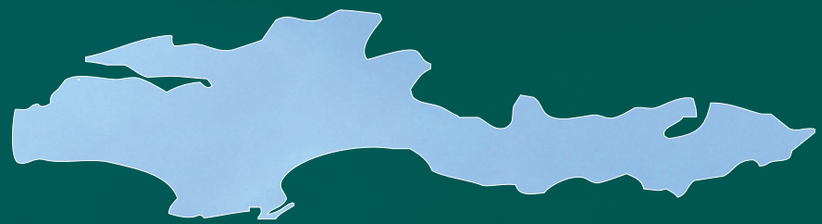
DAMAN AND DIU
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT



U.T. ADMINISTRATION OF DAMAN & DIU
Government of India

INSTITUTE FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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INSTITUTE FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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CONTENTS

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At the Institute for Human Development (IHD) a number of persons worked and contributed for the report. Apart from contributing to the analysis of the Report, Akhilesh K. Sharma coordinated the project overall. Sarthi Acharya and Tanuka Endow synthesized and edited the various background chapters. The background chapters were contributed by Amrita Datta, Akhilesh K. Sharma, Swati Dutta, Sandip Sarkar and Prashant Kumar Singh. Balwant S. Mehta separately contributed to the analysis of declining sex ratio in the UT. Rajender Singh and Subodh Kumar ably supervised the field work in which a large number of investigators were involved. Anisha Yadav and Vikas Dubey managed the data processing and analysis. Priyanka Tyagi, S.P. Sharma and Jyoti Girish managed the production of the work. Mr. Arzoo Saifi formatted the report.

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LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS

APL	Above Poverty Line
ASHA	Acredited Social Health Activists
BCG	Bacille Calmette Guerin
BPL	Below Poverty Line
CEB	Census Enumeration Block
CHC	Community Health Care
DISE	District Information System for Education
DPT	diphtheria, pertussis, and tetanus
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrollment Ratio
GETCO	Gujarat Energy Transmission Corporation
GSDP	Gross State Domestic Product
GVA	Gross Value Added
HD	Human Development
HDR	Human Development Report
ICDS	Intergated Child Development Scheme
IGNDPS	Indira Gandhi National Disability Pension Scheme
IGNOPS	Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme
IGNWPS	Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme
ITI	Industrial Training Institute
JSY	Janani Suraksha Yojna
MPCE	Monthly Per Capita Expenditure
NAS	National Achievement Survey
NCAER	National Council of Applied Economic Research
NCERT	Nation al Council of Education Training & Researchb
NFHS	National Family Health Survey
NFSA	National Food Security Act
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NSAP	National Social Assistance Programme
NSS	National Sample Survey
OBC	Other Backward Castes
OOP	Out of Pocket
PDS	Public Distribution System
PHC	Primary Health Care
PPS	Probability propotional to size
RHS	Rural Health Statistics
SC	Scheduled Caste
SRS	Survey Registration Scheme
SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
SSDM	State Skill Development Mission
ST	Scheduled Tribe
SVY	Saraswati Vidya Yojna
TTI	Technology Training Institute
UT	Union Territory
UTDP	Uniion Terrirtory Domestic Product
WPR	Work Participation Rate

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

Human Development (HD) reports are prepared periodically and independently for a country, state or geographic entity as the case may be, to assess whether the quality of life of the populace at large is improving. The human development approach places people, rather than economic growth, as the focus of the development process. Human development is conceptually founded on a capability perspective, with the first Human Development Report in 1990 defining it as a process of enlarging people's choice. As outlined in this report, over and above formation of human capabilities such as improved health and knowledge, human development also concerns the use of these capabilities. Moving beyond the income or resource space to evaluate people's well-being, Amartya Sen developed the concept of capability as the ability to attain certain 'functionings' by people, as well as the ability of making choices itself, in itself of value to individuals, and capability thus has also been regarded as a freedom (Sen 1999)[1].

The importance of freedoms, according to Sen, is that greater freedom enhances the ability of people to help themselves and also to influence the world, and these matters are central to the process of development. This ability refers to the agency aspect of the individual. Sen considers capability at individual level as the basic building blocks of freedoms and in that sense capability is a kind of freedom. As he has discussed elsewhere (Sen 1995) both the capability to attain a state of 'functionings' or 'doings and beings', and the very capability of making decisions leading

1. Sen, A., 1999, Development as Freedom Oxford: Oxford University Press

to these functioning are important in themselves and together they comprise the entire set of capability.

Thus the process of human development aims to go beyond meeting basic needs of people; rather, it aims for enlarging people's choices in regard to their life and livelihoods. This is possible only if people's achievements, through the application of their capabilities, improve – the latter being referred to as 'functionings'. People's wellbeing can be evaluated in terms of the ranking of various functionings. Therefore, human development (or HD) mainly refers to capability enhancement and by the same token, capability deprivation, which could result in poverty and dis-empowerment.[2] For achieving this form of development in practical terms, it requires improving the education and skills of people, bettering their health, and creating an environment for them to deploy their skills for generating sustainable incomes (meaning decent work and full employment).

Recognising the importance of a human development report (HDR) in assessing the socio-economic development through an HD lens, most major states in India have prepared HDRs of their states. This report aims at preparing the first HDR for the Union Territory of Daman and Diu. Daman and Diu is one of the seven Union Territories of India.

After liberation from Portuguese Rule of more than four centuries, Daman and Diu became a part of the U.T. of Goa, Daman and Diu under Govt. of India in 1961. After delinking of Goa, which attained statehood, U.T. of Daman and Diu came into existence in 1987. Both these geographic locales form a single union territory located on the western coast of India (Fig. 1.1). The area of Daman and Diu is 112 square kilometres (km^2) and the population 0.24 million, as seen from the Population Census of 2011. The UT comprises of two districts namely, Daman and Diu. The districts are 199 km away from each other as the crow flies, but there is no direct route, and by road the distance is 636 kms.

Daman and Diu presents some distinct characteristics in contrast to its neighbouring states and to the all-India picture. These relate to the population (its composition, growth and sex ratio), the literacy rate, health status and the economy. This report – being the first for a UT – is generic in the sense that unlike the HDRs prepared for other states, which have a specific theme, this one highlights the key socio-economic characteristics hitherto not well studied. A generic report is significant from the point of view of indicating ways of raising the HD standards of the populace in the UT. The findings are based on both the existing data and a primary survey conducted to find out the aspects not captured in the available data. It may be noted at this stage that the existing large surveys do not effectively cover small UTs; hence the primary survey mentioned above was necessary.

2. Sen, A. (1989), Commodities and Capabilities, Oxford University Press, Delhi

Figure 1.1: Map of Daman and Diu

The Human Development Approach

The Human Development concept is now at least a quarter century old. However, it is still perceived by many as a welfare-enhancing notion which implies that rapid economic growth would provide the necessary resources for the social sectors for creating an accomplished, healthy and equal society.[3] What is implicit in this perception is that economic growth and people's enablement and wellbeing are quite independent. In contrast, the HD paradigm, which we argue for, puts forth that economic development must stem from the deployment of the most abundant resource (workers, in most of Asia – as in Daman and Diu) for the welfare gains to be maximised.

The HD paradigm further states that for workers to create value, they have to be adequately accomplished must be able to perform at least the 'basic functionings'

3. This thought had found coinage in early 19th century in the writings of William Thackeray. However, even in the contemporary era this is the dominant thought among the techno-managerial class of professionals. In all the Five-Year Plans in India, explicitly in the first four and implicitly in the later ones, this was the premise.

(Sen, 2000), making a case for investing in people as a pre-condition for production to accelerate. Development related research also notes that economic growth cannot be sustained without people's inclusion (Sen, 1982; Amsden, 1989; Nell, 1998 (for a fuller discussion, see Mehrotra, 2016)). The essence of the argument is that human capital and other measures that contribute towards people's empowerment are paramount. People are best empowered through better education, skills, adequate nutrition and health, among other factors.

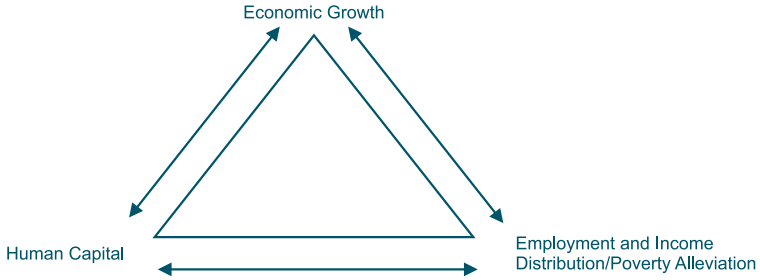
Finally, the HD paradigm goes further than just investing in health and education. All of South Asia has been/is labour surplus; hence, it is imperative to make optimal use of the labour in the growth process until the time when labour from the low productivity sectors (read agrarian sectors) is redeployed elsewhere. This does not happen automatically – it has to be planned and executed carefully.

In this alternative framework, existence of two forms of synergies is posited. One exists between interventions in health, nutrition, family planning, water and sanitation and basic education; and the other between interventions that form the basis of income growth, reduction of income-poverty, and improved health and educational status. The first synergy is actually a sub-set of the second. With these two synergies as foundations, it is proposed to put forth an alternative approach to integrate economic and social policies. As a theoretical construct, the notion of dual synergies forms a conceptual framework for understanding a given situation in terms of human development outcomes; it is, at the same time, a framework for drawing policy implications.[4]

In any economic analysis it is important to distinguish the means from the ends. The HD paradigm strongly argues that the state has a central role in ensuring all the three desirable *ends* or outcomes: economic growth, income-poverty reduction and improved health and education. The paradigm argues that to achieve these ends, appropriate means have to be adopted. The analysis also suggests that in the contemporary Asian context, these translate into at least three broad propositions for the policy-makers. The first relates to reforms in the low productivity sectors for generating much larger marketed surpluses over consumption, release of surplus labour from it, and diversification of activities therein – all resulting in wellbeing of the rural populations. The second relates to the need for an industrial policy that would guide investments and promote technologies in areas of maximum private and social returns which would increase value added rapidly and create broad-based employment. The third relates to increased investments in sectors that would help raise human capital and human development and would prepare people for gainful employment in modern sectors. Figure 1.2 illustrates these in a diagrammatic form.

4. See Taylor et al., 1997; Mehrotra, 2013; and Mehrotra and Delamonica, 2007 for applications of the framework to developing countries.

Figure 1.2: The Economic Growth-HD-Employment/Income Distribution Link



Source: Adapted from Mehrotra and Acharya (2017)

Selected Socio-Economic Characteristics of Daman and Diu

Population

According to the Census of 2011, The Union Territory of Daman and Diu had a total population of 243,247 persons (Table 1.1), out of which, 24.82 per cent resided in the rural areas while 75.14 per cent resided in urban areas. The population trend shows an increase of 53.75 per cent in 2011 since 2001 (Table A1.1 in Appendix 1). The UT ranks 4th among the states and UTs in India in terms of urbanisation.

Table 1.1 Demographic Features of Daman and Diu

Sl.No.	Particulars	Sex/ Area	Daman	Diu	Total
1	Area (Sq. Kms.)	Rural	35	22	57
		Urban	37	18	55
		Total	72	40	112
2	Population	Male	124659 (65.0)	25642 (49.0)	150301 (62.0)
		Female	66514 (35.0)	26432 (51.0)	92946 (38.0)
		Total	191173	52074	243247
2.1	Area-wise population	Rural	32313 (17.0)	28083 (54.0)	60396 (25.0)
		Urban	158860 (83.0)	23991 (46.0)	182851 (75.0)
3	Population of Scheduled Castes	Male	2224	927	3151
		Female	2038	935	2973
		Total	4262	1862	6124
3.1	Population of Scheduled Tribes	Male	7702	69	7771
		Female	7538	54	7592
		Total	15240	123	15363
4	Density	Per Sq. Kms.	2655	1302	2172
5	Sex Ratio	(Females per 1000 males)	534	1031	618
6	Decadal Population growth(2001-2011)	%	67.43	17.73	53.54
7	Literacy Rate	Male	91.6	91.21	91.54
		Female	80.98	76.05	79.54
		Total	88.06	83.46	87.1

Source: Sixth Economic Census accessed at http://www.daman.nic.in/websites/planning_daman/documents/2014/Provisional-Results-of-Sixth-Economic-Census-Daman-Diu-2012-13.pdf)

Note: The figures in brackets refer to percentages in total.

The population density of Daman and Diu was 2,172 persons per square kilometre in 2011. This is very high as compared to national average of 382 persons per square kilometre. The extent of urbanisation is one among the reasons for this – the population density in urban areas is always higher. The data also show that since 1991 there has been a rapid rise in population (exceeding 5 percent annually), which is also an important reason for the high population density.

Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Populations

The scheduled caste (SC) and scheduled tribe (ST) populations who are among the more deprived sections of the Indian society constitute 2.52 per cent (SC) and 6.31 per cent (ST) of the population of Daman and Diu (Table 1.3). In terms of the proportion to total population, Daman has more STs while Diu has more SC population. While there was an increase in the number of these population groups in both the districts in absolute numbers, the share of these castes in total population in both the districts has decreased during 2001-2011. One among the reasons is the large in-migration of populations, who do not belong to these social groups.

Table 1.2: Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Population

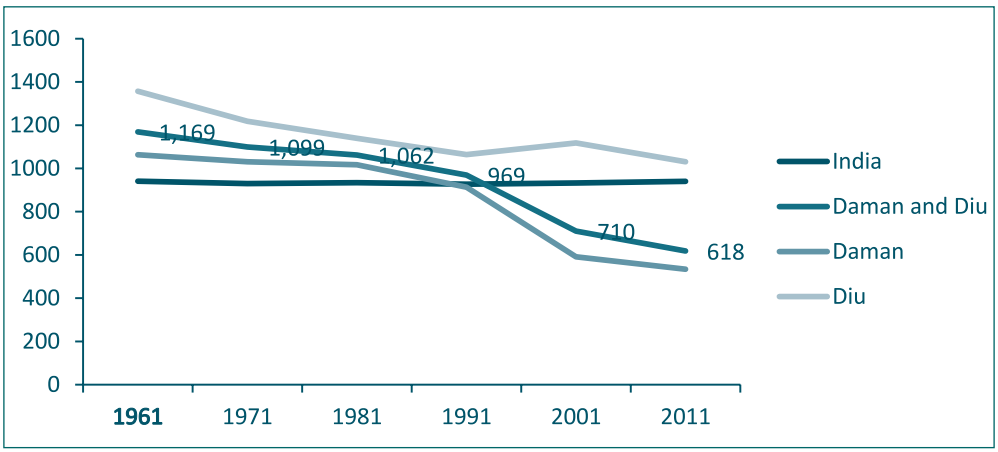
Social Group	Year	Daman		Diu		Daman and Diu	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Scheduled Castes (SC)	2001	3,065	2.69	1,773	4.01	4,838	3.06
	2011	4,262	2.23	1,862	3.57	6,124	2.52
Scheduled Tribes (ST)	2001	13,881	12.18	116	0.26	13,997	8.85
	2011	15,240	7.97	123	0.24	15,363	6.31

Source: Census, 2011

Sex Ratio

The aggregate sex ratio (i.e. number of females per 1,000 males) of Daman and Diu was 618 (551 in urban areas and 864 in rural areas) as seen from the Census of 2011. This is the lowest in the country. To worsen the matter, the ratio has seen a secular fall over the years (Figure 1.3). While there is a decline in the sex ratio in both the districts of Daman and Diu, the sex ratio in Diu is relatively more balanced as compared to that in Daman or to the all-India average (Figure 1.4). The principal reason for the low sex ratio in both Daman and Diu is the in-migration of male workers in search of employment.

Figure 1.3: Decrease in Sex Ratio from 1961 to 2011 in Daman and Diu



Sources: National Commission on Population, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India website http://populationcommission.nic.in/content/625_1_index.aspx and Department of Planning and Statistics, U.T. Administration of Daman & Diu, Secretariat, Daman, Statistical Diary, 2013-14

To assess whether there is a real gender discrimination, it would be pertinent to examine the child-sex ratio, also referred to as the juvenile sex ratio (i.e. among children aged 0-6 years). Gender-specific child population as seen from Table 1.3 indicates that there were more male children than the female ones in both the districts and for both years (2001 and 2011). There is thus a prevalence of sex-selectivity in babies/children (Table 1.3).

Table 1.3: Child Population (0-6 years)

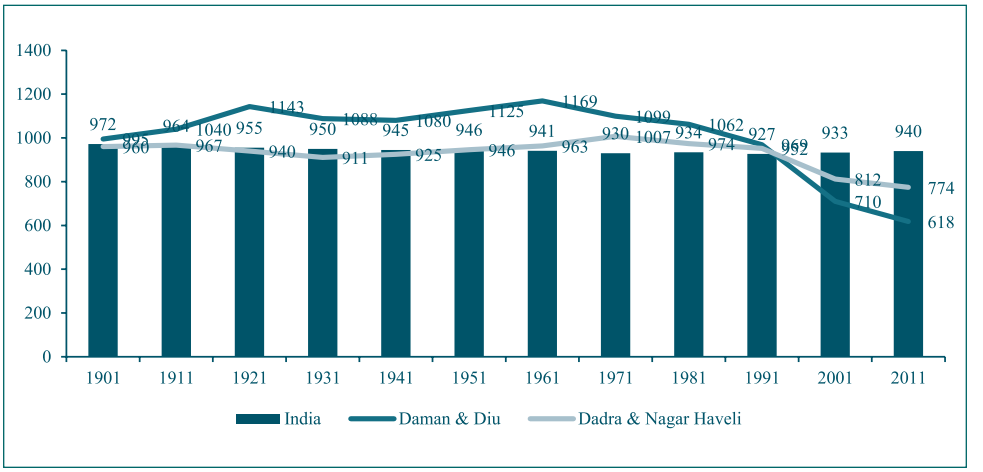
Year		Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu
2001	Male	6,830	3,855	10,685
	Female	6,194	3,699	9,893
	Total	13,024	7,554	20,578
	Child Sex Ratio	907	960	926
2011	Male	10,787	3,357	14,144
	Female	9,671	3,119	12,790
	Total	20,458	6,476	26,934
	Child Sex Ratio	897	929	904

Source: Census, 2011

The gender gap in infant mortality has reduced over time, but it still exists. – the recent estimates by the Survey Registration Scheme (SRS) show that infant mortality among female babies in 2013 was 20 per 1,000 live births against 19 per 1,000 live births among male babies.

Historically, the sex ratio in this UT was not as low as what is seen today – between 1901 and 1991, the overall sex ratio here was much better than the national average. For instance, between 1911 and 1981, the sex ratio was above 1,000 females per 1,000 males and in 1961 it was at its peak: 1,169 women per 1,000 men. However, after 1991 the sex ratio began to show a decline (Figure 1.4).

Figure 1.4: Comparative Trends of Overall Sex Ratio, 1901-2011



Sources: National Commission on Population, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India and Department of Planning and Statistics, U.T. Administration of Daman and Diu, Secretariat Daman, 2014; Statistical Diary 2013-14

Literacy Rate

According to the Census of 2011, the literacy rate in Daman and Diu was 87.1 per cent (Table 1.1). Male literacy was about 12 percentage points higher than female. The overall literacy rate in the UT however is higher than the all-India average.

The Economy

The UT's Gross Domestic Incomes

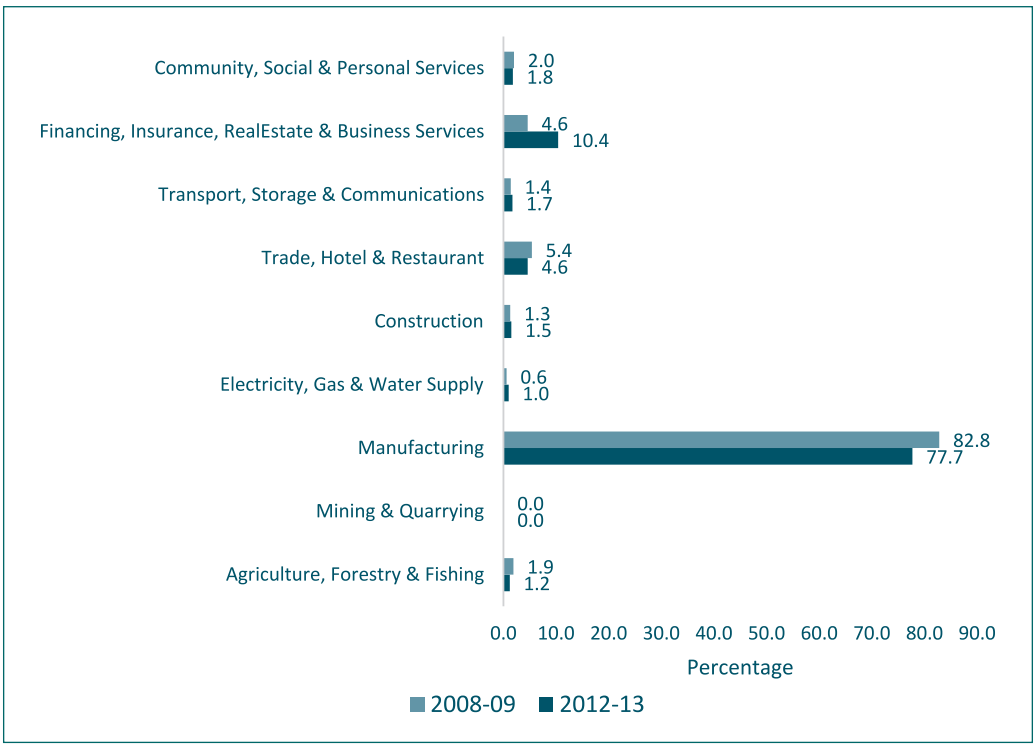
The main economic activities in Daman and Diu are manufacturing, fishing and tourism. The long coast-lines m`ake fishing and tourism the natural resource-based sectors in the UT. As for industries, Daman and Diu being a Union territory receives a lot of tax concessions resulting in industries getting established or moving in here. In the year 2012-13, the UT Gross Domestic Product (UTDP) of Daman and Diu was Rs. 60,763 million (at 2004-2005 constant prices), which was 0.11 per cent of India's GDP (NCAER, 2016). The growth rate of UTDP of Daman and Diu in 2012-13 was 0.7 per cent. The UTDP per capita in 2012-13 was Rs. 212,087 which was higher than the all-India average.

Table 1.4: UTDP and Per Capita UTDP of Daman and Diu (repeated as Table 2.1)

	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13
Gross Domestic Product of UT at factor cost (Rs.)	4,53,422	5,78,162	6,09,106	6,03,324	6,07,628
Share of Indian GDP (%)	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.11
Growth Rate of Daman and Diu UTDP (%)	N.A.	27.5	5.4	–0.9	0.7
Per capita UTDP (Rs.)	2,07,609	2,53,542	2,55,818	2,30,168	2,12,087
Growth Rate of per capita UTDP (%)	NA	22.1	0.9	–10.0	–7.9

Source: National Council for Applied Economic Research, 2016 (Table 1.8, page 16)

Figure 1.5:Shares of Gross Domestic Product of Union Territory at factor cost by Economic Activity of Daman and Diu, 2008-09 and 2012-13



Source: Table 1.9, NCAER, 2016

Figure 1.5 shows the overwhelming importance of manufacturing in the UT, although it has declined slightly between 2008-09 and 2012-13. All the other sectors pale into insignificance when compared to manufacturing. Traditionally, the people of Daman and Diu earned their livelihoods through fishing and agriculture as the geographic location (sea coast) had ensured survival through such means. People were also engaged in

pottery, basket making, weaving and similar handicraft activities. However, over time there has been a shift in occupational structure towards manufacturing, and most workers are now engaged in it. In recent times, services such as financing, insurance, real estate, and business services have gained in importance.

Fishing

Fishing has been important for the people of this coastal area since historic times. Prawns, Bombay duck, Pomfret, Crabs, Lobster, Hilsa, Shark and Cat fish are the main fish catch, which have high value in the market. About 90 per cent of the fish is transported to Mumbai and Veraval for sale. The annual fish production in Daman and Diu is estimated to be 19,261.3 tonnes, valued at approximately Rs. 1,733 million in the year 2014-2015.

Daman and Diu together have thirty-three kilometres of coastline. Damanganga river is also an important source for fishing in Daman. Inland Fisheries and Brackish Water Fisheries are not available in Daman, but in Diu ponds have been developed by rainwater harvesting wherein shrimp-farming is done. Fishermen and fisherwomen have formed co-operative societies for marketing the fish produce. Fisher folk have also adopted modern techniques for fish production.

Agriculture

The main crops cultivated in the area are Paddy, Bajra and Jowar among others. Mango and Chickoo are also grown. Only around one-fourth of the land is used for seasonal crop-based agriculture. The Net sown area for agriculture is 2,726.38 hectares.

Animal Husbandry

Cattle, buffaloes and goats are the main livestock of this UT. Milk production was around 1 thousand tonnes in 2012-13 in Daman and Diu, while meat production was around 0.21 thousand tonnes for the same year. Egg production however has shown an increasing trend during 2008-09 to 2012-13 from 18.83 lakh no.s to 20 lakhs in no.

Industries

The Omnibus Industrial Development Corporation has been set up to create and upkeep the infrastructure in Daman. It helps in augmenting economic development of the Union Territory for industries, tourism, transport, and so on. Industries function primarily in the industrial estates of Dabhel, Bhimpore and Kadaiya. The important products manufactured are medicines, packaging products, alcohol (hard liquor and beer), rubber and plastic, basic metals, electrical, chemical and chemical products, pharmaceuticals, botanical products and textiles (Table 1.10).

Table 1.5: Share (%) of Major Industries in terms of Total Output*

Description	Total Output		GVA	
	In millions			
	Actual	%	Actual	%
Total	445,874.9	100.00	134,398.7	100.00
Total of Industries listed below:	380,018.0	85.23	117,450.4	87.38
Rubber and Plastic Industries	92,387.8	20.72	11,250.9	8.37
Basic Metals	85,076.1	19.08	67,263.0	50.05
Electricals	842,822.7	18.90	13,363.2	9.94
Chemicals and Chemical Products	54,377.2	12.20	7,194.3	5.35
Pharmaceuticals, Medicinal Chemicals and Botanical Products	36,044.7	8.08	14,100.9	10.49
Textiles	27,849.5	6.25	4,278.1	3.18

Source: Annual survey of industries 2012-2013

Note: * Industries which contribute at least 80% to total output

Tourism

Daman and Diu is a tourist hub. Its monuments and beaches are an attraction for both national and international tourists. Also, as the neighbouring state of Gujarat is an alcohol-free state, people from there come here to consume liquor, beer, etc. The total number of tourists visiting Daman and Diu in 2013-14 were 1,144,140 and 2,524,730, respectively.

Infrastructure

Electricity

The UT of Daman and Diu does not have its own power generation system. The bulk of power supply is drawn from the Central Sector Power Stations in Western Region through the GETCO Grid. The Electricity Department of Daman and Diu is mainly engaged in the procurement, transmission and distribution of electricity to various categories of consumers. Diu is also set to become India's first solar-efficient district.

Water Supply and Sanitation

According to 2011 census data, about 90 per cent households had access to safe drinking water in Daman and Diu (Table Appendix 1.2). Overhead tanks, underground sumps, stand posts and hand pumps have been provided all over the Union Territory. Water treatment plants are installed at Dabhel, Magarwada and Ghoghla. Access to improved sanitation was higher in urban areas (999 per 1000 households), but lower (732 per 1000 households) in rural areas.

ThE Report

Objectives

This report, the first Human Development Report for a Union Territory, addresses generic issues in development, as has been stated earlier. The specific objectives are to:

1. Understand the status of the economy and industrialisation in the state and key issues in regard to moving further ahead
2. Reflect upon the pattern of population and employment
3. Highlight the phenomenon of migration since this has special significance to the UT
4. Highlight issues in education, a key component of human 'functionings' and empowerment
5. Highlight issues in health, another key component of human 'functionings', and empowerment
6. Assess the extent of social protection offered to the populace and point out the key outstanding issues and challenges for enhancing human development in the UT and policy recommendations for the same.

Methodology

This report is based on both primary and secondary data. The secondary data are drawn from the Indian Statistical System which includes the Census, National Sample Surveys, Administrative Databases, etc. Additionally, a primary household survey was conducted in the two districts of the UT with a sample size of 5,050 households (8% of the population) – the largest survey done for the UT. The survey was conducted in 2016.

The sample of 5,050 households was scientifically drawn from a sampling frame comprising of both rural and urban units (villages and towns/cities). The sampling design has been well-suited to allow for analysing variations across different social and economic groups, ethnicity and geographic regions. The sampling design also ensures that the estimates for key human development indicators up to district level are robust, comparable and standardised. The sample has been drawn using multi-stage, stratified sampling approach to generate representative samples. The Census Urban Wards, Census Enumeration Blocks (CEBs) and households form the first, second and third stage sample units, respectively. In the first stage, the relevant sampling frame has been formed including all villages and urban areas as per the Census of India, 2011. Sampling has been done independently within each district and is aimed at generating reliable district level estimates. During the second stage, CEBs from each sample ward/village have? been selected by adopting systematic random sampling.

The distribution of sample size for the study is described in Table 1.6:

Table 1.6: Sample Size Distribution in Daman and Diu

Name of District	Wards/Villages	No. of ward/ villages	No. of Sample Wards/Villages	Total Sample
Daman	Villages	15	15	600
	Wards	21	21	3,500
Diu	Villages	4	4	450
	Wards	13	13	500
Total		53	53	5,050

Source: Census 2011 and HDR Survey 2016

All the 53 villages and wards have been included in the study. Once the sample size for each district and for urban and rural areas was decided, the next step involved distributing the sample households across the urban wards and villages using the probability-proportional-to-size (PPS) method. The PPS approach has permitted the sampling units with the largest size (population) to have a higher representation in the sample, and vice versa.

Information was collected relating to the household head, caste, religion, number of total household members, migration, principal source of income, land, types of ration card, etc. For rural areas, 20 strata were created based on the principal source of income and possession of land. For urban areas, 20 strata were created based on the principal source of income and highest educational attainment of the household.

Here we present glimpses into some of the main findings from the primary survey referred to as HDR Survey, 2016. A distribution of the population in the UT by gender (Table 1.7) indicates the following:

First, the population growth in the whole UT has been almost 50 percent during the five years from 2011 to 2016. This appears to be much more than a natural growth process and suggests a huge influx of people from outside. Second, the population growth has been larger in Daman compared to Diu, which is likely to be because the former has a greater potential for providing jobs. Third, some shift towards greater gender equality in terms of numbers is observed.

Table 1.7: Distribution of Population by Gender

	Census 2011				HDR Survey, 2016			
	Daman	Diu	Total	% of Total	Daman	Diu	Total	% of Total
Male	1,24,659	25,642	1,50,301	61.79	1,81,778	30,161	2,11,939	55.01
Female	66,514	26,432	92,946	38.21	1,42,432	30,867	1,73,300	44.99
Total	1,91,173	52,074	2,43,247	100.00	3,24,210	61,028	3,85,239	100.00
% of Total	78.59	21.41	100.00		84.16	15.84	100.00	

Source: Census 2011 and HDR Survey 2016

Some observations can also be made about the continuing urbanisation of the UT. The rural population of Daman and Diu was 24.83 per cent of the total population as per the Census of 2011. In the year 2016, the rural population has declined to 19.95 per cent while the urban population increased to 80.05 per cent of the total population (Table 1.8). There is high in-migration in Daman and Diu, which is mainly concentrated in urban areas, which is the main reason for the swell in the urban population.

Table 1.8: Distribution of Population by Rural and Urban

	Census 2011				HDR Survey, 2016			
	Daman	Diu	Total	% of Total	Daman	Diu	Total	% of Total
Rural	32,313	28,083	60,396	24.83	43,174	33,638	76,812	19.94
Urban	1,58,860	23,991	1,82,851	75.17	2,81,037	27,391	3,08,428	80.06
Total	1,91,173	52,074	2,43,247	100.00	3,24,210	61,029	3,85,240	100.00
% of Total	78.59	21.41	100.00		84.16	15.84	100.00	

Source: Census, 2011 and HDR Survey, 2016

The primary survey also found that Other Backward Caste (OBC) has the highest population share in Daman and Diu followed by general caste. The population of the OBCs in Diu is 88.16 per cent while that of general caste is 5.52 per cent only. The third largest caste category in Diu is scheduled caste (SC) while scheduled tribe (ST) is the third largest category in Daman.

The HDR Survey in 2016 also indicates that migrant populations dominate the population composition in the UT, especially in Daman. The in-migration is far higher in Daman as compared to Diu and this is plausibly because it is larger in size, better connected and has heavier industrialisation (Table 1.9)

Table 1.9: Migrant Households (in %, with weight)

Type of Household	Daman	Diu	Daman & Diu
Migrant	65.26	3.66	57.09
Non-migrant	34.74	96.34	42.91
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Chapter Plan

Overview

Chapter 1 describes the scope of the report. It depicts a broad picture of the socio-economic status of the UT of Daman and Diu. It also discusses the methodology adopted for conducting the household survey, description of sample, and the chapter scheme.

The Economy – Challenges and Opportunities

Chapter 2 outlines the different facets of the economic activities and their implications on employment, income distribution and ecology have been discussed in this chapter.

Employment, Livelihoods and Poverty

Chapter 3 starts with a brief discussion on the basic demographic features of the UT. This is followed by detailed analysis of work participation rate, employment and unemployment status, sectoral composition of employment, wages and earnings, level of skill and skill promotion activities. Finally the poverty and inequality situation in Daman and Diu is discussed.

