



सत्यमेव जयते

Government of Rajasthan

**Chief Minister's Rajasthan Economic  
Transformation Advisory Council  
(CMRETAC)**

**DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING, RAJASTHAN**

**POLICY STUDY ON MANAGING  
URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR**

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**2022**





सत्यमेव जयते

**Chief Minister  
Rajasthan**



## MESSAGE

Every state is important in the scheme of national development. We cannot assure the progress of India without the progress of the states. The Constitution binds us in a federal polity where every order of the government (Union, State and Local) has an important role to play.

State governments are certainly closer to the people and hence bear an enormous responsibility towards ensuring effective delivery of goods and services. In this endeavor, they have a direct, indirect and enabling role to play. Rajasthan is committed towards that goal and has been at the forefront of many reforms since long. Our sincere and unceasing efforts, during the pandemic and otherwise, have been recognized widely.

The Bhilwara COVID-19 containment "model" has been recognized as a replicable model globally. Ours was also one of the first states in India which came up with a comprehensive strategy for economic revival in the wake of the pandemic. Besides taking a plethora of immediate steps to extend social and economic relief to the people during COVID-19, Rajasthan has also introduced several transformative measures in the recent past to boost the economy of the state. Rajasthan Investment Promotion Scheme, 2019; Food Processing Policy, 2019; Tourism Policy, 2020; MSME Facilitation Act, 2019; Handicraft Policy 2022; and Rajasthan Investment Promotion Scheme, 2022 are some of the path breaking initiatives.

We have also started the practice of 'thematic' annual budgets for converging our efforts and energy on most pressing issues and have ensured that governance is truly decentralized. Our recent campaigns on 'Prashasan Shehron Ke Sang Abhiyan' and 'Prashasan Gaon Ke Sang Abhiyan' are examples of that spirit.

While our efforts are incessant, we are also aware that nation-wide structural slowdown of the economy and recurring shocks like the recent pandemic, call for an even greater effort. Towards this end, the state government in March 2020 set up Rajasthan Economic Transformation Advisory Council under my Chairmanship with the mandate to suggest robust and resilient economic restructuring for the state. To ensure that the Council gets best possible advice, we invited eminent dignitaries and experts as members of the Advisory Council.

I am pleased to state that the Council has delivered a set of nine policy reports across areas as diverse as Fiscal Management; Managing Urban Informal Sector; Integrated Agro-Business Infrastructure; Sustainable Agriculture; Doing Business; Quantifying Intangible Cultural Assets; Education and the New Paradigm (bridging digital divide); Medical Services; and Public Private Partnership in Infrastructure. These policy areas may appear to be separate and discreet but one commonality that binds them all is that they are truly geared towards a bottom up approach to the development of the state. I urge my colleagues in the state government to also focus on inter-linkages in these policy areas for the best possible outcome.

While the Council is still at work with many new emergent areas that deserve attention, I am happy to state that the present policy study is very much a part of this endeavor.

I am grateful to the Members of the Council, my Ministerial colleagues, officers of the Government, all collaborators and organizations who have worked tirelessly to make this possible. My special acknowledgement of Shri Arvind Mayaram, Vice Chairman of the Council, whose leadership and contribution towards this endeavor has been extremely valuable. My appreciation is also to the entire team at the Council who have diligently worked to put these reform oriented reports together.

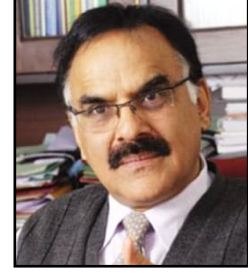


**(Ashok Gehlot)**



सत्यमेव जयते

**Economic Advisor to CM  
& Vice Chairman  
CM's Rajasthan Economic  
Transformation Advisory Council**



## **FOREWORD**

Eight of every ten workers in the Indian economy are in informal employment. In Rajasthan, this pattern is no different. With acceleration in urbanization, migration of labour from the rural to the urban areas has also increased exponentially.

During the lockdown, we witnessed the horror of mass exodus of the migrant labour from cities. Most of those workers work as construction workers, street vendors and rickshaw pullers, amongst others. Not only did they have to endure crucial hardships during the lockdown, but they are also constantly in conflict with municipal laws or traffic police regulations. They also do not have decent places to live in and therefore slums keep burgeoning.

In other words, while their work is pivotal for their households as well as the economy as a whole, it is often un-recognized and precarious. This is mirrored in conditions of everyday life for such workers.

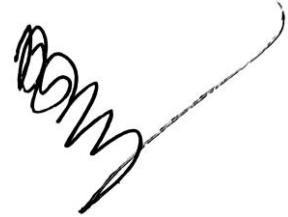
Mindful of this reality, the Chief Minister's Rajasthan Economic Transformation Advisory Council (CMRETAC) tasked the Indian Institute for Human Settlements (IIHS), Bangalore with three study objectives i.e. to estimate the size and distribution of the urban informal economy in Rajasthan, to offer a framework to improve the quality of work in the informal economy and to offer a framework to improve ease of living and access to social protection for informal workers.

This report addresses these issues in a structured manner. What makes this report unique and different is that it takes a comprehensive look at both the occupational as well as living aspects of urban informal workers in Rajasthan. Not many studies have taken such a holistic view of informality in India encompassing the entire gamut of 'Quality of Life'.

I congratulate IIHS and all collaborators for putting together this timely study and I am confident that recommendations of this report will be extremely relevant for the state.

I express my sincere gratitude to Hon'ble Chief Minister for entrusting CMRETAC with a forward-looking agenda and providing continuous support and guidance. The study would not have been so rich and comprehensive but for the very active and continuous support of all the concerned departments and their senior officers.

My gratitude is also to all concerned Ministers, esteemed members of CMRETAC for their valuable guidance, concerned departments and Technical Support Organization to CMRETAC.

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of several loops and a long, sweeping tail that curves upwards and to the right.

**(Dr. Arvind Mayaram)**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

At the outset, we would like to express deepest gratitude to the Chairman of Chief Minister's Rajasthan Economic Transformation Advisory Council (CMRETAC) Hon'ble Chief Minister, Shri Ashok Gehlot and Hon'ble Minister for Urban Development and Housing, Shri Shanti Kumar Dhariwal.

The authors are indebted to Dr Arvind Mayaram, Vice-Chairman for his valuable guidance and generosity with timely feedback on our work. We are grateful to the members of CMRETAC who have guided this study from time to time. In particular, we would like to extend our gratitude to Professor Errol D'Souza, Director, IIM Ahmedabad; Ms Naina Lal Kidwai, Chairman Max Financial Services Ltd and Shri Rajeev Gowda, Former, MP, Rajya Sabha.

Our sincere gratitude to Shri Kunji Lal Meena, Principal Secretary, Urban Development and Housing and Shri (Dr) Joga Ram, Secretary, Local Self Government for their continuous support and encouragement.

This study would not have been possible without the proactive support of Shri Naveen Jain, Secretary, Plan; Dr. Bharti Dixit, Joint Secretary, Plan; Dr. O.P. Bairwa, Director, Directorate of Economics & Statistics; Shri Bhanwar Lal Bairwa, Joint Secretary, CMRETAC; Shri Munshi Singh, OSD to Economic Advisor to Chief Minister; Shri Vijay Kumar Sharma, Assistant Director, CMRETAC; Shri Ashutosh Sharma, Statistical Officer, CMRETAC; Dr. Devanand, Assistant Statistical Officer, CMRETAC; Shri Yograj Pacherwal, Informatics Assistant, CMRETAC and Ms. Saroj Saini, Informatics Assistant, CMRETAC.

Along with the lead author, the authorship of this report is attributed to the team at Indian Institute for Human Settlements (IIHS) Ms Shriya Anand, Ms Antara Rai Chowdhury, Ms Keerthana Jagadeesh, Ms Vrashali Khandelwal Dr. Neethi P, Dr. Divya Ravindranath. Shri Divij Sinha, Ms Nidhi Sohane and Ms Aditi Surie. Our gratitude to Shri Bhartendu Om, Ms Shivani and Ms Anusha Bellapu for providing research Assistance, and Ms Malavika Navale and Padma Venkataraman for design and layout.

Indicc Associates provided technical support throughout the study period. We thank Ms Mansavi Bihani and other research colleagues at Indicc Associates who worked behind the scenes, sometimes on short deadlines, to support this study.

Finally, any error or omission that may have remained is solely ours and should not be ascribed to any of the above acknowledged people or institutions.

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Eight of every ten workers in the Indian economy are in informal employment. In Rajasthan, this pattern is no different. While their work is pivotal for their households as well as the economy as a whole, it is often unrecognised, precarious and unsupported. This precarity is mirrored in the conditions of everyday life for workers in the vulnerability of their housing, access to social protection, as well as a narrowing of the possibilities of socio-economic mobility.

We present a framework to recognise, secure and support informal work and workers, provide a statistical estimation of the size and nature of the urban informal economy in Rajasthan and then detail selected elements of the framework to show how they could be implemented as state policy and programmes.

To be able to step back from this complexity to re-imagine our approaches while remaining rooted enough to suggest implementable programmes and schemes, the proposed framework uses three components.

- First, it outlines five vision statements that present the long-term horizon we wish to reach.
- Second, within each vision it offers a set of pathways that outline approaches through which we can proceed towards the vision.
- Third, it offers examples of specific practises that are immediate and recognisable to policy makers as possible schemes, missions, programmes or policies.

The five visions that anchor our framework start from a foundation of universal social protection (Vision 1) to the need for recognition of informal work (Vision 2), the expansion of opportunities for decent work (Vision 3), the creation of opportunities for mobility and growth (Vision 4) and, finally, the building of an institutional ecosystem to ensure delivery and implementation (Vision 5).

As we proceed, within each vision, we present a set of illustrative pathways and practises in our report. These are not meant to be exhaustive. Instead, they suggest a prioritisation based on three criteria: (a) the scope of this report, i.e. a focus on informal work and workers; (b) what is most needed for informal workers in Rajasthan, and (b) what is implementable given not just current capacity but assuming a new commitment, investment and focus for the future of workers in the state.

### **Vision 1 | Universal social protection that is both promotive and protective**

Social protection plays an important role in alleviating poverty, improving standards of living, mitigating risks and shocks, and reducing episodes of financial adversities. In this report, we use the following definition of social protection: “all public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised; with the overall

objective of reducing the economic and social vulnerability of poor, vulnerable and marginalised groups.”<sup>1</sup>

When we speak of protective social protection, we mean measures that guarantee relief from destitution. When we speak of promotive social protection, we mean measures that can enhance real incomes and capabilities. The difference is clear if you think of protective measures that ensure no one is hungry versus promotive ones that ensure that people have access to nutritious food.

This vision is applicable universally, i.e. to all residents regardless of their employment status as informal or formal workers. The focus is on the support workers need outside earning, income and wages. Each of the pathways in this vision centres on the provision of what we consider basic and public goods that are part of the citizenship rights of all urban residents regardless of their status as workers. Each is essential directly to the ease of living and indirectly to the quality of work for everyone in the informal economy. We focus on three core needs: housing, community infrastructure and maternal and child health. We do so working with the assumption that macro-economic investments in universal access to health care, education, and food security will continue and deepen.

### **Vision 2 | A society that advances dignity and recognition to diverse forms of work**

One of the key challenges of informal work is that it is hypervisible but also invisible. It is common sense that construction workers, domestic workers, waste workers, street vendors, transport workers, sanitation workers, and home-based workers are the dominant sectors of work in urban India and in Rajasthan. Yet the nature of their work — the lack of contracts or registration, the absence of any recognition of the employer-contractor-employee relationship, or of their own enterprises — means that such work is not recognised or enumerated, making it absent in policy.

Recognition and enumeration are the first steps to according dignity to informal work and workers. Both must occur at three scales: work, worker, and workplace. By work, we mean all forms of work must be recognised including, for example, often invisibilised work such as home-based workers who do piece-rate tailoring. By workers, we mean all engaged in the sector must be recognised by processes that are simple, welcoming and accessible. By workplace, we mean that all spaces (formal or informal, recognised or not) where work occurs must be recognised regardless of whether they are in public space (such as street vending), private homes (domestic work and home-based work), in infrastructure locations (landfills or waste collection sites), among others.

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<sup>1</sup> See Conway, T., & Norton, A. (2002). Nets, ropes, ladders and trampolines: The place of social protection within current debates on poverty reduction. *Development Policy Review*, 20(5), 533–540. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-7679.00188>

### **Vision 3 | An economy that creates more opportunities for decent work**

Decent work is a framework established by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) to measure the conditions and quality of employment. It is understood as the availability of opportunities for work that is, among other things, “productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families.” How do we move towards a goal for Decent Work for All?

Here, we focus on reducing specific deficits in existing conditions of work that prevent it from meeting the criteria of being decent work. The first deficit is the absence of enabling urban economic infrastructure that can both support existing informal work and workers as well as generate new opportunities for their work. To this end, we argue for what the ILO calls “employment intensive investment” in urban infrastructure and planning that seeks to explicitly improve and increase opportunities for decent work. Here we re-emphasize the need to re-think urban planning for the informal economy as well as the Community Works Programme.

The second deficit is the absence of social security for informal workers. Existing work can be improved to becoming decent work if informal workers have access to the same social security benefit as formal workers. To this end, we argue for a new universal benefit scheme that brings parity to formal and informal workers.

The third deficit is the insufficient number of opportunities for decent work. This has structural roots, and the Indian economy is not creating enough formal sector jobs to absorb new entrants to the workforce. We mark the importance of promoting labour intensive sectors for growth and protecting and promoting informal workers within the existing sectors of the state economy such as craft, heritage, trade and tourism.

### **Vision 4 | An economy wherein opportunities for mobility and growth are equivalent to those in the formal economy**

Informal workers often face an adverse environment to sustain their lives and livelihoods in the city, bearing disproportionate costs through long hours spent working and commuting, additional costs to secure their workspaces, higher amounts paid for access to infrastructure as well as for loans or credit, and the health implications of work such as waste work or construction work. Within this vision, we suggest a set of pathways that could enable the returns to the effort and capital invested by informal workers to be equivalent to those in the formal economy. These pathways also offer possibilities for mobility and growth, moving beyond the ‘protective’ part of our long-term vision into the ‘promotive’.

We focus on the following three categories through which this can be enabled: (i) Reverse the informalisation of work within formal enterprises that has taken place due to changes in labour law. This could be done by extending benefits such as provident funds, paid leave, insurance to informal workers within formal enterprises; (ii) Create growth pathways or opportunities for informal workers within formal economy plans, such as the

expansion of RIICO areas, or planned nodes along the Delhi-Mumbai Industrial Corridor; and (iii) Upskilling and growth within informal economy spaces, through capital, skills or enterprise development support, in sectors such as culture, heritage, tourism, light manufacturing and crafts, architecture and heritage restoration.

### **Vision 5 | Building an institutional ecosystem to work in partnership**

Each of the four visions described so far requires a deepening, expansion and strengthening of the institutional and governance eco-system in urban Rajasthan. In a sense, this Vision cross-cuts and underlies all the other visions and their effective implementation. We suggest a set of broad approaches to construct this governance ecosystem. The first is to directly increase state resources, capacity and human resource allocation. This must be done both through directed training and capacity building as well as increasing strength of key departments.

The second is to embrace partnership particularly with worker organisations, unions, federations and collectives. The last decades have seen significant rise in associations of informal workers mobilising and collectivising. This presents an enormous opportunity for the government to work with this ecosystem of institutions.

The third is to focus on one particular aspect of state capacity that has a deep and direct impact on any practices for their entitlements, rights and welfare. This is to strengthen systems of dispute resolution and labour law enforcement.

## TEAM

This report is collectively written by authors at the Indian Institute for Human Settlements, Bengaluru. In alphabetical order:

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## ***Structure of the Report***

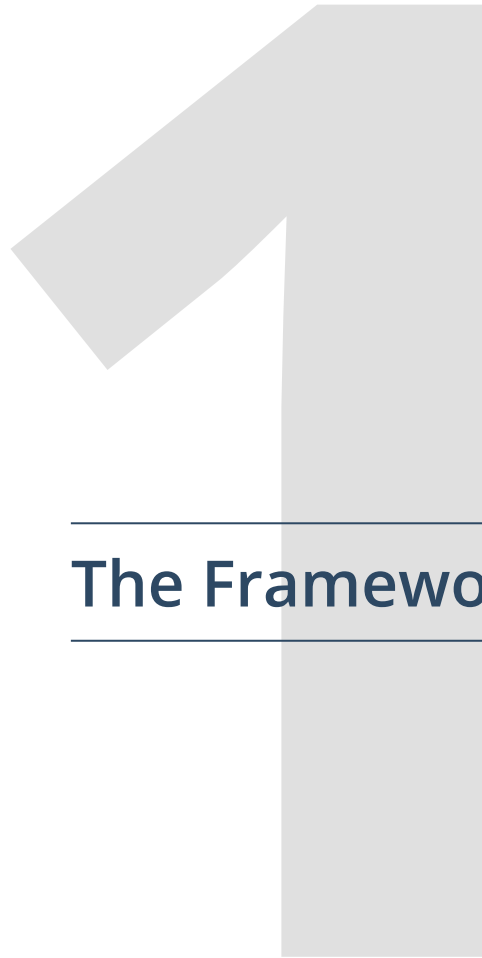
Eight of every ten workers in the Indian economy are in informal employment. In Rajasthan, this pattern is no different. While their work is pivotal for their households as well as the economy as a whole, it is often unrecognised, precarious and unsupported. This precarity is mirrored in the conditions of everyday life for workers in the vulnerability of their housing, access to social protection, as well as a narrowing of the possibilities of socio-economic mobility.

The Chief Minister's Rajasthan Economic Transformation Advisory Council (CMRETAC) tasked the Indian Institute for Human Settlements (IIHS) to three ends:

- To estimate the size and distribution of the urban informal economy in Rajasthan
- To offer a framework to improve the quality of work in the informal economy
- To offer a framework to improve ease of living and access to social protection for informal workers.

This report is accordingly structured in three parts. The first presents a framework to recognise, secure and support informal work and workers. The second presents an a statistical estimation of the size and nature of the urban informal economy in Rajasthan. The third then details selected elements of the framework to show how they could be implemented as state policy and programmes.





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## The Framework

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## ***Introduction***

How should policy makers think about both improving the quality of work as well as ease of living for informal workers? The immediate challenge is that such a complex problem requires thinking across scales and sectors which, in the world of policy, means also thinking across existing departments, ministries, budget lines and programmes.

To be able to step back from this complexity to re-imagine our approaches while remaining rooted enough to suggest implementable programmes and schemes, the proposed framework uses three components.

- First, it outlines five ***vision*** statements that present the long-term horizon we wish to reach.
- Second, within each vision it offers a set of ***pathways*** that outline approaches through which we can proceed towards the vision.
- Third, it offers examples of specific ***practices*** that are immediate and recognisable to policy makers as possible schemes, missions, programmes or policies.

Figure 1 lays out the five visions that anchor our framework. These start from a foundation of universal social protection (Vision 1) to the need for recognition of informal work (Vision 2), the expansion of opportunities for decent work (Vision 3), the creation of opportunities for mobility and growth (Vision 4) and, finally, the building of an institutional ecosystem to ensure delivery and implementation (Vision 5).

As we proceed, within each vision, we present a set of illustrative pathways and practises. These are not meant to be exhaustive. Instead, they suggest a prioritisation based on three criteria: (a) the scope of this report, i.e. a focus on informal work and workers; (b) what is most needed for informal workers in Rajasthan; and (b) what is implementable given not just current capacity but assuming a new commitment, investment and focus for the future of workers in the state.

