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## **Message**

It is matter of great pleasure for me to introduce the second Human Development Report of the State.

The concept of Human Development Index was introduced by UNDP in 1990 for the first time under the leadership of late Mahbub-ul-Haq, the then Special Advisor to UNDP. Since then, human development has become the guiding principle in assessing the overall development. Human Development Index is mainly prepared to assess the quality of life of the masses with the help of a combination of the indices of Education, Health and Livelihood and this approach basically identifies three essential areas in which enlargement of people's choice must take place. These are, for people to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources deemed necessary for decent living. Thus, Human Development Report for the State provides a composite index of human development that goes beyond income based measures.

In the above background, an attempt has been made to prepare the second Human Development Report of Uttar Pradesh in pursuance of the methodology propounded by UNDP placing people at the centre instead of focusing on macro level achievements. The report benchmarks our status on Human Development Indicators and shares our concern and urgency in improving the same. It is worthwhile to mention here that the present Report includes the estimates of Human Development Index for all the districts of the state and a region-wise analysis has also been presented.

I would like to thank the Director, Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow for his valuable and rigorous efforts in coordinating with the experts of various fields who basically prepared the draft Report. I also appreciate the efforts of the officers of the Planning Department, Government of Uttar Pradesh for their dedicated and hard work in bringing out this document finally.

I hope that the Report will provide a sound basis for us to pursue the objectives and goals for further improving Human Development Status in the State.

  
(Atul Kumar Gupta)



Planning Commission



India

### Message

We compliment the Government of Uttar Pradesh for releasing the Second Uttar Pradesh Human Development, a brief span after the release of the first Uttar Pradesh Human Development Report.

Whether or not India is able to meet its own development goals or the Millennium Development Goals is dependent on progress of select States, one of which is Uttar Pradesh. The State HDR recognizes that though having progressed on human development, considerable distance needs to be travelled.

The social inequalities prevalent in the State call for a special thrust on inclusive growth. This, coupled with prevalent gender and spatial disparities, presents a unique development challenge that calls for multi-pronged strategies focusing on the different needs of sections of the society.

Good and effective governance provides an enabling environment for government's efforts to reach the neediest. It also empowers people, which is essential for human development. The Uttar Pradesh Human Development Report reiterates the linkage between governance and achievements in human development.

We once again felicitate the Government of Uttar Pradesh for releasing its Second Human Development Report. We stand ready to support follow-up on its recommendation by the State government.

Santosh Mehrotra  
Senior Adviser (RD), Planning Commission  
Government of India

Maxine Olson  
UNDP Resident Representative &  
UN Resident Coordinator

**Manjit Singh**  
Principal Secretary



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## MESSAGE

I am very pleased to introduce the second Human Development Report of Uttar Pradesh.

Human Development concept as designed by 'United Nations Development Programme' has now become a universally accepted approach in the planning process to assess the over-all well-being of the masses, not only on income criteria but also on the basis of a composite index including per capita income, health and educational status taken together, which is more comprehensive and broad-based.

The second Human Development Report of Uttar Pradesh embodies the estimates of Human Development Index for the year 2001 and 2005 and a comparative picture with other States is also presented in the report. It would be worthwhile to mention here that the absolute value of human development index in the state of U.P. has improved significantly over the years but scope of further improvement in it is still very wide. The State Government is making earnest efforts for a comprehensive socio-economic development of the people in the state which should make a significant impact on the human development status in the State.

I would like to thank UNDP and Planning Commission, Government of India for extending technical support in the preparation of this report. My sincere appreciation also goes to Director, Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow for the valuable contribution made by him in coordinating with various experts from different disciplines who drafted the report. I also appreciate the efforts of the officers of the Area Planning Division, Planning Department, Government of Uttar Pradesh for their dedicated and hard work in bringing out this document finally.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Manjit Singh'.

(Manjit Singh)  
Principal Secretary

Planning Department

Government of Uttar Pradesh

Dated: December, 2008

**Pankaj Agrawala**  
Principal Secretary



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### MESSAGE

It gives me immense pleasure to introduce the second Human Development Report for the State of Uttar Pradesh. Human Development as defined by UNDP, is the 'process of enlarging people's choices,' the most critical ones being the ability to lead a long and healthy life, to be educated and to enjoy a decent standard of living.

Keeping in view the above paradigm, the second Human Development Report of Uttar Pradesh has been prepared by the State Government highlighting the status of human development in U.P. with a detailed analysis of its key components viz., education, health and per capita income along with other related aspects. The Report indicates that the value of human development index in U.P. has increased steadily over the time. This is a healthy indicator of our commitment to enabling people to exercise their choice. We recognise that sustained efforts are needed for substantial improvement in the level of human development in the state.

The state government is making all efforts to improve the general condition of the people by substantial allocations and investments in the fields of Education, Health, Sanitation, Employment Generation, Women's Empowerment etc. It is expected that these efforts would result in improving the status of human development in the state, in the times to come.

I gratefully acknowledge the efforts of Director, Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow and his team in producing the Report of Human Development of the State. I also appreciate the dedicated and hard work of the concerned officers of Planning Department, Government of Uttar Pradesh in bringing out this document.

  
(Pankaj Agrawala)

## PREFACE

The traditional way of measuring the quality of life of the people is generally based on the economic growth and the per-capita income. But after the passage of time, it was realized that the "trickle down effect" theory would not be sufficient to capture the intricate dimensions of development in entirety and therefore, the direct anti-poverty programmes were also required to hit the problem of poverty effectively. The impact of these efforts however, does have some encouraging feature but the paradigm of civilization "that the extent to which the weakest person of the society feels secured in that society" is yet to be translated into action.

In the above context, the UNDP introduced the concept of Human Development Index to assess the quality of life of the masses. Conceptually, human development index is the combination of the indices of education, health and livelihoods. Thus, the concept of human development places people at the centre instead of macro level achievements. The human development approach basically identifies three essential areas in which enlargement of peoples choices must take place. These are for people, to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources necessary for a decent standard of living. Hence, HDR proposes composite indices that go beyond income based measures.

It is in the above background, an attempt has been made to prepare second Human Development Report for Uttar Pradesh in pursuance of the methodology propounded by UNDP. This report of Human Development for Uttar Pradesh includes three composite indices namely, Human Development index (HDI), Gender Development index (GDI) and Human Deprivation index in place of Human Poverty index (HPI) computed for the state as a whole alongwith the districts. The Report incorporates latest information as far as possible in every dimension. The results and recommendations of the report are indicative and point towards planning for further development of the State. The report also indicates a suitable pattern of human development at more disaggregated level (district level) in the state in order to provide a base for the accelerated development of those districts and regions, which are lagging behind in terms of human development.

The Report on UPHDR II includes nine chapters. In the first chapter, a brief profile of "Uttar Pradesh economy and Society" has been given along with important sectoral status like agriculture, industry, power, irrigation, transport, education, health, drinking water etc. The chapter depicts the fiscal situation of the State also.

The second chapter discusses "The Status of Human Development" in Uttar Pradesh. "The Status of Education in Uttar Pradesh" is highlighted in the third chapter including public-private partnership and financing education alongwith empowerment of teachers and community support. The fourth chapter gives an analysis of "The Condition of Health in Uttar Pradesh" including mortality rate, morbidity, child health and nutritional status, maternal health and key challenges in improving the health status of the masses in Uttar Pradesh.

The fifth chapter is titled "Economic well-being in Uttar Pradesh." It deals with per capita income, sectoral growth, employment and unemployment, labour productivity and challenges of unemployment and poverty eradication in U.P. "Status of women in Uttar Pradesh" is being dealt with in the sixth chapter. This chapter provides a deep analysis of the status of women in Uttar Pradesh. The seventh chapter incorporates "Human Development and Social Groups in Uttar Pradesh" in terms of education, health, employment, income, basic amenities and security.

In the eighth chapter "Governance and Human Development in Uttar Pradesh" has been focussed. The chapter includes issues of governance, effectiveness of public programmes, right to information, security and Panchayati Raj institutions. The last chapter includes the important points relating to "Future challenges and strategies" for Human Development in the State.

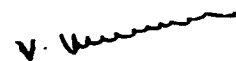
According to the National Human Development Report (Planning Commission 2001) U.P. ranked 14th in 1991 having human development index value at 0.314 among 15 major states of the country. However, the rank of U.P. improved to 13th position in 2001 having corresponding index value at 0.388. The all India average in 1991 and 2001 were 0.381 and 0.472 respectively.

For this report, however, HDI for 17 major states and all India have been computed for the years 2001 and 2005 using the three indicators namely, per capita income, infant mortality rate and literacy. On this basis, the results indicate that U.P. occupied 15th rank among 17 major states in 2001 having human development index value at 0.5442 against all India average of 0.6281. However, in the year 2005, UP's rank slightly slipped to 16th position (just above Bihar only) but the absolute value of human development index increased to 0.5709 against all India average of 0.6639.

There is a considerable range of variation in HDI value at the district level. In 2005, the top ranked district is Gautam Buddha Nagar with a HDI value of 0.7017 while at the bottom lies the district Shrawasti with a HDI value of 0.4132. In the top ten districts, seven districts belong to the Western Region, rest three being Kanpur Nagar, Lucknow and Jhansi. For Kanpur Nagar and Lucknow, relatively high urbanisation seems to be a contributing factor for their higher ranks in HDI. To some extent, this is true for other top ranked districts also.

Among the bottom ten districts, 8 belong to the Eastern Region of state and two (Rampur and Badaun) belong to the Western region. The reason for Rampur and Badaun, the districts belonging to the relatively developed Western region is that these districts have low literacy rate and also high infant mortality rate. This again confirms that income alone cannot ensure human development. Even in the Western region, there are districts other than Rampur and Badaun that have low ranks in terms of HDI. For example, districts like Moradabad, Bareilly, Shahjahanpur and Hardoi have much lower ranks in HDI. On the other hand, in the Eastern region, districts like Varanasi, Chandauli, Allahabad, Gorakhpur and Mau have relatively higher ranks in HDI. In the Bundelkhand region, Jhansi is in the top ten districts, while Mahoba, Hamirpur and Banda occupy middle ranks. In the Central region, Rae Bareli, Sitapur, Barabanki and Pratapgarh have low HDI rank, though Kanpur Nagar and Lucknow are in the top bracket. Thus, there is considerable intra-regional variation in HDI. These facts are indicative of the fact that though, the rank of U.P. in respect of Human Development Index still finds its place in lowest quadrant, the absolute value of human development index has improved over the years. This calls for further concerted efforts to improve the HDI in the State.

I hope this endeavour of Planning Department, Govt. of Uttar Pradesh will be of immense use in designing and implementing policies and programmes that are conducive to human development in Uttar Pradesh. I would like to place my appreciation on record for Director, Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow for his valuable contribution in coordinating with various experts and academicians who have drafted the various chapters of the report. I also thank the Principal Secretaries/Secretaries of the concerned departments of Govt. of U.P. for providing their valuable suggestions and latest informations in respect of human development in the State. I also appreciate the dedication and hard work of the Director and officers of Area Planning Division, Planning Department, Govt. of Uttar Pradesh for their hard work and efforts in giving a final shape to the Report.



( V. Venkatachalam )

Principal Secretary  
Planning Department  
Govt. of Uttar Pradesh  
Lucknow

# Acknowledgement

The Government of Uttar Pradesh decided to bring out the Human Development Report of Uttar Pradesh in 1999. The first report for the state was published last year which depicted the status of human development in the state and its districts at the turn of the millennium. The report had an encouraging response from various sections. It was, therefore decided to bring out the report at regular interval with up to date information. The present report is the second in the series. The latest available data up to the year 2006-07 have been used in different Chapters to depict the latest situation of the State in respect of various parameters relating to human development index.

Although the UPHDR has been written on behalf of the Department of Planning, Government of Uttar Pradesh, in close consultation with several departments and their heads, by deliberate intent, this report contains an independent assessment of the State of human development in UP.

The second Human Development Report of Uttar Pradesh is the collective endeavour of a large number of persons, both inside and outside the government of Uttar Pradesh. The report was prepared under the overall guidance of Shri V. Venkatachalam, Principal Secretary Planning, Shri Sunil Kumar and Shri Umesh Sinha, Secretaries in the Planning Department and the then Special Secretary Planning, Shri Arvind Narayan Mishra.

The Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow was entrusted the task of coordinating and preparing the report on behalf of the Planning Department. The overall coordination and editing was done by Prof. A.K. Singh, Director, Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow.

The background papers for the Report were written by a team of experts outside government and covered the following themes: (i) Overview of the State economy (Prof. A. K. Sengupta), (ii) Status of Human Development (Prof. Yashvir Tyagi), (iii) education (Prof. Mohd. Muzammil, (iv) Health (Dr. Arvind Mohan), (v) Economic Well Being (Prof. A.K. Singh), (vi) Status of Women (Dr. Rakesh Chandra and Dr. Pooja Juyal), (vii) social Groups (Dr. K.N. Bhatt), (viii) Governance and Human Development (T.N. Dhar Retd. IAS) and (ix) Future Challenges & Strategies (Prof. Harsh Mohan). Valuable contributions were made by Shri Arvind Kumar Tewari and R.B. Ram on Human Development Indices, Manoj Dikshit on Governance Issues.

The district income figures were prepared by the Economic and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute. Maps in the Report were digitised and prepared by Area Planning Division, State Planning Institute.

The final report has been drafted by Prof. A. K. Singh. Valuable help in preparation of report was provided by Nomita P. Kumar, Achala Srivastava and Tauheed Alam of Giri Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow.

During the preparation of the Report, constant support and feedback have been received from a large number of the officers of Planning Department Government of

UP. Sri V.K. Verma, Senior Research Officer, Sri Abdul Wali Khan, Sri R.S. Lodhi, Sri T. Prasad, Dr. A.K. Srivastava, Dr. A.K. Yadav, Research Officers and Sri Harish Sharma, P.A. Area Planning Division, State Planning Institute, coordinated enthusiastically in the preparation of report on behalf of the Planning Department. The Directorate of Economics and Statistics, particularly its Director, Dr. Rajendra Tiwari and Additonal Director Shri Arvind Kumar Tewari and his staff provided the statistical information required for the report.

The draft background papers were enriched by the comments and feedback from the participants of a review workshop which included Sri Santosh Mehrotra, Advisor Planning Commission, Govt. of India and Sri Suraj Kumar, National Programme Officer, U.N.D.P., New Delhi.

It is hoped this report will help in generating concern for the issues related to human development in the most populous state of the country and provide important inputs for adoption of appropriate policies and actions to improve the human capabilities of the vast masses of the state.



( R.B. Ram )

Director

Area Planning Division  
State Planning Institute,U.P.  
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Lucknow.



# List of Tables

Table No.	Table Title	Page No.
1.1	Human Development Index for States, 1991 and 2001	1
1.2	Important Demographic Indicators for the Major States	2
1.3	Important Demographic Indicators for Uttar Pradesh and India	3
1.4	Trends in Total and Per Capita Income of India and Uttar Pradesh at constant 1999-2000 Prices: 1999-2000 to 2005-06	5
1.5	Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of Total and Per Capita Income in U.P. and India under the Plans	5
1.6	Per Capita Plan Expenditure of Uttar Pradesh and India	6
1.7	Annual Percentage Change in Output of Food Production and Value of Agriculture Produce at 1999-2000 Prices during Ninth and Tenth Plan	7
1.8	Investment under Industrial Entrepreneurs Memorandum (IEM) in U.P. and Rate of Implementation in Recent Years	8
1.9	Per Capita Aggregate Real Expenditures by State Governments between 1990-91 to 2000-01	11
1.10	Distribution of States according to the Ratio of Social Sector Expenditure to GSDP	12
1.11	Distribution of States According to the Ratio of Social Sector Expenditure to Total Expenditure	12
1.12	Trends in Revenue and Fiscal Deficit in Uttar Pradesh 1991-2006	13
1.13	Trends in Capital Expenditure in U.P.	14
2.1	Variables Used in Constructing Human Development Indices	17
2.2	Human Development Index for Major States for 2001 and 2005 Based on UPHDR II Methodology	18
2.3	Progress of Human Development in U.P.	18
2.4	Districts Arranged According to Value of HDI, 2005	19
2.5	Districts Arranged According to the Value of GDI, 2005	24
2.6	Districts Arranged According to Improvement in GDI Between 2001 and 2005	25
2.7	Districts Arranged According to Deprivation Index, 2001	27
3.1	Educational Profile of Rural and Urban Population in U.P., 2004-05	31
3.2	Age Wise Attendance Rates in Educational Institutions, 2004-05 (%)	32
3.3	Literacy in UP by Sex and Area 1991 and 2001 (Percent)	33

3.4	Districts with Highest and Lowest Literacy Rates, 2001	35
3.5	School Education in U.P. at a Glance, 2004-05 & 2005-06	36
3.6	Region wise Number of Students per Educational Institution, 2004-05	39
3.7	Teacher Student Ratio in Different Regions in U.P., 2004-05	40
3.8	Course wise Seats in Technical Education Institutions in U.P.	49
3.9	Educational Expenditure as a Proportion of NSDP and Social Expenditure(%)	51
3.10	Expenditure on Education and Total Budgetary Expenditure (Revenue Account)	52
3.11	Composition of Education Expenditure (Percent)	52
3.12	TFC Grants In Aid For Education Sector to U.P.	53
4.1	Age wise, Sex wise Reported AIDS Cases in U.P., October 2005	63
4.2	Health Infrastructure in U.P.	74
4.3	Number of Medical and Paramedical Staff	76
4.4	Estimated Number of Medical Professional Required	76
4.5	Medical Practitioners and Beds Availability	77
4.6	Private Health Providers in U.P., 2000-01	77
4.7	Availability of Training Facilities for ANMs	78
4.8	Average Medical Expenditure Per Hospitalization Case In Rural And Urban UP And India	79
4.9	Medical Expenditure(Rs) as Percentage to Total Expenditure Per Person Per 30 Days	79
5.1	Districts arranged in Descending Order of Per Capita NDDP, 2004-05	85
5.2	Annual Compound Growth Rate of Total Per Capita Net Regional Product since 1980-81(percent)	87
5.3	Districts with Highest and Lowest Compound Annual Growth Rate in NDDP during 1993-94 and 2004-05 (percent)	89
5.4	Sectoral Composition of Net Regional Domestic Product (percent)	90
5.5	Districts with the Highest and Lowest Share of Different Sectors in District Income, 2004-05	90
5.6	Trends in Work Participation Rate (UPSS)	93
5.7	Percent Distribution of Total and Rural Workers (Main + Marginal) by Industrial Category 1981, 1991 and 2001	94
5.8	Per 1000 Distribution of Usual Status Workers (Principal + Subsidiary) by Sectors, 2004-05	95
5.9	Shifts in Sectoral Distribution of Workers: 1993-94 to 2004-05	95
5.10	Districts Arranged According To The Proportion of Workers in Non-Agricultural Sector, 2001	97

5.11	Annual Growth Rate Of Main And Marginal Workers 1981-2001 (%)	97
5.12	Compound Annual Growth Rate of Workers by Sectors: 1993-94 to 2004-05 (in %)	99
5.13	Districts With High and Low Growth Rate of Workers in Agriculture and Non-agricultural Sectors 1991-2001	100
5.14	Trends in Organized Sector Employment (Nos.)	101
5.15	Sector-wise Per Worker NSDP at Constant 1993-94 Prices (Rs.)	102
5.16	Trends in Poverty Ratios in U.P. and India (%)	103
5.17	No. of Poor in U.P. by Area	104
5.18	Districts Classified According To Proportion of Rural Population Below Poverty Line (%)	105
5.19	Poverty Incidence by Occupation of Household Head	107
5.20	Progress of Swarn Jayanti Swarozgar Yojana	108
5.21	Unemployment Rates (%) for Educated Labour Force (15 Years and Above), 2004-05	109
5.22	Unemployment Rates (%) among Youth by Age Group, 2004-05	110
5.23	Trends in Unemployment Rates (%) for Educated Labour Force (15 Years and Above)	111
5.24	Distribution of Usually Employed Persons Aged 15 Years and above Who Sought Or Were Available for additional / Alternate Work (%)	111
5.25	Per Cent of Usually Employed (Principal and Subsidiary Status) reporting out of Work by their Current Weekly and Daily Status, 1993-94 and 2004-05	112
5.26	Number of Job Seekers on Live Register of Employment Exchanges	112
5.27	Progress of Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojana during 2003-06	113
6.1	Indicators of Gender Gap in Education	118
6.2	Status about Property Right of Women (Per Cent)	122
6.3	Percent of Women Holding Bank Account in their Name	123
6.4	Women Contestants and Winners in Lok Sabha and Assembly Elections(Nos.)	126
6.5	Who Governs the Decision to Vote (%)	127
6.6	Percentage of Women Representative Elected in the Panchayat Elections of 2005	127
6.7	Incidence of Crimes Committed against Women in U.P. During 2005	130
7.1	Religious Group-wise Population and Its Decadal Growth 1991-2001	138
7.2	Social-Group-wise Rural / Urban, Male / Female Population: U. P., 2001 (Nos.)	139
7.3	Distribution of Households by Social Groups U. P. & India, 2004-05	139
7.4	Social Group-wise Households with No Literate Adult (15 Years and above) Member/ Adult Female Member, 2004-05	140

7.5	Social Group-wise Distribution of Rural Persons (15 Years & Above) by Level of General Education U. P., 2004-05	140
7.6	Social Group-wise Distribution of Urban Persons (15 Years and above) by level of General Education U. P., 2004-05	141
7.7	Social Group wise current Attendance rates in Education Institutions for Different Age Groups U. P., 2004-05	143
7.8	Social Group-wise Nutritional Status of Women U.P. & India, 1998-99	144
7.9	Social Group-wise Nutritional Status of Children under 3 years of Age U.P. & India, 1998-99	145
7.10	Social Group-wise Total Fertility Rate: U.P. & India, 1998-99	145
7.11	Social Group-wise Use of Any Method of Family Planning for Ever-Married Women 15-49 Years U.P. & India, 1998-99	146
7.12	Social Group-wise Births whose Mothers were assisted at the Time of Delivery: U.P. & India, 1998-99	147
7.13	Social Group-wise Place of Child Delivery in U.P. and India, 1998-99	147
7.14	Social Group-wise Infant Mortality Rates U.P. & India, 1998-99	147
7.15	Social Group Wise Distribution of Rural / Urban Households by Household Type U.P., 2004-05	149
7.16	Social Group Wise Distribution of Household Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure Class, Rural U.P., 2004-05	150
7.17	Social Group Wise Distribution of Household Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure Class, Urban U.P., 2004-05	151
7.18	Social Group-wise Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR), Worker Population Ratio(WPR) and Proportion Unemployed(PU) According to Usual Status U.P. 2004-05	152
7.19	WPR (Rural + Urban) in U.P. for Persons of Age 15 Years and Above According to Usual Status (PS+SS) for Different Level of General Education in U.P., 2004-2005	153
7.20	Social Group Wise Distribution of Rural Households by Size Class of Land Possessed U. P., 2004-05	154
7.21	Social Group Wise Distribution of Rural Households by Size Class of Land Cultivated U. P., 2004-05	155
7.22	Incidence of Crimes and Atrocities against SC, ST Social Groups U.P., 2003-2006	157
7.23	Indicators of Educational Progress of SC/ST and OBC Groups between 55 <sup>th</sup> and 61 <sup>st</sup> NSS Rounds	159
8.1	Indicators of U.P.'s Fiscal Health in Recent Years	166
8.2	Incidence of Main Crimes in Uttar Pradesh (2004-2006)	167

## List of Figures

Figure No.	Figure Title	Page No.
1.1	Infant Mortality Rate in Major States of India (2005)	2
1.2	Decadal Rate of Population Growth in Major States of India 1991-2001	4
1.3	Birth Rate, Death Rate & Natural Growth Rate in Major States of India (2005-06)	4
1.4	Average Annual Growth rate of UP and India Since 1951	5
1.5	CAGR (%) of Output, Area and Yield of Food grains	7
1.6	Trends in revenue and Fiscal Deficit in Uttar Pradesh	13
2.1	Ten Best Performing Districts In terms of HDI in 2005	19
2.2	Ten Worst Performing Districts In terms of HDI in 2005	19
2.3	Ten Best Performing Districts in terms of HDI in 1991	21
2.4	Ten Worst Performing Districts in term of HDI in 1991	21
2.5	Ten Best Performing Districts in Terms of HDI in 2001	21
2.6	Ten Worst Performing districts in terms of HDI in 2001	22
2.7	Top Ten Districts with Highest Improvement in HDI 1991-2001)	22
2.8	Bottom Ten Districts With Least Improvement in HDI - 1991-2001	22
2.9	Top Ten Districts with Highest Improvement in HDI (2001-2005)	23
2.10	Bottom Ten Districts with Least Improvement in HDI (2001-2005)	23
2.11	District showing Highest improvement in GDI during 2001-05	25
2.12	District showing Least improvement in GDI during 2001-05	26
2.13	Difference between HDI and GDI Highest and lowest in 2005	26
2.14	Deprivation Index in UP 2001	28
3.1	Educational Profile (Rural)	32
3.2	Educational Profile (Urban)	32
3.3	Age wise Attendance (Rural)	33
3.4	Age wise Attendance (Urban)	33
3.5	Literacy in UP by Sex and Area	34
3.6	No. of Junior Basic Schools	37

3.7	Number of Senior Basic Schools	37
3.8	Number of Secondary Schools	37
3.9	No. of Teachers in Lower Primary Schools	38
3.10	No. of Teachers in Upper Primary Schools	38
3.11	No. of Teachers in Secondary Schools	39
3.12	Enrollment in Junior Basic School	39
3.13	Enrolment in Senior Basic School	40
3.14	Enrolment in Secondary Schools	40
3.15	Educational Development Index	45
3.16	Education Expenditure as % of NSDP	51
3.17	Per Capita Real Expenditure on Education (in Rs.)	51
4.1	NMR as a major constituent of IMR	55
4.2(A)	Death per 1000 Live Births and Mother's Age at the time of Birth	56
4.2(B)	Death per 1000 live Births and Birth Order	57
4.2(C)	Death per 1000 live Births And Previous Birth Intervals	57
4.3	IMR by Location	58
4.4	Infant Mortality Trends In UP	58
4.5	Total Malaria Cases in UP 2000-05	61
4.6	Japanese Encephalitis Incidence in India	61
4.7	Trends of the number of cases and deaths from Japanese Encephalitis 2000-05 in U.P.	61
4.8	Case Detection 2001 and Treatment Success Rate (2000) in RNTCP areas	64
4.9	National Annual Case Detection Rate And Treatment Success Rate, from 2000 to 2005	64
4.10	Trends in Any Antenatal Care (%) (Births in the last 3 years)	65
4.11	Full ANC	65
4.12	Safe Delivery	66
4.13	Trends in Institutional Deliveries(%)	67
4.14	% of Mothers Who Delivered Child in Any Health Facility in UP 2005	67
4.15	% of Mothers Whose Delivery was assisted by any Health Professional in UP	67
4.16	Trends in Vaccination Coverage	68
4.17	Fully Vaccinated Children(%)	68

4.18	Trends in Children Nutritional Status	71
4.19	Utilization of Out-Patient Services in Public and Private Sector	75
4.20	Utilization of Inpatient Services in Public and Private Sectors	75
4.21	Reasons for Absence of Doctors by State	77
4.22	Proportion of Private and Public Spending on Health	79
5.1	Region wise Net Per Capita Domestic Product 2004-05 (at Current Prices)	84
5.2	Trends in Disparities in Per Capita NDDP (at Current Prices)	86
5.3	Compound Annual Growth Rate in Sectoral Net Regional Domestic Product, 1993-94 to 2004-05(%)	88
5.4	Worker Distribution (Main+Marginal) by Industrial Category (%)	94
5.5	Distribution of Usual Status Workers (PS+SS) by Sectors 2004-05	96
5.6	Regionwise Share of Agricultural and Non-Agricultural Workers (%)	96
5.7	CAGR of Workers by Sectors: 1993-94 to 2004-05	99
5.8	Percent Distribution of Workers by Type of Employment in U.P.	100
5.9	Regional Trends in Poverty (%)	104
5.10	Poverty incidence by Social Group (%)	106
5.11	Rural Poverty Incidence by Land Ownership	106
5.12	Poverty Incidence by Level of Education of the Household Head	107
5.13	Unemployment Rates in U.P. and India as Percent of Labour Force 2004-05	109
5.14	Recent Trends in Unemployment Rates in U.P. as percent of Labour Force	110
5.15	Educational Level of Job Seekers on Live Registers of Employment Exchanges, 2004	113
6.1	Trends in Institutional Deliveries (%)	120
6.2	Trends in Any Antenatal Care (%)	120
6.3	Trends in Contraceptive Use (%)	121
6.4	Women in the U.P. Legislative Assembly	126
6.5	Incidence of Crime Committed Against Women in Large Cities of U.P., 2005	131
7.1	Religious Group Wise Population in U.P. & India,2001	138
7.2	Distribution of Rural/Urban Population by Social Groups in UP, 2004-05	139
7.3	Distribution of Rural Persons (15 years and above) by Level of General Education in UP 2004-05	142
7.4	Distribution Of Urban Persons (15 years and above) By Level Of General Education, 2004-05	142

7.5	Social Group wise Nutritional Status of Women in UP, 1998-99	144
7.6	Social Group wise Nutritional Status Of Children Under 3 Year Age 1998-99	144
7.7	Social Group wise Total Fertility Rate in UP and India, 1998-99	145
7.8	Social Group wise Use Of Any Method of Family Planning For Ever Married Women 15-49 in UP and India, (%), 1998-99	146
7.9	Birth Whose Mothers Were Assisted At The Time Of Delivery: U.P. 1998-99	146
7.10	Place of Child Delivery UP, 1998-99	146
7.11	Infant and Child Mortality Rate in UP and India, 1998-99	147
7.12	Distribution of Rural Household by Household Type in UP 2004-05	148
7.13	Distribution of Urban Household by Household Type in UP 2004-05	148
7.14	Distribution of Rural Household MPCE class in UP 2004-05	149
7.15	Distribution of Urban Household MPCE class in UP 2004-05	150
7.16	LFPR, WPR, PU According to usual Status (Rural Male/Female) in UP 2004-05	151
7.17	LFPR, WPR, PU According to usual Status (Urban Male/Female) in UP 2004-05	151
7.18	WPR (Rural+Urban) for 15 years and above males according to PS+SS For Different Levels Of General Education, UP, 2004-05	152
7.19	WPR (Rural+Urban) for 15 Years And Above Females According To PS+SS for Different Levels Of General Education, UP, 2004-05	153
7.20	Distribution of Rural Households by Social Group and Size Class of Land in UP, 2004-05	154



# List of Boxes

Box No.	Box Title	Page No.
1.1	Factors Responsible for High Poverty Ratio in U.P.	6
1.2	Major Constraints Inhibiting Agricultural Growth	7
2.1	Human Development Indices	16
3.1	Drop Out Rates and Teacher Pupil Ratio	38
3.2	Quality of Primary Education : Findings of the Pratham Survey	41
3.3	Progress of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan	42
3.4	SSA in District Unnao : A Field Report	42
3.5	Mid Day Meal Programme in District Unnao: A Field Report	43
3.6	Minorities Education : A Case Study in Pilibhit District	44
3.7	Politicization of Secondary Education	47
3.8	Privatization of Higher Education in U.P.	48
3.9	Manyavar Kanshi Ram Smriti State Institute Of Management In Higher Education	49
3.10	New Initiatives During XI th Plan	50
3.11	Public Private Partnership in Education	53
3.12	Public Expenditure on Education in U.P.: Some Basic Concerns	53
4.1	Maternal Mortality Rate in U.P. Some Shocking Facts	59
4.2	State Response for Early Diagnosis & Proper Management of J.E. Cases	62
4.3	Key Health Objectives to be Achieved by 2012	69
4.4	Proposed Maternal & Child Health Services at the Sub Centre Level	69
4.5	Reforms in Water & Sanitation Sector in Uttar Pradesh	73
4.6	Nirmal Gram Puraskar-An Award for Bringing In Dignity and Quality in Life	73
5.1	Highlights of Income Growth	91
5.2	Salient Features of Employment Situation	102
5.3	Living Conditions in U.P.	108
5.4	India's Rural Job Scheme Plagued by Discrimination: Study	114
5.5	State Initiatives on Employment Front	114

6.1	Measuring Gender Disparities; the GDI and the GEM	117
6.2	Lowering of Stamp Duty in Case of Women	123
6.3	Agricultural Land Rights for Women	124
6.4	Self Help Groups Setup Under UP Sodic Lands Reclamation Project II: Some Success Stories	125
6.5	Voluntary Effort in Building Women's Entrepreneurship through Self Help Groups	125
6.6	Struggles Have Culminated In Success: The Story of Gram Pradhan Sonia	128
6.7	From the files of Family Counseling Cell - Suraksha	129
6.8	Social Security Schemes for Women	131
6.9	UP Mahila Dairy Pariyojna	132
7.1	Swajaldhara Programme	155
8.1	Gulabi Brigade in Chitrakoot Dham Division	169
8.2	E-Governance in Stamps & Registration Department: A Success Story	176

# List of Maps

Map No.	Map Title	Page No.
2.1	District wise Human Development Index, 2005	20
2.2	District Wise Gender Development Index, 2005	24
2.3	District wise Deprivation Index, 2001	28
3.1	District wise Male Literacy, 2001	34
3.2	District wise Female Literacy, 2001	35
4.1	District wise Incidence of Japanese Encephalitis	62
4.2	Districts with High Prevalence of HIV / AIDS	63
4.3	Percent Boys with Malnutrition	70
4.4	Percent Girls with Malnutrition	70
5.1	Per Capita Net District Domestic Product, 2004-05 (at Current Prices)	86
5.2	Annual Compound Growth Rate of Net District Domestic Product	87
5.3	Percent Share of Secondary Sector in NDDP,, 2004-05	88
5.4	Worker Population Ratios in Percent 2001, All Persons	92
5.5	Worker Population Ratio (In Percent), Females, 2001	93
5.6	Percent of Non Agricultural Workers to Total Workers, 2001	98
5.7	Annual Compound Growth Rates of Total Workers (%)1991-2001	98
5.8	Percent Of Population Below Poverty Level, 2002	105

# List of Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome	ICT	Information And Communication Technology
AIE	Alternative And Innovative Education	IEM	Industrial Entrepreneurs Memorandum
ANC	Ante Natal Care	IFA	Iron and Folic Acid
ANM	Auxiliary Nurse And Midwife	IMF	International Monetary Fund
BE	Budget Estimate	IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
BMI	Body Mass Index	IPC	Indian Penal Code
BPL	Below Poverty Line	IPHS	Indian Public Health Standards
BRGF	Backward Regions Grant Fund	IRDP	Integrated Rural Development Program
BTC	Basic Training Certificate	ISID	Institute For Studies In Industrial Development
CAGR	Compound Annual Growth Rate	ITI	Industrial Training Institute
CDS	Current Daily Status	ITP	Immune Thrombocytopenic
CHC	Community Health Centre	JE	Japanese Encephalitis
CRC	Citizen Report Card	KGMC	King George Medical College
CRSP	Central Rural Sanitation Program	KWH	Kilowatt Hour
CSW	Commercial Sex Workers	LFPR	Labor force Participation Rate
CWPR	Combined Work Participation Rate	LPG	Liquefied Petroleum Gas
CWS	Current Weekly Status	MBA	Master in Business Administration
DALY	Disability Adjusted Life Years	MCA	Master in Computer Application
DCL	Deposit Credit Limit	MDG	Millennium Development Goals
DUDA	District Urban Development Authority	MDM	Mid Day Meal
DWCRA	Development Of Women And Children In Rural Areas	MDT	Multi Drug Therapy
EDI	Education Development Index	MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
EFA	Education For All	MP	Madhya Pradesh
EGS	Education Guarantee Scheme	MPCE	Monthly Per Capita Expenditure
FD	Fiscal Deficit	MRP	Mixed Recall Period
FOIA	Freedom Of Information Act	MTFRP	Medium Term Fiscal Reform Policy
FRU	First Referral Unit	MTP	Medical termination of Pregnancy
FYP	Five Year Plan	NCRB	National Crime Records Bureau
GDI	Gender Related Development Index	NDDP	Net District Domestic Product
GEI	Gender Equality Index	NEED	Network of Entrepreneurship and Economic Development
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measures	NFHS	National Family Health Survey
GoUP	Government Of Uttar Pradesh	NGO	Non Government Organization
GSDP	Gross State Domestic Product	NGP	Nirmal Gram Puraskar
HDI	Human Development Index	NHDR	National Human Development Report
HDR	Human Development Report	NLCP	National Leprosy Control Program
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus	NMR	Neonatal Mortality Rate
HPI	Human Poverty Index	NOC	No Objection Certificate
IAS	Indian Administrative Services	NREGS	National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Services	NSDP	Net State Domestic Product

NSS	National Sample Survey	SLL	Special Local laws
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organization	SND	Schedule of New Demands
O&M	Operation and Maintenance	SRS	Sample Registration Survey
OBC	Other Backward Castes	SS	Secondary Sector
OLS	Open Learning System	SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
ORS	Oral Rehydration Solution	SSI	Small Scale Industry
PADC	Policy Act Drafting Committee	ST	Scheduled Tribes
PCE	Per Capita Expenditure	STD	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
PCS	Provincial Civil Service	STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
PHC	Primary Health Centre	SUDA	State Urban Development Authority
PHN	Postherpetic Neuralgia	TB	Tuberculosis
PLA	Personal Ledger Account	TBR	Traditional Birth Attendants
PMSA	Panchayati Mahila Shakti Abhiyan	TFC	Twelfth Finance Commission
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity	TFR	Total Fertility Rate
PRI	Panchayati Raj Institution	TGR	Total Goitre Rate
PS	Primary Sector	TRYSEM	Training for Rural Youth for Self Employment
PSMS	Poverty and Social Monitoring Survey	TSC	Total Sanitation Campaign
PSU	Public Sector Undertaking	UEE	Universalization of Elementary Education
PTA	Parent Teacher Association	ULB	Urban Local Bodies
PYSA	Panchayt Yuva Shakti Abhiyan	UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
RBI	Reserve Bank of India	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
RCHS	Rural Child Health Survey	UP	Uttar Pradesh
RE	Revised Estimate	UPHDR	Uttar Pradesh Human Development Report
RGNDWM	Rajiv Gandhi National drinking Water Mission	UPHSDP	Uttar Pradesh Health System development project
RNTCP	Revised National Tuberculosis Control Programme	UPS	Usual Primary Status
RTI	Right to Information	UPSEB	Uttar Pradesh State Electricity Board
SC	Scheduled Caste	UPSS	Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status
SDP	State Domestic Product	URP	Uniform Recall Period
SGPGI	Sanjay Gandhi Post Graduate Institute	VCTC	Voluntary Council and Testing Centres
SGRY	Sampoorn Gramin Rozgar yojna	VEC	Village Education Committee
SGSY	Swarnjyanti Gram Swarozgar Yojna	VRS	Voluntary Retirement Scheme
SHG	Self Help Group	WHO	World Health Organization
SHRC	State Human Right Commission	WPR	Work Participation Rate

# Glossary

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Hindi Words	English Words
Abhinav Vidyalaya	Innovative Schools
Acharaya	Teacher
Adhyaksha	President
Adivasi	Tribal
Aganwadis	Centre for children below 6 years and expectant mothers
Arbi Madarsa	Muslim Religious School
Avas Bandhu	Help Centre for Housing
Benami	Held in another persons name
Dai	Untrained Nurse
Dalit	Oppressed Castes
Farsi Madarsa	Muslim religious School
Gram Panchyat	Village Government
Gulabi	Pink
Hamara Paisa Hamara Hisab	Our Money Our Account
Jal Nigam	Water Development Board
Jal Sansthan	Water Development Organisation
Jan Sunwai	Public Hearing
Kanya Vidya Dhan	Girls Education Fund
Kharanja	Brick Paved Road
Kutchha	Made of Temporary Material
Lok Mitra	Peoples Friend
Lokvani	Peoples Voice
Mahila Niti	Women Policy
Mahila Samakhya	Women Organisation
Mukhya Nagar Adhikari	Chief Municipal Officer
Nagar Nigam	Municipal Corporation
Nagar Palika	Municipal Body
Nagar Palika Parishad	Municipal Board
Nagar Panchayat	Municipal Body for Small Towns
Panchayati Raj	Democratic Bodies at Local level
Patta	Land Lease Document

Pradhan pati	Husband of Female Village Head
Pucca	Made of Durable Material
Sangh	Organisation
Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan	Education for All Programme
Shiksha Mitra	Contractual Teachers
Shiksha Nidhi	Education Fund
Sinchai Bandhu	Friend of Irrigation
Swakendra	Self Chosen Centre
Udyog Bandhu	Friend of Industry
Vanaspati	Vegetable Oil

## Uttar Pradesh Economy and Society: A Profile

### I. Physical Profile

1. Uttar Pradesh is often described as the “Hindi-speaking heartland” of India. The State has a population of 16.61 crore as per 2001 census and a geo graphical area of 2.41 lakh sq. km. Its share in total area of the Country is 7.3 per cent, while its share in country’s population is 16.2 per cent. Nearly 80 per cent population of U.P. resides in rural area spread over 97942 inhabited villages. The State is now organized into 71 districts, 311 tehsils and 820 development blocks. It is divided into four economic regions viz. Western region, Central region, Eastern region and Bundelkhand. The first three regions fall in the Gangetic plains, while Bundelkhand forms part of the southern plateau.

2. Land is the single most important resource of the State, which is deficient in mineral wealth. However, per capita availability of land has been declining. The average size of land holdings in the State is less than one hectare. The predominance of small land holdings constitutes a major obstacle in the development of capital formation and growth in agriculture and is one of the prime reasons for widespread poverty in the State.

3. After the creation of Uttaranchal (now renamed as Uttrakhand), Uttar Pradesh’s forest area declined from 52 lakh hectares to 16.9 lakh hectares, creating a serious environmental imbalance. Today, even the 5 per cent of the total area which is under forest has suffered extensive environmental degradation. The State is, however, rich in surface and ground water resources. Over three-fourth of the sown area is irrigated mostly through tube-wells. Uttar Pradesh also has a fairly large canal network.

### II. Social Profile

4. Uttar Pradesh has been the cradle of Indian civilization. Since time immemorial people belonging to diverse ethnic, religious and social groups have been coming to this region and settling here. According to the 2001 Census, 80.6 per cent of the State population was Hindu. Muslims formed 18.5 percent of the population. The remaining 0.9 per cent of population consisted of other religious minorities like Sikhs, Boudhs, Jains and Christians. Scheduled castes formed 21.15 per cent of the State’s population. The proportion of Scheduled tribes residing in the State is negligible at 0.06 per cent.

5. Sharp differences in the level of human development prevail among the different social and religious groups in the State. The socio-economic status of Muslims, other backward classes and scheduled castes

is much lower as compared to that of the higher castes. The high proportion of the population belonging to the socially and economically depressed sections has profound implications for the policy and the status of human development in the State. Chapter 7 of the report highlights these dimensions.

### III. Human Development Status

6. The status of human development in U.P. continues to be far from satisfactory even after more than five decades of development planning aimed at social and economic upliftment of the people. It ranked at 13<sup>th</sup> position in terms of Human Development Index (HDI) prepared by the Planning Commission (Table 1.1) in 2001. This shows a marginal improvement from the 14<sup>th</sup> position that U.P. occupied in 1991. Kerala, Punjab and Tamilnadu are the three top ranking States in terms of HDI both in 1991 and 2001. Though Uttar Pradesh improved its rank from 14<sup>th</sup> position in 1991 to 13<sup>th</sup> position in 2001, it continues to languish at a low level of human development and is in the lowest cluster of States, along with Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Orissa.

**Table 1.1: Human Development Index for States, 1991 and 2001**

States	1991	Rank	2001	Rank
Andhra Pradesh	0.377	9	0.416	10
Assam	0.348	10	0.386	14
Bihar	0.308	15	0.367	15
Gujarat	0.431	6	0.479	6
Haryana	0.443	5	0.509	5
Karnataka	0.412	7	0.478	7
Kerala	0.591	1	0.638	1
Madhya Pradesh	0.328	13	0.394	12
Maharashtra	0.452	4	0.523	4
Orissa	0.345	12	0.404	11
Punjab	0.475	2	0.537	2
Rajasthan	0.347	11	0.424	9
Tamil Nadu	0.466	3	0.531	3
Uttar Pradesh	0.314	14	0.388	13
West Bengal	0.404	8	0.472	8
All India	0.381		0.472	

Source: *National Human Development Report*, Planning Commission, 2001



7. Uttar Pradesh is lagging behind most of the States of the country in terms of the major indicators of social development. Literacy rate in U.P. (56.3 percent) is very low when compared with States like Kerala (90.9 percent), Goa (82.0 percent), Himachal Pradesh (76.5 percent) and Tamil Nadu (73.5 percent). The ranking of Uttar Pradesh in terms of literacy is 31 in 2001 among a total of 35 States and UTs.

8. Uttar Pradesh is similarly lagging behind in health indicators like life expectancy, infant mortality rate, etc. (see Table 1. 2). Nearly 71 per thousand of children in U.P. die before reaching the age of one. Only Madhya Pradesh and Orissa have higher infant mortality rate (Figure 1.1). Life expectancy in U.P. during the period 2001-05 was 60.1

years for males and 59.3 years for females, while the corresponding figures were 71.3 and 76.3 years respectively in Kerala, the best performing State in this respect.

9. The sex ratio, an important demographic and social indicator, was 898 in 2001, significantly below the national level of 933. In terms of sex ratio, U.P.'s rank among all States and UTs was 27<sup>th</sup> in 2001.

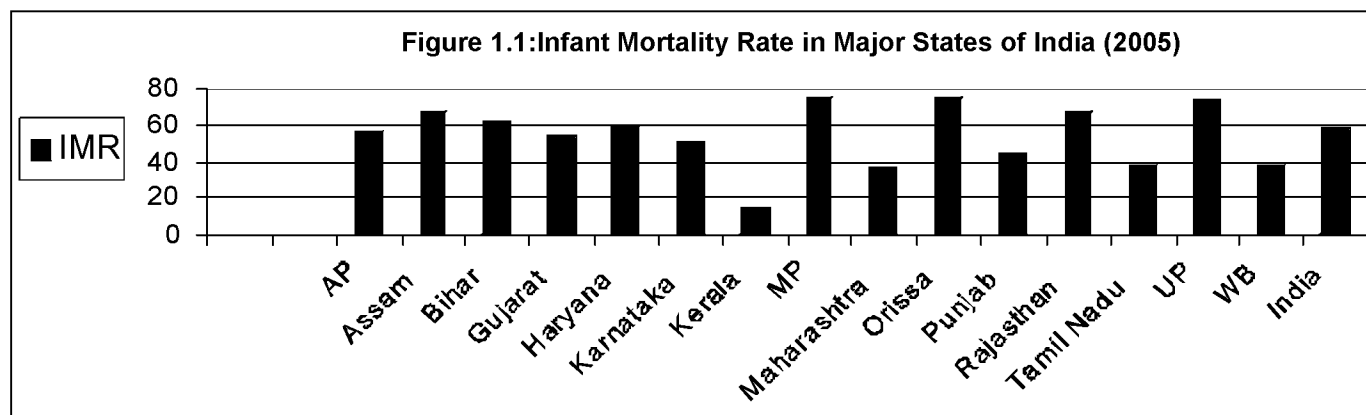
10. The various dimensions of human development in Uttar Pradesh have been discussed in detail in the following chapters with focus on lagging regions, social groups and women. In this chapter an overview of the economy and society of the State is provided, in the light of which the status and problems of human development may be analyzed.

**Table 1.2: Important Demographic Indicators for the Major States**

States	Decadal rate of population growth (%)		Population density Per sq. km. 2001	Birth rate 2006	Death Rate 2006	Natural Growth Rate 2006	Infant mortality rate 2006	Life expectancy at birth (2001-05)	
	1981-91	1991-01						Male	Female
Assam	24.24	18.92	340	24.6	8.7	15.9	67	58.3	59.0
Bihar	23.38	28.62	881	29.9	7.7	22.3	60	62.0	60.1
Gujarat	21.19	22.66	258	23.5	7.3	16.2	53	62.8	65.0
Haryana	27.41	28.43	478	23.9	6.5	17.4	57	65.6	66.0
Karnataka	21.12	17.50	276	20.1	7.1	13.0	48	63.4	66.9
Kerala	14.32	9.43	819	14.9	6.7	8.2	15	71.3	76.3
MP	27.24	24.26	196	29.1	8.9	20.2	74	57.8	57.5
Maharashtra	25.73	22.73	315	18.5	6.7	11.8	35	65.8	68.1
Orissa	20.06	16.25	236	21.9	9.3	12.6	73	59.2	59.2
Punjab	20.81	20.10	484	17.8	6.8	11.0	44	68.1	70.1
Rajasthan	28.44	28.41	165	28.3	6.9	21.3	67	61.2	62.2
Tamil Nadu	15.39	11.72	480	16.2	7.5	8.8	37	64.8	67.1
UP	25.61	25.85	690	20.1	8.6	21.4	71	60.1	59.3
WB	24.73	17.77	903	18.4	6.2	12.2	38	63.9	65.5
India	23.86	21.53	325	23.5	7.5	16.0	57	62.3	63.9

Source: Census of India, 2001 and Sample Registration System, Registrar General, India, Oct. 2007.

**Figure 1.1: Infant Mortality Rate in Major States of India (2005)**



#### IV. Population Trends and Demographic Indicators

11. Uttar Pradesh is the most populous State in India. One sixth of the world's population lives in India and one-sixth of India's population lives in Uttar Pradesh. Only four other countries of the world namely China, USA, Indonesia and Brazil have a population higher than

that of Uttar Pradesh. The population pressure in Uttar Pradesh is considered as one of the important aspects which has hindered the proper exploitation and utilization of its resources. It is not possible to achieve sustainable development in the State without achieving desirable demographic goals and population stabilization.

**Table 1.3: Important Demographic Indicators for Uttar Pradesh and India**

	Indicators	U.P	India
1.	Total Population (in million) 2001*	166.2	1029.4
2.	Decadal rate of population growth ( Percentage) *		
	1981-1991	25.61	23.86
	1991-2001	25.85	21.53
3.	Average Annual Exponential growth rate (Percentage) *		
	1981-1991	2.27	2.14
	1991-2001	2.33	1.94
4.	Population density (per sq. km.) *		
	1991	548	267
	2001	690	325
5.	Sex Ratio (Female per 1000 males) *		
	1991	876	927
	2001	898	933
6.	Percentage of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes population in total population (2001)*		
	Scheduled Castes	21.15	16.2
	Scheduled Tribes	0.06	8.2
7.	Crude Birth Rate, 2006 **	30.1	23.5
8.	Crude Death Rate 2006**	8.6	7.5
9.	Natural Growth Rate,2006**	21.4	16.0
10.	Infant mortality rate 2006**	71	57
11.	Life expectancy at birth 2001-2005**		
	Total	59.8	63.2
	Male	60.1	62.3
	Female	59.3	63.9
12.	Total Fertility Rate 2005-06***	3.82	2.68
13.	Median age at first birth for women age 25-49***	19.4	19.8
14.	Total Unmet Need For Family Planning***	21.9	13.2
15.	Mean age at marriage for boys\$	21.5	24.5
16.	Mean age at marriage for girls \$	18.1	19.5
17.	Percentage of Girls Married Below 18 Years #	41.4	28.0
18.	Current use of family planning methods ***	46.6	56.3
	Any method		

Sources:

\* Registrar General, India, Census of India.

\*\* Registrar General, India, Sample Registration System.Oct.07

\*\*\* National Family Health Survey -III 2005-06, (India and Uttar Pradesh).

# DLHS -RCH 2002-04 .

\$ SRS, Analytical studies Report -III 07

12. The State has witnessed high population growth in recent decades without any perceptible sign of decline. The decadal increase in population during the *past two* decades was almost identical at 26 per cent. As against this, the national population shows a declining trend from 25 per cent in 1971-81 to 23.8 per cent in 1981-91 and further to 21.5 per cent in 1991-2001. The annual growth rate of population in Uttar Pradesh stood at 2.33 during 1991-2001 well above the national average of 1.94 per cent (Table 1.3). Uttar Pradesh's dismal performance on population front stands in sharp contrast with the performance of States like Kerala and Tamil Nadu where population growth rate has come down to around one percent. (Figure 1.2).

13. Among major States, birth rate is highest in the State of Uttar Pradesh (Figure 1.3). The decline in birth rate has also been slow in the State. Birth rate stood at 38.6 in 1951, at 35.7 in 1991 and at 30.1 in 2005-06. Total fertility rate in the year 2005-06 was 3.82 in Uttar Pradesh as against 2.68 in India. ( NFHS-III)

14. The demographic indicators presented above reflect an explosive situation in years to come for the State of Uttar Pradesh. According to the projections of the Expert Group appointed by the Government of India, U.P.'s population will grow from 16.62 crore in 2001 to 21.7 crore in 2011 and to 27.5 crore in 2021. The present

indicators regarding the fertility behaviour reveal that Uttar Pradesh may hopefully achieve the desired level of Net Reproductive Rate of 1 during 2041-2051.

## V. Economic Profile

15. Economically Uttar Pradesh is among the most backward States of India, characterized by the predominance of the agricultural sector with heavy dependence on Monsoon, high percentage of marginal and small land holdings, high population pressure, small manufacturing sector, structural deficiencies in infrastructure, glaring regional imbalances and sluggish economic growth. These aspects are briefly highlighted below.

### Income Levels and Growth

16. Income levels are an important determinant of the economic well being and social development. In terms of per capita income, U.P. is among the 'low income category' States along with Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. Moreover, due to sluggish economic growth in U.P., the gap in per capita income of the State and that of the country has been increasing. Per capita income in U.P., which was almost equal to the national average in the beginning of the planning period, is now half of the national average (Table 1.4).

Figure 1.2: Decadal Rate of Population Growth in Major States of India : 1991-2001

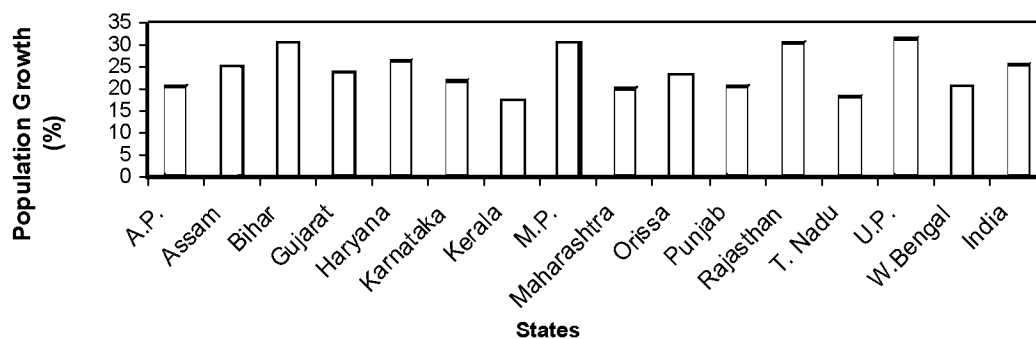
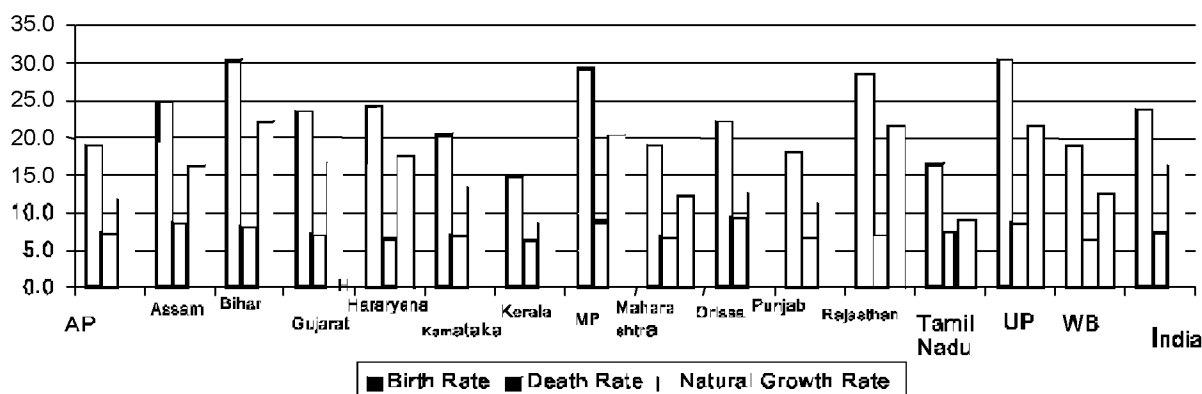


Figure 1.3: Birth Rate, Death Rate & Natural Growth Rate in Major States of India (2005-06)



**Table 1.4: Trends in Total and Per Capita Income of India and Uttar Pradesh at constant 1999-2000 Prices: 1999-2000 to 2005-06**

Year	Net Income In Rs. Crore		Uttar Pradesh As Percent of India	Per Capita Income In Rs.		Uttar Pradesh As Percent of India
	India	Uttar Pradesh		India	Uttar Pradesh	
1999-00	1585501	151283	9.5	15839	9405	59.38
2000-01	1643998	155564	9.5	16133	9451	58.58
2001-02	1739876	159613	9.2	16762	9475	56.53
2002-03	1801430	165647	9.2	17075	9657	56.56
2003-04*	1959599	174833	8.9	18263	9993	54.72
2004-05*\$	2103350	182409	8.7	19297	10224	52.98
2005-06\$	2295243	193457	8.4	20734	10637	51.30

\* Provisional estimates

\$Quick estimates

Source: Annual Plan of Uttar Pradesh, 2007-08, Vol.-1

17. The State economy is also characterized by sharp differences in per capita income levels across different regions and districts of the State. This aspect is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

18. During the first twenty five years of planning, growth rates in U.P. were low and lagged behind the

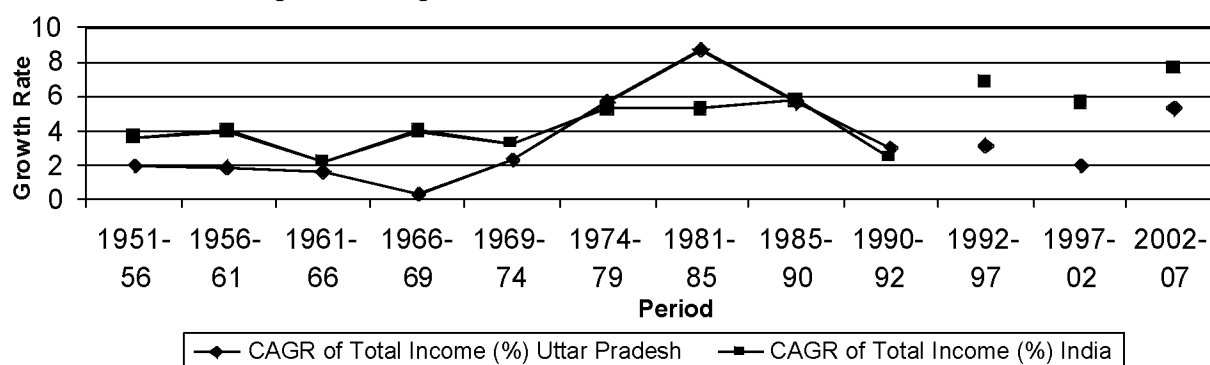
modest growth observed at the national level. However, during the period 1975 to 1990 the growth performance of U.P. compared well with the national level growth. However, after 1990 growth rate in U.P. has decelerated sharply, whereas the national economy has moved to a higher growth path (Table 1.5).

**Table 1.5: Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of Total and Per Capita Income in U.P. and India under the Plans**

Period	CAGR of Total Income (%)		CAGR of Per Capita Income (%)	
	Uttar Pradesh	India	Uttar Pradesh	India
1951-56	2.0	3.6	0.5	1.7
1956-61	1.9	4.0	0.3	1.9
1961-66	1.6	2.2	-0.2	0.0
1966-69	0.3	4.0	-1.5	1.8
1969-74	2.3	3.3	0.4	1.1
1974-79	5.7	5.3	3.3	2.9
1981-85	8.7	5.3	6.3	3.1
1985-90	5.7	5.8	3.3	3.6
1990-92	3.1	2.5	1.1	0.4
1992-97	3.2	6.8	1.4	4.9
1997-02	2.0	5.6	-0.4	3.6
2002-07	5.3	7.7	3.3	6.0

Source: Annual Plan 2007-08 Annexure -7, U.P. Government

**Fig 1.4 Average Annual Growth Rate of UP and India Since 1951**



19. During the period 1999-2000 and 2005-06 the annual growth of net income of Uttar Pradesh at constant prices was only 4.1 against the national average of 6.3 per cent. The growth rate of per capita income during this period was 2.1 and 4.6 per cent for U.P. and India respectively. It may be observed that Uttar Pradesh's contribution in net national income has declined from 9.5 per cent to 8.4 per cent during this period. The high growth rate of population of Uttar Pradesh along with the deceleration in the SDP growth rate since the Eighth Plan period has led to a fairly low growth rate of State's per capita income. Consequentially, the general standard of living as exhibited in per capita income levels continues to be low.

20. One of the reasons for the relatively slow economic growth in U.P. is the low level of plan expenditure in the State as compared to the national average and that of the more developed States (Table 1.6). Low plan investments in U.P. have been due to the fact that being a poor State it is not able to generate public savings on the required scale. Plan assistance received by U.P. from the centre has also been relatively low especially in the earlier Plans.

## VI. Poverty Levels

21. Poverty levels are relatively high in Uttar Pradesh. However, poverty levels have gone down in the State over time declining from 57.4 per cent in 1973-74 to 32.8 per cent in 2004-05. During the corresponding period poverty at the national level declined from 54.9 percent to 27.5 per cent. Despite the substantial decline in the poverty ratio, the absolute number of poor has remained high in the State. Almost 6 million people in U.P. were living below the poverty line in 2004-05 constituting over one-fifth of the total poor in the country on the basis of uniform recall period

22. The incidence of poverty is comparatively higher in Scheduled castes and OBC categories. The agricultural labourers and artisans are affected by poverty, Muslims in the urban areas are also vastly hit by poverty. Wide variations in poverty levels are also observed across regions and districts of the State.

23. The trends and correlates of poverty have been discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

### Box 1.1: Factors Responsible for High Poverty Ratio in U.P.

- Higher population growth
- Sluggish and poor quality of economic growth
- Excessive dependence on agriculture
- High degree of inequality in the distribution of income and asset and widespread landlessness
- Low level of investment in the economic and social infrastructure
- Low literacy level
- Social deprivation.

## Employment Structure

24. As per census 2001, the workforce participation rate for Uttar Pradesh stood at 32.5 per cent. The respective figures were 33.9 per cent in rural areas and 26.9 per cent in urban area. The work force participation rates for females in U.P. are particularly low-16.5 per cent as compared to the figure of 46.8 per cent for males.

25. The total number of workers in the State in 2001 was 539.84 lakh, out of which 393.38 lakh were main workers (i.e. who get employment for more than 183 days in a year) and 146.46 lakh were marginal workers (i.e. those who get employment for less than 183 days in a year). The growth rate of marginal workers has been much faster. Thus, the main workers registered an annual growth rate of only 0.12 per cent during 1991-2001, whereas the marginal workers increased at a rate of 16.78 percent per year. Marginal workers now constitute 27.1 per cent of total workers in the State.

26. Two thirds of the total workers in U.P. are still engaged in the agricultural sector as per 2001 Census.

Table 1.6: Per Capita Plan Expenditure of Uttar Pradesh and India

(in Rs.)

	I FYP	II FYP	III FYP	IV FYP	V FYP	VI FYP	VII FYP	VIII FYP	IX FYP	X FYP
Uttar Pradesh	25	32	72	132	329	588	1077	1559	1704	1484
All India	38	51	92	142	361	718	1270	2205	3421	2998

Source: Plan Documents, U.P. Government

This proportion is higher in case of female workers at 76.2 per cent. Rural areas of U.P. are also less diversified with 77 per cent of work force in agriculture. Nearly one-fourth of total workers are landless agricultural labourers. According to 61<sup>st</sup> Round of NSS (2004-05), 61.7 percent of total workers in U.P. were employed in the primary sector, 18.2 percent in secondary sector and remaining 20.1 percent in tertiary sector. The lack of diversification of the economy and heavy dependence of people on land is one of the major causes of low incomes and poverty in rural U.P. The pace of diversification has also been slow in U.P. as compared to the all India level.

27. The variations in work force participation rates and growth rate of workers in different regions and districts has been discussed in Chapter 5, which also looks at the structural changes in the work force in recent years.

28. We may here look at the salient features of the different sectors of the economy of the State.

## VII Agriculture

29. U.P. economy is dominated by agriculture, which employs about two thirds of the work force and contributes about one third of the State income. The average size of holdings is only 0.86 hectare, while 75.4 per cent of holdings are below one hectare. Uttar Pradesh is a major food grain producing State in rice, wheat, chickpea and pigeon pea. Sugarcane is the principal commercial crop of the State, largely concentrated in the western and central belts of State. U.P. is also a major producer of vegetables, fruits and potato.

30. The average yield of major crops in the State are considerably lower than those in the agriculturally developed States like Punjab and Haryana. A number of factors are responsible for low productivity and slow growth of agriculture in the State the most important factor being the very small size of holdings in the State (see box 1.2).

### Box 1.2: Major Constraints Inhibiting Agricultural Growth

- Small and fragmented size of land holdings
- Lack of proper management and maintenance of surface irrigation system for reaping the benefit of maximum potential.
- Decline in public investment in agriculture
- Inadequate research and development
- Underdeveloped credit flow and institutional finance
- Inadequate participation of private sector in the commercialization of agricultural sector.

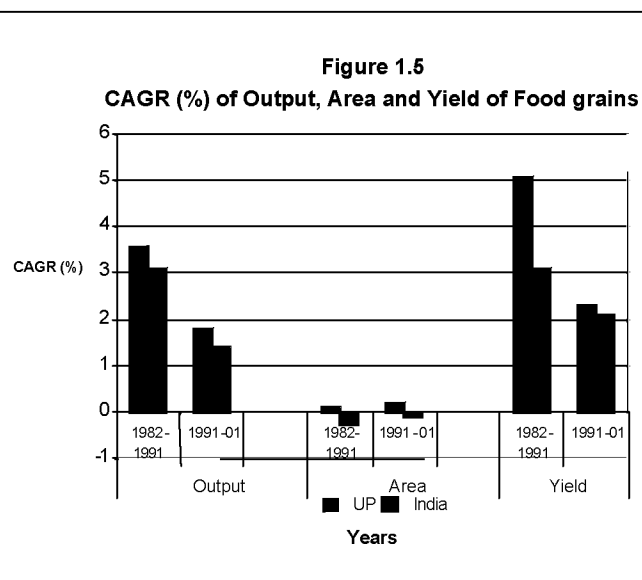
31. Around three fourth of cropped area in the State is irrigated. Private tube wells are the major source of irrigation followed by canals. However, the cropping intensity in the State is only 154 per cent, much lower as compared to States like Punjab and Haryana, which have a cropping intensity of 192 and 173 respectively.

32. Agriculture in the State showed dynamism during the seventies and the eighties in the wake of the green revolution. However, since early nineties the performance of the agricultural sector in the State has been rather poor as reflected by the declining growth rates of the production and productivity for all crops. Sharp year to year fluctuation in food grain output and total agricultural produce have also been observed in the State indicating the dependence of agriculture on monsoons despite the fact that a high proportion of cultivated area in U.P. is irrigated (Table 1.7).

**Table 1.7: Annual Percentage Change in Output of Food Production and Value of Agriculture Produce at 1999-2000 Prices during Ninth and Tenth Plan**

Year	Food grain Production	Value of Agriculture Produce
1999-00	14.0	-
2000-01	(-) 3.4	(-) 1.6
2001-02	3.3	0.2
2002-03	(-) 13.3	(-)1.3
2003-04	16.2	3.3
2004-05	(-) 10.0	(-)2.7
2005-06	2.7	(-)1.2
2006-07	1.3	5.6

Source: Economics & Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, *State Income Estimates*:



## VIII. Industry

33. The work force in the manufacturing sector in 1971 was 19.92 lakh, which rose to 32.05 lakh in 1991. The number of workers in house-hold industries in the total work force of the sector stood at 9.97 lakh (31%), while the number of workers in non-household industries was 22.08 lakh (69%). Only 7.7% of the work force in the State is engaged in the manufacturing sector in 1991 as against 15.8% in Gujarat, 14.0% in Tamil Nadu, 13.2% in Maharashtra, 12.3% in Punjab, 10.6% in Haryana, 10.7% in Karnataka and 8.8% in Andhra Pradesh. The industrial sector contributes 20 per cent of State income. Sugar, *vanaspoti* and cement are the three most important industries of the State.

34. In recent years, UP has witnessed significant growth and structural changes in the factory sector of industries. The modern sector of industries, such as chemicals and engineering, have experienced relatively faster growth than the traditional industries such as sugar and textiles. The industrial and service sector investment policy of Uttar Pradesh announced in 2004 emphasized the expansion of agro-based, chemical-based and information technology based industries.

35. U.P. has a large base of small scale industries. According to Third Census of SSI, there existed a total number of 17.08 lakh small scale enterprises in the State, out of which 9.5 per cent were reported to be registered. Around two third of these units are located in the rural areas. The gross fixed investment in SSI was Rs.17,289 crore and their gross output is estimated at Rs.27,423 crore.

36. Despite the significant increase in industrial production during the Plan period, the State still lacks the requisite level of industrialization. Industrial growth rate which was recorded at 8.6 per cent during the late eighties declined to 3 per cent during the early nineties. Growth rate of industries was 6.5 per cent per annum during the Tenth Plan.

37. Uttar Pradesh is attracting investment in the industrial sector by domestic and foreign entrepreneurs on a large scale indicating the potential of industrial growth in the State. Total investment under IEMs in the State till 2005-06 exceeded Rs.92,000 crore (Table 1.8). However, the rate of implementation has been rather sluggish and needs to be pushed up.

## IX. Regional Disparities

38. The economy of the State is characterized by very sharp variations at the regional and district levels. Generally the State is divided *into four* economic regions, namely, Western U.P., Central U.P., Eastern U.P., and Bundelkhand. The first three regions fall in the fertile *Gangetic* plains, while Bundelkhand lies in the dry *vindhyan* plateau.

Year	Total Outstanding Investment (Rs. Crore)	Under Implementation (Rs. Crore)	Rate Of Implementation (Per Cent)
1997-98	50680	19808	39.08
1998-99	48473	15257	31.48
1999-00	54614	23525	43.08
2000-01	53314	23691	44.44
2001-02	59589	27900	46.82
2002-03	69115	24125	34.91
2003-04	72541	26584	36.65
2004-05	82524	28579	34.63
2005-06	92211	26529	28.77

Source: Udyog Bandhu, U.P.

39. The Western and the Eastern regions are the most populous, with a share of 37 and 40 percent respectively in the State population. About one-fifth of the population lives in the Central region, while only 5 per cent lives in Bundelkhand. The latter is sparsely populated with a density of population of only 280 persons per sq. km., less than half of the population density of the State. Population pressure is much higher in the three plain regions.

40. The Western region is relatively the most developed region of the State in terms of economic prosperity. The agricultural productivity is higher in this region. The region has a more diversified economy with almost half of the industries in the State are located in this region. NOIDA and Ghaziabad districts located in this region are emerging as the industrial hub of the State. Central U.P. falls in the middle category in terms of economic development. It was industrially more developed with Kanpur as a major textile centre of northern India. However, the region has witnessed industrial decline in recent years. The other two regions, namely, East U.P. and Bundelkhand are officially designated as backward regions. Eastern region is most densely populated with a heavy dependence on land. It is marked by low level of diversification, low productivity and low per capita income. Most of the poor in the State are concentrated in this region. Bundelkhand region has distinct natural characteristics and has much lower irrigation intensity as compared to the other regions. It has a large landless population and had high incidence of poverty in the eighties and the nineties. Lately, the region has shown greater economic dynamism and poverty levels have declined sharply. Within all the regions sharp intra-regional disparities are found at the district level.

41. Similarly wide disparities are found to exist in various indicators of social development especially at the district level. It may however, be added that even

the economically more prosperous western districts are lagging behind in indicators of social development. Some of these aspects are explored in detail in later chapters.

## X. Infrastructure Development

42. The development of service sector is sine-qua-non for high and sustained growth. It may be classified in terms of physical and social infrastructure. While the physical infrastructure mainly consists of road and transport, irrigation, power, telecommunication etc, social infrastructure comprises education, health and housing and financial infrastructure consists of banking and insurance. Physical infrastructure contributes to economic growth through generation of income and employment, lowering transaction cost; social infrastructure contributes to the process of growth through generation of human capabilities and capacity building by enriching the quality of human life made possible through better education, better health, improved housing and recreation facility.

### Transport

43. An efficient transport system has an important role to play in promoting and strengthening national integration, accelerating productivity, enhancing the competitive efficiency of the economy in the world market and integrating the backward parts of the State with the mainstream of the economy. The policy package of the State Government under the Eleventh Five Year Plan is reflected in the delineation of priorities like development of rural roads, up gradation of existing road networks and bridges, construction of additional flyovers and sub-ways, modernization of urban roads, greater private sector participation, structural change in road safety measures etc.

44. Although marked improvement in infrastructure has taken place during the planning era, U.P. is lagging behind other States in infrastructure development. In 2001-02, roads length per one lakh population in the State is 99.00 km as against the national level of 136.9 km. In terms of road length the State occupies 15<sup>th</sup> position among the major 19 States. However, in terms of road length per 100 sq. km., Uttar Pradesh's coverage (69.1 km) is better than the national level (43.2 km) and but much poorer than best performing State Punjab (105.5 km).

### Irrigation

45. Irrigation is being considered as a powerful catalyst for providing food security in addition to its role as a stabilizer against the uncertainty of monsoon. Thus, it contributes significantly to productivity, cropping intensity and diversification of agriculture. The gross cropped area in U.P. in 2004-05 was around 255.2 lakh hectares. Ground water resources accounted for about 78 per cent of irrigated area and surface water resources for about 22 per cent. It may be noted that less than three fourth of the irrigation

potential is actually utilized due to various deficiencies prevalent in the irrigation management system. The problem of over-exploitation of ground water has also emerged in many districts particularly in western U.P.

### Power Sector

46. Power occupies a critical place in economic infrastructure. Per capita consumption of power *in U.P. in 2004-05 was only 202 KWH* as against the all India average of 411 KWH. The State occupies 15<sup>th</sup> position among the 18 major States in the country in terms of per capita power consumption. Moreover, 69.43 per cent of villages in the State are electrified as compared to the national average of 75.93 per cent. Only 20 per cent of rural households in the State are electrified as against 44 per cent at the national level. The coverage of electrification in the urban households of the State is 80 per cent as against 88 per cent for the country as a whole.

47. The power sector in the State, as in the country as a whole, has been facing a serious crisis due to poor financial health of the State power corporation. After the bifurcation of the State, the major hydel plants have gone to Utrakhand. The power sector of Uttar Pradesh has been incurring burgeoning power deficit on account of supply bottlenecks and rigidities. The creation of installed capacity has lagged behind the rapidly growing demand for power. Presently the State is importing more than half of its power requirement. The transmission losses are also extremely high.

### Social Infrastructure

48. Provision of social infrastructure strives to achieve the twin objectives of economic equality and social development, to create supportive environment for a higher rate of growth for development contributing not only to human development but also to holistic and harmonious socio-economic development. The concern with availability of social infrastructure has evolved over the years from a general emphasis on basic needs of the people to special needs of specific regions and special groups of people. A norm based approach for social infrastructure being difficult, efforts have been made to fulfill a certain level of minimum needs so that the poor and the weak do not suffer exclusion from the overall process of development due to market imperfections and conscious attempts are being made to provide these minimum needs through infrastructure facilities and services in respect to the people's health and nutritional status, educational status and housing. Social development, as it should flow from the adequate social infrastructure, would therefore mean literacy, education, good health and all that goes to make good health possible like food and nutrition security, safe drinking water, easy availability of health and medical facilities, both preventive and curative, and a hygienic environment and shelter.



## Health Infrastructure

49. The public health system in the State provides three tier medical services in the State. First level health services are provided in urban areas through District male and female or combined hospitals and are located at district level. At the second level, health services are provided through Community Health Centres established at the Tehsil and Block level. For every one lakh population, a CHC is set up. CHC acts as a 'referral unit' in rural areas. At the third level, health services are provided in remote rural areas through Primary Health Centres (PHCs).

50. Though the public medical health care system in U.P. is massive and well spread, the delivery system leaves much to be desired. The main reasons, which are attributable to poor management at various levels of service delivery, are: imbalanced mix of inputs; low quality of service provisioning in terms of inconvenient timing and poor sensitivity to patient needs; non-alignment among functions, capacity and resources; abdication of responsibility to establish appropriate administrative systems regarding procedures and rules related to service matters of recruitment, placement, deployment, transfer, leave sanction, promotion, poor payment systems and inability to check increasing trend of dual practice at the cost of patient care in Government facilities; inconsistent procedures and rules such as in the case of MTP Act hindering compliance; and poor facilities at the work place.

## Safe Drinking Water

51. As per latest survey carried out in the year 2004, out of the 2,60,110 habitations in the State, 7993 were found to be 'not covered' habitations, 18,776 'partially covered' and remaining 'fully covered' habitations as per Government of India norms. There are 6390 quality problem habitations in the State. The generic quality problems are in the form of excess arsenic, fluoride, iron, salinity or biological contamination. It may be noted that success in removal of *guinea worm* in the country was largely achieved by improving access to safe drinking water. While Uttar Pradesh is well placed as far as installation of India Mark II & III hand pumps is concerned, in several areas, people continue to use water from shallow hand pumps installed in their premises for drinking purposes and these often lead to outbreak of gastroenteritis. Often, lack of awareness regarding safe storage and handling of drinking water also causes contamination leading to deaths on account of water borne diseases.

## Sanitation

52. As per census 2001, there are about 2.58 crore households in the State and only 28 per cent households have individual house hold toilets. Open defecation

continuous to be the norm in large parts of the State especially in the rural areas. Faecal matter constitutes a major source for bacteriological contamination of water. Studies have shown that about 70 per cent reduction in deaths due to diarrhoea can be achieved by focusing on improved hygiene and through safe disposal of human excreta.

53. Problem of sanitation is not confined to rural areas alone. Even in urban areas of the State, there is frequent out break of diarrhoea and reports of diarrhoeal deaths keep pouring in. This can be checked if source of contamination of drinking water supply is checked and provision for safe disposal of excreta is made apart from improved hygiene practices such as washing of hands with soap after defecation.

## Education Infrastructure

54. Free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen years is our constitutional commitment. The Government of India has initiated a number of programmes to achieve the goal of Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE) among which '*Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*' (SSA) is the most recent one. The SSA is the Government of India's flagship programme to universalize elementary education in the country, and is being implemented in partnership with State Governments. The programme seeks to open new schools in those habitations which do not have schooling facilities and strengthen existing school infrastructure through the provision of additional classrooms, toilets, drinking water, maintenance grants and school improvement grants. Existing schools with inadequate teacher strength are provided additional teachers, while the capacity of existing teachers is being strengthened by extensive training, grants for developing teaching-learning materials and strengthening of academic support structure at the cluster, block and district levels. The SSA has a special focus on girl's education and children with special needs and seeks to bridge social, regional and gender gaps in educational achievements.

55. With the implementation of Uttar Pradesh Basic Education Project - I, Uttar Pradesh Basic Education Project - II and District Primary Education Programme - III, primary schooling facilities have been provided in almost all eligible habitations as per State norm. In 2005-06, there were 134455 primary / junior basic schools and 40021 middle / senior basic schools in the State. According to the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, the number of schools per village in U.P. was 0.97 in 2004 against 314 children per village. These ratios are very low when compared with States like Kerala (2.96 schools / village, 416 children / village), Tripura (2.88 schools / village, 229 children / village) and Andhra Pradesh (1.93 schools / village, 186 children / village).

56. In order to enhance the access of students to schools, the norms of opening new primary and upper primary schools have been revised in the year 2006-07. According to revised norm, the villages having population 300 and within a radius of 1 Km. will be eligible for the opening of new primary school. Similarly, villages having population 800 will be eligible for opening of new upper primary school, within a radius of 2 Km.

## Housing

57. Housing is a basic human requirement in any civilized society. For a normal citizen, owning a house means significant economic security and dignity. There is an increasing recognition of close relationship between housing and health and well-being of the people. As per 2001 Census, there were 3,43,01,455 houses in U.P., of which 79.2 per cent were in the rural areas. Only 76.9 per cent of total houses were under residential use.

58. Out of a total number of houses in the State, 45 per cent were classified as “good”, 49 per cent households as “livable” and the remaining 6 per cent as “dilapidated”. Significantly, 1.3 million households in the rural areas of Uttar Pradesh were living in dilapidated houses.

## XI. Social Sector Expenditure

59. Public policy plays an important role in human development through increased provision of education, health and other social services. The level and pattern of expenditure on social sector is indicative of the priority assigned by the government to human development. We may, therefore, briefly look at the social sector investment in the State. The average per capita real expenditure on social services in U.P. during 1990-91 and 2000-01 was Rs.3664 against the all State average of Rs.6071. Significantly social sector expenditure in U.P. is low even as compared to other poor States (Table 1.9).

States	Revenue Expenditure				Total expenditure			
	Education	Health	Other Social Services	All Social services	Education	Health	Other Social Services	All Social Services
Assam	3690	704	1208	5602	3711	747	1267	5725
Bihar	2678	594	895	4167	2698	601	1019	4318
Goa	9682	3338	4456	17476	10187	3886	6189	20262
Gujarat	4137	988	2299	7423	4163	1009	2796	7968
Haryana	3503	769	2494	6765	3567	822	2862	7251
H.P.	6471	2102	3504	12077	6674	2318	4888	13880
J&K	4610	1874	3048	9532	4943	2115	4652	11710
Karnataka	3370	887	2038	6295	3398	943	2191	6532
Kerala	4137	1003	1581	6721	4204	1047	1630	6881
MP	2810	772	2397	5979	2883	799	2544	6226
Maharashtra	4224	897	2047	7167	4247	922	2127	7297
Manipur	7334	1546	2358	11239	7845	1599	3715	13159
Meghalaya	5512	1653	2864	10029	5644	1974	4233	11851
Mizoram	11449	3621	8954	24024	11573	3875	11735	27184
Nagaland	6037	2274	5819	14130	6488	2933	8460	17881
Orissa	2595	599	1724	4918	2619	630	1843	5092
Punjab	4256	1246	1415	6917	4323	1284	1569	7176
Rajasthan	3348	887	1753	5988	3382	938	2390	6711
Tamil Nadu	3926	1049	2577	7552	3966	1091	2787	7844
Tripura	5796	1162	3388	10347	5868	1257	4763	11888
<b>UP</b>	<b>2174</b>	<b>555</b>	<b>799</b>	<b>3527</b>	<b>2201</b>	<b>593</b>	<b>870</b>	<b>3664</b>
West Bengal	2836	789	1247	4872	2853	825	1289	4967
<i>All States</i>	3228	824	1735	5786	3268	863	1940	6071

Source: Ravindra H. Dholakia, “Trends in Regional Disparity in Human and Social Development in India,” paper presented at the IEA Seminar on Accelerated Economic Growth and Regional Balance, held at ISID, New Delhi during September 16-18, 2005.

60. An analysis of expenditure on social sector as per cent of GSDP in different States reveals that U.P. falls in the 'middle category' States in this respect along with Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, which spend 6 to 7 per cent of GSDP on social sector (Table 1.10). It may be noted that even some of the poorer States like Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Rajasthan and Chattisgarh are spending over 8 per cent of their GSDP on social sector.

Range (per cent)	2002-05 (Average)
Below 5	Haryana, Punjab, West Bengal
5-6	Maharashtra, Gujarat
6-7	Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh
7-8	Goa, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh
Above 8	Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Rajasthan, Chattisgarh

Source: RBI, *State Finances, 2006-07*

61. Another important indicator of the fiscal priority accorded to social sectors by the States is the ratio of social sector expenditure to total expenditure. In this respect U.P. belongs to the 'low expenditure category' States, which spend less than 30 per cent of their budget on social sectors (Table 1.11). This ratio exceeds 35 per cent in Rajasthan, Jharkhand and Chattisgarh.

Range (Per Cent)	2002-05 (Average)
Below 30	Goa, Haryana, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Gujarat, Karnataka, Orissa
30-35	Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, NCT Delhi, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Bihar, Maharashtra
35-40	Rajasthan, Chattisgarh
Above 40	Jharkhand

62. These figures are reflective of the low priority to social sector given by the policy makers in the State. Most of the expenditure on social services is on revenue account mainly on salary payment, while capital expenditure is very nominal. The increase in public expenditure on social sector would lead to opening the vistas, opportunities access to various basic minimum needs by the under privilege section of the population. Thus, if economic growth is to have a positive impact on

human development suitable policies need to be adopted for reducing income inequalities and increasing social sector expenditure for generating better and qualitative human capital.

## XII. Fiscal Situation

63. The ability of the State to invest more on social infrastructure and human development is affected by the financial position of the State government. Severe fiscal strains emerged in the State's finances since the early nineties as the government was not able to restraint the growth of revenue expenditure, while it failed to mobilize more resources from tax and non-tax resources. There was a sharp jump in the public borrowings adding to the burden of debt and interest payment. Revenue deficit and fiscal deficit as a ratio to SDP hovered around 3 per cent and 5 per cent respectively during the nineties (Table 1.12).

64. A disconcerting part of the fiscal scenario was that a large part of the borrowing was used to meet the current revenue expenditure rather than for building productive assets. The uncontrolled growth of revenue expenditure resulted in low capital expenditure of the State government, which was as low as 6-7 per cent of total expenditure in the late nineties (Table 1.13). Declining public investment, in its turn, adversely affected the growth rate of the State's economy.

65. By the mid-nineties it became clear to policy makers that the present trends are no longer sustainable. The State government initiated a number of steps to control the alarming situation. The government came out with a *White Paper on the Fiscal Situation in the State* along with the budget of 1998-99. The *White Paper* identified the following as the main features of the fiscal crisis: (a) higher growth of revenue expenditure in relation to the growth in revenue receipts; (b) declining expenditure on capital formation and low returns on the past investments; and, (c) continuous increase in the indebtedness of the State.

66. This was followed up with a blue print of wide ranging economic reforms covering fiscal sector, fiscal administration, re-structuring of public enterprises, power sector reforms as well as governance and the civil service reforms. U.P. became the first recipient at the sub-national level of fiscal restructuring loan from the World Bank in June 1999. The State Government signed a *Memorandum of Understanding* with the Ministry of Finance, Government of India, under which the State government was to receive programme assistance based on a fiscal restructuring plan. Following this, the State government announced a *Medium Term Fiscal Reform Policy (MTFRP)* along with its budget for 2000-2001.

67. U.P. Government adopted a Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management Act in 2004, becoming the fifth State in the country to do so. The main objectives of the Fiscal Responsibility and Budget

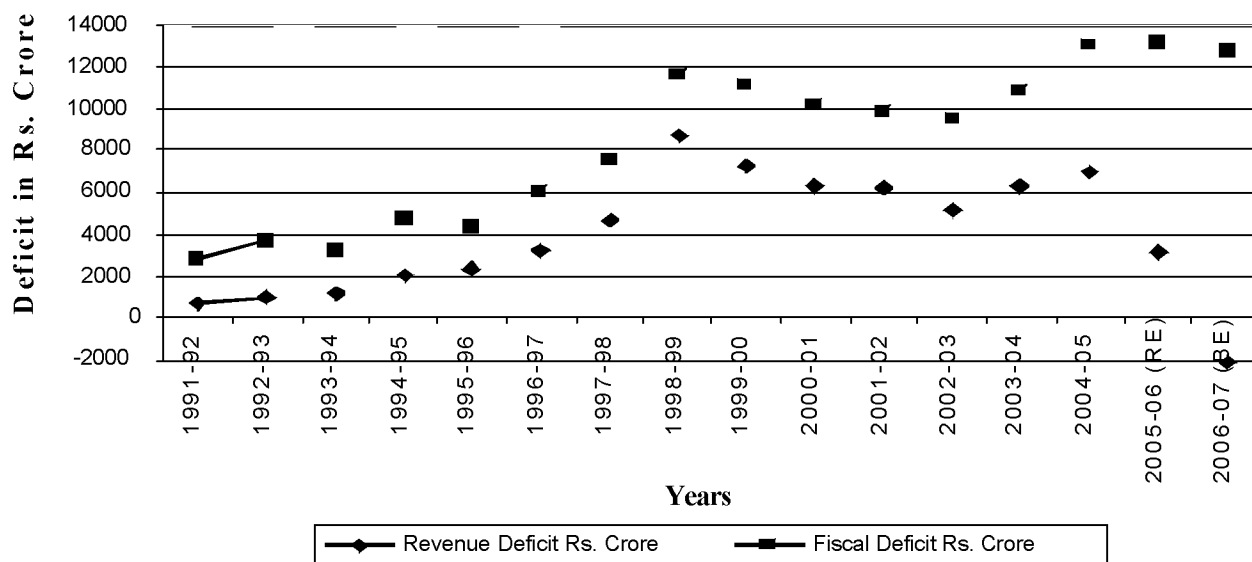
**Table 1.12: Trends in Revenue and Fiscal Deficit in Uttar Pradesh: 1991-2006**

Year	Revenue Deficit			Fiscal Deficit	
	Rs. Crore	As % of GDP	As % of FD	Rs. Crore	As % of GDP
1991-92	724.59	1.1	26	2836.50	4.4
1992-93	1014.56	1.4	27	3710.93	5.2
1993-94	1148.72	1.4	36	3165.77	4.0
1994-95	2000.74	2.2	42	4766.50	5.07
1995-96	2340.65	2.3	53	4380.61	4.12
1996-97	3179.13	2.2	53	5956.20	4.66
1997-98	4623.91	3.6	61	7575.96	5.51
1998-99	8696.16	5.1	75	11632.53	7.56
1999-00	7252.61	3.9	65	11098.73	6.71
2000-01	6289.31	3.3	62	10179.52	5.88
2001-02	6181.80	3.4	62	9898.13	5.46
2002-03	5117.32	2.6	54	9496.91	4.81
2003-04	6305.75	2.8	38	10776.25	7.74
2004-05	6992.91	-	54	12997.61	5.5
2005-06 (RE)	3132.00	-	24	13167.53	-
2006-07 (BE)	-1123.17	-	9	12711.51	-

Source: Uttar Pradesh Government, *White Paper on Budget 1998-99*, Part-II and *Budget Papers, 2005-06*.

Note: Revenue deficit figures for 2003-04 exclude the underwriting of loans of Rs. 12277.40 crore to UPSEB and Fiscal deficit figures for 2003-04 exclude the power bonds amounting to Rs.5871.86 cr.

**Figure 1.6: Trends in Revenue and Fiscal Deficit in Uttar Pradesh**



**Table 1.13: Trends in Capital Expenditure in U.P.**

Year	Capital Expenditure (Rs. in crore)	Capital Expenditure as % of Total Expenditure	Capital Expenditure as % of GSDP
1995-96	1129.35	6	1.06
1996-97	1435.41	7	1.12
1997-98	1667.64	7	1.21
1998-99	2096.96	7	1.36
1999-00	2533.34	8	1.53
2000-01	3267.55	10	1.88
2001-02	3555.56	10	1.88
2002-03	3794.39	10	1.87
2003-04	4985.22	11	2.29
2004-05	6320.15	10	2.74
2005-06 (RE)	9717.96	13	3.82
2006-07 (BE)	13437.21	16	4.99

Source: Computed from Budget Documents, UP Government

Management Act of U.P. were to ensure fiscal stability and sustainability; to enhance the scope for improving social and physical infrastructure and human development by achieving sufficient revenue surplus, reducing fiscal deficit and removing impediments to the effective conduct of fiscal policy; prudent debt management through limits on State Government borrowings, government guarantees, debt and deficits; and greater transparency in fiscal operations of the State Government and use of a medium term fiscal framework. The Fiscal Responsibility Act of U.P., among other things, envisaged elimination of revenue deficit and containing the fiscal deficit to 3 percent of GSDP by 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2009.

68. These efforts resulted in a significant improvement in the fiscal situation. The revenue deficit, which was Rs.6993 crore in 2004-05 came down to Rs.1268 crore in 2005-06. According to the revised estimates for 2006-07, the State is likely to have a revenue surplus of Rs.3359 crore. The gross fiscal deficit which stood at the alarming level of Rs.16,648 crore in 2003-04 came down to Rs.10,078 crore in 2005-06. The improvement has come about due to a remarkable surge in the tax revenues of the State as well as larger flow from the centre. The own tax revenue which was Rs.13,601 crore in 2003-04 went up to Rs.15,693 crore in 2004-05 and further to Rs.18,858 crore in 2005-06 and is projected at Rs.24,381 crore in 2006-07. That amounts to a creditable increase of about 80% in State revenues during the last three years.

69. The improved fiscal situation is reflected in the higher plan and capital expenditure. Annual plan expenditure in UP has remained around Rs.7000 crore during the period 2001-02 to 2003-04. It went up to Rs.9662 crore in 2004-05 and further to Rs.13,639 crore in 2005-06. The size of the annual plan for 2006-07 was Rs.19,000 crore, which is nearly three times the plan size, five years back. Similarly, capital

expenditure out of the State budget has shown a sizeable increase from Rs.3794 crore in 2002-03 to Rs.9,718 crore in 2005-06. It is projected at Rs.13,437 crore in the budget for 2006-07.

70. The improved fiscal situation and an increase in public investment is also reflected in an improvement in the rate of economic growth in the State. Thus, the growth rate of GSDP, which had stagnated at around 3% during 1990-2002, has increased at an average rate of around 5% during the period 2002-05. These trends suggest that the UP economy is once again showing signs of higher growth rate. The State government has received sizeable grant in aid for the social sector from the Twelfth Finance Commission. This augurs well for the economic and social development of the State.

71. To conclude, the low level of economic development and the financial crunch faced by the State government restricted its capacity to invest in human and physical infrastructure in the past. Consequently, the performance of the State in terms of various indicators of human development remained low. The low status of human development also constrained the growth performance in U.P. *Thus, Uttar Pradesh seems to be caught in a kind of vicious circle between low levels of human development and low levels of economic development.* It is, therefore, imperative to break this vicious circle and to turn it into a virtuous circle by giving due priority to improvement in human development along with a big push to the State economy. It needs to be mentioned that the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals in the country depends critically on a fast improvement in the social indicators in Uttar Pradesh. The following chapters of the report critically examine the status and trends in various dimensions of human development in the State, identify the critical areas and suggest suitable policies for human development for the State.

# The Status Of Human Development

### I. Concept of Human Development

1. With the publication of the first Human Development Report in 1990 by the UNDP, a paradigm shift in the contemporary development discourse has taken place. The very meaning and purpose of development has been redefined to shift focus from merely material well being to broader aspects of human well-being. Development is analyzed and understood in terms of betterment of people's lives not just the expansion of production processes. The basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change overtime. People often value achievements that do not show up at all, or immediately, in income growth figures; greater access to knowledge, better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and a sense of participation in community activities. The objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. The defining difference between economic growth and human development paradigms is that the first focuses exclusively on the expansion of only one choice (i.e. income), while the second emphasizes the enlargement of all human choices- economic, social, cultural or political.

2. The enlargement of people's choices can be achieved by expanding human **functioning** and **capabilities**. The functioning of a person refer to the valuable things that the person can do or be such as being well fed, well clad, etc. The capability of a person stands for the different combinations of functioning the person can achieve. Capabilities thus reflect the freedom to achieve functioning. Human development has two sides. One is the formation of human capabilities - such as improved health, knowledge and skills. The other is the use people make of their acquired capabilities - for employment, productive activities, political affairs or leisure. A society needs to build up human capabilities as well as ensure equitable access to human opportunities. There has to be a fine balance between these two sides.

3. The concept of human development has four important components, namely, productivity, equity, sustainability and employment. It is concerned with the rate of economic growth as well with equitable

distribution of benefits from growth. It deals not only with the choice of the current generation but also with the sustainability of these choices for the future generations. Human development also seeks to empower people as both the means and the ends of development. In sum, human development is a holistic and an integrated concept.

4. Since 1990, the successive Human Development Reports (HDRs), being brought out by the UNDP, have identified three most critical and socially valuable choices, namely, the choice to lead a long and healthy life, the choice to acquire knowledge and be educated, and to have access to resource needed for a decent standard of living. The social outcomes in respect of these choices are captured through **indicators on longevity, educational attainment and income**. Over the years, the HDRs have also modified their methodology for construction of human development indices in certain respects. But the broad approach and the philosophy have remained the same.

5. After the publication of UNDP's HDRs, many countries have also brought out their National Human Development Reports. In India, the first National Human Development Report was brought out in 2001 by the Planning Commission, Government of India. Many State Governments have also brought out State Human Development Reports. In these efforts, Madhya Pradesh was a pioneer with its first HDR broughtout in 1995. After M.P., 16 more states have brought out their State HDRs.

6. The Human Development Reports aim to stimulate policy debates and discussions on critical issues of human development by providing data and analysis on various dimensions of human development. An important part of HDRs is the computation of various human development indices that assess progress in human development across countries/states/districts as the case may be. Human Development Indices can also be used for monitoring and evaluation purposes.

7. UNDP's HDRs have over the years developed four important indices to capture human development status of a country, namely, human development index, gender development index, gender empowerment index and human poverty index. These are, by now, well known in development literature. A brief description of these indices is given in Box 2.1.

## Box 2.1 Human Development Indices

### Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development - a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. A composite index of the HDI thus contains three variables - life expectancy at birth, educational attainment (adult literacy and the combined gross primary, secondary and tertiary enrollment ratio) and GDP per capita (PPP in US \$). Income enters the HDI as a proxy for a decent standard of living and as a surrogate for all human choices not reflected in the other two dimensions.

### Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

The GDI measures the achievements in the same dimensions and using the same variables as the HDI does, but takes into account inequality in achievement between women and men. The greater is the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower is a country's GDI compared with its HDI. The GDI is simply the HDI discounted, or adjusted downwards, for gender inequality.

### Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

The GEM indicates whether women are able to actively participate in economic and political life. It measures gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. The GEM, focusing on women's opportunities in economic and political arenas, thus differs from the GDI, an indicator of gender inequality in basic capabilities.

### Human Poverty Index (HPI)

The HPI measures deprivations in human development. Thus, while the HDI measures the overall progress in a country in achieving human development, the HPI reflects the distribution of progress and measures the backlog of deprivations that still exists. The HPI is constructed for developing countries (HPI-1) and for industrialised countries (HPI-2). A separate index has been devised for industrialized countries because human deprivations varies with the social and economic conditions of a community, and so takes advantage of the greater availability of data for these countries.

#### HPI-1

The HPI-1 measures deprivation in the same basic dimensions of human development as the HDI. The variables used are the percentage of people born today expected to die before age 40, the percentage of adults who are illiterate and deprivation in overall economic provisioning - public and private - reflected by the percentage of people without access to health services and safe water and the percentage of underweight children.

#### HPI-2

The HPI-2 focuses on deprivation in the same three dimensions as the HPI-1 and an additional one, social exclusion. The variables are the percentage of people born today expected to die before age 60, the percentage of people whose ability to read and write is not adequate to be functional, the proportion of people who are income poor (with disposable incomes of less than 50% of the median disposable household income) and the proportion of the long-term unemployed (12 months or more).

8. This Report also uses a methodology similar to the UNDP in constructing the indices. But there are some differences both in the method used and in the indicators employed. This has been primarily dictated by the availability, rather lack of it, of appropriate data at the district level. We have tried to use data, which are available over time and are considered authentic. The gaps in the data were filled up by appropriate statistical techniques. The main purpose of this exercise is to present intra-state comparisons across districts and over time.

## II. Methodology and Indicators

9. Table 2.1 below summarizes the indicators used by the UNDP, National Human Development report and the present UPHDR. The detailed methodology of computation has been given in the Technical Appendix. It may be mentioned here, that the computation of GEM was not taken up for want of data on suitable indicators at the district level. Further, in place of HPI-1 of UNDP, we have computed the **Deprivation Index**, which is akin but not identical with the HPI. The Deprivation Index captures the deprivation in basic amenities in terms of the quality of habitat. The HDI for the State as well as its 70 districts has been computed for the years 1991, 2001 and 2005. The GDI has been computed for the years 2001 and 2005, as some crucial comparable data was not available for the year 1991. The Deprivation Index as stated above has been computed for the year 1991 and 2001. As the number of districts in 1991 is identical with 2001 due to the creation of many new districts by redrawing the existing district boundaries, appropriate adjustment in the data for new districts have been made. The data used in these computations for example literacy, per capita income, infant mortality rate and other relevant indicators have been taken from official sources.

