

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23

Economic Growth, Public Health Expenditure and Air Pollution: A Panel Analysis of Indian States.

Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between fine particulate matter (PM2.5) air pollution and economic growth and labour productivity in India. Over the past decade, India has experienced rapid economic growth and wide-scale urbanization alongside a deterioration in air quality. Rising pollution levels may negatively affect the health of the workforce, consequently reducing the overall output and productivity of industries. Rise in illness incidences puts strain on the healthcare system, therefore prompting an increase in healthcare expenditure.

Using state-level data from 2014 to 2024, this paper examines the relationship between PM2.5 concentration and economic indicators, including Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) and the Index of Industrial Production (IIP). Using these economic indicators as proxies for industrial and state-level activity, this study aims to establish if higher pollution levels can be associated with slower or negative economic growth.

Introduction

Over the past decade, India has experienced rapid economic growth alongside deterioration in air quality. Fine particulate matter (PM2.5), a major component in air pollution, poses serious risks to the health of the population in many economically active regions of the country. At the same time, India has expanded its industrial output and infrastructure development and is continuously

24 working towards more sustainable development techniques. However, this simultaneous rise in
25 economic activity and environmental degradation can be a point of concern for long-term
26 sustainability, particularly in regions with dense industrial activity and experiencing rapid
27 urbanization. Rapid urbanization, increased energy consumption and the growth of the
28 manufacturing industry have contributed significantly to rising pollution levels, especially in
29 metropolitan cities, where economic growth and activity is more concentrated. This creates a
30 situation in which the Government may divide priorities and resources, favoring economic
31 growth or focusing on the preservation or restoration of the environment.

32
33 Exposure to PM_{2.5} can have adverse effects on labour productivity, through increased incidence
34 of illness, higher healthcare costs, and—particularly in the tertiary sector—a reduction in
35 effective working hours through temporary shutdowns and remote work. Prolonged exposure to
36 air pollution can result in major human illnesses and consequently strain the active workforce,
37 reducing economic efficiency and productivity. In response to these growing health and
38 economic concerns, the Indian Government has increased its healthcare budget over time
39 reflecting the rising economic costs associated with pollution-related production. This further
40 strains economic activity as further resources are being diverted into resolving and mitigating
41 health issues rather than enhancing economic output. Such an allocation of resources presents an
42 opportunity cost to the economy, as these funds could have been allocated into education,
43 infrastructure, or technological developments that can have positive effects on long-term
44 economic efficiency and output, but are instead being used to treat health issues caused by air
45 pollution.

46

47 This study examines whether PM2.5 air pollution significantly affects economic growth and
48 labour productivity in India. Using state-level data from 2014-2024, the paper analyzes the
49 relationship between PM2.5 concentration and proxies for economic indicators, such as real Net
50 State Domestic Product (NSDP) and the Index of Industrial Production (IIP). NSDP reflects the
51 overall economic output at state level, IIP serves as the indicator for industry-specific output,
52 allowing for detailed analysis. By analyzing the relationship between air pollution concentration
53 and proxies for economic indicators and focusing on this time period, the study aims to offer a
54 relevant and comprehensive report of the economic implications of air pollution in India.
55 Moreover, utilizing state-level data allows for identifying and comparing trends and variations
56 throughout the years of pollution-related impacts on economic outcomes, providing for a more
57 nuanced understanding of the relationship between pollution and economic output within a large
58 and diverse economy like India. This investigation is important because the connection between
59 air pollution and economic output explains valuable factors that should be discussed regarding
60 economic growth.

61

62 **Literature Review**

63 A growing body of research has documented the detrimental effects of PM2.5 on human health
64 and economic performance. In India, Behrer et al. (2021) show that long-term exposure to
65 elevated PM2.5 levels is associated with lower labour productivity and reduced human capital
66 formation. Similarly, Majumder et al. (2019) find that every 10% rise in PM2.5 concentration
67 corresponds to a 14% decline in labour productivity in manufacturing industries. Agarwal and
68 Narain (2018) further document increased morbidity and healthcare spending linked to poor air
69 quality.

