

The State of India's Cities and Towns

**A Book of Charts on the NCT Delhi, Rajasthan,
Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Mizoram**

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NEW DELHI

2013

Acknowledgement:

This report is to a large extent based on the careful extraction and compilation of National Sample Survey (NSS) data by the ORF-INDIA DATA LABS Team: RAKESH KUMAR SINHA, TANOUBI NGANGOM and JUHI BHALLA. The authors wish to express their gratitude towards their efforts and the long hours they have put in to provide a large part of the numbers behind the charts. Of course any mistakes are the sole responsibility of the authors.

Disclaimer:

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Introduction

India's future is urban. According to the latest numbers provided by the Census of India (COI), more than 380 million Indians live in nearly 8,000 urban settlements of different size. Yet these urbanites still only make up one third of the total population. However, given the current speed of urbanisation driven by rural-urban migration, natural growth of the urban population, reclassification of villages into towns and the incorporation of urban fringe villages into municipal boundaries, India's urban population segment can be expected to cross the 500 million mark by 2021, and by 2050 more than half of India will be residing in an urban area. In the last 20 years this massive process of urbanisation has taken place within the well-known context of liberalisation and high rates of economic growth, decentralisation and privatisation. Popular political mantras are repeated in numerous policy documents and speeches, ranging from "inclusive growth" at the national socio-economic level, "integrated sustainable development" at the urban level, down to the "inclusive" and "world-class city" at the individual city level. Yet, urban realities present a different picture: Lack, unequal access to and deficiencies in the provision of services and infrastructure, socio-economic polarisation of the urban society, socio-spatial marginalisation of the poor and minorities, fragmentation of urban space into areas included or excluded from overall development, the contestation of urban space by different actors, interests and stakeholders, and overall disparities between states, within states, and between and within cities and towns. Ultimately, these are all issues of governance.

It is election-time. Shortly before the upcoming elections to the *Lok Sabha* in the beginning of 2014, voters in five States, namely the NCT Delhi, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Mizoram, will have decided about the composition of their respective state assemblies for the next legislative period. With this *Book of Charts*, which is part of an ongoing project on the "State of India's Urbanization", we want to paint a numbers- and chart-based picture of the current *State of India's Cities and Towns* within these above mentioned states, and provide the public with a broad overview of selected urban topics, indicators and developments in the last decade. Thus, it is a story about the state and its people, the city and its citizens, and different sections of the population within the city as told by available data.

Introduction

Naturally the framework of this *Book of Charts* is as well determined to a large extent by the availability of data specifically for urban areas. In this report we rely to a large extent on two data-sources: The Census of India 2001 and 2011, and the 55th (1999-2000), 61st (2004-5) and 68th (2011-12) round of the National Sample Survey (NSS) as provided by ORF India DataLabs. Within this framework we focus on selected indicators within specific core topics ranging from the economy and employment, consumption and assets, housing, infrastructure and services, education and health, of which most if not all can be attributed as important “election topics”.

As mentioned above, the urban scenario in India is to a large extent characterised by disparities and inequalities. The available data and indicators allow us to shed light on these issues and take a closer look at them at different levels of analysis which form as well the basic structure of this book. In **Section I** we take the state as the unit of analysis, asking how the selected states compare with each other and overall urban India (Interstate Disparities).

How and to what extent are disparities and inequalities manifested within the states, and how are they characterised in terms of different urban areas and sections of the society? How and to what extent have these changed during the last decade? These are the questions central to **Section II** (Intrastate Disparities), in which we look at the different topics as much as possible at different strata of the urban hierarchy (million+-cities and Census Towns) as well as different sections of the urban society, i.e. Scheduled Castes (SC) and Tribes (ST), Other Backward Castes (OBC), Muslims and female-headed households (FHH). Additionally, the traditional fault lines in Indian society along caste, religion, region or ethnicity are increasingly superimposed by economic or class divisions with the *aam aadmi* being put at the centre of political attention. Avoiding the traditional and extensive debates about poverty lines we chose to divide the state-specific urban population into two sections according to the distribution of monthly household expenditure, thus taking a closer look at the top 70% and esp. the bottom 30% of urban society.

As mentioned above, the selected core topics are to a large extent issues and results of urban policies, urban governance, urban planning and development programmes, where public and academic focus has usually been more on developments in Megacities and Metropolises than in smaller Urban Local Bodies (ULB). By using a panel-data set of selected indicators on infrastructure and services provision, we try in **Section III** (Intercity

Introduction

Disparities) to shed some light on the performance of and, by using available data for all statutory towns and cities in 2011, the prevailing infrastructural disparities between different size-categories of Urban Local Bodies.

We are of course aware that apart from being constrained by the availability of urban-specific data this picture is far from complete, leaving aside among others such important issues as the urban environment, energy and transportation or matters of urban finance. And to state the obvious, of course each of the core topics certainly does demand in-depth study and research. However, we are confident that this *Book of Charts* can provide a useful background on current urban issues as well as a basis of analysis e.g. of urban election results in the respective states. And last but not least, the numbers behind and trends depicted in the following charts leave open large patches for debate and discussion.

Section I: Interstate Disparities

The Urban Population Picture

A Turning Point in India's Population History

TABLE I.1.1: Urban Population and Growth

<i>Urban Population</i>	<i>2001 (in million)</i>	<i>2011 (in million)</i>	<i>Decadal Growth (in %)</i>	<i>% urban 2001</i>	<i>% urban 2011</i>
<i>India</i>	286.1	377.1	31.8	27.8	31.2
<i>NCT Delhi</i>	12.9	16.4	26.8	93.2	97.5
<i>Rajasthan</i>	13.2	17.1	29.0	23.4	24.9
<i>Madhya Pradesh</i>	16.0	20.1	25.7	26.5	27.6
<i>Chhattisgarh</i>	4.2	5.9	41.8	20.1	23.2
<i>Mizoram</i>	0.44	0.57	29.7	49.6	52.1

Source: COI 2001, 2011

Data released by the latest Census 2011 marked a turning point in India's population history: For the first time, decadal growth 2001-11 of the urban population in absolute terms equalled the total addition to the rural population at approx. 91 million, possibly even surpassing rural population growth. However, even though the urbanisation momentum has picked up in the last decade and the total urban population has reached nearly 380 million, India's degree of urbanisation still is only at a comparatively low level of 31.2 percent. Among the states covered in this report, Chhattisgarh has experienced the highest speed of urbanization, but remains the least urbanised state. Next to the NCT Delhi, which could be classified as 100 percent urban, the small state of Mizoram shows the highest proportion of urbanites, albeit at a very low absolute level.

New Towns, but not New TownS**TABLE I.1.2: Urban Settlement Structure**

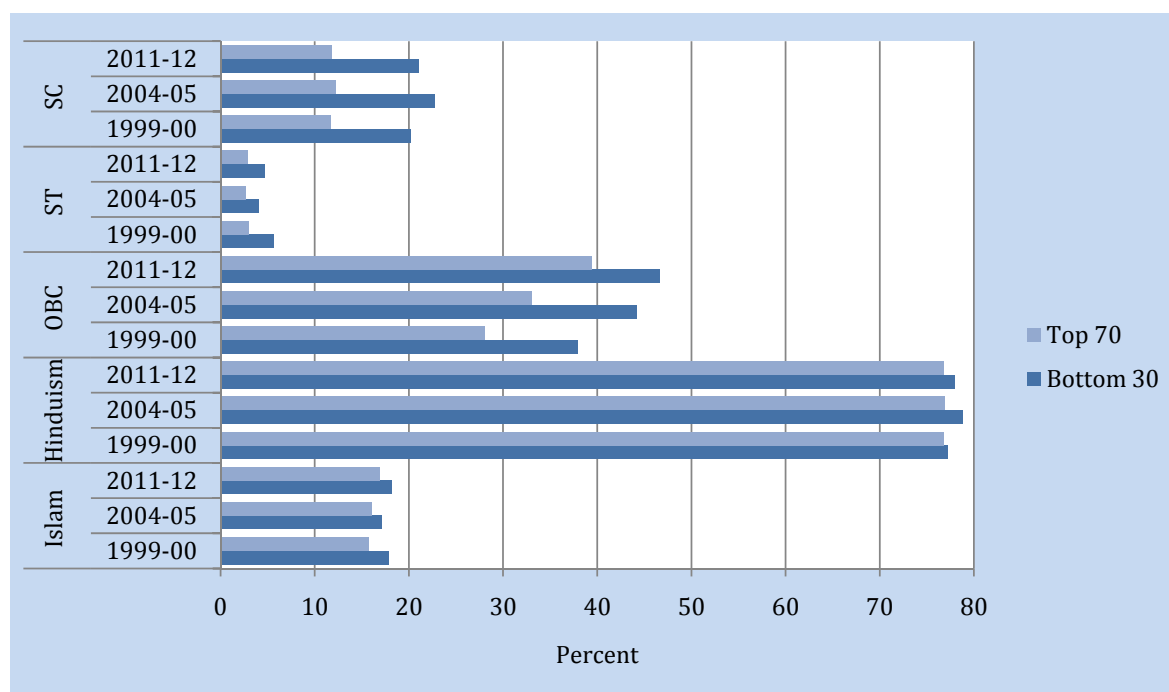
<i>No. of Towns / CTs</i>	<i>2001</i>		<i>2011</i>	
	<i>Statutory Towns</i>	<i>Census Towns</i>	<i>Statutory Towns</i>	<i>Census Towns</i>
<i>India</i>	3,799	1,362	4,041	3,894
<i>NCT Delhi</i>	3	59	3	110
<i>Rajasthan</i>	184	38	185	112
<i>Madhya Pradesh</i>	339	55	364	114
<i>Chhattisgarh</i>	75	22	168	14
<i>Mizoram</i>	22	0	23	0

Source: COI 2001, 2011

Though a decomposition of urban population growth into its components of migration, natural growth and addition of new towns does require further analysis, it can be safely assumed that the last factor does play a significant role. Nearly 2,800 new towns have been added to the Indian urban settlement structure between 2001-2011. However, of these less than 10 percent belong to the category of Statutory Towns administrated by a municipality, corporation et al. More than 90 percent of all new towns are so-called Census Towns, i.e. settlements that display certain urban characteristics in terms of population size, employment structure and density, but are not governed by an urban local body (ULB) and thus treated as urban only for Census purposes. Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and the NCT Delhi are characterised by substantial increases in the number of Census Towns, whereas Chhattisgarh added nearly one hundred Statutory Towns to its urban fold.

Cemented Socio-Economic Disparities

FIGURE I.1.1: Social Structure of the “Bottom 30” and “Top 70” Percent of the Monthly Household Expenditure Distribution



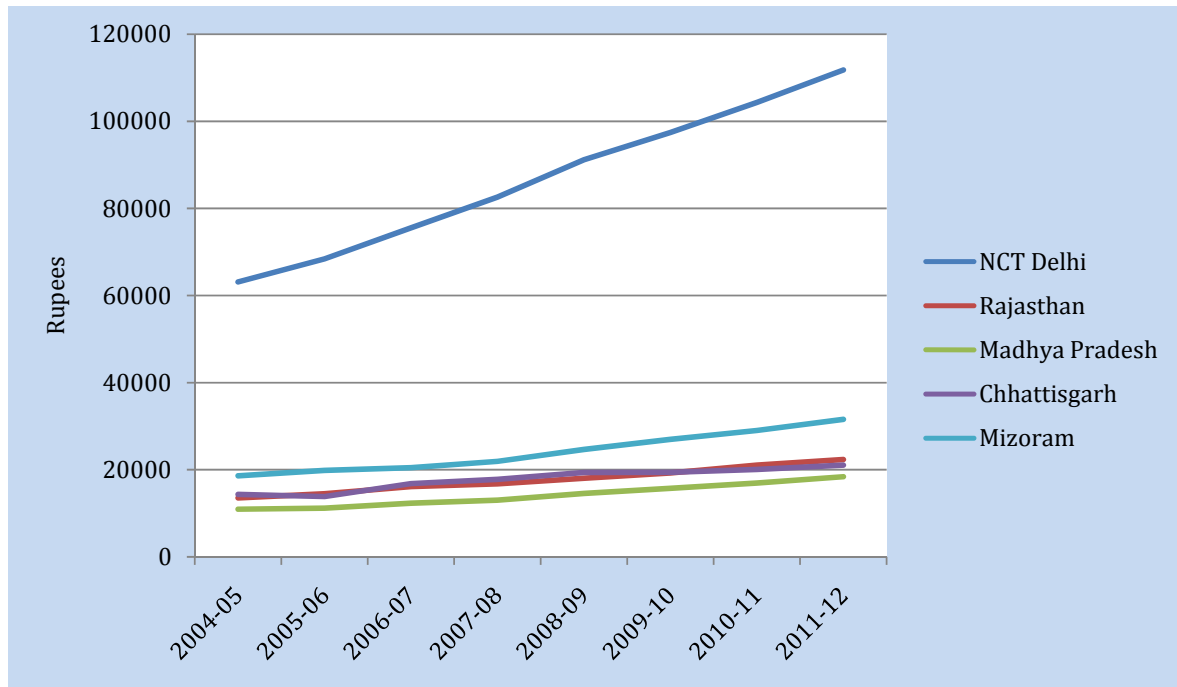
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The urban all-India social structure of our two defined expenditure groups – the Bottom 30 and Top 70 – clearly reveals the still prevailing socio-economic inequalities esp. along caste lines. Whereas disparities according to religion are less marked, there is a substantial overrepresentation of SC and OBC households in the Bottom 30 compared to the Top 70.

The Economy and Employment Picture

The Capital Racing Ahead

FIGURE I.2.1: Per Capita Net State Domestic Product (Industry+Services) at Factor Cost in Rupees (2004-5 prices)

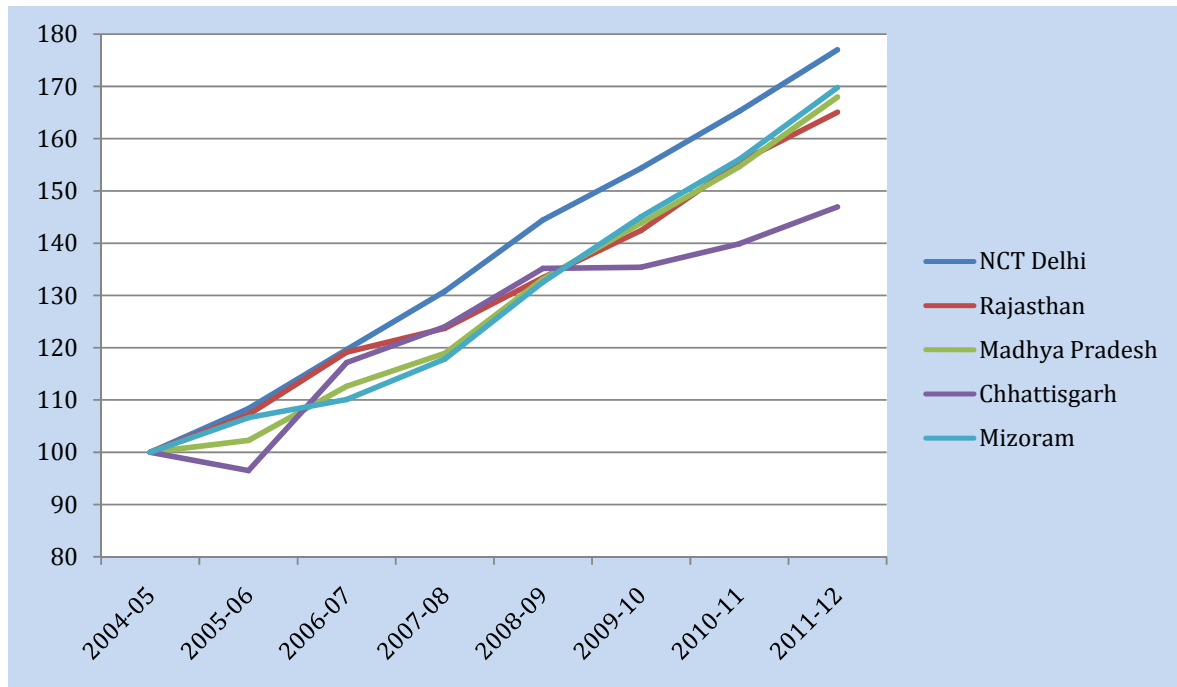


Source: Central Statistical Office (CSO)

Assuming that the industrial- and services-sector are to a large extent urban-based economic activities, the above depicted data on per Capita Net State Domestic Product approximately displays the economic performance of urban areas in the respective states since 2004-5. Clearly the NCT Delhi is racing ahead, albeit from an already far higher level in 2004-5. All the other states roughly follow the same trend, however the large states of Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Chhattisgarh lagging behind Mizoram in per capita terms.

Divergent Paths

FIGURE 1.2.2: Growth of per Capita Net State Domestic Product (Industry+Services) at Factor Cost (2004-5 prices), 2004-5=100

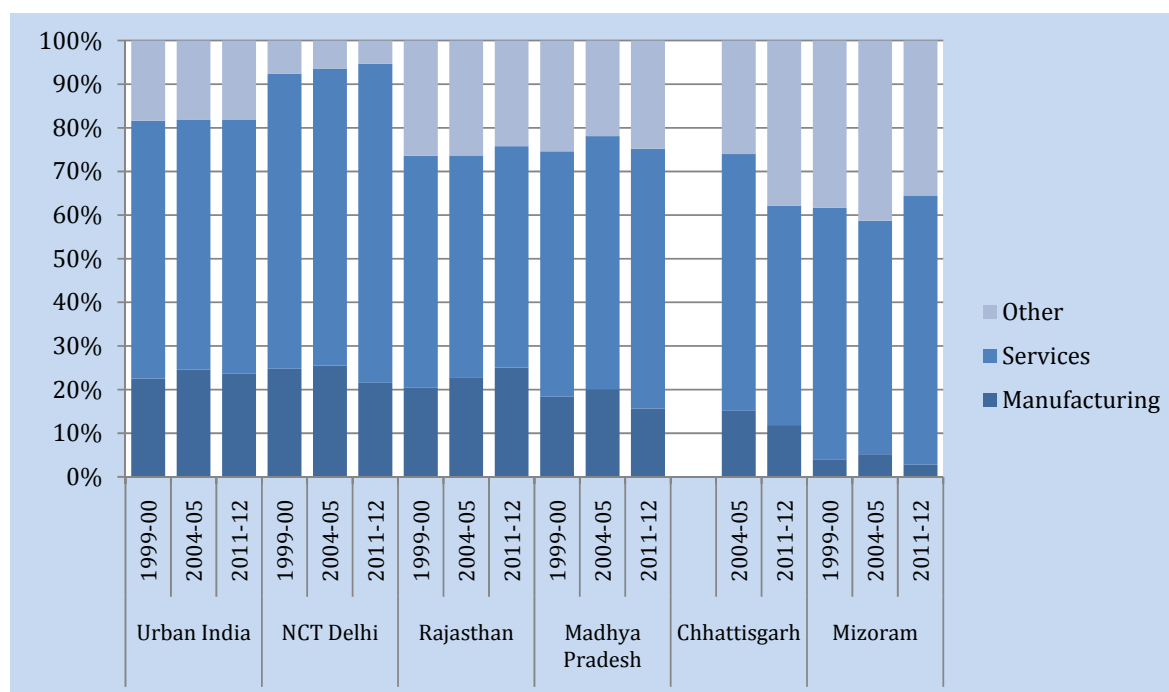


Source: Central Statistical Office (CSO)

Another measure to analyse the performance of the urban economy in the chosen states is to set the per Capita NSDP-level of 2004-5 at 100. Clearly divergent paths emerge: Whereas the NCT Delhi expectedly shows the highest economic momentum registering a growth of nearly 80 percent in its urban per Capita NSDP, the states of Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Mizoram roughly follow the same path with 60-70 percent growth. Chhattisgarh seemingly has decoupled from these states since 2008-9 and since fallen behind.

Growth sans Manufacturing?

FIGURE I.2.3: Structure of Employment by Type of Industry

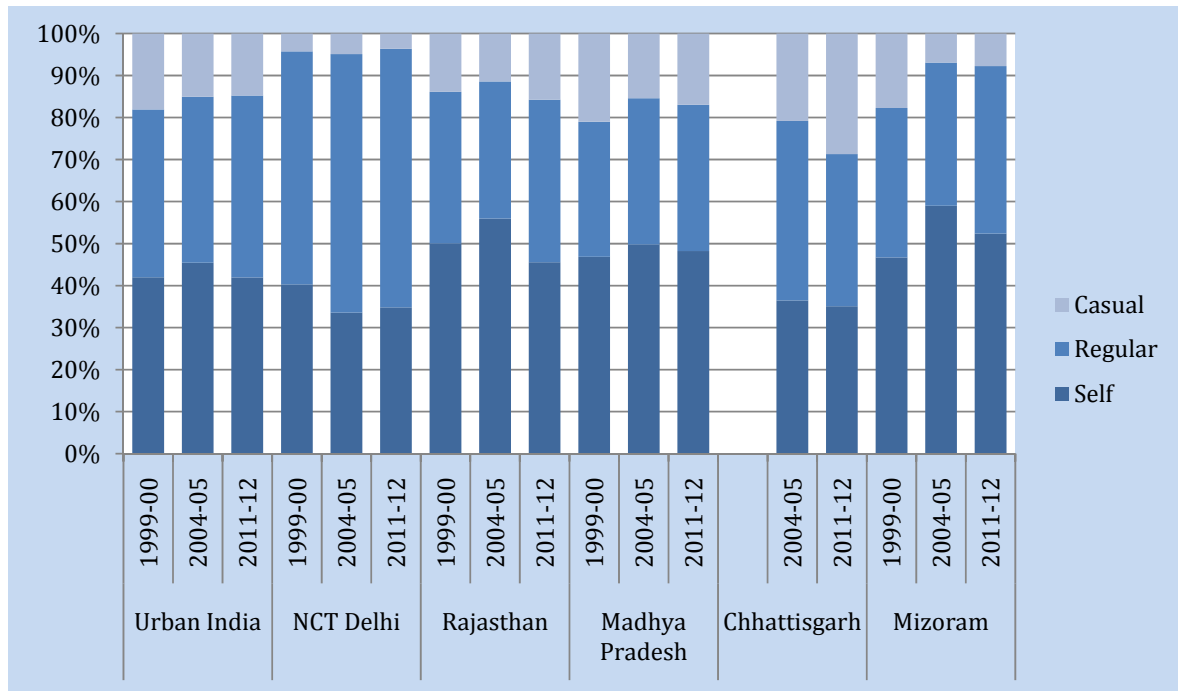


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

India’s impressive economic growth path has – despite until recently high growth rates – provoked a lot of debate centring on the terms “inclusive growth” and especially “jobless growth”. Can India in the future provide the required job opportunities for the huge potential urban population in a largely service-sector driven economy? The NSS-data above for the last decade shows hardly any structural change in urban India in terms of growth of the manufacturing sector, the sector which could provide employment requiring largely only lower skill-levels. However, the share of manufacturing in urban employment has even fallen in Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and the NCT Delhi, with the national capital of course being a service-driven economy. Only Rajasthan has witnessed a substantial rise in manufacturing employment while maintaining the share in the services-sector.

Regularisation of Employment

FIGURE I.2.4: Structure of Employment by Work Status

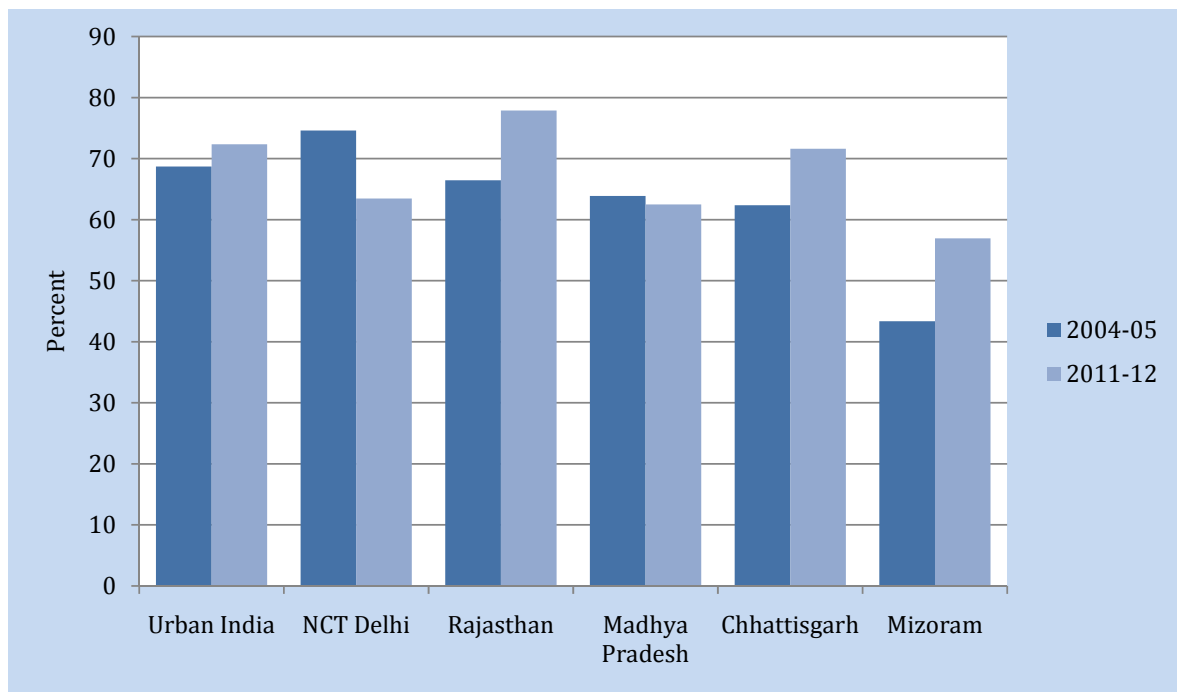


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The structure of employment by work status in urban India is marked by two important trends: A decrease in precarious casual employment accompanied by a rise in regular status. However, this trend is not visible in all the covered states. While the NCT Delhi is characterised by a regularisation of employment, Rajasthan and Chhattisgarh display a casualisation of urban employment, in Chhattisgarh seemingly at the cost of regular formal employment.

Regularisation without Formalisation?

FIGURE I.2.5: Percentage of Workers without a written Job Contract

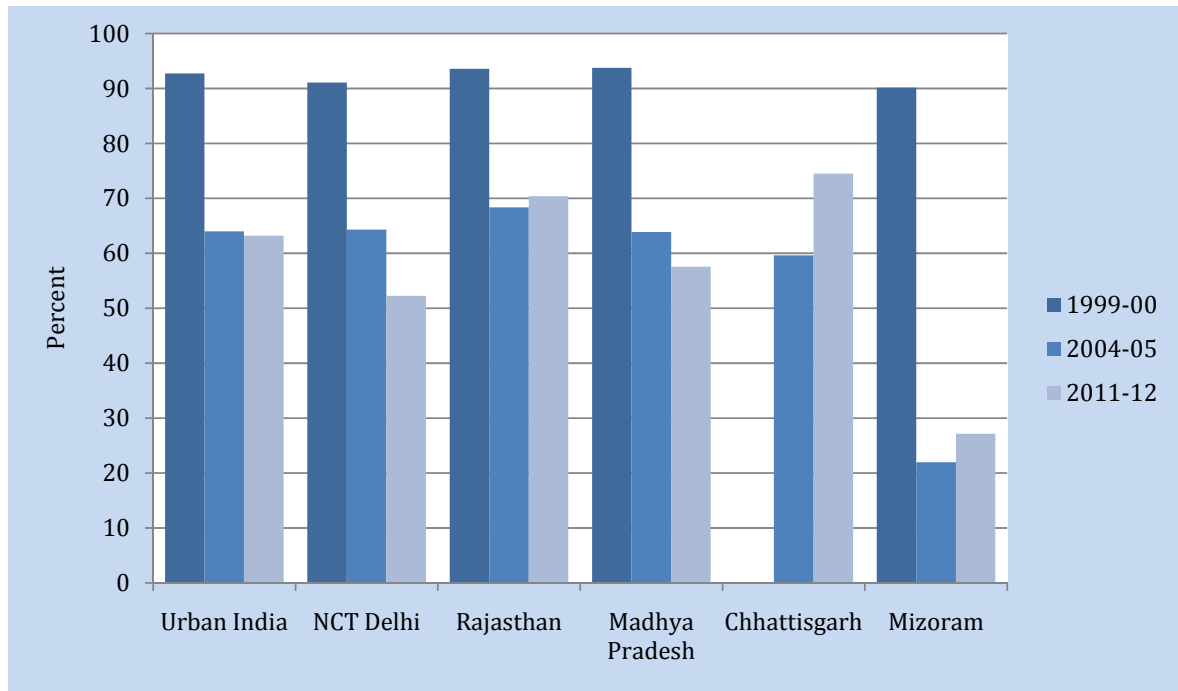


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Surprisingly, the regularisation of employment in urban India does not seem to be accompanied by an increase in the percentage of workers with a written job contract. Whereas the marked decrease in the NCT Delhi underlines the above stated regularisation of employment, the substantial increases in Rajasthan and Chhattisgarh seem to emphasise the ongoing casualisation of labour and informalisation of the urban economy.

Spreading Safety Net

FIGURE I.2.6: Percentage of Workers not eligible for Social Security Benefits



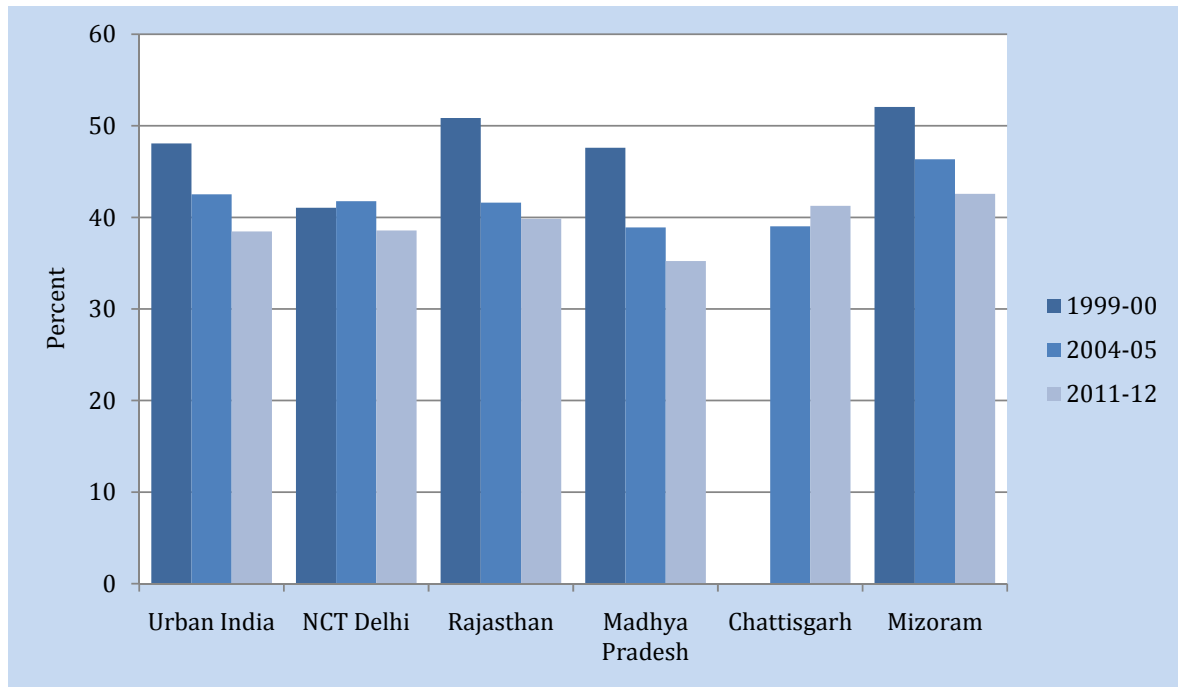
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Substantial progress has been achieved in urban India in terms of the percentage of workers eligible for Social Security Benefits (SSBs). However, still more than 60 percent of the total urban labour force is not eligible for this safety net. Except Chhattisgarh which is marked by a substantial increase in ineligibility-rates, all the other states have followed the all-India trend.

The Consumption and Assets Picture

The pyaaz-Question

FIGURE I.3.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure on Food Items

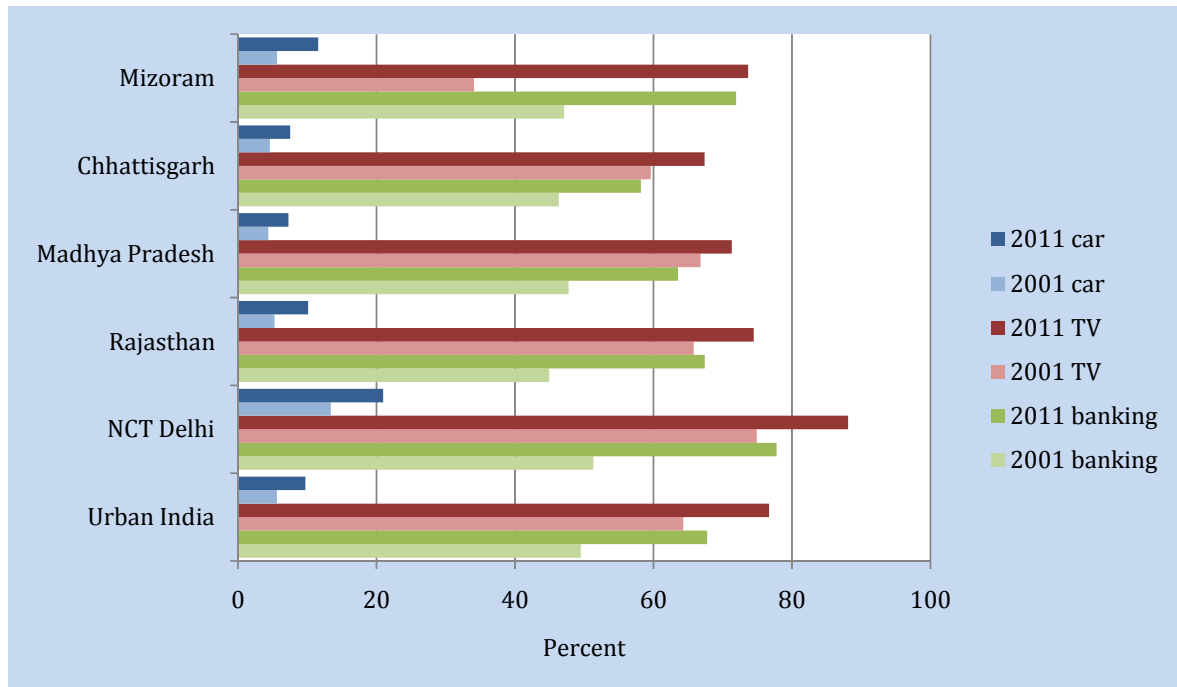


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Rising onion prices have certainly been an important campaign topic especially in the NCT Delhi. Overall however, urban households in India have to spend a decreasing share of their monthly expenditure on food items. This trend is observed as well in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Mizoram, but only marginally or even in the opposite direction in the NCT Delhi and Chhattisgarh respectively. Delhiites and urban residents in Chhattisgarh might very rightly ask the pyaaz-question.

Clothes, House ... and Car

FIGURE I.3.2: Percentage of Households availing Banking Services and owning a Car and TV 2001-2011



Source: COI 2001, 2011

Urban India is increasingly characterised by individual traffic in one’s car, the effects of which are clearly visible daily on Delhi’s roads. Though Delhi is moving fast ahead in this aspect, the trend is clearly visible in all states. Even more pronounced are the increasing rates in TV-ownership, providing ever larger sections of the urban society with access to up-to-date information. The increasing percentages of urban households with access to formal banking services have to be interpreted as good progress towards financial inclusion of ever larger sections of the urban population.

The Housing, Infrastructure and Services Picture

Only Half the Truth

TABLE I.4.1: Population living in Census-declared Slums 2011

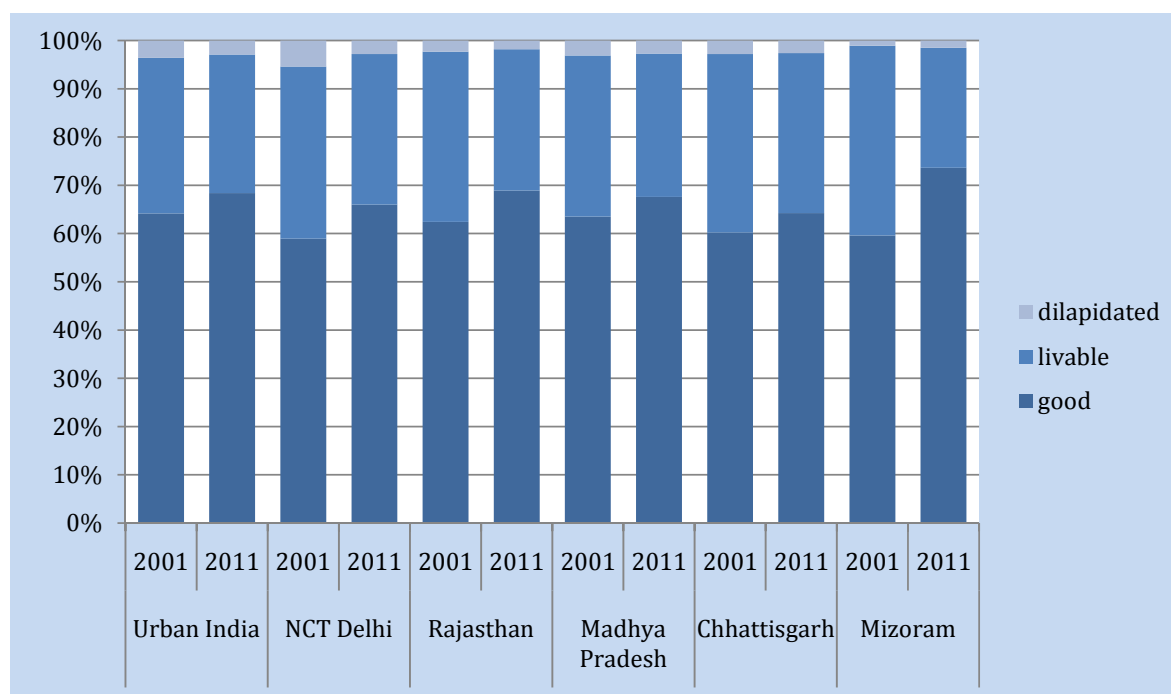
<i>State</i>	<i>Total Slum Population</i>	<i>Percentage of Urban Population</i>
<i>India</i>	65,494,604	17.4
<i>NCT Delhi</i>	1,785,390	10.9
<i>Rajasthan</i>	2,068,000	12.1
<i>Madhya Pradesh</i>	5,688,993	28.3
<i>Chhattisgarh</i>	1,898,931	32.0
<i>Mizoram</i>	78,561	13.7

Source: COI 2011

The Census 2011 has earmarked slum settlements in more than 2,600 statutory towns all across India. The definition of a slum is hereby based on: i) all areas *notified* as slums by the state or local administrations under a slum act, ii) all areas *recognized* by the state or local administrations but not formally notified, and iii) all areas identified by Census officials with slum-characteristics and a minimum population of 300. Considering this coverage, above displayed numbers have to be interpreted with caution and at best can be seen as a conservative estimate, not covering e.g. slum settlements in Census Towns or clusters with less than 60-70 households. However, even when taking these data-quality issues into account, the low percentage of urban slum population in Delhi can be interpreted as a possible result of the recent massive resettlement processes. On the other hand, even the conservative estimates for Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh paint a bleak urban housing picture especially for the economically weaker sections. Overall, even the Census figure of nearly 20% of the urban population living in dismal conditions is a strong reminder of current problems of urbanisation and the huge challenges lying ahead.

A Picture Too Rosy

FIGURE I.4.1: Subjective Housing Condition, 2001 & 2011

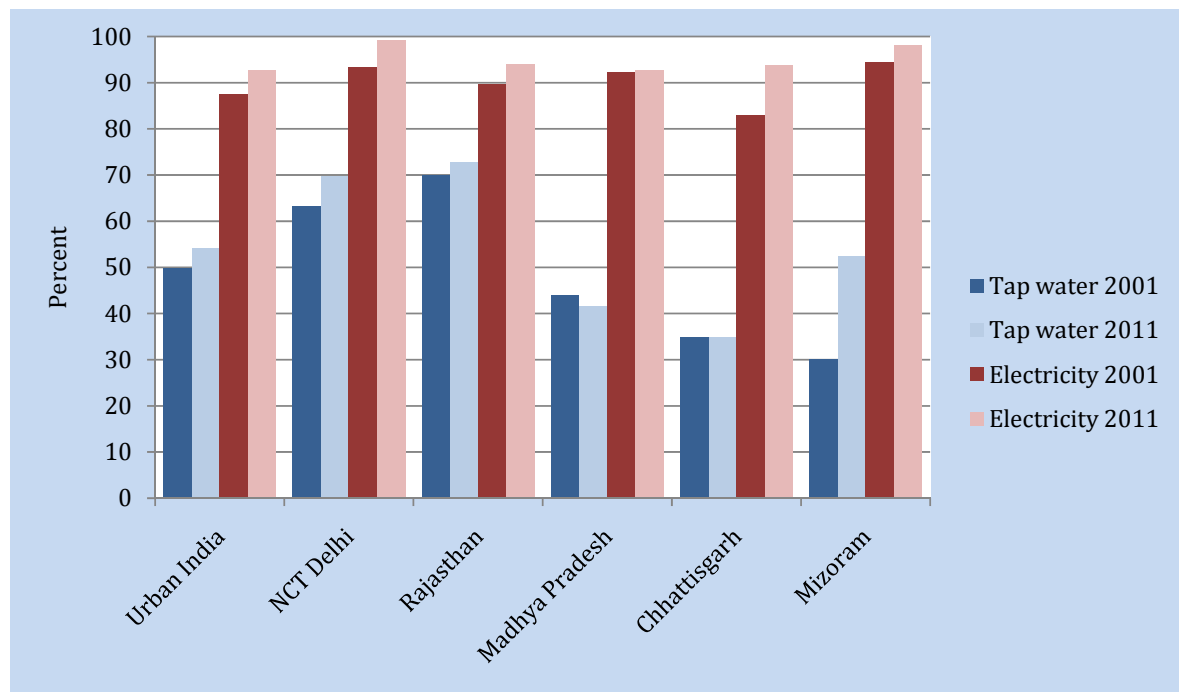


Source COI 2001, 2011

Certainly the above displayed numbers about the subjective housing condition in urban India and the respective states have to be seen with caution, keeping in mind the previous conservative estimates on the proportion of slum households. Surprisingly little difference is detectable between the states. On a positive note, the increasing percentage in the “good” category might be an indicator for overall progress in urban development and housing conditions for larger sections of the urban society.

Water Remains an Issue

FIGURE I.4.2: Households with Access to Tap Water and Electricity within Premises

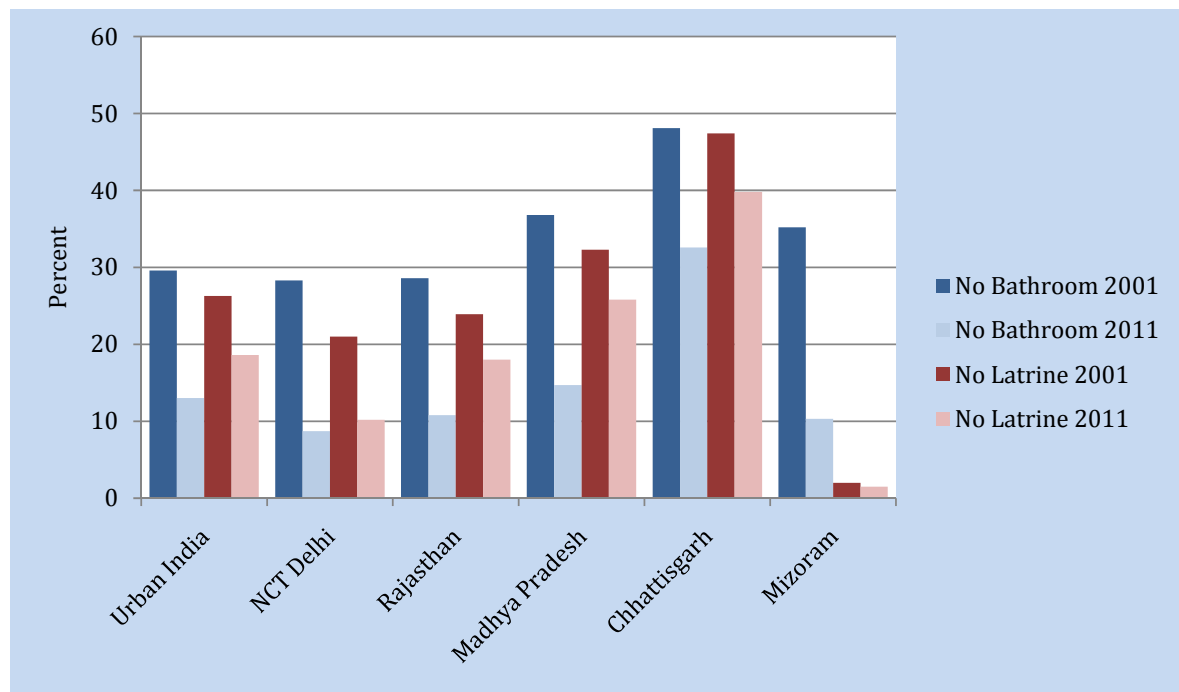


Source: COI 2001, 2011

Large progress has been made in urban India with respect to access to electricity, with all states displaying percentages of households covered above 90. However, access to safe drinking water in the form of having tap water within one’s premises still remains an important issue, with barely 50 percent of urban households enjoying this luxury. Even though some progress has been achieved, most notably in Mizoram and to a lesser extent in Rajasthan and the NCT Delhi, a lot more needs to be done, especially in Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh which both score far worse than the all-India average. While interstate gaps in access to electricity have largely been overcome, prevailing disparities between the five states covered are staggering.

