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Development Dossier on Telangana

#5-6-151, Rajendra Nagar, Hyderabad - 500 030, India.
Phone: +91 40 2401 6395 | Fax: +91 40 2400 2714
email : director@csdhyd.org, www.csdhyd.org

Development Dossier on Telangana

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Council for Social Development
Southern Regional Centre, Hyderabad

Collaborating Organisations

Asmita Resource Centre for Women
Montfort Social Institute
Chaitanya Vikalangula Hakkula Vedika
Shaheen Women Resource and Welfare Association

Advisors

Dr. Stanley Thangaraj, Asmita Resource Centre for Women
Br. Varghese Theckanath, Montfort Social Institute
Mr. Abdul Sajid Ali & Ms. Thirupathamma, Chaitanya Vikalangula Hakkula Vedika
Ms. Jameela Nishat, Shaheen Women Resource and Welfare Association

Research Team

Asmita Resource Centre for Women

Nancy Nagamma, Stefen Dany, Sambaraju Ellaboina, Chennagani Venkanna, Anuradha

Montfort Social Institute

C. Narender Reddy- Project Director, MSI Housing Rights Network
K. Sreedevi, V. Manjula, L. Sunitha, K. Subhadra, S. Padma, D. Joseph, S.K. Moulana

St. Ann's College of Education, Secunderabad

Dr. Sr. Mary Kutty P.J. - Principal

Dr. C. Aruna Reddy, Dr. Ruma Roy, Dr. Jyothi Victoria, Dr. C. Diana Jacob,
Ms. Nirmala, Dr. Neeraja - Faculty

Students from College, Secunderabad (162 students)

Chaitanya Vikalangula Hakkula Vedika

Haribabu, Venkatesh

Shaheen Women Resource and Welfare Association

Shaheda Begum, Sameena Parveen, Zehra Jabeen, Sultana Begum, Sania Fatima, S. Archana

Council for Social Development

Advisors

Prof. D. Narasimha Reddy, Prof. G. Haragopal, Prof. Kalpana Kannabiran

Research Support

Dr. L. Reddeppa, Dr. Sunkari Satyam, Dr. Jafar K., Dr. Sandhya Maliye

Administrative, Technical & Secretarial Support

K. Sanjiva Rao, P. Kumar & K. Mahalakshmi

FOREWORD

Telangana has been an aspiration, a dream, a utopia, a hope, and a practice of politics for decades. It is now a state – a territorial entity with political and administrative jurisdiction and a constitutional obligation to deliver equity and justice to all. As Professor Ch Hanumantha Rao has argued, a new social framework, which is participatory and accountable to stakeholders is a prerequisite for inclusive and sustainable development of the new state of Telangana. So while the aspirations and hopes remain, we have reached a crossroads where claims to justice – economic, social, cultural and political – must be met. The question indeed is, how will we set about this difficult and challenging task of delivering justice, in such a way that it is seen to be done. The claim to equity and justice on which the idea of Telangana statehood was based was rooted in this constitutional framework. The specific experience of Telangana State must be at the centre of any consideration of questions of equity and democratic governance.

In the first edition of the Development Dossier on Telangana, we present five research papers on areas where there is a paucity of published data and analysis: (i) Female age at marriage; (ii) Urban employment for persons with disability; (iii) Displacement and Rehabilitation; (iv) Housing for the urban poor; and (v) Muslim minorities. Lack of proper data (at homogenous level) in the areas set out above has hampered policy in the new state. In an effort to remedy this gap, we present studies with larger sample size to facilitate effective state policy and planning. This Dossier invites you to a journey through some development indicators and associated factors, in the state of Telangana.

We would like to take this opportunity to place on record our gratitude to Government of Telangana for providing financial support for these projects. We are especially grateful to Sri K. Chandrasekhar Rao, Hon'ble Chief Minister of Telangana State, Sri Etela Rajender, Hon'ble Finance Minister and to Sri B.P. Acharya, Principal Secretary, Planning, Government of Telangana for their whole-hearted support of the research endeavours undertaken by CSD, Hyderabad. We are also grateful to Sri A. Sudershan Reddy, Director, Planning and Dr. V. Subramanyam, Director of Economics and Statistics, Government of Telangana for their help and suggestions at different stages.

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Kalpna Kannabiran
Professor & Director

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Investigating the Causes for Low Female Age at Marriage and its Relationship to Women's Status: The Case of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh

*Sujit Kumar Mishra
S. Surapa Raju*

Abstract

The study on low female age at marriage aimed at investigating the causes and the factors influencing the marginal increase in age at marriage among women from 15.3 years in National Family Health Survey (NFHS)-1 (1992-93) to 16.1 years in NFHS-3 (2005-06) in the undivided Andhra Pradesh. The results presented in this paper are based on data collected from a sample of 716 households of 07 districts of Telangana and of 1944 households of 10 districts of Andhra Pradesh to analyse the causes and factors influencing the change in age at marriage. The field work was carried out in 2013-2014. It may be argued on the basis of findings of the study that the two most important exogenous variables with respect to age at marriage are awareness and education, with education emerging as a key indicator.

Authors

Sujit Kumar Mishra is Associate Professor at Council for Social Development, Hyderabad
S. Surapa Raju is Assistant Professor at Council for Social Development, Hyderabad

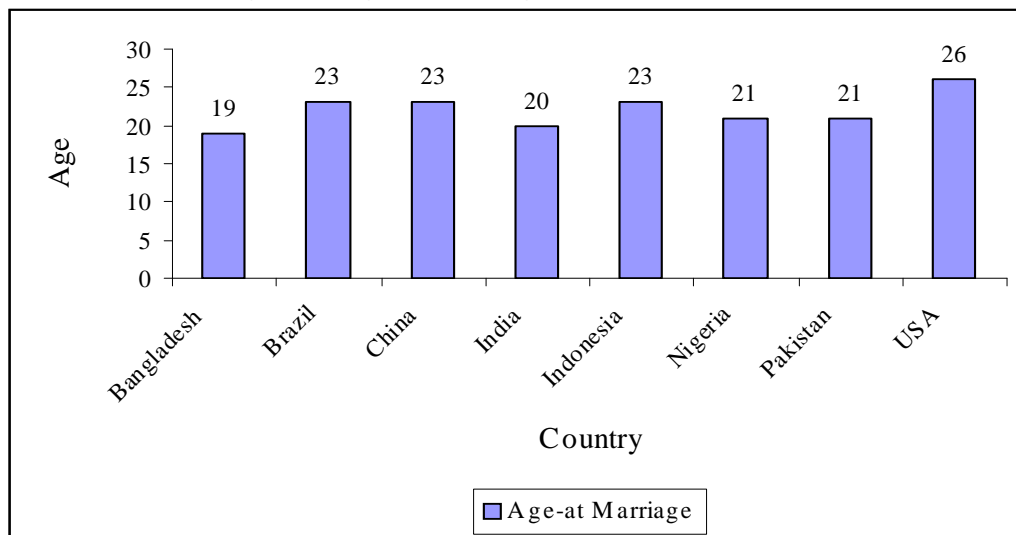
Investigating the Causes for Low Female Age at Marriage and its Relationship to Women’s Status: The Case of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh

*Sujit Kumar Mishra
S. Surapa Raju*

1. Introduction

More than 700 million women were married before the age of 18 years according to a UNICEF report published in the year 2014.¹ Of these women around 42% live in South Asia. The singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) in British India was below 15 years at the time of the 1931 Census before slowly edging up thereafter. The latest data from Education for All Global Monitoring Report shows that one in eight girls is married by the age of 15 years in sub-Saharan Africa and in South and West Asia.² According to UNICEF (2005) the percentage of girls aged between 15 to 19 who are married in different countries is: Congo (74%), Niger (70%), Afghanistan (54%), Bangladesh (51%), Iraq (28%), and Nepal (40%). The singulate mean age at marriage for females in selected countries from 1996–2001 has been presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Age at Marriage in Selected Countries



Source: http://www.unicef.org/india/Media_AGE_AT_MARRIAGE_in.pdf (Accessed on August 14, 2012)

¹ UNICEF (2014)

² Deccan Chronicle (2013)

India has had a history of campaigns against child marriages. Several prominent figures who played a significant part in the Indian renaissance in the 19th and 20th century took cognizance of the detrimental effect that child marriages had on young girls and took initiatives to counter the problem. In Andhra Pradesh Kandukuri Veeresalingam, Kandukuri Rajyalakshmi, Unnava Lakshmi Bai and Gurajada Apparao among others strongly opposed the practice of child marriage in their various works in the early twentieth century. In Hyderabad, Begum Sughra Humayun Mirza was a well known reformer who set up one of the first schools for girls in the city.

While there has been a virtual elimination of pre-pubertal marriages, the problem of adolescent girls marrying immediately after puberty and before they reach the age of 18 years persists. Statistics from National Crime Records Bureau is evidence to the prevalence of this practice. According to NFHS-3 (2005-06) 47% of women aged 20-24 in India were married before the age of 18 – 53% in rural areas and 30% in urban areas. Baseline data suggests that 2.2% of the total males and 4.1% of the total females at the national level have been reported to marry below the legal age.³ On an average, the difference in age at the time of marriage between males and females is 4.7 years. According to the census report 2001, nearly 3 lakh girls below the age of 15 years have already given birth to at least one child.

The 2nd and 3rd India-NGO Alternative Report on CEDAW (2007) and the 4th and 5th India-Alternative Report on CEDAW (2014), submitted recommendations for compulsory registration of marriages to check the incidence of child marriage highlighting the complexity of the issue.⁴ The Committee on Elimination of Discrimination against Women, in its Concluding Comments in 2007 recommended that India take up comprehensive, effective and stringent measures aimed at eliminating child marriages and protection of human rights of the girl child.⁵ This concern was comprehensively re-stated in the CEDAW Committee's Concluding Observations in 2014, following the consideration of the India's 4th and 5th reports in the 58th session:

³ http://censusindia.gov.in/Census_Data_2001/baseline/baseline2004.htm (Accessed on April 22, 2015).

⁴ CEDAW (2006); CEDAW (2014).

⁵ http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/cedaw25years/content/english/CONCLUDING_COMMENTS/India/India-CO-3.pdf (Accessed on April 21, 2015).

“38. While noting that the implementation of the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act has led to a certain decrease in the number of cases of early and forced marriage, the Committee is concerned that the State party’s declaration regarding article 16(2) has not been withdrawn. The Committee also notes with concern the high prevalence of such marriages and that victims of child marriage must file a petition with a court to void the marriage within two years after reaching the age of majority. The Committee is equally concerned at reports that judges often authorize marriages of underage girls based on Muslim personal laws and that no legislation ensuring the registration of all marriages in the State party has been adopted.

39. The Committee urges the State party:

- a) To speedily enact legislation to require compulsory registration of all marriages and to consider withdrawing its declaration regarding article 16 (2) of the Convention;
- b) To ensure that the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act is implemented without exception;
- c) To automatically void all child marriages and ensure that the Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act applies also to child brides;
- d) To strengthen efforts to raise awareness about the prohibition of child marriage and the harmful effects of the practice on the health and education of girls and to effectively investigate, prosecute and punish cases of forced and early marriage.”⁶

Using an intersectional approach and the lens of minority, caste and tribe status to understand discrimination against the girl child and adolescent girls better, this study investigates the paradoxical decline in women’s age at marriage in a stridently developmental state. According to NFHS- 3 (2005-06), Bihar (15.0), Rajasthan (15.0), Madhya Pradesh (15.9), Andhra Pradesh (16.1), Uttar Pradesh (16.2), Jharkhand (16.2) and Chattisgarh (16.4) are the states where there is the highest incidence of women getting married before the age of 17 years. Also there are urban-rural disparities as well as disparities between socio-religious groups. Despite the provisions of strong policies and legislations against child marriage, the practice of early marriage has seen a rise in recent years and continues to pose an obstacle to the attainment of constitutional goal of equality for women. Keeping these issues in view, this study thus attempts: (i) to investigate the causes of low female age at marriage; (ii) to analyze the factors influencing female age at marriage; (iii) to identify the key factors of change that might lead to differences in outcomes.

⁶ Concluding observations on the combined fourth and fifth periodic reports of India, Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women CEDAW/C/IND/CO/4-5, 24 JULY 2014.

The practice of marrying girls at a young age is quite common in many parts of India. In pre-reorganisation Andhra Pradesh too, child marriage persists despite strong institutional interventions to prevent it. Andhra Pradesh was among the few states, where the age at marriage was found to be very low i.e. 16.1 years as per NFHS 3 (2005-06) survey. There was an increase in the median age at marriage in the younger cohort like 20-24 from 15.9 years of age in NFHS 1 (1992-93) to 17.6 years in NFHS 3 (2005-06) (an increase of 1.7 years). The difference in the median age at first marriage between the youngest cohort (20-24) and the oldest cohort (45-49) was 2.3 years in NFHS 2 (1998-99) and 1.8 years in NFHS 3 (2005-06). Although the difference of 1.8 year is smaller than that of 2.3, the individual value in NFHS 3 (2005-06) is found to be more than that of NFHS 2 (1998-99) (Table 1).

Table 1: Median Age at first marriage in Andhra Pradesh (pre-reorganisation)

S. No	Current Age*	Median age at first marriage		
		NFHS 1 (1992-93)	NFHS 2 (1998-99)	NFHS 3 (2005-06)
1	15-19	-	NC	NC
2	20-24	15.9	16.6	17.6
3	25-29	15.4	15.7	16.2
4	30-34	15.2	15.1	15.7
5	35-39	15.0	15.1	15.5
6	40-44	14.6**	14.4	15.3
7	45-49		14.3	15.8
8	20-49	15.3	15.4	16.1

Source: IIPS (1995); (IIPS) and ORC Macro (2000); IIPS and Macro International (2008)

NC: Not calculated because less than 50 percent of women in the age group 15–19 have married by age 15

* The current age groups include both never-married and ever-married women.

** Corresponds to the cohort 40-49 in NFHS I (1992-93).

A study by Sayeed and Datta (nd) finds 89.7% male-headed and 10.3% female-headed households in India. Incidence of female-headed household is 5% higher in southern region (Andhra Pradesh (pre-reorganisation), Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu) and lowest in central region (Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh) followed by northern region (Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, J&K and Punjab). This difference not only shows the disproportionate incidence of male headed households but at the same time it also reflects the acceptability of female-headed household in the south (14.7% in south and 8.5% in central region).

This analysis based on different rounds of NFHS shows that the age has increased from 15.3 in NFHS 1 (1992-93) to 15.4 in NFHS 2 (1998-99) and ultimately to 16.1 in NFHS 3 (2005-06) in the age cohort of 20 to 49. Although the trend shows a rise the pace of growth is very slow

(if we consider the number of years). As per NFHS 3 (2005-06) data, 56.2% of women aged 18-29 were first married at age 18 in Andhra Pradesh (62.9% in rural areas and 43.4% in urban areas), which is far above the national figure (45.6%). Since NFHS 1 (1992-93), however, there has been almost no change in the age at marriage.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Coverage

Information for this project has been collected from 07 districts of Telangana State – (i) Karimnagar, (ii) Medak, (iii) Adilabad, (iv) Khammam, (v) Nalgonda, (vi) Mahaboobnagar; and (vii) Nizamabad and 10 districts of Andhra Pradesh - (i) Srikakulam, (ii) Vizianagaram, (iii) East Godavari, (iv) West Godavari, (v) Guntur, (vi) Prakasam, (vii) Cuddapah (viii) Kurnool (ix) Anantapur; and (x) Chittoor. The districts were selected on the basis of the percentage of women married before the age of 18 years. From each selected district, 2 mandals have been chosen on the basis of district level consultation of NGOs which collected baseline information about the age at marriage in different mandals in each of the sample districts of both the states for this study. Through this consultation, various issues related to marriage -- age at marriage, factors influencing age at marriage and awareness of the people about the institutional mechanisms were discussed with the NGO partners. Apart from this, the District Women and Child Welfare Officers were also consulted for selection of mandals.

Our target was to achieve a sample of 100 from two gram panchayats (GP) in each mandal. Where it was difficult to achieve this sample size in both GPs, the study maintained a flexibility in selecting the number of GP with a view to covering a sample of 100. In the present study, the main respondents were the parents. *Marriage histories* of the past 15 years were collected for the analysis through canvassing one-page questionnaires. Since the study was conducted in 2013-14, the reference period for collecting marriage histories was between 1998 and 2012.

In order to get the final sample for analysis, the study has gone through two different scientific stages – (i) a census method to identify marriage histories; and (ii) a proportional sampling method to select the samples for the study. In the first stage, through a one-page questionnaire, a census survey was conducted at the GP level (two GPs in each mandal) of the above districts of

both the states covering 25868 households (10749 households in Telangana and 15,119 in Andhra Pradesh) out of which 13027 households reported marriages (5191 households in Telangana and 7836 households in Andhra Pradesh). Of these, 4564 households performed marriages of their daughters (1596 households in Telangana and 2968 households in Andhra Pradesh) below the age of 18 years (between the year 1998 and 2012). In the second stage, a proportional sampling method has been used to select the parents of 716 females (who married between the year 1998 and 2012) from Telangana and 1944 from Andhra Pradesh (Table 2).

Table 2: Sample Size in the Study Districts of Telangana State and Andhra Pradesh

S. No	District	Total Households visited through 1 page questionnaire for marriage histories	Between the year 1998 and 2012			
			Households reported marriages	Total Households reported marriage (<18 years)	Households reported female marriage (<18 years)	Sample Size (Parents)
TELANGANA STATE						
1	Karimnagar	2183	1120	178	178	81
2	Medak	1220	709	261	257	115
3	Adilabad	1000	488	194	192	86
4	Khammam	1641	701	130	129	58
5	Nalgonda	1813	690	375	372	166
6	Mahbubnagar	1037	556	188	186	83
7	Nizamabad	1855	927	286	282	127
	TOTAL	10749	5191	1612	1596	716
ANDHRA PRADESH						
1	Srikakulam	1185	665	187	195	128
2	Vizianagaram	1016	487	34	33	22
3	East Godavari	1450	885	227	234	153
4	West Godavari	1998	616	239	236	155
5	Guntur	2073	896	321	329	215
6	Prakasam	1284	868	511	603	395
7	Cuddapah	2000	1176	449	512	335
8	Kurnool	917	476	158	157	103
9	Anantapur	1543	820	391	398	261
10	Chittoor	1653	947	257	271	178
	TOTAL	15119	7836	2774	2968	1944

2.2 Data Collection

The data collection process consisted of: (i) a state level consultation of NGOs to collect baseline information about the age at marriage in different districts of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh; (ii) a field survey; (iii) collection of data from secondary sources like NFHS, Census, various reports on marriage; (iv) discussion with officials in government, non-officials and local leaders in the study area; and (v) informal discussion with parents and different cohorts of women.

In pre-reorganisation Andhra Pradesh 58.4% of women aged 20–24 years were married as adolescent minors. It was one of the four states with lowest female age at marriage (16.4 years according to NFHS 3 (2005-06)). The period of this study witnessed state re-organisation, therefore data was segregated for the two states of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh respectively. This paper presents the results of the study for both the states separately. Data has been collected from both the states two age cohorts: (i) 10 -14 years; and (ii) 15 to 17 years.

3. Telangana State

3.1 Socio- Economic Characteristics of the Sample Households

Among 716 respondents, 55.3% belonged to Other Backward Classes (OBC) whereas 22.9% were Scheduled Castes (SC), 17.9% were Scheduled Tribe (ST) and 3.9% were Others. Ninety five percent of households were Hindu; 45.4% of head of households were non-literate whereas 60.6% of the spouses were non-literate.

Large numbers of respondents were either in agricultural labour (37.6%) or in agriculture (26.5%) as their primary occupation; 55.7% of them reported incomes between Rs 50,001 to Rs. 1,00,000 per annum; 73.2% of the respondents were from nuclear families whereas the rest were from joint families. Fifty-two % of the respondents lived in semi-pucca houses whereas 38% lived in pucca houses.

For the sample as a whole, the mean age at marriage was 15.74 years. To start with the social group, the respondents were classified into four broad categories: SC, ST, OBC and Others.

Table 3.1: Classification of Respondents (Social Group) and Age at Marriage

S. No	Social Group	Number	Percent	Average age at marriage
1	SC	164	22.9	15.51
2	ST	128	17.9	15.48
3	OBC	396	55.3	15.91
4	Others	28	3.9	15.75
Total		716	100.0	15.74

Source: Field Survey

The OBC group of respondents have reported higher age at marriage (15.9 years) than the other three social groups (Others – 15.75 years, SC – 15.5 years and ST – 15.48 years) (Table 3.1).

There were no significant differences between religious groups. In this study an attempt has been made to compute a Household Asset Index (HAI). The indicators considered for the calculation of HAI were possession of mobile phone, television, fridge, motor cycle, and land. On the basis of the value of the index, the households were classified into 3 broad categories – high, middle and low, and an average age at marriage exercise was computed for each category of households. Results show that high HAI respondents performed their daughters' marriages 1.8 years later than the low HAI respondents. The analysis of type of houses and age at marriage revealed that the respondents staying in semi-pucca houses performed the marriages at a higher age (15.84) than the other two categories of respondents (Pucca –15.69 and Kutcha –15.4).

In the present study respondents from joint families reported that they performed their daughters' marriages very early -- 33.25% of the respondents between 10 and 14 years. In these households, it was also found that there is a general tendency to a low age at marriage for girls with 68.75% of marriages in these households taking place when girls were between 15 to 17 years. The situation is somewhat better in the case of nuclear families, with 91.99% of nuclear family respondents performing their daughters' marriages between 15 and 17 years. The mean age at marriage was found to be 14.89 and 16.05 for joint and nuclear families respectively, i.e. a difference of 1.6 years (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Type of Family and Average Age at Marriage

S. No	Type of family	Age range	Number	Average Age at Marriage
1	Joint	10-14	60 (31.25)	12.28
		15-17	132 (68.75)	16.07
		Total	192 (100.0)	14.89
2	Nuclear	10-14	42 (8.01)	13.57
		15-17	482 (91.99)	16.26
		Total	524 (100.0)	16.05
Total		10-14	102 (14.24)	12.81
		15-17	614 (85.76)	16.22
		Total	716 (100.0)	15.74

Source: Field Survey

Many reasons were revealed during the informal discussions regarding the variations in the age at marriage between the two different types of families. Of these, the most frequently cited are

(i) lack of sufficient space after the son's marriage; (ii) undesirability for unmarried girls to live under one roof with the newly married couple without adequate space available within the house. Out of the total 716 households surveyed, only 8% were found to be female-headed whereas rest were male-headed households. Eighty five % of the male-headed households performed their daughters' marriages between 15-17 years whereas the same has been found in 91.2% of the female headed households. When comparing the age at marriage with respect to the two categories of the households, the male-headed households performed their daughters' marriages at a lower age (15.7 years) whereas it was 16 years for female-headed households.

Interestingly, during the FGDs and informal discussion with people, it was observed that the female headed households in the study villages were primarily households where the male head had died. Although these women were under the severe social pressure to perform their daughters' marriage at an early age, there was a reluctance on the part of boys' families to enter into marriage relationships with girls in female headed households. The higher age at marriage therefore in these households could be due to circumstances and not necessarily a choice to marry girls at a higher age.

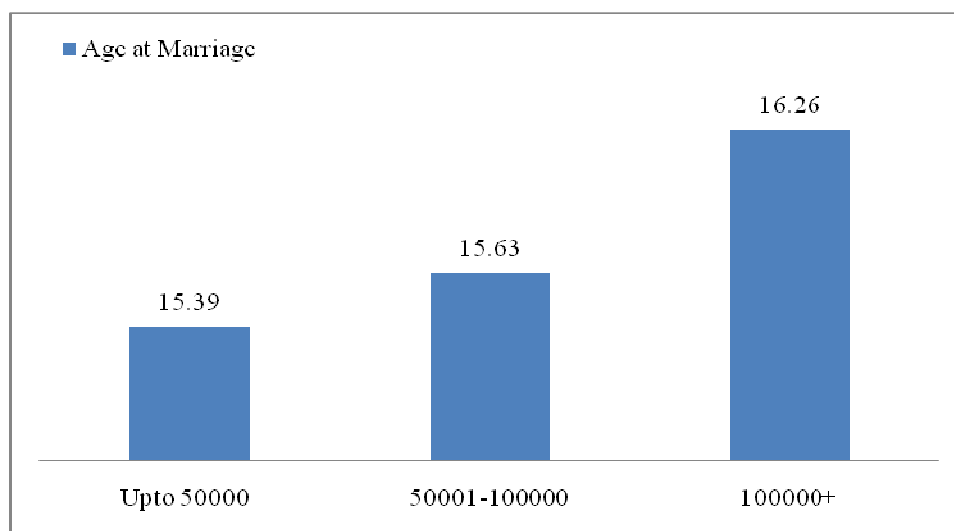
Patriarchal constraints notwithstanding, the age at marriage is high where the decisions were taken by mothers (16.03 years) in comparison to marriages where the decision taken were exclusively by fathers (15.55 years). Again, the outcome in terms of age at marriage is better when both took the decisions (15.77), when compared with situations where only the father took decisions. It is evident from the informal discussions from women that because they were aware of the problems women faced in marriage, whenever they had a choice, they did try to delay marriages of daughters keeping in mind other socio-economic conditions. However, the social constraints on women allows them very little autonomy or independence.

3.2 Total Family Income

Economic status of a household influences the mean age at marriage in many ways. Higher income groups are generally associated with better occupations -- they can afford to send their children to other villages for higher studies and they may postpone the marriages of their children. There is a positive relation observed between the age at marriage and total family income. In this study, among 3 categories of income distribution, the highest income category

households (possessing income more than Rs. 1 lakh per annum) reported higher age at marriage of girls by one year, than that of the lowest categories of households (possessing income less than Rs. 50,000 per annum) (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Family Income and Average Age at Marriage



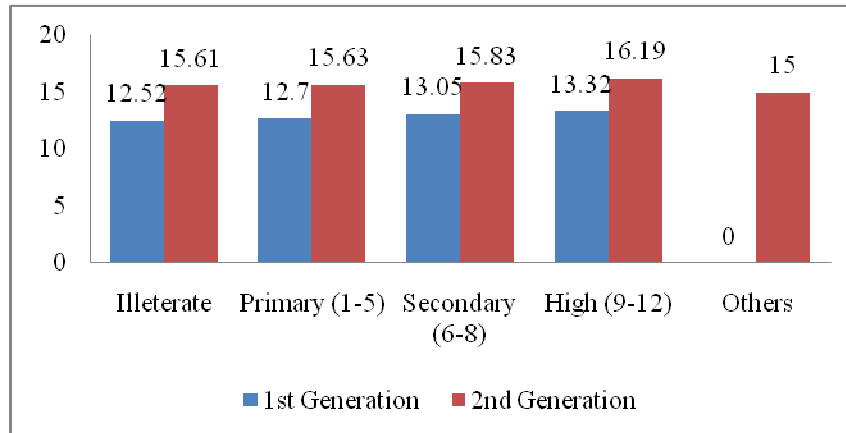
Source: Field Survey

Factors Influencing Age at Marriage

Education has a direct relationship with all other development indicators. A comparison was attempted between the education status of two generations of women (2nd generation: the women canvassed in the present study; 1st generation: mothers of the women canvassed in the present study) and hence their ages at marriage. In the first generation 60.6% of the women were non-literate whereas only 32.5% of the second generation women were non-literate. Over a period of time, along with educational facilities, a lot of social changes in terms of accessibility to mass media⁷ has been observed in the rural areas and it is possible that this has led to an increased age at marriage (Figure 3.2).

⁷ Among the different types of mass media, television has the greatest reach across all categories of women including illiterate and poor women. Overall, 74.3% of respondents watch television at least once a week in NFHS 3 (2005-06). The proportion of women who watch television at least once a week has risen sharply since the time of NFHS 1 (1992-93), when it was 39.1% (IIPS (1995); (IIPS) and ORC Macro (2000); IIPS and Macro International (2008)).

Figure 3.2: Educational Status and Ages of Marriage of Two Generations (Years)



Source: Field Survey

This observation was further cross-checked with another important indicator, which is availability of educational institutions at the village level. The field observations revealed that the presence of more secondary schools and educational institutions at the village level motivated parents to send their children to schools. Sometimes availability of government sponsored programmes like mid-day meal schemes triggered greater interest among the parents. In the present study, villages that have all the 3 categories of schools have higher age at marriage (15.96 years) than others that do not have schools at all levels. However, the research team also observed discontinuity at different levels of all the cases (all the 478 literates from the total). Since it is often assumed that dropout rate and age at marriage exhibit an inverse relationship, the age at marriage of female school dropouts was investigated.

Table 3.3. School Dropouts and Age at Marriage

S. No	Reasons for Discontinuing Schooling	Age at Marriage	No of Respondents
1	Involved in Paid Work	15.77	181 (37.9)
2	Took care of younger siblings	15.59	64 (13.3)
4	Marriage*	16.83	151 (31.6)
5	Death of father	14.11	32 (6.7)
6	Migration	13.38	50 (10.5)
Total		15.72	478** (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

* These are the group of women whose association with education is longer than that of the other categories of women.

** 478 (67.5%) are the total literate women from the total 716

Involvement in the paid work to support the family was cited as one of the reasons for dropping out of school (in 37.9% of cases). The second largest reason was marriage (31.6%); followed by 13.4% of women who took care of their younger siblings by not going to school. This second reason is particularly important since participating in family labour through care work remains invisible and unaccounted; 6.7% of the women discontinued because of the death of the father. Apart from this, migration was another reason for discontinuation of education among women (Table 3.3). The analysis of the issue of age at marriage in relation to these indicators is interesting. Participation in paid work and child care was not found to depress the female age at marriage as much as migration and death of the father. The reasons for the inverse relationship between migration and age at marriage needs systematic investigation.

Apart from these above factors, discussions in the course of Field Survey revealed that factors like absence of teachers; gaps in linkages between primary, upper primary and high school education; lack of proper infrastructure (school buildings, furniture, toilets, drinking water, supply of uniforms and unmatched measures of uniforms); negligence of girl child's dignity; low levels of focus on imparting quality education; lack of proper supervision; impact of migration (seasonal) on school going children; and lack of overall quality education (periodical teachers' training and supply of books) are also responsible for the high dropouts in Telangana State.⁸ Our discussion with villagers revealed that the Anganwadi system and Mid-day Meal scheme were not running properly. The food provided through the Mid-Day meal was of low quality in some districts. There were reports that Anganwadi workers were involved in local politics, and that the villagers were not in a position to oppose malpractices by Anganwadi workers. Attendance of Anganwadi workers was also reported to be very poor. The selection of SHGs for cooking midday meals was also reportedly lacking in transparency.

Awareness of Law regarding Age at Marriage

The numbers of respondents in this study who reported awareness of legal prohibition of child marriage were 274 and those not aware were 442. The average age at marriage for the people

⁸ For instance, the number of primary schools without drinking water facility is very high in Nalgonda (652), Adilabad (532) and Medak (508) districts while the number remains low in Nizamabad district (113). In the case of upper primary schools too, the number of such school remain high in Medak (124), Nalgonda (121), and while a fewer in Hyderabad (15).

aware about law is 16.55 years (first group) versus 15.23 years for the people not aware about law (second group) (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Awareness and Mean Age at Marriage

S. No	Awareness about the law regarding the age at marriage	No of respondents	Mean age at marriage
1	Yes	274 (38.3)	16.55
2	No	442 (61.7)	15.23
Total		716 (100.0)	15.74

Source: Field Survey

More than 61% of the parents were ignorant about the legal age at marriage in the study area of Telangana. Only 38.3% of the respondents could correctly identify 18 years as the legal age at marriage for females and 21 years for males. Awareness of law varies by literacy and educational attainment: 67.2% of the literate respondents knew about the law during the interview. On the other hand 32.8% of the literate respondents were unaware about it. The same trend has been observed in case of education of the spouse. Awareness about the law on different issues of women especially the aspects of marriage is relatively high among OBC (61.7%) than among SC (18.2%), ST parents (16.8%) and others (3.3%). Level of awareness has also shown a direct relation to the income of a household. Higher the income, the greater is the awareness (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Distribution of respondents by awareness of law with select indicators

S. No	Particulars		Awareness to Law (households)
	Variables	Sub Category	YES Response (N=274)
1	Education of the head of the household	Illiterate	90(32.8)
		Literates	184(67.2)
		Total	274 (100.0)
2	Education of the Spouse	Illiterate	101(36.9)
		Literates	173(63.1)
		Total	274 (100.0)
3	Social Group	SC	50(18.2)
		ST	46(16.8)
		OBC	169 (61.7)
		Others	09 (3.3)
		Total	274 (100.0)
4	Total family Income (per year)	Up to 50000	54(19.7)
		Above 50000	220(80.3)
		Total	274 (100.0)
5	Ownership TV	Yes	214(78.1)
		No	60(21.9)
		Total	274 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

5.4 Perception about Marriage Age

The study attempted to gather information about people’s perception about child marriage and the ideal marriage age of girls. Interestingly those parents who performed their daughters’ marriage at a very early age favoured higher age at marriage. This indicates that although the parents perceived a certain age as proper for marriage, they could not actualise their ideal. Out of the total of 716 parents, 88.4% parents perceived 18 years and more than 18 years as the ideal age of marriage for a girl (Table 3.6). This needs to be viewed against the fact that only 38.3% of respondents were aware of the legal age of marriage (Table 3.4).

Table 3.6. Perception about Marriage Age

Actual female age at marriage	Perceptions of the parents about the best age for marriage			
	10-14	15-17	18 and above	Total
10-14	-	22 (21.6) (36.7)	80 (78.4) (12.6)	102 (100.0) (14.2)
15-17	23 (3.7) (100.0)	38 (6.2) (63.3)	553 (90.1) (87.4)	614 (100.0) (85.8)
Total	23 (3.2) (100.0)	60 (8.4) (100.0)	633 (88.4) (100.0)	716 (100.0) (100.0)

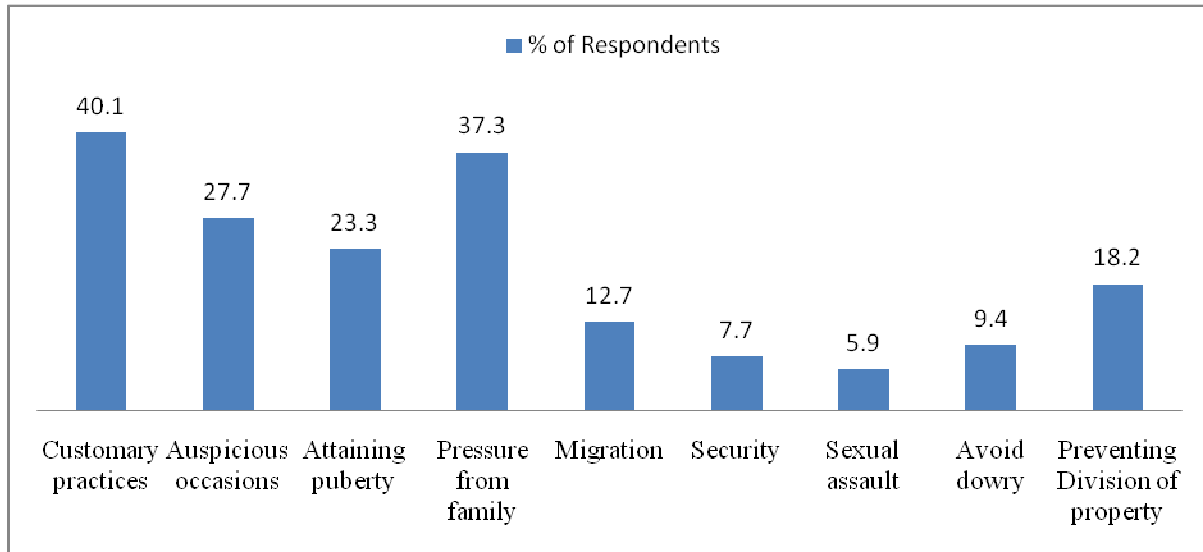
Source: Field Survey

However, irrespective of such perception, they could not (did not) actually prevent early marriage of daughters. Ghose (2011) in his study also found similar results in West Bengal. Informal discussion with fathers/elders in rural Telangana unmasked the fact that a family’s social status is directly linked with their daughters’ purity and chastity. These two hidden factors combined with other reasons determine the incidence of child marriage.

The study tried to find out the reasons behind this (Figure 3.3). 40.1% revealed customary practices as the main reasons behind low age of marriage among adolescent girls and infant marriage. Our state level consultation of NGOs on this issue revealed the practice of arranging marriages between infants – “cradle marriage” in some places of Telangana. Pressure from elderly people was another important reason. December to May is considered to be auspicious for marriage. A high incidence of child marriage is found in this period -- 27.7% of the respondents reported marriages during auspicious occasions. Apart from this, people from Telangana perform their daughters’ marriages during the occasion of Mahashivrati and during Jatras. Attaining puberty is cause of marriages among 23.3% of respondents. Apart from this,

the practice of *voli* i.e. payment of bride price, motivates parents to get their daughters married immediately after attaining puberty. It has been found that SC/ST families marry their daughters off before migrating to cities in search of livelihood and survival -- 12.7% reported migration as the cause of marriage.

Figure 3.3: Reasons of Early Marriage



Source: Field Survey

5.5 Understanding of Decision Making regarding Marriage

A striking feature inherent in the present study of decision making behavior is that not only do the parents plan their activities, but there is also a distinct sequence in the response. The significance of these sequences in relation to household objectives, the way in which strategies are planned to meet these objectives and the factors which determine the effectiveness of these strategies is the primary cause of concern for this study. In order to examine this idea more carefully, this study has recorded the life course events of the children.⁹ The study has started with the status of education i.e. discontinued or continuing. Then the next stage was to enquire about the age at completion of education and the reasons for discontinuation. The next important part was entry into income earning process and finally the process of marriage. On the basis of strategic and focused interviews, the most important and commonly observed sequence that has been observed in the field is explained in Table 3.7.

⁹See Parthasarathy (1987).

Table 3.7: Life Course Events of Women

S. No	Age at Marriage	Age at Puberty	Age at completion of education/ drop out	Entering into Livelihood (before marriage)	Average age at marriage
1	10-14	10.31 (102)	11.14 (83)	12.33 (52)	12.81 (102)
2	15-17	10.38 (614)	16.1 (395)	15.36 (129)	16.22 (614)
	Total	10.37 (716)	15.24 (478)	14.48 (181)*	15.74 (716)

Source: Field Survey

* Involved in paid work (Remaining were in unpaid work)

(Figure in the parentheses represents the total number of women)

Table 3.7 shows that average age at puberty is 10.37 years. The same has been analyzed across different age groups. The study finds that some women discontinued education for various reasons (earlier discussed in detail). The average age at which the women discontinued their education was 15.24 years. The next phase of life cycle is entering paid work -- 181 women out of 716 from the present sample. The average age of entry into first livelihood (before marriage) is 14.48 years. It can be seen from Table 3.7 that the average time gap between completion of education/dropout and entering into income earning process is negative in majority of the women. In the study area, the number of dropouts from school was very significant. However, it was found that those who were in school did not take schooling very seriously. The next stage in the life cycle analysis that is based on responses from the field is marriage. Care work and child care, particularly looking after younger siblings, is not counted as work, although it is cited as a reason for discontinuing from education.

This study has concluded that staying longer with education increases the age at marriage of women. This conclusion is based on a consideration of the place of education in the socio-economic lives of women by looking at three broad categories. They are:

(i) Puberty - Marriage

This category of women married immediately after attaining puberty.

(ii) Puberty - Education (Dropout) – Work - Marriage

Here the women crossed four phases of life-cycle.

(iii) Puberty- Education- Marriage

These women stayed in school longer unlike the other two categories of women.

Table 3.8 explains the variation in age at marriage across these categories of women. The difference between the second category of women and the third category rested upon continuity with education. Here the third category of women have the highest age at marriage (16.83), followed by the second category of women (15.77) (Table 3.8). From the informal discussion with the respondents, it is concluded that the third category of the women were basically from the OBC landed families.

Table 3.8: Life Cycle and Age at Marriage

S. No	Age at Marriage	Categories		
		Puberty-Marriage	Puberty- Education (Dropout)- Work-Marriage	Puberty-Education- Marriage
1	10-14	10.00 (07)	13.8 (52)	-
2	15-17	-	16.56 (129)	16.83 (151)
	Total	10.00 (07)	15.77 (181)	16.83 (151)

Source: Field Survey
(Figure in the parentheses represents the total number of women)

4. Andhra Pradesh

4.1 Socio- Economic Characteristics of the Sample Households

Among 1944 respondents, 40.0% belonged to Other Backward Classes (OBC) whereas 25.9% were Scheduled Castes (SC) , 11.9% were Scheduled Tribe (ST) and 22.2% were Others. Ninety % of households were Hindu; 49.5% of head of households were non-literate whereas 57.7% of the spouses were non-literate.

However in the present study there is negligible difference between the non-literate respondents and respondents with primary education. Large numbers of respondents were either in agricultural labour (44.5%) or in agriculture (10.0%) as their primary occupation; 51.1% of them reported incomes between Rs 50,001 to Rs 1, 00,000 per annum; 74.1% of the respondents were from nuclear families whereas the rest were from joint families. Fifty-nine % of the respondents lived in pucca houses whereas 29.6% lived in semi pucca houses.

For the sample as a whole, the mean age at marriage was 16.16 years. To start with the social group, the respondents were classified in to four broad categories: SC, ST, OBC and Others.

Table 4.1: Classification of Respondents (Social Group) and Age at Marriage

S.No	Social Group	Number	Percent	Average age at Marriage
1	SC	503	25.9	16.18
2	ST	232	11.9	16.11
3	OBC	777	40.0	16.10
4	Others	432	22.2	16.26
	Total	1944	100.0	16.16

Source: Field Survey

The General group (Others) of respondents have reported higher age at marriage (16.26 years) than the other three social groups (SC – 16.18 years, ST – 16.11 years and OBC – 16.10 years) (Table 4.1). High HAI respondents performed their daughters' marriages 1.9 years later than the low HAI respondents. The analysis of type of houses and age at marriage revealed that the respondents staying in Kutcha houses performed the marriages at a higher age (15.86) than the other two categories of respondents Semi pucca –15.76 and (Pucca –15.70).

In the present study a very small proportion of the households (9.7% compared with 33.25% of Telangana) reported that they performed their daughters' marriages between 10 and 14 years. In these households, it was also found that there is a general tendency to a low age at marriage for girls with 90.3% of marriages in these households taking place with the upper age cohort (i.e. between 15 to 17 years). The situation is somewhat better in the case of joint families in comparison to nuclear families (with 87.5% of nuclear family respondents performing their daughters' marriages between 15 and 17 years). There is not much difference in the mean age at marriage between joint and nuclear families. (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Type of Family and Average Age at Marriage

S. No	Type of family	Age range	Number	Average Age at Marriage
1	Joint	10-14	49 (9.7)	13.24
		15-17	454 (90.3)	16.48
		Total	503 (100.0)	16.17
2	Nuclear	10-14	180 (12.5)	13.47
		15-17	1261 (87.5)	16.54
		Total	1441 (100.0)	16.16
Total		10-14	229 (11.8)	13.42
		15-17	1715 (87.2)	16.53
		Total	1944 (100.0)	16.16

Source: Field Survey

Out of the total 1944 households surveyed, only 6% were found to be female-headed whereas rest were male-headed households. Eighty six % of the male-headed households performed their daughters' marriages between 15-17 years whereas the same has been found in 81.0% of the female headed households. When comparing the age at marriage with respect to the two categories of the households, the male-headed households performed their daughters' marriages at a lower age (16.1 years) whereas it was 16.8 years for female-headed households.

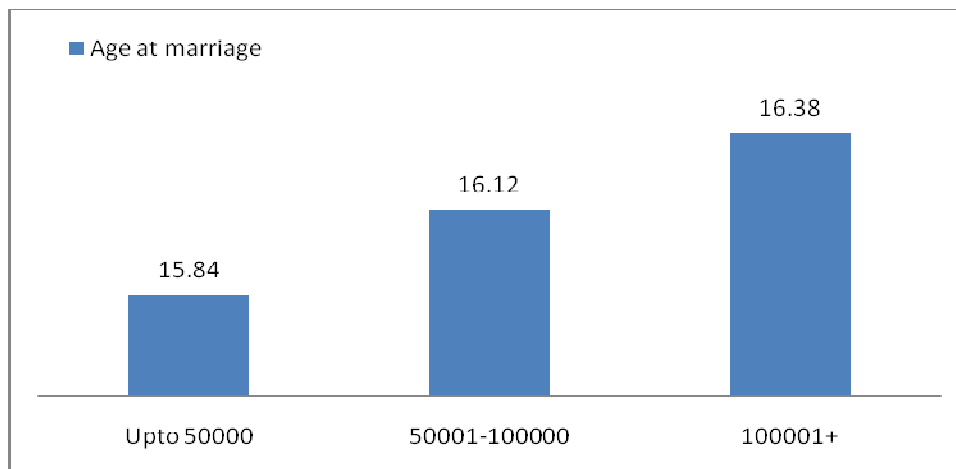
Patriarchal constraints notwithstanding, the age at marriage is high where the decisions were taken by mothers (16.8 years) in comparison to marriages where the decision taken were exclusively by fathers (16.1 years). Again, the outcome in terms of age at marriage is better when both took the decisions (16.6), when compared with situations where only the father took decisions. It is evident from the informal discussions from women that because they were aware of the problems women faced in marriage, whenever they had a choice, they did try to delay marriages of daughters keeping in mind other socio-economic conditions. However, the social constraints on women allows them very little autonomy or independence.

3.2 Total Family Income

There is a positive relation observed between the age at marriage and total family income. In this study, among 3 categories of income distribution, the highest income category households (possessing income more than Rs. 1 lakh per annum) reported higher age at marriage of girls,

than that of the lowest categories of households (possessing income less than Rs. 50,000 per annum) (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Family Income and Average Age at Marriage

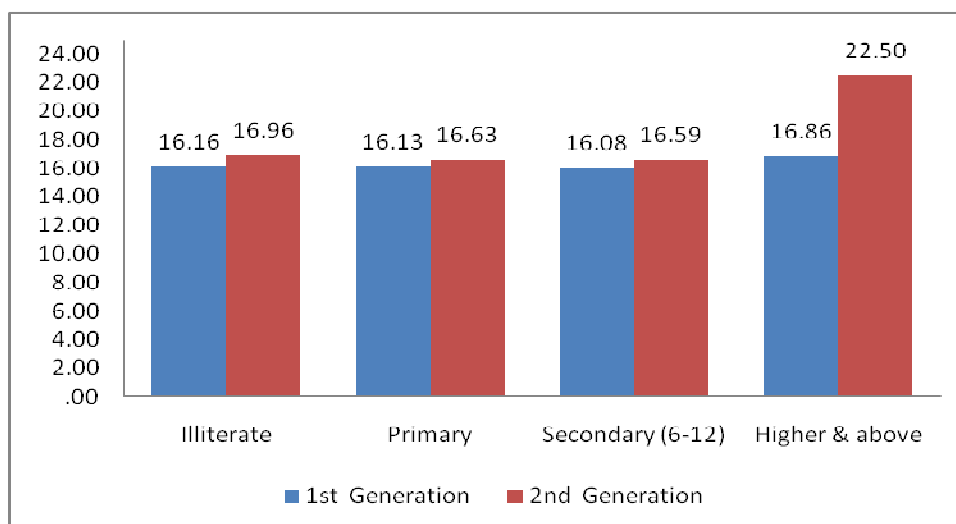


Source: Field Survey

Factors Influencing Age at Marriage

In the first generation 58.8% of the women were non-literate where the same was only 32.3% for the second generation women. Over a period of time, along with educational facilities, a lot of social changes in terms of accessibility to mass media has been observed in the rural areas and it is possible that this has led to an increased age at marriage (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2: Educational Status and Ages of Marriage of Two Generations (Years)



Source: Field Survey

This observation was further cross-checked with another important indicator, which is availability of educational institutions at the village level. The field observations revealed from Andhra Pradesh is similar as that of Telangana state (discussed in the earlier section). In the present study, villages that have all the 3 categories of schools have high age at marriage (15.86 years) than others that do not have schools at all levels. However, the research team also observed school drop outs during the field visits (456 out of a total of 1944).

Table 4.3: School Dropouts and Age at Marriage

S.No	Reasons for Discontinuing Schooling	Age at Marriage	No. of Respondents
1	Involved in paid work	15.90	511 (38.8)
2	Took care of younger siblings	15.37	101 (7.7)
3	No school in the village	15.22	32 (2.4)
5	No transport facility to school	15.01	82 (6.2)
6	Marriage	16.95	438 (33.3)
7	Migration	15.0	152 (11.6)
	Total	16.03	1316 (100.0)

Involvement in the paid work to support the family was cited as one of the reasons for dropping out of school (in 38.8% of cases). The second largest reason was marriage (33.3%); followed by 11.6% by migration (Table 4.3). Apart from these above factors, discussions in the course of Field Survey revealed that factors like absence of teachers; gaps in linkages between primary, upper primary and high school education; lack of proper infrastructure (school buildings, furniture, toilets, drinking water, supply of uniforms and unmatched measures of uniforms); negligence of girl child's dignity; low levels of focus on imparting quality education; lack of proper supervision; impact of migration (seasonal) on school going children; and lack of overall quality education (periodical teachers' training and supply of books) are also responsible for the high dropouts in Andhra Pradesh.¹⁰ Our discussion with villagers revealed that the Anganwadi system and Mid-day Meal scheme were not running properly. The food provided through the Mid-Day meal was of low quality in some districts. There were reports that Anganwadi workers were involved in local politics, and that the villagers were not in a position to oppose

¹⁰ For instance, the number of primary schools without drinking water facility is very high in Cuddapah (397), Kurnool (322), Chittor (290), Guntur (282), Srikakulam (267), Vizianagaram (242) and Prakasam (199) while the number remains low in Anantapur district (138), East Godavari (72) and West Godavari (26). In the case of upper primary schools too, the number of such school remain high in Vizianagaram (103), Chittor (77), East Godavari (67), Srikakulam (62), West Godavari (46), Guntur (41), Prakasam (20), Kurnool (14), Anantapur (12) and Cuddapah (02).

malpractices by Anganwadi workers. Attendance of Anganwadi workers was also reported to be very poor. The selection of SHGs for cooking midday meals was also reported by lacking in transparency. This result is quite similar with Telangana state.

Awareness of Law regarding Age at Marriage

The numbers of respondents in this study who reported awareness of legal prohibition of child marriage were 626 and those not aware were 1318. The average age at marriage for the people aware about law is 16.24 years (first group) versus 16.12 years for the people not aware about law (second group) (Table 4.4). One finding of the study is a greater awareness of law among households in Telangana than in Andhra Pradesh.

Table 4.4: Awareness and Mean Age at Marriage (A.P.)

S. No	Awareness about the law regarding the age at marriage	No of respondents	Mean age at Marriage
1	Yes	626 (32.2)	16.24
2	No	1318 (67.8)	16.12
Total		1944 (100.0)	16.16

Source: Field Survey

More than 67% of the parents were ignorant about the legal age at marriage in Andhra Pradesh. Only 32.2% of the respondents could correctly identify 18 years as the legal age at marriage for females and 21 years for males. Awareness of law varies by literacy and educational attainment: 54.0% of the literate respondents knew about the law during the interview. On the other hand 46.0% of the literate respondents were unaware about it. More or less same trend has been observed in case of education of the spouse. OBC parents are most likely to know the law for marriage. Awareness about the law on different issues of women especially the aspects of marriage is relatively high among OBC (43.0%) than among SC (20.0%), ST parents (4.3%) and others (32.6%). Awareness is directly related to the income of a household. Higher the income, the greater is the awareness (Table 4.5). These are all interrelated explanatory factors associated with the age at marriage issue.

Table 4.5: Distribution of respondents by awareness of law with select indicators (A.P.)

S. No	Particulars		Awareness to Law (households)
	Variables	Sub category	YES Response (N=274)
1	Education of the head of the household	Illiterate	288 (46.0)
		Literates	338 (54.0)
		Total	626 (100.0)
2	Education of the Spouse	Illiterate	326 (52.1)
		Literates	300 (47.9)
		Total	626 (100.0)
3	Social Group	SC	126 (20.1)
		ST	27 (4.3)
		OBC	269 (43.0)
		Others	204 (32.6)
		Total	626 (100.0)
4	Total family Income (per year)	Up to 50000	68(10.9)
		Above 50000	558 (89.1)
		Total	626 (100.0)
5	Ownership TV	Yes	509(81.3)
		No	117(18.7)
		Total	626 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

5.4 Perception about Marriage Age

It is very interesting that it is those parents, who have performed their daughters' marriage at a very early age, who favoured higher age at marriage. This indicates that although the parents perceived a certain age as proper for marriage, they could not actualise their ideal. Out of the total of 1944 parents, 97.5% parents perceived 18 years and more than 18 years as the ideal age of marriage for a girl (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Perception about Marriage Age

Actual female age at marriage	Perceptions of the parents about the best age for marriage			
	10-14	15-17	18 and above	Total
10-14	1 (0.1) (33.3)	6 (2.6) (13.0)	222 (96.9) (11.7)	229 (100.0) (11.8)
15-17	2 (0.1) (77.7)	40 (2.3) (87.0)	1673 (97.6) (88.3)	1715 (100.0) (88.2)
Total	3 (0.1) (100.0)	46 (2.4) (100.0)	1895 (97.5) (100.0)	1944 (100.0) (100.0)

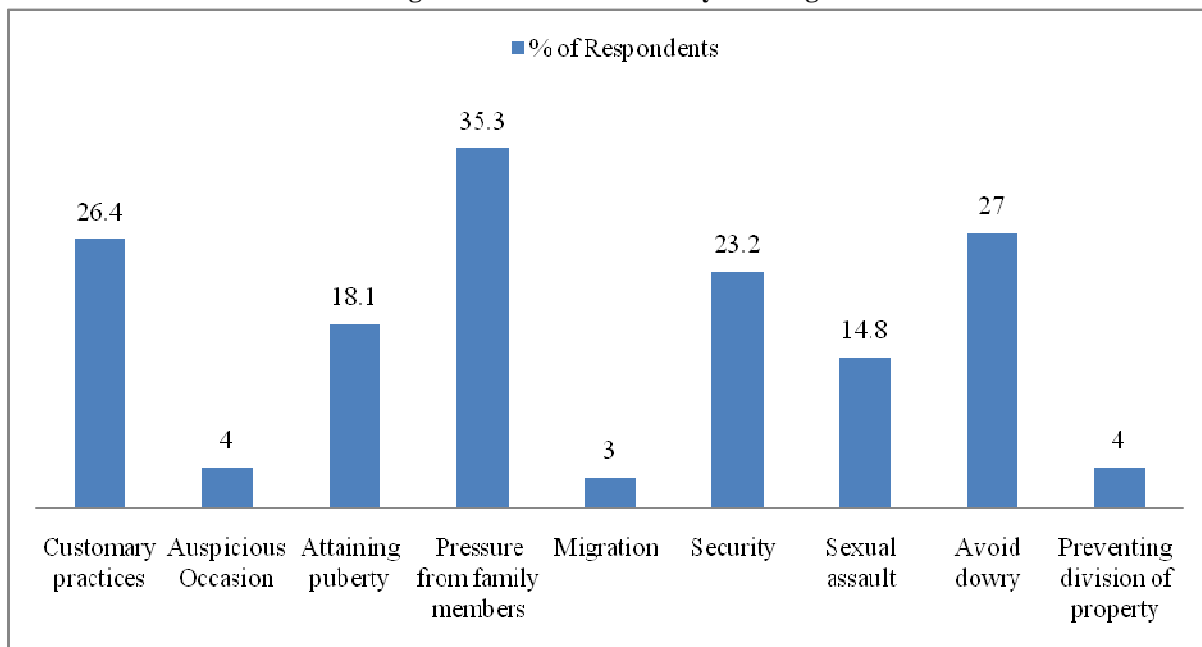
Source: Field Survey

However, irrespective of such perception, they could not (did not) actually prevent early marriage of daughters. Informal discussion with fathers/elders in rural Andhra Pradesh unmasked the fact that a family's social status is directly linked with their daughters' purity and chastity.

These two hidden factors combined with other reasons determine the incidence of child marriage.

The study tried to find out the reasons behind this (Figure 4.3). 35.3% revealed pressure from family members as the main reasons behind low age of marriage of a girl. Our state level consultation of NGOs on this issue revealed the practice of arranging marriages between infants – “cradle marriage” in some places of Andhra Pradesh. Customary practices and avoidance of dowry were cited as other reasons. Customary practices, attaining puberty and the sense of insecurity compelled the parents to go for early marriages in the study areas of Andhra Pradesh.

Figure 4.3: Reasons of Early Marriage



Source: Field Survey

5.5 Understanding of Decision Making regarding Marriage

The recording the life course events of the girl children in the study areas of Andhra Pradesh was aimed at analysing the decision making behaviour and the distinct sequence in the response (Parthasarathy, 1987). The study started with the status of education i.e. discontinued or continuing. Then the next stage was to enquire about the age at completion of education and the reasons for discontinuation. The next important part was entry into paid work and finally

marriage. On the basis of strategic and focused interviews, the most important and commonly observed sequence that has been observed in the field is explained in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Life Course Events of Women

S. No	Age at Marriage	Age at Puberty	Age at completion of education/ drop out	Entering into Livelihood (before marriage)	Average age at marriage
1	10-14	10.41 (229)	10.30 (151)	13.26 (119)	13.42 (229)
2	15-17	10.38 (1715)	15.78 (1165)	16.70 (392)	16.53 (1715)
	Total	10.38 (1944)	15.15 (1316)	15.90 (511)*	16.16 (1944)

Source: Field Survey

*Involved in paid work (Remaining were in unpaid work)

(Figure in the parentheses represents the total number of women)

Table 4.7 shows that average age at puberty is 10.38 years. The same has been analyzed across different age groups. The study finds that some women discontinued from their education for various reasons (earlier discussed in detailed) apart from attaining puberty. The average age at which the women discontinued their education was 15.15 years. It has been observed that the average age of the women at completion/ drop out is found to be very marginal than the second categories of women (15.90 years). The next phase of life cycle is entering paid work. Here 511 women out of 1944 entered into the process. The average age of entry into first livelihood (before marriage) is 15.90 years. It can be seen from Table 4.7 that the average time gap between completion of education/ dropout and entering into income earning process is very marginal. In the study area, the number of dropouts from school was very significant. However, those who were in school also, did not take it seriously. The life cycle analysis is marriage.

Table 4.8 explains the variation in age at marriage across these categories of women. The difference between the second category of women and the third category rested upon continuity with education. Here the third category of women have the highest age at marriage (16.95), followed by the second category (15.9). from the informal discussion with the respondents, it is concluded that the third category of the women were basically from the OBC landed families.

Table 4.8: Life Cycle and Age at Marriage

S.No	Age at Marriage	Categories		
		Puberty-Marriage	Puberty-Education (Dropout)- Work-Marriage	Puberty-Education- Marriage
1	10-14	10.78 (20)	13.9 (119)	-
2	15-17	11.33 (12)	16.5 (392)	16.95 (438)
	Total	10.98 (32)	15.9 (511)	16.95 (438)

Source: Field Survey

(Figure in the parentheses represents the total number of women)

6. Conclusion

There are concerns that the substantial improvements in institutional mechanisms in terms of laws, policies, acts, schemes and programmes, widespread education and mass media has not translated into a significant increase in age at marriage of women. As a result women at a very early age are exposed to social responsibilities as well as health risks in terms of early pregnancies, abortions, early age deliveries and child mortality, for which they are often not physically or mentally prepared. Because of early marriage, girls lose their access to education and employment. These impacts negatively on their decision making capacities in the house, and in turn on their development. This leads to poor health and skewed distribution of welfare to the next generation which ultimately affects the entire society. In many parts of India, a combination of tradition, poverty, and lack of opportunity put a large number of young people “at-risk” for early marriage. Across the states in India, large variations have been observed in terms of the percentage of women getting married. Out of the total number of states, the age at marriage figure is up to 18 years in 16 states of India. In un- divided Andhra Pradesh the figure is 16.1 years in NFHS-3 (2005-06) from 15.3 in NFHS-1 (1992-93) and 15.4 in NFHS-2 (1998-99). In spite of huge intellectual and material investment made by the government, several reasons are ascribed to the continued practice of early marriage today.

Evidence based on review of documents and analyses of secondary information have hinted at improved institutional performances such as implementation of different acts and schemes - e.g. Girl Child Protection Scheme, 2005, Kishore Shakti Yojana, National Programme for Adolescent Girls, Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls (or Sabla Programme). The Prevention of Child Marriages Act, 2006 is a legislation meant to combat child marriage in India. However, has been criticized on the ground that it does not invalidate a marriage even below a certain age. Thus a child of 10,11,12 or 13 years of age can be married

and subjected to sexual and other forms of abuse which normally have lasting and irreversible mental and physical consequences. Merely giving a girl child an option to end the marriage after the age of 15 years may not be sufficient.¹¹ Sometimes practices like khap panchayats also lead to sub-optimal outcomes (Deswal 2013).

The findings of the study reveal the persistence of patriarchal norms in both the states irrespective of social, economic and cultural categorisation. The same has been reflected in the type of families (joint or nuclear) and type of headship within the family. The father/ elders are the ultimate perpetrators of this institutional norm.

A detailed analysis on the factors that influence age at marriage has been conducted and the main factors identified are: (i) education; (ii) awareness among the people; and (iii) exposure towards mass media. The different issues that have been covered under the education are: (i) age at marriage with different level of education; (ii) analysis of level of education between two generations and hence the age at marriage; (iii) availability of different educational institutions at the village level; and (iv) reasons for drop out and age at marriage. The study reveals that the outcome is positively influenced with education. In order to support this argument, the study has conducted an analysis of life course pattern of women in the study areas of both the states. It is suggested in this report that the life course pattern typically fall in to different stages. First is attainment of puberty. Generally while some girls stop their education immediately after attaining puberty and while some continue with the education. The continuity with education of the women after puberty completely depends upon the availability of schools with proper infrastructure and effective implementation of government programmes and schemes. When these mechanisms prove ineffective largely because of poverty, coupled with lack of social as well physical infrastructure in the education institutions, large numbers of girls discontinue their education and enter into the labour force to help the family (on paid and unpaid basis), which slowly culminates in early marriage of the women. However, the other categories of women who continue with the education enter to the institution of marriage at a later age. Decision about continuity in education depends upon her association with different types of capital - social, economic and cultural.

¹¹ Government of India (2008).

Awareness of law has varied with different socio-economic backgrounds. Again education is found to be a significant factor that influence that awareness of law and hence indirectly to the age at marriage. Apart from this, income is another indicator that determines awareness. This study finds that exposure to mass media is an important factor in creating awareness among the respondents. An analysis of NFHS data on Andhra Pradesh (un-divided) observes that the proportion of women who watch television at least once a week has risen to 74.3% in NFHS-3 (2005-06) from 39.1% since the time of NFHS-1 (1992-93). Therefore, availability and accessibility to TV was found to be an important indicator in the study villages.

