

Exploration of urban sustainability of India through the lens of sustainable development goals

Abstract:

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) index is a recognized metric for measuring progress in the UN SDGs. However, national or multinational-level analyses are more prevalent than sub-national types. We analysed the performance of 14 SDGs for 56 Indian cities (grouped into 6 regions) with available 77 indicators (2020-2021). Pearson's correlation, hierarchical clustering, data envelopment analysis etc. were used to infer existing status, interactions, efficiency, and interrelationships. Finally, we offer policy suggestions coupled with limitations to mitigate the drawbacks of the Indian city SDG framework. The findings reveal the asynchronous nature of SDGs. 18% of Indian cities register a poor track record of converting environmental performance into socioeconomic prosperity while 55% of cities are lagging in performance than respective states. A significant degree of inequality reigns among cities of various regions towards achieving SDGs. In a race to be economically powerful, the environment is being adversely affected. So, mainstreaming the environment into development planning is urgently warranted.

Keywords: data envelopment analysis; hierarchical clustering; India; SDG index; sustainable development goals; urban sustainability;

1. Introduction

India has a vast number of large cities, which contribute to the nation's massive population. There are 39 cities in the country with populations exceeding one million people. Two of these cities, Mumbai and Delhi, have populations of more than 10 million. While these megacities contribute millions to the country's population, the country also features smaller but densely populated cities, such as 396 cities with populations of 100,000 to 1 million people and 2,483

65 cities with populations of 10,000 to 100,000. Rural areas account for 65% of the population,
66 while urban areas account for 35% of the population. This means the current (2020) rate of
67 urbanization is 2.3% (World Bank 2022). In numerous respects, cities have been viewed as
68 critical to advancing the sustainable development goal. Because of their population density,
69 economic significance, prosperity, and resulting worldwide resource requirements, cities have
70 a deep and far-reaching impact on the environment and society beyond their borders. Cities, on
71 the other hand, are centres of information, technology, and innovation, making them critical
72 participants in any transition to sustainability.

73 The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are a blueprint for long-term planning toward
74 social, economic, and environmental well-being that were accepted by all 193 UN member
75 countries in 2015. Transformative transformation is required to address the SDGs' interrelated
76 concerns. To establish egalitarian, inclusive, and sustainable ecosystems where all life may
77 thrive, we must re-evaluate how societies work, how economies move, and how we engage
78 with our planet. These goals have been approved by national governments, but they will only
79 be achieved with the help of subnational governments. Cities all around the world are learning
80 from one another as they incorporate the SDGs into existing planning processes, overcome data
81 and communication gaps caused by administrative silos, and give leadership in identifying and
82 resolving local needs to achieve long-term, large-scale change. Meaningful monitoring and
83 target setting, based on measures that reflect relative and absolute progress toward
84 sustainability, will be critical to cities' success in achieving the SDGs. Downscaling objectives
85 and indicators to the city level to help planning and policy in a local context, however, remains
86 a difficulty. Very recently, the IPCC report (IPCC 2021) has given cognisance to the role of
87 compound extremes and multiple climate change drivers operating in tandem in maximising
88 disaster impacts in 12 Indian cities. Among the warnings, intensity and frequency of hot
89 extremes, such as warm days, warm nights, and heat waves; and decreases in the intensity and

90 frequency of cold extremes, such as cold days and cold nights are of severe importance for
91 Indian cities. Important from these 12 cities, that might go underwater, are Mumbai,
92 Mangalore, Cochin, Vishakhapatnam, Chennai etc. Hence, this study has been conceptualised
93 to understand and explore the contemporary conditions of Indian city SDGs, their
94 interrelationship within SDGs as well as with some other city performance frameworks, SDG
95 efficiency, and drawbacks coupled with policy suggestions to mitigate them in future.

96 **2. Literature review**

97 There have been a handful of works regarding this in the last few years. Simon et al.
98 (2015) have synthesised a co-production work between researchers and local authority officials
99 in 5 diverse cities: Bengaluru, Cape Town, Gothenburg, Greater Manchester, and Kisumu, for
100 urban SDGs. In another work, Arfvidsson et al. (2017) tested the urban sustainable
101 development goal 11 using 5 cities from Europe, Africa, and Asia. Patel et al. (2017) have
102 explored the relationship between data and governance regarding SDG 11 for Cape Town.
103 Koch & Ahmad (2018) have used SDG 11 to measure progress toward an inclusive, safe,
104 resilient and sustainable city using German and Indian cities as case studies. Zinkernagel et al.
105 (2018) have reviewed the evolution of indicators for monitoring sustainable urban development
106 using SDGs and conclude that the SDG indicators provide the possibility of a more balanced
107 and integrated approach to urban sustainability monitoring. Weymouth & Hartz-Karp (2018)
108 have proposed a step-by-step process for the implementation and integration of the SDGs in
109 cities. Nagy et al. (2018) have analysed sustainability on a local level (Romanian metropolitan
110 area) by measuring 16 SDGs. In recent years, various reports have been published on the SDG
111 assessment of municipalities or cities in Europe (Lafortune et al. 2019), the USA (Lynch et al.
112 2019), Spain (REDS, 2020), Italy (Cavalli et al. 2020), Brazil (ICS & SDSN 2021), Bolivia
113 (Andersen et al. 2020) etc. Croese et al. (2020) have reviewed the prospect of localizing the
114 SDGs from urban resilience strategies of the 100 Resilient Cities (100RC) network and Cape

115 Town. Giles-Corti et al. (2020) have examined the extent to which the UN indicators will help
116 cities evaluate their efforts to deliver sustainability and health outcomes. Kutty et al. (2020)
117 have proposed a system thinking approach towards several ongoing smart city initiatives with
118 SDGs for transition to the sustainable smart city using keyword-based search in the Scopus
119 database. Butcher et al. (2021) have done a content analysis of the intersections between
120 ‘urban’ and ‘equality’ references across SDGs, that can ensure ‘leave no urban citizens behind’.
121 Grossi & Trunova (2021) reflect on the SDGs agenda and Key Performance Indicators (KPIs)
122 for sustainable and smart cities as a possible measurement tool for these multiple values using
123 Moscow as a case study. Sharifi (2021) has prepared a bibliometric literature review from the
124 Web of Science of 1991-2020 concerning urban sustainability assessment in the world.
125 Wiedmann & Allen (2021) have also composed a bibliometric literature review from the Web
126 of Science of 1990-2020 regarding cities and SDGs and concluded that SDG monitoring and
127 assessment of cities should take advantage of both consumption-based (footprint) accounting
128 and benchmarking against planetary boundaries and social thresholds to achieve greater
129 relevance for designing sustainable cities and urban lifestyles. Fox & Macleod (2021) have
130 reflected SDG ‘localization’ derived from an action research project of Bristol. Schraven et al.
131 (2021) have composed a comprehensive bibliometric analysis of 35 city labels to examine their
132 (co-)occurrences during 1990-2019 from Scopus towards sustainable urban development.
133 Engström et al. (2018) have emphasised accounting for the international spillovers of cities’
134 SDG actions. Masuda et al. (2021) have developed an analytical framework covering key
135 components for local-level mainstreaming of the SDGs and then, applied this to Shimokawa &
136 Kitakyushu cities. In recent work, Roy et al. (2022) have shown the interrelationships between
137 environmental resource usage and globalization, which is a key characteristic feature of urban
138 areas. Singh et al. (2021) have reviewed city plans as well as peer-reviewed and grey literature
139 to examine climate change adaptation action for 53 Indian cities with >1 million population.

140 They have established that 67% of these adaptation actions are merely in the implementation
141 stage, i.e., a long way from achieving sustainability.

142 Following these, several significant research gaps are identified: (a) there are no studies
143 that use the full spectrum of SDG framework for urban sustainability, and (b) except for reports
144 from SDSN, almost all studies are composed of only one or a few of SDGs, (c) most of the
145 studies on urban sustainability are focused on one topic (e.g., climate change), (d) most of the
146 existing studies only use prevailing analyses instead of incorporating new tools (e.g., data
147 envelopment analysis), (e) there are no such studies for lower-middle highly populated rapidly
148 urbanizing countries like India, that encompasses the features we have mentioned earlier etc.
149 These deficiencies triggered us to compose a comprehensive study that can ensemble solutions
150 for all of these scopes, even with the present data-scarce state (of urban SDG analysis). This
151 work is aimed at understanding the following from the perspective of major cities of India:

- 152 • Achievements and shortfalls in terms of SDGs,
- 153 • Interrelationships among SDGs,
- 154 • Efficiency in utilizing environmental scores towards socio-economic
155 achievements,
- 156 • Relative SDG performance with their respective Indian states,
- 157 • Interrelationships with other indices of performance,
- 158 • Policy suggestions to mitigate the potential drawbacks in the city SDG
159 framework of India.