Sanitary Aspects

FIGURE I.4.3: Households without Bathroom and Latrine within Premises

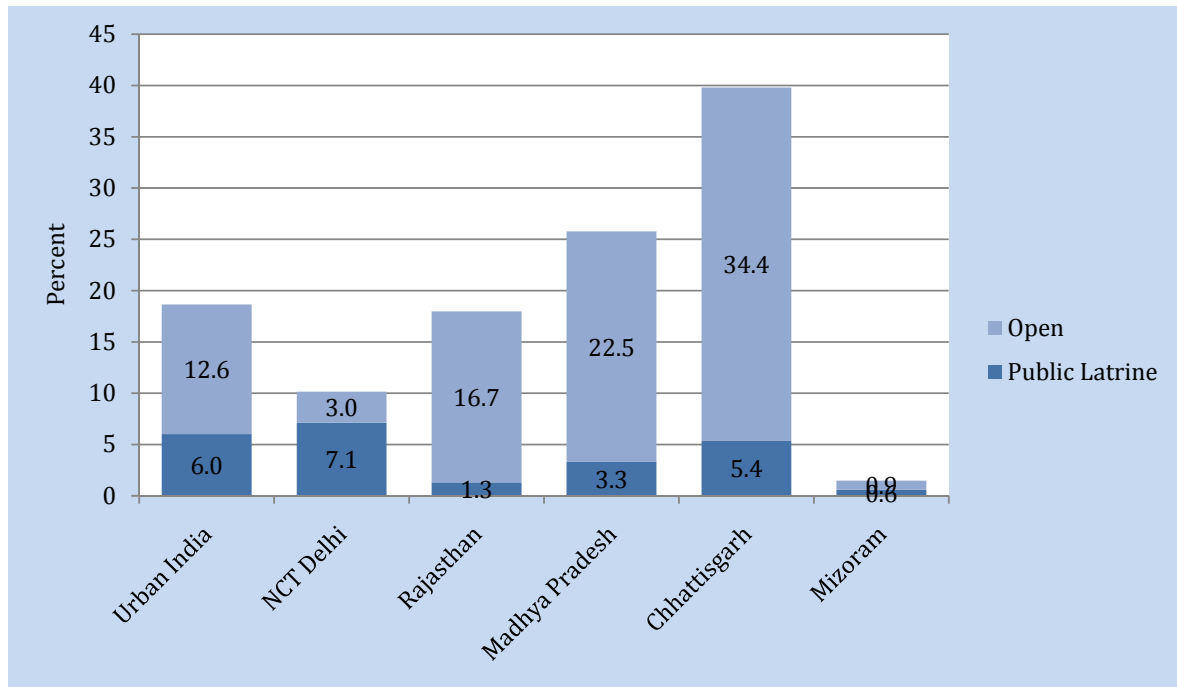


Source: COI 2001, 2011

There has been a considerable drop in the proportion of urban households without a bathroom within their premises during 2001-11. This progress is echoed in all states, though Chhattisgarh is still lagging far behind in this respect. In terms of having a private latrine the picture is improving though less impressive, as one in five households does not have a private space for daily needs. Interstate disparities are far more pronounced, with Madhya Pradesh and especially Chhattisgarh lying far above the all-India urban average.

An Open Issue

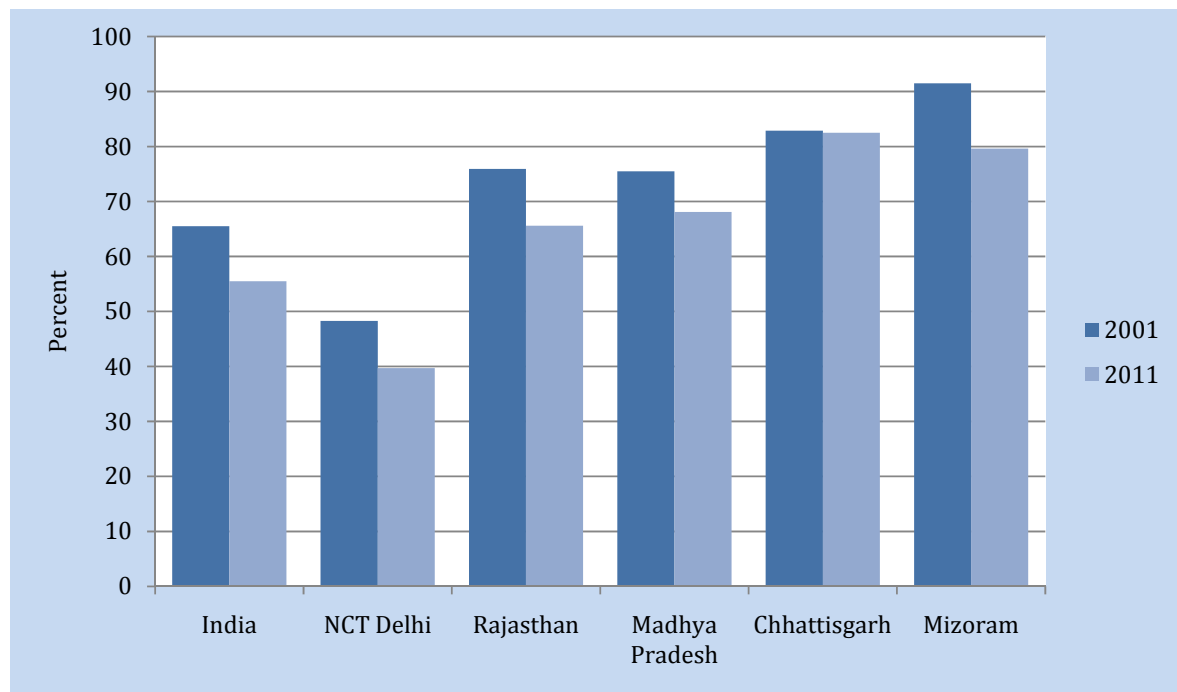
FIGURE I.4.4: Alternative Provision for Households without Latrine as Percentage of Total Urban Households, 2011



Source: COI 2011

Providing citizens with an appropriate alternative for their daily needs in case of a lack of private latrines within premises should be an important matter for public administrations. However, this seems to be an open issue. Apart from the NCT Delhi (and the negligible numbers in Mizoram) whose public provision of an alternative seems to be reaching the needy, neither urban India as a whole nor the other states are to be able to cater to these needs, with nearly a quarter of all urban households in Madhya Pradesh and more than one third in Chhattisgarh stating the use open urban areas. Neither a dignified nor healthy environment!

Wastewater Management

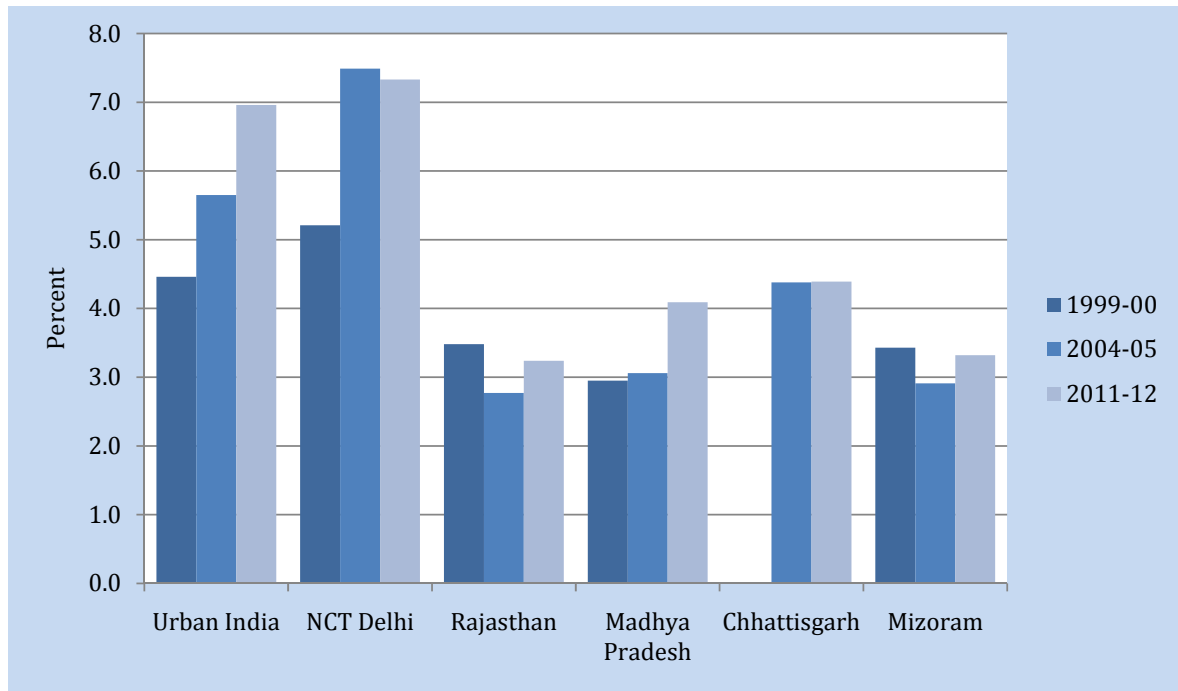
FIGURE I.4.5: Households with Open or No Drainage Connection

Source: COI 2001, 2011

As is the case with open defecation, wastewater or sewerage connections within a settlement have to be seen in the larger context of the urban living environment. A lack of a proper or missing drainage system is usually positively correlated with e.g. infant and child mortality rates or more generally the extent of water-borne diseases. Again, some progress is detectable, but even in the national capital Delhi 40 percent of households lack a proper connection, presumably to a large extent within the sprawling unauthorized colonies. Looking at the other states, the situation could positively be labelled as challenging, negatively as purely inadequate in terms of public infrastructure provision.

Rental Costs on the Rise

FIGURE 1.4.6: Percentage of Household Expenditure on Rent



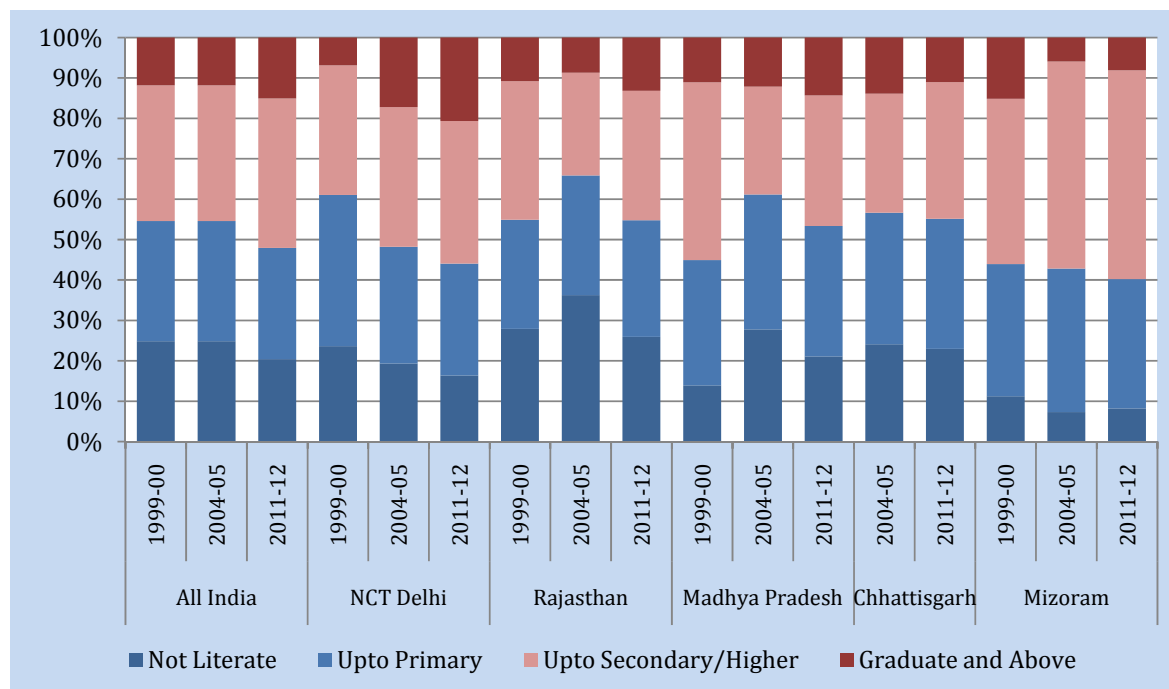
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The share of monthly household expenditure dedicated to rental costs has been steadily increasing for urban households in India during the last decade. As expected this trend can be seen in the large metropolis of Delhi where households have to proportionally spend considerably more on rent than in the other states.

The Education Picture

Some Positive Signs

FIGURE I.5.1: General Educational Level

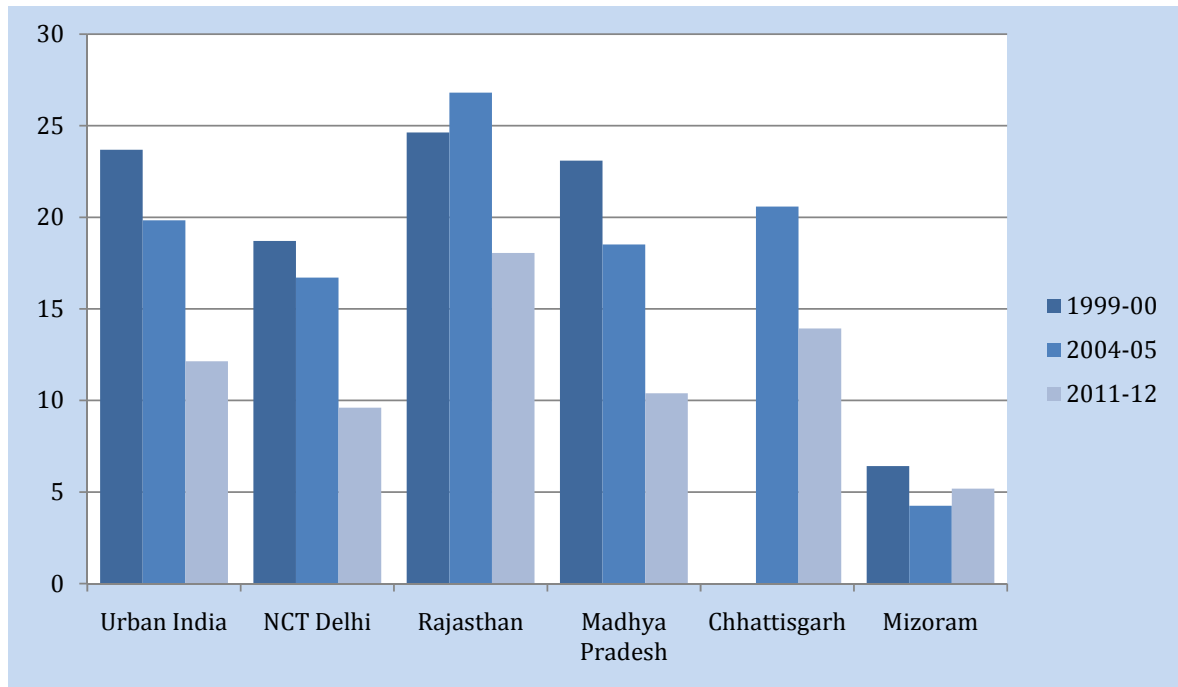


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

A slight overall progress in urban educational levels in India can be detected for the last decade, as manifested in the rising proportion of graduates and decreasing proportion of urbanites with low educational qualifications. However, still nearly 50 percent of urban residents in India possess only very limited education. Progress towards a more favourable educational structure is especially visible in the NCT Delhi and Mizoram, whereas Rajasthan and Chhattisgarh are characterised by more or less stable proportions of educational categories. Madhya Pradesh on the other hand is marked by the contradictory trends of an increasing proportion of graduates coupled with a rising proportion of illiterates and low educational levels during 1999-00 to 2011-12.

Educating the Demographic Dividend

FIGURE I.5.2: Percentage in Age-Group 5-18 currently not attending an Educational Institution

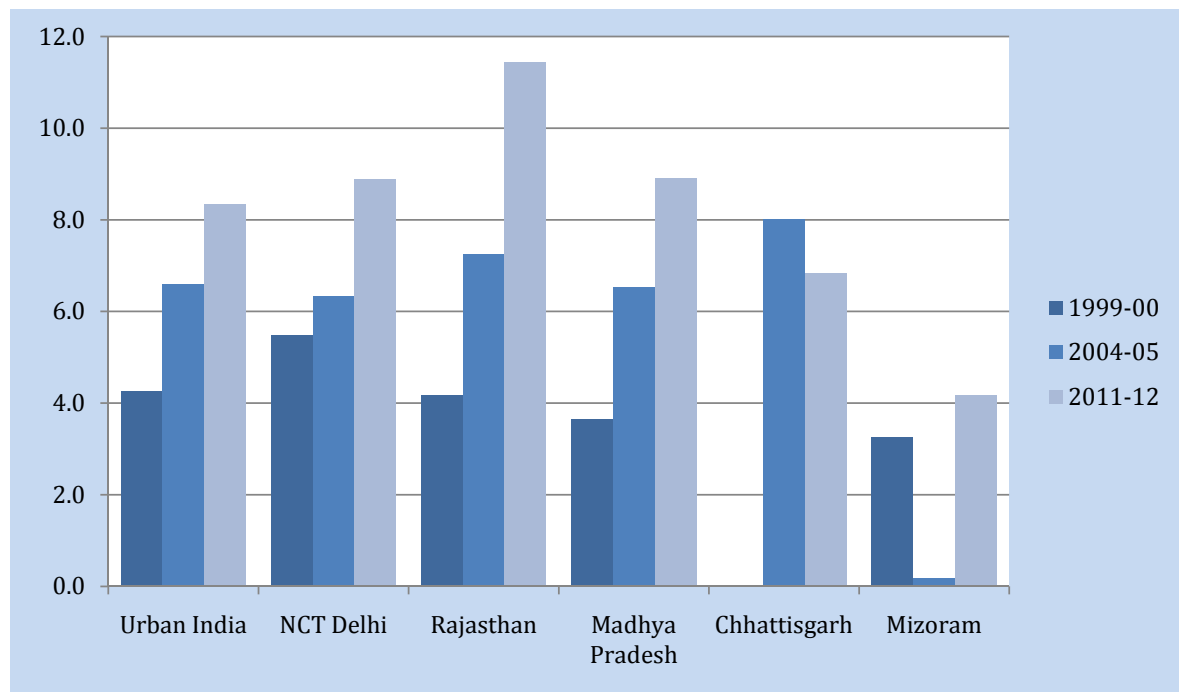


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The remarkable fall in the proportion of children in the age-group 5-18 years currently not attending an educational institution as depicted in the three NSS-rounds has to be seen as an even more positive sign than the slight improvements in overall urban educational levels. Keeping children in school is the first prerequisite to reap the benefits of the demographic dividend. Even though large interstate disparities still persist in this aspect, all the states show substantial improvements with Rajasthan lagging slightly behind.

Investment Strategy

FIGURE I.5.3: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Education



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Urban households in India are confronted with steadily rising shares of their monthly expenditure on education. Apart from Chhattisgarh all states display this trend, with Rajasthan showing the steepest increase. On the one hand the future value of education might be clearly visible in these numbers, on the other hand steep increases might be correlated with greater proportions of parents sending their children to more costly private schools due to qualitative deficits in public educational institutions.

The Health Picture

Healthy City, Healthy Life

TABLE I.6.1: Urban Life Expectancy at Birth and Infant Mortality Rate

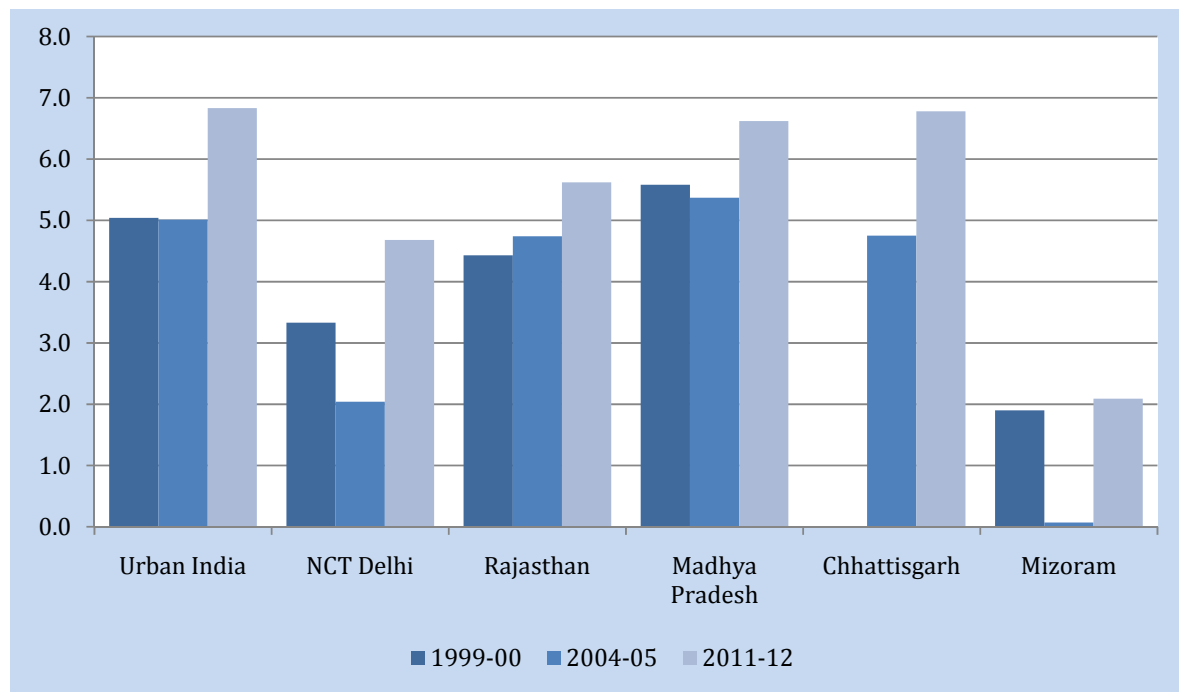
State	Life Expectancy at Birth (in years)				Infant Mortality Rate (per 1000 live births)			
	2000		2008		2000		2012	
	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female
India	66	69	68	71	45	42	26	29
NCT Delhi*	70	71	72	74	32	33	22	23
Chhattisgarh*	62	70	67	70	68	29	38	39
Madhya Pradesh	62	65	67	69	64	43	35	39
Rajasthan	65	68	67	71	48	68	29	33
Mizoram*	71	76	n.a.	n.a.	28	13	n.a.	n.a.

Source: SRS Abridged Life Tables 1998-2002, 2006-2010; *Life expectancy based on indirect estimation using regression; SRS-bulletin 2002, 2013

Increases in life expectancy at birth and decreases in infant mortality rate are an indication of an overall improved living and health condition of the urban population, including better access to healthcare facilities. Both trends are visible in Urban India as well as the observed states, though some considerable interstate disparities persist especially with respect to Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh.

Costly Healthcare

FIGURE I.6.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Health



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

As with rental and educational costs, urban households in India spend an increasing share of their monthly expenditure on health. A comparatively larger increase in disposable income available to households in the NCT Delhi with all its more costly private health facilities might explain the lesser share Delhiites have to spend on healthcare. A rising monthly expenditure on health might as well be an indicator of improved overall access to healthcare institutions.

The Crime Picture

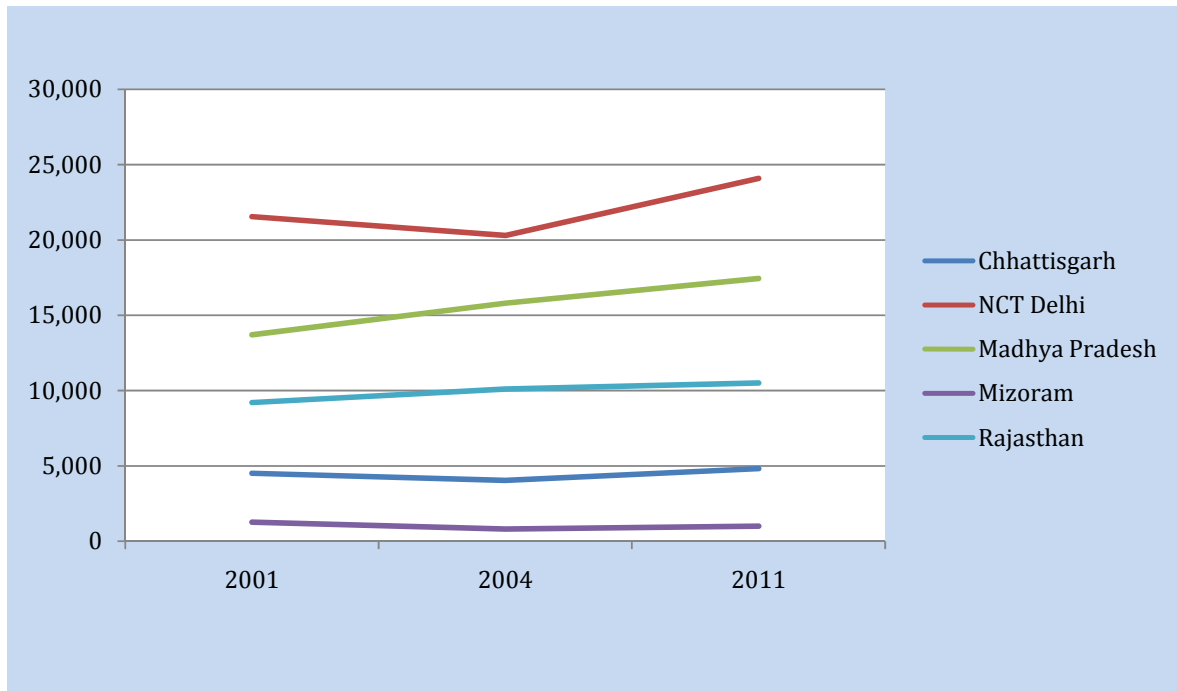
Crime is one of the strongest indicators for any study on urbanization. No urban landscape is complete without the provisions of security and the measure for its effectiveness is seen from crime figures. The data compiled here is taken from the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB), a branch of the government which monitors and records the activities of all security agencies in the country. While separate data is not available for rural vs. urban, data is available at the district-level. Taking into account the Indian urban average of 31% and using the Census 2011, urban centres within the states could be identified.

Crime in this report is divided into three major parts: (i) Physical Crime-which includes Dacoity, Burglary, Theft and Robbery, (ii) Personal Crime-which is an amalgamation of Rape, Murder, Culpable Homicide Amount to Murder, Violence against women and children etc., and (iii) Economic Crime which includes counterfeiting and cheating.

The numbers represented here are the cases that have been registered with police authorities in the different states. There are many cases which are not reported or registered and are not reflected in these graphs.

I Want What You Have

FIGURE I.7.1: Number of Registered Cases of Physical Crime

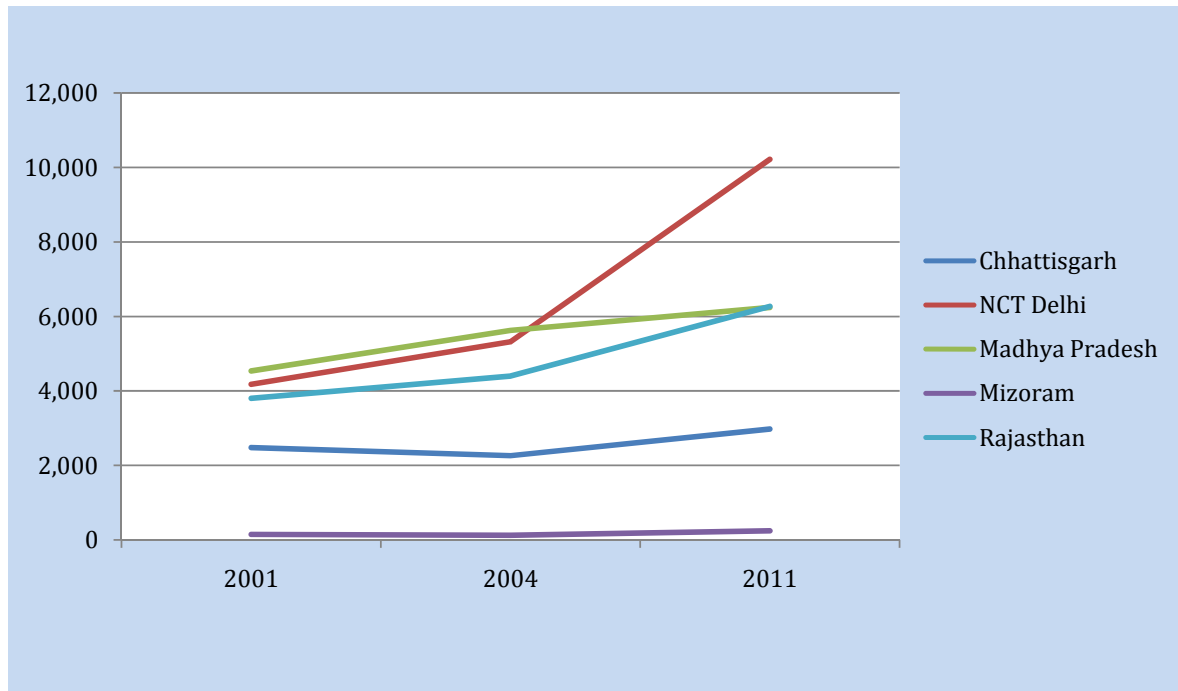


Source: NCRB

The number of cases registered of physical crime has risen for all states. Physical crime in Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh and Mizoram has risen at a slower pace than that in Madhya Pradesh and Delhi. In 2011 alone, Delhi reported 24,094 cases of physical crime, while Madhya Pradesh urban centres recorded 17,448 cases. While the number of cases can be correlated to the number of people in these urban centres, the sheer fact that Delhi and MP have more cases each than the other three states combined is an astonishing number to say the least.

Can't We All Just Get Along?

FIGURE I.7.1: Number of Registered Cases of Personal Crime

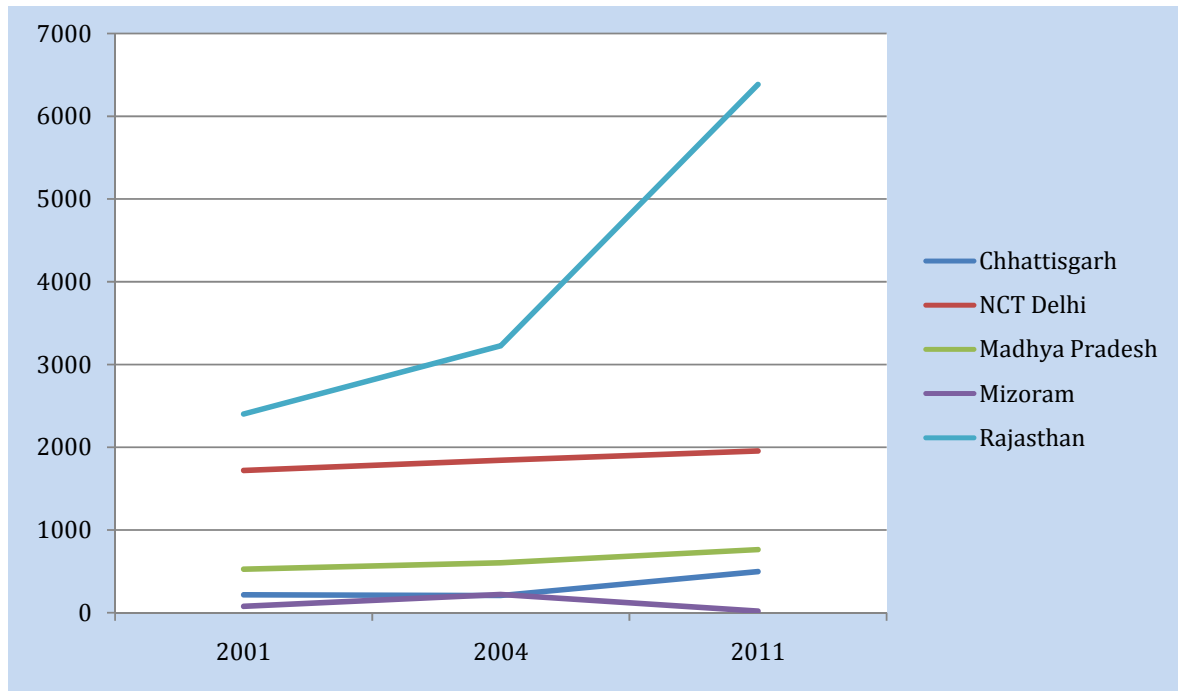


Source: NCRB

The sharpest increase in personal crime is seen in Delhi. In 2001, Delhi, much like states such as Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan recorded approximately 4,000 cases of personal crime. In 2011, while the numbers in Rajasthan have risen to 6,274 cases and in Madhya Pradesh to 6,245, Delhi had reported 10,220 such cases. Madhya Pradesh was the only state where growth rate of personal crime since 2004 slowed down.

Fool Me Once...

FIGURE I.7.1: Number of Registered Cases of Economic Crime

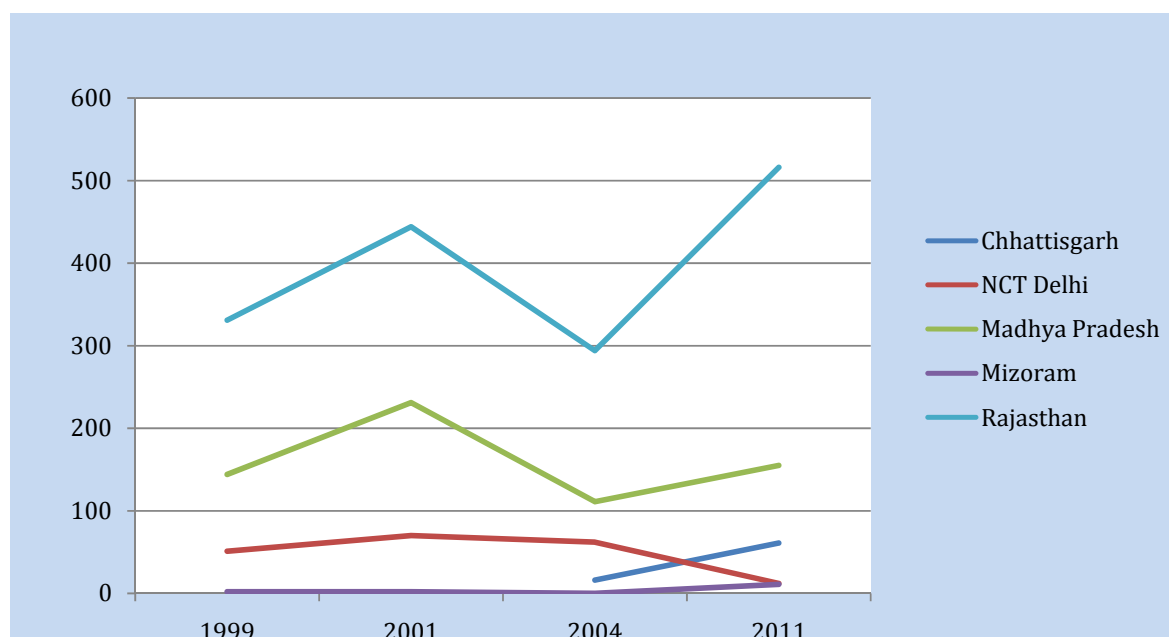


Source: NCRB

Rajasthan has not only always been the state with the highest incidence of economic crimes but the growth rate of these crimes has been the sharpest among the five states as well. From 2,402 cases in 2001, instances of economic crime in Rajasthan had increased to 6,385 cases by 2011. Even urban centres like Delhi did not see such high growth, growing from 1,720 cases in 2001 to 1,954 cases by 2011.

Under the Table

FIGURE I.7.1: Number of Registered Cases of Corruption



Source: NCRB

The numbers of cases registered on charges of corruption were again the highest in Rajasthan, which also saw a steep growth in the number of cases. In 2001, Rajasthan had recorded 444 cases of corruption, up from 331 in 1999. By 2011, the number had risen to as high as 516 cases. Madhya Pradesh, which witnessed the second most number of cases, actually displays a decrease from 2001 to 2011. Delhi, on the other hand, is the only state to have a declining growth rate, in which the number of cases of corruption has consistently been decreasing since 2001. From 70 cases in 2001, Delhi’s registered corruption cases only amounted to 12 in 2011. Chhattisgarh, which was not a state until 2000 did not have data available before 2004, but since then has experienced a 280% increase in corruption cases, going from 16 cases in 2004 to 62 cases in 2011.

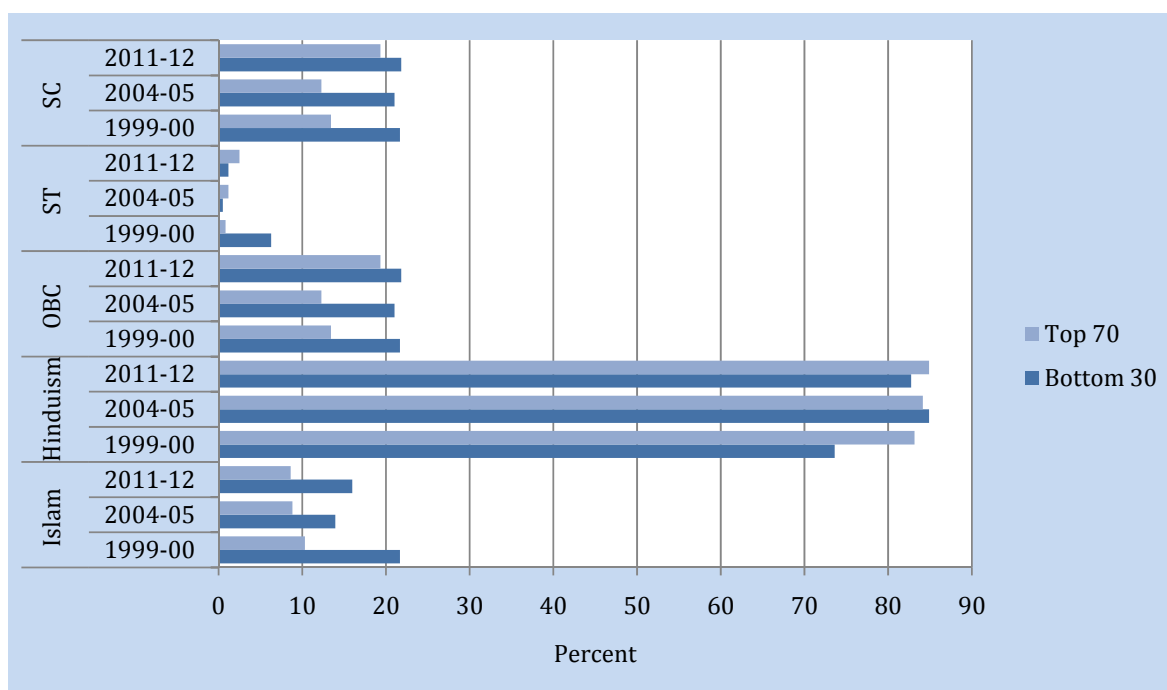
Section II: Intrastate Disparities

NCT DELHI

The Urban Population Picture

Social Composition of Economically Weaker Sections stable

FIGURE II.1.1.1: Social Structure of the “Bottom 30” and “Top 70” Percent of the Monthly Household Expenditure Distribution



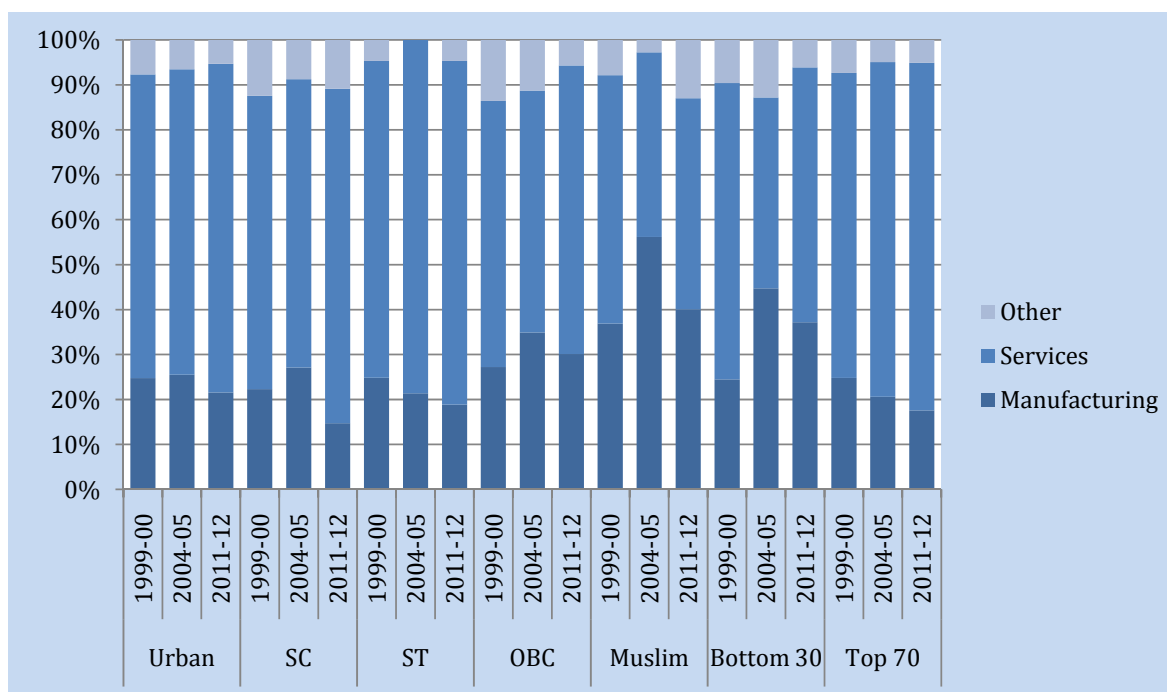
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Even though Delhi houses less than 5% of ST population, counter-intuitively, there proportionately are more STs in the Top 70 expenditure profile than in the Bottom 30. This is the only group which sees a switch from 1999-00 when a larger share was present in Bottom 30. With more than 20%, OBCs and SCs remain overrepresented in the Bottom 30 as was the case in 1999-00. The number of Muslims in the Bottom 30 (16%) in 2011-12 is significantly higher than their presence in the Top 70 (8.6%). Overall, the social structure of the Bottom 30 in terms of monthly household expenditure clearly reflects the well-known structure of the economically weaker sections of society, though the disproportionate share of minorities seems to be declining.

The Economy and Employment Picture

Decline of Manufacturing, Inclusive Growth?

FIGURE II.1.2.1: Structure of Employment by Type of Industry

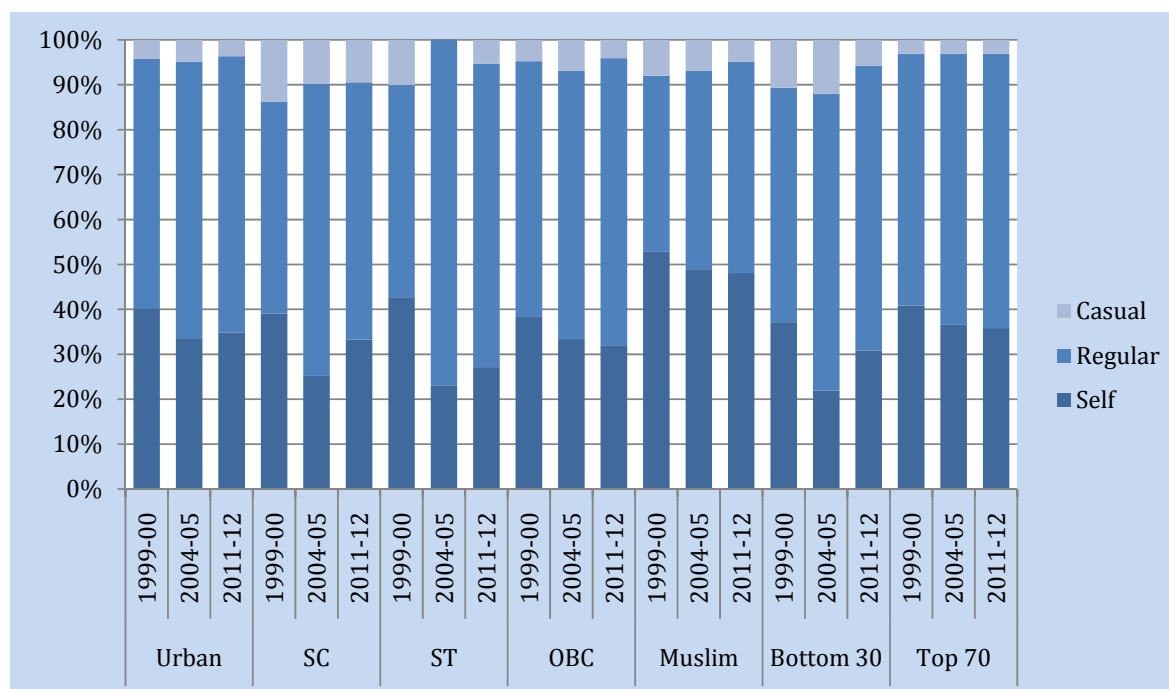


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Manufacturing in Delhi has been kept alive by Muslims, OBCs and more generally the Top 70. Proportionally more members of these categories have joined the manufacturing workforce from 1990-00 to 2011-12. Muslims consistently record the highest proportion within the community being employed in manufacturing, more than within any other socio-economic group in the city. However, an overall decline in manufacturing and shift towards services as experienced in other metropolitan areas can be witnessed in Delhi as well, which throws up the important question of where formal jobs requiring lower levels of skills will be created to support inclusive growth?

Regular Employment on the Rise in Delhi ...

FIGURE II.1.2.2: Structure of Employment by Work Status

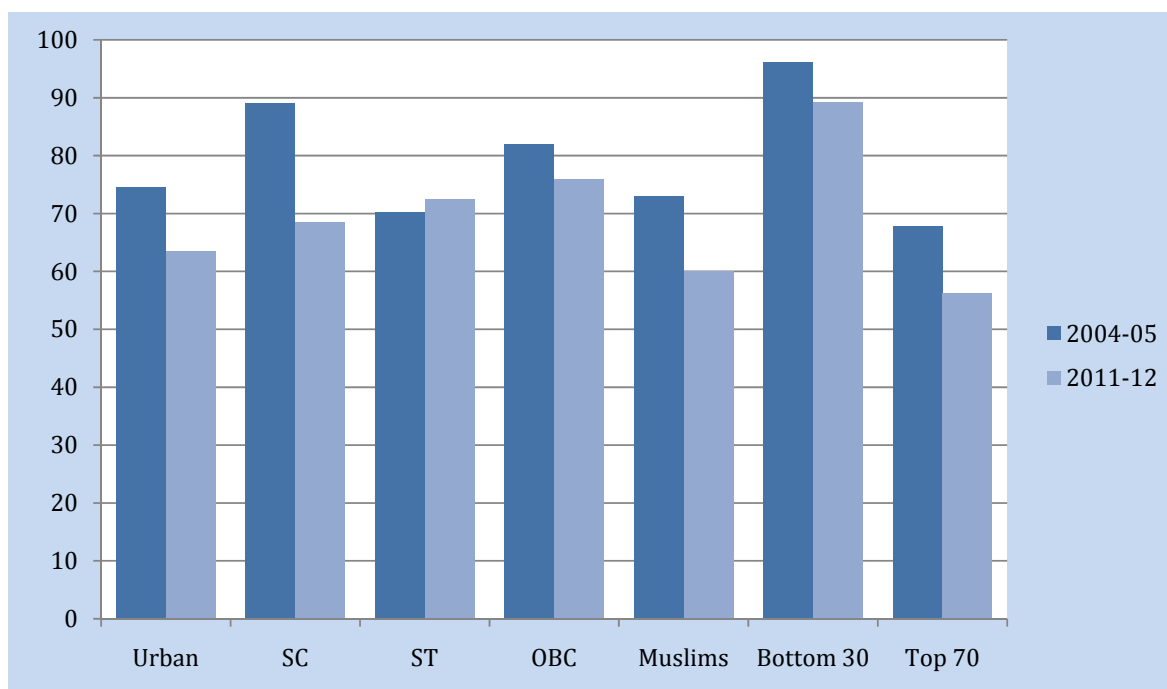


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The urban labour force of Delhi is switching from self-employment and casual labour to regular employment. Over the years, regular employment, which was already as high as 55.5% in 1999-00, jumped to 61.5% by 2011-12. Self Employment fell from 40.3% to 34.8% in the same period and causal labour, which had a small proportion to begin with, continued to decline. Thus a trend of “casualisation of the labour force” does not occur in Delhi.

