

**Development and Socially Inclusive Urbanization:
The Case of Access to Basic Amenities in Peri-Urban
Telangana**

*A Thesis Submitted to the University of Hyderabad
in partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of degree of*

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

**IN
ECONOMICS**

**BY
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**SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
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DECEMBER 2021**

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in

ECONOMICS

By

Under the supervision of

DR.G.VIJAY



**SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
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HYDERABAD -500046
DECEMBER 2021**



CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**Development and Socially Inclusive Urbanization: The Case of Access to Basic Amenities in Peri-Urban Telangana**” submitted by **Mr. Siriman Naveen** bearing registration number 15SEPH27 in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of **Doctor of Philosophy** in the School of Economics is a bonafide work carried out by him under my supervision and guidance. This thesis is free from plagiarism and has not been submitted previously in part or in full to this or any other university or institution for award of any degree or diploma.

Parts of this thesis have been:

A. Published in the following publication:

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Further, the student has passed the following courses towards fulfilment of the coursework requirement for Ph.D./was exempted from doing coursework (recommended by Doctoral Committee) on the basis of the following courses passed during his M.Phil. Program and the M.Phil. Degree was awarded:


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3.	EC703	Research Methodology	4	PASS
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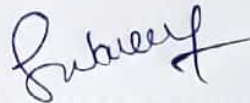
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DECLARATION

I, Siriman Naveen, hereby declare that this thesis entitled “**Development and Socially Inclusive Urbanization: The Case of Access to Basic Amenities in Peri-Urban Telangana**”, submitted by me under the guidance and supervision of **Dr. G. Vijay** is a bonafide research work which is also free from plagiarism. I also declare that it has not been submitted previously in part or in full to this University or any other University or Institution for the award of any degree or diploma. I hereby agree that my thesis can be deposited in Shodhganga/INFLIBNET.

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Siriman Naveen

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Abbreviations

BIDs	:	Business Improvement Districts
BPPA	:	Buddha Poornima Project Authority
CAA	:	Constitutional Amendment Act
CDA	:	Cyberabad Development Authority
CEC	:	Consumption expenditure classes
DDA	:	Delhi Development Authority
FDI	:	Foreign Direct Investment
FSI	:	Floor Space Index
GDP	:	Gross domestic product
GWMC	:	The Greater Warangal Municipal Corporation
HADA	:	Hyderabad Airport Development Authority
HMDA	:	Hyderabad Metropolitan Development Authority
HMR	:	Hyderabad metropolitan
HUDA	:	Hyderabad Urban Development Authority
IALA	:	Industrial Area Local Authority
ICT	:	Information and Communication Technology
IT	:	Information Technology
MMC	:	Mumbai Metro Corridor

MMR	:	Mumbai Metropolitan Region
NEP	:	New Economic Policy
NGOs	:	Non-governmental Organizations
NIC	:	National Industrial Classification
NPM	:	New public management
NSDF	:	National Skill Development Fund
NSSO	:	The National Sample Survey Office
NULM	:	National Urban Livelihood Mission
NUP	:	New Urban Policies
OBCs	:	Other Backward Castes
PMAY	:	Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana
PPP	:	Public-Private Partnership
RAY	:	Rajiv Awas Yojana
RWAs	:	Residential Welfare Associations
SCCL	:	The Singareni Collieries Company Limited
SCs	:	Scheduled Castes
SEZs	:	Special Economic Zones
SJSRY	:	Swarna Jayanti Sheheri Rozgar Yojana
STs	:	Scheduled Tribes
U.S	:	United States

UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programs
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund.
USAID	:	The United States Agency for International Development
WTO	:	World Trade Organization

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Urbanization has been defined and approached in a variety of ways. While the definitions can be broadly classified into general (demographic), occupational, and administration based definitions, the relevant set of approaches, On the other hand, this study, can be identified by the following themes; 1. Literature on Peri-urban or Suburbanization, 2. Literature on Urban governance and policies, 3. Literature on Urban Land, 4.literature on Neo-liberal or New urban policies impact on urbanization and, 5. Mitigation mechanism for improvement in living conditions in urban space.

In today's society, the concept of urbanization has become a hot topic of discussion. In developing economies, urbanization has indeed been increasing dramatically. India has experienced rapid urbanization as a result of both push and pull factors, especially in the post-liberalization era. Simultaneously, the worldwide economy is gaining importance in urban development. In development analysis, the most common assumption is that urbanization is closely linked to development and urbanization. (Kasarda J.D and Crenshaw, E.M. 1991). "The general definition of urbanization is a population shift from rural to urban areas and the gradual increase in the population living in the urban area and in which each society adapts to the change."¹

According to the 2011 census, there are 53 cities in India with a million or more population; by 2031, that number will be expected to increase to 87. Some of these metropolitan cities will develop as main financial powerhouses with higher gross domestic products than the current gross domestic product of countries, for instance,

¹U.S. National Library of Medicine, 2014.

Portugal, the UAE, and Israel. Cities deliver significant prospects for sustainable development. They have tremendous numbers of people in a small range and offer substantial economies of scale that offer employment, shelter, and services. It is critical to fully achieve Indian cities' ecological, economic, and social sustainability potential. However, inclusive planning that offers inexpensive transportation, constant supply of water, modern sewage treatment, and a sound solid waste management system is the only way to harness and sustain rising urbanization. India's government has been channeling resources to rejuvenate its urban environments through different initiatives and fine-tuning its urbanization tactics by recording successful and unsuccessful projects. It is also starting to recognize the significance of Public-Private Partnerships

According to the Oxford Economics Global Cities Study (2018), India will be home to 17 of the world's 20 fastest-growing cities between 2019 and 2035. The report has also revealed that Indian cities are likely to contribute to 70% of India's GDP by 2030. All of these conclusions are reflected in the exponential rate of urbanization that the country is experiencing. Whereas this is a turn on the road to more incredible economic growth, it also comes with challenges concerning liveability. Metropolitans are the centers of economic progress and job creation. The agglomeration economies guarantee stable growth, supplementary drawing in the talent pool from different parts of the nation, leading to better invention and quicker economic growth. Though, it also requires more people to move to urban agglomerations. Since Indian cities have grown up in an unplanned manner, they are not fully prepared to deliver basic services such as shelter, drinking water and, hygiene to the increasing number of inhabitants. Henceforth, despite high economic growth, Indian cities are also the centers of high-income disparity and poor quality of living style and life.

Several undeveloped countries' infrastructure and facilities for providing essential services to people residing in overcrowded urban centers, the epicentres of their development, are overloaded or undersupplied. In terms of diverse capacities, this has led to low living conditions and widespread poverty. Considering people's

well-being and decent living conditions, access to basic facilities namely water supply, sewage, power, and drainage is critical. It enables families to spend their time more efficiently and meaningfully rather than arranging for missing utilities. The value of this availability has been acknowledged both internationally and nationally, because it acts as a separating line between different kinds of impoverishment (Kumar, A. 2015). In 2000, 189 countries pledged to fulfill the Millennium Development Goals, aiming to lift people out of extreme poverty and multiple deprivations by 2015. Many other international institutions, like the United Nations, the World Bank, as well as the Asian Development Bank, have recently advocated for the provision of basic utilities to improve citizens' quality of life (Thorat, S and Dubey, A. 2012). With all these initiatives, India's dwelling standards and amenities in terms of the kinds of dwelling structures and communities' water supply, drainage, power, as well as other utilities have improved significantly throughout the decades in urban India. Even so, a substantial share of households lacks basic facilities and safe and affordable housing, especially in the rural and small and mid-municipalities, particularly ones actually belonged to disadvantaged people which including STs, SCs, and the economically poor; Bhagat, R.B. 2013, Dreze, J., and Sen, A. 2013; Kumar, A. 2013, Srinivasan, K., and Mohanty, 2004). Discrimination in the provisioning of basic services is very large in different city size across the states. There exist the disparity of investments in building infrastructure and provision of basic services across different city size in the past few decades. State governments and para-statal agencies have neglected in the development of infrastructure in the small and medium city. Regrettably, new model of governance like public-privatization partnership and community-based projects that are being anticipated as alternatives have not been able to fill the emptiness shaped by the withdrawal of the State. Planners and policymakers have in recent years have advocated for urban local bodies and para-statal agencies to source of efficient, and accountable functioning institution to maintain their internal resources and institutional finance (Kundu, 2011; Kennedy, L., & Zérah, M. H. (2008); Banerjee-Guha, S., 2009).

A major failure of city governance has been the incapability to address the basic needs

of the urban poor, and this is a manifestation of exclusionary urbanization, which prevents or discourages in-migration of the low socio-economic groups from gaining a meaningful employment opportunity in cities and a sweltering dynamic of development at the lowest level of the urban hierarchy (Kundu, A. 2011; Mahadevia, D., 2011). Additionally, widespread prejudice has resulted in the denial of basic utilities to India's underprivileged that primarily maintains caste system inequities in urban spaces. As a result, achieving the objective of an "inclusive economy" necessitates immediate and legal curative efforts, as well as other anti-poverty and sustainable growth initiatives to supplement them (Thorat, S, and Newman, K.S 2007; Thorat, S and Sabharwal, N.S. 2011). In past decade, many policy measures at national, sub-national, and global level have emphasized the importance of basic amenities in ensuring people's physical, psychological, social, and economic security, as well as recognizing the need of urban planning in development of existing urban areas. However, in providing adequate basic services, there are problem such as disparities among social groups, city size, regional imbalances, exclusionary nature of urbanization, and empowerment of local governance bodies. These obstacles need to be addressed on a priority basis.

According to the United Nations report of 2014, 54% of the population resides in cities and is expected to upsurge 66% by 2050. The forecasts demonstrate that urbanization along with the overgrowth of the world population could add another 2.5 billion people to the urban population by 2050, with close to 90% of the rise concentrated in Asian and African countries. The expanding nature of urbanization is uneven among the cities, and it led to unemployment or a low level of absorption of migrants and urban poor in the process of development and expansion. According to the World Bank annual report (2010), in the case of developing countries like India. There is unequal development within megacities.

In contrast to the megalopolitan and urban trend in the western countries, Asia's urbanization patterns in are primate patterns, with a distinct urban-rural divide. Part of the primate pattern is due to colonial history, and part is due to sector-oriented

national development policies. In contrast to the primate and high-income nations, low-income Asiatic countries display spatial patterns show geographical patterns in which the primate metropolises stand out as enclaves of development poles with sharp distance decline in the level of development. India's primate cities like Calcutta and Bombay, carry the imprint of colonialism. These cities function as an enclave with extra-regional links in the early decades since independence and it has evolved over the last century or so in the colonial period.

The cities' socio-economic and demographic characteristics essentially reflect a "core-periphery exploitative relationship". The failure of the primate cities to "diffuse development" was attributed to the overall low development level attributed to the wider economic system (McGee, T.G. 1971). The process underlying primate urban patterns is correlated with underdevelopment, lesser nutritious, inferior quality food consumption, and low education level. These characteristics is typically associated with Asia and all developing countries (Berry, B.J.L. 1973). Here, the important element is the overall and continuous rapid population growth in rural and urban area. The process of uneven economic development and social transformation which shows the gap between the rural and urban population is categories as pseudo-urbanization (McGee T.G. 1971), false urbanization (Kanteseboskaya, I.V. 1976), and dysfunctional urbanization (Moonis, Raza, et al.1979).

Japan illustrates the blending of Megalopolitanism of western types with the typical village rooted rural way of life, built around kinship and ethnic ties with the local neighborhood. Urbanization pattern in Japan differs with Western and Asia's (Berry, B.J.L. 1973). with its highly polarized and geographically imbalanced metropolitan structure, strong urban-rural, and core-periphery dichotomy, India is a classic case of dual and transitional patterns. In India, acute regional urban clusters, inert metropolitan links, and everyday urban systems with expanding distance range and high mobility are evolving, albeit with a diverse structure and low intensity level. A million cities form a national metropolitan system with extensive international connections, exhibiting some post-industrial structural characteristics.

On the other hand, migration constitutes the foundation of urbanization and is one of the major components of urban growth. There is a view that urbanization process slows down with the decline of migration to urban areas. Yet urban centers grow partly because of natural increase of population and partly by inter-city mobility. Migration-less situation could be recognized as an urban continuum in terms of redistribution of the population, which is the consequence of the very process of development (DuToit, Brian. M, 1990).

There are various viewpoints and disputes on urbanization, with the main points of contention being urban alienation, displacement, unequal urbanization, informalization of the urban economy, the socioeconomic aspect of transformations, and the political economy of change development and preparation. The terms "sustainable," "inclusive growth," and "competitive city" are well-aware and frequently used by planners and lawmakers, and they are all linked to the above-mentioned arguments.

1.1.1. Urban Definition

"The term urban is embraced multi-dimensional structures, for example, social, administrative, political, geographical, administrative, economical and physical. It is generally associated with quality of life and quality of the environment" (Basiago, A. D, 1999).

"The term urban demarcated by giving some features to the urban in the 1961 census, they are

- 1. Minimum population of 5,000.*
- 2. 75% of the male population engaged in non-agriculture activities.*
- 3. A density of at least 1000 per square meter.*

4. *Distinct urban characteristics (industrial area, area of tourist importance, etc.)*”
(MOHUA, 2019, p. 4).²

Urbanization involves various shifts such as occupational shifts, population shifts, land shifts. These shifts are associated with economic development. They are not continuous, equal, and sequential, accompanied by a rise in incomes, a consequent improvement in living standards, changes in lifestyle, and institutional framework changes.

While population shift implies a physical shift from rural to urban, occupational and land-use shifts can occur in situation. i.e., without change in residence. It leads to suburbanization (near the city): staying in the village and commuting to the city for work. The place is not a physical habitat. The human settlement scale ranges from farmstead to megapolises. The human settlement scale is dynamic and has both horizontal and vertical links. The relationship between urban settlements has a reciprocal relationship with their respective hinterland, though not to all the regions (mining regions) and all types (project towns). In the development process, urban centers depending on their size, types, and functional scale, often spread innovations from urban to rural areas. Innovation may flow from rural areas to urban and from Peri to the core; different urban development patterns may develop in this diffusion process: development poles may develop with often gradual, sometimes sharp distance decay, arterial/ corridor patterns, or dispersed patterns. Diffusion of urban development could also lead to an urban-rural development continuum. An urban-rural continuum could be the family size and type of land use, occupational structures and urban amenities, and the way of life.

²“https://censusindia.gov.in/2011census/HLO/Metadata_Census_2011.pdf.”

Pertaining to urbanization, there are two broad opinions on the Pattern and process of urbanization: Kundu's view and Pant and Mohan's view. According to Kundu, A. urbanization in India is top-heavy, where the large size cities or class-I cities are the main driving forces of urbanization. The small and medium cities are not contributing substantially. Kundu also says urbanization in India is exclusionary; there was deceleration or stagnation in the population. On the contrary, Sita and Bhagat, R.B. (2005) also pointed out a deceleration in the city's population in primary metros cities; it has shifted to the agglomeration towns or new towns. Guin, D. (2014) contest Kundu's ideas on West Bengal urban expansion as Census activism; after careful study of the population census, they noticed that agriculture distress in West Bengal led to a significant increase in the number of the new towns, where due to the distress people had to depend on the secondary sector, it led to the criteria of 75% male workers dependency on the non-agricultural sector. Hence most of the village census declared villages as urban. The second broad view on urbanization is Pant and Mohan's (1982) study says that the structure of urbanization is balanced; there is no difference between urban growth distributions. It is not sizeable city-oriented growth, and there are class IV cities with a population of less than 10,000, which have been attaining high growth rates. Chakraborty, J. (2017) clarifies that this kind of contradictory result exists only because of the differences in the methodology scholars have used in their studies. Whereas Kundu took the declassified cities into account in his research, Pant and Mohan did not consider it. Chakraborty also clarifies different perceptions, such as urban exclusion, Peri-urban, and urban processing. He has taken the data of 1990, 2000, and 2011 and noticed that urban growth is large city-oriented; there was no substantial growth rate in the small and medium cities 90% of the urban population concentrated in the 12 big towns. The main finding, which invalidates the peri-urban and urban exclusion hypothesis, is that the small cities' urban population share is roughly the same.

1.2. Urbanization; Perspectives and Themes:

This section of the Chapter emphasizes on the perspectives in the literature related to a variety of relevant themes of urbanization mentioned earlier. These themes present certain important interconnected dimensions required to understand the ongoing process of urbanization.

1. 2.1. The Phenomena of Peri-urban or Suburbanization

Forsyth, A. (2012) and Bassett, E.M. (2007) worked on the sub-urban growth pattern and described it as affordable housing to the urban low-income and middle-class people. They opined that there was little attention of the upper-middle class and policymakers in scaling the real development of urban; there was the rapid expansion of the population residing at the outskirts in developed and developing countries without basic amenities.

Gober, P. and Behr. M (1982) defined sub-urban by using discriminative analysis. They have taken income, family status, density, housing, age, and ethnicity factors to differentiate sub-urban and urban centers. Harris, R and Larkhun, P. (1999b, 8) defined the sub-urban by considering three factors- peripheral location, residential densities, relative newness. According to Frost, L. (1991), suburban is outside of urban, but it is always part of the urban area. Johnson, L.C. (2006), Gree Leigh, N and Lee, S. (2005) divided the cities into different rings such as inner-city, middle city, and outer ring, and they considered the outer ring as sub-urban.

Schnore, L. (1957), Douglass, H.P. (1925), Clapson, M. (2003), and Thorn, D. (1972) defined a sub-urban as a place which is beyond the heart of the city that can be reached very quickly, conveniently, and at low cost. Garreau, J. (1991), Fogelson, R.M. (2005) seen suburban as the residential hub to metropolitan and particularly single-family houses not mostly seen the whole picture of residential where it requires school, hospital and necessary shops, etc., but it can be true nowadays since there is the existence of non-residential sub urban. Forsyth, A. (2012) says that even though

there are different kinds of definitions based on location, geography, activities, social characters, alternatively, the term peri-urban can be defined or considered as development beyond the urban beyond the metropolitan area.

According to A. Kundu (2005), large metropolitan centres or megacities purposely restrict the urban low income groups and rural immigrants from urbanization's advantages. Exclusionary urban expansion, exacerbated by the rural economically weaker's inability to purchase land and basic facilities as a result of negative policy perceptions, is thought to have slowed urbanization process. According to him, big city centres and Metropolises are forcing the urban economically weaker to the periphery. As a result of the unaffordable housing and land prices in the metropolitan center's mainland, enterprises are being established on the edges of urban centers, and the profits are being appropriated and enjoyed by effortlessly breaking norms and regulations. Because they are populated by the underprivileged, the outer fringes have been ignored, and enterprises on the outskirts have a negative impact on the economy of the communities in these areas.

Malik, C. (2009) clarified that the unaffordability of land prices had forced some industries to find industries on the periphery of the city. These industries have been encroaching on agricultural land and employment opportunities in these villages. The workforce of the villages got affected due to urbanization. There was a steep rise in the growth of non-workforce between the age group 15 to 59 years in the agriculture sector.

In their work, Kundu, A, Basanta K Pradan, A Subramanian (2002) argue that the in economic analysis, the spatial dimension of development is a neglected topic. Traditional development approaches are unable to account for the developing spatial imbalances and the increasing socioeconomic development gap between the metropolis and its outskirts. It was understandable that this resulted in a flawed view of natural distribution and expansion of productive activities, as well as a failure to address the problem of regional concentration. Many people think that the gap between the center and the peripheral will narrow over time, and that there is a tradeoff

between the inconvenience of residing in a remote rural community and the compensatory savings of cheap living costs. The land, on the other hand, is significantly more complicated than other production elements, and it introduces considerable spatial interruptions. Because some socioeconomic factors interact on the ground, gradients of socioeconomic variables near metropolitan centres cannot be investigated using a model that excludes these effects.

According to Kundu, A. (1989) and Kundu, A. et al. (1999), many pollutant and low-valued industries have mushroomed in rural areas around big cities. It is primarily because of easy land availability, access to an unorganized labour market, lesser awareness, and less stringent environmental regulations. The poor can find shelter in the “degenerated peripheries” and get works in the industries situated therein or travel to the centre metropolis for work. However, the entrepreneurs, engineers, executives, etc., associated with modern industries and businesses live in the core city and go to the outskirts via rapid transportation corridors assisted by several flyovers. This segmented city growth pattern, which has emerged in various forms in different regions, has resulted in the absorption of rural migrants mostly in the urban periphery. As a result, metropolitan centres might be seen of as entities that export or push their issues to the periphery. It might also be stated that city governments are today confronted with two significant challenges in attracting foreign and domestic businesses. The first is a paucity of land in the core city, and the second is a lack of funds. To overcome these twin difficulties, an imaginative solution has been developed in various communities, attracting national and multinational corporations. The Floor Space Index (FSI) in the city's central districts should be expanded, according to international institution such as the World Bank and USAID, multi-story constructions can accommodate many businesses, commercial operations, and high-income residential units. As a part of the strategy of allowing vertical building in places with high land prices, local governments have been able to produce more space and resources for infrastructural development by selling the excess FSI. Local governments, like private builders, have been active in enticing the underprivileged to leave the city, even supplying them with built-houses on the outside.

Without a doubt, all of these policies have contributed to the expulsion of the poor from city limits. It has aided in the process of population rearrangement and city segmentation. Industrial offices and company houses, as well as a privileged few who could pay the prices, have been given land in the central region. In general, privatization of Land and basic services have led to rising their prices. It was a significant factor in reduction of the poor's migration into the cities in the 1990s.

Planning has played a significant part in the Peri-urban. Peri-urban has been depicted as flexible and labeled by informality. Benjamin (2007) applies the concept called occupancy urbanism to illustrate how the mega project and policies make real on the ground, while Kennedy, L. (2007) figures out how the regional industrial policies have been impacted on the urban peripheries.

Sita, K and Bhagat, R.B. (2005) show that based on the census (2001), urban agglomeration was differed from the million-plus metro cities. They figured out that in Primary Metros (large Metros), the Urban agglomeration has gone behind the city limits where secondary metros were in the city proper. The large Metros witnessed a declining trend in the city proper, and small metros have been seeing expansion within city proper. Kundu, A. (2003), in his work, noticed that Urban agglomeration in the metro cities due to the engulf of villages and old and new cities in the city limits.

In her work, Krishnan kutty, M. (2018) pointed out the transformation of Panvel area in the outskirts of Mumbai. She says that Panvel was the destination for rural and poor urban refugees who could not afford housing in Mumbai city; later, it became the Centre for the elite section for their luxurious villas and farmhouses. She says that it is because of the sovereign planning intervention such as national and State policies and several mega transportation infrastructure projects. These policies made Panvel's surrounding area an accumulation zone for urban development. Various policies such as coastal regulation zones, SEZ (Special Economic Zones), and 100% FDI (Foreign Direct Investment) into the real estate sector have emphasized the spatial. The land across the Panvel city became very easy to accumulate for residential and commercial purposes, particularly for elite residence. The scholar also emphasized the Rental

Housing Scheme and Gaothan extension scheme, which granted the builders permission to construct a building for urban development in urbanized areas around MMR (Mumbai metropolitan region). These schemes resulted in the high-rise building in Panvel villages without proper infrastructure development; most buffer zones have disappeared in the development process. The villagers became landless and destinations for refugees transformed as leisure destinations for the urban elite groups. The Mumbai Metropolitan region's urban planning focuses only on sovereign planning, which merely focuses on spatial development without concentrating on the region's basic amenities. Technological plans such as regional plans and development plans neglected in this region resulted in alienating people bound to the land for ages. Panvel region's agricultural land transformed into the hub for real estate speculations.

In their works, Balakrishnan and Swarna, S. (2013) also criticize the expansion of urbanization around the MMR and call it high urbanism since most of the significant projects in Mumbai were to connect the Peri-urban with the main city, port, and industrial corridor connected highways. These projects have been acquiring land by government support, which resulting dispossession against compensation. These projects are departing people from livelihood and the physical fragmentation of the landscape. In his work, scholar also describes that serviced land is the key gap in the Indian urbanization story. With better commuting services and communications, land became an attractive destination for real estate speculations. Commencement of these infrastructure projects such as Airport, Sea-Link, and MMC (Mumbai Metro Corridor) at the MMR's periphery (Mumbai Metro region), particularly at Panvel region, turned this region into an attractive destination for the windfall gains through the speculative real estate sector. Developers favor the Mumbai residents and other investors, including non-resident Indians, with large-scale buying and investing in villages surrounding Mumbai City Township. The farm houses and villa projects rampant commercialization of village agriculture land. Most of the young formers became the developers, and builders and fallen land became the brick kiln production unit since there is enormous demand from the construction sector.

Yuva (2014), in his work, pointed out that Panvel city has become a refugee for migrants. They have been witnessing intolerance in recent times. They have been working as construction workers, street vendors, and brick kiln workers, and they have also entered into the service sector as cab drivers, security persons of the shopping malls, and other offices. The villagers around Panvel city were also affected by the commodification of agricultural land; some of the communities, which have depended on agriculture-related activities as their livelihood, got stuck in brick kiln owners' bondage (Yuva 2014).

Shaw, A. (2005) also discussed Peri-urban areas of the large Metropolitan cities by emphasizing the absence of the basic amenities at the Peri-urban. She pointed out that there were no minimum basic amenities other than electricity in urban areas. The Metropolitans are not different from the rural areas in terms of access to basic services. Her study also illustrates the land and occupational transformation, governance, and environmental deterioration of the Peri-urban regions of India. She defuses Ginsburg, N.B Koppel, and McGee, T.G. (1991) concept of *desakotta*, meaning - expanding urban and engulfing the villages into the urban led to a rise in the people's earning at the Peri-urban and expansion of the markets benefit the locals and reduce the pressure on the city. This results into lesser burden of housing cost and also less congestion in the built-up area. Her study pointed out that there was the negligence of governance at the periphery since most of the Peri-urban do not come under the city limits and lead to misuse of the power at the Peri-urban. Simultaneously, there was no implementation of the basic amenities programs. As in city limits, most of the basic amenities granted since the commercialization of basic amenities in the city led to inequalities. She says there were mutilation and depletion of the natural resource at the periphery; bare minimum facilities have not reached the people; most peripheries do not access water, electricity, and transport facilities.

Bhagat, R.B. (2003), in his study, clarifies that statutory towns only get the municipal status, and census towns have been ruling by Rural Panchayath only, not been granted Municipal status. The basic amenities such as collection and disposal of garbage,

sanitation, water supply, and cleaning of the street are not responsibilities of the Rural Panchayath, and the Municipalities should provide them to the urban peripheries. Still, it cannot be the responsibility of the urban municipalities until they are part of it. 74th constitutional amendment in the year 1992 littered a hope in the urban peripheries; most of the Peri-urban and transitional areas became the Nagara Panchaths and provided with the urban civic status. However, the major urbanized states such as West Bengal and Maharashtra did not implement the amendment. Some studies say that the commercialization of basic amenities could not really help the urban poor at the Centre and periphery even after implementing the 74th constitutional amendment, emphasizing the decentralization of urban governance.

In his work, Kennedy, L. (2007) describes the urban development strategies employed by Andhra Pradesh state from 1995 to 2004, mainly in the Hyderabad region. In the same period, there were striking changes occurred in urban governance and politics. The Peri-urban areas became laboratories for the implementation of various major and key industries. Most of the strategies are infrastructure-led growth and focused on IT and biotechnologies, and policies were brought in favour of the IT sector's growth. One of the significant policies was the New ICT policy; it smoothened the global capital flows route. This policy enabled IT hardware and software to acquire various rebates and concessions, such as the power cut, concession in the registration fees, the exception under the labour laws, and permission for the three shifts. Several projects were built to facilitate infrastructure to the IT, and IT enable services in the name of a public-private partnership. He says Hitech City is of the massive construction of the infrastructure-led IT and IT-enabled service project. It has been constructed at the city's periphery, surrounded by the rocky, poorly equipped infrastructure growth and midway of rural and urban spaces. Gradually nearby places became the high-tech residential club to provide the residents, restaurants, hospitals, and educational institutions for the nature of employments to ensure an elite lifestyle.

Kennedy, L and Sood, A. (2019), in their recent work, illustrates the new form of governance in the urban Peripheries, which believes in "minimum government,

maximum governance”. Nevertheless, the development of these privatized forms of urban governance can be traced back to the tumultuous dynamics that came into attention in the 1990s. The 74th Constitutional Amendment provided municipal governments in metropolitan areas with status and political legitimacy. The IALA is a specialized governance mechanism that transfers the rights and duties of rural and urban local governments to a state government agency. It is a rather complex pattern for outsourced urban administration in contemporary India. The IALA is similar to other kinds of corporate urbanism, such as the industrial township, in that it establishes a de facto private administration in certain industrial zones (Sood, A. 2015). It also has a striking resemblance to worldwide models for outsourcing public goods supply, such as Economic Development Zones and Business Improvement Districts (BIDs), which originated in Canada and have since spread throughout North America, Europe, Asia, and Africa (Warner 2011). In South Africa, these are known as City Improvement Districts (CID) (Dubresson, A. 2008; Peyroux, E. 2008).

Bhan, G. (2013), in his study of Delhi city, argued that planning of the city which has outbursted the unequal growth with the city. The planning of a city is not structured and implemented as it is planned, but the city is an outcome of the planning. In Delhi, most of the unrecognized slums and settlements result from the planned city but are not covered under the planned development. The de jure security of the tenure and absence of the reorganization or spatial legality³ (Bhan, G, Goswami, A and Revi, A. 2014) prevent residents of the unrecognized slum and settlements from access to the basic amenities and social security, which has led to vulnerability and low living standards in the urban and symbolizes the absence of the fundamental rights, which the Indian Constitution guarantees its people the Fundamental Right to ‘reside and dwell in any portion of the territory of India’ (Article 19(1) (e)) as well as to “move

³“Spatial illegality then refers to all forms of inhabitation and the production of space by urban residents that do not confer upon them a de jure property right.” (Bhan, G., Goswami, A., & Revi, A. (2013).

freely within the territory of India” (Article 19(1) (d)). The Supreme Court of India has delivered a verdict affirming the Fundamental Right to Shelter as a component of all Indian citizens' right to life. In spite of such claims, adequate shelter, which embraces sufficient living space and good buildings, a hygienic and decent atmosphere, enough light, fresh air and water, power, sewage, and other municipal utilities, remains a pipe dream. The severe shortage of housing stock, of land designated for construction in the development area, and the inability of many households to wait for allocations of housing stock created directly by the DDA (Delhi Development Authority) are major market drivers for the “unauthorized colony.” This market was deliberately limited by law that assigned inadequate property for housing and then prohibited private builders or anyone else other than the DDA or the public agencies and cooperatives it approved from building homes on the land it did notify. In short, the portion of the illegal colony’s tale is simply a matter of supply and demand. Illegality is produced and regulated by plans, not by their failure to be implemented. They regulate, by their discretionary authority to inform or not notify portions of the city inside the master plan, as well as through waves of "Regularization" which include specific colonies but not others, or even through eviction patterns that expel certain bastis but not others, which settlements will be lawful and which will be illegitimate, which will prosper and which will be prohibited? Illegality is created and regulated as part of, rather than as a result of, planning and planned development. It is a rule-making process, what refers to as a “spatial form of governance” (Roy, A. 2003).

1. 2.2. Urban governance and Interventions

In India, local government institutions have always existed in some form. British dominance is responsible for the current form of urban local governance. The first of its kind body, known as a Municipal Corporation, was established in Madras in 1688, and similar corporations were formed in Bombay and Calcutta in 1762. Local service delivery has been an express mandate for local governments since Samuel Laing, a Viceroy's Council member, proposed in the Budget Speech (1861-62) that local

services should be built on local resources (Savage, D. and Dasgupta, S. 2006). The concept of elected representatives in towns was first established in 1870 by Lord Mayo's Resolution. Lord Ripon is regarded as the "Father of Urban Local Government" because he invented the idea of municipal authorities as divisions of self-government. His Decision of 18 May 1882 on Local Self-Government expected to deal with the constitution of local bodies, their roles, funds, and powers, and laid the groundwork for modern Indian local self-government.

Structure of municipal bodies has largely stayed unchanged since then, despite the fact that the number of cities has grown and their issues have gotten increasingly complex. Following independence, India's Constitution was based on federal ideas. The government functions in India are classified into three categories: federal, state, and concurrent. Local government bodies are governed by the State List and are administered by the State Regulations or the Union Parliament in the case of Union Territories. Initially, the extent of the municipality's power and government control over a municipality/municipal council, determined by the statute established for its formation. Currently, the statutes provide the state government more regulatory and supervisory authority. This is due to two factors: first, the Constitution does not clearly define the powers and responsibilities of local officials, and second, in the lack of any clear delineation, state governments will naturally want to control municipal governance. In order to address the problems that urban local bodies encounter, the Government of India established the Rural-Urban Relationship Committee in 1963, which stated that local governments should not only serve as tools of political awareness and civic conscience, but also perform a part in the society and financial betterment of the community and be an essential component of union government. The Committee also provided important suggestions about the conditions for forming municipal bodies with clearly defined powers, functions, and resources. In terms of municipal government, it was considered that it was a state function. The state has legislative jurisdiction over municipal laws, establishments, constitutions, and powers of local authorities under Entry 5 of the State list in the Seventh Schedule of the Indian Constitution. In recent years, there has been an increasing awareness and importance

of local self-government as a distributor of basic services to the public and as a form of democratic self-governance mechanism.

Local bodies are an important part of the federal governmental system because it is the amount of government nearest to people and in the best possible way to both include them into the decision-making procedure to improve the standard of living and to use their knowledge and abilities to promote all-round development. Hitherto, urban local bodies were established in municipal corporations, municipal councils, town area committees, and notified area committees. Nonetheless, the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (CAA) 1992 recommends the uniform governance system of Municipal corporations, Municipal councils, and Nagar panchayats in transitional areas.

According to Kundu, A. (2003), one may argue that the 74th CAA has led to discrimination in providing differential level of access to basic services depend upon on the users' willingness to pay at the level of towns and ward committees. It has an institutionalized discrepancy in the accessibility of basic services and deepen the segregation of city into rich and poor neighborhood. This process, operationalized through the market and supported by governmental programs, has adversely impacted the influx of population into the core cities' areas. Majority of the migrants are being absorbed in per-urban area. Elitists' preferences for low density and a clean micro-environment have guaranteed that there has been no unauthorized encroachment and that new construction has been limited to core districts and high-income colonies. Furthermore, the slum inhabitants' resentment and resistance to new inflow is due to governmental authorities' promises of legal tenure or provision of some type of intermediate tenure. As a result, migrants are pushed to rural peripheries with low wage, inadequate education and health care, unhygienic living conditions, and high morbidity and death rates.

Kundu, A. (2003), the new urban governance model is also responsible for redistributing the population within and around city centers. "Attempts are made in 'select global centers of the future to provide land at preferred sites to upcoming

activities through the market. It is being done by simplifying the legal and administrative procedures for changing land use and pushing out' low valued' activities to the peripheries. The low-income and slum colonies are the obvious candidates for relocation outside the urban centers. The shift is being carried out often directly through eviction of slum dwellers, hawkers, pavement dwellers, etc." It is sometimes done invisibly and covertly through slum development initiatives that rehabilitate people in the periphery. Unfortunately, no alternative livelihood opportunities are generally provided to the poor who are displaced from the city's mainland. Regardless of whether the government in the state or city is rightist or radical perspective, such relocations have occurred in most large cities. Some government policy provision for evicted slum dwellers to be given plots or flats in the building that is being constructed on the original site. Nonetheless, it is erroneous to assume that such beneficiaries will be able to keep them for a long time, given their pressing financial needs, rising land values, and relaxation in legal and administrative reforms.

Dupont, V. (2011), in his study, explained that the Delhi vision 2021 program is also part of new urbanism. It now envisages Delhi as a global metropolis and world-class city similar to New York. This model was proposed by western countries, led to concentrated development and regionalism. There have been distributing trends and increasing evidence of the city's poor experiencing growing spatial and socially unjust. On the other side, there is an increase in the number of homeless. Urban homeless are predominately those who have escaped from rural deprivation and oppression, providing all forms of labour to the urban economy without protection to their body or dignity. Municipalities have been transferring the responsibilities of providing basic services to non-governmental agencies.

Kundu, D. (2011) says municipalities' responsibility to deliver basic amenities are progressively being delegated to the resident welfare associations located in middle and upper-class zones in cities. In slums and low-income neighborhoods, such intervention methods are missing. Even local ward committees are unable to

adequately represent their needs and aspirations. The Residential Welfare Association (RWA) try to sanitize their neighborhood by removing encroachments and petty business establishments from their gated colonies. The fundamental process of working RWAs are likely to accentuate and institutionalize disparity within metropolitan environments.

Bhaduri, A. (2017) also explains how dispossession happens by governance policies in the name of development, particularly to the urban poor. Dispossession occurs by destroying livelihood and work by establishing modern industries or corporate industries and employing some displaced people. Generally, these modern industries are more efficient in production than the existing ones. This kind of development leads to no growth in jobs or employment rate. Along with the employment problems, it affects sustainability as it requires a lot of economic and natural resources. Even though these industries produce more output, the absorption level of modern industries is less than the destroyed sector.

To be more commonsensical, there needs to be a balance between natural resources and employment; India's people find jobs broadly in the informal sector and in non-agriculture. Incidentally, most of the displaced people have been working as black ticket sellers at Cinema Theater, peanut sellers, road layers, etc., since their lands have been taken away in the name of real estate and industrial development. The Displaced come to the city due to land dispossession and reside at illegal settlements (Shanty Town) and slums. There is no proper water and electricity, and to survive, they have to practice some unlawful activities such as illegal power and water connection, witnessed in slums elsewhere in India. On the contrary, state governments are eagerly waiting to give concessions to industries resulting in the anti-poor development activity; in terms of taxes, land, and electricity without considering the market's absorption capacity.

Brodie, J. (2000) addresses how the cities' governance was set up in new ways. This was done in three ways: rescaling, the second move away from redistribution and towards competition, and the last one was transforming state functions to quasi-state

bodies and or non-state, which are popularly known as private agencies. It was done very systematically with an inherent idea of disenfranchising citizens, reducing the State's control in policymaking, and shaping the city's geography in their favor.

Leitner, H. (1990), Painter, J. (1995), Peck, J and Jones, M. (1995) illustrated: rescaling and urban restructure policies made a significant change in urban governance, local governing bodies were given the main role in the policy making and encouraged to compete for local bodies with the global economy. Local bodies have a role in terms of supply-side interventions. They work out plans for attracting investment from global economies too, do so; they are funding infrastructure developments and making available skilled labour to supply flexible labour for the multinational companies or corporations. Shifting of the local state government to the governance bodies, which means semi or quasi-state organizations and private bodies, also shifted the power of decision making to actors who are out of the urban electorate, forced to concentrate on the supply side interventions rather than the demand side, new ideologies, and managerial strategies were adopted by the new form of the urban governance, in the process of attracting global capital and investment flows into local areas governance emphasizes on the leaner, flatter, managerial hierarchy, a key role of information and information technologies and multi-skilling and flexible labour force budgetary evolution, and adaption of new managerial ideologies.

Nunan, F. and Satterthwaite, D. (2001) illustrate the urban governance, social capital, and civil society role in providing basic amenities to the urban poor in nine cities located in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The main focus was on governance's nature in facilitating basic services such as education, water, sanitation, drainage, and garbage collection. They noted and emphasized the role of urban governance in providing basic services to the urban poor. They noticed that privatization, per se, of basic environmental services, without a stronger, more effective, and more representative local government would not help the poorer groups. They also figured out that civil societies and NGOs 'roles have restricted only healthcare, education, and

income-generating projects. The services such as sanitation, water, drainage, and garbage collection and disposal did not take by the NGOs since it is more challenging to implement these politically, institutionally, and technically alike health care and education services. Mitlin, D. (2001), in her work, arouses doubt on the NGO's effectiveness in providing services to the urban poor. She says that NGOs are insensitive to the political and power struggle of the community.

1.2.3. Debate on Urban Land

Chakravathy, S. (2013) identified the new land price regime in India from the last decade. He contends this regime is not a bubble; it has persistently existed for a decade. The rise in the land price was driven by the expansion of the money supply in post-liberation, such as credit markets expansion and income growth of some sections due to neo-liberal policies; these sections invested the money on land because it symbolizes status and also fetches profit to the investors. On the contrary, foreign investments from non-resident Indians also fueled the land prices. In 2012, the land acquisition act also hiked the land price, where compensation for the rural land was four times to the market prices and two times in the case of the urban. Along with the factors mentioned above, scarcity of land also hiked the cost of the land. He underscores the land prices in the cities by addressing Delhi and Bombay land markets, where it has gone up to five times between the years 2001 to 2011. These cities are becoming the most expensive cities in the world. Citizen has to spend 69 years and 180 years of the national average per capita income to buy a house in the Delhi and Bombay. There is a lot of variation in the rural land markets prices in interior districts and periurban areas. He also criticizes the process of land acquisition. It is to provide infrastructure facilities to the industry's capital growth the same way the land acquisition 2013 bill also emphasizes infrastructure, industrialization, and urbanization, which benefit the capitalist development in the end.

Chakravorty, S (2013) also illustrated a rapid increase in urban land prices and showed the hike's demand and supply sides in the urban land prices. He asserts that the

mismatch between the demand and supply of urban land enhanced land price in urban. There are various reasons for the rise in the demand for urban land, and multiple sources contributed to rising the demand for urban land, particularly high rate of economic growth in the early 2000s was the most crucial contributor due to the high rate of economic growth, there was expansion in square footage consumption of IT, retail, infrastructural and service sectors which at the end increased the price of the urban land in the market. Along with these, there was a rise in the middle classes' income, and access to credit for housing to these classes is a prime contributor to the rapid surge the land prices in the urban land market.

Sharma (2006), in his work, pointed out that hike in the prices of the real estate sector, mainly due to the involvement of mafia and corruption and their interwoven activities with the politicians and bureaucrats. In Mumbai, the mafia blocks the real estate sector's stacks to make profiteering and speculation in the real estate sector. The promoter (black marketer) has earned fabulous profits between 100% and 500% in the real estate sector. And along with the black of the real estate market by the mafia and other reasons such as urban land sealing act and lag in the supply side of real estate sector also hike the price of real estate sector. The promoters, developers, mafia, and bureaucrats' greed make the dreams of the urban middle classes and the urban poor of having their own home unaffordable. Sharma (2006), in his work, also addressed the ecology of Mumbai city badly affected by the real estate sector of Mumbai. Mafia leaders have occupied the green belt of Mumbai with the assistance of political links and constructed buildings to grab the advantages of the hike in real estate prices in the boom period between 1975 and 2000. These unscrupulous builders dilapidated the ecology of Mumbai. On the other side, migrants were also attributed to the dilapidation of the ecology of Mumbai by occupying public gardens, there was no space for them in private land and encroached public land.

Nenova, T. (2010), in his research, quoted that finance to the housing increased to many folds. It increased from 18000 crore in 2000-2001 to 1, 45,000 crores in 2008-2009. The availability of credit for housing increased the demand for land, which led

to a rise in land price and a boom in the real estate market. The boom in the real estate sector raised the growth of supporting industries such as steel, paint, cement, and so on during the construction phase. And also contributed to growth in the Tv, fridge, and so on in the post-construction phase. This boom was assisted by the government policies on housing credit and FDI (Foreign Direct Investment) in the real estate sector. The real estate boom is largely supported by money supply by the credit market, black money, and money from non-resident Indians.

The mere explanation of the demand side is not sufficient to understand the rapid rise in the urban land prices; Bertaud, A (2011), in his study, addresses the supply side constraints which contributed to enhancing the urban land price. The restriction on the floor space, ownership rights to tenants, muddled property rights, urban land ceiling acts, and the vast amount of urban land under the control of the government such as cantonments, army barracks, unused airports, bus stands, railway stations, and sick industries has increased the price of the urban land by not allowing land into the free market. Simultaneously, slums in India don't give land entitlements to the slum dwellers, making the slum land non-marketable, which indirectly increases the land price. On the contrary, polarized and duality in the urban land market and income inequality drove urban land prices.

1.2.4. Impact of Liberalization or New Urban Policies on urbanization

Liberalization policies have been influencing urban governance policies. It emphasized on the market driven and laissez faire strategies. It encouraged the ideas of minimum government involvement in the policies making. Neo liberal policies shifted the responsibility of state in provision of arranging basic and other services to Private and other non-government institutions, it resulted the denial of essential services to poor households. These policies mostly centred on the Metropolitan cities restructuring. (Shaw, A. 2012). By the 1990s, this was occurring all across Asia, especially because earlier attempts to control the development of urban cities had

failed, and urban primacy continued unabated in many of the smaller Asian countries despite state intervention to redirect growth away from the largest cities (Rondenneli, 1991). In India, the so-called Mega Cities Programme, which began in 1993, highlighted the major issues confronting big cities (Chakravorty, S. 1996). These cities suited the role of growth drivers, and the concentration of resources in them was justified because they were growing rapidly and accommodated a significant portion of the urban population, along with the urban poor. Metropolitan areas were also the most favourable to management using the new public management (NPM) techniques and tools that became prominently following liberalisation. NPM stressed the importance of incorporating private-sector values and efficiencies into publicly managed organisations, such as those that provide basic urban services (Prasad, R.N. 2008). This could be accomplished through organisational changes in the public sector, such as separating the responsibilities for building and financing infrastructural facilities from those for regulating, monitoring, and providing services. Consequently, in India, while the focus of significant reform between 1991 and 2001 was on industrial and financial liberalisation, changes in urban thinking were already in place through the advocacy of new public approaches and techniques for better city management.

Proponents of liberal policy and new structuralism argue that these strategies enhanced the rural-urban Migration. According to them, global connection with India increases capital from the worldwide economy, and endogenous investments help boost urbanization. In the process, hypothetically, employment opportunities will be created within and around the urban Centre, industries which are established at the rural shall also soon upgrade and get the status of urban. But Proponents of the liberal policies vehemently faced criticism since the capital inflow from the global economy is capital intensive and could not generate employment opportunities. Similarly, the public sector's inadequate infrastructure and low deficit rate resulted in a low growth rate in the agriculture sector. Consequently, it led to high Migration from rural to urban, but the low labor-intensive capital could not absorb the Migration; they had to be trapped in the informal labour markets.

On the contrary, in his work, Harvey, D (2008) argues that, it is financial (property) capital that excludes the urban poor and refugees from the advantages of urbanization. In most towns, property capital (capital) is displaced a large number of people. To remain in society, property capital requires a particular strategy frame work; this should expand with the inherent notion of profit maximization at the end of the day and the capital grows at incremental or simultaneous rates of growth; nonetheless, unending expansion is a severe problem. The Capital expansion reduces the function of government by making the wealthiest richer and the poor are getting poorer. The capital that has entered into urbanization is profit-oriented and builds the elite and upper classes' cities only. It is making the towns for the capital only and on the want of capital. The capital loves the megacities and stadiums, which give high profit, and cities the rich aim to reside in, generally of high-value housing for a limited market. Over-production and expanded capital constructed speculative capital for the upper class, and Megaprojects in PPP (Public-Private Partnership) are framed where the public takes an entire risk; the private takes the whole profits. The cities are being used time and again for infinite capital accumulation.

Friedman, J. (1995), Sassen, S. (1991) specified the economic element of globalization, like "internationalization of world economy with increasing use of transnational economic space extremely high mobility of capital with a concentration in few cities, shift from manufacturing to finance and service and consequent hierarchical placement of cities in the global city system."

Nijman, J. (2007) explained the Economic dimension of the post-reform period. He found more links with the international market in the Colonial and Global phase, but in the National phase period between 1947 and 1980s, there were reduced connections with the global markets. The Globalization phase from mid of the 1980's expanded relationships with the global market; now, India has become the hub for the global market. The Colonial and Global phase differences are; there was a bias towards the motherland in the colonial phase but not in the Global phase. Urban planning and land-use policies were under control of the colonial government in the colonial phase,

but in the Global phase, they are determined by the market force (National and international market forces).

According to Linder,C. (2005), there is a new urbanism movement, proliferating development where gentrification of urban⁴ occupied as the main agenda, shopping mall, multiplexes, and box stores proliferates as a part of a new urbanism movement that tout the sale of community and boutique refers to fulfill urban dreams. David Harvey (2004) also “specifies that most of the constructions and projects favor developing and promoting the city as an optimal location for high-value business and a fantastic destination for tourists.”

Jan Nijman described that during the mid-1980s, a foreign presence appeared in Bombay, not as a colonial phase like spatial segregation of foreign and native commercial activities. The spatial boundaries were blurred; relaxation of rules and regulations encouraged the new foreign company and accelerated to an unprecedented level. Bombay was historically segregated into different parts, and it continued even after independence. The city has been demarked clearly as a global market and local market or traditional market. The local developers, Multinational and National Corporations, played an essential role in the city’s segregation and urban planning policies, particularly land policies determined by the actors as mentioned above majorly.

Sassen, S. (1991) also argues that globalization is denationalized national territory. This denationalization, which largely materializes in global cities, has become legitimate for capital and has indeed been imbued with many governments elites’ positive value. The ramification of denationalization and territorial fragmentation of Bombay city in the post-colonial period witnessed more than the capitalist cities such

⁴ “Gentrification derived from the term gentry signifying the genteel or upper class, Gentrification, therefore, signifies an encroachment of the gentry in spaces previously occupied by the poor.”(Chatterjee.I.2014)

as London and New York. It is mainly due to territorial segmentation's historical pervasiveness. Historically territorial fragmentation and the dualities witnessed in developing worlds such as planned area and unplanned area, illegal settlements, and slums.

Satterthwaite, D., Mc Granahan, and Tacoli (2010) explained that the expansion in urbanization leads to an upsurge in the contribution of industry and service sector to Gross Domestic Product and employment opportunities (workforce) in the service and industrial sector. World's largest cities are heavily concentrated in the world economies and are primarily rich or wealthiest nations of urban economies. It can be observed that low and middle-income countries are also experiencing rapid urbanization and migration flow not merely because of the economic growth, but there are other factors too, such as poverty, unemployment, drought, social constraints, and deprivation. Low and middle-income countries are experiencing structural changes as experienced by the developed countries in their economy. There is an inflow of workforce from agriculture, fishery, and forestry to industry and service sectors. Even though there is an increase in investments and rapid growth urbanization in cities, it could not reduce poverty; hence, almost 50% of the population in cities live in poverty.

In his work, Harris, N. (2003) also clarified that an effort to reduce unemployment by establishing manufacturing industries failed. These industries are incapable of competing with quickly expanding management units. Globalization resulted in the decentralization of power and finance from the State to local bodies. It paved the way to emerge the new cities and new agenda of urban management. This development has been going outside of the manufacturing and agriculture sector. Cities became logistic, and management zones of the world markets, functions of this management became very easy by rapid technological development.

Urban places have been witnessing continual change; in the process of adjustment, some sectors were expelled, and the constant change attracted other sectors. Developing the fixed physical structures experienced a declining trend, and core importance has been given to mobile factors such as innovations. The idea of urban

and core task of the urban city is to provide the framework for the dynamic changes which provide space for the smooth functioning of the external markets. Liberalization, macroeconomic reforms have strengthened external market links and led to privatization of public sector units and restructuring city planning development. In the same way, the market for housing and land expanded very rapidly. Increased global competition forced the markets to deal with multiple activities; for example, large infrastructure industries needed to depend on the law, advertising, sales, research, and development in marketing their products. A higher proportion of the labor force output is required to migrate. At the same time, there is an expansion of the tertiary sector such as health, education, information and communication, and software programming.

Pott, D. (2013), in his study, questioned economic growth and development. Generally, economic development is closely associated with urbanization and sectoral shift due to globalization. Urbanization tends to generate more value per person, increase the GDP, increase income and consumption of the country, reduce poverty, and generate more demand for goods and services. It can be witnessed in China and South Asian countries as it mentioned in sub-Saharan Africa, where McKinsey Global Institute (2010) pointed out that there was rapid growth in GDP in many Sub-Saharan African countries, but African Development bank (2011) explained that it was a sheer opinion of the middle bourgeois class. Rapid urbanization has been occurring, and it is just a market to global corporate companies to pursue areas of investment and profitable places.

According to Pott, D. (2013) obviously, there was growth in the GDP of sub-Saharan African countries. Still, pertaining to the employment multiplier and real development, both are very low. The income generated by rapid urbanization was not equally distributed in the country, and there was a rise in inequality. The growth was witnessed in high-class buildings and shopping malls, leaving no scope for petty commodity development. This development led to a change in the consumption profile of a few, distancing many.

Susan E. Chaplin (1999) highlighted in her research how India's structural reforms have influenced and transformed urban development plans and administration. The governance has shifted to local bodies, and the local bodies were given the power to raise funds independently for urban development instead of depending on the state and central governments. Local bodies are not simply relying on the taxes and funds; they entered into the brand market and loan agreements with foreign agencies for urban services, infrastructure development, environment, and administrative reforms. On the other side, World Bank and international development agencies have emphasized privatizing urban basic amenities such as drinking water and arrangement of garbage collection to make them efficient. Different services that are not profitable are suggested to involve non-governmental organizations. Economic reforms during 1991 had given significance to the service sector, namely financial and IT. There was a decline in importance to the manufacturing industry, which led to the centralization of business activities. CBD (Central Business Districts) emerged, and it required a high-rise construction building, fly-overs, multiplexes, and air-conditioned blocks for smooth functioning of activities. Because economic liberalization privatized profitable urban basic amenities, which including water supply and waste disposal, such amenities have been commercialized, making urban basic amenities unaffordable to the urban economically weaker sections, while non-profitable services have been ignored.

On the contrary, Berner, E. and Korff, R. (1995) reiterate that capital and information flow are unequal in global cities. Capitalism or globalization works based on inclusion and exclusion. Laclau, H. (1971), in his work, explained that integration of these cities in the world city system thus operates in a hierarchical setup. Upgrading or downgrading the nation-state remains a determining factor, reflecting the prevailing political economy's divided framework. The process of their subversion by the above mechanism needs to be identified as a characteristic feature of the historical expansion of capitalism having, among other things, hegemonic culture impact (Gramsci, A. 1971).

According to Guha, B. (2002), Metropolitan cities under globalization have emerged with new geographical conditions such as centrality and marginality, which led to the dilemma in metropolitan cities. Along with the contradictory spaces and internal differentiation, it intervened with the politics of the urban area. It can be consistently witnessed that ideology, armed with power, creates domination and regression patterns in contemporary cities, it is shown in city spaces, as well as it is based on the political and socio-economic conditions of city space. According to Cuthbert (1991), domination, power, and repression are shown mainly through economic parameters. It applied and employed to back up and intensify class division and, because of that, space captured.

Harvey, D. (1996) critically explains both modernity and post-modernity in the process, making significant changes such as fragmentation and uncertainty in a specific time. Structural changes can be seen in Brasilia, Bangkok, Delhi, or Mumbai, which needs deeper and closer analysis. This restructuring of the economy reflects on the national and global level impact, consumption, and production relations as its material base. Its reflection is undoubtedly seen in urban, social, and political life. Berner, E. and Korff, R. (1995) indicated that Space differences had reached an extension that global spaces are out of control of the government and administrative frame and are not seen as part of the geographical region. Along with economic factors, socio-cultural and historical factors play a vital role in creating global metropolitan cities.

According to Appadurai, A. (1990) and Smith (1999), the Global cities can be seen as a historical construct "where endless reciprocal networks, practices and power relation takes place. It is understood by examining the discursive, historical construction of localities and transnationality in a different urban setting, instead of recognizing the hierarchical nature of networks." Some approaches consider them as the relation of power that interlink people, places, and processes transnationality in a disjointed manner and by which space of the informational economy is made manifest through series of socio-cultural flow that both reflect and reproduce global metropolitan.

According to Herman, E S and Chomsky, N. (1988), the intersection of global and local flows is thus more emphasized than the concept of integration of culture and political economy. However, the cultural implications of globalization in the daily life of the metropolis of the south have often been found to reflect the reproduction of a dominant culture through manufacturing consent by a legitimate ideology integrating competition, modernity, and exploitation. Susen and Lever (1991) clearly explained the locational concentration, which resulted from liberal policies and became necessary for the service-oriented transition. It requires planning, top-level management, and specialized business services. It led to the polarization of workers' occupational distribution and resulted in greater job incidence at the scale's low-paying ends.

Falk, R. (2000), Held, D. (1995), Swyngedouw, E. (2000) argue that globalization and Neo-liberal policies are de franchising the citizens from decision making. It has transformed decision-making power in structuring cities from the government to big corporations like the International Manufacture fund, World Bank and the world trade organization. It leads to disenfranchisement, authoritarianism, and imperial democracy. Brenner (1999), Mac Lead and Goodwin (1999), Jessop (1997), and Tickell and Peck (1996) also argues that restructuring cities based on neoliberal policies in the current period is intended to change the governance of urban to reduce the control and the power of urban inhabitant participation in decision making and to shape their city.