In conclusion, we may say that the two most important exogenous variables that cause variations in age at marriage are awareness and education. The different indicators that need policy intervention emerged at different stages of the analysis. The analysis of age at marriage with different socio-economic indicators gives the background status of age at marriage in both the states. Awareness and hence interlinked variables that need policy intervention have been detected subsequently. The study has seen variations in the issue of marriage and with the associated indicators at various stages.

The study finds education as a thread connecting all the issues. Starting from the stage of puberty to marriage, education plays an important role. A proper sequence has been detected through the analysis of life course events of the women by using education as catalyst where examination of the sequences of the stages required a proper understanding about the importance of the issue. A proper understanding can only come from the sequencing of the life course pattern (e.g. decisions about the continuation of education after puberty). Then the current pattern can be rearranged according to the socio-economic-religious conditions of that particular area. This rearrangement can be done with proper consultation with the policy makers, legal experts, government officials, representatives from NGOs, parents and most important women at the community level.

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Urban Employment for Persons with Disabilities: A Study of Telangana

Soumya Vinayan

Abstract

There is a growing recognition of the fact that Persons with Disabilities encounter multiple disadvantages, marginalisation and segregation on account of social exclusion and discrimination. In this paper, we look at the barriers, Persons with Disabilities in urban areas face in everyday life in general and in terms of employment in particular. This study has been undertaken in six municipalities in the state of Telangana covering 2571 PWDs. It is evident from the results of the study that on various indicators such as level of education, status of employment (in terms of demographic characteristics, types of disabilities, occupational profile), incidence of attitudinal and physical barriers, Persons with Disabilities face barriers and hence increased vulnerability which restrict them from enjoying full citizenship. It is therefore necessary that there are concerted efforts, especially due diligence by the state actors and government at all levels that the constitutional guarantees of substantive equality and non-discrimination are realised fully for and by PWDs in all aspects of social life.

Author

Soumya Vinayan is Assistant Professor at Council for Social Development, Hyderabad

Urban Employment for Persons with Disabilities: A Study of Telangana

Soumya Vinayan

1. Context

Discourses on disability in India have for long been based on ‘able-normative’ approaches, and have foregrounded the medical model of engagement with disability. This is more so pronounced in the realm of labour market research, which has long neglected workers with disabilities and pushed them into the category of ‘non-labouring’ poor (Kannabiran 2014). The major objectives of this paper are to sketch the profile of persons with disabilities (hereafter PWDs) and the barriers they face in everyday life. This paper also looks into the employment status of PWDs in urban areas and attempts to look into the factors that influence their participation in the labour market, drawing on a primary survey conducted in six urban areas in Telangana.

The adoption of United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) in 2006 heralded a watershed in disability rights movements across the world. It signalled a marked shift of focus on disability from a welfare concern to that of rights issue. Article 27 addresses employment explicitly: “to prohibit discrimination in job-related matters, promote self-employment, entrepreneurship and starting one’s own business, employ persons with disabilities in the public sector [and] promote their employment in the private sector...”. Employment holds the key to human dignity, self-reliance and self-determination in the exercise of choice. Needless to say, it is a necessary pre condition for PWDs to escape from the vicious circle of marginalisation, poverty, discrimination and social exclusion.

The incidence of disability in India has been difficult to comprehend due to its complex, multifaceted nature as also the lack of standard definitions and availability data sources (Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2006a). According to the Census of 2011, there are 26.8 million PWDs in India which accounts for almost 2 % of population in India, which was similar to what had been reported in the earlier Census of 2001; in absolute terms, there has been a 22 % increase between Census of 2011 and 2001. With respect to the newly formed state of

Telangana, as per the Census of 2011, there are 10,46,822 PWDs.¹ Of these 59 % were located in rural areas while 41 % are in urban areas.

“Disability is complex and the intervention required to overcome disability disadvantage are multiple, systemic and will vary dependent on context” (World Health Organization (WHO) 2011: 261). This statement has to be understood in the context of the interaction between the impairments and other external barriers that restrict the participation of people with disabilities’ in society, especially labour market participation. Over the years, policies and interventions have focused on provisions for care, incentives in the form of affirmative policies and welfare schemes, some of which such as reservation or quotas in public employment are aimed to bring the persons with disabilities under the ambit of paid work. Nonetheless, these interventions are “the medium through which tolerance is fostered, and discrimination is left unaddressed in any substantive manner, leaving public morality firmly in place” (Kannabiran 2012: 54). This places an undue burden of responsibility on the individual with disabilities rather than questioning the social construction of ability which excludes PWDs from full citizenship. It is evident from several studies that the employment rates of PWDs are much lower than of those without disability, while unemployment rates of the former remain much higher (WHO 2011). The WHO study also points out that labour market discrimination of PWDs can be attributed to multiplicity of factors: labour market imperfections related to discrimination and prejudice; differences in productivity; disincentives created by disability benefit system to name a few.

In India, the Persons With Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act 1995 is the legal framework within which there are several provisions for ensuring equal opportunities in employment for PWDs whether through vocational rehabilitation provisions, quotas, anti-discrimination provisions or employment equity legislation, which is central not only in terms of their economic rights, but also to their broader social and political rights, which are closely and strategically linked to economic empowerment (Kothari 2012). The quotas and reservations for PWDs are, however, limited to public sector employment. The eschewing of principles of fair labour standards in the private sector, especially in the context of globalization works disproportionately against the interests of persons with disabilities.

Impediments that arise due to disabling physical or mental conditions can be easily mediated through enabling environments – be it physical infrastructure, attitudinal barriers or wage structure. Often, such favourable environment does not exist. As a consequence, reservation wage (the lowest wage at which one is willing to work) for PWDs is higher than those without disabilities since there are higher costs involved to secure employment than the latter. On the other hand, if the work place is not conducive or PWDs are perceived as less productive, then they are likely to be paid a lower market wage (Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2006a). Thus, PWDs are trapped between the high reservation wage and low market wage.

2. Data Sources on Disability

Census (2001 and 2011) and the NSSO data remain the main source of data on persons with disabilities along with state level enumeration of different levels and scales with respect to India. However, such macro-level data does not reveal much about the ground realities unless adequately qualified with micro-level studies (Jeffrey and Nidhi: 2008). There are very few studies in India which have looked at the status of employment of PWDs using primary survey based data. Most of the studies have been based on secondary data, especially on the NSSO Data of 2002 on Disability (Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2006a, 2006b, Pal 2010) and Census of India 2001 (Appunni and Deshpande 2009, UNDP 2012). The exceptions are the studies conducted by Erb and Harris-White (2001) in three villages of Tamil Nadu and Mitra and Sambamoorthi (2009) which uses 15 Villages Disability Survey data of Uttar Pradesh conducted by the World Bank in 2005.

Before we delve into the discussion on field data, this section discusses a comparative snapshot of profile of persons with disabilities in the two rounds of Census 2001 and 2011 (Annexure 1).² Across the two Census periods, one can find that the incidence of disability has increased by 22% (from 2,19,06,769 in 2001 to 2,68,14,994 in 2011). In terms of gender, there has been a marginal change - decline among men (from 58% to 57%) while it increased from 43% to 44% among women. In terms of literacy, the proportion of literates increased from 49% to 55% while non-literates declined from 51% to 46%. The incidence of disability, among 0-19 population in total disabled population shows a decline from 35% to 29% and this could be seen across SC and ST population as well. In terms of types of disability, there has been definitional change between

the two Census periods. On the one hand, there has been a drastic decline in the proportion of visually impaired from 50% in 2001 to 19% in 2011; while on the other hand; the incidence of hearing impairment registered an increase from 5.8% in 2001 to 18.9% in 2011. In the Census 2001, even those with loss of vision in one eye were treated as disabled while in 2011 this definition was removed; while persons using hearing aid have been treated as disabled at Census 2011 unlike in 2001. This change in definition of visual and hearing impairment has led to drastic change in numbers in both categories. In case of speech impaired, the proportion has remained unchanged while in terms of movement there is a decline of 8%. In terms of mental retardation and mental illness together account for 8% in 2011 while it was clubbed together in 2001 at 10%. 8% reported multiple disabilities, a new category introduced in 2011 (to record as many as three under this category). Yet another category was introduced 'Any other' to report disabilities not listed otherwise and this accounted for about 19% of the total disabilities reported in 2011.

In terms of economic activity, the proportion of workers in total disabled marginally increased from 34.5% in 2001 to 36.3% in 2011 while that of non-workers registered a marginal decline (65.5 to 63.7%) (Annexure 2). In terms of gender, too similar trends could be observed. In terms of status of workers, the proportion of main worker in total workers registered a decline (78% to 72%) while that of marginal workers increased (23% to 28%). Gender wise, interestingly, the proportion of women among main workers increased (18% to 22%) while that of men declined from 82% to 78%. On the other hand, the proportion of men among marginal workers increased from 51% to 58%. This could be attributed to the increase in the proportion of men engaged as agricultural labourers registering an increase from 22% in 2001 to 27% in 2011; while that of women remained more or less unchanged. In addition, the proportion of women in other workers category also registered an increase from 24% to 33% while that of men increased only 42% to 45% between 2001 and 2011.

As far as the present study is concerned, CSD had undertaken an in-depth study of Persons with Disabilities, which examined the barriers to employment for PWDs in selected urban areas of Telangana through a field-based survey. At the time of fieldwork (conducted between October 2013-March 2014), the only statistics available on PWDs at the state level was the Census of 2001. Unit level household data, which would enable sample selection was not available.

Hence, for the purpose of sampling, SADAREM (Software for Assessment of Disabled for Access, Rehabilitation and Empowerment) database was used. At the first stage, six districts with high incidence of PWDs in the age group of 20-50 (active employment-seeking age) were identified. In the second stage, from within these districts, six urban areas/municipalities with high incidence of PWDs in the age group of 20-50 were listed (Refer Table 1).³ From these, persons (these are persons with government certified and verified disability of 40 % and above) who are eligible for disability entitlements of the government were listed from the online database. From this cohort, 500 persons from each urban area/municipality were selected at random across different types of disabilities, namely visual impairment, locomotive impairment, speech and hearing impairment, intellectual and psychosocial disabilities. It must be noted that the disabilities identified for the study are those recognised officially. This is a limitation in available database. However, given the social stigma attached to disabilities and discrepancies in the information (especially residential address) provided by SADAREM database, convenience sampling had to be employed across the municipalities. Thus, a total of 2571 PWDs from across six municipalities were chosen.

Table 1 : Selection of Study Area			
Name of the District	No. of PWDs (Urban)* (Age 20-50)	Name of the Municipality	No. of PWDs (Urban)** (Age 20-50)
Ranga Reddy	7132 (26.1)	Ranga Reddy	7132 (100.0)
Hyderabad	7032(25.7)	Hyderabad	7032 (100.0)
Karimnagar	2022(7.4)	Ramagundem	666 (32.9)
Warangal	1976 (7.2)	Warangal	1753 (88.7)
Mahbubnagar	1927 (7.0)	Mahbubnagar	765 (39.7)
Khammam	1882 (6.9)	Khammam	616 (32.7)
Adilabad	1540 (5.6)	Nirmal	338 (21.9)
Nalgonda	1513 (5.5)	Nalgonda	531 (35.1)
Nizamabad	1189 (4.3)	Nizamabad	708 (59.5)
Medak	1145 (4.2)	Siddipet	257 (22.4)
Telangana	27358 (100.0)		
Source: SADAREM data as on October 15, 2013 accessed online at www.sadarem.ap.gov.in			
* Figures in parenthesis show column total (% share of districts in state total)			
**Figures in parenthesis show row total (% share of municipalities in district total)			

The six urban areas/municipalities, which were selected with the help of SADAREM data were Warangal (Warangal district), Nizamabad (Nizamabad district), Ramagundem (Karimnagar district), L B Nagar (Ranga Reddy district), Musheerabad (Hyderabad district) and Khammam (Khammam district). The status of disability, education, health, employment, physical and attitudinal barriers, socio-economic characteristics, were collected to understand the enabling

factors that equip them to seek and undertake employment and disabling factors that inhibit employment.

3. Analysis

In the field survey, along with socio-economic characteristics of the respondents (both PWDs), detailed information on status of employment was collected. The status of employment included workers and non-workers. Workers were categorised into self-employed (not working for others), employee (working under an employer) while non-workers included those seeking employment (unemployed), not in labour force, and not working owing to disability (See section C). In the following analysis, we begin with the socio-economic profile of the respondents, their level of education followed by an analysis of the characteristics of respondents in relation to their employment status highlighting the barriers to employment. This is followed by a detailed analysis of attitudinal and physical barriers faced by PWDs. The table 2 summarises the coverage of respondents in the six municipalities in Telangana.⁴

Table 2: Respondents District wise	
Name of the District	No. of respondents
Hyderabad	290 (11.3)
Karimnagar	500 (19.4)
Khammam	458 (17.8)
Nizamabad	524 (20.4)
Ranga Reddy	300 (11.7)
Warangal	499 (19.4)
Total	2571 (100.0)
Source: Field Survey Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively	

A. Socio-economic profile of Respondents

Of the total PWDs canvassed, 40 % were female and 60 % were male (Table 3). Majority of the respondents belonged to the age group of 18-59 in both the categories. This was as per the sample selection, since the focus of the study is on labour market barriers.⁵

In terms of type of disability, 67.4 % were persons with locomotor disability followed by 13 % with psychosocial and intellectual disabilities (“Mental Illness and Retardation”), 10 % hearing impaired, eight % with visual impairment and one % with multiple disabilities. Among the respondents, the proportion of women with disabilities (WWDs) was lower than men across disabilities except in case of hearing impaired (51%). It was lowest among the locomotor disabled (38%) (Table 3).

Type of Disability	Number of PWDs		
	Female	Male	Total
Visually Impaired	89 (43.0) (8.6)	118 (57.0) (7.7)	207 (100.0) (8.1)
Hearing Impaired	135 (50.6) (13.0)	132 (49.4) (8.6)	267 (100.0) (10.4)
Locomotor Disability	657 (37.9) (63.4)	1076 (62.1) (70.1)	1733 (100.0) (67.4)
Intellectual and Psychosocial Disabilities	141 (42.3) (13.6)	192 (57.7) (12.5)	333 (100.0) (12.9)
Multiple Disabilities	14 (45.2) (1.4)	17 (54.8) (1.1)	31 (100.0) (1.2)
Total	1036 (40.3) (100.0)	1535 (59.7) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Religion	Visually Impaired	Hearing Impaired	Locomotor Disability	Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	Multiple Disabilities	Total
Hindu	161(8.1) (77.8)	219(11.0) (82.0)	1348(67.4) (77.7)	250(12.5) (75.1)	21(1.1) (67.7)	1999 (100.0) (77.8)
Muslim	37(7.2) (17.9)	46(9.0) (17.2)	345(67.3) (19.9)	76(14.8) (22.8)	9(1.8) (29.0)	513 (100.0) (19.9)
Christian	4(9.3) (1.9)	1(2.3) (0.4)	31(72.1) (1.8)	6(14.0) (1.8)	1 (2.3) (3.3)	43 (100.0) (1.7)
Others	5 (31.3) (2.4)	1 (6.2) (0.4)	9 (56.3) (0.6)	1 (6.2) (0.3)	-	16 (100.0) (0.6)
Total	207(81.1) (100.0)	267(10.4) (100.0)	1733(67.4) (100.0)	333(13.0) (100.0)	31(1.2) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Of the total canvassed, 78 % belonged to Hindu religion, closely followed by 20 % Muslims, approximately 2 % were Christians and less than one % others (Sikhs, Parsis, Buddhists, and so on) among persons with disabilities. Across various disabilities too, majority were Hindus though the proportion of Muslims among multiple disabilities and intellectual & psychosocial disabilities were 29% and 23% respectively (Table 4). In terms of social category, among PWDs, 62 % belonged to OBC, 19 % belonged to Others, 15 % were SC and 3 % were ST. This trend could be seen across various disabilities as well (Table 5).

Table 5: PWDs by Social Group and Type of Disability						
Social Group	Visually Impaired	Hearing Impaired	Locomotor Disability	Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	Multiple Disabilities	Total
SC	41 (10.5) (19.8)	43 (11.0) (16.1)	260 (60.3) (15.0)	42 (10.7) (12.6)	6 (1.5) (19.4)	392 (100.0) (15.2)
ST	9 (10.5) (4.3)	4 (4.7) (1.5)	67 (77.9) (3.9)	4 (4.7) (1.2)	2 (2.3) (6.5)	86 (100.0) (3.3)
OBC	121 (7.5) (58.5)	169 (10.5) (63.3)	1090 (67.9) (62.9)	209 (13.0) (62.8)	16 (1.0) (51.6)	1605 (100.0) (62.4)
Others	36 (7.4) (17.4)	51 (10.5) (19.1)	316 (64.8) (18.2)	78 (16.0) (23.4)	7 (1.4) (22.5)	488 (100.0) (19.1)
Total	207 (8.1) (100.0)	267 (10.4) (100.0)	1733 (67.4) (100.0)	333 (13.0) (100.0)	31 (1.2) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)
Source: Field Survey						
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively						

Of the total canvassed, more than half of the PWDs (56%) were married (Table 6). Within those who were married, the proportion of women stood at 37%. Among total WWDs, the incidence of marriage was stood at 51% and it was lowest among intellectual and psychosocial disabled at 14%. In case of other categories of disabilities too, the proportion of married women among the total ranged from 60% among visually impaired to 57% each among locomotor and multiple disabled while among hearing impaired it stood at 52%. Thus, the incidence of women being married was strikingly low among those with intellectual and psychosocial disabilities. In case of total men with disabilities, the incidence of marriage stood at 60% (higher than women) and like in case of women, the lowest was among men intellectual and psychosocial disabled at 14%. It was highest among visually impaired, 70% of visually impaired men were married in contrast to 60% women closely followed by locomotor disabled 67% (men). In case of multiple disabilities, among 14 women, 8 were married, but among 17 men, only 7 were married.

Among the total PWDs canvassed, 40% of unmarried, of these 43% were women while 57% were men (Table 6). Across various disabilities too, the proportion of men among the unmarried were higher than women except in case of multiple disability. This may be attributed to the non-worker status among unmarried men. Among total unmarried men (587), only 34% were employed, the rest were either seeking employment (4%) or were not in labour force (8%) or were non-workers owing to disability (54%). In case of total men with disabilities, 38% were unmarried, less than 2% each were divorced, separated/deserted or widowers. Among total disabled women, 43% were unmarried, 1% each was divorced, separated or deserted while 3%

were widows. Thus, the incidence of being unmarried was higher among WWDs (43%) than men (38%). Live in relationship was reported by two disabled among the total 2571 canvassed and both were men with locomotor disability.

The cause for and the onset of disability plays an important role in influencing the life-cycle of PWDs – majority (54 %) indicated that they were disabled from birth; 32 % reported illness as cause of disability followed by 13 % who reported accident, while around 1 % reported either harassment or could not explain reasons or causes for disability (Table 7). Among men with disabilities, 51% reported disability at birth followed by 31% due to illness, 17% by accident. Among disabled women, 59% of women had disability since birth followed by 33% contracted disability due to illness while only 7% reported accident as cause of disability. Thus, the incidence of accident as a cause of disability was higher among men than women. Two women out of 1036 women, and four out of 1535 men with disabilities also reported harassment as reason for disability.

Across disabilities too, highest incidence of disability was since birth – the proportion ranged from 88% among hearing impaired, 82% among intellectual and psychosocial disabled and 77% among multiple disabled. Among locomotor disabled, incidence of disability since birth was lower than other disabilities, at 43% (higher among women than men – 49% and 40% respectively); illness accounted for 40% of disability (42% among women and 38% among men) and 17% reported accident as reason for disability – lower among women (9%) than among men. In case of visually impaired, 56% reported incidence since birth followed by one fourth due to illness and 14% due to accident. Harassment was also reported by 6 out of 2571 disabled canvassed.

Table 6: PWDs by Marital Status, Gender and Type of Disability

Marital Status	Visually Impaired			Hearing Impaired			Locomotor Disability			Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability			Multiple Disabilities			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Married	53 (39.3) (10.0) (59.6)	82 (60.7) (9.0) (69.5)	135 (100.0) (9.4) (65.2)	70 (48.6) (13.3) (51.9)	74 (51.4) (8.1) (56.1)	144 (100.0) (10.0) (53.9)	378 (34.3) (71.6) (57.5)	725 (65.7) (79.2) (67.4)	1103 (100.0) (76.4) (63.6)	19 (41.3) (3.6) (13.5)	27 (58.7) (3.0) (14.1)	46 (100.0) (3.2) (13.8)	8 (53.3) (1.5) (57.1)	7 (46.7) (0.8) (41.2)	15 (100.0) (1.0) (48.4)	528 (36.6) (36.6) (51.0)	915 (63.4) (63.4) (59.6)	1443 (100.0) (100.0) (56.1)
Unmarried	27 (45.8) (6.1) (30.3)	32 (54.2) (5.5) (27.2)	59 (100.0) (5.7) (28.5)	54 (49.5) (12.2) (40.0)	55 (50.5) (9.4) (41.6)	109 (100.0) (10.6) (40.9)	239 (41.9) (53.8) (36.4)	331 (58.1) (56.4) (30.8)	570 (100.0) (55.3) (32.9)	118 (42.6) (26.6) (83.7)	159 (57.4) (27.1) (82.8)	277 (100.0) (26.9) (83.1)	6 (37.5) (1.4) (42.9)	10 (62.5) (1.7) (58.8)	16 (100.0) (1.6) (51.6)	444 (43.1) (43.1) (42.8)	587 (56.9) (56.9) (38.2)	1031 (100.0) (100.0) (40.1)
Divorced	1 (10.0) (1.1)	1 (11.1) (0.8)	2 (10.5) (1.0)	1 (10.0) (0.7)	1 (11.1) (0.8)	2 (10.5) (0.7)	6 (60.0) (0.9)	7 (77.8) (0.7)	13 (68.4) (0.8)	2 (20.0) (1.4)	-	2 (10.5) (0.6)	-	-	-	10 (52.6) (1.0)	9 (47.4) (0.6)	19 (100.0) (0.7)
Separated/ Deserted	2 (8.3) (2.3)	3 (16.7) (2.5)	5 (11.9) (2.4)	8 (33.3) (5.9)	2 (11.1) (1.5)	10 (23.8) (3.8)	13 (54.2) (1.9)	8 (44.4) (0.7)	21 (50.0) (1.2)	1 (4.2) (0.7)	5 (27.8) (2.6)	6 (14.3) (1.8)	-	-	-	24 (57.1) (2.3)	18 (42.9) (1.2)	42 (100.0) (1.6)
Widow/er	6 (20.0) (6.7)	-	6 (17.6) (2.9)	2 (6.7) (1.5)	-	2 (5.9) (0.7)	21 (70.0) (3.3)	3 (75.0) (0.2)	24 (70.6) (1.4)	1 (3.3) (0.7)	1 (25.0) (0.5)	2 (5.9) (0.7)	-	-	-	30 (88.2) (2.9)	4 (11.8) (0.3)	34 (100.0) (1.3)
Live in relationship	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 (100) (0.1)	2 (100) (0.1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 (100.0) (0.1)	2 (100.0) (0.2)
Total	89 (8.6) (100.0)	118 (7.7) (100.0)	207 (8.1) (100.0)	135 (13.0) (100.0)	132 (8.6) (100.0)	267 (10.4) (100.0)	657 (63.4) (100.0)	1076 (70.1) (100.0)	1733 (67.4) (100.0)	141 (13.6) (100.0)	192 (12.5) (100.0)	333 (13.0) (100.0)	14 (1.4) (100.0)	17 (1.1) (100.0)	31 (1.2) (100.0)	1036 (40.3) (100.0)	1535 (59.7) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Table 7: Reasons for Disability by Type of Disability and Gender

Reasons for Disability	Visually Impaired			Hearing Impaired			Locomotor Disability			Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability			Multiple Disabilities			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
By birth	50 (8.1) (56.2)	66 (8.5) (55.9)	116 (8.3) (56.0)	118 (19.2) (87.4)	117 (15.0) (88.6)	235 (16.8) (88.0)	320 (52.0) (48.7)	429 (54.9) (39.9)	749 (53.7) (43.2)	114 (18.5) (80.9)	158 (20.2) (82.3)	272 (19.5) (81.7)	13 (2.1) (92.9)	11 (1.4) (64.7)	24 (1.7) (77.4)	615 (44.1) (59.4)	781 (55.9) (50.9)	1396 (100.0) (54.3)
Due to illness	26 (7.6) (29.2)	27 (5.7) (22.9)	53 (6.5) (25.6)	13 (3.8) (9.6)	9 (1.9) (6.8)	22 (2.7) (8.2)	276 (81.2) (42.0)	411 (86.7) (38.2)	687 (84.4) (39.6)	24 (7.1) (17.0)	24 (5.1) (12.5)	48 (5.9) (14.4)	1 (0.3) (7.1)	3 (0.6) (17.6)	4 (0.5) (12.9)	340 (41.8) (32.8)	474 (58.2) (30.9)	814 (100.0) (31.7)
Accident	9 (13.2) (10.0)	19 (7.2) (16.1)	28 (8.5) (13.5)	1 (1.5) (0.7)	3 (1.1) (2.3)	4 (1.2) (1.5)	58 (85.3) (8.8)	231 (87.8) (21.5)	289 (87.3) (16.7)	-	8 (3.0) (4.2)	8 (2.4) (2.4)	-	2 (0.8) (11.8)	2 (0.6) (6.5)	68 (20.5) (6.6)	263 (79.5) (17.1)	331 (100.0) (12.9)
Harassment	2 (100.0) (2.2)	3 (75.0) (2.5)	5 (83.3) (2.4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (25.0) (5.9)	1 (16.7) (3.2)	2 (33.3) (2.2)	4 (66.7) (0.3)	6 (100.0) (0.2)
Cannot explain	-	1 (20.0) (0.8)	1 (10.0) (0.5)	1 (20.0) (0.7)	2 (40.0) (1.5)	3 (30.0) (1.1)	1 (20.0) (0.2)	-	1 (10.0) (0.1)	3 (60.0) (2.1)	2 (40.0) (1.0)	5 (50.0) (1.5)	-	-	-	5 (50.0) (0.5)	5 (50.0) (0.3)	10 (100.0) (0.4)
Others	2 (33.3) (2.2)	2 (25.0) (1.7)	4 (28.6) (1.9)	2 (33.3) (1.5)	1 (12.5) (0.8)	3 (21.4) (1.1)	2 (33.3) (0.3)	5 (62.5) (0.5)	7 (50.0) (0.4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 (42.9) (0.6)	8 (57.1) (0.5)	14 (100.0) (0.5)
Total	89 (8.6) (100.0)	118 (7.7) (100.0)	207 (8.1) (100.0)	135 (13.0) (100.0)	132 (8.6) (100.0)	267 (10.4) (100.0)	657 (63.4) (100.0)	1076 (70.1) (100.0)	1733 (67.4) (100.0)	141 (13.6) (100.0)	192 (12.5) (100.0)	333 (13.0) (100.0)	14 (1.4) (100.0)	17 (1.1) (100.0)	31 (1.2) (100.0)	1036 (100.0) (100.0)	1535 (100.0) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

B. Level of Education

In most regions of the world, young people with disabilities lack access to formal education, training and opportunities to develop their skills (WHO 2011: 239). Many children and adults with disabilities have historically been excluded from mainstream education opportunities. The correlations for both children and adults between low educational outcomes and having a disability, is often stronger than the correlations between low educational outcome and other characteristics – such as gender, rural residence, and low economic status (Filmer 2008). World Health Survey conducted in 51 countries shows that there is significantly lower rates of primary school completion and fewer mean years of education than respondents without disability. For all countries under the analysis, 50.6 % of males with disability have completed primary school, compared with 61.3 % of males without disability. Females with disability report 41.7 % primary school completion compared with 52.9 % of females without disability (WHO 2011: 206). In most countries early efforts at providing education or training through special schools (Schools for the Blind) reached only a small proportion of those in need and were not cost effective. Usually in urban areas, they tended to isolate individuals from their families and communities (UNESCO 1994). Norwich B (2002) holds that some disability advocates have made the case that it should be a matter of individual choice whether mainstream or segregated settings meet the needs of the child. Simple placement in a regular school, without meaningful interaction with classmates and professionals, it has been argued would exclude the deaf learner from education and society (Fuchs & Lynne 1994).

There are many barriers to education for children and adults with disabilities, which are broadly categorised to systemic and school-based problems. While there are many initiatives to include children and adults with disabilities in education, a lack of legislation, policy, targets and plans tend to be a major obstacle in efforts to provide Education for All. The gaps in policy that are commonly encountered include a lack of financial and other targeted incentives for children with disabilities to attend school – and a lack of social protection and support services for children with disabilities and their families (WHO 2011). In relation to school problems, curriculum and pedagogy, inadequate training and support for teachers, physical barriers and labelling children with disabilities, violence, bullying and abuse are some of the significant problems. Rungta elaborates that in India, people with disabilities are “precluded from accessing or

benefiting from mainstream educational (and) vocational training” (2004: 37). As for integrated schools for children with disabilities, Mehrotra reports that in India, they lack “appropriate facilities for resource teachers, resource rooms and adequate budget provisions for them” (Mehrotra 2013). The enabling environment for people with disabilities also includes the institutional environment. For instance, antidiscrimination laws may influence earnings and employment differentials across disability status, while assistance programs, depending on how they are designed and put into practice, can “facilitate, limit, or not affect access to employment for persons with disabilities” (Mizunoya and Sophie 2013: 29). Given this context, the following analysis focuses on educational status of the sampled PWDs across six districts in Telangana.

Of the total disabled canvassed, 38% were non-literates (Table 8). Among disabled women, this proportion was higher (47%) while among men with disabilities only 32% were non-literate. Across disabilities, the incidence of illiteracy was highest among intellectual and psychosocial disabled (82% - higher among women than men) and lowest among locomotor disabled at (25%). In case of other disabilities, incidence of illiteracy ranged from 61% among those with multiple disabilities, 52% among visually impaired and 46% among hearing impaired. In terms of gender, illiteracy among women was high across disabilities too – highest among intellectual and psychosocial disabled (87%), 66% among visually impaired, 58% among hearing impaired, 50% among women with multiple disabilities while it was lowest among locomotor disabled but still accounted for one-third of total locomotor disabled women. This indicates the abysmal levels of educational levels among disabled across disabilities and gender.

Among the literates, 43% were high school educated. Among women, this proportion (40%) of women was lower than men (45%). Across disabilities too one could observe similar trend except in case of hearing impaired (51% of women and 45% for men). The level of education was lowest among women with intellectual and psychosocial disabled with majority with primary education (42%) followed by secondary (32%) and high school (26%). Of the total literates, 13% each reported secondary and graduation as level of literacy while 11% reported intermediate level of education. Less than one % indicated post-graduation and technical while one % indicated primary level of education. Interestingly, the proportion of graduates across disabilities was highest among locomotor disabled (14%) while that of primary educated was highest among intellectual and psychosocial disabled (30%) indicative of the low levels of access

of education to the latter. Post graduate and technically qualified were too found in larger proportion among locomotor disabled indicative of their relatively better access to education.

Seventy five % of the literates were educated in government schools. Private schools accounted for 20 % of PWDs. The PWDs who went to special schools (government or private) stood at around one % while madrasa and missionary schools accounted for two and one % respectively (Table 10). In addition to educational level, the PWDs were also asked about the medium of instruction as well as reasons for choice of school and medium. Telugu was the major medium of instruction accounting for 75 % of the total respondents. In case of PWDs, 10 % each reported Urdu and English (Table 10). Almost half of the PWDs who were literate (47 %) reported that they chose the school out of self-interest while 42 % reported that their family decided the choice of the school. Majority (seventy eight %) reported mother tongue as the reason for choice of medium of instruction while 8 % each also reported IQ and location of school as reasons for choice of medium of instruction (Table 11).

Table 8: Educational Status of PWDs by Gender and Type of Disability

Educational Level	Visually Impaired			Hearing Impaired			Locomotor Disability			Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability			Multiple Disabilities			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Non literates	59 (12.2) (66.3)	49 (10.0) (41.5)	108 (11.1) (52.2)	78 (16.1) (57.8)	45 (9.2) (34.0)	123 (12.7) (46.1)	218 (45.0) (33.2)	232 (47.5) (21.6)	450 (46.3) (25.9)	122 (25.2) (86.5)	150 (30.7) (78.2)	272 (28.0) (81.5)	7 (1.4) (50.0)	12 (2.5) (70.6)	19 (2.0) (61.2)	484 (49.8) (46.7)	488 (50.2) (31.8)	972 (100.0) (37.8)
Literates	30 (5.5) (33.8)	69 (6.6) (58.5)	99 (6.2) (47.8)	57 (10.4) (42.2)	87 (8.4) (69.9)	144 (9.1) (53.9)	439 (7.9) (66.9)	844 (80.7) (78.5)	1283 (80.3) (74.0)	19 (3.4) (13.5)	42 (4.1) (21.8)	61 (3.9) (18.4)	7 (1.2) (0.5)	5 (0.5) (29.5)	12 (0.8) (38.8)	552 (34.5) (53.3)	1047 (65.5) (68.3)	1599 (100.0) (62.2)
Total	89 (8.6) (100.0)	118 (7.7) (100.0)	207 (8.1) (100.0)	135 (13.0) (100.0)	132 (8.6) (100.0)	267 (10.4) (100.0)	657 (63.4) (100.0)	1076 (70.1) (100.0)	1733 (67.4) (100.0)	141 (13.6) (100.0)	192 (12.5) (100.0)	333 (13.0) (100.0)	14 (1.4) (100.0)	17 (1.1) (100.0)	31 (1.2) (100.0)	1036 (40.3) (100.0)	1535 (59.7) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Table 9: Literacy Levels of PWDs by Gender and Type of Disability

Literacy Level	Visually Impaired			Hearing Impaired			Locomotor Disability			Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability			Multiple Disabilities			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Primary	8 (7.9) (26.7)	10 (8.2) (14.5)	18 (8.1) (18.2)	11 (10.9) (19.3)	8 (6.6) (9.2)	19 (8.5) (13.2)	72 (71.3) (16.4)	93 (76.2) (11.0)	165 (74.0) (12.9)	8 (7.9) (42.1)	10 (8.2) (23.8)	18 (8.1) (29.5)	2 (2.0) (28.6)	1 (0.8) (20.0)	3 (1.3) (25.0)	101 (45.3) (18.3)	122 (54.7) (11.7)	223 (100.0) (13.9)
Secondary	6 (8.3) (20.0)	6 (4.4) (8.7)	12 (5.7) (12.2)	8 (11.1) (14.0)	14 (10.2) (16.1)	22 (10.5) (15.3)	52 (72.2) (11.9)	106 (77.4) (12.6)	158 (75.6) (12.3)	6 (8.3) (31.6)	9 (6.6) (21.4)	15 (7.2) (24.6)	- (-) (-)	2 (1.5) (40.0)	2 (1.0) (16.7)	72 (34.5) (13.0)	137 (65.5) (13.1)	209 (100.0) (13.1)
High School	12 (5.4) (40.0)	34 (7.2) (49.3)	46 (6.7) (46.5)	29 (13.1) (50.9)	39 (8.3) (44.8)	68 (9.8) (47.2)	170 (76.9) (38.7)	379 (80.6) (44.9)	549 (79.5) (42.8)	5 (2.3) (26.3)	17 (3.6) (40.5)	22 (3.2) (36.1)	5 (2.3) (71.4)	1 (0.2) (20.0)	6 (0.9) (50.0)	221 (31.9) (40.1)	470 (68.1) (44.9)	691 (100.0) (43.2)
Intermediate	4 (6.9) (13.3)	10 (9.8) (14.5)	14 (8.8) (14.1)	5 (8.6) (8.8)	13 (12.7) (14.9)	18 (11.3) (12.5)	49 (84.5) (11.2)	77 (75.5) (9.1)	126 (78.8) (9.8)	- (-) (-)	1 (1.0) (2.4)	1 (0.6) (1.6)	- (-) (-)	1 (1.0) (20.0)	1 (0.6) (8.3)	58 (36.3) (10.5)	102 (63.7) (9.7)	160 (100.0) (10.0)
Graduation	- (-) (-)	4 (3.1) (5.8)	4 (2.0) (4.0)	4 (5.8) (7.0)	9 (6.9) (10.3)	13 (6.5) (9.0)	65 (94.2) (14.8)	115 (87.8) (13.6)	180 (90.0) (14.0)	- (-) (-)	3 (2.3) (7.1)	3 (1.5) (4.9)	- (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	69 (34.5) (12.5)	131 (65.5) (12.5)	200 (100.0) (12.5)
Post-Graduation	- (-) (-)	3 (6.3) (4.3)	3 (4.1) (3.0)	- (-) (-)	1 (2.1) (1.2)	1 (1.4) (0.7)	25 (100) (5.7)	44 (91.7) (5.2)	69 (94.5) (5.4)	- (-) (-)	0 (-) (-)	0 (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	25 (34.3) (4.5)	48 (65.7) (4.6)	73 (100.0) (4.6)
Technical	- (-) (-)	2 (5.4) (2.9)	2 (4.7) (2.0)	- (-) (-)	3 (8.1) (3.5)	3 (7.0) (4.2)	6 (100) (1.4)	30 (81.1) (3.6)	36 (83.7) (2.8)	- (-) (-)	2 (4.8) (0.5)	2 (4.7) (3.3)	- (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	- (-) (-)	6 (13.9) (1.1)	37 (86.1) (3.5)	43 (100.0) (2.7)
Total	30 (5.4) (100.0)	69 (6.6) (100.0)	99 (6.2) (100.0)	57 (10.4) (100.0)	87 (8.3) (100.0)	144 (9.0) (100.0)	439 (79.5) (100.0)	844 (80.6) (100.0)	1283 (80.3) (100.0)	19 (3.4) (100.0)	42 (4.0) (100.0)	61 (3.8) (100.0)	7 (1.3) (100.0)	5 (0.5) (100.0)	12 (0.7) (100.0)	552 (34.5) (100.0)	1047 (65.5) (100.0)	1599 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Table 10: Type of School and Medium of Instruction by Literate Respondents						
Particulars of the Variable	PWD					Total
	Visually Impaired	Hearing Impaired	Locomotor Disability	Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	Multiple Disabilities	
Type of school						
Government	78 (6.5) (78.8)	92 (7.7) (63.9)	975 (81.5) (76.0)	40 (3.3) (65.6)	11 (0.9) (91.7)	1196 (100.0) (74.8)
Private	16 (5.0) (16.2)	34 (10.7) (23.6)	254 (80.1) (19.8)	13 (4.1) (21.3)	-	317 (100.0) (19.8)
Govt. special	3 (15.8) (3.0)	9 (47.4) (6.3)	6 (31.6) (0.5)	1 (5.3) (1.6)	-	19 (100.0) (1.2)
Private/ NGO special	-	3 (27.3) (2.1)	5 (45.5) (0.4)	3 (27.3) (4.9)	-	11 (100.0) (0.7)
Madrassa	1 (2.7) (1.0)	4 (10.8) (2.8)	29 (78.4) (2.3)	3 (8.1) (4.9)		37 (100.0) (2.3)
Missionary	1 (6.3) (1.0)	1 (6.3) (0.7)	12 (75.0) (0.9)	1 (6.3) (1.6)	1 (6.3) (8.3)	16 (100.0) (1.0)
Others	-	1 (33.3) (0.7)	2 (66.7) (0.2)	-	-	3 (100.0) (0.2)
Total	99 (6.2) (100.0)	144 (9.0) (100.0)	1283 (80.2) (100.0)	61 (3.8) (100.0)	12 (0.8)	1599 (100.0) (100.0)
Medium of Instruction						
Not indicated	8 (13.8) (8.1)	5 (8.6) (3.5)	39 (67.2) (3.0)	4 (6.9) (6.6)	2 (3.4) (16.7)	58 (100.0) (3.6)
Urdu	10 (6.2) (10.1)	6 (3.7) (4.2)	138 (85.2) (10.8)	7 (4.3) (11.5)	1 (0.6) (8.3)	162 (100.0) (10.1)
English	5 (3.2) (5.1)	9 (5.8) (6.3)	136 (87.2) (10.6)	4 (2.6) (6.6)	2 (1.3) (16.7)	156 (100.0) (9.8)
Telugu	71 (6.0) (71.7)	112 (9.4) (77.8)	955 (80.3) (74.4)	45 (3.8) (73.8)	7 (0.6) (58.3)	1190 (100.0) (74.4)
Hindi	-	3 (18.8) (2.1)	13 (81.3) (1.0)	-	-	16 (100.0) (1.0)
Braille	5 (100.0) (5.1)	-	-	-	-	5 (100.0) (0.3)
Sign language	-	9 (75.0) (6.3)	2 (16.7) (0.2)	1 (8.3) (1.6)	-	12 (100.0) (0.8)
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	99 (6.2) (100.)	144 (9.0) (100.0)	1283 (80.2) (100.0)	61 (3.8) (100.0)	12 (0.8) (100.0)	1599 (100.0) (100.0)
Source: Field Survey						
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively						

Table 11: Reasons for Choice of School and medium of instruction by Literate Respondents						
Particulars of the Variable	PWDs					Total
	Visually Impaired	Hearing Impaired	Locomotor Disability	Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	Multiple Disabilities	
Reasons for Selecting the School						
Self interested	51 (6.8) (51.5)	65 (8.6) (45.1)	608 (80.7) (47.4)	24 (3.2) (39.3)	5(0.7) (41.7)	753 (100.0) (47.1)
Family	35 (5.2) (35.4)	61 (9.1) (42.4)	541 (81.1) (42.2)	25 (3.7) (41.0)	5 (0.7) (41.7)	667 (100.0) (41.7)
Nearby	4 (5.9) (4.0)	1 (1.5) (0.7)	59 (86.8) (4.6)	4 (5.9) (6.6)	-	68 (100.0) (4.3)
Due to special school	1 (5.9) (1.0)	7 (41.2) (4.9)	7 (41.2) (0.5)	2 (11.8) (3.3)	-	17 (100.0) (1.1)
Rejected in other school	-	-	2 (100.0) (0.2)	-	-	2 (100.0) (0.1)
Others	8 (8.7) (8.1)	10 (10.9) (6.9)	66 (71.7) (5.1)	6 (6.5) (9.8)	2 (2.2) (16.7)	92 (100.0) (5.8)
Total	99 (6.2) (100.0)	144 (9.0) (100.0)	1283 (80.2) (100.0)	61 (3.8) (100.0)	12(0.8) (100.0)	1599 (100.0) (100.0)
Reasons for Selecting the Medium of Instruction						
No Response	10 (11.5) (10.1)	6 (6.9) (4.2)	64 (73.6) (5.0)	5 (5.7) (8.2)	2 (2.3) (16.7)	87 (100.0) (5.4)
Mother tongue	77 (6.2) (77.8)	114 (9.1) (79.2)	1007 (80.8) (78.5)	43 (3.4) (70.5)	6 (0.5) (50.0)	1247 (100.0) (78.0)
IQ	7 (5.4) (7.1)	13 (10.1) (9.0)	101 (78.3) (7.9)	8 (6.2) (13.1)	-	129 (100.0) (8.1)
School is nearby	4 (3.7) (4.0)	9 (8.4) (6.3)	87 (81.3) (6.8)	3 (2.8) (4.9)	4 (3.7) (33.3)	107 (100.0) (6.7)
Others	1 (3.4) (1.0)	2 (6.9) (1.4)	24 (82.8) (1.9)	2 (6.9) (3.3)	-	29 (100.0) (1.8)
Total	99 (6.2) (100.0)	144 (9.0) (100.0)	1283 (80.2) (100.0)	61 (3.8) (100.0)	12 (0.8) (100.0)	1599 (100.0) (100.0)
Source: Field Survey						
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively						

Among non-literate PWDs, the major reasons for illiteracy were as follows: 36 % reported never enrolled in school while 29 % reported financial problems. Around 8-9 % also reported absence of special school or schools near place of residence while 5 % each reported refusal of admission by school authorities, helping domestic and necessity to earn. In case of drop-outs (those who discontinued education), financial problems (39 %), helping in domestic work (23 %) and necessity to earn (17 %) were indicated by PWDs as reasons for drop-out. This indicates the vulnerability of PWDs (Table 12).

Table 12: Reasons for Illiteracy and Dropouts						
Particulars of Variable	PWDs					Total
	Visually Impaired	Hearing Impaired	Locomotor Disability	Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	Multiple Disabilities	
Reasons for Illiteracy						
Never gone to school	70 (12.1) (37.4)	82 (14.2) (39.4)	272 (47.0) (33.0)	146 (25.2) (40.4)	9 (1.6) (40.9)	579 (100.0) (36.1)
Not given admission	10 (13.5) (5.3)	4 (5.4) (1.9)	22 (29.7) (2.7)	38 (51.4) (10.5)	-	74 (100.0) (4.6)
School is not nearby residence	11 (9.0) (5.9)	11 (9.0) (5.3)	72 (59.0) (8.7)	25 (20.5) (6.9)	3 (2.5) (13.6)	122 (100.0) (7.6)
No special school nearby residence	22 (15.4) (11.8)	27 (18.9) (13.0)	39 (27.3) (4.7)	54 (37.8) (15.0)	1 (0.7) (4.5)	143 (100.0) (8.9)
Financial problem	59 (12.8) (31.6)	61 (13.3) (29.3)	261 (56.7) (31.6)	73 (15.9) (20.2)	6 (1.3) (27.3)	460 (100.0) (28.7)
Need to earn	6 (7.0) (3.2)	8 (9.3) (3.8)	63 (73.3) (7.6)	8 (9.3) (2.2)	1 (1.2) (4.5)	86 (100.0) (5.4)
Helping in domestic work	9 (8.8) (4.8)	7 (6.9) (3.4)	78 (76.5) (9.5)	6 (5.9) (1.7)	2 (2.0) (9.1)	102 (100.0) (6.4)
Others	-	8 (21.6) (3.8)	18 (48.6) (2.2)	11 (29.7) (3.0)	-	37 (100.0) (2.3)
Total	187 (11.7) (100.0)	208 (13.0) (100.0)	825 (51.5) (100.0)	361 (22.5) (100.0)	22 (1.4) (100.0)	1603 (100.0) (100.0)
Reasons for Dropouts						
Due to no infrastructure	5 (11.1) (6.8)	5 (11.1) (4.7)	33 (73.3) (3.0)	2 (4.4) (4.1)	-	45 (100.0) (3.3)
Financial problems	34 (6.5) (46.6)	48 (9.1) (45.3)	420 (79.8) (38.0)	18 (3.4) (36.7)	6 (1.1) (35.3)	526 (100.0) (39.0)
Helping in domestic work	16 (5.1) (21.9)	20 (6.4) (18.9)	265 (84.7) (24.0)	8 (2.6) (16.3)	4 (1.3) (23.5)	313 (100.0) (23.2)
Misbehavior by co students	1 (2.6) (1.4)	7 (18.4) (6.6)	28 (73.7) (2.5)	1 (2.6) (2.0)	1 (2.6) (5.9)	38 (100.0) (2.8)
Misbehavior of teachers	1 (3.8) (1.4)	2 (7.7) (1.9)	22 (84.6) (2.0)	1 (3.8) (2.0)	-	26 (100.0) (1.9)
Need to earn	6 (2.6) (8.2)	10 (4.4) (9.4)	200 (87.7) (18.1)	8 (3.5) (16.3)	4 (1.8) (23.5)	228 (100.0) (16.9)
No transport facility	4 (4.5) (5.5)	8 (9.0) (7.5)	69 (77.5) (6.2)	6 (6.7) (12.2)	2 (2.2) (11.8)	89 (100.0) (6.6)
Others	4 (6.3) (5.5)	6 (9.5) (5.7)	49 (77.8) (4.4)	4 (6.3) (8.2)	-	63 (100.0) (4.7)
School management rejected admission	2 (9.1) (2.7)	-	19 (86.4) (1.7)	1 (4.5) (2.0)	-	22 (100.0) (1.6)
Total	73 (5.4) (100.0)	106 (7.9) (100.0)	1105 (81.9) (100.0)	49 (3.6) (10.0)	17 (1.3) (100.0)	1350 (100.0) (100.0)
Source: Field Survey						
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively						

C. Employment Status

In the academic and official discourses on labour, persons with disabilities have historically been marginalised in the realm of infirm or disabled.⁶ In our sample, 43% of PWDs reported that they were employed – 23% were self-employed (SEM) while 20% were employees (EM). 4% reported that they were seeking employment (SE) while the rest indicated they were not engaged in any economic activity.⁷ However, a close look at the data collected indicated that 282 PWDs (11%) were not in labour force (NLF) as per conventional employment definition i.e. who were too young to work, students, engaged in domestic work while 1093 (43%) reported that they were not working due to disability. As per conventional definition, infirm or disabled also are clubbed under ‘not in labour force’; however in order to examine socio-economic indicators other than disability which lead them to be not in labour force, we treat them as a separate category ‘Not working owing to disability’ (NWOD) in the present analysis. This is in conformity with the critique of “disablement as ‘presenced’ through the removal of ‘disability’ as a *pre-existing condition* in the labour market” (Kannabiran 2014).

In the ensuing sections, we try to map the different characteristics of workers and non-workers in terms of: demographic characteristics (gender, marital status), disability characteristics (type of disability), social status (caste/tribe/religion), human capital characteristics (education) and occupational profile.

a. Demographic Characteristics

Status of Employment	Female	Male	Total
Self Employed	167 (27.8) (16.1)	434 (72.2) (28.3)	601 (100.0) (23.4)
Employee	144 (28.7) (13.9)	358 (71.3) (23.3)	502 (100.0) (19.5)
Non-worker owing to disability	457 (41.8) (44.1)	636 (58.2) (41.4)	1093 (100.0) (42.5)
Seeking Employment	40 (43.0) (3.9)	53 (57.0) (3.5)	93 (100.0) (3.6)
Not in labour force	228 (80.9) (22.0)	54 (19.1) (3.5)	282 (100.0) (11.0)
Total	1036 (40.3) (100.0)	1535 (59.7) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)
Source: Field Survey			
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively			

From the above table (13), it is clear that the proportion of women were low among both categories of employed, while among non-workers their proportion was higher across categories with women accounting for 81% of the total NLF. In other words, only 30% of the total WWDs were employed while in case of men the proportion stood at 43%.

Status of Worker	Female	Male	Total
Self Employed	167 (27.8) (53.7)	434 (72.2) (54.8)	601 (100.0) (54.5)
Employee	144 (28.7) (46.3)	358 (71.3) (45.2)	502 (100.0) (45.5)
Total	311 (28.2) (100.0)	792 (71.8) (100.0)	1103 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Status of Non-worker	Gender of the disabled		Total
	Female	Male	
Non-worker owing to disability	457 (41.8) (63.0)	636 (58.2) (85.6)	1093 (100.0) (74.5)
Seeking Employment	40 (43.0) (5.5)	53 (57.0) (7.1)	93 (100.0) (6.3)
Not in labour force	228 (80.9) (31.5)	54 (19.1) (7.3)	282 (100.0) (19.2)
Total	725 (49.4) (100.0)	743 (50.6) (100.0)	1468 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Within those who reported being employed, 55% were self-employed and 45% were employees. Among WWDs, 54% were self-employed while among men it was marginally higher at 55%. However, among both categories of employment, the proportion of women was lower than men (Table 14). Among the non-working disabled, 6% were seeking employment, 19% were not in labour force and 75% reported disability as a cause for their non-worker status. Among the non-worker owing to disability (NWOD), majority were men (58%). Among seeking employment too majority were men (57%) while among NLF, 81% were women (as indicated earlier). In other words, among the disabled non-worker men, majority were NWOD (86%) and 7% each were seeking employment or were not in labour force. In case of disabled non-worker women, NWOD accounted for 63% while 32% were not in labour force and only 6% were actively seeking employment (Table 15).

b. Marital Status

In terms of marital status and status of employment, one can observe high incidence of marriage among employed and high levels of being unmarried among across categories of non-workers

except among those NLF and those SE. Incidence of divorce, separation/desertion and widow(er)hood were negligible and but were more pronounced among non-workers especially NWOD (Table 16).

Marital Status	Status of Employment					Total
	Self Employed	Employee	NWOD	Seeking Employment	Not in labour force	
Married	419 (29.0) (69.7)	357 (24.7) (71.1)	451 (31.3) (41.3)	48 (3.3) (51.6)	168 (11.6) (59.6)	1443 (100.0) (56.1)
Unmarried	161 (15.6) (26.8)	131 (12.7) (26.1)	596 (57.8) (54.5)	42 (4.1) (45.2)	101 (9.8) (35.8)	1031 (100.0) (40.1)
Divorced	4 (21.1) (0.7)	5 (26.3) (1.0)	8 (42.1) (0.7)	1 (5.3) (1.1)	1 (5.3) (0.4)	19 (100.0) (0.7)
Separated/ Deserted	10 (23.8) (1.7)	2 (4.8) (0.4)	27 (64.3) (2.5)	-	3 (7.1) (1.1)	42 (100.0) (1.7)
Widow/er	6 (17.6) (1.0)	7 (20.6) (1.4)	11 (32.4) (1.0)	1 (2.9) (1.1)	9 (26.5) (3.2)	34 (100.0) (1.3)
Live-in relationship	1 (50.0) (0.2)	-	-	1 (50.0) (1.1)	-	2 (100.0) (0.1)
Total	601 (23.4) (100.0)	502 (19.5) (100.0)	1093 (42.5) (100.0)	93 (3.6) (100.0)	282 (11.0) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Marital Status	Self Employed			Employee			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Married	100 (51.0) (59.9)	319(55.0) (73.5)	419 (54.0) (69.7)	96 (49.0) (66.7)	261 (45.0) (72.9)	357 (46.0) (71.1)	196 (25.3) (63.0)	580 (74.7) (73.2)	776 (100.0) (70.4)
Unmarried	55 (58.5) (32.9)	106 (53.5) (24.4)	161 (55.1) (26.8)	39 (41.5) (27.1)	92 (46.5) (25.7)	131 (44.9) (26.1)	94 (32.2) (1.0)	198 (67.8) (25.0)	292 (100.0) (26.5)
Divorced	1 (33.3) (0.6)	3 (50.0) (0.7)	4 (44.4) (0.7)	2 (66.7) (1.4)	3 (50.0) (0.8)	5 (55.6) (1.0)	3 (33.3) (1.0)	6 (66.7) (0.8)	9 (100.0) (0.8)
Separated/ Deserted	6 (85.7) (3.6)	4 (80.0) (0.9)	10 (83.3) (1.7)	1 (14.3) (0.7)	1 (20.0) (0.3)	2 (16.7) (0.4)	7 (58.3) (2.3)	5 (41.7) (0.6)	12 (100.0) (1.1)
Widow/er	5 (45.5) (3.0)	1 (50.0) (0.2)	6 (46.2) (1.0)	6 (54.5) (4.2)	1 (50.0) (0.3)	7 (53.8) (1.4)	11 (84.6) (3.5)	2 (15.4) (0.3)	13 (100.0) (1.2)
Live-in relationship	-	1 (100.0) (0.2)	1 (100.0) (0.2)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.0) (0.1)	1 (100.0) (0.1)
Total	167 (53.7) (100.0)	434 (54.8) (100.0)	601 (54.5) (100.0)	144 (46.3) (100.0)	358 (45.2) (100.0)	502 (45.2) (100.0)	311 (100.0) (100.0)	792 (100.0) (100.0)	1103 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

In terms of marital status among workers, 70% of them were married. Of these 54% were self-employed and rest were employees. Within self-employed WWDs, 60% were married while the incidence of marriage for men was higher at 74%. In case of employees too, the corresponding figures were 67% and 73% respectively. This indicates that incidence of WWDs being married was marginally more when they were employees than self-employed while for men it did not show any significant change. In other words, the incidence of being unmarried was higher under self-employed for disabled women in comparison with men - 32% for women vs. 24% for men among self-employed; while the corresponding figures were 27% and 26% for employees. The incidence of divorce was lower among both categories of employment and though the incidence was higher among women than men in both categories of employment (7.2% of disabled women vs. 2% of men with disabilities among self-employed; 6.3 and 1.4% among men with disabilities) (Table 17).

In terms of marital status among non-workers, the figures throw light on interesting facts. Among non-working disabled, 45% were married, 50% were unmarried and rest were divorced, separated/deserted, widow/er or in live-in relationship. Among the NWOD, only 41% were married while 55% were unmarried. Within NWOD, however, the incidence of being unmarried was higher for women (61%) than men (50%). Overall, however, the incidence of being not married was higher for men (52%) than women (48%). Among Seeking employment too higher proportion were married (52%) than unmarried (45%). In addition, among married NLF, 97% of were females, while in case of unmarried there was no significant difference in terms of gender. The incidence of divorce, separation/desertion was higher among females than males (Table 18).

Table 18: Gender wise Marital Status among Non-workers

Marital Status	Non-worker owing to disability			Seeking Employment			Not in Labour Force			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Married	149 (44.9) (32.6)	302 (90.1) (47.5)	451 (67.6) (41.3)	20 (6.0) (50.0)	28 (8.4) (52.8)	48 (7.2) (51.6)	163 (49.1) (71.5)	5 (1.5) (9.3)	168 (25.2) (59.6)	332 (49.8) (45.8)	335 (50.2) (45.1)	667 (100.0) (45.4)
Unmarried	279 (79.7) (61.1)	317 (81.5) (49.8)	596 (80.6) (54.5)	18 (5.1) (45.0)	24 (6.2) (45.3)	42 (5.7) (45.2)	53 (15.1) (23.2)	48 (12.3) (88.9)	101 (13.7) (35.8)	350 (47.4) (48.3)	389 (52.6) (52.4)	739 (100.0) (50.3)
Divorced	6 (85.7) (1.3)	2 (66.7) (0.3)	8 (100.0) (0.7)	1 (14.3) (2.5)	-	1 (10.0) (1.1)	-	1 (33.3) (1.9)	1 (10.0) (0.4)	7 (70.0) (1.0)	3 (30.0) (0.4)	10 (100.0) (0.7)
Separated/ Deserted	14 (82.4) (3.1)	13 (100.0) (2.0)	27 (9.0) (2.4)	-	-	-	3 (17.6) (1.3)	-	3 (10.0) (1.1)	17 (56.7) (2.3)	13 (43.3) (1.8)	30 (100.0) (2.0)
Widow/er	9 (47.4) (2.0)	2 (100.0) (0.3)	11 (52.4) (1.0)	1 (5.3) (2.5)	-	1 (4.8) (1.1)	9 (47.4) (3.9)	-	9 (42.9) (3.2)	19 (90.5) (2.6)	2 (9.5) (0.3)	21 (100.0) (1.4)
live-in relationship	-	-	-	-	1 (100.0) (1.9)	1 (100.0) (1.1)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.0) (0.1)	1 (100.0) (0.1)
Total	457 (63.0) (100.0)	636 (86.6) (100.0)	1093 (74.5) (100.0)	40 (5.5) (100.0)	53 (7.1) (100.0)	93 (6.3) (100.0)	228 (31.4) (100.0)	54 (7.3) (100.0)	282 (19.2) (100.0)	725 (100.0) (100.0)	743 (100.0) (100.0)	1468 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

c. Disability characteristics

In terms of status of employment across disabilities, one can discern differences in status of employment. While the incidence of NWOD was high among all types of disabilities, it was lowest among locomotor disabled (34%) and highest among intellectual & psychosocial disabled and those with multiple disabilities (80.5% and 61.3% respectively) (Table 19).

Among workers, across disabilities, while being employee was high among visually impaired (56%), 8 out of 10 persons with multiple disabilities were self-employed. This was also true across disabilities with more than 50% being self-employed. In terms of gender too, the incidence of self-employment among women was two times more than men among hearing impaired; while among employees, this trend could be observed (marginally) among both visually and hearing impaired (Table 20). Thus, one could infer that disability characteristic could influence labour market outcomes.

Among non-workers, the incidence of NWOD was lowest among locomotor disability in comparison with other disabilities (highest among intellectual& psychosocial disabilities and multiple disabled). In case of seeking employment, it was highest among locomotor disabled. In case of NLF, the incidence was highest among hearing impaired (24%) and was followed by locomotor disabled at 23%. Incidence of NWOD was also high among men than women across disabilities (except in case of intellectual and psychosocial disability and multiple disabilities – no difference) while among NLF the incidence was high among women (could be attributed to larger proportion of women who are housewives) (Table 21). Thus, it is evident that in terms of non-worker status, the incidence was lower among locomotor disabled except in case of seeking employment indicative of their mobility in labour market.