## III. Inter-State Comparisons

10. To put the computations, worked out in this Report, in perspective, it would be instructive to compare the human development status of U.P. vis-à-vis other states of India. According to the National

**Table 2.1: Variables Used in Constructing Human Development Indices**

Dimensions	UP HDR II	NHDR	UNDP HDR (2006)
<b>1. Human Development Index (HDI)</b>			
a) Income	Adjusted Per Capita Income at constant prices in PPP in \$	Inflation and inequality adjusted per capita consumption expenditure	Per Capita Income at constant prices in PPP in \$
b) Education	Literacy (7+)	1. Literacy (7+) 2. Intensity of formal education	1. Literacy age 15 and above 2. Gross Enrolment Ratio - school education
c) Health	Infant Mortality Rate	2. Life expectancy at age 1 3. IMR	Life expectancy at age 0
<b>2. Human Poverty Index (HPI-1)/Deprivation Index (UPHDR II)</b>			
1. Health		Percent persons not expected to survive beyond age 40	Percentage persons not expected to survive to age 40.
2. Education		1. Illiterates (age 7+ years) 2. Percentage of 6-18 year old children not in school	Percentage of illiterates (age 15 years and above)
3. Economic Deprivation and Basic Provisioning	1. Deprivation in Quality of Housing 2. Deprivation in Access to Water 3. Deprivation in Good Sanitation 4. Deprivation in Electricity Lighting	1. Percent below poverty line 2. Percent not receiving medical attention at birth/children not fully vaccinated 3. Percent of population living in <i>kutcha</i> houses 4. Percent without access to basic amenities	i) Percentage of people without access to safe water ii) Percentage of people without access to health services iii) Percentage of moderately and severely underweight children under 5.
<b>3. Gender related Development Index/Gender Equality Index (GDI/GEI)</b>			
1. Economic Opportunity	Male and female wages and workforce participation rates in conjunction with per capita income (female and male earned income share)	Workforce Participation Rate	Male and female wages and workforce participation rates in conjunction with per capita income (female and male earned income share)
2. Education	As in HDI	As in HDI	As in HDI
3. Health	As in HDI	As in HDI	As in HDI

Sources: Annexure 1; Planning Commission, Government of India (2002) National Human Development Report 2001, New Delhi; UNDP, Human Development Report, 2006.

Human Development Report (Planning Commission 2001), U.P. ranked at 13<sup>th</sup> position in terms of HDI (see Ch. 1, Table 1.1). Kerala, Punjab and Tamil Nadu are the three top ranking States in terms of HDI both in 1991 and 2001. Though Uttar Pradesh improved its rank to 13<sup>th</sup> position in 2001, it continues to languish at a low level of human development and is in the lowest cluster of States, along with Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Orissa. The redeeming feature is that the value of HDI has increased from 0.314 in 1991 to 0.388 in 2001. The corresponding figures for India were 0.381 and 0.472 respectively.

11. For this report, HDI for seventeen major states have been computed for the year 2001 and 2005 using the three indicators of per capita income, infant mortality rate and literacy 7+. The results have been shown in Table 2.2. The low status of human development in U.P. is reflected by the fact that in 2001 U.P. was at 15<sup>th</sup> position among the 17 states for which HDI was computed, just ahead of Orissa and Bihar. By 2005 U.P. slipped to 16<sup>th</sup> position as the relative improvement in Orissa was faster. U.P.'s value of HDI in 2005 stood at 0.5709 as compared to the value of 0.8243 in Kerala, the best state in terms of HDI, and national average of 0.6639.



**Table 2.2: Human Development Index for Major States for 2001 and 2005  
Based on UPHDR II Methodology**

States	2001		2005	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
Andhra Pradesh	0.6220	9	0.6388	10
Assam	0.5831	12	0.6523	9
Bihar	0.5200	17	0.5538	17
Chhatisgarh	0.5976	11	0.6269	11
Gujarat	0.6663	6	0.7073	6
Haryana	0.6587	8	0.6875	7
Jharkhand	0.6005	10	0.6257	12
Karnataka	0.6646	7	0.6814	8
Kerala	0.8118	1	0.8243	1
Madhya Pradesh	0.5582	14	0.5902	14
Maharashtra	0.7241	2	0.7513	2
Orissa	0.5405	16	0.5863	15
Punjab	0.6943	4	0.7245	4
Rajasthan	0.5796	13	0.5957	13
Tamilnadu	0.6995	3	0.7348	3
Uttar Pradesh	0.5442	15	0.5709	16
West Bengal	0.6696	5	0.7109	5
<b>India</b>	<b>0.6281</b>		<b>0.6639</b>	

Source: Computed for the Report

12. The absolute value of HDI in U.P. has been improving over time (see Table 2.3). But, its relative performance leaves much to be desired. All the indices of human development (i.e. HDI, GDI and Deprivation Index) have shown an improvement over the years. The improvement during the period 1991-2001 has been at a higher rate. A sharper increase in literacy and a decline in IMR have contributed to these trends. In terms of UNDPs HDR criterion, U.P. can be said to have moved into the category of medium human development (HDI between 0.50 and 0.80) in 2001, from the category of low human development (HDI below 0.50). But the state has still a long way to go to achieve full human development. The GDI during 2001-2005 has also improved by 7.47 % and the Deprivation Index has declined by 16.26 per cent in the year 1991-2001.

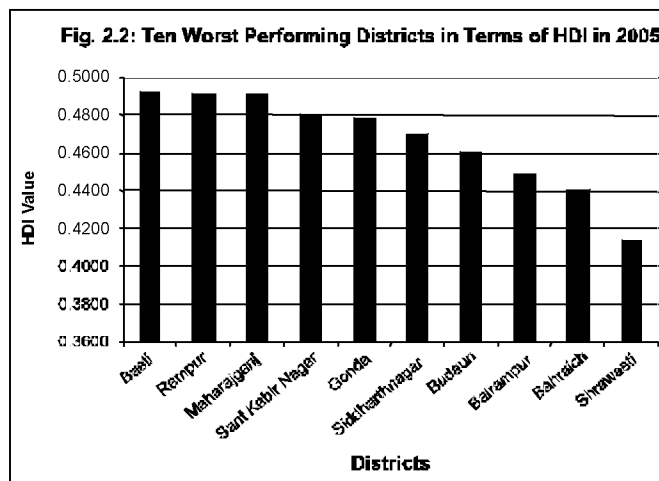
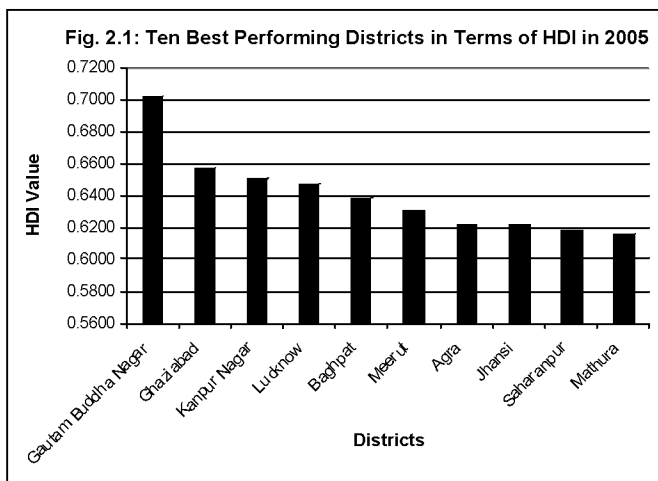
#### IV. Human Development Scenario at District Level

13. There is a considerable range of variation in HDI value at the district level (See Table 2.4). In 2005 the top ranked district is Gautam Buddha Nagar with a HDI value of 0.7017 while at the bottom lies district Shrawasti with a HDI value of 0.4132. In the top ten districts, presented in the Fig. 2.1 seven districts belong to the Western Region, the exceptions being Kanpur Nagar, Lucknow and Jhansi. For Kanpur Nagar and Lucknow, relatively high urbanisation seems to be a contributing factor for their higher ranks in HDI. To some extent, this is true for other top ranked districts also.

**Table 2.3: Progress of Human Development in U.P.**

Index	Year			Improvement in %	
	1991	2001	2005	1991-2001	2001-2005
HDI	0.4249	0.5442	0.5709	28.08	4.90
GDI	--	0.4910	0.5277	--	7.47
Deprivation Index	65.12	54.53	--	-16.26	--

Source: Computed for the Report



14. Among the bottom ten districts, 8 belong to the Eastern Region of state and two (Rampur and Budaun) belong to the Western region (Fig.2.2). The reason for Rampur and Budaun, the districts belonging to the relatively developed Western region is that these districts have low literacy rate and also high infant mortality rate. This again confirms that income alone cannot ensure human development. It is also brought out from the Table 2.4 that even in the Western region there are districts other than Rampur and Budaun that have low ranks in terms of HDI. For example, districts like Moradabad, Bareilly, Shahjahanpur, and Hardoi have much lower ranks in HDI. On the other hand, from the Eastern region

districts like Varanasi, Chandauli, Allahabad, Gorakhpur, Mau have relatively higher ranks in HDI. From the Bundelkhand region, Jhansi is in the top ten districts, while Mahoba, Hamirpur and Banda occupy middle ranks. From the Central region, Rae Bareli, Sitapur, Barabanki, Pratapgarh have low HDI rank, though Kanpur Nagar and Lucknow are in the top bracket. The upshot of this analysis is that there is considerable intra-regional variation in HDI. Although the dispersion for all the 70 districts appear low, the Coefficient of Variation in HDI being 9.87 per cent for 2005.

15. Table 2.4 arranges districts in four groups according to the value of HDI. Seventeen districts fall in

**Table 2.4: Districts Arranged According to Value of HDI, 2005**

High (Above 0.60)		Medium (0.55 to 0.59)			Low (0.50 to 0.54)			Very Low (Below 0.50)			
Rank	District	HDI	Rank	District	HDI	Rank	District	HDI	Rank	District	HDI
1	Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.7017	18	Muzaffarnagar	0.5937	41	Banda	0.5456	61	Basti	0.4921
2	Ghaziabad	0.6566	19	Mau	0.5910	42	Kheri	0.5426	62	Rampur	0.4915
3	Kanpur Nagar	0.6506	20	Chitrakoot	0.5907	43	Deoria	0.5418	63	Mahrajganj	0.4906
4	Lucknow	0.6477	21	Mainpuri	0.5891	44	Azamgarh	0.5414	64	Sant Kabir Nagar	0.4800
5	Baghpat	0.6392	22	Chandauli	0.5876	45	Unnao	0.5397	65	Gonda	0.4780
6	Meerut	0.6300	23	Firozabad	0.5876	46	Sultanpur	0.5388	66	Siddharth Nagar	0.4690
7	Agra	0.6215	24	Bijnor	0.5866	47	Pilibhit	0.5372	67	Budaun	0.4605
8	Jhansi	0.6214	25	Kannauj	0.5861	48	Etah	0.5361	68	Balrampur	0.4476
9	Saharanpur	0.6173	26	Ballia	0.5814	49	Lalitpur	0.5345	69	Bahraich	0.4404
10	Mathura	0.6163	27	Farrukhabad	0.5773	50	Fatehpur	0.5334	70	Shravasti	0.4132
11	Hathras	0.6159	28	Gorakhpur	0.5759	51	Bareilly	0.5332			
12	Etawah	0.6090	29	Allahabad	0.5739	52	Barabanki	0.5297			
13	Kanpur Dehat	0.6077	30	Aligarh	0.5738	53	Pratapgarh	0.5284			
14	Auraiya	0.6074	31	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	0.5722	54	Moradabad	0.5266			
15	Varanasi	0.6068	32	Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.5706	55	Rae Bareli	0.5230			
16	Jalaun	0.6059	33	Ghazipur	0.5702	56	Kaushambi	0.5212			
17	Bulandshahar	0.6017	34	Mahoba	0.5690	57	Sitapur	0.5143			
			35	Hamirpur	0.5678	58	Shahjahanpur	0.5133			
			36	Sonbhadra	0.5619	59	Hardoi	0.5103			
			37	Ambedkar Nagar	0.5580	60	Kushinagar	0.5049			
			38	Jaunpur	0.5546						
			39	Faizabad	0.5544						
			40	Mirzapur	0.5534						

the high value category (HDI above 0.60). Ten out of these districts fall in the Western Region, while only one belongs to Eastern Region. The all 70 districts of U.P. with the sole exception of Gautam budhha Nagar have lower HDI levels as compared to the national average (0.6639). One can observe a distinct spatial clustering of districts according to level of HDI (Map 2.1). The districts on the western fringe mostly belonging to Western region have highest value of HDI. Districts belonging to eastern plans fall in the medium category. Most of the districts of central region have low HDI value, while the *tarai* districts have the lowest HDI.

### V. Progress of Human Development Across Districts

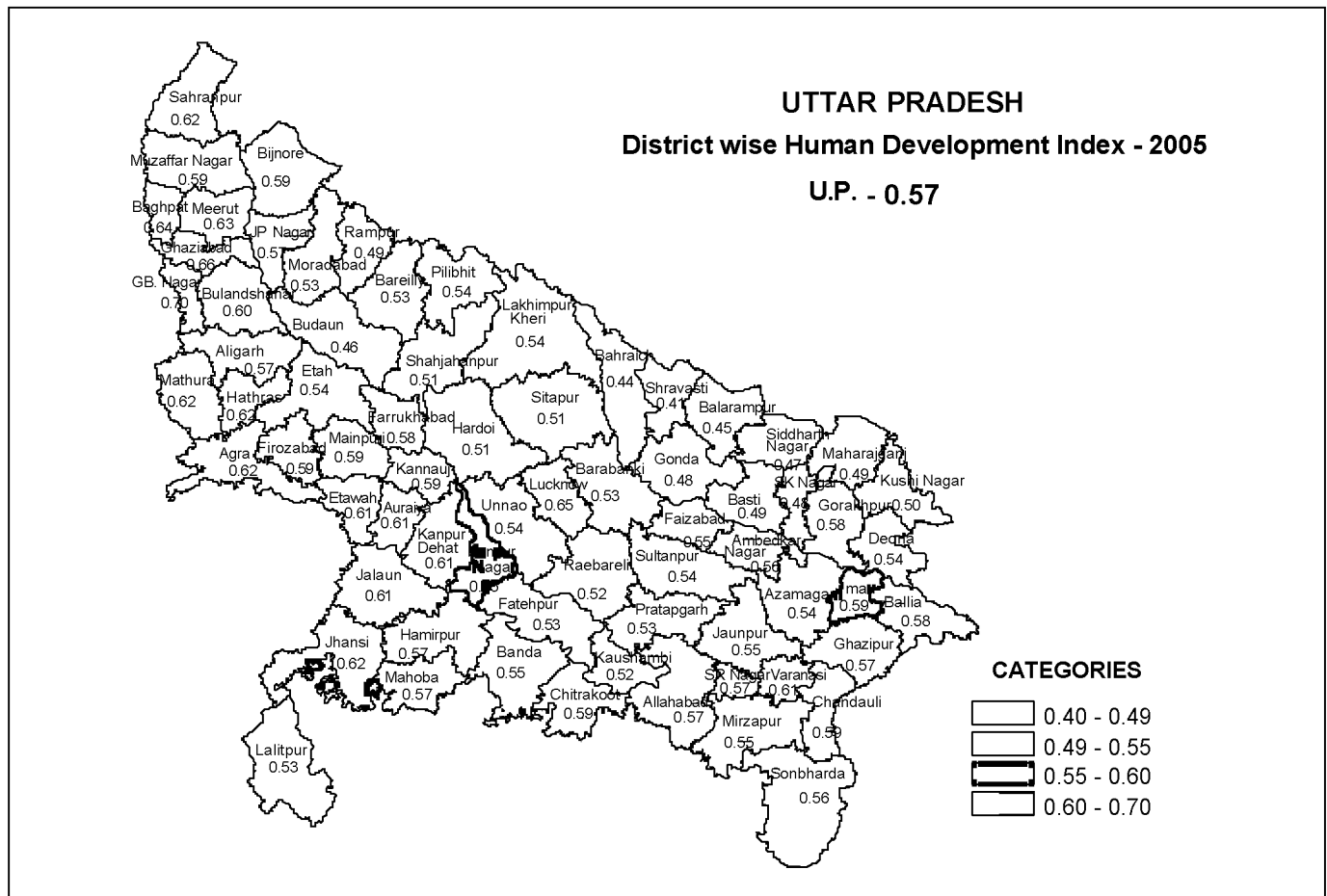
16. We have also calculated the HDI for 70 districts, as they exist now for the years 1991 and 2001. For new districts, some data for the year 1991 have been statistically interpolated. This would help us to know the progress the districts have made over the years in HDI as also the change in their relative rankings in terms of HDI. The HDI values for all the 70 districts for 1991, 2001 and 2005 are presented in Appendix Table 2.1. The

first inference that can be drawn is that all the districts have marked an increase in their HDI values over the period 1991-2005. However, the improvement in HDI values has not been uniform across the districts.

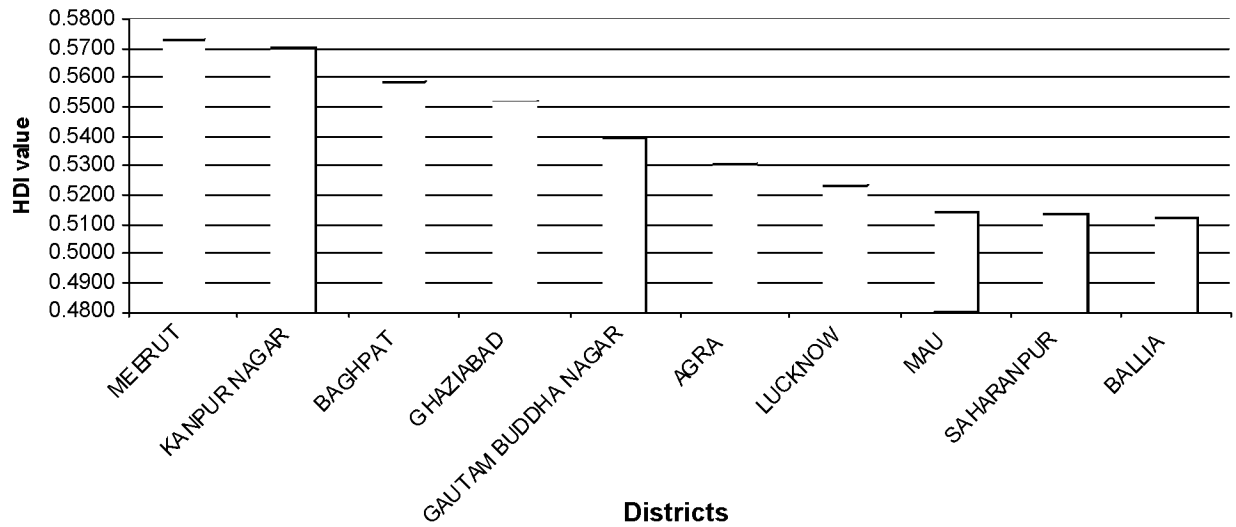
17. In 1991, the highest ranked district happened to be Meerut with HDI value of 0.5735. At the bottom was Bahraich with an HDI of 0.2671. Budaun with an HDI of 0.2752 was second from the bottom In the top ten districts 6 were from the Western region, Kanpur Nagar and Lucknow from the Central region and Mau and Ballia from the Eastern region (Fig. 2.3). Among the bottom ten districts 8 districts were from the Eastern region (Fig. 2.4). Shahjahanpur and Buduan district of West U.P. was also in this category.

18. The situation did not change much in the year 2001. Gautam Buddha Nagar district with a HDI value of 0.6740 occupied the top rank, while Shrawasti with a HDI value of 0.4042 was at the bottom. Interestingly, Mau and Ballia districts that were among top ten slipped to lower position and were replaced by Auraiya and Jhansi (Fig. 2.5). Among the bottom ten districts, except Rampur and Mahoba, all other districts continued to be from the Eastern region (Fig. 2.6).

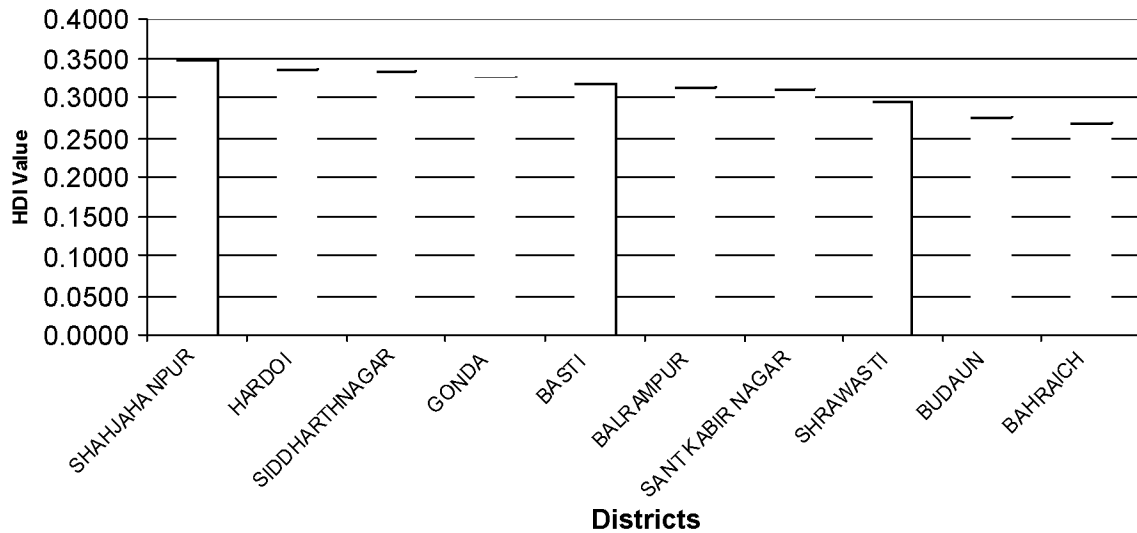
Map 2.1



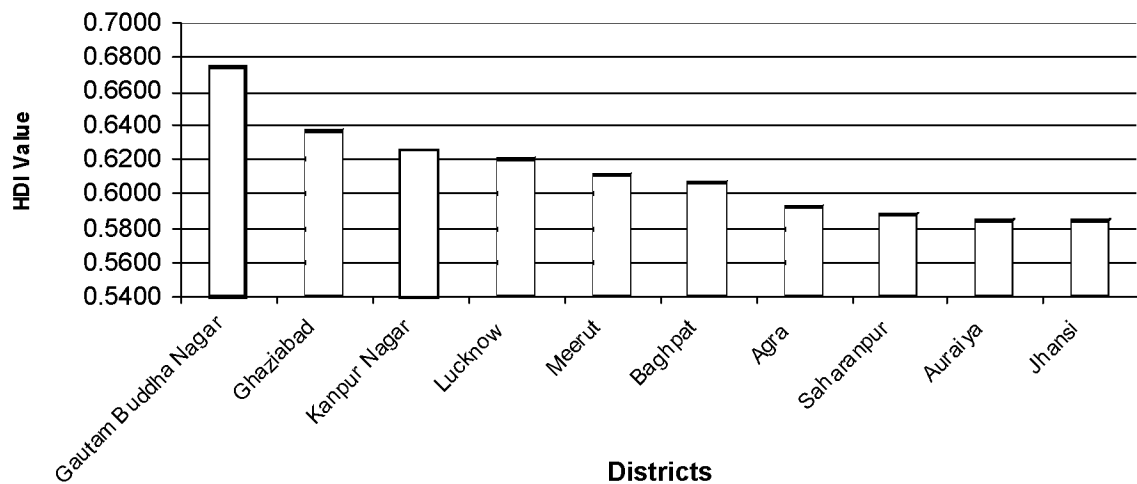
**Fig. 2.3 Ten Best performing Districts in terms of HDI in 1991**



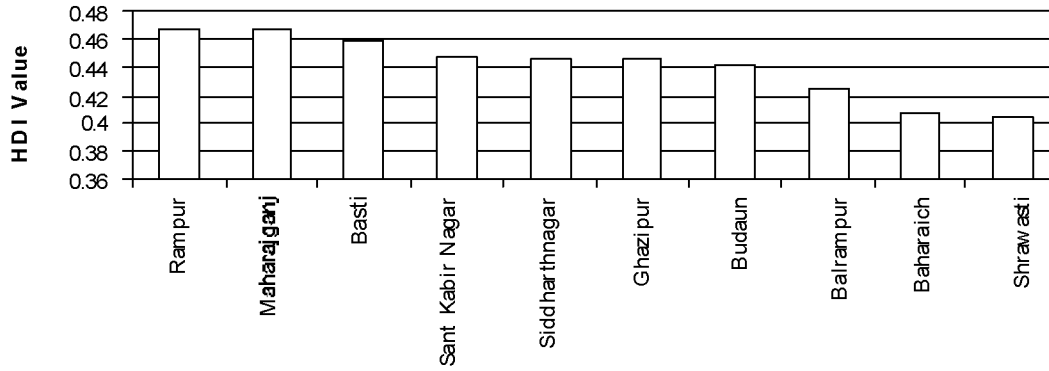
**Fig.2.4 Ten Worst performing districts in term of HDI in 1991**



**Fig. 2.5 Ten Best Performing Districts in Terms of HDI in 2001**



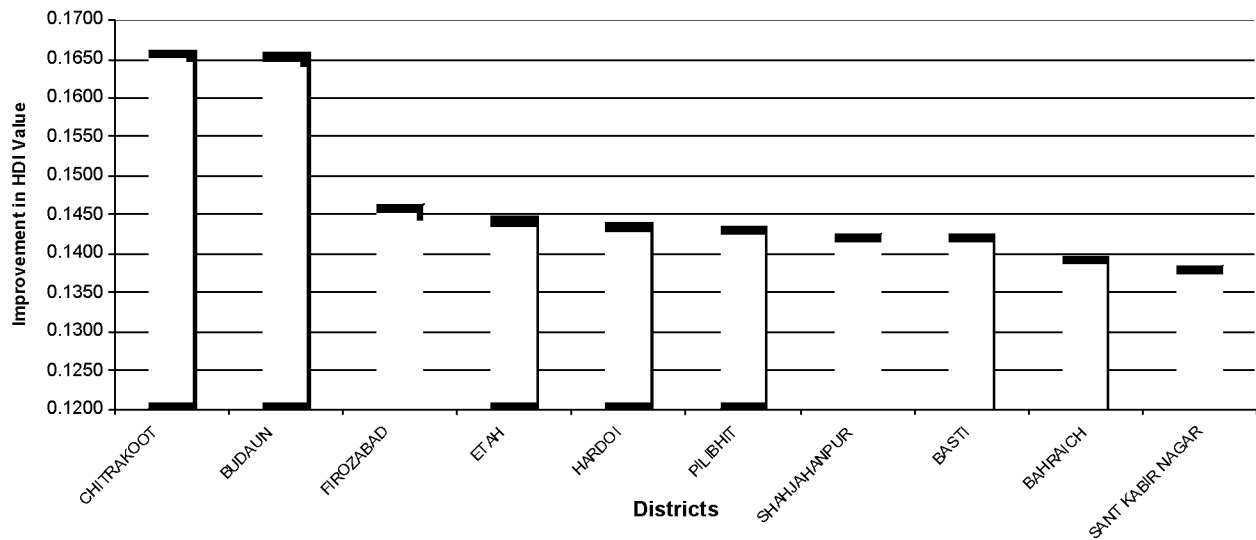
**Fig.2.6 Ten Worst Performing districts in terms of HDI in 2001**



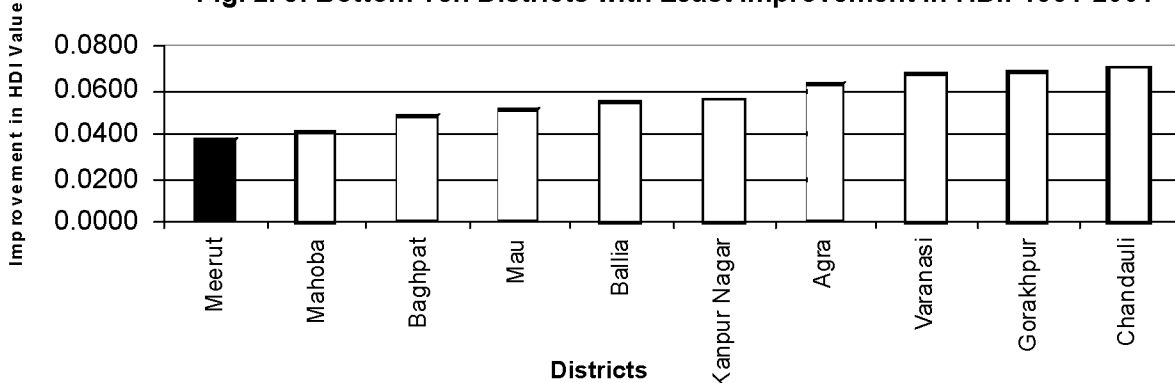
19. There were changes also in the relative rankings of the districts between 1991-2001 and to a lesser degree during 2001-2005 due to the differential improvement recorded in HDI by the districts. Chitrakoot district recorded the highest absolute increment in its HDI in the period 1991-2001. The least absolute

increment was recorded by district Meerut. The top ten districts recording highest improvement in HDI were relatively backward districts and at the same time, least improvement in HDI took place among the relatively developed districts (see Fig. 2.7 and Fig. 2.8).

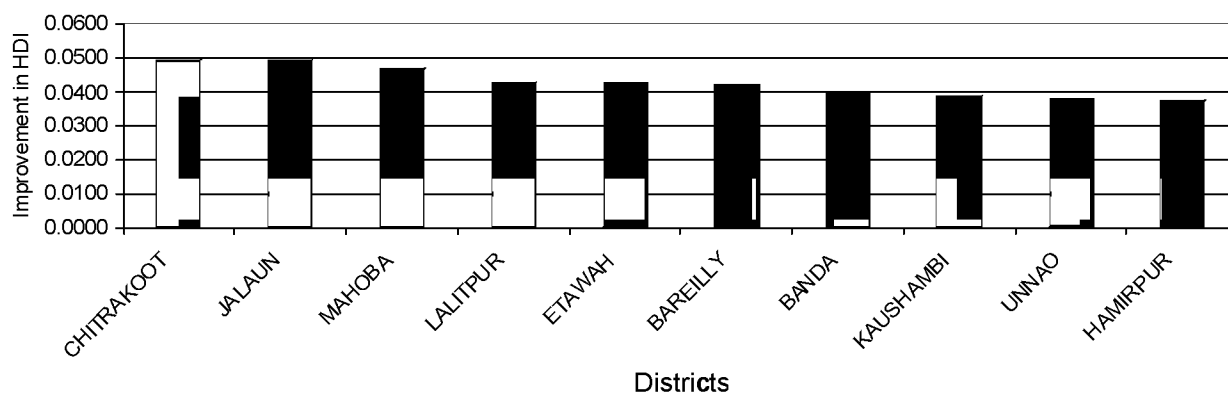
**Fig. 2.7 Top Ten Districts with Highest Improvement in HDI 1991-2001**



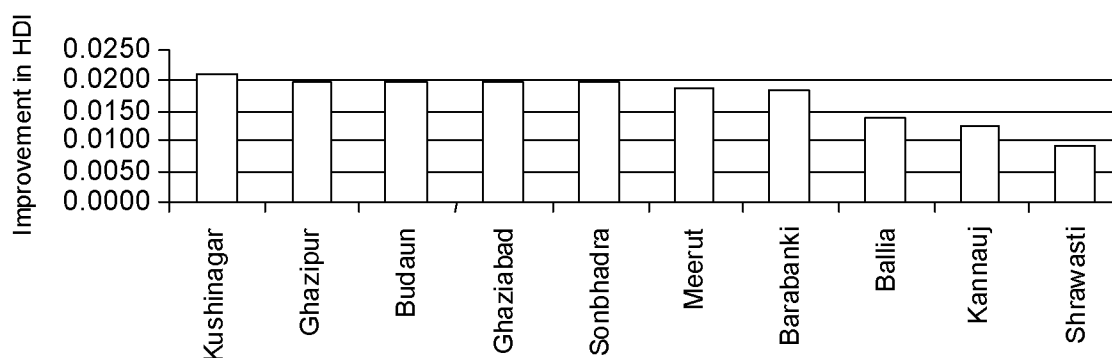
**Fig. 2.8: Bottom Ten Districts with Least Improvement in HDI: 1991-2001**



**Fig. 2.9: Top Ten Districts with Highest Improvement in HDI ( 2001-2005)**



**Fig. 2.10: Bottom Ten Districts with Least Improvement in HDI (2001-05)**



20. In the period 2001-2005 also Chitrakoot recorded the highest increment (0.0496) in HDI while Shrawasti recorded the least increment (0.0091) in HDI. Further, the districts recording the higher increase in HDI belonged to the category of backward districts; while some of the districts recording lower increment in HDI are developed ones (see Fig.2.9 and Fig.2.10). Thus, there is a tendency of convergence in terms of HDI among the districts of U.P. This is reflected in the fact that the *Coefficient of Variation in HDI, declined from 17.07% in 1991 to 10.33% in 2001 and further to 9.87% in 2005.*

## VI. Trends in Gender Development Index

21. As stated above GDI was calculated for the years 2001 and 2005 only. For 1991, this could not be done, as male, female wage rates for all the districts were not available. The GDI values for the districts for the year 2001 and 2005 are given in the Appendix Table 2.5. For the state, GDI value in 2001 was 0.4910, which improved to 0.5277 in 2005, indicating a decline in gender disparities in the state.

22. There are marked differences in the GDI across districts ranging from a low of 0.3620 in Budaun to 0.6018

in Gautambudh Nagar districts. Table 2.5 classifies districts according to the range of GDI values. Seventeen districts fall in high GDI category (GDI above 0.55), 31 districts in middle category (GDI between 0.50 and 0.55) and 22 districts in the low category (GDI below 0.50). The high value districts are scattered across the state. Seven of these are in Western Region, 3 in Central Region, 3 in Bundelkhand and 4 in Eastern Region. In the bottom category also 7 districts are from Western Region, 9 from Eastern Region, 5 from Central Region and 1 belong to Bundelkhand. The districts on the northern tarai belt of the state from Rampur in the west to Kushinagar in the east have the lowest level of GDI (see Map 2.2).

23. Table 2.6 shows the change in GDI between 2001 and 2005. All districts show an improvement in GDI over the period indicating a decline in gender disparity across the state. It is observed that the district Budaun has the lowest value of GDI and this district has also shown the lowest improvement in its GDI value during the period 2001-2005. Vigorous efforts are needed to improve the literacy and health condition of women in this district. The rate of improvement has differed over the districts. The best performing district was Bareilly showing an improvement of 0.0702 in the index. The

Map 2.2

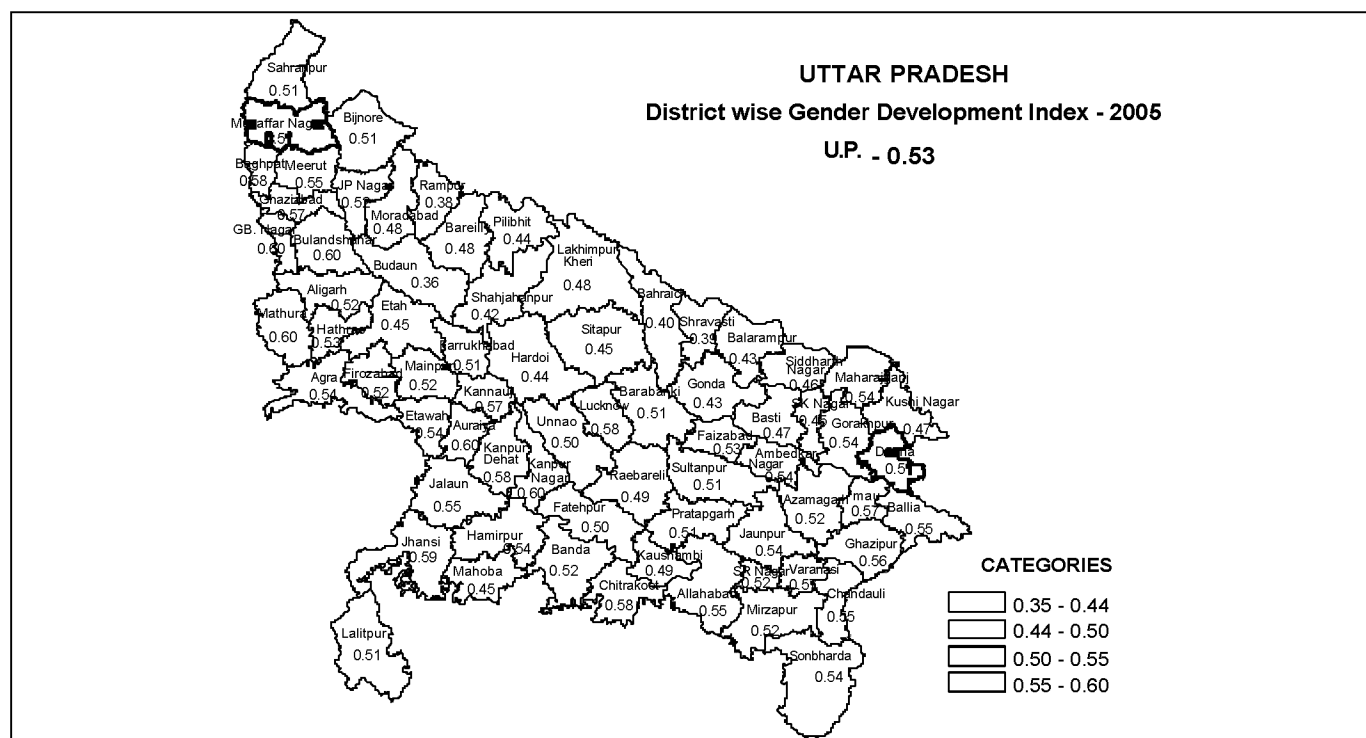


Table 2.5: Districts Arranged According to the Value of GDI, 2005

High (0.55 & above)			Medium (0.50 to 0.55)			Low (Below 0.50)		
Rank	District	GDI	Rank	District	GDI	Rank	District	GDI
1	Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.6018	18	Allahabad	0.5493	49	Fatehpur	0.4992
2	Kanpur Nagar	0.6006	19	Ballia	0.5479	50	Kaushambi	0.4939
3	Auraiya	0.5998	20	Meerut	0.5476	51	Rae Bareilly	0.4899
4	Bulandshahar	0.5992	21	Etawah	0.5450	52	Bareilly	0.4836
5	Mathura	0.5959	22	Gorakhpur	0.5441	53	Kheri	0.4829
6	Jhansi	0.5858	23	Mahrajanj	0.5399	54	Moradabad	0.4756
7	Baghpat	0.5823	24	Ambedkar Nagar	0.5389	55	Kushinagar	0.4742
8	Kanpur Dehat	0.5787	25	Jaunpur	0.5383	56	Basti	0.4663
9	Lucknow	0.5770	26	Hamirpur	0.5363	57	Siddharthnagar	0.4638
10	Chitrakoot	0.5763	27	Sonbhadra	0.5351	58	Etah	0.4531
11	Mau	0.5701	28	Agra	0.5350	59	Sant Kabir Nagar	0.4521
12	Kannauj	0.5681	29	Faizabad	0.5328	60	Sitapur	0.4495
13	Varanasi	0.5674	30	Hathras	0.5323	61	Mahoba	0.4454
14	Ghaziabad	0.5652	31	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	0.5241	62	Hardoi	0.4450
15	Ghazipur	0.5607	32	Azamgarh	0.5211	63	Pilibhit	0.4368
16	Chandauli	0.5549	33	Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.5211	64	Balampur	0.4307
17	Jalaun	0.5507	34	Aligarh	0.5208	65	Gonda	0.4274
			35	Mirzapur	0.5202	66	Shahjahanpur	0.4210
			36	Mainpuri	0.5200	67	Bahraich	0.3997
			37	Firozabad	0.5191	68	Shrawasti	0.3925
			38	Banda	0.5176	69	Rampur	0.3849
			39	Saharanpur	0.5131	70	Budaun	0.3620
			40	Lalitpur	0.5103			
			41	Sultanpur	0.5096			
			42	Deoria	0.5085			
			43	Farrukhabad	0.5077			
			44	Bijnor	0.5068			
			45	Muzaffarnagar	0.5067			
			46	Barabanki	0.5057			
			47	Pratapgarh	0.5051			
			48	Unnao	0.5035			

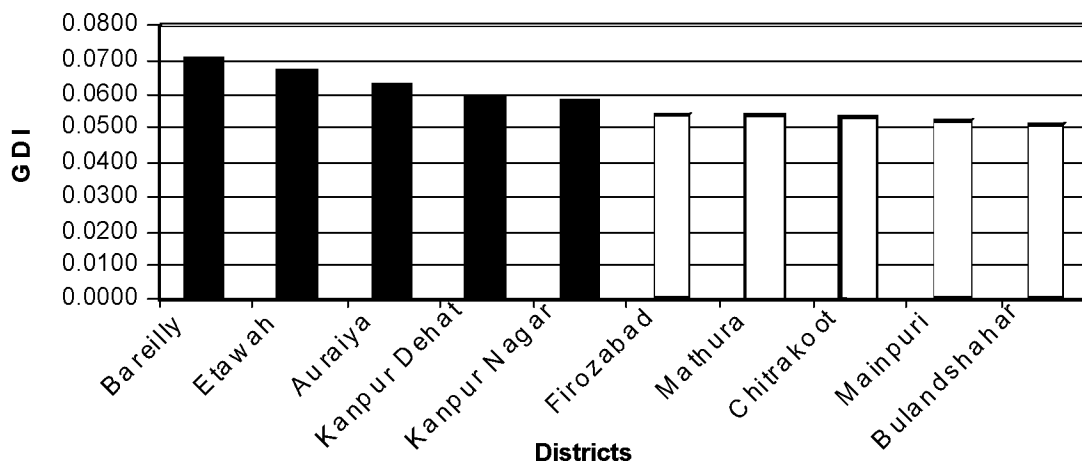
ten best performing district in this respect are Bareilly, Etawah, Auraiya, Kanpur Nagar, Kanpur Dehat, Firozabad, Mathura, Chitrakoot, Mainpuri and Bulandshahar. (Fig. 2.11). It may be noted that the western districts show a better performance in this respect in general. On the other hand, as many as 15 districts show a slow improvement of less than 0.03 in GDI over the period.

Ten of these districts belong to Eastern Region, 4 to Western Region, and 1 to Central Region. The ten districts showing poorest performance in improvement in GDI are: Faizabad, Mirzapur, Siddharthnagar, Hathras, Fatehpur, Shrawasti, Ballia, Meerut, Sonbhadra and Budaun. (Fig. 2.12). Special efforts are needed in these districts for improvement in the condition of women.

**Table 2.6: Districts Arranged According to Improvement in GDI Between 2001 and 2005**

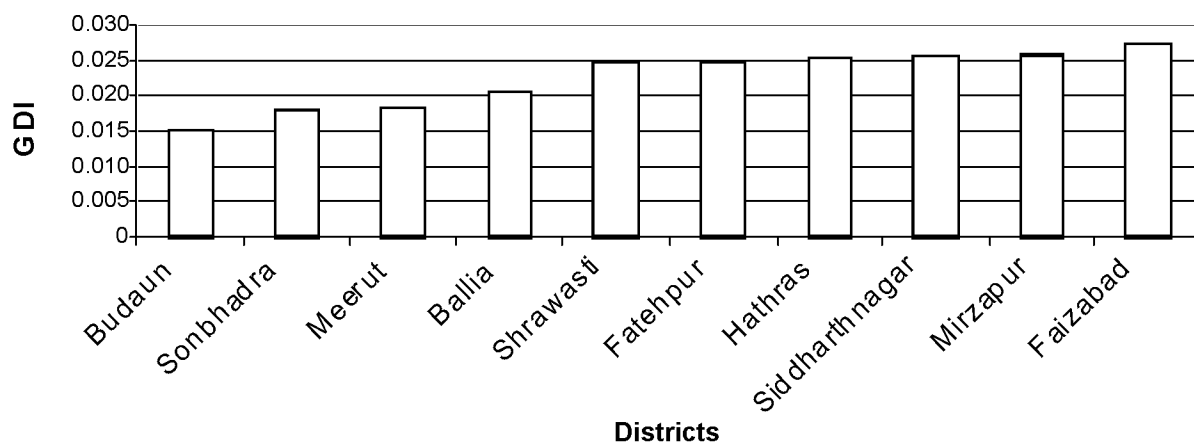
High (Above 0.045)		Medium (0.035 to 0.045)		Low (Below 0.035)	
District	Change	District	Change	District	Change
Bareilly	0.0702	Aligarh	0.0449	Hamirpur	0.0345
Etawah	0.0670	Sitapur	0.0447	Ghazipur	0.0344
Auraiya	0.0625	Sultanpur	0.0446	Jaunpur	0.0342
Kanpur Dehat	0.0592	Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.0440	Bahraich	0.0339
Kanpur Nagar	0.0578	Jhansi	0.0430	Deoria	0.0337
Firozabad	0.0542	Barabanki	0.0420	Bijnor	0.0336
Mathura	0.0538	Ambedkar Nagar	0.0420	Pratapgarh	0.0333
Chitrakoot	0.0529	Kaushambi	0.0415	Mahoba	0.0323
Mainpuri	0.0527	Farrukhabad	0.0413	Baghpat	0.0316
Bulandshahar	0.0514	Hardoi	0.0413	Azamgarh	0.0315
Kheri	0.0498	Chandauli	0.0412	Kushinagar	0.0304
Moradabad	0.0493	Rae Bareli	0.0409	Muzaffarnagar	0.0301
Shahjahanpur	0.0493	Sant Kabir Nagar	0.0402	Balrampur	0.0299
Unnao	0.0489	Saharanpur	0.0395	Varanasi	0.0287
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	0.0488	Jalaun	0.0387	Mau	0.0284
Mahrajganj	0.0465	Allahabad	0.0385	Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.0277
Basti	0.0462	Banda	0.0381	Pilibhit	0.0276
Lalitpur	0.0460	Lucknow	0.0372	Faizabad	0.0273
Kannauj	0.0456	Ghaziabad	0.0368	Mirzapur	0.0257
Agra	0.0453	Etah	0.0366	Siddharthnagar	0.0254
		Rampur	0.0366	Hathras	0.0253
		Gonda	0.0353	Fatehpur	0.0246
		Gorakhpur	0.0350	Shrawasti	0.0245
				Ballia	0.0204
				Meerut	0.0182
				Sonbhadra	0.0177
				Budaun	0.0150

**Fig. 2.11 Districts showing Highest Improvement in GDI during 2001-2005**

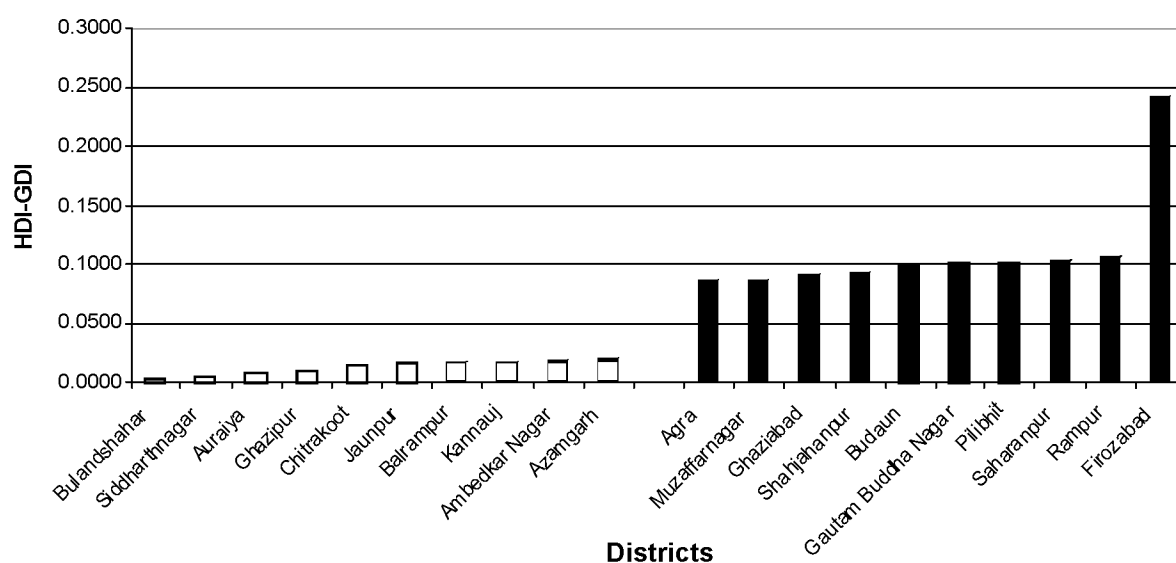




**Fig. 2.12 Districts showing Least Improvement in GDI 2001-2005**



**Fig. 2.13 Difference between HDI & GDI Highest and Lowest in 2005**



24. At the state level the GDI value (0.5277) is lower than HDI values (0.5709), showing the marked gender gap in terms of human development. This is true for the districts also. A comparison of HDI ranks and GDI ranks across districts shows that in general the districts in the Western region have better ranks in HDI as compared to GDI in the year 2005. However, the district Bulandshahar from the Western region is an exception in this respect; it has the lowest difference in its HDI and GDI values (.0025). On the other hand, districts from Eastern region and Bundelkhand region are relatively better on the GDI front. The difference between the HDI value and the GDI value depicts the extent of gender disparities. (Fig. 2.13). This contrast in HDI and GDI ranks can be attributed largely to the higher work participation rate of women in backward regions.

25. Thus, a higher HDI value is not necessarily accompanied by a higher GDI value, as a number of socio-cultural factors affect the latter. It can be said that the development of a region (especially in terms of per capita income) does not necessarily mean empowerment and human development of women. *Development, therefore, needs to be consciously engendered.*

## VII. Deprivation in Basic Amenities

26. As stated earlier in place of HPI, we have calculated the Deprivation Index for the years 1991 and 2001 based on the Census data. This has been done because the data on the health deprivation indicator, namely, percentage of people not expected to survive to age 40 was not available for the year 2001 at the district level. Kerala's State Human Development Report

also uses a similar Deprivation Index for the districts. As indicated in Table 2.1 the Deprivation Index measures deprivation in quality of housing (% of households living in kuccha houses), deprivation in access to water (% of households without drinking water sources in or near the house), deprivation in good sanitation (% of households living in houses without toilet facility and deprivation in electricity lighting (% of households living in houses without electricity facility).

27. The Deprivation Index for all the districts in 1991 and 2001 is presented in the Appendix Tables 2.8 and 2.9. The Deprivation Index for U.P. was 65.12 in 1991, which declined to 54.53 in 2001. Though there has been noticeable improvement in the situation, the Deprivation Index is still very high in the state as more than half of the population is deprived of the basic amenities.

28. Table 2.7 arranges districts according to the Deprivation Index in 2001. There were only 16 districts where deprivation level is less than 50 per cent, in 17 districts Deprivation Index is between 0.50 and 0.60. In another 18 districts the Deprivation Index is between 0.60 and 0.65 and in the remaining 19 districts it is above 0.65. The Deprivation Index seems linked to the degree of urbanization of the district. Overall deprivation is more in Eastern, Bundelkhand and Central regions of the State. Districts in the Western region have lesser degree of deprivation (see Map 2.3 and Fig. 2.14).

## VIII. Conclusion

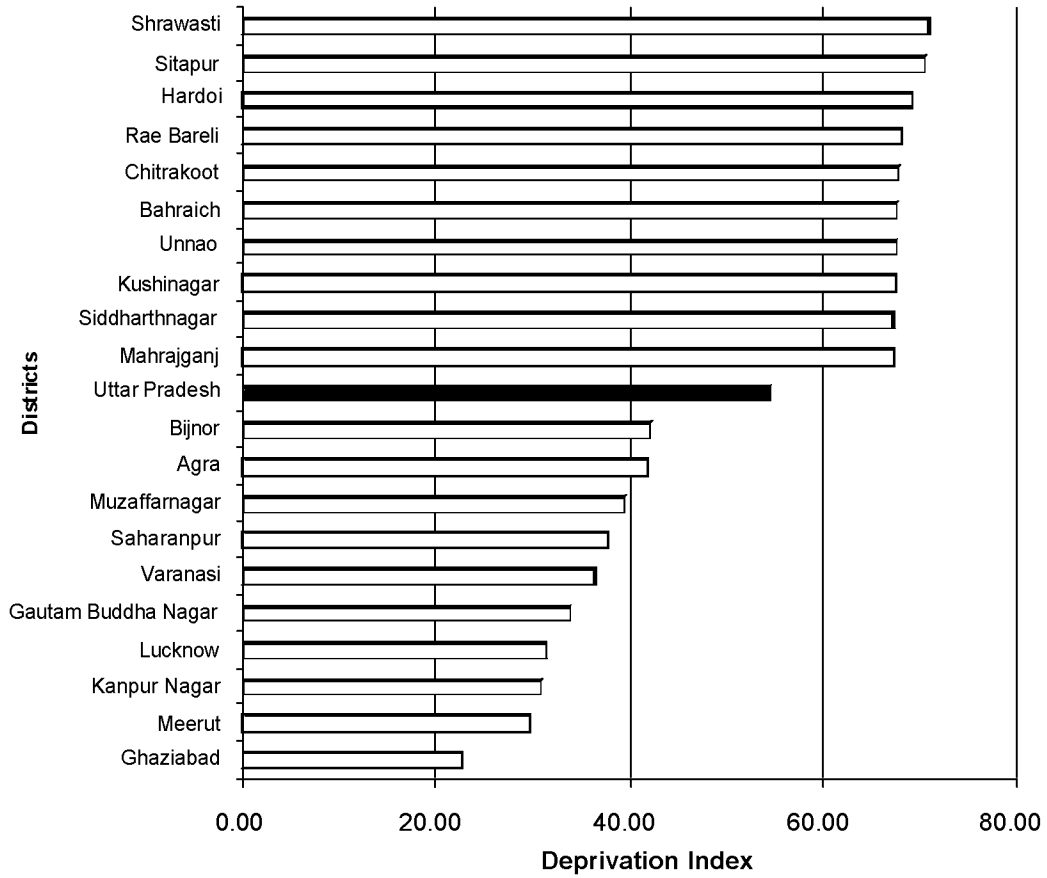
29. The above analysis reveals that in terms of human development U. P. continues to be far behind not only the high performing state of Kerala, but also behind the other backward states like Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. The analysis also reveals very high inter-regional and inter district disparities in human development and its various dimensions in the state. However, in the recent years there is a trend towards convergence between backward and developed districts. Many districts that had low HDI values initially made large improvement in their HDI values subsequently due to the special efforts made under government programmes like *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*. This shows that despite their many inadequacies, the state directed developmental policies had some impact in raising the level of human development in backward districts.

30. The gender gap in human development is quite evident in the state. In all districts, the GDI values are less than the corresponding HDI values. However, the degree of gender disparities varies considerably across the districts. Many developed districts, having a higher rank in HDI, happen to have lower ranks in the GDI. On the other hand, many of the relatively backward districts which ranked lower on HDI have much better rank in regard to GDI. There are many socio-economic reasons impacting upon the status of women in different regions, which have to be addressed squarely.

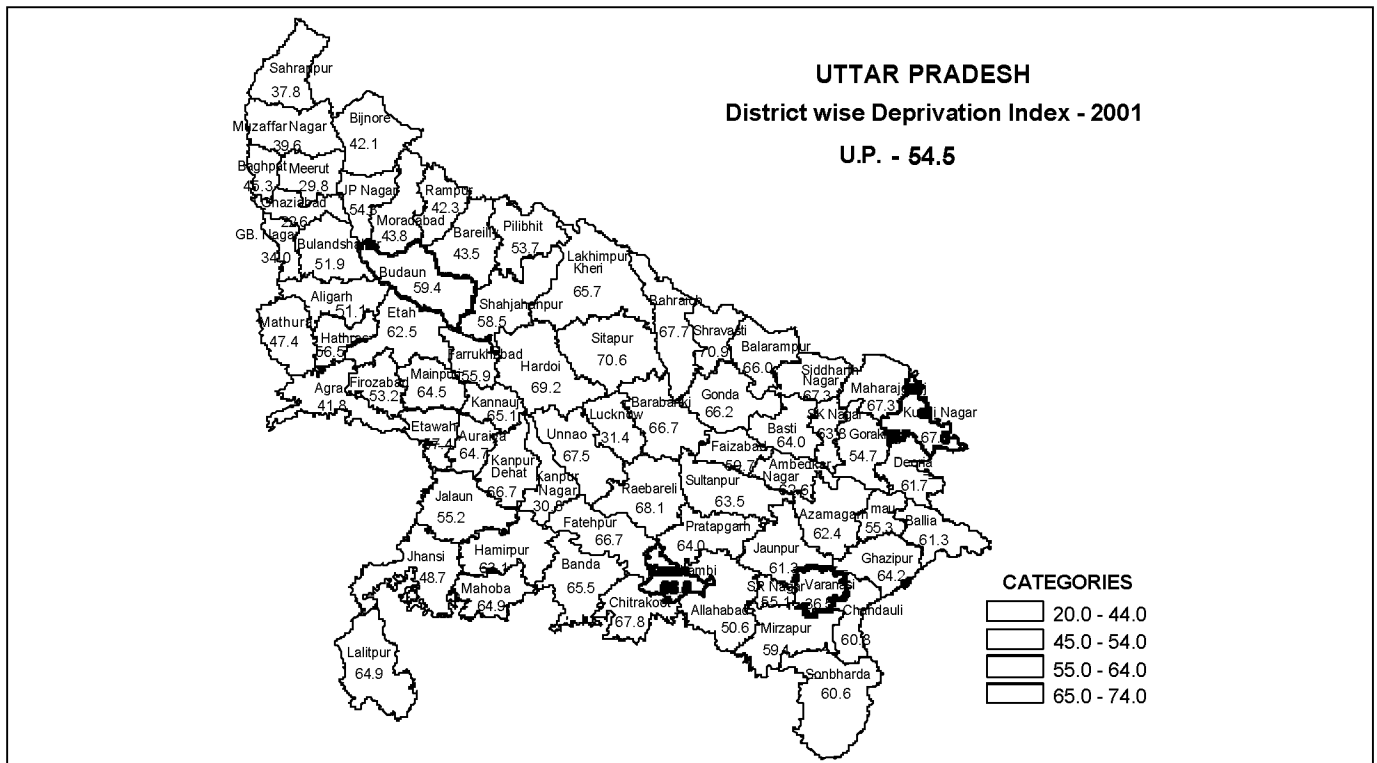
**Table 2.7: Districts Arranged According to Deprivation Index, 2001**

Table 2.7: Districts Arranged According to Deprivation Index, 2001											
Low (Below 0.50)			Medium (0.50 to 0.60)			High (0.60 to 0.65)			Very High (0.65 & above)		
Rank	District	Index	Rank	District	Index	Rank	District	Index	Rank	District	Index
1	Ghaziabad	22.63	17	Allahabad	50.58	34	Sonbhadra	60.56	52	Kannauj	65.07
2	Meerut	29.82	18	Aligarh	51.09	35	Chandauli	60.75	53	Banda	65.49
3	Kanpur Nagar	30.81	19	Bulandshahar	51.95	36	Jaunpur	61.28	54	Kheri	65.75
4	Lucknow	31.39	20	Firozabad	53.15	37	Ballia	61.29	55	Balrampur	65.99
5	Gautam Buddha Nagar	34.04	21	Pilibhit	53.66	38	Deoria	61.72	56	Gonda	66.24
6	Varanasi	36.46	22	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	54.29	39	Azamgarh	62.43	57	Fatehpur	66.71
7	Saharanpur	37.77	23	Gorakhpur	54.71	40	Etah	62.48	58	Kanpur Dehat	66.73
8	Muzaffarnagar	39.61	24	Sant Ravidas Nagar	55.06	41	Ambedkar Nagar	62.62	59	Barabanki	66.74
9	Agra	41.83	25	Jalaun	55.20	42	Hamirpur	63.13	60	Kaushambi	66.77
10	Bijnor	42.12	26	Mau	55.27	43	Sultanpur	63.46	61	Mahrajganj	67.25
11	Rampur	42.27	27	Farrukhabad	55.94	44	Sant Kabir Nagar	63.80	62	Siddharth Nagar	67.29
12	Bareilly	43.53	28	Hathras	56.52	45	Basti	64.02	63	Kushinagar	67.49
13	Moradabad	43.77	29	Etawah	57.45	46	Pratapgarh	64.04	64	Unnao	67.52
14	Baghpat	45.31	30	Shahjahanpur	58.52	47	Ghazipur	64.17	65	Bahraich	67.67
15	Mathura	47.43	31	Budaun	59.36	48	Mainpuri	64.46	66	Chitrakoot	67.84
16	Jhansi	48.72	32	Mirzapur	59.43	49	Auraiya	64.67	67	Rae Bareli	68.06
			33	Faizabad	59.71	50	Lalitpur	64.90	68	Hardoi	69.20
						51	Mahoba	64.91	69	Sitapur	70.55
									70	Shrawasti	70.92

Fig. 2.14 Deprivation Index in UP 2001



Map 2.3



31. There are aspects of deprivations afflicting the state, which are not fully reflected in the HDI. The deprivation Index calculated for this report paints a grim picture. The large majority of households in the state still lack adequate basic amenities like safe drinking water, sanitation, housing and electricity for lighting. Although some improvement in the provision of amenities is evident much work remains to be done in this regard. This task should be taken up on a priority basis in the development plans of the state.

32. One needs to be careful in interpreting the HDI and other indices. Their limitations should also be kept in mind. These indices are helpful in providing a broad view of development in a region. In a diverse and a big state like U. P. the micro-level aspects of

development should not be lost sight of. At the state and district level, quality and availability of data also impose a serious constraint in the computation of human development indices. There is an urgent need to standardize the relevant indicators and ensure their availability at regular intervals.

33. Finally, it may be observed that there has been a distinct progress in the recent past in all dimensions of human development in the state as well as in its various districts. However, the situation remains far from satisfactory both in absolute and relative sense. This reflects the poor economic conditions of the state and its people. Very bold and determined efforts are needed to boost the economic growth in the state and bring about an improvement in the human development status of the people.

## The Condition of Health

### I. Introduction

1. It needs to be acknowledged that in Uttar Pradesh, in last several years, there has been progress on several health development parameters such as the overall decline in childhood mortality, maternal mortality and incidence of preventable diseases. However, in comparison to other states and developing countries, progress in UP leaves considerable scope for improvement. For instance, over the last decade (1990-2001), while Bangladesh and Nepal recorded a progress of 46% and 37% respectively in reduction in child mortality, India's progress was 24% and UP showed lower performance than the national average. Given the current trend, prospects of attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) seem difficult.

2. The state shows significant variation in health related burden and disability across regions and income groups. Both the rich and the poor face a very high burden of health related disability. However, the poor and women seem to be at a greater disadvantage, the incidence of IMR alone is found to be two and a half times higher amongst the poor. At the same time much lesser proportion of public resources are spent on the bottom 20 % of the population, in comparison to what is spent on the top 20 %.

3. Public sector's role in health service delivery is very marked in UP. Much of the mortality reduction during the past few decades is traceable to government-driven efforts, particularly, through immunization campaigns and focus on specific challenges like TB, etc. Given the limited capacities, in relation to the mandate at hand, such efforts have consumed much of the state's resources (human and financial). Understandably, curative care at the cutting edge level could not be given the kind of priority that it deserves. However, a very large number of private sector health providers exist in the state.

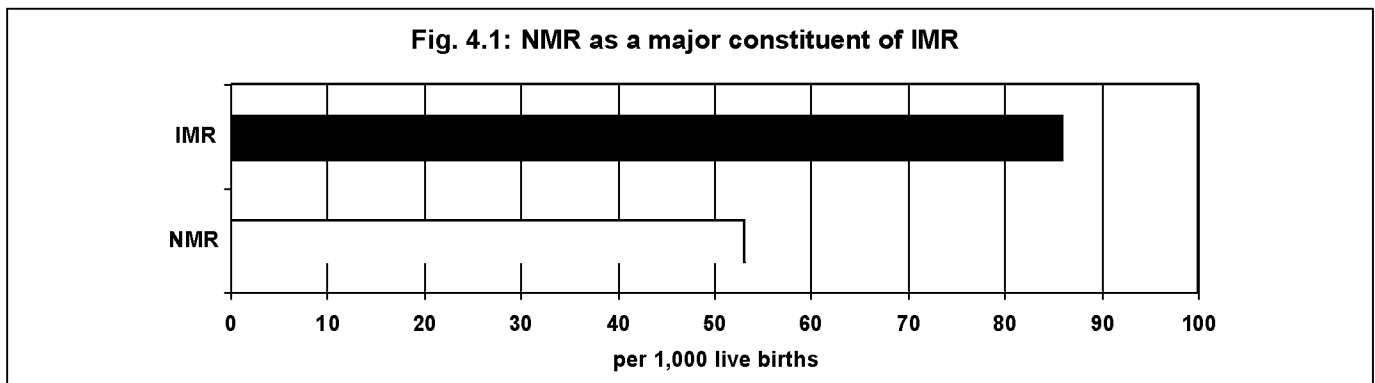
4. Health care in U.P. can be summarized as a composite challenge of access, quality and demand. The large public sector does not have adequate access besides being found wanting in the quality of care at the cutting edge line (PHCs and Sub-centers). The private sector has phenomenal access but a vast majority of this sector presents a picture of serious lack of quality to the extent that it often becomes a serious threat to the health of the people. It appears that a re-orientation of the health strategy in U.P., where the focus is increasingly on functionalizing existing structures; synergy through public private partnership particularly for reaching out to the poor and the marginalized; and on finding solutions through innovative interventions can enable us to meet UP's health challenge.

5. The future direction of human development circumstances in the state as in the country as a whole depends critically on the interventions in the health sector. This chapter looks at the health status in Uttar Pradesh with particular focus on women and the girl child and highlights future challenges in this area.

### II. The Mortality Challenge

#### Infant Mortality Rate

6. Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is often regarded as the summary of the health circumstances in a region. It is common knowledge that IMR in India, in general, is very high. In industrialized countries, IMR is measured at around five (*State of World Children 2005*), whereas, with the exception of Kerala, there is no state in India where IMR was observed to be lower than 40 in 2000. Even Middle East and North Africa with an IMR of 44 compare favorably with India, which has an IMR level of 58. It needs to be noted that one of the biggest reasons for high IMR in India happens to be poor performance or



high IMR levels in Uttar Pradesh. It is observed that nearly 25% of IMR incidence in the country is accounted for by Uttar Pradesh alone.

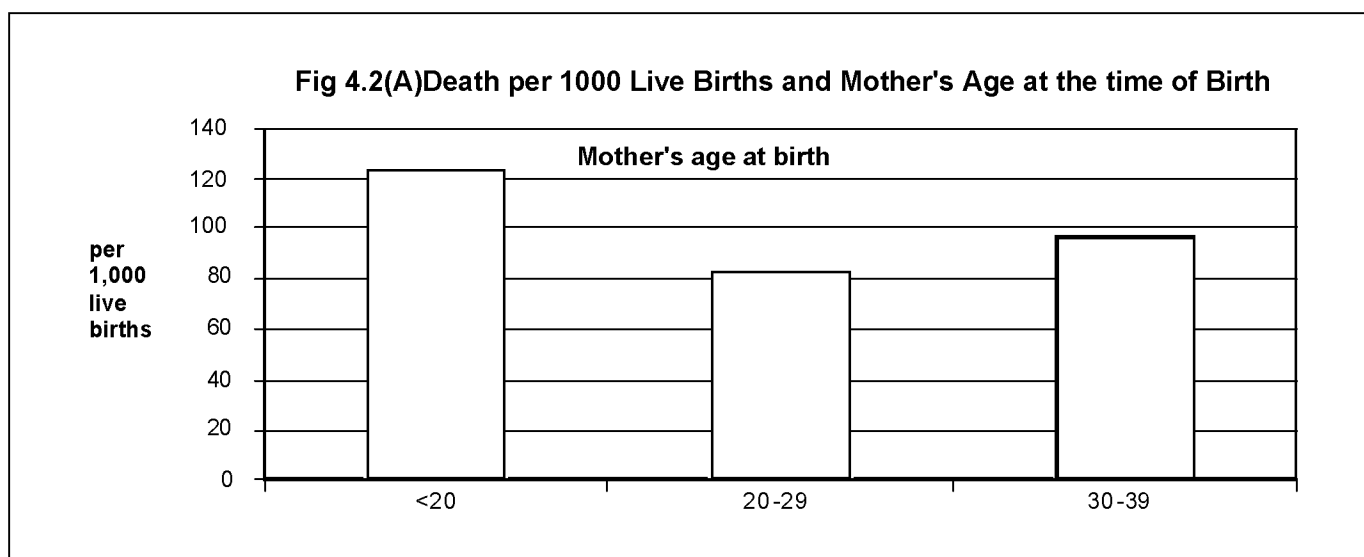
7. The crude death rate for UP was estimated at 20.1 per thousand in 1971 and it declined to 10.3 in 1997. It further declined to 8.7 in 2005-06. In rural areas, the rate declined from 21.1 to 10.7 and further to 9.1 during the same period and in urban areas it declined from 13.1 to 8.2 and further to 6.8. Much of this decline was due to sharp fall in the infant mortality rate, particularly after 1990. The infant mortality rate for the state was 182 per 1000 live births in 1971 and declined to 99 in 1990 and further to 73 in 2005-06 as per SRS, as compared to the all India average of 58. Past trends have demonstrated that while both the neo-natal and post-neonatal components of infant mortality have declined, the decline in neo-natal mortality has not kept pace with the decline in post neonatal mortality. Deaths during the neo-natal period (within 28 days of life) contribute to almost 64% of the infant mortality in the State. Figure 4.1 clearly shows that almost two-thirds of the IMR is accounted for by NMR alone.

8. A recent study published in WHO Bulletin 2006 attempts at determining the cause of neonatal death in UP. The study finds that 27% of the deaths are caused by pre term birth, 24% by sepsis and pneumonia, birth asphyxia and birth injury causes another 14% of the neonatal deaths. On the day of birth, asphyxia and preterm birth emerge as the most important killers. On day one and during the first week of the life, preterm birth and sepsis or pneumonia emerges as the big killers. From second week to fourth week, sepsis or pneumonia emerge as the more important cause of child death. When multiple causes of death were considered, 47% of neonatal death showed signs of sepsis or pneumonia, while 32% also met with the criteria for preterm birth.

9. Figure 4.2 (A) (B) & (C) capture the relationship between mortality and mother's age at the time of birth;

number of children and its relationship with mortality; and the relationship between death per 1000 live births and previous births intervals. The mortality estimates exhibit U-shaped pattern with respect to mother's age at the time of birth. Infant mortality is highest for children of mothers under age 20. *It is lower in age-group 20-29 but again it increased in age-group 30-39. Differential by birth order again show U-shaped pattern for order of birth with the exception of child mortality, which increases steadily with the birth order.* It is also found that child spacing patterns have a powerful effect on survival chances of children. Infant mortality is well over three times as high for children with a preceding interval of less than 24 months as for children with the preceding interval of 48 months or more (*National Family Health Survey Series*). Traditionally, the entire Health and Family Welfare Program was oriented towards sterilization. The above evidence points towards the fallacy of such a strategy. Spacing methods should have been the mainstay of the program. This could have ensured lower infant mortality rate in Uttar Pradesh. If evidence from Indonesia, Tamil Nadu and Kerala is to be believed, then low IMR would have ensured low population growth as well.

10. From the point of view of policy-makers, magnitudes of the risk ratios should be considered in conjunction with the percentage of women in each 'elevated risk' category. Most of the studies find that the highest risk ratio is for births of order four and above to women who were over 34 years of age, occurring within 24 months of the previous birth. However, only 1.2% of all births fell in this category (NHFS). Even a complete avoidance of such births will have little effect on the overall level of infant mortality. On the other hand, the risk ratio for births to mothers under age 18 is lower in comparison to 34-plus age group (2.11 compared to 3.42), but there are five times as many births in this category.



11. A large proportion of all births fall in one of the categories that include these short birth intervals and all these categories have high-risk ratios. It is very clear that a change in childbearing behavior of women in Uttar Pradesh can undoubtedly reduce mortality risks to children. Discouraging child bearing amongst women under age 18 is, therefore, likely to have a greater impact on overall mortality levels. It appears that reducing or eliminating births that occur less than 24 months apart could attain the greatest reduction in mortality.

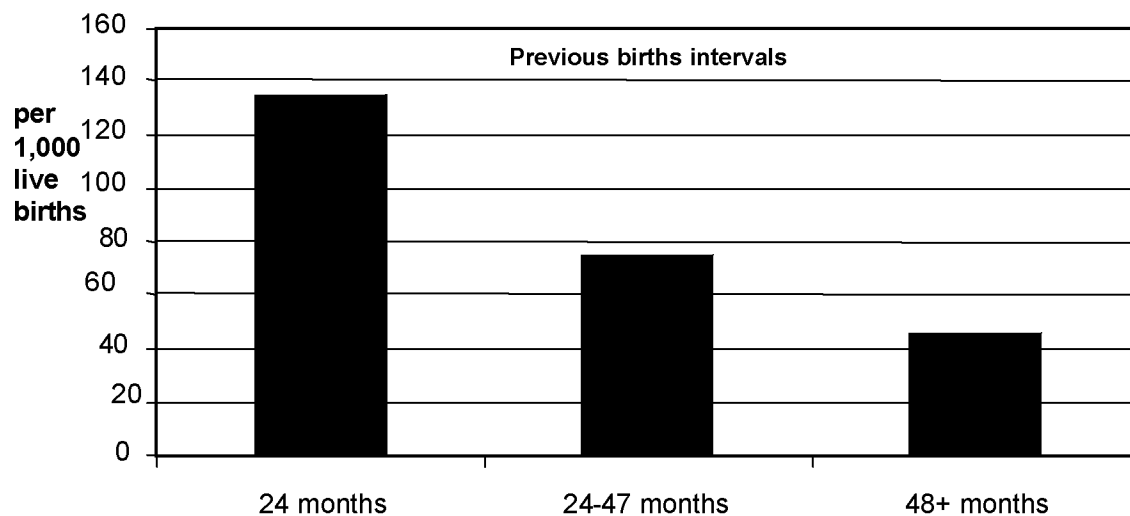
12. If mortality rates are to be reduced then a dual strategy will have to be followed. Firstly, mortality

reduction strategies will have to be appropriately aligned to focus increasingly on Sepsis or Pneumonia, which are the main cause of death. Second will be the focus on preterm birth. The three elevated risk categories mentioned above will have to be addressed. The task here is well cut out. There are five times as many births in the age group of twenty and less as compared to the 35 plus group. It is obvious that we should target the under 20 mothers. Interestingly, the mean age at marriage in most districts of UP continues to be around 16. Discouraging child bearing amongst women under age 20 is, therefore, likely to have a greater impact on overall mortality levels.

**Fig. 4.2 (B) Death Per 1000 Live Births And Birth Order**



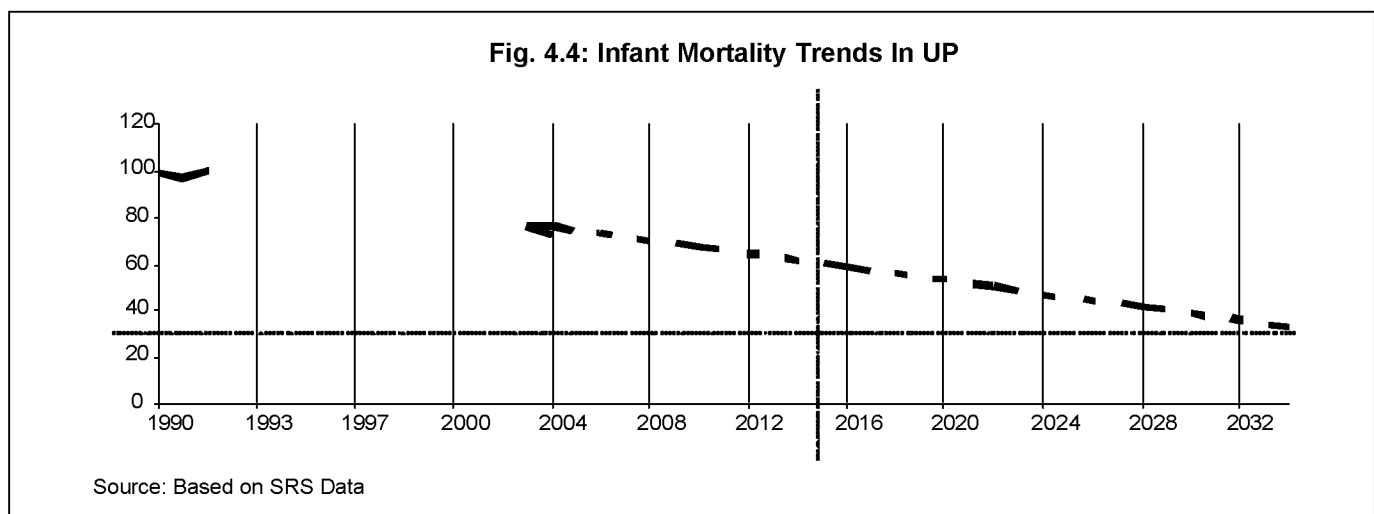
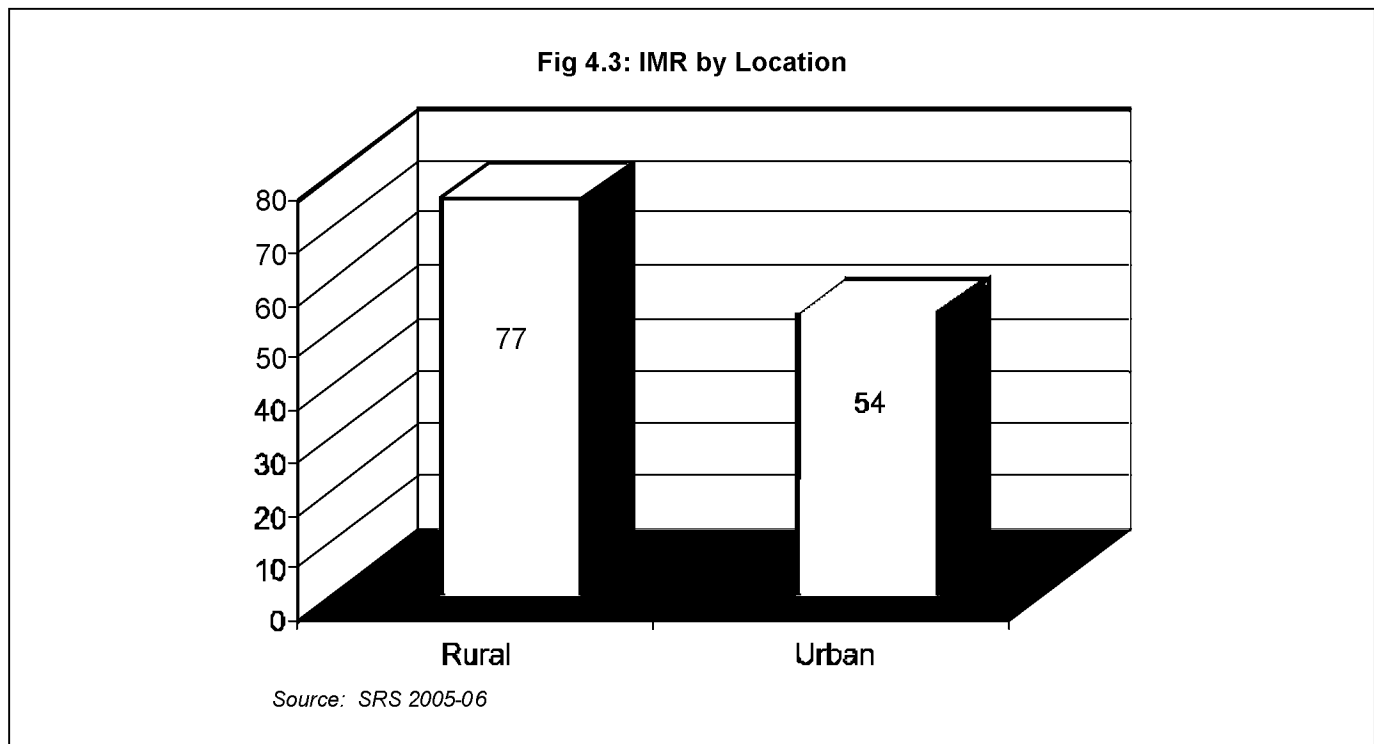
**Fig. 4.2 (C) Death Per 1000 Live Births And Previous Births Intervals**



13. Equally significant is the fact that the IMR in the rural areas was *higher to* urban areas (Fig 4.3). Children in rural areas experience 80% higher risk of dying before their fifth birthday than the urban children. It is interesting to note that infant and other mortality indicators are significantly influenced by social characteristics like residence, education, religion and caste. Demographic characteristics like sex of child, mother’s age at birth, order of birth and birth interval also have a significant bearing on infant and child mortality. Infant Mortality Rate is found to decline sharply with increase in education of mothers.

14. The MDGs take 1990 as the benchmark year. In 1990 IMR in Uttar Pradesh was measured at 99 and it was agreed that by 2015 it would be brought down to 33. Fig 4.4 traces the trend path for the IMR in the state.

The blue continuous line clearly demonstrates the trend path of the IMR during 1990-2004. The dotted blue line captures the projected values of the IMR if the trend during 1990-2004 continues. It shows that if IMR continues to reduce at the same rate at which it has declined between 1990 and 2004, the MDG of 33 (IMR) will be achieved only in 2034. The red line shows the necessary path that needs to be followed if the IMR MDG of 33 is to be achieved by 2015. Naturally, the distance between the dotted blue line and the pink line highlights the need for extra effort that will have to be put in if the state is serious about bringing down the IMR. It will not be out of place to mention that around two and a half million children die every year in India. Out of them anything close to over 4,00,000 children must be dying every year in UP alone. This is an alarming situation.





15. The IMR shows significant intra-state variations. During the 1990s, the Bundelkhand region showed the highest IMR. The female-male variance in IMR across regions also makes an interesting study. In all the regions of the state the female IMR is higher. In the eastern, western, and the central regions the ratio is not only tilted in favor of the males but also the differential is very substantial.

16. IMR also shows sharp variation across districts of the state. RCH - DLHS data reveals that there are 31 districts which have an IMR level which is higher than the current state *average of 73*. If IMR in UP is to be brought down, then these 31 districts will have to be targeted exclusively.

**17. To address the neonatal mortalities, Govt. of UP has decided to launch Comprehensive Child Survival Package in phased manner. In the first phase 17 districts have been selected. One district from each division has been selected where all the Medical Officers, Staff Nurses, ANMs & ASHAs are being trained for essential new born care, immediate care after birth home based new born care as well as facility based new born care according to the level of the functionary. Behaviour change communication, training for the community mobilization and strengthening of transportation are other important constituents of the programme. It is expected to reduce Infant Mortality Rate by 50% within the project period. Initiation of early breast feeding up to the age of 6 months timely and correct weaning and continuing breast feeding up to the age of 2 years is the most cost effective activity to reduce Infant Mortality Rate. Promotion of IYCF has been included under NRHM and is being promoted all over the State.**

**Age of marriage, age of first conception, birth interval, nutritional status of mother and other important social factors are responsible for high Infant Mortality Rate. All these are being addressed under NRHM through various strategies.**

### Maternal Mortality Rate

18. It is a sad commentary on the state of affairs that 38,000 women die every year in the state while delivering a child. Almost half the deaths occur at home and another 10% to 15% mothers die on way to the hospital. In 1997, there were an estimated 707 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births (SRS 1998) in U.P. This was almost eight times higher than the MMR of Kerala and 70 per cent higher than the national average (436). Recent estimates however, suggest that maternal mortality in UP has now come down to 517. It also needs to be added that for every maternal death, twenty mothers start living a life compromised by morbidity caused by pregnancy related complications.

19. Efforts are being made to increase complete antenatal care, institutional delivery, identification of

complicated cases, timely referral and treatment to reduce Maternal Mortality Rate. Under NRHM First Referral Units are being strengthened to deal with the complicated cases and efforts are being made to make 50% Block PHCs functional as 24x7 units. Under a pilot project 20 Block PHCs of 10 selected districts have been made functional as 24x7 units by contracting ISM lady doctors and ANMs to deliver round the clock services. Other training programmes of SBAS, EMOC and short term Anesthetist have also been started in the State to fill up the gaps.

#### Box 4.1: Maternal Mortality Rate in U.P. : Some Shocking Facts

- Every 15 minutes a woman dies in UP
- 38,000 maternal deaths occur every year
- For every Maternal Death 20 mothers start leading a life compromised by morbid conditions because of pregnancy related complications.
- Almost half of the deaths occur at home and another 10-15% on the way to the hospital.

20. In most countries, male death rate is higher than female death rate at nearly all ages. South Asia generally has been an exception in this respect, with higher death rates for females over much of the age span. In Uttar Pradesh also the sex-specific mortality differentials tend to move in an unnatural direction. The female death rate for the age group 0-4 exceeds the male death rate by 22% (NFHS 1992). It came to 1.22; 0.88; 1.08 and 0.88 for the 0-4, 5-14, 15-49 and 50+ age groups, respectively. The very high value for the 0-4 age group is particularly notable.

21. Sex differential by age provides evidence of differential treatment of male and female children leading to higher mortality risks for females. Neo-natal mortality, which reflects a substantial component of congenital conditions, particularly preterm birth accounts for 27% of neonatal death, is slightly higher for males than for females (WHO 2006). The ratio of female to male for post neo-natal mortality is 1.24; similar is the ratio for all deaths under age five. By far the largest differential, however, is in the child death rate, reflecting mortality risks between ages one and five. The female to male ratio here is 1.70. Thus, despite the fact that female infants have a natural biological advantage at the time of birth, yet they seem to enjoy a significant social disadvantage. Females under one year of age may be less disadvantaged relative to males because children of both sexes tend to be breast-fed throughout infancy. Once breast feeding ceases, the potential for differential treatment of males and females increases. The sharp disadvantage of female children in the age group one to five is consistent with such differential treatment.

## Neonatal Mortality

22. It has already been mentioned that pre term birth, pneumonia, sepsis and birth asphyxia, and birth injury emerge as the biggest neonatal killers. On the day of birth asphyxia and preterm birth emerge as the common most killers. On day one and during the first week of the life preterm birth and sepsis or pneumonia emerges as big killer. From second week to fourth week sepsis or pneumonia emerge as the main cause of child death. In the post-neonatal period diarrhea also emerges as a major determinant of child mortality.

23. If mortality rates are to be reduced then these big killers will have to be appropriately tackled. RCH data suggests that awareness about pneumonia management was very poor. Again the awareness level was a bigger challenge particularly in Central UP, Eastern UP and Bundelkhand Regions. Diarrhea is another major killer in the state. RCH survey shows that in most parts of UP awareness about Diarrhea management was very low. It is commonly known that timely administration of ORS to diarrhea patients can save many lives. In large number of the districts the awareness about ORS was less than 10% (DLHS RCH 2002 - 2004). Central UP, Eastern UP and Bundelkhand regions, particularly, have very high concentration of such districts. The RCH - DLHS data also reveals that many of the low awareness districts show relatively high incidence of diarrhea. Such convergence is an added cause of concern. Lack of such awareness about diarrhea management particularly about ORS therapy certainly is a threat to the life circumstances of the people.

## III. The Morbidity Challenge

24. As already noted, combined losses due to premature death and disability from non-fatal illnesses are very high in the state. The estimates of Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) lost in six states in India, suggest that UP has the highest loss rate among all the Indian states examined to date. A further analysis, by cause of illness shows that the overwhelming cause of premature death and disability are communicable diseases, malnutrition, and prenatal conditions, a disease pattern common among very poor population. Other notable diseases which affect quality of life and human development in UP are reproductive morbidity (including RTI) and diseases like malaria, tuberculosis, leprosy, AIDS, blindness, diarrhea and measles, etc. Healthy life conditions are also threatened by diabetes, blood pressure and coronary diseases. Invariably, children constitute a large proportion of these victims.

25. High death rates in UP have been a challenge in themselves. However, the knowledge that a large number of people are losing their lives from non-fatal diseases is a matter of grave concern. Death from malnutrition raises a whole range of issues relating to

child and maternal care, micronutrients and poverty. Another large chunk of these valuable lives are being lost due to lifestyle diseases. Such loss of life is often crippling for the families concerned as well as for the larger economy. The revelation that communicable diseases, lifestyle diseases and prenatal conditions are the major killers in Uttar Pradesh naturally calls for renewed organized institutional efforts towards reducing mortality induced by such preventable factors.

26. The major illnesses and strategy for dealing with them are briefly discussed below:

### Leprosy

27. Leprosy is one of the major health problems in Uttar Pradesh, which falls in the range of high endemic states. The National Leprosy control program (NLCP) was launched in the state in the year 1955 in two districts of the state. Later on, other districts were also covered. The Multi-Drug therapy was introduced in 1985, in Varanasi district. Since 1<sup>st</sup> April, 1995 all the districts of UP have been covered under MDT. With the introduction of MDT (Multi-Drug Therapy), the prevalence rate of leprosy has steadily declined.

28. In 1983 over 1,87,000 cases of leprosy were on record. Around the turn of the century, 50,000-60,000 new cases were being detected in Uttar Pradesh every year. However, by 2005 this number had come down to 27,582. The male female ratio of the affected persons works out to approximately 2:1. The prevalence rate of leprosy was 52.7 per 10,000 in March 1983. It came down to 1.5 per 10,000 by November 2005. Uttar Pradesh is very close to the milestones of 1 per 10,000, which it has set for itself. Annual case detection rate was 2.4 against the milestone of 2.8.

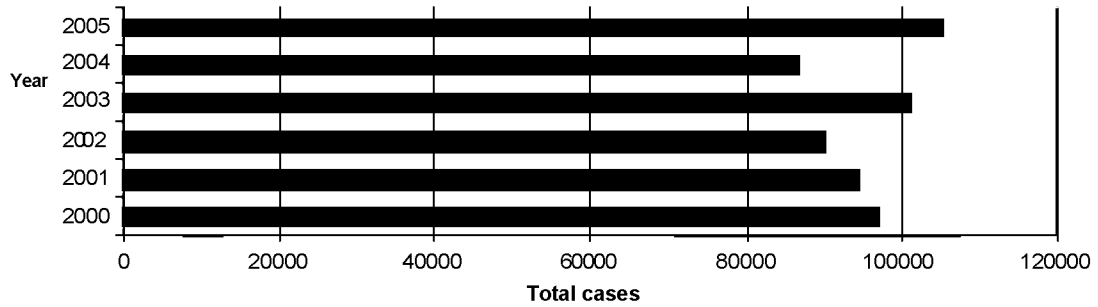
### Malaria

29. Malaria is a high incidence morbidity condition in Uttar Pradesh. The incidence of malaria shows a fluctuating trend (Fig. 4.5). On the whole, during 2000-2005 malaria cases in Uttar Pradesh have fluctuated at around 85,000. The evidence suggests that over the years malaria cases don't seem to show any discernable decline, However, there has been a significant decline in death due to malaria. The RCH data also shows significant incidence of malaria in almost all the districts of the states. Maximum incidence is observed in the *tarai* belt of the state.

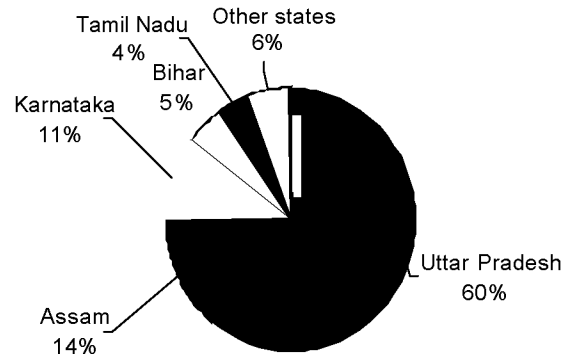
### Japanese Encephalitis

30. Japanese Encephalitis (JE) is a much bigger and unique challenge in Uttar Pradesh. Figure 4.7 shows the trends in deaths from JE in U.P. It is found that 60% of total JE cases in the country are accounted for by Uttar Pradesh followed by the states like Assam, Karnataka and Bihar (see Fig. 4.6).

**Fig. 4.5: Total Malaria Cases in UP 2000-05**



**Fig. 4.6: Japanese Encephalitis Incidence in India**

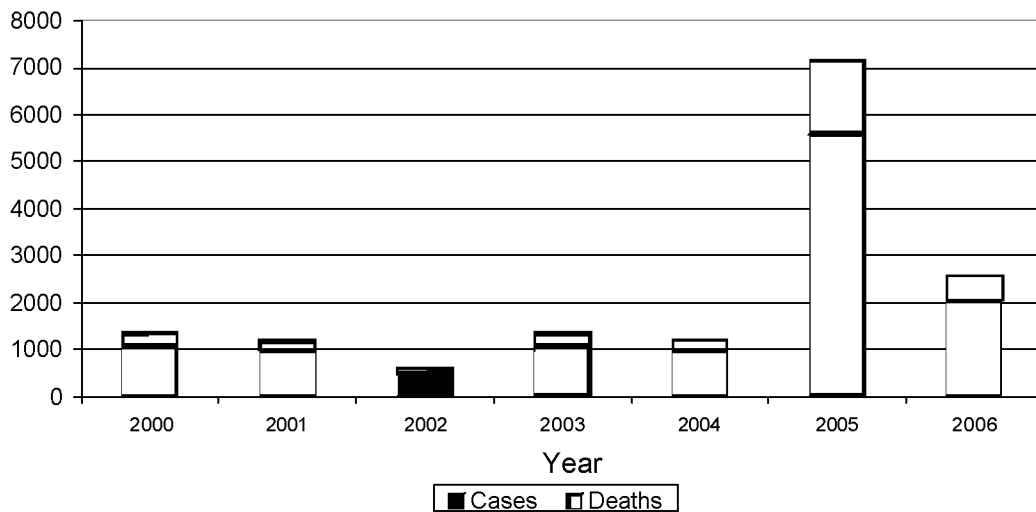


Source: State Epidemic Cell, Department of communicable diseases, Health Department, GO UP, Lucknow

31. In Uttar Pradesh the number of deaths due to Japanese encephalitis has shown a consistent rise from 35 deaths in 1994 to 476 deaths in 2006 (Fig. 4.7). Japanese encephalitis is endemic in several parts of the state. The disease has emerged as a major killer

particularly in the eastern region of the state. Around 32 districts emerge as worst effected by the disease (see map 4.1). Unfortunately the major chunk of the burden is borne by innocent children.

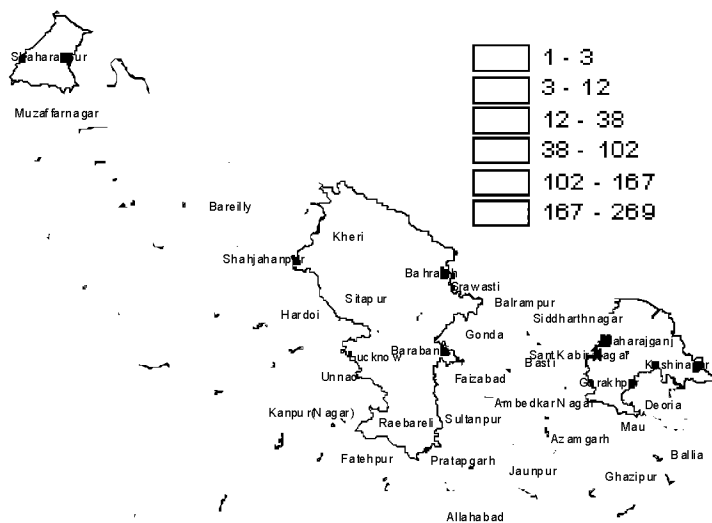
**Figure 4.7: Trends of the number of cases and deaths from Japanese Encephalitis 2000-06 in UP**



Source: State Epidemic Cell, Department of communicable diseases, Health Department, GO UP, Lucknow

Map 4.1

**Districtwise Incidence of Japanese Encephalitis**



District	Cases	Deaths	CFR
Kushinagar	1110	269	24%
Gorakhpur	1008	241	24%
Maharajganj	611	167	27%
Deoria	486	102	21%
Siddharthnagar	370	96	26%
Basti	276	67	24%
Bahraich	241	20	8%
Sant Kabir Nagar	239	52	22%
Saharanpur	209	151	72%
Kheri	167	38	23%
Gonda	126	12	10%
Raebareli	116	15	13%
Balrampur	97	16	16%
Lucknow	75	20	27%
Shrawasti	65	1	2%
Barabanki	63	16	25%
Ambedkar Nagar	48	6	13%
Sitapur	47	15	32%
Sultanpur	23	6	26%
Hardoi	20	2	10%
Mau	18	6	33%
Bareilly	17	3	18%
Azamgarh	16	5	31%
Unnao	11	4	36%
Faizabad	10	3	30%
Ballia	9	2	22%
Muzaffarnagar	9	9	100%
Allahabad	7	2	29%
Kanpur Nagar	7	0	0%
Shahjahanpur	6	2	33%
Pratapgarh	5	0	0%
Jaunpur	2	2	100%
Fatehpur	1	0	0%
Ghazipur	1	0	0%
<b>UP</b>	<b>5516</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>24%</b>

Source: State Epidemic Cell, Department of Communicable Diseases, Health Department, Government of U.P.

**Box 4.2 State Response for early Diagnosis & Proper Management of J.E. cases**

- The Central Government arranged import of single dose JE vaccine from China in the year 2006 and onwards. The JE vaccination campaigns were undertaken to immunize children from age 1 to 15 in endemic districts. In the year 2006, 68.36 lakh children of 7 most affected districts Gorakhpur, Kushinagar, Maharajganj, Deoria, Siddharthnagar, Sant Kabirnagar and Lakhimpur-Khiri were vaccinated.
- In 2007, 94.99 lakh children of 11 districts: Ambedkarnagar, Bahraich, Barabanki, Basti, Balrampur, Gonda, Mau, Raebareli, Sitapur, Saharanpur were vaccinated.
- In 2008, 9 districts : Lucknow, Hardoi, Sulattanpur, Azamgarh, Ballia, Unnao, Muzaffarnagar, Bareilly and Faizabad will be covered.
- A.E.S. Nodal Centre having full-time Director co-ordinate all activities in Directorate General of Medical & Health Services, U.P.

- The Epidemic Ward has been established in B.R.D. Medical College , Gorakhpur. The vector Borne Diseases Surveillance Unit has been established in Department of Social & Preventive Medicine of B.R.D. Medical College, Gorakhpur.
- The Viral Research Centre and Rehabilitation Centre is being established in Gorakhpur by N.I.V. Pune and Department of Viklang Kalyan U.P. respectively.
- The J.E. Sentine Labs have been identified at C.S.M.M.U. Lucknow, and in District Hospital of Allahabad, Azamgarh, Basti, Bahraich, Bareilly, Deoria, Faizabad, Gorakhpurr, Gonda, Kushi nagar, Kheri, Raebareli, Siddharthnagar and Saharanpur.
- The treatment facilities are available in all the Medical Colleges, District Hospitals and Community Health Centres of the State.

## AIDS

32. Unlike the common perception, AIDS is very much a reality in Uttar Pradesh. There are at least 12 districts in the state which are regarded as high prevalence districts of HIV (see Map 4.2). Vulnerability profile of Uttar Pradesh for HIV / AIDS is very revealing. About half of the population is in the reproductive age group and literacy levels are extremely low. All this is accompanied by high incidence of poverty and high gender disparity. This substantially raises the vulnerability quotient of Uttar Pradesh as far as HIV / AIDS is concerned. The ORG Marg mapping study reveals that Uttar Pradesh has a large presence of high risks groups. The state has 10 million migrants, 52,741 truckers (8 National Highways), 8,234 commercial workers (CSW) and approximately 9,000 intravenous drug users. A long porous Indo Nepal Border only adds to the vulnerability of the state. In October 2005 Uttar Pradesh had 2,248 AIDS cases, of which 1,873 were men and 375 females. The table also reveals that 21 to 40 age groups is the most vulnerable and shows highest incidence of AIDS cases in the state.

33. Efforts have been made by the state to meet the looming threat of HIV / AIDS. In order to ensure blood safety, 145 blood banks were established and strengthened in the state. Several voluntary counseling and testing centers (VCTC) have been established across the state. At least 83 centers have been opened in the District Hospitals, Medical Colleges and Government Organizations. These centers provide testing facility for symptomatic cases; provide counseling facility (Pre / Post test). They also motivate for change in high risk behavior. 68 STD clinics are also functional across the state.