70 Internationally, Chay and Greenstone (2003) show that reductions in particulate air pollution
71 improves worker productivity in the United States. Graff Zivin and Neidell (2012) find that local
72 air pollution reduces productivity in the service sector and raises healthcare costs. In China,
73 Ebenstein et al. (2017) demonstrate that decreases in PM2.5 following policy changes regarding
74 pollution resulted in higher productivity and lower mortality.

75 Focusing on the broader impacts of air pollution, Chen et al. (2018) show that higher PM2.5
76 exposure significantly worsens mental health outcomes, highlighting an important channel
77 through which air pollution can indirectly reduce labour productivity and economic performance.
78 Zhang et al. (2019) link higher PM2.5 concentration with lower urban economic output and
79 reduced consumption. Hanna and Oliva (2015) show that PM2.5 exposure increases labour
80 supply constraints through health effects in Mexico. In addition, reports by global organisations
81 such as the World Bank and OECD (2022-25) provide evidence that PM2.5 imposes significant
82 costs on productivity, health expenditure, and long-term growth.

83

84 Literature Gap- Despite this literature, relatively few studies examine the relationship between
85 PM2.5, labour productivity, and economic growth at the state level within large and diverse
86 economies such as India over an extended period. This study aims to address this gap by
87 focusing on India from 2014-15 to 2024-25.

88

89 **Research Question**

90 What is the relationship between PM2.5 air pollution, economic growth, and labour productivity
91 across Indian states?

92

93 **Objectives**

94 Based on the research question this paper aims to explore:

- 95 ● Examine the relationship between economic growth (NSDP) and PM2.5 air pollution
- 96 levels
- 97 ● Analyse the relationship between industrial productivity (proxied by wages) and pollution
- 98 ● Evaluate the association between of government health expenditure PM2.5 air pollution
- 99 levels
- 100 ● Explore the correlation between PM2.5 air pollution levels and health expenditure

101

102

103 **Methodology**

104 The paper is based on secondary data sources. Data is collected from various official websites for
105 the time period of 2014-15 to 2024-25. This study investigates the determinants of air pollution
106 across Indian states using a balanced panel dataset covering 29 states for the period 2014–2015
107 to 2024–2025. The panel dataset contains 319 observations, allowing the analysis to capture both
108 cross-sectional and time-series variations in air pollution levels. The dependent variable used in
109 the analysis is PM2.5 concentration, which represents the level of fine particulate matter with a
110 diameter of less than 2.5 micrometers. PM2.5 air pollution is widely recognized as one of the
111 most harmful air pollutants due to its ability to penetrate deep into the respiratory system and
112 cause severe health problems. According to the World Health Organization, exposure to high
113 levels of PM2.5 air pollution is associated with respiratory diseases, cardiovascular illnesses, and
114 premature mortality.

115 The key explanatory variables included in the study are economic growth, government health
116 expenditure, industrial productivity, and rainfall. Economic growth is measured using the
117 logarithm of Net State Domestic Product (lnNSDP), which captures the level of economic
118 activity within each state. Government health expenditure is measured using the logarithm of
119 public health spending (lnGovHealthExp) to reflect the level of government investment in
120 healthcare infrastructure and public health services.

121 Industrial productivity is proxied by average wages, which reflect the level of industrial and
122 labor market activity within each state. Higher wage levels often indicate increased industrial
123 production and economic development. Wages are used as a proxy for industrial productivity due
124 to the unavailability of consistent state-level productivity measures, and they reflect labour
125 market conditions and industrial activity, which are closely linked to production levels. Rainfall
126 is included as a meteorological control variable because precipitation can influence the
127 dispersion and removal of particulate pollutants through atmospheric processes such as wet
128 deposition.

129 To examine the relationship between economic growth, public health expenditure, industrial
130 productivity, and air pollution, the study employs a panel regression model. Panel data analysis
131 is particularly useful because it allows researchers to control for unobserved heterogeneity across
132 states and capture temporal dynamics in the data.

