



*Empowered lives.
Resilient nations.*

Empowered People; Resilient Nation

Situation Analysis and Emerging Issues for India
2013 and beyond

UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME, INDIA

November, 2011

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I) Context

The financial and economic crisis of 2008 has cast its shadow on the world economy and sharpened the dichotomy between the growth path of the advanced economies on the one hand and the emerging economies on the other. While the advanced economies experienced recovery, growth remains subdued, unemployment is still high, and renewed stress in the euro zone is contributing to downside risks. In the emerging economies, economic activity is buoyant, though inflationary pressures are emerging contributed in part by strong capital inflows. However, pressures on account of the high fiscal imbalances in the advanced countries and large exposure of banks to sovereign debt pose a risk to the financial stability of the global economy.

The Indian economy exhibited remarkable resilience in recovering from the global financial and economic crisis of 2008 and resuming its high growth path in 2009-10. Nonetheless, the situation is still fragile and the risk of the economy suffering a setback due to adverse feedback loops from the global financial conditions, particularly developments in the euro zone need to be factored in¹.

Inflation, particularly food price inflation, has emerged as a major challenge in the past couple of years seriously jeopardizing food security of the poor. Despite monetary tightening and repeated raise in benchmark interest rates by the central bank of the country, the Reserve Bank of India, taming of inflation has been a challenge. The high interest rate regime that has been ushered in as a consequence of repeated hikes in benchmark interest rates has led to the concern that it may impact adversely on the growth rate of the economy. In fact, the Reserve Bank of India has revised downwards its forecast for 2011-12 from 8% to 7.6%².

India is among the top ten countries registering a high rate of growth in the Human Development Index values over the past twenty years. The Government has been in the forefront in initiating several right based legislations thereby giving concrete shape to the provision of basic freedoms enshrined in the Directive Principles of the Indian Constitution³. The various initiatives constitute a set of mutually reinforcing measures that are designed to empower and enhance the entitlements of the poor. Civil society supported by an active media, has been vocal in demanding more accountability and transparency.

¹ Government of India, (2010d)

² RBI (2011)

³ Significant among them are the Right to Information Act (2005) mandating timely information from the government to citizens, the Right to Education Act (2009) guaranteeing free and compulsory education to all children between the ages of 6-14 years, the Right to Employment enshrined in the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (2005) guaranteeing 100 days of work per rural household per annum and the Forests Right Act 2006, which recognizes the right to livelihoods and occupation of the forest dwellers. The Right to Food legislation that is being contemplated seeks to provide a minimum quantum of food grains to the poorest of the poor while the Women's Reservation Bill (2010) seeks to reserve one third of all seats in Parliament for women.

Peoples' voices have also been more assertive in demanding a say in policy making⁴. Together these features have strengthened the vibrancy of the Indian democracy and led to a new optimism about its role in the world polity.

Nevertheless, there have been disconcerting features which mar these remarkable achievements. The progress on human development in the country has not been commensurate with the promise held out by rapid economic growth. Much of the improvement in the Human Development Index over the past two decades has been contributed by the income component with the contribution of education and health being much less than the potential. Pervasive inequalities in development outcomes across states and districts, across dalits, adivasis and women have limited the benefits of growth from reaching the masses. The country is off track on several Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), multidimensional poverty remains stubbornly high particularly in the central and eastern states and among people belonging to marginalized groups, hunger and malnutrition are rampant and gender equality threatened by the continuous decline in the child sex ratio and increase in violence against women. While the spread of HIV has been contained, the gains continue to be fragile for groups at risk including for women, men having sex with men (MSM) and transgender (TG). Governance of flagship programmes is stymied by implementation bottlenecks and corruption has become a serious issue undermining all developmental efforts. Climate change is accentuating vulnerabilities of the poor population in specific regions. Extremism has thwarted development efforts in 125 districts in 12 states⁵. The objective of inclusive growth that guides the XI Plan has had to contend with the realities of market driven growth whose manifestations have led to highlighting structural fault lines and posing new challenges. This was also recently articulated by the civil society groups as part of their response to the Approach paper to the XII plan where they have rejected the concept of gross domestic product growth alone as a goal of planning. The 2011 Census indicates that the population of the country has swelled to 1.2 billion people which imparts a scale dimension to deprivations that is challenging.

The draft Approach Paper to the XII Plan has as its goal 'faster and more inclusive growth' thereby indicating a continuation of the XI Plan strategy on inclusive growth. The Approach paper highlights the need to pay particular attention to the needs of people belonging to the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, other backward castes, women, minorities and other excluded groups. It also emphasizes the need to rely on institutional and attitudinal changes to address multi-dimensional poverty and exclusion.

In view of the above, the focus of UNDP's work in India in line with the XII Plan and United Nations Development Action Framework (UNDAF) has been on inclusive growth and addressing exclusion that has its roots in historical divisions along lines of caste, tribes and gender which has resulted in a situation where vulnerable population groups are unable to take advantage of opportunities provided by economic growth and also fail to benefit optimally from the various affirmative actions of the State.

⁴ Initiatives like the Right to Information movements in Rajasthan, social audits of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme, the Annual Survey of Education Report, citizens' report cards are examples of the strength of this movement. More recently, an anti-corruption campaign, initiated by Anna Hazare, a social worker, caught the imagination of millions of young Indians and middle class citizens. The campaigners have been demanding that the government enact a comprehensive anti-corruption law and draft a citizen's ombudsman bill, or Lokpal bill, with participation of civil society.

⁵ Government of India (2008a)

UNDP pioneered the concept of human development⁶ and promoted it as a development approach globally. The adoption of a human development approach in practice implies among other things, the recognition of the agency aspect of individuals, adoption of participatory approaches and respect for cultural diversity and human dignity, support to medium to long term planning as human development outcomes can improve only with consistent efforts over a period of time. Support for governments is to go beyond departmental and ministerial boundaries to enable 'joined-up thinking and joined-up action' to reap synergies of interrelated programmes, and ensure transparency and accountability to ensure development effectiveness. The human development approach strives to simultaneously achieve the four basic developmental values of equity, efficiency, participation and empowerment and sustainability.

Box 1. Principles of the Human Development Approach

The four principles that govern the human development approach are equity, efficiency, participation and empowerment, and sustainability. **Equity** refers to the concept of justice, impartiality and fairness and incorporates the idea of distributive justice, particularly in terms of apportionment of opportunities to all human beings. The attention paid to distributive justice however is not at the expense of efficiency in the system. **Efficiency** is conventionally defined as the optimal use of existing resources. From a human development perspective, it implies not only maximizing material resources but also optimizing the use of the human and community resources. **Participation and empowerment** is a foundational principle of human development, i.e., the freedom to shape and exercise choices that affect their lives. Whether it is at the level of policy-making, implementation or management, this principle implies that people need to be involved at every stage not merely as beneficiaries but as agents who are able to pursue and realize goals that they value and have reason to value. The term **sustainability** is often used while referring to environment but is not confined to this dimension alone. It refers to sustainability in all spheres, social, political and financial. Environmental sustainability implies achieving developmental results without jeopardizing the natural resource base and biodiversity of the region and without affecting the resource base for future generations. Financial sustainability refers to the way in which development is financed. Specifically, development should not lead countries into debt traps. Social sustainability refers to the way in which social groups and other institutions are involved in ensuring participation and involvement and avoiding disruptive and destructive elements. Cultural liberty and respect for diversity are also important values that can contribute to socially sustainable development.

The human development approach is the overarching framework guiding United Nations Development Programmes's policy and programmatic initiatives in the areas of democratic governance, poverty reduction, HIV/AIDS, energy and environment, disaster risk management and gender and inclusion. In what follows, the key development challenges in India in each of these areas are highlighted with a view to identifying the relevant programmatic areas in which the UNDP could support the Government and people of India to contribute to transformational change that will empower people and build an inclusive, climate resilient, sustainable development paradigm for 2013-17 and beyond.

⁶Human development as a concept was introduced in the first Global Human Development Report of 1990 and was defined as, 'the process of enlarging the range of people's choices'.



II) Situation Analysis

A) High economic growth not translated adequately into human development outcomes:

The Indian economy has been on high growth path, recording over 8% growth rate in GDP since 2005-06. Though the global financial and economic crisis in 2008 led to a dip in the growth rate to 6.7% in 2008-09, it quickly recovered to regain 8% growth in 2009-10⁷. All the three sectors - agriculture, industry and services-contributed to the revival in growth, with the agriculture sector recovering from the near zero rate of growth in the previous year. The Government of India expects that in 2011-12, the growth rate of the economy will be 9% with World Bank and the Economic Intelligence Unit also predicting similar growth rates⁸. The XII Plan target is to be set to achieve 10% growth rate in GDP. However, in the light of the recent global developments, particularly in the euro zone and the high and persistent domestic inflation, the Reserve Bank of India has revised downwards its estimate for GDP growth in 2011-12 from 8% to 7.6%. Inflation has been a major concern with the Wholesale Price Index recording a rise of 9.6% since April 2011. Inflation has not been confined to food articles alone; it has been broadbased and driven by primary articles; fuel and power; and manufactured products⁹.

A perusal of the growth rates in state incomes indicates that most states experienced a higher rate of growth in Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) between 2002-03 and 2008-09, barring Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal where there was a deceleration in the growth rates as compared to 1994-95 to 2001-02 and Rajasthan where there was only a marginal improvement. Among UNDAF states¹⁰ the highest increase in the growth rate was in the states of Chhattisgarh, Assam, Orissa and Jharkhand in that order (Chart A, Annexure).

