Baseline Survey of North-East District, NCT Delhi

Minority Concentrated Districts Project

Ministry of Minority Affairs, Government of India

Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi

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An Introduction to the North-East Delhi

The North-East District of Delhi shares its northern and eastern borders with Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh; on its south is the East Delhi district and the North Delhi district lies on the west across the river Yamuna. Its population size stands at 1,76,8061 in an area of 60 sq. kms., with an extremely high density of 29, 397 persons per sq. km. Administratively, the district is divided into three subdivisions, Seelampur, Shahdara and Seemapuri with Seelampur being the largest. Shahdara with no rural population is the most urbanised while Seemapuri has the largest proportion of rural population.

Thus, the district is highly urbanized with nearly 92 %of its population marked as urban; it also has a sizeable chunk of the population residing in villages many of whom retain their rural characteristics. It has a total of 28 villages of which only 12 are inhabited.

If literacy rate is an indicator of backwardness, the district, with literacy rate much below the state's average (82%), remains the most deprived. In terms of religious distribution, the district has nearly 30 % minority concentration with Muslims being the predominant minority group. As is evident from Table 1.3 b, the community has the lowest literacy figure when compared with other religious groups.

Development Deficits in North-east Delhi

Sl No	Indicators	Survey results 2008	All India (2005)	Gap between All India and District	Priority ranking
		1	2	3 = 1-2	4
	Socio-economic indicators				
1	Rate of literacy	72.0	67.3	4.7	7
2	Rate of female literacy	69.9	57.1	12.8	6
3	Work participation rate	31.2	38.0	-6.8	3
4	Female work participation rate	10.3	21.5	-11.2	2
II					
	Basic Amenities indicators				
5	Percentage of households with pucca walls	92.8	59.4	33.4	10
6	Percentage of households with safe drinking water**	78.6	87.9	-9.3	1
7	Percentage of households with electricity	93.7	67.9	25.8	9
8	Percentage of households with water close set latrines	88.3	39.2	49.1	8
III					
	Health Indicators				
9	Percentage of fully vaccinated children	79.7	43.5	36.2	5
10	Percentage delivered in a health facility	59.3	38.7	20.6	4

Note: (1) Survey data of the district (Col. 1) pertains to rural area only, but other data (Col 2) pertains to total. (2) Data in Col 2 from Sl. No. 5 to 8 pertain to year 2005-06 from NFHS-3 and the rest of the data in Col. 2 pertain to the year 2004-05 from NSSO

Method of the Survey

For the purpose of survey, 600 households were sampled from 30 different localities from across the district. The data collected was both primary as well secondary, qualitative as well as quantitative. The sampled localities were segregated into three strata in terms of minority population, inhabited in these localities. These strata were termed as Category I, II and III depending on their respective concentration of minority:

> Localities with minority concentration between 0 to 25 % : Category I
> Localities with minority concentration between 25 to 75 %: Category II
> Localities with minority concentration 75% and above: Category III

In the absence of religion wise population distribution, the electoral list were resorted to prepare the sampling frame to identify the minority concentrated localities and villages in the district. The universe of our household survey, therefore, had to be shrunk to the voting population in the district. This shortcoming was, however, taken special care of though focus group interviews of children and minors, during the course of field work. A multistage systematic random proportional sampling method was adopted to sample out 30 localities from a total of nearly 155 of them identified from the voter list. Subsequently, the households were sampled by *cluster quota sampling* after looking at the house numbers in the voter lists and locating clusters of minority populations and non – minority populations. The district population being largely urban at 92% as against a mere 8% of the rural , it was decided to take this district as an exception and take both urban and rural areas into account while selecting the 30 localities.

Income and Employment

A very high proportion of respondents (27.3%) across all categories refrained from divulging information regarding their earnings. An estimated 15 % of Delhi's urban population lives below poverty line. The survey data from the North-East Delhi however suggest a much higher proportion of population that could be declared as living in impoverished conditions. A total of 37 %of the population managed its living with an annual earning below Rs.50, 000 which is near about close to the poverty line declared by the Planning Commission for the state of Delhi in 2004-05. Of these, nearly 29% were found to be living in conditions of abject poverty with annual income less than Rs.25,000. Interestingly, despite the income backwardness of the district, a substantial section of the population, 14.3% seemed to be fairly affluent with annual household income above Rs.100,000. An analysis of income disparity suggested that minority households residing in the district were comparatively more deprived than those belonging to other persuasions.

Despite the opening up of the economy, the task of creating new employment opportunities has remained unfrained in the North East Delhi. The performance of the district with respect to employment opportunities was quite poor with only 28.3 % of the population able to join the workforce.

In terms of activity wise deployment, the data drawn from the sampled households reaffirm a similar trend in the North-East district. Majority of the residents of the area (26.05 per cent) were engaged in business or sales followed by a large proportion of service workers (18.17 per cent) such as carpenters, electricians, masons, smiths etc. The tertiary sector is further strengthened by managerial, administrative and clerical workers. A sizeable proportion of the workforce also populated the secondary sector with 15.22 %engaged in production and manufacturing and 12.26 %providing support as professionals and technicians. Consistent with urbanizing trends, the primary sector comprising farming and cultivation remains insignificant with only 1.4 %worker engagement. Although the Sachar Committee findings indicate an astonishingly high occurrence of self-employment among Muslims in India, including Delhi, the figure returned for self employment in this survey remains low across all Categories . This is surprising but can be explained by referring to the presence of overlapping and multiple variables. For example much of business and sales, service workers etc related figures could as well be included under self employment. Despite the fact that a considerable proportion of residents are able to find employment in business and sales, yet the sector has failed to draw adequate institutional attention. Credit at high interest rates is one of the most serious issues plaguing the sector Most of the respondents saw institutional lending inadequate and inaccessible, and therefore depended on non-institutional credit. Lack of fixed and sufficient working space was another major road block identified by workers and businessmen. Localities such as Seelampur, Welcome Colony, Subhash Park, Mandoli, Jaffrabad, as mentioned elsewhere in this report, are swamped with small one or two room industrial units in which majority of the population finds employment. An intervention that addresses this concern is urgently required.

Education:

Literacy rate that emerged from the survey was nearly 73 %, much lower than the state's average as well as the district's average computed in the Census exercise of 2001. Notably, minority concentrated areas of the district reported alarmingly high proportion of the illiterate population. The survey showed that universal primary education was a far cry. Nearly 6.5 % of children in the sampled areas are denied formal schooling. The schooling status showed a heavy leaning towards government schools among minorities with nearly 86 %of them in the age group 5-25 years attending or having attended them in the past. Contrary to prevalent belief, the option of Madarsa for schooling and education has not received much favour from the Muslims of North-East Delhi. Only 4.35 %of 5-25 population in Category III areas had attended or was attending a Madarsa. This was consistent with the earlier findings of national level survey conducted by NCAER. This also has implication for policy initiatives that have banked on Madarsas and their modernization to address educational backwardness among Muslims. The requirement for Government schools was therefore strongly felt by the Minority residents. Inclination towards higher education was found to be dismal especially amongst the minorities. The absence of institutions of higher learning in the area was possibly one reason. The district has only two affiliated colleges that offer under-graduate teaching.

Across all Categories , Hindi was the medium predominantly used in schools; English came to be the next choice. The proportion of respondents or their wards studying in English medium schools was the highest in areas of majority concentration. Notably, schools with Urdu as a medium of instruction where largely preferred by the minority population in Category III areas. The Nehruvian three language formula remained largely unimplemented in the schools of the District.

Infrastructure and Amenities

Despite being part of the NCT North- East Delhi, it does not even have the most basic amenities that are considered to be essential for any town. For example, 31.3% of households reported that they do not have tap water facilities in their houses. The electrification was not universal. Even the electrified households , were not satisfied with the nature of supply.   Street light was not available either in the streets of 27.5 % households. Of the total 600 households, only 533 households were having toilet facility at home. The percentage of such households in Category I was the highest at 59.7%. There were no sewage lines on the streets of almost half (48.2%) the total households sampled. The sewage condition was extremely poor for the households drawn from minority concentrated areas. Even where sewage line was present, its functioning was reported to be unsatisfactory. The proper drainage system, too, was missing in most of the district. During rainy season, while the survey was going on, the roads and streets were constantly blocked with water and could not be navigated. 41.5% of the households complained of improper drainage. The incidence of these cases was much higher in the minority concentrated areas especially of Seelampur subdivision. On being asked about the overall situation of garbage cleaning, 62.9% of the respondents felt that the situation was quite unsatisfactory. It was observed that people living in Seelampur and Seemapuri also were not sufficiently aware of the importance of hygiene because of lack of proper education. In an interview , the Imam of a Masjid in Seelampur, confirmed this by saying that people in the area were not sufficiently educated to fully comprehend the importance of cleanliness and hygiene.
The data showed that more than half i.e. 57% of the total respondents used buses for commuting. 49.1% i.e. almost half the respondents from minority areas reported that bus service was irregular. Infrastructural facilities such as a sports complex and public parks that depict the overall development of a district were missing in the district. There was very little open space and encroachments on public land was quite common. That is why, on an average 84% households in the entire sample denied having any access to a sports complex. 86.6 % of respondents from households in minority concentrated localities reported that they did not have access to any play ground in their area. Public parks are also a scarcity in the district. 79.5 % of households in Category III reported on not having access to any public park.

Health data revealed that polio immunization was not universal. The immunization reported for DPT, BCG and Measles was even less than polio. The notable fact was that status of immunization in households from minority concentrated areas and also to some extent from mixed areas was relatively poor in comparison to those from non-minority

areas. The maximum number of households in all Categories reported that they used the government agency for immunization of their children.

Development Schemes: Awareness and Benefits

BPL card is given to the most marginalized and poor people so that they could benefit from government schemes. The findings of the household survey showed that only 23% of the total respondents had BPL cards. The respondents were not able to access the facility properly because of several underlying difficulties such as bad quality and insufficient quantity of food grains, dishonesty in measurement, unavailability of stock on time and irregularity in supply.

Government of Delhi runs several development schemes and programmes for the poor and needy. In North- East District , due to lack of proper awareness about these schemes and several other hurdles, the benefits of these schemes did not reach the needy. For example, the data collected from the survey showed that ICDS could benefit only 12.5 % of the women and children in the district. More than half the households amongst minorities were not aware about MMDS. No wonder, only 3.6 % reported to have benefited from it. The awareness about 'National Maternity Benefit Scheme', 'National Family Benefit Scheme' and 'National Social Assistance Programme' was not even spread to one third of the total households. In all, only 4.9 % of the households benefited from NMBS, 3.1% from NFBS, and 1.8 % from NSAP in Category I. For Category II, there were only 1.5 % beneficiaries for NSAP. The rest of the households showed no benefits at all.

Public Perception about Different Public Facilities

A look at the detailed perceptions about different facilities and services showed that the 1/3rd to 1/4th of the respondents reported an average level of satisfaction from different services and facilities. The respondents who perceived the services to be very good' were negligible, irrespective of their localities. Sanitation and garbage was the poorest and rightly perceived so. Drainage, too, was very poor. A large percentage of 'very poor' and 'poor' responses were also elicited for business and employment opportunities. Drinking Water availability was thought to be comparatively better which may be due to the proximity of the district to river Yamuna. Power supply was considered average and generally it was not perceived to be very bad and rather 8.33 % thought it to be very good. Health facilities were considered poor by more than half of the respondents. So was governance. Roads and public safety, and women's safety were also thought to be poor. Access to transport also was perceived as poor by almost 1/4th of the respondents. The quality of environment also did not generate happy sentiments as almost 1/3rd of the respondents found it to be poor and some of them thought it to be very poor. In general, the overall image of the district , amongst all the Categories was poor.

Migration

A total of 238 households out of 600 households—nearly 40 per cent—reported that they had migrated to the capital city from other towns or villages. Migrant households comprised 41.8 percent of Category I; 34.7 %of Category II and 36.6 %of Category III. Most respondents overwhelmingly picked infrequent employment in their native villages/ towns as the single most important reason for their migration. Other factors such as displacement, lack of amenities in the native area and children's education were also cited but were not granted the same primacy as lack of employment. Most of these migrant households were either landless or had very small landholdings—which could not sustain the family—thus forcing them to seek work. However non-availability of work through the year pushed families to travel to Delhi. As migrants and casual workforce in the unorganized sector, they are vulnerable to exploitation and unfair practices.

Issues of Security and Conflict

Seelampur, one of the biggest and most densely populated localities of the district, has been communally sensitive in the past. While Seelampur is predominantly Muslim, Welcome colony, the adjoining locality, is a mixed one where a substantial section of the population comprises of low caste Valmiki Hindus. In the wake of the demolition of Babri Masjid in 1992, violent clashes broke out between the two communities in which several lives were lost. Barring this incident, there has been relative calm between the two communities. Inter-communal relations, insecurity and discontent with the law enforcing agencies were few concerns that the survey attempted to tap and make sense of.

While communal clashes were a rarity in the area with the last one occurring a decade and a half back, yet this had not reassured feeling of security among the inhabitants across all Categories . It is noteworthy, however, that this feeling of insecurity seems to be alarmingly high in localities with overwhelming Muslim population. The data also suggest an increasing lack of confidence in the law enforcing agencies. This is particularly the case with the minority settlements. While a very high proportion of residents of Categories I and II localities found the state agencies cooperative, those in Category III clearly disagreed with such a contention. They were also unequivocal in terming the role of such agencies as biased against their community. They were equally categorical in terming the role of the district police as uncooperative and prejudiced against their community. The opinion of Category I and II residents however differed. They found the police cooperative and also impartial in all situations of inter-community conflict.

Concluding Remarks

The survey showed that North – East District is far behind in terms of all indicators of development and progress, be it the literacy rate, employment opportunities, income levels, equitable access to quality education, status of infrastructure, health, and other public amenities. The perception of people about the role of state in providing basic facilities such as roads, housing, health care, sanitation, etc. was quite poor. The situation

of minority concentrated areas was far worse than other parts of the district, though on the whole the entire district seemed like some poor country cousin of the national capital – physically a part but far removed in any substantive sense. Our focus group discussions and case studies of villages and informal sector revealed startling inequalities and horrid tales of injustice, exploitation of labour and indifference by the state as well as the private employers. There is a strong and urgent need for remedial measures in the North- East District for it to be able to come at par with the rest of the country.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is worthwhile to mention that the pretext for the present exercise is provided by the Sachar Committee Report on the social, economic and educational status of Muslims in India. Addressing primarily the equity concerns of India's Muslim citizens, the Report attempted at an assessment of the community's performance in the various sectors of the country's economy. Relying primarily on the data made available by the ministries and departments of central and state governments, Census operations, national and state sample surveys, public sector undertakings, universities and other public institutions, the Committee was able to highlight the deficits that various sections of the Muslim community face in terms of their share in public employment, education, commerce and trade, political offices and so forth. Having quantified the shortfall, the Committee laid emphasis on strict adherence to the principles of inclusive development and distributive justice.

1.1 Objectives of the Survey:

The Minority Concentrated Districts Project (MCDP) proposes to identify areas, and more importantly, modes of intervention so as to allow for effective utilization of resources that could reap maximum benefits to the most vulnerable sections of the population. The base line survey of minority concentrated districts is intended to build on and supplement, wherever necessary, the findings of the Sachar Report with reliable primary data collected from sampled villages and localities of the district designated as minority concentrated. At the same time, the Project intends to go a step further. While the brief of the Sachar Report was confined to studying specifically the status of Muslims in India; the MCD Project, is basically an implementation strategy that aims to address development deficits affecting the entire district marked as backward. The units of analyses for this baseline survey are therefore all major socio-religious

Categories and groups residing within the jurisdiction of the district concerned.

