



# Social-Economic Exclusions and gender-inequality in Indian Labour Market: A Capability Approach

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In the background of capability approach, this paper examines the socio-economic exclusions and inequalities in Indian labour market. The paper posits that there is an underutilization of human efforts due to these exclusions and inequalities resulting in capability deprivation. This capability deprivation is the byproduct of three factors; the three factors are functional in Indian job sector, viz., (i) higher economic-inequality with lower base of high-skilled worker employment in India as compared to the US, (ii) higher socio exclusions and (iii) higher under-employment and unemployment that leads to limited knowledge of included workers resulting in under-utilization of human potential. Thus, the paper argues that there is a direct correspondence between three factors of socio-economic exclusions and inequalities in Indian job sector. These three factors are examined in the light of human capability approach in comparison to human capital theory. For a sustainable and futuristic Indian knowledge society cum economy, there is a need to change the policy perspective from human capital to human capability, in the next fifteen years under SDG (Sustainable Development Goal) 5 on gender-equality and SDG 8 on decent employment agenda of ILO and SDG10 reduce income within and among countries.

**Key Words:** Socio-economic exclusion, Job-sector, Capability approach, Sustainable Development Goals, Human capital theory

## 1. Introduction

Since early 1990s, with the initiation of economic reforms under LPG (Liberalization Privatization Globalization) policies have been creating socio-economic inequalities and exclusions in Indian labour market as well (Thakur, 2016b). In this paper, capability deprivations under the capability approach (Sen, 1985, 1997 and 2017) are examined. The challenges of capability deprivations have been prevailing in the job-sector in the neo-liberal period in Indian economy since early 1990s. These challenges are also

dynamically related to the targets of the Sustainable Development Goals for the period (2015-2030). The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5 emphasized the gender-equality, SDG8 targets the provision of decent jobs, and SDG 10 on reducing inequality within and among countries, and the targets of the SDGs are to be achieved in the period of 2016-2030 (UN, 2014). These three SDGs targets are to expand gender-equality and decent employment opportunities. Along with the SDG-5, for a futuristic development agenda of UN in India, there is a need to include the challenges of exclusions and inequalities in the job-sector, on the basis of caste, religion and class and region in SDG 8 and SDG 10. In the context of these three-SDGs, this paper explores emerging challenges in terms of capability formation or deprivation, and how can it be resolved at policy levels? The paper argues in favor of capability approach for the provision of inclusive and decent employment opportunities in Indian job sector to cater human potential of Indian youths by 2030. This paper is critically examines the socio-economic inequalities in Indian job sector in the context of capability approach: the four sections in this paper, after the first section of introduction: (ii) Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks; (iii) Economic-Inequality in Indian labour market; (iv) Social-Exclusion: Caste in Indian Labour Market (v) Social Exclusion: Gender-inequality in Indian labour market; (vi) Socio-religious exclusions in Indian labour market. The last section (viii) has concluding remarks and policy implications.

