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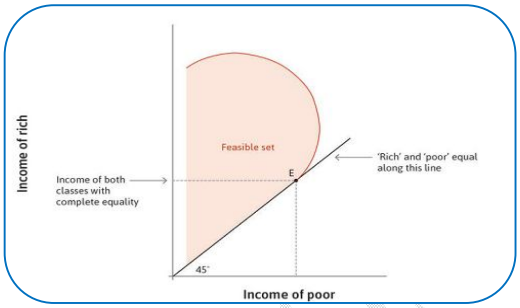
A BIRD'S VIEW OF THE INEQUALITY OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION AMONG THE VULNERABLE SECTIONS IN INDIA – SOME EXPOSITIONS



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ABSTRACT :

India has the potential to extend the quantity of employees in producing and also the contribution to the world to overall growth. But its future development path is unlikely to mimic that witnessed in East Asia like Japan, Taiwan or even in China. In the case of manufacturing China could improve its share considerably in GDP but not in employment. Some lessons can be learnt from East Asia. But, India has to forge its own path that will rely on both manufacturing and services as growth engines. Fourth Industrial Revolution, Digital Age and Robotics: Industrialists and others at Davos meeting said that we have to be ready to approach a fourth industrial revolution which includes advanced manufacturing, quantum engineering, 3D printing and robotics. It may lead to some disruption in the established sectors and may lead to some inequalities. But, overall net employment may rise with fourth industrial revolution including robotics.

KEYWORDS : *Social Protection – Inequalities – Income Distribution – Observations.*

INTRODUCTION

Inequality has been a crucial issue in development debates. Several philosophers and economists have discussed about inequality . In an important paper, Tendulkar (2010) draws a distinction between inequity and inequality. He examines the trail breaking work of Simon Kuznets who indicates that inequalities rise with economic process upto some extent so decline. This is therefore known as Kuznets inverted 'U' form curve. Initially economic growth increase overall inequality as the rural-urban transformation takes place and labour moves from low productivity agriculture to high productivity urban industrial and service sector activities. Tendulkar says that notwithstanding measured difference will increase, there may not be increasing feeling of inequity as people observe high mobility and can aspire to move upwards like others. In this context, he also reviews the work of economists like Tibor Scitovsy and Albert O.Hirshman who have also discussed with the general issue of inequality not leading to inequity. According to Tendulkar, social consensus with respect to social acceptability of a degree of inequality is feasible on the existence of three conditions: (a) the observation of merit based income mobility; (b) the existence of equality of opportunity; (c) improvement within the living conditions of individuals at the lower finish of distribution. He conjointly says that we tend to do got to be aware concerning perceived fairness, equality of chance, the supply of basic desires, and economic alleviation.

With the release of the book entitled "Capital in the Twenty-First Century" by French economist Thomas Piketty (2014), there has been debate on inequality in several parts of the world. The main merit of the book is the massive collection of historical data for several countries. In the eighteenth and ninteenth centuries western European society was extremely unequal. But inequality declined and stabilized during 191-70. Again income inequality has been rising since then. From this history, Piketty develops a grand theory of capital and difference. The author recommends that governments should adopt a global tax on wealth, to prevent rising inequality contributing to economic or political instability. Dimensions of Inequality

Historical data's shows that countries pursue agriculture-industry-service series in order to obtain advanced growth and dynamic employment. Most East Asian countries including China could increase their manufacturing share in GDP.

However, the share of manufacturing sector in China is low (Table 1). Japan peaked share in manufacturing in GDP (36%) and employment (27%) by 1970. In Taiwan, the share of this sector in GDP (33.3%) and employment (32%) peaked by 1990. Similarly Korea has slightly lower shared and peaked by 2000. In the case of China, the share of manufacturing in GDP is around 33% now but its share in employment is only 16%.

