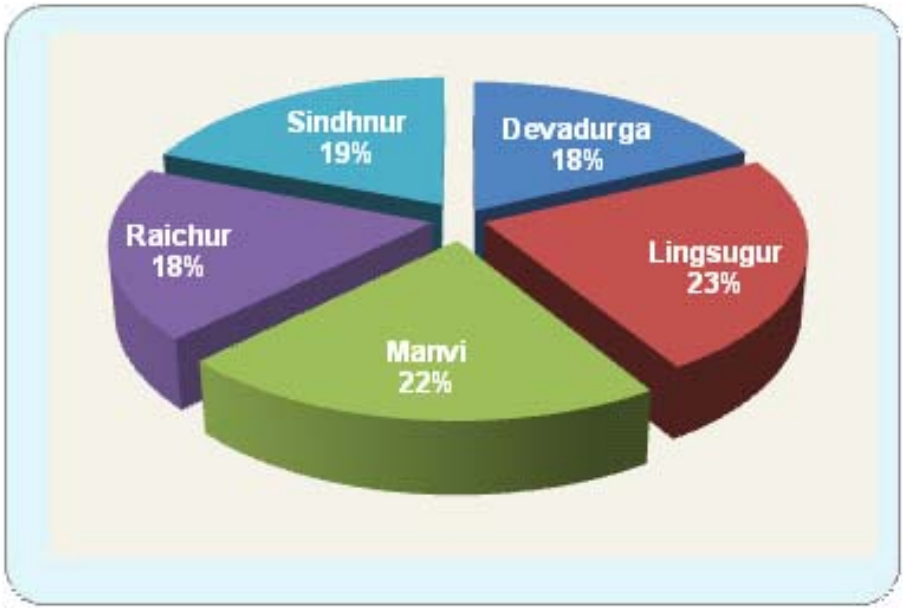
Numerous inscriptions of the Chalukyas of Kalyana, found in various parts of the district, testify to the fact that this region was under their sway for a considerable length of time between the 10th and 12th centuries A.D. There were frequent wars between the Chola kings of the south and the Chalukyan kings of Kalyana for supremacy over the Raichur region and the territory passed into the hands of the Cholas for a brief period. The Haihayas and Sindas also seem to have ruled some parts of this region for some time. Later, after the fall of the Chalukyas, Raichur passed into the hands of the Kalachuri kings. Then came the Kakatiyas in the 13th century. A number of inscriptions found during these periods point to the area as Rachavoor and later as Permma Rachavoor. After the decline of Kakatiya rulers the region was captured by the Vijayanagar kingdom. Krishnadevaraya of Vijayanagara Empire recaptured the region of Raichur in the year 1520 CE after the historic battle of Raichur. During the rule of Vijayanagara the area was captured by the Bahmanis in 1323 CE. Later the region was under the control of Mughal Empire, Nizam of Hyderabad and then British. In the year 1956, Raichur became a part of the Mysore state, later renamed as Karnataka.

2.3 Physiographic Divisions of the District

Raichur district is situated in the northeastern part of Karnataka, which is also popularly known as Hyderabad Karnataka. Raichur District lies between 15 degrees 9 minutes and 16 degrees and 344 minutes North latitude and 75 degrees 46 minutes and 77 degrees 35 minutes East longitude. The general slope of the district is from the north-west towards the South-east, its average height above the MSL being just 1131 feet. Spread over a geographical area of 8,383

sq. km., which is 4.4 per cent of the total State area, Raichur is the second largest district in the state. While Yadgir district borders it in the north; Vijayapur and Bagalkot districts lie on the North Western side; Koppal district borders it on the west; Ballari in the South; and the districts of Mahabubnagar and Kurnool of Andhra Pradesh in the east. Since it is more or less a plain stretch bound by Krishna River in the north and Tungabhadra in south, historically it has been a land vied for by dynasties and kingdoms. It is historically popular as 'edudorenadu' and the 'Raichur Doab' that attracted many invaders to seek control over it. For a very long period of time, it was under the control of Bahamani Sultans and later the Nizams of Hyderabad, which has influenced the socio-cultural and political characteristics of the district. It consists of five administrative blocks (taluks), viz., Devadurga, Lingsugur, Manvi, Raichur and Sindhnur. The taluk wise area share is given in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Area Share of Taluks of Raichur District (%)



Source: DSO, Raichur

2.4. Land, Soil and Natural Resource Endowments

The district is bounded by the Krishna River on the north and the Tungabhadra River on the south forming the Raichur Doab. Naturally, the area has rich soil resources making it suitable for cultivation of numerous types of crops. All the five taluks of the district are well irrigated, with water from the Tungabhadra and the Krishna River. Raichur is known for its paddy fields and its rice is of extremely superior quality. Raichur has numerous rice mills, which export high quality rice to different countries. It also has a good trading market in cotton industry.

The soils of the district are broadly classified into four types namely: mixed red and black soils, medium black soils, deep black soils and red sandy soils. Mixed red and black soils usually occur on gently undulating plains or complex geological formations comprising granitic gneisses and schists, which occupy the central parts of the district. Red soils are coarse grained and have better drainage capacity than the black soils. These soils respond better to water management practices. The crops grown under rain fed cultivation are jowar, cotton, groundnut, chillies, wheat and pulses. The crops grown under irrigation are

paddy, sugarcane, maize, wheat, chillies, cotton, pulses, and plantains

Medium black soils are seen in the western part of the district overlying the Peninsular Gneisses. The soils are moderately deep, about one metre thick and are dark to greyish, brown to dark reddish brown or black in colour. The crops grown under rain fed cultivation are jowar, wheat, millets, cotton, sunflower, and groundnut. Under irrigation, crops like paddy, sugarcane, vegetables, onion, chillies, jowar, cotton, wheat, and plantains are grown.

Deep black soils occur on gently sloping to nearly even or low grounds on parent rocks like gneisses, schists of mixed origin and occupy considerable areas in the northern parts of the district. Nearly a metre in thickness these soils are dark brown, dark greyish brown or black in colour. The texture is usually clayey throughout the section and at places on the surface clayey loam to silty clay texture. Lime concretions on the surface and sub surface are also present. These soils are generally fertile and produce good yields. Good drainage facilities are essential to obtain sustainable yields; otherwise, salinity and water logging conditions may develop. Crops similar to medium black soils are grown here.

Red sandy soils occur on undulating landscape on acidic rocks like granites and granitic gneisses under three distinct physiographic positions viz; upland, midland and low land regions. Red sandy soils occurring in the upland region are shallow to moderately deep, reddish-brown to dark reddish in colour, with high permeability and low yields. These soils need development for irrigation. Crops grown are Jowar, Millets, Pulses and Groundnut. The soils of the midland region are deep to very deep reddish-brown, loamy-sand to sandy-loam and well developed with moderate permeability and respond well to irrigation. The crops grown are similar as above. The soils of the low land region are partially deposited soils occurring on very gently sloping to nearly flat valley bottom areas. The soils are deep to very deep dark brown, sandy-loam to sandy clay, loam to clayey soil in the sub-surface horizons. The soils are poorly drained and with low permeability. Saline patches are seen at places. Yields are generally good. The crops grown under rain fed conditions are jowar, groundnut, castor, and cotton while under irrigation crops like paddy, sugarcane, potato, etc, are grown.

The cropping pattern of the district is given in Table 2.1. Paddy is the major crop followed by Jowar, Bengal gram, sunflower, maize, tur, cotton and ground nut. The other crops occupy less than 1 per cent of the NSA.

2.4.1. Climate and Rainfall

Climate of Raichur is characterized by dryness for the major part of the year and a very hot summer. The year may be broadly divided into four seasons. The hot season begins by about mid-Feb and extends until the end of May; south west monsoon is from June to end of September. October and November are the post monsoon months; and the period from December to mid-February is the cold season. December is the coldest month and May is the hottest month with temperature reaching as high as 39.8 degree Celsius. The heat is oppressive till the onset of monsoons.

During the south-west monsoon months, viz., June to September, the district receives about 71% of the annual rainfall, September being the month with the highest rainfall. In the post-monsoon months of October and November also, the district receives some rain. The normal average rainfall of the district is 681 mm. However, the actual rainfall is considerably lesser than this (Figure 2.2).

The number of rainy days is very less with hardly 29 days on an average. The figure shows that the region around Lingsugur gets the least amount of rainfall in the district while towards the south as well as the east, rainfall increases.

Table 2.1: Cropping Pattern in Raichur District, 2011-12

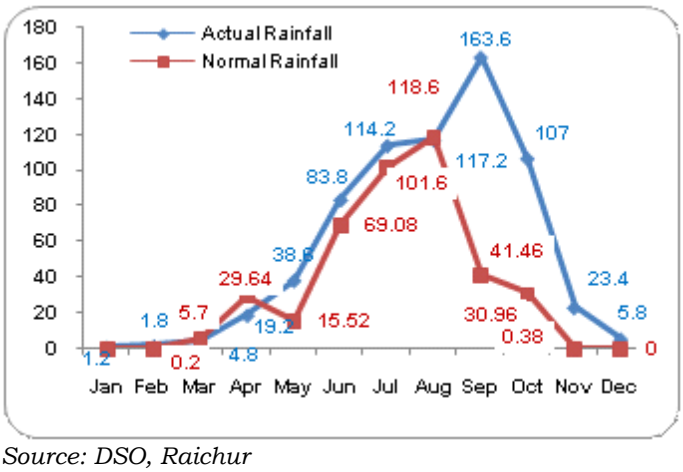
Crop	Area (in '000 Hect.)	% of NSA	Crop	Area (in '000 Hect.)	% of NSA
Paddy	142.7	26.61	Fruits	0.87	0.16
Jowar	86.138	16.06	Vegetables	1.996	0.37
Maize	46.216	8.62	Groundnut	38.048	7.09
Bajra	0.687	0.13	Sunflower	54.19	10.10
Wheat	2.307	0.43	Safflower	2.874	0.54
Tur	42.859	7.99	Sesamum	5.327	0.99
Greengram	2.717	0.51	Cotton	38.467	7.17
Bengal Gram	69.776	13.01	Others	0.35	0.07
Other pulses	0.766	0.14	Total	536.29	100.00

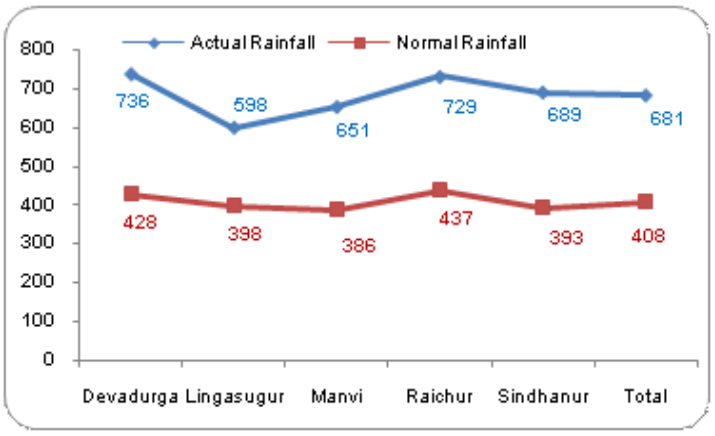
Source: DSO, Raichur, 2011-12

2.4.2. Mineral Resources

Gold, Copper, Iron, Feldspar, Granite, Sandstone, Quartz, Limestone are some of the minerals found in the district. Hutti Gold

Figure 2.2: Rainfall statistics in Raichur District, 2011-12





Source: DSO, Raichur

mines is one of the oldest mines in the state of Karnataka. Since the mineral deposits are found in smaller quantities, there is not significant industrial activity in the district.

2.5. Demography

In 2011, Raichur had population of 19,28,812 of which males and females were 9,64,511 and 9,64,301 respectively. Annexure 2.1 compares Raichur's with that of Karnataka. The salient features of changing demographic pattern are presented in Table 2.2. The decadal growth rate of population was higher in the district at 15.27 per cent during 2001-2011. While the sex ratio was higher and favorable at exactly 1000, the density was lower at 228 persons per sq. km. SC and ST sections each accounted for about 16 per cent of population. The ratio of females in these sections was almost equal to that of total population.

However, the district's performance with respect to literacy attainment is very poor. Only 60 per cent of district's population is literate and that among females, it is still less than half compared to 71 per cent among males. The proportion of workers to total population was a bit higher than at the state level. However, majority of workers (69 per cent) were engaged in agricultural occupations as against 47 per cent at the state level. Thus, occupational pattern is predominantly agri-based.

Similarly, the district is less urbanized with only a quarter of the population living in urban areas

Table 2.2: Demographic Features and Tendencies in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	Area	% Population in Taluk		Absolute Increase in Population	% Share in increase	Growth Rate 2001-11	Sex Ratio	
		2001	2011				2001	2011
Devadurga	Rural	12.01	13.05	51214	19.77	25.55	986	1005
	Urban	1.32	1.50	6935	2.68	31.53	944	978
	Total	13.32	14.55	58149	22.45	26.14	982	1002
Lingsugur	Rural	14.82	15.44	50265	19.40	20.31	981	985
	Urban	4.41	4.56	14392	5.56	19.56	952	984
	Total	19.23	20.00	64657	24.96	20.14	974	984
Manvi	Rural	17.55	16.81	31099	12.01	10.61	994	1015
	Urban	2.25	2.41	8852	3.42	23.53	973	998
	Total	19.81	19.22	39951	15.42	12.08	992	1013
Raichur	Rural	12.52	12.83	38500	14.86	18.42	989	1008
	Urban	13.56	13.02	24757	9.56	10.93	959	989
	Total	26.07	25.85	63257	24.42	14.53	973	998
Sindhnur	Rural	17.90	16.45	18461	7.13	6.18	1007	1006
	Urban	3.67	3.93	14575	5.63	23.79	955	994
	Total	21.57	20.39	33036	12.75	9.17	998	1003
District	Rural	74.80	74.58	189539	73.17	15.18	992	1004
	Urban	25.20	25.42	69511	26.83	16.52	958	989
	Total	100.00	100.00	259050	100.00	15.51	983	1000

Source: Census Documents

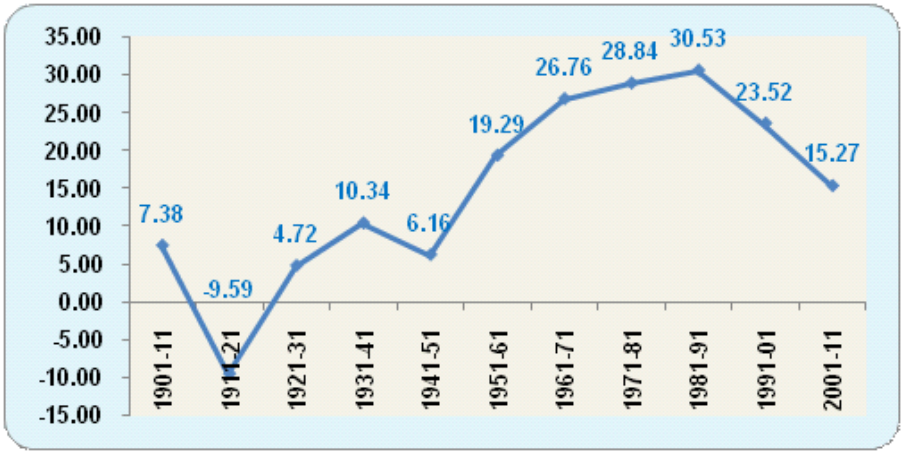
compared to about 39 per cent at the state level.

The taluk wise distribution of the population reveals a very little change in the percentage shares of the taluks in the district's population between 2001 and 2011 reveals that Devadurga has increased its share while in all others there is a marginal decline, except Lingsugur taluk. Thus, the district's population growth is a little higher than the state level, sex ratio and worker population ratio are favorable. However, it is predominantly rural and agricultural in character with majority of them living in rural areas and very low proportion engaged in non-agricultural activities. Across taluks, Raichur had the largest share of population (about 26 per cent) and Devadurga the lowest (15 per cent); the remaining three shared about 20 per cent each.

Growth in Population: The population of Raichur has increased by 2.59 lakhs during 2001-2011, i.e., by 15.5 per cent. A lion's share of the increase is in rural areas (73%) vis-a-vis that in the rural areas (31%). Taluk wise Raichur, Lingsugur and Devadurga have contributed to this increase significantly. The same is also reflected in the growth rates with the same three taluks reporting higher growth in population.

Urbanization: The district is one of the low urbanized districts with hardly one-fourth of the population

Figure 2.3: Decadal Variations in Population of Raichur district during 20th Century



Source: Provisional Population Totals, Census of India 2011, Paper 2, Volume 1 of 2011

living in urban areas and between 2001 and 2011, the per cent urban population almost remained constant at 25.2 per cent and 25.4 per cent, respectively. Raichur taluk has the highest proportion of urban population and Devadurga the least. Further, while urbanization ratios have increased in Devadurga, Lingsugur, Manvi and Sindhnur, it has declined marginally in Raichur taluk.

Density of Population: Due to the continuous rise in the population, the density of the population has steadily increased throughout the district. Raichur, Sindhnur and Manvi have relatively higher densities compared to Devadurga and Lingsugur taluks.

2.5.1. Demography of SC and ST Sections

The information about SC and ST population in the district is provided in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: SC/ST Population in Raichur District, 2001 & 2011

Taluk	2001						2011					
	Total Population		% to Total Population		Sex Ratio		Total Population		% to Total Population		Sex Ratio	
	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST
Devadurga	44349	74910	19.94	33.67	980	985	60478	96535	21.55	34.40	996	1008
Lingsugur	68412	51332	21.31	15.99	978	978	89692	65589	23.25	17.01	978	1000
Manvi	62239	77956	18.82	23.57	999	1001	78056	89190	21.06	24.06	1014	1028
Raichur	82646	52129	18.98	11.97	985	986	104849	63178	21.03	12.67	1005	1018
Sindhnur	59630	46715	16.56	12.97	1015	1014	67858	52579	17.26	13.37	1015	1026
District	317276	303042	19.00	18.15	991	993	400933	367071	20.79	19.03	1001	1016

Source: Census Documents, Various Issues

In 2011, the SC population was about 21% and ST population was about 19% in Raichur district. Lingsugur taluk had the highest proportion of SC population and Devadurga taluk had the highest proportion of ST population. Both SC and ST populations have increased between 2001 and 2011. Further, the sex ratio among SC and ST population is more favorable and higher than for the general population.

2.6. Literacy

Literacy is a basic indicator of social advancement of a society. A literate population is expected to be more skilled and more concerned about the social evils of the community. Moreover, many intangible benefits follow from providing literacy to the people. In this context, there has been a substantial progress in extending literacy levels by creating infrastructure and enabling milieu for people to be educated and literate. The percentage of people who can read and write are considered to be literate in any socio-economic surveys. Hence, the data generated in the censuses is a good source of information on literacy attainments. Table 2.4 provides information on literacy levels in Raichur district by gender as well as taluks for 2011.

About 60 per cent of the population was literate in Raichur district, with 70 per cent of males and 49 per cent of females being counted as literates. Literacy rates are lower in Raichur district vis-a-vis the state

Table 2.4: Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2011 (%)

Taluka	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Devadurga	49.49	60.47	38.62	47.17	58.44	36.05	69.49	77.72	61.14
Lingsugur	61.14	73.04	49.14	56.89	69.71	43.99	75.02	83.91	66.03
Manvi	54.69	65.54	44.09	52.81	64.12	41.78	67.62	75.18	60.10
Raichur	65.18	75.26	55.16	52.16	64.65	39.89	77.51	85.20	69.79
Sindhnur	62.45	73.44	51.60	59.71	71.38	48.22	73.92	81.98	65.84
District	59.56	70.47	48.73	54.11	66.01	42.37	75.12	83.10	67.10
State	75.36	82.47	68.08	68.73	77.61	59.71	85.78	90.04	81.36

Source: Census, 2011

in all segments. However, the differences in female-male and urban-rural literacy rates are quite stark even today, Rural females in Raichur district have a literacy rate of about 42 per cent compared to 83 per cent for urban males. While Raichur taluk has reported highest literacy rates, Devadurga has reported lowest rates. The disparity ranges from 36 per cent literacy rates for rural females in Devadurga to 85 per cent literacy in respect of urban males in Raichur taluk. A cursory look at the gender gaps in educational attainments shows that the gaps are higher in the district vis-a-vis the state and are still higher in rural areas than in urban areas. The male-female gap in rural areas is almost double that in the urban areas. Hence, the focus of future development should continue to be on rural females.

2.7. Industry

Raichur District is industrially one of the most backward districts in Karnataka. Sindanur and Manvi Taluks of the Raichur District are considered as Rice Bowl of Karnataka as they are blessed with good paddy grown fields. Before 1990s, Raichur was also known for the Oil seeds and Cotton industries. Due to lack of technological upgradation and competition due to imports, it lost its base as one of the leading district in oil seed and Cotton industries. However, the district has the potential to emerge as a strong industrial base as it possess abundant natural resources like minerals, water resources, power, land, human resources, railway and road connectivity, and being the nearest town to Hyderabad.

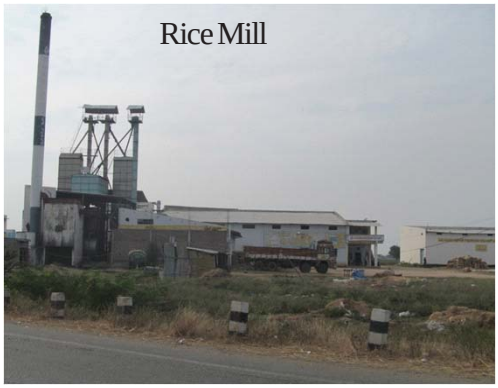
While Gold is a major mineral available in the district, Copper, Iron, Feldspar, Granite, Sandstone, Limestone and Quartz other minerals available in smaller quantities. Table 2.5 furnishes information on the industrial scenario of the district.

Table 2.5: Industrial Units in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Factories		SSIs	
	No.	Employees	No.	Employees
Devadurga	9	180	790	3232
Lingsugur	9	341	1705	6783
Manvi	19	466	1452	5832
Raichur	212	8857	3482	15549
Sindhnur	24	1649	1847	7485
Total	273	11493	9276	38881

Source: DSO, Raichur

There are 273 factories employing more than 11,000 workers and 9276 small scale industries where the employment is nearly 39,000.Obviously Raichur taluk has the major number of factories and SSIs. There are five industrial areas in the district at Raichur, Shaktinagar, Devasugur, Devadurga and Manvi with a total land area of more than 900 acres. Similarly, 60 industrial estates have been set up in 65 acres of land at Raichur, Yarmars, Lingsugur and Sindhnur. 230 plots have been developed, and 144 have been allotted.


Rice Mill

Some of the major industries in Raichur include: The Hutti Gold Mines Company Ltd; Mysore Petrochemicals Ltd; Vishal Cotspin Ltd; Farroq Anwar Company; Surana Industries Ltd; Shilpa Medicare Ltd; Raichur Thermal Power Corporation Ltd; and Raichur Solvents.

Raichur has been one of the most backward districts of Karnataka. This is because of historical reasons and the poor resource base.

2.8. Irrigation

The scanty and uncertain rainfall makes it inevitable to practice artificial irrigation. The district is drained by waters of Krishna in the northern parts and Tungabhadra in the southern parts. Hence, the district has one of the high irrigation percentages. The reported net irrigated area is 193 thousand hectares, which is about 43 per cent of the net sown area. Source wise, canals are the major sources accounting for 87 and almost total in Manvi and more than 90 per cent in Sindhnur and Manvi. Tube wells in Lingsugur, open wells in Raichur taluk, and to a certain extent lift irrigation account for major irrigation areas. Sindhnur, Raichur and Manvi have relatively higher area under irrigation while Lingsugur has the least. The taluk with least rainfall is having the least irrigation.

2.9. Infrastructure

Basic infrastructure facilities like transport, communication, power, water and educational institutions are much needed for the industrial and overall development of any region. In this sense, Raichur district has reasonably good infrastructure needed to promote and foster development. It is well connected to major cities of the state as well as the neighbouring states. The district lacks adequate infrastructure which is one of the basic cause of long period of economic stagnation in the district. Raichur District has in all 5799 kms in which 1006 kms are State Highways and 1507 kms are Major district roads (Table 2.6).

A large part of these roads are closed during rainy season. Raichur has the most prestigious and profit-making power generation unit, viz. Raichur Thermal Power Station with 7 Units each of 210 MW capacity which is running almost at 100% capacity. Raichur city is well connected by a Broad gauge line with many important cities like Bangalore, Mumbai, Chennai, Hyderabad, Ahmadabad, New Delhi, Coimbatore, Trivandrum, etc. On an average more than 50 Trains pass through Raichur every day. Raichur district has more than 10 Commercial Banks spread over 46 branches in the district with State Bank of Hyderabad as the Lead Bank.

2.10. Regional Perspectives and Backwardness

Raichur has been one of the most backward districts of Karnataka. This is because of historical reasons and the poor resource base. According to the Directorate of Economics and Statistics (DES), Government of Karnataka, the total

Bus Stand



district domestic product was estimated at Rs. 2,99,634 lakhs in 2004-05, which increased to Rs. 4,20,727 lakhs by 40.4 per cent during 2004-2009, which was slower than that at the state level. As a result, the district's share in state's income decreased from 1.8 per cent to 1.7 per cent between 2004-05 and 2008-09. The per capita DDP of the district was Rs. 18334 in 2004-05 and increased to Rs. 22988 in 2008-09.The district's backwardness and deterioration of the position is noticed in the fact that the district's PCI was 57 per cent of the state level PCI in 2004-05 and by 2008-09, it was only 55 per cent. The percentage change in PCI was also lower in the district compared to the state. Thus, income wise, the performance of the district is not good and has worsened over the years.

The economic status and growth is also not uniform across the taluks. Figure 2.4 depicts the regional disparities within the district. The per capita gross taluk domestic product (PCGTDP) in Manvi taluk is highest at Rs. 39,544 and lowest in Lingsugur taluk at Rs. 23,796; while the average for the district is Rs. 30,286.00. The income disparity is very high because Sindhnur, Lingsugur and Devadurga taluk have less than district average PCGTDP.

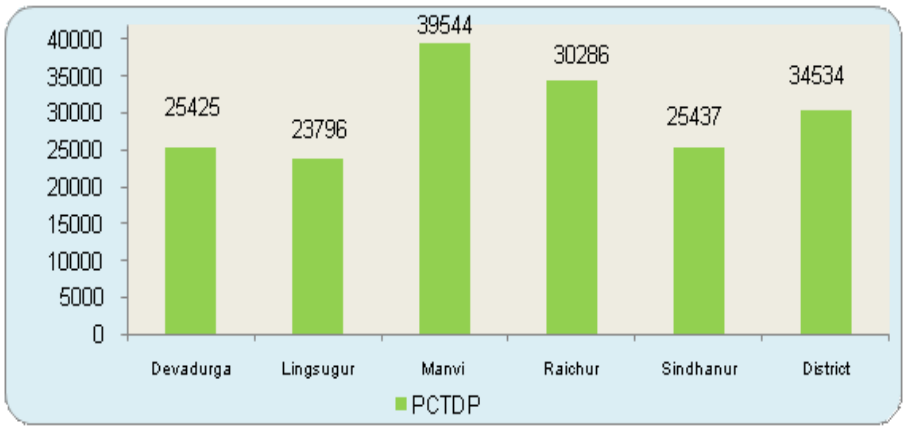
This disparity in development was also brought out in the HPCFRRI (2002) which is presented in Table 2.7. While Devadurga was the least

Table 2.6: Select Infrastructural Facilities in Raichur District

Variable	Year	Unit	Value
i) Railways: Length of rail line	2011-12	Kms	51
ii) Roads			
(a) National Highway	2011-12	Kms	0
(b) State Highway	2011-12	Kms	1006
(c) Major District roads	2011-12	Kms	1507
(iii) Communication - Post offices	2010-11	Nos.	290
(iv) Public Health			
(a)Allopathic Hospital	2011-12	No.	93
(b) Beds in Allopathic hospitals		No.	3690
(c) ISM Hospital		No.	21
(d) Beds in ISM hospitals		No.	31
(e) Primary health centers		No.	37
(f) Dispensaries		No.	22
(g) Private hospitals		No.	86
(v) Banking			
(a) Total Banks (Including RRBs)	2010-11	Nos.	170
(b) Co-operative Societies (Agri and Non-agri)	2010-11	Nos.	1016
(c) PLDB Branches	2010-11	Nos.	5
Banking			
(a) Commercial Bank	2011-12	Nos.	92
(b) Rural Bank Products	2011-12	Nos.	53
(c) Co-Op. Bank products	2011-12	Nos.	05
(d) PLDB Branches	2011-12	Nos.	05
(IX) Education			
(a) Primary school	2011-12	Nos.	1806
(b) Middle schools	2011-12	Nos.	307
(c) Secondary & senior secondary schools	2011-12	Nos.	100
(d) Colleges	2011-12	Nos.	12
(e) Technical Institutions	2011-12	Nos.	07

Source: Brief Industrial Profile of RAICHUR District, Government of India, Ministry of MSME , 2012

Figure 2.4: PCGDP of Taluks of Raichur District, 2008-09 (Current Prices, Rs.)



Source: DES, Bengaluru



developed taluk in the state, Lingsugur was one of the 10 least developed taluks in 2002. Position of Manvi and Sindhnur taluks is equally precarious. Except Raichur, which was classified as a more backward taluk, all others were in the most backward category. The values of comprehensive composite development index (CCDI) were very low and ranged from 0.53 for Devadurga to 0.87 for Raichur. Thus, there are stark regional deprivations. These are reflected in the components of CCDI as well and in all the components - agriculture, industry, finance and trade, economic and social infrastructure, and demographic indicators - the district's position is in the least developed group.

Table 2.7: Relative Development of Taluks of Raichur District, 2001

Sl. No.	Taluk	CCDI value	Rank in the State	Status
1	Devadurga	0.53	175	Most Backward
2	Lingsugur	0.63	169	Most Backward
3	Manvi	0.69	160	Most Backward
4	Raichur	0.87	107	More Backward
5	Sindhnur	0.78	141	Most Backward

Source: HPCFRRI, 2002

Table 2.8: District wise HDI and GDI – 1991 and 2001

Region	Human Development Index				% change
	1991	Rank	2001	Rank	
Raichur District	0.443	27	0.547	27	23.48
Karnataka	0.541		0.650		20.15
	Gender Development Index				
Raichur District	0.422	27	0.530	27	25.59
Karnataka	0.525		0.637		21.33

Source: Karnataka Human Development Reports, 1999 and 2005

Similar regional pattern of regional backwardness is noticed in HD parameters as well. Table 2.8 provides information on values of human and gender development indicators as computed by the state HDRs for 1991 and 2001. The district had the least value of HDI in both 1991 as well as 2001, but the percent change in the value was little higher than at the state level. The district occupied the last rank in HDI in both the years, implying minimum human development status. With respect to GDI, though the value has increased by more than the value of the state but that has not been able to improve the ranking of the district and it continues to be in the last place. Hence, the district is backward in terms of both income and human development.

2.11. An Overview

The district is one of the traditionally backward districts of the state characterized by higher population growth, high mortality rates, low levels of literacy, poor natural resource base leading to slow and stagnant industrial growth. Hence, the district has very low income and is ranked last in HD attainments in the state. The district has three taluks that fall in the 10 least developed taluks. Despite a huge area being canal irrigated has not helped the people to enjoy a decent standard of living. Migration is still a rampant feature of population of Raichur district.

Education development is a critical area. The rural literacy is very low. There is a need to start schools, especially high schools for girls to promote female literacy. In addition, the parents need to be motivated to send the girls to schools. The development of infrastructure in terms of roads and railways, improving the productivity of irrigation projects, supply of power, proper spread of banking facilities, are some of the basic requirements of the region. The district was historically a bone of contention for many kingdoms. Probably the 'doab' nature of the geography was responsible for that. Now also if suitable interventions are made in improving agricultural productivity, efficient utilization of water, improving the skill levels and strengthening the infrastructure, the district has the potentiality to transform itself into a non-agricultural economy and thereby increase the economic growth rate which in turn can bring about higher human development. The investments made via BRGF, HKADB, SDP, etc., have not yielded expected results because of inadequate trained manpower. With the region being treated under Article 371-J (Box 2.1) will get still lot more funds and for utilizing the same, creation of capacity is very essential. ■■

Box 2.1: Article 371-J (Based on *Naik (2013)*

Article 371-J confers special status to the six backward districts of Hyderabad-Karnataka region to:

1. Establish of a separate Development Board.
2. The Board will see that sufficient funds are allocated for development of the region.
3. Reservation for locals in education and Government jobs (birth or domicile requirement.)

Objectives

Major objectives are to provide special provisions aiming to establish an institutional mechanism for equitable allocation of funds to meet development needs of the region and to enhance human resources and promote employment by providing for local cadres in service and reservation in educational and vocational training institutions.

How special status is going to be useful for the people?

Six districts will get special priority in allocating the State funds in development education and employment sectors. It will provide quota in public employment through local cadres and reservation in education and vocational training institutions for those who belong to the region by birth or by domicile.

The Constitutional special status will enable the establishment of a Development Board which will get more central and state budgetary funds for development. One of the first tasks of the Board is to identify disparities in development in different sectors in the region and suggest the quantum of grants required to bring the region on a par with the rest of the State.



RTPS, Raichur

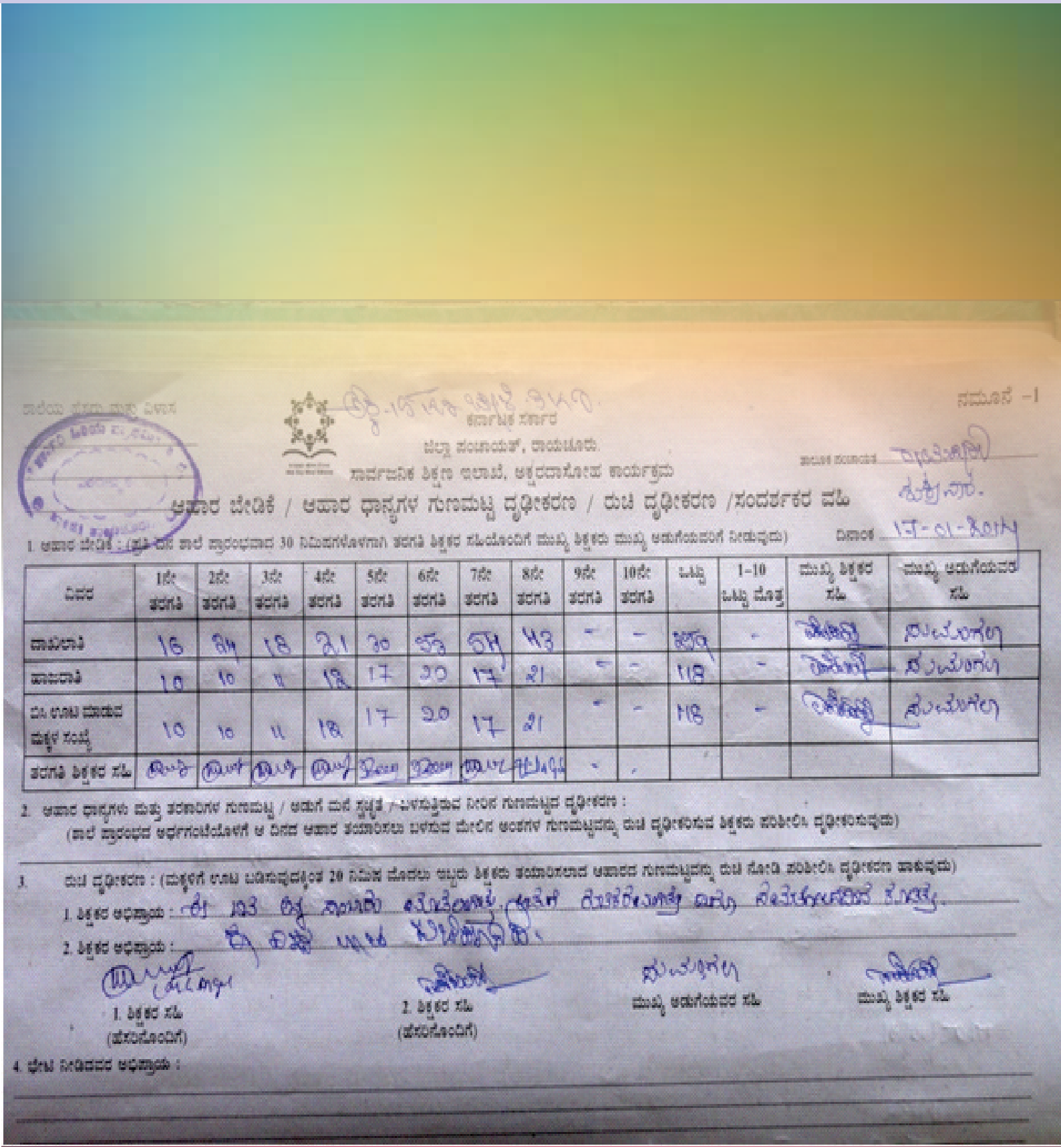


Ashokan Rock edicts at Maski



Chapter 3

COMPUTATION OF INDICES



ನಮೂನೆ -1

ಸಾರ್ವಜನಿಕ ವಿತರಣಾ ವ್ಯವಸ್ಥೆ ಬಲಪಡಿಸಿ, ಅಕ್ಷರದಾಸೋಹ ಕಾರ್ಯಕ್ರಮ

ಆಹಾರ ಬೇಡಿಕೆ / ಆಹಾರ ಧಾನ್ಯಗಳ ಗುಣಮಟ್ಟ ದೃಢೀಕರಣ / ರುಚಿ ದೃಢೀಕರಣ /ಸಂದರ್ಶಕರ ಪಟ್ಟಿ

1. ಆಹಾರ ಬೇಡಿಕೆ : (ಪ್ರತಿ ದಿನ ಶಾಲೆ ಪ್ರಾರಂಭವಾದ 30 ನಿಮಿಷಗಳೊಳಗಾಗಿ ತರಗತಿ ವಿಷಯದ ಸಮೀಪಕ್ಕೆಂದಿಗೆ ಮುಖ್ಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರು ಮುಖ್ಯ ಆಹಾರೆಯವರಿಗೆ ನೀಡುವುದು) ದಿನಾಂಕ 17-01-2024

ವಿವರ	1ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	2ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	3ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	4ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	5ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	6ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	7ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	8ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	9ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	10ನೇ ತರಗತಿ	ಒಟ್ಟು	1-10 ಒಟ್ಟು ಮೊತ್ತ	ಮುಖ್ಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಸಹಿ	ಮುಖ್ಯ ಆಹಾರೆಯವರ ಸಹಿ
ಬಾಲಕರು	16	14	18	21	30	25	24	43	-	-	227	-		
ಬಾಲಕಿಯರು	10	10	11	18	17	20	17	21	-	-	118	-		
ದಿನ ಊಟ ಮಾಡುವ ಮಕ್ಕಳ ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ	10	10	11	18	17	20	17	21	-	-	118	-		
ತರಗತಿ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಸಹಿ									-	-				

2. ಆಹಾರ ಧಾನ್ಯಗಳು ಮುಖ್ಯ ತರಬರಾಗಳ ಗುಣಮಟ್ಟ / ಅಡುಗೆ ಮನೆ ಸ್ವಚ್ಛತೆ / ಬಳಸುತ್ತಿರುವ ನೀರಿನ ಗುಣಮಟ್ಟದ ದೃಢೀಕರಣ :
(ಶಾಲೆ ಪ್ರಾರಂಭವಾದ ಅರ್ಧಗಂಟೆಯೊಳಗೆ ಆ ದಿನದ ಆಹಾರ ತಯಾರಿಸಲು ಬಳಸುವ ಮೇಲಿನ ಅಂಶಗಳ ಗುಣಮಟ್ಟವನ್ನು ರುಚಿ ದೃಢೀಕರಿಸುವ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರು ಖಚಿತಪಡಿಸಿ ದೃಢೀಕರಿಸುವುದು)

3. ರುಚಿ ದೃಢೀಕರಣ : (ಮಕ್ಕಳಿಗೆ ಊಟ ಬಡಿಸುವುದಕ್ಕಿಂತ 20 ನಿಮಿಷ ಮೊದಲು ಇಬ್ಬರು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರು ತಯಾರಿಸಲಾದ ಆಹಾರದ ಗುಣಮಟ್ಟವನ್ನು ರುಚಿ ನೋಡಿ ಖಚಿತಪಡಿಸಿ ದೃಢೀಕರಣ ಪಡೆಯುವುದು)

1. ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಅಭಿಪ್ರಾಯ : ಅನ್ನ ಚೆನ್ನಾಗಿದೆ ತರಕಾರಿ ಪಲ್ಯೆ ಚೆನ್ನಾಗಿದೆ ಮಜ್ಜಿಗೆ ಹುಳಿ ಸಾಂಬಾರು ಚೆನ್ನಾಗಿದೆ

2. ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಅಭಿಪ್ರಾಯ : ಸಿಹಿ ಪಾಯಸ ಚೆನ್ನಾಗಿದೆ

1. ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಸಹಿ (ಪುರುಷರಿಂದಿಗೆ)

2. ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಸಹಿ (ಪುರುಷರಿಂದಿಗೆ)

ಮುಖ್ಯ ಆಹಾರೆಯವರ ಸಹಿ

ಮುಖ್ಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಸಹಿ

4. ಫೋಟೊ ನೀಡಿರುವವರ ಅಭಿಪ್ರಾಯ :

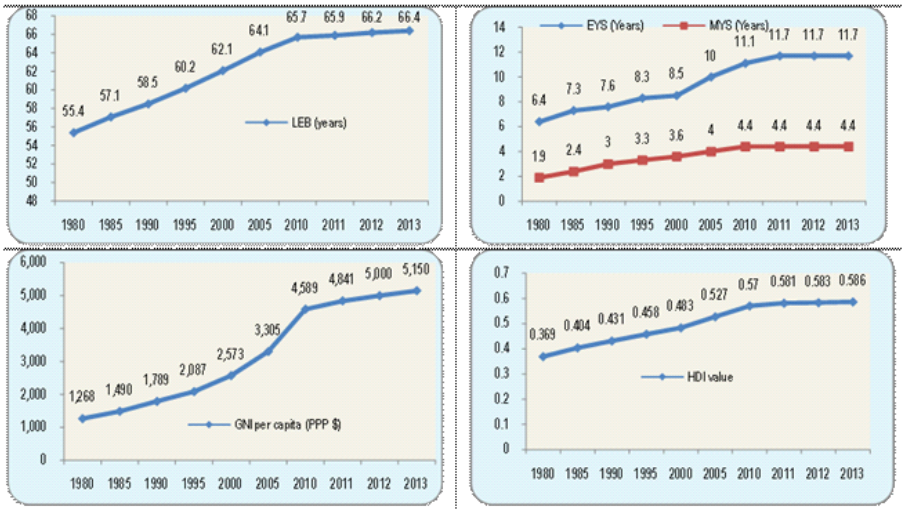
Computation of Human Development and Other Indices

3.1 Introduction

The dissatisfaction with GDP as a measure of human well-being gave rise to novel measures of development and as discussed in Chapter 1, HDI has emerged as a popular and practical alternative. The first *Human Development Report* (HDR) published in 1990 introduced the concept of HDI as a composite measure of development that combined life expectancy, educational attainment and income. During the past two and more decades, the idea of human development has been circulated in policy circles and public debate with various degrees of persuasiveness, incisiveness and accuracy. This annual global report has been supplemented by state and provincial reports by nearly 100 different countries as their *National* and *Regional Human Development Reports.* These reports are intended to assess the quality of life of a population and be an advocacy tool for its improvement. The analysis draws upon data regarding health, education, nutrition, work, political freedoms, security, the environment and many other aspects of people's lives. In assessing the state of a population from a people-centred perspective, these reports have the political purpose of raising awareness and generating debate on public issues and concerns which would otherwise not be on the political agenda.

The HDI can be used to compare a country's status as well as achievement. India's HDI value for 2013 is 0.586— which is in the medium human development category—placing the country at 135 out of 187 countries and territories (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: India's HDI: A Time Trend



Source: UNDP, Various HDRs

Between 1980 and 2013, India's HDI value increased from 0.369 to 0.586, an increase of 58.7 percent or an average annual increase of about 1.41 percent. During the same period, India's life expectancy at birth increased by 11.0 years, mean years of schooling increased by 2.5 years and expected years of schooling increased by 5.3 years. India's GNI per capita has also increased by about 306.2 percent. Thus, although there is an



improvement, much needs to be achieved, especially with respect to health and education. Further, slippage in the rank from 134 to 135 between 2011 and 2013, adds further caution. If India's HD attainment is compared with that of top 10 countries, the gap to be attained is still huge.

We have to invest in education, health, nutrition, skills and social protection to reap the 'demographic dividend' or face a 'demographic nightmare' - a young, illiterate, semi-educated, unhealthy, job-less labour leading to social tensions and even derailing the growth prospects.

In order to measure the diversity of attainments across regions, sexes and among social groups, HDI can be effectively employed. Disparities may already be well known, but the HDI reveals them more clearly. Disaggregation by social group or region can enable local community/ group/ administration to seek more resources and force more accountability on local administration, thereby making HDI a participatory tool of development.

Many countries including Brazil, Columbia, Egypt, Gabon, Germany, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Mexico, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, Poland, South Africa, Trinidad and Tobago, Turkey, Ukraine and USA have prepared disaggregated HDI and India too has followed suit. All these countries have dovetailed their resource allocation according to the disparities indicated by their respective HDI findings. However, the countries have made certain adjustments to the indicators depending on data availability and their specific problems. Such adjustments in components that reflect region specific problems and priorities increase the usefulness and versatility of HDI.

In India, the Planning Commission prepared the first ever HDR for the country in 2001 and later on preparation of HDRs at state and sub-state levels has followed. Starting with Madhya Pradesh, in 1995, many state governments have prepared state level HDRs with district as the unit. Karnataka also has produced two state level HDRs Again, GoK ventured into the preparation of district level HDRs in 2008 which took the analysis further below to the grass roots level.

The present chapter provides a description of relative HD levels in Raichur district. The relative development status of taluks is measured through various indices worked out for the purpose, viz., Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII). Child Development Index (CDI), Food Security Index (FSI), Urban Development Index (UDI) and Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI). The methodology of computation of these indices has been spelt out in Chapter 1.

3.2. Human Development Index (HDI)

As discussed earlier, HD is defined as endowing people with opportunities to lead lives "they have reason to value". It is an approach that uses multiple dimensions and nonmonetary measures of wellbeing to assess development; stresses the importance of freedom and opportunity; and recognizes that

people convert their capabilities into wellbeing at different rates. The HDI is a summary measure for assessing long-term progress in three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living.

It is a prominent index used for assessing development outcomes and prioritising policy and resources. Since taluka is the unit of analysis, for want of reliable data at that level, the dimensions and the specific parameters are modified for the purpose of the present report. The relative positions of taluks with respect to these chosen eleven parameters are presented in Annexure 3.1.

Being a backward district, Raichur presents a dismal picture of development. This discouraging performance of the district is due to the highest mortality rates (CMR and MMR); and the lowest GER in whole of the state. Similarly, percentage households having access to clean fuel and toilets is abysmally low as is the percentage of non-agricultural workers. A very high mortality rates, very low SOL indicators have been responsible for the lowest human development in the district. The indices computed using the above data are presented in Table 3.1.

Within the district, Raichur taluk has the highest values in eight of the eleven variables including MMR; has the highest value for all the SOL indicators, except PCTDP; and records the least GER. On the other hand, Devadurga has the lowest values for six variables. Manvi taluk has the highest values for income and GER; and Sindhnur has the highest value for CMR. Lingsugur records lowest values for CMR and MMR. Hence, Raichur taluk is the most developed followed by Lingsugur; while Devadurga is the least developed; Manvi and Sindhnur falling in the medium category. Raichur has double the HDI value of Devadurga's.

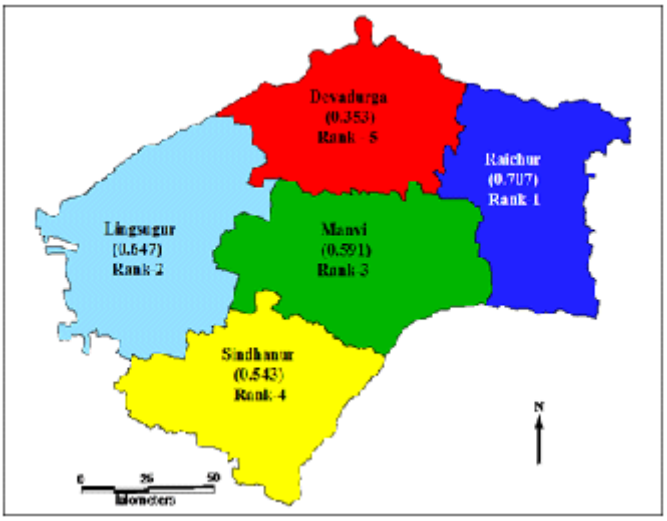
Raichur has the highest values (almost 1) with respect to SOL index, but second lowest values for health and education indices.

Table 3.1: HDI Across Taluks with Dimension Indices and Ranking in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	SOL Index	Health Index	Education Index	HDI Value	Rank
Devadurga	0.101	0.926	0.471	0.353	5
Lingsugur	0.337	1.000	0.803	0.647	2
Manvi	0.343	0.858	0.701	0.591	3
Raichur	0.965	0.616	0.595	0.707	1
Sindhnur	0.410	0.447	0.872	0.543	4

Source: Annexure 3.1

Map 1.1: Taluka HDIs in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: Table 3.1

Components of Taluka HDI

Standard of Living

- *% of households with modern cooking fuel*
- *% of households with toilets*
- *% of households with Safe drinking water*
- *% households with electricity*
- *% of households with access to pucca house*
- *% share of non-agricultural workers*
- *PCTDP (gross at current prices) (Rs.)*

Health

- *Child Mortality Rate*
- *Maternal Mortality Rate*

Education

- *Total Literacy Rate (%)*
- *Gross Enrolment Ratio (%)*

Sindhnur has the highest value for education index and Lingsugur has the highest value for health index. Lingsugur also has second highest value for education index. Devadurga has the least values for SOL and education indices. What matters for relative positioning of the taluks is the stark inequality in SOL index, where as others are more equally developed. Thus, across variables, one notices unequal development in each taluk. A decomposition of the average HDI value for the district shows that health index predominantly influences performance in HD, followed by education and standard of living. Health and educational performances accounted for nearly 77 per cent of HDI value.

A decomposition of the average HDI value for the district shows that health index predominantly influences performance in HD, followed by education and standard of living. Health and educational performances accounted for nearly 77 per cent of HDI value.

Indicator wise analysis shows that access to safe cooking fuels is inadequate - Devadurga reporting hardly 5 per cent and Raichur reporting the highest proportion of 25%. Access to toilets is also unsatisfactory with maximum value being 34% in Raichur and lowest being 7% in Devadurga. Drinking water facility is available to around 50% of households, except Raichur, where it is 75%. Access to electricity is relatively better at around 80-90%, but universal availability of electricity is still a distant goal.

Housing status is poor with only about half of the households in Raichur taluk; about one-third in Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks; and less than one-third in Manvi and Devadurga taluks reporting as living pucca houses. Notable fallout is the participation in non-agricultural work which is very low except in Raichur (51%) and Lingsugur (32%) taluks. PCTDP is in a comparable range, with Manvi and Sindhnur reporting high income and Lingsugur, the lowest. Mortality rates - CMR and MMR are high but are more or less equally spread across taluks. The severest deprivation is in terms of TLR with only less than half of Devadurga's population being literate and in no taluk the TLR has reached two-third level. GER is also very low indicating the huge deprivation in educational front.

3.2.1. Human Development Status among SC/ST and others

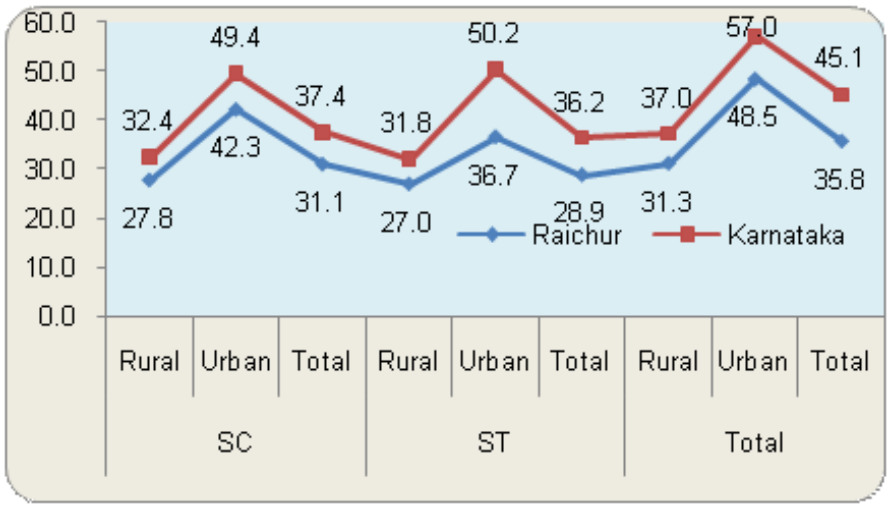
In the absence of data on standard parameters to compute HDI for SC and ST population, an average of important amenities and assets possessed by the households is computed to reflect their HD status. The amenities and assets considered are good houses, access to safe drinking water, electricity, toilet, bathroom, drainage, clean cooking fuel, radio, TV, computer/ laptop, telephone/ landline/ mobile, two wheeler and car. These assets are indicative of the standard of living of a household as they contribute toward improvement in other dimensions of HD like education, health and livelihood. Annexure 3.2 provides information on the asset possession across social groups. Of course,

educational attainments are added to these indices and are presented in Figure 3.2.

The figure shows that the HD status among SCs and STs is lower than that for the total population, in the district as well as the state. Across social groups the pattern of HD in Raichur district is similar to that in the state with lower values at the district level. As could be expected the HD values are higher for the urban population; and for SCs compared to that of STs. In the rural areas little difference is observed indicating that these sections are equally poor, and poorer compared to the general population. But in urban areas, the difference is notable. All the sections are prosperous but the urban people more prosperous compared to the rural people.

The urban-rural gap in HD attainments for the total population is higher. Being SC in rural Raichur puts them to a greater disadvantage. The urban-rural gap for STs is also considerable, though lower than that at the state level. Similarly, STs are more deprived than SCs as well as than the general population. Hence, not only additional resources need to be pumped for upliftment of these sections but the existing schemes should also be implemented properly. In this context, the Special Component Plan (SCP) and the Tribal Sub Plan (TSP) need to be widened in scope and implemented rigorously.

Figure 3.2: Human Development Status among SCs and STs in Raichur District, 2011



Source: Annexure 3.2

3.3. Gender Inequality Index (GII)

Equity among all segments of population is a basic principle of HD. Obviously gender equality occupies a prominent place in any HD analysis. In this context, HDR 1995 stated that. 'Development, if not engendered, is endangered'. It only means that a society should ensure equality of access and opportunities to women for a higher and sustainable HD. In fact, GDI was developed to test to what extent gender inequality in a country would pull down its HD value. It is a fact that in majority of the countries including India, women are not treated at par in socio-economic and political life. The lower literacy of women has kept them away from formal labour markets and has resulted in multifarious deprivations. They are not even able to express their opinions and participate in decision making. It was in this

Components of Taluka GII

Health

- *Maternal Mortality Rate*
- *Institutional Deliveries (%)*
- *Anaemia among pregnant women (%)*

Empowerment

- *Female Elected Representatives (%)*
- *Male Elected Representatives (%)*
- *Female population (0-6 years) (%)*
- *Male population (0-6 years) (%)*
- *Female Literacy Rate (%)*
- *Male Literacy Rate (%)*

Labour Market

- *Female Work Participation Rate (%)*
- *Male Work Participation Rate (%)*
- *Female Non-Agricultural Workers (%)*
- *Male Non-Agricultural Workers (%)*
- *Female Agricultural Wage Rate (Rs.)*
- *Male Agricultural Wage Rate (Rs.)*

Raichur district has better sex ratio compared to the state. It was exactly 1000 in 2011 and the district is among very few districts to have it so.

context that the GDI and GEM evolved. Whereas GDI measures the extent of drag on HD due to gender inequality, GEM measures the extent of participation of women in social, economic and political processes of a country. A higher inequality and a lower GDI means a larger drag on HD, a higher GEM means a thrust to higher HD. Since 2010, GII is being calculated measuring the deprivation of women relative to men in HD parameters of education, health and standard of living.

Sex ratio defined as the number of females per 1000 males in a society is one of the basic measures of gender discrimination. Raichur district has better sex ratio compared to the state. It was exactly 1000 in 2011 and the district is among very few districts to have it so. The indicators chosen and relevant data for calculation of GII for Raichur are given in Annexure 3.1. A glimpse of gender development and inequalities is provided in Table 3.2.

The district records the highest MMR in the state as a whole ranging from 235 to 255 across taluks, indicating that all the taluks are more or less equally afflicted with the problem. The proportion of pregnant women with anaemia (ANE) is higher in Manvi at 79 per cent; nearly 52 per cent in Raichur and 50 per cent in Lingsugur. High anaemia among pregnant women is one of the reasons for high MMR in the district. The share of institutional deliveries (ID) is also the lowest in Raichur and Manvi taluks. With the proportion of ID reaching almost 100 per cent in other parts of the state, the district's performance is dismal. The fourth

Table 3.2: Gender Development and Inequalities in Raichur District, 2011

S.No.	Parameter	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhnur
1	Maternal Mortality Rate	235	235	243	255	252
2	Institutional Delivery (%)	92	93	90	90	92
3	Anaemia among pregnant women	41.3	49.5	79.1	51.5	45.4
4	Political representation of females	39.75	39.81	40.07	40.52	40.72
5	Gap in Representation	20.50	20.38	19.86	18.96	18.56
6	Female Population in 0-6 age group	49.04	48.58	48.82	48.62	48.68
7	Gender gap	1.92	2.84	2.36	2.76	2.64
8	Female Literacy Rates	38.62	49.14	44.09	55.16	51.6
9	Gender gap in literacy	21.85	23.90	21.45	20.10	21.84
10	Female Work Participation Rate	52.72	42.49	50.01	38.05	46.87
11	Gender gap in WPR	13.26	20.14	15.96	26.04	18.81
12	Female Non-agricultural Work (%)	11.59	22.40	13.14	36.83	19.29
13	Gender gap in Non-agricultural Work	9.54	16.05	10.74	22.50	11.73
14	Female Agricultural Wages	95	105	110	100	110
15	Gender gap in Wages	30	30	30	35	30

Source: Computed from Annexure 3.1

row shows political participation of women in panchayat raj institutions (PRIs) and urban local bodies vis-a-vis men. Female representation in the local bodies is around 40 per cent throughout the district which is lower than 50 per cent. The district has the minimum value for this indicator.

Another indicator is the share of females in 0-6 age group population (rows 6 and 7), which is in the range of 48 to 49 per cent. This might be because of adverse child sex ratio in 2011, which is around 950. Hence, discrimination against girl child seems to have increased in the recent years. The gender gap though lower, being positive in all the taluks, indicates that the discrimination is evenly spread across the taluks.

In terms of capabilities, literacy attainments reflect an important aspect of gender development. Raichur district has lower literacy than the state level for the overall as well as female population. Female literacy is substantially lower, and lower than that of males (rows 8 and 9). Even as late as in 2011, less than half of the female population was literate with a literacy rate of 48.7 per cent, which is very low compared to the state average at 68 per cent and district's own male literacy at 70 per cent. Thus, the gender gap in literacy was about 21 per cent, with gender gap in rural areas being 24 per cent in rural areas, which is 50 per cent higher than in urban areas at 16 per cent. Across taluks, Raichur and Sindhnur had higher female literacy with relatively lower gender gaps, vis-a-vis the other three taluks.

Opposite tendency is noticed with respect to work participation rates (rows 10 and 11). Devadurga records the highest female WPR (53 per cent), followed by Manvi (50 per cent) and Sindhnur (47 per cent). It is 38 per cent in Raichur and 42 per cent in Lingsugur. Gender gaps in WPR are lower in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks compared to Lingsugur and Raichur. Probably, the backwardness of the former taluks compels the women folk to participate extensively in work. Poverty is another factor forcing them to participate in work in these taluks.

The district has very low share of workers engaged in non-agricultural work, especially of women workers (rows 12 and 13). Only Raichur taluk reports a higher share of female workers working in non-agriculture. It is as low as 12 per cent in Devadurga and 13 per cent in Manvi taluks. In Sindhnur and Lingsugur taluks, the percentage female workers employed in non-agricultural work is substantially lower at 19 per cent and 22 per cent respectively. Non-agricultural employment is available extensively in advanced taluks and that too predominantly for males. This results in a higher wage inequality across gender and

across taluks. Female agricultural wages are far lower than the male agricultural wages. Low literacy levels but higher work participation means they work out of compulsion which reduces their bargaining capacity hence exploited with lower wages. Thus, development in Raichur district has not promoted gender equality. The values of GII are given in Table 3.3.

Sindhnur has the least gender inequality very closely followed by Devadurga and Lingsugur. Manvi and Raichur have higher gender inequality. Reproductive health variables have predominantly influenced GII values followed by empowerment variables. For instance low MMR and anaemia in Devadurga; and low MMR and higher percentage of institutional deliveries have helped these taluks to have lower GII than the other taluks. Raichur taluk has the highest MMR and Manvi the highest incidence of anaemia among pregnant women. Therefore, focus has to be on reducing anaemia and MMR. Similarly, Devadurga has high WPR and low gender gap in it, while Raichur has the opposite.

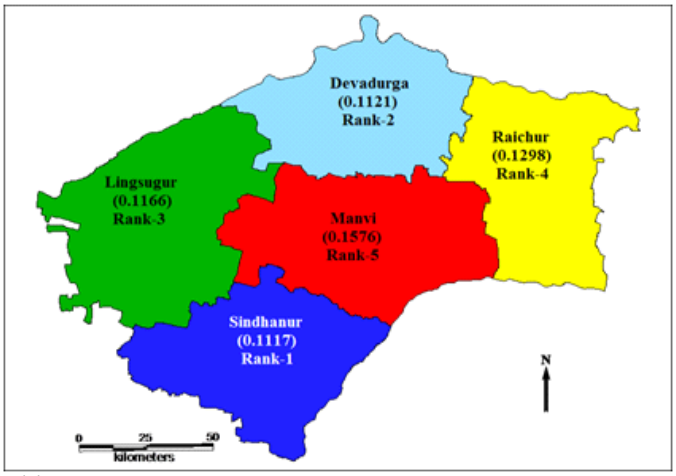
Women in Raichur experience 'capability deprivation' in many specific ways; these are evident in the unequal opportunities they face with regard to health, education, labour and political participation. The lower level of health, education, and participation in social, political and economic life has made women a neglected partner in development. Hence development interventions should aim at enhancing the social capabilities of women, especially promoting literacy which will result in their enhanced in political and labour market participation apart from building confidence in them. Higher literacy also improves reproductive health parameters.

Table 3.3: GII Across Taluks and Dimension Indices and Ranking in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Reproductive Health	Empowerment	Labour Market	GII	Rank
Devadurga	0.642	0.496	0.343	0.1121	2
Lingsugur	0.636	0.533	0.503	0.1166	3
Manvi	0.599	0.514	0.472	0.1576	5
Raichur	0.629	0.545	0.557	0.1298	4
Sindhnur	0.636	0.537	0.519	0.1117	1

Source: Computed from Annexure3.1

Map 3.2: Taluk GII in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: Table 3.3

3.3.1. Crimes Against Women

Women are not treated on par and often are subjected to violence everywhere. Crimes against women take different forms many of which go unreported and many culprits go unpunished. The physical and mental suppression of women is responsible for such a situation.

The number of crimes against women reported during 2011, 2012 and 2013 in Raichur district are given in Table 3.4.

The number of all crimes was 4446 in 2011 which came down to 3277 in 2012. Further up to the end of August 2013, the total number of reported crimes was 3199. Similarly, the number of reported crimes against women also came down from 291 in 2011 to 257 in 2012 and was 202 till the end of August 2013. Thus, the number of all crimes and those against females has gradually declined. Molestation and dowry harassment were the major crime types reported.

The number of crimes per 10000 persons comes to 22; and those against women count to 30 per lakh. Hence, incidence of crimes against women is relatively higher. The crimes can be reduced by strengthening the police and surveillance system. But more than that empowering women socially, economically and politically, as well as enhancing the social values and morals about women are essential.

Table 3.4: Number of Crimes Against Women in Raichur District, 2011, 2012 and 2013

Crime	2011	2012	2013*
Dowry death	11	2	1
Dowry Harassment	99	107	74
Molestation	148	126	99
Rape	33	22	28
Total against women	291	257	202
Total of all crimes	4446	3277	3199
Total number of crimes per 10000 people		22**	
Crimes against women per lakh women		30**	

*Note: * Upto the end of October2013 only; ** Average of three years reported*
Source: District Crime Records Bureau, Raichur

3.4. Child Development Index (CDI)

Children are also neglected in the development process. HD paradigm emphasizes that development should be all inclusive and the process should recognize the deprivations suffered by all categories of people. For the first time that the extent of children's socio-economic development is being measured through an index - the CDI. Apart from specific targets set out in MDGs (Box 3.1), the other goals relating to reduction of poverty and hunger and promoting women empowerment also affect child development positively. India is committed to achieve all these goals in a time bound framework.

Components of Taluk CDI

Health

- *Child Mortality Rate*

Nutrition

- *% children born under weight*
- *% malnourished children*

Education

- *% dropout children mainstreamed*

The indicators and variables relating to the above dimensions and their values for Raichur district are presented in Annexure 3.1. While the first three are negative indicators, the last is a positive one. CMR is higher in all taluks, more so in Sindhnur and Raichur. Percentage of children born underweight is also higher in all taluks, except Sindhnur and Raichur. The percentage of children malnourished is also high throughout the district reaching to almost 50 per cent in

Box 3.1: MDGs on Child Development

The UN Declaration on MDGs, target at: reducing the prevalence of underweight children below three years of age and child mortality rate; increasing net enrolment ratio; increasing the proportion of pupils starting Grade 1 who reach Grade 5; and increasing institutional deliveries.



Sindhnur taluk, while in others it ranges between 41 to 47 per cent. Percentage of dropout children mainstreamed is a bit higher in Lingsugur (76 per cent) and Sindhnur taluk (68 per cent). Hence, child development is very bleak and CDI values lower in the district (Table 3.5).

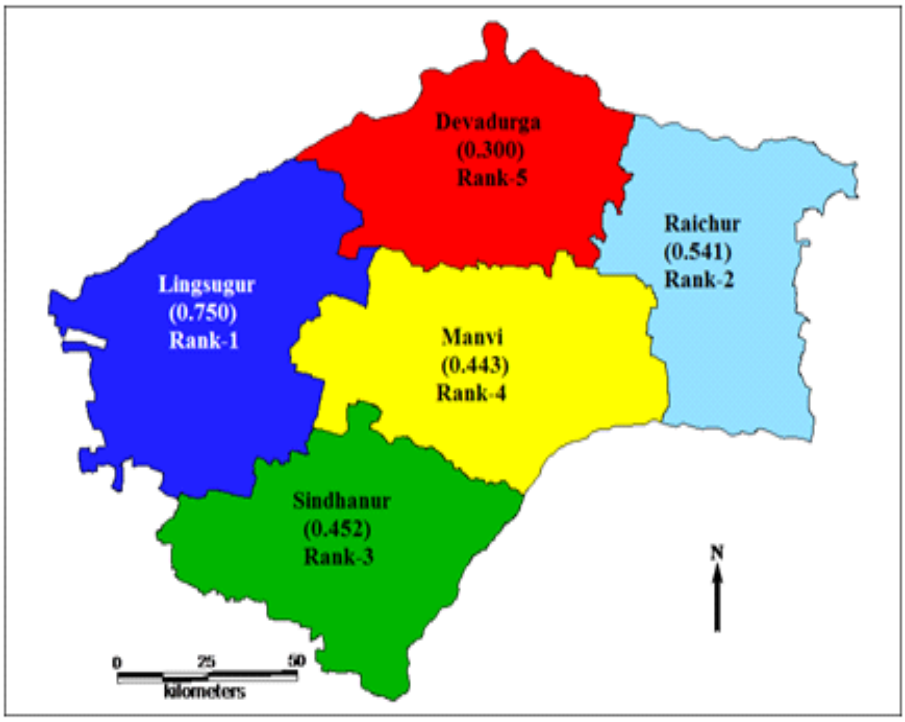
Like the HDI, the district's performance in CDI is also very dismal in the district. This situation is because of low literacy rate and high CMR resulting in very poor education and health indicators. Lingsugur taluk with a better performance in education and nutrition and not so a bad performance in health indictor, has been able to score the highest CDI at 0.750; followed by Raichur, which reports the highest value for education and third highest values for the other two variables. Sindhnur taluk with better nutrition index and the worst education index is in the third place. Devadurga taluk has the least value for health and nutrition indices, hence has the lowest CDI.

Table 3.5: CDI Across Taluks with Dimension Indices and Rankings in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Education	Health	Nutrition	CDI	Rank
Devadurga	0.789	0.205	0.000	0.300	5
Lingsugur	1.000	0.500	1.000	0.750	1
Manvi	0.842	0.372	0.185	0.443	4
Raichur	0.526	0.561	0.513	0.541	2
Sindhnur	0.000	0.500	0.808	0.452	3

Source: Annexure 3.1

Map 3.3: Taluk CDI in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: Table 3.5

The taluk-wise disparity in educational and health achievements are glaring and they have guided the CDI values. Hence, efforts at reducing CMR and mainstreaming of all dropped out children needs to be emphasized along with strengthening nutrition. Child health needs to be promoted in Sindhnur and Raichur taluks; mainstreaming of out of school children in Devadurga and Manvi taluks; and child nutrition in Devadurga, Manvi and Lingsugur taluks.

3.5. Food Security Index (FSI)

Since food is a basic necessity providing adequate quantity of food to the people at affordable prices is a goal of any modern government. That under-nutrition and malnourishment result in various kinds of illnesses imposing additional health expenditure on the household as well as the government is recognized by all. These can be avoided by ensuring

food security. In this report, the FSI is computed at the taluk level using 19 indicators encompassing availability, accessibility and absorption aspects. The data is given in Annexure 3.1.

Food security is measured as a collective outcome of three dimensions, viz., availability, accessibility and absorption. Availability indicators reveal a region's capacity to produce food grains; accessibility indicators reveal the purchasing power of people to buy food; and the government support in terms of provision of ration cards, especially to poor people. Finally, the absorption indicators indicate the access to basic amenities that improve the imbibing of food consumed. A few observations regarding the taluk level status with respect to the indicators are mentioned hereunder.

3.5.1. Availability

Availability of food depends upon local production which itself depends upon the area under food grains and yield levels. Therefore, land available for cultivation, irrigation and cropping intensity and area under pulse crops are considered along with the extent of forest cover. These represent the capability of a region to produce and sustain the food output. The index of availability largely depends on area under cultivation, per capita food grains production, irrigation intensity and cropping intensity. It is also significantly affected by changes in total cultivated area (TCA) and percentage degraded land. Thus wherever, these indicators are better, i.e., they are higher than the district average, the per capita availability of food grains is also higher.



3.5.2: Accessibility

Unless the available food is made available to the people at prices they can pay and nearer to their places of residence food security cannot be attained. In order to compute accessibility index at the taluk level, number of PDS outlets, number of PDS cards issued and factors determining purchasing power of people are considered for analysis. Thus, percentage villages with PDS outlets, percentage households possessing ration cards, on the one hand; per capita income, average size of holdings, percentage of workers in non-agricultural activities and agricultural work, on the other; are the variables chosen for the analysis. While the first set indicates government efforts to improve physical access, the second set of variables reflect the purchasing power of households. The indicators affecting the accessibility index are per capita income, proportion of non-agricultural workers and per cent villages having PDS outlets. Thus, increasing the number of PDS outlets and enhancing income earning capacity of households by

Nutrition security is dependent on several inter-related factors such as food production, food access, poverty, gender, access to health and sanitation, and cultural beliefs and practices.

Indicators of Taluk FSI

Availability Indicators

- *Cropping Intensity*
- *% Change in NSA over the years (2001 – 2011)*
- *Per capita food grain production (in Kgs)*
- *% of forest cover to total geographical area*
- *Irrigation Intensity*
- *% area degraded to Total Geographical Area*
- *% leguminous crops in the Gross Cropped Area*

Accessibility Indicators

- *% BPL Card holders to Total Card holders*
- *Per capita Income (Rs)*
- *% Non-agricultural workers*
- *Average size of holdings (Ha.)*
- *% Agriculture labourers to Total workers*
- *% villages having PDS outlets within the village*

Absorption Indicators

- *Child Mortality Rate*
- *% Households having access to Water*
- *Share of Pregnant Women with Anaemia*
- *(a) % Malnourished Children*
- *(b) % Children born under-weight*
- *Female Literacy Rate*

promoting non-agricultural employment are important means of ensuring food security.

3.5.3 Absorption

The indicators selected for analysis of absorption of food indicate the impact of provision of adequate food. Thus child mortality rate, malnourishment among children and anaemic pregnant women are some of the impact indicators. At the same time, few supporting variables that improve food absorption, like access to safe drinking water and literacy of females are also considered. These variables are expected to improve the food allocation and utilization within the household and reduce any unwanted consequence due to lesser availability of food. The values for the above dimensions and aggregated FSI are given in Table 3.6.

Sindhnur taluk reports the highest availability index with a high per capita food grain production, high cropping and irrigation intensity. Lingsugur also reports a higher availability index mainly guided by a very high positive change in the net sown area and relatively higher area under leguminous crops. On the other hand, Manvi taluk despite having a high irrigation intensity and higher per capita food grains production has the third highest availability index, which is due to the higher percentage of degraded area. Devadurga taluk too has a high percentage of area degraded and very low production of food grains per capita and is in the last place as far as availability is concerned.

Raichur taluk with a very low availability index reports the highest accessibility index. High per capita income, higher share of non-agricultural workers and a larger proportion of card holders are responsible for this status of Raichur. Manvi taluk also has high income and higher percentage of villages with PDS outlets. Contrarily, Devadurga and Lingsugur taluks have lower incomes and very low proportion of non-agricultural workers, while

Table 3.6: FSI Across Taluks with Dimension Indices and Rankings in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Availability Index	Accessibility Index	Absorption Index	FSI	Rank
Devadurga	0.274	0.224	0.387	0.295	5
Lingsugur	0.489	0.398	0.634	0.507	3
Manvi	0.349	0.596	0.319	0.422	4
Raichur	0.340	0.793	0.730	0.621	1
Sindhnur	0.618	0.556	0.456	0.543	2

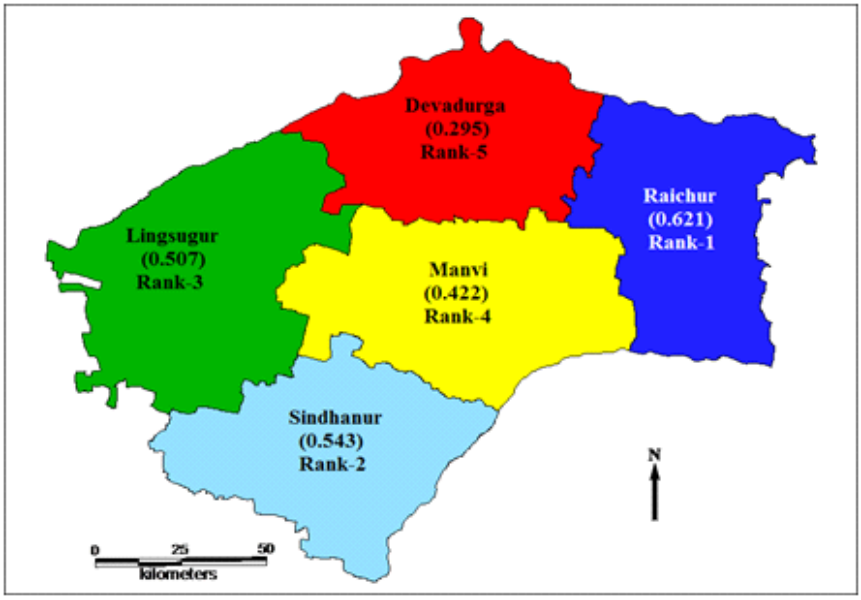
Source: Computed from Annexure 3.1

Lingsugur has least average size of holdings; Devadurga has the highest percentage of agricultural workers.

As far as absorption index is concerned Raichur taluk reports a very high value followed by Lingsugur. This is mainly because of relatively higher accessibility of households to water and female literacy rate and relatively lower percentage of children born underweight. On the other hand, Devadurga has the lowest female literacy rate, high proportion of children born underweight and malnourished children because of which it has the least absorption index. Manvi has the highest share of anaemic pregnant women and also higher proportion of children born underweight and malnourished. These two taluks have not adequate access to drinking water.

Therefore, availability is determined by per capita production of food grains, cropping and irrigation intensity and percentage of degraded area; accessibility by per capita income, proportion of card holders, PDS outlets and percentage of non-agricultural workers; and absorption index is affected by accessibility to water, female water and nutrition related indicators. Thus, these factors need to be promoted in all the taluks to ensure better absorption of food and hence better food security.

Map 3.4: Taluk FSI in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: Table 3.6

Raichur taluk has the highest FSI followed by Sindhnur, Lingsugur, Manvi and Devadurga. It may be observed that accessibility and absorption have determined the value of FSI to a greater extent. Therefore, improving income, non-agricultural employment avenues, female literacy and provision of drinking water are the means to raise food security of people.

3.6. Urban Development Index

Increasing urbanization is affecting the livelihoods and life styles of individuals. Everywhere, the proportion of urban population is increasing posing severe problems of providing urban amenities and livelihoods to people. There are six urban local bodies (ULBs) in Raichur district, Raichur and Sindhnur are city municipal councils (CMC); Devadurga, Manvi and Lingsugur are Town Municipality Councils (TMCs); and Mudgal is a Town Panchayat (TP).

Availability is determined by per capita production of food grains, cropping and irrigation intensity and percentage of degraded area; accessibility by per capita income, proportion of card holders, PDS outlets and percentage of non-agricultural workers; and absorption index is affected by accessibility to water, female water and nutrition related indicators

Components of UDI

- *% ULB population to total population in the taluk*
- *% Households without Own Houses*
- *% Slum Population to Total ULB Population*
- *% Households with Tap connection*
- *% Households with Sewerage and Drainage*
- *No. of Hospital Beds per*
- *1000 population in ULB*
- *% Own Resource Mobilization to Total Receipts*
- *Per capita expenditure on*
- *Development Works*
- *Length of Roads in Kms per*
- *Sq. Km of geographical area*
- *Crime Rate per 10000 population*
- *Road accidents per 10000 population*



Urban Migrants

The level of urban development from HD perspective is assessed taking into account 11 indicators representing demographic features, basic amenities, infrastructure for better living, finances and security of life in urban areas as given in Annexure 3.1.

