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Mapping the Unhoused Population: Spatio-temporal Analysis of Homelessness in Indian Cities

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Abstract

Homelessness is a persistent issue, driven by deep rooted socio-economic inequalities and rising urbanisation. The study investigates the temporal changes and spatial patterns of homelessness in India during 2001 and 2011. Alongside, socio-demographic differentials and geographic clusters of homelessness for targeted spatial policy interventions. Using Census of India 2001 and 2011 data, univariate, bivariate and advanced spatial techniques including quantile mapping, Local Indicators of Spatial Association (LISA) maps, BiLISA map and Global Moran's-I were used. Result reveals a significant 28.3% decline in rural houseless population contrasted by 20.5% urban increase indicating migration-induced urban homelessness. Spatial analysis identifies urban homelessness clustering in metropolitan and industrial areas, while rural homeless population more scattered in central, western and southern states. A strong positive association ($r = 0.625$) and BiLISA coefficient (Moran's I = 0.201) confirm high urbanization-high homelessness clusters in metro cities. Males and Children (0-6 years) comprise 15.3% of homeless segments with scheduled castes and tribes predominating in rural areas. The study underscores the geographic and social concentration of homelessness. It advocates for spatially differentiated, inclusive policy measures focusing on urban centres and vulnerable groups to address entrenched structural deprivation. This study will establish a foundation for future research utilizing data from upcoming census 2027. New Census will mark India's transition to a digital framework and real-time monitoring tools to conduct and manage the enumeration process. Notably, the GPS tagging and georeferencing will achieve complete and accurate coverage. Furthermore, the inclusion of data on caste, tribe status, disability, and migration history will offer valuable insights, enabling more nuanced analysis and clustering of homeless population across India.

Keywords

Cities,
Homelessness,
India, Spatial
Analysis,
Urbanization,
Vulnerability.

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Introduction

Dignified shelters are a basic component under the right to life (Pandey, 2011; Salcedo, 2019), but the problem of homelessness stretches across every corner of the globe, touching every society with its reach. In the developing world, the term 'homeless' refers to those who live in open spaces without having any basic shelter for their possessions, such as 'kuccha' (unfinished), slum or shanty house (Ghosh et al., 2020). According to the United Nations, homeless households are without shelter, that would fall within the scope of living quilters. They carry their few possessions with them, sleeping in the streets, in doorways, on piers or in another space, on a more or less random basis (Wilson, 2020).

The state of homelessness does not merely indicate the absence of a home, but it manifests the outermost states of marginalization and, advanced levels of destitution and denial of basic rights (Tippel & Speak, 2009). This problem is compounded by rising urbanisation, economic inequality, and inadequate housing regulations (Bose et al., 2023; Goel et al., 2017; Mago et al., 2013; Shelton et al., 2009). Fundamentally, homelessness is a breach of the right to sufficient housing; it deprives individuals' stability, identity, and access to basic necessary services (Fowler et al., 2019; Kothari et al., 2006). Despite their significant contributions to the informal economy, homeless people are often marginalised and excluded from urban planning and social welfare net (Raju et al., 2021). Likewise, homelessness is jeopardizing many of the Sustainable Development Goals (World Health Organization, 2024). Hence, governments across globe struggle to address this awful problem.

As per the recent estimate of world economic forum, approximately 150 million people was experiencing homelessness globally in 2021 (Henry, 2021). Although, available statistics are sensitive to the forms of definition or criteria used for homelessness. In general, there are three broad distinguished forms of homelessness: 1. people with no accommodation who sleep in the streets or public spaces, 2. people in temporary accommodation, such as emergency shelters, and 3. people in severely inadequate housing, such as tents or slums. Further, to estimate homelessness some only focus on just one type, while others cover multiple combinations of forms of homelessness. Besides, data collection methods for homelessness also differ in some countries count the number of people experiencing homelessness on one night of the year, while others do so over the entire year. Hence, it become difficult to estimate accurate numbers (Herre & Arriagada, 2019).

Despite a drop by 8% of homeless people, Census of India, shows a significant number of 1.77 million homeless between 2001 and 2011 (Singh et al., 2018). However, stark differentials in the distribution of the homeless population also appear due to rural-to-urban migration, and socio-economic factors led by insufficient employment and housing policies (MoHUPA GoI New Delhi, 2009). Cities in India are under additional pressure to handle an increasing number of people from rural areas or neighbouring cities with burdened infrastructure. It was estimated that approximately 21% of urban homeless population increased during last decade that worsen the situation of homelessness. Consequently, these people compelled to live in precarious conditions on railway platforms, bus terminals, flyovers and the footpaths of roadways (Roy & Yadav, 2020).

Government of India periodically introduced and implemented several social security programs related to affordable housing & shelter to manage homelessness, yet the homeless population remains substantial due to implementation gaps and structural challenges. Further, this population is dynamic in nature not only in terms of probable reasons but spatial distribution (Lee et al., 2021; Moledina et al., 2021). A spatial-temporal analysis is crucial for comprehending the changing nature and demographic patterns of homelessness (Chien et al., 2024). The rapid rate of urbanisation has exacerbated housing shortages, driving marginalised groups into informal settlements and insecure living circumstances (Jean-Baptiste et al., 2018). Hence, study tried to investigate about differentials in the composition of homeless population. Additionally, it will assess its spatial distribution and new emerging hot spots clustering of homeless population in urban areas to guide targeted policy interventions.

Methodology

Data Sources:

The study used two rounds of Census of India (2001 & 2011) data for the analysis. It uses HH-02 (Total & City series) data. The Census of India collected population data using De-Facto method. In this method enumeration of each individual were done at a place where they are physically present on the census date, regardless of their usual residence. Census of India also provides detailed information about population attributes and its definitions.