State level analysis of the trends in per capita Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) indicates that the disparities between states in terms of per capita income have accentuated. The absolute gap between the achievement of Haryana, the state with highest income among 20 major states in 2006-09 and Bihar, the lowest income state at both points widened by 65% over a decade 1999-2009. (Table A, Annexure)

The latest Millennium Development Goals Report for India published by the Government of India in 2009 tracks the progress of the 12 targets that are considered applicable to the country and takes into account the data between 2006-08. India considers 12 of the 18 targets as being relevant for its situation. India's 2009 MDG Report indicates that the country is on track or fast in approaching

⁷ Government of India (2011a) figures for 2009-10 are quick estimates

⁸ The growth prediction of the EIU for India is 9.1% in 2010/11 and 8.9% in 2011/12. The World Bank also expects the pre-crisis trend of around 8.5-9 percent in 2010-11 and 2011-12

⁹ RBI (2011)

¹⁰ The United Nations Development Assistance (UNDAF) states during 2007-12 are Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh

achievement with respect to 3 out of 12 MDG targets – mainly relating to environmental sustainability, primary education and global partnership. It is nearly on track for 3 more targets relating to poverty, gender equality and HIV/AIDS. As per official data, the country has been relatively successful in the realms of universal primary education, likely disappearing of gender disparity in primary and secondary education, trend reversal in the incidence of HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria and the reversal in the loss of environmental resources.

India's performance on MDGs has been a mixed bag with progress on some indicators being encouraging while on others has been much less than anticipated. High levels of hunger, malnutrition, maternal and infant mortality rates pose huge challenges in the context of attainment of the MDGs and are influenced by the persistent gender inequality in the country. In addition, the MDG report also points out that Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra and Uttarakhand are likely to be home to a larger proportion of poor with their share in total poor rising from 64% in 2004-05 to 71% in 2015¹¹. Governance issues plague implementation limiting the effectiveness of the numerous flagship social sector programmes that have been initiated. The fundamental constraint facing social sector policies is one of relying mainly on sectoral, vertical approaches to address individual dimensions of human poverty as against a more holistic and integrated approach which results in uneven progress across dimensions of human development.

India's performance on human development has not been commensurate with the promise held out by rapid economic growth. With a HDI value of 0.547 in 2011, India ranks 134 among 187 countries and areas on the Human Development Index. Between 1990 and 2011, while GNI per capita witnessed an increase of 182 %, progress on human development indicators, viz., life expectancy at birth, expected years of schooling and mean years of schooling increased only by 12, 34 and 47% respectively¹². Further, 54% of the population suffers multiple deprivations¹³.

India's HDI value is much lower than the values for other South Asian countries like Sri Lanka, lower than the average for medium human development category countries to which India belongs and that of countries in the BRICS group to which India is increasingly relating to (Chart B, Annexure). India's performance on human development is also marred by the high inequalities that have been observed in the distribution of human development attainments. The inequality adjusted HDI for India in 2011 indicates that the country loses 28.3% in the HDI value on account of inequality as against a global average of 23%. The loss is highest in the education (40.6%) and health (27.1%) components and least in the income component (14.7%) pointing to the impact of inequality on human development indicators.

¹¹ Government of India (2009d)

¹² Life expectancy at birth rose from 58.3 years to 65.4 years between 1990 and 2011, expected years of schooling increased from 7.7 years to 10.3 years, mean years of schooling from 3 to 4.4 years and GNI per capita (PPP US\$) from 1,229 to 3,468, computed from HDR 2011

¹³ UNDP (2011)

At the state level, though the performance of all states on the HDI improved between 1999-2000 and 2007-08, there have been no changes in the relative ranking on the Human Development Index. (Table B, Annexure). Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa and Chhattisgarh continue to be ranked at the bottom five states during both time points even as Kerala, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Goa and Punjab continue to be the top 5 states in HDI ranking¹⁴.

When the HDI values for states are computed using global goalposts making them comparable internationally¹⁵, the rankings of the Indian States vary from a high of 98 for Kerala which is comparable to a medium human development country like the Philippines to a low of 133 for Orissa which places it in the category of low human development and comparable to the average level of achievements of Yemen.

A computation based on the global methodology for the inequality adjusted HDI for Indian States indicates that the loss in HDI due to inequality is the least in Kerala (a high human development state) and the highest in central and eastern states (Orissa, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh and Jharkhand in that order) where human development attainments are low¹⁶.

Human Development attainments much worse for Dalits, Adivasis and Women

National averages conceal many disparities across social groups and regions. Human development attainments are low in the socially excluded groups within the country, such as Dalits, Scheduled Tribes, Muslims, migrants, internally displaced people, victims of trafficking and transgender people, to name only a few. The structural biases towards the scheduled castes are revealed in the HDI value for the SCs and STs where the values were 28% and 56% lower than for all groups (0.328 and 0.27 against 0.422)¹⁷ in 2005, the latest year for which such data are available.

A HDI for religious minorities is not available separately. However, the human development indicators point to the fact that they have not benefitted from development as compared to the general population. For example, the literacy rate of Muslims at 59.1% in 2001 was higher than that of the SCs and STs but lower than for the general population. The mean incomes of Muslim households, while being greater than that of people belonging to the SCs and STs are lower than that of the general population. In urban areas, where Muslim populations largely reside, mean incomes of Muslim households are the lowest¹⁸.

Gender inequality in India persists despite high rates of economic growth with the outcomes being lower among Dalits and Adivasis. The 2009 India MDG Report concedes that empowerment of women is still far too slow to make an impact. Participation of women in employment and decision

¹⁴ IAMR (2011), The HDI ranking is out of a total of 23; all north eastern states (excluding Assam) are taken as one

¹⁵ UNDP (2011), The rankings are from the Global HDR for 2010

¹⁶ UNDP (2011)

¹⁷ Mahamallik (2010)

¹⁸ NCAER (2010), pg 15,23 and 24

making remains far less than that of men and the disparity is not likely to be eliminated by 2015. As a result, the XI Five Year Plan (2008 – 2012) document¹⁹ admits that, 'Gender inequality remains a pervasive problem and some of the structural changes taking place have an adverse effect on women.'

India's poor performance on women's empowerment and gender equality is reflected in many indicators, the most telling of which is the sex ratio which has in some parts of India dropped to 883 females per 1000 males²⁰. Gender inequality is also reflected in India's low rank on the Gender Inequality Index (GII). India ranks 129 out of 146 countries with a value of 0.617²¹. In fact, among the South Asian countries, India is second from the bottom, just above Afghanistan. Only 10.7% per cent of Parliamentary seats are held by women and 27% of adult women have secondary or higher education as compared to 50% of their male counterparts. For every one lakh live births, 230 women die of pregnancy-related causes and the adolescent fertility rate is 86 births per 1000 live births. Statistics from across the country show that violence against women is on the increase, both in the public and private spheres²². The forms of violence are also changing with the changing socio-economic and political climate with trafficking and unsafe migration being indicative of the emerging situation. Violence in conflict-ridden regions is increasing and is not being given the attention it deserves, as the focus is on the larger political dynamics.

When the states are ranked on Gender related Development Index (GDI), Kerala ranks at the top and Bihar at the bottom²³. In the case of the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), Andhra Pradesh ranks at the top with Bihar as the lowest ranking State (Table C, Annexure)

B) Development Initiatives Stymied by Governance and Implementation Challenges

The Government of India has in the past few years initiated a number of flagship programmes that seek to ensure basic entitlements to the poor and has raised allocations for these initiatives substantially. However, the translation of outlays to outcomes has been unsatisfactory due to poor implementation, seriously undermining the efficiency of the expenditures incurred.

India's poor record on governance is reflected in its 87th rank on the corruption perception index among 178 countries with a value of 3.3 on a scale of 1 to 10 in 2010²⁴. This is worse than the ranking of countries such as Ghana (62), Rwanda (66) and Malawi (85), but higher than the ranking of Sri Lanka (91).

¹⁹ Government of India (2008d)

²⁰ Sex ratio for the state of Sikkim according to census 2011, http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/india/Final%20PPT%202011_chapter5.pdf

²¹ UNDP (2011)

²² NCAER (2010) It is estimated that 50% of respondents in a nation wide survey conducted by NCAER claimed that women in their community are often beaten for minor transgressions like going out without permission

²³ The analysis pertains to only 19 major States. The GDI and GEM values are from Government of India (2009b)

²⁴ Transparency International (2010)

The Draft Approach Paper to the XII Plan recognizes governance as a key challenge in achieving inclusive growth and states' Without reforms in implementation structures, schemes aimed at social inclusion will continue to be afflicted by universalization without quality (U without Q) syndrome²⁵. Weak governance structures, ineffective delivery systems and inadequate institutional capacities, high rate of corruption and lack of transparency and accountability have adversely affected delivery of public services, particularly to the poor and vulnerable accentuating exclusion and affecting adversely equity. Inadequate data for monitoring of outcomes has been an additional constraint which inhibits taking corrective mid-course action.