Human Capacities

Chapter 4 deals with the status of education, proportion of population (aged 15 years and above) across education level, the literacy rate, gross enrolment and attendance, preparedness of children for schooling, access to school, access to primary school: public- private divide, cost of schooling, school infrastructure, quality of learning, out-of-school children, parental interest in children's education, status of higher education, and parents' aspiration for child's higher education. The second part of this chapter deals with health scenario and recent trends, morbidity and burden of disease, mortality, health infrastructure, healthcare provider, healthcare expenditure, maternal and child healthcare, nutritional status of children under 5 years, and immunisation coverage of the children in the age group12-23 months.

Migration

Chapter 5 describes the migration status of the people/households, reasons of in-migration, their activity status, nature of jobs and remuneration, access to jobs, accommodation and living arrangements and remittances sent among other details.

Social Protection

Chapter 6 deals with the social protection programmes, mid-day meal scheme, scholarship to students, awareness about and satisfaction with the programmes, category-wise programmes/schemes where dissatisfaction level is more than 2.5 per cent, ration card facilities, and satisfaction with public distribution system (PDS).

Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

Chapter 7 summarises the findings of all the above chapters. It also suggests policy recommendations for further improvement of the socio-economic conditions of the people of Daman and Diu.

Appendix 1

Table A1.1: Population Trend of Daman and Diu

Year	Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu	% Increase
1961	22,390	14,280	36,670	--
1971	38,739	23,912	62,651	70.85
1981	48,560	30,421	78,981	26.07
1991	62,101	39,485	1,01,586	28.62
2001	1,13,989	44,215	1,58,204	55.73
2011	1,91,173	52,074	2,43, 247	53.75

Source: Census, 2011

Table A1.2: Availability of drinking Water and Sanitation Facilities in Daman and Diu

Particulars	Rural (Per 1000 Households)	Urban (Per 1000 Households)
Improved source of drinking water	874	909
Sufficient drinking water throughout the year	824	995
Have drinking water facility within premises	554	430
Treating drinking water by any method	732	290
Without bathroom facility	520	683
Having exclusive use of latrine	380	119
Having access to improved source of latrine	732	999

Source: National Sample Survey Report No. 556(69/1.2/1): Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition in India - 2012

CHAPTER 2

The Economy: Challenges and Opportunities

The Economic Structure

In the classical sense, industrialisation is defined as the foundation for creating a modern economy. It is a process of moving away from agrarian formations of livelihood in a country, through which the standards of living, scientific advancement and quality of life of the larger populace improve. Industrialisation is thus the foundation of development and human development. Industrialisation, however, is not a monolithic process: there are several types and patterns in industrialisation, wherein some help transform the economy (and thereby improve HD) while others are not that successful. It would be useful to examine the industrialisation process in Daman and Diu as seen through the HD lens.

The economy of Daman and Diu had earlier been mainly based on agriculture and fisheries. At the same time, both Daman and Diu were known for their ports, docks and ship-building yards between the 14th and 16th centuries. The place was also recognised for its weaving and dyeing activities before the advent of the Portuguese period. Later, the ports were used for exporting Gujarat-made cotton fabrics to different countries across the seas. On the other hand, opium was imported from China (NCAER, 2016). As of now, being a Union Territory, Daman receives a lot of tax concessions which attracts industries and makes the UT a hub for manufacturing. Further, being located in the coastal region, it is a natural destination

for tourists. At present, the economies of both Daman and Diu (more of Daman than Diu) are industry-led with fledgling service sectors.

There are no explicit estimates of the Gross Domestic Product of the UT (UTDP) available from official government sources. Recently, the NCAER (2016) calculated the UTDP for the period 2008-09 to 2012-13. In the year 2012-13, the UTDP of Daman and Diu was Rs 60,762.8 million at constant (2004-05) prices, which was 0.11 per cent of the GDP of India (Table 2.1). In the year 2009-10, the UTDP grew by 27.5 per cent, increasing its share in the Indian GDP by 0.02 per cent. The UTDP per capita in 2012-13 was Rs 2,12,087. However, the UTDP per capita declined during 2010-11 to 2012-13 owing to both an absolute decline in the growth rate in UTDP (numerator) and an increase in the numbers of in-migrants (denominator). The growth rate of UTDP per capita has in fact continuously declined since 2009-10, thereby turning negative in 2011-12. Nevertheless, the per capita UTDP is almost twice that of the all-India level.

Table 2.1: UTDP and Per Capita UTDP of Daman and Diu

	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13
Gross Domestic Product at factor cost	4,53,422	5,78,162	6,09,106	6,03,324	6,07,628
Share of Indian GDP (%)	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.11
Growth Rate of UTDP (%) of Daman and Diu	N.A.	27.5	5.4	–0.9	0.7
Per capita UTDP	2,07,609	2,53,542	2,55,818	2,30,168	2,12,087
Growth Rate of per capita UTDP (%)	NA	22.1	0.9	–10.0	–7.9

Source: NCAER, 2016 (from Table 1.8, page 16)

Table A 2.1 in Appendix 2 shows the break-up of the UTDP of Daman and Diu by different economic activities. The Sectoral shares in GSDP are shown in Table 2.2. The data show that manufacturing is the main sector of the economy of Daman and Diu, constituting about 75.48 per cent of the UTDP (in the year 2012-13). The manufacturing sector comprises mainly the *registered* manufacturing sector (exceeding 99 per cent).[1] There are very few *unregistered* manufacturing industries in Daman and Diu. Mining and quarrying activities were recorded only in the year 2009-10. There is no railway in Daman and Diu – this might have been an impediment for further industrialisation. The share of agricultural sector (including forestry and fishing) was recorded at 1.57 per cent of UTDP of the year 2012-13, of which, 1.24 per cent came from fishing, implying that crop agriculture is virtually absent in proportionate terms. In the services sector, the share of Real Estate, Ownership of Dwellings & Business Services in UTDP (11.20 per cent) was highest in the year 2012-13 for the years for which the calculations have been made. Trade, hotels & restaurants sector is also an important segment within the services sector as this segment is integral to the tourism industry.

1. Registered manufacturing units are those that employ at least 20 workers without power and at least 10 workers with power. These are registered with the appropriate authorities in the government and are subject to certain regulations.

Table 2.2: Shares (%) of Gross State Domestic Product at Factor Cost by Economic Activity of Daman and Diu, 2008-09 to 2012-13

Sectors	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13
Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	1.9	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.2
Mining & Quarrying	0	0	0	0	0
Manufacturing	82.8	84.9	84.2	81.6	77.7
Electricity, Gas & Water Supply	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	1
Construction	1.3	1.2	0.9	1.3	1.5
Trade, Hotels & Restaurants	5.4	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.6
Transport, Storage & Communications	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.7
Financing, Insurance, Real Estate & Business Services	4.6	4.6	5.9	7.6	10.4
Community, Social & Personal Services	2	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8

Source: Table 1.9, NCAER, 2016

Under normal conditions, a rapid change in sectoral shares towards the non-farm activities (namely, industry and services) in the total UTDP suggests a structural transformation in the economy, *if the overall labour productivity also increases*. The histories of developed economies show their transformation from agricultural to industrial to service-oriented economies. Daman and Diu might appear to have followed the classical structural transformation path pursued by the developed countries in the yester years. But this appearance might be somewhat notional, as the primary sector was never significant in this economy.

In the following section we deal with the issues of how industrialisation took place and how it has impacted the economy and the people.

Agriculture and the Allied Activities Sector

Presently, agriculture and its allied activities sectors contribute less than 2 per cent of UTDP of Daman and Diu – the share averaged around 1.3 per cent between 2008-09 and 2012-13 (Table 2.3). As mentioned in Chapter 1, only around one-fourth of the land is used for seasonal crop-based agriculture. The Net sown area for agriculture is 2,726.38 hectares (Table 2.3)

Table 2.3: Land Use Pattern in Daman and Diu in 2014-15 (in hectares)

Land Use Pattern	Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu
Land Use Pattern	Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu
Net Area Sown	2,226.38	500	2,726.38
Fallow Land	108.24	7.25	115.49
Cultural Waste Land	15.23	41.45	56.68
Total Uncultivated Land	34.57	85.5	120.07
Land not available for Cultivation	107.84	75.56	183.4

Source: Department of Agriculture, Daman and Diu

Within agriculture (and its allied sub-sectors), the percentage share of crop agriculture averaged around 20 per cent. The two components of agriculture 'proper', namely, growing of crops and livestock/animal husbandry, contribute nearly equal in the gross value added. The (average) share of livestock and animal husbandry was 0.13 per cent of the UTDP and about 10 per cent of the agriculture and allied activities sector, whereas growing of crops has been around 0.12 per cent of the UTDP which also contributes approximately 10 per cent of agriculture and allied activities.

There are two types of crop classifications: 'forecast' crops and horticultural crops, the former being grain/pulse type crops. The Gross Value Added (GVA) of the forecast crops was about 65 per cent of the GVA of all crops, and horticultural crops formed the rest of 35 per cent for the years shown in Table 2.4. The average growth rate of forecast crops was negative: –1.1 per cent during 2008-09 to 2012-13. The average growth rate of horticultural crops was 1.7 per cent.

Table 2.4: Gross Value Added at Current and Constant 2004-05 Prices (Rs lakh), Share in Growing of Crops and Growth Rate (%), 2008-09 to 2012-13

Year	Forecast Crops				Horticultural Crops			
	GVA (current Rs lakh)	GVA (constant 2004-05 prices, Rs lakh)	Share in Growing Crops (%)	*GR	GVA (current Rs lakh)	GVA (constant 2004-05 prices, Rs lakh)	Share in Growing Crops (%)	
2008-09	687	501	67.1		322	245	32.9	
2009-10	793	471	62.9	–6.2	446	277	37.1	13
2010-11	843	467	64.9	–0.7	439	253	35.1	
2011-12	932	484	64.7	3.6	480	264	35.3	4.4
2012-13	975	479	64.9	–1.0	492	260	35.1	

*GR = Growth Rate, Source: Table 2.3, NCAER, 2016

Forestry and logging (combined) is the smallest sub-sector within the broad agriculture and allied activities sector. When compared to all-India, the declared forest area is very low in Daman and Diu. In terms of commercial share, the average percentage of forestry and logging was 9.1 percent of the agriculture and allied sector's UTDP. Within the forestry sector, prominent contributors to the value added are industrial wood and trees outside the forest, which together comprised around 91 per cent of the gross value added from forestry and logging.

The fisheries sub-sector is important within the agriculture and allied sector, especially in Diu, as discussed earlier. More than 70 per cent of the gross value added in this sector originated from the fisheries. Approximately 98 per cent on gross value added in the fisheries sub-sector originates from the marine fish (as against inland fisheries, which is only 2 per cent).

Table 2.5: Fish Production in Daman and Diu

Year	Daman		Diu	
	Quantity (Tonnes)	Value (Million)	Quantity (Tonnes)	Value(Million)
2011-12	1,206.5	1,358	16,217.4	9,233
2012-13	1,144.3	1,692	18,209.1	11,832
2013-14	1,001.0	1,945	18,000.3	12,778
2014-15	1,736.7	2,080	17,524.6	15,250

Source: Fisheries Department, Daman and Diu

In sum, the relative importance of the agriculture and allied sector is small in the Union Territory of Daman and Diu, and here fishing rather than crops predominate. Also, the labour productivity of this sector is six times less as compared to the overall labour productivity in the UT, implying that there is huge scope for modernising activities herein.

Industry

The industrial sector in Daman and Diu consists of three sub-sectors – manufacturing, construction, and electricity, gas and water supply. The manufacturing sector is the largest among these three, both in terms of size and its contribution in the overall UTDP. On an average, the industrial sector's gross value added contributed about 84 per cent of the UTDP between 2008-09 and 2012-13. From Table 2.5 it is evident that the share is very high in the UTDP though it has slid somewhat gradually, from 86.8 per cent in 2009-10 to 80.3 per cent in 2012-13.

Table 2.6: Industrial Gross Value Added
(at Current and Constant 2004-05 prices), Share (%) of Industrial UTDP
in total and Growth Rate (% change of constant GVA), 2008-09 to 2012-13

Year	Current GVA (Rs lakh)	Constant GVA at 2004–05 prices (Rs lakh)	Share of Industry as a % of UTDP	Growth Rate of Constant Industrial GVA
2008–09	4,88,073	3,84,034	84.7	
2009–10	6,38,039	5,01,708	86.8	30.6
2010–11	7,11,150	5,21,966	85.7	4
2011–12	7,39,621	5,05,613	83.8	–3.1
2012–13	7,56,984	4,87,664	80.3	–3.5

Source: Table 3.1, NCAER, 2016

The industrial sector has been the major employer in Daman and Diu in the recent years. Regarding the distribution of labour inputs across sectors, the share of employment in industries in the total labour force increased from 28.1 per cent to 64.7 per cent between 2004-05 and 2011-12, as shown in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7: Labour Inputs across Sectors (%), 2004-05 and 2011-12

	Daman and Diu		India	
	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12
Agriculture	33.4	9.8	62.6	49.7
Industry	28.1	64.7	16.8	26
Services	38.5	25.5	20.6	24.3

Source: Table 1.11, NCAER, 2016

Further, Daman and Diu is characterised by high labour productivity in the industrial sector with 64.7 per cent of the labour force engaged, to produce 83.8 per cent of the UTDP. However, it is observed that if in a short period of 6-7 years, if the value added and employment in industry has spiralled, there has been surely a lateral movement of industries here from elsewhere – the 'flying geese' industries, shifting to locales providing high profit.

The manufacturing sector covers all manufacturing, processing, and repair & maintenance services units irrespective of the employment size, investment and location. The manufacturing sector is classified into two broad segments– 'registered' and 'unregistered'. As stated earlier, registered manufacturing is the most significant component in the industry. Unregistered manufacturing, although forming an insignificant share of the manufacturing sector, has experienced relatively high growth as compared to registered manufacturing. But this comparison is only notional given the size of each of the two segments. The ***manufacturing sector*** within industry contributes 97.6 per cent of the gross value added. However, the growth rate in manufacturing fell from 30.1 per cent in 2009-10 to 4.5 per cent in 2010-11, evidently resulting in a drop in the growth in the industrial sector. The reason for this is believed to be the general fall in manufacturing activities in India on the one hand and reduction/withdrawal in tax benefits on the other, which attracted industries to set up shop here.

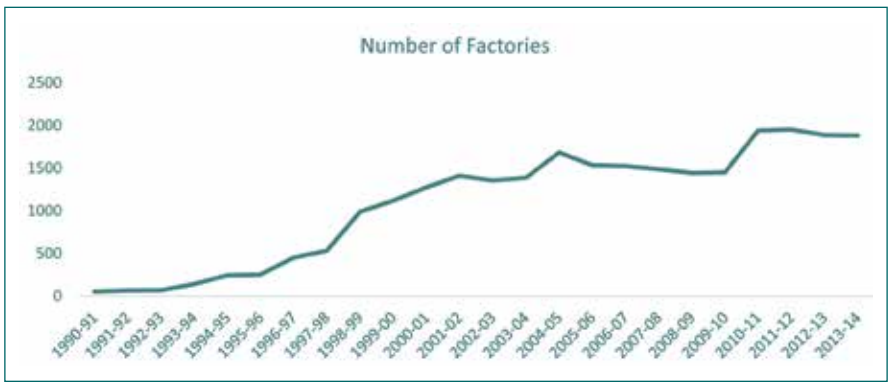
Construction, which spearheads in many other parts of the country, is not an important growth sector here. The construction sector on an average accounted for 1.5 per cent of the industry's gross value added in Daman and Diu and 1.2 per cent of the overall UTDP in the period 2008-2013. The average annual growth rate in this sector was 15.8 per cent during this period. The public sector has contributed the maximum to the construction GVA and within that, the central government organisations have had a larger contribution, followed by that from UT government organisations.

Finally, the economic activities relating to power generation, transmission and distribution of electric energy are covered under the electricity sub-sector; the manufacture of gas in gas works including bio-gas and distribution through mains to household, industrial, commercial and other users are covered under the gas sub-sector; and the activities associated with collection, purification and distribution of water (excluding the operation of irrigation systems) are covered under the water supply

sub-sector. The sector forms a small part at 0.8 per cent of the UTDP and 0.9 per cent of the overall industry gross value added by the industrial sector.

The number of factories in the UT increased several folds during the period between 1990-91 and 2013-14. In the year 1990-91, there were only 53 industrial units in the UT, but the number rapidly rose to 1,881 by the year 2013-14 (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Number of Factories



In relatively long term, investments in the industrial sector have also seen a substantial improvement in the UT. In the year 1990-91, the investment was recorded at only Rs 270 million, which increased to Rs 102,788 million in the year 2013-14 (Figure 2.2). Trends in the industrial sector employment in the UT show a similar buoyancy: the number of workers in the industrial units was only 2,205 in 1990-91, which increased to 89,215 in the year 2013-14 (Figure 2.3). In terms of worker per factory, the figure increased from 41 per unit in the year 1990-91 to 47 per unit in the year 2013-14. These numbers suggest that tiny and micro-size industries are only few here, if any.

Figure 2.2: Investment in Industries

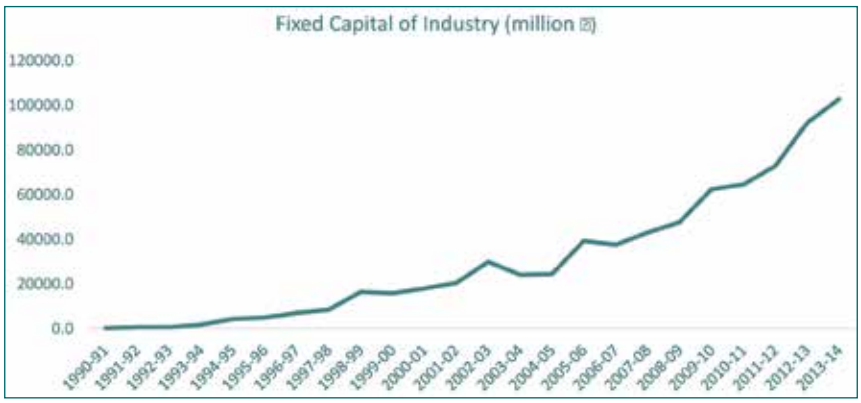
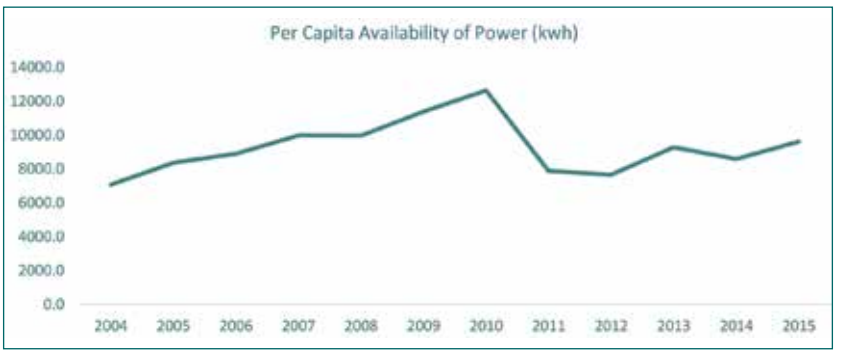


Figure 2.3: Number of Workers in the Industry

Has the industrial sector helped in improving human development in the UT? As would be seen in the later chapters, industries have moved in here mainly due to tax concessions. Since the local human power was/is not fully ready for deployment in industry, a large stream of in-migration/migrant workers from a number of states began meeting the demand for workers in the industry. The wages of workers and the standard of living of the populace however have not increased in proportion to the capital movement or output growth into the UT. Also, since almost all the industries have their origin in other states, local entrepreneurship has been slow to emerge. Apart from this there are complaints that the chemical industries are causing pollution, due to which the soil and groundwater resources are getting contaminated. Seen from an HD perspective, this form of industrialisation needs to become environmentally friendly for sustainable development and improved HD.

The per capita availability of power in the UT grew steadily between 2004 and 2010, but there was a sudden downward dip during 2010-2011 before it again stabilised (Figure 2.4). It is not clear whether the global and national downswing in the economy created this blip or it was a supply-side effect. One possibility is: since power cannot be stored, its production/availability might have been cut back with a slowdown in the industrial production.

Figure 2.4: Per capita Availability of Power



Services

The services sector includes activities in trade, hotels and restaurants; transport, storage and communications; finances; insurance; real estate and business services; and community, social and personal services. The value added from services is the second largest after industry in Daman and Diu. In the year 2012-13, the share of the services sector was 18.5 per cent in the UTDP of Daman and Diu. This is against the share of 58.8 per cent in the rest of India. The share of the services sector in the UTDP, after falling from 13.4 per cent in 2008-09 to 11.9 per cent in 2009-10, has shown a steady rise, as can be seen in Table 2.8. The annual average rate of growth in this sector for the period between 2009-10 and 2012-13 was 16.8 per cent.

In regard to labour deployment in services, the share of the services in the total labour inputs *decreased* significantly between 2004-05 and 2011-12 from 38.5 to 25.5 per cent, as seen in Table 2.6. Thus, while the contribution of this sector in the UTDP has increased over the years, the share of labour deployment in this sector has declined. This is an indication of the rise in relative labour productivity of the sector.

The composition of the services sector too has changed over the years / through the years. Trade, hotels and restaurants were the dominant sub-sectors in 2008-09 with a share of 40 per cent in the gross value added in the services sector, but this share reduced to 24.8 per cent in 2012-13. The shares of transport, storage and communications, and community social and personal services have also gone down. Whereas the sub-sectors: financing, insurance, real estate and business services - have seen a steady rise in their shares and their (combined) share has gone up from 34.2 per cent in 2008-09 to 56.2 per cent in 2012-13.

The trade sub-sector includes wholesale and retail trade in all commodities, whether produced domestically, imported or exported. This sector now also comprises maintenance and repair of motor vehicles and repair of personal household goods. The hotels and restaurants sub-sector covers services rendered by hotels and other lodging places, restaurants, cafes and other eating and drinking places. The share of trade, hotels and restaurants has been around 4.5 per cent of the UTDP between the period 2008-09 and 2012-13. Between trade, hotels and restaurants, trade is the largest sub-sector constituting about 83.8 per cent of the overall sub-sector. Hotels and restaurants form 16.8 per cent of the total sub-sector, 0.7 per cent of the UTDP of Daman and Diu and 5.1 per cent of the services sector. The share of this sub-sector has steadily fallen since 2008-09. Trade contributes, on an average, 3.8 per cent of the UTDP of Daman and Diu and 35.2 per cent in the service sector's share.

Another sub-sector of the services sector, i.e. transport, storage and communications contributes about 1.5 per cent of the UTDP of Daman and Diu. The share of this sub-sector in the services sector has gone down, primarily driven by the decline in the percentage share of communications. The percentage share of transport and storage in services sector however has remained constant during the same period.

Table 2.8: Services GVA, Current and Constant 2004-05 Prices, Share of Services GVA as a % of UTDP and Growth Rate (% Change of Constant GVA), 2008-09 to 2012-13

Year	Current GVA (Rs.lakh)	Constant GVA at 2004-05 prices (Rs.akh)	Share of Services as a % of UTDP	Growth Rate (%) of Constant Services GVA
2008-09	72,903	60,644	13.4	
2009-10	92,414	69,026	11.9	13.8
2010-11	1,14,908	80,190	13.2	16.2
2011-12	1,41,897	90,939	15.1	13.4
2012-13	1,95,631	1,12,613	18.5	23.8

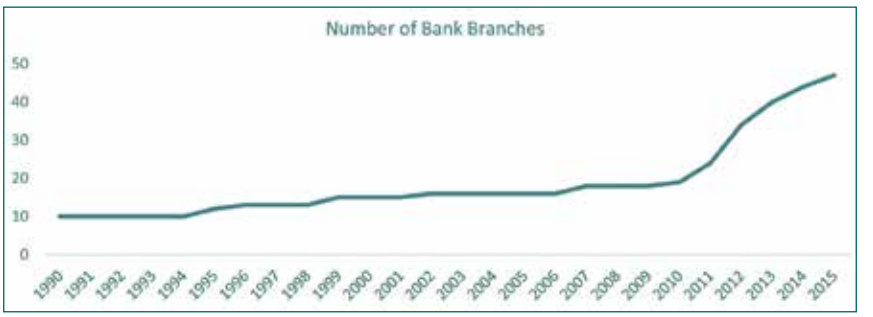
Source: Table 4.1, NCAER, 2016

The share of services sector in the UTDP had shown a continuous increase between 2008-09 and 2012-13, mainly driven by the increase in the banking and finance-related sub-sectors. In 2012-13, it formed 10.4 per cent of the UTDP (Table 2.8). Within this, the real estate, ownership of dwellings and business services formed 7.9 per cent of the UTDP. After registered manufacturing, this sector is the most significant one in the UT. Double-digit growth, although fluctuating, had driven this sub-sector to become more than half of the overall services sector in 2012-13. Real estate, ownership of dwellings and business services formed approximately 75 per cent of this sector in 2012-13.

The (average) share of banking and insurance as a percentage of the UTDP has been about 2 per cent between 2008-09 and 2012-13 and there has been a steady increase in its share. Business services is an important sub-sector, which increased its share between 2008-09 and 2012-13.

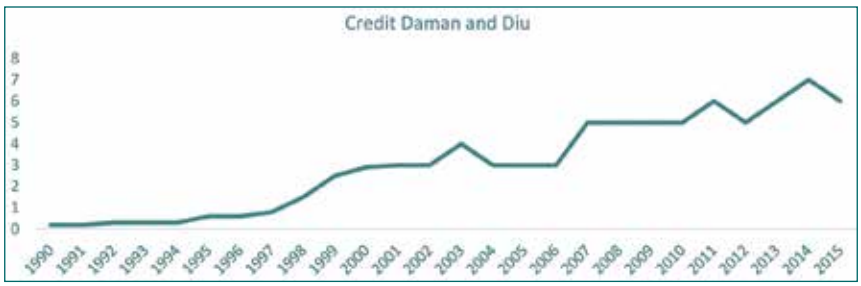
With the increasing growth in the information, communication and technology (ICT) sector, the banking sub-sector has gained in importance. Figure 2.5 presents the trend in the number of bank offices of the scheduled commercial banks for the period of 1990 to 2015. Till 2010 the growth in the number of branches was relatively modest It is only after that a faster upward trend is seen. This suggests that the banking sector took off very late in the UT.

Figure 2.5: Number of Bank Offices of Schedule Commercial Banks



In any modern economy, institutional finance is very important for growth of entrepreneurs, sectors, as well as economy as a whole. In this context, the extent of credit disbursed also reflects upon the state of industrial activity. From Figure 2.6, one can make out that the credit disbursed in the UT has been modest – having grown only 5-6 times over 25 years. Until about 1998 the credit disbursed to the industry was less than Rs 1 billion; it is only after 1998 that the credit has started showing a relatively more rapid increment to reach about Rs 7 billion by 2014. One possibility is that the large industries borrow finances from outside the UT, for example, from Mumbai, Surat, Ahmedabad, etc., where these industries have their headquarters.

Figure 2.6: Credit to Industry by Scheduled Commercial Banks (Billion Rs.)



The state of credit disbursed to agriculture is even worse in the UT as data from the RBI suggest. Until 2000 the credit amount outstanding against the agricultural sector was Rs.0.01 billion Thereafter, virtually no credit was given out to the sector. Relatively low credit to industry and no credit to agriculture are not healthy signs per se and suggest a disjointed-ness between agriculture and industry. However, the point made earlier that some entities borrow from banking institutions outside the UT is a distinct possibility.

The share of community, social and personal services sector in the services sector has decreased; it dropped from 15 per cent in 2008-09 to 9.9 per cent in 2012-13 in the services sector. Public administration earlier accounted for a larger share of community, social and personal services, but its share has declined over time. In 2008-09 it accounted for 61.1 per cent of the sub-sectoral gross value added, whereas in 2012-13 it was only 45.1 per cent. 'Other' services sub-sector is an important sub-sector in which education (that includes coaching) contributes the maximum. The share of health services has remained more or less the same and that of sewage and sanitation has been increasing over the years.

Summing Up

Daman and Diu is an industrial economy, with majority of industries located in Daman. In contrast, Diu is relatively more rural with the marine fishing industry being more important there. The per capita income of the UT is approximately five times that of India. In recent years, the growth of the economy has fluctuated with slowing down of the manufacturing sector.

The industrialisation process in the state did not follow the classical path, wherein an (initial) agrarian economy gives way to an industrial economy and the workers too are transferred from (low productivity) agriculture to non-farm sectors. The UT of Daman and Diu was a subsistence/fishing economy, which suddenly transformed into an industrial economy via a lateral transfer of industries from elsewhere due to tax concessions. There was neither a transfer of savings (for industrialisation) from the primary sectors, nor was there a transfer of workers from the primary sectors to the modern ones in a big way, as would be seen later – labour moved in from other states to work in the industries here. In terms of human development, the economy and people's wellbeing are thus not matched.

Appendix 2

Table A2.1: Gross State Domestic Product at Factor Cost by Economic Activity, 2008-09 to 2012-13, Rs.Lakh at Current Prices

Sl. No.	Sector	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	% share in UTDP of year 2012-13
1	Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	10,378	10,951	12,269	12,810	15,187	1.57
1.1	Agriculture	1,790	2,233	2,451	2,734	2,472	0.26
1.2	Forestry & Logging	630	1,377	646	660	679	0.07
1.3	Fishing	7,958	7,341	9,172	9,417	12,036	1.24
2	Mining & Quarrying	N.A.	5	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.00
3	Manufacturing	4,77,582	6,24,712	6,98,219	7,18,481	7,30,535	75.48
3.1	Registered	4,76,770	6,23,791	6,97,172	7,17,287	7,29,169	75.34
3.2	Unregistered	812	920	1,047	1,194	1,366	0.14
4	Electricity, Gas & Water Supply	3,035	4,313	4,468	7,574	9,041	0.93
5	Construction	7,456	9,009	8,463	13,566	17,408	1.80
6	Trade, Hotels & Restaurants	30,981	34,636	40,266	43,343	52,820	5.46
6.1	Trade	26,264	29,373	34,056	35,938	44,026	4.55
6.2	Hotels & Restaurants	4,717	5,263	6,210	7,405	8,795	0.91
7	Transport, Storage & Communications	6,157	7,499	8,799	10,671	13,454	1.39
7.1	Railways	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.00
7.2	Transport by other means	2,740	3,226	4,152	5,197	6,814	0.70
7.3	Storage	67	81	99	122	146	0.02
7.4	Communications	3,350	4,192	4,548	5,352	6,494	0.67
8	Financing, Insurance, Real Estate & Business Services	24,109	34,160	49,535	70,312	1,08,399	11.20
8.1	Banking & Insurance	7,056	9,801	12,524	13,347	16,612	1.72
8.2	Real Estate, Ownership of Dwellings & Business Services	17,053	24,359	37,011	56,965	91,787	9.48
9	Community, Social & Personal Services	11,656	16,119	16,307	17,571	20,958	2.17
9.1	Public Administration & Defence	7,126	8,728	7,964	8,582	9,454	0.98
9.2	Other Services	4,530	7,391	8,343	8,989	11,504	1.19
10	Gross Domestic Product at factor cost (1 to 9)	5,71,534	7,41,404	8,38,327	8,94,328	9,67,801	

Source: Table 1.7, NCAER, 2016

CHAPTER 3

Labour, Employment and Poverty

Introduction

According to the human development paradigm, in a society people matter the most. Among the many facets of human wellbeing are: who they are, where they work, how they live, etc. This chapter discusses the employment and unemployment situation and the standards of living along with poverty and inequality, for the population in Daman and Diu. Here the research draws upon multiple sources including secondary sources and the primary survey conducted in 2016 for the HDR.

We begin with a brief discussion on demography. This is required to set a context to the discussion since, as observed in Chapter 1, the annual growth in the population has exceeded 5 per cent which is deemed to be very high when seen in the contemporary context. The situation is particularly critical since the population density is already very high at more than 2,000/km^2, and if unchecked, the population increase would result in stagnation and even deterioration in employment, earnings, overall levels of living and the environment.

Demography

The demography of Union Territory (UT) of Daman and Diu has distinctive features. Both in terms of geographical area (0.003 per cent) and population (0.025 per cent), the share of this UT to overall India's geographical area and population is very small. Nevertheless, Daman and Diu has shown demographic contradictions when compared with the all India averages and with its neighbouring

states, namely Gujarat and Maharashtra. During 2001-2011, the decadal population growth of Daman and Diu was 53.8 per cent (Table 3.1), which was much higher than the national average of 17.6 per cent and that of the other two neighbouring states (Maharashtra 16.0 per cent and Gujarat 19.3 per cent). Similarly, Daman and Diu has one of the highest population densities at 2,191/km^2, which is much higher than the national average of 382/km^2.

