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PART-I

TECHNICAL PAPERS

Gender Dimensions of Migration and Labour Force Participation in India: Evidence from NSSO data

- K. Shanthi[1] and Brinda Viswanathan[2]

Abstract

This study based on Indian data for internal migration finds that in a country where female labour force participation is low, migrant women constitute a substantial proportion. Though women do not cite employment as a reason for migration but there is a substantial increase in labour force participation rate after migration even in regions which have otherwise low female participation rates. The southern and western regions of India show a higher share of migrant female labour force and the share of migration for employment has increased among recent migrants in these regions alongside new entrants from Eastern India.

Key Words: Female Labour Force Participation, Migration, Regions, India
JEL codes: J1, O1, O5, R1

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1. Introduction

Socio-cultural factors have dominated in determining the status of women in countries like India. The country has been growing economically at a fast pace in the past two decades while reaching its demographic dividend and modestly improving its human development indicators alongside increased integration with the external world. These structural changes are expected to weaken some of the socio-cultural factors that have restricted the economic and social mobility of the disadvantaged sections of the population including women. Further, it is also observed is that for a large country like India these changes have not been uniform resulting in huge regional variation in development (Esteve-Volart, 2004; Ghani, 2010).

One expects two prominent outcomes pertaining to women due to these changes and its regional variations. Firstly, female labour force participation would increase influenced by the demand for labour caused by globalisation on the one hand and the supply of labour due to improvements in human capital and decreased fertility rate on the other hand. Secondly regional variations in development would affect the economic geography (Bosker and Garretsen, 2010) resulting in the employment opportunities for women not likely to be located in their current place of residence and hence increased migration of women.

Though in general female labour force participation in India (FLFPR) varies regionally but it does not show a steady increase for its current level and pace of development (Das and Desai, 2003; Raju, 2010; and Viswanathan, forthcoming). Lower participation rates are noted in urban areas than rural and among richer and more educated women while higher participation rates are observed among women in southern and western regions of India and are attributed to both cultural and structural features of the region (Desai 2010; Josey 2011; Viswanathan and Desikachar, 2011).

Overall the rate of migration declined in the 1990s despite rapid economic growth during this period (Sivaramakrishnan *et. al*, 2005; and Ozden and Sewdeh, 2010) with the decline attributed to low level of employment growth, socio-cultural barriers like language and inaccessibility to welfare schemes outside the place of usual residence restricting mobility especially for the low-skilled, uneducated and the poor. However, the shorter duration migration from rural to urban areas during lean season seems to have increased in recent years caused by the slow growth of agricultural sector and a declining agricultural productivity (GoI, 2010; Rafique and Rogaly, 2003 and Viswanathan, 2003).

In this scenario, several studies have analysed issues pertaining to female labour force participation or female migration separately but very few studies have looked in detail at issues that address both of these aspects together. This study explores the changes in pattern of female migration within the country in relation to their participation in the labour market using a large scale survey data.

Section 2 of the paper is an overview of the issues and findings of studies based on employment and female migration; Section 3 describes the database and methodology; Section 4 discusses the empirical findings of this study and Section 5 is the concluding section.

2. Workforce Participation of Female Migrants in India: Concerns and Issues

Female migration in the Indian context can be classified into three groups: (a) *Associated migrants* when women move along with their family (b) *Autonomous migrants* where the woman moves in search of work unaccompanied by other family members and (c) *Marriage migrants* when a woman makes a move on account of marriage from her natal village/town to her husband's village/town due to the customary practice of exogamy observed in majority of the communities in India.

According to Premi (1980) even though women constituted over two times more migrants than men, attributing it to marriage and associational migration may not be correct as FLFPR among women migrants was higher than average FLFPR for the country as a whole in 1970s. Lingam (1998) indicates that several migrant women actively participate in the labour market as survival strategies with a dominance of rural women in seasonal migration. Two disparate aspects of female labour force participation linked to migration are emphasized: the woman's participation in the labour market after migration is a significant economic contribution for the family's survival; an increased participation of women- left behind by their migrant spouse- in the local labour market mainly in rural areas.

A broader overview of the gender dimensions in migration where the issue of survival migration by women is highlighted Karlekar (1995) finds a preponderance of such women in the lower economic strata. A study of migrant domestic workers in Delhi by Neetha (2004) indicates that better social networking abilities of women results in early labour market entry contributing significantly to the household's economic well-being and also in financing the job search cost of their spouse. On the other hand Sundari (2005) based on a study of female migrant women in Tiruppur garment factories in Tamil Nadu finds that though migration substantially improves the woman's standard of living above the subsistence level, the impact has not been very effective particularly for the more vulnerable female headed households. In a recent study on a group of plantations in South India, Luke and Munshi (2010) highlight that increased participation of women and movement out of their regions weakens their association with traditional economic and social frameworks but at the same time the more socially disadvantaged groups have benefited from this change.

Using the large sample survey data for 1999-2000 Shanthi (2006) comes to the conclusion that there is a preponderance of single women (includes widowed, separated and never married women) among those who state employment as the reason for migration. An important finding is the increase in LFPR in the post migration stage compared to no participation in the pre-migration stage by these single women. Compared to other regions of the country, Southern and Western states predominate among female migrants actively engaged in the labour market which correspond to the regions with higher FLFPR in general (Shanthi, 2006 and Viswanathan and Shanthi 2011). Temporal changes in female migration captured through the duration of stay from a single survey (for 1999-2000) shows that for more recent female migrants, share of family and employment oriented migration is higher when compared to the older migrants (Nagaraj and Mahadevan, 2011 and Viswanathan and Shanthi, 2011). This finding is at variance with Srivastava and Bhattacharya (2003) who find a decline in employment oriented migration among urban women by comparing

two surveys conducted at different time points[3].

Though the mainstream literature on migration considers it as a livelihood strategy pursued mainly by men, but gender specific recent studies (which are few and far apart) highlight the different patterns in the labour market activities of female migrants. These studies emphasize the need for intensive research in this area to unfold the peculiarities associated with internal female migration in a developing country.

2.1. Objective of this Study

The objective of this study is to document the spatial, social and temporal dimensions of female migration linking it with female labour force participation. Micro level region specific research studies though highlight the economic contribution of female migrants to their family and society at large there has been very limited assessment of regional and temporal changes in India. The issue of female migration and labour market participation continues to be invisible in macro economic migration literature and hence outside the purview of effective policy interventions. One hopes that results from this study will fill this gap to some extent and provide relevant inputs for policy making.

3. Database and Methodology

3.1. Database

The NSSO collects data on employment and unemployment annually based on country wide sample surveys. Once in five years these surveys are large sample surveys and some of these large sample surveys provide detailed data on migrants. The preference is to use the most recent large sample survey data on employment and unemployment that also includes migration information rather than a survey that focuses exclusively on migration. The data used in this study mainly pertains to the year 1999-2000 (55th round of NSSO) which is the last available quinquennial round on employment and unemployment wherein migration information is collected.

The analysis takes the NSSO definition of *labour force* which is the population that supplies or seeks to supply labour for production activities. The NSSO uses three different reference periods for determining the activity status of an individual. In this analysis we use the activity status during the previous 365 days referred to as the *usual activity status* and includes both the *principal status* in which the person spent the major time as well as the *subsidiary status* in which the person spent minor time. If a member of a sample household stayed away continuously for six or more months other than the village/town where he/she was enumerate then he/she is a migrant and thus migrant in this study refers to an in-migrant.

Along with other socio-economic and demographic details, information on three important aspects pertaining to migrants is collected. These are: *period since leaving the last usual place of residence* in completed years (till the date of survey), *location of last usual place of residence*

[3] Since FLFPR in urban areas is rather low in India, one suspects that the results of the temporal comparison in Srivastava and Bhattacharya (2003) may have been affected by the fact that the 1993 survey is based on a smaller sample survey when compared to the large sample survey of 1999-2000.

classified into seven groups based on rural or urban from within the country or abroad. The in-country migrants are further classified based on whether they belong to a different state, same state but different district or same district in a given state.[4] This information on different state classification is also used to arrive at out-migrants by adding up a particular state of origin among in-migrants across different states in India. In-migration in this study captures both intra-state and inter-state variations while out-migration captures only the movement out of that particular state to other states within India (but does not include emigration). Finally, *the reason for leaving the last usual place of residence* is categorized into 13 aspects which include migration for employment, marriage, or with family that is associated migrants (GOI, 2001).

3.2. Methodology

A part of the analysis in this study uses simple tabulations and graphical analysis in an attempt to draw out the different aspects of internal migration by making comparisons (a) between men and women, (b) across spatial dimension between rural and urban areas, across states/five large geographical regions and (c) across time by splitting the duration of stay of the migrants into those staying for ten years or more referred to as *older* migrants and those staying for less than ten years in their current place of residence at the time of the survey and referred to as *recent* migrants.

In an attempt to understand the importance of various factors that influence migration and differences in female labour force participation between migrant and non-migrants econometric estimations are carried out based on the binary choice model indicated below.

$$Y_i = \Phi(\boldsymbol{X}_i\beta) + u_i \quad i=1,2,....n$$

Two separate probit models are estimated:

(i) probability of migration– the dependent variable (Y_i) takes the value 1 if the individual is a migrant and 0 otherwise and

(ii) probability of labour force participation among women- the dependent variable (Y_i) takes the value 1 if the woman participates in the labour market and 0 otherwise.

$\boldsymbol{X}$ is the set of explanatory variables which include household and individual characteristics as detailed in Appendix Table A1. $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the vector of coefficients associated with $\boldsymbol{X}$ and Φ is the cumulative density function for the standard normal distribution. For the probit regressions, a positive (negative) sign on an explanatory variable's coefficient will indicate that higher values of that variable increase (decrease) the probability of the aspect (migration or FLFP) under study, ceteris paribus.

4. Empirical Findings

At the all India level it can be observed that the number of in-migrants within India has been

[4] States in India are administrative boundaries but were organized on the basis of linguistic groups a few years after Indian independence while districts are purely administrative units within each state whose number within a state varies depending on the size of the state.

going up since 1987-88 (Table 1). The changes are prominent for females than males with the compound annual growth rate (CAGR) for men declined for some intervening years. Further Table 1 also that the migration rates have been increasing for women- more so in rural than urban while it declined for males.

Table 1: Trends in Number and Rate of Growth of Migrants, Migration Rates: Rural and Urban Males and Females, 1987-88, 1993, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

	Period/Year	Rural Males	Rural Females	Urban Males	Urban Females
Estimated In-Migrants (millions)	1987-88	21.9	105.4	22.5	30.2
	1993	19.9	115.0	24.4	35.0
	1999-2000	24.7	142.5	31.4	46.5
	2007-2008	20.6	173.2	35.5	58.2
CAGR@ Between (%)	1987 and 1993	-1.3	1.3	1.2	2.3
	1993 and 99/00	3.4	3.4	4.1	4.7
	99/00 and 07/08	-1.8	2.4	1.5	2.8
Migration Rate (%)	1987-88	7.4	39.8	26.8	39.6
	1993	6.5	40.1	23.9	38.2
	1999-2000	6.9	42.6	25.7	41.8
	2007-2008	5.4	47.7	25.9	45.6

CAGR: Compound Annual Growth Rate. Source: GoI (1998, 2001 and 2010)

Further, Table 2 examines if there has been a change in the pattern of reason for migration over these years, particularly for women. Firstly, women usually report marriage as the main reason for migration while for men employment has the largest share among all the reasons. Among both rural men and women the share of employment as the reason for migration has been coming down over the years. However, this change brings about increases in shares of other components differently for males and females. For females, this leads to further increasing share of 'marriage' from 62% in 1999 to about 91% in 2007-08 while for males, the change is distributed between 'with family' and 'others'.

Table 2: Trends in Distribution of Migrants based on Reason for Migration: Rural and Urban Males and Females, 1993, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Period/Year	Reason for Migration	Rural Males	Rural Females	Urban Males	Urban Females
1993	Employment	47.7	8.3	41.5	4.9
	Marriage	2.3	61.6	0.9	31.7
	With Family	20.8	23.7	28.3	49.5
	Others	29.2	6.4	29.3	13.9
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1999-2000	Employment	30.3	1.0	51.9	3.0
	Marriage	2.3	88.8	1.6	58.5
	With Family	20.8	6.3	27.0	31.0
	Others	46.6	3.9	19.5	7.5
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2007-2008	Employment	28.6	0.7	55.7	2.7
	Marriage	9.4	91.2	1.4	60.8
	With Family	22.1	4.4	25.2	29.4
	Others	39.9	3.7	17.7	7.1
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Same as Table 1

Since the focus of this study is on employment as the reason for migration we also try to capture changes in labour force participation rates of migrants before and after migration as reported in Table 3. Firstly, the LFPR before migration has been declining except among urban male migrants with the rate of change being somewhat higher for rural females. However, after migration the rate has been declining more rapidly for rural males, with a smaller decline for rural women but no significant change for urban males and females. Though share of employment as a reason for migration has been declining for some segments of the population, the LFPR need not show similar changes.

Table 3: Trends in Proportion of Migrants in the Labour Force Before and After Migration: Rural and Urban Males and Females, 1993, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

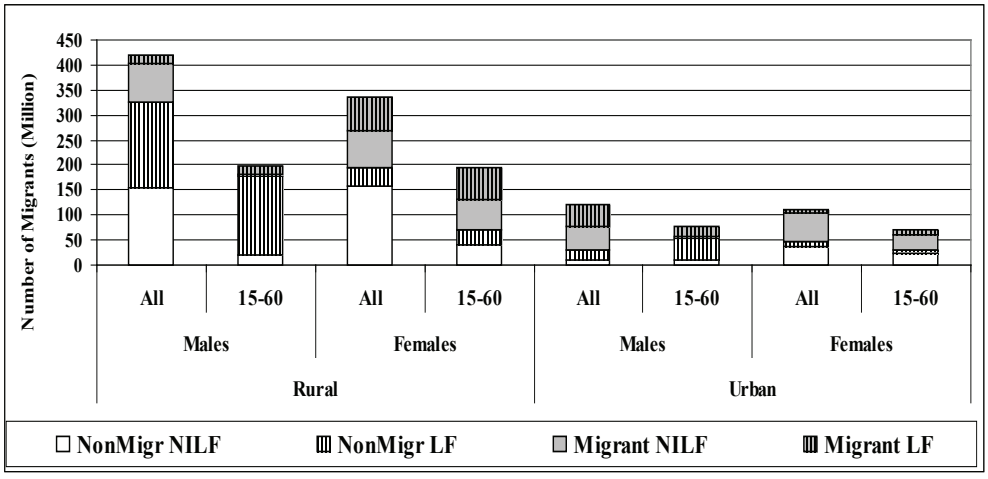
	Before Migration	After Migration	Before Migration	After Migration
	Rural Males		Rural Females	
1993	56.9	70.6	24.8	35.4
1999-2000	55.9	68.3	19.6	34.9
2007-08	54.9	63.9	20.8	33.1
	Urban Males		Urban Females	
1993	55.0	71.7	9.8	14.3
1999-2000	55.1	69.5	8.9	15.8
2007-08	59.8	71.3	9.0	14.7

Source: Same as Table 1

Thus, one observes that the trends in reason for migration is at variance when a comparison is made across different years of data (1993, 1999-2000 and 2007-08) versus different durations of stay using a single year (1999-2000) as mentioned in Section 2.

The study further explores in this direction to understand the various factors that influence regional variations in female mobility and labour force participation using the sample survey data for the year 1999-2000 as discussed in Section 3. Notwithstanding the fact that LFPR are significantly different between men and women (about 21% for women versus 81% for men in urban areas and 44% for women versus 89% for men in rural areas), the LFPR for migrant women is about 33% compared to 18% for non-migrant women. These shares for women go up to 44% and 37% for migrant and non-migrant women in the economically active age group of 15-60 years. There are however differences in participation between rural and urban areas and between men and women. In rural areas women migrants constitute about 68% of the labour force compared to 9% for men. In urban areas about 55% of migrants are in the labour force for women while it is 33% for men. The difference between rural and urban areas and between men and women could be attributed to the fact that migration rate for women is always higher than men and more so in rural than urban. In terms of the absolute number of women migrants there are about 64.2 million in the rural labour force and 8.5 million in the urban labour force in the 15-60 year age group in 1999-2000. This segment of the economically active population is the focus of this study.

Figure 1: Number of Migrants and Non-Migrants Within and Outside the Labour Force for Males and Females in India, 1999-2000



Note: (1) NonMigr- Non Migrants, NILF- Not in Labour Force, LF- Labour Force (2) 'All' refers to the entire population and '15-60' refers to the population in the age group of 15-60 years.

Male migration which is largely employment oriented is highly likely to be a movement from economically worse off to the better off regions of the country given the large regional inequality in the country (Ghani, 2010). In contrast to this, women who largely migrate for marriage reasons, it is expected that short distance migration would dominate amongst them irrespective of the state's ranking in per capita GDP. Most marriages in India are arranged marriages (Banerjee, et. al, 2008; and Desai and Andrist, 2008) and one would expect consequently the marriages to take place within similar socio-economic groups particularly having the same language or dialect.

Given the differences in language (and dialects) across longer distances one would expect that the movement for women is more likely to be within the state than to an outside the state.[5]

Thus, one would expect more within state migration than out of state migration for women and we try to capture this by looking at female to male ratio (FMR, henceforth) among total migrants as well as among in and out migrants separately but only among those active in the labour market. It is further expected that in some regions of India female migration is likely to be higher where there is an increased demand for female labour due to globalisation and improvements in their human capital and demographic dividend.

In order to capture these patterns we first study inter-state migration as reported in Table 4. The distribution of female population and female migrants across different states shows that for most states the share of female population and the share of migrants is largely the same. Exceptions to these are mainly in the western region wherein their share of migrants is larger than their population share indicating that these are the main receiving states. Two states, Assam and Bihar also stand out as their share of population within the state is far higher than their share in total female migrants.

If the FMR takes a value greater than one then it implies that women outnumber men. If this ratio is less than one then two cases arise: those with 'large' value (say above 0.7) which highlights that women and men have similar magnitudes and those with 'small' values where males outnumber females substantially. Among total migrants across states, there is substantial variation in these ratios in rural areas with north eastern states having very low value while Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh show far higher values. In urban areas the dispersion of these ratios around the national average appears far lower and there does not appear to be a strong correlation of the rankings of the states (based on these ratios) between urban and rural areas.

[5] There can be exceptions to this pattern in the sense that if a state like Kerala which sends out people from the state to both within and outside the country then it is also likely that (notwithstanding restrictions in human mobility) such women will also report higher inter-state migration for marriage.

Table 4: Distribution of Population, Migrants and Labour Force across States Within Different Geographic Regions, 1999-2000: Female to Male Ratio

	Distribution Across States		Female to Male Ratio							
					Labour Force (15-60 years)					
	(Percent)		Migrants		All		In Migrant		Out Migrant	
States	Popn[1]	Migt[2]	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
NORTH										
Delhi	1.2	0.0	0.30	0.68	0.05	0.17	0.00	0.08	0.35	0.32
Haryana	2.1	2.8	7.33	1.40	0.38	0.18	3.76	0.27	1.70	0.40
Himachal Pradesh	0.6	0.8	3.62	1.16	0.95	0.25	3.89	0.33	1.86	0.18
Jammu and Kashmir	0.8	0.6	7.56	1.39	0.53	0.13	7.45	0.29	0.43	0.14
Punjab	2.3	2.8	6.33	1.82	0.49	0.19	4.33	0.41	0.63	0.34
CENTRAL										
Madhya Pradesh	8.2	8.5	8.25	2.22	0.68	0.24	8.10	0.67	2.79	0.35
Uttar Pradesh	17.4	20.4	9.97	1.85	0.40	0.16	5.07	0.37	1.38	0.08
WEST										
Goa	0.1	0.1	2.23	0.94	0.38	0.26	0.94	0.19	0.49	0.28
Gujarat	4.8	5.7	5.08	1.71	0.69	0.23	4.93	0.43	0.77	0.17
Maharashtra	9.6	11.2	3.88	1.08	0.78	0.23	4.07	0.25	0.59	0.30
Rajasthan	4.9	6.0	7.33	1.62	0.71	0.24	6.28	0.52	2.64	0.14
EAST										
Assam	2.3	0.7	4.06	1.48	0.27	0.20	1.13	0.35	0.39	0.17
Bihar	9.8	6.7	24.63	2.24	0.33	0.15	11.75	0.44	0.76	0.07
North Eastern States	0.9	0.2	1.70	0.83	0.48	0.37	0.57	0.33	1.04	0.35
Orissa	3.9	3.6	5.81	1.30	0.55	0.27	3.92	0.31	0.89	0.12
West Bengal	8.1	8.0	6.22	1.50	0.28	0.19	2.38	0.31	0.45	0.13
SOUTH										
Andhra Pradesh	8.1	7.1	3.57	1.23	0.78	0.32	3.37	0.49	2.16	0.26
Karnataka	5.4	5.3	5.05	1.45	0.63	0.31	4.34	0.48	1.89	0.39
Kerala	3.2	3.3	2.28	1.76	0.53	0.48	1.08	0.83	0.93	0.27
Tamil Nadu	6.3	6.1	3.49	1.39	0.72	0.37	2.83	0.52	1.25	0.21
Union Territories	0.2	0.2	1.51	1.19	0.44	0.34	0.77	0.30	1.55	0.69
All India			5.75	1.48	0.54	0.24	4.09	0.40	1.06	0.17
Population (million)	447.8	188.5								

Notes: (1) Population, (2) Migrants and these two pertain to women alone.

Considering only the economically active age-group of 15 to 60 years in the total population, the FMR is a complete turnaround among those in the labour force as LFPR of women is far lower than men in all the states. Higher than average ratios are observed for the North-Eastern states, Himachal Pradesh and Southern states in both rural and urban areas while all the western states have far higher values in rural areas but close to the average in urban areas.

Table 4 shows that considering only the migrants in the labour force, the FMR is higher among the rural in-migrants similar to the pattern of total rural migrants. On the other hand, FMR among urban migrants is less than one for all states but it can be noted that the ratio is higher than average for those states with higher than average ratio values in the labour force. Thus, the rural-urban difference seems to be a reflection of two different features of the socio-economic system: migrant women are higher in rural areas irrespective of whether they are in the labour force or not; and that fewer women in urban areas participate in the labour market irrespective of whether they are migrants or not. The rural FMR for out-migrants has values less than one for several states unlike for in-migrants. The national average for out-migrants in urban areas to other states is the lowest indicating female mobility to be the lowest for employment into urban areas of other states.

The issue of further interest is to capture the regional variation and the analysis is reduced to five geographical regions by combining these states since within a particular region those states seem to have by and large similar pattern of FLFPR and migration. Geographic variations in reason for migration and changes over time by comparing recent migrants with older migrants is also analysed here.

As expected fewer women report employment as the reason for migration in rural areas when compared to urban areas (Table 5). Recent migrants show a change in this pattern with lower proportion reporting marriage and the other three reasons have higher share. Among both these vintage of migrants, southern states and Union territories have far higher rates reporting employment and moving with family as the reason with urban Eastern region registering a noteworthy change towards increased share for employment.

Since recent migrants would be young and hence less likely to be married so the proportion reporting marriage drops in all the regions but the magnitudes vary across these regions. Further, given the improvements in the status of female education, the recent migrants are also likely to be more educated than the older migrants and hence may aspire more to move to urban areas. The movement to urban areas could be both from rural to urban or urban to urban - from smaller towns to bigger cities.

Table 5: Reason for Migration among Migrant Women in Labour Force: For Different Durations of Stay, 1999-2000 (Percent)

Regions	Duration of Stay at the Current Place of Residence							
	Ten or More Years of Stay				Less than ten years of Stay			
	Reason for Migration							
	For Work	With Family	Marriage	Others	For Work	With Family	Marriage	Others
Rural								
North	0.9	3.2	94.7	1.2	2.1	3.3	91.6	3.0
Central	0.7	1.2	97.1	0.9	2.6	2.9	90.3	4.2
West	0.9	2.6	95.0	1.5	4.4	5.3	84.3	6.0
East	1.2	1.6	95.2	1.9	1.0	2.0	92.3	4.7
South	1.6	6.1	88.9	3.4	6.7	10.7	73.1	9.6
UTs	3.6	7.8	84.3	4.3	7.5	18.0	69.2	5.3
All India	1.1	2.9	94.2	1.8	3.9	5.5	84.5	6.1
Urban								
North	5.8	25.9	66.6	1.7	14.2	26.8	53.7	5.3
Central	4.0	17.8	76.5	1.8	11.4	22.4	55.4	10.8
West	5.9	21.6	69.5	3.0	18.7	27.0	41.5	12.8
East	6.3	11.9	75.3	6.6	24.6	24.6	37.6	13.3
South	7.5	21.3	65.9	5.3	17.8	33.5	37.6	11.2
UTs	13.9	42.6	36.3	7.2	13.2	24.8	37.9	24.0
All India	6.1	19.9	70.2	3.8	17.5	28.9	42.3	11.4

Note: Pertains to those between 15-60 years. The rows add up to 100 across reasons for migration for each region and each time-period of stay.

With the finding that more women among recent migrants report employment as the reason for migration we also try and assess if there is any change in the participation rates before and after migration and how this compares across regions and time (Table 6). Continuing with the earlier pattern more women are in the labour force in rural than urban among both recent and older migrants but LFPR after migration[6] is lower among recent migrants than older migrants which is noted for all the regions. The decline in participation rates among recent migrants may be attributed to an overall decline in FLFPR overt time as discussed in the Section 2 and also withdrawal of younger women from the labour market to provide for child care.

Keeping with the earlier trend for the eastern region (Table 5) the decline has been the lowest here while the central region shows the largest decline. Since the majority of women were not in labour force before migration the change is contributed by the decline in participation of such women after migration (NILF to LF) among recent migrants. In urban areas there seem to be marginally higher participation rates among those who remain in the labour force before and after migration (LF to LF) among recent migrants while the eastern region again stands out showing positive change in both rural and urban areas among recent migrants.

[6] This is the total of LF after migration from NILF and LF before migration.

Table 6: Labour Force Participation Rates Before and After Migration for Female Migrants for Duration of Stay as Less than 10 years and More than 10 years (Percent)

Before Migration		Not in Labour Force (NILF)			In Labour Force (LF)		
After Migration		NILF	LF	Total	NILF	LF	Total
	Migrated within last Ten Years (less than 10 years of stay)						
Rural	North	54.5	38.1	92.6	1.1	6.2	7.4
	Central	63.8	25.7	89.5	1.8	8.7	10.5
	West	34.5	31.6	66.1	4.2	29.7	33.9
	East	68.1	23.6	91.8	1.6	6.7	8.2
	South	41.8	21.4	63.1	6.6	30.3	36.9
	UTs	65.1	18.7	83.7	4.7	11.6	16.3
	All India	53.2	26.3	79.5	3.3	17.2	20.5
Urban	North	83.4	11.6	94.9	2.1	3.0	5.1
	Central	85.6	8.4	94.0	1.7	4.3	6.0
	West	78.6	9.9	88.5	5.9	5.6	11.5
	East	85.3	9.0	94.2	1.5	4.3	5.8
	South	67.1	14.1	81.2	6.3	12.5	18.8
	UTs	73.2	14.3	87.5	7.0	5.5	12.5
	All India	77.9	10.8	88.8	4.3	7.0	11.2
	Migrated Before Ten Years (10 years or more of stay)						
Rural	North	43.2	49.8	93.1	1.1	5.8	6.9
	Central	47.9	41.1	89.0	1.4	9.6	11.0
	West	22.4	39.5	61.9	4.4	33.7	38.1
	East	65.6	28.3	93.9	0.8	5.3	6.1
	South	30.0	34.1	64.1	4.3	31.6	35.9
	UTs	45.6	32.4	78.0	3.3	18.7	22.0
	All India	42.6	37.2	79.9	2.4	17.7	20.1
Urban	North	78.0	18.6	96.6	1.3	2.1	3.4
	Central	77.6	17.8	95.4	1.6	3.0	4.6
	West	71.0	18.6	89.6	4.3	6.1	10.4
	East	80.7	16.4	97.1	0.9	2.1	2.9
	South	60.9	21.8	82.7	5.4	12.0	17.3
	UTs	72.3	20.3	92.6	3.2	4.3	7.4
	All India	72.3	18.8	91.1	3.1	5.8	8.9

Note: Pertains to those between 15-60 years.

Thus, results from Tables 5 and 6 show a mixed feature in terms of changes in participation rates which seem unexplainable. The analysis so far has been to understand the regional and temporal variations in FLFPR among migrants but ignores the fact that there are multiple aspects that could cause variations across regions and time. In order to understand the 'net effect' of the determinants of (a) migration and (b) FLFPR after controlling for the effect of other variables, we estimate two different econometric models. As indicated in Section 3.2 in both these models the dependent variable is dichotomous variable and hence a probit model is estimated.

Probit Estimates for Migration

Separate models for rural and urban are estimated supplemented with estimations for those who are only in the labour market separately for rural males, rural females, urban males and urban females (Table 7). This is done as there are gender and sectoral differences in migratory patterns and the models can highlight these features effectively.

Table 7: Estimates from Probit models for Migration: Comparing men and women across rural and urban areas, 1999/2000.

	All Migrants				In the Labour Force (15-60 years)							
	Rural		Urban		Rural Males		Rural Females		Urban Males		Urban Females	
	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
dfem	**1.017**	*0.000*	**0.125**	*0.000*								
lfprall	**-0.918**	*0.000*	**-0.654**	*0.000*								
age	**0.002**	*0.000*	**0.006**	*0.000*	**0.006**	*0.000*	**0.002**	*0.005*	0.001	*0.283*	0.002	*0.201*
lnmpce	**0.327**	*0.000*	**0.272**	*0.000*	**0.485**	*0.000*	**0.166**	*0.000*	**0.574**	*0.000*	0.021	*0.599*
Education Levels	**Base Group= Above Higher Secondary Level**											
dnolit	**-0.279**	*0.000*	0.040	*0.072*	**-0.399**	*0.000*	**-0.243**	*0.024*	**0.295**	*0.000*	**0.291**	*0.000*
dlit	**-0.280**	*0.000*	0.037	*0.080*	**-0.284**	*0.000*	**-0.280**	*0.010*	**0.218**	*0.000*	0.106	*0.131*
dprimid	**-0.141**	*0.000*	**0.098**	*0.000*	**-0.174**	*0.000*	**-0.294**	*0.010*	**0.158**	*0.000*	0.020	*0.784*
dhisec	**0.563**	*0.000*	**0.194**	*0.002*	**0.592**	*0.000*	**-0.289**	*0.581*	0.080	*0.319*	0.212	*0.220*
Marital Status	**Base Group= Currently Married**											
dnvrmard	**-1.955**	*0.000*	**-1.152**	*0.000*	**-0.116**	*0.000*	**-2.164**	*0.000*	**-0.330**	*0.000*	**-1.161**	*0.000*
dothmard	**-0.305**	*0.000*	**-0.296**	*0.000*	-0.064	*0.200*	**-0.466**	*0.000*	**-0.138**	*0.040*	**-0.314**	*0.000*
Caste	**Base Group= Other Castes**											
dscst	0.021	*0.075*	**0.031**	*0.036*	0.014	*0.557*	**-0.285**	*0.000*	-0.019	*0.491*	**-0.136**	*0.005*
dobc	-0.008	*0.488*	**0.033**	*0.004*	0.022	*0.312*	**-0.222**	*0.000*	-0.028	*0.186*	-0.045	*0.277*
Religion	**Base Group= Hindus**											
dislam	**-0.275**	*0.000*	**-0.275**	*0.000*	**-0.093**	*0.003*	**-0.315**	*0.000*	**-0.266**	*0.000*	**-0.347**	*0.000*
dchrstn	**-0.088**	*0.002*	**-0.056**	*0.044*	**0.294**	*0.000*	**-0.616**	*0.000*	**-0.104**	*0.032*	-0.100	*0.273*
dorelgn	**0.074**	*0.000*	**-0.105**	*0.000*	0.058	*0.171*	**0.371**	*0.000*	**-0.239**	*0.000*	**0.181**	*0.072*
Intercept	**-1.979**	*0.000*	**-1.695**	*0.000*	**-4.231**	*0.000*	0.142	*0.429*	**-4.254**	*0.000*	0.108	*0.706*

Note: The coefficients in bold font are significant at 5% level of significance or below based on the p-value to be less than 0.05 given above

In all these models for results reported in Table 7 above, the dependent variable is 1 if the individual is a migrant and zero if non-migrant. The estimated coefficients are interpreted based on their sign and statistical significance affecting the likelihood (or the probability) to migrate as the magnitudes cannot be interpreted directly since probit models are non-linear. The details of independent variables used in the models are given in Appendix Table A1 and have been chosen based on findings from earlier studies.

The results from Table 7 confirm that the propensity to migrate is higher for women, migrants are more likely to be among the better off sections of the population and individuals at the lower and higher end of the education level are less likely to move (also noted in Ozden and Swadeh, 2010). Among factors that have a social connotation marital status, caste (as in Luke and Munshi, 2010) and religion are included in the model. Currently married women are more likely to migrate indicating the preponderance of marriage migration even after controlling for gender. Caste based differences do not appear for rural migrants but urban migrants are more likely from the lower castes indicating perhaps some form of discrimination in the local labour market leading to a movement outside their region. Minority religious groups in general have lower mobility compared to the majority group of Hindus and this could either be due to limited social networking as in the case of Muslims or that they are far better off with higher levels of education as in the case for other religions and hence show lower mobility.

Probit Estimates for Female Labour Force Participation: Migrants and Non-migrants

After having assessed the variations in probability to migrate we also consider factors that influence female labour force participation, separately for migrants and non-migrants in each of the sectors. The first four columns of Table 8 show the results for non-migrants and the next four columns for migrants with more variables used in the model for migrant women.

Probability of participation declines with age except for urban non-migrants while education influences migrants and non-migrants similarly with expected variation across sectors- in rural areas the participation rate is higher for lower education groups but in urban areas it higher for lowest as well as for the highest education group. The results for socially backward groups and religious groups are similar to the earlier studies and no differences are observed between migrant and non-migrant or between rural and urban areas. However, marital status has different effect on participation between rural and urban non-migrants while it does not seem to matter in the case of migrants. The negative coefficient for *lnmpce* irrespective of migrant status captures once again the fact that as economic status improves FLFPR declines keeping everything else as the same.

Table 8: Probit Model for Female Labour Force Participation: Migrant and Non-Migrants, 1999-2000

	Non-Migrants				Migrants			
	Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
	Coef.	P>z	Coef.	P>z	Coef.	P>z	Coef.	P>z
Age	**-0.002**	*0.034*	***0.009***	*0.000*	**-0.005**	*0.002*	**-0.008**	*0.000*
dnolit	**0.651**	*0.000*	***0.341***	*0.000*	**0.426**	*0.000*	**0.304**	*0.000*
Dlit	**0.226**	*0.000*	*0.019*	*0.566*	**0.133**	*0.000*	-0.008	*0.816*
dhisec	0.881	*0.061*	***0.991***	*0.000*	-0.043	*0.886*	**1.570**	*0.000*
doedug	**0.636**	*0.000*	***0.810***	*0.000*	**0.387**	*0.000*	**0.709**	*0.000*
dscst	**0.406**	*0.000*	***0.298***	*0.000*	**0.268**	*0.000*	**0.276**	*0.000*
dobc	**0.133**	*0.000*	***0.173***	*0.000*	**0.106**	*0.000*	**0.142**	*0.000*
dislam	**-0.256**	*0.000*	***-0.175***	*0.000*	**-0.291**	*0.000*	**-0.175**	*0.000*
dchrstn	**0.284**	*0.000*	***0.374***	*0.000*	0.002	*0.975*	**0.285**	*0.000*
dorelgn	0.021	*0.717*	*-0.125*	*0.068*	-0.024	*0.533*	-0.116	*0.074*
dnvrmard	**-0.293**	*0.000*	***0.117***	*0.001*	-0.048	*0.478*	0.072	*0.324*
dothmard	0.031	*0.375*	***0.422***	*0.000*	0.025	*0.379*	**0.545**	*0.000*
tonorth	**-0.640**	*0.000*	***-0.419***	*0.000*	**0.223**	*0.033*	-0.081	*0.402*
tocentr	**-0.516**	*0.000*	***-0.416***	*0.000*	**-0.138**	*0.141*	**-0.247**	*0.003*
towest	-0.009	*0.800*	***-0.105***	*0.003*	**0.238**	*0.007*	-0.116	*0.119*
	Non-Migrants				**Migrants**			
	Rural		**Urban**		**Rural**		**Urban**	
	Coef.	P>z	Coef.	P>z	Coef.	P>z	Coef.	P>z
toeast	**-0.866**	*0.000*	***-0.328***	*0.000*	**-0.385**	*0.000*	**-0.245**	*0.009*
Tout	**-0.469**	*0.000*	*0.119*	*0.117*	-0.118	*0.172*	-0.025	*0.817*
dlfbmig					**1.033**	*0.000*	**1.049**	*0.000*
pdleav					**0.008**	*0.000*	**0.015**	*0.000*
dpurassoc					**-0.190**	*0.000*	0.020	*0.696*
dpuremplt					**0.452**	*0.000*	**0.967**	*0.000*
dpuroth					**0.112**	*0.022*	0.064	*0.284*
dmigr					**0.222**	*0.000*	0.024	*0.413*
dsamdist					**0.158**	*0.000*	**0.216**	*0.000*
ddifdist					0.011	*0.766*	**0.136**	*0.001*
fmnorth					0.124	*0.257*	-0.089	*0.603*
fmcentr					0.062	*0.537*	-0.132	*0.419*
fmwest					**0.189**	*0.071*	-0.096	*0.566*
fmeast					-0.037	*0.730*	-0.187	*0.260*
fmsouth					**0.219**	*0.044*	-0.028	*0.858*
lnmpce	**-0.189**	*0.000*	***-0.211***	*0.000*	**-0.283**	*0.000*	**-0.234**	*0.000*
Intercept	**0.951**	*0.000*	*0.154*	*0.407*	**0.785**	*0.000*	0.342	*0.171*

Note: The coefficients in bold font are significant at 5% level of significance or below based on the p-value to be less than 0.05 as given above.

Given the regional variations in FLFPR, compared to the southern states FLFPR is lower in all the other regions even after accounting for the differences in human capital. A noteworthy aspect is that if the urban migrants and non-migrants are compared in the different regions then the gap in LFPR from the base group (southern states) is much higher among the non-migrants when compared to the migrants.

The models for migrants include further variables that could distinguish a participant from a non-participant in the labour market. Those who have participated in the labour market prior to migration (*lfbmig*) have a high probability to participate after migration as was noted from results in Table 5. But after controlling for all other factors older migrants (coefficient of *pdleave* is positive) seem to have higher average participation rate than recent migrants. With the marriage migrants as the base group it is noticed that the associated migrants (*dpurassoc*) participate lesser in the rural labour market but have a similar participation rate as married migrants in the urban labour market. This finding for the urban labour market is an important result and given the results discussed in the earlier sections is also expected and gets reaffirmed in an econometric model with other control variables.

The place of residence before migration affects the rural and urban FLFP differently. In rural areas, rural to rural migrant has a higher probability to participate while in urban areas the same and different district migrants have a higher probability compared to those from a different state. The different state migrants are further categorized as arriving from the different geographical zones with the base group as that coming form either a rural or urban area of the union territories (which are also the residual areas after the major states across the geographical regions have been included). Given this one finds that those who have migrated out of the southern and western states have a higher participation rates in rural areas but in urban areas the source region does not matter. Thus even after controlling for several factors both among in and out migrants the women from southern region in general are more likely to participate in the labour market though this impact fades away in urban areas.

5. Conclusions

The present study explores the inter-linkage between female mobility and labour force participation and the factors that seem to shape both. This has been analysed based on rural-urban and gendered differences in migration, regional differences in female mobility and labour force participation, and changes in some of these features over time. On the one hand more and more women seem to report marriage as the reason for migration over time but higher proportion of women are also participating in the labour market or continue to be in the labour market after migration. There are clear regional effects to migration and this varies with reason for migration. Migration due to marriage dominates in rural areas and particularly in the central and eastern regions of India. However, employment as a reason for migration tends to dominate among urban migrants as well as among the recent migrants (those who migrated within the last ten years) indicating an orientation similar to males. The significant change regarding recent migrants could be partly due to changes in educational composition of these groups as younger cohorts are more likely to be more educated and partly due to regional effects as development may have been faster in these regions. Southern and western regions show further improvements from their relatively

higher rates while the eastern region also shows large increases.

What needs to be explored in more detail on the one hand is how demand for female labour is affected by institutional aspects of the regions and in turn affects female migration. More importantly there is a significant difference in quality of employment including changes in gender discrimination in the labour market for migrant women. It is rather challenging to gather detailed information on migrants as well as on women's activities and through single cross-section large scale surveys. NSSO has always been making efforts in improving data gathering and its dissemination. The recent migration survey based collected in the 2007-08 has specifically information on short-term and long-term migrants. An analysis of this data by Krishnapriya (2012) and Kumar and Viswanathan (2012) shows gender differences among these two groups of migrants. One hopes that with more research based on this data and contributions from research scholars it would be possible to collect information on regional cultural practices and their structural features in the migration specific surveys. This would enable a better understanding and distinction of the distress features and development features of migration.

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Appendix Table
Table A1: List of regressors and its details used in Tables 7 and 8

dfem	1 for female and 0 for a male
lfprall	1 if the individual is currently active in the labour marketS
dlfbmig	1 if working before migration and 0 otherwise
pdleav	1 if migrant has moved in within the last 10 years and 0 otherwise
lnmpce	Logarithm of monthly per capita expenditure
Levels of Education Attainment	
dnolit	1 if not literate and 0 otherwise
dlit	1 if literate and 0 otherwise
dprimid (base group for Table 8)	1 if completed primary or middle level of education and 0 otherwise
dhisec	1 if completed higher secondary level of and 0 otherwise
doedug (base group for Table 7)	1 if level of education is above higher secondary and 0 otherwise
Place of residence Before Migration: Reference Group is 'from different state'	
dmigr	1 if migrant is from rural area and 0 otherwise
dsamdist	1 if migrant is from same district in the state of current residence and 0 otherwise
ddifdist	1 if migrant is from different district in the same state as current residence and 0 otherwise
Social Groups or Castes : Reference Group is 'Other Castes'	
dscst	1 if Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe and 0 otherwise
dobc	1 Other Backward Classes and 0 otherwise
Religious Affiliation: Reference Group is 'Hindus'	
dislam	1 if Muslim and 0 otherwise
dchrstn	1 if Christian and 0 otherwise
dorelgn	1 if Other Religions and 0 otherwise
Marital Status : Reference Group is 'Currently Married'	
Dnvrmard	1 if Never Married and 0 otherwise
Dothmard	1 if Widowed, Divorced/Separated and 0 otherwise
dcurmard (Base Group)	1 if and 0 otherwise
Purpose of Migration: Reference Group is 'for marriage'	
dpurassoc	1 if Associated Migrant and 0 otherwise
dpuremplt	1 if Migrated for Employment and 0 otherwise
dpuroth	1 if Migrated for other Reasons and 0 otherwise

Geographic Region of Current Residence : Reference Group is 'from Southern States'	
tonorth	1 if in Northern States and 0 otherwise
tocentr	1 if in Central Indian States and 0 otherwise
towest	1 if in Western States and 0 otherwise
toeast	1 if in Eastern States and 0 otherwise
tout	1 if in Union Territories and 0 otherwise
Geographic Region of Residence Before Migration: Reference Group is 'from Union Territories'	
fmnorth	1 if from Northern States and 0 otherwise
fmcentr	1 if from Central Indian States and 0 otherwise
fmwest	1 if from Western States and 0 otherwise
fmeast	1 if from Eastern States and 0 otherwise
fmsouth	1 if from Southern States and 0 otherwise

Intra-State Differences in Consumption Pattern and Living Standards in Kerala: Analysis of Data Coverage and Gaps

- Mohanakumar. S[1]

Abstract

The 61st Round of the consumer expenditure reported significant differences in the Monthly Per capita Consumer Expenditure (MPCE) across districts in Kerala. This study analyses the district–wise differences in consumer expenditure and living standard of agricultural labour and cultivator households in Kerala. The analysis is based on a sample survey of 300 households proportionally distributed between agricultural labourers and cultivators in four districts in the state. It is argued that the sample size of NSSO is too small to estimate MPCE for all expenditure class at the district level even with the 61st Round of NSSO data. The finding is that the average MPCE for the state does not reflect the MPCE of all social classes and groups within districts, relative poverty and inequality in the state of Kerala. Further, the study argues that the sampling design of NSSO for a state like Kerala should have wider coverage and adequate size of samples to estimate MPCE by districts and it is important from the policy perspective with respect to vulnerable socio-economic groups.

Key Words: Daily wage, Regional differences, Kerala, Consumption pattern, Living standard, Wage zones.
JEL Codes: J3, J31, J43, I31, I32

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1. Introduction

Poverty is multi-dimensional. Relative poverty measures social living standard of an individual or a social group in relation to the average standard of living of the society in which individual or social grouping live. Absolute poverty or calorie norms based poverty (head count ratio), on the other, thrust on physical quantity of commodities and services an individual is essentially in need of under the given social, economic and weather conditions. Even under a situation of absolute poverty remaining static, relative poverty might increase or diminish depending on income distribution (Marx 1984). Further, poverty at the district level is influenced by population composition (relative size of different social and economic groups), pattern of employment, asset structure, social services available to different social classes and groups, infrastructure facilities such as medical, education and other infrastructural facilities. The National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) collects detailed data on consumption expenditure of individuals and households every five year. The NSSO's quinquennial consumption expenditure survey is the primary source for the estimation of the standard of living and poverty level in India. From the policy perspective, the poverty estimation and its regional differences and variation over the survey rounds assume significance. It means the statistics on different aspects of consumption expenditure and poverty estimation should represent the expenditure pattern of the population in general, particularly the backward regions and socially and economically vulnerable sections in the society. The change and variation over time in the consumption expenditure pattern and poverty level are reflected in the Monthly Per capita Consumer Expenditure (MPCE). A higher MPCE indicates a relatively better standard of living of the people in the geographical entity and it influences the policy and programmes of the government with respect to the area under consideration. Kerala is one among the high MPCE reported states in India. The estimated MPCE was Rs 1013 in rural and Rs 1291 for urban area for Kerala in 2004-05. Kerala ranked first among 20 important states in rural area and second after Punjab in the urban area in MPCE in the reference year.

In Kerala, significant difference could be observed across districts in MPCE for 2004-05 (61st Round). Further, the extend of inter-district difference in MPCE is that Thiruvananthapuram, the southernmost district in Kerala was one among 15 high MPCE districts in the country while Kannur district in the northern part of the state figured in as one among the 15 lowest reported districts in India (Choudhuri and Gupta 2009). The study therefore concludes that the state averages of MPCE hides the wide disparity existing within as well as across the same social and economic grouping within a state. The poverty ratio in rural Kerala has declined from 20.47% to 19.3% while inequality measured by *Gini* coefficient in rural Kerala has increased from 0.25 to 0.47 between 50th and 61st round of NSSO (Mishra and Ray 2010). The reported finding states clearly that the average MPCE for the state does not reflect the MPCE of all 14 districts in Kerala, the social classes and groups within districts, relative poverty and inequality in the state of Kerala. It is worth mentioning that the sampling design for the Consumer Expenditure Survey, until its 55th round in 1999-2000, had not allowed estimation of MPCE at the district level (Choudhuri and Gupta 2009). Although the sample size and coverage for the 61st round of Consumer Expenditure Survey permitted a district wise estimation of MPCE for the first time, it was reported that 425 instances in rural and 558 instances in urban India (at the district level) did not have one or more of the MPCE classes used for classification of persons by expenditure class (ibid).

In the light of the above observations, the study analyses the district–wise difference in consumer expenditure and living standard of agricultural labour and cultivator households in Kerala. These two segments of the population in the current context of the agrarian crisis represent more or less a homogeneous group with comparable income levels and standard of living. The study argues that the sampling design of NSSO for a state like Kerala should have wider coverage and large size of samples to enable the estimation of MPCE by districts. A district-wise MPCE and its change over time would suggest a different policy prescription for different social groupings within the state. The study is organised in two sections. The first section describes sample villages and sampling design of the study. In section two, district-wise differences in consumption pattern and living standards of the sample districts are presented, followed by a conclusion.

Section One

1.1. Sample Design and locale of the study

The state of Kerala has been formed amalgamating three distinct administrative entities (Travancore, Cochin and Malabar regions) with substantive differences in population composition, development history, production structure, employment pattern and livelihood[2]. Table 1 shows districts under Travancore (southern Kerala) and Malabar (northern Kerala) regions and population distribution by districts. Roughly, out of 14 districts in Kerala, six districts fall under erstwhile Travancore region and seven districts are under Malabar region. The present district of Ernakulam and a portion of Thrissur district were part of the former prin cely state of erstwhile Cochin State. Travancore and Cochin were ruled by independent kings while Malabar was under direct British rule. For sample selection, a multi-stage stratified random sampling was used with household as the ultimate unit in the strata. As the historical evolution of the socio-economic formations in those two regions was different, two geographical stratums were created – Travancore-Cochin constituted South and Central Kerala and Malabar constituted North Kerala. In each stratum, districts were classed under Developed and Less Developed regions.

[2] For stratification, the princely state of Cochin has been excluded from the sample frame for three reasons: i) even though Cochin was a princely state like the Travancore, agrarian relations and the evolution and development of the region were, to a great extent, comparable to that of Travancore; ii) Travancore and Malabar together accounted for 94.5 % of the total geographical area of the state; iii) erstwhile state of Cochin, under its jurisdiction, covered mostly, the present Ernakulam district, which is an industrial town in Kerala and, therefore, agriculture-dependent population is relatively low.

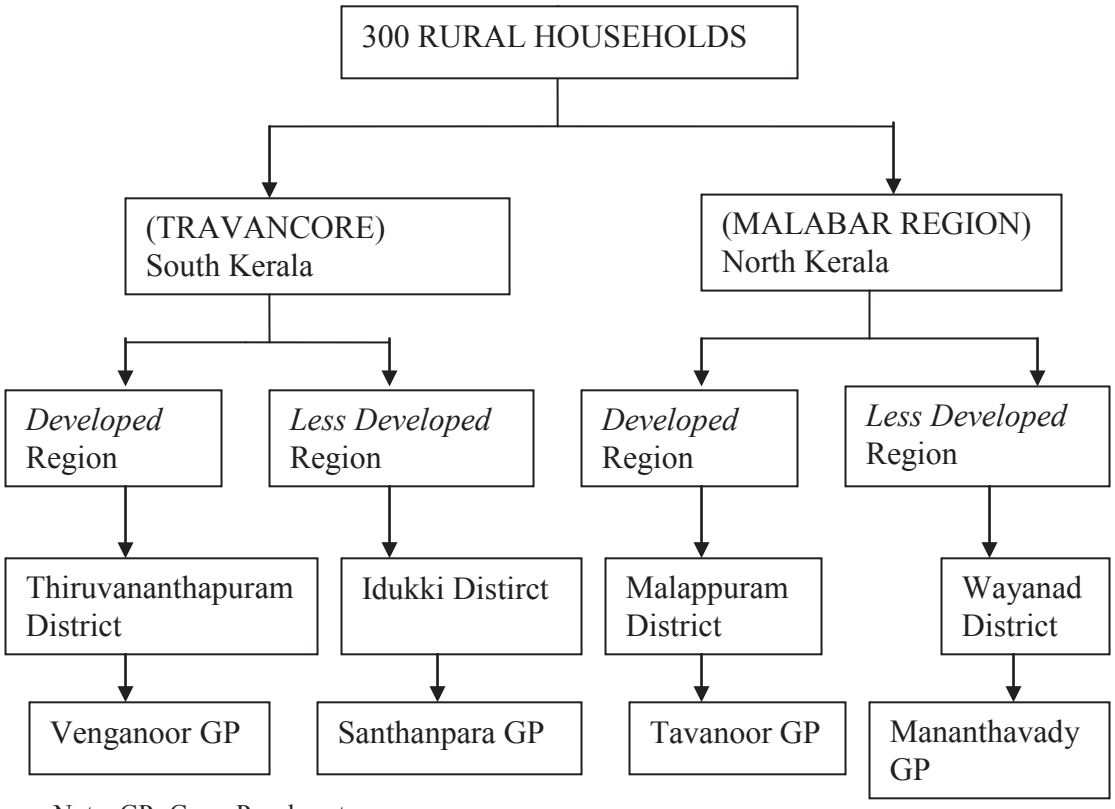
Table 1: Agriculture-dependent population as percentage of total population in Travancore, Malabar and Cochin regions-2001.

Travancore			Malabar			Cochin		
District	District Population as % of Kerala	Agriculture dependent population as % of workforce	District	District Population as % of Kerala	Agriculture dependent population as % of workforce	District	District Population as % of Kerala	Agriculture dependent population as % of workforce
Thiruvanthapuram	10.16	9.01	Thrissur	9.35	6.74	Ernakulam	9.73	6.16
Kollam	8.12	7.43	Palakkad	8.22	16.91			
Pathanamthitta	3.87	5.11	Malappuram	1 1.40	8.89			
Alapuzha	6.61	5.34	Kozhikode	9.04	3.89			
Kottayam	6.14	5.64	Wayanad	2.47	6.12			
Idukki	3.54	9.84	Kannur	7.58	6.34			
			Kasargod	3.78	2.58			
Total	38.44	42.37	Total	51.83	51.47			

Source: Census of Kerala, 2001.

Daily wages of rural labourers within stratum were used to classify districts into Developed and Less Developed regions (district) within south and north Kerala. Daily wages of rural labour are considered a better and unbiased indicator of development as a higher level in the unorganised sector manifests a developed labour market and an advanced social living standard. It also reflects the paying capacity of employers in the rural sector as well as the relative supply-demand conditions of labour force in the unorganised sector. Above all, a higher wage by itself manifests overall development of not only the labouring class but other social and economic classes in the region as well. In Malabar region (northern Kerala), Malappuram district represents Developed region (high wage zone) and Wayanad district is the Less Developed region (low wage zone (Table 2). In Travancore-Cochin region (Southern Kerala), Thiruvanathapuram district represented Developed region and Idukki district was the Less Developed one. From the Developed and Less Developed regions in each stratum, one Gram Panchayat (GP) was randomly selected. Map 1 shows the location of sample region and chart 1 present sampling frame and procedure adopted for the study.

Chart 1: Sample Area, Districts and GPs



Note: GP- Gram Panchayat

Map 1. Developed and Less Developed Districts in South and North Kerala

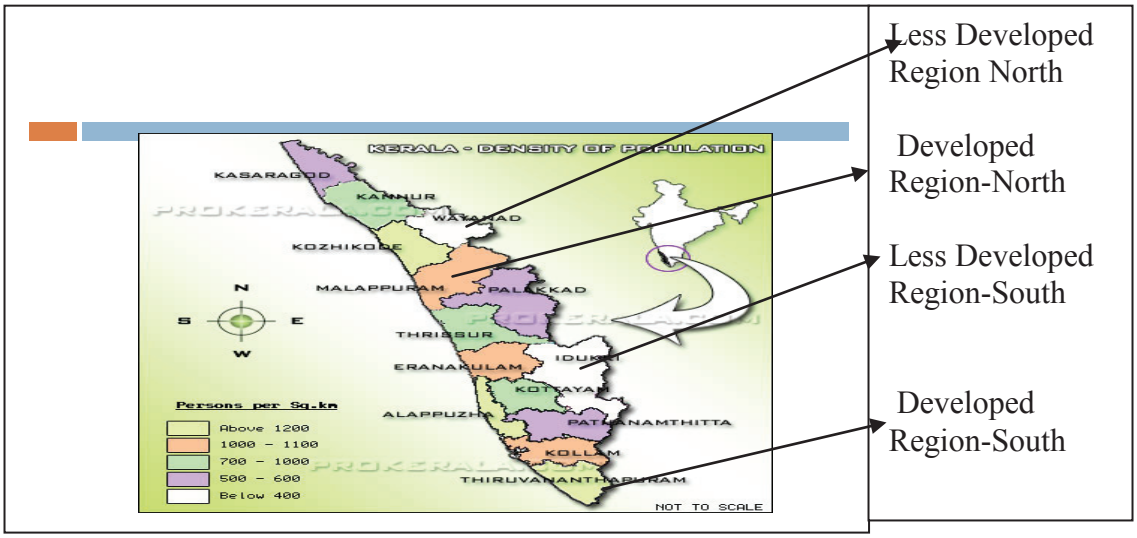


Table 2: Daily wage rates of male-agricultural labour –District wise March 2004

Sl. No.	District	Daily Wage (Rs)
1	Thiruvananthapuram	160
2	Kollam	140
3	Pathanamthitta	130
4	Alapuzha	110
5	Kottayam	130
6	Idukki	90
7	Ernakulam	150
8	Thrissur	150
9	Wayanad	80
9	Palakkad	90
10	Malappuram	150
11	Kozhikode	145
13	Kannur	120
14	Kasargod	100

Note: 1. Wage data was collected from the Department of Economics and Statistics, Government of Kerala. The same data is printed and published in the publication *Agricultural Wages in India* of Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India. The Department of Economics and Statistics, Government of Kerala collects wage data from 20 centres. However, Wayanad district is yet to be included in the list of wage data collection centres. On a primary visit to districts, it was found that wage data in Wayanad district was the lowest in the Malabar region but also in the state of Kerala. Secondly, unlike other parts of Kerala, the employer has monopoly power; to a very great extent because plantation crops such as tea and coffee are cultivated in estate.

Source: Department of Economics and Statistics, Government of Kerala

Based on the population size of cultivators and agricultural labourers in the main workforce, samples were proportionally distributed between south and north Kerala regions. In the total sample size of 300 households, relative share of agricultural labourers was 69% and cultivator households constituted 31% for the state in 2001. Accordingly, 93 cultivator households and 207 agricultural workers were selected. A total sample size of 93 cultivators and 207 labour households were distributed between south and north regions based on relative shares in cultivators and agricultural workers. From south Kerala, 49 cultivator households and 93 labour households and from north Kerala, 44 cultivator households and 114 labour households were selected. The relative share of cultivator households in Travancore region was 53% and the corresponding share for Malabar regions was 47%. From south Kerala (erstwhile Travancore) Venganoor GP of Thiruvananthapuram district represented Developed region and Santhanpara GP in Idukki district was selected to represent Less Developed region. Similarly, in the north Kerala (erstwhile Malabar) Tavanoor GP in Malappuram district and Mananthavady GP in Wayanad district were selected to represent Developed and Less Developed regions respectively. Primary survey was commenced in November 2004 and completed in July 2005. For the sake of brevity and clarity of sample regions, a short geographical description and socio-economic profile of sample districts and Gram Panchayat are presented below.

1.2. Locale and its Characteristics

1.2.1. Venganoor GP in Thiruvananthapuram District – *A Developed* Region in South Kerala- (High wage Zone in South Kerala)

Venganoor GP is situated on the coast of the Arabian Sea in Thiruvananthapuram district and stands adjacent to the coastal village of Vizhinjam. Venganoor GP had 15 wards and a total population of 33372 in 2001. The Panchayat wards sampled for the study are serially numbered 3 and 4. Next to farming, fishing is the important occupation in the village. Women workers are engaged in stone-crushing in the construction sector. However, stone crushing is not an attractive employment in terms of wage as the day's hard work would earn not more than Rs 50/- (2004-5). Mostly, women workers are engaged in stone crushing primarily because of the flexibility in the time schedule of the work. The workers are free to start and stop according to their convenience and the wage is paid on piece rate basis. It was reported that they did work for Rs 25 to Rs 30/ a day. Therefore, women who had little other employment avenues and disabled or aged male labourers engaged in such work. Important caste groups engaged in farming in the village are *Nairs, Nadars, Scheduled Castes and Ezhavas.* Important crops grown in the GP are vegetables, plantains and banana in wet land where paddy was grown in the past coconut is main crop in dry land.

1.2.2. Santhanpara GP in Idukki District -*Less Developed* Region in South Kerala- (Low Wage Zone in South Kerala)

Santhanppara GP is in Idukki district. Work participation rates for male were 58.40% and 28.10% for females against the state averages of 50.40% and 15.30% for males and females respectively, in 2001. Idukki district has four Taluks, ten Community Development Blocks and 54 GPs. The sample Panchayat, Santhanppara falls in Udumpamchola taluk and Devikulam Community Development Block. The GP had ten wards and 4405 households in 2001. It was found that about 75 % of the total area under cultivation in Santhanppara village is accounted for by cardamom and pepper is the second largest crop (15%) followed by coffee (6 %). A considerable size of the population in Santhanpara GP is migrants from nearby districts in Kerala and Tamil Nadu. Wage labours work in cardamom plantations, which are mostly owned by absentee landlords and these estates are not registered under Plantation Labour Act, 1951, depriving workers from their legitimate rights. Infrastructure in the village is least developed as compared to other GPs in Idukki district.

1.2.3. Tavanoore GP in Malappuram District- Developed Region in North Kerala- (High Wage Zone in North Kerala)

Tavanoore GP is located in the southern part of Malappuram district and the GP falls under Ponnani Taluk and Ponnani Community Development Block. The geographical area under Tavanoore GP is 42.37 sq.km and the Panchayat is bounded by Bharathapuzha river in the North and West, Anakkara and Vattamkulam Panchayats in the East and Edappal and Ponnani Municipalities in the South. Tavanoore GP is a relatively large Panchayat with 20 GP wards. The GP had 9686 households with a total population of 53614 in 2001. The sex ratio in the GP was 1094 females for 1000 males in 2001. The higher sex ratio in favour of females could be

attributed to the migration of male population to West Asian countries in search of employment, which is considered to be a characteristic feature particularly of the Muslim-dominated localities in Kerala. The work participation rate in the GP is 49.58%, of which females work participation is as low as 10.12% in 2001. Though the female work participation rate is much lower than the state average, it is higher than the average work participation of the district. In the total population, 16.33% belonged to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes does not exist in the GP. In the total workforce, 79.71% are main workers (principal status) and 20.29% are marginal workers or workers in subsidiary status. The relative share of marginal workers among female was as high as 37.61% while the share of marginal workers among males was 16.14%. Agriculture dependent population as a proportion of main worker was 20.80 %, which was on the higher side when compared to the district average of 16.60 %. It is important to note that the agriculture-dependent population in the sample Panchayat is less than the district average.

1.2.4. Mananthavady GP in Wayanad district - *Less Developed* Region (Low Wage Zone in North Kerala)

Wayanad district is situated in the northern part of Kerala. The district is nestled amidst the majestic mountains of the Western Ghat, at a height of 700 to 2100 metres above sea level on the north-eastern part of the state. Mananthavady GP has 19 wards with a total population of 45477 persons of which 22868 were males and 22619 were females in 2001. The sex ratio in the GP is in favour of males with 989 females per 1000 males. In the total population, 14.99 % belonged to Scheduled Tribes and 3.61 % to Scheduled Castes. Migrants from Thodupuzha, Pala and Muvattupuzha came to the village in two spells, first in 1930 during the time of the Great Depression and the second spell in the 1940s and 1950s. Migrants constituted mostly cultivators and peasants. Cultivators from the Christian community migrated to the area mostly from Kottayam and Thodupuzha regions and the availability cheap and abundant land and labour attracted farmers to the area. Great famines in the late 1960s and early 1970s drove down Scheduled Caste people from Tamilnadu to the area particularly to tea, coffee and cardamom estates located in the area. The Scheduled Tribe population in Mananthavady GP accounted for 20.44 % of the total Scheduled Tribe population in Wayanad district. The Work participation rate of the GP was 39.86 % in 2001. The work participation rate for males was 55.80 % and for females, 28.15 %, which were on the high side when compared to the work participation rate for females in Wayanad district as a whole as well in the state. Prominent sub-castes under Scheduled Tribe population in the Mananthavady GP are Paniyan, Mullahkurukan, Uralikuruman, Kattunakan, Adiyan and Kurichiyan. In Mananthavady GP, there were 2582 cultivators and 3422 agricultural labourers. As a proportion of main workers, cultivators accounted for 17.26% and agricultural labourers for 22.88%. The total agriculture-dependent population in Mananthavady GP was 40.14 % which was lower than the district average but significantly higher than the state average.