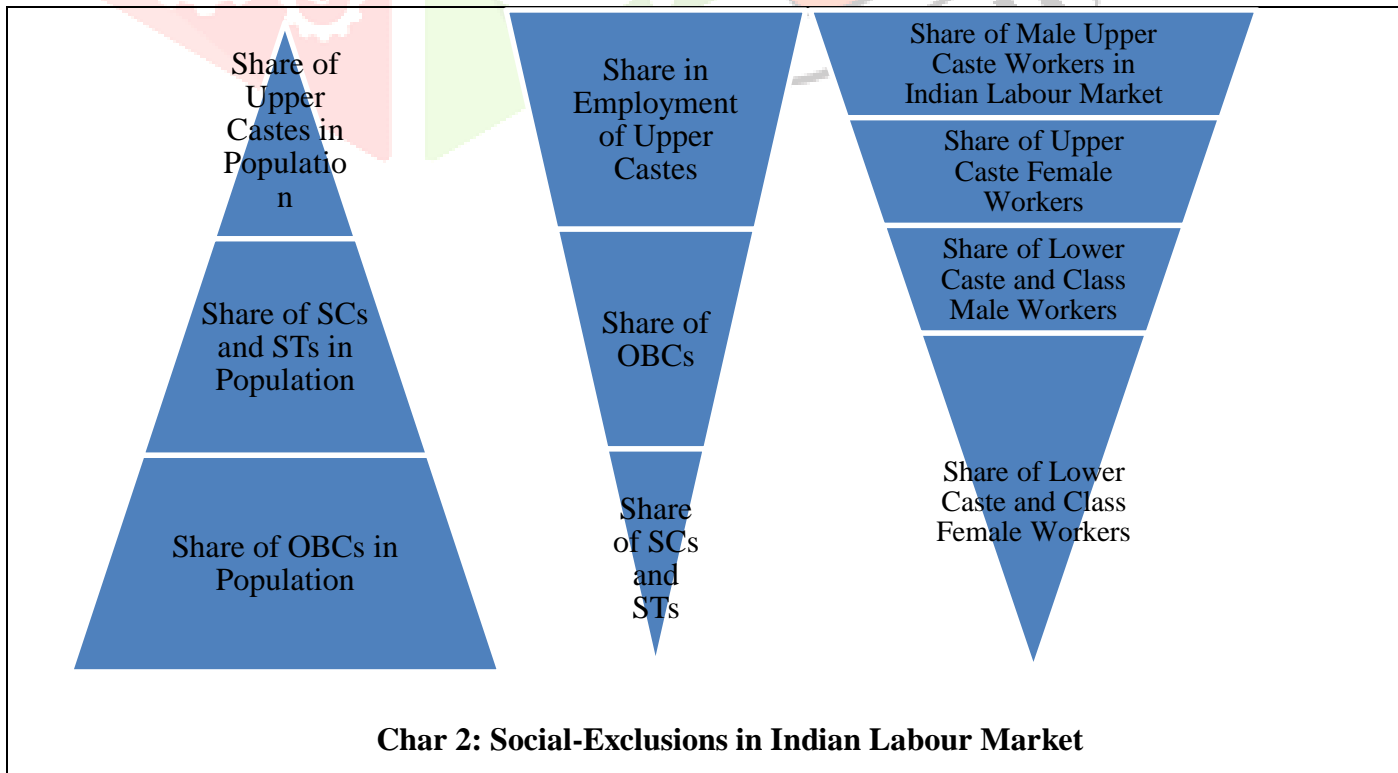
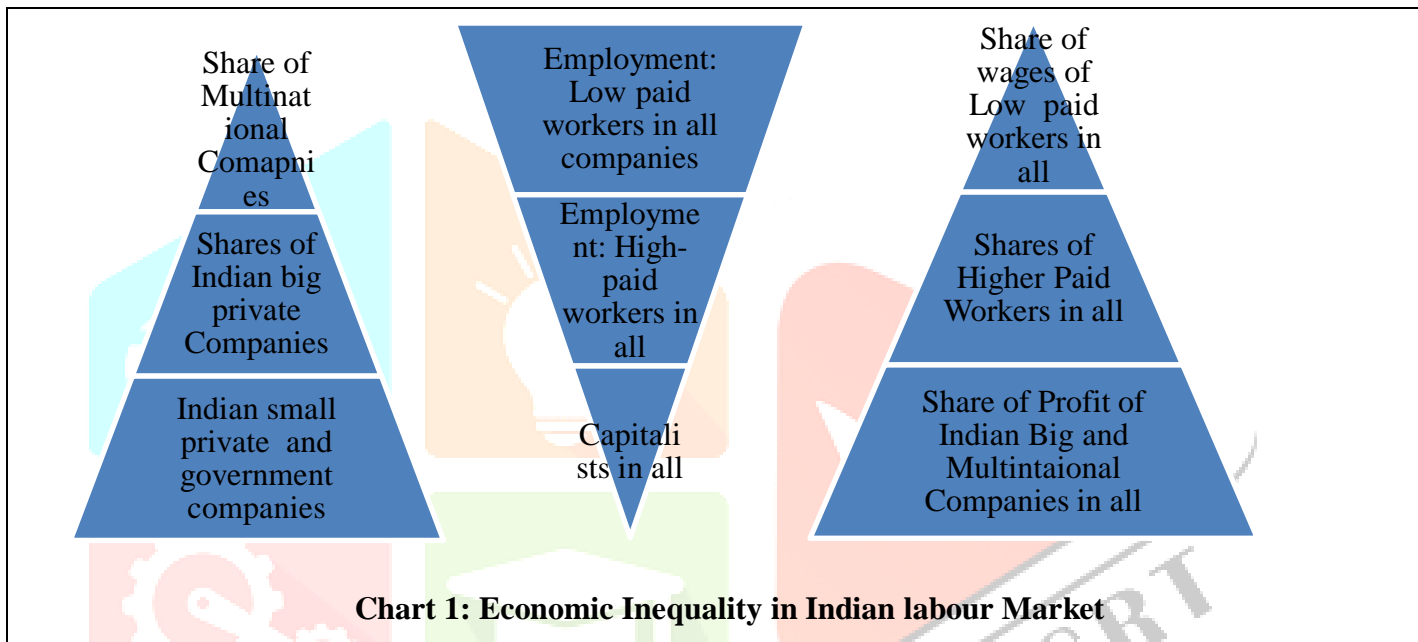
## 2.1 Theoretical Framework

Sen (1985, 1997; 2010; 2015 and 2017) examined the issues of commodities and capabilities. He elaborated that much of mainstream economics is concerned with the relation between commodities and people. He critically explained that the focus of mainstream economics is on production and consumption not on the capabilities of human beings to use these commodities. As he elaborated that *"it is fair to say that formal economics has not been very interested in the plurality of focus in judging a person's states and interests. In fact, often enough the very richness of the subject matter has been seen as an embarrassment"*. Amartya Sen differentiated the concepts of human capital and human capability, *"The human capital concentrates on the agency of human beings - through skill and knowledge as well as effort - in augmenting production possibilities. The human capability focuses on the ability of human beings to lead lives they have reason to value and to enhance the substantive choices they have"* (Sen (1997).

## 2.2 Conceptual Framework

There are substantial socio-economic exclusions and inequalities in the Indian job market (see Charts 1 and 2), below. There are historically driven social inequalities in India: (i) caste-based exclusions and (iii) gender-based exclusions. There are economic-inequalities in terms of: (i) profit-wage inequality, (ii) wealth-inequality and (iii) wage-inequality between high-paid and low paid workers. The classification of socio-economic exclusions and inequalities are not water-tight compartmentalization but there is overlapping

among class, caste and gender categories of workers. Infected there are also different shares of profits of Indian private, public companies and foreign private multinational companies. And further, there are different sizes of firms/companies, which determines the monopoly in the Indian and global market. In the global capitalism, the big corporate companies are dominating in terms of their larger sizes of market and their profits. It can be conceptually explained that there are two pyramids in Indian economy in the context of economic inequalities of: (i) shares of companies, (ii) share of workers; and (ii) shares of wages and profits. The social exclusions are also examined in this paper as: (i) the shares of upper castes, OBCs, STs and SCs in Indian Population and their shares in labour market. (ii) Shares of upper and lower caste and class male and female workers.