According to Census of India (2011), *“homeless as a person who are not living in census houses, with possible places of habitat including pavements, roadsides, at railway*

platforms, under staircases, inside drainage pipes, at a temple –mandaps or in the open”.

The primary strength of using the census data for homelessness lies in its national coverage. It adopts uniform definitions and procedure, census operations which enhances comparability across state, districts and time periods. Secondly, its integration with socio-economic and demographic variables which support the researchers for evidence-based planning and helps identifying high risk groups targeted intervention. And finally, in spite of inherent challenges in enumerating highly mobile population, the periodic nature of enumeration allows for longitudinal assessment over the period of time.

However, census enumeration also poses the problems related to coverage of the homeless population. The most common questions about the homeless concern numbers, composition, and geographic distribution (Lee et al., 2010). Sattar (2014) pointed out that “According to the Census of India definition, the word houseless does not consider people who live in makeshift arrangements or in deplorable housing conditions. So, section of the population who are vulnerable of becoming homeless are not considered. Besides, the government’s official surveys are conducted in a single day, preferably during a day time, when it is difficult to trace the homeless (Cowan et al., 1988). Further, rise in the number of slum dwellers can be considered as an indicator for increase in the magnitude of homelessness. Thus, the actual numbers could be much higher than those reported in the Census.

Outcome Variables: We measure homeless as an outcome variable; it is an important indicators and census provides homelessness data at household and

individual level. It widely used to document the progress in the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs 11-ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing by 2030).

Exposure Variables:

The study utilizes six main exposure variables, that is, place of residence, gender, age, caste, literacy and employment status.

Analysis Plan:

In order to achieve study objectives, we carried out the combination of statistical and spatial analysis such as univariate, bivariate and correlation analysis. To understand the temporal trends (percentage change) of homelessness during the period of 2001 and 2011, further, the study identifies socio-demographic differential in homeless populations.

Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was computed to measure the strength of the association between Urbanization and Homelessness. The value of correlation varies between (0 to 1). It employed to test relation between urbanization and homelessness

The Spatial Analysis carried out using GeoDa software to assess the geographical distribution and clustering of homelessness. GeoDa is the latest software tool devised by the Centre for Spatially Integrated Social Sciences (CSISS) to implement various exploratory spatial data analysis including data manipulation, mapping, and spatial regression analysis (Anselin, 2005). Using GeoDa software, we generated spatial rook's contiguity weights which are essential for the estimation of all the geo-spatial statistics and geo-spatial regressions. Relevant geo-spatial techniques have been employed to address the research questions.

Geospatial techniques were applied are as follow:

- a. **Quantile Maps:** It used to visualize the spatial distribution of homeless populations across districts in India. Separate maps were generated for rural and urban homelessness in 2011.
- b. **Local Indicators of Spatial Association (LISA) Cluster Maps:** LISA statistics were used to detect spatial clustering of homelessness at the district level such as Identification of "High-High" (hotspots), "Low-Low" (cold spots), and spatial outliers. Also, LISA Significance Maps prepared to visualise the statistical significance of these clusters.
- c. **Global Moran's I statistical Analysis:** It was used to measure spatial autocorrelation of homelessness. A positive Moran's I coefficient indicated that districts with high homelessness tend to be geographically clustered, rather than randomly distributed.
- d. **Bivariate LISA (BiLISA):** This analysis conducted to examined the relationship between urbanization and homelessness by mapping areas where both variables exhibited significant spatial clustering. Identified regions with High Urbanization - High Homelessness clusters and High Urbanization - Low Homelessness clusters.

Ethical Considerations:

Since the study is based on publicly available secondary data, no direct ethical concerns arise. However, efforts were made to avoid biases in the interpretation.

Results Temporal Trends in Homelessness:

Table 1 presents the decadal changes in homeless households in India. Between 2001 and 2011, rural homelessness declined significantly by 25.74%, while urban

homelessness increased by 36.79% (refer to table 1). Despite the rural decline, the overall number of homeless households remained nearly constant (447,552 in 2001 to 449,787 in 2011), suggesting a spatial redistribution of homelessness from rural to urban areas.

Table 1 Temporal decadal changes in homeless households in India (2001–2011)

Place of Residence	All Households		Houseless Household		% share of houseless household		Absolute change	Relative Change
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Rural	137747384	168612897	259742	192891	0.19	0.11	-0.07	-25.74
Urban	55832570	80888766	187810	256896	0.34	0.32	-0.02	36.79
Total	193579954	249501663	447552	449787	0.23	0.18	-0.05	0.50

Source: Census of India, round 2001 & 2011

Table 2 Temporal decadal changes in homeless population in India (2001–2011)

Place of Residence	Houseless Household		Houseless Population		% share of houseless household		Absolute change	Relative Change
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	Household	Population
Rural	742490639	833748852	1164877	834692	0.16	0.10	-0.06	-28.35
Urban	286119689	377106125	778599	938348	0.27	0.25	-0.02	20.52
Total	1028610328	1210854977	1943476	1773040	0.19	0.15	-0.04	-8.77

Source: Census of India, (2001 & 2011)

Similarly, Table 2 shows that the total homeless population declined by 8.77%, with a marked reduction in rural areas (-28.35%) but a notable increase in urban areas (+20.52%). The growth of urban homelessness is likely influenced by migration, lack of affordable housing, and urban poverty.

1. Quantile Maps: Distribution of Homeless Populations

The quantile maps illustrate the geographic distribution of homeless populations across rural and urban areas in India for 2011.

