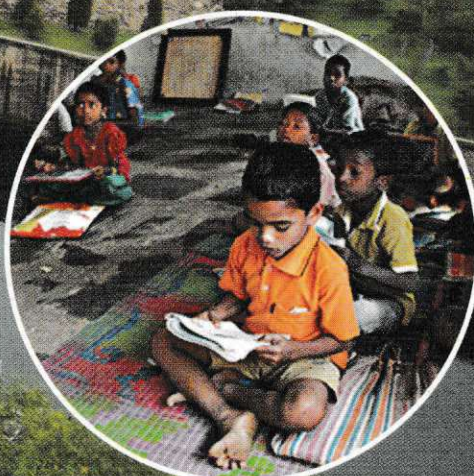
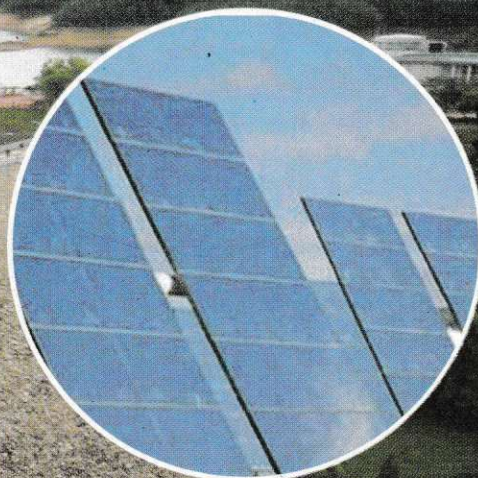




Urban Development

4

Indira Gandhi
National Open University
School of Extension and
Development Studies

Block

4

URBAN DEVELOPMENT

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COURSE MAEE -001 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Block 1 Introduction to Sustainable Development

Unit 1 Sustainable Development: Concept and Scope

Unit 2 Sustainable Development: Approaches and Strategies

Unit 3 Challenges to Sustainable Development

Block 2 Rural Development

Unit 4 Rural Development: Indian Context

Unit 5 Rural Development Administration

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Block 4 Urban Development

Unit 11 Introduction to Urban Development

Unit 12 Urban Development: Issues and Challenges

Unit 13 Urban Development Policies and Programmes

Unit 14 Urban Planning, Governance and Management

BLOCK 4 URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Introduction to the Block

You have studied 'Rural Development' in Block-2 and 'Tribal Development' in Block-3 as part of the course MAEE-001 titled "Sustainable Development". However, your study of sustainable development will remain incomplete without studying 'Urban Development', which is covered in this Block, i.e. Block-4. It presents the concept, processes, components, features, patterns and indicators of urbanization; the scenarios of urban development; and the functions, levels, criteria, structures and trends of urban development administration in India. It focuses on a range of significant issues and challenges of urbanization and, as a means to effectively address the same, it presents a broad picture of the policies, strategies and programmes of urban development including urban reforms, role of urban local bodies, and disaster management, among others. It contains the following four Units.

Unit 11 "Introduction to Urban Development" introduces the concept, processes, components and indicators of urbanization as well as the national and international scenarios of urban development. It stresses on the basic features, patterns and trends of urbanization in India including the criteria followed in classification of cities/towns. It also highlights the concept, functions, levels and structures of urban development administration in India.

Unit 12 titled "**Urban Development: Issues and Challenges**", focuses on issues and challenges of urbanization, particularly migration, homelessness, unemployment, poverty, slums, industrialisation, pollution, waste and garbage management, vehicles and traffic management, safe drinking water, health care, safety, security, crime control, child labour, inequalities in educational opportunities, among others.

Unit 13 is on "**Urban Development Policies and Programmes**". Addressing the issues and challenges of urban development discussed above calls for proper and effective urban policies and programmes which are highlighted in this Unit. In India, the Ministry of Urban Development is responsible for formulating policies; supporting, implementing and monitoring the programmes; and coordinating the activities of various Central Ministries, State Governments and other nodal authorities in so far as they relate to urban development issues in the country; and these are all covered in this unit to present a broad picture of the policies and programmes of urban development and their relevance to addressing wide-range of issues and challenges of urban development. Further, it discusses the types, structure, functions and resources of urban local bodies. It lays an emphasis on the importance and strategies of disaster management in urban areas. Also, it highlights various on-going efforts in respect of urban reforms in India.

Unit 14 is about "**Urban Planning, Governance and Management**". It discusses the concept, need, significance, essential elements, modes, and methods and techniques of urban planning and management. It highlights the extent of regional imbalances in urban development and the importance of decentralized urban planning for balanced growth of urban development. It describes the criteria and practices of good governance and place of e-governance in improving the effectiveness and efficiency of urban governance.

UNIT 11 INTRODUCTION TO URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Structure

- 11.0 Introduction
- 11.1 Objectives
- 11.2 Concept of Urbanisation
- 11.3 Urban Development: Processes, Components and Indicators
 - 11.3.1 Processes of Urbanisation
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 - 11.3.3 Indicators of Urbanisation
- 11.4 Urban Development: International and National Scenarios
 - 11.4.1 Urbanization: Global Scenario
 - 11.4.1.1 Urban Population in Developed and Developing Countries
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 - 11.4.2.1 Urbanisation in India: Levels and Trends
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- 11.5 Urbanisation and Sustainable Development: Need of the Hour
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- 11.8 References

11.0 INTRODUCTION

You have studied 'Rural Development' in Block-2 and 'Tribal Development' in Block-3 as part of the course MAEE-001, "Sustainable Development". However, your study of sustainable development will not be complete without studying 'Urban Development' covered in this Block i.e. Block-4. Therefore, in this Unit, our attempt will be to introduce you to the concept, processes, components and indicators of urbanisation as well as to the national and international scenarios of urban development. Further, we will introduce you to the concept, functions, levels and structures of urban development administration in India.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the concept and the processes of urban development;
- Identify the components of urbanisation;
- List out the indicators of urbanization;
- Describe the national and international scenarios of urbanisation;
- Discuss the criteria used in classifying the towns/cities in India; and
- Explain the concept of urban development administration and analyzing its functions along with the relevant levels and structures thereof.

11.2 CONCEPT OF URBANISATION

In this section, we will discuss the concept of urbanisation. Our understanding of 'urbanisation' or 'urban development' will become easy if we first understand the concept of 'urban area'.

Definition of urban area: In the Census of India 2011, the definition of urban area adopted is as follows: a) All statutory places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.; b) A place satisfying the following criteria:

- Population is more than 5000.
- 75% of the male population engaged in non-agricultural occupations.
- A density of population of at least 400 per sq. km.

Keeping the above criterion of 'urban area' in mind, urbanisation, in general, can be defined as the shift from a rural society to an urban society. It involves an increase in the number of people in urban areas during a particular year or period. It is the outcome of social, economic and political developments that lead to urban concentration and growth of large cities, changes in land use and transformation from rural to metropolitan pattern of organisation and governance. It has been viewed as an important factor in the areas of economic transformation, orchestrating the breakdown of the feudal order and taking societies to higher levels of social formation. Urbanisation is intrinsically connected and irrevocably enlaced with the development process, as an essential strand in the contemporary economic system. At the same time, some scholars argue that 'urbanisation is not merely the concomitant of industrialisation but a concomitant of whole gamut of factors underlying the process of economic growth and social change'.

Urbanisation implies a cultural, social and psychological process whereby people acquire the material and non-material culture, including behavioural patterns, forms of organization, and ideas that originated in or are distinctive of the city. Although the flow of cultural influences takes place in both the directions – towards and away from the city – there is substantial agreement that the cultural influences exerted by the city on non-urban people are probably more pervasive than the reverse.

Urbanisation as a structural process of change is generally related to industrialisation. Urbanisation results, due to: a) the concentration of large-scale and small-scale industries, and commercial, financial and administrative set-ups in the particular areas called towns/cities; and b) technological development in transport and communication, cultural and recreational activities. In fact, the excess of urbanization over industrialization that makes it possible to provide employment for all persons coming to urban areas is what sometimes leads to over-urbanisation.

Nevertheless, it is not essential that an industrialised area should necessarily grow into an urbanised area, though industrialisation is an important factor that promotes urbanisation. Urbanisation is otherwise called *urban development*.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions."

1) Explain the concept of urbanisation.