... but more than 50% of Urban Population without written Job Contracts

FIGURE II.1.2.3: Percentage of Workers without a written Job Contract

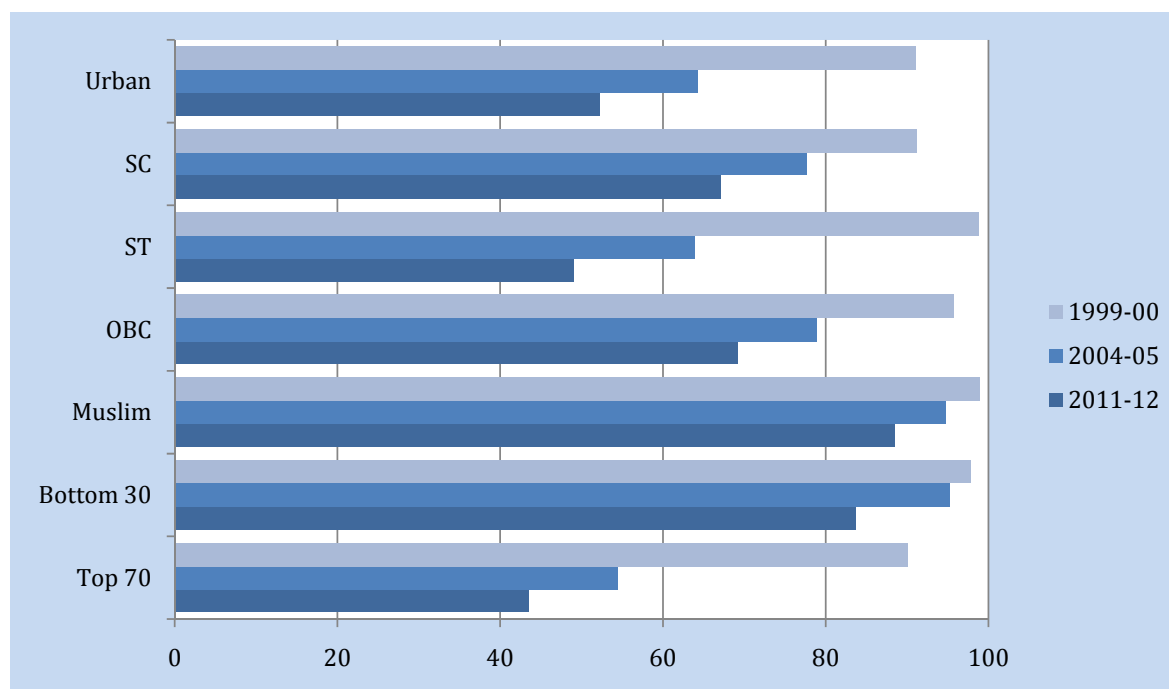


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The majority of the working population in Delhi does not have written job contracts. Within all social and religious groups, the number of people without written job contracts outweighed those with written contracts. For example, among the Bottom 30% of the urban population of Delhi, 89% were without written job contracts. While the numbers have decreased for most groups except STs since 2004-05, the proportion without written contracts is still significantly high.

Muslims and Bottom 30% left behind

FIGURE II.1.2.4: Percentage of Workers not eligible for Social Security Benefits



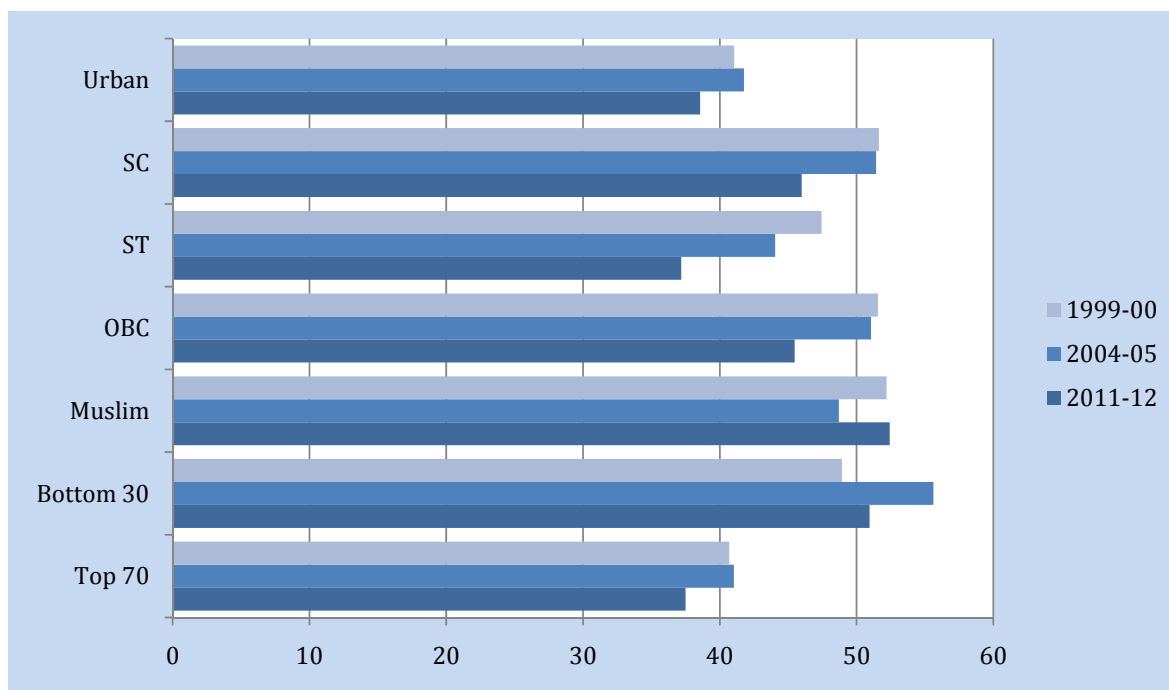
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

A remarkable increase in those eligible for Social Security Benefits (SSBs) is seen in the ST community of Delhi. In 1999-00, only 2% of the community was eligible for SSBs, but in 2011-12 the figure stands closer to 55%. The increase in eligibility for SSBs can be observed in all social and religious groups in Delhi, though ineligibility for Muslims still remains very high. The expansion of SSBs for the Bottom 30 though is only about 16% while the coverage for the Top 70 shows an increase of 45 percentage points.

The Consumption and Assets Picture

Full Stomachs, Empty Wallets

FIGURE II.1.3.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure on Food Items

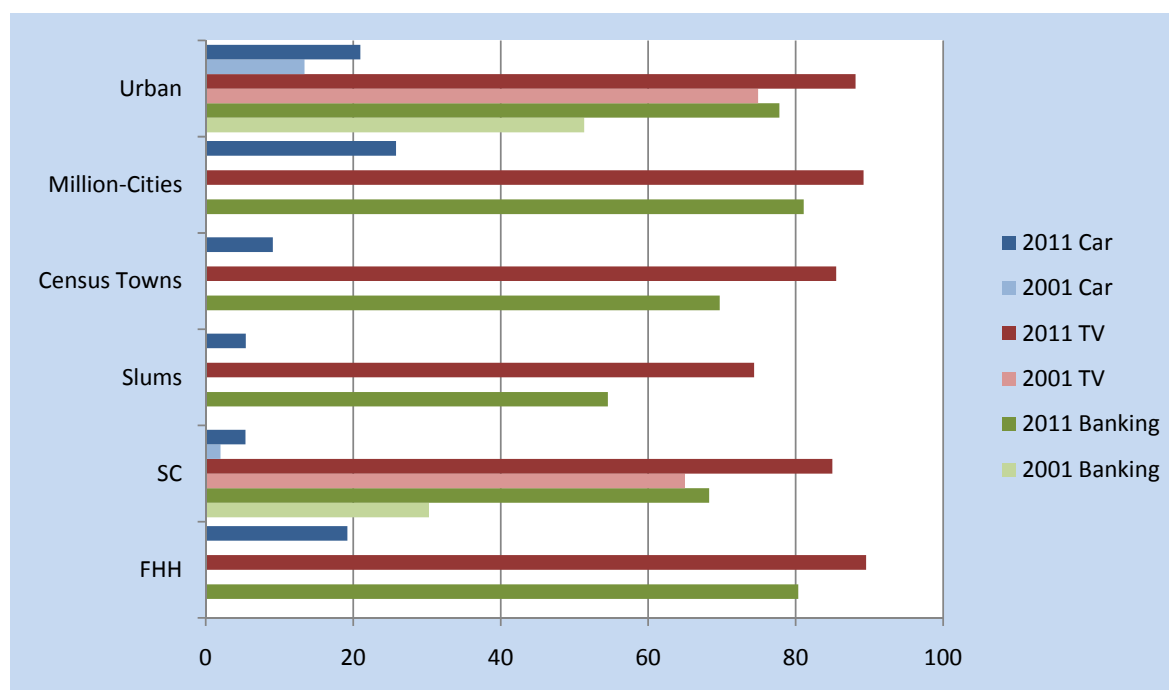


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Households in Delhi spend close to 40% of monthly household expenditure on food. SCs, STs, OBCs and the Top 70 spent less in 2011-12 than they did in both 1999-00 and 2004-05. While the percentage of monthly household expenditure spent on food among the Bottom 30 has increased since 1999-00, it was highest in 2004-05. Muslims have the highest percentage of monthly expenditure spent on food among all groups of Delhi in 2011-12.

Rising Access to Information, formal Financial Services and Individual Mobility

FIGURE II.1.3.2: Percentage of Households availing Banking Services and owning a Car and TV 2001-2011



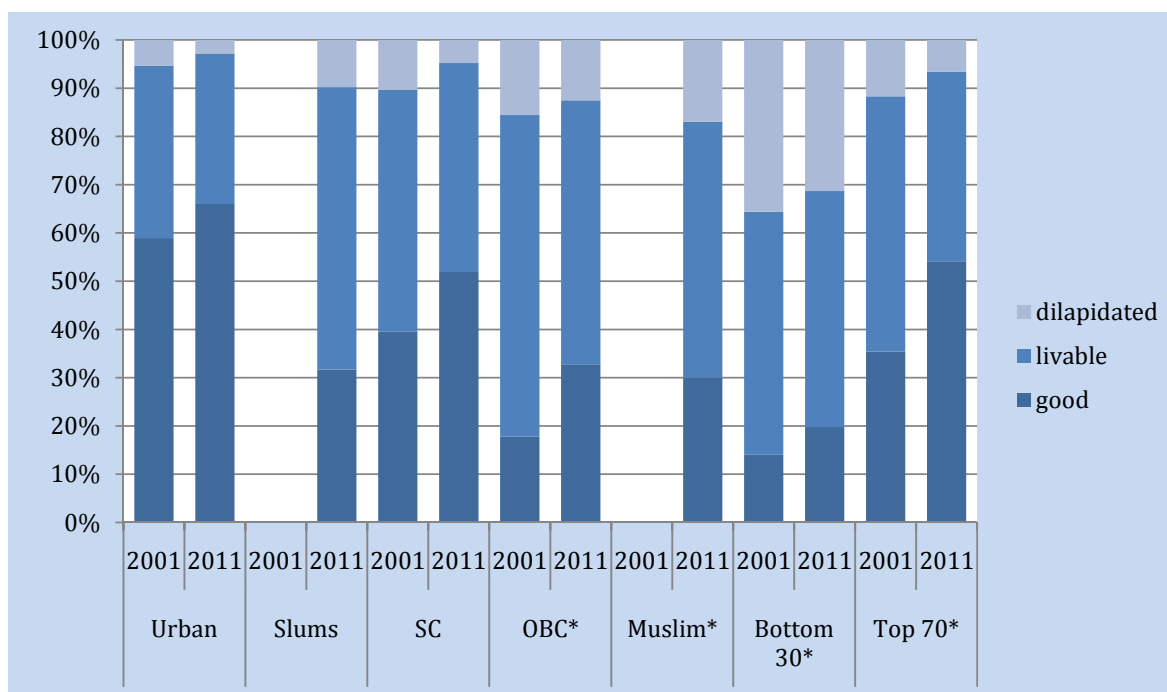
Source: COI 2001, 2011; FHH: Female-headed Household

According to the 2011 Census, more than 80% of urban households own a TV, more than 70% avail of banking services and 20% own a car. TV ownership is highest in all categories, even 74.4% of households in slums own a TV. Surprisingly female-headed households (FHH) constitute the highest number in TV ownership, showing 89.6% households with a TV. Female-headed households also are one of the highest in availing banking services (80%). The overall picture shows that access to information and access to formal financial services are on an upward trend. Considering the important issues of equality in access and integration into formal financial systems, this can be seen as a good sign esp. for the poorer sections of the urban society. On the other hand, steeply rising levels of individual mobility by car are already and will be an even greater concern for Delhi's future traffic scenario.

The Housing, Infrastructure and Services Picture

Haves and Have-nots

FIGURE II.1.4.1: Subjective Housing Condition, 2001 & 2011

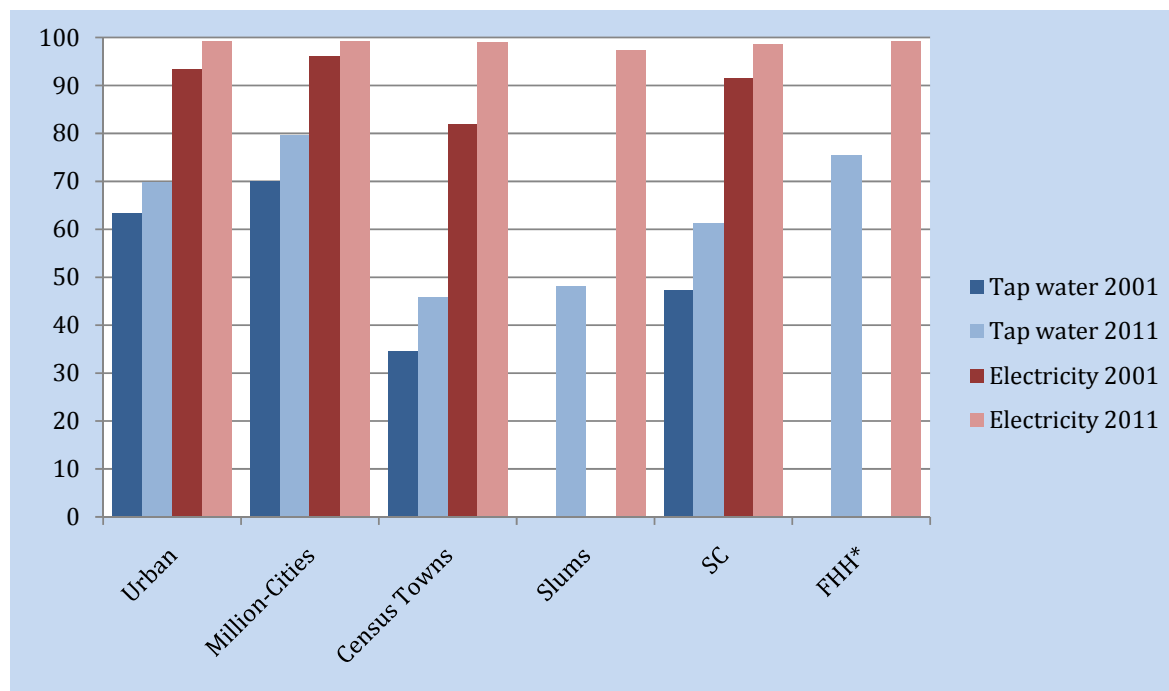


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9)

It has to be emphasized that these numbers reflect a subjective evaluation of the housing condition. Certainly the category “livable” has completely different meanings for e.g. the Slum and Top 70 population. Requirements with reference to the living environment or the notion of amenities differ considerably between these two sections. But an overall trend of better housing conditions seems to be visible, esp. a shift towards the “good” category. Nonetheless, disparities between the haves (Top 70) and have-nots (Bottom 30) have been increasing.

Powered Up but Parched

FIGURE II.1.4.2: Percentage of Households with Access to Tap Water and Electricity within Premises

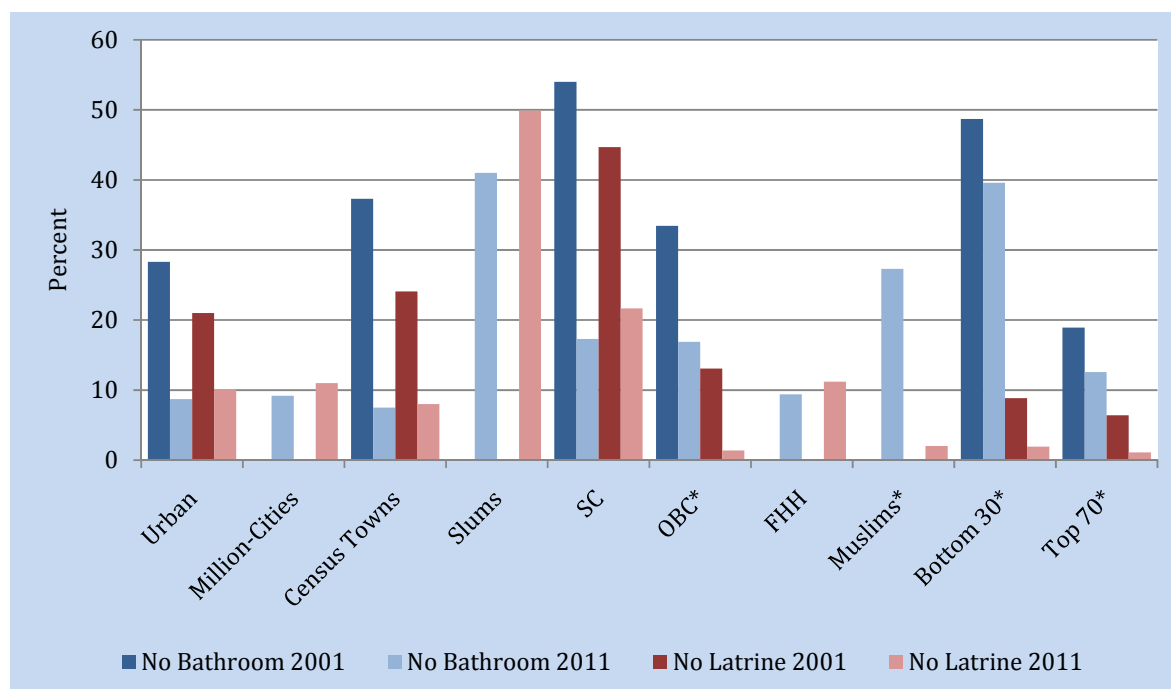


Source: COI; * Female-Headed-Households

99% of urban Delhi has access to electricity, up from 93% in 2001. Across the board, access to electricity has consistently been high. But access to tap water has remained considerably low, that too significantly lower than access to electricity. Census towns in 2001 reported less than 35% of households with access to tap water. That number increased to a paltry 46% after an entire decade, though of course a substantial number of new Census Towns has been added to the Delhi Urban Agglomeration. Less than half the people living in slums have access to tap water even today while 96% of them have access to electricity. But the surprising trend is for Female Headed Households (FHH). Not only do these households rank highest with respect to access to electricity, they are relatively highly ranked on access to water as well. Overall, electricity is now nearly comprehensively available, but even though some progress has occurred, there is still a huge backlog in the provision of safe drinking water esp. in Delhi's peripheral areas. Of course it cannot go unmentioned that access to electricity and drinking water does not say anything about sufficient quality and quantity.

Relief for Relievers

FIGURE II.1.4.3: Households without Bathroom and Latrine within Premises



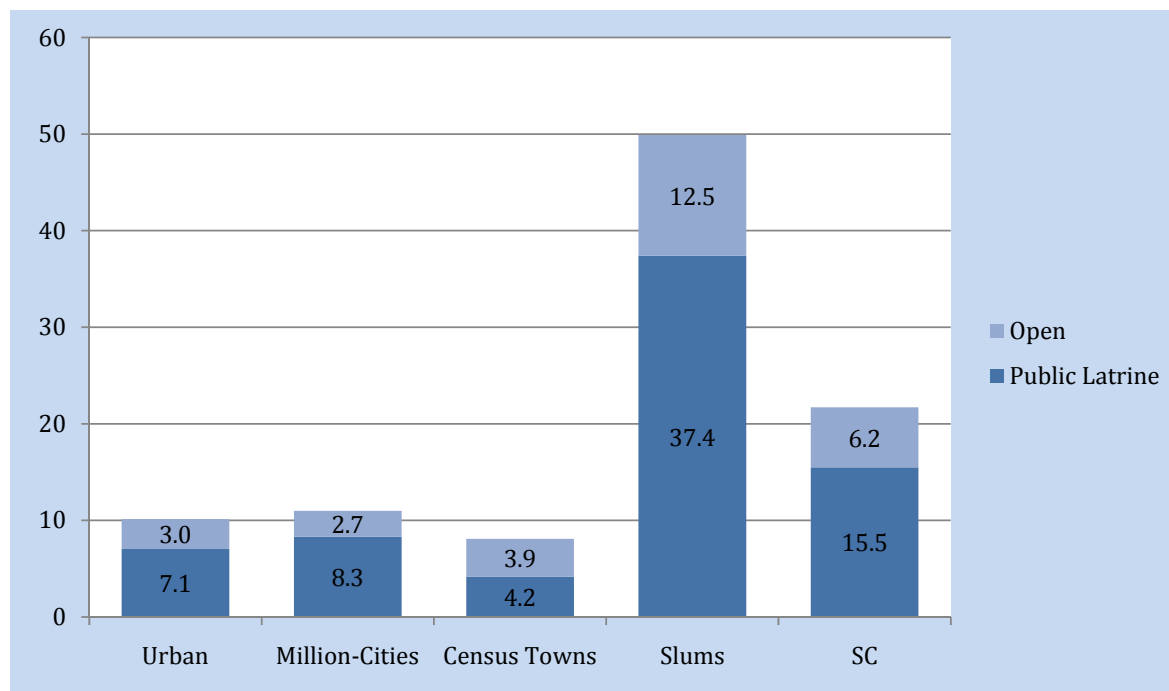
Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

A great example of both urbanization and the rise of the middle-class is the increase in numbers of attached bathrooms and latrines available to the household of any given city. Delhi is an example of such an upward movement showing a decrease in both households with no attached bathroom or no attached latrines within their respective premises. Muslims and the Bottom 30 show higher percentages of households still without bathrooms, while SC and Slum communities show higher percentages of households without latrines.

As is the case with provision of tap water (see before), some progress is detectable. Yet some numbers and social divisions remain alarmingly high. And one question might be asked: How much of the progress in these basic facilities and services topics did occur by resettling thousands of slum- or jhuggi-dwellers to the far outskirts of Delhi, thereby improving the overall statistics for more central areas of Delhi?

All Out in the Open

FIGURE II.1.4.4: Alternative Provision for Households without Latrine as Percentage of Total Urban Households in the respective Category, 2011

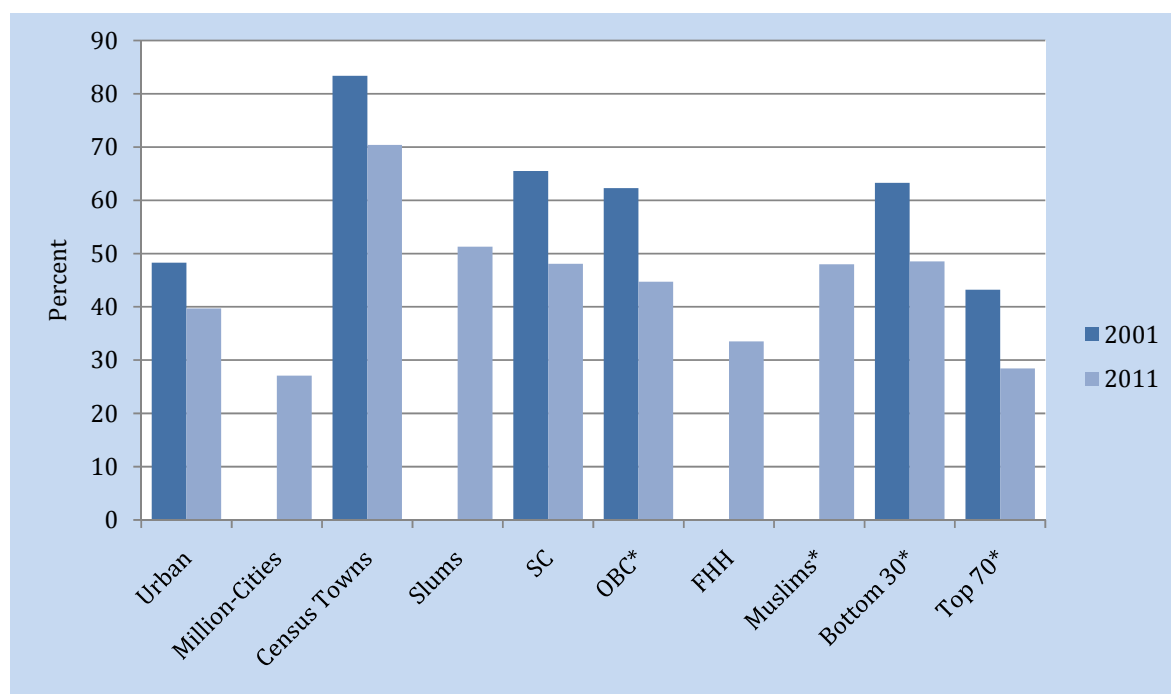


Source: COI 2011

Open defecation is still prevalent even in cities like Delhi. Three percent of all urban Households still use open areas as an alternative to proper latrines. This number might sound very small, but it still represents around 100,000 households. Given a conservative household size of four, this is equivalent to a medium-large dignity-deprived city! However, the provision of public alternatives seems to be functioning in Delhi: Nearly seven percent of all urban households, representing 70% of all households without a private latrine, use public provisions for their needs. Slum households, which in the previous graph showed a large percentage without access to either attached bathrooms or latrines, mostly use public facilities for their needs. 12.5% of the slum population also use open areas for their purposes, the highest among any category within the urban structure of Delhi. The gap between public and open alternatives to a private latrine seems small, but in terms of absolute numbers, a lot more needs to be done.

No Drain, Just Pain

FIGURE II.1.4.5: Households with Open or No Drainage Connection

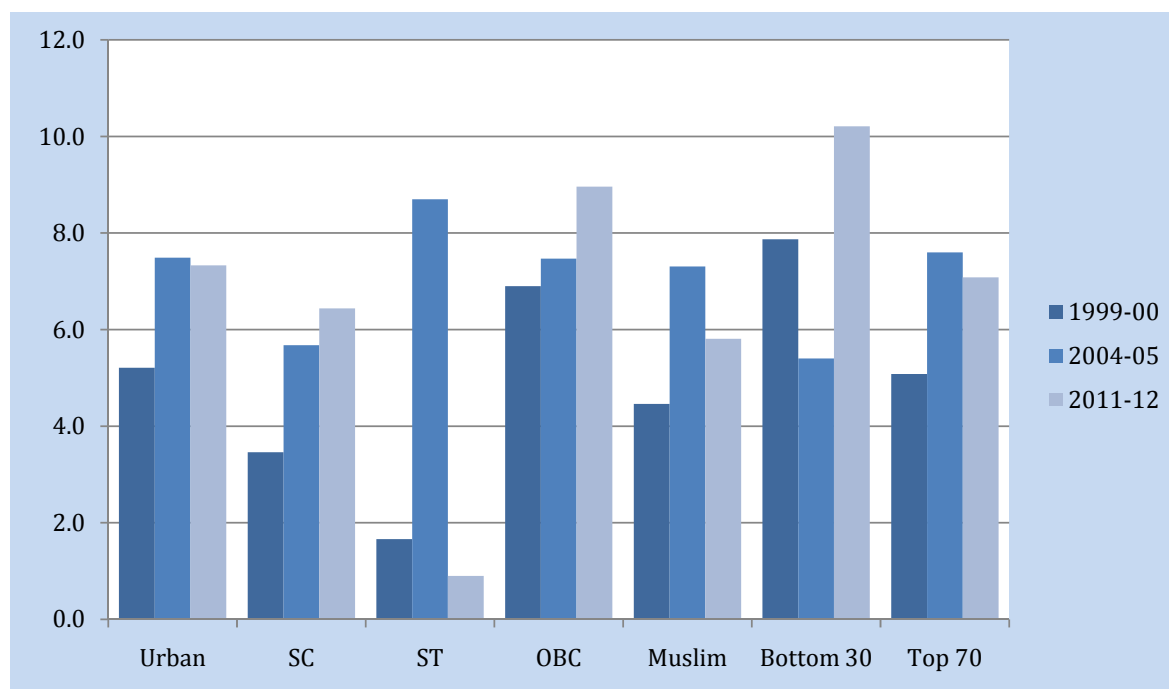


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

Drainage systems are an important indicator of urban development as it determines the overall sanitary condition of the city to a large extent and thereby is highly positively correlated with public health. Looking at the numbers, yearly outbreaks of Dengue and other water-borne diseases do not come as a surprise. 40% of all urban households still lack a proper and covered drainage connection, the number standing at 70% for the inhabitants of Delhi’s more than one hundred Census Towns not governed by a municipal administration. Important progress has been achieved showing a decrease in every segment of the society, but the pain of having no or open drains still hurts the Delhi urban population.

More Spent on Rent

FIGURE II.1.4.6: Percentage of Household Expenditure on Rent



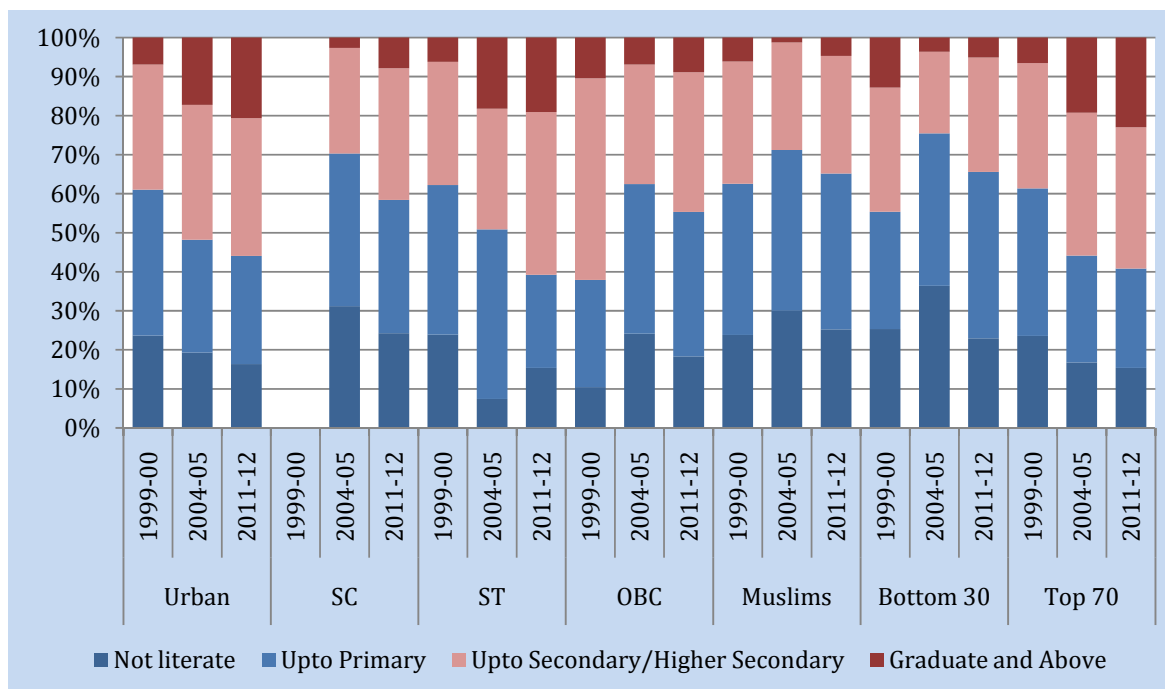
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The percentage of monthly expenditure on rent has increased from 1999-00 to 2011-12 for all urban segments except for the ST community which now spends less than one percent of their monthly expenditure on rent as compared to closer to two percent in 1999-00. The steep rise and a level of monthly expenditure on rent of more than ten percent of total monthly expenditure (together with food more than 60%) for the Bottom 30 of the urban population does raise the question as to what extent the fruits of economic, let alone inclusive growth in the form of more disposable income for the consumption of goods and services have trickled down to the lower income groups.

The Education Picture

Delhi's Getting Smarter

FIGURE II.1.5.1: General Educational Level

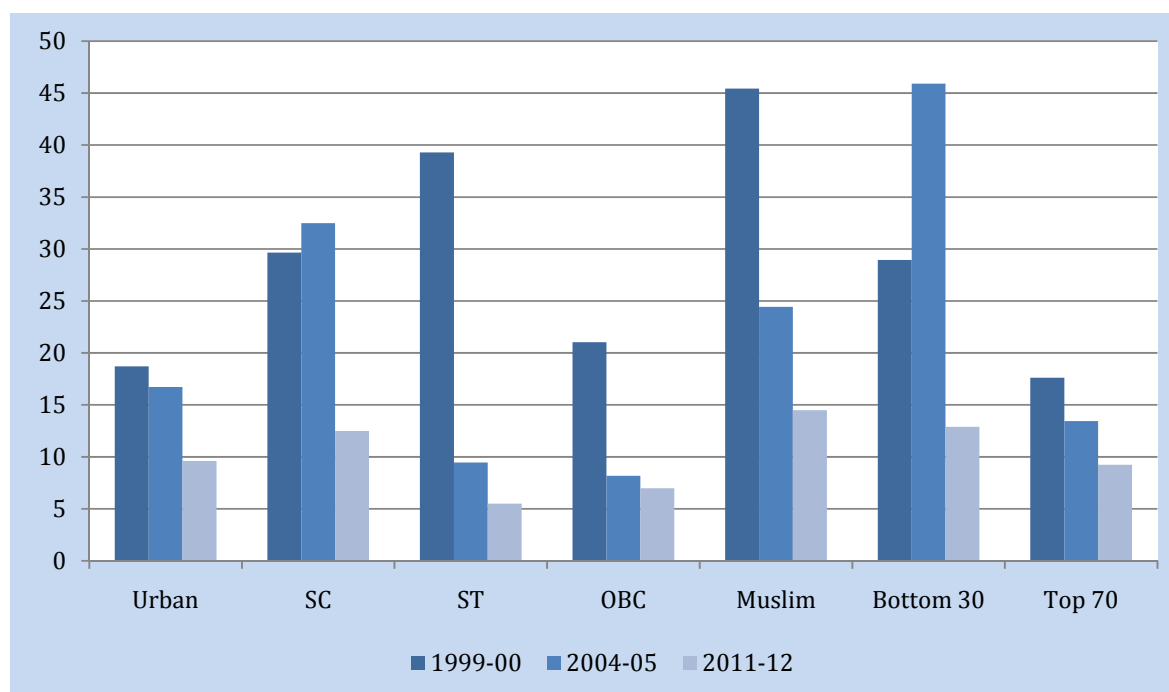


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The Delhi urban population is getting smarter. Since 1999-00, the percentage of illiterates has decreased dramatically and at the same time, the proportion of graduates and above has increased tremendously, most visible within the ST and Top 70 sections. The percentage of graduates and above within the ST category has nearly tripled in the last ten years, from 6.2% in 1999-00 to 19.1% by 2011-12. The Top 70 population has seen a similar rise going from 6.5% to 22.9%. However, OBCs in Delhi show a drop in the proportion of people with an education level up to secondary/higher secondary from 51% in 1999-00 to a mere 35.8% by 2011-12. The same worrisome trend of increasing proportions with no or only basic education in the last decade is seen among Muslims and more broadly among the Bottom 30. Are these sections of the urban society left behind? Does this reflect inequalities in access-opportunities to education, or does a different socio-regional structure of immigration distort the overall picture?

Delhi is Cool, Stays in School

FIGURE II.1.5.2: Percentage in Age-Group 5-18 currently not attending an Educational Institution

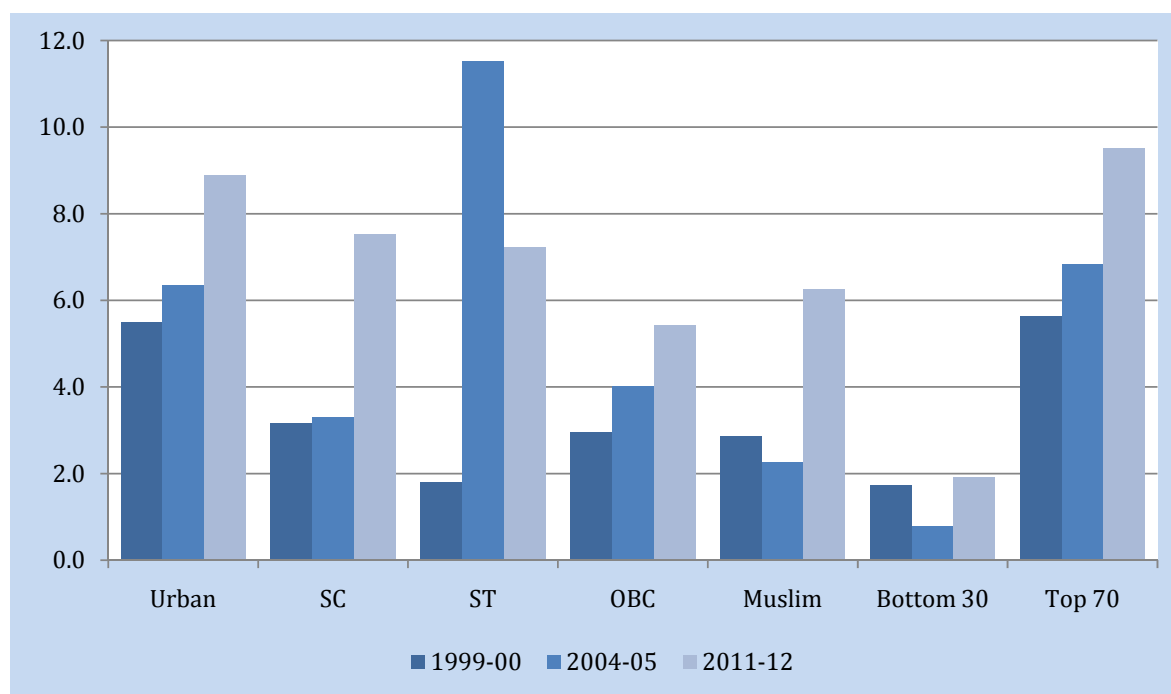


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The urban category presents an overview of the school attendance trends for individuals falling in the age group of 5 to 18 years. In the last decade, Urban Delhi has experienced a welcome plummet in the proportion of individuals currently not attending any educational institution (19% to 10%). Similar trends can be observed across all vulnerable groups in terms of social groups (SCs, STs, OBCs), in terms of religion (Muslims) and in terms of expenditure (the Bottom 30 expenditure group). While SCs witnessed a slight hike in the non-attendance rate in 2004-05, the fall in 2011-12 has more than compensated for it. This is true for individuals in the Bottom 30 category as well. An interesting point is the dramatic decline of non-attendance rate in the case of STs from 1999-00 to 2004-05 (39% to 9%). Ironically, the non-attendance proportion for the Bottom-30 and Top-70 expenditure groups are almost at par (13% and 9% respectively). This demonstrates that school attendance is an issue affecting all sections of the society. However, one may take heart in the fact that the situation is indeed moving in a favourable direction.

Priceless Education

FIGURE II.1.5.3: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Education



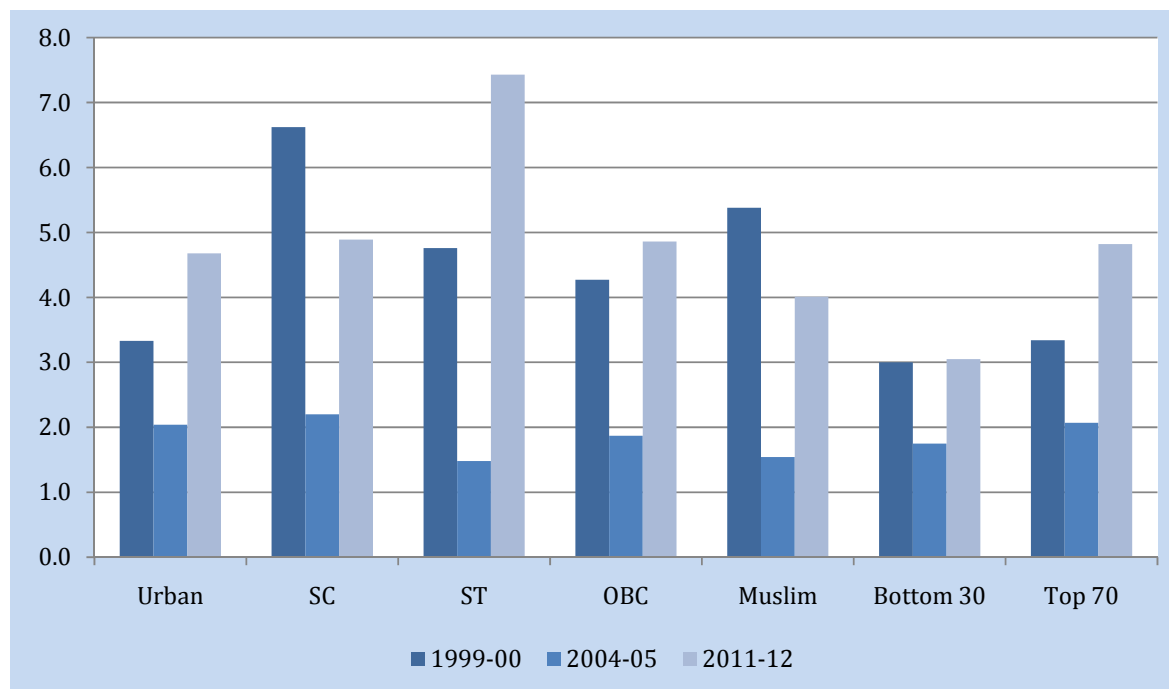
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Though education itself may be priceless, there certainly remains a price for receiving education. The price of education in Delhi is increasing, where households are spending larger percentages of their monthly expenditure on education. According to the NSS, every category across Delhi shows an increased percentage of monthly expenditure on education since 1999-00. On the whole, urban residents of Delhi spend four percentage points more in 2011-12 than they did in 1999-00. Among the various social groups, the ST population has experienced a sharp rise in the proportion of total expenditure allocated to education from 2% in 1999-00 to 7% in 2011-12. In terms of division as per expenditure, those in the Top 70 segment pay a large proportion of their income on education (10%). However, the proportion of expenditure allocated to education in the Bottom-30 expenditure category has been stable in the past decade (2%).

The Health Picture

An Apple a Day...

FIGURE II.1.6.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Health



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

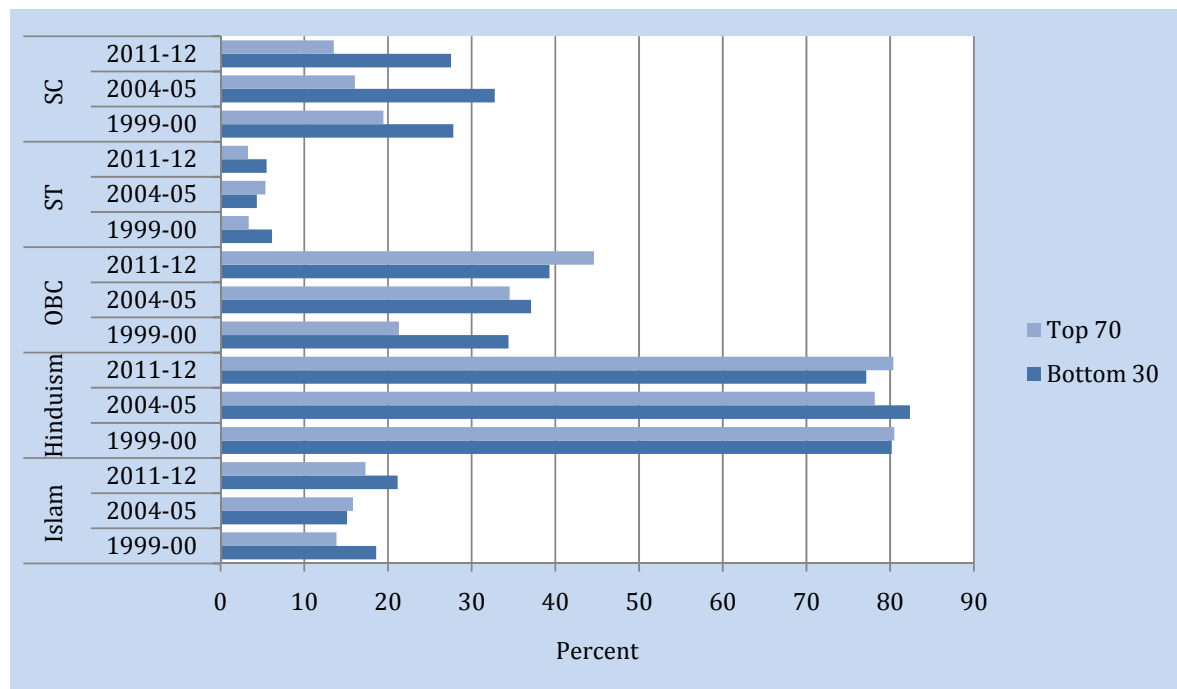
... appears to be working for the residents of urban Delhi. As the urban category shows, the expenditure on health as a percentage of the total monthly expenditure has increased by a minimal 1% (from 3.3% to 4.7%). SCs have experienced a slight decline of 1%. In the case of OBCs, the percentage has remained almost the same. The experience of STs seems to be interesting. Their proportion of expenditure on health has increased by two percentage points from 1999-00 to 2011-12. Muslims have been allocating more or less the same amount on health. In case of the Bottom-30, proportion of expenditure has remained the same (3%). The top-70 expenditure group have allocated 2% more on health. Overall, health care in Delhi is either quite cheap or very less valued across all sections of the society.