160 **3. Methodology:**

161 We have collected the SDG scores of 56 Indian cities from NITI Aayog (NITI Aayog 2022).
162 Out of 56, 44 urban units have a population of more than one million. The remaining 12 cities
163 have populations of fewer than a million people. We have not included three SDGs (viz. SDG

164 14, 15 & 17) as the overall scoring of these SDGs are not available in the dataset. The 77
165 indicators included here, covers various topics related to urban sustainability, such as - clean
166 energy, climate action, economic growth, education, forests, governance, health, industry,
167 infrastructure, nutrition, poverty reduction, inequality reduction, urban development, water and
168 sanitation, women empowerment etc. We have also collected six indicators relating to Indian
169 cities. These are - carbon footprint (CF) (Moran et al. 2018), population (Pop) (World
170 Population Review 2022), City Competitiveness index (CCI) (CCR 2017), Ease of Living
171 index (EoLi) (EOL 2020), Cost of Living Index (CoLi), and Pollution index (PI) (Numbeo
172 2022).

173 To understand the interrelationships between various SDGs, we have used Pearson's
174 correlation. For the assembly of correlation (via correlogram) between various SDG scores for
175 every city included in this study, using the 'pheatmap' (version 1.0.12) packages with R (4.1.5).
176 We have used OriginPro 2021 to create the heatmap of individual and grouped SDGs.

177 Along with this, we have prepared the hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA) between
178 2 groups of features, viz. environmental SDGs and socioeconomic SDGs of the cities. We have
179 used within-cluster-sum of squared (WSS) to find cluster numbers via the Silhouette method
180 through Euclidean distance using a single linkage. The Silhouette method determines how well
181 each point fits into its cluster and measures the quality of the clustering. The length of a line
182 segment connecting two locations in Euclidean space is called the Euclidean distance. We have
183 used the 'cluster' (version 2.1.2), 'dendextend' (version 1.15.2), and 'factoextra' (version 1.0.7)
184 packages with R (4.1.5).

185 The performance assessment approach of data envelopment analysis (DEA) is used to
186 determine the relative efficiency of decision-making units (DMUs). For a given level of
187 socioeconomic development (represented here by socioeconomic SDGs), efficient cities use

188 the fewest environmental resources (represented here by environmental SDGs), whereas
189 inefficient cities use the most environmental resources for the same level of socioeconomic
190 development (represented here by socioeconomic SDGs). The efficiency of a city can be
191 assessed by comparing two environmental SDG inputs and 12 socioeconomic SDG outputs.
192 Based on the applicability of our purpose, we employed input-oriented DEA with the slack-
193 based model (SBM) (Tone 2001) and the variable return to scale (VRS) assumption, which
194 minimises their inputs while maintaining consistent outputs, i.e., the same outputs with less
195 input. According to the concept of returns to scale (RTS), we categorized efficient DMUs into
196 three distinct zones: (a) increasing returns to scale (IRS) zone, (b) constant returns to scale
197 (CRS) zone, and (c) falling returns to scale (DRS) zone. For these analyses, we used the 'deaR'
198 (version 1.2.3) package with R (4.1.5).

199 The efficient frontier, which splits cities into two divisions, was used to explore a city's
200 relative situation. We've also calculated improvement goals for less efficient cities that are
201 guided by more efficient cities, which can help us better understand the overall scope for
202 improvements among cities in India as well as abroad. An efficient city, in this context, is one
203 in which inputs are kept to a minimum, but constant levels of success are achieved (outputs).
204 The efficiency coefficient of each city (DMU), which ranges from zero to 1, is computed.
205 DMUs with a one-to-one efficiency ratio are deemed efficient and form the efficiency frontier.
206 The remaining DMUs (with an efficiency < 1) are considered inefficient, and targets for
207 improvement can be assigned. The number of DMUs should be 3 times the sum of the inputs
208 and outputs to have sufficient discriminating power (Banker et al. 1989). Another stipulation
209 is that the number of DMUs equals the sum of the number of input and output variables. The
210 input variables are two and the output variables are twelve in this study, and 56 DMUs meet
211 both criteria, culminating in a model with sufficient discriminating power.

212 According to the concept of returns to scale (RTS), DEA can also categorise efficient
213 DMUs into 3 distinct zones. DMUs can expand their outputs (here, socioeconomic SDGs) at a
214 faster rate than their inputs in the rising returns to scale (IRS) zone (here, environmental SDGs).
215 The input/output ratio (here, environmental/socioeconomic SDG ratio) of DMUs is constantly
216 maintained in the constant returns to scale (CRS) zone. In the decreasing returns to scale (DRS)
217 zone, DMUs' inputs (here, environmental SDGs) are reduced more, while their outputs shrink
218 considerably less (here, socioeconomic SDGs). This study is crucial because it reveals how
219 difficult it is for DMUs (in terms of environmental SDGs) to improve their socioeconomic
220 SDGs. If $\lambda \text{ sum} = 1$, DMU is in the CRS subzone; if $\lambda \text{ sum} > 1$, DMU is in the
221 DRS subzone; if $\lambda \text{ sum} < 1$, DMU is in the IRS subzone (Seiford & Zhu 1999).

222 Due to the nature of the available city SDG dataset (single point, single year), most of
223 the advanced analysis methods, like – different types of regressions, future projection etc. could
224 not be applicable in this study. All the pertinent results related to this study are provided in
225 supplementary file 2.

226 **4. Results**

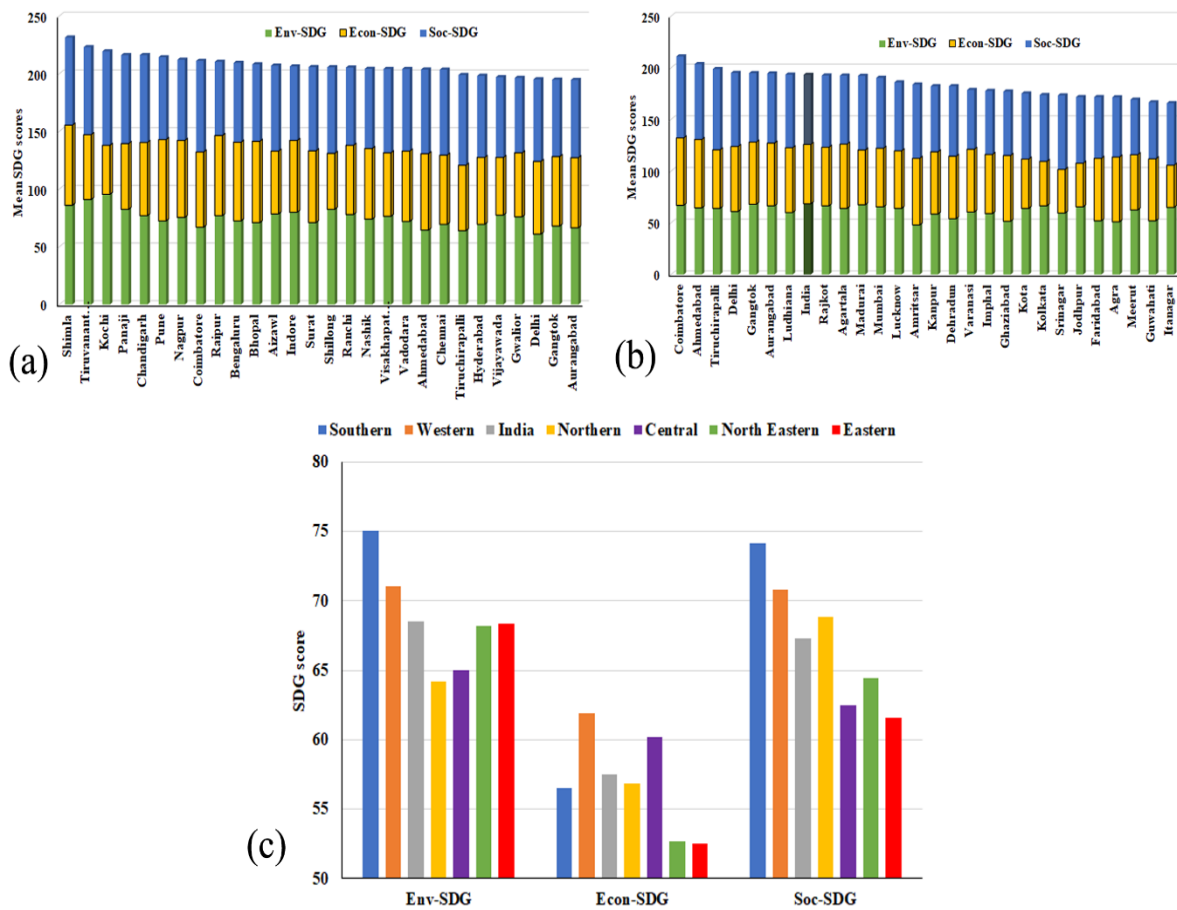
227 **4.1. Performance of city SDGs**

228 We need to understand the performance of Indian cities in SDGs. We have grouped SDGs
229 into 3 categories, based on the ‘wedding cake’ conceptualization (Folke et al. 2016). This
230 includes economy-related SDGs (viz. SDG 8-10 & 12) on top. These are embedded in society-
231 related SDGs (viz. SDG 1-5, 7, 11 & 16). This group in turn depends on environment-related
232 SDGs (viz. 6, 13-15). Based on this (Fig 1 a-b), the best economically performing cities are Pune,
233 Bhopal, Shimla, Raipur, and Bengaluru. The gap between the best (70.5, Pune) and the worst
234 (38, Dhanbad) performing cities in economic SDGs is 32.5. The average performance of Indian
235 cities in this economic SDG is 57.48. It means, 46.42% of cities have lesser economic SDG
236 scores than the national average. Socially most performing cities are Kochi, Coimbatore,