Only Raichur CMC reports a considerable urban population. Due to a low overall urbanization the proportion of slum population is also lower throughout the district. Access to basic amenities is not satisfactory with five of the six ULBs reporting more than 20 per cent of households as lacking own houses, while this proportion is 69 per cent in Devadurga, in Manvi it was 14 per cent. Similarly only two ULBs (Lingsugur TMC and Raichur CMC) report more than 90 per cent of households as having access to drinking water; three others (Mudgal TP, Manvi TMC and Sindhnur CMC) report that between 80 to 90 per cent of the households have access to drinking water, but Devadurga TMC report a little higher than two-thirds of households having access to drinking water through taps.

Another basic amenity for healthy living is the availability of drainage and except Raichur CMC, in no other ULB the access rate is more than 75 per cent. This speaks of the deprivation in terms of lack of houses, drainage and also drinking water. Health facilities as measured the number of hospital beds is of very low magnitude in all ULBs, except Raichur CMC. Similarly, the road density is also lower in all ULBs.

The capability of a ULB to spend on development works and basic amenities is the extent of own resources generated is an important indicator. This is not encouraging as in no ULB its share exceeds 10 per cent of total resources. As far as development expenditure is concerned, again in all ULBs the amount is less than Rs. 1000 and the inequality could be grasped from the range of this indicator from hardly Rs. 152 in Lingsugur TMC to Rs. 790 in Manvi TMC. Hence, the ULBs are severely constrained in terms of resources available for development purposes; this has kept their levels of development at lower level.

This could also be seen in the extent of insecurity to life and property which is at a higher level in all ULBs. Except Raichur and Sindhnur CMCs, in all the remaining ULBs the incidence of crime and accidents is higher. These ULBs need to improve road facilities, surveillance facilities and police strength to control crimes and reduce incidence of accidents.

The composite UDI computed, combining the above indicators, for the six ULBs of Raichur district is shown in Figure 3.3 below. The figure shows that Raichur CMC has the highest UDI among ULBs of the district followed by Sindhnur CMC. Among the TMCs, Manvi followed

by Lingsugur have higher UDI, but lesser than Raichur and Sindhnur.

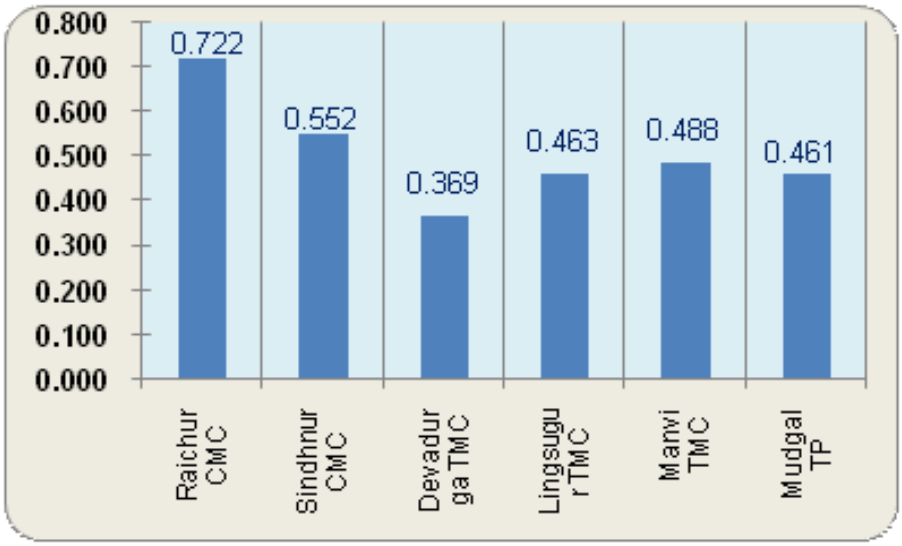
Devadurga TMC has the least UDI among the TMCs as well as all ULBs. Mudgal TP stands in the last but one position. Hence, Raichur CMC is the most developed and Devadurga TMC is the least developed.

3.7.Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI)

Development is a multidimensional process. Various indices presented so far refer to a single development issue. Therefore, a composite index capturing multiple dimensions of development of the taluks is attempted in this report. This helps in identifying the backward regions and also in identifying the priority areas of development in these backward areas. HPCFRRI did this exercise effectively for 2001. It needs to be updated and extended so that deprivations are effectively addressed. Thus, a composite Taluk Development Index encompassing a host of social, economic and political aspects of development is computed. For this purpose, data on 68 indicators is collected for computing the CTDI which is furnished in Annexure 3.1.

These variables have been grouped under three dimensions viz., (i) Standard of living indicators consisting of Demography; Livelihood and Employment;

Figure 3.3: UDI in Raichur District, 2011-12



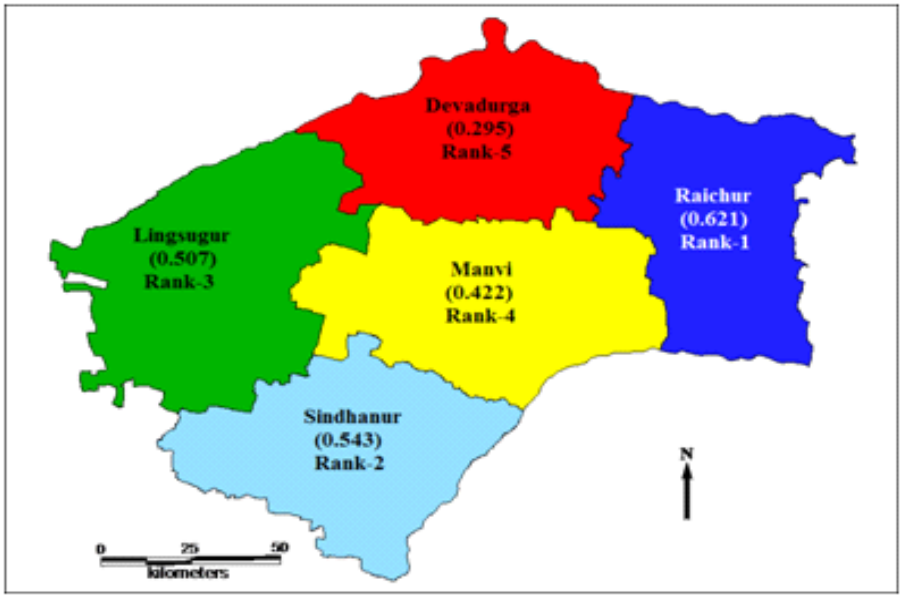
Source: Computed out of data in Annexure 3.6

Table 3.7: CTDI Across Talukas with Dimension Indices and Rankings in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Standard of Living Index	Health Index	Education Index	CTDI	Rank
Devadurga	0.479	0.480	0.429	0.463	5
Lingsugur	0.506	0.476	0.547	0.510	3
Manvi	0.514	0.458	0.453	0.475	4
Raichur	0.444	0.583	0.552	0.526	2
Sindhnur	0.520	0.507	0.643	0.557	1

Source: Computed from Annexure 3.7

Map 3.5: CTDI in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: Table 3.7

Housing and Assets;and Participation; (ii) Health indicators consisting of Health; Sanitation; Drinking water and (iii) Education indicators. The dimension indices and the CTDI are given in Table 3.7. Sindhnur taluk has the highest CTDI followed by Raichur, Lingsugur, Manvi and Devadurga. That there is not much variation in the values of CTDI shows that all taluks are more or less equally backward. Higher educational development has fostered a higher development of the taluka. The coefficients of correlation between these three indices with CTDI, work out as; Education index: 0.99, Health index: 0.55 and Standard of Living: 0.08, indicating that overall development goes together with educational development.

Though the association between CTDI and Health index is positive and significant, the extent of association is lesser; and that between SOL and CTDI is almost non-existent. This is because of very low levels of basic amenities available to the households across taluks. If basic amenities are strengthened, CTDI will also improve. Even when education has a strong association with CTDI, because of low educational development the district itself is poor and the CTDI is also lower.

Excepting participation indicators, in all others, the district's performance has been dismal.

3.8. Concluding Remarks

Human development is the process of increasing knowledge, skill and capacities of all the people in a given society. *Human Development Reports* have expanded development discourse beyond its focus on economic growth to consider human development and people's basic needs, such as their standard of living, education, and health care. It is now universally accepted that these different dimensions of human development—livelihood, education, and health—play important roles in shaping personal well being. In this context, the present chapter discussed the HD attainments in Raichur district through such indices as HDI, GII, CDI, FSI, UDI and CTDI were calculated. Further, to look into the deprivations from social group point of view, HD dimensions for SC/ST population were separately looked into. The UDI was computed to reflect upon the relative development of ULBs. More importantly, comprehensive taluka and district development indices are also constructed to understand regional deprivations in development.

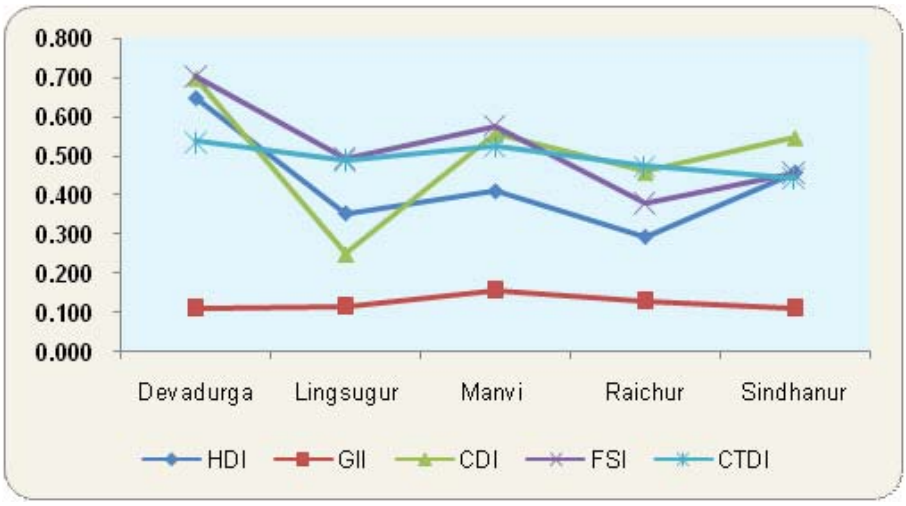
The human deprivation is higher due to high illiteracy, high mortality rates and less avenues of employment, especially in the non-agricultural sector. The basic amenities in terms of good houses, electricity, drinking water and toilets are also not adequately available. Devadurga and Manvi are more deprived compared to the other taluks. Women in Raichur experience 'capability deprivation' in terms of unequal opportunities with regard to health, education,

labour and political participation in all taluks. CDI values are lower in Devadurga, Manvi, Raichur and Sindhnur; only in Lingsugur, the CDI has higher value than the other indices. This is again because of very poor performance with regard to health and education parameters. Similarly, FSI is lower in Devadurga, Lingsugur and Manvi taluks. The lower value for FSI are because lower availability and absorption indicators. Not only the per capita production of food grains is lower, but access to drinking water and sanitation is also far from satisfactory. CTDI is relatively higher wherever performance in education related variables is better. Thus, CTDI is higher in Sindhnur and Raichur compared Manvi and Devadurga.

Figure 3.4 plots the extent of deprivation as 1 minus the attainment values, except the GII. It may be observed that deprivations are quite high for Devadurga and Manvi. Although, deprivation levels are lower for Lingsugur and Raichur, diversity is higher in Lingsugur than in Raichur.

Table 3.8 presents the ranking of taluks in various indices. It may be observed that there is a considerable diversity of attainments with respect to different indices. Devadurga is ranked last in four indices; Manvi last in one and last but one in three indices. Raichur is ranked first and second in two indices; Lingsugur first and second in one each; and third in three indices. Sindhnur is also ranked first in two indices; second and third in one index each.

Figure 3.4: Levels of Deprivation in Raichur District, 2011-12



Indicator wise analysis shows that access to safe cooking fuels is inadequate - Devadurga reporting hardly 5 per cent and Raichur reporting the highest proportion of 25 per cent. Access to toilets is also unsatisfactory with maximum value being 34 per cent in Raichur and lowest being 7 per cent in Devadurga. Drinking water facility is available to around 50per cent of households, except Raichur, where it is 75 per cent. Access to electricity is relatively better at around 80-90 per cent, but universal availability of electricity is still a distant goal. Housing status is poor with only about half

Table 3.8: Taluk wise and Index wise Ranking, 2011-12

Rank	HDI	GII	CDI	FSI	CTDI
1	Raichur	Sindhnur	Lingsugur	Raichur	Sindhnur
2	Lingsugur	Devadurga	Raichur	Sindhnur	Raichur
3	Manvi	Lingsugur	Sindhnur	Lingsugur	Lingsugur
4	Sindhnur	Raichur	Manvi	Manvi	Manvi
5	Devadurga	Manvi	Devadurga	Devadurga	Devadurga

of the households in Raichur taluk; about one-third in Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks; and less than one-third in Manvi and Devadurga taluks reporting as living pucca houses. Notable fallout is the participation in non-agricultural work which is very low except in Raichur (51 per cent) and Lingsugur (32 per cent) taluks. PCTDP is in a comparable range, with Manvi and Sindhnur reporting high income and Lingsugur, the lowest. Mortality rates - CMR and MMR are high but are more or less equally spread across taluks. The severest deprivation is in terms of literacy rate with only less than half of Devadurga's population being literate and in no taluk it reaching the two-third level. GER is also very low indicating the huge deprivation in educational front.

Women in Raichur experience 'capability deprivation' in many specific ways; these are evident in the unequal opportunities they face with regard to health, education, labour and political participation. Incidence of crimes against women is relatively higher. The crimes can be reduced by strengthening the police and surveillance system. But more than that empowering women socially, economically and politically, as well as enhancing the social values and morals about women are essential.

■■

The poor typically spend a major portion of their income on food. According to NSSO Consumer Expenditure Survey of 2004-05, bottom 30% of rural consumers spend 66% of their income on food compared to 47% by the top 30%.



Chapter 4

LITERACY AND EDUCATION



Chapter 4

Literacy and Education

4.1 Introduction

A completed primary education is a basic human right and is necessary for enjoying many other rights. It is transformative and empowering, and a means for accessing broad economic, social, political and cultural benefits. Primary education is a powerful driver for realizing all of the MDGs and for sustainable development more generally. Education is a human right and is essential for human emancipation and social development. It contributes to better health, higher productivity, greater income, human freedom, capability and esteemed living, increased participation in community life. Education is the single best development investment and a powerful instrument to develop an economically prosperous society. The long term social and economic return from education is enormous. Education, as articulated in National Policy on Education (1986), is a "dynamic, cumulative, life long process providing diversity of learning opportunities to all segments of society." Education is not only an end in itself, but also a means to achieve many other valued goals of human development. Gender justice gets a boost when women have access to education, which, by enhancing women's knowledge and employment capacity, increases their sense of autonomy and self-worth. Thus, in achieving sustainable human development universal access to education plays a vital role.

The HDRs stress the importance of education in HD. The basic underpinning behind the concept of HD is that the income centered understanding of development cannot manifest the actual development scenario and needs to be attended by other aspects such as education. The HDI in the beginning used literacy rate and school enrolment rate to develop an index of education. The literacy rate was given a two-third and school enrolment rates a one-third weightage in constructing the HDI. In fact, the analysis of district's HDI and CTDI revealed that education influenced both of them significantly. In fact, one of the prominent reasons for higher gender inequality in Raichur district is because of lower female literacy.

Multifarious interventions are initiated by all governments to realize universal access to education. In India, extending literacy and education to all sections of population has been an important policy plank of the strategy of 'growth with equity and social justice' since the beginning of planned development itself.



Education is the single best development investment and a powerful instrument to develop an economically prosperous society. The long term social and economic return from education is enormous.

While historically, education was used as an instrument for exclusion of certain population groups and regions from participation in the development process, the latter half of the twentieth century marked the realization that to minimize all types of disparities in the shortest possible time frame, discrimination in access to educational and other social services need to be minimized. Hence 'Education for All' is a universally accepted goal today. Further, since education is both a cause and effect of underdevelopment, there is growing evidence that it is a powerful tool in overcoming socio-economic disparities.

The Constitution of India, under the Directive Principles of State Policy, emphasizes the provision of universal and free education to all in the age-group of 6-14 years. Not only this was sincerely followed at all levels of governance, the most recent culmination of these efforts is the enactment of the Right to Education (RTE) Act in 2009, making education a fundamental right of every child. Considering the vitality of education in the overall development process the UN has specified the following goals as part of Millennium Development Goals to be achieved by 2015 (Box 4.1).

Box 4.1: Millennium Development Goals on Education

1. Achieve universal Primary education: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

2. **Promote gender equality and empower women:** Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education not later than 2015.

In India, the achievement in education has been quite remarkable since Independence. Although universal literacy is yet to be attained, the nation is fast moving towards it (Figure 4.1).

The figure shows that the literacy has increased between 1951 and 2011 across all categories. However, rural areas and females still report very low levels of literacy, but he gaps are declining.

4.2 Literacy Profile of the District

Raichur district has lower rates of literacy compared to the state, hence to the country as well (Figure 4.2). Figures indicate that for the state as a whole, the literacy has increased from 67 per cent to 75.6 per cent between 2001 and 2011. In Raichur district too, the literacy for all persons has increased steadily from about 49.5 per cent to 60 per cent between 2001 and 2011. Males have higher literacy rates compared to females. However, Raichur district has lower literacy rates in all categories compared to Karnataka state. Further, while gaps elsewhere have declined, those in Raichur have increased. This needs to be arrested.

4.2.1 Region wise Literacy Attainments

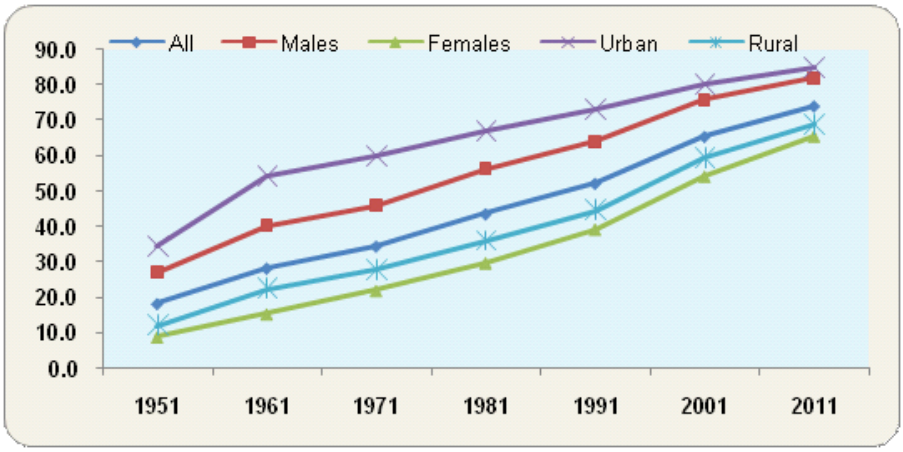
The district's literacy levels have been lower than the state literacy levels. Table 4.1 presents the information on literacy attainment in Raichur district across taluks.

Literacy attainment varies across the taluks. In 2011, it ranged from 49.49 per cent in Devadurga taluk to 65.18 per cent in Raichur taluk. While Sindhnur taluk is in the second place, Lingsugur and Manvi are in third the fourth places, respectively. The difference between the highest and lowest literacy taluks is very high at 15.69 per cent in 2011 which is lower than the difference in 2001 (17.28 per cent). This is due to a greater increase in low literate taluks like Manvi, Sindhnur and Devadurga.

4.2.2 Literacy Attainments by Gender

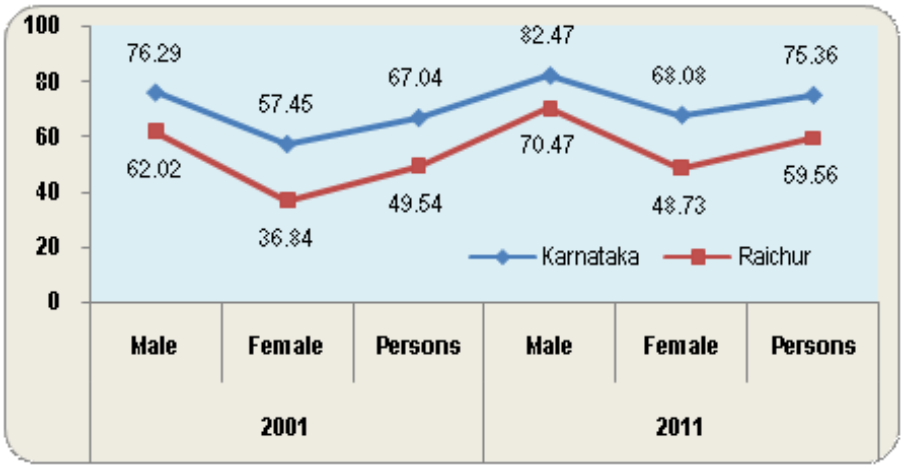
Similar to other regions in the country, gender disparity in literacy is quite high in Raichur district with male literacy rate (MLR) being consistently higher than that for females (Table 4.2). Across taluks, female literacy rates (FLR) follow the same pattern as that of total literacy rates (TLR). Raichur has one of the lowest literacy for females in the state. In 2011, more than half of the females were illiterate in the district, and Devadurga taluk

Figure 4.1: Progress in Literacy in India, 1951-2011



Source: Census Documents for respective years

Figure 4.2: Literacy Rates in Karnataka State and Raichur District, 2011



Source: Census Documents for respective years

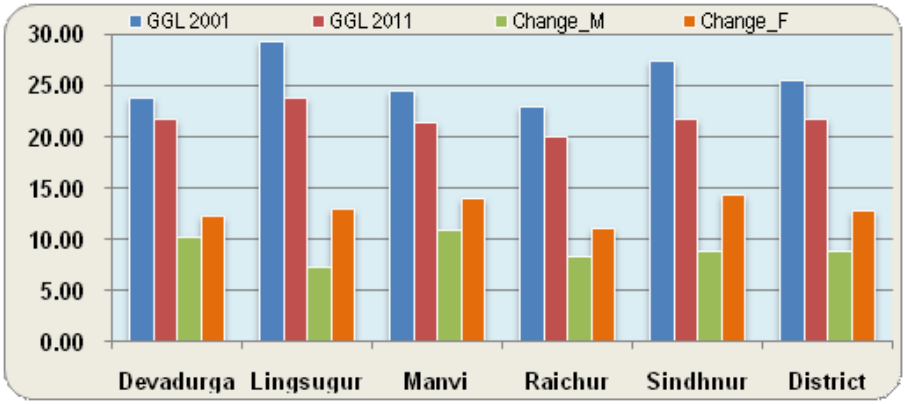
Table 4.1: Taluk-wise Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001			2011			Change (2001-2011)		
	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Devadurga	38.28	50.10	26.26	49.49	60.47	38.62	11.21	10.36	12.36
Lingsugur	51.02	65.59	36.13	61.14	73.04	49.14	10.12	7.45	13.01
Manvi	42.33	54.55	30.06	54.69	65.54	44.09	12.36	10.99	14.03
Raichur	55.56	66.89	43.94	65.18	75.26	55.16	9.62	8.37	11.22
Sindhnur	50.83	64.57	37.15	62.45	73.44	51.60	11.63	8.87	14.45
District	48.81	61.52	35.93	59.56	70.47	48.73	10.75	8.95	12.81
State	66.64	76.10	56.87	75.36	82.47	68.08	8.72	6.37	11.21

Source: Census documents for respective years

reports it to be as high as 61 per cent. That represents the deprivation of literacy in the district. But fortunately, during 2001-2011, the FLR has increased by higher proportion than MLR in all taluks which has reduced the gender gap in literacy though by a small extent (See Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.3: Gender Gap and Change in Literacy in Raichur District, 2001-2011



Note: GGL: Gender gap in literacy rates (MLR minus FLR)
Source: Computed from Table 4.2

The gender inequality continues to be high in all the taluks but has declined in 2011 compared to that in 2001. Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks have higher than the district level gender gap. For instance, the difference between highest male (Raichur) and lowest female literacy rate (Devadurga) is 36.64 per cent in 2011.

Table 4.2: Characteristics of Illiterates in Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	% to Dist	% Rural	% Female	% Rural Female
Devadurga	17.3	92.7	57.7	53.5
Lingsugur	19.6	83.5	59.8	49.9
Manvi	20.8	90.3	58.7	53.1
Raichur	23.1	63.2	59.5	37.5
Sindhnur	19.1	84.9	60.1	51.1
District	100.0	82.1	59.2	48.5
Total Number of Illiterates	949043	779024	561745	460639

Source: Annexure 4.1

An encouraging trend, however, is the higher increase in FLR vis-a-vis the MLR; FLRs have increased by higher proportion. Hence, increasing FLR will not only increase total literacy but will also reduce gender inequities in literacy attainments.

The number of *illiterates* is huge in the district, making the task of providing education a stupendous one (Annexure 4.1 and Table 4.2).

Nearly 9.5 lakh people were deprived of the basic literacy in 2011, of which 82.1 per cent were in rural areas; 59 per cent were females; and 48.5 per cent of illiterate persons were females in rural areas. Hence, nearly half of the illiterates were rural women of the district. Among taluks, Raichur accounted for nearly quarter of illiterates followed by Manvi which shared about 21 per cent of illiterates of the district.

Devadurga has the the largest proportion of illiterates in rural areas as well as among rural females. Manvi is another problematic taluk with respect to the proportion of illiterates. Hence, literacy is lower in the district and the problem of illiteracy is also quite daunting.

4.2.3 Literacy Attainments by Place of Residence

There is considerable regional variation in literacy rates as they vary across taluks and within taluks between rural and urban areas. In order to examine the features of educational development in Raichur district, Table 4.3 furnishes information on

Table 4.3: Literacy Rates by Place of Residence and Gender in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001						2011					
	Rural			Urban			Rural			Urban		
	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Devadurga	36.60	48.70	24.35	53.58	62.61	44.06	47.17	58.44	36.05	69.49	77.72	61.14
Lingsugur	45.83	61.23	30.20	67.76	79.43	55.55	56.89	69.71	43.99	75.02	83.91	66.03
Manvi	40.66	53.18	28.14	55.31	65.07	45.21	52.81	64.12	41.78	67.62	75.18	60.10
Raichur	38.33	51.72	24.79	70.79	80.10	61.11	52.16	64.65	39.89	77.51	85.20	69.79
Sindhnur	48.41	62.80	34.26	62.39	72.79	51.46	59.71	71.38	48.22	73.92	81.98	65.84
District	42.49	56.09	28.86	66.86	76.76	56.54	54.11	66.01	42.37	75.12	83.10	67.10
State	59.33	70.45	48.01	80.58	86.66	74.12	68.73	77.61	59.71	85.78	90.04	81.36

Note: P-Persons; M-Males; F-Females
Source: Census documents for respective years

literacy rates by rural-urban residence and gender within each category.

The data shows that the rural literacy rates (RLR) in the district was about 42 per cent in 2001 that increased to 54 per cent in 2011, while the urban literacy rate (ULR) increased from 67 to 75 per cent during 20101 and 2011. That urban FLR is higher than rural MLR is indicative of the nature of disparity. Of course, MLR was quite higher than the FLR in both urban and rural areas. In order to know these divergences better, the decadal changes and gender differences in literacy rates are analysed below. Table 4.4 provides information on increase in literacy between 2001 and 2011.

Literacy has increased for all categories, but relatively faster in rural areas and for females. There is no specific pattern for increase in literacy across the taluks. Rural literacy has increased relatively more in Manvi for males; and in Manvi, Raichur and Sindhnur for females. Similarly, urban literacy has increased relatively more in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur for males as well as females. Hence, while Devadurga and Sindhnur need to focus on rural literacy enhancement, the other three taluks on urban literacy enhancement. It is observed that rural females have recorded the highest increases in literacy and urban males the lowest. These trends have reduced the disparities in literacy rates as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.4: Change in Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 - 2011 (% points)

Taluk	Rural			Urban		
	P	M	F	P	M	F
Devadurga	10.58	9.73	11.70	15.91	15.12	17.07
Lingsugur	11.07	8.48	13.80	7.27	4.47	10.48
Manvi	12.15	10.94	13.64	12.31	10.11	14.89
Raichur	13.83	12.92	15.10	6.72	5.10	8.68
Sindhnur	11.29	8.57	13.96	11.53	9.19	14.37
District	11.62	9.92	13.51	8.26	6.35	10.56
State	9.40	7.17	11.70	5.20	3.38	7.24

Note: P-Persons; M-Males; F-Females
Source: Table 4.3



Table 4.5: Urban - Rural Gaps in Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001			2011		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Devadurga	16.98	13.90	19.71	22.32	19.29	25.09
Lingsugur	21.93	18.20	25.35	18.13	14.20	22.03
Manvi	14.64	11.89	17.06	14.81	11.06	18.32
Raichur	32.46	28.37	36.31	25.35	20.55	29.90
Sindhnur	13.98	9.98	17.21	14.21	10.60	17.62
District	24.37	20.67	27.68	21.01	17.09	24.73
State	21.25	16.21	26.12	17.04	12.42	21.66

Source: Table 4.3

The gender gap for total literacy is very high at 14 per cent (2011) in the state and still higher at 18 per cent in rural Karnataka. Of course, it has come down between 2001 and 2011. The gender gap in rural areas is almost double than that in the urban areas.

The values are calculated as difference between ULR and RLR in respective categories. In 2011, for the district, the overall rural-urban gap was about 21 per cent and for females it was 26 per cent. The urban-rural gaps are the highest in Raichur taluk and lowest in Sindhnur taluk. The gaps are considerably higher in other taluks also. While at the district level the gaps have reduced, those for Devadurga, Sindhnur and Manvi have widened. Especially the urban-rural gap of female literacy in Devadurga has diverged by almost 25 points.

Further, Raichur and Devadurga taluks reported higher urban-rural gaps in literacy than at the district level. Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur also show widening of the rural-urban gap overtime. That the gaps are high with respect to FLR indicates that females still continue to be deprived of education or think that education as not a necessary requirement for females. This attitude needs to be changed through suitable interventions. Table 4.6 views the disparities more closely.

Table 4.6: Gender Gaps in Literacy Rates in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001			2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	23.84	24.35	18.55	21.84	22.39	16.59
Lingsugur	29.46	31.03	23.89	23.90	25.71	17.88
Manvi	24.49	25.03	19.86	21.45	22.34	15.08
Raichur	22.95	26.93	18.99	20.10	24.76	15.41
Sindhnur	27.43	28.55	21.32	21.84	23.16	16.14
District	25.60	27.23	20.22	21.74	23.65	16.00
State	19.23	22.44	12.53	14.39	17.91	8.67

Source: Table 4.3

The gender gap for total literacy is very high at 14 per cent (2011) in the state and still higher at 18 per cent in rural Karnataka. Of course, it has come down between 2001 and 2011. The gender gap in rural areas is almost double than that in the urban areas. In 2011 Lingsugur taluk recorded higher gender gap followed by Devadurga, Sindhnur, Manvi and Raichur. The values are more or less similar indicating that disparity is equally spread in all taluks. This is true in rural as well as urban areas. Possible reasons for such a huge gender gap might be that parents may not be yet willing to send girl children to schools expecting them to help in household chores and family occupations, the schooling facilities might not have been adequate, or there may be a feeling that it is not necessary for the girl child to attend schools.

But the fact that the gaps are declining hints at the changing attitudes and improvement of facilities. But still greater efforts are needed in taluks like Devadurga,

Lingsugur and Sindhnur where the gaps are relatively higher. Therefore, if universal education is to materialize, focus should be on rural areas and female education.

The literacy gaps are also stark across social groups. Indian society being a heterogeneous one, economic status differs by social categories and so also the other development indicators. Hence, Table 4.7 provides data on literacy achievement by social groups.

It could be observed that the literacy attainment of disadvantaged social groups is quite low compared to the general population. Literacy among SCs was 53 per cent, while it was hardly 44 per cent among STs. Exactly one-third of ST females and 42 per cent of SC females were literate. Thus being a ST woman in Raichur district imposes a huge deprivation in terms of literacy. However, literacy has changed significantly, especially for females in both SC and ST categories. This tendency needs to be reinforced in the coming days to attain universal literacy. Figure 4.4 depicts the gaps in literacy expressed as the difference between general and SC and ST population. The gaps have been lower for SC sections compared to ST sections, but gaps for females are still quite high compared to that for males.

4.3 Enrolment

The progress of literacy and education depends to a large extent upon the level of enrolment of children in schools. Enrolment is the number of children taking admission in schools from among the relevant age cohort. Enrolment is a function of availability of school infrastructure, willingness of parents to send children to school and, of course, willingness of children to attend schools. All these are very complex factors in themselves. Right from the beginning, the governments have initiated measures to provide free and compulsory education to children upto the age of 14 years. Hence, the policy has been to open schools in all habitations, construct school buildings and provide other physical facilities and appoint teachers. Moreover, in order to

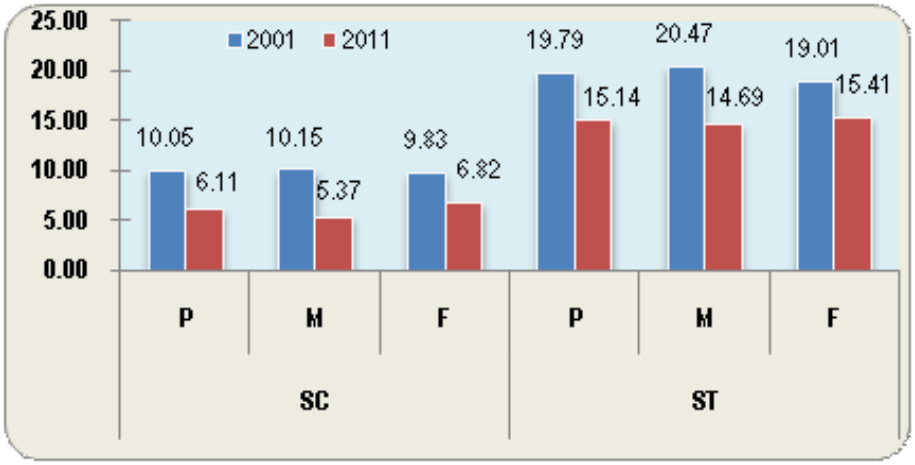
Being a ST woman in Raichur district imposes a huge deprivation in terms of literacy

Table 4.7: Literacy Rates by Social Groups in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001						2011					
	SC			ST			SC			ST		
	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Devadurga	32.52	43.54	21.30	26.80	37.08	16.36	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Lingsugur	44.75	58.66	30.61	33.66	47.36	19.57	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Manvi	31.30	42.66	19.99	25.76	37.14	14.49	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Raichur	43.91	55.93	31.73	28.65	39.79	17.39	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Sindhnur	36.82	51.24	22.78	33.48	48.67	18.53	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
District	38.76	51.37	26.09	29.01	41.05	16.91	53.44	65.11	41.91	44.41	55.79	33.33

Note: NA: Not Available; Note: P-Persons; M-Males; F-Females
Source: Census Documents

Figure 4.4: Gaps in Literacy Attainments in Raichur District 2001-2011



Note: SC=General-SC; ST=General-ST; Note: P-Persons; M-Males; F-Females
Source: Tables 4.3 and 4.7

attract students and motivate parents to send children to schools, a number of schemes are being implemented. This section analyses enrolment levels in primary and secondary schools in Raichur district.

Table 4.8 provides information on enrolment in primary schools across gender in taluks of Raichur district for 2005-06 and 2011-12. Enrolment in primary section increased by about 12 per cent, i.e., from 2,74,641 in 2005-06 to 3,07,985 in 2011-12. Enrolment of both boys and girls has increased but that of girls increased by a higher proportion. The percentage increase in girls' enrolment was about 14 per cent compared to 11 per cent for boys. But the gender composition of enrolment was almost stagnant with the share of girls enrolled in total enrolment increasing very marginally from 46.8 per cent to 47.3 per cent.

Raichur taluk accounts for the highest share in enrolment with 24 per cent, followed by Sindhnur (22 per cent), Lingsugur (21 per cent), Manvi (19 per cent) and Devadurga (14 per cent). While Raichur, Lingsugur and Devadurga have reported increased share in enrolment, Manvi and Sindhnur have recorded reduced shares between 2005-06 and 2011-12. All taluks have registered rise in enrolment with Lingsugur registering the highest growth and Sindhnur the lowest. Interestingly, in all the taluks, the percentage change is higher for girls' enrolment. In terms of regional shares of enrolment Sindhnur and Manvi taluks have reported marginal decline in their respective shares in district's enrolment for both boys and girls. Probably, children from these two taluks have

Table 4.8: Enrolment in Primary Schools in Raichur District, 2005-06 and 2011-12

Taluk	2005-06				2011-12				% Change		
	Boys	Girls	Total	% Girls	Boys	Girls	Total	% Girls	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	21237	17943	39180	45.80	24048	20492	44540	46.01	13.24	14.21	13.68
Lingsugur	29617	25755	55372	46.51	34545	30260	64805	46.69	16.64	17.49	17.04
Manvi	27499	24248	51747	46.86	30366	27110	57476	47.17	10.43	11.80	11.07
Raichur	34065	30894	64959	47.56	38810	35794	74604	47.98	13.93	15.86	14.85
Sindhnur	33736	29647	63383	46.77	34347	32213	66560	48.40	1.81	8.66	5.01
District	146154	128487	274641	46.78	162116	145869	307985	47.36	10.92	13.53	12.14

Source: DISE, 2012-13

gone to other places for schooling purpose.

4.3.1. Social Group-wise Enrolment

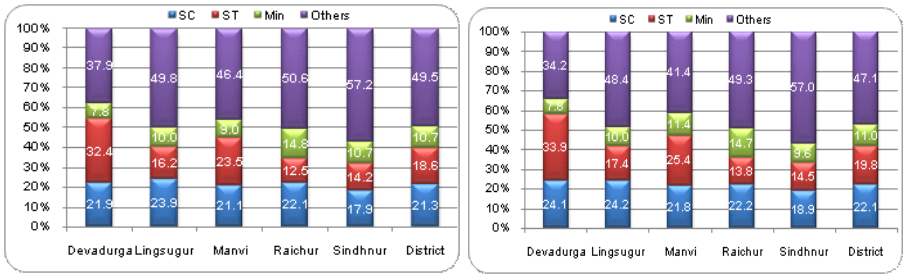
Figure 4.5 shows the percentage distribution of enrolment by social groups for 2005-06 and 2011-12. The percentage share in enrolment is least for ST students at 20 per cent, followed by SCs at 21 per cent. The combined enrolment of SC and ST students which amounts to 42 per cent, is proportionate to their share in population.

The share of ST students is higher in Devadurga (34 per cent) and Manvi (25 per cent) and that of SC students in Devadurga and Lingsugur (24 per cent each) and Raichur (22 per cent). In fact, in Devadurga, the combined enrolment share of SC and ST students is 58 per cent; and in Manvi it is 47 per cent. What is interesting is by 2011-12, all taluks witnessed a rise in enrolment share of SC and ST students, the higher change occurring in Devadurga and Manvi taluks. The share of minority students has also marginally increased. This improvement in the enrolment of SC, ST and minority students is a welcome sign as it indicates a greater awareness among these sections about the need for and benefit of education.

4.3.2. Enrolment Ratios

Analysis of status and trends in enrolment can also be done using the enrolment ratios. In fact, what

Figure 4.5: Share of Enrolment by Social Groups in Raichur District (%), 2005-06 and 2011-12



Source: DISE, 2011-12

matters more for achieving universal literacy is whether all children in the eligible age cohort are enrolled and attending the schools or not. There are two types of enrolment ratios - Gross and Net. Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) refers to ratio of children enrolled in particular levels of grades to the population in the relevant age cohort (6-14 years for primary, 15-16 for secondary), irrespective of age. Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) refers to the ratio of children enrolled in particular levels of grades within the given age cohort. Thus, while the maximum value of NER is 100 and that for GER could exceed 100. This is because, there is a likelihood of children from other regions attending in a given region; repeaters and drop outs getting enrolled. Table 4.9 gives data on enrolment ratios in Raichur district.



The GER in Raichur district is 114.24 in 2011-12, which is higher for boys at 117.79 and lower for girls at 110.54. GER for boys is higher than that for girls in all taluks. Lingsugur taluk has the highest GER at 180 and Raichur too has a

higher GER of 141. Sindhnur taluk also reports GER more than 100. But GER in backward taluks of Devadurga and Manvi are far lower. The students from bacward taluks are either going to the neighbouring taluks for schooling or many of those, in the advanced taluks, who had dropped out earlier might have enrolled for schooling. Over the years, the GER has declined in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks.

Table 4.9: GER and NER in Raichur District, 2005-06 & 2011-12 (%)

Taluk	GER					
	2005-06			2011-12		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	114.81	109.99	112.58	89.32	79.79	84.68
Lingsugur	120.39	116.36	118.53	188.08	171.92	180.18
Manvi	117.83	116.26	117.11	84.05	79.24	81.71
Raichur	112.41	117.80	114.95	144.56	137.39	141.02
Sindhnur	124.96	126.95	125.91	116.35	112.80	114.59
District	118.40	118.18	118.28	117.79	110.54	114.24
	NER					
	2005-06			2011-12		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	87.86	85.32	87.38	72.84	66.68	69.87
Lingsugur	89.20	88.75	89.12	91.00	80.98	86.14
Manvi	88.84	88.46	88.66	68.15	64.73	66.50
Raichur	90.17	89.75	89.97	92.51	89.28	90.94
Sindhnur	89.29	88.80	89.06	93.40	91.63	92.54
District	88.65	87.33	87.43	94.26	89.96	92.17

Source: DISE, 2011-12

NER is yet to reach 100 in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks. If the converse of NER is non-enrolled proportion, then that proportion is very high at 33 per cent in Manvi taluk, 30 per cent in Devadurga and about 8 per cent in Sindhnur. Devadurga and Manvi being backward taluks, a low NER means not all eligible children are getting enrolled, which will have implications for their future earnings as well as development of the taluk itself. What is more disgusting is the lower NER for girls everywhere and decline in NER in Devadurga and Manvi taluks. The decline has occurred both for boys and girls. This needs to be corrected by providing additional facilities and motivating the parents to send their children to schools.

4.4. Attendance, Dropout, Out of School Children and Mainstreaming of Children

Enrolment alone is not complete learning. The students should attend schools regularly, not leave school in the middle and move on to the next higher grade. In this context, the dropout rate (DOR) and the proportion of out of school children (OOSC) help us to study the context properly. Table 4.10 provides the data.

DOR is the proportion of children enrolled but not attending schools for a specific period of time. With realization of education in skill building, human capital formation and consequent impact on income earning capacity, the people themselves are willing to send their children to schools and are motivating them to attend schools regularly. This has been effectively supplemented by government programmes for attracting students and encouraging them to stay back in schools. But DOR among girls is higher than among boys. Across taluks, Manvi taluk has the highest DOR and Raichur has the lowest. Further, girls' DOR is higher in all taluks.

The reasons for dropping out may be that the students do not evince interest in learning, the facilities in the school (especially for the girl child) are not so conducive; or poverty of the family forces the child to leave school and attend work. Government has initiated a number of programmes for reducing dropping out of children from school. Overtime, these have had favourable impact on retention ratios of children in primary schools. However, Raichur being a backward district has a high incidence of DOR.

Table 4.10: Dropout Rates Primary Schools in Raichur District (%)

Taluk	2006-07			2011-12		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	15.50	34.17	23.83	2.50	5.90	4.09
Lingsugur	4.46	6.27	5.26	2.88	4.80	3.80
Manvi	8.02	11.40	9.50	4.38	5.58	4.95
Raichur	8.98	7.25	8.19	0.00	0.00	0.00
Sindhnur	5.70	4.82	5.30	5.98	2.32	4.21
District	8.01	10.78	9.25	7.96	12.78	10.22

Source: DISE, 2011-12

Table 4.11: Number of OOSC in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Boys	Girls	Total	% to District	% Girls
Devadurga	52	18	70	2.02	25.71
Lingsugur	342	373	715	20.62	52.17
Manvi	539	497	1036	29.88	47.97
Raichur	438	599	1037	29.91	57.76
Sindhnur	325	284	609	17.57	46.63
District	1696	1771	3467	100.00	51.08

Source: DISE, 2011-12

4.4.1. Out of School Children

Out of school children (OOSC) is another indicator that represents the inability of certain sections of children to attend schools. These are the ones who never got a chance to enrol in schools and have stayed out of formal schooling stream. In a sense, the extent of cent OOSC represents the inefficiency of the education system in providing universal education. Table 4.11 shows the extent of OOSC in Raichur district.

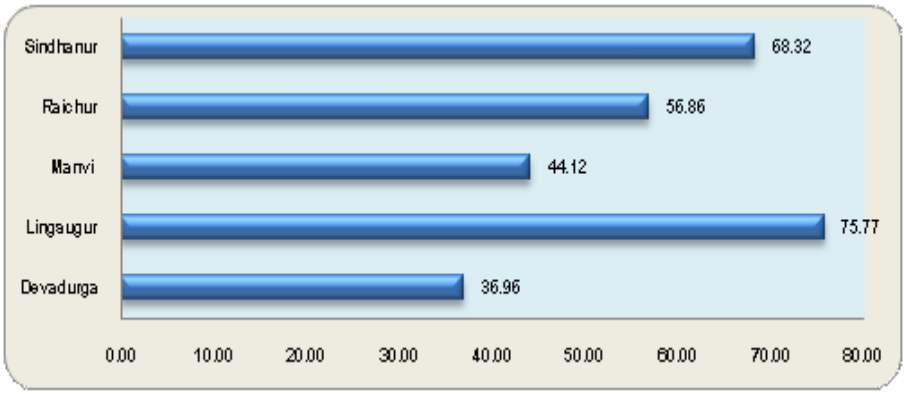
According to the Annual Work Plan and Budget Report of the SSA, there were 3,467 OOSC in Raichur district in 2011-12, a large majority of whom were in Raichur and Manvi taluks, together sharing more nearly 60 per cent of OOSC. Lingsugur taluk had about 21 per cent of district's OOSC and Sindhnur 18 per cent and Devadurga shared the remaining 2 per cent. The problem reflects the extent of efforts needed to be made for ensuring education for all. Girls account for more than half of OOSC at the district level as well as in Raichur and Lingsugur taluks. In Manvi and Sindhnur it is more than 40 per cent. Hence specific measures need to be implemented for retaining girl children in schools.

4.4.2. Mainstreaming of Dropouts

Such children who have dropped out or are out of school need to be identified, reasons for the same studied and efforts made to bring them back to the schooling stream. This is called as mainstreaming of the children. Government has initiated programmes to mainstream the dropped out children so that they not only enter the formal schooling stream but also catch up in learning along with others. The efforts have proved to be fruitful as shown by Figure 4.6.

The dropout rates are high for both boys and girls. Despite increased enrolment at primary level that the dropout rates being high indicate that many of them do not go beyond secondary level. That the proportion of children going to higher studies has not increased also indicates the low human capital build up in the district. This prevents the reaping the advantages of demographic dividend.

Figure 4.6: Dropout Children Mainstreamed in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)



Source: DISE, 2011-12

The proportion of children mainstreamed is higher in Lingsugur, Sindhnur and Raichur taluks suggests that efforts have been made in areas where the problem of dropout was severe. If still more efforts are made in Devadurga and Manvi taluks, the educational performance can increase there. The values, therefore, indicate the efforts made and the gap that still remains to be covered in mainstreaming the children who are out of school. Programmes like 'Marali Baa Shalege', 'Chinnara Angala', etc., have helped in bringing back considerable number of children to schools.

Table 4.12: Retention Ratios in Primary Schools in Raichur District (%)

Taluk	2006-07			2011-12		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	97.84	102.52	99.98	93.13	89.50	91.46
Lingsugur	87.37	90.81	98.97	93.84	91.33	92.66
Manvi	80.35	74.16	77.50	94.45	92.00	93.28
Raichur	90.22	91.20	90.70	100.00	98.17	100.00
Sindhnur	87.89	79.23	83.79	90.50	93.46	91.93
District	92.34	90.57	91.53	96.25	94.50	95.42

Source: DISE, 2011-12

4.4.3. Retention Ratios

What proportion of children continues learning and finish a given grade or level of education is what is known as retention That speaks of the capacity of the system to continue to provide schooling to children in a particular region. Table 4.12 reports almost total retention.

Retention rate is about 95 per cent at the district level, which is slightly higher for boys than the girls. Across taluks, Raichur taluk shows the highest retention followed by Manvi, Lingsugur, Sindhnur and Manvi. In fact, in Sindhnur retention of girls is slightly higher than that for boys

4.5. Transition Rates for Children

The transition rates for 6th standard children worked out as proportion of children enrolled at 5th standard is given in Table 4.13. The rates reflects the percentage of children who successfully completed 6th standard.

The rates range between 79.40 and 99.46, indicating a better movement of students from one grade to the other suggesting a good transition of students from primary to upper primary level. With a policy that no child should be failed, the transition rate should only reflect the DOR. Hence, quantitatively, there is a considerable progress in education, reduction of illiteracy and containing drop outs at the primary level.

4.6. Secondary School Enrolment and Dropout Rates

Secondary schooling is the bridge between primary schooling and higher education. It develops essential skills relating to subjects in general and prepares a student for thinking future career. Hence, secondary schooling is an important link in the educational system. There were 393 secondary and higher secondary schools in Raichur district in 2011-12, 27 per cent of which were in Raichur taluk. Sindhnur had 23 per cent and Lingsugur had 20 per cent of secondary schools; Manvi and Devadurg shared the remaining 32 per cent of schools. The distribution of schools in Raichur by management and taluks is shown in Table 4.14.

Of the 393 schools, 52 per cent were government schools. Of the 48 percent private schools, 8 per cent were government aided schools and remaining 39 per cent were unaided schools. Thus, more than three-fourths of the private schools were unaided schools. The infrastructure, teachers and other facilities would be expected to be of poorer quality as there would not be enough resources to spend on these. The number of teachers is also expected to be lesser and not adequately qualified. Alternatively, it may also be argued that these schools would attract the richer sections to enrol their children in schools, promising them quality infrastructure and teaching.

Table 4.13: Transition Rate of children enrolled in 5th standard and moving on to 6th standard, 2011-12 (%)

Taluk	2006-07			2011-12		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	75.55	65.67	71.01	83.31	74.94	79.40
Lingsugur	80.39	74.28	77.55	87.48	83.47	85.58
Manvi	85.03	76.39	80.99	89.16	87.67	88.45
Raichur	83.94	87.96	85.77	102.96	95.73	99.46
Sindhnur	83.88	81.32	82.66	86.91	90.08	88.43
District	82.23	78.28	80.39	90.58	87.34	89.03

Source: DISE, 2011-12

Table 4.14: Distribution of Secondary Schools by Management, 2011-12

Taluk	Tal %	Govt (%)	Private (%)		
			Total	PA (%)	PUA (%)
Devadurga	12.5	71.4	28.6	0.0	28.6
Lingsugur	19.6	57.1	42.9	11.7	31.2
Manvi	18.1	56.3	43.7	2.8	40.8
Raichur	27.2	43.0	57.0	12.1	44.9
Sindhnur	22.6	44.9	55.1	10.1	44.9
District	393*	52.2	47.8	8.4	39.4

Note: Govt: Government, Pvt: Private, PA: Private Aided, PUA: Private Unaided;
** total number of secondary schools*
Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

4.6.1. Enrolment

Information on the extent of secondary school enrolment in Raichur district is furnished in Table 4.15.



Table 4.15: Features of Secondary School Enrolment in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Tal %	% Girls	%SC	%SC girls	% ST	% ST girls
Devadurga	13.2	40.3	18.8	37.6	22.7	39.3
Lingsugur	21.3	45.6	16.2	41.7	10.2	40.4
Manvi	18.5	43.6	14.6	38.7	13.6	34.1
Raichur	21.6	42.5	15.9	37.6	7.7	29.7
Sindhnur	25.4	47.4	12.2	42.2	10.0	42.0
District	36406*	44.3	15.2	39.7	11.9	37.6

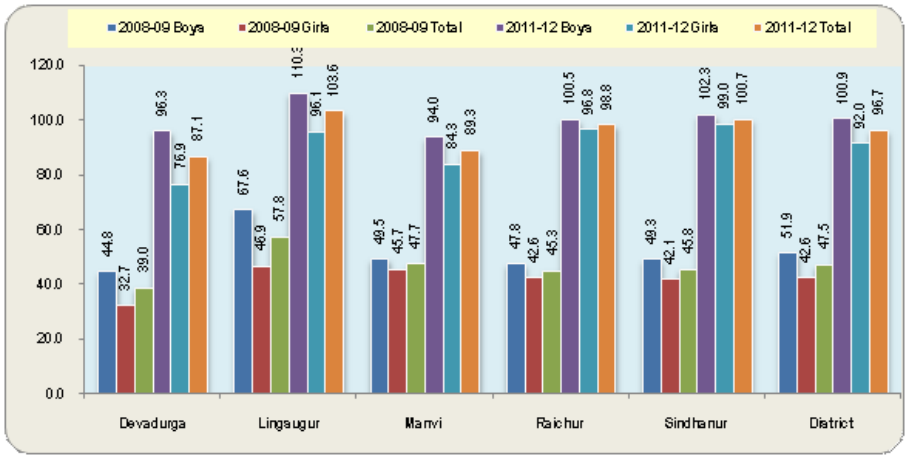
*Note: * Total enrolment of the district*
Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

The education of mothers is positively associated with better child education, health and nutrition outcomes

The total enrolment in secondary schools during the year 2011-12 was 36406, of which 44 per cent were girls. While Sindhnur taluk enrolled more than 25 per cent of district's enrolment, Raichur and Lingsugur taluk shared 22 and 21 per cent of enrolment, respectively. Devadurga taluk shared the lowest secondary enrolment at 13 per cent, Manvi shared the remaining 18 per cent. The share of girls in secondary enrolment is 44 per cent which is lower than their share at primary level. It only means that not all girls enrolled at primary level continue for secondary education. Similarly, the ratio of SC and ST students enrolled in secondary education also has come down compared to the primary level. Except in Devadurga taluk, the percentage share of ST students is lower than that of SC students, the same pattern holds good for girls among these communities.

Thus, compared to primary, lesser proportion of girls get enrolled for secondary schooling; lesser proportion of SCs and STs and still lesser proportion of girls among these communities come to secondary education. This deprives them of higher and productive skills and pushes them into a vicious circle of low skills, less productive employment and poverty.

Figure 4.7: Secondary School GER in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

4.6.2. Enrolment Rates - GER

Figure 4.7 provides information on the trends in GER in secondary schools in Raichur district. The GER in secondary schools has been impressive at about 97 per cent in 2011-12. The GER for boys has been higher than for the girls throughout the district. While Lingsugur has the highest GER, Devadurga has the lowest. Manvi taluk also records lower secondary school GER.

4.6.3. Enrolment Rates - NER

Figure 4.8 provides information on the trends in NER in secondary schools in Raichur district.

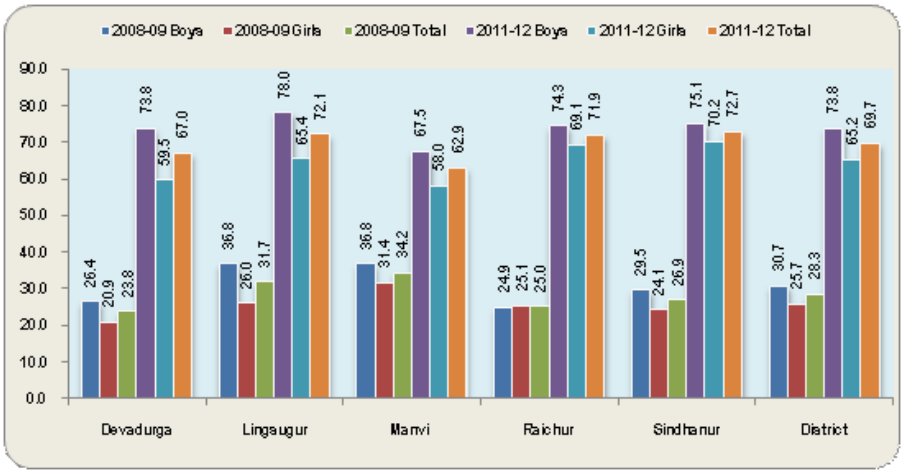
NER too has increased during 2008-009 and 2011-12 for boys as well as girls. NER in the secondary schools was the lowest in Manvi and the highest in Sindhnur. Girls' NER was lower than that of boys.

This suggests that specific interventions need to be initiated for increasing enrolment of girl children.

4.6.4. Retention Rates

Unlike in primary education, where the retention rates were higher and sometimes nearer 100 per cent, those for secondary education are lower (Table 4.16). Children having grown up, are either withdrawn or forced to withdraw from schools for economic reasons. Therefore, retention rates in secondary schools are around 90 per cent. It is interesting to note that the retention rate for girls is higher than that for the boys. But in Devadurga and Raichur taluks, girls' retention rates is lower than the boys. This is in all regions in 2011-12. Hence, programmes to motivate parents and girl students must be continued. Retention is relatively higher in urban areas.

Figure 4.8: NER in Raichur District



Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

Table 4.16: Taluk Wise Retention Rate in Raichur District in 2011-12 (%)

Taluk	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	78.18	71.63	75.41
Lingsugur	73.64	86.10	78.69
Manvi	77.28	79.58	78.25
Raichur	100.00	90.60	97.80
Sindhnur	80.39	84.38	82.22
District	83.24	83.96	83.56

Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

The dropping out is expected to occur at all levels of schooling. As shown in Table 4.17, the percentage of dropouts in the secondary stage is higher vis-a-vis the primary stage. While DOR in primary stage is around 10 per cent, it is around 16 per cent in the secondary stage. Likewise, DOR for girls is higher in the primary stage, but it is so for boys in the secondary stage. It reflects the need for boys to support

Table 4.17: Dropout Rates at Secondary level in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)

Taluk	All			SC			ST			Muslim		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
Devadurga	21.82	28.37	24.59	15.43	11.40	14.00	22.27	24.20	23.03	30.29	0.84	18.37
Lingsugur	26.36	13.90	21.31	30.48	11.00	23.5	38.19	27.15	34.27	17.48	14.29	15.88
Manvi	22.72	20.42	21.75	24.91	15.48	21.25	25.75	20.00	23.71	30.67	27.89	29.35
Raichur	4.04	9.40	2.20	14.86	24.08	18.70	10.9	25.88	6.259	27.08	4.52	12.09
Sindhnur	19.61	15.62	17.78	28.24	34.70	30.90	34.20	43.90	38.66	20.86	17.35	19.00
District	16.8	16.0	16.4	23.5	20.2	22.2	23.7	28.4	25.6	24.8	10.4	17.8

Note: B - Boys, G - Girls, T - Total
Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

the family. But girls' dropping out is higher among ST communities.

Across the social groups, the DOR is highest among ST students at 26 per cent, indicating that one in every four students joining for secondary school drops out. Among SC students it is at 22 per cent. Muslims also report higher than the total DOR. Hence these are the vulnerable communities as far as continuance in school is concerned. This affects retention ratios and rates of completion of grades as shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Transition Rates at Secondary Education Level in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)

Taluk	Class VIII to IX			Class IX to X		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	73.66	72.53	73.19	72.65	82.20	76.26
Lingsugur	88.42	88.80	88.58	82.25	82.44	82.33
Manvi	85.39	92.15	88.39	73.20	70.14	71.85
Raichur	89.67	91.99	90.72	83.15	92.66	87.39
Sindhnur	87.85	85.16	86.60	89.77	90.87	90.29
District	86.20	87.57	86.81	81.19	84.81	82.80

Source: RMSA Document, DDPI, Raichur

The transition rates are generally higher for girls than the boys as well as in urban areas. Relatively lower transition rates in the district are a severe cause of concern. Better instruction and remedial coaching especially in the rural areas should be taken up for making interest in studies and perform better.

4.7. Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)

Government prescribes a specific number of students to be handled by each teacher. This number of students per teacher is measured as pupil-teacher ratio. Naturally, lesser the number better is the situation. The norm for PTR for primary schools is 40, i.e., a teacher should be comfortably addressing to the needs of 40 children. Any value higher than this indicates that the learning environment is not conducive enough. Table 4.19 shows the data.

Table 4.19: Pupil-Teacher Ratios in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Primary	Secondary
Devadurga	27.00	19.60
Lingsugur	28.99	14.99
Manvi	28.69	17.57
Raichur	27.04	15.56
Sindhnur	28.44	17.42
District	28.17	16.70

Source: DISE, Raichur 2011-12

For Raichur district, at 28 for the district is within the norms and is almost equivalent in all the taluks. Because of the policy of the government to appoint more number of teachers the PTR has declined, which is a favourable sign. The PTR for secondary schools is also quite favourable at 17 in the district, which is not very high. Across taluks, Devadurga taluk has the highest ratio and Lingsugur has the lowest.

There is a considerable diversity in primary and secondary PTRs and they seem to be diverging across the taluks. While primary PTR is almost similar across taluks, the secondary PTR varies considerably across taluks. While Lingsugur has the least secondary PTR, Devadurga has the lowest. If students are to transit smoothly to

higher grades, there is a need to maintain a favourable PTR, especially in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks.

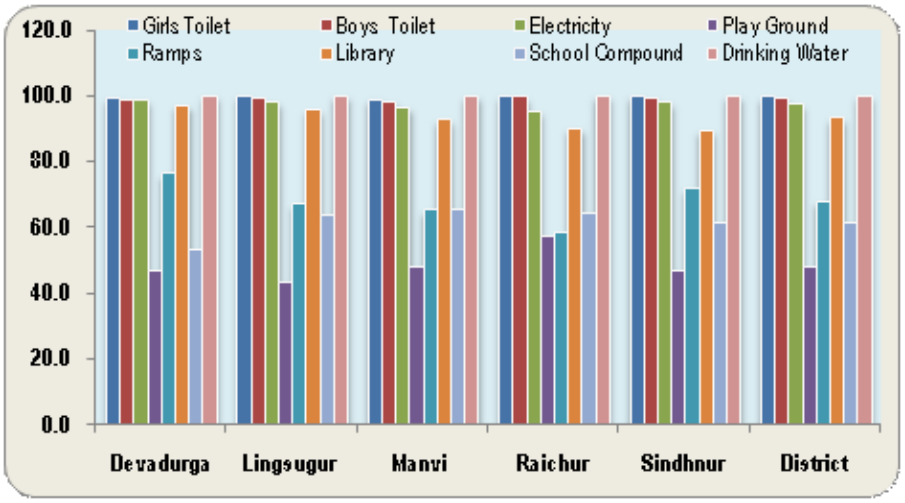
4.8. Infrastructure and Access

As already mentioned, accessibility of schools and related facilities is very vital in attaining universal literacy. That is why the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and the recently enacted Right to Education (RTE) Act, 2009 specify norms for various facilities to be met in order to achieve universal literacy. The district has a total of 1434 habitations out of which 1420 habitations have been provided with primary schools. Hence, 99 per cent of habitations have access to primary schooling and 1412 habitations, i.e., 98.47 per cent, have higher primary schools within the radius of 3 kilometers. Further, there were 1937 primary schools, out of which 409 or 21 per cent were private management schools. The development of road infrastructure; extension of transport facilities to remote areas; and concessional bus pass facilities; have made schools accessible to students. This is also supported by hostels and residential schools.

4.9. Eight Basic Facilities - School Infrastructure Index

A school needs to have proper ambience for studies. A good building, adequate number of class rooms with blackboard and other learning equipment, ventilation and electricity, drinking water and toilets, especially for girls are few basic amenities that are essential. Under the SSA eight basic infrastructural facilities, viz., common toilets, separate toilets for girls, electricity, play ground, library, ramps, a compound wall along with drinking water facilities are provided to all schools. Annexure 4.2 provides information about the proportion of schools possessing the given facilities and the same is depicted in Figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9: Schools Having Basic Facilities in Raichur District,



Source: DISE, 2011-12

The infrastructure facilities in schools of the district have definitely improved. All the schools have drinking water facility and toilets for boys and girls separately. More than 97 per cent of them have electricity connection, 93 per cent have ramps, more than 80 per cent have separate toilets for girls and boys; about 62 per cent of have compound wall and 52 per cent of have play ground. The extent of deficiency in few of the infrastructure facilities is huge and Table 4.20 reports the facility that

Table 4.20: Infrastructural Deficiency in Schools in Raichur District, 2011-12 (% Schools)

Facility	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhnur	District
Girls Toilets	--	--	1	--	--	--
Boys Toilets	1	1	2	--	1	1
Electricity	1	2	4	5	2	3
Play Ground	53	57	52	43	53	52
Ramps	24	33	35	42	28	32
Library	3	4	7	10	7	7
Compound	47	36	35	36	39	39
Drinking Water	--	--	--	--	--	--

Source: Annexure *4.2*

The association between literacy rates and infrastructure is positive and significant. Good infrastructure is also associated with lower dropout rates. Hence, adequate infrastructure is the first step towards inclusive literacy outcomes.

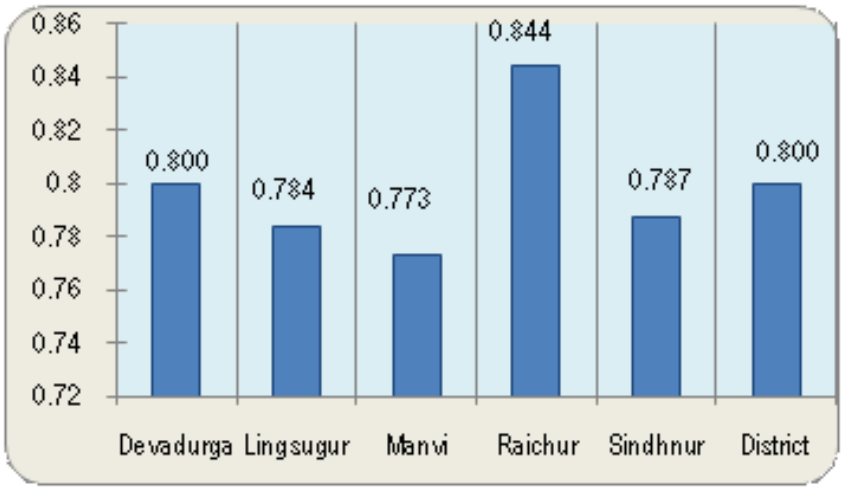
has to be extended to schools by taluks.

The table indicates taluk wise percentage of schools not having the given facility. Play ground, ramps, library and compound wall are the facilities that are seriously deficient in the district. This affects overall enrolment and attendance and hence literacy outcomes. A summary view of this is seen through the infrastructure index which is constructed as per the SSA methodology and given in Figure 4.10.

Maximum value of the infrastructure index in the state being 0.980, the infrastructural deficit is quite evident. Considering the same benchmark, it is seen that Manvi taluk has the maximum deficit followed by Lingsugur and Sindhnur. Thus, investment needs to be focussed in these taluks. Raichur taluk has the highest infrastructure index and Devadurga, the second highest.

Levels and growth in literacy rates are expected to be positively influenced by infrastructure facilities. The association between literacy rates and infrastructure as well as between growth in literacy and infrastructure is positive and significant. This suggests that if literacy is to increase in backward regions, school infrastructure needs to be strengthened. Good infrastructure is also associated with lower dropout rates. Hence, adequate infrastructure is the first step towards inclusive literacy outcomes.

Figure 4.10: School Infrastructure Index in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: Computed from Annexure *4.2*

4.10. School Completion Rates - Pass Percentage in SSLC/PUC Examinations

An important indicator of the quality of teaching and learning is

the performance of the students in Board examinations. In Karnataka, the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (SSLC) examination at 10th standard and Pre-University Course (PUC) examinations at 12th standard are conducted by the state level agencies. Obviously, the pass percentage in these examinations reflects the quality of the education system. Hence, Table 4.21 gives a cross-sectional view of SSLC results for the year 2012.

In the 2012 SSLC examination, 79 per cent of students passed in Raichur district which is quite low compared to the highest percentage of passing recorded in that year in the state at 94%. Hence, the district's performance is very low. The pass percentage in government schools is lower at about 79% compared to private aided schools (81%) and unaided schools (88%).

That the passing percentage is lower in government schools is a concern given the fact that private schools are lesser in proportion in the district. This needs to be viewed seriously as the students enrolling in government schools are mainly from poor background, who will not be devoting completely to studies and will not be enrolled for extra coaching as well. Their previous education would also have not been as better as their counterparts studying in private schools. Urban students have fared better than the rural ones; girls better than the boys; performance of SC students is the lowest (77%) among social groups and 78% of ST students have passed SSLC.

Table 4.21: Students Passing in SSLC Examinations in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)

Taluka	All	Govt	Aided	Unaided	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	81.04	80.34	--	85.13	84.30	71.66
Lingsugur	81.76	82.16	90.71	86.44	83.72	76.71
Manvi	77.64	76.30	85.14	90.34	80.57	69.58
Raichur	72.22	72.87	70.32	88.71	70.93	72.83
Sindhnur	85.63	83.96	88.81	87.79	86.00	85.03
Total	79.09	79.12	81.62	88.04	81.65	75.42

Source: DDPI, Raichur

Interestingly, it is the students from Sindhnur, Devadurga and Lingsugur who have performed better than the other taluks. Pass percentage in Raichur taluk has been the lowest across all categories. While Sindhnur has performed better in rural as well as urban areas; Devadurga and Lingsugur are the other taluks reporting better performance in the rural areas.

The lower passing percentage in government schools of the district is a cause of concern given the fact that private schools are lesser in proportion.

PUC is another common examination conducted at the state level and hence, the pass percentage in this examination also reflects the quality of overall schooling. Table 4.22 gives the data.

Table 4.22: PUC Pass percentage Rate in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Pass %
Devadurga	57.07
Lingsugur	61.85
Manvi	66.50
Raichur	68.03
Sindhnur	68.43
District	65.87

Source: DDPU, Raichur

The passing percentage at 66% is not only lower than that at the state level, but is substantially lower

Students at a science demo



than the maximum pass percentage among the taluks elsewhere in the state at 99% in that year. Therefore, it indicates the need for a massive effort in instruction as well as coaching of students. Across taluks, Raichur taluk is the second best after Sindhnur; and Devadurga and Lingsugur have been pushed below. Manvi is in between. But even the highest performing taluk (Sindhnur) is almost one-third lower than the best performing taluk in the state. This makes the PU education very weak component of the overall education system in the district. It needs to be strengthened.

That nearly 70 per cent of enrolment is in general degree course and hardly 14 per cent in technical courses reveals that the technical competency is not adequately being developed in the district.

What is more intriguing is the differential performances in SSLC and PUC examinations across the taluks. Devadurga taluka with the second highest passing percentage in SSLC examination records the lowest passing percentage in PUC examination. On the other hand, Raichur with the lowest SSLC passing percentage has the highest PUC passing percentage. Such a mismatch could also be observed in Lingsugur as well as Sindhnur as well. The PUC passing percentage is substantially lower in the district except Raichur taluk which calls for additional coaching, in general, and for PUC students, in particular.



4.11. Post-Secondary Education including Professional and General Degree Colleges, ITI/ Polytechnic and other Skill Development Institutions

Raichur district has not been a predominant district in education. One University of Agricultural Sciences has been very recently established and there are no other notable higher educational institutions in the district. But with increasing urbanization many colleges imparting technical and general education have been started.

There were 166 institutions imparting post-secondary education of various kinds in the District. Of course more than half of them are PU colleges and 17 are degree colleges (Annexure 4.3). There are 2 colleges each imparting Engineering, Medical, Dental and Law education. Further, there are also 5 pharmacy colleges, 7 polytechnics, 8 it is, 6 D.Ed. training institutes and 5 B.Ed. Colleges. A total of 10181 students were enrolled in these institutions in 2011-12, of whom 35 per cent were females. Significantly, nearly 70 per cent of that enrolment was in general degree course and that in technical courses being hardly 14 per cent. This reveals the technical competency that is being developed in the district.

4.12. Schemes for Promotion of Literacy

Government is implementing various schemes for promotion of enrolment, retention and better performance. Of course strengthening of infrastructure, appointment of teachers and other personnel is a major support of the government. Apart from that many specific support programmes are

implemented uniformly in all the districts. The present section summarizes the programmes under implementation in Raichur in the educational sector.

1. General Schemes: Provision of scholarships, incentives, free text books, free uniforms, free school bags, free note books, free bicycle and fee reimbursement are the major schemes and programmes through which government promotes enrolment, retention and continuance in schools. The schemes meant for everybody or to specific sections like the SC/ST, Minority, girl child, etc. Whatever, the target group, these schemes have helped in motivating the parents to send their children to school and not withdraw them, basically for economic reasons.

2. Nali-Kali is another programme for out of school/dropout children to join back to school and catch up with other students.

3. *National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education* (Mid Day Meal Scheme): The ***Mid-Day Meal*** (MDM) Scheme was launched as a centrally sponsored scheme on 15th August, 1995 to attaint universalization of primary education. Its objectives were to increase enrolment, improve attendance and retention simultaneously to have an impact on nutrition of students in primary schools. From 2008-09, the scheme was extended to all students upto Class VIII in the District. The NGO's Akshaya Foundation and Adamya Chetan are providing the Mid-Day Meals in the district.

4. Scholarship Schemes

i. National Means-cum Merit Scholarship Scheme: Introduced by the MHRD for providing with the scholarship in favour of meritorious students belonging to economically weaker sections to arrest dropout rate in class VIII.

ii. National/State Talent Search Examination: To find out brilliant students at the end of Class VIII and to provide them with financial assistance for obtaining quality education.

iii. Minority Commission Scholarship: District minority BPL students those who are studying in 1-8th are provided with scholarship.

5. Residential Schools and Hostels

Table 4.23 provides information on the number of hostels and residential schools in Raichur district. There were 147 hostels in the district run by various departments with a total admission strength of more than 10209, which is considerable. Boarding and lodging are provided free of cost to the inmates in these hostels.

6. Co-curricular and extra-curricular activities are promoted and children are made to evince interest in these. Specific programmes like ***'Pratibha Karanji'*** are conducted on regular basis at various levels.

7. **Teacher Training Programme:** Teachers are making use of science

The major findings of the PROBE (Public Report on Basic Education) Report indicated that 84% of house-holds reported that the children get cooked mid day meal in schools and children enjoy varied menu. Good practices like washing hands before eating, & after eating are imparted in the schools. Incen-tives like MDM have contributed to improving enrolment rates.

Table 4.23: Number of Residential Schools and Hostels in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	SC Hostels		ST Hostels		OBC Hostels		Minorities Hostels	
	No.	Students	No.	Students	No.	Students	No.	Students
Devadurga	17	1155	5	400	10	560	1	75
Lingsugur	18	1375	2	100	16	663	2	100
Manvi	9	675	3	150	10	625	0	0
Raichur	15	1523	4	375	11	1090	4	250
Sindhnur	9	783	2	125	9	610	0	0
District	68	5511	16	1150	56	3548	7	425

Source: DSO, Raichur and RMSA Document



Students attending satellite lessons

centers to gain hands on experiences in Physical sciences and Biological sciences. On average 12 days of TTP are conducted at science centers.

8. Computer Assisted Learning Centers (CALC)

9. Apart from this, there is remarkable achievement in other non measurable indicators like, establishment of SDMCs, active participation of the community under Samudaya Datta Shale, Shala Dattu Yojane, Akshara Dasoha, KSQAO, Minority programmes. During the current year provision is made for special children. Overall, teacher grants and school grants, maintenance grants have helped to create attractive schooling facilities within the classrooms and child friendly environment from child friendly elements in the surrounding areas of the schools.

4.13. Per Capita Expenditure on Education

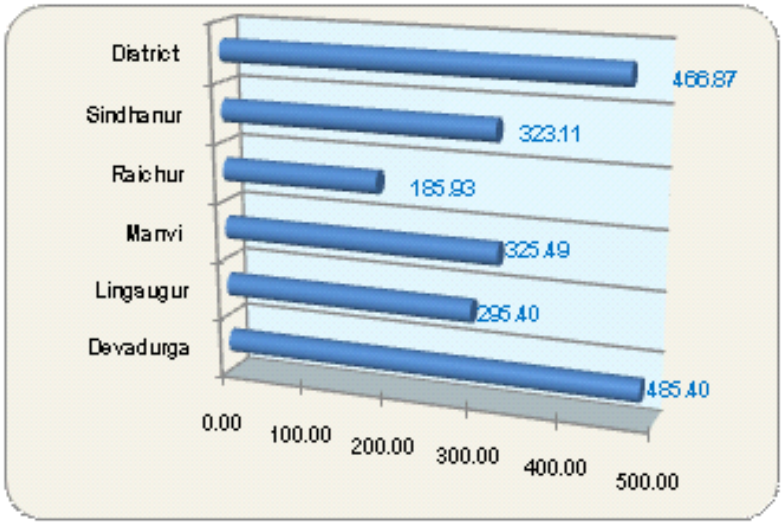
Human Development emphasizes the creation of opportunities and making them available on equitable basis to all. The governments have to ensure that the income earned is spent on fulfilling the needs of people and especially on HD promoting activities. In this context, expenditure incurred at various levels on education, health, social security, welfare of women and children and other welfare schemes becomes very relevant. This section analyses the expenditure incurred in the district on education related activities. The expenditure on primary and secondary education and on Lok shikshan accounts for about one-third of total expenditure of the ZP in 2011-12. However, for comparative purpose, the expenditure per capita has been worked out and presented in Figure 4.11.

The expenditure per capita for the district as a whole is Rs. 467 per capita. This is very low when compared to the amount spent in other parts of the state. The maximum expenditure on education across 176 taluks is Rs.8000 per capita. The taluk level expenditure in Raichur district is

very much unequal. The highest expenditure was in Devadurga at Rs. 485 followed by Manvi, Sindhnur, Lingsugur and Raichur.

Hence, it is noticed that the spending on education is more in relatively backward taluks compared to the advanced ones. But, considering the backwardness of the district, the expenditure is grossly inadequate for universalisation of education as well as improving its quality. The level of expenditure is positively associated with increases in literacy, infrastructure index, SSLC and PUC passing percentage and negatively associated with DOR. Thus, a higher expenditure will have a favourable impact on literacy growth and passing percentage and would reduce dropouts.

Figure 4.11: Per capita Expenditure on Education in Raichur District, 2011-12 (Rs)



Source: CAO, Raichur

4.14: Radar Analysis for Education

The section seeks to evaluate education sector's performance by comparing some important variables Figures 4.12 to 4.15 are used to depict them. NER and GER at primary level are perfectly correlated at taluk level, with Lingsugur having higher enrolment ratios and Devadurg and Manvi having lower ratios (Figure 4.12). However, literacy rates are almost similar across taluks with little lower levels in Devadurg and Manvi taluks. There is a need to vigorously step up measures to improve enrolment in these two taluks.