133 The general empirical model used in the study can be expressed as:

$$134 \text{PM2.5}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\ln\text{NSDP}_{it}) + \beta_2(\ln\text{GovHealthExp}_{it}) + \beta_3(\text{Wages}_{it}) + \beta_4(\text{Rainfall}_{it}) + u_i + \lambda_t + \epsilon_{it}$$

135 where:

- 136 ● $PM2.5_{it}$ represents the PM2.5 concentration in state i at time t
- 137 ● $\ln NSDP_{it}$ represents the logarithm of Net State Domestic Product
- 138 ● $\ln GovHealthExp_{it}$ represents the logarithm of government health expenditure
- 139 ● $Wages_{it}$ represents average wages as a proxy for industrial productivity
- 140 ● $Rainfall_{it}$ represents precipitation levels
- 141 ● β_0 =overall intercept
- 142 ● i = state
- 143 ● t = year
- 144 ● u_i = state-specific fixed effect (e.g., governance quality, geography)
- 145 ● λ_t =Time fixed effects
- 146 ● ϵ_{it} = idiosyncratic error

147 The inclusion of state-specific effects allows the model to control for time-invariant
148 characteristics such as geographic conditions, historical industrial structures, and institutional
149 factors that may influence pollution levels across states.

150

151 **Result & analysis**

152 This study examines the determinants of air pollution across Indian states using a panel dataset
153 covering the period 2014–2015 to 2024–2025. The empirical analysis uses a fixed-effects panel
154 regression model with Driscoll–Kraay standard errors to account for potential heteroskedasticity,
155 serial correlation, and cross-sectional dependence in the panel structure. The Driscoll–Kraay
156 estimator provides strong inference even when cross-sectional units are interdependent, which is
157 particularly relevant for environmental studies where pollution often spreads across regional
158 areas (Driscoll & Kraay, 1998).

159 The dependent variable is PM2.5 concentration, which represents fine particulate matter widely
160 recognized as a major environmental and public health hazard. Key variables include economic
161 growth (log of Net State Domestic Product), government health expenditure (log), wages as a
162 proxy for industrial productivity, and rainfall as a meteorological control variable.

163 The statistical results ($F = 152.41$, $p < 0.01$) confirm that the variables chosen explain why air
164 pollution levels differ across Indian states. While the model accounts for about 16% of the year-
165 to-year changes in PM2.5 levels within those states with an R^2 value of 0.1603, this level of
166 impact is quite standard for environmental research. Air quality is incredibly complex, shaped by
167 a massive web of shifting weather patterns, local geography, and evolving government policies
168 that are difficult to capture in a single mathematical snapshot.

169 **• Impact on Economic Growth and Air Pollution**

170 The regression results show that economic growth (represented by NSDP) is positively and
171 significantly associated with PM2.5 concentrations ($\beta = 6.568$, $p < 0.05$). This finding suggests
172 that increases in state-level economic output are associated with higher levels of particulate
173 pollution.

174 One possible explanation is that economic expansion in developing regions is often accompanied
175 by rapid industrialization, increased energy consumption, infrastructure development, and
176 growth in transportation, and is associated with higher emissions of pollutants. In many
177 emerging economies, economic growth initially relies heavily on fossil fuels, which intensifies
178 the pollution produced.

179 This result is consistent with the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) framework proposed by
180 Gene Grossman and Alan Krueger. The EKC hypothesis suggests that environmental

181 degradation tends to increase during the early stages of economic development as production and
182 consumption expand. However, after a certain income level is reached, environmental quality
183 may improve as economies adopt more environmentally-friendly technologies, stronger
184 environmental regulations, and more efficient production methods thanks to better access to
185 technology.

186 The positive relationship observed in this study indicates that many Indian states may still be in
187 the initial phase of the EKC, where the high economic growth directly corresponds with higher
188 pollution levels. Similar findings have been reported in several empirical studies examining the
189 growth–environment nexus in developing economies (Stern, 2004; Shahbaz et al., 2013).

190 • **Impact of Industrial Productivity on Pollution**

191 Wages, used as a proxy for industrial productivity and economic activity, is positively and
192 significantly associated with PM2.5 concentrations ($\beta = 2.20 \times 10^{-6}$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that
193 higher wage levels are associated with increased air pollution.

194 Higher wages often reflect greater industrial production and labor demand, as industrial
195 expansion is generally associated with increased energy consumption and greater use of fossil
196 fuels, which is linked to higher emissions. As industrial productivity rises, pollution levels may
197 increase unless cleaner technologies, more efficient production methods and environmental
198 regulations are implemented.

199 Additionally, rising wages can stimulate higher household consumption and increased
200 transportation, both of which contribute to higher emissions. Households often purchase more
201 vehicles when they possess an increased purchasing power, consume a higher amount of

202 electricity, and promote an expansion and improvement in urban infrastructure, all of which may
203 increase air pollution.

