

**SOCIAL PROTECTION OF URBAN MIGRANTS  
AND STATE RESPONSIVENESS: A CASE STUDY  
OF JJ-CLUSTERS IN NCT OF DELHI**

Thesis submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University  
for the award of the Degree of

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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DECLARATION

I, Arvind Kumar Pandey, hereby declare that the thesis entitled “**SOCIAL PROTECTION OF URBAN MIGRANTS AND STATE RESPONSIVENESS: A CASE STUDY OF JJ-CLUSTERS IN NCT OF DELHI**” submitted by me to the School of Social Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi for the award of the degree of **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY** is a bonafide work and that it has not been submitted so far in part or in full, for any degree or diploma of this university or any other university.

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*In the memory of*  
*My mother*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

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AABY- Aam Adami Bima Yojana  
AEGR- Annual Exponential Growth Rate  
EWS- Economically Weaker Section  
GOI- Government of India  
GRCs- Gender Resource Centres  
ILO- International Labour Organisation  
JAM- Jan Dhan, Aadhar and Mobile  
JNNURM- Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission  
LIG-Lower Income Groups  
MoHUPA- Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation  
MoU- Memorandum of Understanding  
NDA-National Democratic Alliances  
NGOs- Non Government Organisations  
NSDP-National Slum Development Programme  
NSS- National Sample Survey  
PDS- Public Distribution System  
RAY- Rajiv Awas Yojana  
RSBY- Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana  
RTE- Right to Education  
UAs- Urban Agglomerations  
UBSP-Urban Basic Services for Poor  
UIDAI- Unique Identification Authority of India  
UPA- United Progressive Alliances  
USAID- The United States Agency for International Development

# CHAPTER-I

## INTRODUCTION

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### 1.1 BACKGROUND:

Since economic liberalization, the Indian economy is growing consistently. Despite the slowdown in the pace of most of the economies in the world triggered by global financial crises in 2008-09, the Indian economy responded sturdily and achieved a growth rate of 8.6 per cent and 9.3 per cent in 2009-10 and 2010-11 respectively (Economic Survey, 2012-13). This development scenario is viewed optimistically in the global context by scholars but they have a shared concern that the Indian economy has not been successful in transforming “its growth into development” because it is seen in the recent pattern of regional growth that agglomeration economies are being promoted by the state policies mainly around pre-existing growth centres in the advance regions (Srivastava, 2009). This problem manifested more significantly into serious regional imbalances in the development process. The emergence and growth of a few megacities with a high concentration of affluence, forming islands in the ocean of poverty, is the result of these regional imbalances (Kundu & Saraswati, 2012). The low growth rates which are mainly associated with the uncertainty in the income in agriculture sector and declining livelihood opportunities in rural areas due to structural adjustment programmes adopted by government of India after economic reforms has led to out-migration from the regions which are underdeveloped. These migrants migrate to urban areas and get absorbed within the increasing urban informal sector (Mahapatro, 2012). Therefore, the whole scenario of regional imbalance in the development process would accelerate the rural-urban migration and contribute in the urban growth.

The provisional figures from Census of India, 2011 portray that total 377 million population live in urban areas which is 31.16 per cent of the total population. The declining growth rate of urban population shows an increment as it has gone up by 2.76 per cent annually during 2001-11 but only in the decimal point as it was 2.75 per cent during 1991-2001. The urbanisation in India is not as fast as often presumed and not as



alarming as depicted through the projections of urbanisation by various organisations.<sup>1</sup> Scholars have argued that the increase in urban population in 2011 census is the result of “census activism” due to the number of census towns abruptly being increased from 1362 to 3894 which is unprecedented in the history of Indian census (Kundu, 2011a; Kundu & Saraswati, 2012). The estimates of the last two National Sample Surveys (1999-2000 and 2007-08) show that migration rate in urban areas increased from 33.4 per cent to 35.4 per cent. The male migration rate has increased slightly from 25.7 per cent to 25.9 per cent; however, the female migration rate has increased from 41.8 per cent in 1999-2000 to 45.6 per cent in 2007-08 (De Haan, 2011). Stream wise migration pattern also reveals the fact that there has been an increment in the urban migration which includes rural-urban and urban-urban migration streams. It was seen that the share of rural to urban migration in total migration increased from 18.8 per cent to 19.5 per cent during 1999-2000 and 2007-08. Along the same time period, the share of urban to urban migration in total migration increased from 12.9 per cent to 13.1 per cent. In gender perspective, the increment has been found in both male and female urban migrants but male migrants showed more prominence in rural to urban and urban to urban streams in which the male migration rate increased from 34.4 per cent to 39 per cent and 22.6 per cent to 24.8 per cent respectively during 1999-2000 and 2007-08 (Srivastava, 2012a).

In the neoclassical framework, it has been argued that the window of migration will put forward an opportunity to labourers of underdeveloped regions and remote rural areas to rapidly shift into developing regions and the dynamic urban centres. As they get absorbed in emerging modern activities, they will be able to perk up their social and economic condition and simultaneously contribute to the efficient deployment of the workforce in the urban economy (Kundu & Saraswati, 2012). The scholarly debate has started on the contribution of migration to Indian urban growth. Kundu (2003, 2009, 2011b) has constantly argued that the role of migration in urban growth has been declining as the process of “sanitization and formalization” in urban centres seems to be discouraging the inflow of the rural poor towards these mega cities and has resulted into exclusionary urban growth. In support of the above observation, he further points out that

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<sup>1</sup> “McKinsey Global Institute had projected that India will touch 30 per cent figure in 2008 and High Power Expert committee for estimating Investment requirements for urban infrastructure services (HPEC) had projected that it will touch 30 per cent in 2010”.

a significant decline in the population of most of the million cities in 2011 census complying that these metro cities are less hospitable to the migrants. Other scholars (Bhagat, 2011; Bhagat & Mohanty, 2009; De Haan, 2011) have also argued that the increasing affordability of land and basic services and slum clearances are the major cause for the moderate speed of rural-urban migration in India. Due to the lower contribution of rural-urban migration and decline in the natural increase in urban population which are two major component of urban growth, it has been debated by scholars that additional impetus to the urbanisation in India can only be derived out of urban reconfiguration (Srivastava, 2012a). There are also other version from scholars which explain that the stalling of the declining trend of urbanisation or a slight increase in urban growth in the first decade of the present century is the result of significant rise in rural-urban migration (Sainath, 2011; Patnaik, 2011) but it can be related to the poignant appeal of the notion of distress migration as it is only based on the distress migration and ignores other component of urban growth especially urban reconfiguration.

How much rural to urban migration contributes in total urban growth can be the subject of discussion but the role of urban migrants in the process of urban development cannot be underemphasized. Although the “vision and strategy” of Eleventh Five-Year Plan was “faster and more inclusive growth” and the approach of the Twelfth Five-Year Plan is “Faster, Sustainable and more inclusive growth”, but generally it is seen that the policy environment in the context of urban migrants is totally hostile. The master plans of cities always target to keep the migrants living in slum out of their purview; the policies pertaining to rural and agriculture development aim to control the out-migration from rural areas and consequently migration is seen as a destabilising process both socially and politically. This leads to the cost of the migration being borne by the migrants themselves at every stage of migration and governments get away from the responsibilities of fulfilling the basic needs of migrants (Deshingkar, 2004). The invisibility of migrants in policies and laws related to urban development enhance the vulnerability of urban migrants. The Eleventh Five-Year Plan has recognised a severe gap in policies related to migrants and in the plan document, it has been mentioned that the workers who migrate to urban areas are the most vulnerable and exploited section amongst all the workers working in informal sector. An array of social protection policies and programmes has

been launched by government but there are hardly any traces of the legislation and policies which supports the urban migrants. The objective of improving the employability and living conditions of urban migrants never become the focus point in the agenda to offer the support to the workers working in informal sector. Unfortunately, the discussion on the migrant labour working in informal sector is unpopular agenda among policy makers.

It is evident that the social protection schemes for urban areas have tendency of ‘sedentary bias’ toward urban migrants and it focuses on the native population only. The lack of work related social security is very common for the migrants working in informal sectors. In the absence of union or any other organisation which can raise their voice, the condition of the migrant workers becomes more vulnerable. A large number of migrants living in slums do not have access to the public distribution system (PDS) and housing scheme running for urban poor. They live in very filthy condition without proper access of potable drinking water and sanitation. Healthcare services are seldom accessed by them either because of absence or because of the discriminatory bias against urban migrants. Even children’s education schemes and immunization schemes neglect the children of migrants. Since neither the State nor employers take responsibility for providing these basic needs to offspring of migrants, migration is perceived simply as adding to urban congestion and squalor (Srivastava, 2011).

The conclusions draw by Srivastava and Sasikumar (2003) in their study of internal migration in India that “legislation regarding migrants fails because regulatory authorities are over-stretched and the State sees migrants as low priority”, generally seems true for many legislations such as Inter-state Migrants Workmen Act which is one of the toothless legislations to protect the migrant labours (De Haan, 2011). Existing literatures (Agarwal *et al.*, 2009; MacAuslan, 2011; Bhagat, 2012; Srivastava, 2012b) support the exclusion of urban migrants in social protection schemes and show the vulnerability of urban migrants. Without providing social protection to urban migrant workers it would be difficult for India to achieve the goals decided by it in different development sectors and to fulfill the promises/commitments made by it towards international communities. Therefore, the ‘inclusive growth policy’ needs to do much more than what it is doing presently to address the exclusion and exploitation face by

urban migrants. In the above context, it would be an interesting task to explore the current status of social protection of urban migrants in India and response of the State towards these urban migrants.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:**

Urbanisation in India is 31.16 per cent but the contribution of urban sector to the national GDP is currently 66 per cent which is expected to increase 75 per cent by 2031 (Ahluwalia *et al.*, 2014). The shrinking share of agriculture to GDP and the tremendous potential for urban transition is likely to have important effects on increasing the impetus of rural populations to move to urban areas leading to the creation of new urban areas. In the growth of urban population, the share of natural growth of urban population was very high since Independence but in the recent decades it has declined from 62 per cent in 1981-91 to 44 per cent 2001-2011 (Bhagat, 2011). At the same time, the national sample survey data show that urban migration has increased from 31.6 per cent (1983) to 35.4 per cent (2007-08). Although the contribution of urban migrants in to urban informal and formal economy cannot be underemphasized, but it has been found in different studies (Kundu & Saraswati, 2012; Kundu, 2003, 2009, 2011b; Bhagat, 2012) that exclusionary urbanisation policy prevails in Mega cities and other urban centres. ‘Sanitization and formalization’ process started for urban migrants shows that policymakers and planners largely view urban migrants synonymous to urban poverty and as a major problem in development process. After economic reforms, the nature of urban policy has changed. Now, urban planners and policymakers aspire to make Indian mega-cities as ‘world-class cities’ and this elitist approach intensify the eviction of slum migrants using highly selective criteria for resettlement to the peripheries. The urban centres are becoming more hostile for urban migrants as they are seen as ‘outsiders’ and anti-migration sentiments prevail among urban local bodies. In this situation urban migrants are largely deprived from social protection and live in a very vulnerable situation.

NCT of Delhi presents a good example for exclusionary nature of urban policy and deprivation of social protection for urban migrants where around 70000 slum households had been evicted and 217 slum sites were demolished during last decade. These slum households were largely urban migrants who were forcefully displaced to peripheral areas without any basic civic amenities (Dupont, 2008). The insecurity for

tenure and housing is more among those migrants who are living in Jhuggi-Jhopri Clusters<sup>2</sup> (here onwards JJ-Clusters) in NCT of Delhi because only those JJ-Clusters are selected for the benefit for urban housing and tenure security scheme (Rajiv Awas Yojana) under Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission who are located on the land of MCD or any other department of Delhi government and to get the benefit of this scheme the JJ-Clusters migrants must have to provide the residential proof like Ration Card, Voter- ID and Aadhar Card etc. and Generally, it has been found that migrants don't have these documents.

The other migrants who are living on the JJ-Clusters which are located on the land of central government/agencies like Delhi Development Authority, Railway and Delhi Cantonment Board etc. will get the benefit of this scheme only when the concerned agency will carry the relocation/rehabilitation process itself as per the policy of Delhi Government or may hand over the job to Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board (DUSIB). The other securities like food security and health security are linked with housing and tenure security because once a migrant will have the housing or tenure security proofs; he/she will get the ration card and other proof which is necessary for the entitlements provided by government programmes. Therefore it can be easily understood that urban migrants who are living in the JJ-Clusters of NCT of Delhi cannot easily gain access to any social protection.

There are few studies (MacAuslan, 2011; Bhan, 2009; Chowdhury, 2011) which show the condition of social protection for urban migrants in NCT of Delhi, but most of these studies cover only one dimension which is either housing or food or health. There is no comprehensive study which can link the different dimension of social protection in a single thread for urban migrants and therefore, a research gap has been found in the field of social protection of urban migration in India. In this context, the present study is an attempt to fill this gap by providing the current status of social protection of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi with its different and complementary perspective.

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<sup>2</sup> “The Jhuggi-Jhopri Clusters are the shanty construction in which a large number of rural migrants live. These are mostly settled on the public land. These JJ-Clusters are illegal, informal and have no tenure security. The landowning agencies can evict the migrants by giving a notice to the households living in JJ-Clusters because most of them don't have any property documents or lease document to show for tenure security”.

### **1.3 SOCIAL PROTECTION: AN EVOLVING POLICY APPROACH TOWARDS SOCIAL SECURITY AND WELFARE**

Social Protection has gathered importance in the lexicon of concepts and approaches related to development. The very fact of its emergence is largely a response to the set of failed development policies in the past two decades in bringing down the level of poverty and compromising the human capabilities in a global context, which is being subjected to a rapid change during the same time period. Even though, eradicating poverty remains the crux of the development policy makers, researchers and the practitioners but, with the changing realities in social, economic and environment sector and the acute forms of risk and vulnerabilities along with magnified scenario of inequalities and exclusion, millions of people are still getting exposed to the insecurity associated with livelihood (Cook & Kabeer, 2009). Therefore, the agenda of social protection is evolving as a core concept in the development policies of not only the developed countries but also the developing countries.

The early debate on social protection started as a segment of social security discourse which was seen after the recognition of a “right to social security” in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the early work of ILO (D’Andrea, 2006). With the international division of labour and changing pattern of trade a major restructuring was happened in the global economy in 20<sup>th</sup> century which was mainly shaped by colonial interest. In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, western European countries had high rate of economic growth and employment. It was period when these countries had expanded the state provided formal social protection to their citizen because of different pressure groups such as trade union, public intellectuals and mass leaders. With the reduction in the poverty level and fulfillment of the basic consumption needs, the effort were being made to channelized the broader social policy intervention which include housing, education, health care and pensions. Therefore, the concept of “*Welfare States*” was emerged in the European countries first. At the same time, the social protection system in developing countries was very weak and limited to a small proportion of workers working in formal sector (Cook & Kabeer, 2009; Kabeer, 2010).

Since the 1970s, the world's economy became more integrated with intensified flow of goods, services, people and ideas across national borders. The pace of globalization was boosted by neo-liberal ideologies of worlds' most powerful countries with the celebration of free market forces; it spearheaded the liberalization of their economies and downsizing of their welfare regimes. The liberalization of market and its integration with world economy brought significant benefits for a section of population but it exposed a large section of population to the risk and vulnerability. After the introduction of neo-liberal policies which promoted the liberalization of market and reduced the role of state, the population living in poor countries has exposed more to the volatile market and prices linked with global economy. The neo-liberal policies have reduced the social security provisions and made the labour markets increasingly informal in which labour become more 'flexible', competitive and mobile and they can be hired and fired in response to the market signals and these process expose the low income workers to greater risk.

In the 1980s and 1990s many countries of Africa, Latin America and parts of Asia have faced debt and financial crisis, economic slow-down and recession. Due to this, the adaptation of neo liberal policies and structural adjustment in the economy was compulsory for many countries to stabilize their economy and therefore many countries adopted it but with a huge cost. This process cut-back public consumption and social spending and dismantled the states' role to protect the poor or vulnerable. Even, the wealthier states that were less affected by the crisis were also pressurized by market forces to dismantle the provision of welfare for a section of population provided by state.

In these countries, safety nets programme were introduced for a short-term after the realization by government that human costs of the above policy responses to the crisis became irrefutable. But, they were unable to address the scale of insecurity and the related upheavals in the poverty experienced by the population in these countries. The above crisis played a major role in drawing attention to the risks associated with globalization and the need to rethink about the social protection to deal with the risks and vulnerabilities associated with the above. In response to this, social protection becomes the 'central agenda' of development policy in developing countries and state has started to re-involve itself in the formulation of social protection policies. It has started to play an

active role in controlling and shaping the market forces, redistributing the gains from the growth of economy among population and ensuring the sufficient investments for poor in form of human capital and other welfare activities. The crisis forced the state to re-design the mechanism which can be placed before a crisis rather than as an *ex post* response (Cook & Kabeer, 2009).

#### **1.4 AGENDA OF SOCIAL PROTECTION IN INTERNATIONAL AGENCIES AND THEIR CHANGING DISCOURSES:**

The emergence of social protection approaches and programmes in developing countries during recent years owe a great deal to various international organization which influence the discourse of social policies not only at design level but the implementation level also. Although there is some convergence on the instruments of social protection and some consensus about broad approach of social protection in different international organizations but, still there are important philosophical differences which are very important to discuss. There are numbers of agencies working on the agenda of social protection but World Bank and International Labour Organisation (ILO) are the two organisations which influence the social protection approaches and programmes most. The paradigm shift in their approach over the time of period helps to evolve the present understanding of social protection agenda and programmes in most of the countries. The other agencies who are working on the agenda of social protection policies and programme are the Department of International Development (DFID) of United Kingdom, United States Agency for International Development (USAID) of United States and the Asian Development Bank etc.

##### ***1.4.1 Social Protection Agenda of World Bank: From Safety Nets to Social Risk Management***

World Bank is a leading international financial bank which is continuously formulating and financing various projects for the poverty reduction both in developing and under-developed countries. Its changing approach towards social protection largely influence and give shape to national and international agenda of social protection because of its dominant position in the world of development ideas. The bank's thinking about social protection can be traced back to the experience of structural adjustments carried out by World Bank in the 1980s in various countries of Africa and Latin America who were



indebted. Before the 'long term gain' of economic liberalization could be realized through these structural adjustments in these countries, considerable pain of vulnerable groups had been found by the end of the decade both for the long term poor and those who are newly impoverished by adjustment programmes. Therefore compensatory measures were designed by World Bank as residual 'Social Safety Nets' which catches the people up to certain level. These were viewed as measures which were temporary and designed to assist the population who were adversely affected by adjustment policies.

Although safety nets were initially intended as 'transitional' measures to provide a bridge between the crisis and the reactivation of economy (Jorgensen, 1992 as cited in Vivian, 1994) and over a period of time, became the favoured means through which both the transitional costs of adjustment as well as deeper structural problem could be addressed (Vivian, 1994) but, during 1990s, it became evident that economic liberalization was bringing different new forms of insecurity with the exacerbation of inequality and the persistence of older vulnerabilities (Kabeer, 2010). Keeping in the view of these new forms of insecurity, World Bank revisited the issue of poverty in its World Development Report, 2000-01 and a social protection unit was set up in the World Bank which developed a new approach of social protection which is known as 'Social Risk Management' (see World Bank, 2001a).

Social Risk Management framework was a paradigm shift in World Bank approach towards poverty reduction and social protection in which risk and vulnerability were seen as integral part of the multidimensional poverty. The social risk management framework not only expands the concept of social protection beyond compensatory safety net programmes but also include the interventions that focus on managing risk before shocks (*ex ante*) rather than after its occurrence (*ex post*). The main elements of the framework through which it will manage the risk before shocks were:

***Risk Reduction:*** It is an *ex ante* measure to increase the expected income or reduce variation. It includes the mechanisms which focus-“*on reducing risks in labour markets through unemployment insurance or active labour market policies*”.

***Risk Mitigation:*** It is also an *ex ante* measure which aimed to reduce income fluctuations with the help of “*diversifying the portfolio of assets and activities available to poors*”. It includes the formal and informal insurance mechanisms.

**Risk Coping:** It is an *ex post* measure which include “*the mechanisms which help poor people to deal with the effects of crisis like borrowing, cash transfers scheme and giving them public works*”.

Therefore the SRM framework broadened the scope of public intervention for the risk management and it transform from earlier safety net approach to a ‘springboard’ approach which enables the poor to undertake different activities having higher returns and less risks (World Bank, 2001b). This framework also recognised the more prominent effectiveness of *ex ante* measure that could be put forward before a crisis. The main criticism of World Bank’s SRM framework is that it downplays the role of the state in providing social protection and gives preferences to private solutions through markets, NGOs and informal safety nets over public ones. It believes that state should intervene only if the private solution failed. The other drawback of this framework is that it does not include the qualitative and non-income aspects of social protection i.e. social exclusion and solidarity. It envisages that these will be achieved as ‘positive externalities’ in a well designed social protection programme (Cook & Kabeer, 2009). Hence the Social Risk Management framework reflects the philosophy of World Bank which is always market centric.

#### ***1.4.2 Social Protection Agenda of International Labour Organisation (ILO): from Social Security to Social Protection***

The ILO is an organization mainly concerned with legislative and normative actions having centered on the issues of wages and standards in formal economy and socio-economic policies related with employment and basic needs of the workers engaged in informal economy. It has tripartite constituency, consisting of national governments, employer’s associations and trade unions. At earlier stage ILO had adopted a more formal model of social security which was spelt out in ILO convention 102 (1952) and covered predetermined risk such including unemployment, maternity, widowhood, occupational safety and health, problem during old age etc. The initial approach for social security adopted by ILO was because of its understanding about poverty. According to the ILO working group on poverty-“Poverty is not a marginal or incidental phenomenon, but is structurally related to the way economic and social systems function. Poverty is the results of low productivity or poor mobilization of labour. It persists because of the ways

in which the benefits of production are shared and because of institutions and patterns of organisation of production which limit access or marginalize groups which lack certain characteristics or abilities” (ILO Working Group, 1995 as cited in Kabeer, 2010).

It was believed that poverty in developing countries is result of subsistence nature of production in the rural economy and would be tackled through the process of industrialisation and the promotion of modern labour practices through protective legislations. From the above discussion it is clear that till 1990s the ILO approach towards social security is derived by the modernization theory which was largely based on the diagnosis of poverty in industrial countries which eventually was inappropriate in the context of developing countries. Although in the early 1970s, it drew attention to the existence of the informal sector, which comprised most of the world’s poor, but till 1990s, its approach toward social protection was same and concentrated only for formal sector worker who mainly constituted a small majority in the total workforce. Its efforts to disseminate the formal social insurance systems further excluded the informal sector worker who didn’t have union and earned irregularly. This approach is largely criticized by scholars (see Streeten, 1995).

It became clear by the 1990s that the pace and pattern of economic growth was not creating more jobs in the formal sector whereas, the demand of the workers in informal sectors were increasing with increasing informalization of the jobs in developing countries. At the same time, consequences of globalization had resulted in recession and low economic growth in most parts of the world during late 1980s and early 1990s and this involved further poverty and unemployment. Keeping in the view of these post globalization challenges, ILO has broadened its mandate from formal social security measures to social protection which includes the workers in informal economy. The new approach not only included the public social security measures but also variety of measures provided by private agencies and civil society organisations. These changes began in mid 1990s and the approach of ILO towards social protection became more inclusive. It framed social security as a basic human right by viewing it through the different type of vulnerability in different types of employment and extending the right to decent work to the informal sector workers also. Currently three set of strategies are included in the social protection approach of ILO:

- 1) *“Extending formal social security to the 80 per cent of the world’s population who are not currently covered”;*
- 2) *“Promoting decent conditions of work” and,*
- 3) *“Dedicated programmes for specific groups such as migrants, workers in informal economy and people affected from HIV-AIDS” (Cook & Kabeer, 2009).*

#### ***1.4.3 Social Protection Agenda in the Asian Development Bank:***

Asian Development Bank is a leading financial organisation which was founded in 1966 and the main objective of this bank is to improve the people’s lives in Asia and Pacific region. It defined social protection in 2001 while attempting to include the poverty reduction in its main goal. This earlier definition covers a number of instruments of social protection which include the better policies and programmes related to labour market which can generate more employment, policies to improve the market efficiency, social insurance and social assistance programme for poors and region specific social protection scheme which can address the risks and vulnerability faced by population at community level.

Recently Asian Development Bank developed a “Social Protection Index” which was based on the public expenditure on social protection programmes by different countries. It has narrowed down the earlier definition of social protection adopted by Asian Development Bank. In this index the social protection is defined as-

*“set of policies and programmers’ that are targeted at vulnerable groups, enable them to prevent, reduce and cope with risks with provide them cash or kind transfers and which do not include other development activities such as infrastructural development for health and education” (Asian Development Bank, 2008).*

There are number of other development agencies like Department of international Development (DFID), USAID which also support social protection programmes and define it according to their own goals and objective.

### **1.5 DEFINING THE TERM “SOCIAL PROTECTION” IN DIFFERENT APPROACHES:**

In different development literature the term ‘Social Protection’ is used by different ways.

In a broader framework, the social protection is refers to a range of interventions commenced by organisation which are either public, private or voluntary along with informal networks primarily to support the individuals, households and communities to prevent, manage and overcome the various risks and vulnerabilities faced by them (Shepherd *et al.*, 2004). On the other hand a narrower definition limits the scope of social protection only to the public action taken to reduce the different level of vulnerabilities, risks and deprivation which are socially unacceptable in a society and within a policy (Norton *et al.*, 2001). The above discussion of different policy approaches of International agencies also reveals that they define Social Protection in different way.

According to the World Bank-

*“Social Protection envisages public interventions to assist individuals, households and communities in better management of income risks. The objectives of these interventions are a subset of overall development objectives as par the economically sustainable participatory development with poverty reduction” (Holzmann & Jorgenson, 1999).*

The ILO defines social protection as-

*“a set of public measures that a society provides for its members to protect them against economic and social distress that would be caused by the absence or a substantial reduction of income from work as a result of various contingencies; the provision of health care and the provision of benefits for families with children” (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).*

The Asian Development Bank define social protection as-

*“a set of policies and programme designed to reduce poverty and vulnerabilities by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people’s exposure to risks and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and interruption/ loss of income” (Ortiz, 2001).*

The Department of International Development (DFID) broadly defines social protection as measures which are taken by state or public institutions to enable the people to deal with the risk and vulnerabilities in crisis and change in circumstances (such as unemployment and old age) more efficiently. In the definition of social protection it also includes the measures which are carried out to tackle the extreme and chronic poverty (DFID, 2006).

According to USAID, which is a leading funding agency of United Nations social protection is-

*“a set of public interventions that seek to enable poor and vulnerable household in increasing their ability to manage risk thereby allowing them to contribute to economic growth with more participation (USAID, 2008 as cited in Cook & Kabeer, 2009)”*.

From the above definitions provided by different agencies it can be easily identified that Social protection is an evolving concept and it can be concluded that *“Social protection is a broad umbrella term under which all public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfer to poor; protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of marginalized are included. The overall objectives of social protection schemes are reducing the economic and social vulnerabilities of poor, vulnerable and marginalized groups”* (Devereux, Ntale & Sabates-Wheller, 2002).

Now, social protection is seen not only a measure taken to improve the consumption or welfare of poors but also as an investment process to build the human capital. It is viewed as a right based approach among scholars (Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2008) in which it is right of individuals to avail the benefit of various entitlements provided by state or civil society to reduce the social exclusions of various groups.

## **1.6 INSTRUMENTS OF SOCIAL PROTECTION:**

Social protection includes the following set of instruments (programmes) which have been implemented and recognized by different countries across the world:

- **Social Insurance Programmes:** These programmes are mainly for the persons working in public sector or formal private sector. In this programme, a large number of similarly exposed individuals or households are taken into a common fund to eliminate the risk or loss bear by individuals or households lonely. The pensions, health insurance, unemployment benefits, maternity benefits, possible health care and disability related programmes are part of social insurance programmes. These insurance are largely financed by the contribution taken from the earning of the persons or households or collected from payroll taxes.

- **Social Assistance Programmes:** In these programme, public measures are designed to transfer the resource (either in cash or in-kind transfer) to eligible targeted groups. These programmes provide minimal assistance to those who are unable to works, the destitute and those who are specific disable. Disability benefits, single-parent allowances and ‘social pension’ for elderly poors are the major assistance programme run by various countries.
- **Other Programmes:** These programmes are related to those low incomes persons who are not in formal sectors and not falling in the target groups of social assistance programmes. Such programmes are closely linked with the poverty reduction initiatives by various countries and organisations. Many programmes running in developing countries by government to generate the income and reduce the poverty are included in it. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is one of such programme run in the rural parts of India.

### **1.7 ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL PROTECTION:**

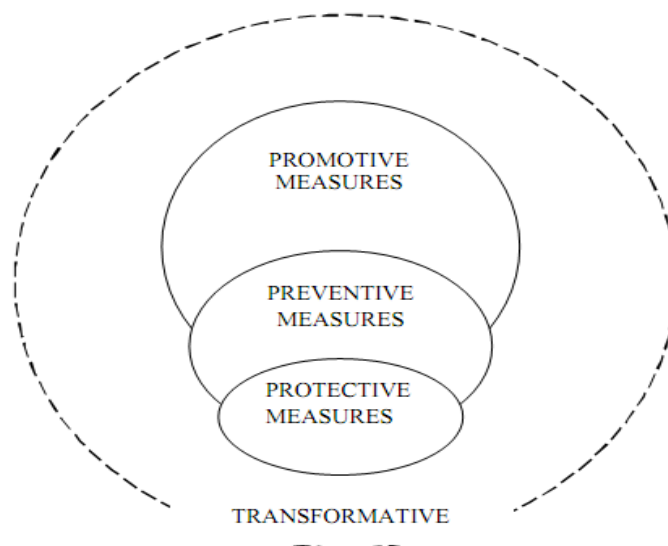
There are four main pillars in social protection programmes across the world which is essentially the part of social protection policies and programmes run by different countries. The multiplicity of these elements is as follows:

- **Promotional Measures:** The main aim of these measures is to improve real income and capabilities both in the short and medium term (through livelihood interventions) to long run (through human capital interventions). These might include macro-economic, sectoral and institutional measures relevant in the context of poverty reduction such as improving primary education, reducing communicable diseases and facilitating access to water and sanitation. In India conditional cash transfer, midday meals, school scholarships for SC, ST, Girls and disable are the part of promotional measures of Social Protection programmes.
- **Preventive Measures:** It includes the *ex ante* measures which avert deprivation by supporting households to manage different risks and shocks. Different social insurance programmes are the part of preventive measures of social protection. In India, Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY), Aam Adami Bima Yojana

(AABY) and Social insurance for unorganized workers are the preventive measures.

- **Protective Measures:** These particular measures are more specific in their objective of ‘guaranteeing relief from deprivation’. These are safety net measures which narrowly target to provide the relief from poverty and deprivation to such an extent that promotional and preventive measure have failed to provide. The main public social protection programmes in India like PDS, social pensions and targeted housing schemes such as Rajiv Awas Yojana and Indira Awas Yojana are the part of protective measures.
- **Transformative Measures:** These measures are recently included in social protection agenda. The main aim of transformative measures is to provide the bargaining power to the various individuals and groups of the society so that they can raise their voices against social discrimination or abuse. It extended the social protection to the area of equity, empowerment and social rights instead of restricting it to the income or consumption transfer schemes or insurance programmes (Sabates-Wheeler & Waite, 2003).

The promotional, preventive and protective measures can overlap with each others. Sabates-Wheeler and Waite (2003) show these measures through different circle from which it is easy to understand the gradation of these measures.



Source: Sabates-Wheeler & Waite, 2003.



In the above diagram, the outer circle consists the promotional measures which incorporate macro-economic, sectoral and institutional measures. The middle circle is made of the preventive measures which include the direct measures of reducing deprivations. The inner circle is concerned with the protective measures comprising the safety net programmes narrowly target to reduce the poverty and deprivation up to such an extent that promotional and preventive measure are unable to do. The dotted lines represent the transformative measures. The transformative measures can be part of all other types of measures but the dotted lines don't indicate it. The social protection programmes run in different countries indicate that transformative measures are hardly included in any of preventive, protective or promotional measures, although the scholars (Bhaduri, 2005; Kabeer, 2002; Saith, 2004) believes that transformative measures could encompass some rights based perspectives in social protection programmes and put 'good governance' in the provision of social protection.

## **1.8 CONCEPTUALISING MIGRATION WITHIN A SOCIAL PROTECTION AGENDA:**

In the existing literature on migration 'risks and vulnerabilities' are the key concept in explaining the process of migration. They are associated with maximum importance mainly because the daily realities of many migrants reflect a wide range of risks and vulnerabilities. Migrants are perpetually vulnerable on the grounds of human rights from the beginning of their migration. In other words, any human being is not so much vulnerable at home than right after (s)he become migrant. The person who migrates had more resources to defend or protect himself when (s)he was at home rather than moving elsewhere (Bustamante, 2010). Although the notion that all migrants are vulnerable is clearly not always the case, as number of studies (Srivastava & Bhattacharya, 2003; Kundu & Sarangi, 2007; Srivastava, 2012a) have shown that migrants are better off than non-migrants and the internal migration is increasing over time for the persons who have high skills, education and other resource endowments. The process of migration gives them more benefits and they enhance their education and income. These migrants face temporary difficulties and that are very few. But this is not true for the those migrants who have meager means of income and have low social networking along with being on the lower ends of the labour market. In the case of internal migration in India, half of the

rural-urban migrants comprise the bottom six consumption deciles and work mainly as casual wage employed or as self employed in the informal sector with greater risks and vulnerabilities (Srivastava, 2012a).

In the above context and to locate migration within social protection framework it is necessary to understand various forms of vulnerabilities that migrants face in various stages of migration i.e. origin, transit, and destination. Many empirical studies (Gosal & Krishnan, 1975; Oberai & Singh, 1983 and Adams, 1986 as cited in Zohary, 2002; Modi, 2010; Mosse *et al.*, 2002) show that high rates of unemployment, sluggish growth of agriculture and lack of non-farm employment sectors, high man-land ratio, low wage rates, poor education and health services and increasing poverty are the main determinants that forces the rural migrants towards urban centre in search of their better fortune. They are already vulnerable and the problems start just from the beginning of the migration process. Quiet often, migrants come into labour markets in urban centers through middle man and in this process they mostly have accepted the token money and are therefore they work as bondage labour and face debt-interlocked migration cycle. In the transit process they suffer various kinds of physical and mental harassments by police, middle men or contractors. In the case of children or female migrants, the form of harassment is engraved to sexual harassments. The spatial dislocation and the remoteness of migrants in transit process make it difficult for government to provide with formal social protection scheme, thus, migrants often use informal social protection mechanism to help manage risks and vulnerabilities during transit (Sabates-Wheeler & Waite, 2003).

The highest form of risks and vulnerabilities can be identified for migrants at destination areas where they face greater isolation, live in a filthy environment without proper accessibility and availability of water, sanitation and other basic amenities, get meager entitlement and suffer from labour market discrimination with poor working conditions. The urban migrants face more uncertainties in the urban labour market. At the time of the entry of a rural migrant in labour market, he/she has very little knowledge about the different risk associated with the labour market and jobs. Thus, they are generally deprived from physical safety and security at work sites as well as their place of stay. The vulnerability faced by women migrant workers in urban areas is more because most of the time they are paid less as compared to their male counterpart and the limited

availability of basic civic services such as toilet facilities, drinking water etc. at worksites increase their vulnerability more.

The migrants in urban areas also face the problem of urban identity and residential proof because of which they are treated as non-citizen in the city even after spending a long duration of stay. The political and cultural problems face by migrants is also very significant because most of the time it has been found that discrimination and violence against migrants happens on the ethnic and linguistic line and this lead to the marginalization of migrants in decision making process in the city. It also enhances their risk and vulnerability in urban labour market (Bhagat, 2012). Thus, the migrants are the most vulnerable section in urban society because they live in a place which is different from their culture, language, social settings and they lack the legal protection, entitlements and consumption habits which they have in their native place. Under these circumstances it is unfortunate that in most parts of the country, social protection programmes are hardly design and implemented to reduce the risks and vulnerability faced by migrants.

Keeping in view the above risks and vulnerabilities faced by migrants at various stages, Sabates-Wheeler and Waite (2003) indicated a possible range of state and non-state/formal social protection mechanisms for migrants by different type of strategy (Promotional, Preventive, Protective and Transformative). Some adjustments have been made in the matrix which was provided by Sabates-Wheeler and Waite to understand the inclusions of migration in social protection programmes in better way:

**Table 1.1 Social Protection Mechanisms for Migrants by different Strategies and Providers**

<b>Strategy</b>	<b>Formal Social Protection Mechanisms by State and Market</b>	<b>Informal Social Protection Mechanisms by Non-state/Non-Market</b>
<b>Promotive</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Improve Labour Market Policies and social services for Migrants</li> <li>-Housing Benefits</li> <li>-Local Development schemes in migration source areas seeking to reduce distress out-migration like MGNREG in India and Conditional Cash Transfer in Brazil</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Migration</li> <li>-Gifts from friends</li> <li>-Development Programmes funded by NGOs and Civil society</li> </ul>

<p><b>Preventive</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Public social insurance programmes and other government inducements for migrants in destination areas like RSBY, AAY and insurance programme for unorganized sector workers in India</li> <li>-Insurance for international migrants in destination countries by sending countries</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Migration</li> <li>-Diversify household strategy by sending only one or two member of household</li> <li>-Keep land and property in origin as fallback position</li> <li>-Migration to those areas where social-networking is strong and already existed</li> <li>-Community-based organisations helping migrants by providing funds for organizing marriages and scholarships for education of migrant's children</li> <li>-Kinship, family and friends of migrants provide loans to finance migration and medical expenses at destination areas</li> <li>-Employer/Recruiters of Migrant labour provide loans for medical care and cash advances on wages for food</li> </ul>
<p><b>Protective</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Subsidies</li> <li>-Housing Benefits</li> <li>-Legal Aid</li> <li>-Counseling for international migrants in destination country</li> <li>-Providing Social Security to internal and international migrants</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Migration</li> <li>-Help from friends and migrant networks</li> <li>-Help of Social Networking in finding house and work in destination areas</li> <li>-Employers/Recruiters of migrant labour offer patronage in the form of housing, food and work security</li> <li>-Financial assistance by social networking</li> <li>-Support of community based organisation and migrant association in destination areas</li> </ul>
<p><b>Transformative</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Legislation for migrants like Inter-state migrants' workmen act, 1979 in India</li> <li>-Public awareness campaigns</li> <li>-Union action</li> <li>-International conventions protecting migrants abroad</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Cooperative/ Group actions</li> <li>-Campaigning and sensitization by migrant association in destination areas</li> <li>-Campaign for social, economic and legal rights by civil society and NGOs</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Bi-lateral agreements between labour sending countries and labour receiving countries</li> <li>-Regulatory framework on employment by source country</li> <li>-Sensitization of migrants on hazards associated with migration such as HIV/AIDS, trafficking and illegal migration</li> </ul>	
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*Source: Sabates-Wheeler and Waite (2003)*

In spite of above elements which largely include in social protection programmes for migrants in various countries, one section of scholars (Mosse *et al.*, 2002; De Haan *et al.*, 2002) believe that the process of migration is in itself an informal form of social protection mechanism for people and families. For distress migrants, migration is a coping strategy from which they improve their earning and send remittances to improve the condition of their households.

**1.9 SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES IN INDIA AND *LOCUS STANDI* OF MIGRANTS IN THESE PROGRAMMES:**

After independence, the concentration of planners and policy makers was on growth and infrastructure development during first two decades. Till 1970s, half of the population in India was chronically poor. The country was suffering from food deficit and food grains was imported by government of India through under developed private market channel of grains. The financial inclusion and penetration of banking services into rural areas was minimal. This was the time when growth was consistently low, technological availability for programme administration and implementation was very limited and only one fifth of total population lived in urban centres.

First time in early 1970s poverty alleviation programmes become the part of government of India's budget and three type of schemes had been introduced (i) schemes to promote self-employment, (ii) schemes creating new work opportunities for wage labours; and (iii) schemes focused on backward regions such as arid regions, hilly regions and tribal regions etc (Saxena, 2007). Although numbers of social protection schemes were launched by GOI under different names but they were unable to meet the needs of vast and diversified vulnerable population of India. Slow rate of growth was another reason for the failure of these programmes.

Due to economic crisis, India adopted economic reforms in 1991 and it boosted India's economy. However, growth rate managed to reach between 7-9 per cent but this growth failed to fetch equitable development. The inequality has increased and development is concentrated to mega cities or developed regions and is resulted with a high proportion of population with risks and vulnerabilities. The high growth rate has raised expectation from the government to improve its social protection systems. Therefore, the design and implementation of social protection programmes in India have gone through a major transition in very recent years. The growth in Indian economy and the expansion in the public expenditure in past decade have created new hopes and possibilities to enhance the social protection system in India.

Now, the spending on social protection programmes has gone up to 2 per cent of GDP and an array of social protection programmes has been launched by central as well as state governments. The social protection programmes in India include the programme for providing subsidized food items to the poor such as TPDS, Antyodaya and Annapurna etc; schemes to provide mid day meals to the school going children; nutritional support to the children by Integrated Child Development Programme (ICDS); social security benefit to the workers working in informal sector, pension and other assistance to the elderly, physically challenged persons and widow; schemes for health insurance (RSBY) and public employment schemes such as MGNREGA and so on. It can be worth mentioning that central government has a very small sphere in the area of social protection. It is the state who design and implement the social protection policies with the guidelines provided by central government. Many times central government provides certain amount of monetary assistance also. The urban local bodies and Gram *Panchayat* play crucial role for identifying the beneficiaries and disseminating the benefit of different programmes. Therefore, these institutions are largely responsible for the implementation of social protection programmes in India (Srivastava, 2012b).

Although migrants can get benefit from the above social protection programmes when they are at their origin area but problems arise when they migrate from one jurisdiction to another because a high level of inter-region variability exists in these social protection schemes. Most of the social protection programmes design to cater the local population and therefore the migrants are generally out of purview in these

programmes. The migrants can avail the benefit of the social protection programmes only if they can establish the claim on their entitlement. They can do so if they are recognised as persons who are potential claimants and are considered to be eligible under the norms of schemes and for this purpose, registration and identity proof may be mandated. Getting identity proof in destination area and registration for social protection schemes and programmes is still a big task for migrants.

Now, government is trying to register and provide the identity cards to the informal sector workers under many schemes such as Aadhar, RSBY etc. and many NGOs and civil society groups recognised by state government are also issuing identity cards to support the migrants (Deshingkar, Khandelwal & Farrington, 2008 as cited in Srivastava, 2012b). The process of registration and possession of identity proof gives migrant workers an identity and also some dignity also.

The portability of entitlements from one area to other is another major problem for migrants (especially seasonal migrants). The NCEUS has pointed out the issues related to the frequent mobility of migrants and portability of social protection schemes from one region to another. It had recommended a “National Minimum Social Security package” for all informal sector workers (including migrant workers) which would be portable across the locations and sectors. For availing this package, the registration would be mandatory. A smart card would be issued to each registered worker with a unique social security number. Smart cards also would be issued to the other family members of the informal workers so that they can get benefit even in the absence of the head of the households. One of the important recommendations of the commission was to introduce a provision in which migrant workers or their family members could pay the amount required to benefit the entitlements at any place in the country and avail the benefit anywhere on the basis of their registration and smart cards. Although a Social Security act, for workers in unorganized sector, has been passed in 2008 by central government but unfortunately, the recommendations and proposals of the NCEUS were accepted and implemented partially.

A new debate has been on floor with issuance of Unique Identity Cards known as “Aadhar Cards” by Unique Identification Authority of India (UIDAI) which is a biometric card with the address of the individual. It is claimed by government of India

that the problem of ‘identity proof’ to claim the benefit of different programme will be solved for poor individuals and migrants after getting Aadhar by them. It will provide them identity and help them to claim the various entitlements. It will also help them in financial inclusion. The three major issues frequently faced by migrants to avail the benefit of any programme- 1) providing identity proof 2) claiming the entitlement and 3) receiving the actual entitlement will be resolved by Aadhar Cards. A coalition of 20 organisations known as “National Coalition for the security of Migrant Workers” has signed a MoU with UIDAI to work out the issues related to the issuance of Aadhar Cards to migrant workers. It has been accepted by the coalition that Aadhar will be an important document for the migrants to avail the benefit of different programme and proof the identity at place of destination.<sup>3</sup>

Now government of India is planning to provide the subsidies under various social protection programmes directly to the bank account of the beneficiaries which will be linked with Aadhar cards. Modi government has started *Jan Dhan Yojana* for this purpose and the target has been given to different banks to open the zero balance bank account of the urban poors including migrants under this scheme. The main aim of this trinity-*Jan Dhan*, Aadhar and Mobile (JAM) is to insure the direct transfer of the subsidies to the bank account of the urban poors including migrants without leakages. But these claims do not seem to be well grounded for the migrants because of several reasons. It has been discussed by scholars (Srivastava, 2012b) that a large number of migrants are seasonal migrants. They frequently migrate from one location to others. The condition is slightly different for the semi-permanent migrants who belong to at least two locations. The Aadhar card is issued to a person for only one place and if JAM will become the only source of direct benefit transfer of the subsidies under different programmes to the poor then it can be a significant source of exclusion for the seasonal migrants and semi-permanent migrants.

The second major problem of the linking of different subsidies under JAM is also related to the registration process of Aadhar Cards in which the valid address proof is required. In case of urban migrants who live in slums or the migrants who live on rent, it

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<sup>3</sup>[http://uidai.gov.in/UID\\_PDF/Front\\_Page\\_Articles/MOU/CSO/MoU\\_UIDAI\\_Coalition\\_of\\_Migrant\\_Workers\\_NGOs.pdf](http://uidai.gov.in/UID_PDF/Front_Page_Articles/MOU/CSO/MoU_UIDAI_Coalition_of_Migrant_Workers_NGOs.pdf)



is very difficult to provide the address proof for Aadhar and therefore in absence of “urban identity”, it would be very difficult for a migrant to avail the benefit of direct cash transfer of different subsidies under JAM.

From above discussion, it can be concluded that without making a comprehensive strategy for migrants, it would not be possible for GOI to provide the direct benefits of the different social protection schemes through JAM and stop the leakages in these programmes.

### **1.10 REVIEW OF LITERATURE:**

In Indian context, plethora of literature deals with the trends, patterns, reasons of migration; migrants’ selectivity in terms of age, sex, caste, educational and economic backgrounds; role of remittances in enhancement of migrants’ households and most of them are based on the secondary data source (Census or National Sample Surveys) but there are very few studies which analyze the problems of migrants at field level, especially urban migrants. In this section, literature related to the various problems faced by migrants in urban centres like housing and tenure security, condition of housing and sanitation, accessibility and availability of health services, food security for urban migrants and role of informal sources like social networking, NGOs and Civil society for providing security to urban migrants is discussed as follows:

#### **A- Housing and Tenure Security:**

It has been established by empirical studies (Karn *et al.*, 2003; Narayen *et al.*, 2008; Mitra, 2010) that urban migrants constitute a major proportion in authorized and unauthorized slums including the makeshift arrangements made by temporary migrant labours. The lands on which these slums are located generally belong to public sector organisations like Municipalities, Railways, Forest Department, Defence, Airport Authority and so on. Around 57 per cent land on which these settlements are located belongs to public authorities while 40 per cent belongs to private sectors (NSS Report No. 534, 65<sup>th</sup> round). It might be worthwhile to describe the housing and sanitation condition in which majority of slum migrants live which has been reflected in the 65<sup>th</sup> round of National Sample Survey (Some Characteristics of Urban Slums), 2008-09 providing the latest scenario. The structure of the houses in slums is classified in to three

categories: 'pucca', 'semi-pucca' and 'katcha'<sup>4</sup>. The percentage of *pucca* houses in slums has increased from 48 per cent (2002) to 57 per cent (2008-08) but wide inter-state variations have been noticed.

States like Andhra Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Delhi, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal have 72 per cent or more slums with *pucca* houses while in Orissa, Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh most of the around more than 65 per cent houses are either *semi-pucca* or *katcha*. Around 24 per cent of these slums are located along the nallahs/drains while 12 per cent are located along railway lines. Drinking water facility is improving in slums with 78 per cent slums have tap as major source of drinking water and 17 per cent have tube well/hand pump. The toilet facility is still very poor in slums and most slum dwellers use public/community toilets (50.2 per cent) while around 20 per cent used their own or shared toilets and 14 per cent slums don't have toilet facilities.

The problem is getting worse with the privatization of these services and it has become a big question whether urban poor (including slum migrants) can afford user fees charged by private service providers to avail these basic civic services such as water and sanitation when a large percentage of urban poor are daily wage labourer and earn a minimum wage of 250-300 per working day (Panda & Agarwala, 2013). The drainage system in slums is also very poor and water logging is a common problem during monsoon. Around 48 per cent slums in India are affected by water logging problems which is the breeding ground for numerous bacterial diseases. The above figures give a glimpse of poor and vulnerable living conditions of slum migrant.

Shelter and tenure security in urban areas become the main problem for urban migrants in India. Mahadevia *et al.* (2010) compare the housing conditions of migrant workers in China and India and found that in China 20-40 per cent migrant workers were provided dormitory accommodations by employers, although the conditions in dormitories were not very good, but they had at least proper shelter in urban areas. Moreover, the Chinese government had issued a document from March 2006 onwards to

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<sup>4</sup> "Pucca structures are those with both roof and walls are made of pucca materials such as cement, concrete, oven-burnt bricks and other such building reinforcements materials, Katcha structures are those with both roof and walls made of katcha materials such as mud, thatch, bamboo, tents etc while Semi-pucca structures are those with either roof or walls, but not both, made of pucca materials (Chapter two, paragraph 2.5 and sub paragraph 2.5.1, NSS Report No 534, Some Characteristics of Urban Slums, 2008-09)".

improve the living condition including housing and basic sanitation of migrant workers. In response to this, the local Chinese government had begun to explore the alternative ways to provide the rental housing to the migrant workers on low rent and also transfer the residential rights after certain duration. However, in India a total opposite situation prevail; the issues related to the migrants are still awaiting a venture in policy discourses. Although there is provision in Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act, 1979 that it is mandatory for the employer of migrant workers to provide proper housing and shelter which is still far from pragmatic situation. It has been found in studies that very few employees manage such facilities to migrant workers, therefore poor migrant workers face great difficulties in meeting the decent housing and shelter facilities. In the initial years, most of the migrants live on rent and make their own arrangement for housing and later with increasing income they own/build a house in city and move to ownership of the housing.

The condition of migrant workers working in construction sectors is worse. They come in the urban centres through contractors and their work sites are dispersed over the city and at work sites lack basic amenities. They don't have shelter provided by their contractor therefore they sleep either in open or bivouac under makeshift structure. Staying in urban space in these conditions make them more vulnerable. They face not only harassment and abuse from police and local authorities but also many time framed in false charges of theft. They live in consistent fear of eviction by local authorities and police. The lack of urban identity and decent housing in urban area make the urban migrants as marginal and transitional people. They are subject to prejudice by natives. The stigmatization and criminalization become the part of their life with false accusations of theft or looting. The police often detain the migrants living in slums and beat them only on suspicion. The conditions of women migrant construction workers are even worse; they get low wages in comparison to their male counterpart and face sexual exploitation by police, contractors and co-workers. (Moose *et al.*, 2005) found in their studies that many times local bodies set up a 'temporary' shelter for the migrants so that they can control and regulate the moving population who most of the time live on the pavement, under over bridges, on railway platform and litter there, but there is a strong resistance from the natives. They have fear that providing any temporary shelter would

leads to the permanent shelter of these migrants in city. There are other studies (Srivastava & Sasikumar, 2003; Rani & Shylendra, 2001; Mili, 2011, Bhagat, 2012) who also have similar descriptions of the poor housing and living condition of migrant labours in urban centres. These studies also show that migrant workers live in city parks and footpath without proper availability of safe drinking water, toilets and other basic services. They are exposed to all types of harassment.

Going through the approach of government to solve the problems of urban poor, it seems that policy paradigm for urban development in India is in deliberate confusion. Right wing politics want a high investment in urban centres to transform the current infrastructure in cities. It thinks that the change in urban areas is happening with a slow pace. In opposite, the left argue that the changes in the urban centres are coming at the cost of urban poor and therefore, the current politics of urban development keep varying from one state to other depending on the government of the states and its political economy. Especially after economic reforms, urban policies are on two parallel tracks, on one hand Ministry of Urban Development want to make the Indian cities as 'global cities' while the agenda of Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation is to address the manifestations of poverty in urban areas like slums, lack of services, weak employment opportunities for urban poor. However, one can easily identify that single-minded idea of infrastructure development to make Indian cities as global cities prevail in most of the policies (Mahadevia, 2011a). The recent urban development shows an elitist approach in which the policy regimes and urban governance system in India have shifted in favour of elites living in urban areas such as urban upper/middle class' resident welfare associations, builder lobbies who have eyes on public lands and other corporate interests and cities are becoming more exclusionary for urban poor (migrants) (Srivastava, 2012b).

One of the emerging problems for urban migrants is tenure security. The migrants living urban areas access the land through different means. Most of the time, the claims of their occupancy and ownership rights don't stand on the test of legality. It has been found that in many states, government has given the de facto rights to the urban migrants who are living in urban areas from a considerable time period. The cut-off dates for time period are announced from time to time and by this way tenure rights are recognised and

government regularized the slums through its notifications (Mahadevia, 2013). Therefore tenure security for urban poor (migrants) depends on providing residential proof any time before the cut-off date. This cut-off date vary from one state to other, in Delhi cut-off date is now 2015 (Janwalkar, 2016), in Mumbai it is 1995 (although litigation is pending in the state High court to extend the cut-off to 2000) and in Ahmadabad it is 1976. Metropolitan cities are, therefore, emerging as exclusive clubs closing the doors to new migrants (Mahadevia, 2011a).

In last one and half decade, the land prices in urban areas increase sharply because of demand of land by urban elite class and other development projects. Due to this, many state governments deliberately do not want to extend the cut-off time period for migrants so that they can order to demolish the new slums and evict the slum dwellers from the prime land on which they are settled. Post-2000 period has brought large scale demolitions in metropolitan cities such as slum demolitions in Mumbai in 2004-05 (Mahadevia & Narayanan, 2008) and in Delhi for Commonwealth Games (Batra & Mehra, 2008). Dupont (2008) reported in her study related to demolition and eviction of slums in Delhi that during 1990 and 2007, total 217 slum sites were demolished in Delhi and around 64, 619 households were evicted and relocated to the periphery areas without any facilities. She found in her survey in 2007 that 50 per cent of the sites demolished during 1990-2007 were remain vacant while only 21 per cent were converted to the parks and other green spaces. Only 15 per cent sites were used for build-up. It shows that eviction and demolition of slums is part of the priority of the vision of the government to make “clean-green-beautiful” Delhi at the expenses of the rights of the urban housing to the poors living in the slums. The numbers of studies (Bhan, 2009; Bhide, 2008; Our Inclusive Ahmadabad, 2010) support the above version of exclusionary nature of urban policies which are in favour of urban elites only.

Although a three-fold policy have been followed by the national and local governments mainly to increase the supply of the housing for the poor (migrants) residing in slums in which the first is the “*Slum Resettlement Scheme*” in which there is provision that the households evicted from the slums will be settled on the periphery of urban areas where public land will be available, schemes for “*In-Situ Development*” in which development of the slum will be done on the same land on which it is settled. In this

scheme, a part of the slum will be developed for the households living in that slum with the cross-subsidies gained from the development of the remaining land and “*Environmental improvement of the Urban Slums (EIUS)*”. The second policy approach is providing the *de facto* rights to the urban poors who have spent considerable time period decided by governments (Mahadevia, 2009; Batra & Mehra, 2008; Mahadevia & Brar, 2008) and third policy approach is providing the urban housing and other amenities by Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) in which RAY (Rajiv Awas Yojana), BSUP (Basic Services for Urban Poors) and IHSDP (Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme) are included but the progress of these scheme is very slow in most of the cities and they have covered only a small portion of the slum population living in different cities (Mahadevia, 2009 as cited in Srivastava, 2012b).

It can be concluded from above review that despite the announcement and implementation of certain housing and tenure security programmes and policies for urban poors, the high land values and increasing rents in urban areas are still a major barrier for urban poors. They are highly insecure to meet the challenges of decent shelter and other basic civic amenities in metro cities. The problem become more severe with a hostile policy approach of urban local bodies towards migrants living in slums and a distrustful social and political atmosphere faced by these migrants in urban areas with declining security of job opportunities. All this leads to an exclusionary environment for urban migrants which has been mentioned in several recent studies (Kundu, 2009; Kundu & Saraswati, 2012; Bhagat, 2011; Bhagat, 2012).

### **B- Food Security for Urban Migrants in India:**

First Millennium Development Goal states the target of “Halving hunger by 2015”. It is unfortunate that recent statistics portrays a very gloomy scenario for India in context of nutrition and food. Currently, India has one of the largest number of undernourished population of the world, inspite of the fact that it has made a great effort to improve the determinants of health in last decades and it also have second rank in the farm output in the world (Upadhyay & Planivel, 2011). In the context of urban areas the situation is worse. According to Urban Health Resource Centre (2008), in every two poor children of under 5 year age groups one is stunted (54.2 per cent) which indicate a chronic undernutrition for the urban poor in India. It reported that total 38.5 per cent women in

reproductive age group are suffering from acute undernutrition in urban areas i.e. they have BMI (body mass index) less than 18.5 kg/m.<sup>2</sup>

Food insecurity per se, “*exists when all people at all time, do not have physical and economic access to the sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life*” (FAO, 2003, p. 28). The cognitive ability of a person becomes lower with food insecurity. It reduces the work performance and therefore, leads to a substantial productivity losses. Overall it can slow down the growth and development of any country. In India, rural-urban migration has increased after economic reforms and a significant percentage of urban migrants work in informal sector which leads to unplanned growth of slum population who are deprived from basic health and hygiene. The key issue here is to provide food security to migrants who live in urban areas specially in urban slums and unauthorized colonies (Upadhyay & Planivel, 2011) and it can be easily found that there are very few literatures which address these issues and therefore at policy level urban migrants hardly seen anywhere.

It has been discussed above that the migrants living in metro cities and other big urban centres are predominantly working in informal sector doing a variety of works such as construction work, as street vendors, hawkers, plumbers, masons, electricians, rickshaw pullers, security personal and domestic servants. Most of them are either casual workers or self employed (Bhagat, 2012). The main problem which promotes food insecurity among these migrants is that the food security of these migrants directly depends upon the daily employment and wages they earn in urban centres. It has been found that the daily employment and wages for migrants vary in urban areas on the different days of a month and therefore, the access to food from market also fluctuate (Upadhyay & Planivel, 2011). An issue which is striking in Indian context is that only the migrants living in notified slums enjoy the access of government programmes and policies and most of these programmes include the provision related to these migrants, however, the other migrants living in non-notified slums are deprived from all above privileges. The irony of the situation is reflected from the fact that 50 per cent slum population in India live in non-notified slums and therefore deprived from these government schemes. In the absence of the access of subsidized food from PDS, the migrants living in non-notified slums are forced to buy the food grains from open market

which cost them more, and increase their household expenditure. In last few years the food inflation is very high and in this situation purchasing food grains from market has become increasingly difficult for poorer urban migrants. In the context of urban migrants, the nature of the interplay between food security and market is very complex. These migrants are mainly depended on the market to earn their income and they exchange it for purchasing the different commodities, but the income that is earned by them is never at par with the expenditure. Even though the migrant workers working as daily wage labourer might earn more than the others but it is not converted into asset-building as around three-fourth of their income go for food only (Mirza, 2010). In a study of Slum Migrants of Indira Nagar Basti, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh by Mirza (2010), it is seen that the migrant slum dwellers buy enough ingredients for the next meal and therefore ending up paying more in this process. Several reasons are cited by the researcher for this habit. The first reason mentioned in the study was the irregular and erratic income for the daily wage migrant labourer because of which they purchased the ingredients for the next meals in advance. The second reason was low wages. Most of the rag-pickers and rickshaw pullers earned 100-300 rupees a day which was insufficient for them to buy the two times meals for the households consisting six members. Whenever the members of the migrant households earned little more as part of their daily income, they bought food grain in larger quantities but another problem they faced was space for food storage. The women and children of the migrants' household were malnourished as they could not afford the nutritious food which is required for them. The researcher mentioned that a packet of below average priced biscuits and a small cup of tea was the standard breakfast for the members of the family.

Although number of government schemes (Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS), Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY), Annapurna Scheme, Mid Day Meal) are being implemented in urban areas for providing subsidized food to urban poor. But studies (Srivastava, 2012b; MacAuslan, 2011) show that urban migrants face number of problems to access these schemes. They generally unable to claim the local entitlement of food grains from PDS and other schemes because they don't have a ration card with local address which is the first step to avail the benefit of any urban entitlements. To make a ration card, migrants face a lot of difficulties, in which first is provide the proof of



residence before a particular cut-off date decided by state government time to time. Second is the lack of knowledge and understanding about different types of ration cards which are based on the socio-economic criteria such as Above Poverty Line Card (For APL or non-poor households), Below Poverty Line Card (For BPL or poor households) and Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY card for very poor households). Third is these schemes are only for those who are 'permanent' residence of the slums, i.e., those who can provide residence proof for the cut-off date decided by government, for other migrants who temporarily reside on construction sites, live on footpaths or roadside or under over bridge, they are not eligible for ration cards thus they lack urban identity as well as subsidized food provided by these schemes; forth to make these cards they are trapped by intermediaries, local politicians, corrupt government clerks because the number of BPL cards and AAY cards are very limited and eventually a small number of migrants acquire these ration card with a certain cost.

Another issue is related with the resettlement of slum colonies, in this process local bodies demolish the slums and forcibly relocating the residents to resettlement colonies but due to the change of place, slums migrant have to apply for change of residence in ration cards and then again face same difficulties as mentioned above (MacAuslan, 2011). Mid Day Meals Scheme and Integrated Child Development Programme are also not very successful for providing food security to urban migrants. Urban Migrants are seen as 'Outsiders' among local community and therefore they are deliberately ignored by urban planners and policy makers (Kumar, 2011).

Although in the draft of the recently passed National Food Security Act, 2013, migrants were included into special groups for entitlement of highly subsidized food grain for all eligible members of the households at place of destination where they currently live, but in final legislation the provision for migrants is missing. Even if the migrant households try to obtain a ration card under this act, the major problem they face is to produce the Aadhar card which should be issued on the current address and is necessary in the identification of the beneficiaries in NFSA, 2013. The problem is more for short-term migrants and seasonal migrants. It has been discussed earlier that short term migrants and seasonal migrant frequently move from one urban centre to other and in this case it is difficult for them to obtain a ration card because their Aadhar card will be

issued from one location only and on other location they can avail benefit which is linked with Aadhar card (Srivastava, 2012b). In UTs, government has replaced the TPDS with cash transfer scheme and it has implemented in Chandigarh and Puducherry. Many scholars (Narayanan, 2011; Kapur *et al.*, 2008; Dreze & Khera, 2010; Himanshu & Sen, 2011) have already discussed the pros and cons of the cash transfer scheme. The main advantage with the cash transfer scheme is that scope of corruption and fraud will be diminished and the food subsidies will be directly transferred to the bank accounts of the ration card holders which are linked with Aadhar. But in context of urban migrants, the cash transfer scheme which will be credited to the bank account linked with Aadhar card will also be exclusionary because of two reasons, first is related to Aadhar itself and the second is related to opening a bank account. It is known fact that a majority of the urban migrants live on rent and therefore, opening a bank account for them is a big issue because they don't have residential proof which is necessary for opening a bank account. After implementation of NFSA, 2013, there is no migrant specific study which can provide inputs for the current status of food security for urban migrants and therefore a gap exists in this field.

It can be easily identified from above discussions that although number of programmes has been launched by government of India for food security but not a single programme address the need of urban migrants.

### **C- Role of Informal Mechanism (Civil Society, NGOs, Social Networking) for providing Social Protection to Urban Migrants:**

It has been mentioned in studies (Srivastava 2012b; Srivastava & Sasikumar, 2003; Deshingkar & Akter, 2009; Mosse *et al.*, 2002) that civil society, NGOs, and social networking are playing an important role for providing social protection to urban migrants in which housing and shelter security, health security, education of migrants' children and food security etc. are included. A coalition has been formed by a network of organisations known as "*The National Coalition of Organisations for Security of Migrant Workers*" to address the different issues related to migrants. This coalition includes more than 40 organizations working in different states like Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Odisha to resolve the different issues related to migrants and make the migrants more visible in the state and central level

policies. It has set up Migrant Resource Centres/ Assistance Centres named '*Shramik Sahayata evam Sandarbha Kendra*' which provide information and counseling to the newly arrived migrants in city and respond to the different issues faced by migrants related to provision of health and education of children of migrants from government. These centres are functioning in following five states-Gujarat, Odisha, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan by 23 plus organisation (Borhade, 2012).

The coalition in its *Bhopal Chapter (Nov 26 & 27, 2010)* felt a strong need to work towards creation of a National Policy on Migration and suggest an action plan to make a national policy on migration. It also discussed on the policies, researches and action plans for providing social security to migrant workers including PDS, RSBY, RTE and other welfare schemes; issues related to wages and work place conditions and to help the UIDAI in making the Aadhar cards for urban migrants<sup>5</sup>. Now coalition has signed a MOU with UIDAI to enable the enrollment of migrant workers in Aadhar cards and authorized one of its member organisations 'Aajeevika Bureau' to work with UIDAI<sup>6</sup>.

Aajeevika Bureau is a NGO based in Rajasthan and working in Rajasthan and Gujarat. Its main mission is to provide social security and legal aid to migrant workers. It has been authorized by Department of Labour, Government of Rajasthan in 2008 to register and issue photo identity cards to migrant workers and now it is creating a valid database of migrants at state level which will be collaborated with government regularly and it will help the government to legitimize the profile of migrant workers. From this ID-card, migrants can open bank account and it has helped migrant workers to avoid undue harassment by the police in urban centres.

It is also providing skill training in its academy and the after successfully completion of the training, the migrant workers has been awarded a certificate and found suitable placements. It has a legal cell which provides legal aid and education to migrant workers and it helps in the registration of construction migrant workers in the Construction Worker's Welfare Board set up by government from which construction migrant workers can be the beneficiaries of number of social protection programmes like

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<sup>5</sup> Retrieved from <http://www.docstoc.com/docs/126906949/Bhopal-Summit-Major-Discussions-and-Decisions-Nov-2010> , Accessed on 16 March, 2013

<sup>6</sup> Retrieved from [http://uidai.gov.in/UID\\_PDF/Front\\_Page\\_Articles/MOU/CSO/MoU\\_UIDAI-Coalition\\_of\\_Migrant\\_Workers\\_NGOs.pdf](http://uidai.gov.in/UID_PDF/Front_Page_Articles/MOU/CSO/MoU_UIDAI-Coalition_of_Migrant_Workers_NGOs.pdf) , Accessed on 16 March, 2013.

scholarships for migrants' children, life insurance, pension and emergency assistance (See <http://www.aajeevika.org>).

Disha foundation is another NGO based on Nasik, Maharashtra which is dedicated to work on the field of education of migrants' children and health care of migrant households. It has initiated migrant friendly sexual and reproductive health programme in Nasik covering around 15000 migrants comprising 40-45 per cent women migrants in the age-group of 12-55 year. It has raised the awareness among urban informal workers about the best practices in public health and hygiene. It has also informed these migrant labourers about their rights to access the public health services. Regular counseling sessions, movie shows and theatre, display of posters and group discussions are the activities from which this NGO spreads the awareness among urban migrants.

A referral system has been set up by DISHA to enables the urban migrants to access the health care services from nearby health centres/public hospitals. . Disha is also working on the malnutrition among migrant children. It consults with the staff of ICDS and linked the malnourished children of migrants aged 6-12 with nearby *balwadis*. It has also mobilized the migrants to send their children in *balwadis* regularly so that they can get access to nutritional supplements and get proper immunization (Borhade, 2007).

There was a Government Resolution (GR) issued in 2000 by Government of Maharashtra that every migrant can access food through a “temporary ration card” issued by government during their stay in city. With the effort of Disha foundation most of the migrant worker in Nasik got a temporary ration card and it is now successful in Nasik. It has also worked on the field of birth registration and establishment of crèche for pre-school children in migrant dominated areas. It has persuaded the migrant households to send their children in schools and also facilitated the enrollment of children of the migrant workers (Borhade, 2012).

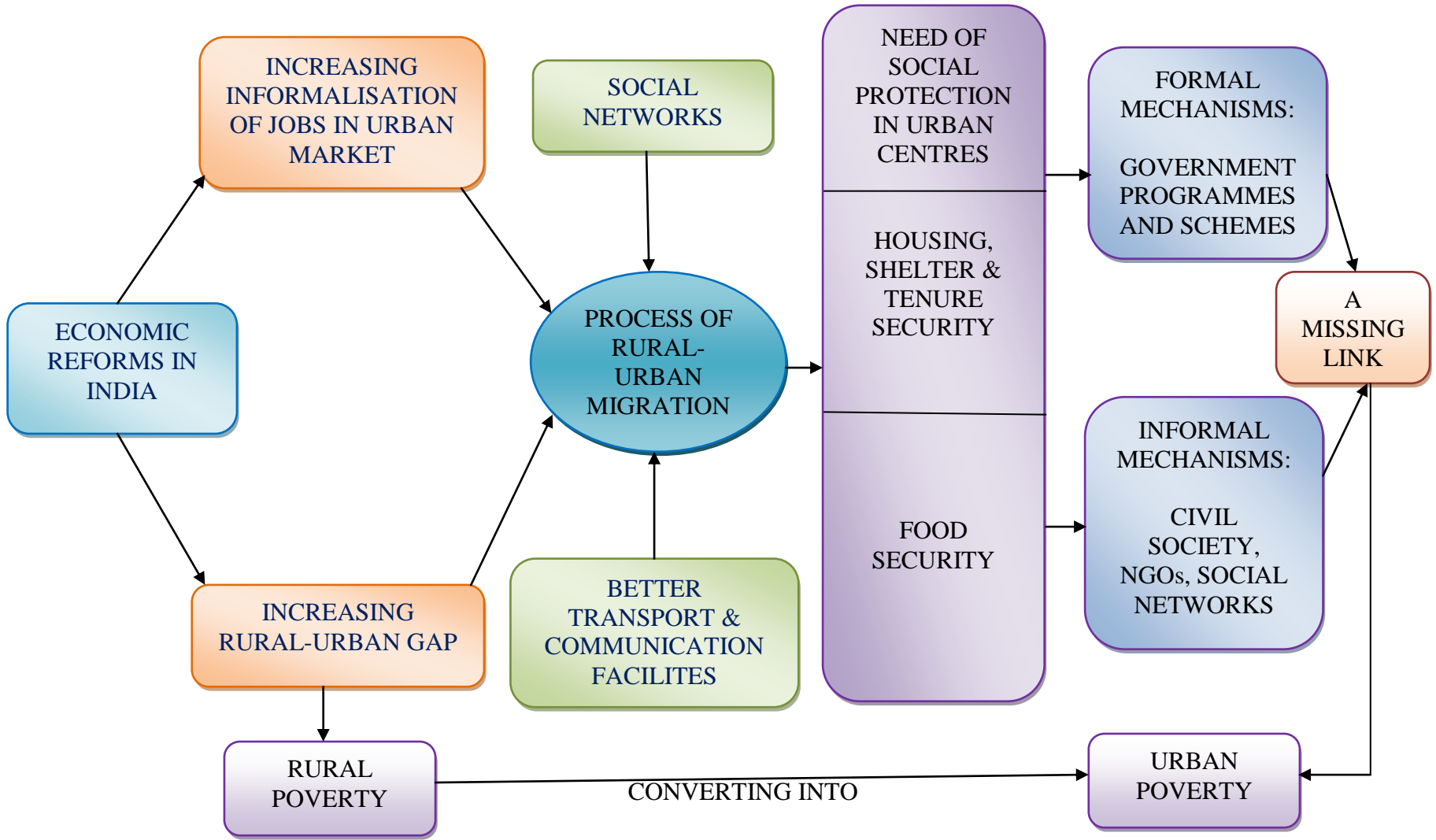
*Janarth*, is another NGO which is based in Aurangabad, Maharashtra. This is an area where a large number of migrant workers come seasonally to work in sugar factories. During 2002-03, *Janarth* established first schools for the children of the migrant workers working in two sugar factories. These schools are known as “*Sakharshalas*”. These schools have a total capacity 600 children. Now, it runs around

126 *Sakharshalas* in different part of Maharashtra in which around 15000 migrants' children study (Deshingkar & Akter, 2009). Therefore from above discussion, it is evident that NGOs are playing an important role in providing social protection to Urban Migrants.

There are studies (Banerjee, 1983; Neetha, 2004; Mitra & Murayama, 2009) which show the role of social networks in providing social protections to urban migrants. Social networks include religious, caste, kinship and regional networks. In these studies it has been found that social networks are becoming prominent factor in the process of rural-urban migration. It facilitates rural-urban migration by providing income supports and informations regarding jobs availability in urban markets and later it helps the migrants to access employment in urban informal sectors. It assists newly arrived urban migrants to search for their first residence in urban areas and provide temporary shelter and food to these migrants.

From the above review of existing literature in social protection of urban migrants, it can be easily assessed that although analysis and discussion has been done by some scholars to identify the problems related to different policies of social protection provided for urban migrants in areas of housing and tenure security, food security etc., but these studies are largely confined to the specific cities and cover only one type of social protection policy for urban poor. There is no comprehensive study which can cover the current status of social protection policies for urban migrants in different sectors such as housing and tenure security, food security etc. and for NCT of Delhi, which is one of the highly urbanized states with a high percentage of urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters, it is very limited. In this context, the present study is an attempt to fill this gap and provide a comprehensive account of the current status of social protection available for urban migrants living in different JJ-Clusters of NCT of Delhi especially in the area of housing and tenure security and food security.

**FIGURE-1.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL PROTECTION OF URBAN MIGRANTS IN INDIA**



### **1.11 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:**

The broad objective of this study is to analyse the social protection of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi with its different and complementary perspectives so that this study may add to the knowledge base for a proper understanding of the condition of social protection for urban migrants in India. More specifically, the key objectives of the study are as follows:

- ❖ To examine the magnitude of urbanisation, migration and slums in National Capital Territory of Delhi with especial focus on post reform periods.
- ❖ To analyse the nature and characteristics of urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters.
- ❖ To assess the housing and tenure security of JJ-Clusters' migrants with basic civic amenities and evaluate the government programmes running for housing security of slum dwellers with perception of JJ-dwellers towards these programmes.
- ❖ To examine the status of food security of JJ-Clusters' migrants and role of government programmes (TPDS, AAY, Mid-day Meal scheme etc.) for proper dissemination of food.
- ❖ To evaluate the role of different intermediary networks and organisations (Social Networks, NGOs and Civil Society) for assisting in the providing of social protection to JJ-Clusters' migrants.

### **1.12 RESEARCH QUESTIONS:**

In the light of above objectives certain research questions can be formulated. These research questions will help in reaching to the conclusions about the prevailing situation of social protection among JJ-Clusters' migrants. This would also help in assessing the role of various agents (Government, Civil Society, NGOs) in providing safeguards. In the present study, following research questions are framed to understand the condition of social protection among JJ-Clusters' migrants:

- ❖ How are the trends and patterns of Urbanisation, Migration and Slum population changing in the NCT of Delhi over time and space?
- ❖ What is the nature, socio-economic and demographic characteristics of Urban Migrants' Households living in JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi?

- ❖ What is the current status of the social protection related to Housing and Tenure Security and Food Security for Migrant Households living in JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi?
- ❖ What are the roles played by Social Networks and NGOs in the provision of social protection of urban migrants?

### **1.13 DATA BASE:**

The present study is based on primary as well as secondary data sources. Due to limitation of secondary data source on the social protection of urban migrants, primary data is collected through the structured questionnaire. Nevertheless, Secondary data sources have also been used to analyse the magnitude of urbanisation, migration and slum population in NCT of Delhi; to give an overview of the condition of housing and basic civic amenities of the households living in slums and the general overview of PDS in NCT of Delhi.

The detail of the data sources are as follows:

#### **Secondary Sources:**

- World Urbanisation Prospects: The 2007 & 2014 Revision, United Nations-Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division).
- Census of India, A Series: Paper-2, Vol-2 (Rural-Urban Distribution of Population), 1991, 2001 and 2011.
- Census of India, D Series (Migration Tables) 1981-2001.
- Census of India, HH Series of Slum Population, Delhi and India, 2001-2011.
- National Sample Survey 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).
- Economic Survey of Delhi, 2008-09 and 2012-13.
- Data from different Ministries and Departments of Government of NCT of Delhi like Slum and JJ-Department of Municipal Corporation of Delhi (1951-2001), Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board (DUSIB), Ministry of Urban Development, Directorate of Economic and Statistics of Delhi, Ministry of Food and Civil Supply etc.

#### **Primary Data:**

Primary data has been collected through the interview of the JJ-Clusters' Households during the survey of study area. Structured questionnaire is used for acquiring primary data which is divided in three schedules: 1) *Profile of JJ-Clusters*, 2) *Household Schedule* and 3) *Social*



*Protection Schedule.* In first schedule, information related to the general profile of the JJ-clusters with location and condition of basic civic amenities has been collected. From households schedule, information regarding the socio-economic and demographic profiles of JJ-Clusters' households is derived and from social protection schedule, informations regarding housing and tenure security including basic civic amenities; food security and role of social networks have been collected by detailed questions in regards to the social protection measures.

## **1.14 METHODOLOGY:**

### **1.14.1 THE PROCESS OF SAMPLE DESIGN AND SAMPLE SELECTION FOR THE STUDY:**

#### ***A.1 Selection of the Informal Settlements for the study:***

In different literature, there is a lack of consistency regarding the terminology used for different types of existing settlement structure in NCT of Delhi. To select the sample for urban migrants, it is very important to know the differences between the various forms of settlements in NCT of Delhi. The detail of types of settlement is given as follows:

**Table-1.2 Absolute Population (in lakh) and percentage of total estimated population in different types of settlement**

<b>Types of Settlement</b>	<b>Estimated Population in Lakh in 2000</b>	<b>Percentage of Total Estimated Population</b>
<b>JJ Clusters</b>	20.72	14.8
<b>Slum Designated Areas (Notified Slums)</b>	26.64	19.1
<b>Unauthorized Colonies</b>	7.40	5.3
<b>JJ Resettlement/Relocated Colonies</b>	17.76	12.7
<b>Rural Village</b>	7.40	5.3
<b>Regularized-Unauthorized Colonies</b>	17.76	12.7
<b>Urban Village</b>	8.88	6.4
<b>Planned Colonies (Approved)</b>	33.08	23.7
<b>Total</b>	139.64	100

*Source: Economic Survey of Delhi, 2008-09, Government of NCT of Delhi.*

Batra (2005), Ishtiyag & Kumar (2011) and Ahmad & Choi (2011) have given the detail of definitional criteria for different type of structure which can be classified as follows:

**Jhuggi Jhopri Clusters (JJ-Clusters):** “These are normally shanty constructions made by migrant labour in Delhi. These tend to be largely on government agency land or ‘encroached’

land. In a number of documents JJ Clusters are also referred as squatter settlement.” According to above Table around 15 per cent population lives in these JJ clusters.

**Slum Designated Areas (Notified Slums):** “These are the settlements which are notified as per the provision of the section 3 of the Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956. The dwellings in these settlements are unfit for human habitation by reasons of dilapidation, overcrowding, faulty design, lack of ventilation, lights and sanitation facilities. Most of the notified slums in Delhi are in walled city and were notified a long time ago”. In past three decades, there is no new notification of slums happened in Delhi. There is provision of in-situ up-gradation of slums in many recent housing programmes and if the upgradation is not possible, resettlement of the slum can be done.

**Unauthorized Colonies:** “These are the colonies which are settled on the lands which are not meant for residential purpose. It is seen that most of the unauthorized colonies are settled on agricultural land by private developers who make a residential plan with street and lanes etc. but these plans are not approved by authorities. At present, total 1071 unauthorized colonies are in Delhi.” (Economic Survey of Delhi, 2012-13)

**JJ Resettlement/Relocated Colonies:** “These are the colonies which were formed during 1960s to 1985. Now, the total number of JJ Resettlement/Relocated colonies in Delhi is 44. Some of the resettlement colonies in Delhi such as Kalkaji have same standards as any other planned colonies. The term resettlement often used unofficially (and incorrectly) to cover the relocated colonies also but in comparison to JJ-relocation colonies, the condition of JJ-Resettlement colonies are much better in terms of plot sizes, basic amenities etc”.

**Rural Villages:** “These are the villages that exist within the boundary of the National Capital Territory of Delhi. These are yet to be notified as urban villages and largely located on the periphery of the city”.

**Regularized-Unauthorized Colonies:** “These are the unauthorized colonies which are regularized by the government agencies over time period. The regularization of the unauthorized colonies is largely a political decision and often involves the procedure to amend the ‘land use’ mentioned in the master plan for the particular land on which these colonies are settled”.

**Urban Village:** “These are the villages that have been declared as ‘urban village’ by the department of urban development of Government of Delhi. Once a village is notified as urban village, all byelaws for buildings are applicable in the urban villages”.

**Planned/Approved Colonies:** “These are the colonies that are approved by the zonal agencies and part of the Master Plan of Delhi. They are obviously the most comfortable in term of basic civic amenities and services”.

**Pavement Dwellers:** “Although this is not a type of settlement, but a group of people who are ‘homeless’ resides normally on pavements, under bridges and flyovers and the roadside. In spite of their high visibility and numeral strength, pavement dwellers are not entitled to any civic amenities. Civic authorities in Delhi are providing ‘Night Shelter’ to these pavement dwellers but it is insufficient because of the exceeding number of pavement dwellers”.

From the above classification of different types of settlement, JJ-Clusters has been selected for the present study because it has been found in different studies (Bhan, 2013, Dupont, 2008) that most of the urban migrants live in these JJ-Clusters because of low rent and hope of tenure and housing security after spending a considerable time decided by government of Delhi time to time. These migrants are more vulnerable in terms of social protection as compared to urban dwellers that live in other types of settlement. The formation of JJ-Clusters in Delhi has started early from independence and the main reason behind the formation of JJ-Clusters were flow of migrants from neighboring states for livelihoods and employments. The condition was manageable before 1970 and most of slums were settled and notified from Delhi government but 1970 onwards, the high pace of development of Delhi and slow development in other states in northern India speeded up the flow of migration to Delhi resulting massive increase in the JJ-Clusters (Economic Survey of Delhi, 2012-13).

#### ***A.2 Selection of Location (Districts and Clusters):***

In the first stratum of sampling, four districts of NCT of Delhi-South-West, North-East, North-West and South Delhi have been selected on the basis of highest decadal urban growth in these districts during 2001-2011. The data from 2011 census shows that the districts in the core of Delhi (New Delhi and Central Delhi) are experiencing a negative decadal growth rate during 2001-2011 while the selected districts which are also the peripheral districts have

experienced a high decadal growth rate among all 9 districts of NCT of Delhi. This growth pattern can be explained by the high land value in the core areas and eviction and resettlement process adopted by NCT of Delhi especially after Commonwealth Game because of which migrants are started to settle more in these peripheral districts.

The Jhuggie-Jhopri Clusters in NCT of Delhi are settled on the land of different agencies. Therefore, in the second stratum, the percentage share of the JJ-households settled on different landowning agencies has been considered.

**Table-1.3 Distribution of JJ-Clusters and JJ-Households by Land Owning Agencies on which they settled:**

Land Owning Agency	Number of JJ-Cluster	Number of JJ-Households	Percentage Share to Total	Land Owning Agency	Number of JJ-Cluster	Number of J J-Households	Percentage Share to Total
<b>DDA</b>	<b>342</b>	<b>158853</b>	<b>52.2</b>	Maulana Azad Medical College	2	301	0.1
DDA & FOREST	1	837	0.3	<b>MCD</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>12837</b>	<b>4.2</b>
DDA & RAILWAY	6	4641	1.5	MCD&FLOOD	1	108	0.0
DDA/MCD	2	1355	0.4	MCD/RLY	1	223	0.1
DDA/NTPC	1	1122	0.4	NDMC	2	165	0.1
DELHI ADMN	1	472	0.2	NSCI	1	204	0.1
DELHI UNIVERSITY	1	550	0.2	NTPC	1	717	0.2
DJB	3	875	0.3	NTPC/DDA	1	521	0.2
<b>DUSIB</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>43767</b>	<b>14.4</b>	PVT	1	236	0.1
FLOOD CONTROL DEPTT	9	2354	0.8	PWD	11	4122	1.4
FLOOD CONTROL DEPTT./DJB	2	484	0.2	REVENUE DEPTT. DELHI GOVT.	2	371	0.1
FLOOD CONTROL DEPTT./L&DO	1	298	0.1	<b>RAILWAY</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>39833</b>	<b>13.1</b>
FOREST DEPTT.	11	4347	1.4	RLY/MCD	1	149	0.0
FOREST DEPTT./DDA	4	1532	0.5	ROSHANARRA CLUB/ SOCIETY	1	114	0.0
GRAM SABHA	9	3492	1.1	UP IRRIGATION	1	218	0.1
JAMIA	2	350	0.1	AGRICULTURE INSTITUTE PUSA	1	448	0.1
L&DO	23	9713	3.2	AIR FORCE (HQ)	1	85	0.0
L&DO NAZUL LAND	1	268	0.1	ARMY	3	1000	0.3
L&DO/ASI	1	150	0.0	CANTT. BOARD	7	2751	0.9
LNJP HOSPITAL/ MAMC	2	746	0.2	CPWD	17	3579	1.2
<b>Total</b>					<b>672</b>	<b>304188</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Computed from the provisional data of JJ-Clusters by Delhi Shelter Improvement Board.

The percentage share of Jhuggie-Jhopri households settled on the land of different types of landowning agencies from above Table-1.3 shows that total 52.2 per cent Jhuggie-Jhopri households in NCT of Delhi is settled on the land of Delhi Development Authority (DDA). The second highest percentage share is for the Jhuggie-Jhopri households settled on the land of Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board (DUSIB) which is 14.4 per cent of the total JJ-households. The third and fourth highest percentage is for JJ-households settled on the land of Railway (13.1 per cent) and Municipal Corporation of Delhi (4.2 per cent).

Keeping the percentage share of JJ-households settled on different types of landowning agencies in mind, total two JJ-Clusters have been selected from each district-one that is settled on the land of Delhi Development Authority (DDA) and another is from DUSIB/Railway/MCD whichever is suitable for the survey in a particular district. Therefore, the total number of JJ-Clusters selected for the present study is eight which are settled in four selected peripheral districts- South Delhi, South-West Delhi, North-East Delhi, and North-West Delhi. Only the JJ-Clusters having 500 and above Jhuggi are considered for the present study so that they can be representative. After the pilot survey and field observations, following eight JJ-Clusters have been finalized:

**1. SOUTH DELHI:**

- ❖ Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla, (DDA), and
- ❖ V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (RAILWAY)

**2-SOUTH-WEST DELHI:**

- ❖ Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (DDA), and
- ❖ Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera (MCD)

**3- NORTH-EAST DELHI:**

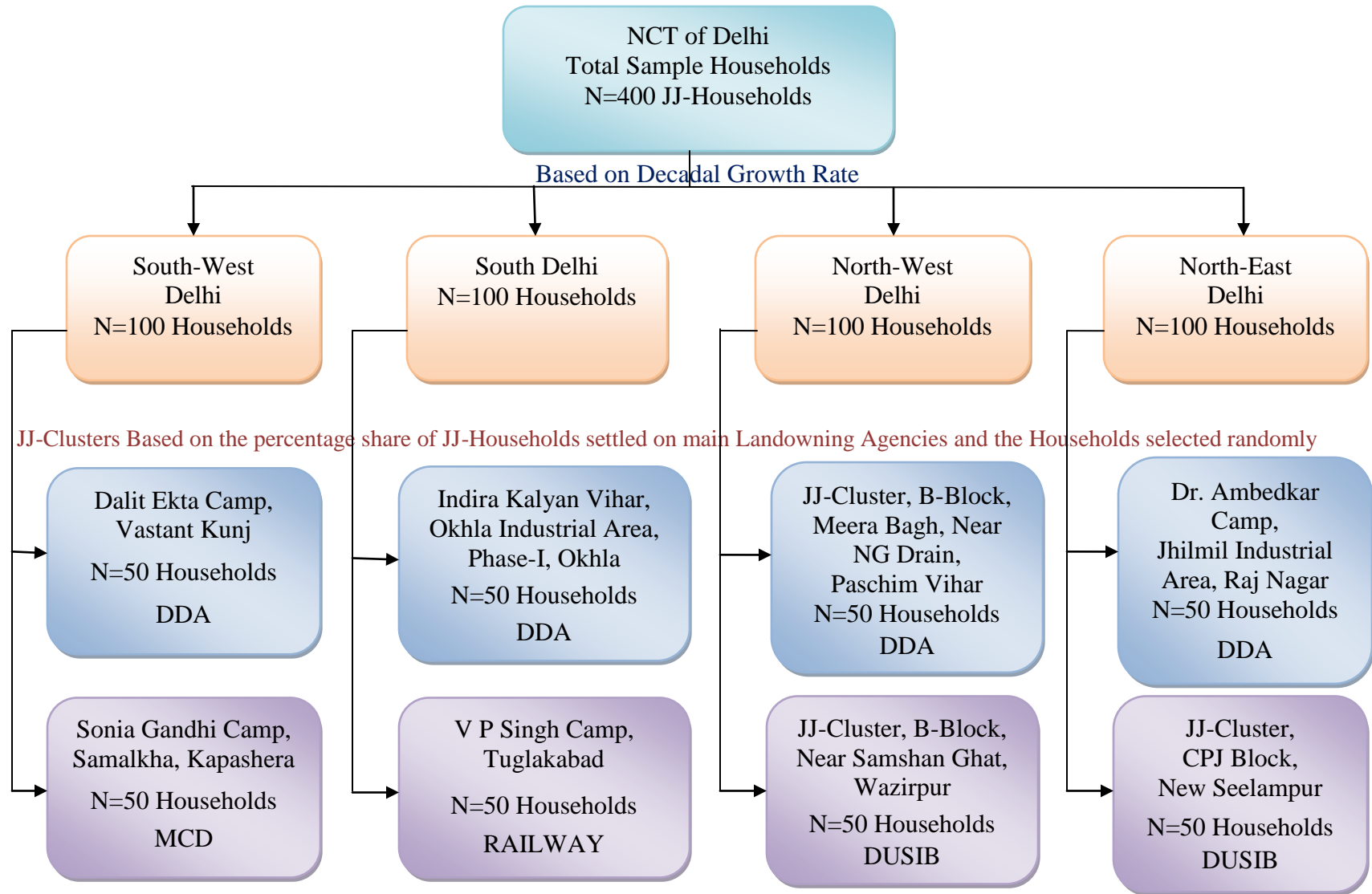
- ❖ Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar (DDA), and
- ❖ JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur (DUSIB)

**4- NORTH-WEST DELHI:**

- ❖ JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar (DDA), and
- ❖ JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near Samshan Ghat, Wazirpur (DUSIB).