Table 1: Manufacturing in GDP and Employment

Countries	**Period**	**Peak Share % in manufacturing**	
		GDP	Employment
Japan	1970	36.0	27.0
South Korea	2000	29.0	23.3
Taiwan	1990	33.3	32.0
China	2005	32.5	15.9
Indonesia	2004	28.1	11.8
Thailand	2007	35.6	15.1
India	2011-12	15.7	12.8

Source: NSS for India; Ghose (2018b), for rest of the countries

What square measure the explanations for low producing share employed in China? Early industrializing countries like Japan, Korea, Taiwan might improve the share employed. But late industrialization in China, Indonesia and Thailand resulted rise in share of manufacturing in GDP but not employment. Employment in manufacturing today is not quite comparable to employment in manufacturing in earlier times. The reason is that producing enterprises want to directly use employees for a spread of services needed however currently they source them from service enterprises (Ghose, 2015a). In other words, employment that counted as manufacturing employment now counts as services employment. To put it another way, manufacturing today generates less direct employment but more indirect employment in services.

There are constraints even for raising GDP growth in manufacturing. Rajan (2015) says that "world as a whole is unlikely to be able to accommodate another export-led China. Export-led growth won't be as Straightforward because it was for the Asian economies those who took that path before us"(p.6). One reason is that present global situation is not conducive for export led growth. Secondly, manufacturing activity is also being're-shored' to other countries. He also argued for 'Make for India' rather than exports. Employment growth is much more difficult than GDP growth in manufacturing. This sector in India has been capital intensive. Even China could not increase share of its manufacturing much in employment unlike early industrializers Japan and Taiwan. Also, indirect employment is created in services.

Table 2 gives the share of services in East Asia and India. Countries like Japan, Korea and Taiwan have 60 to 80% share of services in both Gross Domestic Product and employment. On the other hand, China, Indonesia and Thailand have around 35 to 45% share of services in both GDP and employment. In all these East Asian countries, the share of services in both GDP and employment are more or less similar. India is an exception to this trend. The country is overdeveloped in terms of share of services in GDP but the share of services in employment is exceptionally low as shown in the Table. India's share of services in employment is only 26.4% compared to 58.4% share of services in GDP. Thus service sector in India presently is not employment intensive. At the same time, manufacturing sector has low share in GDP (17%) and employment (12.8%). Therefore, the challenges are to raise both GDP and employment growth for manufacturing and employment growth in services.

Table 2: Services in GDP and Employment, 2013

Countries	% Share in GDP	% Share in Employment
USA	78.6	81.2
Germany	68.4	70.2
France	78.5	74.9
U.K.	79.2	78.9
Brazil	69.4	62.7
China	46.1	35.7
Japan	72.4	69.7
South Korea	59.1	76.4
India	58.4	26.7

Source: Economic Survey 2017-18, Government of India

It may be noted, however, that services generate less employment opportunities for the low skilled. On the other hand, manufacturing can generated substantial employment opportunities for the unskilled workers.

First, there is hardly any disagreement India needs to aim at higher growth of productive employment and decent work, and that the manufacturing sector is critical to growth. Constraints that prevent manufacturing growth need to be addressed in cooperation with states. For example, we need investment, physical infrastructure, skill development, land acquisition, ease of doing business etc. Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and micro medium enterprises (MSMEs) account for Ninty five percentage of the whole industrial activity in Asian countries and might play important role in boosting employment generation. Estimates suggest, the SME-MSME sector offers maximum opportunities for self employment jobs after the agriculture sector.

Second, services additionally have to be compelled to be promoted as each producing and services area unit are complementary. The indirect employment from producing is formed in India cannot ignore services that contributes Sixty percentage of Gross Domestic Product.

Recently, Credit Suisses (CS) and Oxfam have released reports on global wealth and inequality. According to CS report, the top percentile of wealth holders now own just over half of the world's wealth and the richest decile 87.7 per cent. The richest 1 per cent owns half of all the wealth in the world. Oxfam report released ahead of the annual World economic Forum in Davos in 2015, shows that the combined wealth of the richest 1 per cent will overtake that of the other 99 per cent in 2016 unless the current trend of rising inequality is checked. The share global wealth of richest 1 per cent rose from 44% in 2009 to 48% in 2014 and at this rate it will be more than 50% in 2016.