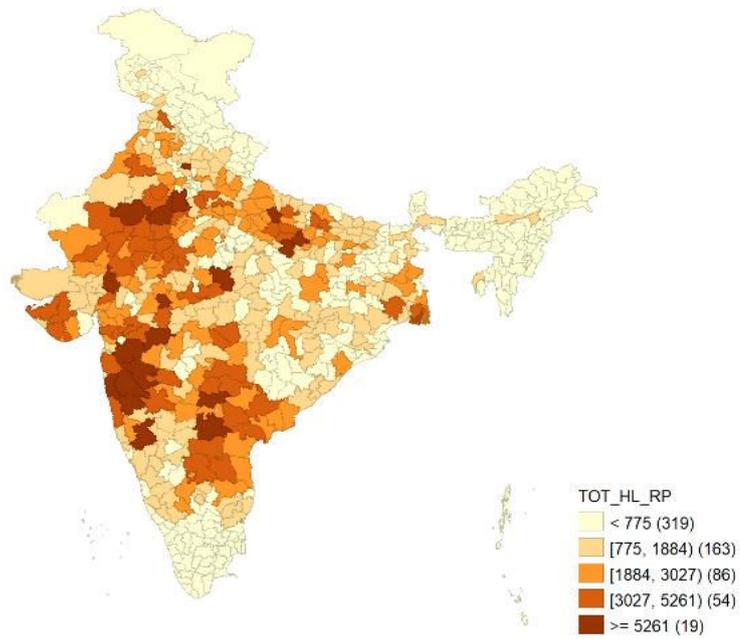
- *Rural Homelessness Distribution:* The spatial pattern of rural homelessness reveals higher concentrations in central,

western, and northern states, with some states exhibiting relatively lower rates (refer to figure 1 and annexure table1). The persistence of rural homelessness in these areas could be attributed to agrarian distress, limited employment opportunities, and socio-economic marginalization.

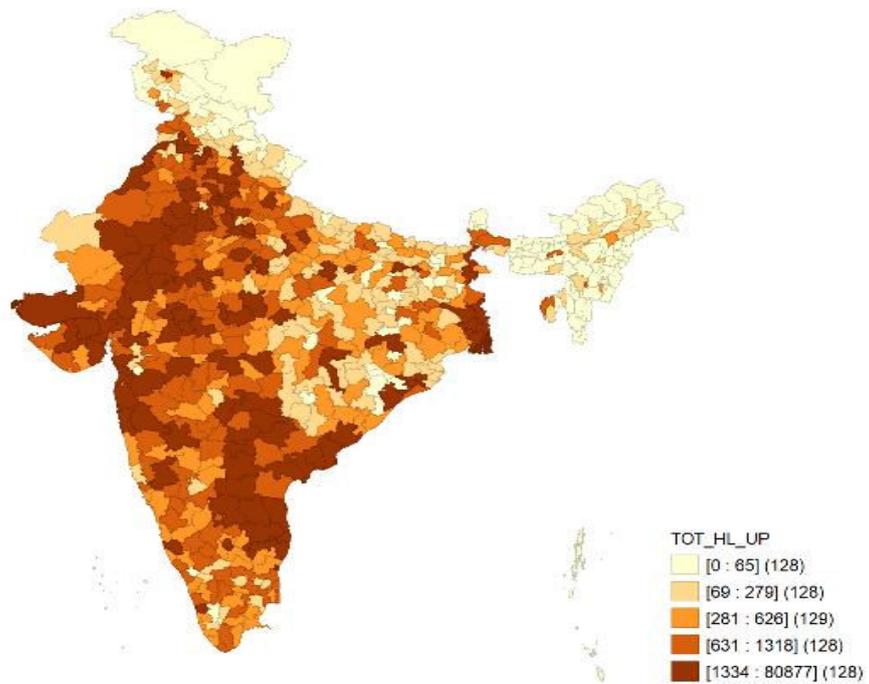
- *Urban Homelessness Distribution:* The urban homeless population is more concentrated in metropolitan regions and industrial centres, particularly in Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, and Chennai (refer to figure 2). These cities serve as migration hubs, where high living costs and inadequate affordable housing contributes to homelessness.

These two maps indicate a distinct rural-urban divide, with rural homelessness being more dispersed and urban