To ease reading, each Vision is presented with a specific colour through the report, with associated Pathways and Practices also in the same colour hues.

## Definitions and Terms

The terms informal sector (production and employment that takes place in unincorporated small or unregistered enterprises), informal employment (employment without legal and social protection both inside and outside the informal sector) and informal economy (units, activities, and workers so defined and the output from them) are often used interchangeably. Following the National Commission for Employment in the Unorganised Sector<sup>1</sup>, we use the following definitions:

- **Informal workers** are those that lack “employment security (no protection against arbitrary dismissal), work security (no protection against accidents and illness at the work place), and social security (maternity and health care benefits, pension etc).
- **Informal enterprises** are those “unincorporated private enterprises owned by individuals or households engaged in the sale and production of goods and services operated on a proprietary or partnership basis and with less than ten total workers”
- **Informal economy** or **Informal Work** are umbrella terms that includes informal enterprises as well as informal employment, i.e all informal workers whether in formal or informal enterprises.

These separations are important since they allow us to speak distinctly about informal workers and the conditions and quality of their work separately from informal enterprises. While we do address the latter, informal workers are the main foci of this report and framework.

Informal workers are further categorized into two kinds:

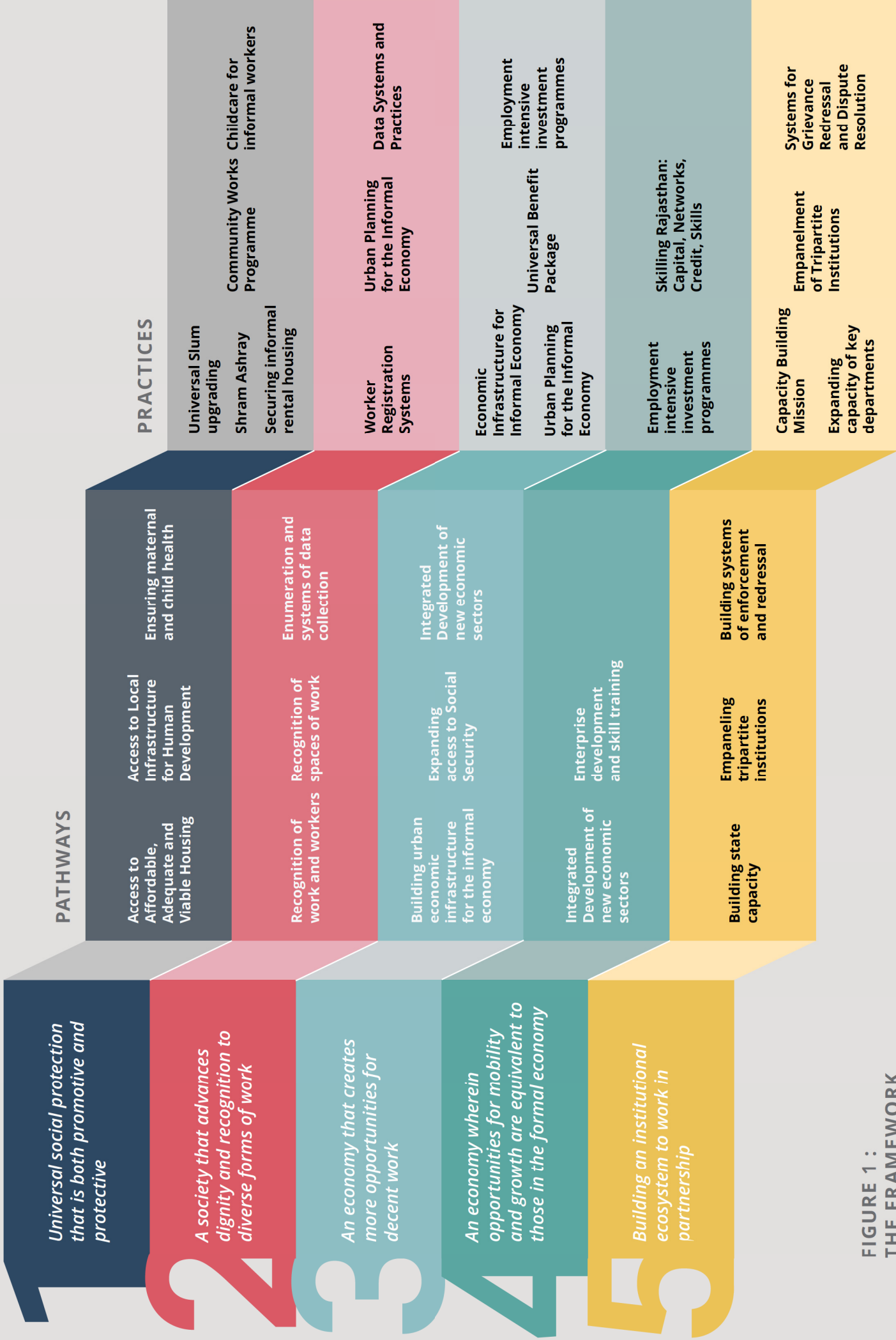
- **Informal self-employment, or Own Account Workers:** Effectively all workers that earn income and do not have ‘employers’ who pay wages. This includes: employers in informal enterprises; own account workers in informal enterprises; contributing family workers (in informal and formal enterprises); members of informal producers’ cooperatives (where these exist). Street vendors, for example, are own account workers since they earn through sales rather than through wages.
- **Informal wage employment, or Wage Workers:** Effectively all workers that receive wages. This includes: employees of informal enterprises; casual or day labourers; temporary or part-time workers; paid domestic workers; contract workers; unregistered or undeclared workers; industrial outworkers (also called homeworkers). Domestic workers, for example, are informal wage workers.

Colloquially, informal work is often talked about in ‘sectors.’ Dominant sectors of informal work in Indian cities are construction work, waste picking, domestic work, para-transit workers, home-based workers, and street vendors. This paper will focus on these sectors, all easily recognizable in their definition to readers of this paper. The size, nature and estimation of the informal economy in Rajasthan is in Part 2.

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<sup>1</sup> The NCEUS sat from 2007 and released a series of reports. Definitions that follow use the *Challenge of Employment in India* (NCEUS, 2008)

**VISIONS**



**FIGURE 1 :**  
**THE FRAMEWORK**

## VISION 1

### *Universal social protection that is both promotive and protective*

Social protection plays an important role in alleviating poverty, improving standards of living, mitigating risks and shocks, and reducing episodes of financial adversities. In this report, we use the following definition of social protection: “all public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised; with the overall objective of reducing the economic and social vulnerability of poor, vulnerable and marginalised groups.”<sup>2</sup>

When we speak of *protective* social protection, we mean measures that guarantee relief from destitution. When we speak of *promotive* social protection, we mean measures that can enhance real incomes and capabilities. The difference is clear if you think of protective measures that ensure no one is hungry versus promotive ones that ensure that people have access to nutritious food.

This vision is applicable universally, i.e. to all residents regardless of their employment status as informal or formal workers. The focus is on the support workers need outside earning, income and wages. Each of the pathways below centres on the provision of what we consider basic and public goods that are part of the citizenship rights of all urban residents regardless of their status as workers. Each is essential directly to the ease of living and indirectly to the quality of work for everyone in the informal economy. We focus on three core needs: housing, community infrastructure and maternal and child health. We do so working with the assumption that macro-economic investments in universal access to health care, education, and food security will continue and deepen. The pathways below then suggest additional components of social protection that are critical for informal workers yet not discussed as often.

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<sup>2</sup> See Conway, T., & Norton, A. (2002). Nets, ropes, ladders and trampolines: The place of social protection within current debates on poverty reduction. *Development Policy Review*, 20(5), 533-540. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-7679.00188>

### ***Pathways and Practices***

There are three pathways that we suggest as focus areas within this vision, with a set of practices.

#### ***Pathway 1: Affordable and Adequate Housing***

The importance of adequate housing for ease of living as well as social protection is self-evident. For informal workers, three main intersections are important: (a) workers who live in notified and non-notified “slums” or unauthorised settlements that lack secure tenure, are

inadequate materially, and lack access to basic infrastructure and services; (b) workers who live in rental housing that is affordable but often inadequate materially and in terms of tenure; (c) workers seeking affordable short-term housing options because of the nature of their mobility and migration pathways.

#### ***Universal Slum Upgrading***

Slum upgrading refers to the in-situ regularisation and improvement of an urban community. Its first contribution is to give secure tenure to residents, either through collective or individual titling. Its second impact is to improve settlement level services (water, sanitation, drainage, roads, street lighting, and access to public spaces). Upgrading does not focus on improving individual housing units although, globally, it is seen that households use their private savings over time towards improving their dwelling unit once the settlement is given secure tenure.

Upgrading has been recognised as the single most effective means of transforming vulnerable urban neighbourhoods at scale and at low cost. It not only improves human development outcomes for workers and their families but also increases real wages by reducing costs of everyday life, particularly the high costs working poor households pay for access to urban infrastructure and services.<sup>3</sup> The UN-Habitat recommends upgrading as its primary urban policy measure towards inclusive and affordable housing.<sup>4</sup> In India, Odisha has recently launched a state-wide land titling and upgradation mission termed the JAGA Mission.<sup>5</sup> Punjab has passed a similar state-wide act.<sup>6</sup>

The detailed outline of a slum upgrading programme for urban Rajasthan is presented in Section 3.2.

#### ***Shram Ashray***

One of the key aspects of an inclusive housing eco-system is the presence of affordable, short-term worker housing in proximity to work locations. Distinct from longer-term rental housing, Shram Ashray represents a series of hostels, dormitories, and collective housing typologies targeted to workers that target short-term or cyclical stays. These can be cyclical migrants with regular temporal patterns in and out of urban areas, construction workers that stay for the length of a project and often live in inadequate housing on-site, or workers in the city for a short-period of time for any other reason. These workers do not seek to invest in medium- or long-term housing options in the city and therefore often live in deeply inadequate housing

<sup>3</sup> Low-income urban families, especially in informal settlements, are known to pay a higher percentage of their income for access to water, sanitation, electricity, and waste management services. This is, in some studies, called a “poverty premium.”

<sup>4</sup> See <https://unhabitat.org/topic/slum-upgrading>. Accessed February 14th, 2021.

<sup>5</sup> See the Odisha Land Rights to Slum Dwellers Act 2017

<sup>6</sup> See the Punjab Slum Dwellers (Proprietary Rights) Act 2020

conditions without basic protection, services or recognition. Their precarious residence – as COVID-19 amply showed – then results in exclusion from access to basic services, public health systems, and basic social protection schemes such as PDS or even crisis cash transfers.

Multiple models exist for the provision of short-term, flexible worker housing including public provision (Kerala's guest worker hostels) to private sector providers (such as BLiv in Bengaluru that rents to security guards). Yet the scale and size of formal, adequate supply is in its infancy. Expanding the supply requires both regulatory changes that expand employer and contractor responsibility for housing contracted and short-term workers, as well as fiscal, spatial, and infrastructural incentives to a diversity of public and private agencies to make such housing viable.

### ***Securing Low Income Rental Housing***

One of the key mechanisms for deeper housing equity is affordable and adequate rental housing. While Census and NSS estimates suggest that no less than a third of urban residents live on rent, rental housing remains unrecognised in much urban planning, policy making and regulation. Housing policy in India has long had an ownership bias and this has led to existing rental practices being informal, unrecorded and unsupported.

The draft National Rental Housing Policy, the Model Tenancy Act, and recently, the Affordable Rental Housing Scheme of the Government of India has indicated a welcome and new focus on rental housing. Any framework that focuses on informal workers has to focus on rental housing. Such a focus would need to proceed on several themes, including: (a) recognising existing informal rental housing and creating a facilitatory regulatory environment for registering existing rental arrangements; (b) aiding low income private rental housing ventures that show promise but are unable to scale given lack of specific regulatory recognition, absence of financial support, inappropriate tax structures and lack of enabling planning norms; (c) exploring expansion of publicly built and managed rental housing; (d) exploring employer mandates to provide rental housing for employees; (e) using planning norms to encourage production of low income rental housing within affordable housing zones, industrial areas, and transit-oriented development corridors; (f) exploring demand side support mechanisms such as vouchers and subsidies to household to fill an affordability gap; and (g) provisions to prevent discrimination in access to privately owned rental housing on the basis of caste, religion, gender, marital status, ability, sexual orientation, among others.

### ***Pathway 2: Access to Local Infrastructure for Human Development***

As COVID-19 showed us, core infrastructure for human development at the primary level—a clinic or dispensary, for example, rather than a district hospital— is a critical determinant of social protection for households. This infrastructure has to be proximate and accessible to where informal workers live and work. Our focus is local infrastructure for health, access to public services, food security, child care, as well as infrastructures for disaster response. In this note, we term this 'community infrastructure.' Using what the International Labour Organisation calls an "employment intensive investment" approach, we suggest a Community Works Programme that produces different kinds of community infrastructure where it is needed while also creating opportunities for decent work. We detail this practice below, and also return to it in Vision 3.

### **Community Works Programmes**

Community Works Programmes (CWP) are globally known as effective, meso-scale public employment programmes, i.e. investments that seek to generate opportunities for work. CWPs combine community infrastructure provision with employment generation, skilling, and provide base living wage support to workers. They share, in some ways, features and aims of NREGA but are, in keeping with the reality of urban labour markets, designed and scaled differently.

Community Infrastructure is an umbrella term for small scale infrastructure and services that are low on capex costs (most <Rs 10L, some <Rs 25L, max Rs 50L); are locally designed, built and managed; and are easily accessible. These are spatially targeted to vulnerable neighbourhoods and public places that have concentrations of informal workers such as natural markets, landfills and transport interchanges. A range of projects could include:

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Economic:</b> Expanded natural markets, street redesign, skill centres, SME warehouses, community workspaces.</li> <li>• <b>Health:</b> Primary health Centres, dispensaries</li> <li>• <b>Social:</b> Multi-purpose community centres, public creches</li> <li>• <b>Transport:</b> Para transit infrastructure, street redesign</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Environmental:</b> Lake rejuvenation, urban farming, renewable energy, waste management.</li> <li>• <b>Governmental:</b> Government service extension workers, care workers.</li> <li>• <b>Housing:</b> Upgraded slums, Migrant worker hostels, Shelters</li> <li>• <b>Services:</b> Decentralized sewerage and waste management systems, public sanitation, rainwater harvesting.</li> </ul> |
|---|---|

A detailed note on the Community Works Programme is in Section 3.3. What is built through a CWP also can be connected to better urban plans for informal workers (see Vision 2), as well as economic infrastructure for the urban informal economy (see Vision 3).

### **Pathway 3: Ensuring Maternal and Child Health**

Our focus in this pathway is on a long neglected constituency: the health of working mothers in the informal economy and their children. Even though informal work in India and Rajasthan is heavily gendered, with some sectors like domestic work and home-based work being dominated by women, there is often little focus on how these women manage to work, care for themselves and their children without the protection of benefits like maternity leave or public or workplace infrastructure for maternal and child health. Filling this gap in practice is essential to both boost women's labour force participation as well reach key health outcomes for informally working mothers and their children.

#### **Childcare for informal workers**

One of the foremost challenges for women working informally is the lack of childcare solutions. Due to the challenge of earning an income and raising a child without access to quality childcare services, women workers often drop out from the labour force or risk losing out on much needed income by reducing their hours of paid work. They may also shift into more vulnerable and low-paid forms of self-employment – such as home-based work or street vending – that have more flexible arrangements to work and care for their children at the same time. We present three connected actions through which childcare needs of mothers can be addressed: a) extension of the ICDS infrastructure, (b) revitalizing national creche schemes to

run creches at or near the place of work, and (c) support in the form of improved maternity benefits. These can address working mothers' concerns around lack of childcare infrastructure and the burden of bearing disproportionate share of being primary caregivers to their children.

A detailed note on these practices is in Section 3.1.

## VISION 2

### *A society that advances dignity and recognition to diverse forms of work*

One of the key challenges of informal work is that it is hypervisible but also invisible. It is common sense that construction workers, domestic workers, waste workers, street vendors, transport workers, sanitation workers, and home-based workers are the dominant sectors of work in urban India and in Rajasthan. Yet the nature of their work — the lack of contracts or registration, the absence of any recognition of the employer-contractor-employee relationship, or of their own enterprises — means that such work is not recognised or enumerated, making it absent in policy.

*Recognition* and *enumeration* are the first steps to according dignity to informal work and workers. Both must occur at three scales: work, worker, and workplace. By work, we mean all forms of work must be recognised including, for example, often invisibilised work such as home-based workers who do piece-rate tailoring. By workers, we mean all engaged in the sector must be recognised by processes that are simple, welcoming and accessible. By workplace, we mean that all spaces (formal or informal, recognised or not) where work occurs must be recognised regardless of whether they are in public space (such as street vending), private homes (domestic work and home-based work), in infrastructure locations (landfills or waste collection sites), among others.

### ***Pathways and Practices***

There are three pathways that we suggest as focus areas within this vision, with a set of practices.

## ***Pathway 1: Recognition of Work and Workers***

### ***Worker Registration Systems***

One of the biggest challenges for informal workers is an absence of registration as workers, a concern noted since the Unorganised Worker Social Security Act of 1996. The past two years of the COVID-19 pandemic have brought the consequences of this lack of adequate registration to the fore. Quite simply, it leaves us unable to enforce labour laws, extend social security benefits, respond in terms of crises, or even truly understand the state of the economy.

Registration within the informal economy is currently a patchwork – construction workers have more established systems of registration under welfare boards and the Construction Workers Act, on the one end, while, on the other, home-based workers are scarcely recognised in any state interface. It is essential that a cross-sectoral, universal registration system exist that recognises both the shared fact of being an informal worker as well as the particularity of the sector of work. What could an effective worker registration system look like? Many models exist within and across India that can be drawn upon but an underlying principle is worth articulating here. Registration must be based on self-declaration, i.e. be free of onerous documentation and verification; be accessible to workers in a range of working conditions and geographies; be run in partnership with scales and departments of government and worker organisations; and anticipate worker mobility and the need for portability. The recently launched E-Shram registration system for informal workers represents a promising foundation that can be built upon and contextualised for Rajasthan.

Registration is a valuable end unto itself but it is certainly most effective when linked to concrete entitlements. What does registration bring to a worker beyond the first step of recognition? Our proposition is to centrally link registration to the provision of an expanded set of social security entitlements. We speak more about this in Vision 3 and, in terms of data, in Pathway 3 below.

## ***Pathway 2: Recognition of Spaces of Work***

### ***Urban Planning for the Informal Economy***

The fact that informal employment is the dominant form of work for urban Indians is not felt within urban planning. Master Plans in Indian cities rarely meaningfully reference informal workers. Where limited acknowledgment does exist, it is not followed by what planning is meant to offer: recognition of presence, meaningful representation in a form of urban governance, and equitable access to space, resources and infrastructure. In short: the opportunity to both flourish in and make cities.

To think of informal work as a subject of planning practice means emphasizing its spatial nature: the question of *where* informal workers work as much as *what* work they do. Two important kinds of spatialities are necessary to bring into planning: informal workers that work in public space (streets, landfills, transport exchanges, natural markets, construction sites among others) and those that work in private space (their own or other people's homes, for

example). Urban planning practices must first recognize informal work and workplaces. Once they do so, they can follow two related approaches to enabling informal work. The first is to remove explicit or implicit hindrances that criminalise, penalize or contain informal work. The second is to extend explicit support to enable, scale and support such work.