Table 3.1: Key Demographic Comparisons, 2011

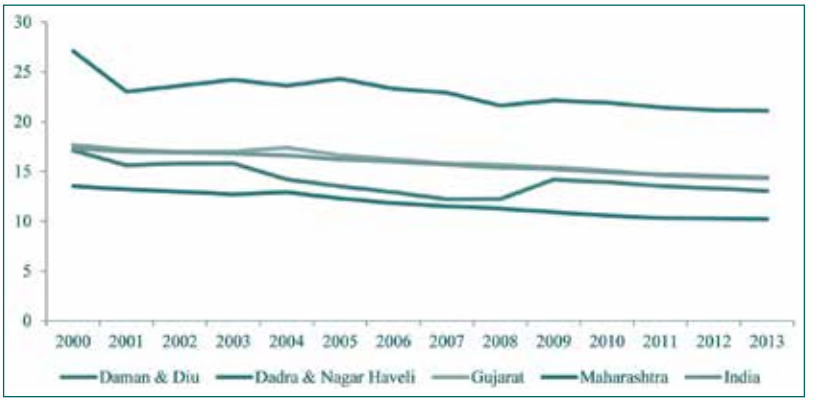
Key Demographic Indicators	India	Daman and Diu	Dadra and Nagar Haveli	Maharashtra	Gujarat
Population		243,247	343,709	112,374,333	60,439,692
Male		150,301	193,760	58,243,056	31,491,260
Female		92,946	149,949	54,131,277	28,948,432
Population Growth (2001-2011)	17.6%	53.8%	55.9%	16.0%	19.3%
Sex Ratio	940	618	774	929	919
Child Sex Ratio	919	904	926	894	890
Population Density (per km^2)	382	2,191	700	365	308

Source: Census 2011

Population Growth

There has been a continuous decline in the birth rate in Daman and Diu, reaching 17.9/1,000 in 2013, down from a range of 21.6 to 26.9 per 1000 during 1995-2000. Trends in death rate in the UT were about 8/1,000 population during 1995-96, which is similar to the national figures. This number reached 4.9/1,000 in 2013. [The current death rate in Daman and Diu is much below the national average of 7/1,000. The birth (17.5/1,000) and death (4.6/1,000) rates in urban areas are lower than that of their rural counterparts (birth 18.2/1,000 and death 5.1/1,000), showing a usual pattern.]

Figure 3.1: Trends in Natural Growth Rate of Population during 2000-2013



Source: Sample Registration System, Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, India

Thus it is not the natural population growth that has a skew, in-migration has a lot to explain so far as population growth is concerned.

Fertility and Mortality

The Daman and Diu UT had achieved replacement level fertility of 2.1 births per woman in 2005 and since then the total fertility rate has not gone above 2.0. The total fertility rate in Daman and Diu was measured at 1.7, as seen from data obtained from the National Family Health Survey (NFHS) 4 pertaining to 2015-16.

Table 3.2: Trends in Age-specific Fertility Rate (per 1000 women) of Daman and Diu, 1993-2013 Sample Registration System

Age groups	1993-95	2003-05	2011-13
15-19	30.7	24.7	7.8
20-24	248.5	199.0	184.1
25-29	260.7	135.6	135.3
30-34	103.8	56.2	48.0
35-39	33.6	11.7	13.9
40-44	4.5	2.2	2.4
45-49	3.1	0.2	0.0

The decline in fertility rate and achievement of or going below replacement level fertility has been possible in the last two decades due to a substantial decline in Age-specific Fertility Rate in the age groups 20-24 years and 25-29 years.

Employment

It is a major challenge for all governments, including that of Daman and Diu, to create productive and quality employment for the increasing (including incoming) labour force. High economic growth is necessary, though not a sufficient condition for creating new work opportunities. It is the composition and pattern of economic growth that has important implications for productive and quality employment for the large labour force. In Daman and Diu, the agriculture and its allied activities sector employs hardly one-tenth of the main workforce: majority of workers are engaged in non-farm work. The rapid shift of the workforce towards the non-agricultural sectors has improved the income levels of large sections of the workforce and consequently the proportion of poor people is much lower here than the all-India level or in the neighbouring states. The challenge today is to generate well-paying jobs in more productive industry and in services sector so that better and sustained source of livelihood for the working population can be created. This is particularly so because the nature of industrialisation presently suffers from two problems: it has not been growing in the recent years, and there is little movement up the value chain. The HD levels would be higher and move in a 'northward direction' if there is a continuous improvement in productivity and incomes of the larger populace.

In this section, analysis is done on the patterns of employment generation in this millennium as well as skill structure of the working population.

Work Participation Rate

Work participation rate (WPR) or worker to population ratio is the basic parameter that captures the contribution of workers in economic life. There are two main secondary data sources of WPR: The National Sample Survey (NSS) and the decennial census. The NSS data in the recent past pertain to the years 2004-05 and 2011-12, a gap of seven years, and censuses are available for the years 2001 and 2011.[1] This report presents the data mainly from the primary survey conducted for the present Human Development Report in 2016.

A worker is defined as one who has worked for a major part of the last one year. The definitions are similar in both NSS and census, except that in census the information is a one-shot collection, while in the NSS the inquiry is deeper. The present survey follows definitions similar to the ones that the NSS puts forth. Tables 3.3 and 3.4 present the work participation in the capacity of principal status workers (i.e. working or available for work for 180 days or more) and principal plus subsidiary status workers of persons aged 15 and above, the age at which the law permits a person to participate in the workforce.

Table 3.3: Work Participation Rate, 15 years & above for Principal Status (Primary Survey, 2016)

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Daman	75.1	22.1	49.4	83.8	16.7	55.7	82.7	17.5	54.8
Diu	64.9	13.2	38.3	64.6	14.3	38.7	64.8	13.7	38.5
Total	70.9	18.2	44.7	82.2	16.4	54.1	80.2	16.8	52.2

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table 3.4: Work Participation Rate, 15 years & above for Principal + Subsidiary Status (Primary Survey, 2016)

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Daman	75.5	24.5	50.8	83.8	17.3	56.0	82.8	18.4	55.3
Diu	64.9	14.1	38.8	64.9	14.8	39.0	64.9	14.4	38.9
Total	71.1	19.9	45.7	82.3	17.0	54.4	80.3	17.7	52.6

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

1. In addition, from 2009-10 the Labour Bureau has started bringing out annual employment-unemployment survey reports. The latest report (4th Survey Report) is for the year 2013-14. In this chapter, as we are examining employment trends over longer periods, we did not include report of Labour Bureau in our analysis.

Four points call for attention here-

First, the urban male workers' participation is higher than the rural male participation. The possible reason may be that almost all migrant workers – who form a very large part of the workforce – come to urban areas where the industries are located. Hence, the ratio is high.

Second, there is a significant difference between the work participation of persons between Daman and Diu. Again, the possible reason could relate to in-migration: many more migrants come to Daman as compared to Diu, since the former district is significantly more industrialised and hence attracts workers.

Third, the female work participation is significantly lower as compared to male work participation in both Daman and Diu – it is more in Diu than Daman. This raises the questions:

Is this due to the types of jobs in the industry (where male workers are preferred), is it the human capital element, or is it that the industrialisation process has not been able to pull out women workers and instead migrant workers are deployed? All these are serious questions when seen from an HD perspective, and needs perusal.

Fourth, there are very few subsidiary workers – a typical observation in a non-farm based economy.

Status and Sector of Employment

The status of employment defines the structure of the workforce: how many are self-employed, wage employed, casually engaged, etc. The definition is the same as earlier: whether a person is employed in that capacity for a majority of one's total engagement.

Table 3.5 shows the distribution of workers by work status, which is categorised into three: self-employed, regular workers and casual workers. The table below shows that overall, regular workers dominate the labour market with over three-fourths falling in this category of work. Self-employed are few at less than 15 per cent and casual labourers are even fewer. The gender distribution is no different from the overall distribution. There is however a difference between rural and urban areas: in rural areas, there are more self-employed and casual labourers as compared to that in urban areas. This is a reflection of the extant labour market: in rural areas, there are fewer industries and people are farmers or fisherpersons; as a result, they are engaged outside regular employee-work. Conventional wisdom suggests that regular work is a superior option as compared to casual work, and to a large part of self-employment as well. Tables 3.5 and 3.6 suggest that as compared to all-India, the work status of workers is per se superior, but more could be said only after the working conditions, earnings, etc. are examined.

Table 3.5: Status of Employment in Daman & Diu, Principal Status Aged 15 years and above, 2016

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Self Employed	21.3	17.9	20.7	13.1	14.6	13.3	14.4	15.4	14.6
Regular Worker	60.7	64.7	61.5	82.0	77.6	81.5	78.6	74.6	78.1
Casual Worker	17.9	17.4	17.8	4.9	7.8	5.2	6.9	10.0	7.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table 3.6: Sectoral Composition of Employment in Daman & Diu and India, Principal Status Aged 15 years and above, 2016

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture and Allied	36.4	17.3	32.0	4.8	2.6	4.5	9.8	6.1	9.2
Industry	26.8	32.6	28.1	66.4	53.4	64.4	60.1	48.4	58.2
Services	36.8	50.2	39.8	28.8	44.0	31.1	30.1	45.4	32.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Typical to a non-agrarian economy, overall, proportionately there are very few workers (in single digit) in agriculture and its allied activities. However, there is an urban-rural difference with the former having much larger proportion in the primary sector. The sectoral composition of the workforce, despite being far more balanced as compared to the all-India ratio, still leaves a large productivity gap. Table 3.7 suggests that the productivity gap between the different sectors is large. First, the agriculture and allied activities show a labour productivity level some eight times lower than agriculture, which is larger than that found in most states and at all-India level, and second, there is an almost 1:2 gap in the labour productivity in the services ***against*** the industrial sector. This is odd, since usually people move from primary to secondary and then finally to tertiary sectors in the process of development. Is it because the economy of Daman and Diu is a small part of Indian economy and the theory would not hold true in smaller geographical sub-units? This aspect requires pondering.

Table 3.7: Labour Productivity by Broad Sectors

Sectors	GSDP (Rs. Lakhs) in 2012-13	No. of Workers in 2016	Productivity (Rs. Lakh per Worker)
Agriculture and Allied Activities	15,187	13,399	1.13
Industry	730,535	84,775	8.62
Services	222,080	47,449	4.68
Total	967,802	145,623	6.65

Source: NCAER and HDR Survey, 2016

Benefits at Work

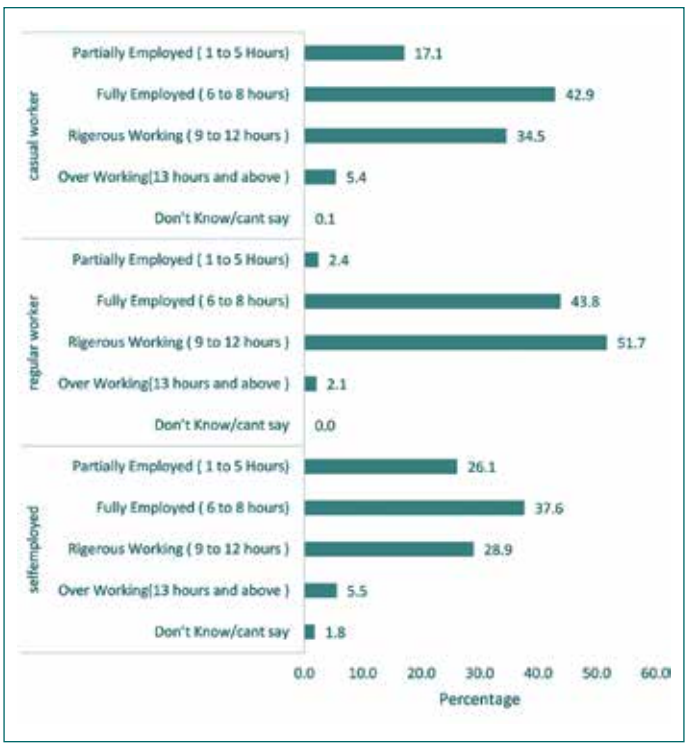
Quality of work can be assessed by earnings, hours of work, benefits/facilities provided at the workplace, and so on. Here we analyse the quality of work for the workers in Daman and Diu by looking at working hours and weekly working days first, followed by the facilities available at the workplace and lastly, by looking at their earnings.

Extent of Engagement

To examine this aspect, which is captured by hours of work and by number of days worked in a week, a number of questions were put to the respondents, who themselves assessed their work status. The responses indicate that a majority of workers work beyond the mandatory 8-hour day, i.e. are either in rigorous work or are over-worked, and there are differences among workers of different types (Figure 3.2 and Table A3.1 in Appendix 3).

Over-working, i.e. working for 13 hours or more, is more among self-employed and casual labourers than regular workers. But it is the regular workers who are undergoing rigorous work (working for 9-12 hours) for the maximum duration (51.7 percent reported so). This is much lower, though still quite high among casual workers (34.5 percent) and self-employed (28.9 percent). 'Fully employed' status shows similar response at around 43 percent for regular and casual workers, and lower for self-employed. As expected, the self-employed show the highest share of being partially employed, followed by casual labourers.

Figure 3.2 Extent of engagement of different types of workers



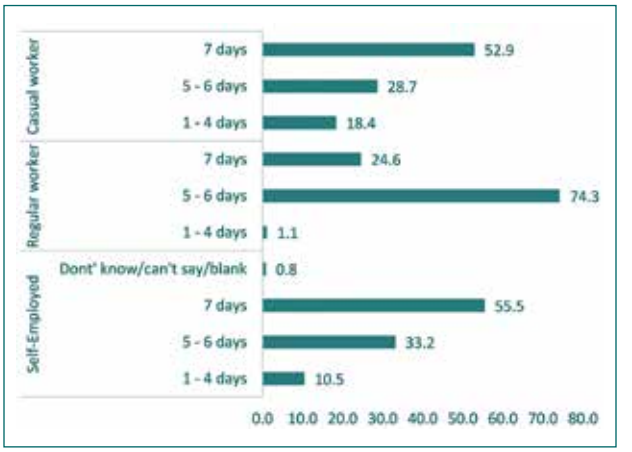
Source: HDR Survey, 2016

It is a matter of concern that there are partially employed and underemployed persons in visible proportions among the self-employed. This answers the question, whether the quality of self-employment is high or not. The answer seems to be largely in the negative. There is high underemployment and partial unemployment among the self-employed followed by those in casual employment. A small proportion of the regular workers too face underemployment.

What is intriguing is that unemployment/underemployment and overwork/hard work coexist. The one reason that could explain this phenomenon is that employers try to get the maximum out of the workers they employ (maximise output per rupee of wage paid) rather than employ additional workers. This is clearly a situation of over-supply of workers which permits the employers to be extremely choosy regarding who and for how long they wish to employ. In-migration along with lack of local human capital contributes to this situation.

We next look at the number of days of employment the workers get (Figure 3.3 and Table A3.2 in Appendix 3). Not all of the workers work for all the seven days. It is not clear yet, whether this is by choice or otherwise, but from a 'decent work' perspective, this is a bit heartening. Majority of the self-employed and casual workers are engaged for all the seven days, but this majority is not much more than 50 per cent despite this being a modal frequency. On the other hand, the modal frequency of regular workers' engagement is six days, implying that for most of them there is some work regulation applicable. Finally, underemployment is clearly visible among the self-employed and casual wage workers, a point seen earlier as well. However, a small proportion of the regular workers also face underemployment.

Figure 3.3 Working Days in a Week of Worker (% of workers)



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Benefits to Workers

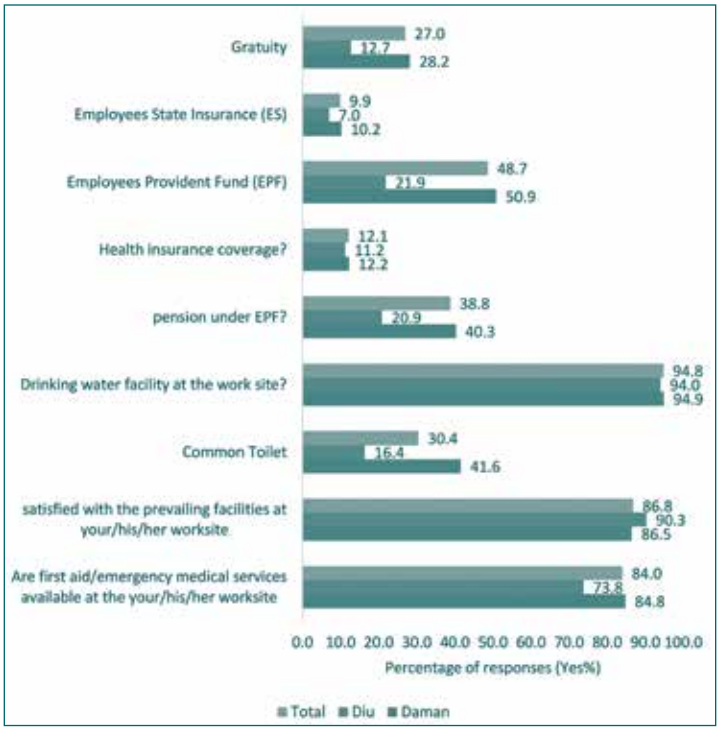
Workers in regular work or casual work are expected to get a few benefits other than

wages such as gratuity, state health insurance/health insurance, pension, toilet facilities at the workplace, etc. Figure 3.4 presents data on facilities available for regular workers and Figure 3.5 presents the facilities available for casual workers. The detailed data are presented in the Appendix in Tables A3.3 and A3.4.

For regular workers, as per the law or conventions, all the facilities such as gratuity, health insurance, pension, on-site health facility, water and toilet facilities, etc. are expected to be available at the workplace. Table 3.10a shows that in both rural and urban areas in Daman as well as Diu, the answer is 'No' to most questions related to insurance, pension and the like. However, most respondents said that on-site medical kits and water were available. Toilets are not available to a majority, and only in 13 per cent cases there are separate toilets for women. This holds true in both rural and urban areas, implying that only a few of the regular workers are able to avail facilities provided as their legitimate rights. Evidently, the law is followed/enforced more selectively.

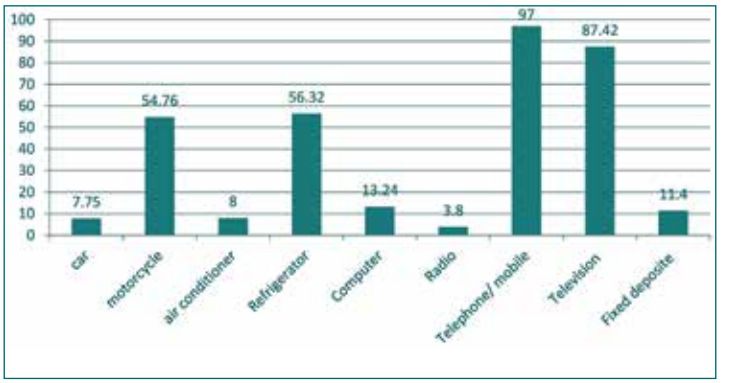
Figure 3.5 below and Table A3.4 in the Appendix show the facilities available to casual workers. Interestingly, the frequency of the availability of facilities to casual workers is quite similar to that of the regular workers in the three items compared – others might not be applicable to casual workers. It appears as if the facilities are available on site and everyone could use them irrespective of their work status.

Figure 3.4: Benefits provided to Regular Workers
% of responses (Yes%)



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Figure 3.5: Facilities provided for Casual Workers
% of responses (% Yes)



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table 3.8 presents data on the average number of days in a year a regular employee could avail as sanctioned leave – paid leave, medical leave and maternity leave. It needs to be examined if this is observed in accordance with the law as practices are varied across industries or employing establishments. Averages only suggest that there is existence of leave option. Maternity leave is usually more than a month, and other leaves combined are also about a month, for regular workers. Data in this table suggest that the rules are not strictly followed.

Table 3.8: Paid or Earned Leaves/Medical Leaves/Maternity or Paternity Leaves in a year (Regular Worker) (Mean)

		How many paid/earned leave days does the worker have in a year?	How many medical leave days does the worker have in a year?	How many maternity/ paternity leave days does the worker have in a year?
Daman	Rural	19	16	23
	Urban	13	9	13
	Total	14	10	14
DIU	Rural	8	6	5
	Urban	8	7	8
	Total	8	6	7
Total	Rural	16	13	18
	Urban	13	9	13
	Total	13	10	14

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

There is a difference between regular workers and casual workers in terms of working conditions. The former are on long-term contract and the latter are on short-term contracts, hence a comparison is not possible in a large number of cases.

Wages, Earnings and Levels of Living

Analysis of Survey Data

Wages and earnings are the most important indicators to judge the quality of wage/salaried employment. Earnings also have profound implications on the quality of employment and productivity of workers. In this context, regular employment, which is expected to pay better and has no intermittent spells of unemployment, is considered better, more secure, and durable. In this regard, the casual wage workers are expected to be the worse-off. In this report data on earnings/ wages of all the three categories of workers have been collected for the self-employed, regular wage workers and casual workers.

The frequency distribution of the monthly earnings of the self-employed can be seen in Table 3.9a. This table shows that the modal frequency lies in the income group of up to Rs. 5,000. This is small in absolute terms, not even adding up to Rs. 200/day if a worker works for all the 30 days in a month. If this is to be shared with the family with none other earning, then on an average, a self-employed person would be below the poverty line. The distribution of workers by earnings in Daman and Diu are quite similar though it seems that the earnings of the self-employed workers in Diu are significantly lower than those in Daman.

Table 3.9a: Frequency Distribution of Self-employed Workers by Net Monthly Income, 2016

Income bracket (Rs.)	0-5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	20,001-50,000	Above 50,000	Total
Daman	6,139	5,407	2,672	1,091	162	15,471
Diu	1,882	868	259	205	0	3,214
Total	8,021	6,275	2,931	1,296	162	18,685

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table 3.9b shows the modal frequency of regular employed workers in the income bracket of Rs. 5,001-10,000, which is one bracket above the self-employed. It is evident that regular workers are better-off when compared with those who are self-employed. However, the fact that the modal frequency lies in the earnings bracket of Rs. 5,000-10,000, itself shows that workers in this status group too do not earn much.

Table 3.9b: Frequency Distribution of Regular-employed Workers by Net Monthly Income, 2016

Income Bracket (Rs.)	0-5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	20,001-50,000	Above 50,000	Total
Daman	15,582	45,793	18,942	4,529	219	85,065
Diu	1,987	2,169	1,564	1,242	56	7,018
Total	17,569	47,962	20,506	5,771	275	92,083

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table 3.9c presents data on the frequency distribution of casual wage workers by different earning brackets. Like the self-employed, here too the modal frequency lies in the lowest earnings group. However, unlike the self-employed where the modal frequency in the lowest earnings group was about 45 per cent, the modal frequency

here is about 63 per cent. It implies that this group is the worst-off in terms of earnings among the three status groups compared.

Table 3.9c: Frequency Distribution of Casual Workers by Their Earnings (in the Last Month), 2016

Income bracket (Rs.)	0-5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	20,001-50,000	Total
Daman	3,179	1,503	166	0	4,848
Diu	2,222	1,155	315	162	3,692
Total	5,401	2,658	481	162	8,539

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Comparing Wage Data from NSS

The average daily wage of regular workers as seen from the NSS round conducted in 2011-12 was Rs. 282/day in rural Daman and Diu. This was lower than that in rural India which was Rs. 299/day. In urban Daman and Diu, the average daily wage of regular workers was Rs.459/day, which was higher as compared to that in urban India at Rs. 450/day (Table 3.10).

The average wage of male regular workers (rural plus urban) in Daman and Diu was Rs. 327/day, which was lower than that of the all-India average level of Rs. 417/day, whereas in the case of female regular workers the average wage of Rs.385/day was higher as compared to that of the all-India average of Rs. 308/day. Rather, the wage rate of regular female workers in Daman and Diu was higher than that of male regular workers as a whole since a substantial proportion of female regular workers were from urban areas, who earned significantly higher wages than their female counterparts in the rural areas. This pattern supports the earlier observation that the said 'transformation in the economy' due to industrialisation is not yet a reality here.

Wages in 2016 were only slightly higher than what prevailed in 2011-12. Stagnation in industry and labour markets is evident. More details can be seen in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Average Daily Wages of Regular and Casual Workers (in Rs.), 2011-12, 15-59 years

	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Regular	Casual	Regular	Casual	Regular	Casual
Daman and Diu						
Male	282	250	460	272	327	270
Female	268	148	423	81	385	88
Person	282	224	459	208	334	210
India						
Male	322	149	470	182	417	159
Female	201	103	366	111	308	105
Person	299	138	450	173	392	143

Source: Employment and Unemployment Schedule, 68th Round, 2011-12, NSS

Level of Skills and Skill Promotion Activities

The diffusion of technology and pace of innovation both have accelerated in this globalised era. New and emerging occupations are replacing old ones. Even within the same occupation the skill requirements are changing. The future growth of any country or state thus greatly depends on the productivity of the workforce, which in turn depends on levels of worker-skills, and how effectively they are utilised.

Any analysis of the requirement of skills of the workforce in Daman and Diu, with an eye on the future, must first examine the skills and skill-composition of the present workforce. In this section, the skill-composition of workforce in Daman and Diu at the beginning of this decade has been obtained on the basis of the occupational characteristics of the working population (age 15 years and above). No distinction is made as to whether workers were formally trained before joining a particular occupation, or whether they went through formal/informal on-the-job training.

The UT of Daman and Diu exhibits a much better skill-composition of the workforce as compared to other neighbouring states like Gujarat, Maharashtra and Karnataka. Both the NSS and the primary HDR survey of 2016 – which has a much larger sample of households – showed a large concentration of workers in the skill II category that is dominated by labour-intensive manufacturing sector (Table 3.11).

Table 3.11: Skill Composition of the Total Workforce in India and Daman & Diu, Age 15 Years and Above

Skill Level	India	Daman and Diu	Karnataka	Gujarat	Maharashtra	India/ Daman and Diu (in %)	Daman and Diu, 2016
IV (Professionals)	4.0	15.5	5.7	2.2	6.1	3.5	387
III (Associate Professionals)	3.6	1.4	3.8	3.6	4.1	3.5	39
II (Low and other medium skills)	61.8	63.1	59.3	66.0	59.6	74.5	102
I (Elementary occupations)	30.6	20.0	31.3	28.2	30.2	18.5	65
Total	100	100.0	100	100	100	100	

Source: Employment and Unemployment Schedule, 68th Round, 2011-12, NSS

The Daman and Diu government has taken up skill development as a major development policy. Under the Union Territory Skill Development Mission (SSDM), the Industrial Training Institute (ITI) of Daman and Diu, Technical Training Institutes (TTI) of Daman and Diu and government polytechnics in Daman are covered. It has identified major sectors where skill development is required such as plastic processing and packaging, hotel industry, mechanical engineering, chemical processing, fisheries, and agriculture industry. However, on the downside, the ITI at Daman through a survey found that 80 per cent of the workers did not possess any skill-certification on the one hand, and hardly 20 per cent of the industrial workforce was of local origin, on

the other. Through a gap analysis it was further found that these five formal technical institutes could hardly meet 20 per cent of the annual demand of skilled labour of these five industries.

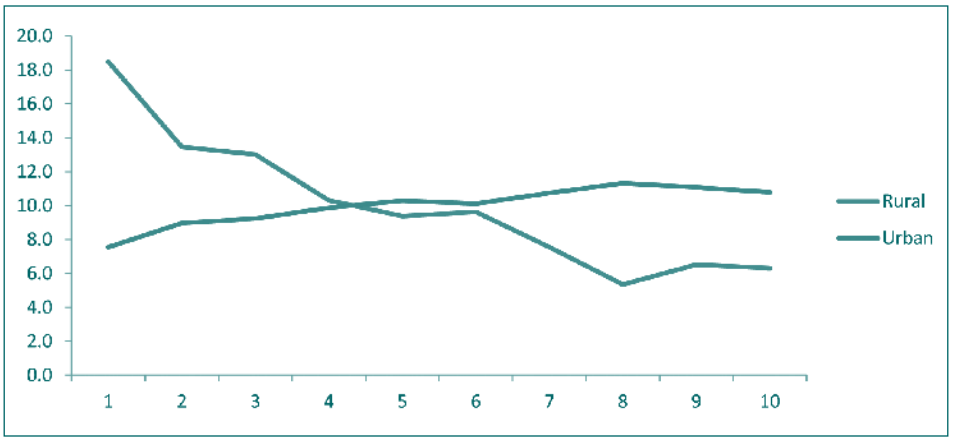
To meet these demands, under skill development initiative scheme, the ITI of Daman introduced a vocational training programme in 2009. Further, a local NGO ***Safal*** has also taken the initiative to train youths in specific skills that are in high demand in the market. The results, though, are yet to be seen.

Poverty and Inequality

The income level is an important indicator of the labour market outcome and hence of the human development status of workers in the UT. In this section, a comparison of incomes (with per capita consumption expenditure substituting for income) is made over a period of time and also between Daman & Diu and all-India level.

In the 2016 Primary Survey, the monthly per capita consumption expenditure in Daman and Diu was Rs. 2,859: Rs. 2,416 in rural areas and Rs. 2,950 in urban areas, the latter being 22 per cent higher than the former (see also Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6: Distribution of Rural and Urban Households across Consumption Expenditure Deciles, 2016



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

The proportion of persons below the poverty line has always been lower in Daman and Diu as compared to the corresponding figures for all India, at least since 1993-94 (Table 3.12). This is particularly so in rural areas. In Daman and Diu, the percentage of persons below the poverty line in rural areas was very low – at around 5 per cent since 1993-94. Urban poverty has shown a continuous decline from a high rate of 27 per cent in 1993-94 (from NSS) to a low rate of 4.2 per cent in the 2016 Primary Survey. It was seen earlier that four-fifths of the workforce in urban areas had industrial workers (as in 2016), and the earnings of urban regular workers were substantially higher than their rural counterparts. This in all probability contributed to a reduced poverty rate.

A comparison of persons below the poverty line between Daman and Diu districts shows an interesting contrast. In rural areas, the proportion of persons below the poverty line was somewhat less in Diu district as compared to Daman, but in urban areas, the poverty rate of Diu was more than double of Daman (Table 3.13). It reflects that the process of increased industrialisation has benefitted workers and peoples much more in Daman than in Diu district: evidently so, as Daman is more industrialised than Diu.

Table 3.12: Proportion of Persons below Poverty Line

	Daman and Diu	All India
1993-94		
Rural	5.3	37.27
Urban	27.0	32.36
Total	15.8	35.97
2004-05		
Rural	5.4	28.3
Urban	21.2	25.7
Total	10.5	27.5
2016		
Rural	5.3	-
Urban	4.2	-
Total	4.4	-

Source: Statistical Diary - 2014-15, Union Territory of Daman and Diu and Primary Survey 2016

Note: For 2016, Tendulkar Poverty Line is used.

Table 3.13: Proportion of Persons below Poverty Line

	Daman	Diu
2016		
Rural	5.8	4.4
Urban	3.9	8.4
Total	4.1	6.4

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

For an inequality analysis, too, consumption expenditure was taken as a proxy for income. The various inequality measures provide an interesting contrast between Daman and Diu and all-India (Table 3.14). The inequality is measured with the help of consumption expenditure deciles depicted by D where D1 refers to the lowest decile and D10 refers to the highest decile. The overall inequality (D9/D1) was relatively low in Daman and Diu as compared to the all-India ratio. Inequality in the top half (D9/D5) was lower than that in the bottom half (D5/D1) in Daman and Diu but was higher at all-India level. The inequality in the top half was higher at the all-India level than that in Daman and Diu, whereas inequality in the bottom half was far higher in Daman and Diu as compared to the all-India level.

Table 3.14: Various Inequality Measurements of Per Capita Consumption

Ratios	Daman and Diu, 2016			India
	Rural	Urban	Total	2011-12
D5/D1	2.29	2.30	2.30	1.83
D9/D1	3.93	3.96	3.96	4.30
D9/D5	1.72	1.72	1.72	2.35

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Note: D5/D1 refers to inequality in the top half of the distribution measured by inequality between median earners and bottom earners. D9/D5 refers to inequality in the bottom half of the distribution measured by inequality between top earners and median earners. D9/D1 refers to overall inequality.

Daman and Diu requires specific policy measures to bring down the inequality in the bottom half of the income distribution.

Inequality is further captured from the food-nonfood break-up of the per capita consumption expenditure (Table 3.15). Households spend around 44 percent of consumption expenditure on food and share of non-food expenditure is higher in Daman as compared to Diu. It is known that people spend lower and lower share of their consumption expenditure on food as they improve their income. Average MPCE on food items in richest class is 1.55 times higher than the poorest class, while the richest class spends 2.68 times higher than the poorest class on non-food items[2].

Table 3.15 Monthly Per capita Consumption Expenditure in Daman and Diu (Rs)

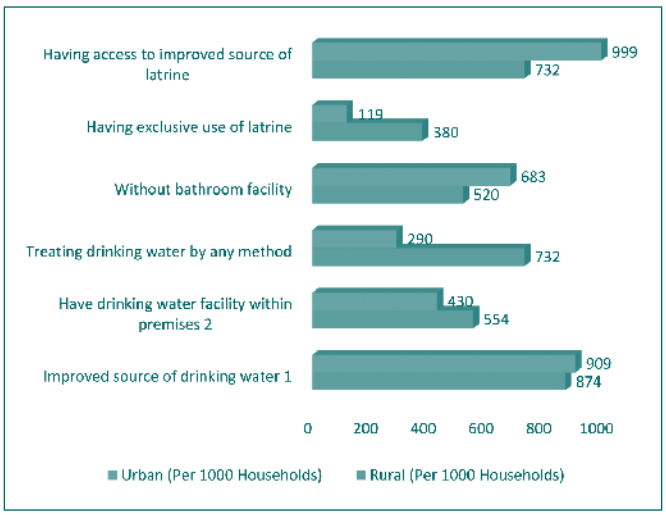
	Daman	Diu	Daman & Diu
Food			
Rural	1039	1214	1114
Urban	1215	1238	1218
Total	1189 (43.3%)	1227 (47.2%)	1196
Non-food			
Rural	1172	1151	1206
Urban	1619	1477	1601
Total	1553 (56.6%)	1370 (52.7%)	1519
Grand Total	2742	2597	2715

Note: The percentages in total are shown in brackets

The access to basic amenities in a society is important to capture poverty as the multi-dimensional nature of poverty is widely accepted today. Access to water and sanitation facilities are fairly good in the Union Territory of Daman and Diu, as Fig. 3.7.