Figure 4.12: GER and NER at Primary Level and Literacy Rates, 2011

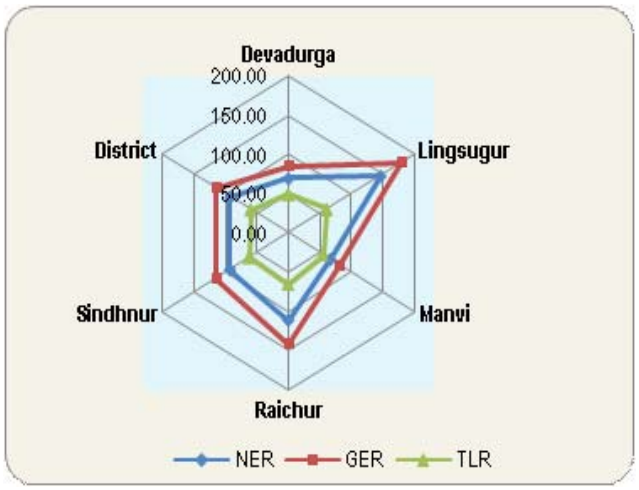
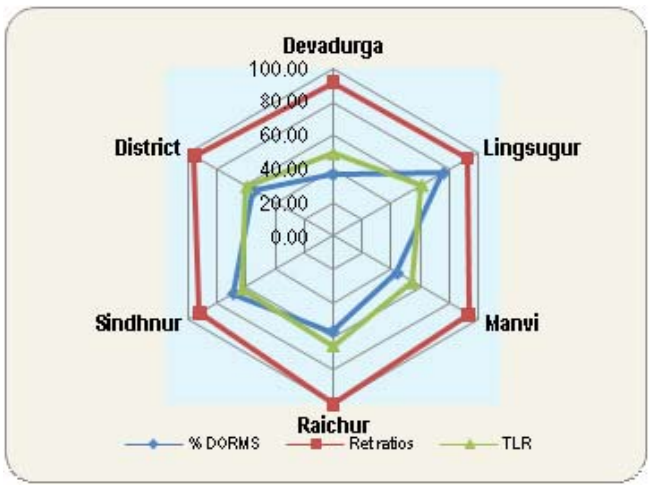


Figure 4.13: Mainstreaming, Retention and Literacy Rates



A major reason for higher literacy ratios in Lingsugur, Raichur and Sindhnur taluks is the higher rate of dropout children mainstreamed. Figure 4.13 shows that retention ratios are higher only in Raichur and Sindhnur taluks. Therefore, efforts to reduce dropping out and increase mainstreaming and retention have to be intensified especially in Devadurg and Manvi taluks.

Similarly, Figure 4.14 shows that the pupil-teacher ratios are of similar magnitude in all taluks at the primary level. But at secondary level, Devadurg taluk has higher ratio. But that has not translated into higher PUC pass percentage rate, despite SSLC pass percentage rate being higher. The gap between PUC and SSLC pass percentage rates is higher in the district except Raichur taluk which indicates the scope for improvement of quality of instruction and coaching at that level.

The last radar seeks to relate the expenditure levels with school infrastructure index and literacy levels (Figure 4.15). Expenditure is higher in educationally backward taluks like Devadurg and Manvi. However, it does not seem to have strong relationship with either school infrastructure index or literacy levels. In Raichur and Sindhnur, literacy rates being high despite expenditure being lower, only suggests that private sector may be playing a stronger role there. Therefore, in backward regions, even the private sector is hesitant to enter the education field.

4.15: Water, Sanitation and Health in Schools: A Small Area Study

4.15.1. Background

Adequate basic amenities are essential for success of any programme in the social sector. School is a place where children spend more time in a day, next only to spending in their homes. Hence, facilities like drinking water, toilets, sanitation, recreation/play facilities

Figure 4.14: Pupil Teacher Ratios and Pass Percentages in Board Examinations in Raichur District 2011-12

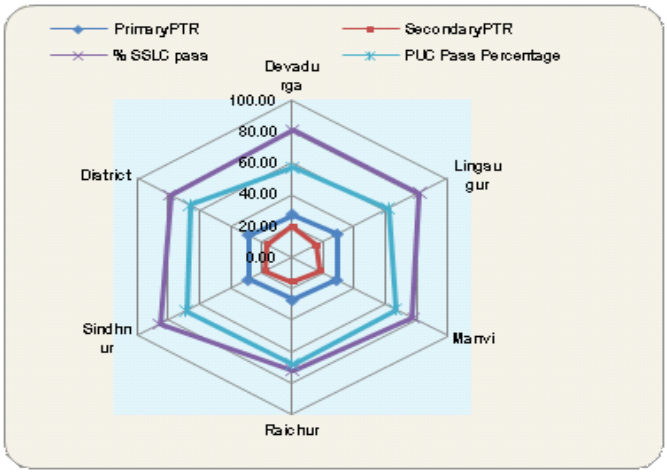
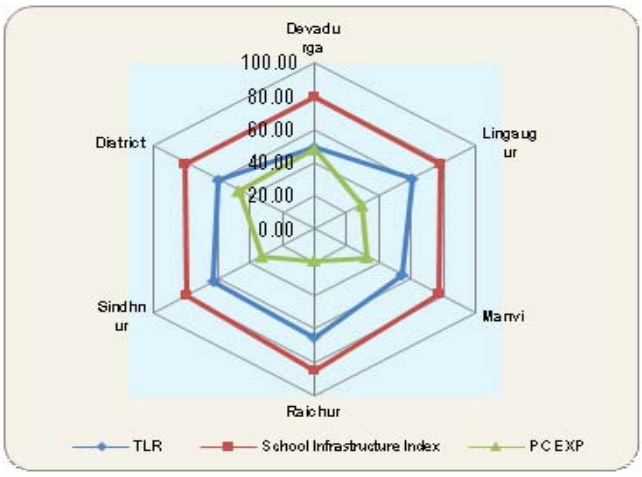


Figure 4.15: Expenditure on Education, School Infrastructure and Literacy Attainment, in Raichur District 2011-12



are very crucial for successful schooling apart from enrollment and continuation in schools. Better these facilities, higher are th other parameters related to schooling and performance. More specifically separate toilets and rest rooms for girl students are very much necessary for increasing female literacy and reducing gender gap in literacy. Often lack of toilet facility deters many girl children either to drop out or not join for schooling at all. This is likely to happen more during menstruation periods. Another issue is even if toilets are constructed they are not kept open or there will be no sufficient water or may not be clean and hygienic, making them non-functional. Other aspects related to girls toilets are either they are not lockable from inside or are nearer to boys' toilets. These factors also render the toilets non-functional.

Under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) general toilets and separate toilets for girls have been constructed in all schools and water facility also provided. The schools are expected to provide soap, napkin, mirror, comb and footwear while using toilets to the children. This is to inculcate in them hygienic practices and prevent some common and communicable diseases. After the initiation of Mid-Day Meal Scheme the need for drinking water has been further emphasized and provided to all schools. The reduction in incidence of communicable diseases would improve school attendance and performance of the students. Carrying this message to the public will result in improvement of total health situation of the society.

With this background, as part of the district HDR preparation, two higher primary schools coming under the jurisdiction of Jambaladinni GP in Raichur taluk were selected for studying the implementation of water, sanitation and health scheme (WASH). The observation method was adopted and the school environs, building availability of rooms, furniture, electricity, water, toilets and cleanliness pertaining to them were observed. At the same time focused group discussions were held with the teachers and students separately to obtain their opinion about the nature and quality of the services. The points for discussion were: status of cleanliness of school premises; availability of drinking water, toilets and maintenance of the facility; health and hygiene education; health and hygiene practices at home; problems and suggestions. The FGD was held in three teams. While one team held discussion with teachers and representatives of SDMC, the other two teams discussed separately with boys and girls.



Group discussions

Vegetables grown in the school



4.15.2. Jambaladinni HPS

Jambaladinni HPS started functioning in 1971 and runs classes for 1st to 8th standards.



There are 337 students enrolled in the school of which 51 per cent are girls and 20 per cent belong to SC category and 3 per cent to ST category. The school has 10 rooms including an office and kitchen. No classroom is provided with desks. Excepting office room and a newly built room under SSA in 2011, the other rooms are yet to be connected with electricity. The compound as well as the gate is in good condition and the school environs are clean and shady. There are two ramps, one *'Nali Kali'* class room and swing and slider for children to play. 8 teachers are on the roll with two positions not filled including that of physical education teacher. The kitchen was kept tidy with no foul smell and things arranged systematically.

4.15.2.1. Drinking Water

The drinking water is made available through the 'Mini Water Supply' Scheme by the GP. A tank with 1000 litre capacity has been installed and is connected with two taps. These are used for drinking as well as washing the mid day meal plates. The teachers reported that the tank is washed every month and the water was clean and not smelly. Further there was no incidence of water borne disease in the village. But the place where taps were given was not clean. There is also a borewell in the school premises whose water output has come down and the teachers stated that there is a need to deepen the borewell. But the present water supply was stated to be adequate.



4.15.2.2 Toilets

The school has three toilets. Though two of them were constructed for the use by girls, the teachers are using them. Therefore, there is one toilet each for boys, girls and teachers. Each toilet has two urinals and one squatter. Water tank for toilets being constructed above the toilets does not get filled if there is power cut and every one faces problems. In fact, boys were seen to be pouring water into buckets from the top of the toilets. Unfortunately, the girls have to cross boys' toilets and go for their own which makes them little hesitant. The toilets are cleaned by the '*ayaah*' appointed under MDM scheme and sometimes it is cleaned by a hired laborer. The Health Minister of the school cabinet opined that sanitation in school is conducive for better studies. But the toilets did not possess slippers, soap, mirror, comb and napkin and to verify about these things on the day of the visit the head master had not turned up.

Both physical and health education are imparted in the school and children seemed to have good understanding about sanitation and hygiene issues. One member of the SDMC was also present during the discussion and stated that there was no sanitation and hygiene related problem in the school.

4.15.2.3. Kitchen

As far as kitchen is concerned, there were 3 employees working in it and was maintained tidily. There

were no complaints about the kitchen by anybody.

4.15.2.4. FGD

The points raised by the students in the discussion are summarized below:

- Clean drinking water is available
- Water related disease like cholera, malaria, gastro enteritis, etc., are known to the students through their teachers.
- However, the place where the water tap was there was not clean feeling that it was neglected by everyone.
- Toilets are used by the students and students use soap after using toilets, but water for toilets was inadequate
- Toilets themselves were cleaned once in fortnight and hence not very clean looking.
- The school has health and sanitation committee whose functioning is not effective.
- The kitchen utensils and plates are cleaned in front of class rooms and toilets are also located very near to the class rooms producing foul smell, this has made the surroundings bit unclean. Separate facility to wash plates and kitchen utensils need to be created

Hence, the school has facilities, but are not maintained properly and teachers seemed to have been negligent about cleanliness of the facilities.

4.15.3. HPS Puchaladinni

Puchaladinni HPS was established in 1963 and runs classes for 1st to 7th standards. Since the school is supported by Azim Premji Foundation and 'Namma Shale+' programme of the UNICEF, the school has very good amenities, conducive atmosphere and many positive operational features. There are 203 students enrolled in the school of which about 49 per cent are girls and 30 per cent belong to SC category and 52 per cent to ST category. The school has 10 rooms including an office and kitchen; all of them are provided with electricity. The compound on one side is incomplete and the gate has to be erected. There are three ramps, one *'Nali Kali'* class room and swing and slider for children to play. 8 teachers are on the roll with two positions not filled including that of physical education teacher. The kitchen is kept tidy with no foul smell and things arranged systematically.

4.15.3.1. Drinking Water

The school premises houses the Jal Nirmal tank and a tap directly from the tank supplies water to the school. There are two cement tanks near the class rooms fitted with one tap each. The tanks are cleaned regularly and the students endorsed the efforts of the Head Master to maintain the surroundings clean. The students reported noincidence of any water related diseases either to the children or to any one in the village.



4.15.3.2. Toilet

The toilets have been renovated under UNICEF's grants. Though girls' and boys' toilets are adjacent, the separator wall is sufficiently high to avoid any nuisance to either of the users. The doors have functional latches and toilets are safe to use by the girl students. The water flows from the tank above the toilets and additional buckets are kept in girls' toilets. Care is taken to make the girls to use toilets without any hesitation. The toilets have sink, soap, mirror, napkin and 2-3 pairs of slippers. The toilets had cleaning brushes and detergents. Due to the care of the school cabinet and the Head Master, the whole surroundings were clean. The students noted that these facilties are regular and satisfcatorily provided at the school.

4.15.3.3. Health Education

Although physical education teacher is not posted to the school, the Health Minister of the school cabinet and members of his team not only strive to maintain cleanliness but also conduct campaigns for the villagers.

4.15.3.4. Kitchen

Puchaladinni is recognized as a model school in this regard. The additional quantity of water available is utilized for cultivation of vegetables, flowers and other trees including ornamental ones. The members of the SDMC praised the food prepared at the school as clean and tasty. The kitchen and the store were arranged cleanly and systematically.

4.15.3.5. Factors Contributing to the Good Situation

The better facilities and maintenance of the same is due to the efforts made by the Head Master Shri Raghavendra and Cluster Resource Person Shri Heeralal. Both of them have tried to implement all the components of the UNICEF 'Namma Shale+' programme and have been successful in getting all children to school, in fact diverting them from city schools to Puchaladinni HPS. This was endorsed by the students as well as members of the SDMC. Especially, there has been an increase in girl's enrolment over the years.

The Head Master has been successful in involving the four stakeholders - officers, parents, SDMC members and the students. The meeting of the School Cabinet is convened everyday to decide about the various activities of the school and decisions are made collectively. The community participation is evident in celebration of all national festivals. For the youth, a number of competitions including sports are conducted at the school. This has increased the community participation in the school activities.

The school also has a well equipped library under the management of a teacher, but the students manage

borrowing and other activities of the library; there are two *'nali kali'* programme and vocational training under which tailoring training is given.

Because of all these proactive interventions by the Head Master, the respect for school has increased and more significantly the drop out rate has come down.

Positive Aspects Noticed:

- Clean and beautiful environment
- Garden consisting of vegetables, flowers and fruit bearing trees
- Commercial tree plantation (300) in collaboration with forest department officials
- Active involvement of the community and students in school management
- Providing value addition through library and vocational training to students
- Convergence of schemes for overall development of the school
- Displaying all information through charts and boards and maintaining transparency
- Record keeping with photos.

4.15.3.6. Negative Aspects

While the students enjoy best of the facilities at the school, no child reported of having toilets at home and they do not use of soap for hand wash. A very discouraging issue as voiced by the Health Minister Miss Nagalakshmi is that the people defecate on either side of the school road making it inconvenient for children to come to school. The Head Master informed that this issue has been discussed with the SDMC members who have assured of solving the problem.

Hence, the awareness created among children at the school level is not disseminated at the community level, at least with respect to sanitation and hygiene. Continuing the same unhygienic practices when away from home will not deliver the benefits of the WASH programme. A soloution to this can be provision of locally made soap or soap powder which can be distributed through PDS and making people to use them for their hygiene and health.

These weak points apart, many visitors from France and other Indian states like Chhattisgarh and Andhra Pradesh; and from pther districts of Karnataka have visited the school and shared its success.

All this is due to the efforts of a teacher who took the programme seriously, involved various stake holders and used the grants in a transparent manner to create good facilities and obtained appreciable results.

4.15.3.7. FGD

- Water availability is satisfactory and liked by the students;
- Students are informed about the water related diseases
- Toilets are in good condition and maintenance is very good;

The awareness created among children at the school level is not disseminated at the community level, at least with respect to sanitation and hygiene. Continuing the same unhygienic practices when away from home will not deliver the benefits of the WASH programme.

all things like broom, brush, bucket, mug, soap, napkin, mirror, comb and slippers provided for use of the students

- Students themselves clean the school play ground while laborers are hired to clean the toilets
- Vocational training is given to the students and a number of activities like kasuti, preparing wire bags, painting on cloth, etc. are taught. The school grows vegetables required for cooking mid day meals.
- Children felt that that the lack of physical education instructor was a major lacuna along with lack of hostels, art master and a bigger play ground
- The school has a functional health and sanitation committee

That the Head Masters were not available in the other two schools, to which we went, shows how an interested and self-motivated person can make a difference.

4.16. An Overview and Persisting Educational Gaps in the District

Raichur district has lower literacy rates in all categories compared to Karnataka state. Further, while gaps elsewhere have declined, those in Raichur have increased, which needs to be arrested. Relatively backward taluks Manvi, Sindhnur and Devadurga have shown better progress in the recent years.

Raichur district has very low literacy for females. But FLR has increased by higher proportion than MLR in all taluks thereby reducing the gender gap in literacy. Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks have higher than the district level gender gap.

Nearly half of the illiterates were rural women of the district. Devadurga has the lowest share of illiterates but had the largest proportion of illiterates in rural areas as well as among rural females. Manvi is another problematic taluk with respect to the proportion of illiterates, while Devadurga and Sindhnur need to focus on rural literacy enhancement, the other three taluks on urban literacy enhancement.

Devadurga and Manvi have recorded higher change in literacy compared to other taluks and the district has helped in reducing regional inequities in educational attainments.

It is observed that rural females have recorded the highest increases in literacy and urban males the lowest. The urban-rural gaps are the highest in Raichur taluk and lowest in Sindhnur taluk. While at the district level the gaps have reduced, those for Devadurga, Sindhnur and Manvi have widened. Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur show widening of the rural-urban gap overtime. The gender gap in rural areas is almost double than that in the urban areas for the entire state and 50 per cent higher in the district.

Literacy attainment of disadvantaged social groups is lower compared to the general population. Being a ST woman in Raichur district imposes a huge deprivation in terms of literacy.

Enrolment of both boys and girls has increased but that of girls increased by a higher proportion. Raichur, Lingsugur and Devadurga have reported increased share in enrolment, Manvi and Sindhnur have recorded lower shares between 2005-06 and 2011-12. All taluks have registered rise in enrolment with Lingsugur registering the highest growth and Sindhnur the lowest. The percentage change being higher for girls' enrolment in all the taluks, improvement in the enrolment of SC, ST and minority students is a good sign as far as inclusive education is concerned, GER has declined in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks. If the converse of NER is non-enrolled proportion, then that proportion is very high at 33 per cent in Manvi taluk, 30 per cent in Devadurga and about 8 per cent in Sindhnur.

There were 3467 OOSC in Raichur district in 2011-12, a large majority of whom were in Raichur and Manvi taluks, together sharing nearly 60 per cent of OOSC. Retention rate is about 95 per cent at the district level, which is slightly higher for boys than the girls. Across taluks, Raichur taluk shows the highest retention followed by Manvi, Lingsugur, Sindhnur and Manvi.

DOR in primary education among girls is higher than among boys. Across taluks, Manvi taluk has the highest DOR and Raichur has the lowest. Further, girls' DOR is higher in all taluks. Raichur being a backward district has a high incidence of DOR.

In secondary education, across the social groups, the DOR is highest among ST students at 26 per cent, indicating that one in every four students joining for secondary school drops out. Among SC students it is at 22 per cent. Muslims also report higher than the total DOR. Hence these are the vulnerable communities as far as continuance in school is concerned.

The share of girls in secondary enrolment is 44 per cent which is lower than their share at primary level. It only means that not all girls enrolled at primary level continue for secondary education. Similarly, the ratio of SC and ST students enrolled in secondary education also has come down compared to the primary level. This deprives them of higher and productive skills and pushes them into a vicious circle of low skills, less productive employment and poverty.

The PTR in Raichur district is within the norms with a value of 28. The schools in the district also have better infrastructure. All the schools have drinking water facility and toilets for boys and girls separately. More than 97 per cent of them have electricity connection, 93 per cent have ramps, more than

Not all girls enrolled at primary level continue for secondary education. Similarly, the ratio of SC and ST students enrolled in secondary education also has come down compared to the primary level. This deprives them of higher and productive skills and pushes them into a vicious circle of low skills, less productive employment and poverty.

80 per cent have separate toilets for girls and boys; about 62 per cent of have compound wall and 52 per cent of have play ground. Manvi taluk has the maximum deficit followed by Lingsugur and Sindhnur. Thus, investment needs to be focussed in these taluks. Raichur taluk has the highest infrastructure index and Devadurga, the second highest.

The district's performance in terms of students' pass percentage in Board examinations is very low. Relatively lower transition rates in the district are a severe cause of concern. Better instruction and remedial coaching especially in the rural areas should be taken up for making interest in studies and perform better.

There were 147 hostels in the district run by various departments with a total admission strength of more than 10209, which is considerable. But the requirement is huge.

The expenditure on primary and secondary education and on Lok shikshan accounts for about one-third of total expenditure of the ZP in 2011-12. Considering the backwardness of the district, the expenditure is grossly inadequate for universalisation of education as well as improving its quality. The level of expenditure is positively associated with increases in literacy, infrastructure index, SSLC and PUC passing percentage and negatively associated with DOR. Thus, a higher expenditure will have a favourable impact on literacy growth and passing percentage and would reduce dropouts.

■■

Ksheerabhagya





Chapter 5

HEALTH AND NUTRITION



Health and Nutrition

5.1. Introduction

Health is a complex, multi-dimensional phenomenon that is not readily measured by any single indicator. Health gains can facilitate numerous achievements in various aspects of life, while losses in health can exacerbate deprivations in other dimensions. Like education health is often viewed from a human capital perspective, where the value of health lies in its ability to ensure productive inputs to achieve economic ends (Ariana and Naveed, 2009). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 'the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being.' As Sen (2002) observes, 'health is among the most important conditions of human life and a critically significant constituent of human capabilities which we have reason to value'. In addition to its intrinsic value, it is also agreed that health is instrumental to economic growth, educational achievements and cognitive development, employment opportunities, income earning potential, as well as the more amorphous aspects of dignity, safety, security and empowerment.

But what is health? According to the constitutional preamble of the WHO (1946), 'health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.' Although holistic and indisputable, this definition is far from operational. In contrast, deprivations in health may be irreversible. Once individuals have suffered from incurable diseases, they do not necessarily regain their health over a period of time. Such irreversible health losses may occur at any age. The health and nutritional status of children can potentially determine their achievements in the social, psychological and economic spheres of their lives. Given the interactions between health and other capabilities, the incidence of irreversible health loss may indicate irreversible deprivation in multiple capabilities. There is thus an urgent need for appropriate social arrangements to tackle diseases before they occur. Public policy should therefore emphasize the importance of preventive health care, so that individuals are protected from the types of multi-faceted deprivations that could potentially threaten their overall well-being.

There are specific segments of the population which are at higher risk of poor health. These are the poor, women, children, SC and ST people. Relative physical and economic inaccessibility of health services may be the major reasons for it. Obviously it gives rise to a

If you are not blessed with long life, what use is money? - Lord Basaveshwara

'health is among the most important conditions of human life and a critically significant constituent of human capabilities which we have reason to value'

malnourishment of pregnant women, infants and children would result in sick and less productive population apart from making it vulnerable to a number of communicable diseases.

Good nutritional status is an important indicator of development. Despite an apparent surplus of food grains at the national level, and several efforts being made through favourable public policies, malnutrition persists. India is challenged with 43.5% children under the age of 5 being underweight (the highest rate in the World) and 50% of pregnant women being anemic. This is truer especially with the poor and vulnerable groups.

vicious cycle of bad health, low productivity, increased spending on health care, low investible surplus, low productivity and lower incomes. Further, the health needs of different sections of the population like infants, children, adolescents, pregnant women, lactating mothers, aged population, differently abled, etc., are different. The health care should also be preventive as well as curative. Therefore, a holistic approach to provision of health services should be adopted.

The measures of health status are not complete. Hence proxy indicators like morbidity, mortality as well as longevity rates are used. While data is available at the aggregate level, at the micro level information is very hard to get. Overtime, in India, the SRS Registration system, anganwadi records, village accountant's office and hospital records have been identified as the major sources of information on morbidity and mortality indicators. National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) and National Family Health Survey (NFHS) have been compiling useful information based on large scale sample surveys, on a regular basis. However, their data is not available at the taluk level and for our reference period. In the HD framework, however, the health dimension is measured using the data on life expectancy at birth (LEB), which indicates the extent of spread of health facilities, their usage by the people as well as quality of the same.

Health and nutrition are very closely interrelated. Better nutrition supplements the health status and increases productivity and efficiency of people. Nutrition security also needs to be ensured for sustaining human development. Especially, malnourishment of pregnant women, infants and children would result in sick and less productive population apart from making it vulnerable to a number of communicable diseases. Hunger is still a serious problem and is reflected in high maternal, infant and child mortality rates. Hence, for absorption of the development inputs by the population and for sustaining a higher growth, good and affordable health care as well as nutrition facilities are essential for any community. Lack of proper nutrition among children would result in stunting, wasting and dwarfing making them endemically sick and sometimes resulting in premature deaths. In this context, the UN MDGs focus on many aspects of health (Box 5.1).

This chapter presents a review of achievements and challenges of health and nutrition sector in Raichur district and how they are linked to human development.

5.2. Demography: Population by Place of Residence, Sex and Social Groups

The population of a region defines the number of people to be provided with basic amenities and other services. This section presents the population dynamics of Raichur

district during the last decade. Annexure 5.1 and Table 5.1 give the data on total population of Raichur district along with information for its components.

The total population of the district according to 2011 census is about 19.2 lakhs, which accounts for about 3.2 per cent of the state's population. Males marginally outnumber females who share 49.99 per cent of district's population. In Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks, this ratio is higher than 50 per cent indicating more women than men. Urbanization is high only in Raichur Taluk with 50.37 per cent of people living in urban area. In the remaining taluks the urbanization ratio is very low. But the district has a higher proportion of SC (21 per cent) and ST (19 per cent) populations compared to the state level. The population has grown at a rate of 15.51 per cent during 2001-2011, female population (16.5%) increasing at a faster rate than males (14.6%) and urban population increasing at a faster rate (16.5%) than the rural population (15.2%). The age wise classification reveals that Raichur's population is bit different compared the state's population (Table 5.2).

The district has a higher ratio of people in the age group of 0-14 and 60 and above years compared to the state but lesser ratio in the 15-59 age groups. Hence, health needs of children and elderly people need to be taken care of.

Box 5.1. UN Millennium Development Goals with respect to Health

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality
Goal 5: Improve maternal health
- 5A: Reduce the maternal mortality ratio by three-quarters
  - 5.1 Maternal Mortality Ratio
  - 5.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
- 5B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health
  - 5.3 Contraceptive prevalence rate
  - 5.4 Adolescent birth rate
  - 5.5 Antenatal care
  - 5.6 Unmet need for family planning

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Table 5.1: Demographic Characteristics of Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	Population (Lakhs)	% Female	% Child	% Urban	% SC	% ST
Devadurga	2.81	50.05	16.44	10.31	21.55	34.40
Lingsugur	3.86	49.61	15.52	22.80	23.25	17.01
Manvi	3.71	50.32	14.47	12.54	21.06	24.06
Raichur	4.99	49.95	14.13	50.37	21.03	12.67
Sindhnur	3.93	50.09	13.65	19.29	17.26	13.37
District	19.29	49.99	14.71	25.42	20.79	19.03
State	610.50	49.31	11.72	38.67	17.15	6.95

Source: Census Documents

Table 5.2: Age Group-wise Population in Raichur District, 2011

Region	Age Group	Total Population	Female (%)	% to Total
Raichur District	0-14	623894	48.60	32.35
	15-59	1164263	49.08	60.36
	60 and above	139496	52.37	7.23
State	0-14	16024874	48.62	26.23
	15-59	39233540	49.12	64.22
	60 and above	5791032	52.56	9.48

Source: Census Documents

5.2.1. Sex Ratio – 2001 and 2011

Sex ratio is an important indicator of the demographic quality as it represents the status of women and discrimination meted out at them in access to basic services. Table 5.3 provides data on sex ratio across the taluks of Raichur district during 2001 and 2011.



Table 5.3: Trends in Sex Ratio in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001			2011			Change		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	982	986	944	1002	1005	978	20	19	34
Lingsugur	974	981	952	984	985	984	10	4	32
Manvi	992	994	973	1013	1015	998	21	21	24
Raichur	973	989	959	998	1008	989	25	19	30
Sindhnur	998	1007	955	1003	1006	994	5	-2	39
District	983	992	958	1000	1004	989	16	11	31
State	965	977	942	973	979	963	8	3	21

Source: Census Documents

The sex ratio, defined as number of females per 1000 males, is adverse (less than 1000) for the state but better in Raichur district. The ratio in the district was higher than the state value in 2001as well as in 2011. Moreover, whereas the sex ratio has increased by 8 points at the state level, it has increased by 16 points at the district level. Therefore, the district's demographic quality is not only better and has also improved vis-a-vis the state.

Looking across the taluks, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks had higher than the district sex ratio in 2001, but in 2011 Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks reported so. A notable feature is that the sex ratio in these taluks was higher than 1000.

Another notable feature is the higher sex ratio in urban areas and a greater increase in it over the decade. The urban sex ratio has increased by 31 points compared to 11 points in the rural areas. While urban sex ratio has increased in all taluks, the rural sex ratio has deteriorated in Sindhnur taluk. Therefore, efforts are needed to sustain rural sex ratios and improve the urban ones.

The demographic quality is also judged on the basis of the child sex ratio of population in 0-6 years age group as it reflects the nature of the future population (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Trends in Child Sex Ratios in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	2001			2011			Change		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	970	975	925	962	965	940	-7	-10	15
Lingsugur	954	959	929	945	940	963	-9	-19	34
Manvi	971	966	1004	954	955	949	-17	-12	-55
Raichur	961	981	938	946	952	940	-15	-29	1
Sindhnur	969	968	975	948	944	968	-20	-23	-7
District	964	969	948	950	951	949	-14	-18	1
State	946	949	940	948	950	946	3	1	7

Source: Computed from Census Documents of respective years

The child sex ratio has also been higher in the district compared to the state. However, child sex ratio is adverse unlike general sex ratio. Further, overtime the child sex ratio has deteriorated as against a rise at the state level. While the rural child sex ratio has declined by 18 points, the urban child sex ratio by 1 point only. Except Devadurga and Manvi in all other taluks, it is less than 950. However, deterioration in urban child sex ratio in Manvi is very huge. Hence efforts must be made in all taluks for improving the child sex ratios.

5.2.2. Sex Ratio among SC and ST Population

Analysing the sex ratio by social groups, we notice that sex ratio for SCs is slightly lower compared to that for STs. The sex ratio for these sections was also higher than at the state level in both 2001 and 2011. Like the general sex ratios, for SCs and STs also they are quite favourable, except for Devadurga and Lingsugur. For STs also the increase in sex ratio in the district is more than that at the state level. In fact, gain in ST sex ratio has been highly commendable.

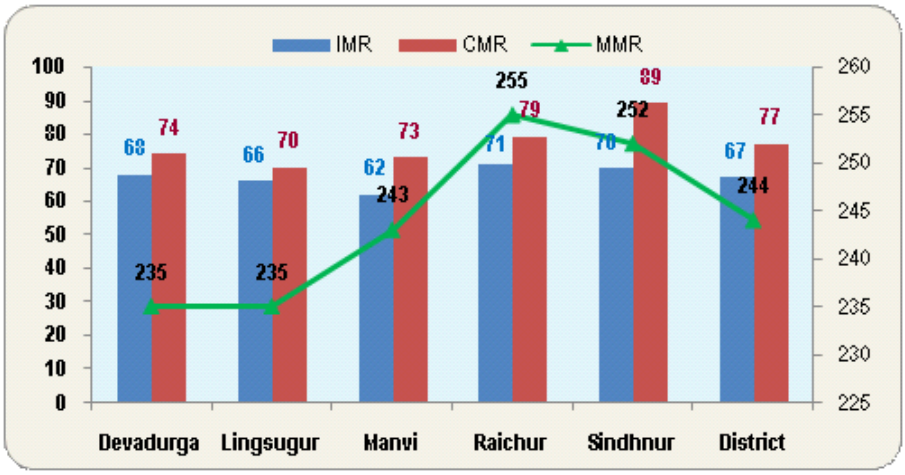
5.3. Infant and Maternal Mortality Rates (IMR and MMR)

The UNDP methodology uses life expectancy at birth (LEB) for measuring the health status of individuals. However, at micro levels, it is hard to estimate LEB. Therefore, mortality rates are used for the purpose in this report. They are infant, child and maternal mortality rates (IMR, CMR and MMR). The IMR is defined as number of infants dying during 0-1 years out of every 1000 live births in a given year. The CMR also called as the under-5 mortality rate, refers to the number of children who die by the age of five, per thousand live births per year. The MMR is the annual number of female deaths per 100,000 live births from any cause related to or aggravated by pregnancy or its management (excluding accidental or incidental causes). The MMR includes deaths during pregnancy, childbirth, or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, for a specified year. These rates are often used as indicators of the level of health in a country/region. They reflect the extent of availability of health facilities and their usage by the respective clientele. IMR, CMR and MMR are reported in the district level Health Management Information Systems (HMIS). However, in order to overcome the non-comparability of that data as well as inconsistencies therein, the HDD has computed these rates for taluks using the SRS 2011-12 data and the same are used for analysis here. Figure 5.1 shows IMR and CMR in Raichur district for the year 2011-12. Raichur records the highest values for both of them. Thus in 2011-12, for every 1000 live births, 67 infants have died within



one year of their birth; and 77 children have died before they completed five years. These mortality rates are very high compared to the other districts of the state and they represent the nature of discrimination and deprivation present with respect to child health in the district. IMR is highest in Raichur taluka at 71 and lowest in Manvi taluka at 62 and the inter-taluka variation is not much. Sindhnur and Raichur taluks have CMR even above the district level value of 77. Lingsugur taluk has the lowest value at 70, but compared to the minimum values across the state, a lot needs to be achieved in this direction. Raichur and Sindhnur taluks also report higher MMR and Lingsugur and Devadurga lower MMR.

Figure 5.1: IMR and CMR in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: SRS, 2011-12

Though the values of these mortality rates do not seem to go together with HDI ranking, efforts should be made to strengthen health infrastructure and health care services in all taluks and more so in Raichur, Sindhnur and Manvi.

It is argued that from a strictly medical standpoint, the large majority of maternal deaths-about 80%- can be prevented through effective and timely maternal health care (Ram, 1995). But the availability and utilization of the maternal health services needs to be ensured in all places and for all potential users.

5.4. Couple Protection Issues and Family Welfare

The maternal and child health of population depends to a great extent upon the freedom and choice the couples have in preventing unwanted pregnancies and also for spacing births. One of the banes of India's family welfare programme is the vast unmet need for using contraceptives for planning and spacing births. The reasons are obvious: either they are not aware of the methods; or if aware, are not able to get them. As a result many unwanted births take place resulting in more births, unhealthy child and the mother. In India, therefore, the government has taken initiatives for family welfare programmes, among which provision of contraceptives is an important component. As per the information culled out from HMIS, the percentage of couples protected by any contraceptive method is 74 per cent in the district. If the remainder is defined as the unmet need, then it is 26 per cent. Actually, among the other districts, the maximum CPR is 83 per cent, and compared to this, performance

of Raichur district is not encouraging.

Among the taluks, the highest CPR is recorded by Devadurga and Lingsugur taluks with 80 per cent of couples provided with any contraceptive method. Manvi has the least CPR with 65 per cent and Raichur too has a CPR of 70 per cent, while in Sindhnur it is 75 per cent. Thus, the unmet need ranges from 18 per cent in Devadurga and 35 per cent in Manvi taluk. This needs to be corrected and efforts made to bring all eligible couples into the family planning fold for reducing the population growth and also promoting the health of women and children.

The information on instrument wise distribution of contraceptive usage across the taluks of Raichur district during the year 2011-12 reveals that CC is the major contraceptive followed by female sterilization as adopted by couples of Raichur district. Nearly 63 per cent of birth control burden is borne by women. This is indicative of gender bias in the family planning practices. If males also participate in birth control activity, the extent of unmet need can be reduced and the health of women can be substantially improved.

5.5. Infrastructure and Health Personnel

Health status of people is influenced to a larger extent by the availability of health care services and accessibility of people to the same. Good health being a positive externality helps in improving efficiency and longevity of people. Hence, governments have initiated measures to promote preventive as well as curative health facilities. These health facilities primarily include health institutions like sub centres, primary health centres (PHC), community health centres (CHCs), taluk and district general hospitals, specialised hospitals to treat specific ailments, research and training institutions, family welfare centres and sub centres and clinics and dispensaries pertaining to local and indigenous medicine systems. It is not only the institutions but also health personnel like doctors, nurses, radiologists, druggists, laboratory technicians and attendants; apart from host of equipments, ambulance as well as adequate drug supplies which determines the effectiveness of a health system. All these are provided by the government for improving the health status of people. The present section analyses the nature of health infrastructure available in Raichur district. The central government has fixed the norms for setting up of health institutions based on population as well as specific needs of the region.

Annexure 5.2 and Table 5.5 provide a picture of health infrastructure in Raichur District.



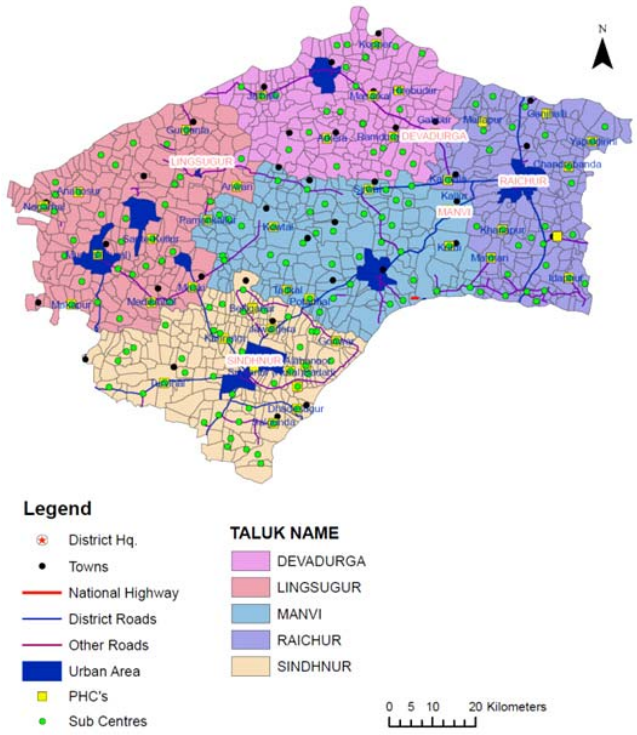
Table 5.5: Health Infrastructure in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhnur	District
Average Population served by sub-centres	7191	7444	6754	6187	6347	6753
Average Population served by PHCs	41946	24812	36023	27497	28851	30606
Availability of Doctors per 1000 population	0.05	0.05	0.7	0.45	0.04	0.26
Availability of nurses per 1000 population	0.22	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.10
Population bed Ratio	1 : 1164	1 : 936	1 : 1257	1 : 173	1 : 727	1 : 441
Ambulance – population ratio	1 : 93,535	1 : 1,92,849	1 : 1,23,556	1 : 1,24,659	1 : 1,31,066	1 : 1,28,587

Source: DSO, Raichur

The availability of health personnel is still more inadequate as not even one doctor and not even one nurse is available per 1000 population. There is one bed for each 441 people in the district and one ambulance for every 1,28,587 people, which are quite inadequate. Hence, there is a shortage of institutions, personnel and other facilities to cater to the health needs of people in the district.

Map 5.1: Health Facilities in District Raichur



Source: Janasankhya Sthrita Kosh, New Delhi, 2011

The taluk wise differences in these values are more severe. Devadurga and Lingsugur taluks need few more sub centres; Devadurga and Manvi an additional PHC each, additional health personnel need to be deployed in all taluks and additional bed strength needs to be created either in the taluk or government hospitals in all taluks except Raichur. These initiatives will improve health infrastructure facilities in Raichur district.

The health infrastructure in Raichur district is inadequate when compared to values in other parts of the state and across taluks. On an average, the number of people served by a sub centre is 6753, but the best value in the state is 2174. Similarly, average population served by a PHC is 30606 and the best value is 9389. Hence, not only these average values are above the norms prescribed by the government, they are far adverse compared to other districts of the state. Moreover, since the district is inhabited by a greater number of ST population, a higher number of medical institutions, adequate

personnel, equipment and medicine need to be provided.

5.6. ANC Coverage and Anaemia among Pregnant Women

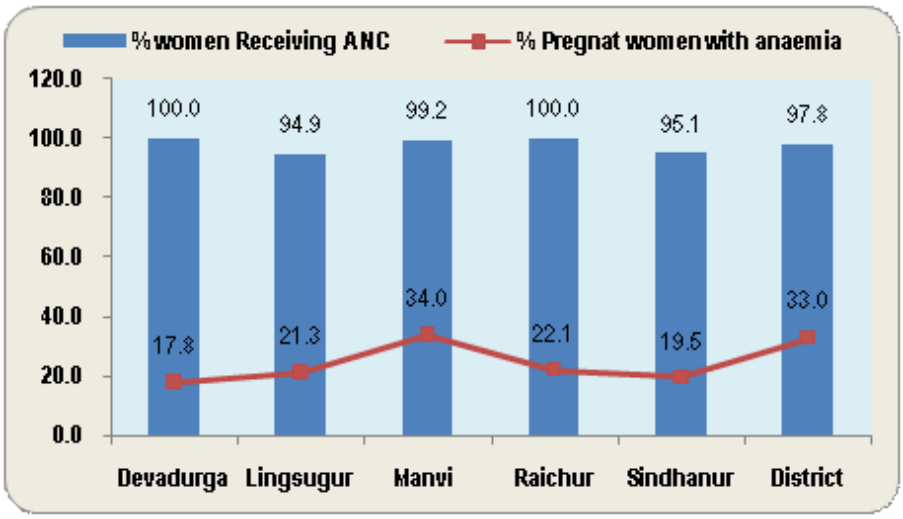
Antenatal care (ANC) services are considered to be the key element in the primary health care delivery system of a country, which aims for a healthy society. Keeping in view the gap between the target and reality, National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) was launched in April 2005, to improve the rural health care delivery system and health status of the people. Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHAs) were introduced at the village level for motivating the beneficiaries to utilize the ANC services provided by the government health facilities. Under supervision of Auxillary Nurse Midwives (ANM) and physicians at primary health care level, ASHAs were planned to play the role of a connecting bridge between community and first level government health sector. These groups of health care providers, along with Anganwadi workers (AWW), build the base line of rural health services in the country. They, under the Mission, seek to provide universal access to equitable, affordable and quality maternal health care, as well as to bring about an improvement in the health status of the pregnant women belonging to under privileged sections of the society (Roy, et. al., 2013). In India ANC services consist of a set of professional pregnancy checkups, tetanus and other immunizations, supply iron and folic acid tablets, blood pressure check up and advice and information regarding delivery methods and services, nutrition and postnatal care. Provision of quality antenatal care services means early registration and (to confirm pregnancy) check-up of the woman at least before twenty weeks of gestation followed by a minimum of three visits for antenatal care.

As a result of spread of health institutions and awareness the proportion of women receiving ANC has touched almost 100 in Raichur district (Figure 5.2). The Figure shows that nearly a third of pregnant women are anaemic, lowest being in Devadurga and highest in Manvi.

In India, the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) is another scheme that caters to the health of women and children. It

Maternal anaemia, low birth weight, stunting, wasting and child mortality increase due to food insecurity, especially on the poorer sections.

Figure 5.2: ANC Coverage and Anaemic Pregnant Women in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)



Source: HMIS, Raichur

provides an integrated approach for converging six basic services for improved childcare, early stimulation and learning, health and nutrition, education, primarily targeting young children (0-6 years), expectant and nursing mothers. ICDS scheme is one of the world's largest and most unique programmes for early childhood development. ICDS Children undergo a routine health check up, and those found to be sick or undernourished are referred to the local PHC. Since good health of mothers is essential for children's well-being and important in its own right, the ICDS also provides nutrition and health services for women in the reproductive age group, such as food supplements during pregnancy and other forms of antenatal care. Anganwadi centre (AWC) is the pivotal institution through which the ICDS scheme functions. The clients of AWC include children from 6 months to 6 years; pregnant and lactating mothers and adolescent girls. An AWC performs functions like providing supplementary nutrition; regular health check up, treatment of minor health problem and referral services; immunization; health and hygiene education; providing vocational training, counselling and guidance as family welfare and home management; and enabling children to learn through games and prepare them for formal schooling (play home). Thus, health, nutrition and capacity building are the major activities through which the AWC aims at making the children and women healthy. The Anganwadi Centre is the operational unit of ICDS at habitation level which is also used for other related schemes like SABLA, IGMSY and RCH which benefit pregnant women, children and adolescent girls. Under the ICDS programme norms are prescribed for setting up of AWC, for supply and distribution of nutrition supplements, health check up, care of pregnant and lactating women as well as adolescent girls.

AWC performs functions like providing supplementary nutrition; regular health check up, treatment of minor health problem and referral services; immunization; health and hygiene education; providing vocational training, counselling and guidance as family welfare and home management; and enabling children to learn through games and pre-pare them for formal schooling (play home).

At the end of March 2012, 1324 AWCs were functioning in the district. The details of these centres and their activities are furnished in Table 5.6.

AWCs are more or less equally distributed across taluks with Raichur, Lingsugur and Devadurga having relatively higher number of AWCs. Based on population norms, if additionally required number of AWCs is worked out, the district would additionally require more than 80 per cent of the existing number. Majority of these will have to be set up in Raichur, Sindhnur, Manvi and Lingsugur taluks. In Devadurga additionally 81 AWCs need to be set up. But the target population served by AWCs is little more than 50 per cent of the norm suggesting that not everyone avails the benefit of the AWCs. This number is still smaller in Devadurga and Lingsugur taluks. Probably, the people migrate and

Table 5.6: Features of AWCs and ICDS in Raichur District, 2011-12

Parameters	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhnur	District
Total AWCs	270	289	256	272	237	1324
Additional AWCs required as per norms	81	193	207	351	255	1087
Total Beneficiaries	63896	47997	77401	59926	44465	293685
Beneficiaries per AWC	237	166	302	220	188	222
Average target population served by AWCs	183	189	204	242	289	219
Beneficiaries: AWT ratio	113	101	135	115	96	113
Beneficiaries: AWW ratio	121	120	153	123	100	124
% own building	97	90	92	97	91	93
% villages having AWCs within a km. distance	100	100	100	100	100	96.8
Composition of beneficiaries (per cent)						
a. 0-3 years	41.5	42.1	45.8	43.3	42.3	43.2
b. 3 to 6 years	31.1	38.0	31.5	38.6	37.4	34.8
c. Pregnant women	13.4	8.1	9.8	7.9	8.8	9.8
d. Lactating mothers	12.2	9.8	11.4	8.5	9.3	10.4
e. Adolescents	1.8	2.0	1.5	1.7	2.1	1.8

Source: DSO, Raichur

hence they do not access the services of AWCs. When we look at the number of anganwadi teachers (AWTs) and workers (AWWs), the number is very inadequate as there is a mismatch between the number of AWCs, teachers and workers.

The composition of beneficiaries is more or less uniform across the taluks. Children of the age group of 0-3 years being 43 per cent and 3-6 years accounted for about 35 per cent. Adolescents were hardly 2 per cent of the beneficiaries, and the remaining 20 per cent shared equally as pregnant women and lactating mothers. That hardly 2 per cent of beneficiaries were adolescents indicates the unwillingness of people to send their children to AWCs. Thus, AWCs are catering to their target clientele, but what matters is the quality of service

Another variable used to look at the spread of these centres is the percentage of villages having AWCs within one kilometre distance. All taluks report 100 per cent coverage of villages by AWCs. Impact of the AWCs could be seen on such indicators as pregnant women with anaemia, institutional deliveries, malnourishment among children, immunization rate, children born underweight, etc. The following sections conduct the comparisons.

But an important lacuna of AWCs is the lack of basic facilities like own building. Many of them are run either in temples, community halls or private houses. In Raichur district, 93 per cent of AWCs operate from their own buildings, which is a good figure. But in Lingsugur, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks still a sizable number of own buildings have to be constructed. Moreover, if we take into account the additional number of AWCs required, more investment is needed in Raichur, Lingsugur, Sindhnur and Manvi taluks. Own building assures a kitchen, store, toilet, drinking water, electricity or adequate space for the children to engage in playing and learning.

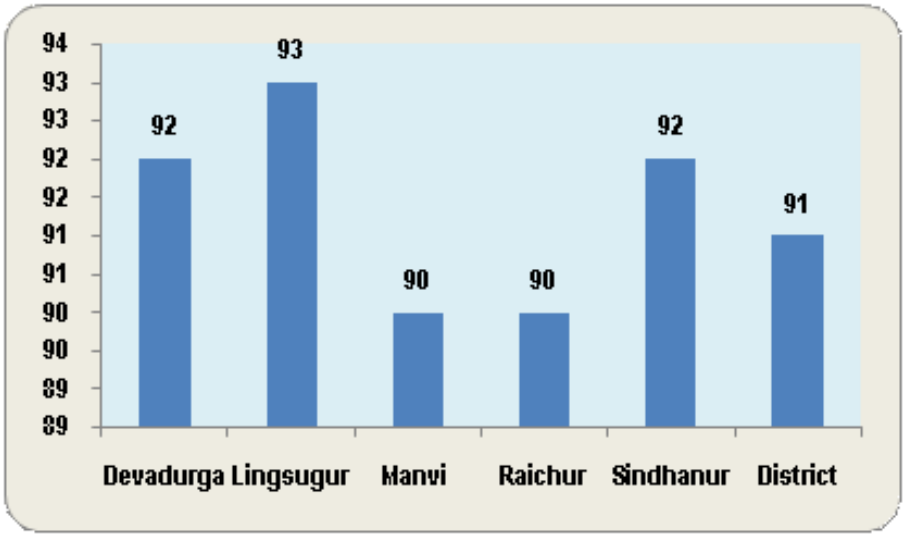
Complete coverage of eligible women under ANC and achieving complete institutional deliveries will reduce MMR significantly

5.7. Institutional Delivery

The quality and responsiveness of health care services could be gauged from the services that are available for conducting the deliveries. Delivery is a crucial process affecting the health and survival of both mother and the child. Deliveries under the supervision of a doctor or trained attendant will reduce the number of complications and will increase the chance of survival of both mother and the child. It is an important indicator of reproductive health of a society. Since, the ANC coverage of women is reported to be almost complete in all the taluks and because of the spread of medical institutions and the 'Arogya Kavacha' program (108-Ambulance), the proportion of institutional deliveries has increased to 91 per cent at the district level (Figure 5.3).

Institutional delivery is directly related to the ANC coverage and so is the incidence of anaemia among pregnant women. The most encouraging impact is the rise in the share of institutional deliveries. Of course, it is still around 90 per cent and efforts have to be made to raise it to 100 throughout the district.

Figure 5.3: Institutional Delivery in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)



Source: HMIS, Raichur

5.8. Immunization of Children

Immunization is one of the most successful and cost-effective health interventions ever. It has eradicated small-pox, lowered the global incidence of polio so far by 99% and achieved dramatic reductions in illness, disability and averted millions of death resulting from vaccine preventable diseases. Immunization of children against the deadly epidemics is yet another important preventive health intervention for their survival and healthy growth. As figure 5.4 shows, about 85 percent of children have been provided with immunization in the district. In Devadurga taluk, it is a slow as 70 per cent and in Lingsugur it is 75 per cent. Thus, still a considerable effort needs to be put in these taluks.

5.9. Under-weight Children

A child is considered healthy if it is of prescribed weight when it is born. An underweight child is obviously at risk of frequent illnesses. If the child is not to grow as a malnourished one, supplementary nutrition needs to be provided for it to gain weight and grow into a healthy baby. Raichur district is

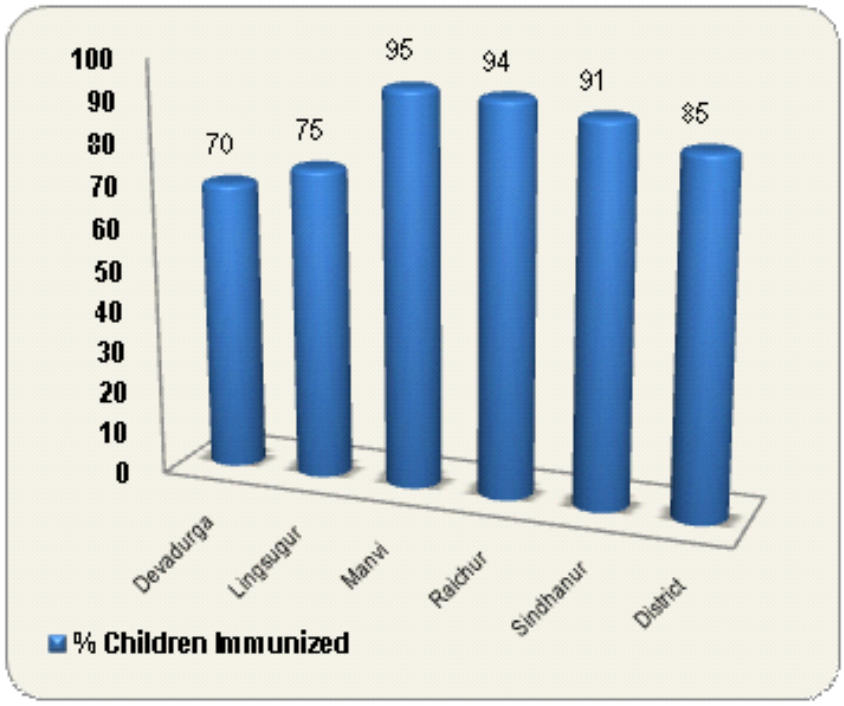
known for child malnutrition and the percentage of children born underweight is quite high at about 20 per cent. However, across the taluks, the incidence is higher in Lingsugur (28 per cent), Manvi (27 per cent) and Devadurga (26 per cent) where intensive efforts are needed (Figure 5.5).

But the proportion of malnourished children is about 46 per cent for the district and ranging from 41 per cent in Lingsugur taluk to 49 per cent in Sindhnur taluk. Raichur and Devadurga taluks too have higher malnourished children. That the other districts of the state have far lesser values for the above indicators, suggests that concerted actions are needed to address these problems in right earnest.

5.10. Communicable Diseases

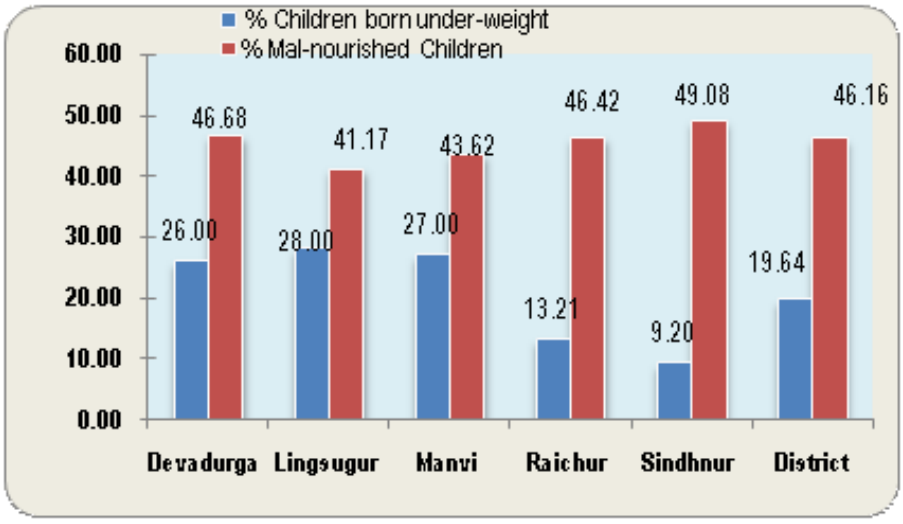
Another indicator reflecting the health of individuals is their morbidity status. Morbidity may be chronic or of short duration nature. Chronic diseases, which lead to permanent disability and often death, cannot be easily controlled and cured. But the causes of short term illnesses are identifiable and hence preventable. Moreover, communicable diseases result in short term loss of employment and additional expenditure on the part of the individuals. These diseases break out due to changes in weather and other conditions and sometimes due to vectors. Hence, these outbreaks should be anticipated by any public health system and effectively controlled. In fact, the efficiency of any public health system could be measured on how an epidemic is controlled or eradicated. In this context, the incidence of communicable diseases reveals the status of public health status of a society.

Figure 5.4: Immunization Coverage of Children in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)



Source: HMIS Data

Figure 5.5: Incidence of Malnourishment and Underweighting among Children in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)



Source: HMIS Data

During the year 2011-12, a little more than 2 per cent of district's population was reported to have been affected by communicable diseases. Raichur and Sindhnur taluks reported higher incidence of communicable diseases respectively at 2.9 and 2.8 per cent of their respective population. In other taluks it was 2 per cent and near it. The least developed taluk of Devadurga has the lowest incidence. But, elsewhere in Karnataka, the minimum value for this indicator is reported to be 0.004, which points to the scale of efforts needed by the public health system of Raichur district to achieve a better control of communicable diseases.

5.11. Performance of Various Health Schemes

National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) launched in 2005 is made a sub-mission under the reformulated **National Health Mission** (NHM) in 2013. National Rural Health Mission (NRHM, 2005-12) was launched with the objective of reducing Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR), ensuring universal access to public health services such as women's health, child health, water, sanitation and hygiene, immunization, and nutrition, preventing and controlling communicable and non-communicable diseases, including locally endemic diseases etc. The components of NRHM and NHM that are operational in the district are: Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHA) Programme; Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY); Prasooti Araike; Madilu Kit; Arogya Kavacha - the free ambulance service; Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojane (RSBY).



All the above schemes are being implemented in the district and whether they have helped in achieving the desired objectives or not should be separately studied. In this regard, Table 5.7 provides information on the operation of two important programmes, viz., JSY and distribution of Madilu kit. While the first one has taken care of the health of the pregnant women and the baby in the womb, therefore, the MMR; the second one has helped in neo-natal care and reducing IMR.

The data reveals the availability and usage of health schemes in Raichur district. There were about 17,300 beneficiaries under JSY, majority of them from the Raichur and Sindhnur taluks. It may be recalled here that the incidence of MMR was lower in these taluks; hence JSY has direct implication on reducing the MMR. There are 46 24*7 PHCs working in the district. Beneficiaries under Madilu kit were 11123. It has also contributed to majority of the deliveries to be institutional deliveries. These have

Table 5.7: Health Schemes for Improving Maternal and Child Health and Survival in Raichur District, 2011-12

	Ambulances		24*7 PHCs		JSY	Madilu Kit
	No.	Beneficiaries	No.	Beneficiaries	Beneficiaries	Beneficiaries
Devadurga	3	2544	6	2889	2166	1503
Lingsugur	2	3864	12	5375	2899	2279
Manvi	3	4044	9	4231	2891	2179
Raichur	4	4252	8	4186	5713	3588
Sindhnur	3	3168	11	3031	3619	1574
District	15	17872	46	19712	17288	11123

Source: DSO, Raichur

contributed to improvement in neo-natal health of the child and post-delivery health of the mother. These schemes are facilitated by a large number of ASHA workers, PHCs working on 24*7 basis and 16 ambulances under the Arogya Kavacha Scheme.

Apart from these, one generic pharmacy is already started and during 2014-15 it is proposed to start such pharmacies in each taluk.

Distribution of Napkins to Adolescent Girls: During 2013-14 2,87,391 sanitary pads were distributed under 'Shuchi' programme.

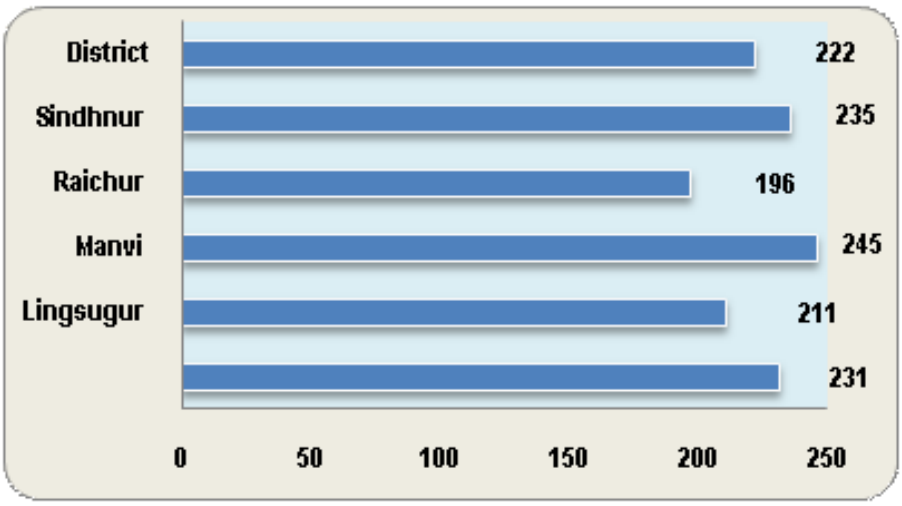
Prasoothi Araike: During 2013-14 14,526 beneficiaries were provided with financial assistance.

However, the spread, reach and efficacy of these schemes need to be separately studied and few of the available studies show, people are extensively using these schemes and this is evident in the improved health outcomes. In realizing the MDGs, these schemes have a vital role to play.

5.12. Expenditure Analysis on Health Sector

The total expenditure on medical health, Indian systems of medicine and family welfare programmes in the district during 2011-12 was Rs.959.58 lakhs. This was 23 per cent of the total expenditure of the ZP. Of this, the expenditure on family welfare, which includes all schemes to promote maternal and child health, amounted to more than 80 per cent. Per capita expenditure on health has been worked out for analytical purpose and depicted in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Per Capita Expenditure on Health in Raichur District (Rs.), 2011-12



Source: CAO, ZP, Raichur

The per capita expenditure on health is calculated at Rs. 222 for the district, which is very low. Among the taluks, Manvi, Sindhnur and Devadurga taluks spent more than the district average. It was lower in Lingsugur and significantly lower in Raichur taluk, which have a higher HDI status. That a higher expenditure is incurred in backward taluks is a good sign. But considering the quality of outcomes, there is a need to step up the expenditure on health in the district.

5.13. Radar Analysis for Health

Radar analysis is done considering some variables as cause and others as effect variables. Thus in figure 5.7, rate of institutional deliveries is considered to affect the proportion of children born underweight and IMR. It could be seen that there is a close correspondence between institutional deliveries, children born underweight and IMR throughout the district, except Manvi taluka. It points to the need for improving the rate of institutional deliveries.

Similarly, figure 5.8 compares MMR with percentage women receiving ANC and percent institutional deliveries also reveals a close semblance. There is symmetry between the three values. Hence, complete coverage of eligible women under ANC and achieving complete institutional deliveries will reduce MMR significantly.

CMR is another crucial indicator of health which can be linked to immunization rate and proportion of malnourished children. Figure 5.9 shows that except in Raichur and Manvi taluks, in the remaining talukas, there is again a close correspondence between the values. Hence, this advocates that efforts be made to reduce malnourishment and achieve universal immunization.

The last radar reveals the linkage between per capita health expenditure and health index as computed for the CTDI (Figure 5.10). For the purpose of depiction of relationship between health expenditure and health index in the radar, the health index values are multiplied by 1000. In Manvi

Figure 5.7: Radar for Health Indicators - 1

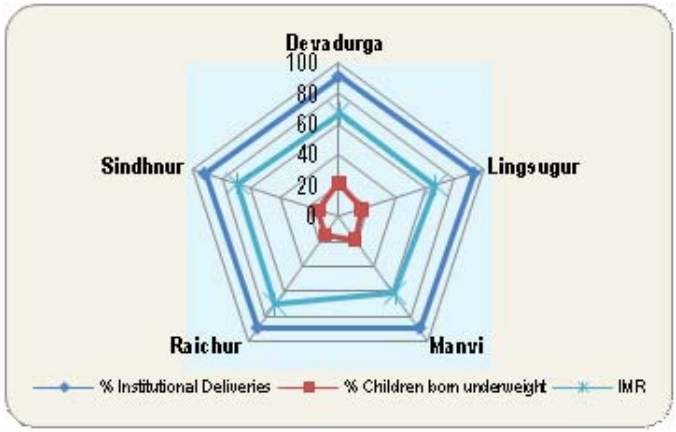


Figure 5.8: Radar for Health Indicators - 2

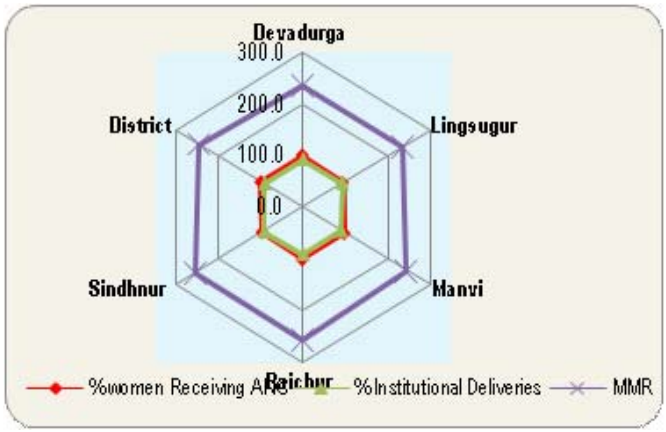


Figure 5.9: Radar for Health Indicators - 3

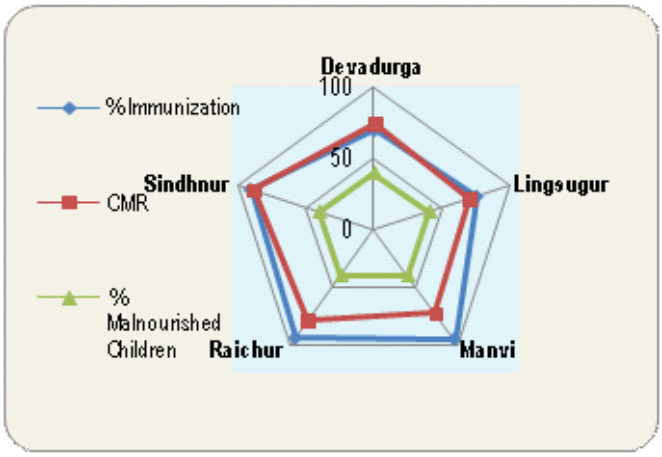
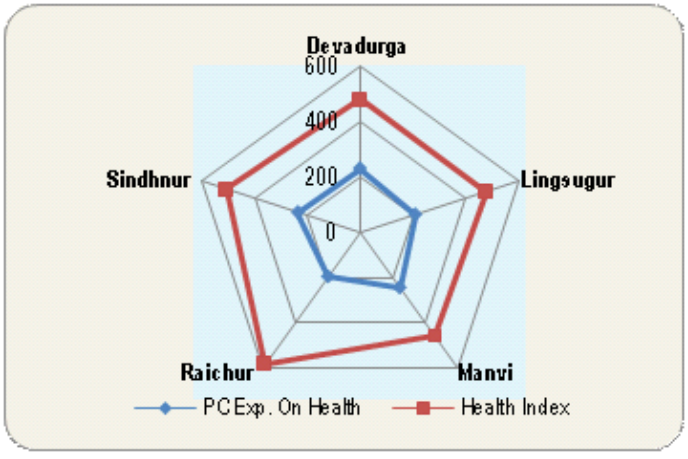


Figure 5.10: Radar for Health Indicators - 4



taluka, while the expenditure is high the value for health index is lower; and in Raichur taluka, it is quite the opposite. It may be that in Raichur, the private health providers are prominent. However, in the remaining talukas the two are significantly correlated.

Therefore, radar analysis on health suggests:

- improving the rate of institutional deliveries for reducing IMR as well as percentage underweight children born;
- complete coverage of eligible women under ANC and achieving complete institutional deliveries for reducing MMR;
- achieving universal immunization and reducing malnourishment for reducing CMR; and
- increasing expenditure on health to improve overall performance of health indicators

5.14. Small Area Study: Malnutrition and its Correlates in a Backward Village

5.14.1. Introduction

Nutrition is essential component of sustainable human development. Inadequate nutrition results in irreversible damages, endangering survival and growth. Malnutrition is a complex phenomenon and it is both the cause and effect of poverty and ill-health, and follows a cyclical, inter-generational pattern.[1] A condition of under-nutrition reduces work capacity and productivity among adults and enhances mortality and morbidity amongst children.[2] Malnutrition is the underlying cause of at least 50 per cent of deaths of children under five. Even if it does not lead to death, malnutrition, including micronutrient deficiencies, often leads to permanent damage, including impairment of physical growth and mental development. Rates of child malnutrition in India are among the highest in the world, higher even than sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. Malnutrition is a health outcome as well as a risk factor for disease that increases the risk both of morbidity

1 Food and Nutrition Board, Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India
2 National Nutrition Policy, 1993, Government of India

Food insecurity affects the nutrition of children and they may also be withdrawn from school. The reading skills and grade aspiration levels are lower for the poorest quintile.

Identified Malnourished child



and mortality. Although it is rarely the direct cause of death (except in extreme situations, such as famine), child malnutrition is associated with a high proportion of child deaths in developing (WHO, 2004). The reasons for malnutrition are myriad and include poverty, lack of nutritious food, inadequate food, improper infant and child feeding, among others.

Malnutrition commonly affects all groups in a community, but infants and young children are the most vulnerable because of their high nutritional requirements for growth and development. Another group of concern is pregnant women, given that a malnourished mother is at high risk of giving birth to a LBW baby who will be prone to growth failure during infancy and early childhood, and be at increased risk of morbidity and early death. Malnourished girls, in particular, risk becoming yet another malnourished mother, thus contributing to the intergenerational cycle of malnutrition. Breaking the cycle of continuing poverty and environmental deterioration is a prerequisite for sustainable development and survival.

The findings of the third National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) reveals that 42.5% of children under the age of ûve years are *underweight* (low weight for age); 48 % are *stunted* (low height for age – chronically malnourished); 19.8 % are *wasted* (low weight for height – acutely malnourished); and in poorer states the situation is even worse with over 50 % of children underweight. DLHS-4 reveals that the percentage of children with low birth weight (below 2.5 kg) is 4.5 per cent everywhere and 3.8 per cent in rural areas of Raichur district. This is lower than the state figures of 7.6 per cent and 8.0 per cent, respectively, but there are other factors which are worse and leads to serious outcomes relating to the health of mother and child.

5.14.2. The Present Study

The study attempts to investigate into the extent and nature of malnutrition in Nagadadinni village of Devadurga taluk. The village was selected based on the discussion made in the core committee meetings and opinions of the officials. A sample of 49 households with BPL ration cards were specifically identified with the help of gram panchayat employees and Anganawadi workers. The sample consists of 55 per cent households from SC and ST category, 28 per cent from backward classes (OBC) and the remaining 17 from the minority category; hence it is broadly representative of the population of the village. While 75 per cent of both SC-ST and OBC households resided in pucca houses, 60 per cent of minority households resided in pucca houses; overall the pucca house proportion was 72 per cent.

5.14.2. Extent and Nature of Malnutrition

In order to measure the extent of malnutrition, the question - Is any child is identified as malnourished by the Anganwadi worker (AWW)? was put. The records of the anganwadis were cross checked and at the time of field work there was no child was identified as severely malnourished. However, the responses show that 59 per cent of the households reported presence of malnourished child. OBC households had the largest proportion (75 per cent); followed by SC-ST (56 per cent) and minority (40 per cent) households.

Nearly three-fourths (72 per cent) of the sample households reported there was child birth occurring and all the children born were healthy. So if children are born healthy and they eventually become malnourished later speaks of the inadequate feeding practices, extent of use of supplementary nutrition provisions and of course hygienic practices. 80 per cent of minority, 75 per cent of SC-ST and 63 per cent of OBC households reported births all of whom were healthy when born.

The immediate concern is whether the malnourished child receives any special care, supplementary feeding and medical treatment. Unfortunately, nearly half of the households (48 per cent) stated no such special care was taken and this proportion is higher in minority and OBC households. Also more than half of the households reported they have not consulted doctors (feeling that it is a common malady and child will come out of it over a period of time). 80 per cent of minority households and 50 per cent each of SC-ST and OBC households did not provide medical care to the malnourished children.

5.14.3. Morbidity Pattern of Households

Malnutrition is expected to be associated with serious health concerns and increase in illness incidences. Accordingly Table 5.8 shows the morbidity pattern of the sample households. One-third households (60 per cent among minorities; 38 per cent among OBCs and 25 per cent among SC-ST households) reported to have experienced frequent illnesses. Similarly, only 4 households (14 per cent) reported prevalence of malaria, dengue, diarrhoea, etc. during the last one year. However, female morbidity related to malnutrition like headache, back pain and body ache is very common as about one-third of households report their prevalence.

The minority households report a greater average illness followed by OBC and SC-ST households. 60 per cent and 40 per cent of minority households report, respectively, to be suffering from frequent headache and body ache, while 50

If children are born healthy and they eventually become malnourished later speaks of the inadequate feeding practices, extent of use of supplementary nutrition provisions and of course hygienic practices.

Table 5.8: Households Reporting Prevalence of Different Illnesses (%)

Social Group	Among all		Among Females			Average
	Frequent common illness	Water borne diseases	Head Ache	Back Ache	Body Ache	
SC/ST	25	19	38	31	31	28.8
OBC	38	0	38	50	38	32.8
Minority	60	20	60	20	40	40.0
All	34	14	41	34	34	31.4

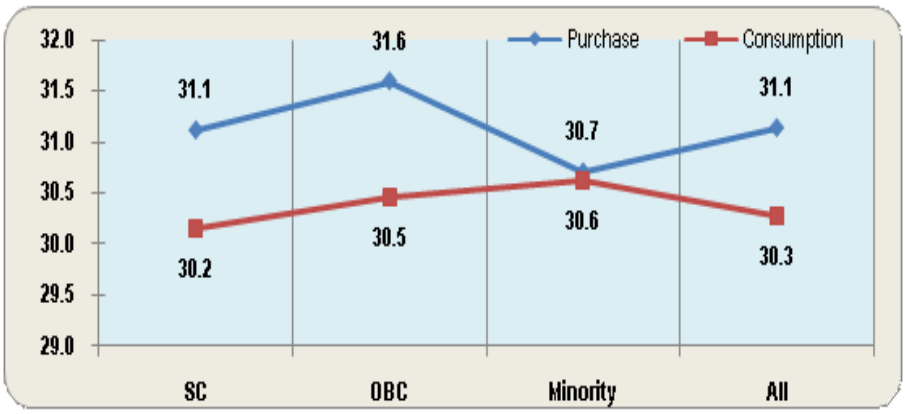
Source: Field Survey

per cent of women from OBC households report prevalence of body ache. Thus, women are more susceptible to illnesses compared to male or the children. This might be related to the inadequate nutrition available and feeding practices where males are given priority over all others. Therefore, along with children females also suffer more from under nutrition related consequences.

5.14.4. PDS and Grain Consumption

How are the households supported through PDS? One household each from SC-ST category and minority category did not possess ration card and they said that they have already applied for it. Of the remaining while 83 per cent had BPL cards, 10 per cent had Antyodaya cards. 94 per cent of SC-ST households and 80 per cent of Minority households possessed BPL ration cards. Among OBC households, two-thirds possessed BPL and the remaining possessed Antyodaya cards. Figure 5.11 shows that the sample households purchased the prescribed quantities from PDS and consumed all of it.

Figure 5.11: Usage of PDS Grains (Kgs.)



Source: Field Survey

The average purchase by OBC households was the highest but consumption by minority households was the highest. Thus, the PDS supported their consumption requirement to a greater extent. In fact, this was supplemented by consumption of milk, meat and eggs to a very little extent, of course in very few households (4). While all households purchased the prescribed ration from PDS shops, many of them reported of not having adequate money to buy the ration.

The very low price for grains fixed under PDS distribution is also not affordable to a large proportion of the sample households. In fact, 48 per cent of them reported to have borrowed for purchase of ration. Borrowing is from the local money lender to a great extent (71 per cent) followed by relatives (21 per cent) and friends (7 per cent). Hence, improving income earning options to the people can ensure better spending on food, on other complementary services and of

course care and treatment to the malnourished child.

As far as feeding practice is concerned, 59 per cent of households reported that male members were served food first, the proportion was again higher in minority households followed by OBC and SC-ST households.

5.14.5. Utilization of Anganwadi Services

Since Anganwadi centre (AWC) is the first unit to take care of the nutrition of women and children apart from performing many more functions, information was sought on how many households were seeking benefits from AWCs (Table 5.9).

The village has three AWCs catering to the nutritional and other needs of children, adolescents and women. The services of the AWCs were extensively utilized as seen through the Table. While 72 per cent of households sent their children to AWCs, 3 per cent households had adolescent girls enrolled, 10 per cent pregnant women/lactating mothers, and 14 per cent households deriving multiple benefits.

Considering children alone, 86 per cent of households enrolled their children in AWCs. The remaining households had small aged children. In fact, all the households from among OBC and minority households sent their children to AWCs. While 97 per cent of the households reported that the malnourished child gets the take home ration and he/she consumes it, this proportion was total for SC-ST and minority households. However, in 10 per cent of the households, the child did not use the complete ration - 20 per cent among minorities, 13 per cent among OBCs and 6 per cent among SC-ST households. This might be one of the reasons for the observed pattern of malnutrition across the social groups. Surprisingly 52 per cent of households reported nutritional supplements to be of insufficient quantity with this proportion being 75 per cent among OBC and 60 per cent among minority households.

Table 5.9: Households Obtaining Benefits from Anganwadi Centres in Nagadadinni Village, Raichur (%)

Benefits	% Households enrolled
Hhs with children going to AWC	72
Hhs with adolescent girls enrolled in AWC	3
Hhs with pregnant women/lactating mothers enrolled in AWC	10
Hhs with more than one benefits	14
Total	100

Source: Field Survey

5.14.6. Complementary Factors

Having toilets fosters nutrition and absorption of nutrients in better manner and prevents a number of faecally transmitted infections, which are the major causes for child death and unsatisfactory growth. Raichur district has very low individual toilet ownership and rural areas have still lesser ownership. Whatever programmes of nutrition are undertaken are



bound to fail if open defecation is not reduced to zero. Among the sample households, hardly 10 per cent owned toilets, with none of the OBC households owning toilets. A larger proportion of minority households (20 per cent) had toilets compared to only 13 per cent among SC-ST households. Obviously, the open defecation rate is very high. Unfortunately two-thirds of the sample households had no information regarding the subsidies available for toilet construction. 75 per cent of SC-ST households, 60 per cent of minority households and half of OBC households reported as lacking information about schemes and subsidies for construction of toilets.

Sanitation is an important complementary factor in realization of nutrition security and it was noticed that hardly 21 per cent of households reported to have drainage facility and wherever, it was available 83 per cent of the households felt that it was not clogged. Social group wise, while none of the OBC and minority households had drainage facility, 81 per cent of SC-ST households reported of not having drainage facility. Further, less than quarter of the sample households felt that the drains are ill maintained leading to foul smell from the drainage. Minority households (40 per cent) reported higher smell problem compared to 25 per cent of SC-ST and 13 per cent of OBC households.

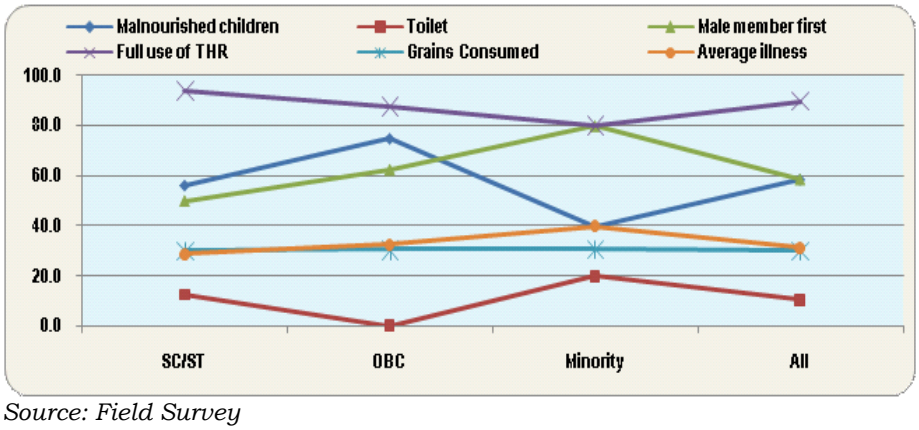
Another important complementary factor boosting nutrition is the availability of adequate drinking water. All the households opined that they get sufficient quantity of water from public tap and the quality of water is good.