Inadequate decentralization

Decentralization was expected to act as an antidote to centralized implementation of programmes and enhancing participation of people in the governance structures thereby leading to better access of the poor to basic services. However, while the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Acts passed in 1993 ushered in grassroots democracy, the decentralization process has been less than effective owing to inadequate devolution of funds, functions and functionaries. Panchayat is a state subject and the extent to which devolution is affected depends on the extent to which State Acts have devolved funds, functions and functionaries. The Mid-Term Appraisal of the XI Plan states that the situation varies widely across states - while a number of states have transferred functions, the concomitant transfer for functionaries and funds has not been done which hampers the panchayats from effectively functioning as institutions for local governance.

Recognizing that weak capacities of local bodies have acted as a constraint to local planning, implementation and monitoring of programmes meant for the poor, the Second Administrative Reforms Commission Report states that, '---despite the Constitutional mandate, the growth of self-governing local bodies as the third tier of governance in the country has been uneven, halting and slow²⁷'.

The implementation of provisions of the Panchayat Extension to the Scheduled Area Act (PESA) that provides a comprehensive framework for local governance in the Scheduled Areas which have predominant tribal population has been rudderless²⁸. This has led to gaps in governance in many areas leading to inefficient or lack of delivery of services, and consequently under development which fosters extremism. The Expert Group set up by the Planning Commission²⁹ stated that effective implementation of PESA, particularly pertaining to transferring powers of gram sabhas will be key in assuaging feeling of political marginalization and will empower communities. Supporting states in effective implementation of PESA and empowering communities and key institutions of local decision making like gram sabhas will need to be a key strategy going forward.

Ensuring the human development principles of equity and participation require that the process of governance be transformed from a top-down approach to a bottom-up approach which is people

²⁵ Government of India (2011c)

²⁷ Government of India (2006)

²⁸ Government of India (2008a)

²⁹ Government of India (2008a)

centric and more specifically poor, marginalized and women centric. Empowering people, especially the poor and marginalized, to demand their rights will generate demand for accountability from government and elected leaders at all levels. Mobilizing people for collective action, inclusion of women, Dalits and STs in the process of governance and development, planning at grassroots and community monitoring of public services and social audit of expenditures under government programmes are crucial to the process.

Ineffective delivery systems

Recent development programmes of the government, such as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (MGNREGP) have been innovatively designed to address equity concerns. They actively promote participation of the marginalized, especially women and SC/ST communities. However, efficiency of implementation of the programme presents many challenges. Low productivity and durability of assets, lack of empowerment of communities to plan and to seek accountability, inadequate knowledge of the procedures and processes for effective implementation amongst functionaries at the district and block levels, lack of awareness and capacity of communities to address climate risks, weak convergence capacities to enable sustainable livelihoods are some of the challenges faced. There is also a lack of link between the evidence generated and policy actions. Inter-sectoral convergence between MGNREGP and other natural resource related and environment programmes is also essential as it can result in enhanced durability and climate resilience of village infrastructure which is being created country-wide.

Exclusion from the benefits of government programmes and lack of access to justice for the poor and marginalized is further accentuated due to a lack of awareness of legal rights and entitlements. Low levels of literacy and poverty force people to either not demand or accept the sub-standard services. Further, lack of support structures for providing legal advice, legal aid and complete absence of grievance redressal mechanisms make it difficult for people in rural areas to seek help. Legal Services Authority Act, 1987 mandates the provision of free legal advice and aid to poor men and all women but the Act remains largely ineffective. There is a need to develop cadres of community paralegal workers to implement the Gram Nyayalaya Act to bring justice closer to the people. Disconnect between various commissions and State Legal Services Authorities (SLSAs), between Ministries, centre & state and judiciary & civil society are some of the other challenges impacting access to justice.

Governance structures at all levels are characterized by sluggish delivery which is also due to lack of effective convergence between various agencies and departments. True convergence of efforts from various departments for integrated planning has not been brought about due to lack of clear signals from the national Government, which while encouraging convergent planning, also promotes scheme-based planning of its flagship programmes. Divisions among line ministries and departments as well as internal communication barriers further complicate matters and stand in the way of consultation, convergence and integrated outcome-based policy-making, planning and implementation. Increased advocacy efforts are required at national and state level for convergence, outcome orientation and greater devolution to states and districts for meaningful integrated district planning to take effect.

Governance issues in the urban areas of the country are also assuming importance as India has the second largest urban population in the world. It is expected that by 2030 urban population will constitute 38% of total population and contribute around 70% to the overall GDP of the country³⁰. Governance structures in most cities are characterized by lack of clear demarcations of areas of operation for urban development institutions like the urban local bodies and state and central para-statal organizations. The ability to tackle these issues is severely constrained by low capacity (financial and technical/human) of local governments in drafting and implementing policies. To make cities sustainable and for growth in cities to be inclusive, concentrated efforts to mainstream sustainability and human development tenants of equity, efficiency and participation into development policy need to be made. Special emphasis is needed to streamline governance and ensure efficiency through effective decentralization and providing platforms for greater citizen participation.

Inadequate public administration capacity

Capacity development of the civil service faces tremendous challenges as training institutes across the country are under- and ill-staffed with little room for innovative practices and cutting-edge knowledge sharing. Incentive mechanisms and active human resource management which could build excellence within the civil service have not been sufficient and the internal integrity frameworks are unable to curb malpractice and corruption³¹. The ineffectiveness, slow speed and poor quality of service delivery would require the leadership at mid- and upper level to encourage innovation and transform systems to effect change at the outcome level. Innovative strategies for leadership development and change management are required along with other administrative reforms to ensure accountability for service delivery.

There has been skepticism on the capacities of panchayat raj institutions (PRIs) to function as institutions for local governance including management of huge financial resources (including XIII Finance Commission Grants). There are more than three million elected representatives and a million PRI functionaries that need to be provided at least basic training. While current training curriculum focuses on providing basic training on roles and responsibilities, it does not provide leadership training that can trigger a transformational change. It also does not cater to special capacity development needs of women and SC/ST elected representatives, especially those related to planning, handling finances and local revenue generation. Innovation and demonstration of effective capacity development strategies is required so that beyond training, other capacity development needs of elected leaders, especially women are addressed. Further, capacities to handle issues of critical importance at local level like livelihoods, climate change and disaster management need to be enhanced to address these issues in an integrated manner.

³⁰ McKinsey Global Institute (2010)

³¹ "A common reason usually cited for inefficiency in governance is the inability within the system to hold the Civil Services accountable for their actions. Seldom are disciplinary proceedings initiated against delinquent government servants and imposition of penalties is even more rare" (Government of India (2009a), p. 15)

Lack of convergence in government programmes

Most government schemes and programmes being sectoral in nature have failed to address the multiple vulnerabilities that the poor face, both at household and individual level. For example, among tribal communities, livelihood, food and health insecurity is often directly related to the security of land tenure. Therefore, a more comprehensive understanding of these vulnerabilities during design and delivery of services can enhance the impact of government schemes and public investment with regard to disadvantaged groups. Moreover, a “one size fits all” approach is unable to recognise and respond to the differences, special features, strengths and needs of each disadvantaged group. Further, in the absence of effective coordination mechanisms and capacities at district and state levels, the immense opportunity to design integrated response and for convergence among the departments and schemes that can simultaneously address the different vulnerabilities remains untapped. The fact that certain groups have been left out of development processes for several decades, points to an urgent need to equip government and non-government development agencies with capacities to improve their outreach.

Non availability of timely, disaggregated data

Though the Indian statistical system is recognized internationally as one of the finest among the developing countries for its robustness in producing reliable national level aggregates and state level data³², it is not yet geared to address the emerging demand owing to (a) the structural changes in the economy resulting from globalization and liberalization, (b) increased emphasis on human development which demanded increased monitoring of social indicators and (c) thrust on decentralized governance which required reliable statistics at low levels of disaggregation for planning and implementation. As a result, timely, reliable, validated data is not available to policy planners to plan, implement and monitor policy/programme interventions posing a serious constraint in ensuring efficiency in public spending.

The situation is particularly challenging with respect to district level data and data disaggregated by sex and social groups. The decentralization of governance structures that has been ongoing since 1993-94 has not been accompanied by the generation of requisite data at the district and block levels severely limiting the ability of the local bodies to formulate district and block level plans. Improving the poor performance of India on the MDGs and human development attainments also requires regular monitoring of human development attainment indicators at the disaggregated level. The severe constraint posed by the lack of reliable data on key indicators such as district level poverty, infant mortality rates and nutrition limits the ability of the government at all levels to undertake quick remedial action and acts as a constraint for civil society and citizens’ groups to demand better outcomes.

³² The statistical systems boasts of large scale statistical operations at the national level such as Population Census, Economic Census and nation-wide sample surveys, the compilation of macro-economic aggregates like national accounts, price indices and industrial production. Additionally, State Governments and statistical organisations of the State are also engaged in collecting and generating data on a number of variables.



C) High economic growth coexists with extreme poverty

Despite high economic growth, and steady reduction in the incidence of poverty, over one third of the population continues to be poor. Poverty estimates in India have always been contentious. Several estimates exist depending on the source of data and the definition adopted. Official estimates are available only for 2004-05 and they have been revised upwards from 27.5% to 37.2% in keeping with the suggestions made by the Tendulkar Committee. Rural headcount poverty estimate was revised substantially upwards from 28.3% to at 41.8% while urban poverty rate was unchanged at 25.7%³³. The Government of India maintains that even with recent changes in the definition of how the poverty line is measured that were made by the Tendulkar Committee, the country is on track with respect to the MDG target of halving the proportion of those below the poverty line between 1990 and 2015.