Type of Disability	Status of Employment					Total
	Self Employed	Employee	NWOD	Seeking Employment	Not in labour force	
Visually Impaired	35 (16.9) (5.8)	44 (21.3) (8.8)	102 (49.3) (9.3)	2 (1.0) (2.2)	24 (11.6) (8.5)	207 (100.0) (8.1)
Hearing Impaired	48 (18.0) (8.0)	45 (16.9) (9.0)	123 (46.1) (11.3)	9 (3.4) (9.7)	42 (15.7) (14.9)	267 (100.0) (10.4)
Locomotor Disability	488 (28.2) (81.2)	391 (22.6) (77.9)	581 (33.5) (53.2)	79 (4.6) (84.9)	194 (11.2) (68.8)	1733 (100.0) (67.4)
Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	22 (6.6) (3.7)	20 (6.0) (4.0)	268 (80.5) (24.5)	3 (0.9) (3.2)	20 (6.0) (7.1)	333 (100.0) (13.0)
Multiple Disabilities	8 (25.8) (1.3)	2 (6.5) (0.4)	19 (61.3) (1.7)	-	2 (6.5) (0.7)	31 (100.0) (1.2)
Total	601 (23.4) (100.0)	502 (19.5) (100.0)	1093 (42.5) (100.0)	93 (3.6) (100.0)	282 (11.0) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Type of Disability	Self Employed			Employee			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Visually Impaired	9 (37.5) (5.4)	26 (47.3) (6.0)	35 (44.3) (5.8)	15 (62.5) (10.4)	29 (52.7) (8.1)	44 (55.7) (8.8)	24 (30.4) (7.7)	55 (69.6) (6.9)	79 (100.0) (7.2)
Hearing Impaired	21 (61.8) (12.6)	27 (45.8) (6.2)	48 (51.6) (8.0)	13 (38.2) (9.0)	32 (54.2) (8.9)	45 (48.4) (9.0)	34 (36.6) (10.9)	59 (63.4) (7.4)	93 (100.0) (8.4)
Locomotor Disability	130 (54.6) (77.8)	358 (55.9) (82.5)	488 (55.5) (81.2)	108 (45.4) (75.0)	283 (44.1) (79.1)	391 (44.5) (77.9)	238 (27.1) (76.5)	641 (72.9) (80.9)	879 (100.0) (79.7)
Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	4 (36.4) (2.4)	18 (58.1) (4.1)	22 (52.4) (3.7)	7 (63.6) (4.9)	13 (41.9) (3.6)	20 (47.6) (4.0)	11 (26.2) (3.5)	31 (73.8) (3.9)	42 (100.0) (3.8)
Multiple Disabilities	3 (75.0) (1.8)	5 (83.3) (1.2)	8 (80.0) (1.3)	1 (25.0) (0.7)	1 (16.7) (0.3)	2 (20.0) (0.4)	4 (40.0) (1.3)	6 (60.0) (0.8)	10 (100.0) (0.9)
Total	167 (53.7) (100.0)	434 (54.8) (100.0)	601 (54.5) (100.0)	144 (46.3) (100.0)	358 (45.2) (100.0)	502 (45.5) (100.0)	311 (28.2) (100.0)	792 (71.8) (100.0)	1103 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Table 21: Disability wise Status of Non-workers

Type of Disability	Non-worker owing to disability			Seeking Employment			Not in labour force			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Visually Impaired	41 (63.1) (9.0)	61 (96.8) (9.6)	102 (79.7) (9.3)	2 (3.1) (5.0)	-	2 (1.6) (2.2)	22 (33.8) (9.6)	2 (3.2) (3.7)	24 (18.8) (8.5)	65 (50.8) (9.0)	63 (49.2) (8.5)	128 (100.0) (8.7)
Hearing Impaired	61 (60.4) (13.3)	62 (84.9) (9.7)	123 (70.7) (11.3)	5 (5.0) (12.5)	4 (5.5) (7.5)	9 (5.2) (9.7)	35 (34.7) (15.4)	7 (9.6) (13.0)	42 (24.1) (14.9)	101 (58.0) (13.9)	73 (42.0) (9.8)	174 (100.0) (11.9)
Locomotor Disability	226 (53.9) (49.5)	355 (81.6) (55.8)	581 (68.0) (53.2)	33 (7.9) (82.5)	46 (10.6) (86.8)	79 (9.3) (84.9)	160 (38.2) (70.2)	34 (7.8) (63.0)	194 (22.7) (68.8)	419 (49.1) (57.8)	435 (50.9) (58.5)	854 (100.0) (58.2)
Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	120 (92.3) (26.3)	148 (91.9) (23.3)	268 (92.1) (24.5)	-	3 (1.9) (5.7)	3 (1.0) (3.2)	10 (7.7) (4.4)	10 (6.2) (18.5)	20 (6.9) (7.1)	130 (44.7) (17.9)	161 (55.3) (21.7)	291 (100.0) (19.8)
Multiple Disabilities	9 (90.0) (2.0)	10 (90.9) (1.6)	19 (90.5) (1.7)	-	-	-	1 (10.0) (0.4)	1 (9.1) (1.9)	2 (9.5) (0.7)	10 (47.6) (1.4)	11 (52.4) (1.5)	21 (100.0) (1.4)
Total	457 (63.0) (100.0)	636 (85.6) (100.0)	1093 (74.5) (100.0)	40 (5.5) (100.0)	53 (7.1) (100.0)	93 (6.3) (100.0)	228 (31.4) (100.0)	54 (7.3) (100.0)	282 (19.2) (100.0)	725 (49.4) (100.0)	743 (50.6) (100.0)	1468 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

c. Social Status

In terms of social group and status of employment, one can observe that there exist higher levels of non-worker status among SCs (60.4%) and STs (69%) than among OBCs and Others (56%) (Table 22). Among workers, one can observe higher incidence of being self-employed across social groups. The proportion was highest among ST, 19 out of 27 employed were self-employed while it ranged from 53% among SCs and OBCs to 56% among others. High incidence of women in self-employment was also evident across social groups too (lowest among OBCs) (Table 23).

Social Group	Status of Employment					Total
	Self Employed	Employee	NWOD	Seeking Employment	Not in labour force	
SC	82 (20.9) (13.6)	73 (18.6) (14.5)	166 (42.3) (15.2)	18 (4.6) (19.4)	53 (13.5) (18.8)	392 (100.0) (15.2)
ST	19 (22.1) (3.2)	8 (9.3) (1.6)	42 (48.8) (3.8)	5 (5.8) (5.4)	12 (14.0) 4.3	86 (100.0) (3.3)
OBC	379 (23.6) (63.1)	327 (20.4) (65.1)	674 (42.0) (61.7)	55 (3.4) (59.1)	170 (10.6) (60.3)	1605 (100.0) (62.4)
Others	121 (24.8) (20.1)	94 (19.3) (18.7)	211 (43.2) (19.3)	15 (3.1) (16.1)	47 (9.6) (16.7)	488 (100.0) (19.0)
Total	601 (23.4) (100.0)	502 (19.5) (100.0)	1093 (42.5) (100.0)	93 (3.6) (100.0)	282 (11.0) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Social Group	Self Employed			Employee			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
SC	24 (55.8) (14.4)	58 (51.8) (13.4)	82 (52.9) (13.6)	19 (44.2) (13.2)	54 (48.2) (15.1)	73 (47.1) (14.5)	43 (27.7) (13.8)	112 (72.3) (14.1)	155 (100.0) (14.1)
ST	5 (71.4) (3.0)	14 (70.0) (3.2)	19 (70.4) (3.2)	2 (28.6) (1.4)	6 (30.0) (1.7)	8 (29.6) (1.6)	7 (25.9) (2.3)	20 (74.1) (2.5)	27 (100.0) (2.4)
OBC	100 (49.5) (59.9)	279 (55.4) (64.3)	379 (53.7) (63.2)	102 (50.5) (70.8)	225 (44.6) (62.8)	327 (46.3) (65.1)	202 (28.6) (65.0)	504 (71.4) (63.6)	706 (100.0) (64.0)
Others	38 (64.4) (22.7)	83 (46.8) (20.4)	121 (56.3) (20.1)	21 (35.6) (14.6)	73 (46.8) (20.4)	94 (43.7) (18.7)	59 (27.4) (19.0)	156 (72.6) (19.7)	215 (100.0) (19.5)
Total	167 (53.7) 100.0	434 (54.8) (100.0)	601 (54.5) (100.0)	144 (46.3) (100.0)	358 (45.2) (100.0)	502 (45.5) (100.0)	311 (28.2) (100.0)	792 (71.8) (100.0)	1103 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Table 24: Social Group wise Status of Non-workers

Social Group	Non-worker owing to disability			Seeking Employment			Not in Labour Force			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
SC	72 (56.3) (15.8)	94 (86.2) (14.8)	166 (70.0) (15.2)	10 (7.8) (25.0)	8 (7.3) (15.1)	18 (7.6) (19.4)	46 (35.9) (20.2)	7 (6.4) (13.0)	53 (22.4) (18.8)	128 (54.1) (17.7)	109 (45.9) (14.7)	237 (100.0) (16.1)
ST	15 (55.6) (3.3)	27 (84.4) (4.2)	42 (71.2) (3.8)	3 (11.1) (7.5)	2 (6.3) (3.8)	5 (8.5) (5.4)	9 (33.3) (3.9)	3 (9.4) (5.6)	12 (20.3) (4.3)	27 (45.8) (3.7)	32 (54.2) (4.3)	59 (100.0) (4.0)
OBC	285 (64.6) (62.4)	389 (84.9) (61.2)	674 (75.0) (61.7)	22 (5.0) (55.0)	33 (7.2) (62.3)	55 (6.1) (59.1)	134 (30.4) (58.8)	36 (7.9) (66.7)	170 (18.9) (60.3)	441 (49.1) (60.8)	458 (50.9) (61.6)	899 (100.0) (61.2)
Others	85 (65.9) (18.6)	126 (87.5) (19.8)	211 (77.3) (19.3)	5 (3.9) (12.5)	10 (6.9) (18.9)	15 (5.5) (16.1)	39 (30.2) (17.1)	8 (5.6) (14.8)	47 (17.2) (16.7)	129 (47.3) (17.8)	144 (52.7) (19.4)	273 (100.0) (18.6)
Total	547 (63.0) (100.0)	636 (85.6) (100.0)	1093 (74.5) (100.0)	40 (5.5) (100.0)	53 (7.1) (100.0)	93 (6.3) (100.0)	228 (31.4) (100)	54 (7.3) (100.0)	282 (19.2) (100.0)	725 (49.4) (100.0)	743 (50.6) (100.0)	1468 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
 Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Among disabled non-workers, the incidence of NWOD was high, around 70% across social groups; 77% in Others being the highest and 70% among SCs. Incidence of Not in labour force (NLF), was marginally higher among SCs and STs (22 and 20% respectively) in comparison with 19% and 17% among OBC and Others. Proportion of women was lower than men among NWOD (lower among SC/ST than OBC/Others) while it was higher among those NLF. This could be attributed to the proportion of housewives among NLF. The proportion of seeking employment was marginally higher among SCs and STs (approximately 8-9%) than OBCs and Others (6%). In terms of gender too, the proportion of women seeking employment was marginally higher among SC and almost twice among ST while it was lower among OBCs and Others (Table 24).

In terms of religion, the incidence of non-workers especially NWOD was higher among Muslim (48%) and Christians (47%) than Hindus (41%) (Table 25). The incidence of self-employment was higher among Muslims (59%) in comparison with Hindus (54%). This was also true of women among the religious groups – 71% of Muslim women were self-employed compared to 50% of Hindu women. In terms of employees, the proportion of employees was lowest among Muslims (41%) while the corresponding proportion was 53% and 47% for Christians and Hindus respectively (Table 26).

Religion	Status of Employment					Total
	Self Employed	Employee	NWOD	Seeking Employment	Not in labour force	
Hindu	465 (23.3) (77.4)	404 (20.2) (80.5)	819 (41.0) (74.9)	77 (3.9) (82.8)	234 (11.7) (83.0)	1999 (100.0) (77.8)
Muslim	122 (23.8) (20.3)	85 (16.6) (16.9)	247 (48.1) (22.6)	14 (2.7) (15.1)	45 (8.8) (16.0)	513 (100.0) (20.0)
Christian	9 (20.9) (1.5)	10 (23.3) (2.0)	20 (46.5) (1.8)	1 (2.3) (1.1)	3 (7.0) (1.1)	43 (100.0) (1.7)
Others	5 (31.2) (0.9)	3 (18.8) (0.6)	7 (43.7) (0.7)	1 (6.3) (1.1)	-	16 (100.0) (0.7)
Total	601 (23.4) (100.0)	502 (19.5) (100.0)	1093 (42.5) (100.0)	93 (3.6) (100.0)	282 (11.0) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Religion	Self Employed			Employee			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Hindu	121 (49.6) (72.5)	344 (55.0) (79.3)	465 (53.5) (77.4)	123 (50.4) (85.4)	281 (45.0) (78.5)	404 (46.5) (80.5)	244 (28.1) (78.5)	625 (71.9) (78.9)	869 (100.0) (78.8)
Muslim	40 (71.4) (24.0)	82 (54.3) (18.9)	122 (58.9) (20.2)	16 (28.6) (11.1)	69 (45.7) (19.3)	85 (41.1) (16.9)	56 (27.1) (18.0)	151 (72.9) (19.1)	207 (100.0) (18.8)
Christian	3 (37.5) (1.8)	6 (54.5) (1.4)	9 (47.4) (1.5)	5 (62.5) (3.5)	5 (45.5) (1.4)	10 (52.6) (2.0)	8 (42.1) (2.6)	11 (57.9) (1.4)	19 (100.0) (1.7)
Others	3(100.0) (1.8)	2 (40.0) (0.4)	5 (62.5) (0.9)	-	3 (60.0) (0.8)	3 (37.5) (0.6)	3 (37.5) (0.9)	5 (62.5) (0.6)	8 (100.0) (0.8)
Total	167 (53.7) (100.0)	434 (54.8) (100.0)	601 (54.5) (100.0)	144 (46.3) (100.0)	358 (45.2) (100.0)	502 (45.5) (100.0)	311 (100.0) (100.0)	792 (100.0) (100.0)	1103 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Table 27: Religion wise Status of Non-workers												
Religion	Non-worker owing to disability			Seeking Employment			Not in Labour Force			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Hindu	355 (60.9) (77.7)	464 (84.4) (73.0)	819 (72.5) (74.9)	37 (6.3) (92.5)	40 (7.3) (75.5)	77(6.8) (82.8)	191 (32.8) (83.8)	43 (7.9) (79.6)	234 (20.7) (83.0)	583 (51.6) (80.4)	547 (48.4) (73.6)	1130 (100.0) (77.0)
Muslim	89 (70.1) (19.5)	158 (88.3) (24.8)	247 (80.7) (22.6)	3 (2.4) (7.5)	11 (6.1) (20.8)	14 (4.6) (51.1)	35 (27.6) (15.4)	10 (5.6) (18.5)	45 (14.7) (16.0)	127 (41.5) (17.5)	179 (58.5) (24.1)	306 (100.0) (20.8)
Christian	12 (85.7) (2.6)	8 (80.0) (1.3)	20 (83.3) (1.8)	-	1 (10.0) (1.9)	1 (4.2) (1.1)	2 (14.3) (0.9)	1 (10.0) (1.9)	3 (12.5) (1.1)	14 (58.3) (1.9)	10 (41.7) (1.3)	24 (100.0) (1.6)
Others	1 (100.0) (0.2)	6 (85.7) (1.1)	7 (87.5) (0.7)	-	1 (14.3) (19.1)	1 (12.5) (1.1)	-	-	-	1.(12.5) (0.1)	7 (87.5) (0.8)	8 (100.0) (0.6)
Total	457 (63.0) (100.0)	636 (85.6) (100.0)	1093 (74.5) (100.0)	40 (5.5) (100.0)	53 (7.1) (100.0)	93 (6.3) (100.0)	228 (31.4) (100.0)	54 (7.3) (100.0)	282 (19.2) (100.0)	725 (100.0) (100.0)	743 (100.0) (100.0)	1468 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

In terms of religion, among non-worker, the proportion of NWOD stood at 75% among Hindus, while the corresponding figures were higher for Muslims (81%) and Christians (83%). This is true of minority women too - 70% of Muslim women and 86% of Christian women were NWOD in comparison with 61% of Hindu women. This is indicative of increased vulnerability of minority who are disabled. However, the incidence of NLF among minority women were lower (28% and 14% among Muslims and Christians respectively) than Hindu women (33%) (Table 27).

d. Literacy and Level of Education

In terms of levels of literacy, one can discern high levels of illiteracy among categories of non-workers - 55% among NWOD and 35% among NLF. Moreover among the non-literate 61% were NWOD and 10% were NLF (Table 28). In terms of literacy among workers, majority were literates (75%). This trend could be observed across categories of employment. Among women workers, the proportion of non-literates stood at 36% while it was significantly lower among men (21%). Similarly, in both categories of employment, there was higher incidence of illiteracy among women than men though lower among employees (Table 29).

Literacy Level	Status of Employment					Total
	Self Employed	Employee	NWOD	Seeking Employment	Not in labour force	
Non Literate	138 (14.2) (23.0)	135 (13.9) (26.9)	596 (61.3) (54.5)	4 (0.4) (4.3)	99 (10.2) (35.1)	972 (100.0) (37.8)
Literate	463 (29.0) (77.0)	367 (23.0) (73.1)	497 (31.1) (45.5)	89 (5.6) (95.7)	183 (11.4) (64.9)	1599 (100.0) (62.2)
Total	601 (23.4) (100.0)	502 (19.5) (100.0)	1093 (42.5) (100.0)	93 (3.6) (100.0)	282 (11.0) (100.0)	2571 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Literacy Level	Self Employed			Employee			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Non Literate	55 (49.5) (32.9)	83 (51.2) (19.1)	138 (50.5) (23.0)	56 (50.5) (38.9)	79 (48.8) (22.1)	135 (49.5) (26.9)	111(40.7) (35.7)	162 (59.3) (20.5)	273 (100.0) (24.8)
Literate	112 (56.0) (67.1)	351 (55.7) (80.9)	463 (55.8) (77.0)	88 (44.0) (61.1)	249 (44.3) (77.9)	367 (44.2) (73.1)	200 (24.1) (64.3)	630 (75.9) (79.5)	830 (100.0) (75.2)
Total	167 (53.7) (100.0)	434 (54.8) (100.0)	601 (54.5) (100.0)	144 (46.3) (100.0)	358 (45.2) (100.0)	502 (45.5) (100.0)	311 (100.0) (100.0)	792 (100.0) (100.0)	1103 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Educational status	Non-worker owing to disability			Seeking Employment			Not in Labour Force			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Non Literate	281 (75.3) (61.5)	315 (96.6) (49.5)	596 (85.3) (54.5)	1 (0.1) (2.5)	3 (0.9) (5.7)	4 (0.6) (4.3)	91 (24.4) (39.9)	8 (2.5) (14.8)	99 (14.2) (35.1)	373 (53.4) (51.4)	326 (46.6) (43.9)	699 (100.0) (47.6)
Literate	176 (50.0) (38.5)	321 (77.0) (50.5)	497 (64.6) (45.5)	39 (11.1) (97.5)	50 (12.0) (94.3)	89 (11.6) (95.7)	137 (38.9) (60.1)	46 (11.0) (85.2)	183 (23.8) (64.9)	352 (45.8) (48.6)	417 (54.2) (56.1)	769 (100.0) (52.4)
Total	457 (63.0) (100.0)	636 (85.6) (100.0)	1093 (74.5) (100.0)	40 (5.5) (100.0)	53 (7.1) (100.0)	93 (6.3) (100.0)	228 (31.4) (100.0)	54 (7.3) (100.0)	282 (19.2) (100.0)	725 (49.4) (100.0)	743 (50.6) (100.0)	1468 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

In terms of literacy, 49% of non-working disabled were non-literates. The incidence of illiteracy among NWOD was highest at 55%, lower among NLF (35%) and lowest among SE (4%). This is clearly indicative of the vulnerability of NWOD in the labour market. The incidence of illiteracy among non-working disabled women was also high (51%) and this was true across categories of non-workers except those seeking employment. Among NWOD, the incidence of female illiteracy was 62% and among NLF it stood at 40% (Table 30). The incidence of literates among non-workers is clearly indicative of the barriers persons with disabilities face in the realm of the labour market.

In terms of level of education, among literates in the total disabled, one could discern high incidence of education above high school among category of workers. The proportion of graduates was also higher among the worker category. Nonetheless, the incidence of both graduates and post-graduates among non-worker category raises serious concern about the access to labour market for the disabled (Table 31). Among NWOD, there were 8% and 4 % graduates and post graduates respectively while among NLF, the proportion stood at 21% and 5% respectively.

Table 31: Level of Education among Workers and Non-workers						
Level of Education	Status of Employment					Total
	Self Employed	Employee	NWOD	Seeking Employment	Not in labour force	
Primary	59 (26.5) (12.7)	39 (17.5) (10.6)	95 (42.6) (19.1)	4 (1.8) (4.5)	26 (11.7) (14.2)	223 (100.0) (13.9)
Secondary	70 (33.5) (15.1)	41 (19.6) (11.2)	71 (34.0) (14.3)	3 (1.4) (3.4)	24 (11.5) (13.1)	209 (100.0) (13.1)
High School	229 (33.1) (49.5)	158 (22.9) (43.1)	221 (32.0) (44.5)	25 (3.6) (28.1)	58 (8.4) (31.7)	691 (100.0) (43.2)
Intermediate	40 (25.0) (8.6)	40 (25.0) (10.9)	43 (26.9) (8.7)	19 (11.9) (21.3)	18 (11.3) (9.8)	160 (100.0) (10.0)
Graduation	49 (24.5) (10.6)	56 (28.0) (15.3)	41 (20.5) (8.2)	16 (8.0) (18.0)	38 (19.0) (20.8)	200 (100.0) (12.5)
Post Graduation	7 (9.6) (1.5)	20 (27.4) (5.4)	20 (27.4) (4.0)	17 (23.3) (19.1)	9 (12.3) (4.9)	73 (100.0) (4.6)
Technical	9 (20.9) (1.9)	13 (30.2) (3.5)	6 (14.0) (1.2)	5 (11.6) (5.6)	10 (23.3) (5.5)	43 (100.0) (2.7)
Total	463 (29.0) (100.0)	367 (23.0) (100.0)	497 (31.1) (100.0)	89 (5.6) (100.0)	183 (11.4) (100.0)	1599 (100.0) (100.0)
Source: Field Survey						
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively						

Level of Education	Self employed			Employee			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Primary	17 (53.1) (15.2)	42 (63.6) (12.0)	59 (60.2) (12.7)	15 (46.9) (17.0)	24 (36.4) (36.4)	39 (39.8) (10.6)	32 (32.7) (16.0)	66 (67.3) (10.5)	98 (100.0) (11.8)
Secondary	15 (68.2) (13.4)	55 (61.8) (15.7)	70 (63.1) (15.1)	7 (31.8) (8.0)	34 (38.2) (12.2)	41 (36.9) (11.2)	22 (19.8) (11.0)	89 (80.1) (14.1)	111 (100.0) (13.4)
High School	60 (68.2) (53.6)	169 (56.5) (48.1)	229 (59.2) (49.5)	28 (31.8) (31.8)	130 (43.5) (46.6)	158 (40.8) (43.1)	88 (22.7) (44.0)	299 (77.3) (47.5)	387 (100.0) (46.6)
Intermediate	10 (50.0) (8.9)	30 (50.0) (8.5)	40 (50.0) (8.6)	10 (50.0) (11.4)	30 (50.0) (10.8)	40 (50.0) (10.9)	20 (25.0) (10.0)	60 (75.0) (9.5)	80 (100.0) (9.6)
Graduation	8 (29.6) (7.1)	41 (52.6) (11.7)	49 (46.7) (10.6)	19 (70.40) (21.6)	37 (47.4) (13.3)	56 (53.3) (15.3)	27 (25.7) (13.5)	78 (74.3) (12.4)	105 (100.0) (12.7)
Post Graduation	2 (20.0) (1.8)	5 (29.4) (1.4)	7 (25.9) (1.5)	8 (80.0) (9.1)	12 (70.6) (4.3)	20 (74.1) (5.4)	10 (37.0) (5.0)	17 (63.0) (2.7)	27 (100.0) (3.3)
Technical	-	9 (42.9) (2.6)	9 (40.9) (1.9)	1 (100.0) (1.1)	12 (57.1) (4.3)	13 (59.1) (3.5)	1 (4.5) (0.5)	21 (95.5) (3.3)	22 (100.0) (2.7)
Total	112 (56.0) (100.0)	351 (55.7) (100.0)	463 (55.8) (100.0)	88 (44.0) (100.0)	279 (44.3) (100.0)	367 (44.2) (100.0)	200 (100.0) (100.0)	630 (100.0) (100.0)	830 (100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Among the workers who were literates 47% had high school level education, 13% each had secondary and graduation, 12% were primary educated, 10% were intermediate and 3% each held post-graduation and technical level education. Among employees, one could observe that the incidence of graduates, post-graduates and with technical education was higher than self employed, indicating better labour market outcomes with higher levels of education (Table 32).

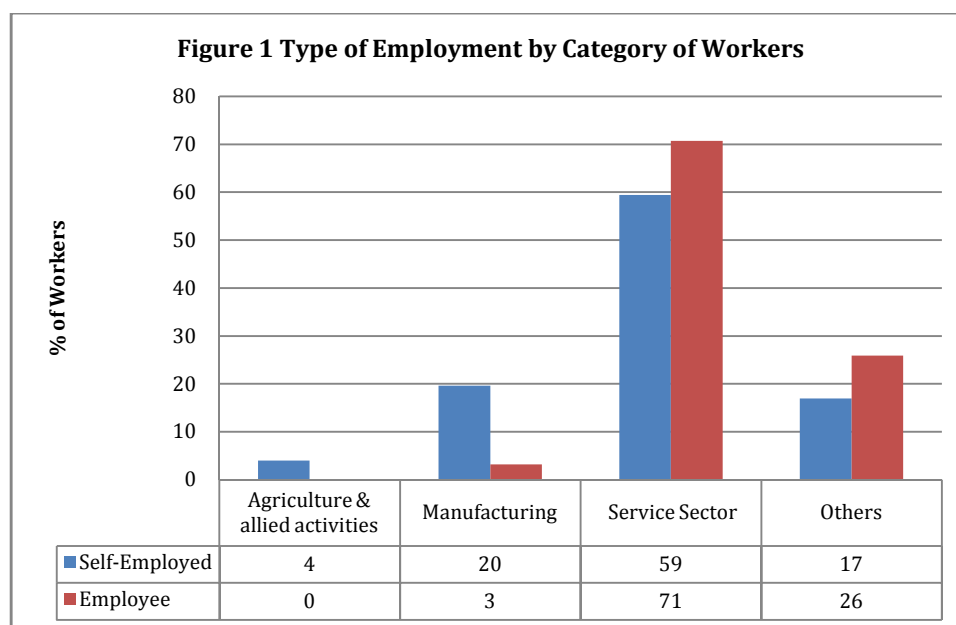
Level of Education	Non-working owing to disability			Seeking Employment			Not in labour force			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Primary	46 (66.7) (26.1)	49 (87.5) (15.3)	95 (76.0) (19.1)	2 (2.9) (5.1)	2 (3.6) (4.0)	4 (3.2) (4.5)	21 (30.4) (15.3)	5 (8.9) (10.9)	26 (20.8) (14.2)	69 (100.0) (19.6)	56 (100.0) (13.4)	125 (100.0) (16.3)
Secondary	27 (54.0) (15.3)	44 (91.7) (13.7)	71 (72.4) (14.3)	1 (2.0) (2.6)	2 (4.2) (4.0)	3 (3.10) (3.4)	22 (44.0) (16.1)	2 (4.2) (4.3)	24 (24.5) (13.1)	50 (100.0) (14.2)	48 (100.0) (11.5)	98 (100.0) (12.7)
High School	70 (52.6) (39.8)	151 (88.3) (47.0)	221(72.7) (44.5)	10 (7.5) (25.6)	15 (8.8) (30.0)	25 (8.2) (28.1)	53 (39.8) (38.7)	5 (2.9) (10.9)	58 (19.1) (31.7)	133 (100.0) (37.8)	171 (100.0) (41.0)	304 (100.0) (39.5)
Intermediate	12 (31.6) (6.8)	31 (73.8) (9.7)	43 (53.8) (8.7)	10 (26.3) (25.6)	9 (21.4) (18.0)	19 (23.8) (21.3)	16 (42.1) (11.7)	2 (4.8) (4.3)	18 (22.5) (9.8)	38 (100.0) (10.8)	42 (100.0) (10.1)	80 (100.0) (10.4)
Graduation	14 (33.3) (8.0)	27 (50.9) (8.4)	41 (43.2) (8.2)	10 (23.8) (25.6)	6 (11.3) (12.0)	16 (16.8) (18.0)	18 (42.9) (13.1)	20 (37.7) (43.5)	38 (40.0) (20.8)	42 (100.0) (11.9)	53 (100.0) (12.7)	95 (100.0) (12.4)
Post Graduation	5 (33.3) (2.8)	15 (48.4) (4.7)	20 (43.5) (4.0)	5 (33.3) (12.8)	12 (38.7) (24.0)	17 (37.0) (19.1)	5 (33.3) (3.6)	4 (12.9) (8.7)	9 (19.6) (4.9)	15 (100.0) (4.3)	31 (100.0) (7.4)	46 (100.0) (6.0)
Technical	2 (40.0) (1.1)	4 (25.0) (1.2)	6 (28.6) (1.2)	1 (20.0) (2.6)	4 (25.0) (8.0)	5 (23.8) (5.6)	2 (40.0) (1.5)	8 (50.0) (17.4)	10 (47.6) (5.5)	5 9100.0) (1.4)	16 (100.0) (3.8)	21 (100.0) (2.7)
Total	176 (50.0) (100.0)	321 (77.0) (100.0)	497 (64.6) (100.0)	39 (11.1) (100.0)	50 (12.1) (100.0)	89 (11.6) (100.0)	137 (38.9) (100.0)	46 (11.0) (100.0)	183 (23.8) (100.0)	352 (100.0) (100.0)	417 (100.0) (100.0)	769(100.0) (100.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row and column % respectively

Among the literate non-working, 40% had high school education while 20% (with graduation/post-graduation/technical qualification) were also non-working. 43% each of total graduates and post graduates, 54% of intermediate educated, 29% of technical qualified were NWOD. High incidence of highly educated among non-workers that too among those who report disability as a reason for non-participation in labour market is reflective of the absence of enabling environment which (Table 33).

e. Type of Employment

Among the self-employed, almost 60% (357 out of 601) were involved in service sector engaged as tailors, painters, auto rickshaw/cycle rickshaw pullers, street vendors, running hotel/catering/bakery; while around 20% were engaged in manufacturing (carpentry, stitching and handicrafts, auto mechanic works etc). Around 4% were also engaged in agriculture and petty animal rearing while around 15% reported being engaged in other activities (Figure 1 and Table 34). In case of those who reported that they were employees too, service sector accounted for the majority of the employed (71%) (Figure 1 and Table 34). Interestingly, the kind of employment engaged in differed from – casual labour (almost half of those in service sector) followed by domestic worker, security services, office work, computer operator, as well as engaged in anganwadi, health centre and State/Central Government jobs (12 out of 355). Among employees too, around one-fourth reported being employed in sectors Other than service and manufacturing. Those engaged in manufacturing accounted for only 4% of the total employees whereas none reported being engaged in agriculture though casual labourers may be engaged in any of these sectors.



Source: Field Survey

Table 34: Occupational Profile of Workers		
Occupation	Self-Employed	Employee
Agriculture & allied activities		
Petty animals rearing	5	-
Agriculture	19	-
Manufacturing		
Foot wear/Rexine works	3	-
Printing, Book binding	17	-
Auto/motor mechanic, General Engineering Works	20	2
Carpenter, wood press, bamboo furniture	24	-
Stitching& hand works, Artificial jewellery, Candle making	26	-
Handicrafts, weaving, textile dyeing	28	6
Industrial Worker	-	8
Services		
Painter	20	-
Electronic mechanic	12	-
Mason/Construction labour	13	17
Electrician	16	-
Tailoring	60	-
Childcare centre/Anganwadi centre	2	6
Beautician	4	-
Laundry	7	-
Photo/Videography	8	-
Safai, Rag picker	9	-
Health facilities	10	3
Cart puller, cycle rickshaw driver	13	-
Auto rickshaw driver	19	-
Hotel, restaurant, catering & bakery	23	-
Street vendor	29	-
Petty business	112	4
Contract worker	-	17
Casual labour	-	165
Domestic worker	-	40
Watchman / security services	-	32
Driving	-	8
Office work/Computer Operator	-	52
State/Central Govt. job	-	12
Others	102	130
Total	601	502
Source: Field Survey		

D. Attitudinal Barriers

Attitudinal barriers are those that discriminate against people with disabilities. Negative attitudes can produce barriers in all domains leading to stigmatisation and stereotyping which in turn lead to discrimination and exclusion. Stereotypes about people with disabilities arise from negative attitudes in society “that devalue and limit the potential of PWDs. People with disabilities are assumed to be less worthy of respect and consideration, less able to contribute and take part, and of less value than others” (Ontario Human Rights Commission 2013). Familial environment also provides a context that is not conducive to a person with disability’s entry into the labour force (Mizunoya and Sophie 2013). On this subject, Mitra and Sambamoorthi have observed in their

study that for 36 % of their participants, household heads have negative attitudes toward people with disabilities ability to be successfully employed (Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2009: 1397). Rungta (2004) and Siperstein's (2013) study in the Indian context stresses that persons with disabilities often face unequal treatment by other family members, because they are seen as a burden and as "cursed" in some cases. This can lead at times to "the neglect and rejection of the child" (Siperstein et al 2013: 2). According to Siperstein, the fear that persons with disabilities might be rejected by the community can also lead to their seclusion by their family. Titumir et al's (2005) study amongst Bangladeshi families indicates that most of the population view disability as embarrassment for family. Thomas and Thomas's studies stress the fact that families of women with disabilities tend to prevent them from going out of the house, "for fear that they may be exploited in some way because of their disability" (2002: 4).

As stated by the World Health Organization (2011), prejudice and discriminatory practices against people with disabilities in fields of work often lead to lower wages and reduced opportunities for employment. While focusing on employment inequity experienced by people with disabilities, it is glaringly evident that salaries are very often uneven for workers with disabilities holding full-time jobs compared to their counterparts who do not have disabilities (Buljevacet al 2012, WHO 2011). Following the studies that compare the lower earnings of workers with disabilities with that of workers without disabilities in Bangladesh (Hosain et al 2002: 301) and in India (Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2009 and Mehrotra : 2013), a lower value is given for the work of the people with disabilities in the labour market. Negative perceptions stretch to self-employed jobs as well. Studies in Ireland by Cooney (2008: 2) present that people with disabilities are considered as "unsuitable for serious business" and as lacking the capabilities for self-employment which is viewed as "something which requires powers greater than the average person possess". Negative perceptions toward self-employed workers with disabilities can also be detrimental to obtain start-up capital for a business, lack of financial resources and poor credit rating.

In this context, the present study focused on the incidence, location and perpetrators of such events and the course of action or preventive measures they undertook to overcome tackle such issues.

S. No	Attitudinal Barriers	Response (N=2571)	Location	
			At Home	Outside Home
1	Use of Objectionable language/abuses	1061 (41.3)*	417 (39.3)**	644 (60.7)**
2	Peer and Stare	1150 (44.7)	133 (11.6)	1017 (88.4)
3	Push	812 (31.6)	261 (32.1)	551 (67.9)
4	Laugh at	988 (38.4)	134 (13.6)	854 (86.4)
5	Physical abuse	203 (7.9)	99 (48.8)	104 (51.2)
6	Sexual abuse	93 (3.6)	38 (40.9)	55 (59.1)
7	Implicated in wrongful acts	253 (9.8)	94 (37.1)	159 (62.8)
8	Not given adequate food	137 (5.3)	75 (54.7)	62 (45.3)
9	Forced to work	153 (5.9)	48 (31.3)	105 (68.7)
10	Not allowed to participate in family events	122 (4.7)	52 (42.6)	70 (57.4)
11	Not allowed to participate in public events	192 (7.5)	68 (35.4)	124 (64.6)
12	Not assisted to undertake personal tasks	276 (10.7)	110 (39.8)	166 (60.1)
13	Secluded	185 (7.2)	121 (65.4)	64 (34.6)

Source: Field Survey
Note: * Denotes column percentage, ** Denotes row percentage

It is evident from the above table (No. 35) that the incidence of peer and stare (45 %), verbal abuse (41 %), laugh at (38 %) and being pushed (32 %) are the most common attitudinal barriers the PWDs face. Of these, most of these occur outside home though almost one-third report verbal abuse and being pushed occurring at home as well. Physical abuse has been reported by 8 % of the total PWDs, the incidence equal both at home and outside home. Similarly, sexual abuse has also been reported by 4 % of the total respondents, and the incidence is higher outside home (59 %). Being implicated in wrongful acts and lack of assistance to undertake personal tasks are also reported by 10 % each of the respondents. In these too, the incidence is highest outside home. One could also infer seclusion from the fact that being barred from taking part in family and public events was also reported. There have also been instances of not being given adequate food reported and it is reportedly higher within home than outside. It could be observed that across most of the abuses, these were perpetrated by the immediate family of the PWD – father, mother or spouse. This is evident from the table 36. Across these, the course of action has been to either ignore or suffer in silence while some of them reported complaining about it within the family or sorting it out with community elders/leaders (Annexure 3).

Table 36: Perpetrators of Attitudinal Barriers on PWDs – At Home

S. No	Attitudinal Barriers	By whom								
		Father	Mother	Spouse	Brother	Relative (Male)	Relative (Female)	Caregiver (Male)	Caregiver (Female)	Others
1	Use of Objectionable language/abuses	84(20.1)	111(26.6)	99(23.7)	19(4.6)	10(2.4)	8(1.9)	2(.5)	4(1.0)	80(19.2)
2	Peer and Stare	9(6.8)	42(31.6)	27(20.3)	7(5.3)	4(3.0)	3(2.3)	4(3.0)	2(1.5)	35(26.5)
3	Push	29(11.1)	42(16.1)	59(22.6)	17(6.5)	11(4.2)	14(5.4)	5(1.9)	3(1.1)	78(30.0)
4	Laugh at	14(10.4)	26(19.4)	22(16.4)	9(6.7)	6(4.5)	6(4.5)	2(1.5)	1(0.7)	53(39.3)
5	Physical abuse	13(13.1)	15(15.2)	30(30.3)	3(3.0)	-	6(6.1)	8(8.1)		24(24.2)
6	Sexual abuse	5(13.2)	-	6(15.8)	2(5.3)	-	-	4(10.5)	1(2.6)	20(52.6)
7	Implicated in wrongful acts	5(5.3)	19(20.2)	12(12.8)	6(6.4)	5(5.3)	12(12.8)	3(3.2)	1(1.1)	31(33.0)
8	Not given adequate food	7(9.3)	15(20.0)	11(14.7)	10(13.3)	1(1.3)	1(1.3)	4(5.3)	1(1.3)	23(29.3)
9	Forced to work	8(16.7)	13(27.1)	5(10.4)	5(10.4)	1(2.1)	1(2.1)	2(4.2)	1(2.1)	12(25.1)
10	Not allowed to participate in family events	4(7.7)	14(26.9)	5(9.6)	1(1.9)	6(11.5)	4(7.7)	2(3.8)		16(30.8)
11	Not allowed to participate in public events	5(7.4)	12(17.6)	17(25.0)	6(8.8)	1(1.5)	3(4.4)	2(2.9)	1(1.5)	21(30.9)
12	Not assisted to undertake personal tasks	8(7.3)	9(8.2)	18(16.4)	15(13.6)	5(4.5)	5(4.5)	7(6.4)		43(39.1)
13	Secluded	5(4.1)	23(19.0)	10(8.3)	11(9.1)	16(13.2)	6(5.0)	9(7.4)	1(0.8)	40(32.9)

Source: Field Survey
 Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row %

In case of attitudinal barriers suffered outside home, it was found that around 40 % of the PWDs reported use of objectionable language, being implicated in wrongful acts, being laughed at or pushed by men and people in public places (Table 37). Similarly around one third of them also reported the same in case of peer and stare and not being given adequate food; while around 20-28 % reported being forced to work, physical abuse, being barred from participation in public events and being refused assistance to undertake personal tasks. In case of inadequate food, 25 % reported employers as perpetrators; while sexual and physical abuse was by others (other than those mentioned). Even in these, the PWDs mostly suffered in silence or ignored the abuse; while some of them tried to sort it out through mediation by family or elders/leaders (Annexure 4).

Table 37: Perpetrators of Attitudinal Barriers on PWDs – Outside Home

S. No	Attitudinal Barriers	By whom							
		Men	Women	Govt officials/ police	People in public places	Employers	Subordinates	Men & People in public places	Others
1	Use of Objectionable language/abuses	38(5.9)	21(3.3)	24(3.7)	37(5.7)	5(0.8)	78(12.1)	286(44.4)	154(23.8)
2	Peer and Stare	40(3.9)	19(1.9)	15(1.5)	86(8.5)	3(0.3)	113(11.1)	338(33.2)	403(39.7)
3	Push	25(4.5)	27(4.9)	14(2.5)	46(8.3)	9(1.6)	75(13.6)	218(39.6)	137(24.7)
4	Laugh at	36(4.2)	41(4.8)	12(1.4)	78(9.1)	4(0.5)	108(12.6)	346(40.5)	184(21.6)
5	Physical abuse	11(10.6)	4(3.8)	9(8.7)	4(3.8)	1(1.0)	6(5.8)	24(23.1)	45(66.4)
6	Sexual abuse	11(20.0)	3(5.5)	1(1.8)	3(5.5)	-	6(10.9)	7(12.7)	24(56.3)
7	Implicated in wrongful acts	8(5.0)	4(2.5)	1(0.6)	18(11.3)	4(2.5)	8(5.0)	70(44.0)	46(29.1)
8	Not given adequate food	5(8.1)	5(8.1)	1(1.6)	-	16(25.8)	4(6.5)	20(32.3)	11(17.8)
9	Forced to work	9(8.6)	2(1.9)	9(8.6)	4(3.8)	22(21.0)	4(3.8)	30(28.6)	55(52.6)
10	Not allowed to participate in family events	4(5.7)	6(8.6)	2(2.9)	1(1.4)	7(10.0)	2(2.9)	9(12.9)	39(55.8)
11	Not allowed to participate in public events	5(4.0)	11(8.9)	5(4.0)	7(5.6)	1(0.8)	10(8.1)	25(20.2)	60(48.3)
12	Not assisted to undertake personal tasks	11(6.6)	12(7.2)	4(2.4)	9(5.4)	1(0.6)	20(12.0)	37(22.3)	72(43.3)
13	Secluded	4(6.3)	5(7.8)	3(4.7)	3(4.7)	-	7(10.9)	12(18.8)	30(46.1)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row %

Table 38: PWDs reporting attending ceremonies/functions in last one year by Type

Type of disability	Birthdays	Marriages	Death Ceremony	Religious Festivals (At home)	Religious Festivals (outside home)	Village Festivals	Others	Total
Visually Impaired	8 (4.62)	61 (35.26)	15 (8.67)	62 (35.84)	5 (2.89)	14 (8.09)	8 (4.62)	173 (100.0)
Hearing impaired	16 (6.81)	90 (38.30)	6 (2.55)	89 (37.87)	7 (2.98)	18 (7.66)	9 (3.83)	235 (100.0)
Locomotor Disability	84 (5.45)	727 (47.15)	68 (4.41)	430 (27.89)	55 (3.57)	77 (4.99)	101 (6.55)	1542 (100.0)
Intellectual & Psychosocial Disability	18 (7.03)	96 (37.50)	10 (3.91)	91 (35.55)	9 (3.52)	16 (6.25)	16 (6.25)	256 (100.0)
Multiple Disabilities	3 (10.71)	11 (39.29)	2 (7.14)	7 (25.00)	1 (3.57)	3 (10.71)	1 (3.57)	28 (100.0)
Total	129 (5.77)	985 (44.09)	101 (4.52)	679 (30.39)	77 (3.45)	128 (5.73)	135 (6.04)	2234 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate row %

Of the 2234 who reported having participated in ceremonies and functions during the last year, 44 % indicated marriage whereas 31 % indicated religious festivals at home as the functions they participated in. Around 6 % each also reported birthdays, village festivals and other festivals/functions, while 4 % each participated in religious festivals (outside home) and also in death-related ceremonies (Table 38).

With regard to attitudinal barriers at workplace, 44 % of PWDs who responded to attitudinal barriers at work place indicated that sometimes people try to patronise while 20 % responded that they are always patronised followed by 17 % who reported no such incidence while 11 % indicated that quite often they were patronised. Thus, patronising attitudes and conduct in varying degrees were experienced by PWDs in work place. Majority of the PWDs indicated that people have a notion that one kind of disability affects other senses and this was evident from the fact that 47 % reported sometimes. Being dismissed as incapable was also reported to be a major attitudinal barrier at workplace – 42 % (always), 15 % (quite often) and 9 % (always). On being asked about social interaction, 34 % indicated that sometimes people fear to talk to PWDs for the fear of saying or doing something wrong. Similarly majority believed that they were not included in groups (30 % sometimes). In addition, most of the times they are not invited to formal meetings as evident from the fact that 30 % indicated sometimes while more than 50 % also indicated that they are not invited to informal get-togethers too (29 % sometimes). PWDs also pointed that most of the times people do not like to share jokes/rumour/gossip with them (26 % indicated sometimes). With regard to behaviour of subordinates, 21 % of PWDs indicated that sometimes subordinates do not listen or take instructions; while similar view was aired by 15 % who reported that this happens quite often. In addition, while one-third reported that they are not allowed to learn through trial and error method (29 % sometimes); it was also reported that they were not given preference for skill development or training programmes (20 % sometimes, 15 % quite often and 5 % always). Similarly, one-fourth of them reported that their job/role is not treated as important to the organisation (24 % sometimes) whereas 30 % (sometimes) pointed out that their suggestions were not taken into account by colleagues/teammates/team head/customers. Ten % felt that it was the case always, while 15 % of the PWDs also indicated that sometimes their contemplation to change/quit jobs was not taken seriously (Annexure 5).

With regard of physical barriers, PWDs reported that the frequency of occurrence of lack of bus shelter and seating arrangements are high. This was also reported for delay of buses/not stopping at the bus stop, overcrowded public/shared transport, ill treatment of co-passengers/drivers/conductors, inconvenient entry/exit, unavailability of reserved seats, long waiting hours at renewal of travel passes, different location of arrival and departures of bus/train, absence of announcements about arrivals/departures and for crossing the road. Similar views were also

expressed about the frequency of occurrence for – overcharging by auto drivers, lack of signals/sign boards, absence of demarcation on roads/bridges for bicyclers/tricyclers and lack of special toilets in public places (Annexure 6).

4. Conclusion

Participation of people with disabilities in all walks of life – social, economic, political, cultural – is crucial in realising their full citizenship through promoting human dignity and social. The very mode of engaging with PWDs has been deeply rooted in the ‘normalcy’ paradigm based on medical computation and quantification of terms and conditions. This leads to erecting barriers in the labour market and impeding entry into it for PWDs through inaccessible physical, systemic and social set ups. Barriers to accessibility are obstacles that make it difficult and sometimes impossible for people with disabilities to negotiate everyday lives the things most of us take for granted like taking a public transport, attending daily chores etc. Barriers to accessibility are generally taken as limited to physical barriers – like a person who uses a wheelchair not being able to enter a public building because there is no ramp. But they are not limited to physical barriers alone. Attitudes and perceptions toward PWDs are equally important in limiting their labour market participation.

It is evident from the above discussion that in various facets of life of PWDs faces barriers. Their status as non-literates and school dropouts can be directly correlated to barriers (such as never enrolled in schools, lack of financial resources and refusal of admission). In terms of employment; gender, social categories, types of disability has been the major obstacles they faced. The %age of women with disabilities and from the marginalised groups engaged in employment has been low while low levels of employment were also evident among those persons with intellectual, psychosocial and multiple disabilities. In case of educational status, irrespective of level, incidence of non-worker status was high indicative of the fact that barrier other than human capital was at play. This is evident from the incidence of attitudinal (at home and outside home; at work place) as well as physical barriers that PWDs face. In case of attitudinal barriers, the perpetrators at home were close family members while outside home the perpetrators took different faces and forms to inflict various types of physical and mental abuse. At the workplace too, prejudices, patronising attitudes are indicative of the ‘social construct’ of

disability that permeates society, which can be directly attributed to the 'able bodied' norm that is commonplace. Physical barriers – the frequency and level of difficulty – have been clearly articulated by PWDs with respect to access to transport, public places, streets and roads.

Given the specific accounts that emerge from the study, one needs to review the pre-conceived notion of categorizing the disabled in the realm of 'non-labouring' poor as referred to in the beginning of this paper. It is important to draw attention, given this context, that the segregation of the disabled especially into institutional settings can be "attributed to transition from agriculture and cottage-based industries to large-scale factory-type system" (Barnes [1997] 2010: 23). The capitalist mode of production embedded in its construction of the able-bodied have always relegated the disabled into the sphere of those with impaired labour mobility. The occupational profile of the workers under this study (concentrated in service sector both among self-employed and employees category) also reiterate the importance of flexibility in methods of work which allow their integration into labour market as the key in contrast to the factory mode of production reflective of rigorous discipline, time bound production process. This alongside attitudinal barriers both in the public and private spheres including workplace hinders their labour market participation as reflected in the incidence of educated among non-workers in the study. At the level of employers too, irrespective of private or public sector employment (irrespective of affirmative action in the latter), the perception of inclusivity has not yet permeated the spaces of work especially in the context of India where seeking and keeping employment is a corporeal experience and negation of human capital (Upadhyay 2013). It is therefore necessary that disability is recognised as an identity "not necessarily a medicalized identity – it could simply be an identity that is based on identifying someone who navigates the world in atypical ways, facing many attitudinal and physical barriers" (Sherry [1997] (2010): 95). This can be achieved with the recognition of persons with disabilities as workers, through enabling conditions and reasonable accommodation, which has deep outcomes for the development of social identity of persons and their well-being.

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ANNEXURES

Annexure 1: Profile of Persons with Disabilities in India		
Socio-economic Characteristics	Number of Persons with Disabilities	
	2001	2011
No. of Persons with Disabilities	21906769 (100.0)	26814994 (100.0)
Gender		
Male	12605635 (57.5)	14988593 (55.9)
Female	9301134 (42.5)	11826401 (44.1)
Place of Residence		
Rural	16388382 (74.8)	18636358 (69.5)
Urban	5518387 (25.2)	8178636 (30.5)
Literacy		
Literate	10801232 (49.3)	14618353 (54.5)
Illiterate	11105537 (50.7)	12196641 (45.5)
Age		
Total Population		
0-19	7732196 (35.3)	7864636 (29.3)
20-59	10328397 (47.1)	13435943 (50.1)
60-79	3151048 (14.4)	4427399 (16.5)
80+	622564 (2.8)	949220 (3.5)
Age not stated	72564 (0.3)	137796 (0.5)
SC Population		
0-19	1390869 (37.5)	1506178 (30.6)
20-59	1685864 (45.4)	2451363 (49.7)
60-79	530998 (14.3)	798656 (16.2)
80 +	92471 (2.5)	147754 (3.0)
Age not stated	10908 (0.3)	23482 (0.5)
ST Population		
0-19	584500 (36.1)	667057 (31.1)
20-59	732301 (45.3)	996576 (46.5)
60-79	251480 (15.5)	397297 (18.6)
80+	44830 (2.8)	72122 (3.4)
Age not stated	5055 (0.3)	7711 (0.4)
Type of Disability		
In seeing	10634881(48.5)	5033431 (18.7)
In speech	1640868 (7.5)	1998692 (7.5)
In hearing	1261722 (5.8)	5072914 (18.9)
In movement	6105477 (27.9)	5436826 (20.3)
Mental	2263821 (10.3)	-
Mental Retardation	-	1505964 (5.6)
Mental Illness	-	722880 (2.7)
Any Other	-	4927589 (18.4)
Multiple Disabilities	-	2116698 (7.9)
Source: Census of India (2001 & 2011)		
Note: Figures in Parenthesis show column percentages		

Annexure 2: Economic Status of Persons with Disabilities in India

Economic Status	Number of Persons with Disabilities			Number of Persons with Disabilities		
	2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Main worker	4777732	1077474	5855206	5464857	1517152	6982009
Marginal worker (Less than 3 months)	-	-	-	330999	258862	589861
Marginal worker (Less than 3 months)	-	-	-	1276969	895547	2172516
Total Marginal Workers	870877	829966	1700843	1607968	1154409	2762377
Total Workers (Main + Marginal)	5648609	1907440	7556049	7072825	2671561	9744386
Cultivators	1855438	576741	2432179	1716078	558244	2274322
Agricultural labourers	1224341	742081	1966422	1914330	1062942	2977272
Household industry workers	210945	135604	346549	258144	176909	435053
Other workers	2357885	453014	2810899	3184273	873466	4057739
Non-Workers	6957026	7393694	14350720	7915768	9154840	17070608
Total Disabled	12605635	9301134	21906769	14988593	11826401	26814994
Proportion of						
Cultivators in total workers	32.8	30.2	32.2	24.3	20.9	23.3
Agricultural labourers in total workers	21.7	38.9	26.0	27.1	39.8	30.6
Household industry workers in total workers	3.7	7.1	4.6	3.6	6.6	4.5
Other workers in total workers	41.7	23.7	37.2	45.0	32.7	41.6
Workers in total disabled	44.8	20.5	34.5	47.2	22.6	36.3
Non-workers in total disabled	55.2	79.5	65.5	52.8	77.4	63.7
Main worker in total workers	84.6	56.5	77.5	77.3	56.8	71.7
Marginal worker in total workers	15.4	43.5	22.5	22.7	43.2	28.3
Proportion in main workers	81.6	18.4		78.3	21.7	
Proportion in marginal workers	51.2	48.8		58.2	41.8	

Source: Census of India (2001 & 2011)

Annexure 3: Course of Action/Prevention adopted by PWDs facing Attitudinal Barriers – at home						
S. No	Attitudinal Barriers	Others	Ignore	Complain within family	Sort it out with people of importance	Suffer in Silence
1	Use of Objectionable language/abuses	69(16.5)	209(50.1)	23(5.5)	8(1.9)	108(25.9)
2	Peer and Stare	34(25.6)	66(49.6)	4(3.0)	2(1.5)	27(20.3)
3	Push	48(18.4)	112(42.9)	13(5.0)	6(2.3)	82(31.4)
4	Laugh at	46(34.3)	51(38.1)	9(6.7)	2(1.5)	26(19.4)
5	Physical abuse	25(25.0)	25(25.3)	6(6.1)	9(9.1)	34(34.3)
6	Sexual abuse	9(23.7)	6(15.8)	7(18.4)	1(2.6)	15(39.5)
7	Implicated in wrongful acts	12(12.8)	32(34.0)	9(9.6)	5(5.3)	36(38.3)
8	Not given adequate food	32(42.6)	15(20.0)	5(6.7)	2(2.7)	21(28.0)
9	Forced to work	25(52.1)	7(14.6)	3(6.3)	3(6.3)	10(20.8)
10	Not allowed to participate in family events	14(26.9)	14(26.9)	3(5.8)	3(5.8)	18(34.6)
11	Not allowed to participate in public events	20(29.4)	22(32.4)	7(10.3)	17(25.0)	2(2.9)
12	Not assisted to undertake personal tasks	31(28.2)	34(30.9)	4(3.6)	3(2.7)	38(34.5)
13	Secluded	26(21.5)	49(40.5)	5(4.1)	3(2.5)	38(31.4)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parentheses denotes row %

Annexure 4: Course of Action/Prevention adopted by PWDs facing Attitudinal Barriers – Outside home						
S. No	Attitudinal Barriers	Ignore	Complain within family	Sort it out with people of importance	Suffer in Silence	Others
1	Use of Objectionable language/ abuses	177(27.5)	66(10.2)	54(8.4)	273(42.4)	62(13.2)
2	Peer and Stare	240(23.6)	97(9.5)	39(3.8)	562(55.3)	79(7.8)
3	Push	152(27.6)	62(11.3)	41(7.4)	243(44.1)	53(9.6)
4	Laugh at	236(27.6)	73(8.5)	51(6.0)	418(48.9)	76(8.8)
5	Physical abuse	16(15.4)	14(13.5)	8(7.7)	36(34.6)	30(28.9)
6	Sexual abuse	10(18.2)	5(9.1)	4(7.3)	17(30.9)	19(33.7)
7	Implicate in wrong acts	35(22.0)	15(9.4)	18(11.3)	79(49.7)	12(7.5)
8	Not given adequate food	8(12.9)	23(37.1)	3(4.8)	18(29.0)	10(16.1)
9	Forced to work	12(11.4)	8(7.6)	32(30.5)	38(36.2)	15(14.3)
10	Not allowed to participate in family events	6(8.6)	26(37.1)	5(7.1)	19(27.1)	14(20.)
11	Not allowed to participate in public events	15(12.1)	14(11.3)	16(12.9)	54(43.5)	25(20.1)
12	Not assisted to undertake personal tasks	34(20.5)	23(13.9)	9(5.4)	82(49.4)	18(10.8)
13	Secluded	16(25.0)	6(9.4)	2(3.1)	27(42.2)	13(20.3)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parentheses denotes row %

Annexure 5: Incidence and Frequency of Attitudinal Barriers at Workplace							
Sl. No	Particulars of Attitudinal Barriers	1= Always	2=Quite often	3=Sometimes	4=Never	5=No response	Total
1	People try to patronise you as a brave or special person	107 (20.1)	56 (10.5)	237 (44.5)	86 (16.7)	46 (8.6)	532 (100)
2	Have a notion that one kind of disability affect other senses	59 (11.0)	81 (15.1)	251 (47.0)	75 (14.0)	68 (12.7)	534 (100)
3	Dismiss you as incapable	49 (8.8)	81 (14.6)	233 (41.9)	100 (17.10)	93 (16.7)	556 (100)
4	People fear to talk as they might say or do something wrong	39 (7.8)	58 (11.6)	171 (34.3)	139 (27.9)	91 (18.3)	498 (100)
5	Do not Involve you in the group	71 (13.7)	65 (12.6)	158 (30.1)	127 (24.6)	96 (18.6)	517 (100)
6	Do not Invite you to all formal meeting	34 (7.6)	67 (14.98)	132 (29.5)	137 (30.6)	77 (17.2)	447 (100)
7	Do not Invite you to all informal get together with special accommodation	39 (8.1)	76 (15.8)	140 (29.1)	152 (31.6)	74 (15.4)	481 (100)
8	People do not share the jokes/ issues/ rumour/ gossip with you	45 (9.5)	99 (20.8)	122 (25.6)	112 (23.5)	98 (20.6)	476 (100)
9	Subordinates do not listen to you, assist you and take instructions	26 (6.4)	62 (15.2)	87 (21.3)	90 (22.0)	144 (35.02)	409 (100)
10	Not Allowed to learn on trial and error method	27 (6.8)	46 (11.5)	115 (28.8)	54 (13.5)	157 (39.3)	399 (100)
11	You are not given preference for skill development programs/training programs	23 (5.10)	57 (14.8)	78 (20.3)	49 (12.7)	178 (46.2)	385 (100)
12	Your job/role is not treated as important to the organisation	25 (6.5)	40 (10.5)	91 (23.8)	69 (18.06)	157 (41.09)	382 (100)
13	You are not treated with respect/dignity in all spheres of work/relation	33 (7.4)	42 (9.4)	149 (33.5)	69 (15.5)	152 (34.2)	445 (100)
14	Your suggestion and viewpoints are not taken into account by colleagues/teammates/team head/customers	45 (10.7)	56 (13.3)	123 (29.2)	50 (11.9)	147 (34.9)	421 (100)
15	Contemplating to change/quit jobs are not taken seriously	28 (8.3)	36 (10.7)	54 (15.10)	29 (8.6)	191 (56.5)	338 (100)
Source: Field Survey							
Note: Figures in parentheses denotes row %							

Annexure 6: Frequency and Level of Difficulty of Physical Barriers experienced by PWDs							
Sl. No	Particulars of Physical Barriers	Frequency of Occurrence (N=2571)			Level of Difficulty (N=2571)		
		1= Always	2=Quite often	3=Sometimes	1= Extremely difficult	2=Very difficult	3=Difficult
1	No bus shelter/ seating arrangements	818 (31.8)	449 (17.5)	545 (21.2)	592 (23.0)	496 (19.3)	453 (17.6)
2	Buses never come on time/stop at the prescribed bus stop	626 (24.3)	521 (20.3)	685 (26.6)	513 (20.0)	500 (19.4)	506 (19.7)
3	Over crowded public /shared transport	751 (29.2)	485 (18.9)	602 (23.4)	609 (23.7)	488 (19.0)	445 (17.3)
4	Ill treatment by the co passengers/drivers/conductors	667 (25.9)	435 (16.9)	571 (22.2)	549 (21.4)	440 (17.1)	411 (16.0)
5	Inconvenient entry/exit and seating arrangements	645 (25.1)	409 (15.9)	513 (20.0)	509 (19.8)	421 (16.4)	394 (15.3)
6	Reserved seats are always occupied	798 (31.0)	546 (21.2)	475 (18.5)	653 (25.4)	492 (19.1)	355 (13.8)
7	Long hours of queue to get bus pass/train pass/renewal	660 (25.7)	382 (14.9)	382 (14.9)	533 (20.7)	419 (16.3)	294 (11.4)
8	Arrivals and departures of the bus and train are at different places	988 (38.4)	131 (5.1)	311 (12.1)	715 (27.8)	294 (11.4)	222 (8.6)
9	No announcements about the arrival and departure of buses being done even at the prime bus stops	425 (16.5)	367 (14.3)	804 (31.3)	313 (12.2)	543 (21.1)	526 (20.5)
10	Crossing the road to catch bus/auto/train is difficult	662 (25.7)	484 (18.8)	577 (22.4)	555 (21.6)	526 (20.5)	424 (16.5)
11	Auto drivers DO NOT respond properly/overcharge	597 (23.2)	462 (18.0)	574 (22.3)	437 (17.0)	527 (20.5)	425 (16.5)
12	Signals/sign boards/traffic rules are absent	404 (15.7)	255 (9.9)	667 (25.9)	318 (12.4)	333 (13.0)	545 (21.2)
13	No separate demarcation on road/bridges for bicyclers/tricyclers/ tricycle motor vehicles / pedestrians	575 (22.4)	319 (12.4)	583 (22.7)	441 (17.2)	309 (12.0)	566 (22.0)
14	No Toilets/specially designed toilets	816 (31.7)	239 (9.3)	518 (20.1)	589 (22.9)	298 (11.6)	552 (21.5)
15	High costs of transportation	675 (26.3)	549 (21.4)	374 (14.5)	408 (15.9)	598 (23.3)	391 (15.2)
16	Separate parking slots for PWDs absent	737 (28.7)	205 (8.0)	485 (18.9)	451 (17.5)	331 (12.9)	495 (19.3)
17	Air travel is convenient	81 (3.2)	55 (2.1)	339 (13.2)	52 (2.0)	82 (3.2)	353 (13.7)
18	Others	22 (.9)	31 (1.2)	28 (1.1)	9 (.4)	14 (.5)	35 (1.4)
STREETS/ROADS							
19	No separate walkways or road ways for pedestrians	715 (27.8)	282 (11.0)	454 (17.7)	486 (18.9)	336 (13.1)	499 (19.4)
20	Overcrowded Roads without proper support systems	711 (27.7)	308 (12.0)	446 (17.3)	469 (18.2)	364 (14.2)	489 (19.0)
21	Absence or indifference of Traffic police to help	333 (13.0)	367 (14.3)	669 (26.0)	240 (9.3)	428 (16.6)	561 (21.8)
22	Ill treatment by public and Traffic police	219 (8.5)	327 (12.7)	648 (25.2)	188 (7.3)	386 (15.0)	506 (19.7)
23	No Toilets/specially designed toilets	790 (30.7)	208 (8.1)	510 (19.8)	551 (21.4)	311 (12.1)	484 (18.8)
24	Others, specify	24 (0.9)	29 (1.1)	19 (0.7)	15 (.6)	8 (.3)	25 (1.0)

Source: Field Survey
Note: Figures in parentheses denotes row %

End Notes

¹Census of India 2011 does not mention the State of Telangana since the reorganisation of the states of Andhra Pradesh and Telangana took place only in 2014. However, from the district-wise data, the total for Telangana is calculated. This includes data for those seven mandals in the district of Khammam which was transferred to Andhra Pradesh under the AP State Reorganisation (Amendment) Act 2014.

² We limit the discussion to All-India since there is no separate data available for Telangana since the Census enumeration pre-dated the formation of the Telangana. Moreover, for 2011, the district wise data on disability is not released for all indicators.

³As per data, high incidence of disability in urban areas in the age group of 20-50 was in the districts of Hyderabad, Ranga Reddy, Warangal, Karimnagar, Mahbubnagar and Khammam. However, in case of Nizamabad, though the incidence of disability was lower than Mahbubnagar at district level in the urban areas, among municipalities in Nizamabad and Mahbubnagar, the former had approximately similar level of incidence as in the former. Hence, Nizamabad was selected over Mahbubnagar in the final selection of sample district/municipality.