We offer six possible kinds of practices that can do this: (a) Planning for work in public spaces; (b) spatial reservations to expand spaces for informal workers; (c) planning time; (d) building support infrastructure for workers; (e) transitioning to sustainable infrastructure that is also labour-intensive; and (f) integrating work and housing.

We outline these in detail in Section 3.5.

### ***Pathway 3: Enumeration and Systems of Data Collection***

#### ***Data Systems and Practices***

The first step in awarding recognition and dignity to all forms of work is recognizing and including informal workers in systems of data and enumeration. The state government also needs better data on informal workers in order to target benefits through public programmes, as well as for annual reporting of progress against global or local commitments such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Currently, data exists through national-level public datasets that can be used to enumerate informal work but these have certain gaps and issues, and cannot be used for targeting of benefits.

The state government holds administrative data such as PDS beneficiary lists, BPL or APL cards, and more recently the e-Shram portal specifically for informal workers. It also collects data on multiple sectors of informal work, and often carries out surveys connected to the rollout of particular schemes such as the NULM. However, this data is fragmented, often held by multiple departments, and not harmonized for use over time. We make a set of recommendations over the short-, medium- and long-term to reach an integrated system of data collection where one database grows over time and is able to meet the different objectives outlined above. We detail this further in Section 3.7, and also include some cases of delivery of benefits in the absence of beneficiary data, such as COVID-19 relief work in Delhi.

## VISION 3

### *An economy that creates more opportunities for decent work.*

Decent work is a framework established by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) to measure the conditions and quality of employment. It is understood as the availability of opportunities for work that is, among other things, “productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families.” How do we move towards a goal for Decent Work for All?

In Vision 3, we focus on reducing specific *deficits* in existing conditions of work that prevent it from meeting the criteria of being decent work. The first deficit is the absence of enabling urban economic infrastructure that can both support existing informal work and workers as well as generate new opportunities for their work. To this end, we argue for what the ILO calls “employment intensive investment” in urban infrastructure and planning that seeks to explicitly improve and increase opportunities for decent work. Here we re-emphasize the need to re-think urban planning for the informal economy (outlined in Vision 2 and in Section 3.5) as well as the Community Works Programme (outlined in Vision 1 and in Section 3.3).

The second deficit is the absence of social security for informal workers. Existing work can be improved to becoming decent work if informal workers have access to the same social security benefit as formal workers. To this end, we argue for a new universal benefit scheme that brings parity to formal and informal workers.

The third deficit is the insufficient number of opportunities for decent work. This has structural roots, and the Indian economy is not creating enough formal sector jobs to absorb new entrants to the workforce. This is also one of the reasons for further informalisation of work, as shown in Part 2 of this report. We pick this deficit up more closely in Vision 4, but here, we mark the importance of promoting labour intensive sectors for growth and protecting and promoting informal workers within the existing sectors of the state economy such as craft, heritage, trade and tourism.

### ***Pathways and Practices***

There are three pathways that we suggest as focus areas within this vision, with a set of practices.

## ***Pathway 1: Building urban economic infrastructure for the informal economy***

### ***Economic Infrastructure for the Informal Economy***

Several imaginations exist on how to promote sectors within the formal economy. These include dedicated spatial and economic zones and the land assembly that underlies them; governance mechanisms like single window clearances as well as the creation of special purpose vehicles; public investment in supporting infrastructure such as roads, electricity and logistics; missions that promote and publicise sectors as well as fiscal consolidations and incentives including facilitatory tax structures. Many of these targeted schemes are used to attract high capital and output investment sectors to urban areas. However, it is equally essential to use these tools towards specific sectors of the informal economy in ways that enhance their capacity to generate opportunities for decent work.

Detailed planning on what such economic infrastructure looks like can take two routes. The first is to anticipate and plan for informality in existing industrial and economic planning. The planned expansion of the Rajasthan Industrial Investment Corporation (RIICO), for example, to create industrial areas in districts across Rajasthan is an ideal opportunity to anticipate ancillary effects on informal work that each of these formal industrial areas will create. If such effects are designed for with space, for example, for vending, natural markets, as well as low income rental housing in and around the industrial area, then the employment effects of industrial expansion can be shared beyond just formal workers employed within the industrial area.

The second approach is to look at specific investments in sectors that can enhance existing sectors of informal employment. Let us take one example to make this clear. Investments in sustainable infrastructure for the circular economy around decentralised waste collection, management and circulation offer great promise not just for employment and equity but also for the environment. Framework legislation already exists to describe decentralized waste infrastructure through the Solid Waste Management Rules 2016 that speak specifically about the integration of informal workers as well as the upgradation and improvement of waste management in our cities. Paradigms of sustainable infrastructure that are labour-absorbent can enable both decent work, environmental outcomes as well as economic growth for city regions. Similar paradigms exist for transport, wholesale sale trade, food retail, craft, as well as small scale manufacturing and MSMEs. Specific plans for infrastructure sectors exist for urban Rajasthan that can be detailed as needed.

The detailed note is in Section 3.6.

### ***Urban Planning for the Informal Economy***

We have detailed this practice in Vision 2 above. There, we emphasized planning's role in recognising workplaces of informal workers. Here, we equally emphasize its role to use tools such as spatial reservations to expand such opportunities.

The detailed note is in Section 3.5.

## ***Pathway 2: Expanding Access to Social Security***

One of the central impacts of informal employment is the absence of social security entitlements and labour rights derived from one's status as a worker. These include the right to not be arbitrarily dismissed, to safe workplace conditions, to mandated minimum wages and paid leave, as well as access to health insurance, protection against accident and injury as well as maternity and paternity benefits. Bringing informal workers at least on parity with existing benefits available to formal workers is a minimum step in addressing deficits in decent work. We propose to bring such parity through a universal benefit package.

### **Universal Benefit Package**

Using the list of existing benefits under EPF and ESIC frameworks as well as the recommended social security entitlements by global frameworks under the ILO and others, a minimum set of entitlements can be defined that are then extended to informal workers to ensure parity. If we think of this as a Universal Benefit Package, then appropriate delivery systems can be designed. These will have to leverage system of worker registration (see Vision 1) including the possibility of using the new E-Shram registration along with existing state registration systems in Rajasthan.

In a detailed note in Section 3.4, we look at key sectors of informal work, assess them against the Universal Benefit Package, identify gaps and suggest how to bring parity in social security between formal and informal workers.

## ***Pathway 3: Integrated Economic Development of New Sectors***

### ***Employment Intensive Investment Programmes***

It is essential for the government to support and promote growth in labour-intensive industries, in order to improve their ability to provide decent work. This would involve leveraging partnerships between state government agencies and an extensive network of private and civil society organisations that have already been working on livelihoods in the state of Rajasthan across a multiplicity of sectors such as textiles, crafts, tourism and heritage. We speak of this in Vision 4 but mark here that it is essential towards the goals of Vision 3 as well.

## VISION 4

### *An economy wherein opportunities for mobility and growth are equivalent to those in the formal economy*

Informal workers often face an adverse environment to sustain their lives and livelihoods in the city, bearing disproportionate costs through long hours spent working and commuting, additional costs to secure their workspaces, higher amounts paid for access to infrastructure as well as for loans or credit, and the health implications of work such as waste work or construction work. Within this vision, we suggest a set of pathways that could enable the returns to the effort and capital invested by informal workers to be equivalent to those in the formal economy. These pathways also offer possibilities for mobility and growth, moving beyond the 'protective' part of our long-term vision into the 'promotive'.

We focus on the following three categories through which this can be enabled: (i) Reverse the informalisation of work within formal enterprises that has taken place due to changes in labour law. This could be done by extending benefits such as provident funds, paid leave, insurance to informal workers within formal enterprises; (ii) Create growth pathways or opportunities for informal workers within formal economy plans, such as the expansion of RIICO areas, or planned nodes along the Delhi-Mumbai Industrial Corridor; and (iii) Upskilling and growth within informal economy spaces, through capital, skills or enterprise development support, in sectors such as culture, heritage, tourism, light manufacturing and crafts, architecture and heritage restoration.

We have detailed parts of this in Vision 3. Here, we focus on two pathways that speak of the integrated development of new sectors and of enterprise development and skill training within existing sectors.

### ***Pathways and Practices***

There are two pathways that we suggest as focus areas within this vision, with a set of practices.

## ***Pathway 1: Integrated Economic Development of New Sectors***

### ***Employment Intensive Investment Programmes***

It is essential for the government to support and promote growth in labour-intensive industries, in order to improve their ability to provide decent work. This would involve leveraging partnerships between state government agencies and an extensive network of private and civil society organisations that have already been working on livelihoods in the state of Rajasthan across a multiplicity of sectors such as textiles, crafts, tourism and heritage.

This could build on efforts already underway within the state government to leverage the heritage and crafts ecosystem within the state, but also recognise emerging growth industries such as education. We also note the potential of investments in sustainable infrastructure system in transport and wastemanagement, for example, that can maximise both employment and environmental outcomes. The state could support these identified sectors that simultaneously create growth and decent work through enabling regulatory frameworks, access to land and preferential access to credit for these sectors. We recommend an initial mapping of such employment intensive investments to guide macro economic planning in the state.

## ***Pathway 2: Enterprise Development and skill training***

The state of Rajasthan has a long history of supporting enterprise development through a range of policies for MSMEs, clusters, and more recently to support and incubate startups and women-led enterprises, as well as to spread awareness about entrepreneurship. Further, the Rajasthan Skills and Livelihoods Development Corporation (RSLDC) has been undertaking skill training in PPP mode, with both vocational training and apprenticeship models. The question of what skills to impart and for what sectors is a challenging one, and undertaking training through industry partnerships is a possible solution.

In this pathway, we recommend that the state government builds on this history, with a particular focus on certain kinds of skills that complement the activities outlined in the other visions and pathways in this report, and with a particular focus on groups that are facing the largest deficits of opportunities for decent work (such as backward castes and women, as described in Part 2).

### ***Skilling Rajasthan: Capital, Networks, Credit, Skills***

Enterprise development and skill training programmes can take a variety of forms. We suggest some models here only for illustrative purposes. Such training and development programmes are deeply sector specific and therefore need deeper and distinct analysis. What we emphasize is that the programmes must combine access to capital, networks and credit with skills. This is essential because: (a) workers in the informal economy often do not lack skills but precisely lack the capital and networks to translate skills into decent work; and (b) own account workers

require support as enterprises rather than wage workers.

Such programmes could also be implemented in combination with some of our other suggested practices. Complementing the range of activities outlined in the Community Works Programme (see section 3.3), urban areas will also need a range of services and support that could extend beyond the building of new infrastructure and will require upskilling, such as elderly and child care, healthcare and education, and the expansion of municipal capacities and environmental monitoring and management.<sup>7</sup> As outlined earlier, skill building in these areas could be undertaken through the existing RSLDC, and these could follow earlier models of apprenticeship and industry partnerships.

A model for providing enterprise development support to the most marginalised is the Dalit Bandhu scheme,<sup>8</sup> recently announced on a pilot basis in Telangana. In addition to providing an unconditional capital grant of Rs. 10 lakh to dalit households, the scheme also provides access to networks and entrepreneurship training. While the targeting of such a scheme could differ from state to state, the important thing to highlight from this model is the combining of the capital grant with access to networks and the ability to utilise it to its full potential. Further details on enterprise development and skilling can be provided as required.

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<sup>7</sup> State of Working India, 2019: Strengthening Towns through Sustainable Employment: A Job Guarantee Programme for Urban India, Centre for Sustainable Employment, Azim Premji University

<sup>8</sup> See <https://cm.telangana.gov.in/2021/07/telangana-dalit-bandhu-scheme-for-dalit-empowerment/>. Accessed February 14th, 2022.

## **VISION 5**

### ***Building an institutional ecosystem to work in partnership***

Each of the four visions described so far requires a deepening, expansion and strengthening of the institutional and governance eco-system in urban Rajasthan. In a sense, Vision 5 cross-cuts and underlies all the other visions and their effective implementation. We suggest a set of broad approaches to construct this governance ecosystem. The first is to directly increase state resources, capacity and human resource allocation. This must be done both through directed training and capacity building as well as increasing strength of key departments. We detail this in the first pathway.

The second is to embrace partnership particularly with worker organisations, unions, federations and collectives. The last decades have seen significant rise in associations of informal workers mobilising and collectivising. This presents an enormous opportunity for the government to work with this ecosystem of institutions. We discuss this below in the second pathway.

The third is to focus on one particular aspect of state capacity that has a deep and direct impact on any practices for their entitlements, rights and welfare. This is to strengthen systems of dispute resolution and labour law enforcement. We detail this in our final pathway.

### ***Pathways and Practices***

There are three pathways that we suggest as focus areas within this vision, with a set of practices.

#### ***Pathway 1: Building state capacity***

##### ***Expanding capacity of key departments***

Paradigmatic shifts such as those proposed so far need significant investment in the capacity of key existing departments. Depending on the particular pathway and practice, this could include: labour, planning and urban development authorities, women and child development, industries, local self government, as well as the Directorate of Economics and Statistics.

The nature of the expansion and its governance forms can take multiple routes depending on the pathway and the practice that is chosen for implementation. We do not, therefore, detail this here. We wish, however, to emphasize that the principle of expanding state capacity—rather than relying on external expertise or consultants — is essential to the success of any of the visions outlined in this report so far.

##### ***Capacity Building Mission***

There is a need for significant in-service training specifically on issues of the informal economy. Such capacity building for government officers needs both a universal understanding of informality, as well as sector specific training on implications for, to take some examples from the earlier visions, urban planning, social protection, industrial and economic planning, data governance etc.

A programme of continuous blended learning with digital and face-to-face interactions is key, ideally with cycles of reinforcement and deepening. A mission approach would be most appropriate here, rooted in partnership with universities, state training institutes, and worker organisations.

#### ***Pathway 2: Empaneling tripartite institutions***

##### ***Empanelment of Tripartite Institutions***

One of the key barometers of success of the visions outlined in this report is deepening partnerships with organisations of workers — unions, federations, collectives — and, in particular, those that are membership-based organisations where workers are directly part of the association. The past few decades have seen a strong rise of such associations in the informal economy across sectors. Urban Rajasthan has strong associations of domestic workers, construction workers, workers in heritage and craft, co-operatives, as well as unions across industry and formal government employment.

Yet organisations of informal workers are often not officially or legally recognised the way in which unions of formal workers are. To enable this, a formal process of empanelment should be created that allows worker organisations to have access to the state and also be accountable for their role in shared partnerships. Such empanelment will, in and of itself, lend recognition to informal work and workers, in addition to enabling shared implementation key to the success of any workers. It will also enable workers to have a direct voice in the design and implementation of schemes that seek to engage and benefit them.

### ***Pathway 3: Building systems of enforcement and redressal***

#### ***Systems for Grievance Redressal and Dispute Resolution***

While propositions for new entitlements, infrastructure and programmes are the focus of this report, there is a need to focus equally on the implementation of existing laws and programmes. In doing so, this is also an investment in state capacity to enforce and implement any new regulations that may emerge if this framework is implemented. One key focus area must be on systems of complaint and grievance redressal, with escalation to dispute resolution. Research by organisations such as Aajevika Bureau as well as Social Accountability Forum for Action and Research (SAFAR) have shown that informal workers are particularly vulnerable to unpaid wages, violation of even existing entitlements and labour law protections, as well as lack the access to be able to use grievance redressal mechanisms.

Many existing programmes and policies affecting workers also do not have grievance redressal mechanisms, or these are not in line with other Rajasthan state initiatives in governance accountability. Rajasthan has, in the past decade, worked to extensively expand its systems to make data and information public through initiatives such as the Jan Soochna Portal, and its consideration of Accountability laws as well. This is a welcome trend that must be deepened. Systems of grievance redressal must be built into existing programmes and schemes as well as be strong parts of initial design of new schemes suggested in all the preceding pathways.

This capacity has to both be built within the state (see Pathway 1, above) as well as through new institutional innovations that are decentralised and can expand the capacity of the ecosystem beyond just state departments. New initiatives such as the LabourLine by Aajevika Bureau and Working People's Coalition (WPC) offer models of such systems and of partnerships with worker organisations. Such innovations need recognition, partnership and scaling.



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## Estimations of the Informal Economy

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## ***Data snapshot: Informal employment in urban Rajasthan***

We use data from the National Sample Survey (NSS) from 2004 and 2011 and the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) from the latest round (2018-19) to understand the following aspects of informal work:

- The split of formal and informal employment in urban India and urban Rajasthan using definitions based on enterprise type, social security benefits and job contract
- Historic employment patterns across different socio-economic groups like age, gender and caste
- Employment patterns across industries

### **Broad findings from our analysis reveals that:**

- Urban Rajasthan has a higher share of informal enterprises than the national urban share
- Fewer formal enterprises in urban Rajasthan give their regular wage employees a job contract compared to the national urban level
- A larger share of formal enterprises at the national urban level give their employees at least one social benefit in relation to urban Rajasthan
- Regular wage work is increasing in both urban Rajasthan and urban India and is mainly occupied by people from Other castes (castes other than SC/ST and OBC) and OBCs
- SC/STs mainly work as casual wage workers, especially in the construction sector
- The number of women in regular wage/salaried work have increased from 2011 to 2018 in urban Rajasthan (when considering only primary work status)
- But overall there has been a fall in women working when we consider both primary and secondary work statuses
- Both regular wages and casual wages increased from 2004 to 2011 but there was either a very small increase or stagnation in wages from 2011 to 2018
- Unemployment is high among youth (19-24 age bracket) and for those with higher education

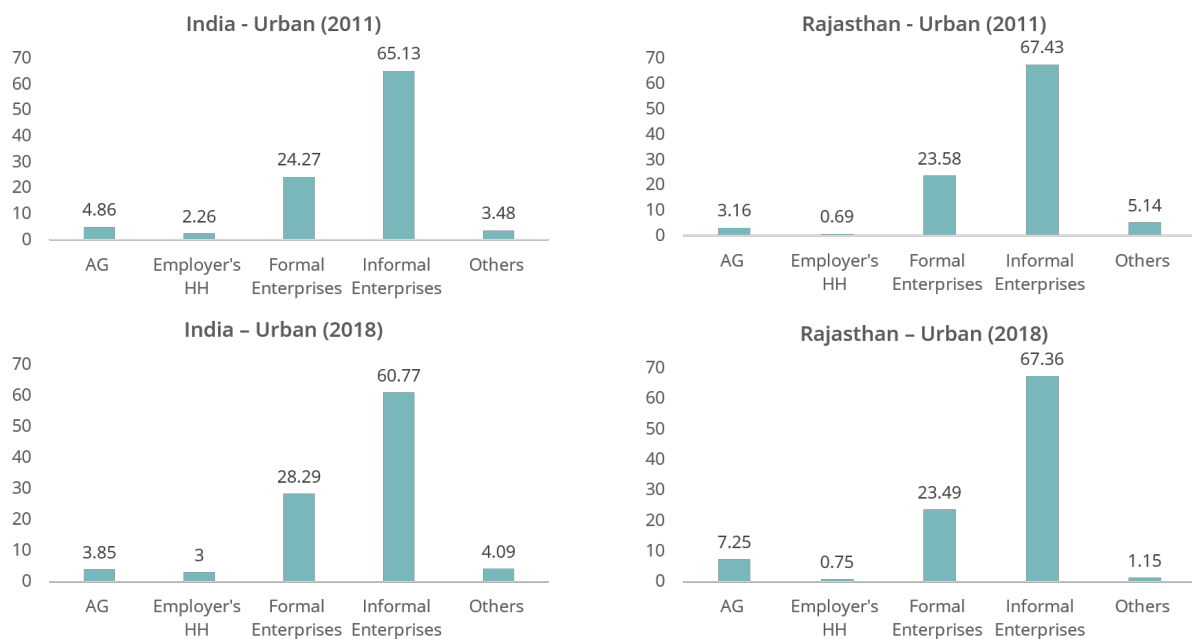
### **This data note is structured into the following sub-sections:**

- Estimations of the informal economy
- Labour Force Participation Rate & Unemployment Rate
- Employment Status
- National Industrial Classification
- Wages across Socio-Demographic Group

## Estimations of the Informal Economy

In this section we look at two types of informality and see how they overlap. The first type, we define **enterprise informality** based on the PLFS definition of formal and informal enterprises listed below. **Employee informality** categorizes workers as either formal or informal wage earners based on employment status, job contract and social security benefits. We define an employee to be informal if they are either regular wage or casual wage and they do not have a job contract and/or any social security benefits.