2 Disaggregated data are not shown here.

Figure 3.7: Access to water and sanitation facilities in Daman and Diu



Source: NSS Report No. 556(69/1.2/1): Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition in India - 2012

The above figure is based on 2011 data. More recent information from the primary survey give additional insights. Around 75 per cent of the households have access to piped water supply and another 11 percent of the households are buying water can. The incidence of purchase of water can is much higher in Daman (13%) and in urban areas (15%). Generally, water is available within the premise (Daman 66 percent & Diu 88 percent). One-third of the households have reported seasonal variation it terms of quantity of water supply. Although 90 per cent of the households have reported that they do not use open defecation, only 73 per cent of the households have own toilet facility (91 percent in Diu and 71 percent).

Some observations regarding asset ownership in Daman and Diu are given in the Appendix 4 in Figure A4.1.

Self-Assessment of Poverty

A subjective assessment of the state of poverty and wellbeing was made to obtain another dimension of poverty. The following are the key points that emerged-

- 30 per cent of the households have reported that their economic condition has remained the same over time.
- 50 per cent of the households have felt that their economic condition has improved as compared to the last five years.
- Female-headed households mostly felt that their condition is almost the same over the last five years.
- On the other hand, male-headed households felt that their economic condition has improved.

- More than 80 per cent of the households felt that their condition is the same as that of others in the community.
- 76 per cent of the households felt that they had just enough income to meet their daily needs.
- Male-headed households were more satisfied than female-headed ones with their present life.
- 45 per cent of the households are hoping that their economic condition will get better in the next 2-3 years.

Summing Up

Daman and Diu has been experiencing structural change in the composition of State Domestic Product with the share of industry and tertiary sectors rising rapidly for more than a decade. In the last one decade, a structural change in employment began showing up, with the share of workers in the principal workers' category 'agriculture and its allied activities' declining by 20 percentage points. Correspondingly, the share of industry and tertiary sector has gone up.

Women's work participation, particularly in marginal or subsidiary employment, shows a decline. Is it that women no more need to work, or they do not have sufficient skills to work? This is an open question.

Further, the question remains as to how to gainfully employ a substantial proportion of primary and middle-school educated young persons, who are unemployed or likely to enter the labour market in the near future. The dynamic sections of the services sector provide productive employment to the more educated workers. The option for skilled jobs for the less educated (potential) workers lies primarily in the manufacturing sector, and to a certain extent, in construction activities.

The shift of employment observed in the last several years has increased the need for training workers to acquire skill in non-agricultural occupations. A more effective skill-training programme is required to meet the growing demand of skilled workers in the manufacturing sector. As a substantial proportion of jobs in Daman and Diu is expected to be generated in services sector, a greater thrust towards entrepreneurship training and skill training (for services) is also required.

The poverty rate of Daman and Diu has been declining over the recent years. The high growth in the UTDP achieved by Daman and Diu has helped reduce the level of absolute poverty. Daman district has been a major beneficiary of higher growth through greater industrialisation. Diu district, however, needs to be vigorously incorporated in the process of modern economic activities since manufacturing through inter-sectoral linkages enhances growth in other sectors as well.

Income inequality in Daman and Diu is higher in the bottom half of the income distribution, which calls for specific policy measures to bring down inequality in the bottom half.

Appendix 3

Table A3.1: Working Hours for different types of Workers

Table A3.1a: Working Hours of Self-Employed Workers (% of concerned workers)

		Partially Employed	Under-employed	Fully Employed	Rigorous Work	Over Worked	Don't Know/ can't say	Total
Daman	Rural	8.6	21.1	16.6	30.9	21.7	1.1	100.0
	Urban	9.3	15.1	10.0	30.2	33.4	2.0	100.0
	Total	9.1	16.1	11.1	30.3	31.5	1.9	100.0
Diu	Rural	14.6	19.5	8.9	18.7	35.8	2.4	100.0
	Urban	12.6	14.6	11.9	26.5	34.4	0.0	100.0
	Total	13.6	17.0	10.5	22.7	35.1	1.2	100.0
Total	Rural	10.9	20.5	13.6	26.2	27.1	1.6	100.0
	Urban	9.6	15.0	10.2	29.8	33.5	1.8	100.0
	Total	9.9	16.2	11.0	29.0	32.1	1.8	100.0

Table A3.1b: Working Hours of Regular Workers (% of concerned workers)

		Partially Employed	Under-employed	Fully Employed	Rigorous Work	Over Worked	Don't Know/ can't say	Total
Daman	Rural	1.4	3.3	4.6	57.1	33.6	-	100.0
	Urban	0.4	1.3	1.9	40.8	55.5	-	100.0
	Total	0.5	1.5	2.2	42.6	53.1	-	100.0
Diu	Rural	0.4	6.5	3.4	29.1	60.5	-	100.0
	Urban	1.9	3.7	9.0	43.9	41.4	-	100.0
	Total	1.1	5.1	6.3	36.7	50.8	-	100.0
Total	Rural	1.1	4.2	4.3	49.6	40.9	-	100.0
	Urban	0.5	1.4	2.3	41.0	54.9	-	100.0
	Total	0.6	1.8	2.5	42.1	52.9	-	100.0

Table A3.1c: Working Hours of Casual Workers (% of workers)

		Partially Employed	Under-employed	Fully Employed	Rigorous Work	Over Worked	Don't Know/ can't say	Total
Daman	Rural	9.5	14.3	8.3	45.2	22.6	-	100.0
	Urban	5.8	11.5	9.4	52.4	20.9	-	100.0
	Total	6.7	12.2	9.1	50.5	21.4	-	100.0
Diu	Rural	5.8	4.1	5.8	24.4	59.9	-	100.0
	Urban	9.8	11.9	8.4	11.2	58.7	-	100.0
	Total	7.5	7.3	6.9	19.0	59.4	-	100.0
Total	Rural	7.1	7.7	6.7	31.8	46.7	-	100.0
	Urban	7.0	11.6	9.1	39.8	32.5	-	100.0
	Total	7.0	10.0	8.1	36.6	38.2	-	100.0

Source: HDR Survey 2016

Table A3.2: Working Days in a Week of Self-Employed (% of workers)

		1day	2days	3 days	4 days	5 days	6 days	7 days	Dont' know/ can't say/ blank	Total
Daman	Rural	1.1	0.6	3.4	6.3	10.9	24.6	51.4	1.7	100
	Urban	1.3	1.4	2.0	4.2	5.6	29.7	55.1	0.6	100
	Total	1.3	1.3	2.3	4.5	6.5	28.8	54.5	0.8	100
Diu	Rural	1.6	5.7	4.9	4.9	7.3	9.8	63.4	2.4	100
	Urban	1.3	0.0	7.3	6.0	8.6	19.9	57.0	0.0	100
	Total	1.5	2.8	6.1	5.4	8.0	14.9	60.1	1.2	100
Total	Rural	1.3	2.6	4.0	5.7	9.5	18.8	56.1	2.0	100
	Urban	1.3	1.3	2.6	4.4	6.0	28.6	55.3	0.5	100
	Total	1.3	1.6	2.9	4.7	6.8	26.4	55.5	0.8	100

Table A3.2b: Working Days in a Week of Regular-Employed (% of workers)

		1day	2days	3days	4days	5days	6days	7days	Dont' know/can't say/blank	Total
Daman	Rural	0.8	0.2	0.0	0.8	2.7	73.4	22.2	-	100
	Urban	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	1.2	75.9	22.0	-	100
	Total	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.4	75.6	22.0	-	100
Diu	Rural	1.1	0.0	0.4	1.5	2.3	26.3	68.3	-	100
	Urban	0.3	0.0	0.6	0.9	3.7	49.2	45.2	-	100
	Total	0.7	0.0	0.5	1.2	3.0	38.0	56.5	-	100
Total	Rural	0.9	0.1	0.1	1.0	2.6	60.7	34.6	-	100
	Urban	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.3	74.7	23.0	-	100
	Total	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.4	1.5	72.8	24.6	-	100

Table A3.2c: Working days in a Week of Casual Workers (% of workers)

		1day	2 days	3 days	4 days	5 days	6 days	7 days	Don't know/can't say/blank	Total
Daman	Rural	-	3.6	7.1	14.3	11.9	29.8	33.3	-	100
	Urban	-	1.6	8.9	11.5	12.6	26.2	39.3	-	100
	Total	-	2.1	8.5	12.2	12.4	27.1	37.8	-	100
Diu	Rural	-	2.9	4.7	4.1	7.0	7.0	74.4	-	100
	Urban	-	1.4	6.3	7.0	9.1	7.7	68.5	-	100
	Total	-	2.3	5.3	5.3	7.8	7.3	72.0	-	100
Total	Rural	-	3.1	5.5	7.7	8.7	15.0	59.9	-	100
	Urban	-	1.5	8.1	10.1	11.5	20.5	48.2	-	100
	Total	-	2.2	7.1	9.1	10.4	18.3	52.9	-	100

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table A3.3: Benefits provided to Regular Workers (% of response)

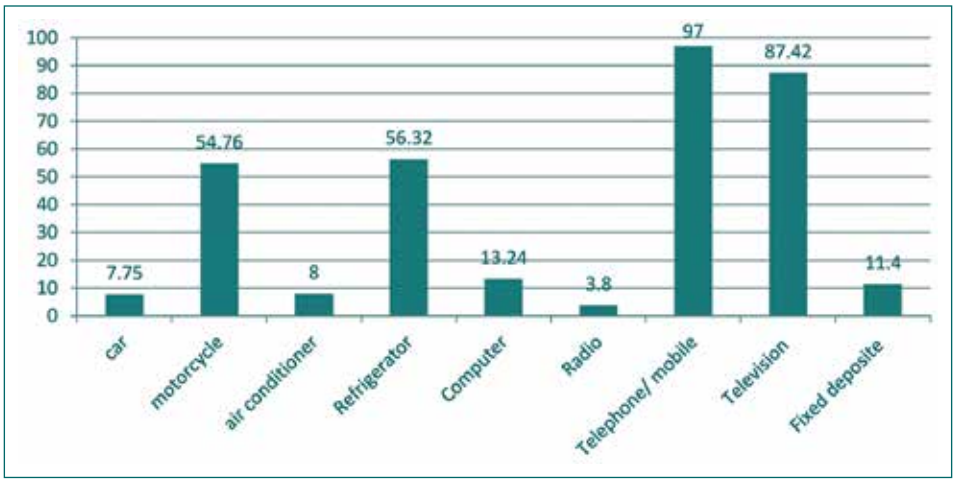
Benefit Rural		Daman			Diu			Total		
		Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	
Gratuity	Yes	17.3	29.5	28.2	3.8	21.2	12.7	13.7	29.1	27
	No	70.1	61.5	62.5	92	71	81.3	76	62	63.9
	don't know	12.6	8.9	9.3	4.2	7.8	6	10.3	8.9	9.1
Employees State Insurance (ESI)	Yes	9.9	10.2	10.2	2.3	11.5	7	7.9	10.3	9.9
	No	79.6	83.1	82.7	94.3	80.1	87	83.5	83	83.1
	don't know	10.5	6.7	7.1	3.4	8.4	6	8.6	6.8	7
Employees Provident Fund (EPF)	Yes	32.7	53.2	50.9	8.8	34.6	21.9	26.3	52.3	48.7
	No	61	43.1	45.1	86.3	59.2	72.5	67.8	43.8	47.1
	don't know	6.3	3.7	4	5	6.2	5.6	5.9	3.9	4.1
Health insurance coverage	Yes	9.1	12.6	12.2	3.8	18.4	11.2	7.7	12.9	12.1
	No	80.3	80.7	80.7	91.6	74.8	83	83.4	80.5	80.9
	don't know	10.5	6.7	7.1	4.6	6.9	5.7	8.9	6.7	7
Pension under EPF	Yes	23.7	42.3	40.3	6.5	34.9	20.9	19.1	42	38.8
	No	68.1	53.5	55.1	90.8	59.8	75	74.2	53.7	56.6
	don't know	8.2	4.2	4.7	2.7	5.3	4	6.7	4.3	4.6
Drinking water	Yes	92.5	95.2	94.9	93.9	94.1	94	92.8	95.2	94.8
	No	7.2	4.3	4.7	5.3	5.6	5.5	6.7	4.4	4.7
	don't know	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Toilet/urinal	No	42.86	39.79	40.57	79.65	72.73	76.79	66.67	49.86	56.61
	Common Toilet	39.29	42.41	41.61	15.12	18.18	16.38	23.64	35	30.44
	Separate for Male and Female	17.86	17.8	17.82	5.23	9.09	6.83	9.68	15.14	12.9
Are first aid/ emergency medical services	Yes	70	86.6	84.8	69.5	77.9	73.8	69.8	86.2	84
	No	21.7	11.5	12.6	29	20.6	24.7	23.7	11.9	13.6

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table A3.4: Facilities for Casual Workers at worksite (% of response)

Benefit Rural		Daman (in %)			Diu (in %)			Total (in %)		
		Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	
Drinking water	Yes	81	82.7	82.3	86.6	83.9	85.5	84.6	83.1	83.7
	No	19	17.3	17.7	13.4	16.1	14.5	15.4	16.9	16.3
Toilet/ urinal	No	42.9	39.8	40.6	79.7	72.7	76.8	66.7	49.9	56.6
	Common Toilet	39.3	42.4	41.6	15.1	18.2	16.4	23.6	35	30.4
	Separate toilet for male & females	17.9	17.8	17.8	5.2	9.1	6.8	9.7	15.1	12.9
First aid / Emergency Medical service	Yes	23.8	35.6	32.6	52.9	46.9	50.4	42.6	39	40.5
	No	76.2	64.4	67.4	47.1	53.1	49.6	57.4	61	59.5

Figure A4.1: % of Household by Asset Type



- 97 per cent of the households are pucca, 2 per cent of the households are semi-pucca and 1 per cent of the households are kutchha.
- However, 45 per cent of the households in Daman and Diu have only one room and another 44 per cent of the households have 2-3 rooms.

CHAPTER 4

On Raising Human Capacities: Education and Health

1. EDUCATION

Introduction

Education and health are important pillars of human development, having a central role in improving human endowments and people's wellbeing, which in turn help them to raise their entitlements, income levels and standards of living. Building human capabilities and thereby enhancing 'freedom' in the HD perspective is the cornerstone of human development. These two are also potential sources for increasing people's awareness about their rights, and thus empowering them to fight against their exclusion and exploitation.

Education and health affect welfare of the future generations through intergenerational transmission, and better educated and healthy parents have more educated and healthier children (Dreze and Sen, 2002, pp. 38-40). Education and health also affect welfare of other members of the society because of positive externalities that they generate.

Sustainable Development Goals 3 and 4 emphasise on inclusive and better health and equitable quality education. It is therefore imperative to examine issues in educational and health attainment, infrastructure for attaining them and shortcomings in policies, and make suggestions for improving the same. This chapter highlights the differences in educational and health attainments across the two districts, gender and social groups.

The data used are from both the existing secondary sources and the HDR survey.

Status of Education

Literacy and General Education

Literacy Rate

Literacy is essential for eradicating poverty, reducing child mortality, attaining a low fertility rate, achieving gender equity and ensuring sustainable development, peace and democracy. The literacy rate can be low in absolute terms because of the stock of existing illiterates. The literacy rate among 15 years and above population i.e. adult literacy rate is 86 per cent, with a gender gap of nearly 15 points (males – 93 and females – 78, Figure 4.1a). The gender gap is higher in rural locations by 21 points as compared to a gap of 13 percentage points in urban areas. Youth literacy rate for the age group 15-24 years is high at nearly 96 per cent, with a small gender gap (Figure 4.1b). Youth literacy rate among Muslims is lower than that in other social groups (Table 4.1). The analysis indicates that although literacy rate in Daman and Diu (88.87) is above all India average of 73 (Census, 2011) yet the exposure to higher education is very low, which needs serious policy attention in terms of skill building and access to job.

Figure 4.1a: Adult Literacy Rate (%)

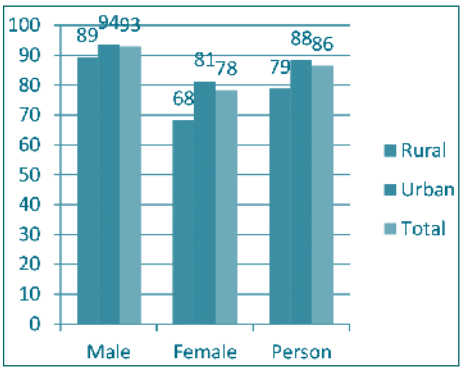
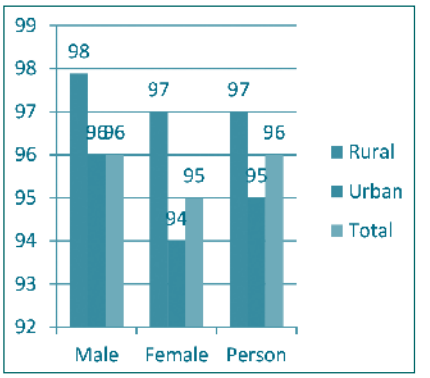


Figure 4.1b: Youth Literacy Rate(%)



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table 4.1: Youth Literacy Rate (%) across Social and Religious Groups

	SC	ST	OBC	General	Muslims
Male	96	95	97	96	95
Female	90	96	95	94	92
Person	94	96	96	95	93

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

General Education Level

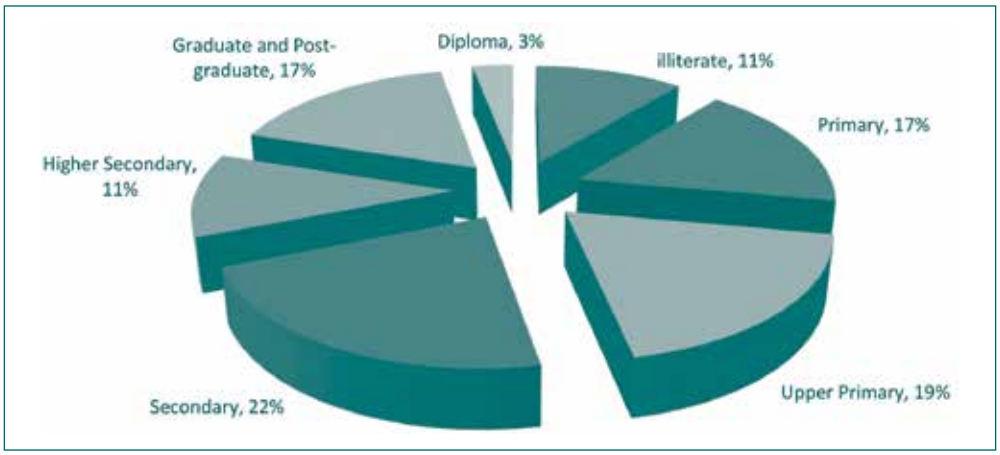
At the first instance, the study draws upon the NSS 71st round (2014-15) data to analyse the present status of general education level of Daman and Diu. About 11 per cent of the population were illiterate in that year. The modal frequency lies in secondary

education, followed by upper primary education, primary education, and finally, post-graduate education. Close to one-fifth (17 per cent) of the population possesses graduate and post-graduate degrees, which contrasts with a figure of 9 percent at the all-India level, as per these data (Figure 4.2).

To achieve Sustainable Development Goal no. 4, i.e. to achieve quality primary and secondary education, the UT of Daman and Diu needs to make efforts to improve the educational and skill levels of at least 36 per cent of its population, which has just completed primary and upper primary education. Further, the existing 11 per cent of the illiterate population needs to be educated for becoming at least literate.

A survey was conducted for this HDR in 2016 to assess the progress on various components of human development in Daman and Diu, including the quality of education of the population (in the age-group 15 years and above). A succinct profile is presented in Figure 4.2. The striking similarity between the NSS data in Figure 4.2 and the HDR Survey data in Table 4.2, suggests that the estimates produced here are robust and can be relied upon.

Figure 4.2: Proportion of Population (aged 15 years and above) Across Education Level



Source: NSS 71st Round Education, 2014-15

The illiteracy rate is higher in Diu (17.54 per cent) as compared to Daman (9.88 per cent), but there is not much variation in terms of people having primary and upper primary level of education in these two districts. Almost one-third of the population in Daman and Diu has secondary education. It is also seen that approximately 18 per cent of the population in Daman and Diu had higher secondary level of education. However, only around 10 per cent in the population had graduate, post-graduate and technical degrees – this is where a little variation is seen between the NSS and HDR Survey estimates.

Table 4.2: Proportion of Population (aged 15 years and above) Across Education Level, 2016

	Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu
Illiterate	9.88	17.54	11.13
Primary	12.73	12.10	12.63
Upper Primary	18.85	16.21	18.42
Secondary	27.57	27.34	27.53
Higher secondary	18.18	16.58	17.92
Graduate	5.73	4.24	5.49
Post Graduate	1.67	1.62	1.66
Technical	2.83	2.22	2.73

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Gross Enrolment Ratio and Attendance

The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is defined as the total enrolment in classes or grades of education regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the school-age population corresponding to the same level of education, in a given school year. The District Information System for Education (DISE) data suggest that the GER at primary and upper primary levels in Daman and Diu are 85.47 and 83.72 per cent respectively (Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3). The GER among SC populations at the primary level was 99.83 per cent in 2015, but was low at 82.26 per cent at the upper primary level in that year. It may be noted that GER can be greater than 100 since over-age children are often also enrolled. The GER for ST students in upper primary and those for SC and ST children in Secondary level suggest that there are large numbers of children from the scheduled categories who are over-age in their grades of education.

At the secondary and higher secondary levels, the enrolment was recorded as low, at 74.85 per cent and 37.48 per cent respectively (Figure 4.4). There is also a sudden drop in GER among ST and SC children from secondary to higher secondary level. This clearly indicates that children from these communities, face problems in retention and making a transition to higher level of education. For children from "All" categories as well, the GER falls at secondary level, which indicates that, to reach SDG Goal 4.1 – that emphasises on completion of secondary education –Daman and Diu needs to make extra efforts for increasing the enrolment beyond the primary school level.

Table 4.3: Gross Enrolment ratio at Selected Levels of Education

Year	Classes I-V	Classes VI-VIII
2005-06	85.70	73.43
2014-15	85.47	83.72

Source: DISE, relevant years

Figure 4.3: Gross Enrolment Ratio at Primary and Upper Primary Level, 2014-15

Source: DISE, 2014-15

Figure 4.4: Gross Enrolment Ratio by Caste at Secondary and Higher Secondary Level, 2014-15

Source: U-DISE, 2014-15

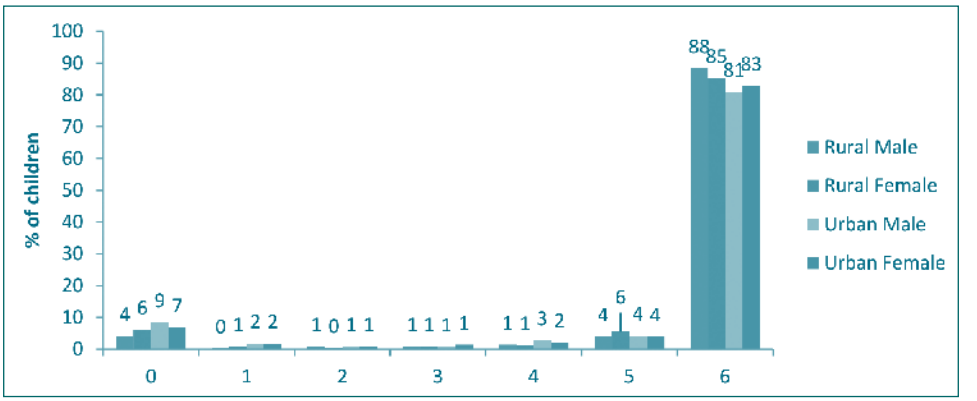
School attendance is a more meaningful indicator for education as compared to enrolment, since in India – as in many developing countries – many children enrol but do not attend classes regularly or even at all.

The HDR Survey of 2016 provides information on how many days a primary school-going-child attends classes in the last week. In this analysis, the value ranges from zero (not attending a single day) and six (present, all the six days). The data are plotted in Figures 4.5 and 4.6. The following observations are pertinent:

- A very large proportion (>80 per cent) of the children attend classes for all the six days. This is a positive sign.
- Female children attend schools more regularly than male children, though the gap is not large.

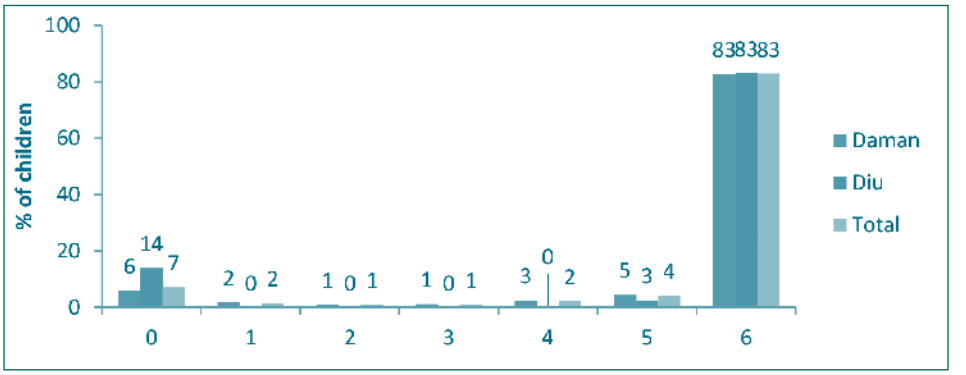
- An uncomfortably large number of children (~10 per cent) – more urban male in Diu than others – do not attend schools at all.
- The dichotomy is between those who attend all the time (>80 per cent) and those who do not attend at all (~10 per cent) – there are hardly any, who attend school for a few days and remain absent for other days.

Figure 4.5: Distribution of Primary School going Children for Daily School Attendance (number of days a week) by Location and Gender



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.6: Distribution of Primary School going Children for School Attendance (number of days a week) by District



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

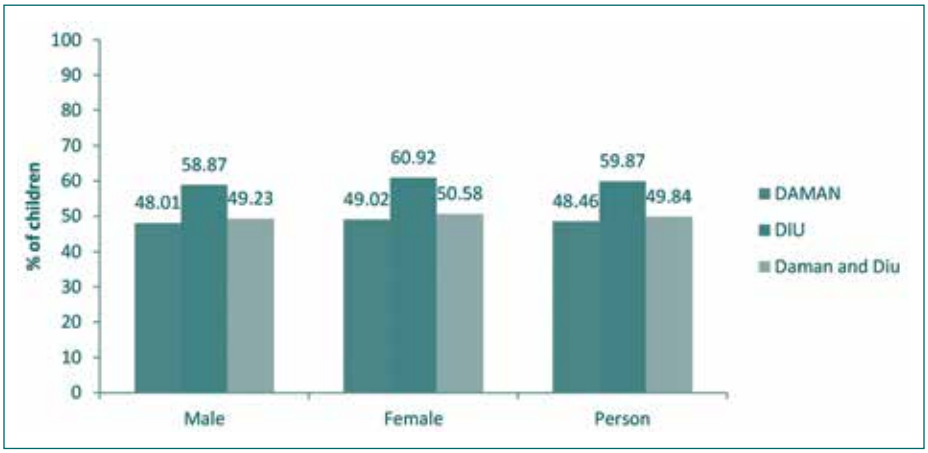
Pre-Primary Schooling

For long, pre-school education has been a much lesser priority than primary school in India and UT of Daman and Diu is no different. Yet, education covering the age group of 3-6 years is a strong content/component of education as a preparatory for further education. Anganwadis (pre-school play schools) play a key role in preparing children for schooling. Anganwadis also cater to basic nutrition in addition to basic life-style education and group behaviour. In Daman and Diu, overall, about 50 per cent of the

children in the age-group of 3-6 years attend pre-primary school (Figure 4.7). In Diu, the percentage of children attending pre-school (about 60 per cent) is higher than that in Daman (48 per cent). This is surprising keeping in view the fact that Diu is more rural and the practice of sending smaller children to schools in rural areas is much less. In this sense, this observation is heartening.

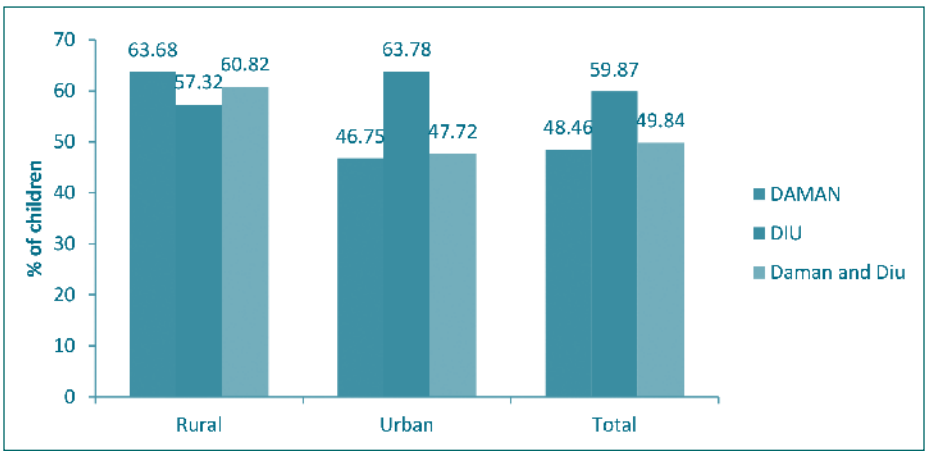
It is also seen that the percentage of female children attending pre-primary school is higher than male chidlren (Figure 4.9). Further, both in Daman and Diu, the number / percentage of female children attending pre-primary school is higher than male children, but the gap is higher in Diu than Daman (see Figures 4.7 and 4.8).

Figure 4.7: % of Children in Age-group 3-6 years attending Pre-primary School by Gender



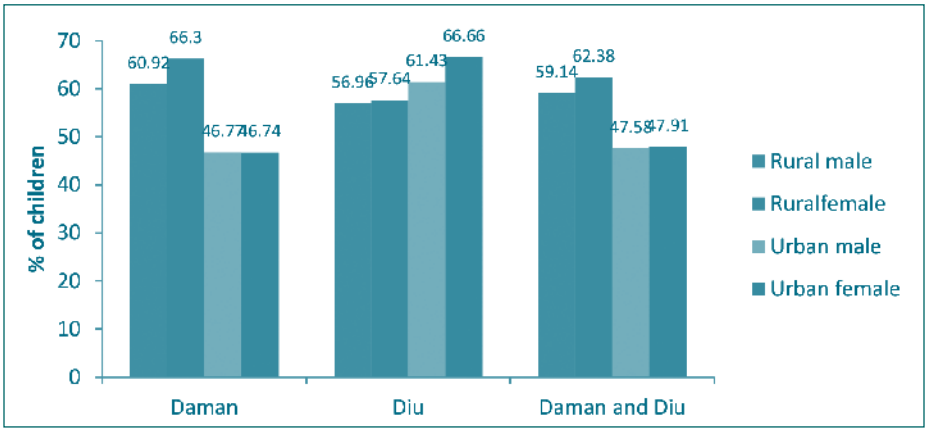
Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.8: % of Children in Age-group 3-6 years attending Pre-primary School by Location



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

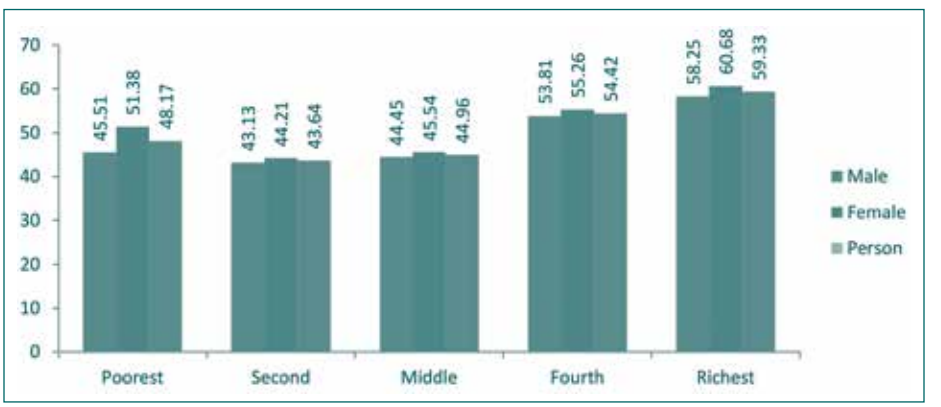
Figure 4.9: % of Children in Age-group 3-6 years attending Pre-primary School by Location and Gender



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

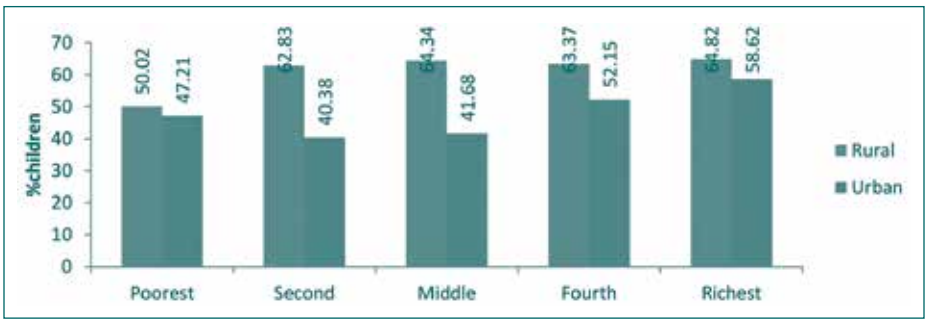
It is important to assess how attendance at the pre-schooling level changes across different expenditure classes (substituting for income classes) since such an analysis provides data on the impact of deprivation on schooling. The share of children attending pre-primary level is 59 per cent in the richest expenditure class whereas it is only 48.2 per cent in the lowest expenditure class. Irrespective of the expenditure classes, the share of female children attending pre-primary school is higher than the male share (Figure 4.10). Further, the share of children attending pre-primary school is higher in rural areas across all expenditure classes (Figure 4.11). Additionally, irrespective of the expenditure classes, percentage of female children attending pre-school is higher in rural areas as compared to urban areas.