There is however no consensus on the number of poor with different estimates pointing to widely different figures. If poverty were to be considered more as human poverty than merely income poverty, the recent Global HDR for 2011 indicates that India has 612 million multidimensionally poor people, the highest for any country globally.

Box 2. No consensus on number of poor people

There is no consensus on the number of poor in the country. See the various estimates below:

Tendulkar Committee (2004 - 05): 407 million

World Bank (2005 PPP USD): 456 million

National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (2007): 836 million (including vulnerable population)

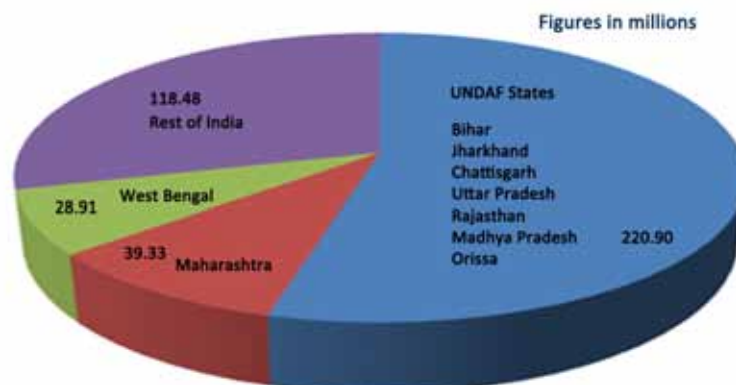
Human Development Report (2011): 612 million are multi dimensionally poor

Few states account for majority of the poor people

Though there is no consensus on the number of poor people, there is general agreement on where poor people are located. More than half the country's total poor people are located in the in the UNDAF states of Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh (Chart 1) (Table D, Annexure). What is intriguing is that poverty is not confined to the low income states alone. Even high income states such as Maharashtra and West Bengal are home to 9.65% and 7.09% of the total poor people respectively. When considered together with the UNDAF states, they account for over 70% of the total poor people in the country indicating the states where policy action needs to be better focused.

³³ Government of India (2009c)

Chart 1: Share of poor in states

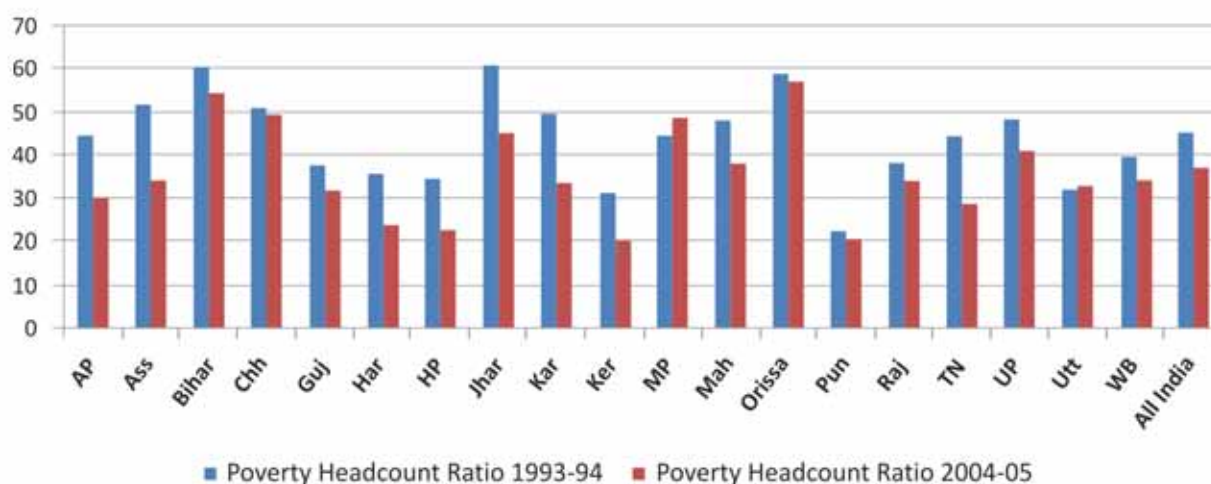


Source: Computed using 2004-05 data in Government of India (2009c)

Lack of correspondence between increase in incomes and poverty reduction

Chart 2 plots the changes in the poverty headcount ratios over the time period 1993-94 to 2004-05. It indicates a decline in the poverty headcount ratio at the all India level and for most states across the two time periods with the exception of Madhya Pradesh and Uttarakhand that experience a marginal increase in the poverty headcount ratio.

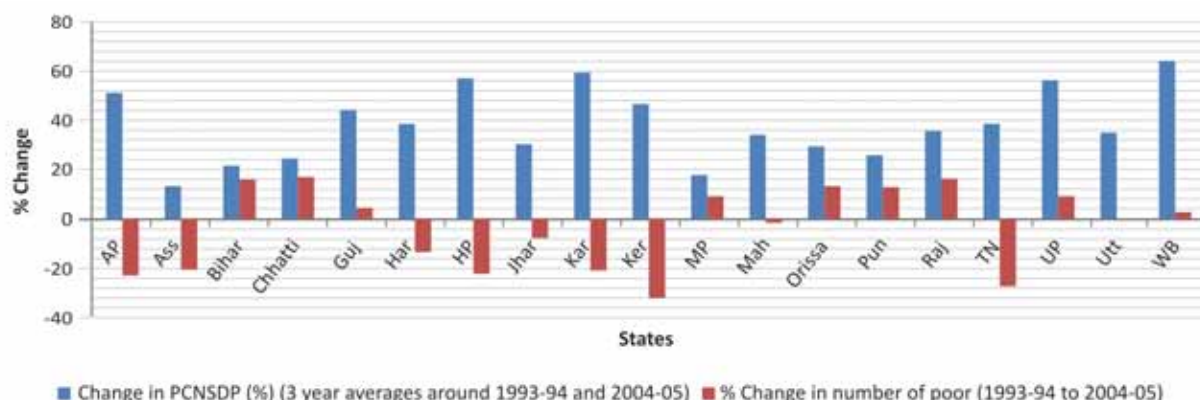
Chart 2: Poverty Headcount Ratios for States: 1993-94 and 2004-05



Source: Government of India (2009c)

However, when the decline in poverty is examined in terms of absolute numbers, it is evident that the progress in poverty reduction has not been commensurate with the high increase in per capita NSDP experienced by states (Chart 3). There has been an increase in the absolute number of poor people in the states of Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand and West Bengal. Assam's record in achieving a reduction in the number of poor is impressive as it has been achieved despite modest increase in per capita NSDP.

Chart 3: Changes in income and decline in total number of poor: 1993-94 to 2004-05



Source: MoSPI (2007) for State per capita NSDP figures; and poverty computations based on Government of India (2009c)

Concentration of poverty among specific regions within states

Poverty is concentrated in pockets within states. Almost 50% to 70% of population in rural areas of Jharkhand, northern and central Bihar, central, southern and south western Madhya Pradesh, inland central and inland eastern Maharashtra, southern Orissa and central, eastern and southern Uttar Pradesh lives below the poverty line. 20-43% of population in urban regions of inland southern and southwestern Andhra, northern Bihar, inland eastern and inland northern Karnataka, central, northern, southern and southwestern Madhya Pradesh as also Malwa, Vindhya and Chhattisgarh, regions, eastern, inland central, inland eastern and inland northern Maharashtra, coastal and southern Orissa and southern Uttar Pradesh live in severe poverty. In many regions (16 out of a total of 21), 45 % to 72% of the population lives below the poverty line³⁴. The Bundelkhand region is also fast emerging as a hotspot of poverty and deprivation. The reasons for these regions remaining poor are diverse. For example, with respect to the Bundelkhand region, the causes cited are the historically oppressive social relations of production (largely due to the zamindari system in vogue in these regions), domination of the upper castes in land ownership, neglect of traditional water management systems and the push towards water-intensive commercial crops- reasons which hold true of many of the other poor regions as well. The tribal dominated regions have additional issues of unequal rights to forest produce, displacement due to development projects and the like³⁵.

Urban poverty is increasingly assuming importance in view of the issues it raises and the challenges it poses for policy makers. In 2004-05 over a quarter of urban population (25.7%) was identified as poor. Among the states, Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra are prominent in terms of their shares in total urban poor. Maharashtra accounts for 14.38% of total urban poor in the country surpassed

³⁴ Mehta, A.,

³⁵ EPW (2010)

only by Uttar Pradesh with 16.13% share.³⁶ The other states with over 5% share are Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal. Urban poverty is more a function of the access of people to services such as shelter, health and stable employment and security of land tenure. While availability of services is not as much of a problem as in rural areas, the issue is one of access of these services to the poor indicating a phenomenon of urban penalty³⁷. The urban poor are unable to gain access to the formal and organized land markets and are compelled to live in places where the level of services is low. The unhygienic environment has serious implications for their health.