Age Group	Male	Female	Total
0-10	30	10	40
11-20	33	10	43
21-30	658	158	816
31-40	869	156	1025
41-50	228	36	264
Above 50	55	5	60
Total	1873	375	2248

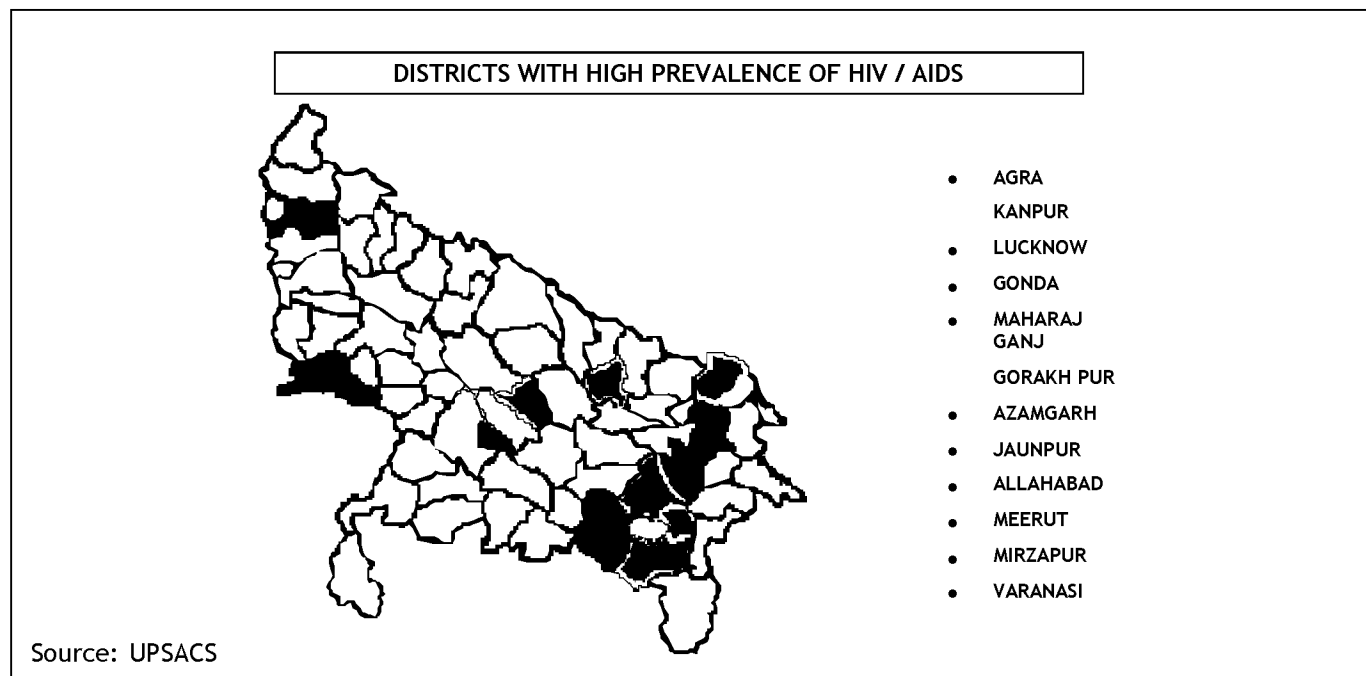
Source: UPSACS

34. It is shocking to note that in the entire state, the awareness about RTI and STI level ranges between 0.3 and 41 in different districts (DLHS RCH 2002 - 2004). At a time when AIDS is raising its ugly head in the state, such low awareness about STI / RTI only rings alarm bells. There are at least 20 districts in the state where less than 20% of the people were aware of STI / RTI. In all there were at least 55 districts where awareness about STI / RTI was lower than 40%.

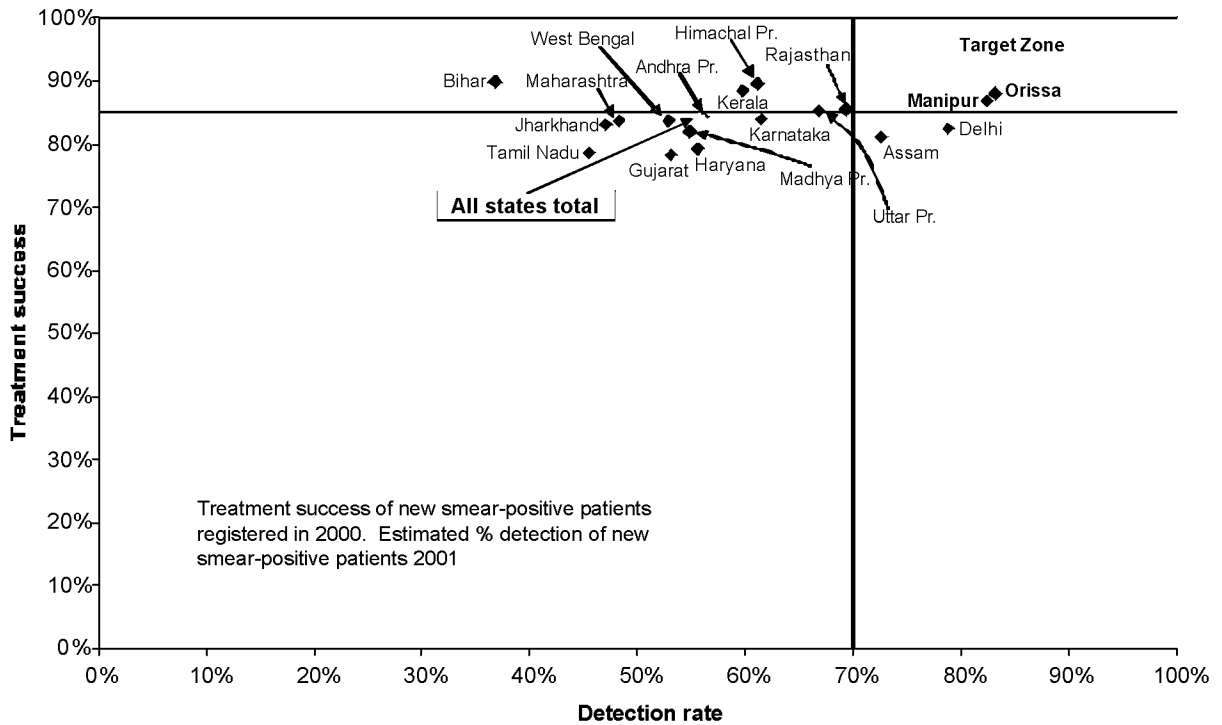
## Tuberculosis

35. Tuberculosis is prevalent across all the districts of the state. But prevalence of the disease is much higher in Western and Central U.P. While the detection rate is fairly poor, success in treating the cases is over 80 percent (see fig. 4.8 and 4.9). Sudden decline in detection rate during 2004 - 2005 is very noticeable. Understandably, there is a strong case for improving our detection system. Given the infectious nature of the disease, people remain in danger of being exposed to the disease.

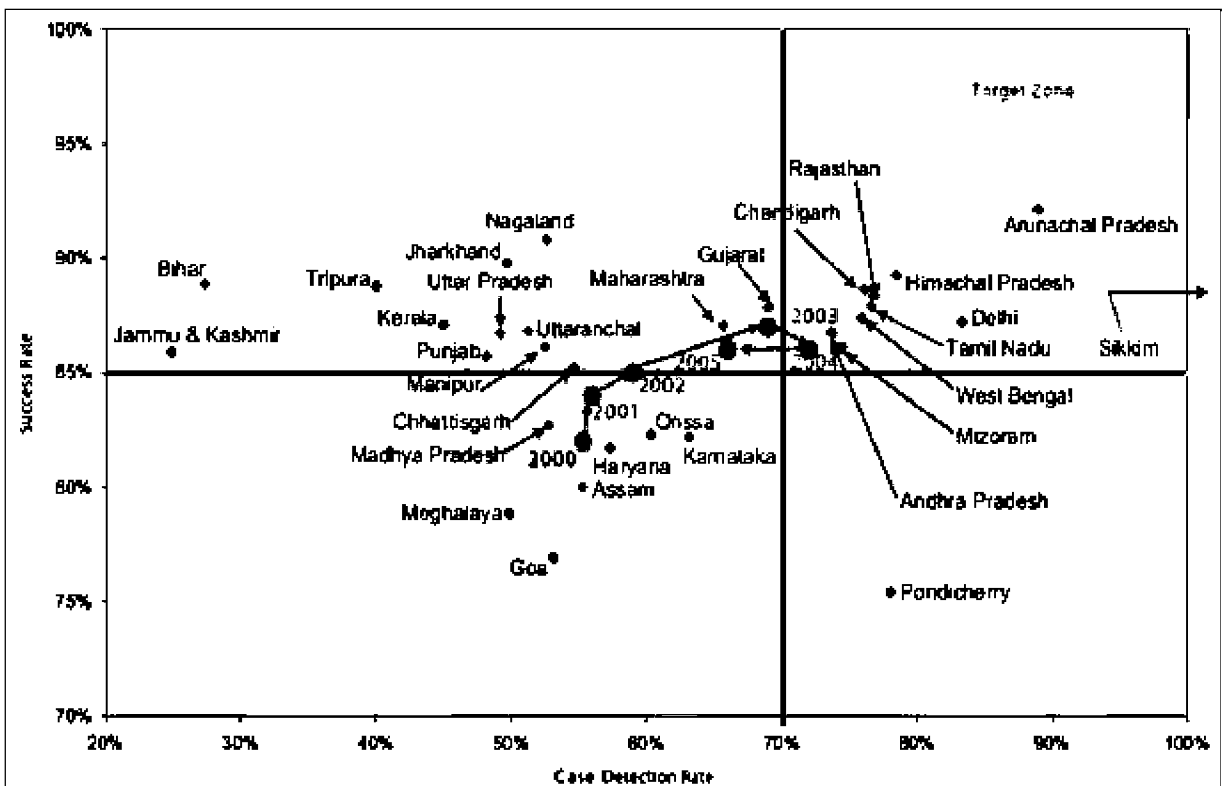
Map 4.2



**Figure 4.8 Case-detection (2001) and treatment success rates (2000) in RNTCP areas**



**Fig. 4.9 National Annual Case Detection Rate and Treatment Success Rate from 2000 to 2005**



## IV. Maternal Morbidity

36. Over the years different national surveys like National Family Health Survey (NFHS) and Reproductive and Child Health Survey (RCHS) have suggested that there is very high incidence of “abortion complications”, “pregnancy complications”, “delivery complications” and “post delivery complications”. Equally sad part of the truth is that a large number of households in the state do not seek treatment for reproductive morbidity. The pregnancy complications show a very even distribution across the state. Relatively, however, western and eastern regions record a higher incidence of pregnancy complications. Also, pregnancy complications are much higher than both the post delivery complication and delivery complication. Even post delivery complications seem to outnumber the delivery complication all across the state.

37. The western region also shows fairly high incidence of pregnancy and post pregnancy complications. However, only small proportion of ladies actually seek any kind of treatment for these complications. Much of the trend which is being observed in different regions of the state remains relatively unchanged over a long period of time suggesting strong behavioural pattern and attitudinal issues behind such scenario.

### Antenatal Care

38. Antenatal care can contribute significantly to the reduction in maternal morbidity and infant mortality

because it includes pregnancy related health care and advice on the correct diet and the provision of iron and folic acid tablets to pregnant women. Improved nutritional status, coupled with improved antenatal care, can help reduce the incidence of low birth weight babies and thus reduce prenatal, neonatal and infant mortality. In UP, only about half of the total pregnant women get ANC services. Only around 11% of the eligible population get full antenatal care, while the corresponding figure for Tamil Nadu was 75% and for Kerala it was 85%. In 1998 only 35% of the mothers received any ante natal care (NFHS II). This jumped to 67% in 2005 (NFHS III). In the urban areas, ante natal care rose from 63% to 79%, while in the rural areas, it jumped from 29% to 64%. 14.6% of mothers had at least three ante natal care visits in 1997-98 (NFHS II) in 2005 this jumped to 26.3% (NFHS III).

Fig. 4.10

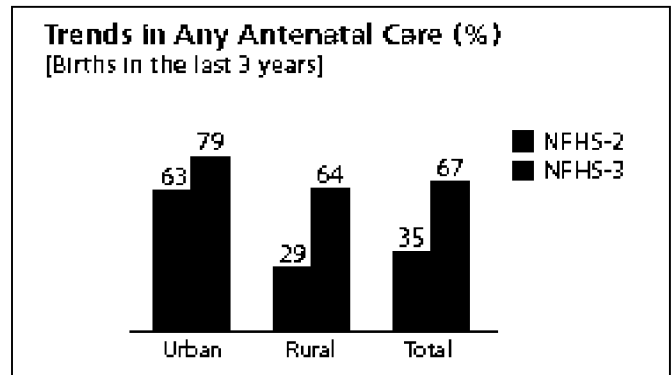


Fig. 4.11 Full ANC

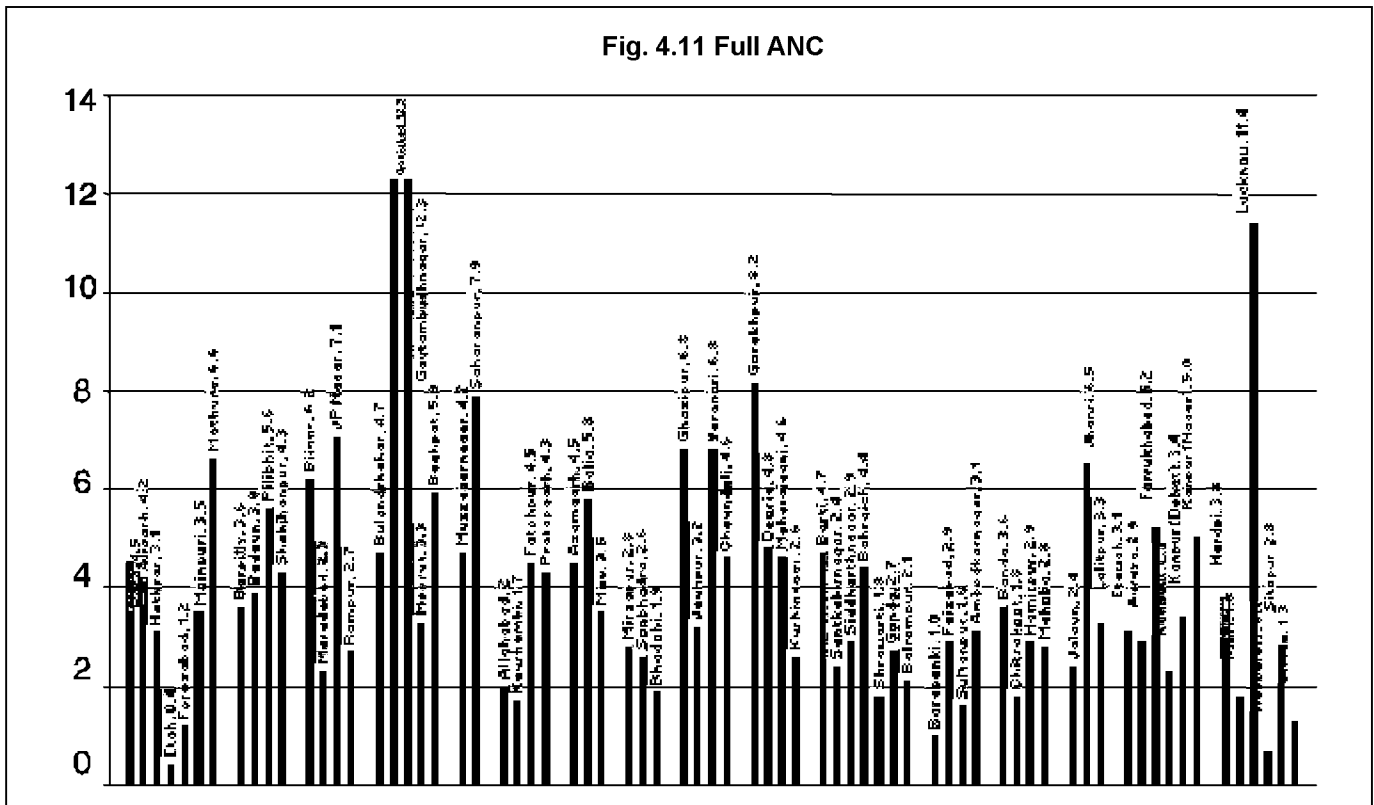


Fig 4.11 captures the ante natal care across districts of the state. RCH - DLHS data clearly reveals that in 27 districts less than 3% of women received full antenatal care. In another 32 districts only 3% to 7% of the women received full antenatal care. Ghaziabad and Lucknow were the only two districts where more than 10% women received full ante natal support (LHS - RCH 2002-04).

39. It is revealed that in different districts around 30% to over 82% women get some antenatal care. Vast differential between full antenatal care and some antenatal care implies that we do have access to these pregnant mothers are not able to provide them with adequate care. It also implies that with some effort the circumstances can be easily altered to improve the health circumstances. The percentage of those who received tetanus toxoid (TT) injections increased from 37 percent in 1992-93 to 51 percent in 1998-99 (NFHS-2). State Government's 'Campaign Approach' seems to have yielded results. The percentage of women who received iron and folic acid tablets for 90 days increased from 8.5 percent in 1997-98 to 20.7 percent in 2005 (NFHS III). The utilization of antenatal services is higher among young women (age 15-34) than among older ones (age 35-49).

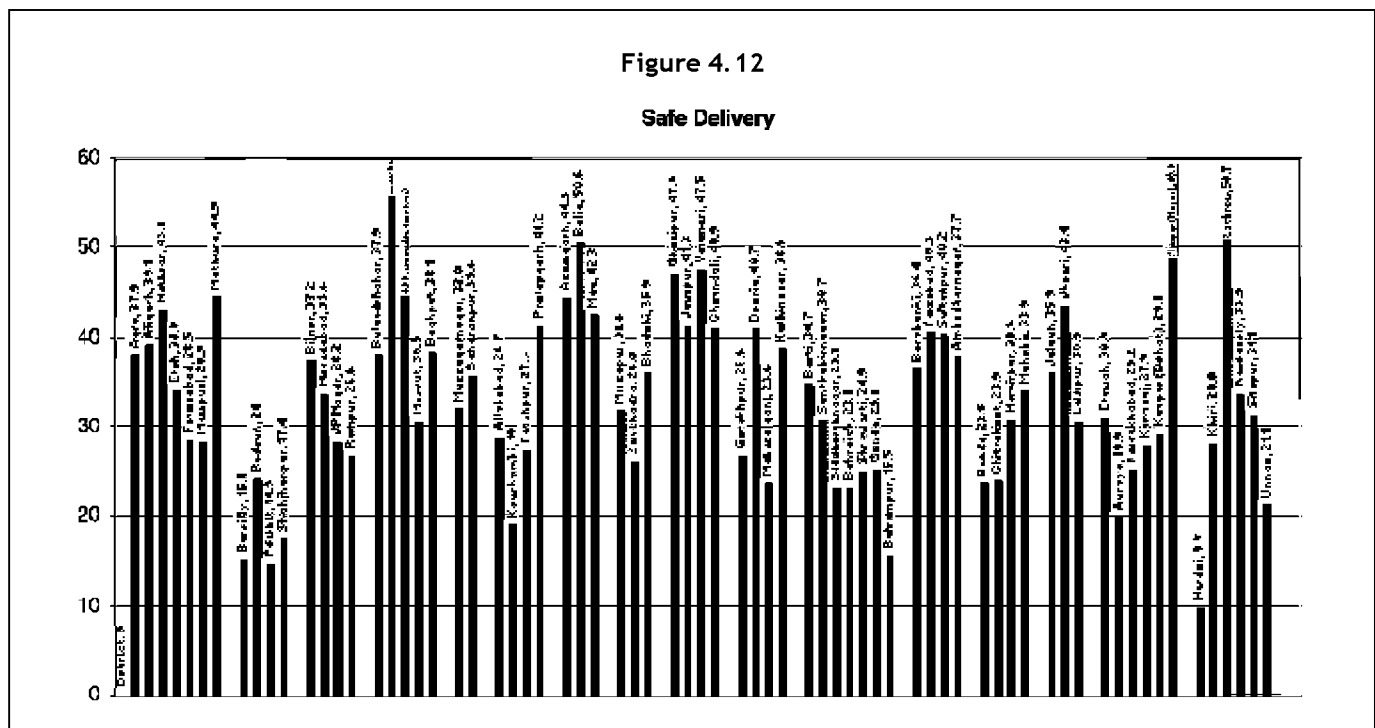
40. An analysis by place of residence shows that urban women utilize antenatal services much more. Similarly, more educated women are much more likely to utilize antenatal care services, than less educated women. Education is also positively associated with the likelihood of getting care from the doctors. The proportion of those who received the antenatal care from

doctors is 17% for illiterate women and 60.5% for women with at least High School education. Only in Lucknow, Kanpur Nagar, Gorakhpur and Ballia more than 48% women had three check-up during pregnancy period. State Government's 'Campaign Approach' seems to have yielded results. In nine districts less than ten percent women received such checkups and in another 32 districts less than 25% women got three check-ups. In other words, a large majority of women do not receive appropriate antenatal check-up in the state. This naturally has significant implication for mortality and morbidity condition in the state.

### Safe Delivery

41. Safe delivery is another area of urgent attention. There were only six districts of the state where more than 45% of the women had safe delivery (NFHS III). Figure 4.12 captures the safe delivery scenario in different districts of the state. Ghaziabad, Ballia and Lucknow are the only three districts which record over 50% safe deliveries in the state. Equally relevant is the fact that in different districts of UP only 03 to 42% of the women were actually visited by ANMs and other health workers.

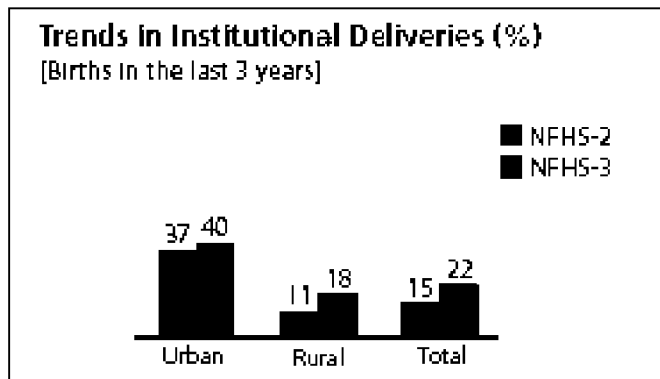
42. From the standpoint of child survival and health of the mothers, it is advantageous for the birth of the baby to take place under proper hygienic conditions with the assistance of a trained medical practitioner. Percentage of institutional deliveries increased from 11 percent in 1992-93 to 15 percent in 1998 and further to 22% by 2005 (Fig. 4.13). In the urban areas it improved from 37% to 40% while in the rural areas it rose from 11%



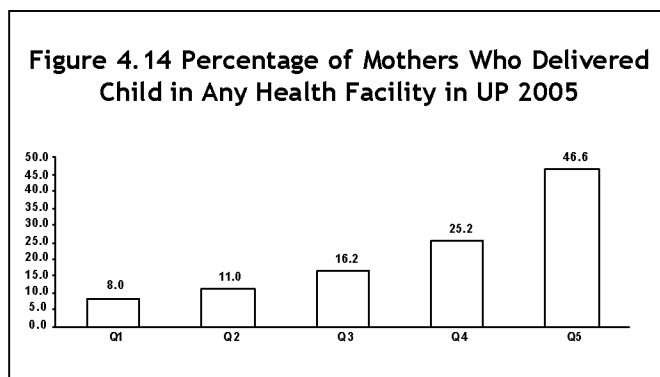


to 18%. The percentage of births that took place in medical institutions is about five times higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

Figure 4.13



43. Inequity in utilization of the institutional delivery services available is another very important issue. It becomes even more important given the fact that state is putting significant emphasis on institutional delivery. Only 8% of the mothers who had institutional delivery came from the lowest quintile of the population, 11% from the second lowest quintile while 46.6% of the mothers came from the highest income quintile (Fig. 4.14).

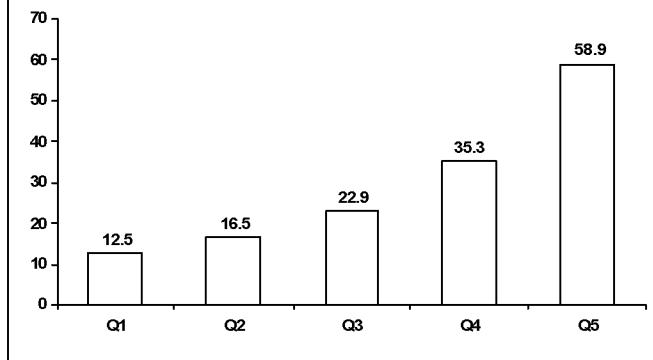


Source: Futures Group-ITAP, Reproductive Health Indicator Survey, Uttar Pradesh, 2005

44. Similar inequity is observed in terms of assistance received from health professional during delivery (Figure 4.15). Only 12.5% of the deliveries in the lowest income quintile were supported by any health professional. 16.5% of the mothers who received any health professional's support came from second lowest quintile while 58.9% of the mothers who received assistance from any health professional in the state came from the highest income quintile.

45. Trained personnel provide assistance to around one-fourth of the total deliveries in the state i.e. 29% of the deliveries (NFHS III (2005)). Three-fourths of deliveries are attended in unhygienic conditions at home. Only

Figure 4.15 Percentage of Mothers whose Delivery was assisted by any Health Professional in UP



Source: Futures Group-ITAP, Reproductive Health Indicator Survey, Uttar Pradesh, 2005

24.9% of pregnant mothers received antenatal care from Doctors. 13.9 % from ANM/LHV; 6.0 % from TBAs, 8.5 % from others and 49.2 % mothers received no antenatal care (NFHS III (2005)). It is, therefore, that Uttar Pradesh's health scenario is marked by a very high degree of reproductive morbidity and mortality. This lack of support from trained medical professionals and unhygienic reproductive and health care environment presents a great human development challenge before us. Substantial efforts are required to improve the quality of maternal and child health care in the state. The relationship between safe delivery and attendance by trained medical professional (including Dai) works out to be very strong. In comparison, the relationship with institutional deliveries is found to be insignificant.

## V. Immunization

46. Efforts are being made to strengthen routine immunization by usage & disposal of auto destructible syringes, community mobilization by volunteers, special IEC activities, alternate vaccine delivery system, strengthening of cold chain etc. Special routine immunization campaigns (RI weeks) are being organized to cover children in unreached, difficult to reach, underserved areas as well as to cover drop out children from the month of Nov. 07. Four such rounds are planned up to March, 2007.

47. Percentage of children who were fully immunized increased substantially from 20 percent in 1992-93 (NFHS-1) to 42 percent in 1998 (RCHS). At the same time, children not getting any vaccination declined from 43 percent to 30 percent. Diarrhea deaths accounted for a significant proportion of all dehydration-related deaths. These could have been prevented by prompt administration of rehydration solutions (ORS). However, only 36 percent (RCHS, 1998) of mothers have ever used ORS packets or were recommended home solutions to overcome problems of dehydration. Nearly

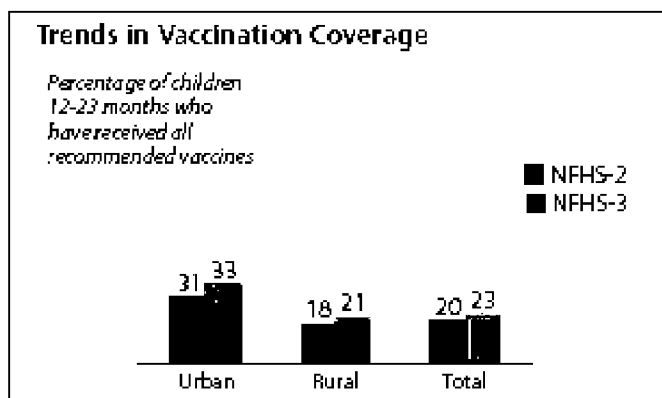
71 percent of all children under-3 years of age have iron-deficiency anemia. Interestingly, western region records lowest proportion of children who received complete immunization. Even the proportion of children recording partial immunization is found to be low in western UP. Eastern and central region present a much better scenario. It needs to be mentioned that while western region has a very high concentration of private providers, it lags behind in terms of public sector providers. As much of the immunization is the result of public sector driven campaigns, eastern and other regions seem to have performed much better.

48. Vaccination against diseases has substantially impacted life expectancy as well as child and infant

mortality across the world. In UP however a large number of children receive no vaccination at all. The change in vaccination coverage is a meager 3% between 1997 and 2005 (Figure 4.16). The vaccination level in the rural areas is even more challenging than the state average. Intra state variations across different districts of the state are also very significant. The percentage of children aged 12 to 35 months who did not receive any vaccination ranges between 30% to 54% in different districts of the state. In at least 10 districts of the state more than 45% of the children did not receive any vaccination (RCH 2002-04). In at least 19 districts less than 20% of the children received complete vaccination (Figure 4.17). Interestingly Deoria, a poor district in Eastern UP, emerges as the only district where over 50% of the children received full vaccination. Even the districts where over 40% children received full vaccination are few and far between.

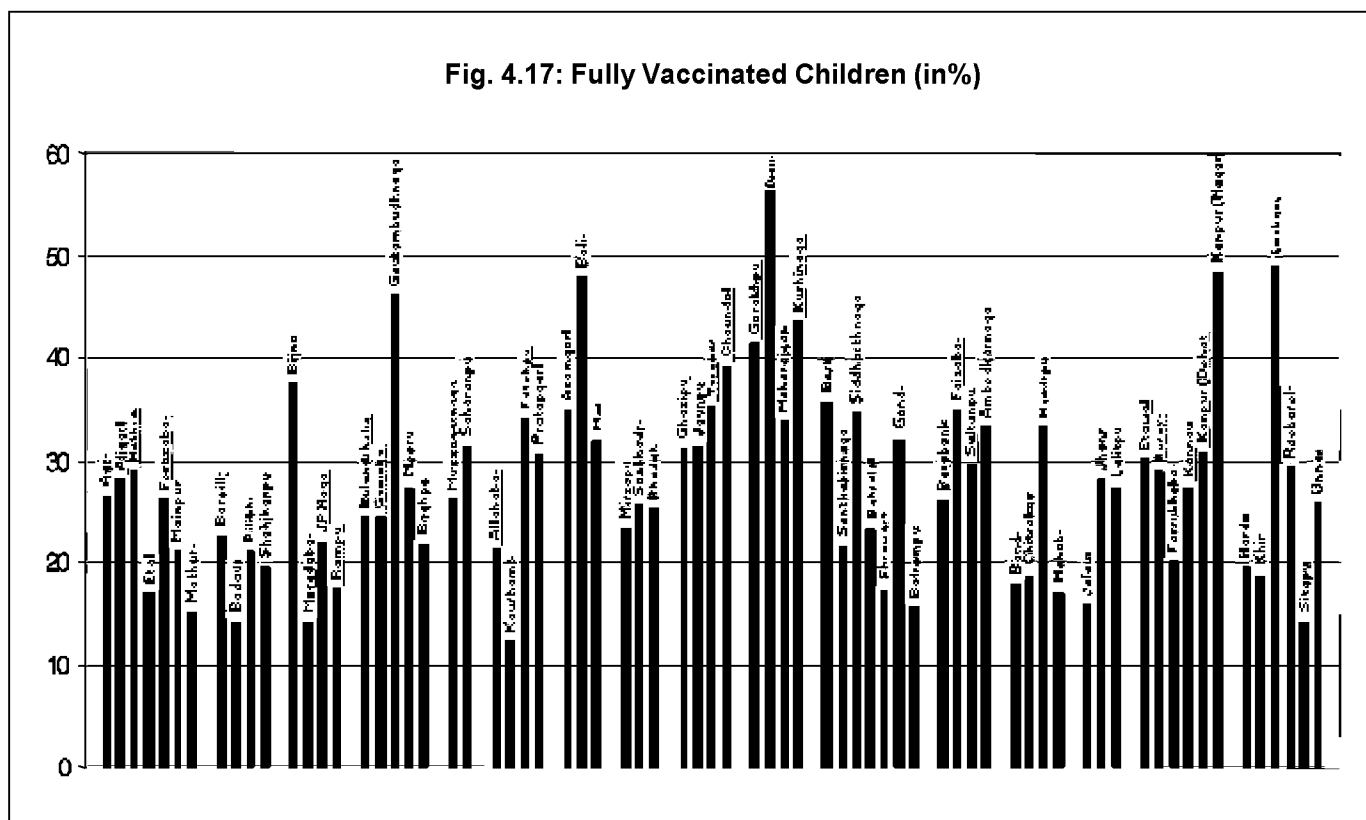
49. On the whole the state shows significant variation in health related burden and disability across regions and income groups. Both the rich and poor face a very high burden of health related disability. However, the poor and women seem to be at a greater disadvantage, the incidence of IMR alone is found to be two and a half times higher amongst the poor. At the same time much lesser proportion of public resources are spent on the bottom 20% of the population, in comparison to what is spent on the top 20 %.

Figure 4.16



Source: DLHS - RCH survey 2002 - 04

Fig. 4.17: Fully Vaccinated Children (in%)



**Box 4.3 Key Health Objectives to be Achieved by 2012**

- Reduction of MMR to 350 per 1 lac live births.
- Reduction of IMR to 40 per thousand live births.
- Under the RNTCP the target is to achieve a high cure rate of at least 85%.
- Another objective of the RNTCP is 70% detection of new sputum smear positive cases.
- To achieve Prevalence Rate of 1 or less than 1 leprosy patient per 10,000 population.
- Under national blindness control programme reduce the prevalence rate from 1% to 0.5 in UP by year 2012.
- Integrated control for vector borne diseases namely Malaria, Kala-azar, Dengue, Japanese Encephalitis and Lymphatic Filariasis.
- To bring down Total Goitre Rate (TGR) to less than 10%. To ensure that more than 90% households consume iodised salt.
- To ensure the availability of AYUSH system of medicine at an affordable cost, by ensuring that at each block PHCs, 2 medical officers, one of them being an AYUSH practitioner, are available all the time.
- Safe drinking water and sanitation facilities to more than 60% of villages.
- Reduction of malnourished children by 50% of present level.

**Box 4.4 Proposed Maternal & Child Health Services at the Sub Centre Level**

- (i) **Antenatal care**
  - Minimum lab investigations like haemoglobin, urine albumen and sugar
  - Identification of high-risk pregnancies and prompt referral Counseling
- (ii) **Intranatal care:**
  - Promotion of institutional deliveries
  - Skilled attendants for home deliveries
  - Appropriate and prompt referral
- (iii) **Postnatal care:**
- (iv) **Child Health:**
  - Essential Newborn Care
  - Promotion of exclusive breast-feeding for 6 months.

- Full Immunization of all infants and children
  - Vitamin A prophylaxis to the children as per guidelines.
  - Prevention and control of childhood diseases
- (v) **Adolescent health care**
- (vii) **Water Quality Monitoring:**
- (ix) **Recording of Vital events**
- (x) Untied grants of Rs. 10,000 per year to every SHC for local health

## VI. The Malnutrition Challenge

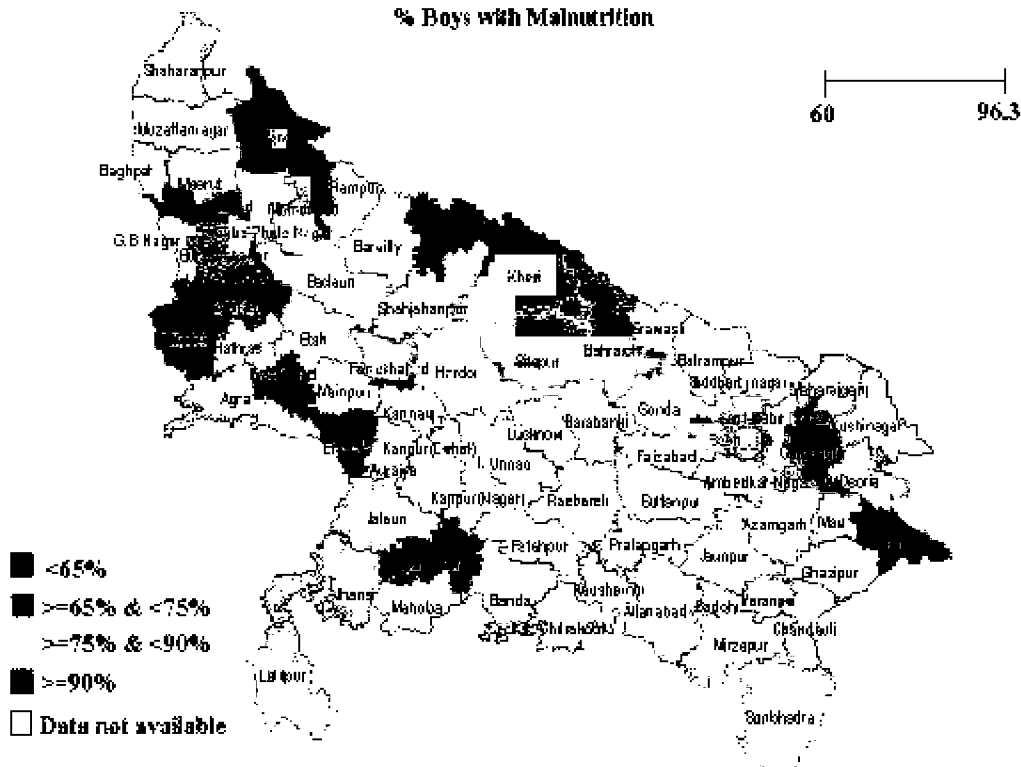
50. India's 72 million children are malnourished and UP accounts for 10-12 million of these malnourished children. It is alarming to note that UP has 52% prevalence of under-nutrition, with every second child below three years of age suffering from chronic under-nutrition. Surveys conducted in the state reveal that almost half the population in the 0-3 year age group suffers from various grades of malnutrition. Besides children, malnutrition in the form of Chronic Energy Deficiency is very high in women in the reproductive age group, aggravated by early marriage combined with early conception. On an average 80 percent of pregnant women are anemic. Moreover, maternal malnutrition is often a major contributing cause of low birth weight babies.

51. *Though the percentage of stunted and under weight children has gone down in NFHS-III as compared to NFHS-II but it is not satisfactory. The efforts are being made to improve the nutritional status of children and treatment of severely malnourished children by establishing malnourished rehabilitation center at selected places. ICDS department is helping for the same.*

52. Malnutrition adversely affects the growth and development of children, including their learning ability, and the capacity to cope with the problems of daily living. It has been estimated to be associated with more than half of all child deaths. It is a well-established fact that the first year of life is critical. Expert opinion suggests that malnutrition incidence in infancy are 11 % at 0-6 months, reaching its peak at 23 months and then stagnates thereafter (World Bank Report 2006). Malnutrition is a major contributory factor in all the causes of childhood mortality. Moderately and severely malnourished children are five to eight times more likely to die than adequately nourished children.

Map 4.3

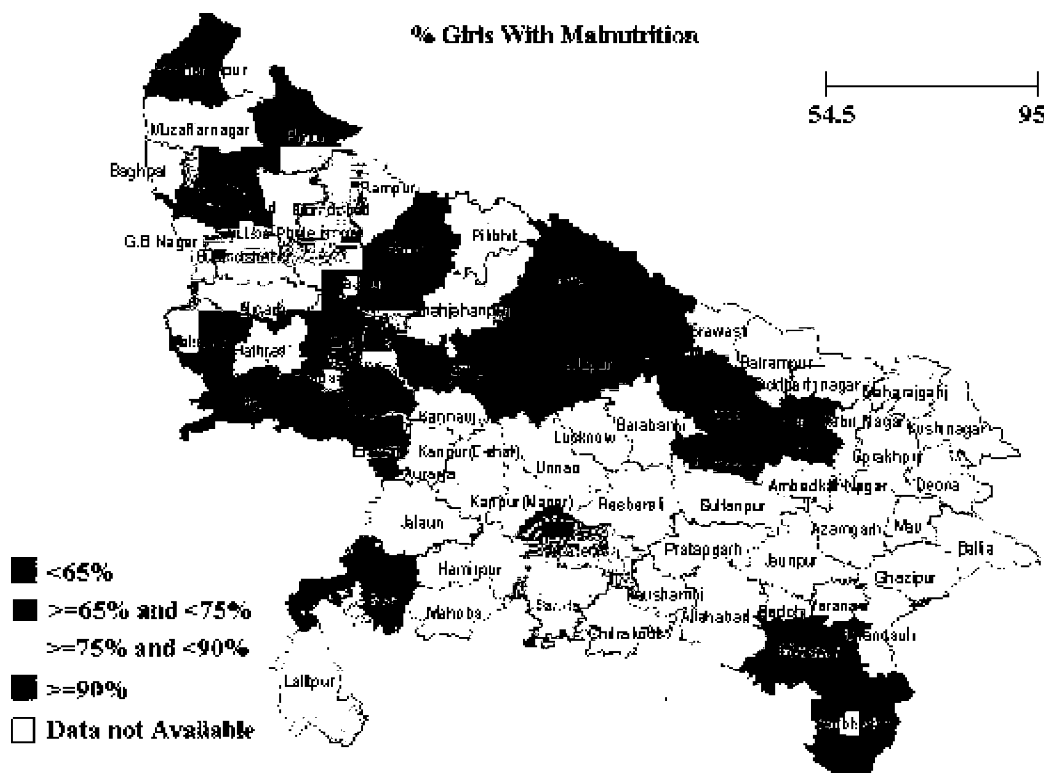
% Boys with Malnutrition



Source: Plan Document 2007-2008, Planning Department, U.P.

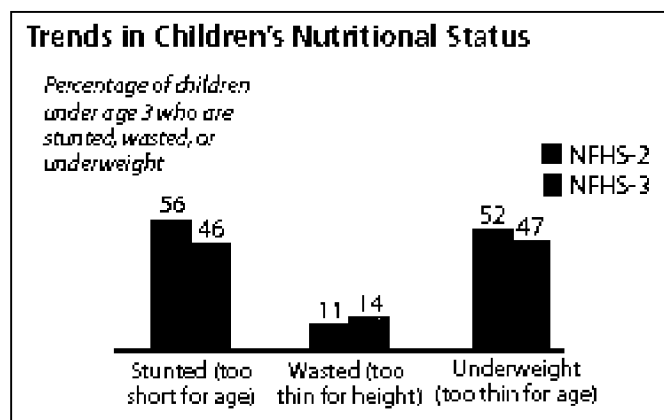
Map 4.4

% Girls With Malnutrition



53. NFHS data suggests that stunting declined from 56 to 46 during 1997-2005; wasting rose from 11% to 14.5%; and percentage of underweight children declined from 52% to 47% during the same period (Fig. 4.18).

Figure 4.18



54. Gender-wise segregation of data shows that although there is not much difference in the overall malnutrition status of boys and girls, there are perceptible regional variations across the state. In case of boys, a majority of districts across the central, eastern, western and bundelkhand regions reported a high prevalence of malnutrition (it ranged from 60% to 96.3%). Ironically, only Ghaziabad and Pilibhit have less than 65% prevalence of malnutrition among boys. there were at least seven districts in the state where more than 90% of the boys were malnourished (RCH Survey 2002-04). As far as malnutrition amongst girls was concerned, a majority of districts across the central, eastern, western and bundelkhand regions reported a high prevalence of malnutrition (ranging from 54.5% to 95%). There were at least three districts namely Ghaziabad, Farrukhabad and Mainpuri where less than 65% of the girls were malnourished. On the other hand in 12 districts of the state more than 90% of the girls were malnourished (RCH Survey 2002-04).

55. Besides the normal malnutrition challenge, UP also suffers from micronutrient deficiency. Micronutrient deficiencies are widespread in India. More than 75 percent of preschool children and mothers suffer from iron deficiency anemia (IDA) and 57 percent of pre-school children have sub-clinical Vitamin A deficiency (VAD). Iodine deficiency is endemic in 85 percent of districts.

### Breast Feeding

56. Researches suggest that early initiation of breast-feeding within two hours of birth may protect against neonatal mortality. Breast-feeding protects the neonate against several infections including diarrhea and respiratory infections, and saves lives. An exclusively breast-fed infant is about 14 times less likely to die from diarrhea, 3 to 4 times less likely to die from respiratory

disease and 2 to 3 times less likely to die from other infections than a non-breastfed infant; early initiation of breast feeding may promote maturation of the digestive tract and protect against infection; and the body warmth associated with breast-feeding may avert infant death from hypothermia. Also, breast milk is much more economical than artificial milk or powdered milk food. The average cost of feeding a six-month-old infant for one month on infant formula may even be equal to the average monthly per capita income for many families.

57. Exclusive breast-feeding exerts strong contraceptive effect in the first 4-6 months post partum. Moreover, maternal benefits include early termination of post partum bleeding and protective effect against breast and ovarian cancer. Breast-feeding is particularly relevant for developing countries like India where neonatal and infant mortality rates are high, most women do not exclusively or predominantly breast-feed their infants for the first six months, and delay of initiation of breast-feeding beyond the first day of life is common. Breast-feeding is a universal phenomenon, but in the Indian scenario, very few children are put to this practice immediately after birth. DLHS NFHS shows that despite several programs aimed at educating and sensitizing the community on the benefits of early initiation and exclusive breastfeeding, 20 districts (Baghpat, Badaun, Ferozabad, Farrukhabad, Kannauj, Etawah, Kanpur Dehat, Unnao, Shrawasti, Gonda, Fatehpur, Banda, Siddharth Nagar, Sant Kabirnagar, Ambedkar Nagar, Allahabad, Kaushambi, Bhadohi, Varanasi and Chandauli) reported less than 5% of women who immediately breast-fed their baby within 2 hours of birth. Only 6 districts in the western region namely, Ghaziabad, Gautam Buddhanagar, Rampur, Bulandshahr, Aligarh and Shahjahanpur reported more than 15% of women who initiated breast-feeding early i.e. within two hours of birth.

58. Colostrum is the initial breast secretion and considered to be the nutritionally rich that provides natural immunological protection to the newborn. It is a complex food, rich in nutrients and non-nutritional bioactive components, which promote infant health, growth and development. Practice of colostrum feeding is significantly associated with early initiation of breast-feeding. Unfortunately prevailing cultural practices like giving pre-lacteals and discarding colostrum delay the initiation of breast-feeding to the newborn. In different districts of the state 36% to over 80% of the mothers first squeeze off the colostrum before feeding their children. An alarmingly high percentage (more than 80%) of children in 23 districts of central, western and Bundelkhand region of the state were denied colostrum as their mothers squeezed off the first milk before breastfeeding. In another 24 districts 65% to 80% of the children are denied colostrum. In only four districts namely, Shrawasti, Balrampur, Siddharth Nagar and Sant

Kabirnagar, mothers of less than 50% children discarded colostrum before breast-feeding their newborns.

59. Malnutrition among children is one of the biggest public health problems in Uttar Pradesh. It adversely affects the growth and development of children, including their learning ability, and the capacity to cope with the problems of daily living. Every sixth undernourished child in India lives in UP and every second child in UP is undernourished. It is a sad reminder that UP ranks fourth with respect to prevalence of underweight children in India. The scenario on other indicators is no better.

60. Efforts in last few years have yielded some results. Child development parameters such as IMR, malnutrition, low birth weight, immunization, Vitamin-A supplementation, exclusive breast-feeding, and complementary feeding etc, have shown improvement. Nonetheless, challenge at hand is phenomenal and calls for strategic interventions and focused approach. District level data shows that the challenge is much bigger in certain pockets and particular districts. This underlines the need for targeted interventions.

## VII. Safe Drinking Water & Sanitation

61. World Health Organization estimates suggest that about 80% of all sickness and diseases are linked to the poor drinking water and sanitation conditions. 1.5 million children in the age group of 5 years and less die every year due to lack of safe water and proper sanitation in India. Infant Mortality Rate can be brought down substantially if safe water and proper sanitation is provided to the population.

62. Adequate availability of safe, potable drinking water is a top policy priority for the state government. The policy requires supply of domestic water as per norms, which differ for types of habitations and locations. The norms at present are 70 lpcd for small towns (up to 20,000 population), 135 lpcd for towns with a population between 20,000 and 5 lakh and 150 lpcd for cities of over 5 lakh population. The norm for the rural area is 40 lpcd with one source for 150 persons. Under Total Sanitation Programme, this supply can be extended up to 70 lpcd.

63. The coverage of safe drinking water source in U.P. is quite satisfactory. According to a 2004 survey report of UP Jal Nigam, among the 2,60,110 habitation, 2,33,341 (89.4%) rural habitations have been covered with potable water supply (40 lpcd) by providing one safe source (hand pumps or piped water) for 150 persons which is serving 78% of the state population (13.0295 crore). Despite this good progress, four districts still have more than 25% habitations which are not fully covered, namely, Bulandshahr (35%), Lakhimpur Kheri

(32.3%), Ambedkar Nagar (29.7%) and Mathura (25.9%). The coverage is satisfactory in the western, central and the Bundelkhand regions of the state. But the same is not the case with the eastern part of the state.

64. Out of the total sources, 1.5% have water quality problem. 26.68 lakh people living in habitations with 'quality problem' are yet to have access to safe drinking water. There are five districts which have more than 5% affected drinking water sources. Unnao ranks first in this list as 17.6% sources have quality problems, followed by Mathura where this percentage is 14.7. Similarly, Kushinagar, Mau and Gautam Buddhannagar have 5% to 8% affected water sources. Besides, 22 districts of the state have average water quality problems. In the remaining 43 districts, there is no major quality problem.

65. Government of Uttar Pradesh is signing a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with Gol for underscoring its commitment to reforms in water and sanitation sector (Box 4.5). National Rural Drinking Water Quality Monitoring and Surveillance Programme has already been launched in the State. Industrial Toxicology Research Centre is the state referral institute for providing technical support. Health inputs are being provided by Social Preventive Medicine Department, KGMU. Jal Nigam is responsible for providing field test kits, H<sub>2</sub>S Strips and managing district level laboratories in all districts. Under NRHM Village Health, Water & Sanitation committee have been constituted under the chairmanship of Gram Pradhan, Members of the committee are AWW, ANM, ASHA, Local Dai and habitants of local areas. The committee is also being provided an annual cash assistance of Rs. 10,000/- for local health activities and preparation of Village Health Plan.

66. Sanitation, however, is a problem area in UP. Out of the 70 districts of the state, only 30 have more than 33% sanitation coverage. The problem in 40 districts is severe. Agra, Azamgarh, Bareilly, Chitrakoot, Devi Patan, Faizabad, Kanpur, Gorakhpur and Lucknow divisions have majority of low coverage districts. In 1999 the policy moved from the Rural Sanitation Program (CRSP) to the Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) that adopted a demand driven approach, the emphasis was on information, education and communication (IEC), capacity development, community leadership, acceleration of rural sanitation coverage, covering all rural school with sanitation facilities. The TSC program got going in 1999-2000 in four districts of the state. By 2003-04, all the 70 districts had been taken up but the progress has been slow. Till March 2006, only 33% coverage could be achieved and full coverage is expected not before 2012. This deadline needs to be advanced.

#### **Box 4.5: Reforms in Water & Sanitation Sector in Uttar Pradesh**

Government of Uttar Pradesh is signing a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with GOI underscoring its commitment to reforms in water and sanitation sector. The salient features are:

1. State Government and the Panchayati Raj Institutions realize their Constitutional obligation to (i) provide access to safe drinking water to rural population; and (ii) ensure that all segments of society, are imparted basic knowledge and are supported in the use of this knowledge, for improving health and reducing poverty.
2. The State Government is committed to follow the parameters of Centrally Sponsored schemes pertaining to rural Drinking Water and Sanitation sector, including the following priorities for coverage of rural habitation:-
  - (i) Meeting the Bharat Nirman targets :
    - (a) All water Quality affected habitations are proposed to be covered in 11<sup>th</sup> Plan.
    - (b) All the slipped back/newly emerged habitations are to be covered with safe water supply in 2006-07.
  - (ii) Habitations inhabited exclusively by SC/ST or having more than State average SC/ST population are being covered under priority. Habitations with over 50% SC/ST population, cash contribution will not be mandatory. Community contribution may be either in the form of cash / labour / material/ land. State may provide 50% subsidy.
  - (iii) The State Government commits itself to the following reform principles in the Water Sector and to promote Swajaldhara (demand responsive and community based) throughout the State:-
    - (a) Adoption of a demand-responsive approach along with community participation based on empowerment of villagers.
    - (b) Legal ownership, and responsibilities for public drinking water and environmental sanitation assets to be with the Village Water and Sanitation Committee;
    - (c) VWSCs to have the powers to plan, implement, operate, maintain and manage all water supply schemes,
    - (d) The community contribution of 10% to 25% envisaged.
    - (e) 100% responsibility of Operation and Maintenance (O&M) by the users. Cost of O&M to be borne by users.
    - (f) Linkages between water supply, sanitation

and hygiene are recognized and reflected in policies and plans

- (g) The monitoring of water quality (to ensure that it is safe) is the responsibility of the supplier i.e. the Panchayats. The Village Water and Sanitation Committee will be responsible for water quality monitoring and surveillance;
  - (h) Each water supply scheme will incorporate conservation measures
  - (j) Enabling men and women to participate equally in all decision making and control of assets
  - (k) Enabling the participation of the poor and marginalized in all decision making,
  - (l) Establish effective coordination mechanisms with the Health and Education Departments, at all levels;
3. The State government is committed to attain full sanitation coverage in the rural areas by the end of 11th Plan.

67. Still there are many challenges in the field of water and sanitation, including contamination of water sources; habits; supply; and availability of resources. However, the efforts in recent past do inspire hope. Particularly the kind of partnership and synergy which government and organizations like UNICEF have forged seems to be the right path forward. Equally important are the emerging stories of community partnership and ownership of water and sanitation efforts (see Box 4.6).

#### **Box 4.6: Nirmal Gram Puraskar - An Award for bringing in dignity and quality in life**

Promotion of sanitation was very close to the heart of Mahatma Gandhi who always believed that 'Cleanliness is next to Godliness'. The initial impetus given by him has been translated in many sanitation programmes. In 1999, reform principles were adopted and allocation made to a demand driven and community-based programme named Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC).

TSC is implemented in a decentralized mode and, therefore, involvement of PRIs is central to the programme. Recognizing the role of PRIs and with a view to motivate them an incentive scheme called Nirmal Gram Puraskar (NGP) was initiated by Government of India.

His Excellency, President of India, Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam gave the NGP awards for the year 2005-06 to 40 gram panchayats from the state on 23<sup>rd</sup> March 2006 at Vigyan Bhawan, New Delhi. Wide spread

dissemination of message of cash award and honour given to GPs have had a tremendous impact on rural community and in 2006-07, 1296 GPs from across the State have submitted their proposal for award and 488 have finally been selected.

NGP has already given a positive boost to the sanitation drive across the State and will prove crucial to make Uttar Pradesh an 'open defecation free' state by 2012. Now the Gram Pradhans of NGP award winning GPs are serving as role model for other GPs and providing further boost to implementation of TSC.

### VIII. Public Health Delivery System

68. Uttar Pradesh has a large public sector health infrastructure comprising one Super Specialty Institution (SGPGI), 7 government medical colleges & hospitals, 53 District Hospitals, 13 Combined Hospitals, 388 Community Health Centres, 823 block PHCs, 2817 Additional PHCs apart from 20521 Sub Centres (Table 4.2). Government has allowed private medical colleges to be set up in the state. Under this policy 3 medical colleges and hospitals have been opened. In addition, 4913 private hospitals / nursing homes have been established. There are a large number of registered and non-registered medical practitioners in the State, who are practicing in the state and they play an important role in providing medical service to the rural population.

69. However, the physical health infrastructure in the State is still much below the country average. For

instance, the population covered by a Sub-centre in the State is 7080 and the average distance is 3.4 km., while the country average is 5109 and 1.3 km. It is estimated that 11% of people in Uttar Pradesh are not able to access medical care due to locational reasons. Further, even when accessed, there is no guarantee of sustained care. Several other deterrents such as bad roads, unreliability of presence of the health provider, costs of transport and wages foregone, etc. make it cheaper for a villager to get treatment from the local quacks.

70. Fig 4.19 and Fig 4.20 show the utilization of inpatient and out patient care in the state. It is shocking to find that only around 10% of the people seek outpatient care from public facilities in rural Uttar Pradesh. Against this at the national level the percentage of people seeking outpatient care from public facilities is 22% in the rural areas. In the urban areas, only 13% of the people seek outpatient care from public facilities against the national average of 19%.

71. The role of public facilities in patient care is somewhat better. In rural UP, 27% of the people seek inpatient care from public sector against a national average of 42%. In urban areas the state picture is very close to the national picture. 31% of the people seek inpatient care from public sector facilities against the national average of 38%. It need be noted, however, that the rural facilities like CHC and PHC have 30 beds and 6 beds respectively hardly ten per cent of this facility is utilized. Thus, there is much scope for improved inpatient care in public facilities if bed utilization can be improved.

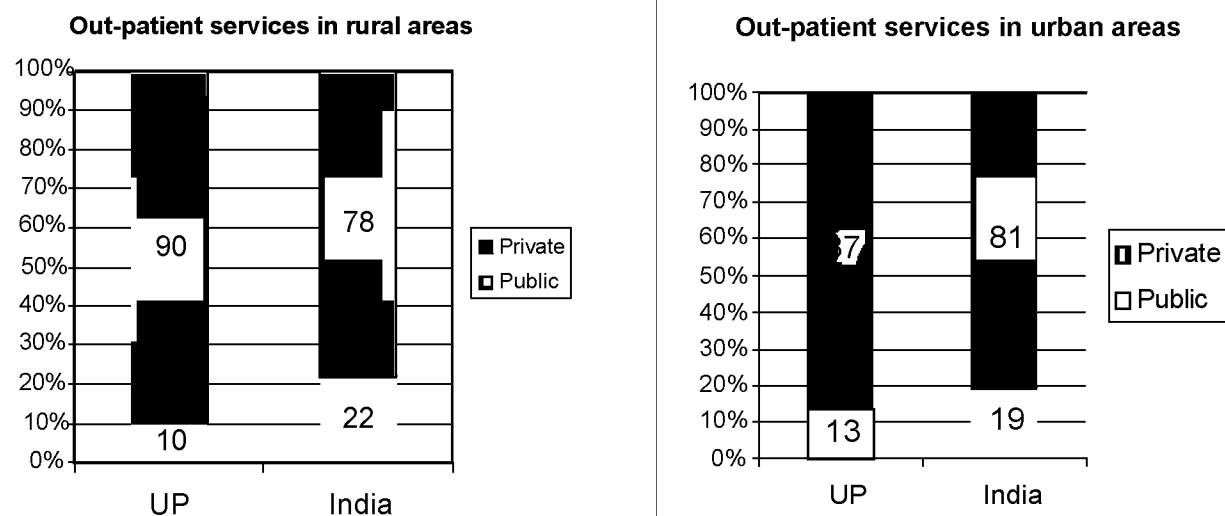
**Table 4.2: Health Infrastructure in U.P.**

Urban Areas		Rural Areas	
Type of Facility	Number	Type of Facility	Number
Super Specialty Institute	5*	CHCs	315
Medical Colleges	7 - Govt. 2 - Central Govt. 3- Private	BPHCs	823
District Male/Female Hospitals	53	Additional PHCs + BPHCs	3640
Combined Hospitals	13	Rural PPCs	147
Urban FW Bureau	5	Sub Centres	20521
Urban FW Centres	61		
Health Posts	136		
District Level PPCs	63		

\*1 super specialty institute, SGPGI, is functional at Lucknow, 4 institutes are in the process of being set up.

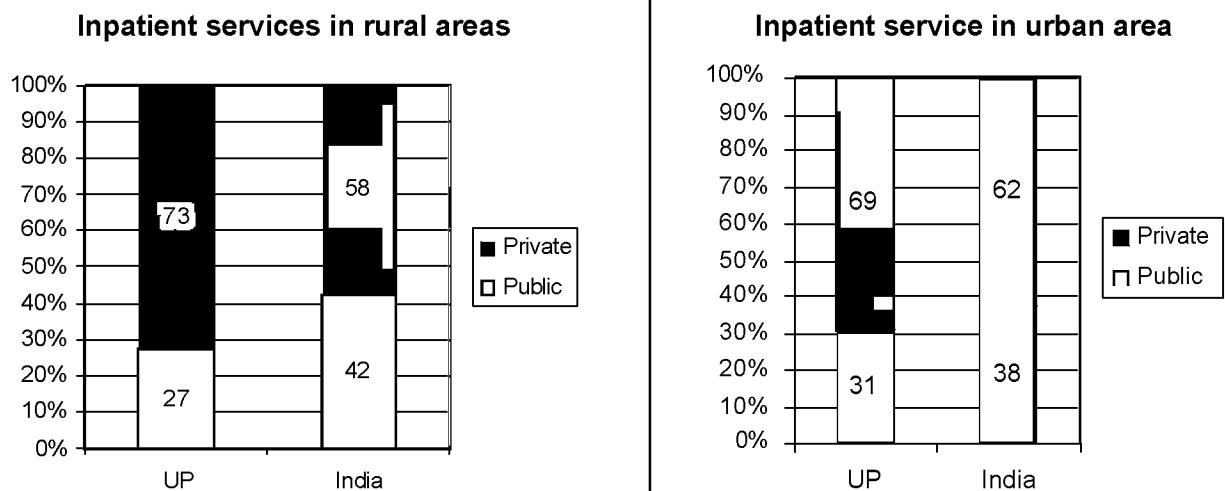


**Fig 4.19: Utilization of Out-Patient Services in Public and Private Sector**



Source: Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation, NSS 60<sup>th</sup> round (Jan-Jun, 2004)

**Fig 4.20 Utilization of Inpatient Services in Public and Private Sectors**



Source: Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation, NSS 60<sup>th</sup> round (Jan-Jun, 2004)

### IX. Human Resources Requirements

72. Severe shortage of manpower at all levels in the public health delivery system stands out as a major problem in public health delivery system (Table 4.3). Every health functionary is under a lot of pressure on account of the large numbers that he is expected to

serve. This has a direct bearing on the quality of services rendered and uptake of services. The ratio of doctors per thousand population for U.P. is much below the national figure of 1 and although the ratio of beds is almost the same as the all India figure of 0.7, their geographical distribution is highly skewed in favour of the urban areas.

<b>Human Resource</b>	<b>Sanctioned</b>	<b>Filled</b>
<b>Medical Officers</b>		
Male (General)	6468	4940
Male (Specialist)	4128	3694
Female (General + Specialist)	1740	1319
<b>Paramedical Staff</b>		
Pharmacist	6542	5435
Staff Nurse	4948	4018
ANM	23656	21944
Optometrist	931	830
Lab. Technician	2119	1431
X-Ray Technician	544	452
Dark Room Assistant	193	108
Physiotherapist	19	19

Source: Department of Medical & Health, GoUP

73. The situation is grave in terms of requirement of medical personnel *vis a vis* their availability, specially in case of doctors and specialists. Table 4.4 shows the estimated number of health facilities and healthcare personnel required for providing primary health care services in rural areas based on the population norms for health facilities.

74. Although the State has a large presence of private health providers, it is mostly concentrated in the urban areas and is largely focusing on curative aspects. A survey of hospitals in the private sector, commissioned by the Government of UP, revealed that

there are 2,592 private hospitals with total bed capacity of 47,269. There are 2,321 general hospitals that account for 92.4 percent of beds in the private sector, 201 nursing homes with 2,506 beds that offer maternal and child health services exclusively, and 70 hospitals with 1,010 beds that offer specialty services (UPHSDP Project Implementation Plan, Vol. 1, 2000).

75. Total number of doctors and hospital beds, both public and private sector combined, are shown in Table 4.5.

76. The magnitude of various private health providers in the State is given in Table 4.6.

<b>Description</b>	<b>Sub-Centre (1 per 5000 population)</b>	<b>PHC (1 per 30,000 population )</b>	<b>CHC (1 per 1 lakh population)</b>	<b>Total</b>
Number of Facilities	28940	4823	1447	-
Doctors	-	9646	7235	16881
Staff Nurse	-	14469	11576	26045
BHW - Male	28940	4823	1447	35210
BHW - Female	28940	4823	1447	35210
Pharmacist	-	4823	1447	6270
Lab. Technician	-	4823	1447	6270

Note: Assuming a rural population of 144.7 million in 2006, considering a 2 per cent per annum growth over the Census 2001 figure of 131.5 million

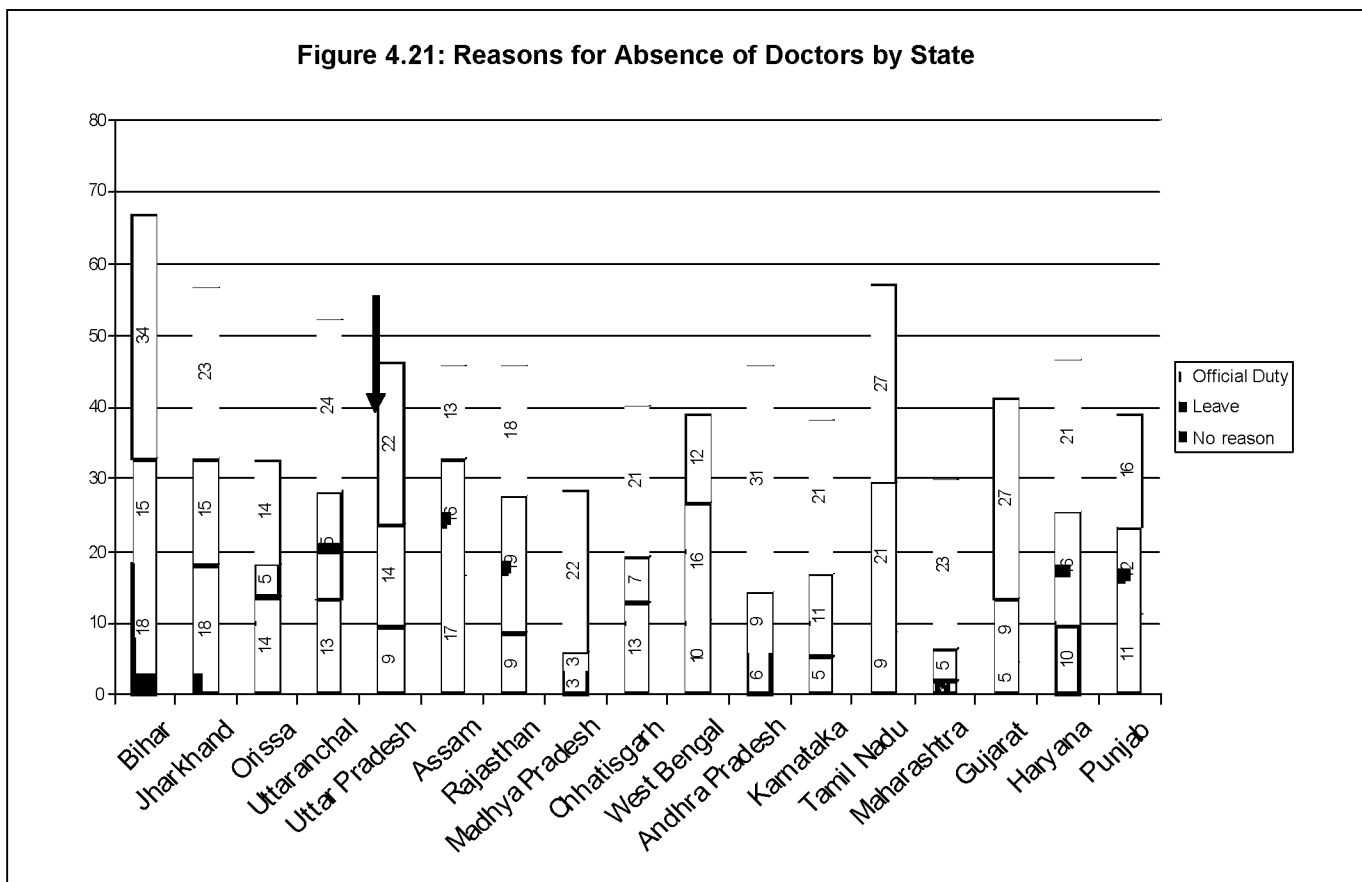
Practitioners/Beds	Government Sector	Private Sector	Total	Ratio (Per 1000Population)
Allopathic Doctors	9950	29000	38950	0.2
Total Beds	54193 (Urban-31646, Rural-22547)	46269	100462	0.6

Hospitals	Physicians & Specialists (Allopathic)	Nurses, Physiotherapists & Paramedical	Ayurveda	Unani	Homeo.	Diag./Patho. Labs.
4424	29000	53280	27042	5192	19861	5957

Source: National Commission on Macroeconomics and Health

77. The problem of shortages is further compounded by the absenteeism of public sector health personnel in the State. A World Bank study captures the overall percentage of absenteeism and reasons for absence in different states of the country (Figure 4.21). 45% of the doctors were found absent from duty in Uttar Pradesh. Interestingly, 14% out of this 45% were on leave; 9% of them were absent without reason; and 22% (i.e.

almost half of total absenteeism) of the doctors were absent from the post because they were on official duty. It raises questions regarding the work schedule which forces absence of doctors in a doctor scarce State. It also, apparently, raises questions regarding compromised system of accountability of the health functionaries where absence can be camouflaged as field visit. Etc.



Source: World Bank

78. The lack of proper human resource development policies (lack of incentives, lack of in-service training, performance rating system, poor monitoring, etc.) contributes to low employee morale, indiscipline and poor performance. Similarly, inappropriate skills mix complicates the challenge further, for example, a gynaecologist is posted at a CHC where there is no anaesthetist, results in underutilization of skills. Likewise, transfers are often arbitrary and without adherence to any norms.

79. It needs be noted that there are 20,521 sub-centers in rural areas of the state. All sub-centers are manned by one ANM. As per the plans afoot, soon every sub-centre will have two ANMs. In addition, the state envisages establishment of additional 7,000 sub-centers in the next five years in order to meet the IPHS norms. These additional 7,000 sub-centers will require additional 14,000 ANMs (norm of two ANMs per sub-centre) in the coming years. Accordingly we will have a gap of around 34,000 ANMs in the coming five years.

80. This shortage needs to be appreciated in the backdrop of the fact that availability of trained ANMs in the state is almost negligible as the training centers have not been conducting training since 1992. During 1992-2004, pre-service training of ANMs did not take place. It was only in 2004 that efforts were made and training was restarted. At present there are 40 ANM training centres in the state (each with a capacity 90 per batch). 30 centers have been made partially functional. Problem of availability of PHN Tutors continues to be a major challenge and affects the quality of training. Also there are 30 District Training Centers which are non-functional at present and need to be reactivated. The training capacity in these centres is detailed in Table 4.7.

81. Nursing care is an important component for quality medical care. The State has nine Nurses Training schools in government sector with capacity to train 453 staff nurses each year and 2 training schools run by Central Government with a training capacity of 44 staff nurses. Apart from these, there are 33 schools with a training capacity of 1060 nurses in private sector.

82. Out of 813 blocks in the state, only in 399 blocks Community Health Centers are functioning. Construction

of 134 CHC's is under progress. Each CHC has sanctioned posts of 3 staff nurses. In order to provide effective medical care and mother and child care services round the clock for 140 FRUs. The actual requirement is of 9 Nurses per CHC as per IPHS Standards. Hence, 840 additional nurses are required for existing 140 FRUs only. To facilitate round the clock delivery services at 270 Block Primary / Community Health Centres, there is an additional need of 810 nurses. Fortunately, many districts have adequate bed strength for nurses training for establishing Nurses Training schools.

## X. Health Cost and Financing

83. The financial burden of illness in Uttar Pradesh is very high. While the policy is to provide free health care at the cutting edge the de facto situation is that care at PHCs is not free. Primary Health Centers are chronically short of medicines. Patients have to purchase medicines from outside. Cost of transportation, absence of doctors, wage earning losses, etc. also add up to the cost of health care. While the government charges nothing and is, therefore, short of resources, the people end up either paying from their life time savings or borrowing to receive inappropriate care from inappropriate provider. The expenses on medical care and hospitalization continue to be a major reason for poverty in Uttar Pradesh.

84. Average medical expenditure per hospitalization case in rural UP in the public sector is estimated at Rs.7648 (Table 4.8). This is more than twice as much as the national average of Rs.3238. This does not include loss of household income. Even the cost in the private sector is found to be much higher in U.P. than the national average. In the urban areas too the cost of health care in the public sector is much higher in U.P. than the national average. However, in the private sector it comes out to be lower than the national average. The stronger presence of public sector facilities and larger trust in the urban public facilities in the estimation of the people along with significant competition in the private sector seem to have ensured relatively cheaper private health care. Also significantly lower cost of public health care in urban areas *vis`a vis`* care in rural areas may also have contributed to the process.

**Table 4.7: Availability of Training Facilities for ANMs**

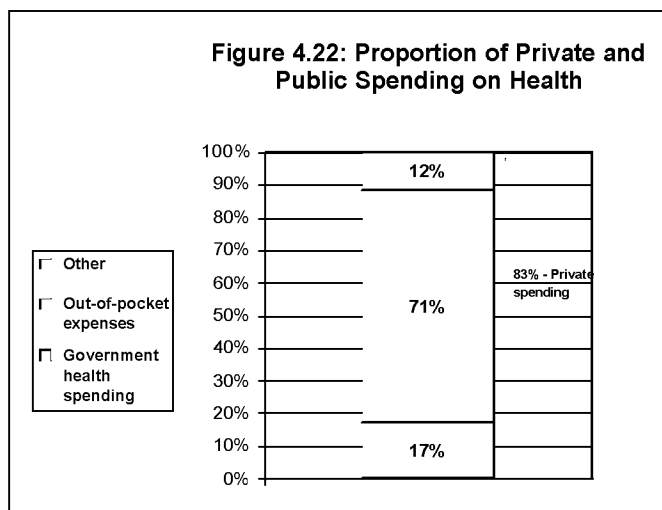
#	Training Centre	No. of Training Centers	Capacity per Centre	Total Capacity per 18 months
1-	ANM Training Centres	40	90	3600
2-	District Training Centres	10	30	300
3-	Approved Nursing Training Centers in Private Sector	20	60	1200
	<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>		<b>5100</b>

**Table 4.8: Average Medical Expenditure Per Hospitalization Case In Rural And Urban UP And India**

State	Rural			Urban		
	Public	Private	Loss of Income	Public	Private	Loss of Income
U.P.	7648	9169	920	5144	10351	536
India	3238	7408	636	3877	11553	745

Source: NSS 60th Round (Jan-Jun, 2004)

85. Health care in UP is primarily financed by private spending with out of pocket accounting for over 71% of the total expenditure. Total non public sector spending accounting for 83% of the spending and the government health care funding accounting for only 17% of the total spend (Figure 4.22).



86. National Health Accounts estimates indicate that the household sector spends Rs.17158 crore on health in UP whereas government spends only Rs.2650 crore. In Kerala the house hold sector spends only Rs.8373 crore, while in Tamil Nadu household sector spends Rs.3624 crore only. The above makes it amply clear that it is not so much the shortage of resources as it is the inappropriate organization and flow of resources. Much of the out of pocket expenses comes from the pockets of ordinary citizens. He spends through his nose, often falling into poverty and ends up getting inappropriate care.

87. Table 4.9 gives the picture of monthly expenditure on health according to various rounds of NSS for UP, Karnataka and India. In rural UP in 2003 non-institutional medical expenditure accounts for 6.6% of the total expenditure while institutional medical expenditure accounts for 1.9% of total expenditure. Non institutional expenditure in rural U.P. compares unfavourably with such expenditure than the national average. In states like Karnataka such expenditure is much lower as compared with UP.

**Table 4.9: Medical Expenditure (Rs.) as Percentage to Total Expenditure per Person per 30 Days**

State	Sector	Item		59th Round	55th Round	50th Round
				Jan03- Dec03	July 99- June 2000	July 93- June 94
1	2	3		4	5	6
Uttar Pradesh	Rural	Medical (institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	9.60	5.73	1.96
			Percent	1.89	1.23	0.72
		Medical (non-institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	33.55	32.96	17.07
			Percent	6.59	7.06	6.23
	Urban	Medical (institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	10.62	7.20	2.35
			Percent	1.35	1.04	0.60
	Medical (non-institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	39.74	35.31	16.65	
			5.06	5.11	4.28	
Rural	Medical (institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	10.50	6.68	3.19	
		Percent	1.89	1.34	1.18	
	Medical (non-institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	21.31	17.62	9.96	
		Percent	3.84	3.53	3.70	

State	Sector	Item		59th Round	55th Round	50th Round
				Jan03- Dec03	July 99- June 2000	July 93- June 94
1	2	3		4	5	6
Karnataka	Urban	Medical (institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	10.77	16.36	4.57
			Percent	1.12	1.80	1.08
		Medical (non-institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	29.76	27.10	10.63
			Percent	3.10	2.97	2.51
	Rural	Medical (institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	10.65	6.66	2.52
			Percent	1.92	1.37	0.89
	Medical (non-institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	28.22	22.94	12.76	
		Percent	5.09	4.72	4.53	
All-India	Urban	Medical (institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	16.49	12.33	5.54
			Percent	1.61	1.44	1.21
		Medical (non-institutional)	PCE (Rs.)	43.71	30.95	15.51
			Percent	4.28	3.62	3.39

Source: NSS Various Rounds

88. In urban UP too the non institutional expenditure is found to be significantly higher. In absolute sense the expenditure in UP is lower, however, in percentage terms it is found to be higher. This only suggests the higher actual burden on the poor families and also highlights the need for public intervention by the welfare state. The resources which are now available to the state under National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) may well be used to ameliorate this challenge.

## XI. Concluding Remarks

89. The above analysis of the health situation in Uttar Pradesh shows that people of the state continue to suffer from serious health deficiencies which stem largely from maternal health, low birth weight, malnutrition, inadequate psycho-social stimulation and disability. These factors are compounded by other environmental and social factors such as gender and caste, inadequate family and community support and poor quality of service delivery in health care.

90. Moreover, there are wide variations across the state as are evident from the inter-district comparisons. There are districts in the state where the current status is much below the 1990 level, which was taken as the starting point for MDGs. The circumstances are worse in the districts falling in the *tarai* region of the state. It is also found that in most of the cases the districts and regions that perform poorly on one indicator repeat the poor performance on most related indicators, reflecting a cumulative and concentrative pattern of disadvantage, which is indicative of a definite interdependence of outcomes.

91. Morbidity as well as mortality challenge in the state has several dimensions. The task ahead in terms of

curtailing these incidences is huge by any standard. The state is trailing behind substantially in achieving the Millennium Development Goals. If the scenario is to be positively affected then morbidity circumstances will have to be targeted with focus on the lagging districts and social groups.

92. The state is striving hard to overcome these challenges. The decline in infant and child mortality rate for the past few decades are traceable to government sponsored preventive health initiative, including immunization camps, installation of clean water points in rural areas, etc. Nonetheless, it seems to be a long journey before the objectives can actually be achieved. Although in many of the cases the solutions may actually be simple, often it is lack of awareness which makes it a bigger challenge than what it normally should be.

93. The task of meeting the health challenges is too big to be handled by the government alone. The private sector has to play a key role in the delivery of health services in U.P. However, there is lack of standards and quality assurance systems in both public as well as private sectors. Virtually, there is no effective regulation in the private sector. The private sector provides no information about its performance and has no system for patient protection or fair pricing. *There is absolute dearth of information regarding how well private care is delivered in U.P.*

94. At the same time, it must be emphasized that the role of public sector will retain its critical importance. It must be appreciated that the cost of treatment is among the highest in those states where the public health infrastructure is less developed. This fact applies to government and private hospitalization as well as to outpatient treatment. *Where public health*

*system is well developed the treatment cost of both public and private sector facility is low.* Competition from public facilities is an important determinant of charges in the private facilities as demonstrated by Kerala Experiment. Access to health care is directly related to the cost of health care. It is amply clear that in UP the cost of private care is exorbitantly high in comparison to both the cost of public sector facilities as well as the bearing capacity of the population, particularly the poor.

95. The challenge before Uttar Pradesh is huge by any standard. It can only be surmounted if the private sector, NGOs and the Government join hands. New forms of public private partnership have to be evolved and put into shape. The public agencies and NGOs should focus greater resources on development and widespread dissemination of public health information messages aimed at improving community members' capacity to safeguard their own and their children's health.

96. A major problem in formulation of effective policy and devising intervention methodologies at the local level is the serious lack of credible, timely and regular data on various health indicators. The survey based data is either too infrequent or in most of the cases the desegregation level at which the data is

available leaves much to be desired. The MMR data for the state was available only for 1997 (NFHS 1998). Now the same is available for 2005 (NFHS3). For the intervening period even the state level data was not available. As far as desegregation is concerned the district level data is just not available, seriously compromising the bench-marking or monitoring of the efforts towards maternal mortality reduction. The IMR data is now available for the district level (RCH data). However, both the frequency of the data and its reliability in terms of throwing up credible district level IMR information leaves many unanswered questions. Similarly, disaggregated data for neonatal mortality, which is one of the biggest contributors to IMR are also not available. The problem of the availability of such disaggregated data on a regular basis which can throw up policy directions and enable areas specific interventions has to be addressed urgently.

97. For the first time the health sector is being given due priority with injection of appropriate resources in the form of large NRHM resources and the Plan resources. These are likely to be appropriately supplemented by resources from institutions like the World Bank. This certainly seems to be UP's opportunity, which should be grabbed with both the hands.

## Economic Well Being

### I. Introduction

1. In the early development literature economic development was defined in terms of growth of total or per capita income. Limitations of this approach soon became evident and the concept of development was gradually broadened to include other aspects of well being. Today, the concept of human development has dethroned per capita income as a measure of development from the high pedestal it enjoyed earlier. Human development does not ignore the importance of economic growth, but looks at it not as the end but only as a means for human development. As the *Human Development Report 1996* observes policy makers should not be 'mesmerized by the quantity of economic growth.' They need to be more concerned with the structure and quality of growth.

2. However, it has to be recognized that economic growth is an essential pre-requisite for human development as higher income levels are required to meet the basic physical and social needs of the people, increase their access to educational and health facilities and generate higher revenues to the government for investment in economic and social infrastructure. Thus, economic growth enlarges the freedom of choice both for the individual and the society. But how these choices are exercised and their outcome on human development would depend on the decisions of individual households and the government.

3. The outcomes of economic growth in terms of human development depend on a number of factors like the pace, pattern and structure of growth. A process of spatially widespread, employment intensive and socially equitable economic growth is more conducive for human development. Unless governments take timely corrective measures, economic growth can become lop-sided and flawed. Deliberate intervention is required to see that the benefits of growth are equitably shared and growth does not lead to increased misery and joblessness for different sections of the people. Economic growth is, thus, a necessary but not a sufficient pre-condition for human development. The focus of the policy makers, therefore, must be on strengthening the links between economic growth and human development.

4. Thus, both *priory* reasoning and empirical analysis establish that economic growth and human development are interlinked processes (see Singh *et. al.* 2006). But there happen to be situations where there is lack of convergence between economic growth and

human development. For a good number of countries the human development index does not match the income rankings. Many countries with relatively higher level of income show lower levels of human development. On the other hand, some countries rank high in human development index despite low per capita income, e.g. Sri Lanka. Similar situations are observed at the state level in India. Punjab and Kerala provide the classic case. Kerala has a much higher level of human development as compared to Punjab, although its per capita income is much lower than Punjab.

5. In a more conducive social environment, where parents and society place higher valuation on education, one can have a better human development status. Uttaranchal, the former hill region of UP is an example. The region scored much better in human development indicators than the other regions of UP. On the other hand, in societies and regions where strong gender bias exists due to economic and socio-cultural values as in Punjab, Haryana, West UP, human development indicators for women are likely to be depressed irrespective of the higher income levels.

6. UP presents a dismal scenario with regard to economic growth as well as human development. In fact, a vicious circle is operating in the state where low income levels and slow economic growth keep the attainment in human development levels low, while poor human development status acts as a constraint on rapid economic progress and restricts participation of the large masses in the development process.

7. It is in this context, the present chapter gives an overview of the structure and growth of income and employment levels in Uttar Pradesh and focuses on the levels of poverty and unemployment. In view of the large size of the state and prevalent disparities in economic conditions at regional and district level the analysis is carried out at the disaggregated levels depending on data availability. The chapter is divided into six sections including the introduction. Section II deals with income levels and economic growth at the state, regional and district levels. Section III discusses the growth and structure of employment and shifts in work force structure. Section IV analyses the poverty trends in the state and the associated factors, while Section V deals with unemployment situation. Government programmes for poverty reduction and employment generation are also reviewed briefly in these sections. The concluding section makes suggestions for meeting the challenge of rapid growth with employment generation in the state.



## II. Income Levels and Growth

8. *The trends in the total and per capita Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP), are the most comprehensive measure of the level of economic activities in the state. It measures the value of the total final output of goods and services produced in the various sectors of the economy like agriculture, industry, trade, transport, services, etc. Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) refers to the total value of final output minus the depreciation of capital in the process of production.*

9. Economic activities are usually classified into three broad sectors, namely, primary sector, secondary sector and tertiary sector. *Primary Sector* includes activities like agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fishing and mining. *Secondary Sector* includes manufacturing, construction and electricity, gas and water supply. *Tertiary Sector* includes services like transport, warehousing and communications, trade, hotels, banking, insurance, ownership of property, public administration and other social and domestic services.

10. Growth rate in SDP in U.P., which had remained extremely sluggish during the first four Five Year Plan periods, started picking up since the Fifth Plan period and caught up with the national growth rate in the Sixth and the Seventh plan period, when U.P recorded growth rate of over 5 per cent per annum. However, since the beginning of the nineties growth rate in U.P. dropped significantly. It affected all the sectors of the state economy. GSDP in U.P. increased at the rate of around 4 per cent per annum during the period from 1993-94 to 2004-05. Trend growth during the period was only 2.0% per annum in case of primary

sector, and around 4.4% in case of the secondary sector and 4.7% in case of the tertiary sector. Slow growth of the economy was coupled with large fluctuations in growth rate in all the sectors of the economy, largely emanating from the fluctuations in the agricultural output (see Figure 5.1).

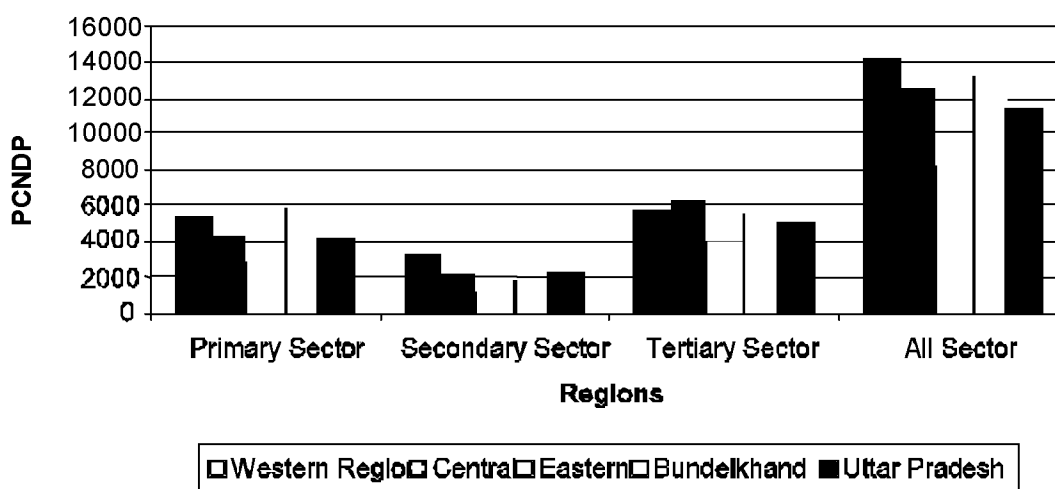
11. Among the major factors responsible for deceleration of growth rates in U.P. are the declining public investments due to the creeping fiscal crisis and the inability to attract investment from outside due to the poor state of infrastructure particularly power shortage.

12. *However, some upward trend in the growth rate of GSDP in U.P. is discernible during Tenth plan period as both public and private investment has picked up. Thus, the growth rate of U.P. economy works out to 5.3 per cent during Tenth Plan as compared to a growth rate of 7.3 per cent as all India level during the same period.*

13. The growth rate of the U.P. economy has remained markedly below that of the country as a whole throughout the planning period, resulting into ever widening divergence between the national and the state per capita income. Thus, per capita income of U.P., which was almost equal to the national average at the beginning of the planning period, is now almost half of that. *However, the rate of growth in per capita income of the state works out to 3.3 per cent during Tenth plan period as compared to corresponding growth rate of 6.0 per cent at all India level.*

14. The relatively slow growth of the state economy is a matter of serious concern for the state and national level planners. Growth rates have to be substantially improved in the lagging states like U.P. to deal with the problem of poverty and poor living conditions. This would

**Figure 5.1 : Region wise Net Per Capita Domestic Product, 2004-05 (at Current prices)**



require a big push to investment levels in the state, which will not be possible without larger transfers from the centre and higher investment from the private sector.

15. The sectoral composition of state income has undergone significant changes during the planning period. Thus, the primary sector's share in GSDP has come down from nearly 60 per cent in 1950-51 to around 42 per cent in 1993-94. It presently stands at around 35.8 per cent against the national figure of 22.0 per cent. The slower growth of the primary sector as compared to the non-primary sector has led to increasing disparity in the per capita income in the two sectors.

### Regional Differentials in Per Capita Income

16. The low per capita income in the state conceals sharp differentials at the regional and the state level. Western region of the state is relatively more prosperous as compared with the other regions, while Eastern region is the poorest, Central region and Bundelkhand falling in the middle category (Figure 5.1). Per capita NDDP of Western region is about 70 per cent higher than that of Eastern region. The difference is only around 10 per cent in case of the other regions.

17. The income differentials are even sharper at the district level. Per capita Net District Domestic Product

(NDDP) in 2004-05 ranged from a low of Rs.5,687 in Shrawasti district to Rs.34,709 in Gautam Budh Nagar district, i.e. a difference of nearly 7 times (Appendix Table 5.1). Only one district of the state, namely, Gautam Budh Nagar had per capita income higher than the national average.

18. Table 5.1 arranges districts in order of per capita NDDP. Out of the 14 districts in the top quartile 8 districts belong to Western region, 2 to Central region, 2 to Eastern region and 2 to Bundelkhand. On the other hand, all the 14 districts in the bottom quartile in terms of per capita income fall in Eastern region.

19. The disparities in case of manufacturing sector are much higher as compared to the primary and the tertiary sector as revealed by the coefficient of variation in per capita NDDP (Figure 5.2). Over time disparities have slightly narrowed in case of the manufacturing sector and have slightly widened in case of the primary sector, but have remained more or less constant in case of tertiary sector as well as total NDDP per capita.

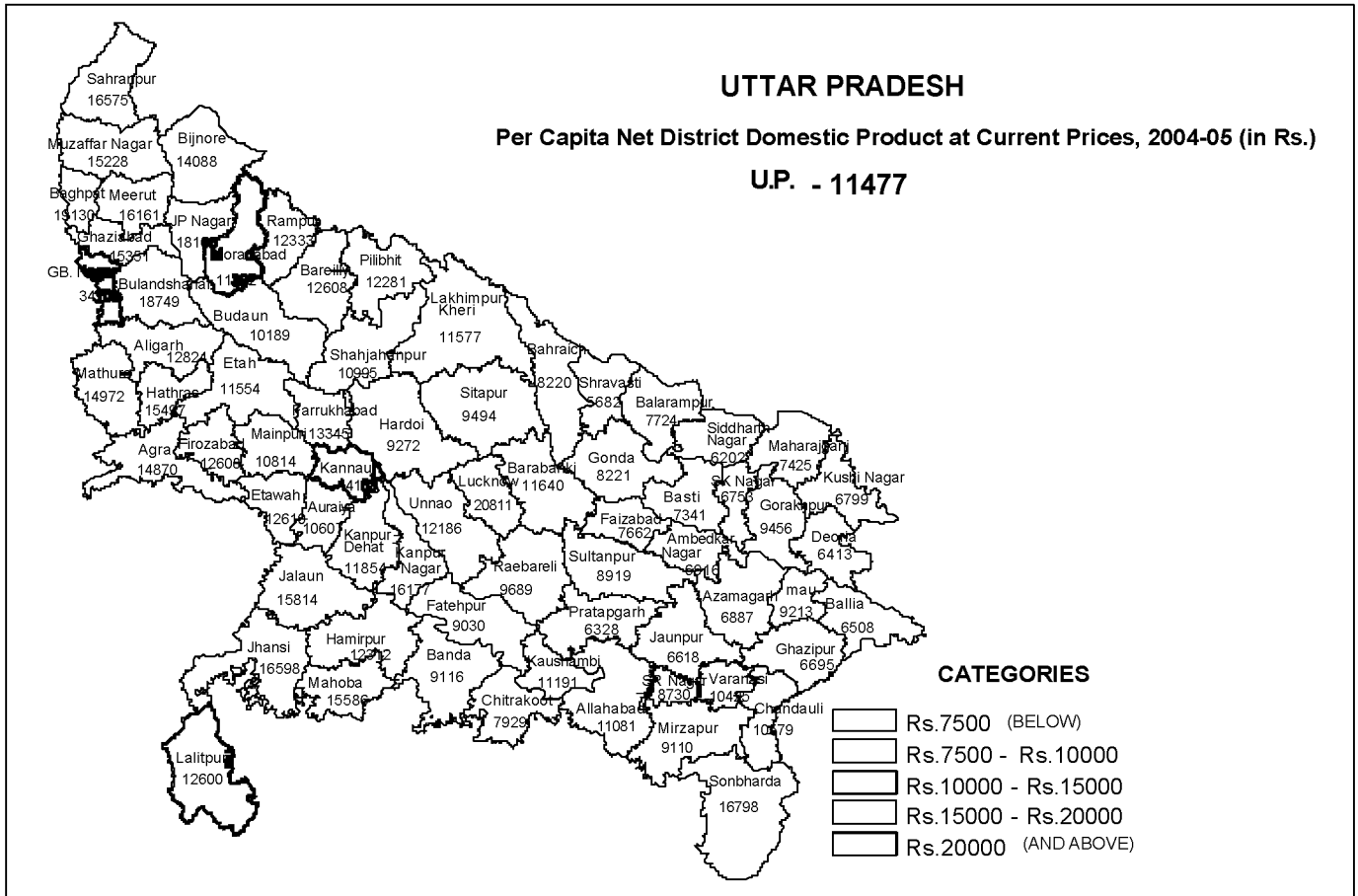
### Growth Rates of NDDP

20. Growth rates of income at regional and district levels have been calculated for two periods, i.e. 1980-81 to 1996-97 and 1993-94 to 2004-05. In the first period the pattern of regional development was more balanced

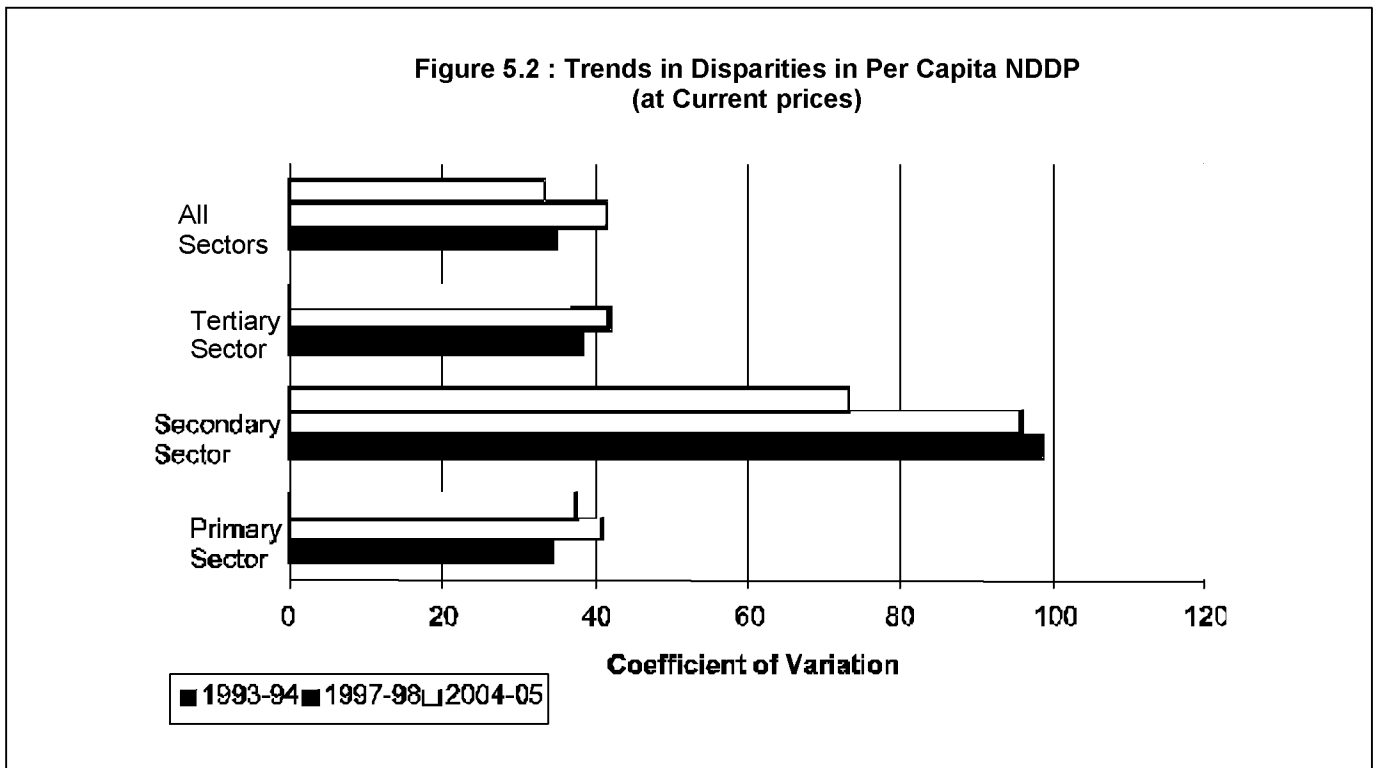
**Table 5.1: Districts arranged in Descending order of Per Capita NDDP, 2004-05**

First Quartile		Second Quartile		Third Quartile		Fourth Quartile		Fifth Quartile	
RANK	Districts	RANK	Districts	RANK	Districts	RANK	Districts	RANK	Districts
1	Gautambuddha nagar	15	Muzaffarnagar	29	Unnao	43	Rae Bareli	57	Faizabad
2	Lucknow	16	Mathura	30	Kanpur Dehat	44	Sitapur	58	Maharaj Ganj
3	Bagpat	17	Agra	31	Barabanki	45	Gorakhpur	59	Basti
4	Buland Shahar	18	Kannauj	32	Kheri	46	Hardoi	60	Ambedkar Nagar
5	Jyotiba phule nagar	19	Bijnor	33	Etah	47	Mau	61	Azamgarh
6	Sonbhadra	20	Farrukhabad	34	Moradabad	48	Banda	62	Kushi Nagar
7	Jhansi	21	Aligarh	35	Kaushambi	49	Mirzapur	63	Sant kabir nagar
8	Saharanpur	22	Etawah	36	Allahabad	50	Fatehpur	64	Ghazipur
9	Kanpur Nagar	23	Firozabad	37	Shahjahanpur	51	Sultanpur	65	Jaunpur
10	Meerut	24	Bareilly	38	Mainpuri	52	St.Ravi Das Nagar	66	Ballia
11	Jalaun	25	Lalitpur	39	Auraiyya	53	Gonda	67	Deoria
12	Mahoba	26	Rampur	40	Chandauli	54	Bahraich	68	Pratap Garh
13	Hathras	27	Hamirpur	41	Varanasi	55	Chitrakoot	69	Siddharth Nagar
14	Ghaziabad	28	Pilibhit	42	Badaun	56	Balrampur	70	Shrawasti

Map 5.1



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P.



with all the four regions growing at a growth rate of around 4 per cent per annum (Table 5.2). Economic growth during this period was led by agricultural sector growth and spread of green revolution technology to different regions of the state. In the second period growth has become regionally more concentrated. Eastern and Western regions show a slower growth in this period, while Central U.P. and Bundelkhand improved their performance. The differences in per capita income growth are also much sharper in the latter period. Bundelkhand and Central U.P. showing better performance than the other two regions.