Figure 4.10: % of Children in Age-group 3-6 years attending Pre-primary School by Gender and Expenditure Class



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.11: % of Children in Age-group 3-6 years attending Pre-primary School by Location and Expenditure Class



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Table 4.4: % of Children in Age-group 3-6 years attending Pre-primary School by Location, Gender and Expenditure Class

	Rural		Urban	
Expenditure class	Male	Female	Male	Female
Poorest	45.25	55.23	44.31	50.56
Second	63.78	62.12	40.94	39.68
Middle	63.95	64.63	43.05	39.99
Fourth	58.06	69.32	51.64	52.89
Richest	64.05	65.5	57.88	59.6

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

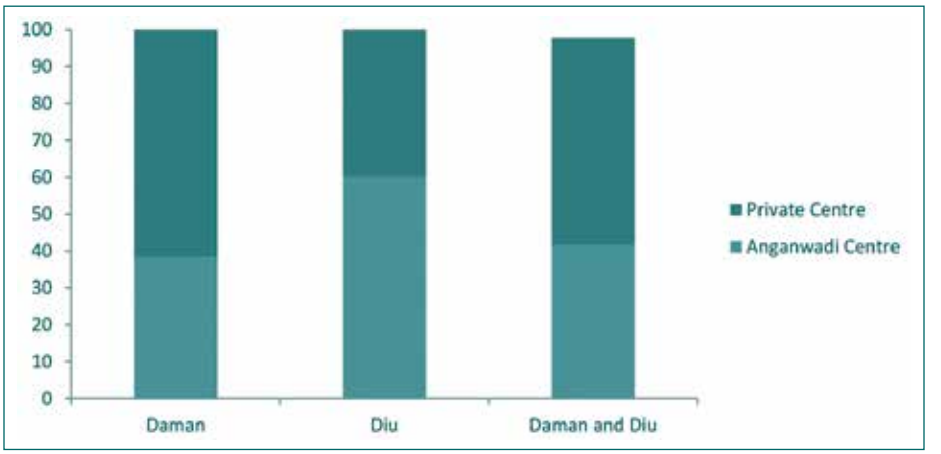
In India, both government-run Anganwadi centres and private centres operate pre-primary schools. Anganwadi centres, the grassroots level institutionalised mechanism, provide play-way and activity-based learning as well as supplementary nutrition and immunisation services to children under the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme. Overall, in Daman and Diu, 56.21 per cent of the children attend private centre for pre-primary school. The percentage of children enrolled in private centres is higher in Daman and the percentage of children enrolled in government-run Anganwadi centres is higher in Diu (Figure 4.12).

Table 4.4 shows the distribution of children in the age group 3-6 years attending pre-primary school by income (expenditure) class. The table suggests that on an average, some 60 odd percent children in rural areas and somewhat less in urban areas attend pre-primary school. This holds true for both, male and female children. Thus, there is a deficit of about 40 percent in school attendance among these children, which is a standing challenge.

In rural areas, the government-run Anganwadi centres play a major role (Figure 4.13). Proportionately, there are more female children enrolled in the Anganwadi centre compared to male children (Figure 4.14). It is also observed that mostly poorer

parents send their children to Anganwadi centres as these are free, while those from richer income-classes choose private pre-primary schools (private pre-schools charge a fee) (Figure 4.15).

Figure 4.12: % of Children attending Anganwadi Centre and Private Centre by District

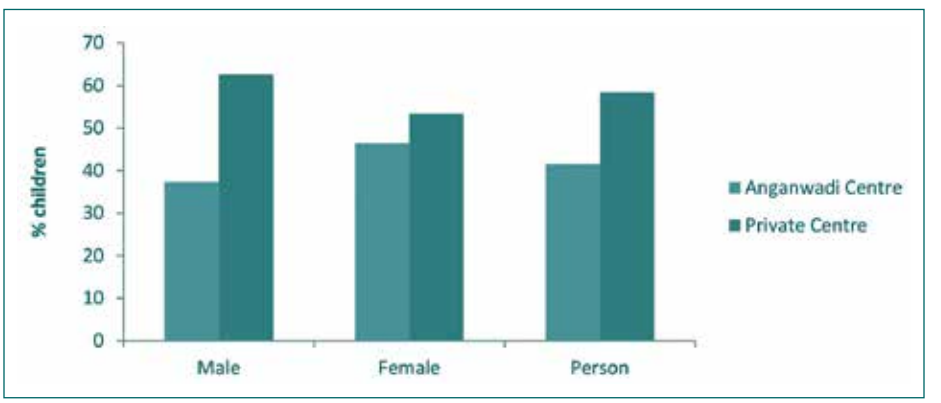


Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.13: % of Children attending Anganwadi Centre and Private Centre by Location

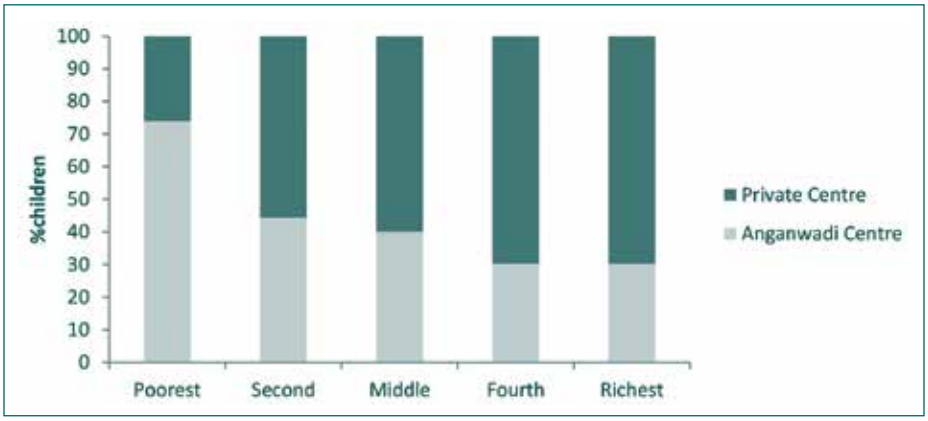
Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.14: % of Children attending Anganwadi Centre and Private Centre by Gender



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.15: % of Children attending Anganwadi Centre and Private Centre by Expenditure Class



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Access to School Education

Distances

Government statistics suggest that providing a primary school within one kilometre of a habitation and an upper primary school within three kilometres of a habitation has been fulfilled in almost all eligible areas in the country. The density of primary and upper-primary schools in Daman and Diu was 6.48 and 4.92 per 10 square kilometres respectively, in 2014-15, which was above the all-India average (of 3.68 for primary schools and 1.82 for upper-primary schools, but then, the population density is far higher in this UT) (Table 4.5). About 75.2 per cent of the households have access to primary school, 47.2 per cent of the households have access to upper-primary school and 48.4 per cent of the households have secondary school within the requisite defined distances (see, Appendix Table A4.1).

DISE data suggests that for 2014-15, the ratio between the numbers of primary to upper-primary schools is 1.32; upper primary-to secondary schools is 1.50; and secondary to higher secondary school is 1.74, in Daman and Diu. The all-India figures are steeper at 2.02, 2.56 and 2.14, respectively. Nevertheless, it appears that there is a shortage of schools at the higher levels as compared to lower levels, resulting in an increasing deficient access to school in this UT. This reflects the low enrolment ratio from upper primary to secondary level and further secondary to higher secondary level.

Access to Primary School: Public Private Divides

Government institutions are generally the cheaper means to acquire education when seen from the user's perspective; the fee in private institutions is high. While bulk of the school education is provided by government institutions yet, the share of enrolment in private schools is increasing in Daman and Diu (Table 4.5). There is also a distinct

pattern, indicating that more children from rural areas as compared to urban areas attend government schools (Figure 4.16). Social-group- wise scenario reveals a distinct story, as seen from Table 4.6. Apart from SC and general category children in rural Daman, the others attend government institutions in large proportions. In urban areas, children from the SC, general category and OBC attend private institutions in greater proportions in both Daman and Diu.

Information was gathered from parents about the reasons for sending children to private schools. Specific reasons cited for choice of private schooling were: better schooling infrastructure, quality of teaching, regularity of classes, student care, better quality of education, and English as the medium of instruction. On an average, almost 50 per cent of the households mentioned that good schooling infrastructure is the main reason for sending their children to private schools (Table A4.2).

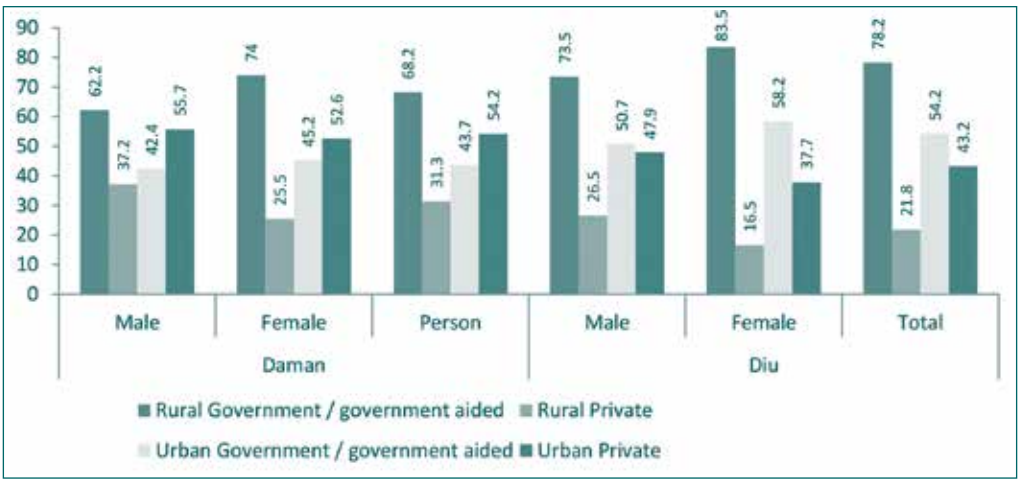
This is a serious issue and the government needs to take a deeper look at it.

Table 4.5: Enrolment in Elementary Level and Share in Types of Schools

Enrolment	2007-08	2014-15	2008-09 % in total	2014-15 % in total
Class I-VIII	20,596	28,157		
Class I-VIII Government	15,901	15,164	77.20	50.93
Class I-VIII Private	4,695	12,993	22.8	49.07

Source: DISE, 2007-08 and 2014-15 reports

Figure 4.16: % Distribution of Children attended Class I-VIII Standards by Types of Institutions



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Table A4.3 in Appendix 4 shows that in Daman private schools are accessed more by the general caste and OBCs at the primary level in both rural and urban locations. ST children largely attend government schools, reflecting disparity in access to schooling.

In rural Diu, children from all social groups largely attend government schools, while in urban areas, OBCs and general caste have higher shares of children accessing private education.

Cost of Schooling

Cost of education is an important indicator, which impedes educational access for a large proportion of the economically poorer sections. The goal to make education free and equitable is yet to be attained. In Daman and Diu, 5.12 per cent of the total household expenditure is spent on education (children in Diu spend less than those in Daman) (Table 4.7). In rural areas, the share of educational expenditure is 3.22 per cent of the total expenditure, while in urban areas the share is 5.59 per cent (Table 4.8). Across social groups, the share of educational expenditure is lowest among the ST households and highest among the 'Others' or General Caste households (Table 4.9). The subsidies and benefits to the ST groups seem to be showing effect here.

Table 4.7: Expenditure on Education to Total Household Expenditure (%)

Daman	5.29
Diu	4.21
Daman and Diu	5.12

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Table 4.8: Expenditure on Education to Total Expenditure by Location (%)

Rural	3.22
Urban	5.59
Rural+Urban	5.12

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Table 4.9: Expenditure on Education to Total Expenditure by Social Groups (%)

SC	5.01
ST	3.52
OBC	4.96
OTHERS	6.09

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Even among government schools which are expected to be free, only close to 44 per cent reported this for primary schools, with the proportion declining to 34 per cent among the upper-primary schools (Table 4.10). Further, the per student educational expenditure at the primary and upper-primary levels shows that there are large differences in terms of educational expenditure between government and private institutions. Within government institutions as well, the per student educational expenditure increases

about 22 per cent as one moves from the primary to upper primary level (Table 4.11). The per student expenditure for the private mode of schooling with respect to the government mode is as high as 6.9 times at the primary level, and also very high at the upper primary level at 5.8 times.

Table 4.10: Provision of Free Education (per cent)

	Primary	Upper Primary
Daman and Diu	43.59	33.94
All India	59.88	60.43

Source: NSS, 71st round, Education

Table 4.11 Per Student Educational Expenditure by Levels of School (per academic year)

	Government	Private	Ratio of Private to Government per student expenditure
Primary	2,547.88	17,603.62	6.9
Upper Primary	3,108.38	17,925.78	5.8

Source: NSS, 71st round, Education

Among the reported costs of education at the household level, the school fee continues to constitute a bulk of the expenses, followed by private coaching, and transport and other costs in private institutions at primary level. Figure 4.17 that the composition of the household expenditure on education is quite different for the government and private schools. Whereas the course fees dominate in the private mode, for the Government schools, coaching expenditure accounts for the major share. At the primary school level, 58.75 per cent of the children who attend government schools also avail of private tuition, implying that a large number of parents are not satisfied with the quality of education in government schools (Table A4.4). Figure 4.18 highlights the component of household's educational expenditure at upper primary level in government and private schools, where a difference is that expenses on books account for the largest chunk of expenditure for the government students.

Figure 4.17: Component of Household's Educational Expenditure per Student at Primary level in Government and Private Institutions

Source: NSS, 71st round, Education

Figure 4.18: Component of Household's Educational Expenditure per Student at Upper Primary Level in Government and Private Institutions

Source: NSS 71st Round Survey, 2014

School Infrastructure

As for the all-India level, the schooling infrastructure in Daman and Diu has also improved in the last decade (DISE statistics). There has been a marked improvement in school facilities owing to the Sarva Sikhsa Abhiyan (SSA) as well. In terms of the various facility indicators such as student-classroom ratio, drinking water provisioning, sanitation, boundary wall, etc., the situation has improved considerably (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Improvement in School Facilities in Daman and Diu (2005-2014)

Facility Indicators	2005-06	2014-15
Student-Classroom ratio	36	36
Schools with drinking water	95.05	100
Schools with common Toilet	81	100
Schools with Girls' Toilet	41.86	100
Schools with Boundary Wall	85.15	92.5
Schools with Computers	21.78	63.56

Source: DISE Relevant Year

Both, government and private institutions are equipped with fairly adequate school infrastructure. However, 30 per cent of the government schools have a shortage of a functional library facility (Table A4.5). Although schools in both Daman and Diu have good school infrastructure, Daman has more shortage of functional libraries as compared to Diu in government schools.

Quality, Interest in Learning and Higher Education

Performance

Quality deficit in school education is currently plaguing schools all over India. However, independent assessments find that the Union Territory of Daman and Diu has better educational quality compared to many of the states and its performance was above the national average for both language and mathematics.

National Achievement Surveys (NAS) are conducted in different cycles by National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) to assess the learning process. In an assessment survey conducted in 2014 for Class III, the achievement highlights for students their abilities in Language (listening, recognition of words, and reading comprehension) and in Mathematics (numbers, basic operations, measurements, data handling, pattern, money and geometry). The data show that Class III children in 34 states/ UTs could answer 64 per cent of language items correctly and 66 percent of Mathematics questions correctly. Daman and Diu's performance was above the national average for both language and mathematics: in the language assessment, class III students answered 74 per cent items correctly and the corresponding percentage for mathematics was 77 per cent, and in both cases Daman and Diu stood at the first position in India. Next, the performance was higher than the national average in both rural and urban areas (in both language and mathematics). NAS for Class VIII students in Daman and Diu for reading comprehension, mathematics, science and social science also showed that the performance of students of Daman and Diu was significantly above the national average in reading comprehensions, mathematics, science and social science. Further, girls were able to score more in reading comprehensions and mathematics. The finding thus is that students in the UT are not deficient in education quality, but the benchmark to be aimed at should ideally be set by international standards, rather than national averages.

Out of School Children

Of the total children in the 6 to 16-year age group, about 5 per cent are found to be out of school.[1] Of the total of 'out of school children', 17.9 per cent actually never enrolled; almost 70 per cent of those who were enrolled dropped out of school at different classes; and a smaller proportion of them, although they had not formally given up school, did not attend it. Table 4.13 shows that the majority of out of school children are school dropouts. Dropout rate in Daman and Diu is much higher than the all India figure (India 36.97 per cent; Daman and Diu 69.23 per cent).[2] This aspect requires a deeper analysis as when it comes to performance, Daman and Diu out-performs most other states and UTs.

1. Out of school children here are those between 6-16 years of age, who have never enrolled in any school, or after enrolment have left school, never to return, and the ones who have been enrolled in school but currently do not go to school.
2. All India dropout rate is calculated from SRI-IMRB-2014.

Table 4.13: Distribution Pattern of Out of School Children of Age 6-16 years (%)

	Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu	Male	Female
Never enrolled	34.9	22.6	33.2	35.5	31.1
Dropout	54.0	62.6	55.2	53.2	57.1
Enrolled but does not go to school	10.3	11.1	10.4	10.2	10.6
Goes to informal institution	0.8	3.7	1.2	1.1	1.2

Note: Total out of school children are 3164, total children of 6-16 years are 64498.

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

So far as the 'never enrolled children' are concerned, the highest percentage was found in Daman district, followed by Diu. Further, the percentage of male children was higher than their female counterparts among those never enrolled children. In Daman, the dropout rate is high at I-V Standards whereas in Diu, it is high at Class IX-X standards. Dropout rate is the highest among girls at Classes I-V and IX-X, while boys drop out more at the primary level (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Distribution Pattern of Dropouts at various levels of Classes (in per cent)

	Class I-V	Class VI-VIII	Class IX-X	Class-XI-XII
Daman	49.04	33.12	15.18	2.70
Diu	19.70	23.03	46.06	11.21
Daman and Diu	44.67	32.35	19.78	3.12
Male	43.09	35.04	19.13	2.75
Female	46.11	28.50	20.38	3.45

Source: HDR Survey Daman and Diu

Thus poor completion rate and low retention in school is a serious concern. There are both supply and demand side factors which affect the children's exit. The HDR Survey suggests that 23 per cent of the dropout children leave school because of disinterest in studies and to support family income, another 16 per cent give up studying because the family shifts out, 11 per cent of them dropped out because school is unaffordable, and another 7 per cent left study/school because they failed in examinations. Disinterest in studies may be because of poor teaching input at school, and/or because of home factors. These issues need to be addressed with concerted efforts from the government. A list of all the reasons can be seen in Table A4.6.

Parental Interest at Children's Education

Parental involvement in early childhood education and their awareness and engagement with school has an important role in a child's performance in school. The HDR Survey has collected information on whether parents ever visited school for school-related activities such as attending Parent-Teacher meetings, or any type of school functions.

The survey findings show the following:

- In Diu, it is the mothers who mainly visit the school for various school-related activities. In Daman, both parents visited the school.
- In rural areas, mostly mothers go to school functions whereas in urban areas, both parents are involved in school related activities. In this sense, Daman fares better, since involvement of both parents is essential for an all-round development of the child.
- Involvement of parents for children going to private institutions is significantly higher than that of parents whose children attend governmental institutions (Table A4.6).
- There are differences in terms of parent's involvement in different activities in government and private schools in both Daman and Diu. In Diu, the parent-teacher meetings are more regular in both government and private institutions as compared to Daman (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Parents' Involvement in Different School related Activities (in %)

	Daman		Diu		Total	
		Private		Private		Private
Parents' day /meeting	37.1	35.4	42.8	52.1	38.3	37.0
called by school	63.1	59.3	70.9	59.2	64.7	59.3
School's meeting/function	12.7	17.3	11.3	16.4	12.4	17.2
On own interest	11.2	15.7	3.8	15.5	9.6	15.7

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Status of Higher Education

At present, around 69 per cent of the children in the age group 14-15 years are pursuing secondary education (Table 4.16). In Diu, this percentage is higher than Daman. However, the gender gap in pursuing secondary education is higher in Diu (9.25 percentage point) as compared to Daman (0.02). When seen social-group-wise, there is a higher percentage of ST children attending school as compared to SC or general category students. At present, there are eight colleges in Daman and Diu (four government and four private colleges). However, there is no university in Daman or Diu yet. The number of colleges per 100,000 populations is 15, which is below the all-India average of 27 (AISHE, 2014-15).

Table 4.16: % of Children (14-15 years) attending Class IX-X

	Daman	Diu	Daman and Diu
Male	66.13	84.68	69.25
Female	66.11	75.43	68.16
Person	66.12	79.78	68.75
SC	69.75	79.31	70.83
ST	79.31	-	78.74
OBC	64.7	79.27	69.99
General	59.04	100	60.34

Note: - no observation

Source: HDR Survey Daman and Diu

Parents' Aspiration for Child's Higher Education

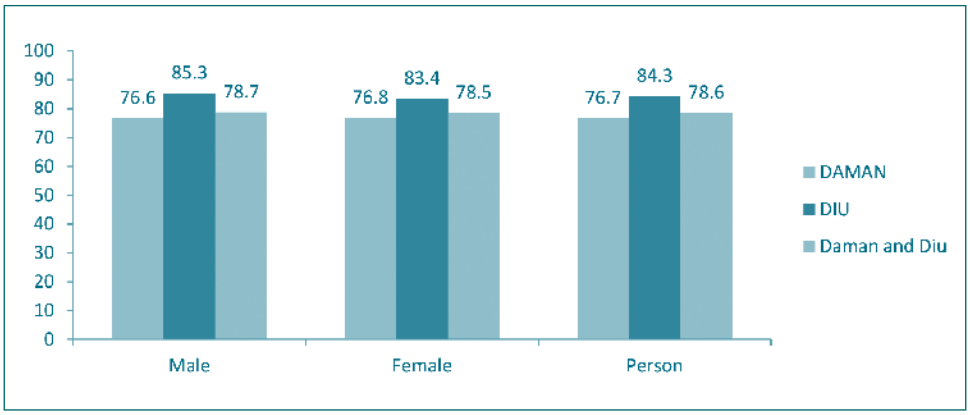
Higher education is important for increasing the skills and enhancing opportunities for better standards of living. Parents' aspiration is an important measure for the children's scope for future study. More than 90 per cent of the households expected to enrol their children in local higher secondary schools and colleges. Sending children to schools and colleges outside the district was reported by 2.42 per cent of the households (Table 4.17). Further, 78.58 per cent of the households reported that they wanted their children to continue their higher education (parents in Diu reported greater aspiration for future higher study for their children, at 84.33 per cent). Further, it is heartening that there is not much gender difference in parents' aspiration for their children in higher education (Figure 4.19). There are also no differences in terms of parents' aspiration for their children to continue with professional and vocational courses across districts and by gender (Figure 4.20).

Table 4.17: Enrolment at Various Levels of Degree

	Under Graduate	Diploma
Male	695	1186
Female	1088	153
Total	1783	1339

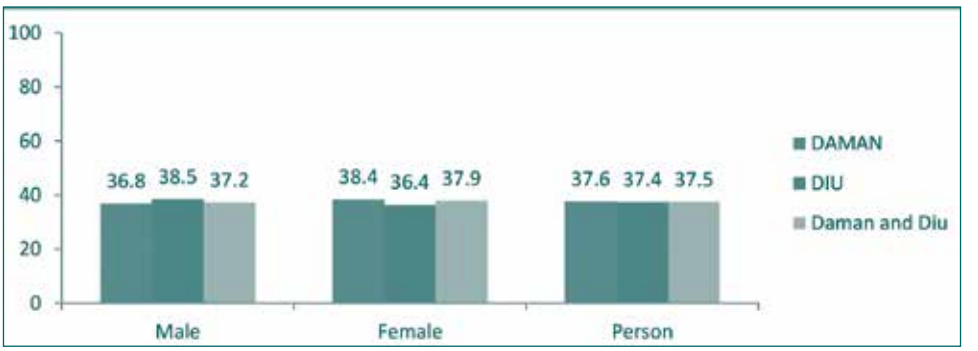
Source: AISHE, 2015-16

Figure 4.19: Reported Future Plan for Higher Education for Children (in %)



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Figure 4.20: Reported Future Plan for Professional/Vocational Study for Children (in %)



Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

2. HEALTH

Introduction

A key component of human development is the health status of the population. The wellbeing as well as economic productivity of people are affected by their health conditions. To maintain the highest possible health status, it is essential to ensure access to quality healthcare for all. Thus, policy formulation, implementation and budget allocation for the health sector play important roles in determining the health status of the people.

Accuracy in framing health policy demands information on health providers as well as various health status indicators. This section has been drawn up with a view to examining the health status and quality of physical wellbeing of the people living in the UT of Daman and Diu. It presents a snapshot of the current health status and key population health indicators over the past two decades , with focus on issues like: morbidity pattern, maternal and child health, available health facilities, health expenditure, etc. The information on health and healthcare indicators is collected from primary level household survey, launched for this HDR, in addition to published official documents.

Health Scenario in Daman & Diu – Status and Recent Trends

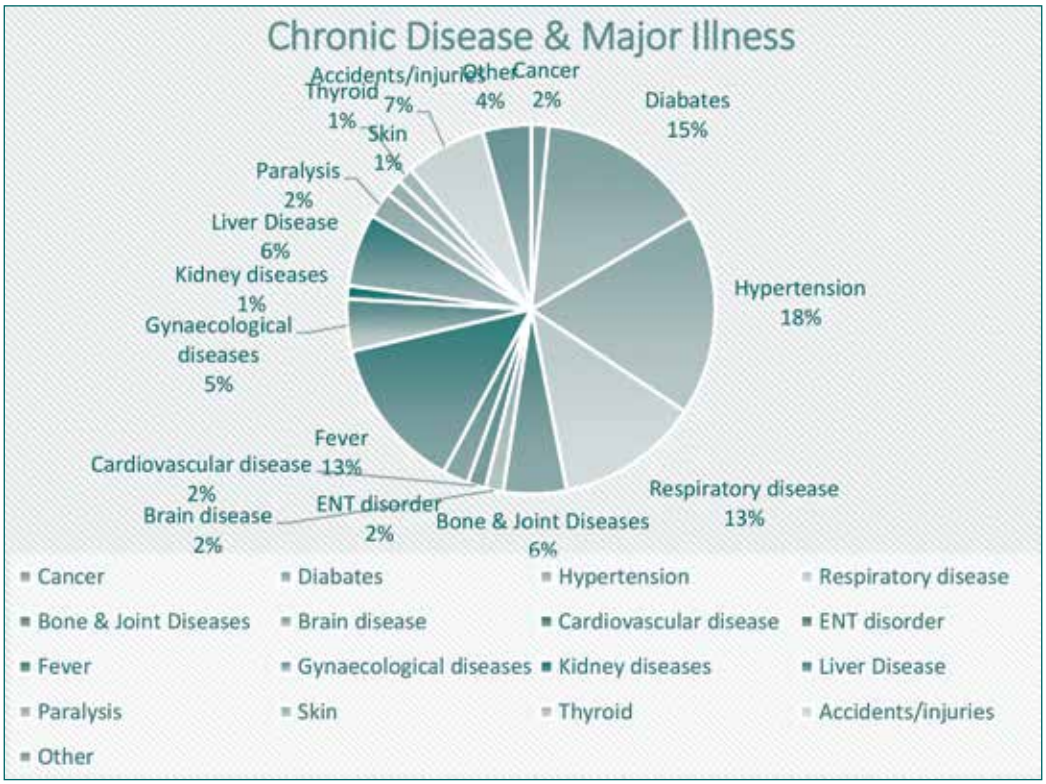
Morbidity and Burden of Disease

The HDR Survey of 2016 is the main source of information on morbidity and healthcare related information in addition to data on chronic diseases in this report.

To understand the disease pattern and major illness, the reported disease-pattern was classified into 17 categories. The share of disease burden is depicted in Figure 4.21. A major share of the disease burden is attributable to Hypertension (18 per cent) followed by Diabetes (15 per cent), both of which are non-communicable diseases. Among the communicable diseases, for which patients were hospitalised are different types of fever including Malaria (13 per cent), Typhoid and Respiratory Diseases (13 per cent). Another

6 per cent of the reported cases were for different liver and stomach disorders. Bone and Joint-Pain-related diseases also represent 6 per cent of the total disease burden. Different Gynaecological diseases including maternal health and delivery complications had a share of 5 per cent of the total major illnesses. Besides these, Cardiovascular diseases, Cancer, Paralysis, ENT disorder, and Brain-related diseases, each accounted for 2 per cent of the disease burden. Prevalence of Kidney, Skin and Thyroid related diseases, each reported had a share of 1 per cent.

Figure 4.21: % Distribution of Chronic Disease and Major Illness, Daman and Diu, 2016



Source: Primary Survey, 2016

Note: The illnesses have been reported for household family members who fell ill during the previous 30 days.

From the reported illnesses as in Figure 4.21, it can be said that in Daman and Diu, the major disease burden is due to non-communicable diseases when populations of all age groups are taken together. The key conclusion of these data is that unlike in many other parts of India, communicational diseases are relatively under greater control as compared to non-communicational diseases. At one level, this is a success, but at another level, the dominance of non-communicable diseases requires being in-depth study for effective public action. It is important to conduct studies to probe into the reasons why so many people suffer from hypertension, diabetes or residuary diseases, and suitable action needs to be devised to check/control this.

Mortality

The Infant Mortality Rate in Daman and Diu was reported at 34, which is lower than the all-India figure of 41 as per the National Family Health Survey of 2015-16. Other data are not yet available.

Maternal and Child Healthcare

The National Family Health Survey - IV (NFHS-4 of 2015-16) suggests that in Daman and Diu the coverage of antenatal check-up in the first trimester in rural area was high (84 per cent), which is higher than that in urban areas. However, pregnant women receiving full antenatal care is remarkably low in both urban and rural areas. Thus, the place of residence does not make any significant difference in receiving antenatal care in this UT (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18: Coverage of Maternity Care

Indicators on Maternity Care (in %)	Urban	Rural	Total
have antenatal check-up in the first trimester	71.4	84	75.1
have at least 4 antenatal care visits	58.7	72.5	62.7
have full antenatal care	26.3	38.6	29.9

Source: National Family Health Survey - 4 (2015-16)

Besides antenatal care, another set of indicators for determining maternal and child mortality are, where the delivery takes place, i.e. place of birth and the health personnel involved in providing delivery care. The NFHS-4 of 2015-16 suggests that births taking place institutionally, in both rural and urban areas, is quite high – around 90 per cent of the total births are in health service providing units (Table 4.19). Household primary survey results also justify this. According to the primary survey, 47 per cent births are at public health facility, 46.6 per cent are at private facility and rest 6.3 per cent are at home (Figure 4.22).

Table 4.19: Indicators on Delivery Care

Indicators on Delivery Care (in %)	Urban	Rural	Total
Institutional births	90.7	88.8	90.1
Births assisted by any health personnel	76.5	78.2	77

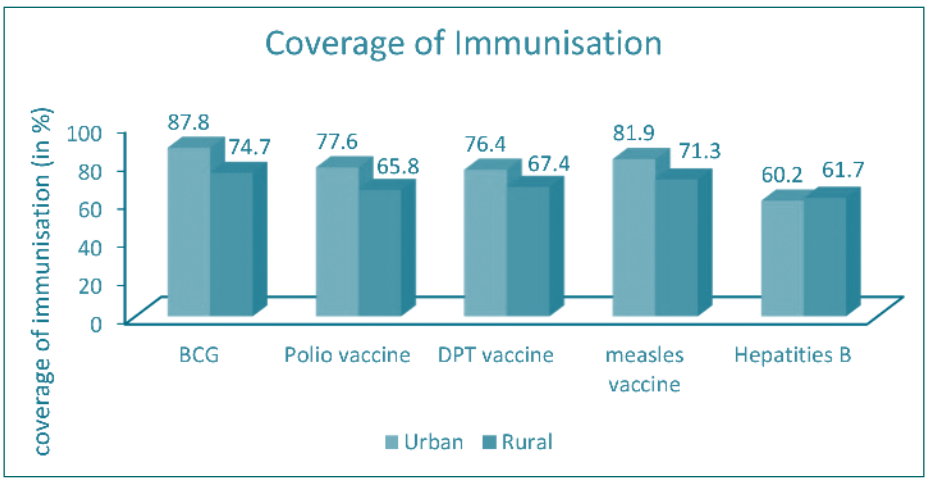
Source: National Family Health Survey - 4 (2015-16)

Figure 4.22: Place of Birth at different Health Facility

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

In Daman and Diu, complete immunisation coverage of children in the age group 12-23 months (i.e. given BCG, measles, and three doses each of polio and DPT) is 66.3 per cent; the urban coverage is 67.8 per cent and rural coverage is 62.4 per cent, as per the NFHS-4 survey records. Figure 4.23 shows the immunisation coverage by five different vaccines. To ensure universal immunisation coverage, immunisation programmes require expanding, especially in the rural areas.