237 Tiruchirappalli, Panaji, and Shimla. The gap between the best (81.37, Kochi) and worst (53.25,
238 Meerut) performing cities in societal SDGs is 28.12. The average performance of Indian cities
239 in this societal SDGs is 67.33. It means, 46.42% of cities have lesser societal SDG scores than
240 the national average. The top 5 cities for environmental performance would be – Kochi,
241 Thiruvananthapuram, Shimla, Panaji and Shillong. The gap between the best (95.5, Kochi) and
242 worst (47, Dhanbad) performing cities in environmental SDGs is 48.5. The average
243 performance of Indian cities in these environmental SDGs is 68.49. It means, 50% of cities
244 have lesser environmental SDG scores than the national average. Since societal and economic
245 development is well connected and interlinked, we have combined them to yield socio-
246 economic development. Likewise, when we perform the same, we get the best
247 socioeconomically performing cities such as - Shimla, Coimbatore, Pune, Chandigarh,
248 Ahmedabad etc. The gap between the best (72.68, Shimla) and worst (49.5, Dhanbad)
249 performing cities in societal SDGs is 28.12. The average performance of Indian cities in this
250 socioeconomic SDGs is 62.4. It means, 42.85% of cities have lesser socioeconomic SDG scores
251 than the national average. Now, if we see the composite score of all SDGs, the best performing
252 cities are Shimla, Coimbatore, Chandigarh, Kochi, and Panaji. The gap between the best (76,
253 Shimla) and the worst (52, Dhanbad) performing cities in composite SDG is 24. The average
254 performance of Indian cities in this composite SDGs is 64.65. This means, 41.07% of cities
255 have lesser composite SDG scores than the national average. We have summarised a
256 comparative table for different features of individual indicators of each SDG (see Table S.1 in
257 supplementary file 1). The descriptive statistics, based on individual SDGs and indicators data
258 have also been calculated (see Table S.2 & S.3 in supplementary file 1).

259 For regional aggregation, we have chosen 6 regions. The distribution of 56 cities studied
260 are – central (23%), eastern (11%), north-eastern (12%), northern (18%), western (18%) &
261 southern (18%) regions (see Table S.4, Fig S.1 in supplementary file 1). If we delve into this

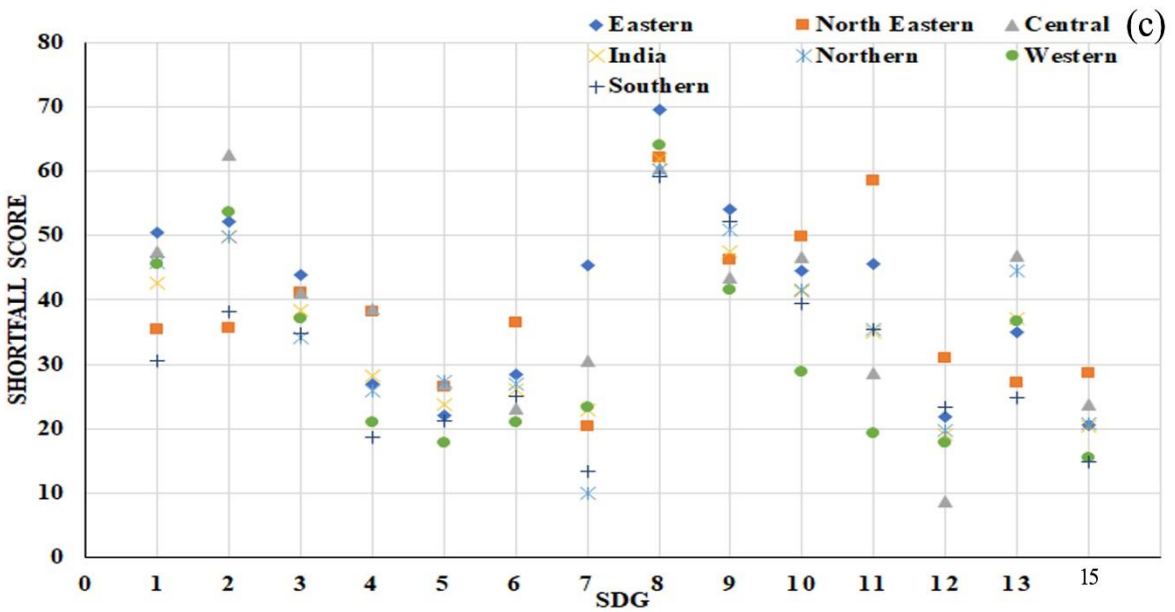
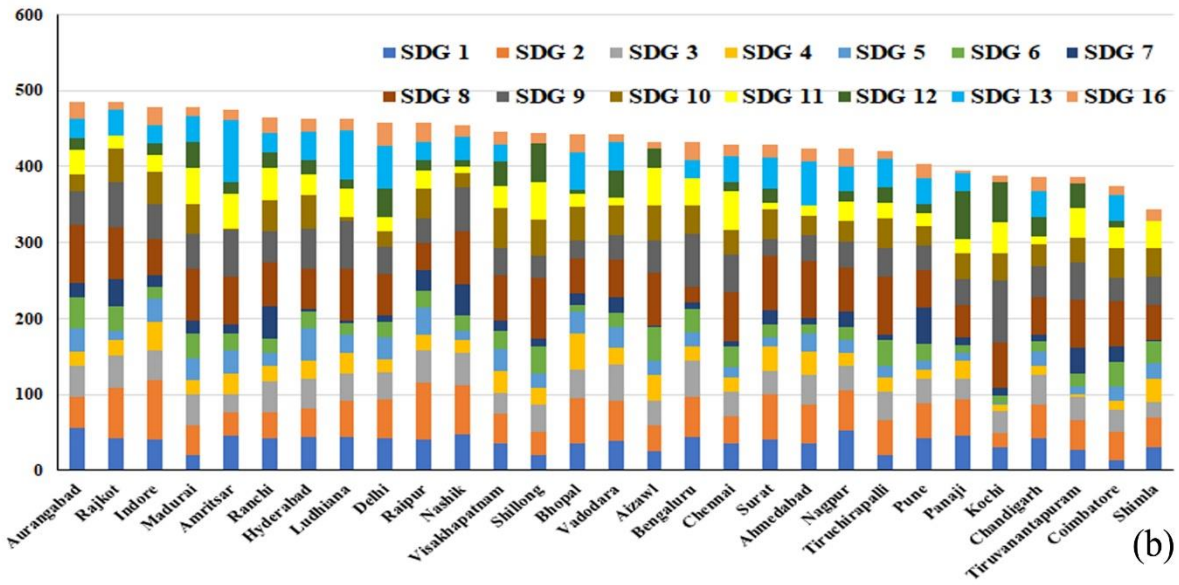
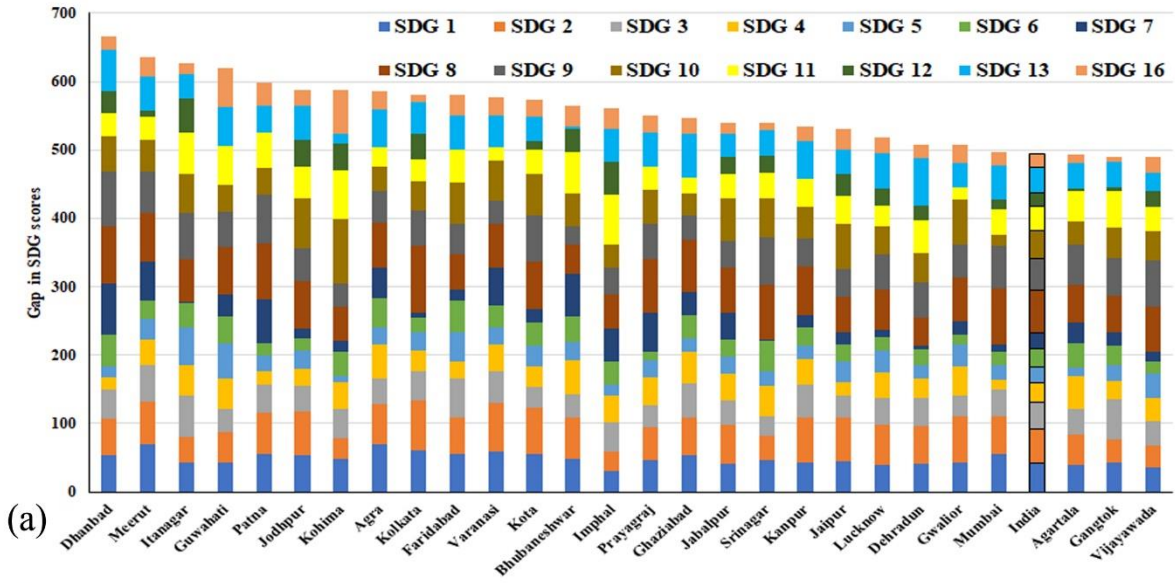
262 regional aggregation (Fig 1c), it is seen that for environmental SDGs, southern and western
 263 cities perform better than the national average, while eastern, north-eastern, central and
 264 northern cities' performance is lesser than that. For economic SDGs, western and central cities
 265 perform better than the national average. But, northern, southern, north-eastern, and eastern
 266 cities perform lesser. For societal SDGs, southern, western, and northern cities perform better
 267 than the national average, whilst north-eastern, central and eastern cities perform less. To sum
 268 up, Indian cities of southern, western and northern regions perform better than the national
 269 average whilst cities of central, north-eastern, and eastern regions perform less.