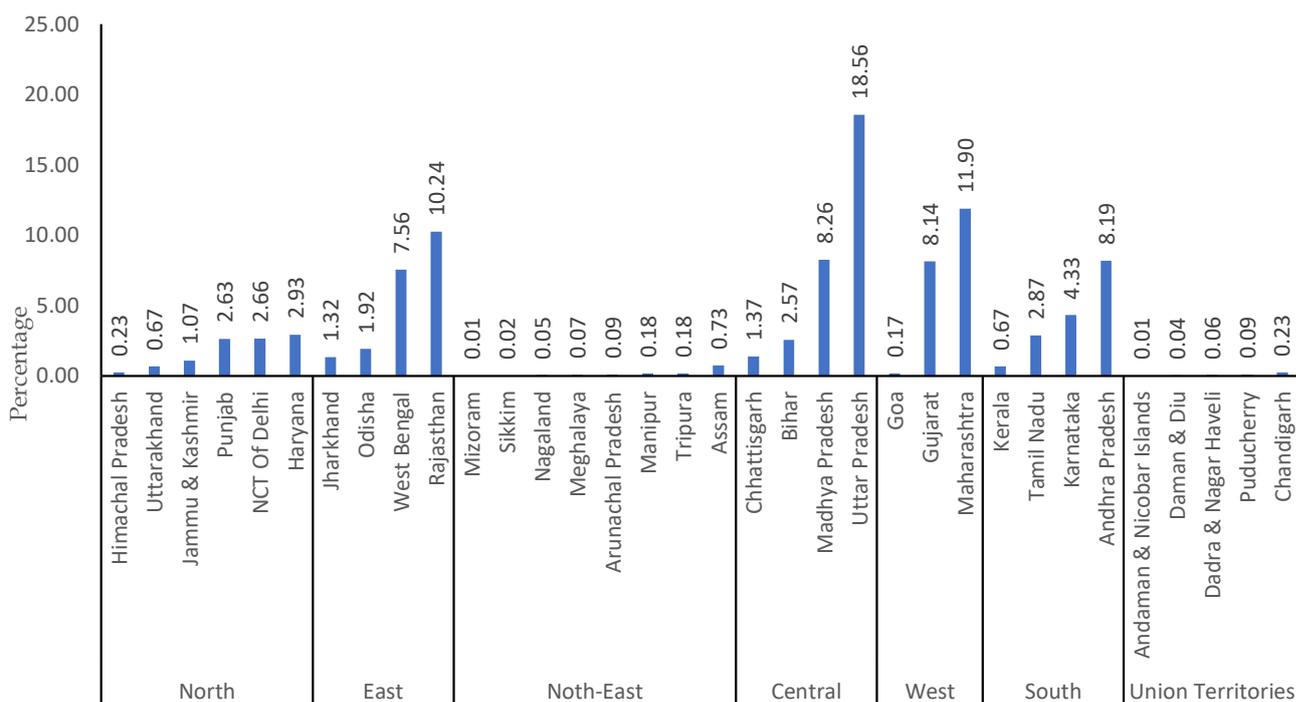
homelessness being more concentrated in economic centres



Figures 1 Quantile maps showing the distribution of homeless rural populations in India, 2011



Figures 2 Quantile maps showing the distribution of homeless Urban populations in India, 2011



Source: Census of India, 2011

Figure 3 Percentage share of homeless population across different States and Regions of India, 2011

Correlation Between Urbanization and Homelessness:

Table 3 presents correlation coefficients between urbanization and homelessness. The result indicates a strong positive correlation between urbanization and homelessness ($r = 0.625, p < .01$), suggesting that homelessness rises with increase in

urbanization. However, at the city level, the correlation between urbanization and homelessness is weaker ($r = 0.275$), indicating that local factors such as municipal policies, employment opportunities, and housing availability play a role in shaping city-level homelessness.

Table 3 Correlation coefficient for the association of between percentage of urbanisation and homelessness (N=34)

	Urbanisation	Homeless	Homelessness at city level
Urbanisation	1.000		
Homeless	0.625*	1	
Homelessness at city level	0.275	0.563*	1

Note: $p < .01$

Source: Calculation is based on data derived from Census of India, 2011

Demographic Composition of the Homeless Population:

Table 4 provides insights into the socio-demographic composition of homeless individuals. The homeless population is

predominantly male (59%), with a higher proportion in urban areas (64.2%) compared to rural areas (53.2%). The relatively lower percentage of homeless women may be attributed to gendered survival strategies, and adaptation to difficult circumstances, to

seek and maintain their well-being and livelihoods. Homeless women are often seeking shelter with family members or engaging in informal labour. Children aged 0–6 years account for 15.3% of the total homeless population, with a higher prevalence in rural areas (18.9%) than urban areas (12.0%). This suggests that rural homelessness may be more family-based, whereas urban homelessness could be more individual-driven. The data highlights significant caste disparities. Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) are overrepresented in rural homelessness (SCs: 21.2%, STs: 17.4%), reflecting structural inequalities and historical marginalization. In urban areas, “Other” castes constitute

77.9% of the homeless, potentially due to rural-to-urban migration patterns. Educational disadvantage is evident among the homeless population. Illiteracy is higher among rural homeless women (36%) compared to urban homeless women (25.7%). Male illiteracy is also significant (33.8% in rural, 38.4% in urban areas), suggesting that low education levels contribute to vulnerability and economic instability. The majority of the homeless population is non-working (48.1%), with only 36.9% employed as main workers. This indicates that even among the employed, job precarity and low wages likely contribute to homelessness.

Table 4 Composition of Homeless Population of India, 2011 (In Percentage)

Background	Rural	Urban	Total
Gender			
Male	53.2	64.2	59.0
Female	46.8	35.8	41.0
Age composition			
Age 0-6	18.9	12.0	15.3
Others	81.1	88.0	84.7
Caste			
SC	21.2	13.8	17.3
ST	17.4	8.4	12.6
Others	61.4	77.9	70.1
Literacy and Gender			
Illiterate Male	33.8	38.4	36.2
Illiterate Female	36.0	25.7	30.6
Literate Male	19.4	25.8	22.8
Literate Female	10.7	10.1	10.4
Working status			
Main Worker	33.1	40.3	36.9
Marginal Worker	17.8	12.4	14.9
Non-Working	49.1	47.2	48.1
Total	100	100	100
N	834692	938348	1773040