Chandra, K. (2015), in his study, notified that in the past two and half, some elusive changes had occurred in the Indian State and its ideology. These changes are ruminative of broader procedures of transformation happening in India. It includes the dominance of the business or entrepreneur class, the emergence of new social categories, and the private sector's growth. The social groups and private sector, it led to favoritism between the property classes and State. And Chandra, K. (2015) also says that the long term-based relationship between State and proprietary classes, which was witnessed in the pre-liberalized era, continued in the new form as the state

and private sector. Bhaduri, A. (2016) and Kohli, A. (2012), and Shaw, A (2012), in their work, noticed that development policies became the growth policies of the business classes. “The State has moved from an unenthusiastic pro-capitalist state with the socialist idea to a fervent pro-capitalist state with a neoliberal ideology. It has been witnessed in the urban area of Indian cities” (Shaw, A (2012). The State has prioritized urban upper and middle-class issues; it has failed to address urban redistribution issues.

Shaw. A (2012), in her study, illustrates that even though the fact that there was a growth rate in the economy and reduction of absolute poverty in the past reform period, despite the fact it associated with the stark rise in the inequalities in basic amenities and living standards and the low level of access to the health facilities, education and other basic amenities to the particular section of the people is clearly witnessed in Indian cities. Simultaneously, there is a spread of low-paid in the informal sector and restricted upward mobility for the urban poor.

On the other side, some scholars like Kapur, D and Nangia, P. (2015) pointed out that state intervention in the welfare programs has increased in the post-reform period. It is due to the rise in the availability of the funds since the late 1990's various welfare programs have started in urban for instance, SJSRY (Swarna Jayanti sheheri Rozgar Yojana) from 1997- 2013 and RAY (Rajiv Awas Yojna) from 2009-2015 and their present form National Urban Livelihood Mission, 2013-2018 and Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana, 2015-2019. These programs' motives are; to empower the urban poor through training and skill development as well as to improve their housing condition through access to upgraded units in existing slums or via relocation to new sites. “While acknowledging the welfare programs and their growth, they make a clear distinction between welfare to mitigate the vulnerability of loss of income. The meager health and lack of food, they call social protection and the welfare provided by the State through basic public goods such as sanitation, education and health services. In India, the post-reform period has given priority to social protection but not the public good; it is similar to the way taken by the Latin American countries. In

contrast to the East and West Asian countries, which were given priority to the minimum public goods, social protection was given second priority.” (Kapur, D and Nangia, P., 2015).

Kapur, D and Nangia, P. debated the State’s particular choice; they opined that it might be the strategy to grab the electoral returns. It may be the policy suggestions from international institutions such as WTO, the weak administrative structure, and the passing responsibility of the central on the state government to implement the development policies. In the same way, the State is also looking at the private agents and public-private participation to provide the minimum public goods. Many studies have been conducted on the liberalization impact on the urban area. Shaw, A. (2012), in her study, says that there were changes in the structure of the urban by making changes in governance and administration. The formal building environment is witnessed in high-rise buildings and shopping complexes, and residential units. And scholars say that the external force and private agents and consultants in policymaking are witnessed in India in the post-reform period.

Fernandes, L. (2004) says that the emergence of residential complexes created a "politics of forgetting" where poor people are unseen. The gated communities struck in the amnesia that they did not need to step out for small errands since the rapid expansion of E-commerce, E-tailing and home shopping, and various home delivery services. The people do not see these gated communities outside of the gated communities. Simultaneously, the poor people from the rural periphery and slums have been moving to gated communities to render their service in the form of maids, watchmen, and others. Invisibility in the Indian social and economic environment has grown, and India’s cities are becoming more fragmented.

Bardhan, P. (1984) noticed that the State lacked the relative autonomy to resist the proprietary class from grabbing gains of liberal policies in the pre-liberalization period. These have been ensured that the profits of development reach themselves. Chandra (2015), in his work, analyzed the State as a discretionary facilitator. The State mentioned the close association with the proprietary classes and business classes. It

has utilized its power to provide resources such as land, infrastructure, etc., for pro-business activities. It has concerned merely about the welfare of the poor.

Shaw, A. (2012), in her work, mentioned the humane urbanism which was associated with the work of Rutherford Platt. Humane urbanism suggests that there should switch from top-down urban policies, which work to satisfy the minuscule population. Urban approaches should be human-centric; this kind of shift has happened in American cities since the 1990s. In America's context, it is focused on creating affordable housing, substantial attempts to get nature back to the city and other low tech, networks of bike paths, and self-sustaining programs. When it is applicable to India, the State should focus on the creation of basic amenities for the informal settlements and slums; slums dwellers should not be evicted from houses without showing them an alternative residence, and policies should be in favor of the poor to improve the living standards of the of them, these all are essential to creating humane urbanism in India. The government-owned working committee (2011) under the recommended initiative for the 12th five years plan suggests that; the provision of secure tenure for the dwellers of slums and slum eviction cannot be an option for the development; instead of that, they should choose the upgradation programs. The basic amenities should be granted to all. Granting these to notified or legal slums should be replaced with all the basic amenities; it should all be irrespective of legality. United Nations and World Resource Institute say that upgrading all vital services in informal settlements can be a long time saving for the State. It would reach more people and less resource-intensive.

According to Soja, E. (1980), new urban policies have resulted in exploitative uprooting or de-territorialization. It denies people their right to shelter, livelihood, place, and memory while allowing others to amass space, place, profit, livelihood, and memory. Their relocation in new venues can be equally exploitative because their new tropes of economic and cultural alienation can be coercive. Displacement is rooted in uprooting and re-rooting, both of which ground exploitation territorially. As a result, displacement is commonly the socio-spatial dialectic of urban exploitation, as well as

the socio-spatial dialectic of accumulation for those who have the ability to displace others. This type of exploitation theory emphasizes the spatiality of exploitation. To put it another way, exploitation emerges not simply because, as Marx describes, the accumulators of capital, the global and local political and economic elite, grab surplus value from workers by lowering salaries and expanding working hours. The removal of surplus value is a socio-spatial activity in and of itself. Laboring land-scapes and life-scapes homes, households, and labor-network networks—are usurped, demolished, flattened, and duplicated into accumulation landscapes and life-scapes. It is as if the sweat, blood, and toils of the labour seep into the pores of the very earth. Its inhabitants have torn missing from under their feet, bleached of their bloodstains, and the sweat carefully removed to produce a new world is alienated from labor and the exact procedure of labouring. Displacement, therefore, objectifies the socio-spatial extraction of surplus from labour.

In her study, Chatterjee, I. (2014) claims that whenever the labour poor are ethnoreligiously diverse, with a sizable portion belonging to an oppressed minority religion, such as Ahmedabad's Muslims, the socio-spatial exploitation of the surplus is both a class and an ethnoreligious process. The relocation of the exploited in new venues does not permit for the reclamation of space, life, and livelihood; rather, it triggers new rounds of oppression by containerizing the poor and containerizing and isolating the Muslim poor through forced emplacement in non-choice resettlement sites. Any resistance that frames a struggle to reclaim the city for the labouring poor and the labouring minority poor must thus reclaim surplus-value by denying to be displaced or demanding the right to stay put, and thus the right to toil, sweat, and stain the very earth that forms its being. The politics of governing a progressively entrepreneurial city with a large population of poor people who are most likely to be disenfranchised by the NUP of neoliberal entrepreneurialism must find new way to reframe its extractive policies so that they do not appear blatantly exploitative. As a result, NUP (New Urban Policies) in the developing world are an exercise in identifying and extracting more and more spaces that must be bleached, perfumed, and sanitized for accumulation. Nonetheless, the extraction process must rely on

approaches and discourses that can carefully conceal the corrosive effects of the accumulation.

According to D. Harvey (2008), urbanization lies at the heart of capitalism since the surplus product is collected from the city and then distributed by a few hands. This global urbanization is built on class, as 30 years of neoliberal policies have restored surplus extraction and concentration power to the world's urban Elites. The worldwide spread of gated enclaves, protected places, and public spaces under continual surveillance established this class-based global urbanism. As a result, deeply contested terrains of exclusion, deprivation, isolation, and marginalization emerge, which Harvey sums up as "accumulation by dispossession".

Harvey, D. (2003) develops the concept of "accumulation by dispossession to elucidate how capitalism under neoliberal globalization continues to accumulate. As over-accumulation proceeds under capitalism, capitalism must find ways to profitability, employ surplus-value or risk devaluation of capital, and succumb to the crisis. The crisis of over-accumulation is mitigated, according to Harvey, through accumulation by dispossession. Accumulation by dispossession no longer requires old-style colonial control of territories and people; instead, contemporary neoliberal policies of deregulation, border porosity, capital market liberalization, and structural adjustments imposed on ex-colonial economies allow for the surplus-value to be productivity fixed without having to take colonies. Through multinational corporate control of productive resources, through bio-piracy of genetic stock, through super-exploitation of labour in sweatshops and export processing zones, through privatization of previously public resources, the crisis of over-accumulation can be temporarily mitigated. These various forms of accumulation, however, cause myriad forms of dispossession, lie the dispossession of working of the working class from public housing, the dispossession of indigenous people from ownership of traditional knowledge and biotic resources, the dispossession of women from socially necessary wages, and the dispossession of farmers from sustainable agriculture. What remains latent in Harvey's analysis of "accumulation by dispossession" is the elaboration of

the notion that these myriad dispossessions implicitly include myriad forms of displacement, of indigenous people from forests that are now under corporate control, of working-class from forests that are now under corporate control, of working-class from factories that are now closed, of farmers from their agricultural plots that can no longer compete with corporate agriculture, of the urban working class from their homes.

Drawing from the empirical work of Homer Hoyt, Smith develops this concept of the rent gap to explain the emergence of gentrification. "The rent gap in Smith's analysis is conceptualized as the gap between the actual capitalized ground rent (Land Value) of a plot of land given its present use and the potential ground rent that might be gleaned under a higher and better use" (Smith, N. 1987). The creation of the rent gap, therefore, creates an opportunity for restructuring the city's core. This restructuring was often manifested as urban renewal in the form of slum clearance and the clearance of obsolete industrial buildings and warehouses, where the slum-dwellers worked. Geography of gentrification and rehabilitation of the working class resulted. Smith clarifies that gentrification is not a homogeneous process: not all inner cities experiencing rent gaps may be subjected to urban renewal because local factors may prevent exploitation of economic opportunities in certain urban cores, and the spaces experiencing the deepest rent gap may not be the first to be exploited (Smith, N. 1987). Despite the diverse localization of the gentrification process, one important dimension of neoliberal urbanism, argues Smith, is "the generalization of gentrification as a global urban strategy (Smith, N. 2002). This generalization of gentrification as a foremost strategy of neoliberal urbanism has distinct characteristics that distinguish it from the urban renewal of the 1960s and 1970s. Contemporary neoliberal gentrification agents are not just middle-and upper-middle-class immigrants like in the 1960s and 1970s but rather include governmental organizations, corporate bodies, or other forms of public-private partnerships. The scale and nature of urban renewal are also much more extensive and diverse than its older variant. Most importantly, gentrification is no longer confined to few key cities of the world but has become more ubiquitous, spreading laterally and vertically too

many cities worldwide. However, the global gentrification experience is highly uneven, diverse, and rendered complex by numerous pre-existing local particularities (Smith, N. 2002). Gentrification, therefore, is a territorialization of exploitation where the colonization of inner-city space produces working-class exploitation by spatially displacing them as a class. The generalization of gentrification as a global urban strategy involves a global territorialization of urban exploitation through colonization and displacement of the working-class poor. Theorization of gentrification helps inflict class exploitation with urban space to indicate how the upper class's resettlement is exploitative of the poor. However, the gentrification theory stops at exploring the rent gap and displacement of the class poor; it does not go far enough to conceptualize how resettlement of the displaced poor in post-gentrification ghettos can represent conditions akin to urban "Bantuization." Plebeianization⁵ can be voluntary, where the displaced poor have no other option to resettle on their own in low-value urban spaces that are unlikely to be redeveloped. These can often be hazardous spaces like those in proximity to incinerators, dumping grounds, chemical and metal industries, and other low-quality environments.

Pullido, L. (2005) has explored how race, space, and environmental pollution intersect in urban spaces to marginalize people of color. She contends that the overlapping of racial minorities and environmentally poor neighborhoods cannot be understood only by tracing prospective polluters' racist intentionality looking for and settling polluting activities in cheap lands, which are invariably "black lands." Rather, processes, which are not explicitly of racial intent, like suburbanization, must also be held accountable for racializing urban space through the ruthless reaping of white privilege brought about by white flight. Therefore, to understand why poor people of colour are

⁵The term plebeianization is derived from the ancient Roman term plebeian meaning common or vulgar, plebeianization, on the other hand, signifies the moving-in and settling of the class, racial and ethnic poor in certain urban pocket either voluntarily or through systematic policies devised by the city government."

disproportionately exposed to environmentally poor land, one must explore racist cities' historical construction through intentional. These islands, therefore, embody all the disadvantages of class, caste, and ethnic-racial segregation in space, such as discrimination through redlining, neglect of institutional and public infrastructure, and hostility from neighbors. Exploitation emerges not only from gentrification-related displacement but also from plebeianization-related "Bantustans." Plebeianization is, therefore, the continuation of exploitation after gentrification. Unlike proletarianization of urban space, plebeianization is not a progressive force. Proletarianization involves an evolution of working-class consciousness through shared material contexts of exploitation in the realm of production (Marx, K. and Engels, F. 1975). Through a shared awareness of the mechanisms of exploitation, the proletariat demystifies bourgeois hegemony and advances toward a counter-hegemony that promises to dismantle exploitation structures (Gramsci 1971).

On the contrary, Lefebvre, H. (1996) explicitly says: "The right to the city cannot be conceived of as simple visiting right or a return to traditional cities." Therefore, this is not about temporary access or regressing urban life back to some nostalgic ideal type. He immediately adds: "it (right to the city) can only be formulated as a transformed and renewed right to urban life." What can Lefebvre mean? Purcell's (2003) reading of Lefebvre leads him to conclude that right to appropriation. The former refers to citizens' right to participate in all decision-making, be it decisions made by the State, or private capital, or global governing institutions like the WTO - decisions that produce the city are decisions that citizens can impact directly. The latter, according to Purcell, is more than just a right to physically access, occupy, and use already-produced space – an interpretation already used by many (Isin, E. and Wood, P 1999; Mitchell, D. 2003). Instead, Purcell contends that the right to appropriation includes the right to occupy space and the right to produce space. The right to appropriation stands against the valorization of the urban way of life as using private property values and disenfranchises those citizens who cannot accumulate private property.

Marcuse, P. (2009) clarifies that it is not everyone's right that we are concerned with, in fact, there are a great many people who are already in control of the urban process and have the right to the city, and their right stands in contradiction to those who must produce a renewed right to urban life. Therefore, corporations, financial powerhouses, media barons, speculators, and real estate owners already run the city, and it is not their right that Lefebvre is referring to. It is the "directly oppressed, those for whom even their most immediate needs are not fulfilled: the homeless, the hungry, the imprisoned, the persecuted on gender religious, racial grounds" (p.190), whose right we are concerned with, therefore for Marcuse, and it is not only the informalized marginality that constitutes the revolutionary social class, but also those who are discriminated on racial, gender, or ethnic grounds with or without the added impacts of economic oppression. Marcuse also makes a subtle distinction between demand and cry, as in Lefebvre's claim that "right to the city is like a cry and a demand" (Lefebvre, H. 1996, pp158).

Marcuse, P. (2009) "claims that the demand is for those who are excluded. The cry is of those who are alienated. The demand is for the material necessities of life, and the aspiration is for a broader right to what is necessary beyond the material to lead a satisfying life." (Marcuse, P. 2009, pp. 185-197). Therefore, the demand for the 'right to the city' comes from those who are economically excluded, underpaid, and lead below-subsistence life, or in other words, the working class and the informal social class. Therefore, the right to the urban process is a right that excluded and alienated can together claim. While the former suffers from economic and cultural "segregation," the latter suffers from cultural segregation. Marcuse clarifies that the idea that the proletariat as a single class will lead the struggle with the help of a few intellectuals is outdated. According to Harvey, D. (2008), "right to the city" is a working slogan and a political ideal of those visited by many forms of accumulation by dispossession, accumulation by capital, mainly financial capital at this stage, and underemployment, foreclosures, displacement, eviction, slum habitation thus, essentially a class of economically deprived who have no control over the use of surplus value or the conditions in which it has been produced. For Harvey, therefore,

“right to the city” is a demand and cry coming from an urban underclass that is border than Davis, M. (2004) informalized social class in the sense that it not only includes the unemployed, low-paid, and informally employed, but also those who are regularly displaced and evicted by the implementation of eminent domain and foreclosures, Harvey, D’s underclass is, however, narrower than Marcuse’s economic and cultural class, because this underclass does not explicitly include a group of culturally alienated, although cultural alienation may already be embedded within some of the economic deprivation this underclass faces. For Carroll, W. and Ratner, R.S. (1994), therefore, “right to the city” is a demand and cry of all those who are marginalized by capital in its many manifestations - cultural, economic. Any combination of these, the heterogeneous underclass, therefore, has the right to remake the city by revolutionizing the urban process from being produced by capital to a new urban process produced by them.

Chatterjee (2014), in her study, says that India is now leaping into post-modernity, and state-led development projects, the hill mark of post-independence modernity, have slowly been pushed out of fashion. An Indian version of neoliberalism, locally known as new economic policy (NEP), has taken roots, calling for postmodern visions of governance and development. The structural adjustments ushered by the NEP calls for an entrepreneurial city government, which must liberate the city from regulations that have traditionally been impediments to private capital and foreign investment, and, hence boost the entrepreneurial city, the more is its ability to compete with other cities for local and global investments. Therefore, a postmodern move to globalize requires reclaiming urban spaces previously locked up as public land or commons and transforming them such that they can fix global capital. Along with a sharpening of socio-economic inequalities and socio-spatial exclusion of marginalized groups, the rise of NUP is seen as producing an anti-welfare ideology and criminalization of poverty. This NUP literature stands co-aligned with a rich body of work on municipal neoliberalism, which painstakingly explicates how neoliberal policies like privatization and reduction of public expenditure are locally grounded as actually existing neoliberalism. Therefore, the municipal neoliberalism literature provides a

framework for understanding policies and strategies of urban governance. While they are implicitly co-aligned, there is very little productive dialogue between NUP and “Municipal neoliberalism”.

The many strategies of NUP range from private-public partnership to place marketing, manifest as neoliberal urban conditions such as intercity inequality, specular malls, surveillance of the homeless, eviction of slums, and gentrification; therefore, a hyphenated link between the new political strategies and the new urban conditions enables a more complete framework, the other major gap, argue, is that NUP is often studied without paying sufficient attention to the new cultural strategies adopted by civic governments transitioning from managerialism to entrepreneurialism.

1.2.5. Mitigation mechanism for improvement in living conditions in urban

According to Boonyabanha, S. (2009), comprehensive upgrading is necessary to improve the informal and poor settlements’ basic amenities since the material conditions lay the way to connect with the rest of the urban city and enable inhabitants to pursue and accomplish goals which prime to them individually and collectively.

Boonyabanha, S. (2009), in his work, suggested the community-directed upgrading program, which was implemented in Thailand. In the community upgrade program, government agencies, Community organizations, Development Institutions are involved in providing secure and dignified life. These groups have encouraged the dwellers of the informal settlements to secure tenure by negotiating with landowners. The financial support of these institutions improved the infrastructure of the settlements, and informally settled communities (shanty) were given a major role in decision making; such support expanded the community’s networks.

Scholars such as Dias, S. and Mitlin, D. (2011) addressed the Thailand community’s upgraded programs. Organizations formed by poor groups tie with local governance and negotiate with different agencies to achieve their goals. For example, a group of

waste management has negotiated with the government to be part of the formal waste management system.

In their work, Dias, S. and Mitlin, D. (2011) explained similarly, women commune similar to SHG's, who do not have shelter negotiate with the State for a plot of land to build homes and mentioned that residents of informal settlement committees make partnerships with the police to provide security at their settlement premises. And according to Susan E. Chaplin (1999), non-governmental organizations, with the collaboration of communities, who reside on the outskirts, organized some development programs to provide basic urban amenities such as water provision and sanitation for urban poor and informal settlers at outskirts. These programs are initiated with the help of international, national non-governmental organizations, state, and central governments.

These programs are given signification to community participation in the implementation process; non-governmental organizations have been trying to provide basic amenities to the urban poor and succeeded at some level. Non-governmental organizations, namely Shelters Association, Baandhani, UNICEF sponsored programs for sanitation, urban housing, and other non-governmental organizations, played a vital role in providing basic amenities, namely SPRC, NSDF, Milan, etc. But Chatterjee (2008) criticizes the programs and schemes for up-gradation and well-being of the people. He noticed that most of the upgrading programs merely provide very basic needs to the inhabitants, which are a minimum response to the demands, but these cannot be incorporated into the wider city.

1.3. Research questions:

In the backdrop of the above discussion, this study would like to frame and address the following research questions.

1. It is a known fact that urbanization in developing countries has been rapidly expanding, with the association of commercialization of basic amenities such as

shelter, sanitation, garbage collection, water, etc. Also, the Core urban areas' augmented land prices led to the expansion of the city boundaries. The concentration of urban areas has been shifted to Peri-urban region. The urbanization with the association of commercialization of urban amenities and profit motive financial capital has been adversely impacting urban households, who are inhabitants at Peri-urban; in this context, the question arises regarding the access to quality of life and basic amenities at the Peri-urban by the households. Firstly, do the households at the Peri-urban have access to the basic amenities that indicate the quality of life in the regime of commercialization of basic amenities?

2. It is clearly witnessed that the process of urbanization has been closely associated with the new urban policies, which scholars have vehemently criticized for the uneven development and concentration of development in few regions and few sections. In this context, the question arises regarding distributing basic amenities among various social strata based on; social, occupational, and economic groups in urban areas. What is the nature of access to basic amenities across different social, economic and occupational groups in the urban area?

1.4. Objectives:

1. Examine the urban households' access to basic amenities in urban Telangana and India, with special reference to Social, Religion, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classification of Worker groups.
2. To examine the urban space as a stratified space based on a variety of classifications of the settlements;
3. To examine the emerging nature of urban social structural formation on the basis of an amenities based urbanization as an alternative conceptualization to existing approaches to urbanization.

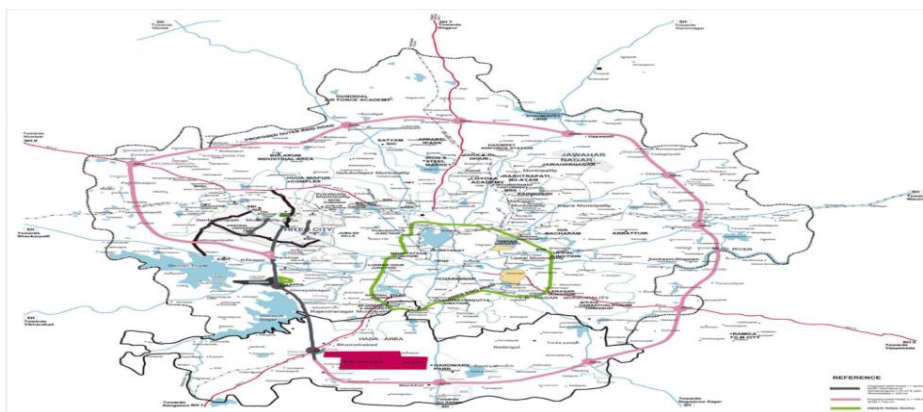
Chapter 2

Profile of the study area and Methodology

2.1. Introduction

The chapter includes the study area's profile, data collection methodology, sample design, data sources, and thesis structure. The research is based on primary and secondary data sources. The primary data has been gathered from the field study of the Nallagandla. It comes under the HUDA (Hyderabad Urban Development Authority) and Serlingampally Mandal, and Ranga reddy district. Here it would be essential to know Hyderabad city. Hyderabad is the capital of Telangana and is one of India's top cities, occupying 650 square kilometers situated on the Musi River's back and the northern part of the Deccan plateau. It has a population of 6,809,970 people and a city area of 7.75 million people, according to the 2011 census. Hyderabad is the fourth most populous city in India. Much of Hyderabad, at an average altitude of 542 metres (1,778 feet), is built on mountainous terrain around artificial lakes, including the Hussain Sagar, which predates the city's founding and is situated to the north of the city centre.

Figure 2.1: Map of Hyderabad



Source: Hyderabad Metropolitan Development Authority.

2.2. Administrative Framework of Hyderabad

HMDA was initiated by an Act of the Andhra Pradesh Legislature in 2008, with a region of 7,100 square kilometers under its area. The Hyderabad Metropolitan Development Authority is the second biggest urban advancement zone in India, after the Bangalore Metropolitan city (8,005 sq km). The HMDA was framed by converging recent substances: (HUDA)⁶, HADA⁷, CDA⁸, and BPPA⁹. HMDA was established to plan, organize, administer, advance, and secure the scheduled development of the Hyderabad Metropolitan Region. It oversees the development projects of metropolitan corporations, districts, and other local authorities such as the HMWSSB, Telangana Transmission Corporation, Telangana Industrial Infrastructure Corporation, Telangana State Road Transport Corporation, and other departments and organizations; the HMDA also manages the development Fund, allocating funds in accordance with local governments' plans and initiatives to improve services and infrastructure. The HMDA has four zonal headquarters: Medchal, Shankerpally, Ghatkesar, and Shamshabad. Hyderabad is divided into four districts.

⁶Hyderabad Urban Development Authority initiated in 1975 by the Andhra Pradesh state assembly act.

⁷Hyderabad Airport Development Authority is agency formed by Government of Andhra Pradesh to develop surrounding of Rajiv Gandhi International airport in 1996 and preceding authority was HUDA.

⁸Cyberabad Development Authority started by Government of Andhra Pradesh in 1999 to develop sub urban areas.

⁹Buddha Poornima Project Authority initiated by Government of Andhra Pradesh to develop areas under the project as tourist destination in 2002.”

Table 2.1: Hyderabad metropolitan (HMR) regions / zones

Zone	Areas comprises
HMR-Central	Begumpet, Banjara Hills, Jubilee Hills, Panjagutta, Somajiguda, Chikkadpally.
HMR-West	Kukatpally, Madhapur, Kondapur, Gachibowli, Raidurgam, Miyapur, Kukatpally, HiTech city, Manikonda Nallagandla and Gopanpally.
HMR-East	Uppal, Malkajgiri, L.B. Nagar, Mallapur, Cherlapally, Kuntloor, Uppal, Kapra, Ghatkesar, Pocharam, Rampally, Nacharam.
HMR-North	Kompally, Medchal, Alwal, QutubullapurYarpal, Nagpur High way and, Shamirpet.
HMR-South	Rajendra Nagar, Shamshabad Malakpet, Saidabad, Upparpally, Santosh Nagar

Source: Hyderabad Metropolitan Development Authority.

2.3. Profile of the Nallagandla

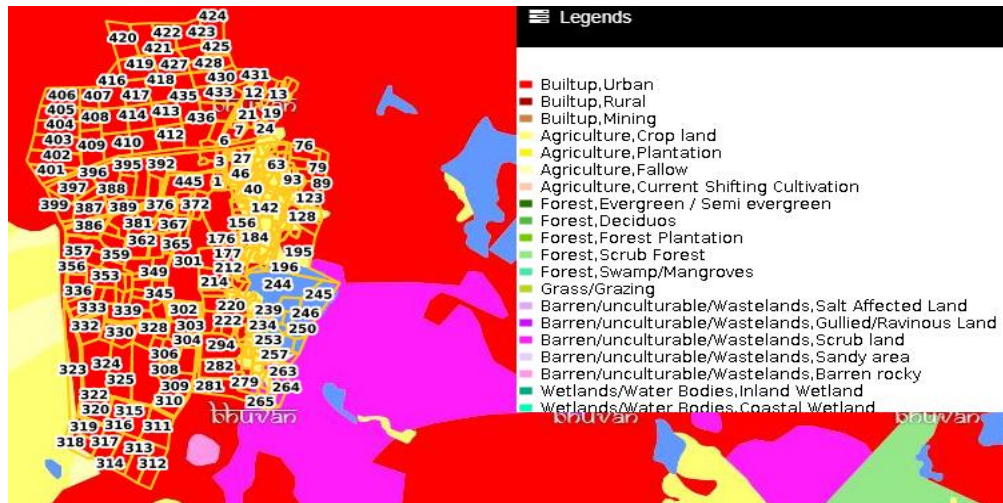
Nallagandla village comes under the west HMR (Hyderabad Metro Region), a significant sub-urban situated in the north-western part of Hyderabad city. It has a headquarter in Serlingampally Mandal in Rangareddy district. The GHMC administrates it. As a result of nearness to the financial district areas such as Hitech City, Gachibowli, Nanakramguda, Manikonda, and Kondapur. There is a substantial arrival of IT nature of employments and mushroomed residential hubs. Nallagandla is one of the rapidly expanding areas. It is close to the IT corridor, only 4 kilometers away, 8 kilometers to the airport ring road track, and 1.8 kilometers to the Main railway station. It is also surrounded by the multinational hospital, international schools, shopping malls, and restaurants.

Nallagandla has a total population of 25856, which contains 13420 male population and 12436 female population and population density of 4105 people per square kilometer¹⁰. Pertaining to the commercial view, the Nallagandla is surrounded by top

¹⁰ “geo iq (2021) [49](https://geoiq.io/places/Nallagandla/R7NiFh0iph.””</p>
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brands the Domino's Pizza, Café coffee day, Pizza hut, Subway Faasos. Major commercial categories are Apartments, Restaurants, Schools, Pharmacy, Office and Industry, Hospitals, Grocery.

Figure 2.2Nallagandla village map



Source: <https://dharani.telangana.gov.in/gis/?lang=en#>

2.4. The reason behind the selection of this project

Population and economic growth have promoted the urbanization of the country, and the number of urban settlements and cities has increased dramatically (UN–Habitat (2010)). This growth is anticipated to continue in the next few years, and India needs to step up its efforts to keep up with this situation. Investment is required to serve the country better. Many factors contribute to India's urbanization: population growth and immigration are one of two main factors. Recently, the third factor has been regarded as the main driving force of urbanization growth: the expansion of cities. This factor is related to the city's rapid economic growth over the years. Many smart cities have been installed in various locations and other initiatives to further promote the country's development towards urbanization. Pertaining to Hyderabad, it is one of the top metropolitan cities, and it is developed from 3rd tier, underdeveloped city to a well-known; one of the top ten cities in the country. The growth of urbanization has been

backed by the new urban policies, real estate development, and expansion of the IT sectors and financial corridors.

The Hyderabad metro region of the west, particularly Nallagandla, which is peri-urban, has been rapidly occupied by the top commercial units and sky-rising buildings and financial corridors, the residential hub for the elites. This elite-centric rapid growth of urbanization with its exclusive nature has adversely affected certain sections of society, such as the marginalized sections, which are financially and socially disadvantaged groups. These groups have been deprived the basic amenities, namely drinking water facilities, bathrooms, latrine, drainage, and garbage collection facilities, by commercialization and marketization resulting from the new urban policies. It is well known that access to basic amenities, which are basic civic amenities and are a fundamental right of the civilian, specifies the households' better life style and decent living conditions. Because of the exclusive character of the growth, basic facilities were distributed unevenly among different sections of the society. At this juncture, this project will look into the accessibility of basic amenities among the different sections of society and settlements in the regime of the rapid growth of urbanization resulting from the new liberal policies. It is also known as the new urban movement emphasis on the high quality of life and sustainable development and assertively promises the life living standards and lifestyle to the citizens.

2.5. Methodology and Sample design

This research is both quantitative and interpretive. It primarily begins with basic amenities namely drinking water, bathrooms, latrines, drainage, garbage collection, and shelter, as well as electricity services, across diverse communities and social stratum in Nallagandla, Telangana State. The study has depended on primary and

secondary data sources. The secondary data has been gathered from the NSSO¹¹ unit-level data by using STATA. The NSSO 69th Survey round unit-level data, which was disclosed in 2012, and the 76th Survey round unit-level data, which was disclosed in 2018, make up the secondary sources. A stratified multi-stage sample design is used to acquire the data. For the 2012 survey, the data was collected from 95,548 households – 53,393 in rural India and 42,155 in urban India, while in 2018, 106,992 households were surveyed- 63,754 in rural India and 43,238 in urban India. Both the surveys collect data on household characteristics, particularly about living facilities and amenities, socio-economic background of household, and the micro environment surrounding the dwelling unit. The study uses these two rounds of the NSSO data to examine inequality in housing across the social status of households and changes in the disparity over time.

In order to investigate the unequal distribution of basic utilities among diverse communities in Telangana and India, the secondary data is divided into four groups by using unit-level data and questionnaire from NSSO 69th and 76th survey:

The Social group consists of 1. Scheduled Castes, 2. Scheduled Tribes, 3. OBCs (Other backward castes), and 4. Others.

1. The Religious group consists of 1. Hindu, 2. Muslims, 3. Christians, and 4. Others

2. The Nature of Employment group consists of 1. Regular wages, 2. Self-employed, 3. Casual labourers, and 4. Others¹².

¹¹“The National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), formerly called the National Sample Survey Organisation was the largest organization in India conducting periodic socio-economic surveys.”

¹² “A household which did not have any income from economic activities was classified as *others*; NSSO 69th round”.

3. The Sectoral Classification of Worker groups: 1. Agriculture, 2. Manufacture and 3. Service.

The primary data was collected using a structured questionnaire for each respondent category. The interview and the Stratified sampling method have been used in the data collection. The primary data has been collected from four different types of settlements of Nallagandla, namely 1. Nallagandla village, 2. The informal settlement, 3. Rented Informal settlement and, 4. Slum (recognized).

Table2.2: Sample design of the Nallagandla

Type of habitation	Total Number of Households	Sample Size of Respondent Household Representative	% of samples from total households
Nallagandla village	638	161	25.23
Informal settlers	172	45	26.16
Rented informal settlement	48	13	27.08
Slum	127	32	25.19
Total	985	251	25.48

Source: GHMC& field survey.

The total sample size is 251 households; this sample collected from the 985 total number of households equals 25.48%. As has been suggested above, the total sample has been divided in terms of types of settlement into four categories; 1. Nallagandla Village, 2. Informal Settlement, 3. The rented informal settlement, and 4. Slum (recognized). Table 2.2 provides the details of the total households in each of the types of settlements and the proportionate sample drawn.

In order to investigate the unequal distribution of basic utilities among diverse communities in Nallagandla, the primary data divided into three groups;

1. The Social group consists of 1. Scheduled castes, 2. Schedule tribes, 3. Other backward castes, and 4. Others.
2. The Nature of Employment groups consists of 1. Regular wages, 2. Self-employed, 3. Casual labourers, and 4. Others.
3. The Rental value group¹³ has been classified into the following segments 1. The rental value less than or equal to 3000 rupees, 2. The rental value between 3001 and 5000 rupees, 3. The rental value between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 4. The rental value between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5. The rental value, more than 9000.

2.6. Data source

The primary data has been collected from the field survey using a structured questionnaire, which mainly deals with households' access to basic essential services among the settlements and diverse communities groups in Nallagandla. The questionnaire of the survey includes open-ended and closed-ended questions. The Secondary data was mainly collected from the multiple surveys of the NSSO. Most of the data were collected from the NSSO 69th round survey-2012 and 76th round survey unit-level¹⁴ data using STATA. Along with these, data from the GHMC (Greater Hyderabad Municipality) has also been collected. For the purpose of the literature review, various reports, journals, and books have been considered.

2.7. Structure of the Thesis

¹³ "Rental value based on the rents for similar size of the homestead, it has considered type of homestead and condition structure and number of rooms."

¹⁴"By using the weights given by the NSSO, data on the variables was obtained and calculated from the National Sample Survey (NSS) Household unit record data."

This study consists seven chapters; the first chapter presents an introduction and review of the literature. The introduction explains various relevant debates on themes of urbanization and different definitions of urbanization. In the backdrop of this, the problematization and research questions have been formulated.

The second chapter explains the data collection methods used in the present study and the background of the study location, the reason behind the selection of the case study.

The next three chapters present data from a variety of data sets pertaining to the question of social unevenness in the experience of urbanization when urbanization is understood as access to basic amenities. This exercise is carried out for national (all India), regional (Telangana state), and local peri-urban levels (Nallagandla).

The third chapter focuses on the access to basic amenities and quality of amenities, indicating a better living style and quality of life in urban India. This chapter presents how these amenities have been distributed among the social and religious, nature of employment and sectorial classification of worker groups in urban India. The chapter's main motive is to address the discriminative and uneven supply of the basic amenities among the several above-mentioned groups. It focuses on the differences in the access to basic urban amenities across different social and economic groups, attempting to depict the highly differentiated nature of urbanization experienced by different groups in Urban India as a whole.

The fourth chapter explains the access to basic amenities and quality of amenities, which indicate the better living style and quality of life in urban Telangana. This chapter focuses on how these amenities have been distributed among the social and religious, nature of employment and sectorial classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. The chapter's main motive is to explain the uneven distribution of the basic amenities among the various groups mentioned earlier. Then, it focuses on distributing better quality amenities among the groups, which is a sign of a better living style and quality of life in urban Telangana.

The fifth chapter presents households' access to basic amenities among the social, nature of employment, and rented value groups in Nallagandla. It mainly focuses on disparity and the uneven dispersal of the basic amenities among the various sections, as mentioned above in Nallagandla.

The Sixth chapter primarily emphasizes on yet another important dimension of unevenness the access to basic amenities among various settlements in Nallagandla. This chapter also explains; who are the worst sufferers in terms of accessing amenities, away from those with access to good quality of amenities, which indicate a better quality of urban living in Nallagandla and deals with the questions of discriminative and uneven distribution of basic amenities across settlements.

Last and Seventh chapter presents the major conclusions of the thesis.

Chapter 3

Access to the Basic Amenities in Urban India-Social Disparity and Unevenness in Urbanization

3.1. Introduction

India's population has been quickly growing for the past couple of decades, as it can be plainly seen. Since urbanization has been accepted as a phenomenon that guarantees a higher quality of life and lifestyles, legislators, the media, and business organizations are paying more attention to city quality of life (Arthur Lewis, 1978¹⁵). Precisely why urbanization as a phenomenon and the extent of urbanization achieved have come to signify as an indicator of development. Especially politicians and political organizations are being obliged to focus on and embrace quality of living in order to attract urban voters. It's been employed in election campaigns as a tactic. All

¹⁵ “Here we come to a factor which must ultimately inhibit industrial growth, namely the difficulties and cost of rapid urbanization. The human effort required to organize decent urban conditions is immense. Streets must be built, paved and lighted. Water must be laid down. Arrangements are needed for sewage disposal. Buses must be organized. The town has to be fed, and while it is relatively easy to bring in cereals, roots or meat from long distances, the daily delivery of milk and vegetables from the surrounding countryside is not so easy to arrange. In the nineteenth century and earlier the size of towns was limited by the logistics of meeting the daily requirements of half a million to a million people living in one town. Nowadays these matters are easier to organize. But perhaps even more important is that many towns have given up trying to organize decent conditions. Urban authorities used to be jealous of the numbers allowed into their cities; residential permits were required. Nowadays all may come, and any kind of squatting is tolerated. Numbers grow past three, four or five million, collected together in squalor, with primitive water, sewage and transportation arrangements. As a result, the struggle to organize decent urban conditions is no longer a constraint on the growth of urbanization (Arthur Lewis, 1978¹⁵).”

fundamental needs, which including food, clothing, housing, drinking water, drainage, power, sewage, collection of garbage arrangements, and so on, are included in the standard of living. Freedom of expression, political freedom, peace, and tranquillity all contribute to a higher quality of life.

This chapter deals with the households' access to a limited set of basic needs, namely drinking water, bathroom, latrine, drainage, garbage collection arrangements, housing, and electricity facilities in an urban area with reference to the various groups, namely social, religious, nature of employment, and sectoral classification of workers groups.

Many developing economies' infrastructure and provisions for providing adequate services to people living in densely populated urban areas, the very heart of such countries' centres, are overburdened or under-supplied. It has resulted in a low standard of living and widespread poverty across a range of capabilities. Access to basic amenities like drinking water, sanitation, electricity, drainage, and so on is critical to people's well-being and a reasonable standard of living, which is a development goal in and of itself, and it also allows households to use their time more fruitfully and productively, that otherwise would have been spent coping with a lack of amenities. The importance of this access has been acknowledged both globally and domestically, as it serves as a dividing line between different forms of deprivation.

Human development requires access to decent basic utilities including housing. Access is unequally distributed in countries like India, and the underprivileged remain to be deprived decent homes. By 2015, India's Millennium Declaration aimed at improving access to adequate drinking water and sanitation services. The health of family members is intimately linked to housing conditions and access to basic services (Marsh, A. et al. 2000). Depending on data from the United Kingdom, the academics point out that bad housing circumstances harm current as well as future health status. As a result, having access to decent housing is critical to a family's general well-being. Housing inequality exists in both developed and developing countries at the moment. Housing disparities exist across racial and ethnic groups in many developed countries

(Uehara, E.S. 1994; Krivo. L.J. and Kaufman, R.L. 2004; Elmelech, Y. 2004). In developing countries, access to better housing is linked to improved economic and social standing (Srinivasan and Mohanty, 2004; Huang and Jiang, 2009; Ahmad, S. 2012). Government programs have an impact on access to better housing and the association between housing conditions and economic status. In this setting, research show that market-based housing provision exacerbates housing inequity and poor living circumstances. Studies on China, for example, show that with the marketization of the housing sector in the early twentieth century, housing consumption inequality rose (Huang, Y. and Jiang, L. 2009). India, like other emerging countries, faces housing and basic utilities inequity. (Kundu, A. *et al.*, 1999; Srinivasan, K. and Mohanty, S.K. 2004; Edelman, B. and Mitra, A. 2006; and Ahmad, S. 2012). Kundu, A. *et al.* 1999) examine access to basic amenities, namely, electricity, toilet facility, and safe drinking water; across states in urban India. Srinivasan, K., and Mohanty, S.K. (2004) revealed considerable discrepancies in access to and absence of basic necessities such as shelter, power, basic sanitation, and drinkable water among Indian states in their research. At the same time, the scholars notice gap among households based on their social status. In precise, socially deprived classes households were identified to be deprived more than the others. Edelman, B. and Mitra, A. (2006) and Ahmad, S. (2012) consider possible reasons behind inequality in housing. Edelman, B. and Mitra, A. (2006), in their studies noticed that access to essential services and political connection has positive relationship, households with association of political organization has better accessibility to basic amenities. On the other side According to Siwar, C. and Kassim, M.Y. (1997) argues that excessive urban growth and polarization of people and development activities will results to unequal development.

3.2. Access to tap drinking water in urban India

This section discusses the social, religious, nature of employment, and sectoral classification of workers' access to tap drinking water in urban India. Piped water into the residence, piped water to the yard/plot, and a public tap are all included in a tap drinking water facility. The public tap, is from the other side, is an important

component of tap drinking water. The public tap has been criticised for its inconsistency and water contamination. Despite this, a considerable number of households have been hunting for the Public tap because their modest wages prevent them from affording alternative commercialised urban water services. The majority of homes in the socioeconomically deprived, casual labourer, and agriculture sectors have been drinking water from the public tap.

Table 3.1: Proportion of households access to Tapped Drinking water in urban India.

NSSO Rounds	Years	Drinking water from the tap ¹⁶
49 th	1993	70.4
54 th	1998	70.1
58 th	2002	73.6
65 th	2008	74.3
69 th	2012	69.4
76 th	2018	64.97

Source: Various NSSO rounds.

Table 3.1 illustrates the households' access to the drinking water tap facility from 1993 (early post-reform period) to 2018. The Drinking water facility from the tap is a significant source of drinking water in urban India. However, there was a drop in access to tap drinking water; even though there was an enhancement during 1993 and 2008, there was not much of an increase during this period, with the increase in access being from 70.4% in 1993 to 74.3% only by 2008. In 1993, only 70.4% of the households had access to drinking water from the tap in the early post-liberalization

¹⁶ "It includes piped water into dwelling, piped water to yard/ plot and public taps/ stand pipe."

period. It was gone down to 64.97% in 2018.

Table 3.2: Proportion of urban households access to Drinking water from the tap among Social groups in India.

Year	2012		2018	
	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap
ST ¹⁷	68.0	14.74	57.3	9.09
SC ¹⁸	63.7	17.34	65.07	11.44
OBC ¹⁹	66.5	15.24	61.51	7.06
Others	72.6	9.34	69.52	5.39
Overall average	69.4	12.48	64.97	7.09

Source: NSSO 69th Round (2012) & 76th round (2018).

The above table 3.2 illustrates the data of access drinking water from taps and Public taps among various Social groups in urban India. There was a decline in tap drinking water between 2012 and 2018 except for Scheduled Castes, which increased from 63.7% to 65.07%. The rate of growth²⁰ was much in the households belonging to

¹⁷ “Scheduled Tribes (ST)”

¹⁸ “Scheduled Castes (SC)”

¹⁹ “Other Backward Castes (OBC)”

²⁰ “Rate of growth is calculated by using formula: $R = \frac{\text{Current Year} - \text{Base Year}}{\text{Base Year}} * 100$.”

Base Year

Scheduled Castes with 2.15% and least in Scheduled tribe households with -15.7%.

In the case of the polarization or concentration²¹ of access to drinking water facilities from taps among the social groups, it was more in the households belong to Others with 3.2% and 4.55% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Even though there is a decline in access to drinking water facilities among the social groups, the concentration in accessing drinking water from taps was evident, symbolizing relative exclusion of other sections of society. However, the other vital component of the tap drinking water facilities is Public taps; Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households depend on most upon Public taps for drinking water among the social groups. Although there was a decline in the households depending on Public taps for drinking water facilities, the polarization of access to drinking water facilities from the public taps was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Castes, was 4.86% and 4.35% in 2012 and 2018, respectively. It may be argued that the SCs and STs in urban India have primarily used the public tap for drinking water, which is known for intermittent supplies and water contamination. In urbanized India, there is a gap and discrimination in access to tap drinking water among social categories, with socially disadvantaged groups like STs and SCs faring worse than the rest.

²¹ “Polarization or Concentration of access to basic amenities has calculated by Subtracting Percentage of households’ access to amenities from Overall Average.”

Table 3.3: Proportion of households access to Drinking water from the tap among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012		2018	
	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap
Hindu	69.7	13.13	65.49	7.06
Muslim	63.73	12.6	61.89	7.53
Christian	70.17	14.28	56.31	9.54
Others	76.70	12.12	78.37	3.65
Overall average	69.4	12.48	64.97	7.09

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The above table shows tap drinking water facilities among religious groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018. The data illustrated that access to tap drinking water declined among Religious groups except for the Others, increased from 76.70% to 78.77%. The rate of growth was much in households belonging to the Others with 2.17% and least in Christians with 19.75% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the polarization or concentration of the access to drinking water facilities from the taps, was more in households belonging to Others with 7.3% and 13.4% more than overall average and least in Muslims with 5.67% and 8.66% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

On the contrary, there was a decrease in households' access to Public taps for the drinking water facility among the religious groups between 2012 and 2018. Still, the households that belong to Christians were in the top place with 9.5% in 2018. Regarding the concentration of the access to drinking water from the Public tap

among religious groups, it is the most in the Christian households with 1.8% and 2.45% more than the overall average and least in Muslim households with 0.36% and 3.44% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. It can be concluded from the above table that there is inequality and exclusion in access to tap drinking water among religious groups. In urban India, Muslim families have the lowest concentration of access to tap drinking water of any religious group. Finally, households rely on the public tap for drinking water, which is renowned for its inconsistency and water contamination. It was mostly used by Muslim households in urban India, and it represents a low standard of living.

Table 3.4: Proportion of households access to Drinking water from the tap among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012		2018	
	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap
Self employed	69.72	11.88	65.02	6.38
Regular wage	72.17	10.55	67.14	5.45
Casual labourers	64.46	28.83	64.37	15.90
Others	61.89	6.06	62.28	5.63
Overall average	69.4	12.48	64.97	7.09

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.4 illustrates the access to tap drinking water facilities from the taps among the Nature of employment groups in urban India. There was a decline in access to drinking water facilities from the taps except for Others, which increased marginally from 61.89% to 62.28% between 2012 and 2018. However, the rate of growth in access to drinking water from the taps was positive, and only among the households belonging

to the category of Others, there is a marginal increase of 0.63%, and the rate of growth was lowest in Regular wages with -6.9%. The data clearly illustrates that affordability for tap drinking water positively correlated with the regular income flow of the households. The Nature of employment groups with steady and secured income, namely Regular and Self-employed, have better access to tap drinking water than other employment categories.

Regarding the polarization of the access to drinking water facilities from tap among the Nature of employment groups, was highest in the households belong to the Regular wages with 2.77% and 2.17% more than overall average and the lowest in Others with 7.5% and 2.69% less than overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. However, regarding the access to drinking water from the Public taps, there was a decline among the Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018; still, most of the households belonging to Casual labourers have been resorting to the Public taps for drinking water, was 15.90% in 2018. Regarding the concentration of access to Public taps, it was highest with the Casual labourer households with 16.59% and 8.81% more than the overall average and least in Other households with 6.42% and Regular wage households with 1.64% in 2012 and 2018, respectively. It can be inferred from the above table that households rely on the public tap for drinking water, which is notorious for inconsistency and water shortages, has been primarily consumed by casual labourers, and it has been distributed primarily among casual labourers in urban India.

Table 3.5: Proportion of households access to the Drinking water from the tap among Sectoral classification of worker groups²² in urban India.

Year	2012		2018	
Sectoral Classification of Workers groups	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap.	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the public tap
Agriculture	65.29	23.07	59.38	11.41
Manufacture	73.76	14.93	66.32	8.07
Service	69.96	12.49	66.32	6.19
Overall average	69.4	12.48	64.97	7.09

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.5 shows the households' access to tap drinking water among the Sectoral Classification of workers groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018. The data explains that there was a decline in the access to drinking water facilities from the taps between 2012 and 2018, there was a negative growth rate among the Sectoral classification of workers groups, and the negative growth rate more in households belong to Manufacture sector with -10.08% and least in the Service sector with -5.20%.

However, pertaining to the polarization or concentration of the access to drinking water facilities among Sectoral classification of workers groups, it was much in the households belong to Manufacture sector with 4.36% and 1.38% more than the overall average and least in Agriculture sector with 4.11% and 5.59% less than the

²²“Sectoral classification of the worker groups has been generated by using 2-digit code as per NIC (National Industrial Classification) -2008.”

overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Finally, in the case of the access to Public taps as source of drinking water facility; the most were the households belong to the Agriculture sector during the period from 2012 to 2018, even though this group was experiencing the least rate of growth among the Sectoral classification of workers groups which was -50.54%. Still, the concentration of access to drinking water from the Public taps was much in households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 10.59% and 4.32% more than the overall average. It can be concluded from the above table that there is an unequal distribution of drinking water facilities from the taps among the Sectoral classification of worker groups. The Agriculture sector households are adversely affected in access to tap drinking water facilities, having least access, compared to all-other Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

3.3. Access to Bathroom, Latrine, Garbage, and Drainage facilities in urban India.

The access to the bathroom, latrine, garbage, and drainage system in urban India is explained in this section. It is primarily concerned with the quality of amenities and their distribution among workers of various social, religious, occupational, and sectoral classifications. This section shows how all groups have improved their access to the quality of services. Households belonging to marginalized communities namely SCs, STs, Muslims, casual labourers, and agriculture households, On the contrary, have been denied access to high-quality utilities, indicating a low standard of living.

3.3.1. Access to Bathroom facility in urban India

The bathroom facilities are categorized into two kinds in this section: attached and detached bathroom facilities. The attached bathroom facility provides a higher standard of life than the detached bathroom facility. In urban India, the absence of availability to bathroom facilities is a symptom of the poorest lifestyle and living

standards. This section also discusses how Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications of workers in urban India have access to bathrooms and what types of bathrooms they have. It is common knowledge that accessibility to a bathroom is a sign of self-dignity.

Table 3.6: Proportion of households access to the bathroom and type of bathroom facility in urban India.

NSSO Rounds	Year	Bathroom facility	No bathroom	Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom
49 th	1993	53.5	46.5	27.5	26
54 th	1998	64.7	35.3	34.7	29.9
58 th	2002	68	32	48.0	20
65 th	2008	79	21	55.4	20.6
69 th	2012	83.3	16.7	55.39	16.68
76 th	2018	91.2	8.8	74.77	24.66

Source: Various NSSO rounds.

Table 3.6 demonstrates the households' access to the bathroom and type of bathroom facilities from 1993 to 2018. There was notable progress in access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities in the post-liberalization period. Access to the bathroom facility went up from 53% in 1993 to 91.2% in 2018. In a way, there was a significant decrease in no access to bathroom facilities; it went down from 46.5% in 1993 to 8.8% in 2018. Access to the attached bathroom facility went up from 27.5% in 1993 to 74.77% in 2018, and there was a stagnation in progress during the period 2012 to 2018. Access to the detached bathroom facility was found up and down, even though it decreased between 1993 and 2018 from 26% to 16.43%. It got increased from 8.53% to 16.43% during the period from 2012 to 2018.

Table 3.7: Proportion of households access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities among Social groups in urban India.

Year	2012				2018			
	Bathroom facility	No bathroom facility	Type of bathroom facility		Bathroom facility	No bathroom facility	Type of bathroom facility	
			Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom			Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom
ST	78.3	21.8	47.8	30.4	81.05	18.95	68.12	31.88
SC	68.9	30.7	35.2	34.1	84.19	15.81	65.60	34.40
OBC	82.6	17.4	51.8	30.8	92	8	71.6	28.40
Others	89.33	10.7	66.8	22.5	93.88	6.12	82.45	17.55
Overall average	83.3	16.7	55.39	25.68	91.2	8.8	74.77	24.66

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The above table describes the households' access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities among Social groups in urban India. The data illustrates a growth in the access to bathroom facilities among the social groups; the rate of the growth was highest in the Scheduled Castes, which was 22.19%, and the lowest Scheduled Tribes with 3.5% between 2012 and 2018. But Pertaining to the polarization or concentration of the access to bathroom facilities among the social groups, the Scheduled Caste households are in a vulnerable state than all other social groups, which was 5% and 10.15% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

The concentration of accessibility to bathroom facility much in Other households social groups, which was 5.97% and 2.02% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018. It is a symbol of relative deprivation and exclusion from access to bathroom

facilities. Even though there is progress in access to bathroom facilities, to a greater extent, the socially disadvantaged or backward sections namely, STs and SCs are denied access to the bathroom facility more than all other social groups in urban India. Together, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes constitute 33.86% who did not access the bathroom facility in 2018. They must bathe in an open area or in makeshift restrooms with plastic coverings and posters. There is a pressing need to reduce the number of urban families without accessibility to a bathroom. The fragility of marginalized communities demonstrates the need for greater attention, as they lag significantly behind other socioeconomic groups in terms of bathroom access; it is an issue of self - respect.

Regarding the households' access to the type of bathroom facilities, the Attached bathroom facility witnessed progress among the social groups, and the growth was more in the Scheduled Caste households with 86.36% and least in the Other households with 23.42% between 2012 and 2018. But, about the concentration of the Attached bathroom facility was the most in the households belonging to Other, as compared to all other social groups, with 11.41% and 7.68% more than the overall average and the lowest in the Scheduled Castes with 20.19% and 9.17% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

On the contrary, there was a decline in households' access to Detached bathroom facilities between 2012 and 2018 among the social groups except for Scheduled Tribes, which increased from 30.4% to 31.88%. Regarding the concentration of access to Detached bathroom facilities, the households belonging to Scheduled Castes were the most than all other social groups, with 8.42% and 9.74% more than the overall average and least in the Others with 3.18% and 7.11% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018. It is clear from the above chart that access to the attached bathroom facility has improved, indicating a better quality of life and higher living standard between 2012 and 2018. However, it is unequally distributed throughout social groupings. Households belonging to disadvantaged populations such as SCs and STs are the most vulnerable in urban India when comparison to all other

socioeconomic groupings.

On the contrary, access to the Detached bathroom facility indicates a low standard of life; the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households are in the top place; these households combined constitute more than 65% of households having detached bathrooms. At the same time, the access to bathroom facility is less among the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households than the all other social categories, which indicates the deprivation and exclusion from the access of these social groups from bathroom facility in urban areas.