270

271 **Fig 1.** Achieving 3 types of SDGs for 56 Indian cities (a-b) and 6 regions (c). The SDG groups
 272 are environmental, economic and societal SDGs. The average score of 3 SDG groups for 6
 273 regions of Indian cities (c).

274 Now, we understand the shortfalls of individual SDGs for Indian cities (Fig 2 a-b).
275 Based on this, the lowest-performing cities with the highest cumulative gap are Dhanbad,
276 Meerut, Itanagar, Guwahati, and Patna. The national average shortfall in Indian cities is 35.30.
277 The cities with the highest lag in environmental SDGs would be Dhanbad, Amritsar, Agra,
278 Ghaziabad, Faridabad etc. The national average shortfall in Indian cities for environmental
279 SDGs is 31.5. The cities with the highest lag in economic SDGs would be Dhanbad, Itanagar,
280 Srinagar, Jodhpur, Kochi etc. The national average shortfall in Indian cities for economic SDGs
281 is 42.51. The cities with the highest lag in societal SDGs would be Meerut, Bhubaneshwar,
282 Guwahati, Patna, Varanasi etc. The national average shortfall in Indian cities for societal SDGs
283 is 32.66. If we delve into the SDG shortfall of city-regions (Fig 2. c), we see that the average
284 national shortfall would be 35.31. Among 6 regions, 3 regions, viz. southern (30.76), western
285 (31.69) & northern regions (35.25), have a lesser shortfall than the national average. However,
286 the remaining 3 regions, naming central (37.8), north-eastern (38.39) & eastern regions (40.04)
287 have a higher shortfall.









289 **Fig 2.** Shortfalls in achieving SDGs for 56 Indian cities (a-b) and 6 regions (c). The average
 290 shortfall of individual SDGs for 6 regions (central, eastern, north-eastern, northern, southern,
 291 & western) of Indian cities (c), for the national average score.

292 The gap in SDG score (i.e., inequality) of individual cities indicates if the sustainable
 293 development has taken synchronously or not. If we assemble different cities as per increasing
 294 order of difference between highest and lowest SDG scores, they (SDGs) would be –
 295 Composite SDG > 6 > 3 > 4 > 5 > 1 > 2 > 9 > 12 > 16 > 11 > 7 > 8 > 13 > 10. We can see that
 296 the top 5 SDGs with less inequality in average SDG score for cities are combined SDG, SDG
 297 6, 3, 4 & % 5. On the other hand, the bottom 5 are SDG 10, 13, 8, 7, & 11. These city SDGs
 298 have a large gap in scores among different cities. If we assemble cities of different regions as
 299 per increasing order of difference between highest and lowest SDG scores, they (SDGs) would
 300 be – Composite SDG > 5 > 3 > 8 > 9 > 16 > 6 > 4 > 1 > 10 > 14 > 12 > 2 > 7 > 11. We can see
 301 for Combined SDG, and SDG 5, 3, 8, and 9 have the lowest gap in regional SDG scores with
 302 one another. On the other hand, SDGs 11, 7, 2, and 12 have the highest difference among
 303 regions. From this, as per the decreasing order of regions with the highest shortfall while
 304 comparing with another region would be – Eastern cities (for SDG 1, 3, 7, 8, 9, & Composite)
 305 > North-eastern cities (for SDG 6, 10, 11, 12, 16) > Central cities (for SDGs 2, 13, 14) >
 306 Northern cities (for SDG 5). Cities of the western and southern regions don't show the highest
 307 lag in any SDGs in comparison with cities from other regions of India. We can sum up the
 308 main results of SDG performance of Indian cities with respective regions (Table 1).

309 **Table 1.** Performance of Indian cities in sustainable development goals.

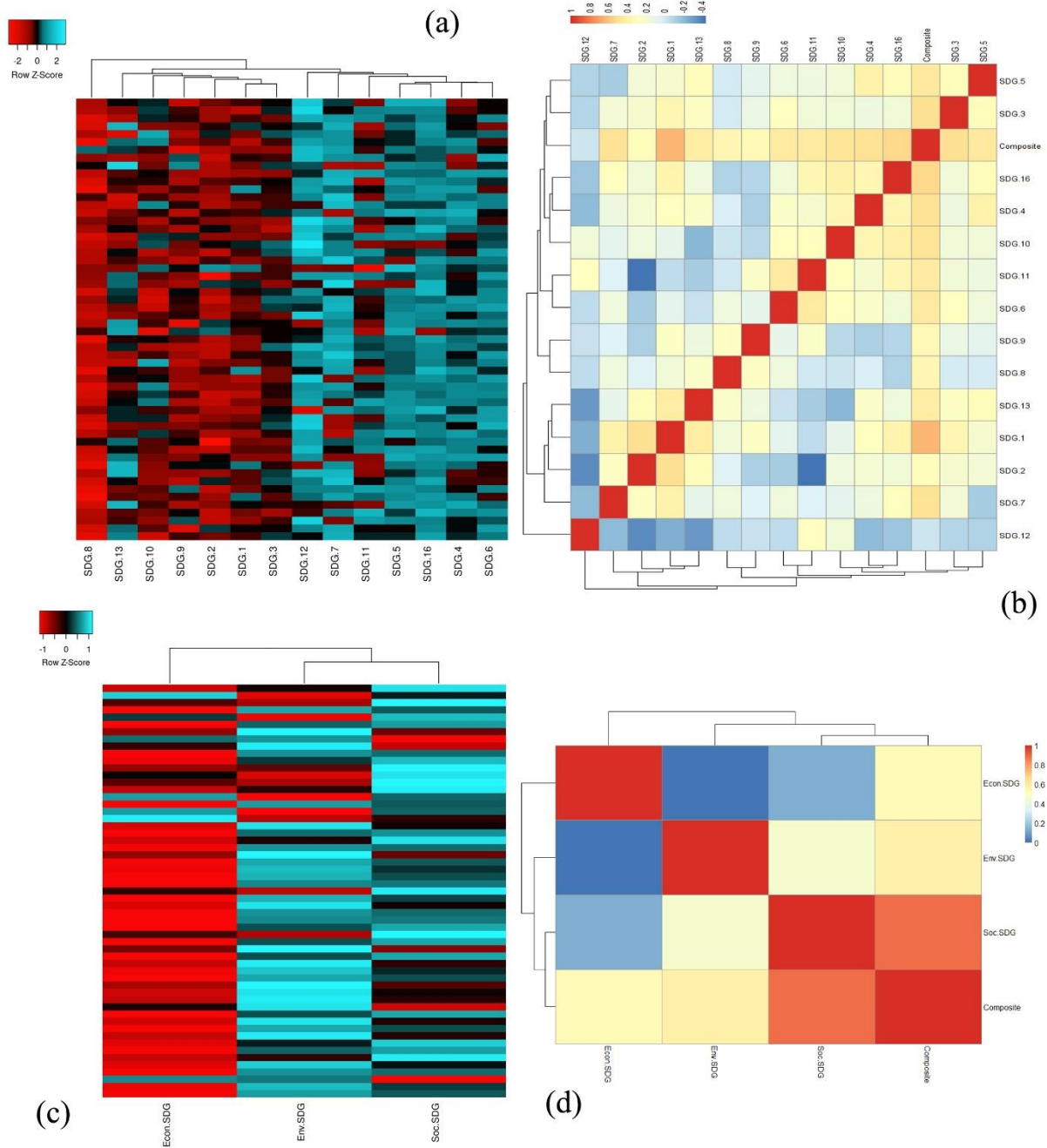
SD	Natio	Highest	Inequal	Lowest	Highest	Inequal	Lowest
G	nal	performers	ity (city	performers	perfor	ity	perfor
	avg.	(cities)	score)	(cities)			

					mer (region)	(region score)	mer (region)
	57.3	Coimbatore, Madurai, Shillong,	56	Agra, Meerut, Kolkata,	South	20	East
	50.14	Kochi, Imphal, Kohima,	58	Indore, Raipur, Kolkata,	North- East	26.9	Central
	61.62	Shimla, Amritsar, Panaji,	40	Itanagar, Gangtok, Faridabad	North	9.8	East
	71.69	Thiruvananthapuram, Kochi, Chandigarh,	46	Bhubaneswar, Agra, Bhopal,	South	19.94	Central
	76.19	Kochi, Thiruvananthapuram, Kohima,	53	Itanagar, Guwahati, Hyderabad,	West	9.6	North
	74	Bhopal, Kochi, Panaji,	39	Faridabad, Dhanbad, Srinagar,	West	15.33	North- East
	77.16	Shimla, Srinagar, Itanagar,	74	Dhanbad, Patna, Bhubaneswar,	North	35.44	East