1. Informal enterprises: proprietary: male, female; partnership: with members from same household, with members from different household
2. Formal enterprises: Government/local body, Public Sector Enterprises, Autonomous Bodies, Public/Private limited company, Co-operative societies, trust/other non-profit institutions
3. Employer's households (i.e., private households employing maid servant, watchman, cook, etc.)
4. Others



While India and Rajasthan had similar shares of informal enterprises in 2011, this trend changes in 2018 where Rajasthan had a higher share of informal enterprises (67%) than the national level (61%). This growing trend of informalisation of jobs can be attributed to changes in labour laws in 2014. Research about the impact of labour law deregulations in Rajasthan shows that it led to a fall in.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Diti Goswami and Sourabh Paul, 2020, Labor Reforms in the Indian State of Rajasthan: A boon or a bane?, CSE working paper, Azim Premji University

## Job Contract by Enterprise type

| India – Urban (2018)  |   |                          |                           |                           |                          |                            |
|---|---|--------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| Worker Type   | Enterprise Type<br>number<br>(percentage) |                          |                           |                           |                          |                            |
|   | Agricultural<br>Enterprises               | Employer's<br>House      | Formal<br>Enterprises     | Informal<br>Enterprises   | Others                   | Total                      |
| Formal wage, contract<br>(Regular wage)                       | 1.48 L<br>(3.4)                           | 1.7 L<br>(3.77)          | 183.43 L<br>(43.22)       | 26.23 L<br>(2.87)         | 2.88 L<br>(4.71)         | 215.72 L<br>(14.5)         |
| Informal wage, no<br>contract (Regular<br>wage & Casual Wage) |   | 43.39 L<br>(96.23)       | 240.48 L<br>(56.66)       | 382.99 L<br>(41.92)       | 43.32 L<br>(70.85)       | 710.18 L<br>(47.74)        |
| Own account worker  | 28.38 L<br>(65.22)                        |                          | 0.45 L<br>(0.11)          | 391.18 L<br>(42.82)       | 9.55 L<br>(15.62)        | 429.57 L<br>(28.87)        |
| Employer  | 3.28 L<br>(7.54)                          |                          | 0.02 L<br>(0)             | 50.79 L<br>(5.56)         | 3.49 L<br>(5.71)         | 57.58 L<br>(3.87)          |
| Helper in Household<br>Enterprise                             | 10.38 L<br>(23.85)                        |                          | 0.03 L<br>(0.01)          | 62.33 L<br>(6.82)         | 1.9 L<br>(3.11)          | 74.64 L<br>(5.02)          |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>43.52 L<br/>(100)</b>                  | <b>45.09 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>424.41 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>913.52 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>61.15 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>1487.68 L<br/>(100)</b> |

| Rajasthan – Urban (2018)                                      |   |                         |                         |                          |                         |                          |
|---|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Worker Type   | Enterprise Type<br>number<br>(percentage) |                         |                         |                          |                         |                          |
|   | Agricultural<br>Enterprises               | Employer's<br>House     | Formal<br>Enterprises   | Informal<br>Enterprises  | Others                  | Total                    |
| Formal wage, contract<br>(RW)                                 |   |                         | 5.66 L<br>(35.61)       | 0.36 L<br>(0.78)         | 0.01 L<br>(0.67)        | 6.02 L<br>(8.91)         |
| Informal wage, no<br>contract (Regular<br>wage & Casual Wage) |   | 0.51 L<br>(100)         | 10.24 L<br>(64.39)      | 19.48 L<br>(42.74)       | 0.47 L<br>(60.25)       | 30.7 L<br>(45.41)        |
| Own account worker  | 2.78 L<br>(57.52)                         |                         |                         | 19.85 L<br>(43.55)       | 0.3 L<br>(39.09)        | 22.94 L<br>(33.93)       |
| Employer  | 0.02 L<br>(0.4)                           |                         |                         | 2.53 L<br>(5.55)         |                         | 2.55 L<br>(3.77)         |
| Helper in Household<br>Enterprise                             | 2.04 L<br>(42.09)                         |                         |                         | 3.36 L<br>(7.37)         |                         | 5.4 L<br>(7.98)          |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>4.84 L<br/>(100)</b>                   | <b>0.51 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>15.9 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>45.59 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>0.78 L<br/>(100)</b> | <b>67.61 L<br/>(100)</b> |

Of the workers in formal enterprises in urban Rajasthan, a lower share have a job contract (35% of workers in formal enterprises), when compared to the all India figure (43% of workers in formal enterprises have a job contract).

## Social Security by Enterprise type

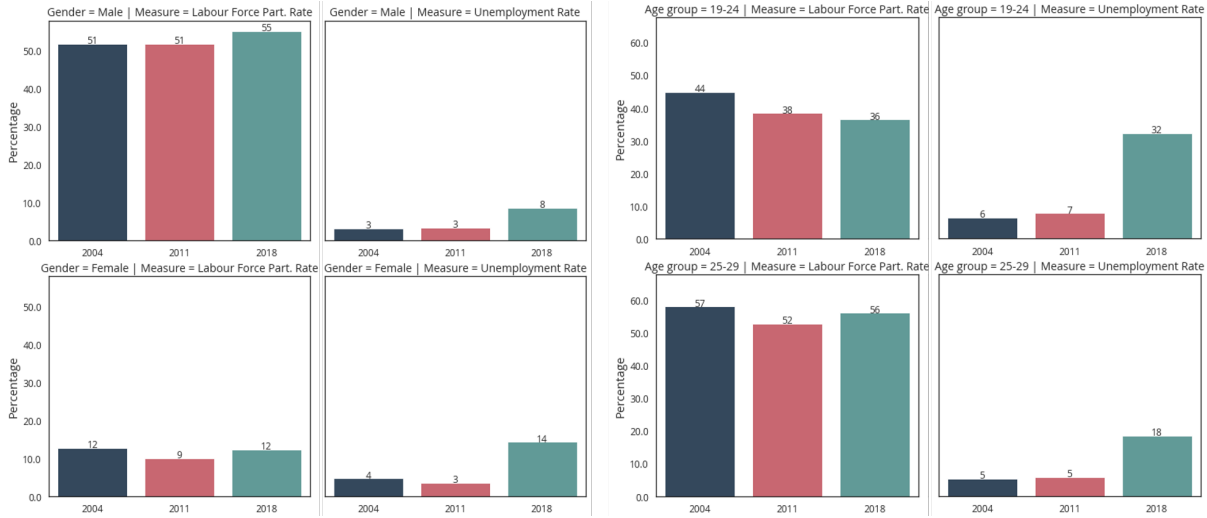
We divide social security benefits into formal, informal and self-employed. In this case, formal is defined as an employee receiving at least one social security benefit (not including paid leave) and informal is defined as getting no benefit.

| India – Urban (2018)             |                                     |                   |                     |                      |                    |                     |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Social Security Benefit          | Enterprise Type number (percentage) |                   |                     |                      |                    |                     |
|                                  | Agricultural Enterprises            | Employer's House  | Formal Enterprises  | Informal Enterprises | Others             | Total               |
| Formal: Has at least one benefit |                                     | 1.48 L<br>(3.29)  | 295.06 L<br>(69.33) | 32.36 L<br>(3.54)    | 3.28 L<br>(5.32)   | 332.18 L<br>(22.32) |
| Informal: No job benefit         |                                     | 43.6 L<br>(96.71) | 130.03 L<br>(30.55) | 377.42 L<br>(41.29)  | 43.29 L<br>(70.38) | 594.35 L<br>(39.93) |
| Self employed                    | 42.04 L<br>(100)                    |                   | 0.5 L<br>(0.12)     | 504.3 L<br>(55.17)   | 14.95 L<br>(24.3)  | 561.79 L<br>(37.75) |
| Total                            | 42.04 L<br>(100)                    | 45.09 L<br>(100)  | 425.59 L<br>(100)   | 914.09 L<br>(100)    | 61.51 L<br>(100)   | 1488.31 L<br>(100)  |

| Rajasthan – Urban (2018)         |                                     |                  |                    |                      |                   |                    |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Social Security Benefit          | Enterprise Type number (percentage) |                  |                    |                      |                   |                    |
|                                  | Agricultural Enterprises            | Employer's House | Formal Enterprises | Informal Enterprises | Others            | Total              |
| Formal: Has at least one benefit |                                     |                  | 8.88 L<br>(55.86)  | 0.49 L<br>(1.08)     | 0.03 L<br>(4.17)  | 9.41 L<br>(13.91)  |
| Informal: No job benefit         |                                     | 0.51 L<br>(100)  | 7.02 L<br>(44.14)  | 19.35 L<br>(42.45)   | 0.44 L<br>(56.74) | 27.32 L<br>(40.4)  |
| Self employed                    | 4.84 L<br>(100)                     |                  |                    | 25.74 L<br>(56.47)   | 0.3 L<br>(39.09)  | 30.89 L<br>(45.68) |
| Total                            | 4.84 L<br>(100)                     | 0.51 L<br>(100)  | 15.9 L<br>(100)    | 45.59 L<br>(100)     | 0.78 L<br>(100)   | 67.61 L<br>(100)   |

While 69% of formal enterprises at the national urban level give their employees at least one social security benefit, only 56% of them do so in urban Rajasthan.

# Labour Force Participation Rate & Unemployment Rate



Women’s Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR ) is about a fifth of men’s LFPR across years.

Unemployment Rate (UR) tripled from 2011 to 2018 for both genders but women’s UR much higher than men’s (14% vs 8%).

## Employment Status

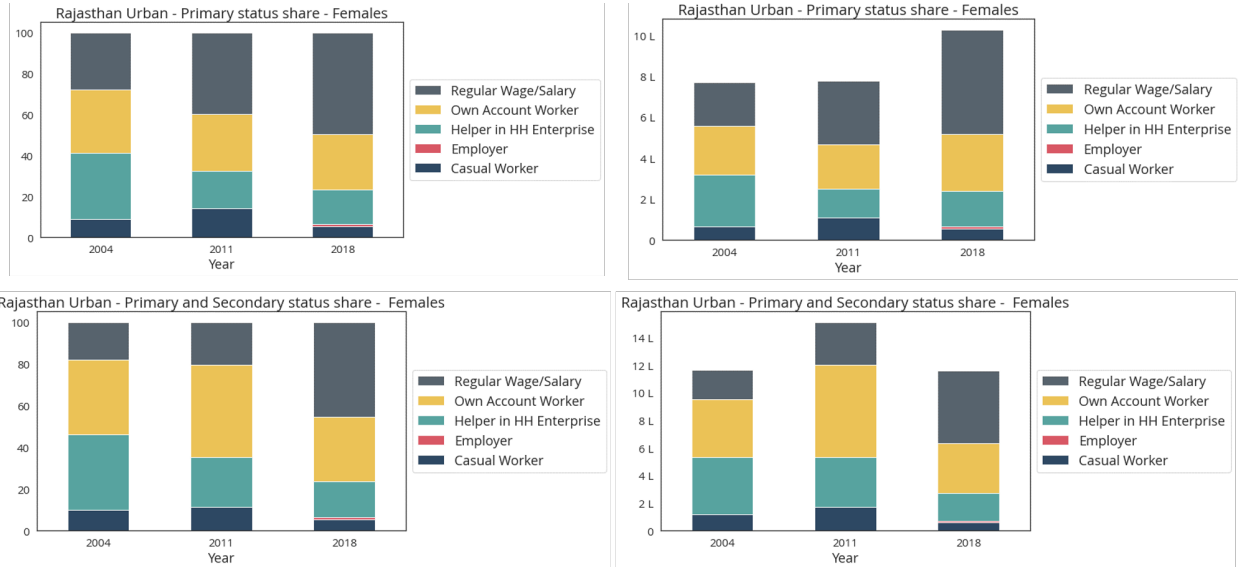
We look at three employment categories in this section: i) **self-employed workers** are made up of own account workers, helpers in households and employers ii) **regular wage/salaried** are those who earn a regular salary or wage working in either farm or non-farm enterprises iii) **casual wage workers** are those who work casually in either farm or non-farm enterprises. They could be working in public works like MNREGA and other public and private works.



Most of the increase in overall employment has come from an increase in regular wage/salaried work and this trend holds in urban Rajasthan and the rest of urban India.

Casual wage work decreased from 2011 to 2018 in urban Rajasthan, while this work remained relatively stable across the years in the national urban level.

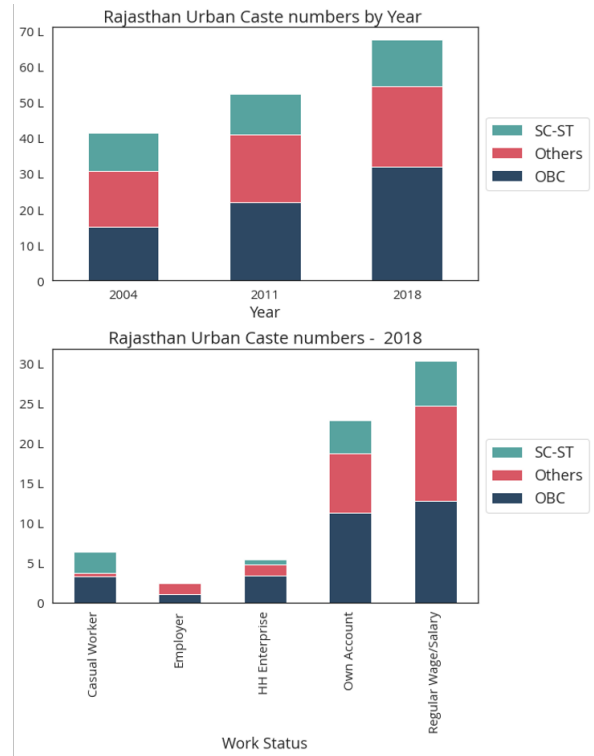
## Employment Status by Gender



Absolute number of women working decreased when we consider both primary and secondary work status. The decline between 2011 and 2018 has largely been in the category of own account work in urban Rajasthan.

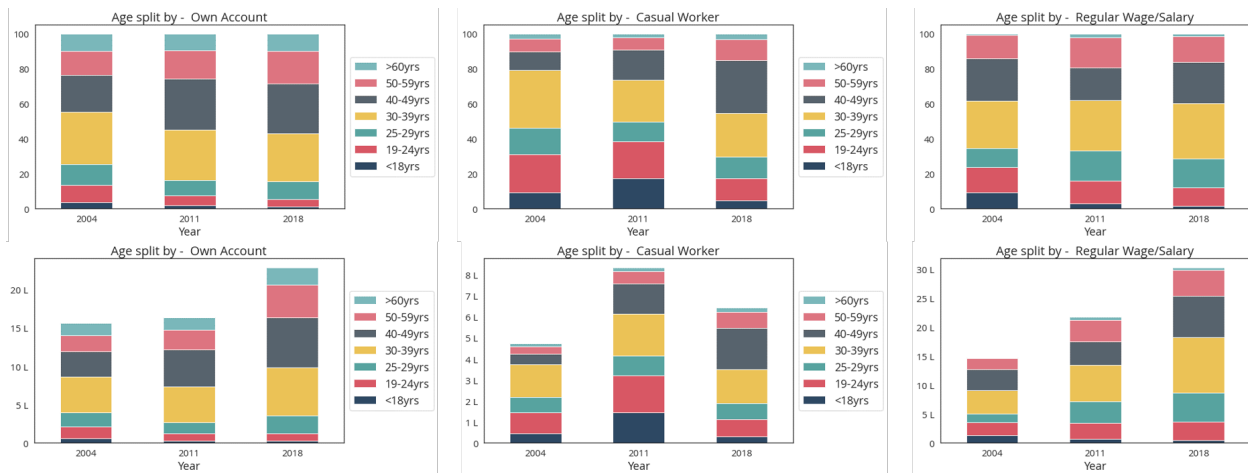
Regular wage women workers (in the primary status) have increased from 2011 to 2018 in urban Rajasthan.

## Employment Status by Caste



Other castes have a larger share as employers and regular wage salaried workers while SC/ST have a larger share as casual wage workers.

## Employment Status by Age



The three work statuses have different age of entry, retention or age of exit.

In own account work, there is a small share of young people (below 29 years), making up less than 20% of own account workers. The bulk of people in own account work join between 30 – 39 years and these age cohorts stay largely stable over time.

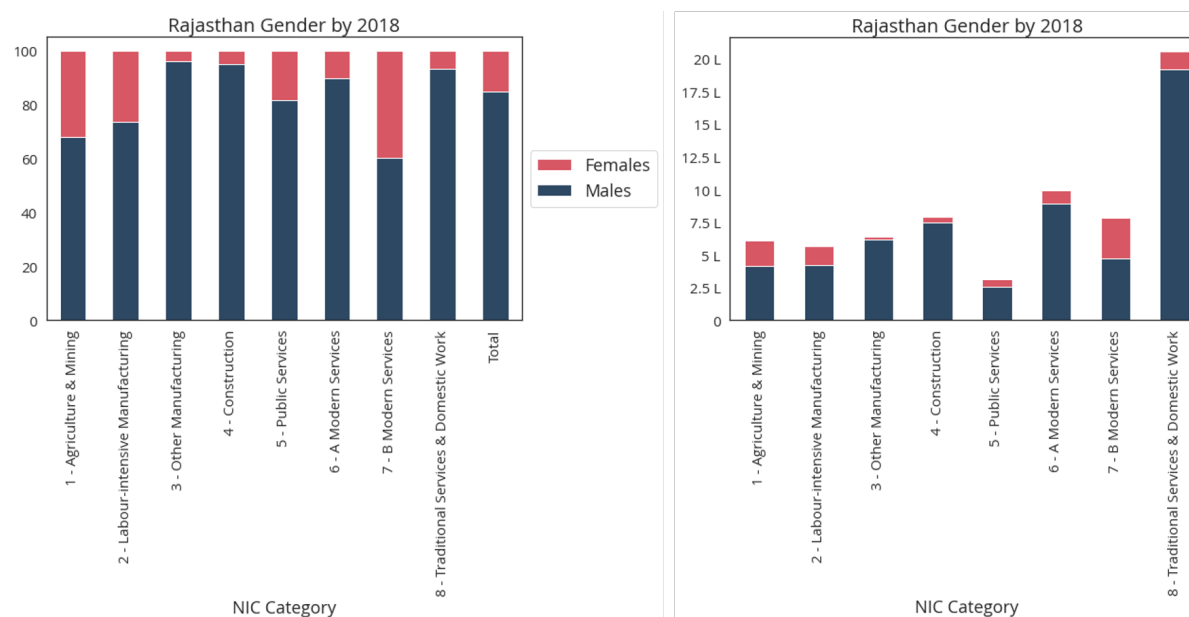
Casual wage work has higher youth shares (about 30 – 40% are below the age of 24 in 2004 and 2011). People usually stay in casual wage work across age brackets but there is a steeper drop off in the 50 – 59 age groups, perhaps indicating that people either retire or are physically unable to keep up with the nature of the work.