Box 3: Hunger and Poverty

An alarming fact is that India is home to the largest number of hungry people in the world. According to the Global Hunger Index (GHI) of the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)³⁸, in 2011 India ranked 67 out of 81 countries - below several countries in Sub Saharan Africa countries. The Indian State level Hunger Index finds 4 states, viz., Punjab, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh and Assam in the serious category, 12 other major states including Maharashtra and West Bengal are in the 'alarming' category as per their Global Hunger Index score. Madhya Pradesh has been classified as 'extremely alarming' and placed between Ethiopia and Chad in terms of hunger. Punjab, the best ranking Indian state is 33 on the Global Hunger Index while Kerala, the next best performing state, ranks 47, below sub Saharan African countries like Senegal and Uganda. The 2009 MDG Report indicates that progress on the All-India trend of the proportion of underweight (severe and moderate) children below 3 years of age shows India is slow indicating ineffectiveness in eliminating the underlying cause of malnourishment. The SCs and STs are the worst affected with the incidence of stunting and wasting among children being much higher.

The recent steep rise food prices has meant that the lower income groups have been excluded from accessing expensive food such as pulses, vegetables, oils, fruits and meat products. This leads to severe micro nutrient deficiency among the population. During 2010-11, the inflation in primary articles was 17.7%, fuel and power 12.2%³⁹. This high food price inflation is bound to affect the food security of the poor adversely as they spend a large proportion of their total consumption expenditure on food. In India, chronic or endemic hunger, that is hunger of the form where the body gets used to having less food than necessary for healthy development, is the most prevalent form. Hunger issues are also irrevocably linked to agrarian issues. The production structure in recent years in India has been dominated by surplus states and large farmers. Inadequate attention to dry land agriculture and food grains consumed by the poor has also affected their food security.

³⁶ Figures computed using data from Government of India (2009c)

³⁷ Nanda, A.R.,(2009)

³⁸ IFPRI (2011)

³⁹ Computation based on Wholesale Price Index for Primary articles and fuel as viewed on <http://eaindustry.nic.in/>

Marginalized men and women form majority of the poor⁴⁰

In addition to geographical concentration of poverty, people belonging to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and Muslims are largely located in the poorer states implying that they will be disproportionately represented among the poor in these states.

Dalits: The Scheduled Castes who constitute 16.23% of the Indian population have historically been socially ostracized, economically exploited and denied human dignity and a sense of self-worth. The people belonging to Scheduled Caste communities are spread all over the country and 80% of them living in rural areas. In 2004-2005 about 36.8% of SC persons were below the poverty line in rural areas as compared to only 28.3% for others (non-SC/ST). In urban areas the gap was slightly larger with 39.2% of SC households being below the poverty line (BPL) as compared to 25.7% of other households. As per the pilot survey conducted using the new Below Poverty Line methodology, around 50% of the poor were dalits.

Adivasis: Scheduled Tribes accounting for 8.2% of the total population of the country live largely in rural areas and account for around 10% of the total rural population. 52% of the ST population lives below the poverty line. Estimates indicate that 25% live in severe poverty. The De-notified and Nomadic Tribes constitute about 60 million of India's population⁴¹. There are 313 Nomadic Tribes and 198 De-notified Tribes. According to the Indian Confederation of Indigenous and Tribal People (2009), 80% of this population lives below the poverty line⁴².

Muslims: According to the Sachar Committee, 31% of Muslims live below the poverty line. The Committee has observed that the incidence of poverty among Muslims is higher in urban areas with 38.4% identified as being poor. Significantly, the fall in poverty for Muslims, according to the data provided to the Committee, has been "only modest during the decade 1993-94 to 2004-05 in urban areas, whereas the decline in rural areas has been substantial". The Committee found a "significant inverse association" between the proportion of Muslim population and educational and other infrastructure in small villages. Areas of Muslim concentration are, somehow, not well served with pucca approach roads and local bus stops.

Women: Studies also indicate that the female persons accounted for slightly less than half of the poor, about 49% in both rural and urban areas⁴³.

⁴⁰ This section draws from Government of India (2007)

⁴¹ However this merely a conjecture as there has been no census of this population

⁴² Ekta Parishad (2010), *Tribal Development : Challenges and opportunities*, Report of National consultation organised by Ekta Parishad and Planning Commission of India, mimeo

⁴³ Government of India (2006a), It should be noted that this measure of gender poverty ignores intra-household inequalities in consumption. There are other dimensions of poverty such as food insecurity, malnutrition and health associated more with female members.



D) High Economic growth unable to generate adequate employment and livelihood opportunities for the persistently excluded and marginalized

Inadequate employment and livelihoods for the poor people

India's population structure is characterized by a large number of people in the age group of 15-59. Projections indicate that the proportion of population in the working age group is likely to increase to 64% by 2021. The addition in population is likely to be in the relatively younger age group of 20-35 making India the youngest nation in the world with an average age of 29 years only. This however also implies that there will be an addition of approximately 63.5 million new entrants into the working age group between the year 2011 and 2016⁴⁴. Effectively employing such a large number of people so as to truly gain from the demographic dividend presents a key challenge facing India particularly as employment trends indicate that the labour force is growing at a faster pace than the increase in number of jobs created.

The incidence of unemployment on a current daily status declined from 8% in 2007-08 to 6.6% in 2009-10. The fall in unemployment rate is due to the fall in workforce participation rates (usual status principal and subsidiary) from 42% in 2005-06 to 39.2% in 2009-10, which can be attributed to the decline in female workforce participation rates of about 6 percentage points⁴⁵. Varied reasons are considered to be responsible for the decline in participation rates observed for females; one explanation is that higher wages in the economy have resulted in families withdrawing females from the workforce as a sign of higher social status whereas another explanation is that females are continuing to remain in the education stream for longer periods as a result of which they are unable to participate in the workforce.

Beyond the issue of unemployment, what is a matter of concern for India is the nature of employment. Over 92%⁴⁶ of the workforce is in the informal sector with the formal sector's absorption capacity remaining stagnant despite high economic growth. More than 50% of the workforce continues to be employed in the stagnant agricultural sector. The informal or the unorganized sector which was earlier believed to be a feature of the manufacturing sector alone has now become a characteristic feature of all the three sectors of the economy, viz., agriculture, industry and services both in the rural and urban areas⁴⁷.

Most of the women and men from SC and ST groups, migrants, minorities, displaced and women headed households are engaged in the informal sector⁴⁸ and are hence are highly vulnerable due to (a) poor access to livelihood assets – land, forests, water bodies and equipment, especially for

⁴⁴ Government of India (2010a), pg 2

⁴⁵ NSSO (2011)

⁴⁶ NCEUS (2007)

⁴⁷ Kannan (2008)

⁴⁸ NCEUS (2007) : 79.9% of poor and vulnerable OBC population, 87.8% of poor and vulnerable SC & ST population and 84.5% of poor and vulnerable population works in informal sector

women, SC, STs and slum dwellers who often do not have legal rights to land⁴⁹, (b) geographical challenges (mostly hilly and forest regions) and degraded natural resources and uncertainties due to frequent droughts and floods and other weather induced changes, (c) poor quality or mismatch between skills available and those required in the market, (d) lack of information and access to schemes, extension, finance, (e) poor access to markets and low prices for the produce/products, (f) social discrimination leading to their exclusion from economic opportunities and decision making processes, (g) poor access to health and education services, and (h) poor implementation of schemes that focus on rights and entitlements – minimum wages, decent work, social security benefits and access to common property resources.

Lack of financial services with large proportion of population as self-employed:

Self employment is a predominant feature of the unorganized sector employment in India which reflects the acute lack of employment opportunities⁵⁰. Despite the scale of the formal banking system and the microfinance movement and the policy initiatives undertaken by the Government, access to financial services continues to elude a majority of the poor. Only 22% of all poor households currently receive microfinance services and 50% of Self Help Group (SHG) members and only 30% of Micro Finance Institution (MFI) members are estimated to be below the poverty line (BPL)⁵¹. Agriculture and the poor within it remain largely excluded; 51% of farmer households are financially excluded from both formal/informal sources of credit, while 73% have no access to formal sources⁵². Social exclusion is also apparent in the access to financial services. The Sachar Committee Report highlighted that among socio-religious groups, a lower percentage of households in villages with high Muslim concentration avail banking facilities⁵³. This may be explained by the prohibition of interest in Islam and non-availability of banking facilities in these areas. In fact, the share of Muslims in total priority sector advances of public sector banks is much lower at 4.6% than their 13.4% share of the population. Also, the average amount outstanding per account is about one third for Muslims as compared to 'Others'⁵⁴, implying that on an average, loans to Muslims are smaller than those to other socio-religious communities. Traditionally, financial inclusion has been understood as opening a savings bank account and providing access to credit. The SHG Bank Linkage Program and MFIs too have focused on delivery of credit and also largely for consumption rather than production needs. However, an exclusive focus on credit can lead to undesirable consequences such as over-indebtedness, and may not yield desired results unless accompanied by measures to create livelihood opportunities⁵⁵. Another feature is that 'high risk groups' are often avoided. In India, the coverage of HIV/AIDS patients is purposely avoided by insurance providers, and so are areas with

⁴⁹ The assets of disadvantaged groups among the poor are characterized by small landholdings, rain-fed and drought prone agriculture, poor outreach of public investment and extension services, unclear/inadequate access rights to common property resources and in the case of certain groups especially SCs, STs and women, lack of ownership of agricultural land.

⁵⁰ NCEUS (2007)

⁵¹ Gbate (2007), p. 11

⁵² Government of India (2008)

⁵³ Government of India (2006b), p. 136

⁵⁴ Government of India (2006b), p. 127, Data cited here refer to Priority Sector Advances by Public Sector Banks. 'Others' refers to Non-Muslims excluding other Minorities.