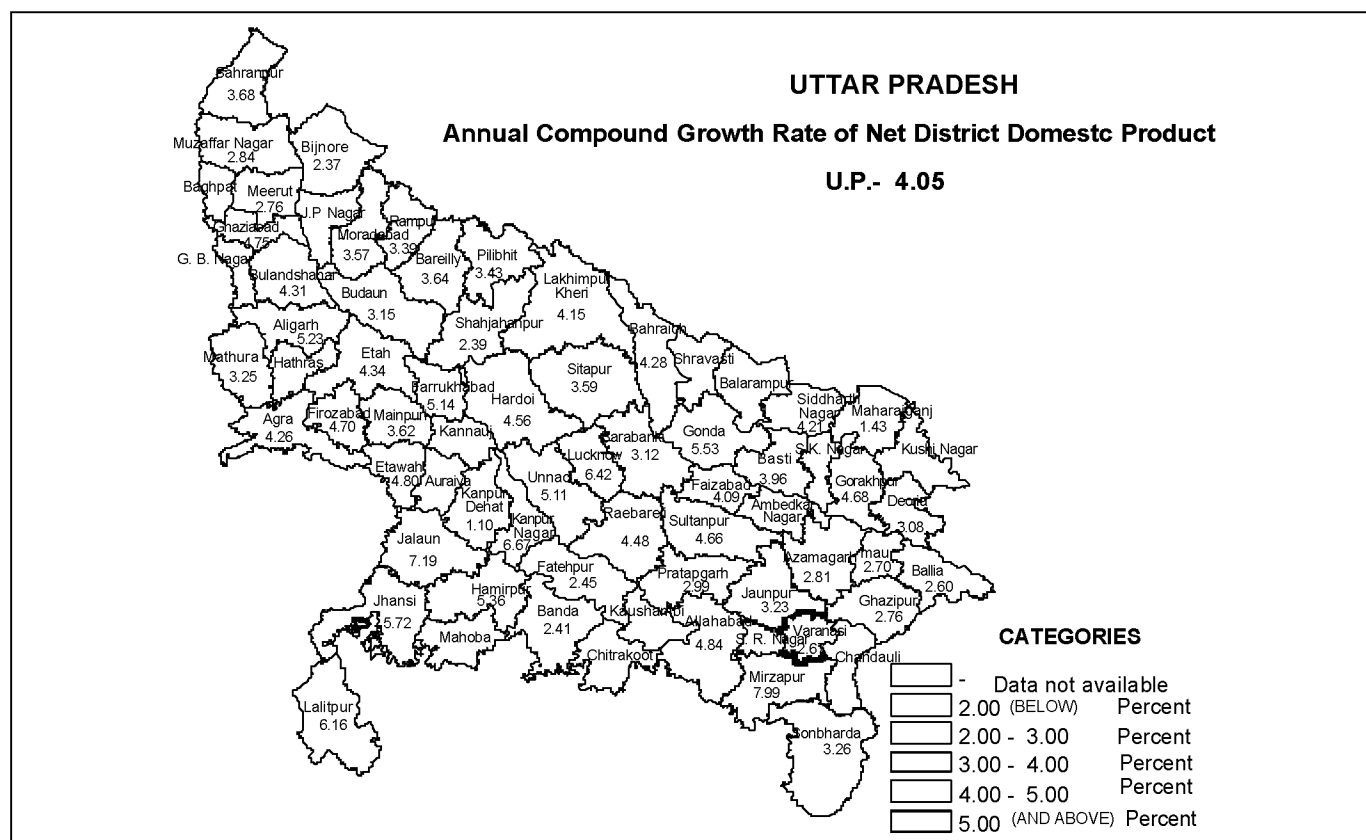
21. At the district level, however, differences in growth rate of income are quite marked ranging from a negative growth of 0.6 per cent per annum in Varanasi to a growth rate of 7.6 per cent in Mirzapur (Appendix 5.2). Mirzapur, Lucknow, Jalaun, Firozabad, Farrukhabad and Kanpur Nagar are the fastest growing districts of the state registering an annual growth of over 6 per cent per annum. On the other hand, very low growth rate of less than 2 per cent per annum were registered in the districts of Fatehpur, Sonbhadra, Sultanpur, Kanpur Dehat and Gonda, while Varanasi registered a negative growth. Within all regions and sectors considerable differences in growth rates are noticeable at the district level.

**Table 5.2: Annual Compound Growth Rate of Total Per Capita Net Regional Domestic Product since 1980-81 (Per cent)**

Region	Total Net Regional Domestic Product		Per Capita Net Regional Domestic Product	
	1980-81 to 1996-97	1993-94 to 2004-05	1980-81 to 1996-97	1993-94 to 2004-05
Western Region	4.2	3.8	1.8	1.5
Central Region	4.3	4.6	2.1	2.3
Eastern Region	4.2	3.9	2.0	1.6
Bundel Khand Region	4.0	5.2	1.8	3.2
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>1.8</b>

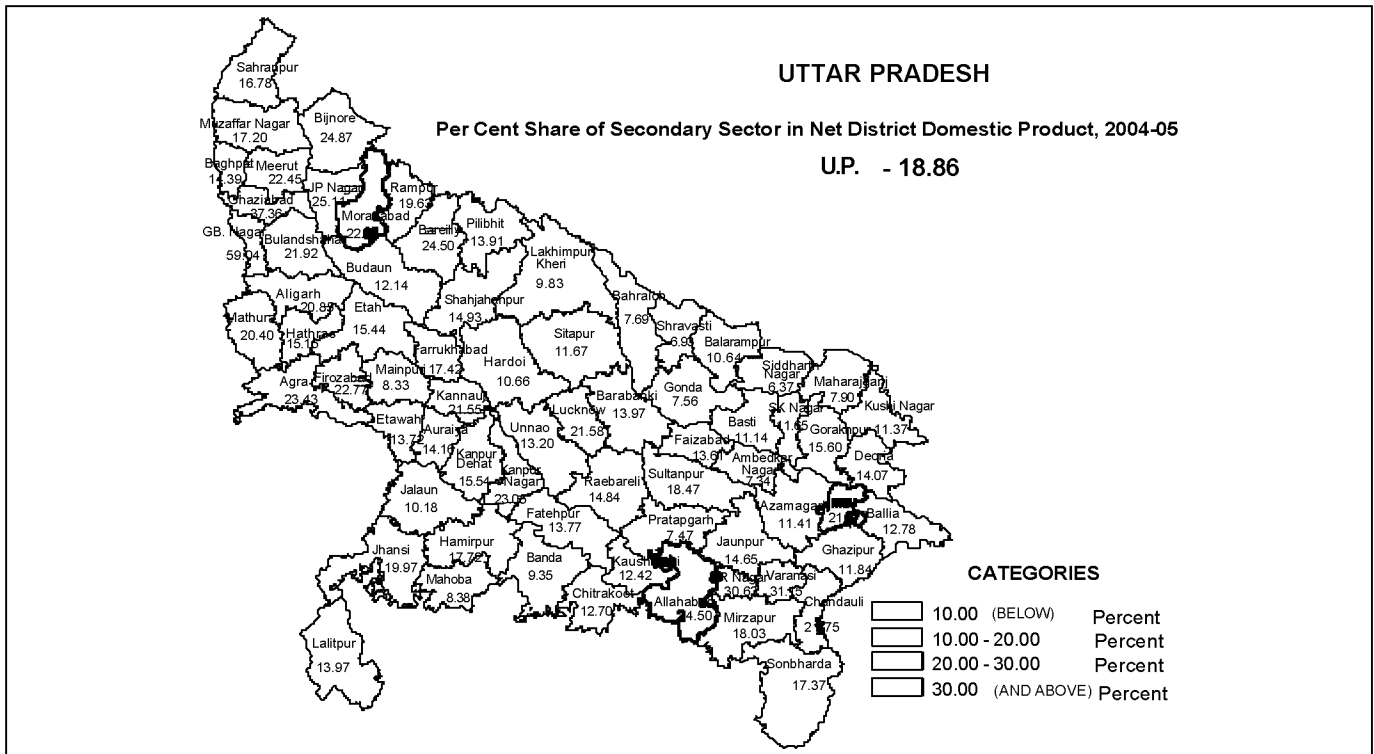
Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P.

**Map 5.2**



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P.

Map 5.3

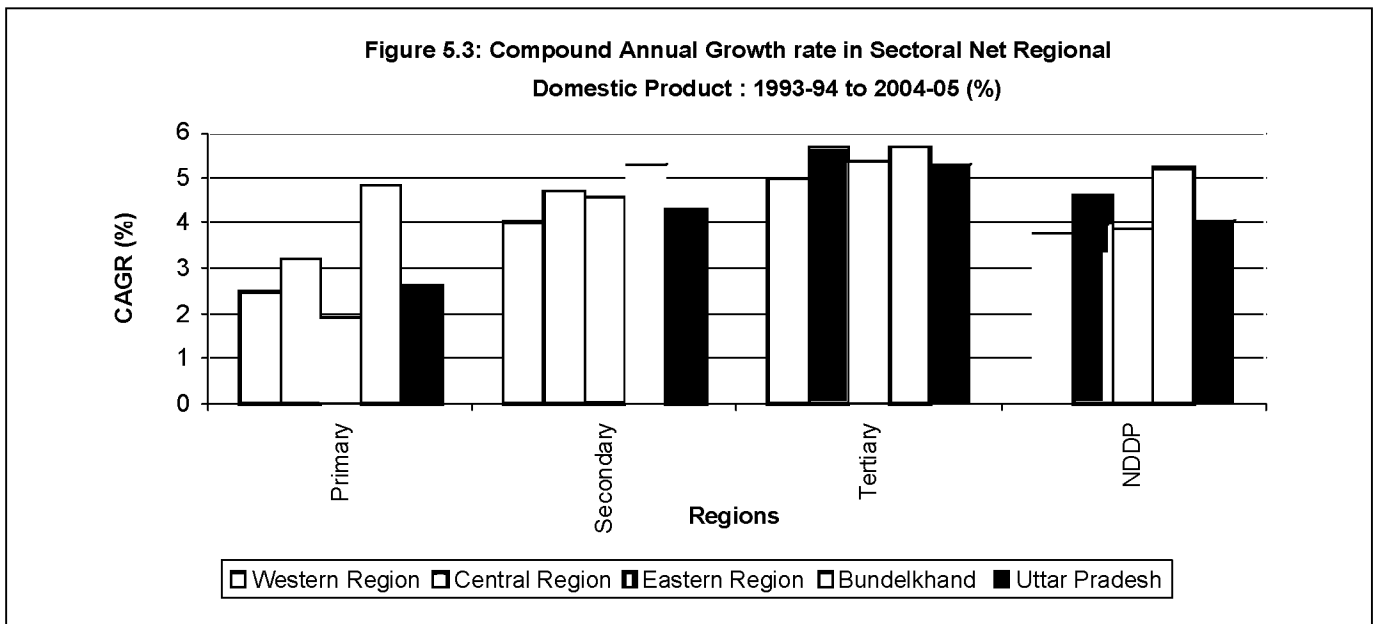


Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P.

**Sectoral Growth Rates**

22. To understand the dynamics of growth we have to look at the sectoral growth rates. Bundelkhand shows a balanced pattern of economic growth with all the sectors registering relatively higher growth rates during the period from 1993-94 to 2004-05. Bundelkhand comes out as the best performing region in terms of primary sector growth, which have been contributed by growth of irrigation and diversification of agriculture in favour

of horticulture crops in the region. On the other hand, Eastern region registered very low growth rates of the primary sector. Agriculture in this region is constrained by the predominance of very small and marginal holdings, recurring floods in some parts and inadequate support in terms of credit facilities and poor rural infrastructure. Inter-regional differences in growth rates are quite sharp in case of the primary and secondary sector, but the tertiary sector shows a regionally more even pattern of growth (Figure 5.3).



23. Table 5.3 shows the top ten and the bottom ten districts in terms of compound growth rate between 1993-94 and 2003-04 in total and sectoral NDDP. Both categories include districts from all the four regions. However, majority of the poor performing districts in case of all the three sub-sectors belong to Eastern and Central region. The inter-sectoral growth rates show an unbalanced pattern for most of the districts, with different sectors showing divergent rates of growth.

24. Due to differential growth rate in total and per capita NDDP, the relative ranks of some districts have undergone a change over the period (Appendix Table 5.3). Highest jump in ranks in terms of per capita income between 1993-94 and 2004-05 has taken place in the case of Farrukhabad, Jalaun, Etawah, Firozabad, Kanpur Dehat and Unnao (all gaining ten or more positions in rank). On the other hand, sharpest decline in rank has occurred in the case of Varanasi, Gonda, Sultanpur, Shahjahanpur and Fatehpur (all of which have lost 10 or more ranks).

## Sectoral Shifts

25. The sectoral composition of Net Regional Domestic Product shows some variation across the regions. The share of the primary sector is highest in Bundelkhand and lowest in Central region (Table 5.4). The share of the secondary sector is highest in Western region and lowest in Bundelkhand. The share of tertiary sector is relatively higher in the Central and the Eastern regions as compared to the other three regions. Between 1993-94 and 2004-05, the sectoral composition has undergone marked changes. The share of primary sector has declined clearly in all the regions. The shift is mainly in favour of the tertiary sector. The secondary sector has also recorded positive shift in Western region and Bundelkhand but a negative shift in the other two regions.

26. At the district level, however, extremely sharp variations in the structure of district income are observable (Appendix Table 5.4). The share of primary sector ranges from as low as 11 per cent in Gautam Budh

**Table 5.3: Districts with Highest and Lowest Compound Annual Growth Rate in NDDP During 1993-94 and 2004-05 (Percent)**

Primary Sector		Secondary Sector		Tertiary Sector		All Sectors	
District	CAGR	District	CAGR	District	CAGR	District	CAGR
<b>TOP TEN DISTRICTS</b>							
Kanpur Nagar	11.47	Firozabad	15.37	Mirzapur	9.77	Mirzapur	7.64
Lucknow	7.54	Farrukhabad	14.05	Lucknow	6.93	Lucknow	7.02
Jalaun	7.13	Badaun	10.22	Jalaun	6.41	Jalaun	6.85
Unnao	5.48	Etawah	10.13	Farrukhabad	6.29	Firozabad	6.78
Hamirpur	5.47	Mirzapur	9.56	Etawah	6.25	Farrukhabad	6.40
Jhansi	5.25	Moradabad	9.40	Gorakhpur	6.17	Kanpur Nagar	6.16
Aligarh	5.18	Pilibhit	8.73	Kanpur Nagar	5.96	Agra	5.35
Ghaziabad	5.06	Maharajganj	8.72	Allahabad	5.94	Hamirpur	5.33
Mainpuri	4.93	Lalitpur	8.66	Siddharth Nagar	5.80	Etawah	5.23
Firozabad	4.27	Basti	8.43	Agra	5.73	Allahabad	5.21
<b>BOTTOM TEN DISTRICTS</b>							
Pilibhit	1.05	Rae Bareli	2.11	Rampur	3.52	Azamgarh	2.79
Jaunpur	1.02	Banda	1.66	Sonbhadra	3.52	ShahjahanPur	2.77
Deoria	0.98	Fatehpur	1.57	Barabanki	3.50	Pilibhit	2.71
Bijnor	0.91	SiddharthNagar	1.50	Pilibhit	3.45	Maharajganj	2.21
Fatehpur	0.85	Meerut	1.41	Maharajganj	3.38	Fatehpur	1.89
Maharajganj	0.72	Sitapur	0.87	Sultanpur	3.30	Sonbhadra	1.65
Ghazipur	0.01	Sonbhadra	-1.79	Fatehpur	3.06	Sultanpur	1.59
Varanasi	-0.41	Sultanpur	-2.26	Gonda	2.29	Kanpur Dehat	0.93
Ballia	-1.06	Varanasi	-4.07	Kanpur Dehat	2.12	Gonda	0.33
Kanpur Dehat	-1.75	Gonda	-9.23	Varanasi	1.95	Varanasi	-0.57

**Table 5.4: Sectoral Composition of Net Regional Domestic Product (percent)**

Region	Primary Sector		Secondary Sector		Tertiary Sector		NDDP	
	1993-94	2004-05	1993-94	2004-05	1993-94	2004-05	1993-94	2004-05
Western Region	41.10	36.85	19.94	22.56	38.96	40.59	100.00	100.00
Central Region	36.16	33.25	17.28	16.32	46.56	50.43	100.00	100.00
Eastern Region	40.04	35.75	19.32	15.69	40.64	48.56	100.00	100.00
Bundelkhand	46.76	44.45	12.50	13.99	40.74	41.55	100.00	100.00
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	40.18	36.25	18.86	18.86	40.96	44.89	100.00	100.00

Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P

Nagar to around 57 per cent in Mahoba district. In ten districts the share of primary sector is around 50 per cent or more. Most of them belong to Bundelkhand and Central regions. In six districts this share is below 20 per cent. These are more urbanized districts.

27. Around 57 per cent of total income in Gautam Budh Nagar district emanates from secondary sector. But in as many as ten districts, this share is below ten per cent. These districts belong to Bundelkhand and Eastern

region with the sole exception of Mainpuri which falls in Western region.

28. Tertiary sector is now emerging as the most important sector in majority of districts the share ranging from a low of 31 per cent in Gautam Budh Nagar to 65 per cent in Kanpur Nagar. In 15 districts services are contributing more than half of district income.

29. Table 5.5 lists the districts with relatively high and low share of different sectors in district income.

**Table 5.5: Districts with the Highest and Lowest Share of Different Sectors in District Income 2004-05**

PRIMARY SECTOR			SECONDARY SECTOR			TERTIARY SECTOR		
Rank	Districts	Share (%)	Rank	Districts	Share (%)	Rank	Districts	Share (%)
<b>Top Ten Districts</b>								
1	Mahoba	55.69	1	Gautambuddha nagar	59.04	1	Kanpur Nagar	67.02
2	Kheri	54.16	2	Ghaziabad	37.36	2	Lucknow	60.83
3	Sonbhadra	51.18	3	Varanasi	31.15	3	Gorakhpur	58.94
4	Jalaun	51.08	4	Sant Ravi Das Nagar	30.63	4	Allahabad	56.04
5	MaharajGanj	50.94	5	Jyotibaphule nagar	25.11	5	Kaushambi	54.82
6	Siddharth Nagar	50.27	6	Bijnor	24.87	6	PratapGarh	54.30
7	Mainpuri	49.72	7	Bareilly	24.50	7	Ballia	53.64
8	Bahraich	49.35	8	Allahabad	24.50	8	Varanasi	53.20
9	Hardoi	49.11	9	Agra	23.43	9	Mirzapur	52.42
10	Banda	49.07	10	Kanpur Nagar	23.05	10	Faizabad	52.32
<b>Bottom Ten Districts</b>								
61	Chandauli	28.20	61	Banda	9.35	61	Lalitpur	38.55
62	Agra	27.69	62	Mahoba	8.38	62	Kannauj	38.14
63	Gorakhpur	25.46	63	Mainpuri	8.33	63	Muzaffarnagar	37.89
64	Ghaziabad	23.17	64	Maharaj Ganj	7.90	64	Bijnor	37.82
65	Allahabad	19.46	65	Bahraich	7.69	65	Buland Shahar	37.51
66	Sant Ravi Das Nagar	18.67	66	Gonda	7.56	66	JyotibaPhule Nagar	36.07
67	Lucknow	17.59	67	Pratap Garh	7.47	67	Kheri	36.01
68	Varanasi	15.65	68	Ambedkar Nagar	7.34	68	Mahoba	35.93
69	Gautambudh Nagar	12.01	69	Shrawasti	6.93	69	Sonbhadra	31.45
70	Kanpur Nagar	9.93	70	Siddharth Nagar	6.37	70	Gautambuddha Nagar	28.95

### Box 5.1: Highlights of Income Growth

#### Major Achievements

- *Between 1993-94 and 2004-05 U.P. registered a moderate growth of 4.0 per cent per annum in total SDP and 1.4 per cent per annum in per capita SDP.*
- *There has been acceleration in growth rates during the Tenth Plan.*
- *Growth process has been geographically widespread particularly in case of the agricultural sector.*
- *Inter district disparities have remained stable over the period.*
- *The composition of state income has undergone significant changes with a clear shift in favour of the secondary and tertiary sectors and a sharp decline in the share of the primary sector. This is true for all the regions.*

#### Areas of Concern

- Growth rates in U.P. have been much slower than in other parts of the country leading to a growing gap between the state and the national per capita income.
- Wide variations in growth rate of NDDP are observed at the district level. Eastern districts have shown a relatively slower growth.
- Sharp differentials in per capita incomes exist at the regional and district levels, with Western districts enjoying a much higher level of per capita income than districts in other regions. East U.P. is the poorest region in terms of per capita income.

There is a high degree of concentration of industrial activities in a few selected districts mostly in Western region.

### III. Trends and the Pattern of Employment

30. The concept of 'work' and 'employment' poses problems in terms of measurement particularly in case of females. The population census uses the concept of main and marginal workers, while the National Sample Survey Organization uses the concept of primary and subsidiary workers in terms of usual, weekly and daily status. Population Census, conducted every ten years, collects information on economic activity of the people. Work is defined as participation in any economically productive activity. Such participation may be physical or mental in nature. Work involves not only actual work but also effective supervision and direction of work. It also includes unpaid work on farm or in family enterprise. The reference period is one year preceding the date of enumeration.

31. Census classifies workers into two categories:

- (i) **Main workers**, i.e. those who had worked in some economic activity for the major part of the year, that is, for a period of six months (183 days) or more; and,
- (ii) **Marginal Workers**, i.e., those who had worked for some time during the last year, but not for the major part, that is, less than 183 days.

32. The National Sample Survey Organization conducts quinquennial surveys on employment and unemployment. NSSO has defined work or gainful activity as the activity pursued for pay, profit or family gain or in other words the activity, which adds value to the national product. Like Census it includes work in any market activity and any non-market activity relating to the agricultural sector.

33. The NSSO has adopted three different approaches to measure employment and unemployment:

- (i) **Usual Status**, which has a reference period of 365 days preceding the date of survey;
- (ii) **Current Weekly Status**, which has a reference period of seven days preceding the date of survey;
- (iii) **Current Daily Status**, with each day of the seven days preceding the date of survey, which measures work in person days.

34. NSS concept of employment based on usual status approach is broadly comparable with the Census. The NSS workers are further classified as *principal status workers* and *subsidiary status workers* on the basis whether their involvement in economic activity was for a longer part of the year or not. While male work participation rate as estimated by NSSO are roughly comparable with that of Census, the former reports much higher work participation rates for females.

#### Work Participation Rates

35. Work participation rates (WPR), i.e. the ratio of workers to total population, shows the proportion of population engaged in gainful economic activity. Taking main and marginal workers together, 32.5 percent of population was economically active in U.P. as per 2001 Census. WPR was very low for females at 16.5 percent as compared to 46.8 percent for males. WPR was lower in urban area, where only 26.3 percent of persons were economically active as compared to the figure of 33.9 percent in rural areas. Only 19.0 percent of rural women and 6.8 percent of urban women in U.P. were found to be economically active. Thus, employment opportunities seem to be much lower for women in U.P., which constraints the role of the women in development.

36. District-wise work participation rates have been shown in Appendix Table 5.5. Male CWPR does not show large variation across districts. But very sharp variations in female CWPRs are observed at the district



levels ranging from a low of 6.3 per cent in Saharanpur to 36 per cent in Chitrakoot district. In general female work participation rates are higher in the poorer regions of Bundelkhand and Eastern U.P. as compared to the other two regions.

37. It is well known that population census does not truly reflect the economically active population particularly in case of females. NSS surveys are more representative of the reality in this respect and show higher WPR particularly for females. According to NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round 36.3 percent of the persons in U.P. were employed according to UPSS (Usual + Subsidiary) status. WPR for males and females were 50.2 percent and 21.6 percent respectively. The corresponding rates of WPR at the national level were 54.7 per cent for males, 28.7 for females and 42.0 percent for all persons. Thus, the WPRs in the state are clearly lower than that in the country particularly for females. WPR was somewhat higher in rural areas of U.P. at 37.1 percent as compared to the urban areas, where only 33.1 per cent of persons were economically active. Work participation rates for women are particularly low in U.P.- 24.0 percent in rural areas and only 11.7 percent in urban areas. The latest

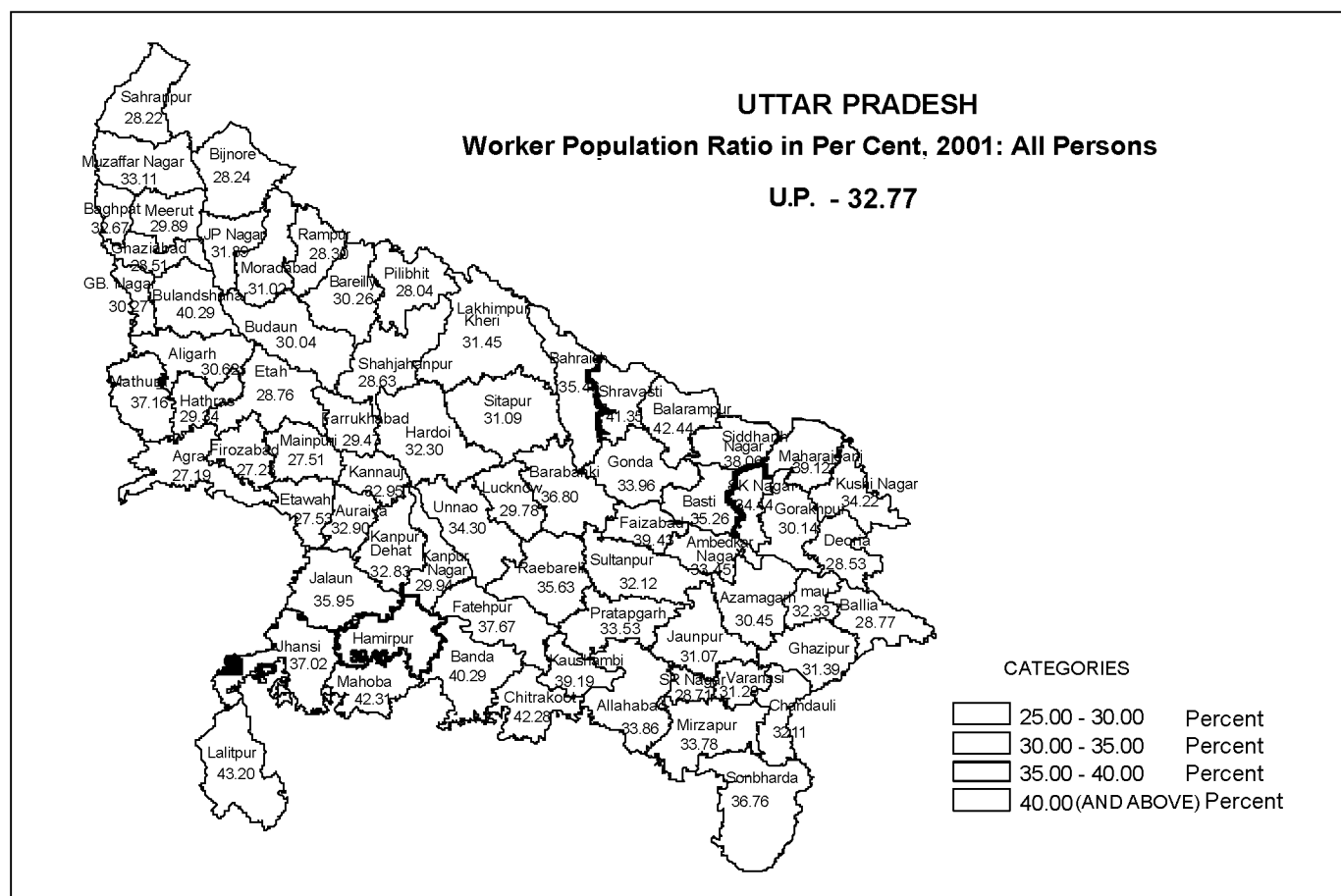
NSS round shows an improvement in WPR between 1999-00 and 2004-05 for both males and females in rural as well as urban areas (Table 5.6).

### Sectoral Pattern and Shifts

38. The sectoral pattern of employment is an important indicator of the nature of economic activities in an economy as well as the level of its economic development. Detailed tables on industrial classification of workers for the Census of 2001 are not yet available. However, it is possible to see structure of the work force and changes therein in terms of the agricultural and non-agricultural segments of the economy.

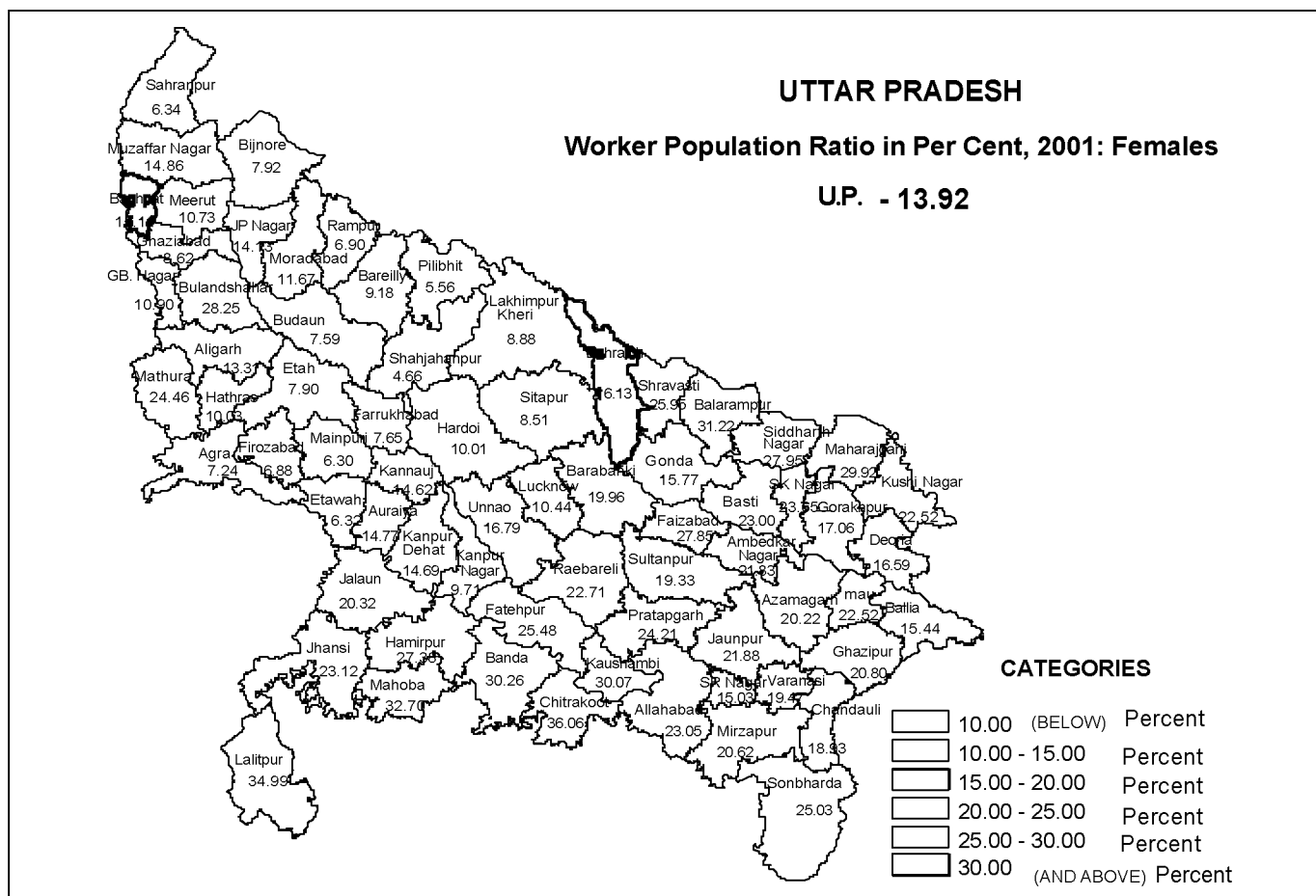
39. According to the 2001 Census about two thirds of the total workers (main + marginal) in U.P. are engaged in agriculture. About one-fourth of the workers are agricultural labourers (Table 5.7). In case of the rural workers a little over 77 percent were engaged in agriculture, out of which 49 percent were cultivators and 28 percent agricultural labourers. Three-fourths of female workers were engaged in agriculture as compared to around three-fifth of male workers.

Map 5.4



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P.

Map 5.5



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P

Table 5.6: Trends in Work Participation Rate (UPSS)									
Year	Rural			Urban			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1983 *	53.05	25.67	40.03	50.10	9.66	31.11	52.52	22.81	38.42
1987-88 *	51.85	21.93	37.73	46.33	9.12	27.30	51.31	19.70	36.44
1993-94 *	52.23	21.86	37.82	48.23	10.22	30.48	51.43	19.61	36.38
1999-00 *	48.10	20.05	34.48	49.01	9.41	30.38	48.29	17.94	33.65
2004-2005	49.60	24.00	37.10	52.40	11.70	33.10	50.22	21.40	36.25

Note: \* Figures are for undivided U.P. including Uttarakhand

Source: Calculated from NSS Rounds.

40. Over time the structure of work force has undergone noticeable change. The shift is away from agricultural sector to non-agricultural sector mainly in the tertiary activities. This is true for total as well as rural workers both for males and females. The rate of decline in the proportion of agricultural workers was much sharper in the nineties as compared to the eighties,

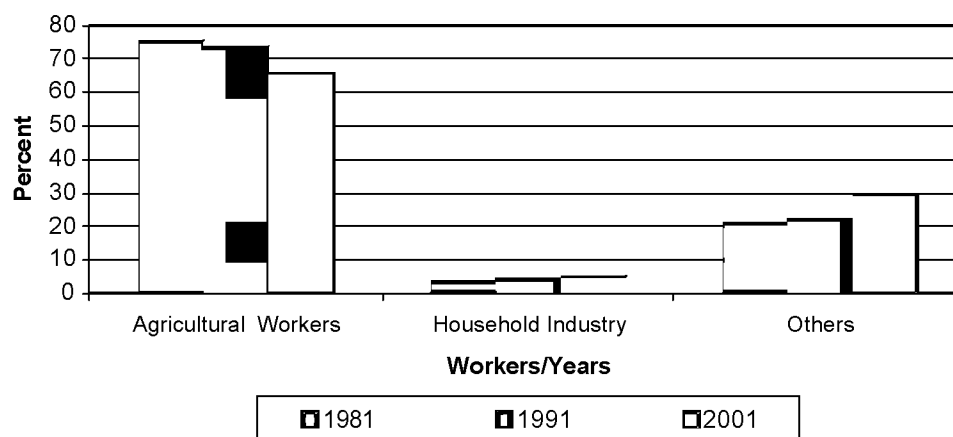
as agricultural is no longer in a position to absorb more workers. It needs to be noted that among the agricultural workers the proportion of cultivators has sharply declined while that of agricultural labourers has increased. Thus, it looks that marginal farmers are unable to sustain themselves on agricultural income and are either becoming agricultural labourers or moving to other activities.

**Table 5.7: Percent Distribution of Total and Rural Workers (Main + Marginal) by Industrial Category : 1981, 1991 and 2001**

State	Cultivators	Agricultural Labour	Agricultural Workers	Household Industry	Others	Total Workers
<b>Total Workers</b>						
1981*	58.57	16.73	75.29	3.74	20.97	100.00
1991*	53.30	20.36	73.66	4.20	22.14	100.00
2001*	41.41	24.19	65.60	5.16	29.25	100.00
<b>Male Workers</b>						
1981*	59.58	14.22	73.80	3.56	22.65	100.00
1991*	53.86	16.94	70.79	4.18	25.03	100.00
2001*	42.56	19.64	62.20	4.29	33.51	100.00
<b>Female Workers</b>						
1981*	51.37	34.56	85.93	5.04	9.02	100.00
1991*	50.96	34.89	85.85	4.29	9.86	100.00
2001	37.81	38.37	76.18	7.86	15.96	100.00

\* including Uttarakhand Source: Calculated from *Census Reports*.

**Figure 5.4: Workers Distribution (Main +Marginal) by Industrial Category(%)**



41. The NSS data shows greater diversification of the economy as compared to the Census data (see Table 5.8). Thus, according to 61<sup>st</sup> Round of NSS, 61.7 percent of total workers were employed in primary sector, 18.2 percent in secondary sector and remaining 20.1 percent in tertiary sector. Only 12.4 percent workers were employed in manufacturing activities. The rural economy continues to be predominantly agrarian in nature with 72.8 percent workers employed in agriculture and allied activities. Female workers are overwhelmingly concentrated in agricultural activities. 80.5 percent of

total women workers and 86.7 percent of rural women workers were found engaged in agriculture.

42. A fairly sharp reduction of around 8 percentage points in the proportion of workers employed in agriculture has taken place during the period 1993-2005 (Table 5.9). On the other hand, the proportion of workers in manufacturing and construction has gone up by around 3.0 and 2.4 percentage points respectively. Among the services trade, hotels and transport sectors have gained, while other services show a decline in their share.

**Table 5.8: Per 1000 Distribution of Usual Status Workers (Principal + Subsidiary)  
by Sectors, 2004-05**

S.No.	Industrial Division	Rural			Urban			Total		
		Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons
1.	Agriculture, Etc.	663	865	728	72	265	105	538	803	615
2.	Mining ,etc.	2	2	2	1	0	1	2	2	2
	<b>Primary Sector</b>	<b>665</b>	<b>867</b>	<b>730</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>265</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>540</b>	<b>805</b>	<b>617</b>
3.	Manufacturing.	96	74	89	262	389	284	131	107	124
4.	Electricity Etc.	1	0	1	5	2	5	2	0	1
5.	Construction	74	6	53	85	21	74	76	8	57
	<b>Secondary Sector</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>143</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>412</b>	<b>363</b>	<b>209</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>182</b>
6.	Trade, Hotel & Restaurant	82	18	62	299	103	266	128	27	99
7.	Transport, Etc.	30	1	21	108	0	90	47	1	33
8.	Finance & Business Act.	6	0	4	38	18	34	13	2	10
9.	Other .Services	45	32	41	130	202	143	63	50	59
	<b>Tertiary Sector</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>575</b>	<b>323</b>	<b>533</b>	<b>250</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>201</b>

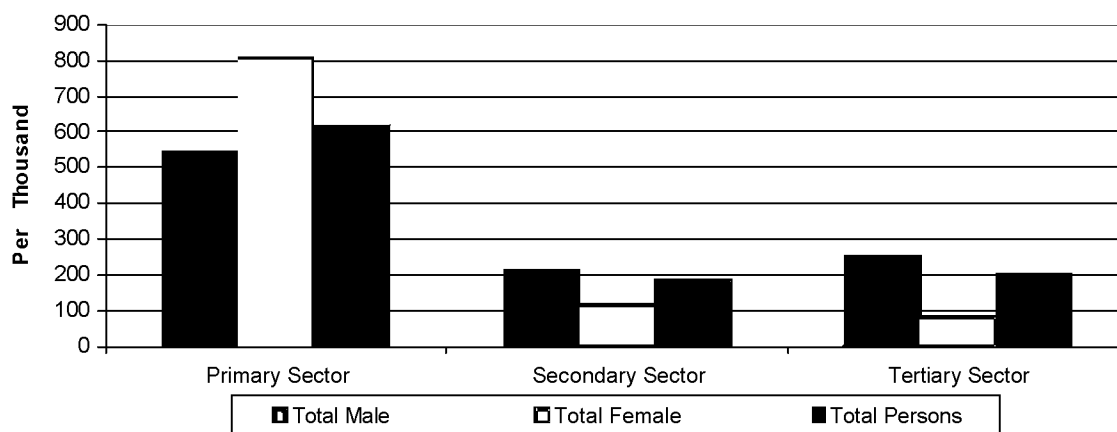
Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, 2004-05

**Table 5.9: Shifts in Sectoral Distribution of Workers: 1993-94 to 2004-05**

S.No.	Industry Division	Percent of Workers Employed			Change in % Points	
		1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	1990-00 over 1993-94	2004-05 over 1999-00
0.	Agriculture	69.07	63.70	61.48	-5.36	-2.22
1.	Mining and Quarrying	0.19	0.18	0.18	-0.01	0.00
2-3.	Manufacturing	9.34	11.07	12.43	1.73	1.36
4.	Electricity	0.19	0.18	0.14	-0.01	-0.04
5.	Construction	2.33	3.81	5.65	1.48	1.84
6.	Whole sale and retail trades & hotels	7.20	9.80	9.89	2.60	0.09
7.	Transport storage & communication	2.53	3.09	3.34	0.56	0.25
8-9.	Other Services	9.14	8.17	6.89	-0.98	-1.28
	<b>Total</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>99.99</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>-0.01</b>

Source: NSS Reports

**Figure 5.5: Distribution of Usual Status Workers (PS+SS) by Sectors-2004-05**



### Regional and District Pattern of Employment

43. Sectoral pattern of employment shows large variations across regions and districts. The economy of the Western region is more diversified as compared to other regions of the state with over 43 percent workers employed in non-agricultural sector (Figure 5.6). A relatively higher proportion of women workers also are engaged in non-agricultural activities in this region as compared to other regions, where over 75 percent of female workers are found in the agricultural sector.

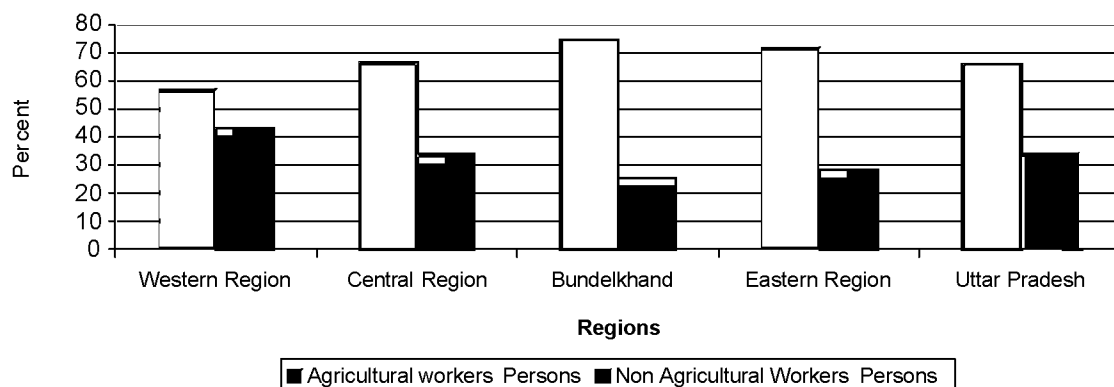
44. At the district level the differences in industrial structure are much more marked (Appendix Table 5.6). Thus, the share of agricultural workers to total workers ranges from 25 per cent in Ghaziabad to 89 percent in Shrawasti district. Non-agricultural activity shows a high degree of concentration in a few districts, mostly belonging to the Western region. Thus, in as many as 28 out of 70 districts of the state less than 25 per cent of workers are employed in the non-agricultural sector. Table 5.10 arranges the districts in terms of the proportion of workers in non-agricultural sector.

### Growth of Employment

45. The Census shows that between 1991 and 2001 total work force (main and marginal) in U.P. increased at an annual compound growth rate of 2.6 per cent (Table 5.11). The growth rate was much faster for female workers (6.4 per cent per annum) as compared to male workers (1.6 per cent per annum). The important fact to note is that the growth in employment has been almost wholly contributed by the growth of marginal workers, who work for less than 183 days in a year. In fact, in case of male workers the number of main workers has marginally declined during 1991-2001. Thus, employment opportunities are not being generated on a regular basis. The growth rate of workers during 1991-2001 shows a decline as compared to their growth during 1981-91 especially in the case of main workers.

46. Marginal workers, i.e. persons who have reported work for less than 183 days, in a year constituted 4.8 per cent of total workers in 1981. This percentage increased to 7.7 per cent in 1991 and further to 25.3 per cent in 2001. Over 60 percent

**Figure 5.6: Regionwise Share of Agricultural and Non-Agricultural Workers (%)**



of female workers and 15 per cent of male workers belong to the category of marginal workers in 2001. The incidence of marginal workers is much higher in the two backward regions of Bundelkhand and Eastern region.

47. Growth rates of work force at the district level during 1991 and 2001 have been shown in Appendix Table 5.7. The districts which have shown very high growth of workers (above 3.0 per cent per annum) include: Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Moradabad

**Table 5.10: Districts arranged according to the proportion of Workers in Non-Agricultural Sector, 2001**

Above 40 Percent		Between 25 and 40 Percent		Below 25 Percent	
District	% Non-Ag	District	% Non-Ag	District	% Non-Ag
Ghaziabad	75.45	Mau	39.64	Unnao	24.90
Kanpur Nagar	69.71	Jhansi	39.34	Faizabad	24.87
Lucknow	68.44	Mirzapur	36.78	Ambedkar Nagar	24.76
Varanasi	68.41	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	36.57	Kanpur Dehat	23.76
Gautam Buddha Nagar	65.00	Chandauli	35.54	Fatehpur	23.23
Meerut	63.44	Gorakhpur	34.44	Hamirpur	23.21
Agra	59.30	Rampur	34.04	Mainpuri	22.83
Sant Ravidas Nagar	59.14	Etawah	33.66	Pratapgarh	22.72
Firozabad	54.46	Farrukhabad	32.88	Mahoba	22.65
Aligarh	47.66	Kannauj	30.06	Rae Bareli	22.52
Bulandshahar	47.54	Ballia	29.77	Budaun	22.49
Saharanpur	47.38	Pilibhit	29.10	Sitapur	22.21
Moradabad	44.58	Ghazipur	28.30	Barabanki	21.76
Allahabad	42.76	Shahjahanpur	27.80	Hardoi	21.68
Mathura	42.75	Jaunpur	27.67	Kaushambi	21.50
Bijnor	42.67	Etah	27.55	Banda	21.25
Hathras	42.21	Deoria	27.48	Kheri	21.05
Baghpat*	41.75	Azamgarh	27.19	Lalitpur	19.70
Muzaffarnagar	41.46	Sonbhadra	26.87	Basti	19.21
Bareilly	41.26	Auraiya	26.23	Chitrakoot	18.69
		Sultanpur	25.64	Sant Kabir Nagar	17.83
		Jalaun	25.47	Kushinagar	17.48
				Bahraich	16.76
				Gonda	16.45
				Mahrajganj	15.68
				Balrampur	13.14
				Siddharthnagar	12.96
				Shrawasti	11.25

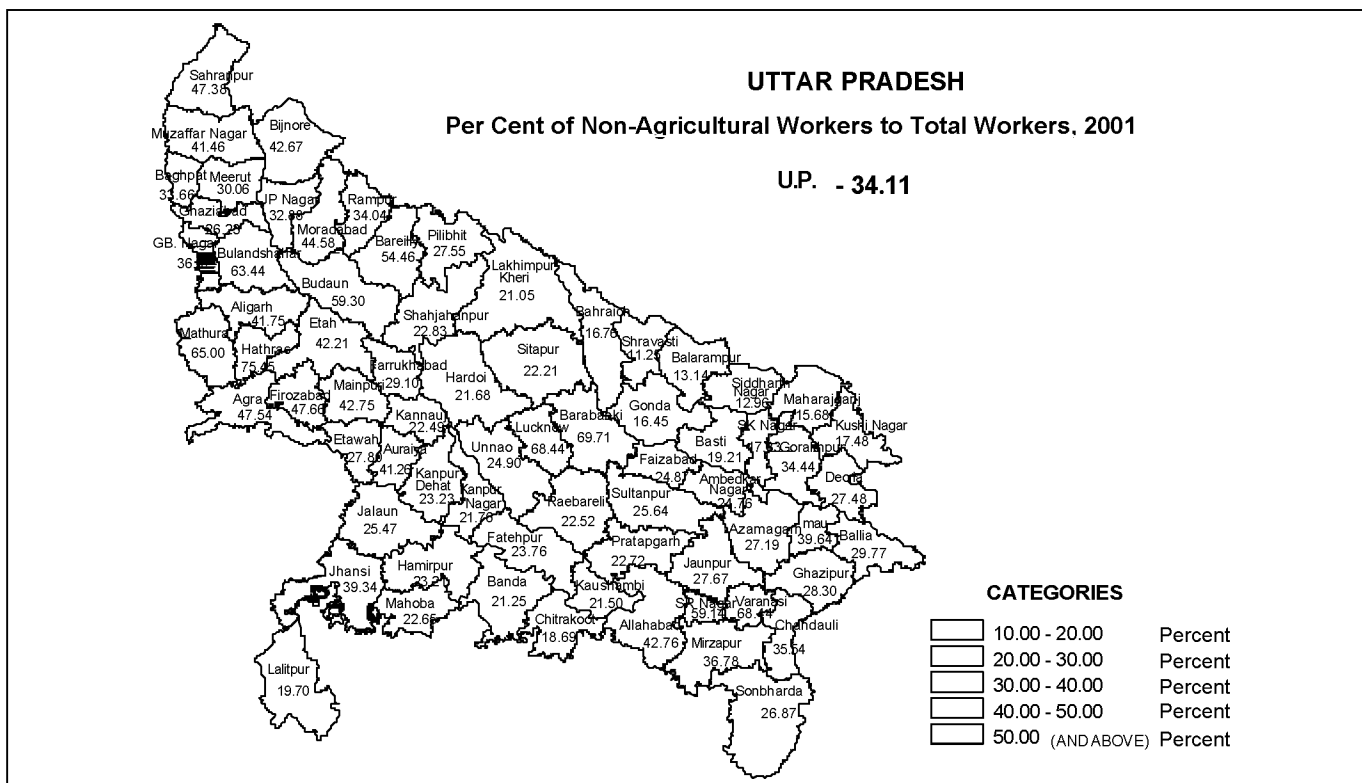
Source: Calculated from Census 2001

**Table 5.11: Annual Growth Rate Of Main And Marginal Workers 1981-2001 (percent)**

Item	Between 1981-91 (Including Uttrakhand)			Between 1991-2001 (Excluding Uttrakhand)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Main Workers	2.47	2.12	5.62	0.12	(-) 0.13	2.02
Marginal Workers	7.58	0.19	8.58	16.79	40.80	10.74
Total Workers	2.78	2.11	6.69	2.55	1.59	6.42

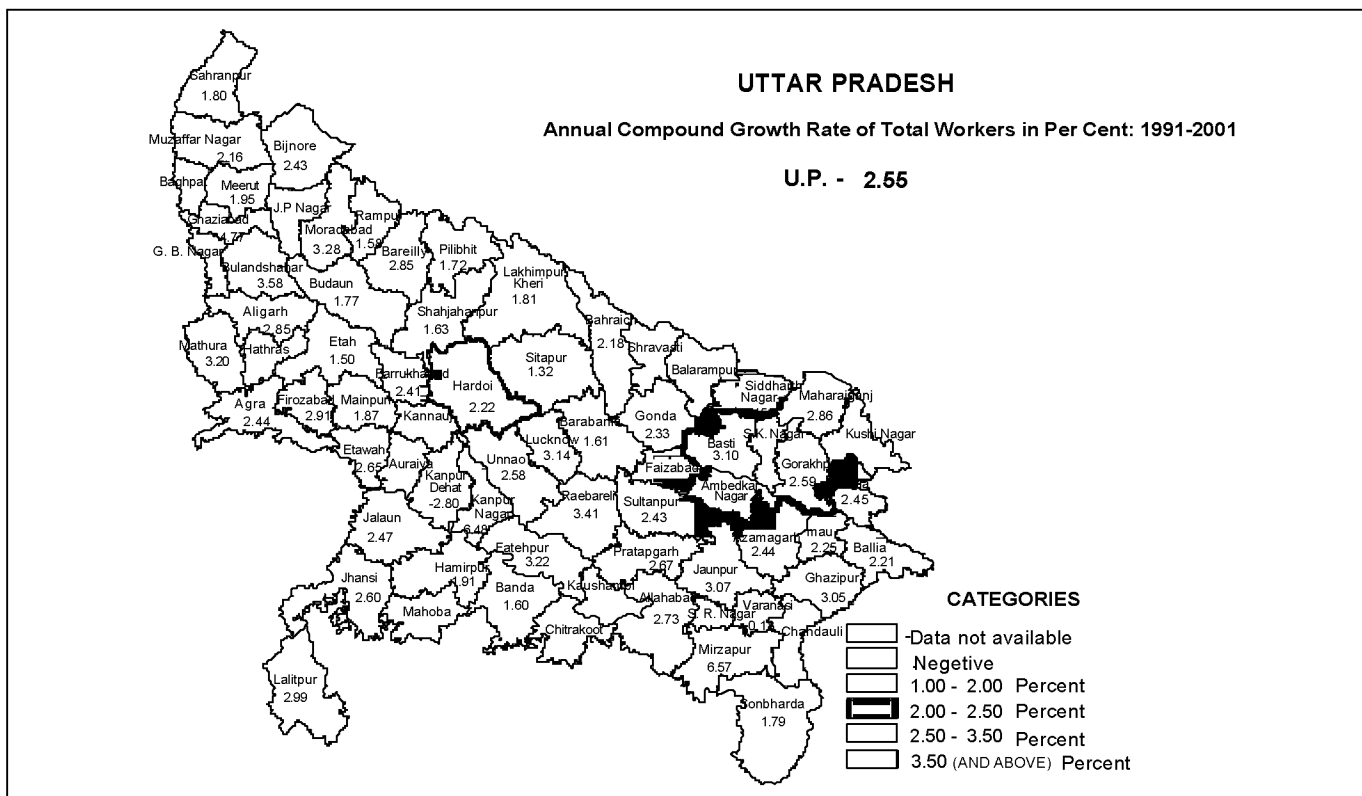
Source: Based on Census data

Map 5.6



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P

Map 5.7



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P

and Mathura in West U.P., Kanpur Nagar, Lucknow, Fatehpur and Rae Bareli in Central U.P., Faizabad, Basti, Jaunpur, Ghazipur and Mizapur in East U.P. On the other hand, the group of districts showing slow growth of employment (below 1.5 per cent per annum) included Shahjahanpur, Rampur, Etah, Barabanki, Sitapur, Varanasi and Kanpur Dehat. In fact the last two districts show an absolute decline in the number of workers during the period.

48. The growth rate of main workers shows a mixed picture with as many as 24 districts, mostly falling in the Eastern region, recording a decline in number of workers. Only some districts of western region show a relatively higher growth of main workers. Marginal workers show a very rapid increase

in all districts, though the rate of growth shows wide variations across districts. In Bundelkhand growth of marginal workers was relatively much lower as compared to other regions.

### Sectoral Growth Rates in Employment

49. Detailed industrial classification of Census 2001 workers is not yet available. However, NSS data enables us to study the sectoral pattern of growth of work force in the recent period. Employment growth of all workers shows a jump in growth rate from 1.17 percent during 1993-00 to 1.53 percent during 1999-2005 (Table 5.12). For the entire period from 1993-2005, fastest growth was observed in case of construction sector (around 10 % per annum), followed by trade (4.3%), manufacturing

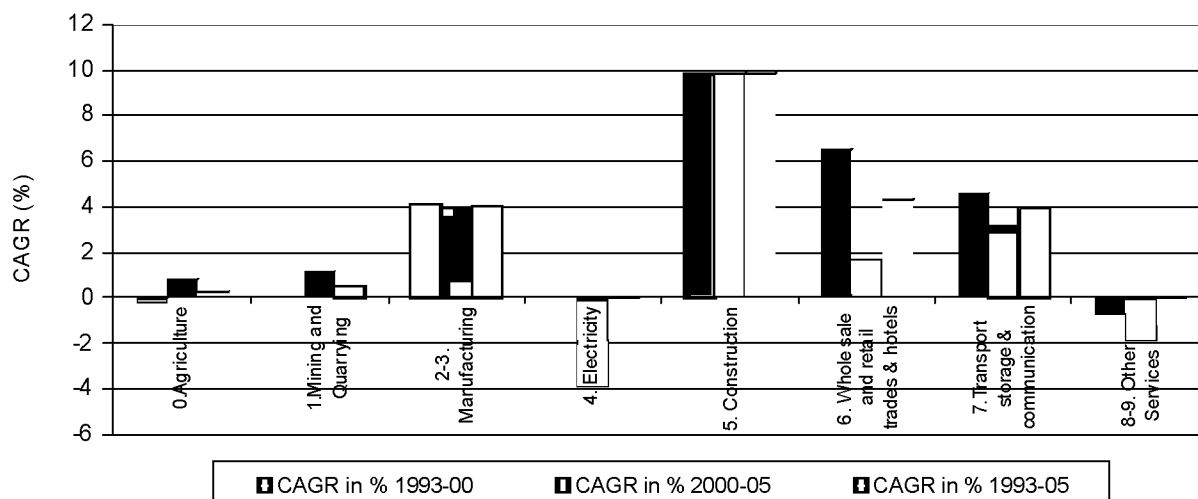
**Table 5.12: Compound Annual Growth Rate of Workers by Sectors: 1993-94 to 2004-05 (in percent)**

Industry Division	Workers ( in lakh)			CAGR in %		
	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	1993-00	2000-05	1993-05
0. Agriculture	355.0	351.0	365.4	-0.19	0.81	0.26
1. Mining and Quarrying	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.00	1.17	0.53
2-3. Manufacturing	48.0	61.0	73.9	4.08	3.91	4.00
4. Electricity	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.00	-3.89	-1.79
5. Construction	12.0	21.0	33.6	9.78	9.86	9.81
6. Whole sale and retail trades & hotels	37.0	54.0	58.8	6.50	1.70	4.29
7. Transport storage & communication	13.0	17.0	19.8	4.57	3.13	3.91
8-9. Other Services	47.0	45.0	41.0	-0.72	-1.86	-1.24
Total Workers	514.0	551.0	594.4	1.17	1.53	1.33

\*Excludes Uttarakhand

Source: Calculated from various NSS rounds

**Figure 5.7: CAGR of Workers by Sectors- 1993-94 to 2004-05**





(4.0%) and transport (3.9%). Electricity and 'other services' have, however, registered a decline in work force. Agricultural workers had shown a marginal decline during 1993-00, but show an increase at the rate of 0.8 percent during 1999-05. Trade and transport sectors show a relatively slower growth of workers in the latter period, while the pace of increase was more or less the same in the two periods in case of manufacturing and construction

50. The Census also shows that the number of main agricultural workers in U.P. has declined at the rate of 1.46 percent per annum between 1991 and 2001. The rate of decline was relatively high in Central and Eastern regions. Only Western

region shows a positive though nominal growth of agriculture during this period. In fact, except eight districts all the other districts show a decline in the number of main agricultural workers (Appendix Table 5.8). Non-agricultural main workers show a fairly high growth of 3.5 per cent per annum during 1991 and 2001. Growth rates of non-agricultural workers were relatively slower in the Western region. Considerable differences in growth rate of employment in both the sectors are observed at the regional and district level.

51. Table 5.13 identifies the districts with relatively high and relatively low growth of work force in agriculture and non-agricultural sectors.

**Table 5.13: Districts With High and Low Growth Rate of Workers in Agriculture and Non-agricultural Sectors: 1991-2001**

High Growth of Employment				Low Growth of Employment			
Agriculture		Non Agriculture		Agriculture		Non Agriculture	
District	Growth Rate in %	District	Growth Rate in %	District	Growth Rate in %	District	Growth Rate in %
Kanpur Nagar	9.84	Mirzapur	8.29	Bulandshahar	-2.21	Etah	2.87
Bareilly	1.15	Ghaziabad	6.35	Azamgarh	-2.39	Allahabad	2.85
Budaun	0.99	Kheri	6.21	Pratapgarh	-2.41	Mathura	2.83
Lalitpur	0.96	Sultanpur	5.35	Meerut	-2.46	Sonbhadra	2.77
Mirzapur	0.52	Mahrajganj	5.06	Sultanpur	-2.77	Shahjahanpur	2.76
Bahraich	0.16	Faizabad	4.80	Sonbhadra	-2.85	Pilibhit	2.76
Moradabad	0.08	Moradabad	4.54	Mau	-2.85	Rae Bareli	2.63
Kheri	0.07	Banda	4.47	Allahabad	-2.93	Barabanki	2.60
		Ghazipur	4.45	Mahrajganj	-2.95	Jhansi	2.51
		Bulandshahar	4.39	Deoria	-2.99	Rampur	2.45
		Azamgarh	4.33	Ballia	-3.85	Agra	2.15
		Siddharthnagar	4.23	Gorakhpur	-4.43	Farrukhabad	2.03
		Basti	4.16	Bijnor	-4.47	Mainpuri	1.04
		Mau	4.15	Varanasi	-5.78	Varanasi	0.44
		Lalitpur	4.12	Kanpur Dehat	-5.87	Kanpur Dehat	-1.04

Source: Calculated from Census Reports

**Figure 5.8: Percent Distribution of Workers by Type of Employment in U.P.**



## Casualisation of Work Force

52. The dominant form of employment in U.P., as in the country as a whole, is that of self-employment. NSS data show a decline in self-employment and an increase in the proportion of casual labourers during the period 1977-78 and 1999-00 (Figure 5.8). However, the latest NSS round shows a clear decline between 1999-00 and 2004-05 in the proportion of casual labourers and an increase in that of self employed workers. This may reflect the growth of workers in the informal sector especially in the tertiary sector. The extent of casualisation of labour force is much lower in U.P. than in India as a whole. Less than one-fifth of the workers are employed as casual workers in U.P. against one-third in the country. The regular wage/salary employed workers constitute around one-tenth of total workers in the State.

## Organized Sector Employment

53. The organized sector accounts for less than 5 per cent of total workforce and around one-fifth of non-agricultural workforce in the State. Almost four-fifths of total organized sector employment is in the public sector. Nearly half of the organized sector employment is found in the social services, notably public administration and education. Private sector has a large presence in case of manufacturing sector only. Recent

trends show that organized sector employment has declined in case of manufacturing, trade and transport sectors. The proportion of female employees in the organized sector has been increasing in recent years, though they still constitute hardly one-tenth of total organized sector workers. They are mainly concentrated in social services.

54. In the sixties and the seventies, the organized sector employment increased fairly sharply rising from 10.9 lakh in 1960-61 to 23.5 lakh in 1980-81 and further to 26.7 lakh in 1991, mainly on account of the expansion in public sector employment. The growth of organized sector slowed down in the eighties. Since 1991 employment in the organized sector has shown a continuous decline coming down to 22.2 lakh in 2001 and further to 20.8 lakh in 2005 (Table 5.14). Strikingly, private sector employment in the organized sector has failed to register any increase in U.P. since 1970-71.

55. A number of factors have contributed to the decline in the public sector employment. These include the shifts in policy in the wake of the economic reforms in favour of market led rather than state led growth, fiscal constraints on the state budget leading to reduced public investment and poor performance of public enterprises. Industrial sickness in the private sector and low level of new investment in the state also led to a decline in organized private sector employment.

**Table 5.14 : Trends in Organized Sector Employment (Nos.)**

Year (As on 31st March)	Total Employees			Women Employees			% of Women Employees		
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1991	2141757	536215	2677972	162965	48243	211208	7.6	9.0	7.9
1992	2142493	537573	2680066	166157	49536	215693	7.8	9.2	8.0
1993	2140342	530564	2670906	172062	49268	221330	8.0	9.3	8.3
1994	2133659	522800	2656459	172362	49846	222208	8.1	9.5	8.4
1995	2121943	532719	2654662	174315	50352	224667	8.2	9.5	8.5
1996	2116500	541173	2657673	179117	51949	231066	8.5	9.6	8.7
1997	2113386	542179	2655565	184303	53455	237758	8.7	9.9	9.0
1998	2088385	535514	2623899	184864	53624	238488	8.9	10.0	9.1
1999	2064698	528815	2593513	186031	54389	240420	9.0	10.3	9.3
2000	2029288	523380	2552668	188283	53165	241448	9.3	10.2	9.5
2001	1757966	465839	2223805	159844	48460	208304	9.1	10.4	9.4
2002	1718086	455545	2173631	162206	48497	210703	9.4	10.6	9.7
2003	1692291	451499	2143790	166493	49652	216145	9.8	11.0	10.1
2004	1680028	444540	2124568	168622	50382	219004	10.0	11.3	10.3
2005	1650370	437529	2087899	171102	50101	221203	10.4	11.5	10.6

Source: Directorate of Training & Employment

## Labour Productivity

56. Labour productivity is measured by dividing NSDP by the number of workers. It shows the rate of technical progress in an economy and is a major determinant of economic growth. During the period 1993-94 and 2004-05 labour productivity in the state increased at an annual compound growth rate of 2.16 percent (Table 5.15). Highest growth rate was observed in the tertiary sector followed by the primary sector. Labour productivity, however, stagnated in the secondary sector due to the proliferation of enterprises in the unorganized sector. There are very large differences in labour productivity both between sectors and between districts / regions. The primary sector, which employs the largest work force, has the lowest labour productivity - less than one-half of the labour productivity in the secondary sector and one-fourth of that in the tertiary sector.

### Box 5.2: Salient Features of Employment Situation

#### Characteristics

The employment structure of the state is characterized by:

- Low participation of population in economic activity specially in case of women
- Low degree of diversification with predominant proportion of workers engaged in the primary sector
- Concentration of industrial activity in a few districts
- Very low proportion of workers in the organized sector

#### Achievements

- Growth rate of workforce has been fairly high at 2.5 per cent per annum during the decade 1991-2001 as per Census
- Female workers have registered a higher growth rate (6.4 per cent per annum) than male workers (1.6 per cent per annum)
- Non-agricultural workers show a faster increase than agricultural workers

### Areas of Concern

- Growth rate of employment has been uneven across districts
- Female CWPR are extremely low
- A very high proportion of female workers are engaged in agricultural and allied activities often as marginal workers
- Bulk of additional employment has been generated in low paid over crowded activities like agriculture and allied activities, construction, petty trade, informal sector and social services
- Organized sector employment has been declining since 1991
- The pace of diversification towards non-agricultural activities is slow

## IV. Poverty in Uttar Pradesh

57. Generally poverty is looked at as relative or absolute material deprivation reflected in low levels of income or consumption. However, poverty has many dimensions, though all of them are not equally amenable to measurement. Low levels of income not only result in low levels of consumption and material deprivation, but also restrict human capabilities by restricting the access of the poor to education and health facilities, thereby creating a vicious cycle of poverty. Poverty also involves various forms of vulnerability and exposure to risk, powerlessness and social exclusion. In this section we focus on material deprivation as reflected in lowness of income/consumption.

58. Indian planners have defined poverty in terms of nutritional norm of 2400 calories per capita per day for rural areas and 2100 calories per capita per day for urban areas. The nutritional norm is converted into monetary equivalent in terms of per capita consumption expenditure using NSS consumer expenditure data. The proportion of population below the poverty line, i.e., the poverty ratio, is then calculated using the distribution of persons over different expenditure classes as given in NSS surveys, which are conducted quinquennially. The

Table 5.15: Sector-wise Per Worker NSDP at Constant 1993-94 Prices (Rs.)

Sector	1993-94	2004-05	CAGR (%)
Primary Sector	9096	10727	1.51
Secondary Sector	20794	20061	-0.33
Tertiary Sector	26875	40700	3.85
<b>All Sectors</b>	<b>14601</b>	<b>18479</b>	<b>2.16</b>

Source: Calculated by dividing the NSDP estimated by Division of Economics and Statistics and work force as estimated by NSS surveys in the two years.

poverty line originally calculated for 1973-74 has been revised from time to time using the appropriate price index for rural and urban areas. Lately state specific poverty lines have been used for measuring the trends in poverty. Poverty line for 2004-05 for U.P. has been estimated by the Planning Commission at Rs.365.84 per capita monthly consumption expenditure in rural areas and Rs.483.26 in urban areas.

### Poverty Trends at the State Level

59. Poverty ratios in Uttar Pradesh have been relatively high. According to the latest estimate of the Planning Commission based on NSS 61<sup>st</sup> round, about one-third of the population of the state was living below the poverty line in 2004-05 as compared to the figure of 27.5 percent for the country on the basis on uniform recall period. Only Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa had a higher poverty ratio as compared to U.P. Around 80 percent of the poor in the state live in the rural areas. However, rural and urban poverty ratios do not show much difference in U.P.

60. Both rural and urban poverty have steadily declined in U.P. in the last three decades (Table 5.16).

61. On the basis of the uniform recall period, poverty ratio declined by 8.1 percentage points in U.P. between 1993-94 and 2004-05, which compares well with the decline of poverty in India as a whole during the period. The decline was higher in rural areas where poverty ratio declined by 8.3 percentage points as compared to the urban areas where the decline was by 4.8 percentage points only.

62. Doubts have been expressed about the comparability of poverty estimates between 1993-94 and 1999-00 due to differences in the reference period. However, a rough comparison based on mixed reference surveys reveals that poverty ratio declined from 31.2 percent in 1999-00

and further to 25.2 percent in 2004-05, i.e. a decline of 6 percentage point. This would suggest that the rate of decline in poverty was relatively faster during 1999-2005 as compared to the period 1993-00. It may also be noted that the mixed reference period estimates indicate a lower incidence of poverty (around 25 per cent).

63. It is remarkable that the decline in poverty in U.P. has taken place at the same rate as in India, despite of the fact that the growth rate in U.P. was markedly below the national average. Also, poverty ratio has continued to decline although agricultural growth has slowed down in the recent period. A number of factors including the gradual diversification of the economy, rise in real wage rate and government programmes for poverty alleviation and employment generation seem to be responsible for the decline in poverty.

64. Despite the substantial decline in the poverty ratio, the absolute number of poor has remained high in the state. Almost 6 million people in U.P. were living below the poverty line in 2004-05 constituting over one-fifth of the total poor in the country on the basis of uniform recall period (Table 5.17). In fact, the proportion of the poor living in U.P. has increased over time.

### Regional Variations in Poverty

65. Considerable variations in poverty levels are observed across regions of the state. The relatively developed Western region has a lower incidence of poverty, while Eastern region had much higher incidence of poverty. Bundelkhand had the highest proportion of population below poverty line in 1993-94. However, 1999-00 NSS survey shows a much sharper reduction in poverty in this region, while Central region shows the highest incidence of poverty (Figure 5.9). Variations in population pressure, resource endowment and productivity levels lie behind the regional variations in poverty levels.

**Table 5.16: Trends in Poverty Ratios in U.P. and India (%)**

NSS Round	Uttar Pradesh			All-India		
	Rural	Urban	Combined	Rural	Urban	Combined
1973-74	56.53	60.09	57.07	56.44	49.01	54.88
1977-78	47.60	56.23	49.05	53.07	45.24	51.32
1983-84	46.45	49.82	47.07	45.85	40.79	44.48
1987-88	41.10	42.96	41.46	39.09	38.20	38.86
1993-94	42.28	35.39	40.85	37.27	32.36	35.97
1999-00*	31.22	30.89	31.15	27.09	23.62	26.10
2004-05 URP	33.4	30.6	32.8	28.3	25.7	27.5
2004-05 MRP	25.3	26.3	25.5	21.8	21.7	21.8

Source: Planning Commission estimates based on NSS rounds.

\* Based on 30 days recall period.

URP=Uniform reference period using 30 day recall period.

MRP=Mixed recall period, where for some items recall period is 365 days, while for the rest it is 30 days.

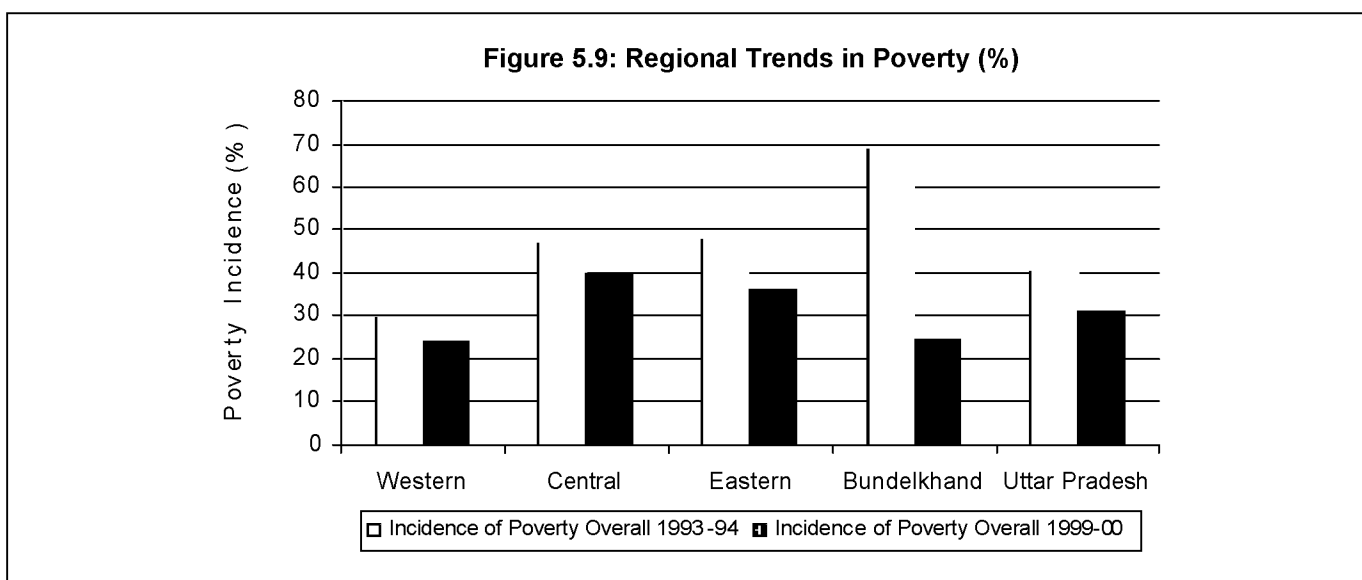
NSS Round	Uttar Pradesh			U.P. as % of All-India		
	Rural	Urban	Combined	Rural	Urban	Combined
1973-74	449.99	85.74	535.73	17.22	14.28	16.67
1977-78	407.41	96.96	504.37	15.42	15.00	15.34
1983-84	448.03	108.71	556.74	17.78	15.32	17.24
1987-88	429.74	106.79	536.53	18.53	14.21	17.47
1993-94	496.18	108.28	604.46	20.33	14.18	18.87
1999-00*	412.01	117.88	529.89	21.32	17.59	20.36
2004-05 URP	473.0	117.03	590.03	21.41	14.48	19.56
2004-05 MRP	357.68	100.47	458.15	21.00	14.73	19.21

Source: Planning Commission estimates based on NSS rounds.

\* Based on 30 days recall period.

URP=Uniform reference period using 30 day recall period.

MRP=Mixed recall period, where for some items recall period is 365 days, while for the rest it is 30 days.



### Poverty at the District Level

66. NSS sample design is not aimed at measuring poverty at the district level. The recent Below Poverty Line Survey (BPL) of the Ministry of Rural Development, however, makes it possible to study district level variations in poverty. The advantage of BPL survey is that it is based on a complete census of rural households and identifies BPL households on the basis of multiple indicators of deprivation. The results of BPL Survey are, however, not comparable with poverty ratios derived from NSS data on consumer expenditure.

67. Table 5.18 arranges districts according to the level of poverty according to BPL survey 2002. The variations in poverty levels among districts are very stark, ranging from a low of 6.7 per cent in *Baghpat* to as much as 74.65 per cent in *Kaushambi*. In 16 districts poverty

levels are above 50 per cent. These districts mostly belong to central U.P. and Bundelkhand. In another 21 districts poverty ratios are high (between 40 and 50 per cent). Majority of these districts falls in Eastern U.P. In 18 districts poverty levels are between 20 and 40 per cent. Poverty levels are relatively low in (below 20 per cent) in 15 districts. All these districts except one belong to Western U.P.

### Poverty among Social Groups

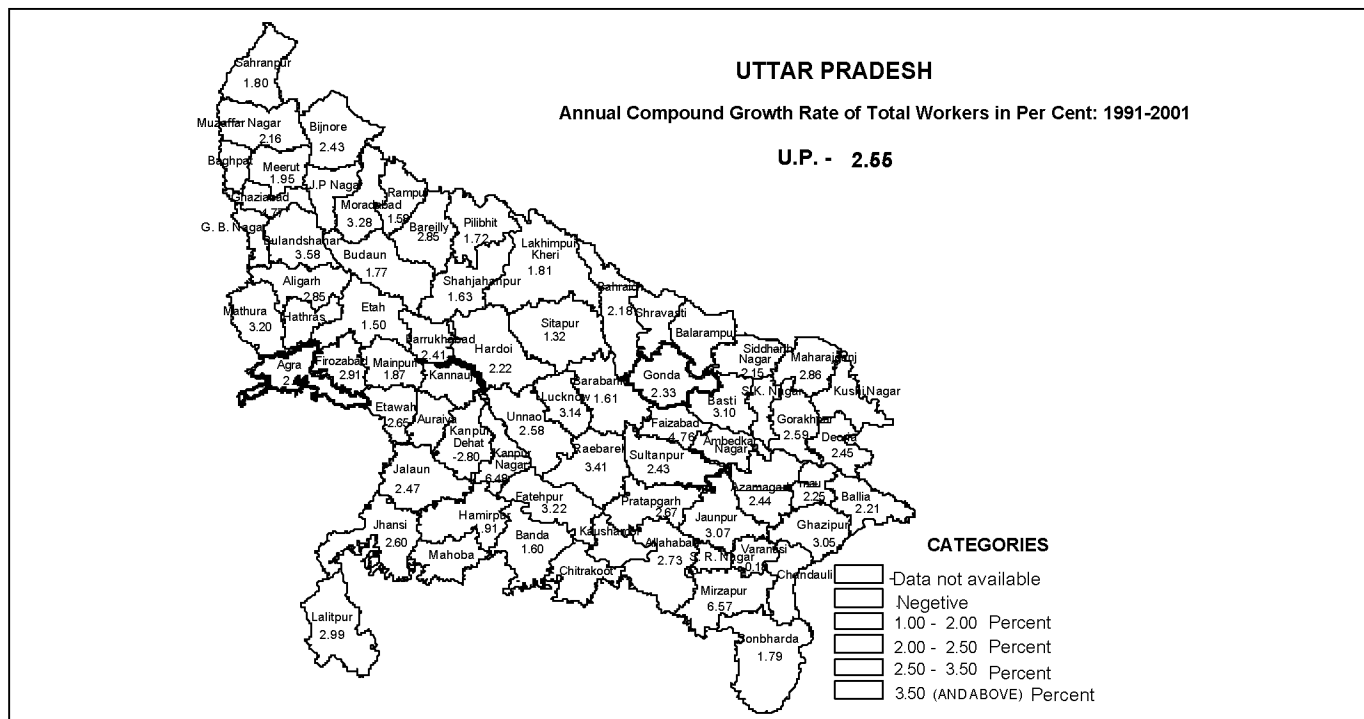
68. The incidence of poverty is much higher among SC and ST households in U.P. (Figure 5.10). Nearly 60 per cent of SC households were below poverty line in U.P. in 1993-94. However, this proportion came down to 43 per cent in 1999-00. The pace of decline of poverty was faster for the SC/ST households as compared to other households

**Table 5.18: Districts classified according to proportion of Rural Population Below Poverty Line (%)**

Very High (Above 50%)		High (40% To 50 %)		Moderate (20% To 40%)		Low (Below 20%)	
District	%	District	%	District	%	District	%
Kaushambi	74.65	Kanpur (Nagar)	49.93	Gonda	36.95	Moradabad	19.77
Hardoi	74.00	Pratapgarh	49.09	Kannauj	35.85	Agra	19.43
Bahraich	72.11	Lucknow	49.06	Balrampur	35.69	Gautam Budh Nagar	19.00
Mirzapur	68.38	Ghazipur	48.50	Azamgarh	32.87	Hathras	17.91
Sonbhadra	64.53	Jalaun (Orai)	48.34	Farukhabad	32.64	Etah	17.26
Kanpur Dehat	60.87	Faizabad	48.22	Rampur	31.83	Mathura	16.24
Shravasti	60.53	Basti	47.64	Maharajganj	30.76	Aligarh	14.64
Unnao	59.51	Etawah	46.34	Lalitpur	30.47	Firozabad	13.61
Ambedkar Nagar	59.15	Barabanki	46.15	Jhansi	29.19	Budaun	12.24
Rae Bareli	57.78	Sant Kabir Nagar	45.99	Gorakhpur	28.24	Muzaffarnagar	11.68
Sitapur	57.46	Hamirpur	45.32	Allahabad	28.17	Deoria	11.67
Chitrakoot	55.13	Pilibhit	45.23	Bareilly	27.50	Bulandshahar	10.34
Sultanpur	54.62	Jaunpur	43.65	Saharanpur	24.56	Meerut	8.38
Shahjahanpur	54.11	Mau Nath Bhanjan	43.34	Jyotiba Phulle Nagar	24.45	Ghaziabad	7.12
Ballia	51.55	Orraiya	43.23	Varanasi	24.24	Baghpat	6.66
Lakhimpur Kheri	51.01	Chandauli	43.10	Bijnor	23.67		
		Fatehpur	42.77	Sant Ravidas Nagar	22.74		
		Siddharth Nagar	42.74	Mahoba	21.33		
		Kushi Nagar	42.66				
		Mainpuri	42.52				
		Banda	40.85				

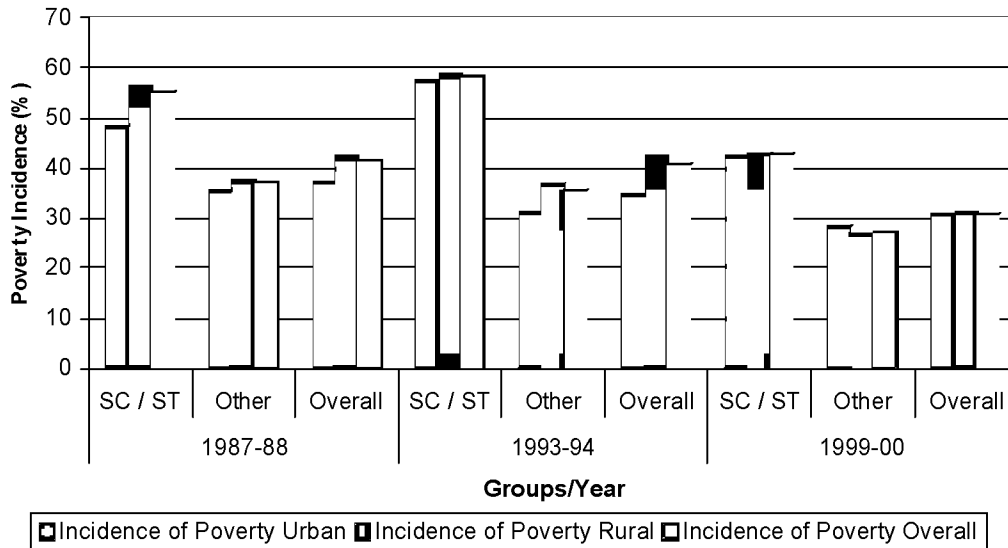
Source: Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India, BPL Survey 2002.

**Map 5.8**



Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P

**Figure 5.10: Poverty incidence by Social Group (%)**



during this period. Poverty level among Hindus and Muslims is roughly of the same order in the rural areas-around 31 percent in 1999-00. But poverty levels are much higher for the latter in the urban areas - 42.2 per cent as compared to only 26.4 per cent for Hindus.

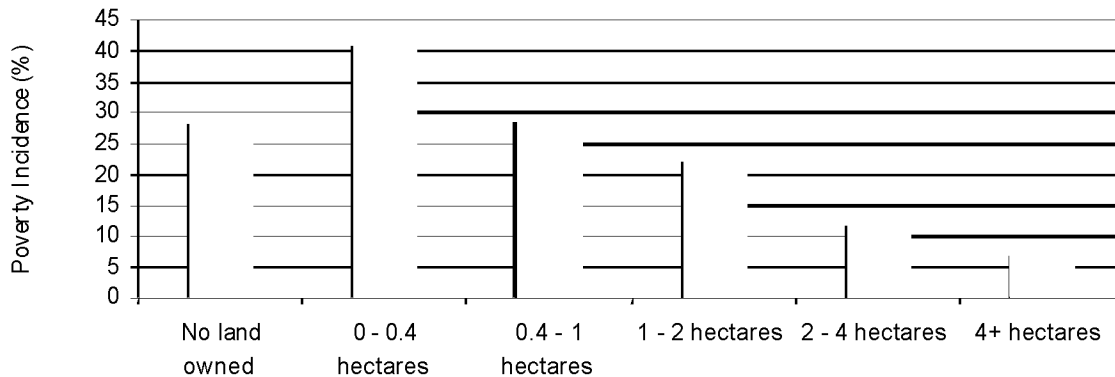
**Correlates of Poverty in UP**

69. Studies reveal that poverty levels are associated with the social identity, source of livelihood, landlessness and level of education of the head of household. In rural areas poverty is found strongly associated with land ownership, which is the main productive asset. Only 7 percent of large landowners were poor in 1999-00 as compared to 41 per cent with marginal

holdings (Figure 5.11). The latter comprised almost 60 per cent of the rural poor though their share in rural population was around 44 per cent. Significantly poverty incidence has declined over time in all the land size categories.

70. The incidence of poverty in the state is also related to the occupational status of the households. Poverty is the highest among labour households both in rural and urban areas. In general, poverty levels are lower among self employed workers as compared to labourers. Poverty levels are lowest for regular and salaried workers (Table 5.19). Poverty levels in all the occupational categories, including casual labourers, show a decline over time

**Figure 5.11: Rural Poverty Incidence by Land Ownership**



71. Education is a crucial instrument for raising income levels of people and moving out of the vicious circle of poverty. Studies indicate a strong correlation between educational attainment and poverty levels. This is true for Uttar Pradesh as well. As educational

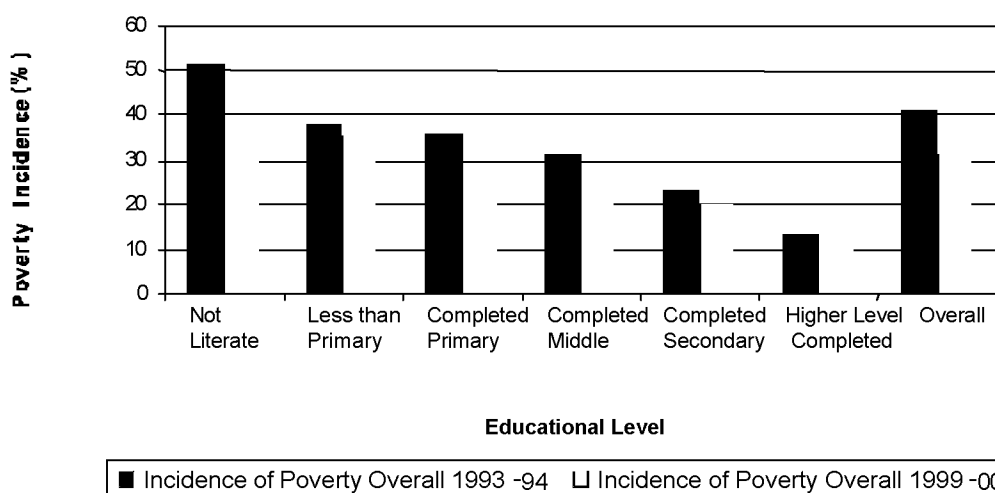
attainment of head of household improves, poverty level declines sharply (Figure 5.12). In fact, poverty levels are almost four times higher among illiterates as compared to persons with higher education. Nearly 60 per cent of poor belong to the category of illiterates.

**Table 5.19: Poverty Incidence by Occupation of Household Head**

Rural Areas				Urban Areas			
Main Occupation	Poverty Incidence	Percentage of:		Main Occupation	Poverty Incidence	Percentage of:	
		Population	Poor			Population	Poor
<b>1993-94</b>							
Self Employed non-agriculture	44.3	13	14	Self-employed	39.9	53	61
Agriculture labor	63.5	18	26	Reg. wage/salary	17.4	31	16
Other labor	52.3	5	6	Casual labor	66.7	11	20
Self employed Agriculture	36.4	58	50				
Other	25.9	6	4	Other	25.8	5	3
Over all	42.3	100	100	Over all	35	100	100
<b>1999-00</b>							
Self employed non-agriculture	33.7	16	17	Self-employed	34.3	50	56
Agriculture labor	50.9	18	30	Reg. wage/salary	14.4	31	15
Other labor	36.9	6	7	Casual labor	67.3	11	24
Self employed Agriculture	24.2	52	40				
Other	21.3	9	6	Other	20.0	8	5
Over all	31.1	100	100	Over all	30.7	100	100

Source: World Bank (2002), *Poverty in India: The Challenge of Uttar Pradesh*, New Delhi

**Figure 5.12: Poverty Incidence by Level of Education of the Household Head**





### Box 5.3: Living Conditions in U.P.

- The percentage of Pucca houses in rural and urban areas are found to be 32.0 and 73.7 respectively.
- The corresponding percentage of households using latrine were 19.1 and 84.4 percent.
- Households using tap water were 10.8 and 52.8 in rural and urban areas respectively.
- The percentage of households using electricity in rural and urban areas were found to be 28.1 and 83.6 respectively.
- The availability of electricity per day for more than 15 hours and less than 24 hours was reported to be 10.4% and 47.1% in rural and urban areas respectively.

Source: Second Poverty and Social Monitoring Systems Report, Planning Department, U.P. Government

### Rural Poverty Alleviation Programmes

72. Since the early seventies a number of programmes for poverty alleviation have been introduced in the country. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is the most well known of these programmes. Under the programme credit and subsidy were provided to the poor for income generating activities. Various evaluation studies revealed a number of weaknesses in the implementation of the programme. The reach of the poverty alleviation programme has remained limited in terms of coverage and level of assistance and its implementation have been lackadaisical and uncoordinated with little local participation to have any significant impact on the poverty situation in the state.

73. To rectify the situation, the self-employment programmes were restructured and a new programme known as Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) was launched from 1<sup>st</sup> April 1999 replacing earlier programmes like IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, etc. The SGSY is a holistic programme covering all aspects of self-employment including training, credit, technology,

infrastructure and marketing. The distinctive features of the SGSY are (i) a project approach for each key activity, (ii) provision of adequate investment, and (iii) group approach with focus on women groups. The new approach was thus conceptually superior to the early approach and was expected to yield better results. The programme is funded by the Centre and the State in the ratio of 75:25.

74. Nearly 2.9 lakh Self Help Groups have been formed in U.P. since the inception of the programme under the SGSY covering 10.46 lakh beneficiaries. Cumulative expenditure on the programme amounted to Rs.1332.67 crore. Average investment per group has been Rs.23,575. The progress of the programme in the last three years has been shown in Table 5. 20. The financial and physical progress of the scheme was unsatisfactory during 2003-04, but shows improvement after that.

### V. Unemployment Situation

75. A major challenge before development planners is to ensure gainful employment in income earning activities to all those willing to work. Productive and gainful employment is necessary for obtaining the means for satisfying human needs apart from its psychological role of generating feelings of self-esteem and purpose of life among the workers. Unemployment not only deprives a man of the means of livelihood but also causes disruption of personal family and social life. In this section we analyze changes in the level and structure of employment and unemployment in the state.

### Unemployment Levels

76. In an underdeveloped economy open unemployment is found to be low as unemployment usually takes the form of underemployment or disguised unemployment with people engaged in low productivity activities. To capture different forms of unemployment, the National Sample Surveys provide estimates of unemployment in terms of usual status, current weekly status and current daily status. The usual status (US) is akin to open unemployment and is measured with

Table 5.20: Progress of Swarn Jayanti Swarozgar Yojana

Year	Financial Progress (Rs. in crore)			Physical Progress (Nos.)		
	Funds Available	Expenditure	% Expenditure	Target	Achievement Achievement	%
2003-04	256.06	195.64	76	2,50,000	1,40,622	56
2004-05	315.24	276.30	88	2,50,000	2,46,824	99
2005-06	293.55	267.79	91	2,75,000	2,61,080	95

Source: Department of Rural Development, U.P. Government

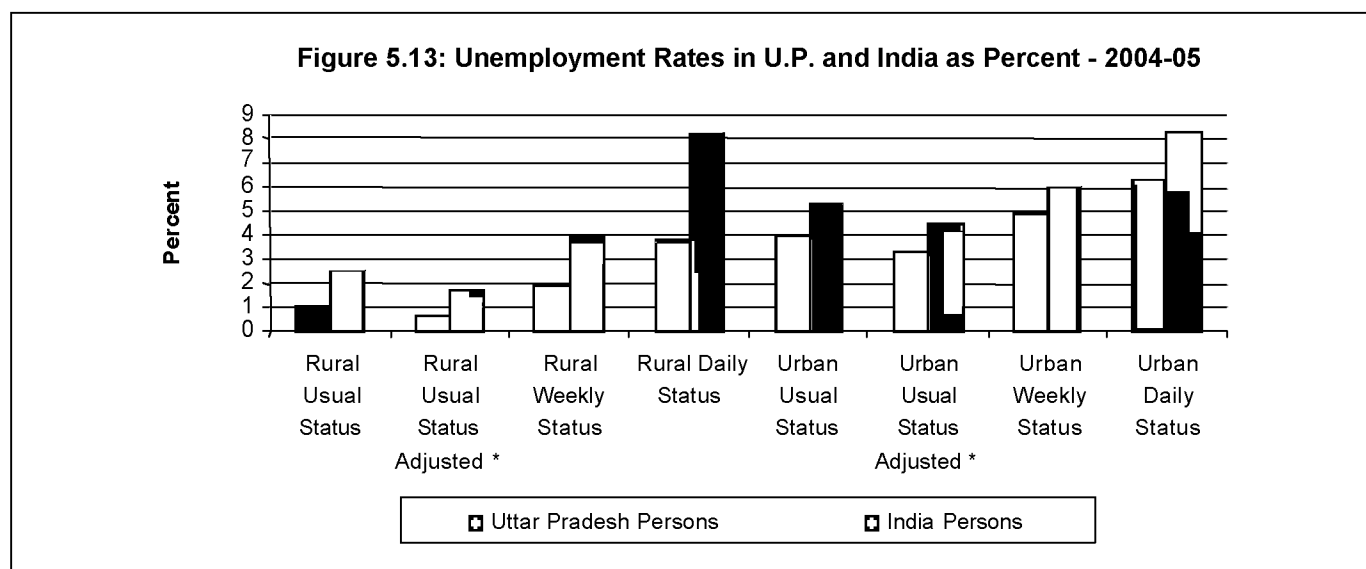
reference to the status of person during the previous year. The current weekly status (CWS) shows unemployment rates with reference to the previous week respectively. The current daily status (CDS) is the most comprehensive concept, which covers unemployment as well as the extent of under-employment of the labour force.

77. Traditionally unemployment rates have been lower in U.P. as compared to India as a whole (Figure 5.13). Thus, only 1.1 per cent of rural labour force and 3.9 per cent of urban labour force were unemployed in U.P. in 2004-05 according to the usual status. The corresponding estimates of unemployment were 1.9 per cent and 4.9 per cent according to weekly status and 3.7 per cent and 6.3 per cent according to daily status. The unemployment rates are distinctly higher in the urban areas as compared to the rural areas. For females unemployment rates are significantly lower as compared to the unemployment rates for male workers in the rural areas. But in urban areas unemployment rate of women on the basis of usual status

is higher than that for male workers, though lower on the basis of weekly and daily status.

78. Unemployment rates are found to be much higher in case of the educated labour force as compared to total labour force both in the rural and urban areas, though clearly below the national average (Table 5.21). Unemployment rates for educated females are much higher as compared to educated males particularly in the urban areas, where 17.2 per cent of educated females are unemployed on UPS basis and 13.1 per cent on weekly basis.

79. The incidence of unemployment is much higher among the youth aged 15 to 29 years as compared to the total labour force (Table 5.22) in 2004-05, 8.6 per cent of urban youth (15-29 years) were chronically unemployed on usual status basis. Only 2.9 per cent of rural youth were in this category. Similarly, 9.4 per cent of the youth in the labour force in the urban areas were unemployed on the basis of current weekly status, while 3.6 per cent of rural youth are in this category. Highest



**Table 5.21: Unemployment Rates (%) for Educated Labour Force (15 Years and Above), 2004-05**

Area/Status	Uttar Pradesh			India		
	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons
<b>Rural Areas</b>						
Usual Principal Status	2.2	3.5	2.1	5.9	23.1	8.5
Usual Principal Status & Subsidiary Status	1.3	1.6	1.3	4.4	15.2	6.5
Weekly Status	2.5	2.3	2.5	6.5	18.2	8.5
<b>Urban Areas</b>						
Usual Principal Status	4.4	17.2	3.4	6	19.4	8.2
Usual Principal Status & Subsidiary Status	3.8	10.9	4.6	5.1	15.6	7.1
Weekly Status	4.6	13.1	5.5	6.2	17.9	8.3

Source: NSS Sixty First Round, 2004-05 (Report 515).

**Table 5.22: Unemployment Rates (%) among Youth by Age Group, 2004-05**

Age Group (Years)	Rural Areas			Urban Areas		
	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons
<b>A. Usual Principal Status</b>						
15 -19	4.1	3.0	3.9	8.6	0.0	7.6
20 - 24	3.7	3.2	3.7	12.0	37.2	14.2
25 - 29	1.4	1.5	1.5	3.5	10.1	3.9
15 - 29	3.0	2.4	2.9	7.9	15.8	8.6
<b>B. Current Weekly Status</b>						
15 -19	4.7	0.5	3.5	10.3	0.0	8.3
20 - 24	4.8	2.0	4.3	12.1	20.4	12.1
25 - 29	3.4	2.1	3.1	5.3	14.6	6.3
15 - 29	4.2	1.5	3.6	9.1	11.2	9.4

Source: NSS Sixty First Round, 2004-05 (Report 515).

unemployment rates are found in the age group 20-24 years. Unemployment rates for educated girls are markedly higher as compared to educated boys in the urban areas, though a reverse position prevails in the rural areas. Thus, employment opportunities appear to be less for educated females as compared to the educated males in the urban areas.

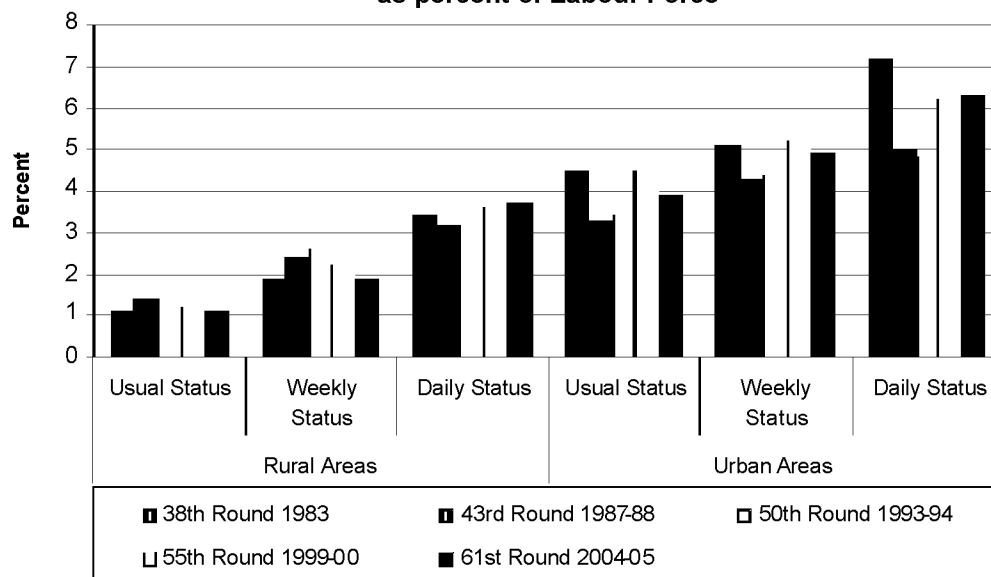
80. Employment policy has to address the issue of variations in the unemployment rates according to age, sex and area. Finding adequate employment opportunities for urban youth in the age group 20-24 will be a major challenge of development policy in the coming years. For rural women efforts are required to provide additional work opportunity on a regular basis.

### Trends in Unemployment Rates

81. Looking at the trends in unemployment rates over time, it is observed that unemployment rates for males as well as total person declined between 1999-00 and 2004-05 in terms of UPS and CWS, but show an increase in terms of daily status (Figure 5.14). For rural females unemployment rates show an increase in both rural and urban areas, except in case of CDS unemployment in rural areas. It may also be noted that the changes are moderate.

82. Unemployment rates for educated adults also show a clear decline for rural males and females as well as urban males for all categories of between 1993-94 and 2004-05 (Table 5.23). However, unemployment rates for urban females show a very sharp jump during the corresponding period.

**Figure 5.14: Recent trends in Unemployment Rates in U.P. as percent of Labour Force**



## Under-Employment

83. In the developing economies with heavy population pressure the unemployment assumes the form of underemployment or disguised unemployment, which denotes a situation where the employed person may not be fully utilized (visible underemployment) or where the income received from work is not perceived to be adequate and the person is willing to seek additional and/or alternative work (invisible underemployment). NSS provides data to assess the extent of invisible underemployment in terms of the proportion of employed persons who are willing to take up additional/alternate work.

84. According to NSS 50<sup>th</sup> Round (1993-94) 3.7 percent of rural workers and 2.6 per cent of urban workers by usual status reported seeking or available

for additional work. This proportion went up sharply to 9.2 per cent and 6.3 percent in the 61<sup>st</sup> Round (2004-05). Another 7.4 percent of rural workers and 5.4 percent of urban workers reported availability for alternate work in 2004-05 (Table 5.24).

85. A fairly high proportion of employed persons on UPS basis are found unemployed according to currently weekly or current daily basis, indicating prevalence of visible underemployment. This may be due to non-availability of work or withdrawal from work force for other reasons. The extent of visible unemployment is very high in case of females both in the rural and the urban areas. Thus, 43.7 per cent of usually employed females in the rural areas and 30.7 per cent in urban areas reported being out of work on current daily basis

Area/Status	50th Round 1993-94			61st Round 2004-05		
	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons
<b>Rural Areas</b>						
Usual Principal Status	4.8	6.9	4.8	2.2	3.5	2.1
Usual Principal Status & Subsidiary Status	3.0	3.9	3.1	1.3	1.6	1.3
Weekly Status	4.3	9.3	4.4	2.5	2.3	2.5
<b>Urban Areas</b>						
Usual Principal Status	5.5	5.6	5.5	4.4	17.2	3.4
Usual Principal Status & Subsidiary Status	5.2	5.0	5.2	3.8	10.9	4.6
Weekly Status	6.0	6.6	6	4.6	13.1	5.5

Source : National Sample Survey (Various Rounds)

Area	50th Round 1993-94			61st Round 2004-05		
	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons
<b>A. Available for Additional Work</b>						
Rural	3.8	3.1	3.7	9.8	6.6	9.2
Urban	2.5	3.3	2.6	5.9	9.2	6.3
<b>B. Available for Alternate Work</b>						
Rural	3.4	3.0	3.3	8.2	4.2	7.4
Urban	2.7	1.4	2.6	5.1	7.8	5.4

Source : NSS, 50<sup>th</sup> Round, Sarvekshana, Vol. XX, No.1, July-September, 1996.  
NSS Report 515, 61<sup>st</sup> Round, 2004-05

in 2004-05 (Table 5.25). The corresponding figures for males were relatively low at 8.1 per cent and 4.6 percent respectively. The extent of visible underemployment has increased in 61<sup>st</sup> Round as compared to the 50<sup>th</sup> Round in terms of current daily basis but declined slightly on the basis of current weekly basis.