204 This finding aligns with previous studies showing that industrialization and productivity growth
205 are significant drivers of environmental degradation in developing economies (Stern, 2004).
206 Without appropriate environmental policies, industrial growth can lead to detrimental ecological
207 outcomes, including deteriorating air quality.

208 **• Impact of Government Health Expenditure on Air Pollution**

209 Government health expenditure (represented by Government health expenditure) shows a
210 negative and significant relationship with PM2.5 concentrations ($\beta = -12.517$, $p < 0.01$).

211 This result implies that higher public spending on healthcare is associated with a reduction
212 in air pollution levels. This finding highlights the important role of public health
213 investments in improving environmental outcomes. From a theoretical perspective,
214 government expenditure on healthcare can influence pollution through several mechanisms.

215 Firstly, increased health spending often reflects greater commitment to public welfare and
216 environmental protection. Governments facing rising pollution-related health risks may allocate
217 more resources in order to control and reduce pollution through better environmental monitoring
218 systems and regular interventions in the public health sector aimed at improving health services.

219 Secondly, higher healthcare expenditure can strengthen institutional capacity, enabling
220 governments to implement stricter environmental regulations and enforce pollution standards
221 more effectively. Environmental governance requires adequate public resources for monitoring
222 emissions, conducting health surveillance, and implementing regulatory frameworks.

223 Higher healthcare spending also helps build stronger government institutions, giving them the
224 resources they need to effectively enforce environmental laws and pollution standards. Effective
225 environmental oversight requires ample funding for monitoring emissions, tracking public health
226 trends, and maintaining regulatory systems.

227 Third, investments in public health infrastructure often raise public awareness about
228 environmental risks. Greater awareness can lead to stronger demand for environmental
229 regulation and policies that promote or enforce sustainable development.

230 The relationship between public health investment and environmental quality is also consistent
231 with the health–environment feedback hypothesis, which suggests that governments respond to
232 environmental health risks by increasing public spending to protect population health (Jerrett et
233 al., 2005). Similarly, research has shown that improved healthcare systems and stronger
234 institutional frameworks can facilitate environmental improvements by enhancing regulatory
235 enforcement and environmental management.

236 Furthermore, strategic investments in public health can also shift the focus toward cleaner
237 production and more sustainable practices, encouraging governments to prioritize prevention
238 over simply treating the consequences of pollution. By moving away from a model that only
239 reacts after environmental damage has occurred, public funding can be directed toward proactive
240 measures like advanced pollution monitoring systems, comprehensive urban air quality
241 programs, and the adoption of green technologies. This transition not only protects public health
242 but also establishes a more resilient and sustainable regulatory framework.

243 Empirical studies have also highlighted the importance of government spending in improving the
244 environment. For instance, Lopez, Galinato, and Islam (2011) found that public expenditure on

245 environmental and social sectors can contribute to improved environmental quality by
246 strengthening regulatory institutions and supporting environmental protection initiatives.

247 Therefore, the negative coefficient of government health expenditure observed in this study
248 suggests that greater investment in healthcare can contribute not only to improved health
249 outcomes but also to better environmental conditions.

250 • **Rainfall and Air Pollution**

251 Rainfall was included in the model as a meteorological control variable because precipitation can
252 influence the dispersion and removal of particulate matter from the atmosphere. The regression
253 results show that rainfall has a negative but statistically insignificant effect on PM2.5
254 concentrations.

255 Although rainfall can reduce airborne particulate matter through a process known as wet
256 deposition, its long-term impact on pollution levels may be limited. Air pollution is influenced
257 by several meteorological conditions, including wind patterns, atmospheric stability, and
258 humidity. Therefore, rainfall may only have a temporary cleansing effect, which may not
259 significantly affect long-term pollution trends across states.

260 Overall, the results suggest that economic growth and industrial productivity contribute to higher
261 air pollution levels, while government healthcare expenditure plays a significant role in reducing
262 pollution. These findings highlight the importance of integrating environmental considerations
263 into economic development policies.

264 The results also emphasize the role of public sector investment and institutional capacity in
265 addressing environmental challenges. Governments that invest more in healthcare and public

266 welfare may also be more likely to implement effective environmental policies and pollution
267 control measures.