In the last stratum, from each JJ-cluster mentioned above, 50 random households have been selected for the survey, in which, the migrant households who claimed the ownership of their Jhuggi and the migrant households who lived on rents both are included.

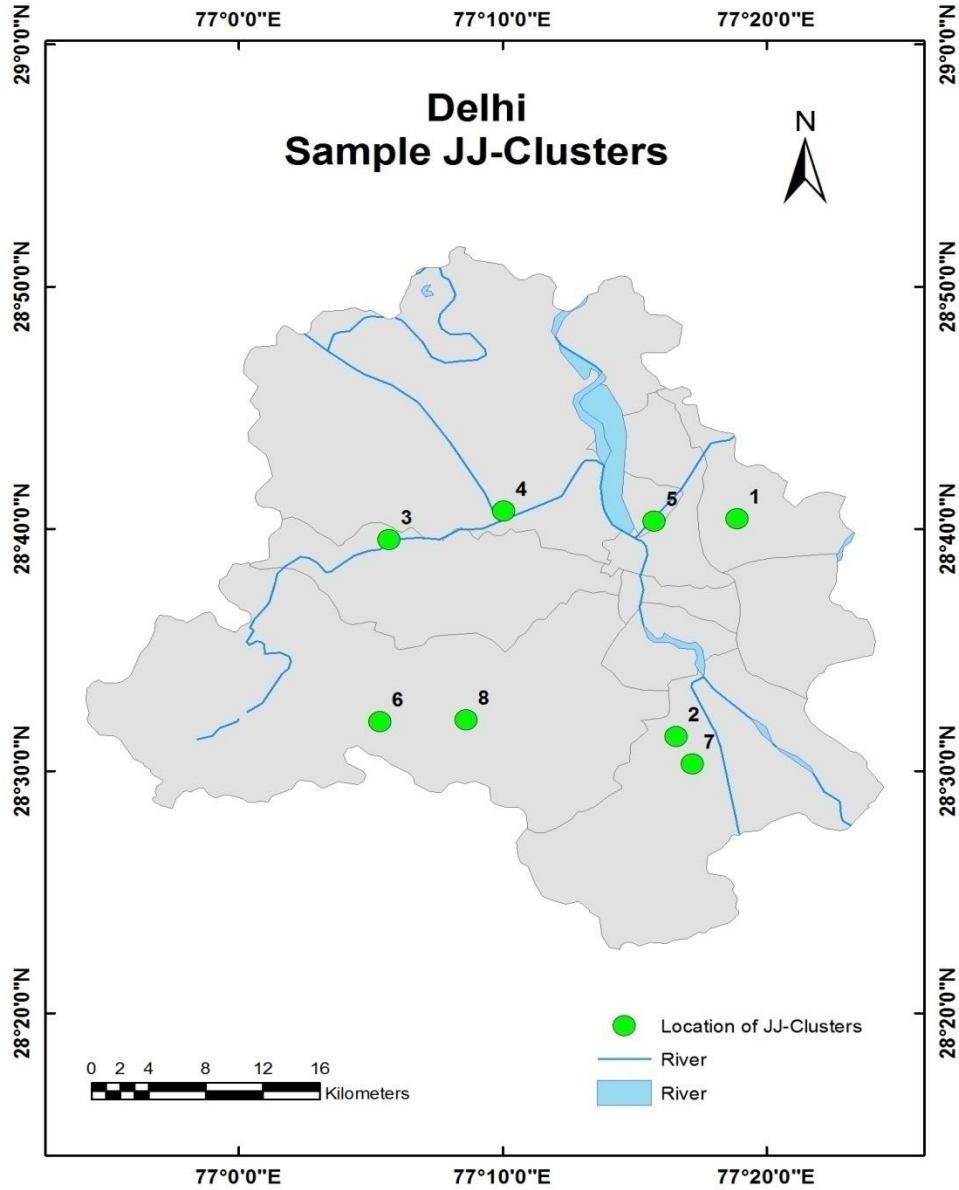
**FIGURE-1.2 SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF SAMPLE-DESIGN FOR FIELD SURVEY**



The brief description of each JJ-Cluster selected for the study is as follows:

- ❖ **Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla:** The location of Indira Kalyan Vihar is  $77.28^0$  East and  $28.53^0$  North in South Delhi district. This JJ-Cluster is settled in Okhla Industrial Areas, phase-I on the land of DDA. The history of the settlement of Indira Kalyan Vihar can be traced from the time period when the industries were started to set up in the area of Okhla in Delhi. Some of the respondents who can recall reported that it was started to settle around 1978 but expanded after the 1984 riots in Delhi. Around 2225 Jhuggi are in this JJ-Cluster and the total area of this JJ-Cluster is 50016.04 square metre. A wide and open drainage is passing from the one side of this JJ-Cluster.
- ❖ **V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad:** The location of V P Singh Camp is  $77.29^0$  East and  $28.50^0$  North in South Delhi district. This JJ-Cluster is settled in Tuglakabad near Tuglakabad Railway Station on the land of railway. It was started to settle around 1975 and expanded during 1980-1985. V P Singh is surrounded by inland container depot, a cement factory which is closed and landfill area on north side. Around 1709 Jhuggi are in this JJ-Cluster and the total area of this JJ-Cluster is 58164.92 square metre. Earlier, the name of this JJ-Cluster was “*Grah heen Kalyan Samiti*” or Homeless Welfare Society. During 1989-1991 DDA tried to evict the migrants living in V P Singh Camp but with the intervention of V P Singh who were Prime Minister at that time, the eviction process was stalled and thereafter, the name of this JJ-Cluster was changed and it is known as V P Singh Camp. This JJ-Cluster has been selected for rehabilitation and in-situ development but due to lack of environmental clearance, the whole process has been stalled.
- ❖ **Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj:** The location of Dalit Ekta Camp is  $77.14^0$  East and  $28.53^0$  North in South-West Delhi. This cluster is settled in the middle of Vasant Kunj which is one of the posh residential colonies in Delhi on the land of DDA. The traces of the history of the settlement of Dalit Ekta Camp by respondents reveal the fact that most of the households in this JJ-Cluster migrated because a massive construction was going on in Vasant Kunj to build this residential colony around 1980. Around 990 Jhuggi are in Dalit Ekta Camp and the total area of this camp is 13070.22 square metre.

**Map 1.1 Location Map of the Study Area**



*Note: In the above maps sample JJ-Clusters are located by number, the detail of which is as follows:*

- 1. Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, 2. Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, 3. JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh, Paschim Vihar, 4. JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, 5. JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur, 6. Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera, 7. V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad, 8. Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj*



- ❖ **Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera:** The location of Sonia Gandhi Camp is  $77.09^0$  East and  $28.53^0$  North in South-West Delhi. It is settled in the periphery of South-West Delhi on the land of Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD). After few km from this JJ-Cluster, the boarder of the Delhi ends. Sonia Gandhi Camp is settled in opposite side of Samalkha village which is a residential area. The airport is also located at one side of this JJ-Cluster. The total number of Jhuggi in Sonia Gandhi Camp is 1234 which are settled in 32903.01 square metre area.
- ❖ **Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar:** The location of Dr. Ambedkar Camp is  $77.31^0$  East and  $28.67^0$  North in North-East Delhi. It is settled in Jhilmil Industrial Area on the land of DDA. The old migrants from this JJ-Cluster reported that it was started to settle around 1980-1983. The railway line is passing at one side of Dr. Ambedkar Camp and it is surrounded by different industries. The Jhilmil metro station is also in the vicinity of this JJ-Cluster. Total 713 Jhuggi are settled in this JJ-Cluster on 12587.67 square metre area.
- ❖ **JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur:** The location of this JJ-Cluster is  $77.26^0$  East and  $28.67^0$  North in North-East Delhi. According to the respondents living in this JJ-Cluster, it was started to settle around 1975. This JJ-Cluster is settled near a residential area known as New Seelampur on the land of DUSIB. The Seelampur Metro Station is around one km from this JJ-Cluster. A landfill site is in front of this JJ-Cluster. The congestion in this JJ-Cluster is very much and the Jhuggi inside the JJ-Cluster hardly get sunlight. Total 753 Jhuggi are settled in this JJ-Cluster in 66840.75 square metre area.
- ❖ **JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar:** The location of this JJ-Cluster is  $77.09^0$  East and  $28.66^0$  North in North-West Delhi. It is settled on the land of DDA. The old migrants from this JJ-Cluster reported that it came into existence due to a massive construction work was going on in nearby area around 1983-85 to build the Meera Bagh Colony which is an affluent colony in North-West Delhi. The JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh is also known as “Tea Huts”. The N G Drain is flowing from one side of this JJ-Cluster. Total 1768 Jhuggi are settled in this JJ-Cluster in 27893.64 square metre area.

- ❖ **JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near Samshan Ghat, Wazirpur:** The location of this JJ-Cluster is  $77.16^{\circ}$  East and  $28.68^{\circ}$  North in North-East Delhi. It is settled on the land of DUSIB. A cremation land is located near to this JJ-Cluster. This JJ-Cluster is located in the surrounding of Wazirpur Industrial Area. The Kanhaiya Nagar Metro Station is just half km away from this JJ-Cluster. The cluster has 774 Jhuggi settled in 1045.18 square metre area. This JJ-Cluster is also very congested.

### 1.15.2 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES FOR DATA ANALYSIS:

In the light of objectives and hypothesis of the present study following statistical methods will be used:

#### A. Degree/Level of Urbanisation and pace of Urbanisation

To find out the degree or level of urbanisation Urban-Rural ratio will be calculated. The formula of Urban-Rural Ratio is-

$$\text{Urban-Rural Ratio} = (\text{Percentage of Urban Population} / \text{Percentage of Rural population}) * 100$$

To find out the pace/tempo of urbanisation annual exponential growth rate will be calculated:

$$\text{Annual Exponential Growth Rate} = \frac{1}{t} \left[ \ln \left( \frac{P_t}{P_0} \right) \right] * 100$$

Where, t = time-interval, ln = natural log, Pt = Population at time period t, Po = Population at time period o.

#### B. Location Quotient:

To find out the concentration of levels of urbanisation in different districts of NCT of Delhi, location quotient has been calculated.

The formula of Location Quotient is:

$$\text{Location Quotient (L. Q.)} = \frac{\frac{P_{ij}}{P_i}}{\frac{P_j}{P}}$$

Where,  $P_{ij}$  = number of person in  $j$ th ( $=1, 2 \dots n$ ) category of area  $i$  ( $=1, 2 \dots n$ )

$P_i = \sum P_{ij}$  = total population in all the category of area  $i$

$P_j = \sum P_{ij}$  = Sum of persons of category  $j$  in all the  $n$  area *i.e.* population of region

Under Category  $j$

$P = \sum P_i$  in all the areas *i.e.*, total population of the region in each category.

### **C. Rate and Proportion of Migration:**

To analyse the trends and pattern of urban migration, migration rate will be calculated:

$$\text{Urban Migration Rate} = \frac{\text{Total Urban Migrants}}{\text{Total Urban Population}} * 100$$

To show the socio-economic and demographic profile of the urban migrants, rates and proportions will be use for respective categories i.e. age-group, social-group, education status, occupational status etc.

### **D. Housing Quality Index:**

To know the quality of housing in JJ-Clusters, an index has been constructed by giving subjective weights to the variables related to quality of housing. The summation of subjective weights given to each variable will be housing quality index for each migrant household. This summation is ranged from 0 to 16 and households are further classified into three groups according the total score they have: Low Quality Housing ( $\leq 9$ ), Medium Quality Housing (10-12) and High Quality Housing ( $\geq 12$ ). The variables and respective weights used for Housing Quality Index are as follows:

#### **1) Construction Floors:**

One Storey-1, Two Storeys- 2 and Three Storeys-3

#### **2) Predominant Material of Floors:**

Mud-1, Burnt Brick-2 and Cemented-3

#### **3) Predominant Material of Walls:**

Mud/Unburnt Bricks-1, Burnt Brick-2, Cemented-3

#### **4) Predominant Material of Roof:**

Bamboo/Wood/Polythene/Canvas/Clothes-1; Iron/Tin/Asbestos-2, Stone/Lime Stone/Burnt Brick-3; Tin/Asbestos and Stone/Lime-Stone both-4

#### **5) Number of Living Rooms**

One Room Only-1, Two Rooms only-2, Three or more rooms-3

### **E. Quality of the Basic Amenities Index:**

To know the quality of basic amenities available/accessed by households living in JJ-Clusters, a basic amenities index has been made in present study by giving the subjective weights to the variables of basic civic amenities. The summation of subjective weights given to each variable will be basic amenities index for each migrant household. This summation is

ranged from 0 to 9 and households are further classified into three groups according to score they have: Low basic amenities ( $\leq 4$ ), Moderate basic amenities (4-5) and Good ( $\geq 6$ ). The variables and respective weights used for Basic Amenities Index are as follows:

**1) Separate Kitchen**

No-0, Yes-1

**2) Type of Cooking Fuel:**

Firewood-0, Kerosene-1, LPG-2

**3) Separate Bathrooms:**

No-0, Yes-1

**4) Drinking Water:**

Tanker by Delhi JAL Board-0, Public Water Tap/Public Borewell-1

Tap Water inside premises/other water sources (Hand pump etc.) inside premises-2

**5) Toilet Facility:**

Open defecation-0, Open and Public Toilet Both-1, Public Toilet/Sulabh International-2, Toilets inside premises-3

**F- Multinomial Logistic Regression:**

Two separate multinomial logistic regression have been used to access the probability of having a different quality of housing and basic civic amenities-

**Dependent Variable:** Quality of Housing and Quality of Basic Amenities

**Explanatory Variables:** Social Groups, Ownership of Jhuggie, Duration of Migration, Current Employment Status of head of the households, Land Owning Agency on which JJ-Cluster is settled

**G-Logistic Regression:**

To know determinants of possession of ration cards by households living in JJ-Clusters, a logistic regression has been used in present study-

**Dependent Variable:** Possession of Ration Card

**Explanatory Variables:** Social Groups, Religion, Ownership of Jhuggie, Employment Status of Head of the Households, Duration of Migration, Land Owning Agency on which JJ-Cluster is settled

**F. Cartographical Tools:** Bar-Diagrams, Pie-Charts and Choropleth Maps etc.

### **1.16 CHAPTER SCHEME:**

The present study is divided into seven chapters. Chapter one provides the background of the study, statement of the problem, concept of social protection and its various facets, literature review, conceptual framework, objectives, research questions, data base and methodology used in this study. In the second chapter, the detail analysis of trends and patterns of urbanisation, migration and slums are discussed with the help of secondary data. Chapter three deals with nature and characteristics of urban migrants living in sample JJ-Clusters. In this chapter the migration history of the head of the households has been traced and the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of head of the households along with other members are discussed. Chapter four gives the detail picture of the current Housing and tenure security conditions with urban civic amenities provided to JJ-dwellers in Delhi. In this chapter, secondary as well as field survey data has been used. Chapter five provide the detail account of the status of food security in JJ-Cluster with the help of secondary as well as primary data. In chapter six, role of social networks in providing social protection is analyzed. The role of different agents (Government, NGOs, and Civil Society) for providing social protection to JJ-Cluster migrants is also discussed with field observations and last chapter concludes the research work of the thesis.

**CHAPTER-II**  
**MAGNITUDE OF URBANISATION, MIGRATION AND SLUMS**  
**IN NCT OF DELHI**

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**2.1 INTRODUCTION:**

The three great socio-economic revolutions of the history of human race - the industrial revolution, the agrarian revolution, and the transport revolution – sparked off another revolution that is urban revolution. One of the most remarkable features of the second half of the twentieth century is the spectacular growth of the urban population, especially in the developing world. The past decade and a half has been especially considered to be a period of a progressive shift of the epicenter of urbanisation from “the predominantly northern latitudes of developed countries to the southern ones of developing countries” and that “the mean latitude of global urban population has been steadily moving towards South” (Mohan & Dasgupta, 2005). Now, developing countries are experiencing rapid urbanisation and, mushrooming of huge metropolises.

Higher urbanisation is regarded as one of the indicators of development because it is an integral part of the process of industrialisation and development. The process of industrialisation entails a massive shift of labour and other inputs from the sectors that are predominantly rural to the sectors that are predominantly urban (Modi, 2010). Therefore in the process of industrialisation, modernization and development, developing countries are experiencing a mass movement of people from rural areas to urban areas. The urban and rural areas of developing countries are becoming more closely linked socially, economically and politically.

India is the best example of the above phenomena. In rural areas of India, high man-land ratio, sluggish agricultural growth and limited development of rural non-farm sector raises the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and underemployment; on the other hand, most of the high productive activities, better educational opportunities and medical services are located in the urban areas. The rural–urban income differentials, particularly for the poor and unemployed persons, are enormous in rural areas. All these factors are the leading causes of a large chunk of rural-urban migration that boost the pace of urbanisation in India.

The growth of urban population, linked with rural-urban migration, creates a major challenge for policy makers in India because the migrants have shown high selectivity in choosing their destination which is mainly towards metropolitan cities of India (Yadava, 1989; Neetha, 2004; Deshingkar & Akter, 2009). This leads to regional imbalances in urbanisation and distortions in the urban hierarchy. The capacity of metropolitan cities to assimilate these migrants by providing employment, access to land and other basic amenities etc. are limited (Kundu, 2007). In this condition, the poor section of rural-urban migrants finds a place in the slums of urban centres and, they are forced to live in a very filthy environment of slums (Nangia & Thorat, 2000). In the process of globalisation, to make Indian cities as global cities; “sanitization” of the slum population becomes the main agenda of the urban policymakers. In last one and half decade, hundreds of thousands of slums were demolished in the name of beautification of the metropolitan cities and still, the migrants who are living in slums are haunted by threats of eviction.

Delhi is no exception to this process. It is one of the metropolitan cities in India, which has witnessed enormous growth and development in last few decades, but it seems that the poor migrants living in different slums (locally known as JJ-Clusters) are not part of this development process. The sedentary biases towards migrants in Delhi are very high at the policy level, and it is visible also with poor living conditions in JJ-Clusters. The demolitions, evictions and resettlements of slum population in Delhi have happened in the past also but, its intensity has increased, especially after Commonwealth Games in 2010. The absence of a proper resettlement policy and lack of empathy among media, public and state officials towards these migrants make them more vulnerable (Bhan, 2009; Dupont, 2008). In this changing policy environment, it would be an interesting task to assess the magnitude of urbanisation, migration and slums (JJ-Clusters) in NCT of Delhi. The present chapter is an attempt to provide a detailed account of this process.

## **2.2 URBANISATION IN DELHI (AS URBAN AGGLOMERATION) IN GLOBAL CONTEXT:**

According to latest estimates by United Nations’ Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division) 54 per cent of the world’s population is residing in urban areas. The coming decades will bring further profound changes to the size and spatial

distribution of the global population especially in urban population. In 1950, only 30 per cent of the world's population was urban, and it was mostly concentrated in developed countries, but now the projection tells a different story. The proportion of the world's population living in urban areas is expected to reach 66 per cent by 2050 with more urban population concentrated in developing countries of Asia and Africa. Just three countries from Asia and Africa- India, China, and Nigeria-together, are expected to account for 37 per cent of the projected growth of the world's urban population between 2014 and 2050. India alone is projected to add 404 million urban dwellers.

There is great diversity found in the characteristics of world's urban population. Close to half of urban dwellers reside in relatively small settlements of less than 500000 inhabitants, while nearly one in eight live in 28 mega-cities of 10 million or more inhabitants. The number of mega-cities has nearly tripled since 1990, and by 2030; around 41 urban agglomerations are projected to house at least 10 million urban populations each. Whereas several decades ago most of the world's largest urban agglomerations were found in developed nations, now these large cities are concentrated in the global South, and India is one of them.

Just after the independence of India, in 1950, Kolkata was the single urban agglomeration in the top 10 urban agglomeration list of the world, and it remains single urban agglomeration from India in this list till 1975. In 2000, two more urban agglomerations Mumbai and Delhi were added in this list with Kolkata. In top ten, Mumbai and Delhi had 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> rank respectively while Kolkata was on 10<sup>th</sup> rank. The recent ranking (in 2015) shows that, Delhi has reached to second rank with 25.70 million urban dwellers after Tokyo, which has 38 million urban dwellers.

Tokyo is projected to remain the world's largest urban agglomeration in 2025 and 2030 with 37.88 and 37.19 million urban population respectively closely followed by Delhi where the population is projected to rise swiftly to 32.73 million and 36.06 million respectively. The figures discussed above are based on absolute population (see Appendix Table A2.1). To know the magnitude of urban population in these urban agglomerations, it is very important to see their population growth rate. The annual growth rates during 1975-2000 (in per cent) and projected annual growth rates during 1975-2025 (in per cent) for selected UAs are given in the following table:



**Table-2.1 Annual Growth Rate of World's selected Urban Agglomerations (UAs)**

<b>Urban Agglomerations (UAs)</b>	<b>Annual Growth Rate (Per Cent) 1975-2000</b>	<b>Projected Annual Growth Rate (in Per cent) 1975-2025</b>
Tokyo	1.19	0.74
New York-Newark	0.50	0.59
Ciudad de México (Mexico City)	2.73	1.93
São Paulo	3.13	2.46
Kolkata (Calcutta)	2.63	3.22
Mumbai (Bombay)	5.07	5.44
Delhi	7.27	8.23

*Source: World Urbanisation Prospects: The 2007 Revision; United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division). The current name of the Urban Agglomeration is given in the parenthesis.*

It can be observed from Table 2.1, that among all the UAs, the highest annual growth rate of urban population was recorded in Delhi during 1975-2000 with 7.27 per cent per annum. Mumbai stands second with 5.07 per cent growth rate per annum in same time period. Total three urban agglomerations of India; Delhi, Mumbai, and Kolkata are rapidly growing, and the projected annual growth rates show that during 1975-2025, these three will have first, second and third rank respectively. The attributes of higher growth of urban population in Delhi can be explained by migration of people from neighbouring states as well as from other part of nation and reclassification of villages into towns.

### **2.3 URBANISATION IN DELHI (AS URBAN AGGLOMERATION) IN NATIONAL CONTEXT (1991-2011):**

According to the Census of India, 2011:

*“Urban Agglomeration is a continuous urban spread constituting a town and its adjoining outgrowths (OGs), or two or more physically contiguous towns together with or without outgrowths of such towns. An Urban Agglomeration must consist of at least a statutory town and its population (i.e. all the constituents put together) should not be less than 20000 as per the 2001 Census”.*

The total number of urban agglomeration in 2011 census is 475. In 2001 Census, there were 384 UAs. 91 more UAs were added to the recent census. Table 2.3 provides detail of UAs during last three census period 1991 to 2011.

**Table-2.2 Top Ten Urban Agglomerations (UAs) in India**

Urban Agglomerations	Total Population			Decadal Growth Rate		AAGR	
	1991	2001	2011*	1991-2001	2001-2011	1991-2001	2001-2011
1. Greater Mumbai	1,25,96,243	1,64,34,386	1,84,14,288	30.47	12.05	2.66	1.14
2. Kolkata	1,10,21,918	1,32,05,697	1,41,12,536	19.81	6.87	1.81	0.66
3. Delhi	84,19,084	1,28,77,470	1,63,14,838	52.96	26.69	4.25	2.37
4. Chennai	54,21,985	65,60,242	86,96,010	20.99	32.56	1.91	2.82
5. Hyderabad	43,44,437	57,42,036	77,49,334	32.17	34.96	2.79	3.00
6. Bangalore	41,30,288	57,01,446	84,99,399	38.04	49.07	3.22	3.99
7. Ahmadabad	33,12,216	45,25,013	63,52,254	36.62	40.38	3.12	3.39
8. Pune	24,93,987	37,60,636	50,49,968	50.79	34.28	4.11	2.95
9. Surat	15,18,950	28,11,614	45,85,367	85.10	63.09	6.16	4.89
10. Kanpur	20,29,889	27,15,555	29,20,067	33.78	7.53	2.91	0.73

Source: Computed from Census of India, A-Series, Paper-2, Vol-2, \*Figures for 2011 are provisional.

In all three census time periods, Greater Mumbai is the biggest urban agglomeration in India in terms of total population. Till 2001, Delhi has third rank but the current provisional population figure from 2011 census shows that now, Delhi has second rank and the difference between Greater Mumbai and Delhi has reduced to 2.1 million only. In top 4 UAs, Delhi had highest decadal growth rate during 1991-2001 followed by Greater Mumbai. In this period, only Surat had high decadal growth in comparison to Delhi in top 10 UAs. The decadal growth rates during 2001-2011 show that, except Chennai, Hyderabad, Bangalore and Ahmadabad, decadal rates are declining in most of the urban agglomerations. The decadal growth rate of Delhi during 2001-11 was half of that of the previous census decade. The situation is same for Kolkata and Greater Mumbai also. The annual exponential growth rate for Delhi was 4.25 during 1991-2001 which was highest in top 4 UAs, but it has declined to 2.37 during 2001-2011. All other urban agglomerations also have declining annual exponential growth rates during 2001-2011 except Chennai, Hyderabad, Bangalore and Ahmadabad. Therefore the trends are same as decadal growth rates.

The slowdown in the growth of urban agglomerations is a manifestation of an exclusionary urbanisation in the country, prohibiting or discouraging in-migration of persons in low social and economic categories from gaining foothold in the cities and diverting the share of total investible resource for infrastructure and civic amenities in

favour of urban elites (Kundu, 2011b). The declining decadal and annual exponential growth rate of Delhi is the best example of the exclusionary policy for urban migrants in India. Due to high land prices, it is nearly impossible for a migrant to purchase a decent house in Delhi; therefore most of the migrant populations in Delhi live in informal settlements from independence. In this context, informal settlements are not new to Delhi and neither are their eviction process but last two and half decade shows an entirely different policy approach. Between 1990 and 2003, 51461 houses were demolished in Delhi under “slum clearance” scheme and between 2004 and 2007, 45000 homes were demolished. Since 2007, eviction notices have been served on at least three other large settlements. Fewer than half of these evictions resulted in any kind of resettlement or other rehabilitations. Therefore the degree and nature of eviction itself suggest that policies of urban development in Delhi become more hostile towards rural migrants, and the declining in the growth rate is directly attributed to it (Bhan, 2014).

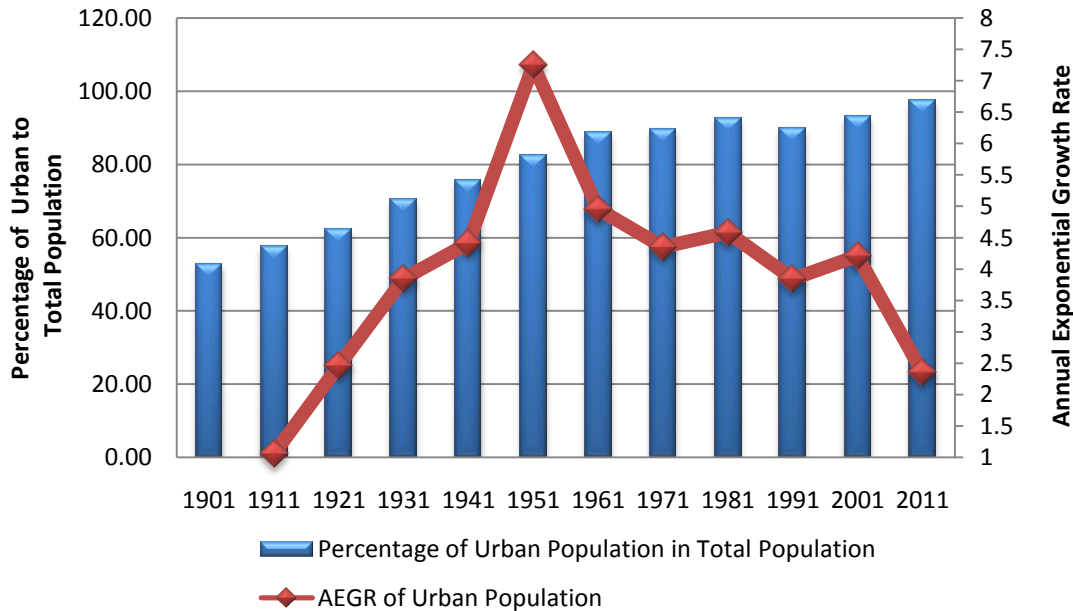
#### **2.4 VOLUME AND TRENDS OF URBANISATION IN NCT OF DELHI:**

Historically, Delhi was a central place to different type of urban activities. After the transfer of British Capital from Kolkata (earlier known as Calcutta) to Delhi in 1911 and then after independence, as capital of independent India; Delhi has become a central place to all type of administrative activities. The Parliament of India, Supreme Court, Offices of different Central Ministries and Institutions are located in Delhi. Therefore, after the independence, Delhi has attracted to the most of the affluent population of the country. A large section of poor strata of the society has also migrated to Delhi in search of livelihood and has started to live in different slums (JJ-Clusters). This amazing composition can be seen through the volume and trends of urbanisation in Delhi.

At the start of 20<sup>th</sup> century, the data of 1901 census shows that the urban population of Delhi was 2.14 lakhs which were 52.76 per cent of the total population. Thereafter, an increasing trend has been found till independence. Both decadal growth rate and annual exponential growth rate was increasing with each census year. In the first census after independence (1951), Delhi had witnessed a sudden growth in its urban population and this can be explained by the partition of India-Pakistan. A large number of people from Pakistan migrated to Delhi and started to live in squatters. During this time

period, Delhi had experienced a rapid growth of squatters in which these migrants lived (Kundu, 2004).

**Figure-2.1 Trends of Urbanisation in NCT of Delhi**



*Source: Computed from Census of India, A-Series, Paper-2 Rural-Urban Distribution*

According to 1951 Census, total 82.40 per cent population lived in urban areas in Delhi. During 1941-51, the decadal growth rate of urban population was 106.58 per cent which is highest till the last census. The annual exponential growth rate at 1951 census was 7.3 per cent which is also highest. In next three census year (1961 to 1981), the percentage of urban population to total population was consistently increasing and reached to 92.73 per cent. The decadal growth rates were also above 50 per cent. In 1991 Census, the percentage of urban population to total population declined to 89.93 per cent and it was the first census year after independence in which the decadal growth rate and annual exponential growth rate significantly declined and reached to 46.87 per cent and 3.8 per cent respectively. Although, in next two census years (2001 and 2011) the percentage share of urban population into total population has increased again, but the decadal growth rate and annual exponential growth rate was improved only in 2001 census. The recent census of 2011 shows the highest decline in decadal growth rate and annual exponential growth rate which can be attributed to the exclusionary urbanisation policies adopted by the government in last one and half decade.

### 2.4.1 Degree of Urbanisation:

The degree of urbanisation is defined as relative number of people who live in urban areas. The most common measure used for the degree of urbanisation is Urban-Rural Ratio. It is a ratio of percentage of urban population into total population  $[(U/P)*100]$  and percentage of rural population into total population  $[(R/P)*100]$ . Therefore Urban-Rural Ratio is  $[(U/R)*100]$ . The ratio U/P has a lower limit of 0 and an upper limit of 1 ( $0 < U/P < 1$ ). If this index is 0, it means that total population is rural, and if this index is 1, it means that the total population is urban. Urban-Rural Ratio is a simple index measuring the total number of urbanites for each rural person. The Urban-Rural ratio has a lower limit of zero and an upper limit of infinity ( $0 < U/R < \infty$ ). Theoretically upper limit for Urban-Rural Ratio will be infinite when there is no rural population ( $R=0$ )- situation which is nearly impossible (Datta, 2006).

**Table-2.3 Degree/Index of Urbanisation**

Census Year	Percentage of Urban Population	Percentage of Rural Population	Urban-Rural Ratio (in Per cent)
1901	52.76	47.24	111.69
1911	57.50	42.50	135.27
1921	62.32	37.68	165.42
1931	70.33	29.67	236.99
1941	75.79	24.21	313.02
1951	82.40	17.60	468.22
1961	88.75	11.25	788.56
1971	89.70	10.30	871.09
1981	92.73	7.27	1275.57
1991	89.93	10.07	892.67
2001	93.18	6.82	1366.09
2011	97.50	2.50	3906.27

*Source: Computed from Census of India, A-Series, Paper-2 Rural-Urban Distribution of Population.*

In context of Delhi, the percentage share of rural population into total population has always been low. Although at the beginning of 20<sup>th</sup> century, data from 1901 census shows that the gap between the share of the urban and rural population into total population was not very much, but with each successive census year, the share of rural population declined very fast, and the gap has widened. In 1901, the percentage of the urban population into total population was 52.76 per cent while the percentage of the

rural population into total population was 47.24 per cent. The 1951 census data, which was the first census after the independence of India, show that the percentage of the urban population into total population increased to 82.40 per cent while the percentage of the rural population into total population declined to 17.60 per cent. Therefore gap between these two was much more. With each census year, gap has also widened more. The recent census data of 2011 shows that now 97.50 per cent of the population of Delhi lives in urban areas while only 2.50 per cent lives in rural areas.

The Urban-Rural Ratio shows that in 1901, only 112 urbanites were there for every 100 ruralites. This ratio has increased with each census year. In 1951, total 468 urbanites were in Delhi for every 100 ruralites. The recent data from 2011 census shows that Urban-Rural ratio has reached to 3906 which means there are 3906 urbanites in NCT of Delhi against every 100 ruralites. The figures from urban-rural ratio show the rapid rate of urbanisation in Delhi because of which it has reached to the second rank among top ten urban agglomerations in the world.

#### **2.4.2 Pace of Urbanisation:**

The pace of urbanisation in any place is recognised by the comparison of the annual exponential growth rates of urban population, total population and rural population at a time period. During the process of urbanisation, it is natural that the  $RGUP > RGTP > RGRP$ , where RGUP is the rate of growth of urban population, RGTP is the rate of growth of total population and RGRP is the rate of growth of rural population.

**Table-2.4 Pace of Urbanisation**

Year	Annual Expo. Growth Rate (in %) Of Total Pop. (RGTP)	Annual Expo. Growth Rate (in %) Of Urban Pop. (RGUP)	Annual Expo. Growth Rate (in %) Of Rural Pop. (RGRP)
1901-1911	0.20	1.06	-0.86
1911-1921	1.66	2.46	0.45
1921-1931	2.64	3.85	0.26
1931-1941	3.67	4.41	1.63
1941-1951	6.42	7.26	3.23
1951-1961	4.22	4.96	-0.26
1961-1971	4.25	4.36	3.36
1971-1981	4.25	4.58	0.77
1981-1991	4.15	3.84	7.41
1991-2001	3.85	4.21	-0.05
2001-2011	1.92	2.38	-8.13

*Source: Computed from Census of India, A-Series, Paper-2 Rural-Urban Distribution of Population.*

The annual exponential growth rate of the total, urban and rural population from 1901-1911 to 2001-2011 show that except 1981-1991, in most of the census decades,  $RGUP > RGTP > RGRP$ . It reveals that the urban population in Delhi grew with the faster pace as compared to the total and rural population. During 1941-1951, the pace of urbanisation in Delhi was highest because of the high influx of refugee migrants from Pakistan migrated to Delhi after partition. After independence the pace of urbanisation in NCT of Delhi is consistent as the annual exponential growth rate of urban population in different census decades are still high in comparison to total population and rural population. Over the census years, the annual exponential growth rates of the rural population are declining because of more and more rural areas in NCT of Delhi are reclassified into urban areas.

### 2.5 SPATIAL PATTERN OF URBANISATION IN NCT OF DELHI:

Till 1991 census, Delhi was a single district territory. Government of Delhi created 9 districts and 27 sub-divisions in 1996 through Gazette notification. Therefore, 2001 census was first in which population census was conducted in all 9 districts and 27 sub-divisions.

**Table-2.5 Spatial Pattern of Urbanisation in NCT of Delhi**

Districts	2001		2011	
	Percentage of Rural Population in total Population	Percentage of Urban Population in total Population	Percentage of Rural Population in total Population	Percentage of Urban Population in total Population
<b>NCT of Delhi</b>	<b>6.82</b>	<b>93.18</b>	<b>2.50</b>	<b>97.50</b>
North West	9.28	90.72	5.85	94.15
North	5.96	94.04	2.00	98.00
North East	8.01	91.99	0.96	99.04
East	1.25	98.75	0.21	99.79
New Delhi	0	100	0	100
Central	0	100	0	100
West	4.08	95.92	0.25	99.75
South West	12.85	87.15	6.27	93.73
South	7.09	92.91	0.45	99.55

*Source: Computed from Primary Census Abstract of Delhi, 2001 and 2011.*

Most of the districts of NCT of Delhi show very high share of urban population in both census period 2001 and 2011. Two Districts, New Delhi and Central Delhi are full

urbanised as both have 100 per cent urban population in 2001 and 2011 census. In 2001 Census, except South West Delhi, all other 8 districts had above 90 per cent urban population and this share has increased in 2011 census in which, four districts (South Delhi, West Delhi, East Delhi and North East Delhi) have above 99 per cent urban population. The reason behind the high and increasing share of urban population in different districts of NCT of Delhi is resettlement of Jhuggi-Jhopri clusters in peripheral districts and consistent reclassification of villages into towns. The percentage share of urban population into total population for different districts does not reveal the exact spatial pattern of urban population.

To know, in which direction the urban population is going for different districts of NCT of Delhi, decadal growth rate and annual exponential growth rate of each district is necessary. The two fully urban district of NCT of Delhi- New Delhi and Central Delhi, which are in the core of NCT of Delhi, are experiencing negative decadal as well as annual growth rate for urban population. South West District has highest decadal and annual exponential growth rate for the urban population during 2001-2011. Four districts, South West Delhi, North East Delhi, North West Delhi and South Delhi, have high decadal and annual exponential growth rate for urban population in comparison to overall decadal and annual exponential growth rate of the urban population of NCT of Delhi.

**Table-2.6 District-wise Growth Rate of Population in NCT of Delhi**

Districts	Annual Exponential Growth Rate (in %) (2001-2011)			Decadal Growth Rate (in %) (2001-2011)		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
<b>NCT of Delhi</b>	<b>1.92</b>	<b>-8.13</b>	<b>2.38</b>	<b>21.21</b>	<b>-55.64</b>	<b>26.83</b>
North West	2.45	-2.15	2.82	27.81	-19.37	32.64
North	1.28	-9.65	1.69	13.62	-61.91	18.41
North East	2.37	-18.83	3.11	26.78	-84.79	36.49
East	1.55	-16.41	1.66	16.79	-80.63	18.02
New Delhi	-2.32		-2.32	-20.72		-20.72
Central	-1.04		-1.04	-9.91		-9.91
West	1.78	-26.04	2.17	19.46	-92.60	24.23
South West	2.67	-4.51	3.40	30.65	-36.27	40.51
South	1.87	-25.79	2.56	20.51	-92.42	29.13

*Source: Computed from Primary Census Abstract of Delhi, 2001 and 2011.*

The pattern of decadal and annual exponential growth rate of urban population in different districts of NCT of Delhi shows that in the core of NCT of Delhi, growth of



urban population reached to saturation point because of high land value, eviction and demolition process of slum population during last two decades.

In contrast, the growth rates of peripheral districts are high during 2001-2011 which can be explained by the resettlements of many Jhuggi-Jhopri clusters (JJ-Clusters) in these districts especially after Commonwealth Games. It is near to impossible for a new migrant to have a decent house in the core of the city. Therefore, after spending two-three year on rent in some JJ-Cluster in peripheral districts, they started to build or purchase their own Jhuggi in the same cluster and by this way; the urban population living in the JJ-Clusters is increasing. The second important point is that, in most of the peripheral district, rural villages are classified into towns in 2011 census and therefore adding more urban population into these districts. The declining growth rates of rural population in all districts are because of the reclassification of villages into towns.

## **2.6 TEMPORAL CHANGES IN INTERNAL MIGRATION IN NCT OF DELHI:**

The two main sources of migration data in India are Census and National Sample Surveys. Census of India provides data on migration, on the basis of *place of birth (POB)* and *place of last residence (POLR)* of a person. If the *place of birth or place of last residence* of a person is different from the place of enumeration, he/she is counted as a migrant at the place of enumeration. *Place of last residence (POLR)* is most commonly used measure to determine the migration status of a person by scholars. In case of National Sample Surveys, the concept of *last Usual Place of Residence (LUPR)* is adopted. A last usual place of residence is defined as a place where the person had stayed continuously for a period of six months or more. If the *last usual place of residence* of a person is different from the place of enumeration then, he/she will be enumerated as migrant, at the place of enumeration (Bhagat, 2005). In Table 2.7, Migration rates for lifetime migrants based on place of last residence for census and usual place of last residence for National sample survey have been shown.

The recent 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS data (2007-08) estimates that total 326 million internal migrants are in India which is 28.32 per cent of the total population. However, the migration rate for urban areas in India is 35.08 per cent. As compared to the national figures, the internal migration rate of NCT of Delhi is much higher for total as well as for urban areas. The total internal migration rate in NCT of Delhi is 41.64 per cent in 2007-

08 which is around 13 per cent more to the national figure. The migration rate in urban areas of NCT of Delhi is 42.27 per cent which is around 7 per cent more to the national figure.

**Table-2.7 Migration Rates (Internal Lifetime Migrants) in NCT of Delhi by Gender and Residence (in per cent) 1981-2007-08**

	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female
1981*	42.17	41.73	42.72	36.24	22.93	52.68	42.64	43.20	41.93
1991*	36.27	35.60	37.08	42.94	36.22	51.26	35.53	35.53	35.52
2001*	41.41	41.88	40.84	47.33	41.69	54.29	40.98	41.89	39.86
2007-08**	41.64	41.64	41.65	33.87	28.18	40.67	42.27	42.70	41.73

*Source: \*Computed from Migration tables, Census of India (1981-2001), \*\* Computed from the unit level data of National Sample Survey, 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). The data is for lifetime migrants and according to place of last residence for census and usual place of residence for NSS and unclassified migrants are included in total, rural and urban figures.*

The trends of internal migration in NCT of Delhi show that although the migration rate is high in comparison to national figure, but it is almost stagnant during 1981 to 2007-08. In 1991 Census, it declined also. The total internal migration rates for both genders are more or less equal. The internal migration rates for rural and urban areas show that in 1981 census, the urban migration rates were high in comparison to rural migration rates but thereafter, in two consecutive census years, the rural migration rates were high in comparison to urban migration rates. The recent NSS data of 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) show a sharp decline in the rural migration rates and therefore now, urban migration rates have surpassed the rural migration rates. The earlier trend of high migration rate in rural areas can be explained by the differences in the land prices and rents in rural and urban areas in NCT of Delhi. The land prices and rents in rural areas were comparatively low because of which, migrants preferred to settle in these areas but over the time of period these rural villages are reclassified into urban areas and become urban. It can be one of the causes of recent decline in rural migration rates and increment in urban migration rates.

The trends of migration rates for male and female in rural as well as in urban areas of NCT of Delhi provides an interesting picture. As compared to urban areas, the female migration rates were always high in rural areas which can be linked to the marriage migration. It is also one of the causes of high rural migration rates. Contrary, the

trend of male migration rates in rural and urban areas is inconsistent. In 1981, the urban male migration rate was high in comparison to rural male migration rate but in next two census years, the gap between urban and rural male migration rate was narrowed down and both were almost equal. The recent 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS shows a sharp decline in rural male migration rate and an increment in urban male migration rate. The rural migration rates show an increasing trend till 2001 census; however the urban migration rates are increasing after 1991.

Except the recent decline in rural migration rates for total as well as male and female in Delhi, a consistent increment has been found in the migration rates in Delhi especially in urban areas after 1991. The government of India adopted economic reforms in 1991 which link the Indian economy to global economy. Both the proponents and opponents of economic reforms believe that economic reforms would lead to high rural - urban migration (Bhagat & Mohanty, 2009). The gap between rural and urban areas has widened after economic reforms in terms of economic development (Pandey, 2011). The economic reforms boosted the infrastructure development and other investments largely to the metropolitan cities, and Delhi is one of them. The growth in tertiary sector and subsequently the demand of labour in informal sector increased the rural-urban migration towards metropolitan cities (Parida & Madheswaran, 2010). The consistent increment in the urban male migration rate in NCT of Delhi after economic reforms can be reflection of the above process. In Delhi, the female migration rates in urban areas are also more or less equal to male and increasing over time period. Many studies (Shanthi, 1991; Neetha, 2004; Sundari, 2005; Shanthi, 2006; Kaur, 2006) show that pattern of urban female migration in India is changing and now, more female migrants are migrating to metro cities for economic and study purpose. The increasing female migration rates in urban areas in Delhi can be result of this changing pattern.

### **2.6.1 Streams of Internal migration in NCT of Delhi by distance traversed:**

The total internal migration in NCT of Delhi can broadly be divided into four different streams i.e. rural to rural, urban to rural, rural to urban and urban to urban. In which rural to rural and urban to rural constitute total internal rural migrants while rural to urban and urban to urban constitute total internal urban migrants. Similarly, from the point of view of distance traversed, it can be classified as intra-state (intra-district and inter-district) and

inter-state migration. In context of Delhi where till 1991 only one district was there, segregation of intra-state data in intra-district and inter-district is not possible, therefore only aggregate figure is given in the following table for intra-state migration stream.

**Table- 2.8 Percentage Share of Internal Migrants in each stream in NCT of Delhi by Gender and Distance Traversed**

Streams of Migration	Stream-Wise percentage share of Internal Migrants											
	Persons				Males				Females			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2007-2008**	1981	1991	2001	2007-2008	1981	1991	2001	2007-2008
<b>R-R</b>	4.94	7.99	5.83	3.97	3.02	6.64	5.05	3.24	7.26	9.55	6.83	4.86
<b>U-R</b>	1.33	3.95	2.09	2.06	0.98	3.73	1.87	1.72	1.75	4.20	2.37	2.49
<b>R-U</b>	43.31	47.38	61.03	55.91	47.47	51.45	64.58	57.50	38.29	42.65	56.56	53.95
<b>U-U</b>	50.42	40.69	31.05	38.06	48.53	38.18	28.50	37.55	52.70	43.59	34.24	38.70
<b>Total</b>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Intra-State</b>												
<b>R-R</b>	5.23	23.75	11.19	1.79	1.97	15.64	7.26	0.17	8.72	30.67	14.81	3.32
<b>U-R</b>	6.33	54.06	21.92	4.47	4.61	60.43	22.84	2.89	8.18	48.63	21.07	5.97
<b>R-U</b>	4.38	6.51	13.62	5.19	3.54	6.09	12.38	5.19	5.28	6.88	14.75	5.19
<b>U-U</b>	84.06	15.67	53.28	88.55	89.88	17.84	57.52	91.75	77.82	13.83	49.37	85.52
<b>Total</b>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Inter-State</b>												
<b>R-R</b>	4.90	7.27	5.56	4.55	3.16	6.29	4.95	3.95	7.03	8.43	6.33	5.36
<b>U-R</b>	0.62	1.68	1.06	1.41	0.50	1.55	0.94	1.44	0.77	1.84	1.22	1.37
<b>R-U</b>	48.82	49.23	63.49	69.63	53.30	53.19	66.90	69.58	43.32	44.56	59.14	69.70
<b>U-U</b>	45.66	41.82	29.89	24.40	43.04	38.97	27.21	25.03	48.88	45.18	33.31	23.57
<b>Total</b>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: \*Computed from Migration tables, Census of India (1981-2001), \*\* Computed from the unit level data of National Sample Survey, 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). R-R is Rural to Rural, U-R is Urban to Rural, R-U is Rural to Urban and U-U is Urban to Urban.

The stream-wise percentage distribution of internal migration shows that the percentage share of rural to urban and urban to urban migrants are very high in total internal migration as compared to rural to rural and urban to rural streams. The percentage share of rural to urban migrants was increasing over time period except the recent 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) in which a decline has been found. In opposite, the percentage share of urban to urban migrants was declining over time period but an increment has been found in 2007-08. The gender-wise percentage distribution of migrants in all four streams show that in male, the percentage share is highest in rural to urban stream followed by urban to urban. The trend of percentage share of male migrants

in these two streams (rural to urban and urban to urban) over time is same as in total (persons). In case of female, the percentage share was higher in urban to urban stream till 1991 but afterward the rural to urban stream dominated in all four streams. The overall pattern shows that the rural to urban and urban to urban streams which constitute the total urban migration have 80-90 per cent share in total internal migration in all time period. The gender wise percentage distribution also follows the same pattern.

In intra-state migration, the percentage share of urban to urban stream is highest as compared to the other streams thorough out the period except for 1991 census, where, urban to rural migration stream has high percentage share. This is same for both male and female. The only difference is that the percentage share of male urban to urban migration is relatively higher as compared to the females. In Delhi, the high percentage share of urban to urban migration in intra-state category is because of the higher urbanisation rate. In Delhi, 97.50 per cent population lives in urban areas and therefore intra-state migration mostly happened in urban to urban stream.

In inter-state migration category, the share of rural to urban migration is highest in all four streams from 1981 to 2007-08 and it is increasing also. For male, the percentage share of rural to urban migration increased from 53.30 per cent in 1981 to 69.58 per cent in 2007-08 while for female, it increased from 43.32 per cent to 69.70 per cent respectively. The second important stream in inter-state migration category is urban to urban in which the percentage share is high after rural to urban. The gap between the share of these two streams widened after 1991 and the share of rural to urban migration increased very much. It is clear from above table that, in all four streams, rural to urban and urban to urban stream dominate in different distance category i.e. intra-state and inter-state in comparison to rural to rural and urban to rural. The high percentage share of migrants in rural to urban and urban to urban streams in total internal migrants and inter-state migrants category shows that Delhi is still one of the preferred destination for migrants.

### **2.6.2 Reasons of Migration in NCT of Delhi:**

Census of India started to collect the reasons of migration data from 1981 census. In this census, data for reasons of migration was collected under employment, education, family moved, marriage and others categories. In 1991 census, business and natural calamities

like drought, floods etc. were added with the above mentioned reasons. In next Census 2001, natural calamities was dropped as reason of migration and two other reasons (moved with birth and moved with household) were added as reasons of migration. Therefore, census of India collected reasons of migration under work/employment, Business, Education, Marriage, Moved with birth, Moved with household and any other reasons categories in 2001.

**Table-2.9 Reasons of Migration in Census of India (1981-2001)**

<b>Census 1981</b>	<b>Census 1991</b>	<b>Census 2001</b>
1. Employment	1. Employment	1. Work/Employment
2. Education	2. Business	2. Business
3. Family Moved	3. Education	3. Education
4. Marriage	4. Family Moved	4. Marriage
5. Others	5. Marriage	5. Moved with Birth
	6. Natural Calamities like Drought, Floods etc.	6. Moved with Household
	7. Others	7. Any Other Reasons

Source: Census of India, D Series (Migration tables).

The national sample surveys collect reasons of migration in very detail manner. The employment related reasons are collected under in search of employment, in search of better employment, business, to take up employment/better employment, transfer of services/contract and proximity to place of work categories.

**Table-2.10 Reasons of Migration in National Sample Survey**

<b>1. Employment Related Reasons</b>	<b>2. Studies</b>
(A) In search of Employment	<b>3. Forced Migration</b>
(B) In search of Better Employment	(A) Natural Disaster
(C) Business	(B) Social Political Problem
(D) To take up employment/Better Employment	(C) Displacement by development Projects
(E) Transfer of service/Contract	<b>4. Acquisition of own house/flats</b>
(F) Proximity to Place of Work	<b>5. housing problems</b>
<b>6. Health Care</b>	<b>7. Post Retirement</b>
<b>8. Marriage</b>	<b>9. Migration of Parent/earning member of family</b>
<b>10. Other</b>	

Source: National Sample Survey, 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

Along with employment related reasons NSS collects data for different reasons of migration under Studies; Forced Migration in which migration because of natural disaster, social/political problems and displacement by development projects are included; Acquisition of own house/flat; Housing problems; Migration for Health care; Post Retirement; Marriage, migration of parents/earning member of the family and other categories.

For the present study purpose, the reasons of migration in NCT of Delhi provided by Census and NSS data are classified into five categories:

**(1) Employment Related Reasons:** In this category, the two reasons provided by census (work/employment and business) have been added to create employment related reasons and for NSS, all employment related reasons have been clubbed to create employment related reasons.

**(2) Education/Studies,**

**(3) Marriage,**

**(4) Associational Migration:** The three reasons provided in different census (family moved, moved with birth and moved with household) have been added to create associational Migration while for NSS, the moved with the parents/earning member of the family has been used as association migration.

**(5) Other Reasons:** All other reasons provided in Census and NSS are added in this category.

In the following table, the reasons of migration are provided for two streams rural to urban and urban to urban which constitute the total urban migrants. In rural to urban stream, employment related reasons are the main cause of migration followed by associational migration. Over the time period, the percentage share is increasing in these two reasons. The percentage share of employment related reasons increased from 39.71 per cent in 1981 to 42.36 per cent in 2007-08, while the percentage share of associational migration increased from 34.14 per cent to 39.09 per cent in the same time period. The gender wise percentage distribution of reasons of migration in rural-urban category shows that in male, the pattern is same as in total. Employment related reasons are the main cause of rural-urban male migration followed by associational migration. The percentage share of rural-urban male migration for employment related reasons is

increasing over the time period and reached from 62.39 per cent in 1981 to 73.17 per cent in 2007-08. In the same time period, the percentage share in association migration is declining for rural-urban male migrants from 24 per cent to 20.59 per cent.

**Table-2.11 Reasons of migration for Internal urban migrants in NCT of Delhi by Streams and Gender**

Year	Rural-Urban						Urban-Urban					
	Reasons of Migration											
	Employment Related Reasons	Education	Marriage	Associational Migration	Others	Total	Employment Related Reasons	Education	Marriage	Associational Migration	Others	Total
<b>Persons</b>												
1981*	39.71	2.58	13.46	34.14	10.10	100	23.63	2.44	13.89	46.34	13.70	100
1991*	41.38	1.39	16.78	36.45	3.99	100	31.50	1.64	22.95	38.44	5.47	100
2001*	41.76	0.99	14.30	35.63	7.32	100	28.62	2.57	19.02	39.11	10.68	100
2007-08**	42.63	2.17	13.98	39.09	2.12	100	23.86	1.20	13.93	42.73	18.28	100
<b>Males</b>												
1981	62.39	3.16	0.35	24.00	10.10	100	40.77	2.97	0.39	40.96	14.90	100
1991	68.41	1.85	0.44	25.27	4.03	100	58.77	2.27	0.63	31.84	6.48	100
2001	67.73	1.43	0.24	22.17	8.43	100	51.40	3.76	0.37	31.71	12.76	100
2007-08	73.17	3.82	0.07	20.59	2.35	100	41.68	2.15	0.21	30.58	25.37	100
<b>Females</b>												
1981	5.75	1.71	33.10	49.34	10.09	100	4.57	1.84	28.91	52.32	12.36	100
1991	3.55	0.75	39.66	52.10	3.94	100	3.79	1.00	45.64	45.14	4.43	100
2001	4.53	0.36	34.47	54.92	5.72	100	4.80	1.32	38.52	46.84	8.52	100
2007-08	2.42	-	32.30	63.45	1.83	100	2.74	0.07	30.19	57.12	9.88	100

Source: \*Computed from Migration tables, Census of India (1981-2001), \*\* Computed from the unit level data of National Sample Survey, 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

In contrast to male, the main reason of rural-urban female migration is associational migration followed by marriage migration. The percentage share in associational migration is increasing over time period for rural-urban female migrants and reached from 49.34 per cent in 1981 to 63.45 per cent in 2007-08, while in marriage, it has slightly gone down from 33.10 per cent to 32.30 per cent respectively. In compare to male, the percentage share of rural-urban female migration for employment related reasons are still very low.



In urban-urban stream, associational migration is the main cause of migration in total followed by employment related reasons. The percentage share of urban-urban associational migration is declining from 46.34 per cent in 1981 to 42.73 per cent in 2007-08 while, during the same time period, the percentage share for employment related reasons is stagnant (around 23 per cent) except for 1991 and 2001 in which it has increased to 31.50 per cent and 28.62 per cent respectively. The gender wise percentage distribution of the urban-urban migration stream by different reasons of migration shows that in this stream also, employment related reasons and associational migration are the main causes of male migration. The percentage share of employment related urban-urban male migration is low as compared to the rural-urban male migration; however, the percentage share of urban-urban associational migration in male is relatively high as compared to the rural-urban male migration. In the case of females, the two most prominent reasons for urban-urban migration are same as rural-urban migration which is associational migration and marriage.

The percentage share of migration for Education/Studies is higher in male in compare to female for both streams. It shows that in Indian society, families are still reluctant to send their daughters very far especially metro cities for study. Over all, it can be concluded that employment related reasons and associational migration are the main cause of male migration in NCT of Delhi in both rural-urban and urban-urban streams while marriage and associational migration are the main cause of female migration in both streams.

### **2.6.3 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Urban Migrants in NCT of Delhi:**

Heterogeneity is the main character of Indian society especially for urban India because a wide range of people from different age-groups, religion, social groups, sects and linguistic groups come to urban areas and live together (Pandey, 2015). Delhi is the perfect example for the heterogeneous character of the urban society where people from different part of India have found space in different time period. From north India to south India and from east to west, migrants come to Delhi in search of their fortune. To show the characteristics of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi, migrants are classified according to their age-groups, social groups, religions, marital status, educational attainments, employment status (before and after migration). In the last three rounds of

NSS, 49<sup>th</sup> and 55<sup>th</sup> is not taken into consideration for the present analysis, because 49<sup>th</sup> round is a half year round and in 55<sup>th</sup> round, sample for Delhi is very low. Therefore, the present analysis has been done with the recent 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS (2007-08) data on migration. The percentage distribution of the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi according to their socio-economic characteristics is as follows:

**A) Age-Groups:** Age is an important variable in migration studies because it affects the composition and productivity of the population both at origin and destination places. It has been found in different studies (Zachariah, 1968; Kothari, 1980, Oberai & Singh, 1983, Yadava, 1989) that adults from rural areas are more prone to migrate towards urban centres than the people of other age-groups in search of employment and for studies purpose. For the present analysis, urban migrants are classified into 0-14, 15-29, 30-44, 45-59, 60-74 and 75+ age-groups. The percentage distribution of urban migrants according to their age-groups shows that most of the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi are in working age-groups i.e. 15 to 59, among which, the highest percentage share of the urban migrants is in 30-44 age-groups followed by 15-29 and 45-59.

The male-female differentials by age-groups show that the percentage share of the urban male migrants is highest in 15-29 age-groups followed by 30-44 and 45-59. However, the percentage share of the urban female migrants is highest in 30-44 age-groups followed by 15-29 and 45-59. It shows that among urban migrants, males are more in younger age-groups as compared to the females. The main reason of high percentage of urban male migrants in 15-29 age-groups can be explained by employment related migration to Delhi and migration for studies purpose in this age-group while for females, it can be mainly marriage. It can be observed through the percentage distribution of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi by age-groups that the percentage share of urban migrants in older age-groups is very low in total as well as in male and female.

**B) Social-Groups:** The social-groups wise percentage distribution of the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi shows that the highest percentage share of the urban migrant is in Other category followed by Other backward castes (OBCs) and Scheduled Castes (SCs). However, the Scheduled Tribes (STs) have lowest percentage share in urban migrants. This pattern is same for both genders also. It clearly indicates that migration towards metropolitan cities in India still needs strong social networking and monetary assistance.

**Table-2.12 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Urban Migrants in NCT of Delhi**

Socio-Economic Characteristics		Males	Females	Persons
Age-Groups	0-14	9.81	8.21	9.10
	15-29	37.56	29.01	33.78
	30-44	31.48	38.94	34.78
	45-59	14.06	14.73	14.36
	60-74	5.99	8.27	7.00
	75+	1.10	0.82	0.98
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100
Social Groups	ST	1.32	0.50	0.96
	SC	20.44	20.64	20.53
	OBC	22.25	23.83	22.95
	OTHERS	55.99	55.03	55.57
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100
Religions	Hindu	85.04	84.86	84.96
	Muslim	11.07	10.95	11.02
	Sikh	1.68	1.80	1.73
	Christians	0.23	0.12	0.18
	Others	1.98	2.27	2.11
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100
Marital Status	Never Married	37.46	14.96	27.49
	Currently Married	61.13	78.77	68.95
	Widowed	1.28	6.12	3.43
	Divorced/Separated	0.13	0.15	0.14
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100
Educational Attainments	Illiterate	10.45	34.20	20.96
	Primary	39.34	32.05	36.11
	Secondary	32.16	21.59	27.48
	Graduation & Above	18.05	12.16	15.45
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100
Usual Principal activity Status Before Migration	Self-Employed	17.00	0.17	9.55
	Regular Wage/Salaried	16.13	1.23	9.53
	Casual Labour	5.90	0.13	3.35
	<b>Total Employed</b>	<b>39.03</b>	<b>1.53</b>	<b>22.43</b>
	Unemployed	25.90	0.88	14.83
	Not in Labour Force	35.07	97.59	62.74
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100
Usual Principal activity Status After Migration	Self-Employed	26.26	0.64	14.92
	Regular Wage/Salaried	44.11	4.39	26.53
	Casual Labour	5.94	0.46	3.51
	<b>Total Employed</b>	<b>76.30</b>	<b>5.49</b>	<b>44.96</b>
	Unemployed	0.91	0.08	0.54
	Not in Labour Force	22.79	94.43	54.50
	<b>Total</b>	100	100	100

Source: Computed from Unit level data of NSS, 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08)

Historically, the social structure of the Indian Society has forbidden certain castes from acquiring/owning any form of property. These castes are also largely excluded from attending formal education and acquiring human capital (Dubey *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, they are most deprived in terms of education, land and other assets at origin. They also don't have established social networks which can help them in the different stages of migration. The lowest percentage share of OBCs, SCs and STs in comparison to other category in urban migrants of NCT of Delhi can be linked with deprivation of these castes in terms of social capital and networking.

**C) Religions:** The percentage distribution of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi by different religious groups shows that in total urban migrants, Hindus have highest percentage share followed by Muslims. In total urban migrants in NCT of Delhi, 84.96 per cent are Hindus. However, 11.02 per cent are from Muslim religion. These two religious groups together constitute total 96 per cent of the urban migrants. This pattern is same for both genders also. The urban migrants in NCT of Delhi from other religions like Sikh, Christian and others have very less percentage share in total.

**D) Marital Status:** The percentage share of the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi by marital status shows that the currently married migrants have highest percentage share in total urban migrants. In this category, the percentage share is high for females as compared to the males. The highest share of urban migrants in currently married category can be explained by traditional Indian marriage system, in which males have to bear all the responsibilities of the family, not only as a husband but also as a father and head of the family. In this case, to fulfill the requirements of the family, rural males migrate to metro cities (Singh, 1985; Zachariah, 1968). In case of females, marriage and associational migration after marriage i.e. migration with the earning husband are the main cause of high share of currently married female migrants in total urban female migrants.

The second highest percentage share of urban migrants is in never married category. In this category, the percentage share is very high for males in compare to females. It can be explained by the patriarchal nature of Indian society, in which, unmarried girls are seldom allowed to migrate from the rural area to town or cities to get higher education and make their fortune. For such things, parents quite often allow their

sons to take precedence over their daughters, because the sons are considered as an asset while the daughters are considered as liability in Indian society (Singh, 1986).

**E) Educational Attainments:** For the present analysis, the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi are classified according to their educational attainment levels into following groups: illiterate, primary, secondary, and graduation & above. The percentage share of the urban migrants according to their educational attainment level shows that in total, the percentage share of primary educated urban migrants is highest followed by secondary educated. The gender wise percentage share of the urban migrants by their educational attainment level shows that in male urban migrants, the percentage share of primary educated are highest followed by secondary educated and graduation & above category. However in female urban migrants, the percentage share of illiterates is highest followed by primary and secondary educated. The educational pattern of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi shows that migrants with low educational level are still attracted to metropolitan cities like Delhi, Mumbai and Kolkata in search of employments, as similar trends have been found in the past (Singh, 1985; Kothari, 1980 as cited in Yadava, 1989).

**F) Employment Status (Before and after Migration):** The principal activity status of the migrants (before and after migration) is given in 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS. The percentage distribution of the urban migrants according to their employment status (before and after migration) has been calculated. It shows that before migration to Delhi only 22.43 per cent migrants were employed, among which, 9.55 per cent were self-employed, 9.53 per cent were regular wage/salaried employees and 3.35 per cent were casual labourers. However, total 62.74 per cent were not in labour force and 14.83 per cent were unemployed.

The percentage distribution of the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi according to their after migration employment status shows that after migration to Delhi, the percentage share of employed migrants has doubled as compared to the before migration employment status. Among the employed migrants (after migration), the highest percentage share is for regular wage/salaried employees (26.53 per cent) followed by self-employed (14.92 per cent) and casual labourers (3.51 per cent). It can be easily identified that in comparison to before migration employment status of migrants, the percentage share of the regular wage/salaried employed is much higher after migration to

Delhi. It shows the discernible shift in the status of employment after migration. A sharp decline in the percentage share of the migrants who are unemployed and who are not in labour force is also found after migration. It shows that after migration to Delhi, most of the migrants have got employment.

The male-female differentials of the urban migrants according to their before and after migration employment status shows that before migration to Delhi, the percentage share of the employed males was only 39.09 per cent which has increased to 76.30 per cent after migration to Delhi. Among these employed male migrants, the percentage share of self-employed and regular employed is much higher after migration to Delhi as compared to their before migration employment status. A sharp decline is also found in the percentage share of the unemployed male migrants after migration. The percentage share of the employed female migrants has also improved after migration. It was 1.53 per cent before migration but after migration to Delhi, it is 5.49 per cent, in which, majority of the female are regular wage/salaried employees. The percentage share of the female migrants who were not in labour force before migration has slightly declined after migration. One of the noticeable results is that the gap between male and female in terms of employment has not narrowed down after migration. According to Shanthi (2006), NSS and other large scale surveys are unable to capture the pattern of female employment in urban areas and therefore they are invisible in the official data sources and treated as secondary earner.

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that as compared to before migration employment status of the urban migrants in NCT of Delhi, the percentage share of employed migrants in total as well as in male has significantly increased after migration. The percentage share of the unemployed urban migrants has also significantly declined after migration. It shows that after migration to Delhi, most of the migrants get jobs and because of it, more rural folks migrate to Delhi in search of employment/to take up better employment.

## **2.7 SLUMS IN NCT OF DELHI: AN OVERVIEW FROM 2001 AND 2011 CENSUS DATA:**

Census of India, 2011 defines an area as “*Slum*” on the basis of Section-3 of the Slum Area Improvement and Clearance Act, 1956. According to this act:

*“Slums are mainly those residential areas, where dwellings are in any respect unfit for human habitation by reasons of dilapidation, overcrowding, faulty arrangements and designs of such buildings, narrowness or faulty arrangement of streets, lack of ventilation, light, sanitation facilities or any combination of these factors which are detrimental to safety, health and morals” (Primary Census Abstract for Slum, 2011).*

It was 2001 Census, in which, for the first time slum areas were identified and designated across the country, particularly, in cities and towns who have 50,000 and above population in 1991 Census. In this census, the slum data was also collected for the towns with 20,000 to 49,999 population. Those statutory towns, which had population less than 50,000 in 1991 census, but reported more than 50,000 population in 2001 Census and were not considered for slum enumeration earlier, were also included in 2001 Census. In 2011 Census, the data for slum population has been collected for all statutory towns irrespective of their population size based on the same definition as describe in 2001 Census. The total slum reported towns in India were 1743 in 2001 census which has increased to 2613 in 2011 census. In the case of NCT of Delhi, there were 16 slum reported towns in 2001 Census which has increased to 22.

**Table 2.13 Slum Population and Urban population (All Towns) in NCT of Delhi**

Indicators	Decadal Growth (2001-2011)	Percentage Slum Population in to Total Urban Population (All Towns)	
		2001	2011
<b>Slum Population</b>			
Persons	-12.04	15.73	10.91
Males	-14.56	16.09	11.12
Females	-8.81	15.28	10.66
Sex-Ratio		780	832
<b>Urban Population (All Towns)</b>			
Persons	26.83	100	100
Males	23.65	100	100
Females	30.71	100	100
Sex-Ratio		822	868

*Source: Computed from Census of India, Primary Census Abstract of Slum Population, 2011.*

The figures from above Table show that there is a negative decadal growth in slum population in NCT of Delhi during 2001-2011. The negative decadal growth rate is more in male in compare to total and female slum population. In total urban population (which include all towns), the percentage share of slum population was 15.73 per cent in 2001

which has declined to 10.91 per cent in 2011 census. For male, the percentage of slum population into total urban male population (all towns) was 16.09 per cent in 2001 census which has declined to 11.12 per cent in 2011 Census. However, for Female, the percentage share has declined from 15.28 per cent in 2001 Census to 10.66 per cent in 2011 Census. The increasing sex ratio in slums of NCT of Delhi is a positive sign. In 2001, the sex ratio in slums was 780, which have increased to 832 in 2011.

The analysis of slum population and slum reported towns gives more meaningful picture of slum population in NCT of Delhi. The figures from Table-2.14 show that decadal growth rate of urban population in slum reported towns is much lower in comparison to the decadal growth rate of urban population in all towns during 2001-2011. The percentage of slum population into total population of slum reported towns has also declined. In 2001, total 18 per cent slum population lived in slum reported towns which declined to 13.77 per cent in 2011.

**Table-2.14 Slum Population and Urban Population (Slum Reported Towns)  
in NCT of Delhi**

Indicators	Decadal Growth (2001-2011)	Percentage of Slum Population into Total Urban Population of slum reported towns	
		2001	2011
<b>Slum Population</b>			
<b>Persons</b>	-12.04	18.00	13.77
<b>Males</b>	-14.56	18.43	14.07
<b>Females</b>	-8.81	17.47	13.42
<b>Sex-Ratio</b>		780	832
<b>Urban Population (Slum Reported Towns)</b>			
<b>Persons</b>	15.00	100	100
<b>Males</b>	11.95	100	100
<b>Females</b>	18.71	100	100
<b>Sex-Ratio</b>		823	873

*Source: Computed from Census of India, Primary Census Abstract of Slum Population, 2011*

The percentage of male slum population into total male population of slum reported towns has declined from 18.43 per cent in 2001 to 14.07 per cent in 2011. However, for female, the decline is from 17.47 per cent to 13.42 per cent in the same time duration. Bhan (2009) argues that overall decline in the slum population in NCT of Delhi cannot be seen as positive phenomena because it is not the result of better policy approach toward slums. Contrary, in last one and half decade, unprecedented slum evictions have been



done in NCT of Delhi by different central and Delhi government agencies in the name of “public interest” and with direction of courts. The lack of empathy regarding these evictions among media and the public has also enhanced the vulnerability of slum dwellers in Delhi. The present decline in the slum population in NCT of Delhi is the direct manifestation of the eviction, demolition and resettlement of slums in NCT of Delhi.

### 2.7.1 Literacy Rate and Work Force Participation Rate in Slum and Urban Population of NCT of Delhi

The literacy rate and work force participation rate in any population is one of the important indicators to know the development level of the society. The figures of literacy rate from the following Table show that it is increasing in NCT of Delhi. In 2001, the literacy rate of total slum population was 66.65 per cent which has increased to 75.16 per cent in 2011. The gender-wise differences in literacy rate show that the male population in slum has higher literacy rate in comparison to female. The gap between male literacy rate and female literacy rate in slums was around 15 per cent in 2001 which has declined to 11.84 per cent in 2011 which is a positive sign. The literacy rates of both gender is increasing for slum population in NCT of Delhi. For Male, it has increased from 73.16 per cent in 2001 to 80.49 per cent in 2011 while, for female, it has increased from 58.01 per cent to 68.65 per cent respectively.

**Table-2.15 Literacy Rate of Slum and Urban Population in NCT of Delhi**

Indicators	Literacy Rate		WPR (in %)	
	2001	2011	2001	2011
<b>Slum Population</b>				
<b>Persons</b>	66.65	75.16	34.84	35.37
<b>Males</b>	73.16	80.49	54.51	55.67
<b>Females</b>	58.01	68.65	9.63	10.99
<b>Urban Population (All Towns)</b>				
<b>Persons</b>	81.93	86.32	32.89	33.34
<b>Males</b>	87.39	90.98	52.25	53.08
<b>Females</b>	75.22	80.95	9.31	10.60
<b>Urban Population (Slum Reported Towns)</b>				
<b>Persons</b>	82.39	87.02	33.39	34.12
<b>Males</b>	87.43	91.21	52.78	53.79
<b>Females</b>	76.21	82.22	9.82	11.57

Source: Computed from Census of India, Primary Census Abstract of Slum Population, 2011

The increasing literacy rate in slum population shows that now slum dwellers are also becoming aware about the benefit of education. The literacy rates in slum reported towns are slightly higher in compare to total urban population (all towns) which is also a positive sign. The total literacy rate for slum reported towns has increased from 82.49 per cent in 2001 to 87.02 per cent in 2011. In the same time period, the literacy rate of urban population (all towns) has increased from 81.93 per cent to 86.32 per cent. The gender-wise literacy rates of slum reported towns and total urban population (all towns) show that male population has a higher literacy rate as compared to the females. It is a reflection of the patriarchal character of the Indian society in which more preference is given to the education of males as compare to the females in family, because it is assumed that male will be the principal earner of the family and will contribute to the family-income.

The work force participation rate is the percentage of total number of workers into total population. The figures of workforce participation rate for slum population have slightly increased in 2011 census. In 2001, the total workforce participation rate for slum population was 34.84 per cent which has increased to 35.57 per cent in 2011. The gender-wise workforce participation rates show that male population in slums has much higher workforce participation rate in comparison to females. In 2001 census, workforce participation rate for male living in slums was 54.51 per cent which has increased to 55.67 per cent in 2011 census. In the same time period, the workforce participation rate for female living in slums was only 9.63 per cent which has slightly increased to 10.99 per cent.

As compared to workforce participation rates in total urban population (all towns), the workforce participation rates in slum reported towns are slightly higher. The workforce participation rate in slum reported towns was 33.39 per cent in 2001 which has increased to 34.12 per cent in 2011. In the same time period, the workforce participation rate for total urban population (all towns) was 32.89 per cent which has increased to 33.34 per cent. The gender-wise workforce participation rates in slum reported towns and total urban population (all towns) show that there is a high gap between workforce participation in males and females. The workforce participation rate of males is much higher in comparison to females. For slum reported towns, the male workforce

participation rate was 52.78 per cent in 2001 which has increased to 53.79 per cent in 2011, while in the same time period; the female workforce participation rate was only 9.82 per cent which has increased to 11.57 per cent. The male workforce participation rate in total urban population (all towns) is also very high in comparison to females for both 2001 and 2011 census. The workforce participation rates of males in slum population and slum reported towns show that more than half of the male population in slums are working. It is the direct manifestation of the process of rural-urban migration in which a large number of male population from rural areas come to Delhi for employment purpose only (c.f. Table-2.11) and live in slums (Jhuggi-Jhopri clusters).

## **2.8 SPATIAL CONCENTRATION OF SLUM POPULATION IN NCT OF DELHI (TOWN LEVEL):**

Location quotient is one of the best measures to know the concentration of a particular group at a particular place. If the value of location quotient of a group is more than one at a particular place, it means that there is high concentration of that group at that place. To avoid the crude estimation and get better estimation, the total urban population of the slum reported towns in NCT of Delhi is taken for the calculation of location quotient instead of the total urban population (all towns) of NCT of Delhi.

The location quotients of slum population in slum reported towns of NCT of Delhi from the Table-2.18 show that in 2001, the highest concentration of slum population was in *Tigri* town (L.Q. 3.08) followed by *Sambhalka* town (L.Q. 1.62) and *Bhalswa Jahangir Pur* (L.Q. 1.39). *DMC (M.Corp.)* and *Pul Pehlad* are the other slum reported towns in NCT of Delhi, in which, there was a high concentration of slum population in 2001 census. The pattern is more or less same for both genders also.

In 2011 Census, the total number of slum reported towns in NCT of Delhi have increased from 16 to 22. The location quotients of slum population in slum reported towns in 2011 census show that the highest concentration of slum population in NCT of Delhi is still in *Tigri* town (L. Q. 3.97). In this census, four towns *Jona Pur*, *Dera Mandi*, *Saidabad* and *Sahibabad Daulat Pur* have location quotient more than 2 which means the concentration of slum population in these towns is also very high. *Sambhalka*, *Moradabad Pahari*, *Bhalswa Jahangir Pur*, *Patpar Ganj* and *DMC* are the other towns which have high concentration of slum population with location quotients more than 1.

**Table-2.16 Concentration of Slum Population in Slum Reported Towns  
of NCT of Delhi**

Towns of NCT of Delhi	LQ of Slum Population (2001)			Towns of NCT of Delhi	LQ of Slum Population (2011)		
	P	M	F		P	M	F
<b>1. DMC (U) (M Corp.)</b>	<b>1.04</b>	<b>1.04</b>	<b>1.04</b>	1. DMC (M Corp.)	1.06	1.06	1.06
2. N.D.M.C. (M CI)	0.74	0.76	0.72	2. NDMC (M CI)	0.56	0.57	0.55
<b>3. Bhalswa Jahangir Pur (CT)</b>	<b>1.39</b>	<b>1.38</b>	<b>1.40</b>	3. Bhalswa Jahangir Pur (CT)	1.44	1.45	1.43
4. Sahibabad Daulat Pur (CT)	0.28	0.28	0.27	<b>4. Sahibabad Daulat Pur (CT)</b>	<b>2.09</b>	<b>2.02</b>	<b>2.17</b>
5. Pooth Kalan (CT)	0.04	0.04	0.05	5. Pooth Kalan (CT)	0.23	0.23	0.24
6. Kirari Suleman Nagar (CT)	0.03	0.02	0.03	6. Kirari Suleman Nagar (CT)	0.03	0.03	0.03
7. Sultan Pur Majra (CT)	0.47	0.47	0.47	7. Sultan Pur Majra (CT)	0.44	0.44	0.45
8. Gharonda Neemka Bangar alias Patpar Ganj (CT)	0.98	0.97	0.99	8. Gharonda Neemka Bangar alias Patpar Ganj (CT)	1.06	1.09	1.03
9. Dallo Pura (CT)	0.41	0.40	0.43	9. Dallo Pura (CT)	0.07	0.07	0.07
10. Delhi Cantt. (CB)	0.83	0.78	0.90	10. Delhi Cantt. (CB)	0.81	0.80	0.82
<b>11. Sambhalka (CT)</b>	<b>1.62</b>	<b>1.52</b>	<b>1.77</b>	11. Sambhalka (CT)	1.87	1.81	1.93
<b>12. Tigri (CT)</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>3.18</b>	<b>12. Tigri (CT)</b>	<b>3.97</b>	<b>3.84</b>	<b>4.13</b>
<b>13. Pul Pehlad (CT)</b>	<b>1.01</b>	<b>1.01</b>	<b>1.01</b>	13. Pul Pehlad (CT)	0.76	0.77	0.75
14. Jaffrabad (CT)	0.87	0.85	0.89	14. Gokal Pur (CT)	0.02	0.02	0.02
15. Chilla Saroda Bangar (CT)	0.04	0.04	0.04	15. Gharoli (CT)	0.10	0.10	0.10
16. Nangal Dewat (CT)	0.65	0.65	0.65	16. Nangli Sakrawati (CT)	0.09	0.10	0.07
				17. Moradabad Pahari (CT)	1.72	1.79	1.65
				<b>18. Jona Pur (CT)</b>	<b>2.32</b>	<b>2.30</b>	<b>2.34</b>
				<b>19. Dera Mandi (CT)</b>	<b>2.16</b>	<b>2.14</b>	<b>2.19</b>
				20. Chattar Pur (CT)	0.09	0.09	0.09
				<b>21. Saidabad (CT)</b>	<b>2.16</b>	<b>2.30</b>	<b>2.00</b>
				22. Mithe Pur (CT)	0.24	0.23	0.25

*Source: Computed from Census of India, Primary Census Abstract of Slum Population, 2011. Note: CT- Census Town, M. Corp.- Municipal Corporation, M CI- Municipal Council, CB- Cantonment Board. P- Persons, M-Males, F-Females*

It can be concluded from the above analysis that in comparison to 2001 census, the number of towns with higher concentration of slum population has increased in 2011 census. The eviction and resettlement process of slum dwellers in NCT of Delhi after commonwealth games in different part of Delhi can be responsible for this increasing number.

## **2.9 EVOLUTION AND GROWTH OF JHUGGI-JHOPRI CLUSTERS (JJ-CLUSTERS) IN NCT OF DELHI:**

The squatter settlements in NCT of Delhi are locally known as “*Jhuggi-Jhopri clusters*”. Till 2010, the urban local body responsible for the governance of JJ-Clusters was Slum and JJ-Department of Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD). The government of NCT of Delhi has created a separate department known as Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board (DUSIB) in 2010 by DUSIB, Act passed in Delhi legislative Assembly for the governance of these JJ-Clusters. From the existence of DUSIB, all the works and responsibilities of Slum and JJ-Department of MCD have transferred to DUSIB.

The details of the evolution and growth of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi are given in following Table-2.17. In this table the data of the JJ-Clusters was provided by Slum and JJ-Department of MCD till 1998. The figures of the total number of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi show that in 1951, only 199 JJ-Clusters were in Delhi in which 12,749 households lived. The estimated population living in these clusters was 63,745 at that time, which were only 4.44 per cent of the total population of Delhi Urban agglomeration. In 1973, the total number of JJ-Clusters was increased to 1373 with 98,483 households and 4.9 lakhs population living in these JJ- Clusters. The main reason for this increment can be explained by an influx of Bangladeshi refugees to Delhi during 1971 Indo-Pakistan war who were settled in the JJ-Clusters.

The scheme related to the resettlements of households living in the JJ-Clusters of NCT of Delhi was started very early in 1961, in which, the allotment of two rooms was done to 3560 households living in different JJ-Clusters. Thereafter, a massive programme for resettlement of JJ-Clusters was completed by Delhi Development Authority (DDA) during 1975-77 in which 1.97 lakh JJ-Clusters’ households were resettled in 26 new JJ Resettlement Colonies (Economic Survey of Delhi, 2008-09). The decline in the total number of JJ-Cluster from 1373 in 1973 to 534 in 1983 and further 400 in 1985 was result of the resettlement process.

It can be easily identified from following table that the data of JJ-Clusters provided by Slum and JJ Department of MCD is inconsistent because many times the figures for JJ-Clusters and households living in it are given in round figures. The last comprehensive enumeration of JJ-Clusters conducted by the Slum and JJ-Department (on

the basis of field assessment and in consultation with area members of the legislative assembly) dated back to 1994.

**Table-2.17 Evolution of JJ-Cluster in NCT of Delhi**

Year	JJ-Clusters (1)					Delhi UA (2)		Percentage of Cluster Population in Population of UA
	No. of JJ-Clusters	No. of Housing Units or Households	Estimated Population (No. of Household*5)	CAGR (%)	Decadal Growth Rate (%)	Population	Decadal Growth Rate (%)	
1951	199	12,749	63,745			14,37,134		4.44
1956		22,415	1,12,075	11.95				
1961		42,815	2,14,075	13.82	235.83	23,59,408	64.17	9.07
1966		42,668	2,13,340	-0.07				
1971		62,594	3,12,970	7.97	46.20	36,47,023	54.57	8.58
1973	1373	98,483	4,92,415	25.43				
1977		20,000	1,00,000	-32.87				
1981		98,709	4,93,545	49.05	57.70	57,29,283	57.09	8.61
1983	534	1,13,386	5,66,930	7.18				
1985	400	1,50,000	7,50,000	15.02				
1986		2,00,000	10,00,000	33.33				
1987		2,25,000	11,25,000	12.50				
1990	929	2,59,929	12,99,645	4.93				
1991*		3,10,355	15,51,775	19.40	214.41	84,19,084	46.95	18.43
1994	1080	4,80,929	24,04,645	15.72				
1998	1100	6,00,000	30,00,000	5.69				
2001	728	4,29,662	21,48,310	-10.53	38.44	1,28,77,470	52.96	16.68
2015	672	3,04,188	15,20,940**	-2.44				

Source: Compiled from the data of (1) Slum and JJ Department of MCD, City Development Plan of JNNURM and DUSIB (2) Census of India (1951-2011). \* Estimated figures from Dupont, 2008. \*\* own estimation based on Dupont, 2008.

There were 1080 JJ-Clusters in Delhi in 1994 with 4.8 lakh households and 2.4 million populations. Thereafter, till 1998, the figures related to JJ-Clusters were estimated on the basis of 1994 data and its projected growth. The broad estimates of 6 lakh households with 3 million populations living in 1100 JJ-Clusters in 1998 were published in many documents (including the most recent documents) by the planning division of Government of NCT of Delhi like *Economic Survey of Delhi, 2005-06; Tenth Five Year Plan of Delhi (2002-07)* and *Delhi Annual Plan (2006-07)*. In each documents mentioned above, the same figures were referred as “present” situation of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi, which clearly indicates that figures were not updated (Dupont, 2008).

In 2006, the department of Urban Development, Government of Delhi published the *City Development Plan of Delhi* under the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM). In this report, the total number of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi with total number of households and estimated population for 2001 was provided. These figures indicate a sharp decline in the total number of JJ-Clusters from 1100 in 1997 to 728 in 2001 and a subsequent decline in the JJ-Clusters' population from 3 million to 2.1 million. In this report, it was mentioned that the decline in total number of JJ-Clusters and population living in it was because of the relocation of around 300 clusters from Gautampuri, Kingsway Camp, Ashok Vihar, AIIMS and Hauz Khas etc. However, these figures also seem to greatly overestimate the impact of the slum clearance policy in NCT of Delhi because they don't match with the figures on the number of demolition operations provided by Slum and JJ Department of MCD during 1997-2001 (ibid).

Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board has conducted a full scale socio-economic survey of the population living in each JJ-Cluster of NCT of Delhi. The provisional data available on their website shows that total 672 JJ-Clusters are in Delhi with around 3 lakh households and 1.5 million populations living in it. The spatial pattern of the settlement of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi shows the highest number of JJ-Clusters is settled in South Delhi and West-Delhi. Total 113 JJ-Clusters are settled in each of these two districts, which alone, have 34 per cent share in the total number of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi.

**Table-2.18 Spatial Patterns of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi**

Districts	Number of Clusters	Percentage Share in Total	JJ-Households	Percentage Share in Total	Area in Hectare	Percentage Share in Total
North-West	66	9.82	26508	8.71	70.36	7.94
North Delhi	60	8.93	41179	13.54	102.49	11.57
North East+ Shahadara	54	8.04	33540	11.03	82.29	9.29
East Delhi	43	6.40	19836	6.52	55.49	6.26
New Delhi	66	9.82	24328	8.00	54.21	6.12
Central Delhi	86	12.80	25879	8.51	71.76	8.10
West Delhi	113	16.82	52190	17.16	103.96	11.74
South-West	12	1.79	5728	1.88	22.08	2.49
South-East	59	8.78	27750	9.12	73.04	8.25
South Delhi	113	16.82	47250	15.53	250.14	28.24
<b>Total</b>	<b>672</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>304188</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>885.82</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Computed from Provisional Data of JJ-Clusters by Delhi Shelter Improvement Board.

Central Delhi has the second highest number of JJ-Clusters (86 JJ-Clusters) which is 12.80 per cent of the total JJ-Clusters. North-West Delhi and New Delhi, each have 66 JJ-Clusters. These two districts have around 19 per cent share in the total number of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi. The lowest number of JJ-Clusters is in South-West Delhi in which only 12 clusters are settled that is only 1.79 per cent of the total number of clusters in NCT of Delhi.

The district-wise percentage share of the households living in JJ-Clusters shows that West Delhi has highest percentage share (17.16 per cent) of the households living in JJ-Clusters followed by South-Delhi (15.53 per cent), North-Delhi (13.54 per cent) and North-East District along with Shahadara (11.03 per cent). In all other districts, the percentage share of the households living in JJ-Clusters are below 10 per cent. All these JJ-Clusters are settled on 885.82 hectare area. The area-wise percentage distribution shows that the JJ-Clusters settled in West Delhi has highest percentage share in total area (11.74 per cent) followed by North-Delhi (11.57 per cent). In all other districts, the percentage share of the area of JJ-Clusters into total area is below 10 per cent.

It can be concluded from the above analysis of the spatial pattern of the JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi that West Delhi, South Delhi and North Delhi are the main districts, in which, high percentage of households settled in JJ-Clusters in a large area occupied by them.

## **2.10 SUMMARY:**

The present chapter strives to present a brief account of the magnitude of urbanisation, migration and slum (including JJ-Clusters) in NCT of Delhi. The global estimates provided by United Nation's Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division) suggest that Delhi is one of the fastest UAs in world with 25.70 million population and second rank in top ten UAs of the world. The projected annual growth rate of Delhi is also very high during 1975-2025. However, the estimates from Census of India, 2011 shows an opposite trend, not only for Delhi but most of the UAs in India. Although, the absolute population of Delhi is increased in 2011 census and it has reached to the second rank in top ten UAs of India but a sharp decline is found in the decadal growth of Delhi during 2001-2011 and it is highest after independence. This story is common for most of the UAs in India.