Credit Suisse report on Republic India reveals that the richest 1% chronicles owned Fifty Three Percentage of the country's wealth wheras the share of the highest Ten Percent was 76.3%. In different words Ninty Percent of Indians own a but Twenty five Percentage of the country's wealth.

Generally inequality difference is examined with consumption distribution as financial distribution gain knowledge is not offered. Table 3 shows inequality represented by gini coefficient increased only marginally in rural areas over time particularly in 2011-12. In the case of urban areas, gini coefficient increased in 2009-10 and 2011-12. Inequality in consumption may be an under estimate as NSS data may not be capturing the consumption of the rich adequately. Inequality in income would be much higher than that of consumption. It may be noted that if we consider access to education and other public services like health, electricity, drinking water, the inequalities could be much higher.

Table 3: Inequality (Gini Coefficient) of consumption Expenditure: All India

Sector	1983-84	1987-88	1993-94	2004-05	2011-12
Rural	0.304	0.299	0.286	0.304	0.311
Urban	0.342	0.350	0.344	0.376	0.390

Source: Singh et al (2015)

Another way of looking at inequality is to examine the growth rates of consumption for three classes: bottom 30%, middle 40% and top 30% population. The growth rates in table 4 shows that they were higher in the second period (1993-94 to 2009-10) compared to the first period (1983-97) for all the three classes. The growth rates were higher for urban areas. However, the growth rate in the second period was higher for top 30% as compared to that of bottom 30% in both rural and urban areas. In different words, consumption of rich was abundant on top of the poor and middle categories.

Table 4: Annual Growth Rates of Monthly Per Capita Consumption expenditure by broad expenditure groups

Period	Bottom 30%	Middle 40%	Top 30%	All Classes
Rural				
1983-97(URP)	1.22***	0.93***	0.96***	0.99***
1993-94 to 2009-10(MRP)	1.32***	1.32***	1 92***	1.62***
Urban				
1983-97(URP)	1.36***	141***	2.00***	1 73***
1993-94 to 2009-10(MRP)	1.71***	2.25***	3.32***	2.77***

***Significant at 1% level Source: Radhakrishnan (2018)

Subramanian and Jayaraj (2016) examine the trends in the shares of bottom quintile population during the period 1983 to 2011-12. The study indicates that on average the share of bottom quintile in the mean per capita expenditure was around 46% in rural areas and 38% in urban areas. The shares of bottom quintile did not show significant changes in rural areas while it declined from 40% in 1993-94 to 35% in 2011-12 in urban areas. The bottom quintile expenditure has full- grown at a compound annual rate of 2.10% every year in rural and 1.96% every year in urban over the time 1983 to 2011-12 .

POVERTY ACROSS SOCIAL GROUPS

Another way of looking at inequality is to examine the poverty ratios across social groups. Poverty declined much faster for all the social groups during the period 2004-05 to 2011-12 as compared to the period1993-94 to 2004-05 (Table 5). The rate of decline in poverty is the highest for SCs. The decline in poverty for SCs and OBCs exceeded the national average during the period 2004-05 to 2011-12. Poverty decline for STs was more or less similar to that of national average. It looks like SCs, STs and OBCs benefited equally or more in the high growth phase of 2004-05 to 2011-12. However, the poverty levels are higher for STs and SCs as compared to other groups. Particularly the poverty balance and magnitude relation of STs was twice to that of national average in 2011-12. There is a need to focus on policies relating to STs for reduction in their poverty.