⁵⁵ Government of India (2008c), Chapter 3, p. 2

a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS⁵⁶. The remote areas in which many disadvantaged groups such as tribals live also act as a deterrent for service providers, who avoid visiting them to generate product awareness or to service claims.

Low wage level, unemployment and lack of skill development:

The wage level of the poor is extremely low, particularly among the illiterate. While the daily average wage level of a non literate in 2005-06 was Rs. 72.1 in rural and 83.4 in urban areas, persons with secondary school education earn Rs. 142.4 and Rs. 178.3 in rural and urban areas respectively⁵⁷. Studies indicate that the implementation of MGNREGS has improved the situation by raising the wage levels in rural areas. However, in the absence of skill upgradation the poor will be confined to the lowest rungs of the wage ladder. Lack of skills is also the primary cause for unemployment among the youth. It also states that unemployment among urban youth is much worse than in rural areas. This is partially due to the gap between demand for skilled workers and their availability. The private sector, which is one of the key drivers fuelling India's growth story, needs skilled workers. However, 57% percent of India's youth suffer from some degree of skill deprivation⁵⁸. This is largely due to the fact that most of the educational and vocational training institutions are disconnected from what the market needs. When it comes to the poor and especially women, there are issues of access and affordability as well. As a result only 7% of the population in the 15- 29 age group has received some form of vocational training.

E) HIV prevalence on the decline, however new vulnerabilities due to migration are rising

Adult HIV prevalence at national level has continued its steady decline from 0.41% in 2000 through 0.36% in 2006 to 0.31% in 2009. All six high prevalence states show a declining trend. However the low prevalence states of Assam, Chandigarh, Orissa, Kerala, Jharkhand, Uttarakhand, Jammu and Kashmir, Arunachal Pradesh and Meghalaya have recorded a rising trend in the last four years. New HIV infections have declined by more than 50% over the past decade from 270000 in 2000 to 120000 in 2009. Of these, six high prevalent states account for only 39% of total prevalence while the States of Orissa, Bihar, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat together account for another 41% of new infections⁵⁹.

The integral link between poverty, migration and HIV is reflected in the situation in the Northern states in India, which account for more than 54% of the population living below poverty line⁶⁰, show very high out migration. Poverty is obviously an important push factor and so are the limited options of economic growth. Poverty is fueling migration even as migration is fueling HIV⁶¹. Migrant men are 4-13 times more likely to be infected by HIV than non migrants⁶².

⁵⁶ UNDP and Karuna Trust (2006) A Karuna Trust-UNDP pilot health insurance project in Karnataka has attempted to address this gap, and lessons can be drawn upon

⁵⁷ NSSO (2008)

⁵⁸ Team Lease Services (2007)

⁵⁹ NACO (2010)

⁶⁰ Computation based on Government of India (2009c)

⁶¹ For example, a recent study by UNDP-NACO and Population Council (2011) indicates that 75% of all new infections in the state of Bihar can be attributed to outward male migration.

⁶² UNDP-NACO-Population Council Study 2011

The effects of HIV are multifold. A study on the socio economic impact of HIV⁶³ indicates that medical expenditure increases four times as compared to non HIV affected households. The situation is more profound in the case of families who depend on daily wages for their survival as the relocation of medical expenditure invariably is from food. HIV affected households have lower assets as liquidation is one of the main coping mechanisms⁶⁴. HIV diminishes chances for men to migrate and earn a living. Consequently, the loss of income and survival of the family unit ultimately falls on women who are often illiterate, unskilled and culturally disempowered to take on this role reversal of being the main bread winner. The prevailing gender disparities ensure that women are at the worst receiving end, a fact highlighted with the increased feminization of the HIV epidemic from 19% to 39% within a decade⁶⁵. Amidst an extremely poverty stricken HIV affected household struggling to survive, external support is limited. The lack of social security net and access to entitlements is often a distant reality. The increase or decrease in the prevalence of HIV among women in some ways is a very strong indicator of the socio economic environment and in turn HIV has the capacity to reverse every positive stride the nation takes towards development⁶⁶. Social security net is not homogenous in nature, and thus not available to everyone. This lack of inclusivity to social security is further deepened if there is affiliation to further marginalized groups such as female sex workers, men who have sex with men. Particularly striking is the case of transgenders and hijras who are discriminated against and left behind in development programmes and policies. In many a cases it is even difficult to prove their existence or presence as a legitimate work force of the country. The intentional invisibility prescribed to these groups acts as a constraint to mainstream them.

F) Environmental resources and energy important for inclusive growth, but unsustainable development patterns likely to increase vulnerabilities

India is one of the 17 mega-diverse countries⁶⁷, with four global biodiversity hotspots. Forest based biological resources contribute to livelihoods security and ecological services. 275 million⁶⁸ people residing in and around forests, mainly tribals, derive a significant portion of their income from non-timber forest produce. However, 41% of forest cover in India is considered degraded⁶⁹. Of India's land area of around 230 million hectares, about 188 million hectares (57% app.) is degraded⁷⁰.

Around 68% of cultivable land in India is prone to drought of varying intensities and around 12% of total land is flood prone. India's lengthy coastline and deserts are among the most densely populated for the respective ecosystems. India is one of the 10 worst disaster prone countries of the world. Diverse factors, natural and human induced, adverse geo-climatic conditions, topographic features, environmental degradation, population growth, urbanization, industrialization and unscientific development practices play a huge role in accelerating the intensity and frequency of disasters

⁶³ UNDP-NACO-Population Council Study 2011

⁶⁴ 43% of the HIV affected households have either borrowed money or liquidated assets.

⁶⁵ UNDP-NCAER (2006)

⁶⁶ Pradhan et al (2006)

⁶⁷ MoEF (2009)

⁶⁸ World Bank (2006)

⁶⁹ MoEF (2006)

⁷⁰ MoEF (2001)

resulting in huge economic losses and human casualties. These coupled with the impact of climate change and climate variability, are accentuating disaster impacts and underscore the criticality of promoting disaster-resilience and risk reduction practices. Out of 35 states and union territories in the country, 27 are prone to different disasters⁷¹.

Groundwater, which accounts for 90 % of total drinking water supply in rural areas, is rapidly depleting. Combining quantity and quality of groundwater, a total of 347 districts (or 59% of all districts) have problems related to either the quantitative availability or quality of groundwater⁷². This clearly indicates the severity of India's current groundwater challenge. Groundwater irrigation has been expanding at a very rapid pace in India and now accounts for over 60% of the area irrigated in the country. With such phenomenal growth in groundwater withdrawals, India is fast hurtling towards what is being called "groundwater anarchy"⁷³.

On the one hand India faces an urgent need to sustain agricultural growth rates at 4% to ensure food security and incomes for the majority of population employed in agriculture, while on the other hand regions with high agricultural productivity are facing yield fatigue and declining returns to fertilizers. This places added urgency to work on reversing land degradation and managing scarce water resources. The Indian Prime Minister acknowledged⁷⁴ at the Planning Commission that challenges relating to water, energy and urbanisation are likely to become more severe.

Impending climate change adds to this set of challenges. It is now undeniably evident that the global climate is changing as a result of human induced greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. While per capita emissions of GHGs as well as Indian GDP's GHG intensity is very low by global standards, India is still the world's fourth largest emitter of GHGs. Higher growth will require energy consumption to grow, which will result in higher emissions. With current technology, India can adopt a trajectory more efficient than that observed for other countries. India has committed to reduce the GHG intensity of its GDP by 20-25% of 2005 levels by 2020. India has also committed that Indian per capita emissions will never exceed that of developed countries. For this, India needs a) energy efficiency and b) greater reliance on renewable energy and alternate fuels.

Of the total final commercial energy consumption (million tonne oil equivalent) in India, the industrial sector consumes around 45%, the transport sector consumes 17.5% and buildings another 15%⁷⁵. In the industrial sector, small and medium enterprises which play an important role in employment generation are relatively inefficient users of energy. Energy efficiency in these units will not merely reduce GHG emissions but also contribute to the economic viability of such enterprises. Pilot initiatives in steel rerolling mills and tea-leaf processing units have demonstrated energy savings of 20-35%⁷⁶. The transport sector generated 7.5% of total GHG emission in India in 2007, in addition to

⁷¹ Government of India (2011)

⁷² Vijayshankar, Kulkarni and Krishnan (2011)

⁷³ Shah T., (2009)

⁷⁴ in his speech on April 21 at the full Planning Commission Meeting

⁷⁵ TERI (2009)

⁷⁶ Government of India (2010c)

consuming a significant portion of electricity⁷⁷. There is substantial scope for energy efficiency (and GHG emission reduction) in the Indian Railways and urban transportation. Of the building sector, commercial building space accounts for 33%. The present commercial building space in India was approximately 292 million sq. m. in year 2005. The total emission from already existing commercial space is about 73.77 million tones of CO₂ annually (more than 4% of total Indian GHG emissions in year 2007). The building sector is growing at 8 to 10% annually. There exist opportunities to reduce energy consumption by 20 to 50% (fossil fuels as well as electricity) in commercial buildings. This needs a transition from the current voluntary energy efficiency code for commercial buildings to a mandatory code⁷⁸.