In the gross cropped area, 16.80 % of the land is under wetland (part of which has been converted to paddy fields) and 58 % is dry land. The area under reserve forest constituted 9.40 % and waste-land constituted 8.20 %. About 4 % of the land area is under government control. Major crops cultivated in Mananthavady GP are coffee (22.50%), rice (10.24 %), pepper (9.98 %), tea (9.36 %), arecanut (5.64 %), banana (4 %), coconut (4.36 %) and rubber 3.12 %).

Section Two

2. Consumption Expenditure and Living Standard

Household expenditure on food and non-food item is a direct indicator of living standard of the society under reference. Consumption theories inform that income change has a time lag to reflect on consumption (Ratchet Effect) and the income effect on consumption for social classes are different. The mode of satisfying needs, wants and comforts in life do vary across social and economic groupings in any society. The living standard of small and marginal farmers and agricultural labour households is relatively on a lower stratum within the society and scale and magnitude of the expenditure of the lower stratum change from region to region and within regions across social classes and groups. It implies that living standard of farmer and labour households reflect, to an extent, the general state of development of the society. In order to bring out the difference in the living standard of labour and cultivator households across sample districts in Kerala, daily expenditure on food and certain non-food item, possession of consumer durables, house type, accessibility to drinking water, availability of toilets within the premise of the household and electricity are considered. The observation from the field survey is further empirically verified with the statistics available with the Population Census 2001. Secondary information at the district level is available on the following variables, viz., (i) number of agriculture labour (main and marginal); (ii) number of cultivator (main and marginal); (iii) number of total, main, marginal and non-workers; (iv) accessibility to drinking water by source and distance from the place of residence or the premise; (v) type of houses by materials used for roofing; and (vi) availability of toilets within the premise. Pearson Correlation coefficient was worked out to understand the association between these variables across districts. It is hypothesised that there is a negative correlation between the number of agricultural dependent households (cultivator and agricultural labour) and the living standards measured in terms of basic amenities in life numbered above from (iv) to (vi).

2.1. Consumption Expenditure in High Wage Zones (Developed Regions in South and North Kerala)

Certain similarities could be observed in the social living and consumption pattern of labour and cultivator households in developed regions of south and north Kerala (Thiruvananthapuram district in the south and Malapuram district in the north) and therefore social living of cultivator and labour households are put together in the narration that follows. Both cultivator and labour households in high wage zone begin the day with bed coffee or black tea, followed by standard breakfast often with traditional food items made of rice which would cost in the market not less than Rs 15 to Rs 20 per person (market price prevailed in 2004-05 period). Between 1pm and 2pm, both cultivator and labour households eat lunch at home invariably with a minimum of two side dishes and a non-vegetarian item, mostly fish. The cost of fish bought daily average about Rs 15 for labour households and Rs 25 for cultivator households (2004-05 prices). It is for a six member family, comprising father, mother, two children and two relatives (grandparents). In the evening, by 5 pm, milk tea is served at home often with snacks. Male members may, at time, go out to the

village centre for their evening tea and snacks or a glass of country liquor. In the night, labour and cultivator households alike eat supper (rice) with fish and one or two vegetarian side dishes. Labour households, by and large, use milk for morning tea and for children. In the evening, adult male members of both the households pay regular evening visit to the village centre wearing pressed or at the least neatly washed clothes and spend three to four hours on socialisation. For a six member family, a labour household spends between Rs 3000 and Rs 5000 on clothes per annum.

2.1.1. Marriage and other Social Functions– (High Wage Zones): Developed Regions

For marriage and other special occasions, friends and relatives are invited and the invitation list, in normal course, would be extended to 500 to 1000 persons, depending on the family status. Labour households in Developed region in south and north Kerala offer gift either in kind (household utensils, gold) or in cash to the bride or bridegroom. For the marriage of neighbour or friend, about Rs 200 to Rs 500 worth gift would be offered. For close relatives, gift amount would vary between Rs 500 and Rs 1000/-. For female children, a labour household would offer 20 to 30 sovereign worth dowry while a cultivator household would offer between 50 and 100 sovereigns in south Kerala. This is in addition to the share in family property in which girl children stake a larger share (among Hindu communities) in south Kerala. During marriage occasions, scrumptious feast is served to all guests invited and a lunch served per guest would cost not less than Rs 50. In addition to the feast served on the day of the ceremony, a reception is arranged on the marriage eve in the bridegroom's residence. The bride would also throw a party to relatives and friends at his residence in the evening of the marriage day. For Hindu families, the marriage is solemnised at public halls both in Travancore and Malabar; but Christians conduct marriage in the church and the feast is served in public halls; for Muslims the marriage ceremonies are solemnised at bridegroom's residence.

2.2. Consumption Expenditure in Low Wage Zone (Less Developed Regions in South and North Kerala)

Living standard and consumption pattern in low wage zones, *viz*., Santhanppara GP in Idukki and Mananthavady GP in Wayanad district have several similarities. In Santhanppara, labour and cultivator households are mostly of Tamil origin. Labour households live in hut-type house costing, on an average, Rs 10000. A cultivator's house is not distinctly different from that of the labour. Labour households work in cardamom and coffee plantations, most of which are unregistered plantations and therefore workers are denied of their legitimate rights granted under the Plantation Labour Act. Labour households in Santhanpara GP eat only two meals a day (three meals a day in high wage zones). A breakfast-cum-lunch is eaten around 11 am and a supper in the night. They drink black tea or coffee (a cheap local variety of coffee) in the morning and cook rice for the day. Along with rice, *chutney* made of locally grown and available vegetables free of cost is prepared. On working days, they cook rice in the morning and carry tiffin containing cooked rice and *chutney* for lunch, which they eat by 11 am. Supper too contains rice and one side dish. On holidays and unemployed days, rice will be cooked around 11 am and the cooked rice is eaten between 1 pm and 2 pm. However, they do not have the practice of taking lunch or breakfast at specific

hours daily; their adults particularly women limit their food intake in the day time to one meal. Only on special occasions, they buy non-vegetarian item. On their way back home in the evening after work, labours purchase vegetables for not more than Rs 5/- for *side dish (a mixed vegetable subgy)*. While shopping, workers drink black tea with snack, costing Rs 5, from the country tea shop. Cultivator households, barring a few estate owners, seldom cook breakfast. Small cultivator households occasionally purchase fish for Rs 10 - Rs 15 and cook one side dish while labour households very rarely eat non-vegetarian dishes. Labour and cultivator households often wear cheap clothes, which are often bought to their residence for sale by village money lenders-cum-vendors. The cloth/clothes vendors sell most of the items required by a household like furniture, electronic goods on credit. They have the multiple advantages of charging interest for the money lend out and profit from sale of clothes. The cloth vendors procure cheap cloths from Coimbatore market in Tamil Nadu and sell to the people in Santhanppara on credit.

2.2.1. Marriage and other Social Function in Low Wage Zones (Less Developed Regions)

Unlike Developed regions, for marriage function in a labour household in Santhanppara GP (GP) (south Kerala), about 100 to 200 friends and relatives would be invited to participate and bless the couple. A lunch served to the guest in the function would cost Rs 20 per person (2004-05). For cultivator households, number of invited guests for marriage functions could be around 200-300 and the lunch served would be slightly better. Gold offered as dowry (unless the cultivator is an estate owner) does not exceed 10 sovereign. For labour households, dowry is limited to 5 sovereigns. For the wedding ceremony friends and neighbours of agricultural labour households offer gift to bridegroom worth less than Rs 50 or less. Cultivator households offer gift worth a maximum of Rs 100.

In Mananthavady GP, Less Developed regions in north Kerala, Adivasi community supply the major chunk of labour power for the farm sector. Employment in Mananthavady GP is mostly seasonal as pepper and coffee are the two major crops grown in dry land. Unlike Santhanppara, public transport system is better developed in this village. Labour households cook rice in the morning and often skip breakfast as in the case of their counterpart in Santhanppara GP in Idukki district. Labour households eat mostly two meals and the rice cooked in the morning is eaten by 11 am and the supper in the night. Labour households usually limit their breakfast to a morning black coffee and they seldom buy milk even for their children. Clothes bought for a six member labour household does not exceed Rs 1500/ per annum (2004-05).

Cultivator households in Manathavady GP belong to primary caste groups such as Nair, Ezhavas and a few Adivasi families (Hindu). There is presence of Christian and Muslim population too mostly in the farming community. The living standard of cultivator households in Mananthavady GP is notably on a lower side as compared to their counterpart in the high wage zone in Malapuram district in north Kerala. Nonetheless, unlike cultivator households in the Less Developed region in south Kerala, they prepare breakfast, cook lunch with sufficient side dishes and take even evening tea and supper. They eat fish almost every day and their daily purchases of fish varied between Rs 10 and 20. However, living standard of cultivators in the Less Developed

region in north Kerala is not comparable to the labour households in the Developed region. Even though living standards of cultivators in the low wage zone cannot be compared with those in the high wage zone, the social living standard of cultivator household in Mananthavady GP is ahead of cultivator households of Santhanppara GP in Idukki district.

2.3. Inter-District Differences in Daily Household by Expenditure in Kerala

To recapitulate, the daily expenditure of a standard six member family in four sample districts (four GPs) of Kerala are presented in Table 3. Households are classified into six expenditure class spending less than Rs 50 per day (lowest expenditure class) to more than Rs 151 per day (highest expenditure class) on food and non-food item. The empirical observations from **Table 3** clearly showed that the difference in consumer expenditure across districts in Kerala was statistically significant at 1% and 5% levels **(Table 4)**. Important observations from Table 3 are noted below: (i) In Venganoor and Tavanoor GPs of High wage zones or developed districts in the state, only about 25% of labour households spend less than Rs 50 per days on food and non-food items. On the contrary, 75% of labour households spend less than Rs 50 per day on food and non-food item in Mananthavady GP of Wayanad district in Kerala; (ii) not even a single labour household in Mananthavady GP was reported to have spent more than Rs 101 per day on food while 22% labour households had spent more than Rs 101 per day on food in Tavanoor GP of Malalpuram district in north Kerala; (iii) 11.76% of cultivator household reported to have spent more than Rs 126 daily on food in Venganoor GP of Thiruvananthapuram district while 32.25% of farmer households in Tavanoor GP had spent more than Rs 126 daily on food: (iv) there exists significant statistical difference in the consumption expenditure between agricultural labour and cultivator households.

Table 3: Percentage Distribution of Labour and Cultivator households by Expenditure class

Daily Expenditure class (Rs)	South Kerala				North Kerala			
	Developed Region Venganoor GP (High Wage Zone)		Less Developed Region Santhanpara GP (Low Wage Zone)		Developed Region Tavanoor GP (High Wage Zone)		Less Developed Region Mananthavadi GP (Low Wage Zone)	
	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH
≤ 50	26.09	5.88	45.28	26.47	23.08	12.90	75	25.00
51-75	45.65	41.18	30.19	35.29	23.08	9.68	13	22.50
76-100	13.04	41.18	24.53	20.59	32.05	45.16	12	35.00
101-125	8.70	0	0	0	1.28	0	0	12.50
126-150	6.52	5.88	0	11.79	17.95	19.35	0	2.50
> 151	0	5.88	0	5.88	2.56	12.90	0	2.50
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: HH-Households
Source: Primary survey

Table 4: Standard Error of the Proportions of Expenditure of Classes between Developed and Less Developed Regions in Kerala

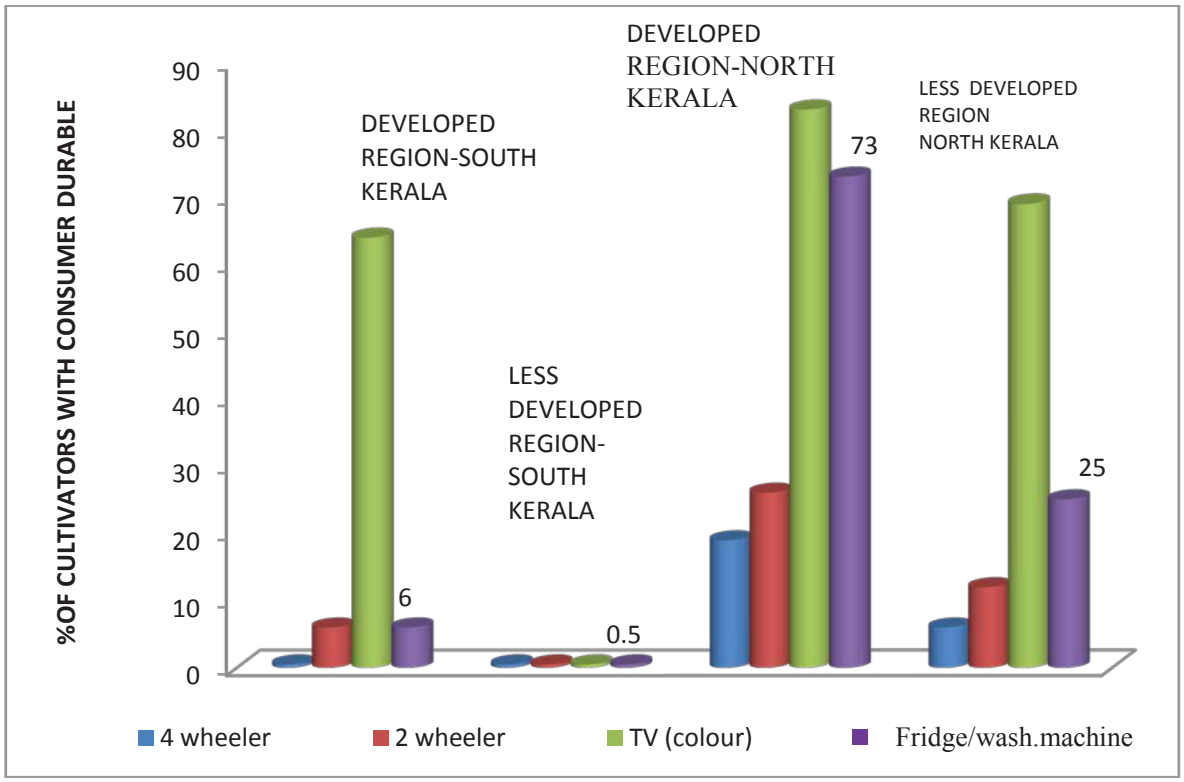
Daily Expenditure class (Rs)	South Kerala		North Kerala	
	Difference between cultivators in low and high wage regions	Difference between labour in low and high wage regions	Difference between cultivators in low and high wage regions	Difference between laboure a in low and high wage regions
≤ 50	0.130	1.724**	1.455	1.988**
51-75	1.720**	3.042**	1.97**	1.986**
76-100	1.590*	0.814	1.13	2.772*
101-125	0.171	0.492	0.180	0.174
126-150	0.156	0.334	0.583	1.517*
> 151	0.164	0.138	0.179	0.065

Note: ** significance at 1 % level *significance at 5 % level
Source: **Based on Table 3**.

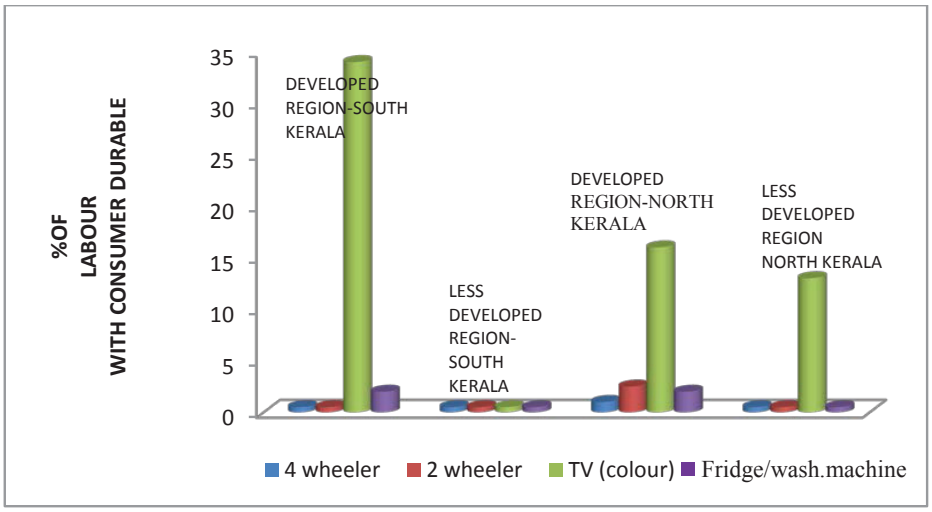
2.4. Possession of consumer durables

Observations made in **Tables 3 and 4** is further verified with the possession of consumer durables, basic amenities in life and housing pattern of the sample population. For comparison, six type of consumer durables were considered. In the Developed region in south Kerala, labour and cultivator households possessed colour television and refrigerators. Conversely, in the Less Developed region in south Kerala, neither cultivator nor did labour households, report to have possessed any of such consumer durable items. As observed in the case of consumer expenditure, both cultivator and labour households had possessed all six items listed for the study, indicating significant difference across districts in north Kerala. In the Less Developed north Kerala, (Mananthavady), 19% of the cultivator households possessed vehicles, 67 % of them owned colour television and 25% of cultivator households had refrigerators and washing machines. Labour households belonged mostly to the Adivasi community and they did not have any of such comforts in life. Among labour households, few of those who belonged to upper castes (Nairs and Ezhavas) owned televisions set **(Graphs 1&2).**

Graph 1: Comparion of Cultivators with Consumer Durable by Regions in Kerala



Graph 2: Comparion of Consumer Durable with Labour Households by Regions in Kerala



2.5. Basic Amenities

The living standard of a society or people living in a geographical area can be assessed on the basis of the accessibility to the necessities of life. The necessities of life are: (i) accessibility to drinking water; (ii) electricity; and (iii) toilet within house premise and (iv) pucca house. Table 5 shows the inter-district differences in the availability of the above mentioned necessities in life. Following are the important observations from Table 5. (i) In three out of districts in Kerala, all cultivator households have accessibility to the basic necessities of life. More than 30% of cultivator households in Idukki district (Santhanpara GP) do not have accessibility to drinking water, about 70% of the cultivators households in the district do not have electricity and more than 40% do not have toilet within the house premises. (ii) Significant difference could be observed in the availability of basic amenities of life between agriculture-labour and cultivator households in three out of four sample Gram Panchayats (districts); (iii) inter-district variation in the availability of basic amenities of life among labour households across districts do vary considerably. For instance, only 9% of labour households have electrified house in Sanathanpara GP and 22% of households have accessibility to drinking water. Conversely, all labour households in Venganoor GP (Thiruvananthpuram district) have drinking water facility near the place of residence and 93% of households have toilet within house premises.

Table 5: Percentage Distribution of Cultivator and Labour Households with Basic Facilities

Item	South Kerala				North Kerala			
	Developed Region (Venganoor GP)		Less Developed Region (Santhanpara GP)		Developed Region (Tavanoor GP)		Less Developed Region (Mananthavadi GP)	
	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH
Drinking water	100	1 00	22	67	42	100	51	100
Electricity	91	100	9	29	67	100	75	100
Toilet	93	100	32	58	91	100	60	100

Source: Primary survey

2.6. Housing

Type of housing is yet another indicator of social standard of living. It reflects the asset base of the population under consideration. Population Census furnishes information by type of house based on the material used for roofing. Broadly, Census categorises house into Katcha and Pucca. **Table 6** gives the type of house by households in four sample districts and GPs. A household with a Pucca house is ra ted to have better income and living standard as compared to Katcha house. Since the introduction of People's planning in Kerala, local bodies in the state have constructed Pucca house for BPL families and therefore house type by roofing is not an adequate indicator of the living standard. In this context, cost of construction is a more exhaustive index of house classification than the conventional census classification of Pucca and Kutcha division. However, for comparison, house is classified into five types: (i) double storied building with concrete roofing, (ii) tiled house, (iii) thatched house, (iv) house with asbestos sheet, and (v) huts. In Thiruvananthapuram district (Vengannor GP), 59% of cultivator households live in concrete building (Rs 8-10 lakh) and another 23% have pucca tiled house (Rs 3-5 lakh). In Malappuram district, 76% of cultivators live in concrete building with a cost of construction in the range of Rs 10-15 lakh with granite or marble flooring, strong ground walls and attached bath rooms. On the contrary, 73% of cultivator households live in tiled house with cement flooring which cost not more than Rs 1 lakh in Idukki district (Santhanpara GP). Moreover, 96% labour households in Santhanpara GP, live in hut type house costing not more than Rs 20,000. In Malappuram district 79% of labour households live in comfortable conditions with owned house either with concrete or tiled roofing. It is important to note that there is no sheet roofed or GP constructed house for the BPL families in Tavanoor GP for labour households in the sample. Conversely, 31% of the labour household live in Panchayat house constructed pucca house in Santhanpara GP. In brief, a close perusal of the type of house by cultivator and labour households shows considerable difference in the living standard, measured in terms of the type of house under possession, across districts as well as social classes within districts.

Table 6: Percentage Distribution of Cultivators and Labours by Type of House

Expenditure class	South Kerala				North Kerala			
	Developed Region (Venganoor GP) Thiruvananthapuram District		Less Developed Region (Santhanpara GP) Idduki District		Developed Region (Tavanoor GP) Malappuram District		Less Developed Region (Santhanpara GP) Wayanad Disrtict	
	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH	Labour HH	Cultivator HH
Terrace	19	59	4	23	20	76	9	56
Tiles	22	23	96	73	59	24	24	32
Thatched	20	18	Nil	4	21	Nil	Nil	Nil
Hut	9	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	21	6
Sheet	21	Nil	Nil	Nil	nil	Nil	15	6
Panchayat house	9	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	31	Nil
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: HH-Household
Source: Primary survey

Table 7: Percentage of Households to Total Households by indicators of Development

District	% Non-Electrified House	Households Without Toilet within the House premise	Households without Drinking water source (away from House Premise)	% of cultivators in total workers	% of Agricultural Labour in total Workers	% of *kacha* House to total House
Kasargod	11.24	8.22	1.92	4.99	10.05	3.00
Kannur	5.90	2.35	0.76	5.99	13.25	0.93
Wayanad	19.17	8.22	0.75	16.77	30.50	4.55
Kozhikode	6.17	2.19	0.96	3.47	8.23	4.82
Malappuram	5.74	2.65	1.03	6.56	17.81	2.56
Palakkad	6.48	10.21	0.63	9.06	33.56	4.23
Thrissur	2.99	2.15	0.42	5.31	11.40	3.76
Ernakulam	2.58	2.15	0.32	5.25	7.97	1.19
Idukki	11.60	10.87	1.93	21.14	27.07	3.09
Kottayam	3.42	3.40	2.08	7.82	13.22	1.46
Alapuzha	3.85	7.07	1.66	3.81	13.70	2.82
Pathanamthitta	5.52	6.09	1.47	13.52	19.86	1.92
Kollam	4.90	5.51	0.90	6.83	14.69	3.16
Thiruvananthapuram	5.42	5.79	0.88	3.67	12.95	7.53
State Total	**5.59**	4.80	1.00	7.04	15.76	3.35
Standard Deviation	4.45	3.09	0.58	5.328	8.157	1.733
Coefficient of Variation (Ratio)	0.80	0.64	0.58	0.757	0.518	0.518

Source: Calculated from Population Census 2001.

Table 8: Pearson Correlation Coefficient for Development Indicators by districts in Kerala

Variables	% of non-electrified house	% of households without toilet	% of households with out drinking water	% of households live under *Katcha* house	% of Cultivator Households	% of Agriculture Labour Households
	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6
V1	1.00	0.592(*)	0.150	0.257	0.649(*)	0.583(*)
V2	0.592(*)	1.00	0.389	0.278	0.610(*)	0.733(**)
V3	0.150	0.389	1.00	-0.212	0.271	0.006
V4	0.649(*)	0.610(*)	0.271	1.00	0.755(**)	0.755(**)
V5	0.583(*)	0.733(**)	0.006	-0.080	1.00	0.170
V6	0.257	0.278	-0.212	0.562	-0.080	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In Kerala, only 5.59% of the house is not electrified. But the proportion of house not electrified was as high as 19.17% in Wayanad district. Moreover, seven out of 14 districts in the state have reported a higher proportion of non-electrified houses as compared to the State's average. It was reported that 4.80% of households do not have toilet facilities within the premise of the house while more than 10% of the households in Idukki and Wayanad districts do not have toilet facilities within their house premise. Households without accessibility to drinking water or water source are away from house premise for certain districts in the state are more than double of the state's average. The Coefficient of variation of development indicators in Table 7 indicated that inter-district variation is significant. In brief, the average values for the aforesaid variables represent the case of only half of the districts in the state and the observation hold good for the MPCE.

In conventional economic theory, a higher ratio of farm dependent population in the total workforce is indicative of the relative backwardness of a geographical entity. It is found that the farm dependent population in Kerala (cultivator and agricultural labour) is 22% while agricultural labour and cultivators together constitute more than 45% of the total workforce in more than one district in the state. It is logical to presume that there is a positive association between the size of the farm dependent population and the level of social development. The farm dependent population is positively correlated with the indicators of social backwardness, viz., non-electrified house, lack of accessibility to drinking water, proportion of Kacha house in the total and households without toilet in house premises. An important observation from Table 8 is that there is a positive and significant association between the farm dependent population (cultivator and agricultural labour households) to number of households without toilet, drinking water, live in *Katcha* and non-electrified house. The findings in the correlation table confirm the observation of the primary survey that there is a significant difference in the living standard of agricultural labour and cultivator households across districts in Kerala.

2. Conclusion

Reliable statistics on the level and magnitude of poverty and unemployment are crucial inputs from a policy perspective, especially in a country like India. Consumer Expenditure and Employment and Unemployment Surveys of NSSO are major sources of secondary data widely used for the estimation of poverty and unemployment in the country. The sampling design of the Consumer Expenditure Survey of the NSSO allowed the estimation of MPCE only at the state level until its 61st Round in 2004-05. The sample size is too small to estimate MPCE for all expenditure class at the district level even with 61st Round of NSSO data. It is presumed that the state average of MPCE hold good for the entire state. A detailed analysis of primary data in four districts in Kerala in 2004-05 showed that there were significant difference in the living standard measured by consumer expenditure on food and non-food item, possession of consumer durables and basic amenities in life. It was also noticed that the living standard of different social class within districts did vary considerably. For instance, it was found that more than 75% of labour households of a six member family in a GP in Wayanad district could spend only Rs 50 or less per day for their food and non-food expenditure together while labour households in another GP (Tavanoor GP) in Malappuram district reported that less than 25% of labour households in the expenditure class of Rs 50 or less. More or less the same difference could be found in the comparison in daily consumer

expenditure of GPs from Thiruvananthapuram and Idduki districts. The observed contrast has come out more stunningly in the quality of life measured in terms of basic amenities of life such as accessibility to drinking water, electricity, toilet facilities and in the possession of consumer durables including colour television, washing machine, refrigerator and possession of vehicle. To the extent that consumer expenditure survey leave population groups from its sample frame, poverty ratios and regional inequality estimated from Consumer Expenditure Surveys become less relevant, leaving policies and programme ineffective or leave the target group untouched. It underlines the importance of an overhauling process of the sampling design of NSSO consumer expenditure surveys to give wider representation to the diversified nature of social and economic groupings in India.

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Infrastructure and Wellbeing in Rural India: A State Level Analysis

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Abstract

The wellbeing at the household level does not depend upon a household's aggregate income only but also upon basic condition and capabilities of individual members of the household to live a healthy life and perform decent economic activities. The wellbeing of the household, thus, depends upon many other factors like the level of education received by each member, the health condition of its members, quality of drinking water used, social security of the household etc. Infrastructure plays a vital role in developing all these important factors. Another factor which influences the wellbeing of a household is the generation and/or availability of decent work to its members. While the earning of a person depends on the type of work she/he is performing, the choice that a person would make among available alternatives depends upon her/his functioning. This paper tries to identify the relationship between poverty, employment, level of living and infrastructure in rural India based on NSS 66th round data to assess the dynamics of infrastructure and wellbeing. The proposed methodology can be replicated in the rural sector of any developing economy.

Key words: Wellbeing, Infrastructure, Decent work, Village facility index, Level of living
JEL codes: O10, I31, C55

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1. Introduction

Any development analysis generally gives a lot of importance to poverty reduction and we invariably finish our journey by analysing some basic indicators like 'head count ratio' or 'gross domestic product' or 'per capita consumption expenditure'. Generally we ignore the idea of 'capability deprivation' owing to lack of data and thus stick to only 'instruments' rather than the 'process' itself. The poverty of a household does not only depend upon its income but also upon its capability to develop suitable functioning which in turn will increase the household's possibilities of earning a sustainable income. To develop the functioning of an individual, living environment and basic infrastructure play a vital role.

Public policy reforms and investment in physical infrastructure significantly contribute to the pursuit of socially inclusive development. During the recent decades, two sets of arguments have been put forward linking physical infrastructure and poverty reduction. While great importance was attached to physical infrastructure in the poverty reduction efforts of developing countries, many in the international development community viewed assistance for infrastructure with considerable skepticism on three grounds (Masika and Baden, 1997). First, though important for economic growth, infrastructure investment had little relevance to poverty reduction. Second, actual benefits from infrastructure were significantly less than anticipated. Third, weak governance and institutions gave way to corruption, distorted public investment choices, and neglected maintenance, thereby lowering infrastructure's contribution to economic growth and diverting benefits intended for the poor. Nevertheless, there is now wider recognition, including in the international donor community, that if governance and institutional frameworks are strengthened, the linkage between infrastructure and reduction of poverty can become stronger.

The term 'infrastructure' can be broadly classified as 'physical', 'social' and 'economic'. While by 'physical infrastructure' we mean those infrastructures which are tangible, the other types of infrastructures are generally of intangible nature. For example, a school building is a physical infrastructure which is tangible in nature, but education given in the school is a social infrastructure, which is intangible. Similarly a rural cooperative bank is a physical; infrastructure but the service it provides is of intangible nature. Although the role of infrastructure in poverty reduction is well established, it is not easy to establish a direct causal relationship between them. While a good infrastructure stimulates growth and therefore enhance the chance of a person to become non-poor following the relative definition of poverty; growth itself can act as an impetus for infrastructural development. Ifzal and Ernesto (2003) observed that poverty reduction requires economic growth which, when accompanied by sound macroeconomic management and good governance, results in sustainable and socially inclusive development. It was observed that poor should have greater access to education and health services, water and sanitation, employment, credit, and markets for produce. Moreover, the vulnerability of the poor to economic shocks and natural disasters must be reduced to enhance their wellbeing and encourage investment in human capital and in high-risk and high-return activities. Thus relative concept of poverty, giving sole emphasis only on earnings, often misses the long run perspectives. While it is well recognized that income plays an eminent role in poverty reduction, the nature of employment, capability of the worker and productivity often depend upon the nature of environment within which she/he works

and the infrastructure available.

Relationship between poverty, infrastructure and employment has been studied by different authors and donor agencies and they identified the positive role of infrastructure in generating employment and reducing poverty. A research on the Philippines, using provincial data, reveals that roads, particularly when complemented by schooling investment, exert significant indirect and direct impacts on the welfare of the poor (Balisacan, Pernia and Asra 2002). The elasticities suggest that a 1% increase in road access coupled with schooling results in a 0.32% rise, via growth, in the mean incomes of the poor. Similarly, a 1% improvement in roads with schooling is directly associated with a 0.11% increase in the poor's incomes. Escobal (2001) established the link between roads and income diversification by studying off-farm activities in rural Peru. Using a Tobit doubled-censored estimation, the author showed that access to roads, along with other public assets such as rural electrification and education, was a significant determinant of income diversification. He also found that access to roads and other public assets raises the profitability of both farm and non-farm activities. Warr's (2005) study on road and rural poverty in Lao PDR showed that all-weather roads had a positive and highly significant impact on poverty. Specifically the study found that all-weather road access lowered poverty incidence by around six percent, and about 13 percent of the decline in rural poverty incidence between 1997–98 and 2002–03 can be attributed to improved road access alone. A comprehensive literature review on the role of infrastructure in poverty alleviation can be found in Seetanah, Ramessur and Rojid (2009).

In India, information on the availability of various infrastructural facilities in the villages used to be collected by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), more or less regularly in the past. During the NSS 47th round (July-December 1991), the main subject of which was 'Disability and Culture', a detailed survey on the facilities available to the villages was conducted. Similar information on village facilities was also collected along with the listing operations during the 52nd round (1995-96). During the 58th round (July-December 2002), NSSO undertook the collection of information on village facilities. The enquiry also included the collection of information on availability of facilities to the disabled persons in the sample villages. From the survey results of NSS, the role of infrastructure on poverty reduction and general level of wellbeing is re-emphasized. The other indicator for availability of infrastructural facilities in villages is the distance of the villages from those places where these facilities are available. For example, if children of a village have to travel 15 km to attend primary school, which might be listed as a facility for the village, in practice this facility may not be availed by the students, especially girls, because of this distance. Thus, data on distances of various facilities in a village is very important to study the wellbeing of its inhabitants. Mohanan and Chakrabortty (2008) examined the extent to which the four criteria viz., 'access to improved water', 'access to improved sanitation', 'sufficient living area' and 'structural quality' are met by households during the NSS 58th round. The results show that rural areas need an urgent emphasis upon creating basic infrastructure that would help decrease inequalities in terms of living and wellbeing. Chakrabortty, Baksi and Verma (2012) identified the relationship between infrastructure, employment opportunities and level of living in rural India using NSS 66th round data. They showed that at all India level, the inhabitants of a village with 'good' or 'very good' infrastructure had a better chance to live a more decent life than their counterparts who lived with either 'poor' or 'marginally good' infrastructure. They concluded that the better facility

(infrastructure wise) one gets, the better one earns and lives.

This paper extends our earlier work a little further. First we have tried to identify the linkages between available village facilities in a state with the growth of that state represented by its 'state domestic product' and discuss the role of growth in infrastructural development. Secondly, we have extended our study on 20 bigger states to identify this relationship in rural India. Here we have defined a bigger state as that state where the total number of surveyed second stage units (households) in rural area was 1000 or more. Although for states like Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura the total number of surveyed second stage stratum was more than 1000 we have excluded them in this state level comparative analysis keeping in view their size and composition compared to other bigger states. We have also tried to identify if there exists any regional differences in infrastructural development.

At first we have identified some core components of infrastructure which are generally available in Indian villages and develop a 'basic infrastructure index' to get an idea of the level of infrastructural development in each village. The villages are then categorized based on the index and employment profiles for each category of villages are presented for bigger states. Finally, expenditure pattern of households among different categories of villages are analysed to find whether there exists any inequality among households residing in different categories (facility wise) of villages in the 20 bigger states. The detailed methodology is described in Section 2 whereas Section 3 discusses the data used in our analysis. Analysis and findings of the study are presented in Section 4 and concluding remarks are made at Section 5.

2. Methodology

The objective of this study is to find out whether there exists any relationship between infrastructure, employment opportunities and level of living in the rural sector. In this analysis four 'core facilities' have been identified which the villagers must have to equip themselves with better functionality. These core facilities are (A) health facility, (B) education facility, (C) financial facility and (D) physical infrastructure facility. The composition of each of these core facilities is as follows:

(A) Medical facility includes

1. Health sub-centre/dispensary
2. Primary health centre
3. Community health centre
4. Government hospital
5. ICDS
6. Private clinic/doctor
7. Medicine shop

(B) Education facility includes

1. Schools having primary level classes
2. Schools having secondary level classes
3. Higher secondary school / junior college

(C) Financial facility includes

1. Fair price shop
2. Cooperative credit society
3. Commercial bank
4. Agricultural produce market / rural primary market
5. Fertilizer / pesticide shop

(D) Physical infrastructure facility includes

1. Metalled road
2. Electricity connection
3. Type of drainage arrangement

Based on these core facilities, first we have assessed the relative position of villages by developing 'village facility index' (VFI) for each village. We assigned a score for each sub-facility and then converted them to 'normalized score' to obtain their relative position. Based on this normalized scores, we have obtained an 'average score' for each core facility. Keeping in mind the different nature and importance of each core facility, we have assigned separate weight to them and compute the VFI of a village as a weighted mean of 'average scores' of core facilities with respect to that village.

Let us define,

s_{ijkt} = score of the jth sub facilities among ith core facility in kth village having tth condition
i = 1,2,…, I; j = 1,2,…,J, k = 1,2,…,K, t = 1,2,…,T_j

S_{ij} = set of all possible scores of jth sub-facility among ith core facility = $\{s_{ijt}; t = 1,2,..T_j\}$

The 'normalized score' of jth sub-facility among ith core facility in kth village is

$$\delta_{ijk} = \frac{s_{ijkt} - \min\limits_{t \in S_{ij}} \{s_{ijkt}\}}{\max\limits_{t \in S_i} \{s_{ijkt}\} - \min\limits_{j \in S_{ij}} \{s_{ijkt}\}}; \quad 0 \le \delta_{ijk} \le 1 \forall i = 1,2....I; j = i,2,..J$$

And the average score of ith core facility for kth village will be $d_{ik} = \dfrac{\sum_{j=1}^{J} \delta_{ijk}}{J}$

Defining, w_i = weight of 'ith' core facility with $\sum_{i=1}^{I} w_i = 1$; for kth village, we will get the VFI as $V_k = \sum_{i=1}^{I} w_i d_{ik}$

Naturally, higher values of index indicate better facilities at that village. Based on the values of VFI , we have classified each village into any of the four categories as follows:

Table 1: State of facilities in a village based on VFI

V_k	State of facilities
0.0 – 0.20	Poor
0.20 – 0.50	Marginally Good
0.50 – 0.80	Good
0.80 – 1.0	Very good

Depending upon the relative importance of core facilities, weights have been chosen. Table 2 shows the weights assigned to each core facility:

Table 2: Weights for each 'core facility'

w	value
weight for medical facility (w_1)	0.3
weight for education facility (w_2)	0.3
weight for financial facility (w_3)	0.2
weight for physical infrastructure facility (w_4)	0.2

These weights can also be derived from the data directly by using principal component analysis or cluster analysis. The subjective weights we have used may not be same as the data driven weights. We have used the subjective weights keeping in mind the relative importance of health and education in developing economies. The data driven weights will change as and when new data set will be used and therefore one particular set of weights cannot be used directly for comparison over different time periods.

To obtain the VFI we have used different scores for each of sub-facilities as described in Table 3. Here also we have used simple linear scoring and gave the maximum score to the best alternative. One can also use other type of data driven scores using techniques like the Likert's scale. However once one uses data driven score, one cannot use the same score over two different time points unless one assumes that the underlying trait distribution is stationary. Since this assumption is of more restrictive nature, use of data driven score is not considered here.

Table 3: Score structure of each facility

Core facility	Sub-facility	Description of codes	Scores
Medical facilities	Health sub-centre/ dispensary, Primary health centre, Community health centre, Government hospital, ICDS, Private clinic/doctor, Medicine shop	within village	3
Education facility	Schools having primary level classes, Schools having secondary level classes, Higher secondary school / junior college	outside village: less than 5 kms	2
Financial facility	Fair price shop, Cooperative credit society, Commercial bank, Agricultural produce market / rural primary market, Fertilizer / pesticide shop	5 kms or more	1

Table 3: Score structure of each facility

Core facility	Sub-facility	Description of codes	Scores
Physical infrastructure facility	Metalled road	within village	3
		outside village: less than 5 kms	2
		5 kms or more	1
	Electricity connection	yes: (percentage of households connected) : P ≥50%	4
		yes: (percentage of households connected) : 25% ≤ P < 50%	3
		yes: (percentage of households connected) : P < 25%	2
		no	1
	Type of drainage arrangement	underground	5
		covered pucca	4
		open pucca	3
		open katcha	2
		no drainage	1

3. The Data

The 66th round survey (conducted during July 2009 to June 2010) of NSSO was earmarked for survey on 'Household Consumer Expenditure' and 'Employment and Unemployment'. The area coverage of the survey was the whole of the Indian Union except (i) interior villages of Nagaland situated beyond five kms of the bus route and (ii) villages in Andaman and Nicobar Islands which remain inaccessible throughout the year. A stratified multi-stage design had been adopted in the 66th round survey. The first stage units (FSUs) were the 2001 census villages (Panchayat wards in case of Kerala) in the rural sector and Urban Frame Survey (UFS) blocks in the urban sector. In addition, two non-UFS towns of Leh and Kargil of Jammu & Kashmir were also treated as FSUs in the urban sector. The ultimate stage units (USUs) were households in both the sectors. In case of large FSUs, one intermediate stage of sampling was the selection of two hamlet-groups (hgs)/ sub-blocks (sbs) from each rural/ urban FSU.

Within every district of a State/UT, two basic strata were formed viz., i) rural stratum comprising all rural areas of the district and (ii) urban stratum comprising all urban areas of the district. Each rural stratum was divided into two sub-strata viz., sub-stratum 1: all villages with proportion of child workers (p) >2P (where P is the average proportion of child workers for the State/UT as per Census 2001) and sub-stratum 2: remaining villages. Within each sector of a State/UT, the sample size was allocated to different strata/sub-strata in proportion to population as per Census 2001. Allocations at stratum/sub-stratum level were adjusted to multiples of 4 with a minimum sample size of 4 and equal-sized samples were allocated to the four sub-rounds.

For the rural sector, from each stratum/sub-stratum, the required number of sample villages

was selected by probability proportional to size with replacement (PPSWR), size being the population of the village as per Census 2001. Having determined the area(s) to be considered for listing, the next step was to list all the households (including those found through local enquires to be temporarily locked). Households listed in the selected FSU/hamlet-group in rural areas were next stratified into three second stage strata (SSS) as per specific stratification rule (GoI, 2011). From each SSS the sample households for each of the schedules were selected by Simple Random Sampling Without Replacement. The survey period of one year was divided into four sub-rounds of three months' duration each starting from July – September 2009. In each of these four sub-rounds, equal number of sample villages/ blocks (FSUs) was allotted for survey with a view to ensure uniform spread of sample FSUs over the entire survey period.

During this round, three schedules of enquiry were canvassed by NSSO enumerators. These schedules were: (i) Schedule 0.0: list of households, (ii) Schedule 1.0: consumer expenditure and (iii) Schedule 10: employment and unemployment. In schedule 0.0 an attempt was made to collect information on the availability of some specific facilities like communication, educational institutions, health institutions, banks, credit societies, drainage, participation in NREGA work etc. in rural FSUs (villages). If a facility was available in general to the residents of a village, it was considered as a facility. The required information was obtained by contacting the village officials and/ or other knowledgeable person(s) and in case of their unawareness, the relevant information was collected from the nearest Block Development Officer or other related government agencies.

In our analysis, from the surveyed data we have identified the four core facilities and related sub-facilities. Only those villages were considered where information was available for all the facilities. For a particular village, if there was any item specific non-response in any of the facilities, the information on that village was altogether dropped. Hence, of the total 7320 surveyed villages, our analysis has used data for 7301 sample villages. Using proper multiplier, we derived all the estimates. Also we have considered only those bigger states where the number of second stage units (households) in a rural area was 1000 or more. Further, we have categorized these 20 bigger states on basis of their geographical regions as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Categorization of States on basis of geographical regions

Sl. No.	Name of the zone	Name of the States
1	North	Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Uttaranchal, Jammu and Kashmir
2	Central	Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh
3	West	Gujarat, Rajasthan, Maharashtra
4	East and North East	Assam, Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Odisha
5	South	Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh

1. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

We computed the VFI for every village to assess the 'state of facilities' there. Table 5 shows the percentage distribution of villages in 20 bigger states of India categorized by existing 'state of

facilities'. Importantly, at the all India level with 8.7 percent of villages are facility wise 'poor' and a staggering 64 percent of villages have only 'marginally good' facilities implying close to three-fourths of villages in India do not have even 'good' facilities. It could be noted that villages with poor facilities are mostly concentrated in the East and North-East zones; even considering villages with marginally good facilities, the relative position of states does not alter.

Table 5: Percentage distribution of villages based on 'state of facilities' during 2009-10

State/UT	Poor	Marginally Good	Good	Very Good
North Zone				
Punjab	0.0	26.6	68.4	4.9
Haryana	0.0	33.3	62.8	4.0
Himachal Pradesh	4.2	69.0	26.7	0.1
Uttaranchal	12.6	70.1	16.9	0.3
Jammu & Kashmir	4.5	61.3	34.2	0.1
Central Zone				
Madhya Pradesh	6.1	89.2	4.4	0.3
Chhattisgarh	14.3	55.5	28.2	2.1
Uttar Pradesh	3.1	57.0	38.5	1.4
West Zone				
Gujarat	2.1	65.3	30.3	2.3
Rajasthan	6.5	65.9	25.3	2.3
Maharashtra	10.5	47.8	38.3	3.5
East and North-East Zone				
Assam	21.2	62.9	15.7	0.2
Bihar	18.8	58.9	21.7	0.6
Jharkhand	24.1	59.4	16.1	0.3
Odisha	16.7	65.1	17.5	0.8
West Bengal	5.5	61.6	31.8	1.1
South Zone				
Andhra Pradesh	10.5	57.7	28.0	3.8
Karnataka	0.6	62.6	33.7	3.2
Kerala	0.3	23.5	73.7	2.6
Tamil Nadu	0.9	46.4	49.4	3.4
all-India	**8.7**	**64.0**	**25.8**	**1.5**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

In a market driven economy, it is often claimed that a higher growth inevitably translates into improved infrastructure, especially in rural sector of developing economies. But many leading scholars argue against this hypothesis. For example, Dreze and Sen (1995) and Das (2010) argue

that having mere growth is not enough to attract the investment in rural sector; the corresponding state has a specific and important role to play for its infrastructural development. In Indian context, Das (2006) argued that the role of infrastructure in regional development is important, but this natural importance is generally undermined by existing polito-bureaucratic system at the grass root level. Therefore, the growth does not essentially confirm the flow of capital in rural infrastructure, the same will happen only when the local governments have the political will to do so. The proponents of market driven economy however argue that growth is the only vehicle which can improve rural infrastructure as states with higher growth trajectory can attract more investment for infrastructural development. At the same time they argue that the role of the state must be that of a facilitator to create an investment friendly environment for private players (Assocham-Deloitte, 2013). Dreze and Sen (1989) provided examples of different country practices where some countries are giving more importance to GDP over investment on human capital ignoring basic human rights like education, safe drinking water, social peace etc. Although all of them are on a higher growth trajectory, generally they ignore the investment on basic infrastructure at the grass root level. Here also concerned state politics plays an important role and contrary to the long cherished belief of proponents of market driven economy, private players are not generally inclined toward investment in rural infrastructural sector. To test the basic tenet of market driven economy on role of growth in infrastructural development, we rank the 20 bigger states with respect to their state domestic products and VFI during 2009-10 in such a way that the best state gets rank 1; Table 6 shows the relative position of the selected states.

Table 6: Per capita SDP and VFI in bigger States during 2009-10

State/UT	Per capita SDP in Rs. (2004-05 prices)	Rank based on per capita SDP	VFI	Rank based on VFI
North Zone				
Punjab	42752	8	0.58	1
Haryana	55229	1	0.56	3
Himachal Pradesh	43305	7	0.41	13
Uttaranchal	44636	6	0.37	15
Jammu & Kashmir	26518	12	0.43	10
Central Zone				
Madhya Pradesh	21029	17	0.35	18
Chhattisgarh	24690	13	0.41	14
Uttar Pradesh	16390	19	0.46	5
West Zone				
Gujarat	48511	3	0.44	7
Rajasthan	24166	15	0.42	12
Maharashtra	54166	2	0.45	6
East and North-East Zone				
Assam	20193	18	0.34	19
Bihar	10773	20	0.37	16
Jharkhand	21534	16	0.31	20
Odisha	24275	14	0.37	17
West Bengal	29798	11	0.44	8
South Zone				
Andhra Pradesh	37061	10	0.43	11
Karnataka	37297	9	0.44	9
Kerala	45908	5	0.57	2
Tamil Nadu	46886	4	0.52	4
all-India	**33843***	**--**	**0.41**	**--**

Note: *: Net National Income
Source: Central Statistics Office and authors' calculation based on NSS data

From Table 6, we computed the Spearman's and Kendal-Tau's rank correlation coefficient to see whether there exists any relationship between per capita state domestic product and status of village facilities. Although the comparison would be more appropriate if one would consider the 'district domestic product' instead of 'state domestic product'; but, unfortunately, no data on 'district domestic product' are available. The above computed values of Spearman's and Kendal-

Tau's rank correlation are 0.644 and 0.474, respectively. The result shows that there exists a positive correlation between per capita state domestic product and status of village facilities. However, it is a two way relationship whereby better infrastructure facilitates growth and growth, in turn, leads to better infrastructure investment. Also Kendal-Tau's rank correlation suggests that there might be other factors which influence both.

In order to obtain an idea about the generally observed phenomenon of economically and socially disadvantaged people typically stay in less developed areas, we analysed the distribution of households of these villages by their social status and religion. Two sets of tables were prepared in each case. In the first set, we identify the households by the VFI of their respective villages and then cross-tabulate the households according to their religion and social class. Table 7 and Table 8 show the 'percentage distribution of households among different religious groups categorized by facilities in the villages' and 'percentage distribution of households among different social groups categorized by facilities in the villages' in India.

While Table 7 indicates that there hardly exists any difference among religious groups and poor facilities in the villages on basis of the facilities, Table 8 suggests the situation to be alarming. While only 13 percent of schedule tribal households are staying in a village which can be considered facility wise 'good' or 'very good', the figure is 57 percent for households belonging to the 'general' category. It seems that there exists a clustering within the social groups and the backward classes stay in less developed villages. To get an idea about the relationship between religious groups and social groups vis-à-vis the village facility in bigger states; we present the status of zone-wise best and worst states, based on the VFI (Tables 7a, 7b, 8a, and 8b).

Like Table 7, Tables 7a and 7b show that there does not exist any particular type of relationship between villages with poor facilities and religion of its inhabitants and the relative status of bigger states have no effect on this. But Tables 8a and 8b show a clear clustering among households belonging to Scheduled Tribes (STs) or Scheduled Castes (SCs) who inhabit in poorly facilitated villages irrespective of the relative status of states. This situation is more pronounced in Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Jharkhand and Andhra Pradesh. For example, while in Andhra Pradesh, out of 100 persons residing in poorly facilitated villages, 77 are either STs or SCs the figure is 73 percent in case of Jharkhand.

Table 7: Percentage distribution of households among different religious groups by status of facilities in villages of India during 2009-10

State of facilities	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Other religion*	Total
Poor	82	13	3	2	100
Marginally good	85	11	1	1	100
Good	82	11	2	4	100
Very good	81	13	2	3	100
All	**84**	**12**	**2**	**3**	**100**

*: Includes Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and other religions

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 7a: Percentage distribution of households among different religious groups by status of facilities in villages of 'best states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Other religion*	Total
North Zone					**Punjab**
Poor	0	0	0	0	--
Marginally good	26	0	2	71	100
Good	24	2	2	72	100
Very good	34	1	0	65	100
All	**26**	**1**	**2**	**71**	**100**
Central Zone					**Uttar Pradesh**
Poor	96	4	0	0	100
Marginally good	85	15	0	0	100
Good	85	14	0	0	100
Very good	83	17	0	0	100
All	**85**	**14**	**0**	**0**	**100**
West Zone					**Maharashtra**
Poor	100	0	0	0	100
Marginally good	93	2	0	4	100
Good	88	5	0	7	100
Very good	83	7	2	8	100
All	**89**	**5**	**0**	**6**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**West Bengal**
Poor	50	48	1	0	100
Marginally good	67	32	0	1	100
Good	69	30	1	0	100
Very good	69	31	0	0	100
All	**67**	**32**	**1**	**0**	**100**
South Zone					**Kerala**
Poor	97	3	0	0	100
Marginally good	61	20	19	0	100
Good	56	24	20	0	100
Very good	49	41	10	0	100
All	**57**	**23**	**19**	**0**	**100**

*: Includes Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and other religions

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 7b: Percentage distribution of households among different religious groups by status of facilities in villages of 'worst states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Other religion*	Total
North Zone					**Uttaranchal**
Poor	100	0	0	0	100
Marginally good	94	2	0	5	100
Good	83	14	0	2	100
Very good	80	20	0	0	100
All	**89**	**8**	**0**	**3**	**100**
Central Zone					**Madhya Pradesh**
Poor	100	0	0	0	100
Marginally good	97	3	0	0	100
Good	94	5	0	0	100
Very good	89	11	0	1	100
All	**96**	**4**	**0**	**0**	**100**
West Zone					**Rajasthan**
Poor	92	6	0	1	100
Marginally good	91	5	0	3	100
Good	94	4	0	2	100
Very good	89	10	0	1	100
All	**92**	**5**	**0**	**2**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**Jharkhand**
Poor	81	5	3	11	100
Marginally good	80	7	3	10	100
Good	74	13	3	10	100
Very good	73	27	0	0	100
All	**78**	**9**	**3**	**10**	**100**
South Zone					**Andhra Pradesh**
Poor	100	0	0	0	100
Marginally good	94	4	1	0	100
Good	91	6	3	0	100
Very good	81	15	4	0	100
All	**91**	**7**	**3**	**0**	**100**

*: Includes Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and other religions

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 8: Percentage distribution of households among different social groups by state of facilities in villages of India during 2009-10

State of facilities	Schedule Tribes	Schedule Castes	Other backward classes	General	Total
Poor	35	16	30	18	100
Marginally good	14	22	43	22	100
Good	7	22	44	27	100
Very good	6	21	42	30	100
All	**11**	**22**	**43**	**25**	**100**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 8a: Percentage distribution of households among different social groups by state of facilities in villages of 'best states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	Other Backward Classes	General	Total
North Zone					**Punjab**
Poor	0	0	0	0	--
Marginally good	0	46	15	38	100
Good	1	42	14	43	100
Very good	0	50	13	38	100
All	**0**	**44**	**14**	**42**	**100**
Central Zone					**Uttar Pradesh**
Poor	1	11	74	14	100
Marginally good	0	27	53	20	100
Good	1	26	52	21	100
Very good	0	26	54	20	100
All	**0**	**26**	**53**	**20**	**100**
West Zone					**Maharashtra**
Poor	42	0	57	2	100
Marginally good	21	14	33	32	100
Good	9	16	39	36	100
Very good	6	19	42	33	100
All	**13**	**16**	**38**	**34**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**West Bengal**
Poor	4	28	13	54	100
Marginally good	8	34	7	50	100
Good	6	26	6	62	100
Very good	4	27	5	64	100
All	**7**	**30**	**7**	**57**	**100**
South Zone					**Kerala**
Poor	0	0	64	36	100
Marginally good	4	15	55	25	100
Good	2	11	58	29	100
Very good	0	1	85	14	100
All	**2**	**12**	**58**	**28**	**100**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 8b: Percentage distribution of households among different social groups by state of facilities in villages of 'worst states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	Other Backward Classes	General	Total
North Zone					**Uttaranchal**
Poor	0	33	3	64	100
Marginally good	4	24	5	67	100
Good	9	17	25	49	100
Very good	8	17	5	70	100
All	**6**	**21**	**14**	**59**	**100**
Central Zone					**Madhya Pradesh**
Poor	53	15	23	9	100
Marginally good	28	20	39	13	100
Good	17	27	42	14	100
Very good	13	20	46	22	100
All	**27**	**21**	**38**	**13**	**100**
West Zone					**Rajasthan**
Poor	38	5	49	8	100
Marginally good	20	21	49	10	100
Good	14	21	51	14	100
Very good	8	22	38	32	100
All	**17**	**21**	**48**	**14**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**Jharkhand**
Poor	62	11	21	6	100
Marginally good	32	19	43	6	100
Good	25	20	39	17	100
Very good	12	8	67	13	100
All	**33**	**18**	**39**	**10**	**100**
South Zone					**Andhra Pradesh**
Poor	47	30	6	17	100
Marginally good	10	22	52	16	100
Good	6	21	51	22	100
Very good	1	24	41	34	100
All	**7**	**22**	**49**	**22**	**100**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

To get a better idea of this clustering, in the second set, we have identified the households by religion and social groups and then cross-tabulate them on the basis of the VFIs of their respective villages. Table 9 shows that both Hindu and Muslim households behave similarly at the all India level. Out of 100 Hindu/Muslim households, 4 were staying in those villages which were poorly facilitated. The data reveal that 7 percent of Christian households were staying in villages having 'poor facilities'. Therefore, from Tables 7 and 9 it can be concluded that there did not exist any clustering among households having a particular religion to stay in a particular type of village. Table 10 shows quite a different picture. As in Table 8, Table 10 clearly indicates a clustering among deprived social groups to stay in facility-wise more disadvantaged conditions. While only 3 percent of SC/OBC/general households were staying in a 'poor facility' village during 2009-10, the same is true for 13 percent of ST households, which is more than 3 times that of the SC/OBC/general households. Further, it shows that 67 percent of ST households were staying in villages with either 'poor' facility or 'marginally good' facility whereas the same was 46 percent for SC and OBC and 41 percent for general category households. Only a miniscule of 5 percent of ST households was staying in villages with 'very good 'facility in comparison to 10 percent 'general' households.

Table 9: Percentage distribution of households having particular facility status by different religious groups in rural India during 2009-10

State of facilities	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Other religion*	Total
Poor	4	4	7	3	4
Marginally good	44	43	32	25	43
Good	43	43	53	61	44
Very good	8	9	8	11	8
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

*: Includes Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and other religions

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

To get an idea about the relationship between religious groups and social groups vis-à-vis the village facility in bigger states, we represent the status of zone-wise best and worst states, based on the VFI in the sequel of Tables 9a, 9b, 10a and 10b. Tables 9a and 9b show that there did not exist any different pattern of households with different religious beliefs and the type of villages where they were staying during 2009-10; this was true in the bigger states irrespective of zone and their village facility-wise relative opulence. But the scenario in respect of social groups was not so straight forward.

Table 9a: Percentage distribution of households having particular facility status by different religious groups in villages of 'best states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Other religion*	Total
North Zone					**Punjab**
Poor	0	0	0	0	0
Marginally good	17	4	16	16	16
Good	66	87	82	72	71
Very good	17	8	2	12	13
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Central Zone					**Uttar Pradesh**
Poor	2	1	0	0	2
Marginally good	44	45	80	31	44
Good	49	49	20	69	49
Very good	5	6	0	0	5
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
West Zone					**Maharashtra**
Poor	1	0	0	0	1
Marginally good	32	16	1	21	31
Good	50	55	40	56	50
Very good	16	27	59	23	17
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**West Bengal**
Poor	2	5	9	1	3
Marginally good	47	48	31	93	47
Good	45	42	60	5	44
Very good	4	4	0	0	4
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
South Zone					**Kerala**
Poor	1	0	0	0	0
Marginally good	24	20	22	100	23
Good	73	76	76	0	74
Very good	2	4	1	0	3
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

*: Includes Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and other religions

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 9b: Percentage distribution of households having particular facility status by different religious groups in villages of 'worst states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Other religion*	Total
North Zone					**Uttaranchal**
Poor	6	0	0	0	5
Marginally good	48	10	0	68	45
Good	43	81	100	32	46
Very good	3	9	0	0	4
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Central Zone					**Madhya Pradesh**
Poor	7	0	1	0	7
Marginally good	59	45	32	76	59
Good	23	34	67	13	24
Very good	5	15	0	11	5
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
West Zone					**Rajasthan**
Poor	4	5	0	2	4
Marginally good	45	45	100	60	46
Good	38	27	0	31	37
Very good	12	23	0	6	13
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**Jharkhand**
Poor	14	7	15	15	13
Marginally good	52	42	48	50	51
Good	31	46	37	34	33
Very good	2	5	0	0	2
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
South Zone					**Andhra Pradesh**
Poor	2	0	0	0	2
Marginally good	37	22	18	56	35
Good	44	37	53	0	44
Very good	17	42	28	44	19
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

*: Includes Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and other religions

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Like Table 10, Tables 10a and 10b show a clustering among deprived social groups to stay in facility-wise more disadvantaged conditions irrespective of zone and their village facility-wise relative opulence. For example, in Maharashtra, 55 percent of ST households were staying in villages where the facility was either 'poor' or 'marginally good' whereas the same was only 29 percent for 'general' households. In Jharkhand, only 1 percent of ST households were staying in villages with 'very good' facility in comparison to 74 percent who were staying in villages with either 'poor' or 'marginally poor' facility.

Table 10: Percentage distribution of households having particular facility status by different social groups in rural India during 2009-10

State of facilities	Schedule Tribes	Schedule Castes	Other backward classes	General	Total
Poor	13	3	3	3	4
Marginally good	54	43	43	38	43
Good	27	45	45	49	44
Very good	5	8	8	10	8
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 10a: Percentage distribution of households having particular facility status by different social groups in villages of 'best states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	Other Backward Classes	General	Total
North Zone					**Punjab**
Poor	0	0	0	0	0
Marginally good	0	17	18	15	16
Good	100	68	71	73	71
Very good	0	15	11	12	13
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Central Zone					**Uttar Pradesh**
Poor	4	1	2	1	2
Marginally good	23	45	44	43	44
Good	71	49	49	51	49
Very good	2	5	5	5	5
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
West Zone					**Maharashtra**
Poor	3	0	1	0	1
Marginally good	52	27	27	29	31
Good	37	51	53	53	50
Very good	8	22	19	17	17
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**West Bengal**
Poor	2	3	7	3	3
Marginally good	59	54	51	42	47
Good	36	38	39	48	44
Very good	3	4	3	5	4
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
South Zone					**Kerala**
Poor	0	0	0	0	0
Marginally good	45	29	22	20	23
Good	55	71	74	78	74
Very good	0	0	4	1	3
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 10b: Percentage distribution of households having particular facility status by different social groups in villages of 'worst states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	Other Backward Classes	General	Total
North Zone					**Uttaranchal**
Poor	0	8	1	6	5
Marginally good	29	51	17	52	45
Good	66	38	81	38	46
Very good	5	3	1	4	4
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Central Zone					**Madhya Pradesh**
Poor	14	5	4	5	7
Marginally good	60	55	60	58	59
Good	15	30	26	26	24
Very good	2	5	6	9	5
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
West Zone					**Rajasthan**
Poor	9	1	4	2	4
Marginally good	54	46	46	32	46
Good	31	38	39	36	37
Very good	6	13	10	29	13
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
East and North-East Zone					**Jharkhand**
Poor	25	8	7	8	13
Marginally good	49	54	56	33	51
Good	25	36	33	55	33
Very good	1	1	3	2	2
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
South Zone					**Andhra Pradesh**
Poor	11	2	0	1	2
Marginally good	49	35	38	25	35
Good	35	42	46	45	44
Very good	4	20	16	29	19
All	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

These two sets of tables (Tables 9, 9a, 9b, 10, 10a, 10b) are indicating that there does exist a clustering among social groups and backward classes and they are more prone to stay in facility-wise backward regions. The findings seem to defy the agenda of the so called 'inclusive growth' as the benefit of growth has not been distributed judiciously across the social groups. Poor level of infrastructure in villages has denied access to a decent living by its inhabitants. Moreover, the infrastructure constraint adversely impacts the chances of the villagers to compete in the job market as they remain ill-equipped in terms of access to skill, education and health benefits. The social exclusion of ST households in rural India, which impel them to stay clustered in disadvantaged conditions, is a disturbing finding of this analysis.

In order to assess if there was any relationship between infrastructure availability (measured by the VFI) in a village with the employment position among inhabitants of that village during 2009-10, we categorize the villages on basis of state of facilities and computed labour force participation rate (LFPR) and work force participation rate (WPR) based on current weekly status. The LFPR is defined as the ratio between the number of persons in the labour force and population; while WPR is defined as the ratio between number of workers and the population.

Interestingly, as shown in Table 11, LFPR, being an indicator of employment opportunities, was very high for the villagers having 'very good' facilities but it is comparably low for the villagers having 'poor' facilities. The difference was in tune of 3.5 percent, which is alarming keeping in view the size of the total rural population of the country. Had there been proper infrastructural development, there might have been be a higher participation in the labour force. Thus, one can infer that during 2009-10, at least 3.5 percent of rural population had missed employment opportunities because of low levels of infrastructural development in their villages. The observation holds even as we consider the WPR. Here also at least 3 percent of the rural population missed job opportunities due to poor infrastructure in their villages.