Source: Census of India, 2011

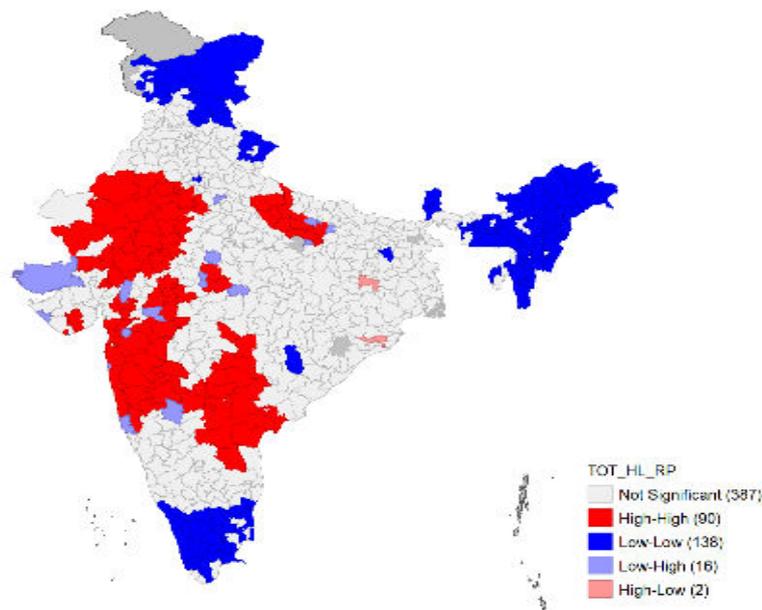
2. Local Indicators of Spatial Association (LISA) Maps and Moran's I Spatial Correlation:

The LISA maps highlight spatial clustering and significance of homelessness whereas, Moran's I show spatial correlation by place

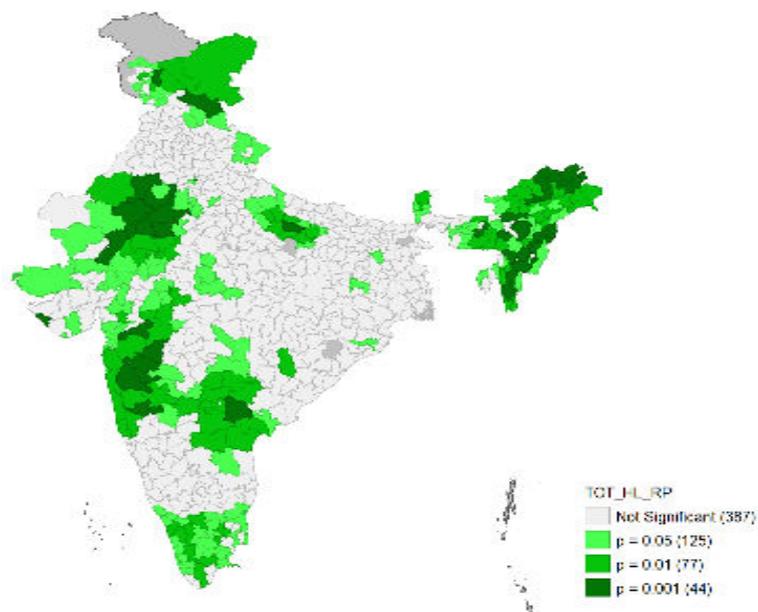
of residence (i.e., rural and urban) at the district level. The rural LISA Maps (refer to figure 4) shows that the significant high-high clustering of homelessness occurred in certain districts of Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujrat, Maharashtra, Telangana and Andhra

Pradesh. Further, low-low clustering of homelessness occurred in some districts in southern and north-east India. The significance map of rural homelessness (refer to figure 5) validates statistical significance of these clusters that the clustering is not random but, spatially dependent, confirming that certain regions

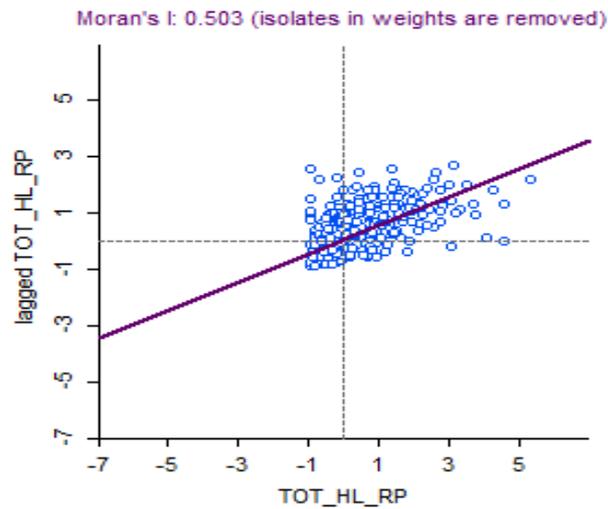
consistently experience higher rural homelessness. The Moran's I of rural homelessness graph (refer to figure 6) shows positive coefficient value for homelessness indicates that district with high homelessness tend to be surrounded by similar characteristics districts, signifying strong spatial dependence.



Figures 4 LISA map showing the Clustering of rural homeless populations in India, 2011



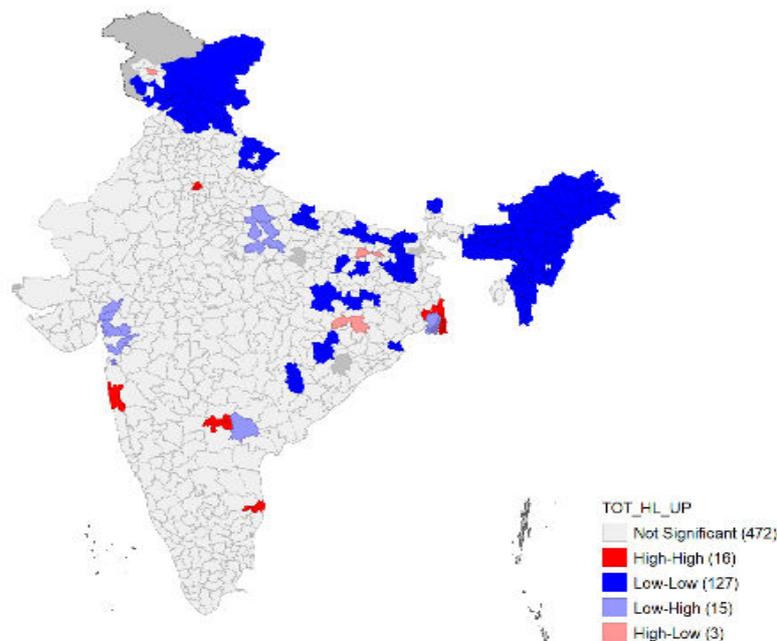
Figures 5 LISA map showing the significance of rural homeless populations in India, 2011