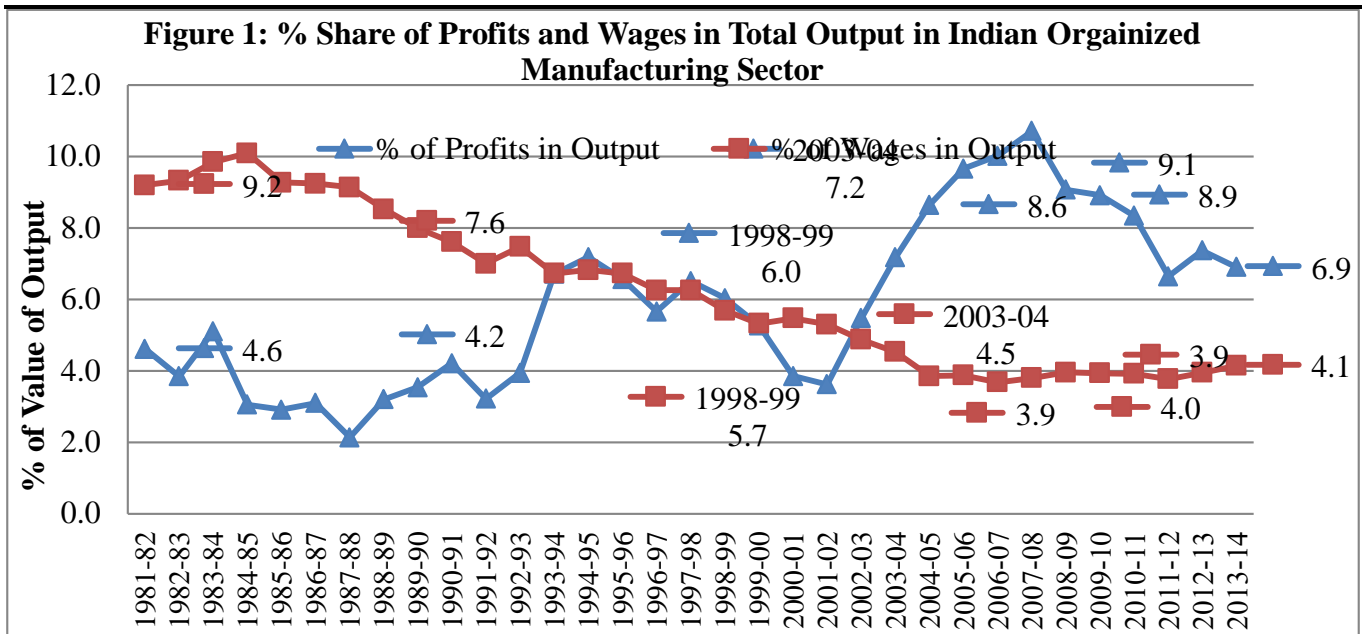
In the theoretical and conceptual frameworks noted above, it was pointed out that present policy has a much narrower focus in terms of human capital approach that links education to job market in terms of income approach to development. This perspective, in spite of advocating inclusive development, fails to make it development inclusive. The future policy agenda must be guided by the capability perspective. It links in terms of freedom and opportunities to achieve functioning as per the individual life plan. Such freedom of opportunities shall not prevail unless the inequalities and exclusions are addressed more directly through policy agenda. Capability perspective alerts policy to be guided by inclusion and directly addressing inequalities in the labour market. In the context of above explained instrumental three -factors of the capability-deprivation in the Indian labor market we examine empirically the extent of economic-inequality gender-inequality, and socio-religious exclusions in employment.

### 3. Economic Inequality in Indian Labour Market

This section examines critically the extent of economic inequalities in terms of (3.1) profit-wage inequality, (3.2) wealth-inequality and (3.3) wage-inequality in Indian job sector.

#### **3.1. Profit-Wage Inequality: Unequal Exchange Rates between Returns of Capital and Labour- High Surplus-value in Neo-Liberal Regimes**

Figure 1 presents the percentage shares of profits and wages in Value of Output in the Indian organized manufacturing sector in the pre-reform years (1981-82 and 1990-91) and post-reform years as well as the first and last years of the three regimes of National Democratic Alliance (NDA I: 1998-99 to 2003-04), and United Progressive Alliances (UPA I and II: 2004-05 to 2013-14). The share of wages in output was higher at 9.2% in 1981-82 and it declined to 7.6% in 1990-91, however the shares of profit in both the pre-reform years were lower at 4.6% and 4.2%. The share of wages in declined in the post reform years and share of profit has increased in the Indian manufacturing sector.



Source of Data: ASI of different years

The respective shares of wages in 1998-99 and 2003-04 were higher at 5.7% and 7.2%, however the corresponding shares of wages in the same years were lower 3.9% and 4.5%. The shares of profits in 2004-05 and 2008-09 were higher 8.6% and 9.1%, the respective shares of wages in the same years were 3.9% and 4.0%. These shares of profits were higher at 8.9% in 2009-10 and 6.9% in 2013-14, in comparison to respective shares of wages; 3.9% and 4.1%. This means that share of profits has declined by 2 percentage-points from 2013-14 to 6.9% from 8.9% in 2009-10 during the post-global financial crisis, which signifies the adverse effect of the crisis. The trend of lower share of wages has been continued in the global financial crisis period and up to 2013-14.