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11.3 URBAN DEVELOPMENT: PROCESSES, COMPONENTS AND INDICATORS

With the above understanding of the concept of urbanisation, we now discuss the processes, components and indicators of urban development.

11.3.1 Processes of Urbanisation

The history of urbanization in India reveals, broadly *four processes* of urbanization at work throughout the historical period. These are:

- a) the *emergence of new social relationships* among people in cities and between people in cities and those in villages through *a process of social change*;
- b) the rise and fall of cities with *changes in the political order*;
- c) the growth of cities based on *new productive processes*, which alter the economic base of the city; and
- d) the physical spread of cities with the *inflow of migrants*, who come in search of a means of livelihood as well as a new way of life.

The above four processes collectively determine the degree of urbanisation. The degree of urbanization of a nation for statistical purposes is generally defined as the proportion of population residing in urban places. From demographic point of view, urbanisation is the proportion of the population living in towns and cities. It is an increase in proportion of the urban population to the total population over a period of time. There are well known generalisations concerning the high positive correlation between industrialisation and urbanisation. The main push-factor causing workers to leave agriculture is the lower level of incomes. In almost all countries incomes in agriculture are lower than those of other sectors of the economy. The main factor determining the rate of outward movement is the expansion of employment in other occupations. It is this factor which explains the high rate of movement in the recently advanced countries and in rapidly developing countries.

Migration is the key process underlying growth of urbanisation; and the process of urbanization is closely related with rural to urban migration of people. In most developing countries of the world where rate of urban growth is relatively higher the urban-ward migration is usually high. Rural to urban migration is by far the major component of urbanisation and is the chief mechanism by which urbanisation trends all the world-over have been accomplished.

The role of industrialisation in urbanisation involves different aspects. Industries are generally established around the urban places where many people seek employment. Thus, the rural population tends to concentrate in urban places which promote urbanisation. On other hand, industrialisation also leads to the expansion of secondary and territory activities which, in turn, also promote urbanisation in other areas, characterising of new era of urban growth in different parts of the world particularly in industrialised countries.

11.3.2 Components of Urban Growth

Urban growth (Bhagat, 1992) involves mainly the growth in terms of the following three components.

- i) Natural increase,
- ii) Net-migration, and
- iii) Areal re-classification.

These components are estimated using residual method. Since separate information in wake of change in the area and population due to extension of municipal boundaries during the inter-censal period is not available either for total or for migrant population, it is difficult to estimate decadal migration to urban areas. In addition, migration data for new and de-classified towns are not available separately and, thus, there is a possibility of error in estimating contribution of migration as a share of urban growth. It is evident that during 1971-81 about 41% of urban growth could be attributed to natural increase which reflects the role of demographic momentum, 36% due to net-migration and municipal boundary changes, and 19% due to re-classification of area. But, urban growth due to natural increase has increased from 41% in 1971-81 to about 60% during 1981-91. Urban growth due to migration and changes in municipal boundaries has decreased from 39% in 1971-81 to 22% in 1981-91. It is clear that urbanization process in India is not mainly "migration lead" but a product of demographic explosion due to natural increase (Pathak and Mehta, 1995).

There are other components of urban growth that reflects slightly different results. Sometimes, migration to cities occurs not due to urban-pull but due to rural-push. Poverty-led migration (Sen and Ghosh, 1993) has induced very poor quality of urbanization followed by misery, poverty, unemployment, exploitation, rapid growth of slum, inequalities, degradation in the quality of urban life. Though the process of urbanisation is a welcome feature for many developing countries, the process should be equally distributed among all parts of the country. However, from the existing reality it can be clearly inferred that there is uneven distribution in urbanisation and lacks homogeneity in the urbanization process in different parts of our country.

11.3.3 Indicators of Urbanisation

Indicators of urbanisation enable us to understand the demographic and geographical dimensions of urbanisation in the country. Following are the important indicators in this regard.

- *Percentage of urban population to total population* – This shows the level of urbanisation in an area.
- *Decadal growth rate* – This provides the change in urban population in percentage related to base-year.
- *Number of towns per ten-lakh rural population* – This indicator shows the extent to which rural areas are served by urban centres.
- *Percentage of population in Class-I cities / towns* – This indicates the dominance of large towns or big cities in the process of urbanisation compared to that of medium cities or towns having one or more contiguous outgrowths;
- *Two or more adjoining towns with or without their outgrowths*; and
- *Cities with one or more adjoining towns with their out-growths, all of which form a continuous spread.*

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

2) What are the different processes of urbanisation?

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3) What are the components of urban growth?

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4) List out the indicators of urbanization.

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11.4 URBAN DEVELOPMENT: INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL SCENARIOS

International and national scenarios of urban development provide us better understanding of urbanization differentials in respect of different parts of the globe as well as the nation. Therefore, in this section, we will focus our discussion on urbanisation at global and national levels.

11.4.1 Urbanisation: Global Scenario

The urban population which was 2.96 billion in 2000 has been estimated to be 3.77 billion in 2010. It was also estimated that nearly 50 million people are added to the world's urban population and about 35 million to the rural population each year. The share of world's population living in urban centers has increased from 39% in 1980 to 48% in 2000. In 2000, the developed countries had higher urbanization level of 76% while that of the developing countries was 40%. The urbanization level has almost stabilized in developed countries. African and Asian countries are in the increased process of urbanisation. Urbanisation, as the process of transition from a rural to a more urban society, is increasing rapidly and it will continue during the next few decades, especially in many developing countries (UNFPA, 2007). According to the State of World Population Report (UNFPA, 2007), in 2008 for the first time in human history more than half of the world's estimated population will be living in urban areas. Today, 3.3 billion people already live in cities and by 2030 the number will rise to almost 5 billion.

The total population is increasing by 280,000 people per day, whereas 95% of the annual population increase between 1994 and 2004 occurred in less developed regions. While in developed countries urbanization has mainly taken place in the second half of the 19th century, developing countries are now in the middle of their urban growth. In Europe already 72% of the population live in urban areas (UNDP, 2006). The 21st century is the century of the cities and of urbanization (cf. Hall/Pfeiffer, 2001).

Table 11.1: World Population Residing in Urban Areas by Region

World/ Region	1980		1985		1990		2000		2010	
	%	In billion	%	In billion	%	In billion	%	In billion	%	In billion
World	39.4	1.752	41.2	1.997	43.1	2.282	47.6	2.962	52.8	3.779
<i>More Developed Region</i>	70.2	0.797	71.5	0.838	72.7	0.880	75.8	0.968	79.1	1.060
<i>Less Developed Region</i>	28.8	0.954	31.5	1.159	34.3	1.401	40.3	1.993	46.8	2.717
Africa	27.3	0.130	29.6	0.164	32.0	0.205	37.6	0.322	44.2	0.493
Asia	26.2	0.678	28.6	0.813	31.2	0.974	37.1	1.369	43.8	1.845
Latin America	65.0	0.233	68.4	0.273	71.5	0.315	76.6	0.400	80.4	0.482

Source: Dutta, Pranti. 2006. *Urbanization in India*. Calcutta: Population Studies Unit, Indian Statistical Institute.

11.4.1.1 Urban Population in Developed and Developing Countries

Urbanization is a relatively recent process in the Third World where it is even more rapid than population growth and where the largest agglomerations are growing most rapidly. The human population has lived a rural lifestyle through most of history. The world's population, however, is quickly becoming urbanized as people migrate to the cities. Figure 11.1 shows the urban population growth between the years 1950 and 2000. In 1950, less than 30% of the world's population lived in cities. This number grew to 47% in the year 2000 (2.8 billion people), and it is expected to grow to 60% by the year 2025.