Table 11: Employment opportunities and Standard of living among inhabitants of villages in India during 2009-10

State of facilities	LFPR	WPR	Avg. MPCE (URP)
Poor	37.51	36.80	683.39
Marginally good	39.35	38.17	839.30
Good	39.53	38.08	1008.53
Very good	41.02	39.56	1084.91
All	**39.39**	**38.08**	**927.70**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

To ascertain the relationship between infrastructural development and the level of living of the villagers in India, we computed the average monthly per capita expenditure (MPCE) of the households belonging to each category of villages using uniform reference period. Table 11 indicates that while a typical household living in a village with 'poor' facilities could make an expenditure to the tune of Rs 683 per month, the same was Rs 1085 for a typical household having 'very good' facilities in its village during 2009-10. This shows a sign of inequality as it can be surmised that a household in a village having 'very good' facilities could actually spend 1.5 times more than a household staying in a village with 'poor' facilities.

To get an idea about the employment opportunities and level of living among villages in the bigger states of India, in Tables 11a and 11b, we have considered the employment opportunities and standard livelihood in the villages of zone-wise 'best' and 'worst' states, respectively. Tables 11a and 11b give an interesting picture if one considers LFPR and WPR. It may be observed that among the selected states with 'best' and 'worst' village facilities, in all states except Rajasthan, people living in villages with poor facilities were participating almost equally or more in the labour force as compared to persons staying in villages with 'very good' facilities. The situation was same if one considers WPR also.

However, considering MPCE, in almost all states except Maharashtra and Rajasthan, it may be observed that a household living in a village having 'very good' facilities could actually spend much more than a household staying in a village with 'poor' facilities. In case of Rajasthan and Maharashtra, this ratio was almost 1, whereas in all other states it was more than 1, suggesting the wider financial capacity of households living in villages with 'very good' facility. Table 11 shows that a household living in villages with 'good' facilities in Kerala could actually spend 2.7 times more than a household living in villages with 'poor' facilities. In case of Andhra Pradesh, this ratio was 2.14 suggesting the existence of inequality. It has also been observed that the financial capacity of households was increasing as one moved in the upward direction of village facilities except in Maharashtra, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh where some variations existed.

Table 11a: Employment opportunities and Standard of livelihood among inhabitants of villages in 'best states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	LFPR	WPR	Avg. MPCE (URP)
North Zone			**Punjab**
Poor	0.00	0.00	0.00
Marginally good	40.77	39.64	1383.40
Good	39.40	37.67	1507.95
Very good	41.06	40.49	1430.28
All	**39.83**	**38.36**	**1479.80**
Central Zone			**Uttar Pradesh**
Poor	30.57	30.54	751.97
Marginally good	31.35	30.50	812.51
Good	31.35	30.25	832.78
Very good	31.68	30.69	968.86
All	**31.34**	**30.37**	**828.67**
West Zone			**Maharashtra**
Poor	51.33	51.05	1092.86
Marginally good	48.74	47.19	952.24
Good	46.05	45.16	1020.69
Very good	46.06	44.48	1073.31
All	**46.88**	**45.67**	**1010.93**
East and North-Eastern Zone			**West Bengal**
Poor	41.45	41.17	695.55
Marginally good	38.21	37.20	819.95
Good	40.85	39.15	904.43
Very good	36.20	35.52	868.28
All	**39.32**	**38.05**	**855.10**
South Zone			**Kerala**
Poor	47.45	47.00	744.52
Marginally good	39.96	37.07	1481.55
Good	39.41	35.27	1969.22
Very good	33.68	33.42	1987.06
All	**39.41**	**35.66**	**1850.68**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

Table 11b: Employment opportunities and Standard of livelihood among inhabitants of villages in 'worst states' during 2009-10

State of facilities	LFPR	WPR	Avg. MPCE (URP)
North Zone			**Uttaranchal**
Poor	48.55	48.11	1005.31
Marginally good	45.91	44.30	1024.40
Good	35.11	33.98	1734.41
Very good	45.31	45.27	1379.96
All	**41.09**	**39.82**	**1360.30**
Central Zone			**Madhya Pradesh**
Poor	44.77	43.91	638.75
Marginally good	43.17	42.09	814.13
Good	37.71	37.13	810.58
Very good	39.57	38.81	921.15
All	**41.72**	**40.67**	**796.59**
West Zone			**Rajasthan**
Poor	32.95	32.87	1011.77
Marginally good	39.60	38.49	971.19
Good	40.60	40.22	1031.47
Very good	36.55	36.10	1057.45
All	**39.39**	**38.64**	**1004.48**
East and North-Eastern Zone			**Jharkhand**
Poor	37.71	37.15	568.01
Marginally good	32.77	31.05	694.72
Good	33.39	31.88	835.71
Very good	34.37	32.19	909.79
All	**33.50**	**32.01**	**732.33**
South Zone			**Andhra Pradesh**
Poor	52.65	52.63	619.99
Marginally good	52.66	51.86	864.33
Good	50.70	48.37	1039.81
Very good	45.94	43.24	1330.59
All	**50.52**	**48.70**	**1020.14**

Source: Authors' calculation based on NSS data

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The analysis indicates the existence of relationship between growth of a state, infrastructure of its villages and level of living of its inhabitants. It also indicates that the relationship is not one dimensional. The growth is essential for infrastructural development and at the same time a better infrastructure is an impetus for sustainable investment. The analysis also shows that the inhabitants of a village with 'good' or 'very good' infrastructure have a better chance to live a more decent life than their counterparts who live in villages with either 'poor' or 'marginally good' infrastructure. The better facility (infrastructure wise) one gets, the better one earns and lives. The gap between poorly facilitated villagers and those having very good facilities is considerable in some cases. Although the ST and SC households are more deprived than others, there is no such disparity among religious groups. But the deprivation among socially disadvantaged people is alarming that hints at a form of social exclusion. The results show that there exists economic inequality among households living in villages with different facilities. A household living in a village having 'very good' facilities could actually spend 1.5 times more than a household staying in a village with 'poor' facilities during 2009-10. At all India level the LFPR is found to be very high for the villagers having 'very good' facilities in comparison to villagers having 'poor' facilities and it may indicate the existence of a relationship between infrastructure and job opportunities. But this trend is completely reversed in the bigger states except in Rajasthan. Thus, based on this analysis, no concrete conclusion has emerged. Perhaps a more detailed level analysis is called for to depict the relationship between infrastructure and employment opportunities at the state level. In fact, this methodology can be replicated using data from different NSS rounds to assess the impact of liberalization and trickle-down effect of growth in rural India.

One of the limitations of this study is that it considers all the facilities and the term 'facility' are used to mean a group of facilities. Thus this study is not able to compare the performance of each state for each of the separate facilities. However following the suggested methodology, one can easily compare the relative performance of each facility across different states.

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On the Nature of Expenditure on Durable Goods

- Gopa Chattapadhyay[1] & Prabir Chaudhury[2]

Abstract

Durable goods are typically more expensive than other reusable goods, and value of durable goods acquired during a period has its uses as an indicator of the economic well-being of a population. A problem with the NSS estimates of expenditure on durable goods – or of any sub-category of such goods – is that they include expenditure on repairs and maintenance of the goods in question. While repairs and maintenance are no doubt a necessary component of expenditure for a wide range of goods, a preponderance of such expenses in household expenditure on durables, especially among poorer households, would indicate that the estimate of durables expenditure is not as good a yardstick to judge affluence as it would otherwise be. This paper shows, using NSS 66th round consumer expenditure data, that the share of repairs and maintenance (and materials for construction) in estimated durables expenditure is quite sizeable and increases as household monthly per capita consumer expenditure (MPCE) level falls. The paper also examines the break-up of estimated expenditure on durables for different economic strata of the population, providing insights into the nature of durables expenditure of households at different levels of living.

Key words: Durable Goods; NSS; Consumer Expenditure; Consumption
JEL codes: E21: Consumption; Saving; Wealth, D12: Consumer Economics: Empirical Analysis

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1. The problem

By their very definition, the "durable goods" of the NSS consumer expenditure schedule are outside the category of what may be called the basic necessities. The durable goods are, moreover, typically more expensive than other reusable goods. Use of durable goods and, hence, share of expenditure on durable goods in total consumer expenditure by any population may therefore be (and usually are) thought of as providing some indication of its material progress.

Usually, NSS reports provide all-India and State-level estimates of per capita rural and urban expenditure on durable goods as a whole, with no item break-up except for the quinquennial rounds.

A problem with the estimates of expenditure on durable goods is that they include expenditure on repair and maintenance[3] of these goods. Separate estimates of this component of expenditure are not generated by NSS, except for "residential land and building (cost of repairs only)", which is traditionally a separate item, and unlike other items of durables expenditure, has no purchase component. Separating out the repair and maintenance (R&M) component would, arguably, sharpen the estimate of durable goods expenditure as an indicator of material progress.

In this paper, we investigate, using 66th round consumer expenditure data (Sch.1.0, Mixed Reference Period), how much of expenditure on durable goods as estimated by NSS is, in fact, expenditure on repair and maintenance (R&M) of durable goods. The findings are that this is quite substantial and, perhaps, not in tune with what one might commonly expect. We work out the R&M component separately for different categories of durable goods, along with per capita expenditure on each category. We see that expenditure on R&M is not spread diffusely over the entire spectrum of durable goods but is largely concentrated among a handful of items. We show, further, that the share of R&M in durables expenditure as a whole rises steadily as household Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (MPCE) falls, accounting for two-thirds or more of durables expenditure for the lowest three decile classes of the rural population of India, and 50-60% for the lowest five decile classes of the urban population, ranked by MPCE.

2. Data

The durable goods block of Sch.1.0 in the 66th round Type 1 schedule had 51 elementary items and 9 sub-total items. For each elementary item, expenditure on first-hand purchase, second-hand purchase, and R&M during the last 365 days (besides the last 30 days) were recorded in separate columns. Apart from this, household MPCE (MRP)[4] and household size were recorded in the household characteristics block. The findings presented here are based on these data.

Data on durables expenditure from NSS reports

From Table 1 we can see that (i) expenditure on durable goods forms a little under 4% of consumer expenditure in rural India and a little over 4% in urban India, and (ii) the percentage of

[3] And raw materials used for construction of durable goods by households for their own use. Since such construction is relatively rare, however, we refer in this paper to "repair and maintenance" rather than "repair, maintenance and construction".

[4] Mixed Reference Period (using 30 days data only for items for which 365 days data were not collected).

households incurring any expenditure on durables in a 1-year period is usually around 80%, shows a slight increasing trend, and is a little higher in the rural sector than in the urban. The last fact may seem a little surprising, but will become clearer as we proceed.

Table 1: Profile of expenditure on durable goods, all-India, 61st to 66th rounds of NSS

round	monthly per capita expenditure on durable goods (Rs.)		% share of expenditure on durable goods in MPCE		% of households reporting expenditure on durable goods in last 365 days	
	R	U	R	U	R	U
61	21.74	47.17	3.8	4.3	79.3	76.6
62	21.95	46.83	3.5	4.0	81.7	78.6
63	26.18	59.21	3.8	4.5	84.4	81.8
64	27.73	62.23	3.6	4.2	85.4	82.5
66	36.47	81.36	3.5	4.1	82.9	78.4

Source: NSS Report Nos. 505, 508, 523, 527, 530, 538, 541.
Reference period of 365 days used for estimates of durables expenditure for the 61st round.
Sch. Type 2 estimates shown for the 66th round.

Break-up of expenditure on durable goods by broad category was published in NSS Report No.541 for Sch. Type 2. For Sch. Type 1 (MRP), the all-India percentage break-up is shown below.

Table 2: Percentage break-up of expenditure on durable goods, all-India, 2009-10

category of durable goods	% of total exp. on durable goods	
	R	U
1. residential building, land & other durables	31.07	14.85
2. personal transport equipment	27.35	41.34
3. jewellery & ornaments	19.87	16.05
4. crockery & utensils	5.32	2.92
5. other personal goods	6.03	8.13
6. goods for recreation	2.85	3.91
7. furniture & fixtures	3.97	5.32
8. cooking & other hh appliances	3.49	7.37
9. therapeutic equipment	0.10	0.12
10. all durable goods	100.00	100.00

Size of the Repair and Maintenance (R&M) component

Table 3 below shows all-India per capita expenditure on the 9 broad categories of durable goods and the share of R&M for each.

Table 3: Expenditure on durable goods by category of durables, and share of R&M, all-India, 2009-10 (NSS 66th round#)

category of durable goods	monthly per capita exp. (Rs.)		share of R&M (%)	
	R	U	R	U
1. residential building, land & other durables*	12.21	13.75	98.8	96.9
2. personal transport equipment	10.75	38.29	38.3	28.7
3. jewellery & ornaments	7.81	14.86	3.5	1.4
4. crockery & utensils	2.09	2.70	1.3	1.0
5. other personal goods	2.37	7.53	5.8	7.0
6. goods for recreation	1.12	3.62	14.3	8.3
7. furniture & fixtures	1.56	4.93	15.7	13.3
8. cooking & other hh appliances	1.37	6.83	25.4	21.6
9. therapeutic equipment	0.04	0.11	3.6	7.4
10. all durable goods	**39.30**	**92.61**	**44.2**	**29.7**

#365 days data used for durables in this and all following tables

*The "other durables" here are listed in the schedule as "bathroom and sanitary equipment (item 630)", "plugs, switches and other electrical fittings (item 631)", and "other durables (item 633)". Expenditure on these items does have a purchase component, unlike residential building and land, and because of this the share of R&M for this row is less than 100%.

The share of R&M is quite startlingly high: for durable goods as a whole, it is 44% in the rural sector and nearly 30% in the urban. This is no doubt to a great extent due to the large share of repair of land and building in total expenditure on durables: unlike other items, there is no purchase component of expenditure for this item. But the fact remains that the NSS estimate of expenditure on durable goods, as usually published, contains a very large R&M component which, if separated out, could give a different idea of the level and pattern of durables expenditure than what the published estimates give us.

Separating out the R&M component from the estimates

In Table 4, the percentage break-up of estimated all-India durables goods expenditure from 66th round data excluding the R&M component – in other words, expenditure on purchase of durable goods only – is shown alongside the percentage break-up for total durables goods expenditure including R&M.

- The share of "jewellery and ornaments" shows a pronounced increase due to the exclusion of R&M, especially in the rural sector, where the increase is of the order of 72% (from 19.9% to 34.3%), but also in the urban, where it increases by about 41% (from 16.0% to 22.5%).
- The shares of all other categories of durable goods increase at the expense of "residential building, land & other durables" due to exclusion of R&M.

Table 4: Percentage break-up of (a) total expenditure on durable goods, and (b) total expenditure on purchase of durable goods, by category of durables, all-India, 2009-10 (Sch. Type 1, Mixed Reference Period)

category of durable goods	Rural		Urban	
	% share in total exp. on durables	% share in exp. on durables *purchase*	% share in total exp. on durables	% share in exp. on durables *purchase*
1. residential building, land & other durables	31.1	0.7	14.8	0.7
2. personal transport equipment	27.4	30.2	41.3	41.9
3. jewellery & ornaments	19.9	34.3	16.0	22.5
4. crockery & utensils	5.3	9.4	2.9	4.1
5. other personal goods	6.0	10.2	8.1	10.8
6. goods for recreation	2.8	4.4	3.9	5.1
7. furniture & fixtures	4.0	6.0	5.3	6.6
8. cooking & other hh appliances	3.5	4.6	7.4	8.2
9. therapeutic equipment	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
10. all durable goods	100.00	100.0	100.00	100.0

Important segments of R&M expenditure

Table 3 showed that durable goods expenditure as a whole is largely concentrated in a few of the categories used for data collection in the schedule of enquiry, especially for the rural sector. Table 5 reveals that expenditure on R&M of durable goods is concentrated among a very small number of elementary items of Sch.1.0. Thus, of the 44.2% share of R&M in durables expenditure in rural India, 38.5 percentage points (that is, about 87%) are accounted by just three items: "residential land and building", "bicycle", and "motorcycle, scooter". In urban India, of the 29.7% share of R&M in durables expenditure, 25.1 percentage points (that is, about 84.5%) are accounted by the above three items and the item "motor car, jeep". Repair and maintenance of residential land and building forms 30% of total durables expenditure in the rural sector and 13.6% in the urban sector.

Table 5: Per capita expenditure on durables goods in 2009-10 (NSS 66th round, MRP) and its percentage break-up into purchase and R&M, and break-up of the R&M component over important elementary items of durables, all-India

sector	monthly per capita exp. on durable goods (Rs.)	% to total expenditure on durable goods							
		cost of repair & maintenance of						purchase of durable goods	all
		residential land and building (632)	bicycle (600)	motor-cycle, scooter (601)	motor car, jeep (602)	other durables	all durables		
R	39.30	30.0	3.6	4.9	1.5	4.2	44.2	55.8	100.0
U	92.61	13.6	1.3	6.0	4.2	4.6	29.7	70.3	100.0

Figures in parentheses indicate the item code used in Sch.1.0, 66th round, for the relevant item.

R&M expenditure across MPCE classes

An aspect not touched upon so far is the variation in the R&M component across expenditure classes of the population. If we tabulate the share of R&M in rural and urban India separately for the 10 MPCE decile classes used for tabulation in the 66th round, we get the following picture.

Table 6: Share of R&M across MPCE classes, all-India, 2009-10*

Rural			Urban		
Decile class of MPCE	MPCE range (Rs.)	% of R&M in durable goods expenditure	Decile class of MPCE	MPCE range (Rs.)	% of R&M in durable goods expenditure
1st	0-479	76.2	1st	0-682	62.6
2nd	479-569	67.9	2nd	682-846	60.5
3rd	569-645	66.2	3rd	1846-1004	56.2
4th	645-721	62.1	4th	1004-1179	53.8
5th	721-801	62.2	5th	1179-1382	50.8
6th	801-895	59.6	6th	1382-1638	46.3
7th	895-1013	58.1	7th	1638-1962	43.1
8th	1013-1186	57.6	8th	1962-2459	36.4
9th	1186-1525	51.2	9th	2459-3385	37.1
10th	1525 or more	30.7	10th	3385 or more	20.3
all		**44.2**	**all**		**29.7**

*Sch. Type 1, Mixed Reference Period

The share of R&M is seen to decline more or less steadily with rise in MPCE level. This indicates that **engel elasticity of durables** as a whole would work out to be higher if the R&M component were netted out.

The share of repairs drops sharply as one reaches the top decile class – from 51% to 31% in the rural sector and from 37% to 20% in the urban.

Table 7, which works out the estimates of Table 5 separately for each MPCE decile class of the rural and urban population, gives interesting insights into the composition of durables expenditure across MPCE levels.

- Only 24% of durables expenditure of the bottom decile class of the rural population ranked by household MPCE is on purchases of durables. The share of repairs and maintenance of residential land and building in total durables expenditure for this stratum is as high as 60%. The remaining R&M expenditure of this stratum consists largely of bicycle R&M.
- For the next two decile classes, about one-third of durables expenditure is on durables purchase and the rest is on repairs. The share of repairs and maintenance of residential land and building is about 49-50%.
- While the share of repairs as a whole falls with increase in MPCE, the share of bicycle and motorcycle repairs in total durables expenditure remains at 11.4%-12% for each of the

lowest six rural decile classes, with the share of bicycle repair gradually shrinking as that of motorcycle repair grows.

- In the urban sector the share of motorcycle repair exceeds that of bicycle repair from the third decile class onwards and is 9-14% for all except the bottom two decile classes and the top decile class, where it is lower.
- The share of motor car repair in urban expenditure on durables is about 5% for the top two decile classes.
- Except for the bottom decile class, the urban population spends more on purchases of durables than on repair of residential land and building. The upper 5 decile classes spend more on purchases than on repairs as a whole.

Table 7: Per capita expenditure on durables goods and its percentage break-up into purchase and R&M, and break-up of the R&M component over important elementary items of durables, separately for three divisions of the population by MPCE in each sector, all-India, 2009-10*

sector	decile class of MPCE	monthly per capita exp. on durable goods (Rs.)	% to total expenditure on durable goods							
			cost of repair & maintenance of						purchase of durable goods	all
			residential land and building (632)	bicycle (600)	motorcycle, scooter (601)	motor car, jeep (602)	other durables	all durables		
R	1st	8.34	60.1	11.0	0.4	0.0	4.7	76.1	23.9	100
	2nd	11.28	50.4	10.5	0.9	0.0	6.1	67.9	32.1	100
	3rd	12.51	48.7	10.0	1.7	0.1	5.7	66.2	33.8	100
	4th	14.72	43.3	9.0	2.9	0.5	6.4	62.1	37.9	100
	5th	17.38	44.8	8.5	3.4	0.3	5.2	62.2	37.8	100
	6th	21.71	42.2	6.9	5.2	0.1	5.1	59.6	40.4	100
	7th	24.69	37.6	6.4	8.1	0.5	5.6	58.1	41.9	100
	8th	30.73	37.5	5.2	8.8	0.8	5.4	57.6	42.4	100
	9th	44.51	31.9	3.9	9.3	1.2	4.8	51.2	48.8	100
	10th	207.14	20.6	0.9	3.8	2.3	3.1	30.7	69.3	100
U	1st	8.32	41.8	11.3	2.1	0.1	7.2	62.6	37.4	100
	2nd	11.93	35.5	9.8	6.6	1.0	7.6	60.5	39.5	100
	3rd	17.28	31.6	6.7	9.2	0.5	8.2	56.2	43.8	100
	4th	21.77	28.1	6.4	10.7	0.9	7.7	53.8	46.2	100
	5th	27.54	23.4	5.2	13.4	0.8	8.0	50.8	49.2	100
	6th	42.77	24.2	3.1	10.7	1.7	6.7	46.3	53.7	100
	7th	51.48	19.3	2.3	13.1	1.8	6.6	43.0	57.0	100
	8th	73.93	16.3	1.5	10.7	2.5	5.3	36.4	63.6	100
	9th	130.46	17.3	0.9	9.0	4.8	5.1	37.1	62.9	100
	10th	541.22	8.4	0.2	2.9	5.3	3.5	20.3	79.7	100

Figures in parentheses indicate the item code used in Sch.1.0, 66th round, for the relevant item.
*Sch. Type 1, Mixed Reference Period

NSS 63rd Round results

The work done for this paper was originally done on the consumer expenditure data of NSS 63rd round. The main tables prepared for the 63rd round are placed in the Annexure as they may be of some interest to readers. Broadly, the results are similar to the 66th round findings.

Summary

1. One normally looks at estimates of expenditure on durables across regions and population groups as providing some indication of the material progress of the relevant populations. But the large share of repair and maintenance (R&M) in expenditure on durables – 44.2% in rural India and 29.7% in urban India – suggests that this component should be separated out from estimates of durables expenditure in the break-up of MPCE published in NSS reports to make the estimates easier to interpret.

2. In studying NSS estimates of per capita expenditure on durables, it is important to remember that repair and maintenance of residential land and building forms 30% of total durables expenditure in the rural sector and 13.6% in the urban sector.

3. When durables expenditure is considered net of its R&M component, the share of jewellery and ornaments jumps from 20% to 34% in rural India and from 16% to 22.5% in urban India. The share of personal transport equipment rises from about 27% in the rural sector and 30% in the urban sector to about 41-42% in both sectors and is thus seen to command the largest share in durables purchase among the different categories of durables.

4. Expenditure on R&M of durables is concentrated among a very small number of items of the consumer expenditure schedule. In rural India, 89% of such expenditure is accounted by just three items: "residential land and building", "bicycle", and "motorcycle, scooter". In urban India, 84.5% of the expenditure is accounted by these three items plus "motor car, jeep".

5. The share of R&M in durables expenditure falls steadily with rise in MPCE, indicating that engel elasticity of durables as a whole would work out to be higher if the R&M component were netted out.

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Annexure: Results from NSS 63rd round consumer expenditure survey

Table A1: Expenditure on durable goods by category of durables, and share of R&M, all-India, 2006-07 (NSS 63rd round)

category of durable goods	monthly per capita exp. (Rs.)		% of total exp. on durable goods		share of R&M (%)	
	R	U	R	U	R	U
1. residential building, land & other durables	8.25	10.32	31.5	17.4	98.1	96.9
2. personal transport equipment	7.50	19.57	28.6	33.1	32.6	35.2
3. jewellery & ornaments	5.07	9.28	19.4	15.7	2.3	1.4
4. crockery & utensils	1.40	1.73	5.3	2.9	1.3	0.8
5. other personal goods	1.31	6.71	5.0	11.3	5.7	5.2
6. goods for recreation	1.06	4.44	4.0	7.5	12.4	6.3
7. furniture & fixtures	0.90	4.28	3.4	7.2	16.9	4.4
8. cooking & other hh appliances	0.66	2.83	2.5	4.8	25.3	28.7
9. therapeutic equipment	0.03	0.06	0.1	0.1	10.6	8.1
10. all durable goods	**26.18**	**59.21**	100.0	100.0	**42.8**	**31.5**

Table A2: Percentage break-up of (a) total expenditure on durable goods, and (b) total expenditure on purchase of durable goods, by category of durables, all-India, 2006-07

category of durable goods	Rural		Urban	
	% share in total exp. on durables	% share in exp. on durables *purchase*	% share in total exp. on durables	% share in exp. on durables *purchase*
1. residential building, land & other durables	31.5	1.1	17.4	0.8
2. personal transport equipment	28.6	33.7	33.1	31.3
3. jewellery & ornaments	19.4	33.0	15.7	22.6
4. crockery & utensils	5.3	9.2	2.9	4.2
5. other personal goods	5.0	8.2	11.3	15.7
6. goods for recreation	4.0	6.2	7.5	10.3
7. furniture & fixtures	3.4	5.0	7.2	10.1
8. cooking & other hh appliances	2.5	3.3	4.8	5.0
9. therapeutic equipment	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
10. all durable goods	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table A3: Per capita expenditure on durables goods as estimated by the 63rd round survey (2006-07) and its percentage break-up into purchase and R&M, and break-up of the R&M component over important elementary items of durables, all-India

sec-tor	monthly per capita exp. on durable goods (Rs.)	% to total expenditure on durable goods							
		cost of repair & maintenance of						purchase of durable goods	all
		residential land and building (642)	bi-cycle (610)	motor-cycle, scooter (611)	motor car, jeep (612)	other dura-bles	all dura-bles		
R	26.18	**30.2**	4.1	4.0	0.9	3.6	42.8	57.2	100.0
U	59.21	**16.0**	1.7	6.0	3.7	4.1	31.5	68.5	100.0

Figures in parentheses indicate the item code used in Sch.1.0, 63rd round, for the relevant item.

Table A4: Share of R&M across MPCE classes, all-India, 2006-07

Rural		Urban	
MPCE class (Rs.)	% of R&M in durable goods expenditure	MPCE class (Rs.)	% of R&M in durable goods expenditure
0 – 235	87.6	0 – 335	80.8
235 – 270	81.7	335 – 395	79.8
270 – 320	80.6	395 – 485	67.9
320 – 365	79.8	485 – 580	66.9
365 – 410	76.4	580 – 675	57.4
410 – 455	75.3	675 – 790	55.1
455 – 510	70.0	790 – 930	52.7
510 – 580	67.8	930 – 1100	53.0
580 – 690	70.7	1100 – 1380	44.9
690 – 890	57.7	1380 – 1880	36.5
890 – 1155	36.6	1880 – 2540	37.9
1155 & more	27.5	2540 & more	22.5
all classes	42.8	all classes	31.5

Table A5: Per capita expenditure on durables goods and its percentage break-up into purchase and R&M, and break-up of the R&M component over important elementary items of durables, separately for three divisions of the population by MPCE in each sector, all-India, 2006-07

sector	MPCE level*	% of popn.	monthly per capita exp. on durable goods (Rs.)	% to total expenditure on durable goods							
				cost of repair & maintenance of						purchase of durable goods	all
				residential land and building (642)	bicycle (610)	motorcycle, scooter (611)	motor car, jeep (612)	other durables	all durables		
R	lower	29.1	6.22	62.1	10.9	0.4	0.0	4.3	77.7	22.3	100
	middle	35.8	12.44	54.4	9.2	2.1	0.1	4.0	69.7	30.3	100
	upper	35.1	56.76	21.9	2.4	4.8	1.1	3.4	33.6	66.4	100
U	lower	34.9	8.51	37.9	10.4	4.5	0.2	7.5	60.5	39.5	100
	middle	35.2	22.06	25.2	5.3	11.1	0.3	7.1	49.0	51.0	100
	upper	29.9	162.06	13.2	0.6	5.2	4.5	3.4	26.9	73.1	100

Figures in parentheses indicate the item code used in Sch.1.0, 63rd round, for the relevant item.

*Rural: Lower: MPCE Rs.0-455; Midddle: MPCE Rs.455-690; Upper: Rs.690 & above.

Urban: Lower: MPCE Rs.0-790; Midddle: MPCE Rs.790-1380; Upper: Rs.1380 & above.

[The cut-off points used to demarcate the 3 levels are roughly the 5th and 8th deciles of the rural and urban distributions of MPCE estimated from the 61st round (2004-05) survey. (The MPCE classes used in tabulation of data by NSSO for the 62nd, 63rd and 64th round consumer expenditure reports were fractile classes of the 61st round MPCE distributions.)]

NSS Consumer Expenditure Survey – An Alternative Approach

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Abstract

Respondents play a crucial role in the system of data collection being followed in NSS. Especially NSS consumer expenditure survey takes considerable time of the respondents. The common complaint about NSS surveys has been the virtual non-cooperation from affluent households in general and urban households in particular. The issues like respondent's fatigue, respondent's resistance have never been studied in NSSO. A major problem of lengthy schedule is that the last part of the schedule (mainly durable goods items) does not get proper attention because of respondent's fatigue as well as interviewer's uneasiness with the progress of time. Condensed consumer expenditure schedules (one page worksheet) used in health, education and employment & unemployment surveys could not resolve the issue because of problem of underestimation. In this paper an alternative approach is proposed where, using the concept of pair households, information on some of the items is to be collected from one household and other item from the other household of the pair. This would help in not only reducing respondent's resistance but also tackling the problem of under reporting of items like durable goods.

Key words: Approach of data collection, Respondent's fatigue, Pair households, Non-Sampling error, Durable goods
JEL Codes: C18, C41

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Introduction

NSSO has been collecting information on different socio-economic characteristics in its various survey rounds for more than sixty years. In these surveys data are collected generally through formal interviewing of the respondents, except a few record based approach followed in the enterprise surveys, where selected enterprises maintain books of accounts. Especially interview approach is followed in different household enquiries. The NSS schedules are designed in such a way that the similar items are kept in one folder (called blocks). The blocks are arranged / numbered keeping the contents of the blocks in mind; and information for these blocks is sought to be collected sequentially – first block to come first. For obvious reasons, in this system of data collection, respondents play a very important role in providing required information to field investigators.

Some of the NSS surveys take considerable time of the respondents. Time taken to canvas household consumer expenditure (HCE) survey schedule has been a matter of debate for quite some time. Average time a respondent requires to provide data of all the blocks of HCE schedule is about two hours. This is because of collection of item-wise consumption of household data for about 350 items and about 100 specified durable goods possessed by the household in addition to usual information on household characteristics and demographic particulars. Use of multiple reference periods is another factor contributing towards increase in time requirement. The common complaint about NSS surveys has been the virtual non-cooperation from affluent households in general and urban households in particular. These issues have assumed much more significance in the recent years because of changed lifestyle of the people as a whole; as a follow up of economic reforms in Indian economy. The issues like respondent's fatigue, respondent's resistance or for that matter time availability of respondents have never been studied in NSSO. Though indirect efforts are being made by NSSO to control these issues while solving some of the major problems like:

- **i)** Choice of appropriate reference periods for different subgroups/ groups of items of consumption.
- **ii)** Shortening of consumer expenditure survey schedule.
- **iii)** Wide gap in the estimates of private final consumption expenditure (PFCE) obtained from two sources-NSSO and National Accounts Statistics (NAS).

The choice of appropriate reference periods has somehow been addressed to some extent by experimental NSS surveys and the same has been used in one half of the households covered in the 66th round of NSS consumer expenditure survey. Limited attempts have been made to tackle the large schedule size problem by using condensed consumer expenditure schedules (one page worksheet) on health, education and employment & unemployment surveys in different rounds. But no logical conclusion could be drawn as condensed schedule may lead to serious underestimation of consumption expenditure. As a result no breakthrough could be made. Since time is an important factor NSSO should develop a model HCE schedule requiring about one hour time for data collection.

1. Under reporting of durable goods:

The problem of lengthy schedule is that the last part of the schedule does not get proper attention because of respondent's fatigue as well as interviewer's uneasiness with the progress of time. A close look at the schedule shows that the data on possession of about 100 specified durable goods by the household are asked in the last block (spread over four pages) of the schedule. These items are expected to get less attention. This is evident from the fact that in NSS 61st round HCE survey more than 15 percent of even relatively affluent class (SSS1) sampled households have not reported any expenditure on durable goods for a reference period of 365 days, while about 24 percent households from the middle expenditure class (SSS2) and 27 percent from the lowest class (SSS3) have reported nil expenditure on durable goods (See Table 1).

Table 1: Percentage of households not reporting expenditure on any of the durable goods items during a reference period of 365 days

Second stage stratum (SST)	Number of households surveyed	Number of non-reporting households	Percentage of non-reporting households
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All India			
Affluent(SST1)	26266	4009	15.26
Middle(SST2)	50099	12074	24.1
Lowest(SST3)	48279	13178	27.3
All	124644	29261	23.48
Rural India			
Affluent(SST1)	15858	1945	12.27
Middle(SST2)	30993	7252	23.4
Lowest(SST3)	32447	7866	24.24
All	79298	17063	21.52
Urban India			
Affluent(SST1)	10408	2064	19.83
Middle(SST2)	19106	4822	25.24
Lowest(SST3)	15832	5312	33.55
All	45346	12198	26.90

The resistance is more in urban households than the rural households, as evident from the fact that about 20 percent of urban affluent households reported no expenditure on durable goods in comparison to 12 percent in rural affluent households. It should be mentioned here that durable goods include items like plugs, switches and other electrical fittings, lantern, lamp, bedstead, box, handbag and other travel goods, repairing of bicycle-tyres & tubes, etc. which are not much expensive and of regular-use type items.

Further among the households reported expenditure on durable goods, about 37 percent households reported expenditure on these items less than 5% of their MPCEs (See Table 2).

More interestingly durable goods expenditure in about 30% affluent class households (among the households reported expenditure on durable goods) was less than 5 percent of the MPCE of these households. Urban percentage of households reported less than 5% of MPCE was as high as 44%. About 58 percent sampled households spent less than 10% of their MPCEs on purchase and repair of durable goods. The corresponding percentages were 53 and 65 among the rural and urban households.

Table 2: Percentage of households (among the households reported durable goods expenditure) reporting MPCE on durable goods less than certain percentages of total MPCE of those households during a reference period of 365 days

Second stage stratum	Less than 5%	5 to less than 10%	10 to less than 15%	15 to less than 20%	20 to less than 25%	Sample households
			India			
Affluent	29.62	17.59	10.94	7.99	5.76	22257
Middle	39.66	21.41	11.94	7.23	4.77	38025
Poor	39.1	22.3	12.63	7.55	4.76	35101
All	37.11	20.85	11.96	7.52	5.00	95383
			Rural			
Affluent	22.71	18.26	12.31	9.06	6.50	13913
Middle	36.16	22.43	13.22	7.95	5.20	23741
Poor	35.6	22.32	13.72	8.29	5.25	24581
All	32.93	21.45	13.22	8.33	5.51	62235
			Urban			
Affluent	41.14	16.45	8.65	6.21	4.52	8344
Middle	45.48	19.72	9.81	6.02	4.05	14284
Poor	47.29	22.26	10.1	5.81	3.61	10520
All	44.96	19.71	9.61	6.00	4.03	33148

Keeping this in mind, in this paper, an alternative approach is proposed where information on some items of consumption (i.e., excluding items related to household characteristics and demographic particulars) are to be collected from one set of households and other items are to be taken from another set of households. The households taken from the same second stage strata, affluent or otherwise, can be linked (a pair consisting of one from first set and another from the other set) for calculation of MPCE and deciles after adjustment for household size. This would help in reducing respondent's resistance and at the same time in bridging the gap, to some extent, between NSSO and NAS estimates of PFCE. Detail studies have been made using 61st round HCE data to show that even traditional approach of 10 or 12 households in each FSU would be enough to maintain same level of RSE for estimated average MPCEs based on paired households.

2. Components of MPCE:

Two major components of MPCE are food and non-food items. Non-food items include durable goods. Table 3 gives estimated average MPCE separately for food items, durable goods and non-

food items and their RSEs based on 61st round HCE data for both rural and urban households. This table shows that contribution of non food items to total MPCE is about 45% and 58% in rural and urban households respectively. The contribution of durable goods to total MPCE is about 3% in rural households and 4% in urban households. Durable goods constitute a major part of non-food items, but average expenditure on durable goods is less than 8% of average MPCE for non-food

Table 3: Average MPCEs and RSEs for food, durable goods and non-food items separately for rural and urban areas

	Rural India		Urban India	
items	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE
Food	307.6	0.30	447.41	0.56
Durable Goods	19.23	5.62	42.81	13.51
Non-Food	251.19	1.01	604.95	1.71
Total Expenditure	558.79	0.56	1052.35	1.15
Sample Households	79298		45346	

Table 4: Estimated average MPCEs for durable goods and RSEs for different States, separately for rural and urban areas

State	Rural		Urban	
	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE
Andhra Pradesh	19.31	13.72	41.94	39.60
Assam	6.23	13.51	6.09	19.72
Bihar	3.70	14.77	15.8	62.02
Chattisgarh	19.06	31.46	88.68	58.56
Delhi	4.97	77.34	15.88	21.32
Gujarat	16.81	27.43	36.13	19.97
Haryana	26.55	19.41	31.82	35.88
Jharkhand	8.05	31.34	11.94	50.2
Karnataka	17.80	43.01	4.11	17.26
Kerala	88.41	15.31	114.04	18.94
Madhya Pradesh	10.42	13.46	86.29	36.51
Maharashtra	25.8	20.19	42.47	24.27
Meghalaya	8.53	10.02	9.00	25.54
Odisha	8.82	24.81	12.35	26.29
Punjab	26.56	19.32	152.73	77.16
Rajasthan	14.03	15.81	93.99	69.84
Tamil Nadu	22.50	24.58	20.82	20.24
Uttar Pradesh	35.00	52.29	26.20	31.88
Uttaranchal	20.30	12.63	21.45	20.76
West Bengal	18.06	24.87	48.70	31.66
India	19.23	5.62	42.81	13.51

items in rural households and about 7% in urban households. Though RSEs of food and non-food items veer round one percent, both in rural and urban households, but RSEs of durable goods are significantly high both in rural and urban areas. The RSEs of estimates of durable goods even in major states are unduly large as can be seen from Table 4 both in rural and urban households, even though RSEs of total non-food items (see table 5) are not very high. This shows that the present form of schedule fails to capture information on durable goods, if not on entire non-food items.

Table 5: Average MPCEs for non-food items and RSEs for different States, separately for rural and urban areas

State	Rural		Urban	
	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE
Andhra Pradesh	262.40	2.50	595.31	5.33
Assam	184.74	2.39	534.3	9.22
Bihar	146.85	1.76	340.25	7.69
Chattisgarh	186.03	5.29	603.63	16.55
Delhi	473.13	18.23	768.26	5.88
Gujarat	250.63	3.55	614.81	3.97
Haryana	443.55	14.80	669.70	7.42
Jharkhand	162.08	3.03	523.10	8.26
Karnataka	225.42	5.09	586.73	4.71
Kerala	557.52	3.78	774.87	6.17
Madhya Pradesh	206.89	2.27	552.13	8.25
Maharashtra	274.47	2.93	684.00	3.40
Meghalaya	287.71	2.78	709.77	6.04
Odisha	153.31	2.89	379.18	7.91
Punjab	430.30	2.94	827.05	15.82
Rajasthan	266.86	2.35	562.85	16.51
Tamil Nadu	286.68	6.33	618.80	3.27
Uttar Pradesh	301.27	8.75	517.18	9.36
Uttaranchal	247.13	2.16	471.18	7.37
West Bengal	232.18	3.93	636.01	4.40
India	251.19	1.01	604.95	1.71

3. Alternative Approach :

The NSS HCE survey needs a model questionnaire requiring not more than an hour interview time of the respondents for data collection. But the system has failed to deliver such a questionnaire even after completion of eight quinquennial rounds and many annual rounds of HCE survey. Reduction of schedule size has become almost impossible because of fear of under reporting if some of the similar items are merged or grouped for the purpose of data collection. Little reduction

can be made if a few items, which are not so relevant in the present day's consumption baskets, are dropped. But new non-food items are coming up and these items should find a place in the questionnaire. So at the end of the day the respondents and the interviewers are at the same place. So there is an urgent need for some alternatives. Can we not think of a pair or linked households where part of the questionnaire can be canvassed in one household and the remaining items in the other household of the pair? For example, durable goods from one household and remaining item from the other household or food-items from one household and non-food items from the other household. The first question will be asked - what will happen to existing system of getting (i) distribution of persons by MPCE class for calculation of head-count-ratios and (ii) MPCE calculated based on the consumption data of single household approach? The consumption data collected from the linked or paired households can be merged for getting MPCE of single household after adjustment with household size under the assumption that the linked households have similar consumption pattern/habit – both food and non-food items. The immediate question would come, what would be the criterion for linking households and how far this assumption of similar consumption pattern/habit in the linked households is tenable.

4. Probable linking conditions :

It is difficult to make any statement about the link-ability of the households. One can think of following probable types of households for linking:

(i) One household can be selected at random from each second stage stratum (SST) and neighboring household from the same SST can be taken as linked household.

(ii) Present practice of selecting 2 or 4 or 6 households at random from an SST can be followed and odd-even serial number of households like (1, 2), (3, 4) (5, 6) can be taken as linked.

(iii) Present practice is to collect information on household total monthly consumption expenditure for deriving MPCE (dividing by household size) at the time of listing of households. These MPCE figures are used for making SSTs. At this stage additional information on total non-food expenditure may be collected from each household. Select one household at random and then select the household having same or similar per capita expenditure on non-food items from the same SST as linked household.

5. Checking of odd-even linking from 61st round HCE data:

We can check whether any clue exists in the HCE data of NSS 61st round regarding linking of odd-even serial number of households. In 61st round in each FSU 10 households were taken up for data collection (2 households were covered from SST1, 4 from SST2 and remaining 4 from SST3 - following the model 2-4-4 in case no hamlet group formation and 1-2-2 model in each of the two hamlet groups in the case of hamlet group formation). So household serial numbers were odd- even numbers where even number (2 or 4 or 6 or 8 or 10) of households was covered in each SST (call this as paired set). That means there exist equal number of odd and even households in each SST in paired set. Obviously these households can be divided into two sets:

Odd set – taking households having odd-serial numbers and
Even set- taking households having even-serial-numbers.

Another set can be formed taking all those households where uneven numbers of households were covered in each SST (call this set as unpaired set).

So we can make two sets of households as follows:
SET 1 – Taking Odd set and unpaired set of households,
SET 2 – Taking Even set and unpaired set of households

Unpaired set is common to both the SETs. Details about formation of two sets are given in Annexure A.

In NSS 61st round HCE survey out of a total of 79298 rural households surveyed, 61892 households belong to paired set and the remaining 17406 belong to unpaired set. The paired set households can be divided into two equal subsets - Set1 with 30946 households having odd-serial-number-of-household and Set2 with the remaining 30946 households having even-serial-number-of-household.

In the urban areas out of a total of 45346 households surveyed, 39754 households belong to paired set and remaining 5592 belong to unpaired set. The paired set households are divided into two subsets – Set1 with 19877 households having odd serial-number-of-household and Set2 with the remaining 19877 households having even-serial-number-of-household.

We can think of two reduced (truncated) data sets both in rural and urban areas:

Rural:

Reduced data Set1: consisting of 30946 odd serial number households of Set1 and 17406 households of unpaired set making a total of 48352 households.

Reduced data Set2: consisting of 30946 even serial number households of Set2 and 17406 households of unpaired set making a total of 48352 households.

Note that 17406 households are common to both the Reduced Sets 1 & 2.

Urban:

Reduced data Set1: consisting of 19877 odd serial number households of Set1 and 5592 households of unpaired set making a total of 25469 households.

Reduced data Set2 : consisting of 19877 even serial number households of Set2 and 5592 households of unpaired set making a total of 25469 households.

Note that 5592 households are common to both the Reduced Sets 1 & 2.

In other-words **Reduced dataset1** is obtained by dropping the households having even-serial-numbers of the paired-households from each FSU of 10 households. Similarly **Reduced dataset2** is obtained by dropping the households having odd-serial-numbers of the paired-households from each FSU of 10 households. So the reduced datasets have either 5 or 6 households in each FSU. It would be interesting to compare the estimates generated from the reduced datasets and their RSEs with the same obtained from the original dataset having 10 households in each FSU. This will be taken up at the end of the paper.

From each household of 61st round HCE survey information on all 350 food and non-food items have been collected. Let us think of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: Let food and non-food (excluding durable goods) items data are taken from 30496 odd set of households of rural Reduced Set1 and durable goods items are taken from 30496 Even Set of households of rural Reduced set 2; and both food and non-food items data are taken from each of the 17406 Unpaired set of rural households.

Here two consecutive households having odd and even household serial numbers in the same SST are taken as **paired or linked** households. Note that the odd serial number household of the pair is in the Reduced set1 and the even serial number household is in the Reduced set2. As discussed in the previous paragraph food and non-food (excluding durable goods) items data are taken from one household of the pair and durable goods items data are taken from the other household of the pair. From each paired household data, a single household data is made by taking food and non-food (excluding durables) data from odd-serial number household and (after adjustment of the relevant data by household size) durable goods data are taken from the even-serial number household. This way a modified data-set consisting of 48352 households can be prepared, with 30496 paired households and 17406 unpaired households (where data for all food and non-food items are taken from each unpaired household). We call this dataset as Modified dataset1.

In this approach another modified dataset (called Modified dataset2) can be prepared by taking durable good items data from 30496 odd serial numbered households and food and non-food(excluding durable goods) items data from 30496 even serial numbered households. Off-course 17406 unpaired households provide data for both food and non-food items.

Similarly making pair of one odd serial numbered and one even numbered household two modified datasets (Modified dataset1 and Modified dataset2) are prepared from the two Reduced datasets of urban households.

Alternative 2: Let food items data are taken from 30496 Odd set of households of Reduced Set1 and non-food items data are taken from 30496 Even Set of households of Reduced set2; and data for all items of both food and non-food groups are taken from each of the 17406 Unpaired set of households both in rural and urban areas. Following the line of '**Alternative approach 1**' two modified data sets are prepared using data of rural households and another two modified datasets are prepared using data of urban households.

6. Results :

Alternative 1: Durable goods from one household and others from another household

Note that Reduced dataset1 and Modified dataset1 have data from the same set of 48352 rural households, the difference being that in the case of Reduced dataset1 all food and nonfood items data are from the same household, but in Modified dataset1 food and non-food (excluding durables) items data are from households of Reduced dataset1, but durable goods items are taken from the linked households of Reduced dataset2 for 30496 even households and in the remaining 17406 households all food and non-food items are from the same household. Data taken from the linked households have been adjusted by the household size and household level MPCE values have been recalculated. Similarly Modified dataset2 have been prepared from Reduced dataset2 and linked households of Reduced dataset1. Clearly estimates obtained from Modified dataset1 can be compared with the estimates based on Reduced dataset1. Similarly estimates obtained from Modified dataset2 and Reduced dataset2 can be compared.

Distribution of persons by MPCE class based on Reduced datasets and Modified datasets are available in Table 6 both for rural and urban areas. In general there is not much change in the distribution of persons in different MPCE classes in the Modified datasets as compared to Reduced datasets. In other-words there is no shifting of households from one MPCE class to next lower or higher MPCE class even when MPCE is calculated using food and non-durables non-food items data from one household and for about 100 durable good items data from another household. In fact a close look at this table shows that in the urban households, distribution of persons in the Reduced datasets and Modified datasets are more or less same. Marginal changes are noticed from Table 12 (in Annexure-I) in the distributions in different States, both in rural and urban areas.

Table 6 (durables): Per thousand distribution of persons by MPCE class and RSEs based on different datasets separately for rural and urban India

MPCE	Reduced dataset 1		Modified dataset 1		Reduced dataset 2		Modified dataset 2	
Class	Persons	RSE	Persons	RSE	Persons	RSE	Persons	RSE
RURAL INDIA								
0-235	48	4	43	4	49	4	43	4
235-270	49	4	46	4	52	3	49	4
270-320	99	3	96	3	99	2	95	3
320-365	109	2	105	2	100	2	98	2
365-410	102	2	99	2	102	2	100	2
410-455	93	2	94	3	94	2	92	2
455-510	100	2	99	2	98	2	98	2
510-580	101	2	99	2	103	2	104	2
580-690	103	2	109	2	104	2	109	2
690-890	97	2	103	2	98	2	101	2
890-1155	48	3	53	3	52	3	56	3
1155 & above	50	3	54	3	49	3	53	3
All	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0
URBAN INDIA								
0-335	50	5	50	5	51	5	50	5
335-395	52	6	52	6	49	6	50	6
395-485	97	3	97	4	98	4	97	4
485-580	101	4	103	4	106	4	105	4
580-675	97	4	96	4	98	4	99	4
675-790	99	4	98	4	100	4	102	4
790-930	102	4	104	4	103	4	102	4
930-1100	99	4	99	4	95	4	95	4
1100-1380	99	3	102	3	105	4	105	3
1380-1880	100	3	100	4	98	4	97	4
1880-2540	52	5	49	4	50	4	50	4
2540 & above	51	5	52	5	47	5	48	5
All	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0

Table 7 gives estimated average MPCE for food, durable goods, non-food items and total consumption expenditure separately for rural and urban households based on Reduced datasets 1 & 2 and Modified datasets 1 & 2 for the alternative approach 1. It can be seen that the average MPCEs for durable goods, non-food items and total expenditures remained almost unchanged in Reduced datasets and Modified datasets for both rural and urban households. The RSEs for the durable good items, non-food items and total expenditures are also almost unchanged.

Table 7 (durables): Average estimated MPCEs and RSEs of estimates for different sub-groups of items based on different datasets for rural and urban India

MPCE	Reduced dataset 1		Modified dataset 1		Reduced dataset 1		Modified dataset 2	
Class	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE
RURAL INDIA								
Food	313.70	0.38	313.71	0.38	315.54	0.36	315.54	0.36
Durable Goods	19.83	6.73	19.18	7.43	18.99	7.32	20.25	7.45
Non-Food	257.15	1.21	256.49	1.2	254.12	1.08	255.38	1.08
Total Expenditure	570.85	0.67	570.2	0.66	569.66	0.61	570.92	0.6
Sample Households	48354		48355		48350		48355	
URBAN INDIA								
Food	448.56	0.63	448.56	0.63	446.26	0.58	446.26	0.58
Durable Goods	44.24	14.61	42.38	15.82	41.39	14.7	40.3	14.76
Non-Food	614.52	1.93	612.66	1.92	595.46	1.74	594.37	1.75
Total Expenditure	1063.08	1.30	1061.22	1.29	1041.72	1.15	1040.63	1.16
Sample Households	25469		25469		25469		25470	

This shows that consumption expenditure on durable goods items of two randomly selected households from the same SST are of same pattern. In the given scenario it can be said that two consecutive odd serial numbered and even serial numbered households of same SST may be taken as pair or link households for canvassing two schedules having food and non-durables non-food items in one schedule and durable goods in other schedule.

Alternative approach 2: Food and Non-food (including durables) items data from different households

Let us keep Reduced dataset1 and dataset2 same as used in alternative approach 1 above. But Modified datasets 1 and 2 used in this approach are different from the Modified datasets used in alternative approach 1. Here in Modified dataset1 food items data are taken from households of Reduced dataset1, but non-food items are taken from the linked households of Reduced dataset2

for 30496 even households and in the remaining 17406 households all food and non-food items are taken from the same household. Similarly Modified dataset2 have been prepared from Reduced dataset2 and linked households of Reduced dataset1.

Table 8 gives per thousand distributions of persons by MPCE classes and their RSEs based on Reduced datasets1 & 2 and Modified datasets 1 & 2 separately for rural and urban areas. Comparing distribution of persons by MPCE classes between Reduced dataset1 and Modified dataset1, it is observed that there has been shifting of households from one MPCE class to immediate next higher MPCE class both in rural and urban India though RSEs of estimated persons in different MPCE classes remained more or less same. This shifting is more prominent in the lower MPCE classes than the shifting in the higher MPCE classes. Same pattern is observed in the distribution of persons by MPCE classes when distribution obtained from Reduced dataset 2 and Modified dataset 2 are compared for both rural and urban areas. Almost similar pattern of shifting of households from one MPCE class to higher MPCE class can be seen in the case of distribution of persons by MPCE classes in different States (see Table 13 in Annexure-II) in both rural and urban households.

Table 8 (non-food): Per thousand distribution of persons by MPCE class and RSEs based on different datasets separately for rural and urban India

MPCE Class	Reduced dataset 1		Modified dataset 1		Reduced dataset 2		Modified dataset 2	
	Persons	RSE	Persons	RSE	Persons	RSE	Persons	RSE
RURAL INDIA								
0-235	48	4	29	5	49	4	29	5
235-270	49	4	34	4	52	3	36	4
270-320	99	3	84	3	99	2	82	3
320-365	109	2	97	2	100	2	95	2
365-410	102	2	104	2	102	2	100	3
410-455	93	2	104	2	94	2	101	2
455-510	100	2	100	2	98	2	105	2
510-580	101	2	110	2	103	2	113	2
580-690	103	2	117	2	104	2	118	2
690-890	97	2	109	2	98	2	111	2
890-1155	48	3	58	3	52	3	58	3
1155 & above	50	3	53	3	49	3	53	3
All	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0
URBAN INDIA								
0-335	50	5	40	6	51	5	41	5
335-395	52	6	48	5	49	6	43	5
395-485	97	3	85	3	98	4	87	4
485-580	101	4	95	4	106	4	94	4
580-675	97	4	99	4	98	4	97	4
675-790	99	4	109	4	100	4	105	4
790-930	102	4	105	3	103	4	110	4
930-1100	99	4	101	4	95	4	102	4
1100-1380	99	3	110	3	105	4	107	3
1380-1880	100	3	103	3	98	4	105	3
1880-2540	52	5	51	5	50	4	54	4
2540 & above	51	5	54	5	47	5	56	5
All	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0

Table 9 gives estimated average MPCEs for food, durable goods, non-food items and total consumption expenditure separately for rural and urban households based on Reduced datasets 1 & 2 and Modified datasets 1 & 2. It can be seen that the average MPCEs for durable goods remained almost unchanged in Reduced datasets and Modified datasets for both rural and urban households. The RSEs for the durable good items are also very low and within acceptable limit. But there have been noticeable changes in the average MPCEs for nonfood items for both rural and urban India. Similar results are observed in the States (See Table 14 in Annexure III).

Table 9 (non-food): Average estimated MPCEs and RSEs of estimates for different sub-groups of items based on different datasets for rural and urban India

MPCE	Reduced dataset 1		Modified dataset 1		Reduced dataset 2		Modified dataset 2	
Class	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE
RURAL INDIA								
Food	313.70	0.38	313.25	0.38	315.54	0.36	315.08	0.36
durable goods	19.83	6.73	19.14	7.44	18.99	7.32	20.23	7.45
Non-food	257.15	1.21	269.57	1.09	254.12	1.08	276.47	2.13
Total expenditure	570.85	0.67	582.82	0.6	569.66	0.61	591.55	1.05
sample households	48354		48355		48350		48355	
URBAN INDIA								
Food	448.56	0.63	451.36	0.63	446.26	0.58	449.89	0.59
durable goods	44.24	14.61	44.11	16.03	41.39	14.7	40.79	14.77
Non-food	614.52	1.93	636.57	1.95	595.46	1.74	643.29	1.89
Total expenditure	1063.08	1.30	1087.93	1.29	1041.72	1.15	1093.18	1.25
sample households	25469		25383		25469		25358	

This shows that consumption expenditure on non-food items of two randomly selected households, even if they are from the same SST, are not of same pattern, as even and odd serial numbered households are nothing but two randomly selected households selected from the same SST. In such a situation it can be said that odd serial numbered and even serial numbered households of same SST should not be taken as pair or link households for canvassing two schedules.

Do we need more households in each FSU for alternative approach?

In an earlier paper (presented in the National Seminar on the results of NSS 63rd round) we have shown by dropping a good number of households from the original 2-4-4 model dataset of 61st round that 2-2-2 model would have produced almost similar average MPCE estimates with little change in RSEs not only for all-India but also for most of the States. Here the obvious question arises whether we need 20 households for implementing alternative approach as a substitute of 2-4-4 model in any quinquennial round. To check this issue we have tabulated detail results based of 61st round HCE survey original dataset and Reduced dataset1 and Reduced dataset2 as discussed below. The issue which needs to be mentioned here that each of the Reduced datasets has less number of households as compared to even 2-2-2 model mentioned above.

Comparing the distributions of persons by MPCE class (used for head-count ratios) based on original dataset and Reduced datasets 1 & 2 at all-India level from Table 10 it is found that there is hardly any difference in the distributions of persons obtained from Reduced datasets in comparison to the distribution obtained from 2-4-4 model dataset both in rural and urban India. It is interesting to note that the RSEs of the estimated distributions of the Reduced datasets are of equal magnitude as that of 2-4-4 model dataset.

Table 10 (reduced): : Per thousand distribution of persons by MPCE class and RSEs based on different datasets separately for rural and urban India

MPCE Class	Original dataset		Reduced dataset 1		Reduced dataset 2	
	Persons	RSE	Person	RSE	Person	RSE
Rural India						
0-235	48	3	48	5	49	4
235-270	51	3	49	4	52	3
270-320	99	2	99	3	99	2
320-365	105	2	109	2	100	2
365-410	102	2	102	2	102	2
410-455	94	2	93	2	94	2
455-510	99	2	100	2	98	2
510-580	102	2	101	2	103	2
580-690	104	2	103	2	104	2
690-890	98	2	97	2	98	2
890-1155	50	2	48	3	52	3
1155 & above	50	2	50	3	49	3
All	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0
Urban India						
0-335	50	4	50	6	51	5
335-395	51	5	52	5	49	6
395-485	98	3	97	3	98	4
485-580	103	3	101	4	106	4
580-675	97	3	97	4	98	4
675-790	99	3	99	4	100	4
790-930	103	3	102	3	103	4
930-1100	97	3	99	4	95	4
1100-1380	102	3	99	3	105	4
1380-1880	99	3	100	3	98	4
1880-2540	51	4	52	5	50	4
2540 & above	49	5	51	5	47	5
All	1000	0	1000	0	1000	0

So far as estimated average MPCEs for food, durable goods, non-food items and total expenditures are concerned, it is observed from Table 11 that the estimates obtained from the smaller datasets are not significantly different from the estimates based on entire dataset. Rural and Urban India have the same pattern so far as these estimates are concerned. Also RSEs of the estimated average MPCES for food, durables and non-food items based on smaller datasets are of the same magnitude as that of the RSEs of the estimates based on the larger dataset. (For State level estimates see Table 15 in Annexure IV)

This definitely shows that alternative approach, though requires two households for all items, does not require unduly large number of households in each FSU. A best model would be 4-4-4 model.

Table 11 (Reduced): Estimated average MPCEs and RSEs of estimates for different items based on different sets of data

Items	Original dataset		Reduced dataset 1		Reduced dataset 2	
	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE	MPCE	RSE
Rural India						
Food	307.60	0.30	313.70	0.38	315.54	0.36
durable goods	19.23	5.62	19.83	6.73	18.99	7.32
Non-food	251.19	1.01	257.15	1.21	254.12	1.08
Total expenditure	558.79	0.56	570.85	0.67	569.66	0.61
sample households	79298		48354		48350	
Urban India						
Food	447.41	0.56	448.56	0.63	446.26	0.58
durable goods	42.81	13.51	44.24	14.61	41.39	14.7
Non-food	604.95	1.71	614.52	1.93	595.46	1.74
Total expenditure	1052.35	1.15	1063.08	1.30	1041.72	1.15
sample households	45346		25469		25469	

7. Treatment of multipliers :

All households surveyed in an SST have equal weight /multiplier. Let h (=h1+h2) be the number of households surveyed in an SST and M be the corresponding multiplier attached with each of the h surveyed households. To prepare a truncated dataset let h2 households be dropped from this SST. Then the revised multiplier of each of the h1 households of the truncated dataset will be adjusted as M*h/h1. Similarly if h1 households are dropped then the adjusted multiplier for each of the h2 households of the truncated dataset will be M*h/h2.

In the proposed alternative approach let h households (h=h1+h2, h1=h2) be surveyed in any SST, where two households, one from h1 and other from h2, will form a pair. Two multipliers will be associated with each household for the following purpose:

a) Multiplier considering all h households for generating estimates related to household characteristics and demographic particulars based on the data collected in the first few blocks from all the h households.
b) Multiplier considering h/2 paired households (data from paired households will form data of single household) for generating estimates relating to consumption expenditure.

8. Conclusion:

Urgent action needs to be taken to reduce the schedule size for controlling the respondent's resistance and interviewer's fatigue and at the same time under-reporting of items like durable goods. This is possible by collecting data from two households using the concept of pair households. Households can be paired by different techniques. Even two randomly selected households from the same SST can be taken as pair-households for collection of durable goods data from one household and data of remaining items from the other household of the pair. This approach does not require unduly large number of households to be surveyed in each FSU. Even 10 or 12 households would be enough to provide estimates with reasonable RSEs. In case even number of households are not available in any SST, (or wherever pairing is not possible) data for all items are to be collected from the same household, which means both the schedules are to be canvassed in the same household.

ANNEXURE - A

In 61st round 10 households were covered from three SSTs of each FSU in the following pattern:

SST	Households surveyed when entire FSU surveyed	When segments were formed, number of households surveyed from each segment	
		Segment 1	Segment 2
1	2	1	1
2	4	2	2
3	4	2	2

Entire set of households covered in 61st round has been divided into two sets –SET1 & SET2. The households have been divided into SET1 and SET2 in the following way:

1	In 4768 FSUs no segment was formed, 2, 4 and 4 households were surveyed in SST1, SST2 and SST3 respectively.	
	Households with odd serial numbers in each of SST1, SST2, SST3 are taken in SET1	Households with even serial numbers in each of SST1, SST2, SST3 are taken in SET2
2	In 5223 FSUs segments were formed and 1-2-2 households were surveyed in each of the two segments.	
	All SST1 households and odd serial number households of SST2 and SST3 are taken in SET1	All SST1 households and even serial number households of SST2 and SST3 are taken in SET2
3	Out of the remaining 2511 FSUs, no segment was formed in 1704 FSUs and segments were formed in 807 FSUs	
	Out of the 1704 FSUs (where no segment was formed), 1037 FSUs have even number (0 or 2 or 4 or 6 or 8 or 10) of households in all SSTs.	
4	Households with odd serial numbers are taken in SET1	Households with even serial numbers are taken in SET2
	Out of the remaining 667 FSUs, 35 FSUs have even number of households in SST2 and SST3.	
5	All SST1 households and odd serial number households of SST2 and SST3 are taken in SET1	All SST1 households and even serial number households of SST2 and SST3 are taken in SET2
	Remaining 632 FSUs (with no segment formation) have only odd number households. These households could not be divided into two sets and to be repeated in both the SETs .	
6	All households of 632 FSUs are taken in SET1	All households of 632 FSUs are taken in SET2
	Out of the 807 FSUs with segment formation, 211 FSUs have even number (0 or 2 or 4 or 6 or 8 or 10) of households in all SSTs.	
7	Households with odd serial numbers are taken in SET1	Households with even serial numbers are taken in SET2
	Remaining 596 FSUs (with segment formation) have only odd number households. These households could not be divided into two sets and to be repeated in both the SETs	
8	All households of 596 FSUs are taken in SET1	All households of 596 FSUs are taken in SET2

* For detailed State-wise Annexures, reader may refer to the soft copy of Sarvekshana on the website of the Ministry (www.mospi.gov.in)

Variations in Income Elasticity: An Analysis of Indian Household Budget Data

- Saswati Das[1]

Abstract

The paper estimates expenditure elasticity for seventeen commodities across different expenditure classes for two National Sample Survey (NSS) rounds, viz. the 50th and 55th rounds. The exercise has been done separately for the rural and the urban sectors for fifteen major states and 'All India'. The form of the budget share function used is the Quadratic Logarithmic demand system as taken by Banks, Blundell and Lewbel (1997) and Lancaster and Ray (1998). The result of the analysis reveals substantial variations in income elasticity of a commodity across expenditure classes, states, and sectors. Local consumption habits and cultural differences along with income differentials may explain this variation. Variation in the urban sector exhibits a more systematic pattern than its rural counterpart.