Table 3.8: Proportion of households access to bathroom and types bathroom facilities among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012				2018			
	Bathroom facility	No bathroom	Types Bathroom facility		Bathroom facility	No bathroom	Type of bathroom facility	
			Attached	Detached			Attached	Detached
Hindu	83.7	16.30	55.60	28.10	91.44	8.56	74.98	25.02
Muslim	77.52	22.48	49.95	27.57	88.28	11.72	74.20	25.80
Christian	92.91	7.08	65.66	27.26	94.84	5.16	73.74	26.26
Others	89.06	10.94	69.04	20.42	94.79	5.21	80.63	19.37
Overall average	83.3	16.7	55.39	25.68	91.2	8.8	74.77	24.66

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.8 displays the households' access to bathrooms and the type of bathroom facilities among Religious groups in urban India. There was an improvement in households' access to bathroom facilities among religious groups between 2012 and

2018. The rate of growth was highest in the case of Muslim households with 13.8% and least in Christian households with 2.07%. On the contrary, regarding the polarization or concentration of access to bathroom facilities among the religious groups, it was the Christian households who had more concentration than all other religious groups, which was 9.61% and 3.64% more than the overall average and least in Muslim households with 5.78% and 2.92% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Moreover, there was a significant enrichment in access to the Attached bathroom facilities, which indicates a good life and better living standards, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Muslims with 48.54% and least in Christians with 12.30% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of the Attached bathroom facility, it was more in households belong to Others with 13.65% and 5.86% more than the overall average and least in the Muslim households with 5.44% and Christian households with 1.03% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2108, respectively.

Pertaining to the access to the Detached bathroom facility, there was a drop between 2012 and 2018. In 2018, the Christian households were in first place with 26.26%, and the Other households were in last place with 19.37%. Finally, regarding No access to the bathroom, there was a drop among the religious groups between 2012 and 2018. Still, in 2018 Muslim households were the most in No access to bathroom facility with 11.72% and least in the Christian households with 5.16%. It is witnessed from the above table that the households that belong to Muslims are very vulnerable regarding access to bathrooms and better bathroom facilities in urban India. Although there was a reduction in households' no access to the bathroom and detached bathroom facility among the religious groups from 2012 to 2018, most Muslim households have been denying the bathroom and attached bathroom facility among the all-other religious groups. The concentration of access to bathroom and Attached bathroom facility more in the with Others religious groups, as compared to the Muslim households, is a symbol of exclusion and deprivation from the access. These groups seek the government's exceptional attention to upgrading their quality of life and living standards.

Table 3.9: Proportion of households access to types bathroom facilities among various Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012				2018			
Nature of Employment groups	Bathroom facility	No bathroom	Type of Bathroom facility		Bathroom facility	No bathroom	Types Bathroom facility	
			Attached	Detached			Attached	Detached
Self employed	83.77	16.23	58.61	25.16	90.84	9.19	78.47	21.53
Regular wage	87.88	12.12	63.36	24.52	93.56	6.44	78.96	21.04
Casual labourers	58.9	41.1	25.5	32.58	79.02	20.98	56.84	43.16
Others	92.98	7.02	50.93	42.05	94.63	5.37	74.24	25.76
Overall average	83.3	16.7	55.39	25.68	91.2	8.8	74.77	24.66

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The table 3.9 displays the households' access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities among Nature of Employment groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018; the data depicted growth in access to bathroom facilities among the Nature of employment groups, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to the Casual labourers with 34.15% and least in the Other with 1.77% only. But, the polarization of access to bathroom facilities was much in the households belonging to Others with 9.68% and 3.43% higher than the overall average and least in Casual labourers with 24.2% and 12.18% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. It indicates deprivation of the households belonging to the Casual labourers from access to the bathroom facility.

It can be observed from the table 3.9 that there was noteworthy progress in the access to Attached bathroom facilities between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was much in the households belong to Casual labourers with 122.9% and least in Regular wages with 24.62%. Regarding the concentration or polarization of the access Attached bathroom facility, it was more in the Regular wage households with 7.97% and 4.19% more than the overall average and least the Casual labourers households with 29.89%, 17.93% in 2012 and 2018 respectively. On the contrary, the access to Detached bathroom facility between 2012 and 2018, there was a decrease except for Casual labourers; it went up from 32.58% to 43.16%. However, Pertaining to the polarization of the Detached bathroom facility, it was more in the Casual labourers households with and 18.5% more than the overall average compared to all other Nature of employment groups in 2018.

Lastly, pertaining to the households with no access to bathroom facilities between 2012 and 2018, the data illustrates a drop among the Nature of employment groups. Still, in 2018, the Casual labourers households were the most in no access to bathroom facility with 20.98%, followed by Self-employed, Regular wages and Others households with 9.19%, 6.44%, and 5.37% in 2018. The Casual labourers are the worst sufferers regarding access to bathroom and attached bathroom facility, which represents good life and better living standard in urban India. On the contrary, the concentration of the access to bathroom and Attached bathroom facilities were mainly with the households belonging to the Regular wages and Others and very poor in the Casual labourers and shows relative deprivation and exclusion from access to bathroom and attached bathroom facilities in urban India.

Table 3.10: Proportion of households access to bathrooms and types of bathroom facilities among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012				2018			
	Bathroom facility	No Bathroom	Type of bathroom facility		Bathroom facility	No Bathroom	Type of bathroom facility	
			Attached	Detached			Attached	Detached
Agriculture	67.1	32.90	39.10	28.00	80.16	19.39	64.8	35.2
Manufacture	78.77	21.23	49.90	28.87	89.07	10.93	71.99	28.01
Service	84.38	15.62	59.77	21.23	93.12	6.88	81.09	18.91
Overall average	83.3	16.7	55.39	25.68	91.2	8.8	74.77	24.66

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table.3.10 depicts the access to the bathroom and types of bathroom facilities in urban India by sectoral classification of workers groups. Between 2012 and 2018, there was significant development in terms of access to bathroom facilities within the Sectoral classification of workers groups. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was higher in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 19.46% and least in the Service sector with 10.35%. On the contrary, concerning the polarization of the bathroom facility among the Sectoral classification of workers groups, it was much in the Service sector households with 1.08% and 6.32% more than overall averages and least in the Agriculture sector households with 16.2% and 11.04% less than the

overall average, in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the households' access to the Attached bathroom facility between 2012 and 2018, there was notable growth in access to the attached bathroom facility, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 65.7% and least in the Service sector with 35.67%. But data displays that the concentration of access to the Attached bathroom facility was more with the households belonging to the Service sector with 4.38% and 6.3% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 16.2% and 9.97% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

It can be observed that there was a decrease in access to Detached bathroom facilities both in Manufacture and Service sector households from 28.87% to 28.01% and 21.23% to 18.91% and went up in Agriculture sector households from 28% to 35.2% between 2012 and 2018. The concentration of the Detached bathroom facility was more with the Agriculture group than the all other Sectoral classification of worker groups; it was 4.38% and 10.54% more than the overall average and least in the Service sector households with 4.45% and 5.75% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Lastly, when it comes to the No access to bathroom facility between 2012 and 2018, it went down among the Sectoral classification of worker groups, but the Agriculture sectors households were in the most with 19.39% in 2018. In terms of access to bathrooms and the quality of bathroom facilities in urban India, it can be noted from the above table that most households belonging to the Agriculture groups have been living in the worst conditions compared to all other Sectoral classifications of worker groups in urban India. The polarization or concentration of the access to bathroom and attached bathroom facilities is mainly with the Services households and least with Agriculture households, symbolizes the deprivation and exclusion of the Agriculture households from access to bathroom and attached bathroom facilities in urban India.

3.3.2 Access to Latrine facility in urban India

This section concentrates on the availability to latrine facilities in urban India among the Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications of workers. This section also discusses the exclusive usage of latrine facilities, which suggests that urban India has a better quality of life. Finally, it depicts households without a bathroom, which denotes the poorest lifestyles. Even though households belonging to socially disadvantaged groups such as SCs, STs, casual labourers, and agriculture sector households have more access to exclusive use of latrine facilities, it is still insufficient.

Table 3.11: Proportion of households access to the Latrine and exclusive use of latrine facility in urban India.

NSSO Rounds	Year	Toilet /latrine facility	No Toilet /latrine facility	Exclusive use of latrine facility
49 th	1993	69.4	30.6	40.4
58 th	2002	82	17.9	53.5
65 th	2008	89	11.3	58.1
69 th	2012	91.2	8.8	63.9
76 th	2018	96.24	3.76	77.62

Source: Various NSSO rounds.

Table 3.11 depicts household access to latrine facilities in urban India from 1993 to 2018. The accompanying table shows that there has been an increase in access to latrine facilities. It went from 69.4% in 1993 to 96.24% in 2018. On the contrary, when it comes to the households with no access to latrine facilities from 1993 to 2018, it sharply went down from 30.6% in 1993 to Only 3.76% in 2018. Lastly, pertaining to the access to exclusive use of latrine facilities from 1993 to 2108, Access to exclusive use of latrine facilities is improving, which is an indicator of improved standards of living and living conditions, increased from 40.4% to 77.62%.

Table 3.12: Proportion of households access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facility among Social groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of latrine facility	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of latrine facility
ST	82.8	17.2	56.7	88.8	11.20	68.15
SC	81.4	19.6	43.9	91.07	8.93	66.36
OBCs	89.1	10.9	61.8	96.22	3.78	77.72
Others	97.5	2.5	73.2	98.86	1.14	82.44
Overall average	91.2	8.8	63.9	96.24	3.76	77.62

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.12 illustrates the households' access to latrine facilities and exclusive use of latrine facilities by the Social groups between 2012 and 2018. There was an increase in access to latrine facilities across the social categories, and the rate growth was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Castes with 11.87% and least in the Others with 1.39%. On the contrary, concerning the polarization of access to latrine facilities among social groups, it was more in the Other households with 6.3% and 2.62% more than the overall average and least in Scheduled Castes with 9.8% and Scheduled Tribes with 7.44% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. The concentration of the latrine facility indicates that the deprivation of other sections from access to latrine facility and deprivation was more in the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes households.

However, there was an enhancement in access to exclusive use of latrine facilities, and the rate of growth was much in the Scheduled Castes households with 51.16% and least in the Others with 12.62% between 2012 and 2018. But, concerning the concentration of accessibility to exclusive use of latrine facility was more in Other

households with 9.3% and 4.82% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Castes households with 20% and 11.26% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Lastly, pertaining to the No access to latrine facility between 2012 and 2018, there was a reduction among the social groups; however, in 2018, the Scheduled Tribes households were more in no access to latrine facility with 11.20% and followed by Scheduled Castes, OBCs, and Others households with 8.93%, 378%, and 1.14%, respectively. It may be stated that households belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes had the worst accessibility to latrines and exclusive usage of latrines, indicating a higher quality of life than all other social categories in urban India. The polarization or concentration of access to latrine facilities is accumulated more with the social group called Others, and least with SCs and STs; it is clear evidence of deprivation and exclusion from latrine access and exclusive use of latrine facilities in urban India.

Table 3.13: Proportion of households’ access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities among religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility
Hindu	90.83	9.17	63.31	96.1	3.90	77.38
Muslim	91.52	8.48	62.43	96.52	3.48	76.08
Christian	95.79	4.21	73.52	96.45	3.55	85.12
Other	96.29	3.71	76.98	98.07	1.93	83.17
Overall average	91.2	8.8	63.9	96.24	3.76	77.62

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The above table shows the households’ access to a latrine, an exclusive latrine facility, and no latrine facility amongst religious in urban India between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the access to latrine facility among religious groups, there was an enhancement in access to latrine facility and, the growth rate was much in the

households belonging to Hindus with 5.8% and least in the Christian with 0.68% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the polarization of the access to latrine facilities across the religious categories, it was the highest in Others households than all other religious groups with 5.09% and 1.83% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the access to exclusive use of latrine facility, there was growth among the religious groups, and the rate of growth was more in households belonging to Hindus with 22.22% and least in Others with 8.04% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the concentration of exclusive use of latrine facility across religious categories, was much in the Others households with 13.08% and Christian households with 7.5% more than the overall average and least in the Muslim households with 1.47% and 1.54% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018. Finally, there was a drop in the number of households with No access to latrine facilities among the religious groups between 2012 and 2018, still, in 2018, the Hindu households were the most with 3.90% and followed by Christians, Muslims, and Others with 3.55%, 3.48%, and 1.93%, respectively. The religious group has made progress in terms of access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities, but Muslim households face barriers in terms of available to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities.

When comparing Muslim households to other households, the concentration of accessibility to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities is relatively low, indicating that Muslims are excluded from accessibility to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities.

Table 3.14: Proportion of households access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facility among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
	Nature of Employment groups	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility
Self-employed	91.81	8.09	71.49	96.72	3.28	84.17
Regular wage	95.97	4.03	70.35	98.19	1.81	79.58
Casual labourers	61	39.00	37.73	87.27	12.73	64.21
Others	99.91	0.19	48.33	97.61	2.39	74.26
Overall average	91.2	8.8	63.9	96.24	3.76	77.62

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.14 indicates the households' access to a latrine, as well as exclusive usage of the latrine facility by Nature of employment groups in urban India. Between 2012 and 2018, there was an enhancement in access to latrine facilities except for the Other households; it went down from 99.91% to 97.61%. Regarding the rate of growth among the Nature of employment groups, it was more in the households belonging to the Casual labourers with 43.06% and least in the Other households with -2.30%. But, the concentration of access to the latrine facility was much in the households belonging to Others with 8.71% and Regular wages with 1.95% more than the overall average and least in Casual labourers with 30.2% and 8.97% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Regarding access to exclusive use of latrine, there was an increase in the access to exclusive use of latrine facility among the employment groups, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to the Casual labourers households with 70.18% and least in the Regular wages households with 13.12%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to exclusive use of latrine facility, which depicts deprivation of rest of the section from the access to exclusive use of latrine facility, the Self-employed were in the top place with 7.49% and 6.55% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively and, followed by Regular wages and Others. The households belonging to the Casual

labourers were in the least in the polarization of access to exclusive use of latrine facility with 26.17% and 13.41% 2018 less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Finally, the households with No access to the latrine facility among the nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018, there was decline except for the Others, increased from 0.19% to 2.39%; still, in 2018, the households belonging to the Casual labourers were in the top place in no access to latrine facility with 12.73%. The table shows that among the Nature of employment categories, there is development in household access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine services, while families belonging to the Casual labourers have the worst access to latrine facilities and exclusive use of latrine facilities. When compared to other occupational groups, Casual labourers had less polarization or concentration of the latrine and exclusive usage of latrine facilities.

Table 3.15: Proportion of households access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facility among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility
Agriculture	67.87	32.13	54.85	86.17	13.83	76.27
Manufacture	91.84	8.16	58.49	95.38	4.62	75.71
Service	91.75	8.25	69.72	98.02	1.98	83.55
Overall average	91.2	8.8	63.9	96.24	3.76	77.62

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.15 shows the household access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities among Sectoral classification of workers groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018. The data showed a growth in the access to the latrine facilities, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 26.96% and followed by Service and Manufacture sector households with

6.83%, 3.85% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. Regarding the polarization or concentration of access to latrine facilities, it was mostly in the Manufacture sector households with 0.64%, and Service sector households with 1.78% more than the overall average and least in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 23.33% and 10.07% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

Regarding access to exclusive use of latrine facility, there was progress among the Sectoral classification of worker groups, and the rate of growth was more in the Agriculture households with 39.05% and least in the Service sector households with 19.83% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. Moreover, the concentration or polarization of access to exclusive use of latrine facility was more in Service sector households with 5.82% and 5.93% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 9.05% in 2012 and Manufacture sector households with 1.91% in 2018 less than the overall average.

Regarding the No access to latrine facilities, it witnessed a notable fall; still, in 2018, the Agriculture sector households were in the top place with 13.83%, followed by the Manufacture and Service sector households with 4.62% and 1.98%, respectively. There has been improvement in accessibility to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities among Sectoral classifications of worker groups, although households in the Agriculture sector are at the bottom in terms of latrine accessibility and exclusive use of latrine facilities. When compared to other households, the concentration of access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities in the Agriculture sector households is very low, indicating that the Agriculture sector households are excluded from access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities.

3.3.4. Access to Garbage collection facility in urban India

This section elucidates the accessibility to Garbage collection in urban India. There are three types of Garbage collection arrangements: the Arrangements made by the Municipality or Corporation, Resident/ groups of residents, and Others. It is well-known from the studies (Bijlani, H. U. 1996, Souro D. Joardar, 2000) has done so for

on the cities, Municipality or Corporation have made garbage collection arrangements but, it is not for the free of cost; they have been giving the contract to private agencies to making the garbage collection arrangements.

It is a clear indication of the privatization of the garbage collection arrangement, which denies access to Municipality or corporation arrangements for the households cannot pay. The commercialization and privatization of the garbage collection arrangement have adversely affected the socially deprived section, namely Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Muslims, Casual labourers, and Agriculture sector households, more than all other groups in urban India.

Table 3.16: Proportion of households access to Garbage collection arrangement facility in urban India.

NSSO Rounds	Year	Garbage collection arrangements	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/ Group of residents	Other	No Garbage collection arrangements
65 th	2008	78.6	62	13.1	0.35	21.4
69 th	2012	75.8	51.91	21.5	0.24	24.2
76 th	2018	82.43	74.14	5.66	1.73	17.57

Source: Various NSSO rounds.

Table 3.16 explains the households' access to garbage collection arrangements in urban India from 2008 to 2018. The data present improvement in access to garbage and the type of garbage collection arrangements in urban India. Urban households' access to garbage collection arrangements increased from 78.6% in 2008 to 82.43% in 2018. On the contrary, pertaining to the access to garbage collection arrangements made by Municipality/Corporation, it went up from 62% in 2008 to 74.14% in 2018. Simultaneously, the access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/Group of residents went down from 13.1 in 2008 to 5.66% in 2018. The urban households made Other arrangements for garbage collection; it went up from 0.35% in 2008 to 1.73% in 2018. Lastly, the urban households with no access to

garbage collection arrangements decreased from 21.4% in 2008 to 17.57% in 2018.

Table.3.17: Proportion of households access to Arrangements made to collect garbage among Social groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
Social groups	Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage				Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage			
		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangement		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangement
ST	68.21	48.14	14.43	5.64	31.79	71.66	63.26	5.27	2.18	28.34
SC	68.38	44.9	20.55	2.92	31.62	77.04	69.01	5.15	1.59	22.96
OBC	72.99	52.97	17.53	2.49	27.01	81.44	75.68	3.70	1.12	18.56
Others	81.81	53.53	26.35	1.93	18.19	86.54	75.45	8.01	2.39	13.46
Overall average	75.8	51.91	21.5	0.24	24.2	82.43	74.14	5.66	1.73	17.57

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The above table shows the households' access to garbage collection arrangements and the types of garbage collection arrangements among Social groups in urban India. Pertaining to access to garbage collection arrangements between 2012 and 2018, there was a rise in access to garbage collection arrangements, and the rate of growth in access to garbage collection arrangements was more in the households belonging to the SCs with 12.66% and least in the STs with 5.05%. Pertaining to the concentration of access to the garbage collection arrangements, it was mostly with the Others households, as compared to all social groups in urban India, which was 6% and 4.11% more than the overall average and, least in the Scheduled Tribes with 7.59% and 10.77% in 2012 and 2018 less than the overall average. Pertaining to the access to garbage collection arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation, there was a growth, and the rate of growth was more in the Scheduled Castes

households with 53.6% between 2012 and 2018.

Still, the polarization of the access to garbage collection arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation was more in the Other households with 1.62% more than the overall average in 2012 and OBCs with 1.54% in 2018 more than the overall average, and it was the least in the Scheduled castes with 10.88% lower than overall average in 2012 and Scheduled Tribes with 7.01% lower than overall average in 2018.

On the contrary, with reference to access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/ Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop; it was more in the Other households among the social groups, which decreased from 28.34% to 8.01%. However, apart from the above-mentioned two, there is a category called Other in case of the other type of arrangement for garbage collections; there was a drop except for the social group called Other households, which was increased from 1.93% to 2.39% between 2012 and 2018.

Finally, with reference to the households with no access to garbage collection arrangements among social groups in urban India, there was a decrease, but most of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have no access to garbage collection arrangements; in 2018, the Scheduled Tribes were the most among those with no access to garbage collection arrangements with 28.34% and followed by the Scheduled Castes, OBCs, and Others with 22.96%, 18.56%, and 13.46%, respectively. It can be concluded from table 3.17 that there is an improvement in the access to arrangements made for garbage collection between 2012 and 2018 among social groups in urban India. However, in comparison to all other social groups in urban India, SCs and STs are at a disadvantage pertaining to waste collection and municipal or corporation-made arrangements. Moreover, the polarization or concentration of the access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation facilities is much with the Other households and least with the SCs and STs households, symbolizes deprivation and exclusion from access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation in urban India.

Table 3.18: Proportion of households access to Arrangements made to collect garbage among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
Religious groups	Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage				Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage			
		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangement		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangements
Hindu	76.76	52.55	21.29	2.62	23.24	84.28	75.89	5.75	1.77	15.72
Muslim	70.6	51.01	18.15	1.45	29.4	75.13	69.39	3.56	1.31	24.87
Christians	71.48	49.68	18.68	3.13	28.52	71.94	60.60	7.02	3.27	28.06
Others	81.61	35.18	44.83	1.6	18.39	84.49	75.43	7.12	0.74	15.51
Overall average	75.8	51.91	21.5	0.24	24.2	82.43	74.14	5.66	1.73	17.57

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The table.3.18 shows the households' access to garbage collection arrangements and the types of garbage collection arrangements among Religious groups in urban India. Concerning the access to garbage collection arrangements among religious groups, there was a growth and rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Hindus with 9.7% and least in Christians with 0.64% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the concentration of garbage collection arrangements, it was more in the households belonging to Others with 5.81% and 2.06% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively, and least in the Muslim households with 5.2% in 2012 and Christian households with 10.49% in 2018 less than the overall average. On the contrary, households' access to the arrangement made for garbage collection by Municipality or Corporation among religious groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018, there was an improvement and, the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Others with 114.41% and least in Christians with 21.98%. But pertaining to the concentration of the access to garbage collection arrangement

by Municipality or Corporation, it was more in the Hindus with 0.64% and 1.75% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, the accessibility to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/ group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop, was more in the households belong to the religious group called Others, which went down from 44.83% to 7.12% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the access to Other arrangements for garbage collections, there was a drop except for the households belong to Christians; it increased marginally from 1.13% to 2.37% between 2012 and 2018. Finally, with reference to the households with No access to garbage collection arrangements among religious groups in urban India, there was a decrease, but most of the households who did not have access to garbage collection arrangements were Christians and Muslims in 2018 than the all-other religious groups in urban.

Table 3.18 notices that there is progress in the households' access to arrangements made for the garbage collection between 2012 and 2018 across religious categories in urban India, but the households belong to Muslim and Christian are in poor condition in terms of having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all other religious groups in urban India. Finally, pertaining to the polarization or concentration of access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by the Municipality/Corporation less with the households belong to Muslims, as compared to all other religious categories, it indicates exclusion and deprivation of the Muslim households in urban India.

Table 3.19: Proportion of households access to Arrangements made to collect garbage among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
Nature of Employment groups	Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage				Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage			
		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangement		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangement
Self-employed	75.6	52.05	22.39	1.12	24.4	82.27	75.49	4.91	1.06	17.73
Regular wage	80.03	53.59	24.11	2.33	19.97	86.68	76.67	7.02	2.21	13.32
Casual labourers	60.33	43.36	15.46	1.50	39.67	68.87	63.21	3.38	0.81	31.13
Others	79.02	54.72	16.86	7.44	20.98	81.19	74.74	15.26	11.63	18.81
Overall average	75.8	51.91	21.5	0.24	24.2	82.43	74.14	5.66	1.73	17.57

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table.3.19 presents the households' access to the arrangements made for garbage collection and the type of garbage collection arrangements among the Nature of employment groups in urban India. There was a growth in access to garbage collection arrangements, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 14.15% and least in Others with 2.74% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the concentration of garbage collection arrangements, it was more in the households belonging to Regular wages with 4.23% and 4.25% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourers with 15.47% and 13.56% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, the households' access to the arrangement made for garbage

collection by Municipality or Corporation among Nature of employment groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018; it could be noticed that there was an improvement and, the rate of growth was more in the case of the households belong to Casual labourers with 45.77% and least in Others with 36.58%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to garbage collection arrangement by Municipality or Corporation, it was more in the households belong to the nature of employment groups called Others with 2.8% more than overall average in 2012 and Regular wages with 2.53% more than overall average 2018 and least in Casual labourers with 8.55% and 10.93% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, regarding access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop, it was more in the households belong to Self-employed and Regular wages than other employment groups, dropped from 22.39% to 4.91% and 24.11% to 7.02% between 2012 and 2018 respectively. In the case of Other arrangements for garbage collections, there was a drop except for the households belonging to Others, which increased from 7.44% to 15.26% between 2012 and 2018. Finally, with reference to the households with No access to garbage collection arrangements among the Nature of employment groups in urban India, there was a decrease; still, the Casual labourers were at the top with 31.13% in 2018. The above table shows that between 2012 and 2018, there was an increase in households' access to garbage collection arrangements within the Nature of employment categories in urban India. But the state of the Casual labourers is deplorable in terms of having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all-other nature of employment groups in urban India. On the contrary, the concentration or polarization access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation much least with the Casual labourers, as compared to other nature of employment groups, it sings the deprivation of the Casual labourers from the access to garbage collection arrangements in urban India.

Table 3.20: Proportion of households access to Arrangements made to collect garbage among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
Sectoral classification of worker groups	Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage				Garbage collection arrangements	Arrangements made for the collection of garbage			
		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/group of residents	Other	No arrangement		Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other	No arrangement
Agriculture	59.26	36.21	20.67	2.38	40.74	66.29	61.50	2.34	1.09	33.71
Manufacture	75.89	51.91	22.40	1.58	24.11	81.09	72.95	5.64	1.57	18.91
Service	76.51	52.55	22.21	1.75	23.49	85.99	77.53	6.09	1.56	14.01
Overall average	75.8	51.91	21.5	0.24	24.2	82.43	74.14	5.66	1.73	17.57

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.20 describes the households' access to the arrangements made for the garbage collection and type of garbage collection arrangements among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018. There was progress in access to garbage collection arrangements, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to the Service sector with 12.39% and least in the Manufacture sector with 6.85%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the garbage collection arrangements, it was more in the households belonging to the Service sector with 0.71% and 3.56% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture Sector households with 16.54% and 16.14% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Pertaining to the access to the arrangement made for garbage collection by Municipality or Corporation among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018, there was an improvement and rate of growth was more in the Agriculture sector households with 69.84% and least in the Manufacture sector households with 40.53% between 2012 and 2018. But Pertaining

to the polarization or concentration of access to garbage collection arrangement by Municipality or Corporation, was more in the households belong to Service with 0.64% and 3.39% more than overall average and, least in the households belong to Agriculture sector with 15.7% and 12.64% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, with reference to access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop; it was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector than other Sectoral classification of worker groups and dropped from 20.67% to 2.34%. In the case of households' access to Other arrangement for garbage collections, there was a drop between 2012 and 2018, but the decline was marginal among the Sectoral classification of the worker groups. Finally, about the households with No access to garbage collection arrangements among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India, there was a decrease, but it was mostly in the Agriculture sector households with 33.71% denied access to garbage collection arrangements in 2018.

It can be concluded from Table 3.20 that there is an improvement in access to arrangements made for garbage collection between 2012 and 2018 among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India. But the Agriculture sector households are worse in terms of having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all-other Sectoral classification of worker categories in urban India. Finally, pertaining to the concentration or polarization access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation least in the Agriculture households compared to all other Sectoral classification of worker groups and most with the Service sector households, it sings the exclusion and deprivation of the Agriculture sector households from the access to garbage collection arrangements in urban India.

3.3.4. Access to Drainage System in urban India

This segment of the chapter discusses the social, religious, nature of employment, and sectoral classification of worker groups in relation to accessibility to the drainage system in urban India. Underground, Covered pucca, Open pucca, and Open katcha are the four types of drainage systems. Access to the underground and covered pucca drainage system suggests a better quality of life and living environment than other drainage systems. Access to Katcha, On the contrary, and the lack of a drainage system signify the poorest and most deplorable standard of living and style of life.

Table 3.21: Proportion of households access to the drainage and type of drainage systems in urban India.

NSSO rounds	Year	Drainage system	Type Drainage System				
			Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
65 th	2008	87.9	38.1	15.4	29.8	4.7	12.1
69 th	2012	87.5	45.2	14.9	22.4	5	12.5
76 th	2018	91.99	53.51	16.17	17.92	4.39	8.01

Source: Various NSSO (The National Sample Survey Office) rounds.

Table 3.21 illustrates the households' access to the drainage and the types of drainage facilities in urban India during the period from 2008 to 2018. Pertaining to access to drainage systems, it went up from 87.9% to 91.99% from 2008 to 2018. The access to the Underground type drainage system increased from 38.1% to 53.51% from 2008 to 2018. On the contrary, access to the Covered pucca drainage system went up from 15.4% to 16.17% from 2008 to 2018 and, the Open pucca drainage system increased from 29.8% to 17.92% from 2008 to 2018. Pertaining to the Open katcha drainage system, it went down from 4.7% to 4.39%. Finally, No access to the drainage system went down from 12.1% to 8.01% from 2008 to 2018.

Table 3.22: Proportion of households access to drainage and types of drainage systems among various Social groups in urban India.

Year	2012						2018					
Social groups	Drainage system	Type of Drainage System					Drainage system	Type of Drainage System				
		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
ST	76.5	37.44	9.11	23.97	5.99	23.50	83.56	41.45	12.32	20.96	8.83	16.44
SC	79.72	35.49	11.55	24.78	7.90	20.28	87.17	41.82	15.21	23.35	6.80	12.83
OBC	86.89	39.77	18.11	23.12	5.89	13.11	92.27	50.26	18.16	19.26	4.59	7.73
Others	91.72	54.57	13.39	20.77	2.99	8.28	94.27	62.39	14.77	14.26	2.85	5.73
Overall average	87.5	45.2	14.9	22.4	5	12.5	91.99	53.51	16.17	17.92	4.39	8.01

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The table above depicts access to drainage connections and drainag types across social categories in urban India. Between 2012 and 2018, the rate of growth in access to drainage systems among social categories improved. Between 2012 and 2018, households belonging to the SCs ranked first with 9.3 percent, followed by STs with 9.2 percent. But in the case of the polarization or concentration of the access to drainage system among the social groups, it was in the hands of the Others more than all other social groups; it was 4.22% and 2.28% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively. The concentration or polarization of the access to drainage system was less in the households belonging to the Scheduled Tribes with 9% and 8.43% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively, followed by the Scheduled Castes.

In the case of social groups' access to underground drainage systems, the above table shows that between 2012 and 2018, there was an increase in access to underground drainage systems among social groups. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to OBCs with 26.37% and least in Scheduled Tribes with 10.71% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the concentration of access to the

Underground drainage systems among the social groups was mostly in Other households with 9.37% and 8.88% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively and least in the Scheduled Castes with 9.71% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribes with 12.06% in 2018.

Pertaining to access to the Covered Pucca drainage system among the social groups, it is evident from the above table that there was an improvement between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Tribe with 35.23% and the least in OBCs with 0.27%. The concentration of the Covered Pucca drainage system was more in the hand of the OBCs with 3.21%, and 2.16% more than the overall average and least in the households belonging to STs with 5.79% and 3.85% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

On the contrary, in the households' access to the Open pucca drainage system. It can be observed from the above table that there was a drop among the social categories in urban India between 2012 and 2018, and a decline was much in the households belonging to Others from 20.77% to 14.26% and least in Scheduled Castes from 24.78% to 23.35%. In case of the concentration of access to Open pucca drainage system, which is a low-quality drainage system compared to Underground and Covered Pucca drainage system, it was much in Scheduled Castes with 2.38%, and 5.43% more than the overall average and least in the social group called Others with 1.63% and 3.66% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Same type of the trend is witnessed in the access to open katcha drainage. It could be observed from Table 3.22 that there was a reduction in the access to the Open katcha drainage system among social groups except for the Scheduled Tribes; it increased from 5.99% to 8.83% between 2012 and 2018. The Scheduled Castes households were most in access to the Open katcha drainage system with 8.83% and followed by Scheduled Tribes with 6.8% and least in Other households with 2.85% in 2018. Finally, while there was a decrease in the number of households without accessibility to a drainage system across social categories between 2012 and 2018, STs and SCs held the top with 16.44 percent and 12.83 percent respectively in 2018.

From 2012 to 2018, there was improvement in access to the drainage system in urban India, as seen in the table above. Even though, the households are from STs, and SCs have limited access to the drainage system. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have worst accessibility to the Underground and Cover Pucca drainage systems, which is an indicator of a decent quality of life and better living standards, when compared to all other social categories.

Table 3.23: Proportion of households access to drainage and types of drainage systems among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012						2018					
Religious groups	Drainage system	Type of drainage system					Drainage system	Type of drainage system				
		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
Hindu	87.47	45.98	14.62	22.18	4.69	12.53	92.26	54.29	16.27	17.63	4.07	7.74
Muslim	87.85	39.7	16.06	24.92	7.16	12.15	90.56	49.06	16.24	20.17	5.09	9.44
Christian	82.84	36.87	23.35	17.82	4.76	17.16	88.35	44.83	16.81	17.15	9.56	11.65
Others	91.9	61.07	9.7	17.5	3.7	8.1	95.58	64.45	12.7	15.08	3.33	4.41
Overall average	87.5	45.2	14.9	22.4	5	12.5	91.99	53.51	16.17	17.92	4.39	8.01

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.23 illustrates the households' access to drainage and the type of drainage systems among Religious groups in urban India. With reference to access to the drainage system, it could be found from the above table that there was growth among religious groups and the rate of growth more in the Christian households with 6.65% and the least in the Muslim households with 3.08% between 2012 and 2108. But in the case of the polarization or concentration of access to drainage system among religious groups, it was more in Others with 4.4% and 3.59% more than the overall average and least in the Christian households with 4.66% and 3.64% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

In the case of access to the Underground drainage system among the religious group, there was enhancement between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was much in the households belonging to the Muslim with 23.57% and the least in the Others with 5.53% between 2012 and 2018. The concentration of access to the Underground drainage system among the religious was most in Others with 15.87% and 10.94% more than the overall average and least in the Christian households with 8.33% and 8.68% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding access to the Covered pucca of drainage system between 2012 and 2018, there was growth among religious groups except for the Christian households; it reduced from 23.35% to 16.81%, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Others with 30.92% and least in the Christians with -28% and followed by Muslims with 1.12%. Pertaining to the concentration of the Covered Pucca drainage system, it was more in the hand of the Christians with 8.45%, and 0.64% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to Others with 5.2% and 3.47% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop in the Open pucca drainage system among the religious groups. The decrease was more in the Muslim households from 24.92% to 20.17%, followed by Hindus from 22.18% to 17.63% and least in the Christian households from 17.16% to 17.15% between 2012 and 2018. In the case of the concentration of access to the Open pucca drainage system, it was more in Muslims households with 2.52% and 2.25% more than the overall average and least in the religious group called Others with 4.9% and 2.84% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

It can be seen from the table that between 2012 and 2018, there was a fall in the access to Open katcha type of drainage system among the religious groups except for Christians households, it increased from 4.76% to 9.56%, respectively. The households belonging to the Christians were most in access to the Open Katcha drainage system with 8.83% among the religious groups and least in the Others with 3.33% in 2018. The above table shows that there was a decrease in No connectivity

to drainage among religious groups between 2012 and 2018. Despite a drop, Christian households ranked first in no connectivity to drainage system among religious groups with 11.65 percent in 2018, followed by Muslim households with 9.44 percent. In urban India, there has been development in accessibility to the drainage system. Despite this, Christians and Muslims in urban India have limited access to drainage, notably Underground and Covered pucca drainage systems, which represent a higher standard of living and improved living arrangements.

Table 3.24: Proportion of households access to the drainage system and types of drainage systems among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012						2018					
Nature of Employment groups	Drainage system	Type of drainage system					Drainage system	Type of drainage system				
		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
Self employed	88	45.70	14.40	22.53	5.36	12	92.28	50.82	17.54	19.22	4.70	7.72
Regular wage	91.17	50.20	15.24	22.22	3.51	8.83	94.45	61.13	15.50	14.79	3.03	5.55
Casual labourers	70.23	23.14	11.19	24.92	10.78	29.77	81.73	30.81	16.11	25.81	9.01	18.27
Others	72.15	50.73	18.79	20.04	2.59	7.85	93.53	57.81	15.54	16.64	3.54	6.47
Overall average	87.5	45.2	14.9	22.4	5	12.5	91.99	53.51	16.17	17.92	4.39	8.01

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.24 illustrates the household's access to drainage and the type of drainage systems among the Nature of employment groups in urban India. With reference to the access to drainage system between 2012 and 2018, there was growth, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Others with 29.63% and followed by Casual labourers with 16.37%. But the polarization or concentration of the access to drainage system among Nature of employment groups, it was more in the Regular wage households with 3.67%, and 2.46% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to Casual labourers with 17.27% and 10.26% less than the

overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

It could be witnessed from table 3.24 that there was a notable improvement in access to the Underground drainage system between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was much in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 33.14% and least in the Self-employed with 11.2% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of access to the Underground drainage system among the employment groups, it was mostly in the Others with 15.87% and 10.94% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 8.33% and 8.68% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, the access to the Covered pucca drainage system among the Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018 witnessed growth, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 43.96% and least in Others with -17.29% and followed by Regular wages with 1.70%. In addition, the concentration of the Covered pucca drainage system, it was more in the Others households with 3.89% and Self-employed with 1.37% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively and the least in the households belong to Casual labourers with 3.71% and Regular wages with 0.67% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

With reference households to access to the Open pucca drainage system, there was a drop among the Nature of employment groups, except for the Casual labourers, which increased from 24.92% to 25.81% between 2012 and 2018 and drop was much in households belonging to Regular wages from 22.22% to 14.79%. Pertaining to the concentration of the access to open pucca drainage system, which is a low-quality drainage system compared to Underground and Covered Pucca drainage system, it was much in the Casual labourers households with 2.52% and 1.37% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively and least in the Nature of employment group called Others with 2.36% and Regular wages with 3.13% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

Regarding the households' access to the Open katcha, the table clearly shows that there was a drop among the Nature of employment groups in urban India between 2012 and 2018 except for the Others, it increased from 2.59% to 3.54%, and the Casual labourers were more with 9.01% and followed by the Self-employed, Others, and Regular wages with 4.70%, 3.54%, and 3.03% respectively in 2018. Finally, pertaining to the households with No access to the drainage system, there was a drop among the Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018. However, with No access to the drainage system in 2018, the Casual labourers were at the top with 18.27%, followed by Self-employed, Others and Regular wages 7.72%, 6.47%, and 5.55%, respectively. It can be summarized from table 3.24 that is an enhancement in the drainage facility in urban India between 2012 and 2018. Even so, casual labourer households have limited access to drainage and better drainage systems, namely Underground and Covered pucca, which represent a better quality of life and living environment in urban India. Casual labourer households, On the contrary, have the highest accessibility to the Open katcha drainage system and No drainage system, indicating a poorer quality of life and poor lifestyle in urban India. It's a symptom of uneven distribution of basic necessities among Nature of employment groups, as well as the exclusion of certain segments of society from urbanization.

Table 3.25: Proportion of households access to drainage and types of drainage system among Sectoral Classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012						2018					
	Drainage system	Type of drainage system					Drainage system	Type of drainage system				
		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage		Underground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
Agriculture	68.32	24.17	10.96	23.95	9.24	31.68	81	32.16	15.42	21.61	11.81	19
Manufacture	87.66	43.63	14.48	24.57	4.98	12.34	91.14	49.19	16.70	20.27	4.98	8.86
Service	88.29	46.45	14.64	22.08	5.12	11.71	93.75	59.66	16.09	14.99	3.01	6.25
Overall average	87.5	45.2	14.09	22.4	5	12.5	91.99	53.51	16.03	17.92	4.39	8.01

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.25 demonstrates the households' access to drainage systems and types of drainage systems among Sectoral Classification of worker groups in urban India. The data depicts significant growth in the access to drainage systems between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was high in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 18.55% and least in the Manufacture Sector with 3.96%. With reference to the polarization or concentration of the access to drainage system among the Sectoral Classification of worker groups, it was high in households belonging to the Service sector compared to all other employment groups with 0.79% and 1.72% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to the Agriculture sector with 19.18% and 10.99% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

There was progress among the Sectoral Classification of worker groups regarding access to the Underground drainage system between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 33.05% and the least in the Manufacture sector with 12.74% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the concentration of the access to Underground drainage system among the Sectoral Classification of worker groups was most in the households belonging to the Service Sector with 1.25% and 6.15% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 21.03% and 21.35% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Concerning the households' access to the Covered pucca drainage system among Sectoral Classification of worker groups between 2012 and 2018, there was an improvement in the access to the Cover pucca drainage system. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 40.69% and least in the Service sector with 9.90%. But in the case of the polarization of the access to the Cover pucca drainage system, most households belong to the Service sector with 0.55% and 0.67% more overall average and least in the Agriculture sector with 3.13% and 0.61 less than overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

The above table illustrates that between 2012 and 2018, there was a decrease in

availability to the open pucca type of drainage system among the Sectoral classification of worker groups, with the decrease being greater in households belonging to the Service sector (from 22.08 percent to 14.99 percent) and the least in the Agriculture sector (from 23.95 percent to 21.61 percent). Pertaining to the concentration of the access to the open pucca drainage system, it was high in the Manufacture sector households with 2.17% in 2012 and Agriculture sector households with 3.69% in 2018, more than the overall average and least in the Service sector with 0.32% and 2.93% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding access to the Open katcha drainage system, there was a drop in the case of households belonging to the Service sector from 5.12% to 3.01% and a rise in the Agriculture sector from 9.24% to 11.81% between 2012 and 2018. The households belonging to the Agriculture sector were more in access to the Open katcha drainage system, which is a low-quality drainage system, than Underground, Covered, and Open Pucca with 11.81% and followed by the Manufacture and Service sectors with 4.98% and 3.01% in 2018.

Lastly, there was a decrease between 2012 and 2018 in the number of households without any access to drainage systems across the Sectoral classification of worker groups. The data depicted that in 2018, the households belonging to the Agriculture sector were in the top place with 19%, followed by the Manufacture and Service sectors with 8.86% and 6.25%, respectively. It can be concluded from the above table that there is a growth in access to the drainage system in urban India. Still, the households that belong to the Agriculture sector are underprivileged regarding access to drainage and better drainage systems. Moreover, the households belonging to the Agriculture sector are in the worst place than all other Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India in terms of access to the Underground and Cover pucca drainage system. The Agriculture group, On the contrary, ranked first in terms of access to open katcha drainage and no drainage systems, indicating a low standard of living and poor life style in urban India. It is a signal of uneven distribution of

amenities across the sectoral classifications, as well as deprivation of access to drainage and improved drainage systems for households in the agriculture sector.

3.4. Housing conditions and Electricity in urban India

This section highlights the access to housing, kind of housing structure, state of the structure, electricity, and type of electrical wiring facilities among the Social, Religious, Nature of employment group, and Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India. Access to the pucca type of housing indicates a good life and better quality of life than the other types of housing. On the other way, access to Katcha type of housing indicates a low and worse quality of life. With reference to the condition of the structure of housing, there is three type structure; Good, Satisfactory, and Bad. “If the structure did not require any immediate repairs, major or minor, it was considered as in ‘Good’ condition whereas if the structure required immediate minor repairs but not major repairs, it was considered as in ‘Satisfactory’ condition. If the structure of the building required immediate major repairs, without which it might be unsafe for habitation or required to be demolished and rebuilt, it was considered as in ‘Bad’ condition” (NSS Report No. 556: Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition in India,2012). In urban India, accessibility to a Good structure suggests a higher living standard and lifestyle style, whereas accessibility to a Bad structure indicates a lower quality of life.

Furthermore, there are 3 types of wiring connectivity in the case of electricity facilities and electrical wiring connectivity: conduit, fixed to the wall, and temporary. Availability to conduit type electrical wiring suggests a higher standard of living and a higher quality of life. The low and worse state of the lifestyle is indicated by the temporary form of electrical wiring connectivity. Marketization and commercialization in urban (David Harvey, 1985, Huang and Jiang, 2009; and Yi and Huang, 2014) augmented land prices and unaffordable housing, elite-centric commercial buildings, and residential complexes are excluding the poor from urbanization.

Table 3.26: Proportion of households' access to types of the Structure of housing in urban India.

NSSO Rounds	Years	Types of structure		
		Pucca Structure	Semi Pucca Structure	Katcha Structure
49 th	1993	73.8	17.6	8.3
58 th	2002	87.7	9.0	3.2
65 th	2008	91.7	6.2	5.0
69 th	2012	83.2	12.97	3.65
76 th	2018	83.47	11.46	4.43

Source: Various NSSO rounds.

Table.326 explains the households' access type of housing structures from 1993 to 2018 in urban India. From the early post-reform, it can be seen that there is an advancement in access to the Pucca structure. It increased from 73.8% to 83.47% from 1993 to 2018. Access to the Semi pucca structure, On the contrary, has decreased from 17.6% to 11.46%. Finally, regarding the access to Katcha type of structure, it decreased from 8.3% to 4.43% during the period from 1993 to 2012 in urban India.

Table 3.27: Proportion of households access to housing and the types of structure among Social groups in urban India.

Social groups	2012					2018				
	Access to housing	Types of the housing structure				Access housing	Type of the housing structure			
		Pucca	Semi Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling		Pucca	Semi Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
ST	100	83.2	12.07	3.23	00	100	66.05	20.01	13.93	00
SC	99.01	62.14	26.83	10.05	0.99	99.46	70.02	22.26	7.18	0.54
OBCs	99.91	86.44	11.61	1.86	0.09	98.81	84.57	10.15	4.09	1.19
Others	99.46	85.52	10.11	0.54	0.54	100	90.17	7.65	2.18	00
Overall average	99.65	83.2	12.97	3.65	0.35	99.35	83.47	11.46	4.43	0.65

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table.3.27 shows how households in urban India have access to housing and what types of structures they have. In the case of households' access to housing, there was improvement among social groups except for the OBCs, which marginally dropped from 99.91% to 98.81% between 2012 and 2018. But from the other side, whenever it comes to access to the Pucca structure among social groups, there was a fall in the households belonging to Scheduled Tribes and OBCs. The fall was much in the Scheduled Tribes, which went down from 83.2% to 66.05%. There was a rise in households belonging to the Scheduled Castes from 62.14% to 70.02% and Others households from 84.52% to 90.17% between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was the most in Scheduled Castes with 12.68% and least in Scheduled Tribes with -20.6%. But in the case of polarization of the access to Pucca structure, it was more in the OBCs with 3.24% more than the overall average in 2012 and Others with 6.7% more than the overall average in 2018. The concentration or polarization of the access to Pucca structure was least in the households belonging to the Scheduled Castes with 21.06% less than the overall average in 2012 and Scheduled Tribes with 17.42% less than the overall average in 2018.

On the contrary, with reference to the accessibility to Semi pucca structure among social groups, it could be observed from the above table that there was growth among social groups between 2012 and 2018, except for the Scheduled Tribes, which increased from 12.07% to 20.01%. Pertaining to the rate of growth, the Scheduled Tribe households were in the top place with 65.78% and least in the Other households with -24.33% between 2012 and 2018. However, in terms of the concentration or polarization of access to Semi pucca structure, it was mostly in the Scheduled Castes with 13.86% and 10.8% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 2.86% and 3.81% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Lastly, it could be observed from the above table that there was a rise in the access to the Katcha structure between 2012 and 2018, except for the Scheduled Castes, which went down from 10.05% to 7.18%. Pertaining to the concentration of access to Katcha structure, it was mostly with the Scheduled Castes with 6.4% in 2012 and Scheduled

Tribes with 9.5 in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Others households with 3.11% and 2.25% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

Table 3.27 found that the number of households without access to housing facilities is decreasing across social groups. Even though, the superior housing structure, particularly the Pucca structure, which signifies a comfortable lifestyle and improved the quality of life in urban India, has been on the decline. Households belonging to marginalized groups, which including SCs and STs, see a greater reduction in accessibility to Pucca construction than all of the social groups.

From the other side, there is a decrease in access to Semi pucca and Katcha housing structures between all of social groups; however, households belonging to the SCs and STs are at the top rank in accessibility to Semi katcha and Katcha housing structures, indicating a poorer quality of life and inadequate housing. It is a symptom of uneven distribution of basic facilities across social groupings, barring a segment of society from urbanization's benefits.

Table 3.28: Proportion of households access to housing and the types of housing structure among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
	Access to housing	Types of the housing structure				Access housing	Types of the housing structure			
		Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling		Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
Hindu	99.56	82.87	13.23	3.23	0.44	99.32	84.09	10.74	4.49	0.68
Muslim	99.01	85.30	12.8	1.89	0.01	100	79.03	15.98	4.99	00
Christian	100	78	5.52	16.48	00	100	78.31	20.33	1.37	00
Others	100	67.32	18.13	14.55	00	97.72	90.02	6.43	1.24	2.28
Overall average	99.65	83.2	12.97	3.65	0.35	99.35	83.47	11.46	4.43	0.65

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Between 2012 and 2018, Table 3.28 depicts religious groups' access to housing and forms of housing structures in urban India. Regarding the access to housing facilities, there was a marginal fall in the Hindu, Other households from 99.56% to 99.32% and 100% to 97.72%, respectively, and it increased in the Muslim households from 99.01% to 100% between 2012 and 2018.

Pertaining to the Pucca Structure among religious groups between 2012 and 2018, it could be observed from the above table that there was notable growth in Other and Hindu households; it increased from 67.32% to 90.02% and 82.87% to 84.09%, respectively. On the contrary, there was a drop in access to the Pucca structure in the Muslim households from 85.30% to 79.03%. However, the rate of growth was high in households belonging to the Others with 33.71% and least in the Muslims with -7.35% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the polarization of access to the Pucca structure amongst religious categories was more in the Muslim households with 2.1% and Others households with 6.55% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

Regarding the access to Semi-pucca structure among religious groups, there was growth in the Christian and Muslim households from 5.52% to 20.33% and 12.8% to 15.98% and rate of growth was more in the Christians with 268.29% and least in the Others with -64.53% between 2012 and 2018. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to Semi Pucca structure, it was more in the Other households with 5.16% in 2012 and Christian households with 8.87% in 2018, more than the overall average.

However, in the case of access to the Katcha structure between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop in the households belong to Christians and Others from 16.48% to 1.37% and 14.55% to 1.24% respectively, on the other side, there was an increase in the Muslim and Hindu households from 1.89% to 4.99% and 3.23% to 4.49% respectively. However, the rate of growth was high in the households belonging to the Muslims and least in the Christians, with 164.02% and -91.68% in 2012 and 2018, respectively. But in the case of concentration or polarization of access to Katcha structure, it was much in the Christian households with 12.83% in 2012 and Muslims

with 0.56% in 2018 more than the overall average and the least in the Muslim households with 1.76% in 2012 and Other households with 3.19% in 2018 less than the overall average.

Table 3.28 illustrates that, despite increases in household access to housing facilities amongst religious groups, Muslims and Christians are in the worst situation in terms of housing structure quality compared to other religious groups. Muslims and Christians in urban India do worse than all other religious groups in accessibility to the Pucca structure, which is an indicator of high standard of living and better living conditions. It is an explicit indication of excluding particular society sections from the quality of life and better living standards. It indicates that urbanization, which always claims about the quality of life, is not applied to the section mentioned above of society and shows an unequal distribution of quality housing among the religious groups in urban India.

Table 3.29: Proportion of households access to housing and types of structures among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Nature of Employment groups	Access to housing	Types of the housing structure				Access housing	Types of the housing structure			
		Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling		Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
Self employed	100	83.94	12.44	3.62	0	99.75	86.15	9.76	3.83	0.25
Regular wage	99.42	89.13	8.58	1.71	0.58	99	85.57	8.25	5.17	1.00
Casual labourers	99.63	53.77	37.19	8.67	0.37	98.84	66.10	22.14	10.60	1.16
Others	99.87	83.50	10.87	5.50	0.13	99.75	84.35	13.34	2.05	0.25
Overall average	99.65	83.2	12.97	3.65	0.35	99.35	83.47	11.46	4.43	0.65

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Between 2012 and 2018, Table 3.29 displays the access to housing and forms of structure by Nature of Employment groups in urban India. The data displays a

marginal drop in the households' access to the housing facility, and it was more in the Casual labourers among the Nature of employment groups, went down from 99.63% to 98.64% between 2012 and 2018.

There was an improvement in the access to the Pucca structure except in Regular wage households; it reduced 89.13% to 85.57% and, the rate of growth was the most in Casual labourer households with 22.93% and least in Regular wage households with -3.99% between 2012 and 2018. But in the case of the polarization of the households' access to Pucca structure, it was more in the Regular wages with 5.93% more than the overall average in 2012 and Self-employed with 2.68% more than the overall average in 2018. The concentration or polarization of access to the Pucca structure was least in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 29.43% and 17.37% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

In the case of access to the Semi-pucca structure, there was a fall among Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018 except for the Others; it went up from 10.87% to 13.34%, respectively and, the rate of growth in access to Semi-pucca structure among the Nature of employment groups, Other households were in the top place with 22.72% and least in the Casual labourers with -40.46%. However, in terms of the concentration or polarization of the access to Semi pucca structure among the Nature of employment groups, it was most in the Casual labourers with 24.22% and 10.68% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively and least in the households belong to the Regular wages with 4.39% and 3.21% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

The data presented growth in access to the Katcha structure among the Nature of employment groups except for the Others households, which reduced from 5.50% to 2.05% between 2012 and 2018. Lastly, pertaining to the concentration of access to Katcha structure, it was mostly with the Casual labourer households with 4.93% and 6.17% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 and least in the Regular wage households with 1.94% in 2012 and Others with 2.38% in 2018 less than the overall average.

It can be concluded from the above table that the Casual labourers are in the worst condition compared to the all-other nature of employments' groups in terms of access to the Pucca housing structure. Despite this, many casual labourer households have resorted to the Semi pucca and Katcha home structures, indicating a low standard of living. It is the denial of basic services to households belonging to casual labourers.

Table 3.30: Proportion of households access to housing and types of structures among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018					
	Sectoral classification of workers group	Access to housing	Type of housing facility				Access to housing	Type of housing facility			
			Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling		Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
Agriculture	100	55.41	34.41	10.18	00	100	68.69	26.53	4.78	00	
Manufacture	100	81.84	15.50	2.66	00	98.43	78.22	13.56	6.65	1.57	
Service	99.38	83.54	12.54	3.31	0.62	99.97	89.88	5.70	4.39	0.03	
Overall average	99.65	83.2	12.97	3.65	0.35	99.35	83.47	11.46	4.43	0.65	

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

The availability to housing and types of structure among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India are depicted in table.3.30. Except for the Manufacture sector households, which decreased from 100% to 98.43 percent between 2012 and 2018, there was an increase in provision of housing amenities among the Sectoral classification of worker groups. Regarding the access to Pucca structure among the Sectoral classification of the worker groups, there was an enhancement, except for the Manufacture sector The availability to housing and types of structure among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India are depicted in table.3.30. Except for the Manufacture sector households, which decreased from 100% to 98.43 percent between 2012 and 2018, there was an increase in provision of housing amenities among the Sectoral classification of worker groups. Regarding the rate of

growth in access to Pucca structure, it is the most in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 23.96% and least in the Manufacture sector with -4.42%. However, in the case of the concentration of access to Pucca structure, it was more in the Service sector households with 0.34% and 6.41% more than the overall average and least in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 27.70% and 14.78% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

It could be observed from table 3.30 that there was a drop in the access to Semi pucca structure among the Sectoral classification of the worker groups between 2012 and 2018. However, in 2018, the households belonging to the Agriculture group were the most in access Semi katcha structure with 26.53%, which is a low-quality structure than the Pucca structure. Pertaining to the concentration or polarization of the access to Semi pucca structure, it was high in the Agriculture sector households with 21.44%, and 15.07% more than the overall average and least in the households belonging to the Service sector with 0.43% and 5.76% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the households' access to the Katcha structure among the Sectoral classification of the workers' groups, there was growth in Manufacture and Service sectors; it went up from 2.66% to 6.65% and 3.31% to 4.39%, between 2012 and 2018 and respectively. However, in 2018, the Manufacture sector households were the more in access to the Katch structure, followed by the Agriculture and Service sector households with 4.78% and 4.39%, respectively.

Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was high in the households belonging to the Manufacture sector with 150% and least in the Agriculture sector with -53.05% between 2012 and 2018 respectively. But in the case concentration or polarization of access to the Katcha structure, it was high in the Agriculture sector households with 6.53% in 2012 and Manufacture sector households with 2.22% in 2018, more than the overall average, and the concentration was least in the Service sector with 0.34% and 0.04% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

It can be concluded from Table 3.30 that the households belonging to the Agriculture sector are in a vulnerable condition compared to the all-other Sectoral classification of worker groups in accessibility to the Pucca structure; the representation of better lifestyle and high standard of living conditions, as compared to access to Semi pucca, Katcha structure. Many households belonging to the Agriculture sector have been resorting to the Semi-pucca structure, indicating the low quality of life and living standards than all other Sectoral classification worker groups. It is a clear sign of excluding the households that belong to Agriculture from access to better quality housing in urban India.