Having said that, it is also important to mention that despite the term minority being a generic one that is used to refer to a plethora of non-Hindu faith communities; the utter preponderance of Muslims among the minority populations of the country together with the specificity of their case, necessitates added attention. In 2001, while Muslims in the country constituted 13.4% of the population, the corresponding figures for Christians, Sikhs, Buddhists and others including Parsees and Jews stood at 2.3, 1.9, 0.8 and 0.6 %respectively. The enormity of their population size has not helped them in appropriating fruits of India's development processes. Thus, in terms of human development, Muslims lag behind all other minority communities of the country. Their literacy rate at the all India level is the lowest at 59.1 when compared to Christians (80.3), Sikhs (69.4), Buddhists (72.7) and Jains (94.1). This seems to have affected their work participation rate too which at 47.4 is also the lowest when contrasted with the national average or the figures returned by other communities (Census 2001). Muslim marginalization and impoverishment along with political disempowerment has paved the way for the emergence of veriTable threat perception among members of the community. It is pertinent, therefore, that strategies aimed at uplifting the minority

population focuses itself and takes into account the concerns of India's largest minority.

1.2 National Capital Territory of Delhi: A Socio-economic and Demographic Profile

The NCT of Delhi covers a total area of 1483 square kilometers with a population that stood at 13.8 million in 2001. This made Delhi the third most populous metropolitan city after Mumbai and Kolkata in India. The decennial growth rate of population between 1991–2001 stood at 4.1 making it the fastest growing city in India. The city's predominantly urban population—nearly 93 per cent—is spread over 9 districts. The North-West District spread over 440 sq. kms is the largest; and New Delhi covering a mere 35 sq. kms with around 179,000 residents is the smallest. The North-East District is the most densely populated (29,468 persons per sq. kms) and South-West the least (4179 persons per sq. km.) (Table 1.2 a). Among India's four major metropolitan cities, Delhi is the least densely populated, least urbanized and covers the largest geographical area.

District	Area in sq.kms	Population in '000s	% urban	Population density
NCT of Delhi	1483.00	13,850	93	9340
North-West	440.00	2861	91	6502
North	60.00	782	94	13,025
North-East	60.00	1768	92	29,438
East	64.00	1464	99	22,897
New Delhi	35.00	179	100	5117
Central	25.00	646	100	25,949
West	129.00	2129	96	16,501
South-West	420.00	1755	87	4179
South	250.00	2267	93	9067

Table 1. 2 a Area and Population of Delhi's Districts

Source: Census 2001.

In the last two decades, Delhi has recorded significant expansion in economic opportunities and growth in employment. It reports one of the highest per capita income among Indian states, more than double the national average. Over the years, Delhi has emerged as a major trading, commercial, banking, insurance, retail and entertainment centre of India. It has capitalized well on the new economic opportunities that arose after 1990. Delhi's economy rests on a strong and growing service sector comprising of trade, hotels and restaurants, transport, communications, financial and insurance services, real estate, public administration and other business

services. On the other hand, the share of secondary sector including manufacturing saw a slight decline during 1993-2004 mainly owing to the closure of polluting industrial units following Supreme Court order. The primary sector too comprising agriculture, live stock etc has seen a rapid decline in the period (from 4 to 1%)[1].

Growth in the economy was also matched by a steady decline in the proportion of population below poverty line (BPL). From a staggering 49.61% in 1973-74, the population below poverty line fell significantly to 8.23% by 1999-2000. However, as per the estimates of 61st Round NSS, within a period of five years (2000-2005), the BPL population in Delhi doubled from 11.49 to 22.93 lakhs. This suggests rising income disparities and growth in absolute poverty among the residents of the city[2].

Partially, the growth in urban poverty could also be a result of a high degree of in-migration that the city attracts. Between 3.5–4.3 million workers are employed in Delhi's unorganized sector consisting of trade, hotels and restaurants, manufacturing sector, construction sites etc. Most of these workers are illiterate migrants employed on a casual basis without adequate job security or benefits. Many women in particular become home-based workers producing food items, paper products, footwear, handicrafts, and other products. Others find jobs as domestic servants. The unorganized sector employment in Delhi has been increasing since the 1990s. In 1993–4, unorganized sector workers accounted for 76 %of employment in Delhi. By 1999–2000, the proportion had risen to 81 per cent. The greater informalization of the workforce combined with the high in-migration into the city have led to a perpetuation of inequities in living standards[3].

In terms of the religious distribution, an overwhelming majority of the city's population is Hindu constituting 82 %followed by Muslims (11.7%), Sikhs (4%) and Christians (0.9%). Taken together, minorities comprise nearly 16.5 %of the populace. While the Sikhs and the Christians record literacy rates higher than the state's average, literacy among Muslims is a good 15 %lower. It is noteworthy that unlike the national average, the Muslim sex ratio in Delhi is substantially low at 782 when compared to the states average of 821. The two indicators listed above, when read together, suggest a high proportion of male in-migrants among Muslims of the city.

1.3 Executive Summary of North-East Delhi: A Sketch of the Field

The North-East district shares its northern and eastern borders with Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh; on its south is the East Delhi district and the North Delhi district lies on the west across the river Yamuna. Its population size stands at 1,76,8061 in an area of 60 sq. kms, with an extremely high density of 29, 397 persons per sq. km. Administratively, the district is divided into three subdivisions, Seelampur, Shahdara and Seemapuri with Seelampur being the largest. Shahdara with no rural population is the most urbanised while Seemapuri has the largest proportion of rural population (Table 1.3 a).

Table 1.3 a : Population distribution across Subdivisions of North-East District

Subdivision	Area	Population	Total population	No. of Households	Household Size
Seelampur	Rural	38,382	9,20, 125	6,802	5.6
	Urban	8,81,743		1,53,014	5.8
Shahdara	Rural	0	3,18,222	0	0.0
	Urban	3,18,222		52,812	6.0
Seemapuri	Rural	1,03,165	5,29,714	18,254	5.7
	Urban	4,26,549		80,005	5.3
Total North-East	Rural	1,41,547	1,76,8061	25,056	5.6
	Urban	1,626,514		2,85,831	5.7

Source: Census 2001

Thus, the district is highly urbanized with nearly 92 %of its population marked as urban; it also has a sizeable chunk of the population residing in villages many of whom retain their rural characteristics. It has a total of 28 villages of which only 12 are inhabited.

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Table 1.3 b: Population share and literacy rate by religious communities in North-East district

Religious Communities	Total Population	Population Share (%)	Literacy Rate (%)
All	1768061	100	77.5
Hindu	1232960	69.74	82.3
Muslim	481607	27.24	63
Christian	7640	0.43	93.41
Sikhs	18505	1.05	82.50
Buddhist	4802	0.27	84.11
Jain	22322	1.26	95.60
Others	225	0.01	78.36

Source: Census 2001

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2. METHODOLOGY

As is evident from the objectives of the survey, it was primarily intended to bring out a socio-economic profile of the district with an emphasis on its minority population. This team not only conducted the survey, but also undertook a few case studies of some occupational groups and industrial workers to suggest policy guidelines. The methodology adopted, thus, was both quantitative as well as qualitative. The primary data was collected through pre-designed and largely pre-coded interview schedules, administered by research investigators hired for the purpose. In addition, the team conducted focus group interviews and captured the views and perceptions of targeted groups in a more vivid and detailed manner to enhance the quantitative data. These focus groups comprised village people, industrial workers, women , school children, members of school teaching community, informal labour and so on.

Besides collecting primary data, the team also made use of secondary sources such as Census and Government Reports, reports by other non-governmental organizations, research and educational institutions as the background material to develop the context for the study.

2.1 Sampling Design

As the survey was being done at two levels *viz.* the locality and the household respectively, the sampling, too, had to be done separately for both these levels. Multistage random sampling was, therefore, the best option available to us. For the purpose of survey, 600 households were sampled from 30 different localities from across the district. For the purpose of sampling, the localities had to be segregated into three strata in terms of minority population, inhabited in these localities.

A scanning of the secondary data for religion wise population distribution of the localities proved futile. The reason was the non availability of religion wise demographic composition for units smaller than sub-divisions. The census data for wards was very detailed but that too was secular. The same was the case in the records of District Administration Offices such as the Office of the Deputy Commissioner (Revenue), the Deputy Commissioner (MCD), and the Office of the Directorate of Economics and Statistics.

The voter lists, however, listed the voters by name and an indicator of religious identity. It was, therefore, decided to map the voter lists of all the 8 constituencies of the district and calculate the religion wise voter population percentage. This was a mammoth exercise and took considerable time since the number of voters in each constituency was very large, unlike in a village. The drawback, of course, was that we were now, able to calculate only the adult voting population. There were no means of estimating the minority percentage of population below 18 years. The universe of our household survey, therefore, had to be shrunk to the voting population in the district. This shortcoming was, however, taken special care of though focus group interviews of children and minors, during the course of field work.

2. A Multi-stage Sampling

At level 1, multistage systematic random proportional sampling method was adopted to sample out 30 localities from a total of nearly 155 of them identified from the voter list. The entire exercise involved several stages. In the first stage, all the 155 localities were grouped under three different strata in the ascending order of minority population residing in them. These strata were termed as Category I, II and III depending on their respective concentration of minority:

Localities with minority concentration between 0 to 25 % : Category I

Localitis with minority concentration between 25 to 75 %: Category II

Localities with minority concentration 75% and above: Category III

In the second stage, it was decided to determine the total number of localities to be sampled from each stratum in terms of the proportion of its voter population to total population of the district. This ratio of voter population in three strata to the total population in the district thus came to be 20: 7: 3 for Categories I, II and III respectively.

Table 2.2 a: Category wise list of sampled localities

Muslim Minority/ Category I	Mixed / Category II	Muslim Concentration / Category III
GHONDA		
Arvind Nagar	Brahmpuri	
Bhajan Pura	Gautam Vihar	
Gammi	Village Usmanpur	
Jai Prakash Nagar		
Kartar Nagar		
Vijay Colony		
Vijay Mohalla Colony		
ROHTAS NAGAR		
Ashok Nagar	Motiram Road, Shahadra	
Bhagwanpur Khera		
Chnader Lok		
DDA Flats , Loni Road		
Durga puri Extn		
East of Loni Road		
East Rohtash Nagar		
Jagat Puri		
Kabul Nagar		
Mandoli Road, Chandoli Road		
Mansarovar Park		
Mansarovar park DDA Flats		
Naveen Shahadara		
Ram Nagar, Mandoli Road		
Ram Nagar Extn		
Ram Nagar, Mandoli Road		
Rohtas Nagar , Pratapura		
Shivaji Park		
YAMUNA VIHAR		
Bhajan Pura	Ghonda Extn.	Ghonda Extn. Noor –e-ilahi
Gadhi Mandu	Maujpur	
North ghonda	Subhash Mohalla	

Soniya vihar		
Vijay Park		
West Ghonda		
Yamuna Vihar		
SEELAMPUR		
Gautam puri East Wing	New Seelampur	Chauhan Bangar, East Wing
Gautam puri West Wing	New Seelampur North Wing	Chauhan Bangar, North Wing
Kaithwara	New Seelampur, West Wing	Chauhan Bangar, South Wing
New Seelampur south Wing	New Seelampur , East Wing	Chauhan bangar,West Wing
New Usmanpur	Shastri Park	Gautam puri East Wing II
	Uldhanpur	Jafrabad
		Jafrabad North Wing
		Jafrabad , south Wing
		Jafrabad, West Wing
		Shastri Park
		Shastri Park West Wing
		Shastri Park , East Wing
BABARPUR		
Babarpur	Jyoti nagar	Shastri Park South Wing
Balbir nagar	Seelampur	
Chajjupur	Shastri Park East	
East Gorakhpark		
Gorakhpark		
Panchsheel Park		
Subhash Park		
Shastri Park, North Wing		
NANDNAGRI		
East Gokulpuri	Bhagirath Vihar	
Gokulpuri	Seemapuri	
Johripuri	Sundernagri	
Mandoli		
Mandoli Extn.		
Mandoli		
Meet Nagar		
Village gokulpur		

Nandnagri		
SEEMAPURI		
Dilshad Colony		New Seemapuri
Dilshad garden		Old Seemapuri
DLF Colony		
GTB Hospital		
Harsh Vihar		
Jagatpuri Extn.		
Nandnagri		
Nandnagri Dilshad garden		
Nand Nagri Janata Flats		
Tahir Nagar		
Village khera		
Village Tahirpur		
Karawal Nagar		
Sadatpur Extension	Nehru Vihar	Shriram Colony
Dayalpur		Bhagirath Vihar
Prem Nagar		
Mukund Vihar		

In the third stage, the localities were selected by computerized systematic random sampling technique. We also resorted to over sampling for Category III to ensure adequate representation of the minority concentrated localities in the total sample.

Level- II of the sampling process entailed determining the exact number of households to be sampled from each selected locality. Here too, the conventional technique of listing all the households was not followed because of two hurdles. The first hurdle was posed by the number of households which happened to be too large in a metropolitan city to be listed individually by a small team, and the second was the paucity of time for this exercise (Table 1.3 a). The sampling of households was done through *cluster quota sampling* by looking at the house numbers in the voter lists and locating clusters of minority populations and non – minority populations. The investigators were given addresses of sampled households in these clusters and were sent to respective localities for data collection with the following instructions:

1. Information must to be collected from households residing in various clusters or sub-localities within any sampled locality.

2. Diversity must be maintained by the following principles:

   a) if there is one rural cluster, that should be taken as the first cluster.

   b) even if there are more than one rural cluster, only one, would be selected.

4. In clusters having religious homogeneity, not more than two clusters should be selected. There can be an additional rural cluster depending on the situation.

5. In case of heterogeneous localities, at least one rural and one highest minority concentrated cluster to be selected.

2.3 Locating the survey: Underlining the Complexities of a Metropolitan

The Ministry of Minority Affairs, primarily intended this Baseline Survey to be conducted in the 30 villages in each of the 90 Districts, identified as the Minority concentrated districts, all over India. As mentioned earlier, North-East Delhi a metropolitan by demographic standards and has a largely urban population. The total rural and urban area in the district is 21.62 and 38.38 sq. kms. respectively[4] given ahead.

The rural population of the district is very low compared to its urban counterpart. According to Census 2001, the North-East District of Delhi has a total of 28 villages of which only 12 are inhabited. 4 of these villages are agricultural villages while one village is having a population which is largely working as Industrial Wage labourers. (*see* list of villages below).

Table 2.2 b: Sub-division- wise list of inhabited villages in the district

Seelampur	Shahdara	Seemapuri
1. Badar Pur Khadar 2. Pur Delhi 3. Pur Shahdara 4. Saba Pur Delhi 5. Saba Pur Shahdara 6. Baquiabad 7. Biharipur 8. Sher Pur 9. Garhi Mendu 10. Tukhmir Pur 11. Khan Pur Dhani	None	1. Mandoli

Source: Census of India, 2001.

Note: *This list does not include urban villages*

Moreover, the majority of rural population is also inhabited in urban areas, especially in urban villages. The larger share of minority population, too, resides in urban areas. Therefore, it would have been futile to attempt to profile this district by confining the survey to its villages only. Keeping this empirical situation in mind, it was decided to take this district as an exception and take both urban and rural areas into account while selecting the 30 localities.