RAJASTHAN

The Urban Population Picture

The Changing Minority

FIGURE II.2.1.1: Social Structure of the “Bottom 30” and “Top 70” Percent of the Monthly Household Expenditure Distribution



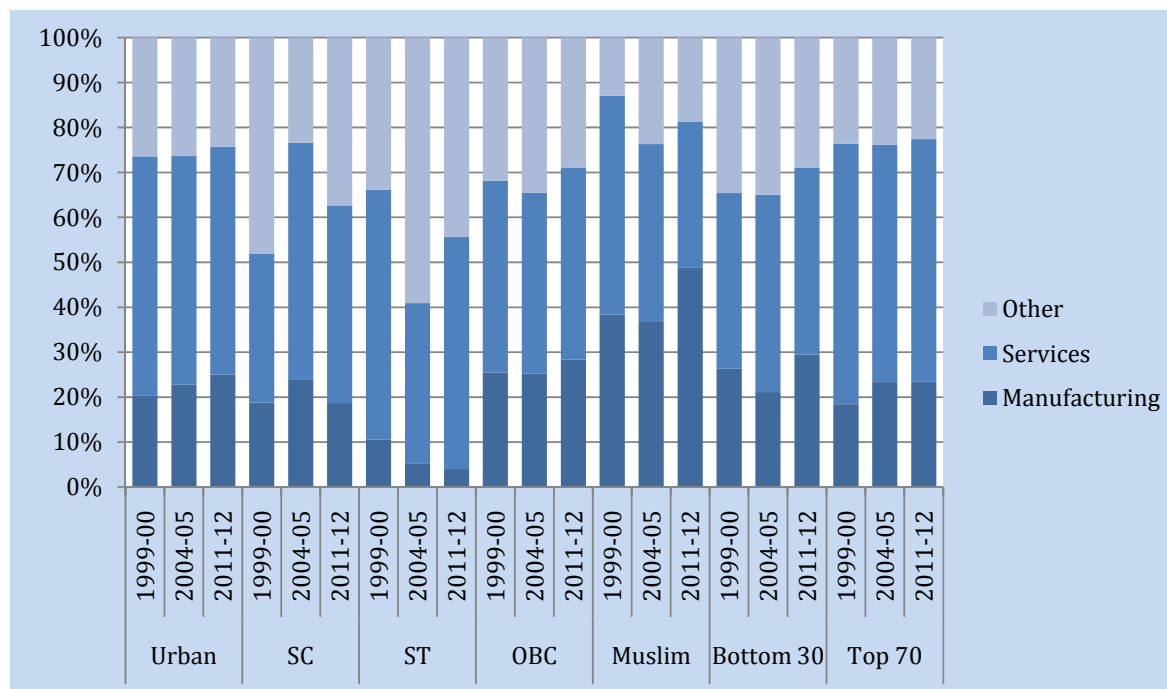
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

While the traditional socio-structural composition of the economically weaker sections holds true in the case of Rajasthan, with a disproportionate share of SCs, STs and Muslims making up the Bottom 30, a distinctive feature of the desert-state is that OBCs in 2011-12 showed a higher percentage in the Top 70 bracket than in the Bottom 30, completing a reverse shift from being disproportionately overrepresented in the Bottom 30-category in 1999-00. This most likely reflects the recent additions and changes in the State’s OBC-list and reservation policy.

The Economy and Employment Picture

Rajasthani Hospitality

FIGURE II.2.2.1: Structure of Employment by Type of Industry

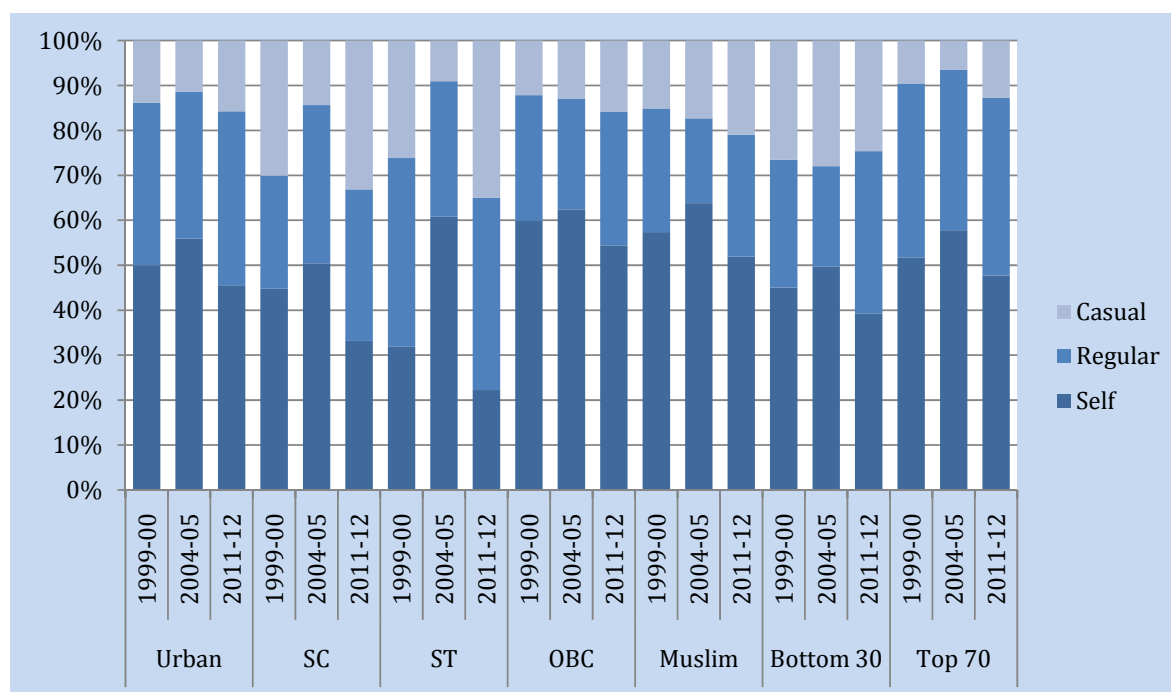


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Muslims in Rajasthan have consistently been the one segment with the highest proportion of workers in manufacturing. In 2011-12 nearly 50% of the entire urban Muslim community was employed in this sector. The state though, known for its tourism across the country and in most parts of the world, is a service oriented state. The proportion of people employed in the services sector has been substantially higher than that in both manufacturing and other sectors for all social and expenditure groups. At an average, nearly 50% of urban Rajasthan is employed in services. However, manufacturing seems to be gaining momentum in urban Rajasthan. This is evident from the rise in the total urban proportion employed in the manufacturing industry.

Self-Service

FIGURE II.2.2.2: Structure of Employment by Work Status

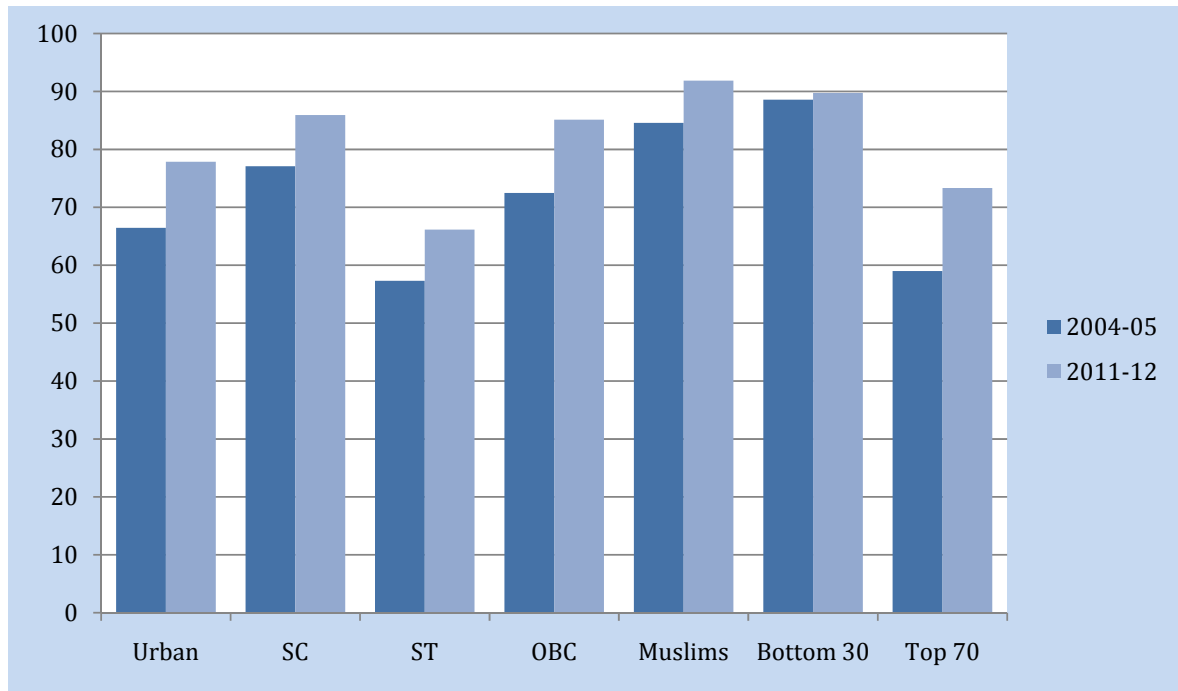


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Self-employment in urban Rajasthan currently stands at 46%, which is higher than both regular and casual. As can be seen in the graph, this is a feature that has been consistent for the past decade, both at an aggregate level and across the various divisions. An interesting aspect to be noted is the change in the employment structure of STs. While the proportion of self-employed remains high, there is a trend of expansion in casual employment. Notwithstanding the large share of self-employed, the declining trend of being self-employed is mirrored in all socio-economic groups. However, the shift from self-employment towards regular employment is overshadowed by a “casualisation of labour” in all categories but the Bottom 30.

A High Level of Trust?

FIGURE II.2.2.3: Percentage of Workers without a written Job Contract

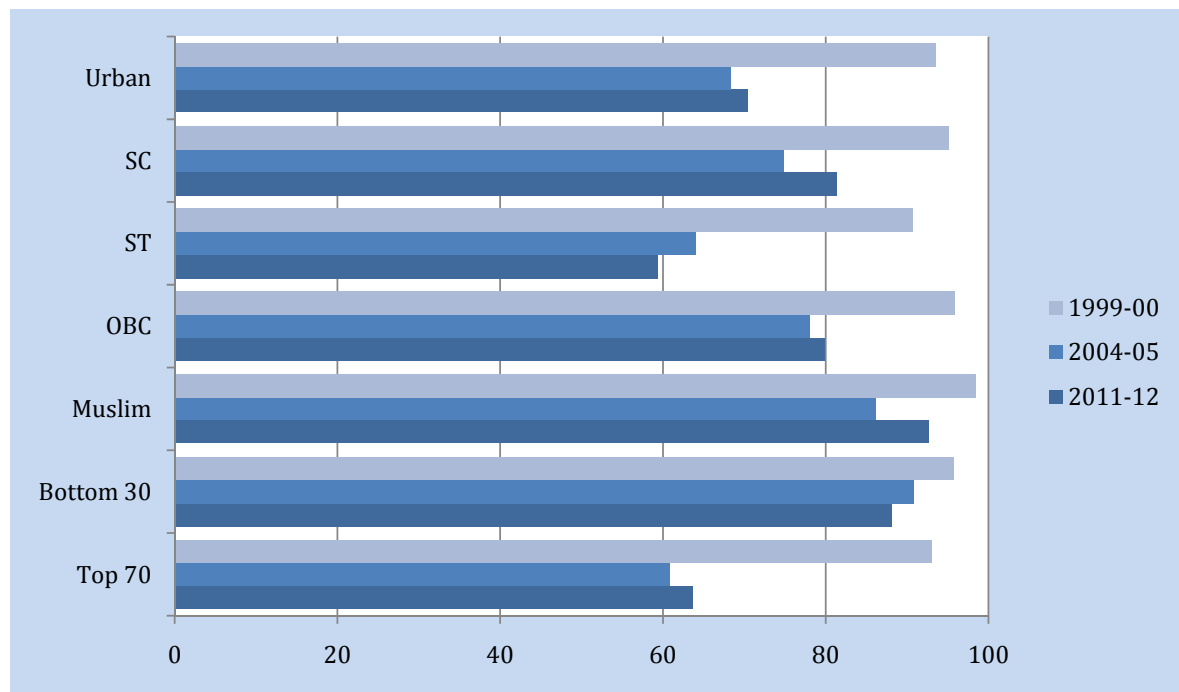


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

As seen before, the service-sector dominated economy of Rajasthan is characterised by a slight increase in manufacturing jobs as well as a shift from self- towards regular and casual employment. Even when taking the ongoing process of “casualisation of labour” into account, the steep increase in the proportion of workers without a written job contract has to come as a surprise. More so as all socio-economic categories follow this trend, particularly the Top 70. Is this a sign of an increasing “informalisation” of the economy? Or would the unavailable data for 1999-00 have shown a different trend?

Secured

FIGURE II.2.2.4: Percentage of Workers not eligible for Social Security Benefits



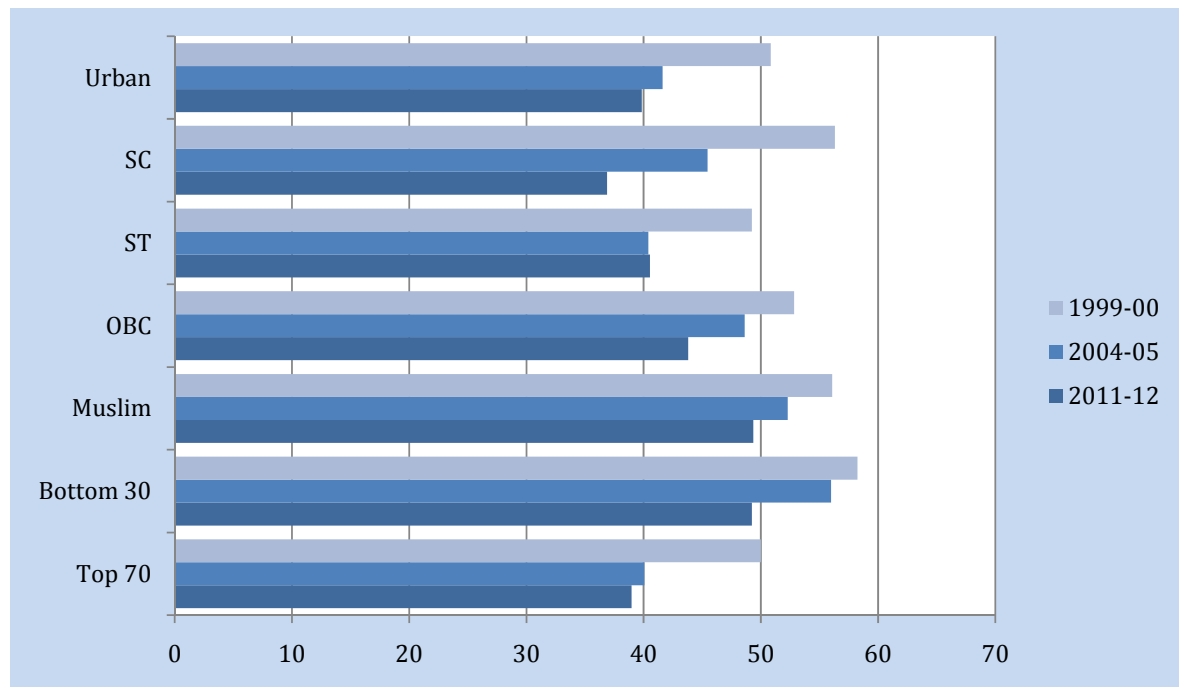
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

While no written job contracts may be on the rise, a correlating indicator for the trend of shifting towards regular contractual employment is the increasing percentage of workers eligible for social security benefits. In 1999-00, on average 85% of urban workers in Rajasthan, regardless of social, religious or expenditure brackets, were ineligible for social security benefits. By 2011-12 this proportion has decreased significantly, e.g. as low as 59% for STs. But minorities such as Muslims, SCs and more broadly the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket still have figures above 80% in ineligibility. Declines in other categories like OBCs, STs and Top 70 have brought the urban average down from a whopping 93% to 70%. Still a lot of ground to be covered.

The Consumption and Assets Picture

Eating into their wallets

FIGURE II.2.3.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure on Food Items

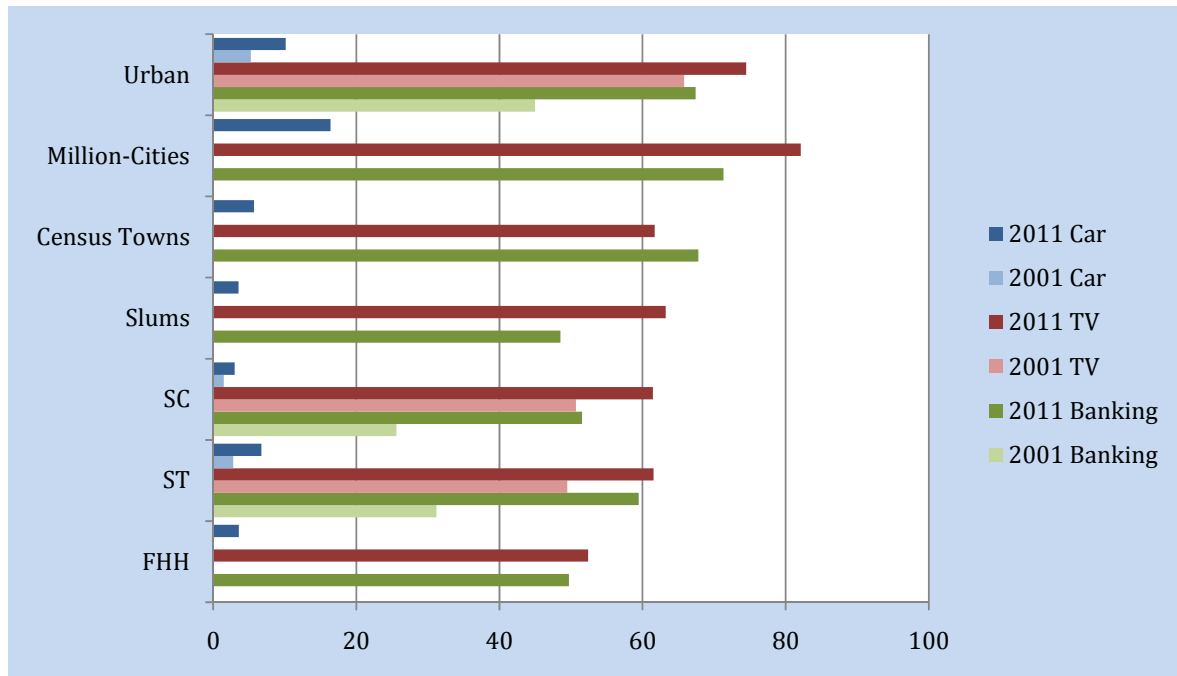


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The percentage of monthly household expenditure on food items has decreased significantly in Rajasthan. This trend can be witnessed across all socio-economic categories, with SCs experiencing the steepest decline from more than 50% down to below 40%. However, Muslims still spend proportionally more on food than other social groups. The gap between the lower- and higher expenditure-sections, though seemingly narrowing down, stands at nearly ten percentage points.

Keeping up with the Jones'

FIGURE II.2.3.2: Percentage of Households availing Banking Services and owning a Car and TV 2001-2011



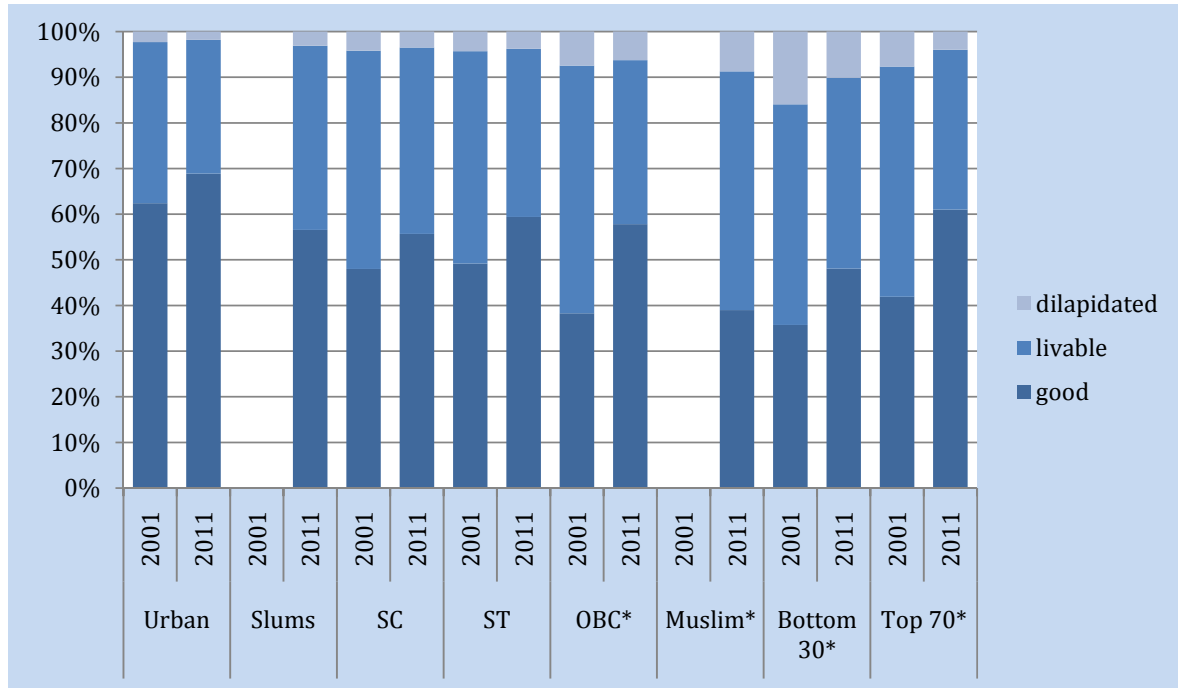
Source: COI 2001, 2011; FHH: Female-Headed-Households

TV and car ownership for households in urban Rajasthan are on the rise. Access to information and mobility of the urban population is booming in the state with an average of 75% of urban households owning a TV, and 10% having a car. But the more important indicator to gather is the increase in the use of banking services that has shot up tremendously for various social segments. For example, whereas in 2001 only three out of ten ST households had access to formal banking services, the proportion has risen to nearly 60% in 2011. Similarly households in the SC segment, of which only 25% used banking services in 2001, showed a decadal increase of 26 percentage points in the use of banking services, underscoring the important developmental progress in the form of financial inclusion of large segments of the urban society.

The Housing, Infrastructure and Services Picture

Home sweet Home

FIGURE II.2.4.1: Subjective Housing Condition, 2001 & 2011

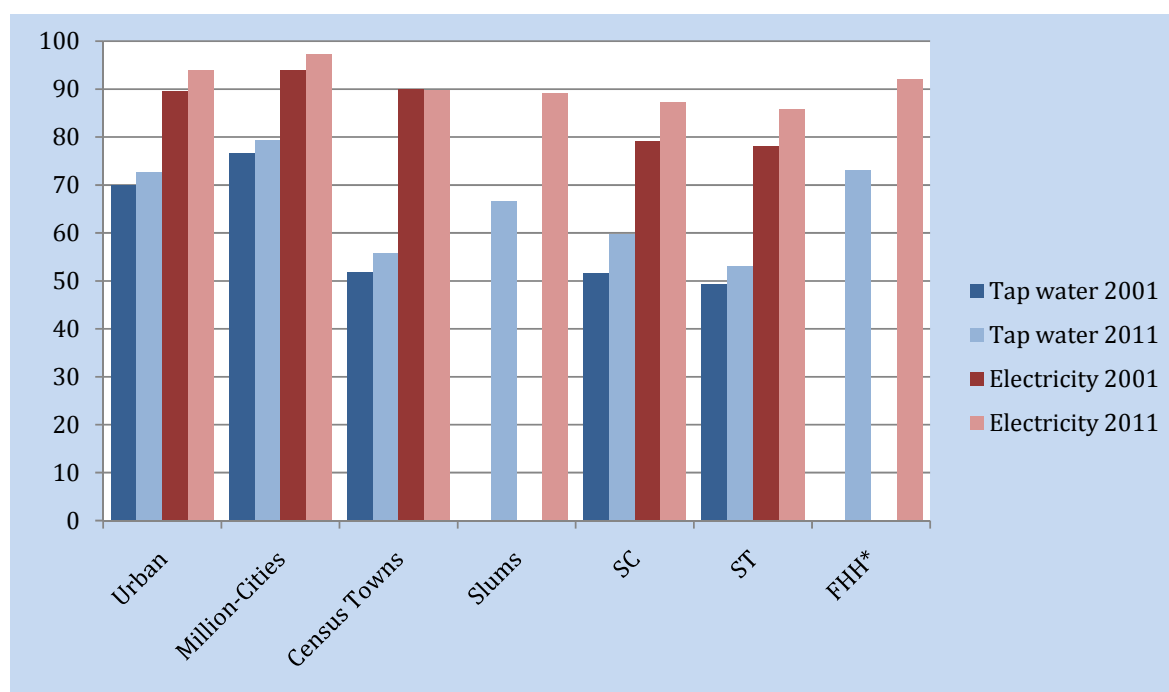


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9)

Overall housing conditions in Rajasthan seem to be improving. A rising percentage of the “good”-category is visible across all social and economic groups for which two data points are available. However, the surprisingly good assessment of housing conditions in urban slums does put the data quality in question. Overall, Muslims seem to experience the least favorable housing environment.

The Lit Up Urban Desert

FIGURE II.2.4.2: Percentage of Households with Access to Tap Water and Electricity within Premises

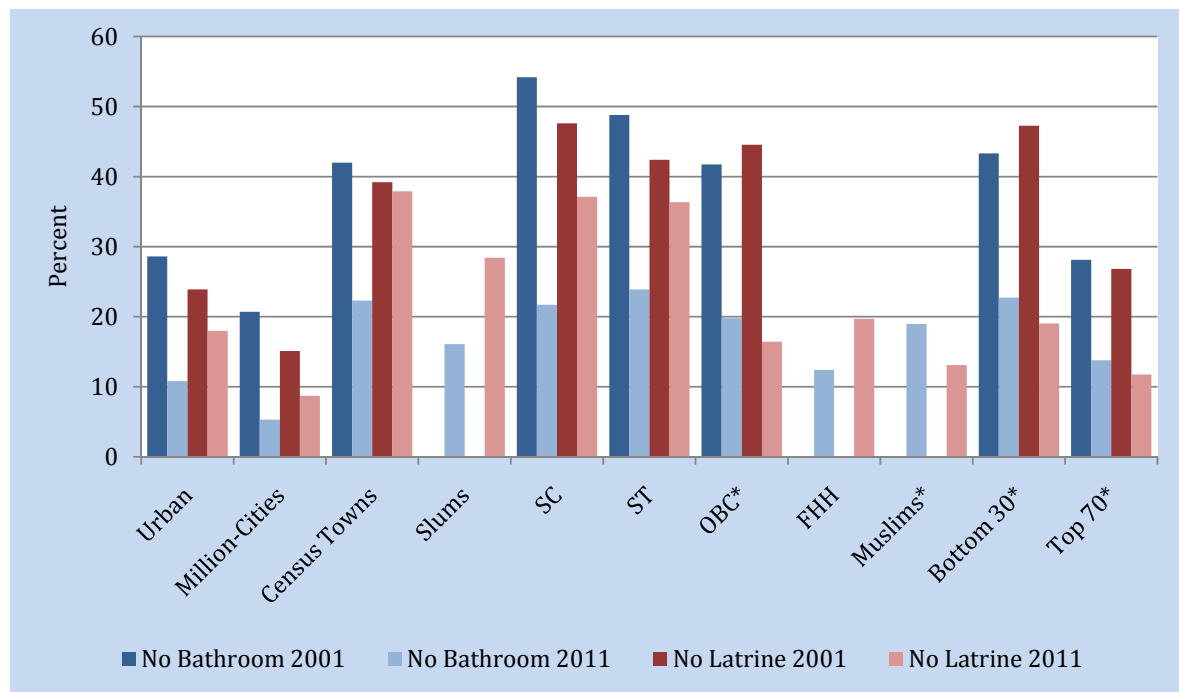


Source: COI; * Female-Headed-Households

Households with access to electricity are on the rise in the state of Rajasthan. With 93.9% of the urban population having an electricity connection, the state of Rajasthan is surely electrified. Yet the same cannot be said about urban households' access to tap water. More than a quarter of the total urban population does not have tap water within their premises. While some progress has been achieved, considerable disparities prevail between the metropolises and the smaller Census Towns, and SCs and STs in urban areas though improving still have a score far below the urban average in terms of access to safe drinking water. While the urban population may be lit up, the lack of access to tap water is keeping the desert pretty dry.

Please Find Attached

FIGURE II.2.4.3: Households without Bathroom and Latrine within Premises

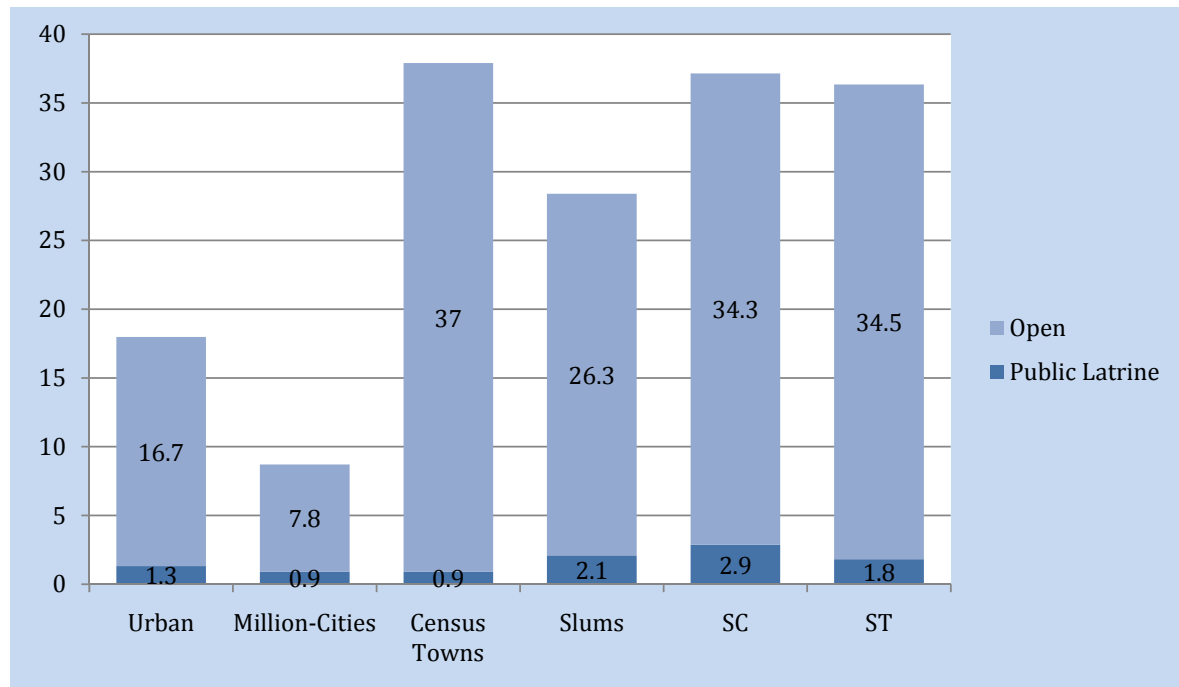


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed Household

An attached bathroom or latrine within one’s own premises may be something that most people take for granted but in 2001, in some social segments of Rajasthan’s urban society, this was a simple luxury. The percentage of households with no bathroom or no latrine within premises in 2001 reached levels as high as 54% and 47% for households in social segments like STs, SCs and OBCs but have since come down considerably by 2011. However, progress has been uneven: While disparities between social and economic groups have been nearly closed in terms of private bathrooms, having a latrine within premises is still a distant future for nearly four out of ten SC and ST households in urban areas. The staggering difference between the million-cities and Census Towns provides an indication of the enormous tasks ahead in terms of urban housing conditions.

Nature's Call in Nature

FIGURE II.2.4.4: Alternative Provision for Households without Latrine as Percentage of Total Households in the respective Category, 2011

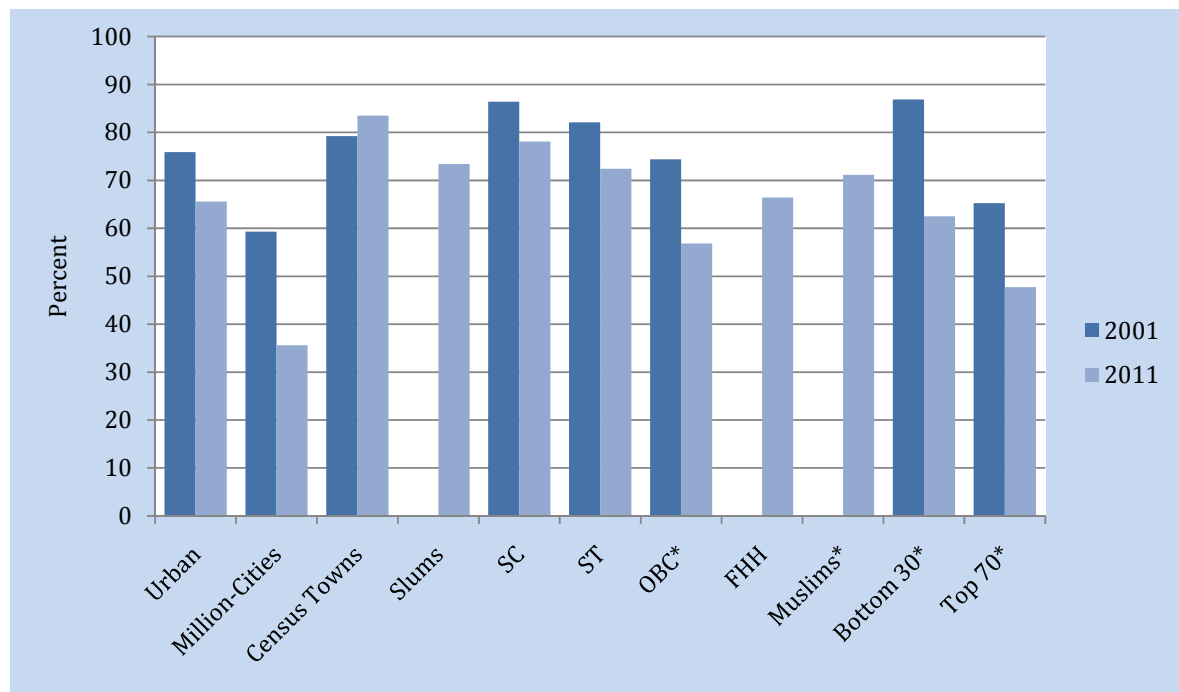


Source: COI 2011

The most commonly used alternate provision for urban households without latrines in Rajasthan is open area. In Census Towns, 37% of all households living in these quasi-towns use open areas for their daily needs. The high percentages for SC, ST and Slum-households in general display a dismal urban picture, and the lack of usage of public latrines points to a general failure of urban administrations in this respect. Overall, more than 500,000 urban households in Rajasthan live with inadequate sanitary conditions.

What's the need of a Drain where there is no Rain?

FIGURE II.2.4.5: Households with Open or No Drainage Connection

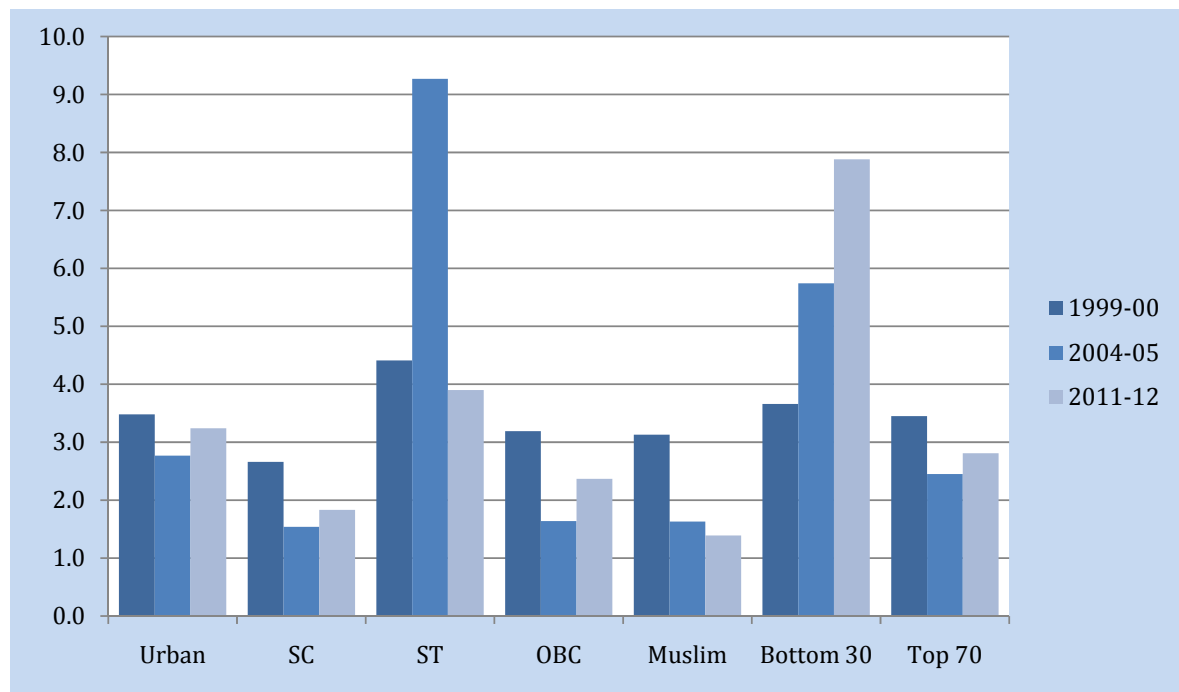


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9)

Since 2001, households with open or no drainage connection has certainly reduced in Rajasthan but with numbers still as high as 82% in Census Towns, the conditions are far from ideal. Other than million-cities and the Top 70 bracket which depict numbers below 50%, households in all other socio-economic segments of society showed more than 50% with open or no drainage connection. Despite considerable developmental progress, significant disparities remain between and within urban areas. Rajasthan may not be a monsoon-prevalent state, but that cannot be an excuse for the high numbers of open or no drainage connected households.

High on Monthly Expenditure (Home)

FIGURE II.2.4.6: Percentage of Household Expenditure on Rent



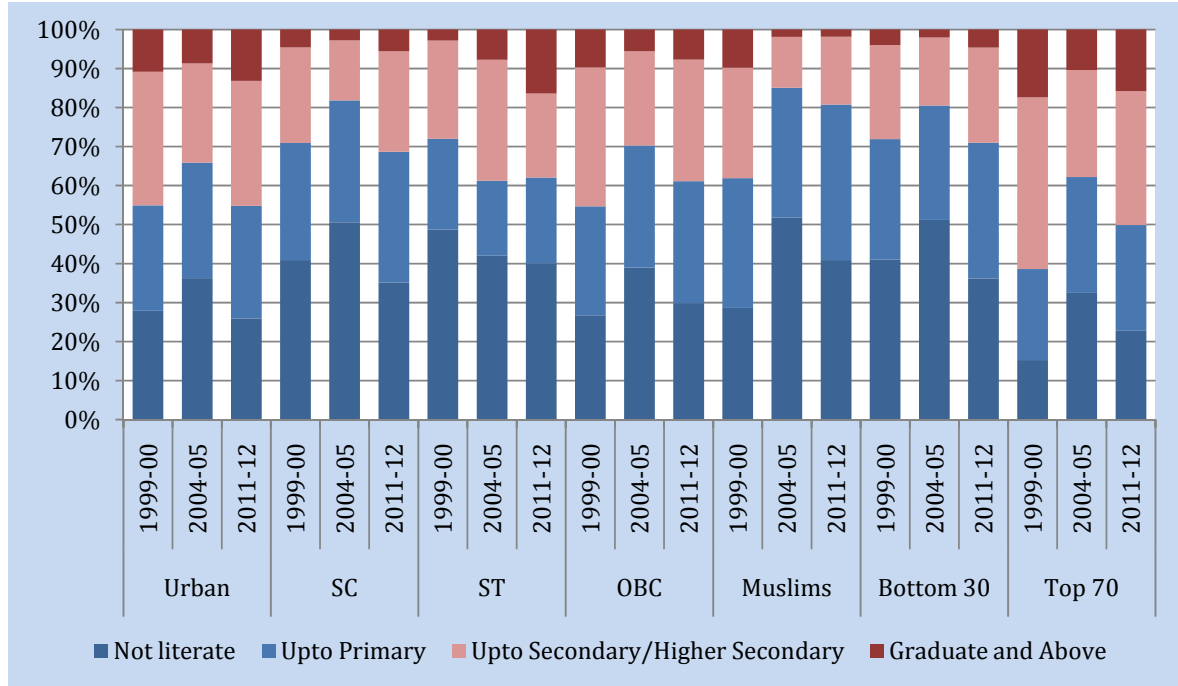
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Monthly expenditure on rent seems to be decreasing in Rajasthan, except for those who need it most. The Bottom 30 expenditure bracket has to spend dramatically more on rent per month than it had to in the previous years. At nearly 8% of total monthly expenditure, these households are paying a large chunk of their monthly income just to have a place to live. The disparity in expenditure level and opposite trend between the Bottom 30 and Top 70 is striking.

The Education Picture

Thumb Print Please (*Angutha Chaap*)

FIGURE II.2.5.1: General Educational Level

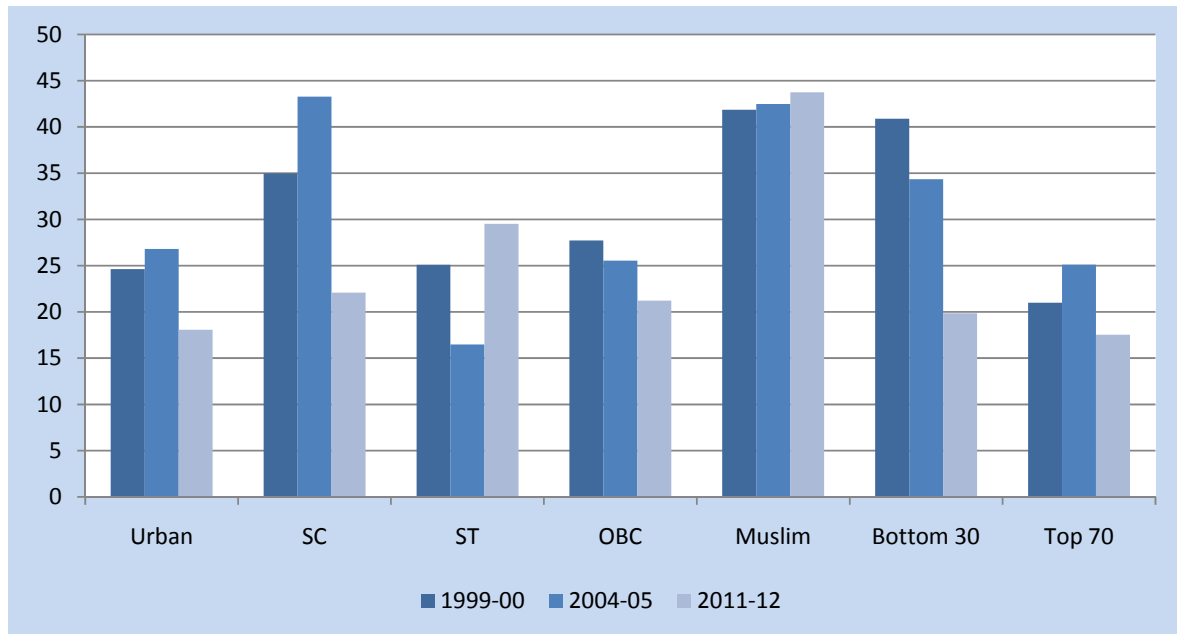


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Large numbers of illiterates are a characteristic of most of the socio-economic segments chosen for this study. The overall urban educational structure remained largely stable during the last decade, displaying only a slight increase in graduates and above. Slow progress and prevailing low educational qualifications in the urban areas of Rajasthan and esp. among SCs and Muslims have to be seen as a cause for concern.

Present!

FIGURE II.2.5.2: Percentage in Age-Group 5-18 currently not attending an Educational Institution

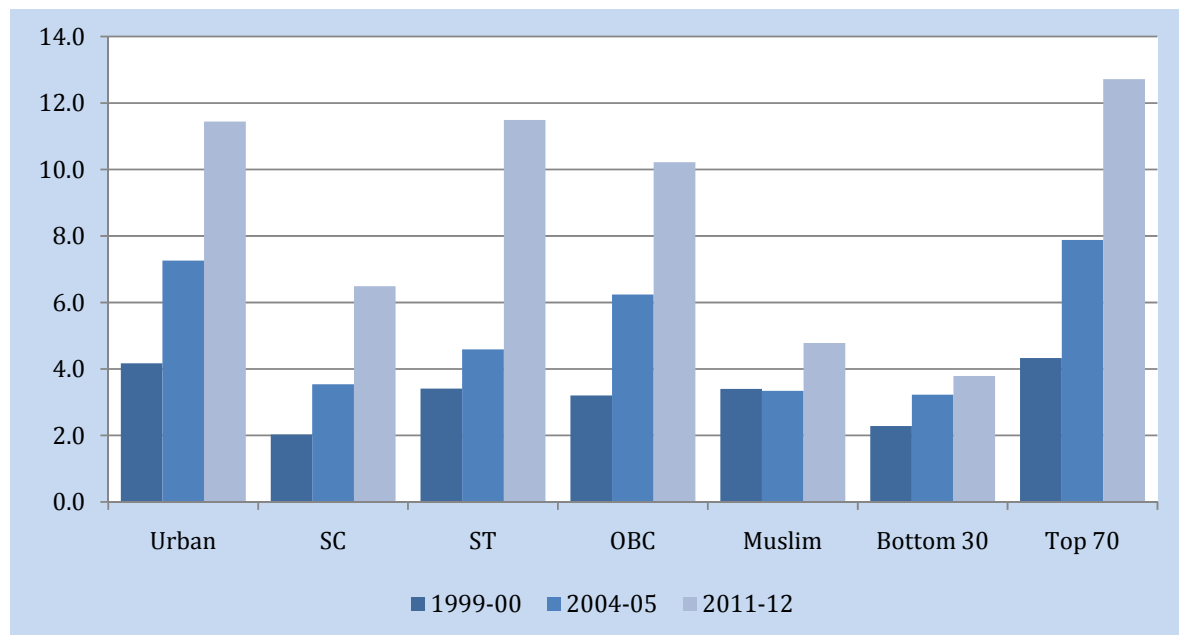


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The percentage of children in the age group 5-18 not attending any educational institution has been steadily decreasing in urban Rajasthan. Other than STs and Muslims who have witnessed an increase in absence-rates, the proportion of children in other socio-economic communities not attending any institution has been steadily declining, most notably in the general low-income category and specifically among SCs, thus narrowing disparities between different social groups and income segments.