Table 3.31: Proportion of households access to the Condition of the structure among the social groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
Social groups	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good ²³	Satisfactory ²⁴	Bad ²⁵	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
ST	54.14	36.41	9.45	49.61	36.88	13.51
SC	41.67	42.17	16.16	44.85	42.81	12.34
OBC	59.34	34.38	6.28	57.73	36.16	6.11
Others	67.94	27.74	4.32	64.19	30.79	5.02
Overall average	60.24	32.79	6.69	58.17	34.98	6.85

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

²³NSSO defines, that “if the structure did not require any immediate repairs, major or minor, it was considered as in ‘Good’ condition” (NSSO, 2019; NSSO, 2014).

²⁴Whereas “if the structure required immediate minor repairs but not major repairs, it was considered as in ‘Satisfactory’ condition” (NSSO, 2019; NSSO, 2014).

²⁵ “If the structure of the building required immediate major repairs, without which it might be unsafe for habitation or required to be demolished and rebuilt, it was considered as in ‘Bad’ condition” (NSSO, 2019; NSSO, 2014).

Table 3.31 demonstrates how households in different social groupings have access to various structural conditions house. Except for the SCs, whose access to the Good condition of the structure improved from 41.67 % to 44.85% between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was higher in the Scheduled Castes with 7.63 percent and lowest in the STs with -8.36 percent between 2012 and 2018, the above table showed a drop in households' access to the Good condition of the structure amongst some of the social groups excluding the SCs, which improved from 41.67% to 44.85%. Moreover, the polarization or concentration of access to Good condition of the structure was more in the Other households with 7.7% and 6.02% more than the overall average and, least in the Scheduled Caste households with 18.57% and 13.32% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Regarding the access to the Satisfactory condition of the structure among social groups, there was the improvement, and rate of growth was more in the Other households with 10.99% and least in the Scheduled Tribes households with 1.29% and followed by the Scheduled Castes with 1.5% between 2012 and 2018. About the concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the structure was high in the households belonging to Scheduled Castes with 9.38%, and 7.83% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to Others with 5.05% and 4.19% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, table 3.31 showed a rise in access to Bad conditions of structure in the households belonging to Scheduled Tribes and Others from 9.45% to 13.51% and 4.32% to 5.02% between 2012 and 2018, but Pertaining to the rate of growth, was more in the Scheduled Tribes with 42.95% and least in the Scheduled Castes with -23.63%. However, in terms of the concentration or polarization of the access to Bad condition of the structure, was mostly with the Scheduled Castes with 9.47% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribes with 6.66% in 2018 more than overall average and least in the households belong to Others with 2.37% and 1.83% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. The concentration of the Good condition of the structure is more in the hand of Other households and least in the Scheduled Tribes and Castes, which indicates exclusion from access to Good conditions of the

structure in urban India. According to the preceding statistics, SCs and STs have the most difficult time gaining access to the structure in good condition. SCs and STs still make up a major portion of the population, and they live in structures that are in poor condition, indicating the low quality of life and living conditions in urban India.

Table 3.32: Proportion of households access to the Condition of the structure among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
Hindu	61.48	31.67	6.85	59.70	33.73	6.57
Muslim	49.59	41.46	8.94	47.89	43.12	8.99
Christian	70.08	26.17	3.58	67.68	27.89	4.43
Others	69.7	24.51	5.79	62.39	30.53	7.09
Overall average	60.24	32.79	6.69	58.17	34.98	6.85

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

In urban India, Table 3.32 indicates how religious groups' households have access to the structure's conditions. There was a drop in accessing the Good condition of the structure among the religious groups. On the contrary, in the case of polarization or concentration of access to Good condition of the structure, was more in Christian households with 9.84% and 9.51% more than the overall average and least in the Muslim households with 10.65% and 10.28% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

There has been an improvement in accessibility to the Satisfactory condition of the structure amongst religious groups and the rate of growth was more in the Other households with 24.56% and least in the Muslim households with 4% between 2012 and 2018. The concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the

structure was high in the Muslim households with 8.67%, and 8.14% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to Others with 8.28% and Christians with 7.09% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

Finally, in the case of access to Bad conditions of the structure, there was growth except for the Hindus households; it slightly decreased from 6.85% to 6.57% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the rate of growth in access to Bad conditions of the structure, it was more in the Christians with 23.74% and least in the Hindus with -4.08%. However, the concentration or polarization of access to Bad conditions of the structure was most in the Muslim households with 1.95%, and 2.14% more than the overall average and least in the Christian households with 3.11% and 2.42% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Whereas in 2018, the access to the bad condition of the structure, the Muslims were more with 8.99% and followed by Others, Hindus, and Christians 7.09%, 6.57%, and 4.43% respectively. The above chart reveals that Muslim households are in a vulnerable position in terms of availability to the Good condition of the structure, which is a strong indicator of improved life conditions compared to all other conditions of the structure; however, a significant number of Muslim households have indeed been taking up residence in poor housing conditions, indicating poorer quality of life and living conditions in urban India.

Table 3.33: Proportion of households access to the Condition of the structure among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
Nature of Employment groups	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
Self-employed	60.07	32.98	6.95	58.16	35.44	6.39
Regular wage	64.92	30.46	4.63	60.27	34.01	5.72
Casual labourers	32.64	48.67	18.69	34.98	48.47	16.55
Others	74.20	23.28	2.53	67.09	28.91	3.99
Overall average	60.24	32.79	6.69	58.17	34.98	6.85

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.33 illustrates the accessibility to the conditions of the structure among the Nature of employment groups in urban India. The above table displayed a fall in the access to Good condition of the structure amongst Nature of employment group except for the Casual labourers, which increased from 32.64% to 34.98% between 2012 and 2018 and the rate of growth, was more in the Casual labourers with 7.16% and least in the Others with -9.5%. On the contrary, the polarization or concentration of the access to Good condition of the structure was more in the Other households with 9.84% and 8.92% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 27.6% and 23.19% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively

Pertaining to the accessibility to the Satisfactory condition of the structure across the Nature of employment groups, there was an improvement, and the rate of growth was more in the Other households with 24.18% and least in the Casual labourer households with % -0.41 between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the structure, it was high in the Casual labourer households with 15.88% and 13.49% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 9.51% and 6.07% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Finally, in the case of accessibility to the Bad condition of the structure, there had growth except for the households belonging to the Self-employed and Casual labourers, it decreased from 6.95% to 6.39% and 18.69% to 16.55% between 2012 and 2018, but the rate of growth was more in the Others with 24.18% and least in the Casual labourers with -0.41%. Moreover, the concentration or polarization of the access to Bad condition of the structure was most in the Casual labourer households with 12% and 9.7% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 4.16% and 2.86% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

From the above table, it can be concluded that casual labourer households seem to be in a vulnerable position in terms of access to good structural conditions, with the majority of casual labourer households residing in poor structural conditions,

indicating a low standard of living urban India. The concentration of the access to Good condition of the structure is very less in the Casual labourer households, as compared to all other Sectoral classification of worker groups, it indicates exclusion of the Casual labourer households from the access to Good condition of the structure.

Table 3.34: Proportion of households access to the Condition of the structure among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012			2018		
Sectoral classification of worker groups	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
Agriculture	49.40	40.95	9.65	47.57	41.39	11.04
Manufacture	54.32	37.56	8.12	51.41	40.04	8.55
Service	60.79	32.12	7.09	61.98	31.85	6.17
Overall average	60.24	32.79	6.69	58.17	34.98	6.85

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table.3.34 depicts access to the condition of the structures amongst the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India. The above table presented a reduction in the access to Good conditions of the structure among Sectoral classification of worker groups, except for the Service sector households, which increased from 61.98% to 60.79%. Pertaining to the rate of growth in access to Good condition of structure was more in the households belong to the Service sector with 1.95% and least in the Others with -5.35%. On the contrary, in case of the polarization or concentration of the access to Good condition of the structure was more in households belong to the Service sector with 0.55% and 3.81% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to the Agriculture sector with 10.84% and 10.6% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, regarding the accessibility to the Satisfactory of the condition of the structure, table 3.34 illustrated that there was a rise in Agriculture and Manufacture Sector households from 40.95% to 41.39% and 37.56% to 40.04% and decrease in

Service sector households from 32.12% to 31.85% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to the Manufacture sector with 6.60% and least in the Service sector with -0.84% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the structure was most in the households belong to Agriculture sector with 8.16% and 6.41% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to Service sector with 1.67% and 3.13% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Agriculture households had the highest access to a satisfactory structural condition in 2018, with 41.39 %, followed by Manufacture and Service households with 40.04 % and 31.85 percent, respectively. To end, accessibility to Bad condition of the structure, there was a rise in the households belonging to Agriculture and Manufacture Sectors from 9.65% to 11.04%, 8.12% to 8.55%, and a decrease in Service sector households from 7.09% to 6.17% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the rate of growth in access to Bad conditions of the structure, it was more in the Agriculture sector households with 14.40% and least in the Service sector households with -12.97%. The concentration or polarization of the access to Bad condition of the structure was most with the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 2.96% and 4.19% more than overall average and least in the households belong to the Service sector with only 0.4% more than the overall average in 2012 and 0.68% less than the overall average in 2018, respectively.

It can be summarized from the above table that the concentration or polarization of the access to Good conditions of the structure is mostly with Service sector households and least with the Agriculture households; it indicates relative deprivation of the Agriculture households from the access to Good conditions of the structure. Agriculture households are in a vulnerable position in terms of access to good structural condition, which indicates improved living conditions. However, many households in the agriculture sector have been living in deplorable conditions, indicating the poorer quality of life and living conditions in urban India.

Table 3.35: Proportion of households access to the Electricity facility and Types of Electrical wiring connectivity in urban India.

Round	Year	Electricity	Type of Electric wiring Connectivity		
			Conduit	Fixed to the wall	Temporary
65 th	2008-09	96.1	47.7	41.2	11.0
69 th	2012	97.93	63.5	23.8	12.7
76 th	2018	99.08	63.66	27.37	8.96

Source: Various NSSO rounds.

Table.3.35 shows the access to electricity and the electrical wiring connectivity in urban India. Table 3.35 displays that there is an advancement in access to the electricity facility in urban. Only 0.92% of the urban households are not having access to the electricity facility in India. With reference to access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it increased from 47.7% to 63.66% from 2008 to 2018. Pertaining to the access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity, it went down from 41.2% to 27.37% during 2008 and 2018. On the contrary, access to the Temporary electrical wiring decreased from 11% to 8.96% from 2008 and 2018. An overall, it can be concluded from the table 3.35 that there is advancement in the access to electricity and good electrical connectivity, namely Conduit electrical wiring connectivity in urban India.

Table 3.36: Proportion of households access to Electricity and the Types of electrical wiring connectivity facilities among various Social groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of Electrical wiring Connectivity			Electricity	No Electricity	Type of Electrical wiring Connectivity		
			Conduit	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
ST	95.64	4.36	56.14	24.41	19.06	97.58	2.42	51.42	31.01	17.57
SC	95.19	4.81	50.04	26.38	23.58	98.47	1.53	53.08	30.18	16.74
OBCs	97.77	2.23	64.46	22.29	13.25	99	1	65.48	25.64	8.89
Others	99.23	0.77	67.49	24.18	8.10	99.54	0.46	66.65	27.89	5.46
Overall average	97.93	2.07	63.5	23.8	12.7	99.08	0.92	63.66	27.37	8.96

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.36 demonstrates the accessibility to electricity and types of electrical wiring connectivity amongst social categories in urban India. With reference to the access to electricity facility between 2012 and 2018, there was an improvement, and still, the Scheduled Castes were the most in no access to electricity facility with 2.42% and on the contrary, there was growth rate in access to electricity facility, it was more in the households belong to the Scheduled Castes with 3.44% and least in the Others with 0.31% between 2012 and 2018. However, when it comes to the concentration or polarization of access to electricity facility among social groups was more in the households belong to the Others with 1.3% and 0.46% more than the overall average and the least in the Scheduled Castes with 2.74% and 0.61% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

In the case of access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity between 2012 and

2018, there was a fall in access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity in Scheduled Tribe and Other households from 56.14% to 51.42% and 67.49% to 66.65%, respectively, and an improvement in the Scheduled Caste and OBC households from 50.04% to 53.08% and 64.46% to 65.48%, respectively. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the SC households with 6.07% and least in the ST households with -8.40 between 2012 and 2018. With reference to the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in the households belonging to the Others with 3.99% and 2.99% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Castes with 13.46% and Scheduled Tribes with 12.24% in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

Pertaining to the access to Fixed to the walls electrical connectivity, there was a growth and rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Castes with 27.03% and least in Scheduled Tribes with 14.40% between 2012 and 2018. But the concentration of the access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in the households belonged Scheduled Castes with 2.58% and Scheduled Tribes with 3.64% more than the overall average and least in the OBCs with 1.51% and 1.73% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, the access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, there was a fall amongst the social categories. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in the SCs households with 10.88% and SCs households with 8.61% more than the overall average, and least in the Other households with 4.6% and 3.5% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Table 3.36 explains that the concentration of the conduit electrical wiring connectivity mostly with the Other than the Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Castes households, it is least in these groups, which indicates the deprivation of these sections from the access a better electrical wiring connectivity in urban India. The SCs and STs have the worst accessibility to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity than all of the other social groups, signifying a higher quality of life and higher living

standards than any of the other electrical wiring connectivities. Households belonging to STs and SCs, on the other side, rank first among social groups in accessibility to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, indicating poor quality of life and the bad living standards in urban India.

Table 3.37: Proportion of households access to Electricity and types of electrical wiring connectivity facilities among Religious groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivity			Electricity	No Electricity	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivity		
			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
Hindu	98.05	1.95	64.66	23.39	11.95	99.17	0.83	64.63	27.11	8.26
Muslim	96.53	3.47	51.09	28.92	19.99	98.84	1.16	54.74	31.40	13.85
Christian	99.62	0.38	77.57	19.38	3.05	99.18	0.82	76.38	16.96	6.66
Others	98.48	1.52	69.17	19.1	11.73	98.34	1.64	70.95	18.18	10.87
Overall average	97.93	2.07	63.5	23.8	12.7	99.08	0.92	63.66	27.37	8.96

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.37 illustrates how religious groups in urban India have access to electricity and what types of electrical wiring they have. Pertaining to the access to electricity between 2012 and 2018, there was a growth except for the Christian and Other households, it went down marginally from 99.62% to 99.18% and 98.48% to 98.34%, and the rate of growth was more in the households belong to Muslims with 2.39% and least in the Christians with -0.44%. However, the concentration or polarization of the access to electricity facility among the religious groups, it was more in the households belong to Christians with 1.69% and 0.10% more than the overall average

and least in Muslims with 1.4% and Others with 0.74% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

In the case of access to Conduit wiring electrical wiring connectivity between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop in access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity in Hindus and Christians from 64.66% to 64.63% and 77.57% to 76.38%, respectively, and an improvement in Muslim and Other households from 51.09% to 54.74% and 69.17% to 70.95%, respectively. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to the Muslims with 7.14% and least in the Christians with -1.53 between 2012 and 2018. Concerning the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity was more in the households belong to Christians with 14.07% and 12.72% more than the overall average and least in Muslims with 12.41% and 8.92% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Regarding access to Fixed to the walls electrical wiring connectivity, there was a growth except for the Christian and Other households; it decreased from 19.38% to 16.96% and 19.1% to 18.18%, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Hindus with 15.90% and least in Christians with -12.48% between 2012 and 2018. But in the case of concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in Muslims with 5.12% and 4.03% more than the overall average and least in Others with 4.7% and Christians with 10.41% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

In the case of access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity among the religious groups, there was a drop except for the Christians, it increased from 3.05% to 6.66%, and the rate of growth was more in the Christian households with 118.36% and least in Hindu households with -30.87%. But Pertaining to the concentration of access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it was much in the Muslim households with 7.29% and 4.89% more than the overall average and least in the Christian households with 9.65% and 2.3% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

According to the above table, Muslims have poor access to conduit electrical wiring

connectivity when comparing to all of the other religious groups, which indicates a good quality of life and better living conditions than other electrical wiring connectivities. Muslim households, On the contrary, rank first amongst religious groups in accessibility to Temporary electrical wire connectivity, indicating poor quality of life in urban India.

Table 3.38: Proportion of households access to the Electricity and types of electricity facility among Nature of employment groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018				
	Electricity	No Electricity	Types of Electric Wiring Connectivity			Electricity	No Electricity	Types of Electric Wiring Connectivity		
			Conduit	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
Self employed	97.79	2.21	61.01	25.47	13.53	99.13	0.87	60.96	29.31	9.73
Regular wage	99.26	0.74	69.48	22.34	8.89	99.33	0.67	68.13	26.72	5.15
Casual labourers	93.07	6.93	42.65	22.89	34.46	98.05	1.95	45.24	30.06	24.70
Others	99.04	0.96	70.84	25.17	3.99	99.22	0.78	69.97	24.69	5.34
Overall average	97.93	2.07	63.5	23.8	12.7	99.08	0.92	63.66	27.37	8.96

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.37 shows how the Nature of employment categories in urban India have access to electricity and what types of electrical wiring they have. Pertaining to the access to electricity facility between 2012 and 2018, there was a growth and rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 5.35% and least in Regular wages with 0.07%. However, the concentration or polarization of the access to electricity facility was more in the households belonging to the Others with 1.11% and Regular wages with 0.25% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourers with 4.86% and 1.03% in 2012 and 2018.

In the case of households' access to Conduit wiring electrical wiring connectivity between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop in access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity except for the Casual labourers, which went up from 42.65% to 45.24%. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 6.07% and least in Regular wages with -1.94% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in the households belonging to the Others with 7.34% and 6.31% more than the overall average and least in Casual labourers with 20.85% and 18.42% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

With reference to Fixed to the walls electrical wiring connectivity, there was a growth except for the households belonging to Others, it decreased from 25.17% to 24.69%, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 31.32% and least in the Other households with -1.90% between 2012 and 2018. But, in the case of concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in the Self-employed households with 1.67% and the Casual labourer households with 2.69% more than the overall average and least in the household belonging to Regular wages with 1.46% and Others with 2.68% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, with reference to the access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, there was a drop among Nature of employment groups, except for the Others, which increased from 3.99% to 5.34%, and the rate of growth was more in the Other households with 33.83% and least in the Regular wage households with -42.06%. But Pertaining to the concentration of access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it was much in the Casual labourer households with 21.46% and 15.74% more than overall average and least in the Others with 8.71% and Regular wages 3.62% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

In terms of access to the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it can be concluded from the above table that casual labourer households are in the worst position compared to the Nature of employment categories, which is a sign of a decent quality

of life .The Casual labourer households, On the contrary, rank first among the Nature of employment categories in accessibility to Temporary electrical wire connectivity, indicating a poorer quality of life and poorer living conditions than other electrical wiring connectivity in urban India.

Table 3.39: Proportion of households access to the Electricity and types of electricity wiring connectivity facility among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban India.

Year	2012					2018					
	Sectoral classification of worker groups	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivity			Electricity	No Electricity	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivity		
				Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
Agriculture	94.52	5.48	51.67	27.25	21.08	97.59	2.41	53.57	26.70	19.73	
Manufacture	98.09	1.91	61.37	23.73	14.90	99.06	0.94	58.65	29.81	11.54	
Service	97.99	2.01	63.77	23.33	12.89	99.25	0.75	67.12	26.30	6.58	
Overall average	97.93	2.07	63.5	23.8	12.7	99.08	0.92	63.66	27.37	8.96	

Source: Same as Table 3.2.

Table 3.39 depicts access to electricity and the types of electrical wiring connectivity in urban India by sectoral classification of worker groups. Between 2012 and 2018, the statistics clearly showed an increase in access to electricity, with the rate of growth being higher among households in the agriculture sector (3.24 percent) and lower in the manufacturing sector (0.98 percent). On the contrary, the concentration or polarization of access to the electricity facility was more in households belonging to the Manufacture sector with 0.16% and the Service sector with 0.17% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture households with 3.41% and 1.49% in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, regarding the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity among Sectoral classification of worker groups, there was progress in households belonging to the Agriculture and Service sector with 51.67% to 53.57% and, 63.77% to 67.12% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. Pertaining to the rate of growth in access to conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in the households belonging to the Service sector with 5.25% and least in the Manufacture sector with -4.43% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in households belonging to the Service sector with 0.27% and 3.46% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector with 11.83% and 10.09% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

With reference to the accessibility to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity among Nature of employment groups, there was a rise in the Manufacture and Service sectors from 23.73% to 29.81% and 23.33% to 26.30%, between 2012 and 2018, respectively and the rate of growth was high in the households belong to the Manufacture sector with 25.62% and least in the Agriculture sector with -2.01% between 2012 and 2018. But in the case of concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in the Agriculture sector households with 3.45% and the Manufacture sector households with 2.44% more than the overall average and least in the Service sector households with 0.47% and 1.07% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018.

Table 3.39, on the other side, reveals that between 2012 and 2018, access to Temporary electrical wire connectivity decreased within Sectoral classification of worker groups. Even though in 2018, the Agriculture group was the most in accessing Temporary electrical wiring connectivity with 19.73% and followed by the Manufacture and Service group with 11.54% and 6.58%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it was much in the households belonging to Agriculture sector with 8.38% and 10.77% more than overall average and least in the Service sector with only 0.19% more than the overall average and 2.38% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018,

respectively.

Table 3.39 notices that poor quality of electrical wiring connectivities, such as Fixed to the wall and Temporary wiring connectivities, have been largely used by the urban households belonging to the Agriculture sector. It indicates the vulnerability and poor lifestyle of the Agriculture households compared to other Sectoral classifications of worker groups. On the contrary, the access to Fixed to the wall and Temporary electrical wiring connectivities are mostly with the Casual labourer households, at the same time, the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring is the least in the Casual labourer households, which indicates exclusion and deprivation from the access to better quality electrical wiring connectivity in urban India.

3.5. Conclusion

Access to basic amenities maintains socioeconomic stability and improves quality lifestyle. It demonstrates an increase in households' access to basic amenities from 2012 to 2018, although the gain is not evenly spread across the Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications of worker groups. In urban India, there is a trend for inequality and isolation. And although households' provision of basic amenities namely tap drinking water, bathroom facilities, latrines, garbage pickup, drainage systems, shelter, structural conditions, and electricity facilities has improved, the marginalised segments of society such as STs, SCs, Muslims, Casual workers, and Agriculture worker remain in a much more passive position than the other groups, and denial is more prevalent.

In contrast, when compared to other households in urban India, the concentration of provision of basic services is very low in the above-mentioned households, which is a strong evidence of deprivation of the households from basic amenities. This chapter proposes a more targeted focus on the previously identified urban groups. On the other side, underprivileged groups are more deprived of superior quality of service such as tap drinking water, attached bathroom, exclusive latrine, underground drainage, pucca, and good structural condition, with just a few families getting access

to such facilities. As a result, the more focus and group-specific concentration required on providing adequate amenities and facilities to STs, SCs in social groups, Muslims in religious groups, Casual Working class in nature of employments groups, and Agriculture families in occupational groups.

Chapter 4

Access to the Basic Amenities in Urban Telangana - Social Disparity and Unevenness in Urbanization

4.1. Introduction

Telangana is one of the rapidly urbanizing states, and its cities drive the state's economic growth. Telangana's urban population is quickly growing and has exceeded the national average. In 1971, the state's urban population was approximately 21%, compared to the national urban population of 18%. However, by 1981, the urban population had risen sharply to 25.3%, owing primarily to population growth in Hyderabad. Furthermore, the urban population increased significantly from 31.8% to 38.9% percent between 2001 and 2011. As a result, the state's urban population is growing much faster than the rest of India.

According to the 2011 census, 1.36 crore people, or 38.9% of the state's total population of 3.5 crore people, live in urban areas. A temporal analysis of urbanization in Telangana illustrates that India's proportion of the urban population is steadily increasing. As per Census 2011, approximately 31.2% of the country's total population lives in urban areas. A comparison of the urban population in India by state reveals that 11 of the 29 states have a higher urban population than the national average of 31.2%. According to the Socio-Economic Outlook -2018, which was tabled in the State Legislative Assembly, Telangana ranks seventh in the country in terms of urbanization, with 38.9% of the population living in cities. The distribution of Telangana's urban population discloses that the Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation area is home to roughly 20% of the state's population. The Greater Warangal Municipal Corporation is yet another rapidly urbanizing geographical area in the state. GWMC currently accounts for approximately 2% of the total population of the state. Warangal, a historical city

in a central location, is well-connected by rail network and other transportation means, and the city and its adjoining urban agglomeration are growing quickly, with increased economic activities, according to the survey. The Ramagundam Municipal Corporation is another emerging urban agglomeration. The region is rich in coal deposits. Mineral-based and ancillary industries are sprouting up in Ramagundam, Godavarikhani, and Mancherial. Public group undertakings of the State and Centre, namely SCCL and National Thermal Power Corporation, are located in this area, providing additional benefits for industrial development in this region.

This chapter emphasizes on the households' accessibility to basic amenities and quality of amenities, which indicate the better living style and quality of life in urban Telangana. In addition, this chapter addresses how these amenities have been distributed among the Social, Religious, Nature of Employment and, Sectoral Classification of Workers groups in urban Telangana. The main motive of the chapter is to address the discriminative and uneven dispersal of the basic amenities among the various socio-economic categories. Furthermore, it focuses on biased distribution in the quality of amenities among the different groups.

4.2. Access to the tap drinking water in urban Telangana

This section explains the access to tap drinking water by categorising the population into Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral Classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. Piped water into a residence, piped water to a plot, and public tap are all examples of access to a tap drinking water facility. Even though the public tap has been criticised for its inconsistent supply and poor water quality, many households have turned to the public tap because they cannot purchase commercialised water services with their meagre wages under the paradigm of privatization of basic necessities. The number of residents from lower social classes, namely SCs, STs, casual workers, and those working in the agriculture sector, have relied on the public tap for drinkable water.

Table 4.1: Proportion of urban households access to tap drinking water in Telangana.

Year	Drinking water from Tap	Drinking water from the Public taps
2012	82.8	9.87
2018	62.35	2.49

Source: Same as Table 4.1

The above table illustrates the access to drinking water from the tap and Public taps between 2012 and 2019 in urban Telangana. It showed a decline in access to drinking water from the tap and went down from 82.8% in 2012 to 62.35% in 2018. On the contrary, households' access to drinking water from Public taps also decreased from 9.87% in 2012 to 2.49% in 2018. The fall in the access to drinking water from the tap indicates the shifting of households from the tap to the other sources of drinking water facilities, such as; bottled water which is the commercialized water source. Almost 34% of the households in Telangana state have been resorting to the drinking water facility. On the contrary, a drop in the access to Public taps is a sign of shifting what was, the government's responsibility on to others.

Table 4.2: Percentage of urban households access to Drinking water from the tap among Social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012		2018	
	Drinking water from taps	Drinking water from the Public taps	Drinking water from taps	Drinking water from the Public taps
ST	69.78	10.68	41.39	2.02
SC	79.06	36.09	67.62	5.25
OBCs	89.99	11.35	65.52	2.96
Others	75.8	1.25	58.02	0.31
Overall average	82.8	9.87	62.35	2.49

Source: Same as Table 4.1

The above table displays the social groups' accessibility to drinking water from the tap and public taps in urban Telangana. Between 2012 and 2018, accessible to drinking water from taps and public taps decreased. There was a decline in tap drinking water between 2012 and 2018; it was more in the households belonging to the Scheduled Tribes, which declined from 69.78% to 41.39% and least in the Scheduled Castes from 79.06% to 67.62%. In the case of polarization or concentration of access to tap drinking water facility, it was more in the OBC households with 7.19% in 2012 and Scheduled Caste households with 5.27% in 2018, more than the overall average. However, the other vital component of the tap drinking water facilities is Public taps; Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households depend most upon Public taps for drinking water among the social groups. Although there was a decline in the households depending on Public taps for drinking water facilities, the polarization of access to the Public taps for drinking water was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Castes, which was 26.22% and 2.76% in 2012 and 2018 respectively. Therefore, it could be concluded from the above table that there is a disparity in access to tap drinking water among the social groups. Finally, it can be seen from table 4.2 that the SCs and STs in urban Telangana have primarily used the public tap for drinking water, which is renowned for its irregularity and poor water quality.

Table 4.3: Proportion of urban households access to Drinking water from the tap among Religious groups in Telangana.

Religious groups	2012		2018	
	Drinking water from taps	Drinking water from the Public taps	Drinking water from taps	Drinking water from the Public taps
Hindus	79.39	10.80	59.79	2.29
Muslims	97.69	7.09	75.92	2.79
Christians	93.03	0.06	58.58	9.11
Others	100	00	75.95	00
Overall average	82.8	9.87	62.35	2.49

Source: Same as Table 4.1

Table above illustrates how many homes in urban Telangana have access to tap drinking water and public taps amongst the religious groups. There was a decline in access to drinking water from the tap among religious groups, and decline was more in the Christian households from 93.03% to 85.58% and least in the Muslim households from 97.69% to 75.92%. Regarding the polarization or concentration of access to the taps for drinking water, was more in the Muslim households with 14.89% in 2012 and Other and Muslims with 13.6% and 13.57% more than the overall average in 2018 and least in Hindu households with 3.41% in 2012 and Christian households with 3.77% less than the overall average in 2018.

On the contrary, there was a decrease in households' access to drinking water facilities from Public taps among the religious groups between 2012 and 2018. Still, the households that belong to Christians were in the top place with 9.11% in 2018. Regarding the concentration of the access to drinking water from the Public tap among religious groups, it was more among the Hindu households with 0.93% in 2012 and Christian households with 6.62% in 2018, more than the overall average.

Table 4.4: Proportion of households access to Drinking water from the tap among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012		2018	
	Drinking water from taps	Drinking water from the Public taps	Drinking water from taps	Drinking water from the Public taps
Self employed	93.36	5	72.59	4.20
Regular wage	78.62	6.66	64.74	0.68
Casual labourers	80.21	39.86	76.15	6.73
Others	75.72	5.29	42.83	1.86
Overall average	82.8	9.87	62.35	2.49

Source: Same as Table 4.1

Table 4.4 depicts access to drinking water from the tap and public taps in urban

Telangana by Nature of employment groups. Between 2012 and 2018, there had been a decrease in access to drinking water from taps; it was more in the Nature of employment group named Other households, which fell from 75.72% to 42.83%, and it was least in the Casual labourer households, which fell from 80.21% to 76.15%. However, the data clearly illustrates that affordability for tap drinking water positively correlated with the regular income flow of the households. The Nature of employment groups with steady and secured income, namely Regular, have better access to tap water than other employment groups.

Regarding the polarization of tap drinking water facility across the Nature of employment groups, the households belonging to the Self-employed had the highest access with 10.56% in 2012 and Casual labourers with 13.8% more than overall average in 2018 and least in Other households with 7.08% and 19.52% less than overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. However, the households' access to drinking water from the Public taps, there was a decline among the Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018, still, most of the households belonging to Casual labourers have been resorting to the Public taps for drinking water, and it was 6.73% in 2018. Regarding the concentration of access to Public taps, it was highest with the Casual labourers households with 29.99% and 4.24% more than the overall average and least in the Self-employed households with 4.87% in 2012 and Regular wage households with 1.81% less than the overall average in 2018. It can be concluded from the above table that the Casual labourers depend on access to Public tap for drinking water facility in urban Telangana and the dependence of this group on public taps is an all India phenomena as well.

Table 4.5: Proportion of urban households access to drinking water from the tap among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Year	2012		2018	
Sectoral classification of worker groups	Drinking water from the tap	Drinking water from the Public taps	Drinking water from the taps	Drinking water from the Public taps
Agriculture	97.08	20.65	73.79	10.64
Manufacture	90.35	12.20	74.55	2.71
Service	81.87	9.66	63.14	1.97
Overall average	82.8	9.87	62.35	2.49

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.5 depicts accessibility to drinking water from the tap and public tap in urban Telangana by sectoral classification of worker groups. Between 2012 and 2018, there had been a decrease in the accessibility of drinking water from taps. However, with reference to the polarization or concentration of access to tap drinking water facilities amongst Sectoral classification of workers groups, it was high in the Agriculture sector households with 14.28% in 2012 and Manufacture sector households with 12.2% in 2018, more than the overall average and least in Service sector households with 0.93% less than overall average and mere 0.79% more than the overall average in 2018. Finally, regarding access to Public taps as the source of drinking water facility; the most were the households belonging to the Agriculture sector between 2012 and 2018. The concentration of access to drinking water from Public taps was much in the Agriculture sector households with 10.78% and 8.15% more than the overall average and least in the Service sector households with 0.21% and 0.52% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018. As can be seen from the table above, there is an unequal distribution of tap drinking water facilities among Sectoral classifications of worker groups in urban Telangana, with Agriculture households relying on the public tap for water more than all groups in urban Telangana.

4.3. Access to Bathroom, Latrine, Garbage, and Drainage facility in urban Telangana

This section explains the households' access to the bathroom, latrine, garbage collection arrangements, and drainage and housing facilities in urban Telangana. It also focuses on the quality and distribution of the amenities among the Social, Religious, Nature of employment, and Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. This section depicts the development and disparities in household access to and quality of amenities among the major groups listed previously. Households belonging to socially disadvantaged groups including SCs and STs, casual workers, and agriculture households, On the contrary, have been denied of basic amenities and high-quality amenities, indicating a poorer quality of life and a low standard of living.

4.3.1. Access to bathroom facility in urban Telangana

This section discusses how workers in urban Telangana can access bathrooms and what types of bathrooms they can use, based on their Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications. It is common knowledge that having access to a bathroom is a sign of self-dignity. Pertaining to bathroom quality, having access to attached bathroom signifies a higher standard of living than getting access to a detached bathroom. On the other side, not having access to a bathroom reveals helplessness and the most dreadful living conditions.

Table 4.6: Proportion of households access to Bathroom and types of bathroom facilities in urban Telangana

Year	Bathroom facility	No Bathroom facility	Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom
2012	96.81	3.19	51.60	45.21
2018	98.70	1.30	57.96	42.04

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Between 2012 and 2018, the accessibility to bathrooms and types of bathroom facilities in households was shown in the table above. In urban Telangana, access to bathroom facilities has improved, rising from 96.81% to 98.70% in 2018. In contrast, from 2012 to 2018, the percentage of people who did not have access to a bathroom declined from 3.19% to 1.30%. The percentage of people who have an attached restroom facility has improved from 51.60% to 57.96% in 2018. This indicates a higher standard of living. Furthermore, in urban Telangana, access to detached bathroom facilities declined from 45.21% in 2012 to 42.04% in 2018.

Table 4.7: Proportion of urban households access to bathroom and types of bathroom facilities among social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012				2018			
Social groups	Bathroom and Types of Bathroom facilities				Bathroom and Types of Bathroom facilities			
	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom
ST	94.05	47.89	46.18	5.94	91.42	33.87	66.13	8.77
SC	96.35	17.61	78.74	3.65	98.10	67.17	30.93	1.90
OBCs	95.52	45.83	49.83	4.48	99.00	53.35	46.65	1.00
Others	99.05	68.33	30.73	0.95	100	77.46	22.54	00
Overall average	96.81	51.60	45.21	3.19	98.70	57.96	42.04	1.30

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

The above table depicts the types of bathroom facilities available to households in urban Telangana, as well as their access to them. Among social groupings, there had been an increase in access to bathrooms, except for the Scheduled Tribes, which decreased from 94.05% to 91.42%, and the rate of growth was highest in the OBC households, which was 3.64%, and the lowest Scheduled Tribes with -2.7% between 2012 and 2018. But Pertaining to the polarization of the access to bathroom facilities among the social groups, the Scheduled Tribe households are in a vulnerable state

than all other social groups, which was 2.81% and 7.28% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. The concentration of access to bathroom facility much in the Other households with 2.24% and 1.3% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. It is a symbol of relative deprivation and exclusion from access to bathroom facilities. Even though there is progress in access to bathroom facilities, to a greater extent, the socially disadvantaged or backward groups such as Scheduled Tribes deprived of access to the bathroom facility more than all other social groups in urban Telangana.

Regarding the access to Attached bathroom facility witnessed progress among the social groups except for the Scheduled Tribes, decreased from 47.89% to 33.87%, and the rate of growth was high in the Scheduled Castes with 281.43% and least in the Scheduled Tribes with -29.27% between 2012 and 2018. But the concentration of the bathroom facility was most with the households belong to Others, as compared to all other social groups, it was 16.73% and 19.5% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively and the lowest in the Scheduled Castes with 33.99% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribes with 24.09% in 2018 less than the overall average.

On the contrary, there was a decline in access to detached bathroom facilities amongst the social groups except for Scheduled Tribes, which increased from 46.18% to 66.13% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of access to Detached bathroom facilities, the Scheduled Caste households were the most with 33.53% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 24.09% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 14.48% and 19.5% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. The following table shows that accessibility to the bathroom and attached bathroom facility has improved from 2012 to 2018, indicating a better quality of life and a higher standard of living. However, it is unequally distributed between social categories. In urban Telangana, underprivileged households, such as STs and SCs households, have the least connected to bathroom and attached bathroom facilities compared to other social categories.

Table 4.8: Proportion of urban households access to bathroom and types bathroom facilities among Religious groups in Telangana.

Religious groups	Bathroom and Types of Bathroom facilities				Bathroom and Types of Bathroom facilities			
	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom
Hindu	96.82	52.70	44.12	3.18	98.43	56.78	43.22	1.57
Muslim	96.21	45.86	50.34	3.79	100	60.80	39.20	00
Christian	99.47	29.71	69.75	0.53	99.09	65.97	34.03	0.91
Others	100	100	00	00	100	66.59	33.41	00
Overall average	96.81	51.60	45.21	3.19	98.70	57.96	42.04	1.30

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.8 shows the households' access to bathroom facilities and the type of bathroom facility among Religious groups in urban Telangana. There was an improvement in households' access to bathroom facilities among religious groups, except for the Christians, which decreased marginally from 99.47% to 99.09%, and the rate of growth in access to bathroom facilities was highest in the case of Muslim households with 3.93% and least in Christians with -0.38% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the polarization or concentration of access to bathroom facility high in the Other households with 3.19% and 1.3% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

However, there was a significant increase in access to the Attached bathroom facilities, which indicates a good life and better living standards, and the rate of growth was much in the Christian households with 122.04% and least in Other households with -33.41% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of the Attached bathroom facility, it was more in the Other households with 48.4% and 8.63% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2108, respectively.

Pertaining to the access to the Detached bathroom facility, which shows low quality of life or living standard compared to the Attached bathroom facility, there was a drop except for Other households, which increased from 00% to 33.41%. It can be concluded from Table 4.8 that the access to bathroom facilities have unequally distributed among the religious groups and Hindu households are in the weakest conditions in terms of access to bathroom and Attached bathroom facilities than the other religious categories in urban Telangana

Table 4.9: Proportion of urban households access to bathroom and types bathroom facilities among Nature of employment groups in Telangana

Year	2012				2018			
Nature of employment groups	Bathroom and Types of Bathroom facilities				Bathroom and Type of Bathroom facilities			
	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom
Self employed	97.64	50.05	47.56	2.36	99.77	55.45	44.55	0.23
Regular wage	97.88	69.54	28.34	2.12	98.76	69.38	30.62	1.24
Casual labourers	88.73	5.18	83.55	11.27	93.44	27.14	72.86	6.56
Others	98.52	29.56	68.95	1.48	99.42	54.03	45.97	0.58
Overall average	96.81	51.60	45.21	3.19	98.70	57.96	42.04	1.30

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table.4.9 displays the access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities amongst Nature of Employment categories in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018; the data depicted growth in access to bathroom facilities among the employment groups, and the rate of growth was high in the Casual labourer households with 5.30% and least in the Regular wage households with 0.89% only. But, the polarization of access to bathroom facilities, was much in the households belonging to Others with 1.71% and 1.07% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourers with 8.08% and 5.26% lower than overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. It indicates

deprivation of the households belonging to the Casual labourers from access to the bathroom facility. It can be observed from the above table that there was noteworthy progress in the access to Attached bathroom facilities, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 4.23.93% and least in Regular wages with -0.23% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration or polarization of the access Attached bathroom facility, it was more in the Regular wage households with 17.94% and 11.42% more than the overall average and least the Casual labourers households with 46.42%, 30.82% in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

On the contrary, with reference to the accessibility to Detached bathroom facility between 2012 and 2018, there was a decrease except for Regular wage households; it increased from 28.34% to 30.62%. However, pertaining to the polarization of the Detached bathroom facility, it was more in the Casual labourers households with 38.34% and 11.42% more than the overall average compared to all other Nature of employment groups in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Lastly, pertaining to the No access to bathroom facilities between 2012 and 2018, the data illustrates a drop among the Nature of employment groups but in 2018, the Casual labourers households were the most in no access to bathroom facility with 6.56% in 2018. The households belonging to the Casual labourers are the worst sufferers regarding access to bathroom and attached bathroom facility, which represents good life and better living standard in urban Telangana. On the contrary, the concentration of the bathroom and Attached bathroom facilities was mainly with the households belonging to the Regular wages and Others. It is very poor in the Casual labourers and shows relative deprivation and exclusion from access to bathroom and attached bathroom facilities in urban Telangana.

Table 4.10: Proportion of urban households access to bathroom and bathroom facilities among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Sectoral classification of worker groups	Bathroom and Types Bathroom facility				Bathroom and Types Bathroom facility			
	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom	Bathroom	Attached	Detached	No bathroom
Agriculture	79.18	20.82	67.83	20.82	93.91	46.64	53.36	6.09
Manufacture	94.08	37.32	56.75	5.92	97.47	53.92	46.08	2.53
Service	97.34	59.40	37.94	2.66	99.83	65.51	34.49	0.17
Overall average	96.81	51.60	45.21	3.19	98.70	57.96	42.04	1.30

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

In urban Telangana, table.4.10 depicts household bathroom access and type of bathroom facilities by sectoral classification of workers groups. There had been an increase in the accessibility to bathroom facilities among the Sectoral classification of workers groups between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was much in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 18.6% and least in the Service sector with 2.55%. On the contrary, concerning the polarization of the bathroom facility among the Sectoral classification of workers groups, it was much in the Service sector households with 0.53% and 1.13% more than overall averages and least in the Agriculture sector households with 17.63% and 4.79% less than the overall average, in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the households' access to the Attached bathroom facility between 2012 and 2018, there was notable growth in access to the Attached bathroom facility, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 124.01% and least in the Service sector with 10.28%. But data displays that the concentration of access to the Attached bathroom facility was more with the households belonging to the Service sector with 7.8% and 7.55% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 30.78% and 11.32% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

It can be observed that there was a decrease in access to Detached bathroom facilities among the Sectoral classification of worker groups between 2012 and 2018. The concentration of the Detached bathroom facility was more with the Agriculture households than the all other Sectoral classification of worker groups; it was 22.62% and 11.32% more than the overall average and least in the Service sector households with 7.27% and 7.55% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Lastly, pertaining to the No access to bathroom facility between 2012 and 2018, it went down among the Sectoral classification of worker groups, but the Agriculture sector households were in the most with 6.09% in 2018. According to the following data, the majority of households in the agriculture sector have the worst living conditions in urban Telangana in terms of bathroom accessibility and quality of bathroom facilities, when comparison to all other Sectoral classifications of worker groups in urban India. The polarization or concentration of access to bathrooms and attached bathroom facilities, which is primarily with Service sector households and least with Agriculture sector households, represents the deprivation and exclusion of Agriculture sector households from bathroom and attached bathroom facilities in urban Telangana.

4.3.2. Access to latrine facility in urban Telangana

This section concentrates on the accessibility to latrine facilities in Telangana's urban households across the Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications of worker groups. This section also discusses the exclusive usage of latrine facilities, which reflects a higher standard of living in Telangana's urban areas. Finally, it depicts households without a latrine, which denotes the poorest living conditions.

Table.4.11: Proportion of urban households access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities in Telangana.

Year	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of latrine facility	No latrine facility
2012	93.2	73.85	6.8
2018	98.43	77.13	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

In Telangana, the table.4.11 displays the households' accessibility to latrine facilities. The above table shows that between 2012 and 2018, there had been an increase in access to latrine facilities. It increased from 93.2% to 98.43%. At the same time, there was an improvement in the exclusive use of latrine facilities in urban Telangana, and it went up from 63.85% in 2012 to 77.13% in 2018. Finally, regarding the households' access to the no latrine facility, it went down from 6.8% in 2012 to 1.57% in 2018.

Table 4.12: Proportion of urban households access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities among social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012			2018		
	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility
ST	92.07	57.86	7.93	95.39	83.11	4.61
SC	78.45	44.87	21.55	95.65	63.80	4.35
OBCs	91.17	70.98	8.83	99	74.92	1
Others	99.67	87.09	0.33	100	85.65	00
Overall average	93.2	63.85	6.8	98.43	77.13	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.12 shows the households' access to latrine facilities and exclusive use of latrine facilities among the social groups between 2012 and 2018. There was growth in households' access to latrine facilities among the social groups in urban Telangana, and the rate growth was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Castes with

21.91% and least in the Others with 0.33%. On the contrary, concerning the polarization of access to latrine facilities among social groups, it was more in the Other households with 6.47% and 1.57% more than the overall average and least in Scheduled Castes with 14.75% and Scheduled Tribes with 3.04% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

However, there was an enhancement in access to exclusive use of latrine facilities, and the rate of growth was much in the Scheduled Tribe households with 43.63%, followed by Scheduled Caste households with 42.18% and least in the Other households with -1.65% between 2012 and 2018. But, concerning the concentration of an exclusive use of latrine facility was more in the Other households with 13.24% and 8.52% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 28.98% and 13.33% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Lastly, pertaining to the No access to latrine facility between 2012 and 2018, there was a reduction among the social groups; however, in 2018, the Scheduled Tribes had more in no access to latrine facility with 4.61% and followed by Scheduled Castes with 4.35%. It may be stated that households belonging to SCs and STs had the worst access to latrines and exclusive usage of latrine facilities in urban Telangana which indicating a higher quality of life than all other social groups.

The polarization or concentration of access to latrine facilities is accumulated more with the Other households and least with Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households; it is clear evidence of the deprivation and exclusion from the latrine and exclusive use of latrine facility in urban Telangana.

Table 4.13: Proportion of urban households access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities among Religious groups in Telangana.

Year	2012			2018		
Religious groups	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility
Hindu	92.88	73.21	7.12	98.14	74.02	1.86
Muslim	93.33	74.96	6.67	100	89.52	00
Christian	99.47	78.73	0.53	97.49	95.47	2.51
Others	100	100	00	100	95.65	00
Overall average	93.2	73.85	6.8	98.43	77.13	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Between 2012 and 2018, Table 4.13 indicates how many households in urban Telangana had access to a latrine, an exclusive latrine facility, or no latrine facility across religious groups. Regarding the access to latrine facility among religious groups, there was an improvement in access to latrine facility except for the Christian households, dropped from 99.47% to 95.47% and, the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Muslims with 7.14% and least in the Christian with -1.99% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the polarization of the access to latrine facilities amongst the religious categories, it was high in Other households than all other religious groups with 6.8% and 1.57% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the accessibility to exclusive use of latrine facility, there was growth across the religious categories except for the Other households, it decreased from 100% to 95.65%, and the rate of growth was more in households belonging to Christians with 21.26% and least in Others with -4.35% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of exclusive use of latrine facility amongst the religious categories, it was much in the Others with 26.15% and 18.52% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Finally, there was a drop in the number of households

with No access to latrine facilities among the religious groups between 2012 and 2018; still, in 2018, the Christian households were at the top with 2.52%, followed by Hindus with 1.86%.

Table 4.14: Proportion of urban households access to a latrine and exclusive use of facilities among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012			2018		
	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility
Self employed	96.69	79.54	3.31	98.96	87.58	1.04
Regular wage	97.18	85.18	2.82	98.43	87.55	1.57
Casual labourers	62.6	34.28	37.40	93.30	58.89	6.70
Others	98.46	53.32	1.54	99.77	56.98	0.23
Overall average	93.2	73.85	6.8	98.43	77.13	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

In urban Telangana, the table.4.14 displays the access to a latrine, as well as exclusive usage of the latrine facility amongst the Nature of employment categories. Between 2012 and 2018, there was an increase in access to latrine facilities, and the rate of growth was more in the Casual labourer households with 49.04% and least in the Regular wage households with 1.28%. But, the concentration of access to the latrine facility was much in the households belonging to Others with 5.26% and 1.34% more than overall average and least in Casual labourers with 30.6% and 5.13% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding access to exclusive use of latrine, there was an increase in the access to exclusive use of latrine facility among the Nature employment groups, and the rate of growth was much in the Casual labourer households with 71.79% and least in the Regular wages households with 2.78%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the exclusive use of latrine facility, which indicates deprivation of rest of the section from the access to exclusive use of latrine facility, the households belong to Regular wages

were in the top place with 11.33% in 2012 and Self-employed with 10.45% followed by Regular wages 10.42% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 39.57% in 2012 and Other households with 20.15% and followed by Casual labourer households with 18.24% in 2018 less than the overall average. Finally, the No access to the latrine facility among the employment categories declined between 2012 and 2018; still, in 2018, the households belonging to the Casual labourers were in the top place in the no access latrine facility with 6.7%. Table 4.14 illustrates that among the Nature of employment groups, there is development in family access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities, although families belonging to the Casual labourers have the worst access to latrine facilities and exclusive use of latrine facilities. As compared to other employment categories in urban Telangana, Casual workers had less polarization or concentration of latrines and exclusive use of latrine facilities.

Table 4.15: Proportion of urban households access to a latrine and exclusive use of facilities among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Year	2012			2018		
	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Latrine facility	Exclusive use of Latrine facility	No Latrine facility
Sectoral classification of worker groups						
Agriculture	71.82	66.18	28.18	91.34	79.34	8.98
Manufacture	87.66	63.83	12.34	97.39	81.85	2.61
Service	94.14	79.59	5.86	99.17	86.45	0.83
Overall average	93.2	73.85	6.8	98.43	77.13	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.15 shows the household access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities among Sectoral classification of workers groups in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018. The data depicted growth in the access to the latrine facilities, and the rate of growth was more in the Agriculture sector households with

27.17% and followed by the Service and Manufacture sector households with 11.09% and 5.34% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. Regarding the polarization or concentration of access to latrine facilities, it was mostly in the Service sector households with 0.94%, and 0.74% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 21.83% and 7.09% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

With reference to the exclusive use of latrine facility, there was progress amongst the Sectoral classification of worker groups, and the rate of growth was more in the Manufacture sector households with 28.23% and least in the Service sector households with 8.61% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. Moreover, the concentration or polarization of exclusive use of latrine facility was more in Service sector households with 5.74% and 4.72% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the No access to latrine facilities, it notable decreased; still, in 2018, the households belong to Agriculture were in the top place with 8.98%, followed by the Manufacture and Service sector households with 2.61% and 0.83%, respectively. There has been advancement in accessibility to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities across Sectoral classifications of worker groups, although households in the Agriculture sector are at the bottom in case of latrine accessibility and exclusive use of latrine services. When compared to other households, the concentration of accessibility to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities in the Agriculture sector households is very low, indicating that the Agriculture sector households are excluded from access to a latrine and exclusive use of latrine facilities. As a result, there has been progress in terms of occupational categories' access to latrines and exclusive use of latrine services. In terms of access to latrine facilities and exclusive use of latrine facilities, however, households belonging to the Agriculture category are in the worst position.

4.3.3. Access to Garbage collections arrangement in urban Telangana

This section explains the access to Garbage collection in urban Telangana. Usually, there are three types of Garbage collection arrangements; there are three types 1. the Arrangements made by the Municipality or Corporation, 2. Resident/ Group of residents, and 3. Other.

Table 4.16: Proportion of urban households access to garbage collection arrangement facility in Telangana.

Year	Garbage collections arrangement	No Garbage collections arrangement	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Other
2012	88.05	11.95	71.45	11.17	5.43
2018	93.35	6.65	89.91	1.71	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Between 2012 and 2018, the above table illustrates whether households in urban Telangana had accessibility to garbage collection arrangements. The table 4.16 shows the growth in access to garbage collection arrangements; it went up from 88.05% and 93.35%. On the contrary, the access to the garbage collection arrangements by Municipality increased from 71.45% to 89.91% between 2012 and 2018. The access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/ Group of residents witnessed a sharp decrease from 11.17% in 2012 to 1.71% in 2018. Finally, the access to Other garbage collection arrangements also experienced a drop, and it dropped from 5.43% in 2012 to 1.57% in 2018.

Table 4.17: Proportion of urban households access to arrangements made for garbage collection among social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
Social groups	Garbage collection arrangements	No arrangements	Municipality/	Resident/Group of residents	Others	Garbage collection arrangements	No arrangements	Municipality/	Resident/Group of residents	Others
ST	89.9	10.10	51.73	3.96	34.21	78.74	21.26	78.74	00	00
SC	62.06	37.94	51.98	4.58	5.5	92.22	7.78	87.30	0.76	0.28
OBCs	88.1	11.90	67.95	14.65	5.5	93.72	6.28	92.74	0.24	0.74
Others	94.18	5.82	83.68	9.08	1.41	96.28	3.72	89.33	4.51	2.43
Overall average	88.05	11.95	71.45	11.71	5.43	93.35	6.65	89.91	1.71	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

The table above depicts the types of garbage collection arrangements available to households in urban Telangana, as well as their access to them amongst the social categories. Pertaining to access to garbage collection arrangements between 2012 and 2018, there was a rise in access to garbage collection arrangements among the social groups, except for the Scheduled Tribe households from 89.8% to 78.74%, and the rate of growth in access to garbage collection arrangements was more in the SCs households with 48.59% and least in the STs households with -12.41%. Pertaining to the concentration of access to the garbage collection arrangements, it was mostly with the Other households, as compared to all social groups, which was 6.13% and 2.93% more than the overall average and, least in the Scheduled Caste households with 25.99% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 14.61% in 2018 less than the overall average. When it to the garbage collection arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation, there was a growth, and the rate of growth was more in the Scheduled Caste households with 67.94% and least in the Other households with 6.75% between 2012 and 2018. Still, the polarization of the access to garbage collection arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation was more in the Other households with 17.23%

more than the overall average in 2012 and OBCs with 2.83% in 2018 more than the overall average, and it was the least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 19.72% and 11.17% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, in the case of access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/ Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop; it was more in the OBC households among the social groups, which decreased from 14.65% to 0.24%. However, apart from the above-mentioned two, there is a category called Other in case of the other type of arrangement for garbage collections; there was a drop except for the Other households, which was increased from 1.41% to 2.43% between 2012 and 2018. Finally, with reference to the No access to the arrangements for the garbage collection among social groups in urban Telangana, there was a decrease, but most of the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes have no access to arrangements for garbage collections in 2018, the Scheduled Tribes were the most in no access to garbage collection arrangements with 21.26% and followed by the Scheduled Castes, OBCs, and Others with 7.78%, 6.28%, and 3.2%, respectively. However, the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households are vulnerable in having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all other social groups in urban Telangana. Moreover, the polarization or concentration of the access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation facilities is much with the Other households and least with the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households, symbolizes the deprivation and exclusion from access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation in urban Telangana.

Table 4.18: Proportion of urban households access to Arrangements for collecting garbage among Religious groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
Religious groups	Garbage collection arrangements	No arrangements	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Others	Garbage collection arrangements	No arrangements	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Others
Hindu	69.13	11.65	69.13	12.51	6.71	92.77	7.23	88.86	2.06	1.76
Muslim	78.58	15.76	78.58	5.66	0	95.24	4.76	94.33	0.21	0.70
Christians	92.15	0.53	92.15	7.32	0	97.18	2.82	97.18	00	00
Others	100	0	100	0	0	100	00	100	00	00
Overall average	88.05	11.95	71.45	11.71	5.43	93.35	6.65	89.91	1.71	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

In urban Telangana, the table.4.18 illustrates the households' accessibility to garbage collection systems as well as the types of garbage collection arrangements across the religious categories. Concerning the garbage collection arrangements among religious groups, there was a growth and rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Hindus with 34.19% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the concentration of garbage collection arrangements, it was more in the households belonging to Others with 11.95% and 6.65% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively, and least in the Hindu households with 18.92% and 1.05% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, households' access to the arrangement made for garbage collection by Municipality or Corporation among religious groups in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018, there was an improvement and, the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Hindus with 28.54%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to garbage collection arrangement by Municipality or Corporation, it was more in the Other households with 28.55% and 10.09% more than overall average and least in the Hindu households with 2.32% and 1.05% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018,

respectively.