This was easier said than done for the city of Delhi, as we all know, is not only the national capital but also a state, and a union territory as well. This in effect, translates into a plural political and bureaucratic state structure with multiple levels of authorities and government functioning. The units and geographical boundaries of administration

were overlapping. For instance, the smallest urban unit of local level administration was ward. However, according to Census 2001, Delhi had 134 wards, as per the report of State Delimitation Commission, 1993. However, in March 2008, this number was raised to 272 by newly set up 11 member State Delimitation Commission in 2006 which submitted its report while our survey was going on. The wards are inherently dynamic and their numerical strength and geographical boundaries are constantly changing. The data for Delhi wards given in Census, 2001 did not match the actual wards of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD) since the latter have been re-notified after delimitation. So while the census data on population was very rich, the wards that it profiled no longer existed.

The localities that were chosen as units of survey did not match the administrative units. This posed considerable problems in collecting data for locality schedules. Despite several modifications in the schedule and the questions, it was difficult to acquire data from government offices in the format required for the survey. The government departments did not have religion wise data , in any case. In some cases, the information available was for a circle , in others, it was for the ward, and while in yet others, the records were maintained for individual beneficiaries rather than on the basis of the localities. It was a continuous struggle to get information from the government departments. This has been a severe setback for the research investigators who had to run from pillar to post for a variety of data entries to be filled in the schedule. Thereafter, locality / village schedule was modified and split into different portions and advance copies of the relevant portions were sent to respective departments and offices, and yet the information was not forthcoming easily and in the manner required. As mentioned earlier, this limitation was overcome through in-depth case studies and focus group interviews which to a large extent compensated for the information which was otherwise not forthcoming through proper channels.

The data entry and tabulation of data was also organized in two parts with the help of SPSS. At first the Tables for household survey were prepared, followed by Tables showing locality profiles. Both were analyzed in unison to arrive at our findings.

3. INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT

Before analyzing the survey data along income levels, a word of caution is called for. Information about household income, expenditure, financial transactions, assets etc is usually difficult to extract from the respondents owing to a variety of factors. This could also be experienced by our research team while collecting household data. A very high proportion of respondents (27.3%) across all Categories refrained from divulging information regarding their earnings.

1. **Poverty level**

The monthly per capita urban poverty line in the state of Delhi declared in the year 2004-05 is Rs. 612.91. An estimated 15 % of Delhi's urban population lives below poverty line. The survey data from the North-East Delhi however suggest a much

higher proportion of population that could be declared as living in impoverished conditions. Table 1 shows nearly 21.3 %of surveyed households returning mean annual income below Rs. 25,000 and 15.8 %having yearly income in the range of Rs. 25000-50,000. Thus a total of 37 %of the population manages its living with an annual earning below Rs. 50, 000. Considering the average size of the household in the district is 6, the per capita monthly income thus calculated is near about close to the poverty line declared by the Planning Commision for the state of Delhi in 2004-05.

Table 3.1 a :   Income in general

Income groups	Proportion of Households (% age)
No Response	27.3
0-25,000	21.3
25, 000-50,000	15.8
50,000-75,000	8.2
75,000-100,000	13.0
100,000 and above	14.3

The proportion of the poor that emerges from the survey goes even higher if we leave side the Category, 'no response'. Thus, 51% of the households from where information on income could be collected have their annual income below Rs. 50,000. Of these, nearly 29% were found to be living in conditions of abject poverty with annual income less than Rs. 25,000.

Apart from such high occurrence of poverty, a fairly high degree of income disparity can also be observed. More than 21 %of the sample, can be considered to be belonging to middle income group with earnings between Rs. 50,000 to 100, 000 per annum. Interestingly, despite the income backwardness of the district, a substantial section of the population, 14.3% seems to be fairly affluent with annual household income above Rs. 100, 000.

Table 3.1 b. Household Income by Category

Income Groups	Category II	Category II	Category III
0-50,000	34.57 %	39.12%	43.74%
50,000-100,00	23.80%	14.75%	18.74%
100,000 & above	18.93%	9.61%	4.52 %
No response	22.70%	36.52 %	33%

This income disparity is further established in our Category disaggregated analyses (Table 3.1 b). It is noticeable that while the frequency of occurrence of poor households (income below Rs. 50,000) is fairly high in all Categories (34.57% in Category I & 39.12% in Category II), it is the highest in Category III (43.74%) that comprises of households drawn from minority concentrated localities. Likewise, households belonging to the most affluent income group (100, 000 & above) are largely concentrated in areas where minority concentration is the weakest. Following this, it can be assumed that minority households residing in the district are comparatively more deprived than those belonging to other persuasions.

3.2 Employment and Occupation

The 2001 Census recorded 32.82 %worker population in Delhi of which 31.17 % were main workers working for more than six months in a year, the rest were marginal workers. The proportion of non-workers was alarmingly high at 67.18 %that had remained so since 1960's. This indicates that despite the opening up of the economy, the task of creating new employment opportunities has remained unfulfilled. The performance of the North-East district was even worse with only 28.3 %of the population able to join the workforce (Table 3.2 a).

Table 3.2 a : Proportion of Workers to Total Population: Work Participation Rate

State/District	Main Workers	Marginal Workers	Total workers
Delhi	31.17	1.85	32.82
North-East Delhi	26.60	1.70	28.3

Source : Census 2001

The Census recorded a higher preponderance of household industrial workers in the district with 5.5 %of the working population belonging to the Category as against Delhi's average of 3.08 per cent. This only recognizes the presence of home based industry in fairly higher number in the district.

In terms of activity wise deployment, the figures from NSSO 60th round indicate the tertiary sector comprising trade, transport, sales, service sector being the biggest employer with 67.59 %worker concentration. This was followed by the secondary sector employing nearly 31 %of the working population. The primary sector primarily comprising of agriculture and mining activities was limited in Delhi with only 1.7 %deployment of the workforce (Table 3.2 b).

Table 3.2 b: Activity-wise Employment (NSS 60th Round)

Sectors	Proportion of Workers
Primary	1.71
Secondary	30.70
Tertiary	67.59

The data drawn from the sampled households reaffirm a similar trend in the North-East district. Majority of the residents of the area (26.05 per cent) were engaged in business or sales followed by a large proportion of service workers (18.17 per cent)

such as carpenters, electricians, masons, smiths etc. The tertiary sector is further strengthened by managerial, administrative and clerical workers. A sizeable proportion of the workforce also populated the secondary sector with 15.22 %engaged in production and manufacturing and 12.26 %providing support as professionals and technicians. Consistent with urbanizing trends, the primary sector comprising farming and cultivation remains insignificant with only 1.4 %worker engagement (Table 3.2 c).

Table 3.2 c : Activity-wise deployment of workers

Main occupation	Proportion of workers
Professional, Technical and related work	12.26
Administrative, executive and managerial workers	2.24
Clerical and related work	2.69
Sales/Business work	26.05
Service worker	18.17
Farmers and related work	1.43
Production and related work	15.22
Activity not defied adequately defined	8.68
Self employed	1.79
Not applicable	11.46

Almost a similar pattern is discernible when the activity based distribution is disaggregated along Categories I, II and III. Table 3.2 d indicates that the tertiary sector is the strongest with preponderance of people engaged in sales or business in all localities whether of minority concentration or majority domination. Although the Sachar Committee findings indicate an astonishingly high occurrence of self-employment among Muslims in India, including Delhi, the figure returned for self employment in this survey remains low across all Categories . This is surprising but can be explained by referring to the presence of overlapping and multiple variables. For example much of business and sales, service workers etc related figures could as well be included under self employment.

Table 3.2 d : Main Occupation Category-wise

Main Occupation	Category I	Category II	Category III
Professional, Technical and related work	14.6	10.30	7.49
Administrative, executive and managerial workers	2.74	2.14	0.88
Clerical and related work	3.65	0.42	2.14
Sales/Business work	25.1	26.61	28.6

Service worker	21.9	14.5	11.01
Farmers and related work	0.6	3.0	2.20
Production and related work	12.18	18.0	21.14
Activity not defied adequately defined	6.39	9.44	14.5
Self employed	1.68	2.58	1.32
Not applicable	11.26	12.87	10.57

3.3 Problems Faced in Self Employment

Despite the fact that a considerable proportion of residents are able to find employment in business and sales, yet the sector has failed to draw adequate institutional attention. Credit at high interest rates is one of the most serious issues plaguing the sector (Table 3.3 a). Most of the respondents saw institutional lending inadequate and inaccessible, and therefore depended on non-institutional credit. Lack of fixed and sufficient working space was another major road block identified by workers and businessmen. Localities such as Seelampur, Welcome Colony, Subhash Park, Mandoli, Jaffrabad, as mentioned elsewhere in this report, are swamped with small one or two room industrial units in which majority of the population finds employment. An intervention that addresses this concern is urgently required.

Table 3.3 a : Problems faced in establishing Business

Problems	Very serious	Serious	No problem	Can't say
Credit at high interest rate	54	34	18	90
In accessibility of credit form govt. banks/institutions	23	47	32	88
Non-institutional credit	15	28	31	99
Electricity	17	35	79	41
Raw material	2	33	60	52
Technology	5	14	60	62
Skilled/trained persons	5	27	53	54
Access to market	4	44	77	35
Lack of working place/space	19	46	60	35
Harassment by govt. officials	10	26	71	35
Harassment by police	9	40	6	26

4.   EDUCATION

In 2001, Delhi's literate population comprised close to 82 per cent—much higher than the national average of 65 per cent. Almost 75 % of girls and women above the age of 7 could read. The gender gap at 12.6 per cent, thus, was better than the national average that stood at 21 per cent. Among the districts of NCT Delhi, however, North-East district remained the worst performer with 77.5 % over all literacy figures. The gender gap too was found to be the highest thus indicating a lower status that women of the area were assigned (Table 4).

Table 4 : Gender Gap in literacy rate across districts of Delhi

Districts	Person	Male	Female	Gender Gap
North-west	80.6	86.7	73.1	13.6
North	80.1	84.6	74.5	10.1
North-East	77.5	84.8	68.9	15.9
East	84.9	89.6	79.3	10.3
New Delhi	83.2	88.6	76.3	12.3
Central	79.7	82.7	76.1	6.6
West	83.4	87.8	78.0	9.8
South-west	83.6	89.9	75.6	14.3
South	82.0	88.3	73.9	14.4
All Delhi	81.7	87.3	74.7	12.6

Source: Census 2001

According to HDR (2006), Delhi has the largest school system in the world with nearly 93000 teachers teaching more than 3 million children enrolled in 2500 schools. The per child expenditure incurred by the state government on education was much above the national average. It was estimated that almost 75 % of all children in the primary school age attend government schools. And half of the children in secondary and higher secondary levels attend private schools. Yet universal schooling was found to be a distant cry. An estimated 103,643 out-of-school children (6.4 per cent) in the 6–10 years age group could be recorded in Delhi. This figure stood at 83,971 for the age group, 11 to 14 years. In keeping with the *District Elementary Education Report Card, 2006-07,* the total number of schools, government and private including, that impart elementary education in North-East Delhi numbered 671 with a total of 322, 638 students on rolls. Enrollment of Muslim children was reported to be abysmally low— 8.4 % at primary level and 16 7 % at upper primary level.

4.1 Schooling Status, Literacy and Educational Level

This Survey further confirms the findings mentioned above. Across all Categories and amongst children in the school going age 1.18 % never enrolled in school. If taken together with those who left after enrollment and those who are enrolled but do not go to school, the percentage of children out of school comes to around a substantial 3.5 %. To this could be added those children who have to go to informal institutions for a number of reasons including the inaccessibility of schools. Thus a considerable proportion of children in the sampled areas are denied of formal schooling (nearly 6.5 %) (Table 4.1 a).

Table 4.1 a : Schooling status: Enrollment

Schooling Status	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Never enrolled	0.69	3.37	0.00	1.18

Left after enrollment	1.72	7.30	2.35	2.96
Enrolled but does not go to school	0.86	2.25	2.35	0.13
Goes to informal institution	2.23	6.74	1.18	3.08
Enrolled in Govt School	60.31	55.06	68.24	60.00
Goes to private school	31.10	22.47	25.88	28.76
Others	3.09	2.81	0.00	2.72

Further, consistent with the earlier findings, there was a clear preference for government schools with almost 60 %of the school going children enrolled in such schools whereas only 31 %attended private schools (Table 4.1 a above). The leaning towards government schools was overwhelmingly high among minorities with nearly 86 %of them in the age group 5-25 years attending or having attended them in the past. Contrary to prevalent belief, the option of Madarsa for schooling and education has not received much favour from the Muslims of North-East Delhi. Only 4.35 %of 5-25 population in Category III areas had attended or was attending a Madarsa. This is consistent with the earlier findings of national level survey conducted by NCAER. This also has implication for policy initiatives that have banked on Madarsas and their modernization to address educational backwardness among Muslims. The requirement for Government schools is therefore strongly felt by the Minority residence (Table 4.1 b).

Table 4.1 b Type of school attended (5-25 years)

Type of School	Category I	Category II	Category III
Govt. School	62.42	71.60	85.87
Private school	29.77	21.60	9.78
Madrasaas	0.00	4.32	4.35
Missionary school	3.08	0.00	0.00
Non-formal	1.85	1.85	0.00
Govt. aided	2.87	0.62	0.00

Literacy rate that emerges from the Survey is nearly 73 %, much lower than the state's average as well as the district's average computed in the Census exercise of 2001. Notably, minority concentrated areas of the district report alarmingly high proportion of the illiterate population. Across all Categories , the educational attainment of population between 5-25 years saw a majority having passed only middle or primary school. While those who had attained high school certificate comprised only one-tenth of the youth population, it was the least (9.83%) in minority concentrated areas. Inclination towards higher education was found to be dismal especially amongst the minorities. (Table 4.1 c). The absence of institutions of higher learning in the area is possibly one reason. The district has only two affiliated colleges that offer under-

graduate   teaching.

Table 4.1 c : Educational Level

Eudcational Level	Category I	Category II	Category III	Category III
Illiterate	25.29	25.93	33.03	26.97
Below Primary	7.81	10.00	11.67	8.99
Primary	11.74	18.81	15.51	13.79
Middle	14.56	15.25	17.97	15.38
High School	13.00	10.85	9.83	11.97
Higher Sec	12.34	5.08	6.14	9.76
Tech Diploma	1.56	3.39	0.46	1.67
Professional Degree	2.02	3.39	0.77	2.01
Graduate	9.67	4.07	3.84	7.47
Post Graduate	2.02	3.22	0.77	1.98

Table 4.1 d represents the male and female literacy in the district along the three analytical categories. Female literacy is highest in the minority concentrated localities of the district. A concerted effort to improve the situation is urgently called for. This would require more number of schools in the locality as also the opening of a few schools catering mainly to the girl students. (Table 4.1 d)

Table 4.1 d: Category wise Gender Gap in Literacy (%)

Category I		
Literates/Illiterates	Male	Female
Illiterate	21.56	29.80
Literate	78.44	70.20
Category II		
Literates/Illiterates	Male	FEMALE
Illiterate	21.84	30.38
Literate	78.16	69.62
Category III		
Literates/Illiterates	Male	Female
Illiterate	28.31	37.28
Literate	71.69	62.72
All Categories		
Literates/Illiterates	Male	Female

ILLITERATE	24.72	30.01
LITERATE	75.28	69.99

Residents of North-East Delhi do not have much complaint about the distance of schools from their neighborhoods. A vast proportion of the respondents found the schools, government or private, within walking distance of a kilometer or two. Yet, there remained a significant proportion, more than a quarter, for whom the school that they or their children were attending was more than three or four kilometers away. Thus while the presence of schools in the vicinity is recognized by the residents, yet given the high density of population in such localities, the requirement of more number of such schools was felt (Table 4.1 e).