### Growth of Job Seekers

86. The number of job seekers registered with the Employment Exchanges expanded very rapidly during the eighties rising from 14.18 lakh in 1981 to 27.96 lakh in 1991. But since 1991 the number of job

seekers has come down sharply (Table 5.26). In December 2005, there were only 17.8 lakh job seekers registered with Employment Exchanges in the State. This was due to the fact that a negligible number, around 3500 per year, were placed in job through the Employment Exchanges. It is to be noted that females constitute only one-tenth of the registered persons.

87. Generally it is the educated persons in the urban who get themselves registered with the Employment Exchanges. Of the total numbers on the live registers of Employment Exchanges at the end of 2004, a little over one fifth were below high school.

Table 5.25: Per Cent of Usually Employed (Principal and Subsidiary Status) reporting out of Work by their Current Weekly and Daily Status, 1993-94 and 2004-05				
Status/Area	50th Round 1993-94		61st Round 2004-05	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
<b>I. Out of Work by Current Weekly Status</b>				
A. Rural Areas				
(i) Due to being Unemployed	1.1	0.9	1.4	0.4
(ii) Being out of Labour Force	3.2	22.7	3.0	19.5
B. Urban Areas				
(i) Due to being Unemployed	0.9	0.5	1.5	1.0
(ii) Being out of Labour Force	1.2	12.2	0.8	11.2
<b>II. Out of Work by Current Daily Status</b>				
A. Rural Areas				
(i) Due to being Unemployed	2.0	0.9	3.3	0.6
(ii) Being out of Labour Force	5.3	38.4	4.8	43.1
B. Urban Areas				
(i) Due to being Unemployed	1.5	1.0	3.0	1.3
(ii) Being out of Labour Force	2.4	25.6	1.6	29.4

Source : NSS, 50<sup>th</sup> Round, Sarvekshana, Vol.XX, No.1, July-September, 1996.

Table 5.26: Number of Job Seekers on Live Register of Employment Exchanges							
Year	Total Persons			Females			% Females On Register Live
	Registration	Placing	Live Register	Registration	Placing	Live Register	
1990	727445	18839	3118928	61708	1019	229906	7.37
1995	780967	11219	2508819	116056	1412	261585	10.43
2000	371728	3392	2037846	45019	105	186742	9.16
2001	361595	3528	1864128	43344	74	168831	9.06
2002	416653	3333	1816801	33523	62	159118	8.76
2003	520983	3493	1929328	59466	135	176372	9.14
2004	352579	2779	1902066	46372	80	176079	9.26
2005	351915	2486	1861577	40239	113	178316	9.58

Source: Directorate of Employment and Training, U.P.

Over half of them were either high school or intermediate pass, while around one-fifth were graduates or postgraduates. The proportion of persons with higher level of education is more in case of females as compared to males. Thus, over 45 percent of females registered with Employment Exchanges are graduates or post graduates (Figure 5.15).

88. It may be mentioned here that the number of job seekers on the live registers of Employment Exchanges is not fully reflective of the pressure on the job market, particularly when growth of employment is largely market driven and jobs in the public sector are shrinking. We have already noted that the number of job seekers registered with the Employment Exchanges has gone down quite sharply since 1991.

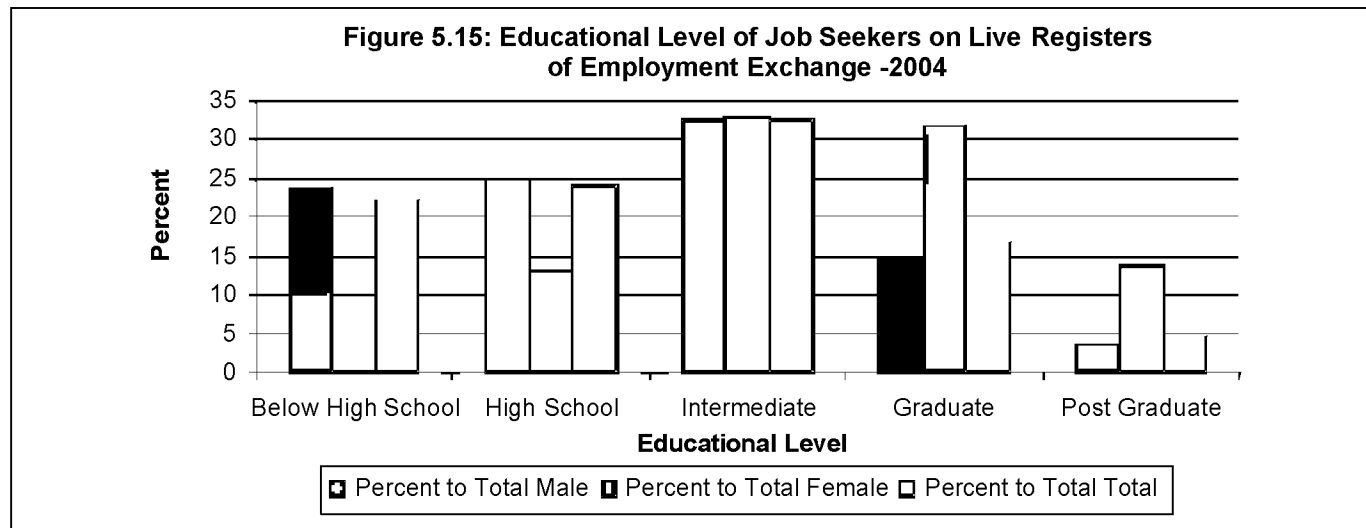
89. To sum up the unemployment situation in U.P., it may be observed that the incidence of open unemployment is relatively low. The poor cannot afford to remain unemployed and have to engage in some remunerative activity for their survival even though the returns are rather low. Thus, the major problem in U.P. is that of quality of employment in terms of productivity. The problem of underemployment is particularly severe in case of female workers who do not get regular employment opportunity. The employment generation strategy should address the problem of low productivity of employed workers and generation of additional supplementary employment opportunity. Flexible

employment generation programmes needs to be devised for women workers, whose participation in employment is intermittent.

### Employment Programmes

90. Generation of additional employment has been a major objective of the development plans both at the Centre and the state level. For this purpose a number of programmes for self employment and wage employment have been launched in the last three decades. In addition to the centrally sponsored programmes the state government has been implementing its own employment generation schemes.

91. Among the centrally sponsored schemes which are presently in operation are the **Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojana** (SGRY) and the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS). The Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojana was launched on 25<sup>th</sup> September 2001 by amalgamating the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana and Assured Employment Scheme. Its aim is to provide food security to the people through employment programmes. Under the scheme people are provided work for generating durable assets and developing rural infrastructure including roads, schools, social forestry, water structures, dispensaries, etc. The cost is shared between the centre and the states in the ratio of 75:25. Wages are paid in cash as well as in the form of foodgrains. Financial and physical progress of the programme in last three years is shown in Table 5.27.



**Table 5.27: Progress of Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojana during 2003-06**

Year	Financial Progress (Rs. Crore)			Man-days generated (in lakh)		
	Funds Allocated	Expenditure	% Utilization	Target	Achievement	% Achievement
2003-04	1235.06	1105.28	89	1535	1314.43	86
2004-05	1190.28	1064.68	89	1700	1750.45	103
2005-06	1400.16	1289.65	92	1746	1608.65	92

Source: Department of rural Development, Govt. of U.P.

**92. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act** came into force from March 2006 in all States. This Act provides enhancement of livelihood security to the rural poor household in the country by providing at least one hundred days of guaranteed wage employment in every financial year to every household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. Creation of durable assets and strengthening the livelihood resource base of the rural poor is an important objective of the Scheme. In the first phase the programme has been introduced in 22 most backward districts of U.P., namely, Sonbhadra, Unnao, Rae Bareli, Sitapur, Lakhimpur Kheri, Lalitpur, Chitrakoot, Barabanki, Hardoi, Banda, Mahoba, Hamirpur, Mirzapur, Kushinagar, Fatehpur, Gorakhpur, Azamgarh, Jaunpur, Jalaun, Kaushambi, Chandauli and Pratapgarh. It is proposed to cover all the districts under the programme in the year 2008-09.

93. A total of 37.12 lakh households had applied for registration in the scheme in U.P. till December 4, 2006, out of which 35.87 lakh were given the job card. 22.65 lakh persons demanded employment against which 22.05 lakh were provided job. While 62 percent of persons getting employment under the scheme belonged to scheduled castes the share of women was only 20 percent much below the required one third. A total of 428 lakh days of employment were generated under the scheme amounting to only 19 days of employment per person. The Employment Guarantee Scheme if properly implemented will go a long way in providing employment and income security to the poor. However, the scheme is undergoing teething troubles, which need to be paid due attention (see Box 5.4).

**Box 5.4: India's Rural Job Scheme plagued by discrimination: Study**

A field survey by PRIA and its partner organizations in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Jharkhand, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Uttaranchal revealed that while there was large-scale registration for jobs, less than 30% got the crucial job cards. Another major problem was low public awareness of the scheme – in Sitapur district of Uttar Pradesh, for instance, only 7% of respondents had proper information about the scheme. A gender bias was also apparent in the implementation of the scheme since women wishing to register for jobs faced much opposition. And in Sabarkantha district in Gujarat, the old and physically challenged were not even provided with registration forms.

The survey also found village heads guilty of misusing their power, with people with ties to the sarpanch (village headman), panchayat secretary and officials

appearing to have benefited more than villagers. In Rajasthan, elected panchayat functionaries are either ignorant or kept out of the exercise for the scheme's execution, despite the Rajasthan government's claim of having achieved decentralization of democracy. PRIA has expressed the concern that in the absence of aware elected representatives, empowered Gram Sabhas and active citizens, the best-designed development schemes such as NREGS could meet a "pathetic end".

94. The state government is giving high priority to employment generation and has introduced a number of schemes on its own for this purpose. These include the Bhumi Sena Yojana, *Rozgar* Chhatri Yojana and Unemployment Allowance Scheme (see Box 5.5).

**Box 5.5: State Initiatives on Employment Front  
Bhoomi Sena Yojana**

In 2005-06 the State Government launched the Bhoomi Sena Yojana, under which employment is provided to rural youth for reclaiming wastelands. One lakh hectare land will be treated under this scheme during the period of three years. The provision of Rs.99.36 crore has been made for this scheme and target of 110.74 lakh man days has been fixed for employment generation during 2006-07.

**Rozgar Chhatri Yojana**

Various self employment generating schemes have been brought under an umbrella scheme called the Rozgar Chhatri Yojana. Programmes of 32 departments are covered under this scheme. In the year 2004-05, 12.35 lakh persons are reported to have been provided employment under this scheme against a target of 13 lakh. However, in 2005-06 only 5.86 lakh jobs were created against a target of 14 lakh.

**Unemployment Allowance scheme**

The state government introduced an Unemployment Allowance scheme in 2006 with an annual provision of Rs.400 crore under which unemployment allowance of Rs.500 per month was being paid to 8 lakh unemployed graduates registered with the Employment Exchanges. This scheme has been discontinued.

95. In spite of the large financial allocations the impact of the employment programmes is still very low in terms of employment generated. Moreover, a number of shortcomings in the implementation of the employment programmes have been observed (Ravi Srivastava, 2003). Considerable amount of available funds remain unutilized. Reports of misuse and misappropriation of allotted funds are widely prevalent. The quality of material used in the public works was

often sub-standard. The norms regarding the coverage of weaker sections and women often remain unmet. In short, there appears to be considerable scope of improving the efficiency of the employment generation programmes through better designing and implementation.

## **VI. The Challenge of Employment and Poverty Eradication in U.P.**

96. In spite of the substantial reduction in poverty levels over the past decades, the proportion of poverty is still relatively high in the state and the absolute number of the poor is very large. Though open unemployment rates are low in U.P., a very high proportion of workers are engaged in low income generating activities in agriculture and the informal sector. Poor asset base of the people, lack of economic diversification, poor levels of human capabilities and low productivity in the traditional sectors are among the major causes of poverty.

97. The challenge of employment generation and eradication of poverty requires a broad based, labour intensive and regionally equitable pattern of sustained growth. Rate of economic growth has to be stepped up by raising substantially investment levels in the public sector and creating a favourable investment climate to attract private capital in the state on a massive scale.

98. Improvement in agricultural productivity and diversification of the rural economy by promoting non-farm activities are vitally needed for poverty reduction in the rural areas, where bulk of the poor live. Improvement in productivity levels in the informal sector through technological upgradation and better input and marketing facilities will be necessary for improving the

income levels of the poor masses. Large scale investment in rural infrastructure is needed for accelerating economic growth in the rural areas and improving living conditions of the people.

99. The working of the wage employment and self employment programmes has to be improved to remove the deficiencies in their implementation. The strategy of promotion of self help groups of the poor supported by credit, training and marketing facilities needs to be vigorously pursued.

100. Social safety networks need to be substantially expanded for the protection of the vulnerable groups and destitutes, suffering from temporary and/or permanent shocks and handicaps will remain important.

101. The economic opportunities of the poor are restricted by lack of education and poor health conditions. Therefore, a human development strategy is critical for meeting the challenge of poverty and inclusive growth in the state. While the continued role of state in provision of social services like education, health, water and sanitation will remain important, efforts should be made to encourage private investment in social sector by adopting public private partnership models in this field. The quality of public services needs to be improved and access of the poor to these facilities encouraged.

102. A participatory approach needs to be encouraged by involving the people in planning and implementation of development programmes and in maintenance and running of the various social services meant for their benefits. Strengthening of the Panchayati Raj Institutions and their real empowerment will go a long way in strengthening the participatory approach.



## CHAPTER - 6

# Status of Women

*“The human race is a two-winged bird. One wing is female the other is male. Unless both wings are equally developed, the human race will not be able to fly. Now, more than ever, the cause of women is the cause of mankind.”*

*- Boutros Boutros Ghali- erstwhile Secretary General of the United Nations*

### I. Introduction

1. The questions surrounding women's empowerment, the condition and position of women, have now become critical to the human rights based approaches to development. The Cairo conference on Population and Development organized by UN in 1994 called attention to women's empowerment as a central focus. It called for advancing gender equality and empowerment of women, elimination of all kinds of violence against women, and ensuring women's fertility as the cornerstones of population and development related programmes. The UNDP Human Development Report 1995 was devoted to women's empowerment and it declared that if human development is not engendered it is endangered. Equality, sustainability and empowerment were emphasized and the stress was on the understanding that women's emancipation does not depend on national income but is an engaged political process.

2. Uttar Pradesh has had an interesting record in terms of its gender report card. There is a great tradition of women poets, scholars and fighters and it also had the first woman Governor and first Chief Minister. Uttar Pradesh declared its Women's Policy expressing its commitment to gender justice in 2006. The policy purports to work towards giving control to women over their own lives in terms of both resource and ideology.

3. According to 2001 Census in Uttar Pradesh 26.5 million women are still illiterate. It has a high maternal mortality rate at 517. Official statistics reveal that Uttar Pradesh recorded 2059 dowry deaths during 2000 which is the highest among the States and constitutes 30 percent of reported cases across the country. On the positive side, in the last decade Uttar Pradesh recorded a healthy growth in female literacy and recent encouraging trend in female to male ratio in the population. Women, have benefited from the expansion of higher education and made their mark in cultural, educational and administrative fields. A significant development has been the networking of women's groups. Issues of domestic violence, livelihoods, caste oppression, and communal divisions have been raised in women's activism. Increased participation of women in Panchayats has also raised hope.

4. A detailed study of the State with reference to gender development during the nineties revealed a dismal picture (Preet Rustagi). According to this study, UP's sex ratio stood at a low of 879 in 1991. There was a huge gender gap of 33 percentage points in female literacy. IMR was recorded at 100 with a gender differential of 10. Child mortality rate recorded at 149 with a gender difference of 3. Mean years of Marriage was reported 17.27 and total fertility rate at 5.60. Female work participation was recorded at 11% with a gender gap of 52. The study also revealed very large variations in the gender related indicators across districts of the State. Faizabad, Bareilly, Badaun, Etah, Mainpuri, Aligarh, Mathura, Rampur, Shahjehanpur, Bahraich, Agra, Gonda, Lalitpur, Pilibhit, Bulandshahar, Siddhartnagar, Sultanpur, Moradabad, Etawah, Banda, Sitapur, Kheri and Ghaziabad emerged as UP's most backward districts on these parameters. It is revealing to note that majority of these districts belong to western region of U.P., which is economically more developed.

5. Though the situation has improved in many respects since then, the situation of women in the State remains a cause of concern. This chapter looks at various aspects of status of women in Uttar Pradesh like literacy, health, political and economic participation, domestic violence, crime against women, government programmes and policies, etc. and underlines the measures which need to be taken to improve their status and involve them in the development process.

#### **BOX 6.1 Measuring Gender Disparities; the GDI and the GEM**

The Human Development Report 1995 evolved two indicators i.e. Gender Related Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) to quantify gender disparities. The GDI focuses on the inequalities in basic capabilities, that is health, education and access to resources. The HDI is discounted downwards or adjusted for gender inequality, so that a high GDI value indicates lesser inequality while a low GDI value would mean lower

achievement levels for women in the three basic sectors mentioned above.

The Gender Empowerment Measure seeks to measure the degree to which women and men command economic, professional and political power. Three indicators measure this: per capita income, share in professional, technical, managerial and administrative jobs and share in parliamentary seats. However, caste, community, access to fuel and fodder, control over land and other assets, inheritance rights, and violence and the threat of violence also have a direct bearing on women's status, but do not get reflected in the GEM.

## II. Educational Status

6. Women empowerment involves self assertion which is closely related to formal and informal sources of education. The principal strategy suggested for this by a large number of intellectuals and activists was education for women. As the Human Development Report 1995 observed the returns from educating girls have few parallels in any other type of social investment.

7. Table 6.1 highlights the gender gap in education in U.P. in terms of various indicators like literacy rate, enrollment ratios, drop out rates, school attendance etc.

**Table 6.1: Indicators of Gender Gap in Education**

Indicators	Value	Remarks
1. Literacy rate, 2001		
- Total	57.3% (65.4%)	Decadal growth in female literacy rate : 18.61% Gap between Male & Female literacy : 27.25% Gap between rural and urban female literacy : 24.31% No. of girls enrolled per 100 boys : 57
- Male	70.2% (75.85%)	
- Female	42.9% (54.9%)	
2. Gross Enrollment Rate (Primary), 2003		
- Total	91.2%	Transition from primary to upper primary = 62.12%
- Male	93.0% (95.7%)	
- Female	89.3% (85.9%)	
3. Net Enrollment Rate, 2001		
- Total		Dropout rate has decreased by 25.9% compared to 2000-01
- Male	82.9% (90.3%)	
- Female	81.9% (81.5%)	
4. Dropout rate, 2003		
- Total	23.5% (53.7%)	In 2003-04, 5.49 million children in Class I, and 2.96 million children in Class 5
- Male	24.2% (50.3%)	
- Female	22.7% (57.7%)	
5. School Attendance, 2000		
- Total	69.3% (85.0)	25.7% schools with TPR more than 100. 16.1% schools are single teacher schools 32% teachers are female teachers
- Female	58.0% (66.0)	
6. Survival Rate, 2004 (Class V)	54.1%	
7. Teacher : Pupil Ratio, 2004	1 : 55 (1.40)	

### Source:

- 1: Census
- 2: Selected Education Statistics, 2002-03, MHRD, GOI
- 3: Selected Education Statistics, 2000-01, MHRD, GOI
- 4: Selected Education Statistics, 2002-03, MHRD, GOI
- 5: NSSO Fiftieth Round, 1999-2000
- 6: State Report Cards, NIEPA
- 7: State Report Cards, NIEPA

8. Low literacy rates of women, low enrollment rates in schools and high drop out rates of the girls highlight how women have been denied the empowering touch of education. House hold responsibility and domestic chores are a part of the life of a young girl in the rural area. There is inequality within families evidenced by long hours of unvalued domestic work.

9. Despite positive trends, UP's classrooms continue to display an appalling extent of neglect of all children including girls. It does appear that the children of the poor are treated minimally and differentially not only by the caste hierarchical society but also by the State. Children are crammed in small rooms sitting on the floor with one teacher minding up to 150 students of various levels.

10. Close micro studies show that in the classrooms boys often take privileged spaces. Girls sit in last rows- especially in classes of algebra and arithmetic. Sometimes when it is not so, boys walk up front and stand up. Girls also crane their necks but cannot muster enough courage to walk up to the teacher (usually a male in most remote areas). Almost invariably girls are not addressed by their names, are asked to sing but not debate. In some cases both boys and girls are beaten. But in those schools where girls are spared, it is with the belief that they need no challenge and their education is only a certification required for marriage.

11. Private schools rarely show any initiative for gender concerns. *Madarasas* have large number of girls, but gender transformation is not on agenda. Moral science textbooks still have a preponderance of men. Women as agents of social reform are not mentioned. Girl's self esteem has been enhanced by efforts like those of Mahila Samakhya and girls education projects, but there is huge challenge about cognitive learning in all non-formal efforts. Poor linguistic skills and computation skills cannot be compensated by apparent self-confidence.

12. State initiatives in curricular reforms, training and decentralized structures are appropriate steps which could give desired results if combined with the States promise to construct school buildings with 5 open rooms supported by 5 school teachers and a head teacher. Empowered teachers in disempowering circumstances cannot be expected to give heroic performances. Tasks on time monitoring and M.L.L. achievement monitoring need to be made more effective.

13. Residential schools run by voluntary agencies have had mixed success. Funding for Kasturba Gandhi Schools need to be more realistic. Hostels for intermediate and degree colleges are pitifully small in number. 95% of State's total Blocks have female literacy rates below the State average. The urban rural divide continues to be often greater than the overall gender gap. More women teachers need to be recruited and

provided with safe housing facility. Efforts of most civil society organizations are episodic though very useful. Delhi Government initiative of making 25% enrollment of poor free in private schools can be looked into.

14. The State should take the initiative of making primary education compulsory, which will have remarkable structural impact for sexes. Centres of higher education have done nothing to promote girls' education so far. Technical training institutes for women are very few. Serious review of educational curriculum at secondary and higher level is necessary. This was a commitment made in the National Policy on Education. No State funding for faculty recruitment or faculty promotion programmes in Women Studies Centres of the State universities have been done so far.

### III. Health Status

15. Women in U.P. as in other parts of India fall far short in terms of fully functional capability in terms of their capability to have a long and healthy life. Their existence is threatened through the unholy alliance of technology with tradition manifest in sex determination tests and selective abortion of female foetus. UP has also passed a regulating law on prenatal diagnostic techniques but there have been no convictions so far. U.P. has one of the lowest sex ratios in the world and third lowest among the major States of India. UP has however recorded a trend of declining infant mortality confirmed by NFHS I, II and III (see chapter 4). Surveys show that IMR in UP declined from 99.9 deaths per 1000 live birth for the five year period preceding the 92/93 survey to 86.7 deaths per 1000 live birth for the corresponding five year time interval preceding the 98-99 survey, to 73 deaths per 1000 live births for the five year time interval preceding 2005/6 survey. This is reason for considerable optimism for the future. Gender differentials in IMR is still 76 for male to 84 for female - considerably higher than all India average which is 62 for male to 65 for female (PSMS II).

16. The NFHS III findings highlight that in U.P. 53 percent of the respondent women (between the age of 20-24) were married by the age of 18. While this figure was 30 percent in the urban area, it was a high 60.1 percent in the rural area. This indicates a breach of law regarding minimum age of marriage. 14.3 percent women between the age of 14-19 were already mothers or pregnant at the time of the Survey. Marriage of girls before the legal minimum age of 18 is a widespread phenomenon in Uttar Pradesh. Nearly 49 percent girls are married below the age of 18 years in Uttar Pradesh. The position is alarming in Lalitpur and Maharajganj districts where over 80 percent of girls are married off before they reach the age of 18. Early age of marriage is both the symptom as well as a cause of women's subordination in the society. Girls are married off early for a complex array of causes. Socially and

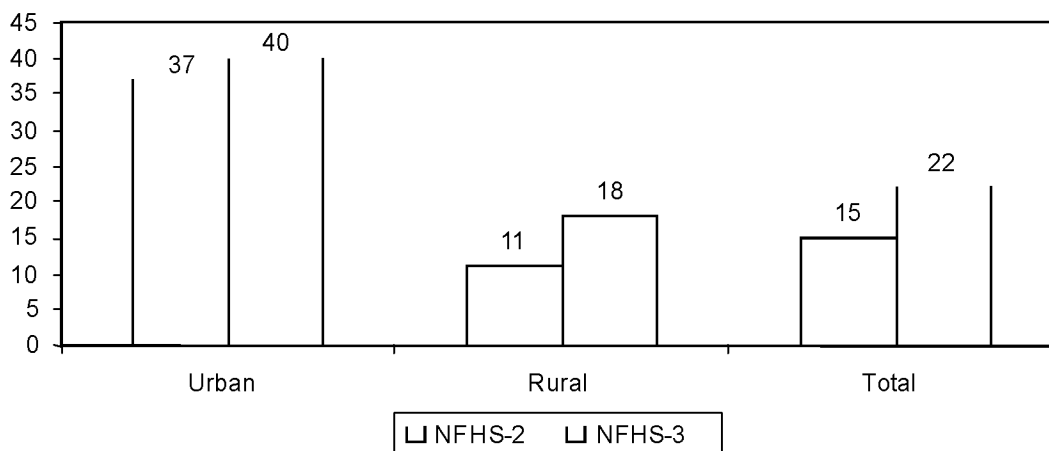
culturally perceived as "paraya dhan", premium is put on virginity and therefore restrictive controls are imposed on her mobility and sexuality. Girls are thus seen to be protected from violence in society by an early marriage.

17. In U.P. sex specific mortality differential moves in an unnatural direction. The female death rate for the age group 0-4 exceeds the male death rate by 22%. This works out to 1.22, 0.88, 1.08 and 0.88 for the 0-4, 5-14, 15-49 and 50+ age groups respectively. The very high value for the 0-4 age group is notable. Differential treatment of boys and girls is the most likely explanation for higher female mortality (UNICEF, 2006). 41% urban & 37% rural women report reproductive health problems (NFHS 3).

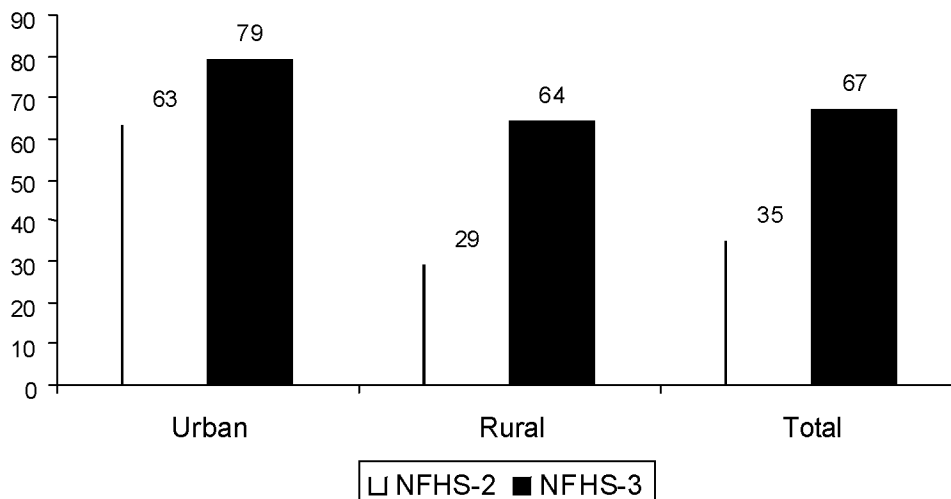
18. Maternal mortality rate has reportedly come down from 707 per 100,000 live births to 517, though it

is still too high. Fertility rate has shown decline from 4.1 in NFHS 1 to 3.8 in NFHS 3. The rural fertility rate stands at 4.13 while urban stands at 2.95. Maternity care evidenced by 3 antenatal visits for their last birth for rural women is only 22.6, for urban areas it is 40.9. Mothers who consume IFA for 90 days or more at the time of their last pregnancy stood at 6.7% in rural areas and 16.4 in urban areas. Institutional births have a rural urban differential too. 50.5 percent urban women and 23.8 percent rural women received assistance of a trained health worker. Only 31 per cent urban and 9.9 per cent rural women have received any sort of post natal care within two days of delivery (NFHS 3, 2006). These figures point to a large short fall in maternal care services even in urban areas. The Rural Health Mission is still to register any visible presence on *the ground*.

**Figure 6.1: Trends in Institutional Deliveries (%)**  
(Births in the last 3 years)



**Figure 6.2: Trends in Any Antenatal Care (%)**  
(Births in the last 3 years)



19. However, PSMS II reports that only half of all expectant mothers among the poorest one fifth of the population received full or some ante natal care (Fig. 6.2). The coverage among the wealthiest was reported to be 80 per cent. Use of private providers for antenatal care by both rich and poor is showing an increase. This is being appreciated and incorporated in the State Health Policy. The low use of public service suggests the absence of government service widely as well as the perception of their being of low quality. An overwhelming majority of deliveries still occur at home, although wealthiest women avail of Government and private services. PSMS II also reports that only 16 per cent of births were institutional deliveries. Social disadvantage and low incomes are proportional to percentage of institutional deliveries. Government schemes about financial support to expectant mothers does not seem to have any significant reflection in terms of better or more institutional service utilization in pre and ante natal care.

20. The use of Family Planning measures is generally low in U.P. NFHS 3 findings indicate an increase in use of contraceptive measures by women between 15 to 49 years (Fig. 6.3). Compared to NFHS 2 findings, the new data shows that contraception use has increased from 44% to 56% among urban women and from 23% to 40% among rural women. Female sterilization still remains the most utilized method adopted by 18.7% urban and 16.8% rural women. Male sterilization is a dismal 0.2% while it is much simpler in terms of health risks involved. This is related to myths related to male virility and strength. In terms of choices and exercise of their reproductive rights, women continue to be constrained. Their consultation in limiting family size or

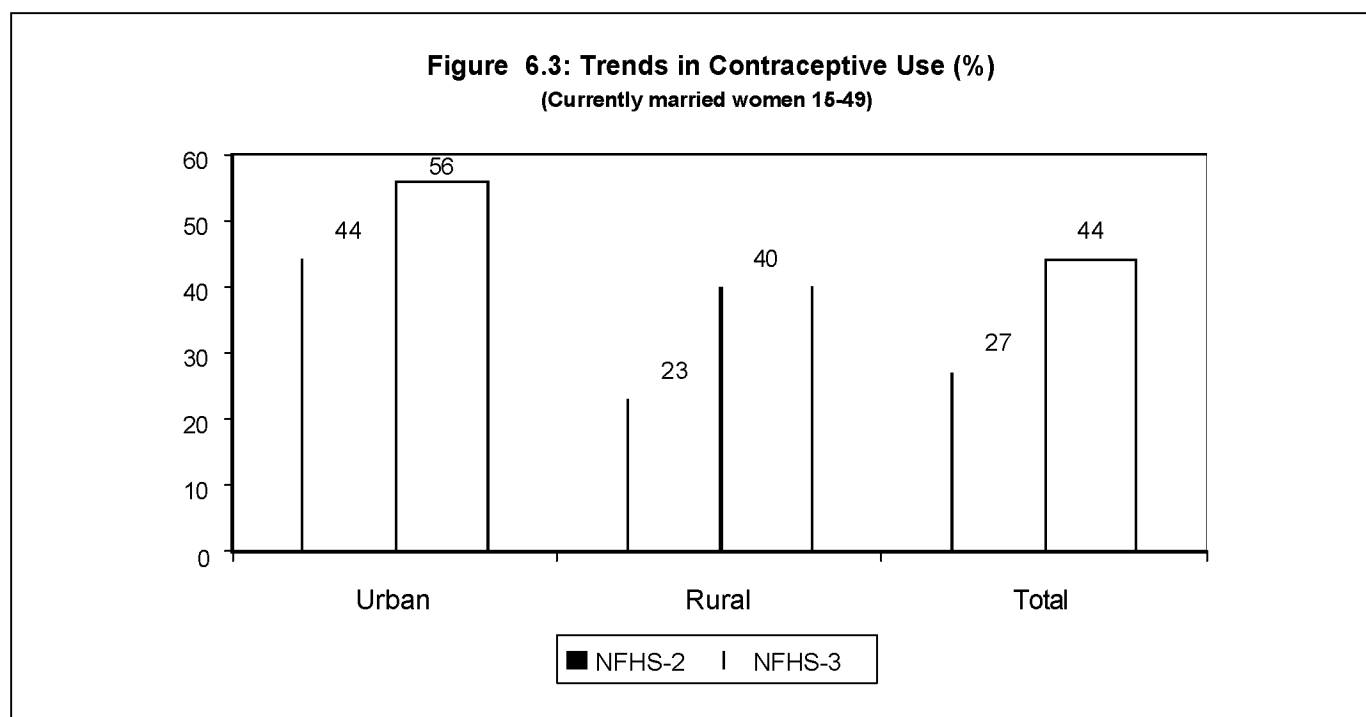
spacing is minimal as is reported by many organizations working on the ground.

21. It is an important point to note that 64.2% married women were satisfied with 2 living children and wanted no more as reported by NFHS III. Of these 76.3% were urban based and 58.6 percent were rural women. The finding of NFHS II pointed to 43.7% who were satisfied with two living children. This indicated women's increasing awareness of advantages of small family. However, a closer examination of responses reveals that it is women who have 2 sons or a son and a daughter who do not want more children. Only 30.8% women with 2 daughters do not want more children. Of these 51.9% belong to the urban area and 21.3% to rural areas. This may also be correlated to women's educational status. 52% of women satisfied with 2 daughters have had more than 10 years of schooling.

22. Malnutrition among mothers is high. It is estimated that 80% women marry and give birth before the age of 18. Maternal mortality rate in Uttar Pradesh is 8 times higher than in Kerala and 70% higher than the national average. That UP has the third highest rural female death rate, after MP and Chattisgarh, is an area of grave concern.

#### IV. Economic Empowerment

23. Economic empowerment holds the key to womens empowerment as it provides them with the means and opportunity to exercise their choices independently. Economic empowerment is related to the employment opportunity, earning levels, property rights and asset ownership. The situation with respect to these issues is discussed below.



## Women and Work

24. Women's work is statistically less visible, non monetized and relegated to subsistence production and domestic side. The non paid work includes domestic chores like cooking, cleaning, child care and care for the elderly and the handicapped-traditionally understood as women's work. Subsistence activities like kitchen gardening, post harvest processing, feeding farm hands, live stock maintenance, gathering of fuel, forest produce, unpaid family labour in family farm or enterprise are all done by women who are reported to be "non working housewives". If women's work is rendered visible, especially unpaid household work, there will be dramatic change in perspective towards perceiving women's work.

25. As discussed in Chapter 5, employment opportunities seem to be much lower for women in U.P., which restricts their economic empowerment. As per 2001 Census, work participation rate (WPR) was very low for females at 16.5 percent as compared to 46.8 percent for males. Only 19.0 percent of rural women and 6.8 percent of urban women in U.P. were found to be economically active. Very sharp variations in female CWPRs are observed at the district levels ranging from a low of 6.3 per cent in Saharanpur to 36 per cent in Chitrakoot district (see Appendix 5.5 and 6.2). In general female work participation rates are higher in the poorer regions of Bundelkhand and Eastern U.P. as compared to the other two regions.

26. NSS surveys are more representative of the reality in this respect and show higher WPR particularly for females. According to NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, WPR for males and females were 50.2 percent and 21.6 percent respectively. The corresponding rates of WPR at the national level were 54.7 per cent for males and 28.7 for females. The latest NSS round shows an improvement in WPR between 1999-00 and 2004-05 for both males and females in rural as well as urban areas (see Table 5.6).

27. As compared to males more females are crowded in lower paid manual work. According to NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round (2004-05) still 80 per cent of female workers are engaged in agriculture against 53.4 per cent of male workers. 10.7 per cent of female workers were employed in manufacturing sector and only 8 per cent in services sector. The corresponding figures for males were higher at 13.1 per cent and 25.0 per cent respectively (see Table 5.8). Women workers comprise only one tenth of the total organized sector workers in the State.

28. Restriction on women's mobility, complete child care responsibility, ideology of female seclusion, vulnerability to abuse, low access to information and mass media, low literacy, assumption that women's work is supplementary and confined to largely manual untrained tasks, leads to women's poor access to income.

## Ownership of Property

29. Access to productive resources is critical to enhancing women's economic choice. Ownership of properties in the name of women is a strong evidence of women's economic strength and offers a platform for her to exercise her agency. An independent ownership is important in case of widowhood or divorce or separation. According to a recent study of Kerala, women's risk of physical violence from husbands is dramatically less if they own land or a house. The incidence of violence is 49 percent among women without property, but 18 percent among land owning women and 7 percent if they own both land and house (Bina Agarwal, 2005).

30. A study on women's empowerment commissioned by the Planning Department, U.P. Government highlights that only 2.6% women, both rural and urban respondents, own property in their own name (Manoj Agarwal, 2006). The 21.1% and the 29.8% "No response" among the rural and urban respondents points to the ambiguity which may arise from women's location in the family where property is held and seen as a common resource for the family well being (Table 6.2).

**Table 6.2: Status about Property Right of Women (Per Cent)**

Age-Group	Rural				Urban				All			
	Yes	No	NR	Nos.	Yes	No	NR	Nos.	Yes	No	NR	Nos.
15-19	0.5	77.8	21.8	185	-	61.9	38.1	42	0.4	74.9	24.7	227
20-29	1.8	79.3	18.9	619	0.9	85.0	14.2	113	1.6	80.2	18.2	732
30-39	2.4	78.8	18.8	590	0.9	58.3	40.7	108	2.1	75.6	22.2	698
40-59	4.9	73.9	21.2	551	4.3	65.5	30.2	116	4.8	72.4	22.8	667
60+	1.1	49.5	49.5	91	28.6	14.3	57.1	7	3.1	46.9	50.0	98
Total	2.7	76.2	21.1	20.36	2.3	67.9	29.8	386	2.6	74.9	22.5	2422

Source: Manoj Agarwal 2006

31. The same study also reports that the percentage of women holding bank accounts in single name is 7.1, while that of women holding accounts in joint name is 5.9. 58.1%, women have no account singly or jointly (Table 6.3). 28.9% respondents did not give a response. This indicates women's low participation in decision making regarding utilization of the money she helps to generate and maintain by her household labour in the family.

Age Group	Single Name	Joint Name	Do Not Have	No Answer	Total Sample
15-19	0.4	-	52.4	47.1	227 (100.0)
20.-29	5.3	3.6	62.8	28.3	732 (100.0)
30-39	7.6	7.2	60.5	24.8	698 (100.0)
40-59	10.8	9.4	57.3	22.5	667 (100.0)
80+	6.1	5.1	25.5	63.3	98 (100.0)
Total	7.1	5.9	58.1	28.9	2422 (100.0)

Source: Manoj Agarwal 2006

32. In February 2006, the State Government took an important decision in favour of women empowerment by reducing stamp duty by two per cent in case the registration is done in the name of women. This is likely to prove beneficial to women in the long run and will also improve their economic and social status as well as self respect and confidence. The response to this scheme has been very encouraging (see Box 6.2). The popularity of the scheme is evident from the fact that within 5 months of passing of the ordinance almost three lakh registrations were done in the name of women. A rebate of Rs.265 crore has been provided under the scheme in different districts till February, 2007. Details can be seen at Appendix 6.3.

#### **Box 6.2 Lowering of Stamp Duty in Case of Women**

Recent initiative of the State (Ordinance of 23 Feb. 2006) regarding reduction of stamp duty on purchase of land from 8 percent to 6 percent has worked in the direction of more land being bought in the name of women in the family. This transfer of assets in favour of women, though initially used by male members of the family to save family money,

will gradually contribute to build women's empowerment. 2,97,715 transactions have been done in the name of women in 68 districts of Uttar Pradesh between April 2006 and August 2006. When women move out of their homes to sign the papers in Tehsils in many cases it is their first exposure to an office. This initiative will go a long way towards women's empowerment.

Source: Government of U.P.

### **Land Pattas**

33. Land is a source of security, food sustenance and livelihood for poor women. Granting land pattas in the name of women can be seen as a powerful empowering strategy for gender equality and for encouraging the development of women's autonomy. *Pattas* for women should also be seen in the light of the fact that about 20 percent of rural households are headed by women, where the woman is responsible for family survival. *Pattas* for women are important also because of the fact that the interests of women are mostly ignored in the implementation of inheritance laws. Women's vulnerable position as a result can be strengthened in case of widowhood or desertion.

34. The granting of the *patta* or legal title of land ownership has been an important policy of the State to assist rural landless and marginalised to earn their livelihood. The issue of women being granted *pattas*, singly or jointly, or in groups, has found mention in various plan documents of the Central Government. The State has been giving land ownership or *patta* jointly in the name of the husband and wife as the State presumes congruence of interests and of the equitable sharing of resources in the household. However, in such cases there is little likelihood of any change in the women's position and status at home. But ownership of land in the woman's name often serves to increase her status and dignity within the family, leading to an increased share in the household decision-making in matters such as the children's education, credit and agriculture related matters. Thus, women can negotiate their role within the family.

35. Support and linkage with Self Help groups voluntary or governmental organizations, may help women to build awareness and increase their mobility. It may also strengthen the sense of empowerment which accompanies land ownership. Thus, individual *pattas* may go a long way in reversing the unequal gender relations which exist within families.

36. A recent legislation of the Central Government, the Hindu Succession Amendment Act 2005 is also a step in the right direction towards women's equality in property rights (Box 6.3). It makes Hindu women's inheritance rights in agricultural land legally equal to those of men. All daughters including married daughters

are coparcenary in the joint family property. Daughters now have the right to claim partition and to become 'karta'. All daughters, married or unmarried can reside, seek partition of the parental dwelling place. This law of the Centre will have the power to displace any conflicting laws of the State which are unequal to women. This is a far reaching measure to assure women's control over property.

### Box 6.3: Agricultural Land Rights for Women

Women's rights received a shot in the arm with the Hindu Succession (Amendment) Bill, 2004, passed in the Lok Sabha on August 29, 2005, which guaranteed over 400 million Hindu women in India equal rights over agricultural land and joint property in the Hindu undivided family (HUF). The Bill grants women coparcenary in the Hindu undivided family; they have equal rights even in their grandfather's property, which was denied to them earlier. The Bill was approved by the Rajya Sabha on August 16, 2005, and awaits the President's approval.

"This is a landmark legislation as it allows women access to her and her family's livelihood through ownership over agricultural land", says a legal expert. The Hindu Succession Act, 1956, denied women's claim over agricultural land through succession to prevent fragmentation of land and avoid complications in fixation of ceilings and devolution of tenancy rights. Based on medieval Hindu 'Mitakshra' system, it gave primacy to male linear descendants in the male line descent.

Being lucrative property in rural areas, agriculture land was always a male privilege. Even when communist West Bengal tried land reforms in 1977 by distributing lands to the landless, it did not consider women. "This was because ..... women were not considered land-tillers. Thus, although they performed major agriculture work, they had little right over agriculture property."

This situation was worse in States like Haryana, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Jammu & Kashmir, where tenurial laws were completely against women. But the new laws will over ride all discriminatory State laws. In southern States, the laws favoured women slightly; Kerala had abolished the Hindu Undivided Family property system.

It is believed that this amendment will bring gender justice and improve women's socio-economic status. Earlier studies have shown that gender inequality in agricultural land is a precursor to poverty in rural areas. "As women had no rights over farmlands, they had little say in mortgaging and its other uses by the male." This endangered their livelihood, increased domestic violence and compromised care for their children.

Source: Down to Earth, Sept. 2005 in UP Voluntary Action Network Newsletter May - Aug 2005

## Self Help Groups

37. Self Help Groups (SHGs) have emerged as an important strategy to achieve the objective of empowering women and alleviating poverty. SHGs are based on the idea of small groups, which function at developing collective consciousness. Linked with micro credit, these groups are able to access credit and subsidy to meet urgent needs, reducing their dependence on moneylenders. The basic agenda of making credit available to the economically vulnerable women forms the core objective. Thus, SHGs can expand by linking in the form of collectives, clusters and federations. While embracing issues of common concern to the group wider than only credit, such as domestic violence, reproductive rights and political participation, SHGs offer an important dialogic space for women. SHGs are tools, which will reflect the ideology of their initiators, and in many cases they have an important potential to enable women to come together, form collectives and work for social and economic issues which are meaningful in their lives.

38. Though slow to pick up in the beginning, the SHG movement has spread rapidly in last few years in the State. U.P. Government has conceptualized an innovative approach which attempts to ensure a sense of ownership of government programmes among the community by involving SHGs in the implementation of government run development programmes in the rural areas. This would also contribute to the sustainability of the self-help groups. This initiative was mooted in the mid term appraisal of the Tenth Plan. It attempts to build upon the large number of women SHGs currently operational under the initiatives taken by government and non-government organizations, which presently are largely thrift and credit groups with some of them linked to income generation activity.

39. It is envisaged that the rural population below the poverty line will be linked with micro finance activities through the setting up of a Micro Finance Equity Fund in collaboration with commercial banks which could provide loans on a priority basis. It envisages that at least 50 per cent of the groups participating would be women's Self Help Groups. The plan is to federate thrift and credit societies. There would be asset creation at the *Nyaya Panchayat* level. A group would be identified to take care of a particular development scheme or programme. Capacity building of the SHGs would be carried out in activities such as skill development, business administration, quality control, sales and marketing, entrepreneurship development, bargaining skills/negotiations, advocacy, communication, knowledge, management etc. At the *Nyaya Panchayat* level there would be a shop set up by a SHG through a bank loan. This retail outlet would help in asset creation through the marketing of products made by women.

40. It is estimated that there are approximately 3.7 lakh SHGs operational in U.P. of which 1.25 lakh are



women SHGs (See Appendix Table 6.4). These SHGs have helped in increasing the income of poor women and contributed to their economic and social empowerment (see Box 6.4).

**Box 6.4: Self Help Groups Set UP Under  
UP Sodic Lands Reclamation II  
Project: Some Success Stories**

*The project under the UP Bhumi Sudhar Nigam is operational in 18 districts of the State. The Programme has been run on a participatory basis in which the beneficiary farmers have been involved in the entire process of decision-making, planning, monitoring and evaluation. The project initiated a movement to set up SHGs comprising of both men and women to address the issue of poverty alleviation. Major economic and social benefits have emanated from the SHGs. Women's participation in agriculture and other livelihood related activities has been ensured through organizing them in saving and thrift groups which have been set up under the project. Some success stories of women SHGs under the programme are highlighted below:*

***The Story of Savitri Devi:** Savitri Devi resides in the village of Johvasharki of Harchandpur block of Rae Bareilly. She is a member of the Bindeshwari Mahila Bachat Samooh. Savitri Devi's personal life was a difficult one. Village Johvasharki was identified by the UP Bhoom Sudhar Nigam and 6 groups were constituted. These were linked with bank to help the members to meet their needs. Gradually the conditions in the village also began to show improvement. Villagers were also given different kinds of information regarding agricultural practices and techniques. After training Savitri Devi began the planting of dhan (coriander) in one bigha of land with loan from the group. Six quintal produce was obtained. The sale price for this is about Rs. 35-40 per kilo. Thus, a gross earning of Rs. 24,000 was generated.*

***The Story of Guddi Devi:** Guddi Devi resides in Nazarpur, a village 30 kilometer from Allahabad. She is the owner of 0.456 hectare land, which is totally unfit for agriculture. The Bhumi Sudhar Nigam had chosen the village for the Sodic Land Reclamation Project. The villagers were convinced that their land could not be improved. The functionaries met the villagers regularly and persuaded them to form 5 water users' groups. Guddi Devi's land fell in group one. The group decided that the boring to be done by the Nigam would be done in Guddi Devi's land. Guddi Devi and her husband worked day and night to level the land, strengthen boundaries and ensure effective drainage. In the month of June the leaching process was done and gypsum was spread on the land.*

*Mixing and leaching was done with the water taken from the boring. A rich paddy crop was eventually produced. Guddi Devi received a certificate from the District Magistrate of Allahabad for Best Productivity. The water made available through boring has enabled her to make a tank for fishes. The income has helped Guddi Devi and her family to lead a prosperous life. Source: Dastak : Anthropology of Stories of Success from the Sodic Land Project, UP Bhumi Sudhar Nigam, Lucknow, September 2006.*

41. A number of NGOs are actively engaged in organizing poor women in the State. Through their efforts a large number of women have been able to improve their economic conditions. These efforts have also helped in empowerment of women in other ways through improvement in literacy, awareness about social issues and collective action to fight injustice (see Box 6.5)

**Box 6.5: Voluntary Effort in Building Women's  
Entrepreneurship through Self Help Group**

Network of Entrepreneurship and Economic Development (NEED) is a Voluntary Organisation established in 1995 as a network of people-driven development models. NEED started working in village Khusurna in the Mahmudabad Block and as a result of the motivation a Self Help Group named 'Ganga' was formed in January 2001. 18 women joined the group as members. While usually SHGs are homogeneous groups drawing members from one caste, interestingly, this was a heterogeneous group with members from diverse castes. Out of 18 members, 8 members belonged to the Verma community which is a backward community, 7 belonged to the Scheduled Caste, 9 to the Nai (Barber) community and one was a Brahmin. In the traditional set up prevalent in the villages of Uttar Pradesh it is unusual even think about such a diverse group coming together breaking the caste barrier.

Initially the group started with collecting Rs. 20/- per month and within 2 years they made a total collection of Rs. 9,000/-. The SHG got linked to the Bank. They have taken a loan of Rs. 20,000/- out of which they have returned Rs. 11,000/- to the bank. The SHG has also organised a number of training programmes for its members on a variety of subjects such as management, income generation, health, agriculture, animal husbandry. As a consequence several members have been motivated to start micro-enterprises. Today members are also making some collective efforts to mobilise funds for community activities. During festivals, women members put up stalls to sell home-made sweets as profit making venture. The SHG has utilised the money to improve the facilities in the village.

In the initial period of the functioning of the SHG caste distinctions and barriers were visible. However, gradually a social revolution has taken place. The village once divided on class, caste and communal lines has emerged from these divisions, broken social barriers and surfaced as an instance of social harmony.

26 year old Urmila Devi who belongs to the Nai caste was living a life of poverty. She has a large joint family and limited income from an irregularly run pan shop. Urmila got a credit of Rs. 2000/- from the SHG "Ganga" of which she is a member. She was able to start a General store with the support of her husband and father in-law and within six months she started earning between Rs. 600 to 700 per month. Soon she saved Rs. 500/- and has re-opened her husband's Pan shop which has closed down. Urmila has paid back her credit to the SHG and is planning to expand her shop and open one more in coming future.

Source: Anil K. Singh, *SHE Did It! Stories on How Entrepreneurship Changed Women's Life*, NEED, Lucknow, July 2003.

## V. Political Participation

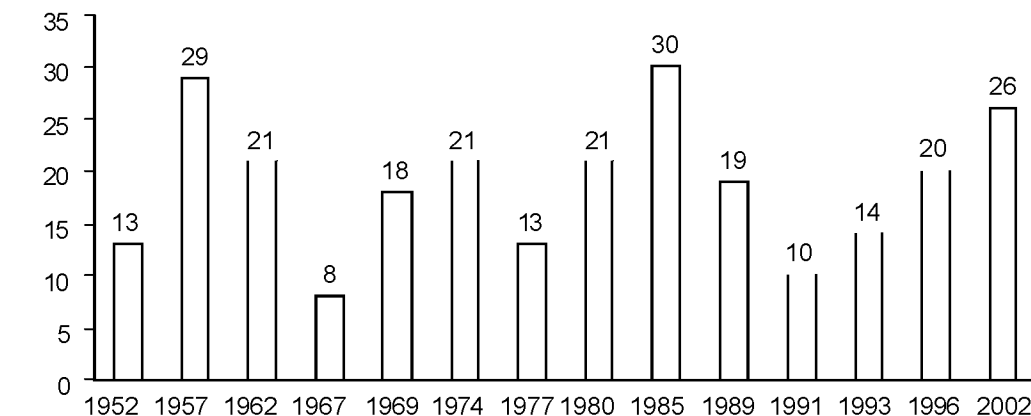
42. Women's presence in governance is a crucial indicator of women's empowerment. Historically very few women have been rulers or decision makers in public spaces. U.P. has had two women chief ministers and a Governor in the post independence era. The first legislative assembly had 13 women members. This number went up to 29 in 1957 and to 30 in 1985. It has come down sharply since then. There were only 10 women members in the U.P. assembly in 1991 and 14 in 1993, while 20 were elected in 1996 (Table 6.4). This figure rose to 26 in 2002 elections. These numbers are abysmally small. The women members have also a low presence in the Assembly (Figure 6.4). The money and muscle associated with the electoral process inhibits a large number of women from joining politics. Restriction on mobility, lack of control over resources, low literacy may seem to be obstacles but the correlations are complex. Across the globe as well as within the country more women in elected bodies is not necessarily related to better health care, education, security and income for women.

**Table 6.4: Women Contestants and Winners in Lok Sabha and Assembly Elections (NOs.)**

Institution	1993		1996		2002	
	Women Contestants	Women Elected	Women Contestants	Women Elected	Women Contestants	Women Elected
Lok Sabha	56	9	61	9	61	7
State Assembly	259	14	190	20	344	26

Source: Election Commission

**Figure 6.4:  
Women in the U.P. Legislative Assembly**



Source: Election Commission

43. Another important dimension of political participation is to what extent the decision about women is taken independently by the women voters. According to a recent study, decision making in the exercise of one's ballot is influenced by the men in the family (father / husband) in about half of the sampled women in the rural as well as the urban areas (Table 6.5). About one-tenth of women reported some other external influence. The remaining 46 percent women exercised their independent choice. These figures are reflective of the increasing autonomy of women in exercising their choices.

44. Another noteworthy development towards women empowerment has been their increasing presence as elected representatives to the Panchayati Raj Institutions at various levels. The 2005 Panchayat elections have resulted in a phenomenally large number of women elected leaders, much beyond the reserved one-third seats (Table 6.6). Earlier the compulsory presence of women was compromised by the operation of the phenomenon of the *pradhan patis* of female proxy candidates or the surrogate candidates who are actually being regulated by the male family members. Areas where civil society organizations have empowered women at large, the elected women are found to be very articulate, vigilant and practical. Women have used the opportunity to improve ICDS centres, primary schools, sanitation and have also publicly dealt with issues of misbehaviour with girls, violence & alcoholism as well as sensitive issues of widows dressing in coloured clothes. Increasingly the elected women are demanding not only basic literacy but also land & legal literacy. Women are

also expressing their desire to have longer trainings instead of short orientations. More women in grassroots organizations will ensure more meaningful engagement of women in decision making. A more active *gram sabha* which is sensitive to women's issues is the desirable goal as a woman sarpanch alone in a gender hostile panchayat may not be able to accomplish and sustain much for the benefit of women or the village community at large.

**Table 6.6: Percentage of Women Representative Elected in the Panchayat Elections of 2005**

Elected Posts	Percent Posts Held by Women
Adhyaksh Zila Panchayat	76%
Member of Zila Panchayat	40%
Pramukh Kshetra Panchayat	51%
Member of Kshetra Panchayat	37%
Pradhan Gram Panchayat	50%
Member of Gram Panchayat	38%

Source: Panchayat Raj Department, Government of U.P.

45. Voluntary organizations such as Mahila Samakhya working to conscientise and organize women in groups and *sanghas* are able to address the issue of women and their participation in a two fold manner. On the one hand they organize intensive training programmes for women PRI representatives to make

**Table 6.5: Who Governs the Decision to Vote (In percent)**

Religion/ Caste	Rural				Urban				All			
	Self	Father/ Husband	Others	Total	Self	Father/ Husband	Others	Total	Self	Father/ Husband	Others	Total
Hindu	46.9	45.1	8.0	100.0 (1418)	42.1	44.2	13.8	100.0 (240)	46.2	45.0	8.8	100.0 (1658)
Upper castes	59.5	35.5	5.0	100.0 (279)	53.3	36.7	10.0	100.0 (30)	58.9	35.6	5.5	100.0 (309)
OBCs	43.5	48.8	7.2	100.0 (635)	41.2	42.2	16.7	100.0 (102)	43.1	47.9	9.0	100.0 (737)
SCs	44.2	45.9	9.9	100.0 (504)	39.8	48.1	12.0	100.0 (108)	43.5	46.2	10.3	100.0 (612)
Muslim	40.4	47.1	12.5	100.0 (104)	41.4	45.7	12.9	100.0 (70)	40.8	46.6	12.6	100.0 (174)
Total	46.5	45.3	8.3	100.0 (1522)	41.9	44.5	13.5	100.0 (310)	45.7	45.1	9.2	100.0 (1832)

Note: Figures in brackets denote size of sample.

Source: Manoj Agarwal, *Impact of Women Empowerment Programmes on Socio-Economic Conditions of Women in Uttar Pradesh*, study sponsored by State Planning Commission, Uttar Pradesh, 2006 (Mimeo.).

them effective functionaries and, on the other hand, their own programmes with their members within their collectives serve to build a culture of questioning, critical thinking, collective decision making and mobilization on public issues. A mobilized community of women is thus able to raise issues of significance to the local community within the meetings, demand accountability from representatives and administrative officials regarding financial and procedural matters and intervene with creative suggestions. It is clear that the dominance of patriarchy, money power, party politics, muscle power are getting steadily undercut and eroded and women's concerns are gradually being pushed to the forefront of local politics.

46. Drawing from intensive discussions at the level of *sanghas* and *mahasanghas* and the experiences culled from functionaries and from trainings, Mahila Samakhya has drawn out lessons to strengthen women's participation in the Panchayats. A memorandum incorporating these points, which has been presented to the Panchayat Raj Department, states:

- It is imperative to inscribe the budget for the village on the walls of the Panchayat Bhawan.
- There should be rules and strategies to train and activate women members who have been elected to the post of Pradhans or members.
- There should be strict rules for ensuring the participation of 2/3rd voters in the open meeting of the Gram Sabha.
- The signatures of the people in the executive register of the open meeting should be ensured.
- It should be compulsory for the Pradhan / Secretary to sit in the Panchayat Bhawan.
- The development plan should be widely disseminated so that it can reach the general public.
- The dates and time of the Panchayat meetings in the State of U.P. should be decided in advance.
- The venue of the meeting should be either the Panchayat Bhawan or a public place, to enable all Gram Sabha members to present their problems.

**Box 6.6: Struggles Have Culminated In Success:  
The Story of Gram Pradhan Sonia**

Sonia hails from the Kol community and belongs to the village of Neeti Charhi where the life of the people is difficult. The area is also terrorized by dacoits. Illiteracy, low wages and exploitation have characterized the life of the people. Sonia has had a long association of over 16 year with Mahila Samakhya and has also worked with Akhil Samaj Sewak Sangha. Her linkage with Mahila Samakhya led her to pick her education from the Mahila Shikshan Kendra.

She worked as a Sahyogini and Anudeshika, has helped educate women and has also been proactive in linking women to the sangha.

Widowed in 1998, Sonia has married off two of her children, overcoming personal hardship, social traditions and patriarchy. In 2000 she was elected as Sarpanch. Sonia's achievements have been manifold. She has led a struggle to ensure the minimum wage of Rs.58 for the agricultural worker. Exploitative practices like giving one and a quarter kilo of poor quality grain for a day's hard labour have been challenged. She has been able to establish the control of the landless adivasis to the land given to them by the government, which had been occupied by the heavy weights of the dacoit-infested region. Even the police was on the side of the local powerful group. Sonia mobilised the local populace who took control of the grain in the fields. Her struggles resulted in restoration of the land to the real holders.

Today, owing to her efforts, there is a hand pump in every house. Pucca drains and paved (kharanja) roads ensure health and sanitation in the village. Two primary schools have been started in the village.

Women are being encouraged to seek education and improve their lives. A fortnightly paper "Khabar Lahariya" is also being published. While Sonia's life is a beacon of encouragement to other women, her personal struggles continue. To discourage and preempt her initiative to stand for elections, the local power lobby got her name struck off from the voter list. When her name was restored after much effort she found that she was listed as Sumitra instead of Sonia. She fought her election under this name. Today her struggle to recover her name Sonia is on.

Source: *Bhavna Srivastava. Adapted from "Unnati Ke Path Ki Nayi Saathi", Bhoomija, 5 No. 4, October-December 2005, Mahila Samakhya U.P. Lucknow.*

47. Thus, it is apparent that women see effective and efficient functioning of panchayats closely linked to the issue of active women's participation (*Mahila Samakhya U.P. Annual Report 2004-05*). Entry into public space, utilization of authority in practice, trainings by government and non-government agencies are all part of a process of gradual growth of knowledge, self-esteem and empowerment which gives women the agency to function effectively in the political process. Even proxy and dummy candidates may experience this process of empowerment. Women who stand and win from general seats are more likely to have a higher commitment towards and an understanding of the political process. Having a high participation of women at the local self government level can create an environment which is enabling for other women, receptive to the idea of

gender friendly initiatives and can serve to monitor and implement government community and gender- based programmes related to education, nutrition and health. It offers a potential opportunity, which can be utilized at an optimum level by appropriate trainings -both capacity building and information enhancing - by government departments and the NGO Sector. However, this effectiveness is greatly linked to the willingness of the State administration to devolve effective administrative and financial power to the local self-governing units and the responsiveness and sensitivity of the lower echelons of the administrative machinery to the aspiration and needs of the local population.

## VI. Domestic Violence

48. The crime data which highlights violence against women in society can hardly capture the prevalence of violence in the private space of the family or the vast array of crimes against women which operate in the guise of widely prevalent social customs and traditions. The numbers that fall under the category of cruelty of husband and relatives or under the Dowry Prevention Act may not reflect the reality. Acts of violence, which take place in the private area of the family, are often not reported at all.

49. Family counseling cells deal with many such cases of violence in families which are not reported to the police as they are seen as family matters. These cases range from small and infrequent acts of violence to more frequent assault. Great efforts are made by the victim to keep the family intact. Verbal violence and mental cruelty are often not seen as sufficient reason to put family life at stake by reporting them to the police. The physical and psychological violence devalues women. The numerical data can hardly capture the systemic violence that is prevalent in a patriarchal society where social power is unequally tilted towards the male. Violence is used as a tool to maintain women's subordination.

50. According to the NFHS III, 44.3 percent of married women in rural areas and 36 percent of women in urban areas have experienced some form or other of spousal violence. The Survey points out that women who have had education of ten years and more, experience least spousal violence. Spousal violence steadily declines as years of schooling increase. Girls who are married early and girls who drop out from schools and thereby denied education, are also deprived of the valuable tool of building agency and autonomy.

51. Caste Panchayat decisions and social ruling on cases regarding women's choice of spouses and punishing young people for making independent choice of spouses are a mockery of justice. 'Honour killings' by family members to revenge family honour when girls make independent decision to marry outside one's own caste, highlights the presence and power of traditional custom over State sanctioned laws and rights.

52. The intermeshing of women's social subordination with economic deprivation makes the poorest women an extremely vulnerable section of the population. Thus migrant women are more vulnerable to sexual harassment, trafficking and bodily harm. Work sites may also become sites of sexual harassment and rape.

53. In the recent past there have been some positive steps to use law as a tool for women's social equality. The government is in the process of making rules and appointing appropriate officers for implementation of the Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act which has been notified by the Central Government in November 2006. The Act gives relief to married women and women in other relationships within the family, relief in cases of domestic violence which is defined as physical, sexual, verbal, emotional and economic abuse. It provides women access to courts, medical facilities and shelter homes. It upholds the right of the woman to reside in the matrimonial home.

54. In February, 2006 the Supreme Court of India called for compulsory registration of marriage in a case Seema versus Ashwani Kumar. Uttar Pradesh has initiated a Bill for the Compulsory Registration of Marriages in 2006. Its passage is awaited. The positive impact of the passage of this bill will be far reaching. It can lead to effective enforcement of the minimum age of marriage and prevention of child marriages, for checking illegal bigamy and polygamy and enabling women to claim their right to live in the matrimonial homes. Registration of marriage can help women claim inheritance rights and other benefits which they may be entitled to after the death of their husband. It would also prevent the desertion of wives after marriage by men. The disposal of litigation relating to marriage issues would also be assisted by such legislation.

### Box 6.7: From the Files of the Family Counseling Cell-- Suraksha

*Suraksha* was registered in 1984 as an Anti Dowry Demand Organisation in Lucknow. It acquired the status of a Government recognised Family Counselling Cell in 1986- the first in Uttar Pradesh. It registers on an average 75 to a 100 cases a year which cover a broad range of issues such as marital disputes, dowry harassment cases, cases of rape, mental and physical torture, dowry deaths, maintenance, divorce, bigamy, abandonment of female infants etc.

A recent study of *Suraksha* analysed the 822 cases registered at its office in the 11 year period between September 1994 and October 2005. The highlights of the study are:

The maximum number of cases (42%) are of women who fall between the ages of 26-35. These are young women who at this age are adjusting to a marriage.

76 % cases are of women who have about 11 years of schooling i.e. they have passed their intermediate examination.11% of the complainants have completed some professional training.

39% cases are of women who have completed their graduate degree. This figure includes women who have a post graduate degree and also working women.

The cases are drawn from a wide cross-section of society. They include doctors, teachers, nurses, engineers as well as labourers, domestic help and housewives.

*Marital disputes* comprised a high 66.54% of cases, followed by *dowry harassment* cases and cases of *dispute with in-laws*, both at 33%. Cases, which report conflicts arising from *personality clashes* are 31.02 %. 27.61% cases report the husband's *extra marital affairs* as the reason for the conflict.

*Parental interference* in the life of the married daughter is another reason for conflict cited by 16.54% cases. Cases of *exploitation by parents* are at 2.06%. Cases of *exploitation by siblings* are also a cause of conflict in 1.82% of the cases.

*Maintenance and Divorce* cases are 11.55% and 7.17 % cases respectively.

6.20 % complaints relate to the *restitution of conjugal rights*. *Mental torture* is at 1.94%. Cases of *Dowry deaths* are at 1.09 % and complaints of *physical torture* is listed as 6.08 %. There are 1.94% cases in which *mental torture* is cited as the reason of the complaint.

*Rape* cases account for 1.33% of the registered cases.

The study cites that 81.7% Hindu women, 16.5% Muslim women, 1.4% Sikh women and 0.4% Christian women have used the services of Suraksha in the 11 year period studied. This broadly reflects the texture of the city population.

Source: Suraksha, Lucknow

## VII. Crime against Women

55. It is well known that the official crime statistics suffer from a high degree of under reporting. This is especially so in case of crime against women as there is reluctance on part of the victims to register the crime, which is often committed within the family. Moreover, police also often fail to register the reported cases. Police reporting of crime is a problem especially when the number of cases registered adversely reflects on the career of the personnel. UNDP supported efforts to make police change agents has had encouraging results but the number of officers trained is very small.

56. But analysis of crime data, no matter how unreliable, may still be useful for a broad picture of crimes against women. The crimes against women identified under the IPC are the following: Rape (Sec. 376 IPC), Kidnapping and abduction for different purposes (Sec. 363-373 IPC), Homicide for Dowry, dowry deaths or attempts to commit such crimes (Sec. 302/304B IPC), Torture both mental and physical (Sec. 498 A IPC), Molestation (Sec. 354 IPC), Sexual harassment (Sec. 509 IPC) which was referred to as 'eve-teasing' in the past and Importation of girls upto 21 years of age (Sec. 366-B IPC). Crimes against women also include various crimes which are identified under special and local laws (SLL), e.g., Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act, 1987; Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956; Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act, 1986 and Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961.

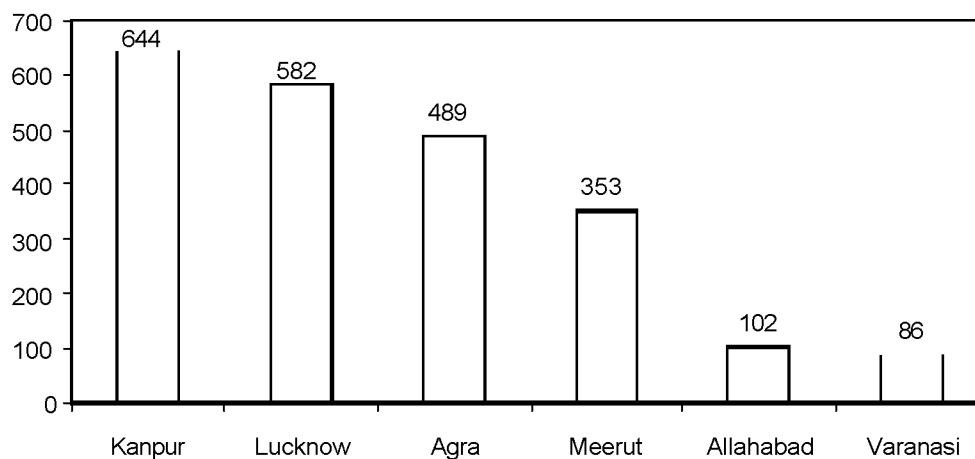
57. According to official statistics, a total of 14,875 cases were reported as crimes against women in 2005. U.P.'s percentage contribution to the all India total is 9.6. It ranked 2<sup>nd</sup> among the States after Andhra Pradesh. An analysis of the Crimes against Women in UP in 2005 highlights that the highest percentage of crimes comprises of cruelty by husband and relatives, followed by sexual harassment and eve teasing, cases of kidnapping and abduction, molestation, dowry deaths and rape (Table 6.7).

**Table 6.7: Incidence of Crimes Committed against Women in U.P. During 2005**

Type of Crime	Numbers	Per cent to Total
Cases of Rape	1217	8.18
Kidnapping & abduction	2256	15.17
Dowry Deaths	1564	10.51
Cruelty by Husband & Relatives	4505	30.29
Molestation	1835	12.34
Sexual Harassment & Eve teasing	2831	19.03
Cases of Immoral Traffic Prevention Act	31	0.21
Cases of Dowry Prohibition Act	586	3.94
<b>Total</b>	<b>14875</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: NCRB 2005 (<http://ncrb.nic.in/crime2005/ciiPDF>).

**Figure 6.5: Incidence of Crime Committed Against Women in Large Cities of U.P. 2005**



58. According to the NCRB data relating to the incidence of crime committed against women given for the cities of U.P., the most unsafe cities for women in the State can be ranked in the following order: Kanpur, Lucknow, Agra, Meerut, Allahabad and Varanasi (Figure 6.5).

### VIII. Government Programmes

59. The Department of Women and Child Development, Government of U.P. has five organizations under its umbrella, viz. Directorate of Child Development Services and Nutrition, Directorate of Women's Welfare, State Social Welfare Board, U.P. Control Board and U.P. Women's Welfare Corporation Limited. The State Government has attempted to address the question of gender inequality through several schemes and overarching policy reconsideration.

60. State has declared its intent through a *Mahila Neeti* or Women's Policy and is poised to initiate an apex body to monitor and implement programmes which impact positively women's position and condition *Announced in the year 2006. UP Women's Policy is a concrete step in formalizing its commitment to gender justice and equity.* It expresses its commitment towards empowering women and ensuring their equal participation in all decision making in the area of development. Empowerment is understood as control over material and intellectual resources and ideology. The policy observes that women's empowerment is not based on charity or welfare but it is a strategy to ensure women's human rights. State understands that if women are to be empowered then it is necessary to constantly struggle against forces, which keep them subservient. The State would ensure a just and fair distribution of social economic, cultural and political resources of the

society so as to ensure women's rightful share. The State recognizes women's productive and reproductive labour and their equal right to work and property. The State in its policy recognized women's need for a safe environment where their contribution is recognized.

61. Under the I.T.P. Act 1956, the Women's Welfare Department U.P. is running 6 District Shelter cum Reception Centers in the State. At present 62 inmates are residing in these homes. Under the ITP Act 1956, the Women's Welfare Dept. U.P. is running 5 Protective Homes. In these women are provided entry only through court order. At present 139 women are residing in these Homes.

62. The State has initiated schemes for women in difficult circumstances such as those arising from social neglect in old age, widowhood or destitution. A number of social security schemes for women have been operating in the State (see Box 6.8).

#### Box 6.8: Social Security Schemes for Women

##### Grant in Aid to Destitute Women

In this scheme destitute widows/ women, whose annual income is below Rs. 12000/- p.a., are provided a grant of Rs.300 p.m.

##### Marriage Incentive to Persons for Marrying Widows Below 35 years of Age

Widows below 35 years. who remarry are given Rs.11000/-.

##### Maintenance Grant to Women Victims of Dowry

A woman who is victim of dowry harassment and is below poverty line, receives Rs.125/- p.m. as grant.

##### Legal Aid to Women Victims of Dowry

Women Victims of dowry whose case is under consideration of the court and who is below poverty line is provided Rs.2500 as legal aid.

Establishment of Women Empower Centres.

Implementation of Domestic Violence Act.

Federating Women SHG's.

Health Insurance for women.

#### **Residential Facilities for Working Women**

This scheme provides well maintained, protected and inexpensive residential facilities for working women.

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This scheme provides well maintained, protected and inexpensive residential facilities for working women.

63. The following Centrally Sponsored Schemes for the welfare of women are in operation in the State:-

- (1) **Support to Training and Employment Programmes for Women (STEP):** The objectives are to extend training for upgradation of skills and sustainable employment for women through a variety of action oriented projects which employ women in large numbers. The scheme covers 8 traditional sections of employment i.e. agriculture, small animal husbandry, dairy, fisheries, handlooms, handicrafts. Social forestry and Waste land development have also been added within this scheme. 25 NGOs are working in U.P.
- (2) **Women Dairy Extension Project:** This project was started in U.P. from April 1991 under the STEP programme with assistance from the Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India. Up to March 2005, 6214 Women Dairy Cooperative Societies have been organized. 54205 Women members are participating and getting employment, out of which 9957 women numbers belong to SC/ST category. At present, approximately 41053 litres milk per day is being procured from the functional societies at an average procurement price of Rs. 12.50 per litre. Rs.5,13,162 is being paid per day directly to women members (see Box 6.9).
- (3) **Construction / Extension of Working Women's Hostels and Day Care Centers:** The objective of this scheme is to provide accommodation for single working women, unmarried women, widows, divorced and separated women.
- (4) **Working Women Hostels:** This scheme is run in collaboration with Government of India and Government of U.P. Under this scheme, institutions are being run in six districts.
- (5) **The Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD):** This is a Centrally

Sponsored Scheme. Within this scheme, women of rural and urban areas who are financially weak are provided free training in traditional and non traditional trades by NGOs.

- (6) **Swayam Siddha Scheme:** This is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme run by NGOs in 94 Blocks in 54 districts. The main objective of the scheme is the establishment of self-reliant women's Self Help Groups.
- (7) **Swa-Shakti Scheme:** The overall objective of the World Bank and IFAD assisted projects is to strengthen the process of promoting social and economic development of women and creating an environment for social change to improve their quality of life. The scheme is being implemented in 18 districts and is now run by UP Land Development Corporation.
- (8) **Swadhar Scheme:** The objective of the scheme is to provide the primary need of shelter, food, clothing and care of the marginalized women/girls living in difficult circumstances who are without any social and economic support, and to rehabilitate them socially and economically through education, awareness, skill upgradation and personality development. At present Swadhar Center / Aashraya Sadan for destitute women is running at Mathura with the help of Government of India.

#### **Box 6.9 : U.P. Mahila Dairy Pariyojana**

The U.P. Women Dairy Project was started in April 1991 under the STEP programme with assistance from the Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India. The aim of the MDP (Mahila Dairy Pariyojana) is poverty eradication and employment generation at the village level by organizing rural women through the medium of milk committees/cooperatives. The project is operational in Aligarh, Bulandshahar, Saharanpur, Agra, Kanpur Dehat, Badaun, Mujaffarnagar, Barabanki, Fatehpur, Hardoi, Sitapur, Shahjahanpur, Etah, Mainpuri, Lakhimpur Kheri, Bahraich, Chandauli, Sultanpur, Kannauj, Farrukhabad, Firozabad, Bareilly and Ghaziabad.

Milk cooperative committees aim to free milk producers from the clutches of middle men and encourage animal husbandry, improve cattle fodder technique, create and encourage investment at the village level, and raise awareness for active participation in the social development process. Up to March 2005, 6214 Women Dairy Cooperative Societies have been organized and 54205 women are participating and getting employment, of these 9957 women members belong to the SC/ST categories.



Presently approximately 41053 liters of milk per day is being procured from the functional societies. An average procurement price of Rs.12.50 per litre is being paid directly to the women members.

Evaluation by Sarvodaya Gramya Vikas Sansthan, Rae Bareilly and State Planning Institute (U.P.) have pointed to the success of the MDP in generation of employment opportunity for the rural poor women. MDP villages show higher income than non MDP villages enabling beneficiaries to rise above the poverty line. SCs and Backward Castes have been adequately represented in this programme. Barriers of religion and caste have eroded. Family money is being spent for education of family. There is a rise in social consciousness and social change is evident in these villages where many cases of child marriage have been prevented. There is increase in the number of beneficiaries who are acquiring better breed of cattle.

The Study Report of the Evaluation Programme conducted by IIM Lucknow also gave a positive feedback. It is pointed out that 40% societies have formed SHGs. Average number of members per SHG is found to be 11. Average savings per member was found to be the maximum in Saharanpur with Rs.325 and minimum in Bulandshahr at Rs.150. The overall average annual income per household of society member from dairy and other sources are Rs.9220 and Rs.6898 respectively. Maximum average annual income per household from dairy i.e. Rs.10719 was observed in district Saharanpur and minimum of Rs.7375 in district Aligarh. In comparison with private businessmen, MDP was paying an average Rs.2.00 per litre higher price for milk. The trainings for the Committee members helped to build confidence among the personnel. Women have developed an attitude of positive thinking.

*Source: Government of Uttar Pradesh*

64. Government children homes for females have been established for the reception of children in need of care and protection during the pendency of any inquiry and subsequently for their care, treatment, education, training, development and rehabilitation. About 198 inmates between 10-18 years of age are residing in 4 such homes which are situated in Ballia, Allahabad, Lucknow and Kanpur Nagar. A Special Home for juvenile females has been established at Barabanki for the rehabilitation of female juveniles in conflict with law under J.J. Act. These after care organizations are established for taking care of those juveniles or children above the age of 16, who leave Juvenile homes and Special Homes for the purpose of enabling them to lead an honest, industrious and useful life. These homes are run by the State Government in Raibareilly, Varanasi,

Saharanpur and Meerut. Government Children Homes (SHISHU) have been established for the reception of children who are 0-10 years of age and in need of care and protection during the pendency of any enquiry and subsequently for their care, treatment education, development and rehabilitation. These homes are running in 5 districts and about 136 children are residing in these homes.

65. The inmate children, women and juvenile of above mentioned institutions and homes are provided facilities of boarding, lodging, education, vocational training, medical facilities and entertainment. The female juveniles and women, who are above 18 years are rehabilitated through marriage and self employment through vocational training and private and government service. Rehabilitation grant to them by the Department is Rs.15000 for marriage and Rs.7000 for self employment.

66. With a view to ensuring capacity building through training and upgradation of skills and provisions of employment and income generation activities for women, a number of schemes are being implemented. Self Help Groups (SHGs), which act as social change for development and empowerment of women, have been associated with and encouraged in different schemes.

67. *The Swarna Jayanti Shahri Rozgar Yojana* is mainly based on community empowerment. The community based organizations include Neighbourhood Groups (NHGs); Neighbourhood Committee (NHCs) and Community Development Society (CDS). However, the schemes do not stipulate any norm for women beneficiaries, as in the earlier years the target of a minimum 30% reserved jobs for women was not met. Within the Urban Self Employment Programmes a sub-scheme called Development of Women and children in the Urban Area (DWACUA) gives assistance to groups of urban poor women for selling their produce of gainful self employment ventures. This assistance is given to a group as opposed to individual effort. Groups of urban poor women (a minimum of 10) shall take up an economic activity suited to their skill, training, aptitude and local conditions. DWACUA group shall be entitled to a subsidy of Rs.125,000/- or 50% of the cost of project, whichever is less. DWACUA group shall be entitled to a lump sum grant of Rs.25000/- as a revolving fund.

68. *Swaranjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana* aims at establishing a large number of micro-enterprises in the rural areas, building upon the potential of the rural poor. At least 50% of the Swarozgaries will be SCs/STs, 40% women and 3% disabled. For the Tenth Plan, the total target includes 11.25 lakh SC, 1350 ST and 9.00 lakh women beneficiaries.

69. *Mahila Samridhi Yojna* is implemented with the cooperation of the National Scheduled Caste Finance and Development Corporation. Self employment projects

costing up to Rs.25,000 are financed for poor and unemployed scheduled caste women wherein a sum of Rs.10,000 is given as subsidy and Rs.15,000 is given as loan by the Corporation at the interest rate of 4% per annum.

70. The target for *Indira Awas Yojana* for the Tenth Plan 2002-2007 was to construct 14.40 lakh dwellings. In the year 2002-2003, the target outlined was 1.90 lakh constructed houses, of which 1.77 lakh were constructed. By the end of 2004, 1.90 lakh additional dwellings had been constructed. The anticipated achievement for the year 2005-2006 is 2 lakh. Thus the total number of dwellings completed during the Tenth Plan is 9.67 lakh. Houses under the Indira Awas Yojana are to be allotted in the name of the female members of the household or alternately in the joint name of the husband and wife. Under the scheme, priority is extended to the widows and unmarried women.

71. To comprehend the impact of programmes on the ground, it is essential to see the **level of awareness about government programmes** among women. An evaluation study highlighted the level of awareness about government programmes for women among the 1888 households surveyed (Manoj Agarwal 2006). There was high awareness of the programme of Grant to Helpless Widows and the Old Age Pension Programme. Of the total households surveyed, 62.7% knew about the grant to helpless widows and 64.2% knew about Old Age Pension Programme. 57.2% households were aware about the Nutritious Food Programme. The Maternity Benefit Programme was known to only 44.9% households. Awareness regarding schemes relating to economic empowerment like the Professional Training Programme was available to only 22.1% households. Just 20.1% households knew about the scheme of economic assistance to widows' daughters. 76.9% households are not aware about Balika Samridhi Yojana. Information about various poverty and unemployment elimination programmes is not available to 70.7% households. 89% households are not aware about the Kishori Shakti Yojana. Awareness regarding other schemes such as Mahila Dairy Yojana and Working Women's Hostel is poor, as only 6.3% and 1.7% households knew about them respectively. Awareness regarding Swayam Siddha is 3.2%, Regarding the Swashakti programme, it is 2.6%. The RCH Programme is known to only 3.1% households. Information regarding Grants to Tortured Women is 1.9%. Regarding the Swavlamban Programme only 2.3% people are aware. Awareness about the Indira Awas Yojana is present among 28.9% households. This suggests the need of programme for increasing the awareness of government schemes among the beneficiary groups through various means.

## IX. Concluding Remarks

72. There are several critical issues which require attention of the State government if Uttar Pradesh is to

emerge as a just, equitable and developing State with reference to gender. These issues are highlighted briefly below.

73. First and foremost, the State needs to look at its programmes not in the mode of welfare for women but in terms of human rights. This would have implications in many areas where women are treated minimally and given pittance like widow pension, old age pension and marginal wages.

74. Another major area of policy lacunae both at the State as well as the central level is that the unit of poverty alleviation programmes is the family and not the individual. This creates an extremely difficult situation as the greatest inequity with reference to gender exists within the family. Unless individual is taken as the unit of addressing poverty like in the case of education and health we cannot be said to have a human rights approach to development nor can we be said to be gender responsive in our planning. Special and close attention should be given to female headed households. There is a lacuna in data and schemes for single women across classes.

75. There is need to deliberate and design a gender audit system for all government and non government programmes which would look at targets, trainings, recruitments, promotion, infrastructure and decision making opportunities. The conscious effort of the State to mainstream gender issues through gender budgeting is a right move but requires participation of all departments including power, irrigation, revenue, home, I.T. and others.

76. An effective MIS system for monitoring women welfare programmes needs to be developed with a check list which is simple and transparent and which can be handled by both government and non government functionaries. There needs to be a regular updating of gender segregated data to assess the impact of all government schemes. All ministries, departments and programmes after a gender audit must clearly project a gender segregated list of beneficiaries and recruited officials.

77. The overall decentralization of planning process needs a system where village and block level plans are made ensuring participation of women and are integrated into the State plan.

78. More effective publicity of government welfare schemes needs to be undertaken using multimedia and participatory processes.

79. Care should be taken to ensure that all income generation programmes achieve the target of 30% women beneficiaries. Any shortfall in the number of women beneficiaries in a year must be carried forward in the next year.

80. Hostels for secondary and high schools need to be constructed and more institutions of technical

training need to be set up at block level for girls. Short stay homes with counseling centres are required at the block level with counselors who are qualified with degrees in social work, women's studies or psychology.

81. Clear budgetary allocation is necessary for the publicity, training and monitoring with reference to laws like Domestic Violence Prevention Act, Sexual harassment at work place guidelines and compulsory marriage registration bill. Schemes to encourage women in non stereo typical occupations do not exist. Training of women in leadership is necessary at all levels and gender sensitization should no more remain tokenistic.

82. Gender Resource Centres need to be funded and set up with active participation of academics and activists.

83. The State requires a full fledged mechanism to ensure gender sensitive policy and implementation

through a participatory apex body. Department of Women and Child Welfare should now be renamed as the Department for Women's Empowerment.

84. Joint *pattas* for men and women made compulsory for women's better control over resources.

85. Women's concern for security, families and care need to be handled with sensitivity and beyond the blind call of procedural justice. Women's agency needs greater recognition in all government policy. For a full functioning of women's capabilities the State needs to look beyond the parameters of mere service delivery of education, health and income. Women's experiences need to be perceived as legitimate in the larger public discourse. More time and space needs to be devoted to allow for their expression, whether it is in training or in data collection efforts.

# Human Development and Social Groups

*“The principal source of global ethics is the idea of human vulnerability and the desire to alleviate the suffering of every individual to the extent possible. Another source is the belief in the basic moral equality of all human beings. The injunction to treat others as you would want to be treated finds explicit mention in Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Taoism and Zoroastrianism, and it is implicit in the practices of other faiths. It is on the basis of these common teachings across all cultures that states have come together to endorse the Universal Declaration of Human Rights... the UN’s Millennium Declaration, adopted by the full membership of the General Assembly in 2000, recommitted itself to human rights, fundamental freedoms and respect for equal rights to all without distinction.”*

(UNDP, HDR, 2004, p. 90)

### I. Introduction

1. The Approach Paper to 11<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan ‘Towards Faster and More Inclusive Growth’ by Planning Commission (PC) clearly points out that economic growth has failed to be sufficiently inclusive in India, particularly after mid-1990s. There remain many divides in our society. These include the divide between the rich and poor, between those who have access to essential services and those who do not. This leads to large disparities in health, nutritional status, education, skills, income, availability of clean water and sanitation. The groups which have hitherto been excluded from our society such as Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), some minorities and Other Backward Castes (OBC) continue to lag behind the rest. The 11<sup>th</sup> Plan aims to restructure policies to achieve a new vision based on faster, more broad-based and inclusive growth. It seeks to reduce poverty and focus on bridging the various divides that continue to fragment our society (PC, 2006, pp.1,9).

2. The pace of human development in the state has remained slow in comparison to many progressive States of the country due to numerous social, economic and political reasons. Within overall low levels of human development indicators in the state, there exist large disparities across social groups. The disparities exist in terms of income, wealth, education, health, nutrition, sanitation, employment, infrastructural facilities, etc. Such extreme levels of disparities across social groups leave some to struggle for their next meal, while others lead opulent lives. Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes form the most vulnerable sections of the society in the state. Some sections of the Other Backward Castes, minorities, higher castes, women, children and old age persons also remain equally backward and deprived of the minimum survival needs deemed essential for a civilized living. These inequalities within the social groups hamper not only their own growth but also create hurdles

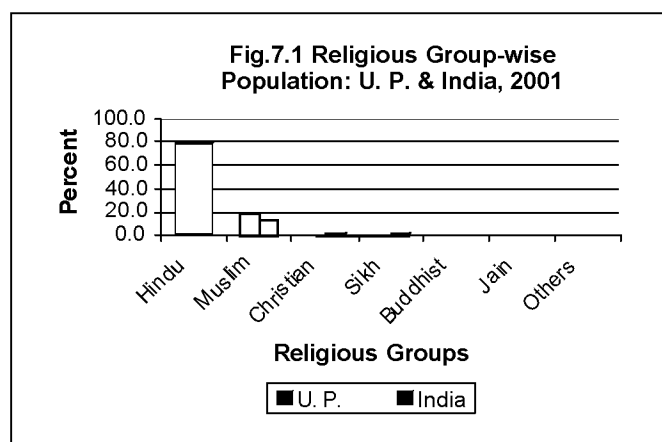
in economic, social and human development of the entire state. In fact extremely low level of human development in U.P. as a whole exists due to existing inequalities, deprivation and backwardness across its social groups.

3. Despite some improvements accomplished in the living conditions of SCs, STs, OBCs, minorities, women and children as a result of preferential treatment, these disadvantaged groups continue to remain backward due to a number of persisting problems they have been continuously facing. These complex problems still stand as a major hurdle in delivering social justice and empowerment of the weaker groups. Apart from the educational and economic backwardness, other problems are equally unfavorable to them to ensure their equal participation in the mainstream society and economy of the state. The tradition based economy of SCs and STs is facing serious threat from the liberalized market economy due to fierce competition for their traditional products. The marginalized groups remain deprived of basic amenities and services like education, health care, connecting roads to their isolated habitations, drinking water, sanitation, housing, etc. All these problems lead to a vicious cycle of negative impact on their capabilities, confidence and efforts to come out at par with the mainstream society and economy of the state (Bhatt, 2006, pp. 9-10).

4. In this chapter, we analyze the existing levels of human development among social groups. As noted above, the social group-wise data for the state as a whole is available from very limited sources as well as for limited dimensions of human development. Similar data for districts and planning regions of the state are simply not available. Based on the available information largely from the 61<sup>st</sup> round NSS data, State Planning Commission and similar other sources, the prevailing inequalities and human development scenario in Uttar Pradesh across the social groups is presented.

## II. Social Composition of Population

5. Uttar Pradesh is one of the culturally most diverse States in India comprising of various castes, tribes, communities, social and religious groups. The state is predominantly inhabited by Hindus with 80.6 per cent share in its population. This ratio of Hindu population is almost similar to all India average. The population of minorities including all groups is almost similar in U.P. (19.3 per cent) and India (18.8 per cent). However, the relative share of Muslim population is significantly higher in the state in comparison to India. Muslims with a share of 18.5 per cent of the State population (which is about 5 percentage point higher than the national average) form the largest religious minorities group in Uttar Pradesh, followed by 0.4 per cent Sikh, 0.2 per cent Buddhist and an equal ratio of 0.1 per cent in case of Christian and Jain population (Table 7.1).



6. Table 7.1 also shows the religious group-wise growth of population both for India and U.P. during the decade of 1991-2001. Among religious groups, Muslim population in the country recorded the highest growth rate of 36.0 per cent followed by Jains (26.2 per cent) and Buddhists (24.5 per cent), which was far ahead of the national average. In U.P. Buddhists topped the list with 42.8 per cent decadal growth in population closely followed by Sikhs (36.0 per cent). Conversion seems to have contributed to the faster growth of Buddhist population. Population growth of Muslims in U.P. (31.4 per cent) was below the national average, but higher than that of Hindus (24.5 per cent). Population of Christians and Jains increased by 16.7 per cent and 23.5 per cent respectively.

7. Social group-wise population estimates as per Census 2001 are available only in the case of SCs and STs. The SCs and STs constitute 21.1 per cent and 0.06 per cent of the State population respectively. Table 7.2 and 7.3 show proportion of SCs and STs and total population of the state living in rural and urban areas respectively. In comparison to 79.2 per cent of the all category rural population, 87.7 per cent of SC and 88.8 per cent of ST population live in rural areas. The proportion of ST/SC population in urban areas is significantly lower. This is indicative of the limited opportunities available to them.

8. Table 7.3 shows per centage distribution of households by social groups as per 61<sup>st</sup> NSS Round. During 2004-05, only 0.5 per cent households in U.P. belonged

Table 7.1: Religious Group-wise Population and Its Decadal Growth: 1991-2001

Religious	Total Population Group (in Lakh)				% of Total Population (1991-2001 %)				Decadal Growth	
	U. P.		India		U. P.		India		U.P.	India
	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001		
Hindu	1076.0	1340.0	6876.5	8275.8	81.5	80.6	82.0	80.5	24.5	20.3
Muslim	234.0	307.4	1016.0	1381.9	17.5	18.5	12.1	13.4	31.4	36.0
Christian	1.8	2.1	196.4	240.8	0.1	0.1	2.3	2.3	16.7	22.6
Sikh	5.0	6.8	162.6	192.2	0.4	0.4	1.9	1.9	36.0	18.2
Buddhist	2.1	3.0	63.9	79.6	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.8	42.8	24.5
Jain	1.7	2.1	33.5	42.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	23.5	26.2
Other	0.1	0.8	36.9	66.4	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.6	700.0	79.9
Total	1320.6	1662.0	8385.8	10286.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	25.9	22.7

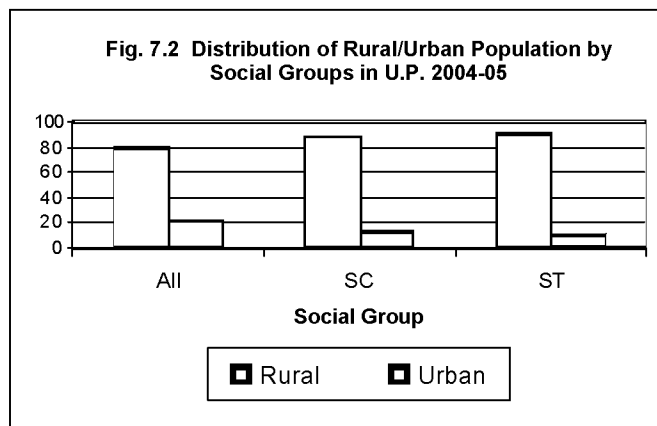
Source : Census of India, 2001, U.P. Statistical Diary, 2003 & 2005, Economic & Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U. P., 2003 & 2005.

Area and Sex		All	SC	ST
Rural	Persons	13,16,58,339 (79.2)	3,08,16,596 (87.7)	95,828 (88.8)
	Male	6,91,57,470 (79.0)	1,61,84,840 (87.5)	49,276 (88.3)
	Female	6,25,00,869 (79.5)	1,46,31,756 (87.9)	46,552 (89.3)
Urban	Persons	3,45,39,582 (20.8)	43,31,781 (12.3)	12,135 (11.2)
	Male	1,84,07,899 (21.0)	23,17,998 (12.5)	6,558 (11.7)
	Female	1,61,31,683 (20.5)	20,13,783 (10.1)	5,577 (10.7)
Total	Persons	16,61,97,921 (100.0)	3,51,48,377 (100.0)	1,07,963 (100.0)
	Male	8,75,65,369 (100.0)	1,85,02,838 (100.0)	55,834 (100.0)
	Female	7,86,32,552 (100.0)	1,66,45,539 (100.0)	52,129 (100.0)

**Note:** Figures in parentheses denote Column percentages.

**Source:** Census of India, 2001 as given in Statistical Abstract, U. P.: Economic & Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U. P., 2005.

to ST against 8.6 per cent ST households in India. The proportion of SC households (23.8 per cent) in the state is relatively much higher in comparison to all India average (19.7 per cent). Similarly, 51.3 per cent of the households in U.P. belonged to OBC which is again significantly higher in relation to country's figure of 40.2 per cent. A significant difference is observed in the distribution of households over social groups between the rural and urban areas. While ST, SC and OBC population ratios are higher in rural areas compared to urban areas, others' proportion is significantly higher in urban areas.



Social Groups	U.P. (%)	India (%)
ST	0.5	8.6
SC	23.8	19.7
OBC	51.3	40.2
Others	24.2	31.4
All India	100.0	100.0

**Source:** NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516

### III. Education

9. Education serves as a tool of social change. It leads to better bargaining power, empowerment of the deprived and weaker sections gives them the power to resist exploitation. It dismantles the historic inequalities of caste, class and gender. Empirical studies clearly reveal that people of socially and politically disadvantaged class consider education as a means of upward mobility of their children. The claim of education in scarce national resources is emphasized not only due to its direct returns, but also because of its instrumental role in capability improvement of people, improvement in nutritional level, child health, lower fertility rate, increasing freedom of choices and overall social / human

development. Level of literacy of an adult member of a household determines his / her earning level, activity pattern and standard of living, particularly in the knowledge economy of the globalized India today. Unfortunately, disadvantaged social groups of India had been denied access to education for a long time. Though

the situation has now gradually improved after independence, there still remain large gaps in educational attainments of these groups both in the country as well as in Uttar Pradesh.

10. Table 7.4, shows social group-wise distribution of households with no literate adult (15 years

Social Groups	Rural (%)		Urban (%)	
	No Literate Adult Member	No Literate Adult Female	No Literate Member	No Literate Adult Female Member
ST	44.3	78.9	23.3	44.9
SC	38.7	72.1	21.9	51.5
OBC	32.3	63.7	17.5	38.2
Others	18.0	40.3	8.7	16.6
All	31.3	61.5	14.4	31.0

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516

Gender/Education Level	Social Groups (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>Male</b>					
Not Literate	48.5	46.3	37.2	21.1	36.2
Literate upto Primary	22.1	22.1	22.6	19.2	21.7
Middle	14.6	19.6	19.7	20.3	19.8
Secondary	4.4	5.6	10.4	16.3	10.4
Higher Secondary	4.3	3.9	6.2	12.6	6.9
Diploma / Certificate	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.3
Graduate & Above	6.1	2.3	3.5	9.7	4.5
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Female</b>					
Not Literate	87.2	80.3	72.5	48.8	69.8
Literates up to Primary	3.3	8.9	12.3	20.2	13.0
Middle	9.0	6.7	8.2	13.2	8.8
Secondary	0.2	2.2	3.6	7.9	4.1
Higher Secondary	0.3	1.3	2.6	6.5	3.1
Diploma/Certificate	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Graduate & Above	0.0	0.4	0.6	3.4	1.1
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Person</b>					
Not Literate	66.2	63.2	54.9	34.7	52.9
Literate up to Primary	13.6	15.5	17.6	19.6	17.4
Middle	12.0	13.2	13.9	16.9	14.3
Secondary	2.5	3.9	7.0	12.1	7.2
Higher Secondary	2.5	2.6	4.4	9.6	5.0
Diploma/Certificate	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2
Graduate & Above	3.3	1.4	2.1	6.6	2.8
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516

and above) members / adult female members in U.P. separately for rural and urban households. The ST rural households with no literate adult member in 44.3 per cent households and with no literate adult female member in 78.9 per cent households were found most disadvantaged. The proportion of households without any literate adult member or without any literate adult female member was relatively much higher among households belonging to ST and SC social groups as compared to the OBCs and others in both rural and urban U.P. Position of females in all categories of households was highly disadvantageous in comparison to their counterpart males.

11. Table 7.5 presents gender-wise educational level of persons of age 15 years and above belonging to different social groups in rural U.P. The data shows that

52.9 per cent of all people in 15 years and above age group in rural areas of the state were illiterate. In other words only 47.1 per cent of the people in the rural U.P. were literate who could read and write a simple sentence in any language with understanding. Levels of female illiteracy were found very high for all social groups in rural areas- 87.2 per cent for ST women followed by 80.3 per cent for SC, 72.5 per cent for OBC and 48.8 per cent in case of others. None of the ST females and only 0.4 per cent of the SC women had graduate degree or higher degree. Even for 'others' social group, only 3.4 per cent females were found at this level of education. Similar scenario of illiteracy and low educational levels could also be observed in case of urban U.P. (Table 7.6). Women's education in urban areas also suffers from very high levels of relative disadvantage for almost all social groups.