## ***National Industrial Classification (NIC)***

We have used the following NIC classifications:

1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
2. Mining and Quarrying
3. Labour-intensive Manufacturing
4. Other Manufacturing--more capital and tech intensive
5. Construction
6. Public Services (Electricity, Gas and Water Supply, Public Administration & Defence, Railways, National Postal Activities)
7. Traditional Services (Trade, Transport, Storage and Communication except above, Accommodation and Food services and Domestic Work)
8. Modern Services Part-A (Finance, Real Estate, Business, ICT, Office Activities, Personal, Social and Community Services except Domestic Work)
9. Modern Services Part-B (Health and Education)

## Industrial Classification by Gender

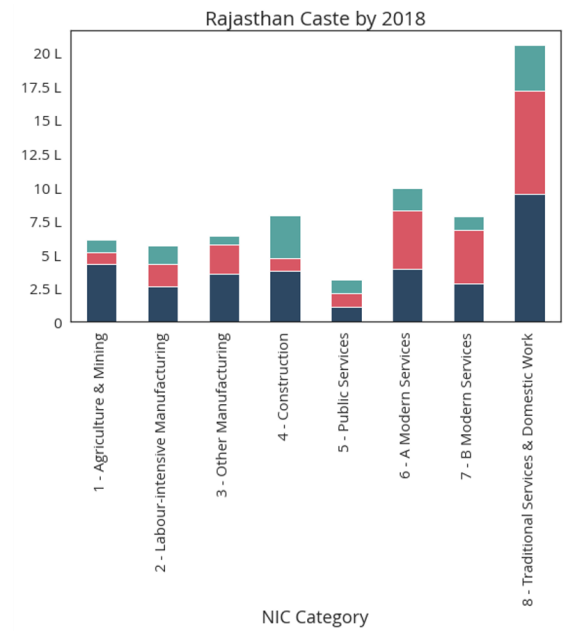
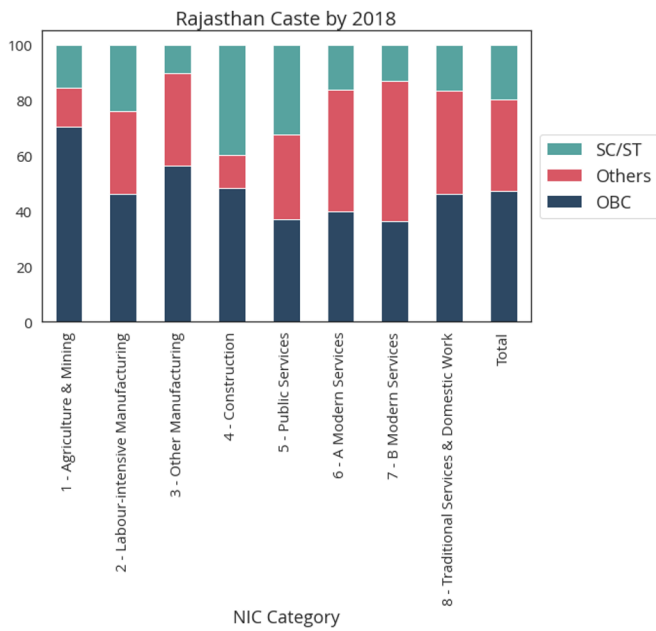


Women's share of work is highest in sectors like B – Modern Services, Agriculture & Mining and Labour Intensive Manufacturing. While the share of women workers remains less than 40% in most other industries, it is especially low (less than 5%) in Construction and Other Manufacturing sectors.

While the share of women working in Traditional Services is much lower than in Labour Intensive Manufacturing, the absolute numbers are comparable.

B- Modern Services which is made up of Health and Education sectors has the highest share of working women.

## Industrial Classification by Caste



OBCs have the largest shares in Agriculture and Mining, Other Manufacturing and Labour Intensive Manufacturing.

SC/STs have the highest share in Construction sector, followed by Public Services and Labour Intensive Manufacturing.

Other castes have the largest share in B-Modern Services and A- Modern Services.

## Industrial Classification by Age



Construction workers tend to work only until the age of 50, which has important implications for the design of social security for construction workers, particularly pensions, health insurance and old age support.

Public service jobs have a stable age cohort movement across the years, showing that people stay in these jobs across their life time. Youth shares are low since it takes education to gain access to these jobs. This is one of the few industries in which there is a large number of people working in 50 – 59 age group.

## Wages across Socio-Demographic Groups

| Regular Wage/Salaried (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|---|-------|-------|-------|
| India - Urban                                 | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| Male  | 3,546 | 4,738 | 4,577 |
| Female  | 2,644 | 3,691 | 4,697 |
| Person  | 3,373 | 4,533 | 4,632 |

| Casual Wage (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| India - Urban                       | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| Male                                | 1,119 | 1,687 | 1,843 |
| Female                              | 619   | 951   | 1,755 |
| Person                              | 1,009 | 1,554 | 1,801 |

| Regular Wage/Salaried (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|---|-------|-------|-------|
| Rajasthan - Urban                             | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| Male  | 3,234 | 4,318 | 4,549 |
| Female  | 2,793 | 4,403 | 4,648 |
| Person  | 3,171 | 4,330 | 4,593 |

| Casual Wage (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Rajasthan - Urban                   | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| Male                                | 1,060 | 1,892 | 1,889 |
| Female                              | 721   | 1,304 | 1,954 |
| Person                              | 1,014 | 1,806 | 1,921 |

On average, regular wage salary increased from 2004 to 2011 for both men and women, but men still earned about on average 1000 INR more than women at the national level differing from Rajasthan, where wages for men and women are similar.

At the India-Urban level, the average weekly regular wage salary decreased from 2011 to 2018 for men. Women's earnings increased from 2011 to 2018, however, it was still lower than the average weekly earnings of men in 2011.

On average, casual wage workers earn less than half of what regular salaried workers make per week.

In urban Rajasthan, casual wages for men stagnated from 2011 to 2018.

At the national level, the wage disparity across men and women is stark for casual wage earners, with women earning on average, 951 INR per week while men earned 1,687 INR per week. This disparity is less stark in Rajasthan.

## Wages across Caste Groups

| Regular Wage/Salaried (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|---|-------|-------|-------|
| India - Urban                                 | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| OBC   | 2,704 | 3,652 | 4,124 |
| Others  | 4,112 | 5,744 | 5,463 |
| SC/ST   | 2,559 | 3,469 | 3,760 |

| Casual Wage (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| India - Urban                       | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| OBC                                 | 1,031 | 1,636 | 1,856 |
| Others                              | 1,088 | 1,448 | 1,812 |
| SC/ST                               | 9,21  | 1,501 | 1,700 |

| Regular Wage/Salaried (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|---|-------|-------|-------|
| Rajasthan - Urban                             | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| OBC   | 2,903 | 3,035 | 4,356 |
| Others  | 3,984 | 5,450 | 5,211 |
| SC/ST   | 2,110 | 3,927 | 3,814 |

| Casual Wage (Average per week in ₹) |       |       |       |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Rajasthan - Urban                   | 2004  | 2011  | 2018  |
| OBC                                 | 1,114 | 1,943 | 2,070 |
| Others                              | 914   | 1,930 | 1,797 |
| SC/ST                               | 969   | 1,650 | 1,766 |

In both urban India and urban Rajasthan, SC/STs have the lowest regular and casual wages.

In urban Rajasthan, while there was a significant increase in casual wage from 2004 to 2011 (on average per week, about a 1000 INR increase across castes), there has been only a slight increase from 2011 to 2018 for SC/STs (on average per week, about a 100 INR increase).

Other castes have the highest regular wages per week.

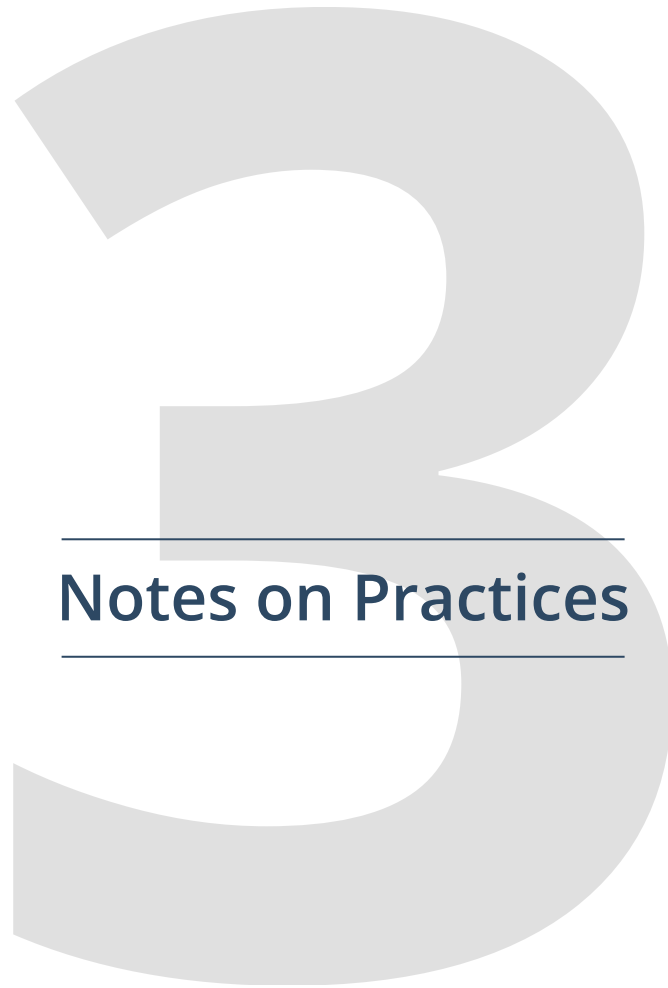
**Data analysis method notes:**

1. We classified the National Industrial Classification codes into the following sectoral categories:
  - Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
  - Mining and Quarrying
  - Labour-intensive Manufacturing
  - Other Manufacturing--more capital and tech intensive
  - Construction
  - Public Services (Electricity, Gas and Water Supply, Public Administration & Defence, Railways, National Postal Activities)
  - Traditional Services (Trade, Transport, Storage and Communication except above, Accommodation and Food services and Domestic Work)
  - Modern Services Part-A (Finance, Real Estate, Business, ICT, Office Activities, Personal, Social and Community Services except Domestic Work)
  - Modern Services Part-B (Health and Education)
2. We used Census population projection to inflate the samples in the NSS and PLFS data to be proportionate to the Census numbers<sup>2</sup>.
3. Regular wage and casual wage were adjusted using the consumer price index (CPI) ratios<sup>3</sup>, to make them comparable across different time periods.
4. Unless explicitly mentioned in the graphs, we have used usual primary status of work for this analysis.
5. To calculate unemployment rate and labour force participation rate, we used the formulas and activity statuses provided in the PLFS report .

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<sup>2</sup> Projection source: Technical committee on population projection

<sup>3</sup> Source: Labour bureau



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**Notes on Practices**

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### ***3.1 Childcare for informal workers***

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In India, it is estimated that more than 95% of working women are in the informal economy. This includes women undertaking wage-work, home-based work as well as those who are self-employed. By nature, informal work is labour-intensive, low paying and highly precarious without any form of social protection. One of the foremost challenges for women working informally is the lack of childcare solutions. Due to the challenge of earning an income and raising a child without access to quality childcare services, women workers often drop out from the labour force or risk losing out on much needed income by reducing their hours of paid work. They may also shift into more vulnerable and low-paid forms of self-employment – such as home-based work or street vending – that have more flexible arrangements to work and care for their children at the same time. In addition, migration to urban areas and demographic shifts are changing family structures, making it more difficult for women workers to rely on their families and kin for childcare. It is pertinent to take a look at specific risks and constraints women face due to their employment status, their place of work and gendered care responsibilities. Here we look at three specific pathways through which childcare needs of mothers working informally can be addressed:

#### ***1. Expansion of the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS)***

The ICDS is not just a welfare scheme but also a means of protecting the rights of children and their mothers. The primary mandate of the Anganwadi Centers (AWC) under the ICDS is to provide maternal and child nutritional security, a clean and safe environment and early childhood education for children. An unacknowledged benefit of a robust ICDS programme is to support women's ability to (re)enter the labor market post childbirth.

To benefit working mothers, the existing ICDS-AWC framework can be extended in the following ways:

- ***Early intake of children:***

The existing system focuses on development of children in the age group of 3-6 years, ignoring infants and toddlers. However, the need for childcare is felt the most by mothers in early years when the child cannot be left unattended. Early intake of children in the AWC can have dual benefits - first it will provide essential care support to mothers freeing their time for paid work, second it will converge with the mandate of the National Education Policy (NEP) 2020 that marks the importance and lack of quality Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) for 0-6 years for a child, especially for those from disadvantaged backgrounds that lack the resources and time to provide a conducive learning environment. This latter point is an important consideration as families often send their children to ill-equipped private pre-schools that are expensive, adding to their household expenditure without its rightful benefits.

- ***Extending AWC hours:***

In most states, the AWCs operate only four hours morning to afternoon. By extending its hours, AWCs will be able to reduce women's burden of childcare and increase their ability to engage in economic activities. Having childcare facilities is especially important for home-based or self-employed mothers whose homes also double up as place of work. The AWC timings have been extended in Karnataka with precisely this aim of supporting working mothers. We have examples of public childcare centres in other countries that were primarily designed for early child development but later evolved to meet the needs of working women as well through extending their working hours to be effective as day creche; this has shown results as well. Another problem

for working mothers is that they find it challenging to avail AWC services as they have to drop and pick up children in the midst of the work hours. At the same time, mothers are also unable to avail the take-home rations that are provided to pregnant women and households with younger children, as it would mean returning early from work. Extending AWC hours can address both. While the ICDS programme is reimagined to extend support to working mothers, it is critical that employment and working conditions of Anganwadi workers, who are also employed informally, are improved as well.

## ***2. Revitalizing the National Creche Scheme in Rajasthan***

While women in the organized sector can avail childcare facilities at the workplace, childcare needs of women in the unorganized sector still remains largely unaddressed. The National Creche Scheme (previously known as Rajiv Gandhi National Creche Scheme), which is now subsumed under the umbrella of ICDS programme, lays out provisions in this regard. It envisions creating safe spaces to provide group care for children usually up to 6 years of age, benefiting working mothers who need longer hours of childcare support or for those who prefer to have childcare support near their place of work. Across the country this scheme is facing challenges with diminished share of funding from the central government. The state of Rajasthan can take on the role to revive it with increased funding along with an inclusive approach to diverse worksite and working hours and improving on implementation gaps. There are two ways in which it can be implemented:

### **•Public creches:**

Public creches can be operated at central locations at clusters of work sites such as near industrial areas, natural markets, street markets, dense low-income residential areas, and labour nakas. Creches that are located at a walkable distance from the place of work can enable mothers to breastfeed their children when convenient. Proximity to the workplace also makes it easier for parents to attend in case of an emergency and pick up and bring their children to the creche. This model has been tested successfully by SEWA Sangini in some Indian cities.

### **•Worksite creches:**

In certain sectors where work occurs at a single site of work, such as a garment factory or at a construction site, worksite creches can fulfil childcare needs of households. There are several examples of experimenting with creche-like facilities at worksites. In India, NGOs like Aajeevika Bureau (Ahmedabad), Mobile Creches (Delhi) run creches at construction sites. These creches are especially important for migrant households that live temporarily at the worksite and find it difficult to access settlement level public infrastructure in the city. The construction sector is a case in point where the Building and Other Construction Workers (BOCW) Welfare Board mandates running of creches. The funds collected under the construction cess by the BOCW can be earmarked for running creches at construction sites.

Workplace creche models have also been tried in other countries. For example, in Durban, South Africa, a micro-childcare facility has been designed to suit vendors at Warwick Junction. The pop-up creche is locally managed by the community of women vending at the local market. In Ghana, the Accra Metropolitan Centre provides a space for a childcare center to accommodate the street vendors and market traders. The centre is run in collaboration with Ghana Association of Traders (GATA) and Parent Teacher Association which is led by the market executive leaders.

### ***3. Maternity Benefits to delay return to work post childbirth***

Childbirth and childcare puts financial stress on the household and this compels many women to return to work within a few weeks of childbirth. Unlike women in formal employment, who are entitled to paid maternity leave along with other maternity benefits to manage it, women in informal employment did not have any maternity benefits until the National Food Security Act 2013 (NFSA) entitled pregnant and lactating mothers to cash transfer of not less than rupees six thousand to ensure food and nutrition security for mother and child. Pradhan Mantri Matru Vandana Yojana (PMMVY) aims to meet this entitlement and provide compensation for wage loss due to pregnancy and childbirth. Under this, women are entitled to maternity benefits of Rs.5000, unless they already receive benefits as formal-sector employees. There is no other support aimed at maternity benefits for women in the informal economy. However, the PMMVY provides support only for the first 'living' child of the family and the real value of the benefit is much lower than the absolute amount. These concerns can be addressed in two ways:

***•Continued expansion of Indira Gandhi Maternity Nutrition scheme:***

In Rajasthan, the Indira Gandhi Maternity Nutrition scheme extends maternity protection for second childbirth as well. In the first phase of this program, it is being implemented in four tribal-dominated backward districts. This scheme must be extended to the rest of the state as well. There have been several State schemes to fill the gap in coverage of more pregnancies and child births with the objective for incentivising certain health-seeking behaviours; Mamta scheme of Odisha giving 5000 rupees for first two live births (6.1 lakh in 2017-18), Kasturba Yojana of Gujarat giving 6000 rupees to all births for BPL women, and CG Kaushalya Maternity scheme of Chhattisgarh giving 5000 rupees if the second birth is of a female child. The Dr. Muthulakshmi Maternity Benefit scheme of Tamil Nadu is the most expansive and ambitious in its entitlements; giving eighteen thousand rupees in cash and kind for two live births (5.8 lakhs in 2016-17), along with Amma baby care kit scheme giving a kit worth Rs.1000 with products that a new born may require immediately.

***•Increasing the amount of cash transfers under maternity schemes:***

The cash transfers under the PMVY is insufficient, as per both evaluations on ground and the NFSA benchmark, and for both nutrition needs and wage compensation. On ground evaluations report that the compensation, which is lower than the minimum wages, hasn't been adequate in postponing return to work for the first six months of child. The amount also doesn't match an inflation adjusted NFSA benchmark, which would stand at nearly Rs. 9400 in 2022. The example of the largest beneficiary amount for maternity protection in an Indian state stands at Rs.18000.

## ***Summary***

Much has been written about the abysmally low female labour force participation rates in India. Several social conditions and gendered norms, familial and childcare responsibilities prevent women from entering the labour force. It has been well-documented that increasing investment in childcare support can give a huge impetus to adding more women to the labour market. While women in the formal sector benefit from maternity leave and access to childcare infrastructure, less attention has been paid addressing the concerns around childcare support for women working across informal sectors. Addressing this will enable women to take up more productive paid work and also substantially improve their maternal and child health outcomes by delaying post-pregnancy return to work, and simultaneously facilitating their return to work when possible. In this backdrop, we propose three pathways, (a) extension of the ICDS infrastructure, (b) revitalizing national creche schemes to run creches at or near the place of work and (c) support in the form of improved maternity benefits -- that will address working mothers' concerns around lack of childcare infrastructure and the burden of bearing disproportionate share of being primary caregivers to their children.