268 For rapidly developing economies such as India, achieving sustainable development requires
269 balancing economic growth with environmental protection. Policies promoting clean
270 technologies, renewable energy adoption, advanced and efficient methods of production, and
271 stronger environmental regulation are essential for reducing pollution while maintaining
272 economic progress.

273 Table: Fixed Effects Regression Results (Driscoll–Kraay Standard Errors)

Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	t- value	p-value
lnNSDP	6.568***	2.570	2.56	0.029
lnGovHealthEx p	-12.517***	2.380	-5.26	0.000
Wages	2.20e- 06***	2.24e-07	9.83	0.000
Rainfall	-0.000235	0.001652	-0.14	0.890
Constant	65.388***	11.375	5.75	0.000

274 Notes: *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$.

275 To complement the panel regression analysis, the study examines the relationship between
276 PM2.5 and government health expenditure using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The

277 estimated correlation value of -0.02 indicates a negligible and statistically insignificant linear
278 relationship between the two variables. This suggests that, at the aggregate level, variations in
279 pollution do not exhibit any meaningful direct association with health expenditure. The near-zero
280 correlation may arise due to lagged health responses to pollution exposure, differences in state-
281 level institutional capacity, and the presence of omitted variables such as income levels and
282 demographic structure. Therefore, simple bivariate correlation may not adequately capture the
283 complex relationship between environmental degradation and public health spending.

284 **Conclusion**

285 This study investigates the determinants of PM_{2.5} air pollution across Indian states using
286 a panel dataset covering the period 2014–2015 to 2024–2025. The empirical findings
287 reveal that economic growth, measured by Net State Domestic Product, is positively
288 associated with pollution levels, indicating that higher economic activity is associated
289 with increased environmental degradation. This result suggests that many Indian states
290 are still in the early phase of development, where growth is driven by energy-intensive
291 industrialization.

292 Industrial productivity, proxied by wages, is also found to significantly increase pollution
293 levels, reflecting the environmental costs of expanding industrial activity and rising
294 consumption. In contrast, government health expenditure indicates a negative and
295 significant relationship with PM_{2.5} concentration, suggesting that higher public
296 investment in health is associated with improved environmental outcomes. This may

297 reflect stronger institutional capacity, greater public awareness, and more effective policy
298 implementation in states with higher levels of public spending.

299 Rainfall, while theoretically expected to reduce pollution through atmospheric cleansing,
300 does not show a statistically significant impact in the long run.

301 Overall, the findings highlight the trade-off between economic growth and environmental
302 sustainability in developing economies. The results suggest that without policy
303 intervention, economic growth is associated with higher levels of environmental
304 degradation. However, the results should be interpreted with caution, as the model does
305 not fully establish cause-and-effect relationships. Therefore, a clear need for stronger
306 policy frameworks that promote clean energy systems, stricter environmental regulations,
307 and increased investment in public health and environmental infrastructure are essential
308 to achieve sustainable and inclusive growth in India.

309 References

310 Driscoll, J. C., & Kraay, A. C. (1998). Consistent covariance matrix estimation with spatially
311 dependent panel data. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 80(4), 549–560.

312 Grossman, G. M., & Krueger, A. B. (1995). Economic growth and the environment. *Quarterly*
313 *Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 353–377.

314 Jerrett, M., Burnett, R., Ma, R., Pope, C., Krewski, D., Newbold, K., ... Thun, M. (2005). Spatial
315 analysis of air pollution and mortality in Los Angeles. *Epidemiology*, 16(6), 727–736.

316 Lopez, R., Galinato, G., & Islam, A. (2011). Fiscal spending and the environment: Theory and
317 empirics. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 62(2), 180–198.

318 Shahbaz, M., Lean, H. H., & Shabbir, M. S. (2013). Environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis in
319 Pakistan: Cointegration and Granger causality. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*,
320 16(5), 2947–2953.

321 Stern, D. I. (2004). The rise and fall of the environmental Kuznets curve. *World Development*,
322 32(8), 1419–1439.