⁴ In case of Hyderabad and Ranga Reddy, though the secondary data indicates highest concentration of PWDs, during the field work, the research team encountered difficulties in locating the PWDs given the vast geographic spread of the municipality. In fact, in certain instances, due to lack of clarity over the addresses procured and/or due to unwillingness of the PWD or family to respond, the team had to canvass the respondents from the site of Municipal Corporation when the PWDs arrived in person to collect the pension at the beginning of the month.

⁵ Though at the stage of sample selection, from SADAREM data base we had listed PWDs in the age group of 20-50, due to time lag in the SADAREM data, we have persons above 50 included in the sample as well.

⁶ Refer Kannabiran 2014 for a detailed discussion on disability and labour.

⁷ The reference period of work was 180 days preceding the date of survey.



Displacement and Rehabilitation in Singareni Collieries, Khammam, Telangana

Sujit Kumar Mishra

Abstract

The rehabilitation policy adopted by the Andhra Pradesh/ Telangana government in the Singareni Collieries project, Khammam cannot be condemned blindly. Some of the displaced are allotted with land (though meagre of 2 acres). All the people are allotted with the provision of shelter (either in rehabilitation colonies or homestead land or money in lieu of homestead land). But much of the agricultural land distributed has been of infertile quality; land allotments have also been in patches, causing great difficulty and adding to the hardships in the livelihood pattern of the displaced people; there was no trace of equity in the entire process of regulatory mechanism with the issue of land and compensation; the same practice has been noticed across all the issues, i.e., health, livelihood, structure of a family, social disarticulation and awareness of the institutional mechanisms; The major hindrance found in this study is lack of proper consultation of the state with the communities. This article is an empirical study of the socio-economic changes that have resulted from the policy hitherto followed by the Andhra Pradesh/ Telanagana government.

Author

Sujit Kumar Mishra is Associate Professor at Council for Social Development, Hyderabad

Displacement and Rehabilitation in Singareni Collieries, Khammam, Telangana

Sujit Kumar Mishra

1. Introduction

It is a consensus phenomenon among the development actors that displacement causes considerable disruption and losses for both the individual and the collective (Dwivedi, 1999; World Commission on Dams, 2000). The major issues of concern are those of socio-economic development, human rights violations, citizen disempowerments and the relationships they share between each other. The negative impacts of displacement squarely affects the livelihoods, land rights, housing, loss of assets and loss of social networks, individual and collective trauma and distress, sharp declines in psycho-social health and well being which have a direct bearing on capacity and capabilities; all of these factors cumulatively lead to the impoverishment associated with forced displacement. Some of the most vulnerable groups are women, children, dalits, minorities and the landless are known to be suffering the adverse impacts the most. Whatever the cause, being forced to move from one place to another is a profoundly disabling experience that results in a reversal of fortunes of entire collectivities.

In the recent times, the economic policies of government have significantly changed. However, such a situation enables the private sector to play a major role in the process of development, which was an exclusively public sector affair till now. The newly formulated policies proactively expect investment both from domestic and multinational corporations by creating an investment-friendly environment. The outstanding economic growth seen in the recent times is truly an outcome of those policy changes. Enthused by this unprecedented success, planners are all set to proceed further on this path with renewed vigour. In order to maximise economic growth, policies are being further liberalised and laws amended following the growing impacts of globalisation, liberalisation and privatisation. Apart from that, the government is also assiduously wooing new investors in almost all sectors of development, ranging from manufacturing cars to retailing toiletries (Sinha, 2009). As a matter of fact, investments keep coming as never before. Larger investments, particularly foreign direct investments (FDIs) coming to India, are now seen as the success of the economic reform agenda. In no time, it also hits the headlines of the news channels. Resettlement has not performed satisfactorily anywhere across the world. But, it is no solid reason to assume that it will never work. Some economists strongly opine that the misery of a displaced population should not be considered inevitable since it can be prevented (Mathur,

2011). Even though prospects are likely to be gloomy, there is a scope for the creation of opportunities to improve the lives in contexts of displacement. However, it requires people-oriented resettlement policy based firmly on constitutional guarantees, well chalked-out planning, an effective and committed implementation apparatus, supported by financial resources and high level political commitment (Scudder, 2005). The benefits generated by projects must be shared with affected people, of which there are examples worthy of emulation.

The Indian State has undertaken a large number of development projects - in irrigation, power, industries, mining, forest and wildlife after the planned development programmes were launched in 1950-51. Most of the development projects however have been set up in rural areas and on the lands owned or inhabited by rural and tribal communities. The intergenerational uprooting of millions of people consequent on this programme thrust has resulted in profound socio-economic and cultural disruption for the people directly affected as well as the disturbance of social fabric of local communities that have been torn apart (Cernea, 1988). Against this backdrop, this report describes the path taken by these actors in different stages (described through different issues) of this development process (mining sector) and points to the regulatory mechanisms available to safeguard their interest.

2. Research Questions

- 1) What went wrong in translating the resettlement policies of the State into practice?
- 2) What are the key factors (policies, institutions and information) that determine differences in outcome of Rehabilitation?

3. Study Area and Methodology

The rural population of the undivided Andhra Pradesh reckoned by Reddy et.al (2010) was 55.22 million, of which 10.67 million lived within “forested landscapes”, who were representative of about 22% of the total rural population living predominantly in the districts of Adilabad, East Godavari, Khammam, Mahaboobnagar, Prakasam, Srikakulam, Visakhapatnam, Warangal and West Godavari. These people had been traditionally depending upon forest for homestead, land for cultivation (both shifting and sedentary cultivation), gathering and hunting, spiritual and existence values and ecosystem services. Apart from this, Reddy et al. (2012) also calculated the contribution of forest activities to the livelihoods of forest people in the undivided Andhra Pradesh (Table 1).

Table 1: Types of Livelihood from Forest

S. No	Types of Livelihood	Percentage
1	NTFP based	57
2	Fodder for goats and sheep	26
3	Fuel wood sale	12
4	Wood based craft making	05
Total		100

Source: Reddy, et.al (2012)

Andhra Pradesh (un-divided) has undertaken a considerable number of development projects – in irrigation and power; industries; mining; forest and wildlife in the post-independence period. Almost all the development projects have been established in rural areas and on the tribal lands. They lead a simple life and have a great attachment with customs and traditions. The displacement of millions of people to completely new and unknown places is day by day becoming more contentious. The result of this type of displacement is profound socio-economic and cultural disruption to the affected people and disturbance of the social fabric of the local communities (Cernea, 1988). Apart from this, displacement, rehabilitation and resettlement are not something that are chosen by people, but they are compelled to accept them. Displacement is nothing but a disaster in slow motion (Raja, 2002).

About 5 million people in undivided Andhra Pradesh have been displaced by these development projects. 30% people were tribal of the 3.25 million DP/PAP Andhra people displaced between 1951-1995, though they constitutes only 6.7% of its livelihood without being physically displaced (PAP) are Dalit. The study also highlighted that 20% of the total population was the so-called “other backwards”. Table 2 offers details on the land that has been in use for open-cast mine in the undivided Andhra Pradesh.

Table 2: Open Cast Coal Mines and the Extent of Land Use in Andhra Pradesh

S. No	Project Name	Land use (ha)					Total
		Agriculture Land	Forest land	Government land	Waste land	Other land	
1	Indram OC, Adilabad	668.22	0	25.15	7.84	145.55	846.76
2	Srirampur OC-II, Adilabad	575.75	113.93	0	0.56	17.39	707.63
3	Ramagundam OC-I Project Expansion- Phase II, Karimnagar	233.55	15.64	0	674.69	0	923.88
4	Manuguru OC, Khammam	516.51	33.58	0	0	118.33	668.42
5	Ramagundam OC-III Expansion, Karimnagar	477.78	0	0	812.58	103.45	1393.81
6	Manuguru OC –II Expansion, Khammam	277.99	2673.70	77.60	8.71	167.7	3205.7
7	Medapalli OC, Karimnagar	686.05	0	0	311.50	174	1171.55
8	Kakatiya Khani OC Sector- 1, Warangal	270.16	0	36.77	0	0	306.92
9	Khairagura OC Expansion, Adilabad	0	350.57	0	0	866.93	1217.50
10	Koyagudam OC-II, Khammam	214.26	601.85	0	0	0	816.11
11	Srirampur OC-II, Adilabad	575.75	113.93	0	0.5	17.45	707.63
12	Jalagam Vengalrao OC Project-II	540.01	788.22	0	0	81.58	1409.81
13	Ramakrishnapur	12	624	0	0	1.52	637.52
14	Tadicherla OC, Karimnagar	800	53.55	0	0	76.45	930
15	Kistaram OC, Khammam	139.56	285.44	0	0	37.68	435.68
16	Manuguru OC- IV Expansion	0.9	185	0	0	548.7	734.6
	TOTAL	5988.49	5839.41	139.52	1816.38	2356.73	16113.52

Source: Oskarsson (2011)

The local economy has been strengthened by the development in terms of “mining” (Oskarsson, 2011). It has opened new avenues for the local residents by means of various engagements for them, e.g. daily wage earner, milking, tailoring, carpentry, vegetable vending, grocery shop, petty business, small hotels and saloon. This is the total impact of development keeping other things constant. However, a highly skewed pattern of distribution is seen. The present study discovered two different categories of people experiencing the impacts of mine - tribal forest dwellers and non-tribal households. The report of Rao et.al. (2006) underlined that non-tribal people owned more than half of the land in the Scheduled areas in districts like Warangal (71.64%), Adilabad (60.69%) and Khammam (52.79%) in the undivided Andhra Pradesh. A regulation called AP Tribal Land Transfer Regulation of 1970 provides the legal possession to the owner of a piece of land in the study area. But this regulation has its own advantages and disadvantages. One of the major drawbacks is to allow a non-tribal to own land in these areas which has generally been done in two ways: (i) possession of land before 1959; or (ii) with the consent of the collector prior to the 1970 amendments. An NGO called Samata which is working in Andhra Pradesh Scheduled Areas, filed a petition against the Andhra Pradesh government for routinely flouting the law. The court gave its verdict in favour of the tribal in the famous Samata Judgement of 1997 (Box 1).

Box 1: The Samata Judgement

1. As per the 73rd Amendment Act, 1992,"every Gram Sabha shall be competent to safeguard.....Under clause (m) (ii) the power to prevent alienation of land in the Scheduled Areas and to take appropriate action to restore any unlawful alienation of land of a scheduled tribe".
2. Minerals to be exploited by tribal themselves either individually or through cooperative societies with financial assistance of the State.
3. In the absence of total prohibition, the court laid down certain duties and obligations to the lessee, as part of the project expenditure.
4. At least 20 % of net profits as permanent fund for development needs apart from reforestation and maintenance of ecology.
5. Transfer of land in Scheduled Area by way of lease to non tribals, corporation aggregate, etc stands prohibited to prevent their exploitation in any form.
6. Transfer of mining lease to non-tribal, company, corporation aggregate or partnership firm, etc. is unconstitutional, void and inoperative. State instrumentalities like APMDC stand excluded from prohibition.
7. Renewal of lease is fresh grant of lease and therefore, any such renewal stands prohibited.
8. In States where there are no acts which provide for total prohibition of mining leases of land in Scheduled Areas, Committee of Secretaries and State Cabinet Sub Committees should be constituted and decision taken thereafter.
Conference of all Chief Ministers, Ministers holding the Ministry concerned and Prime Minister, and Central Ministers concerned should take a policy decision for a consistent scheme throughout the country in respect of tribal lands

Source: Samata (1997)

However, the Andhra Pradesh / Telangana Governments continue with a policy of allowing private bidders and investors into tribal areas, by means of fresh leases and through disinvestments of the public sector companies. Mining activities of the GoAP are being undertaken through its own Mineral Development Corporations in scheduled areas (Reddy, et al 2010). The present study is an empirical study undertaken in the open cast coal mining in the Manuguru area of Khamam district.

3.1 Singareni Collieries: A Brief Profile

Singareni Collieries limited is one of the major coal mining companies of Telangana State of the Godavari valley. Though it being a public sector company like Coal India, it is operated as a separate entity because of its shared ownership between the undivided Andhra Pradesh Government and the Central government.

Map 1: Location Map of Singareni Collieries in Telangana State



The revenue received by the Andhra Pradesh government from the years 2007 to 2010 from Singareni mines royalty was 1,676 crore. But prior to 1996, Singareni was on the edge of bankruptcy. The situation changed with the intervention of Government of India and since 1997 it has been brought to track and it is also making profit. This turn around in situation is attributed to the increasing use of open cast mining. Between 1997 and 2002, it was noticed that almost all open cast mines were economically stable whereas the underground mines were making huge losses. Singareni today mines coal from 47 mines spread across four districts of Khammam, Warangal, Karimnagar and Adilabad. Even though the mining output has increased, the number of mines has been decreased to 12 open cast and 55 underground mines in 2004. The company headquarters are located at Kothagudem which is close to the site of the original mine at Singareni village after which the company is named. The production has been gradually increasing. In 2010, it has reached 38 million tons. Still the company has lagged behind to attain the target of 46 million tons. Nevertheless, it is the only company to achieve this feat of reaching much closer to the target whereas other public sector coal companies have been able to meet just 51% to 65% of the set target. The study selected four villages for its sample: (i) Dharapadu; (ii) Kommugudem; (iii) Kondapuram; and (iv) Srirangapuram. At last, 193 households were selected out of those 04 villages.

3.2 Data Collection

Extensive field surveys, in depth interviews and interactions with sample constituted the core of the study methodology. The study involved a three-pronged approach to collection of

information: (a) conducting a field survey; (b) collection of data from secondary sources like reports, awards of Land Acquisition Officers, various investigative reports and magazines from time to time; and (c) discussions with officials and local leaders in the area. Apart from this, focus group discussion was also conducted among different categories of people. The focus group provided insightful information on specific vulnerabilities of those sections of the people, who experienced greater vulnerabilities due to construction of the project.

Hence the data collected for this study consists of (i) household for both displaced as well as affected; (ii) data on village profiles of sample villages; (iii) secondary data; (iv) reports on FGDs on different themes and issues. The interview aimed to capture the effects of construction of the project on the studied community, the strategies adopted by local displaced and the affected people to deal with the situation as well as the direct and indirect effects of the projects on their social economic lives. The qualitative data were condensed and analyzed thematically¹.

The household schedule is designed to collect a detailed information regarding the socio-economic condition of the project affected households, details regarding their landholding status, asset status, compensation received and the way of spending, structure of house, health, agriculture and etc. The village level information regarding the number of landless household, BPL, infrastructural facilities, health facilities and the distance of these facilities from their villages, the changes occurred in cropping pattern due to construction of the site was collected through the village schedule. The instruments were piloted and sharpened subsequently before the data collection procedure.

3.3 Interview Schedule

Three sets of instruments were used to collate information for this study. The interviews aimed to capture the effects of mining on the studied community, strategies employed by the people to deal with the situation. For this analysis, the qualitative answers were coded into a set of defining variables. For example, answers to questions concerning the household's current income, the number of working days, the wage rate, the different sources of livelihood for each household was set e.g. a household may earn income from agriculture, agricultural wage labour, petty business, daily wage labour and etc. All variables were cross-checked against each other to search for potential trends in the material. Having done that, another layer of analysis was added,

¹ According to the major themes of the present study- impoverishment, landlessness, homelessness, joblessness and loss of livelihood security, social disarticulation, gender, vulnerability, health hazard, loss of biodiversity, psychological trauma, dropout and child labour.

where the defining variables were grouped into a few broader categories. Given that this type of analysis is sensitive to the coding, results have to be interpreted carefully. In this study, it is primarily used as a complement to the qualitative data (Table 3).

Table 3: Examples of variables and categories used

S. No	Category	Defining Variables	Original Questions
1	Land Acquisition	Landholding Particulars	Based on questions on land owned, leased in and out land, net area sown
		Amount acquired	Details of land acquired, possessed, types of land acquired
		Land Acquisition details	Dates of 4 (1) notification, date of award, date of possession, year of shifting
2	Compensation	Amount	Based on questions about amount received, year, amount due, amount not received, reasons of not receiving compensation
		Use of compensation amount	Based on questions regarding type of use (on utility and non-utility assets), amount spent, year
		Other issues related to compensation	Information about valuation method, consultation with the communities, negotiation, satisfaction level on compensation received
		Grievance	Types of grievances, nature of grievance, mechanisms
3	Rehabilitation	Type of rehabilitation	Job in the project, Job in other associated units / vendors, Provided vocational training & assistance for self-employment, Allotted shops in market complex , Agricultural land, Cash in lieu
		Eligibility	Qualification at the time of applying for the job, skill, training programme, problem faced in pursuing the economic rehabilitation
4	Livelihood	Status of Employment	Nature of employment- primary and secondary for both before and after project period, average wage rate, duration of work per day
		Annual Income	Income calculation from different sources for both the period
		Ownership of asset	Different types of asset for both the period
5	Institutional Mechanisms	Policy Environment	Information about land acquisition act, rehabilitation policies, social impact assessment
		Access to information	Idea about the valuation, legal procedures, workshop on using money, bargaining process and negotiation

4. Results and Discussions

The report pointed at a set of multi-faceted issues through various methods, which are lucidly discussed below:

4.1 Demographic Details

Our sample contained 193 households who were affected due to this project. The sample was divided into various attributes in order to find out the composition of it. The results are presented in Table 4. If considered the total sample as per religion, 99.5% of the households belonged to

Hindu category and the rest only a single household was Muslim. Caste is a major attribute in Indian studies since it is pervasive in almost every nook and corner of the social processes, particularly in rural areas. According to the data shown in the Table 4, 73.6 % of the households are Scheduled Tribe and the remaining 26.4% are Scheduled Caste. Yet another explanatory factor is education. Our data indicates that 63.3% were illiterate, whereas only 3.6% were just literate. The primary, middle, matriculate and intermediate education correspond to 4.1%, 9.3%, 11.4% and 4.7% respectively. The percent of degree or above educated people stands merely at a meagre 3.1% of the samples (Table 4).

Table 4: Distribution of Sample on Various Attributes of the Displaced Households- Singareni

S. No	Variable	Category/ Group	Total (n=193)
1	Religion	Hindu	192 (99.5)
		Muslim	1 (0.5)
2	Caste	ST	142 (73.6)
		SC	51 (26.4)
3	Literacy	Illiterate	122 (63.3)
		Just literate	7 (3.6)
		Primary	8 (4.1)
		Middle	18 (9.3)
		Matriculate	22 (11.4)
		Intermediate	9 (4.7)
		Graduate and above	6 (3.1)
		Professional	1 (0.5)
		Others	-

Source: Field Survey

4.2 Occupational Pattern

Before being displaced, at least 61.1% households used to do cultivation and allied activities like horticulture, dairy farming, fishery and goatery. However, after being displaced, at least 27.5% households were reported to be engaged in non-farm wage earning which was their primary occupation. A marginal decrease was seen from before to after displacement situation in the number of agricultural labourer. Moreover, artisan, dairy, goatery, fishery and cottage industry are almost disappeared in the post-displacement scene (Table 5).

Table 5: Primary Occupation of the Displaced Households

S. No	Occupations	ST		SC		Total	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	Cultivation and allied activities	95 (67.1)	78 (54.9)	23 (45.1)	15 (43.4)	118 (61.1)	93 (48.2)
2	Business	-		1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.5)
3	Service (Government)	3 (2.1)	2 (1.4)	2 (3.9)	2 (3.9)	5 (2.6)	4 (2.1)
4	Service (Private)	1 (0.7)	1 (0.7)	1 (2.0)	4 (7.8)	2 (1.0)	5 (2.5)
5	Farm wages	18 (12.7)	13 (9.2)	15 (29.4)	18 (35.3)	33 (17.1)	31 (16.1)
6	Non- farm wages	20 (14.1)	46 (32.4)	4 (7.8)	7 (13.7)	24 (12.4)	53 (27.5)
7	Others	5 (3.5)	2 (1.4)	5 (14.7)	4 (7.8)	10 (5.2)	6 (6.1)
Total		142 (100.0)	142 (100.0)	51 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	193 (100.0)	193 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

4.3 Land and Politics of Compensation

Chapter VI of the policy document “Irrigation & CAD Department - Rehabilitation and Resettlement (R & R) Policy of Government of Andhra Pradesh” (G.O.Ms. No.68) discusses on the R & R benefits for project affected families. Box 2 offers the details of the compensation offered by Singareni.

Box 2: G.O No. 68 and the Provision of R & R

Allotment of house site

“Any Project Displaced Family (PDF) holding up to an area of 5 Cents of village site and whose site has been acquired shall be allotted house site of an extent of 202 square meters (5 Cents) of land in rural areas or 75 square meters of land in Urban areas in the Resettlement zone besides payment of compensation for the structures if any therein”

Grant for house construction

Each PDF of BPL Category who has been allotted free house site shall get a Onetime financial assistance of Rs.40,000 shall be increased to Rs.50,000. Rs.15,000 meant for cattle-shed, Rs.5,000 for transportation, Rs. 3000 for toilet construction.

For Income generating scheme

Each PAF comprising of rural artisan/ small trader and self-employed person shall get one time lump sum financial assistance of Rs.25, 000 or as fixed by Government from time to time for construction of working shed / shop.

For Wages after acquisition of land

Each PAF owning agricultural land in this affected zone and who consequently become landless, marginal farmer (or continues to be a marginal farmer even after acquisition), small farmer (or continues to be a small farmer even after acquisition) shall get one time financial assistance equivalent to 750 days, 500 days and 375 day respectively minimum agricultural wages for loss of livelihood if no land is allotted in lieu of acquired land.

Allotment of Government land to PAFs, who become Small, or Marginal farmers or Landless after acquisition in lieu of Acquired land:

In case of allotment of waste/ degraded or agricultural Government land, if available within the District, in lieu of acquired land and if agreed by PAF for allotment of such land, each such PAF shall also get financial assistance of Rs.10, 000 per hectare or as fixed by Government from time to time for land development and in case of allotment of agricultural land, Rs.5, 000 per PAF or as fixed by Government from time to time for agricultural production shall be given. However such allotment of Government land will be restricted to an extent of land acquired from PAF or 2.5 Ha of dry or 1.25Ha wet land whichever is lesser. Provided further that in such cases,

- (a) No compensation will be payable for the lands acquired from the PAF for the Project, to the extent of Government land is allotted.
- (b) No ex gratia will be payable for the lands resumed from PAF for the project, to the extent of Government land is allotted.

Land Acquisition officer shall pass the award for the lands acquired or resumed from PAF accordingly.

Source: Government of Andhra Pradesh (2005)

According to the policy, the people of Kotha-Kondapuram displaced in the year 1998 (exactly 17 years back), received 2 acres of land each in the colony. The people of this village predominantly belonged to Koya tribe who used to live together. Besides agriculture, they used to earn their livelihood from the nearby forest. They used to collect NTFP mainly *tendu* leave, *mahua* flower, honey and tamarind from the forest. Firewood used to be not a problem at all. Keeping aside enough for their own use, they used to sale the surplus in the local areas. The people used to rear cattle to earn their livelihood which was also one of the major forest based source of income. But in the present situation, there is no forest in the vicinity of the rehabilitation colony. Therefore, people are deprived of using the forest and its resources. In the case of Kotha Kondapuram, each household was provided with 2 acres of land besides a small piece of homestead land. Apart from that, they received comparatively a meagre amount of compensation for the old land and homestead.

Based on our field survey, it has been learnt that the displaced people have been provided with low productivity land. Given that the oustees are mainly small peasants, they have not been provided with even minimum amount of capital and inputs to increase their crop yield in the resettlement colonies which is equivalent to the crop yield that they used to harvest prior to displacement. It is also observed that a large number of people are unhappy with the quality of the land. Another major problem faced by the displaced people is the distribution of scattered land. The lands are not concentrated at one place. In some cases, people have been provided with

2 acres of land located at 5 different places. This is quite difficult for a single person to take care of each piece of land at the same time.

**Box 3: Mr. Yerraiah Kalam from Kotha-Kondapuram village –
“They took my 10 acres land and gave me only 2 acres”**

This is Mr. Yerraiah Kalam (Koya tribe) from Kotha Kondapuram rehabilitation colony of Singareni project. Pata Kondapuram was my old village where I possessed 10 acres of cultivable land. My family and I worked on the field and our days were passing happily. I had 6 cows and 11 goats. I used to take my livestock to the nearby forest to feed them. There was no problem I ever faced in my old village. A strong social cohesion was established among the villagers. Suddenly, one day, the villagers started talking about the project and certain possibilities of loss of land. I got scared about my future. Thereafter, they started talking about alternative land for the land losers. I was under shock when I was told that I would be given 2 acres of land in lieu of my 10 acres of land. I found it absolutely illogical. What was the base of this? I kept on asking a number of people and eventually felt like helpless. Finally, I accepted whatever they offered me. The 2 acres of land I was provided was un-irrigated and of low quality. Apart from that, the new land was situated 5 kms away from my village. I am not in a position to cultivate the entire 2 acres of land because of its quality. The money I received from them was not enough to even construct a small house. I heard that a few people received money even for the construction of toilet. I did not know that. When enquired, I was told that the compensation amount I received was inclusive of all the components. I even could not get a proper toilet built in my house and therefore even now we are depending upon open defecation. Now, I don't have anything except this poor quality and un-irrigated land. I am 65 and my wife is 60. Both of us are working as daily wage labourer. I could not help send my 3 sons go to school and now they are also working as daily wage labourers. My family and I are made highly vulnerable by this project.

Srirangapuram is the other village mostly inhabited by scheduled caste households. Basically, they were the residents of Warangal and Nalgonda districts. They had migrated to this village nearly about 30 years ago following an oral agreement with the local tribal. Initially, they used to cultivate the land of the tribal. Gradually, they bought homestead land and built houses for themselves on it. These houses were very much closer to the mines and therefore affected by the blasting of it. So, they received compensation from the mine for the maintenance of their houses. However, owing to the expansion of the mines, they were made victims of displacement for the second time. However, since they were cultivating the lands of tribal people, they were ineligible for any kind of compensation for land, though they received a meagre amount for their homestead land. According to Government of Andhra Pradesh (2009), a provision of cash grant of Rs. 53,000 for house construction and Rs. 55,000 for developing a house site for the people losing their houses. The people moved to a nearby village called Shantinagar and are earning their livelihood by cultivating their land.

Kommugudem and Dharapadu are the other two villages under this study. The tribal people of Kommugudem village were promised jobs in the project. Apart from that, some people even received assurance letters from the project authorities. However, they are still waiting for the

joining order. On the other hand, nobody received any sort of compensation or any promise of employment in the project at the Dharapadu village. But it was good to learn that the government was establishing a colony for the people within a kilometre distance from their old village. Once it gets completed, the villagers will move to that colony. Table 6 presents a consolidated land ownership status of the households studied in the 4 villages.

Table 6: Land Holding Pattern of Singareni

Household Category	Caste											
	ST				SC				TOTAL			
	Before		After		Before		After		Before		After	
	No	Area	No	Area	No	Area	No	Area	No	Area	No	Area
(i) Landless	43	-	46	-	16	-	18	-	59	-	64	-
(ii) Marginal	19 (19.2)	8.77	25 (17.6)	6.80	15 (42.9)	14.00	14 (42.4)	14.00	34 (25.4)	22.77	39 (30.2)	20.80
(iii) Small	14 (14.1)	25.30	37 (38.5)	71.50	17 (48.6)	31.05	16 (48.5)	29.05	31 (23.1)	56.35	53 (41.1)	100.55
(iv) Medium	24 (24.2)	93.45	15 (15.6)	57.70	3	9.00	2 (6.1)	6.00	27 (20.1)	102.45	17 (13.2)	63.70
(v) Large	42 (42.4)	435.17	19 (19.8)	193.40	-	-	1 (3.0)	6.00	42 (31.3)	435.17	20 (15.5)	199.40
Total HH with land	99 (100)	562.69	96 (100)	329.40	35 (100)	54.05	33 (100)	55.05	134 (100)	616.74	129 (100)	384.45
Total Sample HH	142		142	---	51	---	51	---	193	-	193	-
Average size of Holding	5.68		3.43		1.54		1.67		4.60		2.98	

Source: Field Survey

It is clearly observed from the Table 6 that 31% of the total numbers of sample households were landless before displacement. Out of the total sample population, 43 landless households belonged to ST category and the remaining belonged to SC community. These people neither owned any land nor implements, thus earning their livelihood by selling their labour. From the total surveyed households, 31.3% were large farmers (42.4% from ST and one household from SC community). Generally, these large farmers get their lands cultivated by the help of permanent labourers and casual labourers who directly participate in the physical production process. These labourers generally do not sell their labour to other peasants. Nevertheless, marginalisation occurs when families lose their economic power and slide on a “downward morbidity” path. It is also true that many individuals are unlikely to use their previous skills at a new location thereby losing human capital and eventually become inactive. The coerciveness of displacement also depreciates the image itself. Marginalisation materializes also in a drop in social status and in a psychological downward slide of resettlers’ confidence in society and self, a sense of injustice, a premise of anomic behaviour. Relative economic marginalisation begins

long before actual displacement, because of disinvestments and no investment in infrastructure and services in condemned areas (Cernea, 1997).

It is evident from Table 6 that 55% of the ST large farmers and the only SC large farmer have lost their status because displacement left only 19 ST farmers and none from the SC community as large farmers. A sharp increase in the number of landless households (59 to 64), marginal (34 to 39) and small farmers (31 to 53), can be seen after displacement. On the other hand, a decline in the large (42 to 20) and medium farmers (27 to 17) can also be noticed.

The survey revealed that a few people knew about the valuation of process of the land and the rest of them were completely ignorant. A great deal of people were confused with the acquisition and distribution of 2 acres of land in lieu of their land. They tried their best to know about it by asking their fellow villagers, local leaders like the Sarpanch, and the project officers, but all in vain. None of them clarified their doubts. However, the consultation process was also found to be skewed in the nature. Apart from that, the people had to lost part of larger patches of land only because they were not clear about the valuation method. The policy provided several components under which the compensation amount was being paid. Hardly is there anybody aware of those components till today. There was a provision of Rs 3000 (though a meagre amount) for the construction of toilet but a great number of households did not know about it. All of them received only one time cash assistance for the land. However, whatever amount they were offered, it was a huge amount for those simple and innocent tribal people who used to depend largely on the forest economy for their survival apart from agriculture.

In addition to this, it was observed that there was a gap between the date of 4 (1) acquisition and the date of final payment. Our data were largely from two villages (Kondapuram and Dharapadu). Table 7 offers the details of the analysis of land acquisition process in the above two of the study villages.

Table 7: Land Acquisition Process in the Study Villages

S. No	Name of the villages	Date of 4 (1) Notification	Date of Payment
1	Kondapuram	1995	1998
2	Dharapadu	2010, 2011, 2012	2010, 2011, 1012, 2013

Source: Informal discussions with village leaders

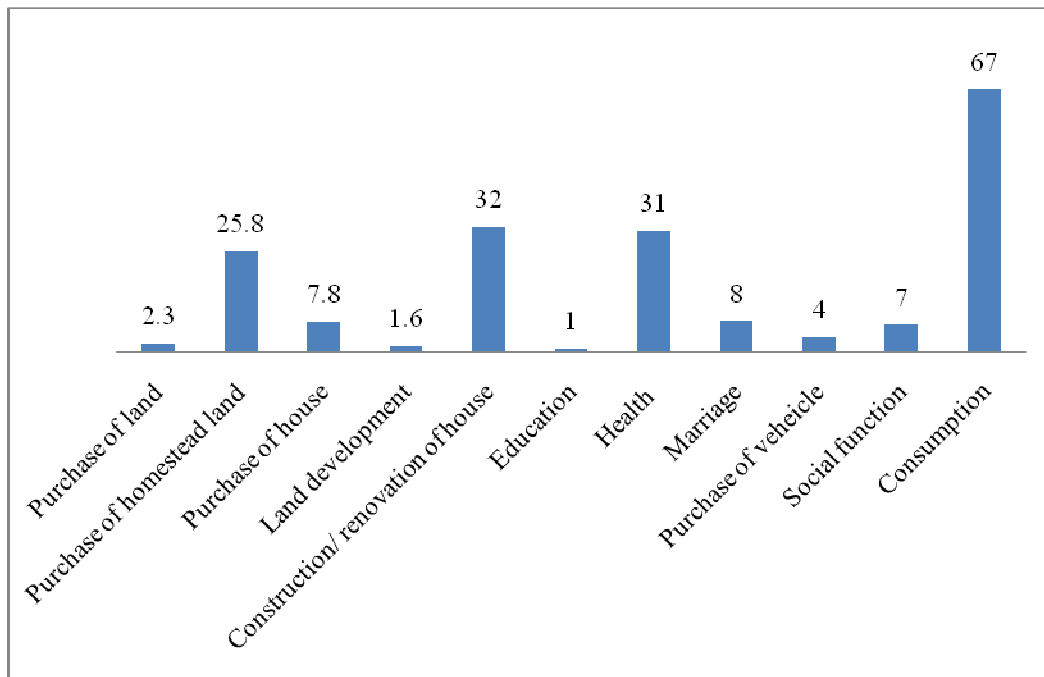
It was only a marginal 12.9% of the total household presented their grievances before the land acquisition officer (LAO) or collector. Poor knowledge of the community about the land acquisition procedure was found to be only reason for this. There was a gap of minimum 2 to 4

years found in all the above cases. This gap period was the toughest time for the displaced people because they had neither any savings nor any other alternative source of income. Apart from that, they were technically not supposed to do any productive work after they received the 4(1) notification.

4.3.1 Compensation and Pattern of Utilization

The displaced people used the compensation money for a number of different purposes namely, (i) purchase of agriculture land; (ii) purchase of homestead land; (iii) purchase of house; (iv) construction or renovation of house; (v) invested in business; (vi) education; (vii) health; (viii) saving; and (ix) consumption. Figure 1 shows that a majority of people or households (67%) spent their whole amount in consumption.

Figure 1: Spending of the Compensation Money



Source: Field Survey

5. Impact Assessment

5.1 Inequality among the displaced people

Table 8 presents a visible difference among the people on the basis of their annual income. Even before displacement, there was a clear cut difference existing among the people according to the possession of land (since they belonged to different land strata). Before displacement, there was an equal right of all the family members over the joint property of the family they inherited from their forefathers. Generally, the ST people were highly dependent upon their land

and forest for their survival. Apart from this, a barter economy used to exist within the communities before the displacement in which people used to exchange their produce between each other. However after displacement, the people who received the land, started cultivation on their land (though it was very meagre), whereas the same was not true for the others who did not receive any land in lieu of their land. In Kotha-Kondapuram, all the people except 30 households lost their lands and even more they did not have any accessibility to the forest. It squeezed their income sources to a greater extent. However, the SC households also basically relied upon the tribal land for earning their livelihood. Therefore, there was not much variation in the income distribution pattern. The study used the statistical tool coefficient of variation to test the variability of income of different categories of people.

5.1.1 Coefficient of Variation

Table 8 shows that the CV of ST households has increased to a greater extent owing to the land acquisition. In the present scenario, some households are earning huge amount of money therefore a big difference was noticed in the pattern. On the other hand, the same is not true in the case of the SC households. Their number is very less. They still cultivate their land. However, they are still afraid of the further expansion of the mines. Losing their land owing to displacement, they are without any asset. Having been devoid of exposure to the market system and lack of scope, they became highly vulnerable. In a nutshell, they are the true victims of the so called development.

Table 8: Income Differential of Different Categories of Households

S. No	Caste	Number of Households	Mean Annual Average Income		Coefficient of Variation	
			Before	After	Before	After
1	ST	142	55322	60656	85	180
2	SC	51	54052	59199	66	76
Total		193	54986	60271	84	172

Income is estimated at 2004-05 constant prices

Source: Field Survey

5.2 Joblessness

The present study has taken four indicators to assess to what extent joblessness has been tackled and affected the impoverishment of the displaced people in the relocated sites. Table 9 has the details.

Table 9: Status of Livelihood

S. No	Parameters	Status	
		Before	After
1	Average Number of Days a man gets work	300 days	300 days
2	Per cent of households cultivating their own land	61.1	48.2
4	Per cent of households engaged in unskilled wage work	12.4	27.5
5	Farm wage earners	17.1	16.1

Source: Field Survey

The same exercise has been tried out alternatively with a reference to gender. The reduction in the number of days of work from more than 180 days to 120 days has brought a great change in the working lives of women. Similarly, the distance of workplace has also increased on an average from 2 km to more than 6 km. Even though wage is paid in time, it never matches with their male counterparts (Table 10).

Table 10: Status of Livelihood with a Gender Glance

S. No	Parameters	Status	
		Before	After
1	Average Number of Days a woman gets work	> 180 days	120 days
2	Average distance of Work Place (in km)	02	7 to 8
4	Women are paid on Time	Yes	Yes
5	Women get wage rate equal with male	No	No

Source: Field Survey

5.3 Homelessness

After displacement, an immense change has been seen in the size of the homestead land of the displaced people of Singareni project. Homestead land measuring less than 500 sq. ft. has been increased more than 5%. However, the percentage of the plots measuring more than 1500 sq. ft. has decreased from 86% to 78.8%.

A significant change has been observed in the size of the constructed area, with the percentage of houses measuring less than 500 sq. ft., between 500-1000 sq. ft and between 1001 to 1500 sq. ft. rising from 11.4% to 17.6%, 8.8% to 21.2% and 36.3% to 37.3% respectively. On the other hand, there is a fall noticed of the percentage of houses measuring more than 1500 sq. ft. from 43.5% to 23.8%.

A slight change can be seen in the number of rooms. The percentage of houses with one room and two rooms increased from 16.6% to 17.6% and 60.1% to 76.2% respectively. However, the houses having more than two rooms fell from 23.3% to 6.2%.

Almost all the houses were earthen floored before displacement and about 51.3% have remained the same after displacement. The number of houses with cement flooring rose from 6.7% to 43.3%, including the houses with tile and marble flooring.

The percentage of thatch and tile roofed houses decreased from 78.8% to 50.8% and from 6.7% to 5.2% respectively. After the project, the percentage of houses with RCC roofing rose from 9.8% to 29.5%. Very few houses had asbestos roofs before displacement, whereas after displacement, about 13.5% houses had asbestos roof (Table 11).

Table 11: Dwelling Conditions among the Displaced Households-Singareni, Collieries

S. No	Indicators	Status	
		Pre	Post
1	Area of Homestead plot (sq.ft)		
	< 500 sq ft	14.0	19.2
	500- 1000 sq ft	-	-
	1001-1500 sq ft	-	2.0
	> 1500 sq ft	86.0	78.8
2	Construction area (sq. ft)		
	< 500 sq ft	11.4	17.6
	500- 1000 sq ft	8.8	21.2
	1001-1500 sq ft	36.3	37.3
	> 1500 sq ft	43.5	23.8
3	Per cent of hh having one room house	16.6	17.6
4	Per cent of hh having two room house	60.1	76.2
5	Per cent of hh having more than two room house	23.3	6.2
6	Per cent of hh having		
	Earthen floor	90.2	51.3
	Cement floor	6.7	43.3
	Tile floor	2.1	3.1
	Marble floor	1.0	2.1
	Other floor	-	0.5
7	Per cent of hh having		
	Thatched roof	78.8	50.8
	RCC roof	9.8	29.5
	Tile roof	6.7	5.2
	Asbestos roof	4.1	13.5
	Tin roof	0.5	1.0
	Other	-	-
8	Per cent of households having electricity		
	ST	54.9	45.1
	SC	80.4	92.2
	OBC	-	-
	OC	-	-
	Total	61.7	57.5

Source: Field Survey

5.4 Social Disarticulation among the people

Some of the social practices have been stopped among the displaced people. For instance, there is a deviation in the marriage distance. Earlier, they performed marriages within a distance range of 10 kms., but now the range is increased to more than 25 kms. At times, this range is likely to go up to 50 kms. However, the distance of the place of worship has remained almost unchanged (sometimes outside the village). However among the displaced families, the function celebrated before displacement were Teej, Holi, Fire festival, Samakka sarakka, Vijji pandum, Kondala kolupu, Ugadi, Rakhi, Naga panchami, Dasra, and Deepawali. These functions are not homogenously celebrated by all the people. People also seem to be losing interest in certain folk practices, such as Kommu koya (Table 12).

Table 12: Social Disarticulation among the Displaced Households

S. No	Parameters	Cultural Practices	
		Before Displacement	After Displacement
1	Average Marriage Distance	Within 10 km	25-50 km
2	Worship/ Prayer	Within village	Within village, sometimes outside the village
3	Celebration of Function	Teej, Holi, Fire festival, Samakka Sarakka, Vijji pandum, kondala kolupu, Ugadi, Rakhi, Naga Panchami, Dasara, Deepawali	These functions are not homogenously celebrated by all the people
4	Any folk practices	Kommu koya, koya dance, Lambadi dance	Koya dance, Lambadi dance

Source: Field Survey

5.5 Structure of the Family

Social stability is closely associated with the structure of a family. A person who comes from a joint family system is considered to be more stable. It is only a joint family structure which can ensure mutual cooperation, assistance and support during an urgent need. Table 13 presents the nature of families before and after the displacement of the study village:

Table 13: Structure of the Family

S No	Caste	Total HH	Nuclear Families		Joint Families		Per cent of Joint families	
			Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	ST	142	100	138	42	04	30.0	2.8
2	SC	51	27	49	24	02	47.1	3.9
Total		193	127	187	66	06	34.2	3.1

Source: Field Survey

Table 13 shows that before displacement, 30% of the ST and 47.1% of the SC had joint families, but after displacement, its percentage reduced to 2.8 and 3.9 respectively. Therefore, it is quite clear that the social cohesion between the family members is badly affected because of displacement.

5.6 Loss of Access to Common Property Resources

From the Table 14, we get a general idea of the substantial loss of common property in comparison with the pre-displaced situation (except grazing land). Before displacement, almost every household had access to grazing land, but after displacement, this accessibility had been restricted. Though in the previous villages a specific place was demarcated for burial ground, in the new location nothing of such arrangement is made. Therefore, people are using their own land for cremation of dead bodies. Moreover, while forest was freely accessible in the old villages, in the new colonies, there is hardly any forest existing.

Table 14: Common Property Resources

S. No	HH category	No of HH	Per cent of HH having access to grazing land		HH having access to forest		Families having access to burial ground	
			Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	ST	142	100	86.3	Easily accessible	Accessibility has been restricted	There was common burial ground	There is not a specific place for this
2	SC	51	100	89.0				
Total		193	100	87.0				

Source: Field Survey

Rainfall was very scanty during the last few years before the study. Its cumulative effect can be seen in the form of absence of grass and pasture and failure of crop. That is why, paddy stalk, which is a staple food for the cattle is no more available in the rehabilitated villages (Table 15).

Table 15: Fodder Sources and Terms of Access

S.No	Fodder Sources	Terms of access		
		Before	After	Drought period
1	Field/ waste	Free	Restricted	Failed
2	Grass	Free	Controlled	Failed
3	Paddy stalk	Free	Controlled	Failed
4	Harvest field	Free	Restricted	Failed

Source: Field Survey

5.7 Health Hazard

Out of the total 193 surveyed households, more than 90% households complained about health issues during the last one year. The villages adjacent to the mining areas complain about the transportation of coal rather than mining because it pollutes more. While loading and unloading of coal, the dust particles blow away by air and mix with water and air to cause pollution. This not only affects the villages nearby mining areas, but also the neighbouring villages. Water-borne diseases like skin diseases, arthritis, and joint pains are some of the diseases the villagers suffer from. Apart from that, they also suffer from a number of air-borne diseases such as eyes infection, arthritis, malaria, cold, and fever. Diseases like eyes infection, skin diseases, malaria, gastro intestinal disease, arthritis, fever, and asthma are commonly found diseases in these villages (Table 16).

Table 16: Health Hazard

S. No	Indicators		Responses
1	Major type of diseases among the people	Among old people	Malaria, Dengue, Eye allergy, BP, Arthritis, joint pain, cold, TB
		Among people (1-15 age group)	Malaria and cold
3	People getting treatment from	Facilities	Households (%)
		Govt. doctor	16.39
		Private doctor	83.61
4	Toilet Habit	Places	Households (%)
		Open defecation	Before: 92.2 After: 79.3
		Community Toilet	Before: 2.6 After: 1.6
		Own toilet	Before: 5.2 After: 19.1
5	Source of Drinking Water	Sources	Households (%)
		Community Tube Well	Before: 29.2 After: 40.9
		Own Tube well	Before: 21.4 After: 20.2
		Own Well	Before: 2.1 After: 5.7
		Community Well	Before: 21.1 After: 9.8
		Others	Before: 26.2 After: 23.4

Source: Field Survey

Table 16 reveals that a great number of households depend upon the private medical facilities. We found two major reasons for this: (i) No one else, except the parents of the employee is entertained the medical facilities; (ii) most of the times the medical staff are not efficient enough for diagnosis of the diseases. Therefore, these people depend upon private medical facilities so much which incur them huge amount of money. Besides this, the sources of drinking water and the toilet habit also are two important determinants of the health status of the people.

The main sources of water for the displaced people of the Singareni project are community tube wells with 40.9% of the people collecting water from them. The number of people using tube wells has decreased from 21.4% to 20.2%. Open defecation used to be a problem earlier, but now it also has gone down from 92.2% to 79.3%. 19.1% and 1.6 % are using their own toilets and community toilets respectively (Table 16).

5.8 Food Insecurity

The villagers used to cultivate rice in both the seasons - Kharif and Rabi, before displacement. But now, they are cultivating only in kharif season in their 2 acres of land. The harvest also has reduced to a greater extent. The affected people were compensated with less fertile land. Apart from that, pollution and coal dust are adding to their miseries in terms of low productivity from the land. All kinds of vegetables they used to grow were sufficient to meet the food needs of the entire family. The surplus used to be sold at the local market. But now, in the changed situation, they have to depend on the local market for everything.

6. Awareness about Institutional Mechanisms

The present study attempted to fathom the awareness level of the displacement victims on the institutional mechanisms. A major conclusion we drew from this survey that very few displaced people had knowledge about the Singareni project rehabilitation policy. However, most of them were confused about certain components and their implementation. As a result, even till now, they are struggling for their compensation. Chapter VI-A of the Rehabilitation Policy contains the Social Impact Assessment (SIA) component of the study (Box 4).

Box 4: Rehabilitation Policy of Government of Andhra Pradesh and SIA

- Where it is required as per the provisions of any law, rules, regulations or guidelines to undertake environmental impact assessment also, the SIA study shall be carried out simultaneously with the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) study.
- In cases where both EIA and SIA are required, the public hearing done in the project affected area for EIA shall also cover issues related to SIA. Such public hearing shall be organised by the appropriate Government.
- Where there is no requirement for EIA, the SIA report shall be made available to the public through public hearing to be organised by the appropriate Government in the affected area.
- The SIA report shall be examined by an independent multi-disciplinary expert group constituted for the purpose by the 'appropriate Government. Two non-official social science and rehabilitation expert, the Secretary/Secretaries of the department(s) concerned with the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the appropriate Government or his (their) representative(s), and a representative of the requiring body shall be nominated by the appropriate Government to serve on this expert group.

Source: Government of Andhra Pradesh (2005)

Quite interestingly, from the clauses of the policy, it is evident that SIA is not a separate task. It is a part of the EIA as EIA is supposed to cover issues related to SIA in the public hearings. In the second place, the “independent multi-disciplinary expert group” is mentioned in the policy document. According to the document, the members of the expert group should be: two non-official social science and rehabilitation expert, the Secretary/Secretaries of the department(s) concerned with the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the appropriate Government or his (their) representative(s), and a representative of the requiring body by the appropriate Government. However, though the SIA which was meant for the “mining communities”, it is quite surprising that there was no representative from these communities. Here, from the very first step to tackle the consequences of development, the process was found to be skewed. Outsiders cannot realize the plight of a community.

When enquired about SIA and its procedure followed by the project authorities, they shared their ignorance about it. There was no existence of “Negotiation” with the displaced people the entire process and the only factor attributed for this was the asymmetry of information at various levels. None of the community members had any idea of the rehabilitation policy and its various components, the socio-economic survey and the various related issues associated with it.

7. Factors influencing the Resettlement Outcome

The different factors that influence the resettlement outcome for the people in Singareni Colliery, Khammam, Telangana are as follows:

Table 17: Factors influencing Resettlement Outcomes

S. No	Factors	Perception of the Households (%)
1	Proper implementation of rehabilitation policy	100.0
2	Coverage of all socio-economic indicators through SIA	100.0
3	Socio-cultural aspect	94.8
4	Caste	92.6
5	Poverty level	86.3
6	Leadership quality	98.4
7	Benefit sharing mechanisms	91.2
8	Awareness	100.0
9	Early and proper notification	63.2
10	Education	88.7
11	Land ownership	32.1
12	Community organization	14.7

Source: Field Survey

Proper implementation of rehabilitation policy, coverage of all socio-economic indicators through SIA and awareness are the most important perceived factors, influencing the resettlement outcomes. As discussed earlier in this chapter, very few people were aware about the policy and hence benefit sharing mechanisms. According to 88.7% of the households, achieving of education is one of the important indicators, which will raise the awareness among them. Community organizations were one of the least perceived factors by the people (only 14.7% perceived). Resettlement outcome largely depends upon the leadership quality (the perceived rate is 98.4%). A very interesting thing happened in this present case study is that the villagers of Kommugudem village (one of the study village) revealed that the government promised jobs to these villagers in the project. Some of the people received the letter also. The villagers acknowledged their achievements to the leadership of the PD, ITDA. It is because of his constant effort, this village got this achievement. However the same is not true for other villages. A mismatch between policy intention and practice had been found in other villages. As a result people were very much ignorant about the benefit sharing mechanism. Hence as per 91.2% of the people knowledge about the benefit sharing mechanism is not only a necessary but also a sufficient condition for sound resettlement procedure. Lastly caste and socio-cultural aspects also emerged as two major indicators determining resettlement outcome.

8. Conclusions

This study has attempted to draw attention to a multiplicity of issues related to the side effects of development projects, though in fact, development is intended for growth of a nation. These issues have been addressed through the help of various issues such as, land acquisition, political economy of compensation, livelihood, health, income, social cohesion and etc. Mining community is the only thread that connects all the issues as they feature in the entire discussion. In this context, a pertinent question immediately comes into mind, i.e., what is a sustainable mining community? In this connection, the concept of “equity” and “intergenerational equity” can be thought of to turn a simple development community into a sustainable development community. While Equity refers to equality in terms of quality of life and standard of living, Intergenerational Equity is sustaining equality in the future in a changed situation, which means nobody will have to suffer any sort of misery for the cause of development or change. Let us discuss the mining community which is predominantly featured in the discussion above and their status of sustainability as well.

To begin with the issue of compensation and land, a great number of people were devoid of compensation as they did not possess any land. At this critical point of time, compensation was the only base of the resettlement process. But, our study discovered that there was no trace of equity in the entire process of regulatory mechanism. The same practice has been noticed across all the issues, i.e., health, livelihood, structure of a family, social disarticulation and awareness of the institutional mechanisms. However, in the post-constitution period, the practices in terms of policies, acts, rules and schemes have been increased. The investment of material and intellectual properties is also found to have increased manifold. Notwithstanding increased policies and acts, the outcome is not up to the expectation mark and the reason being the status of the development communities not have changed as expected. Still they are in the same condition in which they were 60 years ago. Throughout the course of the study, we find that there is a weaker link between the community and the state in terms of participation in the development process, the capacity to negotiate with the state to determine the level of acceptance and so on. Furthermore, the term “consultation” is nothing but arbitrarily passing the information to the people about the project. Even the communities do not have any right to say “no” to the project. It means that the “consent” of the people does not have any role to play in the process of “consultation”. As per the views of the mining communities, consultation is a composite term which possesses the cumulative impact of two important factors: (i) right to consent about the project; and (ii) possession of bargaining power over their economy (both for land-owning and landless people). Apart from this, there were two other issues came out from the discussions with the communities: (i) proper implementation of the policy keeping equity as the major objective; and (ii) effective monitoring and evaluation of the process. Needless to mention that the present monitoring system is highly outdated. And also, it is not an inbuilt process within the process. Therefore a need for creating a system arises which will negotiate with the state after exploring how community perception and concerns reflect in the development policy in India and what mechanisms are required to be evolved to make the current policies sustainable with special focus on social justice and equity.

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Housing for the Urban Poor: A Study of Slums in Hyderabad City

Ch. Shankar Rao

Abstract

Slums have been an integral part of the Hyderabad city for decades. The slum population constitutes a significant share in total urban population in the city (32.7% in 2011) and has been growing much faster than the non-slum urban population. Despite several slum development programmes, the conditions of housing and other amenities in the slums of Hyderabad have not adequately improved. This paper studies the conditions of housing and other amenities in slums/bastis of Hyderabad city, using Census and NSSO data for macro analysis and uses primary data from a field survey in 22 sample slums for micro household level analysis. The most disadvantaged groups are Muslim BCs, SCs and STs; and those with lower levels of formal education and engaged in sanitation work, rag picking, rickshaw pulling, domestic work, casual labour and construction work who live mostly in non-notified slums. The income level does not have any effect on housing and other amenities because it is very low in all households in the slums. The structure and ownership of house determines the accessibility of other amenities. This study suggests (a) that housing be recognised as a justiciable fundamental right; (b) notification of all officially recognised slums that creates the legal base for the realisation of right to housing and access to other amenities;(c) governmental responsibility for provision of all amenities in slums; (d) prioritisation of housing needs of the most vulnerable social/occupational groups.

Author

Ch. Shankar Rao is Assistant Professor, Council for Social Development, Hyderabad.

Housing for the Urban Poor: A Study of Slums in Hyderabad City

Ch. Shankar Rao

1. Introduction

Housing and related amenities are the basic social conditions that determine the quality of life and welfare of people. Where homes are located, how well they are designed and built, and how well they are woven into the environmental, social, cultural and economic fabric of communities are factors that, in a very real way, influence the daily lives of people, their health, security and wellbeing. Given the long life of dwellings as physical structures, quality of housing affects both the present and future generations, making housing central to sustainable development.

According to UN Habitat Agenda, sustainable, affordable housing may be considered as an extension of adequate shelter for all -- that means more than a roof over one's head: adequate privacy; adequate space; physical accessibility; adequate security; security of tenure; structural stability and reliability; adequate lighting, heating and ventilation; adequate basic infrastructure, such as water supply, sanitation and waste-management facilities; suitable environmental quality and health-related factors; and adequate and accessible location with regard to work and basic facilities -- all of which should be available at an affordable cost. The conditions of slum dwellers in this respect are deplorable.

Rapid urbanisation mounted strain on housing and serviced land in urban settings across the world. It is estimated that by 2030, about 3 billion people, or about 40 % of the world's population, will need proper housing and access to basic infrastructure and services such as water and sanitation systems. The failure of urban planning in matching the increasing demand for homes has resulted in a huge housing deficit that has led to the development of slums in a variety of contexts globally. Slums are a clear manifestation of a poorly planned and managed urban sector and, in particular, a malfunctioning housing sector. UN-Habitat notes that the most insecure urban residents are the world's 1 billion poor people living in slums. More than 930 million slum-dwellers live in developing countries, where they constitute 42 % of the urban population.

Each day a further 120,000 people are added to the populations of Asian cities, requiring the construction of at least 20,000 new dwellings and supporting infrastructure. Fifty-five million new slum dwellers have been added to the global population since 2000 (UN-Habitat 2001). United Nations estimates indicate that over one billion people are inadequately housed and approximately 100 million people worldwide are without a place to live. U.N. Millennium Development Goals (2000) aims at achieving significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2010. It seeks the commitment of Member States to improve the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2020. In furtherance of this commitment, the New National Urban Housing and Habitat Policy of India 2007 emphasises on ways and means of providing the 'Affordable Housing to All' with special emphasis on the Economically Weaker Sections (EWS) and Low Income Groups (LIG) sectors. Also slums are the first settlements and the engine of work survives in them. The people of slums transform the land, transform products and transform lives (Roy, Dhanu 2015).

According to Census 2011, in India, over 65 million or 17.4% of total population lives in slums. The united Andhra Pradesh (currently the states of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh) occupied the first place among the top 5 slum populated states in India with 35.8% of urban households in the state living in slums, followed by Chhattisgarh (32%), Madhya Pradesh (28.3), West Bengal (22%) and Odisha (23.2). Hyderabad, the city with the largest population and the state capital, has a larger share of slum population i.e. 32% of total households (523416) or 32.7% of total population (2356747). Greater Hyderabad covers an area of 650 square kilometers and the total slum area is 80.45 km which is 12% of the total GHMC area. There are 1476 slums in the city out of which 1179 are notified and 297 are non-notified. Of the total number of households in the slums, 66% live in 985 slums in the "core" of the city and the remaining 34% live in 491 suburban tenements. Slums have been an integral part of the Hyderabad city for a long time and have now become an integral part of the urban system. Slums in HUA are located on state government, municipal and quasi government land, Abadi land, central government land, private land and unclaimed land. The spatial distribution of the slums in the city is quite sporadic and scattered all across the city. The concentration of slum settlements is generally more near (a) railway lines; (b) Musi River; (c) nallas flowing into either Musi river or Hussain Sagar lake; and (d) other water bodies (GHMC Survey 2009-10).

Despite of plethora of slum development programs like Two Million Housing Programme, Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana, Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission, City Development Plan, Basic Services for the Urban Poor, Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme, Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana and National Slum Development Programme (see Appendix I), the conditions of housing and other amenities in the slums of Hyderabad have not adequately improved. Against this background, this paper presents findings of a comprehensive study on the conditions of housing and other amenities in slums/bastis (which is traditionally used local term for slum) of Hyderabad city – a subject unexplored in studies on the city to date.

This study is based on three data sources - Census, National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) and primary data from a field survey. Although Census and NSSO provide data on slum conditions, these two cannot be comparable as they follow different definitions of slums (see Appendix II). The NSSO data is based on slum as a unit but not based on household level. Though the census data is available at household level, but it is not available into different socio economic categories such as religion, caste, gender, income, occupation and education. The field survey was conducted to bridge this gap of household level analysis of housing and related amenities in slums of Hyderabad. A total of 2945 sample households were surveyed from 22 slums or bastis in the city (Table 1). Purposive sampling method was followed for slum selection and the simple random sampling method was followed for the household selection. Apart from individual household survey, the survey also collected information from group discussions, interviews with concerned local government officials and from NGOs.

In the primary data analysis, the study has considered eight key dependent variables of housing and related amenities: (i) structure of house; (ii) ownership of house; (iii) drainage; (iv) source of drinking water; (v) type of toilet; (vi) garbage disposal facility; (vii) source of cooking fuel; (viii) source of lighting. The accessibility of these key dependent variables are explained in terms of several explanatory variables such as status of slum (notified or non-notified), religion, caste, gender, occupation, education of head of households and household income. Households have

been classified as Below Poverty Line (BPL) and Above Poverty Line (APL) income groups.¹ Basic statistics and cross tabulation with chi-square test were used for the empirical analysis.

The findings are presented in six sections. After the introduction in the section one, section two briefly examines international literature on the right to housing; section three looks at NSSO data on Hyderabad slums; section four examines Census of India data on Hyderabad slums; section 5 presents the findings of the field study conducted in 22 slums in Hyderabad city; section 6 is the conclusion.

2. Situating the Right to Housing

“As long as the capitalist mode of production continues to exist, it is folly to hope for an isolated solution of the housing question or of any other social question affecting the fate of the workers. The solution lies in the abolition of the capitalist mode of production and the appropriation of all the means of life and labor by the working class itself” (Engels 1872).

Although the statement that housing is a right may seem straightforward, it is not. The conceptual work in this area is rooted in a Marxist tradition and includes critical urban theory (Brenner et al. 2012) - which goes beyond the issue of housing to make a case for the right to the city - and political economy theory (Bratt et al. 2006), which is more closely in dialogue with politics and policy. Don Mitchell (2003) points out that the right to the city manifests itself as a superior form of right a right to freedom, to individualisation in socialisation, to habitat, and to inhabit. The right to housing is one form of appropriation of the city and very different from a right to property (Shailesh Gandhi 2007).

There is increasing recognition that housing comprises much more than physical shelter, and must include “such diverse factors as health, security, privacy, neighborhood and social relations, status, community facilities and services, access to jobs, and control over the environment. Being ill-housed can mean deprivation along any of these dimensions” (Pynoos et al 1973). Du Bois opens out yet another dimension when he says, “the size and arrangements of a people’s homes

¹ As per Rangarajan Committee report, the Urban BPL (Below Poverty Line) for undivided Andhra Pradesh was set as per capita monthly income (PCMI) of RS 1370.84 in 2011-12 prices. We have calculated the inflation adjusted BPL line for survey time period 2014 by using urban CPI (Consumer Price Index) at base 2012. Hence the inflation adjusted BPL line for urban area in Telangana is PCMP of Rs 1770.

are fair index of their condition”— especially in terms of where they are situated in a stratified society (Du Bois 2007). Hartman (2006) bases the right to housing on a normative call for justice; on a practical analysis of the harms borne by people facing severe housing problems and the consequent costs to society; and, finally, on the threat to democracy that exists when people’s basic needs are not met.

Adequate housing was recognized as part of the right to an adequate standard of living in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Other international human rights treaties have since recognized or referred to the right to adequate housing. The United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights has underlined that the right to adequate housing should not be interpreted narrowly. Rather, it should be seen as the right to live somewhere in security, peace and dignity. The right to adequate housing contains entitlements such as security of tenure; housing, land and property restitution; equal and non-discriminatory access to adequate housing; participation in housing-related decision-making at the national and community levels.

Violation of the right to adequate housing may affect the enjoyment of a wide range of other human rights and vice versa. Access to adequate housing can be a precondition for the enjoyment of several human rights, including the rights to work, health, social security, vote, privacy or education. The possibility of earning a living can be seriously impaired when a person has been relocated following a forced eviction to a place removed from employment opportunities. Without proof of residency, homeless persons may not be able to vote, enjoy social services or receive health care. Schools may refuse to register slum children because their settlements have no official status. Inadequate housing can have repercussions on the right to health; for instance, if houses and settlements have limited or no safe drinking water and sanitation, their residents may fall seriously ill. The lack of affordable housing especially places poor people in the impossible position of having basic of human necessities: food, health care, clothing, and so on (Gomez and Theile 2005). Inadequate sanitation imposes human and social handicaps on poor people, especially women (Sharma et. al. 2015). The problem of inadequate access to toilets assumes a serious dimension when it comes to the immense difficulties faced by women and this translates directly into chronic morbidity and negative outcomes such as stunted growth, and diarrhoeal and urinary tract infections, among other chronic illnesses (Spears and Lamba 2013).

Miloon Kothari, the U.N. Special Rapporteur on housing, has pointed out that while the majority of the world's population lives in some form of dwelling, roughly one half of the world's population does not enjoy the full spectrum of entitlements necessary for housing to be considered adequate (Kothari 2005).