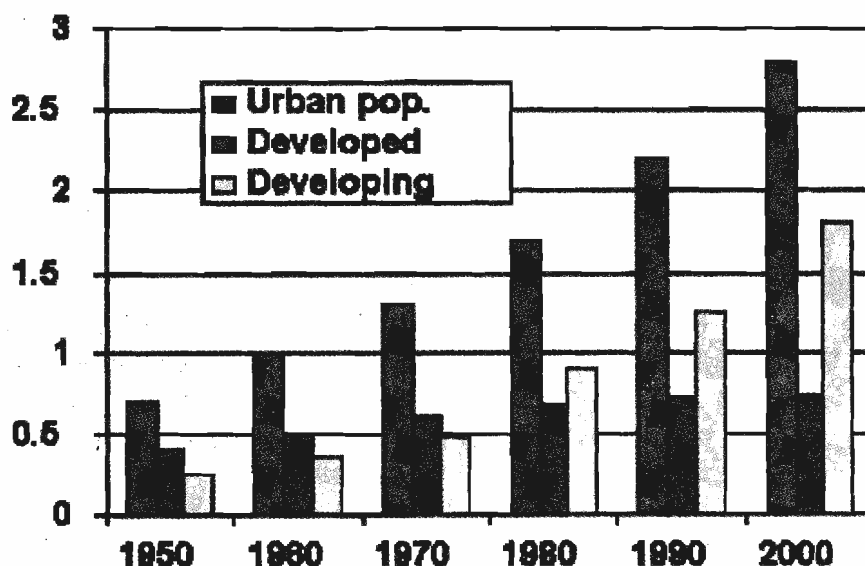
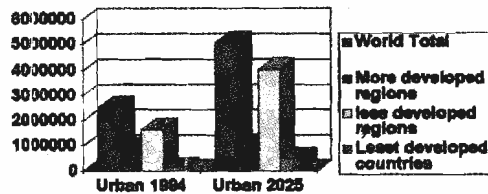


Figure 11.1: Urban Population in Developed and Developing Countries

However, urbanization is occurring rapidly in many less developed countries, and it is expected that most urban growth will occur in less developed countries during the coming decades. Figure 11.2 shows the projected growth of urban and rural populations in developed and less developed countries.

Global urban population in developed and developing countries



Global rural population in developed and developing countries

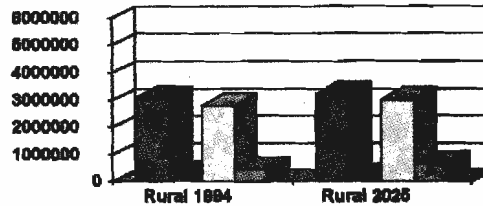


Figure 11.2: Future projections – 1994-2025 (population in thousands)

Source: doc-aea.aide-et-action.org/data/admin/global_urban_population.pdf.

11.4.1.2 Impact of Urbanisation: Problems

The trends in population growth over a period of time reveal an alarming growth in favour of urban population. Due to the shift from a traditional agrarian economy to industrial-based activities, the concentration of population in the urban centres has been increasing. Industrialization has largely influenced the urbanization process in most of the developing countries, including India. The major advantages of the increase in urbanisation include the following:

- more organised nature of economic activities,
- higher productivity,
- high literacy rate, good health and medical facilities, etc.
- better standard of living.

Major problems: However, there are problems of urbanization which include the following.

- Congestion – population and traffic,
- Housing shortage,
- Growth of slums,
- Inadequate civic amenities,
- Environmental pollution.

11.4.2 Urbanisation in India

In India, a peculiar phenomenon is seen: industrial growth without a significant shift of population from agriculture to industry and growth of urban population without a significant rise in the ratio of the urban to the total population. While in terms of ratio, there may not be a great shift from rural to urban activities, but there is still a large migration of population from rural areas to urban areas.

The sources of urban growth comprise natural increase in urban areas, migration, reclassification of rural areas into urban areas and the change in the boundaries of existing towns. The migration data and the information on reclassification of rural areas

into urban areas are available from the census. But, the information on emigration is not available in the country, although its effect is likely to be negligible. The data on natural increase are available from the reports of Sample Registration System (SRS) annually published by the Registrar General of India. The contribution of migration in the urban growth could be estimated directly from the data available in Migration Tables.

11.4.2.1 Urbanisation in India: Levels and Trends

Presently, India is among the countries of low level of urbanization. Number of urban agglomerations / towns has grown from 1827 in 1901 to 7,935 in 2011. The population residing in urban areas has increased from 2.58 crores (25.8 million) in 1901 to 37.7 crores (377.7 million) in 2011.

Table 11.2: Growth of Urban Population in India – Number of Towns, Percentage of Urban Population and Decennial Growth Rate

Census Year	No. of Towns	% of Urban Population	Decennial Growth Rate of Urban Population
1901	1827	10.84	0.00
1911	1815	10.29	0.35
1921	1949	11.18	8.29
1931	2072	11.99	19.12
1941	2250	13.86	31.97
1951	2843	17.29	41.42
1961	2365	17.97	26.41
1971	2590	19.91	38.23
1981	3378	23.34	46.14
1991	3768	25.71	36.47
2001	4368	27.78	29.2
2011	5161	37.7	31.8

Source: Dutta, Pranti. 2006. *Urbanization in India*. Calcutta: Population Studies Unit, Indian Statistical Institute.

Kingsley Davis and Golden (1954) used the term “over-urbanization” wherein urban misery and rural poverty exist side by side with the result that city can hardly be called ‘dynamic’ and where inefficient, unproductive informal sector becomes increasingly apparent (Kundu and Basu, 1998). Breese (1969) depicts urbanization in India as pseudo-urbanization wherein people arrive in cities not due to urban-pull but due to rural-push. Reza and Kundu (1978) talked of dysfunctional urbanization and urban accretion which results in a concentration of population in a few large cities without a corresponding increase in their economic base.

Urbanisation process is not mainly “migration-led” but a product of demographic explosion due to natural increase. In addition, rural out-migration is directed towards class-I cities. The big cities attained inordinately large population size leading to virtual collapse in the urban services and quality of life. Large cities are structurally weak and formal instead of being functional entities because of inadequate economic base (Premi, 1991).

Globalisation, liberalisation and privatisation are addressing negative process for urbanisation in India. Under globalisation, survival and existence of the poor are affected

adversely. Liberalisation permits cheap import of goods and, ultimately, it negatively affects rural economy, handicrafts, and household-industry on which the rural poor survive (Kundu and Gupta, 2000). The benefits of liberalisation generally accrue to only those who acquire new skills. It is unlikely that common man and the poor will benefit from the liberalization. Privatisation causes retrenchment of workers (Despande and Despande, 1998). All these negative syndrome forces poverty-induced migration of the rural poor to urban informal sectors (Mukherjee, 1993; and Kundu, Lalitha and Arora, 2001). Hence, migration which is one of the components of urban growth occurs not due to urban-pull but due to rural-push factors.

11.4.2.2 Pace of Urbanisation

Urbanisation in India has been relatively slow compared to that in many developing countries. The percentage of annual exponential growth rate of urban population (Table 11.3) reveals that, in India, it grew at faster pace from the decade 1921-31 to until 1941-51. Thereafter, it registered a sharp drop during the decade 1951-61. The decades, 1961-71 and 1971-81, showed a significant improvement in the growth, which has steadily dropped to the current rate of 2.7. The sharp drop in urban rate during 1951-61 was mainly due to de-classification of a very large number of towns during that period. Rural growth has been fluctuating since 1901. The decline in rural population growth was within small range during 1981-91 and 1991-2001.

Table 11.3: Annual Growth rate of Population by Residence

Year	Annual Growth Rate (%) of Total Population (rgtp)	Annual Growth Rate (%) of Urban Population (rgup)	Annual Growth Rate (%) of Rural Population (rgrp)
1901-1911	0.51	0.03	0.62
1911-1921	-0.03	0.79	-0.13
1921-1931	1.04	1.75	0.95
1931-1941	1.33	2.77	1.12
1941-1951	1.25	3.47	0.84
1951-1961	1.96	2.34	1.88
1961-1971	3.09	3.24	3.05
1971-1981	1.33	3.79	0.69
1981-1991	2.12	3.09	1.80
1991-2001	1.96	2.73	1.68

Source: Dutta, Pranti. 2006. *Urbanization in India*. Calcutta: Population Studies Unit, Indian Statistical Institute.

Tempo of urbanization refers to speed of urbanization and is measured as change registered in the level or degree of urbanization over the years. From Table 11.4, it is clear that tempo or speed of urbanization is not uniform over the years. It shows a fluctuating trend over the years 1901-1981 and a declining trend during 1981-91 and 1991-2001. Again, it is required to mention tempo of urbanization measured as a per cent will tend toward zero as the urban population reaches the 100 percent level, since the urban and total population growth would become the same.