## ***3.2 Universal Slum Upgrading***

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Slum upgrading refers to the in-situ regularisation and improvement of an urban community. Its first contribution is to give secure tenure to residents, either through collective or individual titling. Its second impact is to improve settlement level services (water, sanitation, drainage, roads, street lighting, and access to public spaces). Upgrading does not focus on improving individual housing units although, globally, it is seen that households use their private savings towards over time towards improving their dwelling unit once the settlement is given secure tenure.

Upgrading has been recognised as the single most effective means of transforming vulnerable urban neighbourhoods at scale and at low cost. It not only improves human development outcomes for workers and their families but also increases real wages by reducing costs of everyday life, particularly the high costs working poor households pay for access to urban infrastructure and services. The UN-Habitat recommends upgrading as its primary urban policy measure towards inclusive and affordable housing. In India, Odisha has recently launched a state-wide land titling and slum upgradation mission - termed JAGA Mission<sup>1</sup>. Punjab has passed a similar state-wide act<sup>2</sup>.

Slum upgrading is key for workers on multiple grounds – the quality of work is intricately tied to the quality of housing and ease of living. Networks that underlie informal livelihoods are entrenched in areas proximate to where informal workers live<sup>3</sup>. The quality of housing also affects productivity, even more so in sectors where home spatially and infrastructurally aids work, viz. home-based work, industrial outworkers, street vendors, waste pickers among others who partly or completely carry out their work in spaces within or adjacent to their homes.

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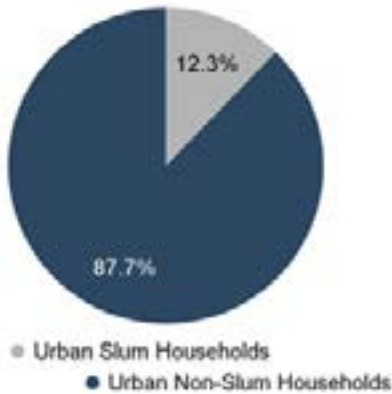
1 Odisha Land Rights to Slum Dwellers Act 2017 awarded land rights to urban slum dwellers in Odisha, giving transfer rights to the extent of mortgageability and transfer by inheritance.

2 The Punjab Slum Dwellers (Proprietary Rights) Act, 2020 was very similar to the Odisha Land Rights Act in terms of the transfer rights and size of plots.

3 Studies conducted by IHS in Jaipur demonstrate that domestic workers live in close proximity to where they work, most of them making multiple trips to the houses they work in.

**Scope: Slums in Urban Rajasthan**

A sizable proportion of urban residents in Rajasthan reside in settlements with inadequate conditions of physical, social and economic infrastructure, and of tenure security. 12.13% of Rajasthan’s urban population (12.26% of urban households) live in slums alone. To make Rajasthan slum-free, the quality of housing in these slums should be improved by making existing housing viable and adequate, while maintaining its affordability and sustaining existing networks of livelihood that residents depend on.

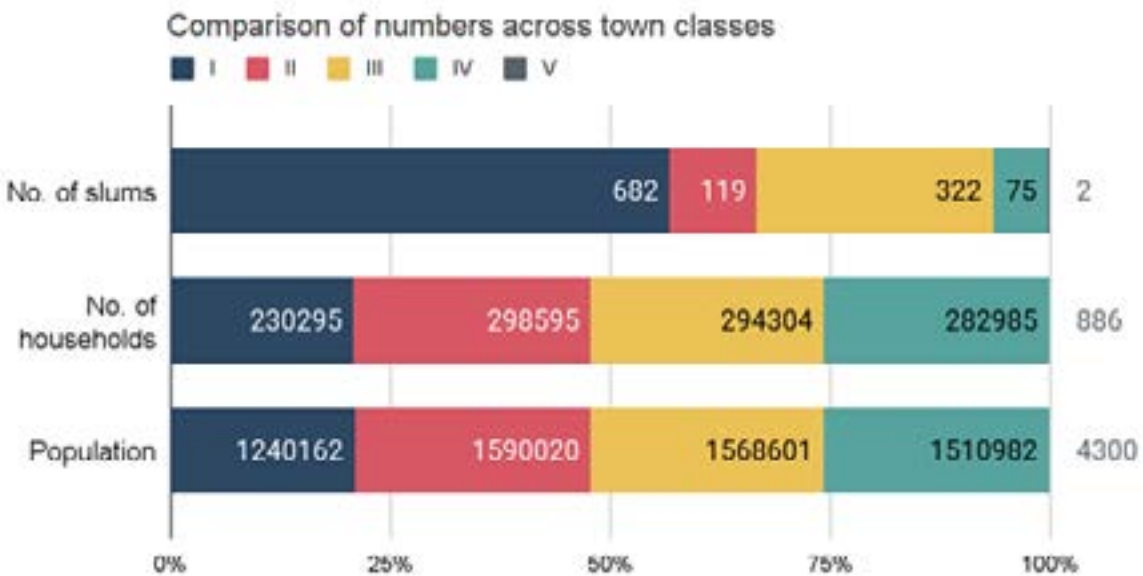


The 2011 census lists a total of about 1200 slums in urban Rajasthan, with a total population of 2.06 million individuals (3.94 lac households). A slum upgradation project of this coverage will target the most vulnerable housing conditions across the state, which may also be replicated in other types of informal settlements like unauthorised colonies, urban villages, or dilapidated inner or old city areas where upgrading meets conservation and urban repair.

1200 slums

394,391 households

2,068,000 individuals



The instant imagination of the “slum” is to think of them as a metropolitan, big city phenomena. Yet the breakdown of these numbers across town classes shows that while about 57% of slums fall under class I, Class II and III towns together account for about 37% of the slums.

This distinction across towns becomes all the more significant in terms of the slum households and population. Only about 20% of the slum population is covered in Class I towns. Slums in Class II, III and IV towns each make for about 26% of slum population, making it a total of 78% slum population in these towns.

This is an important finding. Smaller urban centres do not have the same pressures on land markets as metropolitan areas, making a large-scale upgrading scheme viable. Odisha adopted a similar strategy under their Jaga mission: providing land rights and upgrading slums in municipal and notified area councils first, and using this experience as a learning opportunity to then go on to upgrade slums in municipal corporations. Rajasthan has an opportunity here to target 78% of its slum population by upgrading 37% of the total slums in the state. It has a chance, in other words, to work from the outside in, de-centering Jaipur and the state’s larger cities as the programme finds its feet.

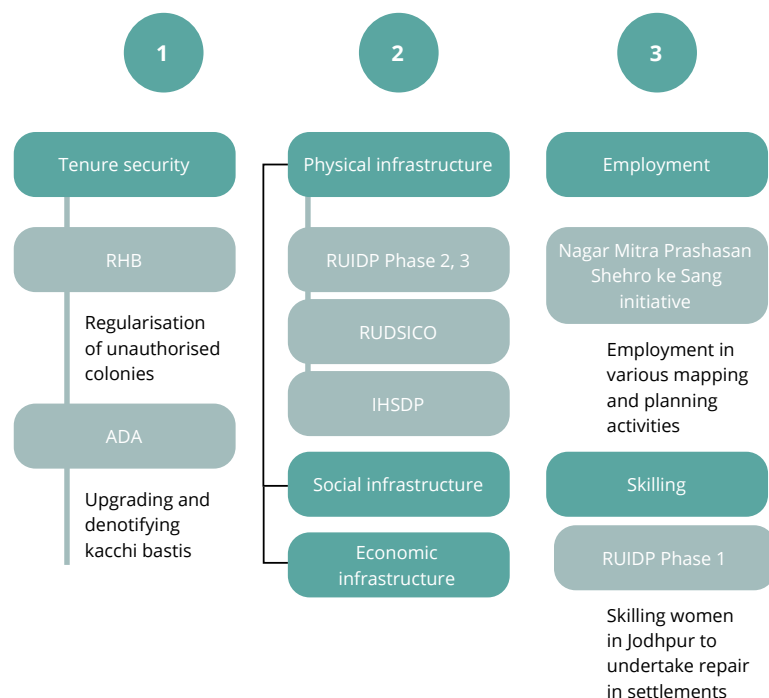
**Solution**

A programme addressing the following should be undertaken:

1. Provision of tenure security
2. In-situ upgradation improving the quality of access to physical, social and economic infrastructure
3. Creating opportunities of employment and skilling.

Rajasthan already has a series of multiple programmes that have allied goals. The approach here would be to create a statewide urban mission encompassing the programmes already in place, and introducing key new features, viz. Creation of social and economic infrastructure in response to community requirements; ensuring security of tenure through regularisation, and bolstering informal livelihood through employment and skilling opportunities. We are, in essence, suggesting a combination of Universal Slum Upgrading with a Community Works Programme (See section 3.3).

**Slum Upgradation + Community Works Programme**



## *Examples of Slum Upgrading*

### **Odisha:**

Odisha Land Rights to Slum Dwellers Act 2017 awarded land rights to urban slum dwellers in Odisha, giving transfer rights to the extent of mortgageability and transfer by inheritance. This was followed by the Jaga Mission which ensured upgradation and improvement of these slums in consultation with residents.



*Open space development and community toilet restoration at slum Ishaneswara in Bhubaneswar Municipal Corporation*



*Paver blocks laid for road development in slums of Hinjilicut*

### **Punjab:**

The Punjab Slum Dwellers (Proprietary Rights) Act, 2020 was very similar to the Odisha Land Rights Act in terms of the transfer rights and size of plots. It also followed this process by in situ upgradation.

### **Ahmedabad:**

The Slum Networking Programme, or Parivartan, is a model for a city level upgrading programme that covered 44 slums across the city with tenure and service upgradation at scale, with municipality working in partnership with communities and civil society actors.

**Similar international programmes:**

[Baan Mankong, Klong Bang Bua, Thailand](#): Collective leasehold rights on land

[Community Land Trust, Puerto Rico](#): Collective leasehold rights on land

[Land Titling Program, Lima, Peru](#): Individual ownership rights

**Components of a Universal Slum Upgrading Mission****1. Regularisation**

Regularise slum through collective or individual titles/pattas, leasehold or freehold. It has been demonstrated in examples across India, and similar global contexts, that tenure security significantly reduces the vulnerabilities of the urban poor. It opens up avenues for accessing formal networks, and positively affects intergenerational mobility.

**2. Redesign and build physical, social, economic infrastructure**

The settlement should be improved in terms of basic infrastructure and common spaces. Since different settlements typically have different needs, identification of specific kinds of infrastructure, as well as their design and possible locations should be done in consultation with the residents. The expertise of local representatives and NGOs should be leveraged for these consultations. Some illustrative examples under each head are listed in the table below.

| Physical Infrastructure  | Social Infrastructure   | Economic Infrastructure   |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Water</li> <li>• Sanitation</li> <li>• Drainage</li> <li>• Electricity</li> <li>• Street Lighting</li> <li>• Waste Disposal</li> <li>• Roads and transport</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Healthcare (Dispensary/ PHC/ Hospital)</li> <li>• Education (Govt schools, anganwadi)</li> <li>• PDS</li> <li>• Community centres</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Natural markets</li> <li>• Street redesign to hold vending</li> <li>• Skill centres</li> <li>• SME warehouses</li> <li>• Community workspaces</li> </ul> |

The construction and improvement of infrastructure is a site to bring in the Community Works Programme (see section 3.3) and create new employment.

**3. Break poverty cycle**

The upgradation should be followed up with income support, basic income grants to families and small loans. Community Works Programme is a good opportunity to do so. It should be sustained by strengthening settlement specific economic infrastructure towards fostering existing modes of livelihood in the settlement.

**4. Denotify upgraded settlements**

Once the slums are upgraded, they should be denotified from the slum list. This is critical to ensure that residents may be integrated into formal networks, notably formal banking and access to networked infrastructure, the absence of which markedly impede growth and security in livelihood and earning.

### ***5. Local employment and skilling***

Systems must be set in place to ensure that local residents are equipped to undertake operation and maintenance of this infrastructure, and find employment in the same. An example of this is what RUIDP Phase 1 has already implemented in Jodhpur. Women were trained as plumbers and other trades, and they undertook repairs in the settlement once it underwent water and sanitation upgradation. Another example is the Nagar Mitra component of the Prashasan Shehro ke Sang initiative. Individuals trained at ITI were enrolled as 'nagar mitra' for a fee, to aid making layout plans, making and conversion of pattas, map existing land use patterns, etc.

### ***Key advantages***

- Low capital expenditure, chiefly on upgradation of common spaces and basic infrastructure.
- Targets low income communities and elevates them from vulnerabilities through provision of secure tenure.
- Builds critical infrastructure near and for the urban poor, also providing employment and skilling for local residents.
- Local and participatory governance mobilises communities and builds their capacity.
- Targets slums in Class II and III towns pre-empting overcrowding in future, and devising model planning that is informed from ground requirements.

### 3.3 Community Works Programme

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#### *The Core Idea*

Community Works Programmes (CWP) are globally known as an effective, meso-scale public employment programmes, i.e. labour-intensive investments that seek to generate opportunities for work. CWPs combine community infrastructure provision with employment generation, skilling, and provide base living wage support to workers. They share, in some ways, features and aims of NREGA but are, in keeping with the reality of urban labour markets, designed and scaled differently. They value both outcomes – generation of work-days and needed community infrastructure – equally, and both contribute to improving real wages of informal workers as well as increase their ease of living.

Community Infrastructure is an umbrella term for small scale infrastructure and services that are low on capex costs (most <Rs 10L, some <Rs 25L, max Rs 50L) and are locally designed, built and managed, and easily accessible. These are spatially targeted to vulnerable neighbourhoods and public places that have concentrations of informal workers such as natural markets, landfills and transport interchanges. CWPs can be combined with slum upgrading (See section 3.2), economic infrastructure for the informal economy (3.6), creating child care infrastructure for working mothers and their children (3.1), skill training and enterprise building programmes (see vision 4) as well as urban planning for the informal economy (3.5). They are, in a sense, an ideal integrating scheme.

It is important that as discussions of an “urban NREGA” become more common across the country, CWPs represent a way to incrementally move towards a broader and larger urban employment guarantee. Odisha, Jharkhand, Chattisgarh and Tamil Nadu have all recently launched urban wage employment programmes post COVID-19 as a recovery measure for urban workers. However, it is worth asking why such programmes should not be a permanent feature of urban policy and governance, especially after seeing the extent and degree of vulnerability in urban areas that the pandemic has made evident.

Examples of CWP Projects

The range of projects could include:

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Economic:</b> Expanded natural markets, street redesign, skill centres, SME warehouses, community workspaces.</li> <li>• <b>Health:</b> Primary Health Centres, dispensaries</li> <li>• <b>Social:</b> Multi-purpose community centres, public creches</li> <li>• <b>Transport:</b> Para transit infrastructure, street redesign</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Environmental:</b> Lake rejuvenation, urban farming, renewable energy, waste management</li> <li>• <b>Governmental:</b> Government service extension workers, care workers.</li> <li>• <b>Housing:</b> Upgraded slums, Migrant worker hostels, Shelters</li> <li>• <b>Services:</b> Decentralized sewerage and waste management systems, public sanitation, rainwater harvesting</li> </ul> |
|---|---|

To give a sense of costs, project type and the person days of work generated, four kinds of CWP projects are illustrated below. One is the social infrastructure (Multi-Purpose Community Centre); the second a service infrastructure (a decentralized DEWAT system for waste management); the third a transport infrastructure (construction of bicycle lanes); and the fourth a health infrastructure (local, community health and quarantine facilities). In each, we give an example of the project, mark person days in building it as well as in operating it.



Kali Bari Settlement, Project: Renu Khosla/ CURE

### Multi-Purpose Community Centres

|                 |   |
|-----------------|---|
| Build Cost      | Mini: Rs 1.2L<br>Medium: Rs 3L  |
| Category        | Community Infrastructure  |
| Locations:      | Resettlement Colonies, E-H Unauthorised Colonies, DUSIB JJ Clusters, Urban Villages |
| Build Workdays: | Mini: 60<br>Medium: 150   |
| Time Period:    | Mini: 0.5 months<br>Medium: 0.8 months  |



Social Design Collab, Swati Janu for Yamuna Khadar

### Cluster Septic Tank/DEWATS

|                 |   |
|-----------------|---|
| Build Cost      | Rs 40L  |
| Category        | WASH Infrastructure   |
| Locations:      | Low income urban communities, can be part of slum upgrading |
| Build Workdays: | 2500  |
| Time Period:    | 5.6 months  |



Savda Ghevra, Project : Renu Khosla / CURE

### Bicycle and Pedestrian Friendly Streets



|                 |                          |
|-----------------|--------------------------|
| Build Cost      | Rs 25L for 5km           |
| Category        | Transport Infrastructure |
| Locations:      | Roads, Streets           |
| Build Workdays: | 1250                     |
| Time Period:    | 5.2 months               |



### Community Quarantine and Health Facilities

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| Build Cost   | 12 beds: Rs 7L<br>25 beds: Rs 14L                       |
| Category     | Health Infrastructure                                   |
| Locations:   | Ward/AC level, Community level for dense neighbourhoods |
| Workdays:    | 208   |
| Time Period: | 1.6 months  |

Isolation and Treatment Centre Design, IHS.  
Team Lead: Swastik Harish

## Fiscal Estimations

If we took these projects illustrated above, the given table shows the person days, and costs associated with building and operating.

| All figures are in Lacs; Avg wage: Rs 800/day; Time in months        | Build  |               |             |           |             | Operate |               |             |           |             |
|--|--------|---------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|---------|---------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
|  | Outlay | Material Cost | Labour Cost | Work days | Time period | Outlay  | Material Cost | Labour Cost | Work days | Time period |
| Health Infrastructure  |        |               |             |           |             |         |               |             |           |             |
| Community Quarantine: 10-15 beds                                     | 5.8    | 3.5           | 2.3         | 288       | 1.6         | 0.7     | 0.1           | 0.6         | 69        | 12          |
| Community Quarantine: 25 beds  | 12.0   | 6.0           | 6.0         | 750       | 4.2         | 1.4     | 0.3           | 1.2         | 144       | 12          |
| WASH Infrastructure  |        |               |             |           |             |         |               |             |           |             |
| DEWATS Systems/ FSTP for ~300 HH                                     | 40.0   | 20.0          | 20.0        | 2,500     | 5.6         | 36.0    | 7.2           | 28.8        | 3,600     | 36          |
| DEWATS Systems/ FSTP for ~100 HH                                     | 15.0   | 9.0           | 6.0         | 750       | 1.7         | 27.0    | 5.4           | 21.6        | 2,700     | 36          |
| Transport Infrastructure   |        |               |             |           |             |         |               |             |           |             |
| Bike and Walking Lanes for 5km                                       | 25.0   | 15.0          | 10.0        | 1,250     | 5.2         | 7.5     | 1.5           | 6.0         | 750       | 60          |
| Community Infrastructure   |        |               |             |           |             |         |               |             |           |             |
| Multi Purpose Centre: Anganwadi, Health, Schooling, Testing (mini)   | 1.2    | 0.7           | 0.5         | 60        | 0.5         | 0.4     | 0.1           | 0.3         | 43        | 36          |
| Multi Purpose Centre: Anganwadi, Health, Schooling, Testing (medium) | 3.0    | 1.8           | 1.2         | 150       | 0.8         | 1.1     | 0.2           | 0.9         | 108       | 36          |

In different combinations, this implies that the scheme could generate valuable infrastructure as well as urban employment for as little as Rs 50 crores, as shown in the table below. It could be scaled as needed, especially in combination with other practices like slum upgrading and building economic infrastructure for the informal economy. The scheme has the added advantage of being suitable for all sizes of urban settlements, being valuable in a Class III and IV town as much as in a metropolitan region.

| Total Outlay | No of Projects | Total Workdays |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| Rs 50 cr     | ~300           | ~2.5L          |
| Rs 100 cr    | ~700           | ~5L            |
| Rs 200 cr    | ~1500          | ~10L           |

### ***Who would do what?***

CWPs can be designed in different ways, with the principle that the more decentralized and participatory the scheme, the more likely it is to be effective and also localize the positive effects of both generated work opportunities as well as of the adoption and maintenance of the newly built infrastructure. Schematically, the range of stakeholders would minimally include:

- **Government** creates mission and dedicated programme management team, provides space (built up or land) directly or through lease agreements, capex for building community infrastructure, opex for wages, information, models and technical support.
- **Local communities** co-produce, design, participate, use, maintain and adopt infrastructure as partners.
- **Workers and Small Contractors** join to build and maintain infrastructure in exchange for assured wages. Can be full time or in terms of fixed number of days of work like NREGA.
- **Worker organisations** could help skill, network and bring workers to the Mission.
- **Universities and technical skill training institutes** would use this as a chance to train.
- **Experts** would volunteer technical knowledge and design.
- **Worker organisations, community groups, NGOs** could adopt infrastructure to govern, maintain and manage it medium term.