Women represent an important proportion of those who are inadequately housed. They face discrimination in many aspects of housing because they are women, or because of other factors such as poverty, age, class, sexual orientation or ethnicity. Women's enjoyment of the right to adequate housing often depends on their access to and control over land and property. Persons with disabilities generally experience several barriers to the enjoyment of their right to adequate housing. Housing, housing related facilities and neighborhoods are traditionally designed for people without disabilities. The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2008) requires States to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by persons with disabilities, including their right to adequate housing. People on the move -- nomadic communities, migrants, refugees, asylum-seekers, or internally displaced persons (IDPs) -- are particularly vulnerable to a range of human rights violations, including violation of the right to adequate housing. Often many of them are forced to live in overcrowded, insecure, precarious and unsafe conditions in urban slums.

The elements of globalisation are having a significant impact on housing systems, and consequently on housing law, policy, and especially housing rights. Significant developments in housing globalisation are new roles for the state in relation to housing, the reordering of cities and slums, the preoccupation with property registration systems in land and market solutions to housing finance systems. The U.N. Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (UNCESCR 1998) pointed out that the negative impact of globalisation, especially on vulnerable sections of the community, results in the violation of a plethora of rights guaranteed by the Covenants. In particular, the enjoyment of fundamental aspects of the right to life, freedom from cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment and the right to an adequate standard of living (including the right to adequate food, clothing and housing) have been severely impaired. Developing states are, more often than not, compelled by the dynamics of globalisation to take measures that negatively impact on the enjoyment of those rights.

Hall (2006) points out that the forces of globalisation have partly caused and greatly exacerbated the social and physical condition of slum dwellers. Padraic Kenna (2008) has argued that while global economic integration is creating new wealth, the number of homeless or precariously sheltered persons continues to grow.

UN Habitat Global Urban Indicators Database (2002) reveals that there is a wide gap between income groups, within countries and across countries in terms of the availability, affordability and habitability of housing and access to utilities and essential services, ultimately resulting in an increase in the number of people in inadequate housing and living conditions. Slum dwellers being the lower strata income groups, are most vulnerable in this aspect.

3. Conditions of Slums in Hyderabad City

NSSO provides the data on conditions of slums in three rounds at three time periods i.e. 49th (1993), 58th (2002) and 65th (2009).² Majority (92%) of the slums in Hyderabad are less than two hectares. The proportion of notified slums has increased from 53% in 1993 to 72% in 2009 (Table 2). The condition of water logging in slums during monsoons has improved over the decade and a half from 71% in 1993 to 12.4% in 2009. Similarly the condition of water logging in approach roads also has improved during this period. The electricity connection for both streetlights and household use is available for all the slums during this entire period (Table 3).

The structure of houses has improved in slums from more of 'semi-pucca' (59%) in 1993 to more of 'pucca' house (72%) in 2009. But the share of 'pucca' houses has declined by 8 percentile points from 2002 to 2009 and the share of 'unserviceable katcha' houses has increased during this period (Table 4). The condition of roads within slums has deteriorated from 60% of pucca roads in 2002 to 28% in 2009. The data shows that the tap-based drinking water has doubled. The conditions of latrine facility have not improved much during the study period as more than one quarter slums still do not have any latrine and depend on open defecation. The dependency on community latrine has decreased while the use of own latrine has improved (Table 4).

² The 49th and 58th Rounds do not have data separately on Hyderabad district, but they have the data one million plus cities (as per 1991 Census) under stratum 4. In Andhra Pradesh, Hyderabad is the only million plus city as per 1991 Census. By using this criterion, we have analysed the slum data of Hyderabad from these rounds. But the 65th round has separate slum data on Hyderabad district. The data is tabulated based on these three rounds. It shall be noted that the NSS data analysis of slums is based on slum as one unit but not the household. The information is collected from a single informant (male or female) from a slum. Therefore, the results from this data-set shall be understood within these limitations.

Around 28% of slums do not have underground sewerage system where the situation has not improved over the period. Though the underground drainage has improved significantly from 6% in 1993 to 72% in 2009, still a considerable proportion of slums do not have drainage facility (28%). Also same proportion of slums (28%) does not have garbage disposal arrangement; 64% of this facility is provided by government and 8% by residents themselves. The frequency of garbage collection is once in two days in 72% cases in 2009 that has declined from 80% cases in 2002 (Table 4).

The distance to government primary school is within 0.5 km in 64% cases but 0.5 to 1 km in 36% cases in 2009. Whereas in case of government hospital, the distance is 0.5 to 1 km in 68% cases and 1 to 2 km in 32% cases in 2009. The formation of association among slum dwellers for the improving the conditions of the slum has drastically declined from 65% in 1993 to 16.6% in 2009 that shows the deterioration of collective social responsibility in slums over the time (Table 5).

4. Socio-Demographic Profile and Housing Amenities in Hyderabad Slums

Census 2001 provides slum data on only population but 2011 provides for both population and housing amenities of slums. The data shows that the slum population in Hyderabad has increased in all the categories (both in absolute number and its share in total urban population) between two censuses. It must be noted, however, that the total urban population across all categories has shown positive growth from 2001 to 2011. The growth rates of ST population, female workers, male casual labour and marginal (both male and female) have shown highest growth rate but they all have lower base, which means their growth is small in absolute numbers but high in percentage growth rate. The decomposition of growth rates of population in terms of categories reveals the blatant reality of slums. All the population categories especially workers of all types (main & marginal; male & female) in slums have grown much faster than that of non-slums. The share of total slum population to total urban population has increased from 22% in 2001 to 32% in 2011. More or less similar growth is reported in all the categories of population i.e. gender, literacy, number of workers, main workers and non-workers except in case of casual workers where the growth is less than 10 percentile points.

The share of each population category from the total slum population between the two census periods is as follows: the population of SCs, STs and non-literates are relatively high in slums than in non-slums in Hyderabad. The categories of, main workers and casual labour have maintained no growth. But the category of SC has increased (10% to 14.5%) and ST has decreased (1.6% to 2.2%) in that period. The positive trend is that the literacy levels have increased by 10 percentile points from 59.5% in 2001 to 67% in 2011. The proportion of marginal workers in slums has increased by 5 points from 3.6% to 8% in the study period. Hence it is understood from the census data that, the Hyderabad slums have witnessed a huge rise in population but the situation of workers has deteriorated despite increase in literacy rate. This situation exerts mounting pressure on demand for housing and other amenities in slums that are already overcrowded (Tables 6, 7 & 8).

Banking services are availed by 41% of slum households. More than three-fourths of them have television and mobile phones. Computer (10.2%) and Internet (5.7%) are availed by few households. Availability of two wheelers is significant (35%) but four wheelers are very few among them (Table 9).

The permanent houses (walls with burnt bricks and roof with concrete) figured highest (89.4%) followed by semi-permanent (8.4%) and temporary (1.7%) out of which 1% are non-serviceable. It is also positive development that 76% of households have good houses, 23% have livable dwellings and only 1% has dilapidated houses. About 90% of households use their houses as residence and 3.3% use as the premises as shops/offices. About 49% of households live in houses with temporary non-concrete roofs that are not protective. The type of wall material is also crucial for a protective house. The proportion of households having housing wall material of burnt brick, concrete and stone packed with mortar stands at 86% and remaining households (14%) have houses with weak walls that are unsafe. Majority of households have access to better floors with stone (65%), cement (17.5%) and tiles. The remaining still depends on mud (3.2%) and other materials (Table 10).

Drinking water facility is available within the premises to majority of households (85.5%). Of the households that do not have drinking water supply within the dwelling, 9.3% get it near the premises and the remaining households (5%) access drinking water from a greater distance.

It is also interesting to note that about 93% of households in Hyderabad slums get treated tap water and majority of them get it within and near the premises. The dependency on other non-tap water is very low which is a positive development (Table 11). Although majority of households in slums have closed drainage (89%), still a significant proportion of them (8%) depend on open drainage and 3.2% have no access to any type of drainage. Electricity is almost universal as the main source of lighting in slums as 98% households avail it. The dependency on kerosene for this purpose is very low at 1.2%. Most of the households cook inside the home (98%) and 78% have kitchen while 21.5% do not have a separate kitchen. Although around 60% of households use LPG/PNG for cooking, there are still 34.5% households who depend on kerosene and 4.6% on firewood, which are not safe cooking fuels (Table 11).

Majority of households have bathrooms with roofs and around 2% households do not have bathrooms; the same proportion has bathrooms but without roofs, which are not safe. The data also shows that 97% of households in slums of Hyderabad have latrines within their premises, 2.4% depend on open defecation and 0.7% depends on public toilet. Majority of the latrines within the premises are flush or pour latrines connected to piped sewerage system (Table 12). Finally, the picture that emerges from Census data is that Hyderabad slums are relatively better off with respect to the condition of housing and other amenities.

5. Hyderabad Slums: Findings of Field Survey

5.1. Profile of Slums

Out of total 22 slums, 9 are notified and remaining 13 are non-notified and the land ownership is held by state government (8), local bodies (5) and private (8). Non-notified slums are mostly in the lands of state government and private entities and they have to confront many obstacles in accessing the basic services from the government. The average age of the sample slums is 60 years -- almost the same in the case of notified and non-notified slums (Table 13).

The total sample households are 2945 and the total persons from these sample households are 12651. In terms of distribution, women constitute 50.2% of total population, while men constitute 49.8%, which is also true across social groups except in case of SC (48.8% women) and ST (49.8 women). Of the socio-religious categories, Hindus are majority with 62.5% followed by Muslims

(32.7%) and Christian & others (4.7%). In terms of socio-economic categories, majority are from SC (45.7%) followed by Muslim BC (23%), OBC (17.2%), ST (7.2%) and General (6.8%) (Table 14). SCs are majority in all the slums. Age wise, children (up to 18 years) are 26.5%, around 58% are potentially working age population (19-59 years), in the category of the elderly, 3.2% are in the age group of 60-69 years and 1.5% are above 70 years of age. The proportion of potential working age population is slightly more among SCs (60%) and OBCs (59%) than the others (Table 14).

Education-wise, of children above 6 years of age, 3.2% are non-literate of school-going age (7-18 years). In the category of adults, 13% are non-literate, 32.3% are educated up to primary, 12.6% are up to secondary, 25% are up to higher secondary or high school, 7.6% are up to intermediate (12th class), only about 5% are educated up to graduation, very few (0.6%) have studied up to post graduation and only 0.8% possess technical/diploma education. Among all categories, the education levels are relatively poor among STs and OBCs. It may be noticed that still many children of 7-18 years are not going to school and reported as non-literate (Table 15).

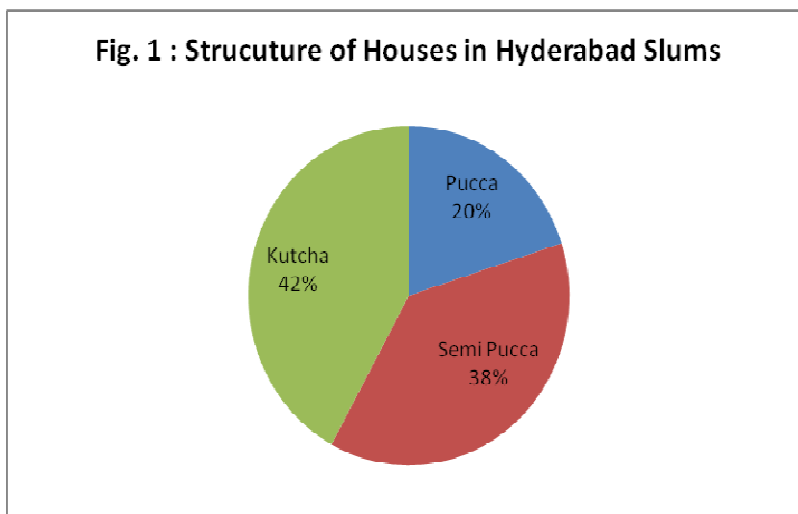
Out of the total population, 39.1% are workers engaged in various occupations. The major occupation is casual labour (16.5%), followed by domestic work/cooking (15%), driving (14%), skilled work (10.5%), construction & contract work (6.8%), mechanical & technical work (5.5%), petty trade, street vending & dairy work (5.2%), office & security work (4.6%), sanitation & rag picking work (3%), rickshaw pulling (1.5%), and government employees and pensioners (0.9%). "Other" occupations (with no details specified) also forms significant share (16.8%). SCs and OBCs are more in occupations of casual labour and domestic/cooking work, STs are in driving and casual labour, Muslim BCs are in driving, skilled work and casual labour and "others" are distributed across driving, mechanical/technical, skilled work and casual labour. Gender-wise majority of the men are in occupations of driving, casual labour and skilled work while women are primarily in domestic cooking and casual labour (Table 16).

5.2. Housing Pattern

The average area of a house in slum is 33.36 sq. yards that is marginally higher in notified (34.22 sq. yards) than non-notified slums (32.50 sq. yards). The average area of house varies across caste groups (where STs have relatively smaller area i.e. 30.8 sq. yards), education group

(less educated groups have less area), occupations (rag-pickers and security and office staff groups have smaller area (30 sq. yards) and type of house (kutcha houses are in very small area i.e. 29 sq.yard). There is not much variation in the remaining categories (Table 17).

The average number of persons residing in a house in these sample slums is 3.9, which is slightly higher in notified slums than the non-notified slums (Table 18). Not much variation is seen across the different categories. The average number of rooms in a house is 1.5 that is slightly high in case of notified slums. The groups of STs, rag-pickers, kutcha houses have relatively fewer number of rooms (Table 19).



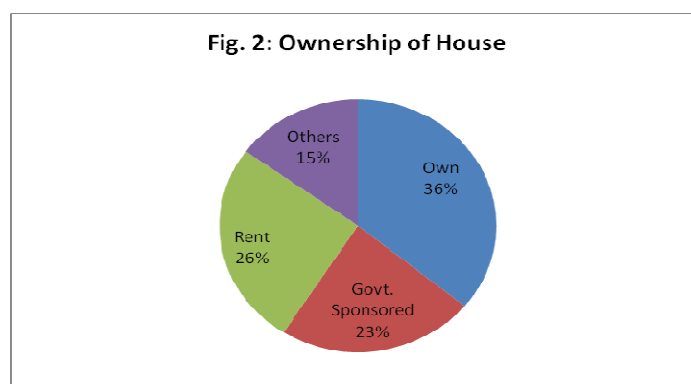
Of the total sample households, majority of them live in kutcha houses (42.4%) followed by semi-pucca (37.4%) and few live in pucca houses (20.2%) (Fig.1). The statistical test (chi-square) results tell us that the type of housing presents significant variation across the categories of slum status, religion, social, educational and occupational groups while there is no variation across gender and income groups of sample households (Tables 20).

Slum status wise, the notified slums have more of pucca houses and non-notified slums have mostly kutcha houses. Of the socio-religious groups, a majority of Muslims (45.1%) live in semi-pucca houses. Among the socio-economic groups, majority of STs (54.9%) and SCs (45.9%) live in kutcha houses, OBCs live in both kutcha and semi pucca houses and Muslim BCs live in semi pucca houses. Relatively higher proportion of “Others” live-in pucca houses (26.2%). Of occupational groups, sanitation and rag picking workers live in poor housing followed by

rickshaw pullers, construction & contract workers, drivers including auto, casual labour and domestic & cooking workers who live mostly in kutcha and semi-pucca houses. Speaking of educational levels, non-literate and less educated (up to secondary) persons live mostly in either kutcha or semi-pucca houses. There is not much variation in housing type among income groups, probably because the average household income is very small it is not sufficient to afford a pucca house in metropolitan city like Hyderabad, which is expensive.

5.3. Ownership of House

The type of ownership is important in housing. The data shows that 36.4% of sample households have fully owned houses, 23% has government sponsored houses, 25.5% live in rented houses and rest live 'other' which comprises of encroached type, record-less, relatives or friends and not revealed etc (Fig. 2). The chi-square results show that ownership of housing differs significantly among categories of slum status, religious, social and occupational groups but not in case of gender, education and income groups (Tables 21).



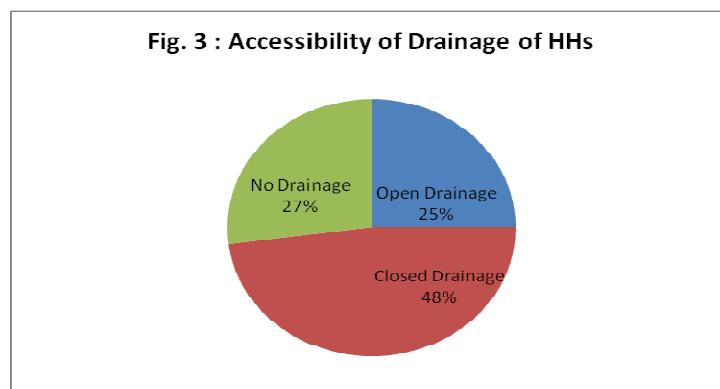
Owned houses are relatively high in notified slums and almost equally spread in the remaining i.e. government-sponsored and rented houses. The data shows that majority of the religious, social, gender and income groups have fully owned houses with small degree of variations. Among socio-religious groups, major proportion of Hindus have government-sponsored houses, Muslims have rented houses and Christians have 'other' houses. Socially, major proportion of STs has government-sponsored houses and OBC, Muslim BC and Others have significant proportion of rented houses. Slightly higher proportion of female-headed households has government-sponsored houses and male headed households have rented houses. The data also shows that majority of lower income groups have government sponsored houses while not much

variation is reported in house ownership types across income groups. This may be because these income groups are all low-income groups that cannot afford to own a house in urban areas. Occupation-wise, majority of the groups have own houses (both owned and government sponsored) but with variations in case of rented and other houses. Majority of sanitation and rag pickers live in encroached areas. The higher incidence of rickshaw pullers and skilled workers living in rented houses may be indication that they are migrants to these slums.

The data shows that most of the owned houses are semi-pucca type, government, rented and 'other' houses are kutcha type. Ideally the government sponsored houses must all be pucca type, but it is not true in this case because most of these houses are very old -- hence they were damaged, and some of them were left half constructed with half walls and no roof. It is also evident from the data that, though majority households in slums have own land, they are not in a position to build a pucca and livable house of their own because of multiple deprivation.

5.4. Access to Drainage

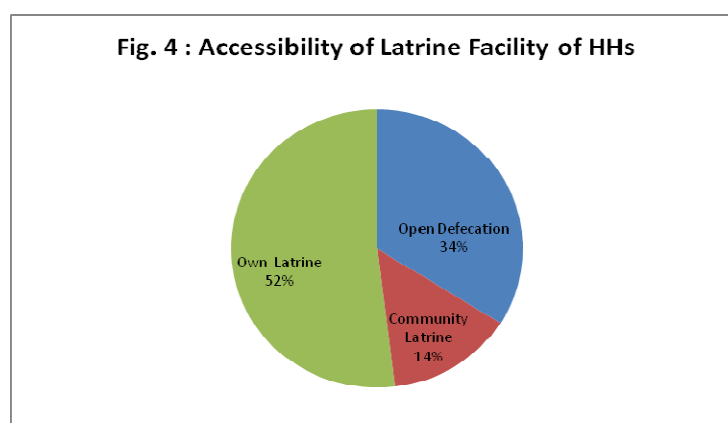
Drainage is crucial part of sanitation and lack of it has several hazardous effects on peoples' health and quality of life. The data reveals that still about 27% of slum dwellers in Hyderabad do not have drainage facility; while about 25% have access to "open drainage" (Fig. 3). The chi-square results also show that the access to drainage significantly varies across slum status, religious, social, educational, occupational groups but not across gender, income, structure and ownership type of housing groups (Table 22).



Majority households have access to “closed drainage” in notified slums whereas they suffer from “open drainage” and/or “no drainage” in non-notified slums. Although, all the religious groups have relatively higher access (above 45%) to “closed drainage”, the Muslims stay slightly at higher ladder with 53% of households are accessing to “closed drainage”. But significant proportions of all these groups (above 50%) still depend on relatively more on “open” and “no” drainage which an alarming condition. Socially, SCs and STs have less access to “closed drainage” and they fall higher proportion in “no drainage”. On the occupation scale, sanitation & rag pickers, construction & contract workers and domestic workers have very poor access to “closed drainage” facilities. If one were to examine access to sanitation by educational status, a majority of households reporting non-literacy, primary and secondary education, also reported low access to “closed drainage” facilities, when compared to households with relatively higher education levels. Predictably perhaps, the owned and pucca houses have higher proportion of closed drainage facility.

5.5. Access to Toilet Facilities

About half of sample households do not have own latrine and only 13 % have access to community latrine (Fig. 4). The statistical test (chi-square) results report that the type of toilet facility significantly varies among slum status, religious, social, gender, occupation pattern of head of household, and also with type and ownership of housing. But it does not have any significant association with gender and income level of head of households (Table 23).



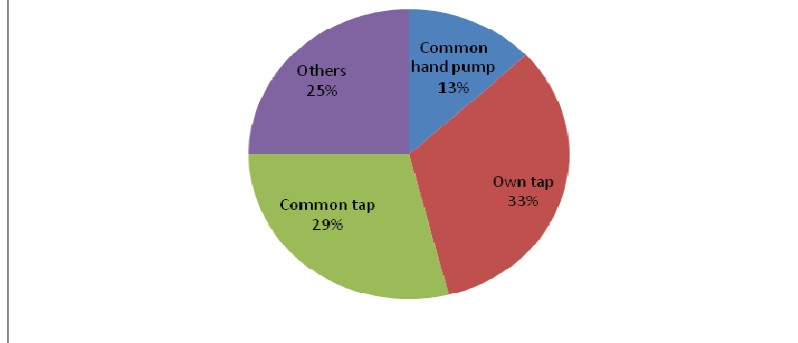
Predictably, sample households in non-notified slums reported either open defecation or use of community latrines, whereas households in notified slums reported high incidence of own latrines. Female-headed households report higher incidence of own latrines than male-headed households. Across socio-religious communities, relatively higher proportion of Hindu and Christian households depend on open defecation. Among the socio-economic categories, majority of STs still depend on either open defecation or community latrines. Muslim BCs have the highest incidence of own latrines (61 %) followed by “Others” (50 %). Compared to households with relatively higher education levels, majority of non-literate households or those with primary and secondary education, depend either on open defecation or community latrines. ‘Sanitation workers & rag pickers,’ ‘construction & contract workers,’ ‘domestic workers’ and ‘office & security workers’ have the poorest access to latrines and depend for the most part on open defecation.

We have also cross-tabulated the toilet facility with type and ownership of housing. The results shows that pucca house has higher proportion of own toilet and kutcha house dwellers depend more on open defecation. Also, the own and rented houses have more own latrine and ‘other’ housing dwellers depend more on open defecation. These results convey us that the house which is owned and pucca type has fair chances of having own toilet and “other” type house have to depend on open defecation or community toilet.

5.6. Source of Drinking Water

Drinking water facility with individual own tap connection is available only for 31% of the total sample households and the remaining are dependent on community hand pumps, public tap system and tanker supply (Fig. 5). The chi-square results reveal that the type of drinking water source among sample households differs significantly (at 5% level) among all the categorical variables such as slum status, gender, religion, social status, educational status, occupational status, income, structure and ownership type of housing (Table 24).

Fig. 5 : Source of Drinking Water of HHs

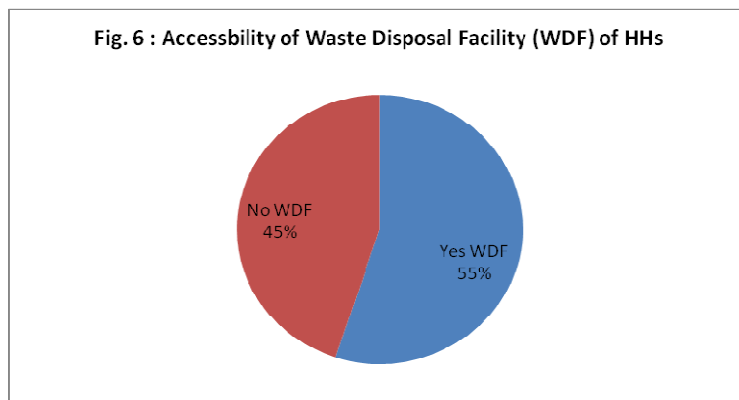


Households living in non-notified slums mostly have to depend on others sources like tankers and common tap while the own taps were reported more in case of notified slums. Not much significant variation is reported in case of gender, income and education groups. Hindus and Christians have relatively lower access to own tap, at the same time all the religious groups depend more on common tap and other sources like tankers. Socially, STs are more disadvantaged since higher proportion of them depends on non-own tap sources mostly of other sources (tankers) and common tap. The conditions of SCs, OBCs and Others are not good enough as they also largely depend on common tap where people have to queue-up for a long time to get water.

Again, when compared to other occupational groups, 'sanitation & rag picking,' 'construction & contract work,' 'casual labour,' 'domestic work' and 'office & security' groups have lower access to own tap and they depend largely on common tap and other sources. In contrast, high proportion of the relatively higher income groups (above Rs 3000) depend on either common tap or others sources (tankers) when compared to lower income groups. This needs further investigation. It is possible that these higher income levels are not big enough to make any significant difference in securing own tap connections. Compared to households with higher education levels, households reporting non-literates and lower education (up to secondary) have lesser access to own tap as they depend more on common tap and other sources like tankers. The owned and pucca houses have higher proportion of own tap for drinking water.

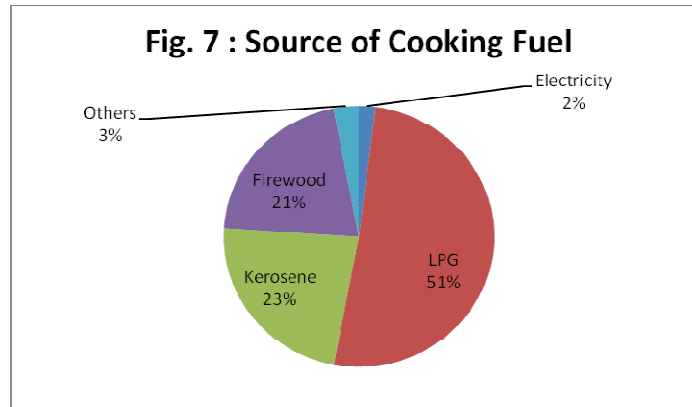
5.7. Waste Disposal Facility

Waste disposal facility (WDF), the important component of sanitation, still not available to 45% of sample households (Figure 6). The statistical test (chi-square) conveys that the availability of this facility significantly differs among slum status, gender, religion, social, occupational, structure and ownership type of housing groups. Majority of sample households (62%) in non-notified slums have no WDF at all. Relatively low proportion of female-headed households has access to WDF in comparison with male-headed households. Slightly lower share of Hindus and Muslim sample households have WDF than Christians. Relatively speaking, STs have very low proportion of WDF than all other groups. The WDFs are relatively low among the occupations of construction & contract work, office & security, casual labour, domestic labour and sanitation & rag picking. It is highly proportional with pucca and owned houses. The fact that there are no significant differences in WDFs among educational and income groups, requires further examination (Table 25).



5.8. Source of Cooking Fuel

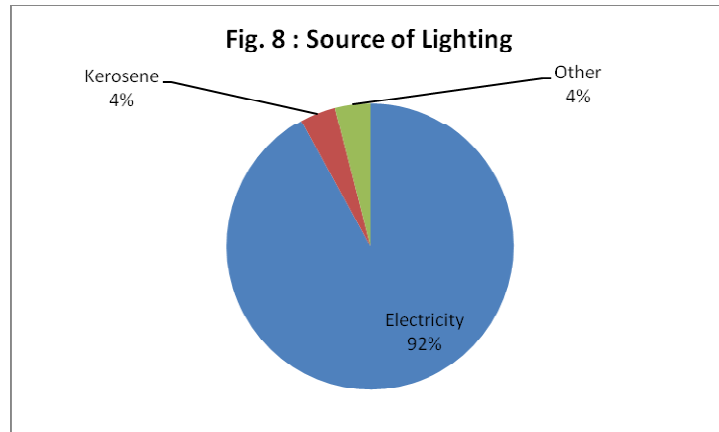
Source of cooking fuel is another indicator of sanitation at home since non-LPG/non-electric sources of cooking fuel causes pollution and related health problems. Still nearly half of the sample households depends on non-LPG/ non-electric sources of cooking fuel such as either kerosene (23%) or firewood (21%), which are not clean and safe (Fig. 7). The chi-square results show that the type of cooking fuel does significantly differ among all the categorical variables except gender (Table 26).



While there is not much variation of LPG use between notified and non-notified slums, the variation is found in case of kerosene, which is high in the former and firewood, which is more in latter. Relatively high proportion of Muslim sample households depends on non-LPG/non-electricity or unclean and unsafe sources of cooking fuel than the other groups. In contrast, relatively higher proportion of Muslims BCs and General depend on such unclean sources of cooking fuel than that of SCs, STs and OBCs. Occupation wise, sanitation/rag pickers are in a highly disadvantageous position since 76.5% of them depend on non-LPG fuels. The condition of domestic workers, rickshaw pullers, casual labour and construction workers is not better. The relatively higher income groups have to depend more on non-LPG/electricity sources. Educationally, relatively high proportion of households reporting non-literacy and low-level education levels (up to secondary) depend on unclean and unsafe fuels such as kerosene and firewood. The pucca and owned house has the more proportion of LPG as cooking fuel.

5.9. Source of Lighting

Around 8% of sample households still depend on non-electricity sources such as kerosene and others like candle etc (Fig. 8). It significantly differs among slum status, occupational, educational, structure and ownership of housing, but not in case of other categories of sample households. Although the dependence for illumination is more on electricity in both notified (94.5%) and non-notified (89%) slums its use is slightly less in latter case where kerosene is mostly used. Sanitation & rag picking workers, rickshaw pullers and casual labour have to depend relatively more on such unsafe sources. Non-literate group also uses more of kerosene for lighting. The pucca house and own house has higher proportion of electricity as source of light (Table 27).



5.10. Access to Housing and Housing Amenities

It is also important to understand the proportion of households accessing all desirable housing facilities such as owned & pucca house with more than one room and housing and other amenities such as owned & pucca house with more than one room, having amenities of owned or common tapped drinking water, owned latrine, closed drainage, availability of waste disposal facility, cleaned energy for cooking (LPG or electricity) and electricity for lighting. The data (Table 28) shows that 5.7% (169) of total sample households have all the three desirable housing aspects such as owned, pucca and more than one room house and only 2.2% (66) of sample households have all housing amenities given above. This situation varies across the categories where the notified slums have relatively higher proportions than non-notified. Social groups wise, General and SC groups are better off than others. Religion - wise, fewer Muslim households have better amenities. Gender - wise not much difference is reported. Educationally, the graduate households are relatively better placed. Occupationally only government employees are bettered and finally higher income has slightly greater proportion of these all facilities.

6. Conclusions

The census data draws a relatively better picture of conditions of housing amenities in Hyderabad slums. The slum population has increased much faster than non-slum population from 2001 to 2011 in Hyderabad that was led mostly by SCs, STs and also marginal workers. It shows that majority of households in Hyderabad slums have permanent burnt brick livable houses (89%) with good floor (65%) but not concrete roof (51%). Access to other amenities like tapped drinking water (96%), closed drainage (89%), safe bathroom (96%), latrine with flush

with in premises (97%), LPG cooking fuel (60%) and electricity for lighting (98%) suggest that slum dwellers in Hyderabad are in a better condition. Only the issues of non-concrete house roof (49%), use of kerosene for cooking (34%) and limited availability of banking services (41%) are the grave issues of slum dwellers of Hyderabad as per census data.

The picture emerging from NSSO data about the housing conditions of slum dwellers in Hyderabad is not very encouraging. Significant proportion of non-pucca houses (28%), increase in unserviceable pucca houses, deterioration of pucca roads, non-availability of personal toilets (25%), underground sewerage system (28%) and garbage facility (28%) are major problems in the slums of Hyderabad.

The field survey analysis provides much grimmer picture of housing conditions of slum dwellers in Hyderabad with additional information. The average area of a house is small (33 sq.yd.) with average of four persons living in a dwelling. Significant proportion of households live in non-pucca houses (kutcha: 42.4 % and semi-pucca: 37.4%) and 25.5% live in non-owned houses. In case of other amenities, considerable proportion of households does not have drainage (27%), owned latrine (50%), own tapped drinking water (69%), waste disposal facility (45%) and LPG cooking fuel (50%). It is also found that 5.7% (169) of total sample households have all the three desirable housing aspects such as owned, pucca and more than one room house and only 2.2% (66) have all housing amenities such as owned & pucca house with more than one room, having amenities of owned or common taped drinking water, owned latrine, closed drainage, availability of waste disposal facility, cleaned energy for cooking (LPG or electricity) and electricity for lighting.

The housing (structure and ownership) and related amenities (drainage, source of drinking water, type of toilet, availability of garbage disposal facility, source of cooking fuel and source of lighting) are significantly influenced by the explanatory factors such as status of slums, religion, caste, occupation, and education but not by the gender and income. The most disadvantaged groups are Muslim BCs, SCs and STs who are less educated, professing the occupations of sanitation/rag picking, rickshaw pullers, domestic workers, casual labour and construction workers and live mostly in non-notified slums. The income level does not have any effect on housing and other amenities because it is too low to all households in the slums. It is also proved

that the structure and ownership of house determines the accessibility of other amenities where owned and pucca house is the starting point for closed drainage, tapped drinking water, own toilet, availability of garbage disposal facility, LPG fuel and electricity for lighting.

Therefore this study suggests the following solutions for the problems of housing amenities in slums of Hyderabad.

1. Decent housing should be recognised as a fundamental, justifiable right.
2. All slums should be officially notified, creating the legal base for the demand and supply of housing and related amenities in the slums.
3. Since the income effect on housing amenities is weak in slums because of its sub-standard levels, it is necessary for the government to bear major responsibility of providing housing and other amenities in slums. In this context, the present policy of “Double Bedroom House to Slum dwellers in Hyderabad city” at zero cost by the Government of Telangana is an appropriate one.
4. The priority groups must be the most vulnerable groups such as Muslim BCs, SCs, STs and occupational groups of sanitation & rag picking, rickshaw pulling, domestic work, casual labour and construction work.

Appendix I: Housing Schemes for Urban Poor in India

The National Slum Development Programme (NSDP) scheme provides additional central assistance to States to supplement the resources of the State Government for provision of basic infrastructure and services in slum areas. The Two Million Housing Programme (TMHP) was launched with the objective of ‘housing for all’ with particular emphasis on the needs of economically weaker sections and low income group categories. The Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY) aimed at providing subsidies for construction of housing and sanitation for urban slum dwellers living below poverty line in different towns/cities all over the country.

The Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) supports 63 cities across the country in terms of perspective plans called City Development Plans (CDPs) for specifying infrastructure gaps relating to water, sanitation, sewerage, drainage and roads on the one hand and deficiencies in housing and basic services on the other hand. On the basis of City Development Plans, the JNNURM seeks to fill up the gaps in infrastructure and deficiencies in housing and basic services through appropriate investments. The Basic Services for the Urban Poor (BSUP) seeks to provide a garland of 7 entitlements/services – security of tenure, affordable housing, water, sanitation, health, education and social security – in low income settlements in the 63 Mission Cities. The Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP) seeks to provide the aforementioned garland of 7 entitlements/services in towns/cities other than Mission cities. Under Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (PMAY), it is proposed to build 2 crore houses for urban poor including Economically Weaker Sections and Low Income Groups in urban areas by the year 2022. Smart Cities Mission aims at development of entire urban ecosystem of cities covering physical, social, economic and institutional infrastructure. The objective is to enable better living and driving economic growth for the benefit of all sections.

Appendix II: Slum definition

According to 2011 Census, Three kinds of definitions are followed for slum such as (i) All notified areas in a town or city notified as 'Slum' by State, UT Administration or Local Government under any Act including a 'Slum Act' may be considered as Notified slums (ii) All areas recognised as 'Slum' by State, UT Administration or Local Government, Housing and Slum Boards, which may have not been formally notified as slum under any act may be considered as Recognized slums or Non-notified slums (iii) A compact area of at least 300 population or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities. Such areas should be identified personally by the Charge Officer and also inspected by an officer nominated by DCO. This fact must be duly recorded in the charge register. Such areas may be considered as Identified slums.

National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) reads slum as "a compact settlement with a collection of poorly built tenements, mostly of temporary nature, crowded together usually with inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities in unhygienic conditions in that compact area". The NSSO Rounds of 49th, 58th and 65th have considered "slum" of at least 20 or more households living. Therefore the results from Census and NSSO data are not strictly comparable. The field survey considered the officially declared both notified and notified slums.

Appendix III: Tables

Table 1: Slum/Basti wise Sample household

S.No.	Basti Name	Sample Households	Non-Notified/Notified
1.	Vigyanpuri Huts, Vidyanagar	96	Non-notified
2.	Ammulguda	87	Notified
3.	Bagath Singh Nagar	74	Non-notified
4.	O U Campus-3	180	Non-notified
5.	O U Campus-4	153	Non-notified
6.	O U Campus-5	144	Non-notified
7.	V.C. Lodge (O U Campus-6)	46	Non-notified
8.	Teegalaguda	154	Non-notified
9.	IDH Colony, New Bhoiguda	272	Notified
10.	Lambadi Basti	206	Non-notified
11.	Vaddera Basti	94	Non-notified
12.	Durganagar	56	Non-notified
13.	Moosanagar	356	Notified
14.	Kamalnagar, Chadarghat	374	Notified
15.	V C Lodge/O U Campus	201	Non-notified
16.	Hamalbasti	114	Notified
17.	Subash Chandra Bose Nagar Colony	26	Notified
18.	Nazeerbagh, Kachiguda	39	Notified
19.	Potti Sriramulu Nagar (Secbad)	65	Non-notified
20.	Fakeerwadi, Musheerabad	5	Non-notified
21.	Shalivahanagar	177	Notified
22.	Moharam Banda, Musheerabad	26	Notified
	Total	2945	

Source: Field Survey

NSSO Data

Table 2: Details of Slums

Area Slum			
	1993	2002	2009
0.05 to 1.00	NA	NA	55.6
1.00 to 2.00	NA	NA	36.1
8.00 or more	NA	NA	8.3
Total	NA	NA	100.0
Proportion of Slum Notified			
	53.1	NA	72.2
Proportion of Ownership Land			
Private	58.6	20.0	4.1
Local bodies	11.7	20.0	83.4
Others	29.7	60.0	12.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Proportion of Slums Area Surrounding			
Residential	100.0	100.0	100.0
Proportion of Slums Physical Location			
Along nallah/drain	11.7	40.0	8.3
Along railway line	88.3	0.0	8.3
River bank	NA	0.0	55.6
Others	NA	60.0	27.8
Proportion of Formation of Association			
	64.8	80.0	16.6

Source: NSSO Rounds 49th, 58th and 69th. NA=Not Available.

Table 3: Conditions of Water Logging and Electricity

Proportion of Slums Waterlogged			
	1993	2002	2009
	70.7	60.0	12.4
Proportion of Approach road waterlogged in Slums			
	35.2	40.0	8.3
Proportion of Electricity for street lights and households use			
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSSO Rounds 49th, 58th and 69th

Table 4: Conditions of Housing and other Amenities

Type Structure of House			
	1993	2002	2009
Pucca	35.6	80.0	72.2
Semi-pucca	58.6	0.0	0.0
Serviceable kutchha	0.0	20.0	0.0
Unserviceable kutchha	5.9	0.0	27.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Source Drinking Water			
Tap	100.0	80.0	100.0
Others	0.0	20.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Latrine			
Community shared	17.6	20.0	8.2
Own latrine	59.0	80.0	64.0
No latrine	23.4	0.0	27.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Underground Sewerage			
	70.7	60.0	72.2
Type of Drainage			
Underground	5.9	60.0	72.2
Covered pucca	0.0	20.0	
Open pucca	29.3	0.0	
Open kutchha	5.9	20.0	
No drainage	59.0	0.0	27.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Garbage Disposal			
Arrangement by: panchayat/municipality/corporation	52.7	80.0	63.9
Residents	0.0	0.0	8.3
No arrangement	47.3	20.0	27.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Frequency of Garbage Collection			
At least once in two days	0.0	80.0	72.2
Others	0.0	20.0	27.8
Total	0.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSSO Rounds 49th, 58th and 69th

Table 5: Distance from Primary School and Government Hospital (km)

Distance Govt. Primary School			
Distance	1993	2002	2009
<0.5 km	76.6	100.0	63.9
0.5 - 1 km	0.0	0.0	36.1
1 - 2 kms	23.4	0.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Distance Govt. Hospital			
<0.5 km	64.8	60.0	0.0
0.5 - 1 km	35.2	20.0	68.0
1 - 2 kms		20.0	32.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSSO Rounds 49th, 58th and 69th

Census Data

Table 6: Hyderabad Slum Population Details

	Total Urban Population		Non Slum Population		Share of non-Slum Category in Total Urban Category (%)		Slum Population		Share of Slum Category in Total Urban Category (%)	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
No of Households	1059048	1634241	823820	1110825	77.8	68.0	235228	523416	22.2	32.0
Total Population	5495563	7211172	4294314	4854425	78.1	67.3	1201249	2356747	21.9	32.7
Male	2844045	3690217	2224777	2485721	78.2	67.4	619268	1204496	21.8	32.6
Female	2651518	3520955	2069537	2368704	78.1	67.3	581981	1152251	21.9	32.7
Under 6	700532	855215	529139	548576	75.5	64.1	171393	306639	24.5	35.9
SC	458951	518925	284983	282265	62.1	54.4	173968	236660	37.9	45.6
ST	56038	116902	36440	65883	65.0	56.4	19598	51019	35.0	43.6
Total Literate	3763008	5275448	3048466	3701326	81.0	70.2	714542	1574122	19.0	29.8
Male Literate	2082333	2827618	1676252	1972287	80.5	69.8	406081	855331	19.5	30.2
Female Literate	1680675	2447830	1372214	1729039	81.6	70.6	308461	718791	18.4	29.4
Total Workers	1666327	2667621	1288789	1801839	77.3	67.5	377538	865782	22.7	32.5
Male Workers	1383336	1971879	1077168	1336786	77.9	67.8	306168	635093	22.1	32.2
Female Workers	282991	695742	211621	465053	74.8	66.8	71370	230689	25.2	33.2
Total Main Workers	1532918	2141313	1198182	1465926	78.2	68.5	334736	675387	21.8	31.5
Male Main Workers	1293527	1672382	1016408	1147806	78.6	68.6	277119	524576	21.4	31.4
Female Main Workers	239391	468931	181774	318120	75.9	67.8	57617	150811	24.1	32.2
Total Casual Labour	15936	28660	12492	20728	78.4	72.3	3444	7932	21.6	27.7
Male Casual Labour	9004	18238	7095	13468	78.8	73.8	1909	4770	21.2	26.2
Female Casual Labour	6932	10422	5397	7260	77.9	69.7	1535	3162	22.1	30.3
Total Marginal Workers	133409	526308	90607	335913	67.9	63.8	42802	190395	32.1	36.2
Male Marginal Workers	89809	299497	60760	188980	67.7	63.1	29049	110517	32.3	36.9
Female Marginal Workers	43600	226811	29847	146933	68.5	64.8	13753	79878	31.5	35.2
Total Non-workers	3829236	4543551	3005525	3052586	78.5	67.2	823711	1490965	21.5	32.8
Male Non-workers	1460709	1718338	1147609	1148935	78.6	66.9	313100	569403	21.4	33.1
Female Non-workers	2368527	2825213	1857916	1903651	78.4	67.4	510611	921562	21.6	32.6

Source: Census 2001 & 2011

Table 7: Hyderabad Slum Population Details

	Share of Total Urban Population Category in Total Urban Population (%)		Share of Non-Slum Population Category in Total Urban Population (%)		Share of Slum Population Category in Total Urban Population (%)	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Total Population	100	100	100	100	100	100
Male	51.8	51.2	51.8	51.2	51.6	51.1
Female	48.2	48.8	48.2	48.8	48.4	48.9
Under 6	12.7	11.9	12.3	11.3	14.3	13.0
SC	8.4	7.2	6.6	5.8	14.5	10.0
ST	1.0	1.6	0.8	1.4	1.6	2.2
Total Literate	68.5	73.2	71.0	76.2	59.5	66.8
Male Literate	37.9	39.2	39.0	40.6	33.8	36.3
Female Literate	30.6	33.9	32.0	35.6	25.7	30.5
Total Workers	30.3	37.0	30.0	37.1	31.4	36.7
Male Workers	25.2	27.3	25.1	27.5	25.5	26.9
Female Workers	5.1	9.6	4.9	9.6	5.9	9.8
Total Main Workers	27.9	29.7	27.9	30.2	27.9	28.7
Male Main Workers	23.5	23.2	23.7	23.6	23.1	22.3
Female Main Workers	4.4	6.5	4.2	6.6	4.8	6.4
Total Casual Labour	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3
Male Casual Labour	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Female Casual Labour	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total Marginal Workers	2.4	7.3	2.1	6.9	3.6	8.1
Male Marginal Workers	1.6	4.2	1.4	3.9	2.4	4.7
Female Marginal Workers	0.8	3.1	0.7	3.0	1.1	3.4
Total Non-workers	69.7	63.0	70.0	62.9	68.6	63.3
Male Non-workers	26.6	23.8	26.7	23.7	26.1	24.2
Female Non-workers	43.1	39.2	43.3	39.2	42.5	39.1

Source: Census 2001 & 2011

Table 8: Decadal Growth Rate of Slum Population in Hyderabad

Population Category	Decadal Growth Rate of Population Category from 2001 to 2011		
	Total Urban	Non-Slum	Slum
No of Households	54.3	34.8	122.5
Total Population	31.2	13.0	96.2
Male	29.8	11.7	94.5
Female	32.8	14.5	98.0
Under 6	22.1	3.7	78.9
SC	13.1	-1.0	36.0
ST	108.6	80.8	160.3
Total Literate	40.2	21.4	120.3
Male Literate	35.8	17.7	110.6
Female Literate	45.6	26.0	133.0
Total Workers	60.1	39.8	129.3
Male Workers	42.5	24.1	107.4
Female Workers	145.9	119.8	223.2
Total Main Workers	39.7	22.3	101.8
Male Main Workers	29.3	12.9	89.3
Female Main Workers	95.9	75.0	161.7
Total Casual Labour	79.8	65.9	130.3
Male Casual Labour	102.6	89.8	149.9
Female Casual Labour	50.3	34.5	106.0
Total Marginal Workers	294.5	270.7	344.8
Male Marginal Workers	233.5	211.0	280.5
Female Marginal Workers	420.2	392.3	480.8
Total Non-workers	18.7	1.6	81.0
Male Non-workers	17.6	0.1	81.9
Female Non-workers	19.3	2.5	80.5

Source: Census 2001 & 2011

Table 9: Proportion of Households with Assets

Availing banking services		41.1
Radio/Transistor		22.4
Television		78.3
Computer/Laptop	With Internet	5.7
	Without Internet	10.2
Telephone/Mobile Phone	Landline only	6.8
	Mobile only	76.1
	Both	4.4
Bicycle		24.1
Scooter/Motorcycle/Moped		34.8
Car/Jeep/Van		4.5
Households with TV, Computer/Laptop, Telephone/mobile phone and Scooter/Car		8.5
None of the assets specified in col. 10 to 19		4.7

Source: Census 2011

Table 10: Housing Conditions among Households in Hyderabad Slums

Proportion of Households with Type of Housing			
Permanent		89.4	
Semi-permanent		8.4	
Temporary	Total	1.7	
	Serviceable	0.7	
	Non-Serviceable	1.0	
Unclassifiable		0.5	
Proportion of Households with Housing Conditions			
	Good	Livable	Dilapidated
Total House	76.1	22.8	1.1
Residence	76.2	22.7	1.1
Residence-cum-other use	68.1	31.0	0.9
Proportion of Households with Use of House			
Residence		89.4	
Residence-cum-other use		1.9	
Shop/Office		3.3	
Factory/Workshop/Workshed, etc.		0.5	
Other non-residential use		4.4	
No. of occupied locked census houses		0.4	
Proportion of HH with Type of House Roof			
G.I./Metal/Asbestos sheets		40.4	
Concrete		51.1	
Other Material		8.5	
Proportion of HH with Wall Material of House			
Mud/Unburnt brick		7.7	
Stone not packed with mortar		3.5	
Stone packed with mortar		23.7	
Burnt brick		56.5	
Concrete		5.6	
Other material		3.0	
Proportion of Households with Floor Material of House			
Mud		3.2	
Stone		65.6	
Cement		17.5	
Mosaic/Floor tiles		10.3	
Other material		3.3	

Source: Census 2011

Table 11: Conditions of Drinking Water and Sources of Cooking Fuel and Lighting

Proportion of Households with Drinking Water Facility				
Away				5.2
Near the premises				9.3
Within the premises				85.5
Proportion of Households with Type of Drinking Water Facility				
	Away	Near the premises	Within the premises	Total
Tapwater from treated source	46.6	73.9	97.7	92.8
Tapwater from untreated source	7.6	9.4	1.5	2.5
Handpump	5.5	1.6	0.1	0.5
Tubewell/Borehole	8.4	3.0	0.5	1.1
Other sources	31.9	12.1	0.2	3.0
Sources of Cooking Fuel				
Category	LPG/Electricity/Biogas	Kerosene	Firewood	Other
	59.5	34.5	4.6	1.4
Proportion of Households with Source of Lighting				
Electricity				98.0
Kerosene				1.2
Other				0.6
No lighting				0.2

Source: Census 2011

Table 12: Conditions of Latrine, Drainage and Bath Rooms

Proportion of Households with Type of Latrine Facility			
Households having latrine facility within the premises			96.9
Type of latrine facility within the premises	Flush/pour flush latrine connected to	Piped sewer system	80.3
		Septic tank	12.0
		Other system	0.7
	Pit latrine	With slab ventilated improved pit	1.7
		Without slab/ open pit	0.1
	Night soil disposed into open drain		1.2
	Service Latrine	Night soil removed by human	0.1
		Night soil serviced by animal	0.7
Households not having latrine facility within the premises			3.1
No latrine within premises	Alternative source	Public latrine	0.7
		Open	2.4
Proportion of Households with Bathing Facility			
Yes	Bathroom		96.2
	Enclosure without roof		1.9
No			1.9
Proportion of Households with Connectivity to Type of Drainage			
Closed drainage			89.0
Open drainage			7.9
No drainage			3.2

Source: Census 2011

Field Survey

Table 13: Slum Location and Age

Ownership	Non-Notified	Notified	Total
Local Body	2	3	5
State Government	5	3	8
Private	5	3	8
Others	1	-	1
Total	13	9	22
Age of Basti in years	59.00	61.22	59.91

Source: Field Survey

Table 14: Socio-Religious Demographic Details of Sample Population in Slums

Recorded social group	Total Population	Sex		Age							Total
		Male	Female	Upto 5 years	6-14	15-18	19-30	31-59	60-69	70+	
SC	5787(45.7)*	2903 (50.2)	2884 (49.8)	557 (9.6)	958 (16.6)	522 (9.0)	1768 (30.6)	1703 (29.4)	179 (3.1)	100 (1.7)	5787 (100.0)
ST	908 (7.2)	465 (51.2)	443 (48.8)	108 (11.9)	204 (22.5)	83 (9.1)	260 (28.6)	226 (24.9)	16 (1.8)	11 (1.2)	908 (100.0)
OBC	2182 (17.2)	1073 (49.2)	1109 (50.8)	247 (11.3)	380 (17.4)	165 (7.6)	674 (30.9)	605 (27.7)	76 (3.5)	35 (1.6)	2182 (100.0)
Muslim BC	2913 (23.0)	1435 (49.3)	1478 (50.7)	386 (13.3)	565 (19.4)	259 (8.9)	854 (29.3)	717 (24.6)	94 (3.2)	38 (1.3)	2913 (100.0)
General	861 (6.8)	423 (49.1)	438 (50.9)	89 (10.3)	144 (16.7)	89 (10.3)	255 (29.6)	237 (27.5)	37 (4.3)	10 (1.2)	861 (100.0)
Total	12651(100.0)	6299 (49.8)	6352 (50.2)	1387 (11.0)	2251 (17.8)	1118 (8.8)	3811 (30.1)	3488 (27.6)	402 (3.2)	194 (1.5)	12651 (100.0)

Religion Details				
	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Total
Total	7913 (62.5)	4138 (32.7)	600 (4.7)	12651 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey.

*Data in the parenthesis is in %

Table 15: Education Details of Sample Population

Social Category	Non-Literates of School Going Age (7-18 Years)	Non Literates (Above 18 years)	Primary	Secondary	High	Inter	Graduation	Post Graduation	Diploma/Engg.	Total
SC	105 (2.8)	418 (11.3)	1128 (30.4)	427 (11.5)	1013 (27.3)	330 (8.9)	215 (5.8)	30 (0.8)	45 (1.2)	3710 (100)
ST	35 (5.8)	117 (19.3)	206 (34.1)	72 (11.9)	103 (17)	45 (7.4)	19 (3.1)	3 (0.5)	5 (0.8)	605 (100)
OBC	48 (3.4)	221 (15.4)	428 (29.9)	146 (10.2)	378 (26.4)	113 (7.9)	80 (5.6)	7 (0.5)	10 (0.7)	1433 (100)
Muslim BC	72 (3.9)	226 (12.4)	679 (37.1)	283 (15.5)	419 (22.9)	82 (4.5)	57 (3.1)	5 (0.3)	7 (0.4)	1829 (100)
General	9 (1.7)	54 (9.5)	193 (34.2)	92 (16.3)	131 (23.2)	55 (9.8)	24 (4.3)	4 (0.7)	2 (0.4)	564 (100)
Total	262 (3.2)	1049 (12.9)	2630 (32.3)	1026 (12.6)	2043 (25.1)	619 (7.6)	399 (4.9)	49 (0.6)	65 (0.8)	8141 (100)

Source: Field Survey.

*Data in the parenthesis is in %.

Table 16: Primacy Occupation of Sample Population

	Social group					Total
	SC	ST	OBC	Muslim BC	General	
Office & Security	139 (5.8)	8 (2.2)	39 (4.5)	32 (3.2)	11 (3.6)	229 (4.6)
Driving	250 (10.4)	120 (33.3)	112 (12.8)	156 (15.5)	47 (15.3)	685 (13.8)
Mechanic & Technical	101 (4.2)	8 (2.2)	54 (6.2)	79 (7.8)	32 (10.4)	274 (5.5)
Domestic & Cooking	408 (16.9)	57 (15.8)	142 (16.2)	103 (10.2)	29 (9.4)	739 (14.9)
Skilled workers	273 (11.3)	18 (5.0)	81 (9.3)	119 (11.8)	30 (9.8)	521 (10.5)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	85 (3.5)	6 (1.7)	39 (4.5)	10 (1.0)	9 (2.9)	149 (3.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	117 (4.8)	13 (3.6)	38 (4.3)	71 (7.0)	18 (5.9)	257 (5.2)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	26 (1.1)	1 (0.3)	4 (0.5)	9 (0.9)	4 (1.3)	44 (0.9)
Rickshaw Pullers	27 (1.1)	4 (1.1)	9 (1.0)	30 (3.0)	6 (2.0)	76 (1.5)
Construction & Contract Workers	216 (8.9)	28 (7.8)	50 (5.7)	30 (3.0)	14 (4.6)	338 (6.8)
Casual Labour	457 (18.9)	61 (16.9)	156 (17.8)	117 (11.6)	29 (9.4)	820 (16.5)
Others	316 (13.1)	36 (10.0)	151 (17.3)	252 (25.0)	78 (25.4)	833 (16.8)
Total	2415 (100.0)	360 (100.0)	875 (100.0)	1008 (100.0)	307 (100.0)	4965 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey.

*Data in the parenthesis is in %

Table 17: Average Area of Housing (Sq. Yd.) of Households across Categories

Type/Structure of House	
Pucca	595 (37.41)
Semi Pucca	35.93 (1100)
Kutchha	29.16 (1250)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Ownership type of Housing	
Own	34.96 (1073)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	34.90 (674)
Rent	32.07 (752)
Others	29.35 (446)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Slum Status	
Non-notified	32.50 (1475)
Notified	34.22 (1470)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Gender	
Male	33.36 (2334)
Female	33.36 (611)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Religion	
Hindu	32.75 (1908)
Muslim	34.75 (895)
Christian	32.79 (142)
Total	33.36 (2945)

Social Category	
SC	33.10 (1388)
ST	30.83 (204)
OBC	32.16 (527)
Muslim BC	34.93 (634)
General	36.03 (192)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Education	
Illiterate	32.68 (777)
Primary	32.00 (683)
Secondary	31.98 (90)
High	34.15 (1019)
Inter	33.57 (215)
Graduation	37.81 (161)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Primary Occupation	
Office & Security	31.40 (116)
Driving	33.22 (469)
Mechanic & Technical	36.78 (154)
Domestic & Cooking	33.31 (268)
Skilled workers	33.00 (319)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	29.36 (69)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	33.62 (204)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	37.42 (67)
Rickshaw Pullers	35.41 (61)
Construction & Contract Workers	33.13 (275)
Casual Labour	32.06 (551)
Others	34.79 (375)
Unemployed & Not working	31.00 (17)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Monthly Per Capita Income	
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	34.60 (1141)
1771-3000	32.90 (1057)
3001-5000	32.16 (502)
5001+	32.00 (245)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Disability	
Disabled	36.70 (165)
Non Disabled	33.16 (2780)
Total	33.36 (2945)
Type of Ration Card	
White	33.82 (2245)
Pink	33.47 (249)
Total	33.78 (2494)

Source: Field Survey.

*Number of sample households in the parenthesis

Table 18: Average Number of Persons Living in a House across Categories

Slum Status	
Non-notified	3.69 (1475)
Notified	4.06 (1470)
Total	3.88 (2945)
Gender	
Male	3.98 (2334)
Female	3.49 (611)
Total	3.88 (2945)
Religion	
Hindu	3.75 (1908)
Muslim	4.14 (895)
Christian	3.90 (142)
Total	3.88 (2945)
Social Category	
SC	3.83 (1388)
ST	4.00 (204)
OBC	3.55 (527)
Muslim BC	4.18 (634)
General	3.98 (192)
Total	3.88 (2945)
Primary Occupation	
Primary Occupation	3.43 (116)
Office & Security	4.15 (469)
Driving	4.18 (154)
Mechanic & Technical	3.22 (268)
Domestic & Cooking	3.86 (319)
Skilled workers	3.78 (69)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	4.10 (204)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	3.81 (67)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	4.48 (61)
Rickshaw Pullers	3.97 (275)
Construction & Contract Workers	3.87 (551)
Casual Labour	3.78 (375)
Others	4.12 (17)
Unemployed & Not working	3.88 (2945)
Total	
Monthly Per Capita Income	
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	4.37 (1141)
1771-3000	3.86 (1057)
3001-5000	3.39 (502)
5001+	2.64 (245)
Total	3.88 (2945)
Disability	
Disabled	4.06 (165)
Non Disabled	3.87 (2780)
Total	3.88 (2945)

Source: Field Survey.

*Number of sample households in the parenthesis

Table 19: Average Number of Rooms in a House across Categories

Type of House	
Pucca	1.87 (571)
Semi Pucca	1.60 (1056)
Kutchha	1.40 (1196)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Ownership type of Housing	
Own	1.74 (1007)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	1.57 (657)
Rent	1.45 (727)
Others	1.38 (432)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Notified / Non-notified	
Non-notified	1.43 (1475)
Notified	1.58 (1470)
Total	1.51 (2945)
Gender	
Male	1.57 (2242)
Female	1.57 (581)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Religion	
Hindu	1.56 (1833)
Muslim	1.60 (850)
Christian	1.59 (140)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Social Category	
SC	1.57 (1331)
ST	1.42 (199)
OBC	1.57 (509)
Muslim BC	1.59 (600)
General	1.64 (184)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Education	
Illiterate	1.49 (739)
Primary	1.50 (651)
Secondary	1.50 (88)
High	1.65 (984)
Inter	1.60 (207)
Graduation	1.80 (154)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Primary Occupation	
Office & Security	1.76 (113)
Driving	1.54 (448)
Mechanic & Technical	1.64 (142)
Domestic & Cooking	1.42 (252)
Skilled workers	1.53 (309)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	1.33 (66)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	1.64 (198)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	1.97 (62)
Rickshaw Pullers	1.67 (61)
Construction & Contract	1.53 (267)

Workers	
Casual Labour	1.49 (531)
Others	1.72 (358)
Unemployed & Not working	1.81 (16)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Monthly Per Capita Income	
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	1.59 (1090)
1771-3000	1.57 (1015)
3001-5000	1.57 (483)
5001+	1.50 (235)
Total	1.57 (2823)
Disability	
Disabled	1.69 (152)
Non Disabled	1.56 (2671)
Total	1.57 (2823)

Source: Field Survey.