Table 11.4: Tempo of Urbanisation – 1901-2001

Year	Growth rate of percent urban (PU) (tempo of PU)	Growth rate of percent rural (PR) (tempo of PR)
1901-1911	-0.5240	0.06184
1911-1921	0.8250	-0.0099
1921-1931	0.7054	-0.0924
1931-1941	1.4444	-0.2139
1941-1951	2.2160	-0.4072
1951-1961	0.3846	-0.0823
1961-1971	0.1492	-0.0329
1971-1981	2.4629	-0.6434
1981-1991	0.9734	-0.3161
1991-2001	0.7714	-0.2815

Source: Dutta, Pranti. 2006. *Urbanization in India*. Calcutta: Population Studies Unit, Indian Statistical Institute.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

5) Present, in brief, the international scenario of urbanisation.

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6) Describe the Indian scenario of urbanization?

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11.4.2.3 Morphology and Classification of Urban Areas in India

We will, now, focus on sources of urbanisation data and classification of urban areas.

- a) **Sources of data and method:** Census is the main source of data on urban population for not only India but also most of the countries of the world. Census defines urban areas based on certain criteria. In India, since 1961, two important criteria, namely: i) statutory administration, and ii) economic and demographic aspects, have been adopted to declare certain settlements as towns. The former includes civic status of towns such as municipal corporations, municipality, cantonment board, notified area committee, etc., and the later includes criteria like

population size, density of population and percentage of workforce in non-agricultural sector. The former is also known as statutory town and the latter as census town.

Nevertheless, two types of towns based on two different criteria have added complexity to the urbanisation process in India. For example, the predominance of non-agricultural activities is expected to be found in urban areas, but surprisingly we have significant number of towns in the country which are predominantly agriculture-oriented. Such paradoxical development creates doubts about the quality of urbanisation in India (Bhagat, 1992). Further, the definition of urban had changed from time to time. Although the definition of urban areas as used in 1961 census continued in later censuses, it has been slightly modified in constituents of non-agricultural activities since 1981 census. According to 1981 census, 75 per cent of male workers in non-agricultural activities is required for a settlement to be declared as urban. In addition to it, at a town level the change in boundary has been frequent, and in several cases adjustment for it is impossible due to lack of relevant information.

- b) **Urban agglomeration and classification:** Urban agglomeration is a continuous urban-spread constituting a town and its adjoining urban outgrowths (OGs) or two or more physically contiguous towns together and any adjoining urban outgrowths of such towns. Examples of outgrowths are: railway colonies, university campus, port area, military campus, etc that may come up near a statutory town or city. For Census of India 2001, it was decided that the core town or at least one of the constituent towns of an urban agglomeration should necessarily be a statutory town and the total population of all the constituents should not be less than 20,000 (as per 1991 Census).

The number of census-based towns from 1901 to 2001 are as follows.

Table 11.5: Number of Towns and Percentage of Urban Population by size-class

Census year	No. of Towns by size-class						Percentage of urban population by size-class					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1901	24	43	130	391	744	479	26.0	11.2	15.6	20.8	20.1	6.1
1911	23	40	135	364	707	485	27.4	10.5	16.4	19.7	19.3	6.5
1921	29	45	145	370	734	571	29.7	10.3	15.9	18.2	18.6	7.0
1931	35	56	183	434	800	509	31.2	11.6	16.8	18.0	17.1	5.2
1941	49	74	242	498	920	407	38.2	11.4	16.3	15.7	15.0	3.1
1951	76	91	327	608	1124	569	44.6	9.9	15.7	13.6	12.9	3.1
1961	102	129	437	719	711	172	51.4	11.2	16.9	12.7	6.8	0.7
1971	148	173	558	827	623	147	57.2	10.9	16.0	10.9	4.4	0.4
1981	218	270	743	1059	758	253	60.3	11.6	14.3	9.5	3.5	0.5
1991	300	345	947	1167	740	197	65.2	10.9	13.1	7.7	2.6	0.3
2001	393	401	1151	1344	888	191	68.6	9.67	12.2	6.8	2.3	0.2

Note: Class I: Greater than 1,00,000 population; Class II: 50,000 – 1,00,000 population; Class III: 20,000 – 50,000 population; Class IV: 10,000 – 20,000 population; and Class V: 5,000 – 10,000 population.

The pattern of urbanization in India is characterized by continuous concentration of population and activities in large cities (Kundu, 1983). This is manifested in a high percentage of urban population being concentrated in Class-I cities and its population has systematically gone up over the decades in the last century. As per 1901 census, percentage of population in Class-I, IV and V were 26%, 21%, and 20 percent respectively. According to 1991 Census, about two-thirds (65%) of the country's urban population lived in Class-I cities which have more than 100,000 population. In 2001, it has increased to 69%. Over the years, there has been continuous concentration of population in Class-I towns. On the contrary, the concentration of population in medium and small towns has either fluctuated or declined (Kundu, 1994). Indeed basic reason for the increasing dominance of Class-I cities is graduation of lower order towns into Class-I categories. It may be observed that in 1901 there were only 24 Class-I cities and that number has gone up to 393 in 2001 which explains largely the increase in the share of population in this size-category towns over the years. The graduation of number of urban centers from lower population size categories to Class-I cities has resulted in top-heavy structure of urban population in India. However, in addition to the factor of increase in number of large cities, the importance of a faster demographic growth, and poverty-induced migration to urban informal sector contributed to turning the urban structure top-heavy (Mukherjee, 1995).

Rural-urban distribution of population and their proportion based on Census of India 2011 (Provisional) for India, States and Union Territories are given below.

Table 11.6: Rural-Urban Distribution of Population and Proportion of Rural and Urban Population – India / State / Union Territory: Census 2011 (Provisional)

Sl. No.	State / Union Territory	Population			Population (%)	
		Total	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	INDIA	1,210,193,422	833,087,662	377,105,760	68.84	31.16
01	JAMMU & KASHMIR	12,548,926	9,134,820	3,414,106	72.79	27.21
02	HIMACHAL PRADESH	6,856,509	6,167,805	688,704	89.96	10.04
03	PUNJAB	27,704,236	17,316,800	10,387,436	62.51	37.49
04	CHANDIGARH #	1,054,686	29,004	1,025,682	2.75	97.25
05	UTTARAKHAND	10,116,752	7,025,583	3,091,169	69.45	30.55
06	HARYANA	25,353,081	16,531,493	8,821,588	65.21	34.79
07	NCT OF DELHI #	16,753,235	419,319	16,333,916	2.50	97.50
08	RAJASTHAN	68,621,012	51,540,236	17,080,776	75.11	24.89
09	UTTAR PRADESH	199,581,477	155,111,022	44,470,455	77.72	22.28
10	BIHAR	103,804,637	92,075,028	11,729,609	88.70	11.30
11	SIKKIM	607,688	455,962	151,726	75.03	24.97
12	ARUNACHAL PRADESH	1,382,611	1,069,165	313,446	77.33	22.67
13	NAGALAND	1,980,602	1,406,861	573,741	71.03	28.97
14	MANIPUR	2,721,756	1,899,624	822,132	69.79	30.21
15	MIZORAM	1,091,014	529,037	561,977	48.49	51.51
16	TRIPURA	3,671,032	2,710,051	960,981	73.82	26.18
17	MEGHALAYA	2,964,007	2,368,971	595,036	79.92	20.08

18	ASSAM	31,169,272	26,780,516	4,388,756	85.92	14.08
19	WEST BENGAL	91,347,736	62,213,676	29,134,060	68.11	31.89
20	JHARKHAND	32,966,238	25,036,946	7,929,292	75.95	24.05
21	ORISSA	41,947,358	34,951,234	6,996,124	83.32	16.68
22	CHHATTISGARH	25,540,196	19,603,658	5,936,538	76.76	23.24
23	MADHYA PRADESH	72,597,565	52,537,899	20,059,666	72.37	27.63
24	GUJARAT	60,383,628	34,670,817	25,712,811	57.42	42.58
25	DAMAN & DIU #	242,911	60,331	182,580	24.84	75.16
26	DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI #	342,853	183,024	159,829	53.38	46.62
27	MAHARASHTRA	112,372,972	61,545,441	50,827,531	54.77	45.23
28	ANDHRA PRADESH	84,665,533	56,311,788	28,353,745	66.51	33.49
29	KARNATAKA	61,130,704	37,552,529	23,578,175	61.43	38.57
30	GOA	1,457,723	551,414	906,309	37.83	62.17
31	LAKSHADWEEP #	64,429	14,121	50,308	21.92	78.08
32	KERALA	33,387,677	17,455,506	15,932,171	52.28	47.72
33	TAMIL NADU	72,138,958	37,189,229	34,949,729	51.55	48.45

Based on the above data, following important points can be noted regarding urban population.

i) Top three States in terms of absolute share of population are:

- Maharashtra 50.8 million (13.5%).
- Uttar Pradesh 44.4 million (11.8%).
- Tamil Nadu 34.9 million (9.3%).

ii) Bottom three States in terms of absolute share of population are:

- Sikkim 0.15 million (Negligible).
- Arunachal Pradesh 0.31 million (0.1%).
- Mizoram 0.56 million (0.1%).