Keywords: Income elasticity, Consumption expenditure, National Sample Survey.
JEL Codes: C51, C61

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1. Introduction

Income is one of the most important determinants of household consumption. The demand-income relationship is usually studied with the help of Engel curve analysis estimating income elasticity of demand. Income elasticity of demand measures how quantity demanded for a good does change due to a change in income. Elasticity, however, varies with income and this variation enables us to study the pattern of budget allocation across income classes. It is quite often the case that a necessity for the rich may well be a luxury for the poor. So study on income elasticity is essential for government policy on income distribution and transfer through taxation.

Regional difference in income elasticity reflects difference in household decisions among regions in respect of climate, tradition, rates of economic and population growth, and prices of consumption items. Since elasticity is independent of units of measurement, it can be directly compared for different consumption items across regions. Estimates of income elasticity by regions also enable us to study the variation in demand for different food items not only in a country as a whole but also in different regions of a country. This is useful in developing countries like India where the problem is not simply one of providing adequate supplies for the country as a whole but instances of scarcity in deficit areas along with surplus in other areas are not new. Estimates of income elasticity only at the national level are insufficient to address these regional variations. These variations have serious implications in terms of tax policy and interstate trade policy. Thus it calls for a detailed examination of the pattern of commodity specific consumption across regions and income classes.

Studies on variation in commodity specific income elasticity across regions and income classes, especially in the Indian context, are rather few. Majumder (1987, 1992) and Murty (2005) have examined variation of income elasticity across the bottom 30%, middle 40% and upper 30% groups of population using various demand systems. These studies are, however, limited to All-India level data. In this context, the proposed study is to estimate the Engel function in order to measure the influence of income on commodity specific consumption across regions (fifteen major states), sectors (rural/urban), and income classes. Grouped household expenditure data provided by the published reports of the National Sample Survey (NSS) have been used for this purpose. Two consecutive large sample rounds, viz. 50th (1993-94) and 55th (1999-2000), have been considered to see if there is any notable change in the pattern of expenditure during this six year time period. Due to lack of published information, we use total expenditure per person and not total income as the principal explanatory variable, as it is well known that total expenditure can be taken as a good proxy of income. Accordingly, elasticity is estimated by expenditure classes in place of income classes[2].

The paper is organised as follows: Section 2 describes the data and method of estimation; Section 3 presents the results and discussions; finally, Section 4 concludes.

[2] Strictly speaking, the expenditure classes in nominal terms over the rounds are not comparable. Here, since the two chosen periods are not too far apart, it may not affect the analysis to a great extent It may be noted that while covering a long period, the expenditure classes must be converted to ordinal grouping (e.g. deciles group) for comparability.

2. Data and Estimation

2.1. Data

As stated earlier, we use the grouped data published by the National Sample Survey Organization on level and pattern of consumption expenditure in India for two large sample rounds, viz., 50th and 55th, conducted during 1993-94 and 1999-2000, respectively (NSSO 1995; NSSO 2001). Fifteen major states, namely, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujrat, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharastra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttrar Pradesh along with 'All India' have been considered in the present study.

The items included are: 1) 'CEREALS, GRAM, CEREAL SUBSTITUTES'; 2)'PULSES and PRODUCTS', 3)'MILK and MILK PRODUCTS'; 4)EDIBLE OIL; 5)'MEAT, EGG AND FISH'; 6)'VEGETABLES'; 7)'FRUITS FRESH, FRUITS DRY'; 8)SUGAR; 9)SALT; 10)'SPICES'; 11)'BEVERAGES'; 12)'PAN, TOBACCO and INTOXICANTS'; 13)'FUEL and LIGHT'; 14) CLOTHING; 15)FOOTWEAR; 16)MISCELLINEOUS; and 17)'DURABLE GOODS'. Only the items, which are common to both the survey years, have been taken into consideration, as one of our objectives is to see the commodity specific change in income elasticity of demand. The NSSO provides average monthly per capita expenditure for different monthly per capita expenditure (mpce) classes. This allows us to study mpce class wise variation in consumption demand.

2.2. Estimation

For each round (50th and 55th), sector (rural and urban), state (15 states and 'All India') and item (17 items) we fitted the following quadratic logarithmic budget share function[3]:

$$w_{irj} = a_{ir} + b_{ir}y_{rj}^{*} + c_{ir}(y_{rj}^{*})^2 + e_{irj} \quad \begin{cases} i = 1,2,.....17 \\ r = 1,2,.....16 \\ j = 1,2,.....12 \end{cases}$$

where w_{irj} is the budget share of i^{th} item in r^{th} state for j^{th} mpce class; y_{rj}^{*} is $\ln(y_{rj})$, where y_{rj} is the average monthly per capita total consumption expenditure in the r^{th} state for the j^{th} mpce class. We fitted the function by weighted least squares, the estimated mpce class-specific population being the weights.

For each i and r we obtained the estimates of $\hat{a}_{ir}$, $\hat{b}_{ir}$ and $\hat{c}_{ir}$.[4]

Next, we use the estimated values of $\hat{c}_{ir}$ and $\hat{c}_{ir}$ from above regression to derive the income elasticity of different items. For the above-specified function the income elasticity for a particular item is,

$$\eta_{irj} = 1 + \frac{\hat{b}_{ir} + 2\hat{c}_{ir}\ln(y_{rj})}{w_{irj}}$$

[3] This form of the budget share equation is the Quadratic Logarithmic demand system as taken by Banks, Blundell and Lewbel (1997); and, Lancaster and Ray (1998).

[4] The parameter estimates have not been presented here owing to lack of space. These may be available on request. It may, however, be mentioned that most of the parameters turned out to be significant.

We estimated η_{irj} for each item, mpce class (at the mean expenditure level for the class) at All-India level as well as state level for the rural and urban sectors over the rounds separately.

To capture variation in economic environment, elasticities have been calculated across mpce classes. All-India results provide an overall picture of Indian economy in an average sense[5]. It should be mentioned here that the composition of the broad groups of items over these two rounds are fairly homogeneous. However, there may be non-comparability for items 14 to 17, viz., clothing, footwear, miscellaneous, and durable goods, between the two rounds due to some departure in data collection in terms of 'reference period' from 50th to 55th round. Although in the 50th round, information on low frequency items of purchase were collected on both 30 days and 365 days recall periods, and the 55th round collected the same information only on 365 days reference period, the published report of 50th round presents the figures relating to the 30 days reference period only, while the 55th round report gives the (365 days) adjusted monthly figures for these items.

3. Results and discussions

Income elasticity measures the percentage by which the expenditure on an item is expected to change given a 1% change in income. Based on the elasticity values, the items can be classified as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \eta_i < 0 \Rightarrow \text{i}^{\text{th}} \text{ item is inferior;} \\ 0 < \eta_i < 1 \Rightarrow \text{i}^{\text{th}} \text{ item is necessary;} \\ \eta_i > 1 \Rightarrow \text{i}^{\text{th}} \text{ item is luxury.} \end{cases}$$

Within a given market, the income elasticity of demand for various items can vary and of course the perception of an item differs from consumer to consumer. What to some people is a necessity might be a luxury to others. For many items, the income elasticity of demand might be close to zero, that is, there is a very weak link at best between fluctuations in income and spending decisions. The income elasticity of demand for an item is expected to change over time. The vast majority of products have a finite life span, as the product is substituted by some other product of higher quality. Consumer perceptions of the value and desirability of a good or service will be influenced not just by their own experiences of consuming it (and the feedback from other purchasers) but also by the appearance of new products into the market. An increase in income elasticity over time indicates that expenditures increased more rapidly with income than it did before and vice versa. Let us discuss some important findings that came out from our estimates in following few paragraphs.

Table 1 and Table 2 list the income elasticity for 50th (1993-94) and 55th (1999-2000) rounds in rural and urban sectors, respectively[6]. We discuss the results revealed from these Tables separately.

Not surprisingly, staple food is found to be a necessity in most regions. From estimated

[5] Aggregation is always based on some simplistic assumptions, otherwise aggregation is not possible. As household decisions are different for different households and are based on unique economic environment, the observations will reflect this feature. However, when we see it in totality the individual household effect gets nullified but is reflected in the equation error term.

elasticity, 'cereals, grams and cereal substitutes' (item1), edible oil (item 4), 'vegetables' (item 6) and 'pan, tobacco and intoxicants' (item 12) turn out to be necessary items with some variations across different expenditure classes over the rounds. 'Cereals, grams and cereal substitutes' is a necessary item for almost all expenditure classes with decreasing magnitude and becomes an inferior item for the highest expenditure class across states and sectors. In 50th round, in some states like Gujrat, Haryana, Punjab and Tamilnadu, income elasticity for this item were negative even for some lower expenditure groups but became positive in 55th round. For most expenditure classes income elasticity for 'vegetables' are showing declining trend in rural sector while an overall rising trend is very clear. The bottom expenditure class of 55th round shows income elasticity for this item greater than one, but for the top expenditure class it remains inferior. 'Pan, tobacco and intoxicants' (item 12), remains necessary item with income elasticity close to one over the rounds across the expenditure classes and states with exceptions at the bottom two expenditure classes of Punjab. Table1 show that edible oil (item 4) was a necessary item for all expenditure classes except the bottom two, in 50th round. In these two classes it was a luxury item.

The food articles, which appeared as luxury items, are 'pulses' (item 2), 'milk and milk product' (item 3), 'meat, egg, and fish' (item 5), 'sugar' (item 8), 'fruits' (item 7) and 'beverages' (item 12). 'Pulses' turned out to be a luxury item for lower and middle expenditure groups and a necessary item for the top expenditure groups in the rural sector, in the 50th round. In the 55th round, in the rural sector, this became a necessary item through out. Only in Kerala income elasticity shows a negative value for the second expenditure class from below in 55th round. This may be due to too low expenditure on pulses by this expenditure class compared to other expenditure classes. Milk and dairy products have cultural significance in Indian diet. A large part of the population is lacto-vegetarian, so milk and dairy products are an important source of protein in the diet. Despite being the largest milk producer in the world, India's per capita availability of milk is one of the lowest in the world. 'Milk and milk products' so remains a luxury good in rural sector with its income elasticity declining from 50th to 55th round for most of the expenditure classes in all the states and the country as a whole. For top one or few expenditure classes this item has become a luxury food item in 55th round while it was a necessary food item in 50th round. This is surprising as it goes against development that India achieved during this period... One probable reason may be due to urbanization, and changing food habits and lifestyle for the top expenditure classes over time.

'Meat, egg, and fish' does appear to be a luxury food article in rural sector, as expected. Three major features are revealed from the estimated figures. One is that the value of income elasticity of this item shows a large variation for both the rounds over the states. Secondly, no systematic increasing or decreasing trend in values of income elasticities is observed over time. Lastly, it turns out to be an inferior food item for top one or two expenditure classes for Gujrat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharastra, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamilnadu, Uttar Pradesh and Haryana. In all these eight states generally the higher caste people who also belong to the higher income group, are vegetarian. It may be mentioned here that caste system in India is characterized by superiority and subordination. According to Hindu caste hierarchy, Brahmin occupies the highest position followed by Kahtriya,

[6] Only All-India estimates are presented in these two tables. State level estimates are presented in Appendix. Estimates for four states, viz. Uttar Pradesh (undivided), Tamilnadu, West Bengal and Maharastra, each from one of the four zones, viz. North zone, South zone, East Zone and West zone respectively have been presented in Appendix for shortage of space. Estimates for other major states are available on request.

Vaishya and Sudra. As a consequence, this item, which is luxury to the lower castes, becomes inferior to the higher caste people. It is a highly luxury food item for almost all expenditure classes in both the rounds in all other states in India.

'Sugar', like 'pulses', became a necessity in 55th round from luxury in 50th round for all the expenditure classes except for the upper most one. 'Fruits' and 'beverages' remained luxury consumption articles over time irrespective of expenditure class and state.

'Salt' (item 9) and 'spices' (item 10) may be broadly called to be the inferior items. Income elasticities for salt increased over time. In some states like Gujrat, Karnataka, Kerala, it appears as an inferior item in 50th round though in 55th round it became a necessity. This also may seem to be contrary to the theoretical expectation but it may be due to great use of better quality salt in place of inferior quality. What is to be noted about 'spices' (item 10) is that in Andhra Pradesh and Punjab the values of its income elasticities became negative in 55th round?

Similar trend is observed for non-food items also. Fuel (item 13) is basically a necessary item, income elasticities of which increased for all expenditure groups over time in all states. Only for bottom two expenditure groups it has become a luxury item in 55th round from a necessity in the previous round. With the pace of development households in lower expenditure groups also become using better quality fuel. Clothing (item14) is understandably a necessity in all states for middle and upper expenditure groups and it was no more a luxury item in 55th round. Only for lower expenditure groups it continued to be a luxury item.

One unusual feature to note in Table 1 is that the values of income elasticity for footwear (item 15) in 55th round were negative for lower expenditure groups and were increasing when we move from lower to upper expenditure groups. One possible reason could be that the qualities of the products that are purchased by the lowest income class under this broad category become inferior item as income increases. After a certain level of income the consumer switches over to better quality products under this category, as a result of which these become luxury items. For all expenditure classes 'durable goods' (item 17) clearly comes out as a luxury good for both the rounds. No systematic change in income elasticity for this item over time is revealed from Table 1.

Table 2 presents the elasticities for urban areas. These are generally lower in magnitude than in the rural sector. We can classify the items into two broad categories in the urban sector. The items turn out to be the necessary items are, 'cereals, grams and cereal substitutes' (item1), 'pulses and products' (item 2), 'edible oil' (item 4), 'vegetables' (item 6), 'sugar' (item 8), 'salt' (item 9) and 'spices' (item 10). The items appear broadly as luxury items are 'milk and milk product' (item 3), 'meat, egg, and fish' (item 5), 'fruits' (item 7) and 'beverages' (item 12), 'pan, tobacco and intoxicants' (item 12), and 'clothing' (item 14). For both the categories some exceptions in the values of elasticities are observed across expenditure classes over the rounds. Like rural sector same unusual feature can be noted in Table 2 where the values of income elasticity for 'durable goods' (item 17) were negative for lower expenditure groups and were increasing when we move from 50th round to 55th round. For all other expenditure classes it clearly comes out as a luxury good for both the rounds.

The urban areas display more systematic change in values of income elasticities over time. Broadly speaking, the elasticities decreased over time for most of the lower and middle expenditure groups whereas they increased for upper expenditure groups over the rounds. We can make five groups into which the items fall in urban area in terms of movement in elasticity values over time: a) 'cereals, grams, cereal substitutes'; 'pulses and products', 'vegetables' and 'durable goods' are those for which elasticities decreased for lower and middle expenditure classes; b) 'meat, egg and fish' is one for which elasticity increased for lower and middle expenditure classes; c) three items ('milk and milk products', 'spices' and 'miscellaneous' show no systematic trend; d) for 'fuel and light' overall increase in elasticities are observed; e) elasticities decreased for rest of the six items ('edible oil', 'sugar', 'beverages', 'pan, tobacco and intoxicants', 'clothing' and 'footwear').

It can be noted from our estimates that consumption pattern of last four items, i.e., 'clothing', 'footwear', 'miscellaneous' and 'durable goods' show large differences in the estimated values of elasticities. In both rural and urban sectors, income elasticities for clothing decreased largely between two rounds. The gaps across expenditure classes and across states also declined largely. In 50th round the values were greater than one for all expenditure classes, while it came down less than one for middle and upper expenditure classes. The values for lower expenditure classes continued to remain greater than one. For 'footwear', a clear downward trend in elasticities for bottom expenditure classes is seen between two rounds in rural sector, whereas the values became even negative in 55th round. Reverse is the case for upper expenditure classes, where the estimated values in 55th round are seen to be higher than previous round and the values increased with higher expenditure classes. Urban sector shows the large declining trend in estimated values over the rounds. For top two expenditure classes the values came down to less than one, while for other expenditure classes it continued to be greater than one. Similar trend is observed across the states. For 'miscellaneous' item, households in different expenditure classes exhibit different pattern over the rounds and across different states, especially in urban sector. In rural sector, the estimated values are consistently decreasing over the rounds and on the whole income elasticities gradually increase with higher expenditure classes. The large differences in the elasticities of these items can be explained in terms of qualitative changes in the households' consumption pattern that had taken place with increase in income over time. For a given quality of an item, households consume a commodity up to the satiety level. Up to this level, consumption of this particular commodity increases with the increase in the level of income. But after achieving it the share of expenditure on this particular item declines as income increases. On the other hand, as income continues to increase, households switch over to a better quality product and so, the share of expenditure on this 'item' increases again. The unsystematic pattern of 'miscellaneous' item in urban sector is difficult to be explained due to the way a number of items of various qualities in various quantities have been combined into it.

The contrasting consumption pattern and time trend for durable goods in rural and urban sectors are due to the effect of economic growth that had been achieved between two rounds and a consequent qualitative change that occurred in consumption basket of the households. As fruits of development reach faster in urban sector and so the better quality products that are beyond reach of the lower expenditure classes, households belonging to these classes are ignorant of these goods. This has been reflected in negative income elasticities for lower expenditure classes in 50th round.

On the other hand, the rapid economic growth that India had been experienced during latter half of 1990's, followed by various structural adjustment programs undertaken under New Economic Policy, increased the purchasing power of households substantially. The overall estimated figures of elasticities for 55th round demonstrate it.

Some other large differences in elasticities between rural and urban sectors as well as between two rounds can be distinguished for items like 'meat, egg, and fish' (item 5), 'vegetables' (item 6), 'fruits' (item 7), and 'beverages' (item 12). These differences are in consumption pattern of households across the expenditure classes and also in direction of movement between two rounds. Largely, two kinds of justification can be thought of for this. The items for which elasticities decline over time for lower expenditure classes follow a pattern stipulated by Engel's law. But for upper expenditure classes who go for a better quality we get a different pattern. Secondly, the items which are not necessities, the lower and some middle expenditure classes may not spend initially upon them and so the rising trend in elasticities for these items are basically due to increase in spending to fulfill the satiety amount. The declining trend in elasticities for upper expenditure classes is simply due to Engel's law.

4. Conclusion

In the present study Engel elasticity has been estimated for seventeen consumption items separately for the twelve expenditure classes and fifteen major states of India. A quadratic logarithmic budget share function has been fitted to the consumer expenditure survey data of NSS. The elasticity values generally look quite reasonable with few exceptions. A considerable variation in commodity specific elasticity across states and sectors is found out from the study. The variations do not seem to be completely accounted for by income differentials. Market separation and lack of information flow between regions may be responsible for these variations, but local consumption habits and cultural differences are perhaps more important. It has implication in terms of developing inter state trade policies in line with the estimated elasticity differentials. Urban sector shows a more systematic variation than rural sector implying the need of sector specific economic planning. These features are not revealed by the usual procedure of finding the elasticity values at a single (average) per capita expenditure.

From a long-run perspective, income can be viewed as the most important determinant of household consumption shaping a country's aggregate demand. Being the second largest consumer of numerous products, India occupies an important position in the global economy. Consequently what happens to household demand in India is of significance not only to the institutions in India, but also many other countries and international organizations. This is particularly true in an era of globalization when India is approaching more and more towards a market-oriented economy and increasingly opening its door to the outside world.

Income elasticity calculated over a sufficiently long period of time may serve as a panel data base for future projection of elasticity values by expenditure classes. Having accepted the issue of non-comparability of few items (e.g. four out of seventeen items between 50th and 55th rounds) between the rounds, one can still gauge the consumers' relative response to percentage change in income for the rest of the items, which constitutes a major part of the consumption

basket. The validity of future projection is, of course, contingent upon the fact that the elasticities exhibit a clear pattern over time. It holds good with structural changes associated with economic development. Any structural change will get reflected in the elasticity values through change in consumer demand and appropriate methodology for projection of elasticities need to be adopted. It has important implication also in terms of tax policy. Tax policy is likely to influence private decisions to consume, save and invest. It is especially important in the era of structural changes associated with market oriented economic reforms. In fact, tax reforms in India since 1991 were undertaken as a part of the structural adjustment programs in the wake of economic crisis of 1991. Within a federal tax structure, the primary thrust of the central tax reforms was to increase the share of domestic consumption taxes. In the case of customs, the tariff rate was to vary directly, among final consumer goods, with income elasticity of demand (higher rates on luxuries) (Rao and Rao, 2005). On the other hand, about seventy five basic necessities were exempted from the state level Value Added Tax since poor people spend a higher proportion of their income on these items (Rao and Rao, 2005)[7]. Hence, in terms of tax policy, since taxing luxury items is progressive and taxing necessary/inferior items is regressive, the government may take appropriate action based on the elasticity values.

[7] The implications for the tax policy can be explained with the help of an example. Suppose a commodity (say, medicine) becomes luxury, possibly because of its price hike. But government desires the medicine to be used by the common people. Then government can reduce sales tax or can give subsidy to the medicine producers.

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Table 1: The income elasticities for 50th and 55th rounds, all India, rural

Item	round	MPCE classes*											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Item 1	Cereals, gram, cereal substitutes												
	50th	0.42	0.43	0.41	0.38	0.36	0.31	0.27	0.21	0.14	-0.02	-0.19	-0.76
	55th	0.78	0.72	0.67	0.61	0.55	0.5	0.41	0.34	0.22	0.01	-0.28	-1.22
Item 2	Pulses and products												
	50th	1.18	1.14	1.11	1.08	1.06	1.04	1.01	0.98	0.95	0.89	0.81	0.5
	55th	0.93	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.91	0.9	0.9	0.89	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.73
Item 3	Milk and milk product												
	50th	4.44	2.9	2.35	1.92	1.72	1.55	1.43	1.33	1.24	1.14	1.05	0.81
	55th	2.71	2.18	1.82	1.61	1.48	1.41	1.34	1.3	1.25	1.2	1.16	1.15
Item 4	Edible oil												
	50th	1.07	1.01	0.98	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.87	0.84	0.79	0.73	0.62	0.31
	55th	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.86	0.85	0.83	0.81	0.8	0.77	0.72	0.65	0.47
Item 5	Meat, egg and fish												
	50th	4.55	3.48	2.8	2.42	2.14	1.96	1.77	1.61	1.42	1.17	0.86	-0.1
	55th	3.37	3.07	2.61	2.39	2.13	2.01	1.86	1.77	1.65	1.48	1.28	0.85
Item 6	Vegetables												
	50th	1	0.94	0.9	0.87	0.83	0.8	0.77	0.73	0.67	0.57	0.43	-0.09
	55th	1.22	1.11	1.05	0.98	0.92	0.87	0.81	0.74	0.66	0.51	0.32	-0.28
Item 7	Fruits fresh, fruits dry												
	50th	2.78	2.6	2.28	2.09	1.94	1.78	1.71	1.6	1.51	1.4	1.33	1.26
	55th	1.37	1.61	1.69	1.7	1.72	1.71	1.67	1.7	1.7	1.69	1.66	1.76
Item 8	Sugar												
	50th	1.44	1.36	1.29	1.23	1.19	1.15	1.12	1.08	1.04	0.98	0.92	0.69
	55th	1	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.96	0.95	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.92	0.9	0.84
Item 9	Salt												
	50th	0.31	0.26	0.24	0.22	0.2	0.17	0.17	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.06	0.18
	55th	0.54	0.52	0.52	0.53	0.52	0.53	0.56	0.56	0.59	0.64	0.71	0.93
Item 10	Spices												
	50th	1.04	1	0.97	0.94	0.92	0.9	0.87	0.84	0.8	0.73	0.63	0.28
	55th	1.03	0.98	0.96	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.85	0.82	0.78	0.71	0.63	0.55
Item 11	Beverages												
	50th	1.69	1.6	1.5	1.43	1.4	1.35	1.32	1.29	1.26	1.22	1.19	1.13
	55th	1.24	1.24	1.24	1.26	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.24	1.26	1.26	1.28	1.29

Item 12	Pan, tobacco and intoxicants											
	50th	1.11	1.04	1	0.95	0.92	0.89	0.85	0.81	0.77	0.68	0.57	0.27
	55th	1.09	1.05	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.95	0.92	0.9	0.87	0.83	0.78	0.65
Item 13	Fuel and light											
	50th	0.87	0.84	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.76	0.74	0.72	0.69	0.65	0.58	0.43
	55th	1.05	1.01	0.98	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.87	0.84	0.8	0.74	0.54
Item 14	Clothing											
	50th	5.97	5.35	4.3	3.86	3.27	2.8	2.57	2.26	1.98	1.71	1.53	1.45
	55th	1.01	1	1	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.91
Item 15	Footwear											
	50th	2.59	3.74	2.9	2.53	2.54	2.29	2.15	1.97	1.83	1.66	1.55	1.61
	55th	-6.63	-3.38	-1.69	-0.11	1	1.91	2.74	3.57	4.54	5.8	7.24	8.67
Item 16	Miscellaneous											
	50th	0.96	1.22	1.37	1.48	1.57	1.62	1.69	1.72	1.78	1.83	1.86	1.93
	55th	1.08	1.15	1.19	1.22	1.24	1.26	1.27	1.29	1.3	1.31	1.31	1.33
Item 17	Durable goods											
	50th	1.22	1.22	1.49	1.49	3.41	2.83	6.63	16.17	6.25	5.28	7.34	2.65
	55th	22.64	17.76	17.78	15.21	14.22	12.86	11.18	10.09	8.51	5.95	4.16	1.72

*Twelve MPCE classes for rural sector in 50th round are: 'less than 120', '120-140', '140-165', '165-190', '190-210', '210-235', '235-265', '265-300', '300-355', '355-455', '455-560', '560 & above'.

Twelve MPCE classes for rural sector in 55th round are: 'less than 225', '225-255', '255-300', '300-340', '340-380''380-420', '420-470', '470-525', '525-615', '615-775', '775-950', '950 & above'.

Table 2: Income elasticities for 50th and 55th rounds, all India, urban

Item	round	MPCE classes*											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Item 1	Cereals, gram, cereal substitutes												
	50th	0.83	0.76	0.69	0.61	0.5	0.42	0.3	0.14	-0.13	-0.53	-1.22	-3.39
	55th	0.24	0.23	0.18	0.15	0.09	0.06	0	-0.06	-0.11	-0.17	-0.25	-0.22
Item 2	Pulses and products												
	50th	1	0.96	0.93	0.9	0.87	0.84	0.81	0.76	0.69	0.58	0.39	-0.22
	55th	0.89	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.8	0.78	0.75	0.72	0.66	0.58	0.46	-0.08
Item 3	Milk and milk product												
	50th	2.37	2	1.72	1.56	1.42	1.32	1.25	1.18	1.1	1.01	0.89	0.51
	55th	2.1	1.79	1.63	1.49	1.39	1.3	1.24	1.17	1.11	1.03	0.93	0.59
Item 4	Edible oil												
	50th	0.95	0.92	0.89	0.87	0.84	0.83	0.81	0.77	0.72	0.64	0.51	0.09
	55th	0.75	0.74	0.73	0.72	0.7	0.68	0.66	0.63	0.59	0.51	0.42	-0.04
Item 5	Meat, egg and fish												
	50th	3.2	2.47	2.03	1.85	1.68	1.54	1.41	1.25	1.03	0.72	0.29	-0.96
	55th	2.53	2.05	1.8	1.6	1.48	1.34	1.21	1.06	0.88	0.59	0.14	-1.16
Item 6	Vegetables												
	50th	0.8	0.76	0.72	0.7	0.64	0.63	0.59	0.53	0.45	0.36	0.22	-0.31
	55th	0.72	0.69	0.67	0.64	0.61	0.58	0.53	0.5	0.42	0.32	0.18	-0.36
Item 7	Fruits fresh, fruits dry												
	50th	2.11	1.89	1.71	1.61	1.51	1.46	1.4	1.34	1.31	1.24	1.18	1.14
	55th	2.85	2.33	2.01	1.88	1.73	1.63	1.5	1.41	1.32	1.23	1.14	0.99
Item 8	Sugar												
	50th	0.99	0.96	0.94	0.93	0.9	0.89	0.87	0.84	0.79	0.72	0.6	0.16
	55th	0.9	0.88	0.87	0.85	0.84	0.82	0.8	0.77	0.73	0.65	0.54	0.16
Item 9	Salt												
	50th	0.48	0.42	0.37	0.35	0.31	0.28	0.26	0.24	0.2	0.11	0.01	-0.28
	55th	0.72	0.66	0.63	0.6	0.54	0.52	0.48	0.37	0.27	0.07	-0.2	-0.96
Item 10	Spices												
	50th	0.89	0.86	0.85	0.83	0.8	0.79	0.76	0.72	0.67	0.6	0.49	0.15
	55th	0.87	0.84	0.82	0.79	0.76	0.72	0.68	0.64	0.57	0.47	0.3	0.34
Item 11	Beverages												
	50th	2.7	2.41	2.15	2.02	1.88	1.79	1.67	1.53	1.39	1.26	1.12	0.89
	55th	0.71	0.99	1.16	1.31	1.42	1.53	1.62	1.72	1.77	1.86	2.03	2.3

Item 12	Pan, tobacco and intoxicants											
	50th	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.92
	55th	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.89	0.9	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.88	0.87	0.89
Item 13	Fuel and light											
	50th	0.94	0.9	0.87	0.85	0.8	0.79	0.75	0.71	0.66	0.57	0.45	0.04
	55th	1.16	1.1	1.07	1.02	0.99	0.95	0.91	0.87	0.81	0.72	0.6	0.53
Item 14	Clothing											
	50th	5.65	4.26	3.36	3.00	2.5	2.33	2.00	1.81	1.67	1.55	1.48	1.43
	55th	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.91	0.85
Item 15	Footwear											
	50th	1.94	1.99	2.04	2.1	2.09	1.97	1.96	1.84	1.86	1.96	1.86	1.87
	55th	1.63	1.49	1.42	1.36	1.29	1.24	1.19	1.15	1.1	1.04	0.96	0.77
Item 16	Miscellaneous											
	50th	1.73	1.7	1.68	1.65	1.63	1.56	1.53	1.5	1.45	1.42	1.4	1.37
	55th	1.43	1.52	1.54	1.55	1.54	1.53	1.52	1.51	1.49	1.48	1.46	1.5
Item 17	Durable goods											
	50th	-10.65	-5.25	-2.62	-0.36	1.00	1.66	2.15	2.43	2.75	2.9	2.68	1.62
	55th	0.21	0.45	0.67	0.87	1.01	1.13	1.22	1.27	1.33	1.31	1.33	1.26

*Twelve MPCE classes (in Rs.) for urban sector in 50th round are: 'below 160', '160-190', '190-230', '230-265', '265-310', '310-355', '355-410', '410-490', '490-605', '605-825', '825-1055', '1055& above'.

Twelve MPCE classes for urban sector in 55th round are: '000-300', '300-350', '350-425', '425-500', '500-575', '575-665', '665-775', '775-915', '915-1120', '1120-1500', '1500-1925', '1925 & above'.

Appendix

Table A1: The income elasticities for 50th and 55th rounds by states and all India, rural

Item/State	round	MPCE classes*											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Item 1		Cereals, gram, cereal substitutes											
West Bengal	50th	0.58	0.55	0.54	0.52	0.52	0.48	0.46	0.41	0.37	0.28	0.19	-0.26
	55th	0.8	0.76	0.72	0.68	0.64	0.61	0.56	0.53	0.44	0.33	0.15	-0.59
Maharashtra	50th	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.08	0	0.03	-0.04	-0.08	-0.2	-0.28	-0.81
	55th	0.71	0.63	0.54	0.5	0.44	0.36	0.27	0.19	0.07	-0.1	-0.41	-1.28
Tamilnadu	50th	0.39	0.44	0.41	0.39	0.33	0.34	0.3	0.29	0.2	0.1	0.02	-0.68
	55th	0.66	0.59	0.53	0.48	0.41	0.35	0.28	0.25	0.14	-0.04	-0.26	-1.37
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.43	0.41	0.36	0.3	0.26	0.21	0.12	0.07	-0.01	-0.16	-0.38	-0.87
	55th	0.76	0.7	0.64	0.57	0.5	0.44	0.34	0.27	0.13	-0.1	-0.43	-1.4
Item 2		Pulses and products											
West Bengal	50th	1.51	1.36	1.25	1.17	1.12	1.08	1.02	0.97	0.9	0.81	0.68	0.11
	55th	0.92	0.88	0.86	0.87	0.86	0.83	0.84	0.82	0.82	0.79	0.75	0.63
Maharashtra	50th	1.12	1.09	1.07	1.06	1.04	1.03	1.01	0.99	0.96	0.91	0.83	0.6
	55th	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.94	0.93	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.9	0.88	0.85	0.77
Tamilnadu	50th	1.24	1.16	1.12	1.09	1.06	1.04	1.01	0.98	0.95	0.9	0.85	0.49
	55th	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.91	0.9	0.89	0.87	0.86	0.76
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.14	1.11	1.09	1.06	1.05	1.03	1.01	0.99	0.96	0.9	0.83	0.62
	55th	0.94	0.94	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.91	0.9	0.89	0.86	0.79
Item 3		Milk and milk product											
West Bengal	50th	53.25	10.29	7.27	4.49	2.95	2.39	2.07	1.73	1.57	1.35	1.11	0.44
	55th	4.42	3.48	3.33	2.51	2.39	2.42	1.91	1.78	1.56	1.52	1.46	1.36
Maharashtra	50th	3.33	2.65	2.22	1.97	1.84	1.63	1.52	1.41	1.36	1.23	1.07	0.61
	55th	2.79	2.29	1.92	1.69	1.6	1.53	1.48	1.42	1.39	1.34	1.28	1.24
Tamilnadu	50th	9.08	4.73	4.31	2.89	2.37	2.24	1.99	1.69	1.52	1.28	1.1	0.54
	55th	4.14	2.64	2.17	1.75	1.72	1.61	1.55	1.54	1.47	1.39	1.33	1.31
Uttar Pradesh	50th	3.69	2.43	1.89	1.6	1.47	1.39	1.29	1.23	1.17	1.11	1.04	0.87
	55th	2.3	1.92	1.62	1.5	1.37	1.32	1.28	1.25	1.21	1.19	1.14	1.14
Item 4		Edible oil											
West Bengal	50th	1.07	1.01	0.97	0.94	0.91	0.88	0.85	0.81	0.77	0.71	0.6	0.2
	55th	0.94	0.91	0.89	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.83	0.8	0.78	0.74	0.68	0.54
Maharashtra	50th	1.06	1.01	0.98	0.96	0.94	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.84	0.79	0.72	0.52
	55th	0.95	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.86	0.85	0.84	0.82	0.79	0.76	0.72	0.6
Tamilnadu	50th	1.07	1.01	0.98	0.94	0.91	0.88	0.85	0.82	0.76	0.7	0.61	0.14
	55th	0.95	0.91	0.88	0.86	0.83	0.81	0.78	0.76	0.73	0.67	0.61	0.27
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.06	1.01	0.98	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.86	0.82	0.78	0.7	0.58	0.35
	55th	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.86	0.85	0.82	0.82	0.78	0.76	0.72	0.64	0.52

Item 5	Meat, egg and fish												
West Bengal	50th	3.01	2.46	1.99	1.84	1.67	1.53	1.41	1.31	1.22	1.08	0.94	0.42
	55th	2.2	1.97	1.84	1.67	1.5	1.48	1.39	1.35	1.28	1.19	1.11	0.95
Maharashtra	50th	5	3.19	2.65	2.55	2.04	2.06	1.83	1.77	1.46	1.14	0.84	-0.28
	55th	4.1	3.91	2.85	2.63	2.41	2.09	1.95	1.98	1.7	1.54	1.27	0.81
Tamilnadu	50th	3.47	3.06	2.4	2.06	1.77	1.68	1.59	1.47	1.3	1.11	0.9	-0.25
	55th	2.56	2.51	1.94	1.87	1.68	1.69	1.57	1.5	1.45	1.32	1.22	0.73
Uttar Pradesh	50th	8.77	6.29	4.39	3.42	2.95	2.97	2.39	2.31	1.87	1.34	0.71	-0.86
	55th	7.68	5.54	4.25	3.96	3.24	2.9	2.61	2.37	2.28	1.9	1.72	0.65
Item 6	Vegetables												
West Bengal	50th	0.99	0.95	0.92	0.89	0.85	0.83	0.81	0.78	0.73	0.67	0.58	0.14
	55th	1.18	1.09	1.04	0.99	0.94	0.9	0.86	0.82	0.76	0.68	0.56	0.05
Maharashtra	50th	1.01	0.93	0.88	0.84	0.81	0.76	0.72	0.68	0.6	0.48	0.33	-0.45
	55th	1.26	1.14	1.05	0.98	0.91	0.85	0.76	0.68	0.6	0.46	0.27	-0.44
Tamilnadu	50th	1.01	0.94	0.9	0.86	0.82	0.79	0.76	0.71	0.65	0.58	0.44	-0.21
	55th	1.22	1.11	1.05	0.98	0.93	0.88	0.83	0.77	0.7	0.56	0.29	-0.57
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1	0.94	0.9	0.87	0.83	0.8	0.76	0.72	0.66	0.55	0.42	-0.04
	55th	1.22	1.12	1.05	0.98	0.92	0.86	0.8	0.73	0.64	0.49	0.28	-0.3
Item 7	Fruits fresh, fruits dry												
West Bengal	50th	6.72	4.59	4.14	3.28	2.62	2.28	2.24	1.92	1.74	1.56	1.42	1.29
	55th	1.84	3.44	2.74	2.39	2.58	2.67	2.28	2.21	2.12	2.09	1.95	1.85
Maharashtra	50th	1.69	1.6	1.55	1.46	1.46	1.36	1.36	1.33	1.31	1.27	1.22	1.21
	55th	1.18	1.29	1.29	1.36	1.33	1.36	1.36	1.38	1.42	1.45	1.53	1.66
Tamilnadu	50th	2.08	1.85	1.73	1.72	1.53	1.57	1.51	1.47	1.45	1.36	1.32	1.27
	55th	1.21	1.26	1.33	1.36	1.46	1.39	1.41	1.49	1.49	1.55	1.65	2.03
Uttar Pradesh	50th	4.36	3.42	2.54	2.27	2.18	1.94	1.81	1.73	1.6	1.52	1.39	1.32
	55th	1.5	1.68	1.79	1.81	1.8	1.84	1.78	1.84	1.88	1.73	1.75	1.84
Item 8	Sugar												
West Bengal	50th	2.37	1.65	1.58	1.46	1.36	1.3	1.22	1.16	1.08	0.97	0.85	0.38
	55th	1	0.97	0.96	0.94	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.89	0.89	0.86	0.82	0.71
Maharashtra	50th	1.19	1.17	1.14	1.12	1.1	1.09	1.08	1.05	1.03	0.99	0.92	0.74
	55th	1	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.82
Tamilnadu	50th	2.08	1.87	1.59	1.41	1.33	1.27	1.21	1.13	1.07	0.97	0.86	0.34
	55th	1	0.97	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.85	0.83	0.65
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.48	1.34	1.26	1.21	1.17	1.13	1.1	1.07	1.04	0.99	0.92	0.76
	55th	1	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.96	0.95	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.91	0.88

Item 9	Salt												
West Bengal	50th	0.48	0.39	0.4	0.37	0.39	0.35	0.36	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.3	0.43
	55th	0.57	0.56	0.58	0.57	0.59	0.59	0.64	0.63	0.66	0.78	0.77	0.95
Maharashtra	50th	0.27	0.18	0.18	0.17	0.15	0.12	0.15	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.23
	55th	0.48	0.51	0.5	0.48	0.48	0.52	0.53	0.55	0.57	0.63	0.75	0.94
Tamilnadu	50th	0.3	0.24	0.18	0.17	0.07	0.15	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.08	0.13	0.31
	55th	0.61	0.55	0.56	0.59	0.51	0.54	0.54	0.57	0.61	0.63	0.69	1.05
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.16	0.13	0.07	0.01	0	-0.04	-0.08	-0.11	-0.11	-0.18	-0.17	-0.03
	55th	0.35	0.34	0.35	0.47	0.41	0.41	0.52	0.46	0.46	0.55	0.63	0.95
Item 10	Spices												
West Bengal	50th	1.05	1	0.96	0.92	0.89	0.86	0.84	0.8	0.76	0.67	0.57	0.1
	55th	1.04	0.98	0.94	0.91	0.88	0.85	0.82	0.78	0.74	0.66	0.56	0.29
Maharashtra	50th	1.04	1	0.98	0.95	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.85	0.81	0.74	0.62	0.2
	55th	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.88	0.86	0.83	0.78	0.72	0.63	0.31
Tamilnadu	50th	1.02	1	0.99	0.97	0.95	0.94	0.92	0.9	0.87	0.83	0.76	0.4
	55th	1.02	0.99	0.98	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.87	0.82	0.74	0.89
Uttar pradesh	50th	1.04	1	0.97	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.86	0.82	0.78	0.71	0.6	0.31
	55th	1.02	0.98	0.95	0.92	0.9	0.87	0.84	0.81	0.78	0.7	0.61	0.32
Item 11	Beverages												
West Bengal	50th	1.74	1.64	1.53	1.47	1.51	1.39	1.39	1.33	1.29	1.24	1.2	1.12
	55th	1.48	1.39	1.15	1.43	1.4	1.32	1.38	1.36	1.37	1.32	1.36	1.36
Maharashtra	50th	1.49	1.41	1.38	1.36	1.31	1.32	1.28	1.26	1.21	1.2	1.19	1.1
	55th	1.14	1.19	1.2	1.22	1.19	1.24	1.21	1.21	1.26	1.26	1.31	1.33
Tamilnadu	50th	1.38	1.32	1.26	1.23	1.21	1.19	1.17	1.17	1.14	1.11	1.11	1.06
	55th	1.1	1.11	1.12	1.14	1.13	1.13	1.13	1.14	1.14	1.17	1.19	1.22
Uttar Pradesh	50th	2.29	1.96	1.72	1.6	1.55	1.48	1.43	1.41	1.35	1.31	1.24	1.17
	55th	1.34	1.34	1.37	1.35	1.31	1.33	1.35	1.3	1.32	1.33	1.36	1.4
Item 12	Pan, tobacco and intoxicants												
West Bengal	50th	1.13	1.06	1	0.94	0.91	0.87	0.82	0.78	0.73	0.58	0.44	-0.18
	55th	1.12	1.05	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.94	0.9	0.88	0.83	0.79	0.73	0.55
Maharashtra	50th	1.13	1.04	1	0.94	0.91	0.86	0.82	0.77	0.69	0.6	0.38	-0.02
	55th	1.1	1.05	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.88	0.85	0.72	0.71	0.42
Tamilnadu	50th	1.1	1.04	0.99	0.94	0.91	0.87	0.85	0.78	0.75	0.7	0.49	-0.2
	55th	1.11	1.05	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.95	0.92	0.9	0.9	0.86	0.78	0.8
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.13	1.04	0.99	0.95	0.91	0.86	0.83	0.78	0.73	0.64	0.49	0.27
	55th	1.12	1.06	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.86	0.82	0.79	0.62

Item 13	Fuel and light											
West Bengal	50th	0.84	0.82	0.8	0.78	0.76	0.75	0.72	0.72	0.69	0.66	0.57	0.28
	55th	1.05	1.01	0.98	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.9	0.87	0.85	0.81	0.76	0.56
Maharashtra	50th	0.88	0.83	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.76	0.75	0.73	0.7	0.66	0.6	0.29
	55th	1.05	1.01	0.98	0.95	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.86	0.84	0.8	0.74	0.49
Tamilnadu	50th	0.84	0.81	0.78	0.74	0.72	0.7	0.69	0.67	0.63	0.6	0.56	0.22
	55th	1.04	1.01	0.98	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.88	0.84	0.82	0.76	0.71	0.37
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.87	0.84	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.75	0.73	0.7	0.66	0.61	0.52	0.27
	55th	1.04	1.01	0.98	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.86	0.83	0.77	0.7	0.49
Item 14	Clothing											
West Bengal	50th	8.19	4.77	5.14	3.51	3.04	3.01	2.72	2.25	2.06	1.7	1.59	1.58
	55th	1.01	1	1	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.91
Maharashtra	50th	5.13	4.16	3.94	3.39	4.16	2.38	2.47	2.14	1.82	1.6	1.4	1.35
	55th	1.01	1	1	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.95	0.94	0.91
Tamilnadu	50th	8.24	7.14	4.94	5.84	4.84	4.41	3.11	3.17	2.08	2.07	1.73	1.54
	55th	1.02	1	1	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.88
Uttar pradesh	50th	7.52	5.14	3.85	3.28	2.77	2.22	2.11	1.83	1.71	1.52	1.43	1.43
	55th	1.01	1	1	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.95	0.94	0.9
Item 15	Footwear											
West Bengal	50th	10.17	10.17	10.99	4.13	3.25	3.86	2.95	2.76	2.2	1.95	1.92	1.72
	55th	-6.42	-4.78	-3.13	-0.68	1.06	2.35	3.58	4.83	5.93	8.2	8.5	2.11
Maharashtra	50th	2.68	4.12	3.28	2.95	2.67	2.42	2.33	2.39	2.3	2.17	2	1.9
	55th	-5.82	-2.63	-1.12	0	0.99	1.89	2.61	3.41	4.41	5.98	7.33	12.15
Tamilnadu	50th	6.75	63.56	6.71	4.83	6.64	5.43	5.89	5.1	4.36	3.16	2.89	3
	55th	-12.05	-6.69	-3.04	-0.65	0.99	2.38	4.44	5.93	7.74	9.89	11.36	20.43
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.98	2.91	2.29	1.82	1.97	1.95	1.86	1.65	1.59	1.51	1.44	1.45
	55th	-4.23	-2.37	-1.11	0.14	1	1.73	2.47	3.28	4.2	5.43	7.25	12.4
Item 16	Miscellaneous											
West Bengal	50th	1.03	1.32	1.49	1.63	1.71	1.75	1.8	1.83	1.81	1.86	1.87	1.69
	55th	1.1	1.21	1.27	1.33	1.35	1.37	1.4	1.41	1.41	1.46	1.44	1.5
Maharashtra	50th	0.94	1.14	1.26	1.36	1.44	1.48	1.55	1.59	1.62	1.71	1.78	1.97
	55th	1.05	1.11	1.14	1.17	1.19	1.2	1.22	1.22	1.24	1.24	1.23	1.26
Tamilnadu	50th	0.95	1.23	1.35	1.42	1.49	1.57	1.62	1.64	1.66	1.77	1.73	1.96
	55th	1.05	1.1	1.13	1.16	1.18	1.19	1.2	1.22	1.24	1.24	1.24	1.36
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.98	1.21	1.33	1.43	1.52	1.57	1.63	1.68	1.77	1.79	1.81	1.86
	55th	1.09	1.16	1.19	1.22	1.25	1.28	1.3	1.3	1.33	1.34	1.38	1.38

Item 17	Durable goods												
West Bengal	50th	-5.56	0.27	1.96	1.76	2.24	2.11	2.37	2.69	2.74	2.65	2.73	1.87
	55th	66.96	1.84	1.8	1.69	1.64	1.57	1.53	1.48	1.43	1.34	1.25	1.1
Maharashtra	50th	-3.24	0.45	1.56	2.08	3.01	3.04	2.91	2.23	2.63	2.24	2.46	1.38
	55th	44.76	37.48	28.5	22.65	22.4	17.6	13.18	11.58	8.47	5.71	3.87	1.61
Tamilnadu	50th	1.55	1.55	1.55	1.55	1.55	2.65	9.12	6.47	37.33	20.43	8.48	20.71
	55th	37.08	25.86	34.28	20.21	21.82	14.79	15.51	12.61	13.71	6.84	4.82	1.55
Uttar Pradesh	50th	-1.33	0.34	1.55	1.99	2.2	2.46	3.14	2.74	3.13	2.97	4.33	1.22
	55th	14.98	13.76	14.28	11.29	10.7	10.2	8.98	8.03	6.82	5.21	3.39	1.6

*Twelve MPCE classes for rural sector in 50th round are: ‘less than 120’, ‘120-140’, ‘140-165’, ‘165-190’, ‘190-210’, ‘210-235’, ‘235-265’,‘265-300’, ‘300-355’, ‘355-455’, ‘455-560’, ‘560 & above’.

Twelve MPCE classes for rural sector in 55th round are: ‘less than 225’, ‘225-255’, ‘255-300’, ‘300-340’, ‘340-380’, ‘380-420’, ‘4200-470’, ‘470-525’, ‘525-615’, ‘615-775’, ‘775-950’, ‘950 & above’.

Table A2: Income elasticities for 50th and 55th rounds by states and all India, urban

Item/State	round	MPCE classes*											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
item 1		Cereals, gram, cereal substitutes											
West Bengal	50th	0.08	0.83	0.77	0.71	0.63	0.54	0.44	0.31	0	-0.38	-0.87	-2.49
	55th	0.38	0.39	0.37	0.36	0.28	0.26	0.22	0.17	0.12	0.04	-0.06	0.05
Maharashtra	50th	0.78	0.71	0.62	0.55	0.47	0.36	0.24	0.06	-0.18	-0.56	-1.2	-3.3
	55th	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.04	0.03	0.03	-0.06	-0.1	-0.15	-0.27	-0.38	-0.25
Tamilnadu	50th	0.85	0.75	0.69	0.64	0.57	0.5	0.37	0.27	0.03	-0.26	-0.83	-3.05
	55th	-0.1	-0.05	-0.04	-0.04	-0.05	-0.04	-0.02	-0.02	-0.06	-0.06	0.01	0.29
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.83	0.75	0.66	0.58	0.47	0.32	0.19	-0.04	-0.31	-0.77	-1.5	-3.38
	55th	0.16	0.17	0.08	0.05	0	-0.01	-0.09	-0.15	-0.25	-0.27	-0.38	-0.43
item 2		Pulses and products											
West Bengal	50th	1	0.93	0.88	0.85	0.8	0.75	0.71	0.63	0.5	0.32	0.14	-0.79
	55th	0.81	0.82	0.78	0.75	0.72	0.69	0.64	0.62	0.53	0.36	0.19	-0.68
Maharashtra	50th	1	0.97	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.86	0.83	0.78	0.71	0.59	0.4	-0.08
	55th	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.85	0.82	0.8	0.77	0.74	0.69	0.58	0.41	-0.09
Tamilnadu	50th	1.02	0.96	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.85	0.82	0.8	0.74	0.65	0.46	-0.11
	55th	0.9	0.89	0.86	0.85	0.83	0.81	0.79	0.77	0.72	0.65	0.59	-0.28
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1	0.96	0.94	0.92	0.89	0.86	0.82	0.78	0.71	0.61	0.43	-0.09
	55th	0.89	0.88	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.82	0.79	0.75	0.7	0.62	0.5	0.09
item 3		Milk and milk product											
West Bengal	50th	5.72	3.27	2.68	2.11	1.74	1.58	1.45	1.31	1.17	1.01	0.83	0.4
	55th	3.53	3.4	2.65	2.22	1.98	1.68	1.44	1.31	1.19	1.05	0.89	0.18
Maharashtra	50th	2.43	2.21	1.74	1.57	1.48	1.39	1.29	1.2	1.12	1	0.89	0.59
	55th	2.41	1.9	1.68	1.55	1.51	1.37	1.29	1.22	1.14	1.03	0.92	0.58
Tamilnadu	50th	3.39	2.53	2.18	1.89	1.63	1.5	1.42	1.27	1.16	1.01	0.84	0.11
	55th	2.24	2.12	1.85	1.58	1.56	1.39	1.34	1.24	1.15	1.04	0.91	-0.35
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.95	1.76	1.54	1.42	1.33	1.26	1.2	1.13	1.08	1.01	0.92	0.68
	55th	1.69	1.6	1.47	1.37	1.33	1.26	1.2	1.16	1.09	1.02	0.93	0.73
item 4		Edible oil											
Maharashtra	50th	0.97	0.94	0.92	0.91	0.89	0.87	0.85	0.81	0.78	0.71	0.59	0.27
	55th	0.8	0.78	0.77	0.77	0.74	0.72	0.72	0.69	0.66	0.57	0.49	0.09
Tamilnadu	50th	0.96	0.9	0.87	0.84	0.81	0.79	0.74	0.73	0.66	0.57	0.43	-0.19
	55th	0.72	0.69	0.66	0.64	0.61	0.59	0.55	0.53	0.47	0.37	0.33	-0.85
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.95	0.91	0.88	0.86	0.83	0.81	0.77	0.73	0.68	0.57	0.4	-0.01
	55th	0.74	0.72	0.71	0.69	0.69	0.68	0.65	0.64	0.56	0.47	0.28	0.02

item 5	Meat, egg and fish											
West Bengal	50th	2.48	1.94	1.63	1.51	1.38	1.28	1.21	1.11	1.01	0.88	0.7	0.34
	55th	1.77	1.52	1.42	1.29	1.22	1.16	1.09	1.03	0.95	0.84	0.71	0.15
Maharashtra	50th	3.03	2.3	2.13	1.86	1.72	1.55	1.35	1.22	1.02	0.69	0.2	-1.12
	55th	2.01	1.81	1.71	1.61	1.44	1.3	1.22	1.06	0.87	0.55	0.03	-1.65
Uttar Pradesh	50th	4.01	3.08	2.08	2.12	2	1.78	1.79	1.45	1.05	0.28	-0.97	-3.86
	55th	3.26	2.51	2.22	1.96	1.89	1.57	1.42	1.12	0.71	0.11	-0.67	-2.52
item 6	Vegetables											
West Bengal	50th	0.84	0.8	0.79	0.76	0.72	0.72	0.69	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.28	-0.18
	55th	0.78	0.77	0.76	0.73	0.69	0.67	0.63	0.62	0.52	0.44	0.24	-0.35
Maharashtra	50th	0.76	0.72	0.67	0.66	0.63	0.59	0.58	0.52	0.47	0.34	0.14	-0.31
	55th	0.67	0.63	0.62	0.61	0.59	0.59	0.54	0.5	0.45	0.31	0.17	-0.39
Tamilnadu	50th	0.83	0.74	0.71	0.69	0.64	0.6	0.51	0.49	0.33	0.23	-0.01	-1.17
	55th	0.71	0.73	0.68	0.65	0.63	0.56	0.51	0.49	0.39	0.31	0.22	-0.69
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.81	0.75	0.73	0.71	0.67	0.62	0.56	0.55	0.46	0.38	0.25	-0.21
	55th	0.7	0.68	0.65	0.63	0.61	0.6	0.57	0.51	0.44	0.37	0.19	-0.16
item 7	Fruits fresh, fruits dry											
West Bengal	50th	2.99	2.83	2.26	2.16	1.91	1.77	1.62	1.56	1.44	1.32	1.25	1.2
	55th	4.8	3.84	3.75	2.81	2.21	2.06	1.83	1.57	1.43	1.3	1.18	0.95
Maharashtra	50th	1.79	1.6	1.48	1.44	1.41	1.36	1.32	1.27	1.27	1.21	1.15	1.11
	55th	2.24	1.94	1.76	1.62	1.59	1.46	1.39	1.34	1.28	1.21	1.13	0.99
Tamilnadu	50th	1.85	1.64	1.59	1.57	1.52	1.44	1.43	1.38	1.35	1.31	1.21	1.21
	55th	1.99	1.82	1.74	1.61	1.59	1.53	1.49	1.38	1.34	1.26	1.21	0.75
Uttar Pradesh	50th	2.23	2.04	1.74	1.61	1.48	1.46	1.41	1.33	1.31	1.22	1.18	1.13
	55th	2.76	2.31	1.92	1.9	1.77	1.69	1.48	1.36	1.31	1.2	1.12	1.02
item 8	Sugar											
West Bengal	50th	0.99	0.93	0.9	0.88	0.85	0.81	0.79	0.75	0.66	0.57	0.48	0.08
	55th	0.86	0.82	0.8	0.78	0.76	0.74	0.7	0.69	0.64	0.57	0.49	-0.02
Maharashtra	50th	0.99	0.98	0.96	0.94	0.93	0.91	0.87	0.85	0.79	0.72	0.6	0.27
	55th	0.92	0.91	0.9	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.8	0.76	0.73	0.65	0.52	0.09
Tamilnadu	50th	1.01	0.93	0.89	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.79	0.77	0.72	0.63	0.5	-0.24
	55th	0.87	0.8	0.78	0.78	0.73	0.73	0.69	0.66	0.6	0.52	0.46	-0.46
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.99	0.97	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.9	0.89	0.87	0.81	0.76	0.66	0.36
	55th	0.91	0.9	0.89	0.87	0.86	0.85	0.84	0.8	0.77	0.71	0.63	0.41

item 9	Salt											
West Bengal	50th	0.59	0.57	0.52	0.51	0.49	0.48	0.47	0.44	0.41	0.36	0.28	0.05
	55th	0.72	0.69	0.68	0.67	0.64	0.61	0.59	0.51	0.43	0.23	-0.01	-0.64
Maharashtra	50th	0.49	0.39	0.4	0.38	0.36	0.3	0.28	0.23	0.24	0.11	-0.04	-0.22
	55th	0.74	0.64	0.63	0.57	0.51	0.52	0.51	0.38	0.32	0.07	-0.2	-1.22
Tamilnadu	50th	0.37	0.29	0.26	0.29	0.24	0.19	0.12	0.11	-0.01	-0.06	-0.23	-0.66
	55th	0.73	0.68	0.63	0.58	0.52	0.46	0.51	0.34	0.26	-0.01	-0.19	-2.1
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.45	0.36	0.33	0.25	0.23	0.25	0.19	0.29	0.17	0.14	0.05	-0.21
	55th	0.68	0.61	0.61	0.56	0.53	0.45	0.43	0.32	0.24	0.11	-0.34	-0.91
item 10	Spices											
West Bengal	50th	0.84	0.81	0.79	0.79	0.77	0.75	0.72	0.68	0.62	0.59	0.55	0.28
	55th	0.81	0.8	0.79	0.75	0.75	0.69	0.63	0.63	0.51	0.41	0.25	-0.46
Maharashtra	50th	0.89	0.86	0.84	0.83	0.81	0.77	0.74	0.71	0.67	0.55	0.41	0.1
	55th	0.88	0.86	0.8	0.75	0.74	0.71	0.65	0.59	0.52	0.39	0.22	-0.38
Tamilnadu	50th	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.87	0.85	0.82	0.8	0.76	0.7	0.57	0.17
	55th	0.92	0.91	0.89	0.87	0.86	0.82	0.8	0.78	0.73	0.67	0.55	0.83
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.89	0.85	0.85	0.82	0.81	0.77	0.76	0.72	0.66	0.6	0.49	0.22
	55th	0.87	0.83	0.81	0.78	0.75	0.71	0.67	0.64	0.55	0.47	0.24	-0.15
item 11	Beverages											
West Bengal	50th	2.98	2.89	2.47	2.38	1.98	1.88	1.63	1.44	1.29	1.19	1.12	0.93
	55th	0.66	0.98	1.23	1.39	1.48	1.5	1.7	1.73	1.75	1.79	2.07	1.61
Maharashtra	50th	2.66	2.45	2.12	1.96	1.83	1.75	1.63	1.48	1.38	1.23	1.11	0.92
	55th	0.75	0.99	1.16	1.29	1.45	1.56	1.63	1.77	1.72	1.72	1.86	2.26
Tamilnadu	50th	2.06	1.78	1.67	1.67	1.66	1.6	1.44	1.43	1.32	1.25	1.09	0.87
	55th	0.87	1	1.1	1.21	1.26	1.39	1.46	1.52	1.59	1.68	2.02	3.6
Uttar Pradesh	50th	3.81	3.24	2.68	2.28	2.24	1.92	1.8	1.72	1.5	1.3	1.14	0.89
	55th	0.62	0.99	1.19	1.35	1.52	1.56	1.62	1.69	1.82	2.07	2.11	2.4
item 12	Pan, tobacco and intoxicants											
West Bengal	50th	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.95
	55th	0.88	0.9	0.88	0.88	0.9	0.89	0.89	0.9	0.91	0.9	0.92	0.92
Maharashtra	50th	1.03	1.02	1.02	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.95	0.92
	55th	0.9	0.83	0.87	0.87	0.9	0.86	0.88	0.85	0.85	0.86	0.86	0.85
Tamilnadu	50th	1.04	1.02	1.02	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.95	0.82
	55th	0.81	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.89	0.86	0.88	0.87	0.88	0.88	0.86	0.75
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.03	1.02	1.02	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.87
	55th	0.89	0.89	0.87	0.89	0.9	0.9	0.88	0.88	0.89	0.87	0.88	0.82

item 13	Fuel and light												
West Bengal	50th	0.94	0.9	0.87	0.85	0.83	0.82	0.78	0.73	0.7	0.62	0.54	0.23
	55th	1.16	1.11	1.06	1.02	0.99	0.96	0.92	0.89	0.84	0.77	0.69	0.29
Maharashtra	50th	0.94	0.9	0.87	0.85	0.81	0.77	0.75	0.71	0.66	0.58	0.49	0.29
	55th	1.17	1.11	1.07	1.03	0.99	0.95	0.91	0.86	0.8	0.69	0.58	0.31
Tamilnadu	50th	0.95	0.89	0.86	0.83	0.81	0.78	0.75	0.72	0.66	0.56	0.43	-0.21
	55th	1.17	1.11	1.07	1.03	0.99	0.95	0.9	0.85	0.79	0.69	0.57	0.82
Uttar Pradesh	50th	0.94	0.9	0.88	0.86	0.83	0.79	0.75	0.72	0.63	0.57	0.47	0.07
	55th	1.16	1.1	1.06	1.02	0.99	0.95	0.92	0.86	0.79	0.7	0.53	0.23
item 14	Clothing												
West Bengal	50th	4.96	4.45	2.89	2.57	2.39	2.05	1.73	1.69	1.66	1.67	1.58	1.4
	55th	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.87
Maharashtra	50th	7.77	5.45	4.94	5.68	3.00	3.05	2.23	2.01	1.89	1.58	1.72	1.6
	55th	1.03	1.01	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.91	0.84
Tamilnadu	50th	13.54	21.21	4.98	3.78	2.66	2.54	1.85	2.00	1.67	1.43	1.5	1.37
	55th	1.04	1.03	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.94	0.92	0.9	0.67
Uttar Pradesh	50th	3.86	2.68	2.69	2.26	2.09	1.94	1.71	1.68	1.48	1.55	1.38	1.28
	55th	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.91	0.88
item 15	Footwear												
West Bengal	50th	0	3.58	2.49	2.51	2.01	2.45	2.42	1.75	2.01	2.07	1.89	1.62
	55th	1.78	1.79	1.52	1.48	1.34	1.3	1.22	1.17	1.11	1.04	0.96	0.73
Maharashtra	50th	2.03	2.9	1.89	3.07	2.6	2.16	2.5	2.17	2.21	2.4	2.19	2.38
	55th	1.67	1.5	1.43	1.35	1.29	1.24	1.21	1.15	1.11	1.04	0.96	0.76
Tamilnadu	50th	4.83	7.91	3	3.95	6.1	3.27	3.34	2.82	2.59	2.8	1.93	2.59
	55th	2.28	1.98	1.82	1.67	1.59	1.44	1.32	1.24	1.15	1.05	0.95	0.07
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.66	1.37	1.6	2.01	1.7	2.02	1.64	1.72	1.6	1.55	1.47	1.65
	55th	1.5	1.42	1.33	1.3	1.25	1.22	1.17	1.14	1.09	1.03	0.95	0.82
item 16	Miscellaneous												
West Bengal	50th	2.04	1.87	1.89	1.77	1.7	1.62	1.61	1.56	1.49	1.45	1.4	1.38
	55th	1.61	1.79	1.77	1.75	1.79	1.73	1.69	1.67	1.63	1.62	1.56	1.5
Maharashtra	50th	1.62	1.63	1.6	1.6	1.55	1.5	1.5	1.48	1.46	1.43	1.39	1.36
	55th	1.4	1.44	1.47	1.47	1.46	1.48	1.46	1.46	1.47	1.46	1.47	1.49
Tamilnadu	50th	1.61	1.64	1.62	1.61	1.56	1.55	1.51	1.48	1.44	1.4	1.4	1.37
	55th	1.33	1.37	1.38	1.42	1.43	1.43	1.44	1.47	1.44	1.44	1.42	1.58
Uttar Pradesh	50th	1.74	1.68	1.67	1.6	1.6	1.53	1.51	1.49	1.43	1.43	1.44	1.41
	55th	1.43	1.57	1.64	1.67	1.61	1.63	1.61	1.6	1.55	1.57	1.5	1.53

item 17	Durable goods												
West Bengal	50th	-16.04	-4.19	-1.56	-1.76	0.87	2.34	2.2	3.51	4.55	4.12	6.07	1.93
	55th	0.39	0.61	0.69	0.81	1.02	1.3	1.29	1.62	1.58	1.57	1.86	1.78
Maharashtra	50th	-5.72	-3.64	-1.67	0.03	0.81	1.52	2.42	2.07	2.21	2.61	2.81	1.69
	55th	0.01	0.21	0.52	0.86	1.02	1.12	1.23	1.22	1.31	1.26	1.27	1.2
Tamilnadu	50th	-47.74	-6.63	-3.58	-1.00	0.68	2.29	2.9	2.93	2.68	3.91	2.22	1.5
	55th	-0.06	0.43	0.75	0.89	1.02	1.12	1.23	1.33	1.38	1.46	1.39	1.72
Uttar Pradesh	50th	-12.25	-4.02	-2.19	-0.57	0.66	1.5	1.78	2.47	3.83	2.56	2.51	1.61
	55th	0.21	0.37	0.69	0.88	1.01	1.11	1.19	1.23	1.32	1.21	1.31	1.25

*Twelve MPCE classes (in Rs.) for urban sector in 50th round are: 'below 160', '160-190', '190-230', '230-265', '265-310', '310-355', '355-410', '410-490', '490-605', '605-825', '825-1055', '1055& above'.