The volume and trends of urbanisation in Delhi shows that at the beginning of 20<sup>th</sup> century, only 2.14 lakh urban population lived in Delhi which were 52.76 per cent of the total population. Thereafter with each census year, the absolute urban population and decadal as well as AEGR of urban population increased in Delhi. The first census after Independence experienced a highest decadal growth rate due to partition of India and Pakistan. During 1951 to 1981, the urban population increased from 82.40 per cent to 92.73 per cent. In this period, the decadal growth rates were above 50 per cent. With a slight decline in 1991 census, the absolute urban population increased in Delhi in 2001 and 2011 census. The recent Census, 2011 shows that the percentage share of the urban population in Delhi is 97.50 per cent, but the decadal as well as AEGR of urban population during 2001-2011 has sharply declined. The spatial pattern of the urban population in Delhi shows saturation in core districts (New Delhi and Central Delhi) with negative decadal growth rate during 2001-11 and increasing growth rates of peripheral districts during same period.

The total internal migration rates in NCT of Delhi are very high as compared to India's total internal migration rates but it is almost stagnant during 1981 to 2007-08. The rural-urban differentials in the recent 64<sup>th</sup> round show a sharp decline in the total rural internal migration rate and an increment in the total urban migration rate which can be explained by the reclassification of villages into towns because of which rural areas are consistently declining in Delhi and converting to urban areas. The gender wise rural-urban migration differentials show that in rural areas of Delhi, female migration rates are always high as compared to the urban areas. However, for male there is inconsistency in the rural and urban migration rates. The recent data from 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS (2007-08) shows a sharp decline in the rural male migration rate and a slight increment in the urban male migration rate. After economic reforms adopted by government of India in 1991, the urban migration rate is increasing for total as well as for male and female.

The percentage share of each stream of migration in total internal migration in Delhi shows that the rural to urban and urban to urban migration streams have highest percentage share in total. In the intra-district category, urban to urban migration stream has highest percentage share and in the inter-state category, rural to urban migration stream has highest percentage share. The recent round of NSS shows a decline in the

percentage share of rural-urban migrants in total as well as male and female. The reason of migration estimated for two streams rural-urban and urban-urban which constitute the total urban migration shows employment related reasons and associational migration are the main causes of male migration; however, marriage and associational migration are the main causes of female migration. The estimates of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of urban migrants in Delhi from 64<sup>th</sup> round shows that the migration in Delhi is selective towards adult age-groups, other (General) category persons, Hindus, and primary and secondary educated persons as compared to other respective groups.

The before and after migration employment status shows that the percentage share of total employed is much higher after migration in compare to before migration status. The percentage share of unemployed and not in labour force is declined after migration as compared to the before migration employment status. It shows that migration to urban areas in Delhi provides employment opportunity to the most of the migrants. The employment status of the migrants also change after migration as percentage share of regular wage/salaried employees is high after migration as compared to the before migration working status.

The percentage share of slum population in total urban population (all towns) as well as in slum reported towns has declined in 2011 in comparison to 2001. The decadal growth rate of slum population is also negative during 2001-2011 for total as well as for male and female. Some socio-economic indicators such as Sex ratio, literacy rates and work force participation rates in slum population of Delhi are improving which is a positive sign for the development of slum population and shows that increasing awareness level among slum dwellers over the time period. The evolution and growth of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi is also discussed in present chapter which shows that a major challenge to study the JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi is inconsistency of data provided by Slum and JJ Department of MCD.

The evictions, demolitions and resettlements of slums without proper basic civic amenities were unprecedented in Delhi in last one and half decade. Scholars (Dupont, 2008; Bhan, 2009) have argued that the lack of empathy towards these evictions and demolitions among media and other public make the lives of urban migrants living in different JJ-Clusters more vulnerable. Therefore, it can be summed up that the declining

decadal growth rate and AEGR of urban population in Delhi during 2001-2011, stagnant migration rates, and declining percentage share of slum population in total urban population as well as slum reported towns with negative decadal growth rate during 2001-2011 are the reflection of the exclusionary urban policies adopted by government towards urban migrants in NCT of Delhi.

**CHAPTER-III**  
**NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF URBAN MIGRANTS IN**  
**JJ-CLUSTERS OF NCT OF DELHI**

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**3.1 INTRODUCTION:**

The process of migration towards urban centres is highly selective. Plethora of literature on migration studies confirms that the tendency of migration towards urban centres is more among persons with specific demographic and socio-economic characteristics. In spite of that, no universal theory related to nature and characteristics of urban migrants has been propounded by scholars (Yadava, 1989) because it varies from one place to other. The demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants determine their prospects in the city and therefore affect their decision to move or stay. At one end of the socio-economic spectrum, migrants from highly backward villages of rural India and with very impoverished backgrounds come to metropolitan cities. They are ill prepared for most of the tasks in urban economy, which requires proper skills and do the most menial jobs to sustain their families in cities. At other extreme, the members of privileged rural minorities come to urban centres to climb the education ladder high enough and gain the access to promising careers in public administration, commerce or the professions (Pacione, 2009).

Therefore, the importance of the study of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the migrants living in the urban centres of any region cannot be underemphasized as it affects the decision process of migrants and the future population profile of both areas; the place of origin and the place of destination. In this context, the present chapter which is based on the data collected from primary survey conducted during October, 2014 to January, 2015 in eight JJ-Clusters of NCT of Delhi, provides the migration history and demographic, socio-economic characteristics of the head of the households along with other members of the migrant households, living in these JJ-Clusters. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section provides the detail account of the migration history of head of the households and the second section provides the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of head of the households with other member of the households. In present study, the principal earner of the

household is considered as head of the households because it was found during pilot survey that principal earner of the households takes most of crucial decision of households and takes care of family in all manners. In most of the cases, he/she is the person who first migrated to Delhi and the other members of family joined him/her after some duration.

## **SECTION-I**

### **3.2 MIGRATION CHARACTERISTICS OF HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLDS**

In present study, an attempt is made to trace the migration history of the head of the households living in the JJ-Clusters. The informations about the place of origin up to state and district level, age at migration, reasons of migration, the person(s) involved in the decision making process of migration to Delhi, the knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban centres before coming to Delhi and duration of migration were collected for the head of the households. The discussion about the migration characteristics of head of the households is as follows:

#### **3.2.1 Place of Origin (State):**

The place of origin is an important indicator in migration studies because it reveals important informations about the process of migration. It has been found in many studies related to internal migration in India that people from the impoverished states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh etc., migrate more towards the economically developed states like Maharashtra, Punjab, Gujarat and Delhi etc. (Mahapatro, 2012; Kundu & Saraswati, 2012; Chandrasekhar & Sharma, 2015). In these studies it has been discussed that high man-land ratio, poverty, unemployment and stagnant growth of agriculture and non-farm rural sectors in impoverished states are the main push factors for high outmigration from these states. In opposite, the relatively higher level of industrialisation and growth in informal sectors pulls the migrants towards economically developed states.

In present study, the migration pattern of the head of the households according to their state of origin shows that the highest percentage share of the head of the households migrated to Delhi are from Uttar Pradesh (41 per cent) and Bihar (36.25 per cent). The other states from which, a significant percentage of head of the households migrated to Delhi is from Madhya Pradesh (12 per cent) and Rajasthan (5 per cent).

**Table 3.1 Place of Origin (States) of the Head of the Households**

State of Origin	South Delhi		South-West Delhi		North-East Delhi		North-West Delhi		Total
	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	
<b>Bihar</b>	<b>44</b> (22)	<b>64</b> (32)	<b>28</b> (14)	<b>58</b> (29)	<b>14</b> (7)	<b>10</b> (5)	<b>12</b> (6)	<b>60</b> (30)	<b>36.25</b> (145)
<b>Chhattisgarh</b>	0 (0)	0 (0)	<b>14</b> (7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1.75 (7)
<b>Gujarat</b>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.25 (1)
<b>Haryana</b>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (2)	0 (0)	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.75 (3)
<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.25 (1)
<b>Jharkhand</b>	4 (2)	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1)	0 (0)	1.00 (4)
<b>Madhya Pradesh</b>	<b>0</b> (0)	<b>8</b> (4)	<b>28</b> (14)	<b>0</b> (0)	<b>24</b> (12)	<b>8</b> (4)	<b>16</b> (8)	<b>12</b> (6)	<b>12.00</b> (48)
<b>Maharashtra</b>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.25 (1)
<b>Odisha</b>	4 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.50 (2)
<b>Rajasthan</b>	2 (1)	0 (0)	<b>14</b> (7)	8 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	<b>14</b> (7)	2 (1)	5.00 (20)
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>42</b> (21)	<b>24</b> (12)	<b>14</b> (7)	<b>30</b> (15)	<b>62</b> (31)	<b>74</b> (37)	<b>56</b> (28)	<b>26</b> (13)	<b>41.00</b> (164)
<b>West Bengal</b>	2 (1)	2 (1)	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1.00 (4)
<b>Total</b>	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (50)	100 (400)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). The samples are given in the parenthesis.

The remaining 5.75 per cent head of the households are from Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand Odisha, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, and West Bengal. Therefore, it is evident that present study also supports the pattern of internal migration in India discussed in existing migration studies, because majority of the head of the households in

present study are from economically backward states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Odisha.

The JJ-Clusters wise migration pattern of the head of the household according to their state of origin shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters also, the percentage share of the head of the households migrated from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar is very high in comparison to other states. Except these two states, the head of the households migrated from Madhya Pradesh is significantly high only in few JJ-Clusters like Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj; Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area; JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and the head of the households migrated from Rajasthan is found high only in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh.

Except these four states (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan) the percentage share of the households migrated from other states is very low in different JJ-Clusters. It has been observed during field survey that head of the households migrating from a common state are settled in a particular area in different JJ-Clusters and therefore, JJ-Clusters are divided into different pockets on the basis of the state of origin of the head of the households. The role of social networking is found to be more important for this pattern because the existing social networks of a particular state help other migrants of the same state to settle in the area in JJ-Cluster where they lives.

### **3.2.2 Place of Origin (District level):**

It has been discussed above that total 94.25 per cent head of the households in present study are from only four states-Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. Therefore, the district wise analysis of the migration pattern of head of the households is focused on these four states only. The detail tables are given in Appendix (Table A3.1). Total 164 head of the households in present study migrated to Delhi from Uttar Pradesh, among which, the highest percentage share is from Pratapgarh (12.80 per cent), Gorkahpur (7.93 per cent), Bulandshahr (6.71 per cent) and Mahoba (6.10 per cent). From Bihar, total 145 head of the households migrated to Delhi, among which, the highest percentage share is only from three districts- Madhubani (22.07 per cent), Darbhanga (17.93 per cent) and Muzzaffarpur (11.03 per cent).

Total 48 head of the households in present study migrated to Delhi from Madhya Pradesh, among which, the highest percentage share is from Chhatarpur (31.25 per cent)

followed by Sagar (27.08 per cent), Bhind (12.50 per cent) and Damoh (10.42 per cent). The head of the households migrated to Delhi from Rajasthan is only 20 in present study. Most of them are only from three districts- Bharatpur (25 per cent), Karauli (25 percent) and Alwar (15 per cent). It can be easily identified from percentage share of the head of the households according to their district of origin that most of the head of the households are migrating from the districts which have low level of economic development. Some of these districts regularly suffer from the natural calamities such as drought (like Mahoba, Bhind) and flood (like Darbhanga, Madhubani) which is also one of the reasons for migration from these districts.

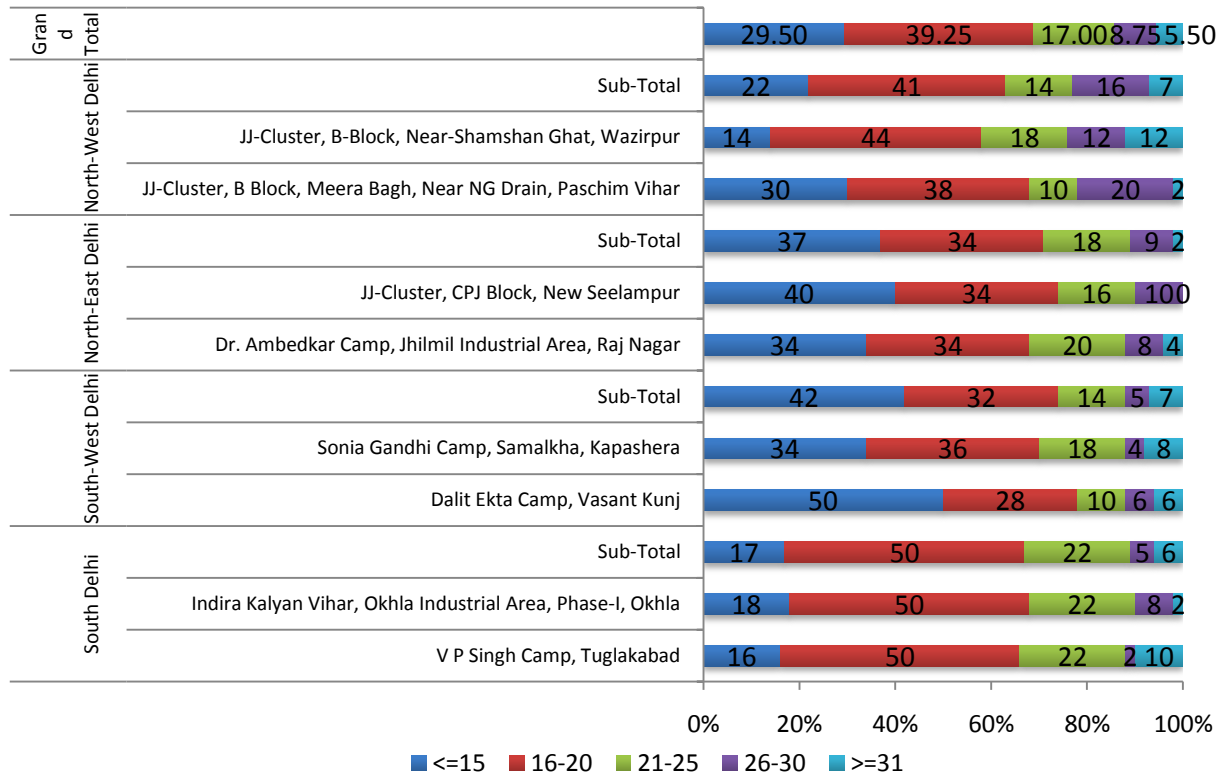
### **3.2.3 Age at Migration of the Head of the Households:**

In migration studies, age at which migration takes place is considered an important variable to study because of several implications. It affects the demographic compositions of the place of origin as well as destination. It has been found in many studies that adults from rural areas are more prone to migrate towards urban centres than the people of other age-groups (Zachariah, 1968; Oberai & Singh, 1983, Singh, 1986; Yadava, 1989; Kundu & Saraswati, 2012). The migration of young adults from villages directly affects the agricultural productivity (Hugo, 1981) and fertility rates in rural areas (Singh *et al.*, 1981). At the place of destination (in urban areas) it change the sex-ratio in favour of male and provide the labour force for the urban informal sectors as most of the migrants absorb within urban informal economy (Kundu, 2011b). In the context, the age at which head of the households migrated to Delhi was collected during field survey. For the present analysis, it is classified in following categories:  $\leq 15$ , 16-20, 21-25, 26-30 and  $\geq 30$ .

It can be easily identified from Figure 3.1 that at the time of migration, most of the head of the households were in 16-20 age-group and 15 or below age-group. Therefore, the percentage share of the head of the households according to their age at migration is highest in 16-20 age group (39.25 per cent) followed by 15 or below age-group (29.50 per cent). Another age-group in which significant percentage of head of the households migrated to Delhi is 21-25 age-group. It shows that most of the head of the households migrated to NCT of Delhi in their teens or early adulthood.



**Figure 3.1 Percentage Distributions of the Head of the Households by Age at Migration**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

It can be assumed that the head of the households migrated to Delhi at 15 or below age were associational migrants i.e. they migrated to the earning member of the family and most of the time it was father/mother. However, the head of the households migrated to Delhi at 16-20 age-group and 21-25 age-group were migrated mainly in search of employment or in search of better employment.

In present study, only 8.75 per cent head of the households migrated to Delhi in 26-30 age group and the least percentage share is found with the head of the households who migrated to Delhi at 31 or above age-group. It shows that with increasing age-groups, the propensity of migration towards urban centre decreases.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their age at migration shows that the head of the households who migrated in their teens is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (50 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (40 per cent). The percentage share of the head of the

households who migrated to Delhi at the age-group of 16-20 is highest in the JJ-Clusters of South Delhi (V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla). The combined percentage share of the head of the households migrated to Delhi in these two age-groups is more than 50 per cent in most of the JJ-Clusters. The percentage share of the head of the households who migrated to Delhi at the age-group of 21-25 is also highest in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi. It shows that most of the head of the households in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi migrated to Delhi in their early adulthood. Overall the age-differential at the time of migration of head of the households at cluster level shows that in most of the JJ-Cluster, the highest percentage share of the head of the households is found in three age-groups  $\leq 15$ , 16-20 and 21-25.

The JJ-Clusters wise mean age at migration of head of the households provides the clear picture of the age at which head of the households migrated to Delhi. In present study, the average age at which head of the households migrated to Delhi was 19.59 year.

**Table 3.2 Mean Age at Migration of the Head of the Households**

Districts	Clusters	Mean Age at Migration
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	20.04
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	19.68
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>19.86</b>
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	17.94
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	19.58
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>18.76</b>
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	19.22
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	18.12
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>18.67</b>
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	19.94
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	22.22
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>21.08</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>19.59</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The JJ-Clusters wise mean age at migration of the head of the households show that except Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, the head of the households in other JJ-Clusters were adult at the time of migration as mean age at migration varies from 18 to 22 year in these JJ-Clusters. The lowest mean age at migration of the head of the households is

found in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj which is 17.94. The overall analysis of the present study related to age at migration supports the finding of the existing migration studies that adults from rural areas are more prone to migrate towards urban centres than the people of other age-groups.

#### **3.2.4 Reasons of Migration of the Head of the Households:**

The reasons of migration differ from one region to other, depending on the characteristics of the population living at place of origin and destination. It has been found in migration studies that generally different reasons of migration are classified into two sets- 'push' and 'pull' factors. This push-pull dichotomy in migration studies is very old and still has relevance. In present study, the reasons of migration of head of the households are collected and classified according to push and pull factors which are as follows:

**Push Factors:** 1) Agriculture work is not remunerative in rural area; 2) Unavailability of Non-Farm Employment; 3) Low wages/income in origin area; 4) Poverty; 5) Socio-Political Conflict/Displacement due to Project, and 6) Natural Calamities

**Pull Factors:** 1) In search of Employment; 2) In search of better Employment, and 3) Other Reasons.

The respondents had given multiple responses for the reasons of migration of the head of the households to NCT of Delhi. Therefore, a Multiple Response Analysis has been done to show the most appropriate reason of the migration in which highest number of responses have found. Total 1109 responses were collected from the 400 respondents for the reasons of migration of the head of the households. The percentage distribution of the responses for the different reasons of the migration of the head of the households shows that in total 1109 responses, the highest percentage share of response is for households' poverty (31.47 per cent) followed by low wages/income at origin areas (19.39 per cent). The other two important reasons of migration of the head of the households are to take up a better employment (17.76 per cent) and in search of employment (16.41 per cent). It was observed during field survey that in these two reasons-to take up a better employment and in search of employment, the first reason was mostly given by the households in which head of the household were working before migration to Delhi. However, the second reason was given by the households in which head of the household were studying/not working before migration to Delhi.

**Table 3.3 Reasons of Migration of the Head of Households (Multiple Response Analysis)**

Districts	Clusters	Push Factors						Pull Factors			Total
		Agriculture work is not remunerative	Non Availability of Non-Farm Employ	Low wages/income in source area	Households' Poverty	Socio-Political Conflict/Displacement due to Project	Natural Calamities	In Search of Employment	To take up a better Employment	Other Reasons	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	8.55 (13)	2.63 (4)	16.45 (25)	30.26 (46)	0.66 (1)	1.32 (2)	22.37 (34)	9.21 (14)	8.55 (13)	100 (152)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	8.72 (13)	4.03 (6)	18.12 (27)	32.21 (48)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	28.19 (42)	5.37 (8)	3.36 (5)	100 (149)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>8.64 (26)</b>	<b>3.32 (10)</b>	<b>17.28 (52)</b>	<b>31.23 (94)</b>	<b>0.33 (1)</b>	<b>0.66 (2)</b>	<b>25.25 (76)</b>	<b>7.31 (22)</b>	<b>5.98 (18)</b>	<b>100 (301)</b>
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	3.31 (5)	5.96 (9)	24.50 (37)	31.13 (47)	0.66 (1)	0.00 (0)	12.58 (19)	19.87 (30)	1.99 (3)	100 (151)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	3.52 (5)	2.82 (4)	19.72 (28)	33.10 (47)	0.00 (0)	2.11 (3)	15.49 (22)	19.01 (27)	4.23 (6)	100 (142)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>3.41 (10)</b>	<b>4.44 (13)</b>	<b>22.18 (65)</b>	<b>32.08 (94)</b>	<b>0.34 (1)</b>	<b>1.02 (3)</b>	<b>13.99 (41)</b>	<b>19.45 (57)</b>	<b>3.07 (9)</b>	<b>100 (293)</b>
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	2.99 (4)	2.24 (3)	22.39 (30)	33.58 (45)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	14.93 (20)	22.39 (30)	1.49 (2)	100 (134)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	2.40 (3)	2.40 (3)	12.00 (15)	32.80 (41)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	15.20 (19)	18.40 (23)	16.80 (21)	100 (125)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>2.70 (7)</b>	<b>2.32 (6)</b>	<b>17.37 (45)</b>	<b>33.20 (86)</b>	<b>0.00 (0)</b>	<b>0.00 (0)</b>	<b>15.06 (39)</b>	<b>20.46 (53)</b>	<b>8.88 (23)</b>	<b>100 (259)</b>
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	0.71 (1)	6.38 (9)	23.40 (33)	31.21 (44)	0.71 (1)	0.00 (0)	7.80 (11)	24.82 (35)	4.96 (7)	100 (141)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	6.09 (7)	1.74 (2)	17.39 (20)	26.96 (31)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	13.04 (15)	26.09 (30)	8.70 (10)	100 (115)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>3.13 (8)</b>	<b>4.30 (11)</b>	<b>20.70 (53)</b>	<b>29.30 (75)</b>	<b>0.39 (1)</b>	<b>0.00 (0)</b>	<b>10.16 (26)</b>	<b>25.39 (65)</b>	<b>6.64 (17)</b>	<b>100 (256)</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>4.60 (51)</b>	<b>3.61 (40)</b>	<b>19.39 (215)</b>	<b>31.47 (349)</b>	<b>0.27 (3)</b>	<b>0.45 (5)</b>	<b>16.41 (182)</b>	<b>17.76 (197)</b>	<b>6.04 (67)</b>	<b>100 (1109)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014-January, 2015). The samples are given in the parenthesis.

The percentage of response for other reasons (in which the disagreement/conflict in the family, division in family and other family matters are included) is 6.04 per cent. The agriculture work is not remunerative in origin area and unavailability of non-farm employment, are the other reasons in which 4.6 per cent and 3.61 per cent response have come respectively. The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the responses for different reasons of migration follows the same pattern as in total.

It can be concluded from the above analysis that households' poverty and low wages/income in origin areas are the main push factors because of which the head of the households migrated to Delhi and the economic motivations like to take up a better employment, and in search of employment are the main factor of attraction (pull factors) because of which they migrated to Delhi. The present study supports the results of existing migration studies (Sovani, 1966; Lipton, 1980; Kothari, 1980 as cited in Yadava, 1989; Yadava, 1989; Neetha, 2004, Deshingkar, 2008) that push factors are still dominating in the process of migration and most of the migrants migrate to urban centres for economic gain and better livelihood.

### **3.2.5 Person(s) involved in the decision of Migration of the Head of the Households:**

The decision making process in migration is very complex and interesting phenomena. It can be individual's decision to migrate from rural areas to urban areas or it can be collective decision of the family. Other intermediaries such as contractor, relatives, co-villagers and friends can also be involved in the decision making process of the migration of individuals towards urban areas and can affect the decision of migration. Many times, it has been found that people at younger age migrate with friends because of peer pressure. In this context, the information about the person(s) involved in the decision of migration of head of the households to Delhi was collected during field survey.

The percentage distribution of the head of the households according to the person(s) involved in the decision of migration of head of the households to Delhi shows that in total sample households, 59.75 per cent head of the households had taken the decision of migration to NCT of Delhi by themselves. The second highest percentage share is for the head of the households who migrated to Delhi with the decision of migration taken by parents (19 per cent). The percentage of the head of the households with the decision of the migration taken by relatives is 6.50 per cent.

**Table 3.4 Percentage distributions of the person who took the Decision of Migration of the Head of the Households to NCT of Delhi**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Self	Parents	Self and Parents both	Friends	Relatives	Spouse	Others	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	54	18	4	4	6	6	8	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	62	16	8	0	8	2	4	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>100</b>
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	64	18	8	2	4	0	4	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	76	14	2	0	6	2	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>100</b>
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	52	10	12	4	10	4	8	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	38	38	8	0	8	6	2	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>100</b>
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	74	16	2	0	2	2	4	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	58	22	0	2	8	6	4	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		<b>59.75</b>	<b>19.00</b>	<b>5.50</b>	<b>1.50</b>	<b>6.50</b>	<b>3.50</b>	<b>4.25</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The percentage of the head of households with the decision of migration to Delhi taken by self and parents both, spouses and others are 5.50, 3.50 and 4.25 per cent respectively. The least percentage share is for the head of the households who migrated to Delhi because of peer pressure, in other words, the friends of the head of the household took the decision of migration to Delhi.

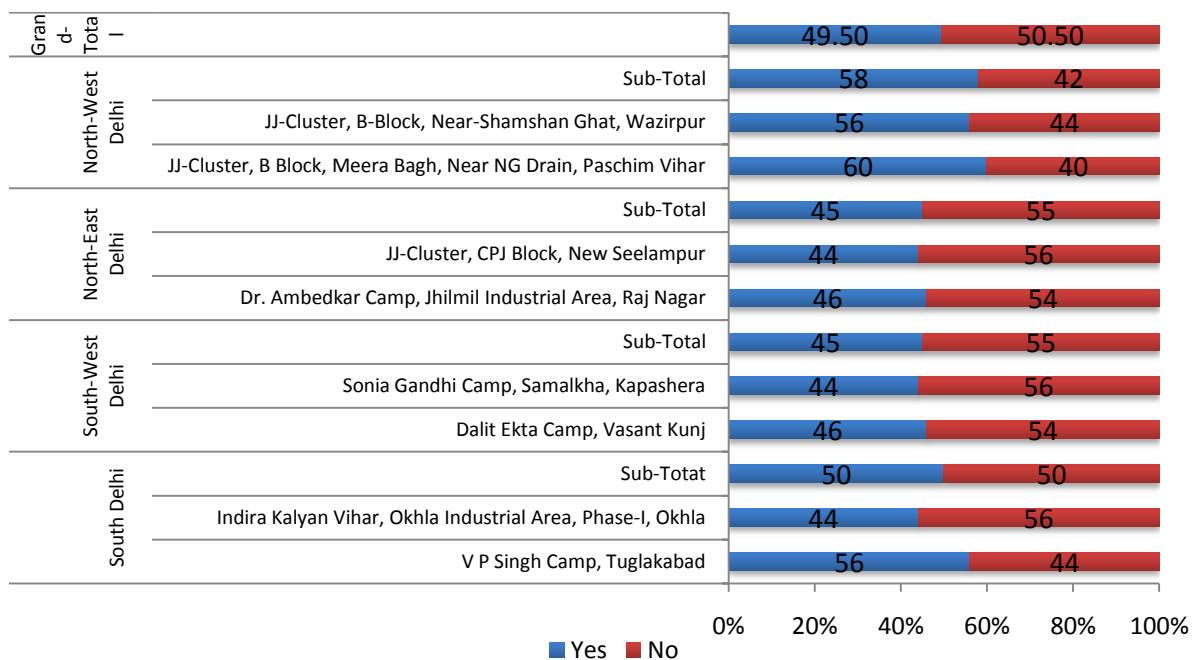
In most of the JJ-Clusters, the person(s) involved in the decision making of the migration of the head of the households to NCT of Delhi are same as mentioned above. Thus, it can be concluded that in present study, the decision of migration of the head of the households to NCT of Delhi was generally taken by head of the Households themselves or by their parents and some time both were involved in the decision of migration. The other important persons who took the decision of migration of the head of the households to NCT of Delhi were relatives, friends and spouse of the head of the households.

### 3.2.6 Head of the households' Knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban centres before Migration:

The knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban centre is very important for a rural person who wants to migrate in metro cities in search of their fortune. It helps them to be prepared for the different types of difficulties faced by urban migrants at the adjustment stage in urban centre such as housing and food problems, long waiting period of job, exploitation from police/employer etc. In present study, the information about the head of the households' knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban centres before migration was collected during field survey.

In sample households, 49.50 per cent reported that head of the households had knowledge about the problems faced by newly migrants in cities, before migration to Delhi. However, 50.50 per cent households reported that head of the households didn't have knowledge about the problems faced by newly migrants in cities. It shows that around half of the head of the households in present study had knowledge about problems faced by migrants in urban areas, before migrating to Delhi.

**Figure-3.2 Percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their knowledge about problems faced by migrants in urban areas, before migration to Delhi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban areas, before migration to Delhi shows that the highest percentage share of head of the households having knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban areas before migration to Delhi, is in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (60 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (56 per cent) of North-West Delhi. The percentage share in this category is also high in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (56 per cent). In all other JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of head of the households having knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban areas before migrating to Delhi is ranged from 44 per cent to 46 per cent.

A subsequent question was asked to know that-what are the main problems faced by migrants in urban centres- about which head of the households had knowledge before migration to Delhi. It was asked only those head of the households who had knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban centres before migration to Delhi. Multiple responses came for this question and a multiple response analysis has been done to show the knowledge of head of the households about different types of problems faced by migrants in urban centres.

Total 198 head of the households reported that before migration to Delhi, they had knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban centre. Form these 198 head of the households, total 362 responses came for different type of problems faced by migrants in urban centre, about which, head of the households had knowledge before migration to Delhi. The highest percentage of responses have come for employment related problems (48.62 per cent) followed by housing and food related problems (31.77 per cent) and exploitation from police/employers (19.61 per cent).

The JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the responses related to the problems about which, head of the households had knowledge before migration to Delhi shows that the pattern of the percentage distribution is same at different JJ-Clusters level as in total. Only in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad, the percentage of response related to housing and food related problems is highest followed by employment related problems and exploitation from police/employers.



**Table-3.5 Different types of problems faced by migrants in urban centres about which Head of the Households had knowledge before migration to Delhi (Multiple Response Analysis)**

Districts	JJ-Clusters		Housing and Food Related Problems	Employment Related Problems	Exploitation from Police/ Employer etc. Problems	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (28)	% of Response	54.90	23.53	21.57	100
		N	28	12	11	51
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla (22)	% of Response	34.88	44.19	20.93	100
		N	15	19	9	43
	Sub-Total (N=50)	% of Response	45.74	32.98	21.28	100
N		43	31	20	94	
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (23)	% of Response	32.00	44.00	24.00	100
		N	16	22	12	50
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera (22)	% of Response	22.22	61.11	16.67	100
		N	8	22	6	36
	Sub-Total (N=45)	% of Response	27.91	51.16	20.93	100
N		24	44	18	86	
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar (23)	% of Response	29.27	53.66	17.07	100
		N	12	22	7	41
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur (22)	% of Response	19.44	61.11	19.44	100
		N	7	22	7	36
	Sub-Total (N=45)	% of Response	24.68	57.14	18.18	100
N		19	44	14	77	
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar (30)	% of Response	25.00	57.69	17.31	100
		N	13	30	9	52
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur (28)	% of Response	30.19	50.94	18.87	100
		N	16	27	10	53
	Sub-Total (N=58)	% of Response	27.62	54.29	18.10	100
N		29	57	19	105	
<b>Total (N=198)</b>		% of Response	31.77	48.62	19.61	100
		N	115	176	71	362

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

Therefore, it can be concluded from above analysis that a significant percentage of head of the households in present study had knowledge about the problems faced by migrants in urban areas before migration to Delhi. The results of the multiple response analysis show that most of the head of the households in present study had knowledge about employment related problems faced by urban migrants followed by housing and food problems and exploitation by police/employers.

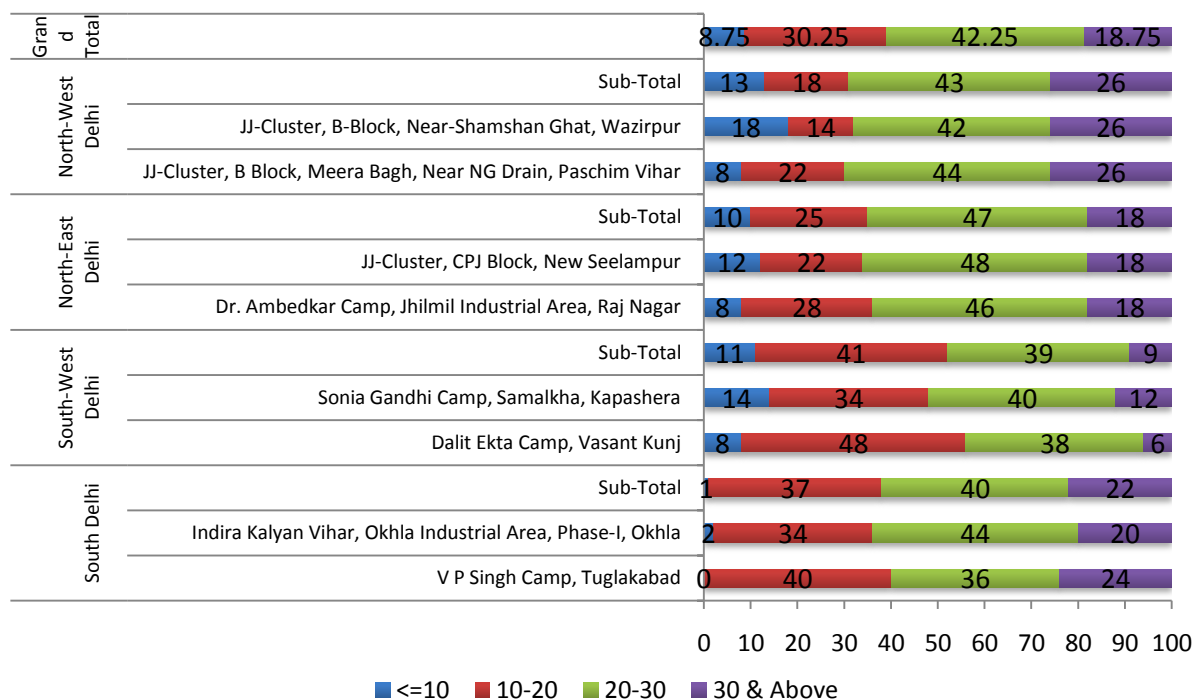
### 3.2.7 Duration of Migration/Duration of Stay in Delhi:

In the process of migration, duration of stay at place of destination or duration of migration plays an important role for acquiring urban identity and accessibility of different kind of entitlements such as ration card, voter-ID etc. It has been found in

studies (Edelman & Mitra, 2006) that longer duration of stay in urban centres increases the bargaining power and information flow among migrants because they become more familiar with urban environment and work culture.

In the present study, the head of the households are classified into following groups according to their duration of stay in NCT of Delhi: Less than or equal to 10 year, 10-20, 20-30 and 30 & more year. The average duration of stay of head of the households in Delhi is also calculated for each JJ-Cluster.

**Figure-3.3 Percentage distribution of the Head of the Households by Duration of Stay in NCT of Delhi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their duration of stay in Delhi from Figure-3.3 shows that the highest percentage share is for head of the households with 20-30 year duration of stay in Delhi (42.25 per cent) followed by 10-20 duration of stay (30.25 per cent). The percentage share of the head of the households with 30 & above years of duration of stay in Delhi is also significant (18.75 per cent). The least percentage share is for the head of the households who are staying in Delhi from 10 or less year.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution shows that the percentage share of the head of the households with 20-30 years duration of stay in Delhi is highest in most of the JJ-Clusters except V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad and Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj,. In these two JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the head of the households with 10-20 year duration of stay in Delhi is highest. The percentage share of the head of the households with 30 year & above duration of stay in Delhi (old migrants) is high only in JJ-Cluster of South Delhi and North-West Delhi. In comparison to the above mentioned duration of stay categories (10-20, 20-30 and 30 & above), the percentage share of the head of the households who are staying in Delhi from last 10 or less year is very low in most of the JJ-Clusters.

In present study, the average duration of stay of head of the households in Delhi is 23.67. It shows that most of the head of the households in present study are old migrants. The average duration of stay of head of the households is lowest in JJ-Clusters of South West Delhi. In Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, it is 20.78 year and in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, it is 21.18 years. In all other JJ-Clusters, the average duration of stay of head of the households is 24-25 years.

**Table 3.6 Average Duration of Stay of the Head of the Households in Delhi**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Average Duration of Stay of HoH
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	24.02
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	24.54
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	24.28
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	20.78
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	21.18
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	20.98
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	24.04
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	25.02
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	24.53
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	24.84
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	24.90
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	24.87
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		23.67

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

It can be concluded from the above analysis that most of the head of the households in present study are old migrants and settled in the sample JJ-Clusters from a long period.

## SECTION-II

### **3.3 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS IN JJ-CLUSTERS:**

In this section the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the migrant households living in study areas are discussed. The main focus is given to the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the head of the households. Along with this, the characteristics of other members of the households are also discussed briefly in present study.

#### **3.3.1 Age and Sex Structure:**

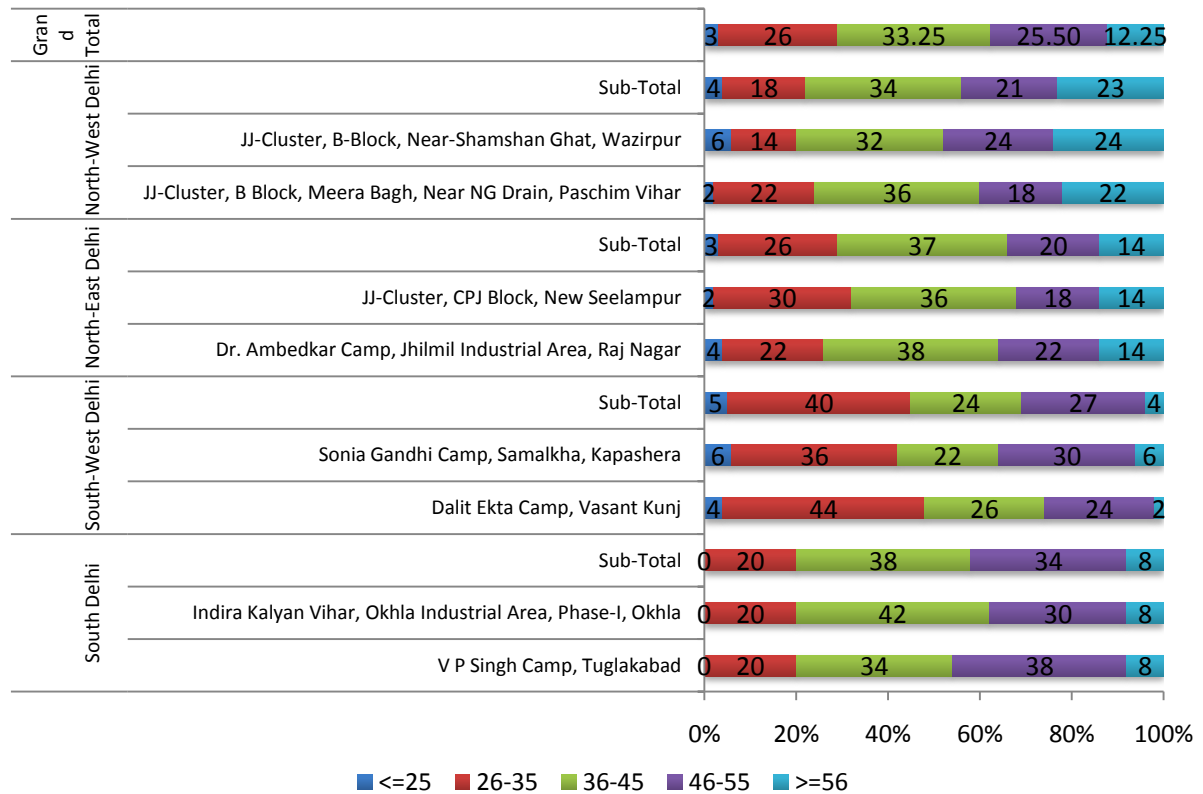
The age and sex structure of any population has prime importance in demography because the social and economic relationships in any community are significantly affected by the composition of males and females and the relative numbers of population in each age-group (Hobbs, 2004). In the survey questionnaire of the present study, the current age and gender of the head of the households and other members was collected.

##### **3.3.1.1 Age-Differentials among Head of the Households:**

It has been discussed in the migration section that most of the head of the households in present study migrated in their teens and early adulthood and they have spent a considerable duration of stay in Delhi. Therefore it can be assumed that most of them will be in their later adult period. To show the age of the head of the households at the time of survey, the head of the households are classified into following age-groups:  $\leq 25$ , 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, and  $\geq 56$ .

The percentage distribution of the head of the households by age-groups at the time of survey shows that, in sample households, the highest percentage share of the head of households are in 36-45 age-group (33.25 per cent) followed by 26-35 (26 per cent) and 46-55 age-group (25.50 per cent). However, the lowest percentage share of the head of the households is in  $\leq 25$  age-group (3 per cent). It was observed during field survey that most of the head of the households who are in  $\leq 25$  age-group are second generation migrants. Their father/other family member were already migrated to Delhi and they migrated later as associational migrants. In the sample households, the mean age of the head of the households at the time of survey is 43.24 (see Appendix Table A3.2).

**Figure 3.4 Percentage distribution of the Head of the Households by Age-Groups**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The districts and JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the head of the households in different age-groups shows that the highest percentage share of the head of the households is in 36-45 age groups in all the JJ-Clusters of South-Delhi, North-East Delhi and North-West Delhi except South-West Delhi, in which, the highest percentage share is sifted to slightly younger age-groups (26-35). The head of the households in <=25 age-group have least percentage share in all the JJ-Clusters. In South-Delhi, all the head of the households are above 25. The percentage share of the head of the households in 46-55 age-groups is higher in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi and South-West Delhi in comparison to the JJ-Clusters of North-East and North-West Delhi. However, a total opposite pattern is found for the percentage share of the head of the households in >=56 age-group. The mean age of the head of the households at the time of survey is ranged from 40.76-46.92 in different JJ-Clusters (see Appendix Table A3.2).

It is evident from the percentage share of the head of the households by age-groups and the mean age of the head of the households at the time of survey that most of the head of the households in present study are in their 50s.

### 3.3.1.2 Gender of the Head of the Households:

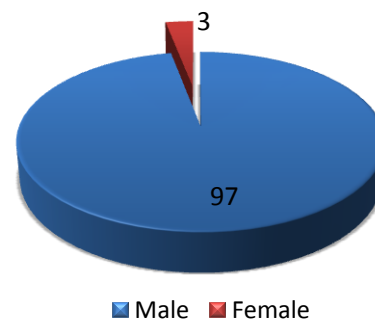
In Indian traditional society, the most elderly person of the family is considered as head of the household because he/she take all the important decisions of the family. Over the time of period, the economic factors are superseding the social-cultural factors in Indian society and this tradition is changing especially in urban areas where principal earner of the household takes most of the decisions because he/she take care of the family in economic terms. In this context, the principal earner of the households is considered as head of the household in present study.

The percentage distribution of the head of the households by gender shows that in sample households, 97 per cent are headed by males, and only 3 per cent households are headed by females. It was observed during field survey that females of the household are also working with males, but when it comes to report the head of the households, most of the respondents reported male earning member of the household as 'head of the household'. The reason cited by them is that the male earning member takes all the major decision in the family.

The interesting observation about female headed households in present study is that in all the female headed households, it is common that they took the responsibility of the household after the death of their spouses and therefore most of them are widowed.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according their gender shows that, all the JJ-Clusters in present study are dominated by male head of the households and the female headed households are in least percentage. The highest percentage share of female headed households is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur of North-East Delhi and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur of North-West Delhi which is 8

Figure-3.5 Gender of the Head of the Households



and 6 per cent respectively. Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj of South Delhi and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla of South-West Delhi are the JJ-Clusters in which all the sample households are headed by males only (see Appendix Table A3.3).

Overall, it can be concluded that in present study, most of the households are headed by male.

### 3.3.1.3 Age-Sex Composition of Migrant Households in JJ-Clusters:

The age-sex composition of any population is very important for the policy makers. It provides crucial information related to the population such as whether the population is going through demographic dividend or it is going towards aging population, what is the sex ratio at different age-group etc. It helps the policy makers to frame the policies according to the requirement of the age-sex composition of the population. For the present analysis of the age-sex composition, the members of the households are classified into following age-groups: <=14, 15-29, 30-44, 45-59, and >=60. The sex-ratio in these age-groups is also calculated. The present analysis is done at district level because there is not much variation in age-sex composition of the JJ-Clusters within a district.

**Table-3.7 Age-Sex Composition of the Migrant Households in JJ-Clusters**

Districts	<=14	15-29	30-44	45-59	>=60	Total
<b>Males</b>						
South Delhi (N=302)	27.81	37.09	15.23	16.56	3.31	100
South-West Delhi (N=293)	35.15	32.76	19.45	11.60	1.02	100
North-East Delhi (N=345)	29.86	40.58	15.36	10.72	3.48	100
North-West Delhi (N=349)	33.24	34.10	17.48	8.88	6.30	100
<b>Total (N=1289)</b>	31.50	36.23	16.83	11.79	3.65	100
<b>Females</b>						
South Delhi (253)	28.46	32.41	25.69	12.25	1.19	100
South-West Delhi (256)	41.02	30.08	17.58	10.55	0.78	100
North-East Delhi (279)	29.39	36.92	18.64	12.54	2.51	100
North-West Delhi (274)	31.75	33.58	20.07	11.31	3.28	100
<b>Total (1062)</b>	32.58	33.33	20.43	11.68	1.98	100
<b>Sex Ratio</b>						
South Delhi	857	732	1413	620	300	838
South-West Delhi	1019	802	789	794	667	874
North-East Delhi	796	736	981	946	583	809
North-West Delhi	750	773	902	1000	409	785
<b>Total</b>	852	758	1000	816	447	824

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

In sample households of the present study, there are 2351 members including the head of the households, among which, 1289 are males and 1062 are females. The gender and age-groups wise percentage distribution of the members of the households shows that the highest percentage share of population is in 15-29 age-group for both genders followed by  $\leq 14$  age-group. With increasing age-groups, the percentage share of the population is decreases for both genders. It can be easily identify that most of the population in present study is in working age-groups i.e. 15-59 for both gender. In child population ( $\leq 14$  age-group) the percentage share of females is higher in comparison to males. In early adulthood (15-29 age-group), the percentage share of males is higher in comparison to females. However, in later adulthood, the percentage share of the females is again high in comparison to males. In old age-groups, the percentage share of the males is higher as compared to the females.

It can be concluded from the above analysis that the high percentage share of population in children and early adulthood age-groups should be a major concern for the urban policy makers. A comprehensive programme for education, skill and youth development should be designed for these young slum dwellers so that they can properly contribute in the urban economy.

The sex ratio for the sample population in present study is 824. According to the census of India, 2011, the sex ratio of slum population in Delhi is 832. It shows that the sex ratio in the sample population is slightly lower in compare to census. In the sample households, the highest sex-ratio is in 30-44 age-group followed by  $\leq 14$  age-group. The district wise sex-ratio in different age-group shows that in different district, the sex-ratio is high in different age-groups. In South Delhi, the highest sex-ratio is in 30-44 age group followed by  $\leq 14$  age-group. In South-West Delhi, the highest sex-ratio is in  $\leq 14$  age-group followed by 15-29 age-group. In North-East and North-West Delhi, the sex-ratio is high in 30-44 and 45-59 age-groups in comparison to other age-groups. In all districts, the lowest sex-ratio is in the older population i.e. 60 and above.

The overall pattern of the age-group wise sex-ratio shows that with few exceptions, the males are more in comparison to females in the sample households living in different JJ-Clusters. It is a common pattern in most of the urban areas in which migrants live.

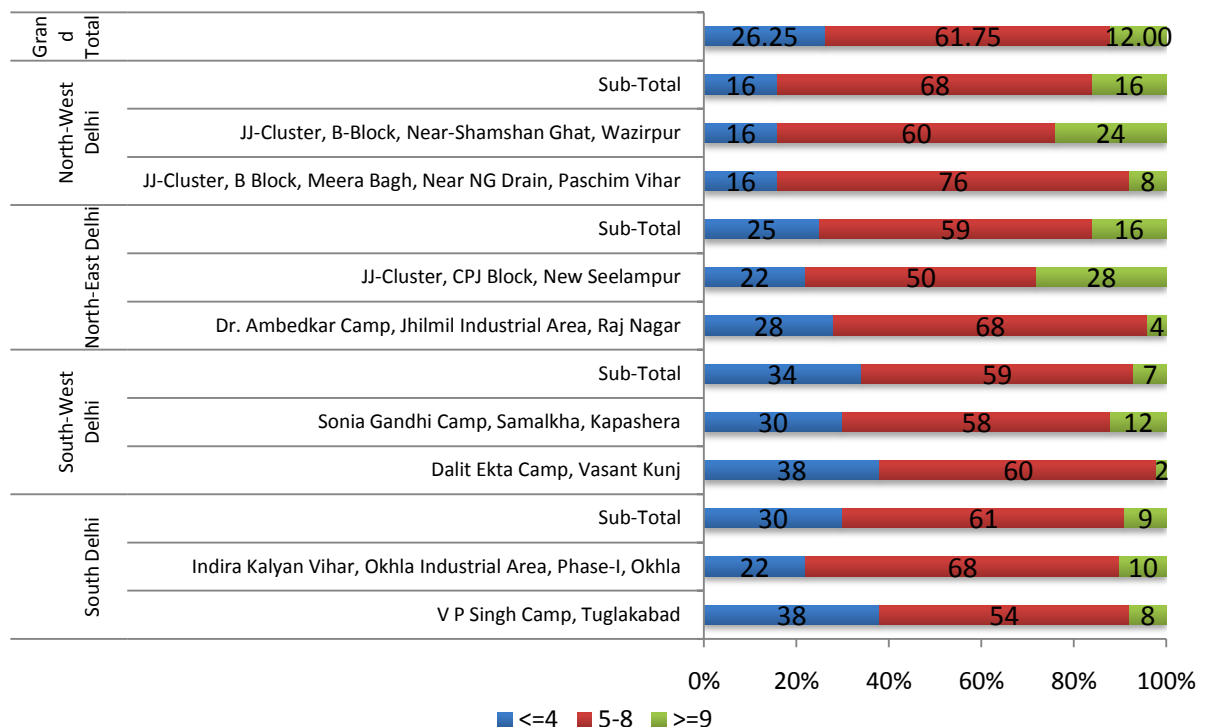


### 3.3.2 Household-Size of the Migrant Households in JJ-Clusters:

The household-size is an important demographic variable to study because it reveals the cost-benefit analysis of the choice of the household-size in a society (Becker, 1960, 1981; Becker & Lewis, 1973) and also the existing cultural norms and values in a society (Blake, 1968). In urban areas, the cost of having large families is much higher in comparison to rural areas and therefore, it is believed that urbanisation lowers the value placed on large families (Tisdell, 1998, 2002).

In the present analysis, the households are classified into following groups according to their household-size:  $\leq 4$ , 5-8,  $\geq 9$ . The percentage distribution of the households by household-size shows that the households with 5-8 members have highest percentage share (61.75 per cent) in total sample households followed by the households with 4 or less members (26.25 per cent). The least percentage share is for the households who have 9 or more members in family.

**Figure: 3.6 Percentage distribution of the Households by Household-Size**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

Except the JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur, the percentage distribution of the households according to their household-size is same as in total. In

these two JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the households with 9 or more members is relatively high in comparison to other JJ-Clusters.

The average household-size is calculated to provide the clearer picture of the household-size in each JJ-Cluster. In present study, the average household-size is 5.9, which is much higher in comparison to the average household-size of slum population of Delhi (4.8) and India (4.7) in Census, 2011. In some of the JJ-Clusters in present study such as JJ-Clusters, New Seelampur (7.10), JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (6.31) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Kapashera (6), the average household-size is very high, which affects the overall average household-size of the sample households. The lowest average household-size is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (4.98).

**Table-3.8 Average Household Size in the sample JJ-Clusters**

<b>Districts</b>	<b>Clusters</b>	<b>Average HH-Size</b>
<b>South Delhi</b>	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	5.32
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	5.78
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>5.55</b>
<b>South-West Delhi</b>	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	4.98
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	6.00
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>5.49</b>
<b>North-East Delhi</b>	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	5.38
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	7.10
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>6.24</b>
<b>North-West Delhi</b>	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	5.82
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	6.80
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>6.31</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>5.90</b>

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)*

It was observed during field survey that in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur, JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, there were many joint families in which all the members were living together as a single household. Because of which, the average household-size in these JJ-Clusters is high.

The tracing of the migration history of the head of the households in different JJ-Clusters reveals an interesting finding related to the household-size in present study. It

was noticed during field survey that initially, most of the head of the households migrated to the NCT of Delhi as a single migrant and after their settlement in Delhi; other members of the family including their spouses migrated to Delhi and joined them in JJ-Cluster. Therefore with increasing duration of stay of head of the households in city, the household-size expands. The percentage distribution of the households according to the durations of stay of head of the households in Delhi and households-size supports the above observation.

**Table-3.9 Duration of Migration of Head of the households and Household-Size**

Duration of Migration Of HoH in Delhi	Household-Size			Total
	<=4	5-8	>=9	
<=10	62.86 (22)	34.29 (12)	2.86 (1)	100 (35)
10-20	33.88 (41)	61.16 (74)	4.96 (6)	100 (121)
20-30	17.75 (30)	66.86 (113)	15.38 (26)	100 (169)
30 & Above	16.00 (12)	64.00 (48)	20.00 (15)	100 (75)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)*

From the above Table, it is evident that with increasing duration of stay of head of the households in Delhi, the household-size increases.

### **3.3.3 Migrant Households by Social Groups:**

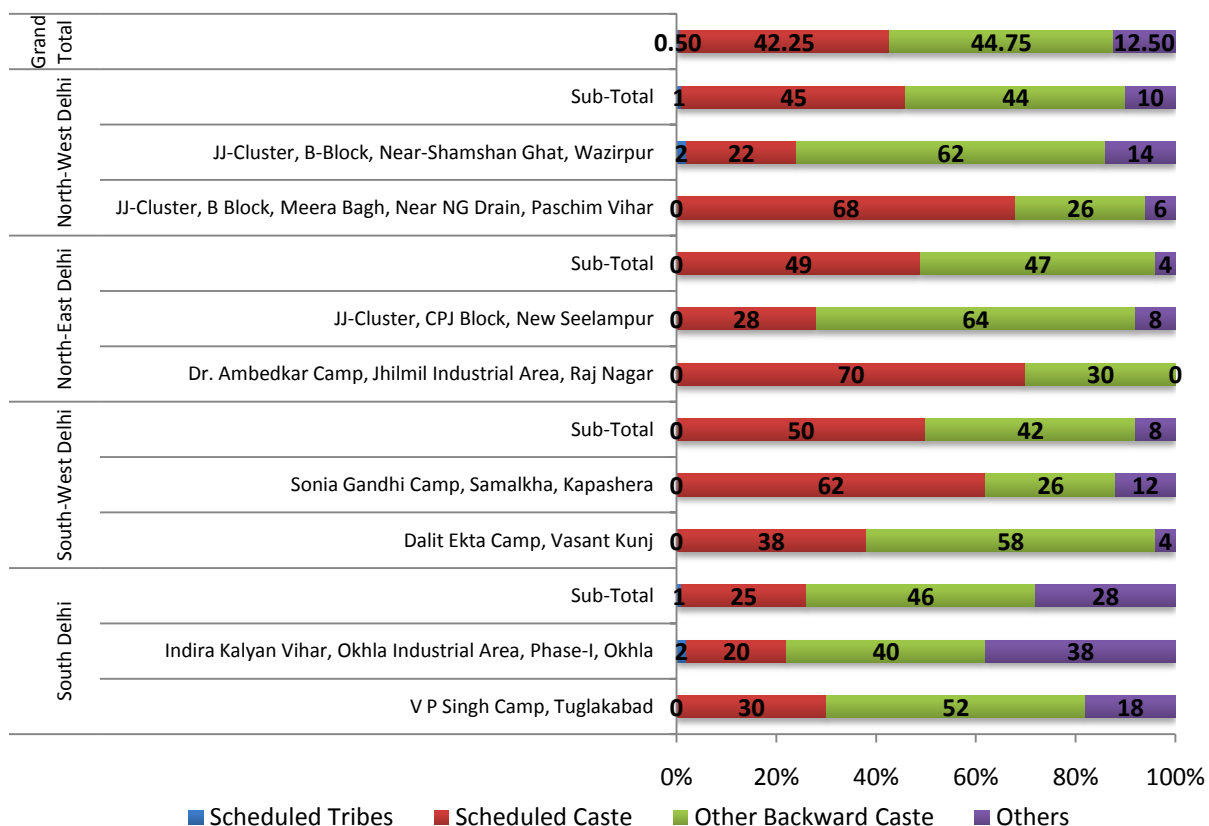
The rural society of India is stratified into a tightly structured social hierarchical order which is known as “*caste system*”. The caste of a person in India is hereditary and imposes certain restrictions to its member in the matter of social intercourse. It largely determines the functions, status and opportunities available to a person for better life (Yadava, 1989). Historically, it has been found that certain castes in India were socially excluded from acquiring/owing any form of property, formal education and other human capitals (Dubey *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, the caste system in India is one of the most decisive factors in the process of migration.

The percentage distribution of the households by social groups shows that in present study, the percentage share of the households in Other Backward Castes is highest (44.75 per cent) followed by Scheduled Castes (42.25 per cent). These two social groups itself constitute 87 per cent of the total migrant households living in sample JJ-Clusters. The percentage share of the households in other category is only 12.50 per cent.

However, only 2 households in present study (one in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and another in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla) reported that they are Scheduled Tribes.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of the households by different social groups shows that the percentage share of the Scheduled Castes is highest in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area of North-East Delhi (70 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh of North-West Delhi (68 per cent) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha of South-West Delhi (62 per cent). However, the percentage share of the Other Backward Castes is highest in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur of North-East Delhi (64 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur of North-West Delhi (62 per cent) and Dalit Ekta Camp of South-West Delhi (58 per cent). One of the reasons of high percentage of OBCs in these JJ-Clusters is that a significant percentage of Muslim households are settled in these JJ-Clusters (see Figure 3.8) and all of them reported that they are in OBCs.

**Figure 3.7 Percentage Distributions of the Migrant Households by Social Groups**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The percentage share of other (General) category is highest in the Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (38 per cent) and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (18 per cent) of South Delhi. The other two JJ-Clusters in which significant percentage of the households in other (General) category are JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (14 per cent) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (12 per cent). As mentioned, earlier the percentage share of the Scheduled Tribes is negligible in present study.

The above distribution pattern of the households by social-groups in different JJ-Clusters can be explained by the role of caste based social networks, because of which the households from same caste and origin prefer to settle at same places in urban centres.

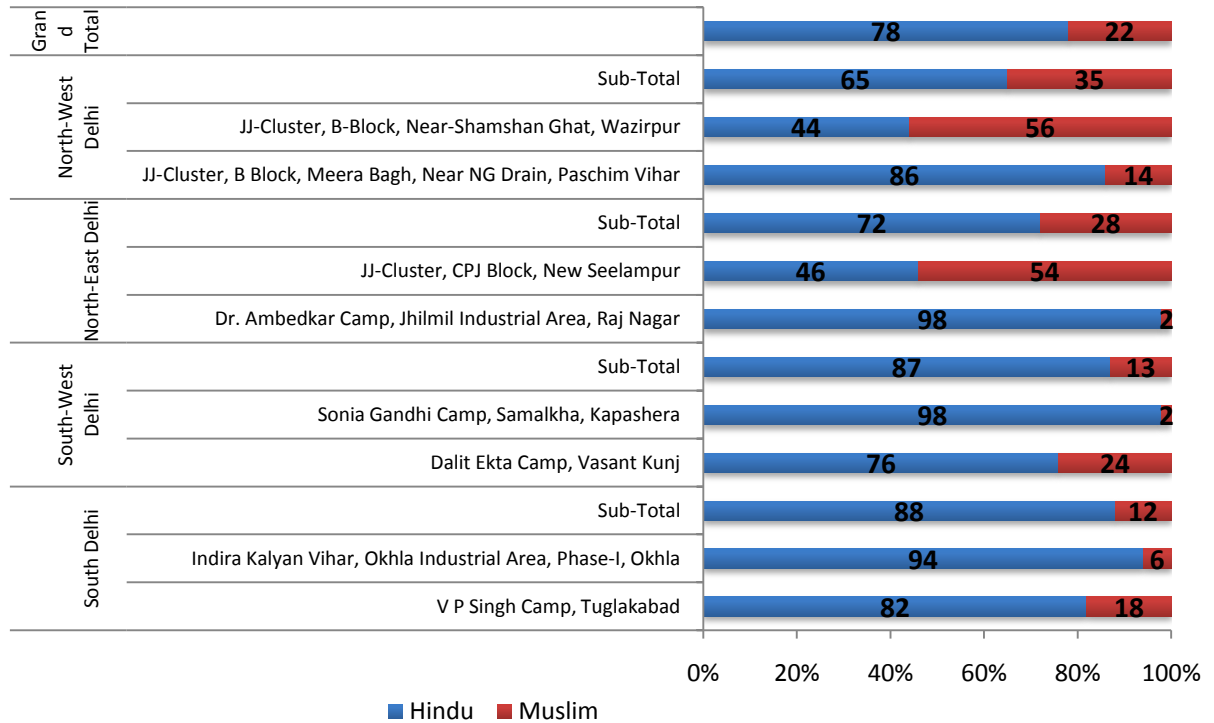
As discussed above, the certain caste groups in India are historically deprived in terms of land, education and other human capital. The high percentage share of Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes households in the present study is reflection of the social exclusion in Indian society. Most of these households are land less or small farmers at the place of origin (see Figure-3.9) and head of these households who migrated to Delhi first are illiterate (see Table-3.10). The migration to NCT of Delhi is part of the survival strategy for these households.

As compared to the results of field survey, the percentage distribution of the migrants by social-groups in NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) shows a different result, in which other category migrants have high percentage share in comparison to OBCs, SCs and STs in Delhi (see Table 2.12, Chapter-II). This difference can be possible because in present study the main focus is on the migrants settled in different JJ-Clusters. However, in general, the persons from affluent family who migrate to Delhi in search of employment or studies live in other residential areas. Many field studies (Neetha, 2004; Basu *et al.*, 1987; Mitra & Tsujita, 2006) have already shown the higher percentage of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes in the slums of NCT of Delhi.

### **3.3.4 Migrant Households by Religion:**

Households only from two religious communities, Hindu and Muslim, are found in the sample households collected for the present study. It can be limitation of the sampling and resource required for a full scale survey. The percentage distribution of the households by religious groups shows that in total sample households, 78 per cent are Hindus and 22 per cent are Muslims.

**Figure 3.8 Percentage Distributions of the Households by Religious Groups**



*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)*

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of the households by religious groups shows that all the JJ-Clusters in present study are dominated by Hindu households except JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur of North-East Delhi and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur of North-West Delhi. In these two JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the Muslim households is high in compare to Hindu households. Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla are the JJ-Clusters, in which more than 90 per cent households are Hindu.

It was observed during field survey that within JJ-Clusters, there is spatial segregation of the households on the basis of religion. The households with particular religion are settled in one place/area in JJ-Clusters.

### **3.3.5 Educational Attainment of the Head and other family members of the Households:**

Education plays a vital role in determining the migratory tendency of a society. It is assumed that more educated people in rural areas are supposed to be more informed about the jobs and opportunities available in the urban centres and therefore they are

more prone to migrate towards urban centres (Khan, 2010). A number of migration studies in India have shown a relationship between level of education and rate of migration (Connell *et al.*, 1976; Banerjee, 1986; Kothari, 1980 as cited in Yadava, 1989; Neetha, 2004) but there is no certain pattern found in these studies that with increasing level of education, the rate of migration also increases. In Indian context, it has been found that both illiterate and persons with higher education from rural areas migrate to metropolitan cities and other big urban centres. The role of education in the process of migration becomes more prominent because it decides the wage-differentials and nature of jobs for rural folks at urban centres. In present study, the educational attainment of the head of the households and other members was collected during field survey. For the analysis purpose, it can be classified in following categories: Illiterate, Primary (Class 1-5), Middle (Class 6-8), Secondary (Class 9-10), Higher Secondary/Diploma (Class 11-12 and ITI etc.) and Graduation & Above.

#### **3.3.5.1 Educational Attainment of the Head of the Households:**

The percentage distribution of the head of the households by educational attainment shows that the illiterate head of the households have highest percentage share (36 per cent) in total sample households followed by Middle (21.25 per cent) and Secondary (18.75 per cent) educated head of the households. Total 8 per cent head of the households in present study have higher secondary education or diploma (ITI etc.) and only 2.50 per cent have graduation & above degree.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of the head of the households according to their educational attainment shows that except V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla of South Delhi, in all other JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the illiterate head of the households is highest as compared to the other educational categories. In these two JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the middle, secondary and higher secondary educated head of the households is high in comparison to other JJ-Clusters. In other JJ-Clusters, the head of the households who are educated are mainly in primary, middle, and secondary educated categories.

In all JJ-Clusters, the least percentage share is for the head of the households with graduation & above category. The overall pattern of educational attainment of the head of

the households in different JJ-Clusters shows that most of the head of the households in present study are either illiterate or very low educated.

**Table-3.10 Percentage Distributions of the Head of the Households by Educational Attainments**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Illiterate	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary/ Diploma	Graduation & Above	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	16	4	34	26	18	2	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	14	6	20	38	14	8	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	15	5	27	32	16	5	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	38	26	26	6	4	0	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	52	4	14	22	8	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	45	15	20	14	6	0	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	40	12	22	18	4	4	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	36	24	22	12	6	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	38	18	22	15	5	2	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	48	16	16	12	4	4	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	44	16	16	16	6	2	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	46	16	16	14	5	3	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		<b>36.00</b>	<b>13.50</b>	<b>21.25</b>	<b>18.75</b>	<b>8.00</b>	<b>2.50</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The lower level of education attainment of the head of the households in present study can be linked with the social groups from which they belong. In present study, the percentage of OBCs and SCs are high in comparison to the other (General) category and it has been mentioned in existing literature (Dubey *et al.*, 2006) that in Indian society, these social groups (SCs and OBCs) were historically deprived from attending the formal education. Therefore the social group wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their education attainment provides a clearer picture about the pattern of education attainment of the head of the households in present study.



**Table-3.11 Percentage distribution of the Head of the households according to Educational attainment and Social Groups**

<b>Social Groups</b>	<b>Illiterate</b>	<b>Primary</b>	<b>Middle</b>	<b>Secondary</b>	<b>Higher Secondary/ Diploma</b>	<b>Graduation and Above</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Scheduled Castes</b>	39.64 (67)	11.24 (19)	23.08 (39)	15.38 (26)	8.28 (14)	2.37 (4)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Castes</b>	37.43 (67)	16.76 (30)	17.88 (32)	18.99 (34)	7.26 (13)	1.68 (3)	100 (179)
<b>Others (General)</b>	18.00 (9)	10.00 (5)	28.00 (14)	28.00 (14)	10.00 (5)	6.00 (3)	100 (50)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Note- Due to the inadequate sample of Scheduled Tribes' households (N=2 and both head of the household were illiterate), they are not included in this table. Samples are given in parenthesis.*

It is evident from the above Table that the percentage share of the illiterate head of the households is highest in SCs and OBCs as compared to the others (General). In opposite, with increasing level of education attainment of the head of the households, the percentage share of the head of the households in other (General) category increases as compared to the SCs and OBCs. This pattern reflects the social exclusion in formal education among different social-groups.

It can be concluded from the above analysis that the higher percentage of the illiterate head of the households in present study is directly linked with their social-groups.

### **3.3.5.2 Educational Attainment of the Members of the Households**

The percentage distribution of the members of the households according to their age-groups and educational attainment is given at aggregate level because after the cross-classification of education attainment and age-groups of males and females at JJ-Cluster or district level, sample-size in many cells are inadequate to explain the informations related to age-group wise educational attainment for both genders. In present study, the education attainment of the males and females of households are given for the following age-groups: 6-14, 15-29, 30-44, 45-59 and 60 & above. It was found during field survey that the children below 6 years of age are not attending formal education and therefore, they are not included in present analysis.

The percentage distribution of the members of the households according to the age-groups and educational attainment shows that in child population (6-14 age-groups), the percentage share is highest in primary and middle for both genders. It shows that the children of the JJ-Clusters are going to school. In 15-29 age-groups, the percentage share of the males and female are high in middle, secondary and higher secondary/diploma category. It is because most of the younger population in JJ-Clusters is attending schools and colleges. As compared to other age-groups, the percentage share of the males and females in graduation & above category is highest in this age-groups and it is equal for both gender which shows that a significant percentage of population in younger age-groups in JJ-Clusters have started to pursue higher education and now parents in JJ-Clusters are allowing their daughters also to pursue higher education. The increasing literacy rates in slum population in Delhi (see Table 2.15, Chapter-II) are the result of this changing environment in JJ-Clusters towards education.

**Table-3.12 Percentage distribution of members of the households according to the Age-Groups and Educational Attainment**

Age-Groups/ Educational Status	Illiterate	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary/ Diploma	Graduation and Above	Total
<b>Males</b>							
<b>6-14</b>	0.66 (2)	58.75 (178)	35.31 (107)	5.28 (16)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	100 (303)
<b>15-29</b>	10.28 (48)	9.64 (45)	24.20 (113)	26.34 (123)	16.27 (76)	13.28 (62)	100 (467)
<b>30-44</b>	23.50 (51)	15.67 (34)	24.42 (53)	23.50 (51)	10.60 (23)	2.30 (5)	100 (217)
<b>45-59</b>	45.39 (69)	9.21 (14)	18.42 (28)	17.11 (26)	5.92 (9)	3.95 (6)	100 (152)
<b>&gt;=60</b>	61.70 (29)	14.89 (7)	10.64 (5)	10.64 (5)	0.00 (0)	2.13 (1)	100 (47)
<b>Females</b>							
<b>6-14</b>	0.84 (2)	61.09 (146)	32.64 (78)	5.44 (13)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	100 (239)
<b>15-29</b>	18.36 (65)	8.47 (30)	19.49 (69)	20.06 (71)	20.34 (72)	13.28 (47)	100 (354)
<b>30-44</b>	64.52 (140)	12.44 (27)	12.90 (28)	8.29 (18)	1.38 (3)	0.46 (1)	100 (217)
<b>45-59</b>	82.26 (102)	11.29 (14)	6.45 (8)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	100 (124)
<b>&gt;=60</b>	95.24 (20)	4.76 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	100 (21)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

It can be easily noticed from the above Table-3.12 that with increasing age-groups, the percentage share of the illiterates is also increasing both for males and females. This increment is more in females as compared to males. The high percentage share of illiterate males and females in 30-44 and later age-groups is because of the high percentage share of OBCs and SCs in sample households of the present study. The education attainment level (from primary to graduation & above) of the males in 30-44 and later age-groups is much better in comparison to females. It is because of the patriarchal nature of Indian rural society in which more preference is given to the education of male members of the family in comparison to the females, because sons are considered as assets while the daughters are seen as liabilities (Kingdon, 2002).

It can be concluded from the above analysis that inspite of a high percentage of illiterate head of the households in present study, the younger population in JJ-Clusters is going to schools and colleges and the girls in families are also getting equal education as males. It shows that the parents in JJ-Clusters are becoming aware about the importance of education in life.

### **3.3.6 Landholding by the Migrant Households at the place of Origin:**

In present study, the landholding at the place of origin is considered as one of the indicators of the economic status of the migrant households. In rural society of India, land is greatly valued because it is the most important source of income and security for rural households. The possession of land by household is considered as an economic asset and significantly influences the various decisions of the household, including migration (Tsujita & Oda, 2012).

Many scholars in India have tried to establish the relationship between landholding size and the propensity to migrate, but no certain conclusion can be drawn from these studies because they show contradictory results. In some studies (Sharma, 1984; Banerjee, 1986; Yadava, 1989; Korra, 2010; Tsujita & Oda, 2012) it has been found that the members of landless households in rural areas migrate more in comparison to the medium and large landholders (*Zamindars*). The results from these studies point out that the uncertainty of the source of income in rural areas and low wages in agricultural labour work makes the landless households more vulnerable, and therefore, the migration of the members of these households towards urban centres becomes the

part of their survival. However, the members of households with small and medium landholdings work as cultivators and don't hesitate to take more land on lease for farming. Therefore, their propensity to migrate towards urban centres is lower as compared to the members of landless households.

Some other studies (Joshi, 1966; Connell *et al.*, 1976) show a positive relationship between landholding size and rate of migration. These studies point out that the members of the households possessing small, medium and large landholding in rural areas migrate more as compared to the landless households. According to Yadava (1989), the positive relationship between landholding size and rate of migration may be due to the fact that the households with medium and large landholdings in rural areas generally have larger household sizes and subsequently more joint families; which allow a member of these households to migrate towards urban centres for earning or better schooling and other member of the family look after the work of cultivation of his land too.

The other reason for this positive relationship can be the higher cost of migration. According to Tsujita & Oda, (2012), the members of the landless and small landholding households have less chance to afford the higher costs of migration towards urban centres which include the transportation cost, accommodation and daily expenses at the destination place for a certain length of time, and fees for recruitment agents etc. Only the households with medium and large landholdings can finance the migration of a family member properly toward metropolitan cities properly.

The study of the Oberai & Singh (1983) on Punjab shows a mixed type of result for the relationship between landholding size and migration rate. It shows that the propensity to migrate towards urban centres is high for both type of households- landless and large landholders and therefore a U-Shaped curve can be found between landholding size and rate of migration.

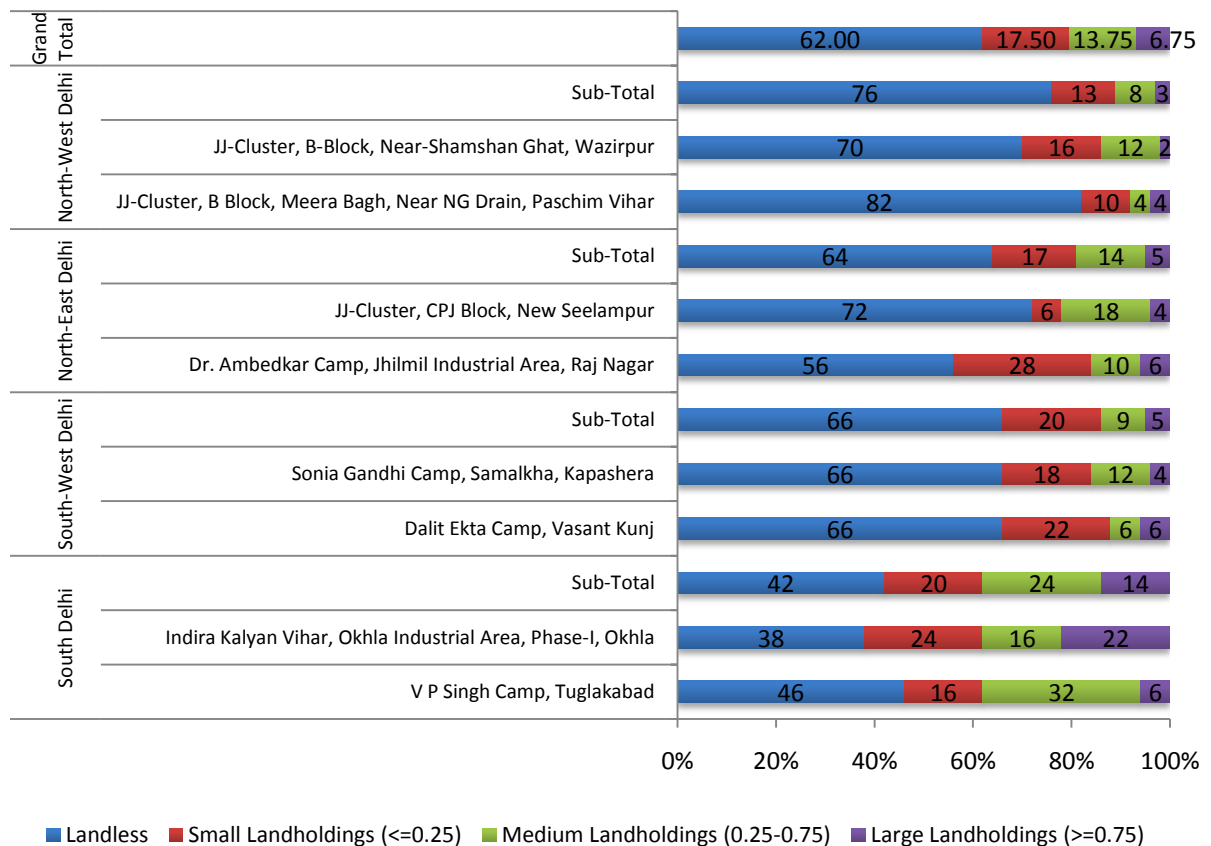
In short, it can be concluded from the above discussion that it is difficult to establish the relationship between landholding size and propensity to migrate in Indian context.

In present study, the landholdings of the households at place of origin was collected during field survey in local measuring unit known as “*Bigha*” and converted to the hectare for proper understanding. The households in present study are classified into

following groups according their possession of landholdings at place of origin: Landless, Small landholders ( $\leq 0.25$  hectare), Medium landholders (0.25-0.75 hectare) and Large landholders ( $\geq 0.75$  hectare).

The percentage distribution of the households according to their landholdings at the place of origin shows that 62 per cent households in present study are landless at their place of origin. However, the percentage share of households with small, medium and large landholdings at place of origin is 17.50 per cent, 13.75 per cent and 6.75 per cent respectively. Therefore, it can be easily noticed that with increasing landholdings at place of origin the share of the households in JJ-Clusters decline. It shows that the chance of migration from rural areas to the JJ-Clusters of Delhi become less, if the households posses even a small piece of land in rural areas because they can cultivate and survive from agriculture on their own landholdings.

**Figure 3.9 Percentage Distributions of Households by Landholdings (in Hectare) at Place of Origin**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households according to their landholdings at the place of origin follows the same pattern as in total. The highest percentage share is for the households who are landless at their place of origin in all JJ-Clusters. However, the least percentage share is for the households who possess large landholdings at their place of origin.

The percentage share of the landless households is lowest in the JJ-Clusters of South Delhi as compared to other JJ-Clusters. However, the percentage share of landless households is highest in JJ-Clusters of North-West Delhi. The households with small landholdings at place of origin are highest in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Areas of North-East Delhi. Except this JJ-Cluster, the percentage share of the households with small landholdings at place of origin is higher in the JJ-Clusters of South and South West Delhi in comparison to North-East and North-West Delhi. The percentage share of the households with medium landholdings at place of origin is significantly high in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi in comparison to the JJ-Clusters of other districts. The percentage share of the households with large landholdings is high only in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla of South Delhi. In short, the above discussion points out that with few exceptions, the possessions of landholdings at place of origin are significant for the households living in JJ-Clusters of South and South-West Delhi as compared to North East and North West Delhi.

The higher percentage of the landless households in present study can be linked with the social groups of the households.

**Table-3.13 Percentage distribution of the households by Landholdings at the place of origin (in hectare) and Social Groups**

Social Groups	Land Holding Size at Place of Origin				Total
	Landless	<=0.25	0.25-0.75	>=0.75	
<b>Scheduled Caste</b>	75.15 (127)	13.61 (23)	8.28 (14)	2.96 (5)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Caste</b>	60.89 (109)	20.67 (37)	12.29 (22)	6.15 (11)	100 (179)
<b>General</b>	20.00 (10)	20.00 (10)	38.00 (19)	22.00 (11)	100 (50)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January), 2015. Note- Due to the inadequate sample of Scheduled Tribes' households (N=2 and both were landless), they are not included in this table. Sample are given in parenthesis.

The social-group wise percentage distribution of the households by landholdings at the place of origin shows that the percentage share of the landless households is very high in Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes in comparison to other category households. However, in contrast to this, the percentage share of the households with medium and large landholdings at the place of origin is very high in other category households as compared to the SCs and OBCs. The overall pattern of social-group wise landholdings at place of origin in present study is the result of the social exclusion of certain castes to possess a land in rural areas. It has been found in studies that in caste structure of India, certain castes are historically deprived from possessing a piece of land and the higher percentage of landless households among SCs and OBCs in present study is reflection of this social exclusion.

It can be concluded from above analysis that a significant percentage of the households in present study are landless and it is because of the higher percentage share of the OBCs and SCs in present study. The landlessness in origin areas make these households more vulnerable and staying in JJ-Clusters and working in Delhi is part of their survival strategy.

### **3.3.7 Employment Status:**

In the process of the migration towards metropolitan cities and other big urban centres the job opportunities available in different sectors of urban economy act as a most influential pull factor. It not only offers better wages in comparison to rural areas but also lifts the standard of living of migrant households as compared to origin. Therefore most of the rural peoples migrate to urban centres in search of their fortune. In this context the present section of the chapter discusses the pre-migration, post-migration (first job in Delhi) and the current employment status of the head of the households in detail. However, the employment status of the other member of the households is also discussed briefly.

#### **3.3.7.1 Pre-Migration Employment Status of the Head of the Households:**

The analysis of the employment status of the head of the households before and after migration is very relevant in migration studies because it throws lights on the economic motives of the migration and provides insights to identify the determinants of migration from rural to urban areas (Caldwell, 1968). The pre-migration employment status of the

head of the households reported by respondents can be classified into following groups: Cultivators, Agricultural Labourers, Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing and Construction, Wholesale & Retail (Including Motorcycle Repair) and Workers in Services. The head of the households who were studying at the time of migration are also included as “student” category in present analysis.

Rural India is still predominated by agricultural work, as most of the population in rural areas is engaged in agriculture as cultivators or agricultural labourers. Only a small percentage of population in rural areas works in small scale cottage industries, business and other activities.

**Table 3.14 Percentage Distribution of the head of the households according to their employment status before migration**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Cultivators	Agricultural Labourers	Mining & Quarrying	Manufacturing & Construction	Wholesale & Retail (including Motorcycle repair)	Workers in Services	Student	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	26	22	0	12	2	4	34	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	26	18	0	4	6	2	44	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	26	20	0	8	4	3	39	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	6	50	2	6	2	2	32	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	10	54	0	4	0	2	30	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	8	52	1	5	1	2	31	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	8	56	0	4	4	0	28	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	6	34	0	8	8	8	36	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	7	45	0	6	6	4	32	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	2	56	2	6	6	2	26	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	8	46	0	10	12	0	24	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	5	51	1	8	9	1	25	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		11.50	42.00	0.50	6.75	5.00	2.50	31.75	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January), 2015.

The percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their pre-migration employment status shows that the percentage share of the head of the



households who were agricultural labourers and cultivators is very high in comparison to other economic activities. The high percentage share of head of the households in agricultural labourers and cultivators before migration to Delhi is a manifestation of the agrarian nature of rural economy in India.

Manufacturing & construction (6.75 per cent) followed by wholesale and retail (including motorcycle repairs) (5 per cent) are the other economic activities in which head of the households were employed before migration to Delhi. In sample households, 68.25 per cent head of the households reported that they were working in different sectors. However, 31.75 per cent reported that they were studying before migration to Delhi.

It has been discussed in earlier section that in sample households, the percentage share of the OBCs and SCs is high as compared to others and a significant percentage of households in present study are landless at place of origin. Therefore the social groups and landholdings (at place of origin) wise analysis of pre-migration employment status of the head of the households gives more insights about the high percentage of agricultural labourers and cultivators in present study.

**Table-3.15 Percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their social groups, landholdings at place of origin and pre-migration employment status**

Social Groups/ Landholdings/ Employment Status of HoH before Migration	Cultivators	Agriculture Labourers	Mining and Quarrying	Manufacturin g & Construction	Wholesale & Retail (including Motorcycle repair)	Workers in Services	Student	Total
<b>Social Groups</b>								
<b>Scheduled Caste (N=169)</b>	6.51	52.66	1.18	3.55	4.73	3.55	27.81	100
<b>Other Backward Caste (N=179)</b>	8.94	39.66	0.00	10.61	5.59	1.68	33.52	100
<b>General (N=50)</b>	38.00	16.00	0.00	2.00	4.00	2.00	38.00	100
<b>Landholdings (in hectare) at Place of Origin</b>								
<b>Landless (N=248)</b>	0.00	54.44	0.81	9.27	5.24	2.82	27.42	100
<b>Small (&lt;=0.25) (N=70)</b>	7.14	40.00	0.00	2.86	7.14	2.86	40.00	100
<b>Medium (0.25-0.75) (N=55)</b>	43.64	9.09	0.00	1.82	3.64	1.82	40.00	100
<b>Large (&gt;=0.75) (27)</b>	62.96	0.00	0.00	3.70	0.00	0.00	33.33	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January), 2015. Note- Due to the inadequate sample of Scheduled Tribes' households (N=2), they are not included in this table.

The social group wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their pre-migration employment status shows that before migration to Delhi, most of the head of the households in SC and OBC category were agricultural labourers and the head of the households in other category were cultivators. This social-group wise occupational segregation is the direct manifestation of the possession of the landholdings at place of origin by different social groups. It has been discussed in earlier section of this chapter (see Table-3.13) that the percentage share of the landless households is very high in SCs and OBCs and therefore most of the head of the households in these social groups were agricultural labourers before migration to Delhi. In opposite, the percentage share of the households in other category is high in medium and large landholdings as compared to OBCs and SCs and therefore the head of the households in this category were cultivators before migration to Delhi.

The percentage share of the head of the households who were studying before migration to Delhi is also high in other category in comparison to SCs and OBCs. It also indicates that the head of the households in other category were in better condition in comparison to SCs and OBCs.

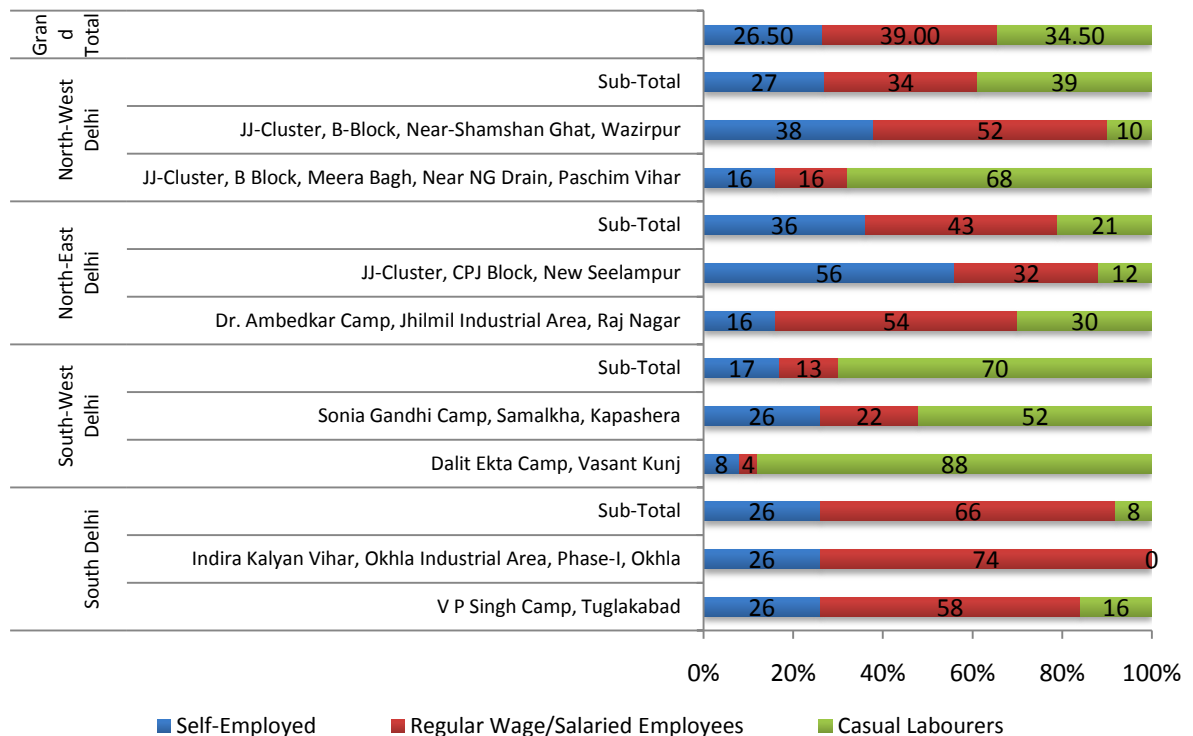
The landholdings (at the place of origin) wise percentage distribution of the pre-employment status of the head of the households also supports the above discussion, as it shows, the high percentage share of head of the households as agricultural labourers in landless and small landholdings category. It also shows that with increasing landholding size, the percentage share of head of the households as cultivator increases. The percentage share of the head of the households also increases with the increasing landholdings of the households at place of origin.

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that before migration to Delhi, most of the head of the households were either agricultural labourer or cultivators. A significant percentage of head of the households also reported that they were studying before migration to Delhi. The social-group of the head of the household and the possession of land at place of origin by households determine the nature of work done by head of the households before migration to Delhi.

### 3.3.7.2 Post-Migration Employment Status of the head of the households (First Job in Delhi):

The employment status of the head of the households after migration to Delhi, in other words, the first employment of the head of the households when they migrated to Delhi was collected during field survey. The percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their first employment in Delhi shows that in sample households, 39 per cent head of the households were regular wage/salaried employees, 34.50 per cent were casual labourers and only 26.50 per cent head of the households were self employed.