Table 5: Poverty by Social Groups, 1993-94 to 2011-12

Social Groups	Share in Population	Percent Population Below Tendulkar Committee Poverty Line			Percentage Point Poverty Reduction	
	2011-12	1993-94	2004-05	2011-12	1993-94 to 2004-05	2004-05 to 2011-12
Rural						
ST	11.1	65.9	62.3	45.3	3.7	16.9
SC	20.8	62.4	53.5	31.5	8.9	22.0
OBC	45.0	44.0	39.8	22.7	9.0	17.1
FC	23.0		27.1	15.5		11.6
All	100.0	50.3	41.8	25.4	8.5	16.4
Urban						
ST	3.5	41.1	35.5	24.1	5.6	11.4
SC	14.6	51.7	40.6	21.7	11.1	18.8
OBC	41.6	28.2	30.6	15.4	5.8	15.2
FC	40.3		16.1	8.1		8.0
All	100.0	31.9	25.7	13.7	6.2	12.0
Rural+Urban						
ST	8.9	63.7	60.0	43.0	3.7	17.0
SC	19.0	60.5	50.9	29.4	9.6	21.5
OBC	44.1	39.5	37.8	20.7	8.1	17.1
FC	28.0		23.0	12.5		10.5
All	100.0	45.7	37.7	22.0	8.0	15.7

Source: Panagariya and More (2018)

Table 6: Human Development Index (HDI) and Inequality Adjusted Human Development (IHDI) and loss

States	HDI	IHDI	Loss (%)	Rank HDI	Rank IHDI
A.P.	0.485	0.332	31.6	19	20
Bihar	0.447	0.303	32.1	26	24
Chattisgarh	0.458	0.297	35.1	24	25
Gujarat	0.514	0.363	29.5	15	13
Jharkhand	0.470	0.312	33.7	21	21
Karnataka	0.508	0.353	30.5	18	18
Kerala	0.625	0.520	16.8	1	1
M.P.	0.451	0.290	35.7	25	27
Maharashtra	0.549	0.397	27.8	7	8
Odisha	0.442	0.296	33.1	27	26
Punjab	0.569	0.410	28.0	4	4
Rajasthan	0.468	0.308	34.0	23	22
Tamil Nadu	0.544	0.396	27.3	9	9
U.P.	0.468	0.307	34.5	22	23
West Beng.	0.509	0.360	29.3	17	14
All India	0.504	0.343	32.0	--	--

Source: Suryanarayana (2018)

Higher inequality can lead to lower human development. A study by Suryanarana (2013) estimates both Human. The rank of Madhya Pradesh for difference adjusted HDI is that the lowest while

Kerala has the very best rank. The average loss in Human Development index due to variation at the All-India level is 32%. It is the best for Madhya Pradesh (36%) and Chhattisgarh (35%) and therefore lowest for Kerala (17%). The loss thanks to difference is the highest with the relation to education dimension (43%), followed by health (34%) and income (16%). It shows that inequalities in non-income indicators like education and health are beyond that of financial income. The analysis conjointly shows that with lower inequalities, HDI would are a lot of higher.

LABOUR MARKET INEQULITIES

Most of the inequalities (economic and social) can have labour market dimension. Some problems on difference completely take care of labour market structures, processes, mechanisms and outcomes whereas some others square measures influenced by labour establishment and labour Economic process (IHD, 2014)

The proof primarily based current analysis has shown that there are important inequalities in labour markets in our India. Inequalities is found across sectors, wages and earnings, quality of labour, labour market access and, between organized and unorganized sector. Labour market segmentation is another necessary issue relating to inequalities. Wage differentials can't be explained by economic factors alone inspite of increasing occupational and geographical mobility. Sometimes people do not move despite the attraction of higher earnings. Segmentation based on occupational skills and consequently industry and sectors is well known.

Reducing labour market inequalities is important for sustainability of growth, reduction in poverty and rise in human development.

GENDER INEQUALITIES

Inequality between men and ladies is a vital issue in India. Gender inequality index is the highest among the countries listed in Table 7. The percentage of 25 plus feminine population with some Peadology and feminine participation rates area unit the bottom among these countries.