Basic features and pattern of India's urbanization: From the above discussion on urbanization or urban development in India the following basic features and pattern can be noticed.

- Lopsided urbanisation induces growth of Class-I cities.
- Urbanisation occurs without industrialisation and strong economic base.
- Urbanisation is mainly a product of demographic explosion and poverty-induced rural-urban migration.
- Rapid urbanisation leads to massive growth of slums followed by misery, poverty, unemployment, exploitation, inequalities, degradation in the quality of urban life, etc.
- Urbanisation occurs not due to urban-pull but due to rural-push factors.
- Poor quality of rural-urban migration leads to poor quality of urbanisation.
- Distress-migration initiates urban decay.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions."

7) What are the criteria followed in classifying the urban cities in India?

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8) Name three most urbanized states and three least urbanized States in India?

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11.5 URBANISATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: NEED OF THE HOUR

"For the first time in history, half of the world's people would be living in urban areas by the end of year 2008", said Sha Zukang, Under-Secretary-General for Economic and Social Affairs, as the United Nations Commission on Population and Development opened its forty-first session at Headquarters on 7th April 2008. More strikingly, future population growth would be absorbed almost entirely by urban areas in developing countries. The Commission turned its attention to population distribution, urbanization, and internal migration and development. Understanding the components of urban population growth was a concern for the vast majority of Governments. It was felt very difficult to keep people in the country-side when the cities offered greater opportunities and a better quality of life. Large cities, despite their problems, produced better health outcomes than smaller ones, and tended to provide better livelihoods than rural areas. It is an accepted fact that cities have been the centres of innovation, commerce, finance, technology, culture and general economic prosperity – intricate exchanges and networks linked them with the countryside, making urban and rural development interdependent. The challenge was learning how to exploit the possibilities provided by better cities, and one of the most important elements of it is a change in attitude. It was time to embrace urbanization as a good thing for development and people. Cities grew too fast, but that Governments were not prepared to absorb urban growth (<http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2008/pop961.doc.htm>).

Goal of development was to support people, especially the poor and marginalized, in their quest to improve their lives, reach their full potential and realize their human rights. Greater socio-economic development in the poorest countries would depend largely on success in addressing population and development issues, and that progress depended on partnership involving Governments, the United Nations, civil society, academic institutions and the private sector. Urbanization could play a very positive role in social and economic development if countries planned ahead now and responded

with appropriate policies and programmes to address future urban growth. Throughout history, cities had been engines for innovation, growth and productivity, and they could provide access to the benefits of technology, to social and health services and to basic infrastructure. But, while cities facilitated social change through the educational and cultural opportunities they provided for the growing numbers of poor city dwellers, those opportunities were not fully realized. There were already one billion slum-dwellers living in sub-standard conditions (Ibid).

Urban mismanagement and lack of planning had resulted in overcrowding, lack of public services or clean water and sanitation, and inadequate infrastructure. While rapid urbanization was critically important, the challenges it posed defied simple solutions. The representative of the United States deemed it an especially difficult issue for most bureaucracies because it was an intersection of many jurisdictions and areas of responsibility – housing, water, sanitation, power, health, employment, pollution, crime, education, politics, transportation, loss of agricultural land and many more. Local and national governments in the developing world must be better able to plan for and manage the challenges of rapid and irrevocable urbanization. At the same time, enabling local authorities to tailor interventions to their particular settings was an important consideration in responding to the challenges posed by uneven population distribution and access to services and resources. We will focus on all these urban issues and challenges, among others, in the Units that follow in this Block.

11.6 LET US SUM UP

We have discussed the concept of urbanisation, its processes, components and indicators. We have presented the national and international scenarios of urban development. Under the national scenario, emphasis has been laid on the levels and trends of urbanisation and the basic features and pattern of India's urbanisation including the criteria followed in classification of cities / towns. We hope this unit has given you adequate introduction to urban development, which will facilitate you to have better understanding of the units that follow under this Block.

11.7 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS' QUESTIONS

- 1) In the Census of India 2011, the definition of urban area adopted is as follows: a) All statutory places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town-area committee, etc.; b) A place satisfying the following criteria:
 - Population is more than 5000.
 - 75% of the male population engaged in non-agricultural occupations.
 - A density of population of at least 400 per sq. km.

Urbanization, in general, is defined as the shift from a rural society to an urban society. It involves an increase in the number of people in urban areas during a particular year or period.

- 2) Broadly, there are *four processes* of urbanization at work throughout the historical period, particularly in India. These are: i) the *emergence of new social relationships* among people in cities and between people in cities and those in villages *through a process of social change*; ii) the rise and fall of cities with *changes in the political order*; iii) the growth of cities based on *new productive*

processes, which alter the economic base of the city; and iv) the physical spread of cities with the *inflow of migrants*, who come in search of a means of livelihood as well as a new way of life.

The above four processes collectively determine the degree of urbanization. The degree of urbanization of a nation for statistical purposes is generally defined as the proportion of population residing in urban places.

- 3) Urban growth can be attributed mainly to the following three components.
 - a) Natural increase,
 - b) Net-migration, and
 - c) Areal re-classification.
- 4) Following are the indicators of urbanisation that enable us to understand the demographic and geographical dimensions of urbanisation in the country.
 - *Percentage of urban population to total population* – This shows the level of urbanisation in an area.
 - *Decadal growth rate* – This provides the change in urban population in percentage related to base-year.
 - *Number of towns per ten-lakh rural population* – This indicator shows the extent to which rural areas are served by urban centres.
 - *Percentage of population in Class-I cities / towns* – This indicates the dominance of large towns in the process of urbanisation compared to medium city or town with one or more contiguous outgrowths;
 - *Two or more adjoining towns with or without their outgrowths; and*
 - *Cities with one or more adjoining towns with their out-growths, all of which form a continuous spread.*
- 5) The urban population in the world which was 2.96 billion in 2000 has been estimated to be 3.77 billion in 2010. It was estimated that nearly 50 million people are added to the world's urban population and about 35 million to the rural population each year. The share of world's population living in urban centers has increased from 39% in 1980 to 48% in 2000. In 2000, the developed countries had higher urbanisation level of 76% while that of the developing countries was 40%. The urbanisation level has almost stabilized in developed countries. African and Asian countries are in the increasing process of urbanisation. Urbanisation, as the process of transition from a rural to a more urban society, is increasing rapidly and it will continue during the next few decades, especially in many developing countries (UNFPA, 2007). According to the State of World Population Report (UNFPA, 2007), in 2008 for the first time in human history more than half of the world's population is going to be in urban areas. Today 3.3 billion people already live in cities and by 2030 that number will rise to almost 5 billion. While in developed countries urbanization has mainly taken place in the second half of the 19th century, developing countries are now in the middle of their urban growth. In Europe already 72% of the population live in urban areas (UNDP, 2006). The 21st century is the century of the cities and of urbanization in developing countries.
- 6) Presently, India is among the countries of low level of urbanization. Number of urban agglomerations / towns has grown from 1827 in 1901 to 7,935 in 2011.

The population residing in urban areas has increased from 2.58 crores (25.8 million) in 1901 to 37.7 crores (377.7 million) in 2011. Urbanisation in India has been relatively slow compared to that in many developing countries. The percentage of annual exponential growth rate of urban population reveals that in India it grew at faster pace from the decade 1921-31 to until 1941-51. Thereafter, it registered a sharp drop during the decade 1951-61. The decades, 1961-71 and 1971-81, showed a significant improvement in the growth, which has steadily dropped to the current rate of 2.7. The sharp drop in urban rate during 1951-61 was mainly due to declassification of a very large number of towns during that period.