Considering the personal hygiene as also an important practice furthering nutrition and health standards, it was noticed that only 14 per cent worn clothes that were not clean and again the proportion being higher among the minority households at 20 per cent compared to 13 per cent for the other categories of households.

There is a clear pattern with availability of toilet facility affecting the extent of malnourishment (figure 5.12).

Higher ownership of toilets results in lesser malnourishment and vice-versa. So also is the incidence of illness. Of course, there are also other reasons for illness. The identified malnourished children are provided with additional take home ration (THR). The figure also shows that malnourishment is lower wherever the THR is completely used. Hence a lot

Figure 5.12: Malnutrition and Related variables



Source: Field Survey

depends on other members of the house for enabling the children to consume the additional nutrients. The same argument holds good for grains consumed in the household there is a close relationship between the two. But as mentioned earlier, there is a need to increase employment and income earning opportunities so that people buy the ration from the PDS. The correlation coefficients of malnourished children with selected variables show significant association. It is highly and negatively associated with grain consumption, and feeding practices. It is positively associated with the full utilization of THR.

5.15. An Overview: Performance and Inadequacies of Health Care System

The framers of HDI have used health as a basic component of human development. Health is a vital input into human resource development that increases longevity and productivity of human beings. Especially, good health of women spills over to the next generation which will also be healthy and able to contribute more to societal development. Hence, assuring better and timely health care facilities will contribute to achieving higher levels of human development. In a backward district like Raichur, nutrition security has a special place in sustaining human development. The district has a total population of about 19.9 lakhs according to 2011 census, which accounts for about 3.5 per cent of the state's population. Urbanization ratio is lower in the district. The district has a higher proportion of both SC and ST populations. The district has a higher ratio of people in the age group of 0-14 and 60 and above years compared to the state but lesser ratio in the 15-59 age groups. Hence, health needs of children and elderly people need to be taken care of.



The district's demographic quality in terms of sex ratio is better vis-a-vis the state and has improved over the years. CMR is the highest among the districts of the state at 77. While the unmet need for birth control ranges from 18 per cent in Devadurga to 35 per cent in Manvi taluk, 63 per cent of birth control burden is borne by women. This is indicative of gender bias in the family planning practices. If males also participate in birth control activity, the extent of unmet need can be reduced and health of women substantially improved.

The mortality rates are very high compared to the other districts of the state and they represent the nature of discrimination and deprivation present with respect to child health in the district. IMR is highest in Raichur taluka at 71 and lowest in Manvi taluka at 62 and the inter-taluka variation is not much. Sindhnur and Raichur taluks have CMR even above the district level value of 77. Lingsugur taluk has the lowest value at 70, but compared to the minimum values across the state, a lot needs to be

achieved in this direction. IMR and MMR are higher in the district owing to a higher proportion of anaemic pregnant women. As a result of spread of health institutions and awareness the proportion of women receiving ANC has touched almost 100 in Raichur district; and because medical institutions and the 'Arogya Kavacha' program (108-Ambulance), have spread throughout the district, and because of the efforts of functionaries like AHSAs and AWWs the proportion of institutional deliveries has increased to 91 per cent at the district level. But still the health infrastructure needs to be strengthened in the taluks of Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur.

Improving the rate of institutional deliveries for reducing IMR as well as percentage underweight children born; complete coverage of eligible women under ANC and achieving complete institutional deliveries for reducing MMR; achieving universal immunization and reducing malnourishment for reducing CMR; and increasing expenditure on health to improve overall performance of health indicators

About one-third of pregnant women are identified as anaemic in the district, about 85 per cent of children have been provided with immunization in the district. Raichur district has a higher percentage of children who are born underweight at about 20 per cent and the proportion of malnourished children is 46 per cent.

The health infrastructure in Raichur district is inadequate when compared to other districts of the state. The availability of health personnel is still more unfavourable. Similarly, considering the existing number of anganwadis, if additional required number of AWCs is worked out based on population norms, the district would additionally require 80 per cent more number of AWCs.

Expenditure on health is about 23 per cent of the total expenditure of the ZP, of which, expenditure on family welfare, which includes all schemes to promote maternal and child health, amounted to more than 80 per cent. However, the per capita expenditure on health is calculated at Rs. 222 for the district, which is very low.

The Radar analysis on health suggests: improving the rate of institutional deliveries for reducing IMR as well as percentage underweight children born; complete coverage of eligible women under ANC and achieving complete institutional deliveries for reducing MMR; achieving universal immunization and reducing malnourishment for reducing CMR; and increasing expenditure on health to improve overall performance of health indicators

The small area study reveals that OBC households had the largest proportion of malnourished children followed by SC-ST and minority households. PDS strongly supported the consumption requirement of the households to a greater extent. That 48 per cent of sample households reported to have borrowed for purchase of ration, reiterates the need for improving income earning options for better spending on food, on other complementary services and for care and treatment to the malnourished child. Malnutrition is highly and negatively associated with grain consumption and feeding practices; and is positively associated with the full utilization of THR.

■■

Chapter 6

INCOME, POVERTY AND EMPLOYMENT



Income, Poverty and Employment

6.1. Introduction

Poverty is the most serious development challenge facing India. Although there has been sustained overall economic growth performance since the early 1980s in the country, the reduction in the rate of incidence of poverty has been extremely slow. Performance has been unsatisfactory, not only with regard to income poverty but also with regard to measures such as life expectancy and literacy. Lack of access to resources or assetlessness, is a unifying characteristic of poverty in all its manifestations. Since poverty is concentrated in the rural areas, analysts speak of 'geography of poverty.' And since the proportion of the poor is higher among certain social groups, they also speak of 'sociology of poverty.' Additionally, there are identifiable occupational features of the poor: 'they are concentrated in agricultural labour and artisanal households in rural areas, and among casual labourers in urban areas' (Planning Commission (2008). This geographical and social concentration and vulnerability of certain groups point to the need for analysis and programmes that capture the details of the structure of poverty. The poor lack ownership of or access to assets such as land, water, forest, a dwelling unit, credit, literacy, longevity, voice and capital – both physical and social (Mehta and Shah, 2001). Hence, their livelihood is not ensured.

Improving human well-being by enhancing livelihood options is at the core of development efforts everywhere in the world. If HD is defined as the ability of all people to determine and meet their needs and to have a range of choices and opportunities to fulfil their potential, then promoting employment, income and security becomes the core of public policy. A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base.



Migrant Agricultural Labour

Income of the people is an important determinant of well-being at any given point of time. If income is to be adequate and continuous, the occupations in which people are engaged should be gainful and secure. Hence, nature and extent of employment plays a major role in determining the well being of a population. At the aggregate level, in India, the income is growing at satisfactory rate. But the same cannot be said of constituent regions, sectors and segments of population. In fact,

evidence shows that the growth pattern in the country in the post-1990 period has not been uniform. A harsh consequence is seen in terms of stagnation in agriculture and consequent slow down of village economies vis-a-vis the urban ones. Another consequence has been the 'job-less growth'. Income and employment characteristics to a large extent, determine the livelihood security of people. Thus, human development presupposes provision of livelihood security to people. The present chapter focuses on the livelihood issues of people in Raichur district and puts it in the human development framework.

Lack of access to resources or assetlessness, is a unifying characteristic of poverty in all its manifestations. There is a 'geography of poverty' and of course a 'sociology of poverty.'

6.2. District and Taluk Income

In Karnataka, the district income is estimated by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics. The total district income was estimated to have increased by 31.8 per cent during 2004-2009, from Rs. 3,07,911 lakhs in 2004-05, to Rs. 4,05,795 lakhs in 2008-09. The increase, however, was slower than that at the state level. As a result, the district's share in state's income decreased from 1.8 per cent to 1.7 per cent between 2004-05 and 2008-09. The per capita income of the district not only continued to be lower than the state level, the percentage change in PCI was also lower in the district compared to the state.

An important analysis with regard to HD implications of income growth is the composition of the income. In Raichur, like at the state level, the service sector dominates, but not at the same level as that in the state. Agriculture contributes about a quarter of the district income and total primary sector nearly one-third. Actually, the share of secondary and tertiary sectors in the district's income have declined, which is contrary to the trends at the state level. In the secondary sector construction dominates and manufacturing contributes very little. Similarly, in the tertiary sector, except for banking and insurance all major service activities have contributed lower to the district income. Hence, contrary to the usual tendency, agriculture has increased its share; manufacturing is a very small component of the district's economy and major services are declining. These tendencies are expected to keep the district a low growing one in the years to come.

As far as growth drivers are concerned banking and insurance, manufacturing, construction and agriculture are the growth promoting sectors. But because the district has decelerated in service sector, its growth has not been as high as in the state. The district, therefore, represents a traditional economy dependent on primary production with less of manufacturing and few services. Therefore, not much of diversification into high productive sectors could be observed.

6.2.1. Taluk Income

The information on taluk incomes is provided in Table 6.1. Raichur taluk has almost one-third of the

Table 6.1: Taluk Domestic Product (TDP) in Raichur district, 2004-05 and 2008-09

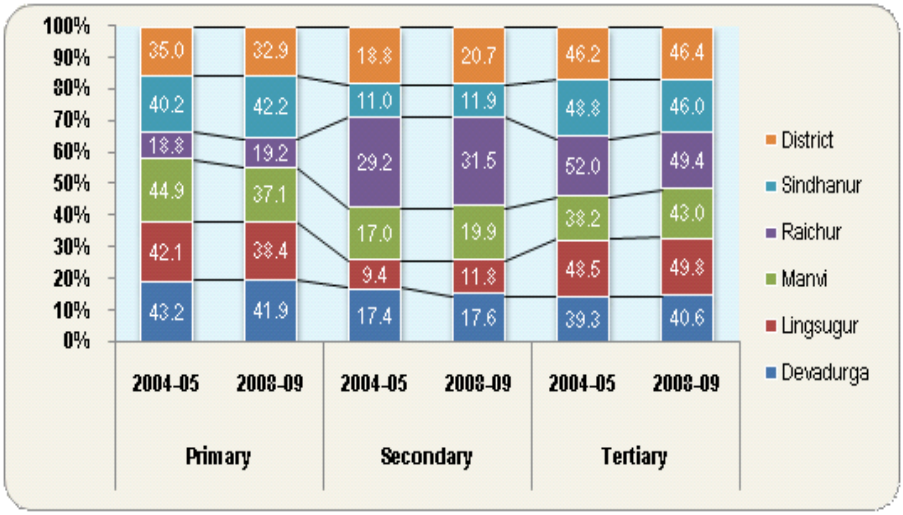
Taluk	TDP (in Rs. Lakhs)		% Share in DDP		% Change of TDP	Per Capita TDP (Rs)		
	2004-05	2008-09	2004-05	2008-09		2004-05	2008-09	% Change in PCTDP
Devadurga	34653	47467	11.25	11.70	36.98	14880	19468	30.83
Lingsugur	46402	61677	15.07	15.20	32.92	13807	17528	26.95
Manvi	73482	86381	23.86	21.29	17.55	21224	23830	12.28
Raichur	99585	133063	32.34	32.79	33.62	21849	27884	27.62
Sindhnur	53789	77207	17.47	19.03	43.53	14266	19558	37.09
District	307911	405795	100.00	100.00	31.79	17615	22173	25.87

Source: DES: State and District Domestic Product of Karnataka New Series (Base Year 2004-05) 2010-2011

TDP and Manvi taluk accounts for another 24 per cent. Together the two taluks share nealry 56 per cent of income of the district. Thus, there is a severe income disparity, but it has slightly decreased over the years. The most encouraging aspect is that except Manvi, all taluks have registered increases in their shares in the DDP. The inequality becomes still clear when we look at the per capita income. Raichur taluk reports highest PCI in both the years, closely followed by Manvi taluk. The PCI of other taluks was less than Rs. 20,000. Lingsugur taluk had the least PCI. However, in terms of growth, Sindhnur taluk recorded the highest growth followed by Devadurga, Raichur and Lingsugur. Only Manvi recorded lower growth than the district level.

The economic base of the region and its potentiality for sustained growth is reflected in the sectoral composition of income of a region. The data reveals that Raichur's economy does not follow the standard economic transition from agriculture to manufacturing and then to services. The proportion of agricultural/primary sector income has decreased in all taluks except Raichur and Sindhnur taluks (Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1: Sectoral Composition of Taluk Income in Raichur District, 2004-05 and 2008-09 (%)



Source: DES: State and District Domestic Product of Karnataka New Series (Base Year 2004-05) 2010-2011

Steeper decline could be observed in Manvi and a greater increase in Sindhnur taluk. Interestingly, the secondary sector's share has increased in all taluks, though in smaller proportions. The share of tertiary sector in taluk incomes has not changed much, with decline in that of Raichur's and a noticeable rise in that of Manvi's. Thus,

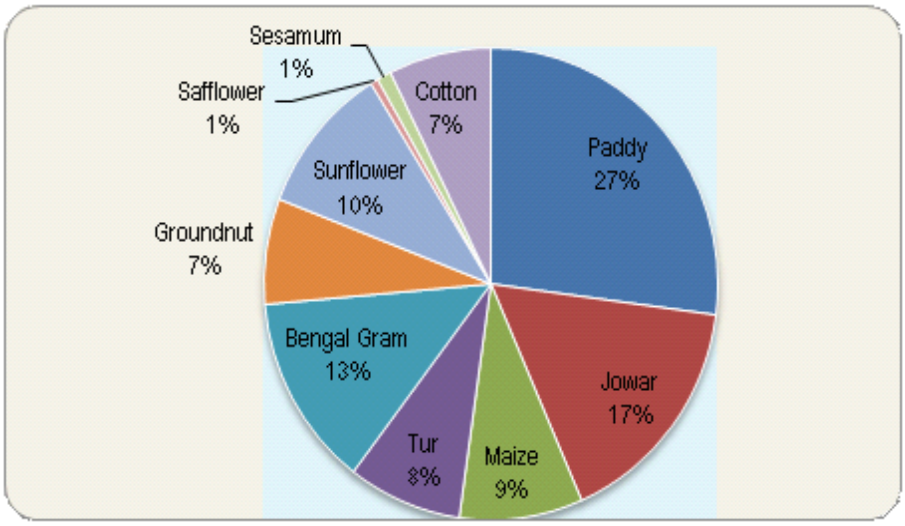
agriculture continues to be the major driver of growth followed to a certain extent by manufacturing. Therefore, promotion of industrial development must be initiated in taluks like Devadurga, Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks.

Support systems need to be geared for increasing productivity and income of farmers with a focus on marginal and small farmers and in dry land areas.

6.3. Agriculture: Cropping Pattern, Irrigation and Livestock

As seen in the previous section, agriculture continues to be the predominant occupation of the people of Raichur. It is a source of food, employment and raw materials to the agro-based industries. The dynamism of the rural economy, in particular, depends on the vibrancy of agricultural sector. Agriculture is complemented by allied activities such as dairying and horticulture. These activities are also important sources of livelihood to the people. This section explores the growth and diversification of agriculture of Raichur district.

Table 6.2: Cropping Pattern in Raichur District (per cent to NSA), 2011-12



Source: JDA, Raichur

6.3.1. Cropping Pattern

The cropping pattern is basically the result of agro-climatic factors, which make it possible for the district to grow a variety of crops. The net sown area (NSA) in the district was 5,36,288 hectares in 2011-12. The percentage area devoted to various crops is given in Figure 6.2. Food grains dominate the district with an area share of more than 73 per cent of NSA. Among the food grains, cereals are predominantly grown and occupy more than half of the NSA and pulses occupy about 22 per cent of NSA. Individually paddy occupies the largest area of about 27 per cent of NSA followed by jowar with 16 per cent. Bengal gram, Wheat and Tur are the other major food crops that are cultivated in the district.

Oilseeds are also extensively grown in the district and about 19 per cent of NSA is devoted to their cultivation. Sunflower is the major oilseed crop occupying 10 per cent of the NSA, Ground nut occupies about 7 per cent of NSA and other oilseeds like safflower and sesamum are also favoured by the farmers. Cotton is an important commercial crop grown in the district.

Thus, the cropping pattern, though not diversified, is capable of producing food grains and other articles of consumption required by the people. This helps in ensuring the local food security. It is also capable of sustaining variety of agro-based industries like ginning

and spinning mills, oil mills, rice mills, etc. that have provided employment opportunities to the people of the district.

6.3.2. Irrigation

The prospects of Raichur's agriculture depend to a great extent on the availability of irrigation facilities because the district faces inadequate and uncertain rainfall condition. Obviously, the yield levels are lower in the district. Thanks to the Upper Krishna Project and Tungabhadra project, the district is blessed with water for the crops. While Parts of Sindhnur and Manvi taluks are irrigated by Tungabhadra project, parts of Devadurga, Lingsugur and Raichur taluks are irrigated by the Upper Krishna Project. Tube wells are also important means of irrigation wherever the canal water does not reach (Table 6.2).

The reported net irrigated area is 193 thousand hectares, which is about 42 per cent of the NSA, and gross irrigated area is 238.3 thousand hectares. Source wise, canals are the major sources accounting for 87 per cent of NIA, followed by bore wells which account for 6 per cent of NIA. Wells, Tanks and lift irrigation share a very little proportion of NIA. Nearly 768 irrigation pump sets are in use in the district. The data shows that while Sindhnur is the most irrigated taluk, Lingsugur and Raichur are the least irrigated ones. Further, Lingsugur also depends upon tube wells to a greater extent, Raichur depends on open wells. Despite this fact, the irrigation intensity is low at 123.52 per cent and cropping intensity is also low at 118.14 (Table 6.3).

Despite a high proportion of NSA under food crops and larger irrigation, the district produces hardly 329.37 gms of food grains per capita which is substantially lower. Taluk wise Sindhnur produces the highest food grain per capita followed by Manvi and Lingsugur. Raichur produces the least food grains per capita. With a huge area being fed by canals, the future focus needs to be on more efficient utilization of irrigation water to get 'more crop output per drop'. This will also increase employment options to the people.

More than three-fourths of the rural population depends on agriculture, which is largely rainfed. Farmers face challenges like irregular monsoon, non-availability of quality inputs, lack of resources and poor market linkages. These issues if systematically addressed could help farmers improve their livelihoods, breaking the cycle of poverty.

Table 6.2: Source Wise Net Irrigated Area (NIA) in Raichur District, 2011-12 (% of NSA)

Taluk	Canal	Tanks	Wells	Tube Wells	Lift Irrigation	Total	% of NSA
Devadurga	90.32	0.76	3.60	4.34	0.98	100.00	56.65
Lingsugur	76.30	0.12	4.66	16.60	2.32	100.00	22.66
Manvi	95.25	0.32	1.14	1.75	1.55	100.00	47.95
Raichur	66.63	3.91	15.71	6.28	7.47	100.00	27.74
Sindhnur	92.27	0.00	0.12	3.92	3.70	100.00	67.23
District	87.21	0.63	3.39	5.97	2.79	100.00	42.13

Source: DSO, 2012

Table 6.3: Irrigation and Cropping Intensity and Per Capita Food Grain Production in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Cropping Intensity	Irrigation Intensity	Per capita food grain production (in Kgs)
Devadurga	118.54	119.93	208.81
Lingsugur	113.25	110.47	334.47
Manvi	119.57	126.95	440.66
Raichur	107.98	120.90	87.71
Sindhnur	132.20	131.92	698.07
District	118.14	123.52	329.37

Source: JDA Raichur

Livestock contributes to the livelihood of the poor in many ways - income from products, insurance against drought, emergency cash requirements, household nutrition, fuel for cooking, manure for crops, draught power for farming etc. Evidence shows that smallholders obtain nearly half of their income from livestock.

6.3.3. Livestock

Traditionally, livestock is an important allied activity pursued by rural people for supplementing their income, employment and livelihood systems. This is so inRaichur district as well. According to livestock census of 2007, there were nearly 15.68 lakh livestock apart from ruminants in Raichur district (Table 6.4). Availability of canal irrigation has encouraged people to rear animals as an allied avenue for income and employment.

The data show that Lingsugur and Devadurga taluks shared more than half the livestock of the district and they also had a greater number of animals for every 1000 people as well as per square kilometre of geographical area. Raichur had the least number of livestock. Whatever the number of livestock, it may be observed that the reliance is still more on local breeds as cross-bred cows account for less than 3 per cent of total livestock in the district.

Further, the composition of livestock shows that, for the district as a whole, cattle account for a little more than quarter of the livestock, sheep and goat account for 60 per cent of the livestock. The remaining are buffaloes. Thus, basically Raichur district is a sheep and goat economy supported by cattle and buffaloes, with minor regional variations.

Whereas milk production is quite low in the district, across taluks Lingsugur, Manvi and Raichur produce relatively more milk on per capita basis. Egg production is higher in Lingsugur taluk. District is also engaged in fishery and meat production. Thus, the households have practised to support their livelihoods by engaging into allied activities and alternative employment sources. However, the production and availability of these

Table 6.4: Livestock and Livestock Products in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluks	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhnur	Total
Total Livestock (no)	313698	431427	292646	278580	251663	1568014
Livestock per 1000 people (no)	1118	1119	790	559	640	813
Livestock per Sq km (no)	208	221	163	181	157	187
% cross Breed cows	0.45	0.41	1.08	0.17	12.22	2.74
% Cattle	27.6	21.7	31.2	22.6	30.7	26.2
% Buffaloes	9.8	8.3	20.2	10.5	23.2	13.6
% sheep and Goat	62.7	70.0	48.7	66.9	46.1	60.2
PC Milk (litres)	41.94	137.00	95.18	32.19	81.54	76.73
PC Fish catch (Kgs)	5.70	6.54	6.74	6.02	7.63	6.54
PC Egg (no)	0.17	29.97	0.08	0.05	0.08	6.06
PC Meat Prod (Kg)	3.89	1.27	7.80	5.80	11.60	6.18

Source: DSO, Raichur

products is lower than in other districts of the state. Therefore, efforts have to be intensified to increase the output of these activities. This will not only make livelihoods more sustainable but will ensure higher food security. Some of the major interventions to be thought of are: improving the breeds, storage and market support. The co-operative model of dairy development may be replicated for allied activities as well.

6.4. BPL Households, MGNREGA

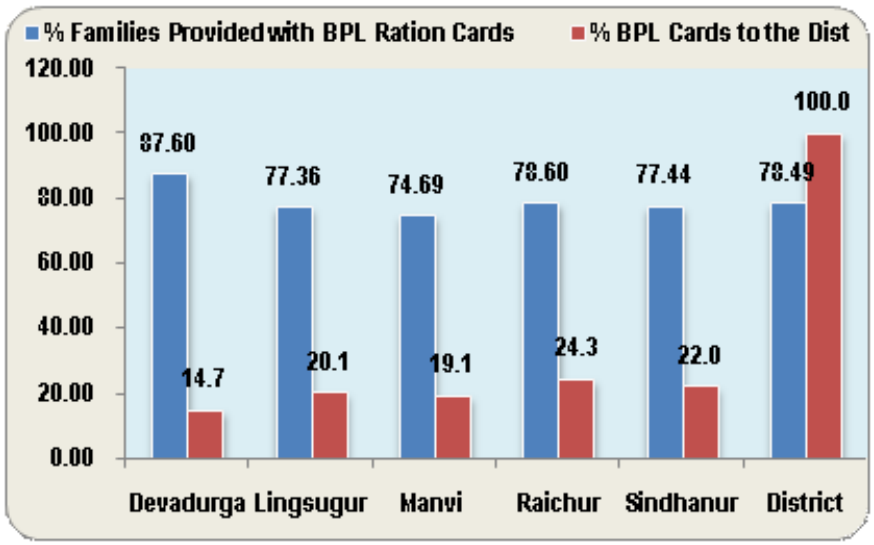
Poverty has received special policy focus among the international development and it is the first and foremost goal specified in the MDGs. The goal is to reduce poverty by half between the base year 1990, and the reference year, 2015. What is most important here is the explicit recognition that poverty has multiple dimensions, with implications for opportunities, security and empowerment. Any discussion on poverty during the new millennium must, therefore, focus on the different dimensions of deprivation and their policy implications before attempting to evaluate policy efforts to deal with them (GOK, 2006). The aim of any development strategy is to enable people to live a life free of poverty with adequate living standards. In order for human development to take place in tandem with economic growth, a pro-poor inclusive growth is a prerequisite.

In India, the poverty is estimated based on the survey data of the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) on household consumer expenditure. However, the data for the district and sub-district level is hard to get. Even then, the Karnataka Development Report (Planning Commission, 2007) estimates that Raichur district has a higher proportion of poor to total poor in the state when compared to its proportion to total population. The *Economic Survey of Karnataka, 2012-13* also reports that the percentage people poverty line in Raichur is more than that at the state level (GoK, 2013). At the taluk level, it is still difficult to estimate poverty ratios. Therefore, in the absence of any reliable poverty estimates, the number of households possessing below poverty line (BPL) ration cards is the only alternative (Figures 6.3).



The figures show that more than three-fourths of the households have been issued with BPL cards at the district and in all taluks as

Figure 6.3: BPL Families Provided with Ration Cards in Raichur District 2011-12



Source: DD, Food and Civil Supplies, Raichur and Census Documents

Highlights of MGNREGS in Raichur District

- Job cards issued amounts to 37.3 per cent of census households and which is comparable to the poverty ratios. Hence poor households were adequately covered.
- The percentage of SC and ST households possessing job cards and participating in work was also comparable to their ratio in district's population at 18.82 per cent and 20.45 per cent, respectively.
- Half of the job card holders demanded employment and all were provided with jobs
- In Lingsugur and Devdurga, the number of mandays worked is higher. These taluks being less irrigated regions also justifies greater work in these taluks
- Nearly half of the persondays worked were by women, which is also representative to their share in population
- However, the vast scope is evident in the persistence of migration and very few households reaching the 100 days employment mark.



well. In Devadurga taluk it is as high as 88 per cent. Since the ration card is an instrument for obtaining subsidized food supplies and many more benefits, every household would possess it. Further, as the BPL tag gets access to many more benefits from government schemes, every one attempts to get a BPL ration card. There is also a tendency to overstate the number of households in a family for getting multiple cards resulting in variation in the number of card holding households and the census households. When we look into the taluk wise distribution of BPL households, Raichur accounts for the maximum number of cards while Devadurga for the minimum. May be the there is an identification failure as a result of which the genuine poor are deprived of benefits due to them.

6.4.1. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS)

The MGNREGS is a job guarantee scheme and is one of many other government interventions to provide livelihood opportunities. MGNREGS has been playing a significant role in increasing wages of unskilled labourers. With land becoming increasingly unable to support the family's requirements of food and the cattle's requirements for fodder, land based livelihoods of small and marginal farmers are fast becoming unsustainable. Works under MGNREGS are expected to result in resource development thereby contributing to increased livelihood options in the rural areas.

The scheme aims at providing 100 days of guaranteed employment to rural unskilled labourers within the vicinity of their habitations and proposes to pay the minimum wages, equally for both men and women and provide other basic amenities at the worksite like toilets, drinking water and crèches. The wages are to be paid through the Bank or Post Office savings account to avoid pilferages. The component of expenditure on machinery is also predetermined. If the Gram Panchayat fails to provide employment after an individual registers and demands employment, there is a provision for paying unemployment allowance. The present section seeks to present briefly the progress made by the district in implementation of the MGNREGS. The scheme has been in implementation in Raichur district since 2007-08. The relevant data is presented in Table 6.5.

The data shows that 2,34,325 households (37.3 per cent of census households) were issued job cards by 31-3-2012. The percentage of SC and ST households issued with job cards was lower at 18.82 per cent and 20.45 per cent, respectively. But less than half of these households (43 per cent), demanded work and almost all of them (99.9 per cent) were allotted with work.

A total of 36,51,183 person days of work was provided during 2011-12, but the average number of person days worked amounts to a mere 36 days per household. Similarly, the share of SC households worked was 19 per cent with equivalent share in person days of employment. Participation by the ST households and their share in person days worked comes to around 21 per cent. However, women's participation was quite satisfactory in the programme. Hence, MGNREGS has not performed as expected in the district. Figure 6.4 shows taluk wise performance of MGNREGS.

The figure shows that 2,34,325 job cards are issued to households in Raichur district in 2011-12 and out of them 1,00,315 households i.e., 42.8 per cent households received employment benefit under the scheme. Across taluks, the number of job cards issued ranges from 32,197 in Raichur to 56,728 in Manvi taluk. Less than half (43 per cent) of card holders were provided employment at the district level. In only Lingsugur (50.3 per cent) and Devadurga (47.35 per cent) taluks, the percentage card holders receiving employment is higher than that at the district level. Sindhnur reports the least proportion of households getting employment benefit (37 per cent), along with Raichur (38 per cent) and Manvi taluks (40 per cent).

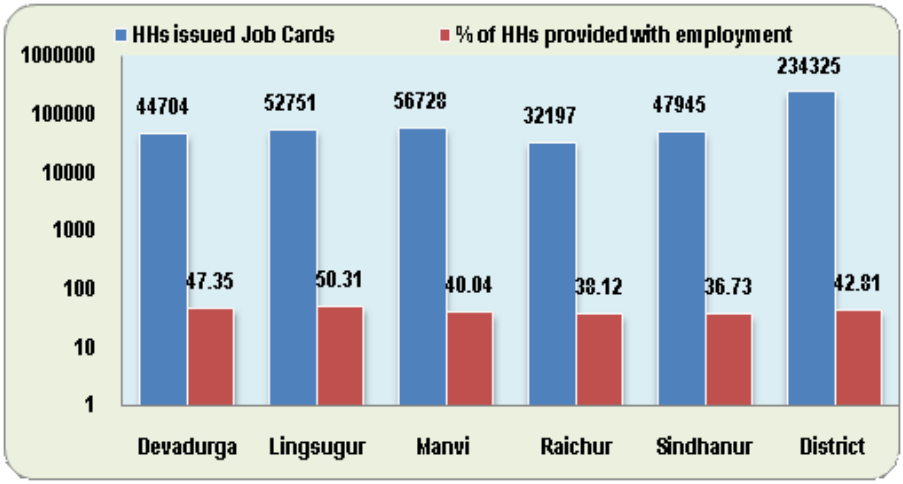
Thus, not all job card holders are provided with employment and there is also a considerable variation of it across taluks. Importantly enough, the backward areas with concentration of poverty have failed to utilize the scheme to its fullest potential. Migration still being rampant, people prefer to migrate rather than work in government schemes.

Table 6.5: Working of MGNREGS in Raichur District, 2011-12

Description	Value
Total job cards issued	234325
% job cards issued to SC households	18.82
% job cards issued to ST households	20.45
Total Households provided employment	100304
Total person-days	3651183
% SC households worked	18.87
% person-days worked by SCs	18.68
% ST households worked	20.97
% person-days worked by STs	21.05

Note: Percentages are to respective totals.
Source: www.nrega.in accessed on 2-4-2014

Figure 6.4: Job Cards Issued and Employment Provided under MGNREGS in Raichur District, 2011-12



Source: www.nrega.in accessed on 2-4-2014

6.5: Landless households

That Raichur district is still predominantly rural and agriculture based is looked into in the earlier sections. Obviously, land is an important asset in the livelihood system of these people.



It is also true that economic, social and political status of a household depends to a great extent upon the land owned by it. It affords cultivation, pursuit of allied activities like dairying, sericulture, horticulture, etc., and in emergency it provides a means to obtain additional financial resources, hence has lot of impact on HD situation. Therefore, ownership of land is of great significance to a rural household. Not possessing this critical asset or landlessness represents deprivation to a basic productive asset.

Agricultural census provides data on the number of landholdings by size classes and gender, but data on households not owning land is difficult to obtain. For the purpose of this report, an indirect method of estimating the landless households is adopted. Though imperfect, it provides a rough estimate of deprivation in the district. The number of landholdings as available in agricultural census is deducted from the total number of households as counted in population census and the number of landless households obtained.

Based on such a method, the total landless households for Raichur district is estimated at 31831 households, which is about 9 per cent of census households. The more urbanized regions (Raichur taluk) may be expected to have a greater proportion of these households compared to other taluks.

6.6. Employment and Unemployment

Unemployment is a bane as it results in wastage of human capabilities to produce, innovate and grow. Unemployed population is more burdensome economically, politically as well as socially. Therefore, every person has to be gainfully employed to earn a living as well as to find an opportunity to contribute to nation building. The skills and capacities acquired through education should be utilized in a manner that benefits both the individual as well as the society. Every government strives to maintain full employment. These arguments hold good at the district level as well. However, unemployment data is not available at the district level.

The major source of information on employment and unemployment at the district level is the census which provides information on workers - main as well as marginal. Although it does not give a complete picture it does help in getting an idea of the problem. In this section, we explain the work related features of people of Raichur district. The number of workers in Raichur district increased from about 7.33 lakhs in 2001 to about 9.03 lakhs by 2011, at a rate of 23.3 per cent over the decade (Table 6.6). This roughly is the increase in employment.

The population of the district has grown at 15.5 per cent, with female population growing at a higher rate than the male population and urban population growing faster than the rural population. The number of workers has grown at a faster rate than the population itself. Female worker population has grown by more than that of male worker population and urban workers by more than that of rural workers. The highest growth in worker population is witnessed for urban females and the lowest for rural male workers.

Looking at the main and marginal workers classification and growth therein, it is noticed that while the number of main workers has grown at 33 per cent; that of marginal workers has declined by 17 per cent. Female main workers growth has been higher as against deceleration in the marginal category, by a significant extent. Therefore, over the years, part time and temporary work is declining in importance and whole time and regular work has picked up. This is a positive sign. But, even in these categories, it is the urban areas that are showing dynamism than the rural areas. In the urban areas, both female marginal and main workers have grown at higher rates. Figure 6.5 provides information on per cent change of workers in Raichur District.

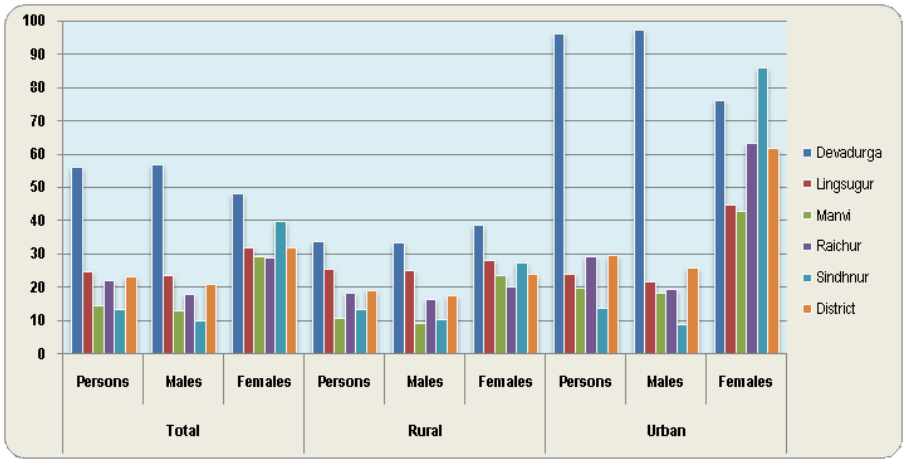
Across taluks, Devadurga taluk records higher than the state level change in all worker categories,

Table 6.6: Change in Population and Workers in Raichur District, 2001-2011 (%)

Category	Population			Total Workers		
	T	R	U	T	R	U
Males	14.6	14.5	14.7	19.1	17.6	24.0
Females	16.5	15.8	18.4	29.8	26.1	61.9
All	15.5	15.2	16.5	23.3	21.3	32.3

Source: Census Documents

Figure 6.5: Change of Total Workers in Raichur District (%), 2001-2011



Source: Census documents

while Lingsugur records higher change in rural and total worker categories. Raichur records higher change for total urban workers and females; and Sindhnur for all female categories. It may also be seen that worker growth in Sindhnur (all males and urban males); Manvi (rural males) and Raichur (rural females) has been very low. Thus, in general, employment growth is no doubt spread out, but more visible in Devadurga and Lingsugur; in urban areas; and among females.

Non-worker population has generally declined but is very high in urban areas at 64 per cent and among urban women at 81 per cent. While in the rural areas it is 49 per cent. The non-workers ratio has declined throughout the



district and steeply for females and urban areas. This only shows that either work opportunities for women are not being created in required magnitude or they do not have the required skills to participate in economic activities. Therefore, it can be said to be a covert form of unemployment rather than unwillingness to work. Among taluks, Devadurga taluk has registered the largest decline and least in Manvi. While in Devadurga, the decline has been in rural non-workers, in other taluks it is in respect of urban non-workers. It is an indication of rise in dependency status of women due to non-availability of suitable work opportunities.

Having looked at the employment scenario, let us study the unemployment scenario in Raichur district. No reliable data is available on unemployment at taluk level and we need to use surrogate indicators. One of the main sources, with many limitations, is the employment exchange data. Since, it is the educated people who register in the exchanges, others are obviously left off. There were 14,145 people registered in the employment exchange, which approximates to 10.2 per cent of the total workers in the district. Of course, it does not capture the full picture, yet it is indicative of the extent of unemployment, at least among the uneducated youths. The figures reveal that nearly half of the registrants were those studying upto SSLC. Nearly 80 per cent of them were non-technical youths with SSLC, PUC, BA or such other courses. Thus, the skill levels are very poor because of which they may not be employed elsewhere.

The figures show that the percentage of female registrants in respective educational category was 31 per cent overall, it was considerable in many of the educational categories like B.Com, stenography, typists, CPEd/ Nursing, B.Ed/B.P.Ed, PUC, B.A., and others. Suitable avenues need to be created to these sections for better utilization of their capabilities.

6.7. Main and Marginal Workers

The present section deals with the magnitude of workers in Raichur district and their composition across category of work, gender and rural-urban residence. To begin with Figure 6.6 provides data on the share of main workers in total workers of the district.

The share of main workers in the total workers is high but decreasing and contrarily, the share of marginal workers is low and increasing. Across taluks, Devadurga and Lingsugur have a higher proportion of marginal workers. In all the taluks, the share of main workers has decreased, steepest being in Raichur and Manvi taluks. Between urban and rural areas, the share of main workers to total workers has decreased in all taluks. A higher

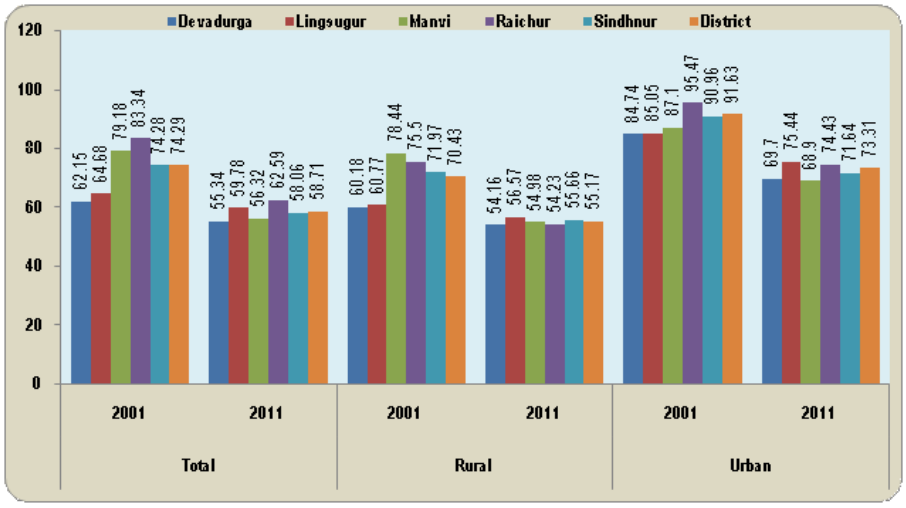
decline has occurred mainly in Manvi, Raichur and Sindhnur taluks in both rural and urban areas. Whereas in Manvi and Raichur decline in rural main workers is dominant, in Sindhnur, it is the urban main workers.

Another dimension of work status is the share of female workers in total workers as shown in Figure 6.7. That the males dominate the workforce is reiterated by the data. Not only their share is more than two-thirds, it has also been increasing.

At the district level 41 per cent of workers are females. Compared to this, Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks have higher values, but the maximum value is 44 per cent in Devadurga and minimum being in Raichur taluk at 37 per cent. As against decline in the share of female workers at the state level, at the district level, the share has increased and this is true of all taluks except Lingsugur wherein it declined very marginally. While female workers' share in the urban areas has increased in all taluks, in the rural areas, it has increased in Devadurga, Manvi and Raichur taluks. Thus, gender inequality in terms of lower proportion of women workers is noticed. The inequality is stark in the urban areas wherein hardly one-fourth of the workers are females. But the share of women workers is gradually increasing, more so in the urban areas. Is this indicative of more work opportunities being created for women, especially in the urban areas? Hence, increasing work opportunities for women in urban areas is an important policy proposition.

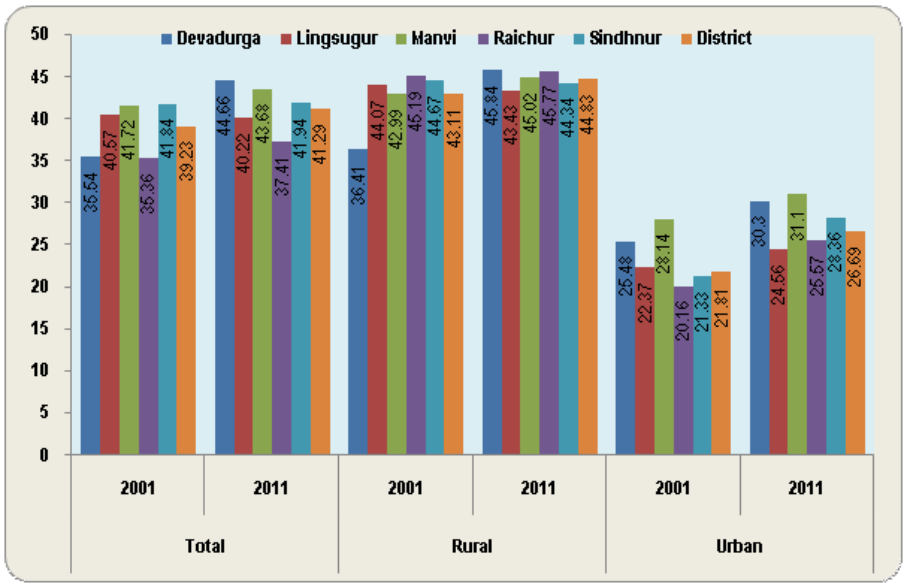
Considering the trends together, it is observed that the share of female workers is increasing; the share of marginal workers is increasing especially in Devadurga, Raichur

Table 6.6: Share of Main Workers to Total Workers in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011(%)



Source: Census Documents

Figure 6.7: Share of Female Workers to Total Workers, in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011



Source: Census Documents



and Sindhnur taluks. Thus whatever increase in employment has occurred, most of it has occurred for females and in the marginal category which is not a positive sign.

6.8. Work Participation Rate (WPR)

WPR is defined as the proportion of workers to total population. It is higher in Raichur district compared to that at the state level (Table 6.7).

The male WPR has increased in Devadurga, Raichur and Lingsugur taluks but declined in Manvi taluk, Similarly, female WPR increased at the district level, in Manvi, Raichur and more sharply in Devadurga taluks and has declined in Sindhnur taluk. In Raichur district, the WPR in rural areas is higher than that in the urban areas. The rural WPR has declined and the urban WPR increased in the district, as against a general increase for the state as a whole. But, Sindhnur and Manvi taluks have experienced a moderate decline in the rural WPRs, where as Manvi has recorded reduction in urban WPR also. Table 6.8 provides further information on the WPRs in the district.

As already noted the rural WPR is higher than the urban WPR and male WPR is higher than the female WPR, but the differences are declining. At the state level, whereas WPR for males has increased in both rural and urban areas, it has declined for females in rural areas. In Raichur district, both of them have increased. In rural areas, WPR for males is almost constant, but has increased for females. But in urban areas, WPR has increased for both gender categories. However, a marginal decrease in female WPR is noticed in rural areas of Lingsugur, Raichur and Sindhnur taluks. Urban WPR for males and females have increased in all taluks except Manvi taluk. It seems that migration to nearby cities is more in all taluks except in Manvi taluk. It is also possible that the women's work is not effectively captured in the census data.

6.9. Occupational Pattern

Similar to income shifts, occupational structure is also expected to change from agriculture to non-agricultural activities and this is evident in Raichur district

Table 6.7: Work Participation Rate in Raichur District, 2001& 2011

Taluk	Total		Male		Female		Rural		Urban	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Devadurga	49.02	59.32	62.71	65.98	35.11	52.72	50.05	61.16	39.64	43.40
Lingsugur	51.93	52.60	61.05	62.63	42.60	42.49	57.07	57.00	35.32	38.21
Manvi	58.58	57.90	68.15	65.97	48.98	50.01	60.45	59.94	43.98	43.86
Raichur	48.28	51.03	61.63	64.09	34.58	38.05	62.51	61.47	35.70	41.13
Sindhnur	56.40	56.22	65.76	65.68	47.08	46.87	59.88	59.25	39.69	43.58
District	52.84	54.92	63.82	64.76	41.73	45.16	58.34	59.66	37.12	41.37
State	51.53	51.68	65.65	66.94	36.95	36.04	57.18	56.15	40.77	44.66

Source: Census Documents

Table 6.8: WPR by Gender and Rural and Urban Areas in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	Rural						Urban					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Devadurga	63.29	66.68	36.66	55.72	50.05	61.16	57.57	60.06	20.75	26.50	39.64	43.40
Lingsugur	63.39	64.27	50.66	49.68	57.07	57.00	53.64	57.28	16.17	18.89	35.32	38.21
Manvi	68.93	66.76	51.98	53.30	60.45	59.94	62.17	60.59	25.18	27.21	43.98	43.86
Raichur	68.19	67.28	56.78	55.76	62.51	61.47	55.91	61.10	14.68	21.08	35.70	41.13
Sindhnur	66.80	66.48	53.08	52.13	59.88	59.25	60.93	62.39	17.37	24.74	39.69	43.58
District	66.30	66.26	50.37	53.14	58.34	59.66	56.86	60.51	16.53	22.14	37.12	41.37
State	67.84	68.09	46.33	44.01	57.18	56.15	61.56	65.16	18.70	23.41	40.77	44.66

Source: Census Documents

also. The census classification gives classification of workers according to four major categories, viz., cultivators, agricultural labourers, household industry workers and other workers. Accordingly, Table 6.9 furnishes percentage distribution of workers for these categories in 2001 and 2011.

The percentage of workers engaged in agricultural activities as cultivators and agricultural labourers has declined from about 73 per cent in 2001 to 70 per cent in 2011, whereas for the state the decline is from 56 per cent to 49 per cent. Hence, a huge number of workers is still dependent on agriculture in the district. A marginal increase is visible with respect to percentage workers in household industries. The district has a lower proportion of workers in household industries than in the state.

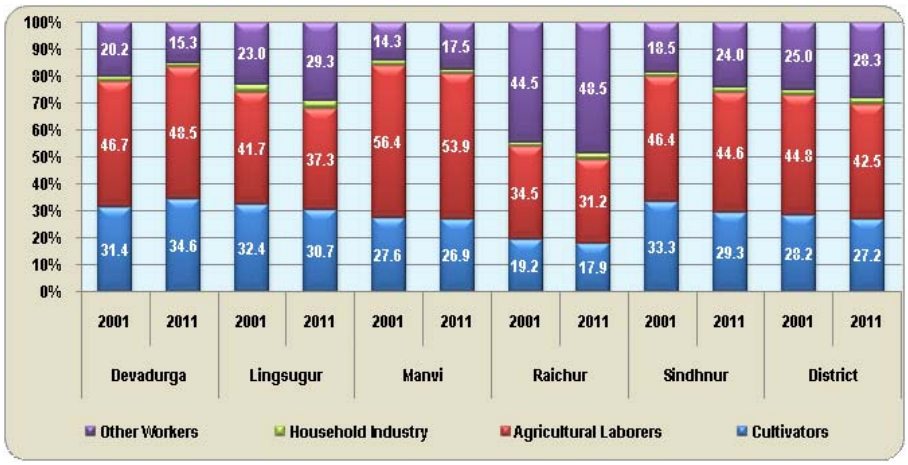
With a small decline in agricultural population and decline in workers in household industries. The district has just 28 per cent of its workers in other activities, which is substantially lower than at the state level (47 per cent). Thus, the district is predominantly agricultural with very low and slow diversification towards non-agriculture. Probably this is one of the reasons for relative backwardness of the district. Figure 6.8 presents the occupational pattern of the district.

Table 6.9: Occupational Pattern in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011 (as % of total workers)

Taluk	Cultivators		Agricultural Labourers		Household Industry		Other workers	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Devadurga	31.35	34.64	46.66	48.49	1.75	1.54	20.24	15.33
Lingsugur	32.40	30.67	41.66	37.33	2.94	2.68	22.99	29.31
Manvi	27.57	26.89	56.36	53.92	1.75	1.73	14.32	17.46
Raichur	19.24	17.93	34.51	31.16	1.73	2.39	44.53	48.52
Sindhnur	33.27	29.34	46.42	44.56	1.79	2.07	18.52	24.03
District	28.21	27.15	44.83	42.45	1.98	2.11	24.99	28.28
State	29.25	23.61	26.46	25.67	4.08	3.28	40.21	47.44

Source: Census Documents

Figure 6.8: Occupational Pattern in Raichur District, 2001 & 2011



Source: Census Documents

Across taluks, Raichur taluk had very low percentage of workers in agricultural sector in 2011 (49 per cent), while all the other taluks had more than 70 per cent of their workers engaged in agriculture as cultivators and agricultural labourers. In the remaining taluks, it is nearer to or greater than 80 per cent. Except Devadurga, the proportion of cultivators and agricultural labourers to total workers has declined. Devadurga, Lingsugur and Sindhnur continue to have 30 per cent or more workers as cultivators; Manvi has more than 50 per cent of its workers as agricultural labourers, and in Devadurga and Sindhnur, this proportion is 45 per cent or more. Hence, a general pattern is that, except Raichur, the occupational pattern has not diversified significantly into non-agricultural activities. This is reflected in very low proportion of workers in other activities in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur. Hence, there is a need to promote non-agricultural activities for increasing employment and income earning opportunities for the people, especially in the rural areas.

Table 6.10: Occupational Pattern (Rural and Urban) in Raichur District, 2011 (%)

Taluk	Rural				Urban			
	CUL	AL	HHI	OTH	CUL	AL	HHI	OTH
Devadurga	36.45	50.44	1.53	11.58	12.67	24.76	1.65	60.92
Lingsugur	35.36	42.82	2.58	19.25	7.82	10.57	3.20	78.41
Manvi	29.03	56.95	1.62	12.40	6.79	25.48	2.78	64.95
Raichur	29.25	49.72	2.29	18.73	1.89	4.86	2.52	90.72
Sindhnur	33.65	50.57	1.73	14.05	4.92	10.46	4.02	80.60
District	32.65	50.34	1.94	15.08	4.50	9.97	2.85	82.68
State	34.27	36.41	2.82	26.49	2.56	4.47	4.17	88.80

Note: CUL: Cultivators; AL: Agricultural Labourers; HHI: Household Industry; OTH: Other Activities

Source: Census Documents

6.9.1. Rural-Urban Occupational Pattern

Table 6.10 provides the information on the percentage distribution of workers across the major occupational categories for the year 2011.

As could be expected, in the rural areas, the agricultural activities employ majority of workers. Cultivators and agricultural labourers account for 73 per cent of workers in rural areas. In urban areas, on the other hand, the other activities (industry and services) account for almost 83 per cent of employment. Agricultural labour is the single largest employment option in the rural areas of Raichur district, while other activities are so in the urban areas. Across taluks, Raichur has 91 per cent of its workers engaged in other activities in urban areas, and Sindhnur has about 81 per cent. In Devadurga and Manvi taluks, nearly one-third of urban workers are engaged in

agricultural activities. Thus, the underdevelopment has spilled over from the rural to urban areas in these taluks. Household industry is significant in urban Sindhnur and Lingsugur. Hence, promotion of non-agricultural work opportunities should be priority of the policy makers.

Salient features of occupational shifts of Raichur district are:

- The occupational pattern is still dominated by agricultural sector
- The shares of cultivators and agricultural labourers are still high and have declined in all taluks except Devadurga;
- The share of household workers too has declined in all taluks.
- The share of other workers has increased very slowly at the district level. But Sindhnur, Raichur and Lingsugur taluks have witnessed notable increases in their employment in other sectors.

Since agriculture is a low productive and slow-growth sector, excessive dependence on it will lead to slow overall growth. Therefore, policy should be to promote non-farm activities in all the taluks and making agriculture more employment generating.

6.10. Child Labour

Child labour refers to those labourers who are working in hazardous or non-hazardous occupations in the age group of 5-14 years. It is common to find children working in all sorts of occupations, especially hotels, automobile sheds, agriculture and other informal activities. It is a manifestation of household poverty, which is exploited by employers who do not pay adult wages. It is violation of child as well as human rights. It stunts the development of the child during his/her crucial learning years and leads to irreparable physical and psychological damage, impairing for life, his/her opportunities for social and economic mobility. Child labour also creates a vicious cycle of illiteracy and low income, while simultaneously depriving adults of employment and higher wages. The prevalence of child labour also deprives the society of an educated, skilled and productive workforce which could form the basis of rapid economic growth. That is why child labour is banned in all societies. As a result although children are hired as laborers, it is usually not revealed and hence reliable estimates of it are not available. Of course, Census 2001 provided the worker details by age categories, through which we could gauge the extent of child labour. Similar results for Census 2011 are not yet published. Hence, other sources have to be relied upon for studying the incidence of the problem.

Poverty and assetlessness being high in Raichur, poor households perceive their children to be assets for supplementing the income of the household. Either they are sent to

Since agriculture is a low productive and slow-growth sector, excessive dependence on it will lead to slow overall growth. Therefore, policy should be to promote non-farm activities in all the taluks and making agriculture more employment generating.

work or are engaged at home to take care of the younger siblings when parents go for work. This is more so during the harvesting seasons when the demand for agricultural labour is quite high.

As per the report of Labour Department of Raichur District, as many as 23,428 child labour were identified, of whom 20,293 were mainstreamed into schooling. The Department filed 174 cases and imposed total fine of Rs.1,02,250 on the employers of child labour.

Under the National Child Labour Project (NCLP) 16 residential schools are run and in each school financial assistance of Rs. 780 per child per month is provided. Many awareness programmes and training programmes have been conducted under the aegis of the Department to tackle the problem of child labour in the district.

6.11 Radar Analysis for Living Standard

The radars (Figures 6.9 to 6.10) show that PCI is higher in Manvi and Racihur taluks and low in other three taluks, especially Devadurga. The WPR is higher in Devadurga, Raichur and Lingsugur taluks, but the higher percentage of workers working as agricultural labourers in Manvi, Devadurga and Sindhnur represent the lower potentiality for growth in PCI.

Contrarily, the proportion of non-agricultural workers is high in Raichur and Lingsugur taluks. In all taluks, the percentage of main workers is higher, more so in Devadurga. There is considerable gender disparity in agricultural wages, Raichur and Devadurga taluks report higher gap while in other taluks it is lower. Female wage rates are higher in Sindhnur and Manvi, which are agriculturally dominant. In other taluks, migration is a common feature. The proportion of BPL cardholders, a proxy for poverty, is high in Devadurga, Raichur and Lingsugur taluks, but lower in Manvi and Sindhnur taluks. Probably, the canal irrigation in the

Figure 6.9: Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 1

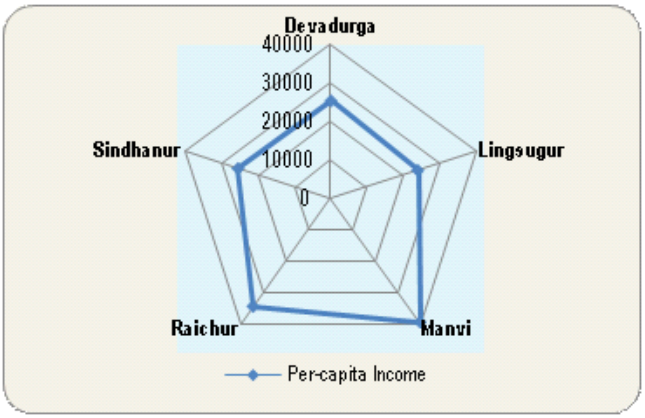


Figure 6.10: Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 2

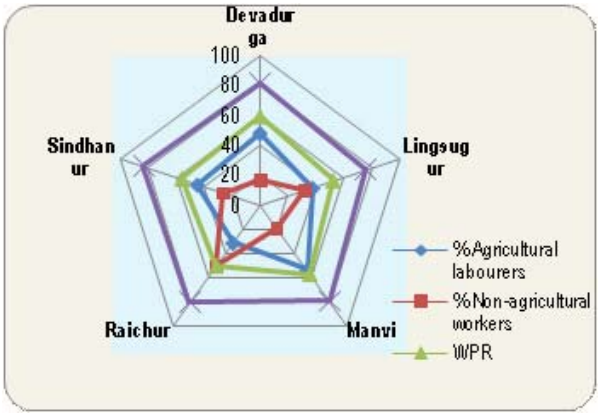


Figure 6.11: Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 3

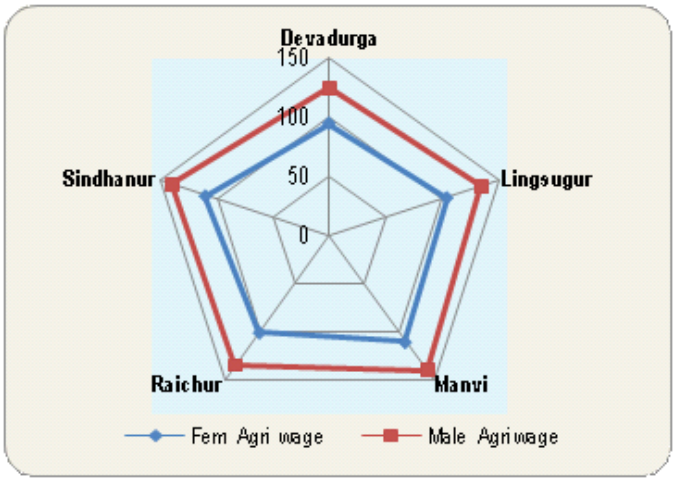
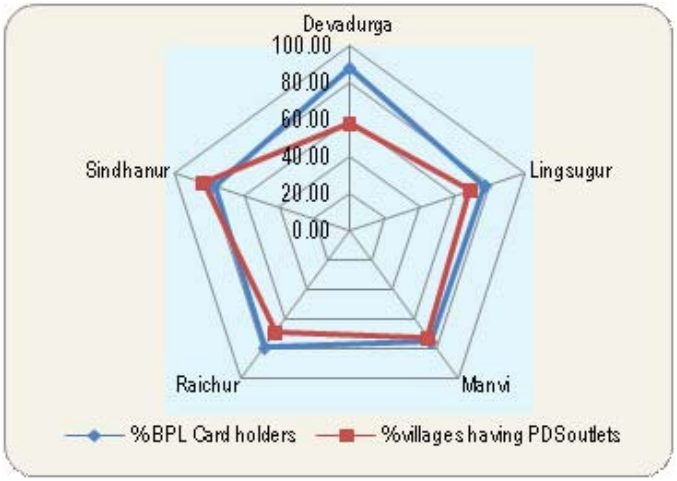


Figure 6.12: Radar of Livelihood Indicators - 4



latter two taluks may be assuring better incomes to people. This is also reflected in relative proportions of non-agricultural employment in respective taluks; and also in the percentage household with none of the modern assets like TV, telephone/mobile, scooters and cars; the proportion is very high for Devadurga, Sindhnur and Manvi and lower in Raichur and Lingsugur taluks.

6.12. Small Area Study - HD Aspects of Migration

6.12.1. Introduction

Seasonal migration is a common feature of livelihoods option of the rural poor. Lack of or Irregular agricultural employment at low wages and increasing urbanization are the major reasons for such migration. Migration is also a coping and risk reducing strategy wherein indebtedness may push the people to migrate in search of better paid jobs in urban areas. For a backward region like Raichur, seasonal migration has been an inevitable part of the livelihood strategy of rural poor. The prospects of increased wages in the short run undermine the human development losses which are visible only in the long run. Apart from deprivation from schooling, households migrating from rural to urban areas will have to give up the benefits of the programmes like PDS, social security schemes, etc. to which they are entitled. Due to these the skill and nutritional levels of people may decline thereby perpetuating their poverty. Migrants are denied of the basic human rights and are often forced to take shelter in unauthorised encroachments without the minimum basic facilities. More importantly, short-term migrants are not unionised, they work in the unorganised sector, they do not have written job contracts and state governments are yet to ensure that the legislations protecting them are properly enforced.

6.12.2. The Present Study

In the framework of the issues outlined above, the present study

seeks to inquire into the socio-economic status of migrant households, impact of migration on their employment and income, HD implications of migration in terms of access to schooling, nutritional benefits and other government programmes. Based on discussion with district and taluk level officials as well as NGO functionaries, Gurgunta gram panchayat of Lingsugur taluk was purposively chosen for the study. The timing of the study coincided with 'Muharram' festival for the celebration of which majority of migrants had returned to the village. The gram panchayat officials helped in locating the households and snow ball sampling technique also helped in locating sample households. In all 46 households were surveyed using a structured schedule.

The most common feeling was that if they continue work in the village itself, they would be intermittently unemployed the wage would be adequate.

6.12.3. Profile of Sample Respondents:

61 per cent of the sample population were Hindus and remaining were Muslims; while 54 per cent belonged to SC/ST, 39 per cent belonged to minority, and the remaining 7 per cent belonged to OBC categories. As could be expected 85 per cent of the sample respondents were poor having BPL ration cards. Of the 15 per cent households that did not possess ration cards majority were from SC and ST sections. This was so because they were unable to complete the formalities to get a card or they were disinterested as they would not come regularly to buy the ration. In fact, all of the sample OBC, 94 per cent of minority and 76 per cent of SC/ST households possessed BPL ration cards. It means 24 per cent of SC/ST and 6 per cent of minority households did not possess any ration card. However, housing status was relatively better owing to either government programmes or income earned due to migration or both. More than half of the respondents (54 per cent) are residing in pucca houses; it being 72 per cent of minority, 67 per cent for OBC households and 40 per cent for SC/ST households.

6.12.4. Reasons for Migration

There were multiple reasons for a household to migrate. 85 per cent of the respondents were compelled to migrate to earn for repayment of loan, taken for various purposes. Nearly, two-thirds of the respondents (63per cent), said that the work in the village is neither adequate nor regular. 30 per cent of the respondents stated that the work was non-remunerative as the wage was very low. Thus, the most common feeling was that if they continue work in the village itself, they would be intermittently unemployed the wage would be adequate. 24 per cent of the respondents mentioned that they needed extra money to spend on social and cultural activities like marriages and hence they migrated. Similarly, 17 per cent migrated because of the drudgery of rural

works; and another 9 per cent said that they migrate because their neighbours, relatives and friends migrated. Thus, lack of regular remunerative and adequate work in the villages and compulsion to spend on various activities compel the people to migrate and earn the required money.

The respondents were also asked about their perception about migration and the results reveal that majority of them (59 per cent) migrate due to compulsion, may be of repaying loan and the remaining 41 per cent report that they have migrate to fulfil the basic needs of their families. It may be meeting expenditures on food, health, education or social function. That none of them say that migration is a good thing is reflective of the agony they may be undergoing and lack of alternative which has forced them to migrate. Across social groups, majority of minority households (72 per cent) reported migration to meet basic necessities. However, all of the OBC households and three-fourths of SC/ST households reported that they migrate out of compulsion, especially to repay debts. Thus, migration from Raichur district occurs due to sheer compulsion and is a distress induced phenomenon indicating deprivation and is not considered as a good option.

6.12.5. Characteristics of Migration

Place of Migration: A majority of sample respondents (91 per cent) migrated to Bangalore; 4 per cent to Pune and the remaining to places like Mangalore, Goa, Mumbai and other cities. There was no migration to villages at all.

Duration of Migration: Since the village selected falls in a backward region, the respondents stated that they have migrated for work permanently and stay at migrated place for the whole year. Members of the family who do not migrate like aged parents, school going children and sick, stay back in the village, for whom they remit money on a regular basis. They visit the village during festivals, fairs and whenever they are required to. For instance, for filling up applications to avail government schemes, buy ration, voting, etc., they visit the village and return. Thus, the respondents are permanent migrants who return occasionally. During the time of the field work, Mohurrum festival had neared. This festival is celebrated with lot of devotion irrespective of religion and caste in the village and almost of them had returned.

Composition of Migrants: How many members from the family migrate and what problems do they face in the work place and what problems the residual members in the village face have important implications for HD. Since the migration is of longer term, it is not wrong to expect that majority of the households migrate along with all family members. 54 per cent of the sample households migrate with

Migration from Raichur district occurs due to sheer compulsion and is a distress induced phenomenon indicating deprivation which is not considered as a good option.



the entire family; whereas all sample OBC households reported so; among minority households it is about two-thirds and 40 per cent among SC/ST households. The reason for the observed pattern might be the extent of requirement of money. Usually, the males are expected to migrate, leaving behind the females, children and aged at the village. However, if the intensity of monetary requirement is high or if the migration has been taking place for a long time, he would prefer his family to join him. But, there is also the practice of leaving behind children and aged so that children will attend schools and aged, who would not adjust in a new environment, will take care of children at the village. When the sample households were inquired with the above presumption, a totally different scenario is witnessed. Half of the sample households have migrated with all the members including the aged and children. Of the remaining, 37per cent households have migrated consisting of adult male and female members, leaving the aged and children in the village. In 5 households (11per cent), migration was by only male members, and in the remaining 1 household, the adult female alone migrated. Thus, majority seek to go in multiple numbers so that they can work and earn more.

Place of Residence and Basic Amenities: When the people migrate to other places, residence is a serious constraint. They are, at times, forced to stay on the work site and even on the pavements. Many sample migrants went at the behest of a contractor, who also looked after their stay. About 48 per cent of sample migrants stayed in the place indicated by the contractor, while another 46 per cent resided in empty sites. Of these, 2 households reported that they work for BSNL for cable laying and they do not reside in any particular place, rather they cook food and sleep beside the road, and depend on any source of water they get in the area where they work. The remaining 6 per cent who reported that they stayed in rented houses probably are the ones who have been migrating to the same place for a long period of time. Across the social groups, majority of the minorities lived in empty sites, majority of OBC and SC/ST migrants lived in the place indicated by the contractor.

Obviously, they do not have access to basic amenities like electricity, water and sanitation. As far as access to water is concerned, 24 per cent of sample households were not clear about the source of water, i.e., they were obtaining it from any source available and sometimes purchasing it. 41 per cent got water from nearby public taps and another 22 per cent from nearby hand pumps. 13 per cent reported they got water through tankers. With dependence on public tap as a source, they are always

vulnerable to magnitude as well as conflict between themselves and local people. As far as sanitation is concerned, the situation is quite precarious, especially for the females.

6.12.6. Work Characteristics at the Migrant Place

Two-thirds (65per cent) of the migrant workers mentioned that they get work through the contractor who takes commission ranging from Rs. 20 to Rs. 60 per labour per day. The remaining 35 per cent said, they get work directly through their own contacts. All male workers reported to be working in construction activities receiving wages ranging from Rs. 200 to Rs. 350, the average wage being Rs. 257 per day. This is substantially higher than what they would earn in their native or surrounding villages. So is the case with female workers who also were engaged in construction activity. Unfortunately, the wage differential exists here also with females receiving wages ranging from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300, averaging at Rs. 170 per day. While, the male workers were engaged in semi-skilled jobs such as masonry, bar bending, centring, etc., females were performing earth works. There are no amenities at the work site including drinking water and toilet facility and the workers are compelled to arrange them on their own. Though income figures were not revealed exactly, 80 to 90 per cent of their annual household income is derived from migration alone.

6.12.7. Human Development Consequences of Migration

The main purpose of the survey was to focus on HD impacts due to migration. Except for regular employment and higher wages, migration could be considered as a sign of deprivation and vulnerability. The migrants face dual seclusion, first from their kith and kin at a far off place; and second, are not in the mainstream in the place they are residing in. They also face the problem of frequent eviction, police atrocity, security of women and aged, educating their children, access to government schemes, especially, PDS and many more. 28per cent of respondents (14 respondents) reported to have faced problems. The major problem was frequent change of residence with 15 per cent of the respondents being forced to change their residence which makes it difficult for them to plan for basic amenities or children's education. Similarly, 7 per cent (3 respondents) felt that they were deprived of food distribution and they have to make frequent trips to their native villages for buying the grains allocated under PDS. They feel that they should be allowed to buy grains from PDS shops in the places where they work. Very few households (2 respondents, 4 per cent) were concerned about their children's education. 27

Except for regular employment and higher wages, migration could be considered as a sign of deprivation and vulnerability.

respondent households migrated along with their children, and of them only 9 (33 per cent) sent their children to school. In case of the remaining households, few of them were not of school going age and therefore other children were forced to take care of them. Of the 9 school going children 7 attended the local government school and 2 were enrolled in private schools to avoid the risk of travelling far in the city to attend government schools. One household responded that it had experienced harassment of women at the migrated place. As far as police are concerned, the general opinion is that they never came into their contact and is safer to be away from them. Further, the households never approached the police for any of their complaints. Surprisingly, no household felt that security of the aged was a problem.

6.12.7.1. Child labour and Education

The survey revealed that, out of the 22 households with children also migrated along with parents, 11 respondents (50 per cent) stated that they send their children for work who usually work as helpers in construction related activities. The wage they get ranges from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 with an average wage of Rs. 122 per day. This not only seriously deprives them of education but also pushes them into a vicious circle of low skills, low productivity, low wages and low standard of living. 19 (41 per cent) migrated households who leave back their children in village have made arrangements for sending them to school. Children of all these 19 households are enrolled in the village government school. 68 per cent (13 households) reported that their children are regular to school; 63 per cent (12 households) responded that their children study well and their performance is satisfactory. The average expenditure reported is Rs. 2,985 per year by these households. 1 respondent informed that their son is studying in Madarasa at Lingsugur and the religious institution takes care of all the cost of education. 2 of migrated households (4.3 per cent) have enrolled their children for school in Bangalore, the place of migration, in private schools. They stated that their children are regular to school and their performance at studies is satisfactory. The average expenditure per student reported is about Rs. 17,000 per year. Because care and supervision is absent, children (in the age of school going children) of 16 households are either dropouts or currently not enrolled in the school. Out of these 16 households, children in 11 households are going for work along with their parents. In the remaining 6 households where children go to school, they are occasionally sent for work.



6.12.7.2. Health status

The migrant population did not report any serious health problem, but they were susceptible to

common illnesses. As far as males are concerned, 30 per cent (14 respondents) reported common illnesses like fever and one of them suffered from malaria. Similarly, among females, 23 per cent (11 households) suffered from the following illnesses in the previous year: common fever and cold (7), malaria (1), diarrhoea (2) and uterus related problem (1). They consulted private physicians but did not access the government health facility. No death was reported at the work place, but they neither have security, nor insurance at the worksite. In only one household, a male member died, but in a road accident. Majority of the households were unable to recall health expenditure incurred.

6.12.8. Availing Benefits out of Government Schemes

Being away from their native places deprives the migrant population of many government schemes like ration, educational schemes, social security pensions and MGNREGS. As observed earlier, 15.2 per cent of the households did not possess ration cards which makes them vulnerable to food availability. 24 per cent of SC/ST and 6 per cent of other caste households did not possess ration cards. Although the households are aware about free textbooks, free uniform, mid day meal, bicycle and other incentives of going to school, many of them did not avail the benefits as they had no valid residence proof. So is the case with social security pensions. The households are aware but they are reluctant to go through the procedure involved in applying for the schemes. Residence proof is a major obstacle in availing benefits from such schemes.



6.12.9. MGNREGS

MGNREGS is being implemented to stem migration and provide minimum 100 days of employment to unskilled workers, within the vicinity of their residence. The survey revealed that hardly 17 sample households (37per cent) are aware of MGNREGS; a mere 30 per cent (14) of them possessed the job cards; and only 20 per cent households (9) reported to have demanded employment. Sadly enough, only 3 households reported to have worked in MGNREGS for 3, 3 and 14 days, respectively, among whom only 2 households received wages. Thus, it is a dismal situation of a major programme.

6.12.10. Summing Up

Migration is a necessity for poor households in a backward region who move out in search of better and more remunerative avenues. Raichur district being a drought prone district, migration is a common feature. They migrate to far off places, engage in unskilled work and earn income, higher than what they could in their native villages. Need to repay the loans, lack of employment opportunities in the village, social commitments and imitation effect are some of the

reasons for migration. Many of them migrate with the whole family thereby jeopardizing the situation of children, who are deprived of schooling; and the aged, who might feel displaced at an advanced age. People from all social groups migrated and majority of them were at the mercy of contractors for employment as well as residence, for whom they paid hefty commission. Many households did not send their children to school, but forced them to work. Thus, a scenario of deprivation is present all around. Children do not go to school, many households do not avail the benefits of government schemes, especially PDS and social security pensions. Knowledge about and participation in MGNREGS is the least. There are vulnerabilities associated with frequent change of residence, security of women and availability of basic amenities in the place of work.

There is a need for temporary structural changes in protocols so that the migrant poor are issued identity documents (voter card and ration card) that will allow them to access government social security schemes such as subsidised food. A policy through which a household can avail benefits where ever it resides needs to be evolved. The information technology can leverage this. Increase in the number of anganwadi centres (to provide children, pregnant and lactating mothers with supplementary nutrition) and government schools in areas where migrant workers reside to enhance schooling and nutritional benefits to these sections. Improving skill levels through vocational training will help the children to break the cycle of poverty and attain higher HD status.

Similarly, awareness about the government schemes needs to be further made extensive so that people could avail them and stay back. Of course investment in backward area development is the ultimate measure to reduce migration and related deprivations. With extension of irrigation facilities to a major portion of the district and conferring the 371(J) status is likely to have a favourable impact.

6.13. Concluding Remarks

Attainment of higher HD levels is contingent upon providing better livelihood options to the people. Better natural resources, productive avenues of employment and suitable policies would ensure a decent and sustainable livelihood to the people thereby promoting HD. Raichur district being located in a rain shadow area with harsh weather condition, the prospects for higher employment and income are limited and hence the district has high levels of poverty.

It is evident in the district's share of income in state's income that has declined between 2004-05 and 2008-09. The per capita income of the district continued to be lower than the state PCSDP. Sector wise,

agriculture contributes about a quarter of the district income and total primary sector nearly one-third. In the secondary sector manufacturing contributes little and construction dominates. Similarly, in the tertiary sector, except for banking and insurance all major service activities have contributed lower to the district income. Thus, contrary to the usual tendency, agriculture has increased its share; manufacturing has a very small component in the district's economy and major services are declining. Primary based activities dominate the income, agriculture continuing to be the major driver of growth followed to a certain extent of manufacturing. Therefore, promotion of industrial development must be initiated in taluks of Devadurga, Lingsugur and Sindhnur.

Despite vast land area available for cultivation, rainfall is not adequate as a result of which productivity is lower. This has contributed to the relative backwardness of the district. Food grains dominate the district with an area share of more than 73 per cent of NSA. Among the food grains, cereals are predominantly grown which occupy more than half of the NSA and pulses occupy about 22 per cent of NSA. Individually paddy occupies the largest area of about 27 per cent of NSA followed by jowar with 16 per cent. The district is endowed with a vast canal irrigated area and the NIA is 42 per cent. Canals are the major sources accounting for 87 per cent of NIA. But irrigation and cropping intensities are lower than elsewhere in the state. Although livelihoods are extensively supported by allied activities, they need to be strengthened institutionally and otherwise.

Poverty is a serious problem in the district, but as elsewhere difficulty is encountered in identification of the poor and thereby depriving of benefits due to them. As far as MGNREGS is concerned, the average number of person days worked amounts to a mere 36 days per household; not all job card holders are provided with employment and there is also a considerable variation of it across taluks. Being a backward region with concentration of poverty, it has failed to utilize the scheme to its fullest potential. Migration still being rampant, people prefer to migrate rather than work in government schemes.

The number of workers has grown at a faster rate than the population itself. Female worker population has grown by more than that of male worker population and urban workers by more than that of rural workers. The highest growth in worker population is witnessed for urban females and the lowest for rural male workers.

While the number of main workers has grown at 18 per cent, that of marginal workers has declined by

Since agriculture is a low productive and slow-growth sector, excessive dependence on it will lead to slow overall growth.

4 per cent. Female workers have recorded higher growth in the main category, but decelerated in marginal category. Significantly, the non-worker ratio has declined throughout the district and steeply for females; and in urban areas. Candidates who have registered in employment exchange are about 10 per cent of the total workers of the district. Nearly 80 per cent of them are non-technical youths indicating very low skill levels and lack of employability elsewhere.

WPR is higher in Raichur district compared to that at the state level. The male WPR has increased in Devadurga, Raichur and Lingsugur taluks and female WPR increased in Manvi, Raichur and more sharply in Devadurga taluk. A huge number of workers in the district are still dependent on agriculture. A marginal increase is visible with respect to percentage workers in household industries. The district has a lower proportion of workers in household industries than in the state and a very slow diversification towards non-agriculture has taken place. Since agriculture is a low productive and slow-growth sector, excessive dependence on it will lead to slow overall growth. Therefore, policy should be to promote non-farm activities in all the taluks and making agriculture more employment generating.



There were more than 23000 child laborers in the district which is very huge and immediate actions needed to reduce it.

Migration is still a preferred option than participation in government employment generation programmes. People are compelled to migrate for earning higher income and meeting various socio-economic compulsions. But it has huge HD costs in terms of lower education for the children of migrant households.

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Chapter 7

STANDARD OF LIVING



Standard of Living

7.1. Introduction

Human development paradigm believes that income is not an end in itself but a means to achieve broader ends of HD itself. Hence, income alone cannot measure human progress completely. Non-income indicators are found to be more robust than income indicators. HD involves expanding choices and opportunities of people for living with dignity and decency. For this, all human beings must be assured of basic amenities like decent shelter, food, potable water, sanitation, energy, among others. Human beings should also have access to few basic assets that enhance their livelihood opportunities and increase their productivity. Assetlessness is also a feature of poverty. Hence, the government should initiate measures to provide these basic amenities and assets to people which will result in improvement of their health, productivity and ultimately income earning capacity of the people and will have a positive impact on their HD parameters. HDI and CTDI analysis in Chapter 3 indicated a significant association between standard of living indicators and HD attainments.