Figure 4.23: Immunisation Coverage of the Children in the Age-group12-23 Months

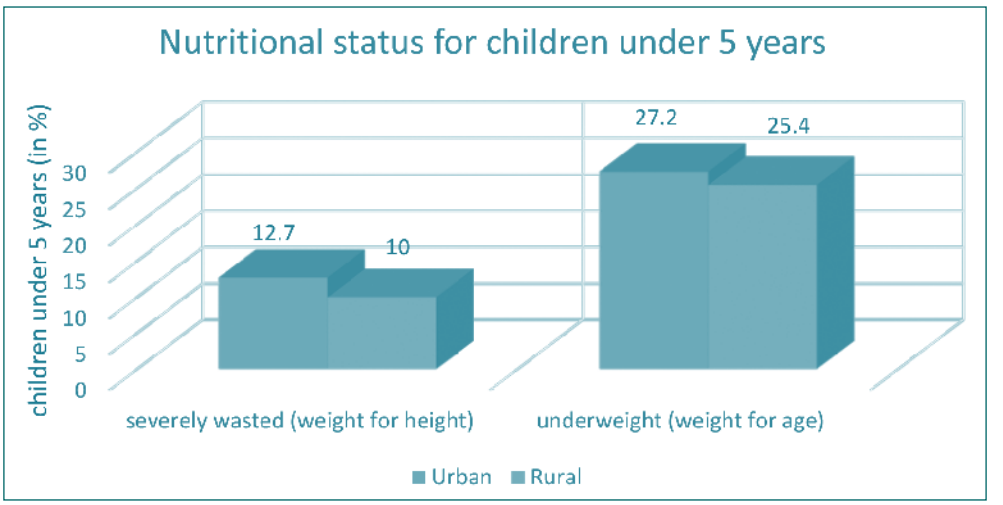


Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Nutrition Status

The nutritional status of the children under five years of age indicates the health status of the future population. In Daman and Diu, around 10 per cent children of less than five years of age are severely wasted and more than 25 per cent are underweight (Figure 4.24). The share of severely wasted under five children in much higher than the national average of 7.5 percent.

Figure 4.24: Nutritional Status of Children under 5 years



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

While the share of under five underweight children is lower than the national average of 35.7 percent, it is still very high. The indicators show slightly higher values for urban areas. The health deficit of under five children indicated by the statistics above are disturbing, especially considering these are the future citizens of the UT. They need to be dealt with on an urgent basis.

Infrastructure and Healthcare Provider and Expenditures

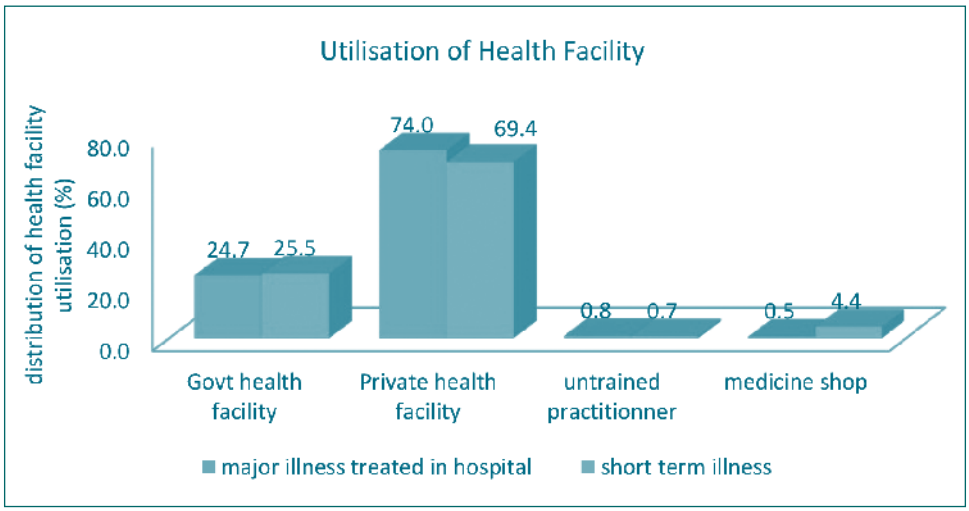
Infrastructure

To ensure health services and proper functioning of the healthcare service providing units, it is essential to ensure establishment of physical infrastructure as well as provision of health personnel. In Daman and Diu, as elsewhere, public health facilities are provided by the Sub-centres, Primary Health Centres (PHC), Community Health Centres (CHC), and district hospitals. According to the Rural Health Statistics (RHS) Bulletin of March 2011, in Daman and Diu, the public health facilities, Sub-centre, Primary Health Centre (PHC), Community Health Centre, district hospitals are as per norms and sufficient in numbers. However, these health facilities lacked in different categories of health personnel. While the current situation is not known, non-availability of personnel is a chronic issue in all provinces in India.

To understand the utilisation of different health facilities for seeking treatment, the health providers were classified into four broad categories. Primary data from HDR Survey of 2016 suggest that, for both major illness and minor illness, people availed of treatment mostly from private health facilities, which includes private clinics and private hospitals. For both, critical illnesses, where patients are admitted into hospitals, and minor diseases, the use of government health facility which includes Sub-centre, PHC, CHC, district hospital, was around 25 per cent in total utilisation of all health facilities.

Public health facilities not being availed is in larger proportions because availability of public healthcare facility is quite inadequate in comparison to the need/demand. The result shows that for minor illnesses, about 4.4 per cent people take scheduled medicines from the pharmacy without consulting doctors. For both major and minor illnesses, visits to untrained practitioners including quacks and other traditional healers are low at less than 1 per cent (Figure 4.25).

Figure 4.25: Utilisation of Health Facility for Hospitalisation Cases and Short-term Illnesses



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

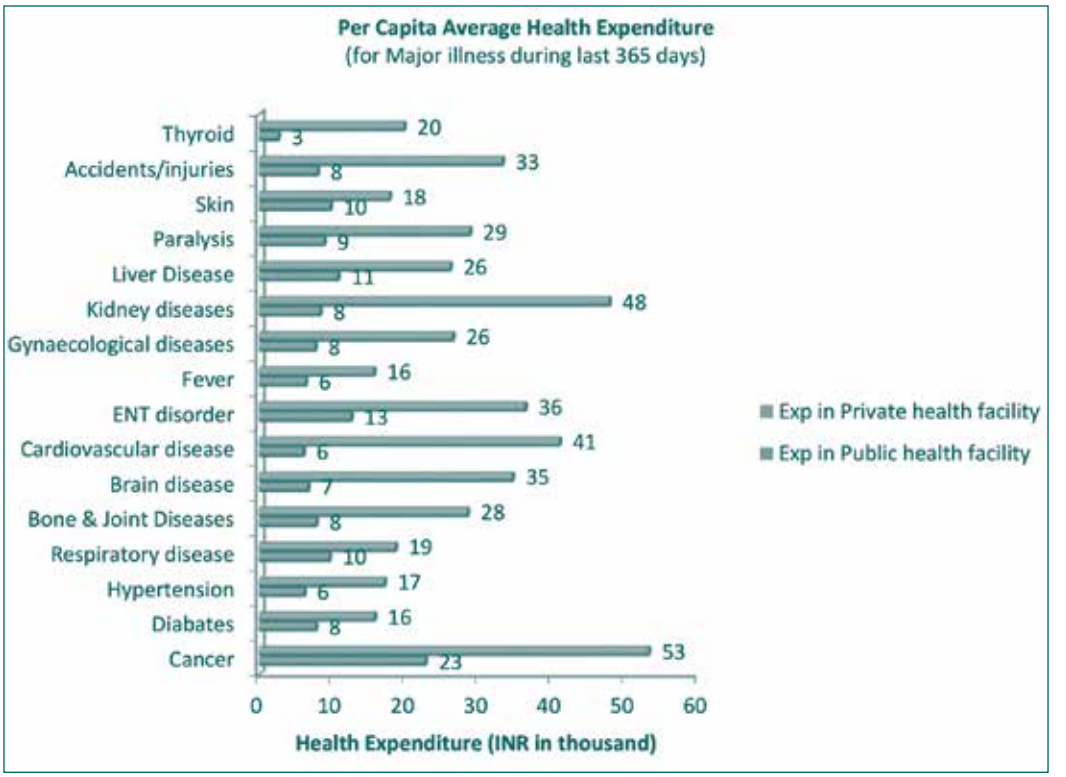
Healthcare Expenditure

For discussing healthcare expenditure, it is important to understand the structure of the Indian healthcare system. In India's healthcare system, private entities play a major role. According to the National Health Accounts of 2013-14, the total health expenditure of India was 4.02 per cent of GDP, and this constitutes both public and private expenditure. The share of total government expenditure was 1.15 per cent of GDP. Public healthcare services are financed by the Central Government, State Government and Local Bodies. Private healthcare expenditure comprises of out of pocket (OOP) expenditure incurred by households for availing healthcare services, healthcare expenditure through insurance mechanism, and expenditure by corporate bodies on their employees and families. The National Account Statistics (2013-14) shows that the OOP expenditure by households is 2.6 per cent of GDP and 64.2 per cent of the total healthcare expenditure.

Attempt was made to explore the OOP expenditure made by the people of the UT. The HDR Household Survey of 2016 shows that for major illnesses (people hospitalized in the last 365 days), the per capita average private healthcare expenditure is around 2.9 times higher than the OOP expenditure when a person is treated in public health facility. The disease-specific per capita average healthcare expenditure is given in Figure

4.26. It shows that the per capita average OOP expenditure was highest, at around Rs. 53 thousand, for those suffering from cancer and treated in a private health facility. At the same time, if the person is treated in public health facility, the OOP expenditure reduces to Rs. 23 thousand. The second highest expenditure in private facility was for kidney disease, at Rs. 48 thousand. On the whole, per capita average annual expenditure for major illness is Rs. 18,355.

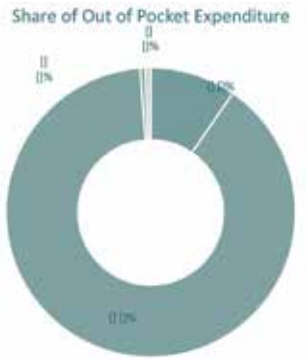
Figure 4.26: Per Capita Average Healthcare Expenditure
(for major illness during the last 365 days, in INR thousand)



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

In Daman and Diu, the total OOP expenditure for healthcare, which includes both major and minor illness, was around Rs. 1,180 million in the year 2016. Among the healthcare providers, the major share of the OOP expenditure goes to private healthcare facilities, at around 1,050 million (89%). This is because of the fact that public healthcare facilities are quite inadequate, though they provide services at a subsidised rate or negligible price. The share of OOP expenditure for different types of healthcare providers is given in Figure 4.27.

Figure 4.27: Share of OOP Expenditure by Types of Healthcare Facility



Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Summing Up

Policy needs to focus on promoting female literacy in the UT. Universal enrolment at primary and upper primary level is an issue in the UT. There is also a notable dropout rate at the secondary and higher secondary levels, a trend requiring arrest.

There is a gap in enrolling children in pre-school between the districts of Daman and Diu, as well as between rural and urban areas. In both the districts, children from affluent families attend private centres for pre-school education, whereas children from relatively poorer families choose government-run Anganwadi centres. Actually, the preference for private schools runs through all school levels: primary, secondary, higher secondary, etc. This is a matter of concern.

There is a shortage of schools at the higher levels as compared to the lower levels of education. This also reflects in the low enrolment ratio from upper primary to secondary level and further, at secondary and higher levels.

In terms of school infrastructure, considerable progress has been made in the recent years: provisioning of good boundary wall, sanitation, drinking water and access to computer facilities. Both government and private institutions are equipped with good school infrastructure. However, government schools have a shortage of functional library facility, which needs strengthening.

Although elementary education is supposed to be free in government schools, households still spend notable amounts on schooling. About 5.12 per cent of the total household expenditure is being spent on education in the UT's households. There are differences in educational expenditures between government and private institutions.

About 4.9 per cent of the total elementary school age children do not attend school. The dropout rate in Daman and Diu is higher than the all India average, which is a cause of concern. Enrolment of the out of school children needs to be encouraged and supported by all possible means.

The HDR Survey indicates that although all children in the age group 6-14 years are enrolled at the primary and upper-primary levels, only 68.75 per cent are pursuing secondary education. So, the UT needs to emphasise on secondary education to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals. It is also important for the UT to improve the educational infrastructure for higher education.

Although the present exercise did not look at the educational attainment of students, different national surveys suggest that the quality of learning across different levels of education in the UT is above the national average.

Several health indicators in Daman and Diu are more favourable as compared to those at the all-India level. Yet, there are gaps that require addressing. Among the key problems is the prevalence of life-style diseases, which needs controlling for a better health status of the larger masses.

Data also suggest that the extent of public expense on healthcare is small, and correspondingly, the public healthcare facilities are quite inadequate. People's excessive dependence on private facilities drains out their hard-earned incomes. This aspect requires urgent attention.

Appendix 4

Table A4.1 Households by Distance from School (in %)

		d<1 km	1 km< d<2 kms	2kms<d<5 kms	D >5 kms
Daman and Diu	Primary	75.2	24.8	0	0
	Upper primary	52.8	47.2	0	0
	Secondary	49.3	48.4	2.3	0
All India	Primary	93.6	5.5	0.9	0.1
	Upper primary	71.8	17.1	9.4	1.7
	Secondary	48.4	22	21.1	8.5

Source: NSS 71 round

Table A4.2: Reason for sending Children to Private Institution (in %)

	Good	Quality Teachers	Classes regular	Student care	Extra activity	Better Quality of	English Medium of	Better learning
Daman	48.5	38.8	21.3	8.3	2.4	18.8	27.9	2.3
Diu	36.8	30.2	14.9	7.8	1.0	29.2	45.8	9.5
Total	47.4	38.0	20.7	8.2	2.3	19.8	29.6	3.0

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table A4.3: % Distribution of Children attended (Primary) by Social Groups and by Types of Institutions

Government/government aided		Rural		Urban	
		Private		Private	
Daman	Scheduled Caste (SC)	45.0	55.0	50.3	46.3
	Scheduled Tribe (SC)	92.2	7.8	67.6	30.7
	Other Backward Caste OBC)	62.9	36.4	41.8	56.2
	General	53.1	45.9	37.7	60.4
Diu	Scheduled Caste (SC)	80.0	20.0	65.2	34.8
	Scheduled Tribe (SC)	75.0	25.0	100.0	0.0
	Other Backward Caste (OBC)	77.9	22.1	52.7	45.4
	General	100.0	0.0	52.9	38.2

Source: HDR Survey, Daman and Diu

Table A4.4: % of Student taking Private Tuition at Primary and Upper Primary Level Daman and Diu

	Government	Private
Primary	58.75	65.34
Upper Primary	22.74	71.96

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table A4.5: Current status of School Infrastructure in Primary School (in %) in Daman and Diu

	Daman		Diu	
	Government	Private	Government	Private
School has own building/pucca building	99.6	99.0	99.1	99.5
Separate class room for each class	99.7	99.6	99.1	100.0
Sufficient desks/benches	99.0	99.4	99.4	100.0
Functional library	68.4	89.9	79.1	88.1
Functional light/fan	99.3	99.5	99.8	100.0
Drinking water	98.2	98.6	99.8	99.5
Toilet Functional	99.5	99.6	99.3	99.5
Separate functional toilet for girls	97.9	98.6	98.6	99.5
Playground	95.8	97.4	97.3	100.0
Boundary wall	96.0	96.4	98.1	98.9

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table A4.6: Reasons for Dropout (in %)

	Daman	Diu	Total
Work at home	5.4	4.8	5.3
Need to support earning	12.8	11.9	12.6
School too far	1.3	2.4	1.5
Lack of facilities in school	2.0	0.0	1.7
Teacher beats	0.0	0.0	0.0
Teacher doesn't teach	1.3	0.0	1.1
Failed in exam	5.2	14.3	6.7
Unaffordable	10.6	16.7	11.6
Not interested in studying	24.1	35.8	26.0
Got married	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ill health	3.9	4.4	4.0
Looks after siblings	2.0	0.0	1.7
Family got displaced	7.4	4.8	6.9
Family shifted	17.6	0.0	14.7
Other	6.5	4.8	6.3

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

Table A4.7: % of Parents Involvement in School Related Activities

	Daman	Diu	Total	Rural	Urban		Private
Father	19.0	12.0	17.9	16.1	18.4	19.4	16.2
Mother	18.7	40.9	22.0	33.2	19.2	27.7	15.9
Both parents	57.1	40.9	54.7	43.3	57.6	45.4	64.7
Other family members	2.3	3.0	2.4	3.3	2.2	3.0	1.8

Source: HDR Survey, 2016

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CHAPTER 5

Migration

Introduction

As was seen earlier in Chapter 3, the UT of Daman and Diu has experienced a lot of in-migration in the recent years and decades, to the extent that majority of the workers now hail from outside the state. This chapter examines different facets of the in-migrants seen from the point of view of improving their working and living status, and also from the perspective of whether further and continued migration from elsewhere is desirable and feasible, and what steps are required to be taken for the future.

A couple of points need to be noted at the outset. Migration has historically been seen to be beneficial to the receiving destinations. The most quoted reference is of the American experience of people moving in large masses from the inlands to the coasts in the earlier/mid parts of the 20th Century, which led to enormous economic growth in the coastal areas. Australia, Singapore and Mauritius, all developed countries, have been almost fully settled by migrants. However, the results cannot be generalized, as the demographic and the social/physical ecology of each locale is different and so is the era when large migrations happened. It may also be noted that free movement of people from any part to any other for purposes of employment, business, etc. is guaranteed in the Constitution of India, and no effort is being proposed to violate this guarantee.

This chapter is divided into five sections. Section 2 presents the characteristics of in-migrant households, Section 3 discusses findings related to in-migrant persons, Section 4 briefly summarizes the characteristics of out-migration from the Union Territory and Section 5 summarises and concludes the chapter. The chapter draws upon the data collected from the HDR Survey of 2016.

This chapter deploys data on migrant and non-migrant households and not persons or workers. Not all migrant persons or workers move in/out with their households. Since many in-migrants move-in alone they tend to escape enumeration in this survey. The results are to be interpreted accordingly.

Migration Patterns

Numbers of Migrants

Diu is more rural, with more than half of its population dwelling in the rural areas. Daman, on the other hand, is substantially more urban, with 83 per cent of its population dwelling in urban areas. Daman has a number of industries that employ migrant workers and is more advanced industrially than Diu. This background explains the nature and characteristics of migration to and from Daman and Diu, respectively, as would be seen as the chapter progresses.

Households in the HDR Survey are categorised as resident and in-migrant. Resident households are those, whose native place is not different from their place of current residence, i.e. Daman or Diu (they were born here and have ancestry here); whereas in-migrant households are those, whose native place is different from their current place of residence (they were not born here and have ancestry elsewhere). Table 5.1 presents data on the distribution of households by their migration status. Overall, in-migrants are some three-fifths of the population while original residents are about two-fifths. It can be seen from Table 5.1 that overall, in-migration is far more significant than out-migration. This is followed by resident households (without out-migrants). Resident households that have out-migrants are a minority, overall, though out-migration from Diu appears relatively more prevalent – one in ten resident households in Diu have out-migrating members.

This pattern is easy to explain: Daman is highly industrialised, while Diu is not. As discussed earlier, its land mass is too small and it is remotely located to attract industries from elsewhere. Diu also has little internal prowess to generate large-scale entrepreneurship.

Table 5.1: % Distribution of Households by Migration Status

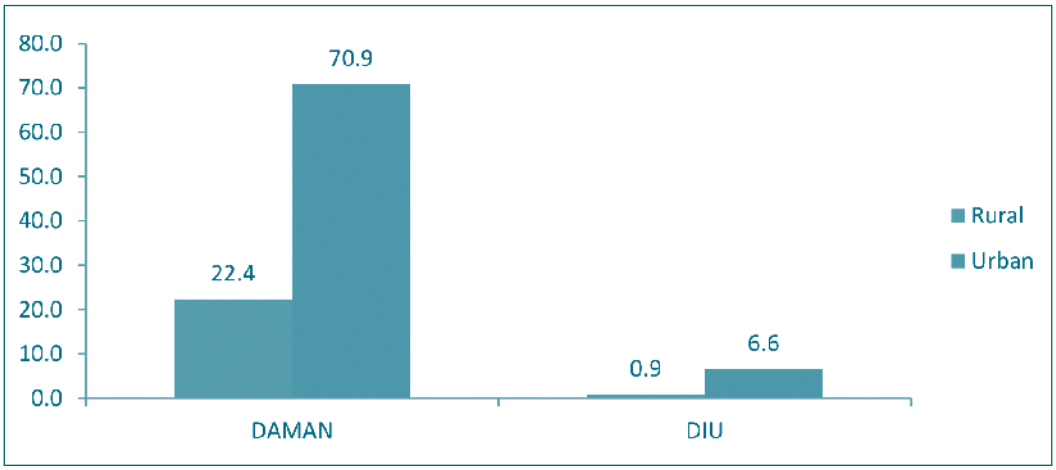
	Resident Households		In-migrant Households		Total (1+2+3+4)
	With out-migrants	Without out-migrants	With out-migrants	Without out-migrants	
Daman	1.4	33.4	0.3	65.0	100.0
Diu	11.3	85.1	0.1	3.5	100.0
Daman and Diu	2.7	40.2	0.2	56.8	100.0

Source: HDR Survey 2016

In-Migrant Households

As mentioned earlier, the survey collected data on households whose native place or place of domicile is different from their present place of residence. By this definition, it was found that a very high proportion (57.1 per cent) of the households had a native place or place of domicile different from Daman or Diu, where they currently reside.

Figure 5.1: % of In-migrant Households in Daman and Diu by Rural and Urban Areas



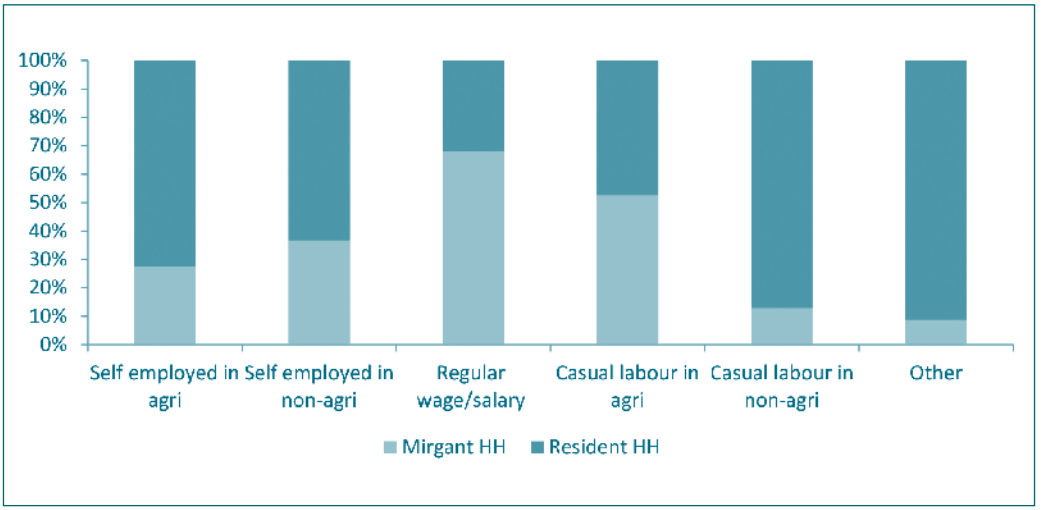
Source: HDR Survey 2016

Disaggregated by district, the data present a contrasting picture (Figure 5.1). In-migration is substantially higher in Daman where 65.3 per cent of the households are in-migrants as compared to only 3.6 per cent in Diu. In urban Daman, 71 per cent of all households are in-migrants. This is not surprising, as migrants in Daman work in a range of industrial occupations in the chemical (plastics), paper, mechanical and food processing industries here.

The key question to be addressed is that why locals are not employed and migrants are engaged in such large proportions to an extent that the demographic composition of the UT has altered. The possible explanations would be:

1. The local populations were perhaps not skilled enough in numbers at the time when industrialisation began here.
2. Once migrant workers began to come in, a 'migration chain' from the origin began.
3. Migrants are more likely to work longer hours and at lower wages and less likely to ask for break – their supply curve is different. Migrants have come from Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, parts of Gujarat and parts of Maharashtra, where the wages are fairly low and fewer employment options are available.

Figure 5.2: Distribution of Main Source of Livelihood of In-migrant and Resident Households



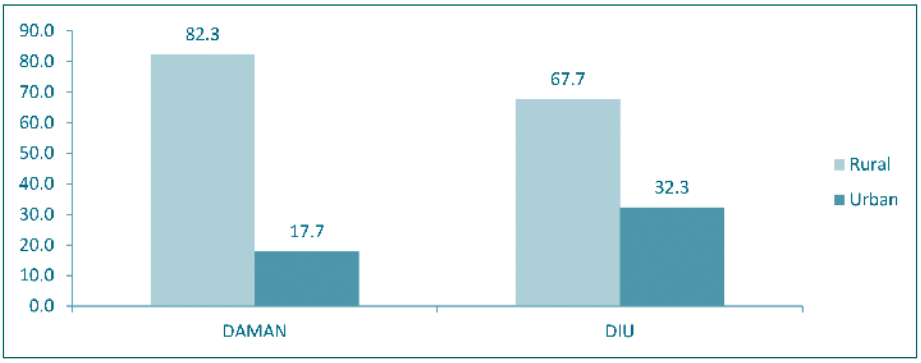
Source: HDR Survey 2016

As seen from the primary source of income criterion, migrant households are engaged? in large proportions in regular wage/salary and as casual labourers in agriculture (Figure 5.2). In contrast, a majority of the resident households are engaged as casual labourers in non-agriculture and in self-employment, in both agriculture and non-agriculture. Their being casual labourer is also a reflection of their low human capital. Among the households that have regular wage/salary earning as the main source of livelihood, 67.9 per cent are migrant households. These data indicate that in-migrant households report a better work status than resident households and it is also likely that in-migrant households would have a more stable source of income than the resident households. This is further corroborated by the figure in the Appendix to this chapter, which presents the distribution of sample workers by their activity status: in-migrants are more likely to be salaried workers at 42.1 per cent as compared to 20 per cent among residents, and residents are more likely to work in household enterprises (7.7 per cent residents vis-à-vis 3.1 per cent migrants). The higher share of those who attended to domestic duties among residents also indicates the male-domination among migrants: domestic work is as of now predominantly a female domain. However, as expected, rentiers, pensioners, and remittance recipients are more likely to be residents.

Characteristics of In-Migrants

Overall, 82.3 per cent of in-migrants have originated from rural areas, though in Diu, the percentage of in-migrants from rural areas was lower at 67.7 per cent. The main in-migrants are male. Migration is less skewed by sex in urban areas than rural (Figure 5.3).

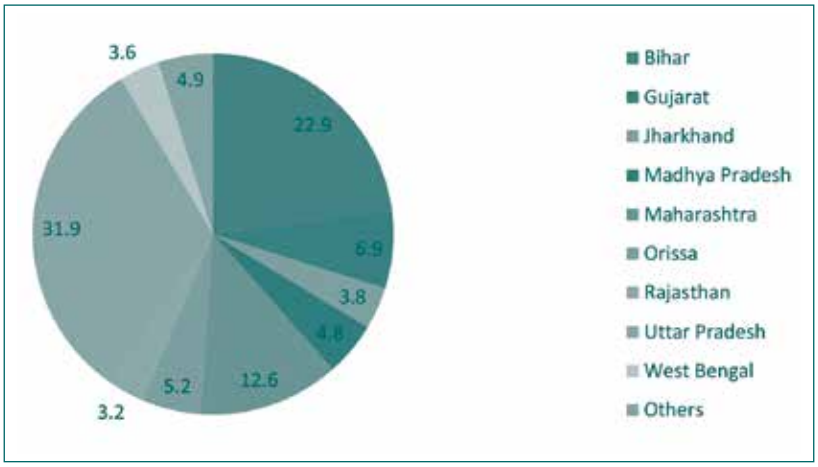
Figure 5.3: Place of Origin of In-migrants, Rural/Urban



Source: HDR Survey 2016

Figure 5.4 presents the place of origin of in-migrants. About half of all in-migrants at the UT are from two distant states – Uttar Pradesh (UP) and Bihar (32 per cent from UP and 23 per cent from Bihar). This is followed by those from Maharashtra (12.6 per cent), Gujarat (6.9 per cent), Orissa (5.2 per cent), Madhya Pradesh (4.8 per cent) and Rajasthan (3.2 per cent). In the 'Others' category, migrants hail from diverse states: Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Chhattisgarh, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal.

Figure 5.4: Place of Origin of In-migrants by State



Source: HDR Survey 2016

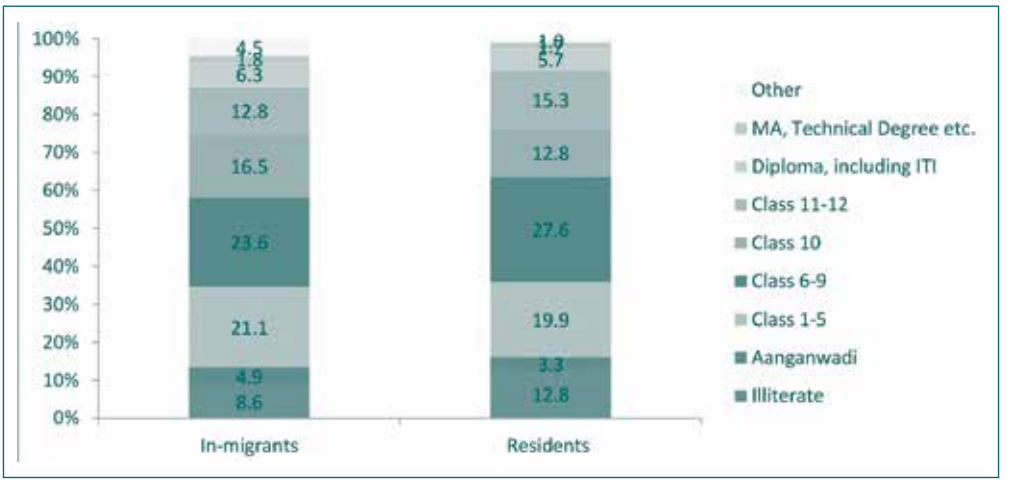
The distribution of in-migrants is quite different in Daman as compared to that in Diu. In-migrants in Daman are from a large number of states, whereas those in Diu are predominantly from Gujarat and Rajasthan, and only a handful of them are from other states. In rural Daman, three-fourths of the migrants are from Gujarat and the remaining one-fourth are from Rajasthan – both being neighbouring states. On the other hand, in-migrants in Daman (rural and urban combined) are from a diverse group of states.

The reasons for this different composition stems from the fact that Daman attracts people belonging to varied skills and in large numbers for its industries, while Diu has no such requirements since it is not industrialised.

Educational Status of Migrants

Figure 5.5 shows that the educational status of in-migrants and residents is quite different from each other. The incidence of illiteracy is higher among the resident populations in comparison to in-migrants (a point made earlier about lack of human capital in the local population). This pattern continues until educational attainment in classes 1-5, but the share of residents is higher among those having qualification of classes 6-9. Thereafter, the share of migrants possessing more education, namely high school, diploma and others, is higher. The relatively lower qualification of the local population at some levels is the reason for so many migrants getting jobs here.

Figure 5.5: Distribution of Education Status of In-migrants and Residents

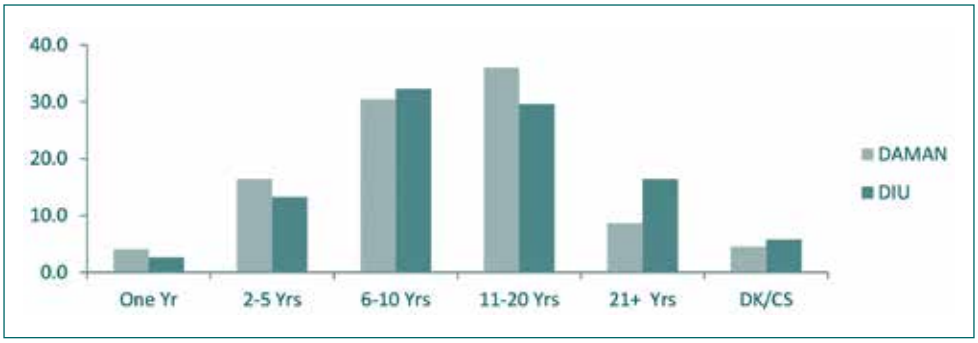


Source: HDR Survey 2016

Duration of Migration

Data from the HDR Survey suggest that the nature of migration is generally long term: The modal frequency (of 36 per cent) of the total number of years the migrants have spent in the UT is 11-20 years in both rural and urban areas. Another 31 per cent had migrated in the last 6-10 years (Figure 5.6) and these two groups constitute almost two-thirds of the total migrants. The length of stay of the migrants is almost same in both Daman and Diu, which also coincides with the emergence of industrialisation in the UT. Having stayed for such long time, the migrants are to an extent assimilated in the local culture. It is also important to note that the percentage of migrants migrated for 21 years or more is small at 8.7 per cent since the full stream in-migration consequent to the demand for labour began not so far back.