- 7) In India since 1961, two important criteria, namely: i) statutory administration, and ii) economic and demographic aspects, have been adopted to declare certain settlements as towns. The former includes civic status of towns such as municipal corporations, municipality, cantonment board, notified town-area committee, etc., and the latter includes criteria like population size, density of population and percentage of workforce in non-agricultural sector. The former is also known as statutory town and the latter as census town.
- 8) Three most urbanized States in terms of absolute share of urban population in India are:
 - Maharashtra 50.8 million (13.5%).
 - Uttar Pradesh 44.4 million (11.8%).
 - Tamil Nadu 34.9 million (9.3%).

The three least urbanized States in terms of absolute share of urban population in India are:

- Sikkim 0.15 million (Negligible).
- Arunachal Pradesh 0.31 million (0.1%).
- Mizoram 0.56 million (0.1%).

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UNIT 12 URBAN DEVELOPMENT: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Major Issues of Urbanisation
 - 12.2.1 Migration and Homelessness
 - 12.2.2 Unemployment
 - 12.2.3 Poverty
 - 12.2.3.1 Implications of Urban Poverty
 - 12.2.3.2 Key Issues of Urban Poverty
 - 12.2.4 Slums and Urban Housing
 - 12.2.4.1 Issues of Slums
 - 12.2.5 Industrialisation and Pollution
 - 12.2.5.1 Air Pollution
 - 12.2.5.2 Noise/Sound Pollution
 - 12.2.5.3 Water and Land Pollution
- 12.3 Challenges of Urban Support Services and Their Management
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 - 12.3.5 Inequalities in Educational Opportunities: Child-Labour
- 12.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 12.5 Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions
- 12.6 References

12.0 INTRODUCTION

You have learnt about the concept, components, processes, indicators and administration of urbanization along with national and international scenarios of urbanization in Unit-11. Now, in Unit-12 our focus will be on issues and challenges of urbanisation, particularly migration, homelessness, unemployment, poverty, slums, industrialisation, pollution, waste and garbage management, traffic management, safe drinking water, health care, safety, security, crime control, and child-labour, among others.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you should be able to:

- Identify the issues involved in urban development;
- Analyse the challenges facing urban development;
- Explain the reasons underlying the different issues and challenges; and
- Suggest or examine possible solutions to these issues and challenges.

12.2 MAJOR ISSUES OF URBANISATION

Issues and challenges of urbanization are crucially linked to urban unemployment and poverty-driven migration from rural to urban areas apart from natural increase in urban population. Migration to urban areas is, in fact, a response to the geography and demography of uneven development, where people migrate from rural to urban areas for economic reasons and better livelihood opportunities.

12.2.1 Migration and Homelessness

Migration is defined as a move from one migration defining area to another, usually crossing administrative boundaries made during a given migration interval and involving a change of residence (UN, 1993). The change in residence can take place either on permanent or semi-permanent or temporary basis. A large part of migration and urbanization in the less developed countries have historically been linked to stagnation in development, volatility of agriculture and lack of sectoral diversification within an agrarian economy or rural or tribal economy.

Some of the causes or determinants of migration to urban areas are the following:

- 1) Rural-push factors such as:
 - high population growth rate in rural areas that produced surplus labor causing increased pressure on agricultural land as well as unemployment leading to out-migration;
 - low income, low literacy, and dependence mainly on agriculture leading to high poverty; and
 - slow pace of technological and economic changes in the rural agriculture and rural economy as a whole that limited the employment opportunities in rural areas. On the contrary, in many cases even improved and mechanized form of farming practices has led to loss of agricultural labor leading to distress migration.
- 2) Urban-pull factors such as industrialisation, employment opportunities, high income, high literacy, dominance of industries and services, and expected prospects of economic advancement of the migrants in the city.

Thus, the reasons for rural-urban migration include such push-factors associated with place of origin (rural areas) on the one hand, and pull factors associated with place of destination (urban areas) on the other, as mentioned above. However, there are various permutations and combinations like economic, social and cultural factors, to name a few, which act together and shape the decision of an individual to migrate. The economic determinants have been the major determinants for many types of migration.

Types of Migration: Migrants, in the context of urbanization, can be broadly classified into the following four categories (Census of India, 2001).

- i) Short distance migrants (those who move within the district);
- ii) Medium distance migrants (those crossing the boundary of one district but not the State boundary);
- iii) Long distance migrants (those persons who are in a state other than the state of their birthplace or Place of Last Residence (PLR); and
- iv) International migrants; immigrants who are born or reside in other countries.

In India, the major origin states among rural-urban migrants are Uttar Pradesh followed by Bihar, Rajasthan and West Bengal.

Table 12.1: Rural-Urban Migration in India – 2001

Migration Stream		Population (in millions)	Percentage distribution
Intra-state	Rural to Rural	48.8	60.6
	Rural to Urban	14.2	17.6
	Urban to Rural	5.2	6.5
	Urban to Urban	9.8	12.1
Inter-state	Rural to Rural	4.4	26.6
	Rural to Urban	6.3	38.2
	Urban to Rural	1.0	6.0
	Urban to Urban	4.4	26.7

Source: Census of India, 2001

When any person migrates from one place to another place essential requirement is the residence. We know that the urban area cannot be expanded proportionate to the intensity of migration, unless it is planned. Often, due to inadequate housing in cities the migrants become homeless population of the city. The more the migrants to a city the more the pressure on its existing houses and eventually more will be the houseless migrants.

Table 12.2: Houseless Population in India – 2001

Houseless in	Population
Rural area	1,165,167
Urban area	778,599
Total	1,943,766

Source: Census of India, 2001

Thus, houseless population will be an issue that causes serious challenge to the urban development.

Further, if the migrants succeed in getting employment in the city of their destination, then they would be able to pay the rent for the residence (house) they hire, in whatever the form or quality they avail it. Otherwise, such a situation will lead to many other problems such as unemployment, poverty and slums.

Check Your Progress

- Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.
- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”
- 1) Mention important causes or determinants of rural-urban migration.

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12.2.2 Unemployment

Issues of unemployment and poverty are inter-related. The unemployed are defined as persons who owing to lack of work had not worked, but either sought work through employment exchanges, intermediaries, friends or relatives or by making applications to prospective employers or expressed their willingness or availability for work under the prevailing conditions of work and remuneration. They are considered as those who were 'seeking or available for work' or unemployed (NSSO).

Poverty in urban areas is persistent among the unemployed and laid-off workers, migrants and those who do not have ability to work or any saving. It is particularly high among the non-farmer-displaced people from the large projects and women who seek employment in urban areas. Some of the issues of the urban poor are low skills and low wages leading to their unemployment and under-employment. They mostly work in the informal sector with no social security or insurance. Youth unemployment is another major problem. They need income and employment generation programmes like job-training, microfinance groups, among other things. Otherwise, they tend to become poor and marginalised.

12.2.3 Poverty

Poverty has social, economic and political dimensions. It refers to the condition of not having the means to afford basic human needs such as clean water, nutrition, health care, education, clothing and shelter, i.e. lack of economic opportunities resulting in an income which is not commensurate to access 'basic needs'. It also refers to lack of opportunities to participate in decision-making that affects their social and economic life. Poverty in India is defined based on calorific norm of 2,400 per capita per day for rural areas and 2,100 per capita per day for urban areas. Both urban and rural poverty are characterized by lack of empowerment, security and influence. But, the urban poor are more dependent on cash than their rural counterparts, because they must purchase almost all the essentials of daily life; so income-based poverty indicators may understate the relative degree of poverty in urban areas (Satterthwaite, 2003). The urban poor have to primarily struggle for food and water insecurity leading to high cost of urban poverty. Poverty and high cost of living lead to informal settlement and poor basic amenities and, thus, poor and low cost of investment at the household. Thus, the urban poor are perpetually embroiled in the poverty trap in the absence of enhanced access to employment opportunities. This has many implications for urban poverty.

12.2.3.1 Implications of Urban Poverty

The important implications of urban poverty include the following.