In this chapter an attempt is made to analyze the availability of a few basic amenities in Raichur district and how they affect the differential HD attainments across taluks. The amenities considered are stock and quality of housing, drinking water, electricity, type of cooking fuel and sanitation. These not only have general HD implications but also have significant gender implications. Availability of potable drinking water, clean fuel and sanitation improves women's health and work characteristics, which has greater positive impact on the household economic and therefore, socio-political situation.

Availability of potable drinking water, clean fuel and sanitation improves women's health and work characteristics, which has greater positive impact on the household economic and therefore, socio-political situation.

7.2. Housing Status

According to Census 2011, there were 3,63,853 listed households in Raichur district of which, 2,67,585 (74 per cent) lived in rural areas and rest 96,268 (26 per cent) lived in urban areas. This was respectively, 2.7 per cent, 3.4 per cent and 1.8 per cent of state population. However, not all these households had houses to live in. Table 7.1 shows that 421 households did not possess any type of house and were classified as houseless in 2011.

Table 7.1: Number of Houseless households in Raichur District, 2011

Description	Rural	Urban	Total
Raichur	314	107	421
% to total Households	0.12	0.11	0.12
Karnataka	10503	10922	21425
% to total Households	0.13	0.20	0.16

Source: Census 2011



A typical Kaccha House

Of these, 314 were living in rural areas and 107 in urban areas. However, compared to the state, the proportion of houseless households was lesser. Thus, Raichur being a predominantly rural district, the problem is severe in the rural areas.

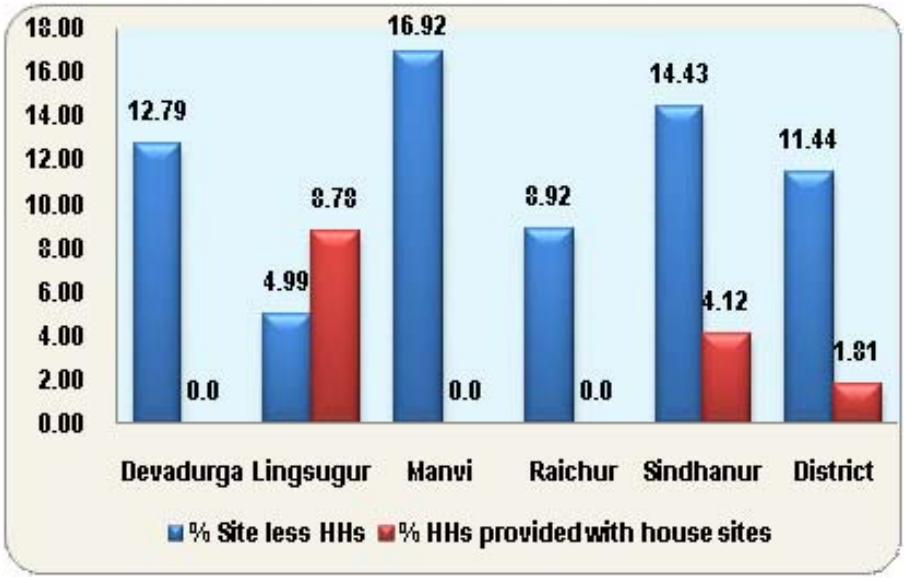
Central and state governments have taken measures to provide houses or support house construction, so that people can live in good houses. Based on a systematic identification of these households, there is a need to provide houses or facilities for construction of houses to these households.

7.3. Site-less Households

The first requirement for construction of a house is a residential site. Owing to shortage of suitable land, and sometimes, the cost of residential site many households do not possess a site for house construction. Apart from this, even today there are large numbers of migrant communities, especially in urban areas, who do not reside at a fixed place. It is one of the factors for such people being deprived of government schemes and assistance. Therefore, house sites should be provided to site-less households and provide assistance to construct houses to houseless households. As far as information on site-less households and number of sites allotted is concerned, the data is not reliable and adequate. Because of this, there are problems in identification of genuine beneficiaries for provision of house sites.

Rajiv Gandhi Rural Housing Corporation and the district administration together implement the schemes relating to house and site allotment. The data provided by these agencies is given in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Site-less Households in Raichur District, 2011-12

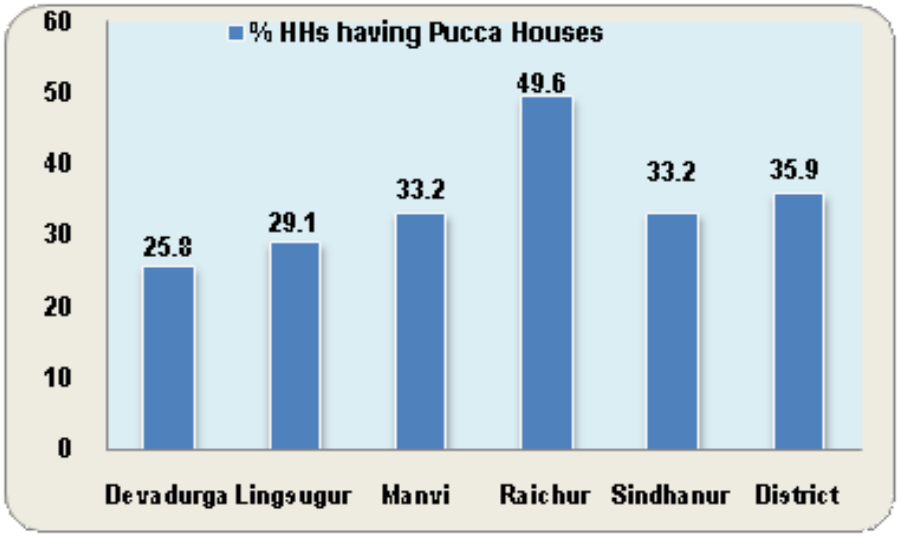


Source: ZP, Raichur

For the district as a whole, 11 per cent percent of households are reported to be site-less. This is a huge proportion and when applied to the 2011 census data, the number works out to 41,625 households. Across the taluks, Manvi reports the highest proportion of households (17 per cent) without sites, followed by Sindhnur and Devadurga (14 and 13 per cent, respectively). The figure also depicts the percentage households provided with house sites by the Government. At the district level, hardly 2 per cent of the households have been provided with house sites as at the end of

March 2012. The performance across taluks is very discouraging with no site being allotted in Devadurga, Manvi and Raichur taluks. In Lingsugur about 9 per cent of siteless households were distributed with house sites and in Sindhnur, that proportion was 4 per cent. Thus, while the proportion of siteless households is high, the number of sited distributed is very low. There are problems relating to identification of beneficiaries, land acquisition and their distribution to beneficiary households.

Figure 7.2: Households having Pucca Houses in Raichur District, 2011



Source: Census documents, 2011

7.4. Households with Pucca Houses

The census collects information on the nature of houses possessed by the households. The houses are classified based on the materials used for wall, flooring and ceiling. The "*Instruction Manual For House listing and Housing*" for the Census of India, 2011, defines a pucca house that has roof material consisting of machine-made tiles, cement tiles, burnt bricks, cement bricks, stones, slate, G.I./metal/ asbestos sheets, concrete; and wall material consisting of stones (duly packed with lime or cement mortar), G.I/metal/asbestos sheets, burnt bricks, cement bricks, concrete. The relevant data has been presented for Raichur district in Figure 7.2.

As could be seen, a little more than one-third of the households reside in pucca houses in Raichur district (36 per cent). Across taluks, Raichur taluk has half of its households residing in pucca houses and other taluks have lower proportion of households living in pucca houses. The district being predominantly rural, in Manvi and Sindhnur about one-third live in pucca houses; in Lingsugur about 30 per cent households reside in pucca houses and in Devadurga only one-fourth of them do so. Since pucca houses have better ventilation, sanitation, electricity connection and other basic amenities; providing facilities for construction of pucca houses contributes to a higher human development via improvement in health and efficiency.

Since pucca houses have better ventilation, sanitation, electricity connection and other basic amenities; providing facilities for construction of pucca houses contributes to a higher human development via improvement in health and efficiency.

Table 7.2 reports the percentage of pucca houses in Raichur district by rural and urban areas for the 2001 and 2011. There has been definitional change with respect to pucca houses in 2001 and 2011 censuses. But with suitable adjustments, the data on availability of permanent houses (2001 census) and pucca houses (2011 census) has been presented.

Table 7.2: Pucca Houses in Raichur District by Rural and Urban Areas, 2011

Taluk	% Permanent Houses			% Pucca Houses		
	2001			2011		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Devadurga	8.33	29.95	10.45	23.73	43.38	25.78
Lingsugur	14.91	50.02	22.93	23.30	47.99	29.14
Manvi	13.95	37.97	16.57	30.43	51.67	33.16
Raichur	15.45	62.80	40.26	30.85	67.32	49.55
Sindhnur	14.41	44.91	19.58	28.35	52.92	33.22
District	13.66	54.35	24.02	27.56	59.05	35.90
State	42.59	77.88	54.86	44.83	76.64	57.69

Source: Census documents, 2011

The district has lower proportion of households living in pucca houses than the state. Within the district, 60 per cent of households live in pucca houses in urban areas of Raichur district compared to more than three-fourths in the state. Similarly, while about 27 per cent of households live in pucca houses in rural areas of Raichur, the corresponding percentage for the state is 45 per cent. The rural-urban disparity is visible across all taluks of the district. Raichur CMC has the largest proportion of households living in pucca houses. But the fact that still one-third of households live in non-pucca houses is a real challenge. Among the other urban areas, Sindhnur and Manvi cities have more than 50 per cent of households residing in pucca houses, while in Lingsugur and Devadurga towns it is 48 and 43 per cent. In rural areas, Raichur taluk has the highest percentage of households residing in pucca houses followed by Manvi; and Lingsugur and Devadurga taluks have the least. That nearly 1,54,000 households live in non-pucca houses is a huge challenge that needs to be addressed in the days to come.

Paradox of housing



Between 2001 and 2011, there has been a notable increase in the proportion of pucca houses in rural areas at the district level. All taluks have recorded increase. As far as urban areas are concerned, while the increase is not substantial, Lingsugur town has reported a lower proportion of pucca houses in 2011 than in 2001. This may be partially due to definitional change also.

7.5. Households without Proper Houses

Having looked into the number of pucca houses, it is equally important to see how many houses are not livable. The census provides a classification of good, livable and dilapidated houses at the district level only. Hence the district level figures are compared with that of state figures. The number of dilapidated houses indicates the effort on the part of the government for making them habitable.

The proportion of dilapidated houses was 6.2 per cent in the district compared to 3.9 per cent at the state level. While in the urban areas, the proportion was 3.6 per cent at the district and 1.9 per cent at the state level; in the rural areas, it was 7.1 and 5.3 per cent, respectively. Between 2001 and 2011, while the proportion of dilapidated houses has come generally come down in the state,

it has increased in the district. Thus, housing condition has relatively deteriorated compared to the state. Therefore, the status of housing has improved in the state but deteriorated in the district. The percentage of dilapidated houses has significantly increased in rural Raichur and marginally in urban Raichur as against a decline at state level.

Thus, there are 421 houseless and about 42,000 siteless households; 1,54,000 non-pucca; and about 22,500 dilapidated houses in the district, making the problem quite severe. Site-less households and households dilapidated houses are the ones which to be prioritized for improvement and bringing about desired HD outcomes.

7.6. Households and Asset Status

Standard of living is defined as the quantity and types of goods and services consumed by an individual at any given point in time. In the context of HD, although it is difficult to count all the goods and services consumed, the assets - durable and non-durable - possessed by the households is indicative of the standard of living enjoyed by the households. The census provides information on assets possessed by households and the results are given at the taluk and urban and rural levels. The assets considered in the census are: radio/ transistor, TV, computer/laptop, telephone/ mobile phone, bicycle and scooter/ car. While radio/transistor and TV are for entertainment and educative purposes, the others could be used for furthering one's business and productive activities. In this sense, possession of these assets can be said to contribute towards the promotion of HD. Annexure 7.1 provides detailed information about per cent households possessing select assets and Table 7.3 provides the summary about the possession of a few common assets.

The proportion of the households reporting possession of the select types of assets is very low (27%) in



Pavement Dweller

There are 421 houseless and about 42,000 siteless households; 1,54,000 non-pucca; and about 22,500 dilapidated houses in the district, making the problem quite severe.

Table 7.3: Households Possessing and Not Possessing Assets in Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	% HHs possessing assets[1]			% HHs possessing none of the assets[2]		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	21.24	20.72	25.75	26.65	27.22	21.78
Lingsugur	23.37	19.74	35.09	24.64	29.16	10.03
Manvi	26.15	25.06	33.58	21.92	22.86	15.61
Raichur	32.24	24.25	39.87	15.77	23.95	7.96
Sindhnur	28.92	27.81	33.39	15.95	17.28	10.59
District	27.22	23.81	36.71	20.12	23.70	10.17
State	33.23	26.86	42.65	14.25	19.90	5.89

Note: [1] Households possessing one or more of these assets: Radio/ Transistor, TV, Computer/Laptop, Telephone/mobile phone, Bicycle, Scooter and Car
[2] Households not possessing any of the above assets
Source: Census Documents, 2011

One in every five households did not possess any of the assets in all; it was one in every 10 households in the rural areas; and one in every four households in urban areas.

the district. Raichur taluk reports a highest percentage of households possessing these assets, but less than at the state level. Sindhnur has the next highest proportion of houses possessing those assets followed by Manvi and Lingsugur. Devadurga taluk has the least proportion of households possessing these assets. However, what matters much is the percentage households not possessing any of the above specified assets. It represents the severity of deprivation. Table 7.4 shows that for the district as a whole, one in every five households did not possess any of the assets in all; it was one in every 10 households in the rural areas; and one in every four households in urban areas. The relative development status guides these values with Devadurga reporting the highest percentage of households reporting non-possession of assets followed by Manvi; and Raichur taluk reporting the least percentage. Thus, if it is indicative of a lower purchasing power and poverty, the district itself is relatively poor and within the district poverty is higher in Devadurga, Manvi, Sindhnur and Lingsugur taluks.

Table 7.4: Households Possessing Modern Assets and Availing Bank Services in Raichur District (%), 2011

Taluk	Modern Assets			Bank Services		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	0.67	1.79	0.79	48.20	48.68	44.08
Lingsugur	0.48	3.76	1.25	60.14	58.99	63.84
Manvi	1.09	3.01	1.33	41.08	39.97	48.60
Raichur	0.93	9.87	5.50	49.16	41.83	56.16
Sindhnur	1.12	4.58	1.81	54.32	53.65	56.99
District	0.88	6.93	2.48	50.58	48.54	56.22
State	1.07	15.68	6.96	61.11	58.92	64.35

Source: Census Documents, 2011

In order to get a clear picture, information about possession of modern assets, suggestive of the relative progressiveness of households is given in Table 7.4. Television, computers, laptop, telephone, mobile phone, scooter and car are the modern assets which have become necessities and which also help in improvement of the living standards of the people. If we consider the proportion of households possessing all these assets, the magnitude is quite small. Hardly 2.5 per cent of households report ownership of these modern assets. Except Raichur in no taluk the ratio of households owning these assets is higher than 2. In Devadurga it is not even 1 per cent. Rural-urban disparity in possession of these assets is also significant indicating higher and improved standard of living in the urban areas.

Another important asset of the modern day is having a bank account and availing of banking services. Financial inclusion is a concept that indicates the magnitude of people utilizing the formal banking services. Access to and availing of banking services ensures that investible funds are available and have a secure source for investing their savings. Moreover, extension of banking services also reduces the financial

exploitation. Hence, it is a means of promoting HD. Banking habits have satisfactorily penetrated in Raichur district as seen through information in Table 7.4. 61 per cent of households reported to have availed banking services in Raichur district. Obviously, that ratio is higher in urban areas at 64 per cent, compared to 59 per cent in the rural areas. Devadurga and Manvi have the least values for this indicator also and Lingsugur and Sindhnur have higher values. In fact, in Devadurga rural bank holders are in larger proportion than the urban bank holders.

7.7. Schemes for Housing Facilities

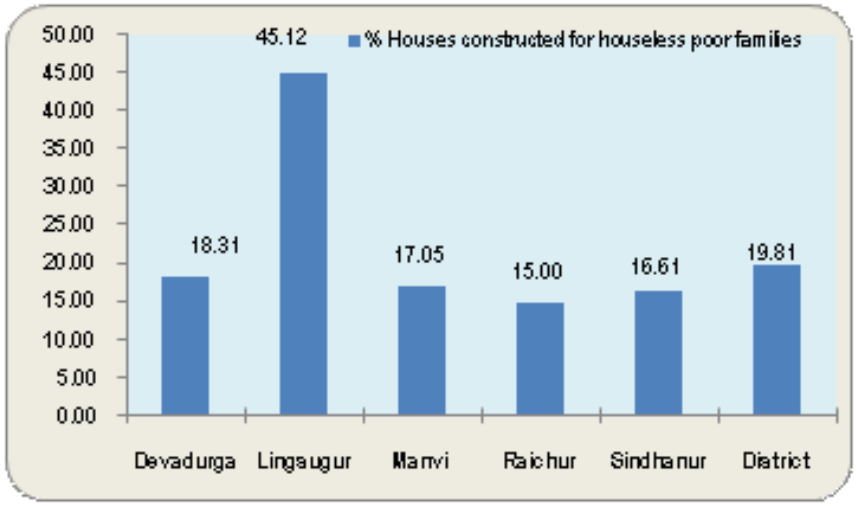
Many schemes for house construction for poor and other specific sections of population are being implemented in the district. Schemes in operation during the last four years are: Basava Vasati, Housing scheme for Devadasis, Indira Awas Yojana, Dr. B.R.Ambedkar Scheme for Rural Housing and House construction under Special Component Plan (SDP) and Tribal Sub-plan (TSP). The percentage of houses constructed for poor households is shown in Figure 7.3.

Lingsugur taluk reports the highest percentage of households constructed for poor people at 45.12 per cent and in other taluks it is less than 20 per cent with Raichur reporting the least value at 15 per cent.

As far as total number of houses constructed under various schemes is concerned, Table 7.5 reveals that in 2011-12 alone as many as 13,600 houses were constructed, three-fourths of which were for SC and ST communities.

While Lingsugur taluk reported the least number of houses constructed, in Devadurga it was the highest. While in Raichur as much as 95 per cent houses were constructed for SCs, in Devadurga 53 per cent of houses were constructed for STs. Thus, housing construction was as per the poverty/deprivation scenario of the district. However, because of the cost involved in obtaining a site and constructing a decent house,

Figure 7.3: Houses Constructed for Poor People in Raichur District 2011-12 (%)



Source: ZP, Raichur

Table 7.5: Number of Houses Constructed/in Progress in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	SC	ST	Others	Total
Devadurga	27.30	52.68	20.02	9828
Lingsugur	40.22	20.83	38.95	629
Manvi	29.39	32.88	37.73	1031
Raichur	95.66	1.75	2.59	1197
Sindhnur	6.34	9.07	84.59	915
District	32.66	42.29	25.05	13600

Source: DSO, Raichur

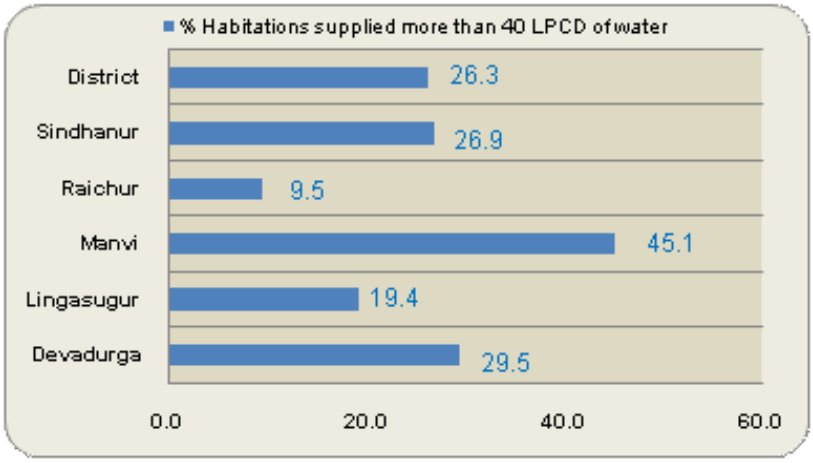
there is a considerable demand for houses constructed and allotted under Government schemes.

7.8. Drinking Water

Target 7C of the MDGs, aims at halving the proportion of population (baseline 1990) not having access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation by 2015. A large developing country like India is critical to meeting this target. Clean and potable drinking water is a vital amenity required for healthy living. In the rural areas, even today, women and children spend considerable amount of time fetching water. Vedhachalam (2012) reports that the Indian economy loses 73 million working days a year due to waterborne diseases, caused by a combination of lack of clean water and inadequate sanitation. Access to water and sanitation also involves issues of gender and caste. Of the households that don't get water on premises, adult females are responsible for fetching water in 81 per cent of the families. Even among children below 15 years of age, girls are 4 times more likely than boys to be responsible for collecting water (IIPS and Macro International, 2007). The same report substantiates that access to drinking water and toilets is higher in more egalitarian states like Kerala and North Eastern states. If water is provided in the vicinity of their houses, the saved time could be utilised for other productive purposes, especially, education and health care. Thus, provision of water near the residence of households definitely promotes HD in multifarious ways.

The Panchayat Raj Engineering (PRE) Department is responsible for provision of drinking water to households in the rural areas and Karnataka Urban Water Supply and Sewerage Board (KUWSSB) in the urban areas. Further, minimum supply norms have been prescribed separately for urban and rural areas. Figure 7.4 gives the status of water supply in Raichur district.

Figure 7.4: Habitations Supplied More Than 40 LPCD of Water in Raichur District, 2011-12 (%)



Note: LPCD: Litres per capita per day
Source: DSO, Raichur

Out of 830 habitations, only 218 habitations, i.e., 26 per cent of habitations were supplied with more than 40 LPCD of water in the district, implying that the remaining 74 per cent of the habitations are not supplied with minimum normative quantity of water. Among the taluks, Raichur is the worst placed with hardly 10 per cent of habitations being supplied with 40 LPCD. The figure shows that the situation was equally worse in all other taluks

except Manvi. Therefore lack of safe drinking water in adequate quantity constrains progress in HD as it affects health and nutrition status of people especially children and women. Therefore, intensive efforts should be made to provide safe water in larger quantities in all habitations.

The census data on percentage households with access to safe drinking water facility supplements the above information. Access refers to availability of water source within premises or in a radius of 100 meters from the residence, so that little time is spent for fetching of water. Further, it refers to safe and potable water that is provided through taps/bore wells/hand pumps and from covered sources and sometimes treated for removing contaminants also. Table 7.6 gives relevant information.

The district being water stressed region, reports lower access to drinking water compared to Karnataka state. 58 per cent of all; 50 per cent of rural; and 83 per cent of urban households had access to drinking water compared to 74 per cent, 66 per cent and 87 per cent, respectively, for total, rural and urban households at the state level. The problem is severe in rural areas of the district. The census results show a slight increase in the percentage households having access to safe drinking water between 2001 and 2011, at the aggregate level. However, Devadurga, Lingsugur and Manvi taluks report reduced access to safe drinking water in 2011 compared to 2001, as a result of which, a slight decline is noticed at the district level as well. Thus, though there has been increase in provision of drinking water, it has worsened in the rural areas of the district. Across taluks Raichur taluk had the highest proportion of households with access to drinking water and Sindhnur taluk had the lowest proportion of households.

Table 7.6: Percentage of households with access to safe drinking water facility

Taluk	2001			2011		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Devadurga	51.13	68.27	52.82	49.87	72.17	52.19
Lingsugur	60.72	70.47	62.94	51.69	82.42	58.97
Manvi	49.37	72.74	51.92	44.40	80.90	49.10
Raichur	58.56	75.05	67.20	62.78	86.28	74.81
Sindhnur	39.70	69.90	44.83	43.29	80.17	50.61
District	51.00	73.02	56.61	49.77	83.42	58.67
State	72.24	85.70	76.92	65.71	86.65	74.15

Source: Census, 2011

7.8.1. Quality of Drinking Water

Water quality in the district is poor mainly because of low rainfall. The extensive canal irrigation and the use of chemicals in agriculture has not only affected the surface water but ground water as well. The Central Ground Water Board (CGWB) of the Ministry of water Resources, GoI in its *Ground Water Information Booklet* for Raichur District prepared in 2008 reports higher amount of Fluoride and electrical conductivity (EC) values in the ground water of the district that is predominantly used for drinking purposes. Groundwater in



major parts of Raichur district contains fluoride. Excessive fluoride causes mottling of tooth enamel and skeletal deformation.

Apart from it, water samples from 155 habitations (19% of total) were tested for various contaminants and the results are shown in Figure 7.5 and 7.6.

Figure 7.5: Habitations by contaminants in Raichur District (%)

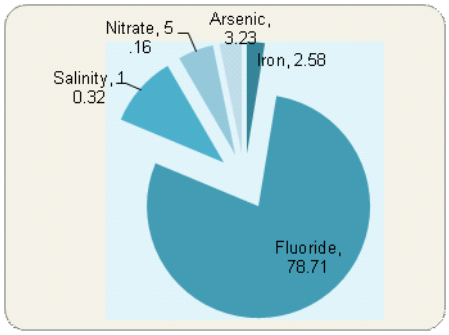
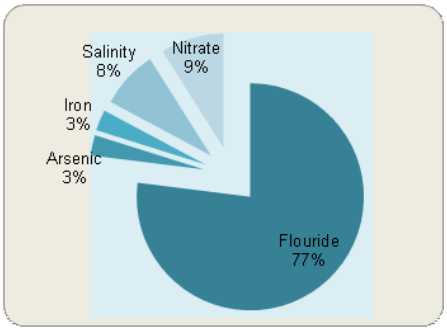
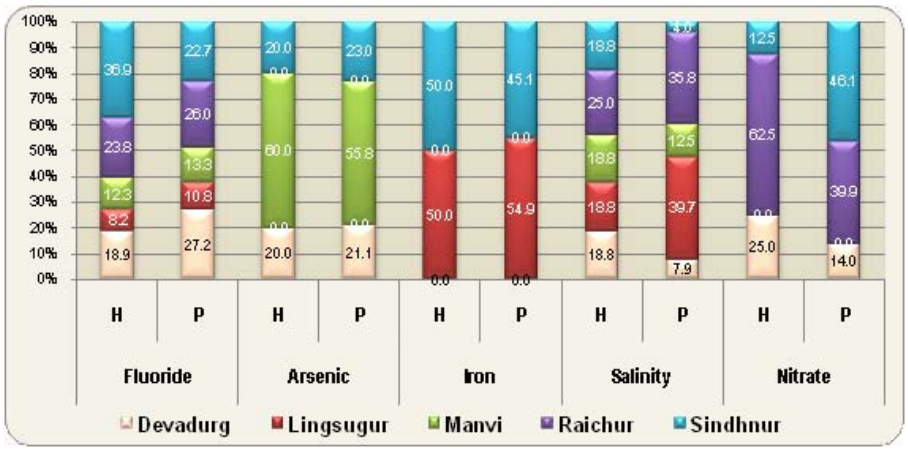


Figure 7.6: Population by contaminants in Raichur District (%)



Source: MDWS, NRDWP Format B13- List of Quality affected Habs from: http://indiawater.gov.in/imisreports/Reports/Physical/rpt_RWS_NoOfQualityAffHabitations_S.aspx?Rep=0&RP=Y&APP=IMIS

Figure 7.7: Distribution of Habitations and Population of Raichur District Affected by Various Water Contaminants, 2013-14 (%)



Note: H- Habitations; P- Population
Source: MDWS, NRDWP, Accessed on 30-8-2014

Fluoride contamination is severe with about 79 per cent of habitations involving 77 per cent of people being exposed to it. Next severe contaminant is salinity with 10 per cent of habitations and 9 per cent of population. 5 per cent of habitations involving 9 per cent of population suffer from nitrate contamination. Arsenic and iron contaminate about 3 per cent of the sources involving equal proportion of population. Thus, fluoride contamination is the most severe contamination with more than three-fourths of the population being exposed to it. The taluk wise situation is not different as depicted in Figure 7.7.

Fluoride is a major contaminant in Raichur, Sindhnur and Devadurga taluks affecting around a quarter of population in each of the taluks. Arsenic contamination is quite severe in Manvi taluk with more than half of the population being exposed to it. Sindhnur and Devadurga are the other two taluks where Arsenic contamination is high. Iron contamination is observed mainly in Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks. Salinity is also found in all taluks with Lingsugur and Raichur being affected the most. And Nitrate is found in waters of Sindhnur, Raichur and Devadurga. Thus, all the taluks are exposed to varying degrees of water contamination making them vulnerable to various water related illnesses. This is bound to affect HD outcomes.

7.9. Electricity

Electricity has become a universal energy source required for various purposes at home, farm and commercial enterprises. Hence, provision of electricity to all households is also an essential

policy measure of the governments. It is clean and relatively cheaper. All villages and hamlets in Raichur district are connected with electricity. As at the end of 2011-12, there were 7.59 lakh consumers, with nearly 85 per cent of them being domestic consumers. The total electricity consumed in the district was 835.01 lakh units.

Raichur taluk consumes for 44 per cent of total electricity in the district and Manvi accounts for another 22 per cent. Apart from other purposes, use of electricity for irrigation pump sets was the major usage, followed by domestic, industrial and commercial purpose. Only in Lingsugur taluk a higher proportion of electricity is consumed for industrial purpose; in Raichur and Sindhnur major portion of consumption is for domestic purposes; otherwise major consumption is for IP sets. Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur report 65 to75 per cent electricity consumed for irrigation only. These are the taluks that rank low on HD values. Thus, diversification towards industry and commerce is associated with higher HD. However, these figures do not tell us how many households have electricity connection.

The census collects and provides information on the households connected with electricity which is presented in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7: Percentage of Households with access to Electricity in Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	2001			2011		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Devadurga	50.79	64.36	52.12	83.82	84.07	83.85
Lingsugur	55.51	78.95	60.86	78.04	91.86	81.31
Manvi	54.53	66.20	55.80	86.45	88.36	86.69
Raichur	72.66	82.99	78.07	91.29	93.47	92.41
Sindhnur	62.84	76.19	65.10	89.63	90.93	89.88
District	59.31	78.98	64.32	85.99	91.82	87.54
State	72.16	90.53	78.55	86.72	96.42	90.63

Source: Census, 2011

The data shows that Raichur district has smaller proportion of households with electricity connection compared to the state. In urban areas, the proportion is better. Across taluks Raichur has more than 90 per cent of households connected with electricity and in other taluks it ranges between 80 to 90 per cent. Therefore, deprivation in terms of electricity connection is not much. Between 2001 and 2011, all taluks have reported increase in per cent households having access to electricity. The increase is observed more in backward taluks than in the advanced ones.

One of the reasons is the proactive role of the government in ensuring electricity connection to households through schemes like Bhagyajyothi, through which BPL households are given electricity connection free of cost and are either not charged or are subsidized. As per the information provided by the DSO, for the district as a whole, 25 per cent of households were extended electricity connection under the Bhagyajyothi scheme till 2011-12. That ratio was higher for Devadurga, Lingsugur and Manvi

taluks. Even Sindhnur taluk had 23 per cent households availing benefit under Bhagyajyothi scheme, where as in Raichur taluk it was 19 per cent. Thus, the backward taluks in HD had higher proportion of beneficiaries under the scheme. Extension of connection is not a problem, what is essential is regularity and continuity in electricity supply. With alternative sources of electricity being tapped, the scenario may change for better in days to come.



7.10. Traditional and Modern Fuel

A typical Indian rural woman spends most of her time in kitchen cooking food for the family. They normally use conventional fuel types like the agricultural residue, fuel wood, dung cakes, kerosene and charcoal. These sources are not healthy in the sense, they emit lot of smoke and soot and other poisonous gases like CO and CO_2. The houses they live in do not have adequate ventilation facilities and the women are subject to a number of respiratory and neurological disorders. Therefore, providing cleaner fuels like bio-gas, electricity and LPG can reduce the ill health of women and promote HD. The census provides the number of households using clean cooking fuel types and based on that, the relevant information is given in Table 7.8.

It is evident that about one-third of the households in the state use modern cooking fuel and hardly 12 per cent of rural households do so. In Raichur district, only 16 per cent of households use modern cooking fuel, and in rural areas the percentage is hardly 7 per cent. Extensive availability of crop residue and relative inaccessibility of modern fuel are the reasons for excessive dependence on traditional fuel types. In urban areas, on the other hand, 40 per cent of households report the use of modern cooking fuel. Among taluks, naturally Raichur taluk has the highest usage of modern fuel (25 per cent). The other taluks report less than 10 per cent of households using modern fuel and is about and in Devadurga taluk, it is a mere 5 per cent. The rural-urban disparity with respect to this indicator is quite severe.

Table 7.8: Households with Access to Modern Cooking Fuel in Raichur District, 2011 (%)

Taluk	Rural	Urban	Total
Devadurga	2.91	22.73	4.97
Lingsugur	4.74	39.60	12.99
Manvi	9.01	28.38	11.50
Raichur	4.56	45.46	25.48
Sindhnur	11.44	34.95	16.11
District	6.95	39.99	15.69
State	12.02	65.34	33.52

Source: Census, 2011

7.11. Sanitation

That of standard of living and quality of life are affected by various factors is now well accepted. Access to safe water and sanitation, good health and literacy are some of the crucial factors other than income. Health is largely affected by the cleanliness and sanitation of an

area which, in turn, is affected by level of literacy and awareness. Since literacy is low in Raichur district there is not much to be desired of as far as sanitation in the district is concerned. Lack of sanitation has serious effects on the people, especially children. It is found that non-availability of sanitation and resorting to open defecation leads to stunting of children and other health complications through faecally-transmitted infections (FTIs). In this context, Chambers and Medeazza (2013) quotes the *Water and Sanitation Program* of the World Bank which estimated that the total annual economic impact of inadequate sanitation in India in 2006 was $48 per person or about 6.4 per cent of gross domestic product, while most African countries were in the range of only 1 per cent to 2 per cent. Considering that 53 per cent of India's population defecates in the open in consequence, children are widely exposed to faecally-transmitted infections (FTIs). The problem is more severe in the backward areas, among poorer sections and socially disadvantaged sections. With only half of the houses in the district as a whole and with only one-fourth of the houses in the rural areas being pucca, sanitation situation cannot be expected to be better.

In fact, sanitation is one of the most neglected aspects in Raichur district. It may be seen from Table 7.9 that at the district level 20 per cent or only one in every five households possesses toilet. While in urban areas, every alternative household (50 per cent) reports access to toilets; in the rural areas, the scenario is pathetic with only 10 per cent reporting access to toilets. Between 2001 and 2011, all taluks have reported increase in households having access to toilets in urban as well as rural areas, but the backward taluks not only have fewer toilets but increase overtime is also meagre. Similarly, availability of toilets is lesser in rural areas than in the urban areas.

Table 7.9: Households with Access to Toilet Facility in Raichur District (%), 2011

	2001			2011		
Taluk	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Devadurga	2.09	12.42	3.10	5.01	20.62	6.63
Lingsugur	4.94	32.60	11.25	6.87	42.02	15.19
Manvi	7.04	39.55	10.58	11.72	42.71	15.71
Raichur	4.47	51.68	29.20	8.45	58.15	33.88
Sindhnur	9.77	33.78	13.85	15.56	48.04	22.62
District	6.12	42.98	15.51	9.99	50.42	20.68
State	17.40	75.23	37.50	28.41	84.93	51.21

Source: Census, 2011

Raichur taluk reports 34 per cent households having access to toilets compared to hardly 7 per cent in Devadurga taluk. Even in urban areas the access to toilets is less than 50 per cent, except Raichur taluk. In the rural areas Devadurga, Lingsugur and Raichur have less than 10 per cent households with toilets. Thus, this stark disparity across regions and between urban and rural areas within a taluk has hampered HD attainments severely. Chambers and Medeazza (2013) also report that open defecation

and stunting of children go together. Hence provision of toilet would go a long way in improving child survival and health and ultimate HD outcomes.

Under the Total Sanitation Campaign and Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan, toilets have been constructed for individual houses, schools, anganwadis as well communities. Subsidy is given to households for construction of toilets. During the year 2011-12, 21,209 individual toilets; 1,908 community toilets; 1,321 school toilets; and 597 anganwadi toilets were constructed. This number is quite inadequate compared to the number of households. Apart from subsidy, motivational changes are required and the linkages between safe defecation, child health and survival need to be told to the people. Thus, the campaign has to continue in a more rigorous and integrated manner.

7.11.1. Drainage Facility

Disposal of waste/used water is also vital for maintaining health standards of the people. The waste water should be collected through drains and disposed safely, otherwise it gives rise to many vector borne diseases. Thus, along with toilets, proper drainage facility is equally important. The census documents give data on access of households to drainage of open and closed types. The results of 2011 census for Dharwad district are given in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10: Households Having Drainage Facility in Raichur District (%), 2011

Taluk	Rural	Urban	Total
Devadurga	15.89	65.80	21.07
Lingsugur	19.29	76.49	32.83
Manvi	20.13	72.37	26.85
Raichur	29.32	84.30	57.44
Sindhnur	20.34	71.79	30.56
District	20.99	78.91	36.31
State	42.54	87.60	60.71

Source: Census, 2011

Similar to access to toilets, drainage facility is of very low magnitude in the district. For the district as a whole only 36 per cent of households report access to drainage compared to 61 per cent at the state level. Like other amenities, Raichur had the highest access and Devadurga the lowest access, where it was as low as 21 per cent. However, urban areas are better placed and the situation in rural areas is quite precarious. Hardly 21 per cent of rural households have access to drainage compared to 79 per cent in the urban areas. Except Raichur taluk, others report less than 20 per cent access to drainage facility. Thus deprivation with regard to sanitation is alarming. It is essential to construct drains in rural areas to improve the health and consequent HD status of rural people.

Very low proportion of households living in pucca houses, having less access to water, toilets and drainage has put a lot of health burden on the people especially women and children. Thus, it is not surprising that the district reports

very high mortality rates because of which its HD status is the last in the state. Diversification of fuel use at the household level is another strategy that could be adopted to bring about a positive impact on HD in the district.

As a result of the very dismal performance in the sanitation front, the proportion of panchayats awarded with 'Nirmal Gram Puraskar' (NGP) award is the lowest in Raichur district. That so far only one gram panchayat in Sindhnur taluk has been awarded with NGP shows how poor the sanitation situation is! Therefore, all round efforts are needed to improve sanitation in the district, with more focus in the rural areas.

7.12. Open Defecation and Toilet Requirement in Raichur District

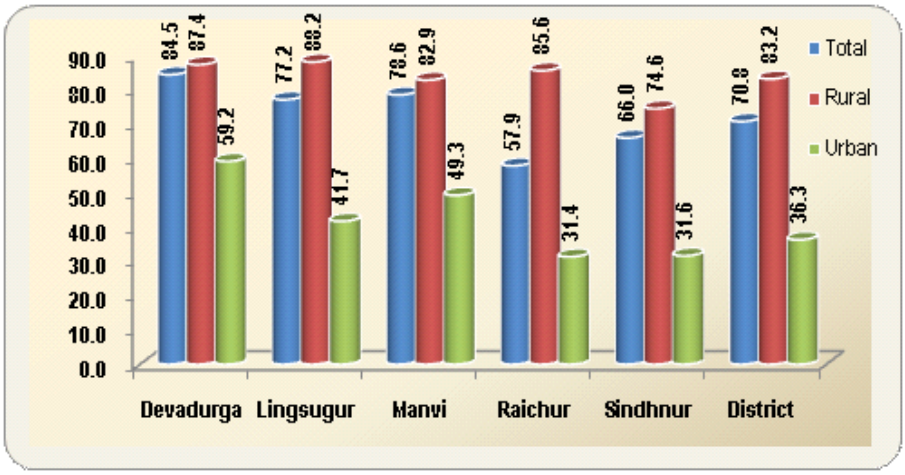
With the world's largest population that defecates in the open, India is in a pathetic condition as far as sanitation is concerned. According to data released by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) in December 2013, 59.4 per cent of rural India defecates in the open. The 2011 Census puts the national toilet coverage at only 31 per cent, which is in contrast to the reports of the Ministry of Drinking Water Supply (MDWS) which had all along put the figure at 68 per cent. According to a report by the Centre for Science and Environment, New Delhi, the MDWS states that up to 2013, 93.5 million toilets have been built in India at a cost of Rs.15,000 crores. Yet the number of rural households without access to toilets is 113 million. The official deadline for attaining total sanitation is 2022 and to meet this target of 15.3 million toilets need to be constructed every year. But the current rate is 4 million, which renders total sanitation possible only by 2044. So the task is stupendous and the progress is tardy.

The costs of this tardy progress are colossal as revealed by World Bank's *Economic Impact of Inadequate Sanitation in India published by Water and Sanitation Programme, 2011.* It is estimated that the economic impact of inadequate sanitation in India in Rs.2.4 trillion, out of which health costs account for Rs. 1.75 trillion, making the annual loss per capita at Rs.2180. Of the total health related loss, diarrhoea among children below five years of age accounts for Rs. 824 bn. While the poorest rural households are estimated to suffer a loss of Rs. 204 billion, the urban counterparts suffer Rs. 16 billion loss. Thus, lack of sanitation affects health and survival, especially of children and the poor and is economically burdensome as well.

Sanitation scenario is one of the worst in Raichur district. The data in Figure 7.8 shows that nearly 71 per cent of households resort to open defecation. In the rural areas, it is as high as 83 per cent and more than two-thirds in the urban areas. These values are quite higher than

The proportion of panchayats awarded with 'Nirmal Gram Puraskar' (NGP) award is the lowest in Raichur district

Figure 7.8: Per cent Households Resorting to Open defecation in Raichur District, 2011



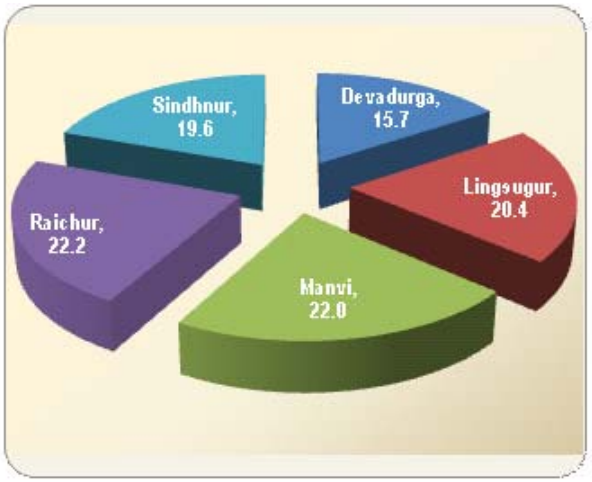
Source: Computed based on Census, 2011

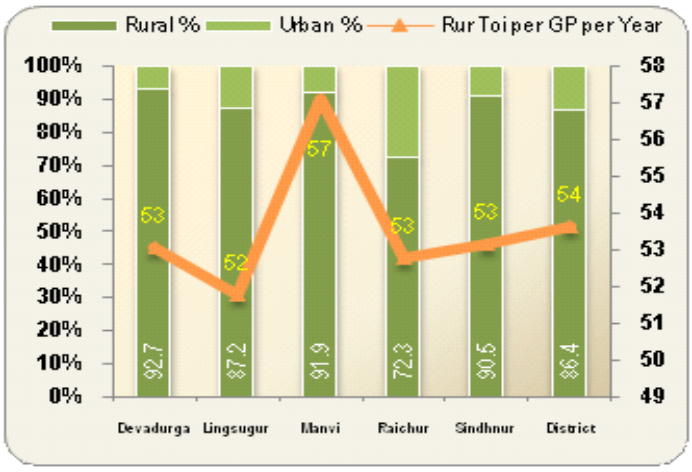
the corresponding state figures. Across taluks, while Devadurga reports 85 per cent open defecation, in Manvi taluk it is 79 per cent and in Lingsugur it is 77 per cent; it is 66 per cent in Sindhnur and 58 per cent in Raichur taluk. Rural areas are severely deprived with more than 80 per cent of households resorting to open defecation in all taluks, except Sindhnur. In fact, it is as high as 88 per cent in Raichur and Devadurga taluks. In Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks, urban sanitation is also not encouraging as significantly larger proportion of households resort to open defecation. This might be one of the reasons for high malnutrition and mortality rates among women and children in the district.

The restructured 'Swaccha Bharat Abhiyana' aims to achieve the target of zero open defecation by 2019. The number of households reporting open defecation in 2011 census is roughly taken as the need for toilets and accordingly the calculations on additional number of toilets to be constructed during the next five years are made and presented in Figure 7.9.

Considering the number of households resorting to open defecation as the ones who require to be provided with toilets, then more than 2.5 lakh toilets need to be constructed in the district. While Raichur and Manvi share 22 per cent each of the required number; Sindhnur and Lingsugur share 20

Figure 7.9: Quantum of Toilets to be Constructed in Raichur District to Achieve Zero Open Defecation by 2019





Source: Computed based on Census, 2011

per cent each; and the remaining 16 per cent are to be constructed in Devadurga taluka (Figure 7.10 panel 1).

Panel 2 of the Figure 7.10 shows that toilet shortage is very severe in rural areas with three taluks, viz., Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur showing more than 90 per cent of toilets to be constructed in their villages. In Raichur, because of higher urbanization, urban toilet requirement is more than one-fourth of taluk's total requirement. Hence, alround efforts are required with greater impetus in the rural areas. In order to make the argument more specific gram panchayat wise targets for toilet construction is also depicted in the figure. Accordingly, 54 toilets need to be constructed every year per panchayat in the district as a whole. Across taluks, the number is almost similar except for Manvi which is relatively higher. Though the target number seems to be small, motivating people to go in for construction and use of toilets is a real tough task.

However, along with the financial assistance attached with the programme of construction of toilets, behavioural and attitudinal change is to be inculcated among the people. Few suggestions are:

i. Toilets should be made compulsory for all new houses allotted by the Government;

ii. Possession of toilets should be made compulsory for contesting elections to GP and other bodies

iii. Additional financial incentives should be provided for villages and GPs that achieve zero OD

iv. Promote innovations in construction of low-cost toilets and also reducing their maintenance and

v. Ensure that the toilets are functional.

7.13. Concluding Remarks

If human development is about creation and widening of choices and capabilities to harness the opportunities for better living, then increasing income alone may not be the desired mechanism. Therefore, income is considered as just one indicator of human progress. The level and growth of income, the sectoral distribution of income and whether it is associated with possession and use of basic amenities required for a comfortable living are to be analysed. A few of the essential amenities are good housing, access to basic amenities such as drinking water, sanitation, electricity, clean cooking fuel and household assets. This chapter analysed the possession of these amenities in Raichur district to comment upon the standard of living of the people and linked it to aspects of HD.

The proportion of houseless households is relatively higher in Raichur and is still higher in the rural areas. Similarly, 11 per cent percent of households reported to be site-less. Hardly 36 per cent of households reside in pucca houses

in Raichur district. Thus, with 421 houseless and about 42,000 siteless households; 1,54,000 households residing in non-pucca houses; and about 22,500 households residing in dilapidated houses; the housing problem is quite severe.

As far as possession of assets is concerned, one in every five households did not possess any of the select assets; that proportion was one in every 10 households in the rural areas. 2.5 per cent of households did own modern assets like computer/laptop, telephones, 2/4 wheelers, etc. This reiterates the poverty position of the district. But, 61 per cent of households reported to have availed banking services in the district.

In terms of basic amenities, 26 per cent of habitations were supplied with more than 40 LPCD of water; only 16 per cent of households used clean cooking fuel; hardly 20 per cent possessed toilet; and every alternative household (50 per cent) reported access to drainage. Electricity connection was relatively satisfactory though not universal. The rural areas depict a picture of stark deprivation with hardly 7 per cent households using clean fuel; barely 10 per cent reporting access to toilets; and only 36 per cent reporting access to drainage. However, water quality is very doubtful with fluoride contamination being critical affecting more than three-fourths of the population of the district.

Sanitation is a severe problem in the district with 71 per cent households resorting to open defecation (OD) which is almost 75 per cent higher than the state figure. Worse scenario is that of rural sanitation where 83 per cent households resort to OD. In order to achieve zero OD by 2019, it is estimated that the number of toilets to be constructed per GP works out to 54 per year. Access to drainage is also not complete with less than half of the households having access to it and only 43 per cent in rural areas.

Very low proportion of households living in pucca houses, having less access to water, toilets and drainage has put a lot of health burden on the people especially women and children. Thus, it is not surprising that the district reports very high mortality rates because of which its HD status is the last in the state. Diversification of fuel use at the household level is another strategy that could be adopted to bring about a positive impact on HD in the district. Income generating options need to be expanded so that people are able to access the basic amenities. Government's role in identifying the poor and extending basic facilities to them is also emphasized.

■■

Chapter 8

GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT



Chapter 8

Gender Development

8.1. Introduction

Gender relations are the key to understanding the inequalities between men and women. In many cultures, women suffer from an imposed role of inferiority which leads to "gender differentials in nutrition, food allocation, health status and health expenditure, education, mortality rates and life expectancy."The term gender is a broader concept that indicates the culturally specific set of characteristics that identifies the social behaviour of women and men and the relationship between them. But in common parlance, gender and sex are used interchangeably. 'Sex' identifies the biological differences between women and men and gender goes beyond that and does not simply refer to women or men, but to the relationship between them, and the way it is socially constructed. Because it is a relational term, gender must include women and men. According to GoK (2006), like the concepts of class, race and ethnicity, gender is an analytical tool for understanding social processes. In India like many other patriarchal societies, discrimination against women is manifold and females are deprived of even basic necessities. If woman belongs to a disadvantaged community, then discriminations and deprivations faced by her are manifold. Unfortunately, the feeling that a female child is a 'burden' continues even today. The Eleventh Five Year Plan of the Government of India lamented that "Gender inequality...remains a pervasive problem." Discrimination and inequality is extensive both within and outside the house. However, Gender equity is one of the cornerstones for sustaining human development. Being half of the population, enhancing the capabilities of womenfolk and empowering them will not only accelerate human development but many other related problems could also be overcome. Poverty could also come down with development of women. As *The Global Gender Gap Report 2013* recommends that in order to maximize competitiveness and development potential, each country should strive for gender equality—that is, it should give women the same rights, responsibilities and opportunities as men. The present chapter attempts to analyse the status of females, extent of inequality in gender development processes and suggest suitable actions to mainstream women for development and engender development.

Gender is the term for the socially and culturally defined roles for each of the sexes. Although women are women everywhere on earth and men are men, what is considered a "normal activity" for each of the sexes varies from place to place and from culture to culture. The variation in these roles suggests that the different activities of women and men in practice have less to do with their biological sex, than with the social and cultural context in which they live. We talk about gender rather than sex because while a person's sex does not change, gender roles are socially determined and can evolve together with society.

8.2. Gender Differentials in the District

Gender differentials could be studied using different parameters.

In India discrimination against women is manifold and females are deprived of even basic necessities.

For the purpose of this report, their demography, literacy, work characteristics, political participation and few specific aspects like crimes against them are discussed with respect to Raichur district. The demographic features of women population is presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Demographic Features of Women in Raichur District, 2001 & 2011

Taluk	% Females		Sex Ratio		Child sex Ratio	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Devadurga	49.54	50.05	982	1002	970	962
Lingsugur	49.34	49.61	974	984	954	945
Manvi	49.79	50.32	992	1013	971	954
Raichur	49.31	49.95	973	998	961	946
Sindhnur	49.96	50.09	998	1003	969	948
District	49.58	49.99	983	1000	964	950
State	49.10	49.31	965	973	946	948

Source: Census Documents, 2001 and 2011

The district had a population of 19.3 lakhs, out of which 9.6 lakhs or almost 50 per cent were females in 2011. The district shared about 3.16 per cent of the total population but 3.20 per cent of female population of the state. The growth of female population was higher than that of male population in the district which is a favorable trend.

Table 8.2: Sex Ratios by Residence in Raichur District 2001 & 2011

Taluk	General Sex Ratio				Child Sex Ratio			
	Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Devadurga	986	1005	944	978	975	965	925	940
Lingsugur	981	985	952	984	959	940	929	963
Manvi	994	1015	973	998	966	955	1004	949
Raichur	989	1008	959	989	981	952	938	940
Sindhnur	1007	1006	955	994	968	944	975	968
District	992	1004	958	989	969	951	948	949
State	977	979	942	963	949	950	940	946

Source: Census Documents, 2001 and 2011

The growth of female population was higher in the urban areas suggesting that urbanization has a better impact on gender equity.

Table 8.1 reveals a positive tendency of rising percentage of females in all taluks of the district. Actually in Manvi, Sindhnur and Devadurga taluks, the share of females is more than half and in Raichur it is almost half. It is also reflected in the sex ratios which too have increased in all taluks. The sex ratio in Manvi, Sindhnur and Devadurga taluks is higher than 1000, and the rate of increase in sex ratio in the district is higher than that of the state. However, sex ratios in the age-group of 0-6 years are unfavorable and have declined in all taluks of the district. Does this indicate increasing discrimination of the girl child in the district? This trend needs to be reversed. Table 8.2 traces the levels and changes in sex ratios across rural and urban areas.

During the period 2001 to 2011, the general sex ratio has increased in the district as well as the state. Sex ratio in rural areas is not only higher than that in the urban areas, it is also favorable. In both the years, no taluk reported lower than the state level sex ratio. This tempo needs to be sustained and urban areas of all taluks and rural Lingsugur taluk needs to be focused for improvement of sex ratios.

The child sex ratios show divergent trends. As already mentioned they

are lower than the general sex ratios. The values have declined in rural areas of all taluks. Rural Lingsugur reports lowest child sex ratio of 940. In the urban areas, Manvi had a favorable sex ratio in 2001 but has turned adverse in 2011. It has also declined in Sindhnur taluk. In other taluks, it has shown improvement, especially Lingsugur which has the lowest general sex ratio. Hence, urban areas of all taluks need to be focused for improving sex ratios. These declining child sex ratios are a severe cause of concern.

The sex ratio for SC and ST sections is better in the district compared to the state. Actually both have turned favorable in 2011. This is so for all taluks. Only in Lingsugur, the sex ratio among SCs is adverse at 978, but everywhere else, it is favorable. Looking at the changes sex ratios, except for Lingsugur and Sindhnur, all taluks have registered increases in the sex ratios of SCs and STs. This might be indicative of the cultural belief of these sections wherein a girl child is not treated as a burden like in other communities. Hence, the current activities need to be continued to maintain the favorableness of the sex ratios.

8.3. Gender Patterns of Literacy and Enrolment

Education is a social capability that empowers a person with information and helps him/her to take a good decision. It enhances skill levels and productivity of the population. It also generates positive social externalities like good health, higher participation and better empowerment. Especially literacy among females is relatively more beneficial as it affects child upbringing and household management. Female literacy is found to have a favorable impact on socio-demographic indicators like usage of contraceptives, limiting the size of the family, better care of children, etc. It is also associated with lower morbidity and mortality rates among mothers and children. Hence, universalizing female education is a sure means of gender as well as human development. That is why a Kannada saying is "*Hennondu Kalitare Shaleyondu Teredante*" meaning, if a woman is made literate, it is akin to opening a school. Achievements in literacy have already been studied in Chapter 4. Here a few aspects with respect to gender inequities will be taken up. Relevant data is furnished in Table 8.3.

Education is a social capability that empowers a person with information and helps him/her to take a good decision.

In 2011, less than half (48.7 per cent) of females were literate in Raichur district compared to 70.5 per cent of males. Literacy attainments have increased between 2001 and 2011. The district literacy rates were considerably lower than the state figures, indicating a greater proportion of illiterate population in the district. Illiterates among females are significantly higher than among males. Across taluks,



Table 8.3: Literacy Rates in Raichur District by Gender, 2001 & 2011

Taluk	2001			2011			Change in LR	
	Male	Female	Gap	Male	Female	Gap	Male	Female
Devadurga	50.10	26.26	23.84	60.47	38.62	21.84	10.36	12.36
Lingsugur	65.59	36.13	29.46	73.04	49.14	23.90	7.45	13.01
Manvi	54.55	30.06	24.49	65.54	44.09	21.45	10.99	14.03
Raichur	66.89	43.94	22.95	75.26	55.16	20.10	8.37	11.22
Sindhnur	64.57	37.15	27.43	73.44	51.60	21.84	8.87	14.45
District	61.52	35.93	25.60	70.47	48.73	21.74	8.95	12.81
State	76.10	56.87	19.23	82.47	68.08	14.39	6.37	11.21

Source: Census documents for respective years

Raichur, Sindhnur and Lingsugur have better literacy ratios than others and Devadurga taluka reports only 39 per cent of female literacy.

Gender gaps in literacy are very high in the district as compared to the state. Although declining overtime, gaps are almost of equal magnitude in all taluks suggesting that gender inequality is more or less evenly spread throughout the district. But female literacy rates are increasing by higher proportion than the male literacy rates. This is seen in all taluks and more intensely in backward taluks. Therefore, an increasing female literacy would not only increase total literacy but would also bring about equity in literacy attainments. The declining disparity could also be gauged from reduced difference between highest male (Raichur) and lowest female literacy rates (Devadurga) from 40.63 per cent in 2001 to 36.64 per cent by 2011, which itself is almost equal to FLR in Devadurga taluk.

Although declining overtime, gaps are almost of equal magnitude in all taluks suggesting that gender inequality is more or less evenly spread throughout the district.

The increasing female literacy rates are indicative of changing attitude of parents as well as improvement in schooling facilities. But still the practice of retaining girl children for helping in household chores and family occupations still seems to continue. However, greater efforts are still needed in backward taluks like Devadurga, Manvi and Lingsugur where the gaps are relatively higher. Hence, if universal access to education is to be materialized, focus on rural areas and female education is essential.

Thus, female illiteracy is high but is declining, at a faster rate contributing to reduction in gender gaps. Due to the all-round efforts of the government, the gaps are being bridged, especially in rural areas. But the level of gaps is still high. Focus should be on low literate taluks of Devadurga, Manvi and Lingsugur. Thus, increasing female literacy in rural areas is the most desired means for universalizing education in the district.

8.3.1. Enrolment Ratios and Female Literacy

The literacy attainments need to be correlated with trends in enrolment because one of the reasons for the rising female literacy could be increased enrolment at different levels. As information in Table 8.4

Table 8.4: Enrolment Characteristics in Raichur District, 2005-06 and 2011-12

Taluk	2005-06		2011-12		per cent Change		
	Girls	% Girls	Girls	% Girls	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	17943	45.80	20492	46.01	13.24	14.21	13.68
Lingsugur	25755	46.51	30260	46.69	16.64	17.49	17.04
Manvi	24248	46.86	27110	47.17	10.43	11.80	11.07
Raichur	30894	47.56	35794	47.98	13.93	15.86	14.85
Sindhnur	29647	46.77	32213	48.40	1.81	8.66	5.01
District	**128487**	**46.78**	**145869**	**47.36**	**10.92**	**13.53**	**12.14**

Source: DISE, 2012-13

shows that the enrolment of girls in primary section increased by about 14 per cent, from 1,28,487 to 1,45,869 during 2005-06 and 2011-12. Girls' enrolment has increased by a greater proportion compared to that of boys'. As a result, the share of girls in total enrolment increased from 46.8 per cent to 48.4 per cent. This is a significant trend.

Across taluks, Raichur accounts for a major share of enrolment and also higher increase in it. Sindhnur taluk has the next highest enrolment, but growth is not very high. On the other hand, Lingsugur and Devadurga record considerably higher levels of increase in girls' enrolment.

This is also reflected in the enrolment ratios in the district as reported in DISE statistics. As discussed in Chapter 4, GER and NER for both boys and girls increased in Raichur district indicating that more children are joining schools. The enrolment of girls has increased at a relatively faster rate than that of boys. Therefore, one of the major causes for the rising female literacy levels is the increasing enrolment rates at primary level.

But enrolment is not the only factor that results in higher literacy. The enrolled students should attend the schools regularly, or should not drop out of the school in middle. The dropout rate (DOR) in the district is relatively higher, and is higher among girls than for boys. Naturally, the retention rate among girls is lower. This reduces capacity creation among girls making them less qualified for higher positions that fetch higher emoluments with them. However, in the urban areas, DOR among girls is also lower which may be because of better physical facilities available in urban schools and highly motivated parents in sending children to schools. Further, there is little compulsion to withdraw children from schools to send them to work. Thus, higher enrolment and relatively lower dropping out in urban areas have increased urban female literacy rates.

The retention rate among girls is lower, this reduces capacity creation among girls making them less qualified for higher positions that fetch higher emoluments with them.

8.4. Trends in Work Participation

As presented in Chapter 6, female worker population has grown by



more than that of male worker population and urban workers by more than that of rural workers. The highest growth in worker population is witnessed for urban females and the lowest for rural male workers. Thus, while there is a growing requirement of employment for women in urban areas, the employment avenues for rural workers are lower.

8.4.1. Share of Female Workers in Total Workers

It may be presumed that a woman engages in work for utilizing her capabilities acquired through the education, and/or out of compulsion to help their family earn a decent livelihood. However, not all of them may be working. Proportion of female workers to total workers is not only lower but it is also declining it the state level (Table 8.5).

Table 8.5: Share of Female Workers to Total Workers in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

Taluk	% share of female workers, 2011			Change in Female Workers' Share, 2001-2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	44.66	45.84	30.30	9.1	9.4	4.8
Lingsugur	40.22	43.43	24.56	-0.3	-0.6	2.2
Manvi	43.68	45.02	31.10	2.0	2.0	3.0
Raichur	37.41	45.77	25.57	2.0	0.6	5.4
Sindhnur	41.94	44.34	28.36	0.1	-0.3	7.0
District	41.29	44.83	26.69	2.1	1.7	4.9
State	34.45	38.86	25.74	-0.8	-1.3	3.5

Source: Census Documents

Female workers account for 41 per cent of the total workers in the district as a whole; 26 per cent in urban areas and 45 per cent in rural areas. Female workers' share in total workers in the district is higher than that at the state level. The share is relatively lower in advanced taluks like Raichur, Lingsugur and Sindhnur, more so in their urban areas.

Likewise, in the agriculture dominant taluks like Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur, women account for a greater proportion of total workers. Therefore, in rural areas women partake in work at a higher rate than in urban areas. Probably suitable work opportunities are unavailable for them in the urban areas; or poverty in rural areas compels the women to work in any activity that is available. Whereas, in rural areas women participate in agriculture, livestock and family occupations, in urban areas there are very few such alternative vocations.

Between 2001 and 2011, the share of women workers to total workers has increased at the district level, so also at the state level. Across taluks, Devadurga has experienced the highest and Sindhnur, the lowest. In fact, Lingsugur has reported a slight reduction in the shares of females in total employment during 2001-11. Devadurga and Manvi report higher increase in women's share of workers in rural areas, probably in agricultural sector. On the other hand Sindhnur and Raichur report higher increases in women's share of workers in urban areas, probably in the service sector.

8.4.2. Work Participation Rates (WPR)

Figure 8.1 shows that female WPRs have been lower than the male WPRs, and that the MWPRs have increased in Devadurga, Lingsugur and Raichur taluks as well as the district. On the other hand, the female WPRs have increased in Devadurga, Manvi and Raichur taluks and declined in others. WPRs are higher in less developed taluks compared to Raichur and Lingsugur. The gender gap, defined as the difference between MWPR and FWPR has declined between the two censuses but has revealed divergent trends across taluks. While it declined in Devadurga, Manvi and Raichur; it increased in Lingsugur. The gap is higher in Raichur and Lingsugur taluks and has come down in Devadurga and Manvi taluks.

There is possibility that women's work is not correctly captured in the census, hence in order to capture the scenario properly, a correct definition of women's work is called for. However, promotion of employment avenues for women needs to be taken up.

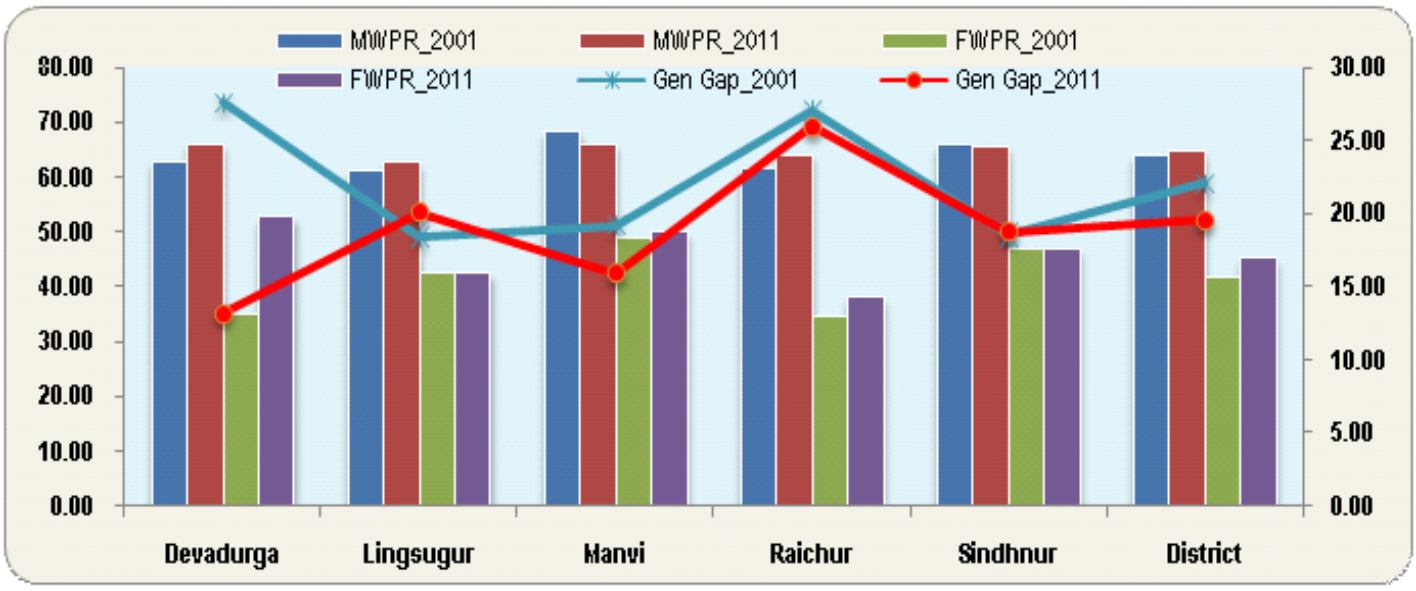
8.4.3. Occupational pattern

Any person's economic status can be gauged by the nature of work he/she is engaged in. The census classification of workers as cultivators, agricultural laborers, household industry workers and *other* workers is the only categorization available at the taluk level and the same is analyzed in this section. Figure 8.2 gives information on share of women workers in different worker categories in 2011.

The data reveals that more than half of the agricultural laborers and about 43 per cent of household industry workers in Raichur district are females; about 27 per cent of

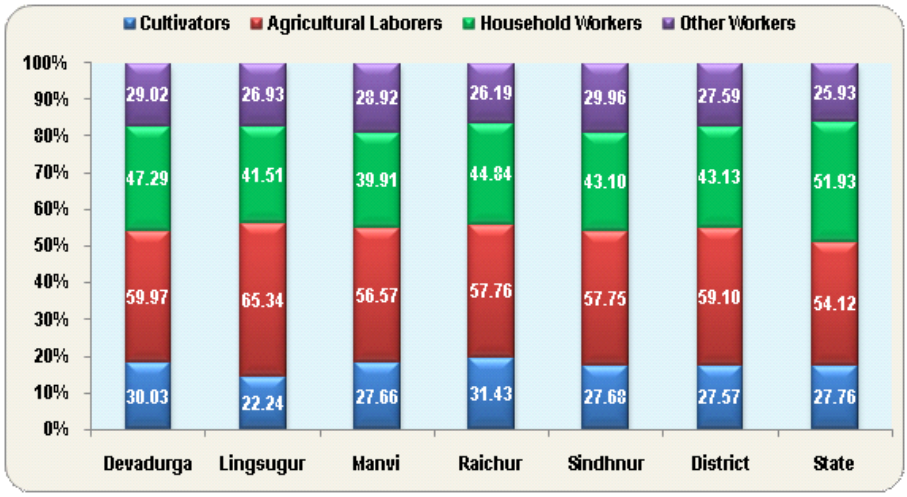
The economic and social empowerment of women is important for achieving pro-poor growth

Figure 8.1: WPRs and Gender Gaps in Work Participation in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011



Source: Census Documents

Figure 8.2: Share of Female Workers in Census Occupation Categories in Raichur District, 2011 (%)



Source: Census Documents

cultivators and workers in *other* activities are women. A similar pattern is visible in all taluks with female sharing majority of agricultural labour and household industry work. Only in Lingsugur, their share as cultivators is lower but nearly two-thirds of agricultural labourers are women. In *other* activities, the women workers were around 26-29 per cent in all taluks. This sizable work as agricultural labour and household industry workers makes their wage low and uncertain, as a result of which, the economic status of women is also lower. Table 8.6 makes this point further clear by looking at the occupational distribution of female workers in the district.

Table 8.6: Occupational Distribution of Workers in Raichur District (%), 2001 & 2011

Occupation Category	2001			2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Males						
Cultivators	37.1	46.9	5.2	33.5	42.7	5.1
Agricultural Laborers	28.2	34.9	6.1	29.6	37.0	6.6
Household Industry	2.0	1.8	2.6	2.0	1.9	2.5
Other Workers	32.7	16.4	86.1	34.9	18.5	85.8
Females						
Cultivators	14.4	15.5	4.0	18.1	20.3	2.8
Agricultural Laborers	70.7	75.5	27.4	60.8	66.8	19.2
Household Industry	1.9	1.6	4.8	2.2	2.0	3.8
Other Workers	13.1	7.4	63.8	18.9	10.9	74.2

Source: Census Documents, 2001 and 2011

Chapter 6 noticed a very slow shift of workers from agricultural to non-agricultural activities in Raichur district. The percentage of workers engaged in agricultural activities as cultivators and agricultural labourers has declined from about 73 per cent in 2001 to 70 per cent in 2011, whereas for the state the decline is from 56 per cent to 49 per cent. Hence, a huge number of workers in the district are still dependent on agriculture. A marginal increase is visible with respect to percentage workers in household industries. The district has a lower proportion of workers in household industries than in the state. With a small decline in agricultural population and decline in workers in household industries, little diversification towards non-agriculture has taken place. The district has just 28 per cent of its workers in *other* activities, which is substantially lower than at the state level (47 per cent). Thus, the district is predominantly agricultural with very low and slow diversification towards non-agriculture. Probably this is one of the reasons for relative backwardness of the district. A general pattern is that, except Raichur, the occupational pattern has not diversified significantly into non-agricultural activities. What has been the gender dimension of this occupational shift?

Agricultural labour is still the predominant source of livelihood for a large majority of workers in Raichur district. About 73 per cent of workers were engaged in agricultural sector in 2001, which came down to 70 per cent in 2011. In rural areas, workers engaged as agricultural labour is as high as 84 per cent and which is almost stagnant. 85 per cent of females were engaged in agricultural activities in 2001 which marginally declined to 79 per cent in 2011. In case of rural female dependence on agriculture was total with 87 per cent of female workers working there. However, their share in non-agricultural sector has increased from 9 per cent of total female workers in 2001 to 13 per cent in 2011. Thus, there is almost no diversification of women's work in the rural areas. As far as urban areas are concerned, the share of non-agriculture has increased from 68 per cent in 2011 to 78 per cent in 2011. While the percentage women workers engaged in household industries has declined in urban areas that in *other* activities has substantially increased.

Thus, in rural areas workers are predominantly engaged as agricultural labour which is uncertain and less remunerative. In urban areas, their main work is in *other* activities consisting mainly of the service activities. These are mainly in the informal sector whose earnings are also low and uncertain. Therefore, women are engaged in low paid jobs which are casual in nature making their livelihood vulnerable. Thus, promotion of non-agricultural employment in rural areas and enhancing skill formation of females to make them gainfully employed and improve their earning capacity are imperative.

Table 8.7 presents information on growth rate of workers by main and marginal work categories. For the main workers category, female worker growth rate has been significantly higher than males and growth is higher in rural areas than the urban areas. In the rural areas, growth rate is high with respect to cultivator category and *other* work;

Dependence on agricultural labour is almost total in the district with about 70 per cent of workers working so in 2011.
In rural areas, it is 84 per cent; 79 per cent for all females and 87 per cent for rural females.

Table 8.7: Growth Rates of Workers in Raichur District (%), 2001-2011

	Main Workers			Marginal Workers		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Total						
Persons	3.3	3.6	2.3	-0.6	-1.4	13.1
Males	1.9	2.0	1.6	1.9	0.4	15.8
Females	6.8	7.1	5.2	-1.7	-2.2	10.4
Cultivators						
Persons	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.2	22.4
Males	0.6	0.6	1.7	5.9	5.4	23.0
Females	7.8	8.0	0.3	-0.5	-0.7	21.5
Agricultural Labourers						
Persons	5.6	5.7	3.2	-2.7	-2.7	-0.2
Males	4.8	4.9	3.2	-1.7	-1.9	4.1
Females	6.3	6.5	3.2	-3.0	-3.1	-1.9
Household Workers						
Persons	1.6	2.1	0.4	9.3	8.5	12.7
Males	0.5	0.7	0.1	15.3	13.2	21.5
Females	4.1	5.3	1.4	6.7	6.6	7.0
***Other* Workers**						
Persons	2.8	3.6	2.3	13.3	9.4	21.6
Males	1.8	2.2	1.6	14.4	11.6	18.6
Females	7.7	9.4	6.4	12.1	7.5	27.5

Source: Based on Census Documents, 2001 and 2011



In almost all societies, rural women tend to work longer hours than men. Women are usually responsible for at least a large share of food production, preparation and processing, as well as the more fundamental roles of nurturing and caring for children and the elderly.

and in urban areas for *other* work category. Thus, in rural areas females have more avenues of employment, in urban areas it is only the *other* work.

There has been a decline in marginal workers, more so females. The decline is steep in agricultural labour category and to a certain extent in cultivator category. On the other hand, marginal workers have grown significantly in household industry and other works. Thus, acceleration of service sector seems to be the direct outcome of the modernization process and more numbers of women are being part of it.

The higher growth of female work in main as well as marginal categories and higher growth for males in marginal categories indicates the uncertain situation of the employment structure. It neither provides year round employment nor does it yield better wages. Therefore, poverty is higher in Raichur.

Since economic and human development is associated with diversification of work away from agriculture, policy should be to promote non-farm activities in all the taluks and making agriculture more employment generating. There is a need to promote non-agricultural activities for increasing employment and income earning opportunities for the people, especially in the rural areas.

8.5. Marginalization of Women's Work

Marginalization of women in the development process is mainly because their work i itself is marginalized and so are their earnings. The economic growth has increased in the last few decades but a few tendencies indicate that the women's work is not extensive or remunerative as it should have been. Some of such tendencies noticed in Raichur district with regard to women's work are presented below.

a. In Raichur, females are almost half of the total population because of better sex ratios as well as a higher growth of female population. But the females are far less literate than males thereby deprived of skills and knowledge to access high earning options.

b. Although girls' enrolment has increased at a faster rate than boys' enrolment, higher dropout rates among girls has deprived females of higher level of skills confining them to lower cadres of employment with less earnings. Hence, the stock of skills and literacy among females is one of the lowest in the state. Obviously, females and their work tends to be marginalized.

c. Rural women are confined to uncertain and less remunerative agricultural labour as the predominant occupation.

d. Share of female workers in the district is about 40 per cent, implying a higher dependence of

women on men folk. Similarly, WPRs are lower for females corroborating the above view.

e. That the share of female workers and WPR are higher and increasing in backward taluks and in rural areas is indicative of poverty and compulsions to work. They may be compelled to be working in less remunerative occupations.

f. More important in this context is the occupational pattern that is suggestive of income earning capacity of the working population. Women account for more than half of total workers engaged as agricultural labour and as workers in household activities. Share in *other* activities, which are more remunerative is hardly 25 per cent. In 2001, 85 per cent of females were engaged in agricultural activities which marginally declined to 79 per cent in 2011. In case of rural female workers, dependence on agriculture was total with 87 per cent of female workers working there. Hence, agriculture is more feminized in the district. However, their share in non-agricultural sector has increased from 9 per cent of total female workers in 2001 to 13 per cent in 2011. Thus, there is almost no diversification of women's work in the rural areas. As far as urban areas are concerned, the share of non-agriculture has increased from 68 per cent in 2011 to 78 per cent in 2011.

g. The proportion of cultivators among females and female owned agricultural holdings have increased in number between 2000-01 and 2011-12 (See Box 8.1). They are engaged in agriculture, largely as subsistence farmers, who cultivate small pieces of land, often less than 0.2 hectares.

Box 8.1: Agricultural Holdings of Women

The agricultural holdings owned by females account for hardly 17 per cent in 2010-11, almost equal to that in 2000-01. All the taluks have experienced increase in women agricultural holdings, except Raichur taluk. Female holdings have increased by a higher proportion than the male owned holdings. Devadurga and Lingsugur have reported steep increase. But the average size of these holdings is declining, implying very weak prospects for increasing the farm incomes. The decline is higher in those taluks that have recorded higher increases in female holdings. Hence, either employment available or income generated does not support the livelihoods of women, rather makes them more vulnerable.

h. Although female workers' share in tertiary sector has increased, it is wrought with a number of problems. Service sector is predominantly informal in nature with less and uncertain returns. Opportunities in services sector for women remain very limited in rural areas.

i. Approximately 50 lakh women (Talukdar, 2012), are employed in various government schemes without being recognised as government workers with the right to government level wages. Flagship programmes like the ICDS, NRHM and the Mid-Day Meal Scheme are dependent for their day-to-day operations on them. It is only appropriate to provide necessary recognition to them as government employees with an urgent need to increase their remuneration and social security benefits.

There is almost no diversification of women's work in the rural areas.

j. In urban areas women are largely concentrated in *other* services, with

"The alleviation of poverty in rural areas has to be like a river. Other organisations are like monsoon streams who burst onto the scene, flow forcefully and disappear within weeks. We (SHGs) flow full and calm, bringing life all around us." Nagamma, a 70 year old village woman

many of them employed as domestic workers.

According to Mazumdar and Neetha (2011), in 2007-08, 85 per cent of the female population was completely economically/ financially dependent and without any employment/ income when GDP growth rates had reached an all time high. Given the further reduction in FWPR in 2009-10, such an extreme situation of financial dependence among the female population is likely to have further aggravated. The scale of such economic/financial dependence is perhaps the most significant factor in the continuing subordinate status of women in our society with all its extreme forms.

8.6. Trends in Political Participation

Political engagement of women and making them part of decision making process is an important instrument for their empowerment. India being a democratic country has a multi-tiered governance - central, states and local government. The Constitution of India recommends reservation of seats to women and other disadvantaged sections in all political bodies, ie., parliament; state assemblies; Zilla Panchayat, Taluk Panchayat and Gram Panchayat; and Urban Local Bodies. As far as reservation to women is concerned, the provision was earlier for 33 per cent, which has been enhanced to 50 per cent. This is expected to bring more number of women into the mainstream and enable them to participate in deliberations and decision making process. Since women are supposed to be more considerate and humane than men, ensuring women participation is expected to improve overall governance and achieve better results. However, so far reservation is given only for the local bodies and not for state legislative houses and parliament. Hence, in order to measure the participation of women, we need to look at their membership in various local bodies only (Table 8.8). No lady was elected to the Parliament and currently no women represents Raichur district either in the state legislature or in the parliament.