Table 7: Gender Inequality Index and other components for Selected Countries

Countries	Gender Inequality Index		MMR 2010 (death per 1 lakh life Birth	25+female population With at least Some Secondary Education%	15+ female labour force participation rate
Argentina	0.381	74	77	57.0	47.3
Russian Fed.	0.314	52	34	89.6	57.0
Brazil	0.441	85	56	51.9	59.5
China	0.202	37	37	58.7	63.8
Indonesia	0.500	103	220	39.9	51.3
South Africa	0.461	94	300	72.7	44.2
India	0.563	127	200	26.6	28.8

Source: HDR 2017 quoted in Economic Survey 2017-18, GOI

Gender discrimination is another form of labour segmentation. As is acknowledge, the wages of the ladies employees square measures less than those of men across most employment classes and locations. There is a distinct conventionally earmarked sphere of labours of girls and therefore the entry of ladies into most male-dominated occupations is forced. Conventional women's work is characterised by lower wages and earnings and restricted upward quality

Participation rates of ladies were low and declined in India (Table 8). Work participation rate for women in India is only 22% compared to 54% for mals. In fact in urban areas, only 15% of women's participation in work compared to 55% for men. Recently IMF Chief Christine Lagarde told that increase in women's participation rates would increase 40% Gross Domestic Product in India. Mckinsey report also said GDP could increase by 16% to 60% by the year 2025 with increase in women participation rates. It is true that increase in women's participation is very important to cut back gender inequalities.

Table 8: Work Participation Rates of Female and Male

	Rural		**Urban**		**Total**	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1983	34.0	54.7	15.1	51.2	29.6	53.9
1993-94	32.8	55.3	15.5	52.1	28.6	54.5
2004-05	32.7	54.6	16.6	54.9	28.7	54.7
2011-12	24.8	54.3	14.7	54.6	21.9	54.4

Source: IHD (2018)

But, ladies 'work' and 'non-work' may be misleading. Time use surveys indicate women's unpaid work as home makers and care givers is quite high. Some estimates show that if we monetize unpaid work of women, it amounts to around 16 lakh crores per annum (Nandi and Hensman, 2015).

INEQUALITY AND GROWTH

Generally equity and growth are complements rather than trade-offs. Increase in inequality can reduce the impact of growth on poverty. Higher inequality may adversely affect growth in a number of ways such as social discontent, reduction in size of domestic market due to lower demand etc. Thus growth with increasing inequalities might not be property. Living with high inequalities may lead to lower than expected growth and all the negative consequences of inequalities.

POLICIES FOR REDUCING INEQUALITIES

Many of the policies for elimination of poverty and promotion of inclusive growth are also applicable for reduction in inequalities. Correction of failures mentioned above during the reform period will also reduce inequalities.

The 'Kuznets curve' indicates that inequalities rise with economic growth upto a point and then decline. According to this mechanism, if you want higher savings and investments for higher growth, inequalities will necessarily increase. If you try to have redistribution mechanism, savings and investment decline and growth will decline. This view assumes that growth and equity are trade-offs. However, growth and equity policies may have to be followed simultaneously. There could also be some trade-offs however growth and equity can be complementary. For example, increase in the productivity of unorganized sector or small and medium enterprises or decline in poverty of SCs and STs can increase both growth and equity.

One view is that there are also high inequalities in China. High inequalities are harmful whether they are in China, USA or India. But, one needs to distinguish between China and India. In China, everyone has basic needs and capabilities like health and education. While in India we do not have these capabilities for majority of the population.

Another issue is a way to scale back the intensity of Kuznets curve. How do you flatten kuznets curve? Endogenous growth models and capabilities approach or investment in human capital or human development approach could have some answer. This can reduce the intensity of Kuznets curve. This can be shown within the distinction between East Asia and India/South Asia. We know that India has not endowed in human capital until recent years. One view is that you do not have to wait for higher growth to achieve human development. One can raise human development with moderate growth. There are examples all over the world and within in India. But for sustainability both higher growth and higher human development are needed.

Yet another issue particularly in the context of India is social exclusion of SCs, STs and minorities and gender. Here economics alone will not help inclusion. Here social and political factors are necessary except economic factors. Growth with redistribution will not affect social behavior without social transformation. We need social movements to reduce social exclusion. This happened partially in South India earlier in Kerala and Tamil Nadu and happening other parts of the country now. It is a long way to for social transformations.