Table 4.1 e : Distance of Schools

Distance	Category I	Category II	Category III	All
Within 1 KM	44.73	40.48	48.81	44.2
Within 2 KM	21.93	39.88	33.33	26.7
Within 3 KM	6.56	8.93	4.76	6.8
Above 4 KM	26.77	10.71	13.10	22.14

4.2 Mother Tongue Education

The implication of instruction in mother tongue that serves to retain students in the classroom has been emphasized by Government of India's various declarations of National Educational Policies. In our Survey, we noted that while the principle has been largely accepted when it came to accepting Hindi as the medium of instruction, the same could however not be asserted in the case of Urdu. Across all Categories , Hindi was the medium predominantly used in schools; English came to be the next choice. The proportion of respondents or their wards studying in English medium schools was the highest in areas of majority construction. The presence of a large number of English medium schools in such areas also indicates their relative affluence. Notably, schools with Urdu as a medium of instruction where largely preferred by the minority population in Category III areas (Table 4.2 a).

Further, the proportion of respondents in Category I who are learning one or the other minority language remains extremely low when compared with those who are learning a minority language in minority concentrated areas (Table 4.2 b). The Nehruvian three language formula remains largely unimplemented in the schools of the District.

Table 4.2 a : Medium of Instruction

Medium of Instruction			
	Category I	Category II	Category III
Hindi	57.07	65.90	54.64
English	33.99	17.34	20.62
Hindi English	8.94	12.72	12.37
Urdu	0.00	4.05	12.37

Table 4.2 b : Learning of Minority Language

Minority Language			
	Category I	Category II	Category III
Learning Minority Language	16.01	50.67	56.25
Not learning Minority Language	83.99	49.33	43.75

4.3 Dropouts

Information on why children drop out of the school was gathered. 'Need to Earn' as a reason for dropping out was reported by 31.5%. This reason was given by as many as 42.86% in Category III, while in Category I it was 19.28%. The next highest reason given was 'Work at Home' (15.15%). This was again the highest in Category III (21.43%). 'Teacher not Teaching' was the third highest reason that was given (16.97%). While in Category I the 'Teacher not Teaching' is the most important reason for dropping out – in both Category II and III the 'Need to Earn' followed by 'Work at Home' are reasons for dropping out (Table 4.3 a).

5. INFRASTRUCTURE AND AMENITIES

5.1 Water and Electricity

Compared to other districts of Delhi, North- East Delhi is abysmally poor in terms of infrastructure and amenities. For example, 31.3% of households reported that they do not have tap water facilities in their houses (see Table 5.1a)

Table 5.1 a : Availability of Tap Water

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	66.7%	30.4%	3.0%
Category II	53.4%	25.9%	20.7%
Category III	33.0%	40.2%	26.8%
All Categories	57.8%	31.3%	10.8%

Amongst those who were having the tap water facility, Category I had the maximum share at 66.7 % while minority concentrated households in Category III had the least share at 33%.

Table 5.1 b : Pressure of Water

Categories	Good	Low	Very low	Can't Say
Category I	48.9%	14.8%	2.4%	33.9%
Category II	38.8%	13.8%	.9%	46.6%
Category III	24.1%	8.0%	3.6%	64.3%
All Categories	42.3%	13.3%	2.3%	42.0%

The pressure of water was also commensurate with the type of locality from which households were drawn (See Table 5.1 b). Thus the maximum number of households, reporting very low pressure of water and inadequacy of water , belonged to Minority concentrated Category III . For instance, only 24.1% of households had good supply of water in minority concentrated areas as against 48.9% households in Category I (Table 5.1 c).

Table 5.1 c : Adequacy of Water Supply

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	55.9%	16.9%	27.2%
Category II	48.3%	8.6%	43.1%
Category III	24.1%	27.7%	48.2%
All Categories	48.5%	17.3%	34.2%

With respect to quality of water only 47.3 % of the total sampled households were satisfied with the quality of water while 20% reported non satisfaction (Table 5.1 d) Amongst the latter households, highest percentage of households(43.8%) which was not satisfied with the quality of water was from the minority concentrated localities.

Table 5.1 d : Quality of Water

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	58.3%	16.4%	25.3%
Category II	46.6%	8.6%	44.8%
Category III	11.6%	43.8%	44.6%
All Categories	47.3%	20.0%	32.7%

With respect to the water meter, 21.25 % households had no meter installed of which 35.7 %, such households were comprised of minority concentrated households. They also reported that water bill was not received in time. 29.2% households felt that meter readings was not correct (See Tables 5.1 e, f, g)

Table 5.1 e : Water Meter Installed

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	49.7%	21.8%	28.5%
Category II	48.3%	5.2%	46.6%

Category III	17.0%	35.7%	47.3%
All Categories	43.3%	21.2%	35.5%

Table 5.1 f: Water Bill is received in Time

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	47.8%	18.8%	33.3%
Category II	45.7%	6.0%	48.3%
Category III	17.9%	33.9%	48.2%
All Categories	41.8%	19.2%	39.0%

Table 5.1 g: Water meter gives Correct Reading

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	34.1%	30.4%	35.5%
Category II	30.2%	19.8%	50.0%
Category III	17.9%	34.8%	47.3%
All Categories	30.3%	29.2%	40.5%

Electricity

The electrification was not universal. However, there was not any significant difference in the status of electrification of households non-minority, mixed or minority localities. Within each Category approximately 93 % of the households were

electrified while around 6 % percent were not electrified (see Table 5.1 h).

The electrified households, however, were far from satisfied with the nature of supply. For example, 79% households reported good voltage from non-minority areas, while this percentage was relatively low (61.6%) in the minority areas. 1.8 % of households reported very low voltage, which , in effect, amounted to not having any electricity

(see Table 5.1 i).

Table 5.1 h : Electrification Status of Households

Electrification Status	Houses Electrified	Not Electrified
Category I	93.6%	6.4%
Category II	93.9%	6.1%
Category III	93.8%	6.3%

Table 5.1 i : Households by Voltage Situation

Categories	Good	Low	Very low	Can't Say
Category I	79.0%	14.8%	.5%	5.6%
Category II	63.8%	22.4%	.0%	13.8%
Category III	61.6%	6.3%	1.8%	30.4%
All Categories	72.8%	14.7%	.7%	11.8%

Table 5.1 j :   Availability of Street Light

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	69.1%	23.9%	7.0%
Category II	48.3%	30.2%	21.6%
Category III	32.1%	36.6%	31.3%
All Categories	58.2%	27.5%	14.3%

Street light was not available either in the streets of 27.5 % households. Of the total number of households that reported the lack of street light, 36.6% were from Category III while 30.2% were from Category II. Amongst the households which had access to electricity, the highest % age was from the localities with least minority concentration

(see Table 5.1 k).

5.2 Sanitation and cleanliness

Even though the North – East Delhi is part of the NCT , it does not even have the most basic amenities that are considered to be essential for any town. Sanitation situation was worse than even the most backward districts in the country. Walking through the lanes of the district, it did not seem that we were in the capital of the country. A foul smell greeted the visitors as soon as they arrived in the district, thanks to poor sanitation conditions in the entire district.

Table 5.2 a Availability of Toilet Facility at Home

	Category I	Category II	Category III
Toilet facility available in home	85.25	94.78	94.64
Not available	14.75	5.22	5.36

Lack of toilet facility at home is generally associated with rural homes . The findings of the survey showed that this was also the case in big cities (see Table 5.2 a). Of the total 600 households, only 533 households were having toilet facility at home. The percentage of such households in Category I was the highest at 59.7%. 67 households i.e. 11.6 % reported a lack of toilet facility at home. Of these households, 55 i.e. 82% were from Category I, while remaining were equally distributed in Category II and III respectively.

Table 5.2 b : Sewage Line available in your Street

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	48.4%	43.0%	8.6%

Category II	27.6%	51.7%	20.7%
Category III	8.9%	61.6%	29.5%
All Categories	37.0%	48.2%	14.8%

The situation of sewage was worse than the water and electricity. There were no sewage lines on the streets of almost half (48.2%) the total households sampled. The sewage condition was extremely poor for the households drawn from minority concentrated areas. 61.6% of the households in such areas had no sewage line in their streets (see Table 5.2 b).

Even where sewage line was present, its functioning was reported to be unsatisfactory. 41.2% of the households were not satisfied with the sewage lines in their areas. The incidence of dissatisfaction was high in all Categories which shows the general condition of the sanitation and hygiene in the entire district. One third of the households felt that there was a need to install new sewage lines, while 20.2% demanded repair of the existing lines. Here, too, maximum number of households who evinced the need for new sewage lines belonged to the minority concentrated areas (Table 5.2 c).

Table 5.2 c : Overall functioning of Sewage

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	22.8%	40.9%	36.3%
Category II	11.2%	44.0%	44.8%
Category III	1.8%	40.2%	58.0%
All Categories	16.7%	41.3%	42.0%

The proper drainage system, too, was missing in most of the district. During rainy season, while the survey was going on, the roads and streets were constantly blocked with water and could not be navigated. 41.5% of the households complained of improper drainage (see Table 5.2 d). The incidence of these cases was much higher in the minority concentrated areas especially of Seelampur subdivision.

Table 5.2 d : Availability of Proper Drainage in your Street

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	54.3%	38.4%	7.3%
Category II	35.3%	44.0%	20.7%
Category III	24.1%	49.1%	26.8%
All Categories	45.0%	41.5%	13.5%

In as many as 67% of the streets, the drains were open. Wherever, the drains were available, they were not cleaned and were generally blocked and overflowing. 66.7% of the households reported that the drains were not cleaned in their areas. Hygiene is a serious concern that authorities need to pay attention to in these areas (see Tables 5.2 e and f).

Table 5.2 e : Overall Position of Drainage

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	19.6%	64.2%	16.1%
Category II	12.1%	61.2%	26.7%
Category III	1.8%	56.3%	42.0%
All Categories	14.9%	62.1%	23.0%

Table 5.2 f : Drains need Repair/new Installation

Categories	Yes	No	Can't Say
Category I	28.5%	39.0%	32.5%
Category II	28.4%	40.5%	31.0%
Category III	3.6%	39.3%	57.1%
All Categories	23.8%	39.3%	36.8%

Overall cleanliness and garbage disposal

The overall cleanliness left much to be desired. The respondents were inquired about the frequency at which their streets, back lanes and main roads were cleaned. Only 8.3 % of the households reported daily cleaning of their streets, while 31.2% reported that their streets were never cleaned (Table 5.2 g). The cleanliness frequency of back lanes was equally bad with 36 % of households lamenting that their back lanes were never cleaned. Only 7.5 % of households reported daily cleaning of the back lanes (Table 5.2 h). However, in comparison to streets and back lanes, the main roads were reportedly cleaned relatively more frequently with 12.2 % cases of daily cleaning. But 19.7 % of the times roads, too, were never cleaned (Table 5.2 i). Hence the overall picture of cleanliness in the district was quite grim and 60.7 % of the households were not satisfied with the cleanliness of their areas (Table 5.2 j).

Table 5.2 g : Cleanliness of Street/nearby Street

Categories	Daily	Sometimes	Never	Don't Know	No Response
Category I	10.2%	46.2%	32.0%	4.8%	6.7%
Category II	4.3%	44.0%	26.7%	2.6%	22.4%
Category III	6.3%	31.3%	33.0%	.9%	28.6%
All Categories	8.3%	43.0%	31.2%	3.7%	13.8%

Table 5.2 h: Cleanliness of the Back Lanes

Categories	Daily	Sometimes	Never	Don't Know	No Response
Category I	8.3%	35.8%	36.6%	4.6%	14.8%
Category II	6.0%	28.4%	31.9%	.9%	32.8%
Category III	6.3%	21.4%	38.4%	1.8%	32.1%

Table 5.2 i : Cleanliness of Main Road

Categories	Daily	Sometimes	Never	Don't Know	No Response
Category I	14.5%	51.6%	18.5%	4.6%	10.8%

Category II	10.3%	55.2%	6.0%	1.7%	26.7%
Category III	6.3%	21.4%	37.5%	1.8%	33.0%
All Categories	12.2%	46.7%	19.7%	3.5%	18.0%

Table 5.2 j : Overall Position of Cleanliness

Categories	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Can't Say
Category I	25.5%	61.6%	12.9%
Category II	14.7%	61.2%	24.1%
Category III	6.3%	57.1%	36.6%
All Categories	19.8%	60.7%	19.5%

During the field work, it was observed that more than three fourth of the district was characterized by open drains, heaps of garbage with flies over them lying everywhere and a general stench in the air.

The garbage was not collected or removed systematically either. On being asked about the overall situation of garbage cleaning, 62.9% of the respondents felt that the situation was quite unsatisfactory.

Table 5.2 k : Overall Position of Garbage Cleaning

Categories	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Don't Know
Category I	14.0%	64.8%	21.2%
Category II	9.6%	61.7%	28.7%
Category III	2.7%	58.0%	39.3%
All Categories	11.0%	62.9%	26.0%

However, dissatisfaction was voiced more by respondents living in areas where minority population was relatively less. For example, compared to 58 % of the respondents who were unsatisfied with the garbage cleaning in their areas in Category III, 64.8% respondents were from Category I (Table 5.2 k).

This difference is worth noting because contrarily, the Category I localities were relatively cleaner than the localities in Category III. This can be explained by the general air of acceptance about the situation in the minority areas . At times, it seemed to us that people did not even notice the garbage, so habituated they had become to having it around them. Many a times, the team asked people as to how they managed to live in such unhygienic and dirty conditions, to which they had cynical replies stemming out of sheer apathy of the authorities. It was observed that people living in Seelampur and Seemapuri also were not sufficiently aware of the importance of hygiene because of lack of proper education. In an interview , the Imam of a Masjid in Seelampur, confirmed this by saying that people in the area were not very educated and hence did not fully comprehend the importance of cleanliness and hygiene.

5.3 Public Transport

The data showed that more than half i.e. 57% of the total respondents used buses for commuting. This was true for families in the households belonging to all areas of the

district, irrespective of the level of minority concentration. The percentage of respondents whose families used buses was a little high in Category II at 67 % as compared to the 60.7 % in Category III and 52.8 % in Category I. However, a considerable percentage of non-users of buses were also found in the sample. The highest percentage of the latter was, in Category I, as expected where there were more persons having private transport compared to other areas (see Table 5.3 a)

Table 5.3 a :   Family Members Commuting through Buses

	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Yes	52.8%	67.0%	60.7%	57.0%
No	47.2%	33.0%	39.3%	43.0%

As far as the regularity of bus service was concerned, higher percentage of non-minority households reported a regular bus service compared to households in mixed areas and minority concentrated areas. In fact, 49.1% i.e. almost half the respondents from minority areas reported that bus service was irregular. 45% of respondents from mixed areas also reported irregularity of bus service (see Table 5.3 b). This showed that the bus services in the district could do with a lot of improvement.

Table 5. 3 b : Regularity Status of Bus Service

Regularity of Bus Service	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Regular bus service	60.1%	46.1%	43.8%	54.3%
Irregular bus service	26.8%	45.2%	49.1%	34.5%
Not applicable	13.1%	8.7%	7.1%	11.2%

5.4 Access to open public spaces

Infrastructural facilities such as a sports complex and public parks depict the overall development of a district. The North –East district of Delhi is densely populated and its interior neighbourhoods are characterized by maze of narrow and dingy lanes. There is

very little open space and encroachments on public land are quite common.

That is why, on an average 84% households in the entire sample denied having any access to a sports complex. There was no significant difference in the % age of households in three different Categories with respect to the access to a sports complex. For instance, only 4 % to 6% households in the three Categories admitted to having access to a sports complex (see Table 5.4 a). Unlike the other districts of Delhi, having

sports complexes of international standards, there is none in this district.