Table 8.8: % Female Elected Representatives in Local Bodies in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	ZP	TP	GP	ULBs	All
Devadurga	33.3	52.4	39.5	34.8	39.8
Lingsugur	57.1	53.8	39.2	38.1	39.8
Manvi	37.5	53.3	39.7	34.8	40.1
Raichur	50.0	52.2	40.3	34.3	40.5
Sindhnur	75.0	56.7	39.8	38.7	40.7
District	51.4	53.8	39.7	36.4	40.2
Total Number	18 (35)	70 (130)	1032 (3278)	56 (154)	1446 (3597)

Note: Figures in brackets are the total number of elected representatives
Source: DSO, Raichur

There were 3,597 elected representatives in local governments of Raichur in 2011-12, consisting of 35 members of the ZP, 130 of the five TPs, 3278 members of 127 GPs and 154 of 6 ULBs. Among them, the women representatives were 1446 who accounted for 40 per cent. This

percentage varies across the type of the institution. ZP had 51 per cent women representation; TPs had 54 per cent representation; GPs had 40 per cent; and ULBs had 36 per cent. The representation of women in local bodies is higher than that in legislature or parliament because of the statutory reservation given to women. For all local bodies, the female representation is around 40 per cent. Trainings and sensitization workshops have enabled the women representatives to be more responsive and responsible to the needs of the electorate they represent. As a result of such interventions, gradual change is being noticed and in certain cases women representatives have done commendable jobs.

8.7. Community Attitudes and Social Prejudices, if any, affecting Women and Girl Children

Raichur district does not report any practices, customs or attitudes that go against the girl child or women.

8.8. Crimes against Women

Women are an important component of our population, hence the society. Because of the cultural and social traits of the society, women are not treated on par and many a times are subjected violence both inside and outside the house. Number of crimes against women is reported in Table 8.9.

The number of all crimes was 4446 in 2011 and came down to 3277 in 2012. Further up to the end of August 2013, the total number of reported crimes was 3199. Similarly, the number of reported crimes against women also came down from 291 in 2011 to 257 in 2012 and was 202 till the end of August 2013. Thus, the number of all crimes and those against females has gradually declined. Crimes under miscellaneous IPC were the major crimes against women which accounted for half of the crimes. The other major types of crimes were dowry harassment, molestation and rape. The prevalence of dowry deaths indicates the unhealthy and cruel nature of the society. The average number of crimes comes to 22 per 10000 persons; and those against women count to 30 per lakh. Of course, the laws and legislations and police are always there, but what is required is the education about values and morals about women. Concerted efforts need to be made in this direction if the crimes are to be reduced and averted.

Table 8.9: Number of Crimes against Women in Raichur District, 2011, 2012 and 2013

Crime	2011	2012	2013*
Dowry death	11	2	1
Dowry Harassment	99	107	74
Molestation	148	126	99
Rape	33	22	28
Total against women	291	257	202
Total of all crimes	4446	3277	3199
Total number of crimes per 10000 people		22*	
Crimes against women per lakh women		30*	

*Note: * Upto the end of October 2013 only; ** Average of three years reported*
Source: District Crime Records Bureau, Raichur



8.9. Role of Women's Groups and SHGs

Prof. Mohammad Yunus of Bangladesh successfully experimented with small mutual co-operative institutions and called them as the self help groups (SHGs). These groups being associations of limited women members (up to 20) helped in mobilizing resources, availing credit from formal institutions, organizing production and marketing, promoting saving and enabling the members to participate actively in socio-political processes in their respective areas. It began as a movement and is a potent weapon for reducing the deprivation of women and empowering them. SEWA Bank in India has also performed commendably in achieving financial inclusion and economic empowerment of women. In Karnataka, the SHGs are set up either with the assistance of government or through NGOs. The government sponsored SHGs are known as Stree Shakti Sanghas and are supported and supervised by the Department of Women and Child Development. NGOs like SKDRDS and others are operating in the district. Almost every village has a SHG, either Stree Shakti or NGO sponsored. Hence, the participation of women through Stree Shakti groups is analyzed here and Table 8.10 furnishes the relevant data.

Majority of these SHGs are engaged in income generating activities means that the SHG movement has brought about a significant change in economic and political participation of women.

There were 5045 SHGs in the district with a membership of nearly than 77,000. Significant aspect of the operation of the SHGs is that all of them are linked to the formal banking sector and quite a few of them have borrowed for various activities. This performance needs to be strengthened and reinforced. That majority of these SHGs are engaged in income generating activities means that the SHG movement has brought about a significant change in economic and political participation of women.

Similarly, there are 222 SHGs formed under the urban Stree Shakti Scheme serving 3437 members and 150 SHGs formed under the Devadasi Rehabilitation Scheme which are catering to nearly 1500 members. Table 8.11 furnishes information on SHGs formed by the NGOs in Raichur District.

Hence, in all there are more than 12500 SHGs serving more than 1.6 lakh members. Yet the penetration rate is low and it is necessary to make all of them functional. Apart from the SHG formation NGOs are also working for the betterment of the socio-economic conditions of women in Raichur district.

Table 8.10: Stree Shakti SHGs in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	No. of SHGs	No. of Members	% SHGs Availing Bank Loan
Devadurga	735	11314	7.35
Lingsugur	940	14377	2.23
Manvi	1100	17597	6.45
Raichur	1140	18341	5.79
Sindhnur	1130	15325	6.55
District	5045	76954	5.67

Source: DSO, Raichur

8.9.1 Government Schemes for Promotion of Women and Child Development

The Department of Women and Child Development (DWCD) of Raichur ZP, implements a number of schemes for development of its clientele. Below is a brief account of such schemes and programmes.

Bhagyalkshmi Scheme: Under the scheme, BPL families are given a Bond worth Rs.10,000/- if a girl child is born. The Bond would mature after 16 years and could be used for marriage expense of that child. This scheme, therefore, aims at changing the attitude of people about the girl child that it is a burden. Since its inception in 2006-07, 80,307 beneficiaries have been issued Bhaygyalakshmi bonds

Balasanjivini Scheme: Under the scheme, government provides grants upto a sum of Rs. 35,000 for treating undernourished children in the 0-6 years age group, who are identified as severely malnourished by the anganwadi workers. For treatment of new born underweight children, a grant of Rs. 50,000 is available from the government. Under this scheme, during April to July 2014, 174 children have been provided treatment at a cost of Rs. 9.23 lakhs.

Rehabilitation Centre for Malnourished Children: Two such centres are functional in District Hospital at Raichur and Taluk Hospital Manvi. These centres provide treatment along with supplementary nutrition to children identified as malnourished by anganwadi centres. So far 707 children have been rehabilitated by the Centres.

Table 8.11: SHGs Formed by NGOs in Raichur District, 2012-13

Name of the NGO	No. of SHGs formed	No. of members
Shri basaveshwar Yuvak Mandal, Kodluru, Tal: Manvi	320	4800
Samuha, Devadurga	770	--
Graam Society, Lingsugur	372	5585
Kisan Bharati Trust, Sindhnur	498	7044
Janahitha	103	1439
H.R.D.S., Raichur	265	3180
SKDRDS, Raichur	4700	56400
Mahila Jagruti Trust, Potnal	65	1200

Source: DD, WCD, Raichur

Stree Shakti Scheme: In order to promote self-reliance among rural women belonging to BPL households, assistance is given to form SHGs and involve them into income generating activities and thereby increase their incomes. There are 5045 SHGs with nearly 77000 members in the district. Assistance is given in terms of seed money, bank linkage, marketing assistance and space for offices and marketing of their products.

Santvana: The scheme is meant for counselling and financial and legal assistance to victims of violence, exploitation and rape. In certain cases, temporary shelter is also provide to them and are made self-reliant. There are 5 helplines operating in each taluka and NGOs are engaged in counselling, vocational training and rehabilitation of such women.

Girls from poorer households and scheduled castes and tribes in addition to girls with less education are compelled to marry at a younger age.



Domestic Violence: Under the provisions of the Domestic Violence Act, 2005, awareness programmes are conducted at the Hobli level. On every Wednesday and Saturday, legal experts are available in CDPO's office to assist women who come under this category. A **District Child Protection Unit** is also operating under the ICDS.

Hence, many government schemes are implemented in the district for the benefit of women and children.

8.10. Adolescent Marriages and its Human Development Dimensions - A Small Area Study

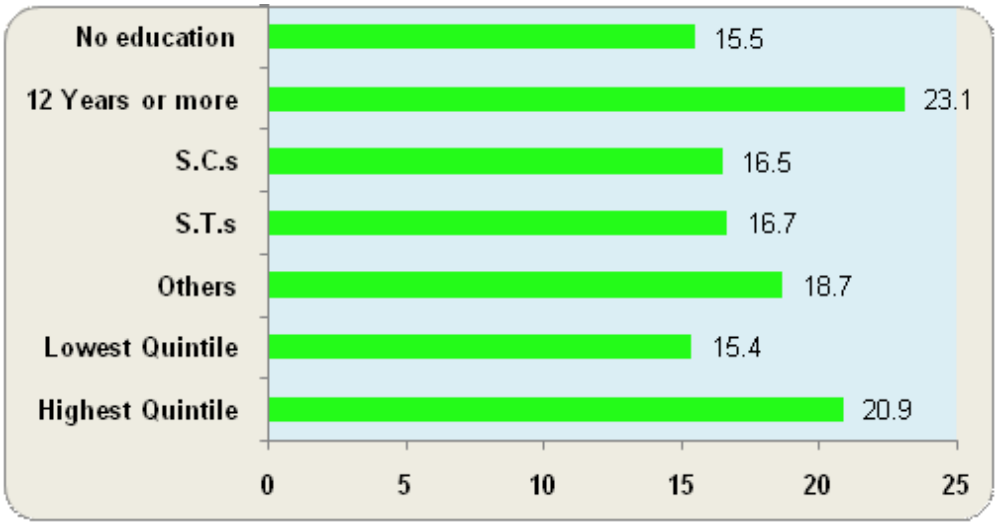
8.10.1. The Context

According to DLHS RCH 2007 08, nearly one-fourth of the girls in the state are married before attaining the age of 18 years (22%). Raichur is one of the districts where this percentage is higher than the state's average. Such adolescent (child) marriage is a major social concern and a violation of children's rights as it denies the basic rights to health, nutrition, education, freedom from violence, abuse and exploitation and deprives the child of his/her childhood. Although adolescent marriage is a common practice throughout the country it affects girls in rural areas (48%) more than in urban regions (29%). Disparities are also seen across different groups. Girls from poorer households and scheduled castes and tribes in addition to girls with less education are compelled to marry at a younger age (See Figure 8.3).

8.10.2. Harmful Effects of Adolescent Marriage

Adolescent marriage has adverse effects for the person and for the society as a whole. For both girls and boys, marriage has a strong physical, intellectual, psycho-logical and emotional impact, cutting off educational

Figure 8.3: Median age at first marriage among women of age 25-29 by different population characteristics in India – (NHFS) 2005-06



Source: NFHS, 2005-06

opportunities and chances of personal growth. While boys are also affected by adolescent marriage, girls are affected in far larger numbers and with more intensity. The consequences for girls are especially dire, as they are usually compelled into early child bearing and social isolation. Adolescent brides will drop out of school and be exposed to higher risk of domestic violence and abuse, increased economic dependence, denial of decision-making power, inequality at home, which further perpetuates discrimination and low status of girls/women. Adolescent marriage is also associated with several health risks for the young mother, as early marriage may translate into repeated pregnancies at a tender age when the body is not fully prepared for child bearing. Girls aged 15-19 are more likely (66.6%) to experience delivery complications compared to 30-34 year-old women (59.7%) and neonatal, infant and child mortality rates are much higher for younger girls. Risks of HIV/AIDS infection are higher among young girls as their negotiation skills and experience to ensure a healthy sexual life are less developed (Sahoo, 2011).

8.10.3. The Present Study

The study was undertaken in Kurudi village of Manvi taluk in Raichur District. The village lies at a distance of 22 kms from the taluk headquarters and has a pucca road connecting to Manvi. Being dependent primarily on agricultural occupations, the village represents a backward rural economy.

A sample of 36 married women below the age of 30 years was chosen and for eliciting information about their marriage, family relations and child bearing issues, women below the age of 30 years were specifically chosen for the study. The social group composition shows that majority (64 %) of them were from backward classes (OBC); 25% from SC-ST category; and 11% belonged to minority community. All the sample women belonged to BPL households since all of them possessed BPL cards.

8.10.4. Average Age at marriage

The respondents were not in a position to reveal their husband's age correctly as is evident in the Figure 8.4. While the average for the sample women is less than 17 years, it has been the lowest among minority communities and OBCs. However, the social group wise difference is not much. But what matters is the age difference between the couple. The average age difference among the sample is 7.78 years and as high as 8.75 years among minorities. This only indicates that girls are married off early and that too to a person quite older than her. However, as mentioned earlier, the age of husbands might not have been stated correct, but the age gap between husband and the wife has implications for family health as well as personal health.

Adolescent marriage is also associated with several health risks for the young mother, as early marriage may translate into repeated pregnancies at a tender age when the body is not fully prepared for child bearing.

Figure 8.4: Age of Marriage (years)

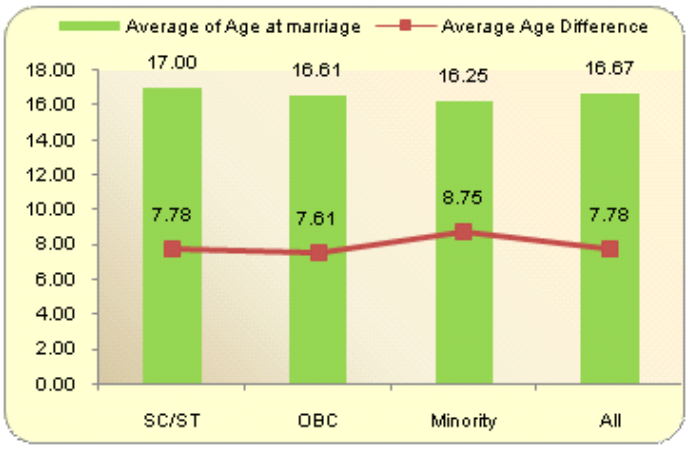
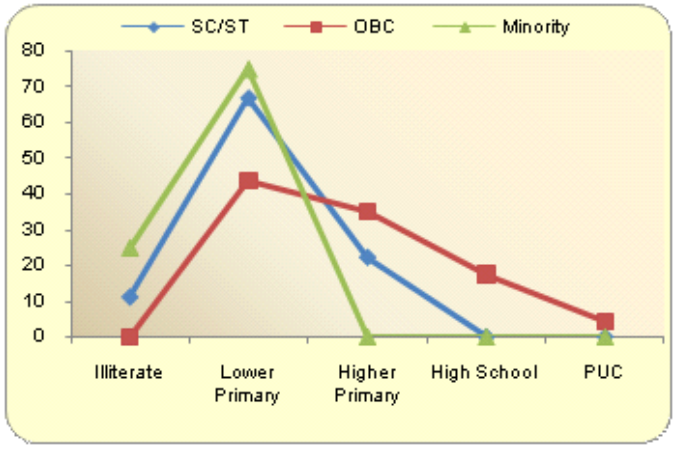


Figure 8.5: Respondents by Education (%)



Source: Field Survey

8.10.5. Education and Schooling of the Respondent Women

One serious human development consequence of adolescent/child marriage is the withdrawl of the girl/child from the school. In fact, 3 women (6%) stated that they were attending school when they got married. This apart when we classify the sample respondents by their educational attainments shows a dismal situation. 6 per cent of all respondents were illiterates, 81 per cent had only primary schooling and very few of them studied beyond primary. Across social groups, 25 per cent of minority sample were illiterate and the remaining 75 per cent studied only upto primary level.



In case of SC-ST sample women 11 per cent were not literate and the remaining 83 per cent studied upto primary level. None of the sample women from OBC communities reported to be illiterate, 78 per cent to be literate upto primary level, 17 per cent completing high school and 4 per cent going up to PUC level.

Thus, there is a clear pattern with minority girls being married very early and majority of them not having adequate schooling. Further, the survey revealed that hardly 50 per cent of the sample women were asked about their willingness to marry among minorities. This proportion was half among OBCs and more than three-fourths among SC-ST households. Hence, the decision of marriage was imposed on the young girls.

A crucial aspect of Indian marriages is whether the alliance is new (outside existing relations) or from among the existing ones. The survey reveals that 56 per cent of marriages took place within the relations. This is akin to consanguineous marriage which has been found to affect the health of children. The proportion is relatively more among SC-ST and OBC respondents. Availability of a spouse within relation network motivates parents to get their daughter married off at an early age.

Having married at an early age and with considerable age difference, the girl feels secluded in the new home and many a times she will be having no companion to understand/share her feelings. Husband is the only person to whom she can look to. Fortunately, in 19 per cent of the sample, the respondent says her husband understands her feelings. However, the percentage is quite low among minorities at 50 per cent, compared to SC-ST respondents (67 per cent and OBC respondents (78 per cent). The extent of understanding is higher among marriages outside relation (75 per cent) compared to inside (70 per cent). Similarly, lesser the age difference, greater is the probability of understanding wife's feelings. For age difference of less than 10 years in 80 per cent of the cases understanding is reported and if the gap is higher, the proportion is only 55 per cent. Generally, it may be said that the women are at a disadvantage in this regard.

Apart from husband who is the other person with whom they share their feelings? The opinions of the respondents reveal that they prefer to talk to elders in the village more (25 per cent) followed by their neighbors and mother in law (19 per cent each), mother (17 per cent) and other family members like brothers and sisters. Only in case of minority respondents, it is revealed that they prefer to share their feelings with neighbors and their mother. That village elders and neighbors are the major vents for feelings of women hints at not so cordial atmosphere at home. This affects women's physical and psychological health.

Adolescent marriage is also accompanied by domestic violence. The survey attempted to capture the same with two indirect questions. One is does husband scold the wife? And does the husband beat her? Not so surprisingly, nearly half of the respondents answer in the affirmative with the proportion being very high for SC-ST respondents (67 per cent) and 50 per cent in minority sample. In OBCs too, although the proportion was smaller, it was considerable at 39 per cent. Thus, early marriage has the effect of a higher domestic violence. Surprisingly, percentage women reporting to have been scolded increases with age gap between the two. For less than 10 years of age gap, about 38 per cent respond to have got scolding compared to 64 per cent when the age gap is more than 10 years.

Another serious dimension of domestic violence is whether husband beats the wife. 28 per cent of sample women report that they have been beaten by their husbands. Minority and OBC households have a comparable proportion of such women, but 33 per cent of SC-ST respondents do report so. Even here also, the age difference has a positive association with the percentage



Having married at an early age and with considerable age difference, the girl feels secluded in the new home and many a times she will be having no companion to understand/share her feelings.



respondents reported to have been beaten by their husbands.

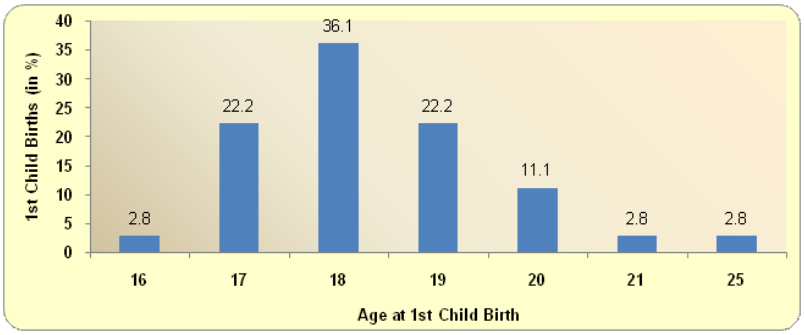
Hence, early marriage snatches the girl of her childhood, her right to get educated and she is often verbally and physically abused. More serious is she being forced to bear children. Since she is not matured enough to bear the child not only she risks her health but also of the child. In fact this is one of the predominant reasons for a higher incidence of children born with low weight, infant and child mortality as well as maternal mortality.

Among the respondent women, the average age at which the first child was born has been 18.4 years, which is considered as a risky age for child birth. It is the highest at 18.8 years among SC-ST sample and lowest at 18 years among minority respondents. All the 36 women had children and majority of them reported they delivered their first child when they were below the age of 19 years. The age wise child bearing shows an interesting pattern (see Figure 8.6).

The reproductive cycle obviously starts at too an early age. The data shows that 83 per cent of respondents delivered their first baby before the age of 19 years. The proportion of women having children later on declines. Majority of the women had their first child when they were 18 years old; about 3 per cent at 16 years of age and nearly a quarter each at the age of 17 and 19 years. After that, the child bearing proportion comes down. This is to be viewed seriously from the point of view of health of the mother as well as the child.

Another aspect of women's health is how many children she bears on an average. Greater the number of children, higher is the risk to her health. The sample consisted of women below the age of 30 years and the data shows that the sample women had 2.72 children on an average. This was relatively higher among minority women (3), SC-ST households (2.89) compared to OBC women (2.61). As far as medical consultation was concerned three-fourths of the sample women did consult doctors for their previous delivery and all of them accessed the PHC and government health facility. Across social groups, while all minority community women consulted doctors, only 56 per cent did so among SC-ST women and 78 per cent among OBCs. Similarly, 72 per cent of women accessed advice, nutritional supplements and medicines from anganwadi workers. However, least proportion of SC-ST women (56 per cent) did

Figure 8.6: Age at First Delivery (Years)



Source: Field Survey

so and among minority community women it was 75 per cent and among OBC women it was 78 per cent.

Due to early child bearing and relatively more number of children, the women obviously face health complications at least during delivery. However, only 11 per cent of respondents reported of having faced serious problems during delivery. But two babies reported to have been born with physical or mental disability and interestingly both were from women below 19 years of age.

The economic participation of thee women was lesser with hardly 36 per cent of sample women being members of SHGs. Once again a lesser proportion of women from minority and SC-ST communities were members of SHGs compared to OBCs.

Having undergone the agony, at what age do these women expect their children to get married? 92 per cent of them state that they will get their children married only after they are 20 years or more. In fact, 69 per cent of them expect to get their girl children married only after 22 years of age. Obviously, in respect of SC-ST women, greater percentage of women expects marriage of their girl children at later ages compared to others.

8.11. Concluding Remarks

Raichur is a district that has sex ratio of 1000 and hence, they constitute almost 50 per cent of total population of the district, the proportion has increased slowly during 2001-2011. The sex ratio is higher than the state level and favorable in majority taluks, especially in rural areas. Sex ratio has also improved over the years. But the child sex ratio (0-6 years) has turned adverse and improving at a slower rate. Sex ratio for SC/ ST is better and increasing. Hence, the adverse child sex ratio reflects the disadvantageous position of girl child and hints at the actions to be initiated for improving it. The urban people of all taluks and rural Lingsugur taluk needs to be focused for improvement of sex ratio is lowest there.

In 2011, female illiteracy was as high as 61% in Devadurga; 56% in Manvi; 51% in Lingsugur; 48% in Sindhnur and 45% in Manvi; this needs to be tackled on priority. Gender gaps in literacy are very high in the district as compared to the state. However, female literacy has increased faster in all taluks, more so, in backward ones. The focus on low literate taluks of Devadurga, Manvi and Lingsugur should be continued.

Girls' enrolment increased by greater proportion than that of boys'. As a result, the share of girls in total enrolment increased from 46.8 per cent to 48.4 per cent, however, owing to higher dropout rates, the retention rate among girls is lower. The dropout rate (DOR) in the district is relatively higher, and is higher among girls than for boys. Naturally, the retention rate among girls is lower. This reduces capacity



creation among girls making them less qualified for higher positions that fetch higher emoluments with them.

The district's share of female workers to total workers is higher than that at the state level and the share of women workers to total workers has increased at the district level. Female workers account for 41 per cent of the total workers in the district as a whole; 26 per cent in urban areas and 45 per cent in rural areas. While Devadurga and Manvi taluks report higher increase in the share of women workers in rural areas, probably in agricultural sector; Sindhnur and Raichur taluks report higher increases in women's share of workers in urban areas, probably in the service sector. More than half of the agricultural laborers and household industry workers in Raichur district are females; about 27 per cent of cultivators are women and hardly a little more than one-fourth of workers working in other activities are females.

Female WPR is relatively high indicating probably distress participation in work to support the family economy. But it is less than 50% in Raichur, Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks. Even though the female WPR is relatively higher, owing to their lower levels of literacy, their participation in non-agricultural work is not significant, except Raichur taluk. This only supports the view that women work more in less skilled and less remunerative jobs and are, hence, economically exploited. That their political representation is also not beyond the statutory levels, they are also politically exploited. The incidences of crimes against women are indicative of discrimination and social exploitation of women.

High landlessness and casualisation of agriculture; increased dependence on tertiary sector; increased dependence of females on males as evident in declining FWPR; financial exclusion of women; and only providing the statutory level of reservations in political bodies have all meant no real empowerment of women. That crimes against women are still significant makes the situation worse. SHGs are active in the district and are slowly making dent in socio-economic and political life of women.

A holistic strategy of creating skills and employment opportunities and linking them with the formal market are necessary for making women to be part of the growth process. Organizing the petty producers and business women through micro-credit can bring about significant positive aspects. In the coming years there would necessarily be a need for job opportunities for women in the manufacturing and services sectors especially in rural areas where jobs in agriculture are not growing and, in any case, such jobs may not satisfy the aspirations of younger women who will be entering the workforce with some educational qualifications. However, the policies also need to be made more gender sensitive.

■■

Chapter 9

STATUS OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES



Status of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

9.1. Introduction

Indian society practiced a value system that was based on division and hierarchy which itself classically manifested in the system of caste-feudal patriarchy. However, the post-independent Consti-tutional commitment to social equality and social justice initiated significant changes. Equality was operationalised in the establishment of democratic socialism and the welfare state. Along with guaranteeing equality of citizenship, the state assumed the primary responsibility for compensating for centuries of discrimination, exploitation and marginalisation and providing special support to the Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST).

The SC and ST are administrative connotations, referring to population identified by the Constitution of India for compensatory discrimination and special protection. They intend to comprise those who were at the bottom and margins respectively, of the Indian social order – viz. caste groups who because of their low cultural and social status in the traditional social hierarchy and tribal groups because of their spatial isolation and distinctive cultures have been subject to impositions of disabilities and lack of opportunity. Socio-cultural practices of exclusion and discrimination continue to define the existence of the poor Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Cultural factors can play a role in sustaining inter-group *differences* in wealth, status and power.

Article 46 of the Indian Constitution imposes the obligation on the government to promote the socio-economic interests of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. This and many other provisions enshrined in the Constitution have played an important role in improving the socio-economic conditions and achieving a respectful position to the members of these communities in the society.

Since the beginning of the XI Five Year Plan, reducing social exclusion and reduction of inequalities are at the core of the inclusive growth approach. Social exclusion involves the denial of equal access to opportunities imposed by certain groups in a society upon others. According to Sen (2000), the distinguishing features of social exclusion in India are: it affects culturally defined groups; is embedded in social relations between them; and results in deprivation for the excluded. According to Thorat and Newman (2007) the form of

Social exclusion involves the denial of equal access to opportuni-ties imposed by certain groups in a society upon others.

exclusion in the Indian context is ascriptive rather than based on achieved characteristics. It is a manifestation of the processes through which groups are wholly or partly deprived from full participation in the economic, educational and social institutions that define social membership.

These two social groups constituting a huge proportion of the total population in our society are also traditionally, the untouchables who are involved in the most despised occupations and hence receive the lowest wages.

Caste has been used to regulate socio-political and economic life in India. This has resulted in the most severe form of deprivation of the dalits - consisting of SCs and STs. These two social groups constituting a huge proportion of the total population in our society are also traditionally, the untouchables who are involved in the most despised occupations and hence receive the lowest wages. The STs are often away from the modern development mainstream. Obviously, their social and political participation is also the lowest.

It is not surprising that these sections suffer the worst form of poverty. They are economically exploited, socially marginalised and politically disenfranchised. That the discrimination and deprivation have continued even after significant government intervention and support to these sections, shows how deep rooted the practice is! According to KHDR 2005, human development, as a concept, will have little value until the human development levels of disadvantaged people, particularly of the SCs and STs are raised to the levels of those of the dominant classes. Poverty, low educational and health status, low resource possessions, labour market inaccessibility, etc. result in their low human development.



The Constitution of India mandates a welfare state not only by guaranteeing the right to equality to all citizens but also by specifying the directive principles of state policy which have guided the policy making, in general. It also provided for reservation in all forms of elected bodies, government jobs and educational institutions. A specified amount of grants are also being earmarked for spending on these sections. Have these affirmative actions ensured in mainstreaming these sections? Have they earned their entitlements and developed their capabilities? In this context, the understanding of dimensions of human development status among SC/STs becomes imperative. The present chapter discusses these issues with respect to Raichur district.

9.2. Demographic Profile of SCs and STs

The total population of the SCs and STs in Raichur district stands at 4,00,933 and 3,67,071 respectively. Together they constitute about 40 per cent of the total population. Raichur district shares 5.52 per cent of state's SC and ST population. During 2001-2011, the combined population of SC and ST increased by 23.8 per cent against 15.1 per cent increase in general population. Table 9.1 shows that people belonging to SC/ST communities are spread across all taluks.

Table 9.1: SC/ ST Population in Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	Population				% to total population			% of Dist Pop	% urban share
	Total	SC	ST	SC+ST	SC	ST	SC+ST		
Devadurga	280606	60478	96535	157013	21.55	34.40	55.95	20.44	8.68
Lingsugur	385699	89692	65589	155281	23.25	17.01	40.26	20.22	14.27
Manvi	370670	78056	89190	167246	21.06	24.06	45.12	21.78	7.38
Raichur	498637	104849	63178	168027	21.03	12.67	33.70	21.88	36.20
Sindhnur	393200	67858	52579	120437	17.26	13.37	30.63	15.68	9.51
District	1928812	400933	367071	768004	20.79	19.03	39.82	5.22*	15.68
State	61095297	10474992	4248987	14723979	17.15	6.95	24.10	-	25.80

*Note: * per cent of state's SC/ST population*
Source: Census Documents 2001 and 2011

Except Sindhnur taluk which has 15.6 per cent of the district's SC/ ST population, all other taluks share about 20 to 21 per cent, each. Considering their share in respective taluk population, it is noticed that, Devadurga has 56 per cent of its population in SC and ST categories, whereas in other taluks it ranges from 30 to 45 per cent. Similarly, while SCs account for about 21 per cent of district's population, ST population share is about 19 per cent. Lingsugur has the highest proportion of SC population and Sindhnur has the lowest. Similarly, Devadurga has the highest share of ST population and Sindhnur has the lowest. Very less proportion of SC/ST population (16 per cent) lives in urban areas of the district. It is confined only to Raichur taluk, whereas in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks, most of the SC/ST population lives in rural area. Hence, backward taluks have greater proportions of these sections of population.

9.2.1. Caste Composition of SCs and STs

As far as caste composition is concerned, data for 2011 census is not available hence 2001 data is used to look at the caste composition. In 2001, about 80 per cent of SC population belonged to four sub-castes, namely Madiga, Banjara, Chalavadi and Bhovi. Notably, out of the total ST population of the district, 99 per cent of them belonged to Valmiki caste alone. Hence, there was not much diversity in this regard.

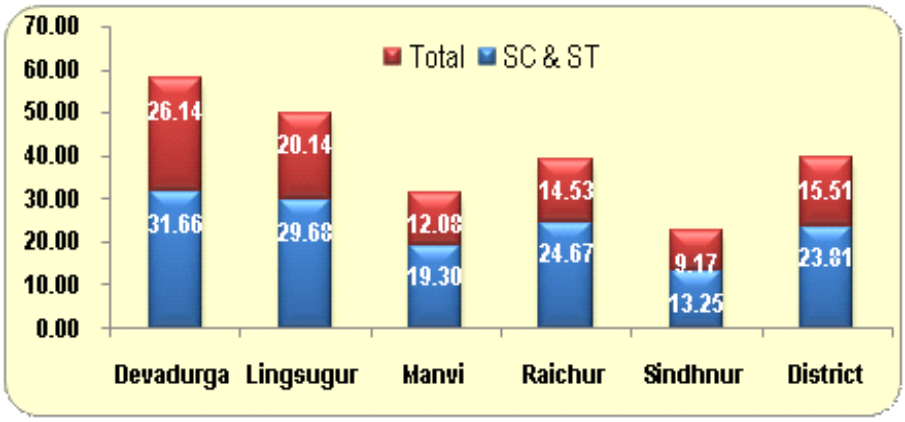
9.2.2. Growth of SC and ST Population

The decadal growth rate of SC and ST population is 23.81 per cent, which is greater than that of the total population of the district (Figure 9.1). Across taluks, the growth in general population and SC/ST population go along.

The growth has been higher in Devadurga taluk, i.e., by 32 per cent and in Lingsugur by 30 per cent. This high growth among SC

The decadal growth rate of SC and ST population is greater than that of the total population of the district

Figure 9.1: Growth in Total Population and SC/ST Population in Raichur District, 2001-2011



Source: Census Documents

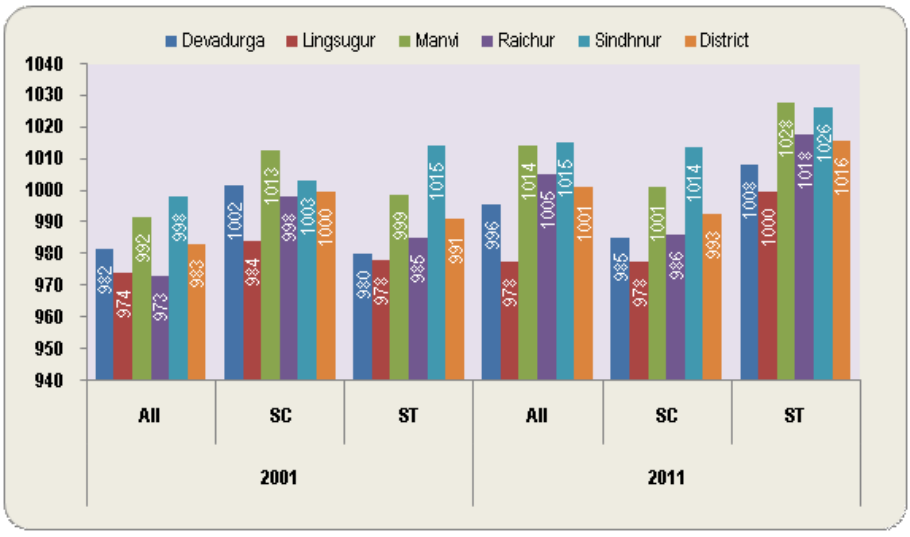
Since STs are a sizable share of population in Raichur, favorableness of sex ratio among them has also affected the overall sex ratio.

and ST population might be due to higher and increased fertility rates. It is also possible that accessibility to contraceptives to these sections may be limited. Since this is a very high growth rate the exact causes need to be explored. Growth being higher in backward region like Devadurga indicates the deprivation with respect to access to contraceptives and other development inputs.

9.2.3. Sex Ratio

With regard to sex ratio among SC/ STs, Raichur district is in better position compared to the state (Figure 9.2).

Figure 9.2: Sex Ratio by Social Groups in Raichur District



Source: Census – 2001 and 2011

At the district level, sex ratio among SCs and STs is higher than those for the general population. This is true for all taluks also. In 2011, Manvi and Sindhnur report sex ratio of more than 1000 for SCs. However, the sex ratio among SCs has come down in all taluks except Sindhnur, compared to 2001. Among STs, the sex ratios are favourable (more than 1000) in all taluks. As against decline in SC sex ratio, that among STs has improved during 2001-2011. Since STs are a sizable share of population in Raichur, favorableness of sex ratio among them has also affected the overall sex ratio. That number of women is more again points out to the multifarious deprivations.

9.3. Literacy and Educational Profile

Inclusive growth presupposes inclusive education (Tilak, 2007). Table 9.2 compares the literacy rates of SC and ST population with that of the general population. That Raichur district's literacy attainments are lower than Karnataka's in all segments of population is well documented.

The disparity between overall literacy and that of SCs and STs is clearly visible. While the overall literacy rate in Raichur district is at 60 per cent, the literacy among SCs and STs is 53 per cent and 44 per cent, respectively. Gender wise, similar to total population, FLRs are

lower than the MLRs. That the state-district gap for FLRs is higher than that for MLRs shows that the educational deprivation of SC females in the district is relatively high. The gap in literacy levels across social groups in 2011 is also considerable (Figure 9.3). The reduction in the literacy gap between the SC and STs and general population during 2001 to 2011 is a positive sign, but the gap between others and SCs (12.80 per cent) and others STs (21.82 per cent) still persists. Hence sustained efforts are needed to bridge this gap.

Census 2011 data shows that although the inter-group gap is declining, it is still higher, especially for STs. Similarly gender gap is higher for both SCs and STs, though declined during the last ten years. In 2011, the gap is over 20 per cent among both SCs and STs. Even the rural-urban gap in literacy levels has been narrowing down from 24 per cent in 2001 to 19 percent in 2011 among SCs. But in respect of STs, the rural urban gap has increased over the decade from 14 per cent in 2001 to 16 per cent in 2011.

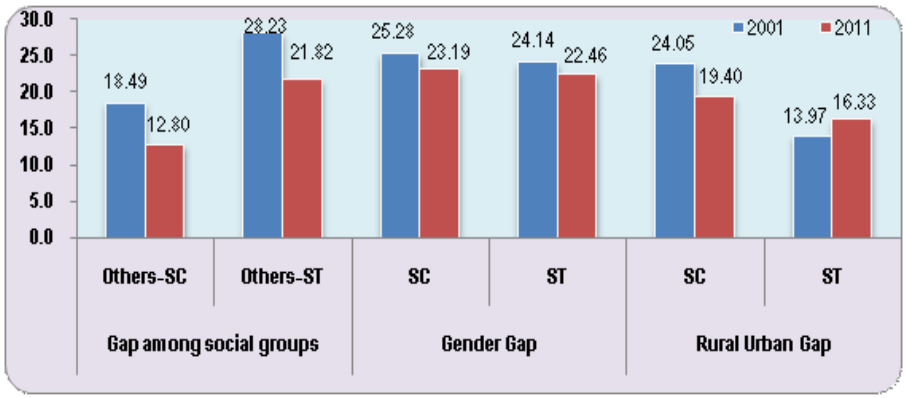
Thus, being born as an SC person in Raichur district deprives him/ her of literacy by 28 per cent compared to the general population; and that in case of an ST person is 22 per cent. An SC women is likely to receive 24 per cent less education and an ST woman 22 per cent less education compared to their male counterparts in the district. Similarly, an SC person in rural Raichur will be deprived of education by 14 per cent and a rural ST person by 16 per cent. Being born in Raichur as woman in ST community, she is only 33 per cent probable of being literate compared to 75 per cent chance if she were to be born in other community in urban area elsewhere.

Table 9.2: Literacy Attainments by Social Groups in Raichur District, 2011

Social Group	Raichur District				
	Rural	Urban	Male	Female	Total
SC	49.1	68.5	65.1	41.9	53.4
ST	42.9	59.2	55.8	33.3	44.4
All	54.1	75.1	70.5	48.7	59.6
Gap with respect to State					
SC	11.3	8.9	8.9	14.5	11.9
ST	16.1	15.6	15.3	19.7	17.7
All	14.6	10.7	12.5	19.6	15.8

Source: Census, 2011

Figure 9.3: Gaps in Literacy Level across Social Groups in Raichur District, 2001 & 2011



Source: Census – 2001 and 2011

9.3.1. Enrolment and Attendance in Elementary and Secondary Schools

The policy of compulsory elementary education and extending schooling facilities along with a number of special facilities

The percentage change in girl enrolment has been considerably higher among SC and ST categories compared to the total

to SC and ST students has resulted in increased enrolment of these students. Of course, this is a general tendency. The total enrolment has increased from 2,74,641 in 2005-06 to 3,07,985 in 2011-12, that is by 12.1 per cent. Similarly, the enrolment of SC students in the primary level has increased from 58,442 to 68,109 during the same period at a higher rate of 16.5 per cent. The enrolment of ST students has also increased by 19.6 per cent from 50,953 to 60,946. Thus, the children from the disadvantaged sections are coming in larger numbers to schools at the primary level. Among the total enrolled, the share of girls is less than 50 per cent, but it is gradually increasing. In fact, the percentage change in girl enrolment has been considerably higher among SC and ST categories compared to the total enrolment. Table 9.3 compares the enrolment shares of SC and ST students in total enrolment at the elementary level.

Table 9.3: Share of SC and ST students in Enrolment at the Elementary Level in Raichur District

	2005-06			2011-12		
	Scheduled Castes					
Taluk	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	22.3	21.4	21.9	24.5	23.6	24.1
Lingsugur	25.0	22.7	23.9	24.8	23.4	24.2
Manvi	21.5	20.7	21.1	22.2	21.4	21.8
Raichur	22.8	21.3	22.1	22.5	21.9	22.2
Sindhnur	18.2	17.5	17.9	19.2	18.6	18.9
Total	21.9	20.6	21.3	22.5	21.7	22.1
	Scheduled Tribes					
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	32.6	32.2	32.4	33.9	33.8	33.9
Lingsugur	16.2	16.3	16.2	17.4	17.5	17.4
Manvi	24.6	22.3	23.5	25.5	25.3	25.4
Raichur	13.3	11.5	12.5	14.4	13.3	13.8
Sindhnur	14.3	14.1	14.2	14.7	14.2	14.5
Total	19.0	18.0	18.6	20.1	19.5	19.8

Source: DISE, Raichur

It may be observed that the combined share of these students in total enrolment has increased from around 40 per cent to 42 per cent during the reference period. Similar change is noticed across boys and girls. Across taluks too, the increase in their shares of enrolment may be noticed except for Lingsugur and Raichur taluks in respect of SC boys. The increasing share of enrolment of girls is a welcome trend. Table 9.4 compares the changes in enrolment by social groups and taluks.

As already noticed, the enrolment increase among the girls is the highest in all categories of students. Enrolment of ST girls has revealed the highest increase in the district. Increase in SC girl enrolment is also significant. Devadurga and Lingsugur have recorded steep increase in SC enrolment; Lingsugur, Manvi and Raichur have recorded steeper increase in ST enrolment. Hence, the figures confirm that more children from SC and ST sections, especially girls, are getting enrolled in schools. But what matters is the enrolment ratios corresponding to the child population in respective age groups. Table 9.5 shows that GER for SCs is 101 and for STs, it is 104. It is almost similar for boys and girls. GER for SC boys is 99 and for SC girls is 104, with 104 for ST boys

Table 9.4: Percentage Change in Enrolment by Social Groups in Raichur District, 2005-06 to 2011-12

	SCs			STs			ALL		
Taluk	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	24.4	25.9	25.1	18.0	19.9	18.8	13.2	14.2	13.7
Lingsugur	15.9	21.1	18.2	25.3	25.7	25.5	16.6	17.5	17.0
Manvi	13.9	16.0	14.9	14.7	26.9	20.2	10.4	11.8	11.1
Raichur	12.6	19.1	15.6	22.5	33.4	27.3	13.9	15.9	14.8
Sindhnur	7.2	15.4	10.9	5.1	9.4	7.1	1.8	8.7	5.0
District	**14.3**	**19.2**	**16.5**	**17.0**	**22.8**	**19.6**	**10.9**	**13.5**	**12.1**



Source: DISE, Raichur

Table 9.5: GER for SC and ST Children in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Gross Enrolment Ratios						Net Enrolment Ratios		
	All		Boys		Girls				
	SC	ST	SC	ST	SC	ST	All	SC	ST
Devadurga	105	104	104	104	106	101	86.29	87.86	84.51
Lingsugur	105	103	105	102	105	103	88.03	89.90	85.89
Manvi	114	103	110	103	119	103	96.42	94.20	99.01
Raichur	83	101	80	101	86	101	77.30	75.00	79.91
Sindhnur	111	115	108	113	114	118	100.00	100.00	99.12
District	**101**	**104**	**99**	**104**	**104**	**105**	**89.13**	**88.82**	**89.47**

Source: DISE, Raichur

and 105 for ST girls. Similarly, the NER is around 90 per cent. The enrolment of the children has reached stability over the years. The mainstreaming of out of school children over the years has helped the district in achieving stability in enrolment.

On the basis of the DISE data, the overall retention rate for the children in in classes I – V, for the district is 81, with 80 for boys and 81 for girls (Table 9.6). There is not much difference in the retention ratios across social groups, as it ranges from 79 per cent to 82 per cent. But ST students have a higher retention ratio than SC students. Similarly, it is lower for girls than that for boys.

Table 9.6: Retention Rates in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	All			SC			ST		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Devadurga	80	78	79	80	79	79	81	78	79
Lingsugur	87	88	88	90	88	89	84	88	86
Manvi	78	73	76	75	70	73	79	72	76
Raichur	78	74	76	77	74	76	76	72	74
Sindhnur	83	89	86	78	86	81	93	105	99
Total	**81**	**80**	**81**	**79**	**79**	**79**	**82**	**81**	**82**

Source: DISE, Raichur

If you are poor, an ST and a woman, you are at the bottom of the ladder; and if you are a girl child, your life chances are slim.

Table 9.7 shows that the retention rate of students at the high school level is also lower for STs compared to SCs and for both of these compared to all categories. This shows that the students from these communities stay out of school in a larger measure.

Table 9.7: Retention Ratios in High schools in Raichur District

Taluk	All	SC	ST
Devadurga	85.77	88.18	82.53
Lingsugur	92.93	91.52	91.65
Manvi	91.07	96.41	86.13
Raichur	92.50	92.05	93.38
Sindhnur	92.30	92.57	91.19
District	90.91	92.15	88.98

Source: DISE, Raichur

Thus, enrolment ratios are lower for SC and ST community students and retention rates are also lower. Further, they are lower for girls compared to the boys. Efforts are to be made to increase retention rates at both primary and secondary levels.

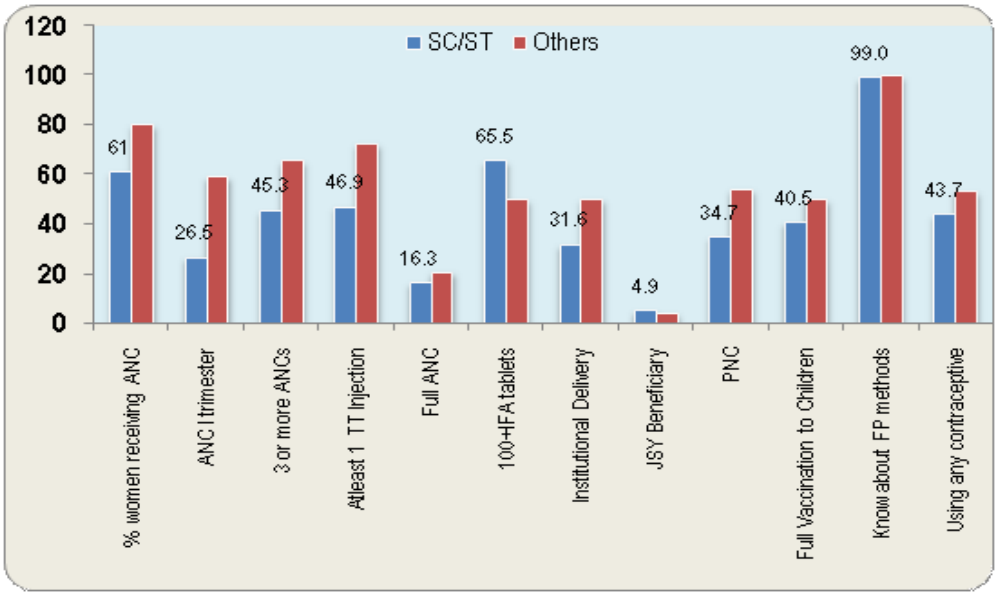
9.4. Health Awareness and Institutional Delivery

In the absence of data on awareness and utilization of health services by social groups, data generated by the District Level Health Survey Data 2007 08 is used to analyze the situation (Figure 9.4).

Except knowledge about family planning methods, in no other health dimension, the values are nearer to 100. In all the health dimensions depicted in the figure, excepting IFA tablets, SC and ST communities use less health facility than the non-SC/ST communities. Nearly 40 per cent of women use any contraceptive; and use of ANC is very less. The share of institutional deliveries among SC/ ST communities is 32 per cent compared to 50 per cent among other communities. Child immunization level is lower among all communities in Raichur and still

Awareness about health among SC and ST is relatively good but the utilization including institutional delivery and immunization is relatively lower

Figure 9.4: Health Awareness and Utilization by SC and ST Communities in Raichur District, 2007-08



Source: KHPT, 2011

lower among SC and ST communities. But the use of government schemes like JSY is higher among SC and ST communities compared to others. Thus, awareness about health among SC and ST is relatively good but the utilization including institutional delivery and immunization is relatively lower. This might be due to relative poverty and distance of health facilities.

9.5. Occupational pattern – Income and Employment – Livelihood Opportunities and Development Programmes

9.5.1. Work Characteristics

Work characteristics are studied by looking at share of main workers in total workers and work participation rates. Data from 2011 census is culled out and presented in Table 9.8.

WPR among SC and ST communities is slightly higher than that for the total population. Relative poverty of these sections, compels them to participate intensely in work. WPR among STs is higher than that for SCs. Rural WPRs are higher than urban WPRs. The earlier argument on distress participation in work holds good for this phenomenon also. Interestingly, male WPRs are higher than female WPRs. These people being asset less have to work to earn their livelihoods and many of them may also be regularly migrating to outside places for work. Percentage of main workers to total workers too follows similar patterns with STs, males and urban areas having higher values. Work characteristics define income earning features of a population.

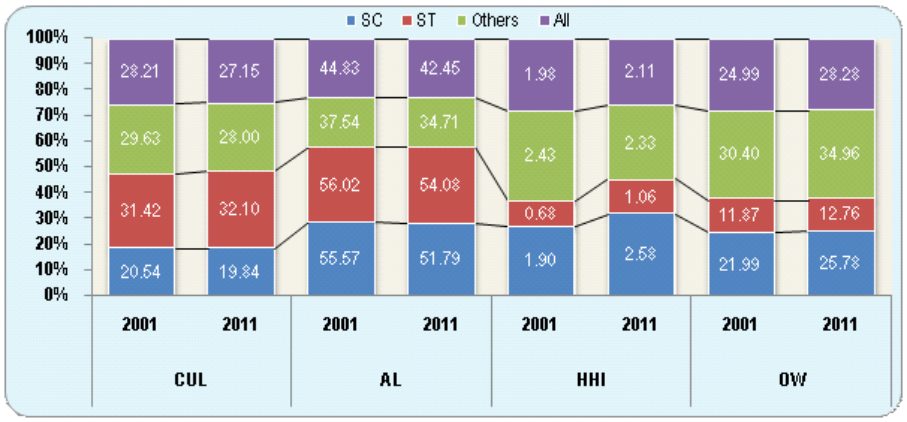
Data on occupational distribution of workers among SC and ST sections shows disturbing situation as a large share of them continues to be dependent on traditional occupations, predominantly agricultural labour (Figure 9.5).

Table 9.8: Work Characteristics of SC and ST Population in Raichur District, 2011

Social Group	T/R/U	WPR			% Main Workers		
		P	M	F	P	M	F
SC	T	56.69	62.78	50.67	77.63	83.70	70.21
	R	60.80	64.26	57.36	76.74	83.21	69.55
	U	42.45	57.61	27.60	82.07	85.57	74.91
ST	T	63.01	67.34	58.80	79.49	86.47	71.70
	R	64.40	67.95	60.96	79.21	86.38	71.44
	U	49.26	61.40	37.26	83.08	87.46	75.95

Note: P-Persons. M-Males, F-Females; T-Total, R-Rural, U-Urban
Source: Census, 2011

Figure 9.5: Occupational Pattern across Social Groups in Raichur District, 2011 (% of total workers)



Note: CUL: Cultivators; AL: Agricultural Labour; HHI: Household Industry; OW: Other Work
Source: Census – 2001 and 2011.

With low literacy attainments, even when they enter the other activities, they may be employed in the informal and unorganised activities where wages are lower, social protection is lacking and employment is seasonal.

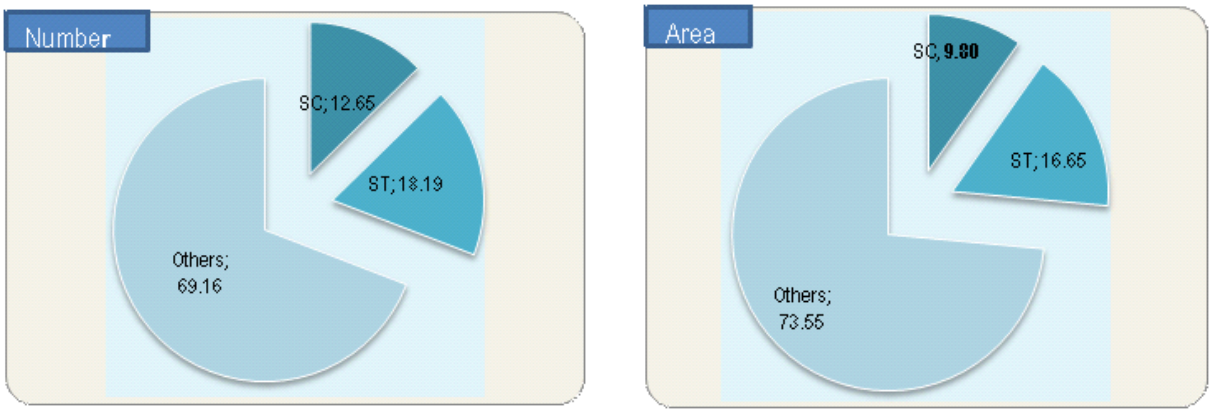
Figure reveals that dependence on agriculture is very high among SC and ST workers. Despite that hardly 20 per cent of SC workers are cultivators compared to 32 per cent among ST workers. On the other hand, 52 per cent of SC workers and 54 per cent of ST workers are agricultural labourers. That is, dependence on agriculture is around 72 per cent among SC workers and 76 per cent for ST workers. This is very high compared to the workers in *other* sectors. Further, between 2001 and 2011, while the share of cultivators declined among SCs, it has marginally increased among STs. The share of agricultural labourers out of total workers is declining among all groups, though slowly. Contrarily, the share of workers working in other activities is very low for SCs and STs. Thus, diversification towards non-agricultural sector is taking place rather insignificantly. With low literacy attainments, even when they enter the other activities, they may be employed in the informal and unorganised activities where wages are lower, social protection is lacking and employment is seasonal.

9.5.2. Land Ownership

Access to land is very crucial in a predominantly agrarian based livelihood system. But, everywhere SCs and STs are the most disadvantaged with respect to ownership of agricultural land. Figure 9.6 shows that SCs accounted for 12.65 per cent of total number of agricultural holdings in the district but cultivated only 9.8 per cent of total land in 2010-11. Similarly, STs shared 18 per cent of holdings but only 16.6 per cent of area. On the other hand, the other categories shared 69 per cent of holdings but about 74 per cent of area.

As a result, the average size of operational holdings is lower among SC and ST cultivators at 1.62 hectares and 1.92 hectares, respectively. For others, the average size of holdings is 2.23 hectares. Not only the average size of holding

Figure 9.6: Share in Number and Area of Operational holdings by Social Groups in Raichur District, 2010-11



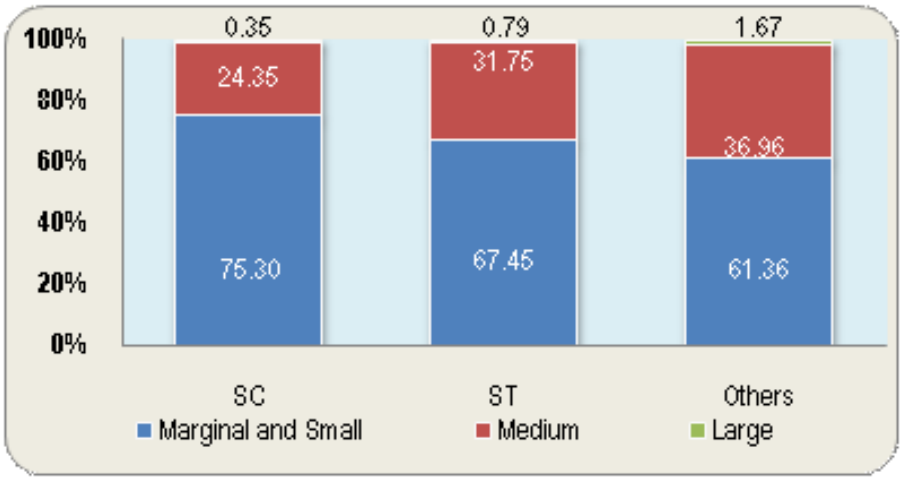
Source: DSO, Raichur, 2011-12

is lower, but the proportion of small and marginal cultivators among SC and ST cultivators is also very huge (Figure 9.7).

In this regard, NCEUS (2009) remarks that access to land is an important determinant of access to economic resources such as credit, as well as other resources that determine outcomes in terms of income. Further, the social identity of farmers is also seen to mediate access to economic resources and delivery of public services. Together, these factors account for lower levels of living of farmers in these groups, pointing to the need for concerted and multifaceted state policies and actions to ameliorate their disadvantages.

Because of the smaller sized holdings, and preponderance of marginal sized holdings, SC and ST cultivators are unable to use modern methods of cultivation and get better access to market their produce. It is in this context that the government programs to improve productivity, profitability and sustainability among small land holders assume significance. Making small holders more competitive by enhancing their technical capacity and linking them effectively with market (which is currently absent) can be an effective way of improving livelihood of SC/ ST households in rural areas. The strategy of exploring the possibilities of enhancing productivity can also be beneficial in addressing the problem of food insecurity.

Figure 9.7: Agricultural Land Holdings across Social Groups in Raichur District (%)



Source: DSO, Raichur, 2011-12

9.5.3: Employment under MGNREGS

MGNREGS aims to provide employment to unskilled workers in the vicinity of their residence at minimum wages, when demanded. Table 9.9 reveals a disturbing picture.

Table 9.9: Participation in MGNREGS in Raichur District, 2011-12

Description	SC	ST
% job cards issued to SC households	18.82	20.45
% SC households worked	18.87	20.97
% person-days worked by SCs	18.68	21.05

Note: Percentages are to respective totals
Source: www.nrega.in accessed on 2-4-2014

Although the proportion of SC and ST households obtaining job cards almost corresponds to their population share, what matters is the percentage of them working under the scheme. Hardly 18.9 per cent of job card holders among SCs, and 21 per cent among STs worked under it. Their share in person days worked is also at same proportion. This only shows that, the



programme meant for vulnerable sections of the society, who do not have secure livelihoods, does not seem to be working satisfactorily.

9.5.4. Schemes and Programmes of Department of Social Welfare

The governments at various levels, under the given Constitutional mandate, have formulated various schemes and programmes for socio-economic upliftment and educational advancement of SC/ STs. The Department of Social Welfare (DSW) implements the same. Although, majority of the schemes executed by the Department are funded by State Government, some schemes are assisted by Central Government under Special Component Plan (SCP) and Tribal Sub Plan (TSP).

There are 81 hostels run by the DSW and 65 hostels that are provided grant-in-aid (Table 9.10.) They cater to the needs of boarding and lodging requirements of nearly 12000 SC/ST students in the district. Of the government run 81 hostels, 28 are girls' hostels and 53 are boys' hostels. Given the lower enrolment of girls from these communities, there is a need to open more number of girls' hostels as a priority measure. Similarly, more than 27000 SC and ST students are given scholarships. Though hostels are spread throughout the district, 40 per cent of scholarships are availed by students from Raichur taluk. There is a need to increase awareness among students regarding the schemes available for SC and ST students.

Further under Dr.B.R.Ambedkar Housing Scheme 107 houses for SCs and 92 houses for STs were constructed during 2011-12. Similarly, under Indira Awas Yojana about 14800 houses and Ashraya Scheme about 10141 houses were constructed, out of which nearly three-fourths of the houses were allotted to these households and in Devadurga taluka 80 per cent of houses were allotted to SC and ST households.

In the year 2011-12, a total amount of Rs. 1472 lakhs was spent on welfare of SC and ST communities and SCP and TSP. It amounts to nearly 15 per cent of the total expenditure of the ZP. But it was

Table 9.10: Hostels, Residential Schools and Scholarships Availed by SC in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	Department Hostels		Aided Hostels		Scholarships	
	No.	Students	No.	Students	Pre-Matric	Post-Matric
Devadurga	20	1480	15	1080	3669	347
Lingsugur	20	1475	18	1375	2919	531
Manvi	12	825	9	675	2817	505
Raichur	18	1848	14	1473	9082	1971
Sindhnur	11	908	9	783	4713	605
District	81	6536	65	5386	23200	3959

Source: Department of Social Welfare, Raichur

about 80 per cent of the grant earmarked for their welfare. That not all the grant allocated was spent is not a good sign for the development of these sections.

9.6. Housing, Sanitation and Drinking Water Facilities

As discussed in Chapter 6, basic amenities like housing, sanitation and drinking water facilities determine the quality of life of people. A good house with all basic amenities improves the health and productivity of an individual thereby contributing to better HD attainments. This section compares the extent of availability of these amenities to the SC and ST households of Raichur district. Since taluk level data is not available, the district level data (Annexure 9.3 and Table 9.11) is used for analysis.

A lesser percentage of SCs and STs reside in good houses compared to the non-SC/STs. Here, STs are found to be more deprived among the social groups. The district has lower values vis-a-vis the state. Good housing is also characterized by access to amenities like safe drinking water, toilets and drainage. These facilities determine the health and nutrition status of households to a large extent. Obviously lack of good house also deprives these facilities.

The data (Table 9.12) shows that SC and ST households are relatively deprived of these facilities.

Table 9.11: SC and ST Households Living in Good Houses in Raichur District, 2011 (%)

Social Group	Raichur District			Karnataka		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
SC	92.17	94.19	92.62	93.34	95.82	94.07
ST	91.52	94.44	91.82	92.96	96.14	93.73
Others	93.79	97.05	94.86	95.29	98.49	96.70
Total	92.94	96.39	93.85	94.70	98.07	96.06

Source: Census, 2011

Table 9.12: Access of SC and ST Households to Basic Amenities in Raichur District, 2011 (%)

Residence Category	Raichur District				Karnataka			
	SC	ST	Others	Total	SC	ST	Others	Total
% of households with access to safe drinking water								
Rural	46.37	46.56	52.33	49.77	66.05	62.23	66.05	65.71
Urban	76.34	68.43	86.38	83.42	81.82	82.52	87.54	86.65
Total	53.07	48.77	63.46	58.67	70.69	67.12	75.54	74.15
% of households with access to toilet								
Rural	5.49	4.37	13.93	9.99	16.39	15.64	33.24	28.41
Urban	29.18	24.88	57.50	50.42	67.73	69.81	88.13	84.93
Total	10.79	6.44	28.18	20.68	31.50	28.70	57.47	51.21
% of households with access to drainage facility								
Rural	17.57	16.39	24.12	20.99	41.04	37.43	43.58	42.54
Urban	71.83	64.79	81.79	78.91	82.48	82.82	88.56	87.60
Total	29.71	21.27	42.98	36.31	53.24	48.38	63.44	60.71

Source: Census, 2011

Similar to housing, a lesser proportion of rural households have access to safe drinking water; and ST households are again relatively more deprived. The worst situation is with respect to toilet facility with only 5.5 per cent of SC and 4.4 per cent of ST households in rural areas report to have possessed toilets. At the aggregate level too, 10.8 per cent of SC households and 6.4 per cent of ST households report having toilets. This is an aspect that has to be focussed. Availability of drainage is also comparable, but ST households are severely deprived.

While electricity is more widely accessible (Table 9.13), modern

Table 9.13: Access of SC and ST Households to Other Amenities in Raichur District, 2011 (%)

Residence Category	Raichur District				Karnataka			
	SC	ST	Others	Total	SC	ST	Others	Total
% of households with access to electricity								
Rural	83.78	80.68	88.96	85.99	82.42	81.01	88.59	86.72
Urban	87.25	79.65	93.96	91.82	91.39	91.77	97.37	96.42
Total	84.56	80.58	90.59	87.54	85.06	83.61	92.47	90.63
% of households with access to modern cooking fuel								
Rural	1.45	1.17	11.33	6.95	4.32	4.00	15.09	12.02
Urban	25.18	17.53	45.37	39.99	41.62	46.58	69.64	65.34
Total	6.76	2.82	22.46	15.69	15.30	14.27	39.17	33.52

Source: Census, 2011

fuels are used by a very small proportion of households. In rural areas, it is insignificant.

Thus, for all the selected parameters, the values for SC/ST households are lesser compared to the values for the total households. STs and rural households are relatively more deprived. Therefore, efforts need to be made for enhancing the stock of good houses, toilets, drinking water and clean fuels to these households.

The percentage of households without any assets like radios, TV, computer, laptop, telephone, mobile, two-wheeler, car is very high (26.38 for SCs, 30.25 for STs) and quite high in rural areas. Households with access to modern cooking fuels is very low in the district, more so in the rural areas. Hence, the pattern is that these sections are poor, but STs; and SC and ST households in rural areas are poorer (See Box 9.1). Probably because of such deprivations, health status might not be good and mortality rates higher.

Box 9.1: Why are SCs and STs Poorer?

In a sample survey conducted in Raichur and Dharwad districts, Biradar (2012) reports that SC/ST communities in Raichur district have a larger household size. The WPRs are higher indicating that the high incidence of poverty has forced them to seek any type of work, whether remunerative or not. The proportion of workers in casual employment in agriculture is higher followed by casual and contract employment in non-agriculture. Occupational shift in favour of rural non-agricultural sector in Raichur was limited *vis-à-vis* Dharwad; and the proportion of labourers migrating in search of livelihood was higher in the former than in the latter. The wages are lower, social security is insignificant, higher percentage of expenditure on unproductive items and lack of access to institutional credit. Lack assets, lack of employment opportunities outside agriculture, non-institutional borrowing and limited possibilities to take up non-farm business due to lack of education and institutional credit are the characteristics of poor in Raichur, which are severe compared to Dharwad.

9.7. Composite Dalit Development Index (CDDI)

As part of preparation of the Raichur DHDR, a study on CDDI was conducted in Mundargi gram panchayat (GP) of Devadurga Taluk. This is a case study to understand the difference between perception and reality in a limited manner without any generalization. Therefore, the outcome of this study may not be applicable to any other similar, smaller or bigger geographical units. The study is also purely relative in the sense that it measures the deprivation in relation to the general population.

9.7.1. Selection of GP and Sample Respondents

Mundaragi GP was selected based on the parameters specified in the methodology, i.e., caste composition of the village as well as its distance from taluk and district headquarters. Discussion with District Social Welfare officer and PDO also helped in finalizing the selection of the village. The GP

consists of 10 villages viz., Mundaragi (GP HQ), Ganajali, Devatagal, Huligudda, Mandalgudda, Katamalli, Suladgudda, Gajaladinni, Mukkanal and Parapura. All the villages are situated within a radius of about 6-8 kms. The PDO, village accountant, GP members, bill collectors and members of SDMC were approached for secondary data and opinion about the dalit communities. The number of (untouchable) dalit households in all the ten villages was reviewed and it was found that in the latter five villages viz., Suladgudda, Gajaladinni, Mukkanal and Parapura the number of dalit households were too few to select sample of households. Hence, it was decided to restrict the sample to only the remaining five villages. Using random sampling method and with the assistance of waterman/bill collectors the sample houses were identified. The schedule of questions was translated in Kannada. The investigators were suitably trained to elicit and record responses.

9.7.2. Results: Based on the data gathered the following results are obtained.

9.7.2.1. Institutional Inclusion: Institutional inclusion refers to the involvement of dalits in local organizations like SDMC, JFMC, WUAs, SHGs and VHSCs in terms of their representations on the Executive Committee or Governing Councils. For each of the institutions there are prescribed norms for representation of these communities. If these communities are given higher than the prescribed representation, then discrimination is presumed to be lower, otherwise higher. In Mundaragi GP, JFMC and WUA do not exist; and in SHGs the representation of dalits is below norms. In respect SDMC and VHSC, only statutory representation is given, the value of institutional index works out to be 0.25.

9.7.2.2. Social Inclusion: Being traditionally untouchables, the Dalits were treated with a lot of indignity. They were not allowed to move freely and enter the houses of other caste people let alone places of worship. Naturally, their social acceptance was very low. They were to sit outside to have refreshment in a tea shop, had separate cups and plates, which they had to wash on their own; and were literally poured and unfit to be served. Even they were not decently addressed. They were the ones to carry the death messages. They were literally excluded from village festivals and collective functions, and hence the social life of the villages. Has anything changed after more than 60 years of planned development?

The sample households were asked questions in this regard. The answers are sneaky in the sense that they hesitate to reveal the true state of affairs. In the sample, 56 per

Let thou not utter
Whom is he?
Whom is he?
Let us utter
Ours is he,
Ours is he.
- Lord Basaveshwara

cent of respondents reported that there was no discrimination to enter the residences of non-dalits; 82 per cent stated that they are not discriminated for involvement in festivals; 72 per cent responded that they are not addressed with indignity; and 66 per cent felt that they are not discriminated as far as entry into hotels and tea shops is concerned. Thus, though not all of them agree that discrimination is not practised, lesser portion of them reveal unrestricted entry into residences of non-dalits and hotels. The index of social inclusion which is worked out at 0.70, on the basis of the percentage of respondents stating that there is no restriction in the above domains.

though not all of them agree that discrimination is not practised, lesser portion of them reveal unrestricted entry into residences of non-dalits and hotels

9.7.2.3. Perception of Discrimination: Discrimination is a perception as well as practice. It can be in various domains and forms entrenched in social beliefs and access to assets and amenities. Even the social assets like roads, temples, hotels, tanks, wells may not be accessible to them. Many a times the government provides a number of public goods for general usage of all. How are these accessed by the dalits? Are they discriminated in provision and use of basic amenities? These basic amenities are water, schooling and education and health care services. Questions were asked to the sample households about the nature and extent of discrimination in the access of these amenities. The percentage households who reply in the negative is considered for index calculation. Surprisingly, no sample dalit household perceives any discrimination in the above mentioned spheres as a result of which the index of perception of discrimination turns out to be 1.00.

It is reported by the sample dalits that teachers do not discriminate against their children in schools in respect of seating; involving them in various co-curricular and extra-curricular activities; and in serving mid-day meals at schools. They also reported that health functionaries too do not discriminate and attend to the clients from the dalit community in the usual way. Similarly, in terms of participation in work and socio-cultural activities too, majority of the respondents feel that discrimination is not practiced.

9.7.2.4. Protest against Discrimination: Since sample households do not perceive any kind of discrimination, they said there is no need of protesting nor there is tendency to protest. However, protest is bound to be there against discriminated provision of any service by the government. But, when it comes to discrimination in social and economic spheres, none of the sample households reported to have protested nor they will do so in future. Therefore, the index for protest against discrimination is calculated at 0.00 for the sample population.

9.7.2.5. Conflict Resolution: Conflicts emerge in the wake of

violation of accepted social and cultural codes of conduct. Especially, in a differentiated society, the probability of such conflicts is more. But the issue is: how are such conflicts are resolved? The question asked was: has any been conflict resolved in an amicable manner in the past? But since there were no protests at all, the question of conflict resolution does not arise at all. Therefore, because no conflict was reported and hence the issue of its resolution does not arise, the value of the index is worked out as 0.00. It may be said that neither discrimination is perceived nor they have dared to protest. As there were no conflicts, the issue of judiciousness or otherwise of resolution does not arise.

9.7.2.6. Perception of Freedom: How free are dalits to move about in the village? Are they given employment by non-dalit farmers and employers? Are they permitted to participate in socio-cultural events of the village? The sample dalit households report no restriction in movement in the village and also no discrimination in provision of employment. Because of the freedom of mobility as well as getting employed, the index value of this parameter is calculated at 0.60.

9.7.2.7. Standard of Living: In the section on HD among SC and ST sections in Chapter 3 it has already been noted that the SC and ST households possess lesser quantity of basic amenities, literacy rates and other assets. In the same vein, the sample households were asked about the possession of pucca house; electricity connection; ownership of land and having a non-agricultural establishment; as well as ownership of a motor bike/ scooter. Based on the proportion of households possessing these amenities and assets, their standard of living is measured. However, for the purpose of calculating CDDI a relative approach is followed. That is if the proportion of possession of these assets/activities is equal to or more than that for the general population, the dalits are assumed to be enjoying better standard of living.

Since houses and electricity are provided under government schemes, their possession is equal to the corresponding proportion of the general population in the selected GP. Pucca houses are provided under the government schemes to dalit households, concrete roads are constructed and so also drainage facility. Of course, not all of them do have these. The dalit households also have access to drinking water facility through public/private tap.

But dalits own relatively less of other assets like land, shops and vehicles. In fact, no shop or any non-agricultural enterprise is run by dalits. Despite dalits having better access to basic amenities, but a lower access to assets and



enterprises, the value for this index works out to be 0.20.

9.7.2.8. Access to Basic Amenities: Access to water through individual connections is reported to be more or less equal to the percentage of non-dalit families. Very few dalit households have toilets and almost all of them resort to open defecation. Similarly, drain construction is also less than that in non-dalit colonies. As a result, the index value for access to basic amenities is very low at 0.17. Hence, the non-availability of adequate land, lesser non-agricultural avenues of employment and low access to basic amenities has kept down the standard of living of the dalits.

The dalit women in the present sample reported to be taking rest, for a period that is above the prescribed norm, especially after delivery

9.7.2.9. Gender Dimensions of Dalit Development: The gender aspects of development are very critical to the understanding of the nature and extent of human development of any section of population. For the sake of the present study, access to maternal and child health services has been chosen as the variable to reflect gender aspects of development. In a study of the maternal and child health in Raichur district based on DLHS data Hallad et. al. (2012) report that while the estimated infant mortality rates are somewhat similar in the two groups (62 and 58 per 1000 live births among the SC/ST and non-SC/ST groups respectively), the neonatal mortality is substantially higher among the SC/ST group (49 compared to 39 per 1000 live births). Preliminary analyses indicates that most of these differences in neonatal mortality are due to the differential nutritional status during pregnancy, differential rates in home deliveries, differential quality of care during delivery and immediate postpartum period due to the choice of facilities for delivery (public vs. private). According to MOHFW (1997), utilization of reproductive health services is in turn related to their availability and socioeconomic, demographic and cultural factors such as women's age, education, employment, caste and autonomy; and there is general consensus that the health status of the scheduled caste population is very poor and worst. Our own discussion section 9.4 also made this point clear.



For the purpose of this study, however, the questions asked were: Do the dalit women follow the standard practice of taking adequate rest before and after delivery? What is the rate of institutional delivery among dalit women? Do they get adequate reproductive health support including required number of visits by local health personnel? The values for these aspects were compared with the norms and index worked out. Interestingly, the dalit women in the present sample reported to be taking rest, for a period that is above the prescribed norm, especially after delivery. Thanks to the expansion of health

services and support through facilities like 24*7 ambulance, the rate of institutional delivery is higher than the norm at 67 per cent. But the visits of health assistants was, on an average, lesser than the norm, so also other support services like getting IFA tablets, nutritional supplements, counselling and monetary incentives. As a result, the index value for this parameter is lower at 0.40. Part of the problem is due to lack of awareness about the services and also lower inclination to utilize them. A greater extension activity oriented towards health of dalit women needs to be initiated. There is also need to train a local dalit woman to provide such support services. This will improve the gender dimension of dalit development.

9.7.2.10. Access to Educational Services: Based on the relative levels of enrolment, dropping out and transition rates of dalit and non-dalit children; and their comparison to the prescribed norms, the index of access to educational services is calculated at 0.33 in Mundaragi GP.

9.7.2.11. Composite Dalit Development Index (CDDI): The CDDI is computed as a simple average of the index values of various parameters mentioned above and for the sample population of Raichur district, it works out to be 0.365. The converse of it, the deprivation index thus becomes 0.635, which is huge. These values are provided in Table 9.14 and Figure 9.8.

9.7.3. Discussion

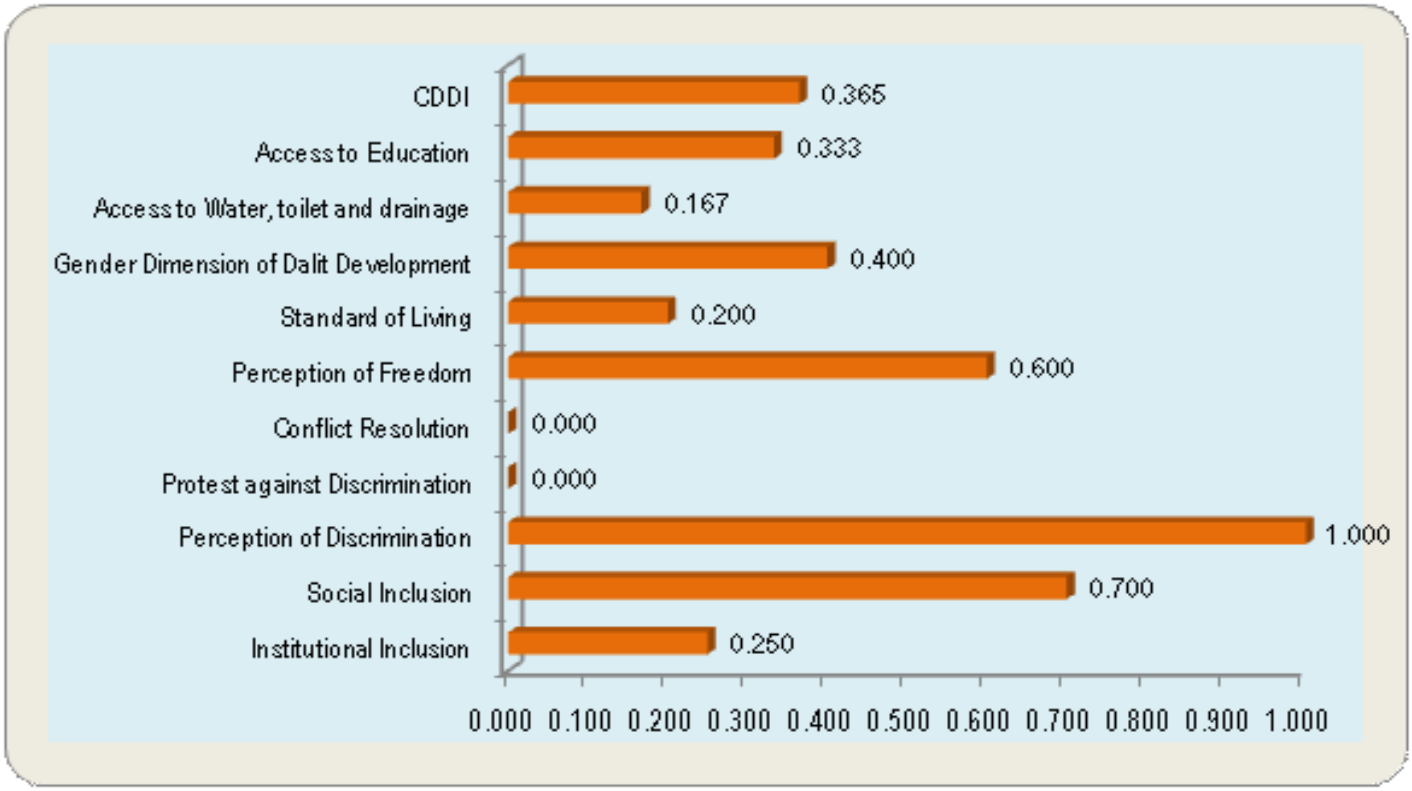
Dalits are at the lowest rung of the social system. They have been deprived of social, economic and political entitlements for a very long period of time. Have the Constitutional provisions and affirmative measures initiated by the governments in the post-independence era, changed their situation noticeably? Of course, the macro picture informs us about the increasing participation of these communities in education, economic and social arenas. Reservations at various levels and in financial allocations have created a space for them in the socio-economic life of the country.