On the contrary, regarding the garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/ Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop; it was more in the Hindu households, which went down from 12.51% to 2.06% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the access to Other arrangements for garbage collections, there was a drop except for the households that belong to Muslims; it increased marginally from 0% to 0.7% between 2012 and 2018.

Finally, with reference to the households with No access to garbage collection arrangements among religious groups in urban Telangana, there was a decrease, but most of the households who did not have access to garbage collection arrangements were Hindus with 7.23% in 2018 than the all-other religious groups in urban Telangana. It can be concluded from table 4.18 that there is progress in the households' access to arrangements made for the garbage collection between 2012 and 2018 among religious groups in urban Telangana, but the Hindus households are in poor condition in terms of having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all other religious categories in urban India. Finally, pertaining to the polarization or concentration of access to garbage collection arrangements and Arrangements made by the Municipality/Corporation less with the Hindu households, as compared to all other religious groups, it indicates exclusion and deprivation of the Hindu households in urban Telangana.

Table 4.19: Proportion of urban households access to arrangements made for the collection of garbage among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
	Garbage collection arrangements	No Garbage collection	Municipality/	Resident/Group of residents	Others	Garbage collection arrangements	No Garbage collection	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Others
Self-employed	91.03	8.97	73	14.9	3.13	98.9	1.10	90.48	0.78	1.10
Regular wage	90.8	9.20	73.66	11.04	6.11	94.75	5.25	88.55	3.47	2.64
Casual labourers	59.47	40.53	43.23	12.8	3.44	81.90	18.90	78.92	1.26	00
Others	97.81	2.19	86.61	0.77	10.43	96.61	3.39	95.44	0.16	1.01
Overall average	88.05	11.95	71.45	11.71	5.43	93.35	6.65	89.91	1.71	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table.4.19 illustrates the access to the arrangements made for garbage collection and the type of garbage collection arrangements among the Nature of employment groups in urban Telangana. There was a growth in access to garbage collection arrangements except for the Other households, it decreased marginally from 97.81% to 96.61%, and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 37.71% and least in Others with -1.22% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the concentration of garbage collection arrangements, it was more in the households belonging to Others with 9.76% in 2012 and Self-employed 5.55% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourers with 28.62% and 11.45% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, regarding the arrangement made for garbage collection by Municipality or Corporation among Nature of employment groups in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018; it could be noticed that there was an improvement and, the rate of growth was more in the case of the Casual labourer households with 82.55% and least in Other households with 10.19%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the access to garbage collection arrangement by Municipality or

Corporation, it was more in the households belong to Regular wages with 2.21% more than the overall average in 2012 and Other households with 5.53% more than overall average 2018 and least in Casual labourer households with 28.22% and 10.99% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the accessibility to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop; it was more in the households belonging to Self-employed dropped from 14.9% to 0.78% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. In the case of Other arrangements for garbage collections, there was a drop, and it was more in the Other households, which decreased from 10.43% to 1.01% between 2012 and 2018. Finally, with reference to the households with No access to garbage collection arrangements among the Nature of employment groups in urban Telangana, there was a decrease; still, the Casual labourer households were at the top with 18.9% in 2018. Table 4.19 that there is an enhancement in access to arrangements made for the garbage collection between 2012 and 2018 among Nature of employment groups in urban Telangana. But the state of the Casual labourers is deplorable in terms of having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all-other nature of employment groups in urban Telangana. On the contrary, the concentration or polarization access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation much least with the Casual labourers, as compared to other employment groups, it sings the deprivation of the Casual labourer households from the access to garbage collection arrangements in urban Telangana.

Table 4.20: Proportion of urban households access to arrangements made for garbage collection among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
Sectoral classification of worker groups	Garbage collection arrangements	No Garbage collection arrangements	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Others	Garbage collection arrangements	No Garbage collection arrangements	Municipality/ Corporation	Resident/Group of residents	Others
Agriculture	53.22	46.78	48.42	3.10	1.7	67.76	32.24	64.13	0.49	00
Manufacture	90.57	9.43	81.43	6.14	4	93.44	6.56	88.16	2.72	2.44
Service	94.02	5.98	90.54	1.27	2.27	96.61	3.39	95.44	0.16	1.01
Overall average	88.05	11.95	71.45	11.71	5.43	93.35	6.65	89.91	1.71	1.57

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table.4.20 depicts accessibility to the arrangements made for the garbage collection and type of garbage collection arrangements among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018. There was progress in access to garbage collection arrangements, and the rate of growth was much in the Agriculture sector households with 27.32% and least in the Service sector households with 2.75%. But Pertaining to the concentration of the garbage collection arrangements, it was more in the households belonging to the Service sector with 5.97% and 3.26% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture Sector households with 34.83% and 25.59% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Pertaining to the households' access to the arrangement made for garbage collection by Municipality or Corporation among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018, it could be noticed that there was an improvement and the rate of growth was more in the Agriculture sector households with 32.44% and least in the Service sector households with 5.41% between 2012 and 2018. But pertaining to the polarization or concentration of access to garbage

collection arrangement by Municipality or Corporation, was more in the households belong to Service with 19.09% and 5.53% more than overall average and, least in the households belong to Agriculture sector with 23.03% and 25.78% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, in the case of access to garbage collection arrangements made by the Resident/Group of residents between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop; it was more in the Manufacture sector households than other Sectoral classification of worker groups and dropped from 6.14% to 2.74%. In the case of Other arrangements for garbage collections, there was a drop between 2012 and 2018. Finally, about the households with No access to garbage collection arrangements among Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana, there was a decrease, but the Agriculture sector households with 32.24% denied access to garbage collection arrangements in 2018.

It can be concluded from Table 4.20 that there is an improvement in access to arrangements made for garbage collection between 2012 and 2018 among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. But the Agriculture sector households are worse in terms of having access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation compared to all-other Sectoral classification of worker categories in urban Telangana. Finally, pertaining to the concentration or polarization access to garbage collection arrangements and arrangements made by Municipality or Corporation much least with the Agriculture households than all other Sectoral classification of worker groups and most with the Service sector households, it sings the exclusion and deprivation of the Agriculture sector households from the access to garbage collection arrangement in urban Telangana.

4.3.4. Access to Drainage system facility in urban Telangana

This section describes how households in urban Telangana have accessibility to the drainage system across the Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications of workers. Underground, Covered pucca, Open pucca, and Open

katcha are the four different types of drainage channels. Accessibility to the underground and covered pucca drainage system suggests a higher quality of life and living conditions than some other drainage facilities. Accessibility to Katcha and the absence of a drainage system, on the other side, indicate a poor quality of life and a bad lifestyle. The number of urban houses who have accessibility to underground, covered pucca-type drainage facility continues increasing. SCs, STs, Muslims, Casual Workers, and Agricultural Industry households, however, in a much worse situation than the rest of the population. It's a sign that the poor are being left out of the city's tremendous growth.

Table 4.21: Proportion of urban households access to drainage facilities in urban Telangana.

Year	Drainage	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
2012	94.7	64.63	8.77	20.10	1.20	5.34
2018	97.33	79.59	8.81	7.73	1.16	2.67

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.21 shows the households' accessibility to drainage and the type of drainage facilities in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018. It could be witnessed from the data that there had been an enhancement in the accessibility to the drainage system in urban Telangana; it increased from 94.7% in 2012 to 97.33% in 2018. On the contrary, access to the type of drainage systems, namely Underground and Covered Pucca drainage facilities, were also witnessed improved from 64.63% to 79.59% and 8.77% to 8.81% between 2012 and 2018. However, there was a decrease in the accessibility to Open pucca, Open katcha, and no drainage facilities, which point to the poor quality living condition compared to Underground and Covered pucca type of drainage systems in urban Telangana. The access to the Open pucca drainage system decreased from 20.10% to 7.73%, and the Open katcha type drainage system dropped from 1.20% to 1.16%; the households with no access to the drainage system dropped from 5.34% to 2.67% between 2012 and 2018.

Table 4.22: Proportion of urban households access to drainage and types of drainage facilities among Social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012						2018					
Social groups	Drainage and types Drainage system						Drainage and types Drainage system					
	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
ST	93.99	85.61	2.91	4.68	0.76	6.01	91.09	74.32	6.02	7.78	2.97	8.91
SC	97.29	56.70	4.67	18.38	2.71	17.54	94.14	78.06	7.68	7.13	1.27	5.86
OBCs	98.43	55.44	11.57	24.92	1.57	6.90	97.66	77.57	10.60	8.38	1.11	2.34
Others	99.74	76.19	6.80	16.63	0.26	0.12	99.56	85.44	6.41	6.73	0.97	0.44
Overall average	94.7	64.63	8.77	20.10	1.20	5.34	97.33	79.59	8.81	7.73	1.16	2.67

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.22 shows illustrates the access to drainage and kind of drainage facilities amongst Social categories in urban Telangana. Between 2012 and 2018, there had been a decrease in social categories' access to drainage systems. But in the case of the polarization or concentration of the access to drainage facilities amongst the social categories, it was more in the hands of the Other households more than all other social groups; it was 5.04% and 2.23% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribes with 0.71% and 6.24% in 2012 and 2018, respectively, followed by the Scheduled Caste households.

With reference to access to Underground drainage facility amongst social categories, there was an increase except for the Scheduled Tribe households; it decreased from 85.61% to 74.32% and Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to OBCs with 39.91% and least in Scheduled Tribes with -13.18% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the concentration of access to the Underground

drainage facility among the social groups was mostly in the Scheduled Tribe households with 20.88% and 5.85% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively, and least in the OBC households with 9.19% in 2012 followed by Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes with 5.27% in 2018 less than the overall average. When it comes to households' access to the covered pucca drainage facility, it is evident from the above table that there was a growth in the case of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households from 2.91% to 6.02% and 4.67% to 7.68% and a drop in the OBCs and Other households from 11.57% to 10.6% and 6.8% to 6.73% between 2012 and 2018, respectively and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Scheduled Tribe with 106.87% and the least in OBCs with -8.38%. The concentration of the Covered Pucca drainage system was more in the hand of the OBCs with 2.8%, and 1.79% more than the overall average and least in the households belonging to Scheduled Tribes with 5.86% and 2.89% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, households' access to the Open pucca drainage facility, there was a drop among the social groups except for the Scheduled Tribe households from 4.68% to 7.78%, and a decline was more in the OBC households from 24.92% to 8.38% in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018.

With reference to the access to the Open katcha drainage, and there was a reduction in the access to the Open katcha drainage system among social groups except for the Scheduled Tribes; it increased from 0.76% to 2.97% between 2012 and 2018. The Scheduled Tribes households were most in access to the Open katcha drainage facility with 8.83% and followed by Scheduled Castes with 1.27% and least in Other households with 0.97% in 2018.

Finally, regarding No access to drainage system amongst social categories between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop except for the Scheduled Tribes and Other households, which increased from 6.01% to 8.91% and 0.12% to 0.44% in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Still Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste households were in the top place with No access to drainage among the social groups with 8.91% and 5.86%

in 2018. It can be concluded from table 4.22 that there was progress in access to the drainage system in urban Telangana from 2012 to 2018. Still, the households belong to the Scheduled Tribes, and Scheduled Castes are poor in access to the drainage system.

The STs and SCs are ranked first in access the Open katcha drainage system and no drainage system, which is sign of the bad living style in urban Telangana. It indicates the unequal distribution of basic amenities amongst the social categories and the exclusion of SCs and STs from the access to drainage facilities.

Still, the STs and SCs are at lowest position in access to drainage and better drainage systems. On the contrary, in case of the access to the Underground and Cover pucca drainage systems, which are a sign of the good quality of life, and better living conditions, the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households are ranked last than other social categories. On the other way round, the STs and SCs are at the top ranked in access to Open katcha drainage system and no drainage system, which point to the worst condition of life and bad living conditions in urban Telangana.

Table 4.23: Proportion of urban households access to drainage and types of drainage facilities among religious groups in Telangana.

Year	2012						2018					
	Drainage and types Drainage system						Drainage and types Drainage system					
Religious groups	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
Hindu	93.97	64.10	10.20	18.49	1.17	6.03	97.27	79.03	9.48	7.76	1	2.73
Muslim	97.17	63.57	2.70	29.59	1.31	2.83	97.61	80.90	5.96	9.22	2.34	2.39
Christian	99.47	74.68	4.17	20.57	0.06	0.53	99.70	90.30	5.17	2.32	1.91	0.30
Others	100	100	0	0	0	0	96.64	92.61	4.03	00	00	3.36
Overall average	94.7	64.63	8.77	20.10	1.20	5.34	97.33	79.59	8.81	7.73	1.16	2.67

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table.4.23 illustrates the access to drainage and type of drainage facilities among Religious categories in urban Telangana. Pertaining to accessibility to the drainage facility, there was growth among religious groups except for the Other households, it decreased from 100% to 96.64% and the rate of growth more in the Hindu households with 3.51% and least in the Other households with -3.36% between 2012 and 2018. But in the case of the polarization or concentration of access to drainage system among religious groups, it was more in Other households with 6.03% and Christian households with 2.37% more than the overall average and least in the Hindu households with 0.73% and Other households with 0.69% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding accessibility to the Underground drainage facilities across the religious categories, there was enhancement among religious groups except for the Other households; it dropped from 100% to 92.61% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was much in the households belonging to the Muslim with 27.26% and the least in the Others with -7.39% between 2012 and 2018. The concentration of access to the Underground drainage system among the religious was most in Others with 35.37% and 13.02% more than the overall average and least in the Muslim households with 1.06% and Hindu households with 0.53% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding access to the Covered pucca of drainage system between 2012 and 2018, there was growth among religious groups except for the Hindu households; it reduced slightly from 10.2% to 9.48%, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Muslims with 120.74% and least in the Hindu households with -7.05%. Pertaining to the concentration of the Covered pucca drainage facility, it was more in the hand of the Hindu households with 1.43% and 0.67% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop in the Open pucca drainage facility among the religious groups, it was more in the Muslim households from 24.92% to 20.17%, followed by Hindu households from 22.18% to 17.63% and least in the Christian

households from 17.16% to 17.15% between 2012 and 2018. In the case of the concentration of access to the Open pucca drainage facility, it was more in Muslims households with 2.52% and 2.25% more than the overall average and least in the religious group called Others with 4.9% and 2.84% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively. It can be seen from the above table that between 2012 and 2018, there was a fall in the access to Open katcha drainage facility amongst the religious categories. The households belonging to the Muslims were most in access to the Open katcha drainage system with 9.22% among the religious groups and followed by the Hindu and Christian households with 7.76% and 2.32% in 2018. Finally, there was a drop in No access to drainage among religious groups between 2012 and 2018, and the Other households were the most in No access to drainage system with 3.36% and followed by the Hindu and Muslim households with 2.73% and 2.39%, respectively in urban Telangana, respectively, in 2018. Despite the progress in access to the drainage system in urban Telangana, Hindu households are poor in access to drainage, particularly Underground, which symbolize the high living standards in urban Telangana.

Table 4.24: Proportion of urban households access to drainage and types of drainage facilities among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012						2018					
Nature of Employment groups	Drainage and types Drainage system						Drainage and types Drainage system					
	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
Self employed	98.24	59.90	10.81	26.56	0.96	1.76	98.68	70.40	14.91	11.59	1.78	1.32
Regular wage	97.80	76.48	4.73	15.60	1	2.20	97.14	85.05	6.76	4.80	0.54	2.86
Casual labourers	72.91	43.38	1.16	25.00	3.37	27.09	90.67	66.99	9.12	10.50	4.05	9.33
Others	94.6	50.08	27.33	17.06	0.13	5.40	98.66	85.61	5.40	7.09	0.56	1.34
Overall average	94.7	64.63	8.77	20.10	1.20	5.34	97.33	79.59	8.81	7.73	1.16	2.67

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.24. demonstrations the accessibility to drainage and type of drainage facilities among the Nature of employment categories in urban Telangana. With reference to

the accessibility to drainage facilities among the Nature of employment groups, there had been a growth apart from for the Regular wages; it marginally decreased from 97.8% to 97.14%, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 24.35% and least in the Regular wages with -0.67% between 2012 and 2018. In the case of polarization or concentration of the access to drainage system among the Nature of employment groups, it was more in the Self-employed households with 3.54%, and 1.35% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to Casual labourers with 21.79% and 6.66% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

It could be witnessed from table 4.24 that there was a notable improvement in access to the Underground drainage facility and the rate of growth was much in the households belonging to Others with 70.94% and least in the Regular wages with 11.20% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of access to the Underground drainage facility among the Nature of employment groups, it was mostly in the Regular wage households with 11.85% and Other households with 6.02% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 21.25% and 12.6% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, the access to the Covered pucca drainage facility among the Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018 witnessed growth, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to Casual labourers with 686.20% and least in Others with -80.24%. In the case of concentration of the Covered pucca drainage system, it was more in the Other households with 2.04% and Self-employed with 6.1% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively and the least in the households belong to Casual labourers with 7.61% and Others with 3.41% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the households' access to the Open Pucca drainage facility, there was a drop, and it was more in the Self-employed households, which decreased from 26.56% to 11.59%. With reference to households accessing the Open Katcha drainage system, there was a marginal among the Nature of employment groups, except for

the Regular wage households, which slightly dropped from 1% to 0.54% between 2012 and 2018. Finally, pertaining to the No access to the drainage system, there was a drop among the Nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018. However, with No access to the drainage system in 2018, the Casual labourers households were at the top with 9.33%, followed by Regular wage, Other and Self-employed households with 2.86%, 1.34%, and 1.32%, respectively. It can be summarized from table 4.24 that is an improvement in access to the drainage system in urban Telangana between 2012 and 2018.

Table 4.25: Proportion of urban households access to drainage and types of drainage facilities among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Sectoral classification of worker groups	Drainage and types Drainage system						Drainage and types Drainage system					
	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage	Drainage facility	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
Agriculture	86.1	15.30	4.54	59.90	6.28	13.98	92.60	54.44	16.66	15.71	5.79	7.40
Manufacture	92.89	56.82	13.84	20.79	1.43	7.11	97.67	75.07	11.35	8.72	2.17	2.70
Service	95.32	70.17	5.44	18.68	1.03	4.68	96.87	82.03	8.04	6.49	0.30	3.13
Overall average	94.7	64.63	8.77	20.10	1.20	5.34	97.33	79.59	8.81	7.73	1.16	2.67

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.25 displays the availability to drainage and types of drainage facilities available to households in urban Telangana amongst the sectoral classification of worker groups. The data indicates that accessibility to drainage systems increased significantly between 2012 and 2018, with the rate of growth being highest among households in the agriculture sector (7.54%) and lowest in the service sector (0.34%) in 2018, both higher than the overall average. However, in the case of polarization or concentration of the access to drainage facilities among the Sectoral classification of worker groups, it was high in the Service sector households than all other

employment groups with 0.62% in 2012 and Manufacture sector households with 1.72% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 8.6% and 4.73% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

There was progress among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in access to the Underground drainage facility, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 255.81% and the least in the Service sector with 16.90% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the concentration of the access to Underground drainage facility among the Sectoral classification of worker groups was most in the households belonging to the Service sector with 5.54% and 2.44% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector households with 49.33% and 25.15% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Concerning the access to the Covered pucca drainage facility among Sectoral classification of worker groups, there was an improvement except for the Manufacture sector households, which decreased from 13.84% to 11.35% between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was more in the Agriculture sector households with 266.96% and least in the Service sector households with -17.99%. In the case of the polarization of the access to the Cover pucca drainage facility, most households belong to the Manufacture sector with 5.07% in 2012 and Agriculture households with 7.85% in 2018, more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector with 4.23% in 2012 and Service sector with 0.77% in 2018 less than the overall average.

Table 4.25 reveals that between 2012 and 2018, there was a decline in accessibility to the Open pucca kind of drainage system amongst some of the Sectoral classification of worker groups, with the decrease being greater in households belonging to the Agriculture sector, which decreased from 59.9% to 15.71%. Pertaining to the concentration of the Open pucca drainage system, it was high in the Agriculture sector households with 39.8% and 7.98% more than the overall average and least in the Service sector households with 1.42% and 1.24% lower than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Regarding households' access to the

Open katcha drainage facility, there was a decrease except from the Manufacture sector households, which increased from 1.43% to 2.17%, but it was high in the Agriculture sector households with 5.79% in 2018.

Lastly, with reference to the households, No accessibility to drainage facilities amongst the Sectoral classification of worker categories; there was a fall between 2012 and 2018. The data showed that, in 2018, the Agriculture sector households were in the top place with 7.4%, followed by the Service and Service Manufacture sectors households with 3.13% and 2.7%, respectively. Even though there is a growth in access to the drainage system in urban Telangana, the households that belong to the Agriculture group are in a poor situation in access to the drainage and better drainages systems. In the case of the access Underground and Cover pucca drainage system, which symbolizes the good quality of life and better living conditions, the Agriculture group is in the worst place than all other Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. Agriculture households, On the contrary, have the great access to open katcha drainage and also no drainage system, indicating a low standard of living and poor life style in urban Telangana.

4.4. Housing condition and Electricity facility in urban Telangana

Housing that is both safe and accessible is a minimum necessity for any family. People cannot be contributors to society, youngsters cannot learn, and households cannot survive without a decent place to live. Among the Social, Religious, Nature of Employment, and Sectoral classifications of worker groups in urban Telangana, this section highlights the families' access to housing, varieties of structure, quality of the structure, electricity, and type of electrical wiring connectivity facilities. Access to the Pucca structure indicates a good life and better quality of life than the other type of structures. On the other way, access to the Katcha structure indicates a low and worse quality of life.

With reference to the conditions of the housing structure, there are three types of structure; Good, Satisfactory, and Bad. Access to good structural structural conditions suggest a higher standard of living and living style. Whereas bad structural conditions imply a lower living standard and lifestyle. Conduit, Fixed to the Wall, and Temporary are the three different forms of electrical wiring connectivity facilities. Conduit electrical wiring connectivity suggests a higher standard of living and a good quality of life. Temporary electrical wire connectivity reveals a poor and deplorable living state.

Table 4.26: Proportion of households access to housing and type of structures in urban Telangana.

Year	Housing facility	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
2012	100	70.91	28.32	0.77	00
2018	100	77.80	18.10	4.10	00

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Between 2012 and 2018, the access to housing and the types of structures available to households were shown in the table above. Pertaining to access to the Pucca structure, it went up from 70.91% to 77.80%. On the contrary, access to the Semi-pucca structure decreased from 28.32% to 18.10%. Finally, the households' access to the Katcha type of housing increased from 0.77 to 4.10%. During the period from 2012 to 2018, access to the Pucca structure increased, indicating a greater standard of living and life style, whereas access to the Katcha structure increased, indicating a poorer quality of life.

Table 4.27: Proportion of urban households access to the type of housing structures among social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012				2018			
Social groups	Type of housing structure				Type of housing structure			
	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
ST	99.58	0.42	0	0	58.31	41.69	0	0
SC	11.42	84.7	3.8 7	0	68.23	26.4	5.37	0
OBCs	93.31	6.69	0	0	89.67	3.92	6.41	0
Others	66.85	33.15	0	0	68.28	31.72	0	0
Overall average	70.91	28.32	0.7 7	0	77.8	18.10	4.10	0

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.27 illustrates the accessibility to the types of structure among social categories in urban Telangana. Pertaining to the Pucca structure among the social groups, there had been a fall, and it was much in the Scheduled Tribe and OBC households, went down from 99.58% to 58.31% and 93.31% to 89.67% and rise in the Scheduled Caste households from 11.42% to 68.23% and Other households from 66.85% to 68.28% between 2012 and 2018. The rate of growth in access to Pucca Structure was the most in Scheduled Caste households with 497.4% and least in Scheduled Tribe households with -41.44%. However, in the case of polarization of the access to Pucca structure, it was more in the Scheduled Tribe households with 28.67% more than overall average in 2012 and OBC households with 11.87% more than overall average in 2018 and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 59.49% less than the overall average in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 19.49% less than the overall average in 2018.

On the contrary, the accessibility to Semi pucca structure among social groups, there was growth except for the Scheduled Caste households, which decreased from 84.7% to 26.4% between 2012 and 2018. However, in terms of the concentration or

polarization of access to Semi pucca structure, it was mostly in the Scheduled Caste households with 56.38% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 23.59% more than the overall average in 2018 and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 27.9% in 2012 and OBCs households with 14.18% less than the overall average in 2018.

Lastly, it could be observed from the above table that there was a rise in the access to Katch structure in the Scheduled Caste and OBC households, from 3.87% to 5.37% and 0% to 6.41%. Furthermore, pertaining to accessibility to the Semi katcha structure, and SCs and STs are the most, indicating a low standard of living. The Pucca structure is mostly concentrated in the other social categories when compare to SCs and STs households in urban Telangana. It's a sign of uneven distribution of essential services across social groups, denying a certain segment of the population access to good housing.

Table 4.28: Proportion of urban households access to the type of housing structures among religious groups in Telangana.

Year	2012				2018			
Religious groups	Type of structure				Type of structure			
	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
Hindu	74.8	24.28	0.93	0	77.84	17.74	4.42	0
Muslim	46.96	53.04	0	0	65.64	34.36	0	0
Christian	79.54	20.46	0	0	100	0	0	0
Others	100	0	0	0	100	0	0	0
Overall average	70.91	28.32	0.77	0	77.8	18.1	4.1	0

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.28 demonstrates the access to the various structures amongst Religious groups in urban Telangana. In the case of accessibility to the Pucca Structure among religious, there was notable growth, and growth rate was more in the Muslim households with 39.77%, and the polarization of access to the Pucca structure among religious groups was more in the Other households with 29.09% and 22.2% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

However, between 2012 and 2018, there was a drop in access to Semi katcha structure; it decreased from 24.28% to 17.74% in the Hindu households and 53.04% to 34.36% in Muslim households. But, Muslims were the most in access to the Semi-katcha structure, which indicates the low standards of living conditions. However, pertaining to the accessibility to the Katcha structure between 2012 and 2018, there was a rise in Hindu households; it increased from 0.93% to 4.42%. The above illustrates that there is an unequal distribution of the type of structure among the religious groups and the concentration of the access to Semi pucca structure, which low-quality structure than Pucca is more with the households belong to Muslims, than the other religious groups, which indirectly explains the deprivation from the access to Pucca structure.

Table 4.29: Proportion of urban households access to the type of housing structures among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012				2018			
	Type of structure				Type of structure			
Nature of Employment groups	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
Self employed	51.84	48.16	0	0	100	00	00	00
Regular wage	93.73	4.59	1.68	0	83.55	16.45	00	00
Casual labourers	9.20	90.50	0.30	0	37.36	23.66	38.98	00
Others	99.22	0.78	0	0	78.28	21.72	00	00
Overall average	70.91	28.32	0.77	00	77.80	18.10	4.10	00

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.29 explains the accessibility to types of structure amongst Nature of employment categories in urban India between 2012 and 2018. There was an improvement in the access to the Pucca structure except in Regular wages and Other households; it reduced 93.73% to 83.55% and 99.22% to 78.28%, and the rate of growth was most in Casual labourer households with 306.08% and least in Other households with -21.10%. But in the case of the polarization of the access to Pucca structure, it was more in the Other households with 5.93% more than the overall average in 2012 and Self-employed with 2.22% more than the overall average in 2018, least in the households belong to Casual labourers with 61.71% and 40.44% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the access to the low-quality structure, namely Semi Pucca structure, it could be observed from table 4.29 that there was a rise in the access to Semi-pucca structure in the Regular wages and Other households from 4.59% to 16.45% and 0.78% to 21.72% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. However, the concentration of access to Semi pucca structure was more in the Casual labourer households with 62.18% and 5.56% in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Finally, in the case of households' access to Katcha Structure, there was growth in the Casual labourer households, increased from 0.3 % to 38.98% between 2012 and 2018. It could be concluded from the above table that the Casual labourers are in the worst condition compared to the all-other Nature of employment groups in terms of access to the Pucca structure. Despite this, many houses belonging to casual labourers have resorted to Semi-pucca and Katcha constructions, indicating a low standard of living a. Therefore, it is a sign of exclusion of the Casual labourers from accessing better housing structures in urban Telangana.

Table 4.30: Proportion of urban households access to the type of housing structures among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Year	2012				2018			
Sectoral Classification of Worker groups	Type of housing structure				Type of housing structure			
	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling	Pucca	Semi-Pucca	Katcha	No dwelling
Agriculture	00	100	00	00	00	100	00	00
Manufacture	79.47	20.53	00	00	60.94	23.07	16	00
Service	58.26	40.50	1.24	00	90.87	9.13	00	00
Overall average	70.91	28.32	0.77	00	77.80	18.10	4.10	00

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table.4.30 expressions the access to the structures of housing across the Sectoral classification of worker categories in urban Telangana. Regarding the access to Pucca structure among the Sectoral classification of the worker groups, there was an enhancement only in Service sector households, which increased from 58.26% to 90.87% between 2012 and 2018.

Regarding the concentration of access to Pucca structure, it was more in the Manufacture sector households with 8.56% in 2012 and Service sector households with 13.07% more than the overall average in 2018 and least in the households belong to the Agriculture sector with no households access to Pucca structure.

However, regarding access to the Semi katcha structure, there had been a decline in households belong to service sector, which decreased from 40.50% to 9.13% between 2012 and 2018. In 2018, the Agriculture households were the most in to access Semi katcha type of housing structure with 100% and followed by Manufacture and Service households with 23.07% and 9.13%. Regarding the concentration of access to Semi pucca structure, it was more with the Agriculture households with 71.68% and 81.0% more than the overall average and least in the Service sector households with 8.97%

less than the overall average in 2018. On the contrary, in the access to the Katcha structure among Sectoral classification of worker groups, there was a drop, except for the Manufacture sector households; it went up from 00% to 16%. It can be concluded from Table 4.30 that the households belonging to the Agriculture households have the lowest access to the Pucca structure, which indicates a comfortable lifestyle and high standard of living in urban Telangana, compared to the other Sectoral classifications of worker category. Agriculture households have continued to employ the Semi pucca construction, signifying a bad living condition, and the Semi-pucca structure is more concentrated in Agriculture households than in other groups. It's a strong indication that agricultural households are barred from using the Pucca structure in Telangana's cities.

Table 4.31: Proportion of urban households access to the conditions of the structure among social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012			2018		
Social group	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
ST	73.80	22.28	3.92	66.70	21.98	11.32
SC	30.73	50.78	18.49	69.29	26.54	4.17
OBCs	63.36	32.35	4.29	70.16	27.13	2.71
Others	77.10	22.35	0.56	85.38	13.58	1.04
Overall average	65.95	29.87	4.19	73.98	23.07	2.95

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.31 depicts households' accessibility to structural conditions in urban Telangana by social category. Between 2012 and 2018, there had been progress in access to good structural conditions among social groups, with the exception of ST households, which decreased from 73.80% to 66.70%, and the rate of growth was higher in the SCs with 125.48% and lowest in the STs with -9.62%. On the contrary, the polarization or concentration of access to Good condition of the structure was

more in the Other households with 11.15% and 11.4% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively and, least in the Scheduled Caste households with 35.22% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 7.28% in 2018 less than the overall average. With reference to the accessibility to the Satisfactory conditions of the structure among social groups, it witnessed a decrease, but it was more in the Scheduled Castes, it decreased from 50.78% to 26.54%. However, the concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the structure was high in the Scheduled Caste households with 20.91% in 2012, and OBCs households with 4.06% more than the overall average in 2018 and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 7.59%, followed by Other households with 7.52% in 2012 and 9.49% less than the overall average in 2018.

Finally, in access to Bad conditions of the structure, there was an increase in the Scheduled Tribe households and Other households from 3.92% to 11.32% and 0.56% to 1.04% respectively. But pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the Scheduled Tribe households with 188.77% and least in the Scheduled Caste households with -77.44% between 2012 and 2018. However, in terms of the concentration or polarization of the access to Bad conditions of the structure, was mostly with the Scheduled Castes households with 14.3% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 8.37% more than the overall average in 2018 and least in the households belong to Others with 3.63% and 1.91% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. The SCs and STs households have poor access to the good conditions of the structure. Even so, a considerable number of SC and STs households have been living in the Satisfactory and Bad conditions of the structure, indicating the low standard of life style in urban Telangana. The concentration of the Good condition of the structure is more in the hand of Other households and least in the Scheduled Tribes and Castes, which indicates exclusion from access to Good conditions of the structure in urban Telangana.

Table 4.32: Proportion of urban households access to the conditions of the structure among Religious groups in Telangana.

Religious groups	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
Hindu	66.22	29.46	4.32	75.08	21.90	3.03
Muslim	60.55	35.70	3.75	70.39	26.33	3.28
Christian	80.81	16.50	2.69	58.07	41.93	00
Others	100	00	00	79.54	20.46	00
Overall average	65.95	29.87	4.19	73.98	23.07	2.95

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.32 depicts the accessibility to the conditions of the structure across Religious categories in urban Telangana. Regarding the accessibility to the Good conditions of the structure, there was progress in the Hindu and Muslim households from 66.22% to 75.08% and a drop in the Christian and Other households from 80.81% to 58.07% and 100 to 79.54% between 2012 and 2018, respectively. Pertaining to the rate of growth among the religious groups, it was more in the Muslim households with 16.25% and least in the Christian households with -28.14%. On the contrary, in the case of the polarization or concentration of access to Good conditions of the structure, was more in the Other households with 34.05% and 5.56% more than the overall average and least in the Muslim households with 5.4% in 2012 and 15.91% in 2018, less than the overall average.

Regarding access to the Satisfactory conditions of the structure among the religious groups, there was an improvement in the Christian and Other households, which increased from 16.5% to 41.93% and 0% to 20.46% between 2012 and 2018. The concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the structure was high in the Muslim households with 5.83% in 2012, and Christian households with 18.86% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 2.61% less than the overall average in 2018. However, in 2018, the access to the Bad

conditions of the structure, the Muslims were more with 3.28%, followed by Hindu households with 3.03%. The Muslim households are vulnerable in attempting to access the Good conditions of the structure, and that is an indication of improved life conditions when compared to all other conditions of the structure; however, a significant number of Muslim households have been residing in Satisfactory housing conditions, indicating the low standard of living in urban Telangana.

Table 4.33: Proportion of urban households access to the conditions of the structure among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012			2018		
Nature of employment groups	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
Self-employed	68.64	30.02	1.34	74.96	22.65	2.39
Regular wage	77.84	21.04	1.12	77.67	19.71	2.63
Casual labourers	31.23	42.21	26.56	31.78	58.77	9.45
Others	45.85	52.58	1.58	82.9	15.48	1.63
Overall average	65.95	29.87	4.19	73.98	23.07	2.95

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.33 displays the accessibility to the conditions of structure across the Nature of employment groups in urban Telangana. Regarding households the access to Good conditions of the structure among the Nature of employment group, there was progress except for the Regular wage households, which decreased marginally from 77.84% to 77.67% between 2012 and 2018, and the rate of growth was more in the Other households with 80.80% and least in the Regular wage households with -0.21%. On the contrary, the polarization or concentration of the access to Good conditions of the structure was more in the households belong to the Regular wages with 11.89% in 2012 and Others with 8.92% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in

households belong to the Casual labourers with 34.72% and 23.19% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Pertaining to the access to the Satisfactory conditions of structure among the Nature of employment groups, there was a decrease except for the Casual labourer households, it increased from 31.23% to 58.77%, and the rate of growth was more in the Casual labourer households with 39.23% and least in the Other households with -70.55% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory conditions of the structure, it was most in the Other households with 22.71% in 2012 and the Casual labourer households with 35.7% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Regular wage households with 8.83% in 2012 and Other households with 7.59% in 2018 less than the overall average.

Finally, in terms the Bad condition of structure, there had been a growth excluding for the households belonging to the Casual labourers, it decreased from 26.56% to 9.45% between 2012 and 2018, but the rate of growth was more in the Self-employed with 78.35% and least in the Casual labourers with -64.42%. Moreover, the concentration or polarization of the access to Bad condition of the structure was most in the Casual labourer households with 22.37% and 6.5% more than the overall average and least in the Regular wage households with 3.07% in 2012 and Other households with 1.32% in 2018 less than the overall average.

The concentration of the access to Good conditions of the structure is mostly accumulated with Regular wages and Other households as compared to Casual labourer households. It shows a deprivation of the Casual labourer households from access to Good conditions of the structure. The Casual labourers are in a vulnerable position in access to the Good structure, and most of the Casual labourers have been residing in the bad conditions of the structure, that shows the poor quality of life style and living conditions urban Telangana.

Table 4.34: Proportion of urban households access to the conditions of the structure among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Year Sectoral Classification of Worker groups	2012			2018		
	Condition of the structure			Condition of the structure		
	Good	Satisfactory	Bad	Good	Satisfactory	Bad
Agriculture	74.46	20.6	4.93	59.33	34.78	5.89
Manufacture	59.15	36.05	4.8	66.01	29.93	4.06
Service	70.73	24.82	4.45	76.81	20.66	2.52
Overall average	65.95	29.87	4.19	73.98	23.07	2.95

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.34 shows the households' access to the conditions of the structures among the Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. There was an increase in the access to Good conditions of the structure among Sectoral classification of worker groups, except for the Agriculture households, which decreased from 74.46% to 59.33% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth in access to Good conditions of the structure was more in the Manufacture sector households with 11.59% and least in the Agriculture households with -20.31%. On the contrary, in case of the polarization or concentration of access to Good conditions of the structure was more in the Agriculture sector households with 8.51% in 2012 and 2.83% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Manufacture sector households with 6.8% in 2012 and Agriculture sector households with 14.65% less than the overall average in 2018. On the contrary, regarding the accessibility to the Satisfactory of conditions of the structure, there was a drop among the Sectoral classification of worker groups except for the Agriculture households, increased from 20.6% to 34.78% between 2012 and 2018. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 68.83% and least in the Manufacture households with -16.97% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the concentration or polarization of access to Satisfactory condition of the structure was most in the households belong to Manufacture sector with 6.18% in 2012 and Agriculture households with 11.71% in 2018 and least in the Agriculture households

with 9.27% in 2012 and Service sector households with 2.41% in 2018.

However, in 2018, the access to the Satisfactory conditions of the structure, the Agriculture households were the most with 34.78%. Lastly, in the case of households' access to Bad conditions of the structure, there was a drop among the Sectoral classification of workers except for the Agriculture Sectors households from 4.93% to 5.89% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the rate of growth in access to Bad conditions of the structure, it was more in the Agriculture sector households with 19.47% and least in the Service sector households with -43.37%. The concentration or polarization of the access to Bad conditions of the structure was most with the Agriculture sector households with 0.74% and 2.94% more than overall average and least in the Service sector households with 0.26% and 0.43% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

The households belonging to the Agriculture sector are in a vulnerable condition in term of accessing to the Good conditions of the structure, but many the Agriculture sector households have been residing in the Bad conditions of the structure, which symbolizes the bad quality of lifestyle and living conditions in urban Telangana, and the concentration of the access to Good conditions of the structure is accumulated more with Service sector households which indirectly show a deprivation of the other households particularly the households belong the Agriculture sector from the access to the better structure in urban Telangana.

Table 4.35: Proportion of urban households access to the electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivities facilities in Telangana.

Year	Electricity facility	No electricity facility	Type of electrical wiring connectivities		
			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
2012	99.41	0.59	72.33	19.90	7.78
2018	99.98	0.02	84.80	12.48	2.73

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.35 describes households' access to electricity and the type of electrical wiring connectivities between 2012 and 2018 in urban Telangana. The table displayed growth in the households' access to electricity facilities from 99.415 to 99.98%. Pertaining to the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity also witnessed enhancement from 72.33% to 84.80%. On the contrary, households' access to Fixed to the wall and Temporary electricity wiring connectivities went down from 19.90% to 12.48% and 7.78% to 2.73%, respectively. It has already been explained that Conduit electrical wiring connectivity symbolizes a high-standards of living than the Fixed to the wall and Temporary electrical wiring Connectivities. Conversely, the Temporary electricity wiring connection is a symbol of the worst living standards in urban.

Table 4.36: Proportion of urban households access to the electricity and type of electrical wiring Connectivities among social groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
Social groups	Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivities			Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivities		
			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
ST	99.92	0.08	82.91	9.8	7.29	100	0	63.21	27.24	9.55
SC	100	0	47.15	28.93	23.92	99.85	0.15	82.15	12.59	5.26
OBCs	98.81	1.19	68.28	22.71	9.01	100	0	83.92	13.58	2.5
Others	100	0	82.55	15.25	2.19	100	0	92.4	7.11	0.49
Overall average	99.41	0.59	72.33	19.9	7.78	99.98	0.02	84.8	12.48	2.73

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.40 shows the access to electricity and kind of electrical wiring connectivities amongst social categories in urban Telangana. Regarding the access to electricity facility between 2012 and 2018, there was an improvement, except for the Scheduled Caste households, it slightly decreased from 100% to 99.85%. In the case of access to

Conduit wiring electrical wiring connectivity, there was an increase except for the Scheduled Tribe households, which dropped from 82.91% to 63.21% between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, the growth rate in access to Conduit electricity facility was more in the Scheduled Caste households with 74.23% and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with -23.76% between 2012 and 2018. With reference to the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in the Scheduled Tribe households with 10.58% followed by Other households with 10.22% in 2012 and Other households with 7.6% in 2018, more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 25.18% and Scheduled Tribe households with 21.59% less than the total average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

With reference to the access to Fixed to the walls electricity wiring connection, there was a fall excluding for the ST households, which augmented from 9.8% to 27.24%, and the growth rate was much in the Scheduled Tribe households with 177.95% and least in Scheduled Tribe households with -56.48% between 2012 and 2018. But the concentration of the access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in the Scheduled Castes with 9.03% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribes with 14.76% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 10.1% in 2012 and Other households with 5.37% in 2018 less than the overall average.

On the contrary, regarding the accessibility to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, there was a decrease among social categories excluding for the ST households, which improved from 7.29% to 9.55% between 2012 and 2018. But regarding, the concentration of the access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity was more in the OBC households with 1.23% in 2012 and Scheduled Tribe households with 6.82% in 2018 more than the overall average, and least in the Other households with 5.59% and 2.24% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

The Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households are in the poor conditions than other social categories in access to the Conduit electrical wiring, which shows the

high standards of living conditions than other electrical wiring connectivities. The concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity is more in the hands Other than the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households, which is a replica of exclusion and deprivation of these households from the better quality of electrical wiring connectively. On the contrary, the ST and SCs are in the top place amongst social categories in access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, which symbolizes the poor standard and the bad life style in urban Telangana.

Table 4.37: Proportion of urban households access to electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivities among religious groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
	Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Types of Electric Wiring Connectivities			Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Types of Electric Wiring Connectivities		
			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
Hindu	99.28	0.72	74.02	17.93	8.05	99.98	0.02	84.44	12.48	3.08
Muslim	100	0	61.65	31.03	7.31	100	0	85.06	13.46	1.48
Christian	99.47	0.53	76.67	20.62	2.72	100	0	92.52	7.48	0
Others	100	0	100	0	0	100	0	72.42	27.58	0
Overall average	99.41	0.59	72.33	19.9	7.78	99.98	0.02	84.8	12.48	2.73

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.37 describes the households' access to electricity and types of electrical wiring among Religious categories in urban Telangana. With reference to the accessibility to electricity facilities among the religious groups, there was growth between 2012 and 2018. On the contrary, regarding accessibility to Conduit wiring electrical wiring connectivity between 2012 and 2018, there was an increase, except

for the Other households, which decreased from 100% to 72.42%. Pertaining to the rate of growth, it was more in the households belonging to the Muslims with 37.97% and least in the Other households with -27.58% between 2012 and 2018.

The concentration or polarization of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity was more in the Other households with 27.67% in 2012 and Christian households with 7.72% more than the overall average in 2018 and least in Muslims households with 10.68% in 2012 and Other households with 12.38% less than the overall average in 2018.

There was a decrease in access to Fixed to the walls electrical wiring connectivity except for the Other households; it increased from 0% to 27.58%. However, pertaining to the concentration of the access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in Muslims households with 11.13% in 2012 and Other households with 15.1% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in Other households with 19.90% in 2012 and Christian households with 5% less than the overall average in 2018. There was a drop in the case of access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity among the religious groups, but the Hindu households were in the top position in access to temporary electrical wiring connectivity with 3.08%, followed by Muslim households with 1.48% in 2018 in urban Telangana.

Table 4.38: Proportion of urban households access to the electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivities among Nature of employment groups in Telangana.

Year	2012					2018				
Nature of Employment groups	Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Type of Electric Wiring Connectivities			Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Types of Electric Wiring Connectivities		
			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary			Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
Self employed	100	0	73.15	23.03	3.82	100	00	81.04	16.53	2.42
Regular wage	99.86	0.14	82.85	11.95	5.21	99.95	0.05	89.93	8.24	1.83
Casual labourers	95.58	4.42	33.99	30.43	35.58	100	00	64.44	23.62	11.94
Others	99.87	0.13	64.41	33.86	1.73	100	00	88.46	10.53	1.01
Overall average	99.41	0.59	72.33	19.90	7.78	99.98	0.02	84.80	12.48	2.73

Source: Same as Table 4.1.

Table 4.38 illustrates the access to electricity and kind of electrical wiring connectivities amongst the Nature of employment categories in urban Telangana. With reference to accessibility to electricity facility, there was growth among nature of employment groups between 2012 and 2018. All the households in the Nature of employment groups access electricity except for the Regular wage households, which is very marginal 0.05% only. Pertaining to access to the Conduit wiring electrical wiring connectivity between 2012 and 2018, there was progress, and the rate of growth was more in the Casual labourer households with 89.58% and least in Regular wages with 8.54% between 2012 and 2018. The concentration or polarization of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, was more in the Regular wage households with 10.52% and 5.13% more than the overall average and least in Casual labourer households with 38.34% and 20.36% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018 respectively.

With reference to the accessibility to Fixed to the walls electrical wiring connectivity, there was a drop, and it was more in the Other households, which decreased from 33.86% to 10.53%. In the case of concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in the Other households with 13.96% in 2012 and the Casual labourer households with 11.14% in 2018 more than the overall average and least in the Regular wage households with 7.95% and 4.24% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

On the contrary, regarding the accessibility to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, there was a drop among Nature of employment groups, and it was more in the Casual labourer households, which decreased from 35.58% to 11.94% between 2012 and 2018. But the concentration of access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, was much in the Casual labourers households with 27.8% and 9.21% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 6.05% and 1.72% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

It can be concluded from the above table that; the Casual labourers are in the worse place compared to the Nature of employment groups in terms of access to the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, which is a sign of the better life style and better standards of living conditions.

The concentration of the access to the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity more in the hand of other than the Casual labourer households and On the contrary, concentration of the Temporary electrical wiring is mostly concentrated with the Casual labourer households, as compared to the all other Sectoral classification of worker groups in urban Telangana. It is a sign of the deprivation of the Casual labourer households from access to better quality electricity wiring connectivity.

Table 4.39: Proportion of the urban households access to the electricity and types of electrical wiring connectivities among Sectoral classification of worker groups in Telangana.

Sectoral classification of worker groups	Electricity facility		Types of Electric Wiring Connectivities			Electricity facility		Types of Electric Wiring Connectivities		
	Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary	Electricity facility	No Electricity facility	Conduit wiring	Fixed to the walls	Temporary
Agriculture	100	0	43.41	36.17	20.42	100	00	70.29	21.61	8.11
Manufacture	99.53	0.47	73.98	13.65	12.38	100	00	80.35	14.59	5.06
Service	99.31	0.69	75.80	16.79	7.41	99.94	0.06	87.87	10.97	1.17
Overall average	99.41	0.59	72.33	19.90	7.78	99.98	0.02	84.80	12.48	2.73

Source: NSSO 69 rounds-2012 & 76 round-2018.

Table 4.39 illustrates the access to electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivities amongst the Sectoral classification of worker categories in urban Telangana. There had been an improvement in the access to electricity facility, in addition the rate growth was more in the Service sector households with 0.63% between 2012 and 2018. However, in the case of the households' access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity among Sectoral classification of worker groups, there was progress, and the rate of growth was more in the households belonging to the Agriculture sector with 61.92% and least in the Manufacture sector with 8.6% between 2012 and 2018. Regarding the concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it was more in the Service sector households with 3.47% and 3.07% more than the overall average and least in the Agriculture sector with 28.92% and 14.51% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Regarding the households' access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity

among Nature of employment groups, there was a drop except for the Manufacture sector households, it increased from 13.65% to 14.59% between 2012 and 2018, respectively, and the rate of growth was high in the households belong to Manufacture sector with 6.88% and least in the Agriculture sector with -40.25% between 2012 and 2018. But in the case of concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity more in the Agriculture sector households with 16.27% and 9.13% more than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively and least in the Manufacture sector households with 6.25% and Service sector households with 1.51% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively.

Finally, the households' access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity among Sectoral classification of worker groups dropped between 2012 and 2018. Despite the decline in access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, which is low-quality electrical wiring connectivity, in 2018, the Agriculture sector households were the most with 8.11%. Pertaining to the concentration of the access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it was much in the households belonging to Agriculture sector with 12.64% and 5.38% more than overall average and least in the Service sector with 0.37% and 1.56% less than the overall average in 2012 and 2018, respectively. Table 4.39 found that the households belong to agriculture are in the vulnerable position in terms of access to Conduit electrical connectivity, which is a better electricity wiring connectivity than other and the concentration of the electrical wiring connectivity is very less with Agriculture sector households, as compared to other sectoral classification of the worker groups, which is a symbol of the exclusion or deprivation of the Casual labourer households from the access to better electricity wiring connectivity in urban Telangana.

4.5. Conclusion

This chapter illustrates the improvement in the access to basic amenities amongst Social, Religious, Nature of employment, and Sectoral classification of worker categories between 2012 and 2018. While there is an enhancement in the households'

access to amenities, however, it has been accompanied by the disparity between and unevenness within the distribution of basic amenities and the quality of amenities, respectively, across the Social, Religious, Nature of employment, and Sectoral classification of worker groups. The marginalized groups such as SC, STs in social categories, and Muslims in religious categories, and the Casual labourers in the Nature of employment groups, and the Agriculture households in the Sectoral classification of worker group are the worst sufferers and victims of unevenness and discrepancy in the distribution of the essential services in urban Telangana. The better quality of amenities which signs the high standards of living, these groups, as mentioned earlier, are in the worse place compared to the other groups. Most of these households have been accessing the low quality of amenities which indicates low living standards. Thus, there is a presence of discriminative practices and uneven distribution of the basic amenities and better quality of amenities in urban Telangana. On contrary, the least concentration of the access to basic amenities in the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes in social groups, the Hindus and Muslims in religious groups, and the Casual labourers in the Nature of employment groups, and the Agriculture households in the Sectoral classification of worker group indicates the deprivation and exclusion of these section from the access to basic amenities than the all other households in urban Telangana.

Chapter 5

Discriminative distribution of basic amenities among the various groups- A case study of Nallagandla

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the micro-level case study with reference to the households' access to basic amenities. A micro-level case study is important because, while we know from the NSSO data that there is a disparity with reference to access to basic amenities, and there is unevenness with respect to the quality of the amenities accessed, the causes for these disparities can only be a possible hypothesis. To know the actual reasons, which are usually institutional and social mediations, no readily available macro data exists. This micro-level investigation aims at filling this gap. In order to do this, a variety of access to basic amenities have been studied, namely; drinking water, bathroom, latrine, drainage, and garbage collection, housing, and electricity facilities. Further, the quality of each of these amenities has been differentiated on the basis of factors such as; frequency of drinking water, treatment of water, type of bathroom, type of latrine, type of drainage, type of the structure, condition of the structure, and type of electrical wiring facilities. The access and the quality of the accessed basic amenities have been studied by representing the population in terms of; Social groups, Nature of employments, and Rented value groups in the micro level study area of Nallagandla. The Social groups have in turn been divided into four; 1. Scheduled Tribes, 2. Scheduled Castes, OBCs (Other Backward Castes), and 4. Others. The Nature of Employment group consists four categories, namely, 1. Regular wages, 2. Self-employed, 3. Casual labourers and, 4. Others. Finally, the rental value groups have been divided into five; 1. The rental value less than and equal to 3000 rupees, 2. The rental value between 3001 and 5000 rupees,

3. The rental value between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 4. The rental value between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5. The rental value more than 9000. This chapter explains disparity, unevenness and, exclusive tendency to access basic amenities among the various sections of the society.

Previous studies say that access to basic amenities has a close association with the rental value of the house. Guntermann Karl, L. and Norrbin, S. (1987) show that the rent depends on the location, size, condition, number of bathrooms, and other micro-level conditions and illustrate that access to better quality amenities significantly affects the rent. The house's rental value depends on many factors such as population rise, real estate boom and commercialization of government lands, etc.

Access to basic amenities represents the quality of life (Shaw, A. 2012) and uneven distribution of the basic amenities is a consequence to the NUP (New Urban Policies). "The new urban policies have made the civic services market-oriented and argued that the 74th constitutional amendment has made it possible to provide differential levels of amenities based on willingness to pay" (Chatterjee, I. 2014 and Kundu, A. 2000). Intervention and rapid expansion of market-oriented or Global capital (Harris, N. 2003) resulted in the decentralization of power and finance from the state to local bodies. They paved the way for the emergence of new cities and new agenda of urban management and New urbanism Movement increasing development where gentrification of urban occupied as the main agenda. Harvey, D (2008) also specifies that most construction and Projects are favored for Developing and promoting the city as the optimal location for high-value business and destination for tourists. On the side, new urbanism increases the number of Urban homeless; those who have escaped from rural poverty and oppression provide all forms of labour to the urban economy without protection to their bodies and dignity. The new urban policies and gentrification (Harvey, D. 2008 and Smith, N. 2002) resulted from the financial capital systematically alienating poor people from the benefits of urbanization. Harvey, D. also argues that urbanization is at the heart of capitalism because the surplus product is extracted from the city. Its distribution then rests in a

few hands; urbanization is, therefore, a class process. Therefore, ensuring democratic management of surplus deployment in the city constitutes the "right to the city." This class-based global urbanism is manifested in the worldwide spread of gated communities, fortified spaces, and public spaces under constant surveillance.

Despite being at the forefront of emerging economies in terms of territory, demography, and huge market and GDP size, India continues to face significant challenge, including the need to break down traditionally invincible social and economic privilege structures as well as provide fairness to all citizens. Even though the scope of such inclusive urbanization could be much larger, one can gain insight into this process by investigating access to basic amenities and public services, namely sanitation, safe drinking water, education, health care, and sponsored housing for economically and social marginalized. It protects the poor from disease and provides the necessary resilience to economic crises and downturns. The subsidized housing facility makes the low-income families expend their hard-earned incomes on other provisions, enhancing their standard of living and lifestyle and improving on their medium to long term opportunities for economic mobility. Such interventions can go a long way to ensure inclusive and sustainable urbanization. Though differences in income, gains, and status in society persist within society, the welfare system provided by the above-mentioned public services protects vulnerable households and social categories and prevents them from falling into further poverty and despair. Developing market economies, such as India, should implement a social policy. Without it, the benefits of rapid economic development would not translate into a higher standard of living for the general public. This could imply a breakdown in social cooperation, which is a fundamental prerequisite condition for all economic growth and development in urban and peri-urban areas.

5.2. Drinking water facility in Nallagandla among various groups

This section describes the households' access to drinking water facilities among

various Social, Nature of employment, and rented value groups in Nallagandla. The sources of drinking water facilities contain the Municipality, Private agency, Own bore well, the Owner provides, Worksite, and Private tankers. Access to drinking water facilities is a fundamental human right, and the Municipality must provide drinking water to the households dwelling in its periphery. Access to drinking water facilities has been commercialized in Nallagandla. Neoliberalism, locally known as the New Economic Policies, has taken roots in its calls for a postmodern vision of governance and development (Chatterjee, I. 2009). This kind of transformation motivated to commercialize all the basic amenities. Most of the sources of drinking in Nallagandla are commercialized. These sources of drinking water facility charge to supply drinking water facility to the households in Nallagandla. The households that could not afford have been denied the supply of drinking water facilities. The households who cannot afford the commercialized drinking water facilities depend on the low-quality water supplier such as private tankers and water at worksites. It adversely affects the quality of life and health conditions of poor households.

Table 5.1. Proportion of households access to the source of drinking water facility among the Social groups in Nallagandla.

Source of drinking water	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribe	Scheduled Caste	OBCs	Others
Municipality	61.75	50	67.65	60.91	47.37
Private agency	7.97	0	8.82	7.27	15.79
Own bore well	9.16	10	0.98	13.64	26.32
Owner provides	1.20	5	0	0	10.53
Worksite	4.38	5	4.90	4.45	0
Private tankers	15.54	30	17.65	13.64	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Author calculation from primary data.