- Settlement by the urban poor in informal housing;
- Absence of safe drinking water facility, sanitation, and involvement of the poor in garbage collection services makes the poor communities living in informal settlements vulnerable to communicable diseases and epidemics;
- Eroding human assets, since health impact is one significant outcome or consequence;

- Participation confining only to the informal economy: as hawkers, vendors, labourers, house-hold workers, scavengers, and so on.
- Disproportionate suffering of the poor from environmental hazards as a result of their poverty. Environmental burdens include lack of basic environmental services due to over-pumping of water on the one hand, and environmental degradation caused by air, soil and water pollution and their consequent vulnerability in the event of natural disasters such as floods, earthquakes, fire, etc., on the other hand.

12.2.3.2 Key Issues of Urban Poverty

Key issues of the urban poor include the following.

- Employment:** With largely poor skill-set the urban poor are always at a disadvantage in terms of work opportunities. They are in most cases under-employed or employed in the informal sector with low income remuneration. They have no insurance or employment security which makes them one of the most vulnerable groups.
- Infrastructure and Basic Services:** For the urban poor with no tenure-security, access to basic urban services is largely limited along with problems of affordability. Water connection, electricity, sewerage and drainage network-reach to slum pocket is inadequate and the poor end up paying more for these facilities.
- Mobility:** Urban poor live on the periphery of large urban pockets, whereas the employment opportunities are mostly available in the inner city; thus, the urban poor spend a large amount of time to walk or travel to their place of work. The income levels are so low that it is not possible for them to spend on commuting by bus or other transport services.
- Risks:** Urban poor and their habitation, in many cases, are in natural hazard-zones of land, thus putting them at higher risk to disaster and health issues. Poor availability of water, sanitation and ventilation facilities also make them more prone to diseases. In case of flood, they are most affected since many slum pockets are mostly along river bodies; same is true in case of earthquake because they are in congested-housing with no escape routes.

12.2.4 Slums and Urban Housing

The Report of the Committee on Slum Statistics (Census of India, 2011) constituted by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation defines slums as “compact settlements of at least 20 households with a collection of poorly-built tenements, mostly temporary in nature, crowded together usually with inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities in unhygienic conditions”.

Slums are generally characterized by bad-housing, inadequate light and air, absence of bath and toilet, overcrowding, absence of recreational facilities, vulnerability to fire and other natural disasters, etc. For purposes of census, the Registrar General of India considers all those recognized as slums by the state Slum Acts, Housing and Slum Boards – notified or non-notified, and those areas with at least 300 people or 60-70 households as slums.

12.2.4.1 Issues of Slums

The important issues related to slums include the following.

- Over-crowding and basic infrastructural inadequacy: water, sanitation, waste collection, storm drainage, health services, street lightning, etc;

- Poor health standards and lack of schools;
- Unplanned growth of slums;
- Lack of tenure security discourages the slum dwellers to invest for their own shelter;
- Poor urban residents and recent migrants with limited access to money or credit are, thus, forced to settle on marginal lands with only quasi-legal status or illegally occupy vacant sites.

Recognizing the importance of affordable housing to the poor and to improve their living conditions and quality of life, a program called *Basic Services for the Urban Poor and Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme*, was started under which over 15.4 lakh houses have been sanctioned by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>).

Poverty relates to lack of income, poor access to basic amenities, and lack of voice in public affairs. Therefore, slums manifest a form of poverty. Absence of tenure security, constant fear of eviction, vulnerability to disasters, insecure employment, over-crowding and unhealthy living environment, etc., are some of the factors that cause worst manifestations of urban poverty. It is related more to shelter-poverty than income-poverty per say. To a large extent, shelter-poverty is the result of the heavily distorted land markets, a highly inadequate regulation for protecting property rights, and absence of strategies for inclusion of economically and socially weaker sections in urban planning. Thus, slums are the most visible expression of this shelter-poverty. There is a need to take care of this section of the society as they exist as on date. Further, as the existing cities expand and new cities are formed, more care should be taken for including or better accommodation of its economically weaker sections.

Check Your Progress

- Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.
- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions."
- 2) Highlight the important implications of urban poverty.

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12.2.5 Industrialisation and Pollution

Since urbanization and industrialisation are interlinked, land, water and air pollution are the inevitable consequences that follow in large cities.

12.2.5.1 Air Pollution

Air pollution is caused by the presence of high proportion of undesirable gases such as sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide. Main sources of air pollution are:

- Air-borne particulate materials which contain both solid and liquid particles like dust, sprays, mist and smoke.

- Smoke emitted by chemical and paper factories, brick kilns, refineries and smelting plants, and burning of fossil fuels in big and small factories that ignore pollution norms.
- Toxic gas leaks which can be hazardous with long-term effects. Example, the Bhopal Gas tragedy.
- Vehicular emission which has become a major source of air pollution in urban areas. Exhaust from vehicles, dust from construction debris, industrial waste, burning of municipal and garden waste are all on the rise in the cities. So are respiratory diseases, including asthma.

The adverse effect of air pollution is that it harms human health, animals and green coverage.

12.2.5.2 Noise/Sound Pollution

Apart from the growing level of air pollution, noise pollution, particularly road-traffic-noise pollution is another major problem to the inhabitants of cities. The urban environmental quality is deteriorating due to increase of vehicles, infrastructure and population, which indirectly affects the urban quality of life. Continuous exposure to high level of noise can cause serious stress on the auditory and non-auditory, and nervous system of the city dwellers. It can cause serious health problems such as physical and psychological, irritation, human performance and actions, hypertension, heart problems, tiredness, headache, sore throat, and many more.

12.2.5.3 Water and Land Pollution

Water and land pollution in urban areas is caused by organic and inorganic industrial wastes and effluents discharged into rivers and pits. Industrialisation is a necessary evil for urban development. Though not all industries are polluting, the main industries which cause water and land pollution are the following.

- paper, pulp, chemical, textile and dyeing, petroleum refineries, tanneries and electroplating industries that let out dyes, detergents, acids, salts and heavy metals like Lead and Mercury pesticides, fertilizers, synthetic chemicals with carbon, plastics and rubber, etc into the water bodies.
- Fly ash, phospo-gypsum, and iron and steel slags are the major solid wastes in India.
- Pollution due to bio-medical waste and e-waste are some other sources of land pollution, since these wastes are non-bio degradable.

Thus, the collective effect of land, water and air pollution, among other things, in urban areas have become perennial challenges to urban development, we will discuss these challenges in section 12.3.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

3) What are the main sources of air pollution in cities?

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12.3 CHALLENGES OF URBAN SUPPORT SERVICES AND THEIR MANAGEMENT

It may be possible to overcome individual poverty more easily, but an environment of poor access to basic services, public health care, and other inputs into human development is harder to change. The latter perpetuates individual poverty. It leads to slums, though factually not all slum dwellers are poor. Some non-poor live in slums because rent control laws have created extreme scarcity of housing for low-income groups. In many cases, entire townships have emerged in slum developments operating within the framework of an informal economy. All this has profound implications not only for environmental degradation but also for the productivity of those who live in slums. These, among others, become enduring challenges for urban development.

12.3.1 Safe Drinking Water, Sanitation and Health Care

Inadequate coverage, irregular supplies, low pressure, and poor quality of water are some of the issues of water supply in the cities of India and many other developing countries of the world. With rapid increase in urban population and continuing expansion of city limits, the challenge of delivering water to its population is growing rapidly. Universal access to potable water and toilet in the household is still a far cry in several states. Many un-served households rely on informal supplies of water sold by private vendors, which vary in quality. On an average, these families pay ten to twenty times more than the residents pay for piped water. Poor urban dwellers not only have very high expenditures, but are also exposed to significantly greater health risks due to limited access to clean water, poor drainage, and lack of adequate waste-water collection and treatment infrastructure.

Sanitation is defined as safe management of human excreta, including its safe confinement treatment, disposal and associated hygiene-related practices. An integrated approach is needed to take account of other elements of environmental sanitation such as solid-waste management, degeneration of industrial and other specialized / hazardous wastes, drainage facilities, as also the management of drinking water supply. It highlights the need to generate awareness among them of the benefits of a hygienic and clean environment.

Over 50 million people in urban India defecate in the open every day. Sanitation is, therefore, a major area of concern, particularly for the urban poor. With very poor sewerage networks, a large number of the urban poor still depend on public toilets. Many public toilets have no water supply while the outlets of many others with water supply are not connected to the city's sewerage system. Public toilets are poorly maintained and many are forced to defecate in the open. Lack of tenure rights leads to poor investment in sanitation by the poor.