### 3.4 Universal Benefit Package

**Background:** The Social Security Minimum Convention, prescribed by ILO in 1952 recommends social security benefits comprising of protective and promotive benefits such as medical care, sickness benefit, unemployment benefit, old-age benefit, employment injury benefit, family benefit with respect to provisioning of children, food, housing and holidays, maternity benefit, invalidity benefit i.e. disability benefit and survivors benefit i.e. dependent benefit to all workers. Formal employees get covered for most of these benefits as part of Employees' State Insurance Corporation (ESIC) and Employees' Provident Fund Organization (EPFO). The ESIC and EPFO entitlements are available to all formal employees in theory, however the coverage of the two schemes is very dismal (Duggal, 2015). The details of the benefits are listed in the table below.

By definition, informal workers remain out of the social security benefits. It becomes further difficult to guarantee work security benefits (protection against accidents and illness at work places) given the employer – employee relationships are not clearly defined. Construction welfare boards have been fairly progressive in providing a bunch of entitlements to building and construction workers. The construction welfare boards of various states have made significant progress in guaranteeing social security entitlements. The entitlements provided through the welfare boards along with the centrally sponsored schemes cover a wide range of social security benefits. The details of these benefits are listed in the table below.

|                      | Formal employees | Construction workers                                   |
|----------------------|------------------|--|
| Medical Benefit      | ESIC             | Ayushman Bharat Yojana / Chiranjeevi Yojana            |
| Dependent Benefit    | ESIC             | PM Jeevan Jyoti Bima Yojana                            |
| Disablement Benefit  | ESIC             | PM Suraksha Bima Yojana                                |
| Maternity Benefit    | ESIC             | Welfare Board  |
| Pension              | EPFO             | Atal Pension Yojana                                    |
| Sickness Benefit     | ESIC             | Welfare Board provides for insurance against silicosis |
| Old age medical care | ESIC             | -  |
| Accidental Insurance | -                | Welfare Board  |
| Education Benefit    | -                | Welfare Board  |
| Housing Benefit      | -                | Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana                             |
| Skill development    | ESIC             | Welfare Board  |

**Scope:** We propose on extending a minimum set of social security entitlements to all informal workers to ensure parity. The delivery system for this package can be designed by aligning with new worker registration systems such as E-shram portal, labour welfare centres, etc. The delivery of the benefit package can start by targeting selected worker sectors and then expanding to all work categories. The selection of social security benefits will be based on the following key principles:

- Suturing – Ensuring delivery of entitlements that are already a part of existing social security schemes for workers. Schemes such as PM Jeevan Jyoti Beema Yojana, Atal Pension Yojana, Ayushman Bharat have been targeting informal workers for dependent benefits, pension benefits and medical benefits respectively. These should be further strengthened as part of the benefits package for the selected worker categories.
- Transplantation – Expanding entitlements provided to a particular sector to other work categories. For instance, credit schemes such as SVANidhi scheme have been framed for street vendors and the process can be transplanted to other worker groups.
- Translocation – Expanding entitlements of one geography to other locations. There are states that have shown significant progress in delivery of maternity benefits to informal women workers. Precedents can be used to take these entitlements with contextualization of delivery processes to other locations.
- Ease of applicability – Most informal workers find it difficult to produce documents for availing the benefits of entitlements. The delivery of the package will incorporate multiple ways of availing these entitlements such as online application, labour welfare centres, unions or through community validations.

**Solutions:** We recommend to launch a universal benefit package comprising of social security benefits for all workers. It is comparatively simpler to deliver social security benefits such as medical benefits, maternity benefits and dependent benefits to workers rather than work security benefits such as sickness benefit, accidental insurance or pension where recognition of employer is the key. However, applying the principle of suturing we propose to keep work security benefit such as pension that the State has already designed and implemented for informal workers as part of schemes such as Atal Pension Yojana and PM Shram Yogi Maan Dhan Yojana.

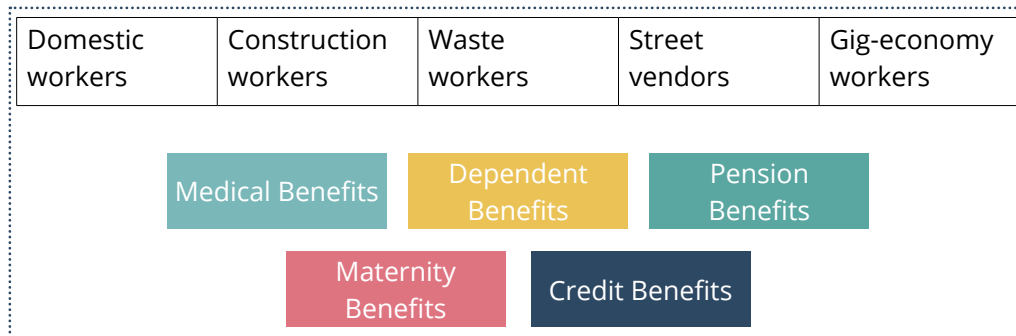
We propose to pick five key sectors; domestic workers, construction workers, waste workers, street vendors and gig-economy workers comprising of about x% of workforce of the state and provide them with an integrated package of benefits. This package of benefit can comprise of protective benefits such as medical benefits, dependent benefits, pension benefits, maternity benefits and promotive benefits such as credit support. Medical benefits, dependent benefits and pension benefits are already a part of existing schemes and can be specifically targeted to selected worker sectors for targeted 100% coverage. Medical benefits are promised to all workers as part of the central scheme, Ayushman Bharat (which is the national level health insurance scheme) and Chireenjavi Yojana, which is available to all residents of the state of Rajasthan. Dependent benefits are extended to all workers as part of PM Suraksha Beema Yojana and PM Jeevan Jyoti Beema Yojana. Both these schemes are available to all savings account holders with a minimum premium amount. These schemes are social protection schemes as they are available irrespective of the work status of an individual.

Various pension schemes are launched by the State to support informal workers. PM Shram Yogi Maan Dhan Yojana is particularly launched for specified worker groups, earning less than a defined amount. Atal Pension Yojana is a scheme that is available as a contributory savings scheme for all

bank account holders who are not paying income tax. Most informal workers get covered in this definition. Further, there are also state schemes such as Garima Yojana in Odisha and Samajik Suraksha Yojana in West Bengal for provisioning of pension to sanitation workers. We propose integration of the selected worker categories as part of these schemes.

Maternity benefits exist in the form of Janani Suraksha Yojana, in which incentives are provided for institutional deliveries and PM Matru Vandana Yojana, where cash transfer is provided to pregnant and lactating women. These central schemes do not directly compensate for the loss of pay due to maternity. There are some state specific schemes such as Mamta scheme in Odisha and those of domestic welfare boards in Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra that do provide cash transfer to pregnant women. The maternity benefit, as part of the package can include a cash transfer against loss of income for all informal women workers.

Including credit benefit as part of the package will ensure that there is atleast one promotive benefit as part of the package. We have applied the principle of transplantation for picking credit benefit. Credit schemes have been existing for street vendors as part of SVANidhi Yojana since 2020. The entitlement and the process can be transplanted to other selected worker categories.



### **Components**

**Selection of entitlements** - The five entitlements that are selected as part of the Universal Benefit Package can be integrated for ease of applicability and delivery to the selected worker categories. These entitlements can be gradually expanded to include the recommended list of entitlements from ILO in order to bring parity between all workers.

**Selection of work categories** - The worker categories can also be expanded depending on the demand from various worker groups in the State.

**Delivery** - The package can be integrated with existing delivery platforms such as E-shram or labour welfare centres. Workers can apply for the package and the integration of entitlements can be managed at the backend. The process can be eased out for workers where separate follow-ups may not be required and they are able to access the entire basket of social security benefits.

### 3.5 Planning for informal economy

Master Plans in Indian cities rarely meaningfully reference informal workers. Where limited acknowledgment does exist, it is not followed by what planning is meant to offer: recognition of presence, meaningful representation in a form of urban governance, and equitable access to space, resources and infrastructure. In short: the opportunity to both flourish in, and make, cities. Engaging with informal work means understanding the terms of recognition – how informal workers are seen in the plan, how their work practices are understood and acknowledged as well as how their current and future practices can be anticipated and addressed.

This note suggests ways in which planning can and must engage with informal work in the city. There are two aspects of this practice:

- **First:** Formal logics of planning must eliminate tensions with the regulatory mechanisms for informality to flourish.
- **Second:** It must use spatial allocations within the master plan that enable diverse forms of work to flourish.

This practice will therefore focus on the ways in which some part of these structural inadequacies can be addressed within planning with appropriate forms of spatial regulation, infrastructure provision, as well as governance and processes that recognize and support informal work instead of trying to ignore it, at best, and criminalise it, at worst. In this brief note, we offer six types of planning practices that take us to this goal. Within each, we offer brief examples. Figure 1 summarises.

Figure: At a Glance: Examples of Planning Practices for Informal work

|                                     |  |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Work in Public Space                | Complete Streets<br>Vending Zones  |
| Planning Time                       | Temporal Use Permits<br>Temporary Infrastructure   |
| Building Support Infrastructure     | Multi-Purpose Community Centres  |
| Spatial Reservations                | Expanding Space for Work<br>Influence Zones<br>Integrating Work into Planning Typologies |
| Integrating Work and Housing        |  |
| Building Sustainable Infrastructure |  |

Before we detail these, one final note: planning has not known how to engage with informality. No expertise will suddenly emerge to change this unless planning practice seeks not just to acknowledge and include, but to really engage, learn from and co-produce plans with workers themselves. The city is co-produced by workers through their presence, practices and claims. The Plan must also be. An essential component of this practice is therefore to involve various worker groups in order for them to actively engage and co-produce the plan.

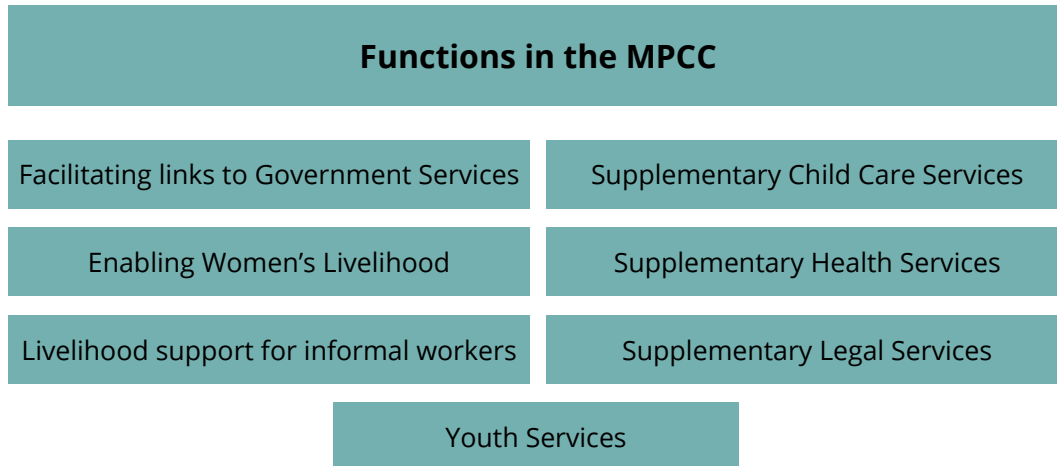
## Practices

1. **Work in public spaces:** Most informal work takes place in public spaces. Street vendors, waste workers, para-transit workers and many more actively use public spaces for their work. Planning must both recognise the presence of workers in public spaces, adjust planning norms that criminalise their presence, and plan to anticipate and accommodate them. Such accommodation for vending, for example, could include:
  - a. **Complete streets:** Multi-utility zones (MUZ) are the key feature in the design of Complete Streets that accommodate informal employment, with the width of the zone according nature of the street as well its land use (predominantly commercial or residential, for example) and other locational factors (use intensity).
  - b. **Flexible Vending Zones:** Vending zones remain incomplete experiments in Indian cities. Through Town Vending Committees and engagement with vendors, existing spaces of vending (streets, natural markets); new dedicated, distributed spaces of vending in zones; as well as recognition of mobile vendors, can be designed, and then supported with adequate infrastructure including storage facilities, sanitation and access to child care.
  
2. **Spatial reservations:** Informal work requires both discrete spatial allocations to ensure that workers who are a majority of all employment have sufficient access to city space; as well as diffused spatial allocations that allows them to retain the flexibility and location specificity of already existing informal work practices. In other words, like Master Plans reserve space for industrial use, it must do so for informal work. For this, we recommend:
  - a. **2.1 Expanding Space for Work:** Planning's power to mandate spatial reservations for the use of land must be used to create new economic geographies and markets for informal work sectors and enterprises. These include natural markets, vending zones, MSME clusters, recycling clusters, among others. A new zoning category for informal work could be considered.
  - b. **2.2 Influence Zones:** Home-based work clusters in particular areas near high density residential zones as well as industrial clusters. Influence zones can accommodate and acknowledge such work, and use flexible norms to balance work and shelter in these areas.
  - c. **2.3 Integrating Work into Planning Typologies:** Single use zoning practices discourage compact, vibrant neighbourhoods and reduce space for work. Specific mixed use norms that acknowledge and regularise informal work and enterprise within existing and new residential layouts will enable regulation for safety and improvements in infrastructure.

3. Planning time: The innovative part of informal work is its ability to extract maximum value out of minimal resources. Learning from informal workers is to know the value of partitioning and planning time as well as space, in order to retain flexible yet sustainable forms of urban practice. Allowing access at particular time is a way to maximise the use of land for employment, even without ownership or permanent construction. We recommend:
  - a. Temporal Use Permits: Such permits allow specific use for a period of time without permanent occupation or ownership. Assigning temporal use permits to vendors within public parks, to farmers for urban agriculture on vacant plots, to shifting natural markets, or even for storage for limited periods in public buildings could all be examples of time based permissions.
  - b. Temporary Infrastructure: The experience of building temporary hospitals as well as quarantine centres during COVID-19 has shown the possibilities of flexible and temporary infrastructures to support informal work and workers, especially when existing norms do not permit permanent construction.
  
4. Sustainable infrastructure support: Informal work in many sectors is connected to the design, scale and form of particular urban infrastructure systems. Enabling informal work means thinking of these both as material and resource systems as well as spaces of work. New imaginations of sustainable infrastructure that are specifically interested in labour-rich, decentralized and ecologically resilient forms of distributed infrastructure are well suited to think also about informal work and planning. Specific spatial allocation for paratransit vehicles, influence zones for economic activities around intersections, waste recycling centres can be some examples.

We detail this infrastructure in the note on Economic Infrastructure for the Informal Economy (see Section 3.6). Here, we emphasize that planning must accommodate such infrastructure spatially in its norms, spatial allocations and development control regulations.

5. Building support infrastructure: Informal workers disproportionately require such support infrastructure, and require it to be in public space, accessible to where they work. This ranges from the much-discussed public toilets to newer forms of support infrastructure that is produced at scale to recognize the lifeworlds of a majority of the city's workers including community livelihood spaces, public creches and breastfeeding stations, as well as re-imagined multi-purpose centres at different city scales. This will partly stem from the practice of creating economic infrastructure for the informal economy. One specific such infrastructure is illustrated here:
  - a. Multi-Purpose Community Centre: Current imaginations of social infrastructure in planning are a familiar list: dispensaries, public toilets, health centres, anganwadis, community halls. These must be retained and expanded. However, two shifts in imagining them are required. One, support infrastructure must also support economic needs of workers including space to work, store goods safely, meet other workers, and care and nurse for their children. Two, specific spatial allocations are required alongside spatial norms at different scales for such infrastructure.



6. Integrating work and housing: If planning is to engage with informal workers, it cannot do so only in what is considered as their workplace without recognizing the deep deficits they face in other parts of their urban life. Specific to planning's jurisdiction in this is housing and access to basic services. Without broader and more universal access to tenure security, adequate and diverse forms of housing, basic services, and protection from evictions, informal workers will continue to be denied opportunities to flourish regardless of interventions to improve workplaces and public infrastructure. Further, when homes and local neighbourhoods are themselves workplaces, then the need to integrate work and housing becomes even more immediate.

This implies the appropriate Development Control Norms and zoning regulations that permit specific forms of work and housing to co-exist spatially. It also means that universal slum upgrading (see Section 3.2) as well as the Community Works Programme (see Section 3.3) must find a home within planning for it to enable informal work and workers.

### ***3.6 Economic infrastructure for the informal economy***

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Infrastructure for the formal economy is planned in the form of national highways, transport corridors, assured power supply, and dedicated special economic zones with ample incentives for formal jobs to prosper. The same level of planning rarely follows for the informal economy. Specific infrastructure support for the informal economy fails to find a place in spatial and policy plans. This practice recommends the creation of infrastructure that will support the informal economy within the formal economic zones as well as within existing spatial concentrations of informal work in urban areas. This note is to be read alongside recommendations for planning and the informal economy (see Section 3.5).

This note outlines two approaches.

- The **first** aims to create infrastructure within formal industrial zones planned by Rajasthan Industrial Investment Corporation (RIICO), industrial corridors such as Delhi-Mumbai Industrial Corridor (DMIC), Special Economic Zones (SEZs), integrated townships and heritage zones.
- The **second** focuses on creating sector specific infrastructure for home-based workers, waste workers, street workers, domestic workers, gig-economy workers and para-transit workers. Sector specific infrastructure will further focus on social infrastructure such as public toilets, creches, dispensaries (which are required more generally by all informal workers) and specific economic infrastructure such as material facility centres for waste workers, storage spaces for home-based workers, etc. which cater to particular worker groups.

#### ***Integrating Informal Work in Existing Economic Planning***

The first aspect of the economic infrastructure needs to be planned alongside formal planning zones. The planned expansion of the Rajasthan Industrial Investment Corporation (RIICO), for example, to create industrial areas in districts across Rajasthan is an ideal opportunity to anticipate ancillary effects on informal work that each of these formal industrial areas will create. Besides the space allocated for MSMEs within planned industrial areas, these areas also need to anticipate and plan for informality within and outside these areas.

Workers who are directly employed in these industrial areas need to be provided with affordable housing infrastructure along with basic services within the industrial area. Land has to be specifically allocated for this purpose. Dedicated space for waste infrastructure where waste workers can have decent work conditions has to be earmarked. The industrial areas need to be well connected with safe and affordable transport infrastructure. Pick-up zones for para-transit transport with support infrastructure such as drinking water facilities, toilet facilities, charging station facilities and wi-fi hotspots can also serve as resting zones for para-transit workers. Further, temporal permits can be granted to vendors for vending within the industrial areas.