Table 9.14: Components of Composite Dalit Development Index and their Values, Raichur District

S. No.	Dimension	Index Value
1	Institutional Inclusion	0.250
2	Social Inclusion	0.700
3	Perception of Discrimination	1.000
4	Protest against Discrimination	0.000
5	Conflict Resolution	0.000
6	Perception of Freedom	0.600
7	Standard of Living	0.200
8	Gender Dimension of Dalit Development	0.400
9	Access to Water, toilet and drainage	0.167
10	Access to Education	0.333
	Total	3.650
	Composite Dalit Development Index (CDDI)	0.365
	Dalit Deprivation Index (1-CDDI)	0.635

Source: Field Survey

Figure 9.8: Composite Dalit Development Index for Raichur District



Source: Field Survey

political power sharing, which is the most critical to command control over resources and finance is not really coming forth



But what is the scenario at the ground level? Do non-dalits treat dalits with dignity? Are they given representation in socio-political institutions? Do they have adequate access to economic opportunities? Are they able to utilize services meant for them? What is their standard of living compared to the non-dalits?

Based on the field survey in Mundaragi GP in Devadurga taluk of Raichur district; and interaction with PDO, GP members, school head master and health personnel, the following scenario of dalit development is depicted.

In India the dalits have suffered discrimination, hatred, indignities, inequalities, humiliation, exploitation etc., due to their low social origin. Post independence efforts to get them off from these disadvantages and integrate them into the overall sociopolitical scenario of the country have resulted in comprehensive gains particularly in the area of their educational attainments, improvement in socio-political status, etc.

But when we look at the results of the CDDI that is worked out for the purpose of this study, even today the institutional inclusion of dalits is restricted only to the statutory minimum. As a result, political power sharing, which is the most critical to command control over resources and finance is not really coming forth. Probably to cover up that, the non-dalits give space to dalits in socio-cultural spheres.

Discrimination being declared illegal, non-dalits seem to include dalits wherever activities are visible/measurable. Thus, the dalits perceive that the kind of discrimination that prevailed a few years ago does not prevail now. Further, expansion of education and a higher degree of interaction of dalits and non-dalits with the urban centres might have also contributed to reduction of discrimination. Many dalits have been recruited as teachers, doctors and other government servants, who have to be accepted and, often, obeyed.

But the real problem rests with standard of living. For centuries, dalits have been a landless class and they neither had/have the skills nor resources to start non-agricultural ventures like shops, businesses or even tailoring. Due to lower literacy and skill base, dalits are unable to diversify into non-agriculture. That there are no non-agricultural establishments in the selected GP indicates the absence of confidence among the dalits that they can start and run their business. Of course, lack of institutional support, especially credit, may be another handicap. Due to all these reasons, they do not enjoy a decent standard of living.

Since a certain proportion of government assistance is earmarked for these sections and also because there are few schemes exclusively for them, they have been able to get better houses, electricity connection, roads and drainage and such other facilities. However, health and related services are not adequately provided to them. As far as education is concerned, there is not much to be discriminated and various kinds of assistance are available to these sections. As a result, dalits today are showing better performance than in earlier times. However, in health, especially, maternal, reproductive and child health, the dalit women are not provided services on par with non-dalit women. This makes the health of the pregnant woman, mother and the child vulnerable.

Thus, lack of skills on the part of dalits, statutory minimum representation in politico-economic bodies, symbolic inclusion in socio-cultural events and almost neglect in provision of health services is hampering the human development of dalits. More significantly, the economic assets are not adequate enough to ensure a higher income and consequently a higher standard of living for these people.

lack of skills on the part of dalits, statutory minimum representation in politico-economic bodies, symbolic inclusion in sociocultural events and almost neglect in provision of health services is hampering the human development among dalits.

9.7.4. Suggestions

If the deprivation of dalits, worked out at 0.635, is to be reduced the following actions need to be initiated:

i. The reservation of seats meant for dalits in local politico-economic institutions should be increased and implemented effectively;



ii. In all the local government institutions, a separate Standing Committee specifically to look into the schemes meant for dalits, their implementation and evaluation can be created;

iii. In order to discuss the problems of dalits, their inclusion and implementation of schemes meant for them a separate gram sabha may be convened every year;

iv. For increasing the quantity and quality of education and health care to dalit members, a greater number of personnel to work as teachers and local health workers from among these communities ahould be appointed;

v. Strengthening awareness programmes about schemes, rights and entitlements so that dalits become aware about them and access the benefits due to them; and

vi. The socio-economic institutions like SHGs and such other institutions, exclusively of dalits, need to be promoted for their economic and political empowerment.

9.8 Concluding Remarks

The district has a large contribution of SC and ST population that constitutes about 40 per cent of the total population of the district. The district shares 5.52 per cent of state's SC and ST population. During 2001-2011, the combined population of SC and ST increased by 23.8 per cent against 15.1 per cent increase in general population. Devadurga and Lingsugur taluks share 45 per cent of SC/ST population in the district. Devadurga, Lingsugur and Manvi taluks record higher growth is SC/ ST population. The higher growth of SC and ST population suggests that access to contraceptives might be limited. Sex ratio among SC/STs is favorable and higher than that for the general population and that among STs is above 1000. Since STs are a sizable portion of district's population, favorableness of sex ratio among them has also affected the overall sex ratio. Very less proportion of SC/ST population (i.e.16 per cent) is urbanized and most of the SC/ST population lives in rural areas. There is also not much diversity in caste composition of these sections.

Raichur being an educationally backward, reports still lower literacy rates among dalits. Literacy among SCs is lower than the general population and literacy among STs is lower than that among SCs; similarly male literacy rates are higher than female literacy rates. The most critical gap is for females, especially in rural areas. The gaps are declining but still high. Thus, being an ST woman in rural Raichur district makes her completely deprived of education. Within SC/ST population, gender gaps are very wide but have declined during the last ten years. Enrolment ratios are comparable to the general population and

represent the increased awareness for education in all taluks. Enrolment among SC and ST children is increasing by faster rates and the proportion of girl students in total enrolment is also increasing. More children from SC and ST sections, especially girls, are getting enrolled in schools. There is not much difference in the retention ratios across social groups, as it ranges from 79 per cent to 82 per cent. But ST students have a higher retention ratio than SC students. Similarly, it is lower for girls than that for boys. However, at the high school level, retention rate for STs lower than that for SCs

Predominant occupation for SC/ STs continues to be agri-related, though it has declined overtime. Dependence on agriculture is around 72 per cent among SC workers and 76 per cent for ST workers. The traditional households industries of these communities have also declined in importance. Diversification towards non-agricultural sector is insignificant. With low literacy attainments, even when they enter the *other* (service) activities, they may be employed in informal and unorganised activities where wages are lower, social protection is lacking and employment is seasonal. They owned 31 per cent of all holdings but cultivated only 26 per cent of the land. Not only is the average size of holding 75 per cent less than that of the general population, the proportion of marginal and small holdings is higher for SC and ST cultivators. Dependence on MGNREGS is not significant, hardly 8 per cent of SC and 2 per cent of ST households worked in the scheme. Access to basic amenities like good houses and electricity and is better. But, availability of drinking water, sanitation (toilets and drainage) and use of clean fuels is very less making the condition of SCs and STs precarious. The composite Dalit Development Index being computed at 0.365, shows that the deprivation is severe.

This recognition of differences among social groups in achieving various dimensions of HD, is severely hampered by landlessness, poor housing, poor sanitation, poor drinking water facilities, poor asset holding capacities, etc. shows that the SC/ STs are not equal participants in the development process. Hence, there is a need to enhance the social capability of SCs and STs by improving their literacy; effective implementation of the programmes meant for them; induction of dalits in education and health cadres for extension and strengthening of these services to those communities.

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Chapter 10

GOVERNANCE AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT



Governance and Human Development

10.1. Introduction

Development planning has contributed to substantial improvements in economic prosperity as well as aspects of HD. The globalization wave that swept the world during the last twenty years has reinforced this growth trend. But a concomitant consequence has been increased socio-economic divides between and within countries. While some can actively participate in the wonders of technological achievement and increased prosperity, one-third of the global population lives in abject poverty. It is a world of stark polarity and inequality (Work, 2002). Development is not mere increase in incomes but a broader process that expands the real freedoms of the people. This requires "removal of various sources of unfreedom: poverty as well tyranny, poor economic opportunities as well as systematic social deprivation, neglect of public facilities as well as intolerance or over-activity of repressive states" (Sen, 1999). In the context of non-declining poverty, inequality and other deprivations faced by the people across the world, the UN has set forth time bound goals called as the MDGs. Attainment of these goals is expected to bring about sustainability of HD outcomes.

The size and role of government in a country's socio-economic development has been a matter of debate since long. Notwithstanding the arguments and counterarguments, in the recent discourses on development, agencies like World Bank and UNDP have stressed the importance of good governance in bringing about the expected changes in human lives. In this context, it may be noted that while the state remains an important player in the execution of development programs, the emphasis is on *good governance* agenda, through its prescriptions of efficiency, accountability, and democratization. Good governance is viewed as a prerequisite for attainment and sustenance of higher level of HD. The UNDP and most scholars, connect HD very closely with good governance. The 2002 Human Development Report (HDR) leads its chapter on governance with a quote from Kofi Annan: "Good governance is perhaps the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development" (UNDP 2002).

Community participation and boosting grass roots development plays a key role in the sustainability of programmes and improvements in quality of life.

"Good governance is perhaps the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development"
- Kofi Annan

Increasing number of studies indicate that the governance is positively associated with growth and social development.

Bringing the stakeholders together for defining priorities for projects and programmes increases interest and sense of ownership, this in turn promotes sustainability. Hence, the way in which development is conceived and implemented matters much. This is an aspect of governance of development. Increasing number of studies indicate that the governance is positively associated with growth and social development. The World Bank (1992) defined governance as the "exercise of authority, control, management, power of government and the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development. Good governance ... is synonymous with sound development management." The UNDP does not define governance beyond linking it with democracy (UNDP, 2002); good governance is democratic governance (UNDP, 2010). *Governance is broadly defined as the system of values, policies and institutions by which a society organizes collective decision-making and action related to political, economic and socio-cultural and environmental affairs through the interaction of the state, civil society and the private sector.* Governance comprises the complex mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations.



Governance thus refers to the functioning of the government which depends on whether a government has the requisite political and administrative structures and mechanisms and the capability to function effectively and efficiently. Elements contributing to the concept of good governance include the basic laws and institutions of a nation, the administrative competence and transparency, decentralization of its administration, and the creation of an appropriate market environment; all of these are needed to support people's participation in every aspect of politics, the economy, and society. These are therefore necessary components of good governance as "the government functioning as the basis for participatory development."

HD being a people centric process underscores the need for people's involvement in all stages of decision making. It is well recognized that decentralization promotes participatory governance, enables more efficient and accountable delivery of public services in accordance with the preferences of the people and creates an environment for participatory planning and inclusive growth. Decentralization, through participatory governance promotes a sense of ownership and belongingness, transparency and accountability. Decentralization and local governance are

increasingly recognized as basic components of democratic governance, since they provide an enabling environment in which decision making and service delivery can be brought closer to the people, especially to the poor. Participatory planning operationalizes the requirements of the people for public services into the design and implementation of policies. Decentralized decision making contributes to stable and sustained growth of the economy. It contributes to *good* governance which enables faster growth, human development and poverty reduction (see Box 10.1).

10.2. Local Governance Structure in India

India is constituted as a union of thirty states. Each state government has certain powers and responsibilities that are constitutionally mandated through a division of subjects between the center and the states. In particular, implementation of programmes in the social sectors is the responsibility of the state governments, though the center extends financial support to the states in specified areas for specific objectives.

The 73rd and 74th Constitutional (Amendment) Acts, created the panchayats and ULBs as the third tier of governance after union and state governments, representing the local government institutions. Following it, each state has enacted its own provisions within the directed framework. Some key features of the Act are: a three-tier structure of district, block and village panchayats with the Gram Sabha as foundation; direct and periodic elections; quotas for

Decentralization and local governance are increasingly recognized as basic components of democratic governance, since they provide an enabling environment in which decision making and service delivery can be brought closer to the people, especially to the poor.

Box 10.1: Five Principles of Good Governance

Principles	The UNDP Principles and related UNDP text
1. Legitimacy and Voice	**Participation** – all people should have a voice in decision-making, either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their intention. Such broad participation is built on freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate constructively. **Consensus orientation** – good governance mediates differing interests to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interest of the group and, where possible, on policies and procedures.
2. Direction	**Strategic vision** – leaders and the public have a broad and long-term perspective on good governance and human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development. There is also an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which that perspective is grounded.
3. Performance	**Responsiveness** – institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders. **Effectiveness and efficiency** – processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the best use of resources.
4. Account ability	**Accountability** – decision-makers in government, the private sector and civil society organizations are accountable to the public, as well as to institutional stakeholders. **Transparency** – It is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information are directly accessible to those concerned and enough information is provided to understand and monitor them.
5. Fairness	**Equity** – all men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their wellbeing. **Rule of Law** – legal frameworks should be fair and enforced impartially, particularly the laws on human rights.

scheduled castes (SCs) and scheduled tribes (STs), backward classes and women; delineation of major financial and administrative responsibilities, budget and audit requirements; a supposedly rational basis for resource sharing between the state and panchayats; provision for executive/support staff; a rather strict procedure for dissolution/ suppression of panchayats and mandatory elections within six months of dissolution.

The panchayat system is responsible for implementing various schemes related to poverty alleviation and livelihood security, besides its responsibility to provide a limited range of public goods.

Karnataka also has a 3-tier Rural Local Government System (called Panchayat Raj Institutions – PRIs). These include 30 Zilla Panchayats (ZPs, district level), 176 Taluk Panchayats (TPs, block-level), and 5659 Gram Panchayats (GPs, village level). The PRIs are local governments that report to their own elected peoples' representatives. This panchayat system is responsible for implementing various schemes related to poverty alleviation and livelihood security, besides its responsibility to provide a limited range of public goods. However, until recently, their involvement in delivery of such services as health care and education was negligible. Initiatives such as School Development and Monitoring Committee (SDMC), Village Health and Sanitation Committees (VHSC), strengthening of gram sabhas and promoting events such as children's gram sabhas are worth mentioning.

There is also a wider participation of civil society organizations (CSOs), NGOs and private companies which have increased accountability of political institutions and have helped in effective planning and utilization of resources at the local level. Hence, local governance structure is a mix of institutions consisting of panchayats, NGOs, advocacy groups and private companies.

10.3. Panchayat Raj Institutions: Structure and Process

The present structure of democratic decentralization is as provided in the 73rd and 74th Amendments. The working of the PRIs in Karnataka state is governed by the Karnataka Panchayat Raj (KPR) Act, 1993 that has been modelled on the 73rd Constitutional Amendment. The chief responsibility of the Rural Development and Panchayat Raj (RDPR) Department lies in the implementation of the provisions of the KPR Act, 1993. This Act aims at the achievement of the democratic decentralization especially for the rural areas. The Act established a three tier PRIs with zilla panchayat (ZP) at district level, taluk panchayat (TP) at taluk level and gram panchayat (GP) at village level.

In tune with the provisions of the National Act, the state Act has the following features:

- It established a three tier Panchayati Raj system in the state
- It envisaged elected bodies at all the three levels.

- It provided reservation for one third of the total seats at all levels for persons belonging to the backward classes who had an annual income below Rs. 10000.
- Offices of chair persons at all levels were also reserved in favour of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and backward class.
- Women get not less than one third seats in the reserved and unreserved categories of adhyakshas (presidents) and upadyakshas (vice presidents).
- It provided for reservation of seats in favour of SCs and STs in proportion to their population and for reservation of not less than one third of total seats for women at all levels.
- It envisaged the Constitution of a State Election Commission to conduct elections to the panchayats.
- It recommended constitution of State Finance Commission once in every five years to review financial position of panchayats and District Planning Committee in each district.

10.3.1. The Three-Tiers of the Panchayati Raj System in Karnataka

a) Gram Panchayat (GP): According to the KPR Act, a GP is constituted for a population between 3000 and 5000. The area covered by a GP includes group of villages. There will be one member for every 400 persons. The adhyaksha and upadhyaksha (president and vice president) are elected from among the elected members. There are three Standing Committees in the gram panchayat, namely: Production Committee; Social Justice Committee; and Amenities Committee. A Secretary or a Panchayat Development Officer (PDO) is appointed by the government as the administrative head of the GP. The main function of the GP is to promote economic and social welfare, education and health in the GP.



b) Taluk Panchayat (TP): For each taluk, there shall be a TP consisting of local representatives from the state legislature and parliament apart from one fifth of the GP presidents in the taluk are chosen by lots every year (in rotation). Members are directly elected from the separate territorial constituencies at the rate of one member for every 10000 population. The elected members of TP must choose two members from among themselves to the post of president and vice president. The taluk panchayat has the following Standing Committees: General Standing Committees; Finance, Audit and Planning Committee; and Social Justice Committee. A Group A officer of the state civil services is the administrative head of the taluk TP. TPs are empowered to supervise the activities of GPs in their jurisdiction.



c) Zilla Panchayat (ZP): Each district will have one ZP consisting of members of parliament and the legislature from within the district,

the presidents of taluk panchayats in the district and elected members in accordance with the scale of one member for 40,000 of the population. The elected members shall choose two members from amongst them to the post of president and vice president. The ZPs will have the following Standing Committees: General Standing Committee; Finance, Audit and Planning Committee; Social Justice Committee; Education and Health Committee; and Agriculture and Industries Committee. A Chief Executive Officer (CEO), not below the rank of Deputy Commissioner is to be the administrative head of the ZP.

Mandating reservation for women in membership as well in the position of chairpersons of panchayats at all three levels has given an opportunity for women to take the position of leadership.

d) Gram Sabha: The gram sabha is a statutory body of a GP. It is obligatory on the part of the GP to convene gram sabha meeting at least once in six months. All the adults who are in the voters list of the village are the members of the gram sabha. Thus confirming to the mandatory requirement of the 73rd Amendment, Karnataka became the first state to implement the Panchayati Raj Act on the basis of this amendment and holding elections to the panchayat under the Act. Since its enactment, it has been amended on many occasions, leading to some important changes in the Act.



Karnataka is one of the few states that have transferred funds, functions and functionaries with respect to 29 subjects (Annexure 10.1) as mentioned in the 73rd Amendment. It has given an opportunity to large number of people at the grass root level to participate in local administration. A substantial number of scheduled caste, scheduled tribe and backward class representatives have got an opportunity to actively involve themselves in local administration, which was otherwise a domain of upper castes and classes. Significant developments have taken place in the representation of women too. Participation of women has gone up sharply at all levels. Mandating reservation for women in membership as well in the position of chairpersons of panchayats at all three levels has given an opportunity for women to take the position of leadership. Today, rural women are able to participate in the decision making process. The 73rd amendment brought a new perspective to decentralization and political empowerment of women.

10.3.2. Functioning of Panchayats

As per the Constitution, Panchayats in their respective areas would prepare plans for economic development and social justice and also execute them. To facilitate this, states are supposed to devolve functions to Panchayats and also make funds available for doing these (as per State Finance Commission's recommendations). The functions of Panchayats are divided among different Committees, which are called

Standing Committees/Sthayee Samitis/Upa Samitis etc. One of the members remains in charge of each of such committees while the over-all charge rests with the chairperson of the Panchayat. Panchayats are supported by a host of other of officials, the number of which varies from state to state.

The predominant function of PRIs is to engage in local development planning, participation and resource mobilization. The PRIs are responsible, among other things, for development planning at the district, taluk and village level. This involves identification of local needs and resources for formulating local development projects, determining resource allocation priorities and locating projects within the integrated area development framework. The *Gram Sabha* prepares and promotes village development schemes during its open meetings, such as for school facilities, drinking water supply, a primary health centre, veterinary dispensary or a market link road. The demands are considered by the Gram Panchayat (GP), which prepares a GP sub-plan to accommodate the needs of individual villages as far as possible. The GP plans are incorporated into the Taluka Panchayat (TP) plans, which form part of the Zilla Panchayat (ZP) Plan. This process is designed to ensure that every local aspiration is taken note of. Information on the number of PRIs is furnished in Table 10.1.

There are 164 GPs spread over the five taluks, with highest and lowest number being in Manvi and Devadurga taluks, respectively. The population served by each GP is higher in the district compared to the state. All taluks report higher population per panchayat than the state figure. With the process of reorganization of panchayats under progress, this may undergo a change and lesser number of people will be served by each panchayat. This will help in making the panchayats still more effective.

The PRIs are responsible for development planning at the district, taluk and village levels. This involves identification of local needs and resources for formulating local development projects, determining resource allocation priorities and locating projects within the integrated area development framework.

10.3.3. ZP Raichur

Raichur ZP is a three - tier Panchayat raj system with elected bodies at the village, taluka and district levels constituted as per the

Table 10.1: Features of PRIs in Karnataka State and Raichur District

Taluk	Rural Population	Number of Panchayats			Average population per Panchayat		
		District	Taluk	Village	District	Taluk	Village
Devadurga	251677	-	1	28	-	-	8988
Lingsugur	297743	-	1	35	-	-	8507
Manvi	324205	-	1	36	-	-	9006
Raichur	247476	-	1	31	-	-	7983
Sindhnur	317363	-	1	34	-	-	9334
District	1438464	1	5	164	797484	159497	8771
Karnataka	37469335	30	176	5652	1292186	198233	6629

Source: ZP, Raichur

73rd amendment to the constitution for greater participation of the people and more effective implementation of rural development programs (and to function as units of local self government). The ZP structure and activities are categorised into two important elements.

i) **The Political Structure** - Raichur ZP is an elected body consisting of 35 elected members from geographically demarcated constituencies from within the rural areas of the district; members of Parliament of the district; members of state legislative assembly and state legislative council of the district; the adhyakshas of five taluk panchayats of the district. Adhyaksha and upadhyaksha of the ZP are elected from among the directly elected members of the ZP.

In order to facilitate greater discussion in the functioning of ZP, 5 Standing Committees have been formed. Each Committee consists of ZP members not exceeding seven in number including the Chairman, who are elected by the ZP from among the elected members. While the term of elected members is 5 years, that of the office for adhyaksha, upadhyaksha and Standing Committee is 20 months.

ii) **The Administrative Structure -** The CEO is the designated head all the department offices within the ZP and is assisted by senior officers like the Deputy Secretary, Chief Planning Officer and Chief Accounts Officer.

The work of Zilla Panchayat can be divided into following five sections:

1. Development Section: Headed by Deputy Secretary, this section is concerned with execution of all rural development schemes, water supply schemes, minor irrigation works, road works and other developmental works.

2. Administration Section: Headed by Deputy Secretary, this section is concerned with the establishment issues and general administration of all the departments of ZP.

3. Planning Section: Headed by Chief Planning Officer, this section looks after formulation of draft annual plan, formulation of action plans for different development schemes and monitoring and evaluation of schemes.

4. Accounts Section: Headed by Chief Accounts Officer, this section is responsible for receipts and releases of funds to all departments and various development schemes. The section is also involved in taking up audit of all the departments coming under ZP.

5. Council Section: Headed by Deputy Secretary, This section is concerned with recording the deliberations of ZP and various standing committees; it also follows up on various decisions taken therein and other issues regarding the ZP members.

10.4. Urban Local Bodies: Structure, Issues and Processes

The 74th Amendment to the Constitution extended local governance to urban areas by setting up urban local self governing institutions or urban local bodies (ULBs). Karnataka has 219 ULBs. These include 6 Corporations for the largest cities, 44 City Municipal Councils, 95 Town Municipal Councils, and 67 Town Panchayats for smaller towns. There are also 5 Notified Area Committees (NAC) taking the total to 224. The ULBs, unlike the PRIs, exist in a single-tier structure. The 6 corporations account for about 70% of the total receipts and expenditures as well as total population of the ULBs.

The ULBs are substantially under the state government's control. There are two main statutes governing the functioning of ULBs: the corporations are governed by the Karnataka Municipal Corporations Act, 1976 (KMC Act), and the other ULBs by the Karnataka Municipalities Act, 1964 (KM Act). Each ULB has a *'Council'* that is comprised of the ULB's own representatives (mostly elected by its citizens and some nominated) which is a policy-making and oversight body of the ULB. The state government has substantial powers over the functioning of the ULBs, and also has a major policy-making and oversight role. The Urban Development Department of the state government administers the ULBs. A Directorate of Municipal Administration within the UDD directly oversees the ULBs other than the 6 Corporations. The management of each ULB is headed by a *Commissioner/ Chief Officer* who is appointed by the state government. Like PRIS, the Constitution mandates transfer of 18 activities to the ULBs (Annexure 10.2). Raichur district has 6 ULBs as follows (Table 10.2):

Table 10.2: Type and Number of ULBs in Raichur District

Type	Number	Name
City Municipal Committee	2	Raichur, Sindhnur
Town Municipal Committee	3	Lingsugur, Manvi, Devadurga
Town Panchayats	1	Mudgal

Apart from these, there is one notified area committee (NAC), i.e, the Hutti Gold Mines.

10.5. Improving Service Delivery Mechanisms: *e* – Initiatives

Involvement in grassroots planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes is the main objective of creating PRIs. Obviously, it goes without saying that the success of these organizations rests on how well the programmes are designed and implemented and what processes are adopted in delivery of services to the people. Since not many powers, especially, mobilizing finances, are given to the panchayats, generally their effectiveness is still not felt. However, few initiatives are taken up by the government and the ZP itself to adopt some good practices in training of staff, educating the

clientele and making the representatives more accountable. This section summarizes few such initiatives adopted in Raichur district in governance especially in adoption of ICT in administration and governance.

E-governance has become a means to achieve the goal of 'good governance'. It confers advantages such as: efficient public service delivery; effective monitoring development programmes; better financial management; facilitating planning at the grassroots level; real-time information dissemination; realizing people's participation; and capacity to address new development challenges.

10.5.1. e-initiatives

Realizing the transformative potential of ICT, the Government of India and various state governments have initiated the process of applying ICT measures to reform governance for improving the delivery of public services for greater speed, transparency and accountability. The notion of e-governance is picking up as it confers advantages such as: efficient public service delivery; effective monitoring development programmes; better financial management; facilitating planning at the grassroots level; real-time information dissemination; realizing people's participation; and capacity to address new development challenges. Some of the elements of good governance, viz., rule of law, accountability, transparency, participation and people's control can be effectively achieved through it.

The objectives of decentralized governance viz., efficiency, transparency, accountability, responsibility and participation, social equity and gender equality can be easily achieved through e-governance. Therefore, e-governance and decentralization as both are integral parts of the current governance paradigm. E-governance has become a means to achieve the goal of 'Good governance'.

In this background, initiatives have been taken by many state governments to set up e-panchayats to facilitate the development process and provide easy access to information to citizens. All panchayats have been connected with broad band network and suitably trained computer operators are hired to make it a reality. Karnataka is a pioneering state to have set up panchayat portal to provide information regarding development schemes. A very important feature of the portal is that it gives information in Kannada language about issues concerning the local people. The portal also acts as a platform for users to know whom they have to approach for the processing of their applications and resolution of grievances. The portals are intra-linked with other state government departments so that it is more service oriented. A few of the initiatives under e-governance are:

- Each officer is issued a designated SIM and a predetermined amount of talk time is also provided for continuous availability.
- Each Panchayat is given computers with internet facility along with a trained computer operator;

- The government designs the software, trains the personnel and seeks to transact online for data dissemination and complying to its various queries and returns.
- The government also regularly arranges for training of various functionaries on handling of computers and other electronic devices;
- GPS based monitoring is adopted to review the stages of completion of housing projects for scheduling the release of financial assistance;
- Satellite based training and video conferencing are arranged on important issues for higher level officers to enable them to monitor and implement the schemes in a better way;
- The citizens are also allowed to access the information online without any restriction;
- Many departments have their own MIS under various programmes like the DISE in Education Department, HMIS in health Department, HRMS in DPAR, etc which have been functioning quite satisfactorily and much of this information system is linked to the internet;
- The government has set up Atalji Jana Sneha Kendras (earlier Nemmadi Kendras) to provide over the counter services for issue and delivery of important documents like birth and death certificates, submit applications for various government schemes, etc. A total of 36 services are provided by these Kendras;
- Some meetings (allotment of houses, for e.g.) of the gram sabha are video recorded and proceedings immediately uploaded so that there is no scope for any modification later on;
- **State Panchayat Portal**: The website of the Rural Development and Panchayat Raj (RDPR) contains link to among other things to important ICT applications like: MGNREGA-Karnataka; Panchatantra; Gandhi Sakshi Kayaka; e-swathu; Panchamitra; PlanPlus; Local Government Directory; Area Profiler; ActionSoft; National Panchayat Portal; among others.
- **Panchatantra**: Pancha Tantra Online System is an ICT-based innovation aimed at improving the functioning of GPs in the state through an automated process of accounting and budgeting of rural expenditures. It is a web-based application to assist GPs in fulfilling the basic requirements of a double entry accounting system. It has enabled all GPs in Karnataka to enter and monitor all activities at the village level in a more efficient, accountable and transparent way. The Panchatantra system

M One: Governance at Finger Tip

M One is designed as an integrated mobile phone platform, to be used by all citizens for providing a platform for m-governance in the State. President Pranab Mukherjee launched the Karnataka Mobile One App (M One app) on 8 December 2014 in Bengaluru. The app is first such initiative of India. The M One app is expected to provide more than 4000 services, including 637 government services and 3644 private services to the citizens. Citizens will be able to pay electricity bills, book train and bus tickets, recharge their mobile phones, receive traffic updates, track income tax refund status, book cabs, and much more through the M One app. Citizens can also keep a track of all transactions processed through this platform, complete with bill date, payment mode, bill number and many more services. It has been commented that the Karnataka Mobile One app is a pioneering effort to integrate mobile enabled services delivery system that signals a new era in Governance. This will improve delivery system and facilitate prompt redressal of grievances.

has several unique built in features that make the application user friendly and citizen centric. Moreover, it ensures effective monitoring of gram panchayats through a workflow system that ensures all the procedures and processes prescribed by the system are fulfilled in a timely and transparent manner. The information generated by the system can be accessed by the public and the government in real time. In all, the Panchatantra Online System has been designed to facilitate greater accountability and transparency in local governance. It is also used as a means for real time monitoring of implementation of various schemes and also evaluation of the overall monitoring of GPs. Panchatantra has active links to all major activities undertaken at the GP level and contemplates regular updating of information GP wise.

- **Panchamitra**: Panchamitra is another web application that gives detailed information on all aspects of functioning of a GP, ward wise. It has links for schemes in operation in the GP, development works being undertaken, samanya mahiti of the villages, MGNREGS, meetings and proceedings, tax collection status, tenders, applications, RTI, circulars and monthly and annual reports.

All these initiatives are directed towards making panchayat administration more dynamic, transparent, accountable and time bound. With all information accessible to everyone, the selection of beneficiaries and implementation of schemes is made more responsive to the needs of the people. This definitely empowers the people to participate in decision making as well availing the services in desired manner.

In the same vein, for the ULBs also a number of initiatives are under implementation. Some of them are:

- Aasthi : GIS-based Property Tax Information system (PTIS)
- Public Grievances and Redressal (PGR)
- Birth and Death Registration and Certification (BandD)
- Fund Based Double Entry Accrual Accounting System (FBDEAAS)
- ULB websites
- Karnataka Municipal Data Society (KMDS) was set up with an intention of managing e-governance initiatives of the Urban Local Bodies, ULBs. The prominent e-governance applications are: Service Level Benchmarking; Asha Kirana Mahithi – Slum Survey (RAY); Namma Mane (Interest Subsidy Scheme for Housing Urban Poor (ISHUP); Monthly Information

Booklet; Personnel Information System; Public Disclosure Law; Municipal Information System; and Urban Development Authority Computerization

Hence, making information available and eliciting feedback from stakeholders is an important action in deepening democracy which has a significant impact on human development outcomes. In fact, saving in resources and time as well as reduction in corruption contributes to higher HD outcomes.

10.5.1. Problems of Service Delivery in a Backward Region - Staff

Effective Service delivery requires adequate and trained manpower. Raichur being a centrally identified backward district is financed by central as well as state governments for specific schemes. In order to plan for implementation and monitor the progress trained staff in adequate number is a necessary condition. However, except for the officers from local areas, officials hesitate to get posted to Raichur. In fact, posting to Raichur is considered as a 'punishment transfer'. No sooner, an official is posted to Raichur district, his/her priority is to get out of the district as early as possible. This is true for any districts of the HK region. Now with conferment of special status under 371 (j), additional fund flow is expected but the question is whether there is minimum required staff to handle the grants. In this context, extent of vacancy of officers' level positions at district and taluka levels is presented in Table 10.3.

It should be noticed that nearly half of officers' positions at district level and more than one-third of officers' positions at taluka level are vacant. Departments directly concerned with HD, i.e., Health and Family Welfare, Women and Child Development, PU Education, PRE, Industries and Commerce, Agriculture and Horticulture, administrative divisions of ZP and TPs, are plagued with shortage of officers. With less than minimum officials, implementation of programmes becomes difficult. In the offices, it is not surprising that staff on contract basis is employed. For instance, the Planning Department has only two regular officers, which is grossly inadequate.

Nearly half of officers' positions at district level and more than one-third of officers' positions at taluka level are vacant.

That the top officials are frequently changed is evident from the fact that between 1-4-1987 and 31-12-2014, 38 CEOs were appointed to ZP Raichur, whose average tenure works out to be little over 8 months.

Table 10.3: Vacancy Level of Officers' Positions at District and Taluka Levels in Raichur District, October 2014
(% to sanctioned positions)

S. No.	Department	District Level	Taluka Level
1	Revenue	30	55
2	Health And Family Welfare	50	53
3	Assistant Agricultural Officer	100	20
4	Assistant Agricultural Officer (Woman)	50	-
5	Joint Director, Agriculture	100	-
6	ZP/TP Offices	30	30
7	ZP Engineering/TP Engineering	100	30
8	Horticulture	-	80
9	Women and Child Development	75	75
10	Panchayat Raj Engineering (PRE)	100	40
11	Agricultural Marketing	-	40
12	Industries and Commerce	100	75
13	Nirmiti Kendra	100	100
14	PU Education	36	26
	All	**48**	**36**

Note: Departments with more than 30% of vacancies are only mentioned
Source: District Administration, Raichur

Another related problem is that of assimilation of new technology in governance. With many tasks are carried out on-line, inititatives like sakala and M-one, the supporting infrastructure has to be strong. The officers complain that despite similar bandwidth given throughout the state, the internet speed is not fast enough. Naturally, the compliances in on-line mode get delayed leading to drop in the ranking of the district. For instance, in panchatantra on line assessment, the district is placed at last but one place as many of the compliances are pending from the GPs, especially from backward taluks. Thus, the overall points scored by Devadurga and Manvi taluks, respectively, are 46 and 41, as against 76 Sindhnur and 55 for Raichur. Hence, training to officials, awareness to general public and strengthening of infrastructure need to be attended to.

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10.6. Role of NGOs and Other Voluntary Groups

A democratic system presupposes involvement of various stakeholders in preparation, implementation and monitoring of development schemes. In this regard, the non-government organizations (NGOs) can complement the efforts of the government. Being a backward district with lower levels of literacy and awareness about development schemes, NGOs have a lot of scope to function as a bridge between the local government and the people. Naturally, many NGOs are functioning in Raichur district for betterment of different sections of the society. In this section a summary of activities of few of the prominent NGOs working in Raichur district is provided.

10.6.1.1. Janakalyan

Initially set up to address the issues of refugees resettled in Sindhanur Rehabilitation Project of Karnataka Janakalyan works in 7 sectors with tools like Jana Sanghatan (Women Development and Empowerment Program); Jana Krishi (Livelihood Improvement through IIFS); Jana Jal (Rain Water Harvesting Program); Jana Udyog (Rural Entrepreneurship Development Program); Jana Shiksha (Reaching the Unreached); Jana Shakti (Renewable Sources of Energy Harnessing); and Jana Raksha (Dairy Development as livelihood of women). Major Accomplishments are:

a. Promoted more than 200 SHGs and successfully linked with banks and government schemes;
b. Self-sustainable livelihood model for tail end farmers in the command areas
c. Introduced the concept of rain water harvesting in water scarce areas of Sindhnur taluk for drinking and greening the house yard.
d. Induced entrepreneurial skills among more than 300 educated youths through Rural Entrepreneurship Development Programme.

e. More than thousand out-of-school children are brought under the umbrella of school through its innovative program called VIDYA.

f. Introduced concept of renewable energy harnessing like biogas, improved chula, solar cooker, solar dryer, etc. in the rural areas.

g. Introduced dairying as a livelihood option among the refugees and now it has become second largest source of livelihood for the rural women and landless agricultural labourers

h. The Detailed Project Report for Kugram Suvarna Gram scheme was prepared for Sindhnur taluk of Raichur district.

i. The District Perspective Plan for Raichur was prepared by Janakalyan as per the request of the CEO of Zilla Panchayat.

j. Suvarna Gramodaya was assigned to Janakalyan for preparation of Detailed Project Report for Sindhnur and Manvi taluks of Raichur district.

Owing to its successful interventions, Janakalyan has achieved the status of mother NGO for UNICEF supported projects in Raichur district.

10.6.1.2. Jagrat Mahila Sanghtana (JMS)

JMS, started in 2000, is a dalit women agricultural labourer's collective, having a membership of 800 women from Dalit and other backward communities, who are trained to take leadership in various issues. SHGs are the key institutions for organizing these disempowered women. As a part of the activities of JMS, the Navnirman Trust was set up in 2005 for legal and statutory requirements to facilitate the work of Jagrutha Mahila Sanghatan. Other major interventions of the organization are:

1. **Child Labourers' School**: Based on the ideology of Right to Education, the organization runs child labourers' special schools known as 'Chilipili'. In 2011-12 batch 50 childen (30 boys and 20 girls) were enrolled and in June 2012, 30 children were mainstreamed into various levels in the government schools ranging from 5th std to 7th std. This is a regular process. Children are taught basic skills of life apart from training them for formal education. However, apart from running this informal school, the main thrust of the JMS is *No Dalit Child Out of School* and efforts are intensified to identify children and enrol them in schools on a regular basis.

The main thrust of the JMS is No Dalit Child Out of School and efforts are intensified to identify children and enrol them in schools on a regular basis.

2. **Livelihood Programmes**: Under the name 'Chiguru', women are trained in skilled activities so that they can produce value added commodities and ear a decent livelihood for themselves. For instance, the Terracotta Unit (comprising of 15 women) has achieved a turn-over of about Rs. 3 lakh and they have added quite

innovative items to their jewellery. They have also travelled to Delhi, Hyderabad, Chennai and Bangalore to participate in various exhibitions cum sale events. The neem fertiliser unit, consists of 15 women, prepares organic neem fertiliser and networked with the farmers who purchase it for their farms. They had a turn-over of 4 lakhs. The new additions to the productions were the bio-compost and vermi-compost. A commendable success is that the neem fertiliser unit of Chiguru has ventured to purchase one-and-a- half acre land for their enterprise through their own resources and partly through bank loan.

The neem fertiliser unit, consists of 15 women, prepares organic neem fertiliser and networked with the farmers who purchase it for their farms. They had a turn-over of 4 lakhs.

3. ***Right to Work***: In order to ensure that the MGNREGS is utilized by poor rural women, the organization has collaborated with the panchayats in implementing the scheme in its totality and ensure that the average number of days worked by laborers is higher and they receive whatever wages they are due for. Up to October 2012, 5407 families across 13 gram panchayats (57 villages) were mobilized; issue of 4802 job cards, opening of 3744 bank accounts; and 11230 applications for work were facilitated. As a result, 163294 person days of jobs were created involving a payment of more than Rs. 2 crores.

4. ***Promoting Community and Mental Health:*** JMS has recruited a number of Community Health Workers (CHWs) functioning as 'bare-foot doctors' and as healers at the primary health care level. They cater to patients with paralytic stroke, virtiligo, anemia, migraine headaches, women's health related problems such as anemia, white discharge etc using herbal medicines and local remedies as the base. They have been able to counsel and treat over 10,000 men and women from all castes and creeds through their regular 'Thursday clinics'. JMS plays a very proactive role in facilitating the Raichur District unit of JAAK (i.e. Jana Arogya Andolana Karnataka, the People's Health Movement) apart from taking lead in the district in the Right to Primary Healthcare Campaign.

5. ***Promoting Social Security:*** JMS has co-ordinated in getting pensions for senior dalit women. Awareness campaigns on this are also organized.

6. ***Fighting Malnutrition*****:** JMS has co-ordinated in identifying malnourished children and monitoring the implementation of programmes fighting malnutrition. ICDS and MDM programmes are regularly monitored by it. Regular vigilance at the local level, identifying children who are undernourished etc has improved the functioning of the ICDS centres. Sanchalakis regularly visit schools for monitoring the quality of MDM.

7. ***State Level Seminars on Legal Awareness and Special Component Plan:*** In 2012, JMS hosted two state level seminars on

dalit issues in which delegates from all over the state and women leaders of JMS from every village participated.

10.6.1.3. Janachetana

Janachetana is implementing the India Literacy Project since 2000 in rural areas of Raichur district to ensure that all working children are in school. In order to ensure that children continue to go to school after enrollment, children from extremely poor homes are admitted to government hostels to address their basic needs of food, uniforms and shelter and a residential bridge program - a short-term intervention program for "out of school" children - with a definite focus on preparing children with the necessary competencies for enrollment to schools is also implemented. Every year, the project aims at enrolling 100 children in the residential bridge center will be provided necessary competencies for 6 months to enroll them in mainstream schools in the ensuing academic year; following up 300 children of the previous batches for school retention; strengthening of School Development & Monitoring Committees and SHGs and gram Panchayat members in the education system; ensuring retention in middle/high schools through ILP scholarships; and conducted special coaching classes at 3 schools for 10th class students.

10.6.1.4. Janahitha

Janahitha is also a longstanding NGO working in the district covering all major aspects of human development since 2000. Janahitha works for the welfare of the vulnerable, down trodden and needy communities in seven districts and is networked with other NGOs in North Karnataka. Janahitha is identified as a district RCH Mother NGO by Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India. It is working with many institutions like UNICEF, NABARD, CHAI, AKSHARA Foundation, ARGHYAM, Narayana Hrudayalaya, RDPR, Karnataka State Watershed Development Department, Karnataka Health and Family Welfare Department, DWCD and DHO. It has been honored with state level award of "Yashodaramma Dasappa award 2010" for Valuable service in social sector, and also got the National Award of " Servant of the Poor Award " by Confederation of NGOs for Rural India. Janahitha implementing major health related projects in Raichur district like ASHA project, IECDP, IYCF, SANKALPA- ICDS Project, Water and Sanitation, Drinking Water Quality testing, Training for PRI Members and staffs, Rain water harvesting, HIV/AIDS, SSA, Home placement (railway plat form children), Urban Sthri Shakthi Group formation, SHG Formation & Bank Linkage (NABARD), Human Resource development, Rural development Projects, skill based training for livelihood, Capacity Enhancement of community

Every year, the project aims at enrolling 100 children in the residential bridge center will be provided necessary competencies for 6 months to enroll them in mainstream schools in the ensuing academic year

organizations, education, Women empowerment.

10.6.1.5. Pragati Health and Rural Development Society

The Society is involved in all-round development of the people. The main activities are in the sectors of health, education, vocational training, multipurpose training and awareness programs for women, children, youth, and eligible couples. A birth based approach (b.b.a.) is implemented in 14 villages in Manvi taluk through basic maternal and child health care facilities to accelerate the reduction in fertility in high fertility areas. It is a central government programs through P.R.C. Dharwad. Two ANMs one Field Officer and 14 Anganawadi Workers take care of this programme and are well trained in this regard. The main components of this programs are Mother care, child care, adolescents care, family planning and service for eligible couples such as STD-RTI, IEC activities, formation of mahila sangha, health camps are some of the methods through which this programme is implemented. 11830 beneficiaries and 120 community awareness programs have been successfully conducted. Health and Family Welfare Department of Karnataka is also partner in these programmes.

A birth based approach (b.b.a.) is implemented in 14 villages in Manvi taluk through basic maternal and child health care facilities to accelerate the reduction in fertility in high fertility areas.

10.6.1.6. Prerana

The organization is engaged in the service of rural poor, marginal farmers, women labourers and destitute children in Raichur district since 2005. It organises women's associations; runs savings and credit and awareness programmes for rural women, provides home placement and education of destitute children, non-formal education schools for child labourers; street plays, resettles and rehabilitates displaced families; arranges exposure visits for the staff; involves professionals in rural development; coordinates with the government; supports NGOs. So far, the organization has helped 50 families under 19 lift irrigation schemes; formed 150 self-help groups under women's development programme. The organization gets grants from central/ state governments, Command Area Development Authority, Government of Karnataka, Oxfam, CAA, Tata Trust.

10.6.1.7. Bharatiya Seva Samsthe

Working since 1992, the key areas of intervention by the NGO is involved in activities like animal husbandry, dairying and fisheries, aged/elderly, agriculture, children, differently abled, disaster management, dalit upliftment, drinking water, education and literacy, environment and forests, health and family welfare, HIV/ AIDS, housing, human rights, legal awareness and aid, labour and employment, micro finance (SHGs), minority issues, micro small and medium enterprises. The

organization is also involved in educational activities like Sarva Shikshana Abhiyaana (SSA), Rajiv Gandhi Crèche Programme, service providers for horticulture dept, evaluation for rural development and health awareness programme for rural youth and for poor people etc., and running projects under the aids from central and state governments.

10.6.1.8. Maa Sarada Social Welfare and Education Society

Working since 2006, the NGO caters to issues like agriculture, children, education and literacy, health and family welfare, HIV/AIDS, legal awareness and aid, labour and employment, nutrition, rural development and poverty alleviation, sports, women's development and empowerment. Its major achievements include starting primary school, children motivation program, women empowerment, rural development, tailor training, counselling the farmers about agriculture and health activities.

10.6.1.9. Janamitra Nagara Mathu Gramina Abhivrudhi Samsthe

The organization has been engaged in rural and urban development and poverty alleviation since 2007 and mainly supports other voluntary organizations in implementing projects for sustainable development in rural areas. It endeavours to create employment opportunities and economic self-reliance through training camps. Major accomplishments of the organization are in conducting HIV/AIDS awareness programmes, self employment camp for women, environment improvement programme in rural and urban areas and tailoring camps for women.

10.6.1.10. Supreme Vidya Samsthe

Established in 1996, the organization works in varied areas including aged/elderly, agriculture, children, differently abled, dalit upliftment, drinking water, education and literacy, environment and forests, health and family welfare, HIV/AIDS, housing, human rights, legal awareness and aid, labour and employment, land resources, micro finance (SHGs), micro small and medium enterprises, nutrition, panchayati raj, rural development and poverty alleviation, science and technology, sports, tribal affairs, urban development and poverty alleviation and vocational training.

10.6.1.11. We Care Society

We Care Society is a registered society (2004) working in selected villages of Raichur district, assisting the poor farmers in terms of reducing the cost of cultivation and increase the income for their livelihood. The Society also focuses on providing biogas for their kitchens and composting pits for

their agriculture lands, which indirectly reduces their expenditure on household fuel, chemical fertilizers and pesticides. The Society addresses the health issues faced by the farmers, women and children, who are suffering from water borne diseases, malnutrition, respiratory diseases, diabetes and cancer.

10.6.1.12. Chaitanya Rural Development Soceity Raichur

The organisation is involved in formation of women groups in both rural and urban areas for social awareness, promotion of education, vocational training, SHG formation and bank linkage, health awareness programme, activities for the disabled, awareness about govt programmes.

10.6.1.13. Aman Welfare Trust

The Trust was established in 2007 to promote education and literacy; housing; labour and employment; micro finance (SHGs); minority issues; micro, small and medium enterprises; new and renewable energy; nutrition; science and technology; vocational training; water resources; women's development and empowerment; and youth affairs. The Trust has dedicated itself to development of minorities.

10.6.1.14. Gowrishankar Human Welfare Association

It is one of the earliest NGOs working since 1991. The organization strives for the empowerment, upliftment, rehabilitation of socially, economically, physically, mentally challenged in the society by providing equitable and appropriate services through development of suitable projects, policies, advocacy, education and training and promotion of best practices with special emphasis on the neglected and the downtrodden women, children, poor, disabled, underdeveloped, underserved section of society. Some of the activities of the organisation are: education institutions for the weaker sections of the society; family counselling centre offering free counselling and legal services; short stay home for the welfare of insecure and distressed women and girls; sarva shiksha abhiyana programs; child labour school; vermi-compost project; crèche centre; health awareness, consumer education, adult education, SC and ST development activities, etc.

Thus, all the NGOs are working for all-round development of the people in collaboration with other NGOs and government agencies. This has complemented the efforts of the government in improving the living conditions of the people in this backward district.

10.6.2. Public Private Partnership in Local Development

Development requirements being massive, necessitates co-operation of all stake holders. In the previous section, activities of few NGOs were studied. The private sector is also

equally enthusiastic in sharing the development responsibility as part of its 'Corporate Social Responsibility'. It aligns with the government machinery and augments the resources, capabilities and effectiveness of various programmes. This public private partnership (PPP) has become an important mechanism for implementation of a number of schemes. In this section, two such experiences - one a successful one and the other revealing a mixed picture - are summarized.

10.6.2.1. Cisco Intervention: A Technology Enabled Model of Community Regeneration (Based on KPMG, 2012)

Cisco has played an exemplary role in supporting communities that were affected by the 2009 flood through its programme *Project Samudaya* that started in October 2009. Through a PPP model, Cisco collaborated with the Government of Karnataka's "Asare" project, a housing scheme for the flood affected population. *Project Samudaya* was conceived with three components – housing, health and education. The biggest component of this project was housing. Cisco was involved in constructing of nearly 3500 houses in four villages of Raichur taluk - Khataknur, Chikmanchal, Bichali and Talmari. The project was completed on time. These houses are constructed as per the government guidelines and specifications, and the model design that was modified based on the feedback received from the village residents.

Cisco's interventions emphasize the need to go beyond just housing and provide additional health and education services to achieve sustainable resettlement of the flood-affected communities. Therefore, apart from houses, one PHC is set up in Gilesugur village with modern equipment and telemedicine facility. Two schools with classes 1 to 10 are constructed which are adequately furnished also networked for online counselling and distance learning.

The Cisco Education Enabled Development (CEED) solution using network as the platform is running successfully across four schools in Bichali, Talmari and Tungabhadra villages. Specialized and professional teachers appointed are delivering high quality supplementary courses remotely through the CEED platform to these students thrice a week. They have become a critical lifeline in enhancing the education quality in remote areas which otherwise would be devoid of high standard of education. To support these, Cisco has:

a) Set up network infrastructure that allows each village to access the internet via sophisticated Cisco equipment.

b) Donated 100 computers in the 11 schools of the five adopted villages and have been installed by volunteer employees from Cisco. A complete set consisting of a



Houses are constructed as per the government guidelines and specifications, and the model design that was modified based on the feedback received from the village residents.

projector, web camera and audio speakers and microphone has been installed by Cisco.

c) Children of class seven and eight are being taught English across four schools, three times a week, by a teacher (remotely from the city) using Kannada language as the medium of instruction. Beginning with one school in August 2010, Cisco Education Enabled Development solution is being used to deliver quality remote education to four schools since September 2010. The schools are GHPS Bichali, GHPS Tungabhadra, GHPS Talmari and GHS Talmari benefitting 1087 students in all.

Beginning with one school in August 2010, Cisco Education Enabled Development solution is being used to deliver quality remote education to four schools since September 2010.

d) Besides this, the computer labs are used to familiarize the children and teachers with computer education. A multimedia content based solution called e-Patashale has been introduced by Children's LoveCastles Trust (CLT), a NGO. This is being used by local teachers who have been trained by CLT, to supplement curriculum based education for classes 5th and 6th.



Cisco collaborates with government agencies and NGOs to develop sustainable education and health care models, enabled by collaborative networked information technology and communications. This stands out as a perfect example of inclusive growth which is aimed at ensuring that the non-enabled population is integrated into the mainstream economy by driving the agenda of economic inclusion and helps in providing access to basic and affordable amenities such as education, healthcare and public services.

10.6.2.2. OPEC Hospital: A Mixed Experience

The Rajiv Gandhi Super-specialty Hospital at Raichur in Karnataka (RGSH) was constructed with the assistance from the OPEC in 2000. The state government, however, was unable to staff it properly and finally entered into a ten-year management contract with the Apollo Group. As per the contract 140 out of 350 beds were to be set aside as a general ward and made available to poor patients with the further stipulation that no poor patient will be turned away on the sole ground that all general ward beds are occupied. That is, the patient would have to be admitted if beds are available in the special ward (for fee-paying patients). The Government of Karnataka provided the land, hospital building and staff quarters as well as roads, power, water and infrastructure. Apollo provided fully qualified, experienced and competent medical facilities for operating the hospital. There was also a profit sharing and loss compensating clause. The hospital handled annually an average of over 25,000 patients, mostly poor as BPL families could get super-specialty treatment free of cost while APL families of could get huge concessions. However, with the contract between Apollo and the

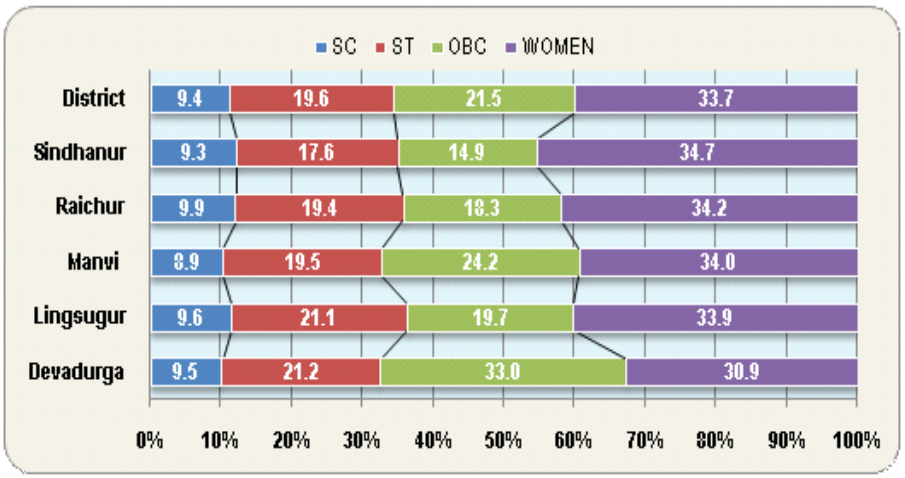
Karnataka Government expiring, OPEC Hospital closed on June 1, 2012, as the contract was not renewed. With this, a backward region got deprived of a quality health service which was predominantly utilized by poor people. The government has now handed it over to the Raichur Institute of Medical Sciences (RIMS) and converted into an educational facility.

10.7. Representation of Women and Marginalized Sections of Society in Governance

HD is about creating opportunities to everyone all in spheres. Since governance involves decision making and implementing it, all sections of people are expected to be part of it. The Constitution stipulates reservations for different sections, especially women, SCs and STs. But the issue is whether they are restricted to the statutory minimum or are they given additional space and scope. While the Raichur parliamentary constituency is reserved for SC candidate; three of the five legislative assembly seats are reserved for ST candidates and one is reserved for SC candidate. Figure 10.1 depicts the proportion of representation in various elected bodies in the PRIs in Raichur district.

The figure shows that the representation given to these sections was at the most up to the statutory requirement. For the district as a whole, exactly one-third

Figure 10.1: Representation of SC, ST, OBCs and Women in PRIs in Raichur District (%)



Source: DSO, Raichur

of the members were women, 9.4 per cent belonged to SC and 19.6 to ST communities. That is together, SC and ST communities shared 29 per cent of members, which is not according to their share in district's population. OBC representation was about 21 per cent of total seats. Representation of these categories was the highest in Devadurga taluk and lowest in Sindhnur taluk. Further, only if the reservation of adhyaksha and upadhyaksha gets determined in favour of these sections it is given, otherwise, not. Thus, the power sharing in terms of involving the marginalized sections is not practiced voluntarily.

10.8. Financing Human Development

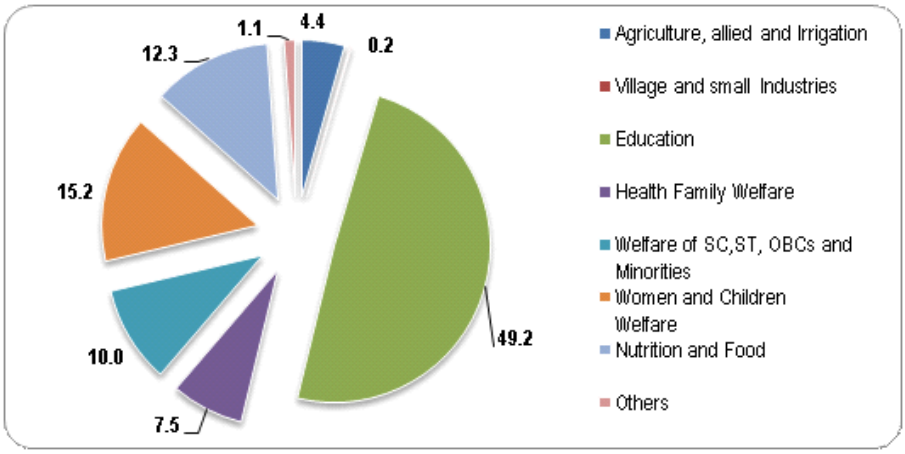
Adoption of human rights paradigm considers basic HD services as citizen's right and it is the responsibility of the state to ensure the availability of such services. UNDP (1991) suggested four ratios:

a) Public Expenditure Ratio (PER): % of NI that goes into PE; b) Social Allocation Ratio (SAR): % PE earmarked for social services; c) Social Priority Ratio (SPR): % of social expenditure devoted to human priority concerns; d) Human Expenditure Ratio (HER): % of NI devoted to human priority concerns - HER is the product of the first three ratios (See Annexure 10.2).

The amount of expenditure incurred on HD concerns is one such commitment on the part of the governments. The expenditure of ZP in the year 2011-12 is estimated at Rs.18,175.1 lakhs, which amounts to 4.14 per cent which is the public expenditure ratio. Thus, the public expenditure is very low. Of course, if the expenditure at all three tiers is included, the ratio is sure to rise. But the ratio is smaller. Out of this expenditure, the expenditure for social services and human development concerns is Rs. 17194.02 lakhs, which accounts for 95 per cent of total expenditure. This is the social allocation ratio. If we consider those items of expenditure which improve the human potentiality and which have significant impact on HD attainments, the expenditure comes out to be Rs. 12,560.67 or 69.1 per cent. Hence, the expenditure, though low is attuned towards human development. The classification of Raichur ZP's expenditure on various heads is shown in Figure 10.2.

The expenditure at ZP level is quite skewed as half of the expenditure being spent on education. Raichur being an educationally backward district, this emphasis is not bad. 15 per cent of total expenditure is spent on women and child development; 12 per cent on nutrition and food; 10 per cent on welfare of SC, ST, OBC and minority communities; 7 per cent on health; 4 per cent on agriculture, allied activities and irrigation. Hence, the expenditure is not well spread out on various activities.

Figure 10.2: Purpose wise Expenditure of Raichur ZP, 2011-12 (%)



Source: DSO, Raichur

10.9. Concluding Remarks

Governance is believed to contribute significantly to human development. Since HD is a people centred and people directed process guaranteeing considerable freedoms, decentralization is worldwide expected to bring this into reality. Participation of people in decision making and implementation of the programmes is essential for making governance relevant for HD. In India, this participation is ensured through establishment of a 3-tier Panchayat

Raj system. Panchayats are set up at village, taluk and district levels with statutory reservation to SCs, STs, OBCs and women. Over the years, there have been positive as well as negative aspects of the working of the PRI system. Moreover, it is noticed that there is more of administrative decentralization, and a very little of financial decentralization. At the least elections are held regularly and the bodies not dissolved unnecessarily.

To make governance more accountable and transparent a number of e-initiatives are adopted for delivery of service and development of MIS. However, the regularity of updation of information is hampered by less e-readiness on the part of the staff as well as poor infrastructure. There is also significant shortage of staff, especially at the officers' level which has affected the effective governance. The problem is severe with departments directly related to HD concerns. This is a severe challenge in the face of conferring 371 (j) status. Efforts are to be made in tax collection by the GPs. Although the overall expenditure is lower, the human development orientation of expenditure is visible in the 'Social Allocation Ratio' and 'Human Priority Ratios'. There is a need to increase overall spending to derive more HD attainments. Many NGOs are actively working to bring about desired changes in the lives of common people, especially education, health and livelihood of women, children and disadvantaged sections and overall rural development.

■■

'Wiping every tear from every eye': the JAM Number Trinity Solution

Arguing that the current subsidy regime is regressive and breeds leakages, the Economic Survey 2014-15 proposes to use the JAM number trinity - Jan Dhan Yojane account, Adhaar and Moble numbers - for overcoming the same. It says "If the JAM Number Trinity can be seamlessly linked, and all subsidies rolled into one or a few monthly transfers, real progress in terms of direct income support to the poor may finally be possible," it said. This can reform the subsidy delivery in a tragetted manner and improve its effectiveness. Recent experimental evidence documents that unconditional cash transfers - if targeted well- can boost household consumption and asset ownership, reduce food security problems for the ultra-poor and opportunities for leakage, the survey says. The Survey mentions that there are more than 900 million cell phone users which is increasing at a rate of 2.82 million per month and this affords the use of mobile money for direct transfers. Similarly as of December 2013 more than 720 million citizens had been allocated an Aadhaar card. By December 2015 the total number of Aadhaar enrolments in the country is expected to exceed 1 billion. Linking the Aadhaar Number to an active bank account is key to implementing income transfers. With the introduction of Jan Dhan Yojana, the number of bank accounts is expected to increase further and offering greater opportunities to target and transfer financial resources to the poor. The Survey also proposes to involve post offices can also be dovetailed into the Aadhaar linked benefits-transfer architecture. The Survey, therefore, hopes that "If the JAM Number Trinity can be seamlessly linked, and all subsidies rolled into one or a few monthly transfers, real progress in terms of direct income support to the poor may finally be possible."

- Economic Survey of India, 2014-15



Chapter 11

URBAN ISSUES IN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT



Urban Issues in Human Development

11.1. Introduction

Urbanization denotes the percentage of the total population living in urban areas. India's urban areas are defined on the basis of two criteria. First, the state government grants municipal status – corporation, municipal council, notified town area committee or nagar panchayat, etc – to a settlement. Such settlements are known as statutory or municipal towns in the census definition of urban areas. Second, if a settlement does not have an urban civic status, but satisfies demographic and economic criteria, like a population of more than 5,000, a density of 400 persons per square kilometre and 75% male workforce in the non-agricultural sector, it can be declared urban. Such urban areas are termed census towns (Bhagat, 2011).

Urbanization and urban problems have received a lot of attention in the recent years because of their growth promoting role as well as problems thrown open because of growing cities. As cities account for some 70 per cent of global GDP, urbanization is a key indicator of economic development and should be seen as a positive factor for overall development. Urban India represents the entire nation and is home to a rich variety of communities, professions and income classes.

The growth of urban population is higher in India and by 2040, it is estimated that more than half of the Indian population will be urban. The rapid pace of urbanisation in the sub-continent has not only created opportunities for economic growth and improved quality of life, but has also led to increased pressures on the delivery of urban civic services and poverty. Integration of economic and social infrastructure is essential while considering the urban growth. Development of smaller urban areas into integrated townships (satellite towns) reduces the negative impacts on the nearby city. This transition is expected to have a significant implication for HD attainments of a region. Urban areas offer vast opportunities for skill development and livelihood, and because of the anonymity, exclusion will not be so widespread. However, rapid urbanization has its own concomitant problems like emergence of slums, inadequate provision of basic amenities and insecurity to life and property due to increased pollution and crimes. It has already been noticed that in Raichur district HD attainments are positively correlated with level of urbanization.

The rapid pace of urbanisation in the sub-continent has not only created opportunities for economic growth and improved quality of life, but has also led to increased pressures on the delivery of urban civic services and poverty.

Karnataka's cities house 4.4 per cent of country's total urban population. Between 1951 and 2011, the total population of

The urbanization ratio is lower in the district compared to the state. While the state's urbanization ratio has increased, that of the district has remained almost stagnant.

Karnataka grew at a rate of 1.9 per cent whereas the urban population grew at a rate of 2.8 percent. This calls for a massive intervention from the government. With urbanization expected to expand in the future, calls for a detailed study of problems related to housing, providing basic amenities, ensuring safety of life and property and maintaining the living environment in the cities. It is in this broader context that, the present chapter seeks to analyze the urban development issues in Raichur district and their implications for human development. More significantly delivery of urban services, provision of drinking water and sanitation and management of solid waste will be looked into and their relationship with human development unravelled.

11.1.1. Urbanization Trends and Patterns in Raichur District

The urban population in Raichur has increased from 4.21 lakhs in 2001 to 4.90 lakhs by 2011 at a rate of 16.5 per cent during the ten year period (Table 11.1). Rate of increase in urban population at 15.5 per cent is slightly higher than the total population. As a result, the percentage of population residing in urban areas has marginally moved up from 24.4 per cent in 2001 to 25.2 per cent in 2011. But Raichur's urban population as a per cent of state's urban population has come down from 2.34 in 2001 to 2.07 in 2011.

The urbanization ratio (% Population in urban areas) is lower in the district compared to the state. While the state's urbanization ratio has increased, that of the district has remained almost stagnant. This is because of slow urban population growth in Raichur vis-a-vis the state. The percentage urban population across taluks is given in Figure 11.1.

The district has a quarter of its population living in urban areas. Raichur taluk has half of its population living in urban areas; followed by Lingsugur (23 per cent), Sindhnur (19 per cent), Manvi (12 per cent) and Devadurga (10 per cent). Thus, urbanization is highly unequally distributed. However, higher change in urban population is recorded by low urbanized taluks.

Table 11.1: Population and Urban Characteristics in Karnataka and Raichur (Lakhs)

Variable	2001	2011	% Change
State Total Population	528.51	610.95	15.60
State Urban Population	179.62 (34.0)	236.26 (38.7)	31.54
District Total Population	16.70	19.29	15.51
District Urban Population	4.21 (25.20)	4.90 (25.42)	16.52

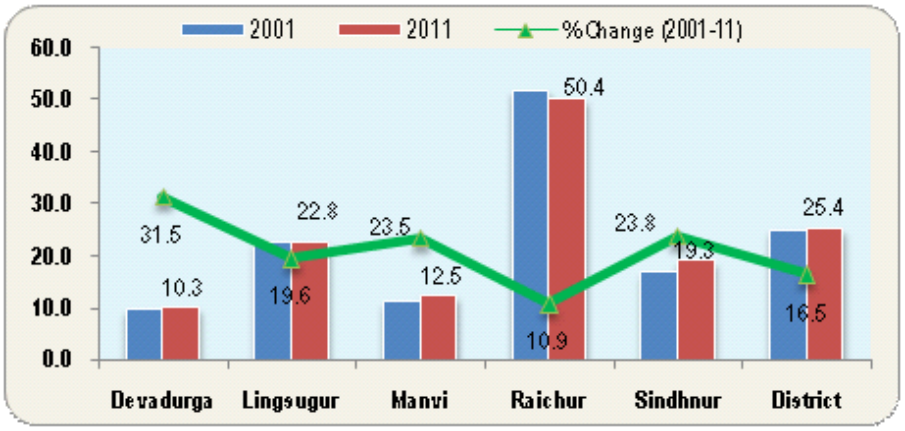
Note: Figures in brackets are % urban population to respective total population
Source: Census Documents, 2001 and 2011

Table 11.2 provides information by urban local bodies (ULB). There are six ULBs in Raichur district classified as two city municipal councils (CMC) - Raichur and Sindhnur; three Town Municipal Committees (TMC) - Devadurga, Lingsugur and Manvi; and one Town Panchayats (TP) -Mudgal.

Raichur CMC alone shares 53 per cent of urban population of the district. While Manvi TMC accounts for another 10 per cent, the other ULBs have less than 10 per cent share. In terms of growth excepting Raichur, all other ULBs have recorded higher than the district level growth during the last ten years. Devadurga TMC records the highest growth very closely followed by Lingsugur; and Raichur recording the least growth. Raichur district's urban population has lower sex ratio compared to the general one.

Such an increasing urban population poses problems of providing basic amenities and municipal services. Provision of housing, drinking water, sanitation, electricity and waste management are becoming challenging. The worsening urban poverty and concomitant deprivations are the other issues that are becoming serious day by day.

Figure 11.1: Talukwise Urbanization Ratios in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011



Source: Census Documents

Table 11.2: Urbanization Characteristics of ULBs in Raichur District, 2001 and 2011

ULB	Population		Increase	% Change	% Share	
	2001	2011			2001	2011
Mudgal (TP)	19116	22731	3615	18.91	5.10	5.13
Devadurga (TMC)	21994	28929	6935	31.53	5.87	6.52
Lingsugur (TMC)	27306	35411	8105	29.68	7.29	7.99
Manvi (TMC)	37613	46465	8852	23.53	10.04	10.48
Raichur (CMC)	207421	234073	26652	12.85	55.35	52.79
Sindhnur (CMC)	61262	75837	14575	23.79	16.35	17.10

*Note: * of state's urban population*
Source: Census Documents

11.2. Service Delivery Issues

The major issues in urban development relate to the provision of basic services like drinking water, sanitation and solid waste management, apart from housing and livelihood opportunities. The present section attempts to look into the status and problems of supply of these basic amenities in ULBs of Raichur district.

11.2.1. Water Supply and Sanitation

11.2.1.1. Water Supply

Water is a basic amenity which needs to be supplied on regular basis and in adequate quantity, as near to the residence as possible. Tap connections within premises are considered to be the most desired means of supplying water to the urban residents. The GoI document on urban services (GoI, n.d.) also recognizes this and so the (GoI, 2011). The status of water supply along with the number of houses having tap connections within their premises is furnished in Table 11.3.

ULBs report differential access of their respective households to tap water. Lingsugur and Raichur have more than 90 per cent of households having access to tap

Table 11.3: Status of Water Supply in ULBs of Raichur, 2011-12

ULB	Tap Connectivity[1]	Water supplied (MLD)	LPCD
Mudgal (TP)	87.78	4.00	70.00
Devadurga (TMC)	61.80	2.27	70.00
Lingsugur (TMC)	95.94	2.40	90.00
Manvi (TMC)	87.92	5.44	90.00
Raichur (CMC)	93.97	150.00	120.00
Sindhnur (CMC)	86.14	6.00	90.00
District	85.59	170.11	88.33

Note: 1- HHs with Access to tap connection from census data; MLD: Million Litres per day; LPCD: Litres per capita per day
Source: 1. Census, 2011
2. http://karbenchmarking.gov.in, accessed on 8-5-2014

water, it is as low as 62 per cent in Devadurga TMC, in the remaining ULBs it is between 80-90 per cent. Because of the huge population to be serviced, Raichur CMC accounts for the largest quantity of water drawn, followed by Sindhnur CMC, Manvi TMC, Mudgal TP, Lingsugur TMC and Devadurga TMCP.

A better indicator is the per capita water supplied as presented in the last column. For the whole district the water supplied is 88 LPCD, but varies significantly across ULBs. Raichur CMC residents are provided with 120 LPCD, Lingsugur TMC, Manvi TMC and Sindhnur CMC are provided with 90 LPCD and the remaining two ULBs with 70 LPCD. This does not tell us about the regularity of the water supplied. Although no contamination is reported, shortage of water during summer season is often reported. In no ULB, water is supplied every day. In many cities, the operation and management of water supply systems in the ULBs is old and the staff is also inadequate to monitor and maintain it. The consequence of this is high amount of arrears with respect to collection of water charges. Hence, there is a need to modernize the supply system and increase the staff strength.

11.2.1.2. Sanitation

The National Urban Sanitation Policy (NUSP) has been formulated by the Government of India in 2008 with a vision to provide appropriate sanitation facilities in all cities and towns through policy, institutional, technical and financial interventions. Some of the areas to be addressed under NUSP include open defecation free towns, providing access to toilets for poor people, waste water treatment, solid waste treatment and its disposal, achieving public health outcomes and environmental standards. While solid waste management scenario will be discussed in the ensuing sections, the present section shall discuss about the drainage and toilet facilities available in ULBs of Raichur district.

Table 11.4 provides information on the number of households having own toilets and with access to drainage (open as well as covered) facility as per the 2011 census. The availability of toilets within the premises is very low and varies across ULBs. Only half of the households have access to toilets within premises. Devadurga TMC and Mudgal TP have very low proportion of toilets of around 21 per cent. In other ULBs, the situation is better nut not

encouraging. Raichur CMC has the highest figures.

In respect of drainage, census reports that nearly 79 per cent of the households have access to drainage. This also varies across ULBs with Lingsugur TMC, Raichur and Sindhnur CMCs reporting more than 75 per cent of their households as having access to drainage. On the other hand, in Mudgal TP and Devadurga TMC, this proportion is about 66 per cent indicating that one-third households are yet to be provided with drainage. Hence the number of households to be serviced is still significant. Further, as the figures reveal that open drainage is the major form of drainage which is not hygienic and not maintained properly. Unfortunately, no data exists about the underground drainage network in the ULBs.

The NUSP 2008 declares that "All Indian cities and towns should become totally sanitized, healthy and livable and ensure and sustain good public health and environmental outcomes for all their citizens with a special focus on hygienic and affordable sanitation facilities for the urban poor and women." But looking at the status above, it seems to be a difficult goal to attain and the goals of the Karnataka Urban Drinking Water and Sanitation Policy, 2002 seem to a mere wish list.

Table 11.4: Households with Access to Toilets and Drainage Facility in Raichur District (%), 2011

ULB	Toilet	Drainage		
		Closed	Open	No
Mudgal (TP)	21.8	4.4	61.5	34.1
Devadurga (TMC)	20.6	9.3	56.5	34.2
Lingsugur (TMC)	47.2	20.7	53.7	25.6
Manvi (TMC)	42.7	14.5	57.8	27.6
Raichur (CMC)	57.7	38.6	46.7	14.7
Sindhnur (CMC)	48.0	11.3	60.5	28.2
District	50.42	29.6	49.3	21.1

Source: Census, 2001

11.3. Solid and Liquid Waste Management

Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) Management is one of the major problems for ULBs in India. With rapid urbanization, changing life styles, the nature and quantum of MSW has increased posing massive organizational, financial and environmental challenges to ULBs. Despite MSW being a major activity of local governments, ULBs are unable to provide adequate services. Most of ULBs do not have reliable estimates on MSW generated. Waste is disposed indiscriminately leading to stray animal menace, clogged drains and spread of diseases. The collection, transportation and disposal of MSW are not complete in most of the cities/towns with garbage heaps remaining unattended until the severity reaches unmanageable proportions. High organic content of Indian MSW, compounded by the tropical climate would mean that uncollected waste would decompose and could be a potential health hazard. In addition contamination of MSW by bio-

Most of ULBs do not have reliable estimates on MSW generated.

medical and industrial hazardous waste is a growing concern.

Various types of wastes need to be properly gathered/collected and managed. Solid waste management includes all activities that seek to minimize the health, environmental and aesthetic impacts of solid wastes. It is generated by domestic, commercial, industrial, healthcare, agricultural and mineral extraction activities and accumulates in streets and public places. Recyclable material could be recycled, degradable waste could be converted into compost and non-degradable waste suitably disposed off. Thus, waste collection and disposal has two benefits, viz., reduces incidence of harmful diseases and generates revenue for the ULB. A lot of waste water is also generated and it also needs to be treated and disposed off. Hence, whether it is solid or liquid waste, scientific approach towards its collection, recycling and disposal needs to be undertaken. Unfortunately, till very recently all ULBs had a casual approach towards waste management, however, of late, all ULBs have prepared master plans for waste management and trying to keep cities clean. Table 11.5 gives information on the status of solid wastes in ULBs of Raichur district.

The available information reveals that street sweeping, open dumping and transportation to the landfill sites are the major means of managing solid waste in ULBs of Raichur district. With no public dust bins (PDB) in many ULBs, open dumping has caused a number of serious problems. Door to door collection is also not adopted in all the ULBs and wherever it is there, is quite unsatisfactory. They neither have adequate numbers of vehicles nor personnel (pourakarmikas) to handle and transport solid waste. The Project Reports prepared by each ULBs should be implemented properly with due concern to recycling and recovery of material. Information Extension and Communication (IEC) activities for recycling and waste segregation at source level should be taken up on a larger scale.

Table 11.5: Municipal Solid Waste and its Management in ULBs of Raichur District

Parameter	Mudgal (TP)	Lingsugur (TMC)	Devadurga (TMC)	Raichur (CMC)	Manvi (TMC)	Sindhnur (CMC)
MSW generated (tons per day)	6	10	2	80	16.2	20.5
MSW collected (tons per day)	4	8	1	78	12.82	14
No. of PDB	NA	64	NA	NA	60	231
No. of Vehicle for Transport & disposal	2	3	2	40	2	2
Area of Landfill Site(in Acres)	2.02	4.33	2.42	35	15	10
% of Households covered for Door to Door collection	0	60	0	98	45	NA

Source: Websites of respective ULBs accessed on 8-5-2014

Similarly, there is no reliable estimate of sewage generated in the cities. All the sewage from every source is discharged without any treatment leading to pollution of water bodies everywhere. Due to lack of proper interconnection of sewage canals, they meet with the open drains and flow as polluted streams out of the city. This water is used for irrigation in the urban fringe which contaminates the crops and there are also instances of ground water contamination. With increasing water shortage and increasing health damages due to water pollution, treatment of water before and after use has to be practiced.

11.4. Access to Other Basic Amenities and Urban Livelihood in ULBs

Having discussed the demographic patterns and management of municipal services, we also need to study the extent of availability of other basic amenities. Another problem is that of emergence of slums. Slums represent severe deprivations and understanding the characteristics of slum population will help us in reflecting on the human development status of the ULBs. Hence, in this section, we focus on the extent of access to basic amenities by the urban households and later the study of slum characteristics will be taken up.

11.4.1. Other Basic Amenities

The basic amenities are living in a pucca house, having access to tap water, connected with electricity, having toilet within premises, having access to drainage facility and modern cooking fuels. These are the ones which impact the HD status of any given population. Since access to drinking water and drainage are already studied, the analysis here is restricted to the remaining amenities. Data from census documents is compiled and results provided in Table 11.6.