Twelve MPCE classes for urban sector in 55th round are: '000-300', '300-350', '350-425', '425-500', '500-575', '575-665', '665-775', '775-915', '915-1120', '1120-1500', '1500-1925', '1925 & above'.

Occupation and Income Mobility in India: Evidences from Recent NSSO Surveys

- Jhilam Ray[1] & Rajarshi Majumder[2]

Abstract

In case of developing countries an important objective is to improve the living conditions of workers and India is no exception to this. The root of this lies in improvement in income level which depends on occupational status and returns from work, or wage level. Though most studies compare occupational levels & wages at different points of time from cross-sectional data, they provide an aggregative view without control for variables that are particular to the household/ family. Contrary to this, intergenerational mobility in income/Occupation following life cycle theory observes direction & quantum of movement of workers' wage relative to their parents, therefore filtering out household characteristics, and providing better measure of workers' conditions and its trends over time. The issue of equality is also related to intergenerational wage mobility. Historically some groups are belonging to lower strata of society due to economic and or social discrimination which excluded them from the process of capability formation and income-earning. As a result Intergenerational Mobility is very low among backward classes. This paper uses both the transitional matrix approach and intergenerational income regression model to find intergenerational occupational and income mobility, desegregated across social classes. We observe that occupational mobility and wage income mobility between generations have been generally low in India. Though such stickiness over generations is declining over time, especially in the post-reform period, stickiness is still higher for excluded classes. Improvement over the last decade has occurred mainly for the scheduled castes but not for the tribals who are much more spatially isolated and hence outside the orbit of economic dynamics.

Key Words: Intergenerational Income Mobility, Wage differential, Social Discrimination
JEL Codes: J62, J31

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1. Introduction

In case of developing countries an important objective is to improve the living conditions of workers and India is no exception to this. Several policies have been taken over time to safeguard interest of workers and to provide decent conditions of work. The root of this lies in improvement in occupational status and increase in income level which depends on returns from work, or wage level. While non-wage aspects are also important, wage level is the most pertinent indicator of condition of workers and increase in real wage level signals improvement in condition of labour market. Though most studies compare wages at different points of time from cross-sectional data, they provide an aggregative view without control for variables that are particular to the household/ family. Contrary to this, intergenerational mobility in wage income following life cycle theory observes direction & quantum of movement of workers' wage relative to their parents, therefore filtering out household characteristics, and providing better measure of workers' conditions and its trends over time. Another important aspect that can be explored by looking at intergenerational wage mobility is related to the issue of equality. Stickiness of wage income with respect to parental income leads to persistence of income inequality across generations and questions the notional objective of equity in opportunity and openness of any society. Historically some groups belong to lower strata of society due to economic and or social discrimination leading to lower income and asset possession as well as capability formation which excluded them from the process of capability formation and income-earning. This exclusion and backwardness surpass the boundary of the current generation and spills over to successive generations as well. As a result Intergenerational Mobility is very low among backward classes. With the modernization of society, as the premium on education and skill has increased immensely, not only India but the developed countries have also experienced absolute decline in wage income for the less skilled workers. After the opening of the economy nature of job market has changed – on the one hand access to new form of job has increased with higher return to human capital, and on the other hand with squeezing of formal sector in India the gap between top of the wage distribution and bottom has increased. Also of importance is to enquire whether economic liberalization and structural reforms have had any impact on the intergenerational income mobility – are workers today more better off than their parents compared to workers in the 1990s?

In this context the paper tries to find out the relationship between a person's current occupation and wage income with his family background, more specifically the parental income and occupational status. The moot questions that have been addressed in this paper are – whether occupational status and income levels have improved over generation; and, whether there is any social discrimination in occupational mobility and wage income mobility. We have concentrated on wage income to link this issue of income mobility with the labour market – to reflect the trends in wage income and labour market situation. The paper thus throws light on a hitherto neglected area of research in Indian labour market studies – intergenerational occupational mobility and income mobility, desegregated across social classes and comparing pre-reform and post-reform results.

2. Review of Literature

Studies on Intergenerational transmission of occupational characteristics have mostly followed two methodological approaches. The first type cross tabulates the individual characteristics with those of their parents and computes a Mobility Matrix, based on which proportion of people exhibiting Upward Mobility (children having higher educational/occupational position compared to their parents) are calculated. Starting with Driver (1962), this method has been used by Erikson and Goldthorpe (1992, 2002), Cheng et al (1995), Biblarz et. al(1996), Kumar (2002), Behrman et al (2001), Beller and Hout (2006), and Louw et al (2006). This is basically a descriptive approach without analysing the impact of other variables on such transmission. When computed separately across social groups, it provides measures of upward mobility for each of them, which can then be compared. However, this method is unable to bring out the causal relation between parental educational and occupational status and that of the children objectively when several other possible explanatory factors are present. This gives rise to the second method which is more rigorous in nature and typically regress child's occupational characteristics on those of the parents along with a set of other control variables. The coefficients of parental characteristics will give us a measure of intergenerational inertia in our dependent variable. A high coefficient will denote low mobility while a low coefficient will represent high mobility. Apart from OLS Regression, Logistic Regression and Correlation has also been used to objectively measure parental influence on children's achievement level using this method. Researchers using this methodology include Behrman and Wolfe (1984), Solon (1992), Peters (1992), Gang and Zimmermann (1999), Bowles and Gintis (2002), Bourguignon (2003), Black et al (2003), Checchi et al (2008), and Brown et al (2009). While the Mobility Matrix method has been used mostly for case studies when achievement levels are discrete categories in hierarchically ordered classes (e.g. occupational category), the Regression/Correlation method has been used when a large dataset has been available and achievement levels are measured in continuous scale (e.g. income or completed years of schooling). Though the regression/correlation approach has been in favour in recent times, it is sometimes criticised on the ground that the association between parental and children's achievements is non-linear over the achievements range of parents and hence cannot be truly captured by this method (Bjorklund and Jantti, 2000).

There is a substantial literature on intergenerational income mobility, mostly from developed countries [see Solon (1999) for a good review]. Researchers like Becker & Tom (1979), Solon (1992), Bjorklund&Jantti (1997), Buron (1994), Couch &Lillard (1994), Eide& Showalter (1997), Mulligan (1997), Minicozzi (1997) have tried to find out intergenerational income elasticity for USA data [see Mazumder (2001) for a brief review]. Black and Devereux (2010) in their vast review work discussed recent developments in intergenerational mobility. According to them after works of Garry Solon (1999) literature on intergenerational mobility has taken a new turn. Earlier research emphasis was on finding estimates of correlation /elasticities, but recent emphasis is on causal relation and mechanism of transmission of intergenerational persistence. Research works, especially from the sociological standpoint have also tried to find optimal amount of intergenerational mobility, arguing that zero intergenerational stickiness may not be optimal. According to Solon (2004) affluent parents invest more on child's education (human capital) and hence zero intergenerational persistence implies no return to human capital investment, which

will be suboptimal / unnatural in a market economy. It is acceptable that earning/ reward from higher human capital must be higher, otherwise motivation/ incentive / efficiency will be low. But social structure/ institutional arrangement should not be such that achievement of higher human capital depends only on high private investment. In that case it is not equality of opportunity. So if intergenerational correlation is due to variation in private investment in human capital there is need for government intervention in providing and or financing education.

It is however observed that though a plethora of work has been done at the international level, especially in the developed countries context, the area has remained under-focussed in Indian economic research except few likes Driver (1962), Kumar et al (2002a, 2002b), Majumder (2010), Maitra and Sharma (2009), Ray & Majumder (2010,), Motiram & Singh (2012)]. Only one recent work (Hnatkovska et al, 2013) has explored intergenerational income mobility. While one of the major reasons has been absence of pan-generation data on income and allied factors, it is also true that the issue of intergenerational mobility has not been explored sufficiently in Indian context. The present paper attempts to fill this void in Indian economic literature.

3. Database and Methodology

The study has used the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) database on employment and unemployment (unit level records) for the 50th, 61st and 66th Rounds, pertaining to the years 1993, 2004, and 2009 respectively. Family records have been superimposed on personal records so as to obtain multi-generational data on education, occupation, earnings and other socio-economic parameters. Thereafter, the data has been processed to provide us with the necessary information on intergenerational mobility in terms of wage income separately for different social classes. Only male persons aged 20 years or above have been included in our study to allow them to complete the full educational cycle.

A note on the database seems necessary at this point. NSSO data for 1993 distinguishes between STs, SCs, and Others (whom we call General Caste or GEN), while the 2004 data provides information for OBCs separately from the GENs. Thus, there are some comparability problems in the data, which are, however, not insurmountable. With this background, we now explore the situation.

We are more interested in examining how children's occupation is related to parental standards. More specifically, we want to quantify the degree of intergenerational upward mobility in occupation. This would be given by the percentage of children moving to a higher occupational class as compared to their parents. In literature this is done by following the Transition/Mobility Matrix approach or the Regression approach. We have applied the former in this paper.

In studying intergenerational income mobility, basic objective is to examine whether current generation workers are earning more than their parents, after controlling for factors like age, experience, etc.

We may simply compute some form of wage income of parents and children, filtering out the effects of age, experience, etc. After that we may examine whether the children's Isolated Wage

(wage post-filtering) is higher than parent's Isolated Wage. If the child's wage is higher (lower) than that of the parent by a specific margin (say 10%), we infer that across generation upward (downward) income mobility has occurred. Otherwise, no mobility has been exhibited. This gives us a measure of absolute income mobility.

On the other, Correlation coefficient between log of parent's income and child income may also be another measure of intergenerational stickiness, and its complimentary a measure of mobility.IGE and correlation may be same if the standard deviation of log earning is same for both parent and child. Elasticity can be higher in one society than in another because the variance in child's generation is higher in that society. IGE estimation is suitable than Correlation method for practical purpose because it is not biased by measurement error in Y_1.

One practical problem in measuring IGE is that ideally the regressor and the regressand should be permanent incomes, which is very difficult to observe. This necessitates the computation of a synthetic variable which we call isolated wage, of both parents and children. It is assumed that this new variable would have same measurement error across generations and hence β will be unbiased.

We have used the first method for examining intergenerational income mobility in Indian labour market. In order to measure income mobility we have used weekly wage data and restricted our study to the male workers only. Since our database is at household level, this means that we have used only those pair of data where both father-son (only male) are currently employed against wage, i.e. Wage Employed (Worked as regular salaried/wage employee, Worked as casual wage labour in public works, Worked as casual wage labour in other types of works, Did not work due to sickness but had regular salaried/ wage employment, Did not work due to other reasons but had regular salaried wage employment).

4. Occupational Hierarchy in India

One of the major factors affecting income distribution is the hierarchical structure of different occupations and the occupational distribution of the workers. Occupational segregation leads to perpetuation and also the accentuation of income inequality over generations. Therefore, examining the occupational distribution of workers becomes an important issue. We have used the Indian NCO-1968 classification in our study and workers have been divided into ten occupational classes. Arranged in descending order of hierarchy and prestige, these are: Technical and Scientific Personnel, Professionals, Administrative, Clerical, Sales, Service, Farmers, Production-related, Transport, and Labourers not elsewhere classified. Occupational structure and mobility are discussed in terms of this structure. At the second level, we have clubbed similar occupations to form three broad groups – Grade-I (White Collar jobs—Technical and Scientific Personnel, Professionals, and Administrative); Grade-II (Pink Collar jobs—Clerical, Sales, and Service); and Grade-III (Blue Collar jobs— Farmers, Production-related workers, Transport workers, and Labourers not elsewhere classified). This hierarchical structure has also been used in our study.

a) Detailed Occupation Groups

When we look at the detail occupational attainment level in India the two occupational classes' viz. farmers and production related workers are the ones where majority of the workers are engaged at present. In 2009 nearly 43% of all workers are employed in production related works whereas 31.8% of them are farmers. All the others classes (Technical, professionals, Administrative, clerical, sales, service, Transport) comprise of 3-5 % of workers. Such pattern signifies existence of inequality in Indian job market as the bulk segment of workers are in the lower rung of the occupational ladder whereas only few of them have acquired the skill to achieve the top most jobs. The changes in the labour market during last two decades happen to be the falling proportional share of farmers (from 42% in 1993 to 31% in 2009) on the one hand and the conglomeration of workers in the production related working class on the other .This fall in the first case is the usual pattern of change in occupational composition with the process of development of economy whereas as the occurrence of second case deserve much more importance in Indian context. The percentage share of the class was only 19.4% in 1993 which reduced to 16% in 2004 and again has increased to 43% in 2009 indicating growth of informal sector.

The proportion of workers at the lowest category viz. labourers not classified is presently insignificant (only 0.1%) which was 3.6% during 1993.

The classification of workers across social groups gives some vital findings. In 1993, among the tribals, proportion of farmers was 65% which increased to 76% in 2004 and declines sharply to 43% in 2009 indicating **major displacement** or **loss of cultivable** land by the tribal groups or withdrawal from cultivation resulting from high cost of cultivation? The question is which occupational class has absorbed this shift of occupation by the ST groups from farming? Only 11% of tribals were engaged in production related works in 1993 whereas the corresponding figures are 7.9% only in 2004 and 46% in 2009 implicating that shifting from farming has occurred to this class mainly as wage workers in cultivation or manufacturing, which is supportive of the notion of displacement/dispossession of the tribals in recent times.

Similar trend can be observed for SC and OBC groups. In 1993 nearly 50% of SC workers were farmers and 21 % of them were in production related activities. In 2009, the proportionate share of farmers among SCs reduced to only 21% and that of production related workers mounted to 63%. In 2004 the proportion of workers engaged as farmers for the OBC groups was 57% which reduced to 34% in 2009. The workers of the same group are also concentrated in production related class in 2009. On the other hand though the advanced group experienced similar trend in occupation change with falling proportion of workers as farmer but the size of fall is much lower when compared to the size of the same of excluded class. Again for the advance class also the major increase in proportion of occupational attainment is associated with production related class.

The proportion of workers engaged in high skill and service related sector are much lower for the excluded class compared to advanced class which will also be clear later when they are classified in broad occupational segment. The proportion among ST/SC groups in all such classes (viz. Technical, professionals, Administrative, clerical, sales, service) are very low (1% - 5 %) and also declined slightly over the period 1993-2009. Obviously the same for advanced class is higher

and showed an increasing trend in classes like Technical, professionals, Administrative whereas for sales category the proportion reduced for them during 1993-2009.

b) Broad Occupational Pattern

It is observed that the workers of the excluded classes are much more concentrated in the Grade-III jobs as compared to the advanced classes, while the proportion of the latter in Grade-I jobs is unduly large. Some improvements are observed over time and across generations whereby the proportion of excluded class workers in higher occupation classes is increasing. However, the rate of improvement is much more pronounced for the advanced classes. Moreover, the share of workers in Grade III jobs has increased for the parents and the daughters belonging to the SCs. Thus, occupational segregation and occupational stickiness among the excluded classes is very much a reality in India.

If we assess age groups instead of biological generations, a similar picture emerges. Moving from the population aged 40+ to that in the age group of 20-40 years, in 2004, there was a marginal upward movement among the OBCs, while for the STs, there was a tendency towards concentration in mid-level occupations. For the SCs, there is a clear downward movement with the proportion of Blue Collar workers increasing in both the age groups.

5. Occupational Mobility in India

As we are more interested in examining how children's occupation are related to parental standards. More specifically, we want to quantify the degree of intergenerational upward mobility in occupation. This would be given by the percentage of children moving to a higher occupational class as compared to their parents

Occupational attainment is quite sticky across generations, with upward mobility being only about 13-16 per cent during the study period (Table 1). That means only one-seventh of the children are able to move up of occupational ladder compare to their father. Though mobility slightly improved during the period 1993-2004 but it again decreases marginally in 2009. This indicates that the high growth of Indian economy during the period unable to reduce the persistence of parental influence on child future outcome. The mobility of boys and girls were more or less similar in 1993 which improved for the boys in 2004 compared to girls and decreases for them in 2009. The mobility among girls for all the social classes is higher than boys in 2009. However for the advanced groups this difference is much higher indicating a wider acceptability of women's employment in diversified occupational positions and also higher aspirations among the present generation of women in the advanced classes. However, much of this mobility is perceived to be at a comparable hierarchical level and grade level stickiness is observed to be much higher when viewed at the broad occupational levels (Grade-I: White Colour, Grade-II: Pink, Grade-III: Blue colour). Only about one-tenth of the workers had better occupational grades as compared to those of their parents during the study period (Table 2). The mobility figure at the broad occupational level showed no sign of improvement over the period.

Mobility among excluded classes is lower than that for advanced classes, indicating greater intergenerational stickiness for them. The gap between advanced group and schedule castes have reduced over time whereas the gap in mobility between scheduled tribes and advanced class have increased, indicating that very few of the tribal children able to climb up the occupational ladder in post reform era.

Quite surprisingly, mobility is higher among people of the older age group people as compared to the younger age group. This may be due to various reasons. First, this may be a reflection of the lower initial or parental occupational levels of the people currently in the 40+ age group as compared to those in the 20-40 year age group, whose parents have already higher occupational levels. Hence, upward mobility may be higher for the former as compared to the latter. This higher mobility among 40+ age group is strikingly higher for the girls and more so among the schedule caste group. Second, this may also be because of tighter labour market situations in the post-1990 era whereby chances of vertical mobility have become much more sparse and most of the movements are horizontal among similar occupations.

6. Wage Income Mobility in India: Matrix Approach

As noted earlier, weekly wage of father and child at the time of survey cannot simply be compared because the point of time considered in collecting wage income are different for father and child in their life-cycle. Father's wage will contain impact of age and experience which need to be isolated for both father and children. This kind of impacts shall vary across occupation – some occupation may provide premium to age/ experience (like those engaged in service, administration, technical and professional), other may negatively treat age (manual types of job). So impact isolation must be separately done for each generation and each occupation.

A double isolation method is used here where we create a synthetic variable for both father and child. These Isolated Wage Incomes are derived after controlling for age, experience, and occupation by regressing actual wage income of son (father) on respective Age, Age squared, Age cubic separately for each occupation classification. Using the regression results estimated wage is calculated separately for child and father, providing us with the synthetic variable called Isolated Wage. Let us now examine the results.

Absolute Income Mobility

We define upward mobility if isolated wage of child is higher than that of his father by a specific proportion since a meagre rise in wage for child compared to his father cannot be termed as upward mobility. We accept as upward income mobility if child's wage income is at least 10 per cent higher than his father, whereas if it is 10 per cent lower than his father, downward mobility is said to have occurred. If child's wage income is within 10 per cent above or below that of the father, we considered income mobility to be absent.

It is observed that absolute wage income mobility has been low and only about 22-25 per cent of 20+ male workers have higher wage income than that of their father. On the other hand about two-third of such workers have lower wage income compared to their father, after controlling for

age, experience, occupation, etc., while the rest of them have not shown any noteworthy change. This low upward mobility in absolute wage income figures is consistent over the period 1993 to 2009; rather it decreases by 3 percentage points from 1993 to 2009, though during this period Indian economy grew significantly. It therefore seems that the post-reform period of high economic growth has not been able to improve the condition of the wage workers vis-à-vis their parents by much. If any, majority have had lower status than their parents at comparable position in their life cycle, while the proportion of workers having higher income compared to their parents has declined over this period. This indicates presence of a labour market with low returns from work.

We have summarised the income mobility figures in Table 5 for comparison across methods and time. It is evident that absolute mobility has witnessed a consistent declining trend.

Income Mobility and Social Group

Table 6 gives us the measures of upward mobility figures across different social groups over the period 1993 to 2009. We tried to understand whether modern Indian labour market discriminates against different social groups resulting in different income mobility across social groups. It is observed that over the period of study, upward mobility remains low for all the social groups. Strikingly though, the SCs have enjoyed substantially higher absolute income mobility than the rest in recent years compared to STs.

7. Summary and Conclusion

a) Occupational Mobility

It is evident that upward mobility across generations in India is significantly low for the occupational level. Within that, the position of the excluded classes is even lower. As the studies of Ray & Majumder (2010) & Majumder (2010) revealed that though intergenerational educational mobility comparatively higher than occupational mobility and the educational levels of the second generation are higher than those of their parents in recent times, this is not adequately reflected in occupational mobility matrix. People are stuck in their parental occupational classes, and any movement perceived was mostly among the advanced classes. Regional patterns suggest that mobilities, in general, are lower in many of the lagging states. The relatively lower mobility of the excluded groups is also evident in most of the regions. This lack of upward mobility, especially among the socially excluded classes, is a matter of grave concern. The fact that educational mobility is not being transformed into occupational mobility brings up the possibility of discrimination in the labour market. This also brings to the fore the fact that historical discrimination and social exclusion have had a long run effect and it is very difficult to come out of this inertia. The possible policies to break this sluggishness may include targeted programmes to improve the educational situation among the excluded groups. Encouraging occupational diversification among these groups, most of which continue their traditional family/parental jobs, may be another effective mechanism. Steps must also be taken to check if these groups are facing any discrimination in the labour market and if so, appropriate preventive measures should be adopted. Only then can we have holistic development and true progress of the society in the country.

b) Income Mobility

If look into the results as obtained from calculating Income Mobility, we may infer the following. Stickiness in wage income across generations is substantially high in India and remained so throughout the post-reform period. There have been some improvements for the SC/OBC groups. Mobility rates are therefore low and in can be safely inferred that living conditions of the workers have not improved significantly from their parents during this period. One of the reasons behind higher mobility of excluded classes compare to advanced groups in recent times has been low base wage income of these groups. The labour market thus provides a grim picture in India. Workers' conditions across generations have not been improving satisfactorily, there still exists discrimination across social groups, and returns from wage labour have generally flattened out. This indicate that the last two decades of structural changes and openness in Indian economy may have led to significant macroeconomic growth, it has not contributed significantly in improving overall labour market situation. Intergenerational stickiness is high indicating working of a vicious trap cycle across generations, which is reflected in increasing social inequality. The state should immediately look at this issue and take steps to translate economic growth into a more visible and inclusive improvement in the lives of the working mass.

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Table 1

Table 1a: Upward Occupational Mobility (NOC1) of Different Generations in India- 1993 (%)

Social Group	All Age Group			20-40 Age Group			40+ Age Group		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
SC	7	9	7.6	7	9.1	7.7	2.5	0	1.8
ST	12.6	16.8	13.5	12.6	16.9	13.4	18.7	18	18.5
OBC									
General	13.7	13.2	13.6	13.6	13.2	13.5	19.1	14.8	18.3
Aggregate	12.9	13.1	13	12.9	13.1	12.9	18	13.8	17.1

Table 1b: Upward Occupational Mobility (NOC1) of Different Generations in India-2009

Social Group	All Age Group			20-40 Age Group			40+ Age Group		
	Boys	*Girls*	*All*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*All*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*All*
Scheduled Caste	11.3	15.7	12.0	11.4	15.4	12.1	3.32	44.0	8.7
Scheduled Tribe	7.0	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.1	6.0	7.0	6.1
Other Backward Classes	11.9	15.3	12.5	11.8	15.0	12.3	16.5	30.5	18.3
General/Advanced Class	14.5	28.0	16.6	14.5	28.2	16.5	17.4	23.1	18.3
Aggregate	12.2	17.4	13.1	12.1	17.2	13.0	14.6	27.2	16.4

Source: Author's calculations from NSSO Unit level data of different rounds

Table 2

Table 2a: Upward Occupational Mobility (Occ Gr) of Different Generations in India-1993 (%)

Social Group	All Age Group			20-40 Age Group			40+ Age Group		
	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	All
Scheduled Caste	5	6.4	5.4	5.1	6.5	5.5	2.5	0	1.8
Scheduled Tribe	8	8.7	8.1	7.9	8.7	8.1	17.1	7.5	14.4
Other Backward Classes									
General/Advanced Class	10.7	9.2	10.5	10.6	9.2	10.3	18	12.3	16.9
Aggregate	9.8	8.7	9.6	9.7	8.7	9.5	16.9	10.3	15.6

Table 2b: Upward Occupational Mobility (Broad Occ Group) of Different Generations in India - 2009 (%)

Social Group	All Age Group			20-40 Age Group			40+ Age Group		
	Boys	***Girls***	***All***	***Boys***	***Girls***	***All***	***Boys***	***Girls***	***All***
Scheduled Caste	11.6	8.4	8.3	8.4	7.4	8.2	3.3	44.0	8.7
Scheduled Tribe	8.4	11.6	4.5	4.7	4.1	4.5	3.5	7.0	3.8
Other Backward Classes	9.5	9.5	9.7	9.3	10.2	9.5	15.9	30.7	17.9
General/Advanced Class	11.1	11.1	11.6	10.9	14.6	11.5	16.3	22.2	17.0
Aggregate	9.4	10.2	9.5	9.3	9.8	9.4	13.7	26.6	15.5

Source: Author's calculations from NSSO Unit level data of different rounds

Table 3

Table 3a: Transitional Matrix of Actual Wage in India: 1993

Quintile Group of Father	Quintile Group of Child				
	(Lowest) 1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5 (Topmost)**
(Lowest) 1	14.9	**5.4**	**2.4**	**0.6**	**0.3**
2	5.0	18.4	**4.2**	**0.9**	**0.1**
3	3.0	4.3	12.3	**3.5**	**0.4**
4	2.3	1.8	3.2	6.5	**1.7**
5 (Topmost)	0.7	0.7	0.8	2.5	4.0
Upward Mobility			19.5		
Zero Mobility/Static			56.1		
Downward Mobility			24.5		

Source: Author's calculations;
Note: Bold figures indicate upward movement;

Table 3b: **Transitional Matrix of *Actual Wage* in India: 2009**

Quintile Group of Father	Quintile Group of Child				
	(Lowest) 1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5 (Topmost)**
(Lowest) 1	17.1	**2.7**	**1.1**	**0.5**	**0.3**
2	3.8	19.7	**2.2**	**0.9**	**0.2**
3	2.3	4.0	10.6	**6.5**	**0.7**
4	1.4	2.1	3.3	7.1	**3.1**
5 (Topmost)	0.7	0.5	1.5	2.7	5.4
Upward Mobility			18.1		
Zero Mobility/Static			59.9		
Downward Mobility			22.1		

Source: Author's calculations; *Note:* Bold figures indicate upward movement;

Table 4

Table 4a: Transitional Matrix of *Isolated Wage* in India: 1993

Quintile Group of Father	Quintile Group of Child				
	(Lowest) 1	2	3	4	5 (Topmost)
(Lowest) 1	8.2	**4.3**	**2.4**	**2.4**	**0.8**
2	4.2	11.5	**5.7**	**2.0**	**0.6**
3	3.1	4.3	14.5	**3.5**	**0.6**
4	2.6	2.3	3.1	8.7	**3.5**
5 (Topmost)	1.8	1.2	0.8	1.8	5.9
Upward Mobility	25.9				
Zero Mobility/Static	48.8				
Downward Mobility	25.3				

Source: Author's calculations;
Note: Bold figures indicate upward movement;

Table 4b: Transitional Matrix of *Isolated Wage* in India: 2009

Quintile Group of Father	Quintile Group of Child				
	(Lowest) 1	2	3	4	5 (Topmost)
(Lowest) 1	8.0	**6.4**	**2.0**	**1.9**	**1.2**
2	2.7	12.1	**5.2**	**1.5**	**0.7**
3	1.4	3.6	13.5	**5.6**	**0.5**
4	1.2	1.8	3.0	11.4	**4.3**
5 (Topmost)	1.4	1.2	1.7	2.6	5.1
Upward Mobility	29.3				
Zero Mobility/Static	50.1				
Downward Mobility	20.6				

Source: Author's calculations; *Note:* Bold figures indicate upward movement;

Table 5

Upward Wage Income Mobility in India: 1993-2009

Measures of Mobility	1993	2004	2009
Absolute Mobility – Isolated Wage	25.0	23.1	22.5

Source: Author's calculations;

Table 6

Measures of Upward absolute Wage Income Mobility in India

Social Group	*1993*	*2004*	*2009*
ST	26.8	24.5	21.5
SC	26	22.9	24.6
OBC	NA	22.9	22.9
GEN	24.3	23.4	20.3
All	25	23.1	22.5

Source: Author's calculations;

PART-II

Highlights of some of the Reports Released by NSSO

(The 'Highlights' are reproduced from related reports prepared by Survey Design and Research Division (SDRD) of NSSO. For details, the reader may refer to the related Main Reports)

Highlights of Recent Survey Reports Released by NSSO (Report no. 552 – 561)

In this part of the Journal, Highlights of the reports based on 66th, 68th and 69th Rounds of NSS released after publication of 98th issue of "SARVEKSHANA" are presented. The 66th round survey (July, 2009 – June, 2010) & 68th round survey (July, 2011 – June, 2012) were the eighth and ninth quinquennial surveys respectively on Household Consumer Expenditure and Employment-Unemployment. The earlier quinquennial surveys of NSS on Household Consumer Expenditure and Employment-Unemployment were conducted during 27th, 32th, 38th, 43rd, 50th, 55th and 61st rounds of NSS. Moreover, the 69th round survey (July 2012-December 2012) was on Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene, Housing Conditions (including slums).

The NSS Household Consumer Expenditure survey, in which the data on Household Consumer Expenditure is collected through schedule 1.0, aims at generating estimates of Household Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure (MPCE) and its distribution separately for the rural and urban sectors of the country, for States and Union Territories, and for different socio-economic groups. The information was collected from 7428 villages and 5263 urban blocks during the 66th round and from 7469 villages and 5268 urban blocks in the Central Sample during the 68th round of NSS spread over the entire country. Two different types of schedules, viz., Type-1 and Type-2 were used to collect information on consumer expenditure; the first being canvassed in 100855 households and the second in 100794 households during 66th Round and in 101662 households and the second in 101651 households during 68th Round. Both the schedule types had the same item-wise break-up but different reference periods were used for collection of consumption data. Schedule Type-1, as far as reference period is concerned, was a repeat of the schedule used in most quinquennial rounds. In Type-1 Schedule for certain categories of relatively infrequently purchased items, including clothing and consumer durables, information on consumption is collected both for last 30 days and last 365 days as reference period while for other categories, including all food and fuel and consumer services, it uses a 30-days reference period. Schedule Type-2 uses 'last 365 days' for the infrequently purchased categories, 'last 7 days' for some categories of food items, like pan, tobacco, intoxicants, and 'last 30 days' for other food items; fuel and the rest. In view of this, the estimates of the Household Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure in reports, especially those based on the data collected in this round as per Type-2 Schedule, might not be comparable with those of earlier rounds on Household Consumer Expenditure.

In the survey on Employment and Unemployment, forming part of NSS 66th and 68th round, data on activity status, wages & salary earnings from regular/casual Employment, Educational attainment etc, of individual members of households are collected through Employment-Unemployment Schedule 10 and used for estimation of labour market indicators like Workers participation Rate, Labour Force Participation Rate, Unemployment Rate and Literacy Rate, etc. For NSS 66th round, the survey was spread over 7,402 villages and 5,252 urban blocks covering 1, 00,957 households (59,129 in rural areas and 41,828 in urban areas) and enumerating 4, 59,784 persons (2, 81,327 in rural areas and 1,78,457 in urban areas). For NSS 68th round, the survey was spread over 12,737 FSUs (7,469 villages and 5,268 urban blocks) covering 1, 01,724 households (59,700 in rural areas and 42,024 in urban areas) and enumerating 4,56,999 persons (2,80,763 in rural areas and 1,76,236 in urban areas).

A survey was conducted on Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene, Housing Conditions (including slums) during 69th round of NSS (July, 2012 – December, 2012) to examine and study different aspects of living conditions necessary for decent and healthy living of the household members by developing suitable indicators based upon the collected information. The information was collected from 4,475 villages and 3,522 urban blocks canvassing 53,393 households in rural India and 42,155 households in urban India in the Central Sample.

The highlights of the surveys during 66th, 68th and 69th Rounds of NSS, included in this issue, are taken from following reports:

NSS Report No. 552 - Employment and Unemployment Situation among Major Religious Groups in India
NSS Report No. 553 - Employment and Unemployment Situation in Cities and Towns in India
NSS Report No. 554 - Employment and Unemployment Situation in India
NSS Report No. 555 - Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure, 2011-12
NSS Report No. 556 - Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene, Housing Conditions in India
NSS Report No. 557 - Informal Sector and Conditions of Employment in India, 2011-12
NSS Report No. 558 - Household Consumption of various Goods and Services in India
NSS Report No. 559 - Participation of Women in Specified Activities along with Domestic Duties
NSS Report No. 560 - Nutritional Intake in India, 2011-12
NSS Report No. 561 - Urban Slums in India, 2012

The highlights of report no. 552 and 553 are based on NSS 66th round. Details of other reports of NSS 66th round of which highlights have been published in previous issues of Sarvekshana are mentioned as under:

Sarvekshana 98th Issue: Report no. 545, 547, 548, 550 and 551

Sarvekshana 97th Issue: Report no. 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543 and 544

The highlights of report no. 554, 555, 557, 558, 559 and 560 are based on NSS 68th round while the highlights of report no. 556 and 561 are based on NSS 69th report.

Highlights - Report No. 552: Employment and Unemployment Situation among Major Religious Groups in India

NSS 66th Round (July, 2009 – June, 2010)

This report is based on the eighth quinquennial survey on employment and unemployment conducted in the 66th round of NSS during July 2009 to June 2010. The survey was spread over 7402 villages and 5252 urban blocks covering 100957 households (59129 in rural areas and 41828 in urban areas) and enumerating 459784 persons (281327 in rural areas and 178457 in urban areas). In this survey information on religion followed by each household was collected as part of the household characteristics. The reported religion of head of the household was considered as the religion of all the household members irrespective of the actual religion followed by individual members. Seven known major religions viz. Hinduism, Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism and Zoroastrianism were explicitly considered for data collection as a part of the household characteristics. Among these the followers of Hinduism, Islam, Christianity and Sikhism formed the four major religious groups. Households following the religions other than these four religions have been combined together under the category 'Others'. Some of the highlights of this report are listed below:

- In rural India during 2009-10, Hinduism was followed by around 84 per cent of the households constituting about 84 per cent of the population; whereas 11 per cent of households followed Islam with about 12 per cent of the population. Christianity was followed by around 2 per cent of the households constituting about 2 per cent of the population. In urban areas, the percentages of households and population following Hinduism were about 81 and 79, following Islam were about 13 and 16 and following Christianity were about 3 and 3, respectively.

- The sex-ratios for Hindus and Muslims in both rural and urban areas showed a decline between 2004-05 and 2009-10; however those corresponding to Christians showed an improvement during this period. The overall sex-ratio for the rural as well as for the urban population showed a decline between 2004-05 and 2009-10.

- The average household size, in both rural and urban areas, for Muslims was higher than those of other religious groups, and the average household size was the lowest among Christians. The household size in rural areas was higher than that of urban areas for each of the religious groups.

- In rural areas, *self-employment* was the mainstay for all the religious groups. The proportion of households with major income from *self-employed in agriculture* was the highest among Sikh households (about 36 per cent). The proportion of households belonging to the household type *rural labour* was the highest among Muslims (about 41 per cent). In urban India, the proportion of households with major source of earnings as *self-employment* was highest for Muslims (46 per cent). The major source of earnings from *regular wage/salaried* was the highest for Christians households (43 per cent) in urban areas.

- Among all the land possessed classes, in rural areas, proportion of households belonging to the land possessed class '0.005-0.40' hectare was the highest for all the major religious groups,

which was more than 40 per cent.

- About 43 per cent of Christian households, 38 per cent of Muslim households and 37 per cent of Hindu households cultivated more than or equal to 0.001 hectare of land but less than 1.00 hectare of land. The proportion of households cultivating more than 4.00 hectares of land was the highest for Sikhs (6 per cent), followed by Hindus (3 per cent).

- For both rural and urban India, average MPCE was the highest for Sikh households, followed by Christians and Hindus. At the all-India level, the average MPCE of Sikh household was Rs. 1659 while that for Muslim household was Rs. 980.

- The literacy rate among persons of age 15 years and above was the highest for Christians, for both the sexes in rural and urban areas. The proportion of persons of age 15 years and above with educational level *secondary and above* was the highest for Christians, followed by Sikhs.

- The current attendance rates in educational institutions were higher among males than females and also higher in urban areas than in rural areas. The current attendance rates in educational institutions among persons of age 0-29 years were the highest among Christians for rural males, rural females, urban males and urban females.

- The Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) for male was much higher than female for all religious groups - the differential being greater in urban areas. The male-female differential in LFPR was the lowest among Christians. The LFPR for rural male, rural female and urban female was the highest for Christians while that for urban male was the highest for Sikhs.

- WPR for male was much higher than female for all the religious groups - the differential being greater in the urban areas. The male-female differential in WPR was the lowest among Christians. The WPR according to the usual status (ps+ss) was the highest for Christians for all categories of persons, except urban males, where the WPR of Hindus was higher than Christians. WPRs for rural male, rural female and urban female among Christians were about 56 per cent, 33 per cent, 22 per cent, respectively while that for urban males among Hindus was about 55 per cent.

- In rural areas, majority of male workers belonged to the categories *not literate* (28 per cent) or *literate and up to primary* (28 per cent) while majority of female workers belonged to the category *not literate* (59 per cent). The proportion of male workers with general education level *secondary & above* was the highest for Christians (32 per cent), followed by Sikhs (30 per cent).

- In urban areas, majority of male workers belonged to the education category level *secondary & above* (52 per cent). Among urban males, proportion of workers with level of education *secondary & above* was 58 per cent each for Christians and Sikhs whereas those were 56 per cent and 30 per cent, respectively, for Hindus and Muslims.

- In rural areas, the WPR for male of age 15 years and above was the highest for the educational level *literate and up to primary* (90 per cent) and the WPR for female was highest for educational level *not literate* (43 per cent). Among persons with level of education *secondary & above*, the

WPR for male (70 per cent) was much higher than that of female (22 per cent). Among rural male with level of education *secondary & above*, the WPR was highest for Hindus (70 per cent), followed by Sikhs (68 per cent). Among rural female with level of education *secondary & above*, the WPR was highest for Christians (32 per cent), followed by Sikhs (28 per cent).

- In urban areas, the WPR for male of age 15 years and above was highest for the general educational level *literate and up to primary* (84 per cent) and the WPR for female was highest for educational level *graduate and above* (26 per cent). Among urban male with level of education *secondary & above*, the WPR was highest for Hindus (70 per cent), followed by Sikhs (68 per cent). The corresponding WPRs for Christians and Muslims were 67 per cent and 65 per cent, respectively. Among urban female with level of education *secondary & above*, the WPR was highest for Christians (32 per cent), followed by Sikhs (18 per cent).

- In rural areas, majority of employed persons belonged to the employment category *self-employment*. The proportion of *self-employment* among male workers was about 54 per cent and that among female workers was about 56 per cent. In rural areas, a significant portion of workers among male (38 per cent) and female (40 per cent) were engaged in casual labour employment. Among the rural male workers, *self-employment* was the highest for Sikhs (55 per cent), followed by Hindus (54 per cent). Among Christians in rural areas, a significant proportion of male (17 per cent) and female (11 per cent) workers were engaged in *regular wage/salaried employment*.

- In urban areas, the workers were more or less equally engaged in *self-employment* and *regular wage/salaried employment*. The proportion of workers engaged in *self-employment* was the highest for Muslims, followed by Sikhs. Among urban Christians, a significant proportion of male (45 per cent) and female (61 per cent) workers were engaged in *regular wage/salaried employment*. Among urban Hindus, about 44 per cent of male workers and about 40 per cent of female workers were engaged in *regular wage/salaried employment.*

- The unemployment rate in rural areas is less than that of urban areas. In rural areas, during 2009-10, unemployment rate was the highest for Christians for both males (3 per cent) and females (6 per cent). In urban areas, unemployment rate was the highest for Sikhs for both males (6 per cent) and females (8 per cent).

Highlights - Report No. 553: Employment and Unemployment Situation in Cities and Towns in India

NSS 66th Round (July, 2009 – June, 2010)

This report is based on the eighth quinquennial survey on employment and unemployment conducted in the 66th round of NSS during July 2009 to June 2010. The survey was spread over 7402 villages and 5252 urban blocks covering 100957 households (59129 in rural areas and 41828 in urban areas) and enumerating 459784 persons (281327 in rural areas and 178457 in urban areas). Employment and Unemployment were measured with three different approaches, viz., *usual status* with a reference period of one year, *current weekly status* with one week reference period and *current daily status* based on the daily activity pursued during each day of the reference week. Unless otherwise stated, *usual status* workers will mean all workers taking into consideration the *usual principal* and *subsidiary status* together. In this report, estimates of the employment and unemployment indicators are presented for each of the class 1 cities in India. The corresponding estimates are also presented for each State/UT for three size classes of towns, as per *Population Census 2001,* viz., class 1 cities (with population one million and above), class 2 towns (with population 50000 to one million) and class 3 towns (with population less than 50,000). Some of the key findings of the 66th round of NSS survey on employment and unemployment conducted during July 2009 to June 2010 are stated below:

- The proportion of usually employed males of age 15 years and above was 73 per cent for class 1 cities and 74 per cent for size class 2 towns and about 76 per cent for size class 3 towns. For females of the same age group the corresponding proportions were - 17 per cent for class 1 cities, 18 per cent for size class 2 towns and nearly 21 per cent for size class 3 towns.

- Between 2004-05 and 2009-10 the proportion of usually employed males of age 15 years and above decreased by 3 percentage points for class 1 cities, 2 percentage points for size class 2 and 3 towns each. During this period, corresponding decrease for females was 3 percentage points in class 1 cities, 4 percentage points for size class 2 towns and 7 percentage points for size class 3 towns.

- Among the class 1 cities, the worker population ratio (WPR) for males of age 15 years and above in the usual status (ps+ss), was the highest in Surat (87 per cent) and the lowest in Meerut (49 per cent), while for females, WPR was the highest in Varanasi (35 per cent) and the lowest in Agra (2 per cent).

- During the period 2009-10, the proportion of regular wage/salaried employees, in the usual status (ps+ss), both among males and among females was higher than that of self-employed persons or casual labourers in class 1 cities and size class 2 towns. For size class 3 towns, proportion of self-employed was higher than regular wage/salaried employees and casual labourers for both males and females.

- Among male workers of age 15 years and above in the usual status (ps+ss), about 52 per cent in class 1 cities, about 43 per cent in size class 2 towns and about 31 per cent in size class 3

towns were regular wage/salaried employees. Corresponding proportions for females were 58 per cent, 42 per cent and 23 per cent for class 1 cities, size class 2 towns and size class 3 towns, respectively.

- Among male workers of age 15 years and above in the usual status (ps+ss), about 39 per cent in class 1 cities, about 40 per cent in size class 2 towns and about 45 per cent in size class 3 towns were self-employed. Corresponding proportions for females were 33 per cent, 41 per cent and 47 per cent for class 1 cities, size class 2 towns and size class 3 towns, respectively.

- For males of age 15 years and above, the unemployment rate in the usual status (ps+ss) remained at the same level between 2004-05 and 2009-10 in class 1 cities and it decreased by 1 percentage point for size class 2 towns and by 2 percentage points for size class 3 towns. For females, between 2004-05 and 2009-10, the unemployment rate in the usual status increased by 1 percentage point in class 1 cities and decreased for both size class 2 and size class 3 towns by nearly 2 percentage points each.

- Among the workers in the usual status (ps+ss), the *tertiary sector* had the highest share of workers in 2009-10 compared to other two sectors in all size class of towns. Among male workers of age 15 years and above in urban India, about 59 per cent were engaged in *tertiary sector,* about 35 per cent in *secondary sector* and about 6 per cent in *primary sector*. Corresponding proportions for females were about 53 per cent, 33 per cent and 14 per cent, respectively.

- Among male workers of age 15 years and above according to the usual status (ps+ss) in all class I cities, about 64 per cent were engaged in *tertiary sector,* about 35 per cent in *secondary sector* and about 1 per cent in *primary sector*. Corresponding proportions for females were about 67 per cent, 31 per cent and 2 per cent, respectively.

- Among male workers of age 15 years and above according to the usual status (ps+ss) in size class 2 towns, about 60 per cent were engaged in *tertiary sector,* about 36 per cent in *secondary sector* and about 4 per cent in *primary sector*. Corresponding proportions for females were about 57 per cent, 34 per cent and 9 per cent, respectively.

- Among male workers of age 15 years and above according to the usual status (ps+ss) in size class 3 towns, about 54 per cent were engaged in *tertiary sector,* about 33 per cent in *secondary sector* and about 13 per cent in *primary sector*. Corresponding proportions for females were about 36 per cent, 34 per cent and 30 per cent, respectively.

- Among male workers of age 15 years and above, according to usual status (ps+ss), the *secondary sector* registered nearly 3 percentage points decrease in the share of total workers during 2009-10 compared to 2004-05 for class 1 cities but increased for size class 2, size class 3 towns by 2 and 1 percentage points respectively.

Highlights - Report No. 554: Employment and Unemployment Situation in India

NSS 68th Round (July, 2011 – June, 2012)

This report is based on the employment and unemployment survey conducted in the 68th round of NSS during July 2011 to June 2012. The survey was spread over 12737 FSUs (7469 villages and 5268 urban blocks) covering 101724 households (59700 in rural areas and 42024 in urban areas) and enumerating 456999 persons (280763 in rural areas and 176236 in urban areas). Four different estimates of the labour force indicators have been obtained based on the three approaches (viz. usual status approach, *current weekly status* approach and *current daily status* approach) adopted in the survey for classification of the population by activity statuses. These are termed as labour force indicators in *usual status (ps)* (i.e. usual status taking principal activity only)*, usual status (ps+ss)* (i.e. usual status taking principal and subsidiary activities together)*, current weekly status* (CWS) and *current daily status* (CDS). The reference period for usual status approach is 1 year, for *current weekly status* approach is 1 week and that for *current daily status* approach is each of the 7 days preceding the date of survey. The labour force indicators measured in *usual status* and *current weekly status* are in persons and those in *current daily status* are in person-days. Unless otherwise stated, workers will mean workers in the *usual status (ps+ss)*. Some of the key results at the all-India level for the period July 2011 - June 2012 as obtained from the employment and unemployment survey of NSS 68th round are stated below.

A. Household and Population

- About 69 per cent of the households in India belonged to rural areas and accounted for about 71 per cent of total population.

- The average household size in India was about 4.3. It was about 4.5 in rural India and about 4.0 in urban India. The sex ratio (number of females per 1000 of males) in India was 946. It was 957 in rural India and 922 in urban India.

- About 12 per cent of the households in both the rural and urban areas were headed by females. The average household size of the female headed households was 3.3 in rural areas and 3.2 in urban areas. The sex ratio in the female headed households was 1819 in rural areas and 1749 in urban areas.

- Among those households having at least one member of age 15 years and above, about 5 per cent of the rural households and 10 per cent of the urban households had no usually employed member of age 15 years and above.

- About 38 per cent of the rural households in India had MGNREG job card. Among rural persons of age 18 years and above registered in MGNREG job card, about 51 per cent worked and about 19 per cent sought but did not get MGNREG works.

- About 60 per cent of the rural males, 61 per cent of rural females, 66 per cent each of the urban males and urban females belonged to the economically active age group viz. 15-59 years. Persons aged 15-29 years, who were considered as the youth, accounted for 26 per cent each of rural males and rural females, 29 per cent of urban males and 28 per cent of urban females.

- About 72 per cent of rural males, 56 per cent of rural females, 84 per cent of urban males and 75 per cent of urban females in India were literate. About 21 per cent of rural males, 12 per cent of rural females, 42 per cent of urban males and 34 per cent of urban females were educated (education level *secondary and above including diploma/ certificate course)*.

B. Labour Force

- About 55 per cent of the rural males, 25 per cent of the rural females, 56 per cent of the urban males and 16 per cent of the urban females were in the labour force in *usual status (ps+ss)*.

- Between NSS 66th round (2009-10) and 68th round (2011-12), labour force participation rate (LFPR) in *usual status (ps+ss)* for rural males and urban males remained at the same level, decreased by 1 percentage point for rural females and increased by about 1 percentage point for urban females.

- Between NSS 50th round (1993-94) and 68th round (2011-12), the LFPR in *usual status (ps+ss)* decreased by 1 percentage point for rural males and by 8 percentage points for rural females. During this period, LFPR in *usual status (ps+ss)* increased by 2 percentage points for urban males and decreased by 1 percentage point for urban females.

C. Work Force

- The worker population ratio (WPR) in *usual status (ps+ss)* was about 39 per cent at the all-India level. It was about 40 per cent in rural areas and 36 per cent in urban areas. The WPR in *usual status (ps+ss)* was 54 per cent for rural males, 25 per cent for rural females, 55 per cent for urban males and 15 per cent for urban females.

- About 3 per cent of the Indian population was employed only in the subsidiary status. The proportion of females employed in the subsidiary capacity only, was higher than that of males. About 7 per cent of rural females and about 2 per cent of urban females were employed only in the subsidiary status.

- The WPR in *current weekly status* (CWS) was about 36 per cent at the all-India level - 37 per cent in rural areas and 35 per cent in urban areas. The WPR in CWS was 53 per cent for rural males, 21 per cent for rural females, 54 per cent for urban males and 14 per cent for urban females.

- The WPR in *current daily status* (CDS) was about 34 per cent at the all-India level. The WPR in CDS was about 50 per cent for rural males, 17 per cent for rural females, 53 per cent for urban males and 13 per cent for urban females.

- Between 2009-10 and 2011-12, WPR in *usual status (ps+ss)* decreased by about 1 percentage point for rural females, increased by about 1 percentage point for urban females and remained almost at the same level for males of both rural and urban areas.

- Between NSS 27th round (1972-73) and 68th round (2011-12), WPR in *usual status (ps+ss)* remained at the same level for rural males, decreased by about 7 percentage points for rural

females, increased by 5 percentage points for urban males and 1 percentage point for urban females.

- Among workers in *usual status (ps+ss)*, about 55 per cent of the rural males, 59 per cent of rural females, 42 per cent for urban males and 43 per cent for urban females were *self-employed.* Among workers, about 10 per cent of rural males, 6 per cent of rural females and 43 per cent in each of urban males and urban females were *regular wage/ salaried employees*. The proportion of *casual labour* among workers in *usual status (ps+ss)* was about 36 per cent for rural males, 35 per cent for rural females, 15 per cent for urban males and 14 per cent for urban females.

- Among workers in *usual status (ps+ss)* of age 15 years and above, about 28 per cent of rural males, 56 per cent of rural females, 11 per cent of urban males and 28 per cent of urban females were not literate.

- Among workers in *usual status (ps+ss)* of age 15 years and above, about 26 per cent of male workers and 11 per cent of female workers in the rural areas and about 53 per cent for male workers and 40 per cent for female workers in the urban areas were educated (i.e. with educational level secondary and above including diploma/ certificate).

- Among workers in the *usual status (ps+ss)* in rural India, about 59 per cent of the males and 75 per cent of the females were engaged in the agriculture sector. The proportion of workers engaged in the agricultural activities gradually fell from 81 per cent in 1977-78 to 59 per cent in 2011-12 for rural males and from 88 per cent in 1977-78 to 75 per cent in 2011-12 for rural females.

- In urban India, among male workers in *usual status (ps+ss)*, the 'trade, hotel and restaurant' sector registered the highest proportion of workers (about 26 per cent) while 'manufacturing' and 'other services' sectors accounted for about 22 per cent and 21 per cent, respectively. Among female workers in the urban areas, 'other services' sector registered the highest proportion of workers (40 per cent), followed by 'manufacturing' (29 per cent), 'trade, hotel and restaurant' (13 per cent) and 'agriculture' (11 per cent).

- Over the years, there has been considerable increase in the proportion of workers engaged in 'construction'. Between 1977-78 and 2011-12, the increase in the proportion of workers in 'construction' was about 11 percentage points for rural males, 6 percentage points for rural females, 7 percentage points for urban males and 2 percentage points for urban females. During this period, in the urban areas, proportion of male workers engaged in 'trade, hotel and restaurant' increased by about 4 percentage points and proportion of female workers engaged in 'other services' sector increased by 14 percentage points.

- Among the workers in the rural areas, the occupation 'skilled agricultural and fishery workers' registered the highest proportion of workers for both males (39 per cent) and females (48 per cent). In the urban areas, the occupation 'craft and related trades workers' registered the highest proportion of workers for males (19 per cent) and the occupation 'elementary occupations' for females (about 23 per cent).

- The daily wage/salary earnings of a regular wage/salaried employee of age 15-59 years were Rs. 298.96 in the rural areas and Rs. 449.65 in the urban areas. This was Rs. 322.28 for rural males, Rs. 201.56 for rural females, Rs. 469.87 for urban males and Rs. 366.15 for urban females.

- The daily wage rate of casual labour of age 15-59 years, engaged in *public works other than MGNREG public works* was Rs. 127.39 for rural males and Rs. 110.62 for rural females. Among the casual labourers of age 15-59 years engaged in *MGNREG public works,* the daily wage rate was Rs. 112.46 for rural males and Rs. 101.97 for rural females. The daily wage rate of casual labour of age 15-59 years engaged in *works other than public works* was Rs. 149.32 for rural males, Rs. 103.28 for rural females, Rs. 182.04 for urban males and Rs. 110.62 for urban females.

D. Unemployment Rate

- The unemployment rate (UR) in *usual status* (ps+ss) was about 2 per cent for both males and females in rural areas, 3 per cent for urban males and 5 per cent for urban females.

- The unemployment rate in *current weekly status* (CWS) was about 3 per cent for rural males, 4 per cent for rural females, 4 per cent for urban males and 7 per cent for urban females.

- The unemployment rate in *current daily status* (CDS) was about 6 per cent for both males and females in rural areas, 5 per cent for urban males and 8 per cent for urban females.

- Between 2009-10 and 2011-12, the unemployment rate in *usual status (ps+ss)* remained invariant for rural males, rural females and urban males while it decreased by about 1 percentage point for urban females.

- Among persons of age 15 years and above, other than urban males, the unemployment rate for the *educated* (level of education: secondary and above) was higher than that among those, whose education level was lower than *secondary*. The unemployment rates for the *educated* in *usual status* (ps+ss) were about 4 per cent, 10 per cent, 4 per cent and 10 per cent for rural males, rural females, urban males and urban females, respectively.

- The unemployment rate among the youth (age: 15-29 years) was much higher as compared to that in the overall population. The unemployment rates among the youth in *usual status* (ps+ss) were about 5 per cent, 5 per cent, 8 per cent and 13 per cent for rural males, rural females, urban males and urban females, respectively.

- The unemployment rates in *usual status* (ps+ss) among the educated youth (age: 15-29 years and level of education: secondary and above) were 8.1 per cent, 15.5 per cent, 11.7 per cent and 19.8 per cent for rural males, rural females, urban males and urban females, respectively.

- **Underemployment**

- The underemployment rate defined as the proportion of workers in *usual status (ps+ss)* who were found to be *not* employed (i.e. reporting either unemployed or not in labour force) during the week preceding the date of survey, was about 3 per cent for rural males, 17 per cent for rural females, 1 per cent for urban males and 6 per cent for urban females.

- The underemployment rate defined in terms of the proportion of person-days of the workers in *usual status (ps+ss)* which were not utilised for work was quite high for females as compared to males. This was about 7 per cent for rural males, 32 per cent for rural females, 3 per cent for urban males and 15 per cent for urban females.

- The underemployment rate defined in terms of the proportion of person-days of the workers in *current weekly status* which were not utilised for work, was about 4 per cent for rural males, 18 per cent for rural females, 2 per cent for urban males and 9 per cent for urban females.

- Among the usually employed persons in the principal status, a higher proportion of females than males, in both rural and urban areas, did not work more or less regularly during last 365 days – 13 per cent for rural females as against 10 per cent for rural males and 7 per cent for urban females as against 5 per cent for urban males.

- The proportion of usual principal status workers of age 15 years and above who sought or were available for additional work was about 8 per cent for rural males, 5 per cent for rural females, 4 per cent for urban males and 3 per cent for urban females.

- The proportion of usual principal status workers of age 15 years and above who sought or were available for alternative work was higher in rural areas than in urban areas - about 6 per cent in rural areas and 4 per cent in urban areas. The corresponding proportions were about 7 per cent for rural males, 4 per cent each for rural females, urban males and urban females.

E. Key Employment Unemployment Indicators in different approaches

Key employment and unemployment indicators (per 1000) at a glance									
all-India			**NSS 68th round (July 2011 – June 2012)**						**age: all ages**
		rural			urban			rural+urban	
indicator	male	female	person	male	female	person	male	female	person
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
					usual status (ps)				
LFPR	547	181	368	560	134	356	550	168	364
WPR	535	176	359	542	125	342	537	161	354
PU	12	5	8	18	9	14	13	6	10
UR	21	29	23	32	66	38	24	37	27
					usual status (ps+ss)				
LFPR	553	253	406	563	155	367	556	225	395
WPR	543	248	399	546	147	355	544	219	386
PU	10	4	7	17	8	13	12	5	9
UR	17	17	17	30	52	34	21	24	22
					CWS				
LFPR	545	215	383	561	148	363	549	196	377
WPR	526	207	370	539	138	347	530	188	364
PU	18	8	13	22	10	16	19	8	14
UR	33	35	34	38	67	44	35	42	37
					CDS				
LFPR	534	180	361	555	136	354	540	168	359
WPR	504	169	340	528	125	335	511	156	339
PU	29	11	20	27	11	19	29	11	20
UR	55	62	57	49	80	55	53	66	56

Labour force participation rate (LFPR): *LFPR is defined as the number of persons/ person-days in the labour force per 1000 persons /person-days.*

Worker Population Ratio (WPR)*: WPR is defined as the number of persons/person-days employed per 1000 persons/person-days.*

Proportion Unemployed (PU)*: It is defined as the number of persons/person-days unemployed per 1000 persons/person-days.*

Unemployment Rate (UR)*: UR is defined as the number of persons/person-days unemployed per 1000 persons/person-days in the labour force (which includes both the employed and unemployed).*

Highlights - Report No. 555: Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure, 2011-12

NSS 68th Round (July, 2011 – June, 2012)

The report is based on information collected during July, 2011 – June, 2012 from 7469 villages and 5268 urban blocks spread over the entire country. Two different schedules were used to collect information on consumer expenditure; the first being canvassed in 101662 households and the second in 101651 households.

A. LEVEL OF CONSUMPTION

- Using the MMRP (Modified Mixed Reference Period) method of measurement of MPCE (Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure), average MPCE in 2011-12 was estimated as Rs.1430 in rural India and Rs.2630 (about 84% higher) in urban India.

- The poorest 5% of India's rural population had an average MPCE of Rs.521. The poorest 5% of the urban population had an average MPCE of Rs.700.

- The top 5% of the rural population, ranked by MPCE, had an average MPCE of Rs.4481 – about 8.6 times that of the bottom 5%. The top 5% of the urban population had an average MPCE of Rs. 10,282 – about 14.7 times that of the bottom 5%.

- Among the major States, Kerala (Rs.2669) had the highest rural MPCE. It was followed by Punjab (Rs.2345) and Haryana (Rs.2176). In all other major States, average rural MPCE was between Rs.1000 and Rs.1760.

- Average rural MPCE was lowest in Odisha and Jharkhand (around Rs.1000), and also very low in Chhattisgarh (around Rs.1030). In the rural sector of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, average MPCE was between Rs.1120 and Rs.1160.

- Haryana was the major State with the highest MPCE (Rs.3817) in the urban sector, followed by Kerala (Rs.3408) and Maharashtra (Rs.3189). Apart from Bihar (urban MPCE Rs.1507), no other major State had urban MPCE below Rs.1860.

- The median level of $MPCE_{MMRP}$ was about Rs.1200 in rural India and about Rs.2020 in urban India.

- Average urban MPCE was only 19% higher than average rural MPCE in Punjab, only 28% higher in Kerala, and only 34% higher in Bihar. In West Bengal, Jharkhand and Maharashtra, on the other hand, the urban average was around double the rural.

- In the 18 year-period from 1993-94 to 2011-12, real MPCE – measured by the Uniform Reference Period method – was estimated to have grown by only about 38% in rural India, but by 51% in urban India. Measured by the Mixed Reference Period method, real MPCE grew by 36.5% in rural India and by 54% in urban India over the same period.

- Except for Gujarat, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu, where average MPCE was below the all-India average in the urban sector but not in the rural sector, major States with above-average rural MPCE also had above-average urban MPCE.

B. PATTERN OF CONSUMPTION

- Using the MMRP (Modified Mixed Reference Period) method of MPCE measurement, food was estimated to account for about 53% of the value of the average rural Indian's household consumption during 2011-12. This included 10.8% for cereals and cereal substitutes, 8% for milk and milk products, and 6.6% for vegetables. Among non-food item categories, fuel for cooking and lighting accounted for 8%, clothing and footwear for 7%, medical expenses for 6.7%, conveyance and other consumer services for 4% each, and consumer durables for 4.5%.

- For the average urban Indian, 42.6% of the value of household consumption was accounted for by food, including 6.7% by cereals and 7% by milk and its products.

- The share of most of the food item groups in total consumption expenditure was higher in rural India than in urban India, fruits and processed food being exceptions. For non-food item groups, the share was usually higher in urban India. The most noticeable rural-urban differences were in case of cereals (urban share: 6.7%, rural share: 10.8%), rent (urban: 6.2%, rural: 0.5%) and education (urban: 6.9%, rural: 3.5%). The share of pan, tobacco and intoxicants for the rural sector, though only about 3%, was double the share for the urban sector.

- In the major States, the share of food in rural consumption expenditure varied from 43% for Kerala and 44% for Punjab to 59% in Bihar and 61% in Assam. In the urban sector the share of food in consumption expenditure varied from 37% in Kerala and 39% in Haryana to 51% in Bihar.

- The share of cereals in total expenditure in rural India varied across the major States from 5% in Kerala and Punjab to 17% in Jharkhand and Odisha. In urban India, the share varied less, from 4% in Haryana to 12% in Bihar.

- The budget share of cereals was about 19% for the bottom MPCE decile class of rural India but fell with rise in MPCE to about 5-6% for the top decile class. In urban India the share of cereals fell from 15% for the bottom decile class to under 3% for the top decile class.

- The budget share of milk and milk products was seen to rise with MPCE level from about 4% in the bottom decile class to 9.5% in the ninth decile class. For urban India, however, the share of this item group was higher (at around 8-8.5%) for the middle third of the population than for the highest decile classes.

- The share of education rose steadily with MPCE level from 1.6% in the lowest to 5.7% in the highest decile class in rural India and from 2.6% to 9% in urban India.

C. QUANTITY OF CEREAL CONSUMPTION

- Average cereal consumption per person per month (considering persons of all ages) was 11.2 kg in rural India and 9.3 kg in urban India.