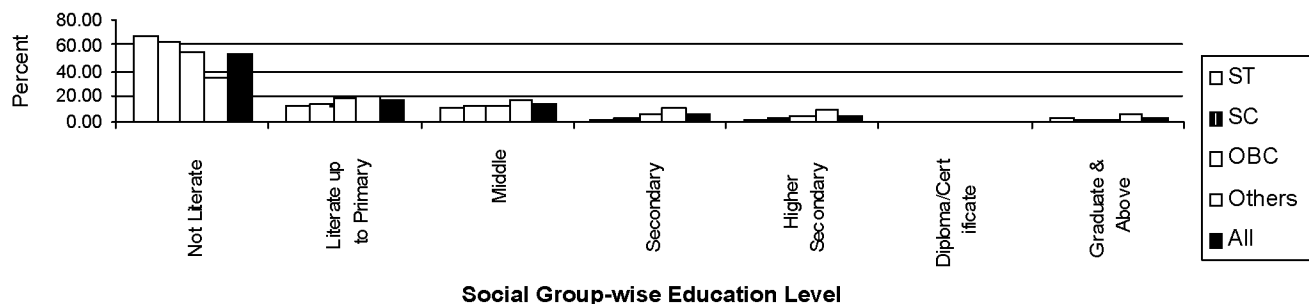
**Table 7.6: Social Group-wise Distribution of Urban Persons (15 Years and above) by level of General Education: U. P., 2004-05**

Gender/Education Level	Social Groups (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>Male</b>					
Not Literate	22.0	28.7	27.6	10.9	20.5
Literates upto Primary	46.4	27.7	27.7	12.8	21.3
Middle	16.2	21.2	16.2	15.4	16.4
Secondary	4.9	9.1	10.3	16.2	12.7
Higher Secondary	5.2	6.7	8.2	15.8	11.3
Diploma/Certificate	0.0	0.4	1.5	2.0	1.6
Graduate & Above	5.3	6.2	8.1	27.0	16.1
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Female</b>					
Not Literate	53.9	60.1	51.1	21.5	39.4
Literates upto Primary	15.1	17.2	19.6	14.1	16.9
Middle	18.4	11.2	13.4	12.3	12.7
Secondary	4.4	4.8	7.1	14.8	10.1
Higher Secondary	2.0	2.7	4.9	14.6	8.9
Diploma/Certificate	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.3
Graduate & Above	6.1	3.6	3.8	22.0	11.7
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Person</b>					
Not Literate	39.9	43.9	38.4	15.8	29.3
Literates upto Primary	28.7	22.5	24.0	13.4	19.2
Middle	17.5	16.4	14.9	14.0	14.7
Secondary	4.6	7.0	8.8	15.5	11.5
Higher Secondary	3.4	4.7	6.7	15.2	10.2
Diploma/Certificate	0.0	0.4	0.9	1.3	1.0
Graduate & Above	5.7	4.9	6.1	24.6	14.0
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Rural + Urban Persons</b>					
Not Literate	62.4	60.9	51.9	27.7	47.8
Literates upto Primary	15.7	16.4	18.8	17.4	17.8
Middle	12.8	13.6	14.1	15.8	14.4
Secondary	2.8	4.3	7.3	13.4	8.2
Higher Secondary	2.6	2.9	4.8	11.7	6.1
Diploma/Certificate	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.4
Graduate & Above	3.7	1.7	2.8	13.2	5.2
All (incl. n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

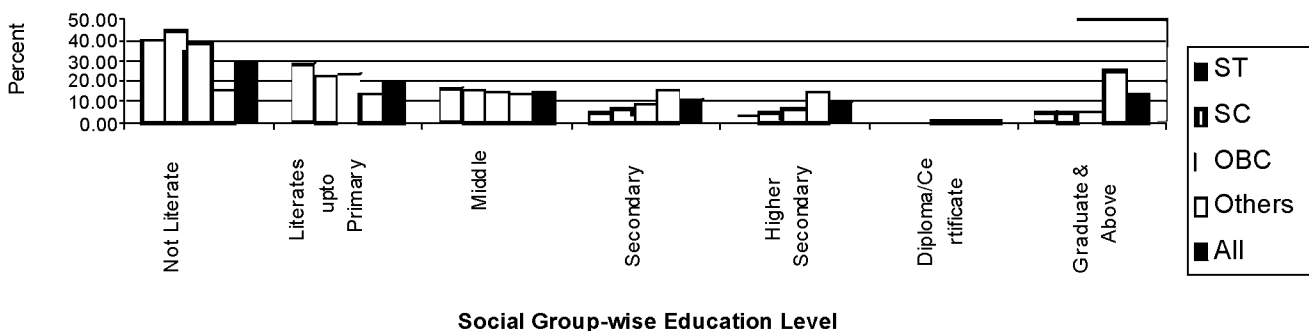
Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.



**Fig. 7.3 Distribution of Rural Persons (15 Years and above) by Level of General Education: U. P., 2004-05**



**Fig. 7.4 Distribution of Urban Persons (15 Years and above) by Level of General Education: U. P., 2004-05**



12. Current attendance rate of children and youth in educational institutions is one of the most crucial human development indicators. If the future citizens of any state are deprived of education and childhood is lost without developing the personality of an individual, one cannot hope to make any progress in future. Social group-wise current attendance rates of children and youth below 30 years of age in U.P. during the year 2004-2005 are presented both for rural and urban areas in Table 7.7. Despite several new educational programmes initiated by the state from early nineties in terms of 'Educational for All', 'District Primary Education Programme' and 'Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan' for providing primary and upper primary level of education to 5-14 years children, only 79.6 per cent of all eligible children belonging to all social groups were found attending schools during 2004-2005. In other words 20.4 per cent of the 5-14 years age group children were still out of schools. The data shows wide ranging variations in case of the children and youth belonging to various social groups, male / females and rural / urban categories. Only 38.3 per cent of the ST rural female children in 5-14 years age group were attending schools. More than 70 to 100 per cent of the youth in the age group 20-24 who are expected to be studying for higher education were found not acquiring any type of education. In this category also maximum disadvantage is suffered by SC, ST in general and women in particular.

13. All the indicators discussed above clearly reflect the low status of access and quality of primary education being provided in the state. Almost similar conclusion about the quality of primary education, physical facilities available in primary schools, retention of children in schools and satisfaction of students / households with the quality of education emerge out of the studies conducted by other analysts. A study conducted in 11 villages of Hastinapur and Mawana Blocks of Meerut district, revealed that nearly 51 per cent children, despite having access to and enrolled in a government primary school, were actually studying in private schools by paying exorbitantly high fees. Each household on an average spent about 16 per cent of its total monthly expenditure on their children's education. About 38 per cent children and 68 per cent of the households indicated their dissatisfaction with the quality of primary education in government schools. Groups of villages low in educational development category had the maximum population of the disadvantaged caste-groups, including SCs and minorities. These villages also add to the highest proportion of 32.8 per cent illiterate population of SCs and 31.3 per cent Minorities. SC females (47.0 per cent) and minority females (40.3 per cent) were having the maximum proportion of illiterates (Tripathi, Majumder and Bhatt, pp. 70, 103).

14. In brief, wide gaps exist in educational attainments of ST, SC, and rest of population.

Educationally most disadvantaged are ST, SC, OBC women both in rural and urban areas of the state. At secondary and higher levels of education, abysmally low progress could be clearly noticed across all social groups, particularly in case of ST, SC, OBC and women. With existing physical facilities in primary schools and teaching-learning processes in class rooms, the issue of

providing quality education appears a distant dream. There is a dialectical social relationship between educational progress and social change as the spread of education helps to overcome the traditional inequalities of caste, class and gender, just as the removal of these inequalities contribute to the spread of education. An illiterate person is hardly equipped to participate in the

**Table 7.7: Social Group wise current Attendance rates in Education Institutions for Different Age Groups: U. P., 2004-05**

Gender/Age Groups	Social Groups (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>Rural</b>					
<b>Male</b>					
5 - 14	67.8	78.6	80.2	85.4	80.6
15 - 19	80.3	41.9	50.1	60.7	50.5
20 - 24	12.1	10.0	13.8	15.0	13.2
0 - 29	44.9	43.7	46.3	50.2	46.3
<b>Female</b>					
5 - 14	38.3	72.7	71.5	79.0	73.0
15 - 19	9.4	31.9	31.1	43.2	33.6
20 - 24	0.0	2.1	3.3	7.6	3.8
0 - 29	19.2	34.5	36.0	40.6	36.4
<b>Person</b>					
5 - 14	52.5	75.9	76.2	82.4	77.1
15 - 19	45.8	37.4	41.0	53.0	42.6
20 - 24	8.9	5.8	8.3	11.3	8.3
0 - 29	32.2	39.2	41.3	45.6	41.5
<b>Urban</b>					
<b>Male</b>					
5 - 14	58.7	72.5	74.1	87.5	78.9
15 - 19	70.4	48.8	40.8	61.6	50.3
20 - 24	0.0	15.2	12.3	29.1	19.9
0 - 29	41.6	39.3	40.1	51.4	44.4
<b>Female</b>					
5 - 14	91.9	71.3	75.7	88.9	80.3
15 - 19	47.6	35.3	41.0	68.9	51.7
20 - 24	16.0	7.0	5.0	21.4	13.2
0 - 29	54.9	35.1	42.2	54.3	46.2
<b>Person</b>					
5 - 14	77.7	72.0	74.9	88.2	79.6
15 - 19	57.2	42.0	40.9	64.9	50.9
20 - 24	8.8	11.1	9.1	25.6	16.8
0 - 29	49.3	37.4	41.1	52.8	45.3

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

modern economy and society. Therefore, the state needs to look upon education as a foundation stone of its strategy for the liberation and empowerment of these deprived social groups and communities.

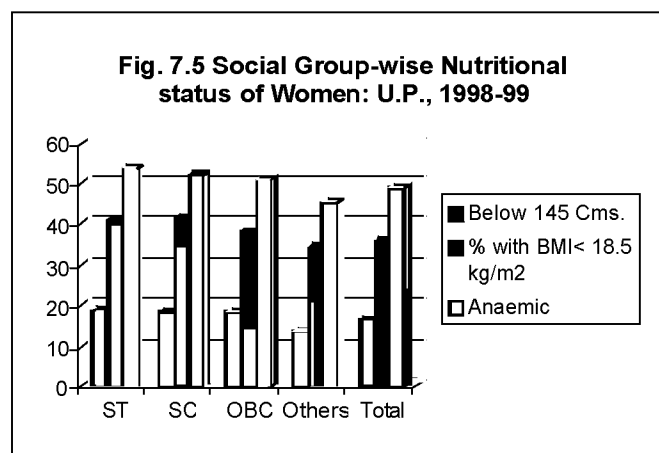
#### IV. Nutrition and Health

15. Nutrition and health play a decisive role in enhancing human capabilities. Relatively few indicators are available to demonstrate the existing nutrition and health status of various social groups separately in the State. In this section, we have made use of National Family Health Survey-II (NFHS-II) data. The available evidence shows that there remain considerable disparities across social groups in terms of nutrition and health. The burden of low nutritional intake, ill health, poor access to health care facilities falls disproportionately on women and children.

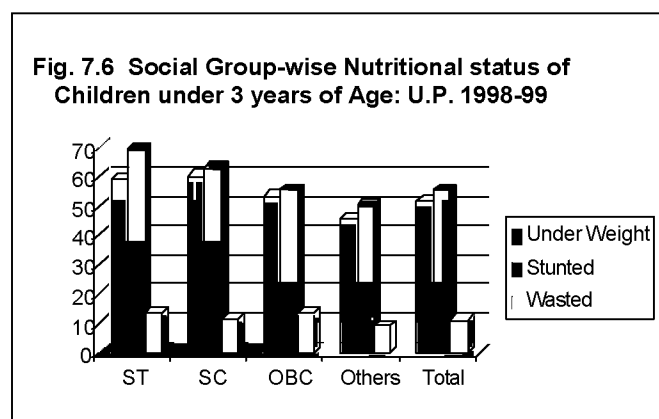
16. The mean height and weight of an individual are taken as the indicators of nutritional status. A woman below mean height of 145 cms. is considered as under-nourished and stunted; and body mass index (BMI) below 18.5 kg. per meter of height squared is taken as under-weight. Similarly, child mal-nutrition is based on three indices including weight for age termed as 'under-weight', height for age called 'stunted' and weight for height called 'wasted'. All these three indicators below 2 standard deviation from the means of their population under reference, are considered as indicators of mal-nourished children. Women's nutritional status is critical in determining the nutritional status of their children as under-nourished women are more likely to give birth to low weight babies, who suffer from life-long disadvantage and greater probability of dying before age of one (Mehrotra, 2006, p. 4265).

17. Table 7.8 depicts social group-wise comparative nutritional status of women in U. P. and India for the reference year 1998-99. About half of all women in U. P. were anaemic, 35.8 per cent suffered from under-weight and 16.4 per cent were stunted. Almost equal disadvantage could be observed in case of ST, SC and OBC women relative to a slightly better condition of

women belonging to 'Others' category. These nutritional indicators for the state are found almost at par with national scenario, except in case of significantly higher ratio of stunted women in U.P.



18. Similarly, more than half of U.P.'s children below 3 years of age are under weight and stunted and 11.1 per cent were wasted. Highest proportions of ST, SC and OBC children were suffering from these problems. Relative condition of children belonging to 'others' category was slightly better (Table-7.9, Fig.-7.6)



**Table 7.8: Social Group-wise Nutritional Status of Women: U.P. & India, 1998-99**

Social Group	U.P. (%)			India (%)		
	Below 145 cms.	with BMI < 18.5 kg/m2	Anaemic	Below 145 cms.	with BMI < 18.5 kg/m2	Anaemic
ST	18.9	40.8	53.6	13.5	46.3	64.9
SC	18.4	41.6	51.9	17.0	42.1	56.0
OBC	18.5	38.1	51.0	13.5	35.8	50.7
Others	13.5	34.2	45.2	10.9	30.5	47.6
Total	16.4	35.8	48.7	3.2	35.8	51.8

Source: National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99, Reported in Mehrotra, 2006, p. 4265.

**Table 7.9: Social Group-wise Nutritional Status of Children under 3 years of Age: U.P. & India, 1998-99**

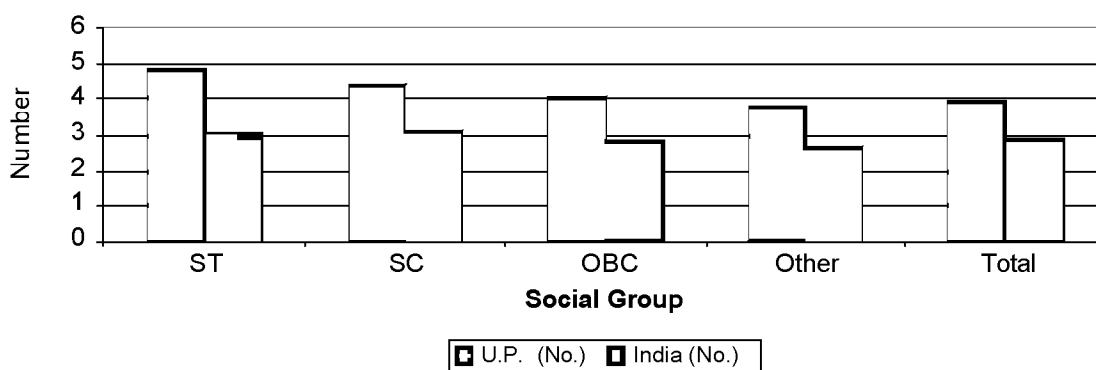
Social Group	U.P. (%)			India (%)		
	Under weight	Stunted	Wasted	Under weight	Stunted	Wasted
ST	59.4	69.3	13.7	55.9	52.8	21.8
SC	60.3	63.1	11.5	53.5	51.7	16.0
OBC	53.3	55.7	13.6	47.3	44.8	16.6
Others	45.9	50.3	9.3	41.1	40.7	12.8
Total	51.7	55.5	11.1	47.0	45.5	15.5

Source: National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99.

19. In Table 7.10 social group-wise total fertility rates (TFR) in U.P. and India are presented. These rates show the number of children born to women of 15-49 years reproductive age group. Any level of fertility rate above 2.1 (considered as replacement level of existing population) cannot be considered well for any state, particularly for a state like U.P. which is already facing the burden of over population. Unfortunately, TFR for total population of U.P. is still very high at the level of 3.99 children born per woman in comparison to all India level of 2.85. Highest TFR was observed among ST women (4.83) followed by SC (4.44), OBC (4.12) and others

(3.77). The poor condition of reproductive and child health (RCH) services is one of the main factors responsible for such high TFR across all social groups, apart from numerous other socio-economic factors. This can be observed from the data presented in Table 7.11 showing use of family planning methods for married women in 15-49 age-group. In comparison to 48.2 per cent of India's women in reproductive age group using some method of family planning, only 28.1 per cent of the women in U.P. were making use of these methods. Least proportion of only 15.1 per cent ST women followed by 24.8 per cent SC and 24.2 per cent OBC women adopted such methods.

**Fig. 7.7 Social Group-wise Total Fertility Rate in U.P. and India- 1998-99**

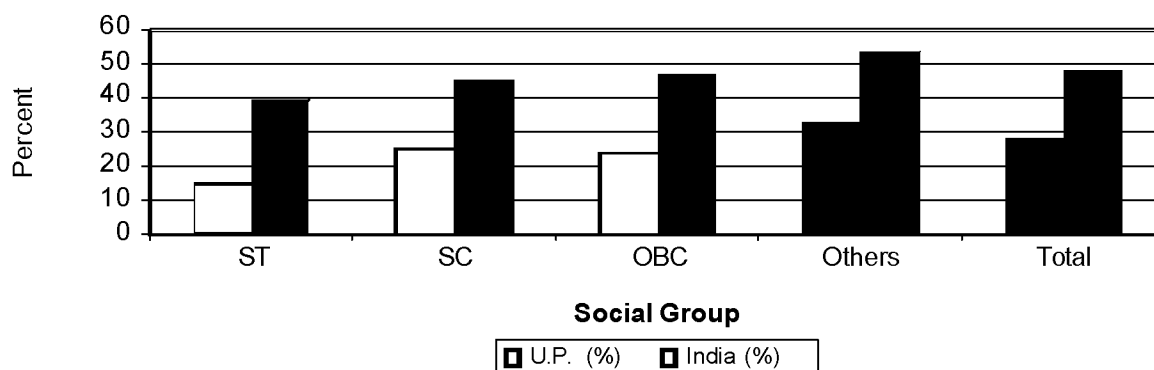


**Table-7.10: Social Group-wise Total Fertility Rate: U.P. & India, 1998-99**

Social Group	U.P. (No.)	India (No.)
ST	4.83	3.06
SC	4.44	3.15
OBC	4.12	2.83
Other	3.77	2.66
Total	3.99	2.85

Source: National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99, Reproduced from Mehrotra, 2006, p. 4263.

**Fig. 7.8 Social Group-wise Use of Any Method of Family Planning for Ever Married Women 15-49: U.P. & India (%), 1998-99**



**Table 7.11: Social Group-wise Use of Any Method of Family Planning for Ever-Married Women 15-49 Years: U.P. & India, 1998-99**

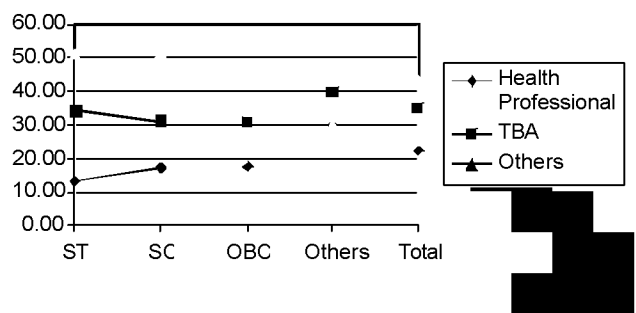
Social Group	U.P. (%)	India (%)
ST	15.1	39.1
SC	24.8	44.6
OBC	24.2	46.8
Others	32.7	53.5
Total	28.1	48.2

Source: National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99.

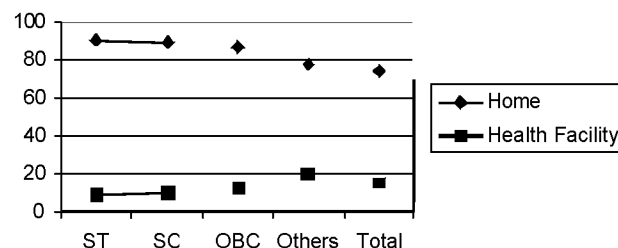
20. Table 7.12 depicts social group-wise birth of babies whose mothers were assisted at the time of delivery in U.P. and India. Delivery time assistance is expected from any qualified doctor, nurse or midwife in order to safeguard the good health and life of both mother and baby. Traditional birth attendants (TBA) or Dai are untrained and considered not qualified for such

crucial life caring work. In U.P., only 22.0 per cent of the total births are assisted by any health professional, 35.0 per cent by TBA and 43.0 per cent by others. Access level of the mothers belonging to ST, SC, and OBC to any health professional is still lower. The situation of the state in comparison to India is worst in this aspect of the health care services.

**Fig.7.9 Births Whose Mothers were Assisted at the Time of Delivery: U.P., 1998-99**



**Fig.7.10 Place of Child Delivery: U.P., 1998-99**



**Table 7.12: Social Group-wise Births who's Mothers were assisted at the Time of Delivery : U.P. & India, 1998-99**

Social Group	U.P. (%)			India (%)		
	Health Professional	TBA (Dai)	Others	Health Professional	TBA (Dai)	Others
ST	13.1	34.4	51.2	23.0	44.4	32.2
SC	17.1	31.1	51.6	38.8	37.7	25.1
OBC	17.7	30.9	52.3	44.9	34.9	19.9
Others	29.7	39.5	30.3	48.9	31.4	19.5
Total	22.0	35.0	43.0	42.0	35.0	22.0

**Source:** National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99, Reported in Mehrotra, 2006, p. 4265.

21. Similarly, 73.8 per cent of the child deliveries take place at home in U.P. These proportions are significantly higher in case of ST, SC and OBC. Health facility for delivery is available to only 8.0 per cent to 12 per cent of the mothers belonging to these groups. Clearly, U.P. significantly lacks in providing health facilities in comparison to India (Table 7.13, Fig. 7.10).

22. Infant mortality rate (the number of babies that die per thousand live births during first year of their birth) is very high in comparison to India across all social groups. Highest level of disadvantage is faced by SC followed by OBC and ST with alarmingly high IMR of 110, 106 and 83 for each social group respectively (Table-7.14, Fig.7.11).

**Table 7.13: Social Group-wise Place of Child Delivery in U.P. and India, 1998-99**

Social Group	U.P. (%)		India (%)	
	Home	Health facility	Home	Health facility
ST	89.8	8.8	81.8	17.1
SC	88.9	10.2	72.1	26.8
OBC	86.6	12.8	62.8	36.1
Others	77.7	20.0	59.0	40.1
Total	73.8	15.4	64.4	34.0

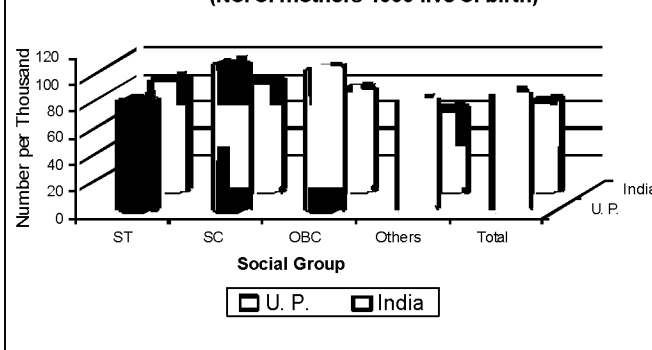
**Source:** National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99.

**Table 7.14: Social Group-wise Infant Mortality Rate s: U.P. & India, 1998-99**

Social Group	U.P.	India
ST	83	84
SC	110	83
OBC	106	76
Others	82	62
Total	87	68

**Source:** National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99.

**Fig.7.11 Infant and Child Mortality Rates in U.P. and India, 1998-99 (No. of mothers 1000 live of birth)**



23. To sum up, the overall scenario of nutrition and health in U.P. appears to be in a pitiable condition. Under such situation, ST, SC and OBC groups face further disadvantage. Women and children especially in case of *dalits* are the worst sufferers. Access to the public health system remains very poor for women belonging to ST and OBC women, who have far worse health indicators as compared to the upper castes. The programmes aimed at the lower castes of U.P., do not address the issue of health or nutrition, in terms of which they are the worst sufferers (Cf. Mehrotra, 2006, p.4269).

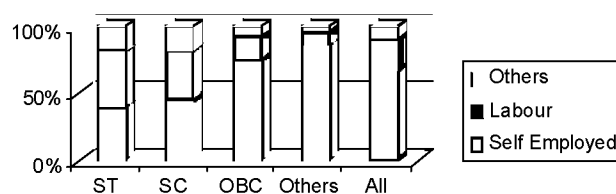
## V. Livelihood, Employment and Assets

24. The issue relating to livelihoods and assets is primarily concerned with the practical means of development including an improvement in the level and reliability of household entitlements to material goods and services. It also requires opportunities available in future and prioritizes efforts to obtain rights for poor social groups (Conway et. al, 2002, pp. 1-2). Unemployment is one of the major factors responsible for poverty as both are closely interrelated. In addition, low level of income generating assets owned by the households belonging to disadvantaged social groups and poorest sections of even higher caste groups and their consequent low earnings / returns are the main causes of their poverty. These poorest groups possess no land, lack education, efficiency, skills, good health, have no community infrastructure and are deprived of basic facilities. The only possession of the poor persons is their physical labour which they can sell in return for daily wages. When even the physical labour of a poor individual remains unsold due to non-availability of any kind of work, it gives birth to frustration, dissatisfaction and demoralization. Such a situation not only hurts the moral and human values but also affects the socio-economic fabric of the entire society.

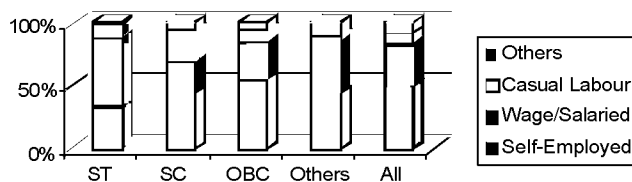
25. Studies based on NSS data show that poverty ratios for ST, SC and OBC population are much higher as compared to other social groups. This aspect has been discussed in Chapter 5. It needs to be added that poverty levels have declined in the case of all the social groups though inter-group differences still remain.

26. The NSS 61<sup>st</sup> round data provides latest estimates on various dimensions of livelihood issues for 2004-05, such as, income sources, monthly per capita expenditure (MPCE), land owned and cultivated, working population and employment scenario. Table 7.15 shows distribution of households of different social groups by type of employment in 2004-05. In the rural areas of the state, proportion of self employed households was highest in 'others' category (74.8 per cent) closely followed by OBC (74.3 per cent). As compared to this only 50.1 per cent SC households and 41.6 per cent ST households were self employed.

**Fig.7.12 Distribution of Rural Households by Household Type: U.P., 2004-05**



**Fig. 7.13 Distribution of Urban Households by Household Type: U. P., 2004-05**



The ratio of rural labour households was found very high among ST (45.5 per cent) and SC (42.3 per cent) against relatively lower share of OBC (18.0 per cent) and others (9.0 per cent). In urban areas the highest proportion of 55.3 per cent self employed households belonged to OBC followed by 44.3 per cent SC, 44.0 per cent others and 32.5 per cent ST. Highest proportion of 55.9 per cent ST households depended on regular wage / salaried employment. These ratios were 40.9 per cent, 29.8 per cent and 25.6 per cent for Others, OBC and SC households respectively. Households' depending on casual labour was highest in case of SC (24.6 per cent) followed by ST (11.3 per cent), OBC (8.8 per cent) and Others (only 3.8 per cent).

27. Monthly per capita consumer expenditure (MPCE) serves as a proxy to household monthly income and also demonstrates the standards of living of the household members. The distribution of persons by household's MPCE class intervals is presented in Table 7.16 and 7.17 for different social groups in rural and urban areas separately. MPCE of 23.4 per cent of all people in rural areas of the state was found less than Rs.365 per month belonging to the lowest four MPCE classes. 10.8 per cent of ST households were bracketed in the lowest MPCE class of less than Rs.235 per month which may be seen living on the verge of starvation. None of the ST household members was found in the highest MPCE class who spent Rs.1155 or more per month. Highest proportion of 9.3 per cent 'others' category households followed by 3.3 per cent OBC and 1.5 per

**Table 7.15: Social Group Wise Distribution of Rural / Urban Households by Household Type: U. P., 2004-05**

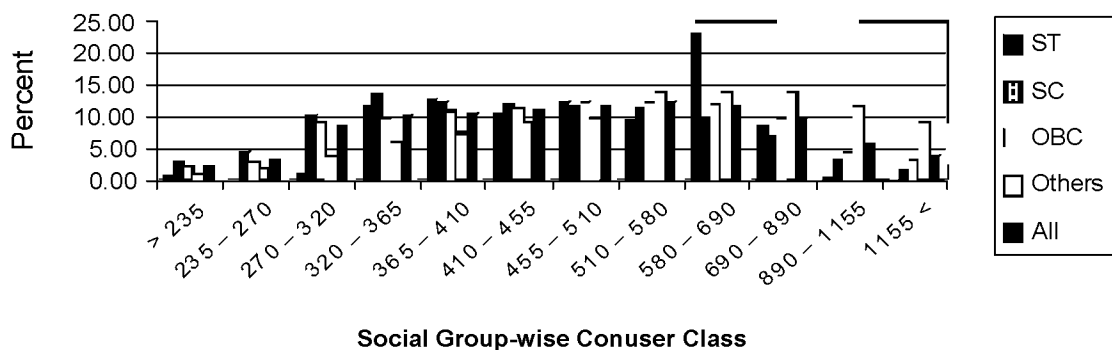
Type of Employment	Social Groups (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>Rural Self Employed in</b>					
Agriculture	26.3	33.8	53.9	58.1	49.2
Non-Agriculture	15.3	16.3	20.4	16.7	18.5
All	41.6	50.1	74.3	74.8	67.8
<b>Rural Labour</b>					
Agricultural Labour	27.4	23.9	11.0	6.5	13.7
Other Labour	18.1	18.4	7.0	2.4	9.2
All	45.5	42.3	18.0	9.0	22.8
Other	12.8	7.6	7.7	16.2	9.3
All (Including n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Urban</b>					
Self-Employed	32.5	44.3	55.3	44.0	49.2
Wage/Salaried	55.9	25.6	29.8	40.9	33.9
Casual Labour	11.3	24.6	8.8	3.8	8.7
Others	0.4	5.6	5.8	10.9	7.9
All (including n.r.)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

cent SC belonged to this MPCE class. Similarly, in urban U.P., 24.1 per cent of all households were spending less than Rs.485 per month belonging to the three lowest MPCE classes. Highest proportion of 51.9 per cent ST households followed by 37.1 per cent SC, 29.0 per cent OBC and 24.1 per cent others were bracketed in these

MPCE classes. A substantially high ratio of 26.8 per cent ST households were in the lowest MPCE class spending less than Rs.335 per month, barely sufficient for meeting two square meals per day. Highest MPCE class was enjoyed by 7.4 per cent of the 'others', 1.6 per cent OBC, 1.5 per cent SC and none of the ST households.

**Fig.7.14 : Distribution of Rural Household MPCE Class: U. P., 2004-05**





**Fig.7.15 Distribution of Urban Household MPCE Class: U. P., 2004-05**



**Table 7.16: Social Group Wise Distribution of Household Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure Class, Rural U.P., 2004-05**

Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure (Rs.)	Social Groups (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>Rural</b>					
Less than 235	10.8	2.7	2.0	0.9	2.0
235 - 270	0.0	4.5	2.8	1.6	3.0
270 - 320	1.0	10.3	9.0	3.8	8.3
320 - 365	11.7	13.4	9.8	5.9	10.1
365 - 410	12.6	12.5	10.8	7.3	10.5
410 - 455	10.6	12.1	11.2	9.0	11.0
455 - 510	12.2	11.7	12.2	9.7	11.6
510 - 580	9.4	11.3	12.3	13.6	12.3
580 - 690	22.8	9.7	12.0	13.6	11.7
690 - 890	8.5	7.0	9.9	13.6	9.8
890 - 1155	0.5	3.3	4.7	11.7	5.7
1155 & Above	0.0	1.5	3.3	9.3	4.0
All Classes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

28. Table 7.18 depicts data relating to labour force participation rate (LFPR), worker population ratio (WPR) and proportion unemployed (PU) for various social groups. WPR as per NSS data is defined according to usual status denoted as PS + SS (Principal and subsidiary activity). It includes persons who either worked for a

relatively larger part of the 365 days in any economic activity preceding the date of survey and also those persons from among the remaining population who had worked at least for 30 days during the reference period of 365 days preceding the date of survey for any type of economic returns. Similarly, the labour force or

**Table 7.17: Social Group Wise Distribution of Household Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure Class, Urban U.P., 2004-05**

Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure (Rs.)	Social Groups (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
Less than 335	26.8	12.7	6.2	3.6	6.1
335 - 395	7.7	9.2	9.5	2.4	6.5
395 - 485	17.4	15.2	13.3	8.4	11.5
485 - 580	17.0	19.2	10.9	12.0	12.4
580 - 675	12.8	11.6	14.3	8.2	11.4
675 - 790	6.6	8.7	8.7	9.5	9.0
790 - 930	1.4	8.2	10.3	10.2	9.9
930 - 1100	5.8	5.5	7.6	9.3	8.0
1100 - 1380	1.4	2.0	12.2	12.4	11.0
1380 - 1880	0.0	4.5	3.6	8.4	5.7
1880 - 2540	2.9	1.7	1.7	8.2	4.4
2540 & Above	0.0	1.5	1.6	7.4	4.0
All Classes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

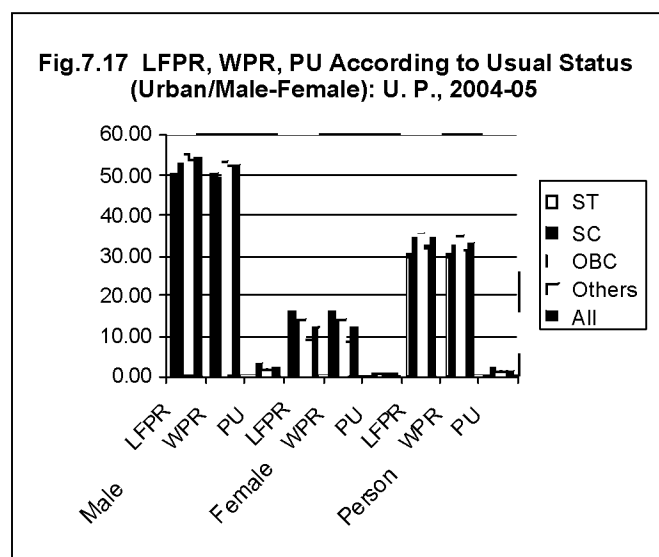
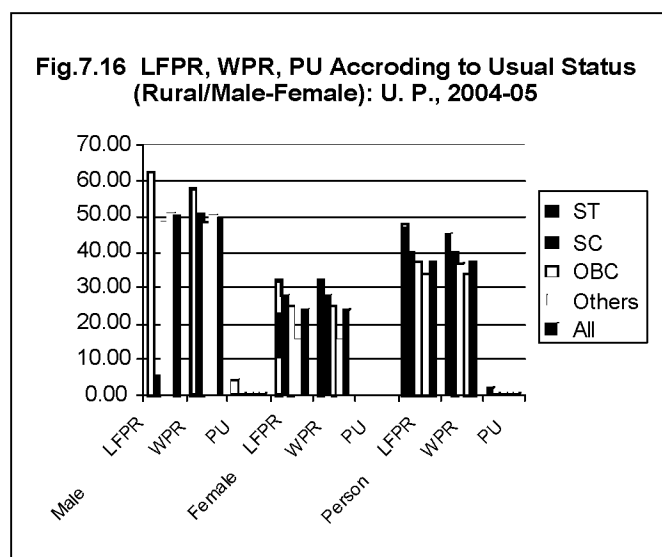
Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

economically active persons refer to that section of the population who supply or seek to supply labour for production activities. This includes both categories of workers, i.e. employed and the unemployed. LFPR is also worked out as per the usual status considering both the principal and subsidiary works.

29. In rural U.P., the proportion of economically active persons was highest in case of ST followed by SC, OBC and others. The LFPRs for these groups were 47.8 per cent, 39.9 per cent, 37.1 per cent and 34.0 per cent respectively. The relative position in urban U.P. was

highest for OBC (35.8 per cent) closely followed by SC (34.6 per cent), others (32.3 per cent) and ST (30.2 per cent). The significantly high LFPR proportions of ST/SC and OBC women reflect their dual work burden to sustain meager household incomes. WPR as per the usual status (PS + SS) was 45.6 per cent in case of

ST rural persons, 39.8 per cent in case of SC, 36.9 per cent for OBC and 33.7 per cent for others. These ratios in case of urban persons were 34.8 per cent for OBC, 32.7 per cent SC, 31.3 per cent others and the lowest 30.2 per cent for ST.



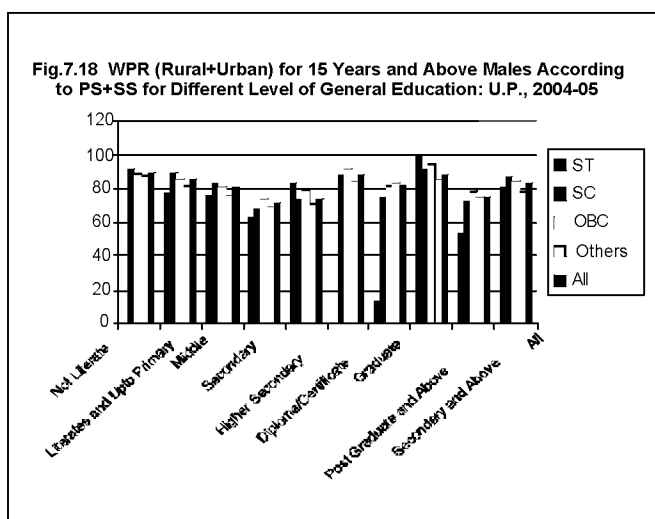
**Table 7.18: Social Group-wise Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR), Worker Population Ratio (WPR) and Proportion Unemployed (PU) According to Usual Status: U.P., 2004-05**

Particulars		Social Group (%)				
		ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>RURAL</b>						
Male	LFPR	62.5	51.0	48.9	51.1	49.9
	WPR	58.0	50.8	48.5	50.6	49.6
	PU	4.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Female	LFPR	32.4	28.4	24.8	15.9	24.1
	WPR	32.4	28.3	24.7	15.8	24.0
	PU	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Person	LFPR	47.8	39.9	37.1	34.0	37.3
	WPR	45.6	39.8	36.9	33.7	37.1
	PU	2.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
<b>URBAN</b>						
Male	LFPR	50.7	52.9	55.2	53.6	54.2
	WPR	50.7	49.5	53.4	52.2	52.4
	PU	0.0	3.3	1.7	1.4	1.9
Female	LFPR	15.6	13.8	14.1	9.1	12.0
	WPR	15.6	13.6	14.0	8.6	11.7
	PU	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3
Person	LFPR	30.2	34.6	35.8	32.3	34.2
	WPR	30.2	32.7	34.8	31.3	33.1
	PU	0.0	1.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
<b>RURAL + URBAN</b>						
Male	LFPR	60.9	51.2	50.0	52.0	50.8
	WPR	57.0	50.6	49.4	51.2	50.1
	PU	3.8	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7
Female	LFPR	29.3	26.9	23.0	13.6	21.7
	WPR	29.3	26.8	22.9	13.3	21.6
	PU	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Person	LFPR	45.0	39.4	36.9	33.4	36.7
	WPR	43.1	39.0	36.5	32.9	36.3
	PU	1.9	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4

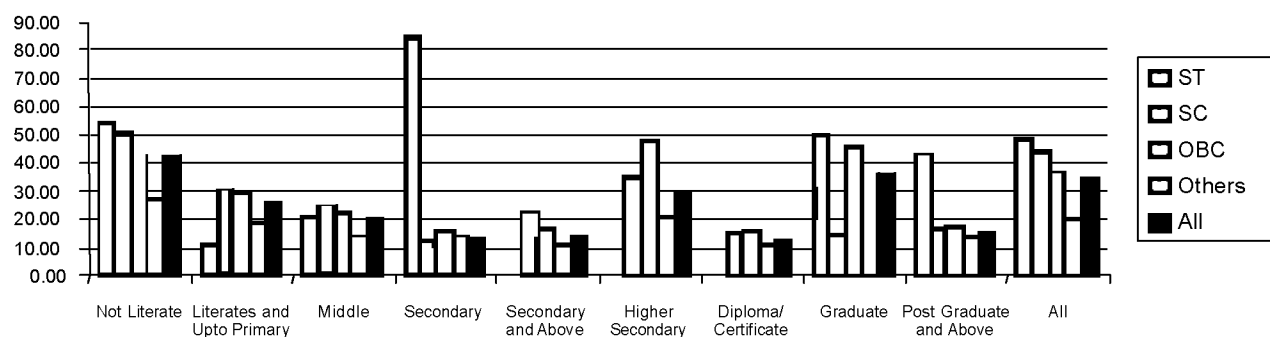
Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

30. Unemployment rates are low in U.P. Highest unemployment in rural areas was reported for ST rural persons (2.3 per cent), while it was as low as 0.3 per cent for 'others' and 0.2 per cent for SC and OBC groups. These ratios for urban U.P. were 1.9 per cent for SC, 1.0 per cent for OBC and 1.00 per cent for others.

31. Table 7.19 shows social group-wise combined (rural + urban) WPRs for different levels of general education among persons of age 15 years and above in U.P. WPR for illiterate males was higher for SC (92.1 per cent) and ST (91.3 per cent) as compared to OBC (88.1 per cent) and 'Others' (88.0 per cent). However, for educated males above secondary level of general education, WPR for all social groups came down to 75.3 per cent recording highest for OBC (77.9 per cent), Others (74.8 per cent) in comparison to 72.3 per cent for SC



**Fig.7.19 WPR (Rural +Urban) for 15 Yeas and above Females According to PS+SS for Different Level of General Education: U.P. 2004-05**



and 52.5 per cent for ST. This clearly shows the perpetual state of unemployment / no work for about 20 per cent to 30 per cent of the educated working age population. The findings also reveal that the benefits of education could be realized in lesser proportion by SC and ST groups

than OBCs and Others. WPRs for illiterate females varied between 26.9 per cent to 54.5 per cent for all social groups. It once again reveals that significantly high proportions of women are forced to share dual work burden of household works as well as wage earning activities.

**Table 7.19: WPR (Rural + Urban) in U.P. for Persons of Age 15 Years and Above According to Usual Status (PS+SS) for Different Level of General Education: U.P., 2004-2005**

Gender/Education Level	Social Group (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
<b>Male</b>					
Not Literate	91.3	92.1	88.1	88.0	89.3
Literates and Upto Primary	77.1	89.3	86.2	81.4	85.9
Middle	76.4	82.4	80.5	76.9	80.0
Secondary	62.8	67.8	73.8	68.7	71.1
Higher Secondary	83.6	73.3	78.9	70.4	74.4
Diploma/Certificate	0	87.9	91.6	84.3	87.8
Graduate	12.7	75.1	81.3	83.4	81.7
Post Graduate and Above	100.0	91.8	94.4	85.8	87.3
Secondary and Above	52.5	72.3	77.9	74.8	75.3
All	79.8	86.9	84.0	78.6	83.2
<b>Female</b>					
Not Literate	54.5	50.3	42.8	26.9	42.5
Literates and Upto Primary	10.7	30.4	28.9	19.0	25.8
Middle	21.0	24.8	21.7	14.5	19.8
Secondary	84.7	12.2	16.5	14.5	13.2
Higher Secondary	0	22.9	16.8	11.0	14.3
Diploma/Certificate	0	35.2	47.6	20.6	28.9
Graduate	0	15.5	16.2	11.2	12.5
Post Graduate and Above	50.1	15.0	45.8	36.2	36.5
Secondary and Above	43.5	16.6	17.4	13.6	15.3
All	48.3	44.8	36.9	19.9	34.5

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

32. Land is one of the main indicators of economic status and principal capital asset for livelihood security in rural areas. Table 7.20 shows the distribution of households by size, class of land possessed by different social groups in rural U.P. Data clearly reveal that the highest proportion of 28.2 per cent ST households were found to be almost landless - possessing land area between zero to 0.004 hectare. Similar disadvantage can be observed in case of SC households (13.2 per cent) belonging to the same land size class. Interestingly a larger proportion of 10.3 per cent households from 'Others' social group in comparison to only 8.3 per cent OBC households were found in this minimum land size class. The ratio of households possessing land size 2.01 hectare and above was maximum for 'others' (14.8 per

cent) followed by ST (8.3 per cent), OBC (7.7 per cent) with the most disadvantaged group being SC households (only 2.1 per cent). These results clearly reveal that the poorest households in the 'Others' social group also suffer similar disadvantage with their counterpart SCs, STs and OBCs in terms of ownership of land which is the main capital asset for the people belonging to agrarian economy of rural areas in the state.

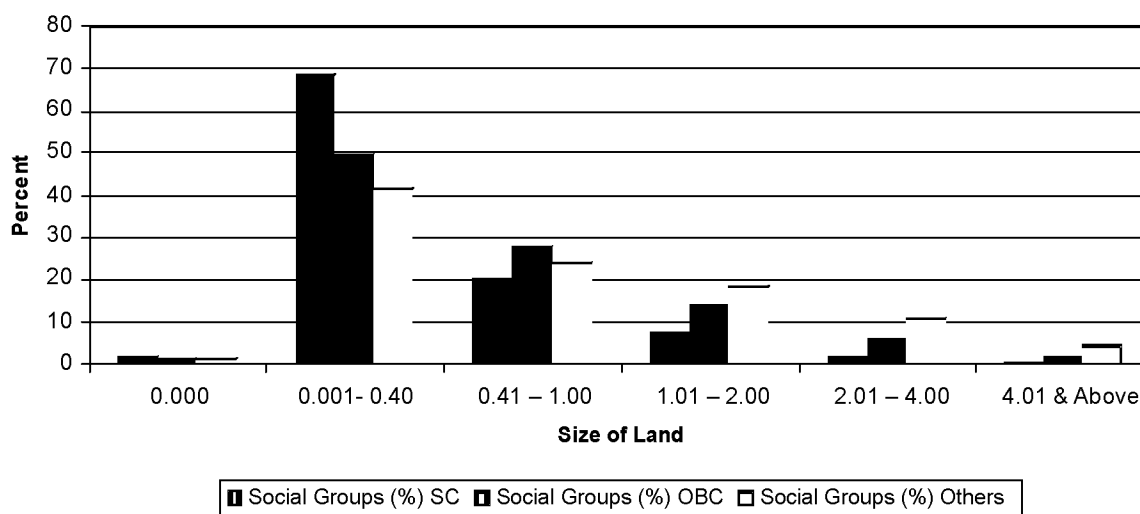
33. The distribution of rural households in U.P. by size of land actually cultivated during the agricultural year 2004-2005 is depicted in Table 7.21. A significantly high proportion of 28.2 per cent of rural households did not have cultivated land. The corresponding ratios for ST, SC, Others and OBC were 50.4 per cent, 36.4 per

**Table 7.20: Social Group Wise Distribution of Rural Households by Size Class of Land Possessed: U. P., 2004-05**

Size Class of Land Possessed (Hectare)	Social Group (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
0.000	0.0	1.9	1.3	1.4	1.5
0.001-0.004	28.2	11.3	7.1	8.9	8.7
0.005- 0.40	37.8	57.5	42.5	32.8	44.7
0.41 - 1.00	8.6	20.1	27.9	24.0	24.9
1.01 - 2.00	17.1	7.1	13.5	18.2	12.7
2.01 - 4.00	6.3	1.8	6.0	10.6	5.8
4.01 & Above	2.0	0.3	1.7	4.2	1.8
All Classes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

**Fig.7.20 Distribution of Rural Households by Social Groups and Size Class of Land in U.P.- 2004-05**



cent, 27.0 per cent and 24.3 per cent. This scenario once again points to the relative disadvantage of people belonging to the poorest sections of the higher caste groups in comparison to OBC category. However, the rich among the 'others' group once again show their relative advantage in terms of cultivated land by having the highest proportion of 13.4 per cent in 2.01 hectare and above size class of land followed by ST (7.7 per cent) and OBC (7.0 per cent). Most disadvantaged in this category again was SC group with a share of only 2.0 per cent.

34. Availability of water and sanitation, electricity and accessible roads also play a pivotal role in improving the quality of life and livelihoods of the people. In order to meet the needs of drinking water, cooking, bathing, washing of utensils and house and ablution, Government of India (GOI) fixed 40 litre per capita per day (lpcd) norm while implementing the Rural Water Supply (RWS) Scheme after 1986. One source of drinking water for 250 persons has also been adopted as a norm. In 1991-92, GOUP conducted a survey to identify the rural habitations and provide access to drinking water supply in each habitation as per the GOI norms under Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission (RGNDWM). The survey data identified a total number of 2,43,633 rural habitation out of which 2,43,508 habitations spread over 97,134 villages were found inhabited and available for coverage. Another survey conducted in 2004 identified 2,60,110 habitations out of which 7,993 habitations were found not covered (NC) 18,776 partially covered (PC) and 2,33,341 fully covered (FC) in terms of safe drinking water facilities as per norms. GOUP envisaged providing water to all these habitations not so far covered fully during the years 2005-2007. It is clearly noticed that U.P. is affected by acute water scarcity during summer months with 30 per cent habitations receiving water less

than the basic service level of 40 lpcd. Almost one third of traditional and modern mixture of RWS schemes remain out of operation at any given time. Similarly, sanitation level in the state is also below the national average with only 2.5 per cent of the population using latrines / water carriage system (SPC, 2005, pp. 194-210). Therefore, access to improved water supply and environmental sanitation remain high priority items for ensuring better level of human development in the state.

#### Box 7.1: SWAJALDHARA PROGRAMME

In order to provide sustainable health and hygiene benefits to the rural population through improvements in water supply services and better environmental sanitation conditions, GOUP implemented a project called 'SWAJALDHARA PROGRAMME' in seven districts of Bundelkhand during 1996-2002. The project envisaged to promote the long term sustainability of the RWS and Sanitation Sector and identify policy framework under strategic future plans for implementation. This programme has been funded by the World Bank upto 84% of its total cost with 16% to be shared by both the State Government and the Community. It is expected to be managed with full participation of the villagers. In order to ensure this, a Village Water and Sanitation Committee was formed in each village as a sub-Committee of the Gram Panchayat. The Committee was made responsible for the project planning, implementation, operation and maintenance at the Community level (SPC, 2005, pp.205-207). Lessons learned from this programme may be of far reaching nature for the future planning of water supply and sanitation services in the state on self-sustainable basis.

**Table 7.21: Social Group Wise Distribution of Rural Households by Size Class of Land Cultivated: U. P., 2004-05**

Size class of Land Cultivated (Hectare)	Social Group (%)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	All
0.000	50.4	36.4	24.3	27.0	28.2
0.001-0.004	6.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3
0.005-0.40	13.4	36.1	28.8	17.5	28.5
0.41 - 1.00	6.3	19.1	26.9	23.1	23.9
1.01 - 2.00	15.8	6.3	12.8	18.8	12.2
2.01 - 4.00	5.7	1.7	5.4	9.8	5.2
4.01 & Above	2.0	0.3	1.6	3.6	1.6
All Classes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source : NSS 61<sup>st</sup> Round, Report No. 516.

35. Electricity is another important component of quality of life, as its consumption level is treated as a basic social development indicator. Overall U.P.'s annual per capita power consumption was 188.33 KWH against all India average of 390.0 KWH in 2003-2004. The power system of the state is very complex as most of the power generating stations are located far away from load centers leading to huge transmission losses. Rural Electrification Corporation (REC), under the state government is supposed to carry out the work of electrification of villages. As per the changed village electrification definition by GOI in February, 2004, all villages in only five districts of U.P. out of its 70 districts were declared electrified. In remaining 65 districts, 30,852 villages were un-electrified where electrification work has been proposed. Provision was also made in the scheme for providing electricity connection to all BPL families. In 2004-05 a centrally sponsored scheme called *Rajiv Gandhi Gramin Vidyutikarn Yojana* was launched by GOI through REC. G.O.P. proposed to electrify remaining villages under this scheme by 2007. The state declared a Power Policy in 2003 aimed to fulfill the overall need for universal access and providing reliable, quality and affordable power for social upliftment and economic development of its people (SPC, 2005, pp. 167-194).

36. A network of good quality roads is considered as the nerve centre of economic, social and infrastructural development of a state. As per the Road Development Plan (1981-2000) of U. P. (also known as Lucknow Plan), all villages were required to be connected by the road network by the year 2001 with the target of 1,96,496 km. length. However only 54 per cent of the state's target could be achieved with 1,05,794 km. length of rural roads. The state has set ambitious targets under the National Road Development Plan - Vision 2021 for connecting the villages by roads having pre-dominant population of Scheduled Castes called Ambedkar Gram. This *Ambedkar Gram Vikas Yojana* was launched in the state in 2002-2003 for construction of rural roads. The scheme was implemented by convergence of resources of different departments engaged in road construction activity. Similarly, *Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana* (PMGSY), 2004-2005, Phase-IV was started for construction of 2595 km. of roads in 40 districts connecting 1,652 habitations. Another scheme called *Samagra Gram Vikas Yojana* was launched in January, 2004 aimed at convergence of various developmental activities for providing all round facilities in the villages including construction of village link roads (SPC, 2005, pp. 156-166).

## VI. Crimes and Atrocities

37. The deprived groups are not only socially, economically and politically backward but also vulnerable to various kinds of social exclusion and

atrocities. Any social intervention initiated to improve their status leads to disequilibrium and resentment in other sections. It also leads to more atrocities against them. Caste system by birth in India involves social hierarchy. The erstwhile untouchables or polluting castes termed as *dalits*, continue to suffer humiliation. Within the discriminatory social order of caste and gender, *dalit* women, who are mostly living in rural areas in the absence of their migratory male family members, become the most disadvantaged and an easy target for several forms of exploitation and violence. Seeking justice becomes extremely difficult for disadvantaged groups under these ubiquitous social conditions of caste, class, religion and gender biases. Common knowledge suggests that these victims of injustice face problems in even approaching police and filing complaints against the offenders. However, the Constitution of India upholds the right to equality before law under Article 14 and prohibits discrimination on the grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth. Article 17 states that the practice of untouchability is abolished and its practice in any form is forbidden. Under the Legal Services Authorities Act, 1987, SC, ST, women and children are all entitled to legal services. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989 prevents the commission of offences of atrocities against the members of SC/ST, provides for special courts for the trial of such offences for their relief and rehabilitation. The SC and ST (Prevention of Atrocities) Rules, 1995 provide for reactive, preventive and promotional measures that can be taken in an effort to ensure that there is redress for violations of rights of these groups and that such violations do not recur.

38. Data relating to crimes and atrocities committed against socially disadvantaged groups are available only in case of ST and SC. As per the latest report of the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB), on an average 30,000 incidents of atrocities against SC are committed in India annually, with U.P. being at the top in the list. Out of the 669 *dalits* killed in the country during the year, 288 *dalits* had been killed in U.P. alone, which is about half of the national total. Similar situation emerges in case of the rape cases against *dalit* women. These cases during the years 2003, 2004, 2005 and 2006 stood at 188, 245, 222 and 212 respectively. Whereas the total number of crimes committed against *dalits* was 1,559 in 2003, 2,983 in 2004, 3,211 in 2005 and 4,104 in 2006 (Table 7.22). Almost similar conclusions are drawn in a report of the Amnesty International which comments on overall situation of crimes and atrocities against *dalits* in Uttar Pradesh. It says that Uttar Pradesh alone accounted for 25.4 per cent of the crimes committed against *dalits* in India during 1998. Similarly, the State accounted for 26 per cent of the total crimes committed against *adivasis* (although, *adivasi* population in the State is significantly smaller) in the country during the same period (AI, 2001, p. 5).

**Table 7.22: Incidence of Crimes and Atrocities against SC, ST Social Groups :  
U.P., 2003-2006 (1<sup>st</sup> January-31<sup>st</sup> December)**

Crime	Years (No.)			
	2003	2004	2005	2006
Murder	275	301	288	312
Rape	188	245	222	212
Arson	11	325	45	58
Serious Injury	168	311	333	302
Other IPC Crimes	577	1,123	1,443	1,908
Crimes under SC/ST Act	340	678	880	1,320
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,559</b>	<b>2,983</b>	<b>3,211</b>	<b>4,104</b>

**Source:** NCRB, New Delhi

39. Thus, the cases of crimes committed against *dalits* in U.P. have substantially increased over the past four years. The most disadvantaged victims of crimes are the *dalit* women within the overall discriminatory social hierarchy of caste and gender. *Dalits* are killed, seriously injured, their women raped and numerous other types of atrocities and crimes are committed against these socially vulnerable groups, mostly as a result of reactionary treatment meted out by the land / asset owning higher sections of the society.

## VII. State Government Initiatives

40. The process of planning in India was initiated with the basic guiding principle of 'growth with social justice'. It aimed to rectify the distributional disorders and bring the most vulnerable and marginalized social groups at par with the mainstream society and economy of the Nation. SCs, STs, OBCs and Minorities were considered to be the most disadvantaged groups and accorded highest priority. The concept of Special Component Plan (SCP) was introduced in the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) for the development of SC/ST groups. Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) came in operation since Fifth Five Year Plan with a view to ensure rapid socio-economic development of STs. Efforts were made by the State to remove human deprivation on priority basis to improve its relatively low position in terms of human development Index (HDI) among Indian states. Some of the important schemes initiated by GoUP during recent years for the development of vulnerable social groups are described in the following paragraphs. This section draws most of the information from Annual Plan, 2006-2007 of U.P.

41. Family and individual beneficiary oriented development schemes within the general framework of socio-economic development programmes were specially designed in U.P. for the development of SCs under SCP

and STs under TSP. The flow of funds under SCP/TSP was substantially increased over the years in order to ensure accelerated development of these classes. In addition to the general plan schemes, State Scheduled Caste Finance and Development Corporation (SCFDC) was set up during the Seventh Plan to act as a catalytic agent as well as supplementing agency for providing financial support to SCs for the projects relating to employment generation and creation of assets for economic activities. The allocations of outlays under SCP/TSP were made in proportion to SC/ST population to total population of the state from 1996-97 onwards in order to provide further impetus to SCP/TSP. Apart from the SCP/TSP components of the State Plan, Special Central Assistance (SCA) was used by the State Government in a number of income generating programmes. The task of monitoring of expenditure and proper utilization of the quantified budget allocations under SCP/TSP has been assigned to Social Welfare Department of the state. A Committee consisting of Principal Secretaries of Finance, Social Welfare and Planning ensures proper co-ordination in the implementation of the development programmes for SC/ST.

42. As a result of all these initiatives, some encouraging results have been clearly noticed in the development status of SC / ST. Between 1971-2001, the literacy rate of SC increased by 36 per cent approximately (from 10.2 per cent to 46.3 per cent) whereas the corresponding increase of total population was 35 per cent (from 21.7 per cent to 56.3 per cent). SC female literacy rate has also improved substantially over this period (from 2.5 per cent in 1971 to 30.5 per cent in 2001). Decadal growth of SC population during 1991-2001 was recorded at 25.33 per cent which was little less than corresponding growth of 25.85 per cent in the U.P.'s total population. This again may be taken as an encouraging trend.



43. Similarly, the State has committed itself for providing assistance and support to OBCs so that they can be protected from social injustice and exploitation. Top priority has been accorded to increase the literacy status of these social groups. Accordingly, all OBC students up to class VIII are given scholarships on the same terms and conditions as applied in the case of SC/ST children in order to enhance their enrolment at primary level. To reduce the dropout rates, scholarship is also given to OBC students studying in class 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> whose parents' annual income is up to Rs.30,000.

44. The OBC students in post matric classes are also given scholarships to encourage their higher education. Hostel facility in main educational centres is being provided to these students. Uttar Pradesh Backward Classes Finance and Development Corporation (UPBCFDC) provides economic assistance by way of margin money, educational loan, micro finance for their economic development and self-reliance. The State Commission for Backward Classes of Uttar Pradesh has been assigned the task of attending to complaints regarding reservation in services, inclusion / exclusion of castes in OBC lists, atrocities and exploitation. GOUP has included 16 more backward castes in the lists of SCs for their development in a specific manner.

45. All minorities' students up to class 10 are provided scholarships under a reasonable income criterion. This facility is extended to the students of these groups in post graduate classes with a certain income limit. *Arbi / Farsi Madarsas* are provided grant for salary of teaching and non-teaching staff. These institutions under grant-in-aid, are proposed for running mini ITIs for skill development. The Madarsas are modernized by providing assistance for kits and teachers of Science and Mathematics. Girls' hostels and school buildings are also constructed under the scheme. U.P. Minority Finance and Development Corporation (UPMFDC) provides assistance by way of term loans, margin money loans, interest free loans, skill improvement and coaching. Haj houses are being constructed in Lucknow and Ghaziabad to provide facilities to Haj Pilgrimage.

46. Persons with disabilities are provided educational, vocational and institutional facilities for their development and rehabilitation so that they can participate in every field of human activity. All persons with 40 per cent or more disability are entitled to get benefits of the State Government Schemes. For different types of handicapped children, 12 residential schools and 7 workshop cum production centres for vocational training with free boarding and lodging facilities are being run. Assistance is also given to the handicapped in terms of grant for purchase / maintenance of aids and construction of shops for self-employment. Through mass awareness campaign, efforts are being made to minimize

the incidence of disability. Another radical step has been taken by the State Government to eliminate discrimination among the poor by providing scholarships to all those general category children whose guardians are living below the poverty line. This indeed is a step in the direction of attaining social cohesion and integration.

47. In brief, GOUP has made sincere efforts to remove the relative deprivation of marginalized social groups over the years to improve its relative low position in terms of HDI among Indian states. The allocations under plan outlays for SCP and TSP were made in proportion to SC/ST population from 1996-97 onwards in order to provide further impetus to the development of these groups. Encouraging results have been noticed in the development status of all deprived sections of the population, particularly in terms of their literacy levels, reduced fertility rates of SC population, poverty levels, etc. Poor students belonging to all social groups have been given scholarships and free text books at par with SC/ST children. Special development schemes were launched for the development of minorities, persons with disabilities, women and children.

### VIII. Recent Changes

48. The two rounds of NSS Surveys conducted within a gap of five years duration focus on employment and unemployment situation among social groups. This enables us to record the progress over the period of past five years with the help of data collected for the NSS 55<sup>th</sup> (1900-2000) and 61<sup>st</sup> Round (2004-05). However, the comparison is constrained by the fact that many of variables between the two rounds have been changed, new variables added and also because the social groups for which data is reported also differ between two surveys.

49. One may broadly compare the two social categories of Hindu SC/ST and Hindu OBC of 55<sup>th</sup> Round and ST+SC and OBC of 61<sup>st</sup> Round, which are comparable to some extent, to judge the progress attained over the period 1999-2000 to 2004-05. As shown in Table 7.23, illiteracy rates of SC/ST population has gone down by 5.4 percentage points during the five year period. The proportion of school going children does not show an improvement. In case of OBC group also illiteracy has gone down by 4.6 percentage points, while persons with higher educational attainment show an increase. School attendance has gone up by about 3 percentage points.

50. While indicative of the improving human development status of the deprived sections belong to the SC, ST and OBC groups, these data underline the fact that the progress in this direction is somewhat slow. More vigorous efforts need to be made in this regard in the coming years.

**Table 7.23: Indicators of Educational Progress of SC/ST and OBC Groups between 55<sup>th</sup> and 61<sup>st</sup> NSS Rounds**

Particulars	NSS 55 <sup>th</sup> Round		NSS 61 <sup>st</sup> Round		Change	
	Hindu SC+ST	Hindu OBC	ST+SC	OBC	Col. 4-2 ST/SC	Col. 5-3 OBC
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Illiterate	67.1	56.5	61.7	51.9	-5.4	-4.6
Literate upto Primary	13.4	16.6	16.1	18.8	+2.7	+2.2
Middle	10.5	13.6	13.2	14.1	+2.7	+0.5
Secondary	4.3	6.7	3.6	7.3	-0.7	+0.6
Higher Secondary	2.8	4.4	2.7	4.8	-0.1	+0.4
Graduate and Above	2.0	2.2	2.7	2.8	+0.7	+0.6
Children Attending Schools	68.6	72.9	66.4	76.0	-2.2	3.1

Source: NSS 55<sup>th</sup> and 61<sup>st</sup> Rounds

## IX. Conclusion

51. The economic growth process in the State, as in the country as a whole, has failed to be sufficiently inclusive and there remain many divides in the society. U.P. has a much higher share of the deprived population belonging to SC, OBC and Muslims, which depresses the overall attainment of the state in human development. Despite some improvements in the living conditions of SC,ST, OBC and minorities as a result of preferential treatment, the pace of human development in U.P. has remained slow in comparison to many progressive states of the country. Large disparities across social groups continue to exist in terms of income, assets, education, health, nutrition, sanitation, employment and access to infrastructural facilities. Due to non-availability of social group-wise data for the state, there are numerous relative dimensions of human development which remain to be further explored.

52. The state has initiated over the years numerous development programmes to remove human deprivation on a priority basis and improve its relatively low position in HDI among Indian states. Financial allocations under SCP and TSP have been substantially increased over the years. Encouraging results have been noticed in the development status of deprived communities, particularly in terms of increased literacy rates. *Complete computerization of pre-metric and post metric scholarships has been introduced in the state to bring about transparency in the process.* Efforts are being made to ensure welfare of minorities, disabled persons,

women and children. Despite all these sincere efforts of Go UP, much still remains to be done. The implementation of these schemes need to be streamlined to ensure that the benefit of the schemes reach the target beneficiary groups and various leakages and misappropriation of funds are minimized.

53. The issues of backwardness and marginalization of deprived groups is tied up with socio-economic development and changes in social structure of any society. What obstructs the compensatory provisions earmarked for these groups in U.P. are growing caste consciousness, social divides, alienation and socio-economic deprivation. Both, the development interventions by the State Government and public pressures are required to bring about real change in the condition of these groups. The development process needs a central role of politics, particularly for the expansion of social security measures for the marginalized sections. In order to promote basic equality and ensure minimum social security, local public services, good quality basic education, health-care services, employment generating public works, income generating capital assets, drinking water, food supplies and connecting roads and other such facilities are required. Only real transfer of power to the institutions of local self-governance can ensure participatory democracy and development. Development from below, ownership and management of resources at the grassroots level may bring about a more equitable social order and give people their just and composite 'Right to Development'.

## Governance and Human Development

### I. Changing Paradigms of Governance

1. Development and growth, per se, are necessary but insufficient for achieving equitable and sustained human development. India is now poised to move up the growth curve speedily. U.P. has to emulate that pursuit much more vigorously to catch up with the nation. But that calls for good political management, good economic management and good civic management. The invariable concomitants of poor governance are corruption, poverty, marked economic inequities, social disharmony and low human development. World over public management (read governance) paradigms have undergone remarkable shifts. A new public administration philosophy has emerged in recent decades with the broad aim of making governments and their agencies and institutions open, transparent, adaptable, responsive, efficient, effective and accountable. Organizational pluralism, public order, strengthening of institutions, public - private partnerships, strong constitutionalism, empowerment of people in equitable modes, ensuring of entitlements, sound financial management, democratic and administrative decentralization, voluntarism, health and education for all, induction and use of most modern technologies and affordable and prompt justice dispensing systems - these, among other things, are some of the important components of the emerging public management model.

2. The link between good governance and successful growth-cum-equity-oriented economic and social development has become increasingly evident through research and vast observational data. Whatever be the political or economic choices made by the state, good governance is the *sine qua non* of socially just and economically progressive human development.

#### What is Governance?

3. According to UNDP, governance is defined as a complex of mechanisms, processes, relationships and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their rights and obligations and mediate their differences. The World Bank has struck a somewhat different note on this issue. According to world bank, governance is a way in which power is exercised in the management of economic and social resources of a country, notably with the aim of achieving development. The essential aspects of governance are: (a) type of political regime, (b) authority exercising processes for achieving chosen social and economic goals and (c) capacity of the governmental system to formulate

policies and have them effectively implemented. It may be remembered that the term governance here is being used in public service and public development contexts. It is a wide ranging concept that includes relations between elected representatives, officials and citizens, the setting up and achieving of socio-economic goals, resources mobilization (human, material and financial), expenditure efficiencies, providing of the delivery of services, ensuring security of people, monitoring, access, redressal, empowerment and accountability at all levels, and, specially, help to the weak and the economically handicapped in all enabling ways.

#### Governance and Poor Developing States

4. The notion that too much of government is not good does have merit but that by no means is the whole story. Prescriptions cannot be the same for all countries. Let us take here the clear example of poor and developing states. The social responsibilities of governments in such states, where poverty obtains in a considerable measure, where literacy rates are low, where people's health and nutritional status is poor, where very marked economic and social disparities exist, and where democratic traditions have yet to get positively embedded at the grass root levels, are far more pervading than, say, in advanced, developed democracies. Good government, in such cases, does not necessarily mean less government. What is certainly needed is good governance. Here, of course, a caveat may be added. Governments need not do those things that people can do better by themselves. The essential duties of a government are to provide security, empowerment, voice, access and redressal to its citizens in open and accountable ways, ensure peace and order, create conditions for acquisition of knowledge and skills and their productive applications, provide for people's good health, for employment and entrepreneurship and for equal opportunities of advancement. Governments are expected to implement what is called the social contract and deliver it at economic costs, efficiently, humanely, without discrimination and within determined time frames. Unfortunately, governments often tend to become distant, sluggish, vast and much layered, proliferating and hierarchical organizations, with top-down work culture. They become secretive, more procedure and rule bound and less result oriented. They are subjected to pressures, manipulations and political compulsions. In the process they become less responsive, costly and poorly performing. The critical question is how can

governance be made performing, caring, equity-led, open and outcome - oriented. These are the important questions that need to be asked and answered.

## International Debate

5. Nearly two and a half decades ago, when the so-called Washington Consensus on international economic reforms was forged, the need for quality governance was conspicuously absent from it. Instead, the World Bank and IMF specialists emphasized pro-market policies, outward-oriented economic approaches, free trade and prudent management of public finances. This set of propositions turned out to be insufficient as the rich-poor divide, internationally, became more accentuated. The policy makers then took a fresh look and realized that institutions of governance were critical for economic reforms, for accelerating growth and for reducing inequities. The debate on governance reforms was gaining global attention in the late nineteen nineties. A Commission on Global Governance was proposed. The key idea thrown up in this wide based, recurring debate was that, “each country is responsible for its own growth and equity by observing macro-economic discipline, fair and effective governance and **development of human capital**” (emphasis added). Values, ethics and social responsibility were stressed not only for governments but also for businesses, industries and the corporate world. It was accepted that core values of integrity, equity, impartiality and efficiency must be adhered to and achieved through transformations in governance. Maintenance of policy and coherent action, citizen engagement, adoption of best practices, use of information and communication technologies (ICT), human capital development and democratic decentralization in empowered modes - these were some of the identified key areas of action where innovations were needed and new paths had to be carved. Carrying forward the debate, Osborne & Gaebler (1992) came up with the proposition that, in view of great increase in the functions and responsibilities of governments, it was necessary to shift course and make them “flexible, adaptable, open, citizen-focused and informed by efficiency, economy, equity and compassion”. This suggestion is much more valid for developing and poor countries where, what is required is not less government but better government because the social and economic - obligations of such state are far more pervasive.

## India's Response

6. When India became independent it chose parliamentary democracy as the mode of its polity. We started with a mixed economy model that was underpinned by strong foundations of central planning and a powerful, commanding public sector. This model did not deliver either growth or equity in the required measure. In the 1980s a shift towards liberalization got

underway and it received a vigorous, path-breaking and crisis responding push in 1991 when a liberalized economic model was adopted. Industry was delicensed. Tariffs in respect of excise and customs were rationalized. Entry of foreign capital and investments was opened up. The historic 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendments (1992) recognized local bodies as institutions of self-governance. The liberalization process got accelerated. By late 90s, the dominant thinking amongst the highest political, economic and administrative echelons was that of co-operative federalism, of a sustained liberalization policy, of institutional empowerment of people through devolution, delegation and decentralization, of fiscal stabilization and of effective administrative reforms. The areas of concern included openness, responsiveness and accountability in governance, minimizing of corruption, making decentralization more effective, expanding the areas and scope of social justice, deeper concerns for citizens' rights, removal of economic and gender inequities, constitutional, judicial and electoral reforms, and reforms of civil services at all levels. The National Agenda of 1999 spoke of the ‘political age of reconciliation’ and ‘consensual mode of governance’. The Common Minimum Programme of 2004 emphasized, among other things, social harmony, enforcement of law, enhancement of the welfare of farmers and weaker sections, children and women's development, health and education, democratic decentralization, removal of infrastructure gaps, employment, the unleashing of the ‘creative energies of entrepreneurs, businessmen, scientists, engineers and all other professionals and productive forces of the society’ and, importantly, governance reforms. A Fiscal Responsibility law was enacted in 2003, followed by the Employment Guarantee Act of 2005 and the landmark Right to Information law of 2005. A Second Administrative Reforms Commission was appointed. The electoral law was amended and directions were issued by the highest court in the country regarding police reforms. The Malimath Committee on Criminal Justice System Reforms came up with its comprehensive report and recommendations which are yet to be implemented. The use of ICT in governmental and non-governmental (industries, businesses, educational institutions, banks, etc.) expanded geometrically.

7. The reform process is afoot with a galloping pace. The result, in overall terms, has been higher economic growth. But, there is much that remains to be done to make development a reality for all, especially the weak and the poor. Economic growth in truth has not yet become inclusive. Nearly one fourth of India still lives below the poverty line. Economic and social (also gender) inequities still abound. Nearly one third of Indian people cannot read or write. Food security for all is yet to be achieved. Malnutrition, particularly of women and children, pervades. Health and education indicators

are improving but very slowly. Potable drinking water, sanitation, electricity on demand, social security, work for all (employment or self-employment), citizens' perception of safety and security, effective self-governance and empowerment, quick and affordable dispensation of justice - these are some of the basic objectives of good governance that still remain to be achieved in any substantial measure.

### **Eleventh Plan Approach Paper on Governance**

8. The Eleventh Plan's duration has begun. The nation, it is claimed, is poised on a high growth path but that endeavour has to be informed by equity. That would require distinctly improved governance. The Eleventh Plan Approach Paper of the Planning Commission (2006), as approved by the NDC, has stressed this need in no uncertain terms. It says:

"All our efforts to achieve rapid and inclusive development will only bear fruit if we can ensure good governance both in the implementation of public programmes and in government's interaction with ordinary citizens. Corruption is now seen to be endemic in all spheres of life and this problem needs to be urgently redressed. Better design of projects, implementation mechanisms and procedures can reduce the scope for corruption. Much more needs to be done both by the Centre and the States to lessen the discretionary power of government, ensure greater transparency and accountability, and create awareness amongst citizens. The Right to Information Act empowers the people to demand improved governance and, as government, we must be ready to respond to this demand.

Quick and inexpensive dispensation of justice is an aspect of good governance which is of fundamental importance in a successful society..... Justice delayed is justice denied. Delays cost money and, therefore, it is impossible for the poor to access justice. Fundamental reforms are needed to give justice two essential attributes: speed and affordability".

9. The Approach Document also stresses, amongst other things, improvement of delivery systems, removal of poverty, use of modern and cutting edge technologies in project planning and implementation, e-Governance, balanced regional growth, environmental sustainability, high growth rate (9%) with equity, inclusive development, infrastructural improvements, health and education for all, employment creation, gender balancing and effective monitoring of outcomes instead of outlays and expenditures. Most of these objectives are clearly related to human development and removal of inequalities.

10. Recently, the Prime Minister of India, Dr. Man Mohan Singh, in an address at the Indian School of Business underlined the need for an Indian Model of Management. He said, "*Even as we learn from the West and the East, we must try to evolve our own paradigms*

*of management education based on our own social and cultural attributes. The ideas and models that have been developed to deal with more universal management situations will need to be modified. I would caution against adopting a 'helicopter' model in taking modern management practices to rural areas. Grass root experience should inform management concepts, so that new management techniques can transform grass root practices"* (Economic Times 09.12.06). Addressing senior most bureaucrats at the Awards of Excellence in Public Administration function in New Delhi, as recently as on 21.04.07, the Prime Minister said again, "Civil servants have to shift from being controllers to facilitators and from being providers to enablers..... I view the reform of government as a means of making citizens central to all government activities". Reforms in administration would actually imply allowing people to play a bigger role in decision - making, added the Prime Minister with emphasis. Civil servants must become agents of change and master new technologies and new styles of functioning in order to play that role.

### **II. Governance Reform Responses in Uttar Pradesh**

11. Following policy changes at the Centre in economic and fiscal domains, the 73rd and the 74<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendments recognizing local bodies as institutions of self governance with listed functional assignments, the ongoing national debate on improving the systems of public administration and the important Chief Minister's Conference of 1998 convened by the Centre, an assessment was made towards the end of the last decade by the U.P. State Government of the factors that were impinging negatively on economic growth and also giving rise to increasing fiscal difficulties. A diagnostic appraisal brought out the following weaknesses:

- (a) Weak governance that manifested itself in poor service delivery.
- (b) Excessive regulation in some areas and lack of regulation in others. Uncoordinated public spending.
- (c) Lack of transparency, accountability and responsiveness in public services. Growing corruption.
- (d) Poor financial management. High fiscal and revenue deficits forcing the State to resort to imprudent debt financing. Poor tax/GSDP ratio. High cost of governance. Poor expenditure efficiency and treasury control.
- (e) Low levels of human development.
- (f) Loss making, overstretched and non-performing public sector undertakings that constituted heavy financial burden on the State's exchequer.

- (g) Serious bottlenecks relating to infrastructure, both social and physical,
- (h) Poor grievance redressal,
- (i) Obsolescence of many old laws,

12. In November, 1998, the Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Unit (South Asia. Region) of the World Bank brought out a report about the fiscal crisis faced by U.P. Sensing the acute financial crisis facing the State, the Government brought out a White Paper in 1998-99 calling for quick and multiple responses to correct the situation. In March 2000, GOUP came out with a Policy Paper on Reforms in Governance that, importantly, sought to redefine the government. It came out with a paradigm shift while stating that “the role of the State Government will progressively change with less emphasis on direct provision of goods and services and more on setting policy, contracting out, mandating, regulating, facilitating or financing economic and social services through private sector”. Deregulation and divestment were identified as thrust areas for which high level bodies (High Powered Deregulation Committee and Divestment Commission) were set up. The essential strategies included: (a) Role redefinition of the Government, (b) Bringing transparency and accountability to government functioning by increasing people’s access to information, (c) Quick grievance removal and vigorously combating corruption, (d) Renewal of civil services through right-sizing, restructuring and strict performance appraisals, (e) Institutional as well as administrative decentralization, (f) Financial management reforms, (g) Public participation in governance through voluntary action mobilization, etc. The policy document also spelt out the government’s intention to bring down its personnel numbers by 2% a year till 2004, constitute Policy Planning Cells (PPCs) in all departments, develop and implement organizational performance indicators, give high priority to HRD issues like training, tenure security and transfer norms, and modernize office technology in terms of computerization, e-Governance and quick communication systems. Sound financial management, budgeting and expenditure reforms and effective auditing were the other needed intervention areas flagged.

13. Following the announcement of the new Governance Policy (2000), many consequential measures were taken by the State Government. Some of these are listed below by way of illustration:

- (i) A ban on recruitment of government staff was put in place so as to move towards right-sizing through the normal attrition processes.
- (ii) High level bodies for divestment, deregulation and expenditure efficiencies were constituted who submitted their reports and recommendations.

- (iii) More functions and powers were decentralized to Panchayati Raj bodies but this process, unfortunately, got reversed in subsequent years. This amounted to reform retrogradation.
- (iv) Each service providing department/agency was required to prepare and disseminate widely Citizen Charters that would indicate, in clear terms, the kind of service available, its quality, price, location and the grievance removal system set-up. Unfortunately, again, such Charters have remained only as paper announcements without having been effectively operationalized.
- (v) GOUP initiated the “U.P. Fiscal Reform and Public Sector Restructuring Programme”. A key step in this respect was the preparation of Medium Term Fiscal Policy (MTFP) that was placed before the State Legislature.
- (vi) Power Sector reforms constituted a high thrust policy area. A new State Power Policy was formulated in 2003 consequent upon coming into effect the new Central Electricity Act of the same year. The U.P. Electricity Reforms Act 1999 was enforced from January 14<sup>th</sup> 2000. Earlier, the U.P. Electricity Regulatory Commission had been set up in 1998. A strong Anti-Electricity Theft law was promulgated. The UPSEB was unbundled but this process has remained incomplete even as of now.
- (vii) One of the most important measures taken in 2004 was the enactment of the U.P. Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management law, the main objectives of which are to induct strict fiscal management principles and bring about transparency in financial matters.
- (viii) The treasury system in the State was computerized right down from the State to the district level.
- (ix) In many areas, the State Government developed new policies and institutional arrangements like the setting up of the *Udyog Bandhu*, *Avas Bandhu* and similar other one-window systems. Some of the important policy areas covered were population, agriculture, forestry, water management, road development, PSUs, public services, information technology uses, computerization, industrial development, housing, etc.
- (x) For bringing about transparency executive orders were issued for providing access to public documents with suitable exceptions listed. A Right to Information law has since been enacted by the Central Government that has become operative w.e.f. 12.10.05 and is applicable to all States. This is a powerful law that makes citizens’ access to public information a right, barring certain specified exceptions.

14. The above steps are only a few typical examples of policy and legal initiatives taken by the State Government following the announced Governance Policy of 2000. Other steps have, in one form or the other, covered areas like public health, education, rural employment, social welfare, poverty alleviation, women's empowerment, sustainable land / water management, etc.

15. Many other measures have since been taken by the State Government, in recent years, to carry forward the reforms agenda. Some of these, as mentioned in the Annual State Plan documents, may be briefly mentioned here:

- (a) The empowerment of PRIs, "to decide taxes, duties and tolls for which Panchayats will be authorized".
- (b) Drinking water and sanitation schemes (270) have been transferred to Gram Panchayats for O & M.
- (c) Functions of 9 Departments are said to have been transferred to Gram Panchayats with fund transfers in respect of 6 and functionary transfers in respect of 5 departments. This, too, is an area for verification.
- (d) GPs are required to prominently display all vital information regarding funds received by them under different heads, works completed and funds utilized, for public information.
- (e) Access to information in the PRI system is now mandated to be ensured by the Right to Information law of 2005.
- (f) Under the National Rural Health Mission, Village Health Committees are being entrusted with implementation responsibilities. Similarly Village Education Committees (VECs) have been constituted to oversee the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.
- (g) Training and capacity building programmes for PRIs are being strengthened and expanded and an independent State Level Training Centre is being set up.
- (h) It has been decided to computerize all Gram Panchayats with population of 5000 or more in the first phase. The objective is to introduce IT enabled e-Governance in the entire PRI system in a phased manner.
- (i) Maintaining of accounts by PRIs on standardized formats and audit by chartered accountants has been made compulsory.
- (j) The State Government has taken an important decision to constitute District Planning Committees as per provision of 73 rd & 74th constitutional amendments. The district planning committees have been subsequently constituted and elections are underway to select the members of DPC as provided in District Planning Committee Act-1999.
- (k) In case of urban local bodies (ULBs) rule making powers have been delegated to Divisional Commissioners in respect of Nagar Panchayats (NPs) and Nagar Palika Parishads (NPPs). Financial powers of the Chairpersons of NP/NPPs and of Nagar Ayukts have been enhanced. Area-based self-assessment of property tax has been introduced in Nagar Nigams in the first phase.
- (l) The policy of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) has been accepted and adopted by the State Government in various forms in areas like infrastructure, providing of services, etc.
- (m) Many reforms have been introduced in the power sector. In this sector the initiatives taken in recent years (from 1998 onwards) have been important and, in some ways, path breaking. The UP Electricity Reforms Act was passed in 1999. Earlier, the State Regulatory Commission for Electricity was set up in 1998. UPSEB was unbundled into three companies and KESA transferred to a corporate entity in 2003. An Electricity Anti-theft law was adopted in 2002 and four DISCOMs set up in 2003 to take care of electricity distribution in the whole State. In 2003-04 UPSEB loans of Rs.12277 crore were written off by the State Govt. and share capital of Rs.5906 crore provided for generation companies. The State Govt. committed itself to making yearly contributions to Pension Trust Funds of power companies. It also took over a liability of Rs.1634 crore relating to provident fund of the power sector staff. More recently several large sized power projects have been assigned to private entrepreneurs and Power Purchase Agreements (PPAs) signed with them in 2006.
- (n) New policies were developed for sectors like Agriculture, Energy, Road Development, Health, Population, Industrial and Services Sector Investments, ICT Applications, Water Management, etc. to give a push to the pace of development and also introduce a degree of regulation as needed.
- (o) Public enterprises have historically been a drain on the State. To address the problem a reform policy for this sector was evolved and adopted in 2000. Loss making PEs were closed. VRS was introduced in many cases. The number of PEs had come down very substantially to 37 by 2003-04.

### III. Fiscal Scenario and Reforms

16. Uttar Pradesh was a revenue surplus State till about 1987. Thereafter, for more than a decade and a half, the fiscal situation progressively deteriorated (see Chapter 1, Section IX). Revenue deficit, that was *Rs. 1149 crore* in 1993-94, *rose of Rs. 5117 crore* in 2002-03. Gross fiscal deficit climbed from *Rs. 3166 crore* in

1993-94 to Rs.9497 crore in 2002-03. Correspondingly, the debt burden shot up, too, from Rs.36145 crore in 1997-98 (31.2% of GSDP) to Rs.1,26,526 crore in 2005-06 (49.2% of GSDP). In the nineties, a persistently mounting fiscal crisis situation developed in the State. In 1998-99 a White Paper was issued by the State Government outlining the critical dimensions of the situation with a view to creating public awareness and, consequently, a climate for reforms. A Medium Term Fiscal Reforms Policy (MTFRP) was tabled in the State Legislature in 2000-01 and a Medium Term Fiscal Framework (MTFP), which was later revised in 2003-04, was developed. It laid down milestones for reduction of fiscal and revenue deficits, for expenditure saving and its efficient management, and for effective audit functions. In 2004, the State enacted its Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management law which, again, laid down clear time lines for reducing fiscal deficit, eliminating revenue deficit and bringing down the debt burden of the State to 25% of its GSDP by 2018. Simultaneously, the Central Government, at the instance of the 12<sup>th</sup> Finance Commission, took many steps for improving State finances. High interest bearing State loans were to be swapped for lower interest borrowings with longer rescheduled return durations. Central devolution to States was increased to 30.5%. A special debt write-off scheme for States linked to fiscal reforms was introduced. The State Government also tightened its tax collection machinery and, in some ways, expanded the tax base. All these steps and others, put together, have very considerably improved the fiscal situation in U.P. (Table 8.1).

17. As would be clear from Table 8.1, there has been a marked turn around in many fiscal indicators. The balance from current revenue which was minus Rs.5456 crore in 2001-02 has got converted into plus Rs.5543 crore as per BE 2006-07. Revenue deficit has

been wiped out and a revenue surplus of Rs.1123 crore is envisaged for 2006-07. The interest ratio has taken a steep and healthy plunge from 31% in 2001-02 to 17% in 2006-07. The State's own tax-GSDP ratio has moved up from 5.7% in 2001-02 to 8.2% in 2006-07. The debt burden is, however, still very heavy at Rs.1,37,915 crore (B.E. 2006-07), though its ratio to the State's GSDP is expected to fall from 50.2% in 2004-05 to 47.9% in 06-07. There are still some areas of concern. The cost of governance is even now high. The liability of pay, pension and interest put together stands at Rs.33,338 crore (BE 2006-07) which constitutes 60.7% of the State's total revenue expenditure. Though this percentage has also been falling in recent years but it is still high as of now. There is much scope for widening the tax and non-tax base for improving resources. At the same time better accounting oversight, audit and expenditure control can make every rupee go further to reach the real benefits to the citizen.

18. Many other steps have been taken for improving the fiscal management in the State. The computerization of treasuries up to the district level is a good achievement. Computerization of departmental accounts up to the drawing / disbursing officer level, which is essential for further improving financial management, is yet to be achieved. There is also need for setting up a well staffed and competent Cash and Debt Management Wing in the Finance Department.

19. The process of budgeting has to undergo many corrections and improvements. The budget calendar needs changing to ensure proper pre-budget scrutiny of SNDs. The size of supplementary demands has been ballooning making the very process of budgeting dimensionally inaccurate and adhoc. The phenomenon of multiple supplementary budgets in the same financial year does not reflect healthy financial discipline. The Contingency Fund Management also needs correction.

**Table 8.1: Indicators of U.P.'s Fiscal Health in Recent Years**

Indicator	2001-02 (Actual)	2004-05 (Actual)	2005-06 (R.E.)	2006-07 (B.E.)
1. Balance from Current Revenues (BCR) in Rs. crore	-5456	-5409	+279	+5543
2. Interest Ratio (%)	31	30	21	17
3. Total tax receipts/GSDP ratio (%)	11.3	13.4	14.8	15.5
4. States' Own Tax Income/GSDP ratio (%)	5.7	7.0	7.7	8.2
5. Capital Outlays/ Capital Receipts ratio (%)	32	32	74	93
6. Debt/GSDP ratio (%)	44	50.2	49.2	47.9
7. Revenue Deficit in Rs. crore	6181	6993	3132	-1123
8. Fiscal Deficit in Rs. crore	9898	12998	13168	12712
9. Revenue Deficit/Fiscal Deficit ratio (%)	62.5	53.8	23.8	-8.8

Source: Budget Documents of U.P. Government.



The PLA and DCL arrangements have been curbed but not phased out wholly. Budget releases are, even now, not spread out to harmonize revenue inflows and expenditure streams. The tendency to incessantly draw down the public account is by no means a prudent fiscal path either.

20. Transparency in budget preparation, decentralization of financial powers, computerization of accounts across the board with horizontal and vertical electronic network connectivity, a law on procurement and awarding of contracts, phasing out of State guarantees on various types of loans raised by non-governmental bodies, and making of concurrent and post-audit arrangements more effective are some of the other matters that demand urgent attention in financial management improvement contexts. There is also need for greater legislative oversight on public expenditure. Another matter that demands a quick look is the burden of pensions (Rs.4541 crore in BE 2006-07) which is steadily rising. A solution to this problem has to be found or else this escalating burden may be difficult to bear in the coming years.

#### IV. Rule of law

21. For a fair and just society to sustain itself, an elemental need is the Rule of Law. The question that crops up often in public debate, particularly in the context of human development, social equity and disposition of political and economic power, is whether rule of law obtains. The social and political reality is that respect for law has dwindled. For good and citizen-friendly governance, restoration of the rule of law is a dire need of the time. Laws must respond to changing social and economic situations. Laws must be administered impartially. All, including the powerful,

must be subject to law equally, without exception. Infractions must be penalized - promptly, openly and fairly.

22. Development planning, in order to succeed, requires peace and order. This is surely an important aspect of good governance that demands both urgent attention and action. Some efforts in this direction have been made but much more remains to be done. It is the perception of the citizen, in safety and security contexts, that matters most. Some recent reported figures about the incidence of main crimes in the State would be relevant here (Table 8.2).

23. As the table indicates that there has been fall in the incidence of main crimes except in the case of dowry deaths but these figures do not reflect the crimes that are simply not registered. The number of crimes against SC / ST have gone up considerably, from 2,690 in 2004 to 4,104 in 2006, which is a matter of concern. Similarly, crimes against women have also increased from 13,756 in 2004 to 14,925 in 2006. There have been sharp rises in excise and essential commodities related registered cases. Recovery of explosives has shown over a hundred fold rise. The number of illegal country arms factories detected nearly doubled from 612 in 2004 to 1,188 in 2006. More encounters with militants, dacoits and Naxalites have been reported in 2006 than in 2004. In 2006, under IPC 118,195 cases were reported and in 69% of these cases charge sheets are said to have been filed by 31.12.06. The figures for 2006 also indicate that stolen property was valued at Rs.92.11 crore and 42.6% of it is reported to have been recovered.

24. Naxalism is on the rise, particularly in the eastern parts of Uttar Pradesh. Similarly, infiltration of unsocial elements from Nepal border is yet another problem facing the State. In the area of policing several

**Table 8.2: Incidence of Main Crimes in Uttar Pradesh (2004-2006)**

S.No.	Type of Crime	2006	2005	2004	Changes from 2005 to 2006 (%)	Changes from 2004-2006(%)
1.	Dacoities	105	220	269	-52%	-61%
2.	Loot	1625	1838	2126	-12%	-24%
3.	Murders	5482	5790	6143	-5%	-11%
4.	Riots	3420	3913	3834	-13%	-11%
5.	Trespass	3622	3740	4463	-3%	-19%
6.	Road Hold ups	6	7	7	-14%	-14%
7.	Ransom	109	141	224	-23%	-51%
8.	Dowry Deaths	1795	1552	1673	-16%	7%
9.	Rapes	1161	1186	1343	-2%	-14%
10.	Total IPC	118195	117748	125380	0.38%	-6%

Source: Director General of Police, U.P.

reform measures are needed. The Soli Sorabji Committee appointed by the Central Government (Police Act Drafting Committee - PADC) has given many valuable suggestions for empowering the police, for redefining superintendence, performance, evaluation and training, for insulation of the force from extraneous influences, for improving of capabilities and working conditions, etc. The Supreme Court, in 2006, laid down a road map for police reforms which, inter alia, covers the setting up of National and State Security Commissions, fixed tenures for DGPs / IGs / DIGs / SPs and SHOs, separation of law and order and investigation wings, etc. Then, there is the justice Malimath Commission Report of 2003 which has many valuable suggestions for improving policing and the criminal justice system. These are land mark directions and recommendations and it is for the respective governments to implement them in the interest of improving the internal security environment in the country and in the States and citizen perception of safety and order.

25. A word about human rights would be appropriate here. In 2003-04 and 2004-05, the highest numbers of complaints about the infraction of such rights that were received by the National Human Rights Commission were from U.P. The State Human Rights Commission (SHRC), according to its annual report of 2003-04, registered 5829 cases in that year, of which 4896 were disposed of. The maximum number (1593) emerged from Lucknow Division and the minimum (53) from Saharanpur Division. The largest proportion of these cases related to the Police Department. The SHRC has complained of non cooperation by Government Departments and inordinate delays in the compliance of it's orders. For protecting the rights of vulnerable sections of the society, several other Commissions have been set up in U.P., viz., SC and ST Commission, Minorities Commission, Women's Commission and Backward Classes Commission. These are statutory bodies which have important functions in the area of protecting the rights and promoting the interests of these sections. These bodies have to be strengthened and empowered so that they can perform their functions more effectively.

26. The other side of the law and order coin is the administration of justice which, unfortunately, has become highly dilatory, expensive and unaffordable for the common citizen. If justice becomes difficult to access from the judicial fora, it is sought, many a time, to be had on the street leading to breakdown of the rule of law which is counterproductive for human development. Delay in the administration of justice is a critical issue that has to be addressed with dispatch. Many steps are needed which, among others, would include improving and expediting investigations, increasing the number of courts, introducing double shifts, decentralization of the dispensing of justice, re-energizing and widening the role of Lok Adalats and the Legal Aid System, enhancing the

scope of summary procedures, plea bargaining, compounding, eliminating unending adjournments, wide use of ICT and computerization in courts, etc.

## V. Combating Corruption

27. Corruption is a great enemy of human development. It is both a menace and a challenge. Nearly two centuries ago Edmund Burke observed, "Among the people generally corrupt, liberty cannot long exist". When, during the Second World War, France fell to Germany, the renowned French thinker, Romain Rolland, said with anguish, "France fell because there was corruption without indignation". This is, by and large, the situation confronting us in the country and in the State. The fact of the matter is that, in many ways, the politico-administrative realm has disconnected itself from the moral realm. The virus of corruption has spread through out the social, economic, administrative and political fabric of the State. Mass culture has evolved and grown. Power has glamour, clout, immunity. It legitimizes, per se, its claimed achievements whether these have materialized or not, with disdain for the common man. Corruption has become an easy means to achieving wealth and power. In the process, to an extent, the servants of the state have become, or are being treated, as servants of powers that be. Transparency International ranked India 70<sup>th</sup> amongst nearly 100 countries evaluated in 2006 and its corruption perception index was 3.3 on a score range of 0-10. In a 7000 company survey carried out by the global consultancy firm, Grant Thornton, in 2006, 34% of Indian companies found red-tapism to be the single biggest constraint for expansion. In a 2005 countrywide survey carried out by Times of India, 60% of the respondents said corruption was the most serious problem that India faced.

28. Robert Klitgaard, a noted international consultant has briefly outlined the four components of an 'Anti-Corruption Strategy', namely, punish some major offenders; involve the people in diagnosing corrupt systems; focus on prevention by repairing corrupt systems; and, reform incentives. The anti-corruption strategy of State Government will need to be formulated keeping in mind the aforesaid components. Corruption needs to be curbed with a firm hand. It is possible to do so by acting simultaneously on many fronts. Some specific suggestions are proffered here:

- I. Strict action against 'big fish' to denote State's commitment to 'zero tolerance' of corruption: This would involve quickly sanctioning prosecution of public servants in cases where anti-corruption agencies have sought permission for the same. Recently it has come to light that State Government had not issued sanction for prosecution in over 750 cases and the Government was goaded into belated action at the instance of the High Court. Likewise, officers charge sheeted

in cases under Prevention of Corruption Act must also not be allowed to hold any government post till their names are cleared by the Court. Officers of All India Services and other Provincial Service Officers must not only be 'clean' but also beyond suspicion.

- II. Involvement of people in catching the corrupt public servants: Strengthening of Vigilance and Anti-Corruption Machinery organizationally, logistics-wise, authority-wise, skill-wise and technology-wise is urgently required. They should also have high quality legal support and efforts must be made to ensure fast track disposal of corruption cases in courts. There is also a need to strengthen the institution of Lok Ayukt at the State level. However, there should be a mechanism of involving the people in catching the corrupt public servants as they are the ones who suffer the most from corruption. This could involve independent annual rating of Government Departments on 'Transparency & Integrity Index' by an independent non-governmental agency based on feedback from public, effectiveness of 'anti-corruption' measures taken by the Department and level of transparency in conducting Government business.
- III. Prevention of corruption by carrying out 'systemic reforms': Prevent corruption rather than deal mainly with its curative aspects only. This can be done by adopting open, transparent and decentralized systems of governance, by improving surveillance at all levels, by putting on the ground a well-oiled, performing grievance removal machinery, by adopting e-Governance through ICT utilization, by providing multiple-agency decision-making through one-window systems, by actually and effectively operationalizing Citizen Charters to be provided and implemented by public service providers, by convergence of delivery systems, by really empowering PRIs / ULBs, and by enlisting media and NGO co-operation. Further, there should be regular declaration of assets (both movable and immovable) by public servants with periodic verification on random basis. This data should also be placed on the web site as is presently being done with the affidavits filed by contesting candidates by the Election Commission. Government should also enact a whistle blowing law at the State level apart from legislation allowing forfeiture of property of corrupt public servants. The *Benami* Transaction (Prohibition) Act has been passed by the Parliament as far back as in 1988. Unfortunately, it has not yet been notified for enforcement. This needs to be done without delay.
- IV. Reform incentives to honest public servants: The rot that has set in bureaucracy can be removed

only when State Government begins to take effective steps to arrest the demoralization that has set in among honest public servants by bestowing 'suitable' public award, posting them at positions where they can show their mettle and make a difference to the lives of ordinary people.

29. Corruption is, indeed, a dangerous threat that needs to be countered through all means available - social, political, legal, judicial, penal and administrative. It is caused and nurtured by multiple institutional failures, by the dwindling fear of law, by elections becoming frighteningly costly, by growing consumerism and cultural hedonism, by ostentatious life style and, importantly, by its social acceptance. The day society learns to look down upon corruption socially it would be the day when its palpable decline would begin.

#### Box 8.1

##### Gulabi Brigade in Chitrakoot Dham Division

There has been an interesting development in the last two years in the backward and poverty stricken districts of Banda and Chitrakoot in Uttar Pradesh. Groups of illiterate rural women have come together to oppose injustice, corruption and non-performance of duties by public servants. As reported in the local press, wherever members of this Brigade come to know about any wrong-doing, act of corruption by any public servant, they gather in a group, wear pink (gulabi) sarees and gherao the concerned public servant and do not lift the gherao till their demands are fulfilled. The very presence of the all-women group and the consequent publicity in media has instilled an element of fear among corrupt public servants.

## VI. Democratic Decentralization

30. In democracies the best government is that which is nearest to the people. Use of local institutions, local knowledge, local empowerment, local decision-making and local resources (supplemented by appropriate resource transfers from higher levels of government) - these are, recognizably, some of the key features of democratic decentralization. The Indian Constitution, for decades, recognized only two levels of government - the Centre and the State. Then came the landmark 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> Amendments in 1992 that recognized PRIs / ULBs as institutions of self-governance and provided detailed listings of their functional assignments (Schedules 11 & 12). These listings, alas, are as of now, only enabling and not mandatory. It is left to State Governments to empower these bodies. The process and content, as well as pace of devolution which is the crux of power to local bodies are vested wholly with them. The subject of Panchayati Raj is included in the State list of the 7<sup>th</sup> Schedule.