	38	Bengaluru, Raipur, Panaji,	76	Kolkata, Dhanbad, Patna,	South	10.4	East
	52.5	Surat, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar,	59	Kochi, Dhanbad, Patna,	West	12.4	East
	58.55	Amritsar, Ludhiana, Mumbai,	92	Kohima, Jodhpur, Gwalior,	West	20.96	North- East
	65.01	Nashik, Surat, Chandigarh,	66	Imphal, Kohima, Itanagar,	West	39.13	North- East
	80.89	Guwahati, Patna, Faridabad,	62	Panaji, Kochi, Itanagar,	Central	22.3	North- East
	62.98	Kochi, Shillong, Thiruvananthapuram,	82	Amritsar, Dehradun, Ludhiana,	South	22.03	Central
	79.53	Panaji, Gangtok, Kochi,	62	Kohima, Guwahati, Patna,	South	13.82	North- East
	64.67	Shimla, Coimbatore, Chandigarh,	24	Dhanbad, Itanagar, Meerut,	South	9.1	East

311 4.2. Interactions among city SDGs

312 We infer the interrelationships among individual and SDG groups via heatmap, correlation
313 and hierarchical clustering. For individual SDGs (Fig 3a, also Fig S.2 in supplementary file 1),
314 2 major clusters are seen, one with SDG 4, 5, 6, 7, 12 & 16; another with SDG 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10
315 & 13. We have also performed Pearson's correlation for individual SDGs as well as composite
316 SDG scores (Fig 3b). Here we can see two major clusters. One is composed of SDGs 1, 2 & 7.
317 Another cluster is composed of 4 sub-clusters. They are SDG 8 & 9; SDG 6 & 11; SDG 4, 10
318 & 16; and SDG 3, 5 & composite score. SDG 12 does not belong to any of the clusters. It is
319 seen that except for SDG 10 & 11, there is a negative correlation between SDG 12 and all the
320 rest. If we arrange the individual SDGs as per count of negative correlation with any other SDG
321 or composite score, it would be SDG 12 > 9 > 2 > 8 > 11 > 13 > 6 > 10 > 16 > 1 > 4 > 5 > 7 >
322 composite > 3. These indicate a handful of trade-offs (i.e., not synergy) among various city
323 SDGs in India. For example, the top 5 negative correlated SDGs are SDG 2 (zero hunger) - 11
324 (sustainable cities & communities), SDG 2 - 12 (responsible consumption and production),
325 SDG 11- 13 (climate action), SDG 1 (no poverty) - 12, SDG 10 (reduced inequalities) - 13. To
326 sum up, we can see that achieving socioenvironmental targets in cities is getting hindered by
327 economic targets and vice-versa. For SDG groups (Fig 3c, also Fig S.3 in supplementary file
328 1), we can see that environmental and social SDGs form a cluster that is distant from economic
329 SDG scores. We have executed Pearson's correlation for SDG groups along with composite
330 SDG scores (Fig 3d). Here, we can see that environmental, social and composite SDGs come
331 within a cluster, but economic SDG does not. It is also seen that socioenvironmental SDGs
332 have no high level of positive correlation with economic SDGs. Also, the social SDGs have
333 the highest positive correlation with composite SDGs.



334

335 **Fig 3.** Interrelationships among SDGs for different cities of India.

336 (a) Heatmap of individual SDGs; (b) Pearson's correlation (correlogram) of individual SDGs; (c)

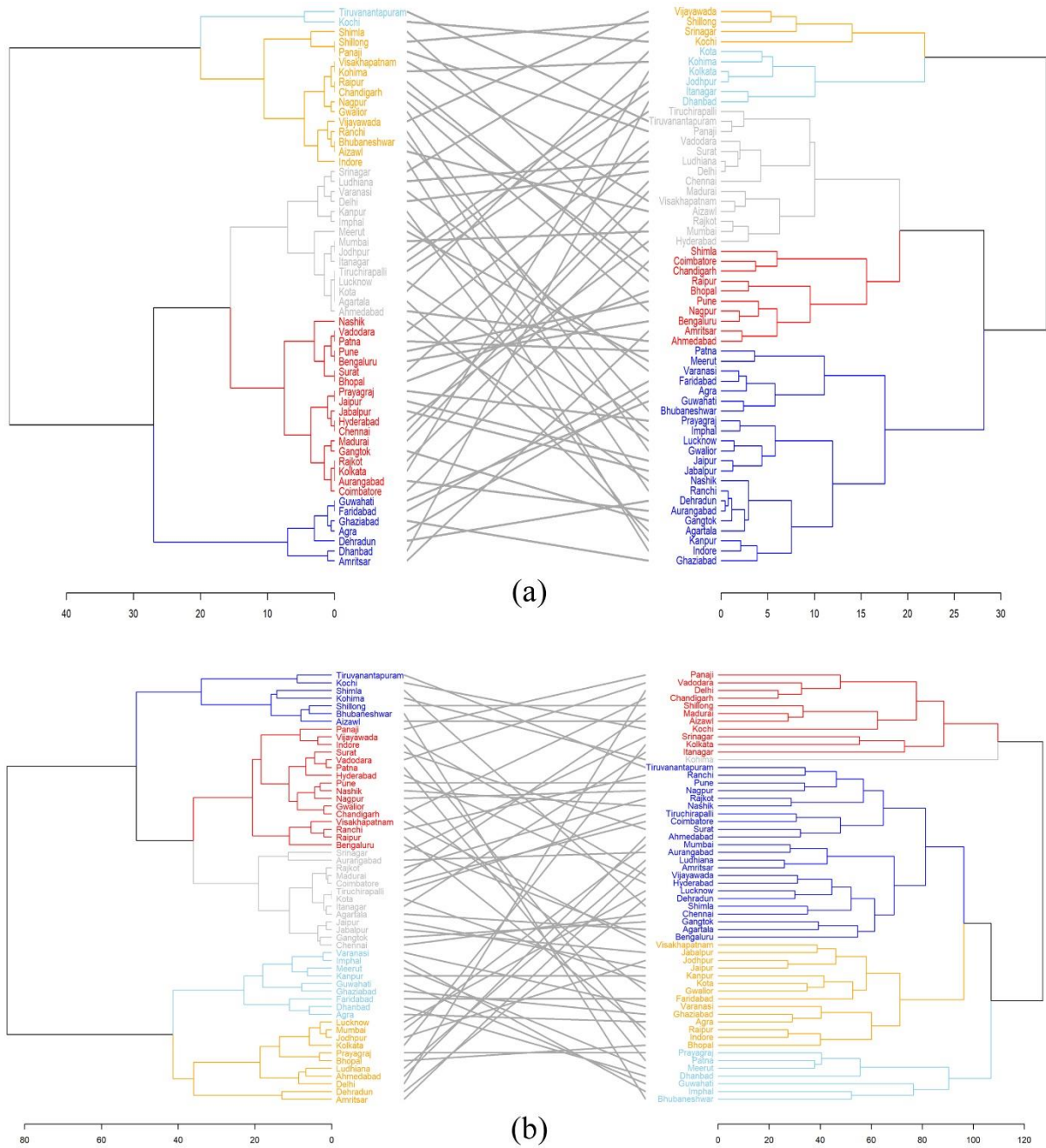
337 Heatmap of environmental, social and economic SDGs; (d) Pearson's correlation

338 (correlogram) of environmental, social and economic SDGs;

339 We have performed the hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA) using 2 groups of data.

340 First, we have used environmental SDG scores as input and economic SDGs & societal SDGs

341 as output (Fig 4.a, also Fig S.4 in supplementary file 1). Second, we have used a similar
342 framework, but individual SDG scores as input as well as output (Fig 4.b, also Fig S.5 in
343 supplementary file 1). In both cases, we have determined the optimum number of clusters as 5.
344 From the first method, we can see on the left side that only 2 cities form the highest
345 environmental performing cluster (sky-blue colour), and only a handful form the cluster of
346 lowest environmental performance (blue colour). The middle 3 clusters (orange, grey, and red
347 coloured), which can be interpreted as better, intermediate and lower environmental
348 performance, are composed of an almost similar number of cities. This means, from the
349 perspective of environmental SDGs, Indian cities fall into various categories with a similar
350 number of members. On the right side, 3 clusters (orange, sky blue and red coloured) are
351 formed by only a handful of cities, viz. 4, 6 & 10 in number, respectively. The remaining 2
352 clusters (grey and blue coloured) are composed of an almost similar number of members. A
353 similar situation is seen in the second method (Fig 4. b), i.e. when we consider individual SDG
354 scores instead of average grouping scores. These results indicate that higher environmental
355 SDG performance is not corresponding to better performance in economic and societal SDGs.
356 This is evident when we track the performance of each city independently. Likewise, better
357 performance in economic and societal SDGs does not mean that the cities have achieved
358 similarly environmental SDGs.