RTE: Rajasthan's Taxing Education

FIGURE II.2.5.3: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Education



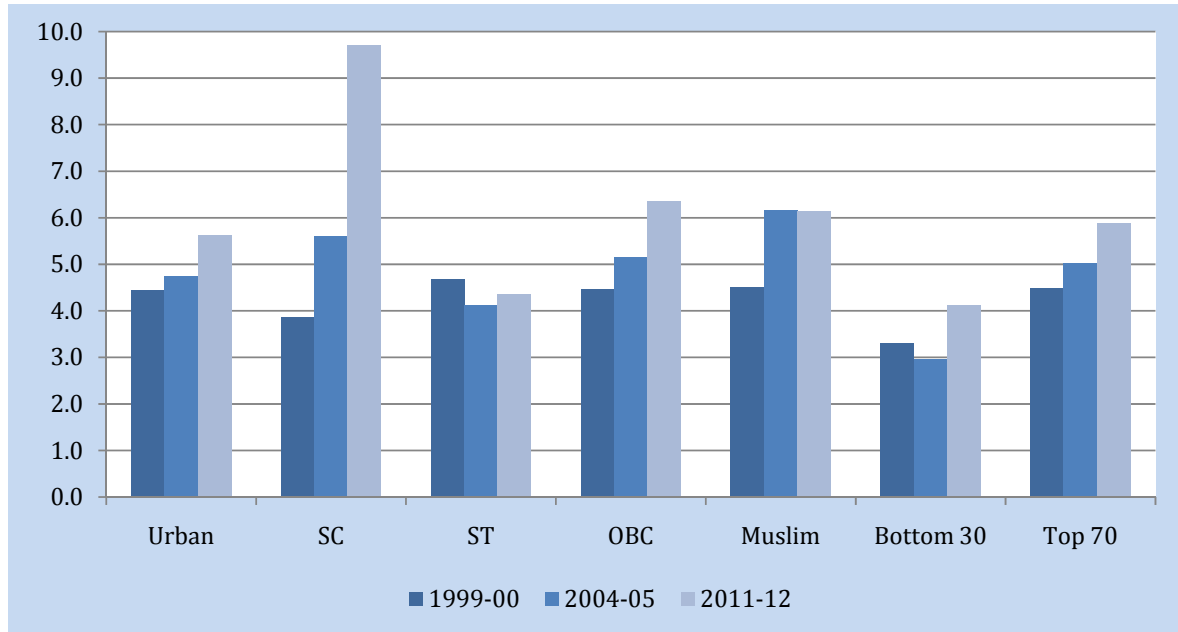
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The percentage of monthly expenditure on education for urban households in Rajasthan is close to 12%. Expenditure on education has steadily risen for all socio-economic communities. With an urban average of 11.4%, education seems to be eating out of the urbanites' wallets. While the increase in educational expenditure has been lower for segments like Muslims and more generally the Bottom 30, other communities have seen surges in expenses since 1999-00. Monthly expenditure of ST households in 1999-00 was 3.4% and has risen to 11.5% by 2011-12. The same trend is visible for OBCs, SCs and broadly the Top 70, the latter spending the highest at 12.7% of monthly expenditure on education. On the lower scale, the proportion of monthly expenditure on education for Bottom 30 households has risen from 2.3% in 1999-00 to 3.8% in 2011-12.

The Health Picture

The Ailment of Being Ill

FIGURE II.2.6.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Health



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

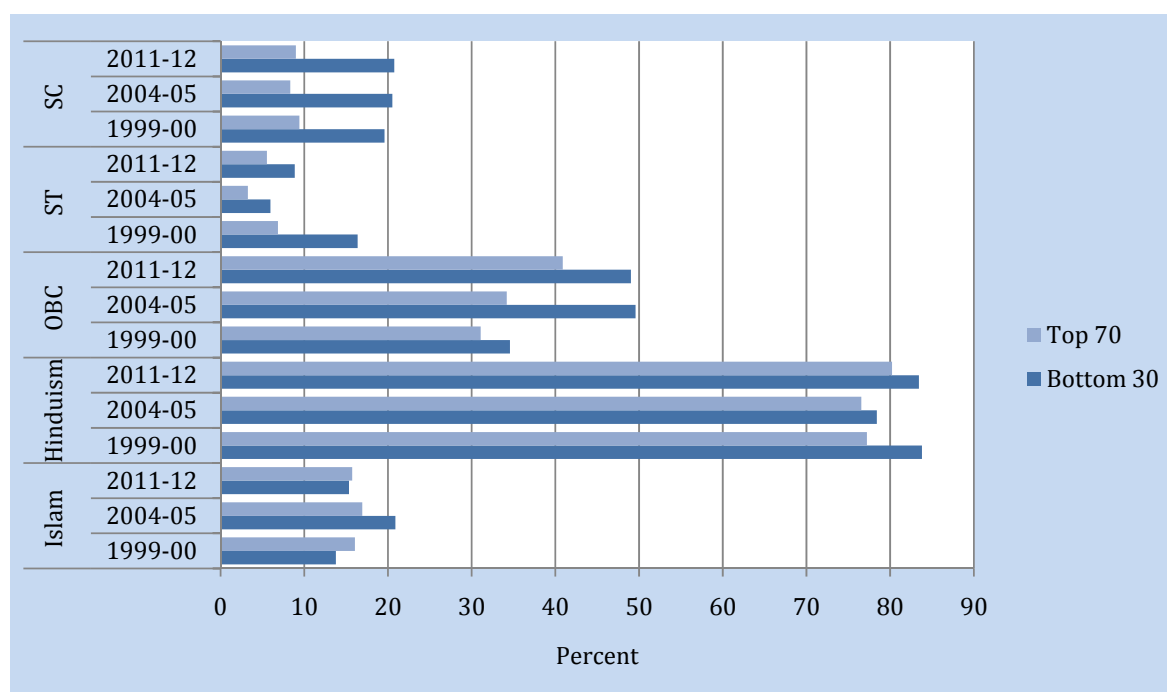
It is expensive to fall ill in Rajasthan. The urban scenario shows rising expenditure on health for households in the state. For instance, SC households spend close to 9.6% of their monthly expenditure only on healthcare. Across most socio-economic segments, urban Rajasthan has witnessed an increase in monthly expenditure on health over the last decade. ST households are the only segment which has experienced a decrease since 1999-00, falling from 4.6% to 4.3%.

MADHYA PRADESH

The Urban Population Picture

Prevailing Socio-Economic Divisions

FIGURE II.3.1.1: Social Structure of the “Bottom 30” and “Top 70” Percent of the Monthly Household Expenditure Distribution



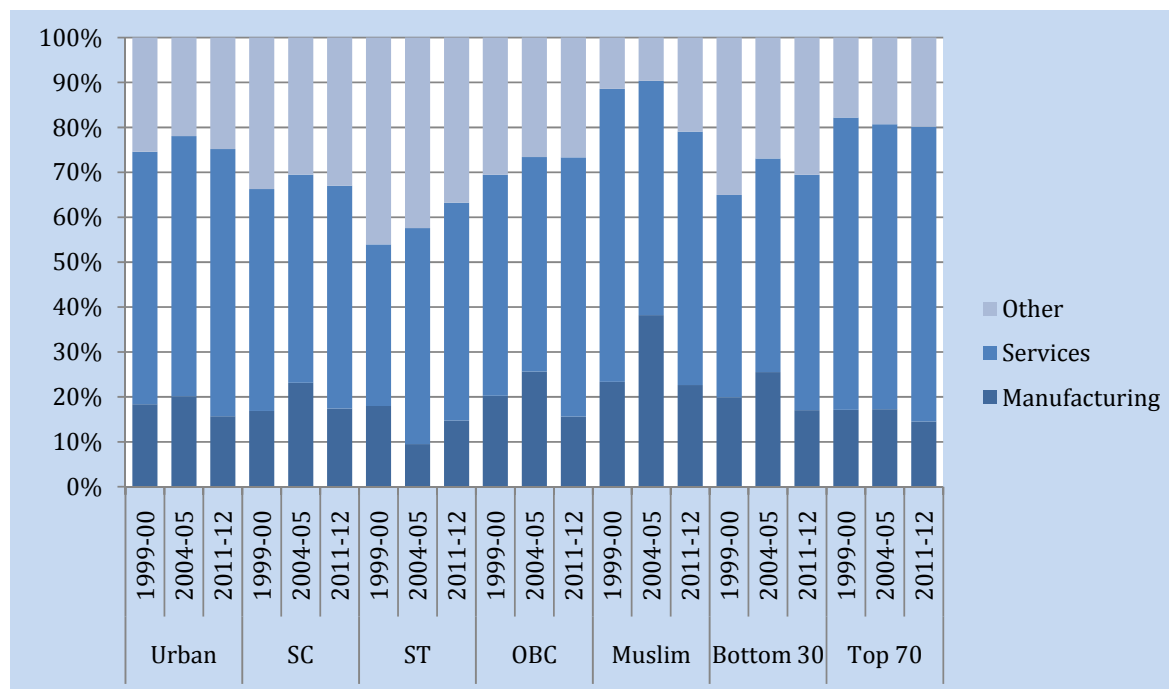
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The traditional socio-economic structure of the economically weaker sections is still clearly visible in urban Madhya Pradesh with a disproportionate representation among the SC, ST and OBC communities within the Bottom 30. However, Muslims in urban Madhya Pradesh do not display any disadvantaged position.

The Economy and Employment Picture

Worrying Manufacturing Decline

FIGURE II.3.2.1: Structure of Employment by Type of Industry

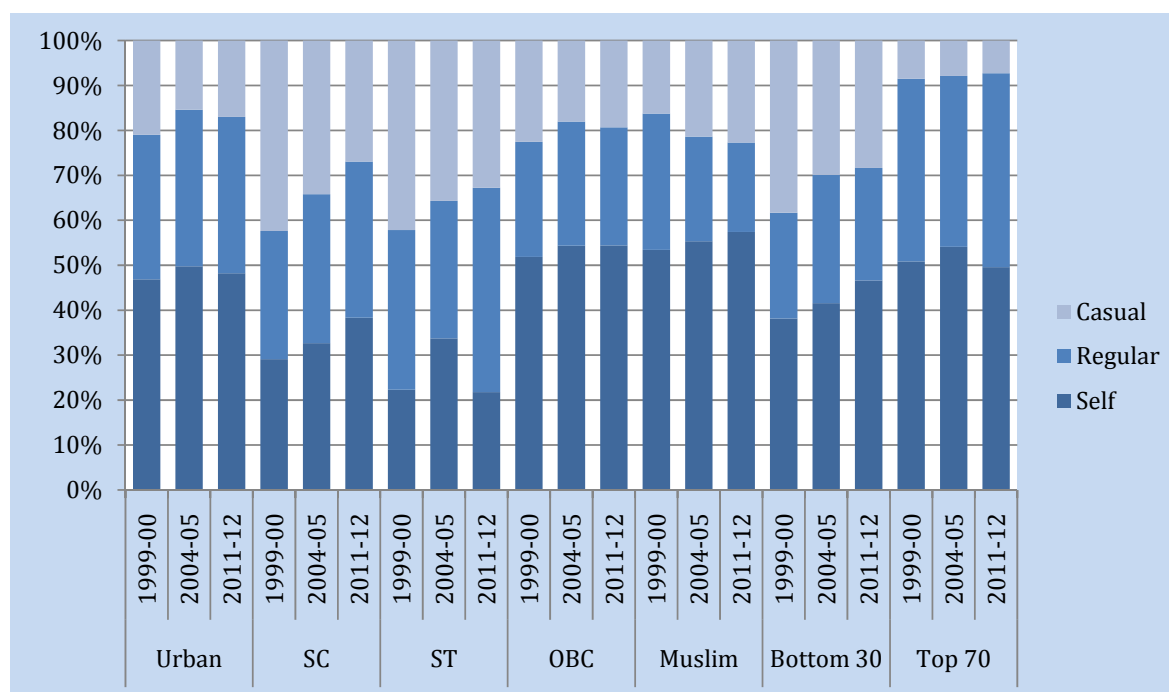


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

A general decline in the proportion of workers employed in manufacturing can be detected for urban Madhya Pradesh as a whole and within almost all urban socio-economic sections, esp. pronounced among OBCs. The proportional decrease in manufacturing is offset by a shift into the service sector. Muslims have seen a shift from manufacturing and services into other employment sectors.

Welcome Drop in Casual Employment

FIGURE II.3.2.2: Structure of Employment by Work Status

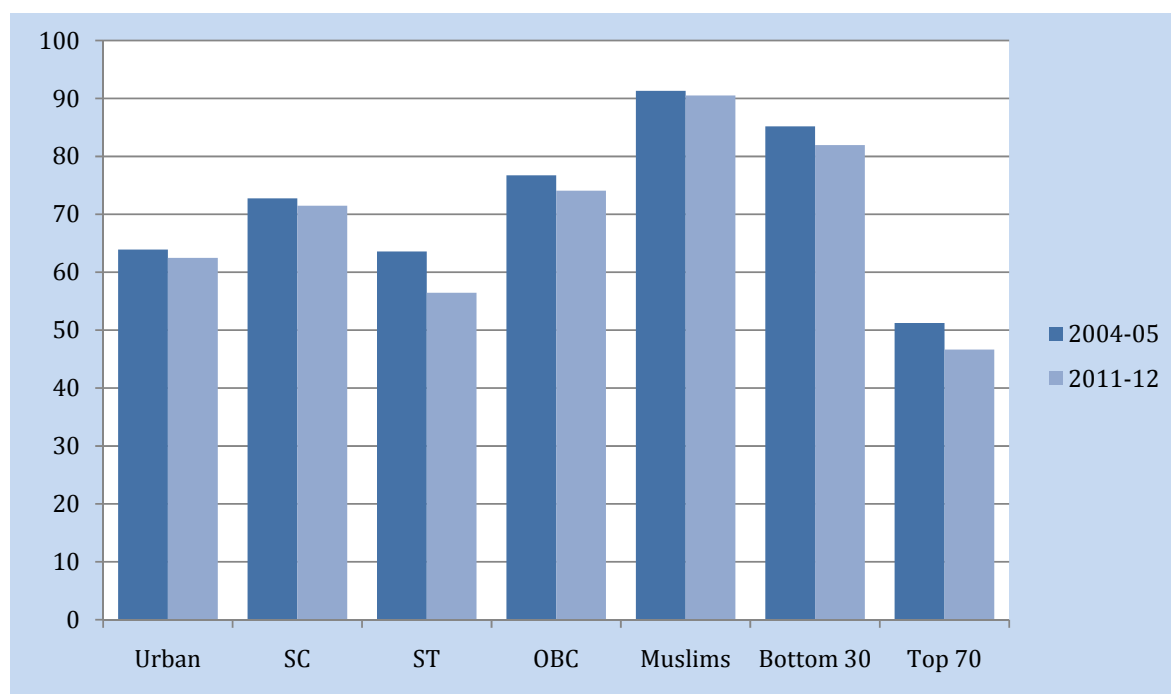


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The structure of urban employment by work status displays a drop in casual labour and a shift towards regular and self-employment. This welcome drop in casual work status has been remarkable within the SC and ST communities, with especially urban ST workers experiencing a shift towards a more secure regular work status. Though a substantial drop in casual labour is visible within the economically weaker sections (Bottom 30), this decrease in more precarious forms of work status is not accompanied by a shift towards regular but towards self-employment.

Slow Formal Progress

FIGURE II.3.2.3: Percentage of Workers without a written Job Contract

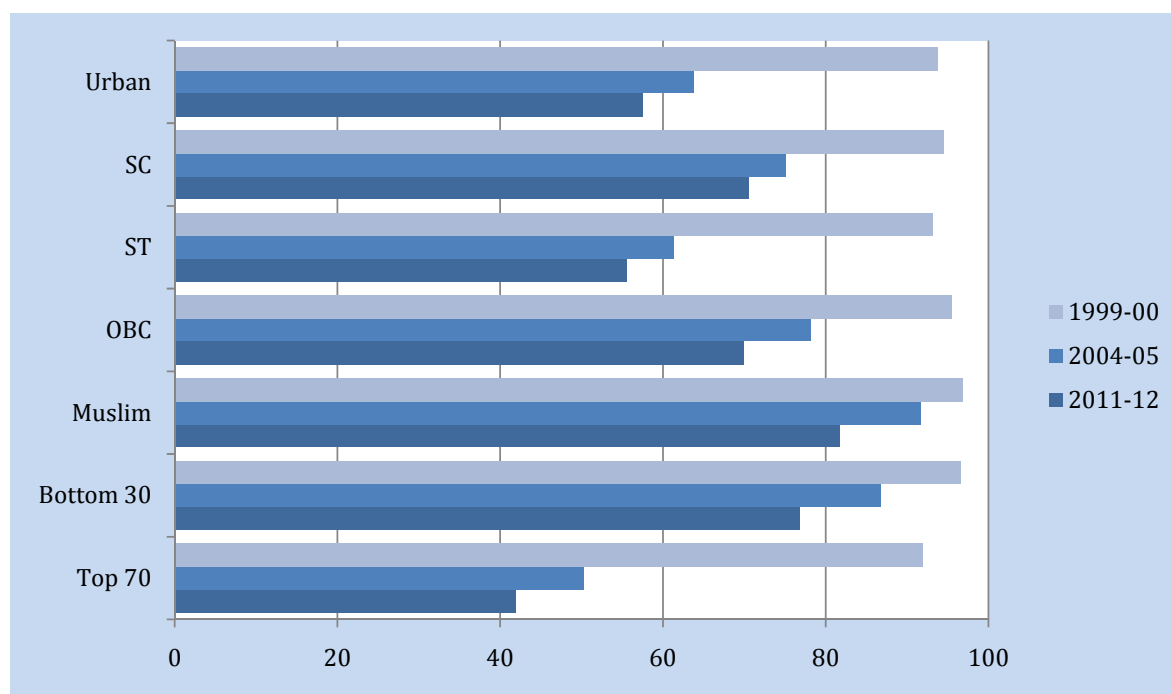


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Even though the proportion of regular employed workers in urban areas has increased, there only is slow progress in terms of the proportion of urban employees with a written job contract, as more than 60% still lack a formalization of their work status. This is especially pronounced within the Muslim community and more general within the Bottom 30 section.

Remarkable Drop in Numbers

FIGURE II.3.2.4: Percentage of Workers not eligible for Social Security Benefits



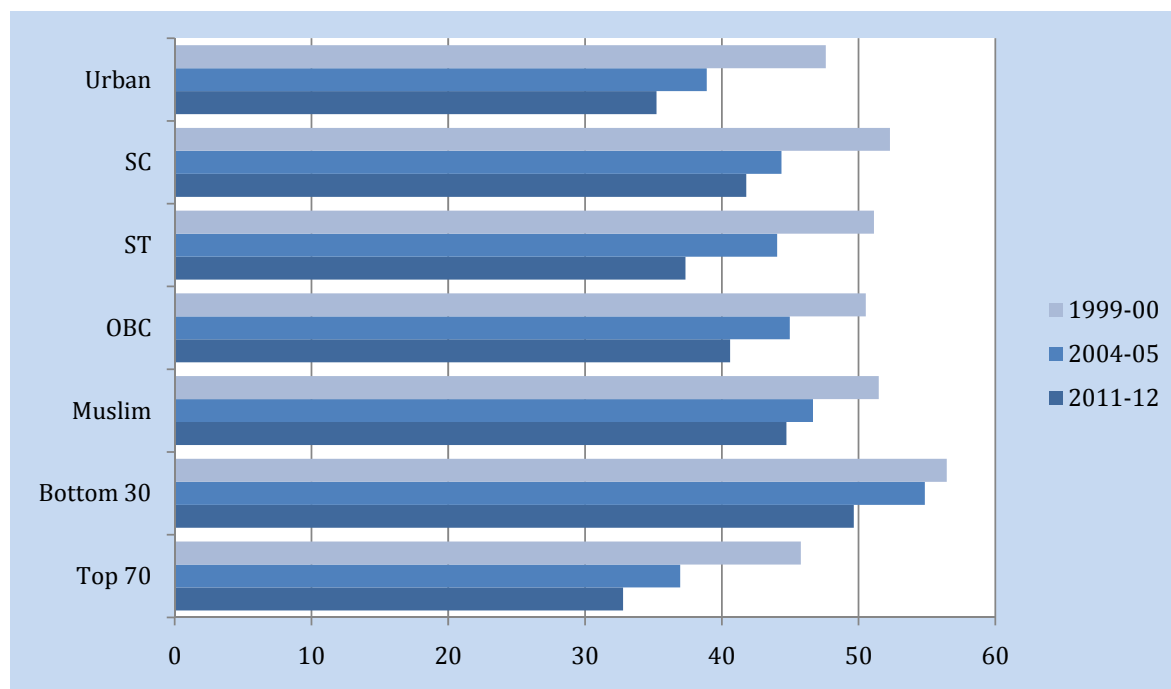
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

There has been remarkable progress in urban Madhya Pradesh in terms of the proportion of workers eligible for Social Security Benefits (SSBs), from almost no eligible workers to above 40 percent. This increase in eligibility has mostly been driven by the Top 70 section. However, large socio-economic disparities remain, as can be seen by the high proportion of non-eligible workers within the Bottom 30 and Muslims.

The Consumption and Assets Picture

More to Spend

FIGURE II.3.3.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure on Food Items

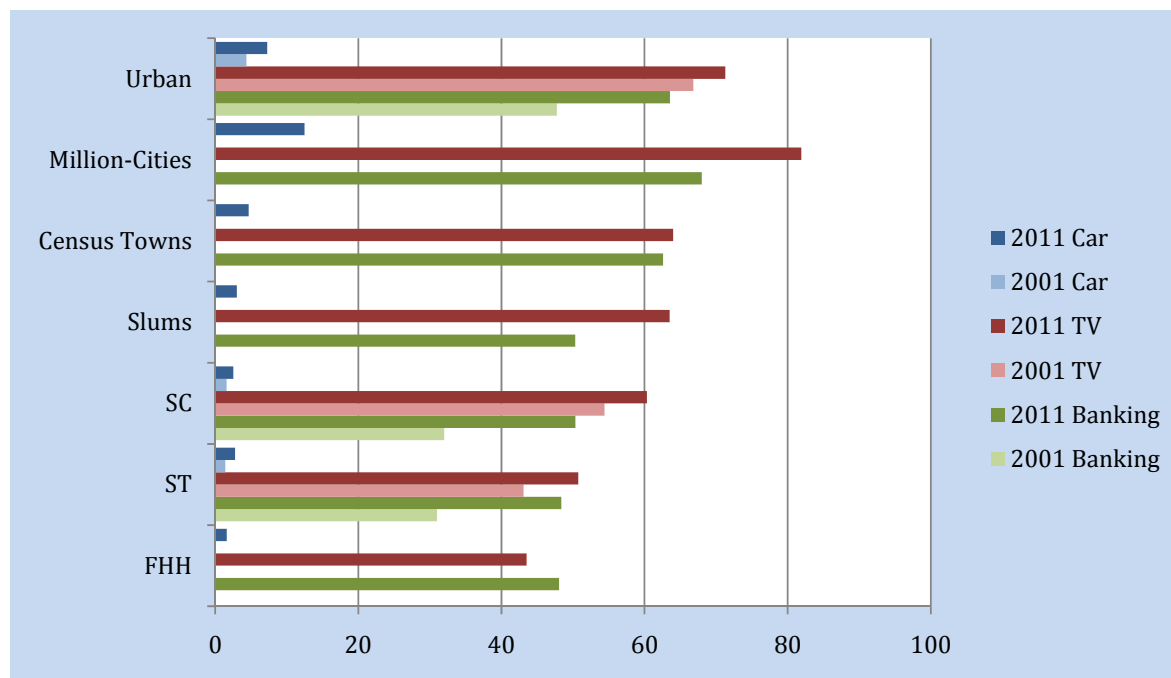


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Urban residents in Madhya Pradesh proportionally now have more money to spend on e.g. consumption goods than a decade ago. From nearly 50 percent of monthly household expenditure on food the share has gone down to below 40 percent, a trend witnessed in all urban segments. But as expected, large disparities remain between the better-off and poorer sections of the urban society, with the latter still having to spend a significantly higher proportion of their monthly expenditure on food.

Still a lot of Ground to be covered

FIGURE II.3.3.2: Percentage of Households availing Banking Services and owning a Car and TV 2001-2011



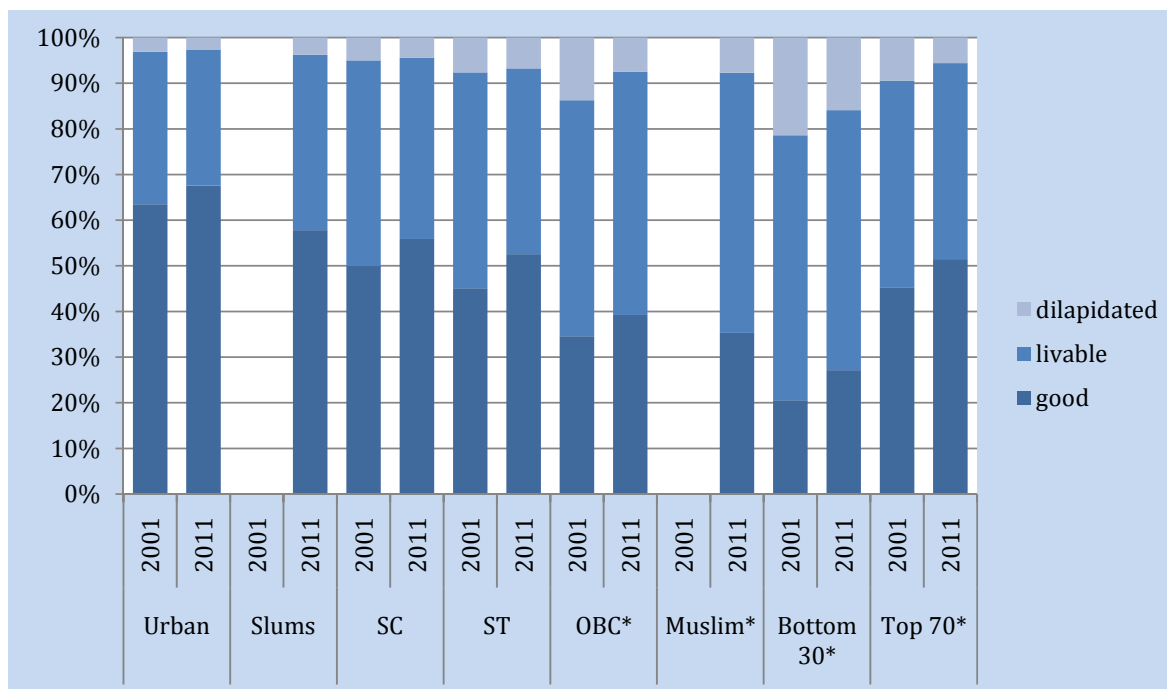
Source: COI 2001, 2011; FHH: Female-headed households

Though car ownership in urban Madhya Pradesh has been increasing, it is still only a very limited phenomenon mostly visible in the million cities. Access to information as indicated by TV-ownership rates, though rising, still has to be considered as low, esp. in smaller urban areas and among less privileged social and spatial urban segments, with barely 50 to 60 percent of SC and ST households having a TV. Female-headed households seem to be particularly disadvantaged in this aspect. Though a remarkable rise in the percentage of urban households with access to formal banking services has taken place in urban Madhya Pradesh in the last decade, there is still a lot of ground that needs to be covered in terms of financial inclusion of the economically weaker urban sections.

The Housing, Infrastructure and Services Picture

Home Improvement

FIGURE II.3.4.1: Subjective Housing Condition, 2001 & 2011

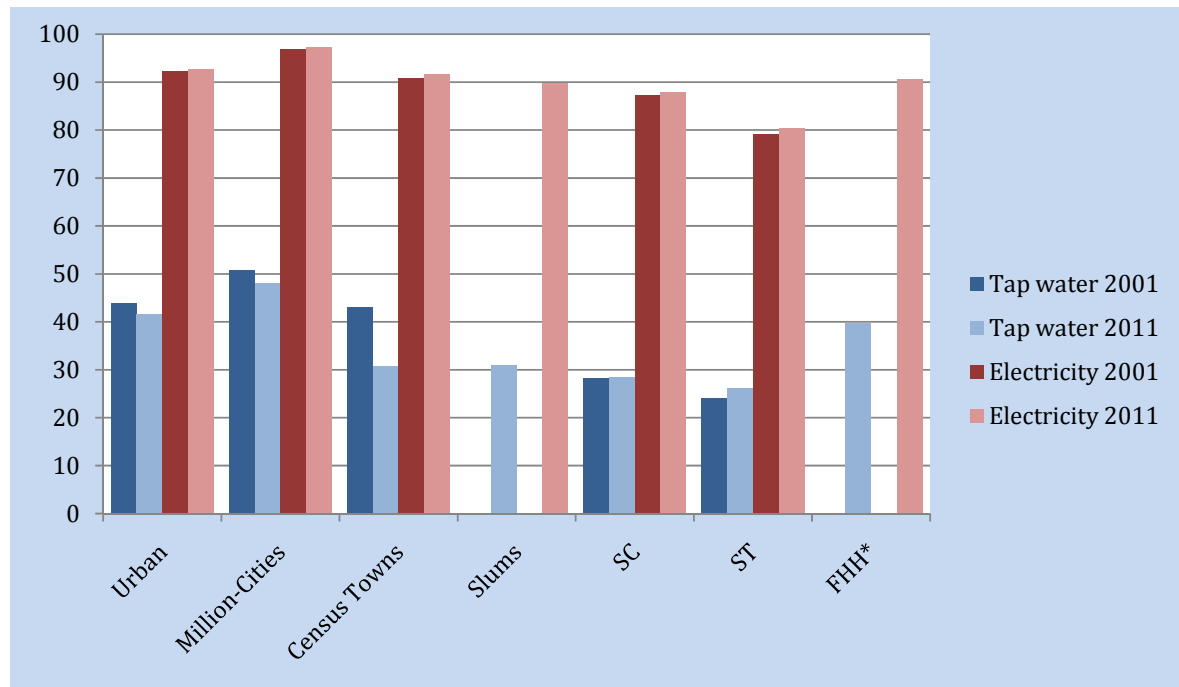


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9)

Housing conditions in urban Madhya Pradesh have improved in the last decade as indicated by an increasing share of the “good” category. Even though this trend is echoed within all social groups, disparities along economic lines are clearly visible, with less than every third household within the Bottom 30 falling into this category characterised by presumably appropriate housing conditions.

Miles to Go

FIGURE II.3.4.2: Percentage of Households with Access to Tap Water and Electricity within Premises

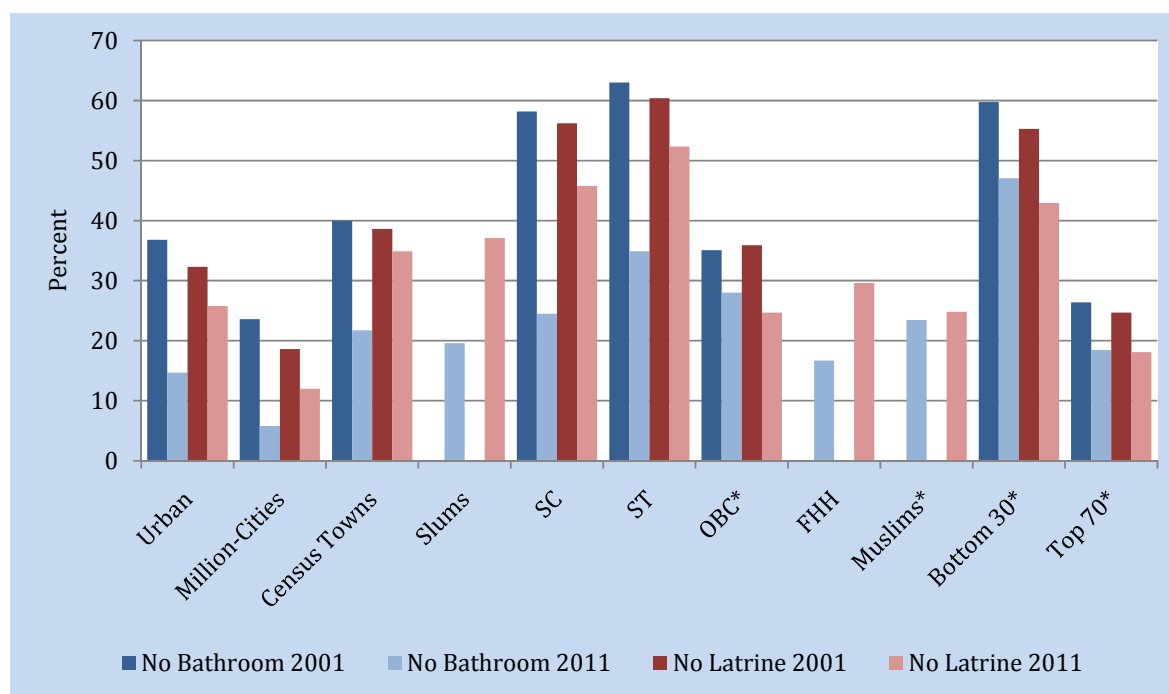


Source: COI; * Female-Headed-Households

Whereas urban Madhya Pradesh follows the other States covered in this report in terms of improved and nearly universal access to electricity, the provision of safe drinking water in the form of access to tap water within premises remains at disturbingly low rates. Even though the actual drop in access rates to tap water can be explained by the addition in 2011 of a substantial number of new small urban settlements with large infrastructure deficits, the performance within the State’s million cities points towards a generally very slow progress in this respect. The situation is especially alarming for the urban SC and ST communities.

Bathrooms without Latrines

FIGURE II.3.4.3: Households without Bathroom and Latrine within Premises

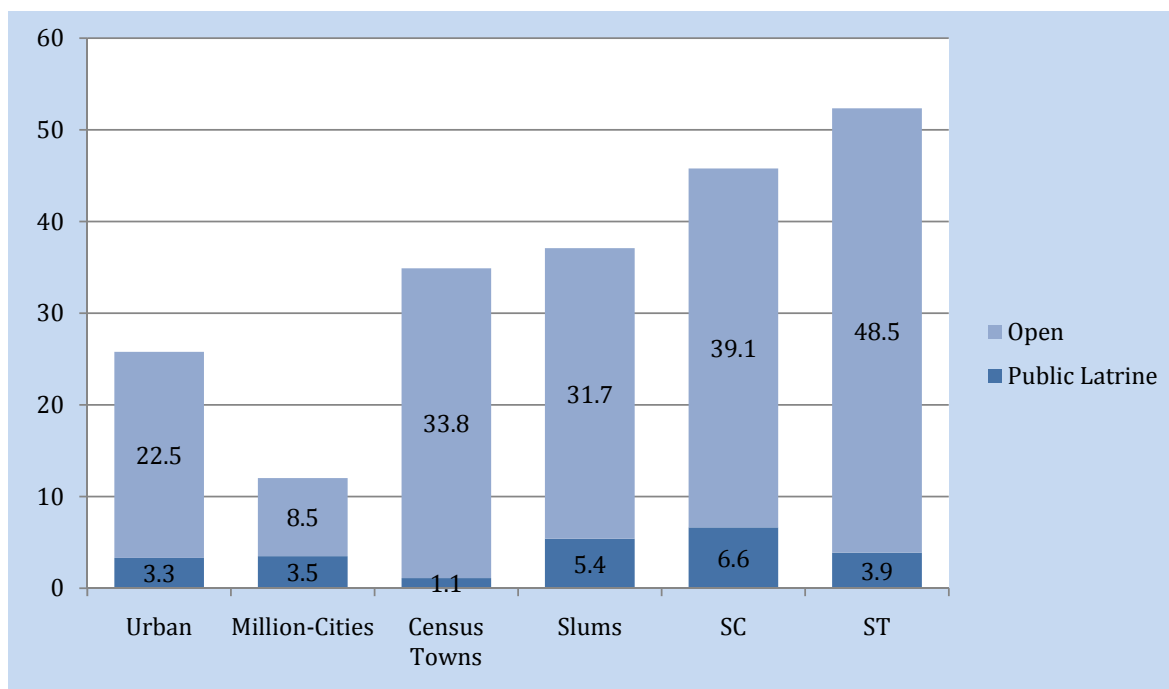


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

There has been considerable progress in urban Madhya Pradesh in terms of the proportion of households having a bathroom within their premises. This trend is clearly detectable in different urban size-classes (Million-Cities and Census Towns) and among all socio-economic segments, most pronounced within the urban SC and ST households. However, large disparities remain between the Bottom 30 and Top 70, even more so in terms of the availability of private latrines. More than four out of ten urban households within the economically weaker sections have to look for an alternative to cover basic daily needs.

A Bleak Urban Picture

FIGURE II.3.4.4: Alternative Provision for Households without Latrine as Percentage of Total Households in the respective Category, 2011

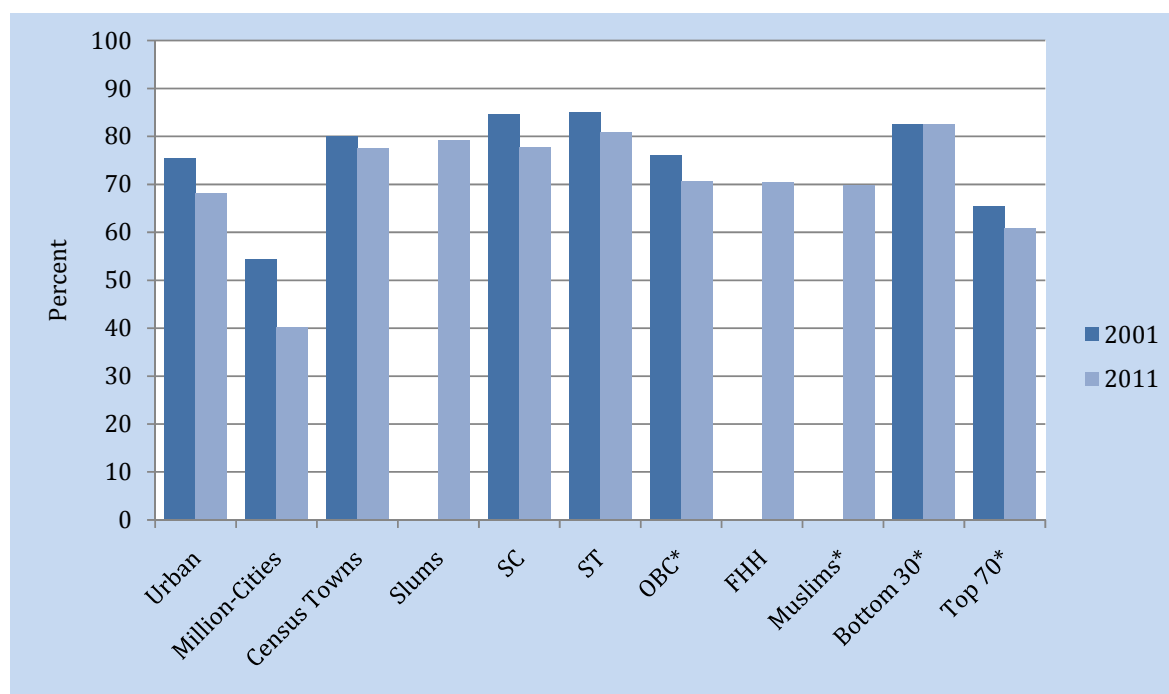


Source: COI 2011

The living conditions for urban households in terms of alternative provisions due to a lack of private latrines can only be described as bleak, even more so considering the huge gap between the availability and use of public toilets and the use of open space. Nearly a quarter of the urban population is deprived of any dignity, a situation most severe for women. The numbers reach staggering proportions especially within the urban ST community.

Not a Healthy Environment

FIGURE II.3.4.5: Households with Open or No Drainage Connection

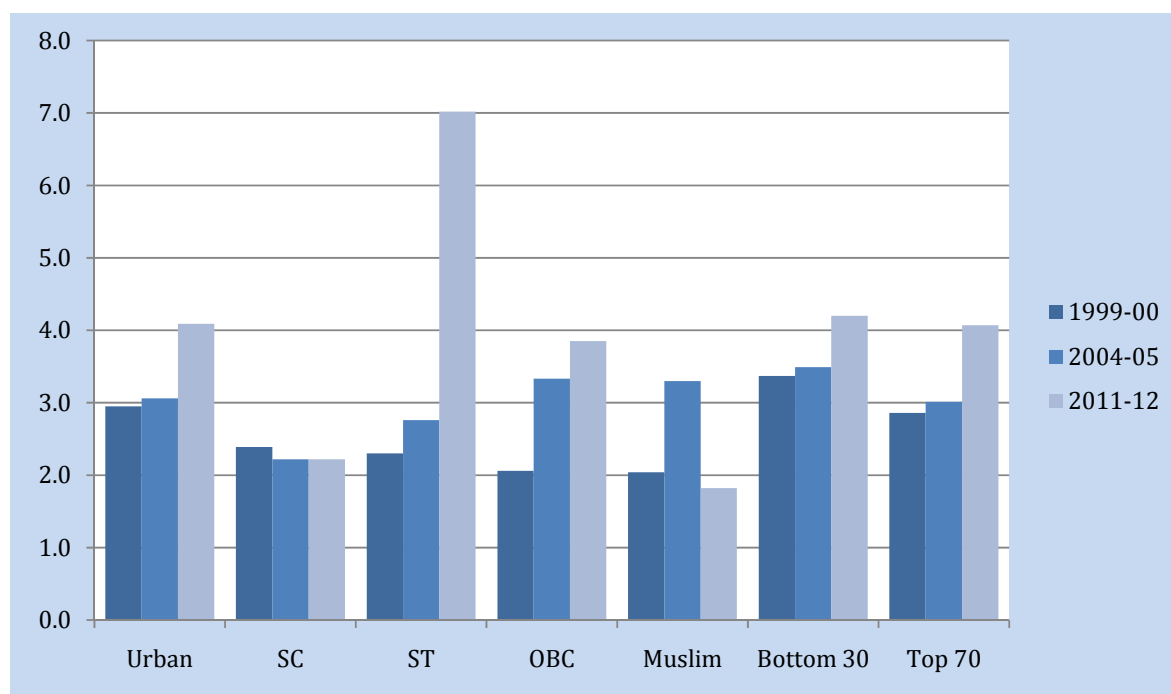


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

The bleak picture as seen in the provision of public toilets finds a seamless extension in the availability of proper drainage connections for urban households. Nearly seven out of ten urban households are either connected only by open drainage, or not connected at all. Though some progress has been achieved within the Million Cities, the backlog in the provision of public infrastructure presents a huge task for urban administrations for years to come.

Rising Rental Costs

FIGURE II.3.4.6: Percentage of Household Expenditure on Rent



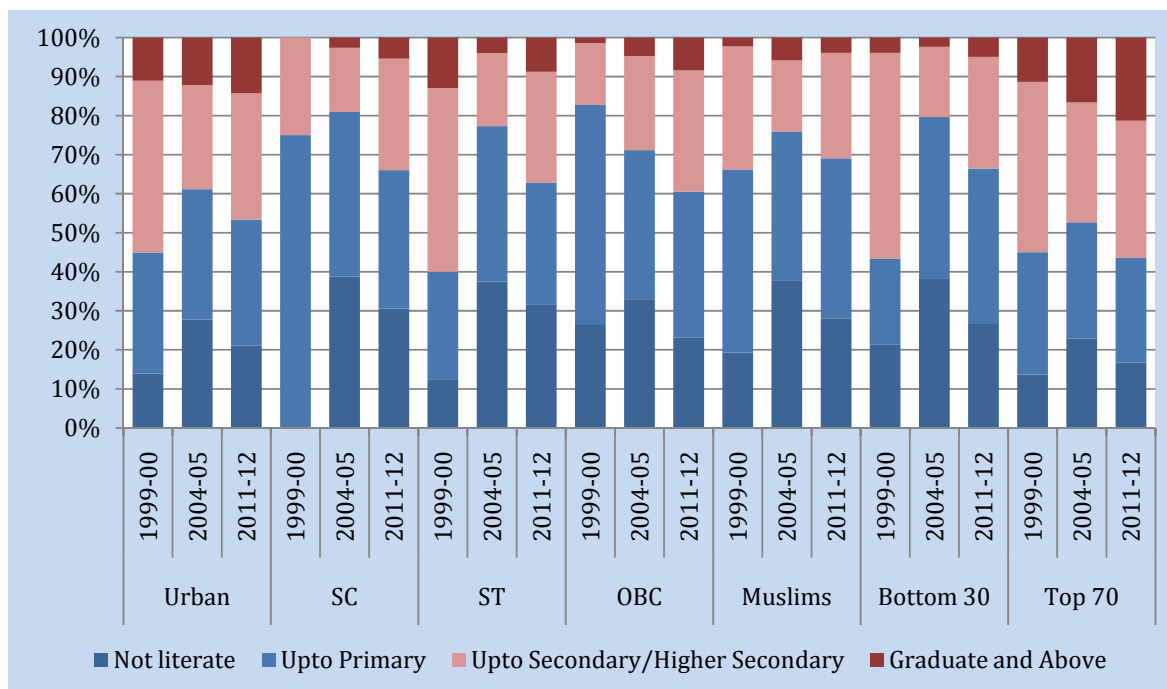
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Contrary to the trend witnessed in expenditure on food items, urban households in Madhya Pradesh are confronted with a rising share of their monthly expenditure on rent. Whereas urban ST and OBC households are characterised by steep rises in their proportional rental expenditure, SC and Muslim households experience a slight proportional drop. On economic lines, the increase has been more pronounced within the Top 70 households than within the Bottom 30, both now having to roughly spend the same proportion of monthly expenditure on rent.

The Education Picture

Contradictory Signals

FIGURE II.3.5.1: General Educational Level

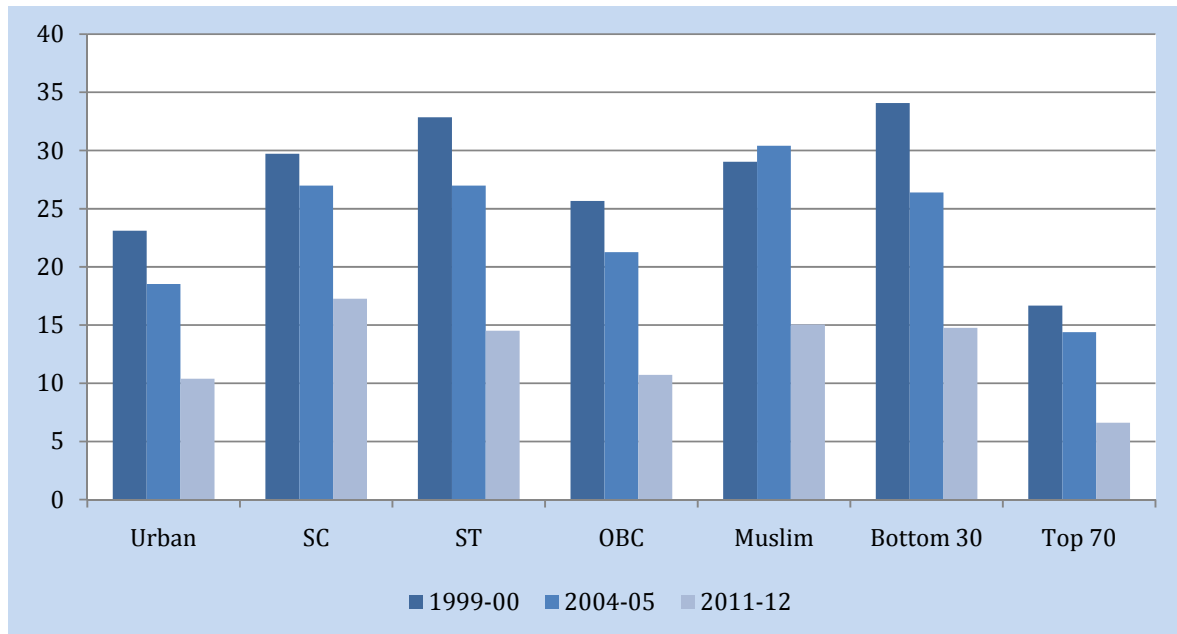


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Educational development within urban Madhya Pradesh in the last decade is characterised by contradictory trends: While the rising proportion of graduates certainly qualifies as a good signal, at the same time the proportion of urbanites with no or only low levels of education has been increasing. Whereas the educational situation has improved considerably for the SC and OBC communities, STs and Muslims display deteriorating educational qualifications. These contradictory trends are mirrored on economic fault lines, with the educational situation of the Bottom 30 seemingly much less favourable in 2011-12 compared to 1999-00, while the Top 70 have experienced a substantial shift towards university education.