### 3.2 Wealth-inequality

There is an important study by Thami and Anand (2017), which critically examines the income and wealth inequalities by castes in Indian labour market and shown that there are increasing wealth and income inequalities from the first decade of economic reforms during 1991-2002 to the second decade of economic reforms in 2002-2012. They clearly assert that: *“The extent of economic concentration among the forward caste groups, as compared to not just the SCs and STs, but also the OBCs. Our paper contributes towards understanding the trends in economic inequality and polarization over the high growth period in the last decade. Besides contributing to the literature on inequality in India, this paper is also, to our knowledge, the first attempt to understand the trends in economic polarization between social groups. To conclude, unlike the usual argument that free markets do not discriminate between caste groups, the forward caste groups have been in a much better position to benefit from the gains from higher growth; they have maintained and improved their wealth positions over time”* (Thampi& Anand, 2017).

**Table 1: Annual Growth Rate, Ratio of Shares of Assets to Population and Gini-Coefficient by Social Categories and Region**

Region	Social Categories	Annual Growth Rate		Asset Share/ Population Share			Gini-Coefficient		
		1991-2002	2002-2012	1991	2002	2012	1991	2002	2012
Rural	ST	3.59	11.25	0.51	0.54	0.5	0.53	0.58	0.61
	SC	2.91	13.49	0.49	0.49	0.5	0.58	0.56	0.59
	OBC	...	13.51	...	0.98	1.01	...	0.58	0.64
	GEN	6.77	14.27	1.22	1.61	1.71	0.6	0.62	0.7
Urban	ST	8.66	22.16	0.48	0.6	0.54	0.65	0.75	0.76
	SC	6.1	19.36	0.4	0.42	0.35	0.64	0.65	0.69
	OBC	8.74	21.92	...	0.78	0.7	...	0.7	0.72
	GEN	8.74	31.08	1.11	1.38	1.59	0.73	0.69	0.77
Total	ST	4.19	14.05	0.48	0.49	0.4	0.55	0.61	0.66
	SC	3.64	16.01	0.46	0.45	0.4	0.59	0.58	0.64
	OBC	...	17.28	...	0.9	0.83	...	0.62	0.68
	GEN	7.99	24.36	1.2	1.59	1.86	0.65	0.66	0.75

Source of Data: Thampi& Anand (2017)

Table 1 shows that the annual growth rates of asset, the ratio of share of asset to population and gini-coefficient are higher for general social categories in comparison to OBCs, SCs and STs. These three variables have increased for the upper caste or general categories over the two decades/years. These higher rate, share and inequality coefficient for the upper caste show the historical caste cum class advantage to the upper caste and class people in Indian economy and society, this is a challenge for addressing the issues of sustainable development.

**Table 2: Annual Growth Rate, Ratio of Shares of Assets to Population and Gini-Coefficient by Social Categories and Region**

Religion	Annual Growth Rate	Asset Share/ Population Share		Gini-Coefficient	
	2002-2012	2002	2012	2002	2012
Hinduism	20	0.99	1	0.65	0.74
Islam	15.92	0.65	0.57	0.64	0.67
Christianity	21.1	1.58	1.67	0.72	0.75
Sikhism	19.95	3.27	3.32	0.65	0.72
Jainism	49.47	3.52	7.09	0.61	0.81
Buddhism	19.06	0.58	0.57	0.65	0.66
Others	9.15	0.81	0.52	0.63	0.63

Source of Data: Thampi& Anand (2017)

Table 2 shows the annual growth rate, asset share- population share ratio and Gini-coefficient of assets by religion. The jains are having first rank for these three variables, except Gini-coefficient of 2002. The annual growth rate of Hindus was 20%, however it was 16% for Muslims and highest for Jains at 49.47%. The asset share to population ratio for Hindus has remained at 1 in both the years 2002 and 2012, which

were only 0.65 and 0.57 in the respective years, implying that there is a decline the ratio for Muslim over the two yaers by 0.08 percentatge poit and Jains secured highest ratio and an increase by 3.57 Percebatge point both the years, as it was 3.52 in 2002 abd it rose to 7.09.

### 3.3 Wage-Inequality

The United Nations under SDG 10 also concerned about the increasing wealth inequality as it explains that the top 1 % of the world population hold 50% of the global wealth and the bottom 70 % of the world's working age population people together had only 2.7% of the global wealth. The capital-labour ratio has positive relation with wage-inequality and profit-wage-inequality and even with the stock variable based wealth-inequality. Table 3 shows that there is an increase in wage-inequality over the years of economic reforms in both the decades. The share of wages of low-paid workers to the salaries of high-paid workers has declined in Indian job sector from 47% in 1993-94 to 41% in 1999-2000 to 37% in 2009-10 and a little increase by 1 % to 38% in 2011-12. This implies that in the times of expanding role of global finance, there is an increase in capital intensive technology or labor saving technology led to the higher wages or white collar or professionals and lower wages of workers or blue collar workers.