*Number of sample households in the parenthesis

Table 20: Type/Structure of House of Households across Categories

	Pucca	Semi Pucca	Kutchha	Total
Slum Status				
Non-notified	174 (11.8)	553 (37.5)	748 (50.7)	1475 (100.0)
Notified	421 (28.6)	547 (37.2)	502 (34.1)	1470 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 150.974^a, df 2, sig .000</i>				
Religion				
Hindu	384 (20.1)	652 (34.2)	872 (45.7)	1908 (100.0)
Muslim	172 (19.2)	404 (45.1)	319 (35.6)	895 (100.0)
Christian	39 (27.5)	44 (31.0)	59 (41.5)	142 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 39.935^a, df 4, sig .000</i>				
Social Category				
SC	279 (20.1)	472 (34.0)	637 (45.9)	1388 (100.0)
ST	44 (21.6)	48 (23.5)	112 (54.9)	204 (100.0)
OBC	106 (20.1)	205 (38.9)	216 (41.0)	527 (100.0)
Muslim BC	116 (18.3)	302 (47.6)	216 (34.1)	634 (100.0)
General	50 (26.0)	73 (38.0)	69 (35.9)	192 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 61.485^a, df 8, sig .000</i>				
Gender				
Male	459 (19.7)	886 (38.0)	989 (42.4)	2334 (100.0)
Female	136 (22.3)	214 (35.0)	261 (42.7)	611 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 2.742^a, df 2, sig .254</i>				
Education				
Illiterate	131 (16.9)	266 (34.2)	380 (48.9)	777 (100.0)
Primary	138 (20.2)	254 (37.2)	291 (42.6)	683 (100.0)
Secondary	14 (15.6)	31 (34.4)	45 (50.0)	90 (100.0)
High	217 (21.3)	413 (40.5)	389 (38.2)	1019 (100.0)
Inter	51 (23.7)	75 (34.9)	89 (41.4)	215 (100.0)
Graduation	44 (27.3)	61 (37.9)	56 (34.8)	161 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 32.093^a, df 10, sig .000</i>				

Primary Occupation				
Office & Security	26 (22.4)	43 (37.1)	47 (40.5)	116 (100.0)
Driving	86 (18.3)	171 (36.5)	212 (45.2)	469 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	39 (25.3)	63 (40.9)	52 (33.8)	154 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	43 (16.0)	109 (40.7)	116 (43.3)	268 (100.0)
Skilled workers	44 (13.8)	144 (45.1)	131 (41.1)	319 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	5 (7.2)	15 (21.7)	49 (71.0)	69 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	45 (22.1)	85 (41.7)	74 (36.3)	204 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	21 (31.3)	26 (38.8)	20 (29.9)	67 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	17 (27.9)	12 (19.7)	32 (52.5)	61 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	48 (17.5)	95 (34.5)	132 (48.0)	275 (100.0)
Casual Labour	119 (21.6)	192 (34.8)	240 (43.6)	551 (100.0)
Others	100 (26.7)	136 (36.3)	139 (37.1)	375 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	2 (11.8)	9 (52.9)	6 (35.3)	17 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 81.568^a, df 24, sig .000</i>				

Monthly Per Capita Income				
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	230 (20.2)	442 (38.7)	469 (41.1)	1141 (100.0)
1771-3000	222 (21.0)	382 (36.1)	453 (42.9)	1057 (100.0)
3001-5000	100 (19.9)	188 (37.5)	214 (42.6)	502 (100.0)
5001+	43 (17.6)	88 (35.9)	114 (46.5)	245 (100.0)
Total	595 (20.2)	1100 (37.4)	1250 (42.4)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 3.840^a, df 6, sig .698</i>				

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in%

Table 21: Ownership Type of House of Households across Categories

Non-notified/notified	Own	RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	Rent	Others	Total
Slum Status					
Non-notified	402 (27.3)	395 (26.8)	358 (24.3)	320 (21.7)	1475 (100.0)
Notified	671 (45.6)	279 (19.0)	394 (26.8)	126 (8.6)	1470 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 173.503^a, df 3, sig .000</i>					
Religion					
Hindu	674 (35.3)	474 (24.8)	454 (23.8)	306 (16.0)	1908 (100.0)
Muslim	341 (38.1)	175 (19.6)	267 (29.8)	112 (12.5)	895 (100.0)
Christian	58 (40.8)	25 (17.6)	31 (21.8)	28 (19.7)	142 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 27.906^a, df 6, sig .000</i>					
Social Category					
SC	517 (37.2)	339 (24.4)	317 (22.8)	215 (15.5)	1388 (100.0)
ST	62 (30.4)	69 (33.8)	34 (16.7)	39 (19.1)	204 (100.0)
OBC	181 (34.3)	97 (18.4)	158 (30.0)	91 (17.3)	527 (100.0)
Muslim BC	235 (37.1)	138 (21.8)	184 (29.0)	77 (12.1)	634 (100.0)

General	78 (40.6)	31 (16.1)	59 (30.7)	24 (12.5)	192 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 52.619^a, df 12, sig .000</i>					
Gender					
Male	834 (35.7)	518 (22.2)	618 (26.5)	364 (15.6)	2334 (100.0)
Female	239 (39.1)	156 (25.5)	134 (21.9)	82 (13.4)	611 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 9.313^a, df 3, sig .025</i>					
Education					
Illiterate	275 (35.4)	185 (23.8)	189 (24.3)	128 (16.5)	777 (100.0)
Primary	229 (33.5)	153 (22.4)	181 (26.5)	120 (17.6)	683 (100.0)
Secondary	41 (45.6)	14 (15.6)	22 (24.4)	13 (14.4)	90 (100.0)
High	372 (36.5)	236 (23.2)	275 (27.0)	136 (13.3)	1019 (100.0)
Inter	85 (39.5)	51 (23.7)	53 (24.7)	26 (12.1)	215 (100.0)
Graduation	71 (44.1)	35 (21.7)	32 (19.9)	23 (14.3)	161 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 20.526^a, df 15, sig .153</i>					
Primary Occupation					
Office & Security	39 (33.6)	23 (19.8)	31 (26.7)	23 (19.8)	116 (100.0)
Driving	170 (36.2)	107 (22.8)	120 (25.6)	72 (15.4)	469 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	63 (40.9)	30 (19.5)	43 (27.9)	18 (11.7)	154 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	90 (33.6)	80 (29.9)	47 (17.5)	51 (19.0)	268 (100.0)
Skilled workers	119 (37.3)	64 (20.1)	103 (32.3)	33 (10.3)	319 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	16 (23.2)	11 (15.9)	15 (21.7)	27 (39.1)	69 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	86 (42.2)	39 (19.1)	53 (26.0)	26 (12.7)	204 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	27 (40.3)	17 (25.4)	13 (19.4)	10 (14.9)	67 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	21 (34.4)	17 (27.9)	20 (32.8)	3 (4.9)	61 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	86 (31.3)	69 (25.1)	74 (26.9)	46 (16.7)	275 (100.0)
Casual Labour	178 (32.3)	142 (25.8)	139 (25.2)	92 (16.7)	551 (100.0)
Others	172 (45.9)	71 (18.9)	88 (23.5)	44 (11.7)	375 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	6 (35.3)	4 (23.5)	6 (35.3)	1 (5.9)	17 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 101.544^a, df 36, sig .141</i>					
Monthly Per Capita Income					
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	425 (37.2)	265 (23.2)	298 (26.1)	153 (13.4)	1141 (100.0)
1771-3000	382 (36.1)	256 (24.2)	258 (24.4)	161 (15.2)	1057 (100.0)
3001-5000	180 (35.9)	109 (21.7)	133 (26.5)	80 (15.9)	502 (100.0)
5001+	86 (35.1)	44 (18.0)	63 (25.7)	52 (21.2)	245 (100.0)
Total	1073 (36.4)	674 (22.9)	752 (25.5)	446 (15.1)	2945 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 13.499^a, df 9, sig .141</i>					

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in %

Table 22: Accessibility to Drainage Facility of Households across Categories

	Open Drainage	Close Drainage	No Drainage	Total
Type of House				
Pucca	107 (18.0)	445 (74.8)	43 (7.2)	595 (100.0)
Semi Pucca	244 (22.3)	571 (52.3)	277 (25.4)	1092 (100.0)
Kutcha	378 (30.6)	399 (32.3)	460 (37.2)	1237 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 3.221E2^a, df 4, sig .000</i>				
Ownership type				
Own	219 (20.6)	647 (60.8)	199 (18.7)	1065 (100.0)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	181 (27.0)	277 (41.3)	213 (31.7)	671 (100.0)
Rent	156 (20.9)	389 (52.1)	201 (26.9)	746 (100.0)
Others	173 (39.1)	102 (23.1)	167 (37.8)	442 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 2.036E2^a, df 6, sig .000</i>				
Slum Status				
Non-notified	451 (30.9)	391 (26.8)	619 (42.4)	1461 (100.0)
Notified	278 (19.0)	1024 (70.0)	161 (11.0)	1463 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 5.932E2^a, df 2, sig .000</i>				
Gender				
Male	577 (24.9)	1102 (47.5)	639 (27.6)	2318 (100.0)
Female	152 (25.1)	313 (51.7)	141 (23.3)	606 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 5.012^a, df 2, sig .082</i>				
Religion				
Hindu	454 (24.0)	874 (46.2)	564 (29.8)	1892 (100.0)
Muslim	234 (26.3)	473 (53.1)	183 (20.6)	890 (100.0)
Christian	41 (28.9)	68 (47.9)	33 (23.2)	142 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 28.329^a, df 4, sig .000</i>				
Social Category				
SC	348 (25.2)	626 (45.4)	405 (29.4)	1379 (100.0)
ST	32 (15.8)	101 (49.8)	70 (34.5)	203 (100.0)
OBC	131 (25.2)	252 (48.5)	137 (26.3)	520 (100.0)
Muslim BC	170 (26.9)	327 (51.8)	134 (21.2)	631 (100.0)
General	48 (25.1)	109 (57.1)	34 (17.8)	191 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 36.125^a, df 8, sig .000</i>				
Education				
Illiterate	211 (27.4)	346 (44.9)	213 (27.7)	770 (100.0)
Primary	190 (27.9)	320 (47.1)	170 (25.0)	680 (100.0)
Secondary	28 (31.5)	43 (48.3)	18 (20.2)	89 (100.0)
High	215 (21.2)	516 (51.0)	281 (27.8)	1012 (100.0)
Inter	55 (25.8)	103 (48.4)	55 (25.8)	213 (100.0)
Graduation	30 (18.8)	87 (54.4)	43 (26.9)	160 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 21.556^a, df 10, sig .018</i>				

Primary Occupation				
Office & Security	26 (22.4)	53 (45.7)	37 (31.9)	116 (100.0)
Driving	108 (23.2)	244 (52.4)	114 (24.5)	466 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	33 (21.7)	84 (55.3)	35 (23.0)	152 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	81 (30.7)	105 (39.8)	78 (29.5)	264 (100.0)
Skilled workers	81 (25.5)	146 (45.9)	91 (28.6)	318 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	21 (30.9)	25 (36.8)	22 (32.4)	68 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	43 (21.1)	124 (60.8)	37 (18.1)	204 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	10 (14.9)	39 (58.2)	18 (26.9)	67 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	19 (31.7)	34 (56.7)	7 (11.7)	60 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	85 (30.9)	103 (37.5)	87 (31.6)	275 (100.0)
Casual Labour	121 (22.2)	244 (44.8)	180 (33.0)	545 (100.0)
Others	98 (26.3)	201 (54.0)	73 (19.6)	372 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	3 (17.6)	13 (76.5)	1 (5.9)	17 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)

Person chi-square –Value 84.911^a, df 24, sig .000

Monthly Per Capita Income				
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	288 (25.4)	573 (50.4)	275 (24.2)	1136 (100.0)
1771-3000	259 (24.6)	509 (48.4)	283 (26.9)	1051 (100.0)
3001-5000	131 (26.5)	222 (44.9)	141 (28.5)	494 (100.0)
5001+	51 (21.0)	111 (45.7)	81 (33.3)	243 (100.0)
Total	729 (24.9)	1415 (48.4)	780 (26.7)	2924 (100.0)

Person chi-square –Value 12.004^a, df 6, sig .062

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in %

Table 23: Accessibility to Type of Latrine of Households across Categories

	Open defecation	Community Latrine	Own Latrine	Total
Type of House				
Pucca	54 (9.3)	46 (7.9)	479 (82.7)	579 (100.0)
Semi Pucca	339 (31.5)	146 (13.6)	592 (55.0)	1077 (100.0)
Kutchha	579 (48.0)	203 (16.8)	425 (35.2)	1207 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 3.692E2^a, df 4, sig .000</i>				
Ownership type				
Own	224 (21.5)	126 (12.1)	694 (66.5)	1044 (100.0)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	257 (38.7)	110 (16.6)	297 (44.7)	664 (100.0)
Rent	233 (32.1)	96 (13.2)	397 (54.7)	726 (100.0)
Others	258 (60.1)	63 (14.7)	108 (25.2)	429 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 2.548E2^a, df 6, sig .000</i>				

Slum Status				
Non-notified	743 (52.1)	226 (15.8)	457 (32.0)	1426 (100.0)
Notified	229 (15.9)	169 (11.8)	1039 (72.3)	1437 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 5.064E2^a, df 2, sig .000</i>				
Gender				
Male	790 (34.8)	318 (14.0)	1161 (51.2)	2269 (100.0)
Female	182 (30.6)	77 (13.0)	335 (56.4)	594 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 5.261^a, df 2, sig .072</i>				
Religion				
Hindu	672 (36.4)	298 (16.1)	876 (47.5)	1846 (100.0)
Muslim	251 (28.6)	88 (10.0)	539 (61.4)	878 (100.0)
Christian	49 (35.3)	9 (6.5)	81 (58.3)	139 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 55.735^a, df 4, sig .000</i>				
Social Category				
SC	495 (36.6)	177 (13.1)	679 (50.3)	1351 (100.0)
ST	80 (40.4)	49 (24.7)	69 (34.8)	198 (100.0)
OBC	161 (31.9)	89 (17.7)	254 (50.4)	504 (100.0)
Muslim BC	183 (29.3)	55 (8.8)	386 (61.9)	624 (100.0)
General	53 (28.5)	25 (13.4)	108 (58.1)	186 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 70.901^a, df 8, sig .000</i>				
Education				
Illiterate	274 (36.4)	109 (14.5)	369 (49.1)	752 (100.0)
Primary	232 (35.2)	101 (15.3)	326 (49.5)	659 (100.0)
Secondary	33 (37.5)	11 (12.5)	44 (50.0)	88 (100.0)
High	314 (31.6)	134 (13.5)	547 (55.0)	995 (100.0)
Inter	70 (33.2)	29 (13.7)	112 (53.1)	211 (100.0)
Graduation	49 (31.0)	11 (7.0)	98 (62.0)	158 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 17.884^a, df 10, sig .057</i>				
Primary Occupation				
Office & Security	48 (42.1)	13 (11.4)	53 (46.5)	114 (100.0)
Driving	142 (31.1)	89 (19.5)	225 (49.3)	456 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	44 (29.5)	14 (9.4)	91 (61.1)	149 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	110 (42.5)	43 (16.6)	106 (40.9)	259 (100.0)
Skilled workers	107 (33.9)	39 (12.3)	170 (53.8)	316 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	30 (44.8)	10 (14.9)	27 (40.3)	67 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	50 (25.0)	31 (15.5)	119 (59.5)	200 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	15 (22.7)	3 (4.5)	48 (72.7)	66 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	15 (25.0)	18 (30.0)	27 (45.0)	60 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	113 (43.0)	28 (10.6)	122 (46.4)	263 (100.0)
Casual Labour	200 (37.6)	77 (14.5)	255 (47.9)	532 (100.0)

Others	94 (25.8)	30 (8.2)	240 (65.9)	364 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	4 (23.5)	-	13 (76.5)	17 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 118.987^a, df 24, sig .000</i>				
Monthly Per Capita Income				
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	363 (32.6)	148 (13.3)	604 (54.2)	1115 (100.0)
1771-3000	341 (33.3)	146 (14.2)	538 (52.5)	1025 (100.0)
3001-5000	180 (37.1)	67 (13.8)	238 (49.1)	485 (100.0)
5001+	88 (37.0)	34 (14.3)	116 (48.7)	238 (100.0)
Total	972 (34.0)	395 (13.8)	1496 (52.3)	2863 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 5.557^a, df 6, sig .475</i>				

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in %.

Table 24: Source of Drinking Water of Households across Categories

	Common hand pump	Own tap	Common tap	Others	Total
Type of House					
Pucca	62 (10.7)	294 (50.7)	180 (31.0)	44 (7.6)	580 (100.0)
Semi Pucca	113 (10.7)	391 (37.2)	273 (26.0)	275(26.1)	1052 (100.0)
Kutcha	198 (16.9)	236 (20.2)	344 (29.4)	391(33.4)	1169 (100.0)
Total	373 (13.3)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	710(25.3)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 2.549E2^a, df 8, sig .000</i>					
Ownership type					
Own	126 (12.3)	491 (47.8)	258 (25.1)	152 (14.8)	1027 (100.0)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	70 (10.9)	164 (25.5)	214 (33.3)	194 (30.2)	642 (100.0)
Rent	121 (16.8)	216 (30.0)	220 (30.6)	162 (22.6)	719 (100.0)
Others	56 (13.6)	50 (12.1)	105 (25.4)	202 (48.9)	413 (100.0)
Total	373 (13.3)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	710(25.3)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 3.123E2^a, df 12, sig .000</i>					
Slum Status					
Non-notified	202 (14.6)	213 (15.4)	423 (30.6)	540 (39.4)	1384 (100.0)
Notified	171 (12.1)	708 (50.0)	374 (26.4)	164 (11.5)	1417 (100.0)
Total	373 (13.3)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	710 (25.3)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 4.769E2^a, df 4, sig .000</i>					
Gender					
Male	344 (15.4)	709 (31.8)	633 (28.4)	543 (24.4)	2229 (100.0)
Female	77 (13.5)	212 (37.1)	164 (28.7)	119 (20.8)	572 (100.0)
Total	421 (15.0)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	662 (23.6)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 7.448^a, df 3, sig .059</i>					
Religion					
Hindu	280 (15.3)	572 (31.3)	491 (26.9)	482 (26.4)	1825 (100.0)
Muslim	131 (15.5)	310 (36.8)	258 (30.6)	144 (17.1)	843 (100.0)
Christian	10 (7.5)	39 (29.3)	48 (36.1)	36 (27.1)	133 (100.0)
Total	421 (15.0)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	662 (23.6)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 38.535^a, df 6, sig .000</i>					

Social Category					
SC	201 (15.1)	427 (32.2)	350 (26.4)	350 (26.4)	1328 (100.0)
ST	30 (15.8)	41 (21.6)	56 (29.5)	63 (33.2)	190 (100.0)
OBC	87 (17.3)	161 (32.1)	145 (28.9)	109 (21.7)	502 (100.0)
Muslim BC	83 (13.9)	231 (38.7)	172 (28.8)	111 (18.6)	597 (100.0)
General	20 (10.9)	61 (33.2)	74 (40.2)	29 (15.8)	184 (100.0)
Total	421 (15.0)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	662 (23.6)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 52.912^a, df 12, sig .000</i>					
Education					
Illiterate	129 (17.7)	223 (30.6)	200 (27.4)	177 (24.3)	729 (100.0)
Primary	103 (15.7)	206 (31.3)	193 (29.3)	156 (23.7)	658 (100.0)
Secondary	11 (12.9)	33 (38.8)	18 (21.2)	23 (27.1)	85 (100.0)
High	144 (14.8)	320 (32.9)	290 (29.8)	218 (22.4)	972 (100.0)
Inter	19 (9.5)	72 (36.0)	61 (30.5)	48 (24.0)	200 (100.0)
Graduation	15 (9.6)	67 (42.7)	35 (22.3)	40 (25.5)	157 (100.0)
Total	421 (15.0)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	662 (23.6)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 25.293^a, df 15, sig .046</i>					

Primary Occupation					
Office & Security	18 (15.7)	30 (26.1)	42 (36.5)	25 (21.7)	115 (100.0)
Driving	65 (14.8)	144 (32.9)	130 (29.7)	99 (22.6)	438 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	17 (12.0)	54 (38.0)	48 (33.8)	23 (16.2)	142 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	38 (15.6)	73 (30.0)	56 (23.0)	76 (31.3)	243 (100.0)
Skilled workers	40 (12.9)	99 (31.8)	107 (34.4)	65 (20.9)	311 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	12 (17.6)	13 (19.1)	26 (38.2)	17 (25.0)	68 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	29 (14.8)	78 (39.8)	52 (26.5)	37 (18.9)	196 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	6 (9.2)	29 (44.6)	9 (13.8)	21 (32.3)	65 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	15 (25.0)	13 (21.7)	25 (41.7)	7 (11.7)	60 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	44 (16.6)	68 (25.7)	66 (24.9)	87 (32.8)	265 (100.0)
Casual Labour	75 (14.4)	170 (32.6)	150 (28.8)	126 (24.2)	521 (100.0)
Others	56 (15.6)	141 (39.2)	84 (23.3)	79 (21.9)	360 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	6 (35.3)	9 (52.9)	2 (11.8)	-	17 (100.0)
Total	421 (15.0)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	662 (23.6)	2801 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 99.093^a, df 36, sig .000</i>					
Monthly Per Capita Income					
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	160 (14.7)	372 (34.1)	332 (30.5)	226 (20.7)	1090 (100.0)
1771-3000	147 (14.7)	334 (33.4)	280 (28.0)	239 (23.9)	1000 (100.0)
3001-5000	74 (15.5)	150 (31.4)	120 (25.2)	133 (27.9)	477 (100.0)
5001+	40 (17.1)	65 (27.8)	65 (27.8)	64 (27.4)	234 (100.0)
Total	421 (15.0)	921 (32.9)	797 (28.5)	662 (23.6)	2801 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in%

Table 25: Accessibility of Waste Disposal Facility of Households across Categories

	Yes	No	Total
Type of House			
Pucca	406 (68.4)	188 (31.6)	594 (100.0)
Semi Pucca	601 (55.2)	488 (44.8)	1089 (100.0)
Kutchha	588 (47.7)	645 (52.3)	1233 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 69.232^a, df 2, sig .000</i>			
Ownership type			
Own	683 (64.3)	380 (35.7)	1063 (100.0)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	341 (51.2)	325 (48.8)	666 (100.0)
Rent	413 (55.5)	331 (44.5)	744 (100.0)
Others	158 (35.7)	285 (64.3)	443 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 1.074E2^a, df 3, sig .000</i>			
Slum Status			
Non-notified	560 (38.4)	898 (61.6)	145 (100.0)
Notified	1035 (71.0)	423 (29.0)	1458(100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916(100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 3.123E2^a, df 1, sig .000</i>			
Gender			
Male	1239 (53.5)	1075 (46.5)	2314 (100.0)
Female	356 (59.1)	246 (40.9)	602 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 6.030^a, df 1, sig .014</i>			
Religion			
Hindu	1020 (54.1)	867 (45.9)	1887 (100.0)
Muslim	482 (54.3)	405 (45.7)	887 (100.0)
Christian	93 (65.5)	49 (34.5)	142 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 7.039^a, df 2, sig .030</i>			
Social Category			
SC	762 (55.4)	614 (44.6)	1376 (100.0)
ST	87 (43.1)	115 (56.9)	202 (100.0)
OBC	294 (56.8)	224 (43.2)	518 (100.0)
Muslim BC	344 (54.7)	285 (45.3)	629 (100.0)
General	108 (56.5)	83 (43.5)	191 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 12.429^a, df 4, sig .014</i>			
Education			
Illiterate	417 (54.2)	352 (45.8)	769 (100.0)
Primary	374 (55.2)	304(44.8)	678 (100.0)
Secondary	47 (52.8)	42 (47.2)	89 (100.0)
High	554 (55.0)	454 (45.0)	1008 (100.0)
Inter	114 (53.5)	99 (46.5)	213 (100.0)
Graduation	89 (56.0)	70 (44.0)	159 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value .508^a, df 5, sig .992</i>			

Primary Occupation			
Office & Security	58 (50.0)	58 (50.0)	116 (100.0)
Driving	259 (55.6)	207 (44.4)	466 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	87 (57.2)	65 (42.8)	152 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	137 (52.5)	124 (47.5)	261 (100.0)
Skilled workers	176 (55.3)	142 (44.7)	318 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	36 (52.9)	32 (47.1)	68 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	122 (60.1)	81 (39.9)	203 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	42 (62.7)	25 (37.3)	67 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	39 (65.0)	21 (35.0)	60 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	135 (49.3)	139 (50.7)	274(100.0)
Casual Labour	274 (50.2)	272 (49.8)	546 (100.0)
Others	216 (58.7)	152 (41.3)	368 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	14 (82.4)	3 (17.6)	17 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 24.281^a, df 12, sig .019</i>			
Monthly Per Capita Income			
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	634 (56.0)	499 (44.0)	1133 (100.0)
1771-3000	560 (53.5)	486 (46.5)	1046 (100.0)
3001-5000	267 (54.0)	227 (46.0)	494 (100.0)
5001+	134 (55.1)	109 (44.9)	243 (100.0)
Total	1595 (54.7)	1321 (45.3)	2916 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 1.398^a, df 3, sig .706</i>			

Source: Field Survey

* Data in the parenthesis is in%

Table 26: Source of Cooking Fuel of Households across Categories

	Electricity	LPG	Kerosene	Firewood	Others	Total
Type of House						
Pucca	10 (1.7)	354 (61.0)	140 (24.1)	59 (10.2)	17 (2.9)	580 (100.0)
Semi Pucca	35 (3.3)	547 (51.0)	264 (24.6)	189 (17.6)	38 (3.5)	1073 (100.0)
Kutchha	24 (2.0)	557 (45.9)	254 (20.9)	352 (29.0)	26 (2.1)	1213 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 1.063E2^a, df 8, sig .000</i>						
Ownership type						
Own	25 (2.4)	577 (55.8)	227 (22.0)	180 (17.4)	25 (2.4)	1034 (100.0)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	9 (1.4)	355 (53.5)	140 (21.1)	142 (21.4)	18 (2.7)	664 (100.0)
Rent	24 (3.3)	326 (44.5)	211 (28.8)	152 (20.7)	20 (2.7)	733 (100.0)
Others	11 (2.5)	200 (46.0)	80 (18.4)	126 (29.0)	18 (4.1)	435 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 58.332^a, df 12, sig .000</i>						
Slum Status						
Non-notified	28 (2.0)	711 (49.6)	251 (17.5)	398 (27.8)	45 (3.1)	1433 (100.0)
Notified	41 (2.9)	747 (52.1)	407 (28.4)	202 (14.1)	36 (2.5)	1433 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 1.053E2^a, df 4, sig .000</i>						
Gender						
Male	57 (2.5)	1180 (51.8)	519 (22.8)	461 (20.3)	59 (2.6)	2276 (100.0)
Female	12 (2.0)	278 (47.1)	139 (23.6)	139 (23.6)	22 (3.7)	590 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 7.191^a, df 4, sig .126</i>						
Religion						
Hindu	41 (2.2)	1012 (54.4)	375 (20.2)	383 (20.6)	49 (2.6)	1860 (100.0)
Muslim	23 (2.7)	375 (43.3)	250 (28.8)	189 (21.8)	30 (3.5)	867 (100.0)
Christian	5 (3.6)	71 (51.1)	33 (23.7)	28 (20.1)	2 (1.4)	139 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 38.116^a, df 8, sig .000</i>						
Social Category						
SC	32 (2.4)	726 (53.5)	288 (21.2)	274 (20.2)	38 (2.8)	1358 (100.0)
ST	2 (1.0)	122 (61.0)	44 (22.0)	26 (13.0)	6 (3.0)	200 (100.0)
OBC	13 (2.6)	266 (52.3)	97 (19.1)	124 (24.4)	9 (1.8)	509 (100.0)
Muslim BC	17 (2.8)	260 (42.6)	177 (29.0)	135 (22.1)	21 (3.4)	610 (100.0)
General	5 (2.6)	84 (44.4)	52 (27.5)	41 (21.7)	7 (3.7)	189 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 47.638^a, df 16, sig .000</i>						
Education						
Illiterate	15 (2.0)	311 (41.5)	168 (22.4)	224 (29.9)	32 (4.3)	750 (100.0)
Primary	14 (2.1)	314 (47.6)	169 (25.6)	147 (22.3)	16 (2.4)	660 (100.0)
Secondary	2 (2.2)	45 (50.6)	21 (23.6)	18 (20.2)	3 (3.4)	89 (100.0)
High	29 (2.9)	545 (54.7)	232 (23.3)	168 (16.9)	22 (2.2)	996 (100.0)
Inter	6 (2.8)	134 (62.9)	39 (18.3)	27 (12.7)	7 (3.3)	213 (100.0)
Graduation	3 (1.9)	109 (69.0)	29 (18.4)	16 (10.1)	1 (0.6)	158 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 104.338^a, df 20, sig .000</i>						

Primary Occupation						
Office & Security	4 (3.5)	66 (58.4)	24 (21.2)	17 (15.0)	2 (1.8)	113 (100.0)
Driving	12 (2.6)	267 (57.9)	99 (21.5)	75(16.3)	8 (1.7)	461 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	5 (3.4)	75 (51.0)	37 (25.2)	24 (16.3)	6 (4.1)	147 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	9 (3.5)	117 (45.3)	52 (20.2)	75 (29.1)	5 (1.9)	258 (100.0)
Skilled workers	7 (2.2)	169 (53.5)	77 (24.4)	48 (15.2)	15 (4.7)	316 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	-	15(22.4)	12 (17.9)	38 (56.7)	2 (3.0)	67 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	6 (3.0)	106 (53.0)	53 (26.5)	30 (15.0)	5 (2.5)	200 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	-	51 (77.3)	7 (10.6)	7 (10.6)	1 (1.5)	66 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	2 (3.3)	25 (41.7)	19 (31.7)	14 (23.3)	-	60 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	5 (1.9)	126 (47.7)	64 (24.2)	62 (23.5)	7 (2.7)	264 (100.0)
Casual Labour	15 (2.8)	223 (41.8)	122 (22.8)	154 (28.8)	20 (3.7)	534 (100.0)
Others	4 (1.1)	212 (58.2)	87 (23.9)	51 (14.0)	10 (2.7)	364 (100.0)
Unemployed & Not working	-	6 (37.5)	5 (31.3)	5 (31.3)	-	16 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 170.675^a, df 48, sig .000</i>						
Monthly Per Capita Income						
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	29 (2.6)	526 (47.5)	296 (26.7)	224 (20.2)	33 (3.0)	1108 (100.0)
1771-3000	25 (2.4)	572 (55.8)	204 (19.9)	208 (20.3)	17 (1.7)	1026 (100.0)
3001-5000	11 (2.2)	246 (50.0)	100 (20.3)	118 (24.0)	17 (3.5)	492 (100.0)
5001+	4 (1.7)	114 (47.5)	58 (24.2)	50 (20.8)	14 (5.8)	240 (100.0)
Total	69 (2.4)	1458 (50.9)	658 (23.0)	600 (20.9)	81 (2.8)	2866 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 37.510^a, df 12, sig .000</i>						

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in%

Table 27: Source of Lighting of Households across Categories

	Electricity	Kerosene	Others	Total
Type of House				
Pucca	556 (94.6)	12 (2.0)	20 (3.4)	588 (100.0)
Semi Pucca	1017 (93.6)	36 (3.3)	34(3.2)	1087 (100.0)
Kutchha	1096 (88.8)	74 (6.0)	64(5.1)	1234 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118(4.0)	2909 (100.0)
Ownership type				
Own	968 (92.1)	46 (4.4)	37(3.6)	1051 (100.0)
RAY / any other Govt. sponsored	625 (93.1)	24 (3.6)	22(3.2)	671 (100.0)
Rent	684 (92.1)	30 (4.0)	29(3.8)	743 (100.0)
Others	392 (88.3)	22 (5.0)	30(6.8)	444 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118(4.0)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 39.988^a, df 12, sig .000</i>				

Slum Status				
Non-notified	1299 (89.0)	84 (5.8)	77(5.3)	1460 (100.0)
Notified	1370 (94.5)	38 (2.6)	41(2.9)	1449 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118(4.0)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 40.925^a, df 4, sig .000</i>				
Gender				
Male	2116 (91.8)	93 (4.0)	97 (4.2)	2306 (100.0)
Female	553 (91.7)	29 (4.8)	21 (3.5)	603 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118 (4.1)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 1.304^a, df 2, sig .521</i>				
Religion				
Hindu	1724 (91.4)	83 (4.4)	79 (4.2)	1886 (100.0)
Muslim	821 (92.9)	33 (3.7)	30 (3.4)	884 (100.0)
Christian	124 (89.2)	6 (4.3)	9 (6.5)	139 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118 (4.1)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 3.931^a, df 4, sig .415</i>				
Social Category				
SC	1255 (91.4)	60 (4.4)	58 (4.2)	1373 (100.0)
ST	176 (87.6)	15 (7.5)	10 (5.0)	201 (100.0)
OBC	478 (91.7)	18 (3.5)	25 (4.8)	521 (100.0)
Muslim BC	587 (93.9)	19 (3.0)	19 (3.0)	625 (100.0)
General	173 (91.5)	10 (5.3)	6 (3.2)	189 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118 (4.1)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 12.326^a, df 8, sig .137</i>				
Education				
Illiterate	658 (86.2)	46 (6.0)	59 (7.7)	763 (100.0)
Primary	625 (92.2)	33 (4.9)	20 (2.9)	678 (100.0)
Secondary	79 (90.8)	3 (3.4)	5 (5.7)	87 (100.0)
High	951 (94.3)	30 (3.0)	27 (2.7)	1008 (100.0)
Inter	203 (94.4)	6 (2.8)	6 (2.8)	215 (100.0)
Graduation	153 (96.8)	4 (2.5)	1 (0.6)	158 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118 (4.1)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 54.701^a, df 10, sig .000</i>				
Primary Occupation				
Office & Security	106 (92.2)	3 (2.6)	6 (5.2)	115 (100.0)
Driving	428 (92.8)	15 (3.3)	18 (3.9)	461 (100.0)
Mechanic & Technical	144 (94.1)	1 (0.7)	8 (5.2)	153 (100.0)
Domestic & Cooking	247 (93.9)	9 (3.4)	7 (2.7)	263 (100.0)
Skilled workers	300 (94.3)	7 (2.2)	11 (3.5)	318 (100.0)
Sanitation & Rag Picker	60 (87.0)	5 (7.2)	4 (5.8)	69 (100.0)
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	189 (93.1)	8 (3.9)	6 (3.0)	203 (100.0)
Govt. Service & Pensioner	64 (95.5)	1 (1.5)	2 (3.0)	67 (100.0)
Rickshaw Pullers	52 (86.7)	5 (8.3)	3 (5.0)	60 (100.0)
Construction & Contract Workers	254 (93.0)	12 (4.4)	7 (2.6)	273 (100.0)
Casual Labour	472 (87.2)	37 (6.8)	32 (5.9)	541 (100.0)
Others	336 (91.1)	19 (5.1)	14 (3.8)	369 (100.0)

Unemployed & Not working	17 (100.0)	-	-	17 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118 (4.1)	2909 (100.0)
<i>Person chi-square –Value 38.536^a, df 24, sig .031</i>				
Monthly Per Capita Income				
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	1041 (92.5)	47 (4.2)	38 (3.4)	1126 (100.0)
1771-3000	968 (92.8)	37 (3.5)	38 (3.6)	1043 (100.0)
3001-5000	438 (88.3)	28 (5.6)	30 (6.0)	496 (100.0)
5001+	222 (91.0)	10 (4.1)	12 (4.9)	244 (100.0)
Total	2669 (91.7)	122 (4.2)	118 (4.1)	2909 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

*Data in the parenthesis is in %

Table 28: Households access to all housing and all housing amenities in Slums of Hyderabad

Category	Housing*	Housing Amenities*	Total Sample
Status of Slum			
Notified	136 (9.3)	59 (4.0)	1470
Non-notified	33 (2.2)	7 (0.5)	1475
Social Category			
SC	96 (6.9)	36 (2.6)	1388
ST	9 (4.4)	2 (1.0)	204
OBC	23 (4.4)	8 (1.5)	527
Muslim BC	27 (4.3)	15 (2.4)	634
General	14 (7.3)	5 (2.6)	192
Religion			
Hindu	121 (6.3)	42 (2.2)	1908
Muslim	34 (3.8)	17 (1.9)	895
Christian	14 (9.9)	7 (4.9)	142
Gender			
Male	131 (5.6)	53 (2.3)	2334
Female	38 (6.2)	13 (2.1)	611
Education of Head of Household			
Illiterate	31 (4.0)	13 (1.7)	777
Primary	33 (4.8)	12 (1.8)	683
Secondary	5 (5.6)	4 (4.4)	90
High School	67 (6.6)	27 (2.6)	1019
Intermediate	14 (6.5)	4 (1.9)	215
Graduation	19 (11.8)	6 (3.7)	161
Primary Occupation of the Head of the Household			
Office & Security	7 (6.0)	2 (1.7)	116
Driving	33 (7.0)	13 (2.8)	469
Mechanic & Technical	8 (5.2)	4 (2.6)	154
Domestic & Cooking	9 (3.4)	5 (1.9)	268
Skilled workers	14 (4.4)	6 (1.9)	319
Sanitation & Rag Picker	1 (1.4)	-	69
Petty Trade, Street Vending & Dairy	12 (5.9)	5 (2.5)	204
Govt. Service & Pensioner	7 (10.4)	4 (6.0)	67
Rickshaw Pullers	6 (9.8)	4 (6.6)	61
Construction & Contract Workers	11 (4.0)	5 (1.8)	275

Casual Labour	28 (5.1)	8 (1.5)	551
Others	32 (8.5)	10 (2.7)	375
Unemployed & Not working	1 (5.9)	-	17
Per Capita Income per month			
Below Poverty (BPL-1770)	64 (5.6)	22 (1.9)	1141
1771-3000	64 (6.1)	27 (2.6)	1057
3001-5000	26 (5.2)	10 (2.0)	502
5001+	15 (6.1)	7 (2.9)	245
Total	169 (5.7)	66 (2.2)	2945

Source: Field Survey. Data in the parenthesis is in %

* Housing in this column includes owned & pucca house with more than one room

** Housing Amenities implies owned & pucca house with more than one room, having amenities of owned or common tap drinking water, owned latrine, closed drainage, availability of waste disposal facility, cleaned energy for cooking (LPG or electricity) and electricity for lighting.

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Issues in Minorities Development: A Study of Muslims in Telangana State

Sujit Kumar Mishra

Abstract

The study attempts to understand the socio-economic and living conditions of Muslim communities with a special focus on livelihoods and status of women in bastis in the old city of Hyderabad. For this, the study collected information from 2354 households of 19 bastis using qualitative and quantitative information from the people residing in these bastis. This report focuses on the policy framework and institutional capacity of the state for the socio-economic development of Muslims. Evidences based on review of documents and reports, interviews with government department officials and field observations have hinted at improved institutional performances, such as the creation of Ministry of Minority Affairs (MoMA) in 2006, re-launching the Prime Minister's 15 point Programme with emphasis on educational opportunities, employment and economic activities, living conditions and prevention and control of communal disharmony and violence and the Multi-sectoral Development Programme (MSDP). The analysis and findings of this paper identify several institutional incapacities in terms of gap between development needs and policy with reference to marginalised and poor communities. Here, the community initiatives, reflected through a sound collective action process, were not found among the people due to lack of resources and poor bargaining power. The critical issues identified by this study which require the urgent policy attention and governmental intervention are (a) large scale of drop-outs and discontinuation in education by Muslim students from primary to high school level; (b) deprivation in access to decent housing, safe drinking water and cooking fuel (LPG); (c) lack of credit from formal credit institutions; (d) early marriage, domestic violence, discrimination against women in decision making; (e) denial of sexual and reproductive health services to women; (f) lack of proper identification of the beneficiaries, and absence of a cogent and comprehensive action plan for elimination of poverty; and (g) improper funds utilization.

Author

Sujit Kumar Mishra is Associate Professor at Council for Social Development, Hyderabad

Issues in Minorities Development: A Study of Muslims in Telangana State

Sujit Kumar Mishra

1. Introduction

Political thinkers take the idea of “majority- minority” division as a major political issue on the basis of religion (especially Hindu and Muslim) since the British colonial period. Najjullah (2011) states, “..... before independence, the consciousness of Muslims as a minority developed and Muslims formed their Political association not only because of distinctive religions and cultural identity, but also because of the fear of majority rule in the event of the independence of India”. Thereafter, the era of “two nation theory” emerged which was based on a larger concentration of population (Muslims and non-Muslims) and it ended up with the partition. But, the Indian leaders who believed India to be a secular nation rejected the theory of the “two nation theory”. However, the institutionalisation of minority rights in India hit the political discourse with the introduction of the new concept like “nation state”. The concept of “nation state” (which generally stands for a form of institution which contains a large heterogeneous group who share the common history, culture, traditions, or language live in a particular area under one government), with the introduction of the minority discourse, gathered several points made by the minorities. This was pointed out by Robinson (2012) in the Western debate on minorities. The idea of “nation state” is generally a large concept, which is often seen in terms of “totality”. For instance, a national culture may be promoted as an aggregate culture, but the reality is quite different from it. Generally, the culture and symbols of the dominant ethno-religious or ethno-linguistic community (Bhargava, 2002; Kymlicka, 1992; Sheth, 1999) are reflected.

By and large, it is a matter of great concern for India that it could never provide a proper representation of the minority rights irrespective of religion, language and ethnicity. Even though the Muslims are the biggest minority and secure the second next majority after the Hindu population in India, it was not earlier than the 6th Five Year Plan that the minorities got the acknowledgement as a separate socio-economic group and provisions were made for under the Minimum Needs Program (Social Development Report (SDR), 2012).

A few studies like Trivedi, et al (2016); Shaheen (2015); Niels (2014); Patel (2013); Ilaiah (2013); Paula Banerjee (2010); Ansari (2009); Krishnan (2007); Sikand (2006); Shariff (1998); Reddy (nd) have dealt with the vulnerability of the minority in terms of poverty, representation in government jobs with a gender glance, representation in politics, untouchability among Muslims. Shaheen's (2015) study focuses on the poverty of minorities and its manifestations in social, economic, cultural and political spheres. Paula Banerjee (2010) talks about the ill representation of the Muslim communities in all the government services where their percentage is far below their total population. Shariff (1998) sheds light on the least work participation rate among both Muslim males and females. Patel (2013) gave an estimation of the work participation rate among Muslims in the state of Maharashtra from a gender perspective. This study substantiated that the work participation rate was reportedly higher among men i.e., 49.97 % in comparison to women (12.67 %). And above all, more than 70 % are employed in semi-skilled and skilled informal sectors work such as: carpentry, masonry, electrician, plumber, mechanic, manual labor, coolie job, solid waste management, butchery, weaving, jari and embroidery work, tailoring, hawking, petty trade, pulling cycle rickshaws and hand crafts, driving four wheelers and heavy vehicles. Niels (2014) blames patriarchy as one of the chief causes behind the level of women's unemployment in Muslim-majority countries. Ansari (2009) talks about the political ill-representation of Muslim communities. A marginal number of 28 Muslim MPs have been elected to the 15th Lok Sabha, whereas with proportion to their share in population, it should have been at least 72 MPs. The author added that the average percentage of representation for the previous Lok Sabha (14th) was about 53 % of the expected share. The present representation of Muslims is the all-time low, even much lower than that of in the years 1991 and 1996 when the country confronted the issue of Ayodhya.

Ilaiah (2013) states, "any model of development, in Indian context, has to assure that it transforms and empowers the tribals, dalits, other backward class and minorities, who by and large do not stand on an equal footing with other communities that are historically advantaged. A model that has already been experimented in parts of the country and that ensures upward of the socially disadvantaged people should be seen as positive". A number of government reports and independent studies present the evidence of discrimination against Muslims on grounds of religion, education, housing, employment and livelihoods, and health care access. Moreover, most of the time, it is Muslims who are being made frequent victims of targeted, collective violence, keeping them in the lowest socio-economic stratum amongst all religious minorities in

the post-independent India (Sikand, 2006; Reddy (nd); Government of India, 2006; Krishnan, 2007). The studies have also proposed a multi-pronged approach to stop discrimination against Muslims. The Sachar Committee Report (SCR) attempts to give an account of the political and economic exclusion of Muslim minorities in India based on the high rate of illiteracy, high dropout rate, poor credit flow, poor water and sanitation facilities, high IMR and MMR, and below average work participation rate. As a whole, there is a dearth of a wide understanding of the poverty of minorities in India. The entire process of regulatory mechanism also does not show any trace of equity. Across all the issues like, economic, social, cultural and political, the same practice is observed. Within this framework, our study attempts to

- Understand the particularities of the socio-economic and living conditions;
- Map the existing livelihoods pattern
- Examine the conditions of housing and sanitation among Muslims households; and
- Understand the status of women in Muslim communities

2. Political Economy of Exclusions of Muslim Minorities

The Muslim community is one of the only minorities' community in India whose socio-economic status has been highly discussed and debated. But, till 2006, there was no official record to furnish the socio-economic indicators of Muslim minorities. However, SCR is the first attempt of its kind which has collated the information from various sources- NSSO of different rounds, census, different rounds of NFHS (1, 2 and 3), NCERT, NCEAR and put it in one volume, which is popularly known as "Social, Economic and Educational Status of the Muslim Community of India". Submitted in 2006, the Report of the Committee has turned out to be a landmark in documenting the socio-economic and educational status of Muslims based on pooling together extensive information hitherto scattered across different sources (Reddy, nd). By and large, this report contains the poor performance of the Muslims on well-being outcomes. Apart from these the other most important document that has been frequently referred in the present work is Post Sachar Evaluation Committee Report (Kundu Committee). Given below is a catalogue of some very important outcomes and its performance.

2.1 Poverty

According to the India Human Development Report (HDR) 2011, 94% of the total population of the country are Hindus and Muslims. If the country is taken as a whole, the Muslims are found to

be poorer than the Hindus. About 32% of Muslims in India were below the poverty line which means that one in every three Muslims was below poverty line. If we talk about rural areas, the proportion of poverty among the Hindus and Muslims was almost similar to their respective population shares. However, it is notable that especially in urban areas, the case of poverty among Muslims was much higher than their population shares (Table 1).

Table 1: Poverty and Poor among Socio-Religious Groups

S.No	Socio-Religious Group	1993-94				2004-05			
		Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
		Population Share	Poor	Population Share	Poor	Population Share	Poor	Population Share	Poor
1	Hindus	83.4	84.1	76.0	70.3	82.3	84.1	75.6	68.9
2	Muslims	11.1	12.3	17.1	25.4	12.0	12.4	17.3	27.9

Source: HDR, 2011, pp. 268

(Based Census 1991, 2001 for Population Share; NSS 50th and 61th Round for Poverty)

The poverty in Andhra Pradesh has been well documented through the backwardness index developed by Raghuram Rajan Committee. The report portrays Andhra Pradesh as a less developed state with the underdevelopment index valued at 0.521¹ (Government of India, 2013). It is surprising enough that according to the Absolute Poverty measure, the poverty level in the state has come down to a considerable level, whereas the report says it is still a less developed state. However, Andhra Pradesh is one of the states where urban poverty is largely high, i.e., ranging between 26-30 %. On the contrary, the Muslim Head Count Ratio (HCR) is found to be considerably higher than the state average (Table 2).

Table 2: Head Count Ratio among Socio-Religious Groups

S. No	Country/ State	Total			Hindus			Muslims		
		2004-05	1993-94	1987-88	2004-05	1993-94	1987-88	2004-05	1993-94	1987-88
1	India	29	33	38	27	31	36	44	47	53
2	Andhra Pradesh	34	38	45	32	37	42	49	49	57

Source: SCR, 2006

The HCR of Muslims was 53 in 1987-88 which fell considerably to 44 in 2004-05 whereas in case of the Hindus, it was 36 in 1987-88 and declined to 27 in 2004-05. The trend is however not the same in the case of the state of Andhra Pradesh. There is something notable here in the table that the HCR fall for Muslims was a bit modest during the period of 1987-88 to 1993-94. But, it has become stagnant for the period of 1993-94 to 2004-05. On the other hand, the HCR for the Hindus has sharply declined from the period of 1987-88 to 2004-05. It can be noted that the HCR

¹ According to this index, the states that score 0.6 and above are "least developed", the state that score below 0.6 and above 0.4 are "less developed" while the state that score below 0.4 are "relatively developed" states.

has declined from 42 in 1987-88 to 32 in 2004-05. In comparison with rural areas, the Muslims are much more deprived in urban setups. If the changes in poverty level is taken for consideration, there is no significant change in the economic condition of the Muslims in urban areas.

2.1.1 Mean per Capita Expenditures (MPCE)

The estimation of SCR (2006: 153) reveals that the all India average MPCE for the year 2004-05 was Rs 712, with a high of Rs 1023 for a general household. The Muslims and the SCs/STs were at the worst level having MPCE of Rs 635 and Rs 520 for Muslims and the SCs/STs respectively. The average MPCE varied across socio religious categories (SRCs) considerably in urban areas - from Rs 1469 for Hindu general households to Rs 804 for Muslims. What is surprising is that the MPCE of the Muslims 80% less than the Hindu general household. The common national MPCE is Rs 1105 across India. Likewise, it is Rs 1139 for Hindu – All, Rs 1469 for Hindu – General. But alarmingly, it is Rs 804 for the Muslims. If expressed in percentage, the MPCE of the national average is 37.4 % more than the MPCE of Muslims in the urban areas. Similarly, it is 41.7 % for the Hindus and for Hindus- General it is 82.7 % more than that of Muslims. Therefore, the relative deprivation of the Muslim community in terms of consumption expenditure is significantly higher among the SRCs. This situation is the worst in the urban sites of Andhra Pradesh. The state level average is less than that of the national level average. The MPCE of Hindus- All is 41.2 % more than that of the MPCE of the Muslims, whereas the Hindu –General group is around 100 % more than that of MPCE of Muslims (Table 3).

Table 3: Urban MPCE according to SRCs 2004-05

S. No	State	All	All Hindus	Hindu General	Muslims
1	India	1105	1139	1469	804
2	Andhra Pradesh	1091	1134	1605	803

Source: SCR, 2006: 364

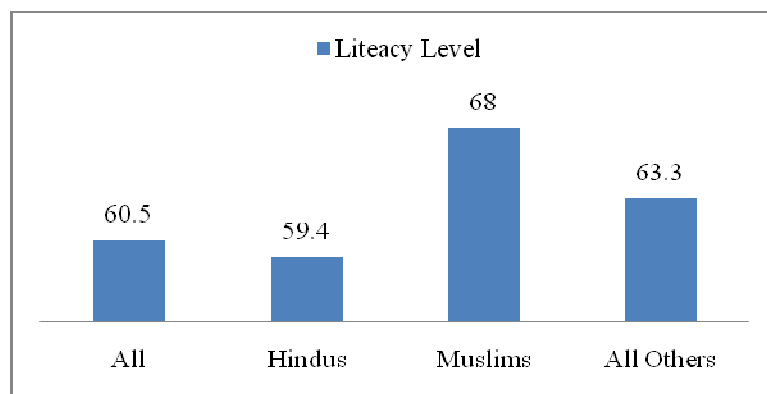
2.2 Education

Human development outcome has a direct bearing on education (Mehoratra and Delamonica, 2007). Moreover, it is largely connected with all socio-economic indicators in a positive manner. According to the SCR (2006) “Improvements on education are not only expected to enhance efficiency (and therefore earnings) but also augment democratic participant, upgrade length and quality of life”. Attainment of education is much of a composite concept, which comprises the

indicators like literacy level, mean year of schooling, attendance status and dropout rate. Amongst all the concerned parameters, literacy is given primacy because it paves the way for further advancement and training in formal sector (HDR, 2011). The present study earmarks literacy as the base point in this section.

A thorough analysis of literacy among the SRCs indicates that the literacy level has increased over a period of time, yet it persists as a major issue for the minorities like Muslims. According to SCR (2006) across SRCs, the literacy rate was the lowest among Muslims (Hindu: 65.1 % and Muslim: 59.1 %). On the other hand, HDR (2011) drew a similar type of conclusion in 2007-08 (Muslim: 75.1 %, Hindu: 85.8 %, Christian: 92.0 % and Sikh: 88.2 %). Government of India (2014) calculated the literacy level of the population 6 years and above among the SRCs and discovered Muslims continuing with the lowest literacy level (70 %) in comparison with the Hindus with 74 % and 83 % among other religious minorities.

Chart 1: Literacy Level in Andhra Pradesh (un-divided)



Source: SCR, 2006

For instance, in Andhra Pradesh (undivided) alone 68% Muslims are literate compared to 61 % for the state as a whole and 63 % for “All Others” (Chart 1). If the aggregate literacy levels among males and females are considered, Muslims (77 % and 59 %) are much better-off than that of “All Others” (73 % and 52 %). But to our utter surprise, Muslim urban literacy level is lower than all socio-religious communities except SCs/ STs irrespective of both genders. Following the Government of India (2014) report, the gap between Hindus and Muslims in urban areas has decreased slightly from 12 % in 2004-05 to 10 % in 2011-12. Muslims in the urban areas, particularly the Muslim women, have a greater dearth of literacy in Andhra Pradesh (Table 4). But fortunately, less numbers of dropouts are observed in Andhra Pradesh Muslim

children compared to other states like West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Uttarakhand and Delhi (Table 5).

Table 4: Urban Literacy Level with Gender Glance

S. No	State	Hindu			Muslim			Christian		
		Male	Female	People	Male	Female	People	Male	Female	People
1	India	91.6	79.3	85.8	80.9	68.8	75.1	95.3	89.0	92.0
2	Andhra Pradesh	89.3	76.1	82.7	85.9	70.9	78.4	87.1	73.0	79.4

Source: HDR, 2011

Table 5: Mean Year of Schooling

S. No	State	Group	State			Urban		
			All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female
1	India	Total	3.95	4.18	3.69	4.82	4.85	4.79
		Muslims	3.26	3.40	3.11	4.02	4.01	4.03
2	Andhra Pradesh	Total	4.38	4.64	4.10	5.11	5.14	5.09
		Muslims	4.42	4.48	4.36	4.62	4.55	4.70

Source: SCR, 2006

2.2.1 Status of Attendance

On the one hand, there is an increase in enrolment seen for all SRCs (NSSO 55th round (1999-2000) and 61st round (2004-05)), on the other hand, this increase is the highest among SCs/STs (95 %), followed by Muslims (Government of India, 2014). The attendance status at different age cohort has been given in Table 6. The more is the age cohort, the less is the attendance rate in all the SRCs. Within the SRCs, however, a wide variation in the attendance rate can be seen. There is an improvement observed in participation in education under the 15-19 age category cohort, though the increase seems quite marginal in the last cohort between the years of 2004-05 to 2011-12. However, the degree of increase is very less among the Muslims as compared to the Hindus and other minority groups.

Table 6: Attendance Status in India – Religious Communities

S.No	Religious Communities	Age Cohort					
		06 to 14		15 to 19		20 to 25	
		2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12
1	Hindus	86.1	94.0	46.9	66.0	10.3	18.0
2	Muslims	79.5	87.0	36.1	50.0	7.5	11.3
3	Other Minorities	90.5	96.0	57.5	72.0	14.5	22.9
	Total	85.3	93.0	46.0	63.9	10.2	17.3

Government of India, 2014

Enrolment showed an improvement in school during the period of 2004-05 and 2011-12. Overall, 4.4 % of the children (aged between 6-14 years) never visited a school, whereas the same is 15.3 % for Muslims (Government of India, 2014). The overall percentage of children in

the entire age cohort having never attended any school has dropped across all the SRCs between 2004-05 and 2011-12. The percentage of children never having attended school across all the age cohorts among Muslims is much higher than all SRCs in 2004-05 and continues to remain so in 2011-12 (Table 7). A gender-wise illustration of the same is presented in Table 8. Female students having never attended any school are relatively higher across all the religious groups. However, it is a little more among the Muslims (1.5 % more), though it is 0.8 % at the aggregate level.

Table 7: Individuals who never attended any Educational Institution

S.No	Religious Communities	Age Cohort					
		06 to 14		15 to 19		20 to 25	
		2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12
1	Hindus	9.6	3.6	13.8	5.4	23.8	13.5
2	Muslims	15.3	8.7	21.3	12.7	31.0	18.9
3	Other Minorities	6.0	2.6	8.9	2.3	14.0	7.2
Total		10.2	4.4	14.6	6.4	24.2	14.0

Source: Government of India, 2014

Table 8: Individuals who never attended any Educational Institution with a gender glance

S.No	Religious Communities	Male	Female	Difference
1	Hindu	3.3	4.0	0.7
2	Muslims	8.0	9.5	1.5
3	Other Minorities	1.8	2.0	0.2
Total		3.2	4.0	0.8

Source: Government of India, 2014

2.2.2 Dropout from School

Across all the SRCs, the issue of dropout among the Muslim is the most alarming (it is 28.8 % as compared to 17.7 % Hindus and 9.7 % Christians) (Table 9). In 2007-08 alone, at least one-third of the Muslim children, in the age group 6-17 years, were found to be outside the school. The Christian were amongst the lowest dropouts whereas the Muslim children among the highest dropouts. The Muslim male-female gap of dropouts was found to be more than 10%, whereas it is less than 4% among the Hindus, and 6% among the Christians. At least six states, namely Rajasthan, UP, Bihar, West Bengal, Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh accounted for 64 % dropouts in the country, in the age group of 6-17 years. On the other hand, this accounted for 56 % of all children in this age group. However, while dropout occurs in all social groups, it begins much earlier for Muslims (Government of India, 2014).

Table 9: Out of school children (6-17 years)

S. No	State	Hindu			Muslim			Christian		
		Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person
1	India	15.5	20.2	17.7	26.4	31.5	28.8	8.7	10.7	9.7
2	Andhra Pradesh	14.6	18.0	16.3	15.2	26.7	21.2	18.1	12.7	15.8

Source: Government of India, 2014

2.2.3 Dropout and the Factors Associated with It

The factors that lead to dropouts at different age cohort offer surprising results. According to Government of India (2014)'s estimate, the reasons behind more than 50 % of the dropout in India are: (i) parents not interested; (ii) financial constraints; and (iii) child not interested. Financial issues is one of the major constraints for the Muslims for their dropout in both the age cohorts. Reluctance of the parents is also one of the important factors for dropout rate. However, the percentage is less among Muslims in the 5-14 age cohorts in comparison with the Hindus. Reluctance in child is also one of the contributors to dropout rate. In this case also, there are less reluctant children in Muslim community than that of the Hindu community (Table 10).

Table 10: Dropout and the Factors Associated with it

S. No	Factors	Age Group					
		5-14			15-26		
		Hindu	Muslim	Total	Hindu	Muslim	Total
1	Parents not interested	26.5	23.8	25.5	13.3	15.5	13.4
2	Financial constraints	19.4	29.4	21.8	21.1	26.8	22.1
3	Child not interested	11.1	10.0	11.1	16.5	14.1	16.2

Source: Government of India, 2014

The HDR 2011 offers a dismal idea about the incidence of the Muslim children dropouts which is found to be much higher than any other religious groups. Shah (2007) complains that the quality of education as well as pedagogy (including language for instruction) in government-run primary schools is highly ignored which results in high dropout rates among the poor. The status of Muslim students in the Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya (JNVs) was mentioned in the SCR (2006). The proportion of Muslim students registering for, appearing in and being selected in Jawahar Navodaya Selection Test is extremely low and much below their population share. Even in JNV regions like Lucknow and Hyderabad, the proportion of Muslim children is very low. It is even poorer when it comes to the performance of Muslim girls in comparison to Muslim boys (SCR, 2006: 63).

2.2.4 Higher Education and the Muslims

In India, still a major proportion of the population has remained deprived of the benefits of higher education and untouched by development. The Muslims are one of such deprived communities. The probability of Muslims, completing graduation is much lower than that of all other SRCs, especially in urban areas and for men. The Muslim graduates are highly unemployed among SRCs. The reason behind it is the Muslims do not see education as necessarily transferring into formal employment. Muslims are badly represented in formal employment sectors. Moreover, there is a perception that they will be discriminated against in securing salaried jobs (SCR, 2006: 15). Therefore, the low perceived returns from education do not help the cause of retention of Muslims in education system (Robinson, 2007). The share of the Muslim graduates in the total population of graduates is marginally 6 %, while their share in population aged 20 years and above is about double at over 11 % (SCR, 2006:65). Merely one Muslim student in 25 students enrolls in an undergraduate course, and only 1 out of 50 students go in for a Post-graduate course. Similarly, in IITS, out of 27,161 students enrolled in different programmes, there are only 894 Muslims – 1.7 % undergraduate course, 4 % post-graduate course and the share in PhD course is somewhat better compared with other courses (SCR, 2006: 69). The percentage of graduates in poor households pursuing post graduate studies is significantly lower among Muslim than other SRCs: 29.3 % among Hindus, 27.6 % among SCs/STs and the lowest 16.3% among Muslims. Gender inequality is also a challenging issue in the Muslim community. Gender inequality in higher education is found to be more in urban areas than that of rural areas (Government of India, 2014: 96). Gender discrimination among Muslims is much lower than the Hindus. But this is also a fact that the overall rate of completion of at least graduate level is significantly lower among the Muslims than that of the Hindus.

2.2.5 Technical Education

India has a very low achievement in the direction of technical education. The share of persons under the age of 15 and above having technical education was a marginal 1.6 % in 2011-12. It comprised technical graduates, undergraduate and graduate level diploma and certificate courses (Table 11). There was a negligible share of people with technical degree both in general and among SRCs. Almost all had either an undergraduate level diploma or certificate qualification. In comparison to other SRCs, the Muslims in general had a very low share in the completion of technical education (1.3 %). In comparison to the level of technical education among the Hindus and people from other religions, the Muslims were lagging far behind. In terms of gender

disparity in completion of technical education, it was higher among the Hindus than the Muslims.

Table 11: Level of Technical Education for Persons Age 15 and Above, 2011-12

S. No	SRCs	Without Technical Education	Technical Graduate	Under-Graduate Diploma/Certificate	Graduate Diploma/Certificate	Total
1	Hindu	98.2	0.3	1.1	0.5	100.0
2	Muslim	99.2	0.1	0.5	0.2	100.0
3	Other Minorities	96.7	0.3	2.2	0.8	100.0
Total		98.2	0.2	1.0	0.4	100.0

Source: Government of India, 2014

2.2.6 Madarasa Education: A Brief Discussion

If we go by SCR (2006), most of the Muslim children attend to either cheaper government or government-aided schools. There is a small percentage (about 4% of Muslim children goes to Madrasas. A large number of people have this notion that Muslim parents send their children to Madarasa to procure religious education and religious backgrounds. Ruhela (1998); Salamatullah (1994); and Alam (2013) largely talk about this issue. There is a lack of data to ascertain the number of Madrasas existing in India. Different agencies like NCAER and NCERT vary in their views about the number of Madrasas. Alam (2013) establishes this is as a result of the absence of comprehensive survey of Madarasas in India. He further adds by pointing at the lack of a homogeneous definition of what a Madarasa is.

As a matter of fact, a lot of confusion still persists about Madarasas and Maletabs. Madarasas generally impart education (religious and or regulation), whereas Maletabs are neighborhood schools, often attached to mosques, that impart religious teachings to them who go to other schools to receive mainstream education.

Alam's (2013) study attempted to estimate the number of Madrasas and the number of students enrolled in them. He underlined that the data on Madrasas, appeared in the Sachar Committee Reports came from two services of Madrasas – (i) those who do not follow the general education. According to him, SCR did not count these Madrasas – and the students therein – that are controlled by various Madrasa Boards, other way would have stood at more than 2 million which was almost double the figure of nearly 1 million students provided on the SCR (Table 12).

Table 12: Number of Madrasa Students

State	Primary		Middle		Secondary		Higher Secondary		Total Students	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
India	404824	345983	111418	46745	34982	29272	8601	3559	559825	475559
Andhra Pradesh	13576	4345	589	463	354	142	0	0	14519	4950

Source: SCR , 2006: 293

There is something good these Madrasas have done. They have helped imparting education to the Muslim children on the face of non-availability of proper schools. Their efforts need to be acknowledged by providing them “equivalence” which contribute for the Muslim children’s subsequent admission into government schools and universities in a transparent manner. Rizvi (2006) comments, “The task of introducing natural science education and sustaining it in a large number of madrasas is gigantic as well as crucial. It requires the concerted efforts of much bigger organizations (than this Centre), with resources, suitable manpower and commitment to match the task”.

2.3 Health

The sound health of its citizens is indicative of the growth and development of any country. If the children are healthy, they perform better at schools and this later gives a scope to better earning capacity. There are three major determinants of health: behaviour and lifestyle, environmental exposure and access to good healthcare. In most of the cases, it is found that the poor are more vulnerable to environmental risks (e.g. poor sanitation, open garbage system, open defecation and so on) but comparatively less prepared to cope with them. A discrepancy is always seen in the information between the illness and the healthcare system. India, where live one third of the world’s total poor, has a very unimpressive record in terms of health outcome. Therefore, the Millennium Development Goals launched by the United Nations largely focuses on health by keeping three goals, out of a total of eight, directly related to health. The next section gives some details of the performance of some of the health outcome indicators.