Table 5. 4 a :   Access to Sports Complex

Access	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Yes	5.6%	6.1%	4.5%	5.5%
No	82.0%	86.1%	88.4%	84.0%
No response	12.3%	7.8%	7.1%	10.5%

Table 5. 4 b : Access to Play Ground

Access	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Yes	11.0%	7.0%	6.3%	9.3%
No	76.9%	85.2%	86.6%	80.3%
No response	12.1%	7.8%	7.1%	10.3%

The situation was no better with respect to play grounds. 86.6 % of respondents from households in minority concentrated localities reported that they did not have access to any play ground in their area. This percentage was equally high in Category I and Category II at 76.9 % and 85.2% respectively. This clearly showed that play grounds were lacking in all localities of the district irrespective of the communities living there (see Table 5.4 b).

Table 5. 4 c : Access to Public Park

Access	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Yes	22.0%	17.4%	13.4%	19.5%
No	66.0%	74.8%	79.5%	70.2%
No response	12.1%	7.8%	7.1%	10.3%

Public parks are also a scarcity in the district. 79.5 % of households in Category III reported on not having access to any public park. The percentage of households not having access to any public parks in Category I and II was also very high at 66% and 74.8 % respectively (see Table 5.4 c).

Table 5. 4 d : Distance of Park and Playground

Distance	Category I	Category II	Category III	Total
Within 1 KM	17.4%	8.7%	9.8%	14.3%
Within 2 KM	24.4%	24.3%	19.6%	23.5%
Not applicable	58.2%	67.0%	70.5%	62.2%

The few respondents who reported having access to some kind of park and playground were further queried about the distance at which these facilities were available to them. 19.6 % of respondents in minority concentrated areas reported that the facility was available at a distance of 2 kms, while 9.8% reported having access to these facilities within a distance of I km. These % were slightly higher in non-muslim areas, meaning thereby, that the availability of facilities at a nearby distance was higher in non-minority areas compared to minority concentrated areas. In the mixed locality, the response was almost similar as 24.3 % reported having access at a distance of 2kms,

while only 8.7 % reported access within 1 km (see Table 5.4 d).

These figures in the above Tables reveal the pathetic state of the overall infrastructure of the district where even the so called posh localities are not having basic access to open spaces for walking and playing, let alone the low income residents' colonies,

rehabilitated colonies and urban villages.

5.5 Health

The data from household survey showed that there were a total of 303 children below 5 years of age distributed across the total household sample, with maximum number of children i.e. 60.07 % in Category I.

Table 5.5 a : Total children below 5 years

Categories	No. of Cases	Percentage of Cases
Category I	182	60.07
Category II	56	18.48
Category III	65	21.45
Total	303	100

Only 209 households reported immunization of their children, out of which 69.85 belonged to Category I. In Category II, the percentage was 14% while Category III comprised 16% cases of immunization (see Figure 5.5 b).

Figure 5. 5 : Status of Immunization Category-wise

It was found that more than three fourths of the children in Category I, and half of the children in Category II and IIII respectively were immunized against polio. This is a very revealing figure because Polio vaccination is claimed to be cent percent in Delhi. The immunization reported for DPT, BCG and Measles were even less than polio. Immunization against measles amongst all the Categories was reported to be lowest since only 44.2 % of the total children were immunized for measles. DPT and BCG were slightly better than Measles at approximately 57 to 58 percent. The noTable fact was that status of immunization in households from minority concentrated areas and also to some extent from mixed areas was relatively poor in comparison to those from non-minority areas (see Table 5.5 b).

Table 5. 5 b : Status of Immunization for different diseases

Categories	Polio	%age	DPT	%age	BCG	%age	Measles	%age
Category I	142	78.02	129	70.88	129	70.88	95	52.20
Category II	28	50.00	16	28.57	19	33.93	15	26.79
Category III	34	52.31	30	46.15	29	44.62	24	36.92
Total	204	67.33	175	57.76	177	58.42	134	44.22

Table 5. 5 c : Agency of Immunization

Categories	Govt. Agencies	Percentage	Private Agencies	Percentage
Category I	95	52.20	33	18.13
Category II	20	10.99	5	2.75
Category III	23	12.64	6	3.30
All Categories	138	75.82	44	24.18

The respondents were asked about the agency from where they got their children vaccinated. It must be noted that responses of only 138 households having children less than 5 years of age were recorded (see Table 5.5 c). The maximum number of households in all Categories reported that they used the government agency for immunization of their children. For example, even in Category I, where the affordability for private health care could possibly be more than other Categories , the percentage of households who used private agency was only 18.13%. As for the Category II and III, only 2.75% and 3.30% of households, respectively in each accessed private medical agency for immunization.

6. DEVELOPMENT SCHEMES : AWARENESS AND BENEFITS
6.1 Public Distribution System

BPL card is given to the most marginalized and poor people so that they could benefit from government schemes. The findings of the household survey showed that only 23% of the total respondents had BPL status (See Table as well as Graph 6.1 a). Within Category III, 88.4 % of households had non- BPL status compared to 79.4 and 58.3 % having non- BPL status in Category I and II respectively. This ought not suggest that respondents of minority concentrated areas were economically better off than non-minority areas. On the contrary, these respondents did not possess BPL cards because of various difficulties that they encountered in acquiring these cards from the concerned department.

Table 6.1 a : BPL Status of Households

Categories	BPL Households	Non-BPL Households
Category I	20.6%	79.4%
Category II	41.7%	58.3%
Category III	11.6%	88.4%
All Categories	23.0%	77.0%

Graph 6.1a : APL/ BPL Status

The respondents were not able to access the facility properly because of several underlying difficulties. For example, 24.7 % respondents complained of insufficient quantity of food grains, 21.6% reported products available were of bad quality, 20.7 % were unhappy with the dishonesty in measurement, 18.5 % told us that stock was not available on time and yet another 14.6 % of respondents reported irregularity in supply.

Graph 6.1 b: Difficulties regarding PDS System

6.2 Development Schemes for Family Welfare

Government of Delhi runs several development schemes and progarammes for the poor and needy. For instance, there are many schemes for the welfare of women, and children and people of old age which are run by different departments yet the benefit of these programmes is not taken by all. This was especially so in the North- East Delhi because the level of awareness about the schemes was also relatively weak due to a lower literacy rate, improper implementation of the schemes and many other factors. Respondents were asked if they were aware about various development schemes and aid programmes run by the government in their district. They were further queried if they benefited from any schemes. Tables given ahead show the awareness or lack of awareness and the benefits that respondents reported with regards to various schemes.

Anganwadi Scheme/ ICDS

ICDS is a flagship programme of the government. The data collected from the survey showed that it could benefit only 12.5 % of the women and children in the North- East district of Delhi, an abysmally low figure. 24.5 % of the households reported inaccessibility of the location in which the Centre was located as a reason for not availing of this facility , 6.3% reported discrimination as a reason for not being able to benefit from it (see Table 6.2 a)

Table 6.2 a   Beneficiaries from Anganwadi/ICDS

Categories	Benefited	Not Benefited
Category I	13.9%	86.1%
Category II	2.6%	97.4%
Category III	17.9%	82.1%
All Categories	12.5%	87.5%

Table 6.2 b Reasons for not Benefiting from Anganwadi/ICDS

Categories	Not eligible member in the family	Location of the centre is inaccessible	Discrimination
Category I	62.2%	32.4%	5.4%

Category II	72.2%	17.4%	10.4%
Category III	89.3%	5.4%	5.4%
All Categories	69.2%	24.5%	6.3%

Table 6.2 c : Pulse Polio Abhiyan

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	93.6%	89.8%	91.7%	92.6%
Not aware	6.4%	10.2%	8.3%	7.4%
Benefited	63.5%	46.1%	59.0%	59.7%
Not benefited	36.5%	53.9%	41.0%	40.3%

A look at these tables would show that there is a very high level of awareness about the 'Pulse Polio Abhiyan' in all Categories (Table 6.2 c). Only 6‑10 % households were not aware of it. Despite knowing about this programme, the percentage of households who had benefited from it was not very high. For example, only 59% of minority

Category respondents reported to have benefited from the scheme.

Table 6.2 d : Mid-day Meal Scheme

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	68.9%	68.4%	48.8%	65.7%
Not aware	31.1%	31.6%	51.2%	34.3%
Benefited	20.2%	21.7%	3.6%	17.5%
Not benefited	79.8%	78.3%	96.4%	82.5%

Table 6.2 e : Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	64.6%	59.4%	53.6%	61.9%
Not aware	35.4%	40.6%	46.4%	38.1%
Benefited	21.7%	22.4%	17.1%	21.0%
Not benefited	78.3%	77.6%	82.9%	79.0%

The next two schemes in terms of awareness were 'Mid Day Meal scheme' (MMDS) and the 'Sarva Siksha Abhiyaan'(SSA). More than 60 % of households showed awareness about both these schemes. However, lack of awareness, too, was very high especially in Minority Categories . For instance, more than half the households amongst minorities were not aware about MMDS (Table 6.2 d). No wonder, only 3.6 % reported to have benefited from it. Even in Category I, there was a huge gap between awareness and the benefits e.g. against a 68.9 % of aware households, only 20.2% benefited from MMDS. The figures for Category II households were no different. Similarly, for SSA, only 17.1% minority households reported to have

benefited from the scheme while 53.6 claimed awareness about the scheme(Table 6.2 e).

Table 6.2 f : National Old Age Pension Scheme

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	59.1%	43.4%	41.7%	53.5%
Not aware	40.9%	56.6%	58.3%	46.5%
Benefited	10.0%	2.3%	6.1%	7.8%
Not benefited	90.0%	97.7%	93.9%	92.2%

Table 6.2 g : Laadli

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	57.9%	28.7%	51.2%	51.8%
Not aware	42.1%	71.3%	48.8%	48.2%
Benefited	7.1%	2.5%	13.6%	7.4%
Not benefited	92.9%	97.5%	86.4%	92.6%

With respect to 'National Old Age Pension Scheme' and 'Laadli', more than half of the households surveyed were aware. Yet the benefits were not availed by many. In Category II, as can be seen from the Table, only 2.3 % benefited from NOPS (Table 6.2 f). The beneficiaries from Category III and I were also very low at 6.1% and 10 % respectively.Similarly only 2.5 % benefited from 'Laadli' in mixed Category, and 13.6 from the minority Category (Table 6.2 g).

Table 6.2 h : National Rural Health Mission

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	26.2%	9.3%	35.7%	24.7%
Not aware	73.8%	90.7%	64.3%	75.3%
Benefited	2.7%	1.4%	3.7%	2.7%
Not benefited	97.3%	98.6%	96.3%	97.3%

Table 6.2 I :   National Rural Employment Guarantee Act

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	26.6%	5.3%	28.6%	23.2%

Not aware	73.4%	94.7%	71.4%	76.8%
Benefited	1.0%	1.4%	0 %	.9%
Not benefited	99.0%	98.6%	100.0%	99.1%

The two schemes for rural population do not show much awareness since most of the respondents belonged to the urban areas. Accordingly the beneficiaries are also very less in all the Categories i.e. 1- 2 percent in all (see Table 6.2 h and i).

Table 6.2 j :   National Maternity Benefit Scheme

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	24.7%	8.2%	33.3%	23.1%
Not aware	75.3%	91.8%	66.7%	76.9%
Benefited	3.1%	0 %	0 %	2.0%
Not benefited	96.9%	100.0%	100.0%	98.0%

Table 6.2 k : National Family Benefit Scheme

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	23.4%	5.2%	27.4%	20.7%
Not aware	76.6%	94.8%	72.6%	79.3%
Benefited	4.9%	0%	0%	3.2%
Not benefited	95.1%	100.0%	100.0%	96.8%

Table 6.2 l :   National Social Assistance Programme

Awareness	Category I	Category II	Category III	All Categories
Aware	19.9%	4.2%	32.1%	19.0%
Not aware	80.1%	95.8%	67.9%	81.0%
Benefited	1.8%	1.5%	0 %	1.4%
Not benefited	98.2%	98.5%	100.0%	98.6%

As can be observed from the above three Tables, the awareness about 'National Maternity Benefit Scheme', 'National Family Benefit Scheme' and 'National Social Assistance Programme' is not even spread to one third of the total households. In any case, the minority households are relatively more aware about all these three schemes than their counterparts in non-minority and mixed localities. Yet surprisingly, there is not even a single beneficiary amongst minority households for all these three schemes.

The other two Categories do show some beneficiaries though their percentage is marginal. In all, only 4.9 % of the households benefited from NMBS, 3.1% from NFBS, and 1.8 % from NSAP in Category I. For Category II, there were only 1.5 % beneficiaries for NSAP. The rest of the households showed no benefits at all (see Tables 6.2 j, k, and l).

7. CAPTURING PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS

7.1 Public perception about different public facilities

The respondents were asked to share their perceptions about various public facilities, services and opportunities in an ascending order with five options that ranged from very poor, poor, average, good and very good. There was also an option of not responding i.e. 'can't say' which was exercised by very few respondents. The perceptions were also segregated on the basis of the three Categories in which the respondents figured. These were listed Category wise in the Table no 7.1a as given below:

Table 7.1 a : Perceptions about Public Facility

Quality of Environment							
Categories	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good	Can't say	Total
Category I	57	64	153	40	2	15	331
	17.2%	19.3%	46.2%	12.1%	.6%	4.5%	
Category II	7	22	62	16	1	3	111
	6.3%	19.8%	55.9%	14.4%	.9%	2.7%	
Category III	18	26	46	11	0	1	102
	17.6%	25.5%	45.1%	10.8%	.0%	1.0%	
All	82	112	261	67	3	19	544
	15.1%	20.6%	48.0%	12.3%	.6%	3.5%	
Access to Public Transport							
Category I	44	70	143	53	3	15	328
	13.4%	21.3%	43.6%	16.2%	.9%	4.6%	
Category II	11	34	49	12	2	2	110
	10.0%	30.9%	44.5%	10.9%	1.8%	1.8%	
Category III	19	30	40	12	1	0	102
	18.6%	29.4%	39.2%	11.8%	1.0%	.0%	
All	74	134	232	77	6	17	540
	13.7%	24.8%	43.0%	14.3%	1.1%	3.1%	

Health Facilities							
Category I	81	101	116	31	0	0	329
	24.6%	30.7%	35.3%	9.4%	.0%	.0%	
Category II	24	35	42	9	1	0	111
	21.6%	31.5%	37.8%	8.1%	.9%	.0%	
Category III	39	22	37	5	0	1	104
	37.5%	21.2%	35.6%	4.8%	.0%	1.0%	
All	144	158	195	45	1	1	544
	26.5%	29.0%	35.8%	8.3%	.2%	.2%	
Schooling							
Category I	48	97	126	41	3	4	319
	15.0%	30.4%	39.5%	12.9%	.9%	1.3%	
Category II	14	34	52	8	1	2	111
	12.6%	30.6%	46.8%	7.2%	.9%	1.8%	
Category III	18	35	36	11	0	1	101
	17.8%	34.7%	35.6%	10.9%	.0%	1.0%	
All	80	166	214	60	4	7	531
	15.1%	31.3%	40.3%	11.3%	.8%	1.3%	
Availability of Drinking Water							
Category I	76	64	83	81	25	2	331
	23.0%	19.3%	25.1%	24.5%	7.6%	.6%	
Category II	29	19	40	21	2	0	111
	26.1%	17.1%	36.0%	18.9%	1.8%	.0%	
Category III	40	16	22	21	4	0	103
	38.8%	15.5%	21.4%	20.4%	3.9%	.0%	
All	145	99	145	123	31	2	545
	26.6%	18.2%	26.6%	22.6%	5.7%	.4%	
Sanitation and Garbage Disposal							
Category I	125	112	74	11	1	5	328
	38.1%	34.1%	22.6%	3.4%	.3%	1.5%	
Category II	40	34	32	4	0	1	111
	36.0%	30.6%	28.8%	3.6%	.0%	.9%	
Category III	50	31	17	3	0	0	101
	49.5%	30.7%	16.8%	3.0%	.0%	.0%	
All	215	177	123	18	1	6	540
	39.8%	32.8%	22.8%	3.3%	.2%	1.1%	