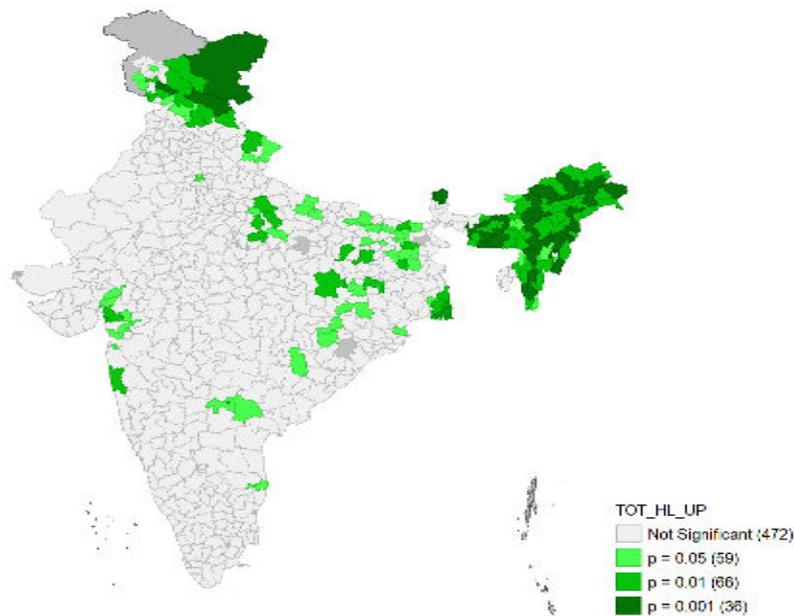
Figures 6 Moran’s I graph showing spatial correlation of rural homeless populations in India, 2011

The urban LISA map (refer to figure 7 & 8) high-high clustering of homelessness shows that urban clusters are prominent in megacities and industrial towns such as Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Hyderabad. Further, low-low clustering shows that some smaller urban centres in the northern, few eastern parts and north-

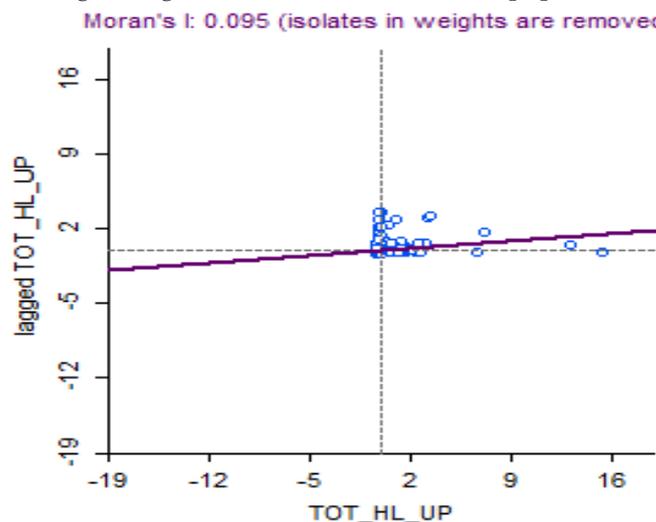
eastern zone of India which exhibits lower homelessness, reflecting comparatively better urban governance and housing policies. The Moran’s I graph (refer to figure 9) of urban homelessness also demonstrates spatial clustering, confirming that homelessness is not randomly distributed but concentrated in specific urban corridors.



Figures 7 LISA map showing the clustering of urban homeless populations in India, 2011.



Figures 8 LISA map showing the significance of urban homeless populations in India, 2011



Figures 9 Moran's I graph showing spatial correlation of urban homeless populations in India, 2011

3. BiLocal Indicators of Spatial Association (BiLISA) Maps and Moran's I Spatial Correlation

BiLISA maps (refer to figure 10) indicates the spatial association between urbanization and homelessness, it identifies areas where the two variables are simultaneously high or low. The feature of high urbanization and high homelessness clusters found in Delhi, Mumbai, Pune, Kolkata, and Chennai, Hyderabad, Bengaluru and Ahmedabad indicating that rapid urban growth

exacerbates housing shortages, leading to increased homelessness. Further, the feature related with low urbanization and low homelessness clusters observed in smaller cities and towns of few districts of southern state, eastern and north-eastern India, suggesting that low levels of urbanization correspond with lower homelessness rates. The High Urbanization and Low Homelessness Clusters appeared in Some cities, particularly in southern India, exhibit high urbanization but lower homelessness,

likely due to better housing policies and inclusive urban planning. Besides, Moran's I (refer to figure 11) correlation coefficient value shows positive association between

urbanization and homelessness that reinforcing the finding that high levels of urbanization are associated with increased homelessness in cities.