2.3.1 Mortality

Bringing down the infant and child mortality rate is one of the major public health priorities in India. This is also one of the important objectives of the MDG. About 1.5 million children die in India every year even before completing a year of their birth. However, a sharp decline can be seen in the Infant Mortality Rate from the year 2000 to 2009 in India (HDR, 2011).

Table 13: Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) of Muslims in India and Andhra Pradesh

S. No	Country/ State	Hindu		Muslim	
		NFHS 2 (1998-99)	NFHS 3 (2006-06)	NFHS 2 (1998-99)	NFHS 3 (2006-06)
1	India	77.1	58.5	58.8	52.4
2	Andhra Pradesh	75.5	71.0	29.7	52.2

Source: International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and ORC Macro (2000).
International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Macro International (2008)

The socio-religious basis is common basis adopted by NFHS for compilation of these data. There was a significant decline in the IMR among the Hindus at the national level, whereas the same had been a gradual decline in Andhra Pradesh from NFHS 2 (1998-99) to NFHS 3 (2005-06). Apart from that, the IMR saw a rise for the Muslims in Andhra Pradesh and this increase was the greatest (22.5 %) among the states (Table 13) that experienced increased IMR (Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and Delhi).

Table 14: Under Five Mortality Rate (U5MR) of Muslims in India and Andhra Pradesh

S. No	Country/ State	Hindu		Muslim	
		NFHS 2 (1998-99)	NFHS 3 (2006-06)	NFHS 2 (1998-99)	NFHS 3 (2006-06)
1	India	107.0	76.0	82.7	70.0
2	Andhra Pradesh	97.1	82.0	40.3	60.0

Source: International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and ORC Macro (2000).
International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Macro International (2008).

A sharp decline can be seen in the U5MR among the Hindus at the national level (Table 14). Exactly the same trend is observed among the Hindus in Andhra Pradesh from NFHS 2 (1998-99) to NFHS 3 (2005-06). There is a very sharp increase of the U5MR for Muslims in Andhra Pradesh from 40.3 % to 60.0 % during the same period of time.

The vulnerability of health indicators among Muslims in Andhra Pradesh can be easily observed in comparing the targeted number 28 per 1000 live births by 2012 as per the 11th Plan target and 26.7 per 1000 live births by 2015 as per the MDG. The same is true for the U5MR in Andhra Pradesh among the Muslim communities. The SCR (2006) has identified the factors responsible for variations in infant and under-five mortality and they are biological and socio-economic variables, such as, child sex and birth order, the mother's education and household economic status. Moreover, they are functions of access to infrastructure such as electricity, drinking water and sanitation.

2.3.2 Place of Delivery and Maternal Mortality

Maternal mortality is a seriously challenging issue closely related to the places of deliveries (institutional or home) as a woman's delivery at home cannot receive comprehensive healthcare and attention for both the mother and the child. And this is one of the main reasons of maternal mortality in India. This is highly notable that during 2005-06, only 39 % of deliveries in the country took place in an institution. If deliveries across religious communities taken into account, only one-third of the deliveries among Muslims reported to be institutional which was far behind the national average of 39 %. Education is a major factor to create the awareness for institutional delivery. According to HDR (2011), the institutional deliveries are absolutely dependent upon the number of years of education. The more is the education level, the more preference is given to institutional delivery. And as a matter of fact, educated women are more conscious about hygiene environment during delivery, quality post-natal care and maternal and child care.

There is essence of health infrastructure to get access to reproductive health services. In India, there is one government hospital for every 98,970 people and one government hospital bed for every 1512 during 2012 (Table 15). In case of Andhra Pradesh, the same are 1, 78,243 people for one hospital and 2225 persons for one bed which is much far behind the national levels.

Table 15: Government Hospitals in 2012

S. No	State/ Country	Rural Hospitals		Urban Hospitals		Total Hospitals		Average Population Served Per Hospital	Ratio of Population and Bed
		No.	Beds	No.	Beds	No.	Beds		
1	Andhra Pradesh	143	3725	332	34325	475	38050	178243	2225
2	India	7347	160862	4146	618664	11993	784940	98970	1512

Source: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/health/16/allopathy/29091/719401/data.aspx>

ASHA workers and ANMs are basically the ground level staff to provide the reproductive health services to people. There were average 3 ASHA workers for 1000 women, in the age group of 15-49, in both at all India level and Andhra Pradesh during 2014. However, in case of the ANMs, for 1000 women, within the age group of 15-49, it stands at 0.2 at all India level and 0.5 in Andhra Pradesh which is relatively better (Table 16). However, these statistics show true picture of the health infrastructure facilities in India, while comparing with the advanced countries.

Table 16: Health Workers (2014)

State/ country	ASHA Worker	ASHA per 1000 Women age 15-49	ANM	ANM per 1000 Women age 15-49
Andhra Pradesh	70700	3.0	10678	0.5
India	895986	2.9	72616	0.2

Source: Indiatat.com

2.4 Employment

Land (physical capital) and education (human capital) are two most important exogenous variables that largely influence employment in a particular economy. Skewed access to these capitals may force workers to remain at the lower end of labour market hierarchy (SCR, 2005: 87). SCR (2005: 89) computed worker population ratios (WPRs) and unemployment rates (URs). WPR is nothing but the extent of participation in economic activity by a specific population whereas UR reflects persons available for and seeking employment as a proportion of the labour force.

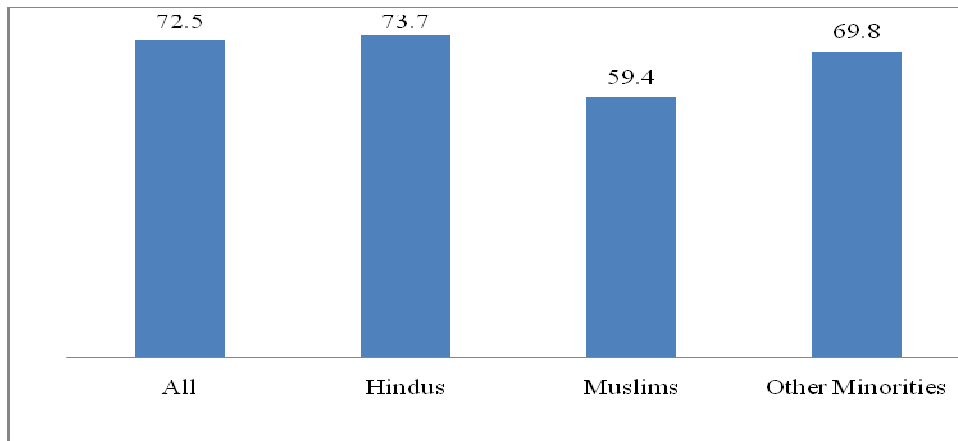
Table 17: WPR across SRCs

S.No	Socio religious group	Total	Male	Female
1	Hindus	65.8	84.9	46.1
2	Muslims	54.9	84.6	25.2
3	Other Minorities	64.5	81.8	47.2
Total		64.4	84.6	43.6

Source: SCR, 2006: 110

WPRs for Muslim (54.9 %) are lower than for all other SRCs (Hindus: 65.8 %, Other Minorities: 64.5 %). Gender-wise, the low aggregate WPRs for Muslims are essentially due to much lower participation in economic activity by the women in the community (25.2) compared to other SRCs (Hindus: 46.1, Other Minorities: 47.2). Overall only 43.6 % of the women participate in the work force where the same is 84.6 % for male (Table 17). The WPRs for Muslim women in urban areas are lower than that of rural areas, presumably because work opportunities for women within the household are very limited. Such opportunities may be somewhat higher in rural areas with ownership of land (though limited) making participation of Muslim women somewhat higher in these areas. In Andhra Pradesh the WPR among the Muslims (59.4 %) is the lowest compared to other SRCs (Hindus: 73.7 %; and Other Minorities: 69.8 %) (Chart 2).

Chart 2: WPRs by SRCs in Andhra Pradesh



Source: SCR, 2006: 341

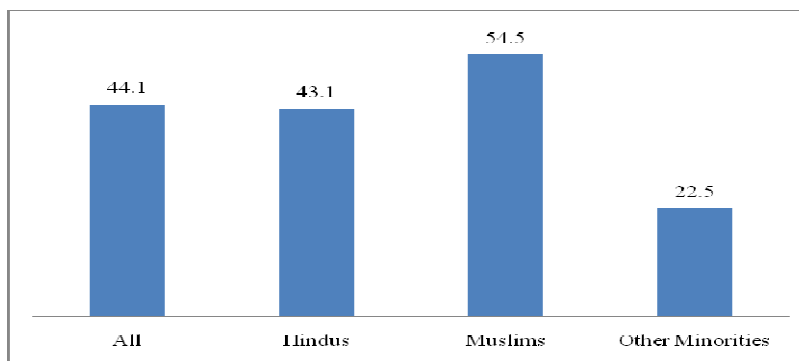
Open employment is a daydream in developing countries. This is because a huge number of people cannot afford to remain unemployed and catch hold of whatever job comes their way. If they are not gainfully employed, they do not report themselves to be seeking an employment throughout a year. The overall employment rate of the Muslims is slightly higher than that of the Hindus. The SCR has not furnished the state-wise WPR information of the women. Hasan and Menon (2004) has furnished an indicative statistics (zone wise) of the WPR information for the southern zone. As per their findings, there are three main occupations category- unskilled labour, skilled labour and small business which is contributed by 48.3 % of women.

Basing on the extent of participation of a community in activities, SCR (2006: 91) categorised the types of activity status of workers such as: (i) Self-employed in household enterprises [(a) own account worker; (b) employer; and (c) unpaid family work]; (ii) Regular salaries/ wage employees [in (a) public sector; and (b) private sector]; and (iii) Casual wage labour [in (a) public works; and (ii) other types of work]. The most significant feature is the relatively high share of Muslim workers engaged in self-employment activity. This is the case with Muslim women workers in the urban setup. If taken as a whole, the three self-employed categories constitute about 61 % of the entire Muslim workforce (own account worker: 39.4 %; employer: 1.4 %; and unpaid family work: 20.2 %) as compared to about 55 % of the Hindu workers (own account worker: 29.6 %; employer: 1.1 %; and unpaid family work: 24.6 %).

The Muslims have a share of 57 % in urban areas (own account worker: 39.4 %; employer: 2.0 %; and unpaid family work: 15.9 %) and 42.6 % for Hindus (own account worker: 29.7 %; employer: 2.3 %; and unpaid family work: 10.6 %). But dramatically, amongst Muslim women

this share is as high as 72.9 % (own account worker: 29.1 %; employer: 1.3 %; and unpaid family work: 42.5 %) and 59.7 % for Hindus (own account worker: 14.9 %; employer: 0.4 %; and unpaid family work: 44.4 %) (Chart 3).

Chart 3: Self Employed Workers in Andhra Pradesh (All Workers)



Source: SCR, 2006: 343

If regular wages/salaried work is taken into account, Muslim workers give a less participation in salaried jobs (both in the public and the private sectors) is quite low (Muslims: 13.0 %; Hindus: 14.7 % and Other Minorities: 19.2 %) (Table 18). Hardly or no access to regular jobs in public sectors has become a serious concern for the Muslim population. However, distribution by activity status of workers in urban areas brings out sharply that participation of Muslims in regular jobs is quite limited (27 %) as compared to other SRCs (Hindus: 42.3 %, Other Minorities: 44.7 %). As far as participation in government/public sector and private/public limited companies are concerned, a mere 24 % of Muslim regular workers are employed in public sector or government jobs. It comes down a little in the urban areas with a marginal percentage of 19.4 %, whereas among the other SRCs, the same is very high (Hindus: 32.8 %, Other Minorities: 32.0 %).

Table 18: Regular Salaried/Wage Non-Agricultural Workers in Government Sector- 2004-05

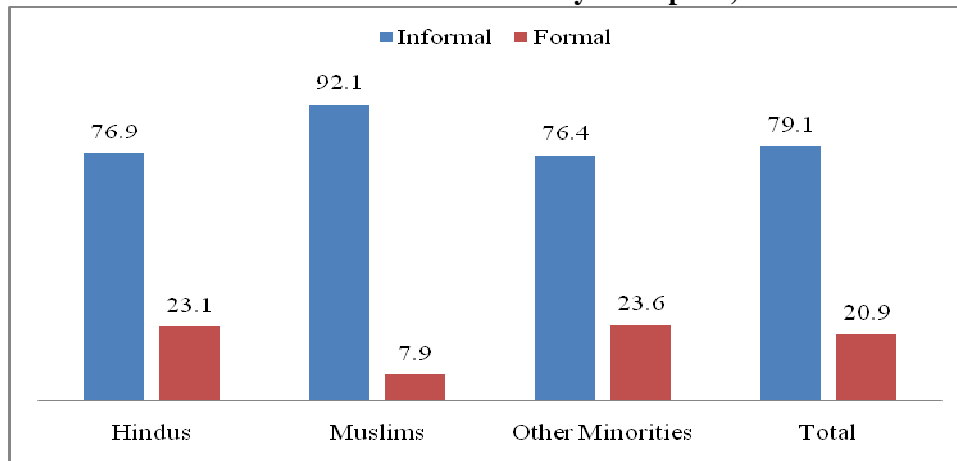
S. No	SRCs	All	Male	Female	Urban
1	Hindus	35.3	35.3	35.2	32.8
2	Muslims	23.7	23.0	29.0	19.4
3	Other Minorities	35.8	35.1	37.6	32.0
Total		34.2	34.0	35.1	31.5

Source: SCR, 2006: 320

The Muslims taking part in formal sector employment is marginally 7.9 % which is much lesser than the national average which is 20.9 %. On the other hand, the presence of the Muslims in the informal sector employment is a robust 92.1 %, which is far ahead of the national average which

is 79.1 % (Chart 4). A significantly larger proportion of Muslim workers are seen to be engaged in small proprietary enterprises (83.6 %) in urban areas. In Muslim women-owned proprietary enterprises, the participation of Muslim women workers is significantly higher than that of other SRCs. However, being most of the Muslim women enterprises chiefly home-based, they are typically employed in sub contracted work with a minimum wage.

Chart 4: Distribution of Workers by Enterprise, 2004-05



Source: SCR, 2006: 113

According to the SCR, traditional boundaries for women’s mobility together with childcare and other household responsibilities may play a major role in keeping Muslim women within the confines to their homes and close to the neighbourhood. It is called “ghettoization” by Robinson (2007: 841). Ethnic conflicts and threat of violence in urban setups force them to stay confined within the four walls or huddled into community dominated enclaves. Most of the conventional occupations they are engaged in, are of low productivity and require considerable state support in upgrading technology and re-skilling (Reddy, ud). Moreover, it is found that they tend to feel more insecure and vulnerable in terms of the conditions of work.

2.5 Access to Credit

Availability and accessibility to credit are two different aspects of development. Reddy (ud) argued about the substantial dependence on self-employment and its association with the need for regular, though relatively small, investment. Availability of institutional credit at fair rates of interest becomes an important requirement for small trade, business or production activities. The survey reports of the MCDs show less for the Muslim community (23.75 %) compared to 39.33 % for the Hindus. As per the study, “lower incidence of indebtedness does not necessarily mean a better situation. On the contrary, it may mean lack of credit-worthiness or fear of indebtedness – both of which can act as constraints for any improvement in earning capacity,

self-employment, or own account activities, which are the main sources of livelihood. The survey results show that though indebtedness of Muslim households is low, the share of institutional sources like banks and cooperatives in their borrowings is much lower”.

The Scheduled Commercial Banks (SCBs) act as an institution for the flow of credit for the members of specified minority communities. The specified minority communities are: Christians, Muslims, Neo Buddhists, Sikhs and Zoroastrians. SCR (2006: 127) has given a detailed account of a state level priority sector advances among SRCs. As per the report, in Andhra Pradesh only 7.5 % of accounts are held by the Muslims, which is less than their share in population (9.2 %) (Table 19). However the share of amount outstanding is only 2.8 %. As per the analysis, the lending pattern is found to be aggregate in nature i.e. minority as a whole where they are not being able to do so specifically for Muslims.

Table 19: Priority sector advances among SRCs

S. No.	State	Total PSA		Muslims		Other Minorities	
		No of A/Cs (000)	Amount O/S (Rs crores)	% share in A/Cs	% Share in Amount O/S	% share in A/Cs	% Share in Amount O/S
1	India (25.2)	37476	226219	12.2	4.6	8.1	6.6
2	Andhra Pradesh (9.2)	5500	19639	7.5	2.8	3.6	1.6

Source: SRC, 2006: 127

Figure in the parentheses represent share of Muslims in the total population

3. Government Schemes: Locating Muslim Minorities

Till the Sixth Five Year Plan (SDR, 2012), the minorities were not recognised as a separate socio-economic group. The Gopal Singh Committee, early in 1980s, brought to the fore the poor socio-economic condition of Muslims in the country. The findings and recommendations, however, could not be translated into action because of various reasons (Government of India, 2014). Needless to say, over a period of time, there have been a few but noticeable government interventions to take care of the interest of the minority community in India and they are:

- Creation of Ministry of Minority Affairs (MoMA) in 2006
- Sachar Committee Report in 2006
- The PM’s 15 point programme
- Lurching of MSDP

The Report of the Sachar Committee revealed that Muslims in the country are subject to enormous deprivation, social exclusion and political under- representation and suggested non-discriminatory policies on equitable and sustainable manner. In 2006, the government revamped the Prime Minister's 15-point Program with an emphasis on educational opportunities, employment and economic activities, living conditions and prevention and control of communal disharmony and violence. The aims of Multi-sectoral Development Program (MSDP) are to improve the socio-economic conditions of minorities and provide them with the basic amenities to improve their quality of life reducing imbalances in the identified minority concentration areas, during the 12th Five Year Plan period. The proposed projects to be taken up under MSDP would aim at the provision of better infrastructure for education, skill development, health, sanitation, pukka housing, roads, drinking water, besides schemes for creating income generating opportunities. An elaborate discussion on the status of government schemes and policy, which aim to enhance the socio-economic status of Muslim minority has been made in the following section.

3.1 Prime Minister's 15 point Programme

Prime Minister's 15-point Program for minorities is a flagship program of the Indian government for the welfare of religious minorities. The objectives of the program are: a) enhancing opportunities for education; b) ensuring an equitable share for minorities in economic activities and employment, through existing and new schemes, enhanced credit support for self-employment, and recruitment to State and Central Government jobs; c) improving the conditions of living of minorities by ensuring an appropriate share for them in infrastructure development schemes; and d) prevention and control of communal disharmony and violence. In this connection, 15 % of the physical targets and financial outlays to be earmarked for minorities, wherever possible. The different important schemes under each category and their assessment are discussed in detailed in the following section:

3.1.1 Equitable availability of ICDS Services

The data obtained from the MoMA reveal that 6934 Anganwadi centers were set up in the blocks having a substantial minority population (SMP) in 2010-11. Gradually, this large figure reduced to 293 in 2013-14 (Table 20). The achievement of target (that is, the percentage of Anganwadi actually constructed against the set target for construction in the financial year) has been varying over the years. Furthermore, the data also makes it clear that there was a loss of

tempo in the opening up of Anganwadi centers in blocks having SMP after the initial years. But this trend in the blocks having SMP is comparable to the loss of overall tempo of establishment of Anganwadis in the country. However, having lack of any systematic assessment of the need of minority concentrated regions, it is impossible to say if the decline in the establishment of the Anganwadi centers have been either due to substantial achievement of the need in those areas or due to unsystematic targeting.

Table 20: Operationalised Anganwadi Centres under ICDS) in Blocks having SMP in India

S.No	States	2010-2011		2011-12		2012-13		2013-14	
		Achievement	Target	Achievement	Target	Achievement	Target	Achievement	Target
1	Andhra Pradesh	106	79	52	27	0	27	27	
2	India	6934	8542	3489	5138	3804	1334	293	

Sources: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/socialandwelfareschemes/27/physicalprogressunderintegratedchilddevelopmentsservicesicdsscheme19982014/449687/616207/data.aspx>

3.1.2 Improving access to School Education

The concerned data for Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) indicate that the achievements in almost all the cases are less than that of the target. It shows a prominent case of sanctioned post of teachers. It also reveals that no proper assessment has been done on need/deficit in minority concentrated areas of educational infrastructure. The targets are most of the time set on an ad-hoc basis.

The first row in the Table 21 clearly expresses this. A similar trend can be seen in other sub-schemes such as opening up of new upper primary schools, construction of primary and upper primary schools, sanctioning of post of teachers in these schools, and also sanctioning of KGBV. There is lack of information in Andhra Pradesh in respect of the discussed indicators.

Table 21: Targets and Achievements level under SSA and KGVB in Districts with a SMP

S.No	Name of the Schemes	2006-07		2007-08		2008-09		2009-10		2010-11		2011-12		2012-13	
		T	A	T	A	T	A	T	A	T	A	T	A	T	A
1	No of new primary schools opened	3802	92.5	2322	51.7	1423	97.4	2066	92.2	11930	99.9	1470	85.1	258	67.8
2	No of new upper primary schools opened	1189	93.7	3600	83.4	4301	73.8	1719	94.5	2370	99.7	445	80.0	256	84.4
3	No of primary schools constructed	4427	55.3	2236	77.1	4404	74.2	3635	89.1	4969	71.9	1522	81.5	231	76.2
4	No of upper primary schools constructed	1189	80.8	2018	99.5	4154	64.1	1348	90.1	1147	96.2	67	98.5	361	27.1
5	No of posts for teachers sanctioned	26532	91.5	21437	116.0	21945	71.8	8429	91.9	48001	72.8	32164	23.6	27542	36.6
6	No of Kasturaba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya sanctioned	121	80.2	314	69.7	168	79.2	479	99.2	No targets	-	107	70.1	03	100.0

Source: Government of India, 2014: pp-108

3.1.3 Modernizing Madarsa Education

In 2009-10, the Central Government sanctioned Rs 4623.54 lakhs for modernization of Madrasas which was increased in 2013-14 to Rs 18273 lakhs. During 2009-10, 1979 Madrasas benefitted from this scheme. This number went up to 14859 in 2013-14. In the same manner, the total number of teachers benefitted through this scheme has also increased from 4,962 in 2009-10 to 35157 in 2013-14 (Table 22 & 23). Andhra Pradesh, has a data base only for two years, namely, 2010-11 and 2013-14. A close observation of the data does not speak about the quality education in Madrasa in a satisfactory manner.

Table 22: Details about Funds Allocated/Released Under Schemes for Providing Quality Education in Madarasas (SPQEM)

S.No	Years	Funds Allocated (Rs. in lakh)	Amount Released (Rs. in lakh)	No. of Teachers Covered	No. of Madarasas Covered
1	2009-10	5000	4623.54	4962	1979
2	2010-11	10400	10147	11382	5045
3	2011-12	15000	13953.4	16592	6792
4	2012-13	19500	18249.26	23146	9905
5	2013-14	20000	18273.38	35157	14859

Source: http://www.indiastat.com/table/education/6370/educational_schemes_for_minorities/369470/697769/data.aspx

Table 23: Scheme for providing Quality Education in Madarsas

S. No	State	2010-11			2013-14		
		Amount Sanctioned	Madarsas	No of Teachers	Amount Sanctioned	Madarsas	No of Teachers
1	Andhra Pradesh	2.60	40	228	0.4896	40	112
2	India	101.47	5045	11382	182.734	14859	35376

Source: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/education/6370/educationalchemesforminorities/369470/828098/data.aspx>

3.1.4 Scholarships for pre-matric and post-matric scholarships from minority communities

The objective of the scholarship at pre-matric level is to encourage parents from minority communities to send their school going children to school, lighten their financial burden on school education and sustain their efforts to support their children to complete school education. The scheme forms the foundation for their educational attainment and provides a level playing field in the competitive employment arena. Empowerment through education, which is one of the objectives of this scheme, has the potential to lead to upliftment of the socio economic conditions of the minority communities. The scholarship is to be awarded for studies in India in a government or private school from class I to class X, including such residential government institutes and eligible private institutes selected and notified in a transparent manner by the state government and Union Territory Administration concerned where as the objective of the post-matric scheme is to award scholarships to meritorious students belonging to economically weaker sections of minority community so as to provide them better opportunities for higher education, increase their rate of attainment in higher education and enhance their employability. The scholarship is to be awarded for studies in India in a government or private higher secondary school/college/university, including such residential institutes of the government and eligible private institutes selected and notified in a transparent manner by the State Government/Union Territory Administration concerned. It will also cover technical and vocational courses in Industrial Training Institutes/Industrial Training Centres affiliated with the National Council for Vocational Training (NCVT) of classes XI and XII level.

The total amount of financial resources allocated for the scholarships shows a sharp increase from Rs 62.21 crores in 2008-09 to Rs 963.70 crores in 2013-14 (Table 24). For Andhra Pradesh, the same is from Rs. 5.37 crores to Rs. 62.39 crores during the period. The target for students from minority communities was 3, 00,000 during 2008-09, which has increased to 40, 00,000 during 2013-14, whereas the same for Muslim students has increased from 218775 in 2008-09 to 2917000 in 2013-14. The same trend has been observed in Andhra Pradesh.

Table 24: Target and Achievement of Prematric Scholarships for Students belonging to the Minority Community

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh					Total				
		M		To		Amount (Rs in cr)	M		To		Amount (Rs in cr)
		T*	A**	T*	A**		T*	A**	T*	A**	
1	2008-09	11055 (85.0)	22110 (200.0)	13006 (100.0)	25923 (199.3)	5.37	218775 (72.9)	383143 (175.1)	300000 (100.0)	512657 (170.9)	62.21
2	2009-10	55275 (85.0)	81070 (146.7)	65032 (100.0)	86248 (132.6)	13.90	1093875 (72.9)	1334144 (122.0)	1500000 (100.0)	1729076 (115.3)	202.94
3	2010-11	73700 (85.0)	206896 (280.7)	86709 (100.0)	225462 (260.0)	42.85	1458500 (72.9)	3462074 (237.4)	2000000 (100.0)	4421571 (221.1)	446.25
4	2011-12	125291 (85.0)	174627 (139.4)	147406 (100.0)	191973 (130.2)	26.88	2479461 (72.9)	4334980 (174.8)	3400000 (100.0)	5528557 (162.6)	615.47
5	2012-13	147400 (85.0)	283700 (192.5)	173418 (100.0)	301275 (173.7)	47.91	2917000 (72.9)	5048915 (173.1)	4000000 (100.0)	6436984 (160.9)	786.19
6	2013-14	147400 (85.0)	320238 (217.3)	173418 (100.0)	334949 (193.1)	62.39	2917000 (72.9)	6301184 (216.0)	4000000 (100.0)	7794190 (194.9)	963.70

M: Muslim; OM: Other Minorities; To: Total; T: Target; A: Achievement

* Value in the parentheses represent % from the total target from the corresponding "Total Target".

** Value in the parentheses represent % of "Achievement" from the corresponding "Target".

Source: <http://www.minorityaffairs.gov.in/prematric>

Table 25: Target and Achievement of Post-matric Scholarships for Students belonging to the Minority Community

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh					Total				
		M		To		Amount (Rs in cr)	M		To		Amount (Rs in cr)
		T*	A**	T*	A**		T*	A**	T*	A**	
1	2008-09	4606 (85.0)	8335 (181.0)	5420 (100.0)	9248 (170.6)	622.95	91140 (72.9)	148937 (163.4)	125000 (100.0)	170273 (136.2)	7062.52
2	2009-10	11055 (85.0)	25795 (233.3)	13006 (100.0)	26692 (205.2)	19.96	218775 (72.9)	293526 (134.2)	300000 (100.0)	364387 (121.5)	148.74
3	2010-11	14740 (85.0)	40418 (274.2)	17342 (100.0)	42972 (247.8)	35.24	291700 (72.9)	420301 (144.1)	400000 (100.0)	525644 (131.4)	228.97
4	2011-12	19346 (85.0)	19781 (102.2)	22761 (100.0)	20550 (90.3)	17.28	382856 (72.9)	560747 (146.5)	525000 (100.0)	701950 (133.7)	362.99
5	2012-13	18142 (85.0)	25966 (143.1)	21345 (100.0)	26904 (126.0)	16.65	362927 (72.9)	597154 (164.5)	500000 (100.0)	755643 (151.1)	326.55
6	2013-14	18142 (85.0)	18651 (102.8)	21345 (100.0)	19246 (90.2)	12.36	362927 (72.9)	710877 (195.9)	500000 (100.0)	890467 (178.1)	515.56

M: Muslim; OM: Other Minorities; To: Total; T: Target; A: Achievement

* Value in the parentheses represent % from the total target from the corresponding "Total Target".

** Value in the parentheses represent % of "Achievement" from the corresponding "Target".

Source: <http://www.minorityaffairs.gov.in/Postmetric>

The post-matric scholarships over the years from 2007-08 to 2013-14 also shows a sharp increase (Table 25). The target for students from minority communities was 125000 during 2008-09, which has increased to 500000 during 2013-14, whereas the same for Muslim students has increased from 91140 in 2008-09 to 362927 in 2013-14. The same trend has been observed in Andhra Pradesh. The percentage of achievement to the target is always more than 100 % in all the years. Some of the years it is more than 200 % also.

The above discussion shows that the achievements of physical targets of both the schemes are highly satisfactory. However the fund utilization under the schemes have been inadequate. The total fund allocation for pre-matric and post-matric scholarships in the 11th plan period is Rs. 1400 crore and Rs 1150 crore respectively. However the pre-matric and post-matric scholarships could utilize 94.81 % and 71.38 % of the allocated fund respectively. Again there is

confusion between the physical target, achievement and financial target, achievement. Because the physical target is always more than 100 % whereas the same is not true in the case of financial achievement.

3.1.5 Maulana Azad National Fellowship (MANF)

MANF is a great leap taken by the Central Government and is managed by University Grants Commission (UGC) for the minority students. The objective of this fellowship is to provide an integrated five-year fellowship to students from minority communities to pursue higher studies such as M. Phil and Ph.D. All universities/institutions recognized by the UGC under section 2(f) and section 3 of the UGC, admit this fellowship. As per the data released by the Ministry of Minority Affairs², Government of India, in its initial year, i.e., 2009-10, a total of 757 nos. of fellowships were awarded, in 2010-11, 754 nos. and in 2011-12, 755 nos. of fellowships were awarded. The same under the renewal category was 757 in 2010-11 and 1511 in 2011-12 (Table 26). At the national level, more than 70 % of the fellowships have gone to the Muslim students in these three financial years. At the state level, Andhra Pradesh is the state among others (the states the other states are Assam, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal), where more than more than 80 % of the fellowships are utilised by the Muslim students in these years.

Table 26: Details of Fellowship awarded under MANF

State	2009-10			2010-11			2011-12			2010-11			2011-12		
	M	OM	T	M	OM	T	M	OM	T	M	OM	T	M	OM	T
Andhra Pradesh	26 (81.2)	06 (18.8)	32 (100.0)	31 (83.8)	06 (16.2)	37 (100.0)	28 (82.3)	06 (17.7)	34 (100.0)	26 (81.2)	06 (18.8)	32 (100.0)	57 (82.6)	12 (17.4)	69 (100.0)
India	541 (71.5)	216 (28.5)	757 (100.0)	532 (70.6)	222 (29.4)	754 (100.0)	533 (70.6)	222 (29.4)	755 (100.0)	541 (71.5)	216 (28.5)	757 (100.0)	1073 (71.0)	438 (29.0)	1511 (100.0)

M: Muslims; OM: Other Minorities; T: Total

Source: <http://www.minorityaffairs.gov.in/maulana-azad-fellow>

3.1.6 Free Coaching and allied schemes

The main objective of this scheme is to empower the minority communities' students by assisting them to enhancing their skills and capabilities to make them employable in industries, services and business sectors in addition to the government sector. It has the built-in resilience to adapt itself to the market dynamics on a continuous basis so that the target groups are not deprived of the professional acumen demanded by the changing/emerging market needs and opportunities for employment at domestic as well as international levels.

² <http://www.minorityaffairs.gov.in/maulana-azad-fellow> (Viewed on 4 February 2016).

Table 27: Free Coaching and Allied Scheme for the Candidate belonging to Minority Communities

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh			Total		
		No of Students benefitted	Amount Released (Rs)	Average Cost per student*	No of Students benefitted	Amount Released (Rs)	Average Cost per student*
1	2007-08	185	3206875	17334	4097	57415594	14014
2	2008-09	650	4927500	7581	5522	72996588	13219
3	2009-10	100	1705000	17050	5532	112185525	20279
4	2010-11	50	3724875	74498	4845	143731775	29666
5	2011-12	200	2661000	13305	7880	159800000	20279
6	2012-13	300	7040750	23469	6716	139974825	20842
7	2013-14	2260	39872250	17643	9997	236642000	23671

Source: http://www.minorityaffairs.gov.in/sites/upload_files/moma/files/free_coaching.pdf

* Calculated from the data on amount released with the number of students benefitted, provided by Ministry of Minority Affairs, Government of India

A considerable number of students have been getting benefitted from this scheme from merely 4097 in 2007-08 to 9997 in 2013-14. Apart from that, a sharp increase in the disbursed amount towards the coaching and allied services have been observed from 2007-08 to 2013-14. At the national level, the average money being spent on a student has risen from Rs 14014 in 2007-08 to Rs 23671 in 2013-14. Andhra Pradesh is one of the three states, (the other two are Uttar Pradesh and Delhi) which has become a major beneficiary of this scheme (Table 27). However, Government of India (2014) has identified some of its limitations on the grounds of: (i) lack of audit process about the success of the students receiving the benefit; (ii) selection of coaching centers because sometimes distance of the institutions are very far away from the residences of the students; (iii) lack of proper monitoring and evaluation of the coaching centers.

3.1.7 Employment Schemes and Programmes

One of the chief objectives of the 15-point program is to negotiate an equitable share for minorities in economic activities and employment, through the existing and new schemes. In a nutshell, these schemes meant for urban areas are known as Swarn Jayanti Shahari Rojgar Yojana (SJSRY) and Urban Self Employment Program (USEP).

SJSRY seeks to provide gainful employment to the urban unemployed or underemployed through the setting up of self-employment ventures or provision of wage employment where as USEP has been launched under SJSRY. The objective of this scheme is to address urban poverty alleviation through gainful self employment to the unemployed poor by encourage them to set up self employment ventures. It also supports skill development and training programmes to enable urban poor to have access to employment opportunities. It is an individual loan-giving program. As per the data, we have two components for each scheme: target and achievement.

The financial target for the minority communities under SJSRY was more than Rs 50 crores in two financial years (2007-08 and 2013-14) at the national level. However, for the remaining years, it was less than 50 crores (Table 29). Unfortunately, the achievement was less than the expectation. Interesting enough, in Andhra Pradesh, the achievement was more than 100 % some of the years. It is also interesting to highlight that, the physical achievements in these years are found to be higher than that of the financial achievement. Basically two significant points emerged out of this discussion and they are: (i) the quantum of target is less in all the schemes; and (ii) very sounds physical achievement (compared with the financial achievement) with this meagre amount of target is a serious matter of concern (Table 28, 29, 30 and 31).

Table 28: Financial Target and Achievements for Minority Communities under SJSRY

S.No	Year	Andhra Pradesh		Total	
		Target	Achievement	Target	Achievement
1	2007-08	4.5218	3.3137 (73.3)	50.4749	25.12 (49.8)
2	2008-09	3.0689	0.16 (5.2)	34.25	18.158 (53.0)
3	2009-10	2.998	3.1659 (105.6)	33.47	17.64 (52.7)
4	2010-11	3.3144	3.46 (104.0)	36.99	30.9725 (83.7)
5	2011-12	3.33	7.34 (220.4)	37.17	34.58 (93.0)
6	2012-13	3.71	6.75 (181.9)	46.6811	30.38 (65.1)
7	2013-14	5.5057	7.53 (136.8)	79.99	33.67 (42.1)

Source: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/socialandwelfareschemes/27/financialprogressunderswarnajayantishaharirozgaryojanasjsry19972015/449795/776614/data.aspx>

Table 29: Physical (Skill Training) Targets and Achievements of SJSRY

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh		Total	
		Target	Achievement	Target	Achievement
1	2007-08	2016	4104 (203.6)	22535	41466 (184.0)
2	2008-09	2016	4815 (238.8)	22532	37179 (165.0)
3	2009-10	2688	3167 (117.8)	30000	30416 (101.4)
4	2010-11	2688	4211 (156.7)	30000	35288 (117.6)
5	2011-12	2637	7349 (278.7)	41250	48011 (116.4)
6	2012-13	5808	5251 (90.4)	75000	87467 (116.6)
7	2013-14	4350	6981 (160.5)	60000	77443 (129.1)

Source: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/socialandwelfareschemes/27/physicalprogressunderswarnajayantishaharirozgaryojanasjsry19972015/449794/776618/data.aspx>

Table 30: Physical (Micro Enterprises) Targets and Achievements of SJSRY

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh		Total	
		Target	Achievement	Target	Achievement
1	2007-08	1613	1557 (96.5)	18031	17384 (96.4)
2	2008-09	1613	2151 (133.4)	18031	30574 (169.6)
3	2009-10	336	1176 (350.0)	3750	9468 (252.5)
4	2010-11	336	1597 (475.3)	3750	15079 (402.1)
5	2011-12	663	1093 (164.9)	11252	11611 (103.2)
6	2012-13	866	1123 (129.7)	12751	15431 (121.0)
7	2013-14	871	959 (110.1)	12000	10470 (87.3)

Source: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/socialandwelfareschemes/27/physicalprogressunderswarnajayantishaharirozgaryojanasjsry19972015/449794/776616/data.aspx>

Table 31: Target and Achievement under USEP Component of SJSRY

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh		Total	
		Target	Achievement	Target	Achievement
3	2009-10	1615	7389 (457.5)	21250	86083 (405.1)
4	2010-11	1900	9005 (473.9)	25000	82980 (331.9)
5	2011-12	4417	12259 (277.5)	74999	80775 (107.7)
6	2012-13	5770	1940 (33.6)	85000	20327 (23.9)
7	2013-14	1530	22892 (1496.2)	21007	27533 (131.1)

Source: <http://www.indiastat.com/table/socialandwelfareschemes/27/physicalprogressunderswarnajayantishaharirozgaryojanasjsry19972013/449794/747847/data.aspx>

3.1.8 Upgradation of skills through technical training

A major proportion of the minority community is engaged in low-skilled technical work or handicrafts. Under a scheme for the minorities, the beneficiaries are to be provided technical training to enhance their skills and increase earning capabilities. A few number of all new Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) should be located MCDs and a proportion of existing IITs are to be upgraded as centres of excellence which will be selected on the same basis. Even Polytechnics are being established under the submission on polytechnics and out of 57 MCDs, 37 have been incorporated with a grant of Rs 140.66 crore having been released. The upgradation of existing ITIs into centres of excellence is being done under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Employment. Financial targets for ITIs in 121 districts having a substantial minority population are fixed every year.

The Government of India has also decided to convert 60 ITIs in minority concentrated districts as centre of excellence with the financial aid from the World Bank (Government of India, 2014). The data on financial targets and achievements for the states are received from MoMA. The performance in the use of the targeted amount at all-India level has proved unimpressive over the years. In 2006-07, the total financial target was 33.85 crore and fortunately 100 % of the same was utilised. However, in the following years, even a small amount allocated under the programme have not been utilised properly. In consequence, the achievements have been 50 % in 2010-11, 41.6 % in 2011-12 and 47.9 % in 2012-13. This trend is suggestive of the lack of interest among the programme implementing officials and agencies. States like Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Delhi, Rajasthan and Meghalaya have been lagging behind in achieving the financial targets in most of the financial years.

3.1.9 Enhanced Credit support for Economic Activities

The National Minorities Development and Finance Corporation (NMDFC) was launched by the Government of India on 30 September 1994. The chief objective of it was to promote economic activities amongst the backward sections of notified minorities providing concessional loans for self-employment activities to eligible beneficiaries belonging to the minority communities, having a family income of Rs 81,000 per annum in rural areas and Rs 1, 03,000 per annum in urban areas. In a special drive, a new annual family income eligibility of up to Rs 6.00 lakh per annum has been introduced with effect from September, 2014. This category can avail itself of concessional credit at a high rate of interest. The authorised share capital of NMDFC which stood at Rs 650 crore in 2004, now stands at Rs 1500 crore.

There are two major components of NMDFC– (i) term loan; and (ii) micro financing. The term loan scheme is meant for individual beneficiaries and is implemented through the SCAs. Under this loan scheme, projects worth Rs 20.00 Lakhs are considered for financing. NMDFC provides loan to the extent of 90 % of the project cost subject to a maximum of Rs 18.00 lakh. The remaining cost of the project is borne by both by the SCA and the beneficiary. In fact, the beneficiary has to contribute a minimum of 5 % of the project cost. Using reducing balance method, the interest charged from the beneficiary is 6 % per annum. For higher income group of up to 6.00 lakh, the rate of interest is 10% per annum, whereas it is 8 % for males and 6 % for females.

The amount disbursed under term loan by NMDFC was Rs 30.03 crores in 1994-95, whereas the same in the post- Sachar Committee period, i.e., in 2007-08 it was Rs 130.90 crores with 31574 beneficiaries (Table 32). However, after 2009-10, a serious decline has been observed in the number of beneficiaries covered under this scheme. Government has to take some measure in this direction by enhancing the amounts available for NMDFC to lend to the minorities. Interestingly except 2007-08, the information has not been furnished for other years in Andhra Pradesh (Table 33).

Table 32: Disbursement under Term Loan

S.No	Year	Funds disbursed (Rs in cr)	Number of Beneficiaries
1	1994-95	30.03	9570
2	1995-96	6.49	4797
3	1996-97	44.23	10749
4	1997-98	23.41	4932
5	1998-99	59.39	14333
6	1999-00	60.77	22510
7	2000-01	72.43	20274
8	2001-02	92.06	21489
9	2002-03	71.03	16348
10	2003-04	82.24	18,184
11	2004-05	130.72	35,552
12	2005-06	98.10	23408
13	2006-07	99.58	22301
14	2007-08	130.90	31574
15	2008-09	114.79	34985
16	2009-10	139.01	30892
17	2010-11	129.47	28768
18	2011-12	111.99	17172
19	2012-13	184.39	19361
20	2013-14	202.50	21318
21	2014-15	185.4	19518
Total		2068.93	428032

Source: http://minorityaffairs.gov.in/nfdfc_equity

Table 33: Disbursements under Term Loan Scheme

S.No	Year	Andhra Pradesh		India	
		Amount	Beneficiaries	Amount	Beneficiaries
1	2007-08	850	2044	13090	31574
2	2008-09	-	-	11479	34985
3	2009-10	-	-	13901.57	30892
4	2010-11	-	-	12947.63	28768
5	2011-12	-	-	11199.04	17172
6	2012-13	-	-	18440	19359
7	2013-14	-	-	20250	21318
8	2014-15 (up to 31-12-2014)	-	-	18540	19518

Source: http://minorityaffairs.gov.in/sites/upload_files/moma/files/StatewiseTermLoan.pdf

The micro financing scheme envisages micro-credit to the poorest among the poor through NGOs of proven bonafide and their network of Self Help Groups (SHGs). It is basically an informal loan scheme which ensures loan at the door steps of the beneficiaries at the earliest. Under the provisions of this scheme, small loans worth Rs 1 lakh per member of a SHG can be provided through the NGOs / SHGs. The scheme is implemented through both the SCAs and the NGOs. Funds are transferred to the NGOs /SCAs at a marginal interest rate of 1 %. Further this is lent to the SHGs, at an interest rate not more than 7 % per annum. The loan repayment period has been fixed at maximum 36 months. Apart from that, the rate of interest varies for different income groups and genders. The higher income group with an income of Rs 6.00 lakh per annum is charged with 10 % interest. For males, it is 8% and 6 % for females.

The data on amount disbursed in terms of micro credit to the minorities has marked a significant increase over a period of time from 1998-99 to 2012-13. However, the disbursed amount has come down significantly in 2013-14 to 122.96 crores (Table 34). However, an unsteady trend is also observed in the number of beneficiaries covered under the scheme over a period of time. The three-year data available for Andhra Pradesh (Table 35) indicates that it is also one among the state (the other states are Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Kerala and Tamil Nadu) which have lost a major share of the micro-credit.

Table 34: Disbursements under Micro Finance

S. No	Year	Amount disbursed (Rs in Cr)	Number of Beneficiaries
1	1998-99	0.43	3,281
2	1999-00	0.52	7,359
3	2000-01	1.00	11,418
4	2001-02	4.78	24,529
5	2002-03	2.90	7,540
6	2003-04	4.42	9,415
7	2004-05	8.29	11,034
8	2005-06	10.01	10893
9	2006-07	13.17	25482
10	2007-08	13.22	16159
11	2008-09	15.93	16213
12	2009-10	58.73	73702
13	2010-11	103.79	129742
14	2011-12	159.38	88702
15	2012-13	186.70	82974
16	2013-14	122.96	54648
17	2014-15	61.3	27245
	Total	767.52	600340

Source: http://minorityaffairs.gov.in/nfdfc_equity

Table 35: Disbursements under Micro Credit Scheme

S. No	Year	Andhra Pradesh		Total	
		Amount	Beneficiaries	Amount	Beneficiaries
1	2007-08	38.7	587	1322.01	16159
2	2008-09	47.25	637	1593.79	16213
3	2009-10	45	704	5873.28	73702
4	2010-11	0	0	10379.31	129742
5	2011-12	0	0	15938	88702
6	2012-13	0	0	18670	82977
7	2013-14	0	0	12296	54648
8	2014-15 (up to 31-12-2014)	0	0	6130	27245

Source: http://minorityaffairs.gov.in/sites/upload_files/moma/files/statewiseMC.pdf

3.1.10 Improvement in condition of slums inhabited by minority communities

3. 1.10.1 Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY)

IAY, a flagship scheme of the Ministry of Rural Development has since inception been providing assistance to BPL families who are either houseless or having inadequate housing facilities for constructing a safe and durable shelter for each category i.e. SC, ST, minorities and others. This effort has been part of a larger strategy of the ministry's poverty eradication effort, supporting the development of an environmentally sound habitat with adequate provisions for incremental expansion and improvement.

The achievement in terms of amount spent has shot up from Rs 37.74 crore in 2006-07 to 1533.62 crore in 2012-13. In terms of percentage increase in achievement of the amount spent, it was dramatically from 6.5 % to 74.8 % (Table 36). But as a matter of fact, both at national and state like Andhra Pradesh's level, the financial achievement have never touched 100 % in any of the years. From Table 37, we can observe that Physical achievements in terms of number of units distributed to the minorities have increased till 2009-10. It shows a decline trend thereafter. The achievement rate is never smooth in Andhra Pradesh.

Table 36: Financial Achievement under IAY for Minorities (%)

S.No	State	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13
1	Andhra Pradesh	0	23.9	127.9	72.7	96.5	72.3	84.2
2	India	6.5	55.1	92.8	68.0	86.3	72.1	74.8
	Total achievement (Rs in cr)	37.74	443.06	1046.85	1459.68	1692.2	1333.6	1533.62

Source: Government of India, 2014

Table 37: Physical Achievement under IAY for Minorities (%)

S.No	State	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13
1	Andhra Pradesh	0	22.0	121.4	89.3	99.1	96.8	96.7
2	India	6.2	48.9	120.7	89.4	98.4	93.4	80.8
	Total achievement (Number)	14236	155980	385275	543413	426255	378907	361912

Source: Government of India, 2014

3.1.10.2 Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP)

IHSDP aims to ameliorate the conditions of the urban slum dwellers who do not possess adequate shelter and reside in dilapidated conditions. The scheme is applicable to all cities and towns as per 2001 Census except cities/towns covered under Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM)

According to the available data, more than 18% of the total investments under IHSDP during the years from 2008-09 to 2012-13 have come to the cities and towns with a considerable minority population. It was 17.7% for the state of Andhra Pradesh. If all-Indian level is taken into account, the whole amount invested in cities/towns with substantial minority population (SMP) was Rs 8401.2 crores in 2008-09. It was squarely increased to Rs 11936 crores in 2012-13 (Table 38). The major states like Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka have used a bulk share of the amount available under this scheme for cities/towns with SMP.

Table 38: Flow of Benefits/fund under JnNURM- IHSDP to Cities/ Towns having SMP

S. No	State	2008-09		2009-10		2010-11		2011-12		2012-13	
		Total Project Cost	% of Project Cost having a SMP	Total Project Cost	% of Project Cost having a SMP	Total Project Cost	% of Project Cost having a SMP	Total Project Cost	% of Project Cost having a SMP	Total Project Cost	% of Project Cost having a SMP
1	Andhra Pradesh	1139.1	17.7	1139.1	17.7	1139.1	17.7	1139.1	17.7	1139.1	17.7
2	India	8401.2	19.8	9422.8	18.8	10023.8	19.2	10959.4	17.9	11936.1	18.7

Source: Government of India, 2014

3.2 The Multi-Sectoral Development Programme (MSDP)

MsDP is a central government sponsored scheme (CSS), approved by the government in the beginning of the 11th Five Year Plan which was launched in the year 2008-09 in 90 Minority Concentrations Districts (MCDs). This is basically an area development scheme to address the development deficits of minority concentration areas by building socio-economic infrastructure and providing basic facilities to the people.

According to the Government of India (2014), there were a number of concerns in the implementation and targeting of the MsDP in the 11th Five Year Plan. The chief reasons are:

- (a) It being a development scheme, it does not focus on either individuals or families.
- (b) 90 MsDP districts are a large geographical unit. Moreover, the minorities are not uniformly distributed in the districts. Therefore, the schemes under the programme go without really benefiting the minorities. It is only a marginal 30% of the Muslims, one of the most deprived sections of the Indian population, are benefited from a targeted 90 districts as implementation unit for MsDP. Not including a large number of Muslims in BPL list is to keeping them away from the benefits of many other schemes like IAY and employment generation scheme. Even more, the uncooperative attitude of local authorities, inadequate planning capacity at district level make the situation worse. District Planning Committees, mostly dominated by non-experts and politically and economically powerful people, are non-cooperative to such communities. As a result, non-submission of detailed project plan by the state governments for allocation of funds, lack of allocation of sufficient funds, insufficient fund to monitor the programmes, non-acceptance of innovative schemes by MoMA as requested by local Muslims. Apart from that, Most of the MsDP schemes being national in nature, data are not reported on the basis of socio-religious communities.

3.3 Socio-Economic Dynamics of Slum Dwellers: A Glance from the Field

3.3.1 Coverage

As per the Socio-Economic and Caste Census 2011³, total households in India are 24.49 crores. Out of the total households, the total rural households are 17.97 crores (73.4 %). Hence India's population is rural in nature. However the urban population as a percentage of the total population has been quite high in recent years (from 17.3 % in 1951 to 31.2 % in 2011)⁴. As per the statistics of Census 2011⁵, the religious minorities prefer to stay more in the urban areas than rural. The percentage of urban population among Hindus is 29 % whereas the same is 40 % for the Muslims. The states where majority of the Muslims live in urban areas are Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, and Chhattisgarh. Largely, the

³Socio-Economic and Caste Census (2011)

⁴Government of India (2011)

⁵<http://www.indiastat.com/table/demographics/7/religion/293358/940319/data.aspx>

Muslim population of India is less linked to land than the overall population (SCR, 2006: 35). A large number of Muslims of India live in poverty and they are the majority of the poorest of the poor living in slums. The top five states reporting slum households are presented in Table 39. Out of the five states, Andhra Pradesh is the top in-terms of proportion of slum households to urban households (i.e. 35.7 %). Of the top10 million plus cities appeared in Table 40 in terms of highest slum households, Andhra Pradesh is the home of 3 major cities namely Visakhapatnam, Vijayawada and Hyderabad with highest population of slums households to urban households of 44.1, 40.6 and 31.9 percentage respectively.

Table 39: Top Five States Reporting Slum Households

S.No	State	Proportion of Slum households to Urban households (%)
1	Andhra Pradesh (Undivided)	35.7
2	Chhattisgarh	31.9
3	Madhya Pradesh	28.3
4	Odisha	23.1
5	West Bengal	21.9

Source: Census 2011

Table 40: Million Plus cities and Slum Households

S.No	Million Plus Cities	Population of Slums households to total urban households (%)
1	Greater Visakhapatnam M Corp	44.1
2	Jabalpur Cantt	43.3
3	Greater Mumbai (M Corp)	41.3
4	Vijayawada (M Corp)	40.6
5	Meerut (M Corp)	40.0
6	Raipur (M Corp)	39.0
7	Nagpur (M Corp)	34.3
8	Greater Hyderabad M Corp (GHMC)	31.9
9	Kota (M Corp)	31.8
10	Agra (M Corp)	29.8

Source: Census 2011

The present study has been conducted in Hyderabad, a million plus city, where the percentage of Muslim urban population is 100 %. Information for this project has been collected from 19 slums of Hyderabad (Map 1). A total sample of 150 households has been drawn from each slum randomly. However the final analysis has been conducted from 2354 households as some of the entries were found to be outliers and hence dropped from the analysis (Table 41). In order to present the report with a gender focus on different indicators (like health, education, marriage, paid and un-paid work and etc) included in the study, our study interviewed 154 women in these bastis in order to know the status.

Table 41: Basti-wise Distribution of Sample Households

S.No	Basti	No of Households	%
1	Aman Nagar-1	149	6.3
2	Aman Nagar-2	141	6.0
3	Bhavani Nagar-1	190	8.1
4	Bhavani Nagar-2	107	4.5
5	Chacha Garage	149	6.3
6	Gowlipura	80	3.4
7	Jahangirnagar	152	6.5
8	Kaveli Kaman	133	5.6
9	Khan Nagar	150	6.4
10	Mahajrin camp, Macca Masjid	80	3.4
11	Murad Mahal	141	6.0
12	Nasheman Nagar-1	150	6.4
13	Nasheman Nagar-2	130	5.5
14	Old Malakpet	51	2.2
15	Sardar Patel Nagar	99	4.2
16	Siddique Nagar-1	75	3.2
17	Siddique Nagar-2	163	6.9
18	Sultan Shahi	107	4.5
19	Valimiki Nagar	107	4.5
Total		2354	100.0

3.3.2 Data Collection

The study adopted a three-pronged approach for collection of information: (i) a field survey; (ii) collection of data from secondary sources like reports, census, various reports on the issues of minorities; (iii) discussion with officials in government, non-officials and local leaders in the study area. Four sets of instruments were used to collate information for this study. They are (i) schedule for individual household; (ii) schedule for slum level information; (iii) check list for secondary data collection, which reflects, different reports e.g. Sachar Committee Report, Post Sachar Evaluation Committee Report, India Human Development Report, Social Development Report, Report on the Standing Committee of the National Monitoring Committee for Minorities' Education, A Statistical Compendium on Slum in India, Report of the National Commission for Religious and Linguistic Minorities, NFHS reports, unpaid work, sexual reproductive system and etc; and (iv) Schedule (basically open-ended) for FGDs. The narrations of the FGDs especially by the women with respect to different aspects like their ambition, education, reproductive system, marriage, livelihood, etc found through these open-ended questions were later incorporated in the analysis in order to enrich the outcome. The instruments

were piloted and enriched subsequently before the data collection procedure. The process of interaction, in nature, was spread over extended and leisurely conversation mode to elicit their needs and demands.

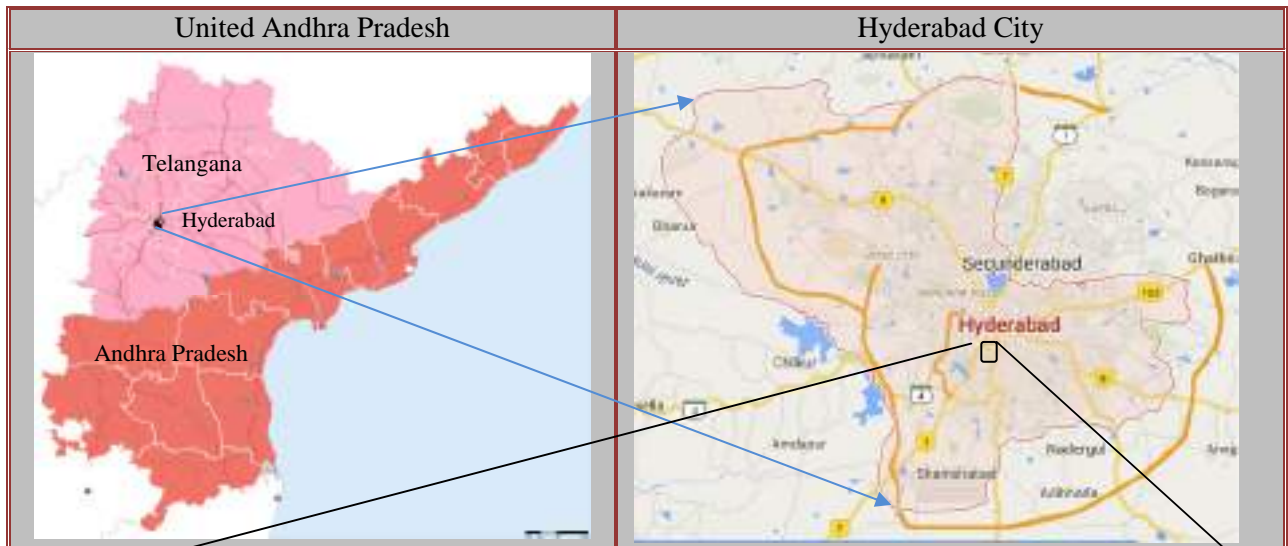
Box 1: Process of Data Collection in Old City, Hyderabad



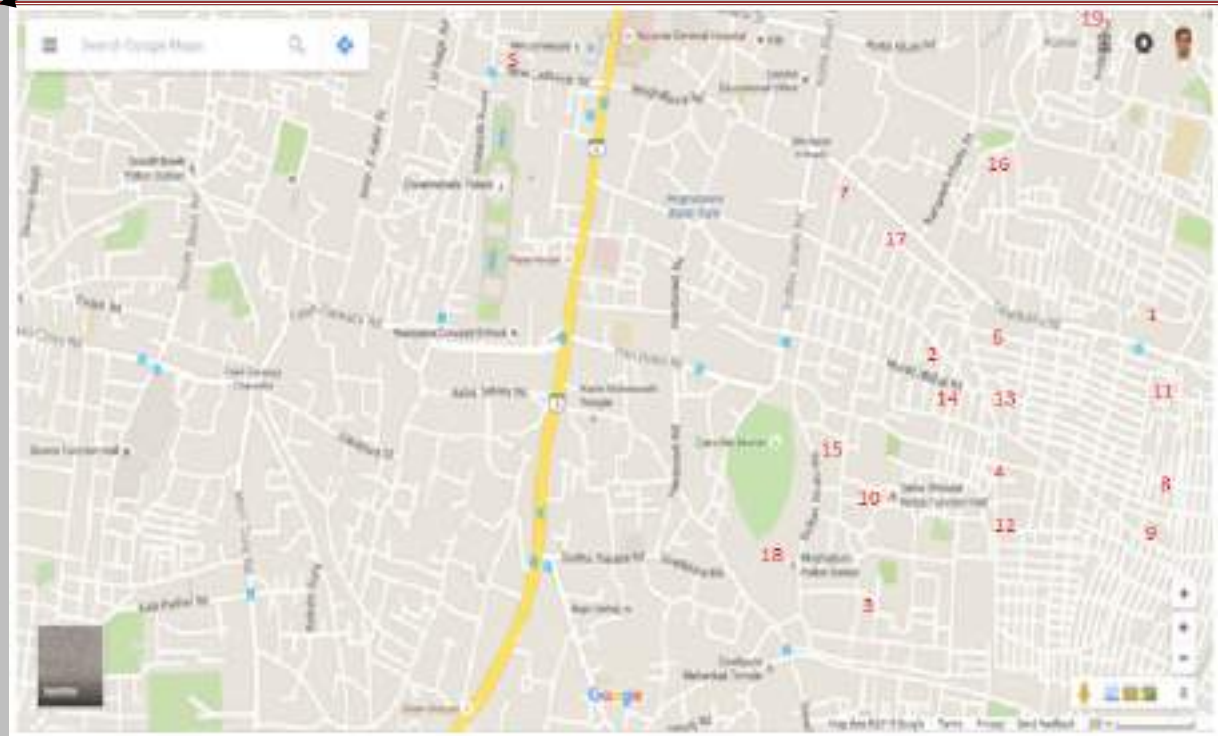
The interviews aimed to capture the different important issues like socio-economic and working conditions, participation and leadership, paid/ unpaid work, access to information and services for sexual and reproductive health and community support system on the studied community and hence policies of the said indicators need to be reformed and/or implemented. For this analysis, the qualitative answers were coded into a set of defining variables. For example, answers to questions concerning the work, the number of working days, working hours, the wage rate, the different sources of livelihood, which for each household was set.

Muslim minorities across different states of India share one very important characteristic, which is called as “exclusion” from all the important socio-economic indicators like poverty, employment, education and health. Let’s see the status of Muslim minorities and the issue of “exclusion” or “discrimination” or “Muslim ghettoisation” across the above said socio-economic indicators.

Map 1: Description of the Study Site in the Telangana State



Sample Bastis in Hyderabad



Sample Bastis

1. Bhavani Nagar-A	8. Siddiqui Nagar-1	15. Sultan Shahi
2. Murad Mahal	9. Siddiqui Nagar-2	16. Aman Nagar –B
3. Sardar Patel Nagar	10. Valmiki Nagar	17. Aman Nagar- A
4. Nasheman Nagar -1	11. Bhavani Nagar-B	18 Gowlipura
5. Maharanjan Camp	12. Nasheman Nagar-2	19. Old Malakpet (Shakernagar)
6. Chacha Garriage	13. Khan Nagar	
7. Jahangirnagar	14. Kaveli Kaman	

4. Findings of the Survey

4.1 Demography

The sample was aimed at drawing from different socio-religious groups. However, out of total sample of 2354 households, majority returned themselves as Muslim (2087) followed by Hindu (267), with very few from other socio-religious groups (Table 42). Hence for the purpose of analysis, we have considered only two categories – “Muslims” and “Hindus”. In case of social category, majority households in the sample are drawn from Other Backward Classes - OBC (2150) followed by Scheduled Castes - SC (130), Scheduled Tribe - ST (28) and Others (46).