359

360 **Fig 4.** Hierarchical clustering analysis for cities of India (via tanglegram).

361 (a) Environmental SDGs (*left*) and socioeconomic SDGs (*right*), using average scores. (b) SDG

362 6 & 13 (*left*) and SDG 1-5, 7-12, 16 (*right*), using individual SDG scores.

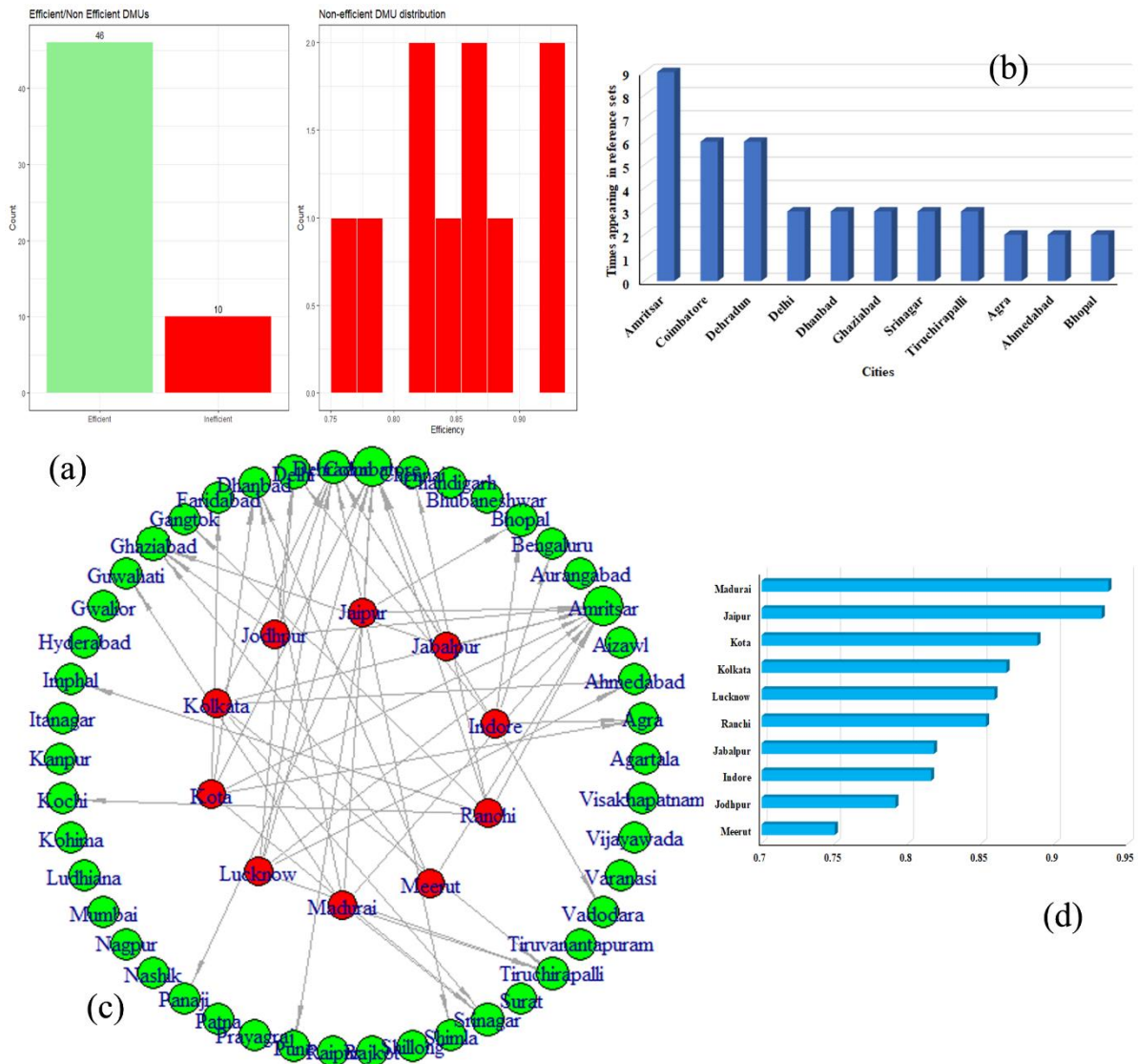
363 **4.3. Efficiency of city SDGs**

364 We next employ data envelopment analysis (DEA) to assess the connecting efficiency
365 of 56 Indian cities. For this, we have used individual SDG scores of 56 cities. Environmental
366 SDGs were used as input and societal & economic SDGs were used as output. This exploration
367 is focused on finding out the efficiency of Indian cities in translating better environmental
368 features into socio-economic prospects or lack thereof. The efficient & inefficient cities are 10
369 (i.e., 17.85%) and 46 (82.14%), respectively (Fig 5. a).

370 Linear combinations of indicator values in a group of comparable cities are used to
371 generate improvement targets. Improvement targets point to the modifications that must be
372 created to improve an inefficient DMU efficiency. Peer cities are thought to be following best
373 practices, therefore inefficient cities should aim to emulate their behaviour as much as feasible.
374 Only a handful (n=8, i.e., 14.28%) of cities have acted as peers for ≥ 3 times (Fig 5. b). They,
375 along with the times of appearance as references, are – Amritsar (9), Dehradun (6), Coimbatore
376 (6), Tiruchirappalli (3), Srinagar (3), Ghaziabad (3), Dhanbad (3) and Delhi (3). The inefficient
377 cities concerning their efficient frontiers are shown here (Fig 5. c).

378 The idea of a return to scale provides insight into the environmental efficiency of
379 DMUs' socioeconomic development (i.e., cities). It determines if the ratio of inputs
380 (environmental SDGs) to outputs (socioeconomic SDGs) for a DMU is more productive or less
381 productive. From the result, we can see that only Jaipur belongs to the DRS sub-zone. This
382 means Jaipur shows decreasing socioeconomic return in terms of SDGs for more
383 environmental input. Only 3 (i.e., 5.35%) cities (viz. Indore, Lucknow & Ranchi) belong to the
384 IRS sub-zone. This means these 3 cities show higher socioeconomic returns for environmental
385 input. All the remaining (i.e., 52 or 92.85%) cities belong to the CRS sub-zone. This means a
386 majority of Indian cities, at this stage show, an equal amount of socioeconomic return from
387 environmental input.

388 The results clearly show that there are 10 (or 17.85%) cities that are inefficient in this
 389 translation (Fig 5.d). These cities, along with their efficiency scores, are – Meerut (0.74),
 390 Jodhpur (0.79), Indore (0.815), Jabalpur (0.817), Ranchi (0.853), Lucknow (0.858), Kolkata
 391 (0.86), Kota (0.88), Jodhpur (0.931), and Madurai (0.936).



392

393 **Fig 5.** The efficiency of converting environmental SDGs into socioeconomic SDGs.

394 (a) Grouping of efficient and non-efficient DMUs (cities, n=56) of India; and Distribution of
 395 efficiency score for non-efficient DMUs (cities of India). (b) Ranking of efficient DMUs (cities)
 396 acting as peers (≥ 2 times) in reference sets. (c) Non-efficient DMUs (10 cities, red, inner circle)

397 and their respective reference efficient DMUs (46 cities, *green, outer circle*). (d) Efficiency
398 scores (0.74 to 0.93, here) for 10 inefficient cities in India.