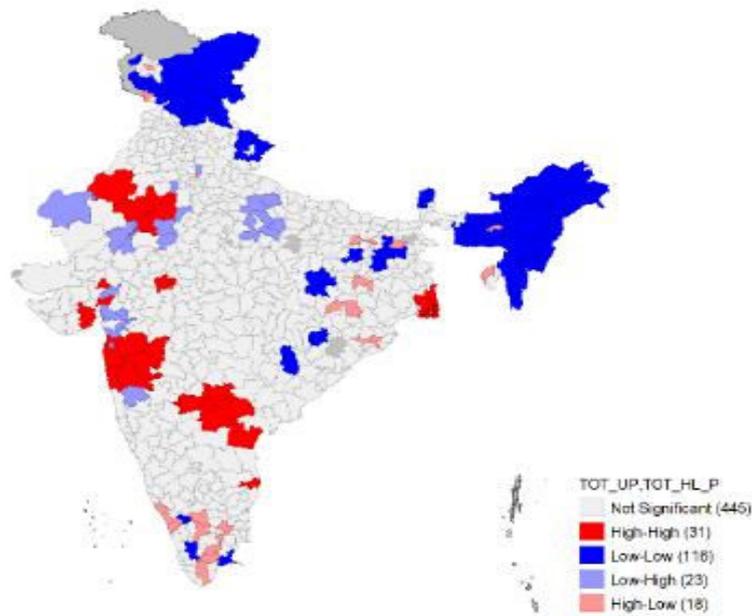


Figure 10 BiLISA clustering map showing of association between urbanization and homelessness in India 2011

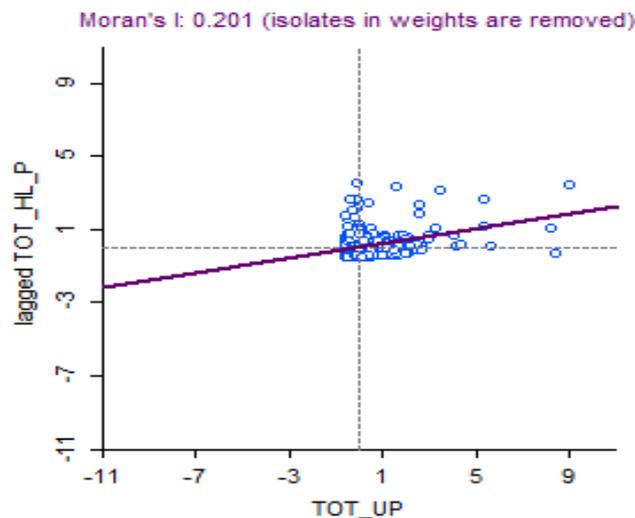


Figure 11 BiLISA Moran's I map showing association between urbanization and homelessness in India 2011

Total number of cities reporting homeless increased from 422 in 2001 to 485 in 2011 (+63 cities) (refer to annexure table 1). Total homeless population increased from 542,128

to 704,499, a 30% increase over the decade. Jammu & Kashmir leads in actual percentage, but Meghalaya and Tripura have small base numbers, causing large

relative spikes. States with decrease in homeless population are Mizoram, Manipur, Punjab, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. Largest increase in total homeless (absolute numbers) are Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, NCT Delhi. States that reported new homeless Cities in 2011 are Sikkim and Nagaland.

Discussion

This study highlights the multifaceted and spatially dynamic nature of homelessness in India, underpinned by urbanization, socio-economic inequality, and demographic vulnerability. First, it shows the strong correlation between urbanization and homelessness; Second, salient findings are the substantial shift in homelessness observed from rural to urban areas; third, high spatial clustering of homeless populations and fourth, the demographic disparities among the homeless particularly for vulnerable section of society (SCs/STs women and children).

The strong correlation ($r = 0.625$) between urbanization and homelessness established the fact that in general, rapid unplanned urban growth intensifies housing insecurity among low-income migrants. Research indicates that many rural migrants end up in precarious urban housing situations or street homelessness due to high living costs and inadequate affordable housing (Goel et al., 2017). However, positive but weak correlation coefficient value at the city level ($r = 0.275$) implies that local policy interventions and governance quality significantly mediate homelessness outcomes. This opens up policy space for context-specific housing and welfare programs, especially in cities that show resilience despite high urbanization. Empirical studies emphasized that cities like Chennai and Bengaluru have lower

homelessness rates due to better rental housing policies and employment-linked housing programs in Tamil Nadu have successfully reduced homelessness in urban areas (Kothari, 2021).

A stark shift of homelessness from rural to urban areas (rise by 20.52%) reflects not an alleviation of homelessness, but its redistribution. The positive BiLISA (Moran's $I = 0.201$) coefficient value confirms that high urbanization-high homelessness clusters exist in around the metro cities. The state level comparison at city level suggests that over the decade few states show more numbers of cities where homeless population get reported like Rajasthan (15), Uttar Pradesh (9), Madhya Pradesh (9) and Gujrat (6). Further, spatial analysis using LISA and Moran's I techniques reveals that homelessness is geographically clustered, rather than random, affirming the regionally entrenched nature of structural deprivation. Urban clusters in industrial megacities reflect systemic urban failures expensive housing markets, informal employment, and lack of social protection for migrant workers (Mitra, 2019).

Finally, the demographic profile of the homeless unveils stark social stratification. The overrepresentation of SCs/STs in rural homelessness underscores how historical marginalization and caste-based exclusion perpetuate housing insecurity. The access to formal housing to SC/ST populations have significantly lower due to discrimination and economic exclusion in India (Mishra, 2024; Mishra & Khan, 2023; Munshi, 2019). Further previous study indicates that in urban areas, SC migrants often end up in informal settlements or face eviction due to weak land rights (Agarwal, 2016; Nassar & Elsayed, 2018).