**Figure 3.10 Percentage distributions of the head of the households according to their Post-Migration Employment status (First Job in Delhi)**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their post-migration employment status (first job in Delhi) shows that the percentage share of the head of the households working as regular wage/salaried employees at the time of migration is highest in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the Industrial areas such as Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla, Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial area, JJ-

Cluster, Wazirpur and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad. However, the percentage share of the head of the households working as casual labourers at the time of migration is highest in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the surrounding of residential area such as Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha.

The percentage share of the head of the households working as self employed at the time of migration is highest in the JJ-Clusters settled near railway station/metro station and industrial areas such as JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur, JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad.

The industry wise classification (NIC-2008) of the post-migration employment of the head of the households (first job in Delhi) gives more insights about the types of job of the head of the households at the time of migration in different JJ-Clusters. Therefore, for the detail analysis, the head of the households are classified into following groups according to their post migration employment (first jobs in Delhi): 1) Manufacturing 2) Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities, 3) Construction 4) Wholesale & Retail Trade (including motor vehicles and motorcycle repair services) and Hotel & Restaurants 5) Transport, Storage and Communication 6) Financing, insurance, Real Estate and Business and 7) Service Sectors (Community, Social and Personal Services). This classification is done on the basis of NIC-2008.

The percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their post migration employment status shows that in sample households, 35.50 per cent head of the households were working in manufacturing sectors and 34.25 per cent head of the households were working in construction sectors at the time of migration. The head of the households in these two sectors alone constitute around 70 per cent of the total. It shows that the manufacturing and construction are the two major sectors in which most of the head of the households worked at the time of migration.

The other sectors in which a significant percentage of head of the households worked at the time of migration are- wholesales & retail trade (including motor vehicles/motor cycle repair services), Restaurants & Hotels, and Service sectors. The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution shows that the percentage share of the head of the households is high only in the above mentioned categories.

**Table 3.16 Percentage Distribution of the Head of the Households according to Post-Migration Employment Status (First Job in Delhi)**

Districts	Clusters	Manufacturing	Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	Construction	Wholesale and Retail Trade (including motor vehicles and motorcycle repair services) and Restaurants and Hotels	Transport, Storage and Communication	Financing, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	Community, Social and Personal Services etc (Services)	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	52	2	16	8	6	6	10	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	64	0	0	16	4	4	12	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>100</b>
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	6	0	88	2	2	0	2	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	22	0	52	18	4	0	4	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	48	0	30	12	2	0	8	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	42	4	10	22	10	0	12	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	10	0	68	8	4	2	8	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	40	0	10	20	10	2	18	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		<b>35.50</b>	<b>0.75</b>	<b>34.25</b>	<b>13.25</b>	<b>5.25</b>	<b>1.75</b>	<b>9.25</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The high percentage share of the head of the households in manufacturing sector at the time of their migration to Delhi is found in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in Industrial areas such as Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (64 per cent) followed by V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (52 per cent) and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (48 per cent). The availability of jobs in the industries located surrounding these JJ-Clusters can be main reason for the high percentage of head of the households in manufacturing sector at the time of migration. In fact, some of the migrants who were old enough to inform about the origin of these JJ-Clusters reported that after the establishment of the industries

in these areas, the demands of the labour was also increased and therefore, the migrants from rural areas of different states started to come for employment in the industries located in these areas. Subsequently, they were started to settle on the empty public land surrounded to these Industries and over the time of period, these JJ-Clusters came into existence and expanded with growing migrant households from the same states through social networking.

The percentage share of the head of the households in construction sector at the time of their migration to Delhi is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (88 per cent) followed by JJ-Clusters, Meera Bagh (68 per cent) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (52 per cent). These are the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the close proximity of residential colonies. The tracing of the origin of these JJ-Clusters reveals the story behind the high percentage share of head of the households in construction sector in these JJ-Clusters. The elderly head of the households from these JJ-Clusters recall that, at the time of their migration, a massive construction work was going on to build the residential areas nearby these JJ-Clusters and most of the head of the households who migrated with the contractor/co-villagers to work in the construction of these colonies lived in the makeshift arrangements provided by contractor on the empty land surrounded to these colonies. Over the time of period, these head of the households started to make their Jhuggi on the same land and the JJ-Clusters came into existence.

A significant percentage of head of the households in wholesales & retail trade (including motor vehicles/motor cycle repair services), restaurants & hotels, and services sectors is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur, JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla.

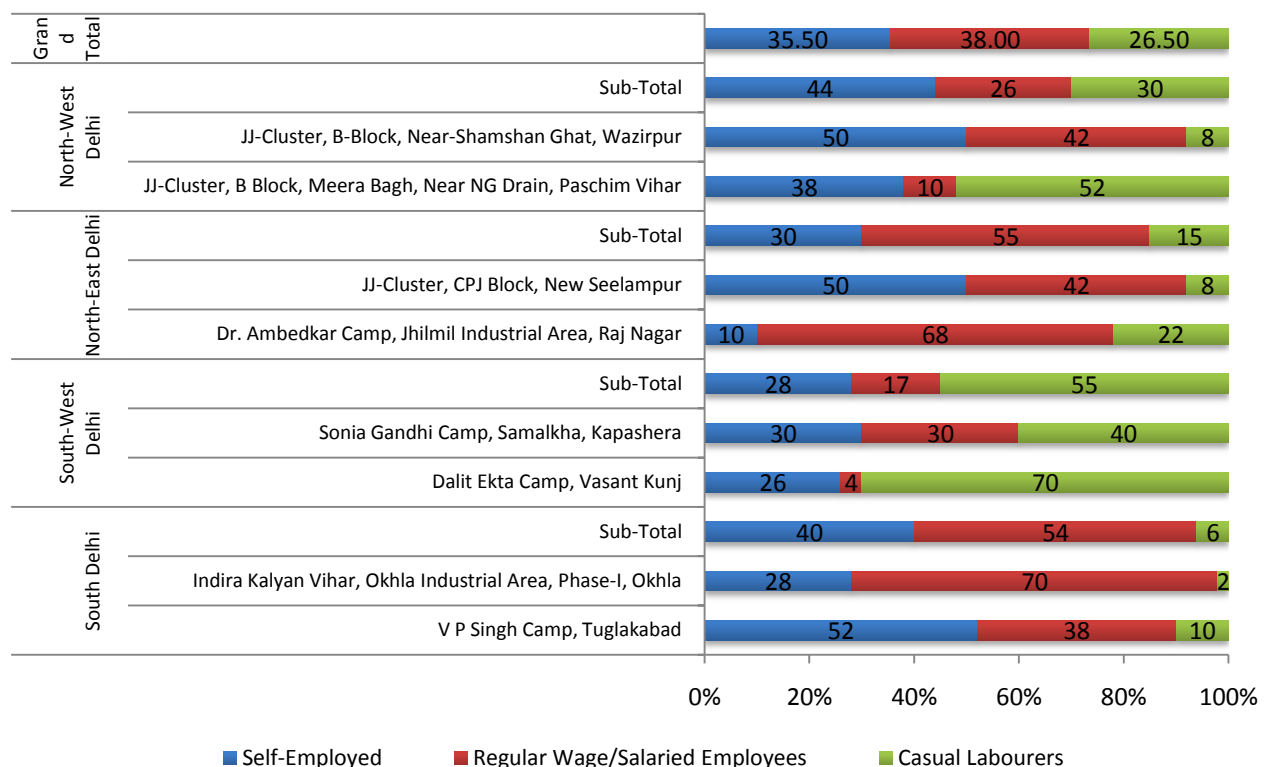
It can be concluded from the above analysis that there is a positive link between the post-migration employment status (first job in Delhi) of the head of the households and the location of the JJ-Clusters in which they lived. The job opportunity available to the nearby area of the JJ-Clusters at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi was the main reason to opt a particular type of job by head of the households in different JJ-Clusters.

### 3.3.7.3 Current Employment Status of the Head of the Households:

In the present study, the information about the current employment status of the head of the households is collected and categorized primarily into three employment status categories: Self Employed, Regular/Salaried Employed and Casual Labourers.

The percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their current employment status shows that in sample households, 38 per cent head of the households are regular wage/salaried employees. The second highest percentage share is for the head of the households who are self employed (35.50 per cent). However, the least percentage share is in casual labourer category (26.50 per cent).

**Figure 3.11 Percentage distributions of the head of the households according to their Current Employment Status**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The comparison of the post-migration employment status i.e. the first job of the head of the households and the current employment status of the head of the households shows interesting results. The head of the households who were casual labourer at the time of migration sifted to self-employed and regular wage/salaried employees categories as the percentage share of the casual labourers in current employment status is substantially low

as compared to the post-migration employment status (first job in Delhi) of the head of the households (see Figure 3.10). The highest increment is found in self-employed category, because it was observed during field survey that a majority of the head of the households who were casual labourer at the time of migration, have owned a shop or work as rickshaw pullers, auto rickshaw drivers etc. now.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the head of the households shows that the current employment status of the head of the households is still linked with location of the JJ-Cluster where head of the households live as discussed for the post-migration employment status. The head of the households in regular wage/salaried employees category is still high in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the surrounding of industrial areas such as Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (70 per cent) and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (68 per cent). The condition is same for the self employed and casual labourer head of the households.

The percentage share of the self employed head of the household is highest in the JJ-Clusters settled nearby railway station/metro stations etc. such as V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (52 per cent), JJ-Clusters, New Seelampur (50 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (50 per cent). However, the highest percentage share of the head of the households in casual labourer category is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (70 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (52 per cent) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (40 per cent). The main reason for the high percentage share of casual labourer in these JJ-Clusters is the demand of daily labourer for construction and other activities in the residential areas surrounding these JJ-Clusters.

The pattern of current employment status shows that although the percentage share of the casual labourers is declined and the percentage share of the self-employed increased as compared to the post migration employment status but the spatial concentration of a particular type of employment in a JJ-Cluster is more or less same for current employment status and post-migration employment status of head of the households.

The current employment status of the head of the households is also classified according to NIC-2008 in different industrial categories. The percentage distributions of the current employment status of head of the households according the industrial



classification-2008 shows that in total sample households, 34.25 per cent head of the households are working in manufacturing sector. The JJ-Clusters wise percentage share of head of the households working in manufacturing sector is high in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the surrounding of Industrial areas such as Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (58 per cent), Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (56 per cent) and V P Singh, Camp (42 per cent).

Most of the head of the households in these JJ-Clusters reported that they work as helper, tailor, machine operator and quality checker etc. in the industries located around these JJ-Clusters. The percentage share of the head of the households in manufacturing sector is also significant in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (38 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (30 per cent). It was found during the field survey of JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur that many head of the households manufacture items like Joss Stick (Agarbatti), toys and work in removing the plastic/rubber layers from copper wire and other small manufacturing tasks from their Jhuggi. However, the head of the households in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur work in nearby Wazirpur Industrial Areas.

Construction is the second important sector in which 26.75 per cent head of the households are working. The percentage share in this sector is high in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (70 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (54 per cent) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (40 per cent). The head of the households from these JJ-Clusters reported that they are working as daily wage labourer and masons (*Raj- Mistri*).

The other two important sectors in which the percentage share of the head of the households is significant are wholesales & retail trade (including motor vehicle repair) with Hotels & Restaurants, and Transport, Storage and Communication. In sample households, total 15 per cent head of the households are working in wholesale/retail trade (including motor vehicle repair) and hotels & restaurants and 10.25 per cent head of the households are working in transport, Storage and Communication. The head of the households working as street vendors, having a small tea shop or shop of grocery items, sweet in the JJ-Clusters are included in the previous employment category with car and motorcycle mechanics. However, in later employment category, head of the households working as rickshaw pullers, auto drivers and drivers of other vehicles are included.

**Table-3.17 Percentage Distribution of the current employment status of head of the households according to National Industrial Classification-2008**

Districts	Clusters	Manufacturing	Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	Construction	Wholesale and Retail Trade (Including motor vehicles n motorcycle repair services) and Restaurants and Hotels	Transport, Storage and Communication	Financing, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	Community, Social and Personal Services etc (Services)	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	42	2	10	12	16	8	10	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	56	0	2	16	6	12	8	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>100</b>
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	8	0	70	6	10	2	4	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	30	0	40	20	2	2	6	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>19</b>		<b>55</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>100</b>
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	58	6	22	8	2	2	2	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	38	4	8	24	16	4	6	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>100</b>
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	12	0	54	12	12	0	10	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	30	0	8	22	18	2	20	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>34.25</b>	<b>1.50</b>	<b>26.75</b>	<b>15.00</b>	<b>10.25</b>	<b>4.00</b>	<b>8.25</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

The percentage share of the head of the households in wholesales & retail trade (including motor vehicle repair) with Hotels & Restaurants, and Transport, Storage and Communication sector is significant in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad, JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur.

The percentage share of the head of the households in service sector is 8.25 per cent and most of the head of the household working in this sector reported that they work barbers, cobblers, washer-men, teachers, maid and mechanics (cycle and other home appliances' repairing services). The least percentage share is in financing, insurance, real

estate and business services and water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities.

The comparison of the post-migration employment status (first job in Delhi) and the current employment status of the head of the households by different industrial activities shows a significant decline in the percentage share of the head of the households in construction sector. At the time of migration to Delhi (first job in Delhi), the percentage share of the head of the households was much higher in construction sector as compared to the currently working head of the households in this sector. Manufacturing and Services are the other sectors in which a slight decline has been noticed. However, the percentage share of the head of the households working in transport, storage and communication sector has increased sharply as compared to their percentage share in this sector at the time of migration (first job in Delhi). The financing, insurance, real estate and business services; and wholesale/retail trade (including motor vehicle repair) and hotels & restaurants are the other sectors in which a slight increment has been noticed in the percentage share of the currently working head of the households in these sector as compared the head of the households who worked in these sector at the time of migration.

It is evident from the above analysis and the field observations also confirm that over the time of period the head of the households have shifted from construction sector to the transport, storage and communication; wholesale/retail trade (including motor vehicle repair) and hotels & restaurants; and financing, insurance, real estate and business services. The shift from casual labourers to self-employed and regular wage/salaried employees is resulted by the change of current employment activity by head of the households as compared to the post-migration employment activity (first job in Delhi).

#### **3.3.7.4 Social Group wise mobility between Post-Migration Employment Status and the Current Employment Status of the Head of the Households.**

The social group is one of the factors which determine the employment status of a migrant in urban centre. It has been found in studies (Panini, 1996; Munshi & Rosenzweig, 2006) that caste based recruitment networks play important role in the urban labour market. In this context, the present sub-section give details of the post-migration

employment status and current employment status of the head of the households across social groups and examine the changes between these two over the time period.

**Table-3.18 Percentage distribution of the head of the households by post-migration employment status and current employment status across social-groups**

Social Groups	Self-Employed	Regular Wage/Salaried Employees	Casual Labourers	Total
<b>Post Migration Employment Status</b>				
<b>Scheduled Caste</b>	19.53 (33)	34.91 (59)	45.56 (77)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Caste</b>	33.52 (60)	35.20 (63)	31.28 (56)	100 (179)
<b>Others (General)</b>	26.00 (13)	66.00 (33)	8.00 (4)	100 (50)
<b>Current Employment Status</b>				
<b>Scheduled Caste</b>	26.63 (45)	34.91 (59)	38.46 (65)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Caste</b>	43.02 (77)	35.75 (64)	21.23 (38)	100 (179)
<b>Others (General)</b>	40.00 (20)	56.00 (28)	4.00 (2)	100 (50)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January), 2015. Note- Due to the inadequate sample of Scheduled Tribes' households (N=2), they are not included in this table. Samples are given in the parenthesis.*

The social group wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their post-migration employment status shows that at the time of migration to Delhi, a high percentage of OBCs and SCs head of the households were casual labourers as compared to others (general). However, the percentage share of the other (general) category head of the households was high in regular wage/salaried employees in comparison to OBCs and SCs head of the households. In self-employed category the percentage share of the OBCs head of the households was highest followed by Others (general). This pattern may be due to fact that other category head of the households had better education, social network at the time of migration as compared to SCs and OBCs.

The social group wise percentage distribution of the head of the households according to their current employment status shows that over the time period it has changed for different social groups. The percentage share of the SCs and OBCs head of the households is declined in casual labourers and the decline is more as compared to other (general). These head of the households have shifted to self-employed category as percentage share of SCs and OBCs head of the households in this category has increased substantially. A decline is also noticed in the regular wage/salaried head of the

households in other (general) category and they have also shifted to self-employed category.

The social group wise percentage distribution of the post migration and current employment status of the head of the households according to NIC-2008 provides more details about the sectoral change of the first and current employment status of the head of the households for different social groups. At the time of migration to Delhi, a high percentage of SCs and OBCs head of the households worked in construction sector as compared to other (general). However, the percentage share of the head of the households in other (general) category was very high in manufacturing sector as compared to SCs and OBCs.

**Table: 3.19 Percentage distribution of the head of the households by post-migration employment status and current employment status (NIC-2008) across social-groups**

Social Groups	Manufacturing	Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	Construction	Wholesale and Retail Trade (Including motor vehicles n motorcycle repair services) and Restaurants and Hotels	Transport, Storage and Communication	Financing, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	Community, Social and Personal Services etc (Services)	Total
<b>Post-Migration Employment Status</b>								
<b>Scheduled Caste</b>	24.85 (42)	1.78 (3)	45.56 (77)	11.83 (20)	3.55 (6)	1.78 (3)	10.65 (18)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Caste</b>	40.78 (73)	0.00 (0)	30.73 (55)	12.85 (23)	6.70 (12)	1.12 (2)	7.82 (14)	100 (179)
<b>General</b>	52.00 (26)	0.00 (0)	8.00 (4)	20.00 (10)	6.00 (3)	4.00 (2)	10.00 (5)	100 (50)
<b>Current Employment Status</b>								
<b>Scheduled Caste</b>	26.63 (45)	2.96 (5)	39.05 (66)	12.43 (21)	6.51 (11)	2.37 (4)	10.06 (17)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Caste</b>	40.22 (72)	0.56 (1)	21.23 (38)	14.53 (26)	13.97 (25)	3.35 (6)	6.15 (11)	100 (179)
<b>General</b>	38.00 (19)	0.00 (0)	4.00 (2)	26.00 (13)	10.00 (5)	12.00 (6)	10.00 (5)	100 (50)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January), 2015. Note- Due to the inadequate sample of Scheduled Tribes' households (N=2), they are not included in this table. Samples are given in the parenthesis.

The current employment status of the head of the household by social groups shows that although the percentage share of the head of the household working in construction sector is still high in SCs and OBCs as compared to other (general) but it has declined over the time period. The percentage share of the other category head of the households in manufacturing sector has also declined and now OBCs head of the household have highest percentage share in manufacturing.

The increasing percentage share in wholesale & retail trade (including motor vehicle repair), and hotels & restaurants; transport, storage and communication, and financing, insurance, real estate and business in each social groups shows that over the time period head of the households have shifted to these sectors from manufacturing and construction. The increment in the percentage share of the head of the households in these sectors is more in other category as compared to OBCs and SCs.

It can be concluded from the above analysis that social group wise mobility has been found in the current employment status of the head of the households as compared to the post-migration employment status. Now, more SCs and OBCs head of the households are self employed and shifting from construction and manufacturing to other profitable sectors.

#### **3.3.7.5 Employment Status of the members of the Households:**

In present study, total 1,951 members (excluding the head of the households) were residing in the sample households at the time of survey, among which, 1,171 members were in working age-groups (15-59) and other 780 members were in child population ( $\leq 14$ ) and elderly (60 & above). The information about the employment status was collected for the members in working age-groups (15-59) during field survey.

Among 1,171 members in working age-groups, only 31.68 per cent were employed at the time of survey. However, 68.32 per cent population in working age-groups (15-59) was not in labour force. The highest percentage share of the employed members is in 30-44 age groups (34.08 per cent) followed by 15-29 age-groups (33.12 per cent). However, the highest percentage share of the members who were not in labour force is in 45-59 age-groups. The low percentage share of the working population in different age-groups is because of the low percentage share of the females in employed

category as compared to males which affects the overall percentage share of employed persons in total.

**Table-3.20 Gender wise percentage distribution of the members of the households (Excluding Head of the households) according to their Employment Status**

Age-Groups/ Employment Status	Manufacturing	Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	Construction	Wholesale and Retail Trade (Including motor vehicles n motorcycle repair services) and Restaurants and Hotels	Transport, Storage and Communication	Financing, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	Community, Social and Personal Services etc	Total Employed	Not in Labour force	Total
<b>Males</b>										
<b>15-29</b>	15.65 (67)	1.17 (5)	11.92 (51)	8.41 (36)	6.54 (28)	2.10 (9)	5.84 (25)	<b>51.64</b> <b>(221)</b>	<b>48.36</b> <b>(207)</b>	100 (428)
<b>30-44</b>	32.73 (18)	0.00 (0)	29.09 (16)	14.55 (8)	12.73 (7)	0.00 (0)	7.27 (4)	<b>96.36</b> <b>(53)</b>	<b>3.64</b> <b>(2)</b>	100 (55)
<b>45-59</b>	50.00 (2)	0.00 (0)	25.00 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	25.00 (1)	<b>100</b> <b>(4)</b>	<b>0.00</b> <b>(0)</b>	100 (4)
<b>Total</b>	17.86 (87)	1.03 (5)	13.96 (68)	9.03 (44)	7.19 (35)	1.85 (9)	6.16 (30)	<b>57.08</b> <b>(278)</b>	<b>42.92</b> <b>(209)</b>	100 (487)
<b>Females</b>										
<b>15-29</b>	2.82 (10)	0.00 (0)	0.85 (3)	0.28 (1)	0.28 (1)	0.56 (2)	5.93 (21)	<b>10.73</b> <b>(38)</b>	<b>89.27</b> <b>(316)</b>	100 (354)
<b>30-44</b>	1.89 (4)	0.47 (1)	3.30 (7)	0.94 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.47 (1)	10.85 (23)	<b>17.92</b> <b>(38)</b>	<b>82.08</b> <b>(174)</b>	100 (212)
<b>45-59</b>	3.39 (4)	0.00 (0)	6.78 (8)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	4.24 (5)	<b>14.41</b> <b>(17)</b>	<b>85.59</b> <b>(101)</b>	100 (118)
<b>Total</b>	2.63 (18)	0.15 (1)	2.63 (18)	0.44 (3)	0.15 (1)	0.44 (3)	7.16 (49)	<b>13.60</b> <b>(93)</b>	<b>86.40</b> <b>(591)</b>	100 (684)
<b>Total</b>										
<b>15-29</b>	9.85 (77)	0.64 (5)	6.91 (54)	4.73 (37)	3.71 (29)	1.41 (11)	5.88 (46)	<b>33.12</b> <b>(259)</b>	<b>66.88</b> <b>(523)</b>	100 (782)
<b>30-44</b>	8.24 (22)	0.37 (1)	8.61 (23)	3.75 (10)	2.62 (7)	0.37 (1)	10.11 (27)	<b>34.08</b> <b>(91)</b>	<b>65.92</b> <b>(176)</b>	100 (267)
<b>45-59</b>	4.92 (6)	0.00 (0)	7.38 (9)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	4.92 (6)	<b>17.21</b> <b>(21)</b>	<b>82.79</b> <b>(101)</b>	100 (122)
<b>Total</b>	8.97 (105)	0.51 (6)	7.34 (86)	4.01 (47)	3.07 (36)	1.02 (12)	6.75 (79)	<b>31.68</b> <b>(371)</b>	<b>68.32</b> <b>(800)</b>	100 (1171)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January), 2015

The percentage share of the employed persons in different sectors by age-groups shows that in 15-29 age-groups, the highest percentage share of the employed persons are in Manufacturing followed by Construction and service sector. However, the percentage

share of the employed persons in 30-44 age-groups is highest in service sector followed by construction and manufacturing. The high percentage of persons in service sector in 30-44 age-groups is because of the high percentage share of the females in this age-groups are found in services working as maids. The percentage share of the employed person in 45-59 age-groups is highest in construction sector followed by manufacturing and services.

The gender wise percentage distribution of the employment status of the members in working age-groups shows that as compared to the females, the percentage share of employed males are very high in different working age-groups. Among the total males in working age-groups, 57.08 per cent are employed. However, among the total females in working age-groups, only 13.60 per cent are employed and rest are not in labour force.

The sector wise percentage distribution of the employed males in different age-groups shows that the highest percentage share of males is in manufacturing sector in all working age-groups. The construction is another sector in which the percentage share of the employed males is high. In 15-29 and 30-44 age-groups, the percentage share of the employed males in wholesale & retail trade (including motor vehicle repair) and hotels & restaurant sector and transport, storage and communication sector is also significant. The percentage share of the males who are not in labour force is highest in 15-29 age-groups. It was observed during field survey that a high number of males in this age-group are studying in schools and colleges and therefore they are not in labour force.

In case of females, service sector is the most important sector in which the percentage share of the employed females is significant in all age-groups. It is because of a significant number of females in JJ-Clusters reported that they are working as maid in nearby colonies. The construction and manufacturing are the other two sectors in which females from sample households are working.

Overall, it can be concluded from the above analysis that the percentage share of the employed persons (excluding the head of the households) is very low in JJ-Clusters. The percentage of employed males is very high in comparison to employed females in all working age-groups. The manufacturing and construction are the two important sectors in which males are employed. However, in case of females the service sector is the main



sector in which most of the females are employed. The females are also employed in construction and manufacturing sector.

### **3.4 SUMMARY:**

This chapter analyses the nature and characteristics of urban migrants living in sample JJ-Clusters. The chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section, the migration history of the head of the households is discussed with places of origin, reasons of migration, decisions of migration and other important perspectives. However, the second section provides the vital information about the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the head of the households in details along with the characteristics of other members of the households in brief.

The traces of the migration history of head of the households show that in sample households, the percentage of the head of the households migrated from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The other states from which a significant percentage of head of the households migrated to Delhi are Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. It shows that most of the head of the households in present study are from the states where level of economic development is comparatively low. These migrants migrated to Delhi in their early adulthood as mean age of the head of the households in present study is ranged from 19-22 in different JJ-Clusters. The multiple response analysis of the different reasons of migration reported by households show that the main push factors because of which the head of the households migrated to Delhi are households' poverty and low wages/incomes in source area. However, the main pull factors for the migration to Delhi are in search of employment and to take a better employment. These are the factors which have been mentioned in many micro studies and therefore, the results of the present study are also same as in existing studies. Most of the head of the households in present study took the decision of migration by themselves and have knowledge about the different kind of vulnerability faced by newly arrived migrants in metro cities despite this they migrated because of households' poverty and the attraction of jobs in Delhi. Most of the head of the households in present study are old migrants because the average duration of stay of the head of the households in Delhi is ranged from 20-25 years in different JJ-Clusters.

The section two of the chapter starts with the age-sex structure of the migrant households. The migration history of the head of the households in Delhi reveals that

most of the head of the households in present study migrated to Delhi in their teens and early adulthood and they have already spend 10-30 years in NCT of the Delhi. Therefore, most of them are currently in their 50s and the mean age (current age) of head of the households is 43.24 in present study. The sample households in present study are largely headed by male and only 3 per cent households reported that they are headed by females. It has been found during field survey that in many households, females are working with males but when it comes to report the head of the households, most of the respondents reported working male as head of the households. The age-sex distribution of the member of the sample households shows that the percentage of younger population ( $\leq 14$  age group and 15-29 age-group) is very high as compared to the later age-group (30-44, 45-59 and 60 & above). The sex ratio in sample households is 824 which is slightly less as compared to the sex ratio in slum population in Delhi (832). The average household size in sample households is 5.9 which is higher as compared to the slum population in Delhi (4.8) and India (4.7). It is due to the fact that more members join the family in JJ-Cluster with increasing duration of stay of the head of the household.

In sample households, the percentage share of the OBCs and SCs is much higher as compared to other (general category). Only 2 households in the present study reported that they are STs. The JJ-Cluster wise variation is found in the percentage share of different social groups. Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area; JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha are the JJ-Clusters dominated by SC households and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur, JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj are the JJ-Clusters dominated by OBC households. The percentage share of the other category households is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad. The religious group wise percentage share shows that as compared to Muslim households the percentage shares of the Hindu households is very high in present study. Muslim households are mainly concentrated to the JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur. The reason for the spatial concentration of the households on the basis of social group and religion in different JJ-Clusters can be the social networks available at the time of migration of head of the households in Delhi. It was observed during field survey that the head of the households migrated from the same states with

co-villagers/contractors; relatives etc. prefer to settle in the same JJ-Clusters in which these social networks are already settled.

In present study, most of the head of the households are illiterate and landless (at place of origin). It is because of the high percentage of SCs and OBCs households in present study which are historically deprived from owning a land and acquiring other human capitals. In comparison to these social groups, the condition of the head of the households from other category is much better as with increasing level of education and land, the percentage share of head of the households in other category increases as compared to SCs and OBCs head of the households. The age-group wise percentage distribution of the educational attainment level of members of the households shows that the younger generation in JJ-Clusters (6-14 and 15-29 age-group) is going to schools and colleges which a positive sign shows the increasing awareness among JJ-dwellers about benefit of education in life.

In present chapter, the pre and post-migration employment status of the head of the households is discussed in details, however a comparison of post-migration employment status and current employment status of head of the households is also done. The analysis shows that most of the head of the households were either agricultural labourers or cultivators before migration to Delhi or they were studying. There is a difference in the pre-migration employment status across social groups. A significant percentage of head of households from SCs and OBCs were agricultural labourers before migration to Delhi, however, the percentage share of the head of the households who worked as cultivator before migration to Delhi is high in other category. It can be explained by the differences in the possession of landholdings at place of origin across social groups.

The comparison of the post migration employment status (first job in Delhi) and the current employment status shows that over the time period the head of the households shifted from casual labourers to self-employed. The change is also evident in the industry wise distribution of the employment status of the head of the households. At the time of migration, most of the head of the households were working in manufacturing and construction sectors, but the current employment status shows that although the percentage share of the head of the households is still high in these two sectors but it is

declining over time period and the share in other sectors such as wholesale & retail trade, Hotel & Restaurant; Transport, storage and communication and service sector is increasing. The social mobility in the post migration employment status and the current employment status is also found across social groups. The SCs and OBCs head of the households have shifted from casual labourers to self-employed more as compared to other (general category).

One of the interesting findings in present chapter is the spatial concentration of the head of the households with certain kind of employment at a particular JJ-Cluster. It has been found in present study that the head of the households in manufacturing sector is high in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the Industrial areas. However, the percentage share of the head of the households in construction sector is high in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in residential area.

The analysis of the employment status of the member of the households (excluding head of the households) shows that only one third of the total member of the sample households are working and rest are not in labour force. It shows that most of the population in JJ-Clusters is dependent population.

To sum up, it can be said that social group, religion, landholdings at place of origin are some determinants which play deciding factors in the process of migration towards metro cities such as Delhi. Most of the migrants who live in slums migrate at early age in the hope of employment and after spending a considerable duration of time they found themselves at better position in comparison to the newly migrants.

## CHPATER-IV

### HOUSING AND TENURE STATUS OF URBAN MIGRANTS IN NCT OF DELHI

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#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION:

Housing is one of the essential human needs. The importance of the housing has been recognised with the growth of civilization because it is akin to the quality of life of human beings and shows the progress and culture of a society. With the advancement in the knowledge and technology, houses have become more than four walls. The provision of housing services such as portable water supply, sanitation, waste management and electricity supply etc. are now integral part of housing. The environment, location and privacy of houses are other concerns which are considered important factors for healthy and comfortable living in urban centres. The housing and related infrastructure is an important stimulant to the construction sectors and can boost the economy. Therefore, a lot of investment is going on from public and private sector for the improvement in the quantity and quality of housings and now, it has become a prominent area of research in developing as well as developed countries.

In the second half of twentieth century, when the pace of urbanisation increased especially in developing countries, the demand for urban housing also increased because of massive rural-urban migration. Although the cities are expanding vertically as well as horizontally, but the shortage of urban housing is also increasing with rapid folds. As a result, the housing and shelter security for people living in urban centres has become a major concern for policy makers and many global discussions on '*housing as a human right*' have been done resulted in to various United Nations' Habitat Declarations (1976, 1996, 2001 and 2005). It is also included in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Gradually, housing and shelter security have become state responsibility and countries (especially developing) around the world have started to reformulate the housing policies and regulate the housing-markets, so that a uniform standards of housing and tenure security can be implement across the social and economic groups (Mahadevia, 2010).

#### **4.2 THE DEVELOPMENT TRAJECTORY OF HOUSING POLICIES (WITH FOCUS ON THE URBAN SECTOR) IN INDIA:**

After Independence, the government of India had initially adopted 'welfare state' approach in different sectors of economy including housing. The role of public sector was primary while, the private sector played very limited role. Therefore, the housing policies in the first two decades (in fifties and sixties) after independence were mainly dominated by state. The first major housing programme in post-independence period was *Subsidized Housing Scheme for Industrial workers and Economically Weaker Sections* (1952). Thereafter, a *Low Income Housing Scheme* was launched in 1954 to provide loans to the individuals whose income was less than 6000 per annum. In this scheme, loans were also given to non-profit organisation, educational institutes, co-operative societies and hospitals to built rental or hire/purchase housing for their employees. In 1956, government had taken the housing initiative for plantation workers (*Housing Scheme for Plantation Workers, 1956*) and providing houses to plantation workers was made mandatory for large and small plantations.

In Second Five Year Plan (1956-61), the first housing programme for slum dwellers was launched known as *Slum Clearance and Improvement Scheme, 1956*. The main aim of this scheme was to clear the slums in different urban centres and rehabilitate the families in the government-built houses at very nominal rents (Sivam & Karuppanan, 2002). It was a western approach to handle the slum problems and replicating it in India was found not to be very successful, as the scale of the construction of houses for slum dwellers was very slow in comparison to the number of demolitions made. The rehabilitation process in Delhi was main example in this regards in which only 20.66 per cent slum dwellers evicted from different slums were resettled by 1977 (Singh, 1992). The other reason for the failure of this scheme was the loss of livelihoods and social networks due to resettlement of the slum dwellers to far away sites from the demolished slums.

The *Middle Income Group (MIG) Housing Scheme (1959)*, *Rental Housing for State Government Employees (1959)*, *Land Acquisitions and Development Scheme (1959)* and *Rent Control Act (1961)* were other housing schemes launched during 1950s and 1960s. It was also a period of institution building in the housing sector. Many institutions

like Ministry of Works, Housing and Supply which is now known as Ministry of Housing and Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA), National Building Organisation (NBO), Central Public Work Department (CPWD), Town & Country Planning Organisation (TCPO) and state housing boards were constituted by government during this period.

In the early 1970s, the failure of the different government housing programmes were recognised due to rising land price, failing to capture the target groups and other financial constraints. Therefore, during 1970s and 1980s, the approach of the government towards housing policies had shifted from highly subsidized and public-provided housing programmes to the *cost recovery* and *cross-subsidization* alternatives. Now, housing programmes were designed in consideration with the paying capacities of beneficiaries, so that cost can be recovered (Wadhwa, 1988) and housing schemes were launched for high-income groups also, so that profit can be diverted to the subsidies provided for housing schemes related to lower income groups (LIG) and economically weaker sections (EWS) (Sivam & Karuppanan, 2002).

The focus of the housing policies related to the slum dwellers had changed from resettlement and rehabilitation of slums to the in-situ upgrading and sites and service projects for slums during 1970s and 1980s. In first approach, the main aim was to upgrade and ameliorate the living conditions of slum dwellers and in second approach; the main aim was to provide the land and infrastructure to the urban poor so that they can build their own houses. The most important programmes of this duration were- *Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums (1972)*- to provide the basic civic amenities like toilets, sewerage, drainage and safe water supply to slum dwellers; *Urban Land Ceiling and Regulation Act (1976)*- to prevent the landholdings concentration in the hand of few individuals/private landowners in urban areas and to provide the land for urban housing and *Sites and Service Scheme (1980)*- to provide the land and other basic infrastructure for housing.

This was the period, in which, a number of housing finance institutions were set up to fund the housing programmes and urban development in India like *Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO)* in 1977, *Housing Development Finance Corporation (HDFC)* in 1977 and *National Housing Bank* in 1987. In the sixth five year plan (1980-85), the first urban poverty alleviation scheme was launched which is known

as Urban Basic Services for Poor (UBSP). The main aim of this scheme was to provide the basic amenities and other physical infrastructure to all slum dwellers (Mathur, 2009).

There was no official housing policy in India till the launch of *National Housing Policy, 1988* and therefore, fragmented sets of target based housing programmes were launched in the absence of a systematic policy. First time, in the preamble of the draft version of the National Housing Policy, housing was recognised as a basic human need. In the post-Liberlisation period, the policy paradigm has changed in every sector of economy, and housing is no exception in this regard. Now, cities have been recognised as engine of growth and central and state governments have started to invest more in the urban infrastructure and other basic amenities. In housing sector, the provision of housing finance and structured housing market was introduced during post-liberalization period (UNRISD, 2010).

After economic reforms, two national housing policies were framed by Government of India- *The National Housing Policy, 1992* which was the final version of the draft policy of 1988 and then *National Housing and Habitat Policy, 1998* but, both were left at draft stage. These policies have given emphasis on increasing the supply of land for urban housing and in support of that, Urban land Ceiling and Regulation Act (ULCR), 1976 was repealed in 1999 (Mahadevia, 2010). In the eighth (1992-97) and ninth (1997-2002) five year plans, the role of private sector for filling the gap in the housing shortage of India, was recognised and more emphasis was given to utilize the unused potential of the public-private partnership in the field. In the National Housing and Habitat Policy, which was framed during ninth plan, government proposes legislative, legal and financial reforms to encourage the private sector players to take up the housing problems in India. These initiatives boosted the private investments in housing sector especially in metro cities by real-states developers.

The *National Slum Development Programme (NSDP)* was launched in 1996 and the programme for the basic amenities for urban poor known as 'Urban Basic Services for Poor (UBSP)' was discontinued in 1997. In 2001, the prime minister of India had announced a subsidized housing programme for slum dwellers known as *Valmiki Ambedkar Awaas Yojana* on Independence Day and a new sanitation programme named as '*Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan*' was component of it. The NSDP was replaced by this



housing programme. The main objective of this programme was to construct and upgrade the dwelling units of the slum areas and to provide health care facilities to slum dwellers (Mahadevia, 2010). The central government was giving 50 per cent subsidy for this programme and rest was coming from state/local government or through loan from HUDCO.

In 2005, the United Progressive Alliances (UPA) government started a flagship programme for urban development named as *Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM)* in which all other existing programmes related to urban development were merged. The two main components of this programme are- “*Basic Services for Urban Poor (BSUP)*” and “*Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP)*”. This programme was initially launched for seven year period (2005-2012) in 63 cities. The recent progress report<sup>1</sup> of JNNURM from Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA) shows that under BUSP programme, total 478 projects were approved in which only 53 has been completed till 1 April, 2016 and under IHSDP, total 1032 projects were approved in 881 cities/towns in which only 91 has been completed till the above mentioned date. It shows the decimal progress of the JNNURM in different cities. The time limit for the projects sanctioned under JNNURM was extended from 2012 to 2014 by UPA-II and now, the BJP government has also extended the time limit till 2017 to complete the sanctioned projects<sup>2</sup>.

The central government formulated a new housing policy known as *National Urban Housing and Habitat Policy* in 2007. The main focus of this policy was the provision of “Affordable Housing for All”. This policy emphasized the role of government to increase the supply and access of subsidized rental or ownership basis houses for poorest of the poor, who lack the affordability to pay the prices for houses even in EWS/LIG categories. The policy had given more stress on the use of latest innovations in the field of housing and urban infrastructure to achieve the gap of the urban housing with the help of public-private partnerships.

In 2009, a new urban housing programme known as “Rajiv Awas Yojana” was launched by central government. The main aim of this programme was to make Indian

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<sup>1</sup> [http://mhupa.gov.in/writereaddata/Jnnurm\\_Glance\\_All\\_India\\_Progress.pdf](http://mhupa.gov.in/writereaddata/Jnnurm_Glance_All_India_Progress.pdf) dated 07.04.2015

<sup>2</sup> [http://mhupa.gov.in/writereaddata/JnNURM\\_Extention\\_16-17.pdf](http://mhupa.gov.in/writereaddata/JnNURM_Extention_16-17.pdf) dated 07.04.2015

cities slum free by providing tenure rights and basic infrastructure to slum dwellers. In different previous programmes of slum resettlement/rehabilitation, it has been found that slum dwellers lost their livelihoods and have to spend more hours and commute more distance to reach at their place of work after resettlement/rehabilitation of the slums. Considering these problems of slum dwellers, the strategy of “in-situ development of slums” was adopted in Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY). In this programme, the provision of housing, basic infrastructure and other social amenities to slum dwellers at their living place was formulated with the help of private sectors. Recently this programme is discontinued and liability under this programme is subsumed in a new programme known as Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana- Housing for all (Urban)<sup>3</sup>.

The latest programme for urban housing is *Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana- Housing for All (Urban)*. This mission has an aim to address the urban housing problems through following components:

- 1) *In-Situ Rehabilitation of slum dwellers*: In this component, the government has decided to provide houses to eligible slum dwellers with basic civic amenities and other infrastructures at the same slum areas where they are living. Land will be used as resource in this programme and the in-situ rehabilitation will be done in participation with the private developers.
- 2) *Credit Linked Subsidy Programme*: In this component, credit linked subsidy will be provided on the housing loans taken by urban poor (EWS/LIG) to construct a new house or an addition of rooms, toilets, kitchen etc. in existing dwellings. They will be eligible to have an interest subsidy at the rate of 6.5 per cent for the housing loan up to 6 lakhs and for the housing loans more than Rs. 6 lakhs, the interest rate will be normal. In this scheme preference will be given to the Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes/OBCs, Manual Scavengers, Women, Transgender, persons with disabilities and Minorities.
- 3) *Affordable Housing in Partnership (AHP)*: In this component, government has decided to increase the supply of the houses for economically weaker sections (EWS) with the help of public-private partnerships.
- 4) *Subsidy for beneficiary-led individual house construction or enhancement*: In this component, a central assistance of Rs. 1.50 lakhs will be given to the individual families

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<sup>3</sup> [http://mhupa.gov.in/writereaddata/Ray\\_Discontinuation\\_19\\_05\\_2015.pdf](http://mhupa.gov.in/writereaddata/Ray_Discontinuation_19_05_2015.pdf) dated 10.04.2016

from EWS categories, which have not benefited from the other component of the mission, to construct a new house or enhance the existing houses on their own.

The total duration of this programme is eight years (2015-2022) and it will cover all 4041 statutory towns listed in Census 2011 in three phases.

The MoHUPA has drafted a *National Urban Rental Housing Policy* to minimise the urban housing shortage in India through rental housing. The main aim of this policy is to promote the urban rental housing in India with the help of public-private partnership (PPP) model and to boost the rental housing market in India by encouraging the different stakeholders such as private developers, housing societies, industries (for labour housing) and institutions (for employees housing) through regulatory measures and providing the subsidies and other exemptions. The target groups of this policy is very broad which capture all section of society such as homeless, migrant labour, students, working males and females, single women, widow, transgender and any other urban poor identified by state government.

In the draft document of the *National Urban Rental Housing Policy* proposed different models of rental housing for different target groups. It proposes that urban local bodies or private sector can build single room hostels/dormitories of various sizes for the single member migrants/seasonal migrants, homeless, person with special needs, and elderly etc and rent out it to these target groups. The other model proposed by draft document is '*Rent to own scheme*' in which the initial allotment of the housing unit will be on lease basis for a fix term and the buyers have to deposit a monthly installment in bank account. After a certain time when monthly installment will reach to the certain percentage (decided by state government) of the total cost of housing unit, it will be registered on the name of buyers.

The third and very relevant model proposed in the draft document for slum areas is converting the slums settled on the land of urban local bodies in rental housing. It is a well known fact that most of the slums in India are settled on the land of urban local bodies and the slum households don't have any tenure security. The draft document proposes that urban local bodies can rent out the land to the slum households and provide them 'no eviction guarantee' for a certain time of period (like 10 year or more). In this model, slum households will pay the rent on the land to the urban local bodies and retain

the ownership of the housing unit with themselves. They will be free from the fear of eviction and can invest in their housing unit. On the other side, urban local bodies will gain rent revenue from these slum households who are living illegally on their land. The ministry thinks that this policy will act as a catalyst to achieve the above mentioned goal of *Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana- Mission 2022*.

The above descriptions of the trajectory of housing and urban development programmes in India in different time periods show that in India, urban policy makers are in deliberate confusion. At one side, Ministry of Urban Development wants to build Indian cities as ‘Global Cities’ and in this process, it wants more investment in urban infrastructure. To expand the existing infrastructure more land is needed and for it, demolition and evictions of slum dwellers which are settled mostly on government land, has become routine practice of the ministry. On the other side, Ministry of Housing and Poverty Alleviation wants to address the manifestations of urban poverty by rehabilitation/resettlement/in-situ development of slums with all basic civic amenities. It also wants to provide employment opportunities to urban poor. Therefore it seems that both ministries are on two parallel tracks which cannot meet (Mahadevia, 2011a).

#### **4.3 TENURE SECURITY: CONCEPT, TYPES, NEED AND CURRENT SCENARIO IN INDIA:**

The land tenure is directly linked with the history, culture, political structure and legal system of a society. Therefore, the nature and characteristics of land tenure change from one place to others. The etymology of ‘tenure’ word comes from French word ‘*Tenir*’ which means “to hold”. Scholars define land tenure as a mode in which land is held or owned (Payne, 2001) by individuals or communities. It includes many rights related to land, that individuals and communities have in a society, like right to occupy, to use, to develop, to inherit and to transfer the land. Thus, it should primarily be viewed as a *social relation* involving a complex set of rules that governs the land use and land ownership in any society (Durrand-Lasserve & Selod, 2009). In simple word, the status of land tenure indicates the level of security an individual or a community has in the use of land.

There are two type of tenure security- *de facto* and *de jure*. The *de facto* tenure security provides the recognition of the occupancy rights to the individual or community. There are number of instruments from which *de facto* tenure security can be

perceived/provided to an individuals or communities like giving the number to each house or giving name/number to the street in informal settlements by local authority; providing ration cards, electricity bills, telephone bills, tax receipt with current address of informal settlement; if land is not in master plan; if there is support from local politician; if litigation is pending in court etc. The *de facto* tenure right is not a legal right. It only provides the protection against forced evictions. It has been found in different studies (Seabrook, 1987; Sharma, 2000) that *de facto* tenure security has positive impact on the lives of the dwellers in informal settlements. It improve the chance of a households to have a better house, better education of children, better jobs in urban labour market and better condition of women in family (women empowerment).

The *de jure* tenure security is legal rights provided by administration through delivery of real property rights (on a freehold or leasehold basis) or through administrative recognition of occupancy, for example, in India, *de jure* tenure security is provided by giving property tax bills, Aadhar card (biometric identity cards) and property rights on a freehold/leasehold basis to the urban dwellers. The *de jure* tenure security improved the provision of basic civic amenities and other infrastructures in settlements. After having the *de jure* tenure security, an individual can access the formal mortgage credit (bank loans) and improve the investment in his/her small business. It also attracts private sector developers to investment in real estate (Durand-Lasserve & Selod, 2009). In practice, it has been observed through various case studies that land tenure rights are a continuum of rights which range from informal to quasi-legal (*de facto*) and from quasi-legal to proper land rights (*de jure*) within informal housing markets (Payne, 2001; Durand-Lasserve & Selod, 2009). The urban poor, majority of whom are found to be migrants in many studies, move from informal to quasi-legal (*de facto*) tenure rights through various processes and then from de facto to legal (*de jure*) tenure through public policy interventions which legalized the property titles to these urban poor (Mahadevia, 2011b).

The security of tenure is very important for the integration of the urban poor with the urban society. It provides them guarantee against forced eviction and make them secure. Therefore, it acts a catalyst in improving the living and working conditions of the urban poor. They invest more in the improvement of their shelter conditions, basic civic

amenities (toilet, bathrooms etc.) and their small business after having tenure security (UN-Habitat, 2004). The target 11 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is to improve the lives of at least 100 million dwellers by the year 2020. This target is indirectly concerned with the tenure security of slum dwellers because it can make difference in the lives of urban poor. A number of studies (Mahadevia & Narayanan, 2008; Our inclusive Ahmedabad, 2010; Dupont, 2008) show that, in absence of tenure security, the demolition and eviction of slum dwellers leads to loss of their livelihood, drop out of their children from school, insecurity of the women and deteriorate quality of their lives in absence of water supply, toilets and other basic services. All these factors push the urban poor in the trap of urban poverty and it increases over time. In brief, the tenure security can solidify the urban citizenship of slum dwellers and provide them opportunity to organize, participate in the management of the settlements with NGOs and local authorities and make claims on public resources (UN-Habitat, 2004).

The federal structure of India allows states to frame their own laws on state subjects<sup>4</sup>. The laws related to land and tenure security come under the jurisdiction of state governments. Urban development including the policies and legislations of urban housing and basic civic services and other infrastructure also comes under state government. However, the central government can only provide the guidelines and directions to the state governments for policies related to urban housing, tenure security and basic civic amenities by framing national level housing policies time to time and by providing partial financing to the housing schemes. In this context, it is very important to look at the housing and tenure policies and programmes of both the center and states, to have a proper understanding of the current scenario of tenure security for the urban poor in India.

The recent urban housing policies and programmes in India have included the provision of tenure security for urban poor. The *National Urban Housing and Habitat Policy* formulated in 2007 by central government had provision of in-situ development

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<sup>4</sup> In constitution of India, there is power distribution between central and state government through the division of legislative subjects. The legislations are divided into three lists – Central List, State List and Concurrent List. Only central government can legislate a law on the subjects listed under Central List, In ordinary circumstances, only state government can legislate a law on the subjects listed under State List and there are some subjects on which state and central both can make a law which is listed in Concurrent list.

and upgradation of slums, indicating that, there would be extended tenure security for all slum dwellers but, this policy was not very clear about the tenure security to slum dwellers. Thereafter, the central government framed the guidelines for *Rajiv Awas Yojana* in 2009, which aimed to bring all notified and non-notified slums within formal system by in-situ development and upgradation of slums and providing them basic civic amenities and other infrastructure which is available for the rest of city. The provision of tenure security was part of this programme. The progress of *Rajiv Awas Yojana* was very slow in most of the states because these states have failed to frame legislations regarding the housing and tenure security related to slum dwellers so that formalization of these slums could be done. Now, Narendra Modi led BJP Government has discontinued the *Rajiv Awas Yojana* and subsumed all its features and liabilities in a newly launched programme known as “*Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana- Housing for All (Urban)*”, in which, in-situ development of slums is one of the components. This programme has provision of tenure security to all eligible slum dwellers and it promises a slum free India till 2022.

#### **4.4 URBAN HOUSING SHORTAGE IN INDIA:**

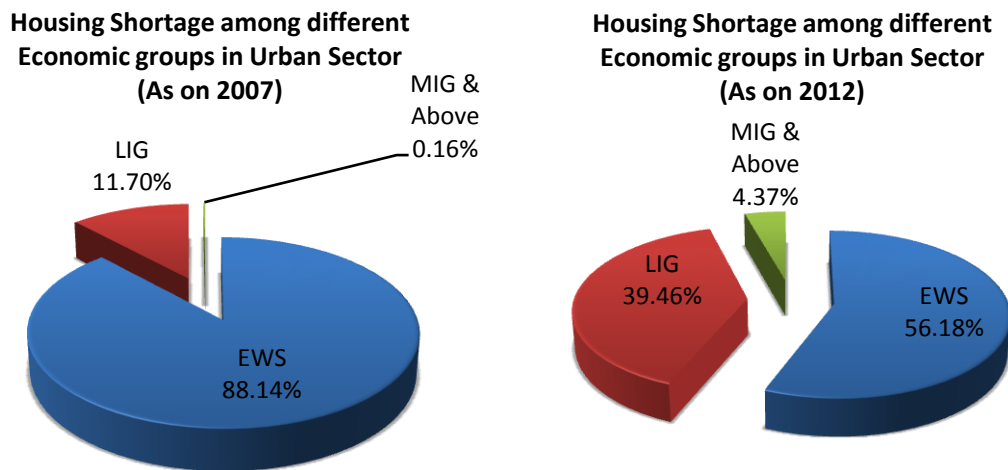
The need of adequate quantity and quality of housing is prime concern for developing countries like India because of a rising population in urban areas. It has been found in studies that in urban centres, socially and economically weaker section of the society faces many institutional, financial and social challenges to have a proper housing and other basic civic amenities (Kumar, 2015). It is very important to access the demand and shortage of urban housing in India so that effective planning can be made and implemented. Keeping these facts in view, two different technical groups were formed by Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation in 2007 (for 11<sup>th</sup> five year plan) and in 2012 (for 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan) respectively, to analyse the situation of housing in urban sector of India.

According to the estimates of the 11<sup>th</sup> five year plan technical group (2007), the urban housing shortage in India was for 24.71 million (as on 2007) households. However, the estimates from 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan technical groups (2012) show a slight decline in the urban housing shortage which was for 18.78 million (as on 2012) households. There are some changes in the factors taken for the estimation of urban housing shortage in India in

12<sup>th</sup> five year plan. In 2007, the housing shortage estimates were derived by excess of households over housing stocks<sup>5</sup>, congestion factors<sup>6</sup> and obsolescence factors<sup>7</sup> in urban households, while in 2012; it was derived from households living in non-serviceable Kutcha houses, congestion factors, obsolescent factors and households in homeless condition in urban centres.

The income group wise distribution of housing shortage in both time periods reveals the picture of urban housing shortage for each group in a better way. According to 2007 estimates, the total housing shortage for Economically Weaker Section (EWS) category was 21.78 million. For lower income group category (LIG) it was 2.89 million and for Middle income group & above, it was 0.04 million.

**Figure 4.1 Housing Shortage among different Economic Categories as on 2007 and as on 2012**



*Source: Estimates of the technical groups constituted by MoHUPA on Urban Housing Shortage (2007 & 2012).*

In terms of percentage, the highest urban housing shortage was in EWS category (88.14 per cent) followed by LIG (11.70 per cent) and MIG & above (0.16 per cent) as on 2007. It shows that the shortage for urban poor who were living in slums and other squatter settlements are more in comparison to other economic categories.

<sup>5</sup> In housing stock, Pucca, Semi-Pucca and Kutcha all three types of houses are included.

<sup>6</sup> Congestion factor is estimated on the basis of total number of married couples not having a separate room to live.

<sup>7</sup> Obsolescence factor is estimated on the basis of households living in the dwelling units aged between 40 to 80 years along with the households living in the houses aged 80 years or more.



The estimates from the technical group of 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan show that in EWS categories total urban housing shortage was 10.55 million followed by LIG and MIG & above in which the urban housing shortage were 7.41 million and 0.82 million respectively. The percentage distributions of the housing shortage among different economic categories in 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan show that the housing shortage in EWS category is still high (56.18 per cent) as compared to the LIG (39.46 per cent) and MIG & above (4.37 per cent) categories. Therefore, according to recent estimates of urban housing shortage by technical group of 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan, the housing shortage in EWS category has decreased around 32 per cent from 2007 and in other two categories (LIG and MIG & above), it has increased.

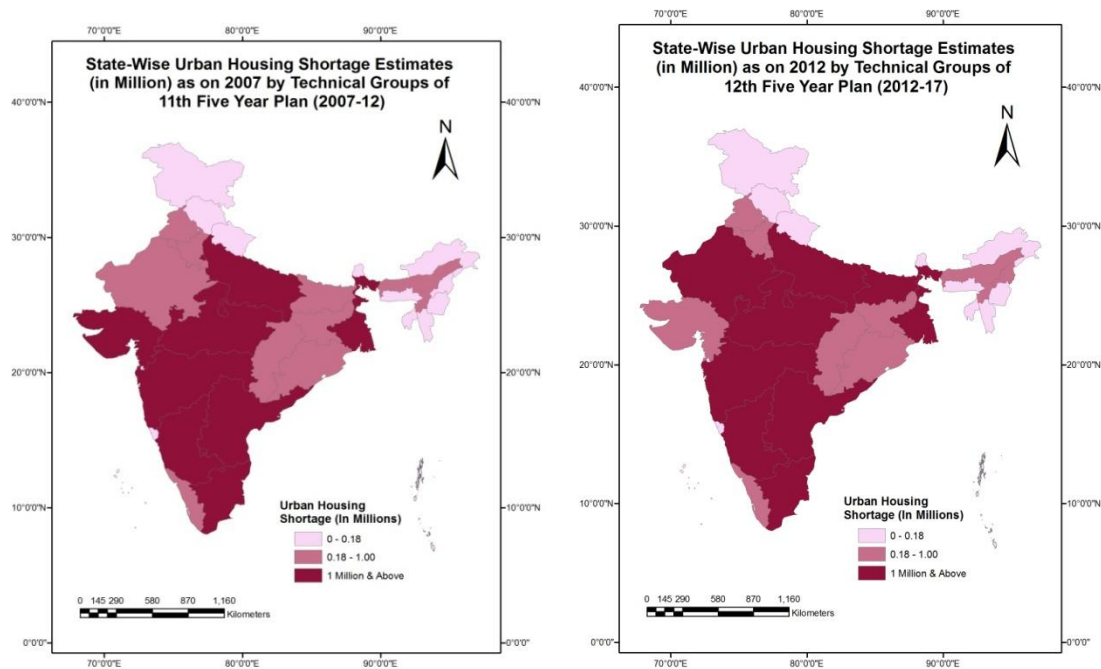
#### **4.4.1 State-wise distribution of Urban Housing Shortage in India:**

The following two choropleth maps show the state-wise distributions of the urban housing shortage in India estimated by technical group of 11<sup>th</sup> five year plan (2007) and 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan (2012).

The map for the estimates of urban housing shortage in 11<sup>th</sup> five year plan shows that in 2007, the states with urban housing shortage of 1 million and above households were Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal. The highest urban housing shortage was in Maharashtra (3.72 million) followed by Tamil Nadu (2.82 million) and Uttar Pradesh (2.38 million). However, most of the north-eastern states (except Assam) reported lowest urban housing shortage along with Jammu & Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, and union territories (except NCT of Delhi). In NCT of Delhi, the urban housing shortage was 1.13 million households in 2007.

According to 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan estimates (2012) of urban housing shortage in India, two more states Rajasthan and Bihar have been added in the group of states which had reported urban housing shortage of one million and above households in 2007.

**Figure 4.2 State-wise distributions of Urban Housing Shortage by technical group of 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan (as on 2007 and 2012) (in Millions)**



*Source: Estimates of the technical groups constituted by MoHUPA on Urban Housing Shortage (2007 & 2012).*

The technical group of 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan has estimated highest urban housing shortage in Uttar Pradesh (3.07 million) followed by Maharashtra (1.94 million), West Bengal (1.33 million) and Andhra Pradesh (1.27 million). The states which had reported lowest urban housing shortage in 2007 are experiencing the same in 2012 estimates. In NCT of Delhi, the urban housing shortage has declined from 1.13 million households in 2007 to 0.49 million households in 2012.

#### **4.5 THE TENURE STATUS OF DIFFERENT TYPE OF SETTLEMENTS IN NCT OF DELHI:**

The details of each type of settlements in NCT of Delhi are already discussed in the process of sample selection in Chapter-I, here, only their characteristics in terms of tenure status, legality and inclusion in the master plan etc. are discussed. The percentage distribution of population residing in different type of settlements in NCT of Delhi confirms the failure of the planning in capital city. It shows that only 23.7 per cent population of Delhi live in “planned colonies”, however, nearly 76 per cent population of

the city live in the settlements that are apparently “unplanned” (Bhan, 2013). After planned colonies, the combined share of the population living in slum designated areas and JJ-Clusters are highest, which is around 34 per cent of the total population (see Table, Chapter-I). Therefore it can be easily assumed that at least 34 per cent population in Delhi is living without proper sanitation, water supply and other basic civic amenities. Bhan (2013) has classified different type of settlements in NCT of Delhi according to their tenure status, legality and position in master plan which is given in the following table:

**Table-4.1 Type of Settlements in NCT of Delhi: Tenure Status and other characteristics**

Type of Settlements	Whether included in Master Plan?	Conform to Development Controls?	Titles?	Formal, Legal, Planned and Legitimate?
JJ Clusters	No	No	No	Informal, Illegal, Unplanned and without Legitimacy
Slum Designated Areas	Yes	Exempted	Yes, but restriction on sale	Formal by exception, legal with restrictions, Unplanned but legitimate
Resettlement Colonies	Yes	Yes	Yes, but restriction on sale	Formal, Legal, Legitimate and Planned, but restrictions on sale, transfer and rental
Unauthorized Colonies	No	No	No	Informal for building codes, formal for process or purchase, illegal and unplanned but legitimate
Regularized Colonies	Yes	Modifications Required	Yes	Informal for building codes, legal and legitimate but unplanned
Urban Village	Yes	Exempted	Yes, but restriction on sale	Zones of Exception-Planned by exemption, legitimate and legal though with limited rights to property, formal by exemption
Rural Village	Yes	Exempted	Yes, but restriction on sale; No titles for common land	Zones of Exception-Planned by exemption, legitimate and legal though with limited rights to property, formal by exemption
Planned Colonies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Formal, Legal, Legitimate and planned

*Source: Bhan, 2013.*

In the above Table-4.1, the term ‘legal’ refers to the type of settlements in which the owners of houses possess some kind of ownership/recognised titles of the houses which

can be registered with local authorities and recognised by master plan. The term ‘formal’ is used for the type of settlements in which the sale/purchase of land/houses happen with documented transactions and with/without the legal recognition of the resultant titles. The term ‘illegal/informal’ is used alternatively for the type of settlements which violate the building norms and layout plans. The term ‘legitimate’ is used for the settlements that enjoy a de facto or de jure security of tenure. The details of the each type of settlements in NCT of Delhi according to above Table-4.1 are as follows:

An ‘unauthorized colony’ in NCT of Delhi is precisely one that is built, either on the land which is not included in master plan as development area or which is included in master plan but, not zoned yet for residential use. Before 1975, most of Delhi’s unauthorized colonies fell in the latter category as land acquired under Master Plan, 1962 was not fully developed and land parcels were not notified for housing. Since 1975, most of the unauthorized colonies belong to the former category. Unauthorized colonies are illegal and unplanned but they are dominantly legitimate. This is the major reason for very few demolition cases of unauthorized colonies. Both types of unauthorized colonies (formal and informal) exist in Delhi.

Over the time of period, these unauthorized colonies are “regularized”. Regularization is a process by which a colony is made legal that means, the property titles are recognised by law and can be registered. The regularization process involves an attempt to include unauthorized colonies with planned norms of settlement layouts. In the process of regularization, the local authority takes one time ‘conversion charge’ from the dwellers living in these colonies. An unauthorized colony which is regularized by authority can still not be a planned colony. There are three major waves of “regularization” in Delhi. 102 colonies were regularized in the first wave in 1962 as part of first master plan. The second wave was in 1972 in which total 567 unauthorized colonies were regularized. In 1993, the applications for regularization of existing unauthorized colonies were invited and total 1639 colonies applied for the regularization. Nearly one and half decade after the application of regularization, 733 of these colonies were regularized in 2009.

Urban and Rural Villages are planned, formal and legal. Most of the urban villages are dense settlements and scattered in the city. Previously, they were rural

villages and with the expansion of the city they have reclassified into urban villages. In the Master Plan of Delhi, 1962, total 20 urban villages were included which increased to 106 in the 2001 Master Plan. In the Master Plan of Delhi, 2021, the total number of urban villages is 152. These villages are exempt from any building norms. It means in urban villages houses can be with any heights and it can be mixed with both types of activities-commercial and residential. The rural and urban villages are legitimate and residents enjoy tenure security and cannot be evicted by any authorities.

The slum designated areas are settlements “notified” under the Slums Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956. The last notification under this act in Delhi was in 1994. After that not a single slum has been added to the list of notified slums in Delhi. Most of the slum designated areas in Delhi exist in old city (the walled city of Shahjahanabad and its extension). These slum designated area can accommodate only 60,000 people but around 2 million people (estimated figure) are living in these areas now (Ishtiyak & Kumar, 2011). Also, the living conditions in these areas are deteriorating over the time of period (Ali & Singh, 1998). These areas are legal with certain restrictions.

JJ-Clusters are settlements that are not declared as notified slums under the above act but they have all short of features related to a slum. These clusters are unplanned, illegal, informal and not legitimate. It means that the dwellers of JJ-Clusters have no tenure rights and can be evicted with a prior notice from land owning agencies. The only way for the residents of JJ-Clusters to become legitimate and have tenure rights is to be evicted from the cluster and resettled on alternative sites called “Resettlement Colonies” provided by government. Most of the resettlement colonies are planned.

It can be concluded from the above description of the tenure status of different type of settlements that the settlement structure in Delhi have many complexities and only a proper planning and political will power can solve the housing and tenure problems in Delhi.

#### 4.6 SLUM HOUSEHOLDS<sup>8</sup> IN NCT OF DELHI: AN OVERVIEW FROM 2011 CENSUS DATA:

First time in the history of census of India, the data of the slum households with their housing conditions, basic civic amenities and assets has been collected in 2011 census. In the present section, the salient features of slum households of NCT of Delhi and its comparison with all India level is discussed with the housing stocks, basic civic amenities and households' assets available to these households.

##### 4.6.1 Slum Households by Ownership Status of a House:

To own a house even in slums is a dream of most of the poor rural migrants who come to metro cities in search of their fortune and in this context, the ownership status becomes an important variable to look upon. According to Census, 2011, total 70.23 per cent slum households in India owned a house in slum while, 26.26 per cent live in rented houses.

**Figure 4.3 Slums Households by Ownership Status, 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

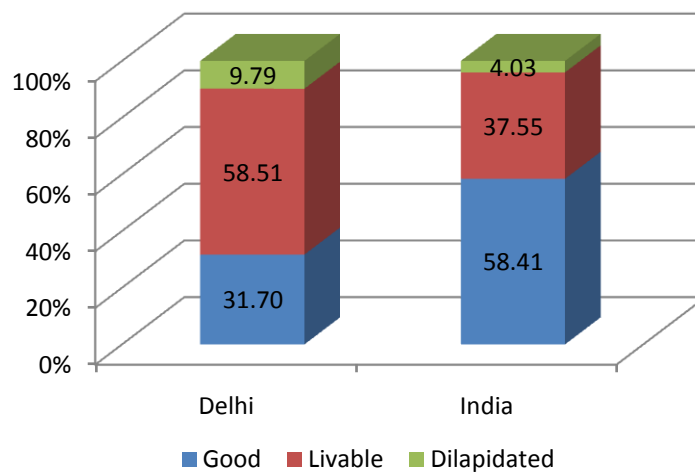
In Delhi, the percentage of slum households who owned a house is slightly higher (71.01 per cent) in comparison to India and those who live on rent is 19.89 per cent which is lower in comparison to national figure. It shows that in slums of India, most of the urban poor owned a house.

<sup>8</sup> The Census of India, 2011 defines the households as group of persons who normally live together and take their meals from a common kitchen.

#### 4.6.2 Slum Households by Condition of Census House<sup>9</sup> Occupied by them:

The Census of India, 2011 classified the census houses into three groups according to their condition: Good, Livable and Dilapidated. The houses which do not require any repairs and are in good condition are considered as ‘Good’ in Census of India, 2011. Those houses which require minor repairs are considered as ‘Livable’ and those houses which are breaking down and require major repairs or which have decayed and cannot be restored/repared are considered as ‘Dilapidated’. The percentage distribution of the slum households by condition of census houses occupied by them, show that in India, 58.41 per cent slum households live in census houses with good condition, 37.55 per cent slum households live in census houses with livable condition and only 4.03 per cent slum households live in census houses with dilapidated condition.

**Figure-4.4 Slum Households by Condition of Census House ,2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

In NCT of Delhi, the percentage share of the slum households live in census houses with livable condition is highest (58.51 per cent) followed by the slum households who live in the census houses with Good condition (31.70 per cent). The slum households of Delhi living in dilapidated houses are higher (9.79 per cent) in comparison to India. The overall distribution of the slum households by condition of the census houses

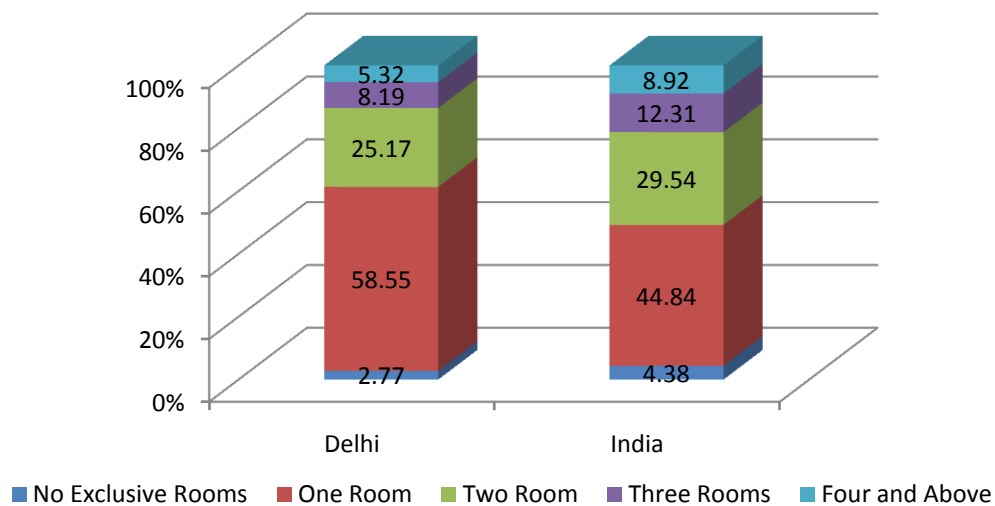
<sup>9</sup> Census of India defines “Census House” as a building or part of a building which have a separate main entrance either from the road or common courtyard or staircase etc. It may be occupied or vacant and used for residential or non-residential purpose.

occupied by them show that in comparison to India, most of the slum households in Delhi live in census houses which are in poor conditions and need repairs.

#### 4.6.3 Slum Households by possession of total number of Dwelling Rooms:

In Census, 2011, slum households has been classified into five categories according to the dwelling rooms possessed by them- 1) No exclusive rooms, 2) One Room, 3) Two Rooms, 4) Three Rooms and 5) Four and above Rooms. According to Census, 2011, bedrooms, dining rooms, living rooms etc. are included in dwelling rooms. Rooms for Kitchen, latrine, store, and bathroom etc. are not considered as dwelling rooms. The percentage distribution of the slum households by total number of dwellings show that both in Delhi and India, the percentage of the slum households who have one or two dwelling rooms is higher in comparison to other categories. The slum households who live in only one room, have highest percentage share both in Delhi and India which is 58.55 per cent and 44.84 per cent respectively. The second highest percentage share is for the slum households who live in two rooms which is 25.17 per cent for Delhi and 29.54 per cent for India.

**Figure-4.5 Slum Households by Number of Dwellings, 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

The percentage share of the slum households in Delhi, who have three dwelling rooms and four & more dwelling rooms is 8.19 per cent and 5.32 per cent respectively. The percentage figures for the slum households in these two respective categories are



slightly higher for India. Only 2.77 per cent slum households in Delhi and 4.38 per cent slum households in India have reported in Census, 2011 that they don't have any exclusive dwelling room to live. The percentage distribution of the slum households by number of dwelling rooms shows that around 84 per cent slum households in Delhi and 74 per cent slum households in India live only in one or two rooms. The average household size is found to be big in slums of India and unavailability of required dwelling rooms for big family and especially for married couples reduce the quality of life for slum dwellers and increase the congestion factor in housing shortage.

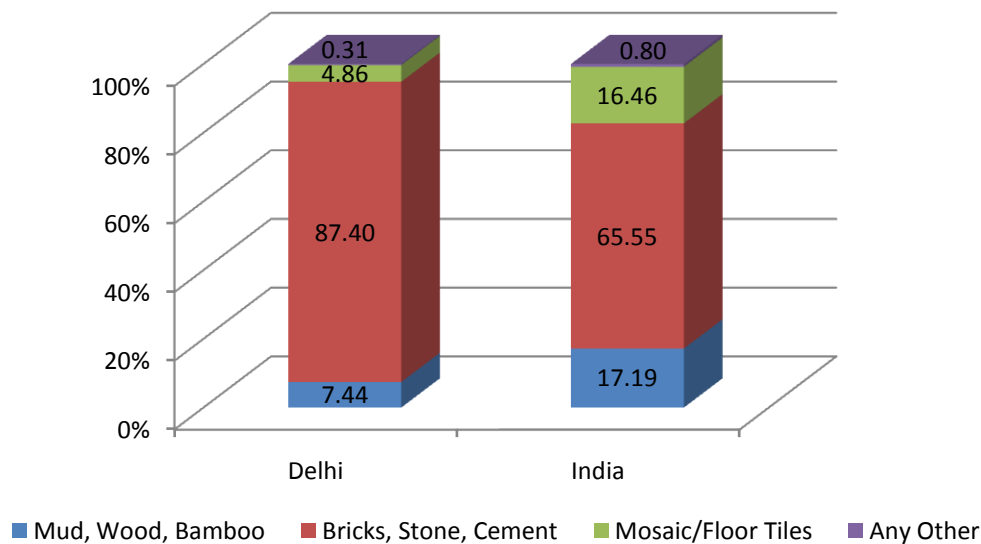
#### **4.6.4 Slum Households by different type of Material used for floors, walls and roofs of the Census Houses occupied by them:**

The quality of the predominant materials used for floors, walls and roofs of the house is very important to examine because the condition of the house depends on these materials. The houses in slum are known for their poor conditions because of the use of low quality material for making these houses. The census, 2011 has provided the details of the predominant material used for floors, walls and roofs of the census houses occupied by slum households which is as follows:

##### **A) Slum Households by Predominant Material used for the Floors in Census Houses:**

In Census, 2011, the predominant materials used for the floors of census houses occupied by slum households are classified into following groups: 1) Mud, Wood, Bamboo; 2) Brick, Stone, Cement; 3) Mosaic/Floor Tiles and 4) Any other materials. The percentage distribution of the slum households by predominant material used for floors of the census houses in Delhi and India shows that slum households who have floors made from brick, stone or cement have highest percentage share which is 87.40 per cent for Delhi and 65.55 per cent for India. The percentage share of the slum households having floors made from brick, stone or cement is around 22 per cent more in Delhi as compared to India.

**Figure-4.6 Slum Households by Predominant Material of Floors of the Census Houses Occupied by Them, 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

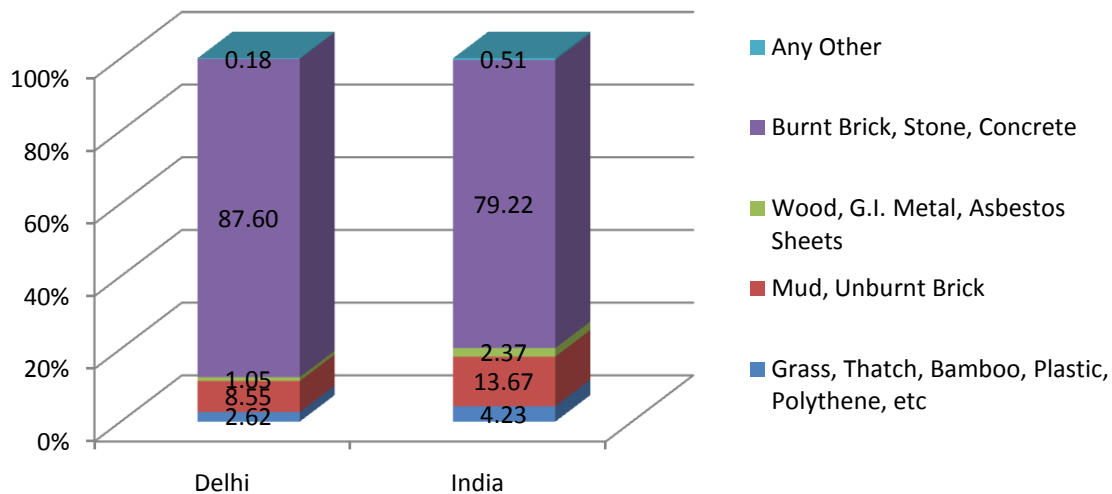
The slum households having census houses with floors made from mud, wood and/or bamboo have second highest percentage share both in Delhi (7.44 per cent) and India (17.19 per cent). The percentage share the slum households in this category are lower in Delhi as compared to India. In Delhi, only 4.86 per cent slum households have census houses in which floors are made from mosaic/floor tiles. However, in India, the percentage share of slum households in this category is much higher (16.46 per cent) as compared to Delhi. In short, it can be concluded that in Delhi and at India level, most of the slum households have census houses in which floors are made from bricks, stones and cement.

**B) Slum Households by Predominant Material used for the Walls in Census Houses:**

In Census, 2011, the predominant materials used for the construction of walls of census houses occupied by slum households are classified into following categories: 1) Grass, Thatch, Bamboo, Plastic, Polythene etc., 2) Mud, Unburnt Bricks, 3) Wood, G.I. Metals, Asbestos Sheets etc., 4) Burnt Bricks, Stone, Concrete etc. and 5) Any Other materials. The percentage distribution of the slum households from following Figure-4.7 shows that total 87.60 per cent slum households in Delhi and 79.22 per cent slum households in

India have census houses with walls made from burnt bricks, stones and concrete etc. which is highest in all predominant material used to make walls.

**Figure-4.7 Slum Households by Predominant Material of Walls of the Census houses occupied by them, 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

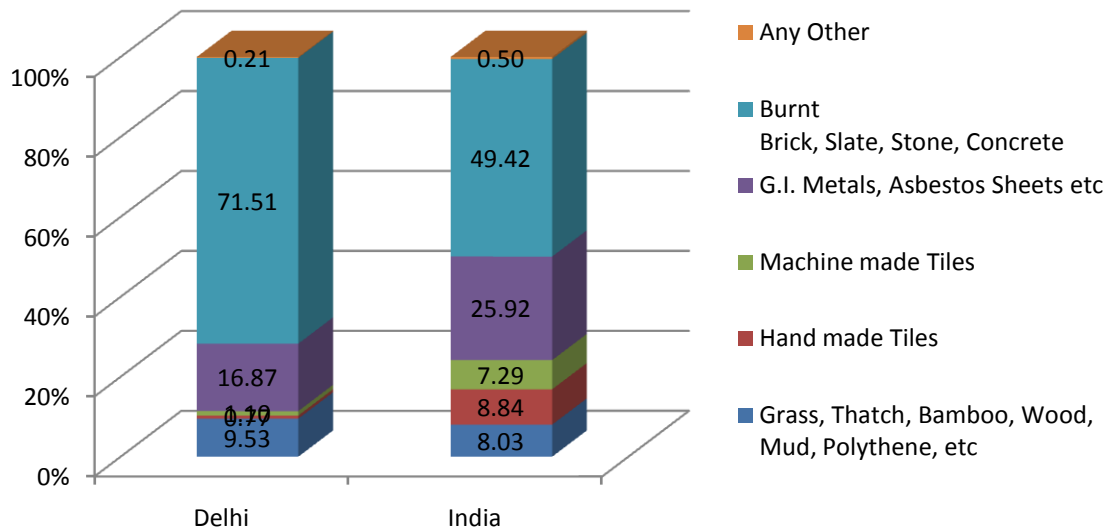
The second predominant materials, from which the walls of census houses occupied by slum households are made, are Mud and Unburnt Bricks. In Delhi, total 8.55 per cent slum households have census houses with walls made from Mud and Unburnt bricks. However, the percentage of slum households in this category at India level is higher in comparison to Delhi. The percentage share of the slum households, having census houses with walls made from other than these two above mentioned materials, is very low. It can be concluded that most of the slum households in India and Delhi use burnt bricks, stone and concrete to make the walls of their houses.

**C) Slum Households by Predominant Material used for the Roofs of Census Houses:**

The predominant materials used in the making of roofs of the census houses occupied by slum households are classified into following categories in census of India, 2011: 1) Grass, thatch, Bamboo, Wood, Mud, Polythene etc, 2) Handmade Tiles, 3) Machine Made Tiles, 4) G.I. Metals, Asbestos Sheets etc., 5) Burnt Brick, Stone, Concrete etc and 6) Any other materials. The percentage distribution of the slum households in following Figure-4.8 shows that total 71.51 per cent slum households in Delhi and 49.42 per cent

slum households in India, have census houses with roof made from burnt bricks, slates, stones and concrete.

**Figure-4.8 Slum Households with Material of Roof of the census houses occupied by them, 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

The second predominant materials, from which the roofs of census houses occupied by slum households are made, are G.I Metals, Asbestos Sheets etc. Total 16.87 per cent slum households in Delhi and 25.92 per cent slum households in India have reported that the roofs of their houses are made from G.I. Metals/Asbestos sheets. The percentage share for slum households having census houses with roofs made from grass, thatch, bamboo, wood, mud and polythene etc is 9.53 per cent in Delhi and 8.03 per cent at India level. The percentage share of the slum households having census houses with roofs made from handmade tiles and machine made tiles is significant at India level only. In Delhi, the percentage share in these categories is very low.

It can be easily identify from above Figure-4.8 that most of the slum households use burnt bricks, slates, stones and concrete to make the roofs of their houses and some of them, also use G.I. Metals and Asbestos sheets. Therefore, the materials in these two categories are predominantly used by slum households to construct the roofs of their houses.

#### 4.7 CONDITION OF HOUSEHOLDS' BASIC CIVIC AMENITIES IN SLUMS:

The literature related to the poor accessibility and availability of basic civic amenities in slums of India is in profusion (Nangia & Thorat, 2000; Kundu, 2004; Banerji, 2005; Edelman & Mitra, 2006; Agrawal *et al.*, 2007). The census, 2011 has provided the data of basic civic amenities for slum households and therefore, the current situation of the basic civic amenities available and accessible to the slum households, can be examined. The present section is an attempt in this regards and the analysis of basic civic amenities for slum households is as follows:

##### 4.7.1 Slum Households by Source of Drinking Water:

The availability and accessibility of safe drinking water is very important for healthy life. The percentage distribution of the slum households by source of drinking water shows that tap water is the main source of drinking water for slum households. Around 84 per cent slum households in Delhi and 74 per cent slum households in India use tap water for drinking. Among the slum households using tap-water as main source of drinking water, total 73.27 per cent slum households use treated tap-water in Delhi which is more safe in comparison to untreated tap-water., for India, the percentage of slum households using treated tap water is 65.32 per cent. The second important source of drinking water for slum households is Hand pumps, tube well and bore well.

**Table-4.2 Slum Households by Source of Drinking Water (in %)**

Source of Drinking Water		Delhi	India
Tap	Treated Source	73.27	65.32
	Untreated	10.99	8.67
	<b>Total</b>	<b>84.26</b>	<b>74.00</b>
<b>Hand pumps, Tube wells and Bore wells</b>		<b>11.51</b>	<b>20.31</b>
Well	Covered	0.12	0.77
	Uncovered	0.06	2.25
	<b>Total</b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>3.02</b>
<b>All Others</b>		4.04	2.67
<b>Total</b>		100	100

*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

In Delhi, total 11.51 per cent slum households use hand pumps/tube-well/bore well as main source of drinking water. The percentage of slum households using hand pumps/tube-well/bore-well is high at India level (20.31 per cent) in comparison to Delhi.

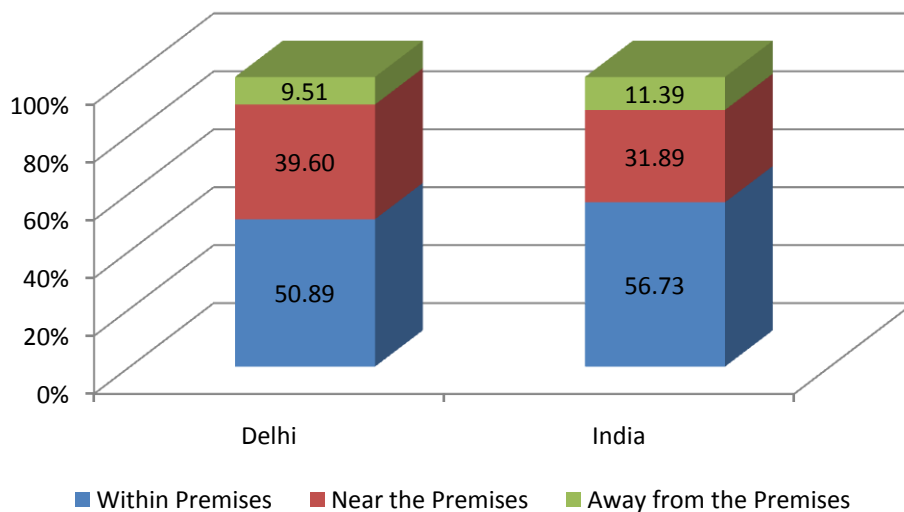
Only 0.19 per cent slum households in Delhi and 3.02 per cent slum households in India use well as source of drinking water.

#### 4.7.2 Slum Households by Availability of Drinking Water Facility:

According to the location of the source of drinking water available for slum households, Census 2011 has classified the drinking water facilities into three categories: 1) Within the premises, 2) Near the Premises and 3) Away from Premises. The source of drinking water will be considered near the premises only if it is available within a range of 100 metres from the premises of slum household and if it is available at 100 metres or more distance, then, it will considered 'away from slum households'.

The percentage distribution of slum households according to their availability show that 50.89 per cent slum households in Delhi and 56.73 per cent slum households in India have drinking water facility within their premises. The second highest percentage share is for the slum households who have drinking water facilities near their premises. Total 39.60 per cent slum households in Delhi and 31.89 per cent slum households in India reported that they have drinking water facilities near the premises. Only, 11.39 per cent slum households in India and 9.51 per cent slum households in Delhi reported that the source of drinking water accessed by them are away from their premises.

**Figure-4.9 Slum Households by Location of Drinking Water Facility, 2011**



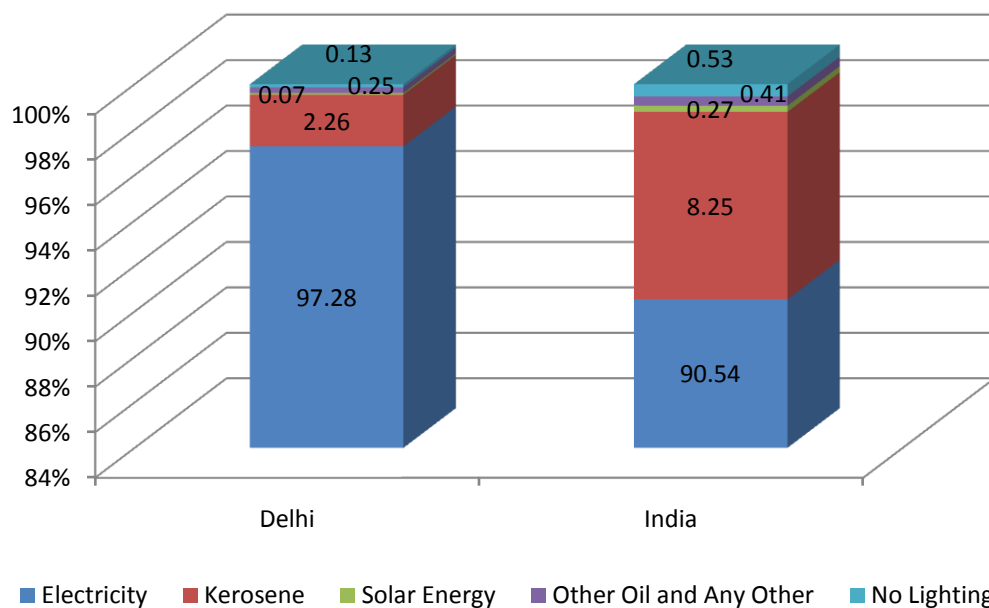
Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.

In brief, it can be concluded that most of the slum households have access of drinking water facilities within their premises or near their premises and different government programmes run for providing the basic civic amenities to urban poor over time can be responsible for availability of water sources in slums.

#### 4.7.3 Slum Households by Source of Lighting:

The percentage share of the slum households by different source of lighting shows that, total 97.28 per cent slum households in Delhi and 90.54 per cent slum households in India, use electricity as main source of lighting.

**Figure-4.10 Slum Households by Source of Lighting (in %), 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

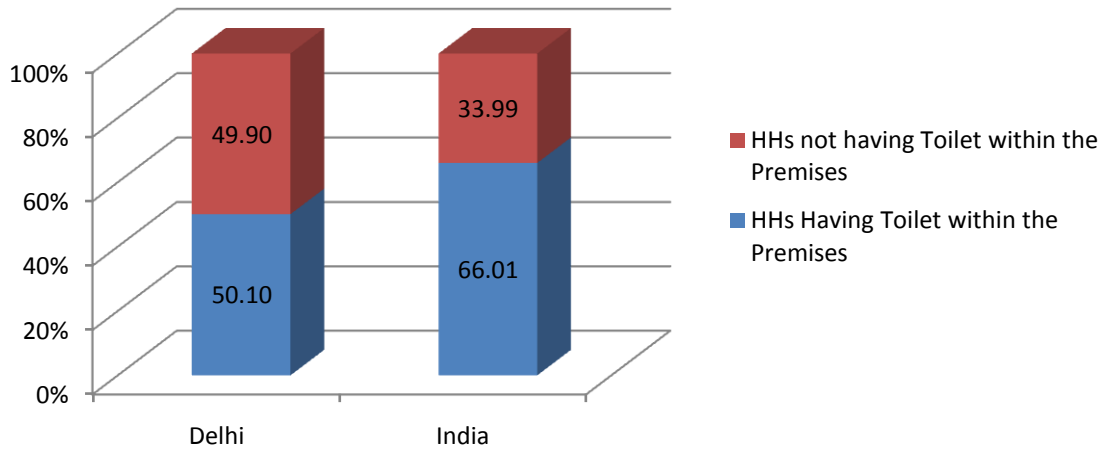
The second important source of lighting for slum households is Kerosene. In India, 8.25 per cent slum households still use Kerosene as main source of lighting; however, the percentage share of the slum households using Kerosene as main source of lighting is low in Delhi (2.26 per cent) as compared to India.

#### 4.7.4 Slum Households by Toilet Facility:

The availability and accessibility of toilet facility is essential for public health and hygiene. The percentage distribution of the slum households by availability of toilet shows that 50.10 per cent slum households in Delhi and 66.01 per cent slum households in India have toilet facility within their premises.