Table.5.1 describes the households' access to the source of drinking water facilities amongst social categories in Nallagandla. In Nallagandla, the sources of drinking

water are; Municipality, Private agency, Own bore well, the Owner provides, Worksite and Private tankers, and most of them have been charging the households for the drinking facility. The Municipality charges Monthly around 260 rupees for the drinking water, and it supplies water on alternative days. Pertaining to Private agencies, they provide drinking water facilities on the households' demand and have been charging 15 rupees for the 20 liters of the water tin. Another source of a drinking water facility is Private tankers, mainly supplying the households who don't have the Municipality tap connection and are unable to afford the water from private agencies. The households who depend on the Private tankers have to be loyal to the supplier to get water on time, and Private tanker supplies only when there is bulk demand for water and generally supplies once every week. The households store the water for a week and consume it carefully without wasting water. It indicates the tragedy of urban development, excluding and alienating households from accessing the basic amenities. Table 5.1 clearly shows that most of the households' in Nallagandla have been depending upon the Municipality for the drinking water facility; with reference to the social groups, the Scheduled Castes are more with 67.65% and followed by the OBCs, Scheduled Tribes, and Others with 60.91%, 50%, and 47.37% of these social groups respectively having access to the Municipal drinking water supply.

Regarding households, depending on the Private agencies charging highly for the drinking water facility, the Others are more with 15.76%, followed is by the Scheduled Castes, and OBCs with 8.82%, 7.27%, respectively. Another most vital source of a drinking water facility is Private tankers; the Scheduled Tribes are the most with 30%, followed by the Scheduled Castes and OBCs with 17.65% and 13.64%, respectively. Finally, in the households' case, depending on the house owner for drinking water, Others are more with 10.53% and followed by Scheduled Tribes with 5%, they have to share the water charges every month. The above table also displays that most households who have been denied Municipality water depend on low-quality water, such as Private tankers, mainly Scheduled Tribes, and Scheduled Castes. It is a sign of the exclusive nature of urban development. The households have to pay to get the drinking water sources, and there are only sources of drinking

water facilities that have not charged in rupees is a worksite. But in reality, these sites are well known for exploitation and providing low-quality amenities to their workers. The table 5.1 clearly shows that even if the households pay for the drinking water, they have to compromise water quality; Municipality water and water supplies by the private tanker are good examples. Most of the households who have been consuming those services are the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes; it indicates the disparity based on caste.

On the contrary, pertaining to the concentration or polarization of the access to drinking water facilities from the Municipality, it is more in the Scheduled Caste households with 5.9% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 20.28% less than the overall average in Nallagandla. With reference to the households' access to drinking water from Private agencies that supply bottled water, it concentrates mostly with the Other households with 7.82% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe with no households access the drinking water from the Private agencies. Regarding the concentration of access to drinking water facility from the Own bore well is more in the households belong to the Others and OBCs with 17.16% and 4.18% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 8.18% less than the overall average. However, with reference to access to drinking water from the Own bore well, it is more with the Other households with 9.33% more than the overall average and least with the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes and OBCs with no households access drinking water from Own bore well. Pertaining to the households' access to the drinking water facility from the Worksite, it is more in the Scheduled Caste households with 0.62% more than the overall average in Nallagandla. Finally, with reference to the concentration or polarization of access to the drinking water facility from the Private tanker, it is more in the Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste households with 14.46% and 2.11%, respectively more than the overall average and least in the Other households with no households access to drinking from Private tankers in Nallagandla.

Table 5.2 Proportion of households access to the source of drinking water facility among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Source of drinking water	Overall average	Nature of Employment groups			
		Regula wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Municipality	61.75	68.75	62.07	58.76	63.64
Private agency	7.97	6.25	1.72	9.70	27.27
Own bore well	9.16	22.92	8.62	4.48	9.09
Owners provides	1.20	0	3.45	0.75	0
Work site	4.38	0	5.22	6.9	0
Private tanker	15.54	2.08	17.24	20.90	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.2 shows the households' access to the source of drinking water facilities among Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla. It is evident from the above table that the major source of drinking water in Nallagandla is Municipality water. As mentioned in the above table, major sources of drinking water are commercialized. As Amitab Kundu (2000) explained, "the Neoliberal policies led urban governance since it allowed for varying levels of amenities to be provided based on the willingness of users to pay at the level of towns and ward committees. Given the enormous economic inequalities, this change leads to an institutionalized discrepancy in accessibility of basic services and strengthened the cities' process of division into poor and rich colonies. In the case of the households depending on Municipality for drinking, Regular wages are the most with 68.75% and, followed by Others, Self-employed and Casual labourers with 63.64%, 62.07%, and 58.76% respectively. The households have to pay around 260 rupees per month, and the tap water supply is disconnected, if the households do not pay the charges. In the case of the private agencies, they are also charging 15 rupees for a tin containing 20 liters; the households belong to the Others are more with 27.27% and, followed by the Casual labourers, Regular wage sand Self-employed with 9.70%, 6.25%, and 1.72%, respectively. Another source of the drinking water facility is Own bore well; the

Regular wages are more with 22.92%, followed by the Others, Self-employed and Casual labourers with 9.09%, 8.62%, and 4.48% respectively. Pertaining to the worksite as a source of drinking water facility, the households who depend on this type of drinking water facilities reside nearby and consume water available or used at the worksite irrespective of water quality at free of cost. Finally, in the case of the households depending on the Private tankers for the drinking water facility, the Casual labourers are more with 20.90% and, followed by Self-employed and Regular wages with 17.24% and 2.08%. The Private tankers for the drinking water facility supply at high prices weekly; the households have to store the water for a week and consume it because the private water tanker only delivers bulk quantities. Table 5.2 clearly shows that even if the households pay for the drinking water, they have to compromise water quality; Municipality water and water supplies by the Private tanker are good examples. Most of the households who have been consuming those services are Casual labourers, it indicates the disparity based on employment.

On the contrary, when it comes to the concentration or polarization of the access to drinking water facility from the Municipality, it is more in the Regular wage households with 7% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 2.99% less than the overall average in Nallagandla. In the case of the households' access to drinking water from the Private agencies which supply bottled water, polarization is mostly with the Other households with 19.3% more than the overall average and least in the Self-employed households with 25.55% less than the overall average. With reference to polarization or concentration of access to drinking water facility from the Own bore well is more in the Regular wage households with 13.76% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 4.68% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of households' access to the drinking water facility from the Worksite, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 2.52 % more than the overall average in Nallagandla. Finally, regarding the concentration or polarization of access to the drinking water facility from the Private tanker, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 5.36% and followed by the Self-employed households

with 1.74 % more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.3 Proportion of households access to the source of drinking water facilities among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Source of drinking water	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1 (=<3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Municipality	61.75	00	95.50	94.74	64.71	31.03
Private agency	7.97	12.07	2.70	00	8.82	24.14
Own bore well	9.16	00	1.80	5.26	23.53	41.38
Owner provides	1.20	1.72	00	00	2.94	3.45
Worksite	4.38	18.97	00	00	00	00
Private tankers	15.54	67.24	00	00	00	00
Total	100		100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.3 shows the access to various sources of drinking water facilities among the rental value groups households in Nallagandla. Most households with a rental value of less than or equal to 3000 rupees have depended on the Private tanker, which is 67.24%, and Worksite and Private agencies with 18.97% and 12.07%. No households in the rental value less than or equal to 3000 rupees access to Municipality drinking water facility. Pertaining to the rental value groups between 3001 and 5000 rupees and 5001 and 7000 rupees, most households depend on the Municipality water, and the Municipality water also commercialized water in the urban Telangana, the households have to pay an average of 260 rupees per month.

With reference to the households belonging to rental value group between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 64.71% of the households depend on the Municipality water and, followed by the Own bore well, Private agencies and Owner provides with 23.53%, 8.825 and 2.94% respectively. Lastly, the households belong to the rental value of

more than 9000 rupees 41.38% depending on the Own bore well for the drinking water facility, followed by the Municipality, Private agency and Owner provides with 31.03%, 24.14%, and 3.45% respectively. It can be concluded from the above table that the rental value of the house and access to drinking water facilities from the Private agency and own bore well is positively correlated. The households with higher rental value have more access to water from Private agencies that supply water regularly and have good water quality. The households with a low rental value of the house, which is less than 3000 rupees, have been depending on the low water quality and an irregular drinking water source such as Private tanker supplies weekly.

However, pertaining to the concentration or polarization of the access to various sources of the drinking water facilities, the drinking water from the Municipality as a source is more in the households belong to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees and 5001 and 7000 rupees with 64.47%, 63.71% and more than the overall average. It is in the least in the rental value groups less than or equal to 3000 rupees with no household access to Municipality as a source of drinking water facility. Regarding the concentration of the access to drinking water facilities from the Private agencies among the rental groups, it is high in the households belonging to the rental value group more than 9000 rupees, with 16.17% more than the overall average in Nallagandla. On the contrary, the concentration of the access to Own bore well as a source of a drinking water facility is more in the high rental value group households which more than 9000 rupees with 32.22% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to the rental value groups more than 5000 to 7000 rupees in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the concentration or polarization of access to the drinking water facility from the Owner provides category, it is mainly in the households that belong to the rental value groups more than the 9000 rupees with 2.25% more than the overall average. Whereas, the concentration of the access to drinking water facility from the Worksite as a source of a drinking water facility is only in the households belonging to the rental value groups less than or equal to the 3000 rupees with 14.59% more than the overall average. Finally, in the case of concentration of the Private tanker as a source of drinking water facility, it is only in

the households that belong to the rental value group less than or equal to the 3000 rupees in Nallagandla.

Table 5.4: Proportion of households access to Treated and Untreated drinking water facilities among the Social groups in Nallagandla.

Treatment of Drinking water	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	OBCs	Others
Treated water ²⁶	78.88	60	77.45	81.82	89.47
Un treated ²⁷	21.12	40	22.5	18.18	10.53
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.4 shows the households' access to treated and untreated drinking water facilities among the social groups in Nallagandla. Regarding the households' access to treated drinking water facilities, the Other households are more with 89.49%, followed by the OBC, Scheduled Tribe, and Scheduled Caste households with 82.82%, 77.45%, and 60%, respectively. On the contrary, access to Untreated drinking water is most with the Scheduled Tribe households with 40% followed by the Scheduled Caste, OBC, and Other households with 22.5%, 18.18% and 10.59%, respectively. However, the concentration of the household access to Treated water facility is high in the Other households 10.69% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 18.8% less than the overall average in Nallagandla. In contrast to it, pertaining to the concentration or polarization of access

²⁶ Treated drinking water facility is a drinking water facility that has been treated water by using Water Treatment plants for safe and healthy drinking water, it contains the Municipality water, Private agency (bottled water), Households using Water Treatment plants.

²⁷ Untreated drinking water facility is a drinking water facility that is not gone through any filtrations and treatment for safe and healthy drinking water.

to the Untreated water facility is mostly with Scheduled Tribe households with 18.88% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 10.59% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.5: Proportion of households access to treated and untreated drinking water facilities among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Treatment of Drinking water	Overall average	Nature of Employment groups			
		Regular wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Treated drinking water	78.88	97.92	72.41	73.13	100
Untreated drinking water	21.12	2.08	27.59	26.87	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.5 explains the households' access to Treated and Untreated drinking water facility among the Nature of Employment group in Nallagandla. Regarding the access to the Treated drinking water facility, the Other households are in the most with 100%, followed by the Regular wage, Casual labourer and Self-employed households with 97.92%, 73.13%, and 72.41%, respectively.

Pertaining to the access to Untreated drinking water facility, the Self-employed households are more with 27.59% and followed by the Casual labourer, Regular wage households with 26.87% and 2.08%, respectively. However, the concentration of the access to Treated drinking water facilities among the Nature of Employment groups is high in the Other households with 21.12% more than the overall average and least in the Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 6.47% and 5.75% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Finally, the concentration of access to Untreated drinking water facility is more the Self-employed, and Casual labourer households with 6.47% and 5.75% less than the

overall average and least in the Other households with no households access Untreated drinking water facility.

Table 5.6 Proportion of households access to treated and untreated drinking water facility among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Treatment of Drinking water	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1 (=<3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Treated drinking water	78.88	12.07	100	100	97.06	96.55
Untreated drinking	21.12	87.93	00	00	2.94	3.45
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.6 explains the households' access to Treated and Untreated drinking water facility among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla. In the case of access to Treated drinking water facility, the households belong to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees and 5001 and 7000 rupees are the most with all households' access to it, and is followed by the 7001 and 9000 rupees, more than 9000 rupees and less than 3000 rupees with 97.06%, 96.55%, and 12.07%, respectively. On the other, pertaining to accessing Untreated drinking water facilities, the rental value group less than or equal to 3000 rupees households are in the top place with 87.93%, followed by the more than 9000 rupees and between 7001 and 9000 rupees rental value groups households with 3.45% and 2.94% respectively.

However, the concentration or polarization of the access to Treated drinking water facility is more in the households belonging to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees with 21.12% more than the overall average and least in the households belong to the rental value group less than or equal to 3000 rupees with 66.81% less than the overall average. Lastly, when it comes to the access to Untreated drinking water facility, it is more the households belong to the lowest rental value group which is less than or equal to 3000 rupees with 66.81% more than

the overall average and least in the households belong to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees and 5001 and 7000 rupees with no household access to Untreated drinking water facility in Nallagandla.

Table 5.7: Proportion of households travel to various distances to fetch water among the social groups in Nallagandla.

From where do you fetch drinking water	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribe	Scheduled Caste	OBCs	Others
Within premises	85.26	65	82.35	89.09	100
Outside the premises more than 100 meters but less than 200 meters	0.40	0	0.98	0	0
Outside the premises but more than 200 meters but less than 500 meters	0.80	5	0.98	0	0
More than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer	12.75	30	13.73	10.91	0
More than 1 kilometer and less than 1.5km	0.80	0	1.76	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.7 shows the households that fetch drinking water from various distances among the social groups in Nallagandla. Access to drinking water facilities Within the premises indicates the quality of life and better living conditions and saves household time. Pertaining to the households bringing water Within premises, the Others are more with 100%, followed OBCs, Scheduled castes, and tribe with 89.09%, 82.35%, and 65%, respectively. On the contrary, the households fetching water from Outside the premises, more than 200 meters but less than 500 meters, Scheduled Tribes are the most with 5% and followed by the Scheduled Castes with 0.98%. Pertaining to the households who travel More than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometers, the Scheduled Tribes are the most with 30%, followed by the Scheduled

Castes, OBCs with 13.73% and 10.91% respectively in Nallagandla.

Finally, the households that have to travel More than 1 kilometer and less than 1.5km, 1.76% of the Scheduled Castes have been traveling to fetch water. Table 5.7 displays that the households traveling more than 500 meters for drinking water facilities are Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes; it is a clear indication of the exclusive nature, which is alienating the particular section of the society from the fruits of urban development.

With reference to the concentration of the access to drinking water facilities Within the primes which indicates the better living condition is mostly in the Other households with 14.74% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 20.26% less than the overall average. On the contrary, the concentration of access to drinking water facilities from the Outside premises and more than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer, which is an indication of the vulnerability in access to drinking water facility, the SC households are in the top ranked with 0.98% more than overall average and least in the Other households with no households fetch drinking water from the Outside premises but More than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer. Finally, regarding the access to drinking water facilities from the Outside the premises but more than 1kilometer is only concentrated in the Scheduled Castes households with 0.96% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table5.8: Proportion of households travel to various distances fetch drinking water among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

How far do you have to travel to fetch drinking water	Overall average	Nature of Employment groups			
		Regular wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Within premises	85.26	97.92	82.76	80.60	100
Outside the premises but less than 200meteres	0.40	0	0	0.75	0
Outside the premises but more than 200meteres	0.80	0	0	1.49	0
More than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer	12.75	2.08	15.52	16.42	0
More than 1 kilometer	0.80	0	1.72	0.75	0
Total	100	100.00	100	100.00	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.8 illustrates the households fetching drinking water from various distances among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla. The above table clearly shows that the households belonging to the Others are the most with 100% accessing drinking water facility within premises and, followed by Regular wages, Self-employed and Casual labourers with 97.92%, 82.76%, and 80.60% respectively. On the contrary, pertaining to households traveling more than 500 meters and less than the 1-kilometer, the Casual labourers are more with 16.42%, followed by Self-employed and Regular wages with 15.52% and 2.08% respectively. Finally, the households are traveling more than 1-kilometer among the Nature of Employment groups; Self-employed are more with 1.72%, followed by the Casual labourers with 0.75%. It can be concluded from the above table that the Self-employed and Casual labourers are in the worst position than the all-other employment groups in Nallagandla. It has mainly happened to the rack pickers in garbage collectors in a Self-help group and construction workers, and Adda Kooli in the Casual labourers category.

Pertaining to the concentration or polarization of access to drinking water from the Within premises among Nature of Employment groups is mostly in the Other households with 14.74% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 4.66% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

On contrary, the concentration of access to drinking water facilities Outside the premises but more than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer, the Casual labourer households are top with 3.67% more than the overall average and least in Other households with no households access to drinking water facility Outside the premises but more than the 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer. Lastly, with reference to the households' access to drinking water facility from the Outside the premises but more than 1-kilometer is more in the Self-employed households with 0.92% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table5.9: Proportion of households travel various distances to fetch drinking water among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

From where do you fetch drinking water	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1(=<3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Within premises	85.26	15.52	94.74	100	100	100
Outside the premises more than 100 meters but less than 200 meters	0.40	24.14	5.64	00	00	00
Outside the premises but more than 200 meters but less than 500 meters	0.80	1.72	00	00	00	00
More than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer	12.75	55.17	00	00	00	00
More than 1 kilometer and less than 1.5km	0.80	3.45	00	00	00	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

The able.5.9 shows the households that fetch drinking water from various distances among the rental value groups in Nallagandla. Access to a drinking water facility Within the premises indicates a good standard of living condition than the other. It can be seen from Table 5.9 that all the households with a rental value of more than 5000 rupees have access to drinking water facilities Within the premises. The households with a rental value of the house between 3001 and 5000 rupees, 94.74% have access to drinking water facility within premises, only 5.64% of the households' access to drinking water facility outside the premises but less than the 200 meters. The households with a rental value of less than or equal to 3000 rupees are worse than all other rental value groups; 55.17% have to travel more than 500 meters and less than 1 kilometer. It indicates that the households with a low rental value do not get water within premises; only 15.52% of the households have been fetching drinking water within premises, but most of them fetch from worksite only. It can be concluded from the above table that the rental value of the house and access to basic amenities has a close association; the households with paying high rent have accessed good quality of amenities than the other. But it is known that the real estate boom and new urban policies, and gentrification of the urban land are the main components that influence the house's rental prices. The high rental prices are not only excluding the urban poor from better housing but also basic amenities.

When it comes to the concentration of access to drinking water facilities from the Within premises among the rental value groups in Nallagandla, the households belong to the lowest rental group, which has a rental value of less than or equal 3000 rupees have the least concentration, as compared to the all other rental value groups with 69.74% more than the overall average. With reference to the concentration of the access to drinking water facilities from the Outside the premises more than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer, it is only with the lowest rental value group households with 4.42% more than the overall average. Finally, Regarding the access to drinking water facility from the Outside the premises but more than 1-kilometer is only in the lowest rental value group households among the rental value group, which is less than or equal to the 3000 rupees with 2.65% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.10: Proportion of households access to frequency of the drinking water facility among the Social groups in Nallagandla.

Frequency	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	OBCs	Others
Every day	22.71	20	14.71	25.45	52.63
Alternative Day	61.75	50	67.65	60.65	47.37
More than Five days/Weekly	15.54	30	17.65	13.64	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.10 describes the households' access to the type of frequencies of supply drinking water facility among the Social groups in Nallagandla. The households in Nallagandla primarily have been accessing the three types of frequencies; 1. Every day, 2. Alternative Day, 3. More than Five days or Weekly. Table 5.10 shows that access to frequencies has been distributed unevenly across the social categories in Nallagandla. With reference to the households' access to drinking water facility Every day, which symbolizes of the better life style in Nallagandla, the Others are the most with 52.63% and followed by OBCs, Scheduled Tribes, and Scheduled Castes with 25.45%, 20%, and 14.71% respectively. The households who have been accessed to drinking water facility Every day mainly depend on the Private agencies, Own bore well for drinking water facility.

In case of the access to drinking water facility an Alternative day, the Scheduled Castes are the most with 67.65%, followed by OBCs, Scheduled Tribes, and Others with 60.65%, 50%, and 47.37%, respectively. The households who access to drinking water facility an alternative day depend on the Municipal drinking water facility. Lastly, the access to drinking water facility more than five days or weekly, which is the replica of vulnerability and worst living environment in Nallagandla; the STs are the most with 30% and, followed by the SCs, OBCs with 17.65% and 13.64% respectively. The above table found that most of the SCs, and STs have not been

accessing the drinking water facility every day. Since most of them cannot afford Private agencies charging highly for drinking water, they mainly depend on the cheaper supplier, namely Municipality and Private tankers. It is a sign of urbanization's exclusive nature, which has been rapidly expanding and commercializing the civic amenities.

Moreover, in the case concentration or polarization of the households' access to drinking water facility Every day among the social groups in Nallagandla, the Other households are in the most with 37.92% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households with 7.99% and 2.27% less than the overall average, respectively. Regarding the concentration of the access to drinking water facility an Alternative day, it is more in the Scheduled Castes households with 5.9% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 14.38% less the overall average. Lastly, with reference to the concentration of the households' access to drinking water facility More than Five days/Weekly is mostly in the Scheduled Caste households with 16.36% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with no households access to drinking water facility More than Five days/Weekly, most of them access to drinking water facility Every day and Alternative day in Nallagandla.

Table5.11: Proportion of the households access to frequency of the drinking water facility among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Frequency	Overall average	Nature of Employment groups			
		Regular wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Every day	22.71	29.17	20.69	20.15	36.36
Alternative Day	61.75	68.75	62.07	58.96	63.64
More than Five days/Weekly	15.54	2.08	17.24	20.9	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.11 illustrates the households' access to the type of frequency of water supply among the Nature of employment groups in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the access to drinking water facility Every day, which is a sign of the better standards of living conditions, the Other households are the most with 29.17% and followed by Regular wage, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 29.17%, 20.69%, and 20.15% respectively. The households accessing the drinking water facility Every day depend on the Private agencies and Own bore well. Regarding the households who have been accessing the drinking water facility an Alternative day, the Regular wages are the most with 68.75% and, followed by Others, Self-employed and Casual labourers with 63.64%, 62.07%, and 58.96% respectively. It is observable from the above table that most households across the nature of employment groups access drinking water facilities an alternative day, which means they have depended on the Municipality of water as their source of drinking water. Lastly, the access to drinking water for More than five days or Weekly, the Casual labourer households are the most with 20.90% and followed by Self-employed, Regular wage households with 17.24%, 2.08% respectively. Most of the Casual labourer households have not been accessing the drinking water facility Every day, and most of them cannot afford Private agencies charging highly for drinking water; they mainly depend on the cheaper suppliers, namely Municipality and Private tankers. The Casual labourer and Self-employed households are more vulnerable than all other Nature of employment groups regarding access to Every day drinking water facilities in Nallagandla.

With reference to the concentration of access to drinking water facility Every day among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla, it is high in the Other households with 13.65% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 2.02% less than the overall average. The concentration of the access to drinking water facility an Alternative day, the Regular wage households are more with 7% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 2.79% less than the overall average in Nallagandla. Finally, about the concentration of the access to drinking water facility More than Five days/weekly is mostly in the Casual labourer households with 5.36% more than the overall average

and least in the Other households with no household access to drinking water facility once in More than Five days/Weekly.

Table 5.12: Proportion of households access to frequency of the drinking water facility among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Frequency	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1(= 3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Every day	22.71	32.76	4.5	5.26	35.29	68.97
Alternative Day	61.75	0	95.5	94.74	64.71	31.03
More than Five days/Weekly	15.54	67.24	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.12 illustrates the households' access to the type of frequencies of the supply drinking water among the rental value groups in Nallagandla. Pertaining to access to drinking water Every day, the households belong to the rental value of more than 9000 rupees are the most with 68.97% and followed by Rental value groups between 7001 and 9000 rupees, less than or equal to 3000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 35.26%, 32.76%, 5.26%, and 4.50% respectively.

Regarding the access to drinking water facility Alternative day, the households with a rental value between the 3001 and 5000 are the most with 95.50% and followed by rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7000 and 9000 and more than 9000 rupees with 94.74%, 64.71%, and 31.03% respectively. Finally, the frequency of supplying drinking water facilities more than Five days or weekly shows that only the rental value of less than or equal to 3000 rupees has been accessed; it is 67.24%. Table 5.12 clearly displays that households with high rental value (between 7001 to 9000 and more than 9000 rupees) have regular access to drinking water facilities compared to other rental value groups. It is known that these households have been depending

on the Private agencies and Own bore well. Although the substantial number of the households with the lowest rental value (less than 3000 rupees) access to frequency supply of drinking water Every day, these households mostly bring water from worksites which are stored and low-quality water. In such a case, it cannot be said that access to a frequency supply of drinking water every day indicates good quality of life; only it applies to households with high rental value. On the contrary, most households with the lowest rental value are shown in the above table access to frequency supply of drinking water more than five days or weekly. It is a sign of the worst condition of urban development and a replica of the urban development's exclusive nature.

However, the concentration of access to drinking water facility Every day among the rental value groups in Nallagandla, it is most in the households belong to the Highest rental value group, which is more than the 9000 rupees with 46.26% more than the overall average and least in the lowest rental value group households, which is less than 3000 rupees with 18.21% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of the access to drinking water facility an Alternative day, it is more in the rental value group of 3001 to 5000 rupees households with 33.75% and followed by the rental value group households between 5001 and 7000 rupees with 32.99% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group less than the or equal to 3000 rupees households with no household access to drinking water facility an alternative day in Nallagandla. Finally, about the concentration of the access to drinking water facility More than Five days/Weekly is in the rental value groups less than or equal to 3000 rupees households only with 51.7% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.13: Proportion of households access to defect and No defect drinking water among the Social groups in Nallagandla.

Quality of drinking water	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	OBCs	Others
Defect in quality of water	82.47	85	91.18	80	47.37
NO defect in Quality of Water	17.53	15	8.82	20	52.63
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.13 shows the households' access to defect and No defect in water quality among the social groups in Nallagandla. The defect in water quality means water that is bad in color or smell, or taste. The above table displays that most households across the social groups have been experiencing defects in water quality. The households belonging to Scheduled Castes are the most with 91.18% in access to defect in the quality of water, which indicates the low or worse quality of life and, followed by the Scheduled Tribes, OBCs, and Others with 85%, 80%, and 47.37% respectively. On the other way round, the households' access to drinking water facility with No defect in the quality of water, the Other households are more with 52.63% and followed by OBC, Scheduled Tribe, and Scheduled Caste households with 20%, 15%, and 8.82% respectively. The households with a defect in water quality depend on the Municipality and Private water tanker and Worksite for drinking water facilities; even though Municipality has been supplying treated water, there is a problem in the water supply system, most of the tap connections go through the gutters or drainage premises and also encountering leakage issues.

Moreover, in the case of concentration of access to defect in the quality of drinking water among the social groups in Nallagandla, it is mostly in the Scheduled Castes households with 8.71% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 35.1% less than the overall average. With reference to the

concentration of the access to No defect in the quality of drinking water is more in the Other household with 35.1% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Castes households with 8.71% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.14: Proportion of households access to defect and No defect drinking water among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Quality of drinking water	Overall average	Nature of Employment			
		Regular wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Defect in quality of water	82.47	78.83	86.21	86.57	63.64
NO defect in Quality of Water	17.53	29.17	13.79	13.43	36.36
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.14 shows the households' access to defect and No defect in drinking water facility among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the access to defected water facility which is bad in color or smell or taste, and indicates the low living standards and lifestyle, the Casual labourer households in the top place with 86.57% and followed by Self-employed, Regular wage and Other households with 86.21%, 78.83%, and 63.64% respectively. On the way around, the Others households access to No defected drinking water facility is more with 36.36%, followed by Regular wage, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 29.17%, 13.79%, and 13.43% respectively. The households that do not have access to defective water depend on the Private agencies and Own bore wells mostly. The households who find a defect in water quality depend on the Municipality, Private water tanker, and Worksite for drinking water facilities. The Casual labourers are the worst sufferers in terms of access to good quality drinking water facilities.

However, regarding the concentration of the access to defect in the quality of drinking

water facility among the Nature of Employment groups is high in the Casual labourer and Self-employed households with 4.1% and 3.74% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 18.83% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of access to No defect in the quality of drinking water is mostly in the Other households with 18.83% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 4.1% less than the overall average respectively.

Table 5.15: Proportion of households access to defect and No defect drinking water among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Quality of drinking water	Overall average	Rental value group				
		1(=<3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Defect in quality of drinking water	82.47	86.21	95.5	94.74	67.65	34.48
NO defect in the Quality of drinking Water	17.53	13.79	4.5	5.26	32.35	65.52
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.15 illustrates households' access to Defect and No defect in the quality of water among the rental value groups in Nallagandla. The households belong to the rental value between 3001 and 5000 rupees are the most in access to defect quality of water with 95.50% and, followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees, less than or equal to 3000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees and, more than 9000 rupees households with 94.74%, 86.21%, 67.65%, and 34.48%, respectively. On the other way round, Pertaining to No defect in the quality of drinking water facility, it is more in the highest rental value group households with 65.52% and followed by the

rental value groups between 7001 and 9000, less than or equal to 3000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 32.35%, 17.79%, 5.26%, and 4.50% respectively.

However, pertaining to the concentration of access to defect in the quality of drinking water facility among the Rental value groups is more in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 13.03% more than the overall average and least in the highest rental value group which is more than 9000 rupees households with 47.99% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of access to No defect in the quality of drinking water is more in the households belong to the rental value group more than the 9000 rupees with 47.99% more than the overall average and least in the 3001 and 5000 rupees rental value households with 13.03% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

5.3. Access to Bathroom, Latrine, Drainage, and Garbage facility among various groups

This section elucidates the households' access to amenities such as; bathroom, latrine, garbage, and drainage system in Nallagandla concerning the various groups, namely, Social, Nature of Employment, and Rented value groups. This section describes the households' access to amenities and as well as the quality of amenities among all the groups in the regime of the commercialization of basic amenities. Still, the households that belong to the SCs, STs, Casual labourers, and low rented value groups have been depriving of better quality amenities, which point out the poor standard of living conditions. This kind of deprivation is because of the elite-centric development resulting from the New urban policies, as explained by David Harvey (1989) and Amitabh Kundu (2000). The new urban policies also sharpen socioeconomic inequalities and social-spatial exclusion of marginalized groups. This rise of New urban policies produces an anti-welfare ideology and criminalization of poverty (David Harvey 1989). The augmented land prices, real estate boom, and unaffordable housing and rental prices have been depriving and hampering socially disadvantaged

groups, Casual labourers, and low rented value groups to capture the good life and decent living standard in Nallagandla.

5.3.1 Access to bathroom facilities among the various groups in Nallagandla.

This section depicts the different groups in Nallagandla's access to bathroom facilities. Attached and detached bathroom facilities are the two main types of bathroom facilities. When compared to the Detached bathroom facility, access to the Attached bathroom facility demonstrates a better standard of living. The absence of access to bathroom services indicates a deterioration in lifestyle and living situations. The Social, Nature of Employment, and Rented value groups in Nallagandla have different access to restrooms and different types of bathroom facilities. It is often understood that having access to a bathroom is a symbol of self-dignity.

Table 5.16: Proportion of households access to bathroom and type of bathroom facility among Social groups in Nallagandla.

Social groups	Bathroom facility	No bathroom facility	Type of bathroom facility	
			Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom
Scheduled Tribes	60	40	33.33	66.67
Scheduled Castes	75.49	24.51	18.18	81.82
OBCs	76.36	23.64	33.33	66.67
Others	100	00	63.16	36.84
Overall average	76.49	23.51	30.21	69.79

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.16 shows the households' access to bathrooms and type of bathroom facilities among social groups in Nallagandla. Regarding households with access to bathroom facilities, the Others are the most with 100%, followed by OBCs, SCs and STs with 76.36%, 75.49%, and 60%, respectively. On the contrary, with reference to No access to the bathroom facility, the STs are more with 40%, followed by SCs and OBCs with

24.51% and 23.64%, respectively. It is witnessed from the above table that the SCs and STs households are still vulnerable than all other social categories in Nallagandla in terms of access to bathroom facilities. The households with no access to bathroom facilities in Nallagandla mainly depend on the temporary bathroom made by old clothes or plastic posters and banners and primarily used by females in households and males in the house do open bathing late nights only. The households with no bathroom facilities have to bathe in very early morning or night to avoid their residents' crowd. It is a clear indication of the exclusive nature of urbanization resulting from the new urban policies, sharpening socioeconomic inequalities and socio-spatial exclusion of marginalized groups, and paving the anti-welfare policies that hamper civic amenities and improve the quality of life.

Regarding the access to Attached bathroom facilities, Other households are the most with 63.16%, followed by the OBCs, Scheduled Tribes, and Scheduled Castes with 33.33%, 33.33%, and 18.18%, respectively. Finally, in the case of the access to Detached bathroom facility, the Scheduled Caste households are the most with 81.82% and, followed by the Schedule Tribe, OBC, and Other households with 66.67%, 66.67%, and 36.84%, respectively. It is very clearly evident from table 5.16 that the SC and ST households Tribes are in the worst position in accessing the attached bathroom facility, which indicates the better living style. There is an unequal distribution of amenities and better quality of amenities. On the contrary, the SC and ST households have more access to the Detached bathroom facility, indicating a low quality of living conditions.

Moreover, in the case of concentration or polarization of access to bathroom facility among the social groups in Nallagandla is high in the Other households than to the all other social categories with 23.51% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 16.49% less than the overall average. About the concentration of the No Bathroom facility is the most with the households belong to the Scheduled Tribes with 16.49% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with all households access to bathroom facility. On the contrary,

regarding the concentration of the access to the Attached bathroom facility, it is more in the Other households with 32.95% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 12.03% less than the overall average. Finally, with reference to the concentration of access to a Detached bathroom facility, the Scheduled Caste households are more with 12.03% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 32.95% less than the overall average.

Table 5.17: Proportion of households access to bathroom and type of bathroom facility among Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Nature of Employment groups	Bathroom facility	No bathroom facility	Type of bathroom facility	
			Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom
Regular wages	97.92	2.08	34.04	65.96
Self employed	75.86	24.14	34.09	65.91
Casual labourers	67.16	32.84	24.44	75.56
Others	100	0	45.45	54.55
Overall average	76.49	23.51	30.21	69.79

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

The above table shows households' accessibility to the bathroom among the Nature of employment categories in Nallagandla. Regarding access to bathroom facilities among the Nature of employment groups, the Other households are the most with 100% and, followed by Regular wage, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 97.92%, 75.86%, and 67.16% respectively. On the other way round, regarding No bathroom facility amongst Nature of employment groups, the Casual labourers are more with 32.84% and followed by Self-employed and Regular wages with 24.14% and 2.08% respectively. It can be seen from the above table that the Casual labourer and Self-employed households are the worst suffers in terms of access to the access to bathroom facilities among the Nature of employment groups in Nallagandla, compared to the all-other groups. No access to bathroom facilities indicates low and vulnerable conditions; the Casual labourer households are in the

most with 32.84%. In the case of access to the Attached bathroom facility, the Other households are more with 45.45% and, followed by Self-employed, Regular wage and Casual labourer households with 34.09%, 34.04%, and 24.44% respectively. Whereas, in the access to Detached bathroom facility, which is a symbol of the low standard of living, the Casual labourer households are the most with 75.56% and, it followed by the Regular wage, Self- employed and Other households with 65.96%, 65.91%, and 54.55% respectively. On the contrary, most of the households that have been denied the bathroom attached bathroom facilities are Casual labourers. It is a clear sign of the exclusive nature of the rapid growth of urbanization and uneven distribution and elite-centric development in Nallagandla.

However, the concentration of the access to bathroom facility among the Nature of Employment groups is most in the Other and Regular wage households with 23.51% and 20.71% more than the overall average, respectively and least in the Casual labourer households with 9.33% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of the No bathroom facility, it is the most in the Casual labourer households with 9.33% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with all households access to bathroom facility in Nallagandla. With reference to the concentration of the access to Attached bathroom facility, it is more in the households belonging to the Others with 15.24% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer with 5.77% less than the overall average. Lastly, pertaining to the concentration of the access to Detached bathroom facility, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 5.77% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 15.24% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table5.18: Proportion of households access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities among Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Rental value groups	Bathroom facility	No bathroom facility	Type of bathroom facility	
			Attached bathroom	Detached bathroom
1 (<=3000 Rupees)	00	100	00	00
2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	99.10	0.90	9.09	90.91
3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	100	00	31.58	68.42
4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	100	00	44.12	55.88
5 (>9001 Rupees)	100	00	93.10	6.90
Overall average	76.49	23.51	30.21	69.79

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.18 explains the access to bathrooms and kind of bathroom facilities among the rental value categories in Nallagandla. The above table shows that all the households among the rental value group access to the bathroom facility except the lowest rental value group households, which is less than or equal to 3000 rupees and rental value between 3001 and 5000 rupees households. In the rental value group of 3001 to 5000 rupees, only 0.90% of the households have no access to bathroom facilities. But, pertaining to the lowest rental group, no households have access to bathroom facilities. The denial of the bathroom facility is a denial of self-respect. The poor households residing in the lowest rental house have been denied the bathroom facility is a replica of the exclusive nature of urban development. The households who do not have access to bathroom facilities get a bath in a temporary bathroom made of plastic covers, posters, and old clothes; most men get a bath in an open place only. The households with insufficient income and cannot afford housing at exacerbated prices and sky-rising buildings that are elite-centric with all amenities have adhered to low rental houses at Squatters, where basic amenities are absent.

On the contrary, regarding the quality of the bathroom facility, there are two types of bathrooms Attached and Detached bathroom facilities. As explained in the previous section, access to Attached bathroom facilities is a sign of a good quality of life

compared to a Detached bathroom facility. Table 5.18 shows that there is unequal distribution in the type of bathroom facility in Nallagandla. The households with high rental value have a better place to access Attached bathroom facilities than the others. The households belonging to the rental value group more than 9000 rupees are ranked first in access to the Attached bathroom facility with 93.10% and followed by the rental value group between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees, and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 44.12%, 31.58%, and 9.09%, respectively. On the contrary, in the case of the households' access to Detached bathroom facilities, represent the low quality of life is compared to the attached bathroom facility; the households with a low rental value between 3001 and 5000 rupees are most with 90.91% and followed the rental groups between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees, and more 9000 rupees households with 68.42%, 55.88%, and 6.90%, respectively. It can be concluded from Table 5.18 that economically disadvantaged groups such as low rental value groups cannot afford civic amenities in the regime of new urbanism that commercialized and enhanced the prices for better civic amenities.

With reference to the concentration or polarization of access to bathroom facilities among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla, the rental groups between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees, and more than 9000 rupees households are the most with 23.51% more than the overall average and least in the rental group less than or equal to 3000 rupees households with no access to bathroom facility, all of them depend on the Open defecation in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the concentration of the access to the Attached bathroom facility, it is high in the households belonging to the rental value group, more than the 9000 rupees with 62.89% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 21.12% less than the overall average. Lastly, the concentration of the access to Detached bathroom facility, it is high in the households belonging to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees with 21.12% more than the overall average and least in the households belonging to the rental value group more than the 9000 rupees with 62.89% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

5.3.2. Access to Latrine among the various groups in Nallagandla.

This section mainly focuses on the households' access to the latrine facility among Social, Nature of Employment, and Rented value groups in Nallagandla. This section also addresses the households' access to the type of latrine facilities, which indicates the quality services in Nallagandla. Lastly, it also illustrates No latrine, that sing of the bad standard of life style. This section mainly looks at households' access to latrine facilities in a state of elite-centric development, commercialization, and privatization, affecting affordable housing and essential services.

Table 5.19: Proportion of households access to the Latrine and type of latrine facilities among Social groups in Nallagandla.

Social groups	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Type of latrine facility	
			Common Latrine	Exclusive Latrine
Scheduled Tribes	60	40	50	50
Scheduled Castes	73.64	26.36	88.31	11.69
OBCs	75.69	24.51	65.43	34.57
Others	89.47	10.53	23.53	76.47
Overall average	70.05	29.95	74.05	29.95

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.19 shows the access to the latrine and the type of latrine facilities amongst the Social categories in Nallagandla. Regarding the households' access to the latrine facility, the Others are the most with 89.47%, followed by the OBCs, Scheduled Castes, and Scheduled Tribes with 75.69%, 73.64%, and 60%, respectively. On the contrary, the No access to the latrine facility, which is an indication of the low quality of latrine facility, the Scheduled Tribes are more with 40% and, followed by Scheduled Castes, OBCs, and Others 26.36%, 24.51%, and 10.53% respectively. But the households who are not accessing to latrine facility do have any alternative such a public toilets or private toilets in Nallagandla. Women and girls are the worst

sufferers of denial of the latrine facility. They have to go to defecation at midnight or very early morning since it is an issue of self-respect and dignity, and it is also leading to some health complications. The rapid growth of urbanization does not have any inclusive mechanism and proper administrative setup to address the denial of latrine facilities in Nallagandla. It is the Scheduled Tribes households who have been denied access to latrine facilities, mostly among the social groups. It indicates that the state has miserably failed to arrange basic civic amenities in Nallagandla. The households have been going for open defecation, facing severe problems from the apartment nearby. Abusing and threats are very usual for the households going for the open defecation.

Regarding the households' access to the Common latrine facility, which is representative of the low living standards compared to the exclusive use of latrine facilities, the Scheduled Castes are the most with 88.31% and followed by the OBCs and Scheduled Tribes and Others with 65.43%, 50% and, 23.53%, respectively. On the contrary, in the case of access to Exclusive use of latrine facility, the Other households are the most with 76.47%, followed by OBCs, Scheduled Tribes, and Scheduled Castes with 50%, 34.57% and, 11.69% respectively. It is well known that access to the Common latrine facility indicates low-quality life compared to the exclusive use of the latrine facility. The above table concludes that most households belong to the Scheduled Castes, mainly using the Common latrine facility, which indicates the low quality of life than the households using the Exclusive use of latrine facility. The exclusive use of the latrine facility, a sign of a better quality of life, has mostly been captured in Other households. It also shows the exclusive nature of urbanization and unequally distribution of the basic amenities across the social categories.

With reference to the concentration or polarization of access to Latrine facility among the social groups in Nallagandla, it is more in the Other households with 19.42% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribes households with 10.05% less than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of the access to No latrine

facility, it is the most in the Scheduled Tribe households with 10.05% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 19.42% less than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of the access to Common latrine facility, it is more in the Scheduled Castes with 14.26% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 50.52% less than the overall average. Finally, in the case of the concentration of the access to Exclusive use of latrine facility, it is more in the households belonging to the Others with 46.52% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Castes with 18.26% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.20: Proportion of households access to Latrine and type of latrine facilities among Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Nature of Employment groups	Latrine facility	No latrine facility	Type of latrine facility	
			Common Latrine	Exclusive Latrine
Regular wages	95.83	4.17	60.87	39.13
Self employed	74.14	25.86	62.79	37.21
Casual labourers	66.42	33.58	80.90	19.10
Others	81.82	18.18	44.44	55.56
Overall average	70.05	29.95	74.05	29.95

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.20 shows the access to the latrine and type of latrine facilities amongst the Nature of Employment categories in Nallagandla. With reference to the access to latrine facility, the Regular wage households are the most with 95.83% and, followed by Other, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 81.82, 74.14%, and 66.42% respectively. In the case of the households with no access to Latrine facilities, the Casual labourers are more with 33.58%, followed by Self-employed and Other and Regular wages with 25.86%, 18.18% and 4.17% respectively. The above table finds that the households with no access to latrine facility have to depend on open defecation in such case women is most vulnerable. Also, most households are from

the Casual labourers and Self-employed who have been relying on open defecation.

Regarding the access to Common latrine facility, which is the low standard latrine facility compared to Exclusive use of latrine facility, the Casual labourers households are the most with 80.90%, and, followed by the Self-employed, Regular wages and Others with 62.79%, 60.87%, and 44.44% respectively. On the contrary, the access to Exclusive use of latrine facility amongst the Nature of employment categories in Nallagandla, the Other households are more with 55.56% and, followed by the Regular wage, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 39.13%, 37.21 and 19.10% respectively. Pertaining to access to the Exclusive use of latrine facility, a symbol of the better lifestyle, the Casual labourers are worse in access to it. Which is specifies the low living conditions of the Casual labourers in Nallagandla.

Regarding the concentration of access to Latrine facility among the Nature of Employment groups, it is more in the households belonging to the Regular wages with 27.78% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourers with 3.63% less than the overall average. With reference to the concentration of the No access to latrine facility, it is the most with Casual labourer households with 3.63% more than the overall average and least in the Regular wage households with 27.78% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of Common latrine facility, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 6.85% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 29.61% less than the overall average. Lastly, in the case of the concentration of access to Exclusive use of latrine facility, it more in the Other households with 25.6% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 10.85% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.21: Proportion of households access to latrine and type of latrine facilities among Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Rental value groups	Latrine facility	No Latrine facility	Type of latrine facility	
			Common Latrine	Exclusive Latrine
1 (≤ 3000 Rupees)	0	100	0	0
2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	94.59	5.41	95.24	4.76
3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	100	0	63.16	36.84
4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	100	0	50	50
5 (>9001 Rupees)	100	0	6.9	93.1
Overall average	70.05	29.95	74.05	29.95

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.21 displays the access to a latrine and the type of latrine facility amongst the rental value groups in Nallagandla, and all the households in rental value groups above 5000 rupees in Nallagandla have access to the Latrine facility. The rental value group of less than or equal to 3000 rupees households are in the worst condition with no household access to latrine facilities. In contrast, only 5.41% of the households belong to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees without access to a latrine facility. It can be observed that the lowest rental value households are the worst sufferers in Nallagandla. It is a clear indication of the deprivation of the economically poor from urban development. The households who do not access to the Latrine facility have other alternatives such as private and public toilets in Nallagandla. Women and girls are the worst who suffers from a denial of the latrine facility. They have to go to open defecation at midnight or very early morning. Urban development does not have any organizational setup and inclusive mechanism to deal with this kind of problem. Most households belonging to the economically weaker sections cannot afford the house at the high rental prices, denying latrine facilities.

Regarding access to the Exclusive latrine facility, the households belong to the highest rental value group that is more than 9000 rupees is in the top place with 93.10% and

followed by the rental value group between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees, and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 50%, 36.84%, and 4.76% respectively.

Regarding access to Common latrine facility, the households belong to the low rental value access to more than the high rental value, the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households are the most with 95.24% and followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees and more than 9000 rupees households with 63.16%, 50%, and 6.90% respectively. Table 5.21 that the households in the low rental value groups are the worst suffers in terms of access to a latrine and better quality of latrine facility in Nallagandla. It is evidence of excluding the urban poor and economically weaker section of society from the basic amenities.

However, pertaining to the concentration of the access to Latrine facility among the rental value groups, it is more in the rental groups between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees, and more than 9000 rupees households with 29.5% more than the overall average and least the rental groups of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households with no households access to latrine facility. On the contrary, in the case of the concentration of the No access to latrine facility, it is the highest in the rental groups of less than the or equal to 3000 rupees households with 70.05% more the overall average and least in the rental groups between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees and more than 9000 rupees households with all the households access latrine facility. However, in the case of concentration of the access to Common latrine facility, it is more in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 21.19% more than the overall average and least in the rental value groups of more than the 9000 rupees with 67.15% less than the overall average. Finally, about the concentration of access to Exclusive use of latrine facility, it is the most in the households belong to the rental group more than the 9000 rupees with 63.15% more than the overall average and least in the rental value between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 25.19% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

5.3.3. Access to Drainage and type of drainage facilities among the various groups in Nallagandla

This section explains the households' access to drainage and the type of drainage facilities among the Social, Nature of employment, and Rental value groups in Nallagandla. Access to drainage connections symbolizes the hygienic environment that positively impacts household health and living conditions (Kavita W, 2015). Pertaining to the type of drainage facilities, there are three types: Open pucca, Open Katcha, and Underground drainage facilities in Nallagandla.

Table 5.22: Proportion of households access to drainage and type of drainage facility among social groups in Nallagandla.

Social groups	Drainage	No drainage	Type of Drainage		
			Open katcha	Open pucca	Underground
Scheduled Tribes	35	65	00	71.43	28.57
Scheduled Castes	52.94	47.06	36.54	51.92	11.54
OBCs	49.09	50.91	17.31	55.77	26.92
Others	78.95	21.05	00	53.33	46.67
Overall average	51.39	48.61	22.22	54.76	23.02

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

The above table illustrates access to drainage and the type of drainage facilities among Social groups in Nallagandla. Regarding access to the drainage facility, the Other households are the most with 74.42%, followed by OBC, Scheduled Caste, and Scheduled Tribe households with 54.68%, 49.54%, and 29.87%, respectively. On the contrary, with reference to No access to the drainage facility, the Scheduled Tribes are more with 70.13%, followed by Scheduled Castes, OBCs, and Others with 50.46%, 45.32%, and 25.58%, respectively. It is evident from table 5.22 that access to drainage facilities is not evenly distributed among social groups. The Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste households are in the worst place in access to drainage facility in Nallagandla. It can be concluded that is a clear indication of the

exclusiveness in distributing the basic amenities to the society's downtrodden or marginal sections.

Regarding access to the Open katcha drainage facility, which indicates low living conditions, the Scheduled Caste households are more with 36.54% and, followed by the OBC households, 17.31%. Whereas in the cases of access to Open pucca drainage facility, the Scheduled Tribe households are the most with 71.43%, followed by OBC, Other, and Scheduled Caste households with 55.77%, 53.33%, and 51.92%, respectively. Finally, in case of access to the Underground drainage facility, which is a symbol of better life style, the Other households are the most with 46.67%, followed by the Scheduled Tribe, OBC, and Scheduled Caste households with 28.57%, 26.92%, and, 11.54% respectively.

Regarding the households' access to the Katcha and Open katcha type of drainage facilities, which point out a worse living condition and quality of life, the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households are the most. The above table shows clear discrimination in the distribution of the drainage facilities among the social groups.

Moreover, the concentration of access to drainage facility among the social groups in Nallagandla, it is more the Other households with 27.56% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 16.39% less than the overall average. On the contrary, the concentration of the No access to drainage facility is more in the Scheduled Tribe households with 16.39% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 27.56% less than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of access to the Open katcha drainage facility, it is the most in the Scheduled Caste households with 14.32% more than the overall average. With reference to the concentration of access to Open pucca drainage facility, it is the most in the Scheduled Tribe households with 16.67% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 2.84% less than the overall average. Lastly, with reference to the concentration of access to the Underground drainage facility, it is more in the Other households with 23.65% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 11.48% less than the overall average

in Nallagandla.

Table 5.23: Proportion of households access to drainage and type of drainage facilities among Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Nature of Employment groups	Drainage	No drainage	Type of Drainage		
			Open katcha	Open pucca	Underground
Regular wages	66.67	33.33	6.45	48.39	45.39
Self-employed	56.90	43.10	27.27	54.55	18.18
Casual labourers	43.28	56.92	28.57	60.71	10.71
Others	63.64	36.36	16.67	33.33	50
Overall average	51.39	48.61	22.22	54.76	23.02

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.23 illustrates the access to drainage and type of drainage facilities amongst the Nature of Employment categories in Nallagandla. Regarding to the access to the drainage facility among the Nature of employment groups, Other households are the most with 65.31% and, followed by Regular wage, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 64.50%, 55.37%, and 44.77% respectively. Regarding the households with no access to the drainage system, the Casual labourers are more with 55.23% and, followed by Self-employed, Regular wages and Others with 44.63%, 35.50%, and 34.69% respectively. Pertaining to access to the Open katcha drainage facility, which indicates the worse standard of living conditions, the Casual labourer households are the most with 28.57% and, followed by Self-employed, Regular wage and Other households with 27.27%, 16.67%, and 6.45% respectively. On the contrary, in the case of the access to Open pucca drainage facility, the Casual labourers are in the most with 60.71%, followed by Self-employed, Regular wages, and Others with 54.55%, 48.39%, and 33.33% respectively. Finally, pertaining to the access to the Underground drainage facility, which is an indication of decent and high quality of life, the Other households are the most with 50% and followed by Regular wage, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 45.39%, 18.18%, and 10.71%

respectively.

However, with reference to the concentration or polarization of drainage facility among the Nature of Employment groups, it is the highest in the Regular wage households with 15.28% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 8.11% less than the overall average. On the contrary, when it comes to the concentration of No access to drainage, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 8.11% more than the overall average and least in the Regular wage households with 15.28% less than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of the access to Open katcha drainage facility, it is the most in the Casual labourer households with 6.35% more than the overall average and least in the Regular wage households with 15.77% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of open pucca drainage facilities, it is the highest in the Casual labourer households with 5.95% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 21.43% less than the overall average. Finally, with reference to the access to Underground drainage facility, it is more in the Other households with 26.98% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 12.31% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.24: Proportion of households access to drainage and type of drainage facility among Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Rental value groups	Drainage	No drainage	Type of Drainage		
			Open katcha	Open pucca	Underground
1 (= < 3000 Rupees)	00	100	00	00	00
2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	55.88	44.12	38.57	58.57	2.86
3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	63.06	36.94	9.09	72.73	18.18
4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	78.42%	21.58	00	50.66	49.34
5 (> 9001 Rupees)	93.10	6.90	00	44.44	55.56
Overall average	51.39	48.61	22.22	54.76	23.02

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.24 illustrate the access to drainage and type of drainage facilities among the Rental value categories in Nallagandla. Regarding access to drainage facility in Nallagandla, the households that belong to the lowest rental value groups less than or equal to 3000 rupees are in pathetic conditions with no access to drainage facility. The highest rental value group, more than 9000 rupees households are the most with 93.10% and followed the rental value group between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 78.42%, 63.06%, and 55.88% respectively.

Pertaining to the Underground drainage facility, the highest rental value groups households are in top ranked in access to the Underground type of drainage facility with 55.56% and followed by the rental value group between 7001 and 9000, 5001 and 7000 and 3001 and 5000 rupees with 49.34%, 18.18%, and 2.86% respectively.

Regarding the access to the Open katcha drainage facility, which is a sign of a low-quality drainage facility, the households belonging to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees are in the most with 38.57% and followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees with 9.09%. It can be concluded from the above table that there is discrimination in the distribution of drainage facilities among the rental value groups. The households with the lowest rental value do not have access to a drainage and better-quality drainage facility, namely Underground drainage. On the contrary, the households with the highest rental value have a better quality of drainage facilities than other rental value groups. It is evidence of the urban development's exclusive nature and alienation from the right to access to civic amenities. The poor households cannot afford high rental housing denied to drainage facility. The households in the high rental colonies in Nallagandla have access to drainage and better drainage facilities than the other rental value groups.

However, pertaining to the concentration of the drainage facility among the rental value groups in Nallagandla, it is more in the rental value group of more than 9000 rupees households with 41.71% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households with no household

access to drainage facility in Nallagandla. Regarding the concentration of no access to drainage facility, it is more in the rental value group less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households with no household access to drainage facility and least in the rental value group more than 9000 rupees households with 41.71% less than the overall average. The concentration of the Open katcha drainage facility, it is the highest in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 16.35% more than the overall average. On the contrary, the concentration of access to Open pucca drainage facility, it is the most in the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees households with 17.97% more than the overall average and least in the rental group of more than 9000 rupees households with 10.32% less than the overall average. Finally, regarding the concentration of access to Underground drainage facility, it is the highest in the rental group of more than 9000 rupees households with 32.54% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees with 20.16% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

5.3.4 Access to garbage collection arrangement among the various groups in Nallagandla

This section of the chapter describes the households' access to garbage collection arrangements among the Social, Nature of Employment groups, and Rental value groups in Nallagandla. The Municipality has mainly arranged the garbage collections in Nallagandla, and it charges 100 rupees for a month to collect garbage as an alternative from the house. The household incapable of paying the monthly denies access to the garbage collection arrangements made by the Municipality. It indicates the commercialization of the civic amenities by using the pay and use method, depriving the poor and marginalized society of access to basic amenities.

Table 5.25: Proportion of households access to Garbage collection arrangements among Social groups in Nallagandla.