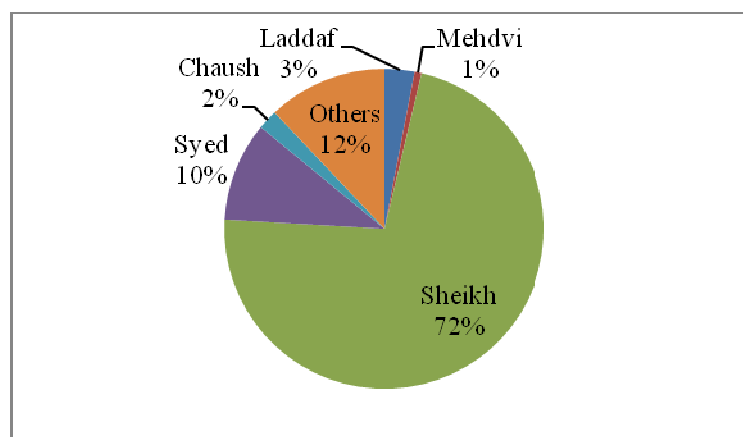
Table 42: Religion wise Social Category of Sample Households

S.No	Religion	SC	ST	OBC	Others	Total Sample
1	Hindu	130 (48.7)	28 (10.5)	92 (34.5)	17 (6.4)	267 (100.0)
2	Muslim	-	-	2058 (98.6)	29 (1.4)	2087 (100.0)
Total		130 (5.5)	28 (1.2)	2150 (91.3)	46 (2.0)	2354 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Of the Muslim households in the sample, majority belongs to OBC (Table 42). Among the sub-social groups within Muslims, in this study, majority of them are Sheikhs (72.5 %) followed by Syed (10.0 %) and remaining are in lower proportion (Chart 5).

Chart 5: Social Class – wise Distribution of Muslim Households



Source: Field Survey

The average family size of a Muslim HH (5) is slightly higher than the Hindu (4), a difference which is not so significant. There is high distribution of family size at 6 to 7 and 8 to 10 among Muslims compared to Hindus (Table 43). Our study presented an age-sex composition by

religion and Muslims show a relatively younger age distribution which is notably different from the general population (Table 44). While 27.3 % of the Hindu population is of below 14 years in age, the same is 33 % for the Muslims. A younger age distribution is an indication of a lag in population growth decline. A high proportion in the young age group implies less number in the workforce resulting in greater pressure on households and the economy.

Table 43: Size-Distribution of Sample Households

S.No	Household Size	Hindu	Muslim	Total Sample (No)
1	Less than 3	62 (23.2)	442 (21.2)	504 (21.4)
2	4-5	151 (56.6)	881 (42.2)	1032 (43.8)
3	6-7	42 (15.7)	556 (26.6)	598 (25.4)
4	8-10	07 (2.6)	179 (8.6)	186 (7.9)
5	More than 11	05 (1.9)	29 (1.4)	34 (1.4)
Total		267 (100.0)	2087 (100.0)	2354 (100.0)
Average HH Size		04	05	04

Source: Field Survey

Table 44: Composition of the Family Size

S. No	SRCs	Adults (More than 15 years)			Child (Up to 14 years)			Total			Average HH Size
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	Muslims	34.9	32.1	67.0	16.8	16.1	33.0	51.7	48.3	100.0	5
2	Hindus	35.7	37.1	72.7	14.3	13.0	27.3	50.0	50.0	100.0	4
Total		35.0	32.6	67.6	16.6	15.9	32.4	51.6	48.4	100.0	5

Source: Field Survey

(Figure in the table show percentage from the total population – Muslims: 10317; and Hindu: 1049)

4.2 Possession of Identification and other Beneficiary cards

More than 80 % of Hindu and around 80 % of the Muslim sample HH possess ration cards and more than 91 % of these cards are white (below poverty line -- BPL⁶) and three % hold Antyodaya cards for “poorest of the poor”. This category is not there among the Hindus. By this

⁶As per Rangarajan Committee report, the Urban BPL (Below Poverty Line) for undivided Andhra Pradesh was set as per capita monthly income (PCMI) of Rs 1370.84 in 2011-12 prices. We have calculated the inflation adjusted BPL line for survey time period 2014 by using urban CPI (Consumer Price Index) at base 2012. Hence the inflation adjusted BPL line for urban area in Telangana is PCMP of Rs 1770 (Government of India, 2013).

token, 97 % of HH across categories in the present sample fall within the category of “poor” (Table 45).

Table 45: Household Possession of Ration Cards (%)

Religion	Hindu (N=267)	Muslim (N= 2087)	Total Sample (N=2354)
Ration Card	83.1	79.6	80.0
White Card	91.4	93.9	93.6
AAAY Card	-	3.4	3.0

Source: Field Survey

Possession of identity cards is necessity to avail the benefits of government schemes and programmes. Both head of HH and spouse of HH among Muslims are behind than that of Hindu in possession of all type of identity cards. The situation is relatively better (around 75 % for the head and 66.7 % for the spouse) in case of Voter identity card and (more than 80 % in case of both) Aadhar but not in case other IDs such as, driving license, Bank pass book and PAN Card. The possession of Passport among the Muslim HH is higher than that of the Hindus (11.2 % of Muslim head compared to 3 % Hindu head). The possession of Voter identity card and Aadhar card is more popular among the people in these Bastis because there is an immediate derived benefit out of its possession for the political leaders. Hence the local level political leaders help these people in obtaining the Voter Id as well as Aadhar cards. It found in the study that there is a lot discrepancy in address proof between Voter and Aadhar for which people have face lot of problems before official in getting any benefits from government. People who have worked abroad have PAN cards and Passports. The condition is much worse in case of possession of other utility certificates since only 1.2 % and 2.7 % of Muslim head possess caste and income certificates respectively. The same is more miserable among the spouses (Table 46).

Table 46: Household Possession of Identity Cards (%)

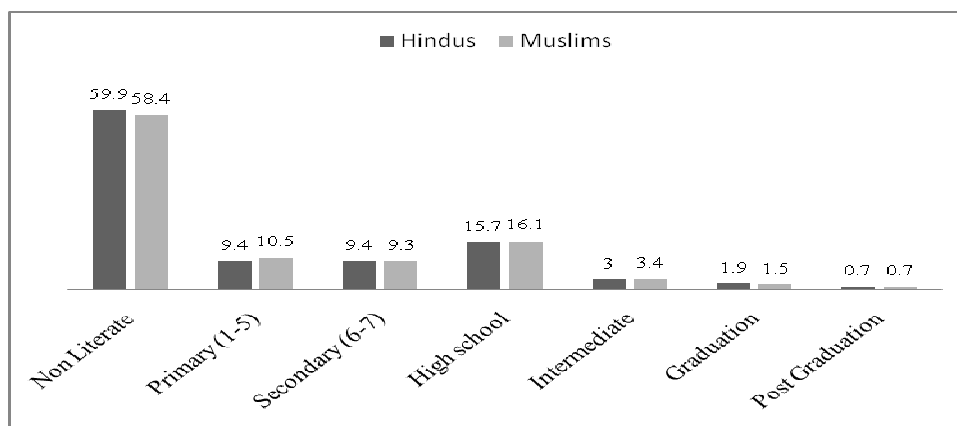
S. No	Type of Card	Hindu		Muslim	
		Head of HH	Spouse	Head of HH	Spouse
1	Voter ID	239 (89.5)	217 (81.3)	1554 (74.5)	1391 (66.7)
2	Adhaar Card	240 (89.9)	233 (87.3)	1786 (85.6)	1750 (83.9)
3	Employment Card	34 (12.7)	10 (3.7)	25 (1.2)	8 (0.4)
4	Driving License	73 (27.3)	16 (6.0)	506 (24.2)	77 (3.7)
5	PAN Card	46 (17.2)	29 (10.9)	160 (7.7)	54 (2.6)
6	Passport	8 (3.0)	3 (1.1)	234 (11.2)	86 (4.1)
7	Bank Pass Book	87 (32.6)	46 (17.2)	240 (11.5)	110 (5.3)
8	Caste Certificate	113 (42.3)	98 (36.7)	25 (1.2)	15 (0.7)
9	Income Certificate	38 (14.2)	13 (4.9)	56 (2.7)	16 (0.8)

Source: Field Survey

4.3 Education

The proportion of non literates (more than 58 %) are very high among both Muslim and Hindu head of HH and even among literates most of them are educated only up to high school level in both the communities in the Bastis (Chart 6).

Chart 6: Educational Status of the Households



Source: Field Survey

The study has categorised the population into two different components – children (6-14 years) and youth (15-21 years) and the status of education into 3 major categories – attending, not-attending and illiterate. In the 6-14 age category the illiteracy is found to be quite higher (22.1 %) than that of the Hindu category (9.6 %). The same trend is there among the Muslim youth (Hindu: 22.0 %; Muslim: 46.0 %). Among the children, the school attending Hindu children are more than Muslim children (significantly however the share of Muslim girls is more than that of its Hindu counterpart). Among the youth as well, Muslim youth are performing relatively better than Hindu youth though the share is very low (Table 47).

Table 47: Educational Status of the Households – Gender and Age Group

S. No	Age Group	Gender	Status							
			Attending		Not-attending		Illiterate		Total	
			Hindu	Muslim	Hindu	Muslim	Hindu	Muslim	Hindu	Muslim
1	Children (6-14 years)	Male	88 (91.7)	797 (69.1)	08 (8.3)	17 (1.5)	0.0	339 (29.4)	96 (100.0)	1153 (100.0)
		Female	117 (76.5)	935 (83.4)	12 (7.8)	22 (2.0)	24 (15.7)	164 (14.6)	153 (100.0)	1121 (100.0)
		Total	205 (82.3)	1732 (76.2)	20 (8.0)	39 (1.7)	24 (9.6)	503 (22.1)	249 (100.0)	2274 (100.0)
2	Youth (15-21 years)	Male	33 (30.3)	346 (32.3)	57 (52.3)	193 (18.0)	19 (17.4)	531 (49.6)	109 (100.0)	1070 (100.0)
		Female	40 (26.7)	366 (36.0)	72 (48.0)	222 (21.9)	38 (25.3)	428 (42.1)	150 (100.0)	1016 (100.0)
		Total	73 (28.2)	712 (34.1)	129 (49.8)	415 (19.9)	57 (22.0)	959 (46.0)	259 (100.0)	2086 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey

Around two-thirds are educated in government schools, less than one-third are from private and a small proportion (4 %) are from Madarsas. The medium of instruction is Urdu for most of Muslim HHs (61.6 %), Telugu for Hindus (73.5 %), while few studied in English or Hindi medium (Chart 7 and 8). The denial of education – evident in the high proportion of non-literates, lower education levels and early stage drop-outs among all the basti dwellers in general and Muslims in particular -- amounts to a denial of a fundamental right, Article 21A, under the constitution, a right that is in fact non-negotiable.

Chart 7: Medium of Instruction

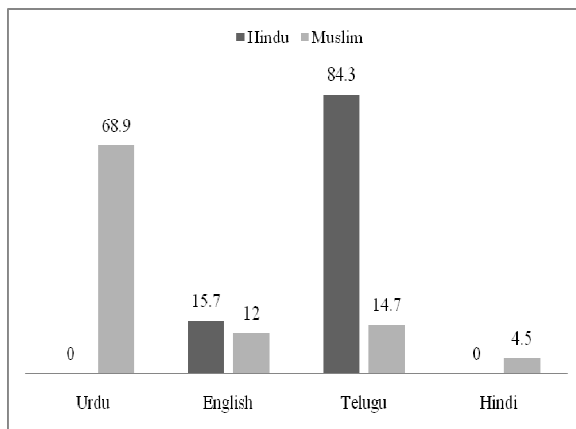
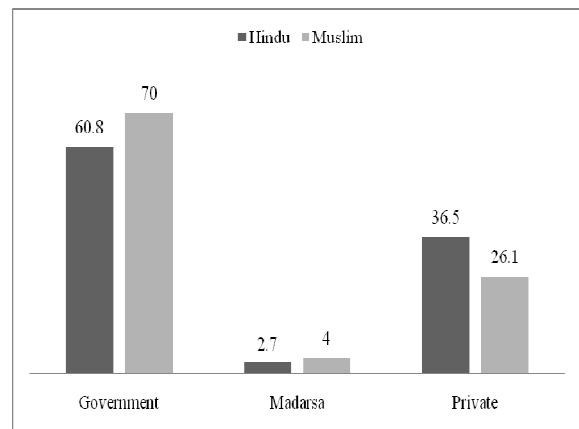


Chart 8: Type of Schools Attended

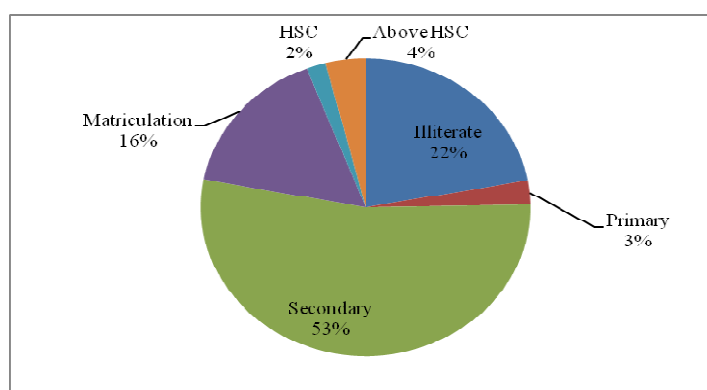


Source: Field Survey

To give a gender glance to the level of education, our study interviewed⁷ 154 women in these bastis in order to know the status. The data drawn from the women sample represents a very poor status of education among them. Out of the 154 women surveyed, 69.5 % (i.e. 107 women) reported were between class 5th to class 10th. 22.1 % (35 women) reported to be illiterate. Only 5.1 % of the women (08 women) were found to be in HSC, technical education and post graduation.

⁷ A parallel study titled “Research Report Young Urban Women Programme” was conducted where data was collected from 154 women in these above bastis. This was a study taken up by CSD, Hyderabad and Shaheen Women’s Resource and Welfare Association, Hyderabad for ActionAid, Hyderabad.

Chart 9: Level of Education among Women in the Study Areas of Hyderabad



Source: Field Survey

Among students studied, more than one-third responded that the reasons for not pursuing studies as mainly family restriction followed by poverty and marriage. Some women reported concern for safety as one of the reasons for not currently pursuing their studies. These issues were validated from the different FGDs from different stakeholders from different bastis. At the FGDs women stated that early marriage (at the age of 14 to 15) is very common in the community. To this, women from bastis like Nasheman Nagar (1), Nasheman Nagar (2) and Balmiki Nagar reported unsafe environment, family responsibility and early marriages are the factors for their drop out from the school. Family restriction emerged as one of the negative factors in all the bastis for the educational status of the women. To this, lack of proper infrastructure (especially unsafe road, transport, bus stand) adds more miseries to these girls for attaining their education. These facts have been validated from the FGDs from different women.

Experience from Bastis

Aman Nagar: All of a sudden my sister's marriage was fixed. After the marriage, I was the only young girl in the house. In order to take care of the household core, I was forced to stop my education.

Nasheman Nagar: Junior colleges are far away from the bastis and the timing was also odd. It is very difficult to reach our bastis late. There is the issue of safety.

Valmiki Nagar: Boys should not be allowed to stand nearer to the bus stops with an intention of harassing the girls on their way to schools/ colleges/ work.

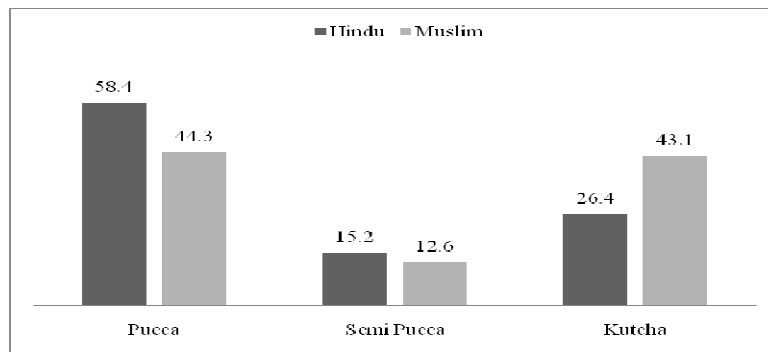
Nasheman Nagar: Parents got divorced. I stay with my mother. My father does not provide anything for us. One day I discovered that my mother is not well and she is not able to do any work. At that time I was in my school. So observing this, I stopped my education and joined work in the informal sector in order to support my mother's ill health and our food.

Bhawani Nagar: While we walk on the streets on our way to schools/ colleges/ work, boys harass us with slang language. So our guardians think better not to go to the school so that we will be safe.

4.4 Housing and other Assets

The data shows that the housing conditions among Muslim and Hindu HH are quite different from each other. Only 44.3 % of Muslims have pucca house, which is more than 14 % lower than that of Hindus. Mostly they live in kutchha houses (43.1 %), which are made of tin/asbestos sheets, while Hindus mostly live in pucca and semi-pucca. This tells us that that while majority of the Basti dwellers have poor housing, Muslims are relatively worse off (Chart 10).

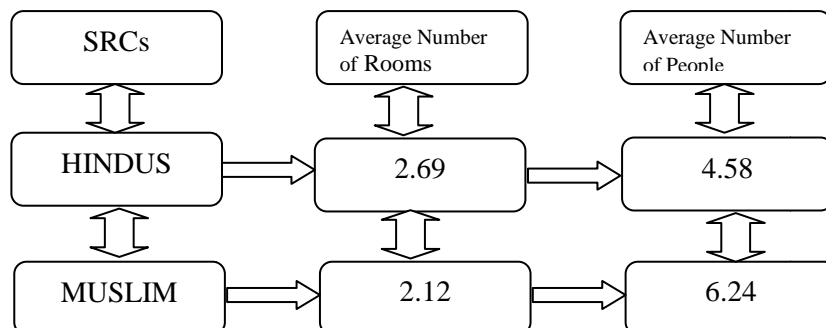
Chart 10: Possession of House (Type)



Source: Field Survey

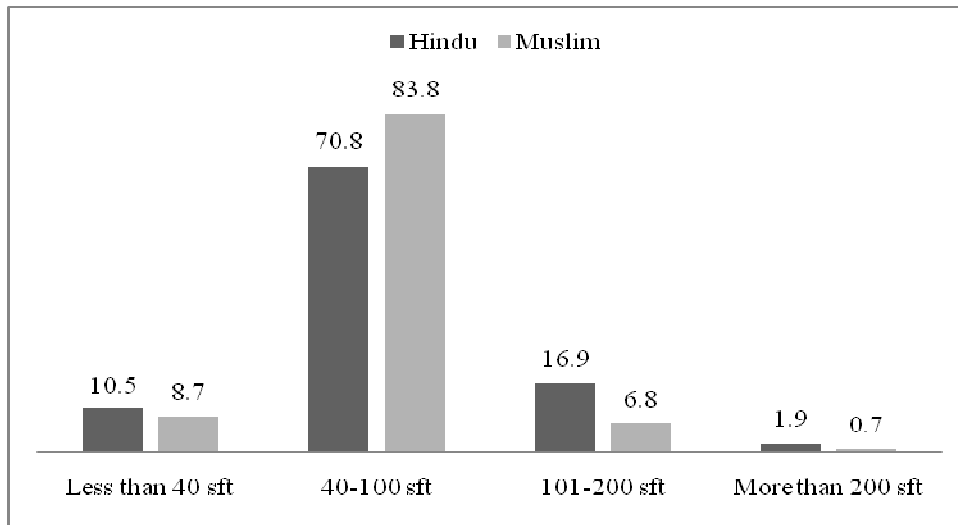
The average area of a house in the basti is around 75 sft, which is one-third of minimum house area and the average rooms are only 2.18 (Chart 11). With relatively big family size (6.24), Muslims, compared to Hindus (4.58), have relatively small area (83.8 % Muslims stay in 40-100 sft houses) and fewer rooms (2.12 compared with 2.69 of Hindus) for their house (Chart 12). More than 92 % of Muslims live below in houses with an area below 100 sft., Hindus faring better in this regard.

Chart 11: Estimation of Average Number of Rooms in the Bastis



Source: Field Survey

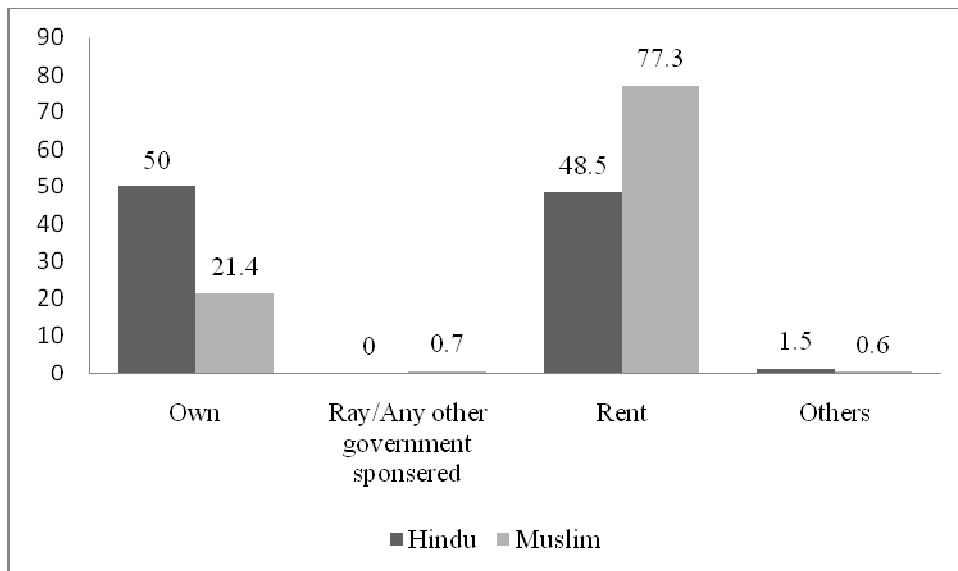
Chart 12: Estimation of Average Area of the House



Source: Field Survey

77.3 % of Muslims live in rented houses and this is much higher than the Hindus (48.5 %) (Chart 13). In case of own house, the men in the HH own a majority of the houses. The government sponsored programmes on housing schemes e.g. RAY has very poor performance in these Bastis as the possession of these houses are completely nil among Hindus whereas the same is only 0.7 % in the case of Muslims.

Chart 13: Ownership Status of the House



Source: Field Survey

4.4.1 Water

The source of “drinking water” in the slums of Hyderabad is own-tap for majority of HH (61.6 %) and about 31 % depend on common-taps where there is no significant difference between

Muslims and Hindus. The data shows that these water sources are within 100 meters distance for majority of HH across categories. For some of the households the distance is more than 1 km. The situation is more precarious during summer (generally starts from mid of February to mid of July) (Table 48).

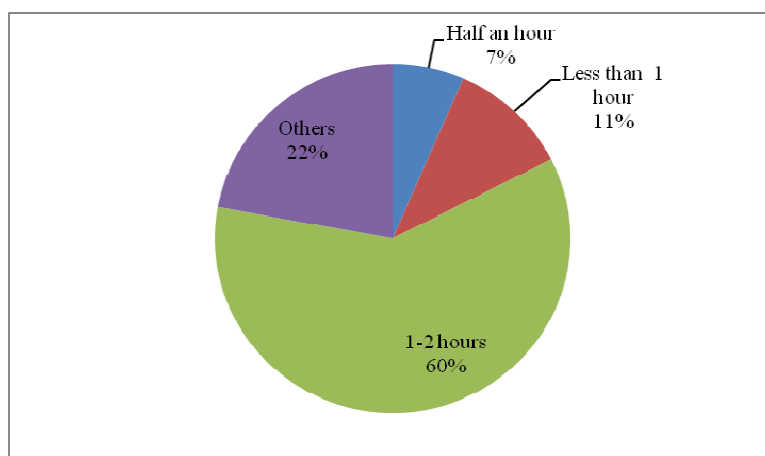
Table 48: Sources of Drinking Water among the SRCs

S. No	Sources of Drinking Water	SRCs		Total Sample
		Hindu	Muslim	
1	Personal Hand Pump	0.4	0.7	0.7
2	Common Hand Pump/ Tube Well	Nil	0.4	0.3
3	Own Tap	66.3	61.0	61.6
4	Common Tap	25.5	31.6	30.9
5	Common Well (Unprotected)	Nil	0.1	1.9
6	Others	7.5	4.0	4.4
Total Sample (No)		267	2087	2354

Source: Field Survey

These issues were validated from the different FGDs from different stakeholders especially with women as in these bastis the women are responsible for fetching water. Our study in this regard collected information from 154 women from these bastis to cross check these issues. The frequency of getting water is very irregular (i.e. once in 2 and 3 days). 126 women (81.8 % of the women) reported the same in the study. The timing of water varies between 1 hour to maximum 2 hours (reported by 93 women) (Chart 14). The quantity of water received through the tape in a very high irregular interval is not sufficient for around 60 % of the women (i.e. 96 women out of a total of 154). So the next best alternative is to fetch water from different available sources.

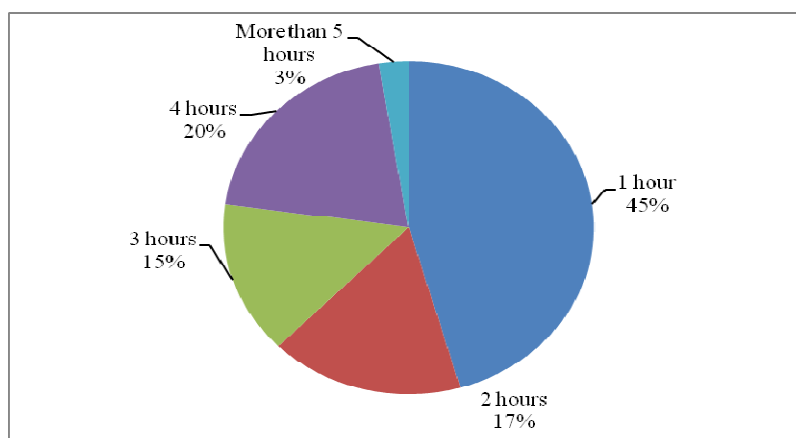
Chart 14: Timing of water supply in the Study Areas of Hyderabad



Source: Field Survey

The data pertaining to time spent on fetching drinking water clearly reflects the increased drudgery in the bastis of Hyderabad. This is not only due to the irregular and erratic supplies of tap water but also due to the reason that women and children walk distances to fetch water from far off sources. As a result, sometime these people considerable amount of time in fetching water. Most importantly the children are pressed into service to fetch drinking water (Chart 15). 04 women spent more than 5 hours to fetch water and 31 spent 4 hours. This is one of the worst situations in these bastis. The water shortage is also reflected in the number of days a household manages with collected water from municipal source.

Chart 15: Details of fetching water in the Study Areas of Hyderabad



Source: Field Survey

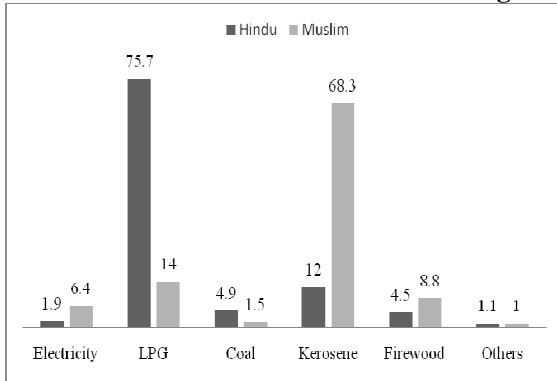
Experience from Aman Nagar and Siddique Nagar

Generally the males go for the work. So this is our work. Sometimes we take the help of children. But it is very difficult to fetch water from a large distance during summer. Sometimes we get water tanker during the summer but at times we don't get water because of long queue. Fetching water from faraway place is not safe for us. During the scarcity of water, people from other locality do not support us in fetching water from their locality. It is a strain for those people who fetch water from faraway place. That is one of the reasons of irregularity in our kids' education.

4.4.2 Cooking Fuel and Lighting

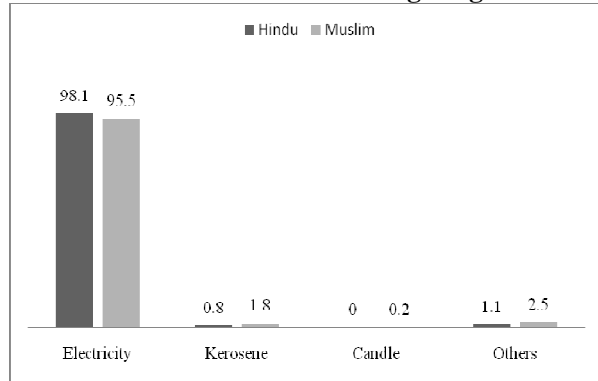
Muslims are not on par with the others in the use of cooking fuel, results indicating a clear difference with Muslim HHs reporting predominant use of kerosene (68.3 %) and Hindu HH reporting use of LPG (75.7 %). Firewood, electricity and coal is also used by the both. Most of the HH across categories (above 95 %) use electricity for lighting, which is a positive sign and very few among Muslims use Kerosene (1.8 %) for this purpose (Chart 16 and 17).

Chart 16: Sources of Fuel for Cooking



Source: Field Survey

Chart 17: Sources of Lighting



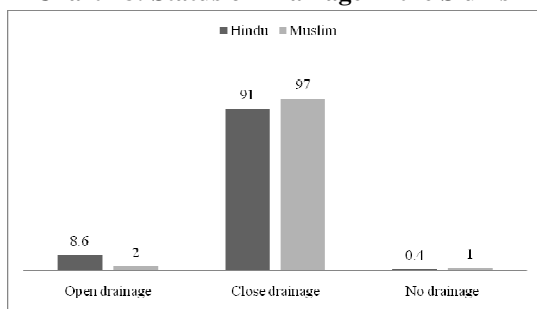
4.4.3 Streetlights

Majority of HH reported the maintenance of streetlights by the municipality is better in the bastis (90 %) and the cleaning of streets varies from daily to once in fortnight. The frequency is relatively better for Muslims than Hindus.

4.4.4 Sanitation

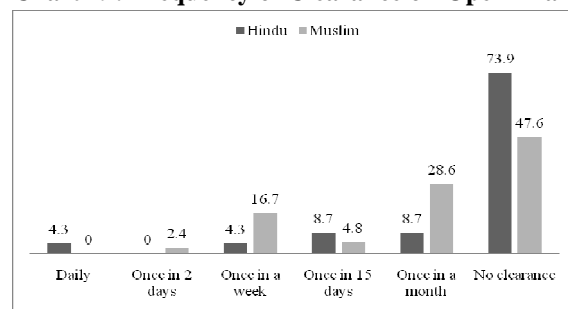
Sanitation is very basic need for a healthy life. Closed drainage facility is available to a majority of HH in the sample (above 90 %) and its availability slightly better for Muslims than Hindus. Open drainage is still existent for 2.8 % of HH and this is relatively higher for Hindus (8.6 %) (Chart 18). In most cases, there is no report of cleaning of drains in the bastis, with more Hindu HH reporting no cleaning (73.9 %) than the Muslims (47.6 %). And even in majority cases, for both Muslim and Hindus, it takes more than a week or fortnight, sometimes even a month to clean the drains in their areas (Chart 19).

Chart 18: Status of Drainage in the Slums



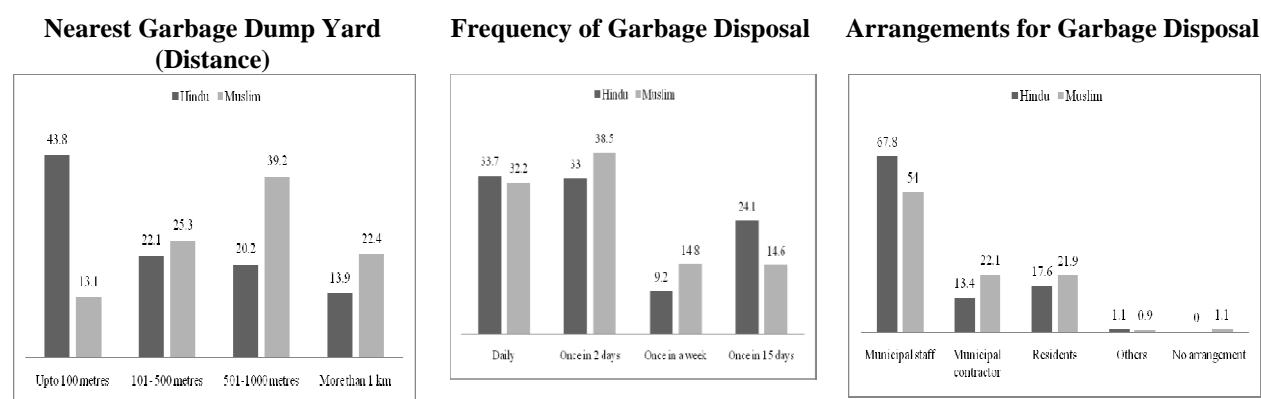
Source: Field Survey

Chart 19: Frequency of Clearance of Open Drains



Although majority of Muslim and Hindu HH have reported waste disposal facilities, 7 % do not have this, which is relatively higher for Muslims. It is also important to note the distance of waste disposal facilities. More than 50 % of people have waste disposal facility located beyond half kilometre and more than 20 % have it located at a distance of more than a kilometre. The access of Muslim HH to waste disposal facility is much worse than the Hindu who avail the waste disposal facility within half a kilometre distance (Chart 20).

Chart 20: Status of Garbage System in the Slums



Source: Field Survey

The frequency of garbage removal is once in a week or fortnight for about 30 % of the HH, which is almost equal for both Muslims and Hindus. It is reported that while municipal staff and contractors carry out the garbage disposal for majority of HH across categories (Muslim 76.1 % and Hindu 81.2 %) 21.4 % (Muslim 21.9 % and Hindu 17.6 %) of HH still reported doing this themselves (Chart 20).

4.4.5 Toilet

About 70 % of HHs in the sample are availing own toilet facility; 28.7 % of them have common toilet; and remaining 3.5% go for open defecation, these HH being mostly Muslim (Table 49).

Table 49: Status of Toilets among the SRCs

S. No	Types	SRCs		Total Sample
		Hindu	Muslim	
1	Open Defecation	Nil	3.9	3.5
2	Common Latrine	32.6	28.2	28.7
3	Own Latrine	67.4	67.8	67.8
Total Sample (No)		267	2087	2354

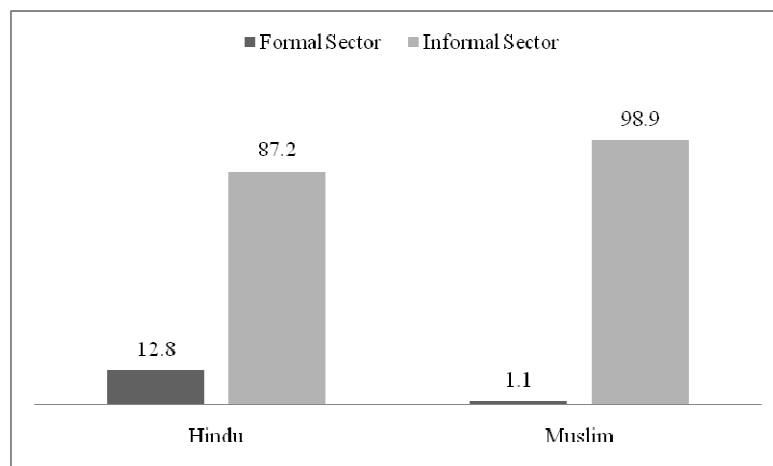
Source: Field Survey

4.5. Occupation

Though non-agricultural activities constitute the major source of employment to the Muslim community, much of it is in the nature of self-employment and own account enterprises, often home-based activities, that involve women and family labour. Most of these traditional occupations are of low productivity and require considerable state support in upgrading technology and re-skilling. Chart 21 shows that overall for the Hindu community, formal sector accounts for 12.8 %, and they account for only 1.1 % for Muslims. Muslims were found to concentrate in few occupations when compared to non-Muslims who were spread out with significant proportion in all the given occupations.

The sample HH has reported through FGDs that they confront different types of barriers to livelihoods (suspicion, accusations of theft etc.) -- majority of these were Muslim respondents. Few Muslims, reported arrest of family member by police in the past, and expressed the fear of arrest in future too. Very few people approach political leaders for any kind of the problems

Chart 21: Status of Employment among SRCs in the Slums

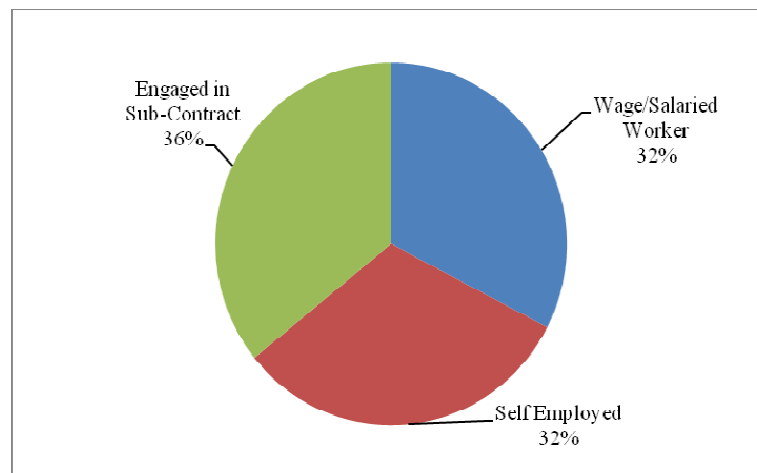


Source: Field Survey

Compared to the low work participation rate of women that exists in the country, a fairly large share of young urban women covered in the study is employed. Overall, 61.7 % of total young women are engaged in various jobs (from our exclusive interview from 154 women from these bastis). During the FGDs with the women, the reasons were validated from different categories of women and found out that, most women were not allowed to go away from home. Their preference was adapted to this attitude and they themselves strongly preferred to stay back home and abide by the mobility curtailment. The same issue was cross verified during the FGDs

conducted with men. 20 % of the men said they have no restrictions on their women if they want to go outside and work. They support them and respect their interest to study or work. Others had varied answers. One said that he will allow but will safeguard his mother/ sister, since they don't believe in the outside work. It is unsafe and insecure for the women to go alone. One of the participants mentioned *“Hum aurat ke paise nahin khate, isiliye aurat ko ghar mein rehna hi chahiye”* (We do not want to eat the women's earnings and hence they should stay at home). This was taken up with some of the other participants and they collectively answered, girls can only study till class 10th and thereafter must sit back at home. Based on the nature of economic activities, total young urban women workers can be classified as regular salaried or wage worker, self-employed and those working sub-contract works (mostly home-based). Broadly, they are distributed across all three categories (32.4 %, 31.6 % and 36.0 % respectively) (Chart 22).

Chart 22: Nature of Economic Activities among the Women



Source: Field Survey

The detailed classification of their job shows that nearly lion share of the total working women are engaged in bangle making. The remaining women workers are engaged in sanitary work, tailoring, rag picking, domestic work, teaching and other wage works. The fact that they are endowed with low education, skill, and work experience make them rely on others to get information about the job opportunities and access to the job market. In the present study with 154 women, around 60 % of the total women workers got their current job through mediators. They generally relied on others (self searching or own business or through others who already work in subcontract or home-based works) and got the relevant information. Normally, such recruitments lead to different kinds of problems, more importantly the wage discrimination.

Also other issues like wage given below the minimum, less than the agreed amount, delay in payment and other factors that make the work place unsafe. A large number of workers reported that their workplaces do not have proper ventilation and normally congested places remain very hot and humid. Though there are many rules that legally ensure the availability of the basic facilities in all work places, the work places (especially in the informal sector) do not practice such rules in their regular functioning. The result shows that nearly half of the workers do not have access to drinking water and toilet facilities in their work places. Majority of them do not have child-care facility, resting place and sufficient time for leisure at their work places.

They face different set of issues such as collecting the raw materials, marketing, payment, and etc. In the case of home-based sub-contract workers (mostly engaged in bangle making, tailoring, flower garland making), they collect the raw materials from the concerned company/party or collect themselves according to the contract/requirements. Once they finish their job, they normally hand over the finished product to the middlemen or drop in the collection centre. Often, they do not face serious issues on marketing or whatever they produce is sold or delivered to the agency. Whereas in the case of self-employed, the issues related to collection of raw materials and marketing are very important. For buying the raw materials for bangle or garland making, and tailoring they go to the city (towards Charminar side) or local shops while very few of them get the materials through the mediators. Similarly, some of them face difficulty in marketing their products as they are not able to get better price or do not know the ways and means do good marketing. Overall, their experience shows that the issues related to collecting raw materials and mode of marketing are dealt smoothly or do not call for any immediate intervention.

4.5.1 The Issue of Paid and Unpaid Work among the Women

Women spend long hours of their everyday life on unpaid household or care works but hardly get accounted for its contribution. Studies have pointed out several reasons for this missing recognition and the link between paid and unpaid work which goes well beyond its contribution to the national income (Abraham, 2013; Antonopoulos, 2009; Elborgh-Woytek, et al. 2013; ESAF and Health Bridge, 2009; Hirway, 2000; Miranda, 2011). The double burden of balancing the “work” and “care” make many women, especially with relatively better education and economic status, remain unemployed or withdraw from the jobs.

The present study has recorded the pattern in which 154 women spend their 24 hours day on different activities and finds that these women also spend major part of their time on various kinds of unpaid works. Out of this, only 95 women are engaged in any paid work; on an average they spend 4.9 hours per day on paid work and the rest spend on unpaid works. On an average, they spend 7.8 hours on sleeping, other personal care (4.2), house-works (3.5), learning (3.4), collection of fuel and water (2.6), unpaid GDP work (2.5), care of children (2.6), compared to social and cultural activities (1.7), care of adults (1.6), mass media use (1.6) in regular days (Table 50). The nature of these unpaid works varies in a way that some have more personal requirement while others are of common needs. In the case of working women, they are forced to do both paid and unpaid work which often becomes very difficult to manage.

Table 50: Hours Spend by Young Women (Paid and Unpaid Works)

S.No	Types of work	Minimum Hours*	Maximum Hours*	Mean Hours*
1	Paid work	1	10	4.9
2	Unpaid GDP work	1	6	2.5
3	Collection of fuel and water	1	5	2.6
4	Housework	1	8	3.5
5	Care of children	1	7	2.6
6	Care of adults	1	4	1.6
7	Learning	1	10	3.4
8	Social and Cultural activities	1	4	1.7
9	Mass media use	1	5	1.6
10	Sleeping	2	10	7.8
11	Other personal care	1	14	4.2

* Time spend out of 24 hours

Source: Field Survey

The concept of unpaid care work (UCW) was something new which was brought up amongst the male. It came up during the FGDs with the male participants. They could understand care work but how it is mentioned as unpaid was a question for them. It was then discussed and shared amongst the participants that how household work for a mother/sister/wife is stated as care work. But if for the same work, we hire a maid, we are obliged to pay. Hence a women in the house working from morning till night, is doing a care work for which she doesn't ask a wage.

4.6 Income

The average annual HH income of a Muslim household stands at Rs. 74480, which is around Rs. 30000 less than the income of a Hindu (Rs 106885). The majority of Muslim HH fell in the income range of Rs 48000 to Rs 1 lakh when compared to Hindu, who were found to be in the

income range of Rs 72000 to Rs 1.5 lakh (Table 51). This shows the relatively poor income conditions of Muslim HH.

Table 51: Average Annual Income

S.No	Annual income	Hindu	Muslim	Total Sample (%)
1	Below 36K	3.9	5.7	5.5
2	36K to 48K	2.1	12.2	11.1
3	48K to 60K	14.9	23.5	22.5
4	60K to 72K	14.2	22.4	21.4
5	72K to 1 lakh	31.2	24.5	25.3
6	1 to 1.5 lakh	18.1	9.3	10.3
7	1.5 to 2 lakh	6.0	1.4	1.9
8	Above 2 lakh	9.6	1.1	2.1
9	Average Income (Rs)	1,06,885	74,880	80,388
Total Sample (No)		267	2087	2354

Source: Field Survey

4.7 Consumption

The monthly consumption levels of food items per HH in the sample bastis is reportedly much lower than the national averages. Within those sub-optimal levels, Muslims have relatively less consumption of milk products and eggs but they are on par with Hindus for the remaining commodities such as rice, wheat, pulses, meat, oil, vegetables and fruits (Table 52).

Table 52: Monthly Average Consumption of food

S.No	Religion	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Millets	Pulses	Milk & Milk products	Meat	Eggs	Vegetables	Oil	Fruits
1	Hindu	27.80	11.9	3.09	1.74	2.75	9.93	5.70	26.25	12.93	4.84	5.13
2	Muslim	28.55	10.77	7.34	3.08	3.28	7.36	12.96	15.52	14.51	5.03	5.10
Total		28.46	10.9	6.17	1.94	3.21	7.65	12.21	16.74	14.33	5.01	5.11

Source: Field Survey

4.8 Banking and Credit

Around 79 % of total sample reported taking loans mainly for purposes of marriage, medical care, business, asset purchase for both Muslims and Hindus (Table 53). Muslims borrow mostly from relatives and money lenders while Hindus borrow from money-lenders. As discussed earlier, 11.5 % of the Muslim head and 32.6 % of the Hindu head have bank accounts, very few reported getting credit from formal sources like, banks and SHGs, and some reported borrowing from micro-finance institutions. The average loan amount is Rs 64467 for Muslims and Rs 84768 for non-Muslim which are higher than the outstanding amounts that shows more than 80

% of amounts borrowed could not be repaid. On the other hand the proportion of sample HH who reported lending money is negligible.

Table 53: Bank & Credit details

Particulars	Hindu	Muslim	Total Sample (No)
Avail credit facilities			
Yes	28 (10.5)	1832 (87.8)	1860 (79.0)
Total Sample (No)	267	2087	2354
Purpose of credit			
Self		40.0	733
Scholarship		6.3	115
For Family (Marriage and medical care, asset purchase)	100.0	51.6	974
Gas	-	2.1	38
Total Sample (No)	28	1832	1860

Source: Field Survey

4.9 Issue of Health

Access to the provision of health is an important aspect for the development of any country in terms of increasing equity and reducing poverty especially for women. Services which ensure the survival and well being of young women are not only important from the perspective of human rights, but are significant in addressing the economic, social and development challenges at large. The Millennium Development goals aptly focus on the reduction of child and maternal mortality rate and prevention of HIV/AIDS.

Around 9 % respondents reported chronic illness in the family, most of them related to the heart, skin and general problem although more than one quarter attend the work during illness (Tables 54). The average number of working days and the monthly earning slightly fall for those people who report chronic illness. Out of total sample reported illness, 33 persons reported as disability.

Table 54: Chronic Illness

S.No	Name of the Illness	Hindu	Muslim	Total Sample (No)
1	HIV & AIDS	Nil	3.1	1.9
2	TB	5.5	6.3	5.7
3	Cancer	1.4	1.6	1.4
4	Paralysis	4.1	3.9	3.8
5	Dysmenhorrea (excessive bleeding)	4.1	4.7	4.3
6	Heart related problems	19.2	16.4	16.6
7	Kidney related problems	11.0	7.0	8.1
8	Fractures	Nil	1.6	0.9
9	General Problems	23.3	31.3	31.8
10	Skin related	31.5	24.2	25.6
11	Total Sample (No)	73	128	211

Source: Field Survey

Pregnancy and child birth is identified as one of the major issue related health in these bastis. As there is a facility of scanner in the hospitals to predict the status of both baby and mother, our study tried to find out the status of this check in the bastis. In this case Muslim are far better than that of their Hindu counterpart.

4.9.1 Details of Vaccination for the Children

Vaccination of different diseases is a preventive measure in order to control any type of health disaster that occurs in a human body. Preventive measures are always better than the curative measure in the entire problem as it prevents the loss in a sustainable way. In the present study, Muslims are at par with the Hindus regarding the status of vaccination. However 12.8 % of the Muslims followed the non- traditional method for the same, which is very less for the Hindus. Pulse polio is found to be a very popular vaccination across both the groups. They are at par with each other whereas for BCG and DPT, Muslims are far below than that of Hindu. However the status in measles is much better than that of Hindus. Largely they receive these facilities from public institutions. More than 10 % of the Muslims depend upon private institutions for the same whereas the dependence for the same from the private institutions for the Hindus is very minimum (Table 55).

Table 55: Status of Vaccination in the Slums of Hyderabad

S.No	Type	Hindus	Sources			Muslims	Sources		
			Public	Private	Others		Public	Private	Others
1	BCG	57.3	97.4	2.6	Nil	40.9	86.2	13.3	0.5
2	DPT	53.9	97.2	2.8	Nil	36.0	85.6	14.1	0.2
3	Pulse polio	70.4	97.9	2.1	Nil	69.5	89.5	10.3	0.2
4	Measles	10.5	100.0	Nil	Nil	21.8	87.3	12.3	0.4
5	Others	1.5	100.0	Nil	Nil	2.7	87.5	12.5	Nil
Total Sample (No)			267				2087		

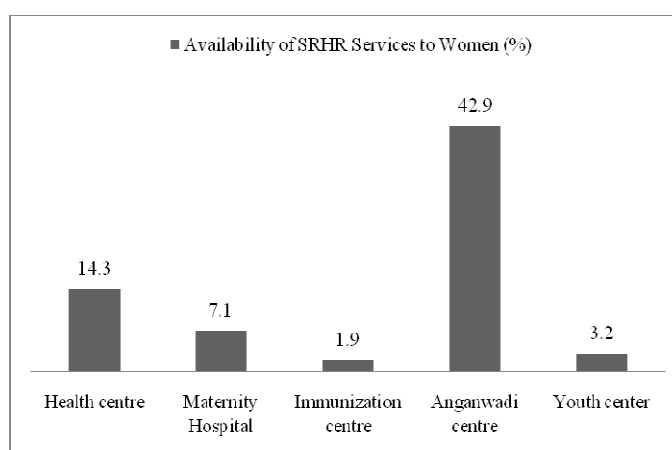
Source: Field Survey

4.9.2 Status of Sexual and Reproductive Health and Right (SRHR)

Given this context, the field survey conducted among the 154 women in the bastis of Hyderabad was enquired about their sexual and reproductive rights to assess their level of awareness, health status and access to services. The following sections summarize the major findings from the survey.

Anganwadi centre (43 %) was reported as the main service available to women in the bastis. Only 14 % reported presence of health centre followed by 7 % who reported presence of maternity hospital (Chart 23). It clearly shows the lack of access to SRHR services for the young women.

Chart 23: Availability of SRHR Services to Women

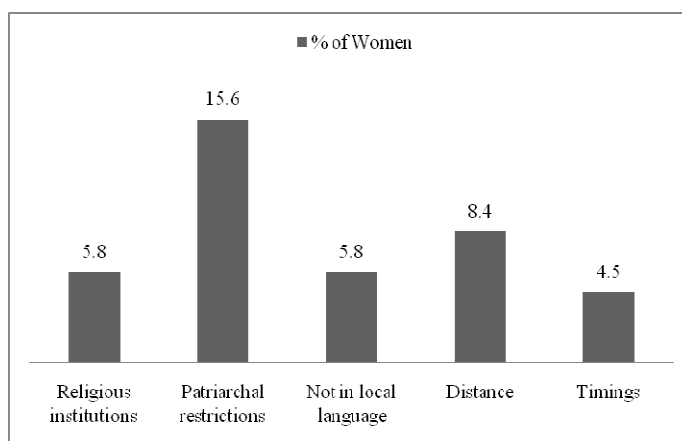


Source: Field Survey

The women reported that information on nutrition as available followed by counselling, family planning and contraception, information on sexually transmitted diseases and treatment. However, a large majority (34 %) reported that none of the information was available through these services. Interestingly, only 16 % of the women reported that these services were open to all for use. 16 % of women reported patriarchal restrictions as the major barrier to access SRHR

services by women. Distance to access services was also reported. Six % of women cite religious institutions while five % indicated inconvenient timings as a major barrier to access SRHR services (Chart 24).

Chart 24: Barriers to access SRHR services by Women



Source: Field Survey

4.10 Issues of Marriage Issues

4.10.1 Age at Marriage

Attaining puberty, more children, and security were cited as the main causes behind early marriages in these bastis. Education level among the people, as we have seen, is very low in these areas. Moreover the development needs like midday meals, pre-metric scholarships, proper infrastructure of schools, availability teachers are inadequately met in these areas. In order to have idea about the age at marriage among people in these areas, the study included collection of 5578 marriage histories (3227 histories from Muslims and 359 from Hindus) of both males and females between the years 1988 to 2013. The details are presented in Table 58. For the Muslim female sample, as a whole, the mean age at marriage was 15.83 years where as the same for male was 20.80 years. The same trend has been found for Hindu HH in the sample as a whole with marginal difference in the years (Table 56).

Table 56: Status of Average Age at Marriage

S.No	Gender	Hindu	Muslim	Total
1	Female	15.96	15.83	15.85
2	Male	20.48	20.80	20.77
Total		18.15	18.34	18.32

Source: Field Survey

4.10.2 Other Issues related to Marriage

It is reported that around 18 % of the marriages are fixed by the brokers by taking the average fees of Rs 2800 per marriage. Brokers also fix the amount and kind of dowry in about 17 % of cases. The role of brokers in marriage fixation is slightly less prevalent among Muslims than Hindus (Table 57).

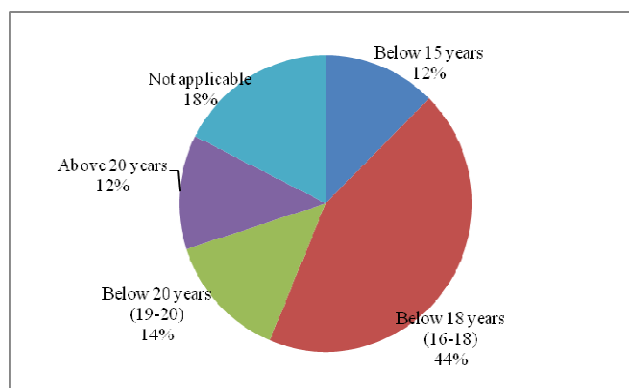
Table 57: Other Marriage Issues

S.No	Marriage Related	Hindu	Muslim	Total
1	Marriage fixed by a Broker	22.2	17.1	423
2	Dowry Fixed by Broker	7.0	22.0	395
3	Average Broker Fee (Rs)	3200.00	2751.55	2770.47
4	Dowry given to daughter	30.9	20.4	332
5	Dowry received for Son	10.6	11.6	151

Source: Field Survey

The most serious impact of early marriage is early pregnancy. Our detailed interaction with 154 women of these bastis revealed that, 11.6 % of the women (10 women) became pregnant even below the 15 years of age; 40.7 % between the ages 16 to 18 (Chart 25).

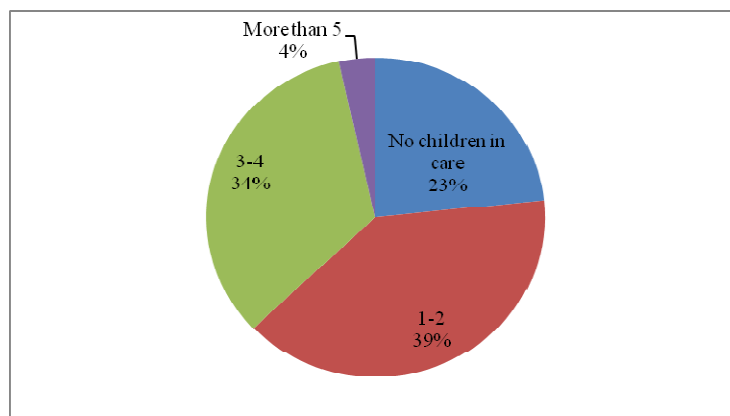
Chart 25: Age at first pregnancy in the Study Areas of Hyderabad



Source: Field Survey

This study found 3 women below the age of 18 years with 5 children between ages 1-5 years. 64 women below the age of 18 years out of a total of 86 reported having children between the ages 1 to 5) (Chart 26).

Chart 26: Children under care (below 18 years) in the Study Areas of Hyderabad



Source: Field Survey

4.11 Domestic Violence

In all the bastis in the sample, 19.5 % of women reported violence in the form of beating by the husbands and 32.9 % reported verbal abuse. Most women were required to take permission from their husbands while going outside. Surprisingly during the informal discussion with them, a majority of women considered domestic violence/abuse/verbal abuse as justified. Among these women the main justifications were when the wife neglects serving food at the proper time to the husband; talks with other men for any reason; and shows carelessness towards the in-laws. However, as there are different laws that criminalise domestic violence, the degree of awareness of laws was investigated in the study.

Awareness of law in the present study means knowledge about any institutional mechanisms - law, policies, and acts. The numbers of aware respondents in this study were only 32 (26 Muslim women + 06 Hindu women). These 26 women are associated directly or indirectly with civil society organisations like Shaheen and hence gained the knowledge. These women coped with the situation of abuse only with the help of families. Only 26 women confided about the problem to people they were close to. Here they took help from their family members. The help-seeking behaviour of the women responding to domestic violence in these areas were found to be very minimal from NGOs, police and political leaders.

4.12 Beneficiaries of Development Schemes and Poverty Alleviation

The development schemes that aim to eliminate poverty in the study are mainly public distribution system (PDS), pensions (disability, old age and widow), midday meal scheme, and scholarships (post- metric, MCM, free - text and stationery, free school dress, free studentship).

Data collected from the 19 bastis indicate that only 6.1 % out of 1845 card holders and 27.9 % of Hindus out of 233 card holders have stated that they have availed the benefit of PDS. During informal discussions with these people, a very important point came into picture that these people use the ration card as collaterals during distress situations and take credit from local brokers from the bastis. The broker, who provides credit, sells the subsidized items (rice, flour, kerosene, soap etc.) at a higher price to these people, whose ration card he keeps as a collateral security. The broker can use the card till the owner of the card repays the loan amount.

Benefits from pensions were availed by only 70 Muslims households where as the same is nil for Hindu households. The basic justification by departments has been given as lack proper identification proof. Free school dresses were availed by 13.3 % of the Muslims, whereas the same is nil for the Hindus. 19.8 % Muslims reported free text book and stationery whereas the same is 4.2 % for the Hindus. Post- metric scholarship is availed by 21.2 % of the students from the Muslim communities. Only 19 Muslim HH reported availing the benefit of midday meals in the school. The same issue was cross verified through FGD and found that due to poor quality of rice and dal, many children of these areas took ill and hence their parents stopped them from availing midday meals in the school.

Extracts from the Key Informant Interviews

Key informant interviews often provide deeper and diverse reflections on the ground realities and policies. The present study also used this approach to gather information that reflects on several issues related to the effectiveness of policies in local contexts. The experience of the service providers and other stakeholders offers different perspectives. Broadly, the study identified key informants as officials from concerned departments (includes women and child welfare development, minority cooperative finance corporation, municipality, electricity, police, urban development), representatives from local service providers, labour, academia, legal service, NGOs (working on issues related women and girls), and local leaders (representing religions and basti).

The information collected from these interviews suggests that the SHGs among Muslim women need to be explored further. This will enable capacity building among the members and evolve as a key agency to implement various development schemes at local level. This will also offer new options for short-term credit like developing own microfinance units and programmes focusing on creation of income and assets. The SHGs provide a common space for women to join together and enhance their collective bargaining power to address several issues that women face in their everyday life. The experience suggests that women's participation in SHGs empower them though effective participation in decision making, local planning and utilisation of resources or scheme designed for women.

The first budget of Telangana state has earmarked a sharp increase and the same may enable the government to develop and finance more programmes that address the issues of young urban women. While providing resources, the informants indicated the importance of building infrastructural facilities and filling the vacancies in various departments that address the welfare of minority communities. Officials admit that departments like Wakf Board, State Minorities Finance Corporation, Urdu Academy, Minorities Commissionerate and Center for Entrepreneurship Development of Minorities are facing severe problem in finding the human resource required to implement many of their programmes effectively.

Along with this, timely revision in the formalities set for accessing the benefits of welfare schemes and subsidies were proposed as a strategy to utilise the resources allotted in different schemes. This would also resolve other issues related to the delay, exclusion, and leakages that reduce the effectiveness of welfare programmes. For instance, relaxing the age limit may help the minority welfare officials to distribute the subsidised loans (about 10 p of total budget has been allotted towards subsidy linked bank loan scheme of State Minorities Finance Corporation).

Many of the Muslim families consider Madarasa education as more effective means of social mobility rather than the liberal education (though government provides free school education). The poor educational status of Muslim girls is a reflection of high adult illiteracy among Muslims in the city. While spreading the awareness on importance of girls' education and creating employment skills, effort may be taken to modernize the madarasa education as expressed by the educational experts.

Conclusions

The baseline survey “Issues in Minorities Development: A Study of Muslims in Telangana State” was carried out with a broad objective of explaining the socio-economic and living conditions of Muslim communities with a special focus on livelihoods and status of women in the Old City of Hyderabad. For this, the study collected quantitative and qualitative information from 2354 households of 19 bastis on (i) poverty; (ii) education; (iii) health; (iv) employment; and (v) access to credit. The thread that connects the entire issues with the Muslim minorities is the concept called “exclusion”. Our detailed survey on the Muslim minorities in the 19 bastis of Hyderabad city pointed to a range of gaps in the awareness level.

Unavailability of reliable data by socio-religious group especially for Muslims has prevented much of the analytical description or comparison (Hassan, ud). A structural change in the institutional mechanisms has been observed consequent on the Sachar Committee Report. In the first place, there are several indications of institutional improvement, the most important being the creation of Ministry of Minority Affairs (MoMA) in 2006. Secondly, during the same year, the government revamped the Prime Minister’s 15 point Programme with emphasis on educational opportunities, employment and economic activities, living conditions and prevention and control of communal disharmony and violence. Thirdly, the launching of Multi-sectoral Development Programme (MSDP) which aims at improving the socio-economic conditions of minorities and providing basic amenities to them for improving the quality of life of the people and reducing imbalances in the identified minority concentration areas during the 12th Five Year Plan period.

Due to these intervention measures, the awareness level of the state agencies regarding the condition of Muslims has increased to a great extent. One of the major drawbacks in policy frameworks has been the gap between development needs and policy with reference to marginalised and poor communities. Often, the coverage of government interventions has not been sufficient enough to cater the need of the people. Here, the community initiatives, reflected through a sound collective action process, were not found among the people due to lack of resources and poor bargaining power. The institutional structures designed to implement these initiatives have not been adequate and strong in-terms of personnel, mandate, training and support. Our study finds lack of data base in major of the indicators like health, infrastructure, employment and access to government schemes for Muslims (on the basis of religion) at Andhra

Pradesh level. Hence a good base-line socio-economic and capacity data on the basis of socio-religious group at the state level, prior to any kind of intervention, is a major component in successfully planning an adaptive socio-economic development plan for the Muslim minorities in Andhra Pradesh.

The study identified following grave issues of Muslim minorities in bastis of Hyderabad city, which require the policy attention: (a) large number students drop out of school between primary and high school, and very few access higher education; (b) majority of Muslims still live in very cramped semi-pucca and kutcha houses with inadequate access to safe drinking water and safe cooking fuel; (c) large section of Muslims still do not avail credit from formal credit institutions; (d) Early female marriage still a practised in most cases; (e) women have little voice in decision-making at home on crucial issues, are not able to access sexual and reproductive health services, report domestic violence and have no awareness of legal protections; (f) despite possession of identification proof, there is no access to social welfare benefits like pensions etc.; (g) There is no systematic system for monitoring and ensuring delivery of entitlements to the urban poor on the part of the government.

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