## Panchayati Raj Institutions

31. Panchayats in U.P. are still weak in terms of empowerment and in respect of functions, funds and functionaries. Following the enactment of the historical 73<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional Amendment, the State Government set up the Bajaj Commission in 1994 to suggest measures for strengthening the three tiered PRI system. Consequent upon the submission of its report, in 1999, the Government introduced some important changes in the structuring and functions of PRIs. By executive orders it transferred functions of eleven departments and functionaries of eight departments to Gram Panchayats in 1999. The *Adhyaksha* of the *Zila Panchayat* was made the Chairperson of the DRDA as well of the '*Sinchai Bandhu*'. Kshetra Panchayats were entrusted with the task of overseeing the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of programmes related to rural development, the responsibility of supervising primary health centres and veterinary hospitals at the block level and were asked to maintain the government buildings and properties transferred to them. The U.P. District Planning Committees Act, as mandated by the 74<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendment of 1992, was adopted seven year later in 1999. It has now been given effect to in actuality.

32. There is a general feeling that the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> amendments have not been effective in U.P. in enlarging the functional domain of rural PRIs in a meaningful way. The required measure of devolution of powers, functions and resources has not materialized in this State so far. The line departments and agencies, in most cases, continue to function on their own in respect of functions marked for PRIs. The fact that bureaucratic control over *Panchayats* continues in a large measure is the ground reality.

33. The incompleteness of devolution becomes manifest because the conformity laws only loosely state the functions that stand devolved to PRIs without an exact assignment of activities to be carried out at the three tiers of these bodies. In other words the State Governments appear to be hesitant and tardy about notifying the *activity mapping* that would guide the devolution of functions to *Gram*, *Kshetra* and *Zila Panchayats*. At this point of time Kerala, Karnataka, West Bengal and Sikkim are reported to have made distinct progress in this direction. This is what should happen in Uttar Pradesh, too. The principle of subsidiarity ought to guide the process. Anything that can be done at a lower level of government should not vest in any higher level.

34. Decentralization implies multiple types of devolution and delegation (the so called 3 Fs), namely, functions, functionaries and funds. But, that by itself, is not enough. There is also a clear need for rights of local governments over those local resources that are critical for the livelihood and survival of rural people.

The situation at present is that, among 27 States, only 7 have devolved all 29 functions listed in Schedule 11 to Panchayats. Only Karnataka has reportedly handed over functionaries and funds to PRIs for all 29 subjects. In Kerala this number is 26 for all the three Fs. These two States are already devolving nearly 34% and 40% of their respective State Annual Budgets to PRIs. What is required is that GOUP must similarly articulate unambiguously the devolution of functions, finances and functionaries to PRIs and should undertake comprehensive *activity mapping* for all the three tiers of these institutions.

35. Only 14 States have so far constituted DPCs. Now U.P. has also operationalized this constitutional provision. The Planning Commission has now mandated for the Eleventh Plan that every Annual State Plan will be a consolidation of Draft District Development Plans prepared by respective DPCs. The Ministry of Panchayati Raj (GOI) has launched two drives, viz. *Panchayati Mahila Shakti Abhiyan* (PMSA) and *Panchayat Yuva Shakti Abhiyan* (PYSA) in collaboration with some State Governments to energize women and young people to participate in overseeing the devolution of the three Fs to PRIs and take an active interest in monitoring the outputs and impacts of citizen related services. U.P. Government should take full advantage of these drives so as to strengthen the PRI system in the State in governance as well as service delivery contexts.

36. The role of panchayats is expanding. It will continue to do so in future, too. More and more resources will get transferred to them. The GOI has suggested that PRIs should raise at least 20% of their budgets as their own revenues. According to the Central Task Force of officials in charge of PRIs in States, in 2004-05, the total transfers to States under Centrally Sponsored, Centrally Assisted and the Backward Regions Grant Fund (BRGF) amounted to a massive total of Rs.62,674 crore. In the country 2,33,699 *Gram Panchayats* were implementing more than 190 such schemes. In addition, there are devolutions from the Central and State Governments (based on recommendations of respective Finance Commissions) and own resources of PRIs. The sheer logic of these developments is that capacity building of PRIs is must, a clear priority.

37. Unless empowered and participatory decentralization is promoted with political and administrative conviction and commitment, and concretized at the grass root level and peoples' institutions are restored, revitalized and strengthened in terms of authority, organizational wherewithal and resources, these bodies will remain disempowered and the task of inculcating a full sense of belonging in the citizen, of removing of inequities and poverty, and of reaching economic and social benefits to the common man, specially the poor and the weak, will remain largely unachieved.

## Urban Local Bodies

38. Over one-fifth of U.P. lives in urban locations. Over 37.5 million people live in 623 cities and towns. What is a matter of concern in human development terms is that, over 9 million people live in urban slums. Their economic and social problems are acute. They suffer severe deprivation and exclusion. They lack access, shelter, education, public health cover, sanitation, potable water and livelihood means.

39. Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) in Uttar Pradesh are weak bodies in terms of resources, management capacities and real functional devolution. Article 243-W of the Constitution refers to the powers, authority and responsibilities that the legislature of a State may by law devolve upon municipal bodies. The functions listed in Schedule 12 are wide-based and, *inter alia*, include urban planning (including town planning), regulation of land use and construction of buildings, infrastructure, economic planning, slum improvement, health and sanitation, promotion of cultural and environmental well being, etc. Following the 74<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendment, GOUP adopted the needed conformity legislation. The *Nagar Palika* and *Nagar Nigam* related laws were amended. The steps taken resulted in some improvements. The representation of weaker sections got expanded and women got one third seats reserved for them. Elections to chairpersons of these bodies were now direct, based on universal adult franchise. The tenure of these bodies was safeguarded. Ward committees were constituted in cities of over three lakh population. The financial powers of *Mukhya Nagar Adhikaris* (MNAs) and Chairpersons of NPPs/NPs were enhanced. Devolution to ULBs was raised to 7.5% of the State's tax income on the recommendations of the Second State Finance Commission. These are some of the pluses but, barring the mandatory provisions of the 74<sup>th</sup> Amendment and increased devolutions, the rest of what has been done so far has been insufficient for making ULBs really autonomous and performing institutions of self-governance. The resource base of ULBs in the State is narrow. Tax and non-tax income is very limited (per capita own income of ULBs in U.P. was a mere Rs.51.29 in 1997-98 against the national average of Rs.290.03). By 1999-2000, 57.58% of total financial resources of *Nagar Nigams* came from State Finance Commission recommended devolution. In respect of *Nagar Palikas* own revenue constituted only 20.81% of their total financial resources (SFC based devolution contributing 71.5%). Tax and non-tax assessments are often incomplete. Collection efficiencies are low. Not a single ULB in the State has been able to get credit rating for tapping institutional or bank finances. The need is to improve ULB, resources through enhanced devolutions, by diversifying and deepening the existing tax and non-tax bases, by expanding their tax/non tax assignments, by eliminating leakages, by rationalizing user charges,

by improving financial management and collection efficiencies, by promoting appropriate public-private partnerships and by tapping institutional credit.

40. Urban governance is an issue of importance. ULBs suffer from certain basic handicaps in this context. They do not command adequate financial resources. They are subjected to rigid government control leaving them little room for initiatives and innovations. They do not have the managerial and organizational capacities to provide and deliver the growing needs of civic services and infrastructure. A host of Government Departments, agencies, parastatals and institutions perform some of those very functions which should rightfully fall in the domain of ULBs. Thus, for example, we have the Development Authorities, *Jal Nigam*, *Jal Santhans*, SPCB, the Town and Country Planning Department, SUDA and others who are doing things which ULBs ought to do. This confusing institutional overlapping diffuses responsibility, creates coordination problems and adversely impacts success of legitimate urban governance.

41. The issue of the capacity of ULBs as instruments of efficient delivery of services is germane to their managerial arrangements, technical capabilities and administrative competence. Urban governance is highly complex in view of rapidly escalating demographic, economic and commercial pressures on cities. At present, ULBs lack trained city managers, urban planners, financial experts, health and environment specialists. At supervisory and para levels ULB staff is neither fully qualified nor trained for the tasks they are required to perform. HRD in these bodies is tragically a neglected area. While responsibilities, functions and tasks of ULBs are becoming more and more complex, the capacities of the personnel are not built to meet the growing challenges. Similarly, training exposure to elected representatives is wanting. A well staffed and equipped State Academy of Urban Administration with subsidiary regional units is the need of the day in order to increase capacities and capabilities of ULBs in different fields and aspects of urban management.

42. Citizen engagement in city/town management is by and large missing. Grievance removal is an unattended area. These are serious gaps in urban governance that have to be addressed so that the quality of urban life can improve, more particularly for the poor and the slum dwellers, and clean city/town environments are provided. Some of these gaps and action steps needed to address them are mentioned below:

- (i) Real empowerment of these bodies through governmental commitment,
- (ii) Capacity building, HRD, resource mobilization and expenditure efficiency accompanied by accountability and transparency at all levels,
- (iii) Active involvement and participation of citizens

in governance processes. Quick grievance removal and effective use of Citizen Charters,

- (iv) Quality services and facilities be made available to citizens at affordable prices so that cities/towns become environmentally benign and socially supportive,
- (v) Enrichment of the socio-economic and cultural life of city/town dwellers.

43. Accountability to urban citizens can be achieved also through decentralization of responsibilities and involving people in monitoring the performance of service providers. Citizen Report Cards (CRCs) can play an important role in overseeing and measuring the satisfaction of people about the quality and timeliness of services provided by a municipal body or any other public agency including parastatals and other quasi-governmental organizations. CRC systems have already been tried in cities like Bangalore, Mumbai, Ahmedabad and Hyderabad with varying results. On the whole, the results have been positive.

44. Cities are busy hives of economic and social activities, of rapid technological changes and innovations, of educational, cultural and artistic development. At the same time, they face a variety of problems - heavy population pressures, incessant immigration, crowding and traffic snarls, unemployment, poor infrastructure, sharp economic inequalities, tense living, high incidence of crime, sprawling slums, deteriorating environments, felt citizen insecurity and mounting social anomie. The challenges of urban governance are more pronounced and acute. They demand urgent and special responses.

## VII. Right to Information

45. In open democratic systems transparency and accountability are the essential ingredients of good governance. Accountability is to be understood in terms of the discharging of the trust of public duty by public agencies and public servants, of standards of performance and of the quality of security and of services delivered to citizens. All this is possible when people have access to information relating to the functioning of public agencies. The people's right to know has been recognized by the higher courts as a fundamental right under articles 19 and 21 of the Constitution. According to the eminent jurist, Soli.J.Sorabjee, "Information is power. And that is why every administration, whatever be its political colour, tries to withhold or manipulate information. People need information to enforce accountability of their rulers". More than two and a half decades ago, in 1980, the Supreme Court of India, in its landmark judgement in S. P. Gupta's case, ruled that: "No democratic government can survive without accountability, and the basic postulate of accountability is that people should have information about the

functioning of the Government. It is only if the people know how the Government is functioning that they can fulfill the role that democracy assigns to them, and make democracy really a participatory democracy". This logical formulation by the highest court in the country was precisely the rationale for a Right to Information law but, unfortunately, it took nearly 25 years to be formulated and enacted for the whole of the country in 2005.

46. The movement for right to information in India grew from grass root levels in Rajasthan in the nineties. A group of activists organized a sit out in Beawar. A crowd of villagers gathered for a *Janasunwai* (public hearing). Villagers sought details of expenditure on public works sanctioned and executed through their Gram Panchayat. The details of such funding and expenditure incurred were read out. Villagers complained that works undertaken as mentioned were either incomplete or not executed at all. There was resistance in providing correct information. Then, suddenly, the powerful voice of a village woman, Nevathe Bhai, who grabbed the mike, rang loud and clear "*Hamara Paisa, Hamara Hisaab*". She effectually linked the right to information to livelihood. This was the seeding of a mass campaign that received wide based NGO support. The judiciary upheld the people's demand for public information. The movement snowballed and resulted in many States enacting RTIs laws. Goa and Tamil Nadu became pioneers in this context in 1997. Seven other States followed suit during 2002 to 2004. A Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) was centrally enacted in 2004, but it never became operational. Finally, the Central Government introduced a new RTI Bill in the Parliament on 23.12.2004 which got converted into law in May, 2005.

47. RTI-2005 is indeed a powerful and enabling law. It is a progressive, participative and, potentially, highly citizen-empowering piece of legislation. It covers the executive, judicial and legislative wings of the Central and State Governments, public institutions, and even private bodies information from whom can be accessed under a law in force by a public authority. The crux lies in sincerely, effectively and unreservedly implementing the law. It demands full political and administrative commitment at all levels of governance, changed mind-sets and attitudes of officials and public agencies, organizational support and honest enforcement. There is, at the same time, need for wide-based awareness of the citizenry, specially the common man, the poor and the powerless, in respect of which the media, voluntary activist groups and civil society collectivities should and would have to play a vital role.

48. Information has been well recognized as power. If those who govern or provide services and goods, and citizens who are supposed to be the real beneficiaries of such arrangements, can share information freely, openly and affordably, that would mean empowerment

of people. It has been rightly said that sunlight is, in the long run, the best disinfectant. RTI means sunlight. With this powerful piece of legislation now available to people and the complementary, as also hopefully concomitant, use of information and communication technologies and networked electronic connectivity for public accountability enforcement and in the providing of information as well as services, remarkable shifts are expected to take place in favour of citizen empowerment in the country, and in U.P., too. These shifts will be from secrecy and exclusion to openness and accessibility for people; from heavy, unwieldy and burdened paper-based record-keeping, filing, and correspondence systems to digitized, computerized and readily accessible information of diverse types; from over-layered hierarchies to networked and horizontal organizational systems; from delayed or no responses to prompt access and replies; from the wielding of power through hiding information to empowerment through a clearly conferred legal right with penalties for non-compliers; from corruption-feeding ways of doing things to transparency and accountability; from the darkness of status quo to the sunlight of the new enabling law, and, to both commitment as also hope.

49. In U.P. the State Commission on Information was set up *on 14th Sept. 2005*. The Chief Information Commissioner *and 9 Commissioners* have been appointed so far. The results of this set-up have begun to emerge. Instructions have been issued to all public authorities to make 16 manuals related to proactive disclosure of information under the section 4(1)(b) of Right to information Act, 2005 and also upload manuals on Internet. RTIA is an evolving law and, in time, its benefits to the society will be considerable. The important needs for its effective and successful implementation are (a) training and motivation of the personnel of government departments, public agencies, institutions, service providers, PSUs, local bodies, etc., (b) organizing information by all such establishments/bodies in a computerized form for easy and quick electronic accessibility, (c) equipping these bodies with computerization and connectivity facilities, (d) ensuring effective enforcement and (e) enlisting the co-operation and assistance of voluntary groups and community collectivities to play awareness-spreading and advocacy roles.

### **VIII. Proliferation and Productivity**

50. An important governance issue is related to its costs and the organizational efficiency of people manning the government machinery at different levels. Keeping a firm check on proliferation of government departments and agencies is an accepted policy of GOUP. In fact it had agreed to reduce its personnel by 2% a year in its negotiations with the World Bank and this announcement formed a part of the State's Governance Policy of 2000.

The proliferation problem, however, subsists even now. Some examples may be cited here to highlight the issue and its implications.

51. In 1965, when Uttarakhand also was still a part of U.P., the number of Secretaries in the Government was only 21 (there were no Principal Secretaries then). They were supported by 114 officers of Under Secretary to Special Secretary level. By 2006, the number of Principal Secretaries/Secretaries had gone up to over 90 and that of the other categories to over 360. The number of sections in the Secretariat had risen from 251 to 385 during the same period. The number at officer level had increased by 33%. The number of the Heads of Departments (HODs) that was 70 in 1970s had also shot up to more than 115.

52. A brief look at employee numbers would also be of interest here. In 1971, the number of government employees was about 5.44 lakh. The number of sanctioned posts had shot up to about 10.78 lakh by 2005. GOUP's total expenditure on salaries and allowances was Rs.130 crore in 1971; by 2004-05 it had shot up to Rs.8655 crore. In 1971, cost per employee per year was Rs.2643. This had ballooned to Rs. 1,04,850 a year by 2004-05. Even if we apply the cost deflator in terms of the wholesale price index with 1970-71 as base year, the cost per employee has more than tripled in real terms. Pay and pension together constituted 43.1% of the State's revenue expenditure in 2004-05. By 2006-07 it was expected to very marginally fall to 42.1%, which is still quite high.

53. The second aspect of the personnel size and cost is its productivity. This is yet another area of concern. Wide spread absenteeism in the field staff and rising pendency of matters and references at most levels of governmental organizations and agencies are clear signs of low productivity and poor quality of services rendered to citizens. These are issues that need to be addressed through cost control, sound performance appraisals, induction of modern technologies to expedite office processes, carefully devised incentive and disincentive systems for the personnel and much greater attention to training, skill development and motivational programmes for officers as also staff at all levels.

### **IX. Delivery Systems and Need for Convergence**

54. If governance at the tool-meets-object level is to improve, which is undeniably the most critical level, and benefits of development and anti-poverty programmes reach to those who need these most, it is the delivery systems that need to be tightened up and vastly improved. Most development programmes launched at considerable costs and with lot of enthusiasm flounder for lack of properly worked out delivery systems.

55. Government and its agencies deliver various types of programmes, services, materials, benefits,

facilitation subsidies, subventions, scholarships, pensions, credit, etc. to people. These can relate to physical infrastructure like roads, power, irrigation, housing, drinking water, transportation communications, etc. In the social infrastructure areas services could include education, health, family welfare, nutrition, children and women's welfare, specially targeted programmes for marginalized groups, etc. Other types of deliveries could include credit, public distribution, procurement, subsidies, input supplies, financial assistance, technology transfers, etc. These are just some sample sets of activity types. An efficient delivery system requires convergence of related facilities, services, staff, institutional arrangements, materials and input supplies, credit and other assistance-disbursing arrangements, facilities for deposit of tax, non-tax and user charge dues, knowledge transfer, and a host of similar other components.

56. A few examples of delivery systems in the State are given below to highlight their strengths and weaknesses.

- (i) *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*: Decentralized participation is the key driving element of the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) which, in common parlance, is the roll out of a massive governmental push for universalization of primary education. The Village Education Committees (VECs) are intended, in this scheme, to be the mechanisms through which public funds for education services are to flow to the village. The delivery paradigm is built around (a) people's participation at the local level, (b) local agency (VEC), (c) improved service delivery and (d) improved outcomes. Independent surveys reveal several deficiencies in the implementation of the programme and its outcomes. A survey was carried out in four selected blocks of Jaunpur district in early 2005 by Pratham, MIT (J-PAL) and the World Bank to assess how SSA is being run and what is the performance of VECs. The results of the survey are highly disappointing. Close to 70% of children at the age of 8 could not read simple text. This number is 50% at age 10 and 30% at age 12. The story was similar for maths and writings. Fifty percent of children at age 10 could not write sentences. Parents, teachers and VEC members were not even aware of the scale of the problem. Many parents did not know that a VEC exists. VEC members themselves were not aware of their roles. Public participation was found to be negligible (Abhijit Banerji, 2007). Here we see an example of delivery failure.
- (ii) *Lokvani*: It is an innovative model of Citizen Service Centres (CSCs) - a public-private programme started in Sitapur district in December, 2004. It was envisaged to be a single window, self-sustainable e-Governance solution providing, quick accessibility, transparency and responsiveness in

certain selected areas of district administration, the services online available being, (i) Land records (ii) Public grievance redressal (iii) Tender forms, (iv) Arms license applications status and (v) EPF accounts of basic education teachers. The solution is targeted at 3.6 million citizens residing in Sitapur district. *Lokvani* is an autonomous registered society. The system operates through 42 electronically networked and uniformly distributed Kiosk Centres spread out in the district owned by private entrepreneurs who operate as *Lokvani*'s franchisees. Kiosk operators are earning extra money, besides their regular income. Till July, 2005, 28,923 queries or complaints were received of which 24,920 had been disposed of. Many improvements are still to be made about quality of disposal and the adequacy of back office support but, *Lokvani*, on the whole, has been a good initiative, which may nationally recognized. To an extent it has shown that low computer literacy rates and financial constraints are not insurmountable barriers for implementing a citizen-oriented e-Governance project.

- (iii) *Agricultural Support System*: Agriculture sector of the State's economy has been experiencing a worryingly low rate of growth in recent years. The National Commission on Farmers, in its recent reports, has highlighted the difficulties faced by this sector of the economy. The crucial sources of growth of agriculture, it is well known, are land and water management (irrigation, balanced use of ground and surface water, protection and improvement of soil quality and fertility), technology (farm level proven research and extension), good seeds, packages of practices, inputs, credit, plant protection, diversification, safe storage, marketing, post-harvest value additions and further enhancing of incomes through allied activities like animal husbandry, horticulture, poultry, etc. All these activities constitute systems that are related to supply factors, demand driven higher value returns, and institutions for better delivery systems. Unfortunately, many of these systems do not function properly, some even have collapsed. The Co-operative Credit System is a glaring example of such failure. Value additions are yet to materialize. There are many such delivery system related links (eg. storage, marketing of produce, processing, packaging, cold chains, etc.) that have to be forged strongly to make agriculture and its allied activities economically viable, sustainable as well as attractive. Knowledge to do so is there. Additional resources for this sector are also likely to materialize in the light of changing Eleventh Plan strategies. The crux is the strengthening of the delivery systems.



- (iv) Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) and MDM (Mid Day Meal): ICDS and MDM are two important programmes that contribute to human development through promoting nutritional security of children. Several delivery related hurdles have plagued both these programmes in U.P. These, for example, relate to lack of funds or of timely release of funds, understaffing, poor quality of food grains, want of supervision, deficiencies in training, centralized management, corrupt contractor system, etc. These are curable shortcomings if *Anganwadis* are activated, if parents are involved and if school managements and PRIs are made more accountable. The Central Government is moving towards providing MDM to students up to class VIII. The scheme is set for further streamlining to ensure better delivery. The improvements proposed include better fiscal management, timely release of funds including cooking costs, better cash flow to schools, supplying better quality of food grains and other ingredients and their transportation, and close monitoring. These are some of the important steps that can also improve delivery of these programmes in the State.

57. Funding is not a major constraint in many human development related programmes. Lack of effective delivery systems, on the other hand, very much is. The key requirements for improving delivery systems would include:

- (a) Decentralization - democratic, institutional, financial and administrative,
- (b) Convergence of services and facilities at points of delivery,
- (c) Community participation, stakeholder involvement and citizen oversight,
- (d) Right to information, transparency, open decision-making,
- (e) One-window arrangements,
- (f) Quick grievance removal systems,
- (g) A credible and operative Citizen Charter system linked with social audit,
- (h) Effective field inspections, monitoring, feed-back and corrective action,
- (i) Careful targeting of benefits, subsidies, financial assistance, concessional prices, etc., that also need to be delivered,
- (j) Outsourcing deliveries where feasible under supervision and quality-cum-cost control measures,
- (k) Use of information technologies for improving deliveries, reducing costs and for ensuring smooth operation of supply lines, distribution, inventory control, monitoring, etc.

## X. E-Governance

58. Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) have become powerful tools for realizing the goals of planned development at all levels and in all domains. These technologies can compress time, space and costs in the march towards fast and equitable growth. ICTs empower people and stimulate transparency and accountability. Their uses speed up information gathering, processing, storage and retrieval. These enable speedy decision making, make possible much more effective monitoring and help in making quick course corrections when and where required. India has been using ICTs for years now but these have yet to become the expected empowering instruments for the common citizen to maximize his/her knowledge, accessibility to information, speedy grievance removal and empowerment. The national IT law was enacted in 2000. It has been, and continues to be, amended from time to time to make it more vigorous, people-serving and effective. Legal status has been given to electronic records and digital signatures in government offices, businesses as well as legal and financial transactions. The Central Government's policy avers in clear terms, "e-Governance will be promoted on a massive scale". The Government of U.P. has set up a separate IT & E Department and come out with a comprehensive IT policy for the state. The policy objectives, inter alia, include accelerated development of IT industry (both software and hardware), using IT for government work and work of PSUs, local bodies, service providers, public institutions and agencies at all levels, promotion of IT education, and wide dispersal and outreach of ICTs to reach the common citizen. Advances in ICTs have made it possible to provide a wide range of services in the form of video, voice and data content through single communication channel. This opens multiple possibilities in areas like e-Governance, education, health, information services, financial transactions, land records, registration of deeds, telemedicine, banking, taxation, etc. The State Government has laid special emphasis on the setting up of infrastructure for establishment of Telecentres, Tele-kiosks, Cyber Cafes and DTP booths for the widening of IT base in the State. There is a proposal to set up about 10,000 Village Knowledge Centres under a national plan umbrella. This is the intent. The crux lies in operationalising it in a time bound manner. Political, administrative and technical leadership have to become fully committed to such a large task. It has to provide direction, resources and will to get things done.

59. The National e-Governance Plan (NeGP) reflects the importance attached to ITC by the Central Government. There is a need to make IT an essential part of school education at the secondary and higher levels and to train Government/PSU/institutional cadres and elected representatives from *Gram* and *Nagar Panchayat* levels up to the State Legislature level so that

the benefits of these technologies can be maximized for all people. President, Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam emphasized the importance of this programme, in his 2005 Republic Day Eve Address in the following words: "With the kind of awareness and opportunities available in ICT, it will soon become a reality wherein everyone of our villages will have computers and connectivity available. These would be the windows to the world of knowledge for our villages and also to reap benefits of e-Governance, tele-education, tele-medicine, e-commerce and e-judiciary initiatives".

### Box 8.2

#### E-Governance in Stamps & Registration Department: A Success Story

Stamps and Registration is the second most important source of revenue for the Government of Uttar Pradesh after Trade Tax. There are 347 Sub Registrar Offices across the entire State. The Office of the Sub Registrar is the place where all the registration work is done. This is the office, which has maximum interface with the common public and over 150 lakh persons visit the Sub Registrar Office every year and nearly 23 lakh documents are registered every year. The various functions performed at Sub Registrar Offices are: Registration of Documents, Valuation of immovable properties, Collection of Revenue, Stamp Duty, Transfer Duty and Registration Fee, Preservation of Copies of Documents, Issue of Certified copies of Documents, and Issue of Encumbrance certificates. Lack of transparency in property valuation under the old manual system resulted in a flourishing business of brokers and middlemen leading to corruption. Antiquated procedures such as manual copying and indexing of documents, and storage in paper forms in ill-maintained record rooms needed replacement by electronic delivery of all registration services apart from provision of better amenities to the tax payers.

The PRERNA (Property Evaluation & Registration Application) software developed by National Informatics Centre, U.P. has been introduced by the Stamp & Registration Department to eliminate the maladies affecting the conventional registration system by introducing electronic delivery of all registration services. The aim of PRERNA is to demystify and bring speed, efficiency, consistency and reliability in the registration process. This software has been developed to provide on the spot registration, single window service, and transparent and reliable transactions apart from providing tools to monitor revenue. PRERNA incorporates a number of validations as well as in-built functionality to ensure accuracy and evaluation, wherever possible.

**PRERNA** meets the following key objectives:

- ✓ *Helpdesk for Villagers / Farmers*
- ✓ *Reduces Waiting Time & Queue*
- ✓ *Instant Registry*
- ✓ *Instant Photography & Thumb Impression*
- ✓ *Automatic Valuation of Property*
- ✓ *Automatic Computation of Stamp Duty & Registration Fee*
- ✓ *Query on Registered Properties*
- ✓ *Digital Documents Storage*
- ✓ *Develop a simple, speedy & reliable registration process*
- ✓ *Build consistency & uniformity*
- ✓ *Return of the original document immediately after registration; within 20 minutes of time*
- ✓ *Transparent process*

G.O.U.P. decided to rollout the PRERNA Software in 106 Sub Registrar Offices of Sadar Tehsils of all 70 Districts from **1<sup>st</sup> August' 2006** in the First Phase of Computerization. Computers, laser printers, scanners, web cameras, bio-metric devices were provided to the selected SROs. Remaining 241 Sub Registrar Offices are proposed to be covered in Second Phase. In these 106 computerized Sub Registrar Offices, over 4.66 lakh documents have been registered by computerized process between August and February while 3.42 lakh documents had been registered in the corresponding period of 2005-06. Likewise, growth in revenue is to the tune of 55.39% for the same period in the computerized Sub Registrar Offices. Consequently, revenue collection under Stamps and Registration during 2006-07 till February, 2007 is Rs.4061.13 crore while it was only Rs.2801.73 crore in 2005-06.

The time required for services such as valuation of property, sale of stamp paper, and provision of certified copies of registered documents now takes 10 minutes instead of a few days as under the earlier system. Encumbrance Certificates (ECs) are now issued to citizens in a span of 5 minutes, using a system that searches through more than 15 years of records from over several offices. Land registration can be completed in 20 minutes, whereas earlier it took 7-15 days.

Introduction of e-governance has benefited all stake holders in a number of ways, i.e, completion of registration process within 20 minutes & prompt return of original documents, transparent, accurate and free market value assistance to buyers and sellers, facility for inspection of documents in a clean environment to lawyers, computerized search facility greatly saves time for lawyers & their staff, and better facilities for lawyers, deed writers, stamp vendors & bankers.

60. Other States have moved ahead in expanding the reach, scope and coverage of e-Governance. Thus, *e-Seva* and *e-Panchayat* in Andhra Pradesh, *Rasi* in Tamil Nadu, *Lok Mitra* in H.P. and Bangalore - I as also Digital Service Centres in Karnataka, to cite only a few examples, have moved ahead with speed and effect. Other States are stepping up on such initiatives such as Punjab, West Bengal, Maharashtra, Uttarakhand and Kerala. In U.P., *LOKVANI* has been a good initiative but its coverage is as yet limited. The information delivery and the needed quick grievance removal back-ups have to be properly put on the ground. Policy is already in place; so are declared intentions. The citizen is anxiously waiting for all this to become a reality.

## XI. Mobilizing Voluntary Organizations

61. NGOs voice and represent the voluntary sector which can be constructively mainstreamed into the strengthening of the processes of development at grass-root level. Voluntary organizations can act as catalyzing agents, bridges and facilitators in delivering services in villages, hamlets and urban mohallas / basties. They are more flexible in approach, less rule-bound and simpler in managerial structures. If these bodies are carefully screened, selected and mobilized they can provide more efficient delivery of services at lesser costs, with greater involvement of people and better utilization of funds.

62. The NGO movement in Uttar Pradesh is at present weak. It needs to be strengthened and fully and effectively co-opted into the streams of planned development. A note of caution would, however, be very appropriate here. Many spurious organizations claiming to be NGOs working for public interest have mushroomed. Such organizations have to be excluded through rigorous screening, proper verification and black listing where required.

63. As of March, 2005, there were about 4.20 lakh NGOs/ SHGS registered in the State. Then there are youth/women clubs and many international and national agencies (e.g. Oxfam, Unicef, Care, Rotary, Action Aid, Trade Associations, Chambers of Commerce etc.) operating in voluntary action areas. Their assistance can be very advantageously enlisted for improving human development outcomes. Their co-ordination, co-operation and accountability need to be regulated at the government level through the setting up of appropriate machinery for that purpose. The voluntary sector has considerable potential provided it is enabled, monitored and constructively taken on board.

## XII. Priority Areas of Governance Reforms:

64. The priority areas of governance reforms in Uttar Pradesh are briefly summarized below:

### (A) Political Arena

Unless the political system is cleaned up, the

hope for other interventions, improvements and reforms, that are certainly necessary and essential, is difficult to realize. For achieving that objective the essential requirements are will and consensus amongst political parties on a set of reasoned positions. Time has come when they should rise above party interests and arrive at agreement on the cleaning up the politico-administrative, electoral, legal justice and the law and order systems. A clear commitment to decentralization and open governance is also needed at the political level.

### (B) Administrative and Economic Domain

- (i) Creating an atmosphere of public safety, security and law and order,
- (ii) Reducing the cost of governance,
- (iii) Capacity building of Government, PSU, PRI/ULB and other institutional/agency personnel,
- (iv) Insulate government personnel, police and public officials from recurrent political interference. Depoliticize civil administration and police force. Ensure tenure security of officers and officials,
- (v) Implement Right to Information Law earnestly, openly and in a citizen-friendly way,
- (vi) Strengthen anti-corruption laws/machinery/ institutions with greater emphasis on adopting open and transparent systems of governance and on preventive measures,
- (vii) Introduction of quick and efficient grievance removal systems. High emphasis on e-Governance. Activate and effectively operationalize Citizen Charters,
- (viii) Observe financial/budgetary discipline,
- (ix) Reform the Administration of Justice System and reduce costs and time needed for obtaining justice,
- (x) Strengthen democratic decentralization and, importantly, bring about convergence in delivery systems,
- (xi) Factor in environmental safety and sustainability in all economic development processes,
- (xii) Promote and mobilize the voluntary sector for improving and enhancing human development outcomes.

### (C) Fiscal and Financial Management

- (i) Sound fiscal management,
- (ii) Strict enforcement of the Fiscal Responsibility Law,
- (iii) Review of the subsidy regime. Subsidies should be restricted to merit goods and specifically targeted only to properly identified, deserving and eligible groups and individuals,
- (iv) Widening and deepening of the tax base. Rationalizing user charges and moving to cost-based pricing with provision for cross-subsidization where necessary,

(v) Set up Statutory Regulatory Authorities for those service or supply sectors where these do not exist now, e.g. transport, irrigation, water, municipal services, etc,

(vi) Curb on State Guarantees through statutory means,

(vii) Reforms in the Pension and Provident Fund Systems.

**(D) Infrastructure and Rural/Urban Development**

(i) Step up investments on power, roads, irrigation and transportation substantially. At the same time there must be much greater emphasis on strengthening social infrastructure in areas like health, education, nutrition, women and child welfare, assistance to the old, the disabled and other marginalized groups, gender equity and alleviation of poverty.

(ii) Maintenance of assets already created.

(iii) Power tariffs need to be rationalized and depoliticized. Proper water pricing is equally important.

(iv) For pricing infrastructure related services independent regulatory bodies should be set up.

(v) The legal, financial and managerial environment has to be made conducive to public-private partnerships in infrastructure projects.

(vi) Special attention needs to be given to problems of urban development which are highly complex and demanding.

**(E) Poverty Alleviation, Employment and Manpower Planning**

(i) Poverty alleviation must become central to economic planning by tackling the huge back-log of unemployment and absorbing additions to labour force. While employment guarantee can be a distant goal, social security needs to be improved. Development planning has necessarily to be made manpower intensive,

(ii) The present labour laws need to be amended. Self-employment must be given high priority,

(iii) Skill formation has to be given high importance. Skills need to be upgraded at all levels.

**(F) Environment-friendly Development**

(i) Environment friendly growth is the strategy needed for achieving long term, equitable development,

(ii) Environmental awareness must be enhanced in all possible ways so that resource uses become sustainable in the longer time perspective.

**XIII. Conclusion**

65. In a fast moving world governments have to live with and respond to change. Governance has to ensure that such change does not cause disparities to increase or give rise to insecurities, social unrest and

dislocations. We need a middle path whereby empowerment of people and freedom of choice can stimulate welfare, equity and entrepreneurship, where development creates incomes, work and opportunities and it becomes sustainable. The Government has to become catalytic. It should steer, not row. The Government has to be efficient, open, mission-driven and result-oriented. It has to be citizen-friendly, especially for those who are weak and deprived. It has to move from centralization to decentralization, delegation and devolution. It should become committed to the deepening of democracy and strive for greater equity and empowerment of people. All this will necessarily demand peace and tranquility in the society, clean and competent political management, empowered local bodies and public institutions, efficient, honest and accountable bureaucracies (general as well as technical), an administration with compassion and outreach, use of the most modern information and communication technologies to enhance people's access to entitlements and redressal, sound fiscal policies, ethics-led businesses, rule of law, strong institutions and informed citizenry. The challenges are onerous. The answer lies in positive and determined responses.

66. In the present age of globalization, liberalization and competition there is, at times, an impression created that the role of government is on the decline. This is certainly not true of a country like India or a State like U.P. where poverty, deprivation and want still prevail in a very considerable measure. In human development contexts special attention is needed to be paid to physical (power, water, roads, transportation, housing, etc.) and social (health, education, food and nutrition security, welfare of the weak and the marginalized) infrastructure, and the creation of opportunities for employment and self-employment. In the pursuit of a widely-shared and sustainable growth, the market forces would have to be tempered by enabling, equity-oriented policies and laws, good governance, strong institutions, regulation and vibrant peoples' democratic bodies. The market and the state have to complement and supplement each other.

67. Resources are vital but good governance is the *sine qua non* for reaching them to people in optimal ways. Governance deficit does not allow equitable development to materialize. Removing it has to be a strong and unexceptionable priority of policy and action.

68. U.P.'s progress on human development indicators calls for a paradigm shift in governance. It calls for empowerment of the people. It calls for a policy framework focused on fundamental rights and freedoms, a framework that guarantees the right to be free of poverty, ill health, illiteracy. It must confer on all citizens the right to know how money allocated for public purposes is actually spent. It should distinctly be a framework that strengthens rights and punishes wrongs.

## Future Challenges and Strategies

### Status and Progress of Human Development

1. Human development aims at enlargement of human choices in economic, social, cultural or political spheres. Human development has two sides. One is the formation of human capabilities, such as, improved health, knowledge and skills. The other is to enhance their acquired capabilities for employment, productive activities, political participation or leisure. Human development strategy aims at building up human capabilities and ensuring equitable access to human opportunities through a development process that is participative, equitable and sustainable.

2. Uttar Pradesh has made significant strides in all dimensions of human development particularly in the recent past, which is reflected in higher per capita income, increasing literacy rates and improvement in health indicators. All the indices of human development (i.e. HDI, GDI and Deprivation Index) have shown an improvement over the years. A sharp increase in literacy and decline in IMR have contributed to these trends. In terms of UNDPs HDR criterion, U.P. can be said to have moved into the category of medium human development (HDI between 0.50 and 0.80) in 2001, from the category of low human development (HDI below 0.50). But the state has still a long way to go to achieve full human development. The GDI during 2001-2005 has also improved by 7.47 % and the Deprivation Index has declined by 16.26 per cent between 1991 and 2005. It is satisfying to note that all the districts of the state have marked an increase in their HDI values over the period 1991-2005. However, the improvement in HDI values has not been uniform across the districts.

3. One can observe a distinct spatial clustering of districts according to level of HDI. Many of the districts belonging to Western region have highest value of HDI. Districts belonging to eastern plains fall in the medium category. Most of the districts of Central Region have low HDI value, while the *tarai* districts have the lowest HDI. In the recent years, however, there is a trend towards convergence between backward and developed districts. Many districts that had low HDI values initially made large improvement in their HDI values subsequently due to the special efforts made under government programmes like *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*. This shows that despite their many inadequacies, the state directed developmental policies had some impact in raising the level of human development in backward districts.

4. At the same time there are considerable intra-regional variations in HDI in all the regions. Some districts of Western region like Rampur and Budaun have low HDI values. Relative deprivation of women is also more marked. Similarly, in all the other three regions there are districts which perform relatively well in terms of human development. The upshot of this discussion is that higher per capita income does not necessarily leads to higher human development or better conditions of women. Apart from public policy these differences are related mainly to the distinct socio-cultural factors, which have deep historical roots. In the districts where the community showed better awareness of the importance of education, e.g. Etawah in Western Region and Ballia in Eastern Region score well in terms of human development.

5. There are marked gender gaps in terms of human development. In general, the districts in the Western region have better ranks in HDI as compared to GDI. On the other hand, districts from Eastern region and Bundelkhand region are relatively better on the GDI front. This contrast in HDI and GDI ranks can be attributed largely to the higher work participation rate of women in backward regions. It can be said that the development of a region, especially in terms of per capita income, does not necessarily mean empowerment and human development of women. *Development, as is often said, needs to be consciously engendered.* There are many socio-economic factors impacting upon the status of women in different regions, which have to be addressed squarely.

6. There are aspects of deprivations afflicting the state, which are not fully reflected in the HDI. The deprivation Index calculated for this report paints a grim picture. The large majority of households in the state still lack adequate basic amenities like safe drinking water, sanitation, housing and electricity for lighting. Although some improvement in the provision of amenities is evident much work remains to be done in this regard. This task should be taken up on a priority basis in the development plans of the state.

7. The spatial and gender disparity in human development in the state is further compounded by the disparity among social groups. The state has a relatively larger proportion of the economically and socially deprived groups like the OBC, SC and Muslims, which are lagging behind in human development. In fact they constitute the majority of the population of the state and bring down the states average. This makes the

challenge of human development in the state all the more challenging.

### Challenge of Education

8. Education is a key component of human development. It is needed both as an end in itself to enable people to lead a cultured and more satisfying life as well as for developing human capabilities for earning higher income. Studies confirm that educational levels are also closely related to other human development outcomes like fertility, mortality rates, etc. U.P. has made significant strides in education especially in the direction of universalization of education at the primary level, as a result of the special initiatives taken by central and the state governments. Literacy rates have gone up sharply. School enrollment and retention rate also show significant improvement. The state government has made special efforts for promotion of education of the girl child and backward classes as well as Muslims by providing various incentives and improving infrastructure.

9. In spite of these achievements, daunting challenges remain in the field of education. Still about 36 per cent of rural males and 70 per cent of rural females are illiterate. About two fifth of the urban females were illiterate in 2004-05 as compared to one fifth of the urban males. According to 2001 Census, more than half of the population is illiterate in as many as 20 districts and in as many as 56 out of the 70 districts more than half of the females are illiterate. Around one-fifth of children in the age of 5-14 are still not attending school. It is depressing to note in terms of the Educational Development Index U.P. ranks 27 at the primary level, 30 at upper primary level and 29 in terms of combined index among 35 states.

10. *The challenge emanating from the drop out rates at primary and upper primary levels and teacher pupil ratio are still formidable. Though, there has been a sharp decline in drop out ratio from 65 percent in 1992-93 to 24 percent in 2005-06 still it is significant. Similarly, teacher pupil ratio which was 1:67 in 2004-05 came down to 1:42 in 2005-06, but for further improvement in this ratio, more teachers are still needed.*

11. Indeed, very impressive quantitative expansion in education at all levels has taken place in the State over the years. The quality issue, however, remains weak. The quality of education at the primary level is particularly causing concern. Independent evaluation studies have revealed that the ability of students is very poor in reading, writing and mathematical calculations. Quality is wanting in many other respects too. Now is the time, when physical facilities have been created almost adequately, attention should be paid to improve quality in education.

12. One of the factors for poor quality of education is the shortage of qualified teachers. A large number of teaching posts remain unfilled. The government has tried to fill up this gap by appointing para teachers called *shiksha mitra* in large numbers. Such ad hoc measures may be justified in the short run, but the shortage of qualified and trained teachers will have adverse effect on the quality of education in the long run. The high absenteeism among school teachers also remains a cause of serious concern.

13. Another factor afflicting education in U.P. has been the severe resource crunch. Per capita expenditure on education has been the lowest among major Indian states. The quality of expenditure and its composition also show many deficiencies. Nearly all expenditure is pre-empted by salaries of teachers leaving little for maintenance and improvement of educational infrastructure. Substantial sums have become available under the SSA programme and through TFC grants for promotion of primary education. However, the problem of funding remains at the secondary and higher levels. The system of grants to schools is also defective and does not promote efficiency and quality.

14. The future strategy for educational development in the state should pay attention to the following issues:

- (i) As the goal of universalisation of primary education is nearing attainment, generation of extra capacity by opening new secondary schools and institutions of higher learning will be required to cope with the increasing outflows from the lower levels.
- (ii) Along with expansion in physical infrastructure and other facilities, quality of education will have to be strengthened. Quality has to be the hallmark of education in the days to come and the state that remains backward in quality education will be too weak to catch up with the forward states in almost every respect. The thrust therefore will have to be on quality improvement along with quantitative expansion.
- (iii) Reducing the gender gap in education and mitigating the educational disadvantages of the minorities and other backward classes will need to be taken care of more effectively with a view to promote their educational development in particular and the integrated social development in general.
- (iv) Special attention has to be paid to children of the marginalized sections like migrants, prostitutes, criminals in jails, etc. as well as the mentally and physically handicapped children.
- (v) Attention will have to be focused on promotion of primary education in the lagging districts and blocks.

- (vi) Even with the universalisation of primary education U.P. will remain burdened with a large mass of illiterate men and women for a long time to come. Special programmes are therefore needed for promoting literacy and functional skills in these groups especially those in the age group of 15 to 35 years. Audio and visual techniques can be effectively utilized for this purpose.
- (vii) There is a need to restructure the financing pattern and the grants in aid criteria for quality improvement in school education and the university education of all types, particularly in the government aided educational institutions so that they are able to successfully compete in the changed scenario of inter-state and international competition.
- (viii) Technical education needs to be upgraded and expanded in a big way to meet the emerging challenges in the globalised world and to provide employment opportunities to the youth.
- (ix) Funding of education at all levels has to be substantially upscaled to improve the quality of infrastructure and education. Neglect of higher and technical education will be detrimental to the interests of the state and the country in the long run. Apart from state funding of education private investment in education especially for technical and management education needs to be attracted and promoted. New initiatives in public private partnership in education need to be promoted.
- (x) Gradually the system of education in UP is moving from state controlled and state financed to privately managed and privately funded system. However, the State still has a major role to play. An increase in fee is bound to occur in the days to come and soon the system of “subsidized education” is likely to be replaced by “user charging education system”. Since free and compulsory education for children in age group of 6-14 years has been made a Fundamental Right in the Constitution of India, it will not be possible to make elementary education in the government sector fee charging. At secondary and higher levels, user charges will have to be raised and element of subsidy reduced. For making the governmentally subsidized system of education to fee charging one, a political consensus will be necessary, without which it would not be possible to raise or impose additional fee. However, along with making the system more fee charging, adequate provision will have to be made for free-ships to poor students lest they are deprived of education along with liberal provision of educational loans. The surveillance of the government on the user charges in the private institutions will be important to ensure ‘equality’ and ‘accountability.’
- (xi) Finally, management of education particularly at the primary and secondary levels has to be decentralized and brought under the Panchayati Raj institutions and urban local bodies as envisaged in the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendments. Greater involvement of local communities and parents’ associations will be helpful in keeping truancy among teachers under control and improve the quality of education being imparted in the schools.

## The Challenge of Health

15. Biggest challenge of human development in U.P. lies in the area of health, in which the state continues to lag behind almost all the states. People of the state continue to suffer from serious health deficit which stem largely from maternal health, low birth weight, malnutrition, inadequate psycho-social stimulation and disability. These factors are compounded by other environmental and social factors such as gender and caste, inadequate family and community support and poor quality of service delivery in health care. Both the rich and poor face a very high burden of health related disability. However, the poor and women seem to be at a greater disadvantage, the incidence of IMR alone is found to be two and a half times higher amongst the poor.

16. Moreover, there are wide variations across the state as are evident from the inter-district comparison. There are districts in the state where the current status is much below the 1990 level, which was taken as the starting point for MDGs. The circumstances are worse in the districts falling in the *tarai* region of the state. It is also found that in most of the cases the districts and regions that perform poorly on one indicator repeat the poor performance on most related indicators, reflecting a cumulative and concentrative pattern of disadvantage, which is indicative of a definite interdependence of outcomes.

17. Uttar Pradesh has one of the highest incidences of infant and maternal mortality in the entire country. In UP, only about half of the total pregnant women get ANC services. Over ten million children in the state are malnourished and over half of the children are under-nourished. The task ahead in terms of curtailing these incidences is huge by any standard. The state is trailing behind substantially in achieving the Millennium Development Goals. If the scenario is to be positively affected then morbidity circumstances will have to be targeted with focus on the lagging districts and social groups.

18. It needs to be acknowledged that in Uttar Pradesh, in last several years, there has been progress on several health development parameters such as the overall decline in childhood mortality, maternal mortality and incidence of preventable diseases. Much of mortality

reduction during the past few decades is traceable to government-driven efforts, particularly, through immunization campaigns and focus on specific challenges like TB, etc. But formidable challenges on the health front lie ahead in the state.

19. The future direction of human development circumstances in the state, as in the country as a whole, depends critically on the interventions in the health sector. Following suggestions are given in this context:

- (i) The challenge of health care in U.P. can be summarized as a composite challenge of access, quality and demand. The large public sector does not have adequate access to the people besides being found wanting in the quality of care at the cutting edge (PHCs and Sub-centers). The private sector has better access especially in the urban areas, but a vast majority of this sector presents a picture of serious lack of quality to the extent that it often becomes a serious threat to the health of the people. It appears that a re-orientation of the health strategy in U.P., where the focus is increasingly on functionalizing existing structures; synergy through public private partnership particularly for reaching out to the poor and marginalized; and on finding solutions through innovative interventions can enable us to meet UP's health challenge.
- (ii) As the First U.P. Human Development Report argued a convergent and holistic approach to health is needed in the state. Health should not be seen as a concern of the Department of Health and Family Welfare alone. Health goals should be dovetailed with goals set in the areas of environmental sanitation, drinking water, elimination of maternal and child malnutrition, education and health awareness.
- (iii) In view of the significant variations in the health outcomes across the State a decentralised approach to health management is called for. District health plans should identify needs and requirement gaps, from the primary health care level upwards and should set clear goals which are linked to key health outcomes. The performance of the functionaries in the health-related sectors should be periodically assessed in terms of the achievement of these goals.
- (iv) Child Mortality reduction strategies will have to be appropriately aligned to focus increasingly on Sepsis or Pneumonia, which are the main cause of death along with focus on preterm birth. Discouraging child bearing amongst women under age 20 is likely to have a greater impact on overall mortality levels.
- (v) Antenatal care can contribute significantly to the reduction in maternal morbidity and infant

mortality as it includes pregnancy related health care and advice on the correct diet and the provision of iron and folic acid tablets to pregnant women. Improved nutritional status, coupled with improved antenatal care, can help reduce the incidence of low birth weight babies and thus reduce prenatal, neonatal and infant mortality.

- (vi) Sanitation is a problem area in UP. Out of the 70 districts of the state only 30 have more than 33% sanitation coverage. The problem in 40 districts is severe. Sanitation programmes have to be taken up with greater vigour and effectiveness.
- (vii) Severe shortage of manpower at all levels in the public health delivery system stands out as a major problem in public health delivery system. The problem of shortages is further compounded by the high absenteeism of public sector health personnel in the State. The lack of proper human resource development policies (e.g. lack of incentives, lack of in-service training, performance rating system, poor monitoring, etc.) contributes to low employee morale, indiscipline and poor performance. Similarly, inappropriate skills mix complicates the challenge further, for example, if a gynaecologist is posted at a CHC where there is no anaesthetist, it results in underutilization of skills. Likewise, transfers are often arbitrary and without adherence to any norms.
- (viii) The task of meeting the health challenges is too big to be handled by the government alone. The private sector has to play a key role in the delivery of health services in U.P. However, there is lack of standards and quality assurance systems in both public as well as private sectors. Virtually, there is no effective regulation in the private sector. The private sector provides no information about its performance and has no system for patient protection or fair pricing. There is absolute dearth of information regarding how well private care is delivered in U.P.
- (ix) At the same time, it must be emphasized that the role of public sector will retain its critical importance. It must be appreciated that the cost of treatment is among the highest in those states where the public health infrastructure is less developed. This fact applies to government and private hospitalization as well as to outpatient treatment. Where public health system is well developed the treatment cost of both public and private sector facility is low. Competition from public facilities is an important determinant of charges in the private facilities as demonstrated by Kerala Experiment. Access to health care is directly related to the cost of health care. It is amply clear that in UP the cost of private care is exorbitantly high in comparison to both the cost



of public sector facilities as well as the bearing capacity of the population, particularly the poor.

- (x) Large resources for the health sector will be needed in the Eleventh Five Year Plan. UP's per capita allocation to health, family welfare, water and sanitation is very small in comparison to other states and need to be at least doubled. Fortunately, under the National Rural Health Mission and other centrally sponsored schemes substantial resources have been made available to the state. A rational policy of user charges in government hospitals needs to be adopted to meet the severe resource crunch and improve the quality of health services. The government may provide subsidy in the case of poor patients in a transparent manner. There is a need for moving towards a system of health insurance even at a modest level covering all sections as some states like Punjab and Gujarat have introduced.
- (xi) The challenge before Uttar Pradesh is huge by any standard. It can only be surmounted if the private sector, NGO and the Government join hands. New forms of public private partnership have to be evolved and put into shape. The public agencies and NGOs should focus greater resources on development and widespread dissemination of public health information messages aimed at improving community members' capacity to safeguard their own and their children's health.
- (xii) A major problem in formulation of effective policy and devising intervention methodologies at the local level is the serious lack of credible, timely and regular data on various health indicators. The survey based data is either too infrequent or in most of the cases the disaggregate level at which the data is available leaves much to be desired. The problem of the availability of such disaggregated data on a regular basis which can throw up policy directions and enable area specific interventions has to be addressed urgently.

### **The Challenge of Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction**

20. A vicious circle is operating in the state where low income levels and slow economic growth keep the attainment in human development levels low, while poor human development status acts as a constraint on rapid economic progress and restricts participation of the large masses in the development process. The low per capita income in the state conceals sharp differentials at the regional and the state level. Western region of the state is relatively more prosperous as compared with the other regions, while Eastern region is the poorest, Central region and Bundelkhand falling in the middle category.

21. Growth rates in the state have fallen consistently much short of the national growth rate resulting in ever widening difference in per capita income of the state and the country as a whole. Among the major factors responsible for deceleration of growth rates in U.P. are the declining public investments due to the fiscal crisis that plagued the state exchequer in the last two decades and the inability of the government to attract investment from outside due to the poor state of infrastructure particularly power shortage. Encouragingly, some upward trend in the growth rate of GSDP in U.P. is discernible in the last two-three years as both public and private investment has picked up.

22. The employment structure of the state is characterized by low participation of population in economic activity especially in case of women, low degree of diversification with predominant proportion of workers engaged in the primary sector, concentration of industrial activity in a few districts and a very low proportion of workers in the organized sector.

23. Growth rate of workforce has been fairly high at 2.5 per cent per annum during the decade 1991-2001 as per Census. However, the number of main workers has remained more or less constant, while that of the marginal workers show a very high jump. Growth rate of employment has also been uneven across districts. Bulk of additional employment has been generated in low paid over crowded activities like agriculture and allied activities, construction, petty trade, informal sector and social services. Organized sector employment has been actually declining since 1991. The pace of diversification towards non-agricultural activities is also slower in the state. Around two third of the work force is still engaged in the agricultural sector.

24. In spite of lower growth of income, poverty ratio has been steadily declining in the state at rates comparable with the national level. Despite the substantial decline in the poverty ratio, the absolute number of poor has remained high in the state. Almost 60 million people in U.P. were living below the poverty line in 2004-05 constituting over one-fifth of the total poor in the country. There are also sharp inter-regional and inter-district variations in the poverty ratio reflecting differential economic attainment. Poor asset base of the people, lack of economic diversification, poor levels of human capabilities and low productivity in the traditional sectors are among the major causes of poverty. Poverty ratios are found correlated with the social and employment status of people, land ownership and educational attainment.

25. Open unemployment rates are low in U.P. as compared to the national average. The problem of educated unemployment is, however, gradually becoming serious. There is a high burden of under-employment as a very high proportion of workers are crowded in low

income generating activities in agriculture and the informal sector.

26. Boosting economic growth in the state is essential for human development as higher income levels are required to meet the challenge of employment generation and eradication of poverty, increase their access to educational and health facilities and generate higher revenues to the government for investment in economic and social infrastructure. This requires a broad based, labour intensive and regionally widespread pattern of sustained growth. Investment levels in the public sector have to be stepped up substantially especially in power and infrastructure. At the same time a favourable investment climate has to be created to attract private capital in the state on a massive scale.

27. Improvement in agricultural productivity and diversification of the rural economy through promotion non-farm activities are vitally needed for poverty reduction in the rural areas, where bulk of the poor live of productivity levels in the informal sector need to be raised through technological upgradation and supply of better inputs and credit and marketing support. Large scale investment in rural infrastructure is needed for accelerating economic growth in the rural areas and improving living conditions of the people.

28. The measures for promoting economic growth have to be backed up by the targeted poverty eradication programmes. The Employment Guarantee Scheme provides a timely opportunity for this. The working of the wage employment programmes, however, has to be improved to remove the deficiencies in their implementation. The strategy of promotion of self help groups of the poor supported by credit, training and marketing facilities needs to be vigorously pursued. The SHGs need to be federated into larger units to reap economies of scale and their technological and marketing capacities as the experience of states like Andhra Pradesh has demonstrated.

29. Social safety networks need to be substantially expanded for the protection of the vulnerable groups and destitutes. Improved performance of programmes aimed at children and women like ICDS, Mid Day Meal Scheme, etc. will also contribute in mitigating poverty among the poorer sections.

30. The economic opportunities of the poor are restricted by lack of education and poor health conditions. Therefore, a human development strategy is critical for meeting the challenge of poverty and inclusive growth in the state. While the continued role of state in provision of social services like education, health, water and sanitation will remain important, efforts should be made to encourage private investment in social sector and adopting public private partnership models. The quality of public services needs to be improved and access of the poor to these facilities encouraged.

31. A participatory approach needs to be encouraged by involving the people in planning and implementing the development programmes and in maintenance and running of the various social services meant for their benefits. Strengthening of the Panchayati Raj Institutions and their real empowerment will go a long way in strengthening the participatory approach.

## **The Challenge of Women's Empowerment**

32. Mainstreaming gender into development process is a major challenge of human development in the state, where the situation of women in the State remains a cause of concern as documented in this report. Low literacy rates of women, low enrolment rates in schools and high drop out rates of the girls highlight how women have been denied the empowering touch of education. House hold responsibility and domestic chores are a part of the life of a young girl in the rural area. There is inequality within families evidenced by long hours of unvalued domestic work.

33. Women in U.P. as in other parts of India fall far short in terms of fully functional capability to have a long and healthy life. U.P. has the third lowest sex ratios among the major States of India, a telling evidence of the widespread discrimination in the state. Differential treatment of boys and girls is the most likely explanation for higher female mortality. A very high proportion of young girls are married by the age of 18, a factor which contributes to high fertility, morbidity and maternal mortality rate prevalent in the state. The access of women to health services is extremely limited. Overwhelming proportion of deliveries take place at home without the help of trained medical personnel.

34. Employment opportunities are much lower for women in U.P., which restricts their economic empowerment. Only 19.0 percent of rural women and 6.8 percent of urban women in U.P. were found to be economically active in 2001. Restriction on women's mobility, complete child care responsibility, ideology of female seclusion, vulnerability to abuse, low access to information and mass media, low literacy, assumption that women's work is supplementary and confined to largely manual untrained tasks, leads to women's poor access to income.

35. Women lead an insecure and vulnerable life subject to violence at home and crime, harassment and exploitation outside. The official crime statistics, even though inadequate in many respects, show that the incidence of crime against women in the state is high. In 2005, U.P.'s percentage contribution to the total crimes reported against women in the country was 9.6, second highest share in the country after Andhra Pradesh.

36. There are several critical issues which require attention of the government and the people of the state, if Uttar Pradesh is to emerge as a just, equitable and

developing State with reference to gender. These are highlighted briefly below.

- (i) First and foremost, the State needs to look at its programmes not in the mode of welfare for women but in terms of human rights. This would have implications in many areas where women are treated minimally and given pittance like widow pension, old age pension and marginal wages.
- (ii) Another major area of policy lacunae both at the State as well as the central level is that the unit of poverty alleviation programmes is the family and not the individual. Unless individual is taken as the unit of addressing poverty, like in the case of education and health, we cannot be said to have a human rights approach to development nor can we be said to be gender responsive in our planning. Special and close attention should be given to female headed house-holds. Care should be taken to ensure that all income generation programmes achieve the target of 30% women beneficiaries. Any shortfall in number of women beneficiaries in a year must be carried forward to the next year.
- (iii) There is a need to design a gender audit system for all government and non government programmes which would look at targets, trainings, recruitments, promotion, infrastructure and decision making opportunities. The conscious effort of the State to mainstream gender issues through gender budgeting is a right move but requires participation of all departments. An effective MIS system for monitoring women welfare programmes needs to be developed with a check list which is simple and transparent and can be handled by both government and non government functionaries. There needs to be a regular updating of gender segregated data to assess the impact of all government schemes. All departments and programmes after a gender audit must clearly project a gender segregated list of beneficiaries and recruited officials.
- (iv) More effective publicity of government welfare schemes needs to be undertaken using multimedia and participatory processes.
- (v) Women's access to higher education needs to be improved for their economic empowerment. Hostels for secondary and high schools need to be instituted and more institutions of technical training need to be set up at block level for girls. Short stay homes with counseling centres are required at the block level with counselors who are qualified with degrees in social work, women's studies or psychology.
- (vi) Clear budgetary allocation is necessary for the publicity, training and monitoring with reference to laws like Domestic Violence Prevention Act, Sexual harassment at work place guidelines and compulsory marriage registration bill. Schemes to encourage women in non stereo typical occupations do not exist. Training of women in leadership is necessary at all levels and gender sensitization should no more remain tokenistic.
- (vii) The Women Policy declared by the state should be publicised and debated widely and implemented effectively. The State requires a full fledged mechanism to ensure gender sensitive policy and implementation through a participatory apex body. Department of Women and Child Welfare should now be renamed as the Department for Women's Empowerment.
- (viii) Ensuring property rights to women is critical for their economic empowerment. Joint *pattas* for men and women should be made compulsory for women's better control over resources. Initiatives like lower stamp duty for women should be introduced recently need to be introduced in other spheres as well.
- (ix) Women's Self Help Groups (SHGs) have emerged as an important strategy to achieve the objective of empowering women and alleviating poverty. The basic agenda of making credit available to the economically vulnerable women forms the core objective which can then form the base for the structure expansion and growth of women's SHGs. Thus, SHGs can expand by linking in the form of collectives, clusters and federations. While embracing issues of common concern to the group wider than only credit, such as domestic violence, reproductive rights and political participation, SHGs offer an important dialogic space for women. SHGs are tools, which will reflect the ideology of their initiators, and in many cases they have an important potential to enable women to come together, form collectives and work for social and economic issues which are meaningful in their lives. The SHG movement is now rapidly picking up in the state with the creation of nearly four lakh SHGs under various schemes. The movement needs to be encouraged and given full support.
- (x) Decentralisation of the planning process and participatory approach with focus on women's groups will help in improving the condition of women while making development plans more meaningful and locally relevant. It is encouraging to note that the 2005 Panchayat election results have evidenced a phenomenally large number of women elected leaders, much beyond the reserved one-third seats. Areas where civil society organizations have empowered women at large, the elected women are found to be very articulate, vigilant and practical. Programme for capacity

building of women representatives in local bodies needs to be taken up in a big way.

- (xi) Women's concern for security, families and care need to be handled with sensitivity and beyond the blind call of procedural justice.
- (xii) Finally, women's agency needs greater recognition in all government policy. For a full functioning of women's capabilities the State needs to look beyond the parameters of mere service delivery of education, health and income. Women's experiences need to be perceived as legitimate in the larger public discourse. More time and space need to be devoted to allow for their expression, whether it is in training or in data collection efforts. All laws and regulations must be subject to scrutiny from the perspective of gender equality. All forms of discrimination against women entrenched in the antiquated patriarchal values and institutions and legal system will have to be eliminated. This requires change in the mind set not only of women but also of men. Civil society has to play a wider role in this regard.

### **Challenge of Inclusive Development**

37. It is widely accepted that the process of economic growth in the State, as in the country as a whole, has failed to be sufficiently inclusive. There remain many divides in the society. U.P. has a higher share of the deprived population belonging to SC, OBC and Muslims, which depresses the overall attainment of the state in human development. As this report has documented large disparities across social groups continue to exist in terms of income, assets, education, health, nutrition, sanitation, employment and access to infrastructural facilities. These inequalities within the social groups hamper not only their own development but also create hurdles in economic, social and human development of the entire state

38. Despite some improvements in the living conditions of SC, ST, OBC and minorities as a result of preferential treatment under governmental programmes, the pace of human development in U.P. has remained slow in comparison to many progressive states of the country. These disadvantaged groups continue to remain backward due to a number of persisting structural problems they have been facing for long. The marginalized groups remain deprived of basic amenities and services like education, health care, connecting roads to their isolated habitations, drinking water, sanitation, housing, etc. The deprived groups are not only socially, economically and politically backward but also vulnerable to various kinds of social exclusion and atrocities.

39. Wide gaps exist in educational attainments of ST, SC, and rest of population. In addition, low level of income generating assets owned by the households

belonging to disadvantaged social groups and their consequent low earnings are the main causes of their economic deprivation. Poverty levels are higher among these groups. Lack of productive assets, education and good health and social capital keeps the human capabilities of the marginalized groups low and perpetuates their relative deprivation. Moreover, the tradition based economy of SCs and STs and artisans belonging to OBC and Muslims is facing serious threat from the liberalized market economy due to fierce competition for their traditional products. All these problems lead to negative impact on their capabilities, confidence and efforts to come out at par with the mainstream society and economy of the state. These complex problems still stand as a major hurdle in delivering social justice and empowerment of the weaker groups.

40. The state government has initiated over the years numerous development programmes to remove human deprivation among the lagging social groups on a priority basis. Financial allocations under Special Component Plans for the SCs and the STs have been substantially increased over the years. Encouraging results have been noticed in the development status of deprived communities, particularly in terms of increased literacy rates. Efforts are being made to ensure welfare of minorities, disabled persons, women and children.

41. Despite all these sincere efforts of GoUP, much still remains to be done. The implementation of these schemes need to be streamlined to ensure that the benefit of the schemes reach the target beneficiary groups and various leakages and misappropriation of funds are minimized. Plethora of schemes and weak monitoring affect the efficacy of these programmes. The state needs to go beyond a welfare approach towards the deprived groups and introduce measures for their social and economic empowerment. Such a strategy would require strengthening the productive base of the weaker sections, improvement in their capabilities through education and technical training, increased access to credit and capacity building among elected representatives from these groups in the local bodies.

42. In the final reckoning, the issues of backwardness and marginalization of deprived groups is tied to their socio-economic development and changes in social structure of any society. What obstructs the compensatory provisions earmarked for these groups in U.P. are growing caste consciousness, social divides, alienation and socio-economic deprivation. Both, the development interventions by the State Government and public pressures are required to bring about real change in the condition of these groups.

### **The Challenge of Governance Reform**

43. A new public administration philosophy has emerged in recent decades with the broad aim of making

governments and their agencies and institutions open, transparent, adaptable, responsive, efficient, effective and accountable. The link between good governance and successful growth-cum-equity-oriented economic and social development has become increasingly evident through research and vast observational data. Good governance is the *sine qua non* of socially just and economically progressive human development.

44. In March 2000, GOUP came out with a Policy Paper on Reforms in Governance that, importantly, sought to redefine the government. The essential strategies included: (a) role redefinition of the Government, (b) bringing transparency and accountability to government functioning by increasing people's access to information, (c) quick grievance removal and vigorously combating corruption, (d) renewal of civil services through right-sizing, restructuring and strict performance appraisals, (e) institutional as well as administrative decentralization, (f) financial management reforms, (g) public participation in governance through voluntary action mobilization, etc. Sound financial management, budgeting and expenditure reforms and effective auditing were the other needed intervention areas flagged.

45. The progress in the direction of governance reforms has been mixed. Significant advancements have been in the area of fiscal reform and computerization of treasuries. The computerization of pre-metric and post metric scholarships provided to SC, ST, OBC Minority and general categories has been accomplished in the State. There has been a sharp turn around in the fiscal situation and U.P. has successfully eliminated the revenue deficit. A number of commissions have been set up and new institutions have been created. The right to information is being enforced in the state.

46. However, in other areas progress has been less than desirable. Corruption at different levels and law and order situation remain areas of concern. Corruption is a great enemy of human development. An effective anti-corruption strategy of State Government will need to be formulated and strictly implemented. Delay in the administration of justice is another critical issue that has to be addressed urgently

47. In open democratic systems transparency and accountability are the essential ingredients of good governance. Accountability is to be understood in terms of discharging public duty by public agencies and public servants, of standards of performance and of the quality of security and of services delivered to citizens. All this is possible when people have access to information relating to the functioning of public agencies. The Right to Information Act 2005 is indeed a powerful and enabling law. The crux lies in sincerely, effectively and unreservedly implementing the law. In U.P. the State Commission on Information was set up in 2006. The Chief

Information Commissioner and 5 Commissioners have been appointed so far. The results of this set-up have begun to emerge. The momentum is, however, yet to pick up. The important needs for its effective and successful implementation are (a) training and motivating of the personnel of government departments, public agencies, institutions, service providers, PSUs, local bodies, etc., (b) organizing information by all such establishments/bodies in a computerized form for easy and quick electronic accessibility, (c) equipping these bodies with computerization and connectivity facilities, (d) ensuring effective enforcement and (e) enlisting the co-operation and assistance of voluntary groups and community collectivities to play awareness-spreading and advocacy roles.

48. E-Governance is a powerful instrument for ensuring transparency and improving the efficiency and speed of service delivery. Other States have moved ahead in expanding the reach, scope and coverage of e-Governance. U.P. should also take steps to move rapidly in this area. *LOKVANI* has been a good initiative but its coverage is as yet limited. Policy is already in place; so are declared intentions. The information delivery and the needed quick grievance removal back-ups have to be properly put on the ground.

49. Decentralisation and devolution are needed for bringing government closer to the people and making its functioning transparent, accountable and responsive. There is a general feeling that the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> amendments have not been effective in U.P. in enlarging the functional domain of rural PRIs in a meaningful way. The required measure of devolution of powers, functions and resources has not materialized so far. The line departments and agencies, in most cases, continue to function on their own in respect of functions marked for PRIs. The fact that bureaucratic control over *Panchayats* continues in a large measure is the ground reality. The initial momentum built for empowering PRIs and making them grass root institutions of meaningful self-governance has lost steam in Uttar Pradesh.

50. Similarly, Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) in Uttar Pradesh remain weak in terms of resources, management capacities and real functional devolution. They do not command adequate financial resources. They are subjected to rigid government control leaving them little room for initiatives and innovations. They do not have the managerial and organizational capacities to provide and deliver the growing needs of civic services and infrastructure. A host of Government Departments, agencies, parastatals and institutions perform some of those very functions which should rightfully fall in the domain of ULBs. This confusing institutional overlapping diffuses responsibility, creates coordination problems and adversely impacts success of legitimate urban governance.

51. Unless empowered and participatory decentralization is promoted with political and administrative conviction and commitment, and concretized at the grass root level, peoples' institutions are restored, revitalized and strengthened in terms of authority, organizational wherewithal and resources, these bodies will remain disempowered and the task of inculcating a full sense of belonging in the citizen, of removing of inequities and poverty, and of reaching economic and social benefits to the common man, specially the poor and the weak, will remain largely unachieved. There is thus a crying need for putting decentralization firmly on the agenda of the state government by empowering the local bodies in terms of funds, functions and functionaries in a time bound manner.

52. If governance at the tool-meets-object level is to improve, which is undeniably the most critical level, and benefits of development and anti-poverty programmes reached effectually to those who need these most, it is the delivery systems that need to be tightened and vastly improved. Most development programmes launched at considerable costs and with lot of enthusiasm flounder for lack of properly worked out delivery systems.

53. As the chapter on governance highlights the key requirements for improving delivery systems would include:

- (a) Decentralization - democratic, institutional, financial and administrative,
- (b) Convergence of services and facilities at points of delivery,
- (c) Community participation, stakeholder involvement and citizen oversight,
- (d) Right to information, transparency, open decision-making,
- (e) One-window arrangements,
- (f) Quick grievance removal systems,
- (g) A credible and operative Citizen Charter system linked with social audit,
- (h) Effective field inspections, monitoring, feed-back and corrective action,
- (i) Careful targeting of benefits, subsidies, financial assistance, concessional prices, etc. also need to be delivered,
- (j) Outsourcing deliveries where feasible under supervision and quality-cum-cost control measures,
- (k) Use information technologies for improving deliveries, reducing costs and for ensuring smooth operation of supply lines, distribution, inventory control, monitoring, etc.

## Concluding Remarks

54. In the last few decades U.P. has made considerable progress in all dimensions of human development which is reflected in improvement in HDI values over time in all districts of the state. However, as this report demonstrates the condition remains far from satisfactory and the state remains nearly at the bottom in human development levels among all states of the country. Major challenges remain to be met in the path of human development in the state. The report has also indicated the major steps to be undertaken for this purpose in different areas.

55. U.P.'s progress on human development indicators calls for a paradigm shift in governance. It calls for empowerment of the people. It calls for a policy framework focused on fundamental rights and freedoms, a framework that guarantees the right to be free of poverty, ill health, illiteracy. It must confer on all citizens the right to know how money allocated for public purposes is actually spent. It should distinctly be a framework that strengthens rights and punishes wrongs.

56. Human development is a task which cannot be left to the government alone. The involvement of the civil society and the NGOs is a must. The NGO movement in Uttar Pradesh is at present weak. It needs to be strengthened and fully and effectively co-opted into the streams of planned development. Their assistance can be very advantageously enlisted for improving human development outcomes. Their co-ordination, co-operation and accountability needs to be regulated at the government level through the setting up of appropriate machinery for that purpose.

57. U.P. today stands at a critical juncture on the path of economic and human development. Unless it takes bold and determined steps to move ahead to meet the challenge of rapid growth and human development, it will be swamped in the morass of poverty and human deprivation. Fortunately, there are some favourable circumstances which have emerged recently and which need to be taken advantage of. The fiscal situation of the state has considerably improved. The size of the annual plans has been going up sharply. The states capacity to invest from its own resources in the field of economic and social infrastructure has visibly improved. In addition, there has been a larger flow from the centre in the form of TFC grants and Centrally Sponsored Schemes. The momentum of economic growth seems to have picked up during the Tenth Five Year Plan giving confidence for taking bolder steps during the Eleventh Five Year Plan. After a long gap political stability has been restored in the state. There is greater awareness among the government and people of the state about the human development issues. What is needed is a clear political direction backed by effective delivery systems and constant vigil by the people.

## Technical Note on Methodology of Human Development Indices

### Human Development Index (HDI)

HDI is a summary measure of human development. It measures the average achievements in three basic dimensions of human development:

- I. A long and a healthy life as measured by the life expectancy at birth.
- II. Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rates (with two-thirds weight) and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrollment ratio (with one-third weight)
- III. A decent standard of living measured by GDP per capita (PPP \$).

To arrive at HDI, dimension indices are created. These are calculated as:

$$\text{Dimension Index} = \frac{\text{Actual Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}{\text{Maximum Value} - \text{Minimum Value}}$$

Therefore, performance in each indicator is expressed as a value between 0 and 1. Finally each dimension is combined using simple average to arrive at HDI.

This Report uses the same three dimensions as those in the UNDP Human Development Reports as well as a similar methodology for the calculation of the HDI. However, some of the variables used in this report, and some other methodological details are different because of practical considerations related to availability of district level data and suitability in the light of state specific considerations.

1. Education Index: We have made a departure from the standard UNDP's methodology to compute the Education Index. Instead of adult literacy, we have used literacy rate of 7 years and above. We have also refrained from using school enrollment rate for want of reliable data at district level for all the years, for which HDI was computed. In the light of these considerations, we have thought it appropriate to rely on the literacy rate (7+years) figures available from 1991 and 2001 Census to compute the Education Index. For 2005, projected literacy rate figures have been used. As usual, to calculate the dimension index, minimum and maximum values of the literacy rate are 0 and 100 percent respectively.

2. Health Index: UNDP makes use of life expectancy at birth (LEB) as the indicator to compute the Health Index. For U.P. districts; the estimates for

LEB were available only for 1991 (through a special study commissioned for the First UPHDR) and 1981. We have, therefore, used Infant Mortality rate. The IMR for the years 2001 and 2005 are the derived rates based on the RCH Surveys. For IMR, the Lower and Upper limits are 10 and 200, based on the current and past-observed IMR in India and U.P.

3. Income Index: In the HDI income serves as a surrogate for all the dimensions of human development not reflected in Health and Education Index. The UNDP takes as minimum and maximum values of real GDP per capita (PPP\$) at \$100 and \$40,000. The income Index is calculated using an adjusted district per capita income in PPP\$. The district per capita income in PPP\$ equivalent is derived from the district per capita income at constant prices in rupees, multiplying with the ratio of per capita GDP in PPP\$ in India and per capita GDP in rupees in India for the relevant years. After estimating the district per capita income in PPP\$, the Income Index is computed using the log values of income as:

$$\text{Income Index} = \frac{\log(\text{per capita Income PPP\$}) - \log(100)}{\log(40,000) - \log(100)}$$

The income index is adjusted using the above formula because achieving respectable level of human development does not require unlimited income

4. Calculation of the HDI: The three dimension indices have been used to compute the HDI. It is the simple average of three dimension indices as:

$$\text{HDI} = \frac{1}{3}[\text{income index} + \text{health index} + \text{education index}]$$

### Gender- Related Development Index (GDI)

5. While the HDI measures average achievement, the GDI adjusts the average achievement to reflect the inequalities between men and women in the same dimensions as that of HDI. The calculation of GDI involves three steps. First, female and male indices in each dimension are calculated according to the dimension index formula explained before. Second, the female and male indices in each dimension are combined in a way that penalizes differences in achievement between men and women. This index is called Equality Distributed Index. This is calculated according to the following formula:

$$\text{Equally Distributed Index} = \frac{1}{\frac{\text{Female Pop. Share}}{\text{Female Index}} + \frac{\text{Male Pop. Share}}{\text{Male Index}}}$$

It gives the harmonic mean of female and male Indices.

Third, the GDI is calculated by combining the three equally distributed indices in an unweighted average.

6. Method to calculate Education and Health indices remains the same as in HDI calculations. Income index is arrived at in a different way in GDI. The steps are as follows:

### Computing Equally distributed Income Index

First per capita income for women and men are calculated from the female share and male share of earned income. The Female share of income is computed using the formula given below:

$$\text{Female share of Earned Income} = \frac{\text{ratio of female to male wage* share of female workers}}{\text{ratio of female to male wage* (share of female workers+ share of male workers)}}$$

The estimated female share of female earned income has been used to compute the district per capita income of women and district per capita income of men. These per capita incomes have been adjusted for equivalent to PPP\$ using the same procedure as in HDI. The income dimension index for female and male has been computed using the formula given before. These indices have been used to compute the equally distributed income index

7. Having thus computed the equally distributed indices for health, education and income, the GDI is computed as the simple average of the three equally distributed indices as:

$GDI = 1/3 * (\text{equally distributed index of income} + \text{equally distributed index of health} + \text{equally distributed index of education})$

### Deprivation Index

8. The deprivation index measures the deprivation in four basic necessities of well being such as quality of housing, a access to drinking water, good sanitation and electricity for lighting. The following indicators have been used to compute the deprivation index

- (i) Deprivation in Quality of Housing (d1): this is measured through percentage of households not residing in a permanent house.
- (ii) Deprivation in Access to Water (d2): The deprivation in access to water is measured through percentage of households whose source drinking water is away from the house.
- (iii) Deprivation in Good Sanitation (d3): Deprivation in good sanitation is measured through percentage of households who do not have the facility of latrine.
- (iv) Deprivation in Electricity for Lighting (d4): Deprivation in electricity lighting is measured through percentage of households who do not have the source of lighting as electricity.

The above indicators for all districts of U.P. have been taken from census 1991 and census 2001.

9. The formula for calculating the Deprivation Index is similar to that of Human Poverty Index used by the UNDP. The formula is as follows:

$$\text{Deprivation Index} = [1/4(d1^3 + d2^3 + d3^3 + d4^3)]^{1/3}$$



## Uttar Pradesh Women Policy 2006: A Vision for the Future

### Objectives:

- Changing social attitudes towards women making them more gender sensitive.
- Promoting/ensuring effective protection of women's rights.
- Ensuring women's need for security.
- Ensuring women's participation in all decision making processes and strengthening their capacities to negotiate
- Enhancing women's self-esteem and dignity.
- Building women's capacity to access social and development resources.
- Ensuring women's participation in economic activities through proactive policy.
- Ensuring women presence in all walks of life.
- To take steps to combat violence and atrocities against women.

### Steps taken

- Gender budgeting exercise initiated in 2005-06 as an effective policy instrument.
- 3 Tier Panchayats to have 33% reservation for women and clear directions to discuss women related issues in meetings.
- State commission for women established.
- 20% seats for women in services reserved.
- 50% women reservation in Shiksha Mitra.
- 40% women beneficiaries in SGSY.
- 50% women reservation in BTC courses.
- Mothers name to be mandatory included in enrollment in educational institutions.
- Only women workers to cook mid day meal.
- Women SHG's promoted in Swashakti Swayamsiddha, SJGS, UPDASP & NABARD to enhance women's credit and thrift and linkage with income generation programmes.
- Mahila dairy cooperatives formed in Mahila dairy project reaching out to 55000 women.
- Health insurance for women in SHG's provided.
- Enterprise and skill up gradation training provided by the small scale industries department and Khadi Gram Udyog Vibhag.
- Destitute and widow pension and money to encourage remarriage.
- Working women hostels, protection and short stay homes set up.
- Women given priority in allotment of houses under Indira Awas Yojana.
- Sexual Harassment at work place clause has been added to the UP State Employee conduct rules.
- Reduction of stamp duty for women.
- Kanya Vidya Dhan Yojana included for encouraging girls education.
- Girls Secondary Schools in 426 unserved blocks set up through supporting schools management.
- School Chalo Abhiyan to encourage girls enrollment.
- Sexual harassment at work place complaint committees set up in all departments.
- 11 Mahila thanas & 14 family counselling cells and family courts set up.
- Land pattas of cultivable land to be given to joint names of wife and husband, to widows, adult unmarried daughters women who are orphaned divorced women and to women agricultural workers.
- Derogatory terms like 'VIDHWA' not to be used for women who have lost their spouses.
- CHILDLINE service in Lucknow, Agra & Varanasi to be extended to all zones.
- District Dowry prohibition officer appointed in all districts.
- Jan Shree Bima Yojana for workers in the unorganized sector.
- Kasturba Gandhi Vidyalaya as residential schools for girls of unserved communities.
- Separate toilets for girls in school.
- NPEG for elementary education in 746 blocks.
- Shelter homes for destitute and elderly women under SWADHAR scheme specially in Mathura, Vrindavan and other religious cities.

The policy States that the responsibility of its implementation lies primarily with the department of women and child welfare. The policy purposes to specifically address the following issues:

- Gender discrimination in family and outside, child marriage, trafficking, female foeticide are critical issues to be dealt with community participation.
- Position of girl child specially adolescent girl with reference to building self confidence and controlling violence.
- Education for all sensitizing the entire education processes with reference to gender with CSO participation.
- Capacity building and training for women's self reliance to career.
- Emphasis on IT & entrepreneurship in women's trainings.
- Holistic approach to women's health including nutrition and reproductive health.
- Reducing MMR is a priority as are safe-deliveries. HIV/AIDS awareness and preventive strategies to be worked at
- Media to be utilized for transforming negative social attitude towards women.
- Ensuring women's rights over land. Training women in newer technologies and ensuring reduction of drudgery.
- Developing clear indicator for GDI inclusive of IMR, MMR Sex ratio women's participation in decision making.
- Easy credit for women.
- Encourage SHG's and bank linkage procedures to be simplified.
- Women to be trained in book keeping and other necessary legal procedures and marketing.
- Attempt to assess women's domestic work in monetary terms and add it to GNP.
- Care for women convicts and speedy trials.
- Reduction in property tax owned by women.
- relaxation of age limit for married women in government service.
- Name of mother to be included in all Government documents.
- Homes to be improved.
- Adoption laws to be simplified.
- Setting up of a women's empowerment centre in all districts where under a single roof there is provision for legal aid, counselling, training, Thana legal aid, NGO support and help line along with residential short stay homes.
- Women in difficult circumstances and female headed households to be given priority.
- Ashram Sadans to be formed for destitute and old women.
- Disabled women to be supported through training and market linkages.
- Special protection for mentally challenged with caring foster care homes.
- Sensitive treatment of child abuse cases.
- Crèches and working women hostels to support working women.
- Family counselling sells in all family and district courts with gender sensitized trained counsellors.
- Sensitization of all officials involving CSO's.
- Recognizing special needs of women victims of dowry torture and violence.
- Priority to single women in allotment of land and housing.
- Court fee to be reduced in the case of maintenance, property, violence and divorce.
- Resolution to be ensured in 6 months.
- Mahila Desk in every thana.
- 20% women to be recruited in police.
- Victims of violence to be specially secured specially those who have suffered in communal and caste violence.
- Greater security in transport and night shifts for women.
- Ensuring human rights for immigrant women workers through giving identity cards.
- Gender segregated data to be collected at the State level.
- An apex body to be constituted to monitor implement and coordinate programmes for women empowerment

# **Statistical Appendices**



## District wise Human Development Index

District	1991		2001		2005	
	HDI Value	Rank	HDI Value	Rank	HDI Value	Rank
Agra	0.5307	6	0.5938	7	0.6215	7
Aligarh	0.4310	32	0.5476	29	0.5738	30
Allahabad	0.4143	41	0.5473	30	0.5739	29
Ambedkar Nagar	0.4207	36	0.5261	39	0.5580	37
Auraiya	0.4853	16	0.5857	9	0.6074	14
Azamgarh	0.4082	44	0.5149	43	0.5414	44
Baghpat	0.5586	3	0.6070	6	0.6392	5
Bahraich	0.2671	70	0.4067	69	0.4404	69
Ballia	0.5123	10	0.5673	17	0.5814	26
Balrampur	0.3117	66	0.4238	68	0.4476	68
Banda	0.3924	47	0.5057	49	0.5456	41
Barabanki	0.3874	50	0.5114	44	0.5297	52
Bareilly	0.3814	52	0.4913	54	0.5332	51
Basti	0.3154	65	0.4578	63	0.4921	61
Bijnor	0.4402	31	0.5608	22	0.5866	24
Budaun	0.2752	69	0.4408	67	0.4605	67
Bulandshahar	0.4581	27	0.5729	16	0.6017	17
Chandauli	0.4892	15	0.5591	23	0.5876	22
Chitrakoot	0.3751	53	0.5411	33	0.5907	20
Deoria	0.4163	39	0.5177	41	0.5418	43
Etah	0.3613	59	0.5059	48	0.5361	48
Etawah	0.4722	22	0.5666	18	0.6090	12
Faizabad	0.4267	34	0.5324	35	0.5544	39
Farrukhabad	0.4581	28	0.5492	27	0.5773	27
Fatehpur	0.4186	38	0.5105	45	0.5334	50
Firozabad	0.4116	43	0.5579	24	0.5876	23
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.5393	5	0.6740	1	0.7017	1
Ghaziabad	0.5517	4	0.6369	2	0.6566	2
Ghazipur	0.4717	23	0.5505	26	0.5702	33
Gonda	0.3257	64	0.4450	66	0.4780	65
Gorakhpur	0.4796	20	0.5479	28	0.5759	28
Hamirpur	0.4152	40	0.5300	38	0.5678	35
Hardoi	0.3342	62	0.4781	60	0.5103	59
Hathras	0.5081	12	0.5841	12	0.6159	11
Jalaun	0.4831	17	0.5567	25	0.6059	16
Jaunpur	0.4277	33	0.5317	37	0.5546	38
Jhansi	0.4657	26	0.5852	10	0.6214	8
Jyotiba Phulenagar	0.4248	35	0.5408	34	0.5722	31
Kannauj	0.4814	18	0.5735	15	0.5861	25

District	1991		2001		2005	
	HDI Value	Rank	HDI Value	Rank	HDI Value	Rank
Kanpur Dehat	0.4894	14	0.5754	14	0.6077	13
Kanpur Nagar	0.5703	2	0.6257	3	0.6506	3
Kaushambi	0.3548	60	0.4825	59	0.5212	56
Kheri	0.4122	42	0.5157	42	0.5426	42
Kushinagar	0.3877	49	0.4839	58	0.5049	60
Lalitpur	0.3895	48	0.4919	53	0.5345	49
Lucknow	0.5232	7	0.6211	4	0.6477	4
Maharajganj	0.3713	56	0.4668	62	0.4906	63
Mahoba	0.4806	19	0.5219	40	0.5690	34
Mainpuri	0.4463	29	0.5647	20	0.5891	21
Mathura	0.5063	13	0.5849	11	0.6163	10
Mau	0.5139	8	0.5653	19	0.5910	19
Meerut	0.5735	1	0.6113	5	0.6300	6
Mirzapur	0.4402	30	0.5320	36	0.5534	40
Moradabad	0.3983	46	0.5029	50	0.5266	54
Muzaffarnagar	0.4726	21	0.5643	21	0.5937	18
Pilibhit	0.3633	57	0.5067	47	0.5372	47
Pratapgarh	0.3726	54	0.5008	52	0.5284	53
Rae Bareli	0.3857	51	0.4877	57	0.5230	55
Rampur	0.3716	55	0.4682	61	0.4915	62
Saharanpur	0.5131	9	0.5882	8	0.6173	9
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.3086	67	0.4470	64	0.4800	64
Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.4693	25	0.5455	31	0.5706	32
Shahjahanpur	0.3468	61	0.4893	56	0.5133	58
Shrawasti	0.2924	68	0.4042	70	0.4132	70
Siddharthnagar	0.3336	63	0.4462	65	0.4690	66
Sitapur	0.3626	58	0.4906	55	0.5143	57
Sonbhadra	0.4702	24	0.5424	32	0.5619	36
Sultanpur	0.4192	37	0.5088	46	0.5388	46
Unnao	0.4057	45	0.5017	51	0.5397	45
Varanasi	0.5123	11	0.5800	13	0.6068	15
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.4249</b>		<b>0.5442</b>		<b>0.5709</b>	

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.

## Components of Human Development Index 1991

District	Education Index	Health Index	Income Index	HDI
Agra	0.4858	0.7474	0.3589	0.5307
Aligarh	0.4494	0.5053	0.3384	0.4310
Allahabad	0.4517	0.4789	0.3122	0.4143
Ambedkar Nagar	0.3967	0.6211	0.2443	0.4207
Auraiya	0.5290	0.6053	0.3215	0.4853
Azamgarh	0.3919	0.5684	0.2644	0.4082
Baghpat	0.4869	0.7842	0.4047	0.5586
Bahraich	0.2267	0.3263	0.2483	0.2671
Ballia	0.4389	0.8526	0.2453	0.5123
Balrampur	0.2375	0.3684	0.3293	0.3117
Banda	0.3733	0.4895	0.3144	0.3924
Barabanki	0.3111	0.5368	0.3144	0.3874
Bareilly	0.3288	0.4632	0.3523	0.3814
Basti	0.3536	0.3421	0.2506	0.3154
Bijnor	0.4055	0.5316	0.3834	0.4402
Budaun	0.2464	0.2842	0.2949	0.2752
Bulandshahar	0.4600	0.5368	0.3775	0.4581
Chandauli	0.4481	0.6526	0.3668	0.4892
Chitrakoot	0.3219	0.4895	0.3140	0.3751
Deoria	0.4242	0.5737	0.2510	0.4163
Etah	0.4015	0.3632	0.3194	0.3613
Etawah	0.538	0.6053	0.2734	0.4722
Faizabad	0.3744	0.6211	0.2846	0.4267
Farrukhabad	0.4723	0.6421	0.2598	0.4581
Fatehpur	0.4469	0.4947	0.3143	0.4186
Firozabad	0.4630	0.4737	0.2980	0.4116
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.5166	0.5842	0.5170	0.5393
Ghaziabad	0.5443	0.7158	0.3951	0.5517
Ghazipur	0.4327	0.7211	0.2613	0.4717
Gonda	0.2956	0.3684	0.3130	0.3257
Gorakhpur	0.4330	0.7316	0.2743	0.4796
Hamirpur	0.4171	0.5000	0.3286	0.4152
Hardoi	0.363	0.3632	0.2765	0.3342
Hathras	0.4632	0.7158	0.3452	0.5081
Jalaun	0.5072	0.6158	0.3264	0.4831
Jaunpur	0.4222	0.6211	0.2397	0.4277
Jhansi	0.5199	0.5000	0.3772	0.4657
Jyotiba Phulenagar	0.3196	0.5842	0.3705	0.4248
Kannauj	0.479	0.6421	0.3230	0.4814
Kanpur Dehat	0.5186	0.6263	0.3232	0.4894

District	Education Index	Health Index	Income Index	HDI
Kanpur Nagar	0.6395	0.6789	0.3924	0.5703
Kaushambi	0.2956	0.4789	0.2898	0.3548
Kheri	0.2971	0.6053	0.3343	0.4122
Kushinagar	0.323	0.5737	0.2665	0.3877
Lalitpur	0.3212	0.5105	0.3369	0.3895
Lucknow	0.5749	0.6105	0.3842	0.5232
Maharajganj	0.289	0.5368	0.2880	0.3713
Mahoba	0.3649	0.7316	0.3455	0.4806
Mainpuri	0.5029	0.5316	0.3043	0.4463
Mathura	0.4485	0.7000	0.3705	0.5063
Mau	0.4380	0.8053	0.2985	0.5139
Meerut	0.5241	0.7842	0.4121	0.5735
Mirzapur	0.3968	0.6105	0.3134	0.4402
Moradabad	0.3067	0.5842	0.3040	0.3983
Muzaffarnagar	0.4400	0.5895	0.3882	0.4726
Pilibhit	0.3210	0.4053	0.3637	0.3633
Pratapgarh	0.4040	0.4684	0.2455	0.3726
Rae Bareli	0.3778	0.4895	0.2898	0.3857
Rampur	0.2537	0.5211	0.3400	0.3716
Saharanpur	0.4211	0.7316	0.3865	0.5131
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.3495	0.3421	0.2342	0.3086
Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.4002	0.6526	0.3551	0.4693
Shahjahanpur	0.3207	0.3737	0.3461	0.3468
Shrawasti	0.2955	0.3263	0.2554	0.2924
Siddharthnagar	0.2716	0.5211	0.2081	0.3336
Sitapur	0.3141	0.4684	0.3052	0.3626
Sonbhadra	0.3440	0.6105	0.4560	0.4702
Sultanpur	0.3849	0.5474	0.3252	0.4192
Unnao	0.3870	0.5421	0.2879	0.4057
Varanasi	0.5188	0.6526	0.3654	0.5123
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.4071</b>	<b>0.5316</b>	<b>0.3360</b>	<b>0.4249</b>

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.



## Components of Human Development Index 2001

District	Education Index	Health Index	Income Index	HDI
Agra	0.6260	0.6726	0.4827	0.5938
Aligarh	0.5848	0.5909	0.4671	0.5476
Allahabad	0.6211	0.5564	0.4643	0.5473
Ambedkar Nagar	0.5843	0.6351	0.3590	0.5261
Auraiya	0.7050	0.5733	0.4789	0.5857
Azamgarh	0.5695	0.5990	0.3763	0.5149
Baghpat	0.6424	0.6557	0.5230	0.6070
Bahraich	0.3516	0.5107	0.3579	0.4067
Ballia	0.5786	0.7501	0.3731	0.5673
Balrampur	0.3460	0.5436	0.3818	0.4238
Banda	0.5438	0.5830	0.3903	0.5057
Barabanki	0.4739	0.5929	0.4674	0.5114
Bareilly	0.4784	0.5772	0.4183	0.4913
Basti	0.5249	0.4829	0.3655	0.4578
Bijnor	0.5808	0.6031	0.4985	0.5608
Budaun	0.3817	0.5040	0.4367	0.4408
Bulandshahar	0.5939	0.6031	0.5218	0.5729
Chandauli	0.5972	0.6351	0.4451	0.5591
Chitrakoot	0.6504	0.5830	0.3899	0.5411
Deoria	0.5864	0.6010	0.3658	0.5177
Etah	0.5463	0.5295	0.4419	0.5059
Etawah	0.6957	0.5733	0.4308	0.5666
Faizabad	0.5628	0.6351	0.3994	0.5324
Farrukhabad	0.6089	0.5889	0.4498	0.5492
Fatehpur	0.5630	0.5472	0.4214	0.5105
Firozabad	0.6448	0.5657	0.4632	0.5579
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.6869	0.6877	0.6475	0.6740
Ghaziabad	0.6974	0.6877	0.5257	0.6369
Ghazipur	0.5955	0.6775	0.3784	0.5505
Gonda	0.4259	0.5436	0.3656	0.4450
Gorakhpur	0.5849	0.6581	0.4008	0.5479
Hamirpur	0.5738	0.5657	0.4505	0.5300
Hardoi	0.5188	0.5174	0.3980	0.4781
Hathras	0.6249	0.6464	0.4810	0.5841
Jalaun	0.6452	0.5772	0.4478	0.5567
Jaunpur	0.5984	0.6156	0.3811	0.5317
Jhansi	0.6547	0.6010	0.4998	0.5852
Jyotiba Phulenagar	0.4947	0.6177	0.5101	0.5408
Kannauj	0.6188	0.5889	0.5129	0.5735
Kanpur Dehat	0.6644	0.5970	0.4649	0.5754

District	Education Index	Health Index	Income Index	HDI
Kanpur Nagar	0.7437	0.6396	0.4938	0.6257
Kaushambi	0.4688	0.5564	0.4222	0.4825
Kheri	0.4839	0.6093	0.4539	0.5157
Kushinagar	0.4694	0.6010	0.3813	0.4839
Lalitpur	0.4946	0.5436	0.4375	0.4919
Lucknow	0.6871	0.6396	0.5366	0.6211
Maharajganj	0.4661	0.5454	0.3890	0.4668
Mahoba	0.5328	0.5657	0.4673	0.5219
Mainpuri	0.6509	0.6010	0.4423	0.5647
Mathura	0.6146	0.6464	0.4937	0.5849
Mau	0.6216	0.6557	0.4187	0.5653
Meerut	0.6479	0.6557	0.5303	0.6113
Mirzapur	0.5531	0.6135	0.4295	0.5320
Moradabad	0.4475	0.6177	0.4436	0.5029
Muzaffarnagar	0.6067	0.5889	0.4974	0.5643
Pilibhit	0.4981	0.5601	0.4619	0.5067
Pratapgarh	0.5760	0.5657	0.3607	0.5008
Rae Bareli	0.5379	0.5330	0.3922	0.4877
Rampur	0.3876	0.5620	0.4549	0.4682
Saharanpur	0.6122	0.6374	0.5152	0.5882
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.5088	0.4829	0.3491	0.4470
Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.5790	0.6351	0.4225	0.5455
Shahjahanpur	0.4909	0.5208	0.4560	0.4893
Shrawasti	0.3382	0.5107	0.3636	0.4042
Siddharthnagar	0.4230	0.5564	0.3593	0.4462
Sitapur	0.4832	0.5638	0.4248	0.4906
Sonbhadra	0.4922	0.6114	0.5236	0.5424
Sultanpur	0.5575	0.5582	0.4106	0.5088
Unnao	0.5464	0.5564	0.4024	0.5017
Varanasi	0.6612	0.6351	0.4437	0.5800
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.5627</b>	<b>0.6211</b>	<b>0.4489</b>	<b>0.5442</b>

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.