**Table 3: Average and Shares of Wages of Professionals (High-paid )and Workers (Low paid) : Percentage and Rs. Per day in 1993-94, 1999-2000, 2009-10 and 2011-12: NSSO Data(2014)**

Years	Indicators	Professionals	Workers
1993-94	Average Wages	99.97	46.67
1993-94	% of Wages of SW to Wages of KW	100.00	46.69
	Change between 1993-94 and 2011-12	665.18	242.09
1999-2000	Average Wages	241.26	98.83
1999-2000	% of Wages of SW to Wages of KW	100.00	40.96
	Change between 1999-2000 and 2011-12	217.14	192.19
2009-10	Average Wages	611.26	225.59
2009-10	% of Wages of SW to Wages of KW	100.00	36.91
	Change between 2009-10 and 2011-12	25.17	28.00
2011-12	Average Wages	765.14	288.76
2011-12	% of Wages of SW to Wages of KW	100.00	37.74

**Source of Data: Thakur (2016 a)**

Figure 2 shows a positive relation between the capital-labour ratio and wage-inequality in the Indian organized manufacturing sector, which throws lights on the expanding role of global finance and modern technology in Indian economy. The share of wages of low-paid workers to that of high paid workers has declined from 30 % in 2000-01 to 19% in 2010-11 and the capital-labour ratio has increased from 0.8 to 3 over the same years. Thus the global finance and technology with Indian private capital, have led to the wealth-inequality and wage-inequality and created more surplus in terms of lowering wages and increasing profits to the Indian big private and global multinational national companies in the times of economic reforms of the two decades, which created marginalization and polarizations for the already historically socio-economic cultural categories of Indian society and economy.

**Figure 2: Positive Relationship between wage-inequality and capital-labour ratio**

Source of Data: Thakur (2016 a)

#### 4. Socio Exclusions in Labour Market: Under-utilization of Human Potential

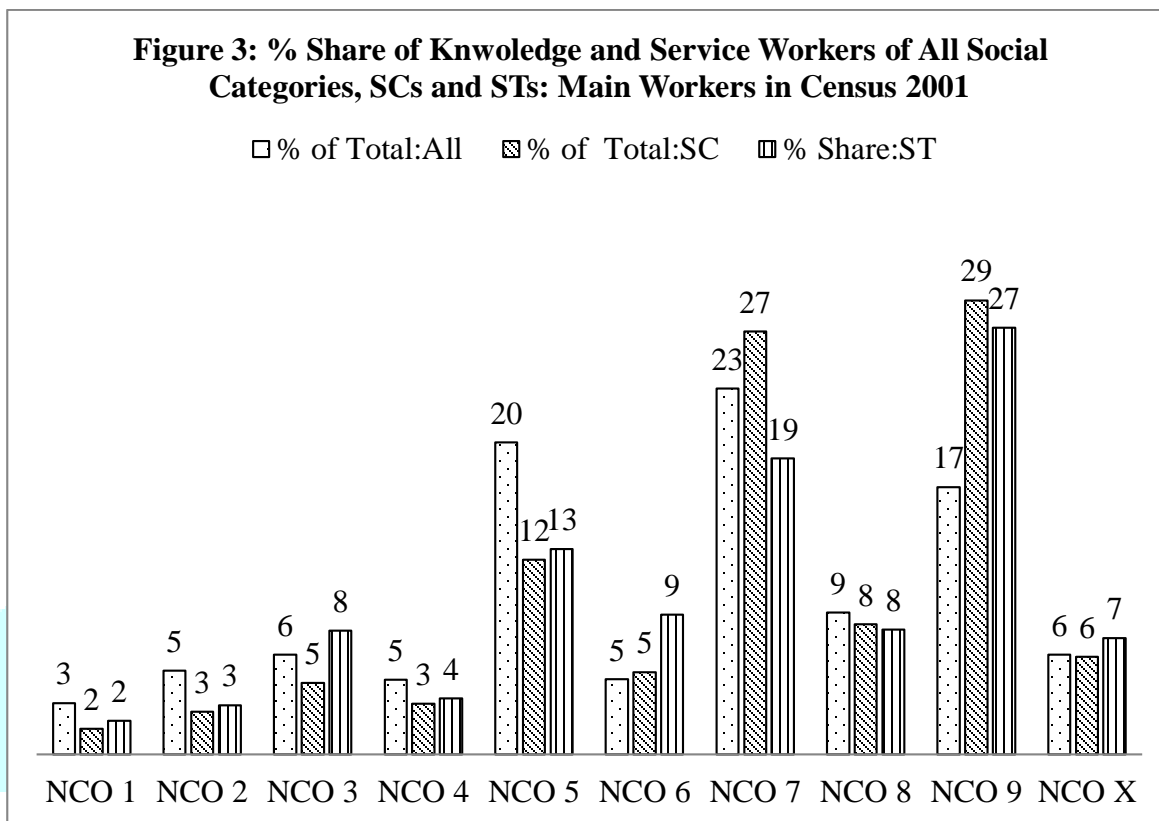
After 70 years of independence, the lower education attainments at all India level in general and higher socio-economic exclusions have deprived the larger section of Indian population. The employment outcomes of graduates are examined by the shares of graduates and above degree holders in the labour market as main-workers (the workers have jobs more than 6 months in year, which shows stable job opportunities to the highly educated persons). As Thakur (2016a) showed that at all-India level, only 54% of graduates have jobs as main workers and 3% are as marginal workers (jobs of less than 6 months in a year as in-formalization) and non-workers (they do not have work) as shown in Census data (GOI, 2011).

Thus around 50% of graduates are not used productively in the job-sector. Subsequently, the absence of the excluded workers suppresses their capability and their fellows' one due to their absence and resulting higher workloads at the worksites of the fellows. The excluded workers could ease the pressures of main workers but lower employment opportunities created by the different sectors or also underemployment of the workers and over-utilization of main workers lower the leisure hours and adversely affected the quality of life of all workers due to these wastages and under and over utilization of highly educated workers.