With a rural population of over 700 million directly dependent on climate-sensitive sectors (agriculture, forests and fisheries) and natural resources (water, biodiversity, mangroves, coastal zones, grasslands) for their subsistence and livelihoods, climate change will increasingly contribute to their growing vulnerability. Simulation models show an increase in the frequency of tropical cyclones in the Bay of Bengal and sea level rise in coastal zones displacing populations, increasing flooding in low-lying areas, and reducing crop yields due to inundation and salinization⁷⁹. There is growing scientific agreement that climate change will increase the frequency and intensity of some hydro-meteorological disasters, posing new challenges for disaster managers⁸⁰. With rising mean temperatures and sea-levels, more intense rainfall, and more frequent extreme weather events, climate change intensifies the challenges faced by agriculture and allied (fishery, animal husbandry) sectors, threats to habitations are high and will generate changes in morbidity patterns. The poor, particularly women, will be disproportionately affected by climate change which threatens efforts to reach the Millennium Development Goals. The National Action Plan for Climate Change (NAPCC)⁸¹ notes that “The impacts of climate change could prove particularly severe for women. With climate change, there would be an increasing scarcity of water, reduction of yields in forest biomass, and increased risks to human health for children, women and the elderly in a household becoming the most vulnerable. With the possibility of decline in the availability of food grains, the threat of malnutrition may also increase. All these would add to deprivations that many women already encounter and so in each of the Adaptation programmes, special attention should be paid to the aspect of gender”

The integration of disaster risk reduction into national and local development policies and plans is one of the key processes to promote a sustainable and resilient development paradigm. Communities also need to be supported in adopting and incorporating risk reduction concerns into their day-to-day lives, livelihoods and occupational patterns. However, it needs to be recognized that mitigation measures as well as increasing the nation’s coping capacity will increase incremental capital-output ratios, even while it may offer operational efficiencies in the medium run. Adaptation strategies also require greater investment in production systems based on natural resources, in infrastructure

⁷⁷ MoEF (2007)

⁷⁸ Government of India (2008e), Government of India (2008f)

⁷⁹ MoEF (2010)

⁸⁰ IPCC (2007)

⁸¹ Government of India (2008b)

(e.g. all culverts have to be raised to cope with higher floods), in service provision, (including health services) and habitat. Under the UN-agreed 'common but differentiated responsibility', there is a need to look at supportive global flows of technology and funds to support India's low-carbon climate resilient development.

Ten cities, namely, Ahmedabad, Bengaluru, Chennai, Hyderabad, Jaipur, Kanpur, Kolkata, Mumbai, Pune and Surat, and will have populations of over 4 million in 2025 and these mega cities with a combined population of 127 million will account for 24% of the total urban population in the country⁸². Climate-change risk is expected to increase the frequency and intensity of current hazards, an increased probability of extreme events, spur the emergence of new hazards (e.g. sea-level rise) and increase vulnerabilities with respect to diseases, and threaten food, water and livelihood security. This is expected to further degrade the resilience and coping capacities of poor and vulnerable communities in Indian cities⁸³.

Given these challenges, India needs to prepare for the future with an effective adaptation strategy, even while science evolves to make more accurate predictions. Indian needs to take some 'no-regrets' steps immediately. Short-term disasters and the longer-term effects of climate change can threaten people's abilities to lead long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable, to have a decent standard of living, and to participate in community life with dignity and self-respect. Disaster Risk Management needs to 'significantly shift its approach to risk calculation and intervention design to incorporate climate modeling and its associated uncertainty⁸⁴'.

The Green India Mission aims at afforestation and eco-restoration in 10 million hectares, with close involvement of communities⁸⁵. The National Mission on Energy Efficiency has identified 685 units in nine industrial sectors as designated consumers (based on intensity of energy use): aluminum, cement, chlor-alkali, fertilizer, pulp and paper, power, iron and steel, textiles and railways⁸⁶. The Mission aims at greater energy efficiency in these priority sectors. Other Missions include one on Sustainable Habitat, one on water, one on sustainable agriculture and a Solar Mission. In addition, states are required to prepare State Action Plans too⁸⁷. These national initiatives offer UNDP opportunities to work closely with the government on climate change mitigation and adaptation.

⁸² Johnson, C., (2011)

⁸³ Satterthwaite et. al, 2007

⁸⁴ Mitchell, Ibrahim, Harris et al. (2010)

⁸⁵ Verma D., (2011)

⁸⁶ Government of India ()

⁸⁷ Government of India (2008b)



III) Way Forward

As the situational analysis highlights, the root cause for the diverse and multi dimensional challenges that face India is inequality not only in income but also in the access to opportunities. Despite the Government of India's thrust on inclusive growth, the effectiveness of various initiatives is limited by implementation challenges, lack of transparency, weak monitoring, and inability of the poor women and men, especially those belonging to the marginalized groups to participate and articulate their needs and aspirations. The multidimensional nature of poverty among persistently excluded communities is accentuated by the lack of access to skills, employment and credit with women and urban poor being the most disadvantaged. Though the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is declining, new vulnerabilities have emerged among migrants from poorer states. It is estimated that 27 of the 35 States in India are prone to disaster risks. In addition, impending climate change has rendered the a large section of rural population dependent on climate sensitive sectors vulnerable to risks that threaten food, health, water and livelihood security.

Given the prevailing situation in the country, the objectives of the XIIth Five Year Plan, and UNDP's mandate, UNDP will continue to focus on the human development approach. The new Country Programme will be designed on the basic principles of human development – equity, efficiency, participation and empowerment, and sustainability which will inform all UNDP initiatives.

UNDP's is well recognized for the support to analysis of the human development situation at the national and sub-national levels in partnership with the Planning Commission for the preparation of Human Development Reports in which India has already acquired a leadership position with the highest number of government owned state and district level HDRs globally⁸⁸. In continuation of this highly acclaimed initiative, efforts have already been made towards moving beyond analysis to action. This has enabled the application of the human development approach to programmes and policies at national and sub-national levels which could be strengthened, particularly with the objective of addressing inequality and persistent exclusion across all practice areas.

UNDP is also well positioned to address deep rooted governance challenges and support the enhancement of efficiency in implementation mechanisms through identification of specific bottlenecks. UNDP's support to strengthening implementation of government programmes like the MGNREGS through better systems for outcome monitoring, transparency and accountability will be catalytic. UNDP's acknowledged expertise in capacity development can be brought to bear to develop capacities of duty bearers at national and state levels to ensure access to justice. UNDP has been engaged in initiatives that expand democratic space for the most excluded and marginalized through platforms for dialogue and feedback between the administration, elected representatives and citizens. This experience can be harnessed to support the engagement of marginalized groups in the monitoring and implementation of the XIIth Plan and in decentralized planning, so as to ensure that they have a greater voice in decision-making. The capacities of elected women representatives will need to be enhanced to ensure better accountability, transparency, responsiveness and inclusiveness

⁸⁸ 26 State HDRs and 44 District HDRs have been released thus far with over 40 District HDRs under various stages of preparation

in public service delivery and better quality of services. In select states, UNDP in collaboration with other UN agencies is well positioned to support capacity development of the judiciary for gender-sensitive application of laws concerning and affecting women and girls by 2017.

To address the challenge of creating sustainable livelihood opportunities, the thrust of UNDP support needs to be on demonstrating effective models for self-employment and empowering poor women to organize their production systems at individual and collective levels even while continuing its engagement with national flagship programmes such as National Rural Livelihood Mission, National Skills Mission and the national mandate for financial inclusion to improve their effectiveness and outreach to disadvantaged population groups and regions. In view of the challenges faced by the urban poor, UNDP's engagement with formulation and testing of strategies that address specific vulnerabilities of the urban poor will be crucial as multi-stakeholder dialogue brings the voices and concerns of the urban poor into policy-making and enables the urban poor in accessing their rights and entitlements. UNDP will also need to work towards ensuring that poor women, especially those belonging to the marginalized groups such as people living with HIV/AIDS, ultra poor, female-headed households, are engaged in the growth process and also derive benefits from it.

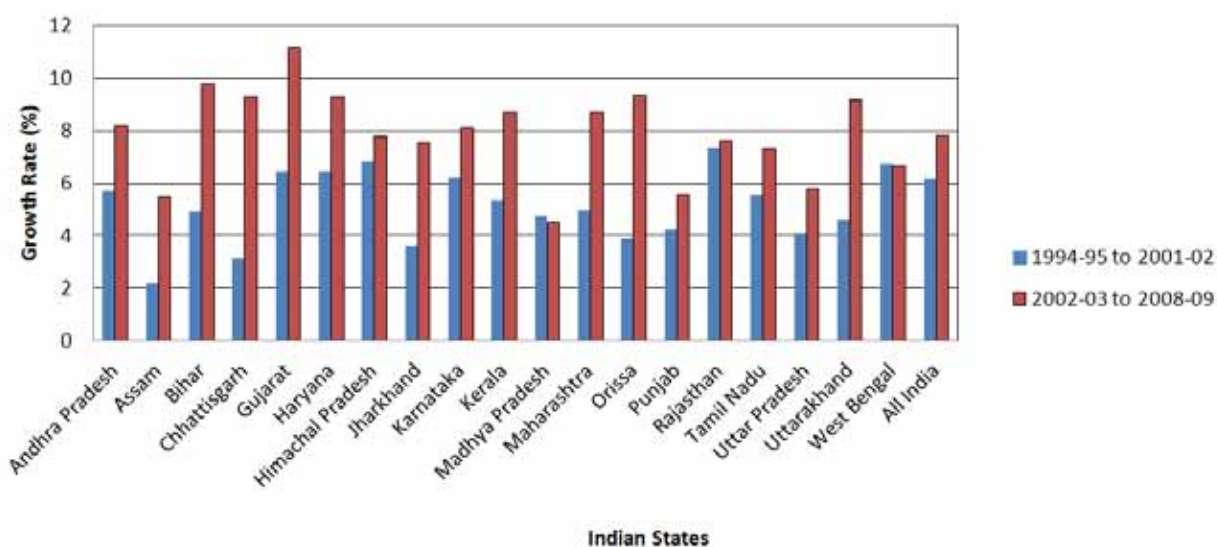
The integration of disaster risk reduction into national disaster management policies and development programmes will be critical for promoting a sustainable and resilient development paradigm. UNDP's focus will be to ensure low-carbon, climate resilient growth and on maximizing linkages between energy, environment, disaster management and sustainable livelihoods through support to the State governments to prepare State Action Plans on Climate Change and disaster management. Strengthening capacities of key institutions at the national, state and local levels, community institutions mandated for disaster preparedness and biodiversity management, as well as the Urban Local Bodies in a gender sensitive manner would be critical for the purpose. Improving energy efficiency in key sectors such as small and medium enterprises, building and transport, in partnership with the private sector will be essential and there is a need to develop pilots on the valuation of ecosystem services and on mainstreaming conservation in production sectors. UNDP's support to the government in its efforts to improve water governance and integrated water management and to address land degradation issues will be relevant and strategic.