323 Wooldridge, J. M. (2010). *Econometric analysis of cross section and panel data* (2nd ed.). MIT
324 Press.

326 **Web Links**

327 <https://cpcb.nic.in/namp-data/>

328 <https://rbi.org.in/Scripts/PublicationsView.aspx?id=23179>

329 [https://iced.niti.gov.in/economy-and-demography/key-economic-indicators/index-of-industrial-
330 production](https://iced.niti.gov.in/economy-and-demography/key-economic-indicators/index-of-industrial-
330 production)

331 <https://microdata.gov.in/NADA/index.php/catalog/26>

332 <https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-06/NHA%20Estimates%20Report%20-14-15.pdf>

333 [https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-06/NHA%20Estimates%20Report%20-2015-
334 16.pdf](https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-06/NHA%20Estimates%20Report%20-2015-
334 16.pdf)

335 [https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-
336 06/FINAL%20National%20Health%20Accounts%202016-17%20Nov%202019-
337 for%20Web%20%281%29.pdf](https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-
336 06/FINAL%20National%20Health%20Accounts%202016-17%20Nov%202019-
337 for%20Web%20%281%29.pdf)

338 [https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-11/National%20Health%20Accounts-%202017-](https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-11/National%20Health%20Accounts-%202017-18.pdf)

339 [18.pdf](https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2021-11/National%20Health%20Accounts-%202017-18.pdf)

340 <https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2023-04/National%20Health%20Accounts-2019-20.pdf>

341 https://mohfw.gov.in/sites/default/files/NHA%202020-21_up.pdf

342 <https://nhsrcindia.org/sites/default/files/2024-09/NHA%202021-22.pdf>

343 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(yj134cfd4onpnz45gh3jneil\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publication](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(yj134cfd4onpnz45gh3jneil))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014.pdf)

344 [s/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(yj134cfd4onpnz45gh3jneil))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014.pdf)

345 [%202014/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(yj134cfd4onpnz45gh3jneil))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202014.pdf)

346 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(5ssokh45alcbz345e5jcv55\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publicatio](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(5ssokh45alcbz345e5jcv55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015.pdf)

347 [ns/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(5ssokh45alcbz345e5jcv55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015.pdf)

348 [%202015/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(5ssokh45alcbz345e5jcv55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202015.pdf)

349 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(k1llxc451oipkqly0iiv55\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publication](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(k1llxc451oipkqly0iiv55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016.pdf)

350 [s/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(k1llxc451oipkqly0iiv55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016.pdf)

351 [%202016/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(k1llxc451oipkqly0iiv55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202016.pdf)

352 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(pbwh555wuhuag45l2eo4zql\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publicati](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(pbwh555wuhuag45l2eo4zql))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017.pdf)

353 [ons/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(pbwh555wuhuag45l2eo4zql))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017.pdf)

354 [%202017/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(pbwh555wuhuag45l2eo4zql))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202017.pdf)

355 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(awcctf45v21astvbarr0xvqx\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publication](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(awcctf45v21astvbarr0xvqx))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202018/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202018.pdf)

356 [s/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(awcctf45v21astvbarr0xvqx))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202018/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202018.pdf)

357 [%202018/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202018.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(awcctf45v21astvbarr0xvqx))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202018/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202018.pdf)

358 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(shzyhq4533s0c1njkc4lu55\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publicatio](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(shzyhq4533s0c1njkc4lu55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019.pdf)

359 [ns/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(shzyhq4533s0c1njkc4lu55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019.pdf)

360 [%202019/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(shzyhq4533s0c1njkc4lu55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202019.pdf)

361 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(vo3wtanhjge1rk5500ogip55\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202021/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202021.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(vo3wtanhjge1rk5500ogip55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202021/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202021.pdf)

362

363

364 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(4hkzgw45qtw3od551duscx55\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202022/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202022.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(4hkzgw45qtw3od551duscx55))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202022/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202022.pdf)

365

366

367 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(tmryjgys3pk5zn451aiz2djg\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202023/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202023.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(tmryjgys3pk5zn451aiz2djg))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202023/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202023.pdf)

368

369

370 [https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/\(S\(4jwlae45z2suuuqf1ruew345\)\)/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202024/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202024.pdf](https://hydro.imd.gov.in/hydrometweb/(S(4jwlae45z2suuuqf1ruew345))/PRODUCTS/Publications/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%20-%202024/Rainfall%20Statistics%20of%20India%202024.pdf)

371

372

373