The under-utilization of high-educated persons in the labour market is also examined by the numbers and shares of knowledge workers (first two categories of national classification of occupations-NCOs, namely: (i) legislators, senior officials and managers and (ii) professionals. The numbers and shares are examined by the use of the data of Censuses 2001 and 2011 (GOI, 2001 and GOI, 2011). The share of knowledge workers of all the social categories (main workers) in India had marginally increased to 10% in



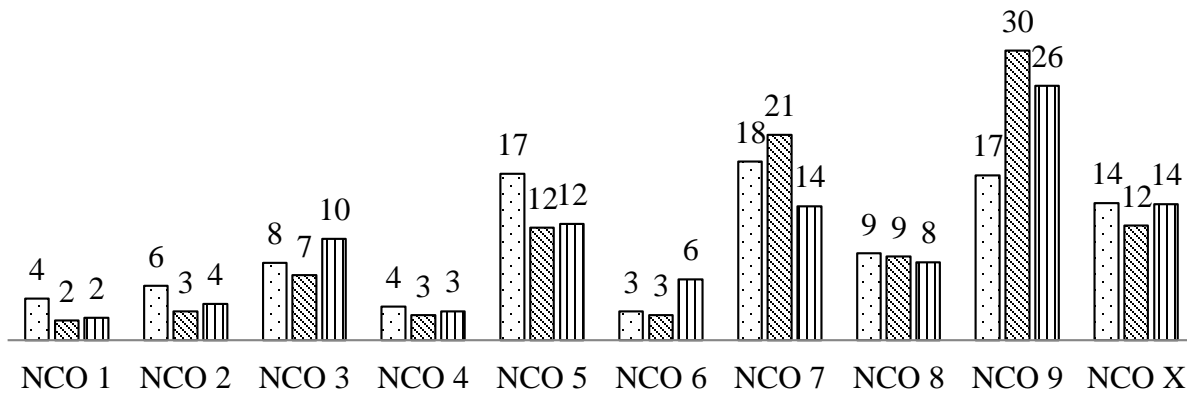
2011 by 2% from 8% in 2001 (Figures 1 and 2). However the stock of human capital in terms of number of knowledge workers increased from 12.5 million in 2001 to 17.9 million in 2011, showing an increase of 5.4 million over the 10 census years.



Source: GOI (2001); Thakur (2016a); Note 1: Total Numbers of Main Workers belong to All Social Categories, SCs and STs are 146 million, 19 million and 6 million respectively during 2001; Note 2: Details of National Classification of Occupations - NCO 1: Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers, NCO 2: Professionals, NCO 3: Technicians and Associate Professionals, NCO 4: Clerks, NCO 5: Service Workers, NCO 6: Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers, NCO 7: Craft and related trade Workers, NCO 8: Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers, NCO 9: Elementary Occupations, NCO X: Workers Not Classified by Occupations.

**Figure 4: Percentage Shares of Knowledge and Service Workers : Main Workers in Census 2011**

□ % of All Social Category Workers   ▨ % of SC Workers   ▩ % of ST Workers



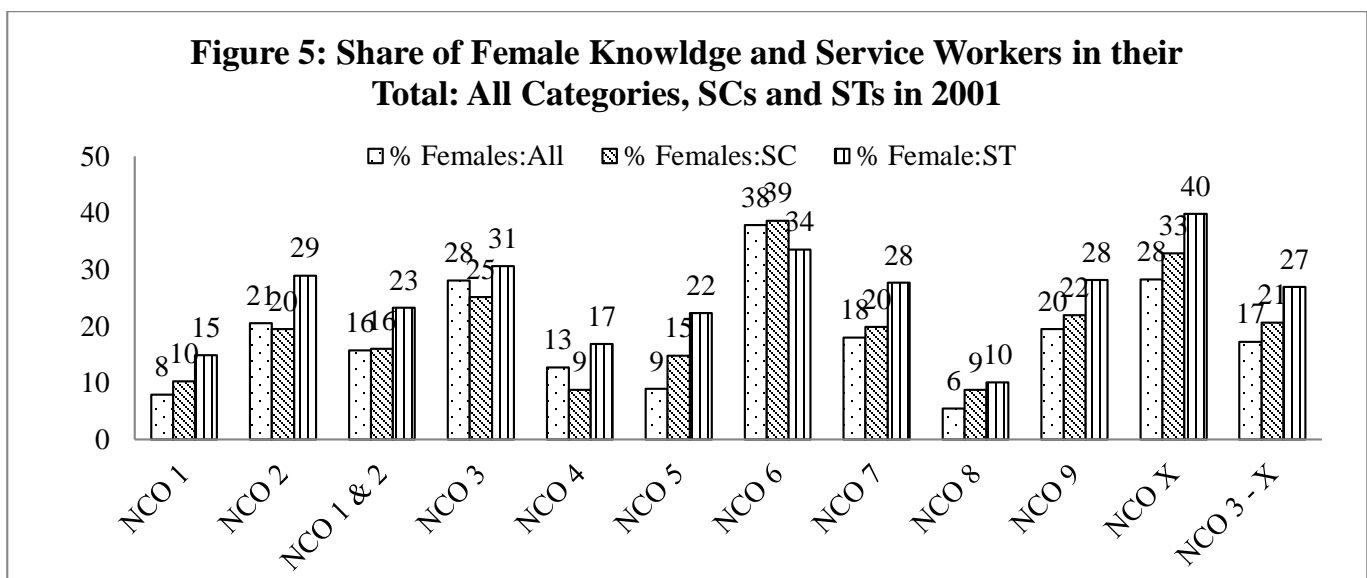
Source:

GOI (2011); Note 1: Total Numbers of All Social Categories, SCs and STs are 181 million, 25 million and 8 million respectively during 2011.