UNDP's response to HIV/AIDS needs to concentrate on building management and technical capacities of duty bearers at different levels in order to deliver non-discriminatory and gender-sensitive HIV services to vulnerable populations. Programmatic measures will need to be taken to systematically empower community groups to demand equitable access to social, legal and economic protection. Issues of HIV vulnerability of women from migrant households as well as transgenders need attention. Strong advocacy is needed for pro health policies and trade instruments that ensure universal access to health.

These initiatives, individually and collectively when implemented alongside the main government programmes and with the support of community networks would have an important role in supporting the Government of India in achieving transformative change that ensures low-carbon, climate resilient, people centered development.

Annexure

Chart A: Real growth rates of GSDP across Indian States



Source: Government of India (2011a)

Table A : Top 3 and bottom 3 states in India in terms of per capita NSDP (1999-2009)

Bottom 3 states (1999-02)	
State / Union Territory	PC NSDP
Bihar	6111
Uttar Pradesh	9714
Orissa	10509

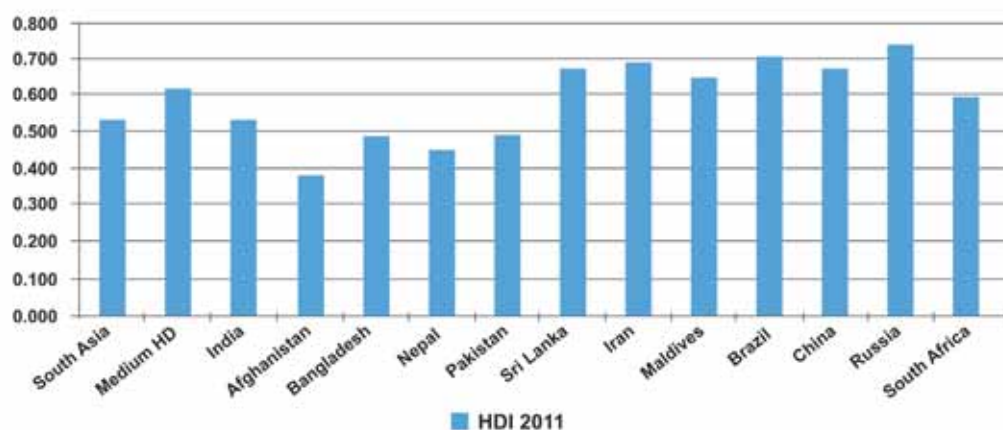
Top 3 states (1999-02)	
State / Union Territory	PC NSDP
Punjab	25870
Haryana	24428
Maharashtra	22387

Bottom 3 states (2006-09)	
State / Union Territory	PC NSDP
Bihar	9086
Uttar Pradesh	11918
Madhya Pradesh	13160

Top 3 states (2006-09)	
State / Union Territory	PC NSDP
Haryana	39342
Kerala	33102
Maharashtra	32529

Source: RBI (2010)

Chart B: Human development index across countries in south asia and BRICS



Source: UNDP (2011a)

Table B: Human development index for states in India

State	HDI	Rank	HDI	Rank
	1999-2000	1999-2000	2007-08	2007-08
Kerala	0.667	2	0.79	1
Delhi	0.783	1	0.75	2
Himachal Pradesh	0.581	4	0.652	3
Goa	0.595	3	0.617	4
Punjab	0.543	5	0.605	5
NE (excluding Assam)	0.473	9	0.573	6
Maharashtra	0.501	6	0.572	7
Tamil Nadu	0.48	8	0.57	8
Haryana	0.501	7	0.552	9
Jammu and Kashmir	0.465	11	0.529	10
Gujarat	0.466	10	0.527	11
Karnataka	0.432	12	0.519	12
West Bengal	0.422	13	0.492	13
Uttarakhand	0.339	16	0.49	14
Andhra Pradesh	0.368	15	0.473	15
Assam	0.336	17	0.444	16
Rajasthan	0.387	14	0.434	17
Uttar Pradesh	0.316	18	0.38	18
Jharkhand	0.268	23	0.376	19
Madhya Pradesh	0.285	20	0.375	20
Bihar	0.292	19	0.367	21
Orissa	0.275	22	0.362	22
Chhattisgarh	0.287	21	0.358	23
All India	0.387		0.467	

Source: IAMR (2011)

Table C: Bottom and top 3 states on GDI and GEM

Bottom 3 states with respect to GDI (2006)	
State	Value
Bihar	0.479
Uttar Pradesh	0.509
Madhya Pradesh	0.516

Bottom 3 states with respect to GEM (2006)	
State	Value
Nagaland	0.289
Meghalaya	0.346
Jammu & Kashmir	0.355

Top 3 states with respect to GDI (2006)	
State	GDI
Goa	0.747
Kerala	0.745
Manipur	0.699

Top 3 states with respect to GEM (2006)	
State	Value
Goa	0.551
Andhra Pradesh	0.547
Himachal Pradesh	0.54

Source: Government of India and UNDP (2009b)

Table D: Location of the Poor

MDG report	Tendulkar Committee report	MPI	HDI 2001	GDI	IHDI	Extremist affected States /Districts
Bihar	Bihar	Bihar	Bihar	Bihar	Bihar	Bihar (Arwal, Aurangabad, Jamui, Jehanabad, Gaya and Rohtas)
Orissa	Orissa	Orissa	Orissa	Orissa	Orissa	Orissa (Deoghar, Gajapati, Rayagada, Sambalpur, Malakaniri)
Jharkhand	Jharkhand	Jharkhand	Jharkhand	Jharkhand	Jharkhand	Jharkhand (Bokaro, Chatra, Garhwa, Gumla, East Singhbhum, West Singhbhum, Hazaribagh, Lohardarga, Palamu, Lathehar)
Chhattisgarh	Chhattisgarh	Chhattisgarh	Chhattisgarh	Chhattisgarh	Chhattisgarh	Chhattisgarh (Dantewada, Bijapur, Narayanpur, Bastar, Kankar, Ranjnandgaon, Surguja)

Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh (Balaghat)
Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh (Sonabhadra)
XX	XX	Rajasthan	Rajasthan	Rajasthan	Rajasthan	XX
Maharashtra	Maharashtra	XX	XX	XX	XX	Maharashtra (Gadchiroli, Gondiya)
XX	XX	XX	XX	XX	Andhra Pradesh	AP (Khammam)
Uttarakhand		West Bengal	Assam	Jammu & Kashmir		

Source: Government of India (2009b), UNDP (2011), Government of India (2009c), OPHI (2010), Government of India (2002)

Table E : Trends in poverty headcount ratio (1993-94 to 2009-10)

	Poverty Headcount Ratio (PHR) (%)			Difference in PHR (1993-2010)
	1993-94	2004-05	2009-10	
Andhra Pradesh	44.6	29.9	20.0	-24.6
Assam	51.8	34.4	39.2	-12.6
Bihar	60.5	54.4	54.8	-5.7
Chhattisgarh	50.9	49.4		
Gujarat	37.8	31.8	26.6	-11.2
Haryana	35.9	24.1	23.8	-12.1
Himachal Pradesh	34.6	22.9	11.7	-22.9
Jharkhand	60.7	45.3		
Karnataka	49.5	33.4	26.5	-23
Kerala	31.3	19.7	11.3	-20
Madhya Pradesh	44.6	48.6	40.5	-4.1
Maharashtra	47.8	38.1	26.4	-21.4
Orissa	59.1	57.2	46.4	-12.7
Punjab	22.4	20.9	19.3	-3.1
Rajasthan	38.3	34.4	29.4	-8.9
Tamil Nadu	44.6	28.9	18.3	-26.3
Uttar Pradesh	48.4	40.9	40.5	-7.9
Uttaranchal	32.0	32.7		
West Bengal	39.4	34.3	32.5	-6.9
All India	45.3	37.2	32.2	-13.1

Source: Government of India (2009c); 2009-10 figures are estimates as cited in Ahluwalia (2011)

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