On the Right Track: Educational Inclusion

FIGURE II.3.5.2: Percentage in Age-Group 5-18 currently not attending an Educational Institution

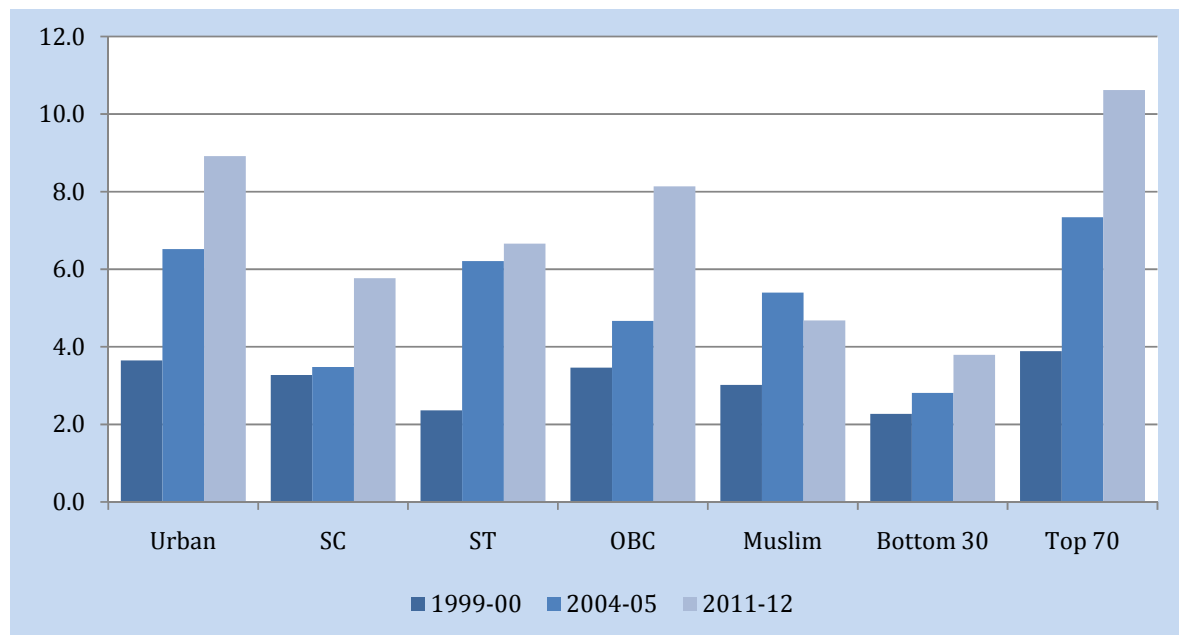


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

In the last decade, the proportion of children in the age-group 5-18 years not attending an educational institution has been cut by more than 50 percent. All social and economic segments follow this trend. Though there are still considerable differences between the Bottom 30 and Top 70, one can observe that Madhya Pradesh is on the right track in terms of an expanding educational inclusion of large segments of the urban society.

... but Inclusion comes at a Price

FIGURE II.3.5.3: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Education



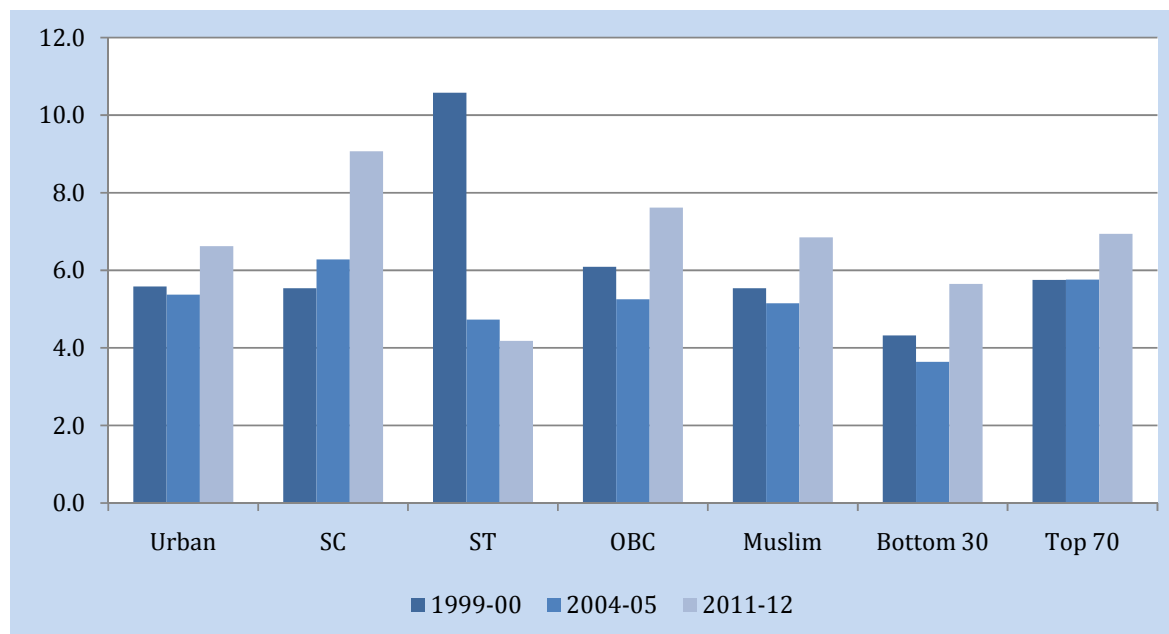
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Urban households in Madhya Pradesh now spend proportionally more on education than they did a decade ago. All socio-economic segments of the urban society are characterised by this trend, most explicit within the Top 70. On a positive note, this clearly indicates the value of education that all urban segments are willing to invest into the future well-being of their children. On the negative side, the disparity between the expenditure on education between the Bottom 30 and Top 70 might be interpreted as prevailing qualitative disparities between public and private educational institutions.

The Health Picture

Costlier Well-Being

FIGURE II.3.6.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Health



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

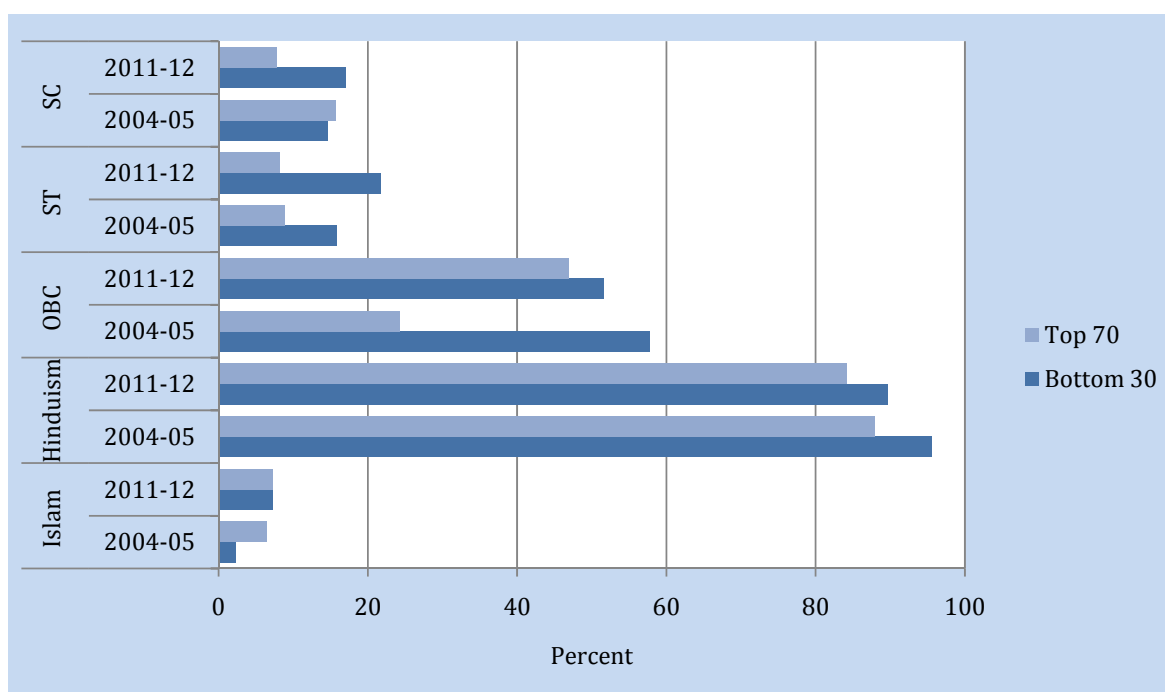
Expenditure on health has proportionally risen slightly for urban households in the last decade, with SCs, OBCs, Muslims and more generally the Bottom 30 experiencing the steepest increase. Comparatively, SC households spend a larger share of their monthly expenditure on health than ST and OBC households, whereas the difference between the Bottom 30 and Top 70 is not particularly distinctive.

CHHATTISGARH

The Urban Population Picture

At the Bottom of the Pyramid

FIGURE II.4.1.1: Social Structure of the “Bottom 30” and “Top 70” Percent of the Monthly Household Expenditure Distribution



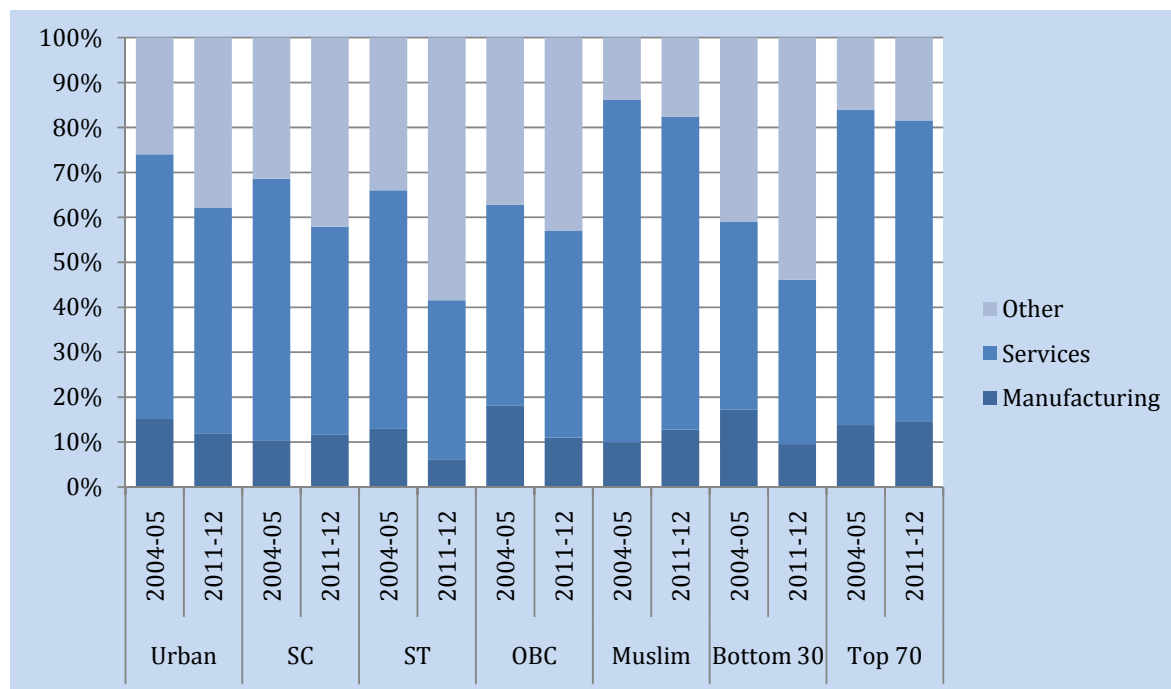
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

In merely 5 years, the proportion of Muslims in the Bottom-30 has more than tripled to 7%. While the share of OBCs in the Bottom-30 has experienced a decline from 58% to 52%, the share of them in the Top-70 has dramatically risen from 24% to 47%. In the case of Hindus, the shares in the Top-70 and Bottom-30 are quite stable in the period under study, with Hindus proportionally more present in the Bottom 30 than in the Top 70.

The Economy and Employment Picture

At Your Service

FIGURE II.4.2.1: Structure of Employment by Type of Industry

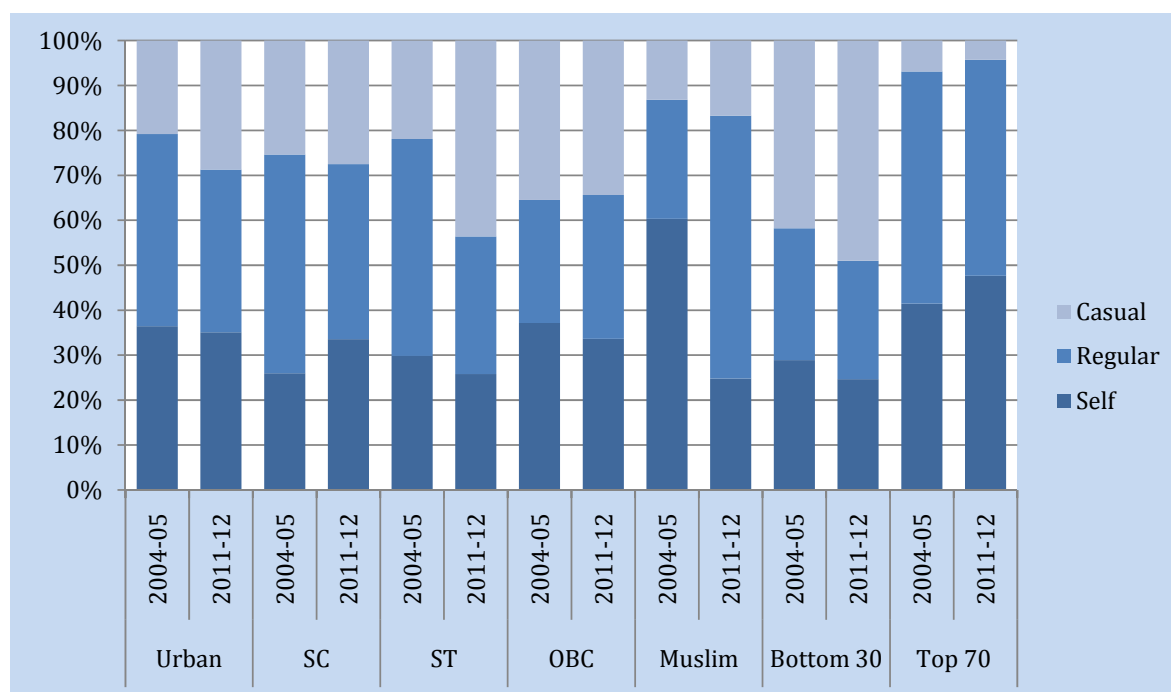


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

In the graph above, it is observed that the Top 70 have stayed at the same level in the manufacturing industry and there has been a very marginal decline in the percentage involved in the service industry. In all the other socio-economic groups there has been a substantial decrease in the percentage of people in the manufacturing sector, esp. within the urban ST and OBC communities and generally in the Bottom 30. However, the decline in manufacturing is not compensated by a shift into the service sector, but into other urban employment opportunities.

Casually Employed

FIGURE II.4.2.2: Structure of Employment by Work Status

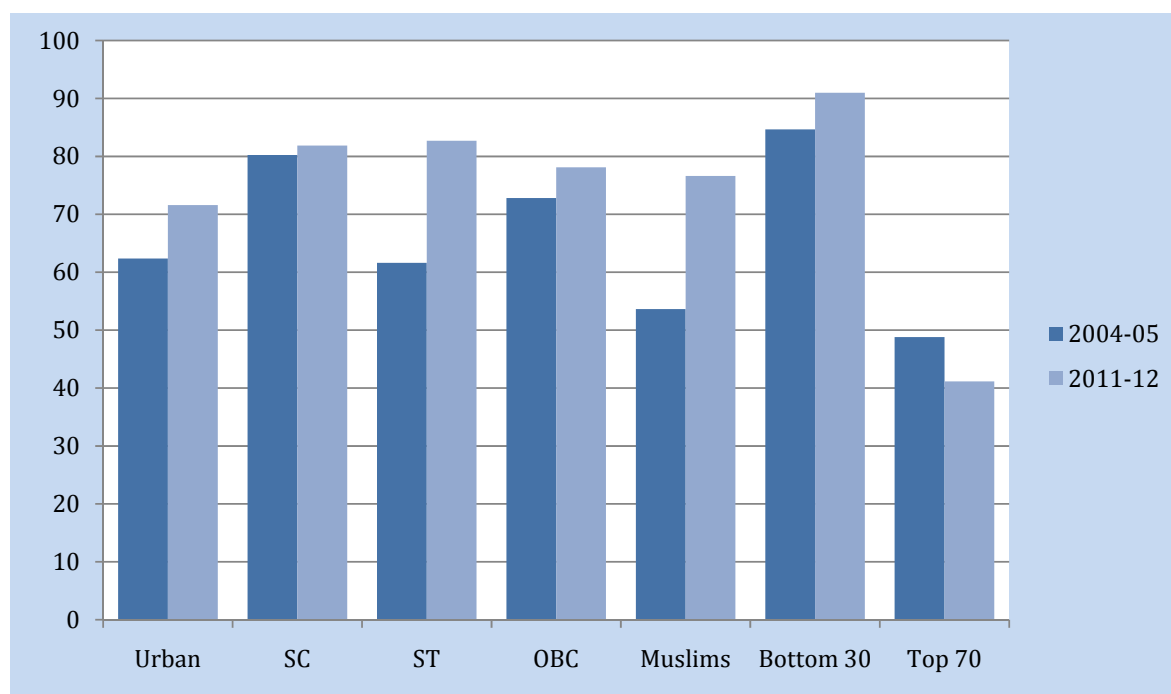


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The developments in the urban employment structure by work status in Chhattisgarh and persisting disparities can only be labelled as worrisome: The decline in regular work status by nearly ten percentage points is matched by an equal increase in the proportion of workers employed on a casual basis. Apart from the Top 70, OBCs and Muslims, which experienced a shift from self- to regular employment, this trend is mirrored by all socio-economic groups. The disparity in the proportion of casual labourers between the Bottom 30, in which nearly 50% of urban workers are characterised by insecure forms of employment, and the Top 70 is more than significant.

No Signature Needed

FIGURE II.4.2.3: Percentage of Workers without a written Job Contract

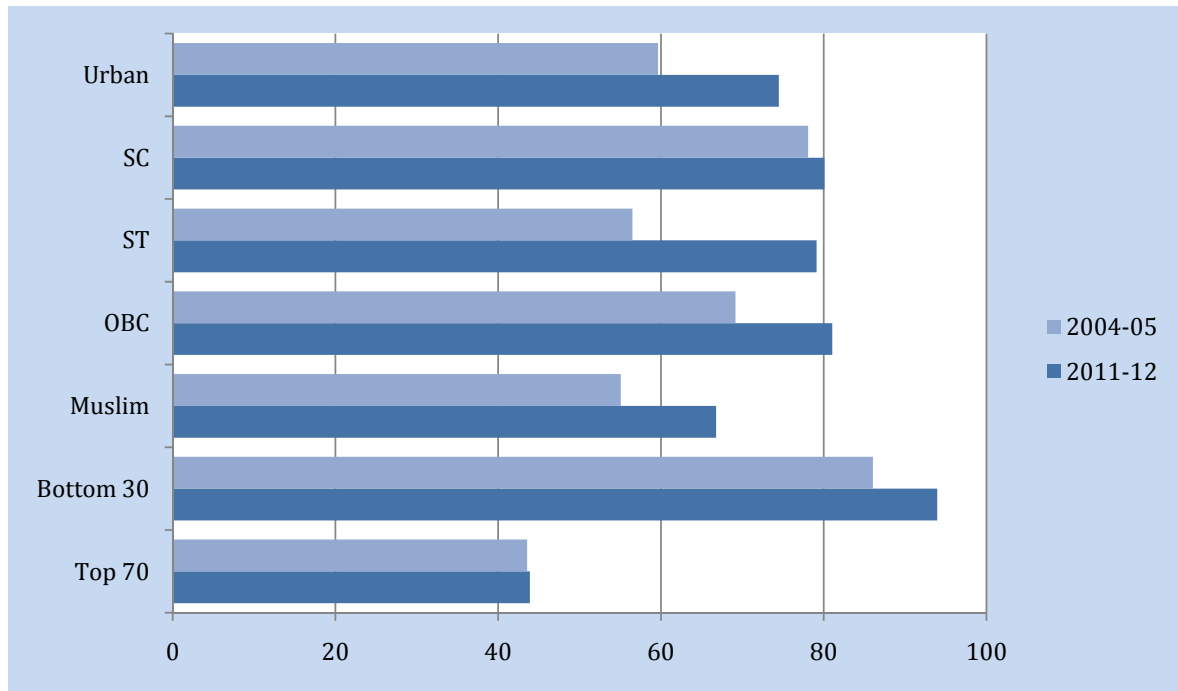


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Overall the percentage of the workers without a written job contract has increased to 71.6% from 62.4%, for all urban areas in Chhattisgarh. In fact, the increase has been for every social group as well as the Bottom 30, though the increase for the Scheduled Tribes (21.1 %) is much more than that of the Scheduled Castes (1.6 %) or OBCs (5.3 %). Also, there has been a significant increase for the Muslim community. Members of the Top 70 expenditure bracket on the other hand witnessed a decrease of nearly 8%. Disparities between the upper and lower expenditure sections are staggering, and have even increased significantly during the last eight years.

No Guarantees

FIGURE II.4.2.4: Percentage of Workers not eligible for Social Security Benefits



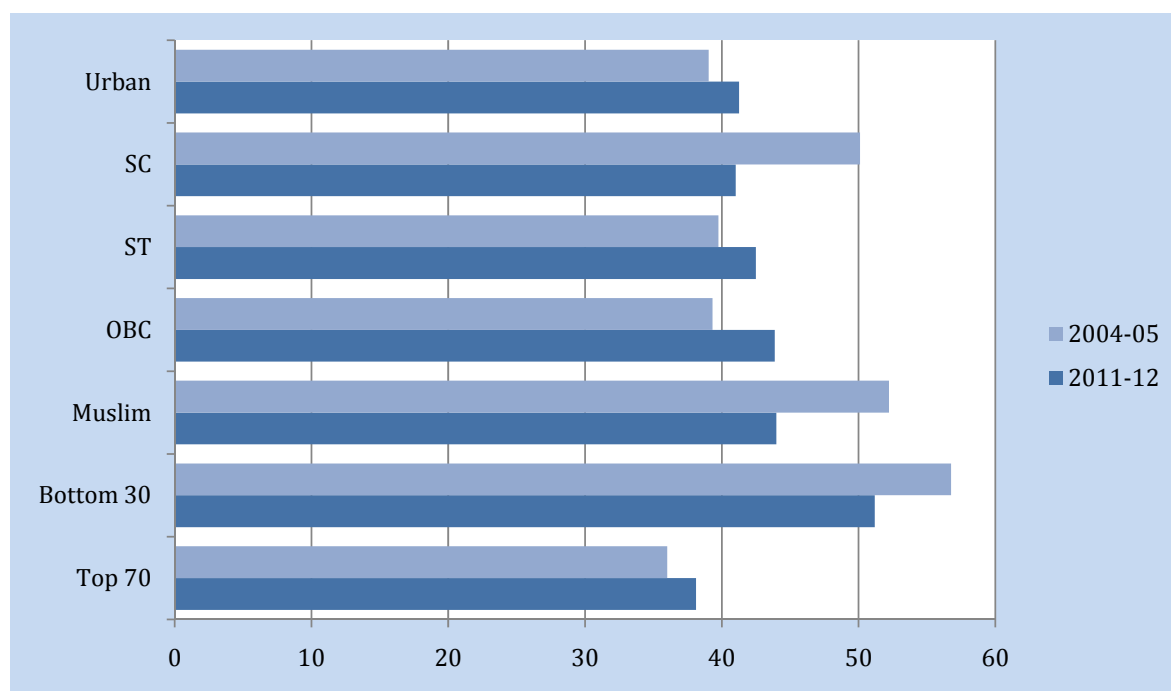
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Members of the Bottom 30 expenditure category in Chhattisgarh do not have access to Social Security Benefits. Between 2004-05 and 2011-12 the proportion of workers not eligible for SSBs has increased from 87% to 93%. Chhattisgarh is among the only state covered in this report that has seen an increase in ineligibility for SSB since 2004-05. Social groups such as OBC, ST and SCs in the state have seen increases in ineligibility as much as 23%. Muslim ineligibility rose from 55% to 66%.

The Consumption and Assets Picture

Eat More, Save More

FIGURE II.4.3.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure on Food Items

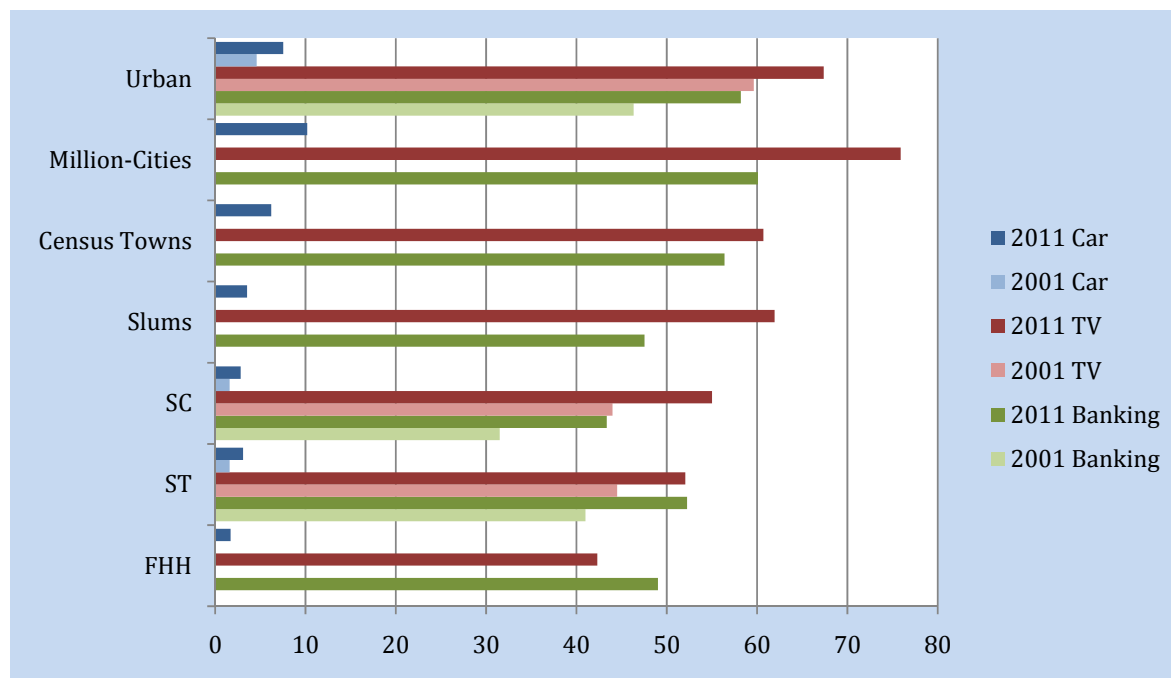


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Overall, the proportion of monthly household expenditure on food has slightly risen in urban Chhattisgarh. However, looking at different socio-economic groups, a mixed picture emerges: Whereas there have been substantial decreases in the proportion spent on food within the SC and Muslim communities, an increase has been registered for urban ST and OBC households. Disparities between the Bottom 30 and Top 70 have narrowed down considerably, with the former still having to spend proportionally more on food than the latter.

Girl Trouble

FIGURE II.4.3.2: Percentage of Households availing Banking Services and owning a Car and TV 2001-2011



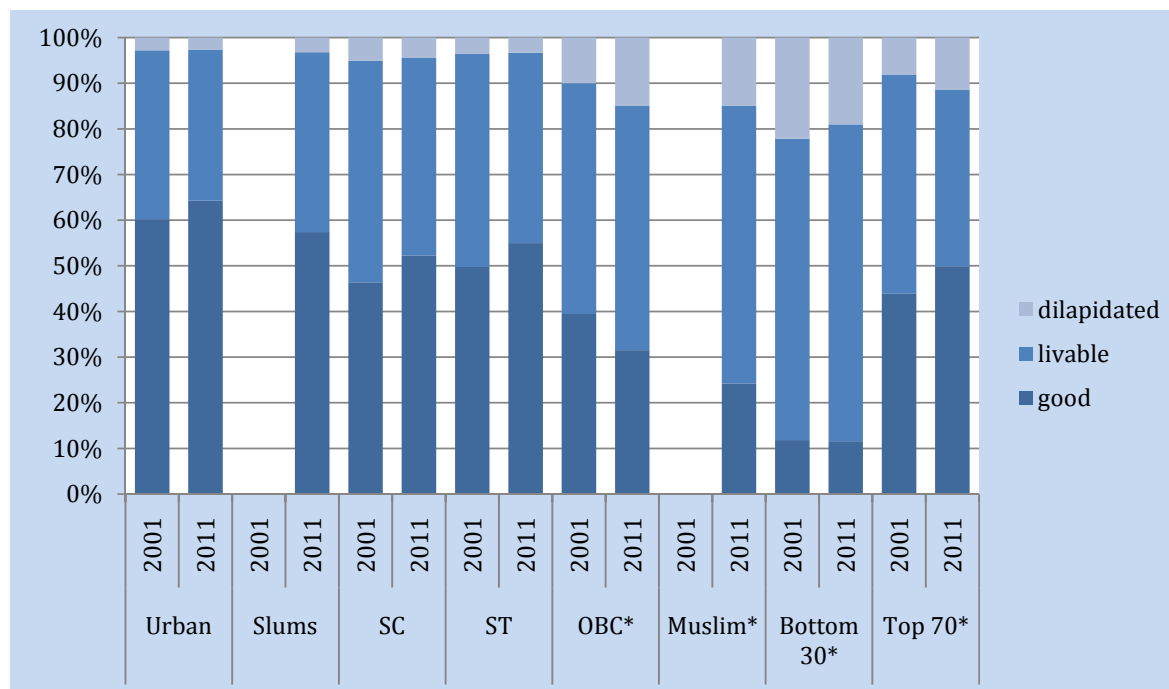
Source: COI 2001, 2011; FHH: Female-headed household

Ownership of cars remains low in urban Chhattisgarh (7.5%). On the other hand, television seems to be a common household asset with more than 50% of all segments, with the exception of Female-headed households. Access to formal banking services has significantly risen in the last decade, however a socio-economic divide is still clearly visible as manifested in the low access-rates for SC- and ST-households and more generally urban slums.

The Housing, Infrastructure and Services Picture

Welcome Home

FIGURE II.4.4.1: Subjective Housing Condition, 2001 & 2011

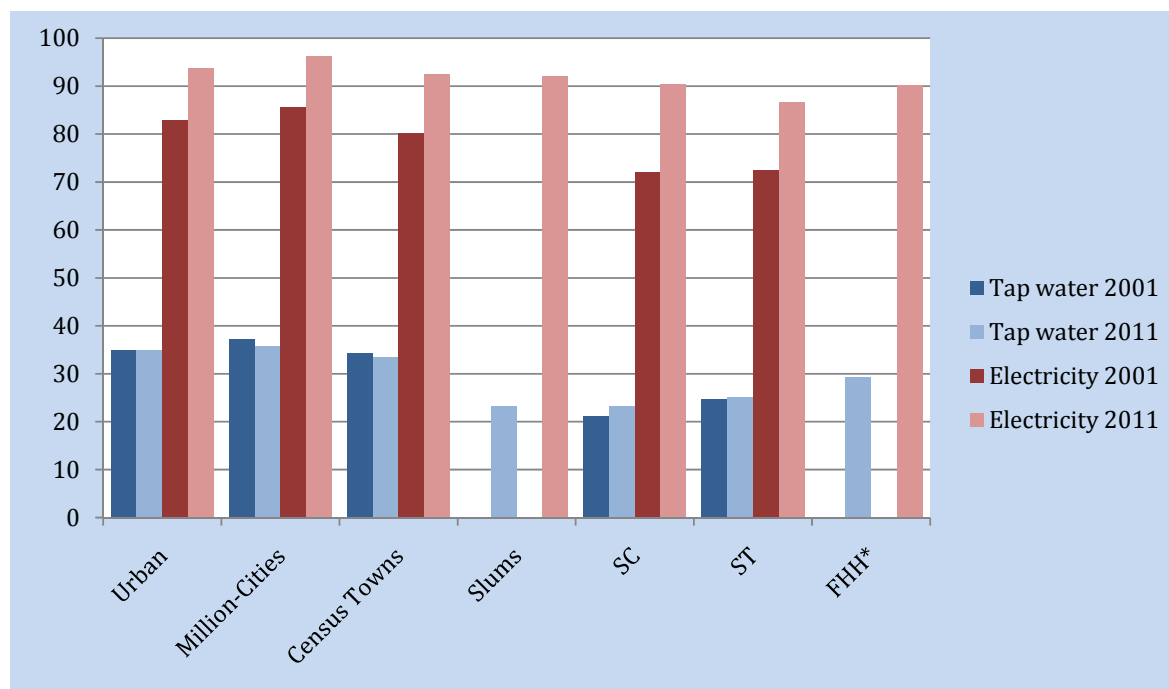


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9)

Housing conditions in urban Chhattisgarh seemingly get better for most city dwellers. Increase in good housing conditions rose from 60.2% in 2001 to 64%. The same trends are seen among SC and ST social groups and the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket. The top 70 expenditure bracket though has seen a rather interesting shift, where households who were previously living in 'liveable' conditions are either shifting to 'good' conditions or 'dilapidated' conditions. OBC-households have witnessed decreases in good conditions with shifts towards both liveable and dilapidated conditions from 2001 to 2011.

Electrical Flooding in Arid Lands

FIGURE II.4.4.2: Percentage of Households with Access to Tap Water and Electricity within Premises

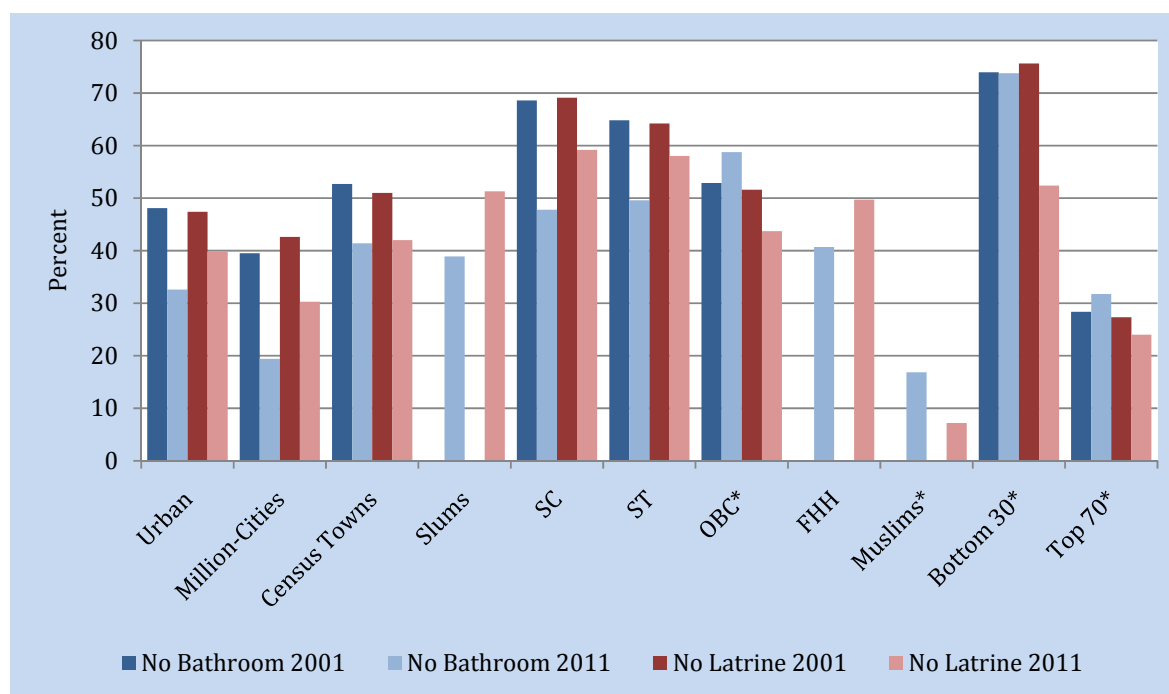


Source: COI; * Female-Headed-Households

The lowest access to electricity in the state of Chhattisgarh is 86.6% for households belonging to the ST category. The state is well electrified with levels of access to electricity reaching as high as 96.2% for million+ cities. But the condition for access to tap water is appalling to say the least. Only 35.8% of households in Million-Cities had access to tap water. Ironically, this is a decrease from the number in 2001 which was marginally higher at 37.2%. A meagre 23% of households in slums and among SCs had access to tap water, the lowest among the categories.

Unattached

FIGURE II.4.4.3: Households without Bathroom and Latrine within Premises

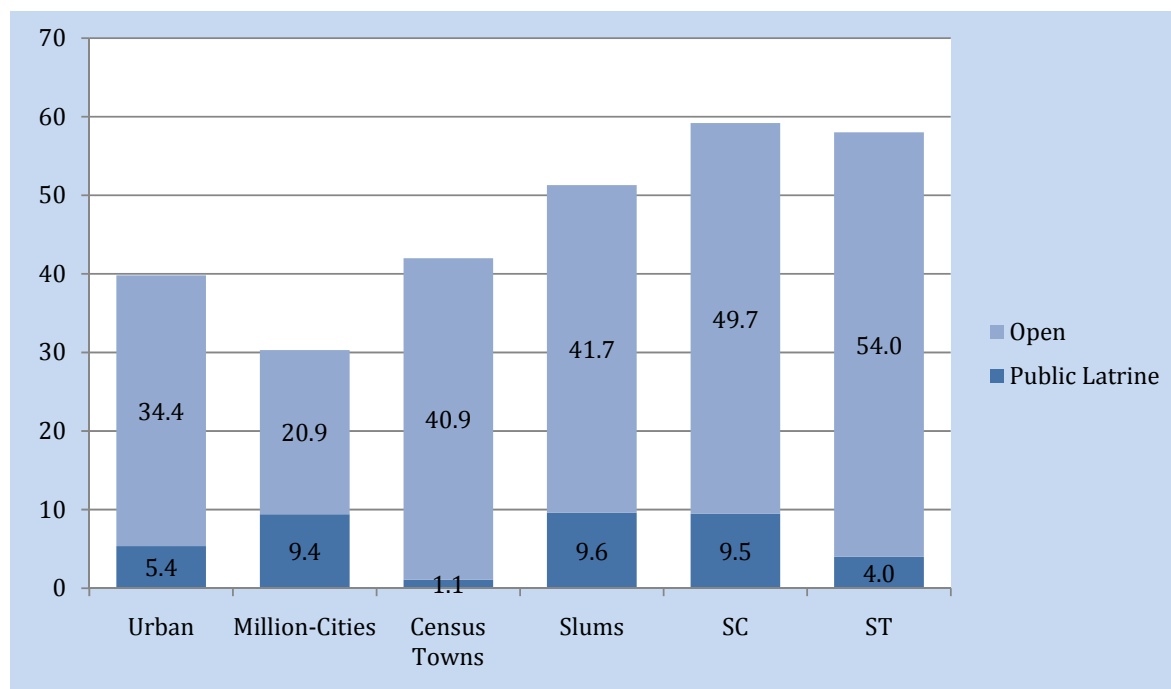


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

The percentage of households with no bathroom or latrine within premises has come down significantly in the past decade for the Urban Chhattisgarh. For the social segments like SCs, STs and OBCs, the percentage of households with no latrines has also come down since 2001. Though the proportion of no bathroom has declined for SCs and STs, it has slightly increased for the OBCs. The Muslims do not a very high percentage of households without bathroom (16.8%) and latrine (7.2%) within their premises.

Flushing Meadows: A Different Open

FIGURE II.4.4.4: Alternative Provision for Households without Latrine as Percentage of Total Households in the respective Category, 2011

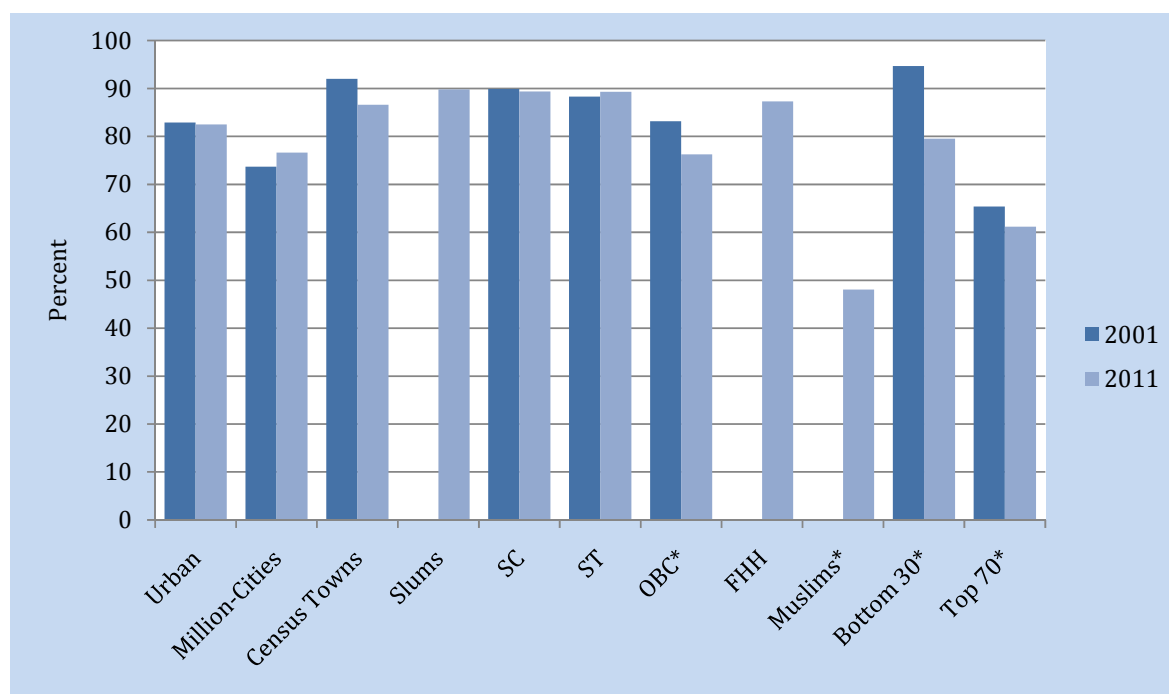


Source: COI 2011

According to Census 2011, 34.4% of all urban households in Chhattisgarh still use open areas as an alternative to proper latrines. 49.7% of SCs and 54% of STs have to use public space for their daily needs, the highest among all social categories. In Census Towns, 40.9% of all households use open areas for their daily needs with a very small portion of 1.1% using public latrines. The highest number of public latrine users is slum dwellers at 9.6%. Overall, around 35% of urban households in Chhattisgarh use open alternatives, which points towards a large lack in the provision of accessible and affordable public alternatives.

Nothing Down the Drain

FIGURE II.4.4.5: Households with Open or No Drainage Connection

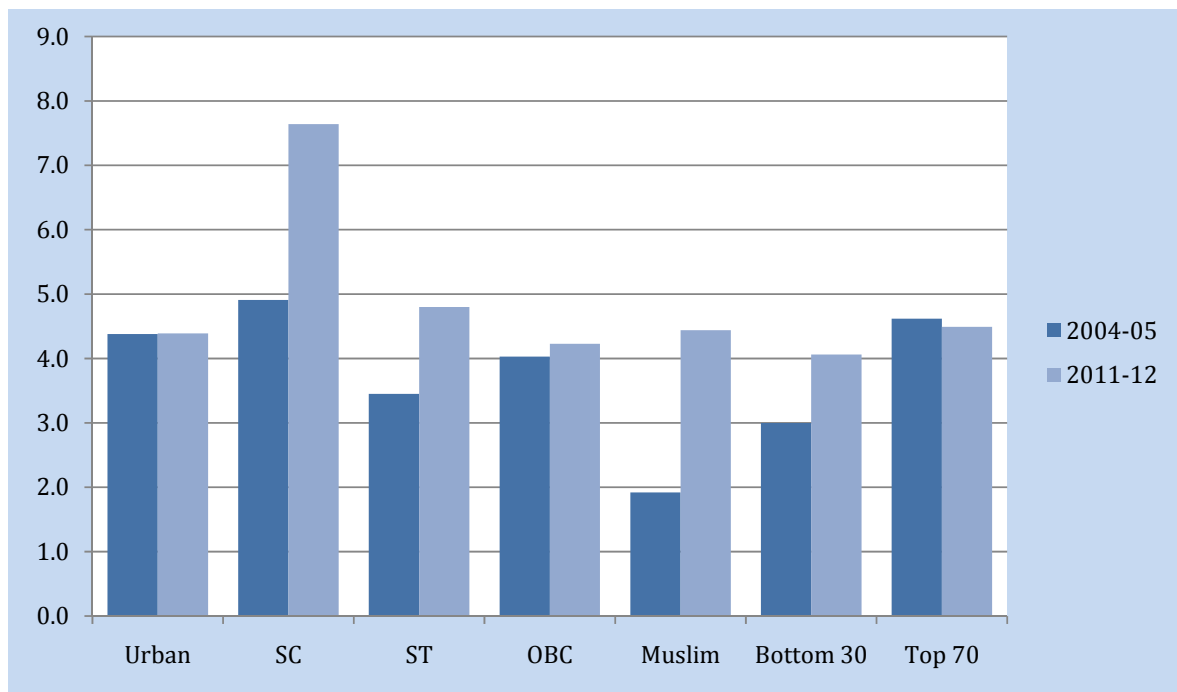


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

According to the Census, while there has been a slight decline in the number of households in urban Chhattisgarh with open or no drainage connection, numbers are still as high as 82.5%. Other than the Muslims which depict numbers below less than half (48.1%), households in all other socio-economic segments of the urban society showed more than 60% of households with deficient or nonexistent access to proper drainage-systems. In terms of expenditure bracket, nearly 80% of the Bottom 30 have no or open drainage connections. The task for the state administration and Urban Local Bodies (ULB) of Chhattisgarh in providing a healthy urban living environment remains huge in the light of the above depicted numbers.