Table 11.6: Households Having Access to Basic Amenities in Raichur District (%) 2011

ULB	Pucca Houses	Electricity	Access to modern fuels
Mudgal (TP)	34.06	86.73	14.17
Lingsugur (TMC)	43.87	89.87	38.14
Devadurga (TMC)	43.38	84.07	22.73
Raichur (CMC)	66.99	93.71	44.26
Manvi (TMC)	51.67	88.36	28.38
Sindhnur (CMC)	52.92	90.93	34.95
District	59.05	91.82	39.99

Source: Census documents, 2011

While electricity is the most accessible amenity, availability of modern fuels is the least accessible one. In fact, the two CMCs and Lingsugur have 90 per cent and more households connected with electricity. The other ULBs report between 84 to 88 per cent electricity connection. As far as pucca houses are concerned, Raichur CMC reports more than two-thirds of households living in pucca houses. This ratio was more than half in Manvi TMC and Sindhnur CMC; around 43 per cent in Lingsugur TMC and Devadurga TMC each; and around one-third in Mudgal TOP. So is the case with use of modern fuels for cooking. Raichur CMC has the maximum

percentage of households using modern fuel at 44 per cent and lowest being in Mudgal TP at 14 per cent. Thus, apart from universalizing drinking water, electricity and drainage connections, challenges relating to provision of decent housing, sanitation and modern fuel are really daunting.

11.4.2. Slum Population

The share of SC and ST groups is also disproportionately higher in slums, with 35 percent of slum residents belonging to those communities compared to 24 per cent for the total urban population.

An undesirable outcome of rapid urbanization is the growth of slums which represent manifestation of severe deprivations and disparities. Slums develop due to various reasons. When people migrate to cities temporarily for work, they do not have place to live and they settler on vacant sites. Since these areas are not for regular settlement, they are either not habitable or cannot be provided with amenities. Hence, slum dwellers are poor, deprived of basic amenities and face insecurity of tenancy and life. Often, the slums are also the hotspots of crime and anti-social activities. Therefore, rehabilitation of slums can bring about considerable HD of these people. In this section, the characteristics of slum population of Raichur district are studied and Table 11.7 furnishes the information.

More than 23,000 households lived in slums which had a population of about 1.22 lakhs. Raichur CMC shares about half of the district's slum population. Devadurga TMC reported the highest proportion of households living in slums (69 per cent). Mudgal TOP and Sindhnur CMC are the other two ULBs which had higher slum population ratios. A notable point is the higher and favorable sex ratio in slum areas. Except Mudgal TP and Devadurga TMC all the ULBs had favorable sex ratio. So the number of women residing in slums is more than that of men.

The share of SC and ST groups is also disproportionately higher in slums, with 35 percent of slum residents belonging to those communities compared to 24 per cent for the total urban population. This scenario is true for all ULBs. Devadurga and Manvi TMCs and Raichur CMC have higher proportion of SC and ST people

Table 11.7: Features of Slum Population in Raichur District, 2011

ULB	% of Slum HHs	Slum Population	% Population	Sex Ratio		% SC and ST Pop in	
				Slum	Gen	Slum	Total Urban
Mudgal (TP)	30.7	6806	29.9	943	968	28.4	13.7
Lingsugur (TMC)	22.2	7854	22.2	1008	1000	28.2	24.7
Devadurga (TMC)	69.0	19891	68.8	973	978	45.9	47.1
Raichur (CMC)	24.4	58988	25.2	1012	989	37.0	23.9
Manvi (TMC)	14.0	6452	13.9	1039	998	40.1	26.5
Sindhnur (CMC)	28.1	22043	29.1	996	994	22.6	15.1
District Total	26.7	122034	27.5	1000	990	35.0	23.7

Source: Census Documents

residing in them. Thus, slums predominantly house deprived population thereby deepening the deprivation and perpetuating poverty and low human development attainments.

Taking the argument further, Table 11.8 furnishes the literacy status of slum dwellers of Raichur district. Obviously, a lower proportion of slum residents is literate compared to the general urban population. However, in Mudgal TP the slum literacy is higher than the general urban literacy and in Devadurga TMC both are comparable. In only these two ULBs the slum literacy is higher than the corresponding total for the district. What is worrisome is the gender gaps in literacy which are high in slums. Therefore, improving female literacy in the slum areas can bring about equity in literacy attainments as well as contribute to better human development of the cities.

Similarly, Table 11.9 presents the work characteristics of the slum residents.

Table 11.9: Work Characteristics of Slum Residents in Raichur District, 2011

ULBs	WPR			Marginal Workers			Main Non-Agri		
	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Mudgal (TP)	38.8	56.8	19.7	14.5	7.6	35.7	73.1	79.8	52.9
Lingsugur (TMC)	48.4	63.2	33.5	29.6	25.5	37.3	64.4	67.4	58.7
Devadurga (TMC)	43.0	59.9	25.7	12.3	10.0	17.6	57.0	64.6	39.1
Raichur (CMC)	44.0	62.9	25.5	13.1	9.8	21.0	83.2	86.7	74.9
Manvi (TMC)	45.8	61.9	30.3	24.5	25.2	23.1	50.5	56.5	38.6
Sindhnur (CMC)	45.1	62.1	28.0	14.1	8.3	27.1	73.8	81.4	57.0

Source: Census documents

The worker population ratio is lower for slum residents than the general urban population.WPR is higher for ULBs in backward regions, and higher for males. Female WPR is very low in Mudgal TOP, where the gender gap is very high. So is the situation in Devadurga TMC. In other ULBs, the female WPRs are lower with huge gender gaps. Interestingly, the share of marginal workers and female marginal workers shows contrasting tendency. In all ULBs the share of female marginal workers is higher than the males except Manvi TMC. Low literacy levels force them to work in temporary and short term vocations. The percentage main workers engaged in non-

Table 11.8: Literacy Rates among Slum Households of Raichur District, 2011

ULB	Slum Population			Urban Population		
	TLR	FLR	GGL	TLR	FLR	GGL
Mudgal (TP)	74.8	63.9	21.3	70.0	60.3	18.9
Lingsugur (TMC)	65.4	56.2	18.5	76.1	68.3	15.7
Devadurga (TMC)	69.6	61.4	16.1	69.5	61.1	16.6
Raichur (CMC)	66.8	58.0	17.7	77.7	70.1	15.0
Manvi (TMC)	56.4	48.7	15.8	67.6	60.1	15.1
Sindhnur (CMC)	66.6	58.1	17.0	73.9	65.8	16.1
District total	67.0	58.3	17.5	74.9	67.1	15.6

Note: TLR: Total Literacy Rate; FLR: Female Literacy Rate; GGL: Gender Gap in Literacy
Source: Census Documents

Road side dwellers



agricultural activities, also reveals some interesting facts. The non-agricultural activities include workers engaged in household industry and other activities. *Other workers include all government servants, municipal employees, teachers, factory workers, plantation workers, those engaged in trade, commerce, business, transport banking, mining, construction, political or social work, priests, entertainment artists, etc. In effect, all those workers other than cultivators or agricultural labourers or household industry workers, are 'Other Workers'.* 74 per cent of slum residents are engaged in non-agricultural activities which is relatively lower than general urban population. Only Raichur CMC and Mudgal TP have higher share of workers working in non-agricultural activities. Devadurga and Manvi TMCs had low share of slum workers in non-agricultural workers suggesting that they may be still dependent on agricultural work. The gender gap in respect of workers in non-agricultural activities also is significant.

Majority of illiterate slum women work as cleaners and house attendants may not have been counted in the census; or it indicates the very less opportunities they have in the formal sector

Thus, to summarize the status of slum residents:

i. Slum population is positively related to the size of the ULB;

ii. ULBs have favorable and better sex ratio compared to the general urban population;

iii. The ratio of SC and ST population is higher in slums vis-a-vis the total urban population;

iv. The proportion of 0-6 aged population is also high in slums corresponding to the overall urban area;

v. Literacy level is low and the gender gap in literacy is higher;

vi. WPR is lower in the slum areas and higher for males. Female WPR is very low resulting in high gender gaps in work participation. Majority of illiterate slum women work as cleaners and house attendants may not have been counted in the census; or it indicates the very less opportunities they have in the formal sector;

vii. The share of marginal workers is high and still higher high among women; and

viii. Predominant work is non-agricultural activity

Therefore, if slums represent deprivation, then a higher concentration of women, SCs and STs and children, reflects the possibility of higher deprivation of these sections and it is evident in low literacy and work participation rates, high gender gaps and high dependence on service activity as marginal workers. Hence, steps should be initiated towards investment in not only slum rehabilitation but human development of the slum residents.

11.4.3. Employment and Livelihood Issues

As discussed in Chapter 6 WPR is lower in urban areas, but

increasing. In urban areas, WPR has increased for both gender categories. Urban WPR for males and females have increased in all taluks except Manvi taluk. It seems that migration to nearby cities is more in all taluks except in Manvi taluk. Thus, the scenario is one of higher urban and male orientation of livelihood opportunities. It is also possible that the women's work is not effectively captured in the census data.

'*Other*' activities are the major employment avenues in the urban areas of Raichur district. Raichur CMC has 91 per cent of its workers engaged in other activities in urban areas, and Sindhnur has about 81 per cent. In Devadurga and Manvi ULBs, nearly one-third of urban workers are engaged in agricultural activities. Thus, the underdevelopment has spilled over from the rural to urban areas in the district. Household industry is significant in urban Sindhnur and Lingsugur. Hence, promotion of non-agricultural work opportunities should be priority of the policy makers.

In urban areas LOI for the district is lower than that at the state level. Raichur and Sindhnur taluks have higher values of LOI and Devadurga taluk has the lowest value. Sharp decline in LOI values for urban females is noticed throughout the district. This might be because of both lower WPR and lower participation in non-agricultural activities.



11.4.4. Service Level Benchmarking

Under the Karnataka Municipal Reforms Programme (KMRP), benchmarking of services is adopted. Marks are awarded to every ULB for specific services, out of 100. These are summed up to obtain the total score and based on this, ranks are assigned. This helps us to know the relative position of each ULB and the service area where strengthening and consolidation are required. The data for ULBs of Raichur district is presented in Table 11.10.

The assessment and ranking is done for the year 2009-10. Raichur CMC the top ranked ULB in the district, is placed at 66th in the state, indicating the urban

Table 11.10: Karnataka Urban Service Level Benchmarking for ULBs of Raichur District, 2009-10

ULB	Water Supply Management	Waste Water Management	Solid Waste Management	Roads, Roadside Drains & Streetlights	Disease Control	Development of Parks & Gardens	Municipal Finance	Total Marks	Rank	
									State*	District
Mudgal (TP)	58	0	55	35	0	0	37	185	154	4
Lingsugur (TMC)	49	0	73	37	0	0	50	209	112	3
Devadurga (TMC)	52	0	40	41	0	0	40	173	174	5
Raichur (CMC)	75	10	59	20	0	12	49	225	66	1
Manvi (TMC)	39	0	33	41	0	0	45	158	197	6
Sindhnur (CMC)	49	0	53	62	0	0	53	217	90	2

*Note: * out of 213 ULBs* *Source: http://karbenchmarking.gov.in*

development in Raichur district is not very much encouraging. The CMC fares relatively better in water supply management, SWM and finances. Sindhnur CMC is the second ranked city in the district, placed at 90 in the whole state. No ULB has been awarded marks for disease control and awarded almost no marks for development of parks and gardens as well as waste water management, which is a stark neglect of environmental issues. Hence apart from usual services, the focus of all ULBs has to be on waste water treatment, development of parks and gardens and disease control programmes. Mudgal TP and Devadurga TMC score very less on generation and utilization of finances as well and this is another area of suggested improvement.

No ULB has been awarded marks for disease control and awarded almost no marks for development of parks and gardens as well as waste water management, which is a stark neglect of environmental issues.

11.4.5. Urban Development Index (UDI)

The composite UDI presented in Figure 3.6 (chapter 3) reveals that Raichur CMC has the highest high UDI among ULBs owing to higher urban population, better basic amenities and infrastructure, higher own resource mobilization and lower crime and accident rates. Sindhnur CMC has the next highest UDI value. Among the TMCs, Manvi followed by Lingsugur have higher UDI, but lesser than Raichur and Sindhnur. Devadurga TMC has the least UDI among the TMCs as well as all ULBs. Mudgal TP stands in the last but one position. Hence, Raichur CMC is the most developed and Devadurga TMC is the least developed.



Correlating UDI with the indicators reveals that UDI is highly associated with size of urban population, basic amenities like housing, drinking water and sanitation availability, health and road infrastructure. Crime rate and accidents are negatively associated with UDI and so also slum population and development expenditure. This indicates that for improving liveability in urban areas, it is essential to strengthen infrastructure, enhance access to basic amenities and step up spending on developmental activities. A higher UDI tends to reduce crime and accident rates. Thus, spending must increase in all the ULBs especially on basic amenities and health and road development. This will not only improve urban living conditions but will also bring down crime and accident rates, thereby further improving the standard of life of people.

11.5. Concluding Remarks

Backwardness of Raichur district is also evident in its low and slow urbanization status. Due to a slower increase in urban population between 2001 and 2011, the percentage of population residing in urban areas has only marginally increased and the share of Raichur in state's urban population has come down. It is noticed that urbanization is highly unequally distributed with Raichur

CMC accounting for half of the district's urban population. But low urbanized talukss have recorded higher increase in urban population.

In terms of access to basic amenities, ULBs report differential access to pucca houses, tap water, electricity, toilets, drainage and clean cooking fuel. Lingsugur and Raichur have more than 90 per cent of households having access to tap water, it is as low as 62 per cent in Devadurga TMC, in the remaining ULBs it is between 80-90 per cent. The availability of toilets within the premises is very low, so also drainage and clean cooking fuel. While electricity is the most accessible amenity, availability of clean fuels is the least accessible one.

Further, no ULB has undertaken reliable estimates of solid waste and sewage generated and there is also no foolproof system of management of SW and sewage water because of which, no ULB is awarded marks for waste water management (except Raichur CMC) as well as disease control and management in the 'Benchmarking of ULBs for the year 2009-10.

WPR is higher for ULBs in backward regions, and higher for males. In all ULBs the share of female marginal workers is higher than the males except Manvi TMC. Low literacy levels force them to work in temporary and short term vocations. The in LOI values for urban females have sharply declined throughout the district. This might be because of both lower WPR and lower participation in non-agricultural activities.

Slum population is not related to the size of the ULB; they have favorable and better sex ratio compared to the general urban population; the ratio of SC and ST population is higher in slums vis-a-vis the total urban population; the proportion of 0-6 aged population is also high in slums corresponding to the overall urban area; literacy level is low and the gender gap in literacy is higher; WPR is lower in the slum areas and higher for males. Because of these characteristics, slums represent multiple deprivations and hence steps should be initiated to improve and rehabilitate slums. Therefore, if slums represent deprivation, then a higher concentration of women, SCs and STs and children, reflects the possibility of higher deprivation of these sections and it is evident in low literacy and work participation rates, high gender gaps and high dependence on service activity as marginal workers. Hence, steps should be initiated towards investment in not only slum rehabilitation but human development of the slum residents.



The Urban Service Level Benckmarking has not awarded marks for disease control and awarded almost no marks for development of parks and gardens as well as waste water management, which indicates neglect of environmental issues. Mudgal TP and Devadurga TMC score very less on generation and utilization of finances as well and this is another area of suggested improvement.

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Chapter 12

WAY FORWARD



Way Forward

12.1. Introduction

Any development programme should enhance the opportunities and choices available to the people. Income is obviously one of the indicators of development and is only a means for achieving other broader ends of human well-being. Therefore, people should be the centre of development process because they are both the beneficiaries and the agents of that process. Development will be more equitable and more meaningful if it is by the people of the people and for the people. This is the basis of HD paradigm that has been accepted widely by academicians as well as practitioners.

Based on Sen's capabilities approach HD defines development as a process that enhances the basic capabilities and choices available to the people. The basic capabilities are education, health and livelihood. UNDP, in its HDRs, combined these to form the HDI. More specifically, the average attainments in health (LEB); education (mean and expected years of schooling); and per capita income (US $ at PPP) - are used to compute HDI for countries, groups of population and even regional groupings. HDI is being extensively used by the policy makers to compare the performance of their own country/region in various HD dimensions. Because of the robustness of HDI as an analytical tool to guide policy making for human progress, the computation of HDI has been extended to micro-regions as well. Many countries have prepared HDRs at provincial and sub-provincial levels as well as for groupings of population. The UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) also predominantly emphasize HD aspects. Thus HD paradigm has become the pivot of all development discourses.

As one of the early adopters of HD strategy and also having committed to the achievement of UNMDGs, India has prepared HDRs at various levels at regular intervals. Many state and local governments have also initiated the preparation of HDRs. Government of Karnataka, in order to strengthen its own plans for purposeful development, has prepared two state level HDRs (the first in 1999 and the second in 2006) and district level HDRs (in 2008). Experience gained in these processes and the need to go further below for documenting achievements and identifying the gaps, have prompted the Government to compute HDI at taluk (block) level. The present exercise aims at constructing human and other composite development indices with the taluk as the unit of analysis. This is the first of its kind in the whole country.

Development will be more equitable and more meaningful if it is by the people of the people and for the people.

Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII) Child Development Index (CDI), Food Security Index (FSI), Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI) and Urban Development Index (HDI) are computed at taluk level

Fundamentally, the exercise seeks to build a reliable data set at the taluk level, make the officials HD sensitive in their approach to implementation of programmes and involve local stakeholders in the process of preparation and implementation of HD plans.

The methodology of computation of indices has been customized to capture the local problems and priorities in the light of the nature of data available. Hence, with 2011-12 as the reference year, Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII) Child Development Index (CDI), Food Security Index (FSI), Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI) and Urban Development Index (HDI) have been computed at taluk level and analysed. A District Comprehensive Index (DCDI) is also constructed.

The data has been compiled from the Census documents, DSO, DLHS, publications of individual departments at the district level like HMIS, SSA/RMSA and unpublished data available with them. The HDD of the Planning Department shared a huge amount of standardized data and provided detailed guidelines and training regarding the process involved in preparation of HDRs. At the district level, the District Core Committee was responsible for collection, compilation and validation of data and reviewing the progress. Thus, the Raichur District Human Development Report has been the result of a participative and consultative process prepared with the help of all stakeholders and dedicated to the people of Raichur district.

HDI Rankings

Raichur - 1
Lingsugur - 2
Manvi - 3
Sindhnur - 4
Devadurga -5

12.2. Discussion and Analysis

12.2.1: Analysis and Explanation of Various Indices

i. Human Development Index (HDI): Raichur district depicts a dismal picture of development as it continues to be a low developed district. It is ranked at 30th place in the state with a HDI value of 0.165. There are three distinct regions of development with Raichur and Lingsugur taluks being relatively developed; Manvi and Devadurga less developed and Sindhnur falling in the middle level. Human deprivation is high in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur. Devadurg's HDI value is half of Raichur's. The district has the highest mortality values for the state - IMR, CMR and MMR and the health index has influenced the performance in HD, followed by education and standard of living. The district also records the lowest GER in whole of the state. Similarly, percentage households having access to clean fuel and toilets is abysmally low as is the percentage of non-agricultural workers. Hence, very high mortality rates, very low SOL indicators have been responsible for the least HD of the district. HD status among SCs and STs is lower than that for the total population in the district. In Raichur, rural SCs are at a greater disadvantage than their urban counterparts. But STs

are more deprived than SCs compared to the general population.

ii. Gender Inequality Index (GII): The GII for district is 0.150 and is ranked at 28th position. Sindhnur has the least gender inequality followed by Devadurga; Manvi having the highest inequality. The observed gender inequality is because of relatively adverse empowerment index and more adverse labour market index. Female health is index very low in Manvi taluk, therefore, GII is quite high there. The predominantly rural nature and also higher degree of poverty in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks, women are compelled to participate more in work. Crimes against women though declining are still considerable.

iii. Child Development Index (CDI): The district's CDI calculated at 0.231 and is ranked last in the state. Lingsugur has the highest CDI followed by Raichur; Devadurga has the lowest CDI (almost two and half times less than Lingsugur taluka); which is because of high CMR and percentage of children born underweight, and the least per cent dropout children mainstreamed. Lingsugur has the lowest CMR and per cent children born underweight. Hence, efforts at reducing CMR and mainstreaming of all dropped out children needs to be emphasized along with strengthening nutrition.

iv. Food Security Index (FSI): Food security is defined to comprise of availability (local production capacity), accessibility (making food available to people) and absorption (complementary factors that make nutrition a realistic goal). Raichur district has a very low FSI at 0.266 and is ranked at 29th position. The district not only has very low availability, the absorption parameters are also of very low magnitude. Even with a better accessibility index FSI for the taluks is lower spreading the food insecurity wide in the district. Since accessibility and absorption have determined the value of FSI to a greater extent improving income, non-agricultural employment avenues, female literacy and provision of drinking water can enhance the food security in the district.

v. Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI): Sindhnur taluk has the highest CTDI followed by Raichur, Lingsugur, Manvi and Devadurga. That there is not much variation in the values of CTDI shows that all taluks are more or less equally backward. Educational development has predominantly affected the CTDI in Raichur district.

vi. Urban Development Index (UDI): Raichur CMC has a high UDI among ULBs of the district owing to higher urban population, better basic amenities and infrastructure, higher own resource mobilization and lower crime and accident rates.

GII Rankings
Sindhnur - 1
Devadurga -2
Lingsugur - 3
Raichur - 4
Manvi - 5

CDI Rankings
Lingsugur - 1
Raichur - 2
Sindhnur - 3
Manvi - 4
Devadurga -5

FSI Rankings
Raichur - 1
Lingsugur - 2
Sindhnur - 3
Manvi - 4
Devadurga - 5

CTDI Rankings
Sindhnur - 1
Raichur - 2
Lingsugur - 3
Manvi - 4
Devadurga -5

UDI Rankings
Raichur CMC - 1
Sindhnur CMC - 2
Manvi TMC - 3
Lingsugur TMC - 4
Mudgal TP - 5
Devadurga TMC - 6

Sindhnur CMC has the next highest UDI value. Among the TMCs, Manvi followed by Lingsugur have higher UDI, but lower than Raichur and Sindhnur. Devadurga TMC has the least UDI among the TMCs. Mudgal TP stands in the last but one position. Hence, Raichur CMC is the most developed and Devadurga TMC is the least developed.

12.2.2. Achievements and Gaps

12.2.2.1. Education

Less than 50 per cent of population is literate in Devadurga; in other taluks too illiteracy is high ranging from 35 to 45 per cent. This is because NER in elementary stage is generally lower but dropout rate is higher suggesting that not all children get enrolled in schools and they do not complete the schooling.

Gender gaps though declining are still higher; with those in rural areas being almost double than the urban areas. With literacy rates for SC and ST population being lower than others, social group disparity in education is also considerable. The gaps have been lower for SC population compared to ST population, but gaps for females are still quite high compared to that for males.

The extent of dropping out is higher Devadurga, Lingsugur and Manvi taluks. This distress deepens in the secondary stage of education. Secondary school enrolment is 25 per cent of that prevailing in the best performing taluk of the state. Except Sindhnur, in no other taluk it has crossed 50 per cent. This is a severe gap. A more distressing fact is the extent of dropout rate in the secondary stage which is more than 10 per cent in all taluks with as high as a rate as 21 per cent in Devadurga taluk. Thus, not joining higher level of schooling and not completing it is a quite severe problem in the district. To add to this is the lower percentage of children mainstreamed which is lower in Devadurga and Manvi; medium in Raichur and better in Lingsugur and Sindhnur taluks.

Despite satisfactory PTR, SSLC pass percentage generally low. But the SSLC pass percentage higher in low literate taluks; and an opposite scenario may be observed with respect to PUC pass percentage. School infrastructure index is lower in Manvi, Lingsugur and Sindhnur. Along with strengthening of school infrastructure, especially drinking water and toilets, additional primary schools need to be started in Manvi and Raichur taluks.

The expenditure per capita for the district at Rs. 467 per capita is very low when compared to the amount spent in other districts; and is also generally lower in the district but relatively higher in less literate taluks.

12.2.2.2. Health

The district has about 3.5 per cent of the state's population; has a lower urbanization ratio; but a higher proportion of both SC and ST

populations. MMR is higher throughout the district owing a higher incidence of anaemia among pregnant women. It is as high as 71 per cent in Manvi. The reported ANC coverage is high but quality in terms of number of visits and nutritional supplements provided need to be enhanced. The share of institutional delivery is around 90 per cent and the MMR is higher wherever the incidence of institutional delivery is lower. Additional number of sub-centres and PHCs anganwadis need to be set up in Devadurga and Manvi; medical personnel to be appointed in Manvi, Lingsugur and Sindhnur; and health expenditure needs to be enhanced, especially in Lingsugur, Raichur, Sindhnur and Devadurga. Males have to be encouraged to share birth control burden to reduce population growth and improve the health of women.

12.2.2.3. Livelihood

Livelihood security depends a lot on income and employment characteristics of the population. The district's share in state's income decreased to 1.7 per cent between 2004-05 and 2008-09. The per capita DDP of the district continued to be lower than the state PCSDP. The percentage change in PCI was also lower in the district compared to the state. There are also considerable inter-taluk disparities in level and growth of income. Contrary to the usual tendency, agriculture has increased its share; manufacturing is a very small component of the district's economy and major services are declining. This traditional economic structure is reflected in employment too with the percentage of workers engaged in agricultural activities as cultivators and agricultural labourers being very high at 70 per cent in the district compared to 49 per cent in the state and the change also being marginal in the district.

Food grains dominate the district with an area share of more than 73 per cent of NSA. Among the food grains, cereals are predominantly grown which occupy more than half of the NSA; Paddy and Jowar are the major crops. The district is endowed with a vast canal irrigated area and the NIA is 42 per cent. But despite this, per capita food grains produced is very less indicating low productivity in the district. The households are also dependent on allied activities and alternative employment sources for supplementing their livelihood options.

With respect to work characteristics, the growth of workers is comparable to that at the state level. While the number of main workers has grown at 18 per cent, that of marginal workers has declined by 4 per cent. Female workers have recorded higher growth in the main category, but decelerated in marginal category. Significantly, the non-workers ratio has declined throughout the district and steeply for females; and in urban areas.

The urban workforce has grown at a faster rate than the rural workforce. Among taluks, Devadurga and Lingsugur have registered very high growth of workers, especially in rural areas. Although generally females are facing declining work opportunities or greater degree of unemployment; in urban areas the employment opportunities to women are increasing.

Work participation rate is relatively higher in the district. Low literacy and low non-agricultural development implies that is more of a distress driven participation, more so in backward taluks like Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur. To support this argument, if the proportion of workers engaged in agriculture as cultivators and agricultural laborers, it comes to nearly 80 per cent in Manvi and Devadurga; 74 per cent in Sindhnur and 67 per cent in Lingsugur. Diversification into non-agriculture is non-existent in the district.

The percentage of workers engaged in agricultural activities is declining but still high in taluks of Devadurga and Manvi. Low level of urbanization has slackened the diversification of the occupational structure. Agricultural labour is the single largest employment option in the rural areas of Raichur district.

The data shows that 37.3 per cent of households were issued job cards by 31-3-2012, but the average number of person days worked amounts to a mere 36 days per household. Participation by the ST households was lower. With migration being still extensive, MGNREGS has not performed as expected in the district.

12.2.2.4. Quality of Living

The condition with respect to housing, amenities and assets is very deplorable in Raichur District. Except Raichur taluk, in all others, the percentage of households living in non-pucca houses is more than two-thirds. The proportion of site-less households is more than 10 per cent in Devadurga, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks. Hence, housing schemes have to be vigorously implemented in Devadurga, Lingsugur, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks.

Very less proportion of the households uses clean/modern cooking fuel. It is as low as hardly 5 per cent in Devadurga taluk and the highest is in Raichur taluk at 25 per cent. Except Raichur very less households have access to safe drinking water, the situation being worse in Manvi, Sindhnur and Devadurga. Sanitation is in a worst condition as access to toilets is paltry. Raichur taluk which has the highest proportion of households having access to toilets has hardly about one-third households possessing toilets and in the remaining taluks 77 to 93 per cent of households do not possess toilets, which is a distressing picture. With

respect to drainage also, the condition is not different with less than one-third households reporting access to drainage in all taluks except Raichur, where it is more than half. Hence, the burden of provision of providing basic amenities is very high. This is what is to be emphasized in the days to come, especially in Devadurga, Manvi, Sindhnur and Lingsugur taluks. Adequate water and sanitation, if stressed, will also improve health, productivity and livelihood of the people of Raichur district. Possibilities of using alternative energy sources like solar power may be explored because even as late as 2011 more than 10 per cent of households did not have access to electricity in the district.

If ownership of assets like Telephone, TV, 2 wheelers and 4wheelers means prosperity, then nearly one-fourth of households in Devadurga and Lingsugur; and one-fifth of households in Manvi did not own any of these assets; in Raichur and Sindhnur this proportion was about 15 per cent. If we can call them ultra poor or destitutes majority of them live in Devadurga and Lingsugur. Immediate attention needs to be given by increasing employment and income of these people as well as by strengthening government support to these people.

12.2.3. Combined HD Analysis

In HD Raichur and Lingsugur taluks are relatively developed, Devadurga and Manvi are least developed and Sindhnur falls in the middle level. Gender inequality is lower in all taluks, but more so in Lingsugur, Manvi and Sindhnur taluks. Child development also does not go with HD status. Raichur taluk has the highest value for CTDI and lowest value for CDI. FSI is lower in all taluks except Raichur and Sindhnur.

Thus, there seems to be no compatibility, in general, in the taluk rankings based on various indices. The district performs low in CDDI as it is ranked 29 out of 30.

12.2.4. Regional Disparity of the present HD situation

The development is not expected to be uniform. However, as we go down the regional units, the disparity is likely to be smaller. However, HD attainments of taluks do represent significant inequalities as already hinted. Across the various indicators, child development is highly unequal followed by human development itself. Gender inequality is least unequal across regions followed by CTDI and FSI. It may be inferred that while human development is disparate, gender inequality is more or less equally spread, despite overall development also more evenly spread. Hence, Overall development has not been satisfactory and whatever development has occurred, has basically bypassed women and children.

12.2.5: The Way Ahead:

1. Future HD Strategy for the Education Sector

i. Universalize enrolment and increase enrolment at higher levels, especially of girls in taluks like Devadurga and Manvi.

ii. Investment on improvement of school infrastructure in all taluks

iii. Dropout rate still being high intensification of programmes for retention and mainstreaming is necessary in all taluks

iv. Extent of vacancy of teachers at primary level is 22 per cent and that at high school level is 14 per cent, this immediately needs to be corrected. Appointment of more number of female teachers to attract all girl children

v. Coaching to rural students for SSLC and PUC examinations

2. Future HD strategy for Health Sector

i. Steps to reduce MMR by attacking anaemia through adequate supplementary nutrition in all taluks

ii. Reducing IMR and CMR by strengthening RCH services in PHCs

iii. Increasing the awareness about use of contraceptives, this may be added as a part of 'Arogya Kavacha'

iv. Appointing more number of doctors and other health personnel and motivating them to work in rural areas

3. Future HD Strategy for Livelihood Sector

i. Increasing agricultural productivity, especially in the irrigated areas through better water management;

ii. Promoting non-agricultural avenues of employment in rural areas of all taluks

iii. Incentives and sanctions for construction of toilets in all taluks

iv. Provision of treated and safe drinking water throughout the district has to be a priority

4. Future HD Strategy for Dalits, Tribals, and Minorities

i. Measures to reduce fertility rates among SC and ST communities by providing extended RCH services to them.

ii. Encouraging enrolment, attendance and transition to higher grades of children of these sections and discouraging dropping out of school

iii. Promoting non-farm diversification by encouraging them to start enterprises/ businesses of their own

iv. Increasing the number of personnel form SC/ST

communities in social sectors like education and health

v. Promoting women organizations of these sections for socio-economic empowerment

vi. Enhancing awareness about the schemes and benefits; if necessary separate gram sabhas and such other meetings for review of these programmes should be organized

5. Future HD Strategy for Gender Development

i. Focus on enhancing female literacy rate in all taluks

ii. Promoting non-agricultural avenues of employment for women through skill development

iii. Ensure that all SHGs are active and set up many more such groups

iv. Provision of facilities necessary for starting and running of enterprises by women

v. Increasing lady police strength to tackle increasing crimes against women

vi. Enhancing social security of women

6. HD Strategy for other sectors

6.1. Children

i. Raichur having one of the highest incidence of malnourishment, immediate steps should be initiated to enhance nutritional support to children, pregnant women and lactating mothers.

ii. Increasing the number of AWCs and strengthening them with basic amenities

6.2. Urban issues

i. Controlling the growth of slums

ii. Improving road facilities, surveillance facilities and police strength in all ULBs to control crimes and reduce incidence of accidents

iii. Investment in treating liquid and solid wastes

iv. Measures to increase own resource mobilization and so that ULBs are able to spend more on basic amenities.

6.3. Governance

i. In the wake of Article 371 (j) status, vacancies need to be filled up

ii. Regular training of officials and staff to make them sensitive to the the needs of women, children and disadvantaged sections as well as using the new technology

iii. Awareness generation for people to be strengthened to enable them to participate in decision making

iv. Seeking avenues for public private partnership in implementation of human development activities

v. Ensuring complete utilization of grants towards HD activities

12.3 Concluding Remarks

Raichur district is a manifestation of multiple deprivations which is reflected in lower level of DCDI and still lower levels of HD. The causes for this deplorable situation are not far to seek. The district's weather conditions are adverse not allowing the people to be employed throughout the year. In fact, migration is still unabated from parts of Devadurga and Lingsugur to distant cities. With livelihood still being rural and agri-related, the low agricultural productivity has kept them poor and undernourished. It is, therefore, not surprising that mortality rates are among the highest in the state. Within the rural economy there is hardly any non-agricultural development. Of course skills required for non-agricultural enterprises are not built and the infrastructure is also inadequate to support them. Therefore, agricultural labour is the predominant occupation which is not only casual, but also less remunerative.

A four-fold strategy could be suggested for higher HD in Raichur district comprising of:

i. **Accelerating job creation:** In order to absorb the increasing working-age population, rising WPR and expected reduction in agriculture's share of employment. Non-farm sector is a very promising area with construction and natural resource development being the better options for unskilled labour. Rural industries and services also need to be promoted. Suitable jobs for females in urban areas also need to be generated. For this purpose widening literacy and deepening skill base are important.

ii. **Raising farm productivity**: Increase in investment in agricultural infrastructure, research and extension services, will help in raising the farm yields. Especially in Raichur, water management needs to be emphasized. Gains in agricultural productivity would also accelerate the transition of labour to more productive non-farm jobs.

iii. **Strengthening basic services**: A higher HD is not possible without making available the basic amenities to as large a population as possible. This assumes a lot of significance in Raichur as it is significantly poor with regard to the accessibility of basic services. Priority needs to be assigned to provision of good housing, safe drinking water and sanitation in all parts of the district. Health and educational services should also be part of this initiative.

iv. **Effective delivery of the basic services:** Creation of basic services is one thing and making them available to the intended beneficiaries is another.

Governance holds the key here. Especially, in Raichur district illiteracy being high, the government machinery has to take lead in making these services used by the people. In this regard, best practices and innovative examples can be adopted. Some of the most promising strategies include forming partnerships with the private and social sectors, mobilising community participation, and using technology to streamline and monitor operations. Appointment of adequate staff is also an important precondition in Raichur's development.

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ANNEXURES

Annexures

1.1: Parameters and Variables of DHDR

Index	Dimension	Indicators	Data Source
HDI	Standard of Living	% of households with safe cooking fuel	Census
		% of households with toilets	Census
		% of households with Safe drinking water	Census
		% households with electricity	Census
		% of households with access to pucca house	Census
		Share of non agricultural workers	Census
		PC Taluk Domestic Product	HDD
	Health	Child Mortality Rate	HMIS/HDD
		Maternal Mortality Rate	HMIS/HDD
	Education	Total Literacy Rate	Census
		Gross Enrolment Ratio	SSA and RMSA
GII	Reproductive Health	Maternal Mortality Rate	HMIS/HDD
		Share of Institutional Deliveries	HMIS/HDD
		Share of Pregnant Women with Anemia	HMIS/HDD
	Empowerment	Share of Female Elected Representatives in PRIs and ULBs	DSO
		Share of Male Elected Representatives in PRIs and ULBs	DSO
		Share of Female Children in the Age Group 0-6 Years	Census
		Share of Male Children in the Age Group 0-6 Years	Census
		Share of Female Literacy	Census
		Share of Male Literacy	Census
	Labour market	Share of Female Work Participation Rate	Census
		Share of Male Work Participation Rate	Census
		Share of Female Workers in the Non-agricultural Sector	Census
		Share of Male Workers in the Non-agricultural Sector	Census
		Female Agricultural Wage Rate	DSO
		Male Agricultural Wage Rate	DSO
CDI	Health	Child Mortality Rate(0-5 years)	HMIS/HDD
	Nutrition	% of Malnourished Children (excluding Normal)	HMIS/HDD
		% of Children born under-weight	HMIS/HDD
	Education	% of Dropout Children from Primary and Secondary Schools	SSA and RMSA
FSI	Availability	Cropping Intensity	DSO
		% Change in NSA over the years (2001 – 2011)	DSO
		Per capita food grain production (in Kgs)	DSO
		% of forest cover to total geographical area	DSO

1.1 continued

	Standard of Living - Employment and Livelihood	% of BPL Cards issued to Total Ration Cards	DFCS
		Cropping Intensity	DSO
		Irrigation Intensity	DSO
		% of Households provided employment to those registered under MGNREGS	NREGA website
		Ratio of average agricultural wage to Minimum wages prescribed by the State	DSO
		Work Participation Rate (WPR)	Census
		Decadal Growth rate of Employment	Census
		% of Cultivators to Total workers	Census
		% of main workers to total workers	Census
		% of workers in Household Industries	Census
		% of Agriculture labourers to Total workers	Census
	Standard of Living - Housing and Assets	% of HHs having Pucca Houses	Census
		% of Site less Households	ZP
		% of Households provided with house sites	ZP
		% of Houses constructed for houseless poor families	ZP
		% of households with cycles	Census
		% of households with two-wheelers	Census
		% of HHs with no Assets	Census
		% of HHs having access to Electricity	Census
		% of HHs having access to Modern Cooking Fuel	Census
	Standard of Living - participation	% of women elected representatives in rural local bodies	DSO
		% of elected SC/ST representatives in rural local bodies	DSO
		% of women elected representatives in urban local bodies	DSO
		% of elected SC/ST representatives in urban local bodies	DSO
		% of active SHGs	DSO
	Health	% of pregnant women receiving full ANC	HMIS/HDD
		Share of Pregnant Women with Anaemia	HMIS/HDD
		Share of Institutional deliveries	HMIS/HDD
		% of children fully Immunized	HMIS
		(a) % of Children born under-weight	HMIS/HDD
		(b) % of Malnourished Children (Excluding Normal)	HMIS/HDD
		% of people affected by major communicable diseases	HMIS/HDD

1.1 continued

		Average Population served by sub-centres	HMIS
		Average Population served by Primary Health Centres	HMIS
		Availability of Doctors per 1,000 population	HMIS
		Availability of nurses per 1000 population	HMIS
		Average population served by Anganwadi centres	DWCD
		% of villages having Anganwadis within a km. distance	DWCD
		% of couples protected by any contraceptive method	HMIS
		Per capita Health Expenditure	DHO / CAO
		% of Gram Panchayats Selected for NGP Awards	ZP
		% of HHs having access to Toilet	Census
		% of Households with drainage facility	Census
		% of HHs having access to Water	Census
	Education	% of Literacy	Census
		Gross Enrolment rate – Elementary School	SSA
		Net Enrolment rate – Elementary School	SSA
		Dropout rate in Elementary education	SSA
		% of Drop-out Children Mainstreamed	SSA
		Student – Teacher ratio for elementary education	SSA
		Secondary school Gross Enrolment Rate (15-16 years)	RMSA
		Drop-out rate in secondary education	RMSA
		SSLC pass %	RMSA
		Student - Teacher ratio for secondary education	RMSA
		PUC pass %	PUE Board
		School Infrastructure Index	SSA
		Per capita Education Expenditure	CAO/DDPI
		% of villages having a Primary School within 1 km. distance	SSA

Note: CAO-Chief Accounts Officer; DFCS-Department of Food and Civil Supplies; DHO- District Health Office; DSO-District Statistical Office; DUDC-District Urban Development Cell; DWCD- Department of Women and Child Development; HDD-Human Development Division; HMIS- Health Management Information Systems; SSA-Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan; RMSA-Rashtriya Madhyamika Shiksha Abhiyan; Rose coloured cells are negative indicators

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1.2: Note on Estimation of IMR, CMR and MMR

There are two types of service statistics on mortality are available with the Department of Health, Karnataka (DHO). First, the data provided by the respective health institutions and entered into the Health Management Information System (HMIS) portal. Because this is a facility based reporting, the mortality indicators are higher in those districts and sub-districts with more facilities and does not represent the performance of a particular area. Moreover, the facilities not reporting the deaths as well as the deaths taking place at home will not become part of the HMIS in most cases. Second, the mortality information is also maintained for respective geographical area based on the ANM reporting. This is found to be grossly underestimated. Thirdly, the Civil Registration System (CRS) also provide data on mortality. The analysis of this data also showed gross underestimate particularly the infant mortality rate (IMR), child mortality rate (CMR) and maternal mortality ratio (MMR). Thus it is essential to rework the estimates by adjusting for underestimation to find out the real IMR and MMR in different regions of Karnataka.

SRS estimates on mortality indicators are widely accepted but they are available only at State levels. Reliable estimate of IMR at the district level are available only from 2001 census. As the District level Human Development Reports (DHDR) requires district and sub-district level estimates of these indicators, a method is developed to provide reasonable quality estimates of IMR, CMR and MMR at the district and sub-district level.

Methodology

Indirect estimates of infant and child mortality is feasible using the information on children ever born and children surviving by age of the mother from surveys and census. The census estimates of IMR and CMR are based on this information. District Level Household Surveys (DLHS) conducted in 2007-08 have collected this information. Ram et al (2013) have already estimated neonatal mortality rate and CMR using this information and adjusted the estimate for the year 2012 using a ratio method of distributing the total deaths computed for India to states and districts. But the estimates they used are from the UN estimate of neonatal and child mortality for India for the year 2012.

Ratio method is adopted here for estimating district and sub-district IMR, CMR and MMR for Karnataka. We have used the SRS estimate of IMR, CMR and MMR for Karnataka and distributed the corresponding deaths across district and sub-districts. First, the IMR, CMR and MMR for Karnataka are obtained from SRS for the period 2011 which

has been 35, 40 and 144 respectively. Second, the same number of deaths have been distributed across districts using ratio method. The ratio is obtained considering the neonatal and CMR estimated by Ram et al (2013) across districts of Karnataka. For distributing IMR and CMR, data from Ram et al (2013) on CMR is used while for MMR the neonatal mortality rate from the same source is used. Thus we have computed the IMR, CMR and MMR across districts of Karnataka considering that the state level is same as the SRS figures for 2011. Third, the corresponding district IMR, CMR and MMR are distributed across sub-districts using ratio method. The ratio is obtained from the data gathered from the DHO on these three indicators across sub-districts. Thus the IMR, CMR and MMR obtained from DHO have been adjusted upward to match with the district IMR, CMR and MMR computed for the district based on the similar methodology.

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1.3: A Brief Note on Preparation of DHDR of Raichur District

Preparation of any status/ development report at local level has lot of obstacles. First of all reliable data in required format and dimensions is not available; second, the local authorities so much occupied with day-to-day administration that they do not get sufficient time to gather data or compile it in the form of a report; third, the people's representatives may also be having other priorities. In this framework, the Karnataka State Planning Department created the Human Development Division (HDD) to incorporate HD concerns in policy making and assigning allocations to further HD. Uniform guidelines were prepared; local expertise was identified as Lead Agency (LA) and capacity building was done through training the representatives of the LA and the district administration. Initially a general training was given to orient LAs and district officials about HD and its dimensions. After collection of data was completed, a technical training was given for calculation of various indices.

The LAs, in turn, conducted workshops at taluk and district level to sensitize the elected representatives, government officials, NGO functionaries and general public about the activity and involve them in it. Table 1 gives the details of workshops. The workshops helped the LA to identify area specific problems and finalize the small area studies that were also endorsed in the DCC.

The collection and validation of data and the progress in preparation of DHDR was monitored by the District Core Committee (DCC) headed by the Chief Executive Officer of the ZP and convened by the Chief Planning Officer. The details of DCC meetings are furnished in Table 2. Dr. T.R.Chandrashekhar, Professor of Development Studies (Rtd.), Kannada Vishvavidyalaya, Hampi was assigned to the district as member of the Quality Monitoring Group (QMG) to oversee the preparation of the Report. The data, draft and important findings were informally discussed with the academicians in the University and members of the subject sub-committees.

Table 1: District and Taluk Level Workshops

Workshop	Date	Participants
District level Workshop	22-9-2012	64
Taluk Level Workshops		
Sindhnur	8-7-2013	53
Manvi	8-7-2013	64
Devadurga	9-7-2013	50
Lingsugur	9-7-2013	76

Table 2: District Core Committee Meetings

Date	Members Attended	Business Transacted
28-3-2013	17	Formats for Data collection distributed
19-6-2013	15	Data was verified and discussions about conduct of workshops held
23-8-2013	13	Health data verified, overall progress reviewed
11-10-2013	14	Data collection progress reviewed and topics and sites for small area studies finalized and GP for Dalit Development Index selected
30-12-2014	12	Data collection and other progress reviewed
4-9-2014	14	Overall progress was reviewed

The HDD constantly monitored the progress through mails and instructions and helped in checking the data. The HDD conducted four review meetings as follows:

i. 29-10-2013 at Vikasa Soudha, Bangalore,
ii. 29-11-2013 at CMDR, Dharwad, and
iii. 27-3-2014 at Planning Department, Bangalore
iv. 19-9-2014 at Planning Department, Bangalore

In all these meetings, the data was presented along with the progress made in the process of DHDR preparation.

On 10th February 2014, the data and tentative chapter plan as well as the preliminary results were placed in the District Planning Committee meeting of the Zilla Panchayat Raichur for its consideration and approval. The same was duly approved by the house.

Hence, a participative method of data collection, compilation and validation was adopted with checks for consistency at various levels. The HDD shares a considerable credit for finalizing the data sets and standardizing the whole process.

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1.4: Data Quality and Limitations

For a study of this kind huge amount of data is necessary on demography, health, education, livelihood and other issues disaggreagated by residence, gender and social groups. The database available at the district and taluk levels has some limitations to serve the purpose in a satisfactory manner.

i. The census data is predominantly used and by and large it is reliable but not all details are available for the year 2011.

ii. The education data as available in DISE (SSA) and RMSA documents has improved a lot but there is some inconsistency in terms of census of children and hence enrolment ratios. Similar is the case with out of school children and child labour. It was later reconciled with the help of education department and labour department officials.

iii. There is a tendency to misreport mortality rates and it was corrected by the data given by the HDD

iv. In many cases, data by rural-urban; male-female and social group categorization is not available and, it remains a valid limitation and it needs to be improved in the future

v. Taluk level data on landless households is difficult to get, hence only district level data is used.

vi. The District Statistical Office is successful in generating substantial data but it needs to focus on disaggregations for a better analysis.

The overall impression is that the availability of data has improved but efforts have to be made to compile and publish it for general reference.

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2.1: Demographic Information of Raichur District, 2011

Parameter	Raichur	Karnataka
Number of Households (lakhs)	3.64	133.57
Total Population (lakhs)	19.29	610.95
% Female	49.99	49.31
Decadal Population Growth (%)	15.27	
Sex Ratio	1000	973
0-6 Age Population	14.7	11.7
% SC Population	10.4	8.6
% ST Population	19.0	7.0
Literacy Rate -Persons (%)	59.56	75.36
Literacy Rate -Males (%)	70.47	82.47
Literacy Rate -Females (%)	48.73	68.08
Literacy Rate - Urban (%)	65.3	76.2
Literacy Rate - Rural (%)	45.8	60.4
WPR (%)	46.84	45.62
Cultivators %	32.1	25.8
Agricultural Labourers %	37.1	21.9
Household Industry workers %	1.8	3.0
Other Workers %	28.9	49.3
Non-workers	53.16	54.38
% Urban Population	25.4	38.7

Source: Census, 2011

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3.1: Human development Indicators for Raichur District, 2011-12

(Annexure - 5 as per DHDR Guidelines)

Sl.No.	Indicators	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhanur	District -Raichur
Indicator 1-11: Indicators for Human Development Index (HDI)							
1	Percentage of HHs having access to Modern Cooking fuel	4.97	12.99	11.50	25.48	16.11	15.69
2	Percentage of HHs having access to Toilet	6.63	15.19	15.71	33.88	22.62	20.68
3	Percentage of HHs having access to Water	52.19	58.97	49.1	74.81	50.61	58.67
4	Percentage of HHs having access to Electricity	83.85	81.31	86.69	92.41	89.88	87.54
5	Percentage of HHs having access to Pucca house	25.78	29.14	33.16	49.55	33.22	35.9
6	Percentage of Non agricultural workers (main + marginal)	16.87	31.99	19.19	50.91	26.1	30.39
7	Per-capita Income (GDP at Taluk Level at current prices)	25425	23796	39544	34534	25437	30286
8	Child Mortality Rate (CMR) (0-5 years)	74	70	73	79	89	77
9	Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR)	235	235	243	255	252	244
10	Literacy Rate	49.49	61.14	54.69	65.18	62.45	59.56
11	Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) a.GER at Primary, b.GER at Upper Primary, c.GER at Secondry/High-School	83.53	81.08	85.09	71.96	82.57	80.48

3.1 continued

Indicator 12-26: Indicators for Gender Inequality Index (GII)							
12	Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR)	235	235	243	255	252	244
13	Share of Institutional deliveries (ID)	92	93	90	90	92	91.00
14	Share of pregnant women with Anemia - ANE- (Excluding Normal)	41.3	49.5	79.1	51.5	45.4	76.7
15	Share of female elected representatives in PRIs and ULBs (PR_F)	39.75	39.81	40.07	40.52	40.72	40.20
16	Share of male elected representatives in PRIs and ULBs (PR_M)	60.25	60.19	59.93	59.48	59.28	59.80
17	Share of female children in the age group 0-6 years ($CHLD_F$)	49.04	48.58	48.82	48.62	48.68	48.73
18	Share of male children in the age group 0-6 years ($CHLD_M$)	50.96	51.42	51.18	51.38	51.32	51.27
19	Share of female literacy (LIT_F)	38.62	49.14	44.09	55.16	51.6	48.73
20	Share of male literacy ($LIT_{M)}$	60.47	73.04	65.54	75.26	73.44	70.47
21	Share of female Work Participation Rate (WPR_F)	52.72	42.49	50.01	38.05	46.87	45.16
22	Share of male Work Participation Rate (WPR_M)	65.98	62.63	65.97	64.09	65.68	64.76
23	Share of female workers in the non agricultural sector (NAG_F) to Total Female workers	11.59	22.4	13.14	36.83	19.29	21.11
24	Share of male workers in the non agricultural sector (NAG_M) to Total Male workers	21.13	38.45	23.88	59.33	31.02	36.93
25	Female Agricultural wage rate($WAGE_F$)	95	105	110	100	110	105
26	Male Agricultural wage rate($WAGE_M$)	125	135	140	135	140	135
Indicator 27-29: Indicators for Child Development Index (CDI)							
27	Child Mortality Rate (CMR)	74	70	73	79	89	77
28	a. Percentage of Malnourished Children (Excluding Normal)	46.68	41.17	43.62	46.42	49.08	46.16
	b. Percentage of Children born under-weight	26.00	28.00	27.00	13.21	9.20	19.64
29	Percentage of Drop-out Children Mainstreamed: (a) Primary (b) Secondary	36.96	75.77	44.12	56.86	68.32	54.16

3.1 continued

Indicator 30-47: Indicators for Food Security Index (FSI)							
30	Cropping Intensity	118.54	113.25	119.57	107.98	132.2	118.14
31	Percentage Change in NSA(Net Sown Area) over the years (2001 – 2011)	-23.7	35.4	-30.61	-25.83	-18.01	-12.26
32	Per capita food grain production (in Kgs)	208.81	334.47	440.66	87.71	698.07	329.37
33	Percentage of forest cover to total geographical area	3.51	4.68	1.29	0.26	0.67	2.17
34	Irrigation Intensity (can be above 100)	119.93	110.47	126.95	120.90	131.92	123.52
35	Percentage of area degraded (cultivable waste) to Total Geographicl Area (TGA)	3.72	2.57	3.04	1.38	0.88	2.34
36	Percentage of leguminous (area under pulses) crops in the Gross Cropped Area (GCA)	11.64	24.95	16.65	45.55	13.11	21.46
37	Percentage of BPL Card holders to Total Card holders	87.60	77.36	74.69	78.60	77.44	78.49
38	Per capita income (GDP at current prices in the Taluk)	25425	23796	39544	34534	25437	30286
39	Percentage of Non-agricultural workers to total workers	16.87	31.99	19.19	50.91	26.1	30.39
40	Average size of holdings (Total area of holdings / Total No. of holdings)	2.12	0.98	2.05	2.07	1.85	2.10
41	Percentage of Agricultural labourers to total workers	48.49	37.33	53.92	31.16	44.56	42.45
42	Percentage of villages having PDS outlets within the village	57.8	68.82	72.56	68.71	83.75	70.12
43	Child Mortality Rate (CMR)	74	70	73	79	89	77
44	Percentage of HHs having access to Water	52.19	58.97	49.1	74.81	50.61	58.67
45	Share of pregnant women with Anemia -ANE- (Excluding Normal)	41.3	49.5	79.1	51.5	45.4	76.7
46	a. Percentage of Malnourished Children (Excluding Normal)	46.68	41.17	43.62	46.42	49.08	46.16
	b. Percentage of Children born under-weight	26.00	28.00	27.00	13.21	9.20	19.64
47	Female Literacy Rate	38.62	49.14	44.09	55.16	51.6	48.73

3.1 continued

Indicator 48-58: Indicators of Urban Development Index (UDI) (Annexure - 5 as per DHDR Guidelines)							
Sl.No.	**Indicators**	**Mudgal (TP)**	**Lingsugur (TMC)**	**Devadurga (TMC)**	**Raichur (CMC)**	**Manvi (TMC)**	**Sindhnur (CMC)**
48	Percentage of ULB population to total population in the taluk	5.89	9.18	10.31	46.94	12.54	19.29
49	Percentage of Households without Own Houses	3.15	4.91	4.01	10.24	6.44	10.51
50	Percentage of Slum Population in the ULB to total population in the taluk (Slum Clearance Board Data)	29.94	22.18	68.76	25.20	13.89	29.07
51	Water Supply – Percentage of HHs with Tap water connection)	87.78	95.94	61.80	93.97	87.92	86.14
52	Sewerage/ Drainage – Percentage of HHs Sewerage and Drainage (Both Close and Open facilities)	65.90	74.37	65.80	85.27	72.37	71.79
53	No. of Hospital Beds per 1000 population in urban area	3.43	3.67	3.77	11.69	3.25	5.39
54	Percentage of Own Resource Mobilization to Total Receipts	9.42	9.44	9.17	7.02	9.34	10.02
55	Per capita expenditure on Development Works	581.54	151.99	655.12	402.01	790.75	626.42
56	Length of Roads in Kms per Sq. Km of geographical area	5.85	5.29	6.84	7.93	4.01	2.53
57	Crime Rate per 10000 Population	85.79	85.57	94.71	36.70	61.98	29.01
58	Road accidents per 10000 population	16.28	14.68	10.72	7.78	21.74	6.20

3.1 continued

Sl.No.	Indicators	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Manvi	Raichur	Sindhanur	District Raichur
Indicator 59-126: Indicators for Composite Taluk Development Index (CTDI)							
59	Decadal population growth rate	26.14	20.14	12.08	14.53	9.17	15.51
60	Population Density	186.08	198.00	206.73	324.84	245.90	230.09
61	Sex ratio	1002	984	1013	998	1003	1000
62	Percentage of Slum Population in the taluk to Total population in the taluk (2011 census)	7.09	3.8	1.74	11.83	5.61	6.33
63	Percentage of Population in the age group of 0-6	16.44	15.52	14.47	14.13	13.65	14.71
64	Child sex ratio	962	945	954	946	948	950
65	Infant Mortality Rate(IMR) (less than 1 year)	68	66	62	71	70	67
66	Child Mortality Rate (CMR)	74	70	73	79	89	77
67	Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR)	235	235	243	255	252	244
68	Percentage of women headed households (2011 census)	17.59	16.38	16.73	16.13	16.37	16.54
69	Percentage of BPL Cards issued to Total Ration Cards	87.60	77.36	74.69	78.60	77.44	78.49
70	Cropping Intensity	118.54	113.25	119.57	107.98	132.20	118.14
71	Irrigation Intensity	119.93	110.47	126.95	120.90	131.92	123.52
72	Percentage of Households provided employment to total number of households registered under MGNREGS	47.35	50.31	40.04	38.12	36.73	42.81
73	Ratio of average agricultural wage to Minimum wages prescribed by the State (Please refer to clarification note provided on average agricultural wages)	0.80	0.88	0.93	0.87	0.94	0.89

3.1 continued

74	**Work participation rate**	**59.32**	**52.6**	**57.9**	**51.03**	**56.22**	**54.92**
75	Decadal Growth rate of Employment	56.17	25.07	14.66	22.31	13.66	23.29
76	Percentage of Cultivators to Total workers	34.64	30.67	26.89	17.93	29.34	27.15
77	Percentage of main workers to total workers	81.63	75.29	80.21	81.08	83.31	80.36
78	Percentage of workers in Household Industries	1.54	2.68	1.73	2.39	2.07	2.11
79	Percentage of Agriculture labourers to Total workers	48.49	37.33	53.92	31.16	44.56	42.45
80	Percentage of Households with Pucca houses	25.78	29.14	33.16	49.55	33.22	35.9
81	Percentage of Site less Households	12.79	4.99	16.92	8.92	14.43	11.44
82	Percentage of Households provided with house sites	0.0	8.78	0.0	0.0	4.12	1.81
83	Percentage of Houses constructed for houseless poor families (RDPR data)	18.31	45.12	17.05	15.00	16.61	19.81
84	Percentage of households with cycles	23.07	30.55	34.36	39.34	35.08	33.66
85	Percentage of households with Two-wheelers	11.18	12.86	17.42	27.02	23.57	19.65
86	Percentage of HHs with no Assets(Telephone,TV, 2 wheelers and 4wheelrs)	26.65	24.64	21.92	15.77	15.95	20.12
87	Percentage of Households with electricity	83.85	81.31	86.69	92.41	89.88	87.54
88	Percentage of HHs having access to Modern Cooking fuel	4.97	12.99	11.50	25.48	16.11	15.69
89	Percentage of women elected representatives in rural local bodies	39.96	39.91	40.23	40.88	40.80	40.37
90	Percentage of elected SC/ST representatives in rural local bodies	54.88	41.63	44.29	38.93	33.17	41.88
91	Percentage of women elected representatives in urban local bodies	34.78	38.10	34.78	34.29	38.71	36.36
92	Percentage of elected SC/ST representatives in urban local bodies	43.48	19.05	26.09	20.00	12.90	22.73
93	Percentage of active SHGs	100	100	100	100	100	100
94	Percentage of pregnant women receiving full ANC (Max value 100) (any figure over and above 100 should be checked and verified)	100	94.86	99.17	100	95.05	100

3.1 continued

95	**Share of pregnant women with Anemia -ANE- (Excluding Normal)**	**41.3**	**49.5**	**79.1**	**51.5**	**45.4**	**76.7**
96	Percentage of Institutional deliveries	92	93	90	90	92	91.00
97	Percentage of children fully Immunized (Max value 100) (any figure over and above 100 should be checked and verified)	70	75	95	94	91	85
98	Percentage of Children born under-weight	26.00	28.00	27.00	13.21	9.20	19.64
99	Percentage of Malnourished Children	46.68	41.17	43.62	46.42	49.08	46.16
100	Percentage of people affected by major communicable diseases (Definition as per health Dept.)	1.8	1.9	2	2.9	2.8	2.28
101	Average Population served by sub-centres	7191	7444	6754	6187	6347	6753
102	Average Population served by Primary Health Centres (PHCs)	41946	24812	36023	27497	28851	30606
103	Availability of Doctors per 1,000 population	0.05	0.05	0.7	0.45	0.04	0.258
104	Availability of nurses per 1,000 population	0.22	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.096
105	Average population served by Anganwadi centres (0-6 children+nursing mothers+adolescent girls+pregnant women)	183	189	204	242	289	219
106	Percentage of villages having Anganwadis within a km. distance	100	100	100	100	100	100
107	Percentage of couples protected by any contraceptive method	82	80	65	70	75	74
108	Per capita Health Expenditure	231	211	245	196	235	222
109	Percentage of Gram Panchayats Selected for Nirmal Gram Puraskar Awards to Total number of Gram Panchayats	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.94	0.61
110	Percentage of HHs having access to Toilet	6.63	15.19	15.71	33.88	22.62	20.68
111	Percentage of households with drainage facility (both open and close facilities)	21.07	32.83	26.85	57.44	30.56	36.31
112	Percentage of HHs having access to Water	52.19	58.97	49.1	74.81	50.61	58.67
113	Percentage of Literacy	49.49	61.14	54.69	65.18	62.45	59.56
114	Gross Enrolment rate – Elementary School	124.88	116.01	122.88	106.55	111.09	114.82
115	Net Enrolment rate – Elementary School	96.73	87.44	94.04	79.78	84.32	87.13

3.1 concluded

116	**Dropout rate in Elementary education**	**10.91**	**6.73**	**5.69**	**0.30**	**4.13**	**5.11**
117	Percentage of Drop-out Children mainstreamed a. Primary b.Secondary	36.96	75.77	44.12	56.86	68.32	54.16
118	Student – Teacher ratio for elementary education	27.00	28.99	28.69	27.04	28.44	28.17
119	Secondary school Gross Enrolment Rate (15-16 years)	42.17	46.15	47.30	37.36	54.05	46.13
120	Drop-out rate in secondary education	21.16	14.00	12.52	9.03	11.26	12.74
121	SSLC pass percentage	81.04	81.76	77.64	72.22	85.63	79.09
122	Student - Teacher ratio for secondary education	19.60	14.99	17.57	15.56	17.42	16.70
123	PUC pass percentage	57.07	61.85	66.50	68.03	68.43	65.87
124	School Infrastructure Index	0.80	0.78	0.77	0.84	0.79	0.80
125	Per capita Education Expenditure	485	295	325	186	323	467
126	Percentage of villages having a Primary School within 1 km. distance	99.04	99.34	96.95	98.16	100.00	99.44

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3.2: HD Indicators among SC and ST Households, 2011

Sl. No.	Indicator	SC			ST			Others			Total		
		Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
1	% of households having good houses	96.9	96.6	96.7	94.9	96.0	95.4	96.1	98.3	97.4	96.1	98.0	97.2
2	safe drinking water	67.9	90.0	81.4	67.2	86.4	75.7	69.9	92.9	83.2	69.5	92.4	82.7
3	electricity	89.4	91.3	90.5	87.7	89.6	88.6	91.2	96.3	94.1	90.8	95.5	93.5
4	toilet	83.1	95.9	90.9	84.1	95.5	89.2	88.8	98.5	94.4	88.0	98.1	93.8
5	bathroom facility	41.5	85.4	68.2	37.4	75.8	54.5	41.5	88.3	68.6	41.2	87.6	67.9
6	drainage facility	2.0	47.9	30.0	2.3	45.3	21.4	6.5	64.9	40.3	5.8	62.4	38.4
7	clean cooking fuel	11.7	20.1	16.8	10.6	19.5	14.6	15.3	26.0	21.5	14.7	25.2	20.7
8	radio	37.8	71.1	58.1	37.3	66.7	50.4	45.0	77.9	64.0	43.9	76.8	62.8
9	TV	0.2	4.0	2.5	0.2	4.1	1.9	0.4	7.2	4.3	0.4	6.7	4.0
10	computer/ laptop with internet	3.5	9.9	7.4	4.9	11.8	8.0	4.5	13.3	9.6	4.4	12.9	9.3
11	computer/ laptop without internet	2.4	6.1	4.7	2.7	5.9	4.1	5.1	8.2	6.9	4.7	7.9	6.5
12	telephone/ landline	43.6	57.7	52.2	49.3	58.3	53.3	53.8	60.3	57.6	52.6	60.0	56.8
13	mobile	1.6	5.3	3.8	2.3	6.0	4.0	5.0	11.8	9.0	4.6	10.9	8.2
14	both landline and mobile	5.7	24.4	17.1	7.0	25.8	15.3	11.8	36.1	25.9	10.9	34.5	24.5
15	two wheeler	0.8	4.4	3.0	1.0	5.1	2.8	2.5	8.8	6.1	2.3	8.2	5.7
16	car	31.1	13.2	20.2	27.0	13.4	21.0	19.9	7.7	12.8	21.3	8.4	14.9
17	none of the assets	96.9	96.6	96.7	94.9	96.0	95.4	96.1	98.3	97.4	96.1	98.0	97.2
18	CMR	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	40
19	MMR	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	157
20	GER	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	105.2
21	Literacy Rates	63.0	80.2	73.5	63.5	74.6	68.3	NA	NA	NA	72.1	85.9	80.0

Source: Census, 2011 and HMIS

4.1. Number of Illiterates in Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	Persons			Males			Females		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Devadurga	164558	152555	12003	69623	64533	5090	94935	88022	6913
Lingsugur	186482	155753	30729	74880	62754	12126	111602	92999	18603
Manvi	197290	178072	19218	81462	73308	8154	115828	104764	11064
Raichur	219559	138803	80756	88978	56533	32445	130581	82270	48311
Sindhnur	181154	153841	27313	72355	61257	11098	108799	92584	16215
District	949043	779024	170019	387298	318385	68913	561745	460639	101106

Source: Census Documents

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4.2: Schools Possessing Infrastructural Facilities

Taluk	Schools	Girls Toilet	Boys Toilet	Electricity	Play Ground	Ramps	Library	School Compound	Drinking Water
Devadurga	183	100	100	99	44	63	96	32	100
Lingsugur	157	100	100	98	38	49	93	49	100
Manvi	154	100	100	96	45	49	87	53	100
Raichur	99	100	100	93	39	43	84	39	100
Sindhnur	120	100	100	97	39	53	79	43	100
District	713	100	100	97	42	53	89	43	100

Source: DISE, 2011-12

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4.3. Colleges and Enrolment in Raichur District, 2011-12

Taluk	No	Enrolment			%
		Male	Female	Total	Females
General Degree Colleges					
Devadurga	2	387	88	475	18.53
Lingsugur	4	1068	666	1734	38.41
Manvi	1	426	172	598	28.76
Raichur	5	1721	1443	3164	45.61
Sindhnur	1	803	175	978	17.89
District	13	4405	2544	6949	36.61
Medical & Dental					
Devadurga	0	0	0	0	0.00
Lingsugur	0	0	0	0	0.00
Manvi	0	0	0	0	0.00
Raichur	5	895	758	1653	45.86
Sindhnur	0	0	0	0	0.00
District	5	895	758	1653	45.86
Polytechnic					
Devadurga	0	0	0	0	0.00
Lingsugur	0	0	0	0	0.00
Manvi	0	0	0	0	0.00
Raichur	1	649	241	890	27.08
Sindhnur	0	0	0	0	0.00
District	1	649	241	890	27.08
Engineering					
Devadurga	0	0	0	0	0.00
Lingsugur	0	0	0	0	0.00
Manvi	0	0	0	0	0.00
Raichur	1	639	40	679	5.89
Sindhnur	0	0	0	0	0.00
District	1	649	40	689	5.81
All					
Devadurga	2	387	88	475	18.53
Lingsugur	4	1068	666	1734	38.41
Manvi	1	426	172	598	28.76
Raichur	12	3904	2482	6386	38.87
Sindhnur	1	803	175	978	17.89
District	20	6598	3583	10181	35.19

Source: DSO, Raichur



5.1: Demographic Details of Raichur District, 2011

Taluk	Total Pop	Female	Child Pop	Urban	SC	ST
Devadurga	280606	140441	46118	28929	60478	96535
Lingsugur	385699	191336	59851	87956	89692	65589
Manvi	370670	186507	53649	46465	78056	89190
Raichur	498637	249081	70440	251161	104849	63178
Sindhnur	393200	196936	53675	75837	67858	52579
District	1928812	964301	283733	490348	400933	367071
State	61095297	30128640	7161033	23625962	10474992	4248987

Source: Census Documents

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5.2: Allopathic Hospital Infrastructure in Raichur District (Numbers), 2011-12

Taluk	Hospitals	PHCs	FWSCs	Private Hospitals	Total Beds	Doctors
Devadurga	1	6	35	3	241	54
Lingsugur	1	12	40	12	412	90
Manvi	1	9	48	7	295	82
Raichur	1	8	40	39	2688	329
Sindhnur	1	11	50	25	541	128
District	5	46	213	86	4377	683

Source: DSO, Raichur

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7.1: Households Possessing Select Assets in Raichur District (%), 2011

Asset	T/ R/ U	Devadurga	Lingsugur	Raichur	Manvi	Sindhnur	District	State
Radio/ Transistor	Total	11.81	8.43	14.25	12.46	7.84	10.84	17.59
	Rural	11.51	9.53	15.43	14.04	8.19	12.01	22.34
	Urban	8.91	13.08	16.55	24.71	9.61	15.26	29.38
Television	Total	25.49	27.45	35.90	38.80	49.06	36.28	46.29
	Rural	28.51	36.97	56.26	41.16	52.49	45.20	60.03
	Urban	54.54	67.68	75.71	57.14	66.29	69.99	80.35
Computer/ Laptop	Total	8.95	5.40	10.28	7.98	5.99	7.59	5.57
	Rural	8.67	6.63	14.63	7.89	7.15	9.43	12.84
	Urban	6.21	10.63	18.77	7.24	11.86	14.55	23.59
Telephone/ Mobile Phone	Total	62.95	59.88	59.41	63.89	70.94	63.77	62.64
	Rural	63.29	64.60	69.27	65.13	72.79	67.52	71.57
	Urban	66.17	79.81	78.68	73.51	80.23	77.97	84.79
Bicycle	Total	23.31	25.80	33.04	33.37	36.45	30.92	36.50
	Rural	23.07	30.55	39.34	34.36	35.08	33.66	33.88
	Urban	21.01	45.88	45.35	41.08	29.57	41.27	30.00
Scooter/ Motorcycle/ Moped	Total	10.19	9.24	14.65	15.90	21.71	14.79	16.86
	Rural	11.18	12.86	27.02	17.42	23.57	19.65	25.60
	Urban	19.75	24.54	38.82	27.70	31.09	33.15	38.53
Car/ Jeep/Van	Total	2.36	1.95	2.22	3.00	2.69	2.48	2.54
	Rural	2.49	2.44	3.77	3.09	3.16	3.09	6.32
	Urban	3.67	4.04	5.24	3.70	5.08	4.79	11.91

Source: Census, 2011

9.1: Livelihood Opportunity Index for SC and ST Population

T/R/U	Persons	Males	Females
		SCs	
Total	0.537	0.550	0.469
Rural	0.505	0.523	0.458
Urban	0.699	0.681	0.609
		STs	
Total	0.515	0.540	0.464
Rural	0.506	0.533	0.462
Urban	0.636	0.638	0.531

Source: Computed from Census –2011

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9.2: Questionnaire Used for Collection of Data for Computation of CDDI

Sl.No	Name of the Indicator	Data
I. Data from secondary sources		
1	Total Households of the Panchayat	
2	Total population of the Panchayat	
3	Total SC Households	
4	Total SC population	
5	Total number of Panchayat Members	
6	SC Panchayat Members	
7	Total SDMC Members	
8	SC SDMC Members	
9	Total JFMC Members	
10	SC JFMC members	
11	Total Water Society Members	
12	SC Water Society members	
13	Total Finance Society Members	
14	SC Finance societies members	
15	Total VH&SC members	
16	Dalit VH&SC members	
17	Total Pucca Houses in the Panchayat	
18	Pucca houses of SCs	
19	Total Toilets in the Panchayat	
20	Toilets in SC households	
21	Total length of Drainage in the Panchayat	
22	Length of drainage in SC colony	
23	Total number of cultivable Landholdings in the Panchayat	
24	Total number of cultivable landholding of SCs	
25	Total number of non agricultural establishments (shops, hotels, flour mills etc.) in the Panchayat	
26	Number of non agricultural establishments owned by SCs	
27	Total electrified houses in the Panchayat	
28	Number of electrified SC houses	
29	Total number of two wheeler (Bike/Scooter) owning households in the Panchayat	
30	Number of two wheeler owning households of SCs	
31	Per day water supplied to the Other colony in liters	
32	Per day water supplied to the SC Colony in liters	
33	Rate of institutional delivery of the District	
34	Rate of health assistants visits of the district	
35	Rate of reproductive health support of the district.	
36	Rate of primary enrollment of general students in the Panchayat	
37	Rate of primary enrollment of SC students	
38	Rate of primary attendance of general students in the Panchayat (Enrollment-dropout)	
39	Rate of primary attendance of SC students Enrollment – dropout)	
	Rate of transition of primary to high school of general students in the Panchayat	
	Rate of transition of primary to high school of SC students	

II. Data from Primary Source		
A. Social Inclusion		
1	Do you have free entry into non dalit residence?	Yes/No
2	Do the non dalits address you respectfully?	Yes/No
3	Do you participate like non dalits in all the festivals of the village?	Yes/No
4	Like non dalits, are you allowed inside the temple?	Yes/No
5	Are you treated like non dalits in the hotels?	Yes/No
B. Perception of Discrimination		
6	Do you have access to all the sources of drinking water in the villages to which non dalits have access?	Yes/No
7	Do you think your children are treated at par with the non dalit children in matters such as – seating arrangement, plates for midday meal, participation in curricular and extracurricular activities such as – dancing, singing, drama, elocution?	Yes/No
8	Do you think health visitors treat you and non dalits at par in matters such as number of visits, paying attention, delivery of drugs, request or extra visits, emergency services and passing on cash benefits?	Yes/No
9	Do you think you are treated at par with non dalits in hotels, temples, social and religious functions in matters such as – entry, invitation, seating arrangements (same or separate), plates or glasses, meals served and disposal of used plates or glasses?	Yes/No
10	Do you think you are treated at par with the non dalits in matters such as - in temple (inside and outside) works, all the works of festivals, midday meal cooking, getting customers to dalit hotels, getting house on rent and giving house on rent?	Yes/No
C. Protest against discrimination		
11	Have you protested against water discrimination?	Yes/No
12	Have you protested against educational discrimination?	Yes/No
13	Have you protested against health discrimination?	Yes/No
14	Have you protested against social discrimination?	Yes/No
15	Have you protested against economic discrimination?	Yes/No
D. Conflict resolution		
16	Do you think water discrimination has been satisfactorily resolved?	Yes/No
17	Do you think health discrimination has been satisfactorily resolved?	Yes/No
18	Do you think education discrimination has been satisfactorily resolved?	Yes/No
19	Do you think social discrimination has been satisfactorily resolved?	Yes/No
20	Do you think economic discrimination has been satisfactorily resolved?	Yes/No
E. Perception of Freedom		
21	Do you think you can question all the injustices meted out to you?	Yes/No
22	Do you think you can protest against all the discrimination you face?	Yes/No
23	Do you think you are free to move in all the parts of village where non dalits move?	Yes/No
34	Do you think like non dalits you can get all kinds of employment opportunities in the village?	Yes/No
25	Do you think like non dalits you can participate in all the cultural activities that are taking place in the village?	Yes/No
F. Gender Dimensions of Dalit Development		
26	How many days rest do pregnant women normally take prior to delivery?	<3M/3M/>3m
27	How many days rest do women normally take after delivery?	<3M/3M/>3m
28	Where does the delivery normally take place?	Hospital/Home
29	How many times does the health visitor visit in a month?	
30	What reproductive health support do dalit women normally receive?	
31	How many litres of water do you receive per day?	

10.1: List of 29 Subjects as per Eleventh Schedule (Article 243G) for Devolution to the Panchayati Raj Institutions

1. Agriculture, including agricultural extension
2. Land improvement, implementation of land reforms, land consolidation and soil conservation
3. Minor irrigation, water management and watershed development
4. Animal husbandry, dairying and poultry
5. Fisheries
6. Social forestry and farm forestry
7. Minor forest produce
8. Small-scale industries, including food processing industries
9. Khadi, village and cottage industries
10. Rural housing
11. Drinking water
12. Fuel and fodder
13. Roads, culverts, bridges, ferries, waterways and other means of communication
14. Rural electrification, including distribution of electricity
15. Non-conventional energy sources
16. Poverty alleviation programme
17. Education, including primary and secondary schools
18. Technical training and vocational education
19. Adult and non-formal education
20. Libraries
21. Cultural activities
22. Markets and fairs
23. Health and sanitation, including hospitals, primary health centres and dispensaries
24. Family welfare
25. Women and child development
26. Social welfare, including welfare of the handicapped and mentally retarded
27. Welfare of the weaker sections, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes
28. Public distribution system
29. Maintenance of community system

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10.2: List of Functions of ULBs

1. Urban planning including town planning.
2. Regulation of land-use and construction of buildings.
3. Planning for economic and social development.
4. Roads and bridges.
5. Water supply for domestic, industrial and commercial purposes.
6. Public health, sanitation conservancy and solid waste management.
7. Fire services.
8. Urban forestry, protection of the environment and promotion of ecological aspects.
9. Safeguarding the interests of weaker sections of society, including the handicapped and mentally retarded.
10. Slum improvement and upgradation.
11. Urban poverty alleviation.
12. Provision of urban amenities and facilities such as parks, gardens, playgrounds.
13. Promotion of cultural, educational and aesthetic aspects.
14. Burials and burial grounds; cremations, cremation grounds and electric crematoriums.
15. Cattle pounds; prevention of cruelty to animals.
16. Vital statistics including registration of births and deaths.
17. Public amenities including street lighting, parking lots, bus stops and public conveniences.
18. Regulation of slaughter houses and tanneries

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10.3: Public Expenditure for Human Development in Raichur, 2011-12

S. No.		Expenditure (Rs. lakhs)
A	**Public Expenditure Ratio** (Total Exp/GDDP)*100	18175.1
B	**Social Allocation Ratio** (sum of 1 to 14/ Total Exp)	**17194.02**
1	Education, Sports, Arts and Culture	8994.93
2	Medical and Public Health	448.52
3	Family Welfare	918.37
4	Welfare of SCs, STs and OBCs	1818.88
5	Women and children Welfare	2760.48
6	Nutrition	2242.85
7	Rural Development	9.99
C	**Social Priority Ratio** (sum of 15 to 19/ Total Exp)	**12560.67**
8	Elementary Education	8940.94
9	Health and Family Welfare	1366.89
10	Nutrition	2242.85
11	Rural Development	9.99

Source: CAO, ZP, Raichur

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