Figure 5.6: Distribution of In-migrants by Years of Migration

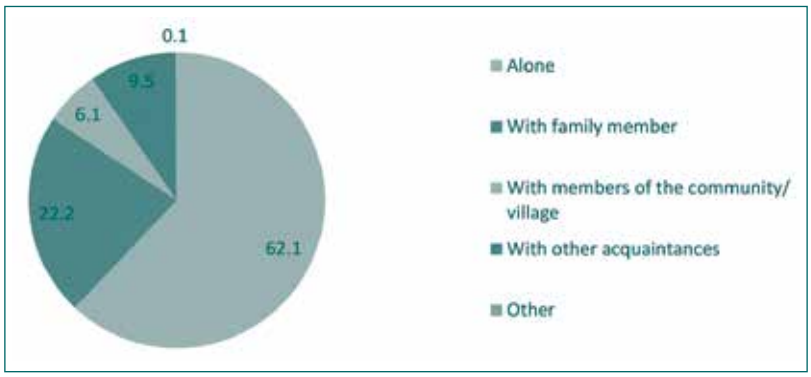


Source: HDR Survey 2016

How migration took place

Figure 5.7 shows that a majority (62.1 per cent) of the in-migrants came here alone. The remaining migrated with family members (22.2 per cent), with members of the community/village (6.1 per cent), with acquaintances/friends, or with others (9.5 per cent). Also, the patterns were not the same for rural and urban areas: evidently so, as the purpose of in-migrating of people in rural and urban areas have been different. Migrants to the latter/urban areas were more likely to have migrated/come in alone since family accommodation in cities is not easy, at least initially. For this reason, migrants to Daman (which is mainly urban) in comparison to Diu (which is to an extent rural) were more likely to have travelled alone.

Figure 5.7: Distribution of responses regarding 'with whom in-migrants migrated' (per cent)

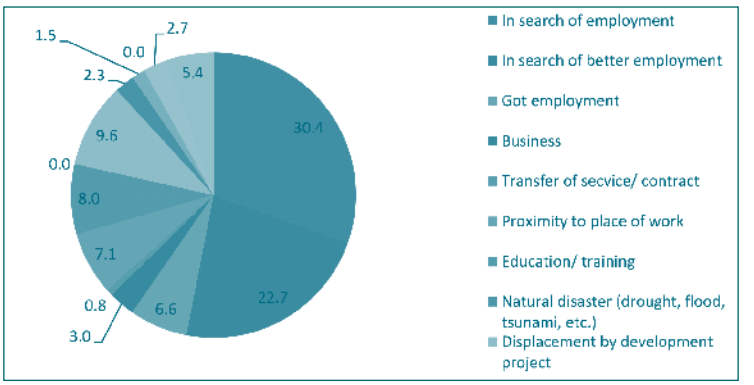


Source: HDR Survey 2016

Reasons for Migration

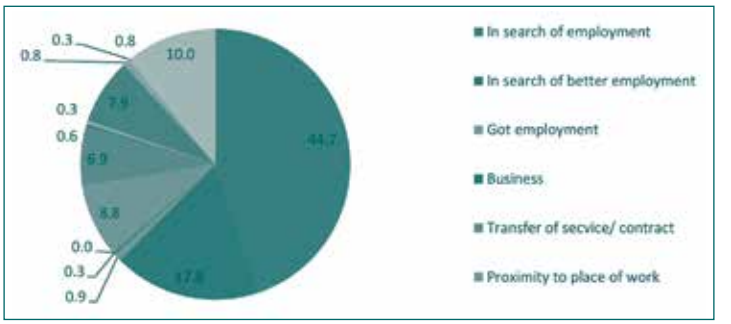
The main reasons for in-migration were reported to be job search (72.8 per cent), followed by search for better employment (21.9 per cent). Figures 5.8 and 5.9 present these main reasons for in-migration into Daman and Diu, respectively. There is also variation across the two districts though the broad reasons for coming here are the same.

Figure 5.8: Reasons for Migration – Daman (%)



Source: HDR Survey 2016

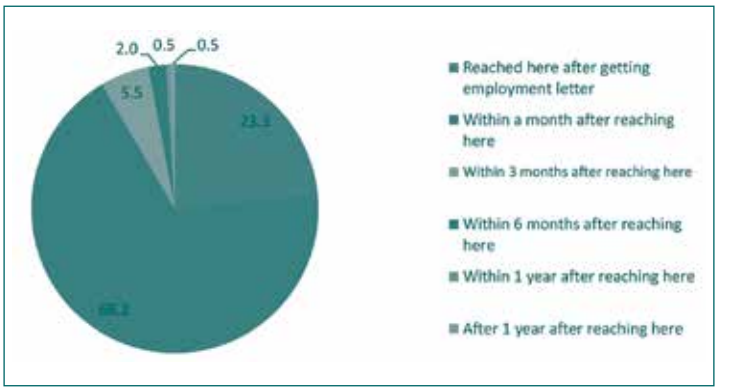
Figure 5.9: Reasons for Migration – Diu (%)



When did migrants arrive at destination?

About 23 per cent of the migrants came to the UT after receiving a job and about 68 per cent of the migrants reported that they received a job within a month after reaching the UT (Figure 5.10).

Figure 5.10: When did the migrant come to destination? (Daman and Diu) (%)



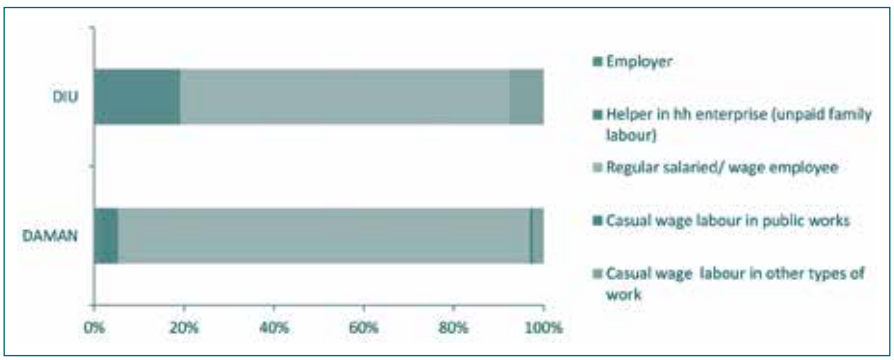
Source: HDR Survey 2016

However, Daman and Diu present contrasting pictures in this regard. While in Daman, a majority of migrants came first and then found work, in Diu, a majority of migrants reached only after they got employment. This is a reflection of the nature of jobs people come for/get: in Daman, there is greater organisation and systematisation in the job market, while in Diu, the arrangements are more informal and ad hoc. These (district-wise) patterns prevail in both rural and urban areas. Yet another aspect that emerges here is that a notable extent of in-migration is demand-led, given the fact that some 90 per cent migrants either already had job offers before arriving or got them within a month of arrival.

Activity status, nature of job and remuneration

What work did migrants do at the destination? Figure 5.11 presents the distribution of migrants by their activity status. Eighty-six per cent of the migrants worked as regular salaried or wage employees, four per cent worked as unpaid family labourers and two percent as casual wage labourers. However, there are several inter-district and regional disparities. For example, in Diu, the proportion of salaried workers was substantially lower than that of casual wage labourers. Similarly, in rural areas, the percentage of regular salaried workers was lower among the migrants. This is different in Daman.

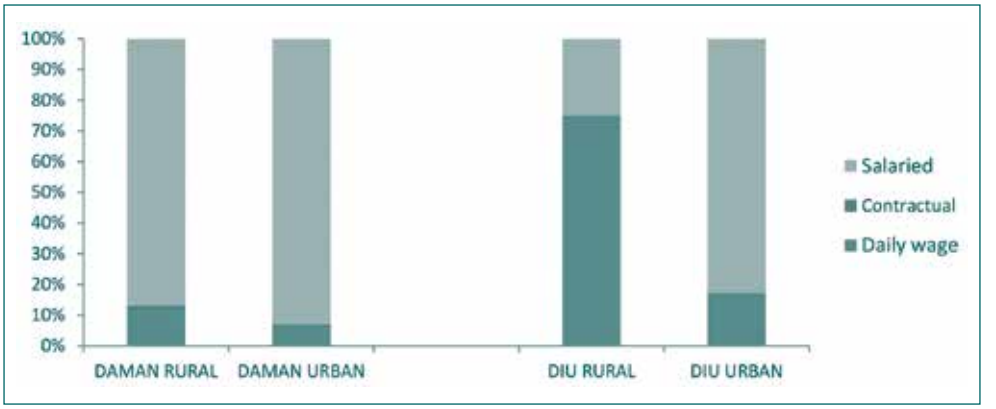
Figure 5.11: Distribution of In-migrants by Activity Status (%)



Source: HDR Survey 2016

The table A5.1 in the appendix to this chapter presents the principal occupation details of the in-migrant workers. There are substantial differences between the districts and between rural and urban areas. In Daman, machine operators and assemblers comprise more than half of all workers. This is followed by manual work in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport (11.3 per cent), sales and services, elementary occupations (6.1 per cent) and metal, machinery and related trades work (3.8 per cent). In Diu, on the other hand, sales and services, elementary occupations (15 per cent), personal and protective service workers (13.3 per cent), teaching professionals (11.7 per cent) and general managers (11.4 per cent) emerge as important occupations for in-migrant workers. The reason behind this is as expected: Daman has industries while Diu thrives on services and primary activities.

Figure 5.12: Distribution of Migrants by Nature of Job (%)



Source: HDR Survey 2016

The status of work, i.e. whether a migrant is salaried, contractual or/ daily wager usually is an indicator of the quality and condition of employment. This is in the sense that more the contractual/casual workers there are, industries would be more temporary, have lower productivity, and/or are likely to be less professionally managed; and vice versa.

Figure 5.12 disaggregates the status of the workers by rural and urban areas, separately in Daman and Diu. In Daman (both rural and urban), a large majority of migrants were salaried and only a minority of them were daily wagers or contract workers. In rural Diu, majority of migrant workers were daily wagers though this situation was better in urban Diu.

Data further show that in Daman, some 92.9 per cent of the workers were remunerated on a monthly basis (Figure 5.13). However, in Diu, this number was lower at 74.7 per cent. These data reflect the employment status of the UT.

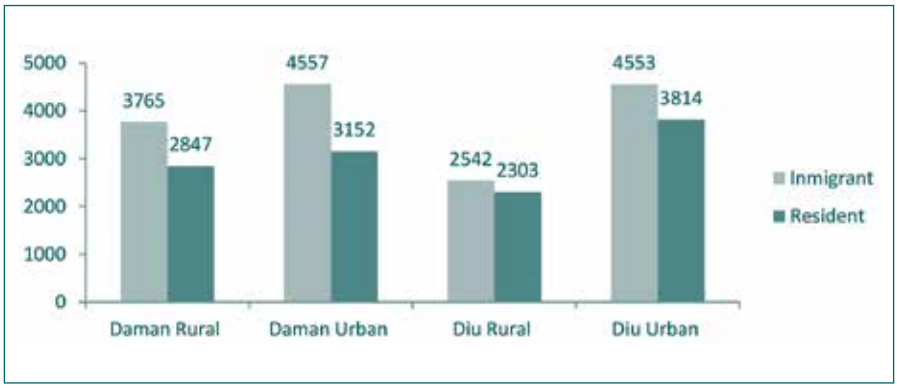
Figure 5.13: Distribution of In-migrants by periodicity of Remuneration

Source: HDR Survey 2016

What were the average monthly earnings of the migrants? Were these different from those of residents? Figure 5.14 shows that the modal frequency of the remuneration of in-migrant workers (43 per cent) was in the bracket of Rs. 2,000-5,000 per month. An

additional 26 per cent of migrant workers earned Rs. 5,000-10,000 per month. Finally, more than 27 per cent of the in-migrant workers earned less than Rs. 2,000 per month. Thus, around 70 percent of the workers earned Rs 5000 a month or below. Therefore, despite the status of many being regular workers, the earnings of these workers are modest, a point also noted in Chapter 3.

Figure 5.14: Average Monthly Income of Resident and Migrant Workers (in Rs.)



Source: HDR Survey 2016

The average monthly income of the in-migrant workers was recorded to be higher than that of the resident workers in this Union Territory. This pattern prevails in both the districts and in rural as well as urban areas. That the income of migrant workers is higher than that of resident workers is not a surprise. Elsewhere in India as well, for example, in the national capital of Delhi, it is found that the incomes of migrant workers are higher than that of local workers in the enumerated categories of work (Delhi Human Development Report, 2013).

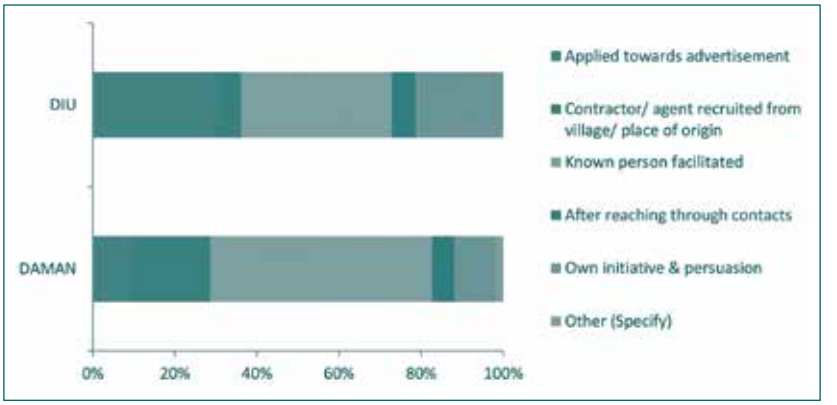
Finally, a point on economic transformation: at this level of workers' engagement, low earnings and the extant numbers of migrant workers, it is extremely difficult to say that an economic transformation has occurred.

Job Access and Living Conditions

How did migrants get jobs at destination?

Social networks and person-to-person contacts play an important role in access to employment in the labour market. In the case of migrant workers, this is even more crucial. Figure 5.15 presents a district-wise disaggregation of how in-migrants got jobs at the destination. In a majority of cases (55 per cent), a person known to the migrant facilitated his or her job at the destination. An additional 5 per cent of migrants got their current job through contacts after reaching the destination. About one-fifth of all migrants came through a contractor or an agent. A minority applied to job advertisements (9.5 per cent) or came through their own initiative (10.3 per cent).

Figure 5.15: Distribution of How In-migrants got Job at Destination (%)

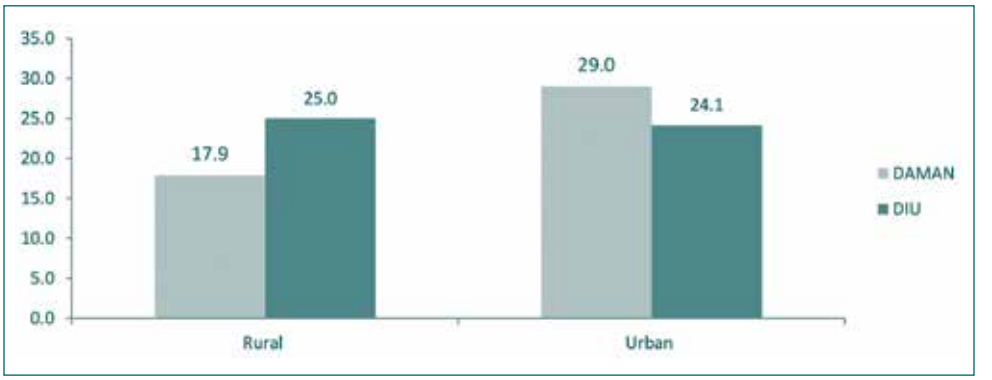


Source: HDR Survey 2016.

Accommodation and Living Arrangements

A majority of in-migrants (71.4 per cent) were not provided accommodation by the employers and two-thirds of migrants had to pay for their own accommodation. This pattern was seen both in Daman and Diu; in rural as well as urban areas. In-migrants in rural Daman were least likely to have accommodation provided by their employer(s). In many cases, the nature of work has defined where workers dwell. For example, farm workers stay on farms and casual workers in factories stay in the factory premises, rather than at homes.

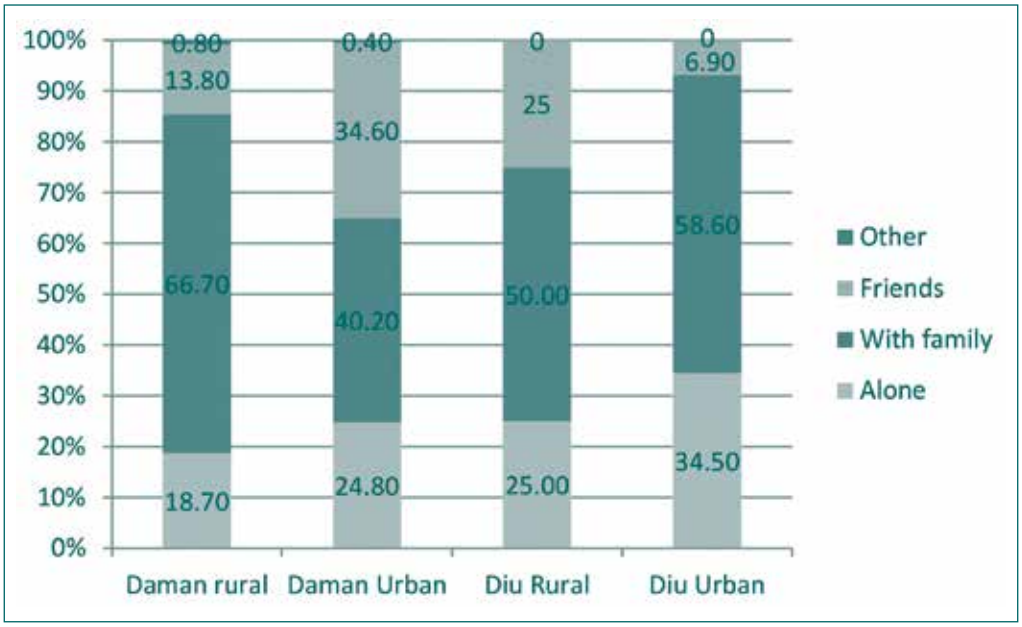
Figure 5.16: Accommodation provided by Employer (%)



Source: HDR Survey 2016

The living arrangements of in-migrants were also seen to be quite diverse. More than 40 per cent of them lived with their families, about 40 per cent lived with friends, while the rest stayed alone (Figure 5.17). This pattern reverberates the patterns of job access and dissemination of information about jobs: all this is done through community and village links of the in-migrant workers who are already there. It also fits well with the observations made earlier, that most migrants hail from two to three states only.

Figure 5.17: Living Arrangements of In-migrants (%)



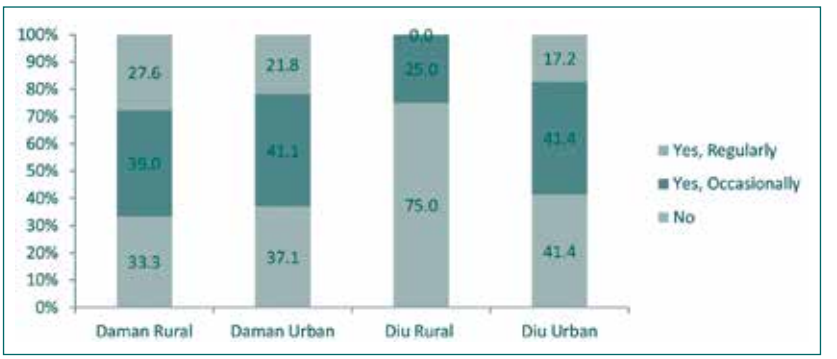
Source: HDR Survey 2016

The incidence of living alone was higher in the urban areas as compared to rural areas for obvious reasons: urban household structures and layout patterns are different from rural. In urban areas, the migrants are more likely to stay with friends and less likely with family members as compared to their rural counterparts; again a reflection of the migrants' attributes: that in rural areas, the migrants come in through family links, while in urban areas, they come in through larger community links. Typically, thus, the migrants whose main source of livelihood is casual labour in agriculture are most likely to stay with their families.

Remittances

Remittances are an important component of migration and also highlight the links of in-migrant households with their place of origin. Sixty-three per cent of the in-migrants sent remittances back to their native place. As seen in Figure 5.18, however, across districts and rural and urban areas, there are considerable variations in the regularity of sending remittances. More than a quarter of the in-migrants in rural Daman sent remittances regularly. On the other hand, some 75 per cent of the migrants in rural Diu reported that they had not sent any remittances in the past one year to their native place. In urban areas, the pattern is not so divergent. In high probability, the job-types, the composition of the migrants and the corresponding earnings are among the reasons for this (divergent) pattern.

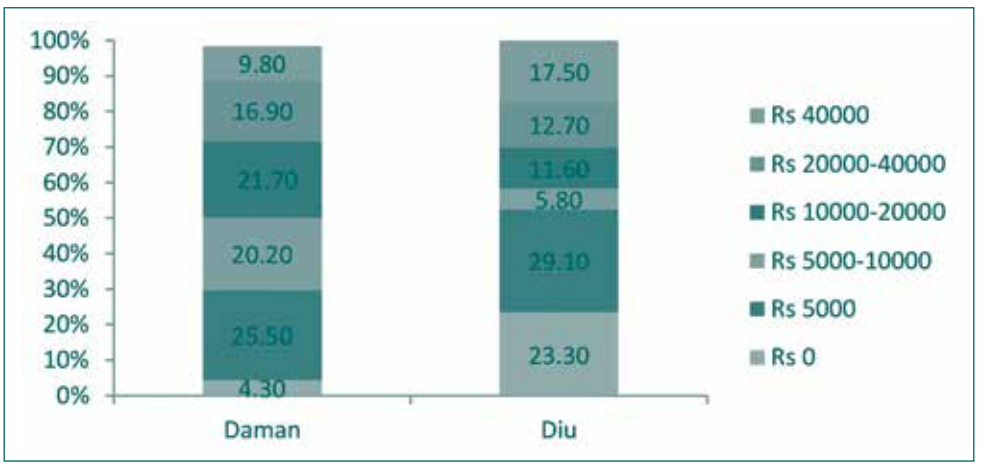
Figure 5.18: Frequency of sending Remittances by In-migrants



Source: HDR Survey 2016

How much remittance did migrants send to the source areas in the last one year? Figure 5.19 says it all / reflects it comprehensively. About a quarter of the migrants sent up to Rs. 5,000 in the last one year. About 20 per cent of them sent Rs. 5,000-10,000, about 22 per cent sent Rs. 10,000-20,000, about 17 per cent sent Rs. 20,000-40,000 and about 10 per cent sent more than Rs. 40,000. Disaggregated by district, while the percentage of migrants not sending any remittances is higher in Diu, the percentage of migrants sending more than Rs. 40,000 is also higher in the district. This could be on account of in-migrants employed in government service in this district – government servants are in transferable jobs, and many maintain their families in either their native places or in cities where their children could get education, or where their spouses are employed.

Figure 5.19: Distribution of in-migrants by how much money they send to Native place in the last one year (%)



Source: HDR Survey 2016

Summing Up

In-migration is an important component of the demography of Daman and Diu. The HDR Survey of 2016 shows that 57.1 per cent households are in-migrant households in the UT. Disaggregated by district, the data present a contrasting picture: in-migration is substantially higher in Daman (where there is high industrialisation and thus demand for labour) at 65.3 per cent of the total households as compared to Diu where the corresponding number is only 3.7 per cent (Diu is mainly a rural, fishing area).

The UT receives in-migrants from all over the country though a large proportion of them is from UP and Bihar. The most common reason for the in-migrants coming here is employment. There is a clear pattern of male domination in the in-migration streams: they are the ones who work in industry. The nature of in-migration is often long term, linked to the advent of industrialisation in the UT: since 11+ years.

Eighty-six per cent of the migrants are engaged as regular salaried or wage employees, 4 per cent as unpaid family labourers and 2 percent as casual wage labourers. In Daman, machine operators and assemblers comprise more than half of all the migrant workers. This is followed by labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport, sales and services, elementary occupations and metal, machinery and related trades work (3.8 per cent). In Diu, their main occupations are: sales and services, elementary occupations, personal and protection services, teaching professionals, and management-related work. The average monthly income of the in-migrant workers is higher than that of resident workers in the UT. This pattern is same in both the districts and in rural and urban areas.

Social networks and contacts play an important role in access to employment. As far as living conditions and arrangements are concerned, the survey showed that a majority of the in-migrants (71.4 per cent) are not provided accommodation by their employers and some two-thirds of migrants had to pay for their own accommodation. This pattern was same for both Daman and Diu and in rural and urban areas.

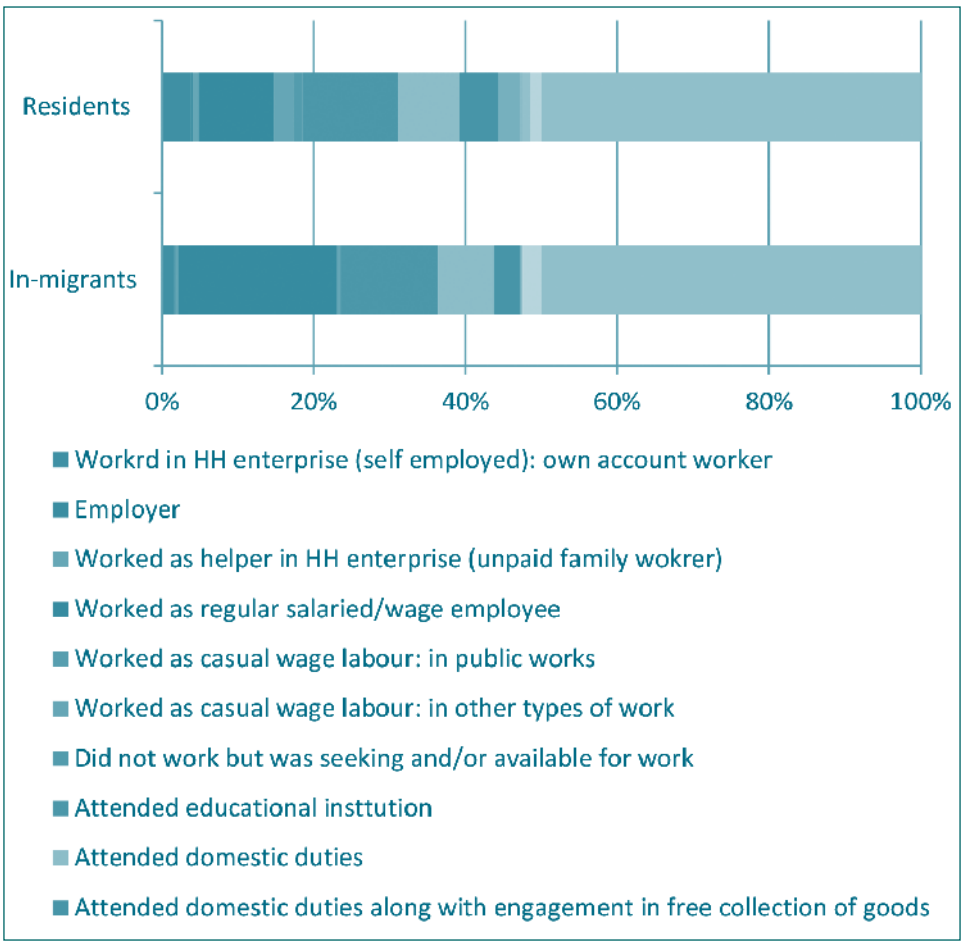
With large number of migrant workers sending monies back home, remittances are central to the theme of migration. Some 63 per cent of all the in-migrants sent remittances back to their native place. Overall, about a quarter of in-migrants sent up to Rs. 5,000 in the last one year. An additional 20 per cent and 22 per cent sent Rs. 5,000-10,000 and 10,000-20,000 in the last one year, respectively. 17 percent sent Rs. 20,000-40,000 and 10 per cent sent more than Rs. 40,000.

Appendix 5

Appendix Table A5.1: Occupational Distribution of the In-migrants

	Daman			Diu		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Legislators and Senior Officials	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.4	1.9
Corporate Managers	2.3	1.6	1.6	11.1	2.4	4.1
General Managers	4.1	2.2	2.3	0.0	14.3	11.4
Physical, Mathematical and Engineering Science Professionals	1.4	0.8	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
Life Science and Health Professionals	2.3	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Teaching Professionals	0.5	0.4	0.4	11.1	11.9	11.7
Other Professionals	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Physical and Engineering Science Associate Professionals.	0.5	2.2	2.1	11.1	4.8	6.0
Life Science and Health Associate Professionals	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.0	4.8	3.8
Teaching Associate Professionals	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other Associate Professionals	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Office Clerks	0.5	1.2	1.2	0.0	2.4	1.9
Customer Services Clerks	0.5	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Personal and Protective Service Workers	6.4	2.3	2.5	0.0	16.7	13.3
Models, Sales Persons and Demonstrators	1.8	1.9	1.9	0.0	4.8	3.8
Market Oriented Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	1.4	0.3	0.3	0.0	2.4	1.9
Subsistence Agricultural and Fishery Workers	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Extraction and Building Trades Workers	4.1	1.4	1.5	0.0	2.4	1.9
Metal, Machinery and related Trades Workers	2.3	3.9	3.8	0.0	2.4	1.9
Precision, Handicraft, Printing and related Trades Workers	1.8	0.9	1.0	0.0	9.5	7.6
Other Craft and related Trades Workers	2.7	3.3	3.2	11.1	0.0	2.2
Stationary Plant and related Operators	3.2	3.2	3.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Machine Operators and Assemblers	40.5	51.5	51.1	0.0	2.4	1.9
Drivers and Mobile-Plant Operators	2.7	3.3	3.3	0.0	9.5	7.6
Sales and Services Elementary Occupations	7.7	6.0	6.1	55.6	4.8	15.0
Agricultural, Fishery and related Labourers	1.8	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	10.9	11.3	11.3	0.0	2.4	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Appendix Figure A5.1: Distribution of Sample Population by Activity Status



Source: HDR Survey 2016

CHAPTER 6

Awareness about Working of Public Programmes

Introduction

Social security policies encourage economic and social development of the state in the short as well as long term. These also ensure that people enjoy income security, have effective access to healthcare and other social services, and are empowered to take advantage of economic opportunities.

The different public programmes are: medical care, sickness, unemployment, old age, employment injury, family responsibilities, maternity, invalidity, and survivorship, among others. Union Territory of Daman and Diu has many public programmes/schemes; some of which are funded by the central government while others are funded by the UT. The present chapter discusses the effectiveness of these programmes as experienced by the respondents of the HDR Survey of 2016. It covers those programmes wherein at least 10 per cent of total respondents stated that any of their family members was eligible to that programme.

The chapter starts with a discussion on programmes funded by the central government, and the following section focuses on programmes funded by Union Territory. Next we discuss how ration card facilities are being utilised by the beneficiaries to access benefits of social protection. The last section concludes the chapter.

Programmes/Schemes Funded by the Central Government

Important Programmes/Schemes

Important schemes funded by the Central Government are:

i. Janani Suraksha Yojana
ii. Integrated Child Development Services Scheme
iii. Mid-Day Meal Scheme
iv. Scholarship for students
v. National Social Assistance Programme

A brief description of these schemes is given below in Box 6.1.

Box 6.1

1. Janani Suraksha Yojana

The Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY), a hundred per cent centrally-sponsored scheme, is a motherhood intervention programme. It is being implemented with the objective of reducing maternal mortality by raising the frequency of institutional delivery among the poor pregnant women. Under this scheme, cash assistance is given to women delivering babies in government health centres or accredited private institutions. Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHAs) work as the effective link between the government and the poor pregnant women. These ASHAs get financial incentives from the government to promote institutional delivery.

2. Integrated Child Development Services Scheme

The Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme is a unique programme for early childhood development. The main objectives of the scheme are to improve the nutritional and health status of children in the age group 0-6 years; to lay the foundation for proper physical, social and psychologial development of the child; to reduce the incidence of mortality, morbidity, malnutrition and school drop-out; to achieve effective coordination of policy and implementation amongst the various departments to promote child development; and to enhance the capability of the mother to look after the normal health and nutritional needs of the child through proper nutrition and health education.

3. Mid-Day Meal Scheme

The National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education was launched in 1995 as a centrally-sponsored scheme to enhance enrolment, retention and attendance and simultaneously improve the nutritional levels among children. Initially, it was implemented for children in grades I-V of government, government-aided and local body schools in 2,408 blocks in the country. The scheme was extended to all the blocks of the country by 1997-98. The scheme was further extended to cover children at the upper-primary level in October 2007. Initially, 3,479 educationally backward blocks (EBBs) were included. Instituted since 1st April, 2008, this programme covers all children studying in government, local body, and government-aided primary and upper-primary schools, including madrasas, supported under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) across the country.

4. Scholarship for Students

Scholarships for children's education at different levels encourage child education and enhance child retention in classes by providing financial assistance to students from vulnerable sections of the society. There are numerous scholarships given by the central government for children from different sections of the society.

5. and 6. National Social Assistance Programme

The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), which came into effect on 15 August 1995, has three important schemes viz. Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme, Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme, and Indira Gandhi National Disability Pension Scheme.

General Awareness about the Programmes/Schemes

The HDR Survey of 2016 suggests that there is widespread awareness among the populace about all the social protection programmes funded by the central government in the UT. The lack of awareness about different programmes was 18.8 per cent in the case of JSY, 12.7 per cent in the case of scholarship for students, 7.5 per cent in the case of ICDS, 6.1 per cent in the case of pension to widow, 5.7 per cent in the case of pension to old person and only 3.5 per cent for mid-day meal scheme (Table 6.1). The lack of awareness level is slightly higher in rural compared to the urban areas for all the programmes. In the case of JSY, mid-day meal scheme, scholarship for students, pension to widow, pension to old person programmes, and so on, migrants have less awareness as compared to resident households.

Between Daman and Diu districts, households of Diu have a better awareness as compared to Daman about almost all the programmes. Comparison of the level of unawareness level among APL and BPL households suggests that out of the six programmes, APL households have less awareness in three programmes (mid-day meal scheme, pension for widow, and pension for old person) and BPL households have less awareness in the remaining three programmes (JSY, ICDS, and Scholarship for students).