Drainage Facility

Category I	116	112	74	19	2	8	331
	35.0%	33.8%	22.4%	5.7%	.6%	2.4%	
Category II	35	32	37	5	0	1	110
	31.8%	29.1%	33.6%	4.5%	.0%	.9%	
Category III	46	30	22	3	0	1	102
	45.1%	29.4%	21.6%	2.9%	.0%	1.0%	
All	197	174	133	27	2	10	543
	36.3%	32.0%	24.5%	5.0%	.4%	1.8%	

Water Supply

Category I	5	40	119	128	35	0	327
	1.5%	12.2%	36.4%	39.1%	10.7%		
Category II	2	12	51	39	6	0	110
	1.8%	10.9%	46.4%	35.5%	5.5%		
Category III	3	15	42	39	4	0	103
	2.9%	14.6%	40.8%	37.9%	3.9%		
All	10	67	212	206	45	0	540
	1.9%	12.4%	39.3%	38.1%	8.3%		

Housing

Category I	27	60	183	46	4	1	321
	8.4%	18.7%	57.0%	14.3%	1.2%	.3%	
Category II	5	23	67	9	3	1	108
	4.6%	21.3%	62.0%	14.3%	2.8%	.9%	
Category III	3	27	61	10	0	0	101
	3.0%	26.7%	60.4%	9.9%			
All	35	110	311	65	7	2	530
	6.6%	20.8%	58.7%	12.3%	1.3%	.4%	

Public Safety

Category I	27	82	168	30	1	11	319
	8.5%	25.7%	52.7%	9.4%	.3%	3.4%	
Category II	17	23	56	11	1	2	110
	15.5%	20.9%	50.9%	10.0%	.9%	1.8%	
Category III	14	32	47	10	0	0	103
	13.6%	31.1%	45.6%	9.7%			
All	58	137	271	51	2	13	532

	10.9%	25.8%	50.9%	9.6%	.4%	2.4%	

Roads

Category I	71	58	157	39	1	1	327
	21.7%	17.7%	48.0%	11.9%	.3%	.3%	
Category II	20	25	57	6	1	0	109
	18.3%	22.9%	52.3%	5.5%	.9%		
Category III	38	16	34	12	0	1	101
	37.6%	15.8%	33.7%	11.9%			
All	129	99	248	57	2	2	537
	24.0%	18.4%	46.2%	10.6%	.4%	.4%	

Governance

Category I	26	75	160	28	1	34	324
	8.0%	23.1%	49.4%	8.6%	.3%	10.5%	
Category II	7	30	61	6	0	4	108
	6.5%	27.8%	56.5%	5.6%		3.7%	
Category III	8	32	48	11	0	3	102
	7.8%	31.4%	47.1%	10.8%		2.9%	
All	41	137	269	45	1	41	534
	7.7%	25.7%	50.4%	8.4%	.2%	7.7%	

Women Safety

Category I	48	76	157	35	3	8	327
	14.7%	23.2%	48.0%	10.7%	.9%	2.4%	
Category II	13	29	50	15	0	1	108
	12.0%	26.9%	46.3%	13.9%		.9%	
Category III	18	26	47	11	0	1	103
	17.5%	25.2%	45.6%	10.7%		1.0%	
All	79	131	254	61	3	10	538
	14.7%	24.3%	47.2%	11.3%	.6%	1.9%	

Employment Opportunities

Category I	117	106	88	8	1	11	331
	35.3%	32.0%	26.6%	2.4%	.3%	3.3%	
Category II	34	37	34	3	0	0	108
	31.5%	34.3%	31.5%	2.8%			
Category III	34	43	22	2	0	1	102
	33.3%	42.2%	21.6%	2.0%			
All	185	186	144	13	1	12	541

	34.2%	34.4%	26.6%	2.4%	.2%	2.2%	
Business Opportunities						
Category I	111	112	86	6	1	11	327
	33.9%	34.3%	26.3%	1.8%	.3%	3.4%	
Category II	32	34	35	3	0	2	106
	30.2%	32.1%	33.0%	2.8%		1.9%	
Category III	31	45	23	2	0	1	102
	30.4%	44.1%	22.5%	2.0%		1.0%	
All	174	191	144	11	1	14	535
	32.5%	35.7%	26.9%	2.1%	.2%	2.6%	

With respect to **quality of environment**, approximately 17 % respondents found it to be very poor in minority and non-minority localities alike. Not even 1 % respondents in any Category found it to be very good. The response towards poor was higher than towards good.

Access to public transport also was generally perceived to be poor and very poor. Yet, a small percentage also perceived it to be good. The mixed Category respondents were having more negative perception about transport than the Category I and Category II respondents. But 4.6 % in Category I perceived the public transport to be very bad.

Health facilities evinced very negative response. An alarmingly high 37.5% of respondents from minority areas found the health facilities to be very poor and 21.2% said that it was poor. Similar perception was also shared by 24.6% of respondents from non-minority Category and 21.6 % from mixed Category.

Schooling was found to be poor by one third of the respondents in all Categories , though another one third expressed it to be average. There was a miniscule 0.9 % section from both Category I and II which found the schooling to be very good. No such response was forthcoming from the minority Category, though.

Drinking water supply was said to be very poor in 38.8 % of the cases amongst the minorities and 26% amongst the mixed, and 23% in non-minorities. A total of 18% respondents in general found the drinking water to be of poor quality. Yet surprisingly, compared to other facilities, a relatively high percentage of positive response also was expressed with respect to drinking water. For example, unlike other services and facilities, where mostly the 'very good' option was missing, here, 7.6 % of the respondents perceived it to be very good in Category I. In Category III, the very good response came from 3.9 %. The good response was also considerable for drinking water facility with one- fifth of the respondents finding it to be good.

Water supply was also similarly perceived to be average by more than one third of the respondents. The very bad response for water supply was lowest amongst all other

facilities. The overall 'very good' and 'good' perception was highest for water supply at 10.7 % for the Category I and 3.9 % for Category II , meaning that water situation was not perceived to be very poor in this district .

Sanitation and garbage was perceived to be 'very poor' by 49.5 % of the minority households. Non-minority households who found it to be very poor, too, were 38.1%. Similarly 36% of the mixed Category households also perceived the sanitation and garbage situation to be very poor. Another $1/3^{rd}$ of the respondents found it to be poor. Not even a single respondent from minority households considered the sanitation to be good, let alone very good. The respondents who found it to be average were also relatively small at $1/5^{th}$ of the total sample.

Drainage facility was as bad as the sanitation and garbage situation. A very high percentage of response was negative e.g. 36.3 % found it to be very poor and another 32 % said that it was poor. In minority households, this perception was even more severe as 45.1% respondents from minority households perceived the drainage to be very poor.

Housing is considered to be average by the 58.7 % of the respondents. But $1/4^{th}$ of the minority respondents perceived it to be poor and 3% of the same Category also considered it to be very poor. The very poor response also came from 8.4 % of the non-minority population. No one in minority concentrated areas , notably perceived the housing to be good or very good. Yet, in other two Categories , 14.3 % each of respondents found the housing to be good.

Public safety was found to be average by more than half of the respondents. This was also a general perception across Categories . But a significant one third number also found it to be poor or very poor. Yet the feeling of lack of public safety was perceived to be higher in the minorities than amongst non-minorities, which is a very telling difference because ideally the feeling of not being safe ought to be voiced by minority and not vice-versa.

Roads were found to be very poor by a very high 37.6 % of the minority Category respondents. There was almost zero percent 'good' or 'very good' response about roads. In Category I also one fifth of the respondents reiterated that roads were very poor in the district.

Governance also elicited very negative sentiments. Only one single respondent from Category I, out of the entire sample said that governance was very good. Half of the respondents considered it to be average. But a good one third found it to be very poor and 7.8 % thought it to be very poor in minority households. Significantly, one fifth of the non-minority respondents also said that governance was poor.

Women safety was perceived to be 'very poor' by 14.7 % and 'poor' by 24.3 % of the total sample. Some respondents also found it to be good e.g. 10.7 % each in Category I and III considered women safety to be good. 2.4 % of respondents in Category I also found the women safety to be very good but general response was that it was average.

Employment Oppurtunities were perceived to be very poor by more than one third of the respondents. In fact, almost the same percentage, i.e. around one third deplored the employment opportunities and considered these to be very poor. On top of that , another one third percentage had a poor opinion about these opportunities. In fact, unlike other services and amenities where average level of perception was recorded by one third of the respondents, here the perception that opportunities were 'average' fell from one third to one fourth.

Buisness opportunities were considered to be equally poor by almost one third of the respondents. A very high 44% of the minority respondents also found them to be poor. Only 1 to 2 percent of respondents in general perceived the employment opportunities to be good. 'Very good' perception about employment opportunities was entirely missing.

7.2 Public Perceptions about Delivery of Services

Table 7.2 a : Overall Public Perceptions

Public perceptions about services	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good	Can't say
Quality of environment	82	112	261	67	3	19
	15.07%	20.59%	47.98%	12.32%	0.55%	3.49%
Access to public transport	74	134	232	77	6	17
	13.70%	24.81%	42.96%	14.26%	1.11%	3.15%
Health facilities	144	158	195	45	1	1
	26.47%	29.04%	35.85%	8.27%	0.18%	0.18%
Schooling	80	166	214	60	4	7
	15.07%	31.26%	40.30%	11.30%	0.75%	1.32%
Availability of drinking water	145	99	145	123	31	2
	26.61%	18.17%	26.61%	22.57%	5.69%	0.37%
Sanitation and garbage disposal	215	177	123	18	1	6
	39.81%	32.78%	22.78%	3.33%	0.19%	1.11%

Drainage	197	174	133	27	2	10
	36.28%	32.04%	24.49%	4.97%	0.37%	1.84%
Power supply	10	67	212	206	45	0
	1.85%	12.41%	39.26%	38.15%	8.33%	0.00%
Housing	35	110	311	65	7	2
	6.60%	20.75%	58.68%	12.26%	1.32%	0.38%
Public safety	58	137	271	51	2	13
	10.90%	25.75%	50.94%	9.59%	0.38%	2.44%
Roads	129	99	248	57	2	2
	24.02%	18.44%	46.18%	10.61%	0.37%	0.37%
Governance	41	137	269	45	1	41
	7.68%	25.66%	50.37%	8.43%	0.19%	7.68%
Women's safety	79	131	254	61	3	10
	14.68%	24.35%	47.21%	11.34%	0.56%	1.86%
Employment opportunities	185	186	144	13	1	12
	34.20%	34.38%	26.62%	2.40%	0.18%	2.22%
Business opportunities	174	191	144	11	1	14
	32.52%	35.70%	26.92%	2.06%	0.19%	2.62%

The data (see Table 7.2 a) gives the overall public perceptions about various services in a ranked order. A look at the detailed perceptions about different facilities and services showed that the 1/3rd to 1/4th of the respondents reported an average level of satisfaction from different services and facilities. The respondents who perceived the services to be very good' were negligible, irrespective of their localities. Sanitation and garbage was the poorest and rightly perceived so. Drainage, too, was very poor. A large percentage of 'very poor' and 'poor' responses were also elicited for business and employment opportunities. Drinking Water availability was thought to be comparatively better which may be due to the proximity of the district to river Yamuna. Power supply was considered average and generally it was not perceived to be very bad and rather 8.33 % thought it to be very good. Health facilities were considered poor by more than half of the respondents. So was governance. Roads and public safety, and women's safety were also thought to be poor. Access to transport also was perceived as poor by almost 1/4th of the respondents. The quality of environment also did not generate happy sentiments as almost 1/3rd of the respondents

found it to be poor and some of them thought it to be very poor. In general, the overall image of the district , amongst all the Categories was poor.

8. MIGRATION

Delhi is largely a city of migrants. While the city's demography was exceptionally altered at the time of Partition with a massive influx of 'refugees' from West Punjab, Delhi has continued to experience the arrival of people in search of a better life and opportunities. A bulk of its casual labour force is populated by migrant workers.

8.1 Migration Pattern

In North-East Delhi, where the survey was carried out, a total of 238 households out of 600 households—nearly 40 per cent—reported that they had migrated to the capital city from other towns or villages. Migrant households comprised 41.8 percent of Category I; 34.7 %of Category II and 36.6 %of Category III. (See Tables 8.1 a and 8.1 b).

Table 8.1 a : Migration of People

Migrants / Non-migrants	Proportion
Migrated	39.7
Not migrated	59.0
No response	1.3

Table 8.1 b : Category-wise Migration

Categories	Migrated	Not Migrated	No Response
Category I	41.82	56.57	1.61
Category II	35.65	63.48	0.87
Category III	36.61	62.50	0.89

8.2 Reasons for Migration

The survey questionnaire asked respondents to identify a range of factors that were responsible for their migration to Delhi. Most respondents overwhelmingly picked infrequent employment in their native villages/ towns as the single most important reason for their migration. Other factors such as displacement, lack of amenities in the native area and children's education were also cited but were not granted the same primacy as lack of employment. (See Table 8.2 a) Indeed, many of these factors—like their inability to send their children to school—would follow from employment insecurity.

Table 8.2 a : Reasons for Migration

Reasons for Migration	Percent
Employment	85.6
Displacement	3.8
Violence	1.7
Lack of amenities in the native area	4.7
Education of the children	4.2

This also suggests that most of these migrant households were either landless or had very small landholdings—which could not sustain the family—thus forcing them to seek work. However non-availability of work through the year pushed families to travel to Delhi. It also follows then that in Delhi, a majority of the members of such households would be engaged in informal work: for instance, construction work or employment in garment factories which thrive in North-East Delhi etc. As migrants and casual workforce in the unorganized sector, they are vulnerable to exploitation and unfair practices.

9.   ISSUES   OF   SECURITY   AND   CONFLICT

9.1 Communal Conflict in the District

Seelampur, one of the biggest and most densely populated localities of the district, has been communally sensitive in the past. While Seelampur is predominantly Muslim, Welcome colony, the adjoining locality, is a mixed one where a substantial section of the population comprises of low caste Valmiki Hindus. In the wake of the demolition of Babri Masjid in 1992, violent clashes broke out between the two communities in which several lives were lost. Barring this incident, there has been relative calm between the two communities. Inter-communal relations, insecurity and discontent with the law enforcing agencies were few concerns that the survey attempted to tap and make sense of.

On the question whether there were reported cases of families having experienced and suffered violence first hand, the survey could come across very few such cases. Only 1.6 %households in Category I , 1.7 %in Category II and 2.7 %in Category 3 could be identified. Drawing any conclusion from such limited and sketchy information would be preposterous; still it is noteworthy that the occurrence of such families was substantially higher in data drawn from minority concentrated localities (Table 9.1 a).

Table 9.1 a : Families suffered from Communal Clash

Categories	Responses		
	Yes	No	No Response
Category I	1.6%	73.4%	25.0%
Category II	1.7%	38.8%	59.5%
Category III	2.7%	67.9%	29.5%

All Categories	1.8%	65.7%	32.5%

Amongst these only one family in Categories II and III each had to suffer loss of life during communal clashes, and near about 2 %of the respondents in Categories I and III each had their properties destroyed (Tables 9.1 b & 9.1 c).