Secondly, we also anticipate a variety of informal forms of work that will spill over outside the designated industrial areas. Work will be created in these influence zones either due to outsourcing of some ancillary activities or due to the economy of the influence zone itself. We recommend departments and ministries to plan economic infrastructure for these influence zones along with the industrial areas. RIICO can pull other departments to co-plan the infrastructure requirements for the informal economy to flourish in the influence zones. Land can be allocated for ancillary vending zones and infrastructure can be provided for small shops such as tea-shops, automobile repair shops, ironing shops, etc. that will cater to the requirements of the formal industrial areas.

Affordable housing infrastructure with basic services can be created for the informal economy in the influence zone along with appropriate economic support infrastructure that is elaborated in the section below. In case the formal zone has anticipated ancillary activities that will be outsourced, then specific infrastructure can also be planned. For instance, if RIIICO is planning any of the industrial areas as a textile manufacturing hub then it is anticipated that a lot of home-based work will spill over in the influence zone. The housing units within the influence zones can be then planned with community infrastructure such as storage areas, and transport infrastructure which will enable delivery of raw materials and finished goods to the industrial areas.

We propose on thinking through economic infrastructure for the informal economy for each of the distinct economic zones such as Special Economic Zones, Heritage Zones, Integrated Townships, etc. This requires multiple departments and ministries to co-plan for these areas and pool resources for supporting the informal economy.

### ***Economic Support Infrastructure***

The second set of infrastructures that we recommend is within the limits of master planned area. We propose a generic set of infrastructures interspersed within the city which can enable all workers engaged in informal economy. These infrastructures may appear to be social infrastructure but are particularly important for informal workers in order to sustain their livelihood. This implies also that these infrastructures need to be spatially target at workplaces rather than near housing or residential settlements where workers live.

- **Child-care infrastructure:** Creche facilities, breastfeeding stations to be planned within the urban areas for all the women engaged in informal work. Further details of this recommendation is detailed in Section 3.1.
- **Public toilets and drinking water facilities:** Most informal workers such as street vendors, domestic workers, gig-economy workers work for extended number of hours and do require public toilets and drinking water facilities throughout the city. This infrastructure needs to be planned within appropriate distance throughout the city so that the economic productivity of the informal workers is not compromised.
- **Multi-use streets:** Most of the streets to be planned for vending activities and space for modular set-ups that can be used for multiple purposes such as healthcare facilities, parking for para-transit vehicles, etc.
- **Multi-purpose community centres:** Dedicated centres with resting spaces, storage spaces, facilitation centres that can be used by all workers

### ***Sector-Specific Economic Infrastructure***

Beyond this generic set of infrastructures, we also propose sector-specific infrastructure that will provide conditions of decent work for specific groups of informal workers:

- **Home-based workers:** Small warehouses within the housing colonies of home-based workers will enable them to stock more efficiently. Transport infrastructure to be planned accordingly for transporting raw materials and finished goods from the home-based workers' housing colonies. Further, community infrastructure for specific worker colonies such as brick kilns for potters' colony, open spaces for dhobi ghats, etc. is recommended for integrating work with housing in more enabling forms.

- **Waste workers:** Decentralized waste collection and material recovery centres for waste workers will enable them to streamline waste collection and recycling process within a city. Provisioning of waste collection carts and dedicated parking spaces for waste carts will be useful.
- **Street vendors:** Dry and cold storage facilities can help vendors in keeping their goods safe and avoid spoilage. Modular and electronic vending carts can provide vendors with higher mobility and access to wider markets.
- **Domestic workers:** Most domestic workers travel for long distances to reach their workplaces. An efficient travel infrastructure comprising of free bus passes or specific battery powered rickshaws for domestic workers can provide affordable and safe transport.
- **Paratransit workers:** Dedicated parking spaces for paratransit transport will ensure that they are efficiently managed. The parking spaces should have a certain level of flexibility in terms of number of hours and the location. Resting spaces with charging stations and cloak rooms for para-transit workers will also provide them with access to decent work conditions.
- **Gig-economy workers:** The constant mobility that the work of gig-economy workers require need infrastructure support such as computer centres with wi-fi hotspot and charging stations. Fuel stations can also have separate queueing for gig-economy workers.

A specific Mission that targets the large scale building of these infrastructures would make a significant difference to the quality of work in the informal economy. This Mission could combine with several of our other recommendations on urban planning the informal economy (Section 3.5), Community Works Programmes (Section 3.3) as well as Childcare for Informal Workers (Section 3.1).

## 3.7 Data Systems and Practices

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**Problem:** In order to recognise and enumerate informal workers, and in order to deliver benefits, the state government needs:

- Better data on informal workers in public datasets such as the National Sample Survey (NSS), Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) and the Census
- Harmonisation of data collected for the rollout of various schemes and beneficiary lists into a consolidated database held at the state level, that can be used to provide recognition to workers and for targeting and delivering benefits
- Ease of data access and reporting for global, national or local commitments such as reporting against SDG indicators, annual reporting on employment outcomes, delivery of benefits by the state government, and so on.

**Context:** *The data landscape to study informal work and workers*

### **Employment data in brief**

Statistics on employment can be sourced from three types of data that is collected by the Indian government. The kinds of datasets are Census and enterprise level surveys, household surveys, administrative data and private data sources.

#### **1. Public datasets**

Public datasets on employment and socio-demographic information, like the Census, National Sample Survey (NSS) and the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) help us understand the nature of work, wages earned, sectoral composition of jobs, social security benefits, unemployment rate, labour force participation rate and other metrics. For the purpose of this report, we do not provide a depth of analysis on the discrepancies in these datasets, however, a detailed analysis can be provided if required. However, to summarize, there are several issues in the methods used to collect and measure data on underemployment, underutilization and women's work.<sup>1</sup> There is also a difference in the way household surveys like the PLFS measure employment and firm surveys like the Economic Census capture work status, and this prevents us from getting a complete picture of the labour market and the extent of informal work.<sup>2</sup> While these public datasets provide a snapshot of the employment landscape at given time periods, they cannot be used to deliver benefits to informal workers and other vulnerable populations, which is the main focus of this note.

#### **2. State administrative and worker group data**

State benefit programs and schemes rely on administrative data in the form of beneficiary lists drawn from disparate sources like the PDS (lists of people who hold ration cards, and lists of those who hold APL and BPL cards), data from the e-Shram portal and from schemes with a large uptake like Bhamashah in Rajasthan.

Apart from this, a few informal worker groups have specific worker organizations and boards that have worker registration information that are used to target and deliver benefits. For example, the Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (BOCW) provides some social and medical benefits to the construction workers registered with them. In addition,

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<sup>1</sup> Radhicka Kapoor 2019, An Employment Data Strategy for India, India Policy Forum, NCAER

<sup>2</sup> *ibid*

the e-Shram database now contains information on all categories of workers, including self-declared worker occupational status and other personal information.

### 3. Other publicly available information

There are other portals like the Jan Soochana which make information accessible to the public, including citizens and public authorities. This enables people to check the schemes they are eligible for in their particular ward or panchyat, the status of their applications or documents like ration cards, address proof and the checking of erroneous name and number entries in case of Aadhar numbers, telephone numbers and also their Rajasthan state ID number.

#### *Solution: Outlining an efficient, integrated data architecture system for the state*

In this section, we propose the features of a robust internal data system that can be used to deliver benefits to citizens. We divide the section as goals achievable in the short term, medium term, and the long term.

#### *Harmonise existing data (short term)*

- We propose an integrated database system where all existing datasets are tagged under multiple categories like spatial granularity (state, district, city or ward) and identities (caste category, employment sector, migrant status) captured by each dataset. This could be scheme registration data, beneficiary lists, one-time data (such as COVID-19 relief beneficiaries), or any other individual-level data collected or generated by the state government.
- For each dataset, tags should be created for the targeting and delivery mechanisms to convey the contents of each dataset, for instance including categories of “place”, “work” or “workplace.” (For example, the street vending registration data would enable delivery of benefits through the identity of “work” and the delivery method of bank accounts, a feature of the registration data.)
- Some of this process of tagging has been done in the creation of the Jan Soochana Portal especially in the sections focussing on scheme eligibility and penetration, and this must be expanded for all existing data from all departments.
- This tagged metadata generated by the system must be searchable. This allows a user to browse through a set of datasets that might be relevant information for the purpose of their program. For example, a database search for “informal employment” should display all categories of informal workers, but also identify related datasets containing firm level information, surveys on skill development and other related aspects.
- Similarly, for example, a search for “street vendors” should show the registration data uploaded by the respective department on vending, allowing a user to compare this with estimates from PLFS. This conveys the coverage of the registration data and allows the stakeholder to consider other avenues for targeting and delivery if the coverage is low.
- These disparate beneficiary lists and datasets will be connected through tags or a unique ID to ensure that there is no duplication and that multiple aspects of potential beneficiaries are captured. For this type of information linking, there should be a progressive legal privacy framework in place. We underscore the importance of developing a set of checks and balances for the use and access of such data, for the purpose of protecting the privacy of individuals. More details on this can be provided as required.
- At present, there are issues with the process of biometric authentication required to access some government schemes. This process of authentication reportedly takes multiple

attempts due to the technology used.<sup>3</sup> There should be other modes of authentication available to people in such instances.

- It is also important to have an efficient complaint and error tracking system since there are instances of people not receiving benefits if there were errors in the personal information inputted in the beneficiary list.<sup>4</sup>

***Implement architecture to ensure self-harmonisation of future data (medium term)***

- The long term up-keep of an integrated, centralized database would involve mechanisms that allow it to be continuously updated, so it can grow in scale and targeting ability.
- Instead of newly created data being manually added to this system, it should be an automated process where all data sits within this system. This real-time updating of the system would enable cross-departmental sharing of all metadata so that any approved stakeholder can view the data held by the state government.
- This system should also be expanded and every dataset linked where possible to larger, delivery-oriented registration systems like Aadhar, e-Shram, Jan Dhan and MGNREGA job cards. There should be mechanisms in place that check for duplications and errors across these datasets.
- To ensure protection from misuse, the actual data would be released only after an approval process from the department/board owning the data.

***Reach a system where all data is centralised (long term)***

- Ideally in the long term, these datasets will be more closely tagged and monitored leading to one large scale state-level database of possible beneficiaries, targeting and delivery mechanisms.
- The main benefit of this system would be the metadata that captures all possible beneficiaries and all delivery and targeting mechanisms.
- For example, for a hypothetical one-time cash transfer to domestic workers in Jaipur, the stakeholder would look up this population, be presented with an estimate of all registered domestic workers in Jaipur with their active bank accounts linked to the system, and a can undertake a comparison against estimated numbers of domestic workers in Jaipur. If the stakeholder feels that the coverage is adequate, then they could approve the targeting and forward the task of the cash transfer to the concerned department, along with the chosen sub-population of the large dataset.
- To reduce the potential misuse of such a centralised system, access to personal information such as names, religion, addresses and Aadhar numbers should be mediated by a suitable data privacy framework and approval process. Ideally, even the stakeholders would have no direct access to the personal information.
- There is a need to track long-term use of this data system and the delivery mechanism/ coverage that it enables over time. For example, the Rajasthan SDG Report, created by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics monitors and tracks different global and state-level indicators across the defined SDGs. This is one example of an institutionalized tracking and reporting system that captures datasets, schemes, delivery coverage or reach and status of the goals.

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<sup>3</sup> Alan Gelb, Anit Mukherjee, and Kyle Navis 2018, Digital Governance in Developing Countries: Beneficiary Experience and Perceptions of System Reform in Rajasthan, India, Working Paper 489, Center for Global Development

<sup>4</sup> *ibid*

- If this centralized database is in place, then the in-state tracking and reporting on scheme and delivery coverage can be implemented by a reporting dashboard.

#### ***Governance and management of database***

- In order for this set of recommendations to be implemented, there will be a need to work out the detailed governance arrangements within departments that will enable this. For instance, which department will hold the master database, what are the protocols in place for any other departments collecting data to share their data with the master database as well as access the master database for rolling out schemes or programmes, and so on. This can be detailed if required.
- Institutional collaborations between the government, worker organisations and universities should be encouraged for the expansion of this database. Stakeholders of different informal worker groups, like associations, unions, boards and co-operatives should be mobilized in adding new registrations, information, scheme or delivery mechanisms into this central database.

#### ***Implementation: Delivering benefits to informal workers***

In this section, we include two case studies of the collection and use of data at the state level to target beneficiaries for new initiatives, as well as highlight some potential practices as well as challenges on how to achieve this.

##### ***1. Urban employment guarantee***

Context: Multiple states have recently introduced urban employment guarantee programmes.

These schemes have found varying levels of success, however a common issue is low penetration and low uptake. The table below contains a listing of the different state-level initiatives, along with the method of targeting, most commonly through a fresh process of registration and the issuance of a job card.

The proposed database could assist with targeting in the following way. For instance, construction workers with less than 100 days worked in the last year could be directed to the closest public infrastructure works as registration points. Putting this together with PMAY could also enable people to work on their own houses while getting paid for their labour. People that have attended skill development workshops, respondents to the skill survey, or workers holding certain trade/skill certifications with no registered income in the last year could be intimated of opportunities in their relevant sectors. The common problem of low uptake could be easily tackled with proactive reaching out on the government's behalf that is made easy with this meta database.

This would also help with a payment delivery system built in due to the Jan Dhan Yojana. Tracking of long-term employment outcomes of skill development schemes is also feasible. Given linking of Aadhar details, it could also avoid issues of double counting.

Table: Urban employment guarantees

| State            | Scheme   | Target population  | Method of targeting  | Number of days         |
|------------------|--|--|--|------------------------|
| Kerala           | Ayyankali Urban Employment Guarantee Scheme (2010)                   | Provides unskilled manual work for adult members of urban households   | Adult members register with Urban governments which then provides job cards  | 100 days per household |
| Jharkhand        | Mukhyamantri SHRAMIK (Shahri Rozgar Manjuri For Kamgar) Yojna (2020) | Migrant workers returning during COVID-19 (open to every adult household)  | Households can register all members, get job cards and apply for work online   | 100 days per household |
| Odisha           | Mukhyamantri Karma Tatpara Abhiyan (MUKTA) (2022)                    | “Reduction in livelihood vulnerabilities of the urban poor including migrant labourers and informal workers, economic empowerment of the urban informal workers especially economic empowerment of women informal workers, increased involvements and empowerment of women self-help groups and slum development associations” |  |                        |
| Madhya Pradesh   | Yuva Swabhiman Yojana (2019)   | Vocational skill training for long-term self-reliance and providing employment, for youth in ages 21-30 with family income less than ₹2,00,000   | Registration online followed by approval by urban body. 10 days of training and 90 days of work with separate training in morning/ evening | 100 days               |
| Himachal Pradesh | Mukhya Mantri Shahri Ajoevika Guarantee Yojna (MMSAGY) (2020)        | Adult members of urban households  | Register online or with ULD followed by verification and issuance of job card by ULB   | 120 days per household |

## ***2. An emergency food rations scheme for people in Delhi in the after-math of COVID-19 induced lockdowns in 2020***

**Context:** When the first COVID-19 lockdowns happened in Delhi in 2020, there was a need to provide food rations to individuals who had lost work in the city but did not have ration cards. The state needed to reach a larger number of people than those on the PDS beneficiary list but the data required to target this population did not exist. The lack of data to target a variety of informal workers prevents emergency relief from being implemented in a smooth and timely manner in the context of a crisis.

**Need:** The emergency relief systems in Delhi had to create a new dataset of beneficiaries to reach people affected by loss of livelihood and those who did not have a ration card.

**Solution:** An online portal was created where people could log in their personal details and gain access to a QR code which functioned as a temporary e-ration card. This allowed them to access food rations not at the PDS shops but in their nearby schools where this delivery was implemented. This online portal created a dataset of about 60 lakh people who needed relief, who had self-declared their need. There was no verification required to gain access to the e-ration QR code. But there was a backend mechanism that took the Aadhar card details in this new dataset and de-duplicated it so that PDS beneficiaries would not get double rations.

Reflections on issues from database creation and delivery:

- The new dataset of 60 lakh people who registered on the online portal has no way of being integrated back into a larger data system. This makes it a one-time use, standalone list of people who received this one-time benefit.
- Ideally the PDS should be empowered to deliver rations to those with the temporary e-ration card but the Food & Civil Supply (FCS) department which runs the ration shops refused to take on the new beneficiaries from the online portal due to integration issues and concerns about audit. Hence, schools had to be used as delivery and implementation centres.
- There needs to be better integration of e-Shram data on informal workers and the PDS to reach vulnerable informal worker groups who previously did not have a ration card but need it during a livelihood emergency.
- While the state was able to provide some cash and other assistance to specific worker groups like construction workers and auto drivers because those beneficiary lists existed and could be accessed via their respective stakeholders, it was difficult to reach other vulnerable groups.
- The below table of informal worker groups and schemes could be enabled by the database design outlined above. The centralized system would have the capability to display the required data across these different departments, schemes and sets of beneficiaries.

Table: Schemes and their associated departments and beneficiary

| Scheme  | Department(s)   | Persons eligible/<br>Worker type  | Type of benefit   |
|---|---|---|---|
| More than 10 types of schemes relating to medical, maternity, education and others  | Labour Department implemented via the BOCW  | Construction workers  | Tuition fees, loans, medical expenses   |
| The Prime Minister Street Vendor Self-Reliant Fund (PM Swanidhi) under the Deendayal Antyodaya Yojana: National Urban Livelihood Mission (DAY – NULM) | Local Self Government   | Street vendors  | 10,000 INR at 7 per cent subsidized interest  |
| Skill Training of Plumbers/ Electricians/ Fitters under Jal Jeevan Mission  | Water and Sanitation Support Organization (WSSO) and State Water and Sanitation Mission (SWSM) with Rajasthan Skill and Livelihoods Development Corporation (RSLDC) | Plumbers/ Electricians/ Fitters   | Skill training for eligible 45,000 beneficiaries  |
| Swarojgar Aadharit Kaushal Shiksha Mahabhiyan (SAKSHM)  | Rajasthan Skill and Livelihoods Development Corporation (RSLDC)   | Youth and Women   | Goal is to create self-employment opportunities through training programs   |
| Rajasthan Unemployment Allowance Scheme   | Employment Department   | Unemployed persons  | An unemployment allowance of 3000 INR for men and 3500 for women, transgender and specially abled for a maximum of 2 years  |
| Raj-Kaushal Portal  | Employment Department   | Migrant labourers specifically, including, construction workers, registered trained and unemployed labour | The stated mandate is to provide employment opportunities and also, create this portal data of all the registered labourers from the Rajasthan Skill and Livelihoods Development Corporation (RSLDC) and it is. |



## PROPOSED IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

| <b>Childcare for Informal Workers</b>   |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
| <b>Year 1</b>   |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| <b>Particulars</b>  | <b>M1</b> | <b>M2</b> | <b>M3</b> | <b>M4</b> | <b>M5</b> | <b>M6</b> | <b>M7</b> | <b>M8</b> | <b>M9</b> | <b>M10</b> | <b>M11</b> | <b>M12</b> |
| Setting up cross-department consultation board for shift in policy for early intake of children and extending AWC hours |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| Proposal and budgeting  |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| Cabinet approval  |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| SOPs for early intake and extending hours for AWCs  |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| Training material for district, block and anganwadi workers   |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| Piloting in 5 districts   |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| Training WCD and Education Department district and block officials  |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |
| Scaling up to all districts   |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |            |            |










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