Paying Guests

FIGURE II.4.4.6: Percentage of Household Expenditure on Rent



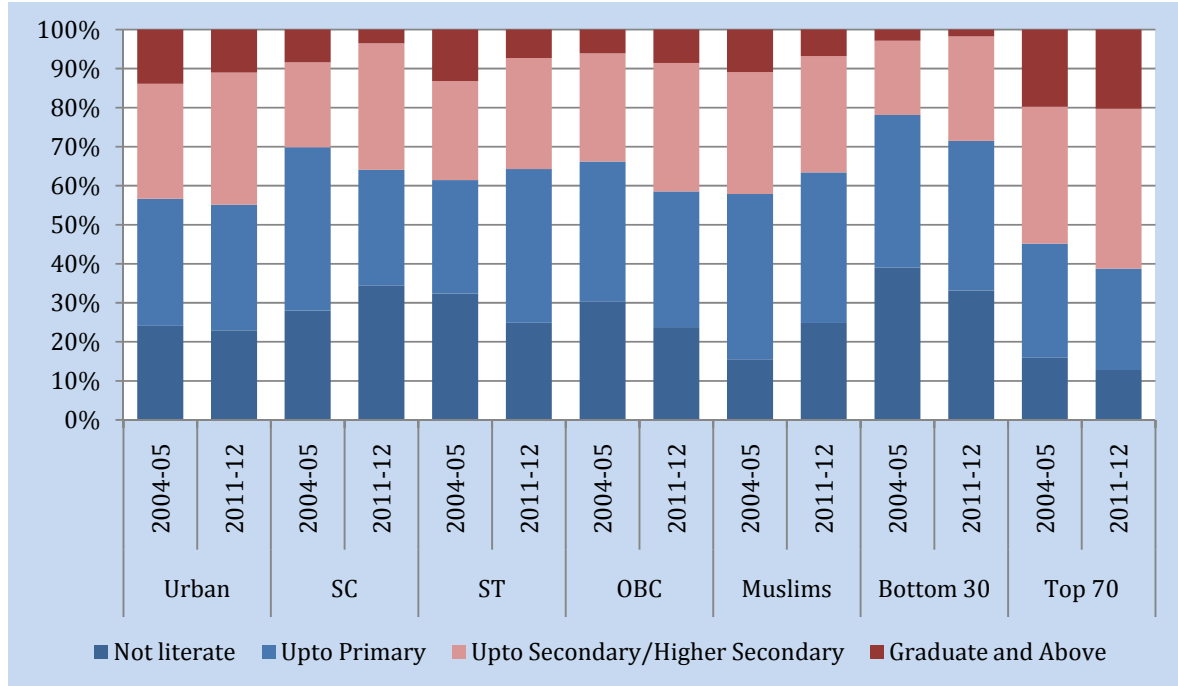
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Monthly expenditure on rent is increasing for urban Chhattisgarh, reaching as high 7.7% for urban SC-households. The only decrease in monthly expenditure on rent has been for the Top 70 expenditure bracket. All social groups have seen increases in the share of monthly expenditure on rent with SCs and Muslims recording the largest increases in terms of percentage points.

The Education Picture

Graded on a Curve

FIGURE II.4.5.1: General Educational Level

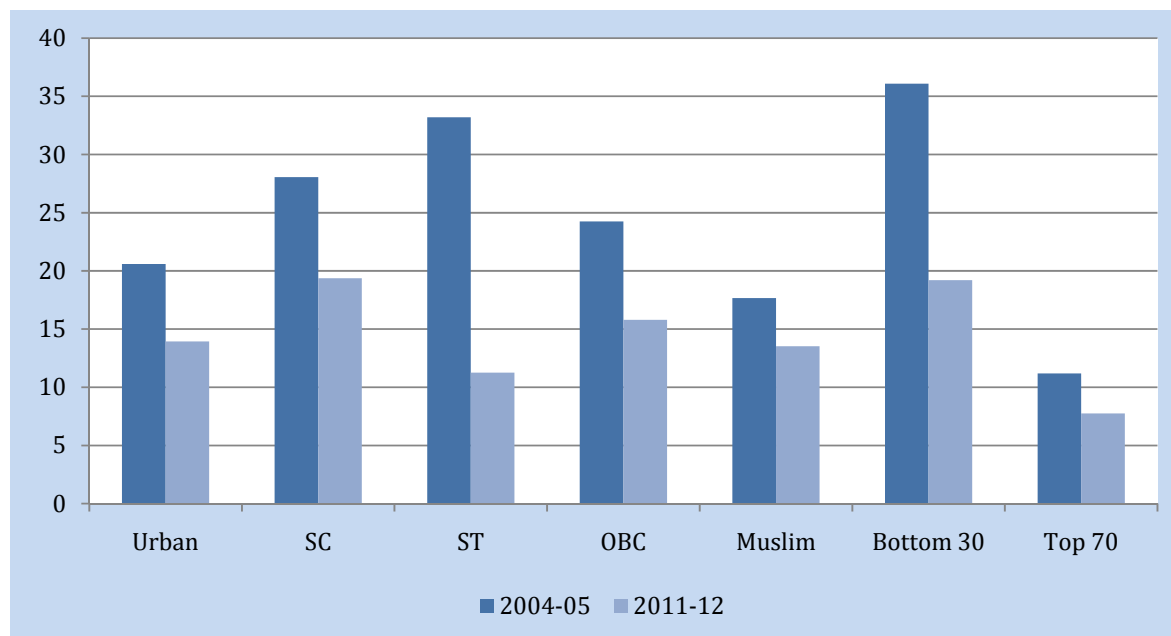


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Overall, changes in the educational structure of urban Chhattisgarh present a mixed picture: On the one hand, a slight decrease in levels of no or lower education is accompanied by an increase in the proportion with secondary education. On the other hand, the proportion of graduates registered a slight decrease. Illiteracy levels among Muslims and members of the SC community have increased whereas there has been a considerable reduction within STs and OBCs since 2004-05. Even though disparities between the two expenditure groups do not display a narrowing trend as yet, the overall educational structure for the Bottom 30 has improved with a gain of nearly ten percentage points within higher educational categories.

Enthusiastically Attending

FIGURE II.4.5.2: Percentage in Age-Group 5-18 currently not attending an Educational Institution

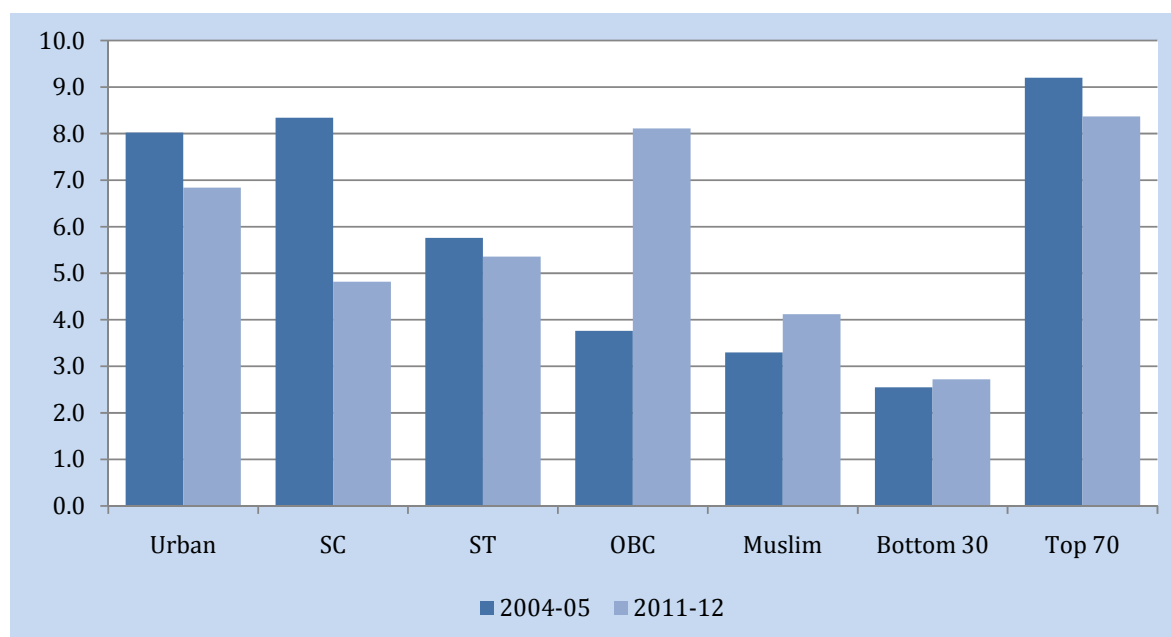


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The percentage in age group 5-18 not attending an educational institution has been decreasing for urban Chhattisgarh. From 33% not attending any educational institution in 2004-05, the percentage among the urban ST-community has decreased to 11%. Other social groups like SCs and OBCs have seen drops of more than eight percentage points respectively. Muslims in the same age group not attending any educational institution have decreased from 17.6% in 2004-05 to 13.5% in 2011-12. The Top 70 expenditure bracket was the lowest among urban Chhattisgarh to begin with, but the significant decrease of 16% among the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket is clearly a development that should be applauded, narrowing down socio-economic disparities in education considerably.

Education Discount

FIGURE II.4.5.3: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Education



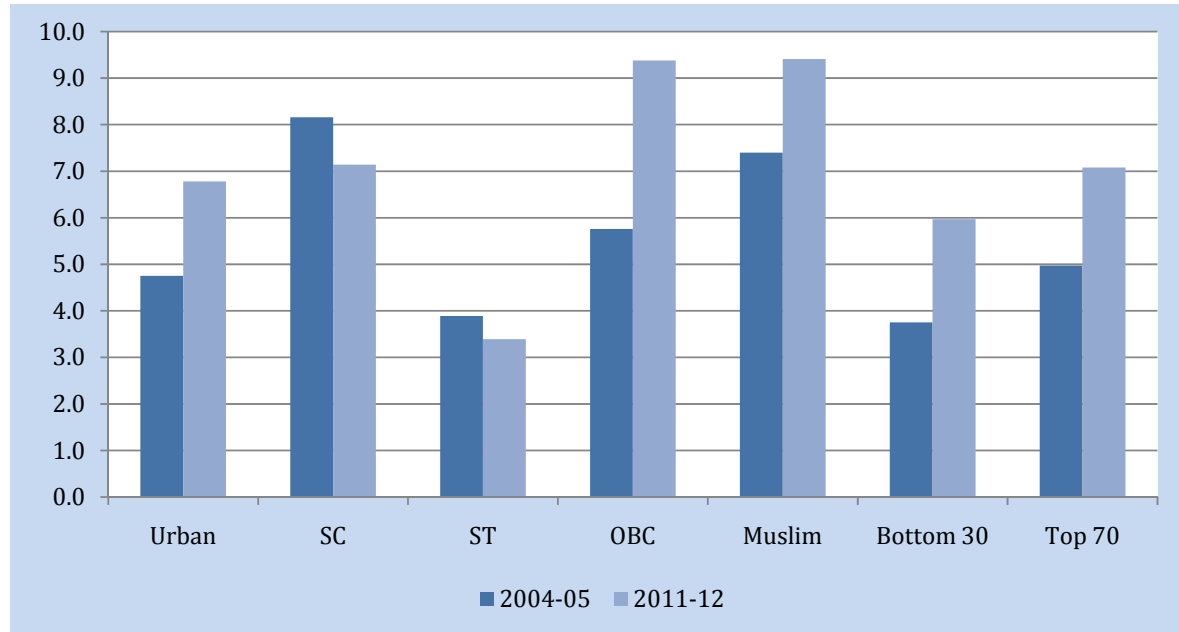
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The share of monthly expenditure on education has decreased for all communities except for the OBCs, Muslims and the Bottom 30. Top 70 is observed to be spending the highest at 8.4% of monthly expenditure on education among all the segments. In terms of social groups, SCs have experienced a decline of 3.5% whereas OBCs have experienced an increase of 4.4%, the maximum rise among all the sub groups.

The Health Picture

Monetarily Demanding (MD)

FIGURE II.4.6.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Health



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

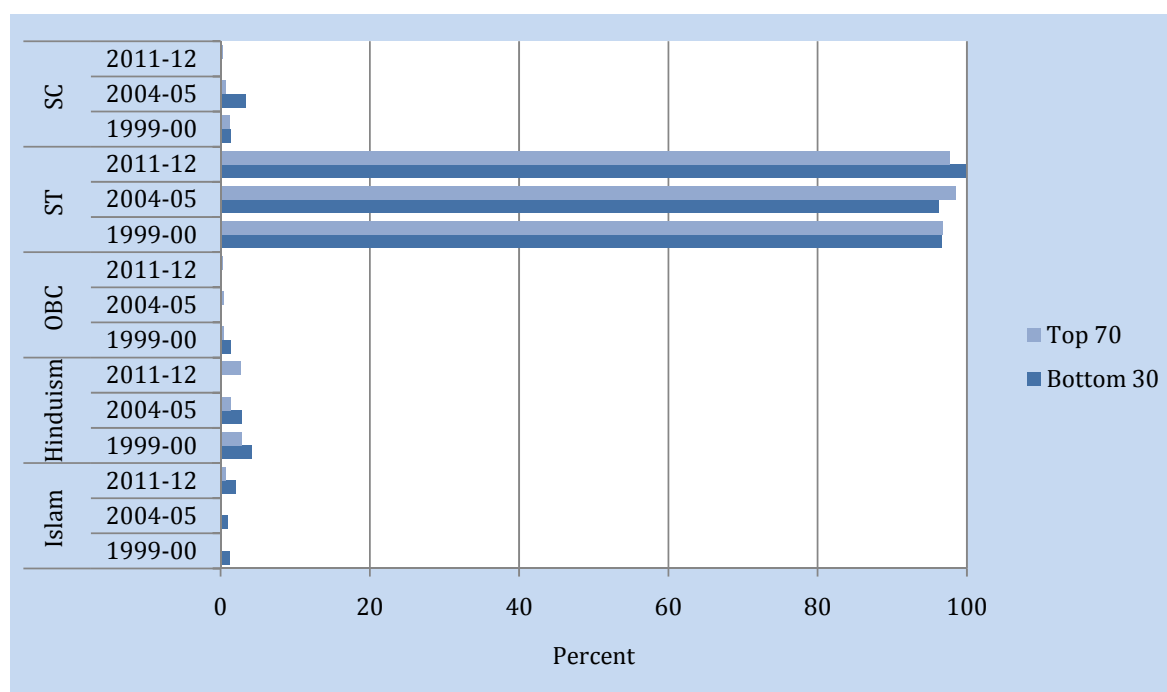
The urban scenario for all the segments shows rising expenditure on health for households in the state except for SCs and STs which display a marginal decrease. Muslim and OBC households spend nearly 10 percent of their monthly expenditure on healthcare, with the latter experiencing the largest increase.

MIZORAM

The Urban Population Picture

Large(ST) Majority

FIGURE II.5.1.1: Social Structure of the “Bottom 30” and “Top 70” Percent of the Monthly Household Expenditure Distribution



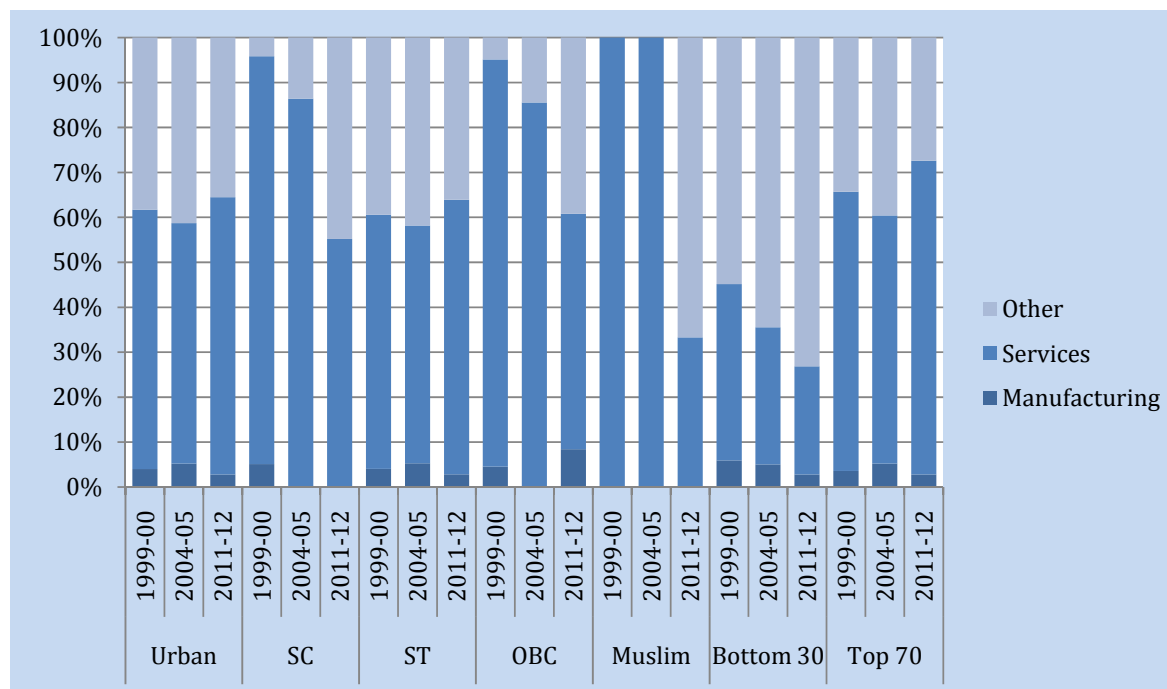
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

According to the latest Census 2011, 93% of the total urban population of Mizoram belong to the ST community. Until 2004-05, the percentage of STs in the Top 70 expenditure bracket was either higher if not the same as the percentage in the Bottom 30. By 2011-12, this trend has seen a shift towards a proportionally higher percentage of STs in the Bottom 30 as compared to the Top 70. While most other social and religious groups have little to no significant presence in the state, the trend of shifts between Bottom 30 and Top 70 are similar to that of the STs. The only difference is seen among the Top 70 in the Hindu community which rose from 1.4% in 2004-05 to 2.7% in 2011-12.

The Economy and Employment Picture

Service to Others

FIGURE II.5.2.1: Structure of Employment by Type of Industry

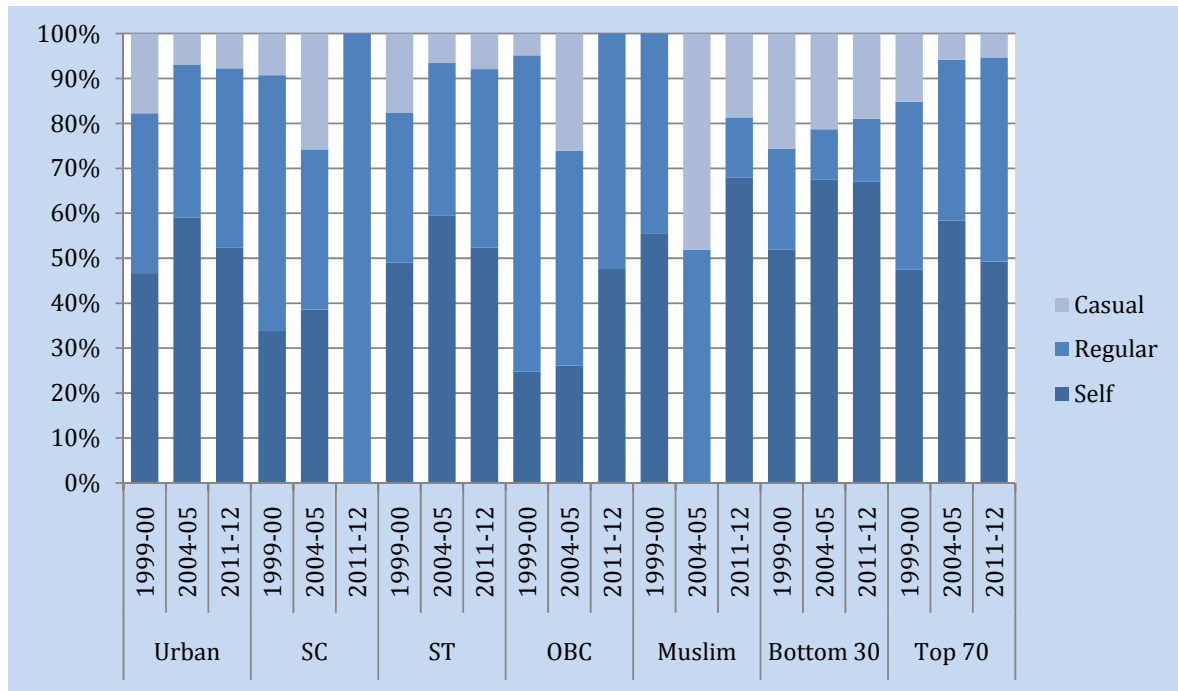


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The structure of employment in Mizoram is different from the other states studied in this report. Manufacturing is negligible in the state. While there is a presence of some manufacturing in the expenditure brackets of Top 70 and Bottom 30, the percentages are so low that they make no real impact on the structure of employment in the state. On the other hand, services and other types of industry are dominant in all social, religious or expenditure groups. Differences between the Bottom 30 and Top 70 are clearly visible: Whereas the Top 70 are increasingly able to access employment opportunities in the presumably more stable and secure services sector, the Bottom 30 are confined to employment outside the manufacturing and services sector.

Selfie

FIGURE II.5.2.2: Structure of Employment by Work Status

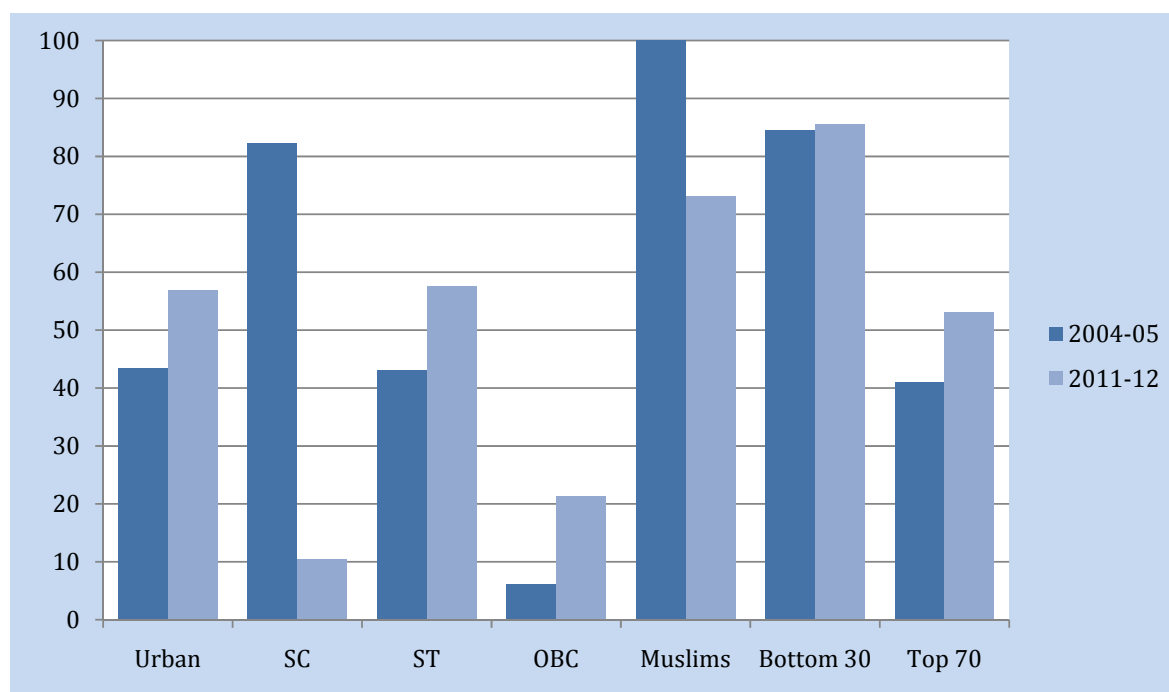


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The structure of employment by work status in Mizoram is still dominated by self-employment. While a shift towards regular employment is starting to appear, self employment still remains the prevalent work status for most social, religious and expenditure groups. However, the shift towards secure regular employment is carried by the Top 70, whereas the Bottom 30 experienced a decline in regular work status towards self-employment.

Unwritten Confirmations

FIGURE II.5.2.3: Percentage of Workers without a written Job Contract

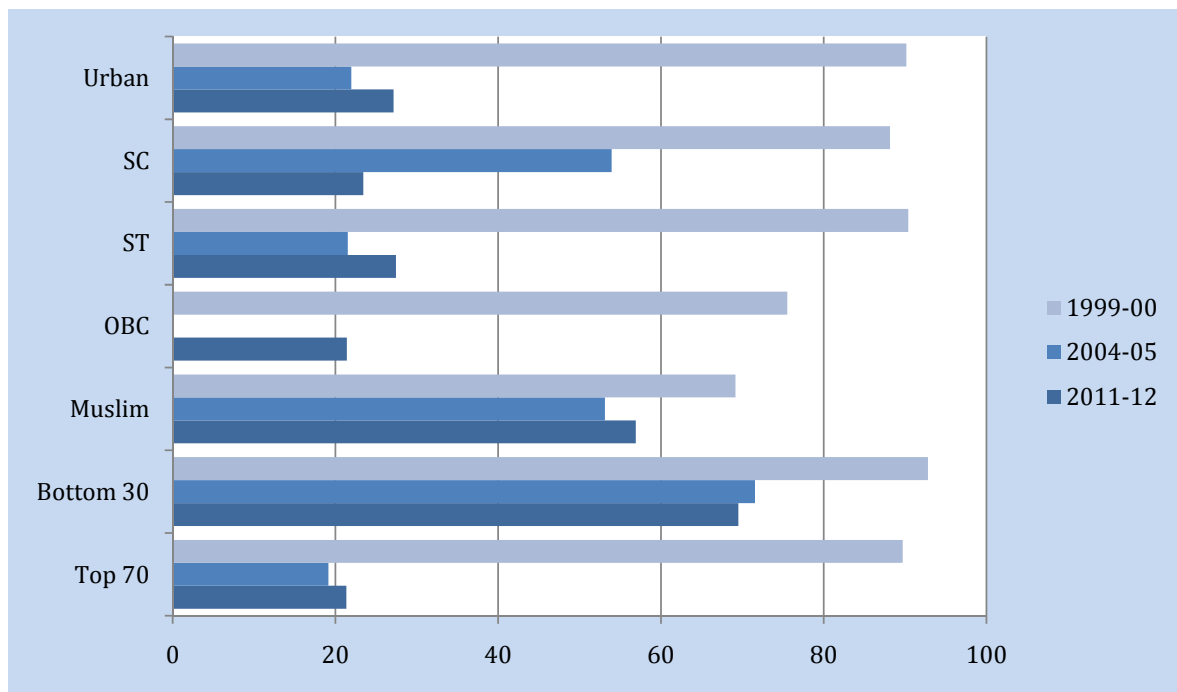


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

The number of workers without job contracts in Mizoram is on the rise among the urban population of the state. From just above 40% in 2004-05, the number has since risen to nearly 60%. Significant increases were seen among the ST and OBC population rising 14% and 15% respectively. Both groups within our defined expenditure brackets also witnessed increases, though the increase in the Bottom 30, which was already high, was marginal. 85% of the Bottom 30 have no job contracts. The surprising numbers though were for SCs and Muslims, with both groups displaying substantial reductions in their respective shares of workers with no written contract. However, the small sample size of these communities within urban Mizoram has to be kept in mind.

More Eligible for Social Security

FIGURE II.5.2.4: Percentage of Workers not eligible for Social Security Benefits



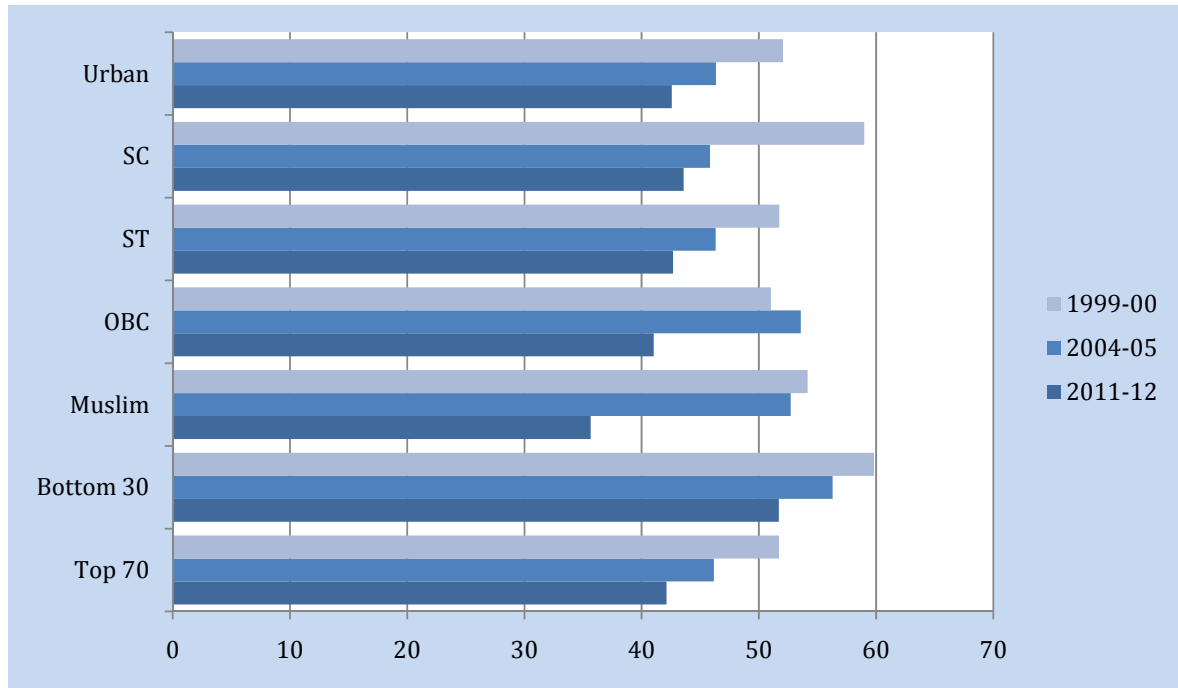
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

In 1999-00, in the Top 70 expenditure bracket only 10% of people had social security benefits. By 2011-12, this number has increased to more than 78%. The trend of increasing numbers of those eligible for social security is visible among the various groups in urban Mizoram. At the urban average, in 1999-00 the number of people ineligible for SSBs was as high as 90%, the number today stands below 28%. One of the sharpest decreases of ineligibility is seen among the majority ST population of Mizoram, where ineligibility has fallen almost 63.1% since 1999-00. While in the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket the number of those ineligible for SSB still remains at staggering 70%, the simple fact that the number has reduced by 22% from 92% is a sign of remarkable progress.

The Consumption and Assets Picture

Cheaper by the Dozen

FIGURE II.5.3.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure on Food Items

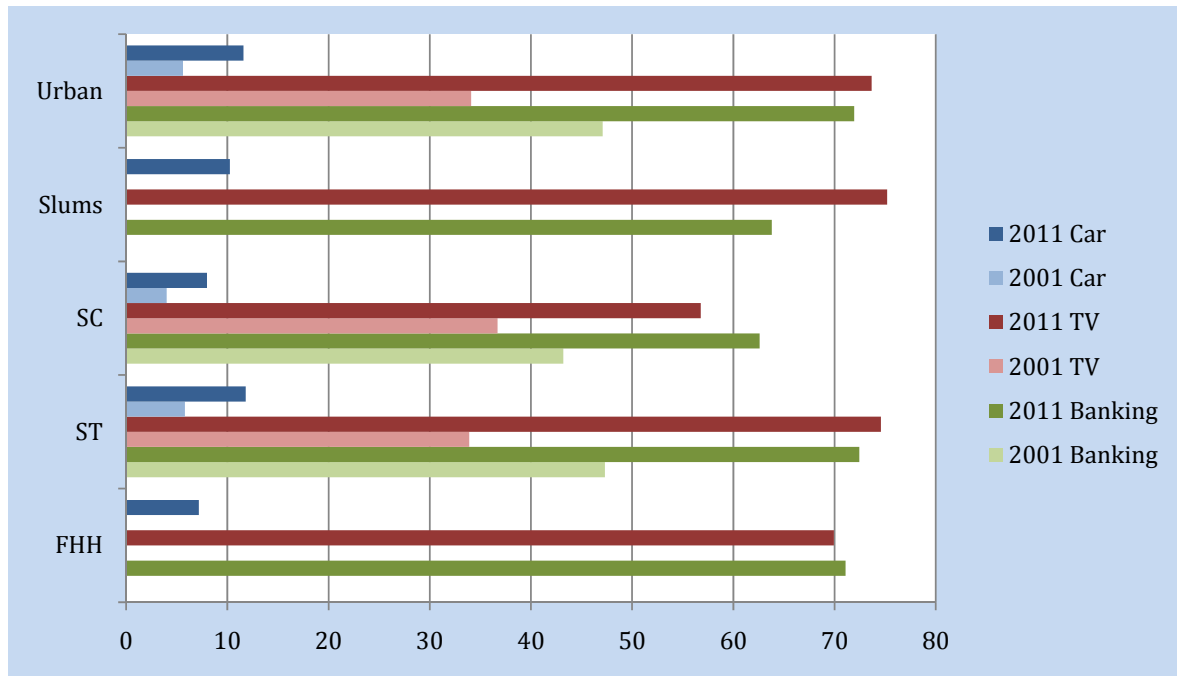


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Monthly consumption expenditure on food items has decreased for all communities since 1999-00. By 2011-12 SC, ST, and OBC households display proportions similar to the urban average, with Muslims spending a considerably lesser share of monthly expenditure on food. Disparities between the Top 70 and Bottom 30 are clearly visible, with the latter having to spend nearly ten percentage points more than the former.

Informed, Mobile and Financially Secure

FIGURE II.5.3.2: Percentage of Households availing Banking Services and owning a Car and TV 2001-2011



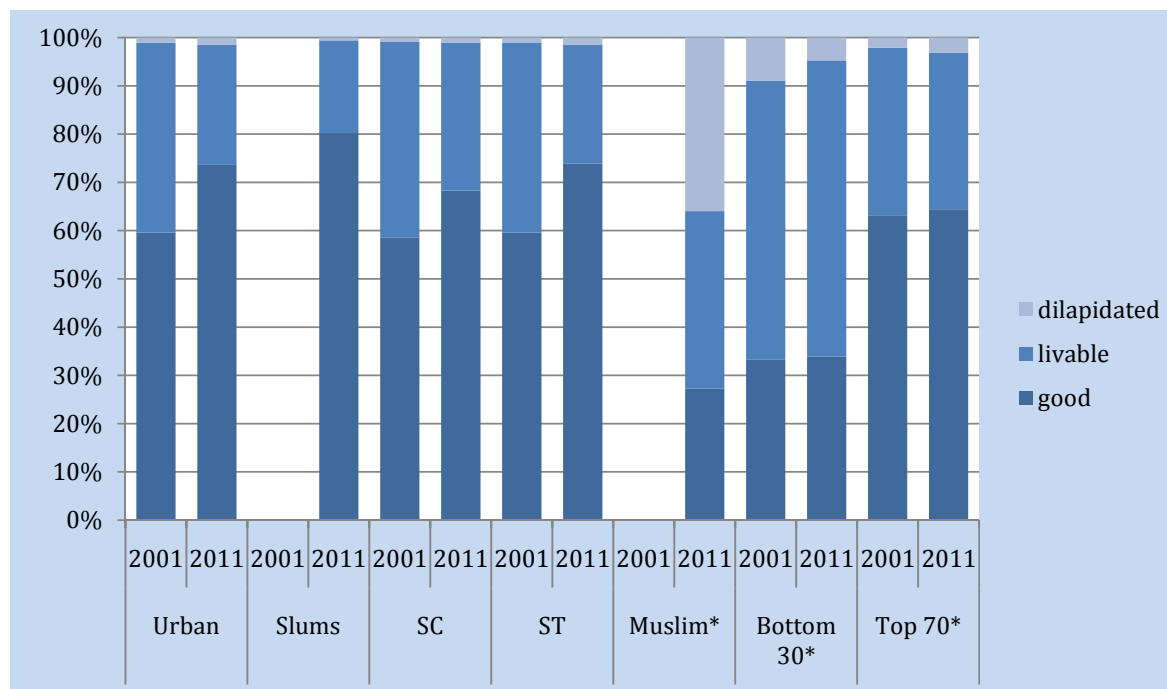
Source: COI 2001, 2011

Mizoram’s expenditure on access to information, mobility and financial services is on the rise. With numbers as high as 75% TV ownership and 65% availing banking services among slum households, the urban picture for Mizoram in terms of consumption of services and commodities looks comparatively good. On average, 72% of the urban population of Mizoram have a bank account and 73% own a TV. Approximately 12% own a car in the state. Most groups within the social structure of Mizoram are close to the urban average, the only exception being urban SC households. While the numbers for SCs in terms of car and TV ownership and use of banking services have risen since 2001, they are still relatively lower than not only other social segments but significantly lower than the urban average as well.

The Housing, Infrastructure and Services Picture

That Homely Feeling

FIGURE II.5.4.1: Subjective Housing Condition, 2001 & 2011

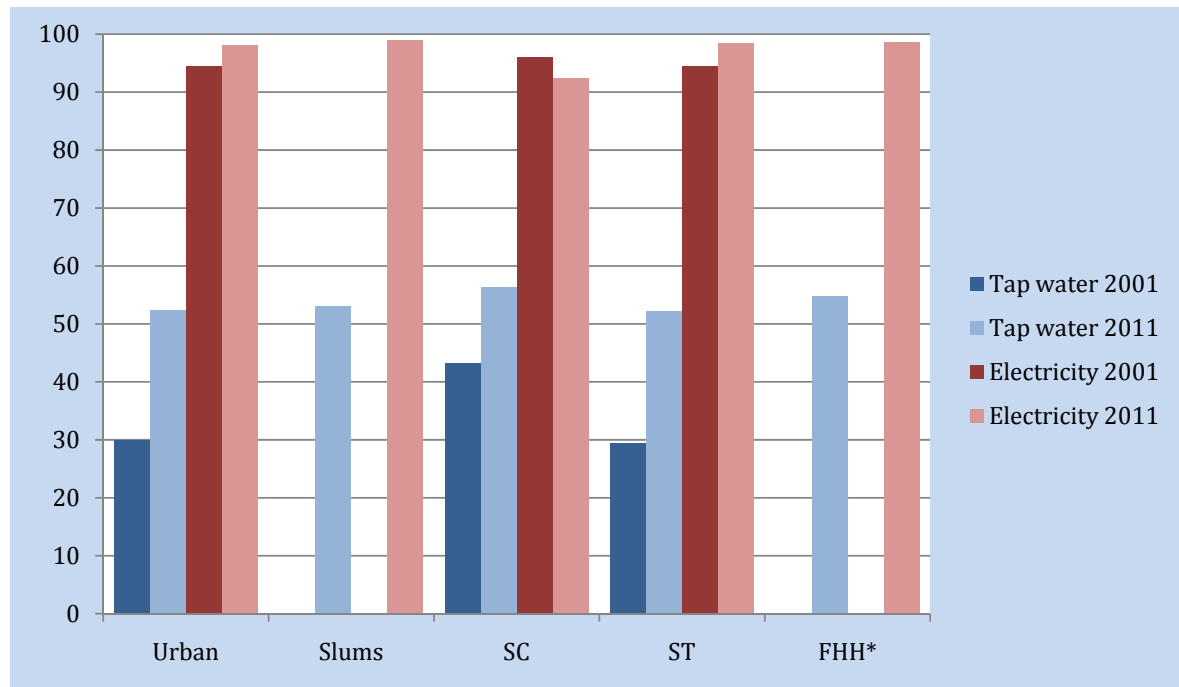


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9)

More than 70% of Mizoram’s urban population lives in good housing conditions, up from 60% a decade earlier. In the expenditure bracket, the majority of the Top 70 said they lived in good housing conditions, only 3.2% noted dilapidated housing conditions. On the other hand, the Bottom 30 expenditure group noted a majority in the liveable category of housing condition with numbers as high as 61.4% in 2011. The largest record of dilapidated housing conditions was seen among Muslims households with 36% noting this to be the case. Surprisingly, nearly 80% of slum residents noted living in good housing conditions.

Illuminated Dehydration

FIGURE II.5.4.2: Percentage of Households with Access to Tap Water and Electricity within Premises

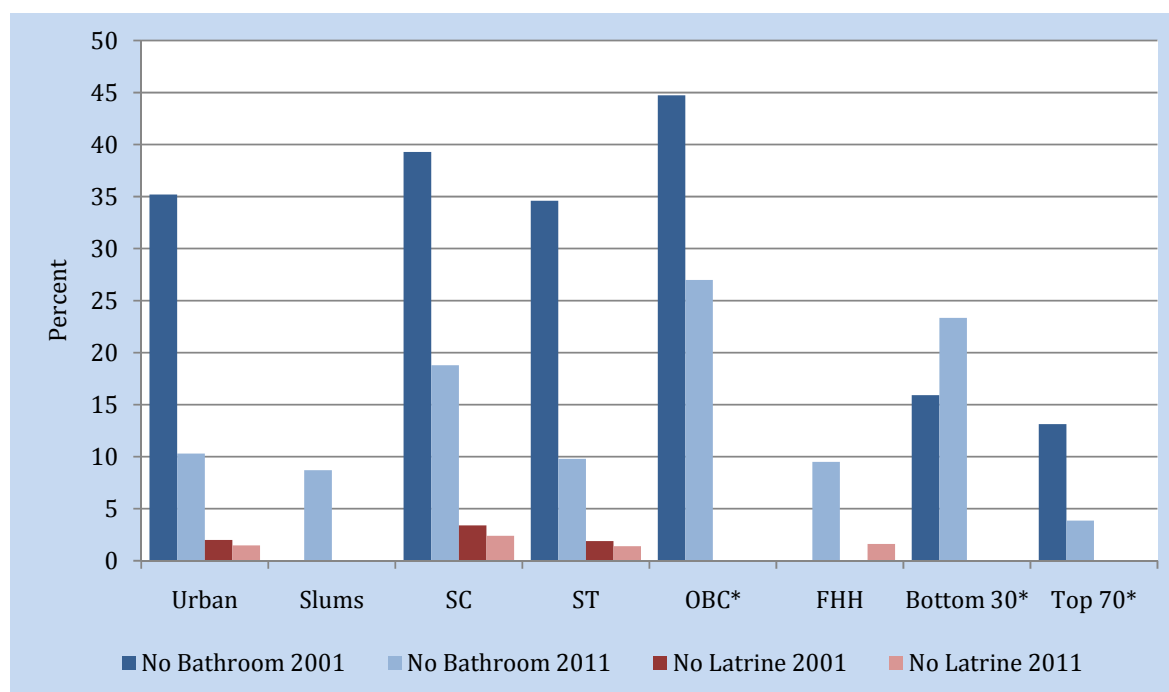


Source: COI; * Female-Headed-Households

With nearly 99% of urban households with electricity connection, access to electricity for urban households in Mizoram is well secured. But access to tap water within premises is still relatively low. Only 52% of urban households have access to tap water, the highest among the SC community at 56%. While the proportion has increased considerably since 2001, the success of providing electricity to all is negated by the lack of providing safe tap water.

Bathrooms Not Included

FIGURE II.5.4.3: Households without Bathroom and Latrine within Premises

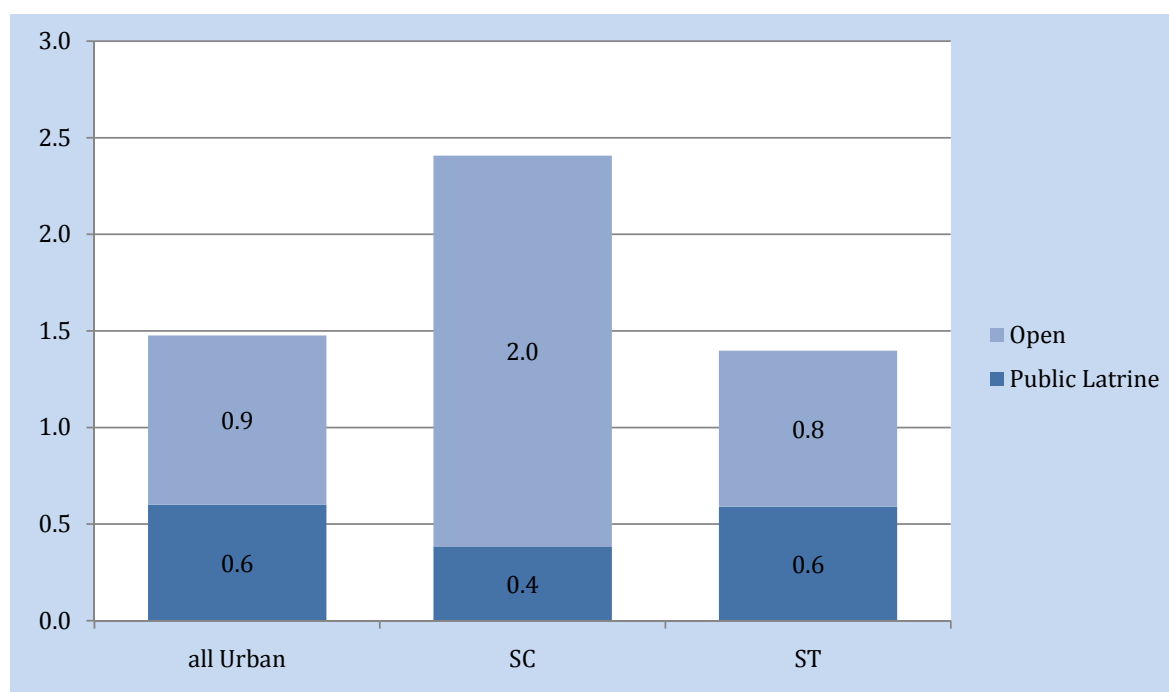


Source: COI; * based on NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS 58th (2002) & 65th round (2008-9); FHH: Female-headed household

Almost all urban households in Mizoram have attached latrines within the premises. On the other hand, Mizoram households lack attached bathrooms. In 2001, 45% of OBC households had no bathroom within their premises. At an urban average, 35% did not have the same. In 2011, the numbers have improved considerably with only 10% of urban households without private bathrooms. Interestingly, in the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket, the number of households without bathrooms has in fact increased, rising from 15% in 2001 to 23% in 2011, displaying a sharp increase in economic inequalities.

Open Air Outhouse

FIGURE II.5.4.4: Alternative Provision for Households without Latrine as Percentage of Total Households in the respective Category, 2011



Source: COI 2011

With most households having latrines within the premises in Mizoram a very small percentage needs to look for alternate provision for their daily needs. Surprisingly though, people without latrines in their homes prefer open defecation than use of public latrines. At an urban aggregate, 0.9% of households use the open for their need compared to 0.6% who use public latrines. Among the SC community, the proportion of households who use open areas goes as high as 2%, with only 0.4% using public facilities. A more even divide, 0.8% to 0.6% is seen among ST households. While some open air defecation may exist, the low number of people without latrines and low number of people who use open air for their needs is an exemplary scenario of progressive urbanisation.