Table 9.1 b : Family member Lost Life in Communal Clash

Categories	No. of Lives Lost
Category I	0
Category II	1
Category III	1
Total	2

Table 9.1 c : Property Lost in Communal Violence

Categories	Responses		
	Yes	**No**	**No Response**
Category I	1.9%	67.5%	30.6%
Category II	0%	56.0%	44.0%
Category III	1.8%	58.9%	39.3%
All Categories	1.5%	63.7%	34.8%

9.2 Perceptions of Insecurity

While communal clashes were a rarity in the area with the last one occurring a decade and a half back, yet this had not reassured feeling of security among the inhabitants across all Categories . It is noteworthy, however, that this feeling of insecurity seems to be alarmingly high in localities with overwhelming Muslim population (Table 9.2 a).

Table 9.2 a : Perceptions of Insecurity

Categories	Responses		
	Yes	**No**	**No Response**
Category I	16.4%	59.7%	23.9%

Category II	21.6%	50.0%	28.4%
Category III	26.8%	37.5%	35.7%
All Categories	19.3%	53.7%	27.0%

Apart from failure in ensuring adequate deployment of security men, round the clock patrolling and swift action whenever required, the data also suggest an increasing lack of confidence in the law enforcing agencies. This is particularly the case with the minority settlements. Our effort to capture the perceptions among communities regarding the impartiality of the state and its agencies in situations of communal strife was revealing. While a very high proportion of residents of Categories I and II localities found the state agencies cooperative, those in Category III clearly disagreed with such a contention. They were also unequivocal in terming the role of such agencies as biased against their community. (See Table 2 b) They were equally categorical in terming the role of the district police as uncooperative and prejudiced against their community. The opinion of Category I and II residents however differed. They found the police cooperative and also impartial in all situations of inter-community conflict.

Table 9.2 b : Role of State during Communal Violence

Categories	Responses					
	Cooperative	Not Cooperative	Indifferent	Biased against the community	Others	No Response
Category I	29.3%	17.5%	13.2%	6.2%	8.3%	25.5%
Category II	34.5%	12.1%	9.5%	6.0%	7.8%	30.2%
Category III	5.4%	31.3%	14.3%	10.7%	1.8%	36.6%
All Categories	25.8%	19.0%	12.7%	7.0%	7.0%	28.5%

Table 9.2 c: Role of Police during Communal Violence

Categories	Responses					
	Cooperative	Not cooperative	Indifferent	Biased against the community	Others	No Response
Category I	26.3%	18.0%	13.2%	7.8%	10.8%	23.9%
Category II	25.9%	16.4%	9.5%	9.5%	6.9%	31.9%
Category III	1.8%	28.6%	16.1%	10.7%	3.6%	39.3%
All Categories	21.7%	19.7%	13.0%	8.7%	8.7%	28.3%

10.   FOCUS   GROUP   DISCUSSIONS

Focus group discussions were held in a number of localities across the districts – some of which were Jafrabad, Mustafabad, K-Block, Seelampur, Ravidas Nagar, Mandoli village, etc. The Focus Group discussions were largely held to get greater depth and local insights into the status of education in the area, quality of education, access to schools or the lack of it, the aspirations of the parents and school teachers/ management and finally what can be done to make education reach every child. The salient points and concerns that came out from the focus group discussions in which many teachers, principals and parents participated were as follows:

- Drop-out rates among girls is high.
- Most parents are not able to afford an education for their wards.
- Even if the schools are there, the distances are so long that in the wake of a lack of a proper and reliable means of transportation like a dedicated school bus, parents even if they desire to are unable to send their children to school.
- Most schools with the desire to give more quality education to the children are unable to do so as they are embroiled with their own set of problems. For example, the Crescent School in Maujpur which is considered to have a decent standard is still unrecognized, or for example the land on which the Zakir Hussain Memorial School is built does not belong to the school, so it's a technical problem.
- Getting recognition for a school from the Directorate of Education is a mammoth task. Rejection is done by making vague objections such as 'not as per norms' or 'procedure not followed'.
- There should be more girls schools on the pattern of Zeenat Mahal School as it can accommodate only a limited number of students per class.
- The transition from Urdu medium till class 5th and then to Hindi and English creates a lot of problem for children who find it hard to cope up with the sudden. shift and so end up dropping out as a result of poor performance or their complete inability to follow what is being taught in a medium new to them. Most parents and teachers felt that this issue needs to be addressed urgently.
- There is an acute shortage of books especially in Urdu medium. It was pointed out that textbooks upto the 8th standard were printed by the Delhi Bureau of Textbooks (DBT) which publishes them but doesn't do a good job of supplying the books to the market. As a result the textbooks are hardly ever able to reach the students.
- The North-East district of Delhi has a huge paucity of teachers and so vacancies need to be filled. Many posts of teachers are lying vacant in government and government aided schools. Subject experts are not available to hold selections.
- Schools offering the science stream are few in this area.

- Besides these fundamental things, other infrastructure problems included lack of drinking water, toilet facilities, electricity which have all compounded together to make schools an unattractive and difficult places for little children who then find it hard to spend more than 5 hours in school.
- The scholarships that do exist (even if they are few and far between) have so many formalities and conditions at the application stage that most students who genuinely need them either don't make it to the eligibility conditions or end up not applying knowing they will be disqualified. Some formalities include an ID card number, a minority proof certificate, to name a few and it is not easy for the poorest of the poor to obtain these easily.
- In some cases the poor health of children and malnutrition prevents them from being able to continue with schooling.
- Chauhan Bangar which is 100% Muslim dominated area has just 3 Urdu medium schools in all. There is a need felt for more schools to raise the general level of education in the district.
- Some principals pointed out that even if a child managed to pass intermediate from Urdu medium schools, he/she would end up remaining unemployed (unlike Hindi and English medium students by contrast) leading to a lot of frustration among youngsters including a general feeling of helplessness and loss of faith in the entire system of education. Also it ends up making the Urdu medium schools undesirable and is eventually more damaging to the language than not having schools altogether.
- It was felt that there is a need for greater awareness building especially about the need to educate girls.
- Good library facilities are lacking.
- Some people raised concerns about the lack of any professional and vocational courses for the unemployed youth.
- Demand was made that higher educational institutions should be made accessible to students from this area by a well organized system of transportation like university specials etc.
- Government should relax some rules for minorities in setting schools so that the backlog in education can be over come.
- Cases of discrimination too were cited. It was pointed out that Muslim children are many times placed in separate sections in government schools in the name of providing them with Urdu teaching.

11.   CASE   STUDIES

A. Rural Infrastructure

Out of a total of 26 villages in the North-East district of Delhi, 2 villages are in Seemapuri including Mandoli village; another 2 villages Saqdarpur and Baburpur

village are in Shahadara division and the remaining villages are in the Seelampur sub-division. Barely 12 villages in the district are currently inhabited.

A meeting with the BDOs of the district brought to light the fact that most villages were sparsely populated and agricultural activities were hardly carried out anywhere. The villagers mostly work as labourers in neighboring areas to earn their livelihood. Field trips were made to several of the above villages. Badarpur Khadar, Mandoli and Saboli stood out as interesting case studies.

i) Badarpur Khadar – A Rural Village

An extraordinary example of a village which has been suffering for the last 5 decades or so because of being literally a 'border' village between Delhi and Ghaziabad. A subject of neglect, this village has been disowned by the Delhi government which says that the development of Badarpur Khadar should be undertaken by the Uttar Pradesh government while on their part, the U.P. government says that it's the Delhi government which should come to the villagers' rescue. An agricultural village, home to 125 families which have been traditionally living here from the very beginning, this village is a minority dominated village largely comprising of Muslims with just 4-5 odd Hindu households. A few kilometers from the well developed Tronica City the lack of any pucca road leading up to the village is conspicuous by its absence. Reaching Badarpur Khadar which is technically a part of the capital, albeit a neglected village, is an ordeal. There is the broken, muddy meandering road mostly used by bullock carts and occasionally by tractors that plough the fields here, since modern means of transportation have yet not reached this part of the district.

Of the 125 households here only, 10-15 families practice farming as their main occupations while others are all *mazdoors*. Amongst clusters of thatched huts a few concrete houses stand out, one of them belonging to the Pradahan and the others belonging to few other influential families. A small mosque with a white dome and little courtyard in the centre is a place of community meeting every Friday afternoon during the Juma prayers in what are the rare occasions when the sense of community is felt especially as most men tend to go out in the morning for work and only return late in the evenings. The village of course by itself provides no employment opportunities to the youth and the women. Some women help in the harvest season for small amounts of money. Almost all men, women and children have never gone to school ever.

Ironic in this pastoral setting in the capital is the lack of even the very basic facilities to one of the older villages of the N. E. Delhi:

- There is no school in the village, not even a primary school. The only school known to the villagers is the one in Mirpur which is adjoining to Chauhan Bangar, but with no means of transportation, not even rickshaws, children have to travel the distance by foot which easily takes anything between 45 minutes to even an hour. This is the major cause for large number of drop-outs or a culture of not even enrolling children to school. The entire village is almost illiterate and the villagers blame the administration for this.

- There are no dispensaries, hospitals or basic health care provisions in the village, though the polio drop immunization people come to administer polio drops.
- There are no water taps. Out of the total of 7 water taps only 2 are working as reported by the villagers when we went on one of the several field trips that were made to the village.
- Electricity has still not reached the village! There are no electricity poles here, not even street lighting. The villagers rely on kerosene lanterns and candles as sources of light and largely use wood for cooking.

It is worth reiterating that the lack of amenities and development in the village is compounded by a high rate of illiteracy and a dismal daily earning. A *Beldari mazdoor* gets a maximum of Rs. 120/- per day while the ordinary labourer are only able to earn Rs. 50-60/- a day for working from morning to evening. The divide between the landowning few and the nomadic gujjars is apparent to even a first time visitor. Young mothers tending to 4-5 children with swollen bellies and thin limbs are evident of the mal-nourishment that almost all children here are victims of. Sprawled on jute cots under the shade of a *ber* tree with three goats tied to it, a family of five can hardly find any respite from in a hot June afternoon. Scenes like this can be witnessed hut after hut. Time seems to have come to a standstill here as most youngsters, children and women sit around with virtually nothing to do. A couple of general merchant shops store basic food stock and other household items enough for an entire village which has very limited spending capacity. Needless to say, the village urgently needs a primary school, a health care centre and a concrete road so that it feels connected with

'dilli' as the villagers put it.

ii) Mandoli – An Urban Village

By contrast the village of Mandoli is a more urbanized one. Located near the Gaziabad-Wazirabad main line, it has a population of upwards of 50000 with about 5000 families residing in Mandoli. The houses are all made of concrete and there is a general sense of urbanization with electricity available of course with frequent power cuts. Though located near the Wazirabad highway the roads inside the village are broken and full of pot holes. Some of the villagers became more affluent after they were able to make some money by selling off parts of their land. There are plenty of open drains and gutters which are a source of lots of vector borne diseases and infections. Major water needs are met from private hand pumps and wells though the

village has a few community taps as well.

Largely a muslim dominated village, most of the residents are class III/ IV government employees and some others are into small business or are self employed. It has 2 MCD schools, 4-5 mosques and a Madarasa just behind the main mosque. The GTB hospital which is where most residents go to is about 3 kilometres from Mandoli. Mostly business owners, Zamindars and traders by profession the predominant castes in this muslim dominated village include *Chowdharies* and *Telis*. The houses are a mix of concrete and some kutcha homes. A decade and a half ago Mandoli village had come under the scanner for its dangerous lead smelting units mostly operating at night after

11 pm with 10-15 labourers in each of the units. The units would operate on generators where the labourers would convert molten lead into ingots for battery plates.

iii) An Industralized Village Saboli

Just a few kilometers away and adjoining Mandoli is Saboli which is an industrial area housing more than 200 factories. The thin strip of road leading up to the industrial area takes us to a place where factories are fortified by walls so high that it's difficult to see anything past them. What however catches the eye are clouds of thick black smoke belching out of the numerous chimneys belonging to the factories. The air is heavy and makes one breathless. A pal of grey dust blankets everything in the entire stretch around the factories. The labourers (mostly migrants from Bihar and U.P.) disappear behind the 30-40 feet high walls and iron gates and the entire area wears a strange silence. When we went there we found some laborers huddled up near a tea shop but expectedly they first avoided us as they were under instructions not to talk about the working conditions to any outsiders but as they opened up what came out were horrible tales of exploitation.

Most of them have to work at a dangerously high temperature of 1400 Celsius which explained why they all looked feeble, almost diseased. Their work is to extract iron and other minerals from the loose earth that comes here in quintals. Some other factories which are like *bhattis* are furnaces to melt metal, iron scraps even poisonous plastic wastes to make ingots. Little surprising, the factory owners themselves avoid coming here and visit the place only once in three months, their managers run the factories by keeping a tight control over the labourers. The names of the factories and their owners are kept a secret.

Inside one of the factories which we managed to enter, the women with their heads and mouths covered with cloth not masks and gloves had a grey dust covering them from the head to toe. Exploited and not even given the minimum guaranteed wages most of them get a mere Rs. 40/- per day for 8-12 hrs of work paid in cash without any record of them working there. Normally the wages range from Rs. 1800/- to a maximum of Rs. 3000/- per month.

Due to high temperatures, constant contact with heavy metal and dangerous emissions, lung-related ailments, tuberculosis, malaria, diarrhea and other diseases are common in Saboli but there is not even a single dispensary or health care centre here. Worse still, there is no escape from the poisonous emissions for the factory workers even after their shift as they all live in the industrial area which houses close to 20.000, families without any access to schools, health care, electricity and other essentials. There are no provisions for drinking water as well. In front of us a government water tanker came to Saboli and the women and children quickly made a beeline to get their share of water.

Not just life threatening for the resident factory workers and their families, the dangerous emissions from these factories are harmful everyone living in the neighborhood of the industrial area. Units like these which have been banned by the Supreme Court as early as 1994 continue to thrive without any interference from the local authorities who mostly deny any knowledge of their existence. The industrial area, needless to say, must be relocated from Saboli. We also recommend that an audit

be done of what harmful substances are emitted from these factories and ɬ any efforts have been made to check them.

B Work in the Unorganized Sector

North-East Delhi is a major site where the growth of the urban informal sector of the economy is visible. With the population density three times that of Delhi, a large number of small units have come up largely in residential areas that are predominantly inhabited by poor and migrant workers. Most of these workers are vulnerable to exploitation with irregular and low earnings and poor working conditions. An increasing proportion of people migrating to Delhi are absorbed in the informal unorganised   sector.

i) Exploited Labour, Informalised Production: A Case Study of Jeans Manufacturing in North-East Delhi

The garment industry in Delhi and its adjoining areas such as NOIDA, Greater NOIDA, Faridabad and Gurgaon is broadly of two types. The first, that are essentially export houses largely catering to orders from abroad or occasionally supplying to well-known national or international brands within the country. Though production is essentially factory based, the usual practice is to employ short-term contract labour on fixed salaries. The second type of garment manufacturing takes place in thousands of small and home- based units through a vicious chain of contractors, semi-contractors, manufacturers, whole sellers, commission agents and retailers. It usually caters to the domestic market of affordable unbranded products. The mode of payment is piece-rate that is kept abysmally low. It is this second type of production process that forms bulk of the garment manufacturing in Delhi.

According to the Annual Survey of Industries 2004-05, apparel-making industry comprises 16.11% of the factory units in the state. The activity is both capital intensive as well as labour intensive. In terms of estimated investments, it contributes 26.04% of the total invested capital and 23.29% of fixed capital in the factory sector. The sector employs a staggering 31% of the total labour force of Delhi. The actual figures could be even higher as, as mentioned above, much of the garment making activity is confined to small home-based units, most of them unregistered, and operating from unauthorized residential areas. The *thekedari* system together with piece-rate arrangement is another roadblock in estimating actual emoluments and other employment details.