399 **4.4. SDG performance of Indian cities vs Indian states**

400 We need to understand whether the SDG performance of cities is better or worse than
401 their state SDG scores. To understand this, we have created a comparative index of the relative
402 SDG performance of cities. The relative performance of the city in SDG = (city SDG score/
403 state SDG score). We can also multiply this ratio by 100 to convert the performance scale into
404 a percentage (%). We have done this for each of 56 cities for each SDG as well as composite
405 SDG score (see Fig S.6 in supplementary file 1). It is a general assumption that cities are
406 responsible for the betterment of states or the forward advancement of states since districts
407 have much lesser facilities than cities in terms of employment generation, access to education,
408 health services etc. Hence, in this case, most of the cities are supposed to perform better than
409 their respective states. However, the results show a completely different picture. If we group
410 the relative performance into 3 groups, we can see that only 19 relative performance scores
411 (i.e., 2.26%) in any one of the SDGs are similar to the state performance (=1). Of the remaining,
412 460 relative performance scores (i.e., 54.76%) are worse performers than the state (<1), whilst
413 the remaining (i.e., 361 or 42.97%) are better than the state performance (>1). From this, we
414 can interpret that in the case of most of the cities, other regions in their state (especially villages
415 or smaller cities) must have performed better to bring up the average state SDG performance
416 better than these highlighted cities. The top 10 cities that have outperformed their state in a
417 specific SDG would be Patna (SDG 4, 13), Ranchi (2, 13), Shillong (9), Dhanbad (2), Agartala
418 (5), Kohima (9), Delhi (5), and Bhopal (9). The worse 10 cities that have lesser performance
419 than their state in a specific SDG would be Kolkata (SDG 8), Kohima (10), Mumbai (8),
420 Dhanbad (8), Shillong (8), Patna (8), Amritsar (13), and Tiruchirappalli (8). However, we think

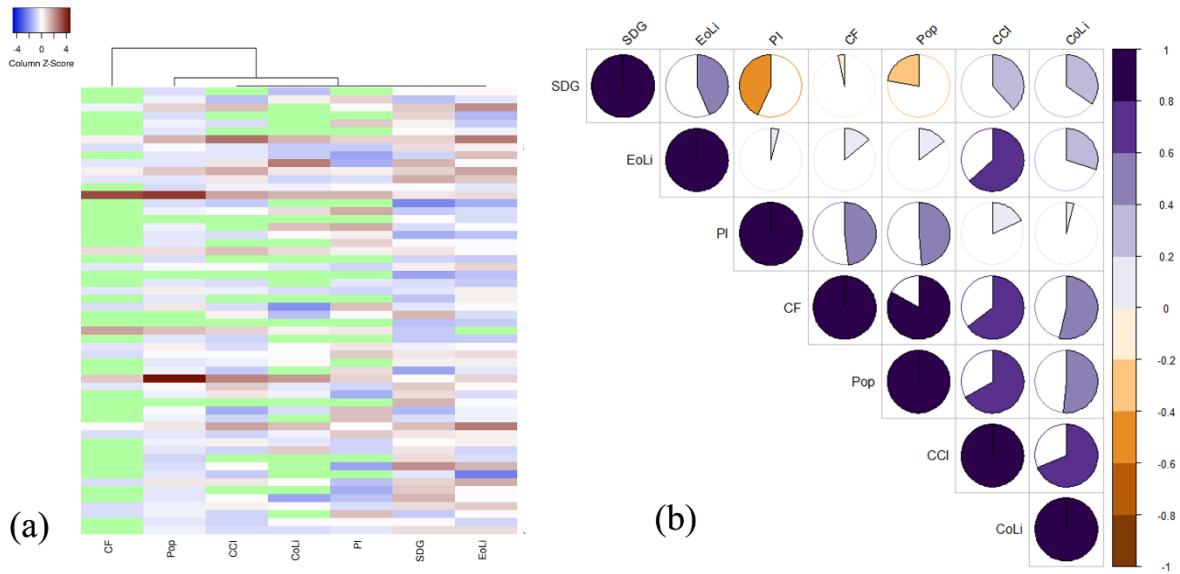
421 that the inclusion of more representative cities would have been helpful to conclusively
422 understand this outcome.

423 **4.5. Interrelationships with other city performance indices**

424 In this section, we try to infer if any relationships exist between SDG scores of Indian
425 cities with some other indicators. Based on the availability of data, we have composed a
426 heatmap (Fig 6. a) to understand the distribution of data. We have also coupled it with
427 clustering to infer associations among different indices. From the heatmap, it is seen that there
428 are some data gaps, especially in CF, CoLi, CCI & PI. The rest of the indices have a good
429 abundance of data to infer relationships. We have applied clustering based on the average
430 linkage with Euclidean distance. The length of a line segment connecting two locations in
431 Euclidean space is called the Euclidean distance. It can be seen that 4 indicators (viz. CCI,
432 CoLi, PI, & EoLi) are closely associated with SDG in cities. Then, Pop and CF are clustered
433 in order.

434 From the correlogram (Fig 6. b), there are a few things to be seen. First, some
435 relationships with a lesser degree of positive associations exist. They are between CF-SDG,
436 EoLi-PI, CoLi-PI, EoLi-CF, EoLi-Pop, PI-CCI etc. Second, some relationships of the
437 intermediate degree of positive associations exist. They are between SDG-CoLi, SDG-CCI,
438 SDG-CoLi, EoLi-CoLi, etc. Third, some relationships with a higher degree of positive
439 associations exist. They are SDG-EoLi, EoLi-CCI, PI-CF, PI-Pop, CF-Pop, CF-CCI, CF-CoLi,
440 Pop-CCI, Pop-CoLi, CCI-CoLi etc. Fourth, only three negative correlations exist, which are
441 SDG-CF, SDG-Pop, & SDG-PI, to an increasing degree. If we focus on the relationships
442 regarding city SDGs, it is easily understandable that the level of pollution index (PI), carbon
443 footprint (CF), and population (Pop) are negatively correlated with city SDGs. The pollution
444 index is a measure of the city's overall pollution. Air pollution is given more weight than water

445 pollution/accessibility, the two main pollution issues. Other types of pollution are given a low
446 priority (Numbeo, 2022). So, higher pollution levels would hinder the achievement of
447 environmental SDGs, and in turn also other socio-economic achievements. The carbon
448 footprint of consumption would work on a similar path. An increase in population would trigger
449 the higher requirement of environmental resources as well as lesser performance in
450 environmental SDGs, which is coupled with a lack or higher competition in access to goods
451 and services related to socio-economic development, i.e., in societal and economic SDGs. The
452 Ease of Living Index assesses the well-being of Indian city dwellers based on four main pillars:
453 Quality of Life (35% weightage), Economic Ability (15%), Sustainability (20%), and Citizens
454 Perception Survey (30%). It means the cities that are easier to live in would be placed higher
455 in SDG scores. The City Competitiveness Index (CCI) measures the competitiveness of Indian
456 cities across a variety of metrics. It employs Michael Porter's Diamond Model framework
457 (Porter, 1998), which defines competitiveness as the sum of factor conditions, demand
458 conditions, the backdrop for firm strategy and rivalry, as well as connected and supporting
459 sectors. It is made up of four pillars that are divided into 12 sub-pillars to map all of the city's
460 important dimensions. These four pillars are - factor conditions, demand conditions, the context
461 for strategy & rivalry, and related & supporting industries. We can see the more competitive
462 the cities are, the better the SDG performance. The cost-of-living index (CoLi) is measured
463 relative to New York City. It is a measure of the relative cost of consumer products, such as -
464 groceries, restaurants, transportation, and utilities. This means inhabiting cities with overall
465 better performance in SDGs usually costs more.



466

467 **Fig 6.** Interrelationship of city SDGs with other indicators. The other 6 indicators are carbon
 468 footprint (CF), population (Pop), city competitiveness index (CCI), cost of living index (CoLi),
 469 ease of living index (EoLi), and pollution index (PI). (a) Clustered heatmap (data gap
 470 represented by light green cells), (b) Correlogram (negative to positive).

471 **5. Limitations and policy recommendations**

472 This work has a few limitations, which could also be viewed as prospects for future research
 473 as well as scopes for policy implementations coupled within.

474 *First*, pertinent and reliable city SDG data management. The dataset prepared by NITI
 475 Aayog is full of data gaps, especially regarding individual indicators of SDG. Also, 3 SDGs
 476 (14, 15 & 17) are practically omitted from the dataset. SDG 14 (life below water) is completely
 477 absent. NITI Aayog has suggested that SDG 14 is excluded since its only important for coastal
 478 areas. We suggest that when consumption-based impacts are measured (via footprint, LCA
 479 etc.), major cities do have indirect yet significant connections with life below water (i.e., SDG
 480 14). SDG 15 has only 2 indicators included, which don't even have rounded overall scores.
 481 NITI Aayog has also suggested that SDG 17 (partnerships for the goals) is not relevant at the

482 urban local body level. We can also argue that to understand synergy & trade-offs, negative
483 and positive feedback among SDG 1-16, and SDG 17 is essential. This has hindered us in many
484 ways to explore deeper into urban sustainability assessment. Authority with whom the data
485 management has been entrusted (here, NITI Aayog) should resolve this. *Second*, less
486 comprehensive dataset. If we compare the city SDG dataset of India with Europe or the US
487 city SDG dataset, we could find a potential drawback. For 4 SDGs, namely SDG 7, 9, 11 & 15
488 the number of indicators used for Indian city SDG indexing fall short by 1 (than the USA), 1
489 (Europe), 6 (Europe) and 2 (Europe) indicators (see Fig S.7 in supplementary file 1). It is a
490 general understanding that robustness can be achieved via data abundance. Hence, it is
491 suggested to incorporate more indicators, especially for those SDGs. *Third*, short dataset.
492 Indian city SDG dataset is composed of only 1 set of data. This specifically stops the temporal
493 assessment as well as a future projection which are of absolute necessity if India wants to
494 comply with the UN SDG by 2030 for urban locations. *Fourth*, of the nearly 400 cities
495 inhabited by million+ citizens, this dataset only includes 56 cities. For many states, there is
496 only a single representative city whilst there are dozens more. Though these cities might not
497 be of national scale importance, these should be included to enrich heterogeneity and
498 representation of Indian city SDG. *Fifth*, is the suitability of urban SDG. At least 35% of urban
499 citizens in India are living in slum areas (2018 data, World Bank 2022). Hence, to practically
500 implement the ‘leave no one behind’ agenda in urban areas of India, the SDG framework should
501 be an inclusive, equity-based measurement of SDG progress. We suggest that initiating people
502 and authorities of these regions are of utmost importance if the Indian urban SDG don’t want
503 to be selectively applicable. *Sixth*, is the need for co-creation, i.e., stakeholder dialogue and
504 engagement. The goal of these urban SDGs is to prioritise performance over in-depth, locally
505 relevant examinations of the causes of complex challenges like urban inequality and poverty.
506 Each urban local government should choose an appropriate indicator set that is both realistic