Garbage collection arrangements	Overall average	Social group			
		Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	OBCs	Others
Yes	62.15	60	56.84	62.73	89.47
No	37.85	40	43.16	37.27	10.53
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.25 shows the households' access to garbage collection arrangements among the Social groups in Nallagandla; the Other households are the most with 89.47%, followed by the OBC, Scheduled Tribe, and Scheduled Caste households with 62.73%, 60%, and 56.84%, respectively. On the contrary, Pertaining to the No access to the garbage collection arrangements, the Scheduled Caste households are more with 43.14% and, followed by the Scheduled Tribe, OBC and Other households with 36.36%, 34.70% and, 17.44%, respectively. It can be concluded from the table 5.25 that denial to garbage collection arrangement based on the pay and use method, which the Municipal government of the Nallagandla has used, is an example of marketization of the civic amenities. The institutions are responsible for providing civic amenities to ensure safe and hygienic environments exclude the urban poor from access who are haven incapable of paying for the essential services. It is evident for the repudiation of the right to the city. The commercialization garbage collection arrangement adversely affects the households belonging to the SC and ST than other social categories in Nallagandla.

Moreover, the concentration of the Garbage collection arrangement among the social groups in Nallagandla is more in the households belonging to the Others with 27.32% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Castes with 5.31% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of no access to Garbage collection arrangement is the most in the Scheduled Castes with 5.31% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 27.32% less than the overall average

in Nallagandla.

Table 5.26: Proportion of households access to Garbage collection arrangements among Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Garbage collection arrangements	Overall average	Nature of Employment			
		Regular Wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Yes	62.15	81.25	72.41	48.51	90.91
No	37.85	18.75	27.59	51.49	9.09
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.26 shows the households' access to the garbage collection arrangements made by the Municipality among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla. Regarding the access to garbage collection, Other households are the most with 90.91% and, followed by the Regular wages, Self-employed and Casual labourer households with 82.25%, 72.41%, and 48.52% respectively. On the contrary, Pertaining to No access to garbage collection arrangements, the Casual labourer households are in the most with 51.49%, followed by Self-employed, Regular wage, and Other households with 27.59%, 18.75%, and 9.09% respectively.

It can be evident from the above table that the households that belong to the Casual labourers are the worst sufferers in terms of access to Garbage collection arrangements, and more than 50% of them have been denied to garbage collection arrangements provided by the Municipality.

However, regarding the concentration or polarization of access to Garbage collection arrangement among the Nature of Employment groups, it is the highest in the Other households with 28.76% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 13.64% less than the overall average. On the contrary, the concentration of the No access to the Garbage collection arrangement is more in the Casual households with 13.64% more than the overall average and least in the Other

households with 28.76% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.27: Proportion of households access to Garbage Collection arrangements among Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Garbage collection arrangements	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1 (≤ 3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (> 9001 Rupees)
Yes	62.15	00	69.37	94.74	94.12	100
No	37.85	100	30.63	5.26	5.88	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.27 describes the households' access to garbage collection arrangements among the rental value groups in Nallagandla. Regarding the households' access to garbage collection arrangements, all the households in the highest rental value group (more than 9000 rupees) access garbage collection arrangements, followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 rupees, and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 94.74%, 94.12%, and 69.37% respectively. On the other way round, in the case of No access to garbage collection, which is a replica of low quality of life, the lowest rental value group (less than or equal to the 3000 rupees) are in the top place with no household access to garbage collection and followed by the rental value groups between 3001 and 5000 rupees, 7001 and 9000 and 5001 and 7000 rupees households with 30.63%, 5.88%, and 5.26% respectively.

Moreover, when it comes to the concentration or polarization of access to Garbage collection arrangement among the rental value groups in Nallagandla, it is the most in the highest rental value group of more than 9000 rupees households with 37.85% more than the overall average and least in the lowest rental value group of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households with 62.15% less than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of No access to garbage collection arrangement, it is more in the rental value group of less than the 3000 rupees households with 62.15% more than the

overall average and least in the rental value group of more than 9000 rupees households with 37.85% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

5.4. The Structure and Condition of housing and Electricity facility in Nallagandla

This section of the chapter explains the households' access to the type of house, condition of the structure, electricity, and electrical wiring connectivity among the Social and Nature of Employment and Rental value groups in Nallagandla. The structure of the house has been divided into three types; Hut, Tin roof, and Concrete. The access to Hut is a replica of the worst living condition and lifestyles. On the contrary, the Tin roof-type structure signifies better living conditions than the Hut. Finally, the Concrete type of structure indicates better living conditions than the rest of the structure house. The condition of the house structure is divided into three types based habitable of the house; 1. Good, 2. Satisfactory, and 3. Bad condition of the house. "If the structure did not require any immediate repairs, major or minor, it was considered in 'good' condition. If the structure required immediate minor repairs but not major repairs, it was considered in 'satisfactory' condition. If the structure of the building required immediate major repairs without which it might be unsafe for habitation or required to be demolished and rebuilt, it was considered as in 'bad' condition."²⁸(NSSO, 69th round, 2012, peg.no.54).

Finally, in the electrical wiring connectivity case, there are three types; 1. Conduit, 2. Fixed to the Wall, and 3. Temporary. Access to the Conduit type of electrical wiring signifies a good life or better living conditions or lifestyle. Access to Fixed to the wall is considered low living standard than the conduit electrical wiring. Lastly, access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity indicates the worst living conditions and

²⁸“NSS Report No. 556: Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition in India, 69th round, 2012”.

lifestyle in Nallagandla.

Table 5.28: Proportion of households access to the type of housing structures in Nallagandla among the social groups.

Structure of type	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	OBCs	Others
Hut	24.30	40	25.49	24.55	0
Tin roof	40.64	15	51.96	37.27	26.32
Concrete	35.06	45	22.55	38.18	73.68
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.28 illustrates the households' access to types the structure among Social groups in Nallagandla. Regarding households residing in the Huts, which indicates the vulnerable living conditions, the Scheduled Tribe households are the most with 40% and followed by Scheduled Caste and OBC households with 25.49% and 24.55%. It is evident from the above that Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste households are the worst sufferings in Nallagandla than the other social groups. Pertaining to the households residing in the Tin roof type of structure, which is better than the Hut and worse than the Concrete type of the structure, Scheduled Caste households are more with 51.96% and, followed by OBCs Others and Scheduled Tribe households with 37.27%, 26.32%, and 15% respectively.

Finally, in the case of households residing in the Concrete structure, which is a symbol of the good lifestyle, the Others are the most with 73.68% and, followed by the Scheduled Tribes, OBCs, and Scheduled Castes with 45%, 38.18%, and 22.55% respectively. It can be concluded from the above table that most of the SCs and STs households in Nallagandla have been living in worst conditions than the all-other social groups. Rapid urbanization has exorbitant rental housing prices. Simultaneously, elite-centric sky rising building at unaffordable prices has been forcing the households to resort to low-quality housing, namely Hut and Tin roof

housing. It is evident that the marginalized sections of the society are mainly victims of the exorbitant housing prices, and most of them have been resorting to the squatters and slums for shelter.

On the contrary, the concentration of Hut type of structure among the social groups in Nallagandla, it more in the Scheduled Tribe households with 15.7% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 24.5% less than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of access to Tin roof type of the structure, it is the highest in Scheduled Caste households with 11.32% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribes with 25.64% less than the overall average. With reference to the concentration of the access to Concrete type of structure, it is more in the Other households with 38.62% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Castes households with 12.51% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.29: Proportion of households access to the type of housing structures in Nallagandla among the Nature of Employment groups.

Structure of type	Overall average	Nature of Employment			
		Regular Wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Hut	24.30	6.25	24.14	32.84	0
Tin roof	40.64	47.92	34.48	39.55	54.55
Concrete	35.06	45.83	41.38	27.61	45.45
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.29 displays the access to the type of structures among the Nature of employment groups in Nallagandla. Regarding the access to the Hut structure, the Casual labourer households are more with 32.84% and followed by Self-employed, Regular wage households with 24.14% and 6.25%. The Regular wages have been residing in the hut structure are mostly low-paid job holders, working as *Aaya* (helper/care giver) at school and sanitation workers in hospitals. On the contrary, the

households living in Tin roof type of structure, the Others are the most with 54.55% and followed by Regular wages, Casual labourers, and Self-employed with 47.92%, 39.55%, and 34.48% respectively. Finally, the households residing in the Concrete structure, the Regular wages are more with 45.83% and, followed by Others, Self-employed and Casual labourers with 45.45%, 41.38% and 27.61% respectively. Table 5.29 clearly shows that most of those residing in low-quality housing such as Hut are Casual labourers. The Casual labourers are vulnerable in terms of access to a better quality of the structure in a situation of high rental prices, real estate, and liberal policies led to unaffordable housing. Most of the households belong to the Casual labourers looking at the squatters and Slums even though habitable conditions are not good because they cannot afford the housing with their meager wages, which are sometimes not even substantial for survival.

However, pertaining to the concentration or polarization of access Hut type of the structure among the Nature of Employment group in Nallagandla, it is the highest in the Casual labourer households with 8.54% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 24.3% less than the overall average. On the contrary, with reference to the concentration of access to Tin roof type of the structure, it is the most in the Other households with 13.91% more than the overall average and least in the Self-employed with 6.16% less than the overall average. Lastly, regarding the concentration of access to the Concrete type of structure, it is more in the Regular wage households with 10.77% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 7.45% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.30: Proportion of households access to the type of housing structures among the Rented value groups in Nallagandla.

Structure of type	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1 (=<3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Hut	24.30	100	00	00	00	00
Tin roof	40.64	00	85.59	31.58	3.82	00
Concrete	35.06	00	14.41	68.42	96.18	100
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.30 depicts the access to the type of structures among the rental value groups in Nallagandla. Regarding the households residing in the Hut, the rental value group less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households are the most with all the households' access to it. On the contrary, regarding the access to Tin roof of the structure, the households belonging to the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees are in the most with 85.59%, followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees and 7001 and 9000 rupees households with 31.58% and 3.82% respectively. Finally, the households' access to Concrete structure, the highest rental value group more than 9000 rupees are in the first place with all the households access it. It is a replica of high quality of life and living standard than all other structures and followed by the rental value group between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 14.41, 68.42%, and 98.18% respectively. Table 5.30 explains that the low rental value groups, namely, less than or equal to the 3000 rupees and 3001 and 5000 rupees households are vulnerable in terms of access to a better quality of the structure, and the households with less than or equal to the 3000 rupees are in the worst position than all other. It is evidence of the exclusion of the low-income and economically weaker section of the society from the development of urbanization. Simultaneously, elite-centric housing at unaffordable prices has forced the households to belong to the financially weaker sections to resort to low-quality housing, namely Hut and Tin roof.

Moreover, in the case of concentration of access to Hut, the structure among the rented value groups in Nallagandla, it is the most in the lowest rental value groups, which is the rental value of less than or equal to 3000 rupees households, only these households have been residing in the Hut. With reference to the concentration of access to Tin roof type of the structure, it is the highest in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 44.95% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group of more than 9000 rupees households with 40.64% less than the overall average. Finally, when it comes to the concentration of access to the Concrete structure, it is more in the rental value group of more than 9000 rupees with 64.94% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees with 20.92% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.31: Proportion of households access to the conditions of structure among the Social groups in Nallagandla.

Condition of the structure	Overall average	Social groups			
		Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	OBCs	Others
Good	38.65	35	28.43	40	89.47
Satisfactory	20.32	10	29.41	19.45	10.53
Bad	41.04	55	42.16	40.55	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.31 displays the accessibility to the conditions of structure amongst the Social categories in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the Good condition of structure, Other households are ranked first with 89.47% and followed by OBC, STs, and SCs households with 40%, 35%, and 28.43%, respectively. With reference to the households dwelling in the Satisfactory condition of structure, which indicates the low quality of life compared to the previous one and better quality of life than the Bad condition of the structure, the Scheduled Castes are more with 29.41% and, followed by the OBCs, Other and Schedule Tribes with 19.45% and 10.53% and 10% respectively. Finally, the household dwell in the Bad conditions of the structure, which

indicates the worst living conditions and lifestyle; the Scheduled Tribes are in the first place with 55%, followed by the Scheduled Castes OBCs with 42.16% and 40.55%, respectively. It is witnessed in the above table that most of the STs, and SCs households have been living in Bad conditions of the structure of the house, which is not habitable. It is an indication of the bad, worst living style in Nallagandla. Obviously, it examples the rapid growth of urbanization has not benefited and included the vulnerable sections of society, namely Scheduled Castes, and tribes, and worsened these sections' living conditions. On the contrary, when it comes to the polarization or concentration of access to Good condition of the structure among the social groups in Nallagandla, it is more in the Other households with 50.82% more than the total households and least in the Scheduled Caste households with 3.65% less than the overall average. The concentration of access to the Satisfactory condition of the structure is the most in the Scheduled Caste households with 9.09% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 10.32% less than the overall average.

Finally, regarding the concentration of the access to Bad conditions of the structure, it is the highest in the Scheduled Caste households with 13.96% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 41.04% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.32: Proportion of households access to the conditions of structure among the Nature of employments groups in Nallagandla.

Condition of the structure	Overall average	Nature of Employment groups			
		Regular Wages	Self-employed	Casual labourers	Others
Good	38.65	56.25	44.83	27.61	54.55
Satisfactory	20.32	18.75	24.14	17.91	18.18
Bad	41.04	25	31.03	54.48	27.27
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.32 displays the households' access to the conditions of the structure among the Nature of employment groups in Nallagandla. Regarding the households have been dwelling in Good condition of the structure, the Regular wages are in top place with 56.25% and, followed by Others, Self-employed, Casual labourers with 54.55%, 44.83%, and 27.61% respectively. On the contrary, the households' have been dwelling in the Satisfactory condition of the structure; the Self-employed are the most with 24.14%, followed by the Regular wages, Others, and Casual labourers with 18.75%, 18.18%, and 17.91% respectively.

Finally, pertaining to the households that have been dwelling in Bad conditions of the structure, the Casual labourers are more with 54.48% and, followed by the Self-employed, Others and Regular wages with 31.03%, 27.27%, and 25% respectively. Table 5.32 describes that most households belong to the Casual labourers living in Bad conditions of the structure, which is not habitable. It is an indication of the bad, worst living style in Nallagandla. The rapid growth of urbanization and the new urban policies have not benefited and included the vulnerable sections of the society, namely the Casual labourers. With their meager wages, the Casual labourers cannot afford the house and rental house, which is high cost and worsened these sections' living conditions; they have been looking for the squatters and slums for settlers where rental prices are cheap. However, when it comes to the concentration of access to Good conditions of the structure among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla, it is the most in the households belong to the Regular wages with 17.6% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 11.04% less than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of access to Satisfactory conditions of the structure, it is the highest in the Self-employed households with 3.82% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 2.41% less than the overall average. Lastly, About the concentration of the access to Bad conditions of the structure, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 13.44% more than the overall average and least in the Regular households with 16.04% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.33: Proportion of households access to the type of conditions of structure among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Condition of the structure	Overall average	Rental value groups				
		1 (= <3000 Rupees)	2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	5 (>9001 Rupees)
Good	38.65	00	19.82	73.68	94.12	100
Satisfactory	20.32	00	41.44	26.31	5.88	00
Bad	41.04	100	38.74	0	0	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.33 illustrates the accessibility to the conditions of the structure amongst the rental value categories in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the households dwelling in Good conditions of the structure, which indicates the better living condition and high quality of life; the highest rental value group, which is more than 9000 rupees, is in the top place with all the households access to it and follow by the rental group between 7001 and 9000 rupees, 5001 and 7000 rupees, and 3001 and 5000 rupees with 94.12%, 73.68%, and 19.82%. The households belonging to the rental value group of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees are in the vulnerable place with no access to the Good conditions of structure. Regarding the household dwell in the Satisfactory condition of the structure, which indicates low-quality life than the Good condition of the structure and better-quality life than the Bad condition; the low rental value groups between 3001 and 5000 rupees households are most with 41.44%, followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees and 7001 to 9000 rupees with 26.31% and 2.94% respectively. Finally, the accessibility to Bad condition of the structure, the lowest rental value category is in the most with all the households have been residing in it, followed by the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 38.74%. No households in the rental value group more than 9000 rupees have been dwelling in Bad conditions of the structure, which indicates the worst living situation and lifestyle.

Regarding the concentration or polarization access to Good conditions of the structure among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla, it the most in the rental value group of more than 9000 rupees households with 61.35% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households with 38.65% less than the overall average. On the contrary, the concentration of Satisfactory conditions of the structure, it is the most in the rental groups between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 21.12% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group between 7001 and 900 rupees households with 14.44% less than the overall average. Lastly, in the case of concentration of access to Bad conditions of the structure, it is highest in the rental value group of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees households with 58.96% more than the overall average and followed by the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 2.63% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.34: Proportion of households access to electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivities among the Social groups in Nallagandla.

Social groups	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of electrical wiring connectivities		
			Conduit	Fixed to the wall	Temporary
Scheduled Tribes	60	40	25	35	40
Scheduled Castes	75.49	24.51	25.49	50	24.21
OBCs	77.27	22.73	39.09	38.18	22.73
Others	100	0	68.42	31.58	00
Overall average	76.89	23.11	34.56	42.33	21.11

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.34 shows the households' accessibility to electricity and electrical wiring connections among social categories in Nallagandla. Regarding the access to electricity facilities among social groups, the Other households are the most with 100%, followed by the OBCs, Scheduled Castes, and Scheduled Tribes with 77.27%, 75.49%, and 60%, respectively. On the contrary, pertaining to households with no access to the electricity facility, it indicates the worst living condition and lifestyle;

the Scheduled Tribes are the most with 40% and followed by the Scheduled Castes and OBCs with 24.51% and 22.73% respectively. In the case of access to the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, Other households are the most with 68.42% and, followed by OBC and Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households with 39.09%, 25.49%, and 25%, respectively. In the case of access to the Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connections, the SC households are the most with 50%, followed by the OBC, Scheduled Tribe, and Other households with 38.18%, 35%, and 31.58%, respectively. Lastly, pertaining to the households' access to the Temporary electrical wiring connection, which is illegal electrical connectivity, consider no electricity officially and get electricity connections in the night mainly after 7 pm and get removed by the households in the morning before 6 am. The households using Temporary electrical wiring connectivity have to bribe the official not to interrupt the connectivity; they have been paying an average of 150 rupees every month for a month. The households belonging to Scheduled Tribes are the most access to the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity with 40%, followed by Scheduled Castes and OBCs with 24.21% and 22.73%, respectively. It can be concluded from the above table that the new urban policies have not created a space for the households who have tirelessly contributed to the development of the urban. It is a sign of the exclusive nature of the urban growth, which has been backed by new economic policies.

However, pertaining to the concentration or polarization of electricity facilities amongst the social categories in Nallagandla, most in the Other households with 23.11% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households with 16.89% less than the overall average. On the other way round, regarding the concentration of the access to electricity facility, it is more in the Scheduled Tribe households with 16.89% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 23.11% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Moreover, in the case of concentration of the access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity facility, it more in the Other households with 33.86% more than the overall average and least in the Scheduled Tribe households and is followed by

Scheduled Castes households with 9.56% and 9.07% less than the overall average, respectively in Nallagandla. On the contrary, about the concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity, it is the most in the Scheduled Caste households with 7.67% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 10.75% less than the overall average. Finally, regarding the concentration of access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it is much in the households belonging to the Scheduled Tribes with 16.89% more than the overall average and least in the Other households 23.11% with less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.35: Proportion of households access to electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivities among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Nature of Employment groups	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of electrical wiring connectivities		
			Conduit	Fixed to the wall	Temporary
Regular Wages	97.92	2.08	52.08	45.83	2.08
Self-employed	75.86	24.14	39.66	36.21	24.14
Casual labourers	67.91	32.09	26.2	41.79	32.09
Others	100	0	36.36	63.64	0
Overall average	76.89	23.11	34.56	42.33	23.11

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table 5.35 shows the households' accessibility to the electricity and electrical wiring connectivity facilities amongst the Nature of employment categories in Nallagandla. Regarding the access to electricity, the Other households are the most with 100%, followed by Regular wages, Self-employed and Casual labourers with 97.92%, 75.86%, and 67.91% respectively. On the other way round, the households No access electricity facility, the Casual labourers are in more with 32.09% and followed by Self-employed and Regular wages with 24.14% and 2.08% respectively. It is witnessed from the above table that the households who do not have access to the electricity facility are Casual labourers. They have been living in the worst living conditions.

When it comes to access to the Conduit electricity wiring connectivity among the Nature of employment groups, the Regular wage households are the most with 52.08%, followed by the Self-employed, Other, and Casual labourer households with 39.66%, 36.36%, and 26.2%, respectively. In the case of access to Fixed to the wall electricity wiring connectivity, Other households are in the top place with 63.64% and followed by the Regular wage, Casual labourer, and Self-employed households with 45.83%, 41.79%, and 36.21%, respectively. Finally, the households' access to the Temporary electricity wiring connectivity, the Casual labourers are the most with 32.09%, followed by the Self-employed and Regular wages with 24.14% and 2.08%, respectively.

Moreover, in the case of the concentration access to electricity facility among the Nature of Employment group in Nallagandla, it is much in the households belong to the Other households with 23.11% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 8.98% less than the overall average. On the contrary, pertaining to the concentration of No electricity, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 8.98% more than the overall average and least in the Other households with 23.11% less than the overall average. Whereas, in the case of concentration of access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it is the highest in the Regular wage households with 17.52% more than the overall average and least in the Casual labourer households with 8.36% less than the overall average. With reference to the concentration of access to Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity, it is the much in the households belonging to the Others with 21.31% more than the overall average and least in the Self-employment households with 6.12% less than the overall average. Lastly, regarding the concentration of access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it is more in the Casual labourer households with 8.98% more than the overall average and least in the Other and Regular wage households with 23.11% and 21.03% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 5.36: Proportion of households access to electricity and type of Electrical wiring connectivities among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Rental value groups	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of electrical wiring connectivities		
			Conduit	Fixed to the wall	Temporary
1 (= < 3000 Rupees)	00	100	00	00	100
2 (3001 to 5000 Rupees)	100	00	18.92	81.08	00
3 (5001 to 7000 Rupees)	100	00	42.11	57.89	00
4 (7001 to 9000 Rupees)	100	00	88.24	11.76	00
5 (> 9001 Rupees)	100	00	96.55	3.45	00
Overall average	76.89	23.11	34.56	42.33	23.11

Source: Same as Table 5.1.

Table.5.36 illustrates the accessibility to electricity and electrical wiring connectivity amongst the Rental value categories in Nallagandla. The above table clearly shows that except the households belong to the lowest rental value groups, less than or equal to the 3000 rupees, all the households have access to electricity facility in Nallagandla. In the case of the type of electrical wiring connections, it varies among the rental value groups. Pertaining to the access to the Conduit type of electrical wiring connectivity, which is a symbol of the better living conditions, the highest rental value group, which is more than 9000 rupees households are the most with 96.55%, followed by the rental value group between 7001 and 9000 rupees and 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 88.24%, 42.11%, and 18.92% respectively. Conduit electrical wiring connectivity access has reduced from 96.55% in the highest rental value group, more than 9000 rupees, to 18.92% in a low rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees. It is evidence of the distribution of the quality of amenities based on the consumer capacity to pay.

Regarding the access to Fixed to wall type of electrical wiring connectivities, which is the low quality of electrical connectivity than the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity and better than the Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, the low rental value group, which is 3001 to 5000 rupees households are the most with 81.08%

and followed by the rental value group between 5001 and 7000 rupees, 7001 rupees and 9000 rupees and more than the 9000 rupees households with 57.89%, 11.76%, and 3.45%, respectively. It has reduced from 81.08% in the highest rental value group to 3.45% in the low rental value group, which is between 3001 and 5000 rupees. Finally, with reference to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, the lowest rental value group households, which is less than or equal to the 3000 rupees only access to it. Table.5.6 points out that the lowest rental value groups, which is less than 3000 rupees households, are in the worst place in access to electricity and type of electrical wiring connectivity. These households who have been residing in the low rental value groups are economically poor and cannot afford high rental housing with their meager wage and poverty. They always look for low rental housing, which deprives them of basic amenities. It witnesses the discriminative nature of development in urban India, depriving and denying poor households of the basic amenities and making their lives more vulnerable in Nallagandla.

Pertaining to the concentration of electricity among the rental value groups, it is least in the households belonging to the rental value group of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees with no household access to electricity facility. On the contrary, with reference to the concentration of access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, it is much in the rental value group of more than 9000 rupees households with 61.99% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group of less than or equal to the 3000 rupees and between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 34.56% and 15.64% less than the overall average, respectively.

Regarding the concentration of the Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity, it is much in the rental value group between 3001 and 5000 rupees households with 38.75% more than the overall average and least in the rental value group of more than the 9000 rupees households with 38.88% less than the overall average. Finally, in the case of concentration of access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it is the most in the less than or equal to the 3000 rupees with all the household access to only it.

5.5. Conclusion

It can be concluded from this chapter that there is a disparity and unevenness, discrimination in distribution of basic amenities among the households belonging to the various groups in Nallagandla. Mainly the households belong to the socially marginalized sections such as SCs and STs among the social categories, the Casual labourers among the Nature of employment, the lowest rental value households in rental value groups are the victims of urban development, which is exclusionary in nature. This suggests that urbanization has failed to correct the traditional socio-cultural disparities and has only reinforced these structural inequalities in the urban spaces with reference to access to and quality of basic amenities. Since the marginalized social groups also happen to be the largest section of the working poor in the urban areas, commercialization and marketization of basic amenities, has caused further refusal of basic amenities.

The above-mentioned households are in deplorable condition compared to all other sections of the society in Nallagandla. On the contrary, the concentration or polarization of the access to basic amenities and better amenities is restricted to a few households, especially among the groups belonging to; Other households among social groups, Regular wage workers and Other households in Nature of employment and highest rental value households which is more than 9000 rupees. This polarization of the access to and the quality of basic amenities indicates the absence of socially inclusive growth and exclusionary and discriminative tendency in urban development, which has resulted from the implementation of the neo liberal policies that encourage pay and use method.

Chapter 6

Discriminative distribution of Basic amenities among the various Settlements- A case study of Nallagandla

6.1. Introduction

With respect to the disparity in access to and the unevenness in the quality of basic amenities of households, the distributional structure does not only have a hierarchy in social structural terms as identified in the previous chapter but also a spatial hierarchy. This spatial hierarchy also does not get captured through the macro data, since in the macro-data a lot of important details are lost through the course of aggregations and further, the official data does not capture what are seen as illegal or temporary settlements. In the wake of increased rural distress, informalization and circular migration of labour, these micro-level details about spatial differentiation within the urban space has immense significance to the analysis of urbanization.

This chapter illustrates the households' access and distribution of basic amenities and quality of amenities by differentiating the settlements in Nallagandla. The study has found there are four types of settlements in Nallagandla;

1. Nallagandla Village,
2. Informal Settlement,
3. Rented Informal Settlements
4. Slum (recognized Slum).

Nallagandla village comes under proper urban administrative setup and planned

development area of the GHMC (Greater Hyderabad Municipality Corporation). However, the residential space can be differentiated on the basis of its legal status into two categories; first is that residential area of the Nallagandla village which has proper legal status with de-jure tenure security of ownership and legitimate spatiality for claims to public goods provisioning. The second one is Informal settlement which is an illegal settlement which only has a de-facto tenure and no legitimate claim to provisioning of public goods by the government (Gautam Bhan 2013), Bhan, G, Goswami, A and Revi, A. (2014). The absence of spatial legality denies residents of such settlements access to basic amenities.

The urban poor who can neither own nor rent space to have their own legitimate residence but who either play a substantial role in the production of value in the urban economy or who are engaged in a livelihood for earning their own subsistence, are legitimate citizens. To have a meaningful connect with development analysis, the urban area must imply not simply an occupational diversification or a swell in population or an administrative structure. Rather, underlying urbanization as development category there is a presumed connect between the diversification of employment into non-farm activities as a structural transformation, which suggests higher levels of productivity and incomes (Kuznets, 1989). Just the way physical infrastructure contributes to economies for the production economy (Lewis, 1978), basic amenities to human settlements can be seen as complementing the productivity of labour by ensuring hygiene and preventing vulnerability to morbidity, which could complexly connect to reinforcing persistence of chronic poverty and deprivation trap (Robert Chambers, 1983). This structural transformation in the economy is also associated improvements in structures of governance which in turn associated with much improved standards and quality of life in the urban spaces. Either as part of the objectives of developing urbanization in a substantial manner or as part of the moral obligation of a modern welfare state towards ensuring a minimum standard of living or as a mode of expansion of capabilities and opportunities (Amartya Sen, 1999), addressing the spatial differentiation challenges that cause disparities and unevenness in access to high quality basic amenities to all citizens as a metric and policy objective

of development becomes imperative. (Lewis, A.1978).

“Indian Constitution promises its people the Fundamental Right to reside and dwell in any portion of the territory of India (Article 19(1) (e)) as well as to move freely within the territory of India (Article 19(1) (d)). These rights have to be recite in the background of the Supreme Court of India’s validation of the case law confirming the Fundamental Right to Shelter as part of all Indian citizens’ fundamental right to life. Despite such guarantees, suitable accommodation, which which contains “sufficient living area and sustainable buildings, hygienic and decent atmosphere, appropriate light, clean air and water, electricity, drainage, and other municipal facilities, remains an unfulfilled dream.²⁹” Bhan, G. (2013) also argues that the failure of the planning has burgeoned the informal settlements aggravating the deprivation of access to and quality of basic amenities.

In Nallagandla, it can be clearly witnessed that there is no planned administrative set up to govern the informal and rented informal settlement; illegality and absence of the fundamental rights become inherent features of both settlements. As per the space concern, the informal settlement and rented informal settlements come under the territory of the urban governance, but as already mentioned, lack of both de jure tenure and spatial legality prevents them from accessing the basic amenities.

The third spatial distinction is that of Rented informal settlement, residents of this settlement pay rent for the land they have been dwelling on, and the landowners orally ensure permission to reside for a specific period, but there is no written agreement to claim by legality; it all depends on the faith and relation with the owner of the land.

The final spatial category is of recognized Slum. This basically means that the slum has been legitimized by the recognition of the slum by the GHMC (Greater Hyderabad

²⁹ “Chameli Singh and Others Etc. vs State U.P. And Another on 15 December, 1995”

Municipality). This slum therefore comes under the purview of urban governance, and therefore ensures de jure tenure security to the residents and legitimate claim to provisioning of basic amenities. However, in reality, even though the slum has been provided with all the services such as water, drainage, garbage collection arrangements, they are commercialized services, and the quality of those services is very low. Therefore, it needs to be noted that in Nallagandla, almost all the basic amenities have been commercialized. The studies of Soja (1980), Bardhan (1984), Sassen, S. (1998), Harvey, D. (2003), Marcuse, P. (2009), Chetterjee, I (2014), etc. argue that under the neo liberal policies or the new regime of global capitalism, the governance structure of the cities witness the introduction of new procedures in urban areas. Such changes in governance in the name of rationalization of access to basic amenities finally leads to commercialization of the basic amenities. The new institutional structures that are involved in the provisioning of the basic amenities following the neo liberal policy regime while claim to improve efficiency, in the final instance treat provisioning of basic amenities as a market and as an opportunity to make profits. This institutional transformation also transforms the basic amenities into private commodities, having significant consequences, especially to the urban poor, who don't have the ability to pay.

The study looks into the households' access to basic amenities such as drinking water, bathroom, latrine, drainage, garbage collection, housing and electricity and quality of amenities such as quality of drinking water, frequency of drinking water, type of bathroom, type of latrine, type of drainage, type of the housing structure, condition of the structure and, type of electrical wiring connectivity among the settlements in Nallagandla.

6.2. Access to the drinking water facility

This section of the chapter explains the households' access to various drinking water facilities, quality, frequency of supply, and distance travel for drinking facilities among the various settlements in Nallagandla. The sources of drinking water facility

contain the water supply by the Municipality, Private agencies, Own bore well, Owner provide, Private tanker and Worksite. Most of the sources of the drinking water are commercialized services in Nallagandla; the households have to pay for those.

Table 6.1. Proportion of households depends on the various source of drinking water in overall Nallagandla and among settlements in Nallagandla.

Sources of drinking water facility	Overall average/ in Overall Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Municipality	61.75	76.40	00	00	100
Private agency	7.97	8.07	00	53.85	00
Own bore well	9.16	14.29	00	00	00
Owner provide	1.20	1.24	00	00	00
Private tanker	15.54	00	86.67	00	00
Worksite	4.38	00	13.33	46.15	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Author calculation from primary data.

Table 6.1 describes accessibility to the source of drinking water facilities overall in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. The previous chapter has explained that in Nallagandla, the source of drinking facilities is Municipality, Private agencies, Private tankers, Own bore well, Worksite, Owner provides. Except for the worksite, all other sources of drinking water facilities have been charging the households. The Municipality charges Monthly around 260 rupees for the drinking water, and it supplies water on an alternative day. Pertaining to private agencies, they deliver drinking water facilities on the households' request and have been charging households 15 rupees for the 20 liters of the water tin. Another prime source of a drinking water facility is a Private tanker, mainly supplying the households deprived of the Municipality tap connection and unable to afford private agencies' water. The households who depend on the private tankers have to rely on the supplier to get water on time, and Private tanker supplies only when there is bulk demand for water and

generally supplies weekly. The households store the water for a week and consume it carefully without wasting water. It indicates the tragedy of urban development. It has been excluding and alienating households by commercialization and marketization of the basic amenities in the regime of new urbanism and urban gentrification.

Table 6.1 describes that an overall in Nallagandla Municipality is the top place in providing a source of drinking water facility with 61.75% and, followed by Private tankers, Own bore well, Private agency, Worksite, and Owner provide with 15.54%, 9.16%, 7.97% 4.38% and 1.20% respectively. The households depend on the various drinking water facilities in Nallagandla Village, which comes under the proper administrative setup considering part of the urban officials' Municipality and one of the major settlements in Nallagandla. The households in Nallagandla village depend mainly on the four types of sources for the drinking water facility: Municipality, Own bore well, Private agency, and the Owner provides. The Municipality is occupied first in providing drinking water to the households in Nallagandla village with 76.40%, followed by Own bore well, Private agency and Owners provide with 14.29%, 8.07%, and 1.24%, respectively. Pertaining to the Informal Settlement, which is squatter and formed on the vacant lands or roadsides in Nallagandla, it is always uncertain about the residence and lives in a suspicious and insecure environment and encounters threats from neighbors and officials of Nallagandla. The households belong to the Informal settlement mainly depending on the two types of drinking water sources; the Private tankers and Worksite. The 86.67% of the households belonging to the Informal Settlement depends on the Private tanker for the drinking water facility and, followed by the Worksite and Owner provides 11.8% and 4%, respectively. It clearly illustrates that the households that belong to the Informal settlements have not been accessing the Municipality drinking water and depend on the Private tankers for the drinking water facility, which supplies for high prices and weekly once. The households have to store the water for a week and consume water since the Private water tanker only provides bulk. Pertaining to the Worksite as a source of drinking water facility, the households who depend on this type of drinking water facility reside at the near worksite only and consume water available or used at the worksite

irrespective of water quality free of cost. But these households have to be loyal to the worksite employer and go to work whenever they need them; if they do not go to their work, they object to getting water from the worksite. It is evidence of the indirect form of exploitation by alienating them from a choice of work.

Regarding the households belonging to the Rented informal settlement, who have been paying rents for the land they have been residing on, it is an informal agreement with the landowner. The households have been paying 700 rupees for a hut. The households living in the Rented Informal settlement mainly depend on the two sources for drinking water facility, namely, Private agencies and Worksite with 53.85% and 46.15%, respectively. Lastly, in the Slum, a recognized slum in the Nallagandla, all the households depend on the Municipal drinking water facility. It table displays that the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement households are in the poor or bad situation compared to all other households. Most of them have depended on Private agencies and Private tankers, charging high prices for the drinking water facility. The Informal settlement households have been relying on the Private tanker worse than the rest of the households where they have to pay a high price for the irregular and low water quality.

However, when it comes to the concentration of access to drinking water facilities from the Municipality among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is highest more in the households belong to the Slum, where all the household access to drinking water from the Municipality 38.25% more than the overall average and followed by households belong to the Nallagandla village with 14.65%. Regarding the concentration or polarization of access to drinking water from the Private agencies, it concentrates mostly in the Rented informal settlement households with 45.88% more than the overall average. The polarization or concentration access to drinking water facility from the Own bore well and Owner provides are in the only with households belong to Nallagandla village. Regarding the access to the drinking water facility from the Worksite, it is more in the households belonging to the Rented informal settlement with 41.77% more than the overall average. Finally, with reference to the

concentration or polarization of the drinking water facility from the Private tanker is only with Informal settlement households in Nallagandla.

Table 6.2: Proportion of households access to treated and untreated drinking water facilities among the Settlements in Nallagandla.

Treatment of Drinking water	Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal Settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Treated water	78.88	98.76	00	53.85	100
Untreated	21.12	1.24	100	46.15	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.2 shows the households' accessibility to Treated and Untreated drinking water facilities among the settlements in Nallagandla. With reference to the access to Treated drinking water facility, it is more in the Slum households with all of them access to Treated drinking water facility followed by the households belong to the Nallagandla village with 98.76%, Rented informal settlement with 53.85% respectively. The households belong to the Informal settlement are in the last place, as compared to the other settlement with no access to treated drinking water facility. On the contrary, pertaining to the household access to Untreated drinking water facility, it is more in the Informal settlement households with all household access to it only and followed by the households belonging to the Rented informal settlement and Nallagandla village with 46.15% and 1.24% respectively.

However, the concentration of Treated drinking water facility among the settlements in Nallagandla is the highest in the households belong to the Slum and Nallagandla village with 21.12% and 19.88% more than the overall average and least in the Informal settlement households with no access to Treated drinking water facilities. In other terms, the concentration of Untreated drinking water facility is more in the Informal settlement with all household access to it, which is 78.88% more than the

overall average and least in the Slum and Nallagandla with 21.12% and 19.88% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 6.3: Proportion of households fetches drinking water from various distances in overall Nallagandla and among settlements in Nallagandla.

How far do you have to travel to fetch drinking water	Overall average / Overall in Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Within premises	85.26	99.38	20	00	100
Outside the premises but less than 200meters	0.40	00	2.22	100	00
Outside the premises but more than 200meters less than 500 meters	0.80	0.62	2	00	00
More than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer	12.75	00	22	00	00
More than 1 kilometer	0.80	00	71.11	00	00
Total	100	00	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table.6.3 illustrates the households fetching drinking water from various distances in Overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. It can be observed from the above table that 85.26% of the households in an overall Nallagandla fetch water within premises. Only 0.40%, 0.80% of the households going outside the premises but less than 200 meters and outside the premises more than 200 meters but less than 500 meters. Still, many households have been going more than 500 meters, but less than 1 kilometer is 12.75 %. Lastly, the households who go to more than 1 kilometer also is 0.80% only. The scenario varies Pertaining to settlements. In the Nallagandla Village case, almost all the households with 99.38% have been accessing water within premises. Only 0.62% of the households are going outside the premises, which is more than 200 meters and less than 500 meters for the drinking water facilities.

On the contrary, the households belong to the Informal Settlement; 71.11% fetch drinking water from more than 500 meters, indicating vulnerable conditions at the informal settlement in Nallagandla. Still, 4.4% of households go to more than 1 kilometer to fetch drinking water, and only 20% of the households get water facilities with premises in the Settlements. The households residing in the Informal settlements has no drinking water tap connections, depending on the Private tankers and Worksite. The Private tankers do not supply water into the settlement; they mostly hold the tanker at the roadside or Nallagandla center; the households have to carry water to the settlements from the Nallagandla center. Whereas the households belong to the Rented Informal settlement, all the households fetch the water outside the premises but less than 200 meters. Finally, in the Slum, all the households get water within the premises. The earlier table has explained that all the households belong to the Slum to access the Municipality water, which supplies water into the premises. Still, they have to pay for it every month.

The above table clearly shows that the households belonging to the Informal settlements are vulnerable among the settlements and the households belonging to this settlement have to spend more time fetching drinking water facilities because most households have to travel more than 500 meters, but less than 1 kilometer fetch drinking water facility. Table 6.3 indicates that the households fetch drinking water facilities within the premises indicates the high standard of lifestyle. In such a case, the Nallagandla village households are far better than all others. The households that belong to Informal Settlements are in the worst place and have no access to drinking water within premises and most of them travel more than 500 meters for drinking water facilities.

Pertaining to the concentration or polarization of access to drinking water facilities from the Within premises among settlements is mostly in the Slums and Nallagandla village households with 14.74% and 14.12% more than the overall average. Whereas regarding the concentration of drinking water facilities from outside the premises but less than 200 meters, it is in the Rented Informal settlement, all the households fetch

the water outside the premises but less than 200 meters. Regarding the concentration of households' access to drinking water facilities Outside the premises but more than 500 meters but less than 1 kilometer and Outside the premises but more than 1-kilometer is concentrated with the Informal settlement households only.

Table 6.4. Proportion of households access to type frequencies of the drinking water facility overall Nallagandla and among settlements in Nallagandla.

Frequency	Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal Settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Every day	22.71	23.60	13.33	100	00
Alternative day	61.75	76.40	00	00	100
Weekly or more than five days	15.54	00	86.67	00	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table.6.4 shows the households' access to the frequency of drinking water facilities in overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. Overall in Nallagandla, 61.75% of the households access the drinking water facility an alternative day, 22.71% and 15.54% access to every day and weekly or more than five days. It varies Pertaining to the Settlements. In Nallagandla village, 76.40% of the households access drinking water facilities an alternative day, and 23.60% access to every day. The households' access to drinking water facilities every day mostly depends on the Private agencies and their Bore well for drinking water facilities.

On the contrary, 86.67% of the households depend on Private tankers for the drinking water facility in the Informal settlement and the Private water tanker for supplies water only when there is high demand is more than one tanker and is not concerned about the quality of water and supplies at high prices. The households that belong to the Informal settlement highly depend on the Private water tanker for drinking water

facilities, making them vulnerable in terms of quality even though they pay high prices, and households have to be submissive to the suppliers and compromise with water quality. For the rest of the households in the Informal settlement, 13.33% access drinking water facilities every day, but they get the water from the worksite, which is not good in quality. In most cases, the water is salty and stored water.

When it comes to the Rented informal settlements, all the households access the frequency of drinking water every day. But the households in Rented settlements mainly depend on the Private agencies and Worksite. Finally, in the case of the households that belong to the Slum, all the households access the frequency of drinking water an alternative day. On the contrary, Slum households, which a recognized slum, depend on the Municipality for drinking water facility and store the water for the subsequent day for consumption.

It is seen from Table 6.4 that most of them belong to the Informal settlements have been getting drinking water for a week or more than five days. The households belonging to the Informal settlement are vulnerable; they do not regularly access drinking water facilities. They have to consume stored and low-quality water. It indicates the uneven distribution of basic amenities in Nallagandla and the exclusive nature of the urban development.

With reference to the concentration of access to drinking water facilities every day among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is more in the households belonging to the Rented informal settlement with 77.29% more than the overall average and least in the Slum households with no household access to it. In the case of the concentration of the access to drinking water facility an alternative day, it is more in the Slum and Nallagandla Village households with 38.25% and 14.65% more than the overall average. Finally, when it comes to the concentration of the drinking water facility once in a More than Five days/Weekly is concentrated in the Informal settlement households with all of them access it only.

Table 6.5: Proportion of households finds a defect in the quality of water in overall Nallagandla and among settlements in Nallagandla.

Quality of water	Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal Settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Defect in quality of water	82.47	77.64	97.78	46.15	100
No defect in the quality of water	17.53	22.36	2.22	53.85	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.5 illustrates the households' access to the quality of drinking water facilities overall in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. An overall, in Nallagandla, the households' access defect in water quality, 82.47% have been consuming defective drinking water and only 17.53% consuming water with no defect in quality. The defect in water quality means the water which is bad in taste, color, and smell. Regarding the households finding a defect in water quality in Nallagandla village, 77.64% consume defect water, and only 22.36% drink water without any defect. The Informal Settlement is worse than Nallagandla village; 97.78% of the households consume defective quality water, and only 2.22% consume water without any defect. Regarding households belonging to the Rented Informal settlement, 46.15% consume defective water facilities, and only 53.85% consume without any defect in drinking water. Finally, the Slum has 100% of the households that consume defective quality drinking water; it is known that the Slum households have access to the Municipality water, even though Municipality has been supplying treated water, there is a problem with the water supply system, most of the tap connections go through the gutters or drainage premises and also encountering leakage issues.

However, when it comes to the concentration of access to defect in the quality of drinking water among the Settlements in Nallagandla, it is more in Slum households

with 17.53% more than the overall average and least in the Rented informal households with 36.32% less than the overall average. On the other way round, the concentration of the access to No defect in the quality of drinking water is more in the Rented informal households with 36.32% more than the overall average and least in the Slum households with 17.53% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

6.3. Access to bathroom, Latrine, Drainage, and Garbage facility among various settlements in Nallagandla

This section elucidates the households' access to the bathroom, latrine, garbage, and drainage system in overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. This section describes the households' accessibility to amenities and quality of amenities among the settlements in the era of the commercialization of basic amenities, which has shifted responsibility for providing civics amenities to the private agencies and residential welfare associations' profit-oriented institutions (Smitha 2010). The households that belong to the Informal settlement, Rented informal settlement, and Slums have been deprived of access to amenities and better quality amenities, which point to the bad lifestyle, and the poor living conditions.

6.3.1. Access to bathroom facilities among the various groups in Nallagandla.

This section depicts households' access to bathroom facilities and the types of bathroom facilities available in Nallagandla as a whole and in separate settlements. Attached and detached bathroom facilities are the two types of bathroom facilities. A greater quality of life is associated with having access to an attached bathroom facility rather than a detached bathroom facility. The lack of access to a bathroom mirrors the worst aspects of the lifestyle and living situations. It is often understood that getting access to a bathroom is a gesture of self-dignity. The restroom facility has been denied to houses in the Informal Settlements and Rented Informal Settlements in Nallagandla; this is a clear evidence of the exclusive nature of the urban development,

which prioritizes the commercialization of basic facilities.

Table 6.6. Proportion of households access to bathroom and type of bathroom facilities in overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Settlements	Bathroom	No Bathroom	Type of Bathroom	
			Attached	Detached
Nallagandla village	99.38	0.62	36.25	63.75
Informal Settlement	00	100	00	00
Rented Informal Settlement	00	100	00	00
Slum	100	00	00	100
Overall average / Overall in Nallagandla	76.49	23.51	30.21	69.79

Source: Same as Table 6.1

Table.6.6 describes the accessibility to bathroom and kind of bathroom facilities in Nallagandla among the settlements. Overall, in Nallagandla, 76.49% of the households access the bathroom facility, and 23.51% do not have the bathroom facility. The households have to get a bath in the open places and depend on the temporary bathroom made by old clothes or plastic posters and banners used mainly by females in households and males in the house do open bathing late nights only. The households with no bathroom facilities have to bath very early morning or night to avoid their residents' crowd. It is a clear indication of the exclusive nature of urbanization resulting from the new urban policies, sharpening socioeconomic disparities and socio-spatial exclusion of marginalized groups, and paving the anti-welfare policies that hamper civic amenities and improve the quality of life. Pertaining to households belonging to the Nallagandla village, 99.38% access the bathroom facility, and only 0.62% do not. It entirely varies in the Informal and Rented Informal settlements, no households have bathroom, and they get a bath in the open places or temporary bathroom which made by Plastic covers and posters, and old clothes and most of the men do get a bath in open place only as it explained earlier.

Regarding the access to the type of bathroom facility overall in Nallagandla, only

30.21% of the households access the Attached bathroom facility, and 53.92% of households access the detached bathroom facility. Pertaining to the Nallagandla village, only 36.25% of the households access the Attached bathroom facility, and 63.75% of the Detached bathroom facility. It is already known that the households belonging to the Informal and Rented Informal settlement do not have access to bathroom facilities. All the households that belong to the Slum have access to only a Detached bathroom facility and do not have access to the Attached bathroom facility. It can be witnessed from the above table that only a few households have access to attached bathroom facilities. Pertaining to the households belonging to the Informal Settlement, and Rented Informal settlement does not have a bathroom facility. It shows the vulnerability and low quality of life and the exclusive tendency for Informal and Rented informal settlers who are more vulnerable and economically weaker than other settlements in the era of rapid urbanization, which always claims and emphasizes inclusive growth and promises a better quality of life and infrastructure facility.

However, regarding the concentration of the access to bathroom facility among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is more in the Slum, and Nallagandla village households with 23.51% and 22.89% more than the overall average, respectively and least in the Informal and Rented informal settlement households with no access to bathroom facility. On the contrary, pertaining to the concentration of the No bathroom facility, it is the most with the Informal and Rented informal settlement households with all households no access to bathroom facility, which is 76.49% more than the overall average in Nallagandla. Regarding the concentration of the Attached bathroom facility, it is the ranked first in the households belonging to the Nallagandla village with 6.04% more than the overall average. Finally, with reference to the concentration of the access to Detached bathroom facility, it is more in the Slum households with 30.21% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

6.3.2. Access to Latrine in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

This section concentrates on latrine access and the types of latrine facilities in Nallagandla as a whole, as well as in specific Settlements in Nallagandla. There are two types of latrine facilities: 1. exclusive use latrine facilities and 2. Common use latrine facilities. Exclusive use of a latrine facility suggests a higher quality of life and living situation in Nallagandla than common usage of a latrine facility. Finally, it depicts households without a latrine, which is a symbol of the poorest living conditions. This section focuses on households' access to latrine facilities in the context of elite-centric development, commercialization, and privatization, which has a negative impact on affordable housing and basic services.

Table 6.7. Proportion of households access to latrine and type of latrine facilities in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Settlements	Latrine	No Latrine	Type of Latrine	
			Common Latrine	Exclusive latrine
Nallagandla village	96.27	3.73	63.87	36.13
Informal Settlement	0	100	0	0
Rented Informal Settlement	0	100	0	0
Slum	100	0	100	0
Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	70.05	29.95	74.05	29.95

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.7 shows the accessibility to latrine and type of latrine facilities among the settlements in Nallagandla. Pertaining to the overall in Nallagandla, 70.05% of the households access to the latrine facility, and 29.95 % do not have access to the latrine facility and have to depend on the open defecation since there are no other alternatives such as the public toilet and private toilets in the Nallagandla. In the case of households belonging to the Nallagandla village, 96.27% have access to latrine facilities, and only 3.73% do not have access to latrine facilities. In the Informal and

Rented Informal settlements, no households have access to the latrine facility; all of them go for open defecation. Women and girls are the worst sufferers of denial of the latrine facility. They have to go for open defecation at midnight or very early morning since it is an issue of self-respect and dignity, and it has also led to some health complications. Finally, in the households that belong to Slum, all the households access a latrine facility. It can be observed from the above table that rapid growth of the urbanization and urban administrative setup do not have any inclusive mechanism and proper organizational setup to address the issues of informal settlers and migrants in Nallagandla.

Table 6.7 also shows the accessibility to the type of latrine facility. Pertaining to Overall, in Nallagandla, 74.05% of the households access the Common latrine facility, and only 29.95% access the Exclusive use of latrine facility, which shows a better standard of living. On the contrary, regarding access to the type of latrine facility amongst the settlement, in Nallagandla village, 63.87% of the households' access to the Common latrine facility and only 36.13% access to the Exclusive use latrine facility. It has been explained that households belonging to the Informal Settlement and Rented Informal settlement go to open defecation; no households have access to latrine facilities. Finally, with reference to the Slum, all the have access to only a Common latrine facility, and none is access to an exclusive use latrine facility.

Regarding the concentration of access to Latrine facility among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is more in the households belong to the Slum and Nallagandla village with 29.95% and 26.22% more than the overall average and least in the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement households with no household access to latrine facility. Pertaining to the concentration of Common latrine facility, it is more in the Slum households with 25.95% more than the overall average. Lastly, the concentration of Exclusive use of latrine facility, it more in the Nallagandla village households with 6.18% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

6.3.3. Access to drainage and type of drainage facilities in overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

This section explains the households' access to drainage and the type of drainage systems overall in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. Access to a drainage system symbolizes a hygienic environment that positively impacts household health and living condition. Pertaining to the type of drainage systems in Nallagandla, there are three: Open pucca, Open Katcha, and Underground drainage system. Regarding the quality of life, access to the Underground drainage facility indicates a high quality of life than the Open katcha and open pucca. Finally, No access to drainage facilities is a symbol of the poor living condition in Nallagandla.

Table 6.8: Proportion of households access to the drainage system overall in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Settlements	Drainage	No Drainage	Type of drainage		
			Open Katcha	Open Pucca	Underground
Nallagandla village	60.25	39.75	14.89	54.26	30.85
Informal Settlement	00	100	00	00	00
Rented Informal Settlement	00	100	00	00	00
Slum	100	00	43.75	56.25	00
Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	51.39	48.61	22.22	54.76	23.02

Source: Same as Table 6.1

Table 6.8 shows the access to drainage and the type of drainage facilities overall in Nallagandla and among settlements in Nallagandla. In Nallagandla, 51.39% of the households' access to drainage, and 48.61% do not have access to the drainage system. On the contrary, access to drainage system among the settlements, Nallagandla village has 60.25% of the households' access to drainage connections, and 39.75% do not have drainage connections. In the Informal and Rented Informal settlements, no household accesses to the drainage system. Still, Pertaining to the slum, all access to

the drainage facility.

With reference to access to the type of drainage systems in overall Nallagandla, it is noticed from table 6.8 that only 23.02% of the households access the Underground drainage facility. It is well known that access to an Underground drainage facility represents a decent and healthy living style. On the contrary, most households in Nallagandla access Open katcha and Open pucca, which signify the low living standards and lifestyle, consisting 76.98%. It can be concluded that rapid urban growth is not a healthy and hygienic growth where most households are not accessed to drainage and better quality of drainage facilities.

Regarding the households' access to the type of drainage systems among the settlements in Nallagandla village, 54.26% access to Open pucca drainage system, 30.85% access to the Underground drainage system, and 14.89% access to the Open katcha drainage system. On the contrary, No household in the Informal settlements and Rented informal settlements have access to drainage facilities. Finally, in the case of the Slum, 56.25% of the households access the Open pucca drainage system, and 43.75% access the Open katcha drainage system. It can be concluded from Table 6.8 that among the settlements in Nallagandla, the condition of the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement households are impoverished and vulnerable in terms of access to the drainage facilities. However, in other settlements, namely, Nallagandla village and Slum, many households access Open katcha and Open pucca drainage systems that replicate the low poor lifestyle and living standards.

Moreover, regarding concentration of access to drainage facility among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is more the Slum households with 48.61% more than the overall average and least in the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement households with no households access to drainage facility in Nallagandla. Regarding the concentration of access to the Open katcha and Open pucca drainage facilities, it is the most in the Slum households with 21.53%, 1.49% more than the overall average, respectively. Lastly, with reference to the concentration of access to the Underground drainage facility, it is more in the households belonging to the

Nallagandla village with 7.83% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

6.3.4. Access to garbage collection arrangement in overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

This section of the chapter describes households' access to the garbage collection arrangements in overall Nallagandla and among settlements in Nallagandla. The garbage collections in Nallagandla have mainly been arranged by the Municipality. The Municipality has been charging 100 rupees for a month to collect the garbage from the house. The households have been paying the monthly 100 rupees only access to the Municipality's garbage collection arrangements. The households incapable of paying the monthly denies access to the garbage collection arrangements made by the Municipality. It indicates the commercialization of the civic amenities by using the pay and use method, depriving the poor and marginalized section of the society of access to basic amenities. The households that belong to the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlements are the worst suffers in terms of access to the garbage collection arrangements.

Table 6.9: Proportion of households access to Garbage connection arrangements in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Garbage collection arrangements	Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal Settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Yes	62.15	88.82	0	0	40.63
No	37.85	11.18	100	100	59.38
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.9 shows the households' access to the garbage connection in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. Overall, Nallagandla has 62.15% of the households access to garbage connection arrangements and 38.13% no access to

garbage connection arrangements. Regarding garbage connection arrangements in Nallagandla village, 88.82% of the households' access to the garbage connection arrangements only 11.18% do not have access to the garbage connection arrangements. In the Informal Settlement and Rented Informal settlement case, no households accessed the garbage connection arrangements. No access to the garbage connection arrangements forces the household to adopted method such as they have to through their garbage in open places and fire it in open areas.

Finally, in the households belonging to the Slum, only 36.88% access garbage connection arrangements, and 63.12% do not have access to garbage connection arrangements. However, regarding the concentration or polarization of access to Garbage collection arrangement among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is the highest in the Nallagandla village households with 26.67% more than the overall average. On the contrary, with reference to the concentration of the No access to the Garbage collection arrangement, it is more in the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement households, where no households access to garbage collection arrangement with 62.15% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

6.4. The Structure and Condition of housing and electricity facility in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

This section of the chapter explains the households' access to the type of housing structure, condition of the structure, electricity, and electrical wiring types in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. The structure of the house has been divided into three types; Hut, Tin roof, and Concrete. The access to Hut is a replica of the worst living condition and lifestyles. On the contrary, the Tin roof type structure signifies better living conditions than the Hut. Finally, the Concrete type of structure indicates better living conditions than the rest of the structures.