- In rural India, average monthly per capita cereal consumption was around 10.0 kg for the poorest 10% of the population. With rise in MPCE it was seen to increase, quickly at first, to reach 11.0 kg in the 10-20 class, and then more slowly, to reach 11.5 kg in the 80-90 class. In urban India, there was no clear pattern of variation of per capita cereal consumption with rise in MPCE. Except for the top 5% of the population, monthly per capita consumption of the different fractile classes was between 9.1 kg and 9.5 kg.

- During the 18-year period from 1993-94 to 2011-12, estimated monthly per capita cereal consumption (which does not include the cereal content of processed food) fell from 13.4 kg to 11.2 kg in rural India and from 10.6 kg to 9.3 kg in urban India.

D. INEQUALITY IN CONSUMPTION LEVELS

- Comparison of the URP (Uniform Reference Period) Lorenz ratios of distribution of per capita consumer expenditure from the present survey with URP Lorenz ratios from the 61st round survey (2004-05) shows an increase from 0.297 to 0.307 for the rural sector and from 0.373 to 0.385 for the urban sector of the country.

- The Lorenz Ratios for the State-sector-level $MPCE_{MMRP}$ distributions ranged from 0.19 to 0.36 in the rural sector and from 0.21 to 0.41 in the urban sector.

Highlights - Report No. 556: Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene, Housing Conditions in India

NSS 69th Round (July, 2012 – December, 2012)

1. The National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) conducted a nation-wide survey on 'Drinking water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition' in its 69th round (July 2012-December 2012) of operations. The objective of the survey was to examine and study different aspects of living conditions necessary for decent and healthy living of the household members by developing suitable indicators based upon collected information. The last survey on these subjects was undertaken in the 65th round of NSS (July 2008- June 2009).

2. The survey covered the whole of the Indian Union. A stratified multi-stage design had been adopted for the 69th round survey. The first stage units were the census villages (Panchayat wards in case of Kerala) in the rural sector and Urban Frame Survey (UFS) blocks in the urban sector. The ultimate stage units were households in both the sectors. In case of large FSUs, one intermediate stage of sampling was the selection of two hamlet-groups (hgs)/ sub-blocks (sbs) from each rural/ urban FSU. The schedule of enquiry on 'Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition' (known as Schedule 1.2) was designed to collect information on housing condition with special emphasis on the aspects of drinking water, sanitation and hygiene.

3. As is usual in the regular NSS rounds, most States and Union Territories participated in the survey: a 'State' sample was surveyed by State Government officials in addition to the 'Central sample' surveyed by NSSO. For rural India, the number of villages surveyed in the Central sample was 4,475 and the number of urban blocks surveyed was 3,522. This report is based on the estimates obtained from the Central sample only. For this particular survey, from each sample village and urban block of the central sample, 12 households were selected for canvassing Schedule 1.2. The total number of households in which Schedule 1.2 was canvassed was 53,393 in rural India and 42,155 in urban India. Highlights of this report are presented below:

A. Particulars of living facilities

A.1. Drinking water facility

- 52.4 percent households in rural India used 'tube well/borehole' as principal source of drinking water; followed by 14.3 percent households having 'public taps/standpipe' as their principal source of drinking water. In urban India, 35.1 percent households used 'piped water into dwelling' as principal source of drinking water; followed by 21.2 percent households having 'piped water to yard/plot' as their principal source of drinking water.

- 88.5 percent households in rural India and 95.3 percent households in urban India had improved source of drinking water during 2012 where, the 'improved source' of drinking water includes: 'bottled water', 'piped water into dwelling', 'piped water to yard/plot', 'public tap/standpipe', 'tube well/borehole', 'protected well', 'protected spring', and 'rainwater collection'.

- 85.8 percent households in rural India and 89.6 percent households in urban India had sufficient drinking water.

- 14.6 percent of all households having 'piped water into dwelling' as principal source of drinking water did not get sufficient drinking water throughout the year from its principal source. The corresponding figure for urban households was estimated at 8.7 percent.

- Considering all principal sources together, both in rural and urban India 'tube well/borehole' was the most prevalent supplementary source of drinking water.

- 46.1 percent households in rural India and 76.8 percent households in urban India got drinking water within the premises.

- When drinking water had to be fetched from a distance, female members did this work in 84.1 percent of rural households and male members in 14.1 percent. In urban India, female members performed this task for 72.0 percent of households and male members in 23.5 percent. The remaining households got the work done by non-members.

- The average travelling time spent by a person in a day to fetch drinking water from outside the household premises was 20 minutes in rural India and 15 minutes in urban India.

- Persons who fetched drinking water from outside the household premises had, on an average, to wait for 15 minutes in case of rural India and 16 minutes in case of urban India at the principal source of drinking water every day.

- 'Community use' of principal source of drinking water was predominant among households of rural India (46.7 percent) whereas 'exclusive use' was more prevalent among households in urban India (46.8 percent).

- 32.3 percent and 54.4 percent households in rural India and urban India respectively had treated water by some method before drinking.

- 37.9 percent households in rural India and 35.3 percent households in urban India had used stainless steel containers for storing drinking water.

- 58.8 percent households in rural India and 41.2 percent households in urban India used vessel without handle for taking out stored drinking water.

A.2. Water for all household activities

- 86.0 percent and 89.5 percent of households in rural India and urban India respectively got sufficient water throughout the year for performing all household activities.

- 79.8 percent households in rural India and 45.7 percent households in urban India were not required to pay any water charges.

A.3. Bathroom and sanitation facility

- 62.3 percent of households in rural India and 16.7 percent of households in urban India did not have any bathroom facility.

- The dwellings of 15.5 percent rural households and 55.4 percent urban households in India had attached bathroom.

- 59.4 percent households in rural India and 8.8 percent households in urban India had no latrine facilities.

- 31.9 percent households in rural India and 63.9 percent households in urban India had exclusive use of latrine facilities.

A.4. Electricity for domestic use

- 80.0 percent households in rural India and 97.9 percent households in urban India had electricity for domestic use. Among households having electricity for domestic use, 33.2 percent in rural India and 63.5 percent in urban India were using electric wiring of the conduit type.

A.5. Tenurial status

- 94.2 percent households in rural India and 71.3 percent households in urban India had secured tenure, where 'secured tenure' of the dwelling includes the tenurial statuses: 'owned- freehold/ leasehold', 'hired: employer's quarters' and 'hired dwelling units with written contract'.

B. Housing characteristics and micro-environment

B.1. Housing characteristics

- 65.8 percent households in rural India and 93.6 percent households in urban India lived in houses with pucca structure, whereas 24.6 percent and 5.0 percent in rural and urban India respectively lived in houses with semi-pucca structure. At all-India level, only 9.6 percent households in rural areas and 1.4 percent households in urban areas lived in katcha houses.

- 29.9 percent households in rural areas and 29.6 percent households in urban areas lived in houses with 'zero plinth' level.

- Average plinth level of a house was 0.35 metre in rural India and 0.36 metre in urban India.

- 91.5 percent of households in rural areas living in a house had used the house for residential purpose only. The corresponding proportion for urban India was estimated at 86.8 percent.

- 79.0 percent rural households and 47.6 percent urban households respectively had 'independent house'. The proportion of households residing in 'flats' was 39.4 percent in urban areas but only 7.8 percent in rural areas.

- The dwelling units of 25.9 percent rural households in India were 20-40 years old while those of 24.4 percent were 10-20 years. The corresponding proportions for urban households in India were estimated at 26.0 percent and 27.9 percent respectively.

- 86.9 percent rural households and 93.0 percent urban households in India lived in a house with either 'good' or 'satisfactory' condition.

- The average floor area of a dwelling was 40.03 sq. m. in rural India and 39.20 sq. m. in urban India.

- 47.4 percent households in rural India and 66.0 percent households in urban India had a separate kitchen in their dwellings.

- 26.3 percent households in rural India and 47.1 percent households in urban India had dwelling units with what they considered as 'good ventilation'.

- Among households with married couples, 68.3 percent in rural India and 72.9 percent in urban India had a separate room for each married couple.

- Average monthly rent paid by a household living in hired accommodation was Rs. 1072/- in rural India and Rs. 2041/- in urban India

B.2 Micro environment

- 49.9 percent households in rural areas and 12.5 percent households in urban areas did not have any drainage system.

- 8.5 percent of households in rural India and 45.2 percent households in urban India had 'underground' drainage system.

- In rural India, 58.7 percent household had disposed of waste water without treatment to 'open

low land areas' compared to 15.9 percent households in urban India.

- In rural India and urban India, 32.0 percent and 75.8 percent households respectively had some garbage disposal arrangement.

- 50.0 percent urban households reported that the garbage of their households was deposited in a community dumping spot and 28.9 percent households reported that the community dumping spot was cleared daily. On the other hand in rural areas only 6.3 percent households had reported that garbage of their households was deposited in a community dumping spot and 1.7 percent households said that it was cleared daily.

- 14.6 percent rural households in India and 5.0 percent urban households in India lived in houses without any direct opening to road/lane/constructed path and this proportion was higher for houses with katcha structure (22.6 percent in rural areas and 16.3 percent in urban areas).

- 11.7 percent rural households and 4.1 percent urban households living in houses with 'pucca structure' reported that they did not have any direct opening to approached road/lane/constructed path.

- 56.6 percent rural Indian households and 47.6 percent urban Indian households had reported that they faced severe problems of flies/mosquitoes during last 365 days.

- 40.3 percent households in rural India and 26.9 percent households in urban India reported to have any member suffered from 'fever due to disease other than malaria' during the last 30 days. 22.2 percent households in rural India and 13.5 percent households in urban India reported to have any member suffered from 'stomach problem' during last 30 days.

C. Some general particulars of urban households living in houses

- 40.5 percent urban households in India were reported to be staying in the present area for 20 years or more. In case of households living in notified and non-notified urban slums, the proportion was estimated at 46.9 percent and 46.4 percent respectively.

- During the last 365 days, 4.9 percent of urban households had moved into the present area. Among households living in notified urban slums, 3.1 percent, and among those living in non-notified urban slums, 4.3 percent, had moved into the present area during the last one year.

- 21.6 percent of households that had moved into their present location cited 'other employment related reasons' for such movement. The reason 'free/low rent' was cited by 4.4 percent of households only.

- 58.5 percent households living in slums/squatter settlements had either ration card or voter

ID card or passport on which their residence status was recorded. The proportion of such households was highest (62.5 percent) among households living in notified slum areas, followed by households living in squatter settlement areas (54.0 percent). For households living in non-notified slum areas, the proportion was 51.1 percent.

- 85.6 percent households of the slum/squatter settlement did not receive any benefits as slum/ squatter settlement dwellers. The proportion of such households was highest (91.0 percent) for households residing in non-notified slum areas followed by households residing in squatter settlements (84.9 percent). For households residing in notified slum areas, the proportion was 82.8 percent.

- 8.5 percent households living in notified slums had tried to move out of the slum at some time. The proportion was estimated at 4.9 percent and 6.9 percent for households living in non-notified slums and squatter settlements respectively. Considering all slums and squatter settlement areas, the proportion was estimated at 7.3 percent.

- 70.8 percent of households living in slums/squatter settlements cited ‘better accommodation’ as their reason for trying to move out of the slums/squatter settlements, whereas 11.7 percent households cited ‘proximity to place of work’ as the reason.

Highlights - Report No. 557: Informal Sector and Conditions of Employment in India: 2011-12

NSS 69th Round (July, 2012 – December, 2012)

This report is based on the employment and unemployment survey conducted in the 68th round of NSS during July 2011 to June 2012. The survey was spread over 12737 FSUs (7469 villages and 5268 urban blocks) covering 101724 households (59700 in rural areas and 42024 in urban areas) and enumerating 456999 persons (280763 in rural areas and 176236 in urban areas).

In NSS 68th round (July, 2011- June, 2012), for the usual status workers engaged in the industry groups/divisions 014, 016, 017, 02-99 of NIC-2008, information on various characteristics of the enterprises (viz., type of enterprise, number of workers in the enterprise, whether enterprise uses electricity etc.) in which they were employed and various conditions of employment of the regular wage/salaried employees and casual labourers (viz. type of job contract, eligibility for paid leave, availability of social security benefits, method of payment etc.) was collected. Among these industries, the industry groups/divisions 014, 016, 017, 02 and 03 (referred to as AGEGC sector) are in the [ag]riculture sector [e]xcluding [g]rowing of [c]rops, plant propagation, combined production of crops and animals without a specialized production of crops or animals. The industry divisions 05-99 are in the non-agriculture sector. Information on characteristics of the enterprises and conditions of employment was collected for those who were classified as workers either in the usual principal status (ps) or in the usual subsidiary status (ss). This report presents the estimates of usual status workforce in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors corresponding to various characteristics of enterprises, with special reference to the informal sector (defined to cover proprietary and partnership enterprises) and the estimates of usual status employees in these sectors under various conditions of employment. The workforce, unless otherwise mentioned, refers to the workers in the usual status (ps+ss) engaged in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors.

Some of the key findings on the estimates of workers corresponding to various characteristics of enterprises and the estimates of employees under various conditions of employment during 2011-12 at the all-India level are stated below:

A. Workers in Informal Sector

A.1. Share of workers in AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors

- About 39 per cent of the population in India was employed - the proportion was about 40 per cent in rural areas and 36 per cent in urban areas.
- About 55 per cent of the workers in India were engaged in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors - the proportion was about 41 per cent in rural areas and about 95 per cent in urban areas.
- Among workers in AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors, about 93 per cent were in non-agriculture sector - the proportion was about 89 per cent in rural areas and about 98 per cent in urban areas.

A.2. Informal sector workers

- Among workers in AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors, about 72 per cent were employed in the informal sector - the proportion was about 75 per cent in rural areas and about 69 per cent in urban areas.

- Among informal sector workers in the rural areas, the proportion of self-employed, regular wage/salaried employees and casual labourers were about 57 per cent, 11 per cent and 32 per cent, respectively.

- Among informal sector workers in the urban areas, the proportion of self-employed, regular wage/salaried employees and casual labourers were about 58 per cent, 27 per cent and 16 per cent, respectively.

- About 97 per cent of the self-employed, 78 per cent of the casual labourers and 42 per cent of the regular wage/salaried employees in the rural areas were employed in the informal sector.

- About 98 per cent of the self-employed, 81 per cent of the casual labourers and 40 per cent of the regular wage/salaried employees in the urban areas were employed in the informal sector.

- Among workers in the informal sector, about 86 per cent in rural areas and 98 per cent in urban areas were employed in the non-agriculture sector.

- Manufacturing (section C), construction (section F), wholesale and retail trade (section G), transportation and storage (section H) industries were the main provider of employment in the informal sector. Among workers in the informal sector, about 73 per cent in rural areas and 75 per cent in the urban areas were employed in these industries.

A.3. Location of workplace of informal sector workers

- Among workers in the informal sector residing in the rural areas, about 90 per cent (87 per cent for males and 97 per cent for females) reported their work place in rural areas.

- Among workers in the informal sector residing in the urban areas, about 87 per cent (86 per cent for males and 93 per cent for females) reported their work place in urban areas.

- Among male workers in the informal sector, about 5 per cent in rural areas and 1 per cent in urban areas had no fixed place of work. For females, the corresponding proportion was about 11 per cent in rural areas and 4 per cent in urban areas.

A.4. Informal sector workers in manufacturing enterprises that used electricity

- Among workers of the manufacturing enterprises, about 38 per cent in rural areas and 64 per cent in urban areas were engaged in enterprises that used electricity for production purposes.

- Among informal sector workers of the manufacturing industry, about 31 per cent in rural areas and 56 per cent in urban areas were engaged in enterprises that used electricity for production purposes.

A.5. Informal sector workers in smaller enterprises (i.e. enterprise with less than 6 workers)

- Among informal sector workers, about 75 per cent in rural areas and 70 per cent in urban areas were engaged in smaller enterprises.

A.6. Wage/salary earning of the employees in informal sector enterprises

- Average daily earnings of a regular wage/salaried employee in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors was about Rs. 401- it was about Rs. 225 for those employed in informal sector and about Rs. 127 for those employed in the employer's households.

- Average daily earnings of a regular wage/salaried employee in the informal sector was about Rs. 189 for rural males, Rs. 121 for rural females, Rs. 258 for urban males and Rs. 194 for urban females.

- Daily wage rate of a casual labourer in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors was about Rs. 155 - it was about Rs. 159 for those employed in informal sector and about Rs. 116 for those employed in the employer's households.

- Daily wage rate of a casual labourer in the informal sector was about Rs. 163 for rural males, Rs. 116 for rural females, Rs. 169 for urban males and Rs. 113 for urban females.

B. Workers with Different Conditions of Employment

B.1. Employees without written job contract

- About 79 per cent of the employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors had no written job contract - the proportion was 97 per cent for casual labourers and 65 per cent for regular wage/salaried employees.

- In the rural areas, among employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors without having written job contract, about 76 per cent belonged to either the manufacturing sector (section C) or the construction sector (section F) or the transportation and storage sector (section H). The proportion of employees in these three sectors altogether was about 69 per cent.

- In the urban areas, among employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors without having written job contract, about 65 per cent belonged to either the manufacturing sector (section C) or the construction sector (section F) or the wholesale and retail trade sector (section G) or the transportation and storage sector (section H). The proportion of employees in these four sectors altogether was about 55 per cent in the urban areas.

B.2. Employees with temporary nature of employment

- About 42 per cent of the employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors were temporary employees - the proportion was 60 per cent for casual labourers and 28 per cent for regular wage/salaried employees.

B.3. Employees without paid leave

- About 71 per cent of the employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors were not eligible for paid leave - the proportion was 98 per cent for casual labourers and 50 per cent for regular wage/salaried employees.

- In the rural areas, among the employees in AGEGC and non-agricultural sectors who were not eligible for paid leave, about 79 per cent belonged to either the manufacturing sector (section C) or the construction sector (section F) or the transportation and storage sector (section H). The proportion of employees in these sectors altogether was about 69 per cent in the rural areas.

- In the urban areas, among employees in AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors who were not eligible for paid leave, about 70 per cent belonged to either the manufacturing sector (section C) or the construction sector (section F) or the wholesale and retail trade sector (section G) or the transportation and storage sector (section H). The proportion of employees in these sectors altogether was about 55 per cent in the urban areas.

B.4. Employees without any social security benefit

- About 72 per cent of the employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors were not eligible for any social security benefit - the proportion was 93 per cent for casual labourers and 56 per cent for regular wage/salaried employees.

- In the rural areas, among the employees in AGEGC and non-agricultural sectors who were not eligible for any social security benefit, about 76 per cent belonged to either the manufacturing sector (section C) or the construction sector (section F) or the transportation and storage sector (section H). The proportion of employees in these sectors altogether was about 69 per cent in the rural areas.

- In the urban areas, among employees in AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors who were not eligible for any social security benefit, about 74 per cent belonged to either the manufacturing sector (section C) or the construction sector (section F) or the wholesale and retail trade sector (section G) or the transportation and storage sector (section H) or activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods and services producing activities of households for own use (section T). The proportion of employees in these sectors altogether was about 60 per cent in the urban areas.

B.5. Employees without written job contract and paid leave

- About 68 per cent of the employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors neither had written job contract nor were eligible for paid leave.

B.6. Method of payment for employees

- About 91 per cent of the regular wage/ salaried employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors received regular monthly salary.

- About 56 per cent of the casual labourers in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors received daily payment.

B.7. Existence of union/ association

- About 80 per cent of the usual status workers had no union/association in their activities - the proportion was about 59 per cent for regular wage/salaried employees, 87 per cent for casual labourers and 83 per cent for self-employed.

C. Key estimates of workforce in the informal sector and the estimates of workforce with different conditions of employment at the all-India level

item no	item description	proportion (in 100)			
		rural		urban	
		male	female	male	female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	WPR in usual status (ps+ss)	54	25	55	15
2.	Proportion of workers in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors among all workers	43	35	96	92
3.	Proportion of workers in the informal sector among all workers in AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors	76	73	70	64
4.	Proportion of workers in the non-agriculture sector among all workers in the informal sector	94	63	99	95
	Proportion of employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors who had no written job contract	86	81	73	72
6.	Proportion of temporary employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors	47	53	35	39
7.	Proportion of employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors who were not eligible for paid leave	81	81	61	59
8.	Proportion of employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors who were not eligible for any social security benefit	79	83	63	64
9.	Proportion of employees in the AGEGC and non-agriculture sectors who neither had written job contract nor were eligible for paid leave	78	74	57	55
10.	Proportion of usual status workers who had no union/association in their activities	82	89	68	77

Highlights - Report No. 558: Household Consumption of various Goods and Services in India

NSS 68th Round (July, 2011 – June, 2012)

The report is based on information collected during 2011-12 from 101651 households in 469 villages and 5268 urban blocks spread over the entire country.

A. CEREALS, PULSES AND EDIBLE OIL

- Rice consumption per person per month in rural India was estimated as 5.98 kg in 2011-12 compared to 6.38 kg in 2004-05 – a fall of 0.4 kg in 7 years. In urban India the fall in rice consumption between these two years was 0.2 kg per person per month – from 4.71 kg to 4.49 kg. Per capita consumption of PDS rice has, however, doubled in rural India and risen by 66% in urban India since 2004-05, implying that the share of PDS purchases in rice consumption has risen substantially.

- Per capita consumption of wheat in 2011-12 showed a slight rise since 2004-05 of about 0.1 kg per person per month in rural areas and a fall of 0.35 kg in urban areas. As in case of rice, the share of PDS purchase in wheat consumption has increased considerably, per capita consumption of PDS wheat having more than doubled since 2004-05 in both sectors.

- For the pulses-and-pulse-products group as a whole, per capita consumption rose by 77-78 gm between 2004-05 and 2011-12 – from 705 gm per month to 783 gm in the rural sector and from 824 gm to 901 gm in the urban sector. Of this rise, however, as much as 69 gm in the rural sector and 57 gm in the urban sector was contributed by the four items split gram, whole gram, pea and besan.

- The four pulses arhar, moong, masur and urd – which in 2011-12 together made up about 64% of consumption of pulses and pulse products in rural India and 68% in urban India – registered a total increase in monthly per capita consumption of only 14 gm in the rural sector and 18 gm in the urban sector over this 7-year period.

- Monthly per capita edible oil consumption was estimated as 674 gm in rural India and 853 gm in urban India. Among the different kinds of edible oil, mustard oil had the largest share – about 45% – in the rural sector and refined oil (which includes sunflower oil and soyabean oil) had the largest share – 47% – in the urban.

B. OTHER FOOD

- Consumption of eggs during a 7-day period was reported by 29% of rural and about 38% of urban households. Per capita consumption of eggs was 1.94 per month (0.45 per week) in rural India and 3.18 (0.74 per week) in urban India.

- Per capita consumption of fish in rural areas was slightly higher (266 gm per person per month) than in urban (252 gm). Also, the percentage of households reporting consumption during a 7-day period in case of fish was higher was in rural India (over 26%) than in urban India (21%) but was higher in urban India for milk, eggs, goat meat and chicken.

- Consumption of carrots, lemons, cauliflowers, cabbages and tomatoes was appreciably more common in urban areas of the country, while potatoes, onions, gourds/pumpkins and brinjal

were reported to be consumed by a greater percentage of households in rural areas in a 7-day period. The average rural Indian consumed about 1 kg 965 gm of potatoes a month, about 350 gm more than the average urban resident.

- Per capita urban consumption of all the commonly consumed fruits and nuts exceeded rural consumption whether measured in terms of value or quantity. Rural-urban disparities in consumption were relatively low in case of coconuts, mangoes, groundnuts and bananas, and high for apples, grapes and oranges.

- Expenditure on tea (tea leaf plus purchased ready-to-drink tea) was about Rs.28 per person per month in rural India and about Rs.48 in urban India.

- In the urban sector the contribution of purchased cooked meals to food expenditure per person per month was Rs.58. Purchases of ready-to-eat cooked snacks from restaurants, food stalls, etc. were reported by nearly 60% of urban households during the last 7 days and amounted to about Rs.37 per person per month in urban India.

C. FUEL, CLOTHING, EDUCATION, MEDICAL CARE

- Electricity was consumed by 96% urban households and 74% rural households. Electricity made up about 50% of fuel (other than transport fuel) expenditure in the average urban household and 22% in the average rural household.

- Nearly 71% households in urban areas and over 21% in rural areas reported consumption of LPG for household use during the last 30 days. However, the percentage of households reporting use of firewood and chips remained as high as 83.5% in rural areas and 23% in urban areas.

- Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, the rural sector showed an increase of 83% in the proportion of LPG-consuming households and an increase of 75% in the quantity of LPG consumption per person. The urban sector showed a rise of 20% both in the proportion of LPG-consuming households and in the quantity of LPG consumption per person.

- In case of electricity there was, in rural areas, in the 7-year period between 2004-05 and 2011-12, a rise of 36% in the proportion of electricity-consuming households (compared to a rise of 6% in urban areas) and of 57% in per capita quantity of electricity consumed (compared to 29% in urban areas).

- Cloth for shirts and trousers had greater importance in the clothing budget of the rural Indian compared to the urban, while the shares of readymade garments such as shirts, trousers, kurtas, pyjamas, etc. were all greater for urban India. Saris accounted for 16% of the clothing budget in both sectors.

- Educational expenditure per person per month (including the entire population in the denominator and not only students) was about Rs.50 (3.5% of MPCE) in rural India and Rs.181.50 (about 7% of MPCE) in urban India.

- The share of tuition and other fees grew noticeably from about 44% to 56% in rural India and from about 58% to 67% in urban India between 2004-05 and 2011-12. The proportion of households incurring expenditure on private tutors and coaching centres was about 12% in

rural India and 17% in urban India in 2011-12.

- Medicine accounted for nearly 80% of non-institutional (that is, not incurred as inpatient of a hospital) medical expenses in rural India and 75% in urban India.

D. MISCELLANEOUS GOODS AND SERVICES (all expenditures at current prices)

- Per capita expenditure on petrol in rural areas rose in 2011-12 to about Rs.23, about 4.2 times its level in 2004-05. In urban areas it increased about 2.7 times, from Rs.31 to about Rs.85 per month, between 2004-05 and 2011-12 – a period during which overall per capita consumer expenditure grew by 122% in rural and by 124% in urban India.

- In rural India, telephone expenditure per person increased to about Rs.25 per month in 2011-12, which was about 4.6 times its value in 2004-05. While 32% of rural households reported telephone expenditure in 2004-05, the proportion of households in 2011-12 reporting expenditure on mobile phones alone was 77%.

- Expenditure per person on cable TV subscription in rural India rose in 2011-12 to 5.9 times its value in 2004-05, and the proportion of households incurring such expenditure increased by 270%.

- Urban expenditure per person on house rent registered a nearly threefold increase over the 7 years between 2004-05 and 2011-12.

E. DURABLE GOODS

- The share of gold ornaments in durables expenditure was estimated at nearly 24% in rural India compared to about 20% in urban India.

- Motor cars had a share of over 21% in urban India, compared to 9% in rural India. The share of motorized two-wheelers was about 12-14% in both sectors.

- Mobile phone handsets made up 4.4% of expenditure on durables in each sector.

- Television sets were possessed by nearly 50% of rural households in 2011-12 compared to 26% in 2004-05, and by 80% of urban households in 2011-12 compared to 66% in 2004-05.

- Refrigerators were possessed by 44% urban households in 2011-12 compared to 32% in 2004-05, and motor cars by 8% of urban households in 2011-12 compared to 4.6% in 2004-05.

- The proportion of rural households with motorcycles or scooters more than doubled in the 7 years prior to 2011-12 from 7.7% to 18.4%, while in the urban sector the proportion increased from 26% to 38%.

Highlights - Report no 559: Participation of Women in Specified Activities along with Domestic Duties

NSS 68th Round (July, 2011 – June, 2012)

This report is based on the employment and unemployment survey conducted in the 68th round of NSS during July 2011 to June 2012. The survey was spread over 12737 FSUs (7469 villages and 5268 urban blocks) covering 101724 households (59700 in rural areas and 42024 in urban areas) and enumerating 456999 persons (280763 in rural areas and 176236 in urban areas).

The enumerated persons have different multipliers due to sampling. The number of enumerated persons in the sample, that are used to generate estimates, are presented in the detailed Tables given in Appendix A together with estimated persons using multipliers.

In NSS 68th round (July 2011- June 2012), a set of probing questions was put to all the members of the households engaged in domestic duties in the usual principal status regarding the reasons of their participation in domestic duties, participation in certain specified activities more or less regularly along with their domestic duties, their willingness to accept work at their household premises, nature of work and type of work acceptable to them; whether they had any skill/ experience to undertake that work; and what type of assistance they required to undertake the desired work etc. As per the classification of activity statuses, persons with activity status codes 92 (attended domestic duties only) and 93 (attended domestic duties and were also engaged in free collection of goods, sewing, tailoring, weaving, etc. for household use) were considered to be engaged in domestic duties. In NSS 68th round, out of the 280763 persons enumerated in rural areas and 176236 persons enumerated in urban areas, 58715 persons in rural areas and 40327 persons in urban areas were found to be engaged on domestic duties in usual principal status.

Some of the key findings at the all-India level based on the data collected from the women engaged in domestic duties during 2011-12 are stated below:

A. Participation of Women in Domestic Duties

- About 42 per cent of rural females were engaged in domestic duties - about 18.5 per cent with activity status code 92 and about 23.7 per cent with activity status code 93.
- About 48 per cent of urban females were engaged in domestic duties - about 36.4 per cent with activity status code 92 and about 11.6 per cent with activity status code 93.
- Among women of age 5 years and above, about 46 per cent in rural areas and 52 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties.
- Among women of age 15 years and above, about 60 per cent in rural areas and 64 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties.
- Among women of age 5-14 years, about 2.7 per cent in rural areas and 1.8 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties.
- Among women of age 15-59 years, about 61.6 per cent in rural areas and 65.1 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties.

- Among women of age 15-64 years, about 61.4 per cent in rural areas and 65.3 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties.

- Among women of age 65 years and above, about 37.2 per cent in rural areas and 41.5 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties.

- In rural areas, proportion of women engaged in domestic duties increased from 35.3 per cent in 61st (2004-05) round to 40.1 per cent in 66th (2009-10) round which further increased to 42.2 per cent during 68th (2011-12) round.

- In urban areas, proportion of women engaged in domestic duties increased from 45.6 per cent in 61st (2004-05) round to 48.2 per cent in 66th (2009-10) round and remained almost unchanged between 66th and 68th rounds.

B. Reason for Participation of Women in Domestic Duties

B.1. Among women of age 15 years and above who were engaged in domestic duties

- In both rural and urban areas, about 92 per cent spent most of their time on domestic duties. Among those who spent most of their time on domestic duties, about 60 per cent in rural areas and 64 per cent in urban areas did so due to the reason *'no other member to carry out the domestic duties'*.

- In both rural and urban areas, about 8 per cent were not required to spend most of their time on domestic duties. Among those who spent most of their time on domestic duties, about 50 per cent in rural areas and 51 per cent in urban areas still pursued the same because of their *own preference*.

C. Participation of Women in Specified Activities

C.1. 5 years and above

- Among women of age 5 years and above, about 39 per cent in rural areas and about 50 per cent in urban areas were engaged in domestic duties and were not workers in the subsidiary status.

- Among women of age 5 years and above who were engaged in domestic duties and were not workers in the subsidiary status, about 57 per cent in rural areas and 15 per cent in urban areas pursued one or more of the activities relating to *agricultural production such as the maintenance of kitchen garden, work in household poultry, dairy, etc., including free collection of agricultural products for household consumption* (activities which are considered as economic activity as per ISNA and grouped under category (i) in the report) and *processing of primary products for household consumption* (activities which are considered as economic activity as per SNA 2008 but not by ISNA and grouped under category (ii) in the report).

- Among women of age 5 years and above who were not workers in the subsidiary status, about 21.9 per cent in rural areas and 7.5 per cent in urban areas pursued one or more of the activities under categories (i) and (ii).

- The WPR for women of age 5 years and above in usual status (ps+ss) was 27.3 per cent in rural areas and 15.8 per cent in urban areas whereas considering the production boundary of

SNA-2008, the approximate upper bound of worker population ratio (WPR) of women of age 5 years and above in usual status (ps+ss) are obtained as 49.2 per cent in rural areas and 23.3 per cent in urban areas.

C.2. 15-59 years

- Among women of age 15-59 years who were not workers in the subsidiary status, about 29.4 per cent in rural areas and 9.5 per cent in urban areas pursued one or more of the activities under categories (i) and (ii).

- The Worker Population Ratio (WPR) of women of age 15-59 years in usual status (ps+ss) were 37.2 per cent and 21.0 per cent in rural and urban areas, respectively whereas considering the production boundary of SNA-2008, the approximate upper bound of worker population ratio (WPR) of women of age 15-59 years in usual status (ps+ss) are 66.6 per cent in rural areas and was 30.5 per cent in urban areas.

C.3. All ages

- Among women of all ages who were not workers in the subsidiary status, about 20.0 per cent in rural areas and about 6.9 per cent in urban areas pursued one or more of the activities under categories (i) and (ii).

- The Worker Population Ratio (WPR) of women in usual status (ps+ss) was 24.8 per cent in rural areas and 14.7 per cent in urban areas whereas considering the production boundary of SNA-2008, the approximate upper bound of worker population ratio (WPR) of women of all ages in usual status (ps+ss) are obtained as 44.8 per cent in rural areas and 21.6 per cent in urban areas.

D. Willingness of women to accept work at household premises

- Among women of age 15 years and above engaged in domestic duties, about 34 per cent in rural areas and 28 per cent in urban areas were willing to accept work at their household premises.

- In both rural and urban areas, the most preferred work that was acceptable at the household premises was *tailoring* – this was reported by 12 per cent of rural women and 14 per cent of urban women of age 15 years and above engaged in domestic duties.

E. Nature of work acceptable at household premises

- Among women of age 15 years and above willing to accept work at the household premises, about 95 per cent in both rural and urban areas preferred to work on regular basis.

F. Skill/Experience to Accept Specified Work

- In both rural and urban areas, among women of age 15 years and above willing to accept work at the household premises, about 54 per cent had some skill/experience to undertake the desired work.

G. Assistance required for taking up the desired work

Among women of age 15 years and above willing to accept work at the household premises, about 41 per cent in rural areas and 29 per cent in urban areas required assistance in terms of *'initial finance on easy terms'* and about 21 per cent in rural areas and 27 per cent in urban areas required *training* to take up their desired work.

Highlights - Report No. 560: Nutritional Intake in India, 2011-12

NSS 68th Round (July, 2011 – June, 2012)

The report is based on information collected during 2011-12 from 7469 villages and 5268 urban blocks spread over the entire country. Two different schedules were used to collect information on consumption; the first being canvassed in 101662 households and the second in 101651 households.

A. Intake of Dietary Energy (based on Sch. Type 2)

- Average dietary energy intake per person per day was 2233 Kcal for rural India and 2206 Kcal for urban India. All the major States had per capita rural/urban levels of calorie intake within 11% (plus or minus) of the all-India rural/urban average.

- In each sector average calorie intake increased steadily with monthly per capita expenditure (MPCE) class. The difference between the lowest fractile class (poorest 5% of population ranked by MPCE level) and the next fractile class (the next 5%) in per capita calorie intake was as high as 183 Kcal per day in rural India.

- About 59.5% of the all-India rural population had energy intake in the range 80-120% of 2700 Kcal/consumer unit/day (a level used in NSS tabulation for comparisons), that is, 2160-3240 Kcal/consumer unit/day.

- The all-India urban calorie intake distribution was similar to the rural, with slightly higher numbers of households in the top and bottom intake classes. Inter-State differences in energy intake distributions, especially at the lower end, were much less prominent in the urban sector of India than in the rural.

- Among the bottom 5% of rural population ranked by MPCE, 57% of households had calorie intake below 2160 Kcal/consumer unit/day, the proportion falling to 39% for the next 5%, and continuing to fall until it dropped to only about 2% for the top 5% of population.

- Similarly, the proportion of urban households with calorie intake below 2160 Kcal/consumer unit/day was 59% for the bottom 5% of population, falling to 47% for the next 5%, and reaching 1.6% for the top 5% of population.

- The share of energy intake contributed by cereals was about 57% for rural India and 48% for urban India. The contribution of cereals varied across the major States from 42% (Punjab) to 70% (Odisha) in the rural sector and from 39% (Haryana) to 60% (Odisha and Bihar) in the urban sector.

- The contribution of cereals to calorie intake was seen to fall progressively with rise in MPCE

level, from 70% for the bottom 5% of population to 42% for the top 5% ranked by MPCE in rural India, and from about 66% to about 29% in urban India.

- Non-cereal food contributed about 43% of calorie intake in rural India. The percentage break-up of this part of calorie intake (the part coming from non-cereal food) was: oils and fats: 22%; miscellaneous food, food products and beverages: 21%; milk and milk products: 15%; pulses, nuts and oilseeds: 12%; sugar and honey: 11%; roots and tubers: 9%; vegetables and fruits: 7%; meat, eggs & fish: 3%.

- Non-cereal food contributed about 52% of calorie intake in urban India. On the whole, the pattern of calorie intake from non-cereal food was similar in rural and urban areas, though the share of roots and tubers was, at 7%, somewhat lower.

- The share of "milk and milk products" in calorie intake contributed by non-cereals, which was between 8% and 27% in the urban sector of all the major States, ranged from 3% to 36% in the rural sector, being 7% or less in 4 major States.

- "Sugar and honey" usually had a higher contribution to calorie intake from non-cereal food in States with higher average levels of living.

B. Intake of Protein and Fat (based on Sch. Type 2)

- At the all-India level protein intake per person per day was 60.7gm in the rural sector and 60.3gm in the urban.

- The range of inter-State variation for major States was appreciably wider in the rural sector, where per capita intake per day varied from about 52gm (Chhattisgarh) to about 73gm (Haryana), than in the urban, where it varied from 55gm (Assam) to about 69gm (Haryana).

- In some of the poorer States, protein intake was markedly lower in the rural sector than in the urban; examples are Jharkhand (rural: 54.7gm, urban: 60.3gm) and Chhattisgarh (rural: 51.7gm, urban: 55.8gm). On the other hand, in the States with the highest levels of protein intake, viz., Haryana, Rajasthan and Punjab, it was the rural population and not the urban that had higher protein intake (about 4-5gm higher).

- Average protein intake per capita per day was seen to rise steadily with MPCE level in rural India from 43gm for the bottom 5% of population ranked by MPCE to 91gm for the top 5%, and in urban India from 44gm for the bottom 5% to about 87gm for the top 5%.

- The share of cereals in protein intake was 58% for rural and 49% for urban India.

- The share of milk and milk products in protein intake was 10% in rural India and 12% in urban

India. It was highest in Haryana (rural: 27%; urban: 22%) and Punjab (rural and urban: 23%), and between 14% and 18% in Rajasthan and Gujarat. Among the 17 major States, these 4 States and Uttar Pradesh (rural: 11%; urban: 13%) were the *only 5* States where the contribution of milk and milk products to protein intake was higher than the national average.

- The share of meat, fish and egg in protein intake was only 7% in rural India and 9% in urban India. The share was 26% in both rural and urban Kerala, and was 10% or more in only 5 other major States: West Bengal, Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and Karnataka.

- The contribution of cereals to protein intake is seen to fall steadily with rise in MPCE from 72% for the bottom 5% of population to 42% for the top 5% in rural India and from 68% to 31% in urban India. On the other hand, the contribution of milk and milk products to protein intake is seen to rise from 3% for the bottom fractile class of population in the rural sector to 16% in the highest, and from 4% to 17% in the urban sector. The contribution of egg, fish and meat to protein intake, too, climbs quite noticeably across MPCE classes from 2% to 12% in rural India and from 4% to 11% in urban India.

- Average fat intake for the country as a whole was about 46gm per person per day in the rural sector and 58gm in the urban sector. Considerable inter-State variation, however, existed, especially in rural India. In both sectors, per capita intake was lowest in Odisha and Assam. The States with highest fat intake were Haryana (rural: 69gm; urban: 75gm), Gujarat (rural: 62gm; urban: 73gm) and Punjab (rural: 70gm; urban: 69gm).

- Urban fat intake per person per day exceeded rural intake by 9gm or more in nine of the major States and by more than 13gm in West Bengal and Jharkhand. Rural intake exceeded urban in only one major State – Punjab.

- Per capita fat intake was about 100g in the top fractile class of the urban sector and about 27gm in the lowest fractile class. In the rural sector the intake of the top fractile class was 92gm while that of the bottom class was 21gm.

- At all-India level, in contrast to the remarkable closeness of average protein intake across the rural-urban divide, average urban fat intake was noticeably higher than rural intake in all the fractile classes.

C. Trends in Nutritional Intake (based on Sch. Type 1)

- Comparison of estimates for India and the major States from NSS surveys between 1983 and 2011-12 shows calorie intake declining in both sectors after 1999-2000, the decline being sharper in the urban sector, but recovering again to regain a level of about 2100 Kcal per person per day in the rural sector and about 2060 Kcal in the urban in 2011-12. At the level of

individual States, a rise in average calorie intake level between 2004-05 and 2011-12 is noted in rural areas of most of the major States.

- The proportion of households with calorie intake under 2160 Kcal per consumer unit per day, which in both sectors increased over the period 1993-94 to 2004-05, is seen to have subsequently declined appreciably to reach about 20% in the rural sector and 23% in the urban. On the whole, the distribution of dietary energy intake appears to have experienced a reduction in dispersion since the 1990s.

- Over the 18-year period from 1993-94 to 2011-12, the share of cereals in total calorie intake has declined by nearly 10 percentage points in the rural sector and nearly 7 percentage points in the urban. On the other hand, the share of oils and fats has risen by about 3½ percentage points in both sectors.

- In rural India as a whole, protein intake per person per day has definitely declined since 1993-94. However, the decline at the all-India level shows signs of flattening out, being only 0.5gm less in 2011-12 compared to 2004-05. The decline in rural protein intake since 1993-94 has been prominent in Rajasthan (a fall of 11gm), Haryana (about 10gm), and Punjab (8gm). In the urban sector the decline between 1993-94 and 2011-12 is less marked than in the rural. In both sectors, all the southern States except Karnataka show slight increases in protein intake per person during this period.

- An unmistakable rising trend in per capita fat intake is visible not only at all-India level but in every major State. For rural India the rise has been from 31.4gm per day in 1993-94 to 41.6gm in 2011-12 and for urban India, from 42.0gm to 52.5gm– a rise of over 10gm in both sectors over the 18-year period. In both sectors, all the major States show a rise ranging from 5-6gm to 17-18gm during this period.

- Over the 18 years preceding 2011-12, the contribution of cereals to protein intake has fallen by about 7 percentage points in rural India and nearly 6 percentage points in urban India while the shares of the other major food groups have all risen slightly.

Highlights - Report No. 561: Urban Slums in India, 2012

NSS 69th Round (July, 2012 – December, 2012)

The report is based on information collected during July-December 2012 from 881 slums in 3832 urban blocks spread over the entire urban area of the country.

A. Number of Slums and Slum Households

- An estimated total of 33,510 slums existed in the urban areas of India, of which 13,761 were notified and 19,749 were *non-notified* slums.
- An estimated 8.8 million households lived in these slums, about 5.6 million in *notified* and 3.2 million in *non-notified* slums.
- Maharashtra, with an estimated 7723 slums, accounted for about 23% of all slums in urban India, followed by Andhra Pradesh, accounting for 14%, and West Bengal, which had a share of about 12%.
- As many as 38% of slum households of urban India were estimated to be living in Maharashtra, and 18% in Andhra Pradesh.
- At the all-India level the average slum size was estimated at 263 households.
- The *notified* slums had on the average 404 households and the *non-notified* slums had on the average only 165.
- Average slum size was highest in Maharashtra (433 households per slum), followed by Karnataka (392) and Andhra Pradesh (352).
- About 56% of slums in the million-plus cities and 58% of those in other urban areas of the country had less than 150 households. Among *non-notified* slums, 77% in the million-plus cities and 74% in other urban areas had less than 150 households.

B. Land Occupied by Slums

- About 39% of all slums had area in the range 0.05 to 1 hectare, about 21% were in the 1-2 hectares range, and 15% were less than 0.05 hectares in size.
- About 30% of slums were located in open spaces or parks, 23% along nallahs or drains, and 9% along railway lines.

- 66% of slums were surrounded by residential areas, 15% by slum areas, and 10% by industrial areas.

- 44% of slums were situated on private land, 37% on land owned by local bodies, 6% on railway land, and 12% on other public land.

C. Present Condition of Slums

- The majority of houses had pucca structures in nearly 60% of slums – including 85% of notified slums but only 42% of non-notified slums – semi-pucca structures in 25%, and katcha structures in 15%.

- Taps were the major source of drinking water in nearly 71% of all slums (including 82% of notified slums), and tube wells/ boreholes in 20%.

- About 68% of slums at the all-India level had electricity both for household use and for street lights, the proportion being about 86% for notified slums and 55% for non-notified slums. The all-India proportion of slums having no electricity connection was 7%, most slums of this category being non-notified.

- 66% of slums had a pucca road/ lane/ constructed path within the slum. The proportion of such slums was 83% among notified and 55% among non-notified slums.

- At all-India level 71% of slums – including 78% of notified and 67% of non-notified slums – had a pucca and motorable approach road/ lane/ constructed path to the slum.

- In 15% of notified slums, 42% of non-notified slums, and 31% of all slums taken together, no latrine was used by most of the residents.

- In about 33% of all slums, most residents used their own latrines. The proportion was 44% for notified slums and 25% for non-notified slums. Public/community latrines were used by most of the residents in about 31% of all slums (with payment in 17% and without payment in 14%) and shared latrines in 5%.

- 44% of notified slums, but only 18% of non-notified slums, had an underground sewerage system, the proportion for all slums being 29%.

- An estimated 31% of slums – 11% of notified and 45% of non-notified slums – had no drainage system. The open pucca drainage system prevailed in 35% of all slums – 49% of notified and 25% of non-notified slums. 26% of notified slums but only 14% of non-notified slums had an underground drainage system.

- In 27% of all slums – 11% of notified and 38% of non-notified slums – there was no arrangement of garbage disposal. Absence of a garbage disposal arrangement in slums was noticeably less common in the million-plus cities (14% of all slums) than in other urban areas (33%). The municipality/corporation had arranged for garbage disposal in 62% of all slums – 80% of notified and 49% of non-notified slums. In 11% of slums, the residents had arranged for garbage disposal.

- Daily garbage collection was reported by 57% of the slums having a garbage disposal arrangement. About 15% reported a "once in 2 days" frequency of collection.

- The problem of waterlogging (due to rainfall) of either the slum, or the approach road to the slum, was reported by about 46% of all slums – including 27% where both the approach road and the slum itself got waterlogged.

- At the all-India level about 59% of both notified and non-notified slums were within half a kilometre of a government primary school. Moreover, among notified slums, about 91%, and among non-notified slums, about 85%, were within 1 km of such a school.

- At the all-India level about 20% of both notified and non-notified slums were within half a kilometre of a government hospital/ health centre. Among notified slums, about 50%, and among non-notified slums, 46%, were within 1 km of a government hospital/ health centre.

- 24% of slums – 32% among *notified* and 18% among *non-notified* slums – reported that they had benefited from welfare schemes like Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) and Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY).

D. Direction of Change During Last 5 Years

- Over the 5 years preceding the date of survey, water supply had improved in 43% of all slums. In 48% of slums, the condition of water supply had remained unchanged. In 7% of slums, water supply facilities were reported as non-existent on the date of survey, as well as 5 years ago.

- For 57% of slums in urban India, electricity facilities had not changed during the past 5 years. Among notified slums 44%, and among non-notified slums, 32% reported an improvement, with 5% of all slums reporting that electricity facilities were non-existent both 5 years earlier and now.

- The road within the slum had improved over the last 5 years in 48% of slums. 46% of slums reported no change in the condition of the road as a whole over the past 5 years, while 4% of slums reported that such a road did not exist now or 5 years earlier.

- The approach road to the slum was reported to have improved over the last 5 years in 53% of all slums, including 62% of notified and 47% of non-notified slums.

- 49% of slums reported that there had been no change in the condition of street lights during the last 5 years. Improvement in street lights was reported by 37% of all slums. In 11% of all slums, street lights did not exist, and had not existed 5 years ago.

- 47% of slums reported that there had been no change in the condition of latrine facilities during the last 5 year. Improvement in latrine facilities was reported by 32% of slums. In 17% of slums, latrine facilities were reported as non-existent now as well as 5 years earlier.

- No change in condition of drainage facilities during the last 5 years was reported by 47% of slums. Improvement was reported by 33% of all slums, the proportion being 40% for notified slums and 29% for non-notified slums. In an estimated 17% of all urban slums, drainage facilities did not exist either 5 years earlier, or on the date of survey. However, very few slums in any State reported deterioration in drainage facilities.

- About 50% of slums in urban India reported that no change in sewerage facilities had taken place during the last 5 years. In another 26% of slums, sewerage facilities did not exist now or 5 years ago. Improvement was reported by 22% of all slums. These included 36% of slums in the million-plus cities and 15% in other urban areas.

- 34% of slums reported that garbage disposal facilities had improved over the past 5 years. In about 50% of slums, no change in the facilities had occurred during the last 5 years. About 14% of all slums in urban India including 20% of non-notified slums reported that they had no garbage disposal facilities, either at present or 5 years ago.

- Improvement in education facility at primary level during the last 5 years was reported by 30% of all slums, and "no change" by 57%, with 11% reporting that the facility did not exist now or 5 years ago. Such improvement was somewhat less common in the million-plus cities than in the other urban areas.

- About 20% of all slums in urban India reported improvement in medical facilities during the last 5 years, about 64% reported no change, and only 1% reported deterioration, with about 15% reporting that medical facilities did not exist on the date of survey and had not existed 5 years earlier.

खण्ड-III हिंदी

सर्वेक्षण

राष्ट्रीय प्रतिदर्श सर्वेक्षण कार्यालय
की पत्रिका

भाग-XXXI सं॰ 1 और 2
अंक संख्या 99वां

राष्ट्रीय प्रतिदर्श सर्वेक्षण कार्यालय
सांख्यिकी और कार्यक्रम कार्यान्वयन मंत्रालय
भारत सरकार
नई दिल्ली

सम्पादकीय सचिवालय- समन्वय एवं प्रकाशन प्रभाग, राष्ट्रीय प्रतिदर्श सर्वेक्षण कार्यालय, सांख्यिकी और कार्यक्रम कार्यान्वयन मंत्रालय, सरदार पटेल भवन, संसद मार्ग, नई दिल्ली-110001

डॉ आशुतोष ओझा, निदेशक
श्री निखिल कुमार अग्रवाल, सहायक निदेशक
श्री विनोद सागर, वरिष्ठ सांख्यिकीय अधिकारी

मूल्य: अंतर्देशीय ₹ 300/-

सर्वेक्षण

भाग-XXXI सं॰ 1 और 2

एनएसएसओ द्वारा जारी की गई रिपोर्टों की मुख्य बातें

(मुख्य बातें एनएसएसओ के एस.डी.आर.डी. प्रभाग द्वारा तैयार की गई सम्बंधित रिपोर्ट से उद्धृत की गई हैं। विवरण के लिए पाठक सम्बंधित मुख्य रिपोर्ट देख सकते हैं)

हिंदी -195-246

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं० 552: भारत में प्रमुख धार्मिक समूहों में रोजगार और बेरोजगारी की स्थिति

एनएसएस 66वां दौर (जुलाई, 2009 – जून, 2010)

यह रिपोर्ट जुलाई 2009 से जून 2010 के दौरान संचालित एनएसएस के 66वें दौर में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगार पर किये गए आठवें पंचवर्षीय सर्वेक्षण पर आधारित है । यह सर्वेक्षण 7,402 ग्रामों एवं 5,252 नगरीय खंडो के 100957 परिवारों (59129 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 41828 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) में फैला था, एवं 459784 व्यक्तियों की गणना (281327 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 178457 नगरीय क्षेत्रों) की गई । इस सर्वेक्षण में प्रत्येक परिवार द्वारा माने गए धर्म पर घरेलु विशेषताओं के एक भाग के रूप में सूचना इक्टठी की गयी । परिवार के मुखिया के धर्म को ही सभी पारिवारिक सदस्यों का धर्म माना गया । इस बात की परवाह किए बगैर कि निजी सदस्यों द्वारा कौन सा असली धर्म माना जाता है । सात ज्ञात प्रमुख धर्मों जैसे हिन्दुत्व, इस्लाम, ईसाई, सिख, जैन, बौद्ध एवं जोरोष्ट्रवाद को स्पष्ट रूप से आँकड़ा संग्रहण हेतु पारिवारिक विशिष्टताओं के एक भाग के रूप में माना गया । इनमें से हिन्दुत्व, इस्लाम, इसाई एवं सिख धर्म के अनुयायियों ने चार मुख्य धार्मिक वर्गों का गठन किया । वे परिवार जो इन चार धर्मों के अलावा दूसरे धर्मों का पालन करते हैं को एक साथ संयुक्त करके 'अन्य' के वर्ग में रखा गया है । इस रिपोर्ट की कुछ मुख्य विशेषताएं निम्नलिखित है :

- ग्रामीण भारत में 2009-10 के दौरान, करीब 84 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या का लगभग 84 प्रतिशत परिवार हिन्दुत्व के अनुयायी थे जबकि करीब 11 प्रतिशत परिवार इस्लाम के अनुयायी थे । उनकी जनसंख्या 12 प्रतिशत थी । इसाई धर्म माननेवाले 2 प्रतिशत परिवारों की जनसंख्या 2 प्रतिशत थी । नगरीय क्षेत्रों में हिन्दुत्व को मानने वाले परिवार एवं जनसंख्या का प्रतिशत करीब 81 एवं 79 था, इस्लाम को माननेवाले परिवारों का प्रतिशत 13 एवं 16 और इसाई धर्म के अनुयायी क्रमश: 3 एवं 3 थे ।

- ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों में 2004-05 एवं 2009-10 के बीच हिन्दुओं एवं मुस्लिमों के लिंग अनुपात में गिरावट दिखाई गई फिर भी इस अविध के दौरान, जो ईशाइयों के तदनुरूप थे उनमें सुधार दिखाया गया । ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनो केलिए 2004-05 एवं 2009-10 के बीच समग्र ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय जनसंख्या के सम्पूर्ण लिंग अनुपात में गिरावट दिखाई गई ।

- ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों में परिवार का औसतन आकार, मुसलमानो में अन्य धार्मिक वर्गों के मुकाबले अधिक था, एवं परिवार का औसतन आकार का ईशाइयों में सबसे कम था । प्रत्येक धार्मिक वर्ग केलिए नगरीय क्षेत्रों के मुकाबले ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में परिवार का आकार अधिक था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में, सभी धार्मिक वर्गों के लिए स्व-रोजगार मुख्य आधार था । कृषि में स्व-रोजगार से प्राप्त प्रमुख आय वाले परिवारों का अनुपात सबसे अधिक (करीब 36 प्रतिशत) सिखों में था । ग्रामीण मजदूर पारिवारिक प्रारूप से संबंधित परिवारों का अनुपात मुसलमानो के बीच सबसे अधिक (करीब 41 प्रतिशत) था । नगरीय भारत में, उपार्जन के प्रमुख स्रोत के रूप में स्व-रोजगार वाले नगरीय परिवारों का अनुपात मुस्लिमों में सबसे अधिक (46 प्रतिशत)

था । नगरीय क्षेत्रों में नियमित मजदूरी /वेतन से अर्जन का प्रमुख स्रोत इसाई परिवारों के लिए सबसे अधिक (43 प्रतिशत) था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में सभी धारित भूमि वाले श्रेणियों में उन परिवारों का अनुपात जो कि धारित भूमि के क्षेत्र के थे '0.005 - 0.40' हेक्टेयर था जो कि सभी मुख्य धार्मिक वर्गों में सबसे अधिक था; जो कि 40 प्रतिशत से अधिक था ।

- करीब 43 प्रतिशत इसाई परिवार एवं 36 प्रतिशत मुस्लिम एवं 37 प्रतिशत हिन्दु परिवारों ने भूमि की कुछ खेती की जो कि 0.001 हैक्टेयर से ज्यादा या उसके बराबर था, परन्तु 1.00 हैक्टेयर से कम था । भूमि जोतने वाले परिवारों का अनुपात 4.00 हैक्टयर से अधिक था, सिखों के लिए सबसे अधिक (6 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् आए हिन्दु (3 प्रतिशत) ।

- दोनों ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय भारत के लिए, औसतन मा.प्र.उ.व्यय सिख परिवारों के लिए सबसे अधिक था, तत्पश्चात् आए इसाई एवं हिन्दु । अखिल-भारतीय-स्तर पर, सिख परिवार का औसतन मा.प्र.उ.व्यय रु 1659 था एवं मुस्लिम परिवार के लिए 980 रु. था ।

- 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले व्यक्तियों के बीच साक्षरता दर ईसाइयों में, ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में दोनों लिगों के लिए सबसे अधिक था । 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु के व्यक्तियों के अनुपात में जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर है ईसाइयों में सबसे अधिक था, तत्पश्चात थे सिख ।

- शैक्षणिक संस्थानों में वर्तमान उपस्थिति दर पुरुषों में महिलाओं के मुकाबले एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में भी ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों से अधिक था । शैक्षिनिक संस्थाओं में वर्तमान उपस्थिति दर 0-29 वर्ष के व्यक्तियों में प्रत्येक ग्रामीण पुरुष, ग्रामीण महिलाएं एवं नगरीय पुरुष एवं नगरीय महिलाओं में ईसाइयों में सबसे अधिक था ।

- सभी धार्मिक वर्गों के लिए श्रम बल भागीदारी दर (श्र.ब.भा.द) पुरुष के लिए महिला से काफी अधिक था - यह विभिन्नता नगरीय क्षेत्रों में काफी अधिक थी । (श्रम.ब.भा.द) में पुरुष - महिला विभिन्नता ईसाइयों में सबसे कम थी । यह श्र.ब.भा.द ईसाइयो में ग्रामीण पुरुष, ग्रामीण महिलाएं एवं नगरीय महिलाओं में सबसे अधिक था एवं सिखों में नगरीय पुरुषों में सबसे अधिक था ।

- सभी धार्मिक वर्गों में डब्ल्यु पी आर एस महिलाओं के मुकाबले पुरुषों में काफी अधिक था - यह विभिन्नता नगरीय क्षेत्रों में सबसे अधिक थी । डब्ल्युपीआरएस में पुरुष - महिला विभिन्नता इसाइयों में सबसे कम थी । सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) के अनुसार यह डब्ल्युपीआरएस सभी वर्गों के व्यक्तियों के लिए, नगरीय पुरुषों को छोड़कर ईसाइयों में सबसे अधिक था, जबकि हिन्दुओं का डब्ल्युपीआरएस ईसाइयों से अधिक था । ईसाइयों में ग्रामीण पुरुषों, ग्रामीण महिलाओं एवं नगरीय महिलाओं डब्ल्युपीआरएस क्रमवार करीब 56 प्रतिशत, 33 प्रतिशत, 22 प्रतिशत थे एवं हिन्दुओं में नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए करीब 55 प्रतिशत था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में बहुसंख्यक पुरुष कामगार साक्षर नहीं थे (28 प्रतिशत) या पढ़े-लिखे एवं प्राथमिक स्तर तक (28 प्रतिशत) के वर्ग के थे । जबकि बहुसंख्यक महिला कामगार या तो साक्षर नहीं (58 प्रतिशत) श्रेणी की थीं । ईसाइयों में पुरुष कामगारों का अनुपात जिनकी सामान्य शैक्षणिक योग्यता माध्यमिक या उससे अधिक थी सबसे ज्यादा थी (32 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् आए सिख (30 प्रतिशत) ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में बहुसंख्यक पुरुष कामगार माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर के शिक्षा स्तर में थे (52 प्रतिशत) । नगरीय पुरुषों में, जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर का था, कामगारों का अनुपात प्रत्येक ईसाईयों एवं सिखों के लिए 58 प्रतिशत था, जबकि हिन्दुओं एवं मुस्लिमों में, यह क्रमश:, 56 प्रतिशत एवं 30 प्रतिशत का था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले पुरुषों के लिए डब्ल्युपीआर शैक्षिक स्तर साक्षर एवं प्राइमरी तक के लिए सबसे अधिक था (90 प्रतिशत) एवं महिलाओं के लिए डब्ल्युपीआर उस शैक्षिक स्तर के लिए सबसे अधिक था जो साक्षर नहीं थे (43 प्रतिशत) । उन व्यक्तियों में जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर का था, पुरुषों के लिये डब्ल्युपीआर (70 प्रतिशत) महिलाओं के मुकाबले काफी अधिक था (22 प्रतिशत) । ग्रामीण पुरुषों में जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर था, डब्ल्यूपीआर हिन्दुओं में सबसे अधिक था (70 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् सिख (68 प्रतिशत) । ग्रामीण महिलाओं में जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर का था, के लिए डब्ल्युपीआर ईसाईयों में सबसे अधिक था (32 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् सिख (28 प्रतिशत) ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में, 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले पुरुषों के लिए डब्ल्युपीआर सामान्य शैक्षिक स्तर साक्षर एवं प्राइमरी तक सबसे अधिक था (84 प्रतिशत) एवं महिलाओं के लिए डब्ल्युपीआर शैक्षिक स्तर स्नातक एवं उससे ऊपर के लिए सबसे अधिक था (26 प्रतिशत) । नगरीय पुरुषों में, शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर के लिए, डब्ल्युपीआर हिन्दुओं में सबसे अधिक था (70 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् आए सिख (68 प्रतिशत) । इसी तरह ईसाईयों एवं मुस्लिमों के लिए (डब्ल्युपीआर क्रमश: 67 प्रतिशत एवं 65 प्रतिशत थे । नगरीय महिलाओं में जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर का था के लिए डब्ल्युपीआर ईसाईयों में सबसे अधिक था (32 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् सिख (18 प्रतिशत) ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में, बहुसंख्यक व्यक्ति रोजगार वर्ग के स्व-रोजगार श्रेणी में नियोजित थे। पुरुष कामगारेां में स्व-रोजगार का अनुपात करीब 54 प्रतिशत था एवं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में, पुरुषों में एक महत्वपूर्ण अंश के कामगार (38 प्रतिशत) एवं महिलाएं (40 प्रतिशत) आकस्मिक श्रम रोजगार में कार्यरत थे । ग्रामीण पुरुष कामगारों में, स्व रोजगार सिखों में सबसे अधिक था (55 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् हिन्दु (54 प्रतिशत) । ग्रामीण क्षेत्र के ईसाइयों में, पुरुषों (17

प्रतिशत) एवं महिला कामगारों (11 प्रतिशत) का एक महत्वपूर्ण अंश नियमित मजदूरी/वेतनभोगी रोजगार में कार्यरत थे।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में, कामगार कम या अधिक, समान रूप से स्व-रोजगार एवं नियमित मजदूरी/ वेतनभोगी रोजगार में कार्यरत थे । स्व-रोजगार में कार्यरत कामगारों का अनुपात मुस्लिमों में सबसे अधिक था, तत्पश्चात् थे सिख । नगरीय ईसाईयों में, पुरुष (45 प्रतिशत) एवं महिला (61 प्रतिशत) का एक महत्वपूर्ण अंश नियमित मजदूरी/वेतनभोगी रोजगार में कार्यरत थे । नगरीय हिन्दुओं में, करीब 44 प्रतिशत पुरुष कामगार एवं 40 प्रतिशत महिला कामगार नियमित मजदूरी । वेतनभोगी रोजगार में कार्यरत थे ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों के मुकाबले ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में बेरोजगारी दर कम थे । 2009-10 के दौरान, ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में बेरोजगारी दर दोनों, पुरुषों (3 प्रतिशत) एवं महिलाओं (6 प्रतिशत) में ईसाइयों में सबसे अधिक था । नगरीय क्षेत्रों में, सिखों में यह बेरोजगारी दर दोनों, पुरुषों (6 प्रतिशत) एवं महिलाओं (8 प्रतिशत) में अधिकतक था ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं0 553: भारत के महानगरों एवं नगरों में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगार की स्थिति

एनएसएस 66वां दौर (जुलाई, 2009 – जून, 2010)