Table 6.1: % of Households Unaware of the Programme/Scheme of Central Government

Schemes	Rural	Urban	Total
Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK)/Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY)	20.2	18.6	18.8
Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDS)	7.4	7.5	7.5
Mid-Day Meal Scheme	3.8	3.4	3.5
Scholarship for students	17.8	11.6	12.7
Pension to widow	6.3	6.1	6.1
Pension to old person	7.4	5.4	5.7

Source: Field Survey

Eligible Households and recipients of Benefits of the Programmes/Schemes

The analysis includes the programmes in which case at least 10 per cent of the total respondents said that any of their family members was eligible for that programme. The share of households who were eligible and ever received the benefit of each of programme, separately for rural and urban areas, are presented in Table 6.2. Since the programmes are target-specific, most households are not eligible for these programmes. In addition, a large number of households get the benefits even though they are not eligible for these. However, a greater awareness needs to be spread about JSSK/JSY and scholarship programmes for bringing in more mothers under its purview and assisting children's education.

Table 6.2: % of Households reporting any Member of Household Eligible to get Benefit and ever received Benefit of the Programme – funded by Central Government

Programme	% of Households					
	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Eligible	Ever received benefit	Eligible	Ever	Eligible	Ever received benefit
Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK)/Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY)	14.5	60.6	10.7	52.2	11.4	54.0
Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDS)	34.0	89.6	25.7	75.1	27.1	78.2
Mid-Day Meal Scheme	27.8	98.2	15.5	94.7	17.6	95.7
Scholarship for students	31.7	68.9	14.8	55.3	17.5	59.3
Pension to widow	21.6	82.8	9.8	72.5	11.8	75.7
Pension to old person	26.6	73.7	11.7	63.9	14.2	66.9

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Satisfaction regarding the Programmes/Schemes

The HDR Survey of 2016 shows that most households in UT are satisfied with all the programmes funded by the central government. The percentage of persons who are dissatisfied is very small (i.e. JSY: 1.2 per cent, IGNOPS: 0.8 per cent) (Table 6.3). In the case of IGNOPS and IGNWPS, more than 30 per cent of the households are not only satisfied; rather, they are very satisfied. Similarly, in the case of JSY, Mid-Day Meal Scheme and Scholarship for Students, more than 25 per cent of the households are very satisfied. Satisfaction level among all the categories of households (viz. rural/urban, migrant/non-migrant) is also very high. High level of awareness and satisfaction level shows the importance and efficiency of the central government schemes in the UT.

Table 6.3: % of Households Dissatisfied or Very Dissatisfied with the Programme/Scheme –funded by Central Government

Schemes	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK)/ Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY)	1.4	0.0	1.2	0.0	1.2	0.0
Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDS)	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0
Mid-Day Meal Scheme	0.4	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.7	0.0
Scholarship for student	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4
Pension to widow	2.7	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.9	0.5
Pension to old person	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.3

Source: Field Survey

Programmes/Schemes Funded by Union Territory

Important Programmes/Schemes

(i) Integrated Agriculture Development Scheme
(ii) Soil testing
(iii) Saraswati Vidya Yojana (SVY)
(iv) Free health insurance for girl students under (Sanjeevani Beema Yojana)
(v) Free Distribution of bicycles for girl students studying in Class 8
(vi) Udaan (Benefit of Laptops for Class 11 students of government and government-aided higher secondary schools)
(vii) Immunisation/health check-up and referral services
(viii) Food supplement for children aged below six years, pregnant and lactating mothers, and adolescent girls through Anganwadi centres

General Awareness about the Programmes/Schemes

The level of awareness about the UT-funded schemes is much lower in comparison to the schemes funded by the central government. In the case of Soil testing, about two-thirds of the respondents were not aware about the scheme, but this is understandable, given that farming is not an important occupation here. However, out of the eight schemes on which inquiry was made, in six schemes more than 20 per cent of the respondents were not aware about the schemes (Table 6.4). Based on this, one might argue that the publicity of UT-funded programmes should be increased since a large percentage of respondents have not heard about these schemes.

Lack of awareness of the UT-sponsored programmes is much higher in rural areas than urban areas. Similarly, after comparing the level of awareness about the schemes between APL and BPL households, it is seen that the level of awareness is much higher in APL households. The level of awareness about the schemes by migrant status suggests

that the level of awareness about these schemes is much lower among the migrant households. Out of the total schemes, only in two, namely, soil testing and immunisation/ health check-up and referral services, it is lower among non-migrant households. Finally, the level of awareness about the schemes between the households of Daman and Diu, it is lower among those from Daman district.

Table 6.4: % of Households not Aware about the Programme/Scheme- Funded by UTs

Schemes	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Integrated Agriculture Development Scheme	48.1	41.1	42.3
2. Soil testing	73.3	66.4	67.6
3. Saraswati Vidya Yojana (SVY)	26.9	24.5	24.9
4. Free health insurance for girl students (under Sanjeevani Beema Yojana)	34.9	40.9	39.8
5. Free Distribution of Bicycle for girl student studying in class 8th	8.4	6.1	6.5
6. Udaan: Benefit – Laptops to students of 11th standard in Govt. and Govt. aided higher Secondary School, etc.	13.1	13.2	13.2
7.Immunisation /Health check-up and referral services	26.2	16.8	18.4
8. Food supplement for Child aged below 6 years, pregnant and lactating mothers, adolescent girls through Anganwadi Centre	16.5	22.5	21.5

Source: Field Survey

Eligible Households and recipients of Benefits of the Programmes/Schemes

Data on the share of households who were eligible and have ever received the benefit of each of the programmes is given for rural and urban areas in Table 6.5. Again, there are many who are not eligible for the programmes but have received the benefit.

Table 6.5: % of Households reporting any Member of Household eligible to get Benefit and ever received Benefit of the Programme – funded by Union Territory

Programme	% of Households					
	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Eligible	Ever received benefit	Eligible	Ever received benefit	Eligible	Ever received benefit
Integrated Agriculture Development Scheme	29.4	87.4	16.5	54.1	18.5	62.2
Soil testing	28.2	63.6	8.1	70.8	10.9	68.2
Saraswati Vidya Yojana (SVY)	35.4	82.4	19.2	65.8	21.9	70.2
Free health insurance for girl students under Sanjeevani Beema Yojana	44.5	66.8	25.8	57.1	29.2	59.8
Free Distribution of Bicycle for girl students studying in Class 8	20.7	88.2	10.3	73.9	12	78

Benefit Laptops of 11th std. of Govt and Govt aided higher Sec School, etc.	21.2	68.3	10.8	70.1	12.6	69.6
Immunisation / Health check-up and referral services?	39.1	81.3	33.6	78	34.5	78.5
Food supplement for Child age below 6 years, pregnant and lactating mothers, adolescent girls though Anganwadi Centre	20.2	79.7	9	57.1	11	64.6

Satisfaction about the Programmes/Schemes

In spite of the low awareness about the UT-funded schemes, beneficiaries of the schemes do not seem to be dissatisfied. The low level of awareness and high level of satisfaction show the under-utilisation of UT Schemes. Thus, only in two schemes, a small percentage of beneficiaries are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied (i.e. 0.5 per cent with the Integrated Agriculture Development Scheme and 0.3 per cent with food supplement for children aged below six years, pregnant and lactating mothers, and adolescent girls though the Anganwadi Centre) (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6: % of Households Dissatisfied/very Dissatisfied with Programmes funded by UT

Schemes	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Dis-satisfied	Very	Dis-satisfied	Very	Dis-satisfied	Very
1. Integrated Agriculture Development Scheme	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	.5	0.0
2. Soil testing	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3. Saraswati Vidya Yojana (SVY)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4. Scholarship provided from Class 9th to PG Level for Girl students	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5. SVY (Free health insurance for girl students under Sanjeevani Beema Yojana	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
6. Free Distribution of Bicycle for girl students studying in class 8th	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
7. Udaan: Benefit of Laptops to 11th std. Students of Govt. and Govt. aided higher Sec. school etc.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
8. Immunization/Health check-up and referral services	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
9. Food supplement for Child aged below 6 years, pregnant and lactating mothers, Adolescent girls through Anganwadi Centre	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	.3	0.0

Source: Field Survey

Ration Card facilities to avail benefits of Various Programmes

The HDR Survey of 2016 shows that in Daman and Diu, only 43.7 per cent of the households hold Ration Cards: and 56.3 per cent do not have ration card.

Reasons for not having Ration Cards by the Households

The most important reason for not possessing a ration card is 'not having the proper documents' (69.1 per cent). Other reasons for not having ration cards are: 'applied but did not receive till now' (10.1 per cent), 'do not know the place where to apply' (7.3 per cent), and 'asked for bribe despite having proper documents' (4.6 per cent). In the case of migrant households, the most important reason is 'not having the proper documents' (74.2 per cent), followed by 'do not know the place where to apply' (7.9 per cent), 'applied but did not receive till now' (4.8 per cent), and 'asked for bribe despite having proper documents' (4.8 per cent). In the case of non-migrant households, the most important reason stated was, 'applied for but did not receive till now' (69.6 per cent), followed by 'not having the proper documents' (11.5 per cent). In Daman, since there are large numbers of migrant households, 71.2 per cent of them stated that it is because 'they do not have the proper documents' but in Diu, only 12.7 per cent of the households have stated this reason for not having ration cards (Table 6.7).

Table 6.7: Distribution of Households by Reason of not having Ration Card for Different Categories of Households

Categories of Households Do not have the proper documents Asked for bribe despite having proper documents			Ward councillor does not allocate	Discrimination due to caste/ religion/region	Applied but did not receive till now	Don't know the place where to apply	Not eligible	Other		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Daman	Migrant Household	Yes	74.2	4.8	.8	.4	4.8	7.9	5.4	1.7
		No	16.0	3.1	2.3	0.0	63.6	0.0	7.7	7.4
		Total	71.2	4.7	.8	.3	7.8	7.5	5.6	2.0
Diu	Migrant Household	Yes	73.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.6	0.0	10.4	0.0
		No	4.1	.7	3.7	0.0	79.3	0.0	8.4	3.8
		Total	12.7	.6	3.2	0.0	71.4	0.0	8.6	3.3
Daman & Diu	Migrant Household	Yes	74.2	4.8	.8	.4	4.8	7.9	5.5	1.7
		No	11.5	2.2	2.8	0.0	69.6	0.0	8.0	6.0
		Total	69.1	4.6	.9	.3	10.1	7.3	5.7	2.1
APL			69.6	4.5	.9	.3	9.8	7.2	5.7	2.1
BPL			29.7	9.2	3.3	3.3	38.0	9.9	3.3	3.3
Total			69.1	4.6	.9	.3	10.1	7.3	5.7	2.1

Households having Ration Cards by their Types

There are four important types of cards given to the households in the UT:

- NFSA card, given to households as per the guidelines of National Food Security Act;
- APL card, given to households Above Poverty Line. It is also known as 'white card' or Saada Card;
- BPL (below poverty line) card given to households who are below the poverty line. This is also known as the 'red card' or Laal Card; and
- Antyodaya card, also called 'yellow card' or Peela Card. It is given to the households under a scheme to provide highly subsidised food to the poorest families.

The above poverty line (APL) households should not have BPL cards and the BPL households should not have APL cards. However, there seems to be some overlapping of cards, due to which, a particular category of households may have more than one type of cards. Shortcoming in the selection procedure of households exists, and this needs to be corrected. In the case of APL households, 9.6 per cent have BPL cards and in the case of BPL households, 13.4 per cent have APL cards.

Table 6.8: Distribution of Ration Cards by Type for APL Households and BPL Households

Categories of Households	NFSA card	APL(white – Saada Card)	BPL(red – Laal Card)		Others
APL	58.2	22.7	9.6	6.6	3.0
BPL	60.7	13.4	12.9	12.3	0.7
Total	58.4	21.9	9.9	7.1	2.8

Source: Field Survey

Households availing Ration from Ration Shops

The percentage of households purchasing rations from ration shops to all households who have ration cards is very high at 82.2 per cent. Some 7.8 per cent purchase through ration cards but not regularly. In rural areas, 87.1 per cent households purchase regularly as compared to 80.0 per cent in urban areas. This difference in regular purchasers is much higher between migrant (58.1 per cent – Column 10, Table 6.9) and non-migrant households (85.7 per cent). Both APL and BPL households purchase rations regularly from ration shops; the percentage is more than 80 per cent. It shows that most of the categories of the households are making proper utilisation of their cards.

Table 6.9: Distribution of Households availing Ration from Ration Shop if have Ration Card

Categories of Households Yes regularly Yes, but not regularly			Rural				Urban				Total			
			No, never in the last one year	Never	Yes	Yes, but not	No, never in the last one year	Never	Yes	Yes, but not	No, never in the last one year	Never		
(1)			(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
	Migrant	Yes	54.5	18.2	18.2	9.1	58.3	13.6	8.3	19.7	58.2	13.8	8.7	19.4
		No	90.9	5.8	0.7	2.7	86.1	4.8	1.8	7.3	87.4	5.1	1.5	6.0
		Total	90.0	6.1	1.1	2.8	80.5	6.6	3.1	9.9	82.8	6.4	2.6	8.2
Diu	Migrant	Yes	33.3	0.0	33.3	33.3	60.0	20.0	6.7	13.3	54.9	16.2	11.8	17.2
		No	83.7	10.2	2.8	3.3	78.5	13.2	2.8	5.6	81.3	11.6	2.8	4.4
		Total	83.3	10.1	3.0	3.5	77.8	13.4	2.9	5.9	80.7	11.7	3.0	4.6
	Migrant	Yes	50.4	14.6	21.2	13.9	58.4	13.8	8.3	19.5	58.1	13.9	8.8	19.3
		No	87.7	7.7	1.6	2.9	84.5	6.5	2.0	7.0	85.7	6.9	1.9	5.6
		Total	87.1	7.8	1.9	3.1	80.0	7.8	3.1	9.2	82.2	7.8	2.7	7.2
APL			87.1	7.7	2.0	3.2	79.1	7.9	3.2	9.8	81.7	7.8	2.8	7.6
BPL			88.0	10.1	0.0	1.9	87.7	6.5	2.2	3.5	87.8	7.2	1.8	3.2
Total			87.1	7.8	1.9	3.1	80.0	7.8	3.1	9.2	82.2	7.8	2.7	7.2

Source: Field Survey

Households by Satisfaction Level from Public Distribution System (PDS)

The percentage of households satisfied with the ration shop facility is reported to be very high i.e. 81.8 per cent. The satisfaction level was marginally higher in rural areas (83.6 per cent) as compared to urban areas (80.9 per cent). Similarly, a comparison of the satisfaction level between migrant (77.9 per cent) and non-migrant (82.3 per cent) households shows that it was slightly higher among the non-migrant households – evidently so, because migrants have relatively less access to PDS systems. The satisfaction level among all the categories of households (viz. APL and BPL) was about 80 per cent (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10: % of Households Satisfied with PDS, Who avail Ration from Ration Shops

Categories of Households			Rural	Urban	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Daman	Migrant Household	Yes	63.6	78.5	78.0
		No	85.8	83.4	84.1
		Total	85.3	82.4	83.1
Diu	Migrant Household	Yes	66.7	80.0	77.5
		No	81.6	73.7	78.0
		Total	81.5	73.9	78.0
Daman & Diu	Migrant Household	Yes	64.2	78.6	77.9
		No	84.0	81.4	82.3
		Total	83.6	80.9	81.8
APL			83.7	81.1	82.0
BPL			83.5	78.8	79.8
Total			83.6	80.9	81.8

Source: Field Survey

Reasons of Dissatisfaction from Public Distribution System

As mentioned above, some 80 per cent of the households were satisfied with the ration shops. However, two major reasons for their dissatisfaction were: insufficient quantity of food/non-food available (55.1 per cent) and bad quality of products (27.5 per cent). Other minor reasons were: irregular supply (6.4 per cent), PDS shop often closed (5.7 per cent), non-availability of items (3.1 per cent), and dishonesty in measurement (2.3 per cent) (Table 6.11).

The main reasons stated by all the categories of households were the same (viz. insufficient quantity and bad quality of products), but the extent of dissatisfaction varies across groups. In the case of migrant households, 37.9 per cent were dissatisfied due to insufficient quantity and 34.4 percent were dissatisfied due to bad quality. In the case of non-migrant households, 58.2 per cent were dissatisfied due to insufficient quantity and 26.3 per cent were dissatisfied due to bad quality. The full details can be seen in Table 6.11.

There is a broad suggestion that steps need to be taken by the administration to review the quantity of ration supply and improve the quality of products at the ration shops.

Table 6.11: Distribution of Households by Reason for Dissatisfaction with PDS, seen from Those Who Avail Ration from Ration Shops

Categories of Households			Reasons for Dissatisfaction						
Insufficient quantity Bad quality			Dishonesty in measure-ment	Non-availability of items		PDS shop often closed	Others (specify)		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Daman	Migrant Household	Yes	38.1	31.9	2.0	2.0	4.0	8.0	16.0
		No	54.2	24.9	3.4	4.4	7.8	4.0	4.6
		Total	50.8	26.4	3.1	3.9	7.0	4.9	7.0
Diu	Migrant Household	Yes	31.4	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
		No	65.6	29.0	0.6	1.2	5.1	7.6	1.8
		Total	65.0	30.2	0.6	1.2	5.0	7.4	1.8
Daman & Diu	Migrant Household	Yes	37.9	34.4	1.9	1.9	3.8	7.7	15.4
		No	58.2	26.3	2.4	3.3	6.8	5.3	3.6
		Total	55.1	27.5	2.3	3.1	6.4	5.7	5.4
APL			52.9	28.3	2.5	3.4	6.7	6.0	5.9
BPL			77.3	20.1	0.0	0.0	3.1	1.8	0.0
Total			55.1	27.5	2.3	3.1	6.4	5.7	5.4

Source: Field Survey

Summing Up

The HDR Survey shows that the households in the UT generally have a fair awareness about the different social protection programmes funded by the central government. Awareness about the UT-funded schemes however is much lower in comparison to the schemes funded by the central government. The satisfaction level of the beneficiaries is found to be high for schemes funded by both the centre and the UT. In Daman and Diu, 43.7 per cent of the households possess ration cards (56.3 per cent do not have them). The percentage of migrant households having ration cards (9.5 per cent) is much lower as compared to the percentage of non-migrants having ration cards (89.3 per cent).

In the case of APL households, 9.6 per cent households have BPL cards and in the case of BPL households, 13.4 per cent have APL cards. In all categories of households except those who are migrants, the percentage of households purchasing rations regularly from ration shops is more than 80 per cent. It suggests that most categories of the households are making proper utilisation of their cards. Also, the percentage of households satisfied with the ration shops is high at about 80 per cent. Two major reasons for their dissatisfaction are: insufficient quantity (55.1 per cent) and bad quality

(27.5 per cent). On the basis of the above observations, following recommendations are made:

- To increase the utilisation of the programmes funded and administered by the UT, it is important to expand and intensify the publicity campaigns.
- Keeping in view the high percentage of households not possessing ration cards due to incomplete documents, it could be argued that if the benefits of social protection are to be extended to these households, the selection and other administrative procedures need to be simplified.
- There seems to be some overlapping of ration cards, i.e. a particular type of household is having more than one card. In the case of APL households, they should not have BPL cards and similarly, BPL households should not have APL cards. There seems to be some shortcomings in the selection procedure while providing the ration cards, which needs to be corrected.
- Steps need to be taken by the administration to review the quantity of ration supply and improve the quality of products in the ration shops.

CHAPTER 7

Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

Long back a Portugese colony and a trade centre, the small Union Territory of Daman and Diu has come a long way and today is an industrial economy, where majority of industries are located in Daman. Diu, the much smaller district, is relatively more rural where marine fishing is an important activity. The per capita income of this Union Territory is approximately five times higher than that of India. However, the robust growth of the economy has undergone fluctuations in recent years with slowdown in the manufacturing sector. Daman and Diu, particularly Daman, has seen massive influx of workers for its manufacturing activities. Thus the human development issues of the populace comprise the issues of both the resident population as well as that of the in-migrants.

Daman and Diu came into its own as an independent Union Territory in 1987. Since then for the first time there is now an attempt to assess its human development situation in the present report. With its amalgamation of data from secondary sources and insights from a detailed primary survey of 5050 households, the report is an attempt to look at the human development issues from the people's perspective. Efforts and initiatives of the government can come to complete fruition only when they are in synergy with the people's expectations. A number of issues have been discussed in the preceding chapters and based on these discussions, this concluding chapter attempts to delineate the achievements made by the UT so far and tries to identify the gaps which still remain where future efforts of the government will need to directed to take the economy to a higher human development trajectory.

Some Major Achievements

Some of the major achievements of Daman and Diu in the area of human development are flagged below.

High Per Capita Income

The per capita income of the UT is approximately five times higher than that of India. It thus has a strong economic base on which to take its population forward. This base comprises industry in Daman with manufacturing as the hub and fishing in Diu.

In this context, there is a need to discuss the migrant population's earnings as well since 57.1 per cent of the total households in Daman and Diu are in-migrants. In-migration is substantially higher in Daman, where 65.3 per cent of households are in-migrants as compared to Diu where the corresponding percentage is only 3.7. Of the migrants, 86 per cent worked as regular salaried or wage employees as per the HDR Survey of 2016. It must be noted that 63 per cent of all in-migrants have sent remittances back to their native place. Overall, about a quarter of the in-migrants sent up to 5,000 rupees in the last year. An additional 20 percent sent 5-10,000 rupees, 22 per cent sent 10-20,000 rupees in the last one year, 17 per cent sent 20-40,000 rupees and 10 per cent of them sent more than 40,000 rupees.

Good Health and Education Outcomes

Over the past few decades, both the ratios of maternal mortality and infant mortality have improved in Daman and Diu. Institutional delivery coverage was also high at 90 percent, according to the 2016 HDR survey. Coverage of ante-natal check-up was also high. The existing number of health facilities at each level – Sub-centre, PHC, CHC, District hospital – is reported to be as per the government norm.

The achievements in promoting education and capacity-building in Daman and Diu are commendable. In 2011 Daman and Diu recorded a literacy rate of 87.10 per cent, which is an increase of 8.02 percentage points over 2001 – a rise of almost one percentage point annually. The gender gap in literacy has been narrowing down since 2001. Daman and Diu also has shown higher than national average performance in learning achievement at school level as per different national surveys. In terms of school infrastructure, considerable progress has been made in the recent years: provisioning of boundary walls, sanitation, drinking water and access to computer facilities. Both government and private institutions are equipped with good school infrastructure.

Lower poverty due to industrialization and employment opportunities

The high growth achieved by Daman and Diu has reduced the level of absolute poverty but urban poverty in Diu district is still relatively high. Daman district, and not Diu district, has been the major beneficiary of higher growth through greater industrialisation.

The union territory of Daman and Diu has been experiencing change in the composition of its Domestic Product with the share of primary sector declining in favour of industry and the tertiary sector. In the last one decade or less, a structural change in employment has started showing up, with the share of agriculture and allied sector declining by 20 per cent in the principal workers' category. Correspondingly, the share of industry and tertiary sector has gone up. The dynamic sections of the services sector provide productive employment to the more educated ones, while the options for jobs for the less educated ones/workers lies primarily in the manufacturing sector and to a certain extent, in the construction sector. Till date, manufacturing sector has been absorbing many migrant labourers in these categories of jobs.

Lower inequality compared to national average

The consumption expenditure based inequality estimates indicate that the overall inequality as captured by the ratio of ninth decile to first decile is lower than the all-India level. Even the inequality in the top half of the distribution as captured by ratio of ninth decile to fifth decile is lower than the corresponding all-India average. However, our analysis has shown that considerable inequality persists between the overall development of the two districts Daman and Diu as well as, between the migrant and non-migrant population in the Union Territory.

Strategies for a Way Forward

Next we indicate some strategies for the way forward in the future based on the gaps identified in the area of human development for the Union Territory of Daman and Diu.

Economic growth

Industry

The high growth experience of Daman and Diu has been somewhat marred in the recent past by fluctuating growth, which needs to be rectified. Considering that the industry and, particularly registered manufacturing, is the key growth driver, the strategy needs to primarily focus on revitalizing this area. Therefore, the UT needs to develop comparative advantages in key industries that can give it a sustained growth over time. Two sectors that exhibit high growth and low volatility are manufacture of pharmaceuticals, medicinal chemicals and botanical products, and manufacture of basic precious and other non-ferrous metals. Also, it is important to link the agricultural sector with industrial sector for the benefit of both sectors. Tourism can be an important segment for growth and for providing linkages to many sectors of the economy and boosting employment.

Agriculture

The growth of the agriculture sector and its allied activities, which presently is tiny, requires boosting. There is a need to encourage sustainable growth of crop agriculture

by increasing agricultural productivity, along with the promotion of agro-processing units. Agriculture must also be linked with the economy of the rapidly urbanising Daman. Marketing of the local organic farm products also has to be encouraged to provide a fillip to agriculture, industry and services, and sustain the environment. Marine fishing growth has to be stabilised and encouraged in an environmentally sustainable manner.

Services

Overall, a consistent double-digit growth in the services sector has compensated for the volatile and low growth seen in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors. The analysis shows that business services have shown a promising growth and the UT could try and develop comparative advantage in that sector. Within Other Services, the educational sector has to be revived because this is critical in developing skilled and educated citizens.

In the tertiary sector, trends in banking suggest that the banking penetration needs to increase and credit expansion is urgently required, for revitalizing industries. Education and health are the other sectors calling for attention.

Employment

While employment has expanded over time, making way for more and more in-migrants, the quality of jobs has largely not been good, according to the 2016 HDR survey. What is worse, the residential population have often fared worse than the migrant population in terms of remuneration, although the migrants have also had to bear with working and living conditions that could do with improvement.

There is also a differential in terms of level of education of the job aspirants. Looking ahead, a key area of concern is how to gainfully employ a substantial proportion of primary- and middle-school educated young persons who are currently unemployed or likely to enter the labour market in the near future. While the dynamic sections of the services sector provide productive employment to the more educated ones, the options for jobs for the less educated ones/workers lies primarily in the manufacturing sector and to a certain extent, in the construction sector. Till date, manufacturing sector has been absorbing many migrant labourers in these categories of jobs. The large structural shift of employment away from agriculture, no doubt, is a positive sign as it frees labour from low productivity agriculture, but it provides a greater challenge to policy makers because it requires much larger creation of productive jobs in non-agriculture sectors.

Need for Skill Training

In the above context, the requirement for training of the workers in acquiring skill in non-agricultural occupations becomes important. It calls for more effective skill-training programmes to meet the growing demand of skilled workers in manufacturing and other non-farm sectors. Additionally, as substantial quantities of jobs in Daman and Diu would also be generated in the services sector, a greater thrust in entrepreneurship training

and other services-oriented skills would be necessitated as well.

Major sectors where skill development is required, have been identified by the government, such as: plastic processing and packaging, hotel industry, mechanical engineering, chemical processing, fisheries, and agriculture industry. However, on the downside, the ITI at Daman through a survey found that 80 per cent of the workers did not possess any skill-certification on the one hand, and hardly 20 per cent of the industrial workforce was of local origin, on the other. Through a gap analysis it was further found that these five formal technical institutes could hardly meet 20 per cent of the annual demand of skilled labour of these five industries.

To meet these demands, under skill development initiative scheme, the ITI of Daman introduced a vocational training programme in 2009. But clearly there needs to be a massive expansion of such programmes to gear the youth for the years to come.

The hospitality industry, mainly tourism, is an important area which can be developed further for Daman and Diu, given its coastal nature and historic past. The beaches, water fronts, churches, temples, etc. can be developed systematically as tourist destinations and the skilling of local youth planned accordingly. Given the importance of fishing in Diu district, local tourism can also be encouraged by organizing trips for tourists to visit the local fishing community. Such efforts are likely to benefit the local populace directly.

Education and Health

Education

Although gender gap in literacy has been narrowing since 2001, it stood close to 12 percentage points, underscoring the need to focus on promoting female literacy in the UT. Daman and Diu also faces serious challenges such as drop-out, low school completion, etc. Some 4.88 per cent children of elementary school-going age are out of school. The dropout rate in Daman and Diu is much higher than the all-India figure, which is a cause of concern.

It was found in the survey that it is the tribal students who largely attend government schools while more advantaged socio-economic groups tend to send their children to private schools are perceived to which impart better education. Extensive as well as in-depth research studies are needed to better understand the reasons behind children dropping out of school, not continuing till the secondary level, and so on. For instance, a major reason shown is 'disinterest in studies', which may well be because of poor teaching quality, low teacher attendance, lack of home support for students, pressure of chores at home and several other reasons. Thus to rectify the poor completion rates and reverse dropping out phenomenon, better studies on the ground are required.

School attendance is also a serious problem at the upper primary and secondary level and above. Although at the primary level, the net attendance ratio for girls is higher than that of boys; at the secondary level, the ratio of girls' attendance is lower

than that of boys. Gender parity requires to be maintained at all levels. Not all children attend pre-schools as compared to those who attend primary schools, and pre-primary education must be emphasized by the government for smooth transition to primary schools. More and more primary schools can be equipped with pre-primary sections.

There is also a shortage of schools at the higher levels as compared to lower levels. However, government schools have a shortage of functional library facility, which needs to be strengthened.

More rural children as compared to urban ones and those from the scheduled tribes attend government schools. In contrast, the preference (by the rich) for private schools is reported mainly because of their better schooling infrastructure, quality of teaching, regularity of classes, student care, better quality of education and English medium teaching. Although elementary education is supposed to be free in government schools, households do spend some amounts on schooling. There are, however, large differences in educational expenditures between government and private institutions. This can have deeper implications leading to differential access to education since government schools are either inferior or perceived to be inferior. It is important for the UT to improve the educational infrastructure at all levels, especially the governmental facilities.

Health

Adverse overall sex ratio and adverse child sex ratio are matters of worry. In a few urban wards and villages, the sex ratio is below 300 women per 1,000 men, and this requires serious attention. Considerable in-migration into the UT has contributed to high population growth, and skew in the sex ratio, to some extent. Even then, the government needs to spread awareness regarding value of the girl child as well as prevent any form of sex-selection tests, which often lead to foeticide. The former can be done through village-level awareness campaigns, media campaigns such as trough radio or TV, by giving rewards for birth of a girl child, etc.

The coverage of full ante-natal care was very low in the UT, with urban areas showing poorer coverage. This is an area requiring urgent attention from the government remedial measures would vastly improve maternal and child health. Another area that needs urgent attention from the government is the high share of severely wasted as well as underweight among children under five years of age.

Immunisation coverage of the children in the age-group 12-23 months (i.e. who are given BCG, measles, and 3 doses each of polio and DPT) is only 66.3 per cent, in which the urban coverage is 67.8 per cent and rural coverage is 62.4 per cent, as per the NFHS-4 survey records – pointing to the need for paying greater attention towards improving the same.

The HDR Survey of 2016 reveals that the utilisation of private health facilities is around three times higher than that of public health facilities. It also finds that around 90 per cent of the 'out of pocket' expenditure of households on healthcare is paid to

the private sector. From the disease burden perspective, this is an alarming situation. The government needs to improve the quality of public health services to help save the households' avoidable expenses. The high incidence of non-communicable diseases such as diabetes, hypertension, etc. is another area that needs to be reversed since it adversely affects the poor segments of the population most.

The existing number of health facilities at each level – Sub-centre, PHC, CHC, District hospital – is reported to be as per the government norm, but there is a shortage of manpower at different facility levels. To improve the public health services, adequate, good quality infrastructure including both physical capital (machineries and instruments, building etc.) and human capital (doctor, nurse, lab technicians etc.) are necessary. Besides these, availability of medicine and other test facilities with sufficient supply of water and electricity are also needed for a smooth functioning of public health services.

Social Protection

The HDR Survey of 2016 shows that households have a fairly high awareness about the social protection schemes funded by the central government. The survey also shows that most of the households are satisfied with all the central government's programmes. However, the awareness about the UT-funded/administered schemes is much lower in comparison to the schemes funded by the central government. There is thus a need to create more awareness about the programmes funded by the UT.

In Daman and Diu UT, 43.7 per cent of the households possess Ration Cards, and the rest do not. The percentage of migrant households having ration cards (9.5 per cent) is much lower than those of non-migrants (89.3 per cent). Effort should be made to provide ration cards to migrant workers, particularly in Daman district.

Keeping in view the high percentage of migrant, SC, ST, and OBC households without ration cards due to incomplete documents, there is a case for providing benefits of social protection to these households through simplification of the selection procedure.

If we distribute the total card holders' households by their type of cards, it is observed that 58.4 per cent of the households have the NFSA card, followed by 21.9 per cent with APL card, 9.9 per cent with BPL card, and 7.1 per cent with Antyodaya card. APL households should not have BPL card and BPL households should not have APL card. Therefore, there seems to be some anomaly in the selection procedure of the households, which needs correction.

There is some dissatisfaction with the working of the rationing system. Some of the important reasons are, dissatisfaction emerging from insufficient quantity (55.1 per cent) and bad quality (27.5 per cent) of food items. Immediate steps need to be taken by the administration to increase the supply of food items and improve the quality of the ration.

Overall, it is important that human development concerns are factored in the growth process of Daman and Diu. The most important concern is to put policies so

as to reduce the regional inequalities between Daman and Diu along with this rural urban inequality should also be addressed. The migrants have contributed immensely to the industrialisation process of Daman, but they have not been fully integrated into the local economy and society. The social protection coverage in this regard assumes importance. The high out-of-pocket expenditure on health calls for strengthening the public health care system. Despite progressing literacy and enrollment school completion and retention are areas which need to be given priority in public policies. Needless to emphasise, the Union Territory has to achieve high growth to enhance livelihoods and attain higher level of human development.