507 and feasible on the one hand, and challenging and helpful in promoting its urban sustainability
508 transition or even more substantive transformation on the other, ideally in consultation with its
509 respective regional and national departments and ministries, as well as national associations of
510 local governments. In a variety of circumstances, the UN-recommended SDG indicators may
511 prove difficult to implement and ill-suited for local applicability. And here comes the scope of
512 co-creating urban SDGs. *Seventh*, philosophical challenges of urban SDGs. There is a clear
513 risk that sectoral interests will take precedence over the agendas' longer-term objectives. Most
514 local governments are still organised by sector, which makes it difficult to do the integrated,
515 cross-cutting, and collaborative work required to achieve UN SDG agendas. *Eighth*, embracing
516 complexity in the system framework. The potential conflicts, synergies, and trade-offs between
517 the actions aimed at achieving the SDGs must be accounted for in these studies. This should
518 include a discussion of the agendas' 'blind spots', or subjects that aren't covered or aren't given
519 enough consideration. *Ninth*, is the adoption of transformation pathways. The ability to monitor
520 and evaluate progress and alter the course of action as needed will play a role in realising the
521 transformative potential of these agendas at the local level. On the other hand, when available,
522 city governments can use their existing monitoring systems to supplement them with applicable
523 and locally adapted SDG indicator frameworks. *Tenth*, integrating governance. A key aspect
524 of the UN SDG is the integrated nature of sustainability, i.e., the importance of addressing the
525 social, environmental and economic dimensions of sustainability in unison. This requires
526 multi-level collaboration and real- data-enriched and adaptive governance. It includes
527 horizontal collaboration (between entities and actors at the same level), vertical collaboration
528 (between actors at different levels, such as national, regional, and local), and collaboration
529 among different types of actors. If needed, based on various features of cities, like – culture,
530 geographical location, employment generation etc., each city can make their customized
531 framework of law & rules to implement and abide by. *Eleventh*, financing city sustainability.

532 Local governments or higher authorities need to come up with feasible financial plans. These
533 funds could emerge from positive outcomes of various sustainability projects which are
534 economically efficient and then be inserted again for betterment. If need be, city authorities
535 can borrow funds from national or international funding agencies. This aspect is of special
536 significance for lower-middle-income economies like India.

537 **6. Conclusion**

538 This study has examined the performance, interrelationship, and efficiency of SDGs in 56
539 major Indian cities. To sum up the important results of this study, as for the SDG performance,
540 regarding environmental SDGs, the as per the order of performance, southern > western >
541 eastern > north-eastern > central > northern region cities. For economic SDGs, this order would
542 be western > central > northern > southern > north-eastern > eastern region cities. For societal
543 SDGs, this order would be southern > western > northern > north-eastern > central > eastern
544 region cities. For overall SDG score, this order would be southern > western > northern >
545 central > north-eastern > eastern region cities. We also see there is a significant degree of
546 inequality among cities of various regions towards achieving SDGs. Based on the inequality
547 of various SDGs, the order would be eastern > north-eastern > central > northern region cities.
548 From the Pearson correlation, we see that SDG 12 does not form any cluster with any other
549 SDGs, as well is negatively correlated to all SDGs (excluding SDG 10 & 11). Based on the
550 number of positive correlations with any other SDGs, the order is 3 > composite > 7 > 5 > 4 >
551 1 > 16 > 10 > 6 > 13 > 11 > 8 > 2 > 9 > 12. This gives proof of the variable degree of synergy
552 among various SDGs related to Indian cities. From the nature of clustering, accomplishing
553 socioenvironmental goals is hampered by economic goals in Indian cities, and vice versa.
554 Environmental and social SDGs comprise a cluster that is separated from economic SDGs for
555 both individuals and grouped SDGs. Higher environmental SDG performance does not equate
556 to better success in economic and societal SDGs, according to the results of hierarchical

557 clustering. Similarly, improved success in the economic and sociological SDGs does not imply
558 that cities have achieved equivalent outcomes in the environmental SDGs. The results from
559 DEA clearly show that there are 17.85% of cities are with a poor track record of converting
560 environmental performance into socioeconomic prosperity. Furthermore, in their current state,
561 the bulk of Indian cities exhibit an equal degree of socioeconomic return from environmental
562 input (i.e., in the CRS zone). We think this proves a serious scope for decoupling economic
563 growth from the environment, meaning the path towards better socioeconomic development
564 must not come from an environmental cost. When we see the relative SDG performance score
565 of cities with their respective states in India, we see that nearly 55% of cities are worse
566 performers than the state. This suggests that other regions in Indian states (especially villages
567 or smaller towns) must have performed better than these highlighted cities to improve the
568 average state SDG performance. From the interrelationship with other performance scores, a
569 few results come up about Indian cities. Higher levels of pollution and consumptive carbon
570 footprint would obstruct the attainment of environmental SDGs, as well as other socioeconomic
571 goals. An increase in population would result in a greater demand for environmental resources
572 and lower performance in environmental SDGs, which would be accompanied by a lack of or
573 increased competition in access to goods and services related to socio-economic development,
574 i.e., in societal and economic SDGs. SDG scores are higher in cities that are easier to live in.
575 The better the SDG performance, the more competitive the cities are. It is frequently more
576 expensive to live in cities with greater overall SDG performance.

577 We think this work is the first of its kind, based exclusive on India, dealing with urban
578 sustainability based on the UN SDG framework, on a comprehensive scale. This study has
579 many new contributions, not seen in previous studies in similar urban sustainability research
580 domains: (1) including almost all of the SDGs in the city sustainability framework, instead of
581 the traditional usage of 1-2 SDG indicators, (2) examining the links utilising different tools

582 (i.e., analyses) than those commonly used, as evidenced by the literature, (3) exploring
583 interrelationships among various SDGs at an individual city level, (4) interpretation of
584 efficiency of Indian cities, (5) formulation of relative SDG performance measurement, not
585 prevalent in concerning literature, (6) exploring connections of some other performance indices
586 with SDG scores, etc.

587 While not exhaustive, the results came out intertwined with the thoughts provided in this
588 work could provide evidence-based observations on issues that should be considered for a more
589 open and comprehensive process in the formulation and implementation of these global UN
590 SDG objectives at the local level. The agendas' complexity and breadth, as well as their
591 inclusive and participatory goals, necessitate an integrated governance approach that facilitates
592 the formation of partnerships and dialogues between different levels of government (both
593 horizontally and vertically within a single urban agglomeration), across sectors, and with
594 various societal groups. Innovation and cross-sectoral collaboration are essential to achieve the
595 aims of the SDG agendas. Only 8 years are remaining (2022-2030) to achieve the UN's SDG
596 2030 agenda (see Fig S.8 in supplementary file 1). The urban areas of India need special focus
597 as the nature of the socioeconomic stage of development as well as ongoing and potential
598 biophysical resource scarcity problems would affect the city-dwellers harder. We think the
599 singular focus on economic development is about bringing inequalities in access to various
600 societal services, coupled with the scarcity of a range of biophysical resources, which are vital
601 for the everyday life of urban citizens. Local government and administrators should be able to
602 understand critical aspects of a city's social, economic, and environmental performance through
603 city-level sustainability assessments so that cities can be planned and managed to meet the
604 needs of all residents while ensuring that environmental pressures do not exceed key
605 thresholds. The SDGs can help with such judgments by offering a widely legitimate, goal-
606 oriented framework and dashboard of objectives and indicators that encompass social

607 inequality issues more comprehensively than prior sustainability assessment frameworks.
608 Cities are the primary drivers of the global consumption of goods and services, hence the
609 metrics utilised in SDG evaluation must be consumption-based. Cities' impacts or
610 environmental threshold coherence offers significant wasted potential for influencing
611 sustainable urban development. Interdisciplinary research is needed to measure, explain, and
612 assist alleviate the effects of urban consumption. This initial step necessitates ongoing
613 collaboration among earth system, natural, environmental, system, and economic scientists to
614 better understand the interlinkages among urban activities, consumption-based environmental
615 footprints, and city planetary boundaries (for PB of Indian city Mumbai, Hoornweg et al. 2016),
616 as well as dynamic interactions and system reactions. We suggest that, if the sustainability of
617 Indian cities is not taken seriously, it might thwart the regional as well as national progress of
618 India to achieve sustainable development goals by 2030.

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