Similarly, gender disparities, with women undercounted due to survival strategies like informal dependency, highlight a critical blind spot in enumeration practices. This gender disparity is consistent with research showing that homeless men are more visible in urban areas due to their engagement in informal labour markets, whereas homeless women often remain hidden or rely on family networks (Bretherton, 2017; de Vet et al., 2019). Further, previous study argued that homeless women in rural areas are often single mothers, widows, or survivors of domestic violence, making them particularly vulnerable to poverty and social exclusion (Bhattacharjee & Narayan, 2024; Bretherton, 2017; Chakravarti, 2014; Dasgupta, 1956; Rahaman et al., 2024). Children form 15.3% of the homeless population, evidence suggests that these children shows strong links between adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) with poor physical, behavioural, educational, and employment outcomes (Anooshian, 2005; Koh & Montgomery, 2021). Consequently, another study reported about increased likelihood of homelessness during the later ages (Montgomery et al., 2013), that revealing the nature of intergenerational deprivation (Silva et al., 2024) of these children.

Conclusion

The study confirms that homelessness in India is spatially clustered, influenced by urbanization, and disproportionately affects marginalized groups. While rural homelessness has declined, urban homelessness has risen, indicating a migration-driven shift. The findings suggest that improving affordable housing, employment opportunities, and social protection is key to address homelessness. Despite the census 2011 data being a bit old, but the comprehensiveness and usefulness

of the study findings on homelessness cannot be ruled out completely.

Recommendation

The key takeaway is that homelessness is not an inevitable outcome of urbanization but a reflection of policy choices. Cities that implement inclusive housing, employment security, and social protection measures can successfully reduce homelessness despite rapid urbanization.

Future research should explore longitudinal spatial trends and the impact of recent policy interventions (e.g., Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana - PMAY and Deendayal Antyodaya Yojana -DAY) on homelessness patterns in India.

Limitations of the Study

- **Data Constraints:** Census data does not fully capture temporary and hidden homelessness, particularly among women and informal workers.
- **Causal Limitations:** Correlation analysis does not establish causation but highlights statistical associations between homelessness and urbanization.
- **Future research:** Future research should analyse post-2011 trends and assess the impact of recent policy interventions on homelessness. While Census 2011 relied on physical maps and manual paper-based work. The 2027 Census will mark India's transition to a digital framework, using mobile apps, cloud systems, and real-time monitoring tools to conduct and manage the enumeration process. The Census will feature GPS tagging of households and georeferencing to

ensure complete and accurate coverage. Moreover, it will capture data on Caste, tribe status, disability, and migration history which will provide new dimension and significant data set and clustering of these homeless population in India.

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Annexure Table 1 Decadal change during 2001-2011 in number of cities having homeless population

Sl. No.	Regions	State name	2001		2011			Changes in the number of cities	Relative changes percentage in the homeless population	
			Count of cities	Total HH	Total homeless population	Count of cities	Total HH			Total homeless population
01	North	Jammu & Kashmir	2	235	1337	3	1267	8825	1	560.1
02		Himachal Pradesh	1	41	204	1	47	189	0	-7.4
03		Punjab	13	2654	13426	16	2028	7236	3	-46.1
04		Uttarakhand	3	421	1458	6	994	2376	3	63.0
05		Haryana	20	2963	13644	20	3916	14188	0	4.0
06		NCT Of Delhi	10	9592	23130	3	21895	43004	-7	85.9
07	East	Rajasthan	17	6456	33373	29	10113	42857	12	28.4
08		Bihar	19	1875	8106	26	2221	8634	7	6.5
09		West Bengal	58	12629	85762	59	18713	96557	1	12.6
10		Jharkhand	7	371	1390	9	954	3214	2	131.2
11		Odisha	8	3964	7874	10	3265	9238	2	17.3
12	North-East	Sikkim	0	0	0	1	9	24	1	0.0
13		Arunachal Pradesh	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
14		Nagaland	0	0	0	1	95	243	1	0.0
15		Manipur	1	65	243	1	41	106	0	-56.4
16		Mizoram	1	56	262	1	7	30	0	-88.5
17		Tripura	1	58	117	1	122	455	0	288.9
18		Meghalaya	1	4	11	1	26	44	0	300.0
19		Assam	4	178	909	6	464	1299	2	42.9
20	Central	Uttar Pradesh	52	17178	77221	61	35200	154328	9	99.9
21		Chhattisgarh	7	874	2340	10	1320	2950	3	26.1
22		Madhya Pradesh	23	7691	28489	32	11418	37829	9	32.8
23	West	Gujarat	25	11398	46784	31	19852	68527	6	46.5
24		Maharashtra	40	24345	79973	43	27050	91780	3	14.8
25		Goa	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
26	South	Andhra Pradesh	45	12248	50400	44	17781	57054	-1	13.2
27		Karnataka	28	7134	23407	26	6864	21584	-2	-7.8
28		Kerala	7	939	2332	9	1173	2123	2	-9.0
29		Tamil Nadu	26	6969	36098	31	6545	24245	5	-32.8
30	Union Territories	Chandigarh	1	725	2681	1	865	4131	0	54.1
31		Daman & Diu	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
32		Dadra & Nagar Haveli	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
33		Puducherry	2	466	1157	2	400	1373	0	18.7
34		Andaman & Nicobar Islands	0	0	0	1	40	56	1	0.0
Grand Total			422	131529	542128	485	194685	704499	63	30.0

Source: Census of India, 2001 & 2011

Note: The geographical regional classification of Indian States is based on NFHS-5 (2019-2021)