The Figure-4.11 shows that 49.90 per cent slum households in Delhi and 33.99 per cent slum households in India still don't have toilet facility within their premises which is a major problem for the public hygiene.

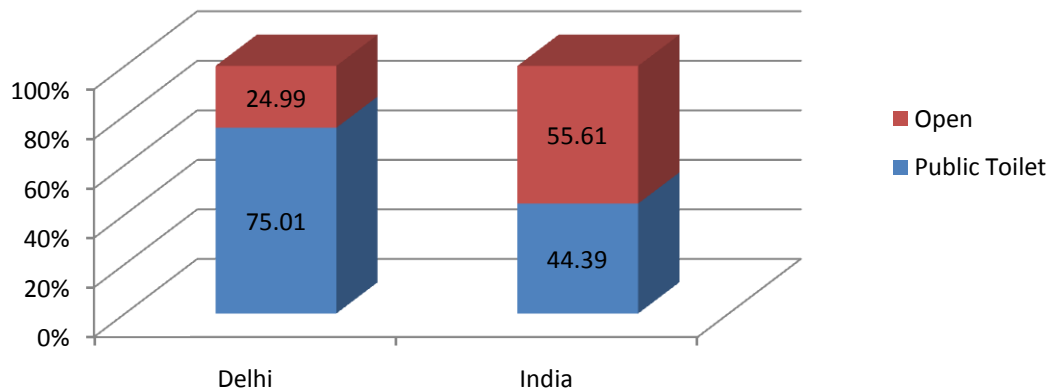
**Figure-4.11 Slum Households by Availability of Toilet Facility (in %)**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

The alternative source of toilets use by slum households who don't have toilet facility within their premises, provide the detail of the sanitation situation in slums. Among the 49.90 per cent slum households in Delhi, who don't have toilet facility in their premises, 75.01 per cent use public toilets for defecation while 24.99 per cent go in open for defecation.

**Figure-4.12 Slum Households by Alternative Source of Latrine (in %), 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*



At India level, the situation is worse. Among the 33.99 per cent slum households who don't have latrine facility in their premises, only 44.39 per cent use public toilets while 55.61 per cent go in open for defecation. This situation exposes the progress of different programmes launch for basic civic services by central and state governments especially for providing the toilet facilities to urban poor.

The bad condition of public toilets is also an important cause for the high percentage of slum households going in open for defecation. The field studies have proven that open defecation can be more harmful to the health of slum dwellers (see Karn *et al.*, 2003; Buttenheim, 2008).

The percentage figures from Table- 4.3 show the different type of toilets used by slum households who have reported the toilet facility in their premises. The percentage distribution of the slum households according to the different type of toilets they use shows that, total 95.62 per cent slum households in Delhi and 87.37 per cent slum households in India use flush toilets system in their premises.

Among, the slum households in Delhi, who have flush toilets, 85.87 per cent use piped sewer system while only 8.04 per cent use septic tank. For India, the slum households who have flush toilets in their premises, 37.13 per cent use piped sewer system while 47.54 per cent use septic tank. Therefore the slum households using septic tank for flush toilets is high at India level in comparison to Delhi.

**Table-4.3 Slum Households by Type of Toilets (if Slum Households have reported Toilet Facility in their Premises) (in %)**

Type of Latrine		Delhi	India
Flush Toilets	Piped Sewer System	85.87	37.13
	Septic Tank	8.04	47.54
	Other System	1.72	2.70
	<b>Total</b>	<b>95.62</b>	<b>87.37</b>
Pit toilets	With Slab	0.93	8.34
	Without Slab/Open Pit	0.31	1.01
	<b>Total</b>	<b>1.24</b>	<b>9.35</b>
Other Type		<b>3.14</b>	<b>3.27</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

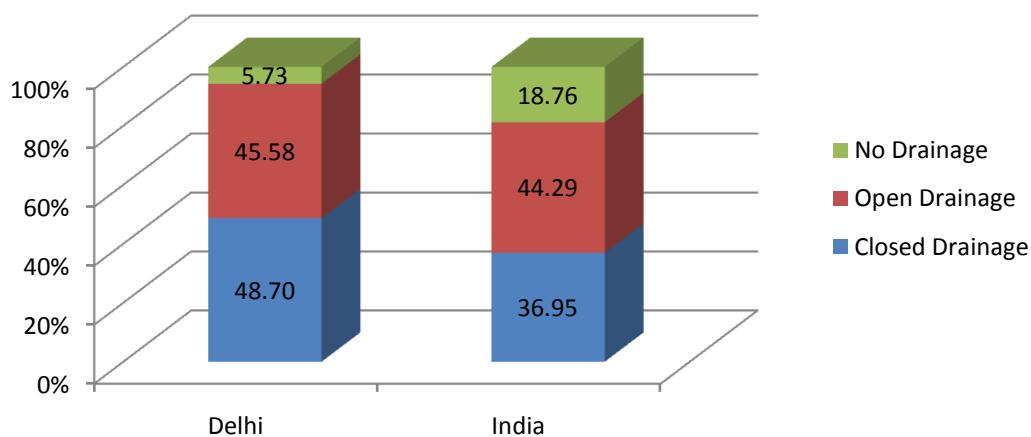
The percentage share of the slum households who have pit toilets in their premises is very low, which is 1.24 per cent for Delhi and 9.35 per cent for India. Therefore it is clear

from above analysis, that in Delhi, most of the slum households, who have toilet facility in their premises have flush toilets with piped sewer system, while at India level; they have flush toilets with type-septic tanks and piped sewer system.

#### 4.7.5 Slum Households by Drainage Facility:

The drainage facility in slums of India is found to be very poor in many studies. It is a major cause of the filthy environment of the slum with rancid smell. It creates sanitary problems and in the absence of proper drainage system in slum area, the storage of sewage becomes breeding ground of many diseases (Nangia & Thorat, 2000). The percentage distribution of the slum households by different type of drainage facility show that total 5.73 per cent slum households in Delhi and 18.76 per cent slum households in India are living without any drainage facility.

**Figure-4.13 Slum Households by Drainage Facility (in %), 2011**



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

Although the rest of the slum households have drainage facility but only 48.70 per cent slum households in Delhi and 36.95 per cent slum households in India have closed drainage facility. The rest 45.58 per cent slum households of Delhi and 44.29 per cent slum households of India are living with open drainage systems. This increases the chance of any epidemic in slum areas more.

#### 4.7.6 Slum Households by Bathroom Facility:

The separate bathroom is very important facility especially for female in India because in absence of proper bathroom, they have to take bath in the makeshift arrangement or in the room in which they live and both are risky in terms of privacy.

**Table-4.4 Percentage of Slum Households by Bathroom facility**

Slum HHs having bathing facility		Delhi	India
Yes	Bathroom	48.82	66.57
	Enclosure without roof	10.18	14.47
	<b>Total</b>	<b>59.00</b>	<b>81.05</b>
<b>No Bathroom</b>		<b>41.00</b>	<b>18.95</b>
<b>Total</b>		100	100

Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.

The percentage distribution of the slum households shows that the availability of bathroom facility for slum households in Delhi is very poor in comparison to India. At India level, 81.05 per cent slum households reported that they have bathroom facility while only 18.95 per cent slum households don't have bathroom facility. In case of Delhi, only 59 per cent slum households reported that they have bathroom facility while rest of the slum households which are in significant percentage (41 per cent) don't have the bathroom facility and it is a big problem for the female living in these slum households.

#### 4.7.7 Slum Households by Kitchen Facility:

A separate room for kitchen is very important for the health of the members of the family in general and health of the female member of the households in particular. In slum, it has been found that most of the households live in a single room with kitchen and therefore, the female member of the households has to do cooking activities in the same room in which the family live which is totally unhygienic and harmful for the health. The percentage distribution of the slum households from following Table-4.5 shows that, in Delhi, 94.50 per cent slum households cook inside their houses, among which, only 44.14 per cent have kitchen and rest 50.35 per cent doesn't have kitchen in their houses.

**Table-4.5 Percentage of Slum Households by Kitchen facility**

Kitchen Facilities		Delhi	India
Cooking inside house	Has Kitchen	<b>44.14</b>	<b>65.29</b>
	Does not have kitchen	50.35	28.79
	<b>Total</b>	<b>94.50</b>	<b>94.08</b>
Cooking outside house	Has Kitchen	<b>0.69</b>	<b>2.02</b>
	Does not have kitchen	4.25	3.35
	<b>Total</b>	<b>4.94</b>	<b>5.38</b>
<b>No Cooking</b>		0.56	0.54
<b>Total</b>		100	100

Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.

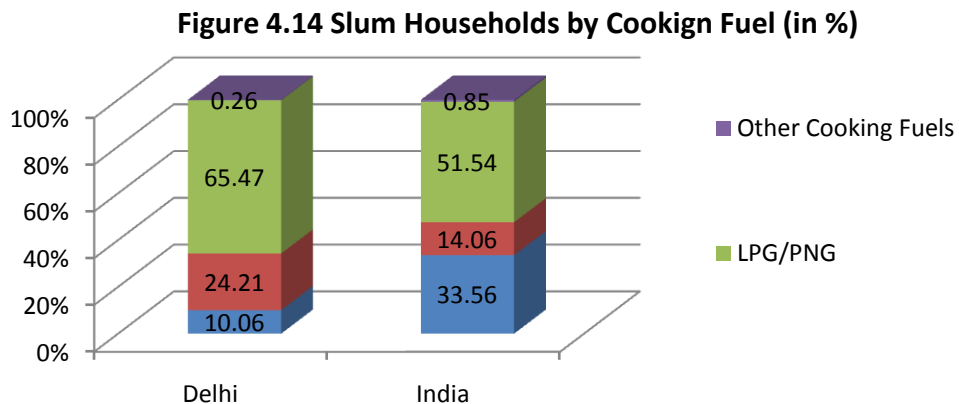
At India level, total 94.08 per cent slum households cook inside their house, among which, majority of them (65.29 per cent) have separate kitchen for cooking while only 28.79 per cent households doesn't have kitchen facility.

The percentage share of the slum households who cook their meals outside their houses is only 4.94 per cent in Delhi, among which, only 0.69 per cent have kitchen. In India, total 5.38 per cent slum households cook their meal outside their houses, among which, only 2.02 per cent have separate kitchen. The overall percentage distributions of the slum households by separate kitchen facility show that in comparison of national figures, the condition of the slum households in Delhi is poor in terms of having a separate kitchen.

#### 4.7.8 Slum Households by Source of Cooking Fuel:

The use of clean fuel for cooking is very important for environment and health of the human beings. The source of cooking fuel collected in Census, 2011 can be classified into following categories: 1) Fire-wood, Crop-residual, Cow Dung Cake, Coal, Lignite, Charcoal, 2) Kerosene, 3) LPG/PNG, 4) Other cooking fuels in which Electricity, Biogas and any other cooking fuels are included. Only those slum households who do cooking in their houses is included in the present analysis.

The percentage distribution of the slum households by different source of cooking fuels shows that in Delhi as well as at India level, LPG/PNG is the most commonly used cooking fuel among slum households. Total 65.47 per cent slum households in Delhi and 51.54 per cent slum households in India use LPG/PNG for cooking, which is relatively safe fuel for cooking.



*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

The second most common cooking fuel used by slum households in Delhi is Kerosene, which is used by 24.21 per cent slum households in Delhi. However, the percentage of the slum households in India using Kerosene are less (14.06 per cent) and the firewood, crop-residual, cow-dung cake, lignite, charcoal etc. is the second most common cooking fuel used by households in Indian slums as the percentage share of the slum households in this category is second highest (33.56 per cent) at India level.

In Delhi, only 10.06 per cent slum households use firewood, crop-residual, cow-dung cake, lignite, charcoal etc. as cooking fuel. The percentage of the slum households using other cooking fuels is insignificant both at Delhi and all India level.

#### **4.8 HOUSEHOLD ASSETS AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY IN SLUM:**

In Census, 2011 the data of the household assets of slum households is collected. According to Census, 2011, total 23.05 per cent slum households in Delhi have radio while 74.37 per cent slum households have reported that they have television. In comparison to India, the percentage of slum households having these assets is more in Delhi.

In Delhi, total 20.36 per cent slum households reported that they have bicycle, 18.14 per cent slum households reported that they have Scooter/Motorcycle/Moped and only 5.42 per cent slum households reported that they have Car/Jeep/Van.

**Table-4.6 Percentage of Slum Households with each Assets, 2011**

<b>Assets</b>	<b>Delhi</b>	<b>India</b>
<b>Radio</b>	23.05	18.73
<b>Television</b>	74.37	69.56
<b>Bicycle</b>	20.36	40.16
<b>Scooter/Motor-Cycle/Moped</b>	18.14	22.01
<b>Car/Jeep/Van</b>	5.42	3.56
<b>Computer/Laptop</b>	10.88	10.40
<b>Telephone (Landline)</b>	3.07	4.43
<b>Mobile</b>	66.14	63.46
<b>None of the above specified assets</b>	9.80	10.70
<b>Total Slum Households</b>	<b>100 (383609)</b>	<b>100 (13749424)</b>

*Source: Computed from HH Series of Slums, Census of India, 2011.*

The percentage of the slum households having Bicycle and Scooter/Motorcycle/Moped is more at India level in as compared to Delhi which is 40.16 per cent and 22.01 per cent respectively. However, the percentage of the slum households at India level having car/jeep/van is less (3.56 per cent) in comparison to Delhi.

In Census, 2011, the information about the communication technology used by slum households like telephone (landline) or mobiles is also collected. The percentage of the slum households using mobile is 66.14 per cent in Delhi and 63.46 per cent in India. The slum households having landline (telephone connection) are 4.43 per cent in India which is slightly higher in comparison to Delhi (3.07 per cent). It can be concluded that most of the slum households are well connected to their friends, family, village members etc. with the mobile phones and telephone connections they have.

#### **4.9 EMPIRICAL FINDINGS FROM THE FIELD SURVEY RELATED TO HOUSING AND TENURE STATUS OF THE HOUSEHOLDS IN SAMPLE JJ-CLUSTERS:**

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##### **4.9.1 The Ownership Status of the Jhuggi-Jhopri in JJ-Clusters:**

The ownership status of a house, even if it is a Jhuggi in Jhuggi-Jhopri Cluster, makes a significant impact on the quality of lives of the members of a household. The household who owned a Jhuggi feels more secure, because ownership of a Jhuggi plays an essential role for acquiring the urban identity to the members of the household. On the contrary, the tenants feel more insecure and deprived, because most of the time landlords don't allow using the address of the Jhuggi for availing the different kinds of benefit provided by government through various schemes. Therefore, the ownership status of a Jhuggi is very important variable to look upon.

The percentage distribution of the households by ownership status shows that in sample households, 81.75 per cent claimed that they owned their Jhuggi whereas only 18.25 per cent households in present study live on rent.

**Table-4.7 Percentage distributions of the Households by Ownership Status of the Jhuggi-Jhopri**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Owned	Rented	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	82	18	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	78	22	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	80	20	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	80	20	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	82	18	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	81	19	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	80	20	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	86	14	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	83	17	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	84	16	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	82	18	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	83	17	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		81.75	18.25	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, 80 per cent or more households claimed<sup>10</sup> that they owned their Jhuggi and rests are living on rents. The highest percentage share of the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur of North-East Delhi (86 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (84 per cent) of North-West Delhi. The percentage share of the rented households is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla of South Delhi (22 per cent) followed by Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj of South-West Delhi (20 per cent) and Dr. Ambedkar Camp of North-East Delhi (20 per cent).

The social-groups wise analysis of the ownership of the Jhuggi provides the details of the possible cause behind the ownership status of the households. It shows that the highest percentage share of rented households is among scheduled castes households followed by Other Backward Castes. The least percentage share of the rented households

<sup>10</sup> Here, the 'claimed' word is deliberately used because not as single households in JJ-Clusters have shown the land documents, lease papers or any other documents from which they can prove that they owned the land on which the Jhuggi is made.

is among others (general category), in other word, most of the households in other category owned a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters.

**Table 4.8 Percentage distribution of the households according to ownership status and social groups**

Social Groups	Ownership Status		
	Owned	Rented	Total
<b>Scheduled Castes</b>	75 (127)	25 (42)	100 (169)
<b>Other Backward Castes</b>	87 (155)	13 (24)	100 (179)
<b>Others (General)</b>	88 (44)	12 (6)	100 (50)
<b>Total</b>	82 (327)	18 (73)	100 (400)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Note: Due to inadequate samples of Scheduled Tribes' households (N=2), they are not included in present analysis.*

It has been discussed in previous chapter (Chapter-III) that most of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes' households in present study are landless at the place of origin and migration to Delhi is part of their survival strategy, therefore, owning a Jhuggi can be relatively difficult for them.

#### **4.9.2 Type of Jhuggi-Jhopri in JJ-Clusters:**

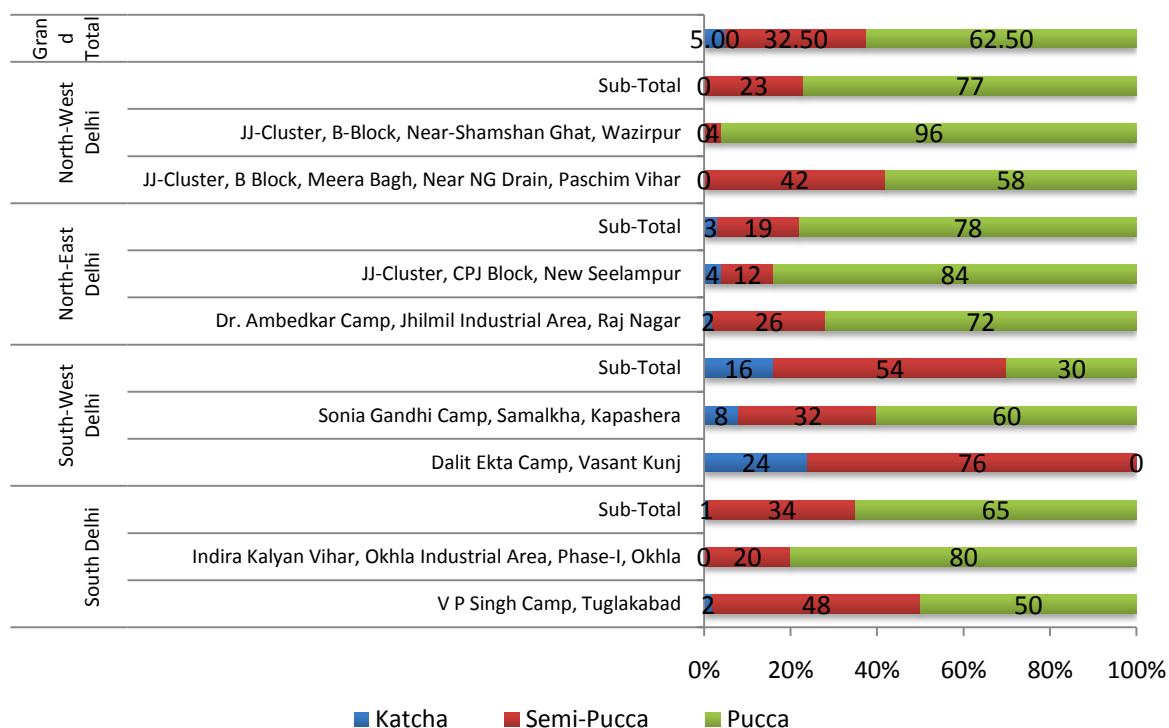
On the basis of the material used for the construction of the floors, walls and roofs, National Sample Survey, 65<sup>th</sup> round (2008-09) has classified the houses in slums into three categories: *Pucca*, *Semi-Pucca* and *Katcha*. According to NSS, the *pucca* structures are those, in which, roof and walls both are made of *pucca* materials such as cement, concrete, oven-burnt bricks and other such materials; *katcha* structures are those, in which, the roof and walls both are made of *katcha* materials such as mud, thatch, bamboo, tents etc. while *Semi-Pucca* structures are those, in which, either roof or walls, are made of *pucca* materials but both should not be made from *pucca* materials. The same classification of the houses has been followed during the field survey to identify the different type of Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters.

The percentage distribution of the households living in different type of Jhuggi-Jhopri shows that in sample households, 62.50 per cent are living in *pucca* Jhuggi, 32.50 per cent are living in *semi-pucca* Jhuggi and only 5 per cent households are living in *katcha* Jhuggi. The district and JJ-Cluster wise distribution of the households by type of Jhuggi, in which they live, shows that the percentage of households living in *pucca* Jhuggi is highest in most of the JJ-Clusters except Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj of



South Delhi, in which, not a single households are living in *pucca* Jhuggi. The households living in *pucca* Jhuggi are highest in JJ-Clusters, Wazirpur (96 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (84 per cent) and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhala (80 per cent).

**Figure 4.15 Percentage distribution of the households by different type of Jhuggi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The percentage of the households living in *semi-pucca* Jhuggi is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (76 per cent) followed by V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (48 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (42 per cent).

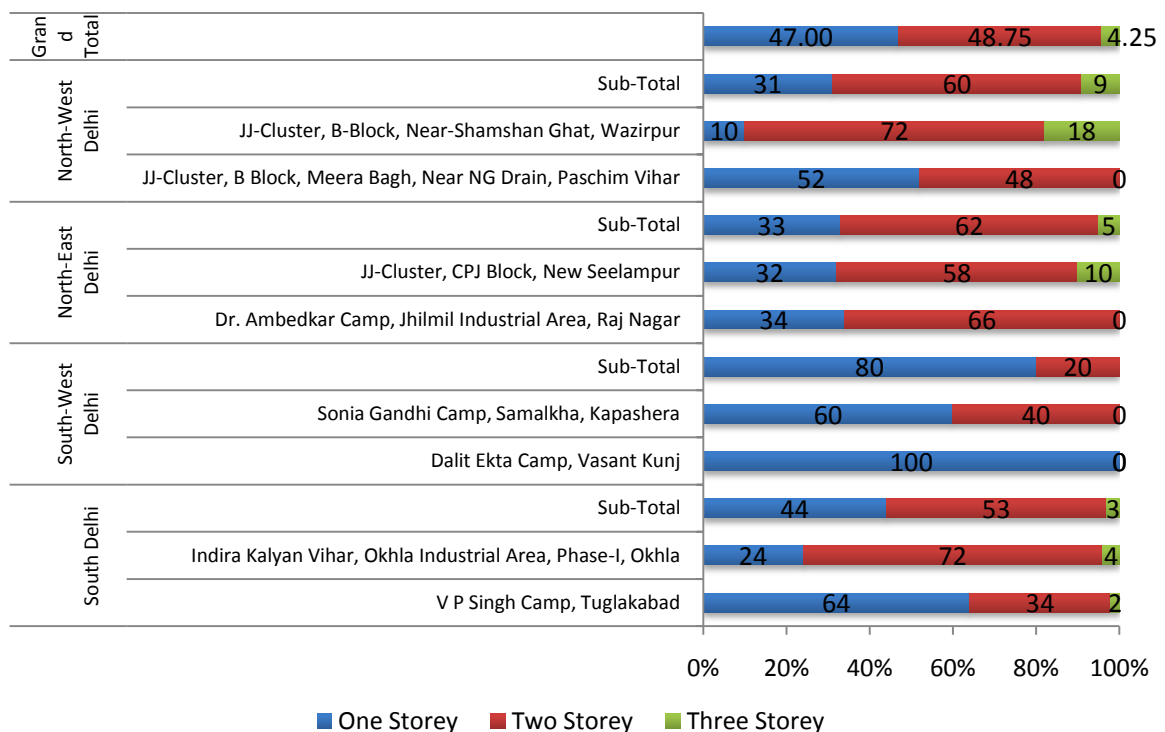
The percentage of the households living in *katcha* Jhuggi is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (24 per cent) followed by Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (8 per cent). Except these two JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the households living in *katcha* Jhuggi is very low in other JJ-Clusters. In some JJ-Clusters like Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla; JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, not a single household is living in *katcha* Jhuggi.

Although, majority of the households in present study are living either in pucca Jhuggi or semi-pucca Jhuggi, but during the field survey, it has been observed that only few of these structures are in good condition. The condition of the rest is only livable.

#### 4.9.3 Total Construction Floors in Jhuggi-Jhopri:

The households living in JJ-Clusters are classified according to the total construction floors of the Jhuggi-Jhopri into three categories: 1) Households living in One Storey Jhuggi, 2) Households living in two storeys Jhuggi and 3) Households living in three storeys Jhuggi.

**Figure 4.16 Percentage distribution of the Households by Construction Floors of the Jhuggi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The percentage distribution of the households by total construction floors of Jhuggi shows that in sample households, 48 per cent are living in two storeys Jhuggi, 47 per cent are living in one story Jhuggi and only 4.25 per cent are living in three storeys. The district and JJ-Cluster wise distribution of the households by total construction floors of the Jhuggi shows that, Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj is only JJ-Cluster, in which, all the households are living in one storey Jhuggi. Except this JJ-Cluster, the percentage of the

households living in one storey Jhuggi is highest in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (64 per cent), Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (60 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (52 per cent).

The percentage of the households living in two storeys Jhuggi is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (72 per cent), JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (72 per cent), Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (66 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (58 per cent). In most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage of the households living in three storeys Jhuggi is very low. Only JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (18 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (10 per cent) have households living in three storeys Jhuggi.

The NCT of Delhi comes under Seismic Zone-4 which is high damage zone. The scholars have already predicted that a high Richter scale (over 7.0) earthquake can do a high level of devastation in Delhi. The last major earthquake (with 5.6 Richter scale) in Delhi was experienced way back on July 27, 1960 and many buildings in New Delhi area were damaged due to this earthquake (Bapat, 2003). Delhi has expanded horizontally and vertically in last three-four decades and the slum population living in the JJ-Clusters has also increased many times. The building structures in these JJ-Clusters violate many standard norms and can be cause of a major devastation at the time of a high Richter scale earthquake. In the present study, it has been discussed above that the households living in two storey buildings are around 49 per cent. In most of the JJ-Clusters, households are living in two storeys Jhuggi, even in some JJ-Clusters; they are living in three storeys buildings. Therefore, the households living in these two/three storeys Jhuggi are likely to be more vulnerable in the case of a major earthquake in Delhi.

#### **4.9.4 Quality of the Jhuggi-Jhopri in terms of Predominant Materials used for Floors, Walls and Roofs:**

The quality of dwelling is an important determinant of the well being of households and therefore it is an important indicator of the quality of life (Nangia & Thorat, 2000). The quality of the dwellings can be determined by the predominant material use for the construction of the floors, walls and roofs of the dwellings. In the present study, the information about the predominant materials used for the construction of the floors, walls and roofs was collected which is discussed in the present section:

### A) Jhuggi-Jhopri by Predominant Material of Floors:

It has been found during field survey that households, living in JJ-Clusters, use Mud, Burnt Bricks and Cement to construct the floors of their Jhuggi. The percentage distribution of the households by predominant material used to construct the floors of the Jhuggi shows that in sample households, 90.25 per cent have Jhuggi with cemented floors, 6.50 per cent have Jhuggi with floors made by burnt bricks and only 3.25 per cent households have Jhuggi with floors made from mud.

**Table 4.9 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Predominant Material used in the Construction of the Floors of Jhuggi**

Districts	Clusters	Mud	Burnt Brick	Cemented	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	10	2	88	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	0	2	98	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	5	2	93	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	0	20	80	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	10	4	86	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	5	12	83	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0	2	98	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	6	6	88	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	3	4	93	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	0	8	92	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	0	8	92	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	0	8	92	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		3.25	6.50	90.25	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

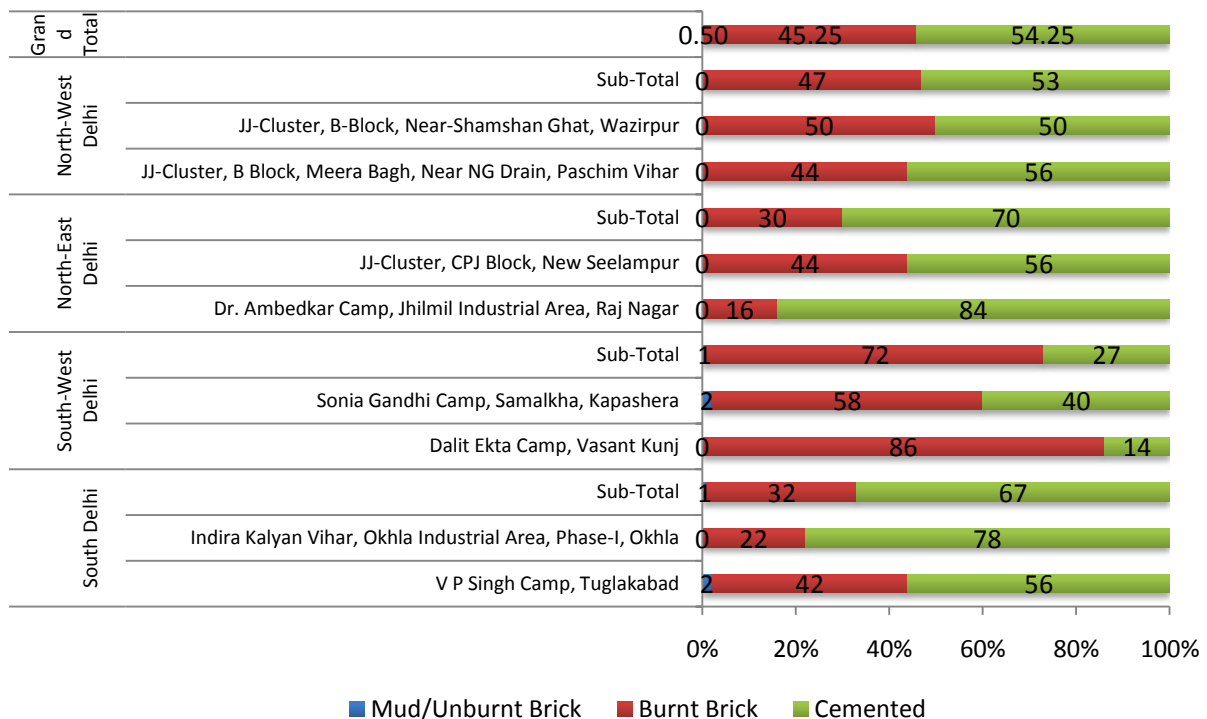
The district and cluster wise percentage distribution of the households shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, more than 80 per cent households live in the Jhuggi with cemented floors. The second predominant material used to construct the floors in most of the JJ-Clusters is burnt bricks. Only in few JJ-Clusters, like V P Singh Camp, Tugalakabad, Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha and JJ-Cluster, Seelampur, households are living in the

Jhuggi with floors made from mud. This pattern shows that in most of the households, the condition of the floors is good.

### B) Jhuggi-Jhopri by Predominant Material of the Walls:

The predominant materials used by households to construct the walls of the Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters are Mud/Unburnt Bricks, Burnt Bricks and Cement. The percentage distribution of the households by predominant material used to construct the walls of the households shows that in sample households, 54.25 per cent live in the Jhuggi with cemented walls, 45.25 per cent live in the Jhuggi with walls made from burnt bricks and only 0.50 per cent households live in the Jhuggi with walls made from Mud/Unburnt Bricks.

**Figure- 4.17 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Predominant Material used in the construction of the walls of the Jhuggi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise distribution of the households shows that except the JJ-Clusters of South-West Delhi (Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha), in most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage of the households living in the Jhuggi with cemented walls is high. The highest percentage of the households living in the Jhuggi with cemented walls is in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (84 per

cent) followed by Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (78 per cent), V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (56 per cent), JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (56 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (56 per cent).

The second predominant material used by households to construct the walls in JJ-Cluster is burnt bricks. The percentage of the households living in the Jhuggi with walls made from burnt bricks is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (86 per cent) followed by Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (58 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (50 per cent). Only 2 per cent households in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha have juggies with walls made from Mud/Unburnt bricks. In all other JJ-Clusters, households have Jhuggi with walls made from either cement or burnt bricks.

### **C) Jhuggi-Jhopri by Predominant Material of Roof:**

The predominant material used by households to construct the roof of the Jhuggi can be classified into four categories: 1) Iron/Tin/Asbestos Sheets only; 2) Stone/Lime Stone/Burnt Bricks only; 3) Bamboo/Wood/Polythene/Canvas/Clothes only and 4) Tin/Asbestos Sheets & Stone/Lime Stone/Burnt Bricks Both.

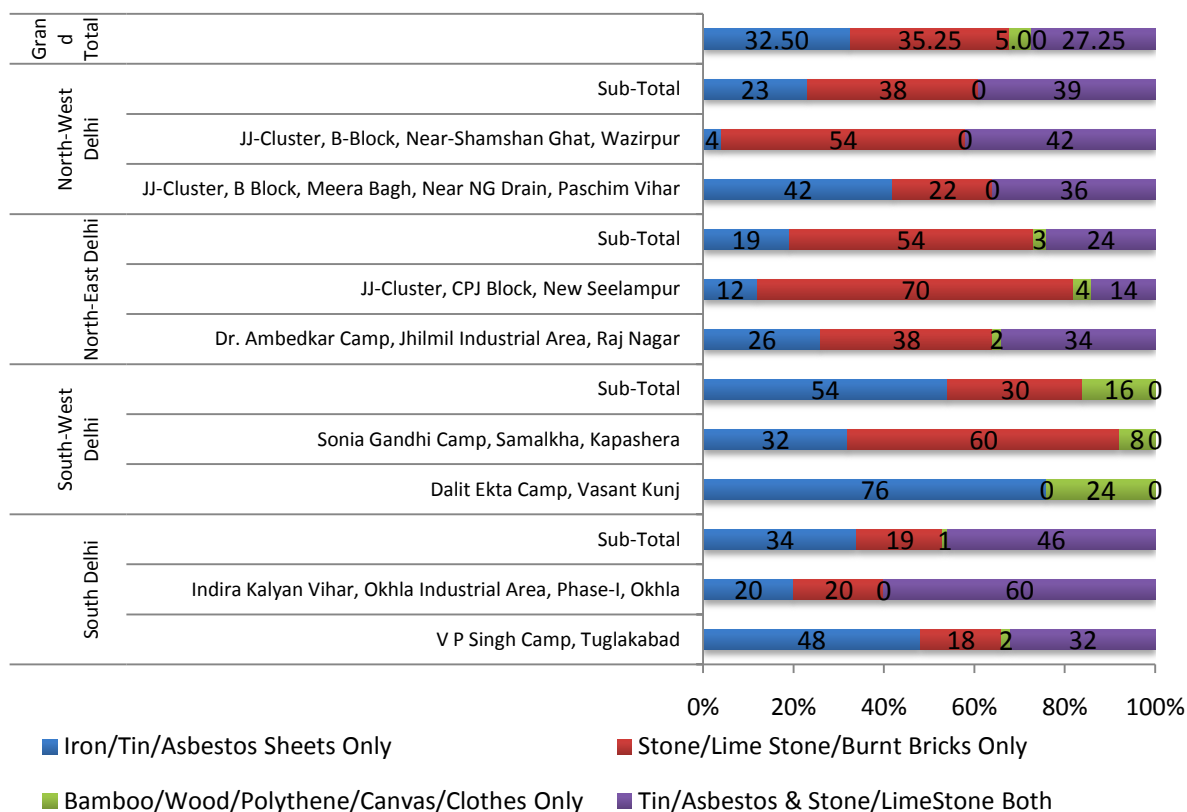
The percentage distribution of the households by predominant material used to construct the roof of the Jhuggi shows that in sample households, 35.25 per cent households live in the Jhuggi with roof made from stone/lime-stone/burnt bricks only; 32.50 per cent households live in the Jhuggi with roof made from Iron/tin/asbestos only; 27.25 per cent households live in the Jhuggi with roof made from tin/asbestos & stone/lime-stone/burnt bricks both and only 5 per cent households live in the Jhuggi with roof made from bamboo/wood/polythene/canvas/clothes only.

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households by predominant material used for the construction of the roof of Jhuggi shows that the percentage of the households living in the Jhuggi with roof made from iron/tin/asbestos only is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (76 per cent) followed by V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (48 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (42 per cent). Most of the Jhuggi, in which, roof are made from iron/tin/asbestos only, are *semi-pucca*.

The percentage share of the households living in the Jhuggi with roof made from stone/lime-stone/burnt bricks only is highest in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (70 per cent)

followed by Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (60 per cent) and JJ-Cluster Wazirpur (54 per cent). Most of the Jhuggi, in which, roof are made from stone/lime-stone/burnt bricks only are *pucca*.

**Figure- 4.18 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Predominant Material used in the construction of the Roof of the Jhuggi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

It is clear from above Figure-4.18 that the percentage of the households living in the Jhuggi with roof made from bamboo/wood/polythene/canvas/clothes is only in a few JJ-Clusters like Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (24 per cent), Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (8 per cent), JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (4 per cent) and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (2 per cent). All these households are living in *katcha* Jhuggi.

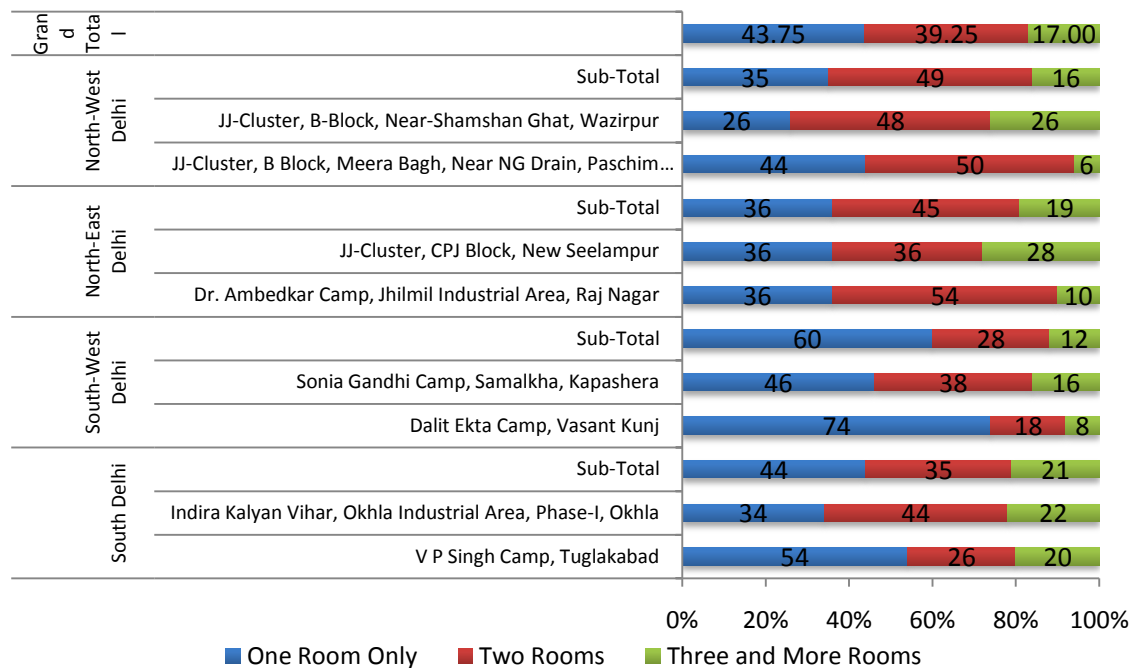
It has been found during field survey that households, who live in Jhuggi with roof made from Tin/Asbestos & Stone/Lime-Stone both, are living generally in the two/three storeys Jhuggi. In case of two storeys Jhuggi, the roof of the first floor is made from stone/lime-stone and the roof of the second floor is made from tin/asbestos and in

case of three storeys Jhuggi, the roofs of the first two floors were made from stone/limestone and the roof of the third floor was made from tin/asbestos. The percentage of the households living in these types of Jhuggi is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (60 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (42 per cent), JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (36 per cent), Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (34 per cent) and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (32 per cent). The overall pattern shows that in different JJ-Clusters, the predominant materials used to construct the roof are different, depending on the type of Jhuggi and construction floors.

#### 4.9.5 Jhuggi-Jhopri by Number of Living Rooms:

In previous chapter (Chapter-III), it has been discussed that the average household size in the present study is high, in this context; it becomes very important to know the number of living rooms available to a household in different JJ-Clusters. The percentage distribution of the households by number of living rooms shows that in sample households, 43.75 per cent live only in one room, 39.25 per cent live in two rooms and only 17 per cent live in three or more rooms.

**Figure 4.19 Percentage Distributions of the Households by Number of Living Rooms**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).



The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households by number of living rooms shows that the percentage share of the households living in one room is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (74 per cent) followed by V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (54 per cent), Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (46 per cent). The percentage share of the households living in two rooms is highest in most of the JJ-Cluster except the above mentioned. The highest percentage of the households living in two rooms is in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (54 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (50 per cent), JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (48 per cent) and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhala (44 per cent). The percentage of the households living in three or more rooms is highest in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (28 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (26 per cent) and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (22 per cent). In all other JJ-Cluster, the percentage of the households in this category is below 20 per cent.

The household-size wise availability of number of living rooms shows that among the households with  $\leq 4$  members in family, 64 per cent live only in one room, 24 per cent live in two rooms and only 12 per cent live in three or more rooms. The condition is worse for the households with 5-8 members. Among the households with 5-8 members, 41 per cent live only in one room, 45 per cent live in two rooms and only 13 per cent live three or more rooms. However, among the households with 9 or more members, 13 per cent live only in one room, 42 per cent live in two rooms and 46 per cent live in three or more rooms. Therefore, the condition of the households with 9 or more members is slightly better in comparison to the households with 5-8 members (see Appendix A4.1)

#### **4.9.6 Separate Kitchen Facility in Jhuggi-Jhopri:**

It has been discussed already that a separate kitchen room for cooking is very important for the health and hygiene of the family members in general and the health of the female member of the family in particular. The question related to the availability of separate room for kitchen was asked during field survey. The percentage distribution of the households according to availability of separate kitchen shows that in sample households, only 6.25 per cent have a separate room for kitchen while, 93.75 per cent households don't have a separate room for kitchen. In the above analysis related to number of living rooms in Jhuggi, it has been found that most of the households in present study live only in one or two rooms. In this condition, it can be easily understood that most of the

households in JJ-Clusters cook their food in the same room in which they live, which is very unhygienic and harmful for the health of the family members.

**Table 4.10 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Separate Kitchen Facility in JJ-Clusters**

Districts	Clusters	Separate Kitchen Room in Jhuggi		
		Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	16	84	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	4	96	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	10	90	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	2	98	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	6	94	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	4	96	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	8	92	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	10	90	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	9	91	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	2	98	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	2	98	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	2	98	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		6.25	93.75	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise distribution of the households shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, 90 per cent and above households don't have separate kitchen for cooking. The percentage share of the households with separate kitchen is significant only in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur, in which, 16 per cent and 10 per cent households respectively, reported that they have separate kitchen for cooking. The low availability of separate kitchen facility in most of the households shows the poor living conditions of the migrants in JJ-Clusters. It is one of the main cause of health issues such as acute respiratory infection, diarrhea etc. among slum dwellers (D, Souza, 1997).

#### **4.9.7 Source of Cooking Fuel used by Households in JJ-Clusters:**

Cooking with clean fuel is very important for healthy life. In number of studies (Dutta *et al.*, 1996; Sharma, *et al.*, 1998), it has been found that the families using firewood, coal, biofuel, kerosene etc. are more prone to disease related to respiratory system. In this

context, it is very important to know the type of cooking fuel used by migrants in JJ-Clusters. The percentage distribution of the households by use of different type of cooking fuels shows that in sample households, 88 per cent use LPG as main cooking fuel, 11.5 per cent use firewood for cooking and only 0.5 per cent use Kerosene as main cooking fuel.

**Table 4.11 Percentage distribution of the Households by Type of Cooking Fuel**

Districts	Clusters	Kerosene	Firewood	LPG	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	0	14	86	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	2	2	96	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	1	8	91	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	0	34	66	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	0	22	78	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	0	28	72	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0	2	98	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	2	6	92	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	1	4	95	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	0	12	88	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	0	0	100	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	0	6	94	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		0.5	11.5	88.0	100

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).*

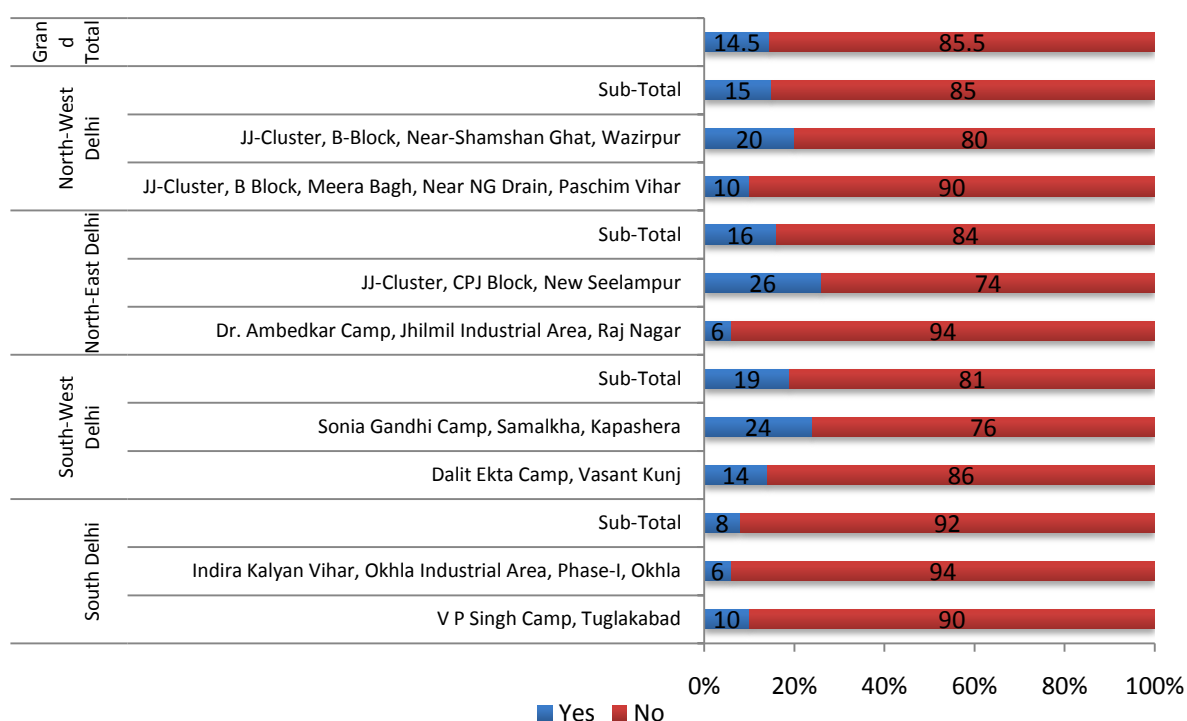
The district and JJ-Cluster wise distribution shows that except the JJ-Clusters of South-West Delhi, in all other JJ-Cluster, LPG is the main cooking fuel used by households. More than 80 per cent households in these clusters reported LPG as main cooking fuel. The percentage of the households using firewood as cooking fuel is significant only in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samlkha of South-West Delhi in which 34 per cent and 22 per cent households respectively use firewood as cooking fuel. The percentage of households using kerosene as cooking fuel is insignificant in all JJ-Clusters. A high percentage of the households using LPG as main cooking fuel and insignificant percentage of households using kerosene as main cooking fuel is result of a scheme known as “*Kerosene-Free Delhi*”, which was launched in August, 2013 by Delhi

government. In this scheme, a free LPG gas cylinder with stove and regulator was given to the all families covered under BPL, Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) and Jhuggi Ration Cards.

#### 4.9.8 Separate Bathrooms in JJ-Cluster:

It is known fact that a separate bathroom is very important for the privacy and security of the members of the households, especially female members of the households. The percentage distribution of the households by separate bathroom shows that in sample households, 85.5 per cent don't have a separate bathroom and only 14.5 per cent households reported that they have separate bathroom in Jhuggi.

**Figure 4.20 Percentage Distributions of the Households by Separate Bathroom**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution shows that the highest percentage of the households without separate bathrooms is in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (94 per cent) and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (94 per cent) followed by V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (90 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (90 per cent). In all other JJ-Clusters also the percentage of the households without separate bathrooms is high which is 74 per cent and above.

The percentage of the households with separate bathroom is high in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (26 per cent) followed by Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (24 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (20 per cent). In all other JJ-Clusters, the percentage of the households having separate bathrooms is less than 20 per cent. It was observed during field survey that female members of the family suffer more because of unavailability of bathroom. They take bath very early in the morning or use public toilet complex for bathing. The condition of the bathrooms of public toilet complex is found to be very poor and unhygienic during field survey. The privacy of the females is another issue which is very prominent in these toilet complexes and reported by many female members of the households.

#### **4.9.9 Associational Factors of the different Quality of Housing in JJ-Clusters:**

A housing quality index has been calculated in present study by assigning the subjective weights to the variables related to housing (the details of the variables and subjective weights are given in methodology section of Chapter-I) and households living in JJ-Clusters are classified according to the quality of housing index into three groups: Low, Medium, and High. The percentage distribution of the associational factors by different quality of housing in JJ-Clusters is discussed as follows:

The percentage distribution of social groups by quality of housing shows that, the percentage share of low and medium quality housing is high in SCs and OBCs as compared to the other category. However, a contrasting result is found in the high quality housing, in which, other category households have high percentage share in comparison to SCs and OBCs. It shows that in JJ-Clusters also, the other category households are relatively better off in comparison to SCs and OBCs and therefore have better quality of Jhuggi. The percentage distribution of religious groups by quality of housing shows that the percentage share of low quality housing is high in Hindu in comparison to Muslims. However, the percentage share of medium and high quality of housing is high in Muslims. The quality of housing by status of ownership of Jhuggi shows that in comparison to those households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of low and medium quality housing is high in rented households. However, the percentage share of high quality housing is very high in the households who owned their Jhuggi. It shows that

in comparison to the households who owned their Jhuggi, the housing condition for those who live in rented accommodation is poor in present study.

**Table: 4.12 Quality of Housing by Associational Factors (in percentage)**

Associational Factors	Low	Medium	High	Total
<b>Social Groups</b>				
<b>Scheduled Castes</b>	43.79	38.46	17.75	100
<b>Other Backward Castes</b>	32.96	45.25	21.79	100
<b>Others</b>	22.00	36.00	42.00	100
<b>Religion</b>				
<b>Hindu</b>	37.82	39.74	22.44	100
<b>Muslim</b>	30.68	46.59	22.73	100
<b>Ownership of Jhuggi</b>				
<b>Owned</b>	35.17	37.61	27.22	100
<b>Rented</b>	41.10	57.53	1.37	100
<b>Employment Status of HoH</b>				
<b>Self-Employed</b>	25.35	47.89	26.76	100
<b>Regular/Salaried</b>	29.61	43.42	26.97	100
<b>Daily Wage Labourers</b>	60.38	29.25	10.38	100
<b>Duration of Migration</b>				
<b>25 years or less</b>	39.30	42.36	18.34	100
<b>More than 25 Years</b>	32.16	39.77	28.07	100
<b>Land Owning Agency</b>				
<b>Railway</b>	46.00	24.00	30.00	100
<b>DDA</b>	42.00	32.50	25.50	100
<b>MCD</b>	40.00	58.00	2.00	100
<b>DUSIB</b>	18.00	59.00	23.00	100

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Note: STs are not included in present analysis because of low sample (N=2 only).*

The employment status of the head of the households also have interrelationship with quality of housing. The percentage share of low quality housing is high in those households, in which, head of the households is daily wage labourer. However, the percentage share of medium and high quality housing is high for the households, in which, head of the households is self-employed and regular/salaried employees. The percentage share of quality of housing by duration of migration shows that with increasing duration of time, the quality of housing improves in JJ-Clusters. The households who are living in Delhi from more than 25 years have higher percentage share in high quality housing as compared to the households who are living in Delhi from 25

years or less duration. However, the percentage share of the low and medium quality housing is high in the households who are living in Delhi from 25 years or less duration.

The land owning agency on which JJ-Clusters are settled also matters for the quality of housing. In many JJ-Clusters which are settled on the land of central government agencies such as railway, DDA etc., the housing condition is poor because many time authorities don't allow for a permanent structure and frequently serve the notice to evict the land and therefore, the households living in these JJ-Clusters don't invest more on the housing structure. In present study, the percentage share of low quality housing is high for the households who are settled on the land of Railway and DDA. However, the households who are settled on the land of MCD or DUSIB have high percentage share in Medium quality housing.

The bivariate analysis is not sufficient enough to provide the explanatory factors of having different quality of housing by households and therefore a Multinomial Regression analysis has been done in present study to show the explanatory factors of having a high or medium quality Jhuggi by households in comparison to the low quality.

The multinomial regression model shows that social groups, status of ownership of Jhuggi, current employment status and landowning agency on which land JJ-Clusters are settled are some important determinants which affect the quality of housing in JJ-Clusters. The odd ratios for these explanatory variables are statistically significant.

In social groups, the likelihood of having high quality housing and medium quality housing is more among other category households and OBC category households in comparison to SCs households. In case of ownership status of a Jhuggi, in comparison to low quality housing, the likelihood of having high quality of housing is more (OR-22.662) among the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi rather than those households who live on rent. However, in comparison to low quality housing, the likelihood of having medium quality of housing is less among households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi rather than those households who live on rent.

The current employment status of head of the households is also an important factor which affects the quality of housing in JJ-Clusters. In comparison to the households in which head of the households is casual labourer, the likelihood of having

high and medium quality housing is more for the households in which head of the households is self-employed and regular wage/salaried employees.

**Table-4.13 Multinomial Logistic Regression for determinants of Quality of Housing in JJ-Clusters**

Explanatory Variables		Dependent: Quality of Housing			
		Low <sup>®</sup> Vs High		Low <sup>®</sup> Vs Medium	
Social Groups	Scheduled Castes <sup>®</sup>				
	Other Backward Castes	0.053	1.055	0.288	1.333
	General	0.981	2.666**	0.281	1.324
Ownership of Jhuggi	Rented <sup>®</sup>				
	Owned	3.121	22.662***	-0.521	0.594
Duration of Migration	25 Years or Less <sup>®</sup>				
	More than 25 Years	0.216	1.242	0.247	1.281
Current Employment Status of Head of the HHs	Casual Labourer <sup>®</sup>				
	Self-Employed	1.753	5.770***	1.289	3.629***
	Regular Wage/Salaried Employee	1.563	4.772***	1.057	2.877***
Landowning Agency	DUSIB <sup>®</sup>				
	Railway	-0.655	0.519	-1.847	0.158***
	DDA	-0.190	0.827	-0.978	0.376***
	MCD	-2.914	0.054**	-2.75	0.760
Statistics	N	398			
	Chi-Square	126.956***			
	-2 Log likelihood	319.809			
	Pseudo R-Square				
	Cox and Snell	0.273			
	Nagelkerke	0.310			
	McFadden	0.149			

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). <sup>®</sup> Reference Category, \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, Note: STs are not included in present analysis because of low sample (N=2 only).

The landowning agency on which JJ-Clusters are settled also an important factor which affects the quality of housing. The odds ratios show that in comparison to the households that are settled on the land of DUSIB, the likelihood of having high and medium quality of housing is less among the households who are settled on the land of Railway, DDA and MCD. DUSIB is an agency which provides and maintains the basic amenities in JJ-Clusters and households living on the land of DUSIB are more secure from demolition and eviction in comparison to the households living on the land of other agencies and therefore they invest more for the quality of housing.



#### **4.10 CONDITION OF THE BASIC CIVIC AMENITIES IN JJ-CLUSTERS:**

In many studies related to slums ((Nangia & Thorat, 2000; Kundu, 2004; Banerji, 2005; Edelman & Mitra, 2006; Agrawal *et al.*, 2007), it has been found that the conditions of the basic civic amenities and other infrastructure in slums are very poor. It is the main cause of the filthy environment of the slums and sad part is that, the migrants living in slums are forced to live in this environment because they don't have any voice to register their complaints. The condition of the basic civic amenities, like source of drinking water, toilet facility, drainage facility etc., available for the households of the JJ-Clusters is discussed in the present section.

##### **4.10.1 Source of Drinking Water:**

The data for the source of drinking water is collected during field survey and classified into two categories: 1) Source of Drinking Water attached to Jhuggi (Only if the households have drinking water facility inside their premises) 2) Alternative source of Drinking Water (if households don't have water facility inside their premises). The results from the following Table-4.14 show that in sample households, only 19.50 per cent households have source of water attached to their Jhuggi while, 80.50 per cent households in JJ-Clusters, use alternative source of water.

Among the households who have drinking water facility attached to their premises, 17.25 per cent have tap water facility while only 2.25 per cent have other facility such as hand pumps. The main alternative source of water used by households (who don't have attached water facility in their premises) is public water taps. Total 53.75 per cent households in different JJ-Clusters use public water tap as main source of drinking water. The tankers by Delhi Jal Board and Public bore well are other two alternative source of water, which is used by 14.50 per cent and 12.25 per cent households in different JJ-Clusters.

The district and JJ-Cluster wise distribution shows that the percentage of the households having drinking water facility attached to their premises is highest in the JJ-Clusters of North-East Delhi. Total 58 per cent households of Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and 60 per cent households of JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur reported that they have attached drinking water facility in their Jhuggi. In all other JJ-Cluster, the percentage of the households having attached drinking water facility is very

low. In comparison to the JJ-Clusters of North-East and North-West Delhi, the percentage share of the households having attached water facility in their premises is very low in JJ-Clusters of South-West Delhi and South Delhi.

**Table 4.14 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Source of Drinking Water**

Districts	Clusters	Source of Drinking Water attached to Jhuggi		Alternative Source of Drinking Water if Households Don't have attached Water Facility			Total
		Tap Water	Others	Tanker by Delhi Jal Board	Public Water Tap	Public Borewell	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	2	0	0	98	0	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	10	0	0	90	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	6	0	0	94	0	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	0	0	100	0	0	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	2	0	0	0	98	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	1	0	50	0	49	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	58	0	0	42	0	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	44	16	16	24	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	51	8	8	33	0	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	10	2	0	88	0	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	12	0	0	88	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	11	1	0	88	0	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		17.25	2.25	14.50	53.75	12.25	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

In different JJ-Clusters, the alternative source of water is different. In V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad; Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla; Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area; JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur; JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, the main alternative source of water is public water tap. In Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, the main alternative source of water is Tanker by Jal Board, however, in Sonia Gandhi Camp, it is public Bore well. The households who use alternative source of water

reported many problems during field survey such as frequency of water supply, timing of the water supply, quality of water, low water supply during summer etc. Many JJ-Clusters are located near open sewer line and in some JJ-Clusters, open sewer is passing through the middle of the JJ-Clusters; it affects the quality of the water in these JJ-Clusters especially in rainy seasons.

#### **4.10.2 Toilet Facility in JJ-Cluster:**

The availability and accessibility of toilet facility is very important for the health and hygiene of the human beings. It has been found in many studies (Nangia & Thorat, 2000; Edelman & Mitra, 2006) that the availability and accessibility of toilet facility in slums of India are very poor.

In present study, only 21.50 per cent households have reported that they have attached toilets in their Jhuggi, among which, 19.25 per cent have septic tank/flush system toilets while 2.25 per cent have pit latrines. However, 78.50 per cent households in present study still use alternative means for toilet, among which, 45.75 per cent households use public toilets, 19 per cent households go in open for defecation and 13.75 per cent households use both (public toilets and open defecation).

The district and cluster-wise percentage distribution of the households shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, the households who have attached toilet facility, are having septic tank/flush system of toilets. The highest percentage share of the households with attached toilet facility in their Jhuggi is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (62 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (64 per cent). In other JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the households using alternative means for toilets is high.

In different alternative means for toilets, the percentage share is highest for the households using public toilets/sulabh international in most of the JJ-Clusters. The percentage share of the households using public toilets is highest in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Areas (100 per cent) followed by Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (52 per cent), JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (50 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (46 per cent).

The percentage share of the households going in open for defecation is highest in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi. In V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad, 42 per cent households reported that they go in open for defecation and in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla, 26 per cent households reported that they go in open for Defecation. Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant

Kunj of South West Delhi is another JJ-Cluster, in which, the percentage of the households going in open for defecation is high.

**Table 4.15 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Toilet Facility**

Districts	Clusters	If HH has toilet, then type of Toilets		If Not, Then Alternative means of Toilet			Total
		Septic Tank/ Flush	Pit Latrine	Public Toilet/ Sulabh International	Open Defecation	Public Toilet and Open defecation both	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	14	2	28	42	14	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	12	2	44	26	16	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	13	2	36	34	15	100
South- West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	4	2	52	32	10	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	60	2	20	8	10	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	32	2	36	20	10	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0	0	100	0	0	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	54	10	26	8	2	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	27	5	63	4	1	100
North- West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	2	0	50	18	30	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	8	0	46	18	28	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	5	0	48	18	29	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		19.25	2.25	45.75	19.00	13.75	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

Around 10-15 per cent households in South Delhi and South-West Delhi reported that they sometimes use public toilets and sometimes go in open for defecation also. The percentage of this type of households is highest in North-West Delhi. In JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh, 30 per cent households reported that they sometimes go in open for defecation and sometimes use public toilets, while, in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, 28 per cent households reported the same alternative means for defecation.

It was observed during field survey that in many JJ-Clusters like Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj; Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area; JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and

JJ-Cluster Wazirpur, households wanted to build toilets in their Jhuggi but, local authority and police don't allow them to build it. This is also one of the main causes of high percentage of households using alternative means of toilets in these JJ-Clusters. Most of the public toilets in present study is built by MCD/DUSIB and maintained by DUSIB.

#### **4.10.3 Waste-Water Discharge Facility in JJ-Clusters:**

It has been discussed earlier in the chapter that the drainage system for waste water discharge is found to be very poor in most of the slums in India. It is one of the main reasons for the filthy environment and rancid smell in slums. The unavailability of the proper drainage system for waste-water discharge in slums invites many diseases to the slum dwellers. In sample households, 95.25 per cent reported that they have common drainage facility for waste-water discharge. However, only 4.75 per cent households in present study reported open discharge of the waste water from their Jhuggi. In most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage of the households using common drainage facility is very high (see Appendix Table A4.2).

It was observed during field survey that although, most of the households in JJ-Clusters use common drainage for waste-water discharge but, the drainage system in most of the JJ-Clusters is open and cleaning of these drainages are not very frequent, because of which waste-water spreads to the roads and narrow lanes of these JJ-Clusters.

#### **4.10.4 Association factors of the Quality of Basic Civic Amenities availed by Households in JJ-Clusters:**

To know the quality of basic civic amenities availed/possessed by households in JJ-Clusters, an index has been calculated by using subjective weights given to the variables related to basic civic amenities available in the households or in JJ-Clusters (the details of the variables and subjective weights are given in the methodology section of the Chapter-D). Further, it is classified into three groups: Poor, Moderate and Good. The percentage distribution of the associational factors by quality of basic civic amenities index is as follows:

The social groups wise percentage distribution of quality of basic civic amenities shows that in comparison to other category households, the percentage share of SCs and OBCs households is high in poor quality of basic amenities. However, a contrasting

result is found for the other category households. The percentage share of other category households is high in moderate and good quality of basic civic amenities. It shows that in JJ-Clusters, the households in other category avail/posses better quality of basic amenities in comparison to SCs and OBCs households.

**Table: 4.16 Quality of Basic Civic Amenities by Associational Factors**  
(in percentage)

Associational Factors	Poor	Moderate	Good	Total
<b>Social Groups</b>				
<b>Scheduled Castes</b>	42.60	30.18	27.22	100
<b>Other Backward Castes</b>	41.90	20.11	37.99	100
<b>General</b>	26.00	36.00	38.00	100
<b>Ownership of Jhuggi</b>				
<b>Owned</b>	39.76	23.55	36.70	100
<b>Rented</b>	42.47	39.73	17.81	100
<b>Employment Status of Head of the households</b>				
<b>Self-Employed</b>	37.32	26.06	36.62	100
<b>Regular/Salaried</b>	29.61	30.92	39.47	100
<b>Daily Wage Labourers</b>	59.43	20.75	19.81	100
<b>Duration of Migration</b>				
<b>25 years or less</b>	43.67	27.51	28.82	100
<b>More than 25 Years</b>	35.67	25.15	39.18	100
<b>Land Owning Agency</b>				
<b>Railway</b>	54.00	22.00	24.00	100
<b>DDA</b>	42.00	33.50	24.50	100
<b>MCD</b>	34.00	12.00	54.00	100
<b>DUSIB</b>	33.00	22.00	45.00	100

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Note: STs are not included in present analysis because of low sample (N=2 only).*

The status of the ownership of a Jhuggi also determines the quality of basic amenities a household avails or possesses in JJ-Clusters. The percentage distribution of the households by ownership status and quality of basic civic amenities shows that the percentage share of rented households is high in poor and moderate quality of basic civic amenities as compared to the households who owned the Jhuggi. However, the percentage share of the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi is high in good quality of basic civic amenities. It shows that the households who owned their

Jhuggi avail/posses better quality of basic civic amenities in comparison to the households who live on rents.

The percentage distribution of the households by the current employment status of the head of the households and quality of basic civic amenities shows that the households in which head of the households is casual labourer have high percentage share in poor quality basic civic amenities. However, the households in which head of the households is self-employed and regular wages/salaried employees have high percentage share in moderate and good quality of basic civic amenities. It shows that the employment status of the head of the households also determine the quality of the basic amenities availed/possessed by households. It is because the households in which head of the households is self-employed and regular wages/salaried employee can afford the moderate/good quality of basic civic amenities in their households as compared to the households in which head of the households is casual labourers.

With increasing duration of migration or stay in Delhi, the availability/possession of good quality basic civic amenities also increases. The percentage share of poor quality of basic civic amenities is high in the households who are living in JJ-Clusters from 25 year or less. However, the percentage share of good quality of basic civic amenities is high in the households who are living in JJ-Clusters from more than 25 years.

The landowning agency on which the JJ-Clusters are settled is the most important factor which decides the quality of basic civic amenities availed/possessed by households. MCD and DUSIB are the two agencies which provide the basic civic amenities to the households in JJ-Clusters and it was observed during field survey that the threat of eviction in the JJ-Clusters which are settled on the land of these two agencies are less as compared to the JJ-Clusters which are settled on the land of central government agencies. Therefore, the percentage of good quality of basic civic amenities is high for the households who are settled on the land of MCD and DUSIB because of two reasons- these agencies itself provides the basic services and the households settled on the land of these agencies invest more for basic amenities because of less threat of eviction. However, the percentage of low quality of basic civic amenities is comparatively high for the households who are settled on the land of railway and DDA. The main reason is threat of eviction because of which the households settled on the land of these agencies

invest less in basic amenities and many times these agency don't allow the households to construct toilets, bathrooms etc.

To substantiate the results provided by bivariate analysis and to examine the explanatory factors for having different quality of basic civic amenities among households living in JJ-Clusters, a multinomial regression analysis has been done. The odds ratios from the Table-4.17 shows that social groups, duration of migration of stay in JJ-Clusters, current employment status of head of the households and land owning agency on which JJ-Cluster is settled are the main factors which influence the quality of basic civic amenities available/possessed by a household. The results are statistically significant only for these variables.

The odds ratio for the social groups shows that in comparison to SCs households, the likelihood of having moderate and good basic civic amenities is more among other category households. However, in comparison to SCs households, the OBCs households have more likelihood to have good basic civic amenities and less likelihood to have moderate basic civic amenities. It shows that other category households and OBC households have good quality of basic civic amenities in comparison to SC households and the moderate quality of basic civic amenities is high only in the other category households in comparison to SCs and OBCs.

The ownership status of the Jhuggi is also an important explanatory variable for having different quality of basic civic amenities in households. In comparison to the rented households, the likelihood of having good quality of basic civic amenities is more among the households who owned their Jhuggi however; the likelihood of having moderate quality of basic civic amenities is less among the households who owned their Jhuggi. The odds ratio of duration of migration or stay in the JJ-Clusters shows that in comparison to the households who lived in JJ-Clusters from 25 years or less, the likelihood of having good and moderate basic civic amenities is more among the households who lived in JJ-Clusters from more than 25 years.

The odds ratio of the employment status of the head of the households shows that in comparison to the households, in which, head of the households is casual labourer, the likelihood of having good and moderate basic civic amenities is more among the



households, in which, head of the households is self-employed and regular wages/salaried employees.

**Table-4.17 Multinomial Logistic Regression for determinants of Quality of basic Civic Amenities in JJ-Clusters**

Explanatory Variables		Dependent: Quality of Basic Civic Amenities			
		Low <sup>®</sup> Vs Good		Low <sup>®</sup> Vs Moderate	
Social Groups	Scheduled Castes <sup>®</sup>				
	Other Backward Castes	0.119	1.127	-0.141	0.869
	General	0.929	2.531**	0.296	1.345
Ownership of Jhuggi	Rented <sup>®</sup>				
	Owned	0.975	2.650	-0.214	0.807
Duration of Migration	25 Years or Less <sup>®</sup>				
	More than 25 Years	0.673	1.961**	0.257	1.292
Current Employment Status of Head of the households	Casual Labourer <sup>®</sup>				
	Self-Employed	0.768	2.155	1.121	3.067***
	Regular Wage/Salaried Employee	1.060	2.887**	1.421	4.141***
Landowning Agency	DUSIB <sup>®</sup>				
	Railway	-1.500	0.223***	-0.527	0.590
	DDA	-1.845	0.158***	0.469	1.598
	MCD	0.385	1.470	0.470	1.600
Statistics	N	398			
	Chi Square	87.519***			
	2 log likelihood	300.719			
	Pseudo R-Square				
	Cox and Snell	0.197			
	Nagelkerke	0.229			
	McFadden	0.111			

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). <sup>®</sup> Reference Category, \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, Note: STs are not included in present analysis because of low sample (N=2 only).

As discussed in bivariate analysis that landowning agency plays very important role for having different quality of basic civic amenities by households. The odds ratio for landowning agency supports this argument. In comparison to the households who are settled on the land of DUSIB, the likelihood of having good quality of basic civic amenities is more only for the households who are settled on the land of MCD. For the other households who are settled on the land of railway and DDA, it is less. However, in comparison to the households who are settled on the land of DUSIB, the likelihood of

having moderate basic amenities is more for the households who are settled on the land of DDA and MCD. It shows that the households who are settled on the land of Delhi governments' agencies have better basic civic amenities in comparison to the households who are settled on the land of central government agencies.

#### **4.11 AVERAGE COST OF OWNING/CONSTRUCTION OF JHUGGI-JHOPRI:**

It has been observed during field survey that most of the head of the households feel that owning/construction of a Jhuggi in JJ-Cluster is an achievement of their life. Most of them reported that they have invested a lot, with full of their capacity, to construct/own a Jhuggi. In this context, it becomes very relevant to know about the average cost of owning/construction of the Jhuggi in different JJ-Clusters. This information was collected only from those households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi (N=327). The data collected for the average cost of owning/construction of the Jhuggi reported by respondents, is classified by different type of Jhuggi (*katcha*, *semi-pucca* and *pucca*) and number of rooms in Jhuggi (one room, two rooms and three & more rooms).

According to the cost of owning/construction reported by respondents, the average cost of owning/construction of one room *katcha* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 7000 to 20000. The highest average cost of owning/construction of one room *katcha* Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 20000) and lowest is in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (Rs. 7000). The average cost of owning/construction of two room *katcha* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 15000 to 19000. The highest average cost of owning a two rooms *katcha* Jhuggi is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (Rs. 19000) and the lowest is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 15000) and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (Rs. 15000). The average cost of owning a three or more rooms *katcha* Jhuggi in present study is rupees 60000 which is reported in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur.

The average cost of owning/construction of one room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 24824 to 46000. The highest average cost of owning/construction of one room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (Rs. 46000) and the lowest is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 24824). The average cost of owning/construction of two room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 43000 to 68750. The highest average cost of owning/construction of two

rooms *semi-pucca* Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (Rs. 68750) and the lowest is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 43000). The average cost of owning/construction of three or more rooms Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 76667 to 80000. The highest average cost of owning/construction of three or more room Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (Rs. 80000) and the lowest is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (Rs. 76667).

**Table 4.18 Average Cost of Owning/Construction of a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters**

(in Rupees)

Districts	Clusters	Katcha			Semi-Pucca			Pucca		
		1 Room	2 Room	3 or More	1 Room	2 Room	3 or More	1 Room	2 Room	3 or More
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	7000			32286	48000		66000	98125	123000
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla				41857	60000	78000		113500	174000
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	14818	15000		24824	43000	86250			
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	17500	19000		46000	66250	76667	65714	99231	141000
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar		15000		28571	43750		60000	124286	185000
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	20000		60000	35833			114000	166471	263462
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar				28667	68750	80000	57000	133333	175000
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur				25000			73333	131875	213846

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). The cost of owning/construction of a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters were asked only to those households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi. The Samples are not available in the respective category shown by shades.*

The average cost of owning/construction of one room pucca Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 57000 to 114000. The highest average cost of owning/construction of one room pucca Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 114000) and the lowest is in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (Rs. 57000). The average cost of owning/construction of two room pucca Jhuggi in present study ranged from rupees 98125 to 166471. The highest average cost of owning/construction of two room pucca

Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 166471) and the lowest is in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (Rs. 98125). The average cost of owning/construction of the three or more room pucca Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 123000 to 263462. The highest average cost of owning/construction of three or more room pucca Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 263462) and the lowest is in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (Rs. 123000).

It can be concluded from the above analysis that cost of owning/construction of *pucca* Jhuggi is much more in compare to *semi-pucca* and *katcha Jhuggi* and with increasing the number of rooms in each type of Jhuggi, the cost of the owning/construction is also increasing.

#### **4.12 SOURCE OF FINANCE FOR THE OWNING/CONSTRUCTION OF JHUGGI-JHOPRI:**

In present study, most of the households are landless at place of origin. The post-migration employment status (first job in Delhi) of the head of the households shows that around 74 per cent head of the households worked as daily wage labourers or regular wages/salaried employees in different industries, when they first time migrated to Delhi (see Chapter-III). In this context, it can be assumed that bearing the cost of owning/construction of the Jhuggi-Jhopri had been an onerous task for most of the households. Therefore, it is very important to know the source of finance for the owning/construction of Jhuggi-Jhopri. This information is collected, only from those households, who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi (N=327). The respondents have given multiple responses for the source of finance for owning/construction of Jhuggi-Jhopri, which can be classified as follows:

- 1) Households Savings,
- 2) Borrowing from Friends/Relatives/Money Lenders
- 3) Loan from Bank
- 4) Financing Assistance from NGOs/Civil Society and,
- 5) Sale of Physical Assets at place of origin.

Multiple response analysis has been used to analyse the responses related to source of finance for the owning/construction of the Jhuggi-Jhopri.

**Table 4.19 Multiple Response Analysis for the Source of Financing of Owning/Construction of Jhuggi-Jhopri**

Districts	Clusters		Household Savings	Borrowing From Friends/Relatives /Money Lenders	Loan From Banks	Financial Assistance from NGOs/Civil Society	Sale of Physical Assets at Place of Origin	Total Response
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	% of Response	56.16	35.62	1.37	4.11	2.74	100
		N	41	26	1	3	2	73
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	% of Response	52.70	41.89	1.35	1.35	2.70	100
		N	39	31	1	1	2	74
	Total	% of Response	54.42	38.78	1.36	2.72	2.72	100
N	80	57	2	4	4	147		
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	% of Response	79.59	16.33	0.00	0.00	4.08	100
		N	39	8	0	0	2	49
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	% of Response	55.41	39.19	4.05	0.00	1.35	100
		N	41	29	3	0	1	74
	Total	% of Response	65.04	30.08	2.44	0.00	2.44	100
N	80	37	3	0	3	123		
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	% of Response	50.00	42.50	1.25	1.25	5.00	100
		N	40	34	1	1	4	80
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	% of Response	49.43	42.53	2.30	1.15	4.60	100
		N	43	37	2	1	4	87
	Total	% of Response	49.70	42.51	1.80	1.20	4.79	100
N	83	71	3	2	8	167		
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	% of Response	57.14	41.43	0.00	0.00	1.43	100
		N	40	29	0	0	1	70
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	% of Response	51.25	43.75	5.00	0.00	0.00	100
		N	41	35	4	0	0	80
	Total	% of Response	54.00	42.67	2.67	0.00	0.67	100
N	81	64	4	0	1	150		
Total	% of Response	55.20	39.01	2.04	1.02	2.73	100	
	N	324	229	12	6	16	587	

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). The present Multiple Response Analysis is only for the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggis.

The results are discussed according to the percentage share of response related to each source of finance into total responses. For the above mentioned source of finance, total 587 responses came from 327 households, among which, the highest percentage share of the response is for households' saving (55.20 per cent) followed by borrowing from friends/relatives/money lenders etc. (39.01 per cent). The responses related to these two sources of finance alone have 94 per cent share into total response which shows that households' savings and borrowing from friends/relatives/money lenders etc are two main source of finance from which most of the households build their Jhuggi.

The percentage share of the responses related to other source of finance such as loan from banks (2.04 per cent), financial assistance from NGOs/Civil Society (1.02 per cent) and sale of physical assets at place of origin (2.73 per cent) is very low. The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of the responses related source of finance shows the same pattern. In most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the responses related to households' saving and borrowing from friends/relatives/money lenders etc. is very high in compare to the responses related to other source of finance.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi, used mainly households' savings and borrowing from friends/relatives/money lenders etc. to construct/owned their Jhuggi.

#### **4.13 AVERAGE CURRENT PRICE OF JHUGGI-JHOPRI IN JJ-CLUSTER:**

The current price of the Jhuggi-Jhopri was asked to respondents during field survey. This information was collected only from those households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi (N=327). The data collected for the average current price of the Jhuggi reported by respondents, is classified by different type of Jhuggi (*katcha*, *semi-pucca* and *pucca*) and number of rooms in Jhuggi (one room, two rooms and three & more rooms).

The average current price of one room *katcha* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 20000 to 121818. The highest average current price of one room *katcha* Jhuggi is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 121818) and the lowest is in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (Rs. 20000). The average current price of two room *katcha* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 60000 to 2 lakhs. The highest average current price of two room *katcha* Jhuggi is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 2 lakhs) and the lowest is in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (Rs. 60000). The *katcha* Jhuggi

with three or more rooms are found only in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur. The average price of which is 1 lakh rupees.

The average current price of one room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 60000 to 178824. The highest average current price of one room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 178824) and the lowest is in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (Rs. 60000). The average current price of two room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 127500 to 221429. The highest average current price of two room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 221429) and lowest is in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (Rs. 127500). The average current price of three or more room *semi-pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 125000 to 275000. The highest average current price of three or more room *semi pucca* Jhuggi is in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 275000) and the lowest is in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (Rs. 125000).

**Table 4.20 Average Current Price of Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters (in Rupees)**

Districts	Clusters	Katcha			Semi-Pucca			Pucca		
		1 Room	2 Room	3 or More	1 Room	2 Room	3 or More	1 Room	2 Room	3 or More
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	20000			88571	154000		133333	195000	375000
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla				108571	150000	150000		210000	306000
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	121818	200000		178824	221429	275000			
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	120000	125000		140000	167500	205000	128571	210000	240000
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar		60000		92857	162500		150000	219762	300000
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	50000		100000	116667			165000	223529	353846
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar				86250	127500	125000	119000	200000	300000
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur				60000			116667	184167	300000

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). The cost of owning/construction of a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters were asked only to those households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi. The Samples are not available in the respective category shown by shades.

The average current price of one room *pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 116667 to 165000. The highest average current price of one room *pucca* Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 165000) and the lowest is in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (Rs. 116667). The average current price of two room *pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 184167 to 223529. The highest average current price of two room *pucca* Jhuggi is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 223529) and the lowest is in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (Rs. 184167). The average current price of three or more room *pucca* Jhuggi in present study is ranged from rupees 2.40 lakhs to 3.75 lakhs. The highest average current price of three or more room *pucca* Jhuggi is in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (Rs. 3.75 lakhs) and the lowest is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (Rs. 2.40 lakhs).

It can be concluded from above analysis that the average current price of the Jhuggi depends on the condition of Jhuggi and the location of Jhuggi. The highest average current price of the *katcha* and *semi-pucca* Jhuggi is in Dalit Ekta camp, Vasant Kunj. It is because of the location of this JJ-Cluster, which is Vasant Kunj- a very posh area in South-West Delhi. In this JJ-Cluster, all Jhuggis are either *katcha* or *semi-pucca*. The average current price of *pucca* Jhuggi is high in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad. One of the possible reasons could be the location of these JJ-Clusters. JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur is located near metro-station and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad is located near railway station.

#### **4.14 AVERAGE RENT FOR ONE ROOM (IN-SIDE AND OUT-SIDE JJ-CLUSTER):**

During field survey, the average rent for one room Jhuggi was asked, only from those households, who were living on rent in JJ-Clusters (N=73) and the average rent for one BHK in adjacent colonies surrounding the JJ-Clusters was asked to all households living in JJ-Clusters (N=400).

The average rent for one room Jhuggi in present study is Rs. 1817. The highest average rent for one room Jhuggi was reported in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (Rs. 2250) and Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 1960). Both of these JJ-Clusters are located near the most affluent colonies of Delhi, Meera Bagh Colony and Vasant Kunj respectively and it



is the main cause of high rent in these JJ-Clusters. In all other JJ-Clusters, the average rent reported by households living on rent is ranged from rupees 1600 to 1900.

**Table 4.21 Average Rent for One Room Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters and One Room BHK in nearest colony outside JJ-Clusters (in Rupees)**

Districts	Clusters	Average Rent for One Room Jhuggi*	Average Rent for One BHK Outside Cluster
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	1689	3576
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	1655	4490
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	1960	18720
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	1717	3474
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	1900	3770
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	1829	4134
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	2250	18820
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	1600	3500
<b>Total (Average Rent)</b>		<b>1817</b>	<b>7560</b>

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). \*Only 17 rented households reported that they have toilet facility inside premises and not a single rented household in present study have bathroom. Therefore, the average rent in different JJ-Clusters is only for the room (excluding the other facility because it is not available).*

The average rent for one BHK reported by respondents in present study is also found to be very high in these two colonies. The respondents of JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh reported that the average rent for one BHK is Rs. 18820 in Meera Bagh Colony which is highest in present study and the respondents of Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj reported that the average rent for one BHK is Rs. 18720 in Vasant Kunj which is the second highest in present study. In all other JJ-Clusters, the average rent for one BHK in adjacent colonies reported by respondents is ranged from rupees 3500 to 4500.

#### **4.15 FREQUENCY OF SHIFTING OF PLACE OF RESIDENCE BY SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS IN NCT OF DELHI:**

It was found during pilot survey that most of the households in JJ-Clusters shifted to many places in Delhi before coming to the present JJ-Clusters and the reasons for shifting were also different. In this context, questions related the frequency of shifting; type of

previous residence and the reasons of shifting were asked during field survey. The percentage distribution of the households by frequency of shifting of the place of residence in Delhi shows that in sample households, 56.25 per cent households reported that they never shifted to any other places and live at the present place of residence from beginning. However, 43.75 per cent households reported that they shifted their house in past, among which, 33.25 per cent reported that they shifted their place of residence only once after migration to Delhi, 7 per cent reported that they shifted their place of residence two to four times after migration to Delhi and only 3.50 per cent reported that they shifted their place of residence more than four times after migration to Delhi.

**Table 4.22 Percentage Distribution of the Households by Frequency of Shifting of Place of Residence after migration to Delhi**

Districts	Clusters	Whether HH Shifted anytime in the past?				
		Yes			Not Shifted	Total
		Only Once	Two-Four Times	More than Four Times		
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	32	8	2	58	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	24	10	2	64	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	28	9	2	61	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	28	6	8	58	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	36	6	0	58	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	32	6	4	58	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	46	2	2	50	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	50	8	0	42	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	48	5	1	46	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	22	12	6	60	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	28	4	8	60	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	25	8	7	60	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		33.25	7.00	3.50	56.25	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

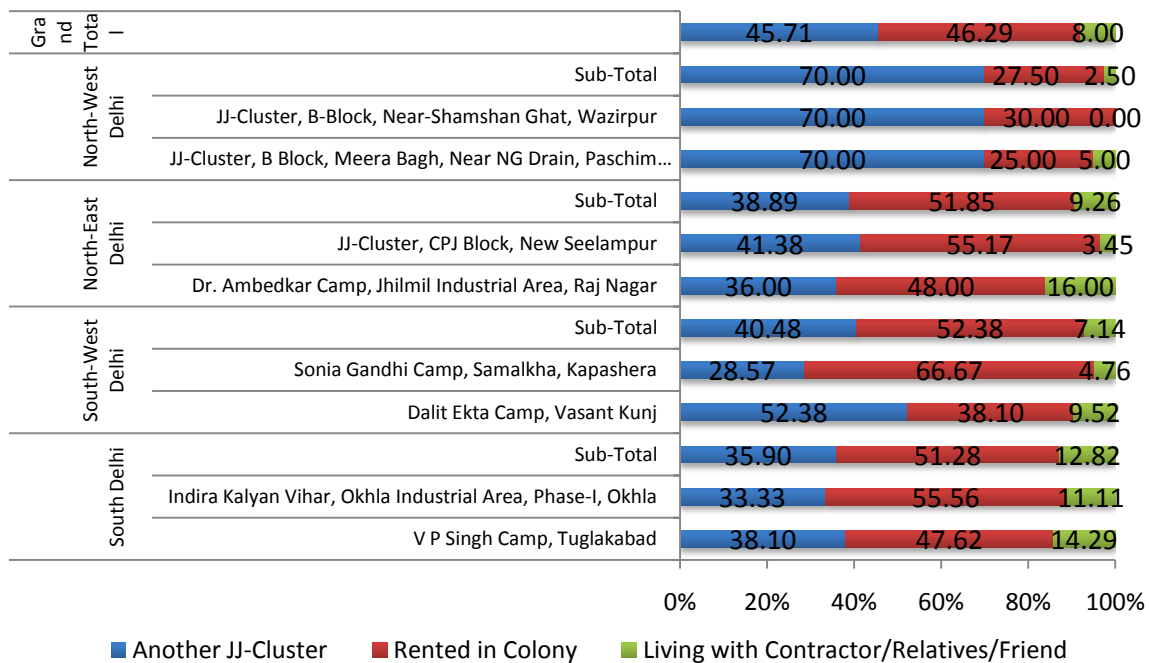
The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households by frequency of shifting of place of residence after migration to Delhi show the same pattern. In most of

the JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the households who have never shifted their place of residence any time in the past is highest. However, the district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households who have reported shifting of the place of residence any time in the past shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage of the households who have sifted only once is highest. The percentage of the households who have sifted two to four times and four times and more is not very significant. The highest percentage of the households shifted any time in the past is in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (58 per cent) followed by Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (50 per cent).

#### 4.15.1 Type of Previous Residence (Only for those households who have shifted any time in the past):

Total 175 households reported that they shifted their place of residence any time in the past. The information related to the type of previous residence was collected from these households. The percentage distribution of these households by type of previous residence show that in total 175 households, 46.29 per cent lived in different colonies on rent, 45.71 per cent lived in another JJ-Clusters and only 8 per cent households lived with contractor/relatives/friends etc.

**Figure 4.21 Percentage distributions of the households by Type of Previous Residence**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The districts and JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the households by type of previous residence shows that the percentage of the households who were living in colonies on rent is high in most of the JJ-Clusters except the JJ-Clusters of North-West Delhi, in which, 70 per cent households reported that they lived in another JJ-Clusters. In most of the JJ-Clusters, the least percentage share is for the households who were living with contractor/relatives/friends etc.

Overall it can be concluded that most of the households who had shifted their place of residence any time in the past lived either in colonies on rent or in another JJ-Clusters before coming to the present JJ-Cluster.

#### **4.15.2 Reasons of shifting the place of residence any time in the past by Households:**

The reasons of shifting the place of residence any time in past was also collected during field survey from the households who had shifted any time in the past. The respondents have given multiple responses related to the reason of shifting which can be classified as follows:

- 1) Increasing rent at previous place of residence,
- 2) Pressure from Landlord to vacate the house,
- 3) Change in the place of work of the head of the households, and
- 4) Social Networks available at present place.

The multiple response analysis has been used to analyse the responses related to the above reasons of shifting of place of residence by households. Total 206 responses have come from 175 households who had shifted their place of residence in the past. According to the multiple response analysis, the most important reason of shifting the place of residence by households is change in the place of work of the head of the households, because in total 206 responses, 44.66 per cent are only for this reason. The second important reason for shifting the place of residence by households is social networks available at present place of residence, because in total responses, 29.13 per cent are for this particular reason. The third important reason of shifting the place of residence by households is increasing rents at previous place of residence, because in total 209 responses, 21.84 per cent are for this particular reason. However, only 4.37 per cent responses are related to the pressure from the landlord to vacate the house, which show that it is least important reason for shifting the place of residence by households.

**Table 4.23 Multiple Response Analysis for the Reasons of Shifting of Place of Residence**

Districts	Cluster		Increasing Rent in Previous Residence	Pressure from Landlord to Vacate House	Change in the Place of Work	Social Networks Available at current Place	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	% of Response	25.00	3.57	42.86	28.57	100
		N	7	1	12	8	28
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	% of Response	15.79	5.26	52.63	26.32	100
		N	3	1	10	5	19
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	% of Response	21.28	4.26	46.81	27.66	100
N		10	2	22	13	47	
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	% of Response	27.27	12.12	39.39	21.21	100
		N	9	4	13	7	33
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	% of Response	34.78	4.35	43.48	17.39	100
		N	8	1	10	4	23
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	% of Response	30.36	8.93	41.07	19.64	100
N		17	5	23	11	56	
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	% of Response	24.14	3.45	44.83	27.59	100
		N	7	1	13	8	29
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	% of Response	16.67	3.33	33.33	46.67	100
		N	5	1	10	14	30
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	% of Response	20.34	3.39	38.98	37.29	100
N		12	2	23	22	59	
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	% of Response	0.00	0.00	69.57	30.43	100
		N	0	0	16	7	23
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	% of Response	28.57	0.00	38.10	33.33	100
		N	6	0	8	7	21
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	% of Response	13.64	0.00	54.55	31.82	100
N		6	0	24	14	44	
<b>Total (N=175)</b>	% of Response	21.84	4.37	44.66	29.13	100	
	N	45	9	92	60	206	

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of responses shows that change in the place of work of the head of the households and social networks available at present place of residence are the two most prominent reasons for the shifting of households any time in the past in South Delhi, North-East Delhi and North-West Delhi. It is because, the percentage share of the responses for these two reasons are very high in these three districts, as compared to other reasons. However, in South Delhi, change in the place of work of the head of the households and increasing the rents at previous place of residence are two most important reason for shifting the households any time in the past, because the percentage share Responses are high for these two reasons in South Delhi.