There are lower and stagnant base of knowledge workers in India, this share in the US is 48% (Thakur, 2016a). In Census 2001 data, the social exclusions are reflected in the profiles of occupations, as the shares of SCs and STs in their numbers of the knowledge workers were only 5% each (Figure 3). In Census 2011, implying no improvement at larger scale and remained at 5% and 6% respectively, as it is zero percentage change in share of SC knowledge workers but 1% increase in ST knowledge workers over the census years (Figure 4). The numbers of SC and ST knowledge workers in 2001 were 0.83 million and 0.31 million respectively, the respective numbers in 2011 were 1.27 million and 0.46 million. The respective numbers of SC and ST knowledge workers increased by 0.34 million and 0.15 million over the two census years. It can also be noticed in Figures 4 and 5 that the shares of SCs and STs are higher at lower paid occupations of NCO 9- Elementary Occupations in both the censuses, reflecting the caste and tribe based discrimination, inequality and exclusion in Indian labour market. The Elementary Occupations (NCO 9) include sub-categories of agricultural and fishery workers, sales and services elementary workers and laborers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport. The shares of all social categories in NCO 9 was 17% which was lower than the shares of SCs (29%) and STs (27%) during Census 2001. In 2011, the respective shares of all the three social categories were 17%, 30% and 26% respectively, showing stagnancy in the exclusions of SCs and STs in lower end of jobs. Thus, the shares of SCs and STs are lower in the occupations knowledge workers, showing social exclusions and their shares in the lower paid occupations of service workers, namely NCO 9 implying inequalities of wages due higher numbers and shares of upper caste persons in the higher paid jobs of knowledge workers in both the census years 2001 and 2011.

## 5. Gender Inequality in Indian Labour Market

There is also gender-bias in the knowledge workers in 2001, the shares of total females including SCs and STs and the all socio-religious categories were lower at 16%, 16% and 23% respectively (Figure 5), this also shows that ST women have relatively higher share than the shares of SC and all social category females. Thus in the total knowledge workers, total and SCs males dominated with higher share of 84% each and ST males had 77%. The SCs, STs and females had higher shares in the lower paid occupational service workers, than their shares in the knowledge workers. In the comparison to shares of male service workers, the shares of female service workers of all social categories, SCs and STs were also lower 17%, 21% and 27% respectively (Figure 5). This implies that, males dominated in the service workers, especially upper caste males in 2001.

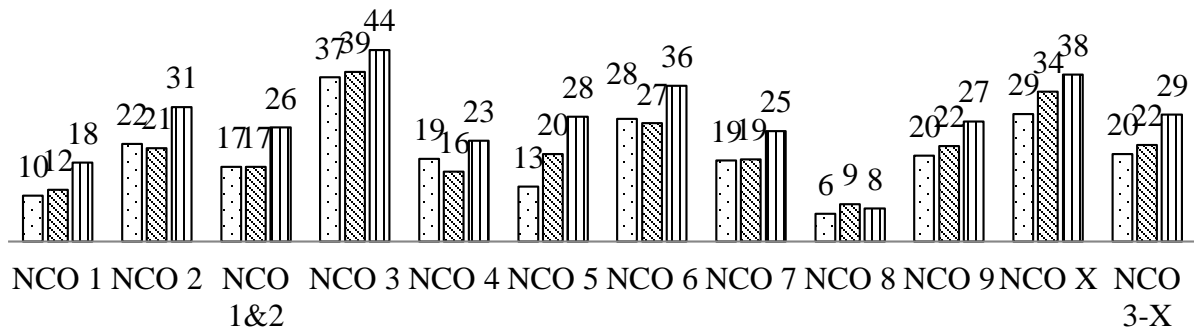


Source: GOI (2001).

The gender-bias is also prevailed in Indian labour market in the data of census 2011 as reflected further (Figure 6). In 2011, the shares of all, SC and ST female knowledge and service workers are lower in comparison to their counterpart males. The shares of all, SC and ST knowledge workers were 17%, 17% and 26%, which are increased slightly by 1 percentage-point each in 2011 in comparison to 2001, for the all and SC knowledge workers and 4 percentage-points for ST female knowledge workers. The percentage shares of female service workers of all, SCs and STs have increased to 20%, 22% and 29% respectively in 2011 from 17%, 21% and 27% in 2001, showing respective increase in all, SC and ST female service workers by only 3 %, 1% and 2%, over the 10 years.

**Figure 6: Share of Female Knowledge and Service Workers in their Total: All Categories, SCs and STs in 2011**

□ % of Females: All    ▨ % of Females: SC    ▩ % of Females: ST



Source: GOI (2011)

The shares of SC and ST female knowledge and service workers are either higher or more or less equal in comparison to the females of other social categories in Indian labour market (Figures 5 and 6). For example shares of females of all social categories, SCs and STs in NCO 1 in 2011 were 10%, 12% and 18% respectively (Figure 6). The respective shares in NCO 9 were 20%, 22% and 27%. This implies that the gender-bias is higher in the case of the non-SC & ST categories of knowledge and service workers than the SC&ST workers. This does not mean that the numbers of SC and ST female workers are higher as the numbers and shares of SC and ST persons are lower in comparison to the non-SC & ST categories in 2001 and 2011 (Figures 3 and 4). The processes of socio-economic exclusions due to caste, tribal and gender biases prevail in rural and urban areas in different forms. These biases also interlinked with the school education to higher education to labour market, as socio-economic exclusions in attendance of students is critically examined from primary schooling to higher education.