## Components of Human Development Index 2005

District	Education Index	Health Index	Income Index	HDI
Agra	0.6619	0.7143	0.4882	0.6215
Aligarh	0.6171	0.6416	0.4628	0.5738
Allahabad	0.6642	0.6108	0.4465	0.5739
Ambedkar Nagar	0.6294	0.6810	0.3637	0.5580
Auraiya	0.7559	0.6259	0.4405	0.6074
Azamgarh	0.6111	0.6488	0.3644	0.5414
Baghpat	0.6833	0.6993	0.5350	0.6392
Bahraich	0.3694	0.5701	0.3817	0.4404
Ballia	0.6116	0.7833	0.3492	0.5814
Balrampur	0.3612	0.5995	0.3821	0.4476
Banda	0.5819	0.6345	0.4202	0.5456
Barabanki	0.5055	0.6434	0.4403	0.5297
Bareilly	0.5077	0.6293	0.4626	0.5332
Basti	0.5619	0.5454	0.3690	0.4921
Bijnor	0.6226	0.6524	0.4849	0.5866
Budaun	0.4027	0.5642	0.4145	0.4605
Bulandshahar	0.6264	0.6524	0.5264	0.6017
Chandauli	0.6337	0.6810	0.4483	0.5876
Chitrakoot	0.7401	0.6345	0.3974	0.5907
Deoria	0.6254	0.6506	0.3496	0.5418
Etah	0.5786	0.5869	0.4427	0.5361
Etawah	0.7406	0.6259	0.4604	0.6090
Faizabad	0.6064	0.6810	0.3759	0.5544
Farrukhabad	0.6428	0.6398	0.4491	0.5773
Fatehpur	0.5895	0.6027	0.4080	0.5334
Firozabad	0.6930	0.6192	0.4507	0.5876
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.7349	0.7277	0.6425	0.7017
Ghaziabad	0.7411	0.7277	0.5011	0.6566
Ghazipur	0.6353	0.7187	0.3566	0.5702
Gonda	0.4485	0.5995	0.3858	0.4780
Gorakhpur	0.6213	0.7014	0.4051	0.5759
Hamirpur	0.6106	0.6192	0.4735	0.5678
Hardoi	0.5519	0.5762	0.4029	0.5103
Hathras	0.6663	0.6910	0.4905	0.6159
Jalaun	0.6815	0.6293	0.5069	0.6059
Jaunpur	0.6417	0.6636	0.3586	0.5546
Jhansi	0.6908	0.6506	0.5229	0.6214
Jyotiba Phulenagar	0.5303	0.6654	0.5210	0.5722
Kannauj	0.6541	0.6398	0.4643	0.5861
Kanpur Dehat	0.7040	0.6470	0.4721	0.6077

District	Education Index	Health Index	Income Index	HDI
Kanpur Nagar	0.7751	0.6849	0.4918	0.6506
Kaushambi	0.5021	0.6108	0.4506	0.5212
Kheri	0.5211	0.6579	0.4487	0.5426
Kushinagar	0.4975	0.6506	0.3667	0.5049
Lalitpur	0.5298	0.5995	0.4743	0.5345
Lucknow	0.7185	0.6849	0.5397	0.6477
Maharajganj	0.5000	0.6011	0.3708	0.4906
Mahoba	0.5695	0.6192	0.5185	0.5690
Mainpuri	0.6903	0.6506	0.4265	0.5891
Mathura	0.6565	0.6910	0.5015	0.6163
Mau	0.6685	0.6993	0.4053	0.5910
Meerut	0.6806	0.6993	0.5101	0.6300
Mirzapur	0.5885	0.6617	0.4102	0.5534
Moradabad	0.4732	0.6654	0.4411	0.5266
Muzaffarnagar	0.6482	0.6398	0.4932	0.5937
Pilibhit	0.5344	0.6141	0.4630	0.5372
Pratapgarh	0.6167	0.6192	0.3494	0.5284
Rae Bareli	0.5732	0.5900	0.4058	0.5230
Rampur	0.4088	0.6158	0.4497	0.4915
Saharanpur	0.6604	0.6829	0.5086	0.6173
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.5421	0.5454	0.3526	0.4800
Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.6215	0.6810	0.4095	0.5706
Shahjahanpur	0.5252	0.5792	0.4354	0.5133
Shrawasti	0.3440	0.5701	0.3255	0.4132
Siddharthnagar	0.4492	0.6108	0.3469	0.4690
Sitapur	0.5168	0.6175	0.4087	0.5143
Sonbhadra	0.5221	0.6598	0.5038	0.5619
Sultanpur	0.5970	0.6125	0.4068	0.5388
Unnao	0.5820	0.6108	0.4262	0.5397
Varanasi	0.6996	0.6810	0.4397	0.6068
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.5985</b>	<b>0.6684</b>	<b>0.4458</b>	<b>0.5709</b>

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.

## District wise Gender Development Index 2001 and 2005

District	2001		2005	
	GDI	Rank	GDI	Rank
Agra	0.4897	31	0.5350	28
Aligarh	0.4759	36	0.5208	34
Allahabad	0.5108	21	0.5493	18
Ambedkar Nagar	0.4969	27	0.5389	24
Auraiya	0.5373	10	0.5998	3
Azamgarh	0.4896	32	0.5211	32
Baghpat	0.5507	2	0.5823	7
Bahraich	0.3657	68	0.3997	67
Ballia	0.5275	13	0.5479	19
Balrampur	0.4008	64	0.4307	64
Banda	0.4795	33	0.5176	38
Barabanki	0.4637	48	0.5057	46
Bareilly	0.4134	58	0.4836	52
Basti	0.4201	56	0.4663	56
Bijnor	0.4732	41	0.5068	44
Budaun	0.3470	70	0.3620	70
Bulandshahar	0.5478	3	0.5992	4
Chandauli	0.5137	19	0.5549	16
Chitrakoot	0.5235	15	0.5763	10
Deoria	0.4748	38	0.5085	42
Etah	0.4165	57	0.4531	59
Etawah	0.4780	34	0.5450	21
Faizabad	0.5055	24	0.5328	29
Farrukhabad	0.4664	44	0.5077	43
Fatehpur	0.4746	39	0.4992	49
Firozabad	0.4648	46	0.5191	37
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.5579	1	0.6018	1
Ghaziabad	0.5284	12	0.5652	14
Ghazipur	0.5263	14	0.5607	15
Gonda	0.3922	65	0.4274	65
Gorakhpur	0.5091	22	0.5441	22
Hamirpur	0.5018	26	0.5363	26
Hardoi	0.4037	63	0.4450	62
Hathras	0.5069	23	0.5323	30
Jalaun	0.5120	20	0.5507	17
Jaunpur	0.5042	25	0.5383	25
Jhansi	0.5429	4	0.5858	6
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	0.4753	37	0.5241	31
Kannauj	0.5224	16	0.5681	12

District	2001		2005	
	GDI	Rank	GDI	Rank
Kanpur Dehat	0.5196	17	0.5787	8
Kanpur Nagar	0.5428	5	0.6006	2
Kaushambi	0.4524	50	0.4939	50
Kheri	0.4331	54	0.4829	53
Kushinagar	0.4438	52	0.4742	55
Lalitpur	0.4643	47	0.5103	40
Lucknow	0.5398	8	0.5770	9
Mahoba	0.4131	59	0.4454	58
Mahrajganj	0.4934	30	0.5399	23
Mainpuri	0.4673	43	0.5200	36
Mathura	0.5421	6	0.5959	5
Mau	0.5417	7	0.5701	11
Meerut	0.5294	11	0.5476	20
Mirzapur	0.4945	28	0.5202	35
Moradabad	0.4263	55	0.4756	54
Muzaffarnagar	0.4766	35	0.5067	45
Pilibhit	0.4093	61	0.4368	63
Pratapgarh	0.4718	42	0.5051	47
Rae Bareli	0.4490	51	0.4899	51
Rampur	0.3483	69	0.3849	69
Saharanpur	0.4736	40	0.5131	39
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.4119	60	0.4521	60
Sant Ravidas Nagar Bhadohi	0.4934	29	0.5211	33
Shahjahanpur	0.3718	66	0.4210	66
Shrawasti	0.3680	67	0.3925	68
Siddharthnagar	0.4383	53	0.4638	57
Sitapur	0.4049	62	0.4495	61
Sonbhadra	0.5174	18	0.5351	27
Sultanpur	0.4650	45	0.5096	41
Unnao	0.4546	49	0.5035	48
Varanasi	0.5387	9	0.5674	13
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.4910</b>		<b>0.5277</b>	

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.

## Components of Gender Development Index 2001

District	Equally Distributed Education index	Equally Distributed Health index	Equally Distributed Income index	GDI
Agra	0.5973	0.6670	0.2048	0.4897
Aligarh	0.5480	0.5825	0.2971	0.4759
Allahabad	0.5845	0.5536	0.3944	0.5108
Ambedkar Nagar	0.5557	0.6264	0.3087	0.4969
Auraiya	0.6885	0.5798	0.3436	0.5373
Azamgarh	0.5375	0.5982	0.3332	0.4896
Baghpat	0.6113	0.6568	0.3840	0.5507
Bahraich	0.3112	0.5379	0.2482	0.3657
Ballia	0.5426	0.7461	0.2937	0.5275
Balrampur	0.3014	0.5580	0.3431	0.4008
Banda	0.4918	0.5780	0.3687	0.4795
Barabanki	0.4402	0.6180	0.3329	0.4637
Bareilly	0.4481	0.5715	0.2207	0.4134
Basti	0.4808	0.4784	0.3011	0.4201
Bijnor	0.5581	0.6172	0.2443	0.4732
Budaun	0.3417	0.5060	0.1933	0.3470
Bulandshahar	0.5502	0.6507	0.4426	0.5478
Chandauli	0.5588	0.6318	0.3505	0.5137
Chitrakoot	0.6196	0.5782	0.3727	0.5235
Deoria	0.5425	0.6008	0.2811	0.4748
Etah	0.5075	0.5218	0.2202	0.4165
Etawah	0.6765	0.5798	0.1778	0.4780
Faizabad	0.5294	0.6259	0.3612	0.5055
Farrukhabad	0.5869	0.6171	0.1953	0.4664
Fatehpur	0.5290	0.5175	0.3773	0.4746
Firozabad	0.6194	0.5598	0.2154	0.4648
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.6582	0.6831	0.3322	0.5579
Ghaziabad	0.6801	0.6907	0.2145	0.5284
Ghazipur	0.5563	0.6953	0.3273	0.5263
Gonda	0.3732	0.5577	0.2457	0.3922
Gorakhpur	0.5447	0.6576	0.3251	0.5091
Hamirpur	0.5271	0.5643	0.4142	0.5018
Hardoi	0.4791	0.5133	0.2187	0.4037
Hathras	0.5872	0.6498	0.2837	0.5069
Jalaun	0.6128	0.5573	0.3660	0.5120
Jaunpur	0.5573	0.6113	0.3439	0.5042
Jhansi	0.6224	0.6038	0.4023	0.5429
Jyotiba Phulenagar	0.4532	0.6123	0.3605	0.4753
Kannauj	0.5950	0.6164	0.3559	0.5224

District	Equally Distributed Education index	Equally Distributed Health index	Equally distributed income index	GDI
Kanpur Dehat	0.6457	0.5919	0.3212	0.5196
Kanpur Nagar	0.7380	0.6352	0.2552	0.5428
Kaushambi	0.4103	0.5536	0.3932	0.4524
Kheri	0.4517	0.6287	0.2191	0.4331
Kushinagar	0.4072	0.6010	0.3231	0.4438
Lalitpur	0.4436	0.5401	0.4092	0.4643
Lucknow	0.6781	0.6424	0.2989	0.5398
Maharajganj	0.4001	0.4792	0.3601	0.4131
Mahoba	0.4786	0.5647	0.4368	0.4934
Mainpuri	0.6251	0.5879	0.1890	0.4673
Mathura	0.5676	0.6476	0.4112	0.5421
Mau	0.5930	0.6515	0.3805	0.5417
Meerut	0.6293	0.6564	0.3025	0.5294
Mirzapur	0.5097	0.6135	0.3603	0.4945
Moradabad	0.4193	0.6120	0.2475	0.4263
Muzaffarnagar	0.5824	0.5297	0.3178	0.4766
Pilibhit	0.4580	0.5968	0.1730	0.4093
Pratapgarh	0.5318	0.5645	0.3191	0.4718
Rae Bareli	0.5004	0.5354	0.3113	0.4490
Rampur	0.3596	0.5024	0.1831	0.3483
Saharanpur	0.5939	0.6359	0.1910	0.4736
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.4600	0.4780	0.2975	0.4119
Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.5173	0.6319	0.3309	0.4934
Shahjahanpur	0.4609	0.5185	0.1360	0.3718
Shrawasti	0.2746	0.5381	0.2914	0.3680
Siddharthnagar	0.3699	0.6104	0.3346	0.4383
Sitapur	0.4475	0.5803	0.1869	0.4049
Sonbhadra	0.4462	0.6318	0.4741	0.5174
Sultanpur	0.5187	0.5582	0.3180	0.4650
Unnao	0.5175	0.5567	0.2896	0.4546
Varanasi	0.6372	0.6322	0.3468	0.5387
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.5302</b>	<b>0.6128</b>	<b>0.3301</b>	<b>0.4910</b>

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.



## Components of Gender Development Index 2005

District	Equally Distributed Education index	Equally Distributed Health index	Equally Distributed Income index	GDI
Agra	0.6333	0.7095	0.2622	0.5350
Aligarh	0.5796	0.6344	0.3483	0.5208
Allahabad	0.6273	0.6084	0.4123	0.5493
Ambedkar Nagar	0.5999	0.6734	0.3433	0.5389
Auraiya	0.7403	0.6317	0.4276	0.5998
Azamgarh	0.5782	0.6483	0.3369	0.5211
Baghpat	0.6518	0.7004	0.3945	0.5823
Bahraich	0.3263	0.5957	0.2771	0.3997
Ballia	0.5752	0.7798	0.2886	0.5479
Balrampur	0.3141	0.6127	0.3654	0.4307
Banda	0.5270	0.6304	0.3955	0.5176
Barabanki	0.4702	0.6664	0.3805	0.5057
Bareilly	0.4753	0.6243	0.3511	0.4836
Basti	0.5152	0.5415	0.3421	0.4663
Bijnor	0.5991	0.6652	0.2561	0.5068
Budaun	0.3595	0.5662	0.1602	0.3620
Bulandshahar	0.5824	0.6956	0.5196	0.5992
Chandauli	0.5944	0.6782	0.3920	0.5549
Chitrakoot	0.7074	0.6305	0.3912	0.5763
Deoria	0.5800	0.6504	0.2949	0.5085
Etah	0.5382	0.5809	0.2402	0.4531
Etawah	0.7215	0.6317	0.2818	0.5450
Faizabad	0.5716	0.6731	0.3536	0.5328
Farrukhabad	0.6208	0.6658	0.2366	0.5077
Fatehpur	0.5555	0.5790	0.3631	0.4992
Firozabad	0.6670	0.6141	0.2762	0.5191
Gautam Buddha Nagar	0.7080	0.7305	0.3730	0.6038
Ghaziabad	0.7243	0.7305	0.2409	0.5652
Ghazipur	0.5952	0.7349	0.3519	0.5607
Gonda	0.3929	0.6124	0.2770	0.4274
Gorakhpur	0.5802	0.7010	0.3512	0.5441
Hamirpur	0.5622	0.6180	0.4286	0.5363
Hardoi	0.5101	0.5732	0.2516	0.4450
Hathras	0.6280	0.6849	0.2748	0.5292
Jalaun	0.6494	0.6121	0.3907	0.5507
Jaunpur	0.6000	0.6599	0.3552	0.5383
Jhansi	0.6583	0.6532	0.4460	0.5858
Jyotiba Phulenagar	0.4857	0.6619	0.4248	0.5241
Kannauj	0.6295	0.6650	0.4096	0.5681

District	Equally Distributed Education index	Equally Distributed Health index	Equally distributed income index	GDI
Kanpur Dehat	0.6858	0.6426	0.4078	0.5787
Kanpur Nagar	0.7706	0.6805	0.3506	0.6006
Kaushambi	0.4399	0.6084	0.4333	0.4939
Kheri	0.4862	0.6760	0.2866	0.4829
Kushinagar	0.4319	0.6506	0.3401	0.4742
Lalitpur	0.4742	0.5979	0.4587	0.5103
Lucknow	0.7098	0.6874	0.3337	0.5770
Maharajganj	0.4287	0.5965	0.3616	0.4623
Mahoba	0.5115	0.6184	0.4898	0.5399
Mainpuri	0.6646	0.6391	0.2564	0.5200
Mathura	0.6082	0.6922	0.4874	0.5959
Mau	0.6390	0.6962	0.3752	0.5701
Meerut	0.6625	0.7000	0.2802	0.5476
Mirzapur	0.5429	0.6617	0.3560	0.5202
Moradabad	0.4430	0.6616	0.3220	0.4756
Muzaffarnagar	0.6233	0.5902	0.3067	0.5067
Pilibhit	0.4912	0.6473	0.1719	0.4368
Pratapgarh	0.5715	0.6184	0.3254	0.5051
Rae Bareli	0.5342	0.5922	0.3434	0.4899
Rampur	0.3786	0.5674	0.2086	0.3849
Saharanpur	0.6418	0.6820	0.2153	0.5131
Sant Kabir Nagar	0.4908	0.5411	0.3244	0.4521
Sant Ravidas Nagar	0.5575	0.6783	0.3274	0.5211
Shahjahanpur	0.4931	0.5777	0.1923	0.4210
Shrawasti	0.2805	0.5958	0.3012	0.3925
Siddharthnagar	0.3922	0.6625	0.3366	0.4638
Sitapur	0.4785	0.6328	0.2374	0.4495
Sonbhadra	0.4728	0.6782	0.4542	0.5351
Sultanpur	0.5566	0.6125	0.3596	0.5096
Unnao	0.5521	0.6112	0.3474	0.5035
Varanasi	0.6762	0.6786	0.3475	0.5674
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.5650</b>	<b>0.6610</b>	<b>0.3572</b>	<b>0.5277</b>

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in alphabetical order.

## District wise Deprivation Index, 1991

Rank	District	Deprivation Index	Rank	District	Deprivation Index
1	Kanpur (Nagar)	28.52	28	Maharajganj	70.38
2	Ghaziabad	41.58	29	Azamgarh	70.43
3	Lucknow	44.38	30	Faizabad	71.38
4	Meerut	48.14	31	Farrukhabad	71.77
5	Rampur	51.36	32	Mirzapur	72.00
6	Saharanpur	54.00	33	Etawah	72.09
7	Bijnor	54.60	34	Ghazipur	73.00
8	Bareilly	55.54	35	Etah	73.26
9	Agra	56.41	36	Basti	73.90
10	Muzaffarnagar	56.53	37	Deoria	74.02
11	Moradabad	60.40	38	Mainpuri	74.88
12	Jhansi	60.48	39	Lalitpur	74.94
13	Bulandshahar	60.65	40	Gonda	75.11
14	Varanasi	61.58	41	Sultanpur	75.16
15	Gorakhpur	64.50	42	Hamirpur	75.52
16	Firozabad	65.20	43	Sidharthnagar	75.53
17	Mau	65.79	44	Banda	75.82
18	Aligarh	65.90	45	Bahraich	76.41
19	Pilibhit	66.04	46	Kheri	76.53
20	Jalaun	66.10	47	Pratapgarh	78.16
21	Jaunpur	66.10	48	Kanpur (Dehat)	79.03
22	Allahabad	66.41	49	Fatehpur	79.82
23	Mathura	67.08	50	Unnao	80.68
24	Ballia	68.39	51	Barabanki	80.78
25	Budaun	68.94	52	Rae Bareli	81.22
26	Shahjahanpur	69.66	53	Hardoi	82.79
27	Sonbhadra	69.99	54	Sitapur	83.14
	<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>65.12</b>			

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in ascending order of Deprivation Index..

## District wise Deprivation Index, 2001

Rank	District	Deprivation Index	Rank	District	Deprivation Index
1	Ghaziabad	22.63	36	Jaunpur	61.28
2	Meerut	29.82	37	Ballia	61.29
3	Kanpur Nagar	30.81	38	Deoria	61.72
4	Lucknow	31.39	39	Azamgarh	62.43
5	Gautam Buddha Nagar	34.04	40	Etah	62.48
6	Varanasi	36.46	41	Ambedkar Nagar	62.62
7	Saharanpur	37.77	42	Hamirpur	63.13
8	Muzaffarnagar	39.61	43	Sultanpur	63.46
9	Agra	41.83	44	Sant Kabir Nagar	63.80
10	Bijnor	42.12	45	Basti	64.02
11	Rampur	42.27	46	Pratapgarh	64.04
12	Bareilly	43.53	47	Ghazipur	64.17
13	Moradabad	43.77	48	Mainpuri	64.46
14	Baghpat	45.31	49	Auraiya	64.67
15	Mathura	47.43	50	Lalitpur	64.90
16	Jhansi	48.72	51	Mahoba	64.91
17	Allahabad	50.58	52	Kannauj	65.07
18	Aligarh	51.09	53	Banda	65.49
19	Bulandshahar	51.95	54	Kheri	65.75
20	Firozabad	53.15	55	Balrampur	65.99
21	Pilibhit	53.66	56	Gonda	66.24
22	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	54.29	57	Fatehpur	66.71
23	Gorakhpur	54.71	58	Kanpur Dehat	66.73
24	Sant Ravidas Nagar	55.06	59	Barabanki	66.74
25	Jalaun	55.20	60	Kaushambi	66.77
26	Mau	55.27	61	Mahrajganj	67.25
27	Farrukhabad	55.94	62	Siddharthnagar	67.29
28	Hathras	56.52	63	Kushinagar	67.49
29	Etawah	57.45	64	Unnao	67.52
30	Shahjahanpur	58.52	65	Bahraich	67.67
31	Budaun	59.36	66	Chitrakoot	67.84
32	Mirzapur	59.43	67	Rae Bareli	68.06
33	Faizabad	59.71	68	Hardoi	69.20
34	Sonbhadra	60.56	69	Sitapur	70.55
35	Chandauli	60.75	70	Shrawasti	70.92
	<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>54.53</b>			

Source: Calculated for the Report

Note: Districts have been arranged in ascending order of Deprivation Index.

## Indicators of Deprivation Index, 1991

District	% of Households not having access to drinking water	% of Households not having Electricity	% of Households not having Sanitation Facility	% of Households not having permanent House
<b>Western Region</b>				
Agra	39.51	63.43	72.90	23.87
Aligarh	29.82	80.32	82.92	31.04
Bareilly	19.36	75.94	61.26	21.64
Bijnor	14.53	71.47	61.15	37.89
Budaun	33.48	88.73	73.84	55.61
Bulandshahar	13.16	75.22	76.79	22.57
Etah	42.11	89.40	87.15	49.51
Etawah	42.12	86.65	86.93	48.78
Farrukhabad	49.82	85.66	81.89	56.2
Firozabad	33.37	79.15	81.06	35.00
Ghaziabad	7.29	46.54	56.96	11.37
Mainpuri	43.75	89.18	89.29	55.89
Mathura	43.25	78.97	85.34	23.31
Meerut	8.29	54.64	65.44	13.12
Moradabad	20.56	79.20	69.13	35.70
Muzaffarnagar	8.00	68.90	72.44	24.67
Pilibhit	16.75	84.80	79.42	33.23
Rampur	17.66	72.4	46.95	37.64
Saharanpur	11.04	61.87	69.77	37.35
Shahjahanpur	42.72	85.70	79.38	52.46
<b>Central Region</b>				
Barabanki	65.58	91.14	92.21	65.82
Fatehpur	68.15	90.62	92.05	57.88
Hardoi	68.89	92.43	89.53	75.81
Kanpur (Dehat)	62.22	91.12	93.13	55.29
Kanpur (Nagar)	17.61	33.62	36.39	10.47
Kheri	40.27	89.34	90.89	64.15
Lucknow	36.07	49.81	53.48	29.72
Rae Bareli	63.40	87.55	93.92	72.97
Sitapur	69.39	91.89	91.99	74.33
Unnao	70.02	88.43	90.55	68.63
<b>Eastern Region</b>				
Allahabad	56.11	74.34	83.53	10.16
Azamgarh	14.77	82.73	93.89	4.11
Bahraich	45.08	92.88	93.01	44.35
Ballia	22.84	82.58	88.90	11.60
Basti	27.08	89.56	95.42	19.55

District	% of Households not having access to drinking water	% of Households not having Electricity	% of Households not having Sanitation Facility	% of Households not having permanent House
Deoria	16.83	90.14	94.57	34.04
Faizabad	30.03	86.61	91.94	10.05
Ghazipur	44.65	88.16	92.13	4.58
Gonda	44.37	90.78	93.85	32.10
Gorakhpur	16.11	76.08	85.64	8.74
Jaunpur	42.23	80.15	82.67	4.42
Maharajganj	11.01	82.83	93.61	16.35
Mau	13.88	74.17	89.97	4.46
Mirzapur	65.42	78.23	90.20	4.20
Pratapgarh	67.05	89.31	96.38	8.98
Sidharthnagar	30.38	92.62	96.47	14.39
Sonbhadra	63.29	80.61	84.06	4.96
Sultanpur	57.3	85.64	95.34	24.86
Varanasi	56.46	64.67	78.49	3.19
<b>Bundelkhand</b>				
Banda	62.6	89.77	91.83	0.84
Hamirpur	67.83	88.11	89.9	0.39
Jalaun	42.23	80.15	82.67	2.16
Jhansi	51.11	65.75	77.6	0.8
Lalitpur	63.89	87.07	91.36	1.01
<b>UP</b>	<b>37.76</b>	<b>78.09</b>	<b>81.98</b>	<b>28.63</b>

Source: Census of India 1991

Note: Districts have been arranged according to region.

## Indicators of Deprivation Index, 2001

District	% of Households not having access to drinking water	% of Households not having Electricity	% of Households not having Sanitation Facility	% of Households not having permanent House
Agra	14.87	45.23	58.09	9.94
Aligarh	10.47	65.50	62.95	12.21
Allahabad	13.67	56.91	69.15	3.79
Ambedkar Nagar	6.91	72.88	84.08	7.12
Auraiya	13.97	83.25	77.02	35.62
Azamgarh	4.33	73.17	83.47	5.65
Baghpat	8.14	59.62	54.25	3.22
Bahraich	6.59	86.02	80.66	42.65
Ballia	9.03	75.60	78.55	14.99
Balrampur	7.93	80.52	85.03	22.90
Banda	16.75	84.83	79.81	0.81
Barabanki	10.71	80.03	82.16	49.41
Bareilly	2.81	63.31	41.90	13.67
Basti	6.56	76.07	84.54	16.85
Bijnor	6.78	58.45	45.51	16.69
Budaun	5.54	82.87	60.20	36.69
Bulandshahar	6.08	71.34	58.18	8.27
Chandauli	17.32	72.65	79.79	6.11
Chitrakoot	17.82	83.12	87.46	1.22
Deoria	5.96	72.04	82.56	15.70
Etah	9.64	81.97	74.14	25.52
Etawah	15.84	73.20	69.93	27.30
Faizabad	8.14	67.81	80.78	23.09
Farrukhabad	12.72	73.54	63.86	34.21
Fatehpur	15.92	84.20	79.70	43.11
Firozabad	14.71	65.81	67.57	16.00
Gautam Buddha Nagar	5.55	36.32	47.84	6.46
Ghaziabad	3.47	29.37	27.55	4.21
Ghazipur	13.33	79.18	82.30	8.15
Gonda	5.29	80.53	85.43	25.68
Gorakhpur	6.15	62.28	74.43	9.43
Hamirpur	19.36	82.79	75.59	0.61
Hardoi	12.81	84.97	77.64	62.29
Hathras	14.33	69.55	72.46	13.17
Jalaun	14.62	73.71	64.55	2.63
Jaunpur	9.10	69.31	83.70	7.01
Jhansi	19.17	56.74	64.85	0.81
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	3.10	77.73	55.34	9.75

District	% of Households not having access to drinking water	% of Households not having Electricity	% of Households not having Sanitation Facility	% of Households not having permanent House
Kannauj	17.15	82.65	76.54	43.76
Kanpur Dehat	17.10	85.07	80.32	36.78
Kanpur Nagar	10.39	36.19	40.16	15.46
Kaushambi	14.47	83.44	83.89	25.50
Kheri	8.63	81.90	76.34	52.18
Kushinagar	5.68	78.85	87.74	40.01
Lalitpur	26.86	79.67	82.82	0.61
Lucknow	9.11	36.43	40.09	21.68
Mahoba	26.46	84.22	78.19	0.42
Mahrajganj	6.62	81.73	87.28	17.80
Mainpuri	11.71	82.35	77.60	35.41
Mathura	28.64	49.48	65.57	6.46
Mau	5.29	60.17	77.04	6.30
Meerut	3.65	36.82	38.24	5.67
Mirzapur	19.30	64.08	82.88	3.59
Moradabad	3.46	64.86	38.33	18.40
Muzaffarnagar	4.19	52.54	46.81	9.64
Pilibhit	3.55	74.17	58.22	23.34
Pratapgarh	9.86	74.23	86.15	9.73
Rae Bareli	13.49	79.66	82.53	57.57
Rampur	2.73	62.81	34.92	22.67
Saharanpur	6.48	43.75	49.97	18.90
Sant Kabir Nagar	6.63	74.73	85.23	12.74
Sant Ravidas Nagar	16.28	54.73	79.33	3.43
Shahjahanpur	7.25	79.17	60.70	43.30
Shrawasti	8.56	91.28	85.69	33.08
Siddharthnagar	8.56	81.76	87.55	9.09
Sitapur	11.75	85.70	81.05	62.25
Sonbhadra	22.97	73.41	78.34	3.55
Sultanpur	10.64	72.74	85.59	20.85
Unnao	13.75	82.91	78.62	55.73
Varanasi	11.92	34.25	53.36	2.77
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>10.07</b>	<b>68.10</b>	<b>68.57</b>	<b>21.00</b>

Source: Census of India 2001

Note: Districts have been arranged according to alphabetical order.



## Literacy Rates by Sex for Districts, 2001

Sl. No.	State/District	Persons	Males	Females
1	Saharanpur	62.61	72.26	51.42
2	Muzaffarnagar	61.68	73.11	48.63
3	Bijnor	59.37	70.18	47.28
4	Moradabad	45.74	56.66	33.32
5	Rampur	38.95	48.62	27.87
6	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	50.21	63.49	35.07
7	Meerut	65.96	76.31	54.12
8	Baghpat	65.65	78.60	50.38
9	Ghaziabad	70.89	81.04	59.12
10	Gautam Buddha Nagar	69.78	82.56	54.56
11	Bulandshahar	60.19	75.55	42.82
12	Aligarh	59.70	73.22	43.88
13	Hathras	63.38	77.17	47.16
14	Mathura	62.21	77.60	43.77
15	Agra	64.97	79.32	48.15
16	Firozabad	66.53	77.81	53.02
17	Etah	56.15	69.13	40.65
18	Mainpuri	66.51	78.27	52.67
19	Budaun	38.83	49.85	25.53
20	Bareilly	47.99	59.12	35.13
21	Pilibhit	50.87	63.82	35.84
22	Shahjahanpur	48.79	60.53	34.68
23	Kheri	49.39	61.03	35.89
24	Sitapur	49.12	61.02	35.08
25	Hardoi	52.64	65.08	37.62
26	Unnao	55.72	67.62	42.40
27	Lucknow	69.39	76.63	61.22
28	Rae Bareli	55.09	69.03	40.44
29	Farrukhabad	62.27	72.40	50.35
30	Kannauj	62.57	73.38	49.99
31	Etawah	70.75	81.15	58.49
32	Auraiya	71.50	81.18	60.08
33	Kanpur Dehat	66.59	76.84	54.49
34	Kanpur Nagar	77.63	82.08	72.50
35	Jalaun	66.14	79.14	50.66
36	Jhansi	66.69	80.11	51.21
37	Lalitpur	49.93	64.45	33.25
38	Hamirpur	58.10	72.76	40.65
39	Mahoba	54.23	66.83	39.57
40	Banda	54.84	69.89	37.10

Sl. No.	State/District	Persons	Males	Females
41	Chitrakoot	66.06	78.75	51.28
42	Fatehpur	59.74	73.07	44.62
43	Pratapgarh	58.67	74.61	42.63
44	Kaushambi	48.18	63.49	30.80
45	Allahabad	62.89	77.13	46.61
46	Barabanki	48.71	60.12	35.64
47	Faizabad	57.48	70.73	43.35
48	Ambedkar Nagar	59.06	71.93	45.98
49	Sultanpur	56.90	71.85	41.81
50	Bahraich	35.79	46.32	23.27
51	Shrawasti	34.25	47.27	18.75
52	Balrampur	34.71	46.28	21.58
53	Gonda	42.99	56.93	27.29
54	Siddharthnagar	43.97	58.68	28.35
55	Basti	54.28	68.16	39.00
56	Sant Kabir Nagar	51.71	67.85	35.45
57	Maharajganj	47.72	65.40	28.64
58	Gorakhpur	60.96	76.70	44.48
59	Kushinagar	48.43	65.35	30.85
60	Deoria	59.84	76.31	43.56
61	Azamgarh	56.15	70.50	42.44
62	Mau	64.86	78.97	50.86
63	Ballia	58.88	73.15	43.92
64	Jaunpur	59.98	77.16	43.53
65	Ghazipur	60.06	75.45	44.39
66	Chandauli	61.11	75.55	45.45
67	Varanasi	67.09	83.66	48.59
68	Sant Ravidas Nagar	59.14	77.99	38.72
69	Mirzapur	56.10	70.51	39.89
70	Sonbhadra	49.96	63.79	34.26
	<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>57.36</b>	<b>70.23</b>	<b>42.98</b>

Source: Census of India, 2001

## District-wise Rural and Urban Literacy Rate in Uttar Pradesh, 2001

District	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Saharanpur	58.79	70.01	45.75	67.92	73.40	61.61
Muzaffarnagar	58.83	71.23	44.53	65.91	73.85	56.99
Bijnor	57.04	69.27	43.31	61.24	67.28	54.52
Moradabad	39.19	51.58	24.77	56.64	62.13	50.41
Rampur	33.99	44.77	21.42	52.18	58.03	45.66
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	47.90	62.82	30.82	54.11	61.81	45.48
Meerut	62.67	75.72	47.71	66.97	74.27	58.64
Baghpat	63.31	76.81	47.25	68.01	77.76	56.81
Ghaziabad	63.15	75.92	48.26	74.89	82.92	65.61
Gautam Buddha Nagar	64.89	80.61	46.47	74.85	82.28	65.74
Bulandshahar	57.97	74.54	39.10	64.01	73.54	53.34
Aligarh	56.51	72.19	38.04	63.15	70.55	54.68
Hathras	61.76	76.88	43.88	65.34	73.88	55.61
Mathura	57.68	75.37	36.27	70.49	79.11	60.29
Agra	57.27	73.41	37.96	69.09	76.06	60.87
Firozabad	63.37	76.57	47.44	66.96	74.34	58.53
Etah	52.59	66.60	35.69	64.03	71.88	55.18
Mainpuri	63.50	75.95	48.69	74.13	81.09	66.33
Budaun	34.70	46.41	20.35	53.28	60.53	45.12
Bareilly	42.01	55.09	26.63	58.91	65.76	51.18
Pilibhit	47.39	61.23	31.27	60.25	67.97	51.47
Shahjahanpur	46.65	58.44	32.19	58.07	64.63	50.60
Kheri	45.97	57.74	32.17	67.31	73.41	60.28
Sitapur	45.68	58.13	30.87	67.00	73.42	59.88
Hardoi	49.91	63.18	33.77	65.80	73.24	57.30
Unnao	51.94	64.49	37.87	69.12	75.96	61.51
Lucknow	53.86	65.95	40.10	76.56	81.31	71.20
Rae Bareli	51.67	66.19	36.52	72.82	80.09	64.86
Farrukhabad	58.16	69.57	44.38	70.23	76.67	62.87
Kannauj	61.00	72.63	47.29	66.15	73.43	58.03
Etawah	67.37	78.96	53.55	76.64	83.11	69.35
Auraiya	68.52	78.84	56.27	81.91	87.81	75.23
Kanpur Dehat	65.81	76.02	53.66	74.83	81.25	67.41
Kanpur Nagar	65.66	75.15	54.49	78.39	82.62	73.44
Jalaun	62.25	76.41	45.26	71.75	80.56	61.56
Jhansi	57.49	74.15	38.24	76.60	85.20	66.71
Lalitpur	44.82	60.08	27.20	75.11	84.84	64.28
Hamirpur	54.37	69.65	36.11	72.03	82.75	59.49
Mahoba	49.36	64.82	31.23	66.88	78.02	54.16

District	Rural			Urban		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Banda	50.77	66.71	31.95	72.61	82.29	61.17
Chitrakoot	63.59	76.62	48.41	77.42	86.83	66.47
Fatehpur	54.59	67.91	39.52	70.54	78.24	61.91
Pratapgarh	56.61	73.38	40.26	74.73	84.01	64.70
Kaushambi	45.76	61.21	28.24	61.03	71.42	49.33
Allahabad	55.98	72.32	37.73	79.14	85.06	71.80
Barabanki	45.90	57.86	32.19	61.41	68.28	53.74
Faizabad	53.28	67.38	38.52	74.42	81.01	66.55
Ambedkar Nagar	57.01	70.53	43.38	72.54	79.39	65.11
Sultanpur	54.57	69.66	39.40	78.36	85.47	70.36
Bahraich	31.65	42.74	18.43	65.23	70.35	59.38
Shrawasti	33.11	46.09	17.70	57.70	66.73	47.55
Balrampur	32.03	43.64	18.80	62.30	69.81	53.88
Gonda	40.17	54.54	24.20	72.75	78.79	65.55
Siddharthnagar	41.23	55.76	25.87	68.14	78.01	57.20
Basti	50.86	65.88	34.89	78.46	85.90	70.06
Sant Kabir Nagar	49.67	65.73	33.43	66.39	76.86	54.87
Mahrajganj	45.21	62.83	26.23	71.57	83.19	58.77
Gorakhpur	53.65	70.55	36.54	77.09	84.59	68.64
Kushinagar	45.81	62.83	28.25	69.39	79.37	58.30
Deoria	56.93	74.05	40.26	73.60	83.00	63.33
Azamgarh	55.75	70.32	41.85	71.35	79.08	63.02
Mau	59.99	74.60	45.56	71.05	79.57	61.94
Ballia	56.68	71.34	41.45	68.34	76.86	58.89
Jaunpur	58.73	75.70	42.53	73.11	81.57	63.84
Ghazipur	58.26	74.06	42.36	74.47	83.78	64.19
Chandauli	57.78	72.66	41.65	75.36	84.78	64.61
Varanasi	61.92	77.03	45.58	71.96	79.01	63.81
Sant Ravidas Nagar	56.53	75.45	36.08	67.00	77.80	54.65
Mirzapur	52.97	68.13	36.00	69.36	78.26	59.11
Sonbhadra	40.70	55.56	24.24	82.69	90.61	72.97
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>52.53</b>	<b>66.59</b>	<b>36.90</b>	<b>69.75</b>	<b>76.76</b>	<b>61.73</b>

Source: Census of India 2001.

## Growth in Number of Schools in Uttar Pradesh since 1970-71

Year	Boys	Girls	Total	Percent Increase Over Previous Year
<b>Number of Junior Basic Schools in UP</b>				
1970-71	50503	11624	62127	
1980-81	78606	co-ed	78606	26.52
1990-91	77111	co-ed	77111	(-)1.90
2000-01	86361	co-ed	86361	12.00
2005-06	134455	coed	134455	55.69
<b>Number of Senior Basic Schools in UP</b>				
1970-71	6779	2008	8787	
1980-81	10355	3200	13555	54.26
1990-91	11753	3319	15072	11.19
2000-01	16618	3021	19639	30.30
2005-06	34017	6004	40021	103.78
<b>Number of Secondary Schools</b>				
1970-71	2834	581	3415	
1980-81	4420	785	5178	51.63
1990-91	5113	886	5999	15.86
2000-01	6958	1501	8459	41.01
2004-05	10127	2639	12766	50.92

Source: *Shiksha Ki Pragati in U.P.*, Directorate of Education, U.P. (Annual)

## Growth in Number of Teachers in Uttar Pradesh since 1970-71

Year	Males	Females	Total	Percent Increase Over Previous Year
<b>Number of Teachers in Lower Primary Schools</b>				
1970-71	170857	32502	203359	
1980-81	203712	44042	247754	21.83
1990-91	209120	57037	266157	7.43
2000-01	222131	69799	291930	9.68
2005-06	178753	119199	297952	2.06
<b>Number of Teachers in Upper Primary Schools</b>				
1970-71	41306	10880	52186	
1980-81	58775	14326	73101	40.08
1990-91	79914	19415	99329	35.88
2000-01	76992	21933	98925	(-) 0.41
2005-06	54155	44306	98461	(-) 0.47
<b>Number of Teachers in Secondary Schools</b>				
1970-71	64810	14836	79646	
1980-81	96117	19747	115864	45.47
1990-91	106650	19522	126172	8.90
2000-01	99367	24149	123516	(-) 2.11
2004-05	108050	29852	137902	11.65

Source: *Shiksha Ki Pragati in U.P.*, Directorate of Education, U.P. (Annual)

## Growth of Enrollment in Schools in Uttar Pradesh since 1970-71

Year	Boys	Girls	Total	Percent Increase Over Previous Year
<b>Growth of Enrollment in Junior Basic (Lower Primary) Schools</b>				
1970-71	6748031	3867691	10615722	
1980-81	6593572	2774829	9368401	(-) 11.75
1990-91	7893063	4068501	11961564	27.68
2000-01	8076496	4478442	12554938	4.96
2005-06	14001953	12268110	26270063	109.24
<b>Growth of Enrollment in Senior Basic (Upper Primary) Schools</b>				
1970-71	1095740	285166	1380906	
1980-81	1412783	391731	1804514	30.68
1990-91	2026314	721254	2747568	52.26
2000-01	2028155	910505	2938660	6.95
2005-06	5250653	4125514	9376167	219.06
<b>Growth of Enrollment in secondary schools</b>				
1970-71	1851759	463877	2315736	
1980-81	2752494	695829	3448323	48.91
1990-91	3614474	1145932	4760406	38.05
2000-01	3749491	1572239	5321830	11.79
2005-06	4760256	2004102	6764358	27.11

Source: *Shiksha Ki Pragati in U.P.*, Directorate of Education, U.P. (Annual)

**Position of UP in Comparison to Best State and Worst State in Variables Used for  
Computation of Education Development Index at Primary Level**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Tamil Nadu (Best State)</b>	<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>Jharkhand (Worst State)</b>
No.of Habitations not served of school	6217	25160	11066
Percent of Habitations not served of school	11.52	12.04	22.83
Population (6-10 years)	5217000	22693000	3637000
No. of school at Primary Level	47483	124998	35387
Average SCR	28.38	54.85	64.04
Percent of schools with SCR>60	5.4	43.11	24.66
Percent of Schools Without Drinking Water Facilities	3.95	2.75	28.68
Percent of Schools with Boy's Toilets	56.1	80.99	20.99
Percent of Schools with Girl's Toilet	52.53	69.15	11.09
Percent of Female Teachers	71.23	55.22	29.33
Average PTR	31.14	30.69	49.24
Percent of Schools with PTR>60	4.93	45.02	11.12
Percent of Single Teacher School Where the no of Student>15	3.34	4.89	25.52
School With <3 teachers	53.37	64.22	75.11
Percent of Teachers without Professional Qualification	4.85	33.77	3.34
Overall GER at Primary Level	107.66	107.19	122.91
GER SC	111.43	69.25	60.97
GER ST	103.73	64.67	86.03
Gender Parity Index (Ratio of girls GER to Boys GER)	0.94	0.91	0.9
Repetition Rate-As Defined By NUEPA	1.52	1.84	7.9
Drop out Rate -As defined by NUEPA	2.52	1.74	7.23
Ratio of exit class over class 1 Enrolment	97.64	62.3	38.29
Of enrolled children, % passed	99.25	97.9	90.68
Percent of appeared children passing with >60% score	66.56	39.12	23.51

Source: National University of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi



**Position of UP in Comparison to Best State and Worst State in Variables Used for  
Computation of Education Development Index at Upper Primary Level**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Kerala (Best State)</b>	<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>Bihar (Worst State)</b>
No. of Habitations not served of schools	1058	45070	13803
Percent of Habitations not served of school	15.88	21.57	18.9
Population (11-14)	1612000	13899000	7111000
No. of School at Upper Primary Schools	5013	41308	16268
Average SCR	28.13	32.92	92.59
Percent of schools with SCR>60	2.27	2.67	70.48
Percent of School Without Drinking Water Facilities	3.53	7.57	8.58
Percent of School with Boy,s Toilets	77.62	85.33	55.91
Percent of School with Girl,s Toilet	85.26	75.81	22.76
Percent of of Female Teachers	71.22	29.38	25.9
Average PTR	31.93	25.61	70.21
Percent of Schools with PTR>60	4.37	6	54.54
Percent of Single Teacher School Where the no of Student>15	0.06	1.9	2.15
School With <3 teachers	5.55	46.26	25.93
Percent of Teachers without Professional Qualification	33.6	24.5	36.29
Overall GER at Upper Primary	76.58	41.95	29.7
GER SC(2003-04)	85.05	41.53	32.1
GER ST(2003-04)	96.71	56.71	55.04
Gender Parity Index(Ratio of girls GER to Boys GER)	0.93	0.83	0.63
Repetition Rate-As Defined By NUEPA	8.13	1.29	3.48
Drop out Rate -As defined by NUEPA	6.29	19.05	33.71
Of enrolled children, % passed	90.72	97.56	93.88
Percent of appeared children passing with >60% score	40.02	38.43	21.21

Source: National University of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi

## Net District Domestic Product, 2004-2005 at Current Prices (Rs. in crore)

District	Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector	All Sectors	Per Capita NDDP in Rs.
Bijnor	1780	1187	1805	4772	14088
Moradabad	1592	1076	2040	4708	11392
Rampur	1042	504	1022	2568	12333
Saharanpur	2249	847	1951	5047	16575
Muzaffarnagar	2599	996	2192	5787	15228
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	1095	708	1017	2819	18166
Meerut	1716	1167	2315	5198	16161
Bagpat	1022	332	953	2308	19130
Ghaziabad	1331	2145	2266	5742	15351
Gautambudh Nagar	558	2743	1345	4646	34709
Buland Shahar	2342	1266	2166	5774	18749
Aligarh	1537	870	1765	4171	12824
HathRas	899	316	870	2085	15497
Mathura	1187	680	1466	3334	14972
Agra	1626	1376	2869	5870	14870
Firozabad	1027	646	1164	2836	12608
Etah	1508	533	1411	3452	11554
Mainpuri	911	153	768	1831	10814
Badaun	1594	408	1360	3363	10189
Bareilly	1584	1201	2116	4901	12608
Pilibhit	1012	304	871	2188	12281
Shahjahanpur	1338	454	1247	3039	10995
Farrukhabad	946	391	910	2247	13345
Kannauj	836	447	791	2074	14153
Etawah	715	244	821	1781	12610
Auraiyya	542	186	588	1316	10607
<b>Western Region</b>	<b>34588</b>	<b>21178</b>	<b>38091</b>	<b>93858</b>	<b>14260</b>
Kheri	2199	399	1462	4061	11577
Sitapur	1706	432	1566	3705	9494
Hardoi	1655	359	1356	3371	9272
Unnao	1497	464	1551	3511	12186
Lucknow	1481	1817	5122	8420	20811
Rae Bareli	1067	442	1469	2978	9689
Kanpur Dehat	809	310	878	1997	11854
Kanpur Nagar	719	1667	4848	7234	16177
Fatehpur	879	305	1029	2213	9030
Barabanki	1564	468	1318	3350	11640
<b>Central Region</b>	<b>13577</b>	<b>6664</b>	<b>20599</b>	<b>40840</b>	<b>12554</b>

District	Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector	All Sectors	Per Capita NDDP in Rs.
Jalaun	1243	248	942	2433	15814
Jhansi	1007	617	1465	3089	16598
Lalitpur	637	187	517	1342	12600
Hamirpur	569	239	541	1350	12312
Mahoba	655	99	422	1176	15586
Banda	707	135	599	1441	9116
Chitrakoot	307	89	303	700	7929
<b>Bundel Khand</b>	<b>5125</b>	<b>1613</b>	<b>4790</b>	<b>11529</b>	<b>13134</b>
Pratap Garh	705	138	1002	1845	6328
Kaushambi	490	186	820	1496	11191
Allahabad	1165	1467	3355	5986	11081
Faizabad	585	234	899	1717	7662
Ambedkar Nagar	730	111	669	1510	6916
Sultanpur	1187	564	1303	3054	8919
Bahraich	1052	164	916	2132	8220
Shrawasti	337	50	335	722	5682
Balrampur	676	148	566	1390	7724
Gonda	1124	185	1137	2446	8221
Siddharth Nagar	684	87	590	1362	6202
Basti	740	181	706	1628	7341
Sant Kabeer Nagar	464	120	442	1026	6753
Maharaj Ganj	891	138	720	1749	7425
Gorakhpur	974	597	2256	3827	9456
Kushi Nagar	1033	243	862	2138	6799
Deoria	695	264	916	1874	6413
Azamgarh	1172	334	1419	2925	6887
Mau	601	400	844	1845	9213
Ballia	640	244	1022	1906	6508
Jaunpur	968	403	1382	2754	6618
Ghazipur	857	260	1082	2200	6695
Chandauli	531	410	942	1882	10579
Varanasi	552	1100	1878	3530	10425
Sant Ravi Das Nagar	237	389	644	1270	8730
Mirzapur	616	376	1093	2085	9110
Sonbhadra	1393	473	856	2723	16798
<b>Eastern Region</b>	<b>21102</b>	<b>9263</b>	<b>28657</b>	<b>59022</b>	<b>8232</b>
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>74393</b>	<b>38719</b>	<b>92137</b>	<b>205249</b>	<b>11477</b>

Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P. Government

**Annual Compound Growth Rate of Total, Sectoral and Per Capita Net District Product :  
1993-94 to 2004-05 at Constant 1993-94 Prices (Per Cent)**

District	Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector	NDDP	Per capita NDDP
Bijnor	0.95	2.76	3.79	2.37	(-) 0.01
Moradabad	1.86	4.85	4.47	3.57	1.15
Rampur	2.05	4.61	4.20	3.39	0.94
Saharanpur	3.01	3.19	4.76	3.68	1.60
Muzaffar Nagar	1.88	2.78	4.22	2.84	0.67
Meerut	2.43	0.31	4.46	2.74	0.88
Ghaziabad	4.73	4.48	5.16	4.75	0.99
Buland Shahar	1.97	7.92	5.40	4.31	2.64
Aligarh	4.58	4.47	6.23	5.23	3.30
Mathura	1.96	2.08	4.78	3.25	1.00
Agra	3.59	2.78	5.48	4.26	1.54
Firozabad	3.95	4.89	5.21	4.70	1.80
Etah	2.69	7.47	5.32	4.34	2.18
Mainpuri	2.24	5.67	5.02	3.62	1.69
Badaun	1.73	4.42	4.67	3.15	0.92
Bareilly	2.17	3.53	4.97	3.64	1.27
Pilibhit	1.90	4.90	5.18	3.43	0.97
Shahjahan Pur	1.46	0.86	4.29	2.39	(-) 0.05
Farrukhabad	2.41	11.16	5.70	5.14	3.20
Etawah	2.89	6.83	6.19	4.80	3.13
<b>Western Region</b>	<b>2.48</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>4.97</b>	<b>3.79</b>	<b>1.48</b>
Kanpur Dehat	(-) 2.16	3.25	4.29	1.10	(-) 0.78
Kanpur Nagar	9.93	5.86	6.53	6.67	4.22
Kheri	4.15	2.60	4.67	4.15	1.35
Sitapur	3.01	2.11	4.82	3.59	1.25
Hardoi	3.83	6.81	4.95	4.56	2.44
Unnao	3.89	6.16	6.01	5.11	3.06
Lucknow	5.94	6.03	6.67	6.42	3.48
Rae Bareli	2.93	4.75	5.84	4.48	2.36
Fatehpur	1.25	1.15	4.24	2.45	0.56
Barabanki	2.49	2.48	4.25	3.12	0.86
<b>Central Region</b>	<b>3.20</b>	<b>4.71</b>	<b>5.68</b>	<b>4.62</b>	<b>2.28</b>
Jalaun	7.26	7.04	7.14	7.19	5.39
Jhansi	5.98	6.07	5.41	5.72	3.70
Lalitpur	5.24	9.13	6.53	6.16	3.49

District	Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector	NDDP	Per capita NDDP
Hamirpur	4.19	10.15	5.84	5.36	3.58
Banda	2.28	(-) 2.18	4.24	2.41	0.34
<b>Bundel Khand</b>	<b>4.84</b>	<b>5.30</b>	<b>5.68</b>	<b>5.23</b>	<b>3.20</b>
Pratap Garh	1.15	1.74	4.90	2.99	0.92
Allahabad	2.67	4.70	5.99	4.84	2.45
Bahraich	3.22	6.17	5.33	4.28	1.75
Gonda	4.35	8.04	6.47	5.53	3.32
Faizabad	2.24	5.22	5.76	4.09	1.83
Sultanpur	2.29	7.78	5.98	4.66	2.45
Siddharth Nagar	3.00	16.09	4.70	4.21	1.91
Basti	2.49	5.87	5.19	3.96	1.86
Maharajganj	0.98	(-) 2.04	3.07	1.43	(-) 1.07
Gorakhpur	2.27	5.90	5.72	4.68	2.57
Deoria	0.95	6.18	4.82	3.08	0.75
Mau	2.43	1.29	3.83	2.70	0.28
Azamgarh	0.87	3.13	4.86	2.81	0.59
Ballia	(-) 0.87	5.71	4.98	2.60	0.68
Jaunpur	0.90	4.25	5.18	3.23	1.30
Varanasi	0.03	2.29	4.28	2.67	2.66
Ghazipur	(-) 0.09	7.45	4.75	2.76	0.47
Mirzapur	3.81	10.06	10.33	7.99	0.85
Sonbhadra	3.47	2.21	3.80	3.26	0.20
<b>Eastern Region</b>	<b>1.94</b>	<b>4.58</b>	<b>5.39</b>	<b>3.87</b>	<b>1.60</b>
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>2.60</b>	<b>4.32</b>	<b>5.29</b>	<b>4.05</b>	<b>1.76</b>

Note: For purposes of comparison newly created districts have been merged in the old districts.

Source: Calculated from the estimates prepared by Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P. Government

## Ranks of Districts according to Per Capita Income at 1993-94 Constant Prices, 1993-94 and 2004-05

District	1993-94		2004-05		Change in Rank
	Per Capita Income (Rs.)	Rank	Per capita income (Rs.)	Rank	
Bijnor	7026	5	7760	14	
Moradabad	5435	13	6968	18	(-) 5
Rampur	5417	17	6285	24	(-) 7
Saharanpur	7158	8	8942	6	2
Muzaffar Nagar	7232	7	8155	11	(-) 4
Meerut	8162	2	9422	5	(-) 3
Ghaziabad	11587	1	11553	1	0
Buland Shahar	6780	9	9949	3	6
Aligarh	5366	23	7156	17	6
Mathura	6504	6	8571	9	(-) 3
Agra	6066	11	7915	13	(-) 2
Firozabad	4212	21	6322	23	(-) 2
Etah	4787	27	6025	28	(-) 1
Mainpuri	4373	32	5470	31	1
Badaun	4135	31	5089	33	(-) 2
Bareilly	5832	15	6789	20	(-) 5
Pilibhit	6242	14	6804	19	(-) 5
Shahjahan Pur	5620	16	5769	30	(-) 14
Farrukhabad	4120	29	6539	21	8
Etawah	4242	33	6348	22	11
Kanpur Dehat	4899	4	7188	16	(-) 12
Kanpur Nagar	7414	22	8087	12	10
Kheri	5236	20	6248	25	(-) 5
Sitapur	4397	37	4915	36	1
Hardoi	3703	41	4747	42	(-) 1
Unnao	3965	38	5458	32	6
Lucknow	7061	10	10773	2	8
Rae Bareli	4010	39	4829	39	0
Fatehpur	4644	30	4894	37	(-) 7
Barabanki	4645	19	5938	29	(-) 10
Jalaun	4991	25	8851	7	18
Jhansi	6771	12	9742	4	8
Lalitpur	5316	24	7284	15	9
Hamirpur	5611	18	8160	10	8
Banda	4641	26	5026	34	(-) 8
Pratap Garh	3075	51	3445	52	(-) 1
Allahabad	4585	28	6195	26	2

District	1993-94		2004-05		Change in Rank
	Per Capita Income (Rs.)	Rank	Per capita income (Rs.)	Rank	
Bahraich	3207	50	3789	46	4
Gonda	4844	53	4250	43	10
Faizabad	3468	47	3898	45	2
Sultanpur	4958	40	4859	38	2
Siddharth Nagar	2458	54	3395	54	0
Basti	3022	52	3728	48	4
Maharajganj	3967	36	3916	44	(-) 8
Gorakhpur	3530	42	4810	41	1
Deoria	3332	46	3642	49	(-) 3
Mau	4225	43	4816	40	3
Azamgarh	3443	44	3769	47	(-) 3
Ballia	3072	48	3441	53	(-) 5
Jaunpur	2970	49	3640	50	(-) 1
Varanasi	6333	34	6027	27	7
Ghazipur	3381	45	3597	51	(-) 6
Mirzapur	4618	35	4951	35	0
Sonbhadra	10855	3	8688	8	(-) 5

Note: For purposes of comparison newly created districts have been merged in the old districts.

Source: Calculated from the estimates prepared by Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P. Government

## Percent Share of Different Sectors in Net District Domestic Product, 2004-05 (at Current Prices)

Districts	Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector	All Sectors
Bijnor	37.31	24.87	37.82	100.00
Moradabad	33.82	22.85	43.34	100.00
Rampur	40.57	19.63	39.80	100.00
Saharanpur	44.56	16.78	38.66	100.00
Muzaffar Nagar	44.91	17.20	37.89	100.00
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	38.83	25.11	36.07	100.00
Meerut	33.01	22.45	44.54	100.00
Bagpat	44.30	14.39	41.32	100.00
Ghaziabad	23.17	37.36	39.47	100.00
Gautambudh nagar	12.01	59.04	28.95	100.00
Buland Shahar	40.57	21.92	37.51	100.00
Aligarh	36.83	20.85	42.32	100.00
HathRas	43.11	15.15	41.74	100.00
Mathura	35.62	20.40	43.98	100.00
Agra	27.69	23.43	48.87	100.00
Firozabad	36.20	22.77	41.03	100.00
Etah	43.69	15.44	40.86	100.00
Mainpuri	49.72	8.33	41.95	100.00
Badaun	47.41	12.14	40.45	100.00
Bareilly	32.32	24.50	43.18	100.00
Pilibhit	46.27	13.91	39.82	100.00
Shahjahan Pur	44.03	14.93	41.03	100.00
Farrukhabad	42.10	17.42	40.49	100.00
Kannauj	40.32	21.55	38.14	100.00
Etawah	40.17	13.72	46.11	100.00
Auraiyya	41.15	14.16	44.69	100.00
<b>Western Region</b>	<b>36.85</b>	<b>22.56</b>	<b>40.58</b>	<b>100.00</b>
Kheri	54.16	9.83	36.01	100.00
Sitapur	46.06	11.67	42.27	100.00
Hardoi	49.11	10.66	40.23	100.00
Unnao	42.63	13.20	44.16	100.00
Lucknow	17.59	21.58	60.83	100.00
Rae Bareli	35.83	14.84	49.33	100.00
Kanpur Dehat	40.50	15.54	43.96	100.00
Kanpur Nagar	9.93	23.05	67.02	100.00
Fatehpur	39.74	13.77	46.49	100.00
Barabanki	46.69	13.97	39.34	100.00
<b>Central Region</b>	<b>33.24</b>	<b>16.32</b>	<b>50.44</b>	<b>100.00</b>



Districts	Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector	All Sectors
Jalaun	51.08	10.18	38.74	100.00
Jhansi	32.61	19.97	47.42	100.00
Lalitpur	47.48	13.97	38.55	100.00
Hamirpur	42.19	17.72	40.09	100.00
Mahoba	55.69	8.38	35.93	100.00
Banda	49.07	9.35	41.58	100.00
Chitrakoot	43.94	12.70	43.36	100.00
<b>Bundel Khand</b>	<b>44.46</b>	<b>13.99</b>	<b>41.55</b>	<b>100.00</b>
Pratap Garh	38.23	7.47	54.30	100.00
Kaushambi	32.77	12.42	54.82	100.00
Allahabad	19.46	24.50	56.04	100.00
Faizabad	34.06	13.61	52.32	100.00
Ambedkar Nagar	48.34	7.34	44.32	100.00
Sultanpur	38.87	18.47	42.65	100.00
Bahraich	49.35	7.69	42.96	100.00
Shrawasti	46.63	6.93	46.44	100.00
Balrampur	48.62	10.64	40.74	100.00
Gonda	45.95	7.56	46.49	100.00
Siddharth Nagar	50.27	6.37	43.37	100.00
Basti	45.46	11.14	43.40	100.00
Sant Kabeer Nagar	45.26	11.65	43.09	100.00
Maharaj Ganj	50.94	7.90	41.15	100.00
Gorakhpur	25.46	15.60	58.94	100.00
Kushi Nagar	48.31	11.37	40.32	100.00
Deoria	37.07	14.07	48.87	100.00
Azamgarh	40.07	11.41	48.52	100.00
Mau	32.59	21.67	45.74	100.00
Ballia	33.58	12.78	53.64	100.00
Jaunpur	35.17	14.65	50.19	100.00
Ghazipur	38.97	11.84	49.19	100.00
Chandauli	28.20	21.75	50.05	100.00
Varanasi	15.65	31.15	53.20	100.00
Sant Ravi Das Nagar	18.67	30.63	50.70	100.00
Mirzapur	29.55	18.03	52.42	100.00
Sonbhadra	51.18	17.37	31.45	100.00
<b>Eastern Region</b>	<b>35.75</b>	<b>15.69</b>	<b>48.55</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>36.25</b>	<b>18.86</b>	<b>44.89</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: Economics and Statistics Division, State Planning Institute, U.P. Government

## Work Participation Rate, 2001 (%)

Districts	Total Workers			Main Workers			Marginal Workers		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Saharanpur	28.22	47.14	6.34	23.90	41.71	3.31	4.32	5.43	3.03
Muzaffarnagar	33.11	49.00	14.86	25.39	42.71	5.50	7.72	6.29	9.37
Bijnor	28.24	46.45	7.92	22.62	39.91	3.31	5.63	6.53	4.62
Moradabad	31.02	47.94	11.67	26.07	43.07	6.65	4.94	4.87	5.02
Rampur	28.30	47.11	6.90	23.76	41.80	3.25	4.53	5.31	3.66
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	31.89	47.61	14.13	25.53	43.19	5.59	6.36	4.43	8.55
Meerut	29.89	46.58	10.73	24.59	41.59	5.10	5.29	5.00	5.63
Baghpat	32.67	47.53	15.14	24.90	41.40	5.43	7.77	6.13	9.71
Ghaziabad	28.51	45.63	8.62	24.31	40.91	5.01	4.20	4.72	3.61
Gautam Buddha Nagar	30.27	46.56	10.90	25.70	41.94	6.39	4.57	4.62	4.51
Bulandshahar	40.29	50.88	28.25	27.01	41.71	10.28	13.29	9.18	17.96
Aligarh	30.62	45.53	13.31	23.31	38.35	5.85	7.31	7.18	7.47
Hathras	29.34	45.92	10.03	22.11	37.66	3.99	7.23	8.25	6.03
Mathura	37.16	47.83	24.46	25.94	40.26	8.89	11.22	7.56	15.57
Agra	27.19	44.06	7.24	22.49	38.43	3.64	4.70	5.63	3.60
Firozabad	27.23	44.56	6.88	22.16	38.12	3.43	5.06	6.44	3.45
Etah	28.76	46.47	7.90	23.65	40.81	3.43	5.11	5.66	4.46
Mainpuri	27.51	45.68	6.30	22.87	40.34	2.48	4.64	5.34	3.82
Budaun	30.04	48.94	7.59	25.05	43.85	2.72	4.99	5.09	4.87
Bareilly	30.26	48.62	9.18	23.84	41.87	3.14	6.42	6.75	6.04
Pilibhit	28.04	47.76	5.56	21.90	39.19	2.19	6.14	8.58	3.37
Shahjahanpur	28.63	48.81	4.66	24.16	42.65	2.19	4.48	6.16	2.47
Kannauj	32.95	48.82	14.62	24.99	42.71	4.53	7.96	6.11	10.09
Auraiya	32.90	48.43	14.77	24.17	40.78	4.76	8.74	7.65	10.01
Farrukhabad	29.47	47.98	7.65	24.25	42.27	3.01	5.22	5.71	4.64
Etawah	27.53	45.72	6.32	22.30	38.99	2.85	5.23	6.73	3.48
<b>Western Region</b>	30.36	47.23	10.80	24.19	41.10	4.57	6.18	6.13	6.23
Kheri	31.45	51.10	8.88	26.13	45.38	4.03	5.32	5.72	4.85
Sitapur	31.09	50.61	8.51	25.53	44.43	3.65	5.57	6.18	4.86
Hardoi	32.30	51.12	10.01	26.60	46.16	3.44	5.70	4.95	6.57
Unnao	34.30	50.04	16.79	25.39	43.11	5.65	8.92	6.92	11.14
Lucknow	29.78	46.95	10.44	24.68	41.24	6.02	5.10	5.71	4.42
Rae Bareli	35.63	47.93	22.71	23.00	37.58	7.67	12.64	10.35	15.04
Kanpur Dehat	32.83	48.27	14.69	24.13	40.35	5.08	8.70	7.92	9.62
Kanpur Nagar	29.94	47.23	9.71	24.96	41.38	5.75	4.98	5.85	3.96
Fatehpur	37.67	48.55	25.48	25.75	39.65	10.18	11.92	8.90	15.31
Barabanki	36.80	51.72	19.96	27.09	44.17	7.84	9.70	7.55	12.12
<b>Central Region</b>	32.77	49.33	13.92	25.36	42.57	5.77	7.41	6.76	8.15

Districts	Total Workers			Main Workers			Marginal Workers		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Jalaun	35.95	49.22	20.32	24.48	40.38	5.76	11.47	8.84	14.56
Jhansi	37.02	49.13	23.12	26.76	42.15	9.08	10.26	6.98	14.04
Lalitpur	43.20	50.44	34.99	29.57	46.16	10.77	13.63	4.28	24.22
Hamirpur	39.16	49.19	27.38	25.96	40.77	8.56	13.20	8.41	18.82
Mahoba	42.31	50.64	32.70	28.80	43.38	11.96	13.51	7.26	20.74
Banda	40.29	48.92	30.26	26.83	40.22	11.26	13.46	8.70	19.00
Chitrakoot	42.28	47.71	36.06	29.29	40.71	16.21	12.99	7.00	19.86
<b>Bundelkhand</b>	39.39	49.26	27.96	27.01	41.74	9.96	12.38	7.52	18.00
Pratapgarh	33.53	42.89	24.21	21.19	33.13	9.29	12.34	9.76	14.92
Kaushambi	39.19	47.35	30.07	25.16	36.88	12.06	14.03	10.47	18.01
Allahabad	33.86	43.37	23.05	22.42	34.08	9.16	11.44	9.29	13.89
Faizabad	39.43	50.30	27.85	25.27	40.34	9.22	14.16	9.97	18.63
Ambedkar Nagar	33.45	44.81	21.83	21.82	35.58	7.74	11.63	9.23	14.09
Sultanpur	32.12	44.65	19.33	21.12	34.69	7.28	10.99	9.97	12.04
Bahraich	35.46	52.21	16.13	26.58	44.67	5.72	8.88	7.54	10.41
Shrawasti	41.35	54.62	25.95	28.81	46.48	8.30	12.55	8.15	17.65
Balrampur	42.44	52.49	31.22	29.82	44.89	12.97	12.63	7.60	18.25
Gonda	33.96	50.43	15.77	25.21	42.88	5.70	8.75	7.55	10.07
Siddharthnagar	38.06	47.65	27.95	24.19	37.69	9.94	13.87	9.95	18.01
Basti	35.26	46.77	23.00	23.19	37.46	7.98	12.07	9.31	15.02
Sant Kabir Nagar	34.44	44.95	23.65	20.77	34.14	7.06	13.66	10.81	16.59
Mahrajganj	39.12	47.71	29.92	22.05	34.36	8.87	17.07	13.35	21.05
Gorakhpur	30.14	42.71	17.06	18.38	30.84	5.40	11.76	11.87	11.65
Kushinagar	34.22	45.49	22.52	19.87	32.51	6.75	14.35	12.98	15.78
Deoria	28.53	40.49	16.59	17.16	29.28	5.06	11.37	11.21	11.53
Azamgarh	30.45	40.90	20.22	19.55	32.04	7.31	10.90	8.86	12.91
Mau	32.33	42.00	22.52	21.41	33.45	9.19	10.92	8.55	13.33
Ballia	28.77	41.48	15.44	18.27	30.44	5.50	10.50	11.04	9.93
Jaunpur	31.07	40.40	21.88	20.17	32.47	8.05	10.90	7.93	13.83
Ghazipur	31.39	41.73	20.80	21.31	34.03	8.29	10.08	7.70	12.51
Chandauli	32.11	44.26	18.93	20.69	33.63	6.65	11.42	10.63	12.28
Varanasi	31.29	44.68	16.47	24.56	39.52	7.99	6.73	5.16	8.48
Sant Ravidas Nagar	28.71	41.26	15.03	20.06	33.87	5.01	8.65	7.39	10.02
Mirzapur	33.78	45.58	20.62	23.58	37.51	8.05	10.20	8.07	12.57
Sonbhadra	36.76	47.29	25.03	24.61	38.01	9.70	12.15	9.29	15.33
<b>Eastern Region</b>	33.44	44.88	21.35	22.02	35.50	7.75	11.43	9.38	13.60
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	32.24	47.27	15.29	24.08	40.12	6.00	8.16	7.15	9.29

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001

## Percent Share of Agricultural and Non-agricultural workers in Total Workers

Districts	Agricultural Workers			Non Agricultural Workers		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Saharanpur	52.62	52.84	50.73	47.38	47.16	49.27
Muzaffarnagar	58.54	56.96	64.53	41.46	43.04	35.47
Bijnor	57.33	57.86	53.84	42.67	42.14	46.16
Moradabad	55.42	56.27	51.39	44.58	43.73	48.61
Rampur	65.96	67.89	50.98	34.04	32.11	49.02
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	67.12	70.22	44.13	32.88	29.78	55.87
Meerut	69.94	76.40	45.07	30.06	23.60	54.93
Baghpat	66.34	66.65	63.75	33.66	33.35	36.25
Ghaziabad	73.77	73.08	76.44	26.23	26.92	23.56
Gautam Buddha Nagar	63.43	63.95	61.45	36.57	36.05	38.55
Bulandshahar	36.56	34.61	46.31	63.44	65.39	53.69
Aligarh	58.25	55.73	67.60	41.75	44.27	32.40
Hathras	24.55	23.20	32.87	75.45	76.80	67.13
Mathura	35.00	34.21	39.07	65.00	65.79	60.93
Agra	52.46	54.38	48.52	47.54	45.62	51.48
Firozabad	52.34	52.69	50.97	47.66	47.31	49.03
Etah	57.79	58.37	54.73	42.21	41.63	45.27
Mainpuri	57.25	53.10	66.90	42.75	46.90	33.10
Budaun	40.70	40.61	41.30	59.30	59.39	58.70
Bareilly	45.54	47.09	33.77	54.46	52.91	66.23
Pilibhit	72.45	74.05	61.39	27.55	25.95	38.61
Shahjahanpur	77.17	77.77	72.03	22.83	22.23	27.97
Kannauj	77.51	79.29	63.89	22.49	20.71	36.11
Auraiya	58.74	59.57	53.64	41.26	40.43	46.36
Farrukhabad	70.90	71.93	60.82	29.10	28.07	39.18
Etawah	72.20	73.58	54.96	27.80	26.42	45.04
<b>Western Region</b>	<b>56.83</b>	<b>57.40</b>	<b>53.94</b>	<b>43.17</b>	<b>42.60</b>	<b>46.06</b>
Kheri	78.95	79.82	73.22	21.05	20.18	26.78
Sitapur	77.79	78.70	71.51	22.21	21.30	28.49
Hardoi	78.32	79.99	68.22	21.68	20.01	31.78
Unnao	75.10	72.89	82.43	24.90	27.11	17.57
Lucknow	31.56	28.85	45.27	68.44	71.15	54.73
Rae Bareli	77.48	73.14	87.11	22.52	26.86	12.89
Kanpur Dehat	76.77	72.15	86.64	23.23	27.85	13.36
Kanpur Nagar	78.24	76.74	82.61	21.76	23.26	17.39
Fatehpur	76.24	74.53	82.86	23.76	25.47	17.14
Barabanki	30.29	26.77	50.33	69.71	73.23	49.67
<b>Central Region</b>	<b>66.48</b>	<b>64.40</b>	<b>74.85</b>	<b>33.52</b>	<b>35.60</b>	<b>25.15</b>

Districts	Agricultural Workers			Non Agricultural Workers		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Jalaun	74.53	70.60	85.75	25.47	29.40	14.25
Jhansi	60.66	53.86	77.26	39.34	46.14	22.74
Lalitpur	80.30	74.36	90.00	19.70	25.64	10.00
Hamirpur	76.79	71.22	88.56	23.21	28.78	11.44
Mahoba	77.35	70.63	89.35	22.65	29.37	10.65
Banda	78.75	73.02	89.52	21.25	26.98	10.48
Chitrakoot	81.31	75.57	90.01	18.69	24.43	9.99
<b>Bundelkhand</b>	<b>74.55</b>	<b>68.50</b>	<b>86.88</b>	<b>25.45</b>	<b>31.50</b>	<b>13.12</b>
Pratapgarh	77.28	71.55	87.40	22.72	28.45	12.60
Kaushambi	78.50	73.53	87.22	21.50	26.47	12.78
Allahabad	57.24	50.22	72.26	42.76	49.78	27.74
Faizabad	75.13	69.68	85.60	24.87	30.32	14.40
Ambedkar Nagar	75.24	70.17	85.88	24.76	29.83	14.12
Sultanpur	74.36	71.62	80.81	25.64	28.38	19.19
Bahraich	83.24	81.28	90.54	16.76	18.72	9.46
Shrawasti	88.75	87.70	91.33	11.25	12.30	8.67
Balrampur	86.86	82.93	94.25	13.14	17.07	5.75
Gonda	83.55	81.88	89.44	16.45	18.12	10.56
Siddharthnagar	87.04	83.46	93.47	12.96	16.54	6.53
Basti	80.79	77.42	88.08	19.21	22.58	11.92
Sant Kabir Nagar	82.17	77.63	91.02	17.83	22.37	8.98
Mahrajganj	84.32	79.05	93.33	15.68	20.95	6.67
Gorakhpur	65.56	58.25	84.62	34.44	41.75	15.38
Kushinagar	82.52	78.22	91.53	17.48	21.78	8.47
Deoria	72.52	66.19	87.95	27.48	33.81	12.05
Azamgarh	72.81	67.43	83.48	27.19	32.57	16.52
Mau	60.36	55.55	69.46	39.64	44.45	30.54
Ballia	70.23	66.06	81.99	29.77	33.94	18.01
Jaunpur	72.33	65.84	84.15	27.67	34.16	15.85
Ghazipur	71.70	66.17	83.05	28.30	33.83	16.95
Chandauli	64.46	59.08	78.11	35.54	40.92	21.89
Varanasi	31.59	23.88	54.75	68.41	76.12	45.25
Sant Ravidas Nagar	40.86	34.11	61.07	59.14	65.89	38.93
Mirzapur	63.22	55.54	82.14	36.78	44.46	17.86
Sonbhadra	73.13	64.75	90.76	26.87	35.25	9.24
<b>Eastern Region</b>	<b>71.92</b>	<b>66.55</b>	<b>83.86</b>	<b>28.08</b>	<b>33.45</b>	<b>16.14</b>
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>65.89</b>	<b>62.77</b>	<b>75.70</b>	<b>34.11</b>	<b>37.23</b>	<b>24.30</b>

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001

## Compound Annual Growth Rate of Workers 1991-2001 (%)

Districts	Main Workers	Marginal Workers	Total Workers
Agra	0.77	24.23	2.44
Aligarh	0.95	14.06	2.85
Budaun	0.28	19.70	1.77
Bareilly	0.58	33.95	2.85
Bijnor	0.45	25.08	2.43
Bulandshahar	0.37	19.11	3.58
Etah	0.32	10.54	1.50
Etawah	0.05	57.20	2.65
Farrukhabad	0.25	28.81	2.41
Firozabad	0.90	39.87	2.91
Ghaziabad	4.18	9.04	4.77
Mainpuri	0.14	30.89	1.87
Mathura	0.02	24.70	3.20
Meerut	0.48	13.04	1.95
Moradabad	1.73	20.67	3.28
Muzaffarnagar	0.56	10.95	2.16
Pilibhit	(-) 0.32	19.63	1.72
Rampur	0.38	13.06	1.58
Saharanpur	0.36	22.97	1.80
Shahjahanpur	0.01	35.28	1.63
<b>Western Region</b>	<b>0.76</b>	<b>18.54</b>	<b>2.58</b>
Barabanki	(-) 1.23	20.58	1.61
Fatehpur	(-) 0.27	11.71	3.22
Hardoi	0.58	21.35	2.22
Kanpur Dehat	(-) 4.88	41.20	(-) 2.80
Kanpur Nagar	4.96	99.10	6.48
Kheri	1.06	24.65	1.81
Lucknow	1.28	22.11	3.14
Rae Bareli	(-) 1.02	15.10	3.41
Sitapur	0.31	24.64	1.32
Unnao	0.11	14.92	2.58
<b>Central Region</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>19.42</b>	<b>2.42</b>
Allahabad	(-) 0.81	21.06	2.73
Azamgarh	(-) 0.66	13.60	2.44
Bahraich	0.64	8.40	2.18
Ballia	(-) 1.78	23.83	2.21
Basti	(-) 0.42	17.36	3.10
Deoria	(-) 1.60	16.12	2.45

Districts	Main Workers	Marginal Workers	Total Workers
Faizabad	0.90	25.27	4.76
Ghazipur	(-) 0.09	19.17	3.05
Gonda	0.16	13.08	2.33
Gorakhpur	(-) 1.78	24.17	2.59
Jaunpur	(-) 0.37	18.26	3.07
Mahrajganj	(-) 1.73	18.10	2.86
Mau	(-) 0.13	10.03	2.25
Mirzapur	3.75	20.63	6.57
Pratapgarh	(-) 1.03	18.49	2.67
Siddharthnagar	(-) 1.22	15.09	2.15
Sonbhadra	(-) 1.29	16.01	1.79
Sultanpur	(-) 1.03	19.66	2.43
Varanasi	(-) 2.29	11.40	(-) 0.18
<b>Eastern Region</b>	<b>(-) -0.59</b>	<b>16.78</b>	<b>2.63</b>
Banda	(-) 0.52	8.62	1.60
Hamirpur	(-) 0.25	8.92	1.91
Jalaun	(-) 0.14	13.15	2.47
Jhansi	0.80	10.06	2.60
Lalitpur	1.63	6.87	2.99
<b>Bundelkhand</b>	<b>0.13</b>	<b>9.29</b>	<b>2.18</b>
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>0.12</b>	<b>16.79</b>	<b>2.55</b>

Note: For purposes of comparison newly created districts have been merged in the old districts.

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001

## Compound Annual Growth Rate of Agricultural and Non Agricultural Main Workers: 1991-2001 (%)

Districts	Agricultural Workers	Non Agricultural Workers	Total Workers
Agra	(-) 1.00	2.15	0.77
Aligarh	(-) 0.95	3.70	0.95
Budaun	1.15	3.16	0.58
Bareilly	(-) 4.47	2.92	0.45
Bijnor	0.99	3.75	0.28
Bulandshahar	(-) 2.21	4.39	0.37
Etah	(-) 0.45	2.87	0.32
Etawah	(-) 1.06	3.02	0.05
Farrukhabad	(-) 0.38	2.03	0.25
Firozabad	(-) 1.78	3.87	0.90
Ghaziabad	(-) 0.26	6.35	4.18
Mainpuri	(-) 0.10	1.04	0.14
Mathura	(-) 1.91	2.83	0.02
Meerut	(-) 2.46	3.17	0.48
Moradabad	0.08	4.54	1.73
Muzaffarnagar	(-) 1.32	3.73	0.56
Pilibhit	(-) 1.30	2.76	(-) 0.32
Rampur	(-) 0.51	2.45	0.38
Saharanpur	(-) 1.70	3.24	0.36
Shahjahanpur	(-) 0.84	2.76	0.01
<b>Western Region</b>	<b>0.16</b>	<b>1.60</b>	<b>0.76</b>
Barabanki	(-) 2.17	2.60	(-) 1.23
Fatehpur	(-) 1.23	3.13	(-) 0.27
Hardoi	(-) 0.10	3.90	0.58
Kanpur Dehat	(-) 5.87	(-) 1.04	(-) 4.88
Kanpur Nagar	9.84	3.70	4.96
Kheri	0.07	6.21	1.06
Lucknow	(-) 2.04	2.94	1.28
Rae Bareli	(-) 2.09	2.63	(-) 1.02
Sitapur	(-) 0.47	3.73	0.31
Unnao	(-) 0.94	3.91	0.11
<b>Central Region</b>	<b>(-) 1.01</b>	<b>3.30</b>	<b>0.33</b>
Allahabad	(-) 2.93	2.85	(-) 0.81
Azamgarh	(-) 2.39	4.33	(-) 0.66
Bahraich	0.16	3.58	0.64
Ballia	(-) 3.85	3.72	(-) 1.78
Basti	(-) 1.43	4.16	(-) 0.42
Deoria	(-) 2.99	3.34	(-) 1.60



Districts	Agricultural Workers	Non Agricultural Workers	Total Workers
Faizabad	(-) 0.39	4.80	0.90
Ghazipur	(-) 1.67	4.45	(-) 0.09
Gonda	(-) 0.42	3.70	0.16
Gorakhpur	(-) 4.43	2.88	(-) 1.78
Jaunpur	(-) 1.73	3.14	(-) 0.37
Mahrajganj	(-) 2.95	5.06	(-) 1.73
Mau	(-) 2.85	4.15	(-) 0.13
Mirzapur	0.52	8.29	3.75
Pratapgarh	(-) 2.41	3.93	(-) 1.03
Siddharthnagar	(-) 1.97	4.23	(-) 1.22
Sonbhadra	(-) 2.85	2.77	(-) 1.29
Sultanpur	(-) 2.77	5.35	(-) 1.03
Varanasi	(-) 5.78	0.44	(-) 2.29
<b>Eastern Region</b>	<b>(-) 2.13</b>	<b>3.44</b>	<b>(-) 0.59</b>
Banda	(-) 1.62	4.47	(-) 0.52
Hamirpur	(-) 1.43	3.91	(-) 0.25
Jalaun	(-) 1.27	3.20	(-) 0.14
Jhansi	(-) 0.38	2.51	0.80
Lalitpur	0.96	4.12	1.63
<b>Bundelkhand</b>	<b>(-) 1.00</b>	<b>3.47</b>	<b>0.13</b>
<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>(-) 1.46</b>	<b>3.48</b>	<b>0.12</b>

Note: For purposes of comparison newly created districts have been merged in the old districts.

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001

## District-wise Sex Ratio, 2001

Rank	District	Females Per 1000 Males	Rank	District	Females Per 1000 Males
1.	Azamgarh	1023	37.	Pilibhit	876
2.	Jaunpur	1021	38.	Lakhimpur Kheri	875
3.	Deoria	1003	39.	Muzaffarnagar	872
4.	Mau	984	40.	Chitrakoot	872
5.	Pratapgarh	983	41.	Meerut	871
6.	Sultanpur	980	42.	Bareilly	870
7.	Ambedkar Nagar	977	43.	Jhansi	870
8.	Sant Kabir Nagar	975	44.	Saharanpur	867
9.	Ghazipur	974	45.	Mahoba	866
10.	Kushi Nagar	961	46.	Behraich	865
11.	Gorakhpur	959	47.	Sitapur	862
12.	Ballia	952	48.	Aligarh	861
13.	Rae Bareli	949	49.	Gaziabad	860
14.	Siddarth Nagar	946	50.	Farrukhabad	860
15.	Faizabad	939	51.	Kannauj	860
16.	Maharaj Ganj	933	52.	Banda	860
17.	Chandauli	922	53.	Kanpur Nagar	858
18.	Sant Ravidas Nagar	918	54.	Shrawasti	858
19.	Basti	916	55.	Hathras	856
20.	Varanasi	905	56.	Etawah	856
21.	Gonda	903	57.	Auraiya	856
22.	Unnao	898	58.	Kanpur Dehat	856
23.	Mirzapur	897	59.	Mainpuri	855
24.	Bijnor	896	60.	Hamirpur	852
25.	Balrampur	896	61.	Firozabad	851
26.	Sonbhadra	896	62.	Agra	850
27.	Kaushambi	894	63.	Baghpat	847
28.	Fatehpur	892	64.	Etah	847
29.	Lucknow	889	65.	Jalaun	847
30.	Barabanki	886	66.	Hardoi	843
31.	Moradabad	885	67.	Gautam Budh Nagar	842
32.	Jyotibaphule Nagar	885	68.	Badaun	841
33.	Lalitpur	884	69.	Mathura	839
34.	Rampur	882	70.	Shahjahanpur	838
35.	Allahabad	882			
36.	Bulandshahar	881		<b>State Average</b>	<b>898</b>

Note: Districts have been arranged in descending order.

Source: *Census 2001*

## District wise Number and Percentage of Female Main Workers, 2001

Sl. No.	State/District	Total Main Workers	Female Main Workers	Male Main Workers	% Share of Female Main Workers	% Share of Male Main Workers	Economic Empowerment Index (EEI)*
1	Saharanpur	692341	44474	647867	6.42	93.58	0.2565
2	Muzaffarnagar	899536	90709	808827	10.08	89.92	0.3837
3	Bijnor	708265	48923	659342	6.91	93.09	0.2701
4	Moradabad	993623	118337	875286	11.91	88.09	0.4421
5	Rampur	457175	29233	427942	6.39	93.61	0.2535
6	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	382742	39316	343426	10.27	89.73	0.3874
7	Meerut	737166	71139	666027	9.65	90.35	0.3692
8	Baghpat	289862	28984	260878	10.00	90.00	0.3855
9	Ghaziabad	799884	76249	723635	9.53	90.47	0.3672
10	G.B. Nagar	308884	35088	273796	11.36	88.64	0.4315
11	Bulandshahar	786708	140140	646568	17.81	82.19	0.6108
12	Aligarh	697481	80984	616497	11.61	88.39	0.4353
13	Hathras	295388	24633	270755	8.34	91.66	0.3265
14	Mathura	538167	84187	453980	15.64	84.36	0.5613
15	Agra	814102	60412	753690	7.42	92.58	0.2958
16	Firozabad	455028	32393	422635	7.12	92.88	0.2840
17	Etah	659834	43993	615841	6.67	93.33	0.2042
18	Mainpuri	365115	18251	346864	5.00	95.00	0.2042
19	Budaun	768945	38174	730771	4.96	95.04	0.2044
20	Bareilly	862821	52959	809862	6.14	93.86	0.2454
21	Pilibhit	360300	16867	343433	4.68	95.32	0.1897
22	Shahjahanpur	615499	25526	589973	4.15	95.85	0.1727
23	Kheri	838041	60220	777821	7.19	92.81	0.2836
24	Sitapur	923925	61337	862588	6.64	93.36	0.2646
25	Hardoi	904115	53453	850662	5.91	94.09	0.2403
26	Unnao	685498	72186	613312	10.53	89.47	0.3935
27	Lucknow	900181	103355	796826	11.48	88.52	0.4260
28	Rae Bareli	660527	107330	553197	16.25	83.75	0.5538
29	Farrukhabad	380901	21703	359198	5.70	94.30	0.2319
30	Kannauj	347072	29219	317853	8.42	91.58	0.3280
31	Etawah	298612	17590	281022	5.89	94.11	0.2378
32	Auraiya	285149	25909	259240	9.09	90.91	0.3529
33	Kanpur Dehat	377230	36512	340718	9.68	90.32	0.3739
34	Kanpur Nagar	1040278	110439	929839	10.62	89.38	0.4046
35	Jalaun	356090	38456	317634	10.80	89.20	0.4117
36	Jhansi	466903	73720	393183	15.79	84.21	0.5583
37	Lalitpur	289137	49363	239774	17.07	82.93	0.5905
38	Hamirpur	270959	41090	229869	15.16	84.84	0.5450

Sl. No.	State/District	Total Main Workers	Female Main Workers	Male Main Workers	% Share of Female Main Workers	% Share of Male Main Workers	Economic Empowerment Index (EEI)*
39	Mahoba	204026	39307	164719	19.27	80.73	0.6510
40	Banda	412443	80037	332406	19.41	80.59	0.6559
41	Chitrakoot	224429	57860	166569	25.78	74.22	0.7914
42	Fatehpur	594435	110807	483628	18.64	81.36	0.6290
43	Pratapgarh	578632	127092	451540	21.96	78.04	0.6848
44	Kaushambi	325303	73693	251610	22.65	77.35	0.8226
45	Allahabad	1106598	211584	895014	19.12	80.88	0.6441
46	Barabanki	724352	98502	625850	13.60	86.40	0.4915
47	Faizabad	527901	93272	434629	17.67	82.33	0.5940
48	Ambedkar Nagar	442210	77525	364685	17.53	82.47	0.5826
49	Sultanpur	679114	115887	563227	17.06	82.94	0.5698
50	Bahraich	632957	63264	569693	9.99	90.01	0.3814
51	Shrawasti	338879	45189	293690	13.33	86.67	0.4888
52	Balrampur	501620	103008	398612	20.54	79.46	0.6750
53	Gonda	697223	74921	622302	10.75	89.25	0.3993
54	Siddharthnagar	493431	98721	394710	20.01	79.99	0.6506
55	Basti	483455	80506	402949	16.65	83.35	0.5672
56	Sant Kabir Nagar	295045	49449	245596	16.76	83.24	0.5630
57	Mahrajganj	479400	93117	386283	19.42	80.58	0.6394
58	Gorakhpur	692824	99758	593066	14.40	85.60	0.5003
59	Kushinagar	574887	95784	479103	16.66	83.34	0.5624
60	Deoria	465463	68649	396814	14.75	85.25	0.5026
61	Azamgarh	770269	145352	624917	18.87	81.13	0.6086
62	Mau	396864	84577	312287	21.31	78.69	0.6735
63	Ballia	504543	74167	430376	14.70	85.30	0.5102
64	Jaunpur	789047	158499	630548	20.09	79.91	0.6394
65	Ghazipur	647379	124321	523058	19.20	80.80	0.6252
66	Chandauli	339953	52406	287547	15.42	84.58	0.5368
67	Varanasi	770799	119041	651758	15.44	84.56	0.5413
68	Sant Ravidas Nagar	271578	32476	239102	11.96	88.04	0.4354
69	Mirzapur	498926	80592	418334	16.15	83.85	0.5623
70	Sonbhadra	360180	67173	293007	18.65	81.35	0.6279
	<b>Uttar Pradesh</b>	<b>39337649</b>	<b>4999389</b>	<b>34338260</b>	<b>12.71</b>	<b>87.29</b>	<b>0.4623</b>

· Economic Empowerment Measure as using Main Workers in Uttar Pradesh taken from Manoj Agarwal:  
*Impact of Women Empowerment Programmes on Socio-Economic Conditions of Women In Uttar Pradesh, 2006*  
Source: Census 2001

## Number of Women Self Help Groups Set up By Different Departments /Organizations

Sl. No.	Name of Organization	Total No. of Groups Formed	No. of Women Self Help Groups	No. of Groups linked to Banks
<b>Government organizations</b>				
1.	Uttar Pradesh Diversified Agriculture Support Program	17671	6247	10425
2.	UP Land Development Corporation	12472	8095	9478
3.	Swashakti (Mahila Kalyan Nigam)	5176	5176	4329
4.	Micro Credit Action Research	945	503	471
5.	Primary Agriculture Cooperative Societies	3500	3500	2146
6.	SGSY	289697	70746	129431
7.	Swajal	3000	3000	1872
8.	Swayam Siddha (Mahila Kalyan Nigam)	8466	8466	6923
9.	DPAP	1336	462	1086
10.	IWDP	2727	683	2472
11.	Dairy Development	10713	N.A.	962
12.	Mahila Samakhya	3037	3037	2873
13.	Agriculture	4000	4000	2598
14.	SUDA	3000	2692	2973
15.	NYK	100	141	100
<b>International NGOs</b>				
16.	CRS (Catholic Relief Services)	1028	1006	671
17.	PAC (Poorest Area Civil Society)	4166	3892	2853
18.	CASA (Churches Auxiliary Service Agency)	376	372	142
19.	Action Aid	532	74	394
<b>Community based Voluntary Organizations/NGOs</b>				
20.	NEED	965	965	674
21.	PANI	944	922	648
22.	Saarthi Development Foundation	472	447	326
23.	SEWA	321	321	286
24.	GEAG	284	245	173
25.	PACE	141	125	54
26.	Rahi foundation	125	120	76
	<b>Total</b>	<b>375194</b>	<b>125110</b>	<b>184436</b>

Number of Women Self Help Groups Set up By Different Departments /Organizations

Source: Department of Planning, U.P. Government

## District wise Rebate in Stamp Duty in favour of Women till February, 2007

Sl. No.	District/Zone	Amount (Rs. in Lakh)
1.	Meerut	990.77
2.	Bulandshahar	1269.80
3.	Ghaziabad	2390.33
4.	Gautambuddha Nagar	508.06
5.	Baghpat	88.71
	<b>Total Meerut Zone</b>	<b>5247.67</b>
6.	Saharanpur	1609.69
7.	Muzaffar Nagar	306.33
	<b>Total Saharanpur Zone</b>	<b>1916.02</b>
8.	Moradabad	906.70
9.	Bijnor	407.51
10.	Rampur	323.33
11.	Jyotibaphule Nagar	254.29
	<b>Total Moradabad Zone</b>	<b>1891.83</b>
12.	Bareilly	368.98
13.	Budaun	559.22
14.	Shahjahanpur	143.35
15.	Philibhit	205.59
	<b>Total Bareilly Zone</b>	<b>1277.14</b>
16.	Agra	1104.57
17.	Aligarh	666.02
18.	Mathura	890.33
19.	Mainpuri	32.29
20.	Etah	406.84
21.	Firozabad	476.64
22.	Hathras	265.25
	<b>Total Agra Zone</b>	<b>3841.94</b>
23.	Kanpur Nagar	508.97
24.	Farrukhabad	146.68
25.	Etawah	139.47
26.	Kanpur Dehat	0.00
27.	Auraiya	405.47
28.	Kannauj	148.95
	<b>Total Kanpur Zone</b>	<b>1349.54</b>
29.	Lucknow	1152.45
30.	Unnao	131.44
31.	Rai Bareli	231.69
32.	Sitapur	135.98
33.	Hardoi	224.03
34.	Kheri	162.41
	<b>Total Lucknow Zone</b>	<b>2038.00</b>
35.	Jhansi	142.48
36.	Jalaun	209.84
37.	Lalitpur	228.39
	<b>Total Jhansi Zone</b>	<b>580.71</b>

Sl. No.	District/Zone	Amount (Rs. in Lakh)
38.	Chitrakoot	43.58
39.	Hamirpur	106.80
40.	Banda	183.65
41.	Mahoba	65.12
	<b>Total Chitrakoot Zone</b>	<b>399.15</b>
42.	Gorakhpur	1106.29
43.	Deoria	436.04
44.	Maharajganj	209.05
45.	Kushinagar	310.07
	<b>Total Gorakhpur Zone</b>	<b>2065.45</b>
46.	Azamgarh	133.03
47.	Ballia	311.69
48.	Mau	154.84
	<b>Total Azamgarh Zone</b>	<b>599.56</b>
49.	Basti	190.94
50.	Sidharth Nagar	898.87
51.	Sant Kabir Nagar	138.63
	<b>Total Basti Zone</b>	<b>1228.44</b>
52.	Faizabad	194.19
53.	Sultanpur	103.98
54.	Barabanki	290.55
55.	Ambedkar Nagar	289.45
	<b>Total Faizabad Zone</b>	<b>878.17</b>
56.	Gonda	149.96
57.	Bahraich	212.40
58.	Balrampur	127.23
59.	Shrawasti	12.00
	<b>Total Devipatan Zone</b>	<b>501.59</b>
60.	Varanasi	654.47
61.	Jaunpur	302.52
62.	Ghazipur	185.75
63.	Chanduli	196.03
	<b>Total Varanasi Zone</b>	<b>1338.77</b>
64.	Mirzapur	151.12
65.	Sonbhadra	103.21
66.	Sant Ravidas Nagar	113.05
	<b>Total Vindhyachal Zone</b>	<b>367.38</b>
67.	Allahabad	513.24
68.	Fatehpur	173.37
69.	Pratapgarh	288.60
70.	Kaushambi	56.99
	<b>Total Allahabad Zone</b>	<b>1032.20</b>
	<b>Grand Total U.P.</b>	<b>26553.56</b>

Source: Government of U.P.

Outlay and Physical Target of Women Component Plan in 10<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (2002-07)

Sl. No.	Name of Department Project/Scheme	Agreed Outlay (Rs. in Lakh)		Physical Target
		Total	WC	WC
1.	<b>ANIMAL HUSBANDRY</b> (i) Training and Extension Support to A.H.	100.00	50.00	5000
2.	<b>DAIRY</b> (i) Mahila Dairy Programme	300.00	300.00	Organization of Mahila Societies. - 310 Membership - 11910 Milk Procurement (Lakh Ltr.) - 14292
3.	<b>RURAL DEVELOPMENT</b> (i) Swarn Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojna	54500.00	21800.00	900000
4.	<b>INDUSTRIES</b> (i) Khadi and Village Industries Interest Subsidy Scheme (ii) Village and Small Industries Entrepreneurial Development Training Programme	3300.00 300.00	150.00 60.00	25000 20000
5.	<b>SECONDARY EDUCATION</b> (i) Non-Recurring Grant to Private Management for Opening Girls Schools in Unserved Blocks  (ii) Grant to opening of Girls H.S. /Inter by private management in several areas in Nyaya Panchayats	1200.00 2900.00	1200.00 2900.00	200 -
6.	<b>TECHNICAL EDUCATION</b> (i) Establishment of New Girls Polytechnic	98897.00	1045	No. of Institutes - 17 Intake - 1640
7.	<b>WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION</b> (i) U.P. Rural Water Supply and Environmental Sanitation Project (SWAJAL) World Assisted. (ii) Swajal Follow on Project (Externally Aided).  (iii) Jal Nidhi Project (CSS) Continuing  (iv) Jal Nidhi Project (CSS) New	6750.00 130000.00 14820.00 30000.00	67.50 1300.00 148.20 300.00	10 (Villages) 3900 (Villages) 1150 (Villages)
8.	<b>URBAN DEVELOPMENT</b> (i) Urban Employment Poverty Eradication SJSRY (DWACUA)	6000.00	300.00	7600
9.	<b>WELFARE OF SCHEDULED CASTES</b> (i) Discretionary grants for marriage of daughters and treatment of persons suffering from severe diseases. (DS)	5000.00	4750.00	39375



Sl. No.	Name of Department Project/Scheme	Agreed Outlay (Rs. in Lakh)		Physical Target
		Total	WC	WC
	(ii) Scholarship to the students of Class I to X.	16410.00	4102.00	745820
	(iii) Non-recurring assistance for purchase of books and other appliances to the students in post-metric classes.	100.00	24.00	4000
	(iv) Scholarship to the students whose parents are engaged in unclean profession in pre-metric classes (DS/CSS)	100.00	20.00	2000
<b>10.</b>	<b>WELFARE OF SCHEDULED TRIBES</b>			
	(i) Grant of scholarship to the Scheduled Tribes students of Class I to V (D.S.)	15.00	5.00	1666
	(ii) Grant of scholarship to the Scheduled Tribes students of Class VI to VIII (D.S.)	5.00	1.10	229
	(iii) Grant of scholarship to the Scheduled Tribes students of Class IX to X (D.S.)	5.00	1.10	152
	(iv) Hostel (50-50)	250.00	250.00	3
	(v) Ashram Type Schools (50:50)	1495.00	299.00	3
<b>11.</b>	<b>WELFARE OF DENOTIFIED TRIBES</b>			
	(i) Scholarship to the students reading in class I to X	750.00	140.00	8000
<b>12.</b>	<b>WELFARE OF BACKWARD CLASSES</b>			
	(i) Grant of scholarship to the students of Class I to V	20145.66	8058.26	3223304
	(ii) Grant of scholarship to the students of Class VI to VIII	4599.50	1839.82	459955
	(iii) Grant of scholarship to the students of Class IX to X	4320.10	1728.04	345608
<b>13.</b>	<b>MINORITY WELFARE</b>			
	(i) Pre-metric scholarship for students of minority	1500.00	182.00	(i) Class I to V (ii) Class VI to VIII - 283645 (iv) Class IX to X - 94549
<b>14.</b>	<b>WELFARE OF HANDICAPPED</b>			
	(i) Grant to handicapped persons for construction of shops (SS).	400.00	100.00	500
	(ii) Grant in aid for maintenance of physically handicapped destitute persons.	501.00	125.00	2095
<b>15.</b>	<b>SOCIAL WELFARE</b>			
	(i) Old age/Kisan pension.	50830.00	17790.00	615260

Sl. No.	Name of Department Project/Scheme	Agreed Outlay (Rs. in Lakh)		Physical Target
		Total	WC	WC
16.	<b>WOMEN WELFARE</b>			
	(i) Grant in aid to destitute widows (D.S.)	2400.00	2400.00	150000
		100.00	100.00	500.00
	(ii) Scholarship to women and girls of general category for pursuing higher technical education and professional courses.	500.00	500.00	-
		500.00	5000	10
17.	<b>NUTRITION</b>			
	(i) Supplementary nutrition programme	77947.00	77947.00	Projects 1. Additional -201 2. Level - 812 Centres 1.Additional-26010 2. Level - 90999 Beneficiaries 1.Additional - 21.8 2. Level - 74.70 (Lakh Nos.)

Source: Tenth Five Year Plan U.P. Government

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