#### **4.16 KNOWLEDGE & AWARENESS ABOUT ANY HOUSING PROGRAMME RUN BY CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OR DELHI GOVERNMENT TO THE HOUSEHOLDS LIVING IN JJ-CLUSTERS:**

Many housing programmes related to subsidized housing for slum dwellers, in-situ development or resettlements of the slums are launched during last one and half decade by central government such as *Valmiki Ambedkar Awaas Yojana (VAMBAY)*, *Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP)* under *Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM)*, *Rajiv Awas Yojana* etc. The state government is part of these programmes. The knowledge and awareness about the housing programmes for slum dwellers can be helpful for the households living in JJ-Clusters to be organise and request the local bodies and other officers for the implementation of the housing programme in their JJ-Clusters.

In this context, the knowledge and awareness of the households about any housing schemes was checked during field survey. In sample households, 84.75 per cent reported that they don't have knowledge about any housing programme run by government. Only 15.25 per cent households in present study reported that they have knowledge about the housing programmes related to slum dwellers. The respondents from these households reported that they read/heard about Rajiv Awas Yojana from newspaper but they don't know, to whom they should approach, for availing the benefit of the programme.

**Table 4.24 Percentage distribution of the Households by Knowledge of any Housing Programme**

Districts	Clusters	Knowledge of any Housing Scheme		Total
		Yes	No	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	8	92	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	4	96	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	6	94	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	20	80	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	4	96	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	12	88	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	26	74	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	14	86	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	20	80	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	24	76	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	22	78	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	23	77	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		15.25	84.75	100

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).*

Most of these respondents believe that it is impossible to get the benefit of these programmes without political linkages. The percentage of the households having knowledge of any housing programme for slum dwellers is highest in Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (26 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (24 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (22 per cent). In all other JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the households don't have knowledge about any housing programme run by government is very high. The percentage share of the households who have knowledge and awareness about any housing programme run by government is high in North-West Delhi and North-East Delhi as compared to South Delhi and South-West Delhi.

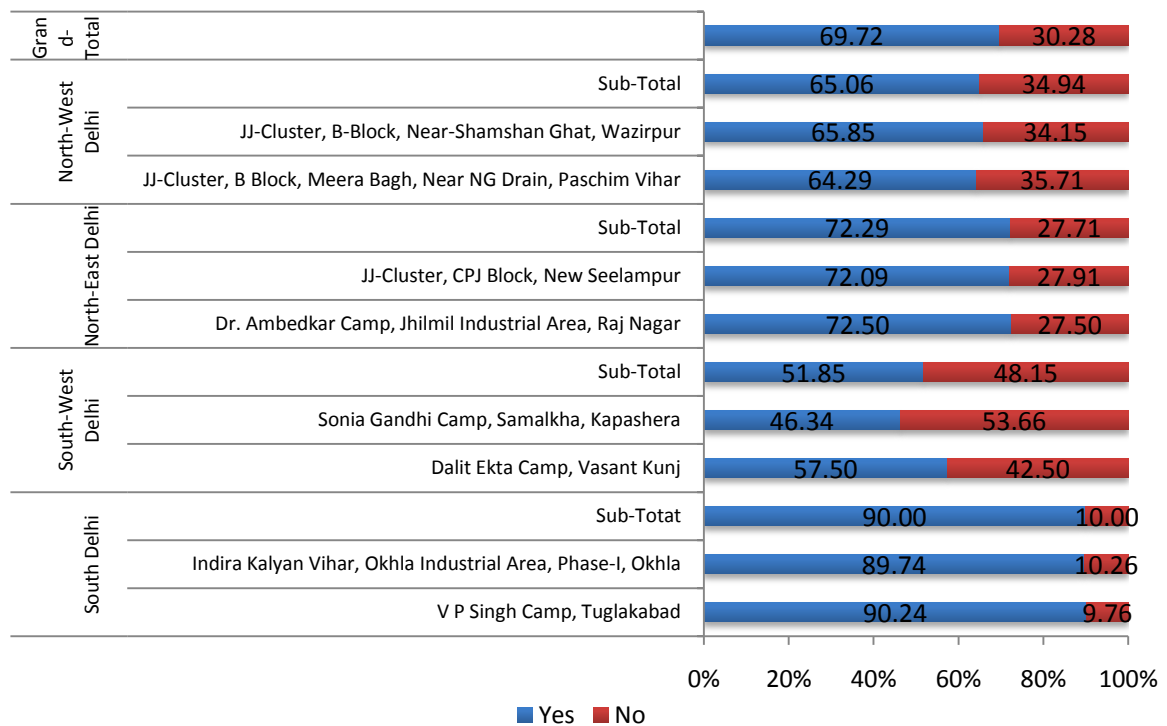
It can be concluded from the above analysis that a large percentage of the households living in different JJ-Clusters are not aware about the housing programme run by government. It shows the failure of the government and urban local bodies which never try to approach the households living in JJ-Clusters for the in-situ development. The knowledge about the housing programme can improve the collective bargaining

power of the households living in JJ-Clusters and at election time they can negotiate with the local leaders about in-situ development of slums.

#### 4.17 WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE IN IN-SITU DEVELOPMENT/RESETTLEMENT PROCESS:

The most recent approach for improving the quality of life in slums is ‘In-Situ Development/Resettlement’ of the slums. The recent schemes related to housing and tenure security in India such as *Rajiv Awas Yojana* and *Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana-Housing for All- Mission 2022* have provision of in-situ development/resettlement of the slums. In this context, it is very important to know the willingness of households living in different JJ-Cluster to participate in in-situ development/resettlement process. This information was collected only from those households who claim that they own their Jhuggi. Rented households are not included in this information because programmes related to in-situ development/resettlement don’t include rented households in slums.

**Figure 4.22 Percentage of households’ response related to willingness to participate in In-situ Development/Resettlement Programme**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).



In total 327 households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi, 69.72 per cent wanted to participate in the 'in-situ development/resettlement programme' related to JJ-Cluster while, 30.28 per cent didn't want to participate. The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of responses related to willingness of households to participate in in-situ development/resettlement programme is highest in the JJ-Cluster of South-Delhi and North-East Delhi. Total 90.24 per cent households in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad and 89.74 per cent households in Indira Kalyan Vihar Okhla reported that they want to participate in in-situ development/resettlement programme. *The V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad has already been selected for in-situ development and only environmental clearance is remained.* Around 72 per cent households in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area of North-East Delhi reported that they want to participate in in-situ development/resettlement programme.

The percentage of households who want to participate in in-situ development/resettlement programme is also high in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur of North-West Delhi which is around 65 per cent in both clusters. The percentage of households who don't want to participate in in-situ development/resettlement programme is highest in JJ-Clusters of South-West Delhi. Total 53.66 per cent households in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha and 42.50 per cent households in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj reported that they don't want to participate in in-situ development/resettlement programme.

Overall, it can be concluded that except the households living in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi, the percentage share of the households who are willing to participate in in-situ development/resettlement of JJ-Cluster is high in most of the sample JJ-Clusters.

#### **4.17.2 Reasons for not participating in In-Situ Development/Resettlement Programme [Asked only to those households who don't want to participate in In-Situ Development/resettlement Programme]**

The respondents from the households who didn't want to participate in In-Situ Development/resettlement Programme reported following reasons for not participating in the programme: 1) It would affect the present work/employment; 2) It would affect the education of children and 3) any other reasons. It was observed during field survey that

most of the respondents don't have trust on government/government officials and the reasons given above are, attribute of their fear.

**Table 4.25 Multiple Response Analysis for Reasons for not participating in In-Situ Development/resettlement Programme**

Districts	Clusters		Moving Would Affect Present Employment	Moving Would Affect Education of Children	Other Reasons	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	% of Response	57.14	42.86	0.00	100
		N	4	3	0	7
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	% of Response	50.00	50.00	0.00	100
		N	3	3	0	6
	Total	% of Response	53.85	46.15	0.00	100
N	7	6	0	13		
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	% of Response	56.67	40.00	3.33	100
		N	17	12	1	30
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	% of Response	52.50	37.50	10.00	100
		N	21	15	4	40
	Total	% of Response	54.29	38.57	7.14	100
N	38	27	5	70		
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	% of Response	73.33	26.67	0.00	100
		N	11	4	0	15
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	% of Response	54.55	22.73	22.73	100
		N	12	5	5	22
	Total	% of Response	62.16	24.32	13.51	100
N	23	9	5	37		
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	% of Response	50.00	20.00	30.00	100
		N	15	6	9	30
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	% of Response	41.67	25.00	33.33	100
		N	10	6	8	24
	Total	% of Response	46.30	22.22	31.48	100
N	25	12	17	54		
<b>Total (N=99)</b>		% of Response	53.45	31.03	15.52	100
		N	93	54	27	174

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

Among 327 households who own their Jhuggi, only 99 households reported that they don't want to participate in the in-situ development/resettlement programme. Total 174 responses were collected from these 99 households for the reasons of not participating in in-situ development/resettlement programme. The percentage share of the

response related to reasons for not participating in in-situ development/resettlement programme shows that the highest percentage share of response is related to the reason that it (participating in programme) would affect the present work/employment which is 53.45 per cent. The second highest percentage share of the response is related to the reason that it (participating in programme) would affect the education of the children. Only 15.52 per cent responses are related to other reasons such as fear of exclusion in the list of beneficiaries, fear of demolition of Jhuggi without getting a new one etc.

The district and cluster wise percentage share of the response related to reasons for not participating in in-situ development/resettlement programme for JJ-Clusters shows the same pattern. The most prominent reason for not participating in in-situ development/resettlement programme is perception that it would affect the current employment/work. The percentage of responses related to this particular reason is highest in all JJ-Clusters. The second most important reason for not participating in in-situ development/resettlement programme is perception that it would affect the education of children. In most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage of response related to this reason is second highest in total responses.

Only in few JJ-Clusters such as JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, respondents have given other reasons (fear of exclusion in the list of beneficiaries, fear of demolition of Jhuggi without getting a new one etc.) for not participating in in-situ development/resettlement programme as percentage of the response related to other reasons is high in these two clusters.

It can be concluded from above analysis that the main reasons for not participating in the in-situ development/resettlement programme are perceptions that it would affect the current employment/work and it would affect the education of children.

#### **4.18 FEAR OF EVICTION REPORTED BY HOUSEHOLDS IN JJ-CLUSTERS:**

The slum dwellers of Delhi have witnessed unprecedented demolitions of slums and evictions of slum dwellers in last decade. The agenda of making Delhi as world class city and the slogan of “Clean Delhi-Green Delhi” also involves cleaning the city from its slums and slum dwellers and the commonwealth games in 2010 especially provided the opportunity to urban authorities for cleaning up the city from its slums. Hundreds of slums were demolished and thousands of families were evicted during last decades in the

name of beautification of the city (Dupont, 2008). In this context, it is very important to know the fear of eviction among households in present study. This information is collected only from those households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi.

**Table 4.26 Percentage distribution of the Households by Fear of Eviction**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Fear of Eviction		Total
		Yes	No	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	90.24 (37)	9.76 (4)	100 (41)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	89.74 (35)	10.26 (4)	100 (39)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	90.00 (72)	10.00 (8)	100 (80)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	97.50 (39)	2.50 (1)	100 (40)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	92.68 (38)	7.32 (3)	100 (41)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	95.06 (77)	4.94 (4)	100 (81)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	92.50 (37)	7.50 (3)	100 (40)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	76.74 (33)	23.26 (10)	100 (43)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	84.34 (70)	15.66 (13)	100 (83)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	100.00 (42)	0.00 (0)	100 (42)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	100.00 (41)	0.00 (0)	100 (41)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	100.00 (83)	0.00 (0)	100 (83)
<b>Grand Total (N=327)</b>		92.35 (302)	7.65 (25)	100 (327)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The percentage share of the households by fear of eviction shows that, in total 327 households who owned their Jhuggi, 92.35 per cent reported fear of eviction and only 7.65 per cent households reported that they don't have fear of eviction. The respondents from households having fear of eviction narrated their fear that *“every time we get the news of demolition of Jhuggi and eviction of households from JJ-Cluster, our heart pound very fast and we could not sleep properly for few nights. The rumours of eviction give us nightmare about our future. We also get notice for eviction/demolition of our Jhuggi every year and some time two to three times in a year and it frightens us.”*

All households in JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur reported that they have fear of eviction. In other JJ-Clusters, 90 per cent and more households reported fear of eviction except the households in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur where only 76.74 per cent households reported that they have fear of eviction, rest 23.26 per cent reported that they don't have fear of eviction.

#### **4.18.1 Reasons to Stay in JJ-Clusters even if the households have fear of eviction:**

Among 327 households who owned a Jhuggi in present study, 302 households reported that they have fear of eviction which is 92.35 per cent of the total. It shows that a large section of households in present study have fear of eviction. Therefore, it is very important to know the reasons to stay in JJ-Cluster even if households have fear of eviction. The respondents have given multiple reasons to stay in JJ-Cluster which can be classified as follows:

- 1) Lack of Money to shift to another place,
- 2) Opportunities and work available at nearby places,
- 3) Children going to schools, and
- 4) Don't have other options.

A Multiple response analysis has been done to analyse the responses given by respondents. Total 523 responses were collected from 302 respondents. The highest percentage of responses is for reason related to "opportunities and work available at nearby place" which is 49.40 per cent of the total. The second highest percentage of responses is for the reason related to "children going to school" which is 26.77 per cent of the total. In total, 16.44 per cent responses are for the "lack of money to shift to another place" and only 6.88 per cent responses are for "don't have other options".

It shows that most of the households stay in the JJ-Clusters even if they have fear of eviction because of the opportunities and work are available at nearby places, the children of the households are going to school and they don't have money to shift to another place.

**Table 4.27 Multiple Response Analysis for Reasons to Stay in JJ-Cluster, even if households have fear of eviction**

Districts	Clusters		Lack of Money to shift to another Place	Opportunities & Work available at nearby Areas	Children Going to School	Don't have another option	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	% of Response	26.67	36.67	26.67	10.00	100
		N	16	22	16	6	60
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	% of Response	12.07	46.55	34.48	6.90	100
		N	7	27	20	4	58
	Sub-Total	% of Response	19.49	41.53	30.51	8.47	100
		N	23	49	36	10	118
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	% of Response	13.85	56.92	24.62	4.62	100
		N	9	37	16	3	65
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	% of Response	12.16	47.30	36.49	4.05	100
		N	9	35	27	3	74
	Sub-Total	% of Response	12.95	51.80	30.94	4.32	100
		N	18	72	43	6	139
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	% of Response	10.00	51.43	28.57	10.00	100
		N	7	36	20	7	70
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	% of Response	26.79	44.64	17.86	10.71	100
		N	15	25	10	6	56
	Sub-Total	% of Response	17.46	48.41	23.81	10.32	100
		N	22	61	30	13	126
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	% of Response	16.67	58.33	20.83	4.17	100
		N	12	42	15	3	72
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	% of Response	16.18	54.41	23.53	5.88	100
		N	11	37	16	4	68
	Sub-Total	% of Response	16.43	56.43	22.14	5.00	100
		N	23	79	31	7	140
<b>Total (N=302)</b>		% of Response	16.44	49.90	26.77	6.88	100
		N	86	261	140	36	523

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of the responses related to the reasons to stay in JJ-Clusters, even if there is fear of eviction, also shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters opportunities and work available at nearby places is the most prominent reason to stay in JJ-Cluster because the percentage of responses related to this reason is

highest in all JJ-Cluster. The second and third important reason to stay in the JJ-Clusters is children going to school and lack of money to shift to other places as percentage share of the responses related to these reasons are also high in most of the JJ-Clusters.

#### **4.19 DOCUMENTS RELATED TO HOUSING AND TENURE SECURITY POSSESSED BY HOUSEHOLDS:**

It has been found during field survey that not a single household in present study possesses the property paper, lease-agreement paper or any other property documents from which they can claim the ownership of the land on which they are settled. Many of them have other documents to produce such as ration cards, Aadhar cards, Voter-IDs, Electricity Bills, Driving License, Bank Passbooks, LPG Connection Cards with the address of current Jhuggi. In the recent housing programmes launched by Government of India such as *Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (Housing for All- Mission 2022)* and *Rajiv Awas Yojana which has subsumed in this programme*, possession of certain above documents till a particular cut-off date is necessary to claim the benefit at the time of in-situ development or resettlement of the JJ-Cluster. Therefore, the possession of certain documents provides hope to most of the households that they will get benefit whenever the in-situ development or resettlement of JJ-Cluster will happen. In this context, the present section provides the information about the possession of various documents by households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi and the rented households. The detail of which is as follows:

**1) Ration Cards:** Ration Card is one of the documents, which is used as a residential proof in India. Among the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggie, 74.31 per cent have ration cards with address of Jhuggi. However, in case of rented households, only 27.40 per cent households reported that they have ration card with current address. In comparison to the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of ration card holders is very low in rented households. The low percentage share of the ration card holders in rented households is because of the landlords of the Jhuggi don't provide the permission to use the address of the Jhuggi to make a ration card. The JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the ration card holders shows that in comparison to the JJ-Clusters of North-West and North-East Delhi, the ration card holders in the households who owned their Jhuggi is low in South and South West Delhi.

**Table 4.28 Percentage of the Households with different type of Documents and Ownership status of Jhuggi in each JJ-Cluster**

District	JJ-Cluster	Ration Card	Aadhar Card	Voter-ID	Electricity Bill with Current Address of Jhuggi	Driving License with Address of Current Jhuggi	Bank Passbook with address of current Jhuggi	LPG Connection Card with address of Current Jhuggi	Total
<b>The Households who claimed that they Owned their Jhuggi</b>									
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	68.29	95.12	97.56	97.56	21.95	90.24	58.54	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	64.10	97.44	100.00	92.31	17.95	92.31	69.23	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	65.00	100.00	95.00	100.00	32.50	100.00	57.50	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	51.22	100.00	97.56	100.00	2.44	92.68	68.29	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	77.50	100.00	100.00	100.00	22.50	97.50	77.50	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	83.72	97.67	95.35	100.00	27.91	93.02	72.09	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	85.71	97.62	97.62	100.00	16.67	97.62	69.05	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	97.56	100.00	100.00	100.00	29.27	95.12	78.05	100
<b>Grand-Total</b>		74.31	98.47	97.86	98.78	21.41	94.80	68.81	100
<b>Rented Households</b>									
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	33.33	66.67	77.78	0.00	22.22	0.00	0.00	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	81.82	90.91	90.91	0.00	36.36	54.55	0.00	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	20.00	40.00	40.00	0.00	10.00	50.00	0.00	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	11.11	66.67	22.22	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0.00	50.00	60.00	0.00	0.00	10.00	0.00	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	28.57	85.71	42.86	0.00	14.29	14.29	28.57	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	12.50	100.00	75.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	22.22	66.67	66.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100
<b>Grand-Total</b>		27.40	69.86	60.27	0.00	10.96	17.81	2.74	100



**2) Aadhar Card with current Address:** Aadhar card is the document which becomes necessary to avail the benefit of different programmes run by government because the subsidies in different schemes, scholarships provided to students; old age pension etc. is now directly transferred to the bank account of the beneficiaries linked with Aadhar Card. In present study, 98.47 per cent head of the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi have Aadhar Card. However, only 69.86 per cent head of the households of the rented households have Aadhar Card with current address.

In Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasnat Kunj, Sonai Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur all the head of the households who owned their Jhuggi have Aadhar Card. In other JJ-Clusters also, more than 95 per cent head of the households who owned their Jhuggi reported that they have Aadhar Card with current address. However, in comparison to the head of the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of the head of the households with Aadhar Card holder in rented households is very low in most of the JJ-Clusters. It is again because of the landlords don't allow the tenants to use the address of the Jhuggi because they have fear that in future tenants can claim the ownership of Jhuggi, in case they will have the address proof of the Jhuggi.

**3) Voter-ID:** The percentage distribution of the households by possession of Voter-Id by head of the households and ownership status shows that in comparison to the head of the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of the Voter-ID holders is less in the head of the households of the rented households. The address proof is necessary to have a Voter-ID, but due to the fact that most of the head of the households who live on rent don't have document for address proof, the percentage share of Voter-ID holders is less among them.

**4) Electricity Bill with address of the Jhuggi:** It was found during field survey that electricity bill always come with the name and address of the head of the households who owned their Jhuggi. In case of rented households, they pay the bill to the landlords and it doesn't come with the name and address of the head of the households of rented households. It is reflected in the percentage distribution of the households by electricity bill and ownership status. Not a single rented household in sample JJ-Clusters reported

that electricity bill come on the name of the head of the households of rented household with the current address of Jhuggi.

**5) Driving License with address of Jhuggi:** In comparison to the head of the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of the driving license holders is less in the head of the households of the rented households. In 327 households who owned their Jhuggi, 21.41 per cent head of the households reported that they have driving license with address of the Jhuggi. However, in 73 rented households, only 10.96 per cent head of the households reported that they have driving license with address of the Jhuggi.

**6) Bank Account on current Address:** In 327 households who owned their Jhuggi, 94.80 per cent reported that they have bank account with current address. However, in 73 rented households, only 17.81 per cent reported that they have bank account with current address. The bank account holders among the households who owned their Jhuggi is very high in most of the JJ-Clusters as more than 90 per cent households in this category are found with bank account in different JJ-Clusters.

The main reason for the high percentage of the households having bank account in this category is a scheme launched by central government to open bank account with zero balance known as “*Jan Dhan Yojana*”. Most of the households reported that they open their bank account in this scheme. The main reason for the low percentage of the rented households having bank account is that they are unable to provide the address proof necessary for opening a bank account.

**7) LPG Connection Card with address of Jhuggi:** The percentage distribution of the LPG Connection Card holders also shows that in comparison to rented households the percentage share of the LPG connection card holders is very high in the households who owned their Jhuggi. The high percentage share of the LPG connection holders in this category is because of the *Kerosene Free Delhi* scheme launched by Sheela Dixit government in 2013 in which one LPG Gas cylinder with stove and regulator was provided to the beneficiaries of BPL or Antyodaya Anna Yojana. However, most of the rented households could not avail the benefit of the scheme because at that time very small percentage of rented households had ration card.

It can be concluded from the above analysis of the possession of different documents by ownership status of the Jhuggi that in comparison to the households who

owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of possession of different type of document is low among rented households. The main reason which is reported during field survey by the rented households for not having different type of documents is that the landlord of the Jhuggi never allow to use the address of the Jhuggi because of the fear that in future they can claim the ownership of the Jhuggi, if they will have the document with the address of current Jhuggi.

**Kathputli Colony-A first In-situ development Rehabilitation Project in Delhi**

*“Kathputli Colony is the first in-situ rehabilitation project in Delhi. It is located in Shadipur region of West Delhi. This JJ-Cluster is home of vibrant community of puppeteers and performers mainly migrated from Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra. In 2007, DDA started to plan the in-situ slum rehabilitation of Kathputli colony and in 2009 a private firm “Raheja Developers” was awarded the development contract of Kathputli Colony. There is three step process of in-situ development of Kathputli Colony. In the first stage, eligible residents of Kathputli colony will move from current settlement to a transit camp, in second stage, the Raheja developers will construct flats for the residents of Kathputli colony and other flats for sale and finally the residents will move back from transit camp to settlement will have the possession of flats built by Raheja Developers. This project is at first stage in which identification of the eligible households is done and the transit camp is ready at Aanand Parbat”.*

**Yamuna Pushta and Bawana Resettlement Colony**

**(An example of Eviction/Demolition and resettlement of Slums in Delhi)**

*“Yamuna Pushta was a JJ-Cluster settled on the western bank of Yamuna River, consisting around 25000 families. In 2004, from the order of Delhi high court, the Jhuggi in Yamuna Pushta area were demolished and the households were forcefully evicted from their Jhuggi. During entire demolition process, there were blatant violation of human rights by police and other authorities. The households evicted from Yamuna Pushta were resettled to the Bawana resettlement colony which was set up in 2004 for these JJ-dwellers. Many evicted households didn't get benefit of resettlement because of lack of possession of certain documents such as a ration card, V P Singh Token etc. At initial stage, families waited several days with their belongings on road because their plots were not demarcated in Bawana. Most of these families lost their livelihoods and forced to live in Bawana without proper sanitation and water supply. In the whole process, the children suffered more because their education was badly hampered due to eviction and resettlement process. They suffered psychological damage also because of the fear and uncertainty in family about their future.”*

#### **4.20 SUMMARY:**

The present chapter is an effort to show the current housing and tenure status of the households living in different sample JJ-Clusters. The estimates of the urban housing shortage by technical groups of 11<sup>th</sup> five year plan and 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan show an acute shortage of housing in urban areas and this shortage is more for the economically weaker section. The migrants living in urban areas constitute a major portion in this economically weaker section of the urban society and therefore the housing crisis is more for the poor migrants living in urban areas. In case of Delhi, the urban housing shortage reported by technical group of 11<sup>th</sup> five year plan is 1.13 million households in 2007 which declined to 0.49 million in 2012. The review of the urban housing policies and programmes shows that in response to the rising urban housing shortage in India, many housing programmes has been launched by government of India in last one and half decade, but the progress in these programmes is very slow.

The discussion of the different type of settlements in Delhi with their tenure status shows that only 23.7 per cent population in Delhi live in “planned colonies”, however, nearly 76 per cent population live in the settlements that are “unplanned” among which majority of the population live in JJ-Clusters which are informal and illegal settlement on the land of central and state government agencies. The tenure status of the different types of settlement has complexities which is one of the main reasons for the slow progress of in-situ development/resettlement/regularization of different type of settlement in Delhi.

The secondary data analysis of the housing condition and basic amenities available for slum population of Delhi and its comparison with average of India from the Census of India, 2011 shows with few exceptions, the condition of slum population in Delhi is much better as compared to India. The results and findings from field survey test the condition of housing and basic civic amenities of slum population of Delhi provided by Census of India and give more insights and in-depth analysis of the ground realities of the housing and tenure status of the households living in JJ-Clusters.

The ownership status which is most of the time acclaimed by sample households in present study without providing any lease document/property papers etc. shows that in sample households, total 81.75 per cent reported that they owned their Jhuggi and rest

18.25 per cent reported that they live on rent. The percentage figure of rented households from field survey is slightly higher from the rented households reported by Census of India, 2011 for slum population. In most of the JJ-Cluster, the percentage of the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi have highest percentage share as compared to rented households. There is a significant difference among social groups for the ownership status of the Jhuggi. The percentage share of the rented households is highest among SCs and OBCs households as compared to others. It may be due to the fact the owning a Jhuggi in JJ-Cluster can be a difficult task for the SCs and OBCs because a high percentage of them are landless at place of origin and work as casual labourer.

Although majority of the households in present study live in *pucca* Jhuggi but the condition of these Jhuggi is not livable. Most of these Jhuggi are either one storey or two storeys. In some JJ-Clusters, the three storeys Jhuggi are also found during field survey but their percentage is insignificant in total. It is known fact that Delhi comes under seismic-zone-4 and in this context, these two to three storeys Jhuggi in sample JJ-Cluster which violate all norms of housing can be a major cause of devastation in a high intensity earthquake.

In different types of Jhuggi such as *pucca*, *semi-pucca* and *katcha* the predominant material used for wall, floors and roof is discussed in the chapter. It is found during field survey that predominant material used for the floors of the Jhuggi is cement, predominant material used for wall of the Jhuggi is cement followed by burnt brick and mud/unburnt brick and the predominant material used for roof of the Jhuggi is stone/lime stone/burnt brick followed by Iron/tin/Asbestos sheets or both. Only in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, there are some households living in *katcha* Jhuggi used bamboo/wood/polythene/canvas for roof. It was observed during field survey that the Jhuggi which are two storeys or three storeys, the roof of the first floor is made of stone/lime stone/burnt brick and roof of the top floor is made of Iron/tin/Asbestos sheets. Most of the households (around 83 per cent) in present study live only in one or two rooms without kitchen and bathroom facility.

The census of India, 2011 provide a better picture for the basic civic amenities availed by slum households in Delhi. However, the results from the field survey show

that the condition of the basic civic amenities (accessibility and availability of water and toilet facility) is very poor in sample JJ-Clusters. Only 19.50 per cent sample households in present study reported that they have water facility inside their premises rest are dependent on the alternative sources such as public water tap, tanker by Jal board and public bore well. The condition of toilet facility is also worse in sample JJ-Cluster. Only 21.50 per cent sample households reported that they have toilet facility inside their premises, rest 78.50 per cent use alternative means for toilets such as public toilet/sulabh international, open defecation and both. A significant percentage of households from V P Singh Camp, Dalit Ekta Camp and Indira Kalyan Vihar reported open defecation. The poor and filthy condition of the public toilet is also one of the important reasons of high percentage of open defecation in these JJ-Clusters.

Two separate indices have been constructed to show the quality of housing and quality of basic amenities in JJ-Clusters and households are classified into three categories low, medium and high for housing and low, moderate and good for basic amenities. The descriptive analysis of these indices with social groups, ownership of Jhuggi, employment status of head of the households, duration of migration and land owning agency shows that these are the factors which determine the differences in quality of housing and basic amenities possessed/availed by households in the JJ-Clusters. Two separate multinomial regressions has been done to examine the associational factors responsible for the differences in the quality of housing and quality of basic amenities in JJ-Clusters and odds ratios from these multinomial regressions validate the results of the descriptive analysis and shows that social groups, status of ownership of Jhuggi, current employment status of head of the households and landowning agency on which land JJ-Clusters are settled are some important determinants which affect the quality of housing in JJ-Clusters. However, in case of quality of basic civic amenities, social groups, duration of migration or stay in JJ-Clusters, current employment status of head of the households and the land owning agency on which JJ-Cluster is settled are the main factors which influence the quality of basic civic amenities possessed/availed by households in JJ-Clusters.

The costs of owning/construction of a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters show a high investment made by the households to own/construct a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters which makes

them more vulnerable because in case of eviction or demolition they suffer from a huge economic loss. The source of financing of owning/construction of Jhuggi reported by sample households shows that they invested their households' savings to build/own their Jhuggi and many times they borrowed from friends/relatives/money lenders etc and therefore, the consistent threat of eviction/demolition make their lives more miserable. The analysis of the current price of the Jhuggi shows that an increment has been found in current price of Jhuggi from the cost of construction/owning and it mainly depends on the location and condition of Jhuggi.

The shifting of the households from one place to other is very common for migrant households due to various reasons such as change in the place of work, increasing rents, availability of social networks etc. In present study also around 33 per cent households reported that they have shifted one time after migration to Delhi and around 10.50 per cent reported that they have shifted more than two time. However, around 56 per cent households reported that they never shifted to any other place and living in the same JJ-Clusters after migration to Delhi. The households who have shifted reported change in the place of work of the head of the households, social networks available at present place of residence and increasing rents at previous place of residence as main reasons of migration.

The knowledge and awareness about any housing policies and programme is very important to avail the benefit of the programme. In present study, around 84.75 per cent households don't have knowledge about any housing programme. When researcher introduced about in-situ development/resettlement programme to sample households and asked their willingness to participate, around 70 per cent households were ready to participate in the programme however rest 30 per cent households were not ready to participate because of the fear that this programme can affect the present employment and education of their children. They also have fear of exclusion in the list of beneficiaries in the process of in-situ development.

The discussion about the fear of eviction in present chapter shows that around 93 per cent households in present study have fear of eviction. They reported that the main reason of their stay in JJ-Cluster is opportunities and work available at nearby places, children going to school and lack of money to shift another place.

Possession of certain documents such as ration card, Aadhar Card, Voter-ID, Electricity Bill with current address, Bank passbook with current address etc. increases the possibility of having a proper house at the time of in-situ development/resettlement of JJ-Clusters. The analysis of the possession of these documents by ownership status shows that in comparison to the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of having the above document is very low in rented households. It is due to the fact that landlords in JJ-Clusters don't allow using the address of the Jhuggi to make any documents, because they have fear that in future the tenants can claim the ownership of Jhuggi. Therefore, the rented households in JJ-Clusters are more vulnerable in comparison to the households who owned their Jhuggi.

The three case studies provided for the different approach adopted by government shows that in-situ development is one of the best solutions to solve the housing and tenure problem in Delhi.

To sum up, it can be said that the current housing and tenure security status of the sample households is very poor. Most of them live in a very filthy environment without proper facility of water, sanitation and other basic civic amenities. The high investment in the construction/owning of Jhuggi and the consistent threat of eviction make most vulnerable section of urban society. Majority of them want to participate in the in-situ development programme and therefore the proper implementation of *Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana- Housing for All- Mission 2022* which has a provision of in-situ development can solve the problems of the households living in JJ-Clusters.



## CHAPTER-V

### FOOD SECURITY STATUS OF URBAN MIGRANTS IN NCT OF DELHI

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*“There are people in the world so hungry, that God cannot appear to them except in the form of Bread”- Mahatma Gandhi*

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION:**

A country is truly food secure only when it is able to provide adequate food to all its citizens as matter of right, ‘without inflicting any humiliation on the poor’ (Parikh, 1998). In last one and half decade, India has witnessed a record economic growth but still a large section of Indian population suffers from hunger and malnutrition. India has second highest estimated number of undernourished people in the world. The proportion of undernourished persons in total population was 15.2 per cent in 2014 (FAO, IFAS & WFP, 2015). According to the International Food Policy Research Institute’s (IFPRI) Global Hunger Index, 2014 India is no longer in ‘alarming’ category but still it is in ‘serious’ category (Rukmini, 2014) and to some extent the ‘Public Distribution System’ which is one of the largest food safety net programmes in the world can be credited for it.

The government of India has passed *National Food Security Act* in September, 2013 which is also known as ‘*Right to Food Act*’. The main aim of this act is to provide food and nutritional security to people of India throughout their life by following the human lifecycle approach. It insures the access of adequate quantity of quality food to all beneficiaries at affordable prices, so that they can live their life with dignity (NFSA, 2013). This act marks a major paradigm shift in the approach of government of India to provide subsidized food to its citizen and to address the food insecurity. Now it is more rights-based approach rather than welfare based approach (Sandhu, 2014).

The concept of food security can be understood by widely accepted food security definition given by the World Food Summit (1996). According to World Food Summit (1996):

*“Food Security is a situation that exists when all people, at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life”.*

The four most important dimensions of food security: accessibility, availability, affordability and utilization are reflected in this definition. The National Food Security Bill, 2013 intends to address all these components with covering 50 per cent urban population and 75 rural population of India. Although, India has a food safety net programme from several decades and now through national food security act, it is available as a right but still the goals to achieve food security to all is far ahead because a large section of urban population which is migrants are still facing problem to avail benefit from Public distribution system (PDS). In this context, present chapter tries to reveal the current status of food security among urban migrants in NCT of Delhi with present conditions of accessibility, availability and utilization of PDS among JJ-Dwellers.

## **5.2 PUBLIC DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM IN INDIA: AN OVERVIEW**

Public Distribution System in India is one of the largest state-administered subsidized food distribution networks in world. The main objective of this food safety net programme is to ensure adequate supply of food grains at an affordable price to the most vulnerable section of society. The PDS was introduced in India during Second World War as war time rationing measure (Balani, 2013). Till 1947, due to frequent famine and food scarcity, about 54 million people in urban areas were covered by statutory rationing and another 19 million people were covered by other forms of public distribution (Dantwala, 1993). During 1943-1965, many committees were formed to provide suggestions regarding food distribution policies in India. That was a period when distribution of food grains through Public Distribution System was totally dependent on the imports of grains from different country and therefore it was not universal. In the later period of 1960s, the face of Indian agriculture changed due to 'Green Revolution'. The production of grains increased and the distribution of food grains through PDS was maintained through domestic procurement rather than imports. On the recommendations of Foodgrain Prices Committee (1964), an Agriculture Price Commission (now Commission for Agriculture Costs and Price) and Food Corporation of India (FCI) had been set up by government of India to improve the domestic procurement and storage of food grains for Public Distribution System. By the 1970s, PDS had become the centerpiece of anti-poverty programme and due to the growth in the food grains production through Green Revolution in India, the coverage of the PDS was extended for

the entire population living in rural as well as urban areas. Now, PDS had evolved into a universal scheme for the distribution of subsidized food.

In 1992, the Government of India revamped the PDS in consultation with the State Governments and Union Territories (UTs). An area based approach was adopted to improve the reach of PDS for most vulnerable population living in remote and inaccessible areas of the country like tribal, hills and arid etc. The Revamped Public Distribution System (RPDS) was launched in June 1992 to improve the accessibility and availability of food grains to the population living in desert areas, drought prone areas, tribal areas, designated hilly areas and urban slum areas. Some additional items such as soaps, pulses and iodized salt were also provided under RPDS with food grains. In RPDS, four major weaknesses were identified by Planning Commission of India over the time of period: 1) Proliferation of Bogus Card, 2) inadequate storage arrangements, 3) ineffective functioning of vigilance committee and 4) failure to issue ration cards to all eligible households (Dev & Ranade, 1997).

Until 1997, households with a registered residential address were entitled to get subsidized food grains both in rural and urban areas (Mane, 2006). This form of universal PDS had been criticized on various grounds. The main criticism of universal PDS was for its negligible coverage in the states with highest concentration of rural poor, in other word, it had urban biasness. It was not very effective to serve the poorer section of the society because of lack of transparency and accountability in the delivery of food grains (Planning Commission, 2002). In developing countries like India, one of the important ways to reduce fiscal deficit is to cut the subsidies and target them exclusively to the poor section of society (Mane, 2006). Therefore in continuation with the structural adjustments adopted in Indian economy after 1991 economic reforms, Target Public Distribution System (TPDS) was introduced in June 1997. The main aim of TPDS was to provide subsidies food grains only to the identified poor households also known as “Below Poverty Line (BPL)” households and to exclude the remaining households (Above Poverty Line) from the food subsidies.

The identification of BPL and APL households was done by state governments with help of Gram Panchayats and Gram Sabhas (Taimni, 2004) using official poverty lines estimates for each states provided by expert group (Lakdawala Committee) of

Planning Commission in 1993-94 (Mane, 2006; Taimni, 2004). The priority was to include poor, vulnerable and most marginalized section of society such as landless agricultural labourers, marginal farmers and artisans/craftsmen in rural areas and slum dwellers, porters, rickshaw pullers, coolies in urban areas (Planning Commission, 2002; Taimni, 2004). A separate ration card (BPL Card) was issued to BPL families, on which, each family was entitled to get 10 kg of cereals per month at subsidized (BPL) rate. It was increased to 20 kg per family per month in April 2000 and further raised to 25 kg per family per month. In December 2000, another scheme was launched to cover the poorest and destitute households among BPL known as “Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY)”. Since April, 2002, the allocation of cereals for each family has been raised to 35 kg per family per month for all type of (BPL, APL and Antyodaya) households (Kundu & Srivastava, 2007).

Up to certain extent, the TPDS improved the coverage of poor households in the states with high concentration of rural poors and thereby, it was able to provide food subsidies to the eligible rural households more effectively. In spite of this improvement, it had very limited success in strengthening the overall food security of the poor households, especially to those who are living in the states, which historically do not have strong PDS system. It has also not able to check the rising food deficit (ibid). There are several gaps in the implementation of TPDS. Many Studies (Swaminathan & Misra, 2001; Mane, 2006; Khera, 2008) have shown that TPDS has suffered from inaccurate identification of beneficiaries and leakages in delivery system. In TPDS, there are nearly 61 % error of exclusion and 25 % inclusion of beneficiaries i.e. misclassification of poor into non-poor and vice versa. Another challenge is leakage of food grains during transportation to the ration shop, and from ration shop to the open market. Despite these drawbacks, many reforms have been done by different states to address the above problems in the implementation of TPDS. States such as Delhi, Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh have implemented Information Technology (IT) measures to streamline TPDS. In these states, the details of the ration cards have been digitized, GPS is used to track the delivery and SMS based monitoring services have been provided to beneficiaries. Direct Cash Transfer of the food subsidies to beneficiaries’ bank account linked with Aadhar cards and food coupons are other alternatives to curb the gaps in the

implementation of TPDS on which discussion is continued by different scholars (Balani, 2013).

After a long deliberation, parliament of India has passed the National Food Security Act in September, 2013 and now right to food is a statutory right. This act follows the “*human life cycle approach*” which means the legal entitlement of the food at every stage of life of a person-from pregnancy to old age. It ensures maternity benefit of Rs. 6000 to every pregnant and lactating woman. It has also measures to provide subsidized meals to children below 14 year age-groups and malnourished children (Sandhu, 2014). In this act, population has been classified in to following groups for subsidized food: 1) Excluded (No Entitlement), 2) Priority Groups (Entitlement) and 3) Antyodaya Anna Yojana (Higher Entitlement). It has established responsibilities on the central and state governments, by creating a State Food Commission at state level and Grievance Redressal Mechanism at state and district level, to address the problem of non-delivery of entitlements and leakages in PDS and to improve the implementation of act by proper monitoring. The NCT of Delhi is one the states which has implemented the National Food Security Act, 2013.

### **5.3 STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONING OF THE PDS IN DELHI:**

The Public Distribution System in India is jointly operated by central and state governments. The responsibility for procurement, storage, transportation and allocation of food grains to each state is on central government. However, the operational responsibilities of the PDS such as, allocation of food grains within state, identification of BPL and other beneficiary households, issue of ration cards to them, distribution of food grains to beneficiaries through wide networks of Fair Price Shops (FPS) and supervising and monitoring of FPSs etc., rest with state governments.

In context of Delhi, the Department of Food, Supplies and Consumer Affairs is responsible for the functioning of the PDS in NCT of Delhi. It was established in 1962 and since then, regulates the trade of essential commodities by having a close watch on the stocks, prices, quality and quantity of essential commodities. The distribution of essential commodities through PDS is main function of this department and therefore, to maintain the availability of food grains for the PDS, it issues various control orders under Essential Commodities Act, 1955. It also maintained the standard of weights and

measures under Standard of Weights and Measures Act, 1976 and Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1985 to check the proper dissemination of commodities (Delhi Development Report, 2009).

The Food, Supplies and Consumer Affairs Department of NCT of Delhi has one commissioner and four additional/joint commissioners. For proper functioning of the PDS, NCT of Delhi is divided into 9 Zones and 70 Circles. An assistant commissioner is appointed as head of each zone and a Food & Supplies Officer is appointed as head of each circle. Supporting staffs are there in each Zone and Circle for their help. In PDS, the food grains are distributed through Fair Price Shops (popularly known as Ration Shops). NCT of Delhi has a well established network of FPSs. The Food, Supplies and Consumer Affairs department grants the license to a person for opening a Fair Price Shop with approval of the commissioner.

In Delhi, the food grains are directly lifted from godowns of Food Corporation of India (FCI) and transported to the Fair Price Shops. This is a unique feature in PDS of Delhi as in other States, food grains lifted from FCI godowns are first transported to State godowns and from there, it is distribution to Fair Price Shops. Delhi State Civil Supplies Corporation (DSCSC), which is a public sector company and comes under administrative control of Department of Food, Civil Supplies and Consumer Affairs of NCT of Delhi, has responsibility of transportation of Special Food Articles (SFA) under TPDS. It transports the food grains from the six Food Corporation of India (FCI) godowns of Delhi to the wide network of Fair Price Shops (FPS) spread over 9 districts of NCT of Delhi.

Depending on the past allotments and offtake records, FCI intimates each FPS owner about the quantity of food grains to be issued to it in a month. Based on this quantity, the FPS owner sends a payment draft to the DSCSC which include the cost of the food grains and transportation charges. The government of NCT of Delhi decides the transportation charge of food grains. The current transportation charge of food grains for APL households is Rs. 35/- per quintal and for BPL and AAY, it is Rs. 15/- per quintal. After getting the payment draft from FPS owner, DSCSC transports the food grains from FCI godowns to fair price shop. For lifting the food grains from FCI godowns, DSCSC pays FCI the cost of food grains received from FPS owners and retains the transportation charges. Transportation of food grains for AAY families is subsidized by the state and

thus those charges are returned back to FPS owners. For distributing the ration under TPDS, FPS owners earn Rs. 35/- per quintal (for both wheat as well as rice). The FPS owner distributes the food grains to the beneficiaries according to the quota allotted on their ration cards. By this process, food grains reach to the beneficiaries (Walia, 2009).

#### **5.4 TYPE OF CARDS, ENTITLEMENT AND RATES UNDER NATIONAL FOOD SECURITY ACT, 2013:**

Government of NCT of Delhi is one the pioneer state which has implemented the National Food Security Act from 1<sup>st</sup> September, 2013, just after the enactment of this act by parliament of India. As mentioned earlier, in National Food Security Act, 2013, the beneficiary households are classified into two broader groups: Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) card holders and Priority Households (PR). The details of the entitlements provided to various categories of beneficiary in NCT of Delhi are as follows:

**Table-5.1 Type of Ration Cards, Entitlements (in Kg.) and Rates (in Rupees)**

Categories	Items (Quantity and Rate)
BPL (PR-S)	Rice- 1 Kg/Member @ Rs. 3/Kg
	Wheat- 4 Kg/Member @ Rs. 2/Kg
	Sugar- 6 Kg/Per Card @ Rs. 13.50/Kg
AAY	Rice-10 Kg/Per Card @ Rs. 3/Kg
	Wheat- 25 kg/Per Card @ Rs. 2/Kg
	Sugar- 6 Kg/Per Card @ Rs. 13.50/Kg
BPL (PR)	Rice- 1 Kg/Member @ Rs. 3/Kg
	Wheat- 4 Kg/Member @ Rs. 2/Kg

*Note: BPL (PR-S)-Selected Priority Households having Sugar entitlement, AAY- Antyodaya Anna Yojana, BPL (PR) - Priority Households*

In NCT of Delhi, AAY card holders are entitled to get 25 Kg. Wheat at the rate of Rs. 2/- and 10 Kg. Rice at the rate Rs. 3/- per card per month. They are also entitled to get 6 Kg. Sugar per card per month at the rate of 13.50 rupees per Kg. The identification of Priority Households is done by Delhi Government on the basis of annual income of the households. All households having One Lakh or below annual income is entitled to get ration card under Priority (PR) category. This group is further divided into two groups- PR and PR-S. Both type of ration card holders are entitled to get 4 Kg. Wheat and 1 Kg.

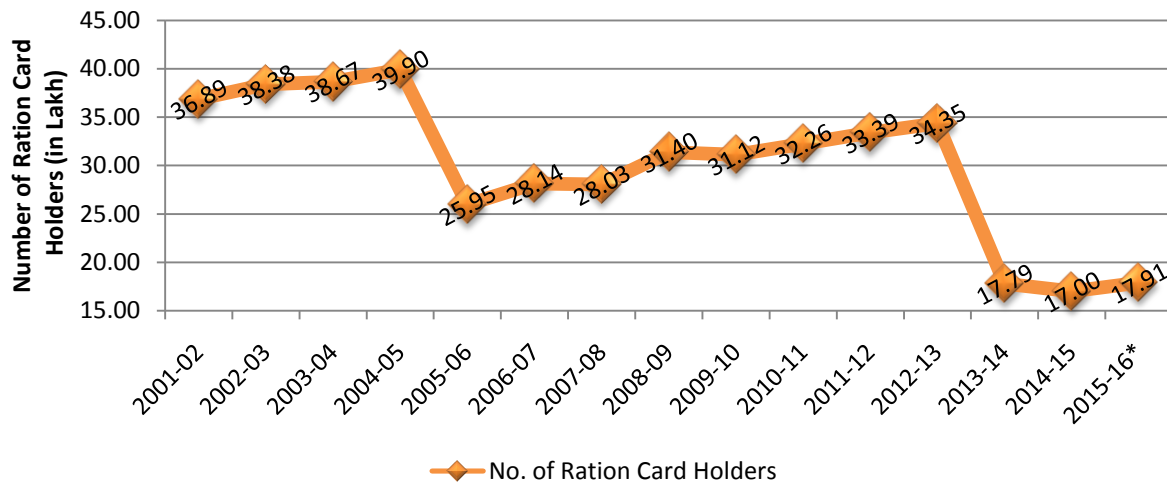
Rice per person per month at the rate of Rs. 2/- per Kg. and Rs. 3/- per Kg. respectively but only the households under PR-S category have entitlements of 6 Kg. Sugar per card per month at the rate of 13.50 rupees per Kg.

## 5.5 STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF TPDS IN NCT OF DELHI:

### 5.5.1 Total Number of Ration Card Holder in NCT of Delhi:

In 2015-16, the total number of ration card holders in NCT of Delhi is 17.91 lakh. From Figure-5.1, it can be easily identified that number of ration card holders in NCT of Delhi is sharply decline during two time period- 2005-06 and 2013-14.

**Figure-5.1 Number of Ration Card Holders in NCT of Delhi (2001-02 to 2015-16)**



Source: Department of Food, Civil Supplies and Consumer Affairs, Government of NCT of Delhi,

\*The data for 2015-16 is up to 15 May, 2015.

In 2001-02, total 36.89 lakh ration card holders were in Delhi which had increased to 39.90 lakh in 2004-05 but in next year (2005-06), a sudden decline was found and total number of ration card holder reached to 25.95 lakh. The main reason for this decline was weeding out the non-eligible ration card holders from APL cards (Saxena, 2010). The number of ration card holders again increased from 25.95 lakh in 2005-06 to 34.35 lakh in 2012-13. The second major decline in the total number of ration card holders has been found after implementation of National Food Security Act, 2013 in NCT of Delhi i.e. September, 2013. The number of ration card holders in NCT of Delhi in 2013-14 has been halved in comparison to previous year 2012-13. In 2012-13, it was 34.35 lakh which has declined to 17.79 lakh in 2013-14. This significant drop in the total number of ration



card holders is because of new classification adopted in NFSA, 2013 in which the population is divided into three groups 1) Excluded (No Entitlement) 2) Priority Groups (Entitlement) and 3) Antyodaya Anna Yojana (Higher Entitlement). As mentioned earlier, in Delhi, only families with one lakh or lower annual income are eligible to obtain a ration card under Priority Groups while the eligibility for AAY will remain same as decided by planning commission. Therefore, after implementation of NFSA, a large number of non-eligible beneficiaries have been excluded from the Priority Group in NCT of Delhi because of income criteria.

### 5.5.2 Total Number of Fair Price Shops in NCT of Delhi:

The food grains in PDS distribute through the network of fair price shops known as ration shops also. In Delhi, the total number of FPSs was 2975 in 2001-02 which increased to 3114 in 2004-05. After this increment a declining trend has been found in the total number of Fair Price Shops in Delhi.

**Figure-5.2 Total Number of Fair Price Shops in NCT of Delhi (2001-02 to 2015-16)**



Source: Department of Food, Civil Supplies and Consumer Affairs, Government of NCT of Delhi,  
\*The data for 2015-16 is up to 15 May, 2015.

The total number of FPSs has declined from 2731 in 2005-06 to 2310 in 2014-15. Only the recent data of total number of fair price shops shows a slight increase and currently, 2430 fair price shops are in NCT of Delhi to distribute food grains from PDS.

### 5.5.3 Spatial Pattern of Ration Card Holders and Fair Price Shops in NCT of Delhi:

The district-wise percentage distribution of ration card holders shows that in 2010-11, the highest number of ration card holders were in North-West Delhi (14.69 per cent) followed by South-West Delhi (14.59 per cent) and North-East Delhi (12.49 per cent). In this year the lowest percentage share of ration card holders were in New Delhi (7.10 per cent). The recent data from year 2014-15 shows that North-West Delhi still has highest percentage share with 16.57 per cent ration card holders. An increment has been found in the percentage share of ration card holders in North-East Delhi (14.94 per cent) and it has reached second position while, with 14.38 per cent card holders, South-West Delhi has reached third position. The lowest percentage of ration card holders in NCT of Delhi is still in New Delhi (4.66 per cent) and it has declined to the previous year.

The spatial distribution of Fair Price Shops in NCT of Delhi shows that, in 2010-11, the number of districts with more than 300 FPSs were five. The highest number of FPSs were in North-East Delhi (14.55 per cent) followed by South-West Delhi (13.58 per cent), North-West Delhi (12.77 per cent), South-Delhi (12.49 per cent) and West-Delhi (12.45 per cent). In 2014-15, the total number of FPSs in Delhi has declined and reached from 2474 in 2010-11 to 2310 in 2014-15.

**Table-5.2 District-Wise distribution of Ration Cards and FPSs**

Districts	Ration Cards				Fair Price Shops (FPS)			
	2010-11		2014-15		2010-11		2014-15	
North-East	402938	12.49	254072	14.94	360	14.55	347	15.02
East Delhi	372189	11.54	163129	9.59	267	10.79	252	10.91
Central Delhi	267179	8.28	127847	7.52	188	7.60	178	7.71
South-West	470770	14.59	244519	14.38	336	13.58	312	13.51
South Delhi	303701	9.41	198645	11.68	309	12.49	292	12.64
New Delhi	228978	7.10	79202	4.66	160	6.47	148	6.41
West Delhi	385924	11.96	196730	11.57	308	12.45	280	12.12
North-West	473989	14.69	281727	16.57	316	12.77	287	12.42
North Delhi	320580	9.94	154715	9.10	230	9.30	214	9.26
<b>Total</b>	<b>3226248</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1700586</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2474</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2310</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Department of Food, Civil Supplies and Consumer Affairs, Government of NCT of Delhi

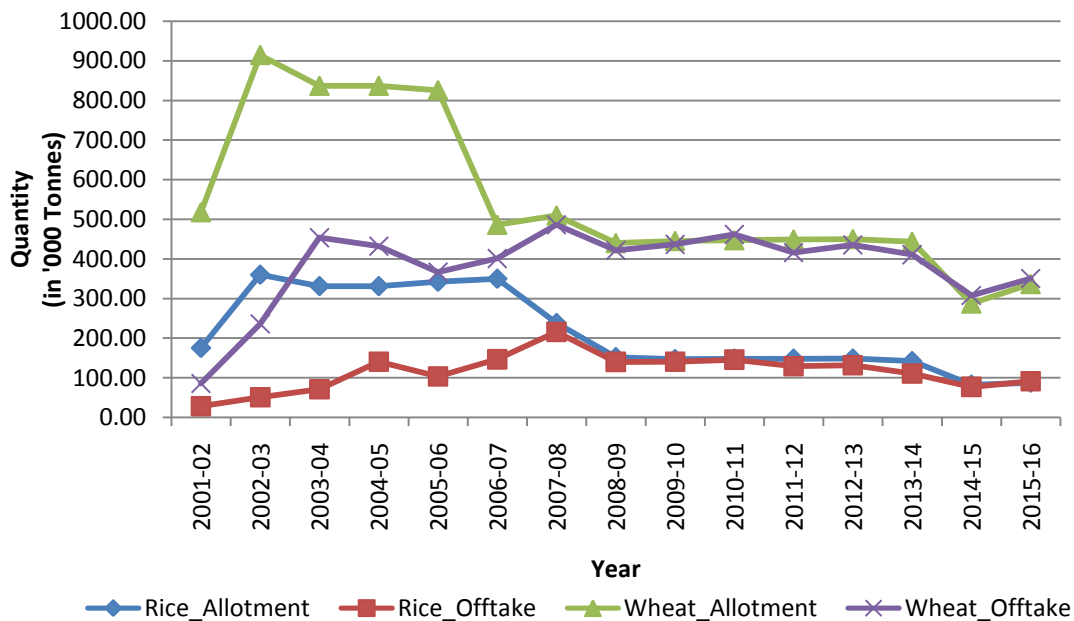
In 2014-15, only two districts of NCT of Delhi, North-East and South-West Delhi have more than 300 FPSs. The percentage share of FPSs is highest in North-East Delhi (15.02

per cent) followed by South-West Delhi (13.51 per cent) and South Delhi (12.64 per cent). In both time periods the highest concentration of ration card holders and FPSs are in peripheral districts which are dominated by migrant population and slums.

### 5.6 TRENDS OF DISTRIBUTION OF CEREALS (RICE AND WHEAT) THROUGH TPDS IN NCT OF DELHI:

In NCT of Delhi, the total allotment of rice and wheat under TPDS was at peak in 2002-03. In next year (2003-04), the allotment of rice and wheat under TPDS declined. The decline was more for wheat in comparison to rice. Thereafter, the allotment of rice slightly increased till 2006-07 but there was a declining trend in the allotment of wheat in the same period and a sharp decline can be easily found in the allotment of wheat in 2006-07, in which, the allotment of wheat declined from 825.77 thousand tonnes in 2005-06 to 486.30 thousand tonnes in 2006-07. In next two year, 2007-08 and 2008-09 the allotment of rice declined sharply and the allotment of wheat first increased in 2007-08 and then declined in 2008-09.

**Figure- 5.3 Allotment and Offtake of Rice and Wheat under TPDS in NCT of Delhi 2001-02 to 2015-16**



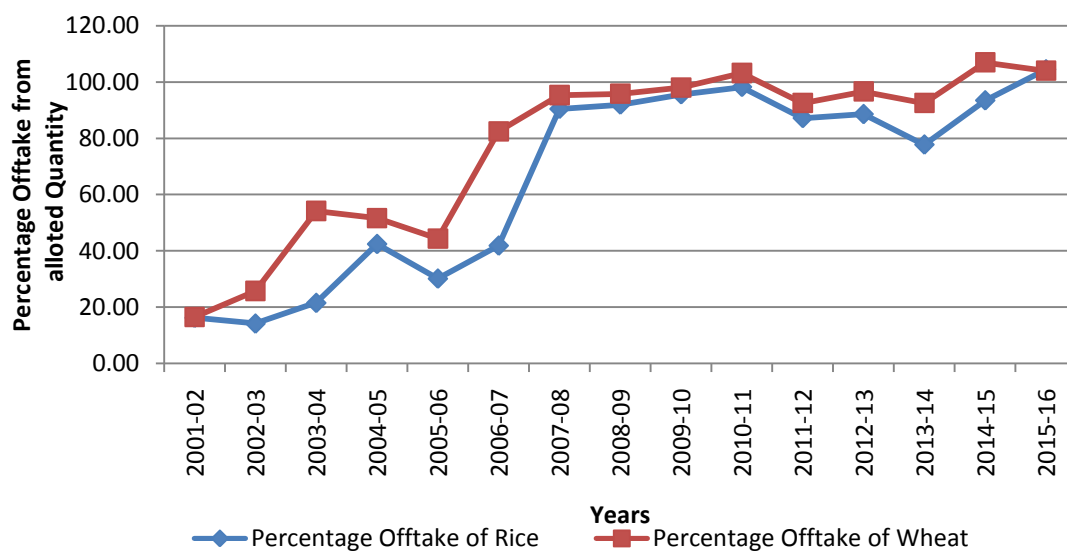
Source: Food Grains Bulletins (From 2001-02 to 2013-14), Department of Food & Public Distribution, Ministry of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution, Government of India. The data for 2014-15 and 2015-16 has been taken from Food Corporation of India.

The declining trend in wheat during 2003-04 to 2006-07 and in rice during 2006-07 to 2008-09 can be explained by declining number of ration cards in NCT of Delhi in same time period and weeding out of bogus ration cards during 2004-05. From 2009-10 onwards, the allotments of rice and wheat slightly increased with each year till 2012-13 but after implementation of NFSA, it again declined in next two years (2013-14 and 2014-15). Only the recent data show an improvement in the allocation of wheat and rice under NFSA in Delhi.

Except a drop in 2005-06, the offtake of rice and wheat experienced an increasing trend from 2001-02 to 2007-08. In next year, 2008-09, the offtake of rice and wheat both declined. Thereafter, the offtake of rice and wheat was increasing till 2012-13 but with constant rate. After implementation of NFSA, the offtake of rice and wheat both declined and reached 82.74 thousand tonnes and 307.66 thousand tonnes respectively in 2014-15. Only the recent data from 2015-16, shows an increment in the offtake of rice and wheat. The overall trend shows that till 2006-07 the gap between allotment and offtake of both rice and wheat was wide which has narrowed down over time period.

The percentage offtake from allotted quantity of rice and wheat under TPDS in Delhi provides clear picture of distribution of food grains from TPDS.

**Figure- 5.4 Percentage Offtake of Rice and Wheat under TPDS (2001-02 to 2015-16)**

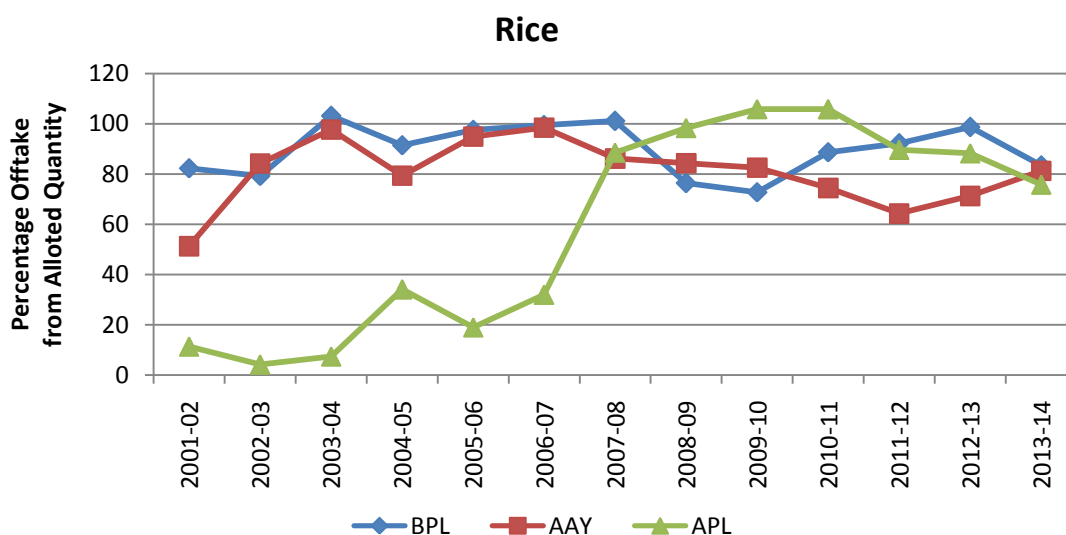


Source: Food Grains Bulletins (From 2001-02 to 2013-14), Department of Food & Public Distribution, Ministry of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution, Government of India. The data for 2014-15 and 2015-16 has been taken from Food Corporation of India.

The percentage offtake of rice and wheat under TPDS show an increasing trend throughout the period under view with few exceptions. Till 2005-06, the percentage offtake of rice and wheat was very low. For rice, it was around 14-40 per cent during 2001-02 to 2005-06 and for wheat it was 16-55 per cent. It shows that during this period, a substantial proportion of food grains particularly rice allotted to FPSs were not being lifted by the intended beneficiaries under TPDS (Walia, 2009). After 2005-06, the percentage offtake of rice and wheat increased sharply and reached to peak in 2007-08, after that, it is increasing consistently even after NFSA. The main reasons of this improvement can be computerization of PDS, use of GPS to track the delivery and weeding out the bogus card holders so that the real beneficiary can take benefit from PDS.

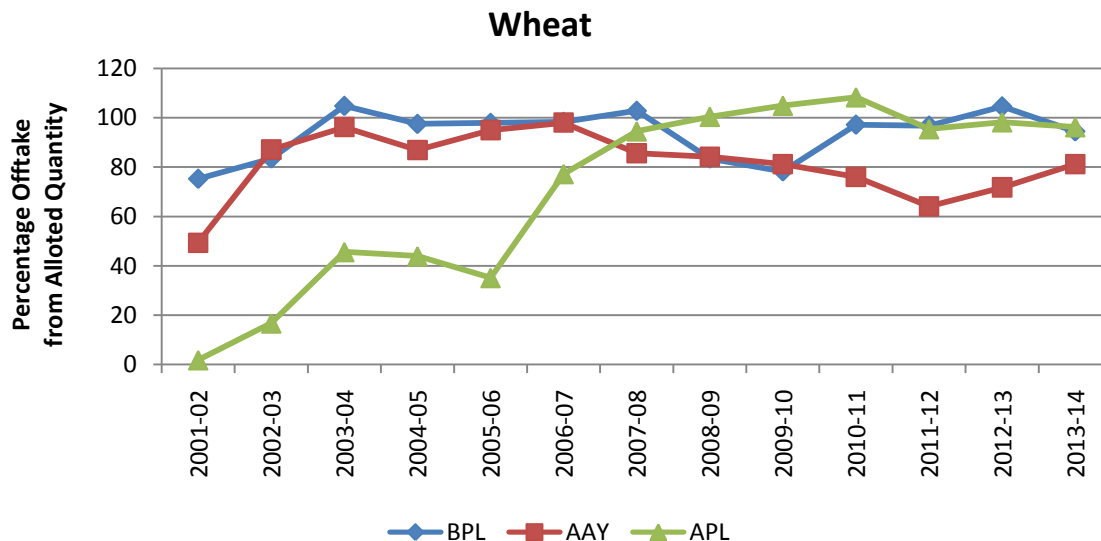
The analysis of percentage offtake of rice and wheat under different schemes of TPDS (BPL, AAY and APL) over time periods makes a significant difference from the above analysis, because it provides the details of the percentage offtake made by each income groups.<sup>1</sup> In BPL and AAY the percentage offtake of rice and wheat was always high in comparison to APL.

**Figure 5.5 Percentage Offtake of Rice and Wheat under different Schemes of TPDS (2001-02 to 2013-14)**



Source: Food Grains Bulletins (From 2001-02 to 2013-14), Department of Food & Public Distribution, Ministry of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution, Government of India.

<sup>1</sup> In PDS, the base of the entitlement of each type of cards i.e. BPL, AAY and APL is income criteria.



*Source: Food Grains Bulletins (From 2001-02 to 2013-14), Department of Food & Public Distribution, Ministry of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution, Government of India.*

The percentage offtake of rice and wheat under APL was low till 2005-06 but, thereafter a sudden increment was found in the percentage offtake of both rice and wheat, which is continue till 2013-14. The overall food inflation in India increased sharply during UPA-I (2004-09) and UPA-II (2009-14) (Mishra, 2014; Chandrasekhar, 2014) and the sudden increment in the percentage offtake of rice and wheat by APL card holders can be explained by this food inflation. Due to high prices of food grains, it could be possible that APL card holders also started to lift their quota from FPSs.

### **5.7 SHARE OF PDS IN TOTAL CONSUMPTION OF THE HOUSEHOLDS:**

The figures from Table-5.3 show that, the share of PDS in total consumption of the households for the items distributed under TPDS is still very minimal. The consumption expenditure data of NSS 63<sup>rd</sup> round (2006-07) shows that for rice, the share of PDS was only 9.24 per cent which, slightly increased in the next two rounds of NSS- 64<sup>th</sup> (2007-08) and 66<sup>th</sup> (2009-10) and reached to 11.36 per cent and 13.67 per cent respectively. The recent 68<sup>th</sup> round of NSS (2011-12) shows a decline in the share of rice through PDS in total consumption which is 7.95 per cent. It shows that in total consumption of rice by households, 92.05 per cent is still purchased from other sources (open market).

The percentage share of wheat and sugar under PDS also shows the similar trends. The NSS data shows that the share of PDS in total quantity of wheat consumed by households was 12.79 in 2006-07 which declined to 10.57 per cent in 2007-08. In 66<sup>th</sup> (2009-10) and 68<sup>th</sup> (2011-12) round of NSS, it has slightly increased and reached around 11 per cent. In total consumption of sugar, the percentage share of PDS is very low. It shows that households purchase most of the sugar from other sources (open market). In total quantity of sugar consumed by households, the percentage share of PDS was only 6.73 per cent in 2006-07 which has declined to 3.99 per cent in 2011-12.

**Table-5.3 Offtake from PDS and Other Sources in NCT of Delhi (Quantity in %)**

Items	63rd Round ( July 2006- June 2007)		64th Round (July 2007-June 2008)		66th Round (July 2009-June 2010)		68th Round (July 2011-June 2012)	
	PDS	Other Sources	PDS	Other Sources	PDS	Other Sources	PDS	Other Sources
<b>Rice</b>	9.24	90.76	11.36	88.64	13.67	86.33	7.95	92.05
<b>Wheat</b>	12.79	87.21	10.57	89.43	11.00	89.00	11.24	88.76
<b>Sugar</b>	6.73	93.27	9.27	90.73	6.51	93.49	3.99	96.01
<b>Kerosene</b>	52.16	47.84	44.03	55.97	44.91	55.09	67.23	32.77

Source: Computed from various NSS rounds. 63<sup>rd</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> rounds are thin rounds while 66<sup>th</sup> and 68<sup>th</sup> rounds are thick rounds.

The share of PDS in total consumption of Kerosene is very significant as compared to the other commodities such as rice, wheat and sugar. In 2006-07, the percentage share of Kerosene through PDS was 52.16 per cent which declined in next two rounds and reached to 44 per cent in 2009-10. The recent round of NSS (2011-12) again shows a major increment in the percentage share of Kerosene through PDS and now it has increased to 67.23 per cent. The overall percentage share of PDS for different commodities shows that most of the households are still dependent on the other sources (open market) for their consumption needs.

## **EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF FOOD SECURITY STATUS FROM FIELD SURVEY:**

### **5.8 NUMBER OF RATION CARD HOLDERS IN JJ-CLUSTERS OF NCT OF DELHI:**

The availability of a ration card in household is first step to avail the benefit from public distribution system. Therefore, during field survey the information about the possession

of different type of ration cards by migrant households was collected. In sample households, 65.5 per cent reported that they have ration cards, in which, 35.25 per cent are Priority BPL card holders with sugar entitlement-BPL-PR(S), 17 per cent are Priority BPL card holders with no sugar entitlement-BPL-PR and 13.25 per cent households are Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) ration card holders. Total 34.5 per cent households in present study reported that they don't have any type of ration card which is a significant percentage in total.

**Table- 5.4 Percentage distribution of Households by Ration Cards in JJ-Clusters**

Districts	Clusters	BPL (PR-S)	AAY	BPL (PR)	HH with Ration Card	HH with No Ration Card	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	40	12	8	60	40	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	34	10	24	68	32	100
	Sub-Total (N=100)	37	11	16	64	36	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	16	4	36	56	44	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	18	20	6	44	56	100
	Sub-Total (N=100)	17	12	21	50	50	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	26	32	4	62	38	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	54	10	12	76	24	100
	Sub-Total (N=100)	40	21	8	69	31	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	36	16	22	74	26	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	58	2	24	84	16	100
	Sub-Total (N=100)	47	9	23	79	21	100
<b>Grand-Total (N=400)</b>		<b>35.25</b>	<b>13.25</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>65.5</b>	<b>34.5</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution shows that highest percentage share of households with any type of ration card is in JJ-Clusters of North-West Delhi (79 per cent) and JJ-Clusters of North-East Delhi (69 per cent). However, the lowest percentage share of households with any type of ration card is in South-West Delhi (50 per cent). The highest percentage share of the ration card holder households is in JJ-



Cluster, Wazirpur (84 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (76 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (74 per cent) and the lowest percentage share of ration card holder households is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (44 per cent) and Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (56 per cent).

The percentage distribution of the households by different type of ration cards shows that, in most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage share of the households having BPL (PR-S) card is highest except Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samakha and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Areas in which AAY card holders are highest and Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj in which BPL (PR) card holders are highest. The percentage share of the households with no ration card is highest in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (56 per cent) followed by Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (44 per cent) and V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (40 per cent). The reasons for not having a ration card are discussed in later section of the chapter.

## **5.9 FACTORS ASSOCIATED TO THE POSSESSION OF RATION CARDS BY HOUSEHOLDS:**

There are many factors which indirectly affect the chances of having a ration card by a household in JJ-Clusters such as social groups, ownership of Jhuggi, duration of stay, household size etc. The present section provides the details about this interrelationship.

### **5.9.1 Social Group and Possession of Ration Card:**

The social group of a household largely determines the economic status of household in slum and it is well known fact that the possession of ration card is based on income criteria and therefore, it is very important to know the possession of ration card by different social groups.

Only two households in sample reported that they are from Scheduled Tribes category, among which, one have BPL-PR (S) card while another don't have ration card. Because of very few sample in STs, they are not included in the present table.

The percentage distribution of households by social groups and possession of ration cards shows that the highest ration card holders is in Other Backward Castes (OBCs) which is 69.27 per cent followed by Other Category (66 per cent). In comparison to OBCs and Others, the percentage share of the households having ration card is low in Scheduled Castes households (61.54 per cent).

The social group wise percentage share of the households by different types of ration card shows that in other category and in OBCs, the percentage of BPL-PR (S) households is high as compared to SC households. Except South Delhi, this pattern is same in other three districts. It can be result of inclusion error because the condition of other category households and OBC households is much better in comparison to scheduled castes in terms of employment status of head of the households (see Table 3.18 & Table 3.19) which can be taken as proxy of income.

**Table- 5.5 Percentage Distribution of Households by Social groups and possession of Ration Cards**

Districts	Social Groups	BPL-PR (S)	AAY	BPL-PR	Total Ration Card Holders	No Ration Card Holders	Total
South Delhi	Scheduled Caste	44.00 (11)	16.00 (4)	12.00 (3)	72.00 (18)	28.00 (7)	100 (25)
	Other Backward Caste	32.61 (15)	6.52 (3)	17.39 (8)	56.52 (26)	43.48 (20)	100 (46)
	General	35.71 (10)	14.29 (4)	17.86 (5)	67.86 (19)	32.14 (9)	100 (28)
South-West Delhi	Scheduled Caste	12.00 (6)	20.00 (10)	20.00 (10)	52.00 (26)	48.00 (24)	100 (50)
	Other Backward Caste	21.43 (9)	4.76 (2)	26.19 (11)	52.38 (22)	47.62 (20)	100 (42)
	General	25.00 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	25.00 (2)	75.00 (6)	100 (8)
North-East Delhi	Scheduled Caste	32.65 (16)	16.33 (8)	10.20 (5)	59.18 (29)	40.82 (20)	100 (49)
	Other Backward Caste	46.81 (22)	27.66 (13)	4.26 (2)	78.72 (37)	21.28 (10)	100 (47)
	General	50.00 (2)	0.00 (0)	25.00 (1)	75.00 (3)	25.00 (1)	100 (4)
North-West Delhi	Scheduled Caste	33.33 (15)	13.33 (6)	22.22 (10)	68.89 (31)	31.11 (14)	100 (45)
	Other Backward Caste	56.82 (25)	4.55 (2)	27.27 (12)	88.64 (39)	11.36 (5)	100 (44)
	General	70.00 (7)	10.00 (1)	10.00 (1)	90.00 (9)	10.00 (1)	100 (10)
Total	Scheduled Caste	28.40 (48)	16.57 (28)	16.57 (28)	61.54 (104)	38.46 (65)	100 (169)
	Other Backward Caste	39.66 (71)	11.17 (20)	18.44 (33)	69.27 (124)	30.73 (55)	100 (179)
	General	42.00 (21)	10.00 (5)	14.00 (7)	66.00 (33)	34.00 (17)	100 (50)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The percentage share of AAY card holders is highest in SC households followed by OBC and others. In most of the districts, the households having AAY cards are highest in SC category except North-East Delhi where the percentage of households having AAY ration

card is highest in OBC category. The BPL-PR is a smart card recently issued under *Delhi Khadya Suraksha Yojana* after implementation of NFSA in Delhi. In comparison to other category, the percentage share of BPL-PR card holders is high in OBCs households followed by SCs households in most of the districts and in total also. The percentage of households without ration cards is highest in SC households in most of the district except South Delhi. It shows that in present study SC households are comparatively more vulnerable in terms of food security provided by PDS because a significant percentage of SC households don't have ration cards to avail benefit of PDS in sample JJ-Clusters.

### 5.9.2 Ownership of Jhuggi and Possession of Ration Cards:

To possess a ration card, residential proof is required. It was observed during field survey that the households who live on rent are unable to possess a ration card because the landlord of the Jhuggi doesn't allow them to use the address of Jhuggi for availing any welfare schemes including PDS. The landlords of Jhuggi have fear that ration card would provide an address proof to the tenants and in future, tenants can encroach on their Jhuggi and claim the ownership of Jhuggi at the time of resettlement/in-situ development.

**Table- 5.6 Percentage Distribution of Households by Ownership of Jhuggi and possession of Ration Cards**

Districts	Ownership of Jhuggi	BPL-PR (S)	AAY	BPL-PR	Total Ration Card Holders	No Ration Card Holders	Total
South Delhi	Owned	45.00 (36)	13.75 (11)	6.25 (5)	65.00 (52)	35.00 (28)	100 (80)
	Rented	5.00 (1)	0.00 (0)	55.00 (11)	60.00 (12)	40.00 (8)	100 (20)
South-West Delhi	Owned	20.99 (17)	14.81 (12)	22.22 (18)	58.02 (47)	41.98 (34)	100 (81)
	Rented	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	15.79 (3)	15.79 (3)	84.21 (16)	100 (19)
North-East Delhi	Owned	48.19 (40)	25.30 (21)	7.23 (6)	80.72 (67)	19.28 (16)	100 (83)
	Rented	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	11.76 (2)	11.76 (2)	88.24 (15)	100 (17)
North-West Delhi	Owned	56.63 (47)	10.84 (9)	24.10 (20)	91.57 (76)	8.43 (7)	100 (83)
	Rented	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	17.65 (3)	17.65 (3)	82.35 (14)	100 (17)
Total	Owned	42.81 (140)	16.21 (53)	14.98 (49)	74.01 (242)	25.99 (85)	100 (327)
	Rented	1.37 (1)	0.00 (0)	26.03 (19)	27.40 (20)	72.60 (53)	100 (73)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The figures from above Table validate the observation made during field survey. The percentage of households having ration card is very low in rented category as compared to the households who owned their Jhuggi. In total rented households, only 27.40 per cent have ration cards, among which 26.03 per cent ration cards are made after implementation of NFSA in Delhi i.e. September, 2013 as BPL-PS or smart card issued under *Delhi Khadya Suraksha Yojana*.

However, only 1.37 rented households have BPL-PR (S) ration card and majority of them reported that they owned a Jhuggi in the same JJ-Cluster and the ration card was made on the address of that Jhuggi but due to some construction works such as expansion/construction of road, sewage line etc. their Jhuggi was demolished by landowning agency and now they live on rent, but retain the BPL-PR (S) card. It is well known that AAY ration card is for poorest of the poor and rented households in JJ-Clusters are one of them but irony is that, not a single rented household in present study have AAY ration card.

Among total households who owned their Jhuggi, 74.01 per cent have ration cards, in which 42.81 per cent have BPL-PR (S), 16.21 per cent have AAY and 14.98 per cent have BPL-PR. In this category, the percentage share of households having ration cards is high in North West Delhi (91.57 per cent) and North-East Delhi (80.72 per cent) as compared to South-West Delhi (58.02 per cent) and South Delhi (65 per cent).

The district wise percentage distribution of households who owned their Jhuggi by different type of ration cards shows that in most of the districts, the percentage share is very high for BPL-PR (S) ration card holders as compared to AAY and BPL-PR ration card holders except South-West Delhi in which BPL-PR card holder households is high in comparison to BPL-PR (S).

Overall it can be concluded that although there is a provision in TPDS that, if landlord or any neighbour give the guaranty for the tenants and allow them to use the address of current Jhuggi, tenants can apply and get the ration cards but due to the fear mentioned above, most of the landlords don't allow their tenants to use the address of Jhuggi (Walia, 2009) and hence the households live on rent don't have ration cards.

### 5.9.3 Duration of Stay and Possession of Ration Cards:

It has been confirmed by many studies (Edelman & Mitra, 2006; MacAuslan, 2011) that possibility to access PDS increases with the longer duration of stay of migrants in urban centre. Many factors are responsible for this relationship. When migrants first time come to urban centres, they generally face many problems related to housing, food, employment etc. and struggle for everything. They lack the basic knowledge about obtaining a ration card such as location of supply office, filling an appropriate form and attaching the relevant documents etc., but with longer duration of stay in city they acquire the knowledge about accessing the benefit of different schemes including PDS and collect the necessary documents to prove their urban identity. In this context, the details of the interrelationship between duration of stay of the head of the households in Delhi and possession of a ration card are discussed in this section.

**Table- 5.7 Percentage Distribution of Households by Duration of Stay of the HoH in Delhi and possession of Ration Cards**

Districts	Duration of Stay of HoH in Delhi	BPL-PR (S)	AAY	BPL-PR	Total Ration Card Holders	No Ration Card Holders	Total
South Delhi	<=10	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	100 (1)	100 (1)
	11-20	8.11 (3)	2.70 (1)	29.73 (11)	40.54 (15)	59.46 (22)	100 (37)
	21-30	50.00 (20)	17.50 (7)	12.50 (5)	80.00 (32)	20.00 (8)	100 (40)
	>=31	63.64 (14)	13.64 (3)	0.00 (0)	77.27 (17)	22.73 (5)	100 (22)
South-West Delhi	<=10	0.00 (0)	9.09 (1)	0.00 (0)	9.09 (1)	90.91 (10)	100 (11)
	11-20	7.32 (3)	0.00 (0)	34.15 (14)	41.46 (17)	58.54 (24)	100 (41)
	21-30	20.51 (8)	20.51 (8)	17.95 (7)	58.97 (23)	41.0 (16)	100 (39)
	>=31	66.67 (6)	33.33 (3)	0.00 (0)	100.00 (9)	0.00 (0)	100 (9)
North-East Delhi	<=10	0.00 (0)	20.00 (2)	10.00 (1)	30.00 (3)	70.00 (7)	100 (10)
	11-20	32.00 (8)	16.00 (4)	8.00 (2)	56.00 (14)	44.00 (11)	100 (25)
	21-30	46.81 (22)	21.28 (10)	8.51 (4)	76.60 (36)	23.40 (11)	100 (47)
	>=31	55.56 (10)	27.78 (5)	5.56 (1)	88.89 (16)	11.11 (2)	100 (18)
North-West Delhi	<=10	0.00 (0)	7.69 (1)	15.38 (2)	23.08 (3)	76.92 (10)	100 (13)
	11-20	16.67 (3)	0.00 (0)	50.00 (9)	66.67 (12)	33.33 (6)	100 (18)
	21-30	60.47 (26)	9.30 (4)	27.91 (12)	97.67 (42)	2.33 (1)	100 (43)
	>=31	69.23 (18)	15.38 (4)	0.00 (0)	84.62 (22)	15.38 (4)	100 (26)
Total	<=10	0.00 (0)	11.43 (4)	8.57 (3)	20.00 (7)	80.00 (28)	100 (35)
	11-20	14.05 (17)	4.13 (5)	29.75 (36)	47.93 (58)	52.07 (63)	100 (121)
	21-30	44.97 (76)	17.16 (29)	16.57 (28)	78.70 (133)	21.30 (36)	100 (169)
	>=31	64.00 (48)	20.00 (15)	1.33 (1)	85.33 (64)	14.67 (11)	100 (75)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The percentage distribution of households by duration of the stay of head of the households in Delhi and possession of ration cards shows that in sample households, the highest percentage of ration card is in the households in which head of the households is staying in Delhi from 21-30 year (85.33 per cent) and 30 or more year (78.70 per cent). However, the percentage of ration cards is comparatively low in the households, in which, head of the households is staying in Delhi from  $\leq 10$  year (20 per cent) and 11-20 year (47.93 per cent). This pattern is same in all districts.

The ration card wise percentage distribution of households shows that the highest percentage of BPL-PR (S) and AAY ration cards is in the households, in which, head of the households is staying in Delhi from a long period 21-20 year and 30 or more. However, the households in which head of the households is staying in Delhi from  $\leq 10$  year or 10-20 year, it is relatively low. This pattern is also same in all districts. The percentage of recently issued BPL-PR (smart card) is highest in the households, in which, head of the households is staying in Delhi from 11-20 year and 21-30 years. Only in North-East districts, the percentage share in this category is high in the households in which the head of the households is staying in Delhi from 10 or less year. The percentage share of the households with no ration cards is highest among the households in which duration of stay of head of the households is  $\leq 10$  year followed by 11-20 year.

The above analysis shows that with longer duration of stay of head of the households in Delhi the chances of having a ration card increases and this finding of present study support the existing studies mentioned above.

#### **5.9.5 The associational factors for possession of a Ration Card by Households in JJ Clusters- Binary Logistic Regression:**

To know the socio-economic factors associated with the possession of ration card by households in JJ-Clusters, a binary logistic regression has been done. The Odds Ratio (OR) provides the probability of having a ration card with each explanatory variable. The results from binary logistic regression show that in social groups, OBC (OR-1.344) and other category (OR-1.138) households have higher likelihood to have a ration card in comparison to SC households. In religious groups, Muslim households (OR-0.522) have less likelihood to have a ration card in comparison to Hindu. The ownership of Jhuggi has a positive relation with the possession of ration card as the rented households (OR-0.316,

p<0.01) in present study has less likelihood to have a ration card. The odds ratios for household-size show that, with increasing household size, the likelihood to have a ration card also increase.

**Table-5.8 Binary Logistic Regression for determining the factors associated to Possession of a Ration Card in JJ-Cluster**

Explanatory Variables		Having a Ration Card	
		Yes	No
		B Coefficient	Odds Ratio
Social Groups	Scheduled Caste®		
	Other Backward Caste	0.296	1.344
	General	0.130	1.138
Religion	Hindu®		
	Muslim	-0.651	0.522
Ownership of Jhuggi	Owned®		
	Rented	-1.153	0.316***
HH-Size	<=4®		
	5-8	0.406	1.500
	>=9	0.162	1.176
Current Employment Status of HoH	Self-Employed®		
	Regular Wage/Salaried Employees	-0.012	0.988
	Casual Labourers	0.178	1.195
Duration of Stay in Delhi	<=10®		
	11-20	1.121	3.069*
	21-30	2.249	9.476***
	>=31	2.638	13.986***
Land Owning Agency	Railway®		
	DDA	0.159	1.173
	MCD	-0.809	0.445*
	DUSIB	1.530	4.617***
Previous Social Network in Delhi	Yes®		
	No	-0.559	0.572
Constant		-1.444	0.236*
Total Households (N)		398	
Chi-Square		113.182***	
-2 Log Likelihood		399.279	
Cox & Snell R Square		0.248	
Nagelkerke R Square		0.342	

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Note- ® Reference Category, \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.10

The economic status of a family in JJ-Cluster depends on the current employment status of the head of the households. The odds ratios for current employment status of the head of the households show that in comparison to the households which have self-employed head of the household, the likelihood to have a ration card is 1.195 times more for households in which head of the households is casual labourer while it is less likely for the households in which head of the household is regular wages/salaried employees.

The odds ratios for duration of stay of head of the households indicate a positive relationship between possession of ration by a household and duration of stay. In comparison to the households in which head of the households is staying in Delhi from  $\leq 10$  year, the likelihood to have a ration is more for the households in which head of the households is staying in Delhi from 11-20 year (OR-3.069,  $p < 0.10$ ), 21-30 year (OR-9.476,  $p < 0.01$ ) and  $\geq 31$  year (OR-13.986,  $p < 0.01$ ). Therefore the results from logistic regression also support that with increasing duration of stay of the head of the households in Delhi, the chances to have a ration card by household also increases.

The land owning agency on which the JJ-Cluster is settled is also one of the important factors which indirectly affect the possession of ration card by households. The JJ-Clusters' households which are settled on the land of state government agency have higher chances to have residential proof and by this way they have higher chances to have a ration card. The odd ratio results for land owning agency show the same results. In comparison to the households who are settled on the land of railway, the likelihood to have a ration card is high for households who are settled on the land of DDA (OR-1.173) and DUSIB (OR-4.617,  $p < 0.01$ ). The previous social networks available to a household in Delhi have a positive relationship with possession of ration card. In comparison to the households which have a previous network in Delhi, the likelihood to have a ration card is less for those households which don't have a previous network in Delhi.

From the above logistic regression, it can be concluded that possession of a ration card by household depends especially on the ownership of Jhuggi, duration of stay of head of the household in Delhi and land owning agency on which JJ-Clusters' household is settled, because for these explanatory variables, the odds ratio is statistically significant.



### **5.10 BRIBE PAID TO OBTAIN A RATION CARD (ASKED ONLY TO THOSE HOUSEHOLDS WHO HAVE RATION CARD):**

It is a known fact that many times the authority involved to provide the benefit of any entitlements to the urban poor, take undue advantage of the lack of knowledge of urban poor to avail the entitlement. In this context, a question was asked during field survey to the sample households that whether households paid bribe to obtain a ration card or not and if paid, then what was the amount. Among 262 ration card holders, only 29 reported that they paid bribe to obtain a ration card which is 11.07 per cent of the total ration card holders. The percentage of households who had paid bribe to obtain a ration card is highest in South-West Delhi (16 per cent) followed by North-East Delhi (14.49 per cent).

**Table 5.9 Bribe Paid to obtain a Ration Card**

Districts	Yes	No	Total	Average Amount Paid as Bribe
South Delhi	6.25 (4)	93.75 (60)	100 (64)	525
South-West Delhi	16.00 (8)	84.00 (42)	100 (50)	500
North-East Delhi	14.49 (10)	85.51 (59)	100 (60)	1100
North-West Delhi	8.86 (7)	91.14 (72)	100 (79)	1057
Total	11.07 (29)	88.93 (233)	100 (262)	845

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.*

In present study, average amount paid by households as bribe to obtain a ration card is Rs. 845. The average amount of bribe to obtain a ration card in present study is highest in North-East Delhi (Rs. 1100) and North-West Delhi (Rs. 1057).

### **5.11 REASONS FOR NOT HAVING RATION CARD (ASKED ONLY TO THOSE HOUSEHOLDS WHO DON'T HAVE RATION CARD AT TIME OF FIELD SURVEY):**

In present study, 138 households reported that they don't have ration card which is 34.5 per cent of the sample households. It is very important to know about the reasons for not having a ration card by households and therefore, it was collected during field survey.