Jeans contributes almost 50% of the total volume of garment trade in Delhi. This has grown enormously in the last one decade as western wear gradually began to dominate the Indian markets. While no such data exists, this could be estimated from the volume of daily transaction that takes place in one of the world's largest wholesale market for readymade garments--Gandhinagar in East Delhi. It is from the wholesale merchants of Gandhi Nagar that the *thekedars* pick orders from on piece rate basis.   Beginning

from the early '80s, the market has expanded in such a way that roughly 5 lakh people are directly/indirectly dependent on this market. The whole of Gandhi Nagar is divided into different *galis* and bazaars, which specialize or deal in specific products. Mahavir Gali and Ashok Bazar specialize in jeans and jackets. According to the secretary of the Ashok Bazar Market Association, nearly 700-800 shops in Gandhinagar deal solely with jeans and other denim wear. This growth is phenomenal, as a decade back only half of these many had set up shops in the market. The market currently sells nearly 1 lakh pieces of jeans everyday. The majority of buyers are wholesalers from across the country who buy both labeled as well as unlabeled jeans products.

The production process

While Gandhinagar forms part of East Delhi district, it is inextricably tied to the contractors, sub-contractors, master tailors, tailors, threadworkers, kaajwalas, takiwalas, buttonfixers; and the stitching, washing and dyeing units dotting Seelampur, Subhash Park, Welcome Colony, Jafrabad, Mustafabad areas of the North-East district. Jeans making goes through a fragmented yet curiously knotted process of production involving multiple stakeholders. Each merchant manufacturer of Gandhinagar has master tailors, contractors, stitching units exclusively attached to him.

The cloth comes from the states of Gujarat, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra. Before sending it to the master tailor, the cloth is washed at high pressure in the washing units located in Jafrabad and Welcome colony. The charges paid usually range from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2 for every metre of denim washed. The master tailor who cuts the denim into various sizes and designs is one of the most crucial links in the chain. It is also an extremely skillful job as measurement of all the designs, pockets and accessories have to be exact and also congruent with the overall appearance. The standard rate for a master tailor varies from 60 paise to Re. 1 per pair of trouser that he cuts. This payment is made usually by the merchant but occasionally it is also included in the piece rate of the contractor. For instance, Md. Ikram, one of the contractors in Subhash Park, pays Re. 1 per piece to the master tailor who also happens to be his sibling. With the new machine, the master tailor is able to cut nearly 1000 pieces in a day. For this he also has to employ at least two helpers who are paid in the range of Rs. 50-60 for a day's labour.

The cloth cut by the master tailor is picked up by the contractors or subcontractors for fabrication. The piece rate for this varies from Rs. 20-22 per pair of trouser. This includes, except for the fabric, all other material used such as thread, buttons, zips etc. It includes labour charges incurred on stitching, fixing designs and accessories, threading and also transportation. The contractor either has a unit of his own fixed with sewing machines or distributes the work among tailors attached to him who work from home. The labour charges for stitching vary between Rs. 8-10 per piece. This comes to about Rs. 110 -150 after putting in 10-12 hours of work.

In this manufacturing process, the contractors too alongside the labourers are an exploited lot. The contractors usually hail from the same socio-economic group as tailors and fabricators. Mohammad Salam, who runs a production unit in a rented accommodation of Subhash Park, was himself doubling up as the tailor when we

visited his place. The contractors, according to Salam (this was also corroborated by others), are able to make only 3-4 rupees on every pair of jeans. On an average, he is able to procure order of at least 5000 pieces per month from the merchant in Gandhinagar with whom he is attached. His recurring expenditure includes Rs. 6500 as rent and Rs. 2000 for electricity consumed at commercial rate. Since their units are located in neighbourhoods termed as residential, the unit owners have to pay frequent bribes to the MCD officials and the local police. To establish this enterprise, Md. Salam has invested nearly Rs. 40,000 as fixed capital. This included Rs. 3,5000 for ten sewing machine and Rs. 4,000 for the stabilizer to attend to the voltage fluctuations typically recurrent in the area. Despite the meager margin that they make, the contractors find it extremely difficult to extract timely payment from the merchants.

Usually, the payment is delayed by more than six months.

Apart from stitching, the contractor also has to pay to *kaajwalas,* (buttonhole makers) and button fixers. The machine used for making *kaaj* is an expensive one so there are very few *kaajwalas*. The *kaajwalas* get work from a number of contractors and charge 15 paise per buttonhole. He also needs to employ a machine operator and a helper. The machine operator, we found, is paid in the range of Rs. 3500-4000 as monthly salary. His helper's salary is between Rs. 2000-2500. On an average the operator is able to make nearly 700 buttonholes per day. A *Kaajwala* earns Rs. 3500 to 4000 per month. Once the *kaajwalas* are through with the buttonholing, the fixing of button is a separate

activity for which the piece rate is a meager 10 paise for every button fixed.

Design work on pockets, hips and knees is another area of specialization usually organized under a subcontractor who takes work from the contractor at the rate of Rs. 2 per piece. He pays Re.1 to his workers, the persons who actually fix the design. Finally, before the finished product is dispatched to the wholesalers, finishing touches need to be given. Threading is the term in the trade for the work that involves removing of loose threads from the finished pair of trousers. This is essentially a home-based activity taken up largely by women. Women take the work from the

contractor at the piece rate of 30 paise.

An overwhelming majority of buyers in the Gandhinagar market are wholesalers who come from all across the country. The wholesale rate for a pair of trouser, as told by the Secretary of the Association, varies between Rs. 150-400 depending on the quality of the denim and the design, on which the labour charge incurred is usually in the range of Rs. 30-40. When the jeans reach the retail market, the pricing, as a rule, is double the wholesale rate. The profit margin, therefore, for the manufacturer, the wholesaler and the retailer is substantial. This is ensured essentially by informalising

production and exploiting labour.

Social profile of the labour force

As mentioned earlier, a large part of jeans production takes place in the resettlement colonies of Seelampur, Welcome Colony, Subhash Park, Jafrabad and Kailash Nagar (East Delhi). Most of these localities, as our survey also suggests, are predominantly Muslim. There are also pockets of mixed residences such as those in Welcome Colony and Kailash Nagar. As such the workers, particularly those in stitching units, together with the contractors and sub-contractors are Muslims who have migrated from

Moradabad, Muzaffarnagar, Saharanpur, towns and villages of eastern U.P, Bihar and Bengal. The Muslim component among the tailors is roughly estimated to be nearly 90 per cent. Amongst the contractors and the master tailors too majority is Muslim, although a section also comprises of the non-Muslims.

In the informal economy of jeans manufacturing and trade, women workers have only a marginal presence forming the lower and the least paid wrung of the workforce. This is unlike the southern states where three-fourths of the workers, skilled and unskilled, are women. In Delhi, women workers are home based and employed in the unskilled work of finishing, thread cutting, button fixing etc. While majority of the women workers belong to lower caste Hindu homes, a significant section of them are Muslims as well.

The jeans traders and manufacturers together with the commission agents or *gaddiwalas* belong to the trading castes among Hindus and Jains. There are also a few Muslim merchants who operate from the Gandhinagar jeans market, but their presence of course is miniscule. Despite harsh and exploitative working conditions, meager and delayed payments, the class-community divide among manufacturers and workers has so far, not had any communal repercussions. This is more so owing to the economic interdependence of the communities involved.

Labour conditions

While the volume of trade in domestic jeans market is growing enormously, there are also lean periods during the summer months ranging from April to August. As the orders dry down, for a worker on piece-rate, survival becomes an issue. As it is, even during the peak months, the paltry wages do little to make ends meet. The plight of the workers is decided by the manufacturers and contractors. There are no hard and fast rules fixing the rates for the work done in different segments. It could be changed any time. Intense competition in the labour market ensures that the emoluments remain low even when there is a significant expansion in the trade.

Due to the informal nature of the industry, aided by the system of contracting and subcontracting, the workers remain unorganized, most of them uninformed of their rights. So even if there is discontented labour, there is virtually no organization or forum to express it. The tailors and other workers working for the contractor in small, unregistered production units do not enter into any formal contract, and as a result are unable to establish an employer-employee relationship that is crucial for claiming job security or other social benefits. As reported earlier, the contractors too, many a times work as tailors to make extra money. The master tailors who are attached directly to the manufacturers also do not enter into any contractual relationship with the manufacturers.

The stitching, washing or designing units are located usually in small and dark rooms with very little ventilation. In Subhash Park, Md. Salam and Md. Ikram house their units in a rented one-room place, but as we could observe, the rooms lacked adequate light leaving strain on the eyes of the tailors. The contractors working on small margins were unable to provide better facilities to their workers. Even worse is the condition of home- based workers who usually stay in single room *jhuggis* in the adjoining area — one such called Janata Mazdoor Colony. The colony, in the official

vocabulary, remains unauthorized and thus vulnerable to demolition drives of civic authorities. Subhash Park which is otherwise a recognized resettlement area too seemed to be suffering from official neglect and apathy.

Modes of intervention

Garment manufacturing as an economic activity is the biggest employer in Delhi, but the wages in the sector remain the lowest. This is confirmed by the Annual Survey of Industries, 2004-05, wherein the average emolument per employee was found to be the least in the sector. The government has to intervene to guarantee at least minimum wages for the skilled and unskilled workers. This however requires a holistic approach, uncovering the various layers of exploitation in a system sustained on contracts and subcontracts. Primarily, the manufacturers will have to be roped in to guarantee that the contracts are above board, wages guaranteed in the instrument of contract itself. The labour welfare office should use both formal as well as informal means to collect information on prevailing wages in the sector. Ideally, the piece rate system needs to be abolished by law.

The manufacturers should be offered tax incentives in return for observing strict adherence to labour laws. They should be encouraged to move towards factory-based production where garment workers could be absorbed on fixed salaries at various levels.

Skill upgradation and capacity building of the workers should be aided by the government through civil society organizations. Women should be particularly targeted to ensure their adequate participation in the sector. Educating the workers about their rights should be an intrinsic part of all such exercises.

Having observed the appalling living and working conditions, it is important that an industrial area is carved out in the vicinity equipped with adequate facilities, healthy working conditions and residential facilities for garment workers. This could be developed in the form of apparel production parks facilitated by the state government. Till such facility is created, there should be a moratorium declared on all drives to pull down *jhuggi jhopris* of the area. Such facilities should also be created for workers involved in other economic activities.

Working class neighbourhoods, whether authorized or unauthorized, should be provided with facilities such as government health centres, schools, ration shops, cooperative banks etc. Campaigns should be regularly conducted to make the workers aware of the facilities available.

Since many of the workers are seasonal migrants who spend huge amount of their savings in traveling to their native places on various occasions, it would be of great help if they are provided with railway concession for the same at least once every year. The concession should be issued for the worker and his/her immediate family.

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ii) Rickshaw Pullers

Informal transportation sector is an important economic activity in which urban poverty is concentrated. A large number of poor rural to urban migrants start their careers through this sector. The cycle rickshaw sector in Delhi is an important area to study the dynamics of urban poverty in India. Rickshaw pulling can be seen as an informal sector activity providing an income earning opportunity for temporary, seasonal, migrants from rural areas and for the urban poor. Rickshaw are either self owned or are taken on hire. While there are a number of contractors in this business who hire out rickshaw on a daily basis – this requires an investment as well as other

expenses on its operation and maintenance, including charges to the MCD.

It may therefore also be cheaper and less problematic to hire a rickshaw than to own one. Rickshaw puller hire rickshaw from the owner–contractor on a daily basis by paying a around Rs.20 to Rs.30 per day, which amounts to almost 20% of their daily earnings. The lending and hiring of the rickshaw is based on a relationship of trust between the owners and rickshaw pullers mediated by persons who happen to know the rickshaw puller, possibly from his village or a local person. This surety ensures that no deposit is demanded by the contractor. The average hour of work during a normal day is around 9 to 10 hours–some working for as long as twelve hours or more and for 20 – 24 days a month. Leave being taken for sickness or for rest. More work is put in during the hot summer months and the festive season thereby generating greater earnings. The average monthly income is around Rs.3500/- per month with substantial daily income fluctuations. However, it may be noticed that while rickshaw puller are at a risk of facing daily income fluctuations this activity provides employment through out the year and is therefore a preferred avenue for employment and earnings for the

poor rural migrants.

iii) Cable stripping

This home-based industry provides livelihood to thousands of slum dwellers in North-East Delhi – men, women and children. Waste in the form of cable wires are brought into this area from places in and around Delhi. This waste is then separated for its value and re-use in different industries. While these cable strippers of North-East Delhi belong to the lowest rung of this industry – business is voluminous and generates crores of rupees. However, despite the voluminous work that is generated in this unorganized sector the condition of workers is pitiable. The nature of work, the use of knives and blades to separate the plastic and the metal, the fumes from the burning of wires, all present serious health hazardous to workers in addition the physical posture

adopted to undertake this activity causes lacerations and lesions in the feet. A large percentage of these cable strippers belong to the Muslim Community.

The emergence and growth of this business is closely linked to the growth of the IT sector and the need to dispose of the enormous amount of electronic waste generated. The unskilled migrant work force soon got absorbed in this industry for sheer survival needs.

Payment for this work is made according to the weight of the cables stripped and the rate is determined by the thickness of the cables varying from Rs.1.50/- for thicker cables to Rs.2/- **for** the thinner ones (which require more effort and time). A person can earn maximum up to not more than Rs.100-150/- per day with women being paid lower wages than men. Sometimes as low as Rs. 40-Rs. 60/- per day. Wires which are too thin to be stripped are cut into small pieces, washed, dried and then sold. These are them smelted in a furnace to extract the metal which fetches Rs.30-40/- per kg. Small children play the role of helpers in this industry.

While entire families are sometimes engaged in this work there is a hierarchy here as well. The lowest strata of the cable stripper (in a majority) act only as daily wage laborers. In the more affluent families among these workers is a division of labour with male members engaged in procuring cables from the contractors, while the women are engaged in the stripping process. While some have taken this on as a part time engagement, others are engaged for the entire day.

Winter months are particularly difficult for cable strippers. Since the cables become hard because of the cold it becomes extremely difficult to strip them by hand. A makeshift furnace is used to soften the plastic, thereby generating toxic fumes in the air. The length of the day being short makes cuts down the time available for work.

The activity by stripping cables has serious repercussions on the health of the workers – Skin infections due to handling of cables & wires are common. Blisters caused due to the highly toxic components left untreated result in secondary infections of the tissues. Deaths due to tetanus caused by blade injuries have been reported in the area as well. Fume generated due to the burning of wires has ensured that many suffer from respiratory disease and tuberculosis. Exposure to fumes has damaged the eyesight of many. The nature of this activity is such that the workplace is not distinct from the living place; neither are the working hours demarcated from the leisure time. This is especially true for women who spend all their time left after doing house work in stripping cables.

iv) Other Homebased Activities

North-East Delhi is also home to a number of other home based industries characterized by low wages, poor working conditions and exploitation of workers by middle men. A large number of men and especially women are engaged in *bindi* making, assembling of machine parts, sticking stone on bangles, embroidery on jeans, *burqas* and scarfs, fitting of cork in the metallic bottle caps and wste picking. After putting in 8-9 hours of work, those engaged in *bindi* work get as little as Rs. 10/- per day for a bundle of 144 *bindis*. Placing cork lining in the metallic bottle caps fetches them a mere Rs. 8-10 per day. Sticking stones on bangles fetches Rs. 3.50 for a dozen

bangles. Any demand for an increase in rate is met with objection from fellow workers who fear that the middlemen may start looking elsewhere for cheap labour.