The related issue is whether markets are inclusive or exclusive or state is inclusive or exclusive. In many cases, markets can be exclusive including social exclusion. State may be exclusive, police, legal system and many other things of state can be exclusive. But, markets and state can also be inclusive. Pronab Sen who was involved in 12th plan document preparation indicates that during their consultations for the 12th Five Year Plan, an overwhelming proportion of the civil society in India clearly believed that the market was a lot of inclusive than government interventions within the India {Bharat}context. This is an interesting observation and needs further investigation.

Some framework is needed for achieving equity. For example, 12th Five Year Plan document mentions six types of inclusiveness: First one is inclusiveness as poverty reduction; Second inclusiveness as group equality. Here the concerns of SCs, STs, OBCs and minorities have to be considered. Similarly, gender equality also comes under group equality. Third one is inclusiveness as regional balance that does not required Rationalisation. Fourth one is inclusiveness and inequalities. Fifth one is inclusiveness and empowerment. Last one is inclusiveness through employment programmes (GOI, 2012).

There is a feeling among many people that we should have some flagship social protection programmes like MGNREGA and others to achieve equitable growth. No doubt these programmes are important for protecting the poor. But, equitable or inclusive growth is much broader than this and productive inclusion in terms of generating quality employment should be the focus of any inclusive approach. Employment focus is that the major a part of equity approach. Both formal sector and informal sector have roles in generating productive employment. Prof. Tendulkar also believed that increase in labour productivity and generation of productive employment would lead to higher growth and decline in reduction in poverty.

The new generation underlines the need for equality of opportunity rather than just rights-based approach. People want better quality goods and services. The young population has high expectations. The government should move out of some activities. And radical changes are needed in institutions to improve governance. Generating productive jobs in India for the future is a big challenge. For the new generation, moving to regular wage employment is the aspiration. The need is to improve the share of organised formal employment, while raising productivity in the unorganised sector. The agriculture sector's share in total employment has fallen to below 50 per cent.

We need more diversified agriculture development. Labour productivity of non-agriculture was six fold over agriculture in 2011-12. Workers must be shifted to manufacturing and services. The unemployment rate by current daily status was only 5.6 per cent in 2011-12, whereas youth unemployment stood at 13.3 per cent. The need for skill development and generation of productive jobs to reap "demographic dividend" is obvious. Everyone, irrespective of caste, class and gender, should have equal opportunities in education, health, employment and entrepreneurship. Equality of chance in education and employment will scale back inequalities. Education has intrinsic — for its own sake — and instrumental — increasing economic process— values. Economic and employment opportunities improve with education and skills. The new generation wants better quality schools and higher education.

Reforms, among alternatives things is shifted to additional economic delivery systems of public services. Many reckon that poor governance is the biggest constraint to achieving goals of the new-generation India. A major institutional challenge is that responsibility of service suppliers, particularly the public sector. It will be difficult to improve service delivery without accountability even if resources are made available. Better coordination between states and the Centre and decentralised systems can enhance accountability. To conclude, the new generation wants equality of opportunity in all fields and quality public and private services — and not just rights-based approach.

Central government must play a very important role in achieving higher growth and evenhanded development. However, apart from the Central government, the policies of the state governments are essential for achieving these objectives. State governments have been fiscally responsible than the Centre. In many important areas like agriculture, health care, rural infrastructure and, state governments spend much more than the Centre. Therefore, policies and governance at state level are far more vital for higher outcomes.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

Prof. Tendulkar did pioneering work on economic reforms, poverty and inequality. According to him, freer domestic and international markets can be powerful instruments of poverty alleviation. There are winners and losers because of economic reforms. But, the net outcome has been positive in the last 25 year period. Both markets and state have roles in the globalization world. In 2011, in one of his last presentations, Prof. Tendulkar says "one will continually investigates the cup as being Half empty or Half full. I think, even at the end of my short life, I am still seeing the cup half full and I am quite optimistic that the younger generation which is coming forward would make it full and make the India growth story complete".

To conclude, I learnt a lot from my interactions with Prof. Suresh Tendulkar for nearly three and half decades. He was a source of inspiration to many of us in our work and personal lives. As former Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh rightly put it, "his work on poverty was path-breaking and will continue to guide and inspire the coming generations of economists".

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