## 6. Socio-religious Exclusions in the Labour Market

The shares of placements from the employment exchanges are very lower for SCs/STs, OBCs and Muslims, which is due to the exclusions and inequality in higher education sector, which would be further adversely affected by the increasing privatization of higher education.

**Table 7: Placements of Minority Communities through Employment Exchange in India: 2012 ( in ' 000)**

Source: IndiaStat.com and Note: NA denotes Not-available

**Table 8: Representation of Schedule Castes (SCs), Schedule Tribes (STs) and Other Backward Castes (OBCs) in Central Government Services in India**

Source: IndiaStat.com

In 2012, the shares of placements of SCs, STs, OBCs and Muslims were 2.4%, 5.1%, 0.8% and 9.2% (see Tables 7 and 8). In 2011, the percentage shares of SCs in the total central government jobs of categories A, B, C, D and sweepers were 11.1%, 14.3%, 16%, 19.3% and 39.3% (Table 8). In 2011, the shares of STs in the total central government jobs of categories A, B, C, D and sweepers were 4.6%, 5.5%, 7.8%, 7% and 6.2%. These shares of OBCs in 2008 were 5.5%, 3.9%, 8.1%, 5%, and 3.2% respectively.

Thus the socio-religious exclusion, which stem from the higher education, shifted to the labour

Particulars	Muslim	Christian	Sikhs	Buddhist	Zoroastrians	Total
Registrations	539.9	151.8	52.4	23.9	0.1	768.1
Placements	8.4	2.8	1.6	0.4	0.0	13.2
Submissions	91.8	37.3	21.2	36.9	NA	187.2
Live Register	3561.8	1948.9	224.3	152.7	0.7	5888.4
% of Placement to Submission	9.2	7.5	7.5	1.1	0.0	7.1
% of Total LR of Minorities	60.0	33.0	4.0	3.0	0.0	100.0

market in government sector employment. The historical caste-driven work of sweepers are also attached with SCs in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, as reflected in the highest share of SCs, i.e., 39% in total SCs in the central government jobs. There is a need to revamp the governmental employment exchange system to facilitate

Group	As on 01.01.2011					As on 01.01.2008	
	Total	SCs	%	STs	%	OBCs	%
A	70150	7775	11.1	3197	4.6	5031	5.5
B	127505	18215	14.3	6988	5.5	5420	3.9
C	2142530	343277	16.0	166056	7.8	145819	8.1
D (Excluding Sweepers)	383707	73989	19.3	26689	7.0	34528	5.0
Sweepers	82871	32528	39.3	5160	6.2	2430	3.2
Total (Excluding Sweepers)	2723892	443256	16.27	202930	7.45	190798	6.97

the higher placements through constructing a proper matrix of supply of graduates and demand for graduates by the governmental, private national and global companies.

## 7. Concluding remarks and policy implications

The underutilization of human potential is the byproduct of three factors, in the job-sector. As it is observed that a lower share of knowledge or high-skilled workers in the total Indian workers is only 10%, constitutes the first factor, which is relatively higher in the US at 48%. This shows significantly higher unemployment

and underemployment of graduates and degree-holders in India, leading to wastage of public and private financial and human resources in the process of higher education and training in India. The second factor of under-utilization of human potential is due to the socio-economic exclusions in the Indian job-sector. The third factor is the limited knowledge of working or included workers in job-sector in the absence of a larger section of workers due to two factors- lower base of high skilled employment and larger scale of socio-economic exclusion of human potential (due to first and second factors). All three factors contribute to capability deprivation in the job sector. The LPG policy has adversely affected the equity and efficiency in Indian labour market, especially of the disadvantaged groups. So, the situation requires higher public funding for greater access and opportunities to the disadvantaged Indian youths in Indian labour market.

At macro level, the society as a whole has to pay opportunity costs, in terms of capability-deprivations in Indian labour market. It results in *knowledge-deficit* due to absence of a larger section of excluded population in Indian job-sector. In other words, the knowledge-deficit is the adverse effect or loss of well-being and intrinsic values for workers, which ultimately suppress the capabilities. For instance, amongst one of the social exclusions, Dr. Bhim Rao Ambedkar in his book- *Annihilation of Caste* (1936) elaborated on how caste contributes in social degradations when he states- *these degrading systems of social-religious organizations deaden, paralyze and cripple the people and discourage them to participate in the helpful activities*, (1936:276, 304). Thus, this BR Ambedkar view further complements the *capability approach* of Amartya Sen.

The government of India is working to build India as a knowledge society or economy. For the knowledge society, the government is trying to make policies to increase human capital through expansion in quantity and quality of education, which is also reflected in the Action Agenda of the present government for next three years (2017-18 to 2019-20). The government is also aiming to achieve the SDG's targets of SDG 5 and SDG 8, by 2030. For a sustainable and futuristic Indian knowledge society cum economy, there is a need to change the policy perspective from human capital to human capability. The human capability would help in achieving the desired goals of gender-equality, reduction in income and wealth inequalities; and inclusive and descent work in the next fifteen years under SDG 5 and 8. From the policy perspective, the SDG 5 on gender-equality should have correspondence with SDG 8 on descent employment agenda of ILO and reduction of economic-inequalities. This framework of capability approach would lead to inclusive gender-relations, economic-equity and inclusive descent employment in Indian job sector.

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