The respondents have given multiple reasons for not having ration card and therefore a multiple response analysis has been done to know the most prominent reason for not having a ration card by household. From 138 households who don't have ration card, total 267 responses have come, among which the highest percentage of response is for the reason that households don't fulfill the criteria to obtain a ration card (42.70 per cent) that means they don't have necessary documents for obtaining a ration card such as

address proof, name in electoral list etc. The second most important reason for not having a ration card given by respondents is that the household applied for ration card many times but rejected on various grounds (28.46 per cent) such as incompleteness of application form for ration card, document attached with application form is not valid etc.

Another reason in which a significant percentage of responses have come is that the head of the households don't want to lose his/her daily wage in the lengthy procedure of obtaining a ration card. The responses for this reason is very common in the households in which head of the households is working as a daily wage labourer. The district wise percentage share of responses for different reasons of not having a ration card shows the same pattern.

**Table-5.10 Multiple Response Analysis for reasons of not having a Ration Card by Households**

Districts (Number of Households not having Ration Cards)	Percentage of Response	Does Not have Knowledge how and where to apply	Does not have understanding of different type of cards	HHs Does not fulfill the criteria	Don't want to lose daily wages	Applied many times but rejected on various grounds	total
<b>South Delhi (36)</b>	% Response	4.41	2.94	44.12	22.06	26.47	100
	N	3	2	30	15	18	68
<b>South-West Delhi (50)</b>	% Response	0.93	6.48	39.81	25.00	27.78	100
	N	1	7	43	27	30	108
<b>North-East Delhi (31)</b>	% Response	1.69	8.47	42.37	16.95	30.51	100
	N	1	5	25	10	18	59
<b>North-West Delhi (21)</b>	% Response	0.00	6.25	50.00	12.50	31.25	100
	N	0	2	16	4	10	32
<b>Total (138)</b>	% Response	1.87	5.99	42.70	20.97	28.46	100
	N	5	16	114	56	76	267

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The lack of knowledge about how and where to apply for ration card and the lack of understanding about different types of card are other reasons given by respondents for not having a ration card but the percentage share of responses for these two reasons is very insignificant in comparison to the above mentioned reasons.

Therefore, it can be concluded from above analysis that not fulfilling the criteria for obtaining a ration card is the most prominent reason for not having a ration card by household followed by rejection of application form for ration card by issuing authority.

## 5.12 INFORMATIONS RELATED TO FAIR PRICE SHOPS:

### 5.12.1 Location of Fair Price Shop:

In total 262 ration card holders, 53.82 per cent reported that they avail ration from the fair price shop (FPS) located inside JJ-Cluster where they live and 36.64 per cent reported that they avail ration from the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster. Only 9.54 per cent reported that although a fair price shop is located inside the JJ-Cluster where they live but their ration card is enrolled with fair price shop located outside JJ-Cluster therefore they get ration from that FPS.

**Table-5.11 Location of Fair Price Shop from which HHs get ration**

Districts	Clusters	HHs are availing Ration from FPS (inside JJ-Cluster)	FPS is not inside JJ-Cluster, HHs are availing Ration from FPS located Out Side Cluster	FPS is in-side JJ-Cluster but HH is getting ration from FPS, Outside Cluster	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	90.00 (27)	0.00 (0)	10.00 (3)	100 (30)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	52.94 (18)	0.00 (0)	47.06 (16)	100 (34)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	0.00 (0)	100.00 (28)	0.00 (0)	100 (28)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	95.45 (21)	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	100 (22)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0.00 (0)	100.00 (31)	0.00 (0)	100 (31)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	89.47 (34)	0.00 (0)	10.53 (4)	100 (38)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	0.00 (0)	100.00 (37)	0.00 (0)	100 (37)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	97.62 (41)	0.00	2.38 (1)	100 (42)
<b>Grand-Total (N=262)</b>		<b>53.82 (141)</b>	<b>36.64 (96)</b>	<b>9.54 (25)</b>	<b>100 (262)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

It has been found during field survey that fair price shop is not available in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj; Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh. Therefore, all ration card holders from these JJ-Clusters get their ration from the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster. In other JJ-Clusters, fair price shop is located inside JJ-Cluster, therefore majority of the ration card holders in these JJ-Clusters get ration from FPS located inside JJ-Cluster.

The percentage share of the households who get ration from the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster (although the FPS is available inside JJ-Cluster, where they live) is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (47.06 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (10.53 per cent). From the above analysis, it can be concluded that majority of the households in present study get ration from the FPS located inside JJ-Cluster. In few JJ-Clusters, the FPS is not available. Therefore, the households living in these JJ-Clusters have to take ration from the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster where their ration card is enrolled.

#### **5.12.2 Distance of FPS, Money (in Rs.) and Time (in Hours) Spend by Households to access the ration and Average Opening Days and distribution of ration from FPS in a Month:**

The information related to the distance of FPS (in Km.) and money and time spend to get the ration from the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster was collected during field survey from the households who were getting their ration from the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster.

The results from field survey shows that the average distance of FPS located outside JJ-Cluster in present study is 2.11 km and the average money spend by households to get the ration from FPS (as travel cost) is Rs. 44.30. The highest average distance of the FPS located outside JJ-Cluster in present study is for the ration card holders of Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (2.93 km.) followed by JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (2.50 km.), JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (2.05 km.) and JJ-Cluster, Wazipur (2 km.). The average money spent (as travel cost) to get ration from FPS located outside JJ-Cluster is also highest for the ration card holders in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (Rs. 56.07), JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (Rs. 50.65).

**Table-5.12 Average Distance of FPS, Average Money and Time Spend of HHs and Average Opening days and distribution of ration from FPS in a Month**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Average Distance of FPS in Km. (If FPS is not available in JJ-Cluster or FPS is available in Cluster but HH is getting Ration from FPS Outside Cluster) N=121	Travel Cost( If FPS is not available in JJ-Cluster or FPS is available in Cluster but HH is getting Ration from Outside Cluster)to get Ration N-121	Average Total Time Spend by Member of HHs to Get Ration N=262	Average Opening Days and Distribution of Ration from FPS in a Month N=262
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	1.67	40.00	3.23	3
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	1.16	25.63	4.09	2
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	2.93	56.07	4.25	2
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	1.00	20.00	4.00	5
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	1.97	50.65	7.00	5
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	2.50	37.50	2.16	7
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	2.05	40.27	3.27	6
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	2.00	30.00	1.69	12
<b>Total</b>		<b>2.11</b>	<b>44.30</b>	<b>3.56</b>	<b>5</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

In present study, the average total time spent by ration card holders to get the ration from FPS is 3.56 hours. It is very high for the ration card holders of Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (7 hours), Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (4.25 hours), Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (4.09 hours) and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (4 hours).

The lowest time spent for getting the ration from FPS is reported by the ration card holders of JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (1.69 hours) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (2.16 hours). The average total time spent by ration card holders in present study is directly related to the opening days of FPS and distribution of ration from FPS in a month. The JJ-Cluster in which the average opening days of FPS and distribution of ration from FPS is relatively high, the average total time spent by ration card holders is comparatively low.

The average opening days and distribution of ration from FPS is not very high in all JJ-Clusters. The maximum days of opening and distribution of ration from FPS is reported in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur. Except these two JJ-Clusters, the average opening days of FPS and distribution of ration from FPS is only 2-5 days. Out of 262 ration card holders, 90.46 per cent reported that the opening days of FPS are not adequate. In most of the JJ-Clusters, respondents reported the same response (see Appendix Table A5.1).

### 5.12.3 The date of opening of FPS in a month is fixed or not?

The date of opening of FPS in month is very important indicator to know about the functioning of FPS. Therefore, it was asked during field survey that whether the date of opening of FPS in a month is fixed or not. In total 262 ration card holders, 79.77 per cent reported that the date of opening of FPS is not fixed. The percentage response for ‘the date of opening of FPS is not fixed’ is very high in all JJ-Clusters except Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha.

**Table-5.13 Date of Opening of FPS in a month is fixed or not?**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	The date of opening of FPS in a Month is fixed or Not?		
		Fixed	Not-Fixed	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	10.00 (3)	90.00 (27)	100 (30)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	35.29 (12)	64.71 (22)	100 (34)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	3.57 (1)	96.43 (27)	100 (28)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	36.36 (8)	63.64 (14)	100 (22)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	6.45 (2)	93.55 (29)	100 (31)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	13.16 (5)	86.84 (33)	100 (38)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	27.03 (10)	72.97 (27)	100 (37)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	28.57 (12)	71.43 (30)	100 (42)
<b>Grand-Total (262)</b>		20.23 (53)	79.77 (209)	100 (262)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The respondents reported that, because the date of opening of FPS in a month is not fixed, many times they could not able to lift their quota due to unavailability of

money or due to all family members went to native place for some reason in the same time period when FPS distributed ration to all ration card holders.

#### 5.12.4 Information about Availability of Ration at FPS and its Opening:

The information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening is very important for the ration card holders to lift the quota from FPS. Therefore, it was asked during field survey that whether the households regularly get the information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening, and if yes, then what is the main source from which they get the information.

Out of total 262 ration card holders, 88.93 per cent reported that they regularly get the information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening. In most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage is very high for the households who regularly get the information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening (see Appendix Table- A5.2).

**Table-5.14 Percentage distribution of main Source from which the HHs get information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening**

Districts	Clusters	The main source from which HHs get information of availability of Ration at FPS and its opening			
		Through Message on Mobile	Through Neighbour	Go to FPS for Enquiry	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	28.17 (8)	71.43 (20)	0.00 (0)	100 (28)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	50.00 (16)	40.63 (13)	9.37 (3)	100 (32)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	100 (18)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	100 (18)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	0.00 (0)	86.36 (19)	13.64 (3)	100 (22)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	100 (28)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	100 (28)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	36.36 (12)	57.58 (19)	6.06 (2)	100 (33)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	96.97 (32)	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	100 (33)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	82.05 (32)	17.95 (7)	0.00 (0)	100 (39)
<b>Grand-Total (233)</b>		62.66 (146)	33.91 (79)	3.43 (8)	100 (233)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

Among the households which regularly get the information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening, 62.66 per cent reported that they get SMS for the availability of ration at FPS from Food & Supply Department of NCT of Delhi, 33.91 per

cent reported that they get the information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening from their neighbour and only 3.43 per cent reported that they go regularly to FPS for enquiry of the availability of ration at FPS and its opening.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution shows that the percentage share of the households which get SMS based information is very high in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (100 per cent), Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (100 per cent), JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (96.97 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (82.05 per cent).

The percentage share of the households which get information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening from their neighbour is highest in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (86.36 per cent), V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (71.43 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (57.58 per cent).

Only few ration card holders from Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (13.64 per cent), Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (9.38 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (6.06 per cent) reported that they go to FPS regularly to get the information about availability of ration at FPS and its opening.

It can be concluded from above analysis that the SMS based information and neighbour are the main source from which households get information about opening and distribution of ration from FPS.

### **5.13 HOUSEHOLDS' KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE QUOTA ALLOTTED FOR DIFFERENT COMMODITIES ON THEIR RATION CARD:**

It has been discussed already that, the quantity allotted for rice, wheat and sugar is different for each type of ration card. Therefore, it is very important for a ration card holder to know about the quota allotted on his/her ration card for different items, so that he/she can avail the exact quantity. In this context, the knowledge about the quota allotted on the ration card possessed by household for different commodity was collected during field survey from the households who reported that they have ration card.

In total 262 ration card holders, 88.17 per cent reported that they have knowledge about the quota allotted for different commodities on their ration card. However, 11.83 per cent reported that they don't have knowledge about the quota allotted for different commodities on their ration cards.



**Table-5.15 Percentage distribution of households by Knowledge of quotas allotted on their card for different commodities**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Does the HHs have Knowledge about the quotas allotted for different commodities on their particular cards		
		Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	96.67 (29)	3.33 (1)	100 (30)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	85.29 (29)	14.71 (5)	100 (34)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	92.86 (26)	7.14 (2)	100 (28)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	86.36 (19)	13.64 (3)	100 (22)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	96.77 (30)	3.23 (1)	100 (31)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	89.47 (34)	10.53 (4)	100 (38)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	83.78 (31)	16.22 (6)	100 (37)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	78.57 (33)	21.43 (9)	100 (42)
<b>Grand-Total (N=262)</b>		88.17 (231)	11.83 (31)	100 (262)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of households according to their knowledge about the quota allotted for different commodities on their particular ration card shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, the percentage of households having knowledge about the quotas allotted for different commodities on their ration cards is very high (80-95 per cent). Only in JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, it is slightly less as compared to the other JJ-Cluster.

It shows that the ration card holders in present study are well aware about the quotas of different commodities allotted on their respective ration cards.

#### **5.14 THE SHARE OF PDS IN TOTAL CONSUMPTION OF HOUSEHOLDS FOR RICE, WHEAT AND SUGAR:**

It is well known that ration card holders get rice, wheat and sugar from PDS at subsidized rate. Therefore, it is imperative to know the percentage share of PDS into total consumption of rice, wheat and sugar, so that, the dependency of households on PDS for different commodities can be assessed.

The percentage share of PDS in total consumption of rice and wheat for each type of ration card shows that the percentage share of PDS for rice is highest for the AAY

ration card holders (30.95 per cent) followed by BPL-PR (S) (15.34 per cent) and BPL-PR (14.69 per cent) ration card holders, however, the percentage share of PDS for wheat is also highest for AAY ration card holders (51.83 per cent) followed by BPL-PR (S) (40.62 per cent) and BPL-PR (39.82 per cent) ration card holders.

**Table-5.16 Percentage share of PDS in total consumption of Rice, Wheat and Sugar in a Month (Quantity in %)**

<b>PDS Dependency: Rice</b>									
<b>District</b>	<b>BPL-PR (S)</b>			<b>AAY</b>			<b>BPL-PR</b>		
	<b>PDS</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>PDS</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>PDS</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>South Delhi</b>	10.31	89.69	100	25.64	74.36	100	10.15	89.85	100
<b>South-West Delhi</b>	16.16	83.84	100	26.89	73.11	100	17.86	82.14	100
<b>North-East Delhi</b>	17.70	82.30	100	32.53	67.47	100	17.99	82.01	100
<b>North-West Delhi</b>	18.00	82.00	100	46.15	53.85	100	16.23	83.77	100
<b>Total</b>	15.34	84.66	100	30.95	69.05	100	14.69	85.31	100
<b>PDS Dependency: Wheat</b>									
<b>South Delhi</b>	35.11	64.89	100	55.16	44.84	100	44.36	55.64	100
<b>South-West Delhi</b>	43.59	56.41	100	46.02	53.98	100	37.72	62.28	100
<b>North-East Delhi</b>	42.30	57.70	100	56.28	43.72	100	46.63	53.37	100
<b>North-West Delhi</b>	42.23	57.77	100	47.71	52.29	100	37.69	62.31	100
<b>Total</b>	40.62	59.38	100	51.83	48.17	100	39.82	60.18	100
<b>PDS Dependency: Sugar</b>									
<b>South Delhi</b>	43.31	56.69	100	45.38	54.62	100			
<b>South-West Delhi</b>	49.83	50.17	100	54.44	45.56	100			
<b>North-East Delhi</b>	50.44	49.56	100	52.28	47.72	100			
<b>North-West Delhi</b>	51.34	48.66	100	56.89	43.11	100			
<b>Total</b>	49.22	50.78	100	52.51	47.49	100			

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district wise percentage share of the PDS for rice and wheat follows the same pattern as in total. The results from above Table shows that the dependency of households on PDS is more for wheat as compared to rice, because in each type of ration card holders, the percentage share of PDS in total consumption of wheat is comparatively high from the percentage share of PDS in total consumption of rice.

It has been mentioned already that only BPL-PR (S) and AAY ration card holders are entitled to get sugar from FPS. For both type of ration card holders, the percentage share of PDS in total consumption of sugar is very high which is 49.22 per cent for BPL-PR (S) and 52.51 per cent for AAY ration card holders. Except ration card holders of

South Delhi, in all other districts, the percentage share of PDS in total consumption of sugar is more than 50 per cent which shows that the dependency of households on PDS is highest for sugar in comparison to other commodities.

It can be concluded that, majority of the ration card holders are still dependent on open market for rice and wheat because the quantity provided by PDS for these items are not sufficient enough for the total consumption of households in a month.

#### **5.15 AVERAGE EXPENDITURE ON RICE, WHEAT AND SUGAR PURCHASED FROM THE OPEN MARKET BY HOUSEHOLDS IN A MONTH:**

In the previous section, the dependency of households on PDS has been discussed and it has been found that PDS is not sufficient enough to provide adequate amount of food grains to the beneficiaries and they are largely dependent on open market especially for wheat and rice. In this context, it is very important to know the average expenditure on rice, wheat and sugar purchased by households from open market. In present section, the average expenditure on these items has been calculated for both type of households-the households who have ration cards and the households who don't have, so that, differences can be found out among them.

For the households having ration card, the average monthly expenditure on rice, wheat and sugar from open market is Rs. 642.92, Rs. 503.50 and Rs. 219.50 respectively. However, for the households who don't have ration card, the average monthly expenditure on rice, wheat and sugar from open market is Rs. 752.50, Rs. 629.31 and Rs. 248.20 respectively. It shows that the average monthly expenditure on these items from open market is relatively higher for the households who don't have ration card in comparison to those households who have ration card. This result is same at district level also.

The district wise average monthly expenditure on rice from open market shows that among the households who have ration card, the average monthly expenditure on rice from open market is highest in South Delhi (Rs. 844.15) while, among the households who don't have ration card, it is highest in South-West Delhi (Rs. 844.69). The reason can be explained by the origin states from which these households have migrated to Delhi. In JJ-Clusters of South Delhi and South-West Delhi, most of the migrants are from

Bihar and Uttar Pradesh in which rice is part of daily diet; therefore they spend more for the rice.

**Table-5.17 Average Monthly Expenditure on Rice, Wheat and Sugar from open market in a Month (in Rupees)**

Districts	Average Monthly Expenditure on items purchased from Open Market in a Month		
	Rice	Wheat	Sugar
<b>The Households which have Ration Cards</b>			
<b>South Delhi (64)</b>	844.15	481.81	185.89
<b>South-West Delhi (50)</b>	690.94	548.16	256.53
<b>North-East Delhi (69)</b>	562.59	453.39	201.43
<b>North-West Delhi (79)</b>	528.53	535.26	229.56
<b>Total (262)</b>	642.92	503.50	219.04
<b>The Households which don't have Ration Cards</b>			
<b>South Delhi (36)</b>	840.69	525.69	209.64
<b>South-West Delhi (50)</b>	844.69	660.20	272.48
<b>North-East Delhi (31)</b>	616.29	682.58	263.26
<b>North-West Delhi (21)</b>	587.29	654.76	234.29
<b>Total (138)</b>	752.50	629.31	248.20

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).*

Among the households having ration card, the average monthly expenditure for wheat from open market is highest in South West Delhi (Rs. 548.16) and North-West Delhi (Rs. 535.26) while among the households who don't have ration card, the average monthly expenditure for wheat is highest in North-East Delhi (Rs. 682.58), South-West Delhi (Rs. 660.20) and North-West Delhi (Rs. 654.76). These are districts in which a significant number of households are from Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan where wheat is the part of main diet and hence they spend more for wheat. The average monthly expenditure for sugar from open market is highest in South-West Delhi for both types of households.

#### **5.16 DISCREPANCIES REPORTED IN PDS:**

The leakages, malpractice and other discrepancies are very common in PDS which has been reported by ration card holders in many studies. Therefore, in present study also the information related to discrepancies in PDS reported by ration card holders has been collected and analysed.

### 5.16.1 Does the Household get full Quota allotted on their Ration Card from FPS?

Out of 262 ration card holders, 60.31 per cent reported that they get full quota of ration allotted on their ration cards from FPS. However, 39.69 per cent ration card holders reported that they don't get full quota allotted on their ration cards from FPS which is a significant percent in total ration card holders. The highest percentage share of ration card holders who don't get full quota from FPS is in South Delhi (53.13 per cent) followed by North-East Delhi (47.83 per cent).

**Table-5.18 Percentage of Households getting full quota allotted on their Ration Card**

Districts	HHs get Full Quota		
	Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	46.88 (30)	53.13 (34)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	80.00 (40)	20.00 (10)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	52.17 (36)	47.83 (33)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	65.82 (52)	34.18 (27)	100 (79)
Total	60.31 (158)	39.69 (104)	100 (262)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

A subsequent question regarding the reasons for not getting full quota from FPS has been asked from the ration card holders who have reported that they don't get full quota. Out of 104 households, who don't get full quota from FPS, total 121 responses have come for different reasons for not getting full quota from FPS.

**Table-5.19 Multiple Response Analysis for not getting full quota from FPS**

Districts (Number of Ration Card Holders Not Getting Full Quota)	Percentage of Response	Supply of Ration is not regular at FPS	Lack of Cash at the time when grain is available at FPS	FPS owner refused to give full Quota	total
South Delhi (34)	% Response	5.41	2.70	91.89	100
	N	2	1	34	37
South-West Delhi (10)	% Response	0	9.09	90.91	100
	N	0	1	10	11
North-East Delhi (33)	% Response	27.27	0	72.73	100
	N	12	0	32	44
North-West Delhi (27)	% Response	6.90	0	93.10	100
	N	2	0	27	29
Total (104)	% Response	13.22	1.65	85.12	100
	N	16	2	103	121

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The highest percentage of responses is for the reason that the owner of FPS refuse to give full quota (85.12 per cent) followed by supply of ration is not regular at FPS (13.22 per cent). The district wise percentage share of responses for different reasons for not getting full quota from FPS shows the same pattern.

It was asked to the respondents that why they don't file a complaint against FPS owner. They answered that- *nothing will happen to the FPS owner because; there is a nexus between authorities of ration office and FPS owner. If any how they file a complaint against FPS owner, they get threat from FPS owner and their ration card can be concealed by authorities.* It is well known fact that ration card is one of the main documents to prove urban identity and nobody wants to lose it in JJ-Cluster. This is the main reason that not a single household in present study has dare to file complain against the malpractice of FPS owner.

#### **5.16.2 The differences between quantity allotted on ration cards and the quantity received by ration card holders:**

In the previous section, it has already been discussed that ration card holders don't get full quota allotted on their ration card and the main reason is that the FPS owner declines to give full quota allotted on their ration card for different items. In this context, the present section provides the details of the differences between quantity allotted for different items on ration card and the quantity received by ration card holders according to different type of ration card.

##### **A) For BPL-PR (S) Ration Card Holders:**

The entitlement for BPL-Priority list households with Sugar [BPL-PR (S)] is 1 kg rice per person per month, 4 kg wheat per person per month and 6 kg sugar per card per month. The percentage distribution of BPL-PR (S) card holders according to the differences in the quantity allotted for rice on their ration card and the quantity received shows that in total 141 ration card holders, 75.18 per cent reported that they get full quota of rice allotted on their ration card, 20.57 per cent reported that they get 1-3 kg less and only 4.26 per cent reported that they get 4-6 kg less quantity of rice allotted on their ration card.

The percentage of the BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who have reported that they get 1-3 kg less quantity of rice allotted on the ration card is highest in North-West Delhi

(31.91 per cent) followed by South Delhi (21.62 per cent). However the percentage of the BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who have reported that they get 4-6 kg less quantity of rice allotted on their ration cards is highest in North-East Delhi (7.50 per cent).

In comparison to BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who have reported 4-6 kg less quantity of rice received from FPS, the percentage is high for the ration card holders who have reported 1-3 kg less quantity of rice received from FPS in all districts.

**Table-5.20 Percentage distribution of the BPL-PR (S) ration card holders according to the differences in the quantity allotted for Rice, Wheat and Sugar and the quantity received for these items from FPS**

Difference: Rice				
Districts	Full Quota	1-3 Kg Less	4-6 Kg Less	Total
South Delhi	75.68 (28)	21.62 (8)	2.70 (1)	100 (37)
South-West Delhi	94.12 (16)	5.88 (1)	0.00 (0)	100 (17)
North-East Delhi	80.00 (32)	12.50 (5)	7.50 (3)	100 (40)
North-West Delhi	63.83 (30)	31.91 (15)	4.26 (2)	100 (47)
<b>Total</b>	<b>75.18 (106)</b>	<b>20.57 (29)</b>	<b>4.26 (6)</b>	<b>100 (141)</b>
Difference: Wheat				
Districts	Full Quota	1-10 Kg Less	11-24 Kg Less	Total
South Delhi	75.68 (28)	18.92 (7)	5.41 (2)	100 (37)
South-West Delhi	94.12 (16)	5.88 (1)	0.00 (0)	100 (17)
North-East Delhi	62.50 (25)	25.00 (10)	12.50 (5)	100 (40)
North-West Delhi	59.57 (28)	34.04 (16)	6.38 (3)	100 (47)
<b>Total</b>	<b>68.79 (97)</b>	<b>24.11 (34)</b>	<b>7.09 (10)</b>	<b>100 (141)</b>
Differences: Sugar				
Districts	Full Quota	1-3 Kg Less	4-6 Kg Less	Total
South Delhi	16.22 (6)	72.97 (27)	10.81 (4)	100 (37)
South-West Delhi	76.47 (13)	23.53 (4)	0.00 (0)	100 (17)
North-East Delhi	42.50 (17)	52.50 (21)	5.00 (2)	100 (40)
North-West Delhi	70.21 (33)	29.79 (14)	0.00 (0)	100 (47)
<b>Total</b>	<b>48.94 (69)</b>	<b>46.81 (66)</b>	<b>4.26 (6)</b>	<b>100 (141)</b>

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.*

In case of wheat, out of total 141 BPL-PR (S) ration card holders, 68.79 per cent reported that they get full quota of wheat allotted on their ration card, 24.11 per cent reported that they get 1-10 kg less and 7.09 per cent reported that they get 11-24 kg less quantity of wheat allotted on their ration cards. The percentage of BPL-PR (S) ration card holders

who have reported 1-10 kg less quantity of wheat received from FPS is highest in North-West Delhi (34.04 per cent) followed by North-East Delhi (25 per cent). However the percentage of BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who have reported that they get 11-24 kg less quantity of wheat from FPS is highest in North-East Delhi (12.50 per cent).

In case of wheat, the percentage of BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who have reported 1-10 kg less quantity of wheat is relatively high in each district in comparison to the households who get 11-24 kg less quantity of wheat.

In comparison to rice and wheat, the percentage of BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who get less quantity of sugar is very high. In total 141 ration card holders, 48.94 per cent reported that they get full quota of sugar allotted on their ration card. However, 46.81 per cent reported that they get 1-3 kg less sugar allotted on their ration card, and 4.26 per cent reported that they get 4-6 kg less sugar allotted on their ration card. The percentage of BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who get 1-3 kg less quantity of sugar is highest in South Delhi (72.97 per cent) followed by North-East Delhi (52.50 per cent). However, the percentage of BPL-PR (S) ration card holders who get 4-6 kg less quantity of sugar is highest in South Delhi.

It can be easily found out that in most of the districts, the percentage of ration card holders who get 1-3 kg less quantity of sugar is highest in comparison to the households who have reported that they get 4-6 kg less quantity of sugar. The percentage of ration card holders with highest difference for the allotted and received quantity of sugar is in South Delhi.

#### **B) For AAY Ration Card Holders:**

The entitlement of AAY ration card holders is 10 kg rice per card per month, 25 kg wheat per card per month and 6 kg sugar per card per month. The percentage distribution of AAY card holders according to the differences in the quantity allotted for rice on their ration card and the quantity received shows that in total 53 AAY ration card holders in present study, 94.34 per cent reported that they get full quota of rice allotted on their ration card while only 5.66 per cent reported that they get 5 kg less. Except South Delhi, in all other districts the AAY ration card holders who get full quota is very high. It shows that most of the AAY ration card holders in present study are getting full quota of rice allotted on their ration card.



The condition is not same for wheat and sugar. Out of 53 AAY ration card holders, 58.49 per cent reported that they get full quota of wheat allotted on their ration card. However, 35.85 per cent reported that they get 5 kg less quantity of wheat allotted on their ration card and 5.66 per cent reported that they get 10 kg less quantity of wheat allotted on their ration card. The percentage of AAY ration card holders who get 5 kg less quantity of wheat is highest in South Delhi (45.45 per cent) followed by North-West Delhi (44.44 per cent) and South-West Delhi (41.67 per cent). However the percentage of AAY ration card holders who get 10 kg less quantity of rice is highest in South Delhi (18.18 per cent). It shows that a significant percentage of AAY ration card holders in each districts are getting 5 kg less quantity of wheat allotted on their ration card.

**Table-5.21 Percentage distribution of the AAY ration card holders according to the differences in the quantity allotted for Rice, Wheat and Sugar and the quantity received for these items from FPS**

Differences: Rice				
Districts	Full Quota	5 Kg Less	Total	
South Delhi	81.82 (9)	18.18 (2)	100 (11)	
South-West Delhi	100.00 (12)	0.00 (0)	100 (12)	
North-East Delhi	95.24 (20)	4.76 (1)	100 (21)	
North-West Delhi	100.00 (9)	0.00 (0)	100 (9)	
<b>Total</b>	<b>94.34 (50)</b>	<b>5.66 (3)</b>	<b>100 (53)</b>	
Differences: Wheat				
Districts	Full Quota	5 Kg Less	10 Kg Less	Total
South Delhi	36.36 (4)	45.45 (5)	18.18 (2)	100 (11)
South-West Delhi	58.33 (7)	41.67 (5)	0.00 (0)	100 (12)
North-East Delhi	76.19 (16)	23.81 (5)	0.00 (0)	100 (21)
North-West Delhi	44.44 (4)	44.44 (4)	11.11 (1)	100 (9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>58.49 (31)</b>	<b>35.85 (19)</b>	<b>5.66 (3)</b>	<b>100 (53)</b>
Differences: Sugar				
Districts	Full Quota	1-2 Kg Less	2.5-6 Kg less	Total
South Delhi	0.00 (0)	45.45 (5)	54.55 (6)	100 (11)
South-West Delhi	83.33 (10)	8.33 (1)	8.33 (1)	100 (12)
North-East Delhi	76.19 (16)	19.05 (4)	4.76 (1)	100 (21)
North-West Delhi	88.89 (8)	11.11 (1)	0.00 (0)	100 (9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>64.15 (34)</b>	<b>20.75 (11)</b>	<b>15.09 (8)</b>	<b>100 (53)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The percentage distribution of AAY ration card holders according to the quantity of sugar they get shows that out of 53 AAY ration card holders, 64.15 per cent reported that they get full quantity of sugar allotted on their ration card, 20.75 per cent reported that they get 1-2 kg less quantity of sugar allotted on their ration card and 15.09 per cent reported that they get 2.5 to 6 kg less quantity of sugar provided on their ration card. Not a single AAY ration card holder households from South Delhi reported that they get full quota of sugar allotted on their ration cards. Therefore, the percentage of AAY ration card holders who have reported 1-2 kg less quantity of sugar and 2.5 to 6 kg less quantity of sugar allotted on their ration card is very high in South Delhi, which 45.45 per cent and 54.55 per cent respectively. In comparison to South Delhi, the percentage share of AAY ration card holders who get 1-2 kg less quantity of sugar and 2.5-6 kg less quantity of sugar is low in other districts.

From above analysis, it can be said that a significant percentage of AAY ration card holders are getting less quantity of wheat and sugar from FPS, while for rice, the condition is much better in comparison to wheat and sugar.

**C) For BPL-PR Ration Card Holders:**

After implementation of NFSA, 2013 in Delhi, a BPL-PR ration card (smart card) has been issued to priority households who don't have BPL-PR (S) or AAY ration card. The entitlement on this card is 1 kg rice per person per month and 4 kg wheat per person per month. There is no sugar entitlement on this card.

The percentage distribution of BPL-PR ration card holders in following Table-5.22 shows that the differences between the quantity of rice and wheat allotted on their ration card and quantity received by them from FPS is very insignificant in comparison to BPL-PR (S) and AAY ration card holders. For rice, only 1.47 per cent BPL-PR ration card holders reported that they get 1 kg less quantity allotted on their ration card and for wheat; it is slightly higher (10.29 per cent).

It shows that most of the households having BPL-PR card are getting full quota of rice and wheat allotted on their ration card. Only in North-East Delhi, 62.50 per cent BPL-PR ration card holders reported that they get 1 kg less amount of wheat allotted on their ration card. In all other districts, the percentage of BPL-PR ration card holders having full quota of wheat and rice both is very high.

**Table-5.22 Percentage distribution of the BPL-PR ration card holders according to the differences in the quantity allotted for Rice and Wheat and the quantity received for these items from FPS**

<b>Differences: Rice</b>			
<b>Districts</b>	<b>Full Quota</b>	<b>1 Kg Less</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>South Delhi</b>	100.00 (16)	0.00 (0)	100 (16)
<b>South-West Delhi</b>	95.24 (20)	4.76 (1)	100 (21)
<b>North-East Delhi</b>	100.00 (8)	0.00 (0)	100 (8)
<b>North-West Delhi</b>	100.00 (23)	0.00 (0)	100 (23)
<b>Total</b>	98.53 (67)	1.47 (1)	100 (68)
<b>Differences: Wheat</b>			
<b>South Delhi</b>	100.00 (16)	0.00 (0)	100 (16)
<b>South-West Delhi</b>	95.24 (20)	4.76 (1)	100 (21)
<b>North-East Delhi</b>	37.50 (3)	62.50 (5)	100 (5)
<b>North-West Delhi</b>	95.65 (22)	4.35 (1)	100 (23)
<b>Total</b>	89.71 (61)	10.29 (7)	100 (68)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

Over all, it can be concluded from above analysis that except BPL-PR ration card holders, the differences in the total quantity of items (rice, wheat and sugar) allotted on other type of ration cards and the total quantity received by ration card holders is significantly high. It is also one form of malpractice followed by FPS owners in different JJ-Clusters. During field survey it was asked to one of the FPS owner that why you don't give full quota to ration card holders, he answered that “*Sir, I have to give money to the authority to retain my FPS and if I will not give it timely, they can raid on my FPS and can stop it by any means. I have to pay rent for the shop also and in this condition, if I will give full quantity then how will I survive.*”

### **5.16.3 The frequency of non-availability of Ration allotted to the Ration Card Holders at FPS in last 6 months:**

The regular availability of ration is also an important issue in PDS. The frequency of non-availability of ration at FPS in last 6 month was collected during field survey and can be classified as follows according to the response given by respondents: Never, only one times, two times, more than two times

Out of 262 ration card holders in present study, 45.42 per cent reported that it never happened in last 6 months that the ration allotted on their ration cards was not available at FPS, 17.94 per cent ration card holders reported that it has happened only one

time in last 6 month that the ration allotted on their ration cards was not available at FPS. The percentage is same for the ration card holders who reported that in last 6 months; two times it happened that the ration allotted on their ration card was not available at FPS. The percentage of the ration card holders who reported more than two times non-availability of ration at FPS in last 6 months is slightly higher (18.70 per cent) in comparison to those who have reported only one times or two times.

**Table-5.23 Percentage distribution of Ration Card Holders according to the frequency of non-availability of their quota at FPS in last 6 month**

Districts	How Many Time in Last 6 Months, the Ration Allotted to Ration Card Holders was not available at FPS				
	Never	Only One time	Two Times	More than two times	Total
South Delhi	31.25 (20)	18.75 (12)	15.63 (10)	34.38 (22)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	54.00 (27)	28.00 (14)	8.00 (4)	10.00 (5)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	56.52 (39)	11.59 (8)	11.59 (8)	20.29 (14)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	41.77 (33)	16.46 (13)	31.65 (25)	10.13 (8)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	45.52 (119)	17.94 (47)	17.94 (47)	18.70 (49)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.*

The district wise percentage distribution of the ration card holders shows that except South Delhi, the percentage is significantly high for the ration card holders who have reported that in last 6 months, it never happened that the ration allotted to them was not available at FPS. The percentage of ration card holders who have reported only one time non-availability of ration is highest in South-West Delhi (28 per cent). However the percentage of ration card holders who have reported two times and more than two times non-availability of ration is highest in North-West Delhi (31.65 per cent) and South Delhi (34.38 per cent) respectively.

It can be concluded from above analysis that a significant percentage (44 to 69) of ration card holders in different districts have suffered from the non-availability of ration allotted to them at FPS in last 6 months.

#### **5.16.4 Quota sold in the open market or Appropriated by Someone else:**

It is a bitter reality in PDS that many times if the ration card holders don't lift the quota allotted on their ration card timely, the FPS owner sold it in the open market or it is appropriated by someone else. Therefore, in present study it was asked from respondents that if they don't lift their quota from FPS any time in the past, do they believe that it is

sold by FPS owner in open market or it is appropriated by someone else. In total 262 ration card holders, 45.42 per cent reported that they are not sure about it, 33.97 per cent reported that it happened many times to them, 6.87 per cent reported that it happened only once to them and 13.74 per cent reported that they don't believe that the FPS owner sold the their quota in open market or it is appropriated by someone else.

The percentage of ration card holders who were not sure about the sale of their quota in open market by FPS owner or appropriation of quota by someone else is highest in South-West Delhi (66 per cent) followed by North-West Delhi (51.90 per cent).

**Table-5.24 Percentage of Ration Card Holders according to their believe about the sale of their quota in open market or appropriation of it by someone else, in case they don't lift it**

Districts	Do the HHs think that quota allotted to them was sold in the open market or appropriated by someone else when they were not able to lift it				
	Not Sure	Yes, Several Times	Yes, Only Once	No	Total
South Delhi	28.13 (18)	39.06 (25)	12.50 (8)	20.31 (13)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	66.00 (33)	14.00 (7)	8.00 (4)	12.00 (6)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	39.13 (27)	43.48 (30)	2.90 (2)	14.49 (10)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	51.90 (41)	34.18 (27)	5.06 (4)	8.86 (7)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	<b>45.42 (119)</b>	<b>33.97 (89)</b>	<b>6.87 (18)</b>	<b>13.74 (36)</b>	<b>100 (119)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

The percentage share of ration card holders who have reported that their quota was sold by FPS owner or it was appropriated by someone else several times (when they were not able to lift it) is highest in North-East Delhi (43.48 per cent) and South Delhi (39.06 per cent). However, the percentage share of the ration card holders who don't believe that their quota was sold by FPS owner or it was appropriated by someone else (when they were not able to lift it), is also highest in these two districts.

*It was realized by researcher with the interaction of the ration card holders that there are two types of ration card holders who didn't believe that their quota was sold by FPS owner/it is appropriated by someone else- first, who have fear that if they report something negative, the FPS owner will stop their ration and second, who get undue benefit from the FPS owner time to time.*

### 5.16.5 Entries Made in the Ration Cards:

It is compulsory for a FPS owner to make the entries in the ration cards of the beneficiaries, whenever, he/she distributes the ration to the ration card holders. To know the general practice followed by FPS owner in JJ-Clusters in this regard, the information about the entries made by FPS owner on the ration card of the beneficiaries for different commodities in last 6 months was asked to the ration card holders.

In total 262 ration card holders, 65.65 per cent reported that they don't agree with the entries made by FPS owner on their ration card for different commodities in last 6 months. Except, South-West Delhi, the percentage of the ration card holders who don't agree with the entries made on their ration card by FPS is very high in all other districts. A significant number of ration card holders in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha of South Delhi reported that they agree with the entries made on their ration card for different commodities in last 6 months. It is because a significant percentage of ration card holders in these JJ-Clusters have the new BPL-PR ration card (smart card) and the FPS owner made entries on a white paper for the commodities received by smart card holders.

**Table-5.25 Percentage of Ration Card holders according to opinion on the entries made on their ration cards for different commodities in last 6 months**

Districts	Do the HHs agree with the entries made in their Ration Cards for different Commodities in last 6 Months by FPS Owner		
	Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	26.56 (17)	73.44 (47)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	76.00 (38)	24.00 (12)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	26.09 (18)	73.91 (51)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	21.52 (17)	78.48 (62)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	<b>34.35 (90)</b>	<b>65.65 (172)</b>	<b>100 (262)</b>

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

A subsequent question was asked to the ration card holders about the irregularities they found for the entries made by FPS owner in their ration card for different commodities in last 6 months. Out of 172 ration card holders who have reported that they don't agree with the entries made on their ration card, 55.23 per cent reported that the fake informations was entered on their ration card by FPS owner. However, 44.77 per cent reported that FPS owner only sign on their ration card and don't make any entries for

different commodities. This information was verified by seeing the ration cards of the above ration card holders (see photograph in Appendix).

**Table-5.26 Percentage of ration card holders by Irregularities found in the entries made by FPS owner**

Districts	Irregularities reported by Ration Card Holders		
	Fake Informations entered	Only sign by FPS Owner, No entries	Total
South Delhi	21.28 (10)	78.72 (37)	100 (47)
South-West Delhi	83.33 (10)	16.67 (2)	100 (12)
North-East Delhi	58.82 (30)	41.18 (21)	100 (51)
North-West Delhi	72.58 (45)	27.42 (17)	100 (62)
<b>Total</b>	55.23 (95)	44.77 (77)	100 (172)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The percentage of ration card holders who have reported that FPS owner enter fake information in their ration card is very high in South-West Delhi (83.33 per cent) followed by North-West Delhi (72.58 per cent). However, the percentage of the ration card holders who have reported that the FPS owner only sign and don't make any entries is highest in South Delhi (78.72 per cent) followed by North-East Delhi (41.18 per cent).

It was found during field survey that in most of the ration cards, FPS owner entered only date and his signature. No other entries were made related to the quantity of commodities lifted from FPS and prices at which these commodities were issued to the ration card holders. Therefore, the ration card holders don't have any record to produce for the quantity of commodities lifted from FPS and the prices at which these commodities were purchased by them.

Besides making these compulsory entries in the ration cards, it is a rule of Food and Supply Department that a receipt of the ration offtake should be given to the ration card holders after lifting their quota from ration card. It was observed during field survey that a general practice followed by all FPS owners is that, they make the receipt but tear it off by himself in front of ration card holders. Therefore, the ration card holders don't know about the quantity and price written on the receipt for different commodities. This practice provides benefit to the FPS owner and he/she makes profit by manipulating the actual entries for the commodities lifted by ration card holders.

### 5.16.6 Quality of Food Grains Supplied through FPS:

The quality of food grains supplied from FPS to the ration card holders is always a major concern for policy makers and researcher. It has been found at many places that rotten food grains were supplied from FPS. In this context, the researcher collected the information about the quality of food grains received through FPS in last 6 months. Among 262 ration card holders, 43.51 per cent reported that the quality of food grains received from FPS in last 6 months was poor, 43.15 per cent reported that it was average and only 13.36 per cent reported that it was good.

**Table-5.27 Percentage distribution of ration card holders according to the quality of food grains received in last 6 months from FPS**

Districts	Quality of Food Grain Received from FPS in Last 6 Months			
	Poor	Average	Good	Total
South Delhi	39.06 (25)	43.75 (28)	17.19 (11)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	28.00 (14)	42.00 (21)	30.00 (15)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	43.48 (30)	47.83 (33)	8.70 (6)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	56.96 (45)	39.24 (31)	3.80 (3)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	43.51 (114)	43.13 (113)	13.36 (35)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of ration card holders according to the quality of food grains received by them in last 6 months from FPS shows that except North-West Delhi, the percentage of ration card holders getting average quality of food grains is highest in all other districts.

Except South-West Delhi, the second highest percentage share in all other districts is for the ration card holders who are getting poor quality of food grains from FPS in last 6 months. The highest percentage of ration card holders in this category is in North-West Delhi (56.96 per cent). However, the percentage share of the ration card holders getting good quality of food grains is high only in South-West Delhi (30 per cent) followed by South Delhi (17.19 per cent).

It can be concluded from above analysis that most of the ration card holders in present study reported that the quality of food grains received by them in 6 months from FPS is either poor or average.



### 5.16.7 Attitude of the FPS owner towards the family members:

The rude behaviour of the FPS owner is one of the common complaints reported by ration card holders in many studies (Walia, 2009). In this context, the researcher inquired about the attitude of the FPS owner toward family members of the ration card holders who deal with FPS owner.

In 262 ration card holders of the present study, 48.47 per cent reported that the attitude of the FPS owner is unhelpful, 26.34 per cent reported that the attitude of the FPS owner is indifferent and 25.19 per cent reported that the attitude of FPS owner toward family members is helpful.

**Table-5.28 Percentage of ration card holders according to the attitude of FPS owner towards family members**

Districts	Attitude of the FPS Owner towards Family Members			
	Helpful	Indifferent	Unhelpful	Total
South Delhi	29.69 (19)	28.13 (18)	42.19 (27)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	52.00 (26)	30.00 (15)	18.00 (9)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	18.84 (13)	15.94 (11)	65.22 (45)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	10.13 (8)	31.65 (25)	58.23 (46)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	25.19 (66)	26.34 (69)	48.47 (127)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The percentage of the ration card holders reporting unhelpful attitude of FPS owner towards family members is highest in the JJ-Clusters of North-East Delhi (65.22 per cent) followed by North-West Delhi (58.23 per cent). However, the percentage of ration card holders reporting indifferent attitude of FPS owner towards family members is highest in JJ-Clusters of North-West Delhi (31.65 per cent) and South-West Delhi (30 per cent). The highest percentage of ration card holders reporting helpful attitude of the FPS owner toward family members is in JJ-Cluster of South-West Delhi (52 per cent).

It can be concluded from above Table and analysis that majority of the ration card holders in present study reported unhelpful or rude behaviour of FPS owner towards their family member when to go to take ration from FPS.

## 5.17 PERCEPTION OF RATION CARD HOLDERS ABOUT THE IMPROVEMENT IN THE PDS TODAY AS COMPARED TO 5 YEARS AGO:

The perception of the ration card holders about the level of improvement in the accessibility, regularity, quality and quantity of ration through PDS always matters because they are at receiving end and food grains from FPS play important role in the welfare of the poor households living in JJ-Clusters. In this context, the response of the ration card holders about the improvement in the level of accessibility, regularity, quality and quantity of ration through PDS today as compared to 5 years ago was collected during field survey and classified as follows: Better, Same and Worse.

### 5.17.1 Accessibility of the Ration through PDS:

Among 262 ration card holders, 90.84 per cent reported that the accessibility of ration through PDS is same as compared to 5 years ago, while only 9.16 per cent reported that now it is better.

**Table-5.29 Percentage of the ration card holders about the level of improvement in the accessibility of ration through PDS today as compared to 5 years ago**

Districts	Accessibility of ration through PDS Today as compared to 5 Years Ago		
	Better	Same	Total
South Delhi	15.63 (10)	84.38 (54)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	14.00 (7)	86.00 (43)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	7.25 (5)	92.75 (64)	100 (69)
North-East Delhi	2.53 (2)	97.47 (77)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	9.16 (24)	90.84 (238)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise perception of the ration card holders about the improvement in the accessibility of ration through PDS shows that in all districts, the percentage of ration card holders who think that the accessibility of ration through PDS is same as compared to 5 year ago is highest in comparison to the ration card holders who think that the accessibility of ration through PDS has improved.

### 5.17.2 Regularity of ration through PDS:

Among 262 ration card holders, 91.22 per cent reported that the regularity of ration through PDS is same today as compared to 5 years ago, 8.02 per cent reported that it is

better now as compared to 5 years ago and only 0.76 per cent reported that it is worse now as compared to 5 years ago.

**Table-5.30 Percentage of ration card holders according to the regularity of ration through PDS today as compared to 5 years ago**

Districts	Regularity of Ration through PDS today as Compared to 5 Years Ago			
	Better	Same	Worse	Total
South Delhi	10.94 (7)	87.50 (56)	1.56 (1)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	14.00 (7)	84.00 (42)	2.00 (1)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	7.25 (5)	92.75 (64)	0.00 (0)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	2.53 (2)	97.47 (77)	0.00 (0)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	8.02 (21)	91.22 (239)	0.76 (2)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the ration card holders according to their perception about the level of improvement in the regularity of ration through PDS today as compared to 5 years ago shows that the ration card holders who think that the regularity of ration through PDS is same as compared to 5 years ago have highest percentage share followed by the ration card holders who think that it is better now as compared to 5 years ago.

Overall it can be concluded that the ration card holders in present study think that the regularity of ration through PDS is either same or it has improved as compared to 5 years ago.

### **5.17.3 Quantity of Food Grains Supplied through PDS:**

It was discussed in earlier section of this chapter that there is a gap between the quantity allotted on the ration card and the quantity received by ration card holders. In this context, it would be interesting to know about the perception of ration card holders about the level of improvement in the quantity of food grains supplied from FPS today as compared to 5 years ago.

Among 262 ration card holders, 67.18 per cent reported that the quantity of food grains supplied through PDS is worse now as compared to 5 years ago, 30.92 per cent reported that it is same and only 1.91 per cent reported that it is better today as compared to 5 years ago.

**Table-5.31 Percentage distribution of ration card holders according to the quantity of food grains supplied through PDS today as compared to 5 years ago**

Districts	Quantity of Food Grains Supplied from PDS today as compared to 5 year ago			
	Better	Same	Worse	Total
South Delhi	3.13 (2)	26.56 (17)	70.31 (45)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	2.00 (1)	56.00 (28)	42.00 (21)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	2.90 (2)	24.64 (17)	72.46 (50)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	0.00 (0)	24.05 (19)	75.95 (60)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	1.91 (5)	30.92 (81)	67.18 (176)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the ration card holders according to their perception about the level of improvement in the quantity of food grains supplied from PDS today as compared to 5 years ago shows that except South West Delhi, the percentage of ration card holders who think that the quantity of food grains supplied from PDS is worse now as compared to 5 years ago is very high.

The second highest percentage share is for the ration card holders who think that quantity of food grains supplied from PDS is same as compared to 5 years ago. However, the percentage of ration card holders who think that the quantity of food grains supplied through PDS is better now as compared to 5 year ago is insignificant in most of the districts.

From the above analysis, it is evident that the quantity of food grains supplied through PDS is either become worse or it is same as compared to 5 years ago.

#### **5.17.4 Quality of the Food Grains supplied from PDS:**

The information about the improvement in the quality of food grains supplied from PDS today as compared to 5 years ago was collected during field survey from ration card holders. Out of 262 ration card holders, 56.87 per cent reported that the quality of food grains supplied from PDS is worse now as compared to 5 years ago, 36.64 per cent reported that it is same as compared to 5 years ago. However, only 6.49 per cent ration card holders reported that the quality of food grains supplied form PDS is better now as compared to 5 years ago.

**Table-5.32 Percentage distribution of ration card holders according to the quality of food grains supplied through PDS today as compared to 5 years ago**

Districts	Quality of Food Grains Supplied from PDS today as compared to 5 years ago			
	Better	Same	Worse	Total
South Delhi	14.06 (9)	37.50 (24)	48.44 (31)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	6.00 (3)	62.00 (31)	32.00 (16)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	7.25 (5)	31.88 (22)	60.87 (42)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	0.00 (0)	24.05 (19)	75.95 (60)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	6.49 (17)	36.64 (96)	56.87 (149)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The percentage distribution of the ration card holders according to their perception about the improvement in the quality of food grains supplied from PDS shows that in comparison to South Delhi and South-West Delhi, the percentage share of the ration card holders who think that the quality of food grains supplied from PDS is worse today as compared to 5 years ago is high in North-East Delhi and North-West Delhi.

However, the percentage share of the ration card holders who think that the quality of the food grains supplied from PDS is same as compared to 5 years ago is high in South Delhi and South-West Delhi in comparison to North-East Delhi and North-West Delhi. The least percentage share is for the ration card holders who think that the quality of food grains supplied from PDS is better now as compared to 5 years ago.

It can be concluded from the above analysis that the quality of ration through PDS is either same or it is worse in most of the districts. Only a small percentage of ration card holders reported that it has been improved as compared to 5 years ago.

#### **5.17.5 Overall functioning of PDS:**

The opinion about the level of improvement in the overall functioning of PDS today as compared to 5 years ago was collected during field survey from the ration card holders. Out of 262 ration card holders, 52.67 per cent reported that now it is worse as compared to 5 years ago, 41.60 per cent reported that it is same as it was 5 years ago. However, only 5.73 per cent ration card holders reported that it is better now as compared to 5 years ago.

**Table-5.33 Percentage of ration card holders according to the overall functioning of PDS today as compared to 5 years ago**

Districts	Overall Functioning of PDS today as Compared to 5 Years Ago			
	Better	Same	Worse	Total
South Delhi	6.25	48.44	45.31	100
South-West Delhi	12.00	60.00	28.00	100
North-East Delhi	7.25	33.33	59.42	100
North-West Delhi	0.00	31.65	68.35	100
<b>Total</b>	5.73	41.60	52.67	100

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the ration card holders according to their perception about the level of improvement in the overall functioning of PDS today as compared to 5 years ago shows that in comparison to South Delhi and South West Delhi, the percentage of ration card holders who think that the overall functioning of PDS become worse today as compared to 5 years is very high in North-East and North-West Delhi. The contrast result is found in the case of ration card holders who think that the overall functioning of PDS is same as compared to 5 years ago. The percentage of ration card holders who think that the overall functioning of PDS is same today as compared to 5 years ago is very high in South Delhi and South West Delhi in comparison to North-East and North-West. The least percentage share is for the ration card holders who think that the overall functioning of the PDS has improved.

It can be concluded from above analysis that most of the ration card holders think that the overall functioning of the PDS has either become worse or it is same today as compared to 5 years ago. Only a small percentage of ration card holders reported that it is better now as compared to 5 years ago.

#### **5.18 CASH TRANSFER SCHEME:**

The cash transfer scheme was introduced in six UTs as a pilot project to provide the food subsidies in form of cash to the account of ration card holders. A discussion is going on among scholars about the pros and cons of the Cash Transfer scheme. In this context, the perception about the cash transfer scheme was collected from ration card holders during field survey and it was asked to them that instead of food grains if Cash is transferred to their bank account, whether it will be beneficial for their family.

Out of 262 ration card holders, 87.40 per cent reported that they don't want cash transfer scheme and only 12.60 per cent reported that they want it. The ration card holders, who don't want cash transfer scheme, expressed their concern that the present PDS should be strengthened rather than introducing a new scheme. However, the ration card holders who support the cash transfer scheme reported that they are fed up with the existing PDS system because of various discrepancies in it such as differences in the allotted and received quantity of food grains, poor quality of food grains, improper behaviour of FPS owner etc and therefore, they want cash transfer scheme.

**Table-5.34 Percentage share of the Households according to the response related to Cash Transfer Scheme**

Districts	Instead of Grain if Cash is transferred directly in the A/C, whether it will be beneficial for the family		
	Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	21.88 (14)	78.13 (50)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	6.00 (3)	94.00 (47)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	11.59 (8)	88.41 (61)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	10.13 (8)	89.87 (71)	100 (79)
<b>Total</b>	12.60 (33)	87.40 (229)	100 (262)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the ration card holders according to their opinion about cash transfer scheme shows that a very high percentage of ration card holders in each district don't want cash transfer scheme. However, the percentage share of the ration card holders who want cash transfer scheme is significant only in South Delhi where around 22 per cent ration card holders wanted cash transfer scheme because they were not happy with existing PDS.

#### **5.19 EVALUATION OF MID DAY MEALS PROGRAMME IN JJ-CLUSTERS:**

The government of India started a national level programme to support the nutritional requirement of the primary school going children in 1995 known as National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NP-NSPE). The main aim of this programme was to address the “classroom hunger” and to improve the enrollment, retention and attendance of primary school going children by providing them nutritional support in form of cooked meal (James, 2013; Garg & Mandal, 2013).

Initially this programme covered only primary school (Class I-V) going children in 2408 blocks, but by 1997-98, it was universalized. In October 2007, the name of the programme was changed to Mid Day Meals and the coverage of the programme was extended up to upper primary school (Class VI-VIII). Mid Day Meals is part of National Food Security Act, 2013 and now it is a legal entitlement.

The evaluation of the Mid Day Meals has been done during field survey by asking information related to Mid Day Meals. In sample households, only 223 households reported that their children go to government schools and get Mid Day Meals, rest households either don't have children up to class VIII in their family or they send their children in private schools. Therefore the question related to Mid Day Meals has been asked only to those households who send their children to government schools.

#### **5.19.1 Quality of Food received through Mid Day Meals:**

The news of children falling sick by taking poor quality of food received from Mid Day Meals is not an unusual incidence. It is very frequent in many states. Therefore, it is very important to know the quality of food received through Mid Day Meals by children living in JJ-Clusters.

Among 223 households from which children were going to government schools and getting Mid Day Meals, 42.15 per cent reported that the quality of food received through Mid Day Meals is average, 35.87 per cent reported that the quality of food received through Mid Day Meals is bad and 21.97 per cent reported that the quality of food received through Mid Day Meals is good.

**Table-5.35 Percentage distribution of households according to the quality of food received by their school going children from Mid Day Meals**

Districts	Quality of Food from Mid Day Meals			
	Good	Average	Bad	Total
South Delhi	26.53 (13)	36.73 (18)	36.73 (18)	100 (49)
South-West Delhi	34.92 (22)	38.10 (24)	26.98 (17)	100 (63)
North-East Delhi	11.32 (6)	37.74 (20)	50.94 (27)	100 (53)
North-West Delhi	13.79 (8)	55.17 (32)	31.03 (18)	100 (58)
	21.97 (49)	42.15 (94)	35.87 (80)	100 (223)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the households by quality of food received from Mid Day Meals to the school going children shows that as compared to the



households who reported that the quality of food in Mid Day Meals is average or bad, the percentage share of the households who reported that the quality of food in Mid Day Meals is good is low. It shows that most of the households in which children were going to school and getting Mid Day Meals reported that the food received by Mid Day Meals is either average or bad.

#### **5.19.2 Quantity of Food received through Mid Day Meals:**

It was asked during field survey that whether the quantity of food received by school going children from Mid Day Meals is sufficient for them or they get less amount of food. Out of 223 households, from which children were going to government schools and getting Mid Day Meals, 80.27 per cent reported that the children get less quantity of food to eat and only 19.73 per cent reported that the children get sufficient food to eat.

**Table-5.36 Percentage distribution of households according to the quantity of food received by their school going children from Mid Day Meals**

Districts	Quantity of Food received by school going children through Mid Day Meals		
	Sufficient	Less	Total
South Delhi	16.33 (8)	83.67 (41)	100 (49)
South-West Delhi	33.33 (21)	66.67 (42)	100 (63)
North-East Delhi	7.55 (4)	92.45 (49)	100 (53)
North-West Delhi	18.97 (11)	81.03 (47)	100 (58)
<b>Total</b>	19.73 (44)	80.27 (179)	100 (223)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the households in which children are going to school and getting Mid Day Meals shows that except, South West Delhi, in all other district the percentage share of the households in which children are getting less quantity of food to eat from Mid Day Meals is very high. Only in South-West Delhi, a significant percentage of households reported that their children get sufficient quantity of food to eat from Mid Day Meals.

It shows that in present study most of the children going to government schools are getting less quantity of food from Mid Day Meals.

### 5.19.3 Importance of Mid Day Meals in the welfare of Children:

The opinion about the importance of the Mid Day Meals in the welfare of children from the households in which children are going to school and getting Mid Day Meals is very important for the policy makers and researcher to improve the condition of Mid Day Meals.

In present study, out of 223 households from which children were going to government schools and getting Mid Day Meals, 51.12 per cent reported that it is quite important for the welfare of children, 29.60 per cent reported that it has no importance in the welfare of children and 19.28 per cent reported that it is very important for the welfare of the children.

**Table-5.37 Percentage distribution of the Households according to their response for the importance of Mid Day Meals in the welfare of the Children**

Districts	Importance of Mid Day Meals for the Welfare of Children			
	Very Important	Quite Important	Not Important	Total
South Delhi	32.65 (16)	48.98 (24)	18.37 (9)	100 (49)
South-West Delhi	36.51 (23)	46.03 (29)	17.46 (11)	100 (63)
North-East Delhi	5.66 (3)	39.62 (21)	54.72 (29)	100 (53)
North-West Delhi	1.72 (1)	68.97 (40)	29.31 (17)	100 (58)
<b>Total</b>	19.28 (43)	51.12 (114)	29.60 (66)	100 (223)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the opinion of the households about importance of the Mid Day Meals in the welfare of children shows that except North-East Delhi, the percentage share of the households who think that Mid Day Meals is quite important is high in all other districts.

As compared to North-East and North-West Delhi, the percentage share of the households who think that the Mid Day Meals is very important for the welfare of children is high in South Delhi and South-West Delhi. However, an opposite results has been found in the case of households who think that Mid Day Meals is not important for children. It is because the functioning of Mid Day Meals in terms of quality and quantity of food is much better in South Delhi and South-West Delhi as compared to North-East and North-West Delhi.

#### 5.19.4 Improvement in the Mid Day Meals Scheme in last 5 Years:

The progress of the Mid Day Meals in last 5 years is assessed by the opinion of the households from which children are going to schools and getting Mid Day Meals. It was asked to the households that, whether the condition of Mid Day Meals has improved in last 5 year or not.

Out of 223 households, from which the children were going to schools and getting Mid Day Meals, 60.99 per cent reported that the condition of Mid Day Meals is same in last 5 years and 34.53 per cent reported that it is getting worse. Only 4.04 per cent households reported that it is better now and 0.45 per cent reported that they can't say anything.

**Table-5.38 Percentage distribution of Households according to their perception about condition of Mid Day Meals in last 5 years**

Districts	Condition of Mid Day Meals in last 5 years				
	Better	Same	Worse	Can't say	Total
South Delhi	8.16 (4)	61.22 (30)	30.61 (15)	0.00 (0)	100 (49)
South-West Delhi	4.76 (3)	66.67 (42)	26.98 (17)	1.59 (1)	100 (63)
North-East Delhi	1.89 (1)	43.40 (23)	54.72 (29)	0.00 (0)	100 (53)
North-West Delhi	1.72 (1)	70.69 (41)	27.59 (16)	0.00 (0)	100 (58)
<b>Total</b>	4.04 (9)	60.99 (136)	34.53 (77)	0.45 (1)	100 (223)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis*

The district wise percentage distribution of the households from which children are going to schools and getting Mid Day Meals shows that except North-East Delhi, in all other districts, the percentage share of the households who think that the condition of Mid Day Meals is same in last 5 years is very high. However, the households, who think that the condition of Mid Day Meals is getting worse in last 5 years have, second highest percentage share in total. The least percentage share is for the households who think that it is better now and the households who can't say anything about the condition of Mid Day Meals.

Overall, it can be concluded from above analysis that the condition of Mid Day Meals in different JJ-Cluster is either same or it has declined and getting worse over time. It is because of the poor quality of food supplied to the children in Mid Day Meals with

less quantity. The proper implementation of Mid Day Meals with regular checking by officials is necessary to improve the condition of Mid Day Meals received by school going children in JJ-Clusters.

### **5.20 SUMMARY:**

In the earlier chapter, the current housing and tenure status of the migrants living in JJ-Clusters was discussed. However, the present chapter examines the current status of the food security among urban migrant living in JJ-Clusters with the evaluation of accessibility, availability and utilization of the public distribution system by sample households living in JJ-Clusters. After a long struggle by civil society, government of India has passed National Food Security Act in 2013 and now the 'right to food' is a statutory right. Delhi is one of the states which have implemented the NFSA from 1<sup>st</sup> September, 2013. In this act, the beneficiaries are classified into two broader groups: Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) and Priority Households (PR). The identification of the priority households in Delhi is based on the annual income of the households. All households having One Lakh or below annual income is entitled to get ration card under Priority (PR) category. This group is further divided into two groups- BPL-PR and BPL-PR-S. Both types of ration card holders are entitled to get 4 Kg. wheat and 1 Kg. rice per person per month at the rate of Rs. 2/- per Kg. and Rs. 3/- per Kg. respectively.

After implementation of NFSA in Delhi, the number of ration card holders declined and reached to halve as compared to the ration card holders in 2012-13. In 2012-13, it was 34.35 lakh which has declined to 17.79 lakh in 2013-14. This significant drop in the ration card holders is because of the new classification adopted in NFSA, 2013 which is based on income criteria for Priority households mentioned above. A large number of non-eligible beneficiaries have been excluded from the Priority Group in NCT of Delhi because of this criterion.

The NSS data of the share of PDS in total consumption of the households in Delhi shows that except kerosene, the role of PDS in the total consumption of households is still very low and most of the households are still dependent on the other sources (open market) for their consumption needs.

The results from field study show that in sample households, 65.5 per cent have ration cards and rest 34.5 per cent reported that they don't have ration card to avail the

benefit of PDS. Among the ration card holders, 35.25 per cent have BPL (PR-S) ration card, 17 per cent have BPL (PR) ration card which is a smart card issued after implementation of NFSA in Delhi and only 13.25 per cent have Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) ration card. In comparison to South Delhi and South West Delhi, the percentage share of the ration card holders is high in North-East and North-West Delhi. The households who don't have ration card reported multiple reasons for not having a ration card among which not fulfilling the criteria for obtaining a ration card is the most prominent reason followed by rejection of application form of the ration card by issuing authority and the head of the households don't want to lose daily wage in the lengthy process of obtaining a ration card.

The analysis of the background characteristics of the ration card holders shows that among the total ration card holders the percentage share of the OBCs and other category households is high as compared to SCs households. In BPL-PR (S) category, the percentage share of the other category households is highest followed by OBCs and the least percentage share is for the SCs households. It can be result of inclusion error because the condition of other category households and OBC households is much better in comparison to SCs households in terms of current employment status of head of the households (see Chapter-III) which can be taken as proxy of income. In AAY the percentage share of SCs households is highest. However, in BPL-PR which is availed by a smart card issued under *Delhi Khadya Suraksha Yojana*, the percentage share of the OBCs households is highest followed by SCs households and other category households. The ownership status of the Jhuggi is very important to avail the benefit of the PDS in JJ-Clusters. The analysis of the present study shows that in comparison to the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage of ration card holders is low in rented households. It is because most of the time landlords don't allow the tenants to use the address of the Jhuggi to avail the benefit of any scheme. In BPL-PR (S) and AAY, the percentage share of the households who owned their Jhuggi is highest. However, in recently issued BPL-PR (smart card), the percentage of the rented households is high as compared to the households who owned their Jhuggi. The results from present study show that with increasing duration of stay in Delhi, the percentage of having a ration card increases. A logistic regression has been done to know the determining factors for possession of a

ration card by household in JJ-Clusters. The odds ratio shows that ownership of Jhuggi, duration of stay in Delhi and Land owning agency are some determining factors for the possession of a ration card by households in JJ-Clusters.

In present study, three JJ-Clusters, Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh don't have Fair Price Shop (FPS) inside the JJ-Cluster and therefore, the ration card holders in these three JJ-Clusters get ration from the FPS located at 2.11 km (average distance) from these JJ-Clusters. They spend extra 44.30 rupees as travel cost (average) to get the ration. The average total time spend by the members of the households to get the ration from FPS is ranged from 2 hours to 7 hours in different JJ-Clusters and the average opening days of the FPS in a month for the distribution of the food grains is ranged from 2 days to 12 days in different JJ-Clusters. Around 80 per cent ration card holders reported that the opening days of FPS is not fixed in a month and because of which many times they could not be able to lift their quota due to the unavailability of money in the same time period when FPS owner distribute the ration.

Most of the ration card holders (around 90 per cent) get regular information about the availability of ration at FPS. The main source from which they get information about the availability of ration at FPS is SMS on mobile from department of food & Supply Delhi and neighbours who inform the availability of ration at FPS. Around 88 per cent ration card holders in present study reported that they have knowledge about the quota of different commodities on their respective ration cards.

The percentage share of the PDS in total consumption of rice, wheat and sugar of the ration card holders shows the percentage share of the PDS in total consumption of rice is very low as compared to the wheat and sugar. It shows that for rice, ration card holders are totally dependent on the other sources (open market). However, the percentage share of the PDS in total consumption of the wheat and sugar is significant. The ration card wise percentage share of the PDS in total consumption of rice, wheat and sugar shows that in present study, the dependency of AAY ration card holders is more on PDS as compared to other ration card holders.

The results from field study shows that in comparison to the households with ration cards, the average monthly expenditure on rice, wheat and sugar from open market

is more for the households who don't have ration cards. It shows that the importance of PDS in the total expenditure of the households.

Around 40 per cent ration card holders in present study don't get full quota allotted on their ration cards. They reported that FPS owner refuses to give the full quota. It was observed during field survey most of these ration card holders don't file a complaint against FPS owner because of the fear that FPS owner can stop to give the ration to them and their ration card can be cancelled by authorities on the request of FPS owner. The highest difference is found in the quantity allotted and the quantity received from ration card holders for the sugar and wheat in different type of ration card. In comparison to BPL-PR (S) and AAY ration card holders, the condition of the BPL-PR ration card holders (smart card) is much better because most of them get full quota.

The other discrepancies reported by ration card holders in present study is non-availability of ration allotted to them; quota allotted to them is sold in open market by FPS owner or it is appropriated by someone else; the false entries made by FPS owner and the irregularities in the entries made in the ration card etc. It was observed during field survey that in most of the ration cards, FPS owner only signs and makes no entries.

A significant percentage of ration card holders in present study are not happy with the quantity and quality of the food grains supplied from FPS in last 6 months. Around 49 per cent ration card holders reported that the attitude of the FPS owner is not very helpful to the family members who go to collect the ration from FPS and many times they face harsh behaviour from FPS owner if they object for any discrepancies. The perception of the ration card holders for the accessibility and regularity of the ration through PDS today as compared to 5 year shows that most of the ration card holders think that it is same. However, for quality and quantity of the food grains supplied from FPS, they think that it has become worse. Around 53 per cent ration card holders in present study think that overall functioning of the PDS has become worse as compared to 5 year ago. It shows that the ration card holders in present study are not happy with the PDS. In spite of a significant percentage of ration card holders who are not happy with PDS around 87 per cent ration card holders reported that they don't want cash transfer scheme and they suggested that the current PDS should be improved.

The evaluation of the Mid Day Meals programme by the perception of the households having school going children shows that most of them are not happy with the quality and quantity of the food provided to the children from Mid Day Meals. Despite, their negative perception about Mid Day Meals they think that it is quite important for the welfare of the children.

To sum up, it can be said that the PDS and Mid Day Meals programme is very important for the welfare of the households living in JJ-Clusters, but it has been found that a significant percentage of the households in JJ-Clusters are still deprived from the ration cards and therefore, unable to get benefit from PDS. However, the ration card holders in JJ-Clusters are suffering from a large scale discrepancies and malpractices in PDS. The condition of the Mid Day Meals is also not fine. After the implementation of the NFSA in Delhi, the condition of the PDS has improved slightly. It can be more effective, if the government can stop the malpractices and discrepancies in PDS.



**CHAPTER- VI**  
**ROLE OF SOCIAL NETWORKS AND NGOS IN SOCIAL PROTECTION OF**  
**URBAN MIGRANTS**

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**6.1 INTRODUCTION:**

The importance of the social networks in the process of migration has been recognised by numerous scholars in their studies (Ritchey, 1976; Banerjee, 1983; Boyd, 1989; Massey *et al.*, 1998; Edelman & Mitra, 2006). Massey *et al.* (1998) define social networks as-

*“sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants and nonmigrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship and shared community origin.”*

The availability of social networks such as relatives, friends, neighbours, co-villagers etc. at destination areas encourage and facilitate the process of migration (Heering *et al.*, 2004; Haug, 2008) and act as a pull factor (Haug, 2008).

First of all, it influences the decisions to migrate by disseminating the informations related to jobs opportunity and better living conditions at place of destination (Jedlicka, 1978; Neetha, 2004, Haug, 2008) and then, it provides money and other assistance to migrate (Boyd, 1989) towards it. Social Networks at destination reduced the psychological cost of migration by providing emotional supports and new social ties during the migrants' adjustment period in urban centre (Choldin, 1973; Ritchey, 1976; Banerjee, 1983; Boyd, 1989). At initial stage, the social networks also reduce the monetary costs of migrants in destination areas by providing food, shelter and assistance in the job search (Banerjee, 1983; Neetha, 2004). The region, religion, caste and kinship plays important role in the formation of social networks. Migrants from same region, religion, caste and kinship hold better ties in urban centre and play crucial role for providing social protection to the urban migrants.

The non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and Civil Society Organisation (CSOs) are other agencies which play an essential role for providing social protection to urban migrants. They are actively participating in framing new public policies, and strengthening old policies by providing ground level reports to the concern authorities. They advocate for the better implementation of social protection policies related to urban poor (majority of whom are urban migrants) and many times become instruments to

provide it. In present time, they are involved in to a range of social protection programmes such as programmes related to social exclusion and poverty reduction; access of basic civic amenities; providing vocational trainings to the children of urban poors especially girls; spreading awareness about different schemes and preventing conflicts in the society etc. The role of NGOs for providing social protection becomes more significant because of their comparative advantage to reach poor people with local participation in a cost effective manner. They are acting as a bridge between people and government and fill the communication gap between these two (Jianxiu, 2006). The importance of NGOs and Civil Society is increasing over time because of inefficiency and corruption in bureaucratic system and limited political accountability for the social protection programmes running for urban poors especially migrants living in JJ-Clusters. They act as an agent to insure that poor migrants can get benefit from government programmes and they advocate for the rights of these urban migrants.

From the above analysis, it is evident that Social Networks, NGOs and Civil Society play an important role in the provisioning of social protection to the urban migrants. In this context, the present chapter examines the types of social networks, who assisted the head of the households at the time of migration and the helps provided by them to the head of the households at initial stage of migration. The interrelationship between caste and social network is also discussed in present chapter. This chapter also assesses the role of NGOs and Gender Resource Centre (GRCs-An initiative of Delhi government to provide benefit of different programmes to households living in JJ-Clusters from one centre) for provisioning of social protection to the households living in JJ-Clusters. Case Studies are also given to substantiate the analysis of the field survey.

#### **EMPIRICAL FINDINGS FROM FIELD SURVEY:**

##### **6.2 THE SOCIAL NETWORKS WITH WHOM HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLDS MIGRATED TO DELHI:**

The role of social networks with whom head of the households migrated to Delhi become very important in the process of migration because most of the time he/she persuades the head of the households or his/her family to migrate with him/her and facilitate the journey. In sample households, 31 per cent reported that the head of the households migrated alone to Delhi without help of any social network. However, rest 69 per cent

households reported that head of the households migrated to Delhi with the social networks among which other family members are the main social network because total 35.50 per cent households reported that the head of the households migrated to Delhi with other family members.

In sample households, co-villagers/contractors and relatives are the other two important social networks from which a significant percentage of head of the households migrated to Delhi. Total 15.50 per cent households reported that head of the households migrated to Delhi with co-villagers/contractors and 14.50 per cent reported that head of the households migrated to Delhi with relatives. The percentage share of the head of the households migrated with friends are least (3.50 per cent) in present study.

**Table-6.1 Percentage Distribution of Households by Social networks, with whom, Head of the Households migrated to Delhi**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Migrated Alone without social Networks	Social Networks with whom HoH migrated to Delhi				Total
			Migrated with Family Member	Migrated with Friends	Migrated with Relatives	Migrated with Co-villagers/Contract or	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	36	30	6	14	14	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	40	24	4	20	12	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	38	27	5	17	13	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	20	34	4	22	20	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	28	36	6	8	22	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	24	35	5	15	21	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	32	32	4	16	16	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	32	56	0	10	2	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	32	44	2	13	9	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	30	32	0	10	28	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	30	40	4	16	10	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	30	36	2	13	19	100
<b>Grand-Total (N=400)</b>		31.00	35.50	3.50	14.50	15.50	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households shows that the highest percentage of head of the households who migrated to Delhi without any social

network is in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi. However, in other JJ-Clusters, it is ranged from 20-32 per cent. It shows that only one third to one fourth head of the households in present study migrated alone to Delhi. However, rest head of the households migrated to Delhi with different types of social networks.

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage share of the households in which head of the households migrated to Delhi with the help of social networks shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, other member of the family is the main social network followed by relatives with whom head of the households migrated to Delhi. The combined percentage share of these two social networks is half of the total in most of the JJ-Clusters. Therefore it can be concluded in present study that kinship (other members of the family & relative) is the main social networks in present study that facilitated the journey of head of the households in JJ-Clusters.

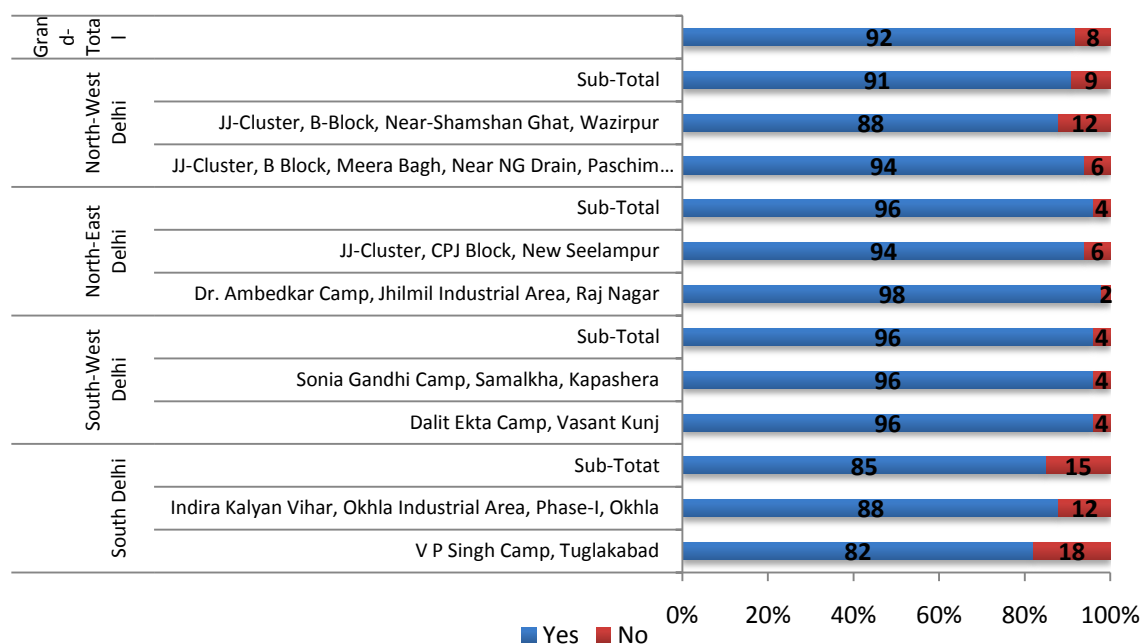
The other social networks with whom head of the households migrated to Delhi are co-villagers/contractors and friends. The percentage share of the head of the households who migrated with co-villagers/contractors is significant only in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi as compared to the JJ-Clusters of other districts. The percentage share of the head of the households who migrated with friends is least in all types of social networks with whom head of the households migrated to Delhi.

It can be concluded from above analysis that social networks play an important role to facilitate the journey of rural migrants towards urban centres.

### **6.3 SOCIAL NETWORKS ALREADY AVAILABLE IN DELHI AT THE TIME OF MIGRATION OF HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLDS:**

It has been discussed in introductory part that availability of social networks at place of destination not only reduces the psychological cost by providing help during adjustment period of newly migrants but also provide assistance in form of food, shelter and job searches. In this context, it was asked to the respondents that whether the head of the households had previous social networks in Delhi at the time of migration. In sample households, 92 per cent reported that at the time of migration, head of the households had social networks in Delhi. Only 8 per cent households reported that at time of migration, head of the households didn't have any previous social networks in Delhi.

**Figure-6.1 Percentage distribution of Households by availability of social networks at the time of Arrival of Head of the Households in Delhi**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the households according to the availability of previous networks at the time of migration of Head of the households in Delhi shows that in most of the JJ-Clusters, more than 80 per cent head of the households had previous networks in Delhi at the time of Migration.

The highest percentage of head of the households having previous networks in Delhi at the time of migration is Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (98 per cent) followed by Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (96 per cent), Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (96 per cent), JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (94 per cent) and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (94 per cent). However, the percentage of head of the households having no previous networks in Delhi at time of migration is significant only in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur.

#### **6.4 TYPES OF SOCIAL NETWORK AVAILABLE IN DELHI AT THE TIME OF MIGRATION OF HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLDS:**

It has been discussed in previous section that a high percentage of head of the households in present study had previous social networks at the time of their arrival to Delhi and therefore, the specific information about the types of social network available in Delhi at

the time of migration of head of the households was collected from the households who reported that head of the households had previous social networks at the time of migration. The types of social network reported by respondents are as follows: 1) Other member of the family, 2) Relatives, 3) Co-Villagers/Neighbour/Community Leader/Contractor and 4) Friends.

**Table-6.2 Percentage distribution of the households by Type of Social Networks available in Delhi at the time of migration of Head of the Households**

District	Cluster	Type of Previous Network				
		Other Member of Family	Relatives	Co-Villagers/ Neighbours/ Community Leaders/ Contractors	Friends	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	43.90 (18)	29.27 (12)	19.51 (8)	7.32 (3)	100 (41)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	40.91 (18)	29.55 (13)	22.73 (10)	6.82 (3)	100 (44)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	42.35 (36)	29.41 (25)	21.18 (18)	7.06 (6)	100 (85)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	39.58 (19)	33.33 (16)	22.92 (11)	4.17 (2)	100 (48)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	45.83 (22)	18.75 (9)	27.08 (13)	8.33 (4)	100 (48)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	42.71 (41)	26.04 (25)	25.00 (24)	6.25 (6)	100 (96)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	40.82 (20)	28.57 (14)	26.53 (13)	4.08 (2)	100 (49)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	63.83 (30)	29.79 (14)	6.38 (3)	0.00 (0)	100 (47)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	52.08 (50)	29.17 (28)	16.67 (16)	2.08 (2)	100 (96)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	42.55 (20)	25.53 (12)	31.91 (15)	0.00 (0)	100 (47)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	50.00 (22)	31.82 (14)	13.64 (6)	4.55 (2)	100 (44)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	46.15 (42)	28.57 (26)	23.08 (21)	2.20 (2)	100 (91)
<b>Grand-Total</b>		<b>45.92 (169)</b>	<b>28.26 (104)</b>	<b>21.47 (79)</b>	<b>4.35 (16)</b>	<b>100 (368)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in Parenthesis.

Out of 368 households, who have reported that head of the households had previous networks in Delhi at the time of migration, 45.92 per cent reported that other member of family were in Delhi at the time of migration of Head of the households, 28.26 per cent reported that relatives were in Delhi at the time of migration of Head of the households, 21.47 per cent reported that co-villagers/neighbours/community leaders/contractor were in Delhi at the time of migration of Head of the households and only 4.35 per cent

reported that friends of the head of the households were in Delhi at the time of migration of head of the households in Delhi.

The district and JJ-Clusters wise percentage distribution of the households according to the types of social network available at the time of migration of head of the households in Delhi shows that the highest percentage is for the households in which other members of the family were in Delhi as social network at the time of migration of head of the households. Except Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh, in all other JJ-Clusters, the second highest percentage share is for the households in which relatives were in Delhi as social networks at the time of migration of head of the households. The households, in which, co-villagers/neighbours/community-leaders/contractors were in Delhi as social networks at the time of migration of head of the households also have a significant percentage share in total. However, the lowest percentage share is for the households in which friends were in Delhi as social networks at the time of migration of Head of the households.

It can be concluded from above analysis that kinship (other member of family and relatives) was the main social network available for head of households at time of migration followed by co-villagers/neighbours/community-leaders/contractors.

#### **6.5 NATURE OF RELATIONSHIP WITH SOCIAL NETWORKS AVAILABLE AT THE TIME OF MIGRATION OF HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLDS:**

The characteristic of kinship system is patrilineal in north India. Men are expected to form their most intimate and lasting ties with male agnates even after the partition of their extended family (Banerjee, 1983). It is reflected in the process of migration also. The persons who are in direct blood ties with the newly arrival migrants help as a social network to these migrants in forms of food, shelter, job searches and monetary assistance at the initial stage of migration.

In present study, the percentage distribution of the social networks (available at the time of migration of head of the households in Delhi) by nature of relationship to head of the households shows the patrilineal characteristics of kinship system. In other members of the family who were available in Delhi as social network at the time of migration of head of the households, the percentage share is highest for the Brother,

Father and Uncle. All of these members of the family have a direct blood tie with the head of the households and are mainly male.

**Table-6.3 Percentage distribution of the Social Networks available at the time of migration of Head of the Households in Delhi by Nature of Relationship**

Type of Social Networks	Nature of Relationships	South Delhi	South-West Delhi	North-East Delhi	North-West Delhi	Total
<b>Other Member of Family</b>	Brother	18.82 (16)	18.75 (18)	19.79 (19)	19.78 (18)	19.29 (71)
	Father	8.24 (7)	12.50 (12)	20.83 (20)	19.78 (18)	15.49 (57)
	Uncle	11.76 (10)	5.21 (5)	7.29 (7)	2.20 (2)	6.52 (24)
	Husband	1.18 (1)	1.04 (1)	4.17 (4)	4.40 (4)	2.72 (10)
	Cousin Brother	1.18 (1)	2.08 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.82 (3)
	Grand-Father	1.18 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.27 (1)
	Nephew	0.00	3.13 (3)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.82 (3)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>42.35 (36)</b>	<b>42.71 (41)</b>	<b>52.08 (50)</b>	<b>46.15 (42)</b>	<b>45.92 (169)</b>
<b>Relatives</b>	Uncle-Fufa	2.35 (2)	2.08 (2)	4.17 (4)	2.20 (2)	2.72 (10)
	Aunty-Bua	0.00 (0)	4.17 (4)	5.21 (5)	0.00 (0)	2.45 (9)
	Brother-in-Law	17.65 (15)	11.46 (11)	6.25 (6)	14.29 (13)	12.23 (45)
	Father-in-Law	2.35 (2)	3.13 (3)	8.33 (8)	1.10 (1)	3.80 (14)
	Maternal Aunty	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.10 (1)	0.27 (1)
	Maternal Uncle	3.53 (3)	3.13 (3)	5.21 (5)	6.59 (6)	4.62 (17)
	Mother-in-Law	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.10 (1)	0.27 (1)
	Sister-in-Law	3.53 (3)	1.04 (1)	0.00 (0)	2.20 (2)	1.63 (6)
	Son-in-Law	0.00 (0)	1.04 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.27 (1)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>29.41 (25)</b>	<b>26.04 (25)</b>	<b>29.17 (28)</b>	<b>28.57 (26)</b>	<b>28.26 (104)</b>
<b>Co-Villagers /Neighbours/Community Leaders/Contractors</b>		<b>21.18 (18)</b>	<b>25.00 (24)</b>	<b>16.67 (16)</b>	<b>23.08 (21)</b>	<b>21.47 (79)</b>
<b>Friends</b>		<b>7.06 (6)</b>	<b>6.25 (6)</b>	<b>2.08 (2)</b>	<b>2.20 (2)</b>	<b>4.35 (16)</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>100 (85)</b>	<b>100 (96)</b>	<b>100 (96)</b>	<b>100 (91)</b>	<b>100 (368)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in Parenthesis.

Along with brother, father and uncle, the other family members available as social network at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi are also male in present study which supports the patrilineal nature of kinship system in India.

In case of relatives, Gore (1968) has argued that it is acceptable in Indian society that a brother can help to his sister's family but normally cannot receive help from them. The maternal uncle can help to his nephew but normally the nephew is not expected to help the uncle. The percentage share of social networks by nature of relationship to the



head of the households shows that in case of relatives, the argument made by Gore (in context of brother-sister relationship) is not true in present study. In relatives, the highest percentage share is found for Brother-in-Law. It shows that at the time of migration of head of the households, their Brother-in-Laws were in Delhi as social network and provided help to them. In relatives, the percentage share is significant for Maternal Uncle, Father-in-Law and Sister-in-Law who were in Delhi at the time of migration of head of the households and helped them at initial stage.

#### **6.6 CASTE AND SOCIAL NETWORKS:**

It has been well established in migration studies (Bagchi, 1975; Banerjee, 1983; Dubey *et al.*, 2006; Iversen, 2006; Iversen *et al.*, 2009) that caste plays a very important role in the process of migration. In Chapter-III of the present study it has been discussed that historically certain castes (SCs and STs) in India are more deprived in terms of education and land and therefore the propensity to migrate towards urban areas in search of livelihood is more among these castes as compared to others.

The rigid caste structure in rural India makes individuals more conscious about their social group and they prefer to intermingle socially only with the person from same caste or a person with equal caste status (Banerjee, 1983). In urban areas, the caste based social networks play an important role for providing the social protection to a newly arrived migrant in the form of shelter, food and job searches. There are studies (Panini, 1996; Munshi & Rosenzweig, 2006) which shows that caste based recruitment network of labour market makes it easier for a newly migrated person to get a job in urban areas.

In present study also, the information about the caste of the social networks was collected during field survey. The percentage distribution of different type of social networks according to their caste shows that among 368 households which reported that head of the households had previous social networks at the time of migration, 91.58 per cent have social networks from same caste. However, only 8.42 per cent reported that social network available at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi was from different caste.

In all type of social networks available at the time of migration of head of the households in Delhi such as other members of family, relatives, co-

villagers/neighbours/contractors/community leaders, the percentage is very high for the social networks from the same caste.

**Table-6.4 Percentage distribution of different Types of Social Network by Caste**

Districts	Type of Networks	Same Caste	Other Caste	Total
<b>Total (N=368)</b>	Other Member of Family	100.00 (169)	0.00 (0)	100 (169)
	Relatives	99.04 (103)	0.96 (1)	100 (104)
	Co-Villagers/Neighbours/ Contractors/Community Leaders	70.89 (56)	29.11 (23)	100 (79)
	Friends	56.25 (9)	43.75 (7)	100 (16)
	Total	91.58 (337)	8.42 (31)	100 (368)
<b>South Delhi (N=85)</b>	Other Member of Family	100.00 (36)	0.00 (0)	100 (36)
	Relatives	100.00 (25)	0.00 (0)	100 (25)
	Co-Villagers/Neighbours/ Contractors/Community Leaders	50.00 (9)	50.00 (9)	100 (18)
	Friends	16.67 (1)	83.33 (5)	100 (6)
	Total	83.53 (71)	16.47 (14)	100 (85)
<b>South-West Delhi (N=96)</b>	Other Member of Family	100.00 (41)	0.00 (0)	100 (41)
	Relatives	96.00 (24)	4.00 (1)	100 (25)
	Co-Villagers/Neighbours/ Contractors/Community Leaders	79.17 (19)	20.83 (5)	100 (24)
	Friends	83.33 (5)	16.67 (1)	100 (6)
	Total	92.71 (89)	7.29 (7)	100 (96)
<b>North-East Delhi (N=96)</b>	Other Member of Family	100.00 (50)	0.00 (0)	100 (50)
	Relatives	100.00 (28)	0.00 (0)	100 (28)
	Co-Villagers/Neighbours/ Contractors/Community Leaders	62.50 (10)	37.50 (6)	100 (16)
	Friends	50.00 (1)	50.00 (1)	100 (2)
	Total	92.71 (89)	7.29 (7)	100 (96)
<b>North-West Delhi (N=91)</b>	Other Member of Family	100.00 (42)	0.00 (0)	100 (42)
	Relatives	100.00 (26)	0.00 (0)	100 (26)
	Co-Villagers/Neighbours/ Contractors/Community Leaders	85.71 (18)	14.29 (3)	100 (21)
	Friends	100.00 (2)	0.00 (0)	100 (2)
	Total	96.70 (88)	3.30 (3)	100 (91)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in Parenthesis.