The condition of the house structure is divided into three types based habitable of the

house; 1. Good, 2. Satisfactory, and 3. Bad condition of the house. "If the structure did not require any immediate repairs, major or minor, it was considered in 'Good' condition. If the structure required immediate minor repairs but not major repairs, it was considered in 'Satisfactory' condition. If the structure of the building required immediate major repairs without which it might be unsafe for habitation or required to be demolished and rebuilt, it was considered as in 'Bad' condition."³⁰(NSSO, 69th round, 2012, peg.no.54). Finally, in the electrical wiring connectivity case, there are three types; 1. Conduit, 2. Fixed to the wall and, 3. Temporary. Access to the Conduit electrical wiring connectivity signifies a good life or better living conditions or lifestyle. Access to Fixed to the wall is considered low living standard than the conduit type of electrical wiring. Lastly, access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity indicates the worst living conditions and lifestyle in Nallagandla.

Table 6.10: Proportion of households access to the type of housing structure in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Type of the structure	Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	Various Settlements			
		Nallagandla village	Informal Settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Hut	24.30	1.86	100	100	00
Tin roof	40.64	43.48	00	00	100
Concrete	35.06	54.66	00	00	00
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.10 displays the households' access to the structure of the house in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla and in overall Nallagandla, most households reside in Tin roof, which is 40.64%, followed by Concrete and Hut with 35.06% and 24.30%, respectively. Regarding access to the structure of the house

³⁰“NSS Report No. 556: Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition in India, 69th round, 2012”.

among the settlements, in the Nallagandla village, the households' access to the Concrete structure is the most with 43.48%, followed by the Tin roof and Hut 43.48% and 1.86%, respectively. In the case of households that belong to Informal Settlement and Rented Informal settlement, all the households inhabit the Hut only. Finally, the households belonging to Slum 100% of the households reside in the Tin roof. It undoubtedly explains that most households belong to Informal Settlement, Rented Informal settlement, and Slum lives in the poor quality housing structure in Nallagandla. The households belonging to Informal Settlement and Rented Informal settlement dwell in the highly insecure and low-level structure of the house in Nallagandla. The speedy urbanization has exorbitant rental housing prices. Simultaneously, elite-centric sky rising building at unaffordable prices has compelled households to resort to low-quality housing, namely Hut and Tin roof housing. The marginalized sections of society are mainly victims of these exorbitant housing prices. Most of them have been looking at the squatters and slums for shelter, primarily offering low-quality housing with low rental prices.

About the concentration of access to Hut type of structure among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is in the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement households, where all the households have been residing in the Hut, with 75.7% more than the overall average. Regarding the concentration of access to Tin roof type of the structure, it is the highest in Slum households with 59.36%. Finally, in the case of concentration of the access to Concrete type of structure, it is more in the Nallagandla village households with 19.6% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 6.11: Proportion of households access to type condition of the structure in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Condition of the structure	Overall average/ Overall in Nallagandla	Nallagandla village	Informal Settlement	Rented Informal Settlement	Slum
Good	38.65	60.25	00	00	00
Satisfactory	20.32	24.84	00	00	34.38
Bad	41.04	14.91	100	100	65.63
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.11 shows households' access to conditions of the structure in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. The Good condition of the structure is a sign of a higher living conditions and quality of life. The Bad condition of the structure indicates the worst condition of the living style. In Nallagandla, only 38.65% of households have been residing in Good conditions of the structure, and 41.04% in Bad conditions of the structure. Finally, only 20.32% of the households have been residing in the satisfactory condition of the structure.

Regarding the Nallagandla village, 60.25% of the households have access to Good conditions of the structure, followed by Satisfactory and Bad conditions of the structures with 24.84% and 14.91%, respectively. In the Informal Settlement and Rented Informal settlement, all the households have been residing in Bad conditions of the structure. Lastly, in the Slum, 65.63% of the households have been living in Bad conditions of the structure, followed by Satisfactory conditions of structure with 34.38%. The rapid growth of urbanization and the new urban policies have not benefited and included the vulnerable sections of the society; namely, the households that belong to Informal settlements, Rented informal settlements compared to others.

However, pertaining to the concentration of access to Good conditions of the structure among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is the most in the households belonging to the Nallagandla village with 21.6% more than the overall average. Regarding the

concentration of access to the Satisfactory conditions of the structure, it is the highest in the Slum and Nallagandla village households with 14.06% and 4.52% more than the overall average, respectively. Lastly, regarding the concentration of the access to Bad conditions of the structure, it is in the Informal and Rented settlements households with 58.96% more than the overall average and least in the Nallagandla households with 26.13% less than the overall average in Nallagandla.

Table 6.12: Proportion of households access to the electricity and type of electricity wiring connectivity facilities in Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla.

Nature of Employment groups	Electricity	No Electricity	Type of electrical wiring		
			Conduit	Fixed to the wall	Temporary
Nallagandla village	100	0	54.04	45.96	0
Informal Settlement	0	100	0	0	100
Rented Informal Settlement	0	100	0	0	100
Slum	100	0	0	100	0
Overall average/Overall in Nallagandla	76.89	23.11	34.56	42.33	23.11

Source: Same as Table 6.1.

Table 6.12 shows the access to electricity and type of electricity wiring connection in overall Nallagandla and among the settlements in Nallagandla. Overall in Nallagandla, 76.89% of the households access electricity facilities, 23.11% do not have electricity facilities. Pertaining to households' access to electricity facilities among the Settlements, in Nallagandla village, all the households access electricity facilities. On the contrary, no households access the electricity facility in the Informal and Rented Informal settlements. Finally, the households that belong to Slum all access the electricity facility. The households belong to the Informal Settlement, and the Rented Informal settlements that do not have electricity connections depend on the temporary electricity connection, which is illegal. Still, they do not have any alternative to this. They have to bribe the officials related to the electricity department to avoid interruption in supplying electricity facilities.

In Nallagandla, most households access to Fixed to the wall is the most with 42.33%, followed by the Conduit electrical wiring and Temporary connectivities with 34.56% and 23.11%, respectively. On the contrary, in the Nallagandla village, 54.04% of the households access Conduit electrical wiring connectivity, followed by the Fixed to wall electrical wiring connectivity with 45.96%. It is already well known that all the households belonging to Informal and Rented Informal settlements do not access electricity facilities; they all resort to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity. In the case of households that belong to the Slum, all households access Fixed to the wall electrical wiring facility. It can be concluded from Table 6.12 that most of the households belong to Informal settlements, and Rented informal settlements have been living in a vulnerable condition compared to all other settlements and the new urban policies could not facilitate the electricity facility to all households; the households in the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement have been excluded from the basic amenities. They have not formed a space for the households who have tirelessly contributed to urban development.

Regarding the concentration access to electricity facility among the settlements in Nallagandla, it is the most in the households belong to the Nallagandla village and Slum with 23.11% more than the overall average and least in the Informal and Rented informal settlement households with no household access to electricity facility, which is 76.89% less than the overall average in Nallagandla. Moreover, the concentration of access to Conduit electrical wiring connectivity is the highest in the Nallagandla village households, with 19.48% more than the overall average. Pertaining to the concentration of Fixed to the wall electrical wiring connectivity, most in Slum households with 57.47% more than the overall average. Lastly, regarding the concentration of access to Temporary electrical wiring connectivity, it is more in the Informal and Rented informal households with all the household access to it, which is 76.89% more than the overall average in Nallagandla.

6.5. Conclusion

It can be concluded from the chapter that access to basic amenities and quality of amenities has not been distributed equally among the households belonging to the various settlement. The households belonging to the Nallagandla village are far better than the other settlements in Nallagandla. The households who have been residing in the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement are the worst sufferers in terms of access to basic amenities. Most households who cannot afford the high rental housing have been looking for informal and rented informal settlements for shelter, and most of them belong to the socially and economically weaker sections and are a vital contributor to the city's development. Still, no household in Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement access Municipality drinking water, bathroom, latrine, drainage, garbage collection arrangements, better housing, and permanent electricity facility, and better amenities are not even come under their preview. It is evidence of deprivation and exclusion of the households belonging to the Informal settlement and rented Informal settlement in Nallagandla and indicates the absence of inclusive development resulting from the rapid increase in the IT sector and real estate boom, and new liberal policies.

Regarding the concentration or polarization of access to basic amenities among settlements in Nallagandla, it is mostly concentrated in Nallagandla village and Slum households. It indicates relative deprivation and exclusion of the other settlement from the access. On the contrary, pertaining to the concentration of access to better amenities namely Attached bathroom, Exclusive use of latrine, underground drainage, Concrete structure, Good condition of the structure, Conduit electricity facilities have concentrated mostly in Nallagandla village households, as compared to other settlements, which is clear indication of the exclusion of other settlements from access to better quality amenities.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

The existing literatures on peri urban development investigated the peri urban or sub urban by problematizing issues such as affordable housing to the urban low-income and middle-class people; Schnore, L. (1957), Douglass, H.P. (1925), Clapson, M. (2003), and Thorns, D. (1972). Some have undertaken the study of discriminative developmental outcomes by taking variables such as income, family status, density, housing, age, and ethnicity factors; Forsyth A. (2012) and Bassett, E.M. (2007).

According to Kundu, A. (2005), Malik, C. (2009), and Krishnankutty, M. (2018), urban city centres and Metropolitan areas are pushing the low - income residents to the outskirts. As a result, industries are already being relocated to the periphery of town due to the rising costs of land prices in core metropolitan centers, and the benefits are being reaped through cost cutting, even though violations of rules and regulations is more in peri urban areas where administrative oversight is relatively lower". The urban centers can be seen as entities externalizing their problems to the periphery. On the other hand, local urban governance bodies as well as Private real estate developers, have been very active in pressuring the poor to leave the city; this persuasion could also involve and successful through the attractive incentives such as the provisioning of built-houses for the poor in the peripheries.

The 74th Constitutional Amendment was crucial to urban governance since it allowed for varying levels of amenities to be provided based on the willingness of users to pay at the level of towns and ward committees. Given the enormous economic inequalities, this change leads to an institutionalized discrepancy in accessibility of basic services and strengthened the cities' process of division into poor and rich colonies. Some scholars say that this strategy, which is operationalized through the market and as well as supported by government

initiatives, has had a negative impact on population inflow into cities' central areas. (Kundu, A. 2003 and Kundu, D. 2011). This led to concentrated development and regionalism. There have been distributing trends and increasing evidence of the city's poor experiencing growing spatial and socially unjust. On the other side, intervention of private agencies into urban governance increased in the number of homeless. Urban homeless are predominately those who have escaped from rural deprivation and oppression, providing all forms of labour to the urban economy without protection to their body or dignity (Dupont, 2011).

Kennedy, L. (2007), Sood. A, (2019), Ruparelia, S. (2015) and Modi, N (2014) have shown how the new form of governance in the urban Peripheries, which believes in “minimum government, maximum governance” has impacted regional industrial policies in the urban peripheries. They recognized urban peripheries as laboratory for the new neo liberal urban governance models. This specialized governance mechanism transfers the rights and duties of rural and urban local governments to a private institute.

In additions, World Bank and international development agencies have emphasized privatizing urban basic amenities such as water provision and waste management to make them efficient. Different public services that are not profitable are made to involve non-governmental organizations (Susan E. Chaplin; 1999). Urban places have been witnessing continual change; in the process of adjustment, some sectors saw exclusion, and the constant change subserved other sectors. Traditional structures of social provisioning based on rights were replaced by what were purportedly innovative in the assessment of the World Bank driven by the dynamics of demand, supply and regulated by market prices.

The idea of urban and core task of the urban city is to provide the framework for the dynamic changes which provide space for the smooth functioning of the external markets. Liberalization, macroeconomic reforms have strengthened external market links and led to privatization of public sector units and restructuring city planning development. In the same way, the market for housing

and land expanded very rapidly. Increased global competition forced the markets to deal with multiple activities; for example, large infrastructure industries needed to depend on the law, advertising, sales, research, and development in marketing their products. A higher proportion of the labor force output is required to migrate. At the same time, there is an expansion of the tertiary sector such as health, education, information and communication, and software programming (Harris, N; 2003 and Pott. D; 2013).

Neo liberal policies have shown high impact on the urban restructuring and governance, it reduced the role of the state through interventionist welfare policies. State driven development strategies shifted to market laissez-faire strategies. Urban in developing nations witnessed high inflow of financial capital in the form of the PPP (Public Private Partnership) Harvey. D, (2003). The capital which has entered leads to a specific expanded reproduction of value-based development strategy to autonomously continue in society; it should expand with the intrinsic idea of secular and non-satiating profit maximization at the end of the day. Expansion of financial capital deliberately decreases government role for an increased role of market in determining the flow of capital; it widens the disparity between poor and rich, because of reinforcing and accentuating unequal and concentration in the distribution of financial capital. The capital that has entered into urbanization is profit-oriented and builds the high valued elite and upper classes' cities only. It is making the towns for the capital only and subserving the requirements of capital.

On the contrary, New Public Management (NPM) strategies have been developed where minimum role of state in decision making has shifted to private agencies. Prasad, R. N. (2008), Falk, R. (2000), Held, D. (1995), Swyngedouw. E (2000) argues that globalization and Neo-liberal policies are de-enfranchising the citizens from decision making. It has been transforming power of decision making in structuring cities away from democratic governance to the market and especially to big corporations. Agencies like the world trade organizations World Bank, and International monetary fund which promote this model, it is argued therefore,

finally lead to disenfranchisement, authoritarianism and imperial democracy. The shifting of the local state governance to the governance bodies which means semi or quasi state organizations managed by private bodies, also shifted the power of decision making out of the urban electorate. The new model of urbanization is focused to concentrate on the supply side interventions rather than the demand side, new ideologies and managerial strategies were adopted by the new form of the urban governance, in the process of attracting global capital and investment flows into local areas. New governance emphasizes on a leaner, flatter, managerial hierarchy. It has a key role of information and information technologies and multi skilling and flexible labour force, budgetary evaluation, and adoption of new managerial ideologies.

Moreover, there is the new land price regime in India from the last decade. This also makes land and homestead unaffordable for the poor. Commodification and commercialization of land, especially public land has increased the scarcity of urban land and has contributed to the increase in its price. On the contrary, foreign investments from non-resident Indians also fueled the land prices. In 2012, the land acquisition act also hiked the land price, where compensation for the rural land was four times to the market prices and two times in the case of the urban (Chakravathy, S. 2013). Some studies pointed out that hike in the prices of the real estate sector, mainly due to the nexus between land mafia, building corporations, politicians and bureaucrats, reaping windfall gains from internal trading through interlocking urban infrastructure and industrial projects promoted by policy and realty ventures (Sharma,R.N. 2006).

Finally, in order to improve the basic amenities in the informal settlements and poor peoples' localities, community upgrading programmes are suggested by Boonyabancha. S. (2009), Dias, S and Mitlin, D. (2011). However, Chatterjee (2008) criticizes the community upgradation programs and schemes since most of the upgrading programs merely provide very basic needs to the inhabitants, which

are a minimum response to the demands, and following such a minimalist approach these areas remain secluded and cannot be incorporated into the wider city.

In the backdrop of the above existing literature this thesis focused on investigating the question of access to and disparity as well as unevenness in basic amenities. This thesis tries to demonstrate the impact of the new urban development model on the question of access, disparity and unevenness in the basic amenities. This investigation is done with a focus on the impact across social groups as well as spatial categories. Theoretically this study goes to show that neither the mainstream approaches nor the critical approaches which have focused on economic marginalization, have however not adequately captured the socio-cultural dimensions of marginalization and exclusion which are systematically getting reinforced by the new model of urban and peri-urban development. Further, those theoretical studies relying on macro data and explanations have clearly neglected the spatial dimensions of urbanization and peri-urbanization, since these dimensions are not captured by official statistics. In this sense, testing the theoretical premises with the available macro data base itself can pose serious challenges. This study by having a micro-level empirical investigation component fixes this limitation and brings to fore those dimensions which cannot be analyzed on the basis of macro-data alone. Based on the investigation and the analytical inferences, it is unveiled that the current set of analytical categories used for empirical surveys in the urban data base itself has serious limitations. Most of the empirical investigations done on urbanization have been focused only on Hyderabad city. Research on Telangana has neglected the peri-urban and sub-urban development. This thesis mainly focuses on the study of urbanization in Telangana, with a focus on peri-urban development. While conventionally there have been definitions of urbanization based on the occupational diversification into non-farm sector of male workers, administrative or governance institution based or population size or density based delineations. This thesis finds that these definitions are inadequate and there is a need to have an access to amenities based definition to identify an urban area and for measuring urbanization. The

conventional definitions from the vantage point of actual access to amenities clearly tend to exaggerate urban areas and the process of urbanization. This thesis finds that diversification of employment, administrative institution or population size and density could be poor indicators of development imperatives and the quality of life of the urban dwellers. This thesis by way of investigating into the access and quality of basic amenities finds that large sections of the population as well as spatial delineations within the urban area do not experience urbanization in any substantive sense.

The macro level data collected by the NSSO has been evaluated for the two rounds 69th and 76th surveyed during 2012 and 2018 respectively. This data while on the face of it suggests that the overall average access to amenities has improved in Urban Telangana, a deeper investigation leads us to other inferences. Telangana society suffers from the challenges of a variety of socio-economic inequalities. This study looks at the access to basic amenities by considering access to facilities namely,; drinking water, drainage, garbage collection bathroom, latrine, housing, and electricity facilities. Further, each of these facilities are of a heterogeneous type which could be ordered into a hierarchy of quality of the particular amenity in question. The access to these facilities and the quality of the facilities accessed are influenced by the socio-economic inequalities. It is therefore that this study investigates into the problem of access to and quality of the basic amenities in terms of the structure of distribution across a variety of socio-economic categories indicative of different forms of socio-economic power hierarchy or structural inequalities, and the changes over the two rounds of NSSO surveys are compared and contrasted. It is evident from the data provided in the annexure-A that during the interim period between the surveys and given that the sample size is proportional to the size of the population of each social group, it can be inferred that the share of Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes has seen an increase in terms of the relative proportional share in the urban Telangana population. The share of the marginalized and discriminated communities has gone up from 61.7% in the 2012 to 62.11% by 2018, with a

marginal relative shrinkage in Scheduled Caste population and a marginal relative increase in OBC population, within these social groups. However, when looked at from the point of view of access to amenities, in case of drinking water from taps and public taps all the socially marginalized and discriminated groups have seen a significant decline. With respect to the bathroom facility similarly, across the SCs and STs, the access to bathroom facilities was below the overall average. Having access to relatively poorer quality facilities. And again, with respect to the latrine facility, while on the whole there is a decline in those without any latrine facility between the two survey periods, the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes continue to be significantly large among those denied access to latrine facility followed by the OBC group. With reference to Garbage collection, those without any arrangement has gone up among the Scheduled Tribes between the two survey periods, and although among the Scheduled Castes and OBCs between the survey periods shows a decline between the two survey periods in relative terms, these social groups continue to be larger in terms of those experiencing complete denials. For all the three vulnerable social groups access to drainage has shown a decline between the two survey periods and they continue to be the largest proportion of those without any drainage facility category as well. Further, it is quite interesting to observe that the NSSO does not have in the both survey periods anyone under the category 'No Dwelling'. It is common sense that there are large number of homeless people in the urban areas and the problem with official definitions and official data cannot be more glaring in terms of misrepresenting the reality. Given the surge in the relative share of the population belonging to the marginalized and discriminated sections of the society it is interesting to observe that with respect to the housing structures the Scheduled Tribe Population with relatively poor quality housing and OBCs as well as Scheduled Caste population with the poorest quality of housing structure have significantly increased. Quite interestingly the relatively poor quality housing of the Scheduled Tribes however during the second survey has been found to be in a bad condition in much larger proportion than during the first round survey, while the poorest quality of housing into which larger proportion of Scheduled Castes and OBCs had to settle in are nevertheless found to be in good

condition in larger proportion in the second round survey than in the first round survey. The implication could be that while there is a deterioration in the quality, these could be relatively new housing and therefore appear in good condition. With respect to electricity connection and its quality also, quite clearly given the large number of squatters referred to in the official language as encroachers not being recorded by the official data and in the backdrop of the concerns about electricity theft and transmission losses aired from time to time by a variety of regulatory and administrative agencies, the official data quite clearly misrepresents the electricity connections, suggesting that almost none of the urban dwellers are without electricity connection.

Similarly, if we consider type of employment as a proxy for the economic condition, the share of the population of those with regular wages-based employment has gone down from 36.81% in 2012 to 31.28% in 2018. And barring a few categories, predominantly the casual labourers, self-employed and others form a major chunk of the informal sector of the urban economy and these sections belong to the lower income categories with no formal social protections. Working Poor, Precariat like descriptions have often been used to conceptualize the nature of employment of these urban employed. With reference to the access to and the quality of the basic amenities in the urban Telangana, the distribution across these participants in the urban informal economy holds great significance given that the share of their population has augmented from 63.19% in 2012 to 68.72%. Between the two rounds of survey for these informal economy participants, the access to tap water and public taps have seen significant decline. With respect to access to bathroom facility, while there is an overall improvement, the casual workers fair much worse-off and surprisingly, even some sections of regular wage workers appear in the column of population without bathroom facility. With reference to latrine facilities again which between the two survey periods there is significant improvement, significantly large share of casual workers is without latrine facility even in 2018. With reference to garbage collection, it is found that among the others category in the nature of employment the percentage of population without

any garbage collection facility has increased. While in case of all other sections relative improvements are found, large section of casual workers and surprisingly a significant proportion of even regular wage workers do not have any garbage collection facility even during the second round of the survey and in fact this proportion has gone up from 2.20 percent in 2012 to 2.86 percent in 2018. Drawing from the literature on the changing nature of employment relations this evidence can be seen as a comment on the deteriorating quality of employment even amongst the regular wage employed following the intensification of informalization. This requires further investigation and can be an agenda for future research. For both self employed and casual labourers the open katcha drainage use proportions have increased signifying poor quality of drainage within the improvements from a condition of no drainage facility. In the type of housing structure again it's glaring evidence with reference to the regular waged labour to find that the proportion of population with pucca accommodation has gone down from 93.73 percent in 2012 to 83.55 percent by 2018. The 2018 survey shows rise in the regular wage workers living in semi-pucca accommodations going up to 16.45 percent from 4.59 percent in 2012. This further strengthens our contention about deteriorating quality of employment amongst the regular wage workers. The massive swell in the katcha houses among the casual workers and semi-pucca houses among others category between the two surveys is also to be noted, suggesting deterioration in the quality of the housing during this period. It is very surprising that the sample surveyed of self employed in the Telangana urban areas 100 percent happen to be staying in pucca houses. This perhaps is not representative of the ground level realities with respect to the type and quality of housing. With the exception of the casual workers for all other categories of nature of employment, the percentage of houses in bad condition have shown an increase. On the contrary, with respect to the casual workers between the two surveys there is a significant surge in the population living in houses whose condition is only satisfactory and not good. The access to electricity connection and the quality of these connections seems to be the only exception where across all categories of type of employment over the two periods of survey there is actually an improvement.

Thus, it is evident from the macro data that while across several indicators of access to basic amenities there have been relative improvements, there have also been deteriorations. While access shows improvement, quality of the facilities have shown deterioration. For developing a composite index of absolute access to basic amenities based measure of urban and urbanization, there will be a need to assign weights to order these various basic amenities in terms of priority. Further, it needs serious deliberation to determine what ought to be the acceptable standards in terms of quality of the basic amenities in terms of quality of the facility accessed which can draw a bench mark and differentiate what can be characterized as an urban quality of life as an indicator of urban development. The mere existence of a facility of whatever quality, can it qualify as urbanization? The development of an alternative metric of amenities based urbanization requires an agreement amongst the researchers and policy makers as to what is a desirable relative standard for identifying feasible quality bench markers to identify urbanization. Just the way we find that the conventional measures of urbanization viz., Occupational Structure, Administrative structure or Population size and Density are inadequate to capture urbanization in terms of representing developmental process, so also absolute access to a facility devoid of any idea about the quality of the facility would also lead to misrepresentations of urbanization.

Micro level study of the thesis illustrates that mainly the households belonging to the socially marginalized sections such as STs and SCs among the social categories, the Casual workers among the Nature of employment groups, the lowest rental value households in rental value groups are those that prove to be only statistical fallacies in being classified as urban without having a share in or experience of the benefits of urbanization. The conventional theories of urbanization have their lineage in the theories of modernization and development. The Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation (GHMC) limits for instance have been increased a mere formality in law. There were several villages brought under the urban areas' jurisdiction. Similarly, the peri-urban areas since late 80s have seen massive in-migration of rural distress driven labour seeking survival

opportunities, living in miserable conditions. It would be a travesty to count all this swell in population as urban population, without a reference to the quality of their life and conditions of living in the urban space. With respect to concrete developmental outcomes neither the space itself, nor given the changing nature of employment nor mere formal demarcations have any meaningful metric, whereas access to and quality of basic amenities can be a much better representative of this developmental process concretely. And if despite structural shifts in space, occupation and administration there is no change in the access or improvement in the quality of basic amenities, especially to the marginalized and discriminated social groups and the working poor, it could suggest that urbanization has failed to correct the traditional socio-cultural and economic disparities and has only reinforced these structural inequalities in the urban spaces. The nature of urbanization has important analytical consequences for the institutional structures underlying the provisioning of the basic amenities. Since the marginalized social groups also happen to be the largest section of the working poor in the urban areas, commercialization and marketization or commodification of basic amenities, has caused further denial of access to basic amenities, the basic amenities such as drinking water, Garbage collection has been directly on the basis of pay and use or user-pay method, which has deprived the economically poor without an ability to pay access to these basic amenities. The above-mentioned households are in deplorable condition compared to all other sections of the society in Nallagandla. On the contrary, the concentration or polarization of the access to basic amenities and better amenities is restricted to a few households, especially among the groups belonging to; Other households among social groups, Regular wage workers and Other households in Nature of employment and highest rental value of more than 9000 rupees. This polarization of the access to and the quality of basic amenities indicates the absence of socially inclusive growth and exclusionary and discriminative tendency in nature of urban development, which has resulted from the implementation of the neo liberal policies that encourage pay and use method.

This thesis most specifically identifies the disparity and unevenness in access to

and the quality of basic amenities across certain social groups as well as spatial categories. The spatial differentiation within the urban space has immense significance to the analysis of urbanization the Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement are the worst sufferers in terms of access to basic amenities. Most households who cannot afford the high rental housing have been looking for informal and rented informal settlements for shelter, and most of them belong to the socially and economically weaker sections and are a vital contributor to the city's development. Still, no household in Informal settlement and Rented informal settlement access Municipality drinking water, bathroom, latrine, drainage, garbage collection arrangements, better housing, and permanent electricity facility, and better amenities are not even come under their preview. It is evidence of deprivation and exclusion of the households belonging to the Informal settlement and rented Informal settlement in urban and indicates the absence of inclusive urban development.

Conventional theories of urbanization interconnect the occupational diversification, rural-urban mobility as well as urban administrative structures to enhanced productivity and incomes, to rational choices based on expectations of better amenities and coordination-based notions of economies and efficiency. If the empirical data on what is to be identified as an urban area is based on occupational diversification, population density or administrative structures underline this data are conventional theoretical premises, which do not in turn reflect on the heterogeneity of the spaces within the urban space. However, the reality of development in India in general and Telangana in particular, seem to require accounting of this heterogeneity as well. The sample surveyed should be irrespective of the legality or illegality of the space to be truly representative of the real world situation. To exclude the illegal homesteads and to make them invisible in the official data is a double whammy and fails to connect the empirical data to policy interventions to correct the deviance away from the substantive meaning of urban development in the emerging situation.

Several sections of the society as well as several spatial categories within the urban region could be experiencing the quality of life which sometimes might be much worse than what some sections might experience even in rural areas. This happens partly because of the fact that the nature of rural urban mobility has been driven by conditions and distress in the place of origin and informalization of employment which not only produces a labour force that is devoid of minimum social protection at the work place but also deprived of minimum acceptable conditions of life in the living space, these conditions of poverty and deprivation are not only become part of systematic process of urbanization but also have been increasing with the increase in the relative proportional share of these sections of the society in urban space. While existing theory has focused much more on rural-urban dualism as a consequence to the capitalist mode, this thesis finds that need to further investigate into the phenomena which akin to interlocking of markets, can be framed in terms of spatial interlocking of development. The urban and peri-urban marginalization and exclusion of certain sections of society cannot be analyzed without referring to the deprivations in the places of origin of migrants or without taking into account the role of their distress in its continued effect on their nature of employment, standards of living and quality of life. This rural urban continuum is not merely mediated by modes of economic exploitation but also by the socio-cultural dimension of vulnerability. Any meaningful idea of urbanization linking development in the living space must be based on access to basic amenities as well as improvement in the quality of these amenities. Alongside the process of informalization of work there has been increased commercialization and commodification of basic amenities that are required in the living space. The commercialization and commodification of basic amenities has been part of a systematic mode of development where the state-citizen relationship has been increasingly replaced by private provider and consumer relationships. Underlying the process of informalization evidenced by the increase in the Casual

workers³¹ and Self-employed groups in the urban population in the mode of development which is increasing based on cost cutting by enterprises or subsistence-based livelihoods as survival strategies by the households which seems to be only generative of such opportunities that contributes to the increasing proportion of working poor among the urban population. These occupational groups are also socially marginalized groups with the nature of urbanization failing to be an agency in correcting traditional social structures of inequality. This interconnections between economic deprivation and social marginalization are evidence to acquire spatial articulation with these sections of the being relegated to status of illegality as resident of urban area. while the urban area is the beneficiary of cheap labour sustaining by subsistence economy and provisioning of variety of services of these section of the society in return there is no substantive reciprocal experience of development because of they being in the urban space. “The official data fails to account the fact that there are millions of the people who are deprived of bare minimum conditions of the life associated with the urban living as signified by the lack of access to basic amenities namely drinking water, bathroom, latrine, garbage, drainage, housing and electricity facilities.” While some scholars (Chaterjee, P.2003 and Ray.A,2003) argued that the political society might have role in plugging in denial and deprivation of these sections of the society this study has not found any such agency. Far from having an agency even the existence of these teaming millions is not even recognized, comes out very starkly, when Telangana government claims that They have successfully accomplished 100 percent open defecation free territory, GHMC (Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation) has been accredited with the open defecation free plus plus (ODF++)³² rank having followed a third-party inspection led by a steering committee

³¹ NSSO has similar proportions.

³² “The ODF++ status is conferred to those cities that treat 100% of their faecal matter using sewage treatment apart from being Open urination free, with no Open drainage” (newindianexpress).

of the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs in 2019. On document, this assumes the Municipal Corporation is open urination free and has undergone scientific treatment of faecal sludge which use sewage treatment plants, but it is evident from the study that substantial number of the people do not have access to latrine, bathroom and drainage facilities in Nallagandla which is an integral part of the GHMC. It is therefore that this thesis proposes access to amenities and quality of amenities as an alternative and a more substantive metric to assess urbanization, the implications of an amenities-based measure of urbanization would have significant analytical as well as policy implications.

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Annexure: A

1. Distribution and Proportion of sample households in Urban India.

Table A1. Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Social groups in urban India between 201002-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Social groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of the Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
STs	3,403	8.07	3,612	8.38
SCs	6,557	15.55	5,790	13.43
OBCs	16,054	38.08	17,371	40.3
Others	16,141	38.29	16,328	37.88
Total households	42,155	100	43,238	100

Source: NSSO 69th round (2012) and 76th round (2018).

Table A2: Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Religious groups in Urban India between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Religious groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
Hindus	31,949	75.79	32,311	74.97
Muslims	6,454	15.31	6,397	14.84
Christians	2,224	5.32	2,426	5.63
Others	1,528	3.57	2,104	4.56
Total households	42,155	100	43,238	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

Table A3: Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Nature of Employment groups in Urban India between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Nature of Employment groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
Self-employed	15,375	36.48	13,793	32
Regular wages	15,514	36.81	13,481	31.28
Casual labourers	6,798	16.13	5,662	13.14
Others	4,458	10.58	10,166	23.59
Total households	42,155	100%	43,238	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

Table A4: Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Sectorial Classification of Workers groups in Urban India between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Sectorial Classification of Worker groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
Agriculture	2,900	6.89	37,297	34.91
Manufacture	7,030	16.68	31,956	29.91
Service	27,352	64.88	18,455	17.27
Others	4,873	11.55	19,130	17.91
Total households	42,155	100%	43,238	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

2. Distribution and Proportion of sample households in Urban Telangana.

Table A5: Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among social groups in urban Telangana between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Social groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
STs	55	4.88	79	5.41
SCs	127	11.26	218	14.92
OBCs	635	56.29	809	55.37
Others	311	27.57	356	24.30
Total households	1,128	100	1,462	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

Table A6: Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Religious groups in Urban Telangana between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Religious groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
Hindus	897	79.52	1,188	81.31
Muslims	200	17.73	228	15.54
Christians	28	2.48	24	1.64
Others	3	0.27	22	1.51
Total households	1,128	100	1,462	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

Table A7. Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Nature of Employment groups in Urban Telangana between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Nature of Employment groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
Self-employed	371	32.89	448	30.64
Regular wages	444	39.36	527	36.05
Casual labourers	192	17.02	169	11.56
Others	121	10.73	318	21.75
Total households	1,128	100	1,462	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

Table A8: Distribution and Proportion of the sample households among Sectorial Classification of Workers groups in Urban Telangana between 2012-2018.

Year	2012		2018	
Sectorial Classification of workers groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
Agriculture	88	7.81	90	6.16
Manufacture	147	13.02	550	37.62
Service	747	66.23	504	34.47
Others	146	12.94	318	21.75
Total households	1,128	100	1,462	100

Source: Same as Table A1.

3. Distribution and Proportion of the sample households in Nallagandla (Primary Study).

Table A9: Distribution and Proportion of the Sample households among Social groups in Nallagandla.

Social groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of the Sample in %
STs	20	7.97
SCs	102	40.64
OBCs	110	43.82
Others	19	7.57
Total households	251	199

Source: Author's calculation from primary data

Table A10: Distribution and Proportion of the Sample households among the Nature of Employment groups in Nallagandla.

Nature of Employment groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of the Sample in %
Self-employed	48	19.12
Regural wages	58	23.11
Casual labourers	134	53.39
Others	11	4.38
Total households	251	100

Source: Same as Table A9.

Table A11: Distribution and Proportion of the Sample households among the Rental value groups in Nallagandla.

Rental value groups	Number of Samples	The Proportion of Sample in %
=<3000 Rupees)	58	23.11
(3001 to 5000 Rupees)	111	44.22
(5001 to 7000 Rupees)	19	7.57
(7001 to 9000 Rupees)	34	13.55
(>9001 Rupees)	29	11.55
Total samples	251	100

Source: Same as Table A9.

Annexure. B

Questionnaire on the Urban households

A. Identifications & Economics features

A.1. Village/ ward:

A.1.1 Mandal:

A.1.2.District:

A.1.3. State:

A.2. Family size and economic feature

Sl.No	Name of the person	Relationship with head	Sex	Age	Marital status	Education	Religion	Caste	Occupation/ Activity	Are wage earned? ³³	Wages in rupees	Are you Migrant?
1												
2												
3												
4												
5												
6												
7												

³³ 1= daily, 2=weekly, 3=monthly, 4=regularly, and 5=not wage earner

B. Living Conditions

B. water for all household activities

B.1. What are the principal sources of water for all household activities excluding drinking (viz., cooking, washing, bathing, etc.) and quantity of water do you get for a day for in liters?

Sl.No	Households activities	In liters for a day	Source
1	Cooking		
2	Washing		
3	Bathing		
4	Cleaning		
5	Other		

B.2. What is the frequency of supply of water?

B.3. Does it sufficient for the all household activities excluding drinking (viz., cooking, washing, bathing, etc.)?

B.3.1. Do you have to pay water charges (payable) per month to the delivery agency/ organisation/ office?

Is yes, how much do you pay for a month?

B.4. What are the prime sources for drinking water?

B.4.1. Does the prime source of drinking water provide by the municipality?

B.4.1.1. If Yes, under which scheme do you get the prime source of drinking water facility?

B.4.1.2. If No, who provides you the prime source of drinking water?

B.5. What is the frequency of supply of drinking water?

B.6. Quantity of drinking water do you get for a day for in liters ?

B.7. Do you have to pay drinking water charges (payable) per month to the delivery agency/ organisation/ office?

B.7.1. Is yes, how much do you pay for a month?

B.8. Who fetches the drinking water from the family?

B.8.1. Form where do you fetch water?

B.8.2. How far do they have to travel to fetch water?

B.8.3. How much time do you need to spend for fetching drinking water?

B.8.4. Do you find any defect in the quality of drinking water?

B.9. What does household usually do to make the water safer to drink?

B.10. Do you reside in own or rent house?

B.10.1. If it is own house, is it built any government scheme?

B.10.2. If it rented, what is the rent in rupees?.....

B.10.3. If not rented house what would be the rental value of the house in rupees?.....

B.11. What is the type of structure?

[] (1) Hut [] (2) Asbestos/Tiled/Tin Roof

[] (3) Concrete

B.11.1. What is the plinth Area of the house?

(Feet) length:

Breadth

B.11.2. Total number of rooms in the house and name them?

B.11.3. What is the condition of house you are residing in?

B.12. where do you cook?

B.12.1. Which type of fuel do you use for the cooking?

(1) Wood (2) Electricity

(3) Biomass (4) Kerosene

(9) Others (specify)...

B.13. Do you have access to bathroom facility?

(1) Yes (2) No

B.13.1. If yes, what type of bathroom facility?

(1) Attached (2) Detached

B.13.2. If No, where do get bath?

(1) Open place (2) Temporary bathroom

(3) Public bathrooms (9) Any other (Specify)

B.13.3. Is Bathroom built under government scheme?

(1) Yes (2) No

B.13.3.1. If Yes, please name the Government Scheme?

B.13.3.2. who helped you to have an access to the Scheme?

B.14. Do you have access to latrine facility?

(1) Yes (2) No

B.1.4.1. If yes, type of latrine facility?

(1) Common latrine facility (2) Exclusive use of latrine facility

(3) Public latrine facility (4) any other

B.14.2. Is latrine room built under government scheme?

(1) Yes (2) No

B.14.2.1. If Yes, please name the Government Scheme?

B.14.2.2. who helped you to have an access to the Scheme?

B.14.3. If you go for Open defecation, did you face any objection from the public/
state?

B.15. Do you have access to the drainage connection?

(1) Yes (2) No

B.15.1. If Yes, what type of drainage connection?

B.15.2. If No, where does your waste water go? Please narrate ...

16. Do you have access to sanitation (latrine)?

16.1. If no, where does your sanitation system connects?

B.17. Do you have access to garbage collection arrangements?

(1) Yes (2) No

B.17.1. If yes, type of arrangements for garbage collection?

(1) Municipality (2) Resident groups

(3) Resident (9) Any other (specify)

B.18. Quantity of garbage do you produce for a day and type of garbage?

Type	Quantity

B.19. Do you have electricity meter connection?

B.19.1. If yes, is it fixed under any government scheme?

B.19.1.1. If yes, please name of the scheme?

B.9.1.2. who helped you to have an access with the Scheme?

B.19.2. Do you aware of the Soubhagya schemes?

B.19.3. If yes, have you accessed the benefits of the scheme?

B.19.4. What type of electrical wiring connectivity do you access?

C. Politics and Conflict

C. 1. Do you have vote?

(1) Yes

(2) No

C. 2.1. If yes, Where have you registered as Voter?

C. 2.2. How became the Voter:

(1) Self

(2) Local Political leaders

(3) NGO

(9) Others (specify).....

C. 3. Are you member of the any organization?

(1) Yes

(2) No

C. 3.1. If Yes, type of organization.

C. 4. What are the benefits do you get as a member this organization?

C. 5. Do local leaders/government officials play any role in resolving conflicts/problems you face?

C. 6. Have you ever approached to the urban government for accessing basic amenities?

(1) Frequently

(2) Occasionally

(3) Never

(9) Others (specify)...

C. 7. Whether you are affected by the policies of Municipality:

(1) Yes

(2) No

C. 7.1. If Yes, which policy affects you, please explain

C. 8. Have you done any protest against the policy which adversely affect?

(1) Yes (2) No

C. 8.1. If Yes, please explain the mode of the protest

C. 8.2. If no, what are the Reasons for not doing any protest?

C. 9. Do you have any ownership rights on the place where you are residing in?

(1) Yes (2) No

C. 9.1. If No, whom it belongs to?

C. 9.2. If it is the government land/ illegal encroachment have you ever faced the threat from the government officials or Mafia or local leaders to vacate the land?

(1) Yes (2) No

C. 9.3. If Yes, please narrate?

C. 10. Do you pay money for escape from threats?

(1) Yes (2) No

C. 10.1. If yes, how much for a month in rupees?.....

C. 11. If it is the private land, does the owner of the land collect any rent from you?

(1) Yes (2) No

C. 11.1. If yes, how much for a month in rupees?....

Thank you for participation

Signature

Date of interview

Development and Socially Inclusive Urbanization: The Case of Access to Basic Amenities in Peri-Urban Telangana.

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An Exclusive Nature of Urban Development and Discriminative Distribution of Basic Amenities among Social groups in Urban India.

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Abstract

The phenomenon of urbanization is closely associated with the development, and most of the urbanized economies are developed nations. Even though the concept of urbanization has started ages ago in India, the rapid expansion of urbanization has been witnessed by it, since the inception of liberalization policies. Particularly in the post-liberalization period, India has been witnessing an increase in urbanization due to push and pull factors; at the same time, the global market is playing a crucial role in concentrated development in cities. The dominant interpretation in development analysis presumes that urbanization has a close relation with industrialization and modernization. However, the expanding nature of the urbanization has not even; its fruits are not being reached to all section of the society. This paper addresses mainly the nature of urbanization and the discriminative distribution of basic amenities among the various social groups. Also, it deals with the concept of a better quality of life in urban India.

The data shows the discriminative distribution of very basic amenities such as urban households' access to bathroom facilities, electricity, latrine, and drainage systems among the social groups in Urban India. It clearly shows that the socially disadvantaged groups such as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are in the last place in accessing basic amenities. On the other hand, this paper also shows the exclusion of urban households belongs to socially disadvantaged groups from better urban services which indicates a better quality of life in urban namely attached bathroom, exclusive use of latrine facility and conduit type of electrical wiring connectivity.

Key words: Basic amenities, Urban households, Discriminative distribution and Social groups.



I. Introduction:

The phenomenon of urbanization has been an emerging topic of debate in the contemporary world. Urbanization has been rapidly expanding in developing countries. The general definition of urbanization is a population shift from rural to urban areas and the gradual increase in the population living in the urban area and in which each society adapts to the change.” There are different opinions and debates on the urbanization where major debates deal with urban exclusion, urban eviction, uneven urban development, informalization of the urban economy, the economic dimension of reforms, the political economy of change planning and management. The terms called sustainability, inclusive development and competitive city are well known and often used by policymakers and politicians, and these terms are closely related to the above-mentioned debates. Some of the discussions on urban development are pointed out that it is the nature of capital, economic reforms, lack of commitment of the government policies to provide services to bottom sections of society and commercialization of essential services that resulted in the uneven distribution of basic amenities in the urban community.

According to Amitab Kundu (2002), big urban cities or megacities are excluding the urban poor and rural migrants from the benefits of urbanization strategically. One can assume that exclusionary urban growth, owing to negative policy perceptive migration, augmented the unaffordability of land and basic amenities by the rural poor has led to deceleration in urban growth. He says urban city centers and Megacities are pushing the urban poor to the peripheries or outskirts. As a subsequence, the industries are being launched at the outskirts of the cities due to unaffordability of land prices in the mainland of the urban center and appropriating and enjoying the benefits by easily violating rules and regulation. The peripheries have been neglected since they are inhabited by the poor and industries which are located on the outskirts are adversely affecting the economy of the villages located in these geographies.

On the other hand David Harvey (1985) in his work opines that it is the financial capital which is excluding and expelling the urban poor and migrants from the benefits of urbanization. Property capital (capital) is usually expelling many people, in cities. The capital led to a certain strategy of development to survive in society; it must grow with the inherent idea of profit maximization at the end of the day. The capital in the society is expanding at a cumulative or compound growth rate; however, the idea of endless growth is a serious problem. Expansion



of financial capital strategically reduces the role of government; it makes rich much richer and poor much poorer.

Susan E. Chaplin (1999) in his work explained that economic reforms in India have impacted and changed the development strategies and governance in urban. Since liberalization policies commercialized urban services which are profitable such as the provision of water services, waste management, etc., these services are made market-oriented, made the urban services unaffordable to the urban poor and the services which are not profitable not given priority.

Ananya Ray (2003) in her book described that political affiliation is necessary to avail the basic services such as ration card, electricity connection, and drinking water facilities. Political connections with the party whoever in power can only help the people in moving families at random from colony to new colony and settlement to new settlements. Political organizations have always been affording and assuring temporary settlements since political organizations have a fear of losing the grip on the people if they afford a Patta land, secured home and other basic services.

II. Methodology:

In order to study above objective data has been collected from the NSSOs¹ (National Sample Survey Organization), 69th survey, 2012 by using STATA. The data shows the discriminative distribution of very basic amenities such as urban households' access to bathroom facility, electricity, latrine, housing, drainage system among social group in India. It clearly shows that the socially disadvantaged groups such as Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribe are in the last place in accessing basic amenities. On the other hand this paper also shows exclusion of urban households belong to socially disadvantaged groups from better urban services which indicates better quality of life in urban namely attached bathroom, exclusive use of latrine facility, conduit type of electrical connectivity, Pucca housing facility.

¹ Which is a government body collects data on the various issues in different rounds and 69th round was on the urban households' access to various amenities.

II. Distribution of Basic Amenities among the various Social groups in Urban India:

It can be easily observed that India's population has been rapidly expanding from the last two decades; the quality of life in cities is receiving more attention from Policymakers, Media and Business houses since the notion of Urban is meant for a better life and living style. Even the Politician and Political Parties are forced to concentrate and incorporate the aspect of quality of life to grab the vote bank of Urban; it has been using as a strategy of electoral politics. The quality of life includes various components, however the quality of life includes all the basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter, water, sanitation, electricity, sewage, garbage collection, etc. as well as higher quality of life contains the freedom of speech, voice at workplace, political freedom, peace, and tranquility.

Table.1: The percentage of Urban households with access to Bathroom facility among Social groups in Urban India.

Social groups	The percentage of Urban households Bathroom facility	The percentage of Urban households No Bathroom facility
ST ²	78.3	21.7
SC ³	68.9	31.1
OBC ⁴	82.6	17.4
OTHER ⁵	89.3	10.7

Source: 69th NSSO rounds, 2012.

The above table describes the percentage of urban household's access to Bathroom and No Bathroom facility among Social groups in urban India. In the case of the percentage of urban households' access to Bathroom facility households belong to the social group called OTHERS were in the first with 89.3% and it followed by urban households belongs to OBCs and Schedule Tribe with 82.6% and 78.3% respectively. The urban households belong to Schedule castes were in the last place with only 68.9% of them access to bathroom facilities in urban India. However, it can be witnessed from the above table that the socially disadvantaged or

² SC are the Schedule castes in India society.

³ST are the Schedule Tribes in India society.

⁴ OBC are Other backward Castes

⁵ OTHERS are the social groups who do not belong to the above three categories

backward groups such as Schedule Tribe's, Schedule Caste's households were denied access to the Bathroom facility more than any other Social category. Schedule castes were worse than all other social groups with 31.1% of households no access to the Bathroom facility. The Schedule Caste's and Schedule Tribe's together constitute more than 50% of Urban households who are no access to the Bathroom facility out of total households with no access to the Bathroom facility. They have to get a bath in an open place or temporary bathrooms which covers plastic covers and posters. There is a need for a rapid decrease in the percentage of urban households who denied to access to the Bathroom facility. The vulnerability of socially disadvantaged groups shows the necessity of more focus on socially disadvantaged groups who are far backward than the all other social groups in accessing basic amenity such as bathroom facility since it is a matter of dignity and self-respect.

Table.2: The Percentage of Urban households with No access to the Toilet /Latrine facility among Social groups in Urban India.

Social groups	The Percentage of Urban households access to the Toilet /Latrine facility	The Percentage of Urban households No access to the Toilet /Latrine facility
ST	82.8	17.2
SC	80.4	19.6
OBC	89.1	10.9
OTHER	95.5	2.5

Source: 69th NSSO rounds, 2012.

The above table shows the Percentage of urban household's access to the Toilet /Latrine and No Latrine facility among Social groups in Urban India. When it comes to the percentage of urban households access to Latrine facility households, belong to Social group called OTHERS were in the first place with 95.5%, and it followed by urban households belong to OBCs and Scheduled Tribes with 89.1% and 82.8% respectively. The urban households belong to Schedule Caste were

in the last place with only 80.4% of them accessed to latrine facilities. Like it in the case of No access Bathroom facility, No access to Toilet/Latrine facility among social groups are also witnessing similar kind of experience. The most of households who were denied access to the Toilet /Latrine facility are Schedule Castes and Scheduled Tribes. They consist of 37% of total

urban households. Schedule Castes were at the first place with a denial of 19.6 % households to access of the Toilet /Latrine facility, followed by Schedule Tribe's and OBC's and OTHERS with 17.2%, 10.9%, and 2.5% respectively.

Table.3: The percentage of Urban households with access to the Septic tank/ Flush toilet and Exclusive use of latrine facility among Social groups in Urban India.

Social groups	Septic tank/ flush toilet	Exclusive use of latrine facility
ST	76.0	56.7
SC	79.8	43.9
OBC	85.9	61.8
OTHER	79.1	73.2

Source: 69th NSSO rounds, 2012.

The above table shows the percentage of Urban household's access to Septic tank/ Flush toilets and Exclusive use of latrine facility. The percentage of Urban household's access to Septic tank/ Flush toilet varies among Social group. The Social category called OBC's were at first place with 85.9% households' access to the Septic tank/ Flush toilet facility and it followed by OTHERS with 79.1%, Schedule Castes with 79.8% and Schedule Tribes with 76%. When it comes to the percentage of Urban households' access to Exclusive use of latrine facility among the Social groups were as usual like Social ladder in Indian society. The Schedule Castes were at the last place merely with the percentage of 43.9% of Urban household accessed to the Exclusive use of latrine facility and it followed by the Schedule Tribes, OBCs and OTHERS with 56.7%,61.8%, and 73.2% respectively. The above mentioned an Exclusive use of latrine facility and Septic tank are the sign of the better quality of life the households who have been accessing to them are obviously living a better lifestyle in urban. However, the urban households belong to Schedule Castes, and Schedule Tribes s are at the last place, and less percentage of them access to such services, it an indication of poverty and poor lifestyle and also access to poor quality of urban services in India mainly to socially disadvantaged groups.

Table.4: The percentage of Urban households with access to Attached, Detached and No Bathroom facility among Social groups in Urban India.

Social groups	Attached bathroom	Detached bath room
ST	47.5	30.2
SC	35.5	34.2
OBC	51.8	30.6
OTHER	66.5	22.5

Source: 69th NSSO rounds, 2012.

The above table shows the percentage of urban households’ access to the different types of bathroom facilities such as Attached, Detached among Social groups in urban India. The category called OTHER in Social group was in the first place in an accessing the Attached Bathroom facility with the 66.5% households access to an Attached Bathroom facility. It followed by the urban households belong OBCs with 51.8%, Schedule Tribes with 47% and Schedule Castes were at last place with only 35.5% households’ access to an Attached Bathroom facility. On the other hand, in the case of urban households’ access to the Detached Bathroom facility among Social groups, the Schedule Castes were in the first place with 34.2% of households were accessed to detached bathroom facility. It followed by the Schedule Tribes with 30.2% and OBCs with 30.6%, and the urban households belong to the social group called OTHERS were in the last place with only 22.5% of households were accessed the Detached Bathroom facility.

Table.5: The Percentage of Urban households with access to Types of Drainage System among various Social groups in Urban India.

Social groups	Percentage of urban households access to type Drainage System				
	Under ground	Covered Pucca	Open Pucca	Open Katcha	No Drainage
ST	37.44	9.11	23.97	5.99	23.50
SC	35.49	11.55	24.78	7.90	20.28
OBC	39.77	18.11	23.12	5.89	13.11
Other	54.57	13.39	20.77	2.99	8.28

Source: 69th NSSO rounds, 2012.

The above shows the percentage of urban households’ access to types of Drainage system facilities among the Social groups in urban India. In the case of Underground types of the Drainage system, the urban households belong to the Social group called OTHERS were in first place with 54.57% and it followed by OBCs with 39.49% and Schedule Tribes with 37.44%. The urban households belong to Schedule Castes were in the last place merely with 35.49% of urban households access to the Underground type of Drainage system. When it comes to the Covered Pucca type Drainage system, the urban households belong to OBCs were in first place with 18.11%, followed by OTHERS, Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribes with 13.39%, 11.55%, and 9.11% respectively. On the other hand, the urban households belong to Schedule Castes were in a first place with 24.78%, in the case of Open Pucca it followed by Schedule Tribes with 23.97%, OBCs with 23.12% and OTHERS with 20.77%. The similar kind of trend can be witnessed in case of the urban household’s access to an Open Katcha type of Drainage system; the Schedule Castes were in the first place with 7.9% and it followed by urban households belong to Schedule Tribes, OBCs with 5.99% and 5.89% respectively. But the percentage of urban households belong to OTHERS were very low, it is only 2.9%. Finally, it can be observed that the percentage of urban households no access to any drainage system among the Social groups; the urban households belong to Schedule Tribes and Schedule Castes were in a top place with 23.5% and 20.8% and is followed by the OBC’s with 13.11% and OTHERs with 8.28%.

Table.5: The Percentage of Urban households with access to the Types of Electricity facility among various Social groups in Urban.

Social groups	Percentage of Urban households access electricity	Percentage of Urban households access to Type of Electric wiring Connectivity		
		Conduit wiring	Fixed to walls	Temporary
ST	95.69	56.14	24.81	19.06
SC	95.19	50.04	26.38	23.58
OBC	97.19	64.46	22.29	13.25
OTHERS	99.23	67.49	24.41	8.10

Source: 69th NSSO rounds, 2012.

The above table shows the percentage of urban households’ access to electricity and Types of Electrical wiring connectivity facilities among the social groups in urban India. When it comes to the percentage of urban households’ access to electricity facility, OTHERS were in the first



place with 99.23% and it followed by urban households belong to OBCs and Schedule Tribes with 97.19% and 95.69% respectively. The urban households belong to Schedule Castes were in the last place with 95.19% only. However, when it comes to type of electrical wiring connectivity; they are three types of electricity connectivity, in case of the Conduit wiring, the urban households belong to social category called OTHERS were in a first place with 67.49%, and it followed by OBCs with 64.46%, Schedule Tribes with 56.14% and Schedule Castes with 50.04%. the Schedule Castes were in the last place with only 50.04%. When it comes to the Fixed to walls type of Electrical wiring connectivity, the urban households belong to Schedule Castes were in the first place with 24.81% and it followed by Schedule Tribes, OTHERS and OBCs with 24.81%, 24.41%, and 22.29% respectively. On the other hand, in case Temporary type electrical wiring connectivity the urban households belong to Schedule Castes were in a first place with 23.58% and it followed by Schedule Tribes with 19.06%, OBCs with 13.25% and OTHERS were in the last place with only 8.10%. However, it can be concluded from the above table that the low-quality electrical wiring connectively namely Fixed to the wall and temporary type of electrical wiring connectivity were accessed mostly by the marginalized sections of the society namely Schedule castes and Tribes.

III. Conclusion:

Urbanization has been expanding rapidly in India, it has closely associated with growth and development, and at the same time, urbanization indicates a better lifestyle and quality of life. However, the quality of life determined by some factors mainly basic amenities are prime factors in determining the quality of life. This paper clearly shows an uneven distribution of basic amenities among Social groups in urban India. The social disadvantage groups namely Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribes are being excluded from the benefits of the rapid expansion of urbanization. These groups are poorly benefitted by urbanization than any other social group, and the percentage of urban households belongs to these social groups in getting the good quality of basic urban services, which an indication of a better quality of life and lifestyle. Along with this, the percentage of urban households belong to Scheduled Castes, and Schedule Tribes have been accessing to basic amenities, which are deficient or low quality than any other social groups in urban India. It specifies the apparent exclusion of socially disadvantaged groups from the benefits of urbanization. The fruits of globalization and urbanization has not been distributed evenly among the social groups, the marginal sections of



the society have been cling on the low quality of the amenities, which is sing of the low quality of life and living style, when it compare to the all other social groups in urban India.

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