यह रिपोर्ट जुलाई 2009 से जून 2010 के दौरान संचालित एनएसएस के 66वें दौर में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगार पर किये गए आठवें पंचवार्षिक सर्वेक्षण पर आधारित है । यह सर्वेक्षण 7,402 ग्रामों एवं 5,252 नगरीय खंडो के 1,00,957 परिवारों (59,129 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 41,828 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) में फैला हुआ था, एवं 4,59,784 व्यक्तियों (2,81,327 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 1,78,457 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) की गणना की गई । रोजगार एवं बेरोजगार तीन विभिन्न उपागमों में मापा गया, जैसे – सामान्य स्तर, एक वर्ष की सन्दर्भ अवधि के साथ, चालू साप्ताहिक स्तर एक सप्ताह की सन्दर्भ अवधि के साथ और चालू दैनिक स्तर, सन्दर्भ सप्ताह के प्रतिदिन के दौरान दैनिक क्रियाकलापों पर आधारित । यदि दूसरे ढंग से यह कहा गया कि सामान्य स्तर श्रमिकों का तात्पर्य वैसे सभी श्रमिकों से होगा, जिसपर सामान्य मुख्य एवं सहायक स्तर के साथ बिचार किया जाय । इस रिपोर्ट में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगार संकेतकों का भारत के प्रत्येक वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए प्राक्कलन प्रस्तुत किया गया है । जनसंख्या जनगणना 2001 के अनुसार प्रत्येक राज्य/केन्द्र शासित प्रदेश के तीनों आकार वर्ग के नगरों के लिए भी तदनुरूप प्राक्कलन प्रस्तुत किया गया है, जैसे – वर्ग 1 के महानगरों (दस लाख एवं उससे अधिक की जनसंख्या के साथ), वर्ग 2 के नगरों (50,000 से दस लाख की जनसंख्या के साथ) और वर्ग 3 के नगरों (50,000 से कम की जनसंख्या के साथ) । जुलाई 2009 से जून 2010 के दौरान, रोजगार एवं बेरोजगार पर हुए एनएसएस 66वें दौर के सर्वेक्षण के मुख्य निष्कर्ष निम्नलिखित हैं :-

- 15 वर्ष और उससे अधिक आयु वाले सामान्य तौर पर कार्यरत पुरुषों का अनुपात वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए 73 प्रतिशत था, एवं वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों के लिए 74 प्रतिशत एवं वर्ग 3 आकार वाले नगरों के लिए 76 प्रतिशत था । उसी आयु वर्ग की महिलाओं के लिए तदनुरूप अनुपात – वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए 17 प्रतिशत, वर्ग 2 आकार वाले नगरों के लिए 18 प्रतिशत एवं वर्ग 3 आकार वाले नगरों के लिए करीब 21 प्रतिशत थे ।

- 2004-05 एवं 2009-10 के बीच 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक के सामान्य रूप से कार्यरत पुरुषों के अनुपात में वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए 3 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की कमी आई, वर्ग 2 एवं 3 आकार के प्रत्येक नगरों के लिए 2 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की कमी आई । इस अवधि के दौरान, महिलाओं के लिए तदनुरूप कमी, वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए 3 प्रतिशत बिन्दु, श्रेणी 2 आकार के नगरों के लिए 4 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं एवं वर्ग 3 आकार वाले नगरों के लिए 7 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की कमी आई ।

- वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के बीच, कामगार जनसंख्या अनुपात (का.ज.अ.) 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयुवाले पुरुषों के लिए सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) सूरत में सबसे अधिक (87 प्रतिशत) और मेरठ में सबसे कम, (49 प्रतिशत) था, जबकि महिलाओं के लिए, यह का.ज.अ. वाराणसी में सबसे अधिक (35 प्रतिशत) एवं आगरा में सबसे कम (2 प्रतिशत) था ।

- 2009-10 की अवधि के दौरान, स्व–कार्यरत व्यक्तियों अथवा आकस्मिक श्रमिकों के मुकाबले सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) नियमित मजदूर/वेतनभोगी कर्मचारियों का अनुपात वर्ग 1 के महानगरों एवं वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों में महिलाओं एवं पुरुषों दोनों में अधिक था । वर्ग 3 के आकार वाले नगरों के लिए पुरुषों एवं महिलाओं दोनों में स्वनियोजितों का अनुपात नियमित मजदूर/वेतनभोगी कर्मचारियों एवं आकस्मिक श्रमिकों से ज्यादा था ।

- 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु के पुरुष कामगारों में, वर्ग 1 के महानगरों में सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) करीब 52 प्रतिशत एवं वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों में करीब 43 प्रतिशत और करीब 31 प्रतिशत वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों नियमित मजदूर/वेतनभोगी कर्मचारी थे । महिलाओं के लिए तदनुरूप अनुपात वर्ग 1 के महानगरों एवं वर्ग 2 आकार एवं वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों के लिए क्रमश: 58 प्रतिशत, 42 प्रतिशत एवं 23 प्रतिशत था ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र के पुरुष कामगारों में वर्ग 1 के महानगरों में करीब 39 प्रतिशत वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों में करीब 40 प्रतिशत एवं वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों के लिए करीब 45 प्रतिशत स्व-कार्यरत थे । महिलाओं के लिए तद्नुरूप अनुपात, वर्ग 1 के महानगरों वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों, एवं वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों के लिए क्रमश: 33 प्रतिशत, 41 प्रतिशत, एवं 47 प्रतिशत् था ।

- 2004-05 एवं 2009-10 के बीच, 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले पुरुषों के लिए बेरोजगारी दर पूर्ण रूप से वर्ग I के महानगरों में सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) पर एक ही स्तर में रहा, और यह वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों के लिए 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु घट गया एवं वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों के लिए 2 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से कम हुआ । महिलाओं के लिए, 2004-05 एवं 2009-10 के बीच सामान्य स्तर में यह बेरोजगारी दर वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु बढ़ा एवं दोनों वर्ग 2 एवं वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों के लिए प्रत्येक में क्रमश: करीब 2 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की कमी आई ।

- सभी आकार वर्ग वाले नगरों में 2009-10 के दौरान तृतीय क्षेत्र में अन्य दो क्षेत्रों के मुकाबले सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगारों में कामगारों का शेयर सबसे अधिक था । नगरीय भारत में 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले पुरुष कामगारों में करीब 59 प्रतिशत तृतीय क्षेत्र में, करीब 35 प्रतिशत माध्यमिक क्षेत्र में ओर करीब 6 प्रतिशत प्राथमिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे । महिलाओं के लिए तद्नुरूप अनुपात क्रमश: करीब 53 प्रतिशत, 33 प्रतिशत एवं 14 प्रतिशत था ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) के अनुसार 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र के पुरुष कामगारों में वर्ग 1 के सभी महानगरों में करीब 64 प्रतिशत तृतीयक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे, करीब 35 प्रतिशत माध्यमिक क्षेत्र में एवं करीब 1 प्रतिशत प्राथमिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे । महिलाओं के लिए तद्नुरूप अनुपात क्रमश: करीब 67 प्रतिशत, 31 प्रतिशत, एवं 2 प्रतिशत था ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) के अनुसार 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र के पुरुष कामगारों में वर्ग 2 आकार के नगरों में करीब 60 प्रतिशत तृतीयक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे, करीब 36 प्रतिशत माध्यमिक क्षेत्र में एवं करीब 4 प्रतिशत प्राथमिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे । महिलाओं के लिए तद्नुरूप अनुपात क्रमश: करीब 57 प्रतिशत्, 34 प्रतिशत एवं 9 प्रतिशत था ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) के अनुसार 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र के पुरुष कामगारों में वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों में करीब 54 प्रतिशत तृतीय क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे, करीब 33 प्रतिशत माध्यमिक क्षेत्र में एवं करीब 13 प्रतिशत प्राथमिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे । महिलाओं के लिए तद्नुरूप अनुपात क्रमश: करीब 36 प्रतिशत, 34 प्रतिशत, एवं 30 प्रतिशत था ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) के अनुसार 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र के पुरुष कामगारों में माध्यमिक क्षेत्र में पंजीकृत वर्ग 1 के महानगरों के लिए 2004-2005 की तुलना में 2009-2010 के दौरान कुल कामगारों के शेयर में 3 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की कमी हुयी, किन्तु वर्ग 2 आकार, एवं वर्ग 3 आकार के नगरों में क्रमश: करीब 2 एवं 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की वृद्धि हुयी ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं॰ 554: भारत में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी की स्थिति, 2011-12

एनएसएस 68वां दौर (जुलाई, 2011 – जून, 2012)

यह रिपोर्ट जुलाई 2011 से जून 2012 के बीच एनएसएस के 68वे दौर में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी पर किये गए सर्वेक्षण पर आधारित है । यह सर्वेक्षण 12,737 प्र.च.इ.यों में (7,469 ग्रामों एवं 5,268 नगरीय खंडो) में फैला हुआ था, एवं 1,01,724 परिवारों (59,700 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में और 42,024 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) को इसमें समाविष्ट किया गया, और 4,56,999 व्यक्तियों (2,80,763 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 1,76,236 नगरीय क्षेत्रों) गणना की गई । तीन नजरियों पर आधारित श्रम बल सूचकों के चार विभिन्न प्राक्कलन उपलब्ध हुए हैं (उदाहरणार्थ :- सामान्य स्तर पहुँच, वर्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर पहुँच, एवं वर्तमान दैनिक स्तर पहुँच) जो कि सर्वेक्षण में क्रियाकलापों के स्तर द्वारा जनसंख्या के वर्गीकरण के लिए अपनाए गए हैं । इन्हें सामान्य स्तर (पीएस) में श्रम बल सूचक (अर्थात् सामान्य स्तर जिसमें केवल मुख्य क्रियाकलाप ही लिया गया है), सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) अर्थात, सामान्य स्तर जिसमें मुख्य एवं गौण क्रियाकलाप एक साथ ली गयी हो), वर्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर (सीडब्ल्युएस) एवं वर्तमान दैनिक स्तर (सी.डी.एस)। सामान्य स्तर पहुंच के लिए संदर्भ अवधि 1 वर्ष है, वर्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर के लिए एक सप्ताह एवं वर्तमान दैनिक स्तर के लिए सर्वेक्षण की तारीख के पहले के प्रत्येक 7 दिन । श्रम बल सूचक जो सामान्य स्तर एवं वर्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर में मापे गए हैं, व्यक्तियों में एवं, वे जो वर्तमान दैनिक स्तर में हैं व्यक्ति दिनों में हैं । अन्यथा, जैसा कि बताया गया है, कामगार का अर्थ होगा वे कामगार जो सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में हैं। अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर जुलाई 2011-जून 2012 के कुछ मुख्य परिणाम दिए गए हैं, जो एनएसएस के 68वें दौर के रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी पर हुए सर्वेक्षण से उपलब्ध किए गए हैं :-

(क) परिवार एवं जनसंख्या :-

- भारत के करीब 69 प्रतिशत परिवार ग्रामीण भारत के थे एवं उनका लेखा कुल जनसंख्या का करीब 71 प्रतिशत था ।

- भारत में औसतन् परिवार का आकार करीब 4.3 था । ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 4.5 एवं नगरीय भारत में करीब 4.0 था । भारत में लिंग अनुपात (प्रति 1000 पुरुषों पर महिलाओं की संख्या) 946 था । यह ग्रामीण भारत में 957 एवं नगरीय भारत में 922 था ।

- दोनों ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 12 प्रतिशत परिवारों की मुखिया महिलाऐं थीं । महिला प्रधान परिवारों का औसतन परिवार आकार ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 3.3 एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 3.2 था । महिला प्रधान परिवारों का लिंग अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 1819 एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 1749 था ।

- उन परिवारों में जहां कम से कम एक सदस्य जिसकी आयु 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक है, करीब 5 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवारों एवं 10 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवारों का कोई भी सामान्य रूप से कार्यरत सदस्य 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक आयु का नहीं था ।

- भारत में करीब 38 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवारों के पास एम.जी. नरेगा जॉब कार्ड था । 18 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले ग्रामीण व्यक्तियों ने जॉब कार्ड में पंजीकरण करवाया, करीब 51 प्रतिशत ने कार्य किया एवं करीब 19 प्रतिशत ने चेष्टा की परन्तु एम.जी नरेगा कार्यों में काम नहीं मिला ।

- करीब 60 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 61 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाएं एवं, प्रत्येक 66 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं नगरीय महिलाऐं आर्थिक रूप से क्रियाशील सक्रिय आयु वर्ग जैसे 15-59 वर्ष के श्रेणी के थे । वे व्यक्ति जिनकी आयु 15-29 वर्ष की थी, और जिन्हें युवा माना गया, का कुल लेखा 26 प्रतिशत प्रत्येक ग्रामीण पुरुष एवं ग्रामीण महिलाओं का था, एवं 29 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं 28 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाओं का था ।

- भारत में करीब 72 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 56 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाएं, 84 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं 75 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाएं साक्षर थे । करीब 21 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 12 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाएं, 42 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं 34 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाएं शिक्षित थे (शिक्षा स्तर माध्यमिक एवं ऊपर जिसमें डिप्लोमा/प्रमाण-पत्र कोर्स भी शामिल था)।

(ख) श्रम बल :-

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में करीब 55 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 25 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाएं, 56 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं 16 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाएं श्रम बल में थे ।

- एनएसएस 66वें दौर (2009-10) एवं 68वें दौर (2011-12) के बीच, सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में ग्रामीण पुरुषों एवं नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए श्रमबल सहभागिता दर (एलएफपीआर) एक समान स्तर का रहा; ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु की कमी हुई, जबकि नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए करीब 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु की वृद्धि हुई ।

- एनएसएस 50वें दौर (1993-94) एवं 68वें दौर (2011-12) के बीच एलएफपीआर सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु से एवं ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 8 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से कमी आई । इस अवधि के दौरान, सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में एलएफपीआर नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 2 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से बढ़ा एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु से कम हुआ ।

(ग) कार्य बल :-

- अखिल-भारतीय स्तर पर सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगार अनुपात जनसंख्या (डब्ल्युपीआर) करीब 39 प्रतिशत था । ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में यह करीब 40 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में यह करीब 36 प्रतिशत था । सामान्य स्तर में (पीएस+एसएस) यह डब्ल्यु पी आर ग्रामीण

पुरुषों के लिए 54 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 25 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 55 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 15 प्रतिशत था ।

- भारतीय जनसंख्या का करीब 3 प्रतिशत केवल गौण स्तर में कार्यरत थे । पुरुषों के मुकाबले महिलाओं का अनुपात जो कि केवल गौण क्षमता में कार्यरत थीं, अधिक था । ग्रामीण महिलाओं का करीब 7 प्रतिशत एवं 2 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाऐं केवल गौण स्तर में कार्यरत थीं ।

- आखिल-भारतीय स्तर पर डब्ल्युपीआर वर्त्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर (सीडब्ल्युएस) में करीब 36 प्रतिशत था, - 37 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 35 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में । सीडब्ल्युएस में डब्ल्युपीआर ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए 53 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 21 प्रतिशत, 54 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 14 प्रतिशत था ।

- अखिल-भारतीय स्तर पर वर्तमान दैनिक स्तर (सीडीएस) में डब्ल्युपीआर करीब 34 प्रतिशत था । सीडीएस में डब्ल्युपीआर ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 50 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए करीब 17 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए करीब 53 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 13 प्रतिशत था ।

- 2009-10 एवं 2011-12 के बीच, सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में डब्ल्युपीअर ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए करीब 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु से कम हुआ, नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए करीब 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु से बढ़ा एवं पुरुषों में ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों के लिए एक समान स्तर का रहा ।

- एनएसएस 27वें दौर (1972-73) एवं 68वें दौर (2011-12) के बीच, सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में डब्ल्युपीआर ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए एक स्तर का रहा, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए करीब 7 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से कम हुआ, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 5 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से बढ़ा एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु से बढ़ा ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगारों के बीच, करीब 55 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 59 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाएं, 42 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं 43 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाएं स्व-कार्यरत थी । कामगारों में, करीब 10 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 6 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाऐं एवं 43 प्रतिशत प्रत्येक नगरीय पुरुष एवं नगरीय महिलाऐं नियमित मजदूर/वेतनभोगी कर्मचारी थे । सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) के कामगारों में आकस्मिक श्रमिकों का अनुपात ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 36 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 35 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 15 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 14 प्रतिशत था ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले कामगारों के बीच, करीब 28 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुष, 56 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाऐं, 11 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुष एवं 28 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाऐं साक्षर नहीं थे ।

- सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले कामगारों के बीच ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 26 प्रतिशत पुरुष कामगार एवं 11 प्रतिशत महिला कामगार एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 53 प्रतिशत पुरुष कामगार एवं 40 प्रतिशत महिला कामगार शिक्षित थे (अर्थात्, उनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर का था, जिसमें डिप्लोमा/प्रमाण पत्र भी शामिल था ।)

- ग्रामीण भारत में सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगारों के बीच, करीब 59 प्रतिशत पुरुष एवं 75 प्रतिशत महिलाऐं कृषि क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे । कृषि क्रियाकलापों में संलग्न ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए कामगारों का अनुपात 1977-78 में 81 प्रतिशत से 2011-12 में 59 प्रतिशत तक और ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए कामगारों का अनुपात 1977-78 में 88 प्रतिशत से 2011-12 में 75 प्रतिशत तक क्रमश: गिरा ।

- नगरीय भारत में, सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में पुरुष कामगारों में व्यापार होटल एवं रेस्तरां क्षेत्र ने सबसे अधिक अनुपात में कामगारों को पंजीकृत किया (करीब 26 प्रतिशत) जबकि 'विनिर्माण' एवं 'अन्य सेवाएं' क्षेत्रों का लेखा-जोखा क्रमश: 22 प्रतिशत एवं 21 प्रतिशत रहा । नगरीय क्षेत्रों के महिला कामगारों के बीच 'अन्य सेवाऐं' क्षेत्र में सबसे अधिक अनुपात में कामगारों को पंजकृत किया (40 प्रतिशत), तत्पश्चात् आया 'विनिर्माण' (29 प्रतिशत), 'व्यापार, होटल एवं रेस्तरां' (13 प्रतिशत) एवं कृषि (11 प्रतिशत) ।

- वर्षों से 'निर्माण' से जुड़े या कार्यरत कामगारों के अनुपात में प्रयाप्त बढ़ोत्तरी पायी गयी है । 1977-78 एवं 2011-12 के बीच निर्माण में कामगारों के अनुपात में ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 11 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं की वृद्धि हुई, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 6 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 7 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 2 प्रतिशत बिन्दुों से वृद्धि हुई । इस अवधि के दौरान नगरीय क्षेत्रों में, 'व्यापार, होटल एवं रेस्तरां' में कार्यरत पुरुष कामगारों का अनुपात करीब 4 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से बढ़ा, एवं 'अन्य सेवाओं' में कार्यरत महिला कामगारों का अनुपात 14 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से बढ़ा ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों के कामगारों के बीच, व्यवसाय 'कुशल कृषि एवं मत्स्य पालन कामगारों', ने पुरुष (39 प्रतिशत) एवं महिलाएं (48 प्रतिशत) दोनों में सबसे अधिक अनुपात में कामगारों को पंजीकृत किया । नगरीय क्षेत्रों में, व्यवसाय 'क्राफ्ट एवं उससे जुड़े व्यापार कामगारों' ने सबसे अधिक अनुपात में कामगारों को पंजीकृत किया (पुरुष 19 प्रतिशत) एवं व्यवसाय 'प्राथमिक व्यवसायों', महिलाओं के लिए सबसे अधिक अनुपात में (करीब 23 प्रतिशत) पंजीकरण करवाया ।

- 15-59 वर्षीय आयू के नियमित मजदूरी/वेतनभोगी कर्मचारी का दैनिक मजदूरी/वेतनआय ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में रु 298.96 एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में रु. 449.65 था । यह ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए रु. 322.28 था, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए रु. 201.56 था, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए रु. 469.87 एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए रु. 366.15 था ।

- 15-59 वर्षीय आयू के आकस्मिक श्रमिकों में, जो कि एम.जी नरेगा सार्वजनिक कार्यों को छोड़कर सार्वजनिक कार्यों में संलग्न थे, का दैनिक मजदूरी दर ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए रु. 127.39 था एवं ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए रु. 110.62 था । 15-59 वर्ष के आकस्मिक श्रमिक जो कि एम.जी नरेगा सार्वजनिक कार्यों में कार्यरत थे, का दैनिक मजदूरी दर रु. 112.46 ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए एवं रु. 101.97 ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए था । 15-59 वर्ष वाले आकस्मिक श्रमिक का मजदूरी दर जो कि अन्य सार्वजनिक कार्यों में थे, ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए रु. 149.32 था, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए रु. 103.28, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए रु. 182.04 एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए रु. 110.62 था ।

(घ) बेरोजगारी दर :

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में पुरुषों एवं महिलाओं दोनों के लिए सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में बेरोजगारी दर (यू.आर) करीब 2 प्रतिशत था । यह नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 3 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 5 प्रतिशत था ।

- वर्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर (सीडब्ल्युएस) में बेरोजगारी दर ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 3 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 4 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 4 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 7 प्रतिशत था ।

- वर्तमान दैनिक स्तर (सीडीएस) में बेरोजगारी दर ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में पुरुषों एवं महिलाओं दोनों के लिए करीब 6 प्रतिशत था, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 5 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 8 प्रतिशत था ।

- 2009-10 एवं 2011-12 के बीच, सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में बेरोजगारी दर ग्रामीण पुरुषों, ग्रामीण महिलाओं एवं नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए अपिरवर्त्तित रहा, जबकि नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए करीब 1 प्रतिशत बिन्दु से कम हुआ ।

- नगरीय पुरुषों के अलावे 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक आयु वाले व्यक्तियों में शिक्षितों (शिक्षा का स्तर:- माध्यमिक एवं उससे ऊपर) के लिए बेरोजगारी दर उन लोगों से अधिक था, जिनका शैक्षिक स्तर माध्यमिक से कम था । सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में शिक्षितों के लिए बेरोजगारी दर ग्रामीण पुरुषों ग्रामीण महिलाओं, नगरीय पुरुषों एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए क्रमश: करीब 4 प्रतिशत, 10 प्रतिशत, 4 प्रतिशत एवं, 10 प्रतिशत था ।

- युवा में बेरोजगारी दर (आयु 15-29 वर्ष) सम्पूर्ण जनसंख्या के मुकाबले काफी अधिक था । सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में युवाओं में बेरोजगारी दर ग्रामीण पुरुषों, ग्रामीण महिलाओं, नगरीय पुरुषों एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए क्रमश: करीब 5 प्रतिशत, 5 प्रतिशत, 8 प्रतिशत एवं 13 प्रतिशत था ।

- शिक्षित युवा (आयु : 15-29 वर्ष एवं शिक्षा का स्तर : माध्यमिक एवं ऊपर) में बेरोजगारी दर सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में ग्रामीण पुरुषों, ग्रामीण महिलाओं, नगरीय पुरुषों एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए क्रमश: 8.1 प्रतिशत, 15.5 प्रतिशत, 11.7 प्रतिशत, एवं 19.8 प्रतिशत था ।

(ड़) अल्प रोजगार

- अल्प रोजगार दर को सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगारों के अनुपात के रूप में परिभाषित किया जाता है, जिसे नियोजित नहीं पाया गया (अर्थात् या तो बेरोजगार अथवा श्रमबल में नहीं में रिपोर्ट किया गया), उस सप्ताह में जो सर्वेक्षण की तारीख से पहले सप्ताह के दौरान था, और यह ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 3 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए करीब 17 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए करीब 1 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 6 प्रतिशत था ।

- अल्प रोजगार दर जो कि सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगारों के व्यक्ति- दिनों के अनुपात के रूप में परिभाषित किया गया, जिन्हें व्यवहार में नहीं लाया गया, पुरुषों के मुकाबले महिलाओं में काफी अधिक था । ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए यह करीब 7 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए करीब 32 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 3 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 15 प्रतिशत था ।

- अल्प रोजगार दर वर्त्तमान साप्ताहिक स्तर में कामगारों के व्यक्ति-दिनों के अनुपात के मामले में, जो कार्य के लिए व्यवहार नहीं किए गए, ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 4 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 18 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 2 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 9 प्रतिशत था ।

- मुख्य स्तर में सामान्यत: नियोजित व्यक्तियों के बीच, दोनों नगरीय एवं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में पुरुषों के मुकाबले महिलाओं के एक अधिक अनुपात ने, पिछले 365 दिनों में अधिक या कम नियमित रूप से कार्य नहीं किया - 10 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण पुरुषों के मुकाबले 13 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाऐं एवं 5 प्रतिशत नगरीय पुरुषों के मुकाबले 7 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाऐं ।

- सामान्य मुख्य स्तर के 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक के कामगारों जिन्होंने काम मांगा अथवा अतिरिक्त कार्य के लिए उपलब्ध थे, का अनुपात ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए करीब 8 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 5 प्रतिशत, नगरीय पुरुषों के लिए 4 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 3 प्रतिशत का था ।

- सामान्य मुख्य स्तर कामगार जो 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक आयु के थे एवं जिन्होंने कार्य मांगा अथवा वैकल्पिक कार्य के लिए उपलब्ध थे उनका अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में नगरीय क्षेत्रों के मुकाबले अधिक था - ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 6 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 4 प्रतिशत । ग्रामीण पुरुषों के लिए तदनुरूप अनुपात करीब 7 प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण महिलाओं, नगरीय पुरुषों एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए प्रत्येक 4 प्रतिशत का था ।

एफ: विभिन्न उपागमों में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी संकेतकों की कुंजी

सारणी 1 : रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी संकेतकों की कुंजी (प्रति 1000), एक दृष्टि :-

अखिल भारतीय	एनएसएस 68वाँ दौर (जुलाई 2011 - जून 2012)						उम : सभी उमों के		
	ग्रामीण			नगरीय			ग्रामीण+नगरीय		
संकेतक	पुरुष	महिला	व्यक्ति	पुरुष	महिला	व्यक्ति	पुरुष	महिला	व्यक्ति
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
सामान्य स्तर (पीएस)									
एलएफपीआर	547	181	368	560	134	356	550	168	364
डब्ल्यूपीआर	535	176	359	542	125	342	537	161	354
पीयू	12	5	8	18	9	14	13	6	10
यूआर	21	29	23	32	66	38	24	37	27
सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस)									
एलएफपीआर	553	253	406	563	155	367	556	225	395
डब्ल्यूपीआर	543	248	399	546	147	355	544	219	386
पीयू	10	4	7	17	8	13	12	5	9
यूआर	17	17	17	30	52	34	21	24	22
सीडब्ल्यूएस									
एलएफपीआर	545	215	383	561	148	363	549	196	377
डब्ल्यूपीआर	526	207	370	539	138	347	530	188	364
पीयू	18	8	13	22	10	16	19	8	14
यूआर	33	35	34	38	67	44	35	42	37
सीडीएस									
एलएफपीआर	534	180	361	555	136	354	540	168	359
डब्ल्यूपीआर	504	169	340	528	125	335	511	156	339
पीयू	29	11	20	27	11	19	29	11	20
यूआर	55	62	57	49	80	55	53	66	56

श्रमबल भागीदारी दर (एलएफपीआर) : एलएफपीआर प्रति 1000 व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति-दिनों में श्रमबल में व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति-दिनों की संख्या के रूप पारिभाषित किया जाता है ।

कामगार जनसंख्या अनुपात (डब्ल्यूपीआर) : डब्ल्यूपीआर प्रति 1000 व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति-दिनों में नियोजित व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति-दिनों की संख्या के रूप में पारिभाषित किया जाता है ।

अनियोजित अनुपात (पीयू) : यह प्रति 1000 व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति में अनियोजित व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति दिनों की संख्या के रूप में पारिभाषित किया जाता है ।

बेरोजगारी दर (यूआर) : यूआर श्रमबल (जिसमें नियोजित एवं अनियोजित दोनों सामिल है) में प्रति 1000 व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति-दिनों में श्रमबल में अनियोजित व्यक्तियों/व्यक्ति-दिनों की संख्या के रूप में पारिभाषित किया जाता है ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं॰ 555: उपभोक्ता व्यय का स्तर एवं प्रतिरूप, 2011-12

एनएसएस 68वां दौर (जुलाई, 2011 – जून, 2012)

यह प्रतिवेदन पूरे देश में फैले हुए 7,469 ग्रामों एवं 5,268 नगरीय खंडों से जुलाई 2011-जून 2012 के दौरान एकत्र किए गये सूचनाओं पर आधारित है । उपभोक्ता व्यय पर सूचना एकत्र करने के लिए दो भिन्न अनुसूचियों को प्रयोग में लाया गया, पहले में 101662 परिवारों से और दूसरे में 101651 परिवारों से सूचना एकत्र किया गया ।

उपभोग का स्तर

- एमएमआरपी (आशोधित मिश्रित सन्दर्भ अवधि) पद्धति से मापा हुआ एमपीसीई (प्रति व्यक्ति मासिक उपभोक्ता व्यय) के अनुसार औसत एमपीसीई 2011-12 में ग्रामीण भारत में 1430 रु. एवं नगरीय भारत में 2630 रु. (करीब 84% अधिक) अनुमानित हुआ ।

- 5% निर्धनतम ग्रामीण जनता का औसत एमपीसीई 521 रु. था । 5% निर्धनतम नगरीय जनता का औसत एमपीसीई 700 रु. था ।

- एमपीसीई द्वारा बनाए गए स्तरों में ग्रामीण जनता के उच्चतम 5% का औसत एमपीसीई 4481 रु. था, जो कि निर्धनतम के 5% का करीब 8.6 गुणा था । नगरीय जनता का उच्च 5% का औसत एमपीसीई 10,282 रु. था जो कि निर्धनतम 5% का करीब 14.7 गुणा था ।

- प्रमुख राज्यों में केरल (रु. 2669) का सर्वाधिक ग्रामीण एमपीसीई था । इसके बाद पंजाब (रु. 2345) एवं हरियाणा (रु. 2176) थे । अन्य सभी प्रमुख राज्यों का औसत एमपीसीई रु. 1000 एवं रु. 1760 के बीच था ।

- सबसे कम औसत ग्रामीण एमपीसीई था उड़ीसा एवं झारखंड में (करीब रु. 1000) और छत्तीसगढ़ में भी यह बहुत कम (करीब रु. 1030) था । बिहार, मध्य प्रदेश, एवं उत्तर प्रदेश के ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में औसत एमपीसीई रु. 1120 और रु. 1160 के बीच था ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्र में सर्वोच्च एमपीसीई (रु. 3817) वाला प्रमुख राज्य हरियाणा था, इसके बाद केरल (रु. 3408) एवं महाराष्ट्र (रु. 3189) था । बिहार को छोड़कर (नगरीय एमपीसीई रु. 1507) किसी भी प्रमुख राज्य का नगरीय एमपीसीई रु. 1860 से कम नहीं था ।

- मध्यम स्तर का एमपीसीई$_{\text{एमएमआरपी}}$ (मिडियन मात्रा) ग्रामीण भारत में करीब रु. 1200 और नगरीय भारत में करीब रु. 2020 था ।

- पंजाब के औसत ग्रामीण एमपीसीई से नगरीय औसत एमपीसीई मात्र 19% अधिक था, केरल में केवल 28% अधिक एवं बिहार में केवल 34% अधिक था । दूसरी तरफ, पश्चिम बंगाल, झारखंड एवं महाराष्ट्र में नगरीय औसत, ग्रामीण औसत से करीब दोगुना था ।

- समान सन्दर्भ अवधि द्वारा मापा गया वास्तविक एमपीसीई 1993-94 से 2011-12 तक 18 वर्षों की अवधि में ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 38%, किन्तु नगरीय भारत में 51% बढ़ा । मिश्रित सन्दर्भ अवधि द्वारा मापा गया वास्तविक एमपीसीई इसी अवधि में नगरीय भारत में 54% एवं ग्रामीण भारत में 36.5% बढ़ा ।

- गुजरात, राजस्थान एवं तमिलनाडू में औसत एमपीसीई नगरीय क्षेत्र में अखिल भारतीय औसत से कम था, किन्तु ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में नहीं । इन तीन राज्यों को छोड़कर औसत से अधिक ग्रामीण एमपीसीई वाले प्रमुख राज्यों में नगरीय एमपीसीई भी औसत से अधिक था ।

उपभोग का स्वरूप

- एमपीसीई मापने की एमएमआरपी (आशोधित मिश्रित सन्दर्भ अवधि) पद्धति के अनुसार भारत के ग्रामीण परिवारों का 2011-12 के दौरान कुल में खाद्य का अनुमानित औसत उपभोग का मूल्य करीब 53% था । इसमें 10.8% अनाज एवं उसके प्रतिस्थापक का, 8% दूध एवं दूध से बनी वस्तुओं का, एवं 6.6% सब्जियों के लिए शामिल था । अखाद्य मद वर्गों में खाना बनाने के इंधन और रोशनी का भाग 8%, वस्त्र एवं जूतों का 7%, चिकित्सा खर्चों का 6.7%, यात्रा एवं अन्य उपभोक्ता सेवाओं प्रत्येक का 4%, और टिकाऊ उपभोक्ता वस्तुओं का भाग 4.5% था ।

- औसत नगरीय भारतीय के लिए पारिवारिक उपभोग के मूल्य का 42.6% खाद्य पर, 6.7% अनाज पर, एवं 7% दूध एवं दूध से बने पदार्थ पर था ।

- कुल उपभोक्ता व्यय में अधिकतर खाद्य मद समूहों का भाग नगरीय भारत की तुलना में ग्रामीण भारत में अधिक था, फल और प्रसंस्कृत आहार इसके अपवाद रहे । अखाद्य मद समूहों के भाग नगरीय भारत में सामान्यत: अधिक थे । नगरीय एवं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में सबसे अधिक सुस्पष्ट अन्तर, अनाज के मामले में (नगरीय भाग: 6.7%, ग्रामीण भाग: 10.8%), किराया (नगरीय: 6.2%, ग्रामीण: 0.5%) एवं शिक्षा के मामले में (नगरीय: 6.9%, ग्रामीण: 3.5%) था । पान, तम्बाकू, एवं नशीले पदार्थों का भाग ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों के लिए यद्यपि केवल करीब 3% था, फिर भी यह नगरीय क्षेत्र के भाग से दुगुना था ।

- प्रमुख राज्यों में ग्रामीण उपभोग व्यय में खाद्य का अंश केरल के लिए 43% एवं पंजाब के लिए 44% से बिहार में 59% एवं आसाम में 61% तक रहा । नगरीय क्षेत्र में उपभोग व्यय में खाद्य का अंश केरल में 37% एवं हरियाणा में 39% से बिहार में 51% तक रहा ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में कुल व्यय में अनाज का अंश प्रमुख राज्यों में 5% (केरल और पंजाब में) से 17% (झारखंड और उड़ीसा) तक रहा । नगरीय भारत में इस अंश का विभिन्नता इससे कम था: हरियाणा में 4% से बिहार में 12% तक ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में निम्नतम एमपीसीई डेसाइल वर्ग के लिए अनाज का बजट शेयर करीब 19% था, लेकिन एमपीसीई में बढ़त के साथ गिरने लगा और सर्वोच्च डेसाइल वर्ग में 5-6% तक पहुँचा । नगरीय भारत में अनाज का शेयर निम्नतम डेसाइल वर्ग में 15% से सर्वोच्च डेसाइल वर्ग में 3% तक गिरा ।

- दूध एवं दूध के उत्पादों का बजट शेयर एमपीसीई स्तर के साथ निम्नतम डेसाइल वर्ग में करीब 4% से नौवें डेसाइल वर्ग में 9.5% तक बढ़ता हुआ पाया गया । तो भी, नगरीय भारत में इस मद समूह का शेयर जनता के मध्य तृतीयांश के लिए, सर्वोच्च डेसाइल वर्गों से अधिक (करीब 8-8.5%) था ।

- शिक्षा का शेयर एमपीसीई स्तर के साथ ग्रामीण भारत के निम्नतम स्तर में 1.6% से सर्वोच्च डेसाइल वर्ग में 5.7% तक और नगरीय भारत में 2.6% से 9% तक लगातार बढ़ा ।

अनाज खपत की मात्रा

- प्रति व्यक्ति औसत अनाज की खपत प्रतिमाह (सभी उम्र के व्यक्तियों पर विचार करते हुए) ग्रामीण भारत में 11.2 किलो, एवं नगरीय भारत में 9.2 किलो था ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 10% निर्धनतम् जनता के लिए प्रति व्यक्ति औसत मासिक अनाज की खपत 10.0 किलो के आसपास थी । एमपीसीई में बढ़त के साथ ही, यह बढ़ते हुए देखी गयी, तेजी से यह बढ़त 10-20 वर्ग में 11.00 किलो तक पहुँची, और फिर धीरे-धीरे बढ़कर 80-90 वर्ग में 11.5 किलो तक पहुँची । नगरीय भारत में एमपीसीई में बढ़त के साथ प्रति व्यक्ति अनाज की खपत में परिवर्त्तन का कोई स्पष्ट तरीका (पैटर्न) नहीं था । केवल शिखर के 5% जनता को छोड़कर विभिन्न वर्गों के प्रति व्यक्ति मासिक खपत 9.1 किलो से 9.5 किलो के बीच थी ।

- 1993-94 से 2011-12 तक 18 वर्षों के दौरान महीने में प्रति व्यक्ति अनुमानित अनाज की खपत (जिसमें खरीदे गए प्रसंस्कृत आहार में अनाज का हिसाब शामिल नहीं है) ग्रामीण भारत में 13.4 किलोग्राम से 11.2 किलोग्राम और नगरीय भारत में 10.6 किलोग्राम से 9.3 किलोग्राम तक गिरी ।

उपभोग स्तर में असमानता

- 61वें दौर के सर्वेक्षण (2004-2005) से यूआरपी (समान सन्दर्भ अवधि) लोरेन्ज अनुपात के साथ वर्तमान सर्वेक्षण से प्रतिव्यक्ति उपभोक्ता व्यय वितरण का यूआरपी लोरेन्ज अनुपात की तुलना देश के ग्रामीण क्षेत्र के लिए 0.297 से 0.307 की वृद्धि और नगरीय क्षेत्र के लिए 0.373 से 0.385 की वृद्धि दिखाती है ।

- राज्य-क्षेत्र-स्तरीय एमपीसीई$_{\text{एमएमआरपी}}$ वितरण के लिए लॉरेंज अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 0.19 से 0.36 की सीमा में और नगरीय क्षेत्र में 0.21 से 0.41 तक था ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं० 556: भारत में पेयजल, स्वच्छता, आरोग्यता एवं आवासीय स्थिति

एनएसएस 69वां दौर (जुलाई, 2012 – दिसम्बर, 2012)

1. राष्ट्रीय प्रतिदर्श सर्वेक्षण (रा.प्र.स) ने अपने 69वें दौर (जुलाई 2012-दिसम्बर 2012) के प्रचालन में आवासीय स्थिति, पेयजल, स्वच्छता, स्वास्थ्य एवं घरेलु अवस्था पर राष्ट्र-व्यापी सर्वेक्षण चलाया । इस सर्वेक्षण का मुख्य उद्देश्य परिवार के सदस्यों के शिष्ट एवं स्वास्थ जीवन के विभिन्न पहलुओं की जाँच एवं उसका अध्ययन करना था । इन विषयों पर अंतिम सर्वेक्षण रा.प्र.स के 65वें दौर (जुलाई 2008 - जून 2009) में किया गया ।

2. इस सर्वेक्षण में सम्पूर्ण भारत को शामिल किया गया । स्तरित बहुचरणी अभिकल्प को 69वें दौर के सर्वेक्षण के लिए अपनाया गया । ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में प्रथम चरण इकाईयाँ जनगणना ग्राम थे (केरल के लिए पंचायत वार्ड) एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में नगरीय ढाचां सर्वेक्षण (न.ढा.स) खण्ड थे । अंतिम चरण इकाईयां के दोनों क्षेत्रों में परिवार थे । बड़े प्र.च.ई.यों के मामलों में, प्रतिचयन का एक मध्यवर्ती चरण प्रत्येक ग्रामीण/नगरीय प्र.च.इ से दो खेड़ा-समुहों (खे.स.उ) खण्डो का चयन था । पेयजल, स्वच्छता, स्वास्थ्य एवं आवासीय स्थिति पर पूछताछ की अनुसूचियां (अनुसूची 1.2) इस प्रकार तैयार की गई ताकि पेयजल स्वच्छता एवं स्वास्थ्य के पहलुओं पर विशेष ध्यान देते हुए आवासीय स्थिति पर सूचना एकत्र की जा सके ।

3. सामान्य तौर पर रा.प्र.स के नियमित दौर में, अधिकतर राज्यों एवं केन्द्रशासित प्रदेशों ने सर्वेक्षण में भाग लिया, और 'केन्द्रीय प्रतिदर्श' जिनका सर्वेक्षण रा.प्र.स.का द्वारा किया गया के अतिरिक्त राज्य सरकार के कर्मचारियों द्वारा 'राज्य प्रतिदर्श' का सर्वेक्षण किया गया । ग्रामीण भारत के लिए केन्द्रीय प्रतिदर्श में ग्रामों की संख्या 4,475 थी एवं सर्वेक्षित नगरीय खण्डों की संख्या 3,522 थी । यह रिपोर्ट केवल केन्द्रीय प्रतिदर्श से प्राप्त अनुमानों पर ही आधारित है । इस विशेष सर्वेक्षण से, अनुसूची 1.2 से पूछताछ करने के लिए केन्द्रीय प्रतिदर्श के प्रत्येक प्रतिदर्श ग्राम एवं नगरीय खण्ड से, 12 परिवारों का चयन किया गया । परिवारों की कुल संख्या जिसमें अनुसूची 1.2 की पूछताछ की गयी ग्रामीण भारत में 53,393 थी एवं नगरीय भारत में 42,155 थी । इस रिपोर्ट की मुख्य बातें नीचे दी गयीं हैः–

4. रहन-सहन की सुविधाओं का विवरणः-

4.1.पेयजल की सुविधाः-

- ग्रामीण भारत के 52.4 प्रतिशत परिवार ट्यूबवेल/भू-वेधन(बोरहोल) का उपयोग पेयजल के मुख्य स्रोत के रूप में किया और 14.3 प्रतिशत परिवार सार्वजनिक नल/स्थायी नल (स्टैंड पाइप) पेयजल के मुख्य स्रोत के रूप में रखते थे । नगरीय भारत में 35.1 प्रतिशत परिवार 'निवास गृह' में नल के पानी को पेयजल के मुख्य स्रोत रूप में उपयोग किया,

इसी तरह 21.2 प्रतिशत परिवार यार्ड/प्लोट में प्राप्त पाईप जल को पेयजल के मुख्य स्रोत के रूप में रखते थे ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 88.5 प्रतिशत परिवारों एवं नगरीय भारत में 95.3 प्रतिशत परिवारों के पास 2012 के दौरान पेयजल का समुन्नत स्रोत था और जहाँ पेयजल के 'समुन्नत स्रोत' में 'बोतल का जल', 'निवास गृह में नल', 'यार्ड/प्लॉट में पाईप जल' 'सार्वजनिक नल/स्थायी नल', 'ट्यूबवेल/भू-वेधन छिद्र (बोर होल)', 'संरक्षित कूआँ' 'संरक्षित झरना' एवं 'वर्ष जल संग्रहण' था ।
- ग्रामीण भारत में 85.8 प्रतिशत परिवारों एवं नगरीय भारत में 89.6 प्रतिशत परिवारों के पास प्रयाप्त पेयजल था ।
- समस्त परिवारों में से 14.6 प्रतिशत परिवारों के पास पेयजल का मुख्य श्रोत "निवास गृह" में नल का पानी ही था, किन्तु सालों भर उन्हें इस मुख्य श्रोत से पेयजल नहीं मिला। तदनुरूप उनके नगरीय प्रतिरूप का आकड़ा 8.7 प्रतिशत था ।
- दोनों ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय भारत में, सभी मुख्य श्रोतों को एक साथ लेने पर ,ट्यूब वेल/ भू-वेधन छिद्र (बोरहोल) पेयजल के लिए सबसे प्रचलित अनुपूरक श्रोत था ।
- ग्रामिण भारत के 46.1 प्रतिशत परिवार एवं नगरीय भारत के 76.8 प्रतिशत परिवारों को परिसर में ही पेयजल प्राप्त हुआ ।
- जब पेयजल दूर से लाना पड़ता था तो ग्रामीण परिवारों के 84.1 प्रतिशत महिला एवं 14.1 प्रतिशत पुरूष सदस्यों ने यह कार्य किया । नगरीय भारत में 72.0 प्रतिशत महिलाएं 23.5 प्रतिशत पुरूष सदस्यों ने यह कार्य किया । शेष परिवारों में अ-सदस्यों द्वारा यह कार्य पूरा किया गया ।
- एक व्यक्ति द्वारा पारिवारिक परिसर से बाहर जाकर पेयजल लाने में एक दिन में औसतन 20 मिनट ग्रामीण भारत में एवं 15 मिनट नगरीय भारत में लगाना पड़ता था ।
- बाहर के परिसर से पेयजल लाने के लिए पेयजल के मुख्य स्रोत पर, प्रतिदिन औसतन 15 मिनट ग्रामीण परिवारों के सदस्यों को एवं 16 मिनट तक नगरीय परिवारों के सदस्यों को इंतजार करना पड़ता था ।
- पेयजल के मुख्य श्रोत का 'सामुदायिक उपयोग' ग्रामीण भारत के परिवारों में प्रधान था (46.7 प्रतिशत) जबकि नगरीय भारत के परिवारों के बीच 'एक मात्र उपयोग' अधिक प्रचलित था (46.8 प्रतिशत) ।

- ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय भारत में क्रमशः 32.3 प्रतिशत एवं 54.4 प्रतिशत परिवार पीने से पहले पानी का उपचार 'किसी भी तरीके' से किया था ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 37.9 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 35.3 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने जल जमा करने के लिए स्टेनलस स्टील के कन्टेनर का उपयोग किया ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 58.8 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 41.2 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने जमा पेयजल निकालने के लिए बिना हेन्डिल के बर्त्तन का प्रयोग किया ।

4.2.सभी पारिवारिक क्रियाकलापों के लिए जलः-

- ग्रामीण भारत एवं नगरीय भारत में क्रमशः 86.0 प्रतिशत एवं 89.5 प्रतिशत परिवारों को सभी घरेलु क्रियाकलापों के लिए वर्ष भर पर्याप्त जल की प्राप्ति हुई ।

- ग्रामीण भारत के 79.8 प्रतिशत परिवार एवं नगरीय भारत के 45.7 प्रतिशत परिवार किसी भी तरह का जल प्रभार नहीं चुकाए ।

4.3. शौचालय एवं स्वच्छता सुविधाः-

- ग्रामीण भारत के 62.3 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत के 16.7 प्रतिशत परिवारों के पास स्नानागार (बाथरूम) की सुविधा नहीं थी ।

- भारत के 15.5 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवारों एवं 55.4 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवारों के निवासगृह में संलग्न स्नानागार (बाथरूम) था ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 59.4 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 8.8 प्रतिशत परिवारों के पास शौचालय की सुविधा उपलब्ध नहीं थी ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 31.9 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 63.9 प्रतिशत परिवारों को केवल शौचालय की सुविधा प्राप्त था ।

4.4. घरेलू व्यवहार के लिए बिजली का प्रयोगः-

- ग्रामीण भारत में 80.0 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 97.9 प्रतिशत परिवारों के पास घरेलु प्रयोग के लिए बिजली थी । भारत में 33.2 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवार एवं 63.5 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवारों, जिनके पास घरेलु व्यवहार के लिए बिजली थी, और वे वाहक नली (कॉन्डूयिट टाईप) बिजली वायरिंग का व्यवहार करते थे ।

4.5. टेनुरियल स्टेटस (कार्यकाल सम्बन्धी स्टेटस):-

- ग्रामीण भारत में 94.2 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 71.3 प्रतिशत परिवारों का सुरक्षित कार्यकाल थी जहां 'निवास गृह' की सुरक्षित कार्यकाल में यह शामिल है. 'पूर्व-स्वामीत्व वाला पट्टे पर' 'भारे पर नियोक्ता क्वार्टर' एवं 'लिखित संविदा वाले भाड़े की निवास गृह इकाईयां' ।

5. पारिवारिक विशिष्टताएं एवं सूक्ष्म-वातावरण :-

5.1. पारिवारिक विशिष्टताएं:-

- ग्रामिण भारत के 65.8 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत के 93.6 प्रतिशत परिवार पक्की संरचना वाले घरों में रहते थे, जबकि 24.6 प्रतिशत एवं 5.0 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय भारत में क्रमशः अर्ध-पक्की सरंचना वाले मकान में रहते थे । अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर, केवल 9.6 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्र के परिवार एवं 1.4 नगरीय क्षेत्र के परिवार कच्चे घर में रहते थे ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 29.9 प्रतिशत परिवार एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 29.6 प्रतिशत परिवार 'जीरो प्लिन्थ' स्तर के घरों में रहते थे ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में घर का औसत प्लिन्थ स्तर 0.35 मीटर था एवं नगरीय भारत के घर के लिए यह 0.36 मीटर था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों के 91.5 प्रतिशत परिवार जो घर में रहते थे, उन्होंने घर को केवल आवासीय उद्देश्य के लिए प्रयोग किया । नगरीय भारत के लिए तदनुरूप अनुपात का अनुमान 86.8 प्रतिशत तक लगाया गया ।

- 79.0 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवारों एवं 47.6 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवारों के पास 'स्वतन्त्र आवास' था। 'फ्लैट' में रहने वाले परिवारों का अनुपात नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 39.4 प्रतिशत था, लेकिन ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में केवल 7.8 प्रतिशत था ।

- भारत में 25.9 प्रतिशत ग्रामिण परिवारों की निवासीय इकाई 20-40 वर्ष की थी, जबकि 24.4 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवारों की निवासीय इकाई 10-20 वर्ष की थी । भारत में नगरीय परिवारों के तदनुरूप अनुपात का अनुमान क्रमशः 26.0 प्रतिशत एवं 27.9 प्रतिशत था ।

- भारत में 86.9 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवार एवं 93.0 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवार या तो 'अच्छी' या 'संतोषजनक' अवस्था के घरों में रहते थे ।

- निवास गृह का औसतन फर्श क्षेत्रफल ग्रामीण भारत में 40.03 वर्ग मीटर एवं नगरीय भारत में 39.20 वर्ग मीटर था ।

- 47.4 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण भारत के परिवारों एवं 66.0 प्रतिशत नगरीय भारत के परिवारों के पास अपने निवास गृह में अलग रसोई घर था ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में 26.3 प्रतिशत परिवारों एवं नगरीय भारत में 47.1 प्रतिशत परिवारों के निवास ईकादयों में 'अच्छी' हवादार व्यवस्था थी ।

- विवाहित परिवारों में, ग्रामीण भारत में 68.3 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय भारत में 72.9 प्रतिशत प्रत्येक विवाहित जोड़ियों के लिए अलग कमरा था ।

- भाड़े के आवास में रहने वाले परिवार के द्वारा दिया गया औसत मासिक भाड़ा ग्रामीण भारत में रू 1072/- एवं नगरीय भारत में रू 2041/- था ।

5.2. माईक्रो (सूक्ष्म) वातावरणः-

- 49.9 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्र के परिवार एवं 12.5 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्र के परिवारों के पास कोई जल-निकासी व्यवस्था नहीं थी ।

- 8.5 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण भारत के एवं 45.2 नगरीय भारत के परिवारों के पास 'भुमिगत' जल निकासी व्यवस्था थी ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में, 58.7 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने नगरीय भारत के 15.9 प्रतिशत परिवारों के मुकाबले गंदे पानी को बिना किसी उपचार के 'खुले निचली भूमिवाले इलाकों' मे निपटान कर दिया था ।

- ग्रामीण भारत एवं नगरीय भारत में, क्रमशः 32.0 प्रतिशत एवं 75.8 प्रतिशत परिवारों में कूड़ा निपटाने की कुछ व्यवस्था थी ।

- 50.0 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवारों ने यह रिपोर्ट दर्ज किया कि उनके घर का कूड़ा 'सामुदायिक क्षेपण भूमि' में जमा किया जाता है एवं 28.9 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने यह रिपोर्ट दर्ज किया कि 'सामुदायिक क्षेपण भूमि' 'रोजाना' या दैनिक रूप में साफ की जाती थी । दूसरी तरफ ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में केवल 6.3 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने दर्ज किया कि उनके घर का कूड़ा 'सामुदायिक क्षेपण भूमि' में जमा किया जाता है एवं 1.7 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने बताया कि वह दैनिक रूप से साफ किया जाता है ।

- भारत में 14.6 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवार एवं 5.0 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवार क्रमशः ऐसे घरों में रहते थे जहाँ 'कोई सीधा खुला रास्ता रोड/लेन/निर्मित पथ नहीं था, एवं यह अनुपात उन घरों के लिए अधिक था जिनकी कच्ची सरंचना थी (ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 22.6 प्रतिशत, एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 16.3 प्रतिशत) ।

- भारत में 11.7 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण परिवारों एवं 4.1 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवारों ने दर्ज करवाया कि वे पक्की सरंचना के घर में रहते है, किन्तु उनके घर तक पहुचने के रास्ते/लेन निर्मित पथ नहीं थी ।

- 56.6 प्रतिशत भारतीय ग्रामीण परिवार एंव 47.6 नगरीय भारतीय परिवारों ने दर्ज करवाया कि उन्हें पिछले 365 दिनों के दौरान मच्छर/मक्खियों की 'कठोर/गंभीर' कठिनाईयों का सामना करना पड़ा ।

- पिछले 30 दिनों के दौरान ग्रामीण भारत में 40.3 प्रतिशत परिवारों एवं नगरीय भारत में 26.9 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने अपने किसी सदस्य को 'मलेरिया के अलावे किसी ज्वर रोग' से पीड़ित होने का रिपोर्ट किया । पिछले 30 दिनों के दौरान ग्रामीण भारत में 22.2 प्रतिशत परिवारों एवं नगरीय भारत में 13.5 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने 'पेट की समस्या' से अपने किसी सदस्य के पीड़ित होने का रिपोर्ट किया ।

6. घरों में रहनेवाले नगरीय परिवारों के कुछ सामान्य विवरणः-

- भारत में 40.5 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवार ने वर्तमान इलाके में 20 वर्ष या उससे अधिक समय से रहने का रिपोर्ट किया । अधिसूचित एवं गैर-अधिसूचित नगरीय झुग्गी वस्ती मामले में क्रमशः 46.9 प्रतिशत एवं 46.4 प्रतिशत के अनुपात का अनुमान लगाया गया ।

- पिछले 365 दिनों के दौरान 4.9 प्रतिशत नगरीय परिवार वर्त्तमान क्षेत्र में आकर रहने लगे थे। अधिसूचित नगरीय झुग्गी बस्ती में रहने वाले परिवारों में से 3.1 प्रतिशत और उनमें से गैर अधिसूचित नगरीय झुग्गी बस्ती में रहने वाले 4.3 प्रतिशत परिवार पिछले एक वर्ष के दौरान वर्तमान क्षेत्र में आकर रहने लगे ।

- 21.6 प्रतिशत परिवार जो अपने वर्त्तमान अवस्थिति में 'रोजगार से जुड़े कारण' जो कि ऐसे संचालन के लिए देखे जाते हैं, आकर रहने लगे । केवल 4.4 प्रतिशत परिवारों द्वारा 'मुफ्त/कम भाड़ा' को कारण बताया गया ।

- 58.5 प्रतिशत परिवारों जो झुग्गी बस्ती/स्म्वैटर में रहते थे के पास 'राशन कार्ड या वोटर आई डी कार्ड या पासपोर्ट' था, जिसके कारण उनका आवासीय स्तर अभिलिखित था । ऐसे परिवारों का अनुपात उन परिवारों से जो कि अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्ती क्षेत्रों में रहते थे सबसे अधिक (62.5 प्रतिशत) था । तत्पश्चात आया वे परिवार जो स्म्वैटर क्षेत्रों में रहते थे (54.0 प्रतिशत)। नगरीय भारत के जो परिवार गैर अधिसूचित झुग्गी वस्ती इलाकों में रहते थे, का अनुपात 51.1 प्रतिशत था।

- 85.6 प्रतिशत झुग्गी बस्ती/स्म्वैटर में रहने वाले स्थानीय अधिवासी परिवारों को कोई सुविधा प्राप्त नहीं हुयी । ऐसे परिवारों का अनुपात सबसे अधिक था (91.0 प्रतिशत) जो गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी वस्ती क्षेत्रों में रहते थे तत्पश्चात् वे परिवार जो स्म्वैटर स्थानीय अधिवास में रहते थे (84.9 प्रतिशत) था । अधिसूचित झुग्गी वस्ती क्षेत्रों में रहने वालों के लिए यह अनुपात 82.8 प्रतिशत था ।

- 8.5 प्रतिशत परिवार जो कि अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में रहते थे कभी वहां से बाहर निकलने की चेष्टा की । इस अनुपात का प्राक्कलन 4.9 प्रतिशत और 6.9 प्रतिशत उन परिवारों के लिए किया गया जो क्रमशः गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों एवं स्म्वैटर स्थानीय अधिवास में रहते थे । सभी को एक साथ लेने पर यह अनुपात 7.3 प्रतिशत प्राक्कलित था ।

- 70.8 प्रतिशत झुग्गी बस्ती/स्म्वैटर में रहने वाले स्थानीय अधिवासी परिवार 'अच्छा आवास' को झुग्गी बस्ती/स्म्बैटर अधिवास से बाहर निकलने का अपना कारण बताया जबकि 11.7 प्रतिशत परिवारों ने 'कार्यस्थल की निकटता' को कारण दर्शाया ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं॰ 557: भारत में अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र एवं रोजगार की स्थितियाँ

एनएसएस 68वां दौर (जुलाई, 2011 – जून, 2012)

यह रिपोर्ट जुलाई 2011 से जून 2012 के बीच एनएसएस के 68 वें दौर में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी पर किए गए सर्वेक्षण पर आधारित है । यह सर्वेक्षण 12,737 प्र.च.इ.यों में (7,469 ग्रामों एवं 5,268 नगरीय खंडो) में फैला हुआ था, एवं 1,01,724 परिवारों (59,700 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में और 42,024 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) को इसमें समाविष्ट किया गया, और 4,56,999 व्यक्तियों (2,80,763 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 1,76,236 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) की गणना की गई ।

रा.प्र.सर्वे. के 68वें दौर (जुलाई 2011 - जून 2012) में एनआईसी- 2008 के उद्योग समुहों/प्रभागों 014, 016, 017, 02-99 में कार्यरत सामान्य स्तर कामगारों से उद्यमों के विभिन्न विशिष्टताओं की सूचना (यथा-उद्यमों के प्रकार, उद्यम में कामगारों की संख्या, क्या उद्यम बिजली का उपयोग करते हैं, इत्यादि) जिसमें वे लोग कार्यरत थे और यह सब उद्यमों में कार्यरत नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों एवं आकस्मिक श्रमिकों से रोजगार के लिए विभिन्न शर्ते (जैसे- रोजगार अनुबंध के प्रकार, सवेतन छुट्टी के लिए पात्रता, सामाजिक सुरक्षा लाभ की उपलब्धता, भुगतान के तरीके इत्यादि) एकत्रित किया गया । इन उद्योगों में उद्योग समूहों/प्रभागों 014, 016, 017, 02 एवं 03 (जो आगे एजीइजीसी क्षेत्र के रूप में देखा जाय) कृषि क्षेत्र में है । कृषि क्षेत्र में केवल फसल उगाना, पौधा प्रर्वधन, पशुओं के विशिष्ट उत्पादन के बिना फसल एवं पशुओं के संयुक्त उत्पादन को सम्मिलित नहीं किया गया । उद्योग प्रभाग 05-99 गैर-कृषी क्षेत्र में है । उद्यमों के विशिष्टताएं एवं रोजगार की शर्तों पर सूचना उन लोगों से एकत्रित किया गया जो कि एक कामगार के रूप में चाहे सामान्य प्रमुख स्तर (पी एस) या सामान्य गौण स्तर (एस एस) में वर्गीकृत थे । इस रिपोर्ट में एजीइजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में सामान्य स्तर कार्यबल का प्राक्कलन दिया गया । यह प्राक्कलन उद्योगों की विविध विशिष्टताओं के लिए और अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र (मालिकाना एवं साझेदारी उद्यमों को पारिभाषित दायरे में लाना) के विशेष सन्दर्भ के साथ दिया गया । इस रिपोर्ट में रोजगार के विभिन्न शर्तों के साथ यह सब क्षेत्र में सामान्य स्तर के कर्मचारियों का प्राक्कलन प्रस्तुत किया गया है । यदि अन्यथा उल्लेख ना किया गया है, कार्यबल को एजीइजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र में सामान्य स्तर कामगारों के रूप में दिखा जाय ।

अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर 2011-12 के दौरान उद्यमों के विभिन्न विशिष्टतओं के लिए कामगारों का प्राक्कलन एवं रोजगार के विभिन्न शर्तों के तहत् कर्मचारियों के प्राक्कलन के उपर कुछ मुख्य निष्कर्ष निम्नलिखित हैः–

1. अनौपचारिक क्षेत्रों में कामगार

(क) एजीईजीसी (AGEGC) एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र के कामगारों का शेयर :-

- भारत की जनसंख्या का करीब 39 प्रतिशत सामान्य स्थिति (पीएस+एसएस) में कार्यरत थे - ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में यह अनुपात करीब 40 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 36 प्रतिशत था ।

- भारत में कामगारों का करीब 55 प्रतिशत एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में लगे हुए थे- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में इनका अनुपात करीब 41 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 95 प्रतिशत था ।

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कामगारों में करीब 93 प्रतिशत गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र में थे- इनका अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 89 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 98 प्रतिशत था ।

(ख) अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगार :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कामगारों में, करीब 72 प्रतिशत अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे- इनका अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 75 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 69 प्रतिशत था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में स्वनियोजित, नियमित मजदुरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों एवं आकस्मिक मजदूरों का अनुपात क्रमशः करीब 57 प्रतिशत, 11 प्रतिशत एवं 32 प्रतिशत था ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में, स्वनियोजित, नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों एवं आकस्मिक मजदूरों का अनुपात क्रमशः करीब 58 प्रतिशत, 27 प्रतिशत एवं 16 प्रतिशत था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 97 प्रतिशत स्वनियोजित, 78 प्रतिशत आकस्मिक मजदूरों एवं 42 प्रतिशत नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों, अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में नियोजित थे ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 98 प्रतिशत स्वनियोजित, 81 प्रतिशत आकस्मिक मजदूरों एवं 40 प्रतिशत नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में नियोजित थे ।

- अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में करीब 86 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में (94 प्रतिशत पुरुष एवं 63 प्रतिशत महिलाएं) एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 98 प्रतिशत (99 प्रतिशत पुरुष एवं 95 प्रतिशत महिलाएं) गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे ।

- विनिर्माण (सेक्सन सी), निर्माण (सेक्सन एफ), थोक एवं खुदरा व्यापार/व्यवसाय (सेक्सन जी), परिवहन एवं भंडारण (सेक्सन एच) उद्योग अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में प्रमुख रोजगार प्रबंधक था । अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 73 प्रतिशत, नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 75 प्रतिशत इन्हीं उद्योगों में कार्यरत थे ।

(ग) अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों के कार्यस्थलों की अवस्थिति :-

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में रहने वाले अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में करीब 90 प्रतिशत (87 प्रतिशत पुरूष एवं 97 प्रतिशत महिलाऐं) ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में अपना कार्यस्थल बताया ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में रहने वालें अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में करीब 87 प्रतिशत (86 प्रतिशत पुरूष एवं 93 प्रतिशत महिलाऐं) नगरीय क्षेत्रों में अपना कार्यस्थल बताया ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के पुरूष कामगारों में करीब 5 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में पुरूष कामगारों में करीब 1 प्रतिशत के पास कोई निश्चित कार्यस्थल नहीं था । महिलाओं के लिए तद्नुसार अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 11 प्रतिशत और नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 4 प्रतिशत था ।