In present study, it is obvious that other members of the family and most of the relatives who were available as social networks at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi were from same caste. However, in comparison to the friends, the percentage share of same caste co-villagers/neighbours/contractors/community leaders who were available and helped as social network at the time of migration of head of the households in Delhi is high.

In each district, the percentage share of same caste social networks is high in all four types of social networks reported by households that are- other member of the family, relatives, co-villagers/neighbours/ contractors/community leaders and friends. Only in South Delhi, the percentage share is high for other castes in friends who were available at the time of migration of head of the households as social network.

The high percentage share of the same caste social networks available at the time of migration of the head of the households can be explained by the fact that caste based ties are very strong in Indian society and therefore, if the newly migrated person in urban centre have both- same caste social network and other caste social network, he/she prefers to approach the same caste social network in comparison to other caste social network.

The above analysis of the relationship between caste and social networks in present study supports the existing literature and endorses the finding that newly migrated persons approach the same caste social networks more because they generally feel comfortable with same caste social networks.

#### **6.7 TYPES OF HELP PROVIDED BY SOCIAL NETWORKS:**

In many studies (Banerjee, 1983; Neetha, 2004), it has been found that the social networks provide shelter and food to newly migrants at their initial stage in urban areas. They also provide help to these migrants in search of jobs. Generally the bonding between social networks and the newly migrated persons continue and they help each other at the later period also.

In this context, the information about different types of help provided by social networks to the head of the households was collected during field survey. The respondents have given multiple response for the types of help provided by social networks which can be broadly classified as follows: 1) Staying Arrangement & Food, 2) Searching for Jobs, 3) Availing different types of cards such as Voter-ID, Ration Card, Aadhar etc. and 4) Monetary Help. A multiple response analysis has been done to analyse the percentage share of response in each type of help provided by social networks to head of the households.

**Table-6.5 Multiple Response Analysis for the Helps Provided by Social Networks at the time of Migration of HoH to Delhi**

Districts	JJ-Cluster		Help Provided by Social Networks at the time of migration of HoH to Delhi				
			Staying Arrangement & Food	Searching For Jobs	Availing different type of Cards	Monetary Help	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (41)	% of Response	46.07	29.21	6.74	17.98	100
		N	41	26	6	16	89
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla (42*)	% of Response	52.50	28.75	6.25	12.50	100
		N	42	23	5	10	80
	<b>Sub-Total (N=83)</b>	% of Response	49.11	28.99	6.51	15.38	100
	N	83	49	11	26	169	
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (48)	% of Response	50.00	30.43	7.61	11.96	100
		N	46	28	7	11	92
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera (48)	% of Response	50.00	34.38	5.21	10.42	100
		N	48	33	5	10	96
	<b>Sub-Total (N=96)</b>	% of Response	50.00	32.45	6.38	11.17	100
	N	94	61	12	21	188	
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar (49)	% of Response	55.06	28.09	5.62	11.24	100
		N	49	25	5	10	89
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur (47)	% of Response	38.52	27.05	14.75	19.67	100
		N	47	33	18	24	122
	<b>Sub-Total (N=96)</b>	% of Response	45.50	27.49	10.90	16.11	100
	N	96	58	23	34	211	
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar (47)	% of Response	58.02	20.99	7.41	13.58	100
		N	47	17	6	11	81
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur (44)	% of Response	43.14	32.35	9.80	14.71	100
		N	44	33	10	15	102
	<b>Sub-Total (N=91)</b>	% of Response	49.73	27.32	8.74	14.21	100
	N	91	50	16	26	183	
<b>Total (N=366)</b>		% of Response	48.47	29.03	8.26	14.25	100
		N	364	218	62	107	751

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). \*In Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla, (South Delhi), 2 households reported that although social networks were available at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi but they didn't help to them.

Total 751 responses came from 366 households who reported that social networks helped head of the households, in which, the highest percentage of response is for the staying arrangements & Food (48.47 per cent) followed by searching of Jobs (29.03 per cent) and monetary assistance (14.25 per cent). It shows that the main help provided by social networks to the head of the households was staying arrangements and food at the initial period when they came to Delhi. The second highest percentage of response is for searching of jobs. It shows that social networks also helped head of the households to get a job in Delhi.

Furthermore, it was reported by respondents that the social networks provided monetary help time to time whenever there is a need in family such as construction/owning of Jhuggi, marriage in family and in other emergency situations and it is evident by a significant percentage of response in this category. The social networks also provided help in availing different type of cards such as Voter-ID, ration card, Aadhar etc. but the percentage of response for this type of help is very insignificant (8.26 per cent) in total.

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of response for different types of help provided by social networks shows the same pattern. The highest percentage of responses in all JJ-Clusters is for the staying arrangements and food provided to head of the households by social networks at the time of migration followed by help in searching for jobs in Delhi and monetary assistance provided to households.

The social networks also provide help in availing different type of cards such as Voter-ID, Ration cards etc. and percentage share of response for this type of help is significant only in JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (14.75 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (9.80 per cent).

Overall, it can be concluded by above multiple response analysis that social networks play a very important role for the urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi. In present study, they provided help to the head of the households at the initial stage by giving them shelter and food and assisting them in search of a job in urban labour market and thereafter, they have provided monetary help to the sample households whenever there is a need in family. In brief, it can be said that the present study also

supports the existing literature that social networks provide help to the newly arrived migrants in urban centres.

## **6.8 ROLE OF NGOS IN SOCIAL PROTECTION:**

The role of NGOs for providing social protection to the urban poor has increased over time because of several reasons. The gross root participation of NGOs with urban poor living in slums provides the edge to these organisations about the understanding of the cause of different types of problems faced by these poor. Therefore, they provide the help to the urban poor to solve these problems. Now days, the role of NGOs has been recognised by government and therefore, the government is involving different NGOs for spreading the awareness about different programmes run by government and providing benefit to the urban poor through NGOs. In this context, the researcher in present study also tries to examine the role of NGOs for providing the social protection to urban migrants living in sample JJ-Clusters.

### **6.8.1 Households living in JJ-Clusters benefited from NGOs:**

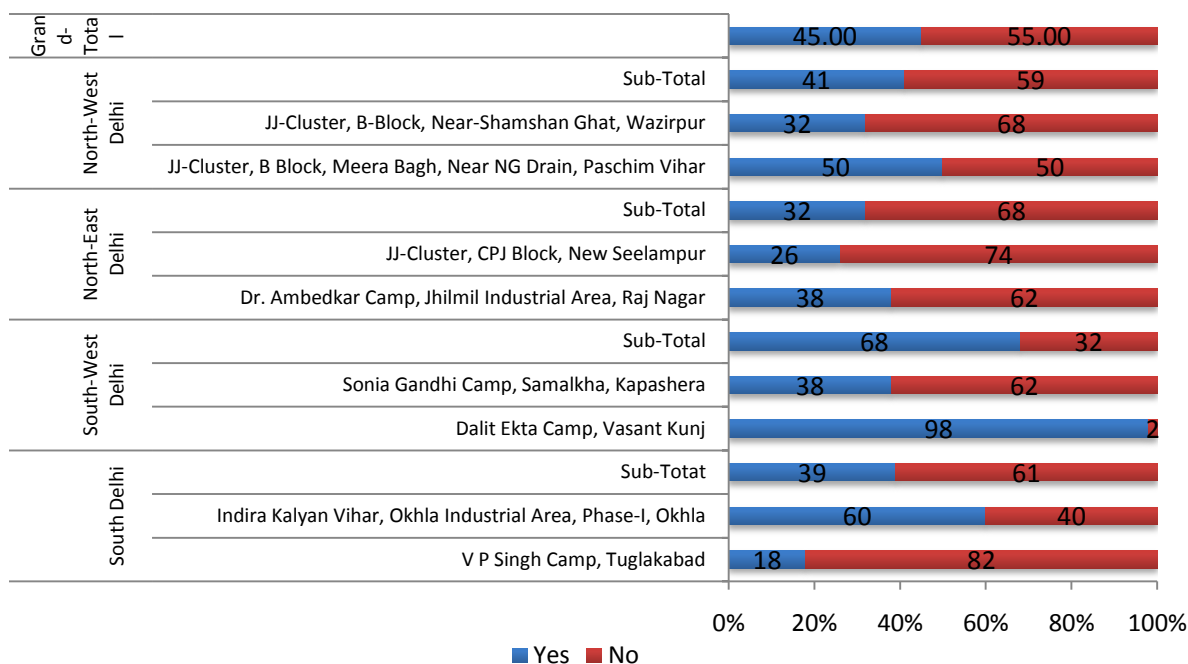
It was found during field survey that in each JJ-Cluster one to two NGOs were functioning. Therefore, it was asked to the households whether they have received any benefit from the NGOs functioning in JJ-Cluster. In sample households, 45 per cent reported that they have received benefit from the NGOs. However, 55 per cent reported that they haven't benefited from NGOs.

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households who have benefited from the NGOs functioning in JJ-Cluster is highest in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (98 per cent) followed by Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (60 per cent), JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh (50 per cent), Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (38 per cent) and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (38 per cent). However, the highest percentage share of the households not benefited from NGOs is in V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (82 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, New Seelampur (74 per cent).

It was observed during field survey that in some JJ-Clusters where NGOs were doing nice jobs such as Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj; Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla; JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh; Sonia Gandhi Camp; Samalkha and Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial areas; households knew the name of NGOs and reported frequently the work done by these NGOs to the overall development of JJ-Clusters and the benefit provided to

the household. However, in other JJ-Clusters, the households were unable to recall the name of the NGOs working in JJ-Clusters and if some of them knew the name of NGOs, they reported that a small number of households in JJ-Cluster have benefited from NGOs.

**Figure-6.2 Percentage of households benefited from NGOs**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The name of the NGOs working in a particular JJ-Cluster and the works done by them have been mentioned in Box 6.1. The helps provided by some of these NGOs to the migrants living in JJ-Clusters are really appreciable. The work done by *FORCE* NGO in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj by providing the pipelines for regular water supply is remarkable because the migrants living in this JJ-Cluster were totally dependent on the Tankers by Delhi Jal Board for water supply. Now, they use the water provided by pipeline for their daily uses and only for drinking water, they are still dependent on Tankers by Delhi Jal Board.

The *Navjyoti Development Society* which is an NGO working in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla, built a sanitation complex inside the JJ-Cluster with the help of *Save the Children NGO*. It is a disable friendly sanitation complex, in which, there is a separate section for men and women. Although, the one complex is not sufficient to cater the large population living in this JJ-Cluster but still, it is very helpful for the children and women

living in this JJ-Cluster. Apart from this work, the *Navjyoti Development Society* is running a school in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla which provides the schooling and computer training to the children living in this JJ-Cluster.

<b>Box-6.1</b>		
<b>JJ-Clusters</b>	<b>NGOs</b>	<b>Work Done by NGOs in JJ-Clusters/Help Provided by NGOs to Migrants</b>
<b>V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad</b>	Jhuggie Jhopri Ekta Manch	Advocacy about the rights of Migrants, Introduce RTI and help to frame RTI
<b>Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla</b>	Navjyoti Development Society (in Collaboration with Save the Children)	Built a disabled friendly Toilet Complex; Awareness Programme about save water, sanitation, girl child education; Vocation Training for Girls, Schooling of Children,
	Lokraj Sangathan	Advocacy of Migrants' rights
<b>Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj</b>	FORCE	Provided the Pipeline for Water supply and insure proper water supply to the migrants, Create awareness about WASH Programme
	Abhipraay Foundation	Education of Children
<b>Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera</b>	UV Charitable Trust	Education of Children, Vocation training to girls/women, Make the Self Help Groups of Women,
	Jhuggie Jhopri Ekta Manch	Awareness Camp, RTI
<b>Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar</b>	Anchal Charitable Trust	Working for Rehabilitation of Persons with Disability with focus on children, Organizing Health Check up camp, Promoting Education of Children
<b>JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur</b>	Pragati	Promoting Education of Children and Providing Education to the Children
<b>JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar</b>	NIPUN	Education of Children, Vocational Training to Girls for Skill Development, Crèche Facility, Health Check Up camp with Heal India
<b>JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur</b>	Women Initiative for Liberation, Growth and Action	Vocational Training to Girls for Skill Development, Awareness Programme

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

In JJ-Cluster, Meear Bagh, a NGO named *NIPUN* is providing education to the children living in this JJ-Cluster. This NGO started a day care centre (crèche) inside the JJ-



Cluster, which is very useful for the working women and school going children especially girls. In absence of it, school going children especially adolescent girls used to stay back at home to look after their siblings aged 0-6 years. It hampered their schooling and leads to their drop out from school. Now, in presence of this day care centre (crèche), working women feel no insecurity about their children aged 0-6 year old and send their children to day care centre/crèche. The girls from these families also feel free to attend their schools. The works done by other NGOs working in a particular JJ-Cluster (mentioned in Box 6.1) are also helpful to the migrants living in the respective sample JJ-Cluster.

### **6.8.2 Types of work done by NGOs in JJ-Clusters and Helps provided by NGOs to the migrants living in JJ-Clusters:**

The NGOs work in different areas to provide the help to the urban poor and therefore, the informations about different types of work done by NGOs in each JJ-Cluster and the helps provided by NGOs to the migrants living in each JJ-Cluster were collected during field survey. The work done by NGOs in JJ-Clusters and the helps provided to the migrants by NGOs can be classified as follows:

- 1) Providing Education and Nutritional Supplements to the Children living in JJ-Clusters,
- 2) Immunization of Children,
- 3) Health Check Up Camps,
- 4) Skill developments of girls/women living in JJ-Clusters by providing computer training, English speaking courses, training to open/work in beauty parlor, training of embroidery/sewing etc.
- 5) Assistance in availing different type of cards such as Voter-ID, Ration Cards, Aadhar Cards etc.
- 6) Help in Banking and Insurance,
- 7) Improving the basic civic services such as water supply, sanitation etc in JJ-Clusters,
- 8) Creating awareness about sanitation, girl's education, immunization of children, savings etc.

The respondents have given multiple responses for the work done by NGOs/Helps provided by NGOs to the migrants living in JJ-Clusters and therefore a multiple response analysis has been done to analyse the different types of work done by NGOs/helps provided by NGOs to the migrants living in JJ-Clusters.

**Table-6.6 Multiple Response Analysis for different types of work done by NGOs/helps provided by NGOs in JJ-Clusters**

Districts	JJ-Clusters		Works Done by NGOs/Helps provided by NGOs to HHs								
			Children Education and Nutrients Supplements	Child-Immunization	Health Check-Up Camp	Skill Development of Girls/Women	Help in Providing Ration Cards/Aadhar Card etc.	Help in Banking and Insurance Services	Improving the Basic Civic Amenities in Cluster	Creating Awareness among HH in JJ-Clusters	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (9)	% of Response	17.24	6.90	13.79	6.90	0.00	24.14	0.00	31.03	100
		N	5	2	4	2	0	7	0	9	29
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla (30)	% of Response	18.11	16.54	11.02	14.17	3.94	3.15	14.17	18.90	100
		N	23	21	14	18	5	4	18	24	127
Sub-Total (N=39)		% of Response	17.95	14.74	11.54	12.82	3.21	7.05	11.54	21.15	100
		N	28	23	18	20	5	11	18	33	156
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (49)	% of Response	21.37	3.82	0.76	6.11	0.00	0.00	32.82	35.11	100
		N	28	5	1	8	0	0	43	46	131
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera (19)	% of Response	21.59	13.64	21.59	21.59	0.00	0.00	0.00	21.59	100
		N	19	12	19	19	0	0	0	19	88
Sub-Total (N=68)		% of Response	21.46	7.76	9.13	12.33	0.00	0.00	19.63	29.68	100
		N	47	17	20	27	0	0	43	65	219
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar (19)	% of Response	18.46	15.38	12.31	20.00	6.15	1.54	0.00	26.15	100
		N	12	10	8	13	4	1	0	17	65
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur (13)	% of Response	28.95	15.79	0.00	21.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	34.21	100
		N	11	6	0	8	0	0	0	13	38
Sub-Total (N=32)		% of Response	22.33	15.53	7.77	20.39	3.88	0.97	0.00	29.13	100
		N	23	16	8	21	4	1	0	30	103
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar (25)	% of Response	22.32	17.86	16.96	20.54	0.00	0.00	0.00	22.32	100
		N	25	20	19	23	0	0	0	25	112
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur (16)	% of Response	16.42	16.42	17.91	23.88	1.49	0.00	0.00	23.88	100
		N	11	11	12	16	1	0	0	16	67
Sub-Total (N=41)		% of Response	20.11	17.32	17.32	21.79	0.56	0.00	0.00	22.91	100
		N	36	31	31	39	1	0	0	41	179
Total (N=180)		% of Response	20.40	13.24	11.72	16.29	1.52	1.83	9.28	25.72	100
		N	134	87	77	107	10	12	61	169	657

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

From 180 households, who reported that they have benefited from NGOs/NGOs are doing different kinds of work to improve the condition of JJ-Clusters, total 657 responses came, among which highest percentage of response is for creating awareness about sanitation, girls' education, immunization, savings etc. (25.72 per cent) followed by providing education and nutritional supplements to the children living in JJ-Clusters (20.24 per cent), Skill development of girls/women living in JJ-Clusters by providing them vocation training of sewing/embroidery, computer, beauty parlor etc. (16.29 per cent) and Child immunization (13.24 per cent).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the responses related to different types of work done by NGOs/helps provided by NGOs to the households living in JJ-Clusters shows the in most of the JJ-Clusters, the highest percentage share of the response is for the creating awareness about sanitation, girls' education, immunization, savings etc. It shows that the NGOs can be main instrument to spread awareness about different government schemes and programmes for JJ-dwellers.

Except, Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur, in all other JJ-Clusters, the second highest percentage share is for providing education and nutritional supplements to the children living in JJ-Clusters. In Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha of South-West Delhi and the JJ-Clusters of North-East and North-West Delhi, the percentage share is significantly high for the Skill development of girls/women living in JJ-Clusters by providing them vocation training of sewing/embroidery, computer, beauty parlor etc. The percentage of response is also significant for the child immunization and organizing health check camps for the households living in JJ-Clusters. It shows the NGOs are playing important role in the overall growth of children and adolescent girls living in JJ-Clusters.

Another area, on which NGOs are working, is to improve the basic civic amenities in JJ-Clusters. The respondents from Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla reported that the NGO working in their JJ-Clusters built a sanitation complex inside the JJ-Cluster and the respondents from Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj reported that the pipelines for regular supply of water were set up by NGO working in their JJ-Cluster.

The above analysis of different types of work done by NGOs and the helps provided by NGOs to the households living in JJ-Clusters reveals the importance of NGOs for providing social protection to the urban migrants.

### 6.9 ROLE OF MIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS LIVING IN JJ-CLUSTERS AS SOCIAL NETWORK:

The frequency of the visit to native place by any member of the family was asked during field survey to the respondents and, an additional question has also been asked that till date, how many villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any members of households. The subsequent question asked to the respondents is very important to know that, whether households living in JJ-Clusters also act as a social network.

The percentage distribution of the households by frequency of visit of any member of the households to native place shows that in sample households, the highest percentage share is for the households in which any member of the household visited their native place at least once in a year (51 per cent) followed by the households in which any member of the households visited their native place twice in a year (23.75 per cent).

**Table-6.7 Percentage Distribution of the Households by frequency of the visit to native place by any member of the family**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Number of Visit to Native Place by any member of the HHs						Total
		Never	Monthly	Once in a Year	Twice in a Year	Three to Five Times in a Year	Once in 2-5 Year	
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	2	0	50	26	12	10	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	2	0	50	28	6	14	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	2	0	50	27	9	12	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	2	2	60	18	8	10	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	4	10	44	24	10	8	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	3	6	52	21	9	9	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0	0	48	38	14	0	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	14	4	46	18	2	16	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	7	2	47	28	8	8	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	0	2	64	22	4	8	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	6	0	46	16	2	30	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	3	1	55	19	3	19	100
<b>Grand-Total (N=400)</b>		3.75	2.25	51.00	23.75	7.25	12.00	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The percentage share of the households reporting the visit of any member of the households to native place once in 2 to 5 year is also significant (12 per cent). However, only 3.75 per cent households in present study reported that nobody from the family visited to the native place after migration to Delhi. The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households reporting frequency of visit by any member of the family to native place follows the same patter as in total.

The subsequent question asked from respondents that how many co-villagers/friends relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family shows the role of households as social network.

**Table-6.8 Percentage distribution of households by total number of co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours who have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of households**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Till the date of Survey, How many Co-Villagers/Friends/Relatives/Neighbour have migrated to Delhi with the Help of Households				
		0	1-2	3-4	5 or More	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	48	14	10	28	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	36	14	18	32	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	42	14	14	30	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	64	18	16	2	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	48	28	10	14	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	56	23	13	8	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	50	24	14	12	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	68	14	6	12	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	59	19	10	12	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	68	6	14	12	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	72	8	8	12	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	70	7	11	12	100
<b>Grand-Total (N=400)</b>		56.75	15.75	12.00	15.50	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The percentage distribution of the households by number of co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours who have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of household shows that, in sample households, 56.75 per cent reported that they

didn't help any co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours to migrate to Delhi, in other words, not a single co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of these households.

The other 43.25 per cent households reported that they have provided help to co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours to migrate to Delhi. Among these households, 15.75 per cent reported that 1-2 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family, 12 per cent reported that 3-4 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family and 15.50 per cent reported that 5 or more co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family.

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households according to the number of co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours who have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of the households living in these JJ-Clusters shows that highest percentage share of the households in each JJ-Clusters is for those who haven't helped any co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours to migrate to Delhi. However, the percentage share of the households who have helped to the co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours to migrate to Delhi is highest in JJ-Clusters of South Delhi and South-West Delhi as compared to the North-East and North-West Delhi.

The percentage of the households who have reported that 1-2 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of the family is highest in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (28 per cent) followed by Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area (24 per cent). The percentage of households who have reported that 3-4 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (18 per cent) followed by Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj (16 per cent).

However, the percentage of the households who have reported that 5 or more co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family is highest in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (32 per cent) followed by V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad (28 per cent). The percentage share of the households in this category is high in South Delhi and North-West Delhi in comparison to those households

who have reported that 1-2 or 3-4 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours have migrated to Delhi with the help of any member of family.

The above analysis shows that a significant percentage of households in each JJ-Cluster have helped co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbours to migrate to Delhi and therefore it can be surmised that households living in JJ-Clusters play important role in the process of migration as social network.

#### **6.10 GENDER RESOURCE CENTRES (GRCS) AND ITS ROLE IN SOCIAL PROTECTION OF URBAN MIGRANTS:**

Gender Resource Centres (GRCs) were set up in NCT of Delhi in 2002 under a scheme of Delhi Government known as “*Bhagidari: New Initiatives in Social Development*”. The main aim of this scheme was to involve its citizens in local governance and to improve the quality, efficiency and delivery of public services. GRCs are the focal point to reach out to the people and provide the information and benefits of government programmes to the community. Later on, in 2008, Delhi government launched a new programme known as ‘*Mission Convergence*’ to converge all social service schemes run by different department of Delhi government under a single project. A society named *Samajik Suvida Sangam* was formed to implement the *Mission Convergence* and GRCs were attached with this programme. Now, GRCs-Suvida Kendra acts as a single window centres and first point of contact for information and facilitation of access to different welfare schemes and entitlements for the vulnerable section of society. Total 104 GRCs and 26 extension centres are functioning in Delhi under Mission Convergence and the women are most integral part of the programme (Mission Convergence-Consolidated Annual Report, 2014).

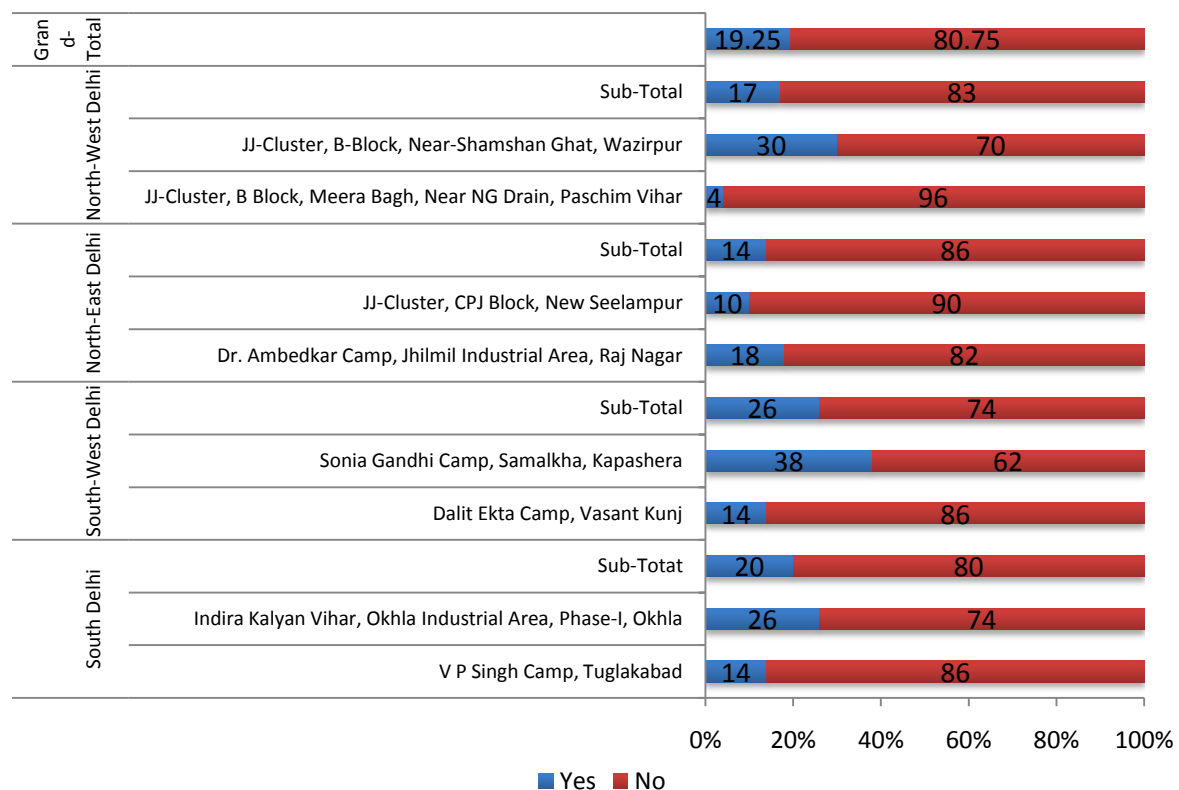
The GRCs are providing the benefit of following programmes under Mission Convergence to the poor and vulnerable section of society: 1) Vocation Training and Skill development to adolescent girls/women 2) Non-formal Education 3) Health and Nutrition Awareness Camp and Clinics 4) Formation of Self Help Groups 5) Legal Awareness and Assistance 6) WASH (Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Programme) 7) Awaaz Uthao Project for awareness and reporting of domestic violence/sexual abuse/harassment/ molestation etc.

In present study, the information about GRCs was collected from the respondents and details are as follows:

### 6.10.1 Knowledge about GRCs in JJ-Clusters:

To avail the benefit of different programmes run by government, it is very important for a household to have the knowledge of the agencies which provide the benefit of the programme to the households living in JJ-Clusters. In this context, it was asked to the respondents that whether they have knowledge about Gender Resource Centre. In sample households, only 19.25 per cent reported that they have knowledge about GRCs, rest 80.75 per cent reported that they never heard about it.

**Figure-6.3 Percentage of households by Knowledge of GRCs**



Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

The district and JJ-Cluster wise percentage distribution of the households by knowledge about GRC shows that the highest percentage of households having knowledge about GRC is in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha (38 per cent) followed by JJ-Cluster, Wazirpur (30 per cent) and Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla (26 per cent). In other JJ-Cluster, the percentage of the households having knowledge about GRC is very low. It shows the lack



of general awareness about GRC and the programmes running through it under Mission Convergence among households living in JJ-Clusters.

### 6.10.2 Types of benefit provided by Gender Resource Centres:

It was asked from the households, who have knowledge about GRCs, that what types of benefit GRC provides to the households. The respondents have given multiple responses related to the different types of benefit provided by GRC. Therefore, a multiple response analysis has been done to show the percentage distribution of responses for each type of benefit provided by GRC to the households. The present analysis has been done only at district level because the sample size for the households who have knowledge about GRC is very small in most of the JJ-Clusters.

**Table-6.9 Multiple Response Analysis for the Types of benefit provided by GRCs**

Districts	Percentage of Response	Types of benefit Provided by GRC					Total
		Vocational Training/Skill Development for Girls/Women	Formation of Self Help Group	Non-Formal Education of Children	Free Health Check Up Camp	spreading awareness about Schemes/programmes	
South Delhi (20)	% Response	14.63	4.88	21.95	12.20	46.34	100
	N	6	2	9	5	19	41
South-West Delhi (26)	% Response	26.00	19.00	18.00	15.00	22.00	100
	N	26	19	18	15	22	100
North-East Delhi (14)	% Response	17.39	8.70	21.74	4.35	47.83	100
	N	4	2	5	1	11	23
North-West Delhi (17)	% Response	35.90	7.69	5.13	10.26	41.03	100
	N	14	3	2	4	16	39
Total (77)	% Response	24.63	12.81	16.75	12.32	33.50	100
	N	50	26	34	25	68	203

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

Out of 77 respondents who have knowledge about GRC, total 203 responses came for the different types of benefit provided by GRCs to the households. The highest percentage share of the responses is for spreading awareness related to different schemes/programmes and other good practices among households living in JJ-Clusters (33.50 per cent) followed by providing vocational training/skill development training to

the girls/women of JJ-Clusters (24.63 per cent) and non-formal education to the children living in JJ-Cluster (16.75 per cent).

The district wise percentage share of response for different types of benefit provided by GRCs to the households shows that except South-West Delhi, in all other JJ-Cluster the percentage share of the response is highest for spreading awareness about different schemes/programmes and best practices among households by GRCs. The percentage share of response for vocational training/skill development training provided by GRCs to the households is highest in North-West Delhi (35.90 per cent) followed by South-West Delhi (26 per cent).

#### Role of GRC: A Case Study

*“The first time when I came to know about Self Help Group, I was very suspicious about it, but when the Didi (workers from GRCs) introduced me about the benefit of participating in Self Help Groups, I started to participate in the meeting of one Self Help Groups functioning in our JJ-Clusters. Now, I regularly contribute in the common pool of money collected for the benefit of members of Self Help Group. My daughter is getting married next month and I will take money from the common pool of my self help group. Now I thank Didi for introducing the benefit of Self Help Group.”*

*.....A 59 year old lady from Sonia Gandhi Camp,  
Samalkha, Kapashera, South West Delhi*

The highest response for formation of Self Help Groups with the help of GRCs is in South-West Delhi (19 per cent). It was observed during field survey that GRC working in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha of South-West Delhi is playing very important role in formation of Self Help Groups (SHGs). The female workers of the GRC had informed the benefit of SHGs to the women living in Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha and women from this JJ-Cluster actively participated in the meeting of SHG and many of them had taken help from their SHG.

The percentage share of response for the non-formal education of children provided by GRC is highest in South Delhi (21.95 per cent) followed by North-East Delhi (21.74 per cent). However, the percentage share of response for organizing free

health check up camp by GRC is highest in South-West Delhi (15 per cent) followed South Delhi (12.20 per cent).

From above analysis, it is apparent that role of GRCs can be more useful to increase the awareness about different schemes and programmes run by government for the welfare of poor and vulnerable section of society provided that if workers from GRCs approach more households in JJ-Clusters and inform them about the programmes running through GRCs, so that, they can get benefit from these programmes.

The only problem found during field survey about GRCs was that it has very limited reach within JJ-Clusters and only a small percentage of households in each JJ-Cluster knew about GRCs and the programmes run by them.

### 6.10.3 Importance of GRCs in the welfare of households:

It has been discussed in previous section that the reach of GRCs can be increased and GRCs can play important role for providing the benefit of different government programmes to the urban poor. In this context, the opinion about the importance of GRCs in the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters was asked with the respondents who have knowledge about GRCs.

Out of 77 households, 36.36 per cent reported that GRC is very important for the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters and 38.96 per cent reported that it is quite important for the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters. However, only 24.68 per cent reported that it is not important for the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters.

**Table-6.10 Opinion of households about importance of GRCs in the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters (in percentage)**

Districts	Importance of GRCs in Welfare of Households living in JJ-Clusters			
	Very Important	Quite Important	Not Important	Total
South Delhi	35.00 (7)	45.00 (9)	20.00 (4)	100 (20)
South-West Delhi	46.15(12)	30.77 (8)	23.08 (6)	100 (26)
North-East Delhi	28.57 (4)	35.71 (5)	35.71(5)	100 (14)
North-West Delhi	29.41 (5)	47.06 (8)	23.53 (4)	100 (17)
<b>Total</b>	<b>36.36(28)</b>	<b>38.96 (30)</b>	<b>24.68 (19)</b>	<b>100 (77)</b>

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in Parenthesis. This information was collected only from those respondents who have knowledge about GRCs.*

The district wise percentage distribution of the respondents according to their opinion about the importance of GRCs in the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters shows that except, North-East Delhi, the percentage share of the respondents, who reported that GRCs is not important for the welfare of households living in JJ-Cluster, is low in all other districts, in comparison to those respondents who have reported that it is very important or quite important for the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters.

It shows that most of the respondents in present study (who have knowledge about GRCs) have opinion that GRCs are very important or quite important for the welfare of households living in JJ-Clusters.

### **6.11 SUMMARY:**

The present chapter assesses the role of the intermediary networks and organisations (social networks, NGOs and Civil Society) for providing the social protection to the urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters. It has been recognized by many studies that social networks at destination provide monetary and psychological help to the newly arrived migrants in the city during his/her adjustment period in urban centre.

The analysis of the social networks with whom head of the households migrated to Delhi shows that only 31 per cent head of the households migrated alone to Delhi rest 69 per cent migrated with different types of social networks among which the other member are the family is the main social network followed by co-villagers/contactors, relatives and friends. It shows that kinship is the main social network with who head of the households migrated to Delhi.

In present study, 92 per cent head of the households reported the availability of previous social networks at the time of their arrival to Delhi. Among the previous network the percentage share of other members of family is highest in most of the JJ-Clusters, followed by relatives and co-villagers/contractors/community leaders. The nature of the relationship with social networks shows that among the other family members Father, Brother and uncle were the main social networks who were already available in Delhi at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi. However, in relatives, it is brother-in-laws who were already living in Delhi at the time of migration of head of the households. The above mentioned nature of relationship shows a patrilineal characteristic of kinship system which is very common in India society.

In present study, the percentage share of the same caste social networks is high in all four types of social networks that are- other member of the family, relatives, co-villagers/neighbours/ contractors/community leaders and friends. Only in South Delhi, the percentage share is high for other castes in friends who were available at the time of migration of head of the households as social network. The high percentage share of the same caste social networks available at the time of migration of the head of the households can be explained by the fact that caste based ties are very strong in Indian society and therefore, if the newly migrated person in urban centre have both- same caste social network and other caste social network, he/she prefers to approach the same caste social network in comparison to other caste social network.

The multiple response analysis of the types of helps provided by social networks shows that staying arrangements & food and help in searching for jobs are the main helps provided by social networks at the initial period of the head of the households in Delhi. The percentage response for the monetary help is also significant which shows that the social networks provided monetary help time to time whenever there is a need in family such as construction/owning of Jhuggi, marriage in family and in other emergency situations. The social networks also helped in availing different type of cards such as Voter-ID, ration card, Aadhar etc. but the percentage of response for this type of help is very insignificant (8.26 per cent) in total.

It was observed during field survey that in each sample JJ-Cluster, one to two NGOs were working. The multiple response analysis of the different types of work done by NGOs/helps provided by NGOs to the households living in JJ-Clusters shows that creating awareness about sanitation, girls education, immunization, savings etc; providing education and nutritional supplements to the children living in JJ-Clusters; Skill development of girls/women living in JJ-Clusters by providing them vocation training of sewing/embroidery, computer, beauty parlor etc. and Child immunization are some major works done by NGOs in JJ-Clusters from which the households benefited. In present study, FORCE, Navjyoti Development Society, NIPUN are some NGOs which are playing important role for providing different types of help to the sample households.

The households living in JJ-Clusters also play an important role of social networks in the process of migration. It has been found in present study that around 43

per cent households reported that with help of them many co-villagers/ friends/ relatives/ neighbour migrated to Delhi. Among these 43 per cent households, 15.75 per cent reported that 1-2 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbour have migrated to Delhi with the help of them, 12 per cent reported that 3-4 co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbour have migrated to Delhi with the help of them and 15.50 per cent reported that 5 or more co-villagers/friends/relatives/neighbour have migrated to Delhi with the help of them.

Apart from NGOs, the Gender Resource Centre is also working in JJ-Clusters to provide the different kind of benefit of the government programmes to the households living in JJ-Clusters. The GRCs were setup by Delhi government in 2002 under a scheme of Delhi Government known as “*Bhagidari: New Initiatives in Social Development*”. It is a single window centres and first point of contact for information and facilitation of access to different welfare schemes and entitlements for the vulnerable section of society. The role of GRCs is examined in the present chapter and the results show that only 19.25 per cent households have knowledge about GRCs, its role and function. Majority of them are benefited from GRCs. The multiple response analysis of the types of help provided by GRCs in JJ-Clusters by the households who have knowledge about GRCs shows that spreading awareness about different schemes/programmes and providing vocational/skill training to the girls/women are the two important works done by GRCs in JJ-Clusters. However, providing non-formal education to the children living in JJ-Clusters, organizing health check up camps and helping women of the JJ-Clusters to form Self Help Groups (SHGs) are the other work done by GRCs in JJ-Clusters.

In comparison to the NGOs working in different JJ-Clusters, the role of GRCs is very limited as the percentage share of the households who have knowledge about GRCs and who have benefited from GRCs is very low as compared to NGOs. The present study shows the reach of GRCs to the households living in different JJ-Clusters is very low because of its poor functioning. The workers from GRCs should approach more households in JJ-Clusters and inform them about the programmes running through GRCs, so that, they can get benefit from these programmes. Most of the households who have knowledge about GRCs and benefited from GRCs think that it is quite important for the welfare of the households in JJ-Clusters. One of the reasons for the poor functioning of

GRCs can be a big catchment area covered by a single GRC because of which they are unable to reach every household of JJ-Clusters.

It can be concluded that the role of social network is very important for providing the social protection mainly at the initial stage of migration. Most of the social networks are formed on the basis of caste and kinship. With a limited resource, NGOs working in different JJ-Clusters are playing important role for the provisioning of different types of help/benefits to the households. The role of GRCs can be much better as they are governed under the control of *Mission Convergence* which is an initiative by Delhi government to provide the benefit of government programmes to the JJ-dwellers.

## CHAPTER-VII

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

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Social protection is evolving as a core policy approach to provide the social security to the poor and vulnerable section of society. It has gained prominence not only in developed countries but the developing countries also. Although the early debate on social protection started with the recognition of “right to social security” in the 1948 Universal declaration of human rights and in the work of ILO but the relevance of social protection has increased in past decade due to increasing risk and vulnerability associated with globalisation and neo-liberal policies. One of the main reasons for emergence of different social protection policies and programmes in developing world is influence of international agencies such as World Bank, Asian Development Bank and ILO. These agencies not only provide the direction to design and implement the social protection policies and programme but also provide the funding for it.

In the process of migration, risk and vulnerability are associated factors. Although the notion that all migrants are vulnerable is clearly not always the case as many migrants who have high skill, education and other resources face temporary difficulties, but a large section of migrants who are at the lower end of labour market and have meagre means of income face more risk and vulnerability. The later section of migrants faces various forms of vulnerability at various stages of migration-at origin, in transit and at destination. The highest form of risk and vulnerability faced by migrants can be identified at destination places because of greater isolation, poor access to housing, basic amenities and other entitlements, poor working conditions and other labour market discriminations.

In Indian context, the regional imbalance in terms of economic development and the promotion of agglomeration economies in and around the pre-existing growth centres after economic reforms has created the gap between rural and urban areas. The low growth in agriculture and non-farm employment sector and reduction in the traditional livelihood opportunities in recent decades has led to the out-migration from under-developed regions to the metropolitan cities. The results of the urban migration rate from recent rounds of NSS (55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup>) show that urban migration rate has increased from 33.4 per cent to 35.4 per cent. In case of males, it has slightly increased from 25.7 to 25.9



per cent. The streams wise migration pattern shows that increment has been found in both rural to urban and urban to urban streams which constitute the total urban migrants.

In the neoclassical framework, it has been argued that the window of migration will provide the opportunities to the labourers from backward regions and they will get absorbed in the emerging labour market. By this way, they will be able to improve their socio-economic conditions and simultaneously will contribute to the urban economy (Kundu & Saraswati, 2012) but in general, the policy environment for the migrants in India seems hostile. Most of the city master plans aim to keep migrants out. An array of social protection policies and programme has been launched by government of India in last one and half decade after the improvement in urban economy but not a single programme focus on poor urban migrants. The recent migration studies (Kundu & Saraswati, 2012; Kundu, 2003, 2009, 2011b; Bhagat, 2012) show exclusionary urbanisation policies toward urban migrants in mega cities and other urban centres. The urban migrants are seen as synonymous of urban poverty and as a major problem in the development process by planners and policy makers. The urban centres are becoming more hostile for urban migrants as they are seen as 'outsiders' and anti-migration sentiments prevail among urban local bodies. In this situation urban migrants are largely deprived from social protection and live in a very vulnerable situation. The genesis of the present study starts after the review of existing studies which show the deprivation of social protection for urban migrants and therefore, the present study try to explore the current status of social protection for urban migrants.

The NCT of Delhi has been taken as a study area in present study because of the reason that in last one and half decade around 70000 slum households had been evicted and 217 slum sites were demolished. Around 14.8 per cent population live in JJ-Clusters, most of them are urban migrants who have migrated to Delhi in search of their fortune. The JJ-Clusters are largely settled on the public land such as DDA, railway, DUSIB, MCD etc. The migrant households living in these JJ-Clusters don't have any property documents, lease papers to produce for tenure security. Therefore, they are the most vulnerable section of society and consistently suffer from threat of eviction. There are few studies (MacAuslan, 2011; Bhan, 2009; Chowdhury, 2011) which show the condition of social protection for urban migrants in NCT of Delhi, but most of these studies cover

only one dimension which is either housing or food or health. There is no comprehensive study which can link the different dimension of social protection in a single thread for urban migrants and therefore, a research gap has been found in the field of social protection of urban migration in India. In this context, the present study is an attempt to analyse the social protection of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi with its different and complementary perspective.

The present study has proposes some key objectives to analyse the social protection of urban migrants in NCT of Delhi. The study starts with the objective of providing an overview of urbanisation, migration and slums in NCT of Delhi. Thereafter, it analyses the migration history and demographic and socio-economic backgrounds of urban migrants in the study area. The three core objectives of the present study are to examine the current housing/tenure status of migrants living in the study area with condition of basic civic amenities and evaluate the government programme running for housing security with the perception of urban migrants living in study areas; to assess the current status of food security of urban migrants and role of different government programme and lastly to evaluate the role of intermediary agents and organisation (Social Networks, NGOs and Civil Society) for assisting in the provisioning of social protection to urban migrants living in study area.

In the context of above objectives, this study puts forward four research propositions and tries to examine them. Firstly, how the trends and patterns of Urbanisation, Migration and Slum population are changing in the NCT of Delhi over time and space. Secondly, what the nature of socio-economic and demographic characteristics of Urban Migrants' Households are living in JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi. The third and most important research proposition is to study the current status of housing and tenure security and food security of migrant households living in sample JJ-Clusters with the critically evaluation of existing programme. The fourth one is to analyse the roles played by social networks and NGOs in the provision of social protection for urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters.

The present study draws the conclusions from secondary as well as primary data sources. Due to limitation of secondary data sources on the social protection of urban migrants, primary data is collected through structured questionnaire. Nevertheless,

secondary data sources have also been used to analyse the magnitude of urbanisation, migration and slum population in NCT of Delhi and to give an overview of the condition of housing and basic civic amenities of the households living in slums and the general overview of PDS in NCT of Delhi.

Stratified random sampling has been used in present study to select the sample area. The first stratum is districts of NCT of Delhi. The four districts South Delhi, South West Delhi, North East Delhi and North West Delhi have been selected on the basis of highest decadal growth rate during 2001-2011 and the presumption that the growth in these peripheral districts is due to high land value in the core areas and eviction and resettlement process adopted by NCT of Delhi especially after Commonwealth Game because of which migrants are started to settle more in peripheral districts. The second stratum is JJ-Clusters in these districts. The selection of the JJ-Clusters is based on the percentage share of the households living in these JJ-Clusters on different land owning agencies. It has been found that the highest percentage share of the households is settled on the land of DDA followed by DUSIB, Railway and MCD. Therefore, from each district, two JJ-Clusters are selected-one, which are settled on the land of DDA and another which are settled on the land of other landowning agencies.

The study is divided into seven chapters in which first and last is introduction and conclusion. The rest five chapters are based on the objectives and research propositions made to examine in this study. Although the detailed findings have been discussed at the end of each chapter, it is useful to present a bird's eye view upon some of the major findings to offer a synthesized view of facts and arguments developed in this work.

The first chapter starts with a brief introduction of the current status of urban migration in India followed by statement of the problem. It provides a detailed overview of the concept of social protection and later conceptualizes the process of migration within a social protection agenda. The chapter also incorporates the survey of literature on the thematic basis and further, it includes the objectives, research questions, data base, methodology (including sampling framework) and chapter scheme.

### ***Exclusionary Nature of Urbanisation-***

The second chapter strives to present a brief account of the magnitude of urbanisation, migration and slum population (including JJ-Clusters) in Delhi. The global

estimates of the top ten UAs in world provided by United Nation's Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division) shows that Delhi has second rank after Tokyo in terms of absolute urban population and the projected annual growth rate of Delhi during 1975-2025 is highest among top UAs of the world. It can be assumed that in future it will surpass the Tokyo and become the world's largest UAs in terms of urban population. However, a different picture can be found from the Census of India, 2011. Although, Delhi has reached to second rank in terms of absolute urban population in top ten UAs in India after Greater Mumbai but a sharp decline has been found in the decadal growth rate of Delhi during 2001-11. This decline is common in most of the UAs in India during 2001-11.

The volume and trends of urbanisation in Delhi shows that since the beginning of 20<sup>th</sup> century till independence, the urban population in Delhi increased consistently. The increment has been found in the absolute urban population as well as the decadal and AEGR of urban population. Just after independence, a sudden growth of urban population was found in Delhi which can be explained by partition of India and Pakistan because of which a large number of peoples migrated from Pakistan came to Delhi and started to live in different squatters. The history of the unauthorized colonies and resettlement colonies in Delhi can be traced from these squatters. After independence, the urban population in Delhi is increasing with each census year except 1991 in which a slight decline was found. The recent census, 2011 shows a high percentage share of urban population in Delhi (97.50 per cent) but the decadal as well as AEGR of urban population during 2001-11 has sharply declined. The spatial pattern of the urban population in Delhi shows that the district in the core area of Delhi (New Delhi and Central Delhi) is witnessing negative growth rate during 2001-11 with hundred per cent urban population living in these districts. It shows that they have reached their saturation level. However, the growth rate of peripheral districts is increasing during 2001-11 and the urban population in these districts is also high as compared to 2001.

The total internal migration rates in NCT of Delhi are very high as compared to total internal migration rates of India but it is almost stagnant during 1981 to 2007-08. The rural-urban differentials in the recent 64<sup>th</sup> round show a sharp decline in the total rural internal migration rate and an increment in the total urban migration rate which can

be explained by the reclassification of villages into towns because of which rural areas are consistently declining in Delhi and converting to urban areas. The gender wise rural-urban migration differentials show that in rural areas of Delhi, female migration rates are always high as compared to the urban areas. However, for male there is inconsistency in the rural and urban migration rates. The recent data from 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS (2007-08) shows a sharp decline in the rural male migration rate and a slight increment in the urban male migration rate. After economic reforms adopted by government of India in 1991, the urban migration rate is increasing for total as well as for male and female.

The stream wise percentage share of the total internal migration in Delhi shows that rural-urban and urban-urban streams have highest percentage share in total. In intra-state, urban-urban migration stream has highest percentage share and inter-state, rural-urban migration streams has highest percentage share. The recent round of NSS (64<sup>th</sup>) shows a decline in the rural-urban migration in total as well as for males and females. The results from secondary data sources shows that employment related reasons and associational migration are the main causes of male urban migration however marriage and associational migration are the main causes of female urban migration in Delhi. It also shows that the migration in the urban areas of Delhi is highly selective towards adult age-groups, other (General) category persons, Hindus, and primary and secondary educated persons as compared to other respective groups. The before and after migration employment status shows that the percentage share of the unemployed and not in labour force declined after migration as compared to before migration employment status and most of them work as regular wage/salaried employees after migration to Delhi.

The slum population in Delhi is declining with negative decadal growth rate during 2001-11. This decline is for total as well as for males and females. One of the positive sign found from the analysis of socio-economic characteristic of slum population in Delhi is that sex ratio, literary rates and work force participation rates are improving in slum population of Delhi. The discussion of the evolution and growth of the JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi shows that a major challenge to study the condition of JJ-Clusters is inconsistency of data provided by different agencies which can be a deliberate attempt by government of Delhi to ignore the condition of the households living in these JJ-Clusters. Recently first time an extensive survey of JJ-Clusters was done by DUSIB in Delhi and

provided the figures that there are 672 JJ-Clusters in Delhi with around 1.5 million people.

The declining growth rate of urban population in Delhi during 2001-11, stagnant migration rates and a negative decadal growth rate of slum population in Delhi can be explained by the exclusionary urban policies adopted by government towards urban migrants in NCT of Delhi. Scholars have argued that the eviction, demolition and resettlement of the slums without proper basic civic amenities is unprecedented in Delhi during last one and half decade and the lack of empathy towards these evictions and demolition among media and other public make the lives of urban migrants living in different JJ-Clusters more miserable and now they are the most vulnerable section of the urban society in Delhi.

#### ***Differential, Selectivity and Determinant of migrant households living in JJ-Clusters***

The third chapter of the present study analyses the nature and characteristics of urban migrants living in sample JJ-Clusters. In the first section of this chapter, the migration history of the head of the households was traced. However in second section, the vital information about demographic, socio-economic characteristics of the head of the households is discussed in detail with a brief discussion of the characteristics of other members of the households.

The traces of migration history of the head of the households living in sample JJ-Clusters reveal that a significant percentage of head of the households in present study are migrated from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan in their early adulthood. The duration of stay shows that most of them have spent 10-30 years in NCT of Delhi and now they are in their 50s as the mean age of the head of the household is 43.24 in present study. It shows that these are old migrants in Delhi. Most of them reported that they took the decision of migration themselves and had knowledge of the vulnerabilities faced by urban migrants in cities. The households' poverty and low wages/income in source area are the main push factor because of which most of the head of the households migrated to Delhi. However, the employment related reasons such as in search of employment and to take the better employment are the main pull factors with attracted the head of the households towards Delhi.

In the demographic characteristics the age-sex structure of the households is discussed. It has been found in present study that 97 per cent households are headed by males only. During field survey, it was observed that in many households females are also working with males but when it comes to report the head of the households, most of the respondents reported working male as head of the households. It shows the patriarchal character of Indian society in which preference has always given to male. It has been discussed above the most of the head of the households are in their 50s. The age-sex distribution of the member of the sample households shows that population in younger age-groups ( $\leq 14$  and 15-29) is very high in sample JJ-Clusters as compared to later age groups. The sex ratio in sample households is 824 which is slightly less as compared to the sex ratio of slum population of Delhi (832). The average household size in present study is 5.9 which is higher to the average households size of slum population of Delhi and India.

In the present study, the percentage share of the OBCs and SCs households is very high as compared to the others. During field survey, only 2 households reported that they are STs. The religious group wise percentage share shows that in present study only Hindu and Muslim households is found during field survey and in comparison to the Muslim households, the percentage share of the Hindu households is very high. One of the interesting finding of the present study is that in sample JJ-Clusters there is a spatial concentration of households on the basis of social groups and religion which can be explained by the social network available at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi who helped them to settle in particular JJ-Cluster where he/she was living. It was observed during field survey that the head of the households migrated from the same states with co-villagers/contractors; relatives etc. prefer to settle in the same JJ-Clusters in which these social networks are already settled. The high percentage of illiterate and landless (at place of origin) head of the households in present study can be explained by the high percentage of OBCs and SCs in present study. In many studies, it has been discussed that these castes are historically deprived from owning a land, getting formal education and other human capitals. In comparison to these social groups, the condition of the head of the households from other category is much better as with increasing level of education and land, the percentage share of head of the households in

other category increases. The results of the education level of other member of the family shows that the younger generation (6-14 and 15-29 age group) in JJ-Clusters is going to schools and colleges and it is same for both gender-male and female. It shows the increasing awareness level for the benefit of education in life among JJ-dwellers.

The pre-migration, post migration (first job in city) and the current employment status of the head of the households are analysed in detail in present study. The analysis shows that most of the head of the households were either agricultural labourers or cultivators before migration to Delhi or they were studying. There is a difference in the pre-migration employment status across social groups. A significant percentage of head of households from SCs and OBCs were agricultural labourers before migration to Delhi, however, the percentage share of the head of the households who worked as cultivator before migration to Delhi is high in other category. The differences in the pre-migration employment status of the head of the households across social groups can be explained by the possession of the landholdings at place of origin by different social groups. Most of the SCs and OBCs head of the households were landless and therefore worked as agricultural labourers. However, the other category head of the households have landholdings and therefore they work as cultivators.

The comparison of the post-migration employment status (first job in city) and the current employment status shows that over the time period, the head of the households shifted from casual labourers to self employed and regular wage/salaried employees. The change is also evident in the industry wise distribution of the employment status of the head of the households. At the time of migration, most of the head of the households were working in manufacturing and construction sectors, but the current employment status shows that although the percentage share of the head of the households is still high in these two sectors but it is declining over time period and the share in other sectors such as wholesale & retail trade, Hotel & Restaurant; Transport, storage and communication and service sector is increasing. The social mobility in the post migration employment status and the current employment status is also found across social groups. The SCs and OBCs head of the households have shifted from casual labourers to self-employed more as compared to other (general category).



One of the interesting findings in present study is the spatial concentration of head of the households with certain kind of employment at a particular JJ-Cluster. It has been found in present study that the head of the households in manufacturing sector is high in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in the Industrial areas. However, the percentage share of the head of the households in construction sector is high in the JJ-Clusters which are settled in residential area.

### ***The poor housing status of the migrant households living in JJ-Clusters***

Chapter four of the present study examines the current status of housing/tenure security of households living in JJ-Clusters. The technical groups of 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> five year plan have already estimated a significant urban housing shortage in India and it is more for the economically weaker section (EWS). The urban housing shortage in Delhi estimated by 11<sup>th</sup> plan technical group was 1.13 million households in 2007 which has declined to 0.49 million in 2012. The discussion of the different types of settlement according to their tenure status shows that only 23.7 per cent population in Delhi live in planned colonies however, nearly 76 per cent population live in the settlement that are unplanned.

The analysis of the results from field survey gives more insights and in-depth analysis of the ground realities of the housing and tenure status of the households living in JJ-Clusters. The ownership status which is most of the time acclaimed by sample households in present study without providing any lease document/property papers etc. shows that in sample households, total 81.75 per cent reported that they owned their Jhuggi and rest 18.25 per cent reported that they live on rent. Among rented households, the percentage share of the SCs and OBCs is high as compared to other. It may be due to the fact the owning/construction of a Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters is still a difficult task for SCs and OBCs.

Majority of the households in present study live in *pucca* Jhuggi except the households living in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj and Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha where a significant percentage of households live in *semi-pucca* and *katcha* Jhuggi. The predominant material used by sample households to make the walls and floors of the Jhuggi is cement and for roof, it is stone/lime stone followed by Iron/tin/Asbestos sheets or both but it was observed during field survey that the condition of these Jhuggi is not very good because a most of them are old. Except Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, in most

of the JJ-Clusters, households live in two storeys and three storeys Jhuggi also. These Jhuggi violate all housing norms. It is known fact that Delhi come in seismic-zone 4 and in this condition, these Jhuggi can be a cause of major devastation in case of high intensity earthquake. A high percentage of households living in JJ-Clusters don't have separate bathroom and kitchen because of which the female members of the households suffer more. They have to wake up early in the morning and take bath and privacy is a major concern reported by them.

### ***Devalaya<sup>1</sup> Vs Sauchalya<sup>2</sup>***

The debate about *Devalaya Vs Sauchalya* is very relevant in case of present study where only 21.50 per cent households have toilet inside their Jhuggi and rest 78.50 per cent use alternative means of toilets such as public toilets/ sulabh international, open defecation and both. Due to the filthy condition of public toilets a significant percentage of households in different JJ-Clusters go for open defecation which exposed the recently launched *Swacha Bharat Abhiyan*. Without providing the proper sanitation to the slum dwellers, the dream of a *swacha bharat* is far away.

### ***The crisis of drinking water***

Only 19.50 per cent households reported that they have water facility inside their Jhuggi, rest 80.50 per cent households are dependent on the alternative source of water such as public water tap or tanker by Delhi Jal board and public bore well. It was reported by households during field survey that in summer the crisis of drinking water become severe as compared to winter. The crisis of drinking water is more in Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj where most of the households are dependent on tanker by Delhi Jal board.

### ***The determining factors for the differences in the quality of housing and basic amenities***

Two separate indices have been constructed to show the quality of housing and quality of basic amenities in JJ-Clusters and households are classified into three categories low, medium and high for housing and low, moderate and good for basic amenities. The descriptive analysis shows that social groups, ownership of Jhuggi, employment status of head of the households, duration of migration and land owning agency are some factors

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<sup>1</sup> Worship Place,

<sup>2</sup> Toilet

which determine the differences in quality of housing and basic amenities possessed/availed by households in the JJ-Clusters. Two separate multinomial regressions has been done to examine the associational factors responsible for the differences in the quality of housing and quality of basic amenities in JJ-Clusters. The odds ratios from multinomial regression validate the results from descriptive analysis.

***The high investment made by households to construct/own a Jhuggi in JJ-Cluster and fear of eviction***

In sample JJ-Clusters, the average cost of owning/construction of the Jhuggi reported by households is ranged from 7 thousands to 2.63 lakhs depending the types of Jhuggi and number of rooms. It can be said that the total spending of the households to own/construct the Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters is an achievement for the households living in JJ-Clusters because most of them invested a lots to build their Jhuggi. The households' savings and the borrowing from friends/relatives/money lenders are the main source of finance from which they own/construct their Jhuggi. Over the time period an increment is found in the cost of owning/construction of Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters as the current price of the Jhuggi reported from households is ranged from 20 thousands to 3 lakhs.

In present study, all households are living in JJ-Clusters settled on public land and during field survey it was found that not a single household in present study have any property documents/lease paper. This is the reason that around 92 per cent households in present study reported that they live in consistent fear of eviction. The high investment made by them to own/construct Jhuggi in JJ-Clusters makes them more vulnerable. They informed the researcher that every year they get notice to evict the slum and news about the demolition /eviction of any JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi give nightmare to them. Despite the fear of eviction, opportunities and work available at nearby places, school going children and lack of money to shift another place is some of the reasons because of which they are forced to live in JJ-Clusters.

***Willingness to participate in In-Situ development/resettlement of JJ-Cluster***

Most of the sample households in present study don't have knowledge about existing housing programmes for slum dwellers. When the researcher introduced it to them, around 70 per cent households were ready to participate in in-situ development/resettlement housing programme. However, the rest 30 per cent don't trust

the government officials. They reported that it would affect the current employment and education of their children and they also express the fear that they can be excluded from list of beneficiaries. The possession of certain documents increases the possibility to have a proper housing at the time of in-situ development/resettlement of JJ-Clusters. The study shows that the households who claimed that they owned their Jhuggi possess most of the document such as ration card, Aadhar Card, Voter-ID, Electricity Bill with current address, Bank passbook with current address etc, but only a small percentage of rented households in JJ-Clusters reported that they have these documents. It is because most of the time landlords in the JJ-Clusters don't allow tenants to use the address of the Jhuggi to obtain any documents. It shows that in comparison to the households who owned their Jhuggi, rented households are more vulnerable in present study.

***The food security status of the households living in JJ-Clusters:***

The National Food Security Act has been implemented in Delhi from 1<sup>st</sup> September, 2013. The chapter five tries to access the current food security status of the households living in JJ-Clusters by evaluating the performance of PDS in JJ-Clusters. The results from field survey shows that in sample households only 65.5 per cent have ration cards, rest 34.5 per cent reported that they don't have ration card to avail the benefit of the PDS. It shows that a significant percentage of households in JJ-Clusters are still deprived from the benefit of PDS even after the implementation of NFSA in Delhi which given statutory right of food to every citizen.

The analysis from field survey shows that most of the households don't obtain the ration card because they don't fulfill the criteria for obtaining the ration cards in other words they don't possess the necessary document for obtaining ration cards. Many households reported that they applied for ration card many times but rejected on various grounds such as incomplete forms, not attaching the required documents etc. As discussed above most of the head of the households in present study are illiterate and therefore, they are unable to know the requirement of different types of ration cards. The lengthy procedure of obtaining a ration card is also a main reason for not obtaining a ration card by households in JJ-Clusters especially the households in which head of the households are daily wage labourer.

### ***Exclusion Errors in PDS:***

Among the ration card holders, 35.25 per cent have BPL (PR-S) ration card, 17 per cent have BPL (PR) ration card which is a smart card issued after implementation of NFSA in Delhi and only 13.25 per cent have Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) ration card. The percentage distribution of the ration card holders across social groups shows that in present study OBCs and other category households ration card holders are high as compared to SCs households. Even in BPL-PR(S) card holders, the percentage of other (general) category households is high as compared to OBCs and SCs which shows that there is a large scale exclusion error in sample JJ-Clusters because the other category households in JJ-Cluster are relatively better off in comparison to SCs and OBCs. In AAY, the percentage of SC households is highest. However, in recently issued BPL-PR (smart card), the percentage of OBCs is highest followed by SCs.

### ***Ownership status of Jhuggi is one of the determining factors for obtaining a ration card***

The present study shows that as compared to the households who owned their Jhuggi, the percentage share of the ration card holders is very low in rented households. It is because most of the time the landlords don't allow their tenants to use the address of the Jhuggi to make the ration cards. Although there is provision in PDS that if landlord take the guarantee of the tenant, the households can obtain ration card. In BPL-PR (S) and AAY ration card holders, the percentage share of rented households is very low. However, after implementation of NFSA in Delhi, the condition for rented households has improved.

The results from field survey shows that with increasing duration of time in Delhi, the percentage share of the households having a ration card increases. The logistic regression done to show the determining factors for possession of a ration card shows that duration of stay in Delhi and the land owning agency on which households are settled are the most important factors for possession of ration card by households.

### ***The non-availability and poor functioning of FPS***

In present study, three JJ-Clusters, Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj, Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area and JJ-Cluster, Meera Bagh don't have Fair Price Shop (FPS) inside the JJ-Cluster because of which the ration card holders from these JJ-Clusters spend extra money and time to lift their ration from FPS. The ration card holders from the

present study reported many problems related to functioning of FPS such as opening days is not fix in month and it is ranged from only 2 days to two weeks in different JJ-Clusters because of which many times the ration card holders could not able to lift their quota due to lack of money.

***Dependency on PDS and the differences of the Monthly expenditure between ration card holders and the households who don't have ration card***

The dependency on PDS is more for wheat and sugar as compared to rice. Most of the ration card holders are totally dependent on other sources (open market) for rice. The results from field survey shows that the dependency of AAY ration card holders is more on PDS as compared to other ration card holders. The average monthly expenditure on rice, wheat and sugar from open market is more among the households who don't have ration cards as compared to the households who have ration cards. It shows the significant role of PDS in monthly expenditure of the households.

***Discrepancies and Malpractices found in PDS***

A significant percentage of ration card holders reported that they don't get full quota of ration allotted on their cards. They reported that FPS owner bluntly refuses to give the full quota to the beneficiaries. The other malpractices reported by ration card holders are quota allotted to the ration card holders sold in the open market or appropriated by someone else in case of delay in lifting the quota by ration card holder; irregularities in the entries made on the ration cards; only sign by FPS owner on ration cards and no entries of the ration lifted by ration card holders etc. Many ration card holders reported that they don't file a complaint against FPS dealer because he has linkages with high authorities and their card can be cancelled by authorities on the request of FPS dealer. They also receive threat from FPS owner if they file complaint against him.

***Poor Functioning of PDS in JJ-Clusters***

The reporting of the quality, quantity, accessibility and availability of the ration from PDS shows that most of the ration card holders are not happy with current status of PDS. They reported that the quantity and quality of the ration from PDS is worse over time period and there is no improvement in the accessibility and availability of ration from PDS, it is same as compared to 5 year ago. In spite of the poor functioning of the PDS,

most of the ration card holders in present study don't want cash transfer scheme. They suggested that the PDS should be improved in its current form.

Overall, it is can be sum up that despite the implementation of the NFSA in Delhi, the condition of PDS has not improved for the ration card holders of the JJ-Clusters.

#### ***Kinship as a most important social network***

Chapter Six of the present study examines the role of intermediary networks and organisations for the provision of social protection to the urban migrants. The results from the field survey show that kinship is the main social network which has helped/provided benefit to the head of the households at every stage. The other social networks who helped the head of the households are relative and co-villagers/contractors/community leaders.

#### ***Nature of relationship of the social network is patrilateral and they play an important role for provisioning of social protection to urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters***

The nature of relationship with the social networks in present study is patrilateral because among the kinship- Father, Brother and uncle were the main social networks who were already available in Delhi at the time of migration of head of the households to Delhi and relatives, brother in law is the main social networks who were in Delhi at the time of migration of head of the households. These social networks helped the head of the households in initial days of head of the households in Delhi. They provided not only food & shelter in initial days of head of the households in Delhi but provided help in searching the jobs also. The sample households in present study reported that social networks provided monetary help time to time whenever there was need in family such as owning/construction of Jhuggi, marriages and other emergency situations.

#### ***Caste is an important factor in Social Networking***

The results from the present study shows that caste is an important factor in social networks because in all four types of social networks reported by households- kinship, relatives, co-villagers/neighbours/ contractors/community leaders and friends the percentage share of the same caste social networks is very high. It can be explained by the fact that caste based ties are very strong in Indian society and therefore, if the newly migrated person in urban centre have both- same caste social network and other caste

social network, he/she prefers to approach the same caste social network in comparison to other caste social network.

***NGOs play important role in the provisioning of Social Protection as compared to GRCs***

The role of organisations working in JJ-Clusters such as NGOs and GRCs is also examined during field survey. It was observed during field survey that in each sample JJ-Cluster, one to two NGOs were working. The different types of work done by NGOs/helps provided by NGOs to the households living in JJ-Clusters shows that creating awareness about sanitation, girls' education, immunization, savings etc; providing education and nutritional supplements to the children living in JJ-Clusters; Skill development of girls/women living in JJ-Clusters by providing them vocation training of sewing/embroidery, computer, beauty parlor etc. and Child immunization are some major works done by NGOs in JJ-Clusters from which the households benefited. In present study, *FORCE*, *Navjyoti Development Society*, *NIPUN* are some NGOs which are playing important role for providing different types of help to the sample households.

The results from field survey indicate the in comparison to NGOs the role of GRCs for providing helps to the households is very limited because only 19.25 per cent households in present study reported that they know about GRCs and benefited from it. Spreading awareness about different schemes/programmes and providing vocational/skill development for girls/women are the two important works done by GRCs in JJ-Clusters. However, it also provides non-formal education to the children living in JJ-Clusters and organizes health check up camp in JJ-Clusters. It helps the women living in JJ-Clusters to form the Self Help Groups (SHGs). One of the reasons for the poor functioning of GRCs can be a big catchment area covered by a single GRC because of which they are unable to reach every household of JJ-Clusters.

***Policy implications***

The results from the present study show the poor housing and tenure status of urban migrants living in JJ-Clusters. The problem is more with the accessibility and availability of the basic civic amenities for these migrants. The performance of PDS is also very poor in JJ-Clusters as one third households in present study are still outside public distribution system. After economic reforms, an array of social protection programmes has been



launched by government including programmes related to housing and tenure security and basic services for urban poor. The focus of the two main components of JNNURM- “*Basic Services for Urban Poor (BSUP)*” and “*Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP)*” was to improve the housing condition for slum dwellers including providing the better basic civic amenities but the progress of JNNURM in Delhi is dismal. There was provision in *Rajiv Awas Yojana* for the in-situ development of JJ-Clusters but in Delhi only a small number of JJ-Clusters are benefited from in-situ development. The recently launched *Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana- Housing for all (Urban)* has subsumed the liability of *Rajiv Awas Yojana* and promises to address the housing problems in slums by in-situ development. The households who owned their Jhuggi will be benefited from this programme.

The recently drafted National Urban Rental Housing Policy by MoHUPA has some provisions to solve the problems of urban migrants living in slums. In this draft policy, there is a proposal to make hostels/dormitories for single member migrants which can be very helpful for newly arrived single migrants in urban centres. A very important model has been proposed by this draft policy which can solve the housing and tenure problem of households living in JJ-Clusters. It is a well known fact that most of the slums in India are settled on the land of urban local bodies and the slum households don't have any tenure security. The draft policy proposes that urban local bodies can rent out the land to the slum households and provide them ‘no eviction guarantee’ for a certain time of period (like 10 year or more) by this way urban local bodies will get rent revenue and the slum households will be free from the fear of eviction.

Many steps have been taken to improve the public distribution system in India including Delhi with use of recent information technology such as digitization of ration cards, computerized allocation of FPS, issue of smart cards on the place of ration cards, SMS base monitoring and web-based citizen portal etc. After implementation of NFSA in Delhi, many poor migrants in slum have obtained a new ration card (smart card) under *Delhi Khadya Surakhsha Yojana*.

It can be seen from above discussion that although the effort has been made from government to solve the housing and tenure securing and food security of the slum migrants but the problems at monitoring and implementation level. If properly

implemented, the above mentioned programmes can solve the issue of housing and tenure security and food security in slum population.

***Limitation and scope for further research***

One of the limitations of the present study is that it is not able to include the single member migrants living in JJ-Clusters. The effort was made by researcher but due to their working hours, most of the time their Jhuggi were found locked. This study is failed to capture the households who have suffered from demolition or eviction. Only few households living on rents in present study reported that they have Jhuggi in the JJ-Cluster but due to construction of road/sewage their Jhuggi was demolished by authority and now they are living on rent in the same JJ-Cluster. The present study focuses only on demand side; the supply side is not discussed in present study. It doesn't include the opinion of different agencies which handle the housing, tenure security and food security in JJ-Clusters.

The two major dimensions of social protection are housing and food which are discussed in the present study. The government has started programmes related to housing and NFSA has been just implemented in Delhi and therefore, it would be an interesting task for a researcher to evaluate these programmes after their proper implementation in Delhi. The study of the supply side factors such as interviews/opinion of the different agencies can also be done.

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## APPENDICES

**Table-A 2.1 Population Size of Ten Largest Urban Agglomerations in  
different time period (in Millions)**

1950		1975		2000	
Urban Agglomeration	Population	Urban Agglomeration	Population	Urban Agglomeration	Population
New York-Newark	12.34	Tokyo	26.61	Tokyo	34.45
Tokyo	11.27	Kinki M.M.A. (Osaka)	16.30	Kinki M.M.A. (Osaka)	18.66
London	8.36	New York-Newark	15.88	Ciudad de México (Mexico City)	18.46
Kinki M.M.A. (Osaka)	7.01	Ciudad de México (Mexico City)	10.73	New York-Newark	17.81
Paris	6.28	São Paulo	9.61	São Paulo	17.01
Moskva (Moscow)	5.36	Los Angeles-Long Beach-Santa Ana	8.93	Mumbai (Bombay)	16.37
Buenos Aires	5.10	Buenos Aires	8.74	Delhi	15.73
Chicago	5.00	Paris	8.56	Shanghai	13.96
Kolkata (Calcutta)	4.51	Kolkata (Calcutta)	7.89	Al-Qahirah (Cairo)	13.63
Shanghai	4.30	Rio de Janeiro	7.73	Kolkata (Calcutta)	13.06
2015		2025		2030	
Urban Agglomeration	Population	Urban Agglomeration	Population	Urban Agglomeration	Population
Tokyo	38.00	Tokyo	37.88	Tokyo	37.19
Delhi	25.70	Delhi	32.73	Delhi	36.06
Shanghai	23.74	Shanghai	29.44	Shanghai	30.75
São Paulo	21.07	Beijing	26.49	Mumbai (Bombay)	27.80
Mumbai (Bombay)	21.04	Mumbai (Bombay)	25.21	Beijing	27.71
Ciudad de México (Mexico City)	21.00	Dhaka	24.33	Dhaka	27.37
Beijing	20.38	Ciudad de México (Mexico City)	22.92	Karachi	24.84
Kinki M.M.A. (Osaka)	20.24	São Paulo	22.90	Al-Qahirah (Cairo)	24.50
Al-Qahirah (Cairo)	18.77	Al-Qahirah (Cairo)	22.43	Lagos	24.24
New York-Newark	18.59	Karachi	22.01	Ciudad de México (Mexico City)	23.86

*Source: World Urbanisation Prospects: The 2014 Revision; United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division). The current name of the Urban Agglomeration is given in the parenthesis.*

**Table- A3.1 Origin of the Head of the Households (District Level)**

**A) Head of the Households by Districts of Uttar Pradesh**

Districts	South Delhi	South-West Delhi	North-East Delhi	North-West Delhi	Total
Agra	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	4.88 (2)	1.83 (3)
Aligarh	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	2.44 (1)	1.22 (2)
Allahabad	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	5.88 (4)	0.00 (0)	3.05 (5)
Ambedkar Nagar	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Amethi	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Azamgarh	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	<b>9.76 (4)</b>	2.44 (4)
Badaun	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	7.35 (5)	0.00 (0)	3.05 (5)
Ballia	<b>27.27 (9)</b>	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	5.49 (9)
Bareilly	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	2.44 (1)	1.22 (2)
Basti	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.94 (2)	2.44 (1)	1.83 (3)
Bijnor	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	4.41 (3)	0.00 (0)	1.83 (3)
Bulandshahr	3.03 (1)	<b>31.82 (7)</b>	4.41 (3)	0.00 (0)	<b>6.71 (11)</b>
Chitrakoot	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.44 (1)	0.61 (1)
Deoria	6.06 (2)	4.55 (1)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	2.44 (4)
Etah	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Etawah	6.06 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.44 (1)	1.83 (3)
Faizabad	3.03 (1)	4.55 (1)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	1.83 (3)
Firozabad	0.00 (0)	<b>9.09 (2)</b>	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.22 (2)
Ghazipur	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Gonda	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	4.41 (3)	2.44 (1)	3.05 (5)
Gorakhpur	6.06 (2)	<b>9.09 (2)</b>	<b>11.76 (8)</b>	2.44 (1)	<b>7.93 (13)</b>
Hamirpur	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.44 (1)	0.61 (1)
Hardoi	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Hathras	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Jalaun	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	7.32 (3)	1.83 (3)
Jaunpur	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	<b>9.76 (4)</b>	3.05 (5)
Jhansi	3.03 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Kanpur	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	2.44 (1)	1.22 (2)
Kushinagar	3.03 (1)	4.55 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.22 (2)
Lucknow	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	1.47 (1)	4.88 (2)	2.44 (4)
Maharajganj	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Mahoba	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	<b>24.39 (10)</b>	<b>6.10 (10)</b>
Mainpuri	<b>9.09 (3)</b>	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.83 (3)

Mau	<b>9.09 (3)</b>	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.83 (3)
Meerut	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	4.41 (3)	0.00 (0)	1.83 (3)
Moradabad	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	4.41 (3)	2.44 (1)	2.44 (4)
Pilibhit	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Pratapgarh	6.06 (2)	0.00 (0)	<b>26.47 (18)</b>	2.44 (1)	<b>12.80 (21)</b>
Raebareli	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	0.00 (0)	<b>9.76 (4)</b>	3.05 (5)
Rampur	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Shahjahanpur	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Siddharthnagar	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
Sultanpur	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.94 (2)	2.44 (1)	1.83 (3)
Unnao	3.03 (1)	<b>9.09 (2)</b>	1.47 (1)	0.00 (0)	2.44 (4)
Varanasi	0.00 (0)	4.55 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.61 (1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>100 (33)</b>	<b>100 (22)</b>	<b>100 (68)</b>	<b>100 (41)</b>	<b>100 (164)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

### B) Head of the Households by Districts of Bihar

Districts	South Delhi	South-West Delhi	North-East Delhi	North-West Delhi	Total
Araria	0.00 (0)	<b>18.60 (8)</b>	0.00 (0)	2.78 (1)	6.21 (9)
Aurangabad	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	8.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
Begusarai	7.41 (4)	2.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	5.56 (2)	4.83 (7)
Bhagalpur	5.56 (3)	0.00 (0)	<b>25.00 (3)</b>	0.00 (0)	4.14 (6)
Bhojpur	0.00 (0)	2.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
Darbhanga	<b>16.67 (9)</b>	4.65 (2)	0.00 (0)	<b>41.67 (15)</b>	<b>17.93 (26)</b>
East Champaran	1.85 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
Gaya	0.00 (0)	2.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
Gopalganj	1.85 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
Kaimur	1.85 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
Khagaria	0.00 (0)	9.30 (4)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.76 (4)
Madhubani	<b>33.33 (18)</b>	4.65 (2)	<b>16.67 (2)</b>	<b>27.78 (10)</b>	<b>22.07 (32)</b>
Munger	1.85 (1)	2.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.38 (2)
Muzaffarpur	3.70 (2)	<b>27.91 (12)</b>	<b>16.67 (2)</b>	0.00 (0)	<b>11.03 (16)</b>
Nalanda	0.00 (0)	6.98 (3)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.07 (3)
Patna	0.00 (0)	4.65 (2)	8.33 (1)	2.78 (1)	2.76 (4)
Purnia	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.78 (1)	0.69 (1)
Saharsa	3.70 (2)	0.00 (0)	8.33 (1)	5.56 (2)	3.45 (5)
Samastipur	3.70 (2)	6.98 (3)	0.00 (0)	5.56 (2)	4.83 (7)
Saran	0.00 (0)	2.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	2.78 (1)	1.38 (2)
Sheikhpura	1.85 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)

Sitamarhi	1.85 (1)	2.33 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.38 (2)
Siwan	5.56 (3)	2.33 (1)	<b>16.67 (2)</b>	2.78 (1)	4.83 (7)
Supaul	3.70 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.38 (2)
Vaishali	1.85 (1)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.69 (1)
West-Champaran	3.70 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	1.38 (2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>100 (54)</b>	<b>100 (43)</b>	<b>100 (12)</b>	<b>100 (36)</b>	<b>100 (145)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015)

### C) Head of the Households by Districts of Madhya Pradesh

Districts	South Delhi	South-West Delhi	North-East Delhi	North-West Delhi	Total
Bhind	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	<b>42.86 (6)</b>	<b>12.50 (6)</b>
Chhatarpur	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	<b>50.00 (8)</b>	<b>50.00 (7)</b>	<b>31.25 (15)</b>
Damoh	0.00 (0)	<b>21.43 (3)</b>	12.50 (2)	0.00 (0)	<b>10.42 (5)</b>
Dewas	<b>75.00 (3)</b>	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	6.25 (3)
Gwalior	<b>25.00 (1)</b>	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	2.08 (1)
Harda	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	12.50 (2)	0.00 (0)	4.17 (2)
Hoshangabad	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	12.50 (2)	0.00 (0)	4.17 (2)
Sagar	0.00 (0)	<b>78.57 (11)</b>	12.50 (2)	0.00 (0)	<b>27.08 (13)</b>
Tikamgarh	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	7.14 (1)	2.08 (1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>100 (4)</b>	<b>100 (14)</b>	<b>100 (16)</b>	<b>100 (14)</b>	<b>100 (48)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

### D) Head of the Households by Districts of Rajasthan

Districts	South Delhi	South-West Delhi	North-East Delhi	North-West Delhi	Total
Ajmer	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0	12.50 (1)	5.00 (1)
Alwar	0.00 (0)	9.09 (1)	0	25.00 (2)	<b>15.00 (3)</b>
Banswara	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0	12.50 (1)	5.00 (1)
Bharatpur	0.00 (0)	18.18 (2)	0	37.50 (3)	<b>25.00 (5)</b>
Dausa	0.00 (0)	18.18 (2)	0	0.00 (0)	10.00 (2)
Karauli	0.00 (0)	36.36 (4)	0	12.50 (1)	<b>25.00 (5)</b>
Kota	0.00 (0)	9.09 (1)	0	0.00 (0)	5.00 (1)
Sawai Madhopur	100 (1)	0.00 (0)	0	0.00 (0)	5.00 (1)
Sikar	0.00 (0)	9.09 (1)	0	0.00 (0)	5.00 (1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>100 (1)</b>	<b>100 (11)</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>100 (8)</b>	<b>100 (20)</b>

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

**Table- A3.2 Mean Age of the Head of the Households at the time of Survey**

Districts	JJ-Clusters	Mean Age of Head of the Households at time of Survey
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	44.06
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	44.24
	<b>Mean Age of HoH</b>	44.15
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	38.64
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	40.76
	<b>Mean Age of HoH</b>	39.70
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	43.28
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	43.14
	<b>Mean Age of HoH</b>	43.21
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	44.92
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	46.92
	<b>Mean Age of HoH</b>	45.92
<b>Mean Age of the Total HoH</b>		43.24

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

**Table- A3.3 Percentage Distribution of the Head of the Households by Gender**

Districts	Clusters	Male	Female	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	98	2	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	100	0	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	99	1	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	100	0	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	96	4	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	98	2	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	98	2	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	92	8	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	95	5	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	98	2	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	94	6	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	96	4	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		97	3	100

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).

**Table- A4.1 Percentage distribution of the Households by  
Number of Living Rooms and Household Size**

Household Size	Number of Living Rooms			
	One Room Only	Two Rooms	Three and More Rooms	Total
<=4	64 (67)	24 (25)	12 (13)	100 (105)
5-8	41 (102)	45 (112)	13 (33)	100 (247)
>=9	13 (6)	42 (20)	46 (22)	100 (48)

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.*

**Table- A4.2 Percentage distribution of the Households by Drainage Facility**

Districts	Clusters	Open Discharge Only	Common Drainage Only	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	0	100	100
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	12	88	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	6	94	100
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	12	88	100
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	10	90	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	11	89	100
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0	100	100
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	4	96	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	2	98	100
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	0	100	100
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	0	100	100
	<b>Sub-Total (N=100)</b>	0	100	100
<b>Grand Total (N=400)</b>		4.75	95.25	100

*Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015).*



**Table A5.1 Percentage distribution of the Ration Card Holders according to their response of the opening days of FPS is adequate or not**

Districts	Clusters	Are the Opening Days of FPS in a Month adequate?		
		Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	13 (4)	87 (26)	100 (30)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	0 (0)	100 (34)	100 (34)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	6 (4)	94 (60)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	4 (1)	96 (27)	100 (28)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	32 (7)	68 (15)	100 (22)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	16 (8)	84 (42)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	0 (0)	100 (31)	100 (31)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	5 (2)	95 (36)	100 (38)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	3 (2)	97 (67)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	3(1)	97 (36)	100 (37)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	24 (10)	76 (32)	100 (42)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	14 (11)	86 (68)	100 (79)
<b>Grand-Total (N=262)</b>		9.54 (25)	90.46 (237)	100 (262)

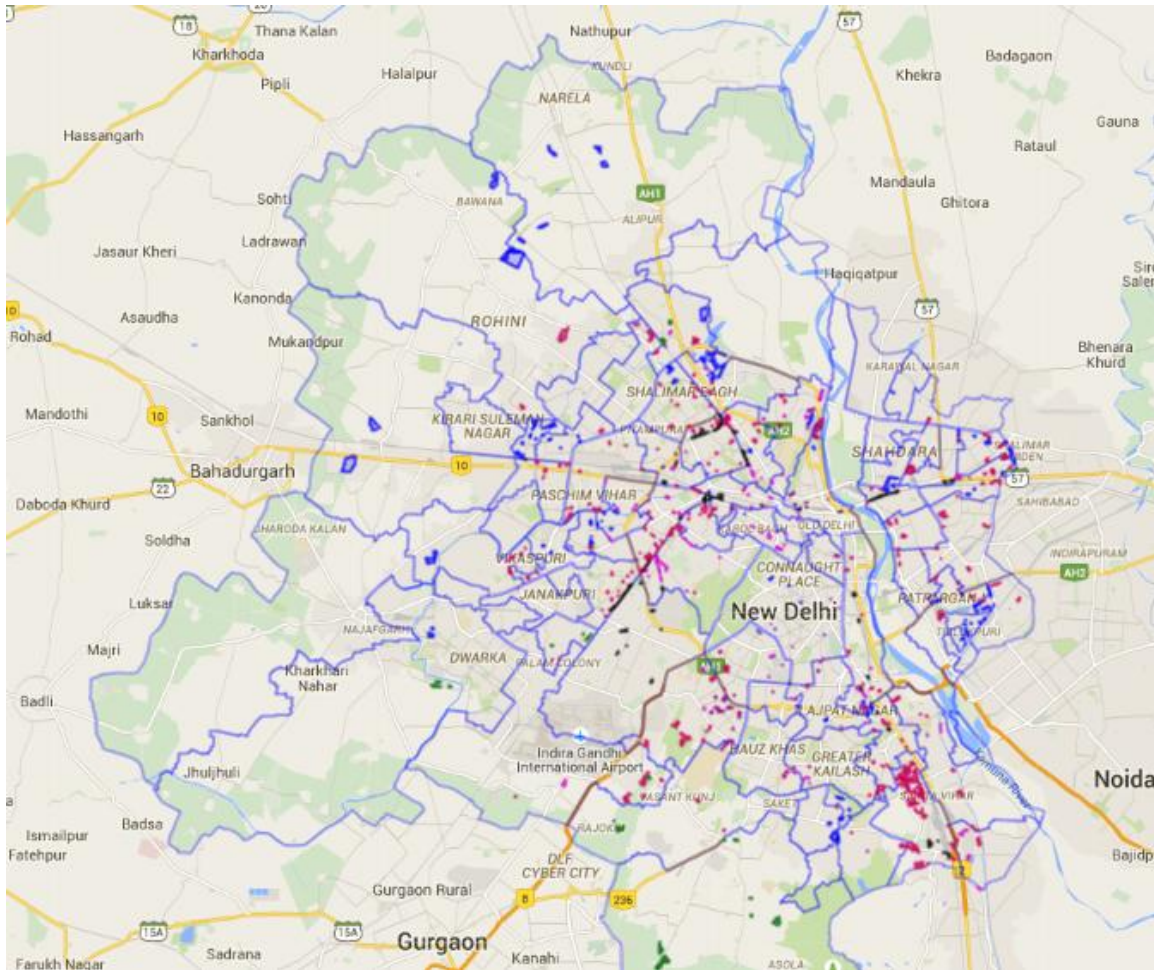
Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

**Table A5.2 Percentage of Households getting regular information about availability of Ration at FPS and its opening**

District	Cluster	HHs Regularly get the information of availability of Ration at FPS & Its opening		
		Yes	No	Total
South Delhi	V P Singh Camp, Tuglakabad	93.33 (28)	6.67 (2)	100 (30)
	Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla Industrial Area, Phase-I, Okhla	94.12 (32)	5.88 (2)	100 (34)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	93.75 (60)	6.25 (4)	100 (64)
South-West Delhi	Dalit Ekta Camp, Vasant Kunj	64.29 (18)	35.71 (10)	100 (28)
	Sonia Gandhi Camp, Samalkha, Kapashera	100.00 (22)	0.00 (0)	100 (22)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	80.00 (40)	20.00 (10)	100 (50)
North-East Delhi	Dr. Ambedkar Camp, Jhilmil Industrial Area, Raj Nagar	90.32 (28)	9.68 (3)	100 (31)
	JJ-Cluster, CPJ Block, New Seelampur	86.84 (33)	13.16 (5)	100 (38)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	88.41 (61)	11.59 (8)	100 (69)
North-West Delhi	JJ-Cluster, B Block, Meera Bagh, Near NG Drain, Paschim Vihar	89.19 (33)	10.81 (4)	100 (37)
	JJ-Cluster, B-Block, Near-Shamshan Ghat, Wazirpur	92.86 (39)	7.14 (3)	100 (42)
	<b>Sub-Total</b>	91.14 (72)	8.86 (7)	100 (79)
<b>Grand-Total</b>		88.93 (233)	11.07 (29)	100 (262)

Source: Field Survey (October, 2014 – January, 2015). Samples are given in parenthesis.

**Map-A.1 Location of JJ-Clusters in NCT of Delhi**



Source: Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board. Note: The red dots in the Map are location of JJ-Clusters.

## PHOTOGRAPHS FROM FIELD SURVEY

1. A narrow land in Dr. Ambedkar Camp      2. Researcher with one of the Respondents



3. Open Drainage in Indira Kalyan Vihar, Okhla



4. Only Sign, No entries in ration card by FPS dealer



## 5. Poor Conditions of Public Toilets



## 6. Newly issued Smart Card under NFSA, 2013



## 7. Researcher with GRC workers in Samalkha, Kapashera, South West Delhi