Free Flowing

FIGURE II.5.4.5: Households with Open or No Drainage Connection

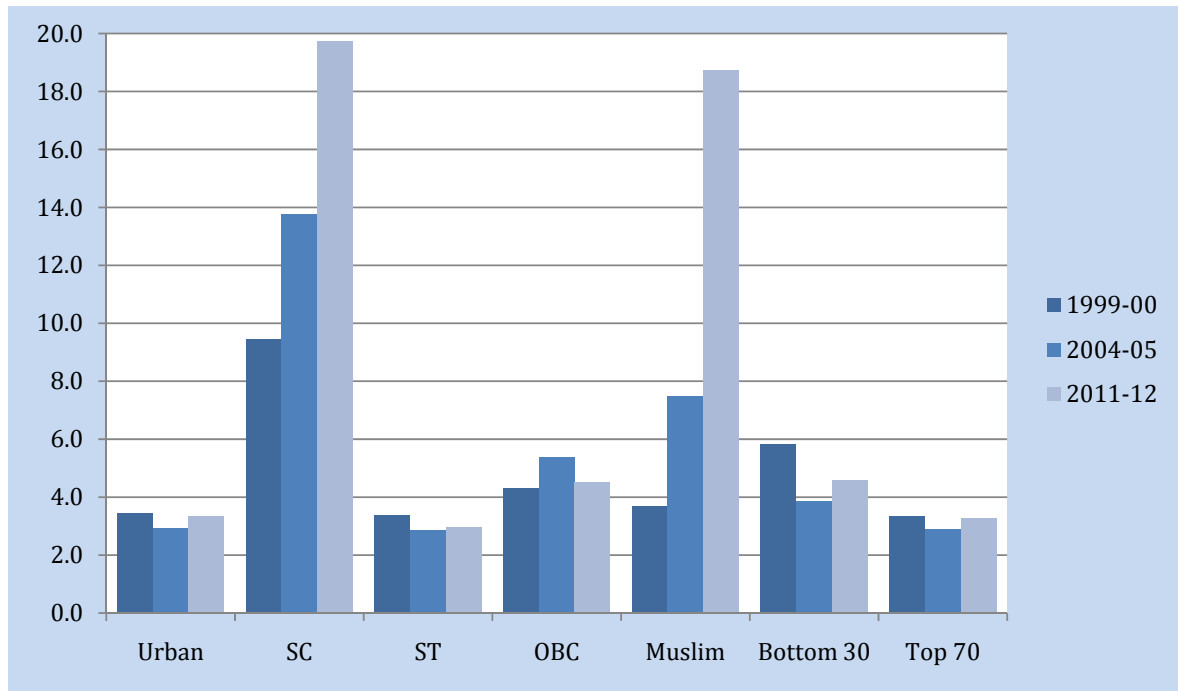


Source: COI; FHH: Female-Headed Household

While the percentage of households with no or open drainage may have decreased since 2001, the percentage still remains as high as 79.6% of households with no or open drainage connections in urban Mizoram. No significant disparities in the provision of a modern drainage-system are visible, as all spatial and social segments cluster around the urban average.

Higher Rent Added (HRA)

FIGURE II.5.4.6: Percentage of Household Expenditure on Rent



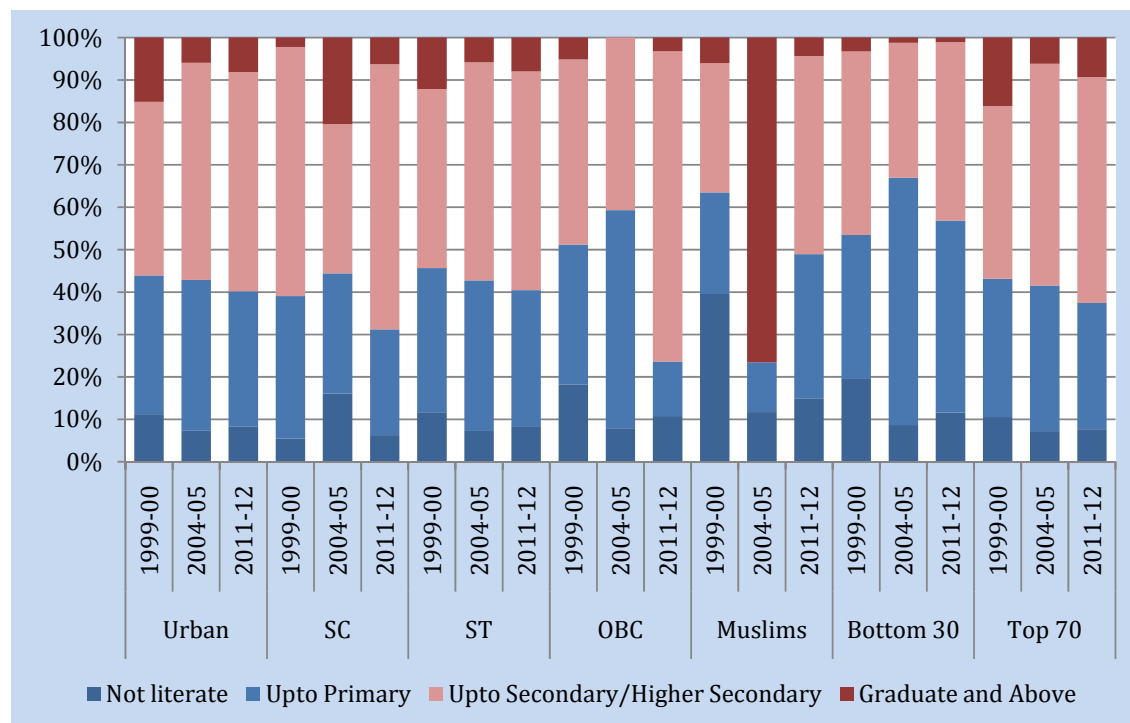
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

At the urban aggregate level, the percentage of monthly expenditure on rent has decreased since 1999-00, mainly spurred by the decrease for most social and expenditure groups in the state. The bottom 30 expenditure group decreased from 5.8% to 4.5% while the ST expenditure share on rent declined from 3.3% to 2.9%. But for social communities like the SC and OBC, monthly expenditure on rent has increased. The most dramatic increase has been for SC and Muslim households with a jump of more than ten percentage points since 1999-00. Again, the small sample size for these groups within urban Mizoram has to be considered.

The Education Picture

12th Pass

FIGURE II.5.5.1: General Educational Level

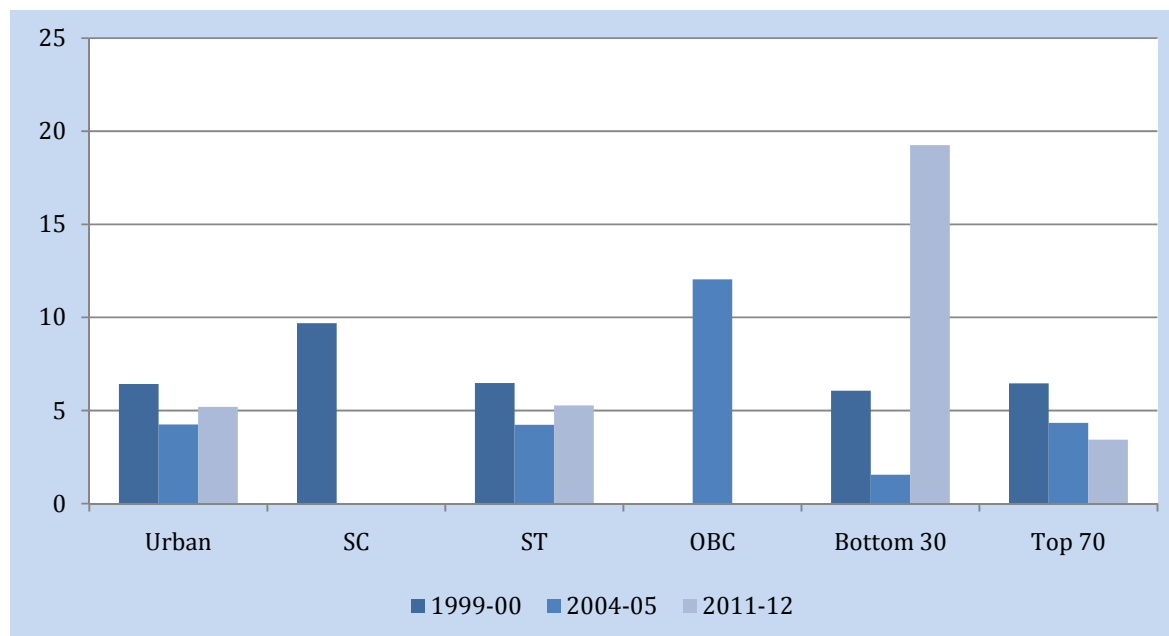


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

At the urban aggregate level, changes in the educational structure of Mizoram display to trends: On the one hand, the proportion with no or low education is slightly decreasing, and the share with higher education slightly increasing. However, a significant drop in the proportion of graduates might be an indication of a lack of employment opportunities for the well-educated in urban Mizoram. Socio-economic disparities with regard to education have widened in the light of increasing proportions of lower educational levels within the Bottom 30 compared to rising levels of higher education within the Top 70.

Poor Attendance

FIGURE II.5.5.2: Percentage in Age-Group 5-18 currently not attending an Educational Institution

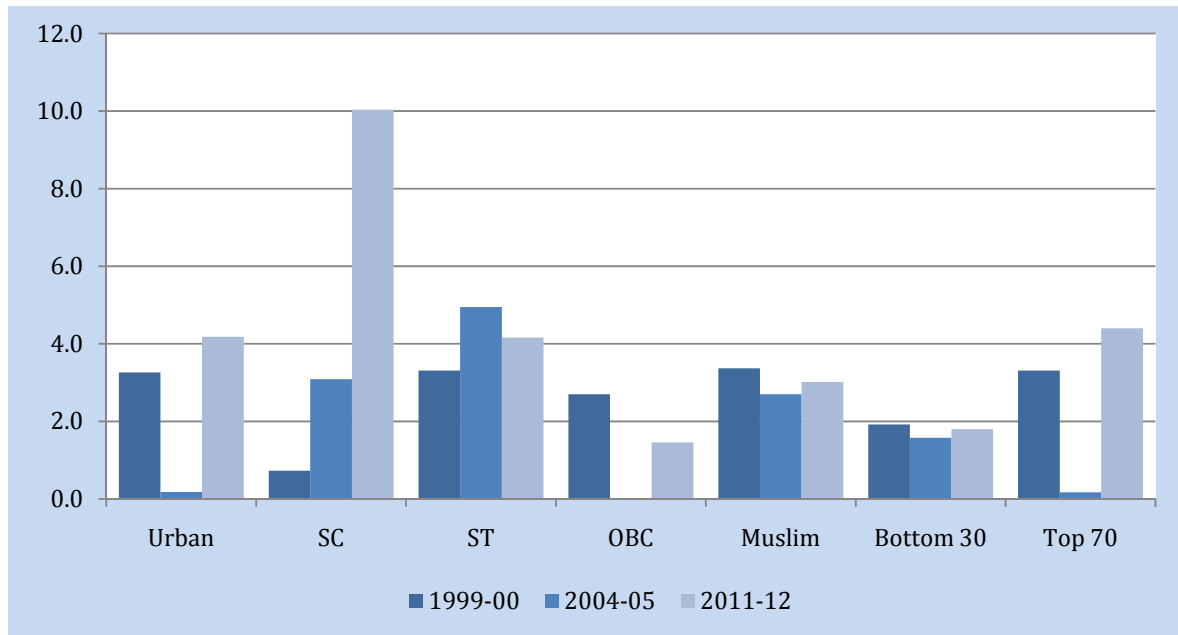


Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Urban Mizoram has experienced a decrease of 1.23 percent in the number of individuals not attending an education institution since 1999-00, the least being in 2004-05. Similar trends can be noticed among all the communities having observed a decrease in the percentage of children not attending any educational institution except for the Bottom 30 expenditure group. There is a sharp increase from 6.06 percent in 1999-00 to 19.25 percent in 2011-12 in this regard. The most phenomenal feature to be observed here is that among the SCs and the OBCs, the non-attendance percentage has declined to zero indicating all the individuals aged 5-18 years are attending some educational institution. STs is worst among all the social groups still having 5.27 percent of the people not attending any educational institution. There is a wide disparity between the two expenditure groups, Bottom 30 and Top 70 in the non-attendance rate (19.25 percent and 3.44 percent respectively). This reveals that school attendance is an issue affecting all the low income groups of the society.

The Rising Cost of Learning

FIGURE II.5.5.3: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Education



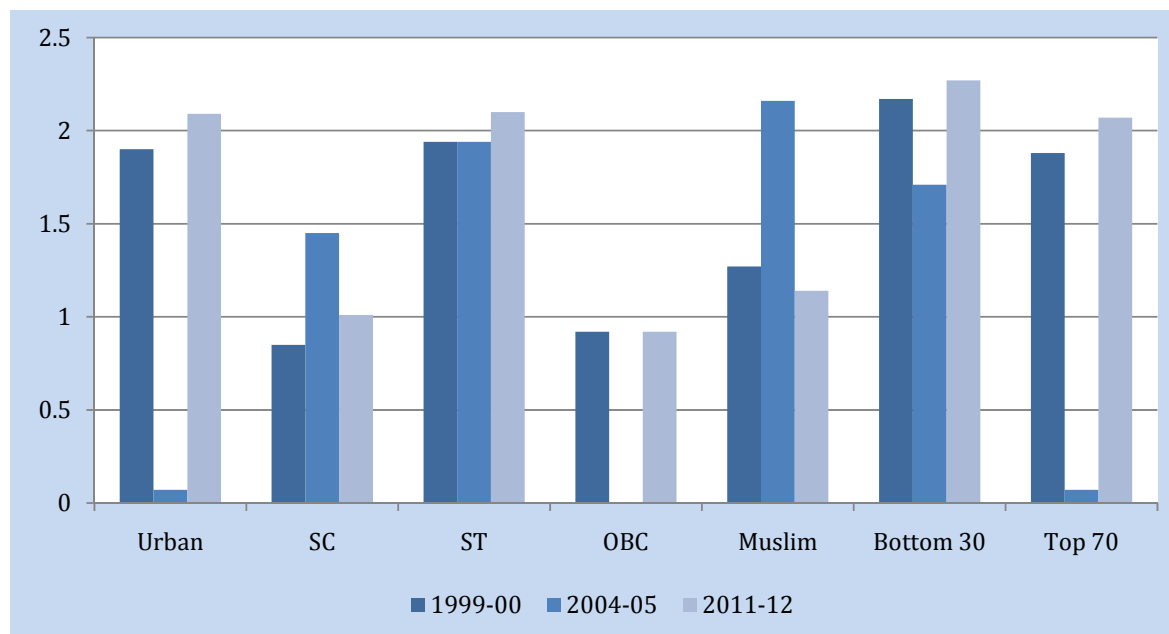
Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Urban Mizoram households are spending larger percentages of their monthly expenditure on education in 2011-12 in comparison to its share in 1999-00. Among social groups, SCs and STs saw an increase in monthly expenditure while OBC communities saw a decrease. The bottom 30 of the expenditure bracket also experienced a marginal decrease since 1999-00, while the Top 70 saw a healthy increase (1.1%) in monthly expenditure on education.

The Health Picture

Money Buys Better Service (MBBS)

FIGURE II.5.6.1: Percentage of Monthly Household Expenditure on Health



Source: NSS @ORF INDIA DATALABS

Percentage of monthly expenditure on health for urban Mizoram is on the rise. While the increase may not be as large as in some of the other states, households in the state are spending more on health as compared to what they were in 1999-00. The rise in expenditure has been significant for all segments. Social groups like SCs and STs have witnessed a 0.15% increase in monthly expenditure, while expenditure for OBCs has remained the same since 1999-00. Among religious communities, Muslim households have in fact seen a decrease in monthly expenditure on health, falling from 1.2% in 1999-00 to 1.1% by 2011-12. The bottom 30 of the expenditure bracket witnessed an increase of 0.1% in their monthly expenditure on health while the Top 70 bracket paid 0.17% more since 1999-00.

Section III: Small is beautiful? Intercity Disparities

The previous two sections have clearly demonstrated that most of the core topics and indicators covered in this report are characterised by disparities and inequalities at different levels: At the interstate-level between different states, and at the intrastate-level between different socio-economic sections of the respective urban societies. The two examined urban size- and status-categories (Million Cities and Census Towns) already gave an indication of persisting disparities between different urban settlements. In the following section we zoom more closely into differences within the urban settlement system, i.e. between different size-classes of cities and towns, taking the large states of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh as case studies. Our focus lies in disparities in the provision of public infrastructure and selected housing amenities.

For this descriptive analysis we use data from the Census 2001 and 2011. This allows us to analyse developments in the last decade by combining both Census years into a panel-dataset comprising nearly 600 statutory towns and cities in the chosen states. To view the current development status in the respective urban settlement systems we use Census data for 2011 covering all statutory towns (N=717).

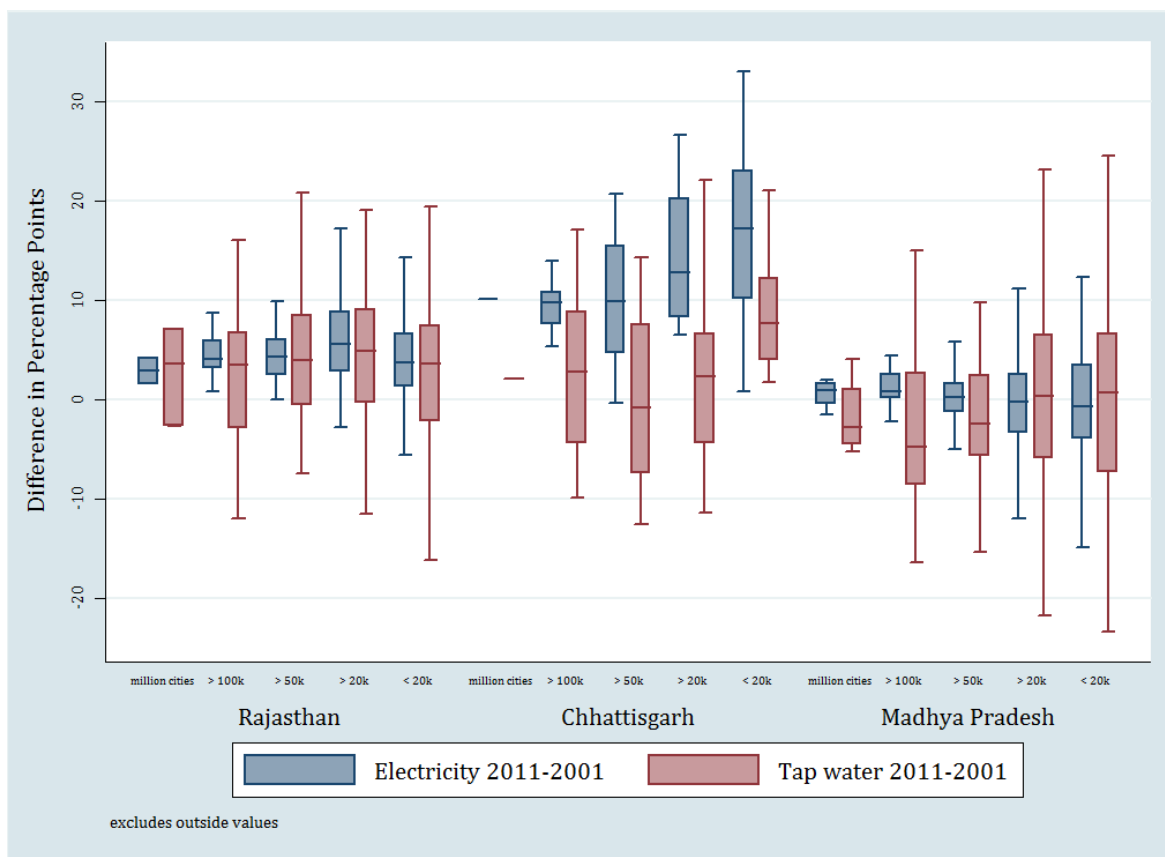
The following indicators are analysed: Access to electricity and tap water, availability of bathroom and latrine within premises, and proportion of households with open or no drainage connection. Using panel-data and looking at the differences in these indicators between 2001 and 2011, we can track improvements and the performance of state administrations and Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) across different size-classes.

Additionally, we combine the electricity and water variables into a *bijli-paani*-index, and the other variables into a *sanitation*-index. These indexes are constructed using an inverse-proportional asset weight based on all-India urban averages, i.e. if 80 percent of all urban households do have access to electricity, the index-weight for the electricity variable is 20, and vice versa. Actual variable-values for individual towns are then multiplied by the respective weights and summed up. These indices allow us to compare the progress and status of infrastructure and housing conditions between different size-classes and between the chosen states. As a graphical analytical tool we use box-plot charts, with the box representing 50 percent of all towns in the respective size-class, and the horizontal line within the box marking the median.

The Performance of ULB's in Service and Infrastructure Provision

Lightning up Small Town-Chhattisgarh

FIGURE III.1.1: Difference in Percentage of Households with access to electricity and tap Water (within premises) by urban size-class, 2011-2001

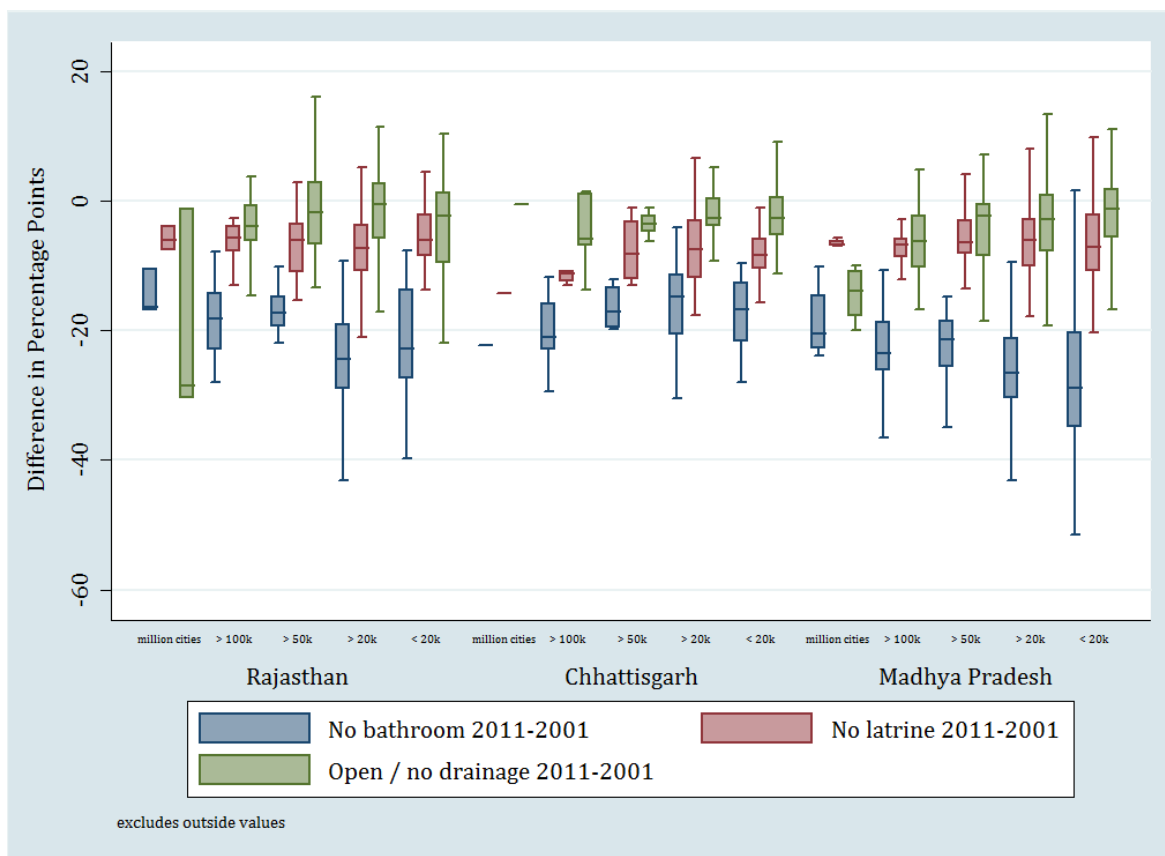


Source: COI 2001, 2011; own calculation

As has been shown before, access of urban households to electricity has become nearly universal. Developments in Chhattisgarh in the last decade show a remarkable catching-up process especially within smaller urban centres. The same holds true to a lesser extent in the provision of tap water. In Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh developments were rather uniformly across different size-classes, with no specific disparities detectable. However, cities and towns in Madhya Pradesh hardly display any progress as can be seen by their clustering along the zero-line, in the case of access to tap water even indicating a worsening situation in million cities and large towns.

No Clear Picture

FIGURE III.1.2: Difference in Percentage of Households without bathroom, latrine and open or no drainage connection by urban size-class, 2011-2001

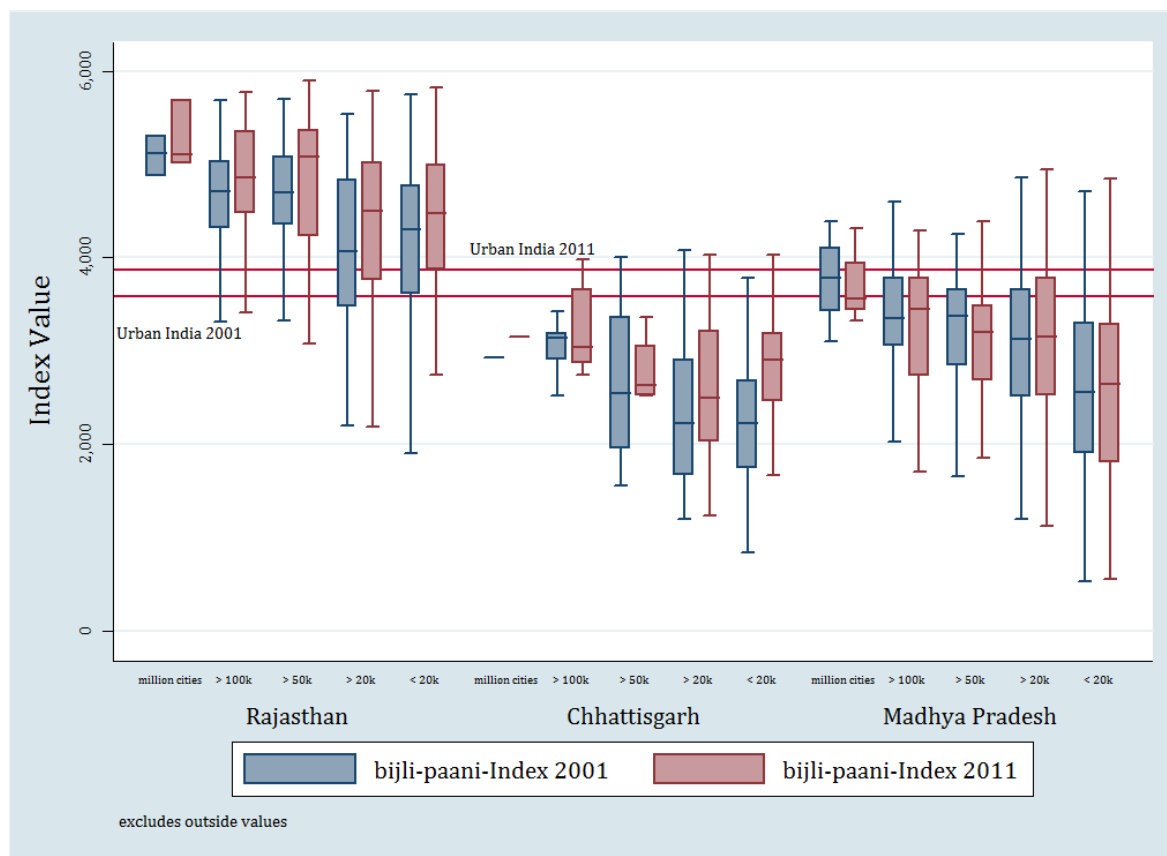


Source: COI 2001, 2011; own calculation

As depicted in the graph, most progress has been made in the availability of private bathrooms in all states and across all size-classes, especially in small towns in Madhya Pradesh. The other two indicators display only limited positive developments, with improvements in the drainage systems of million cities in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh standing out. Thus improvements in urban sanitary conditions have not trickled down the urban hierarchy as yet. Availability of private latrines has seen increases more or less uniformly across different urban settlements and states.

A Clear Picture – Small Not So Beautiful

FIGURE III.1.3: The *bijli-paani*-Index by urban size-class, 2001 & 2011

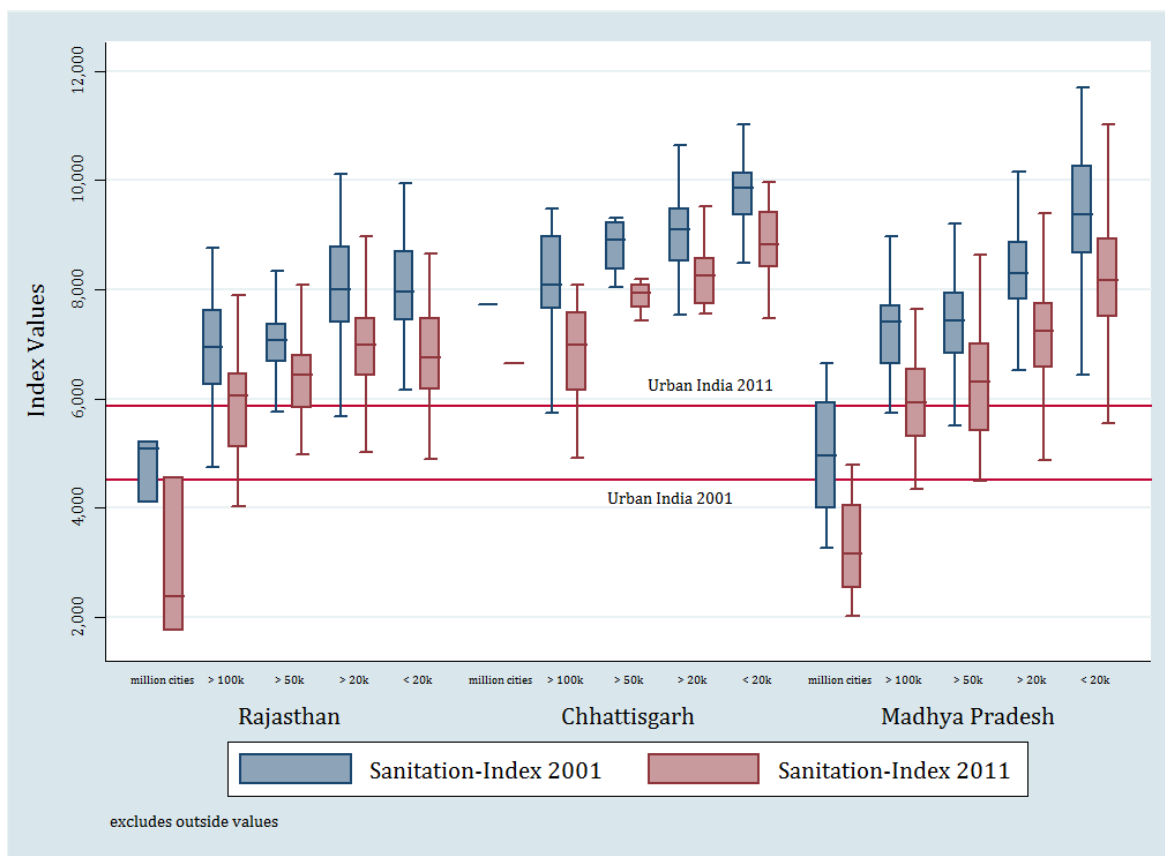


Source: COI 2001, 2011; , own calculation

After combining the electricity and water variable into a *bijli-paani*-index for 2001 and 2011, a clear and expected picture emerges as the index allows for a value-comparison “the higher the better”: Larger urban centres in all the states offer better access conditions with respect to these two variables. A falling gradient down the urban hierarchy is clearly visible in all states. Interestingly, all different size-classes in Rajasthan lie above the all-India value for 2011, while in Madhya Pradesh only the Million Cities have reached this level. All urban settlements in Chhattisgarh are lagging far behind, having not yet managed to even come close to the all-India index-value for 2001.

Small Towns even Less Beautiful

FIGURE III.1.4: The Sanitation-Index by urban size-class, 2001 & 2011



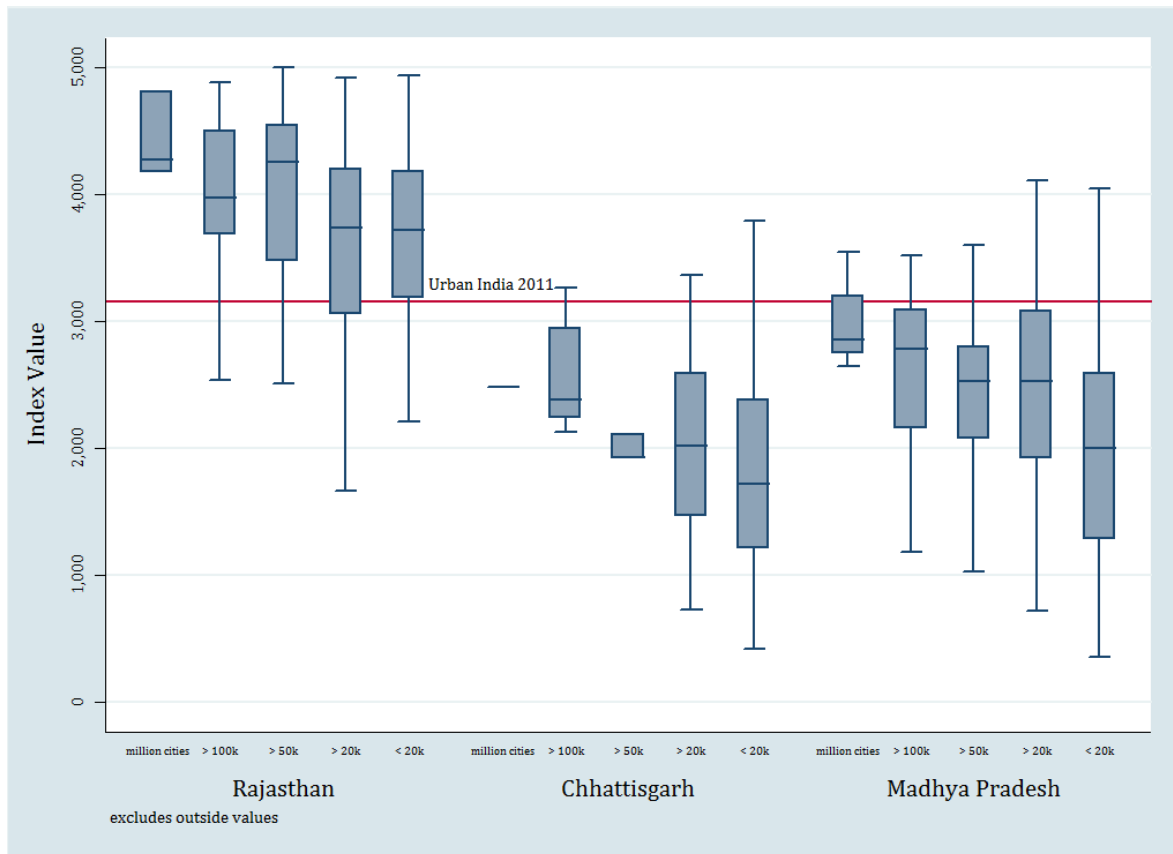
Source: COI 2001, 2011; own calculation

The sanitation-index built from the three variables on availability of bathroom and latrine within premises and open or no drainage-connection allows for a value-comparison “the less the better”: Again a clear gradient down the urban hierarchy emerges, displaying large persisting disparities in housing conditions between large and small towns. While Chhattisgarh is lagging far behind, in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh only Million Cities lie below the all-India urban value. Progress between 2001 and 2011 has been most significant for large urban centres, with smaller towns displaying as well improvements in private sanitary conditions.

The State of Service and Infrastructure Provision

Confirmed Picture

FIGURE II.1.1: The *bijli-paani*-Index 2011

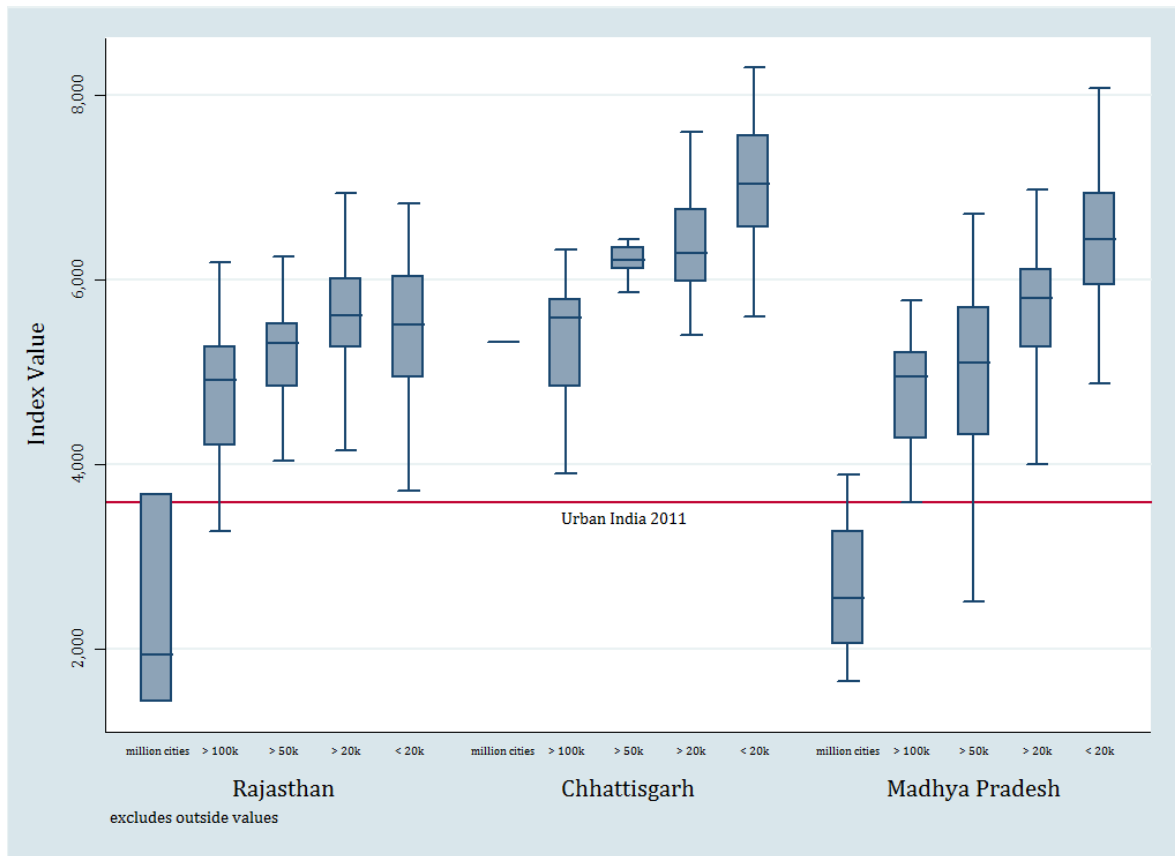


Source: COI 2011, own calculation

Looking at the current status of the provision of electricity and tap water in 2011 encompassing the *bijli-paani*-index for all statutory towns, the picture that emerged in the previous two graphs is confirmed: The overall condition in the availability of these two public infrastructure indicators is deteriorating down the urban hierarchy. Rajasthan displays the most favourable status among the three states, with intercity disparities less pronounced, and all urban size-classes above the all-India value. Million Cities in Madhya Pradesh barely reach this level, while Chhattisgarh is lagging far behind. To sum it up: It is better to live in a small town in Rajasthan than in a million city in Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh, at least on an average level with respect to these variables.

Glaring Disparities

FIGURE II.1.1: The Sanitation-Index 2011



Source: COI 2011, own calculation

The gradient in disparities gets even steeper when looking at the status of housing amenities and absence of proper drainage-connections in 2011, again using all statutory towns. Smaller towns are characterised by markedly less favourable sanitary and urban environmental conditions within all states, and Chhattisgarh overall is displaying the worst conditions, with its larger urban centres being comparable to small towns in Rajasthan.

Summary and Prospects

In this data-based “Book of Charts” we focussed on the urban areas in the States of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Mizoram and the NCT Delhi, covering a wide range of topics with specific attention to employment, education, public infrastructure and housing conditions among others. The mainly Census- and NSS-data based charts are used as a descriptive tool to capture the current status and developments in the last decade, painting a picture of the cities and towns within the respective states. As mentioned in the introductory comments, this picture naturally is incomplete given the available data and the huge diversity of urban areas within India. However, even this incomplete picture is able to capture some important aspects of India’s ongoing urbanisation process and urban living conditions. The main message which crystallises can be summed up as follows: **Progress** has been achieved in many areas, but a lot more needs to be done. Socio-economic **disparities** have narrowed in some aspects, but **inequalities** in livelihoods and living conditions remain a challenge for the future. Inclusive urban development is yet to become a reality for large parts of the urban population of India and in the respective states covered. Narrowing the gap between states, between different socio-economic groups within the city, between large and small urban centres and between different urban spaces within the city remains a monumental task for the central, state and urban administrations, more so when taking future urbanisation potentials into account. Equality in access to affordable housing, public infrastructure, education and employment opportunities within a clean and healthy urban environment are key aspects on the path towards inclusive and sustainable urban development.

Some key results of the descriptive analysis in this “Book of Charts” can be summarized as follows:

Interstate Disparities:

- Chhattisgarh has experienced fastest urbanization but remains the least urbanized state.
- While for all states the proportion of Muslims in the Bottom 30 and Top 70 is equal, in the case of Delhi they are disproportionately represented in the Bottom 30.

Summary and Prospects

- STs in all states have larger shares in services and other industries, but lack participation in manufacturing industry. Muslims are characterised by a relatively larger proportion of workers in the manufacturing industry for all states.
- Employment in manufacturing is almost non-existent in Mizoram with majority employed in services sector.
- Rajasthan has experienced the highest proportional growth in the share of manufacturing within its urban labour force.
- Casual employment is minimal in Delhi with extremely high shares of all sections in regular employment. Mizoram is dominated by self-employment although casual employment is relatively low. Overall in urban India casual labour is on the decline, though Chhattisgarh has witnessed a recent increase in this insecure form of employment.
- The share of workers without a written job contract has increased in most states except Delhi.
- Proportion of workers eligible for Social Security Benefits has increased for all states except Chhattisgarh.
- Percentage of monthly household expenditure spent on food items has witnessed a decline in all states and for all sections except in Chhattisgarh.
- Access to information as indicated by TV ownership and access to formal banking services has increased in all states, a positive development.
- Though improvements are seen in housing conditions and provision of electricity, a huge gap remains especially in the provision of safe drinking water in Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh.
- A huge number of urban households in Chhattisgarh have to rely on public space as an alternative to the absence of a private latrine. Overall the still remaining gap in the public provision of a covered drainage system remains a problem.
- Households in the NCT Delhi have to comparatively spend the largest share of their monthly expenditure on rent.
- Positive improvements are visible in the educational structure across states. Especially the large drop in children between 5-18 years currently not attending an educational institution is noteworthy. This is accompanied by a general rise in the share of monthly expenditure spent on education.

- The overall health condition in urban India and within the covered states is improving as indicated by an increase in life expectancy at birth and decrease in infant mortality rates. This is accompanied by a rising share of monthly household expenditure on healthcare.

Intrastate Disparities:

Delhi

- Hindus are more within the Top 70 expenditure bracket, with increasing numbers over the years, while Muslims are increasingly in the Bottom 30 bracket.
- Delhi has seen a sharp decline in manufacturing, with the Muslim community primarily keeping it alive.
- Regular employment is on the rise, casual labour is declining steadily.
- Delhi Urban Households spend 40% of monthly expenditure on food, 10% on rent, 9% on education and 5% on health.
- Number of households with electricity is high while same with tap water is quite low.
- Delhi is getting smarter, with rising education levels and decreasing illiteracy.

Rajasthan

- Historically larger numbers present among socio-economic segments in the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket, but OBC and Hindu household shifting into Top 70 in 2011-12.
- Services predominant in the state, manufacturing on the decline.
- 65% of labour without social security benefits.
- Rajasthan urban households spend 40% of monthly expenditure on food, 3.5% on rent, 11% on education and 5.5% on health.
- More and more households with access to electricity and water, though water levels still low.
- 25% of urban households have no literacy in the state.
- 37% of households in census towns use open areas for daily latrine related needs.

Madhya Pradesh

- Most Socio-Economic and Religious segments of society in the Bottom 30 expenditure bracket with the exception of Muslims who in 2011-12 had higher numbers in the Top 70.
- Employment in services is booming in the state, manufacturing has seen sharp decline over the years.
- 60% of employed people with no job contracts.
- MP urban households spend 35% of monthly expenditure on food, 4% on rent, 9% on education and 6.5% on health.
- 90% of urban households have electricity but only 40% have access to tap water.
- Education levels are increasing in urban MP with a growth in the number of people with graduate and above education levels.

Chhattisgarh

- Segments of society are predominantly in the bottom 30 expenditure bracket. Though this is decreasing, the numbers are still very high.
- Employment in services in urban Chhattisgarh is as much 50% with manufacturing at less than 10%.
- Casual employment is predominant in the state, with 70% of people without a contract and 60% without social security benefits.
- Chhattisgarh urban households spend 39% of monthly expenditure on food, 4.3% on rent, 7% on education and 7% on health.
- 34% of urban households use open areas for daily needs and 80% have no or open drainage connections.
- Illiteracy is increasing while number of people with graduate and above education levels is decreasing.

Mizoram

- Majority of the population in the Scheduled Tribe social group. All socio-religious segments more within bottom 30 expenditure bracket.
- Employment is predominantly in services and other industries while manufacturing is near non-existent.
- Most people are self employed, but regular employment is on the rise.

Summary and Prospects

- Mizoram urban households spend 42% of monthly expenditure on food, 3% on rent, 4% on education and 2% on health.
- SC households spend 20% of monthly expenditure on rent and 10% for education. Muslims spend 19% on rent. SCs spend nearly 6 times more on rent and 2.5 times more on education than other socio-economic segments in the state.
- 98% of households have access to electricity but only 52% have access to tap water
- 80% of urban households have no or open drainage connections.
- Higher numbers of people educated up to secondary/higher secondary than other educational levels.

Intercity Disparities:

- Progress has been achieved across the urban hierarchy in the provision of electricity and tap water, with a remarkable catching-up process in small towns of Chhattisgarh in terms of access to electricity.
- Private sanitary conditions have improved considerably in all states and urban size-classes. Progress in terms of having a latrine within premises has been uniform but slow, while the public provision of a modern covered drainage system seems to be limited to million cities.
- Small is not so beautiful: All indicators provide a clear picture of a falling gradient down the settlement-classes, i.e. access to electricity and tap water, private and public sanitary conditions deteriorate with decreasing population size of the settlement. Though progress has occurred in all size-classes, disparities in living conditions largely persist.
- Urban residents in Rajasthan are far better off than their counterparts in Madhya Pradesh and especially Chhattisgarh, both of which to a large extent score worse than the all-India value.
- Considering access to electricity and water, living in a million-city in Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh is worse than living in a small town in Rajasthan.