(घ) विनिर्माण उद्यमों में जो कि बिजली का उपयोग करते थे इनमें कार्यरत अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों :-

- विनिर्माण उद्यमों के कामगारों में ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 38 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 64 प्रतिशत उन सब उद्यमों में कार्यरत थे जो कि उत्पादन प्रयोजन के लिए बिजली का उपयोग किया।

- विनिर्माण उद्योग में कार्यरत अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में करीब 31 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में और नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 56 प्रतिशत उन सब उद्यमों में कार्यरत थे जो कि उत्पादन प्रयोजन हेतु बिजली का उपयोग किया ।

(ड.) छोटे उद्यमों में अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगार (यथा- वैसे उद्यम जिसमें 6 से कम कामगार थे) :-

- अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के कामगारों में करीब 75 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में और नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 70 प्रतिशत छोटे उद्यमों में कार्यरत थे ।

(च) अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र उद्यमों में कर्मचारियों का मजदूरी/वेतन कमाई :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में एक नियमित मजदूर/वैतनिक कर्मचारीयों का औसत दैनिक आय करीब 401 रू. था- करीब 225 रू. उनके लिए था जो अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे और करीब 127 रू. उनके लिए था जो कि नियोक्ता के घर में कार्यरत थे ।

- अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में एक नियमित मजदूर/वैतनिक कर्मचारियों का औसत दैनिक आय ग्रामीण पुरूषों के लिए 189 रू., ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 121 रू., नगरीय पुरूषों के लिए 258 रू. एवं नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 194 रू. था ।

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में आकस्मिक मजदूरों का दैनिक मजदूरी दर करीब 155 रू. था- करीब 159 रू. उनके लिए था जो कि अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में कार्यरत थे और करीब 116 रू. उनके लिए था जो नियोक्ता के घर में कार्यरत थे ।

- अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में आकस्मिक मजदूरों का दैनिक मजदूरी दर ग्रामीण पुरूषों के लिए करीब 163 रू., ग्रामीण महिलाओं के लिए 116 रू., नगरीय पुरूषों के लिए 169 रू. और नगरीय महिलाओं के लिए 113 रू. था ।

2. रोजगार के विभिन्न शर्तों के साथ कामगारों

(क) अलिखित सेवा संविदा वाले कर्मचारी :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में करीब 79 प्रतिशत कर्मचारियों के पास कोई लिखित सेवा संविदा नहीं था- आकस्मिक मजदूरों के लिए इसका अनुपात 97 प्रतिशत था और नियमित मजदूरों/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों के लिए 65 प्रतिशत था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों जो कि बिना किसी सेवा संविदा के थे, करीब 76 प्रतिशत या तो विनिर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन सी) या निर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एफ) या परिवहन और भंडारण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एच) में थे । इन तीनों क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात कुल मिलाकर करीब 69 प्रतिशत था ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों जो कि बिना किसी सेवा संविदा के थे, करीब 65 प्रतिशत या तो विनिर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन सी) या निर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एफ) या थोक और खुदरा व्यापार क्षेत्र (सेक्सन जी) या परिवहन और भंडारण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एच) में थे । इन चारों क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात नगरीय क्षेत्रों में कुल मिलाकर करीब 55 प्रतिशत था ।

(ख) अस्थायी प्रकृति के रोजगार वालें कर्मचारी :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों में करीब 42 प्रतिशत अस्थायी कर्मचारी थे- आकस्मिक मजदूरों के लिए इसका अनुपात 60 प्रतिशत था और नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों के लिए 28 प्रतिशत था ।

(ग) बिना सवेतन अवकाश वाले कर्मचारी :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों में करीब 71 प्रतिशत कर्मचारी सवेतन अवकाश के पात्र नहीं थे- आकस्मिक मजदूरों के लिए यह अनुपात 98 प्रतिशत था और नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों के लिए 50 प्रतिशत था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों में जो सवेतन अवकाश के पात्र नहीं थे, उनमे करीब 79 प्रतिशत या तो विनिर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन सी) या निर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एफ) या परिवहन और भंडारण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एच) में थे । इन क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में कुल मिलाकर करीब 69 प्रतिशत था ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र के कर्मचारियों में जो सवेतन अवकाश के पात्र नहीं थे उनमें करीब 70 प्रतिशत या तो विनिर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन सी) या निर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एफ) या थोक और खुदरा व्यापार क्षेत्र (सेक्सन जी) या परिवहन एवं भंडारण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एच)

में थे । इन क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात नगरीय क्षेत्रों में कुल मिलाकर करीब 55 प्रतिशत था ।

(घ) कर्मचारियों जो किसी भी सामाजिक सुरक्षा लाभ से वंचित थे:-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र के कर्मचारियों में करीब 72 प्रतिशत कोई भी सामाजिक सुरक्षा लाभ के लिए पात्र नहीं थे- आकस्मिक मजदूरों के लिए यह अनुपात 93 प्रतिशत और नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों के लिए 56 प्रतिशत था ।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों में जो कि कोई भी सामाजिक सुरक्षा लाभ के पात्र नहीं थे, उनमें करीब 76 प्रतिशत या तो विनिर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन सी) या निर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एफ) या परिवहन और भंडारण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एच) में थे । इन क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात, ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में कुल मिलाकर करीब 69 प्रतिशत था ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के कर्मचारियों में जो कि कोई भी सामाजिक सुरक्षा लाभ के पात्र नहीं थे, उनमें करीब 74 प्रतिशत या तो विनिर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन सी) या निर्माण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एफ) या थोक और खुदरा व्यापार क्षेत्र (सेक्सन जी) या परिवहन और भंडारण क्षेत्र (सेक्सन एच) या नियोक्ता के रूप में घरों के क्रिया कलाप; पारिवारिक क्रियाकलापों का अपने उपयोग के लिए अविभेदित वस्तुऐं एवं सेवाएं प्रस्तुत करना (सेक्सन टी) में थे । इन क्षेत्र में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात नगरीय क्षेत्र में कुल मिलाकर करीब 60 प्रतिशत था ।

(ड.) अलिखित सेवा संविदा और सवेतन अवकाश के बिना कर्मचारियों :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्र में करीब 68 प्रतिशत कर्मचारियों के पास न तो लिखित सेवा संविदा थी और न ही वे सवेतन अवकाश के लिए पात्र थे ।

(च) कर्मचारियों के लिए भुगतान के तरीके :-

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में करीब 91 प्रतिशत नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों ने नियमित मासिक वेतन प्राप्त किया ।

- एजीईजीसी और गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में करीब 56 प्रतिशत आकस्मिक मजदूरों ने दैनिक भुगतान प्राप्त किया ।

(छ) संघ/एसोसियेशन का अस्तित्व :-

- सामान्य स्तर कामगारों का करीब 80 प्रतिशत का अपने क्रियाकलापों में संघ/एसोसियेशन नहीं था नियमित मजदूरी/वेतन भोगी कर्मचारियों के लिए यह अनुपात करीब 59 प्रतिशत था, आकस्मिक मजदूरों के लिए यह अनुपात 87 प्रतिशत एवं स्व नियोजित के लिए 83 प्रतिशत था ।

(3) एनएसएस 68वें दौर से प्राप्त अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में कार्यबल का मुख्य प्राक्कलन और रोजगार के विभिन्न शर्तों के साथ कार्यबल का मुख्य प्राक्कलन :-

मद सं.	मद विवरण	अनुपात (100 में)			
		ग्रामीण		नगरीय	
		पुरूष	महिला	पुरूष	महिला
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	सामान्य स्तर में डब्ल्यूपीआर (WPR) (पीएस+एसएस)	54	25	55	15
2.	सभी कामगारों में एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में कामगारों का अनुपात	43	35	96	92
3.	अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र में कामगारों का एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों के सभी कामगारों में अनुपात	76	73	70	64
4.	अनौपचारिक क्षेत्र के सभी कामगारों में गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में कार्यरत कामगारों का अनुपात	94	63	99	95
5.	एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात जिनके पास कोई भी लिखित सेवा संविदा नहीं था	86	81	73	72
6.	एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में अस्थायी कर्मचारियों का अनुपात	47	53	35	39
7.	एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात जो सवेतन अवकाश के लिए पात्र नहीं थे	81	81	61	59
8.	एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात जो किसी भी तरह के सामाजिक सुरक्षा के लिए पात्र नहीं थे	79	83	63	64
9.	एजीईजीसी एवं गैर-कृषि क्षेत्रों में कर्मचारियों का अनुपात, जिनके पास नहीं कोई लिखित सेवा संविदा था और नहीं वे सवेतन अवकाश के लिए पात्र थे	78	74	57	55
10.	सामान्य स्तर कामगारों का अनुपात जिनका कोई संघ/एसोसियेशन उनके क्रिया कलापों में नही था	82	89	68	77

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं॰ 558: भारत में विभिन्न वस्तुओं एवं सेवाओं का पारिवारिक उपभोग

एनएसएस 68वां दौर (जुलाई, 2011 - जून, 2012)

यह रिपोर्ट 2011-12 के दौरान सम्पूर्ण देश में फैले हुए 7469 ग्रामों एवं 5268 नगरीय खंडों में 101651 परिवारों से एकत्रित सूचना पर आधारित है ।

अनाज, दाल एवं खाद्य तेल

- ग्रामीण भारत में प्रति व्यक्ति प्रति माह चावल की खपत, 2004-05 के 6.38 कि.ग्रा. की तुलना में 2011-12 में 5.98 कि.ग्रा. के रूप में प्राक्कलित किया गया- 7 वर्षों में 0.4 कि.ग्रा. की गिरावट हुयी, नगरीय भारत में प्रति व्यक्ति प्रति माह चावल की खपत में इन दो वर्षों में 0.2 कि.ग्रा. की गिरावट हुयी (4.71 कि.ग्रा. से 4.49 कि.ग्रा.) । प्रति व्यक्ति पीडीएस चावल की खपत 2004-2005 से 2011-12 तक ग्रामीण भारत में दुगुना हो गया है, और नगरीय भारत में 66% बढ़ा है । अत: चावल की खपत में पीडीएस खरीद का अंश काफी बढ़ गया है ।[1]

- 2011-12 में गेहूं की खपत, 2004-05 से ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में प्रति व्यक्ति प्रतिमाह करीब 0.1 कि.ग्रा. की हल्की बढ़त और नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 0.35 कि.ग्रा. की गिरावट दिखाया । पीडीएस खरीद का शेयर गेहुँ की मामले में भी उल्लेखनीय बड़ोती दिखी गयी है । पीडीएस गेहूं के प्रति माह प्रतिव्यक्ति खपत 2004-05 से दोनों क्षेत्रों में दोगुना से ज्यादा हो गयी ।

- दाल एवं दाल उत्पाद समुह के लिए प्रतिव्यक्ति खपत 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच 77-78 ग्रा. बढ़ा - ग्रामीण सेक्टर में प्रतिमाह 705 ग्रा. से 783 ग्रा. और नगरीय सेक्टर में प्रतिमाह 824 ग्रा. से 901 ग्रा. बढ़ी । यह वृद्धि में ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 69 ग्राम एवं नगरीय सेक्टर में 57 ग्राम केवल मात्र चार मदों (चनादाल, पूरा चना, मटर एवं बेसन) से प्राप्त हुआ ।

- चार दालों - अरहर, मूँग, मसूर एवं उड़द - जो कि 2011-12 में दालों एवं दाल उत्पादों की खपत का करीब ग्रामीण भारत में 64% एवं नगरीय भारत में 68% है - खपत की मात्रा में इन सात वर्षों की अवधि में कुल वृधि ग्रामीण सेक्टर में मात्र 14ग्रा. एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 18ग्रा. पंजीकृत हुआ ।

[1] ध्यान दिया जाय कि 2004-2005 एवं 2011-12 के बीच प्रति व्यक्ति अनाज का मासिक खर्च ग्रामीण भारत में 12.2 कि.ग्रा. से 11.23 कि.ग्रा. और नगरीय भारत में 9.94 कि.ग्र. से 9.92 कि.ग्रा. गिर गया । (देखें एनएसएस रिपोर्ट सं. 555)

- प्रति व्यक्ति मासिक खाद्य तेल की खपत ग्रामीण भारत में 674 ग्रा. एवं नगरीय भारत में 853 ग्रा. प्राक्कलित था । विभिन्न प्रकार के खाद्य तेलों में ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में सरसों तेल का सबसे बड़ा अंश (करीब 45%) था और नगरीय सेक्टरों में रिफाईन तेल का (जिसमें सूर्यमुखी तेल एवं सोयाबीन तेल भी शामिल था) सबसे बड़ा अंश (47%) था ।

अन्य खाद्य

- अंडों की खपत की 7 दिनों के अबधि के दौरान 29% ग्रामीण एवं करीब 38% नगरीय परिवारों द्वारा रिपोर्ट की गयी । ग्रामीण भारत में प्रति व्यक्ति अंडे की खपत, प्रतिमाह 1.94 (0.45 प्रति सप्ताह) और नगरीय भारत में प्रतिमाह 3.18 (0.74 प्रति सप्ताह) थी ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में मछली की प्रति व्यक्ति प्रतिमाह खपत (266 ग्रा.) नगरीय खपत (252 ग्रा.) से थोड़ा ऊँचा था । 7 दिनों की अवधि में मछली की खपत की रिपोर्ट करने वाले परिवार भी ग्रामीण भारत में (26% से अधिक) नगरीय भारत (21%) से उच्चतर था । लेकिन नगरीय भारत दूध, अंडा, बकड़े का माँस एवं चिकन के मामले में आगे था ।

- गाजर, नींबू, फूलगोभी, पत्तागोभी एवं टमाटर की खपत देश के नगरीय क्षेत्रों में अधिक था, जबकि आलू, प्याज, कद्दू बर्गीय सब्जी/ कुम्हरा और बेगन का ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 7-दिनों की अवधि में खपत करने वाले परिवारों का प्रतिशत अधिक था । औसत ग्रामीण भारतीय एक माह में करीब एक किलो 965 ग्राम आलू की खपत किया जो कि औसत नगरीय भारतीय की खपत से करीब 350 ग्राम अधिक ।

- प्रत्येक फलों एवं नट की प्रतिव्यक्ति नगरीय खपत, ग्रामीण खपत से मूल्य या परिमाण दोनों की दृष्टि से अधिक था । खपत में ग्रामीण और नगरीय असमानता नारियल, आम, मूँगफली और केला में अपेक्षाकृत कम था एवं सेव, अंगुर और संतरा में अधिक था ।

- चाय पर व्यय (चायपत्ती और पीने के लिए तैयार चाय) प्रतिव्यक्ति प्रतिमाह ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 28रू. एवं नगरीय भारत में करीब 48रू. था ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्र में, बने हुए भोजन पर व्यय प्रतिव्यक्ति प्रतिमाह पर 58रू. था । रेस्टूरेन्ट, फूड स्टॉल आदि से बने हुए स्नेक्स की खरीददारी पिछले 7-दिनों के दौरान करीब 60% नगरीय परिवारों द्वारा रिपोर्ट किया गया; नगरीय भारत में प्रति व्यक्ति प्रतिमाह इस पर खर्च धनराशी करीब 37रू. था ।

ईंधन, कपड़ा, शिक्षा एवं चिकित्सा

- 96% नगरीय परिवार और 74% ग्रामीण परिवार द्वारा विधुत की खपत की गई । ईंधन व्यय (परिवहन इंधन के अलावे) का करीब 50% विधुत औसत नगरीय परिवार एवं 22% ग्रामीण परिवार ने जुटाया ।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 71% परिवार एवं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 21% से अधिक परिवार पिछले 30 दिनों के दौरान पारिवारिक उपयोग के लिए एलपीजी के खपत का रिपोर्ट किया । जलाऊ लकड़ी एवं चिप्स के उपयोग करने वाले परिवारों का प्रतिशत, ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 83.5% एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 23% ही बना हुआ है।

- 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में एलपीजी खपत करने वाले परिवार के अनुपात में 83% की वृद्धि और प्रतिव्यक्ति एलपीजी की खपत की मात्रा में 75% की वृद्धि देखा गया । नगरीय क्षेत्र एलपीजी खपत करने वाले परिवार के अनुपात एवं प्रतिव्यक्ति एलपीजी की खपत की मात्रा दोनों में 20% का उत्कर्ष दिखाया ।

- विद्युत के मामले में, ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच 7 वर्षों में विद्युत खपत करने वाले परिवारों के अनुपात में 36% का उत्कर्ष (नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 6% उत्कर्ष की तुलना में) और प्रति व्यक्ति विद्युत खपत की मात्रा में 57% का (नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 29%) उत्कर्ष हुआ ।

- नगर की तुलना में ग्रामीण भारतीय के कपड़े की बजट में शर्ट एवं ट्राउजर का कपड़ा का अधिक महत्व था, जबकि रेडीमेड वस्त्रों, जैसे शर्ट, ट्राउजर, कुरता, पायजामा इत्यादि नगरीय भारत के लिए महत्वपूर्ण था । साड़ी के लिए दोनों क्षेत्र में बजट का 16% व्यय हुआ ।

- प्रतिव्यक्ति (नाम देने वाले समस्त जनसंख्या के साथ और केवल विधार्थी नहीं) प्रतिमाह शैक्षणिक व्यय ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 50रू. (एमपीसीइ का 3.5%) और नगरीय भारत में 181.50रू. (एमपीसीइ का करीब 7%) था ।

- ट्यूशन एवं अन्य शुल्कों के अंश में ग्रामीण भारत में 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच करीब 44% से 56% की और नगरीय भारत में करीब 58% से 67% की उल्लेखनीय वृद्धि हुई । निजी शिक्षकों एवं कोचिंग केन्द्रों पर व्यय करने वाले परिवारों का अनुपात 2011-12 में ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 12% एवं नगरीय भारत में 17% था ।

- गैर-संस्थागत गत (अस्पताल में बिना भर्ती हुए) चिकित्सा व्यय में दवाओं का भाग ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 80% एवं नगरीय भारत में 75% पाया गया ।

विविध वस्तुएं एवं सेवाएं

- 2011-12 में ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में पेट्रोल का प्रति व्यक्ति व्यय करीब 23रू. रहा, ये व्यय 2004-05 में किए गए व्यय से 4.2 गुना बढ़के नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच में यह 2.7 गुणा बड़ा (प्रतिमाह करीब 31रू. से 85रू. तक बढ़ा), इस अवधि के दौरान, कुल प्रति व्यक्ति उपभोक्ता व्यय ग्रामीण भारत में 122% एवं नगरीय भारत में 124% से वृद्धि हुई ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में, 2011-12 में टेलीफोन व्यय प्रतिव्यक्ति प्रति महीना करीब 25रू. तक बढ़ा जो कि 2004-05 से अपने मूल्य का करीब 4.6 गुणा था । 2004-05 में जहाँ 32% ग्रामीण परिवारों नें टेलीफोन व्यय दर्ज करवाया, 2011-12 में मोबाइल फोनों पर व्यय रिपोर्ट करने वाले परिवारों का प्रतिशत 77% था ।

- 2011-12 में ग्रामीण भारत में केबल टी.वी चंदे पर प्रति व्यक्ति व्यय 2004-05 के अपने मूल्य से 5.9 गुणा बढ़ा, एंव ऐसा व्यय वहन करने वाले परिवारों का अनुपात 270% बढ़ा ।

- 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच, 7 वर्षो में घर भाड़ा पर प्रति व्यक्ति नगरीय व्यय में करीब तीन गुणा अधिक बढ़ोत्तरी पंजीकृत हुआ ।

टिकाऊ/स्थायी वस्तुएं

- ग्रामीण भारत में स्थायी वस्तुओं पर व्यय में सोने के गहनों का भाग 24% था, जब की नगरीय भारत में ये करीब 20% रहा ।

- नगरीय भारत में मोटरकारों का भाग ग्रामीण भारत के 9% के मुकाबले 21% के ऊपर था, दोनों क्षेत्रों में मोटोराइज्ड दो-पहियों वाले वाहनों का भाग करीब 12-14% तक था ।

- दानों क्षेत्र में स्थायी वस्तुओं पर व्यय का करीब 4.4% मोबाइल फोन हैण्डसेट पर आया ।

- 2004-05 के 26% के तुलना में 2011-12 में ग्रामीण परिवारों के 50% के पास एवं 2004-05 में 66% के तुलना में 2011-12 में 80% नगरीय परिवारों के पास टेलीविजन सेट था ।

- 2004-05 के 32% के तुलना में 2011-12 में नगरीय परिवारों के 44% के पास एवं 2004-05 में 4.6% की तुलना में 2011-12 में 8% नगरीय परिवारों के पास रेफ्रीजरेटर था ।

- 2011-12 से पहलें 7 वर्षों अवधि में ग्रामीण परिवारों में मोटरसाईकल एवं स्कूटरों का अनुपात दुगुना हो गया, जबकि नगरीय क्षेत्र में इस अनुपात में 26% से 38% तक की बढ़ोत्तरी आई ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं॰ 559: घरेलू कार्यों के साथ-साथ विनिर्दिष्ट क्रियाकलापों में महिलाओं की भागीदारी

एनएसएस 68वां दौर (जुलाई, 2011 – जून, 2012)

यह रिपोर्ट जुलाई 2011 से जून 2012 के दौरान रा.प्र.सर्वे. के 68 वें दौर में रोजगार एवं बेरोजगारी पर हुए सर्वेक्षण पर आधारित है । यह सर्वेक्षण 12,737 प्र.च.इ.यों (FSU) (7,469 ग्रामों एवं 5,268 नगरीय खंडो) में फैला हुआ था, एवं 1,01,724 परिवारों (59,700 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में और 42,024 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) को इसमें समाविष्ट किया गया, और 4,56,999 व्यक्तियों (2,80,763 ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 1,76,236 नगरीय क्षेत्रों में) की गणना की गई ।

परिगणित व्यक्तियों का प्रतिचयन के कारण विभिन्न गुणक होता है । प्रतिदर्श में परिगणित व्यक्तियों की संख्या जो कि आंकलन उत्पन्न करने हेतु व्यवहार में लाए जाते हैं, परिशिष्ट 'क' के विस्तृत सारणियों में आंकलित व्यक्तियों जो कि गुणक व्यवहार हेतु मिला, के साथ ही पेश किए गए हैं ।

रा.प्र.सर्वे. के 68वें दौर में (जुलाई 2011 - जून 2012), सामान्य मुख्य स्तर में घरेलू कार्यों में संलग्न परिवार के सभी सदस्यों से कुछ अन्वेषणात्मक प्रश्नावली रखा गया, जैसा घरेलू कार्यों में उनकी भागीदारी के कारण सम्बन्धित; कुछ विनिर्दिष्ट क्रियाकलापों में उनके घरेलू कार्यों के साथ कम या अधिक भागीदारी; अपने मकान परिसर में कार्य स्वीकार करने की उनकी इच्छा; उनके लिए स्वीकार्य कार्य की प्रकृति और प्रकार; या वे उस कार्य को करने की कोई दक्षता/अनुभव रखते थे; और अपने इच्छानुकूल कार्य इत्यादि के लिए उन्हें किस तरह की सहायता चाहिय था इत्यादि । कार्यकलाप स्तर के वर्गीकरण के अनुसार, कार्यकलाप स्तर संकेतांक 92 (केवल घरेलू कार्य करने वाला) और 93 (घरेलू कार्यों के साथ सामानों का मुफ्त संग्रहण, सिलाई, सिलाई का काम करना (दर्जीगिरी), बुनकर (बुनाई) इत्यादि परिवार के उपयोग के लिए) में कार्यरत व्यक्तियों को घरेलू कार्यों में संलग्न माना गया ।

2011-12 के दौरान घरेलू कार्यों में संलग्न महिलाओं से अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर संग्रहित आँकड़ों के उपर आधारित कुछ मुख्य निष्कर्ष निम्नलिखित हैं :–

(क) घरेलू कार्यों में महिलाओं की भागीदारी

- करीब 42 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाएं घरेलु कार्यों में कार्यरत थी - करीब 18.5 प्रतिशत कार्यकलाप स्तर संकेतांक 92 के साथ और करीब 23.7 प्रतिशत कार्यकलाप स्तर संकेतांक 93 के साथ ।

- करीब 48 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाएं घरेलु कार्यों में कार्यरत थीं - करीब 36.4 प्रतिशत कार्यकलाप स्तर संकेतांक 92 के साथ और करीब 11.6 प्रतिशत कार्यकलाप स्तर संकेतांक 93 के साथ ।

- 5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र की महिलाओं में, करीब 46 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 52 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलू कार्यों में कार्यरत थीं ।

- 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र की महिलाओं में, करीब 60 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों एवं 64 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलु कार्यों में कार्यरत थीं ।

- उन महिलाओं में जिनकी उम्र 5-14 वर्ष की थी, उनमें करीब 2.7 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 1.8 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलु कार्यों में व्यस्त थीं।

- उन महिलाओं में जिनकी उम्र 15-59 वर्ष की थी, ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों की करीब 61.6 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों की करीब 65.1 प्रतिशत घरेलु कार्यों में व्यस्त थीं।

- उन महिलाओं में जिनकी उम्र 15-64 वर्ष की थी, करीब 61.4 प्रतिशत महिलाएं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 65.3 प्रतिशत महिलाएं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलु कार्यों में व्यस्त थीं।

- उन महिलाओं में जिनकी उम्र 65 वर्ष या उससे अधिक है, करीब 37.2 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 41.5 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलु कार्यों में व्यस्त थीं।

- ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में घरेलू कार्यों में कार्यरत महिलाओं का अनुपात 61वें दौर (2004-05) में 35.3 प्रतिशत से बढ़ कर 66वें दौर (2009-10) में 40.1 प्रतिशत हुया जो आगे पुन: 68वें दौर (2011-12) के दौरान बढ़ कर 42.2 प्रतिशत हुया।

- नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलू कार्यों में कार्यरत महिलाओं का अनुपात 61वें दौर (2004-05) में 45.6 प्रतिशत से बढ़ कर 66वें दौर (2009-10) में 48.2 प्रतिशत हुया, और जो 66वें और 68वें दौर (2011-12) के बीच अपरिवर्त्तित रहा ।

(ख) घरेलू कार्यों में महिलाओं की भागीदारी का कारण

- ***15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र की महिलाओं जो कि घरेलु कार्यों में कार्यरत थीं***

    - ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों में, करीब 92 प्रतिशत महिलाएं अपना अधिक से अधिक समय घरेलु कार्यों में व्यतीत करतीं थी, उनमें से करीब 60 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 64 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में ऐसा इसलिए किया क्योंकि इन घरेलु कार्यों को करने के लिए कोई अन्य सदस्य नहीं था ।

    - ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों में, करीब 8 प्रतिशत को अपना अधिक से अधिक समय घरेलु कार्यों में व्यतीत करने की आवश्यकता नहीं थी, उनमें से करीब 50 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं 51 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में स्वयं की इच्छानुसार फिर भी ऐसा किया ।

(ग) विनिर्दिष्ट क्रियाकलापों में महिलाओं की भागीदारी

- ***5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र***

  - 5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र वाली महिलाओं में, करीब 39 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं करीब 50 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में घरेलु कार्यों में कार्यरत थीं एवं गौण स्तर में कामगार नहीं थीं ।

  - उन महिलाओं के बीच जिनकी आयु 5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक थीं एवं जो गौण स्तर में कामगार न रहकर घरेलु कार्यों में कार्यरत थीं, करीब 57 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं करीब 15 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में कृषि उत्पादन से जुड़े एक या उससे अधिक क्रियाकलापों का चयन किया जैसे साग-सब्जी के बागीचे का रखरखाव, घरेलु मुर्गी/कुक्कुट पालन, डेयरी, आदि में कार्य करना, साथ ही घरेलु उपभोग के लिए कृषि उत्पादनों को मुफ्त इकटठा करना (वे क्रियाकलाप जो कि आईएसएनए के मुताबिक आर्थिक क्रियाकलाप माने जाते हैं एवं रिपोर्ट में वर्ग (i) के आधीन वर्गीकृत किए गए हैं) एवं प्राथमिक उत्पादनों का घरेलु उपभोग के लिए प्रोसेसिंग करना (वे क्रियाकलाप जो कि एसएनए 2008 के मुताबिक आर्थिक क्रियाकलाप माने जाते हैं परन्तु आईएसएनए द्वारा नहीं माना जाता है एवं रिपोर्ट में वर्ग (ii) के आधीन वर्गीकृत किए गए हैं) ।

  - 5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र की महिलाओं के बीच जो कि गौण स्तर में कामगार नहीं थे, करीब 21.9 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में एवं करीब 7.5 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्र में वर्ग (i) एवं (ii) के अन्तर्गत एक या उससे अधिक क्रियाकलापों का चयन किया ।

  - ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों के सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में डब्ल्यूपीआर (WPR) 5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र की महिलाओं के लिए 27.3 प्रतिशत था एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 15.8 प्रतिशत था, जबकि एसएनए-2008 की उत्पाद्य सीमा के विचार से ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में 5 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक उम्र की महिलाओं के डब्ल्यूपीआर (WPR) का उपरी सीमा 49.2 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 23.3 प्रतिशत था ।

- ***15-59 वर्ष***

  - 15-59 वर्ष के महिलाओं के बीच जो कि गौण स्तर में कामगार नहीं थे, ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 29.4 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 9.5 प्रतिशत वर्ग (i) एवं (ii) के अन्तर्गत एक या उससे अधिक क्रियाकलापों का अनुसरण किया ।

  - सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में 15-59 वर्ष की महिलाओं के कामगार जनसंख्या अनुपात (WPR) ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 37.2 प्रतिशत था एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 21.0 प्रतिशत था जबकि एसएनए-2008 की उत्पाद्य सीमा को नजर में रखते हुए, सामान्य स्तर

(पीएस+एसएस) में 15-59 वर्ष की महिलाओं के डब्ल्यूपीआर (WPR) का ऊपरी सीमा ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 66.6 प्रतिशत था एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 30.5 प्रतिशत था ।

- ***सभी उम्र***

  - उन सभी महिलाओं में जो कि गौण स्तर में कामगार नहीं थे, ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में करीब 20.0 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में करीब 6.9 प्रतिशत वर्ग (i) एवं (ii) के अन्तर्गत एक या उससे अधिक क्रियाकलापों का अनुसरण किया ।

  - ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में महिलाओं का कामगार जनसंख्या अनुपात (WPR) 24.8 प्रतिशत था एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 14.7 प्रतिशत था, जबकि एसएनए-2008 की उत्पाद्य सीमा के विचार से ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में सामान्य स्तर (पीएस+एसएस) में कामगार जनसंख्या अनुपात (WPR) के उपरी सीमा सभी उम्र की महिलाओं के लिए 44.8 प्रतिशत एवं नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 21.6 प्रतिशत था ।

(घ) घरेलु परिसर में महिलाओं की काम स्वीकार करने की इच्छा

- उन महिलाओं में जो कि 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक उम्र की थीं, एवं घरेलु कार्यों में व्यस्त थीं, करीब 34 प्रतिशत ने ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में एवं करीब 28 प्रतिशत ने नगरीय क्षेत्रों में अपने घरेलु परिसर में ही कार्य स्वीकार करने की इच्छा व्यक्त की ।

- ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों में, सबसे पसंदीदा कार्य जो कि घरेलु परिसर में स्वीकृत था वो दर्जी का काम था - यह करीब 12 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण महिलाओं द्वारा और 14 प्रतिशत नगरीय महिलाओं द्वारा रिपोर्ट किया गया जो कि 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक उम्र की थी एवं घरेलु कार्यों में व्यस्त थीं।

(ड.) गृह परिसर में स्वीकार्य कार्य की प्रकृति

- उन महिलाओं में जिनकी आयु 15 वर्ष एवं उससे अधिक थी एवं जिनकी गृह परिसर में कार्य करने की इच्छा थी, नगरीय एवं ग्रामीण दोनों क्षेत्रों में करीब 95 प्रतिशत ने नियमित रूप से कार्य करने की इच्छा जाहिर की ।

(च) विनिर्दिष्ट कार्य स्वीकार करने का दक्षता/अनुभव

- ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय दोनों क्षेत्रों में, उन महिलाओं में जिन्होंने गृह परिसर में ही कार्य करने की इच्छा जाहिर की एवं जिनकी आयु 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक थी, उनमें करीब 54 प्रतिशत के पास इन इच्छित कार्यों को प्राप्त करने का कुछ दक्षता/आनुभव था ।

(छ) इच्छित कार्य प्राप्त करने के लिए आवश्यक सहायता

उन महिलाओं में जिनकी आयु 15 वर्ष या उससे अधिक थी एवं जिन्होंने गृह परिसर में कार्य करने की इच्छा स्वीकार किया, करीब 41 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में एवं करीब 29 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्र में 'आसान शर्तों पर ही आरंम्भिक वित्त' की सहायता की आवश्यकता व्यक्त की एवं करीब 21 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों तथा 27 प्रतिशत नगरीय क्षेत्रों में इच्छित कार्य को प्राप्त करने के लिए प्रशिक्षण की आवश्यकता व्यक्त की ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं॰ 560: भारत में पौष्टिक अन्तर्ग्रहण, 2011-12

एनएसएस 68वां दौर (जुलाई, 2011 – जून, 2012)

यह रिपोर्ट 2011-12 के दौरान पूरे देश में फैले हुए 5268 नगरीय खंडों एवं 7469 ग्रामों से एकत्र किये गये सूचनाओं पर आधारित है । उपभोग(खपत) पर सूचना एकत्र करने के लिए दो भिन्न अनुसूचियों को प्रयोग में लाया गया, पहले में 101662 परिवारों से और दूसरे में 101651 परिवारों से सूचना संग्रह किया गया ।

आहार ऊर्जा अन्तर्ग्रहण (अनुसूची टाइप-2 पर आधारित)

- प्रति व्यक्ति प्रतिदिन औसत आहार ऊर्जा अन्तर्ग्रहण ग्रामीण भारत के लिए 2233 कि. कैलोरी एवं नगरीय भारत के लिए 2206 कि. कैलोरी था । सभी मुख्य राज्यों के ग्रामीण/नगरीय क्षेत्र में प्रतिव्यक्ति कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण का स्तर जो कि अखिल-भारत ग्रामीण/नगरीय औसत 11% के अन्दर (अधिक या कम) था ।

- प्रत्येक क्षेत्र में औसत कैलोरी ग्रहण स्थायी तौर पर मासिक प्रतिव्यक्ति उपभोक्ता व्यय (मा.प्र.उ.व्यय) के साथ बढ़ता गया । सबसे कम श्रेणी (मा.प्र.उ.व्यय स्तर द्वारा निर्धनतम जनसंख्या का 5% चिन्हित) एवं अगली आंशिक भिन्न श्रेणी (अगला 5%) ग्रामीण भारत में प्रतिव्यक्ति कैलोरी ग्रहण प्रतिदिन 183 कि. कैलोरी के लगभग उच्च था।

- अखिल-भारतीय स्तर पर करीब 59.5% ग्रामीण जनसंख्या का ऊर्जा अन्तर्ग्रहण 80-120% 2700 कि. कैलोरी /उपभोक्ता इकाई/दिन (रा.प्र.स सारणी में तुलना के लिए व्यवहार किया गया स्तर), जो कि, 2160-3240 कि. कैलोरी/उपभोक्ता इकाई के बराबर थी ।

- अखिल - भारतीय नगरीय कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण वितरण ग्रामीण के समान था, जहां उच्च एवं निचली श्रेणियों में कुछ अधिक परिवारों की संख्या थी । ऊर्जा अन्तर्ग्रहण वितरण में अन्तरविभागीय राज्यों की विभिन्नता, खास तौर पर निचले हिस्से में, ग्रामीण क्षेत्र के मुकाबले भारत के नगरीय क्षेत्र में काफी कम महत्वपूर्ण थे ।

- मा.प्र.उ. व्यय द्वारा चिन्हित निचली 5% ग्रामीण जनसंख्या के बीच, 57% परिवारों का कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण 2160 कि. कैलोरी/उपभोक्ता इकाई/दिवस से कम था, अगले 5% के लिए यह अनुपात 39% तक गिरा एवं ऐसे लगातार क्रम में निरन्तर चलता रहा जब तक कि यह ऊपरी 5% जनसंख्या के लिए 2% तक केवल गिरा ।

- इसी तरह नगरीय परिवारों का अनुपात जिनका कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण 2160 कि. कैलोरी/उपभोक्ता इकाई/दिवस निचली 5% जनसंख्या के लिए 59% था, अगली 5% जनसंख्या के लिए 47% तक गिरा एवं ऊपरी 5% जनसंख्या के लिए 1.6% तक पहुँचा ।

- ऊर्जा अन्तर्ग्रहण की शक्ति का भाग जो अनाजों की देन थी, ग्रामीण भारत के लिए करीब 57% एवं नगरीय भारत के लिए 48% थी । मुख्य राज्यों में अनाजों की देन की विभिन्नता 42% (पंजाब) से 70% (ओड़ीसा) तक ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में एवं 39% (हरियाणा) से 60% (ओड़ीसा एवं बिहार) नगरीय क्षेत्र में पायी गयी ।

- मा.प्र.उ. व्यय स्तर की बढ़ोत्तरी में, कैलोरी ग्रहण में अनाजों की देन में प्रगतिशील रूप से गिरावट आई, ग्रामीण भारत में मा.प्र.उ. व्यय द्वारा चिन्हित निचिली 5% जनसंख्या 70% से 42%, एवं नगरीय भारत में 66% से 29% ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में करीब 43% कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण अनाजेतर खाद्य ने दिया । इस भाग के कैलोरी ग्रहण का प्रतिशत (वह भाग जो गैर-खाद्य अनाज) से आता था ऐसे था : तेल एवं वसा : 22%; विविध खाद्य उत्पाद एवं पेय पदार्थ : 21%; दूध एवं दूध उत्पादन : 15%; दालें, दृढ़पत एवं तेलहन : 12%; चीनी एवं मधु : 11%; जड़ मूल एवं कंद : 9%; सब्जियां एवं फल : 7%; मांस, अंडे एवं मछली : 3%

- गैर - अनाज खाद्य ने नगरीय भारत में अपना कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण का करीब 52% दिया । पूर्ण रूप से, इस कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण का पैटर्न गैर-खाद्य अनाज से एक तरह से दोनों नगरीय एवं ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में समान था, जबकि रूट (मूल) एवं कंद का भाग, 7%, जो थोड़ा कम था ।

- गैर - अनाजों द्वारा दी गयी कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण में, ''दूध एवं दूध उत्पादों'' का भाग सभी मुख्य राज्यों के नगरीय क्षेत्र में 8% से 27% तक था, जिसका रेंज ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 3% से 36% तक थी, जो कि 4 मुख्य राज्यों में 7% या उससे कम थी ।

- ''चीनी एवं मधु'' का कैलोरी अर्न्तग्रहण गैर खाध अनाज में सामान्य रूप से उन राज्यों में जहां अधिक औसतन रहने के स्तर हैं कुछ अधिक देन थी ।

प्रोटीन एवं वसा का अन्तर्ग्रहण (अनुसूची टाइप-2 पर आधारित)

- अखिल - भारतीय सतर पर प्रति व्यक्ति दैनिक प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 60.7 ग्राम एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 60.3 ग्राम था ।

- प्रधान राज्यों में अन्तर्राज्य वैभिन्न्य ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में सराहनीय तौर पर अधिक थी, जहां प्रति दिन प्रति व्यक्ति की खपत में करीब 52 ग्राम (छत्तीसगढ़) से 73 ग्राम (हरियाणा) की विभिन्नता थी, एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 55 ग्राम(असम) से करीब 69 ग्राम(हरियाणा) थी ।

- कुछ गरीब राज्यों में, नगरीय क्षेत्र के मुकाबले प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में कुछ कम चिन्हित की गयी : जैसे झाड़खण्ड (ग्रामीण : 54.7 ग्राम, नगरीय : 60.3 ग्राम) एवं छत्तीसगढ़ (ग्रामीण : 51.7 ग्राम, नगरीय : 55.8 ग्राम) । दूसरी तरफ, उन राज्यों में जहां प्रोटीन की खपत अपने उच्चतर स्तर पर थी, जैसे, हरियाणा, राजस्थान एवं पंजाब, वह ग्रामीण जनसंख्या थी नाकि नगरीय जिनका उच्चतर प्रोटीन खपत था (करीब 4-5 ग्राम ज्यादा ।)

- प्रति व्यक्ति का दैनिक औसत प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण मा.प्र.उ.व्यय के स्तर के साथ ग्रामीण भारत में अविरत रूप से बढ़ता हुआ दिखाई दिया- जनसंख्या के निचले 5% का 43 ग्राम जो कि मा.प्र.उ.व्यय से मापा गया 91 ग्राम उच्च 5% के लिए एवं नगरीय भारत में निचली 5% के लिए 44 ग्राम एवं उच्च 5% के लिए 87 ग्राम ।

- नगरीय भारत के लिए प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में अनाजों का भाग 49% एवं ग्रामीण भारत के लिए 58% था ।

- प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में दूध एवं दूध के उत्पादों का भाग ग्रामीण भारत में 10% एवं नगरीय भारत में 12% था । यह हरियाणा में सबसे अधिक था (ग्रामीण : 27%; नगरीय : 22%) एवं पंजाब (नगरीय एवं ग्रामीण : 23%), एवं राजस्थान तथा गुजरात में 14% से 18% के बीच था । 17 मुख्य राज्यों के बीच, यह चार राज्य एवं उत्तर प्रदेश (ग्रामीण : 11%; नगरीय : 13%), यह केवल वह पांच राज्य थे जहां राष्ट्रीय औसत के मुकाबले दूध एवं दूध के उत्पादनों की देन प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में सबसे अधिक थी ।

- प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में मांस, मछली एवं अंडों का भाग ग्रामीण भारत में केवल 7% था एवं नगरीय भारत में 9% था । दोनों ग्रामीण एवं नगरीय केरल में यह भाग 26% था, एवं 5 अन्य प्रमुख राज्यों : पश्चिम बंगाल, आसाम, आंध्र प्रदेश, तामिलनाडू एवं कर्नाटका में यह केवल 10% या उससे अधिक था ।

- प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में अनाजों की देन में तेजी से गिरावट आई, मा.प्र.उ. व्यय में 72% निचली 5% जनसंख्या के लिए एवं ऊपरी 5% जनसंख्या के लिए 42% एवं 68% से 31% नगरीय भारत में । दूसरी तरफ, दूध एवं उसके उत्पादों की देन प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण ग्रामीण भारत में निचली आंशिक भिन्न श्रेणी के लिए 3% एवं अधिकतम 16% एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 4% से 7% । अंडे, मछली एवं मांस की देन प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में, मा.प्र.उ. व्यय श्रेणियों के बीच स्पष्टत: ग्रामीण भारत में 2% से 12% एवं नगरीय भारत में 4% से 11% तक उपर गया ।

- देश के लिए औसतन् वसा अन्तर्ग्रहण पूर्ण रूप से ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में प्रति दिन प्रति व्यक्ति करीब 46 ग्राम था एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 58 ग्राम था । खासकर ग्रामीण भारत में अन्तर्राज्य परिवर्त्तन; तौभी विचारणीय है । दोनों क्षेत्रों में, प्रति व्यक्ति अन्तर्ग्रहण ओड़ीसा एवं आसाम में

सबसे कम था वे राज्य जिनका सबसे अधिक वसा अन्तर्ग्रहण था, हरियाणा (ग्रामीण : 69 ग्राम; नगरीय : 75 ग्राम), गुजरात (ग्रामीण : 62 ग्राम; नगरीय : 73 ग्राम), तथा पंजाब (ग्रामीण : 70 ग्राम; नगरीय : 69 ग्राम)

- प्रति व्यक्ति प्रति दिन नगरीय वसा अन्तर्ग्रहण ग्रामीण अन्तर्ग्रहण बढ़ा, 9 ग्राम या उससे अधिक नौ प्रमुख राज्यों में बढ़ा, एवं पश्चिम बंगाल एवं झाड़खंड में 13 ग्राम तक बढ़ा । ग्रामीण अन्तर्ग्रहण नगरीय से केवल एक प्रमुख राज्य पंजाब में बढ़ा ।

- प्रति व्यक्ति वसा अन्तर्ग्रहण नगरीय क्षेत्र में उच्च आंशिक भिन्न श्रेणी में 100 ग्राम तक था एवं निचली आंशिक भिन्न श्रेणी में करीब 27 ग्राम था । ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में उच्च आंशिक भिन्न श्रेणी के लिए यह 92 ग्राम एवं निचली आंशिक भिन्न श्रेणी के लिए 21 ग्राम था ।

- अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर, नगरीय ग्रामीण विभाजन पर औसतन प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण के उल्लेखनीय समीपता के मुकाबले, औतन नगरीय वसा अन्तर्ग्रहण सभी आंशिक भिन्न क्षणियों में ग्रामीण ग्रहण के मुकाबले काफी अधिक था ।

अन्तर्ग्रहण में परिवर्तन (अनुसूची टाइप-1 पर आधारित)

- 1983 से 2011-12 के बीच रा.प्र.स. के सर्वेक्षणों के आकड़ों की तुलना करने पर मालूम हुआ कि 1999-2000 के बाद दोनों क्षेत्रों में भारत एवं प्रमुख राज्यों में कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण में गिरावट आई, यह गिरावट नगरीय क्षेत्र में अधिक प्रबल थी परन्तु ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में प्रति दिन प्रति व्यक्ति का 2100 कि. कैलोरी एवं 2011-2012 में नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 2060 कि. कैलोरी का स्तर पुन: प्राप्त हुआ, व्यक्तिगत राज्यों के स्तर पर, मुख्य राज्यों के ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में 2004-05 एवं 2011-12 के बीच नोट किया गया कि औसत कैलोरी अन्तर्ग्रहण स्तर में बढ़ोत्तरी हुई ।

- 2160 कि. कैलोरी के अन्तर्गत प्रति उपभोगता इकाई का प्रति दिन की परिवारों का अनुपात 1993-94 एवं 2004-05 के बीच जो दोनों क्षेत्रों में बढ़ा, उसमें तदन्तर रूप से सराहनीय तौर पर ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 20% से एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 23% से गिरावट नजर आई । पूर्णरूप से 1990 से आहार शक्ति ग्रहण के वितरण के छितराव में कमी पायी गयी ।

- 1993-94 से 2011-12 के 18 वर्ष की अवधि के बीच, पूर्ण कैलोरी ग्रहण में अनाजों के भाग में ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 10 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं एवं नगरीय क्षेत्र में 7 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से गिरावट आई । दूसरी तरफ, दोनों क्षेत्रों में तेल एवं वसा का भाग 3½% बिन्दुओं से बढ़ा ।

- ग्रामीण भारत में पूर्ण रूप में, 1993-94 से प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण प्रति व्यक्ति प्रतिदिन आवश्यक रूप से गिरा । फिर भी, अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर यह गिरावट 2004-05 के मुकाबले, 2011-12 में चौरस रूप (सीधा) के चिन्ह दर्शाती है जो कि केवल 0.5 ग्राम कम था । ग्रामीण प्रोटीन ग्रहण

की गिरावट 1993-94 से राजस्थान में प्रमुख रही (11 ग्राम की गिरावट), हरियाणा (करीब 10 ग्राम), एवं पंजाब (8 ग्राम) । नगरीय क्षेत्र में, 1993-94 एवं 2011-12 के बीच यह गिरावट ग्रामीण के मुकाबले कम चिन्हित की गयी । दोनों क्षेत्रों में, इस अवधि के दोरान सभी दक्षिणी राज्य सिवाय कर्नाटका के, प्रति व्यक्ति के प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में कुछ अधिक मात्रा की बढ़ोत्तरी दर्शाते हैं ।

- केवल अखिल-भारतीय स्तर पर ही नहीं परन्तु प्रत्येक प्रमुख राज्य में एक बिना गलती वाली चढ़ता हुआ प्रवृत्ति प्रत्येक व्यक्ति के वसा अन्तर्ग्रहण में दृष्टिगोचर हुआ । ग्रामीण भारत के लिए यह बढ़ोत्तरी प्रतिदिन 31.4 ग्राम की 1993-94 से 41.6 ग्राम की 2011-12 तक थी एवं नगरीय भारत के लिए, 42.0 ग्राम से 52.5 ग्राम के लिए 18 वर्ष की अवधि में दोनों क्षेत्रों में 10 ग्राम से अधिक की बढ़ोत्तरी नजर आई । दोनों क्षेत्रों में इस अवधि के दौरान सभी मुख्य राज्य एक ऐसी बढ़ोत्तरी दर्शाते हैं जिनकी विविधता 5-6 ग्राम से लेकर 17-18 ग्राम तक की थी ।

- इन 18 वर्षों तक 2011-12 के आगे प्रोटीन अन्तर्ग्रहण में अनाजों की देन में ग्रामीण भारत में का प्रतिशत 7 बिन्दुओं से गिरावट आई एवं नगरीय भारत में 6 प्रतिशत बिन्दुओं से जबकि सभी अन्य मुख्य खाद्य समूहों के भाग कम तौर पर हो बढ़े ।

मुख्य बातें - रिपोर्ट सं० 561: भारत में नगरीय झुग्गी बस्तियाँ, 2012

एनएसएस 69वां दौर (जुलाई, 2012 – दिसम्बर, 2012)

यह रिपोर्ट जुलाई - दिसम्बर 2012 के दौरान देश के सम्पूर्ण नगरीय क्षेत्रों में फैले हुए 3832 नगरीय खंडों में 881 झुग्गी बस्तियों से एकत्र किए गए सूचनाओं पर आधारित है ।

झुग्गी बस्ती परिवारों एवं झुग्गी बस्तियों की संख्या

- भारत के नगरीय क्षेत्रों में अनुमानित 33,510 झुग्गी बस्तियाँ थी, जिनमें 13,761 अधिसूचित एवं 19,749 गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियाँ थी ।
- इन झुग्गी बस्तियों में अनुमानत: 8.8 मिलियन परिवार रहते थे, इनमें करीब 5.6 मिलियन अधिसूचित एवं 3.2 मिलियन गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में थे ।
- महाराष्ट्र में अनुमानित 7723 झुग्गी बस्तियाँ हैं, गणना के अनुसार, यह नगरीय भारत के सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों का करीब 23% है, इसके बाद आंध्रप्रदेश में गण्ना के अनुसार करीब 14% और पश्चिम बंगाल, जिसके पास करीब 12% शेयर था ।
- नगरीय भारत के झुग्गी बस्तियों का अधिक से अधिक 38% परिवार अनुमानत: महाराष्ट्र में और 18% आंध्र प्रदेश में रहता था ।
- अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर औसत झुग्गी बस्ती का आकार अनुमानत: 263 परिवारों का था ।
- अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में औसत 404 परिवार एवं गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में औसत केवल 165 परोवार था ।
- झुग्गी बस्ती का औसत सबसे बड़ा आकार महाराष्ट्र में (प्रति झुग्गी बस्ती 433 परिवार) था, इसके बाद कर्नाटक (392) एवं आंध्र प्रदेश (352) ।
- मिलियन-प्लस (10 लाख से अधिक) महनगरों में गरीब 56% झुग्गी बस्ती और 58% उन झुग्गी बस्तियों का जो देश के अन्य नगरीय क्षेत्रों में थे, के पास 150 से कम परिवार था । गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में से 77% मिलियन-प्लस (10 लाख से अधिक) महनगरों में और 74% अन्य नगरीय क्षेत्रों में, के पास 150 से कम परिवार था ।

झुग्गी बस्तियों द्वारा अधिकृत भूमि

- सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों का करीब 39% के पास 0.05 से 1 हेक्टेयर रेंज में क्षेत्र था, करीब 21% 1-2 हेक्टेयर के रेंज में थे और 15% आकार में 0.05 हेक्टेयर से भी कम में थे ।

- करीब 30% झुग्गी बस्तियाँ खुले जगहों या पार्क में देखे गए, 23% नाला या जल निकास(नाली) वाली जगहों पर और 9% रेलवे लाईन के साथ देखे गए ।

- 66% झुग्गी बस्तियाँ आवासीय क्षेत्रों द्वारा घिरे थे, 15% झुग्गी बस्ती क्षेत्रों द्वारा और 10% औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों द्वारा घिरे थे ।

- 44% झुग्गी बस्तियाँ नीजी (प्राईवेट) भूमि पर बना था, 37% स्थानीय निकायों द्वारा कब्जा किए गए जमीन पर, 6% रेलवे की जमीन पर और 12% अन्य सार्वजनिक भूमि पर थे ।

झुग्गी बस्तियों की वर्तमान स्थिति

- करीब 60% झुग्गी बस्तियों में, जिसमें 85% अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियां किन्तु मात्र 42% गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियां थी उनमें, अधिकांश मकान पक्के संरचना के थे । अर्ध-पक्का संरचना 25% में एवं कच्चा संरचना 15% में था ।

- सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों (82% अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्ती सहित) का मुख्य पेयजल स्रोत करीब 71% नल का पानी था और चापाकल / भू गर्भ जल 20% था ।

- अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर करीब 68% झुग्गी बस्तियों के पास घरेलु उपयोग एवं स्ट्रीट लाइट (गली प्रकाश) दोनों के लिए बिजली था, अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए इसका अनुपात करीब 86% एवं गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों के लिए 55% था । अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर वैसी झुग्गी बस्तियों का अनुपात जिनके पास बिजली नहीं था 7% था । इस श्रेणी की अधिकांश झुग्गी बस्तियां गैर अधिसूचित थीं ।

- 66% झुग्गी बस्तियों में पक्का रोड/लेन/निर्मित मार्ग झुग्गी बस्तियों के अंतर्गत था । ऐसी झुग्गी बस्तियों का अनुपात अधिसूचित में 83% एवं गैर अधिसूचित बस्तियों में 55% था ।

- अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर 71% झुग्गी बस्तियों- जिनमें 78% अधिसूचित एवं 67% गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियां सहित- के पास पक्का एवं परिवहन युक्त रोड/लेन/निर्मित था ।

- 15% अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों 42% गैर-अधिसूचित एवं 31% सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों को एक साथ लेकर देखा गया तो उसके अधिकांश निवासियों द्वारा शौचालय का उपयोग नहीं किया गया ।

- सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के करीब 33% में अधिकांश निवासियों ने अपने शौचालय का उपयोग किया अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए यह अनुपात 44% एवं गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए 25% था । सार्वजनिक/सामुदायिक शौचालयों का उपयोग करीब 31% सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के अधिकांश निवासियों द्वारा किया गया (भुगतान के साथ 17% एवं बिना भुगतान के 14%) और इनमें संयुक्त शौचालय 5% ।

- 44% अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों लेकिन केवल 18% गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के पास भूमिगत मलवाही प्रणाली था, ऐसे सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए इसका अनुपात 29% रहा ।

- अनुमानित 31% झुग्गी बस्तियों के इनमें 11% अधिसूचित एवं 45% प्रतिशत गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों के पास कोई भी जल-निकासी प्रणाली नहीं था । खुला हुआ, पक्का जल-निकास प्रणाली सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 35% ही था - 49% अधिसूचित थे एवं 25% गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों के लिए भी यही व्यवस्था था । अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के 26% किन्तु केवल 14% गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों के पास भूमि-गत जल निकास प्रणाली था ।

- सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 27% में अधिसूचित के 11% एवं गैर-अधिसूचित के 38% - में कचड़ा निपटान के लिए कोई व्यवस्था नहीं थी । कचड़ा निपटान व्यवस्था का अभाव झुग्गी बस्तियों में अन्य नगरीय क्षेत्रों (33%) की तुलना में मिलियन - प्लस महानगरों (14% सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों) में आम नही था, कम था । नगर पालिका/नगर निगम ने सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 62% में कचड़ा निपटान के लिए व्यवस्था किया, - अधिसूचित का 80% और गैर-अधिसूचित के 49% में यह व्यवस्था हुई । 11% झुग्गी बस्तियों में उसके निवासियों ने कचड़ा निपटान का व्यवस्था किया ।

- कचड़ा निपटान व्यवस्था के अन्तर्गत 57% झुग्गी बस्तियों द्वारा दैनिक रूप से कचड़ा इकट्ठा किया गया । करीब 15% ने "दो दिन में एक वार" के क्रम में इक्टठा करने का रिपोर्ट किया ।

- झुग्गी बस्ती या झुग्गी बस्ती तक जाने का रोड तक जल प्लावन की समस्या (वर्षा के कारण) का रिपोर्ट सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 46% ने किया - इनमें 27% वैसी झुग्गी बस्तियाँ भी शामिल थी जहाँ कि रोड तक जाने का माध्यम एवं झुग्गी बस्ती स्वयं जलप्लावित हो गई थी ।

- अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर 59% अधिसूचित एवं गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियाँ, सरकारी प्राथमिक विद्यालय से आधा किलोमीटर के अंदर था । इसके अलावे, अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में करीब 91% गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में करीब 85% ऐसे विद्यालय के एक किलोमीटर के अंदर थे ।

- अखिल भारतीय स्तर पर करीब 20% दोनों अधिसूचित एवं गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियाँ सरकारी अस्पताल/ स्वास्थ्य केंद्र के आधा किलोमीटर के भीतर था, अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में करीब 50% और गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों में करीब 46% सरकारी अस्पताल और एक स्वास्थ्य केंद्र के किलोमीटर के भीतर था ।

- झुग्गी बस्तियों का 24%, 32% अधिसूचित में और 18% गैर अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में - ने यह रिपोर्ट किया कि वे लोग कल्याणकारी योजनाओं, जैसे जवाहरलाल नेहरू नगरीय नवीकरण मिशन (JNNURM) और राजीव आवास योजना (RAY), से लाभांवित हुए थे ।

पिछले पाँच वर्षों के दौरान परिवर्तन के निर्देश

- सर्वेक्षण की तिथि से पांच वर्षों से अधिक पहले सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 43% में जल आपूर्ति में सुधार हुआ । झुग्गी बस्तियों के 48% में जल आपूर्ति की व्यवस्था अपरिवर्तित रहा । 7% झुग्गी बसतियों में जल आपूर्ति सुविधा का रिपोर्ट सर्वेक्षण की तिथि तक नहीं किया गया । ऐसा ही पांच वर्ष पहले तक हुआ ।

- नगरीय भारत में 57% झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए विद्युत सुविधाओं में पिछले 5 वर्षों के दौरान कोई परिवर्तन नहीं हुआ । 44% अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों में एवं 32% गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियों में सुधार का रिपोर्ट किया गया, जबकि पांच वर्ष पहले और अभी तक सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 5% ने यह रिपोर्ट किया कि विद्युत सुविधाएं नहीं थीं ।

- झुग्गी बस्ती के अन्दर का रोड पिछले पांच वर्षों से अधिक से 48% झुग्गी बस्तियों में सुधार हुआ । 46% झुग्गी बस्तियों ने यह रिपोर्ट किया कि पिछले 5 वर्षों से अधिक समय से रोड की अवस्था में कुल मिलाकर कोई सुधार नहीं हुआ जबकि 4% झुग्गी बस्तियों ने यह रिपोर्ट किया कि अभी पांच वर्ष पहले रोड का अस्तित्व ही नही था ।

- सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों का 53% पिछले 5 वर्ष या उससे अधिक समय से झुग्गी बस्ती तक जाने वाले रोड में सुधार हुआ, इस में 62% अधिसूचित एवं 47% गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियाँ शामिल थीं ।

- झुग्गी बस्तियों के 49% ने ये रिपोर्ट किया कि पिछले पांच वर्षों के दौरान गली रौशनी की अवस्था में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं हो रहा था । सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 37% द्वारा गली रोशनी में सुधार का रिपोर्ट किया गया । सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 11% में गली रोशनी नहीं था, और 5 वर्ष पहले भी नहीं था ।

- झुग्गी बसतियों के 47% ने रिपोर्ट किया कि पिछले 5 वर्षों के दौरान शौचालय सुविधा की अवस्था में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं हुआ । झुग्गी बस्तियों के 32% द्वारा शौचालय सुविधाओं में सुधार का रिपोर्ट किया गया । झुग्गी बस्तियों का 17% पांच वर्ष पहले से अभी तक शौचालय सुविधाओं के नहीं होने का रिपोर्ट किया ।

- झुग्गी बस्तियों के 47% द्वारा यह रिपोर्ट किया गया कि पिछले पांच वर्षों के दौरान जल-निकासी सुविधाओं में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं हुआ । सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 33% द्वारा सुधार का रिपोर्ट किया गया । अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए अनुपात 40% और गैर-अधिसूचित झुग्गी बस्तियों के लिए 29% रहा । अनुमानत: सभी नगरीय झुग्गी बस्तियों के 17% में जल निकासी सुविधाएं सर्वेक्षण में जल निकासी की तिथि तक या पांच वर्ष पहले नहीं देखा गया तो भी किसी राज्य में कुछ झुग्गी बस्तियों में जल निकासी सुविधाओं में क्षय होने का रिपोर्ट किया ।

- नगरीय भारत में झुग्गी बस्तियों के करीब 50% ने रिपोर्ट किया कि भूमिगत जल-निकास सुविधाओं में पिछले 5 वर्षों के दौरान कोई परिवर्तन नहीं हुआ । दूसरा 26% झुग्गी बस्ती में भूमिगत जल-निकासी सुविधाएं पांच वर्ष पहले या अभी तक नहीं देखा गया । सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 22% द्वारा सुधार का रिपोर्ट किया गया । इन सब में मिलियन प्लस महानगरों की 36% झुग्गी बस्तियाँ एवं अन्य नगरीय क्षेत्रों में 15% शामिल था ।

- झुग्गी बस्तियों का 34% रिपोर्ट किया कि पिछले पांच वर्ष से अधिक से कचड़ा निपटान सुविधाओं में सुधार हुआ । झुग्गी बस्ती के करीब 50% में पिछले पांच वर्षों के दौरान इन सुविधाओं में कोई बदलाव नहीं पाया गया । सभी झुग्गी बसतियों के करीब 14% नगरीय भारत में जिसमें 20% गैर-अधिसूचित बस्तियाँ शामिल थीं रिपोर्ट किया कि उस लोगों के पास वर्तमान समय या पांच वर्ष पहले से कचड़ा निपटान सुविधाएं नहीं था ।

- सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों के 30% द्वारा यह रिपोर्ट किया गया कि पिछले पांच वर्षों के दौरान प्राथमिक स्तर की शिक्षा सुविधा में सुधार हुआ, और “किसी तरह का सुधार नहीं”, का 57% द्वारा रिपोर्ट किया गया, जिसमें 11% ने रिपोर्ट किया कि अभी या पांच वर्ष पहले तक यह सुविधा नहीं था । ऐसा सुधार मिलियन प्लस महानगरों में अन्य नगरीय क्षेत्रों की तुलना में कुछ आम नहीं था, कम था ।

- नगरीय भारत में सभी झुग्गी बस्तियों का करीब 20% ने चिकित्सा सुविधाओं में पिछले 5 वर्षों के दौरान सुधार का रिपोर्ट किया । करीब 64% ने कोई परिवर्तन नहीं का रिपोर्ट किया और केवल 1% ने ह्रास होने का रिपोर्ट किया । करीब 15% ने यह रिपोर्ट किया कि चिकित्सा सुविधाएं सर्वेक्षण की तिथि तक नहीं थीं और पांच वर्ष पहले तक भी नहीं देखा गया ।

BROAD CONTENTS OF THE LAST THREE ISSUES OF 'SARVEKSHANA'

(A) **96th ISSUE**

PART – I: TECHNICAL PAPERS

PART – II: SUMMARY AND MAJOR FINDINGS OF SURVEYS

PART – III: HIGHLIGHTS OF RECENT REPORTS RELEASED BY NSSO

(B) **97th ISSUE**

PART – I: TECHNICAL PAPERS

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PART – III: HIGHLIGHTS OF RECENT REPORTS RELEASED BY NSSO

(NSS 66th round, July 2009 - June 2010)

(C) **98th ISSUE**

PART – I: TECHNICAL PAPERS

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(NSS 66th round, July 2009-June 2010 and 67th round July 2010-June 2011)

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