We now have the National Urban Sanitation Policy which looks at preparation of city sanitation plans. The National Urban Sanitation Policy envisages transforming all the towns and cities of India into 100 per cent sanitized, healthy and livable spaces – ensuring sustained public health and improved environmental outcomes for all its citizens. Special focus has been laid on hygienic and affordable sanitation facilities for the urban

poor particularly for the women which will ensure improved cleanliness in cities and towns. Following are the goals of National Urban Sanitation Policy.

- Awareness generation targeting behavioral change.
- Creation of open defecation-free cities.
- Sanitary and safe disposal of all human and liquid waste.
- All states and cities to develop state sanitation strategies and city sanitation plans.

We can notice a fact that they are even forced to forgo work on days or times when water (tank) arrives, as they have to stand in line on those days to collect the same. The lack of basic services to the urban population indirectly affects their financial assets, because of health impacts. The poor are the worst sufferers as many of them may lose their income while some of them may lose their jobs also in many cases, because of personal illness or caring for sick family members. Further, in the absence of free and effective health care for them, they may also deplete their savings for health care to buy medicines, etc.

Improved water sources as defined in the Millennium Development Goals include: a) piped- water into dwelling, plot / land, b) public tap / standpipe, c) tube-well bore-well, d) protected dug-well, e) protected spring, f) rainwater collection, harvested rainwater on the other hand.

Improved sanitation facilities as identified for Millennium Development Goals include: a) flush / pour flush into septic tank, piped-sewer system, b) ventilated improved pit-latrine, c) pit-latrine with slab, d) composing toilet. At the same time, shared facilities of the above are not regarded as improved conditions. Also, coverage does not necessarily mean access. Often release of allocations or their expenditure is taken as a measure of coverage. This is not necessarily true. For example, in case of sanitation, release of funds implies that a toilet has been constructed. In case of drinking water there have been examples, where expenditure has been made but not a drop of water has emerged from the created infrastructure.

Beyond the direct impact on health, lack of sanitation damages other areas of human development. It affects education access and attainment, both in physiological terms by repeated illnesses stunting intellectual development and in practical terms by causing many teenage-girls to drop out of school, thus further entrenching the barriers caused by gender inequality.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions."

4) What are the goals of National Urban Sanitation Policy?

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12.3.2 Waste and Garbage Management

The collection of the garbage from dumpsites is infrequent, processing is not done in most cases, and disposal rules are rarely followed. The Municipal Solid Waste Rules have been in existence since 2000 but their enforcement has been poor. Besides, Urban Local Bodies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), community-based organizations and private companies are also involved these days in the collection of solid waste, but little attention has been paid to waste disposal. In most cases, collection of solid waste from roadside dustbins to transfer stations is done by Urban Local Bodies in open vehicles with manual loading. This is followed by transportation to open dumping grounds. The expansion of city limits has led to old dumping-sites, which were earlier relatively remote, now becoming part of the city. Modern practices of solid-waste collection and management is having adverse impact on the livelihoods of scavengers' and rag-pickers' who are in large numbers in the task of collection and segregation of waste. Informal operations in recyclable materials have meant that items such as bottles, syringes, and needles are being sold back in the market, which is a health hazard. It is important to create new avenues of employment for these people in a rapidly growing economy, while efficient methods are sought for solid-waste collection, segregation and disposal.

We can identify solid-waste in the following three categories:

- **Household-waste which is generally classified as Municipal Waste:** It consists of household waste, construction and demolition debris, sanitation residue, and waste from streets. This garbage is generated mainly from residential and commercial complexes. In India, some municipal areas have banned the use of plastics and other items that cause harm to the environment.
- **Industrial-waste:** Industrial- and hospital-waste is considered hazardous as they contain toxic substances. Certain types of household-waste are also hazardous. Hazardous-wastes could be highly toxic to humans, animals and plants; they are corrosive, highly inflammable or explosive; and react when exposed to certain things, e.g. gases. Household-wastes that can be categorized as hazardous-waste include old batteries, shoe polish, paint tins, old medicines and medicine bottles. In the industrial sector, the major generators of hazardous-waste are the metal, chemical, paper, pesticide, dye, refining, and rubber goods-industries.
- **Bio-medical or hospital-waste:** Hospital-waste is generated during the diagnosis, treatment or immunization of human beings or animals or in research activities in these fields. It may include wastes like sharps, soiled-waste, disposables, anatomical waste, cultures, discarded medicines, chemical wastes, etc. These are in the form of disposable syringes, swabs, bandages, body fluids, human excreta, etc. This waste is highly infectious and can be a serious threat to human health if not managed in a scientific and discriminate manner.

Importance of waste-reduction: Each household generates garbage every day. We tend to throw away items that are no longer needed or do not have any further use for us. There are different types of solid-waste depending on their source. In today's polluted world, learning the correct methods of handling the waste-generated has become essential. Segregation is an important method of handling municipal solid-waste. One of the important methods of managing and treating wastes is composting. As the cities are growing in size and in problems such as the generation of plastic-waste, various municipal-waste treatment and disposal methods are now being used to try and resolve these problems. One common sight in all cities is the rag-picker who plays an important role in the segregation of this waste. Garbage generated in households can be recycled

and reused to prevent creation of waste at source and reducing amount of waste thrown into the community dustbins.

12.3.3 Vehicles and Traffic Management

Traffic is an integral part of our city structure and life. Urban centers draw population from all sides leading to many times high level of traffic from outside the cities leading to congestions on urban-streets. It is largely so, because the volume of traffic is much more than the vehicular capacity of the road. So, for ideal traffic management one should design and plan in such a way that the peak hour traffic is taken care of by knowing the origin and the destination of the traffic flowing on the streets. It is also important to have stringent parking policy and a road use tax to deter unnecessary vehicle usage. The other important way of minimizing traffic congestion is through introduction of a systematic public transport system, which is well networked with good frequency and is equally accessible to one and all.

Problems of urban Transport: Major problems of urban traffic management include the following.

- poor road quality – often unpaved, in repair or no repair.
- inadequate or non-existent traffic signals and signage.
- lack of infrastructure for pedestrians and cyclists.
- lack of adequate facilities for mobility.
- crowding of pedestrian pathways by animals and street-vendors.
- Over-crowding of buses, auto-rickshaws, and even motorcycles.
- Traffic deaths and injuries.
- Environmental pollution and congestion.

In recent years, the large urban metros have seen improved facilities for urban traffic management but the situation in small and medium towns are worse where they lack basic provisions such as stop-signs, traffic signals, lane-striping, and other regulatory and directional signage. Also, we do not find prioritised public transport system like bus and rail transport. Our transport policy should focus on improved bus services and co-ordination with different modes of transport.

12.3.4 Safety, Security and Crime Control

The main threats to the safety and security of citizens in urban areas are crime and violence. These issues make cities vulnerable for people to live. The rapid urbanization process has put pressures on food, housing, job opportunities and infrastructure. These pressures in turn generate many conflicting situations leading to criminal activities. Inequalities in opportunities promote differences in incomes between and among different groups and resultant conflicts lead to increased criminal activity. This is particularly felt by senior citizens, women and single-mothers, etc.

The other major threats to human security are man-made and natural disasters. These occur because of congestion, presence of industries in high-density residential areas and poor infrastructural facilities.

12.3.5 Inequalities in Educational Opportunities: Child-Labour

Child labour is a matter of grave concern which deprives children from receiving education and leisure which is important for their growing years. They are engaged in commercial and laborious activities. The term 'child labour' means any work done by a child for profit. 'Child labor' leads to child exploitation which harm's child's development needs, both mental and physical. The International Labour Organization defines child labourers as "children leading adult lives, working for low wages (below minimum wage), under conditions damaging to their health and to their physical and mental development, sometimes separated from their families, frequently deprived of meaningful education and training opportunities that could open up for them a bright future".

Some common causes of child labour are poverty, parental illiteracy, social apathy, ignorance, lack of education and exposure, exploitation of cheap and unorganized labour. Absence of compulsory education at the primary or elementary level, parental ignorance regarding the bad effects of child labour, non-implementation of child labour law, non-availability and poor-accessibility to schools are some other factors which encourage child labour causing poor education levels in this section of society.

12.4 LET US SUM UP

In this Unit, we have discussed different issues and challenges facing urban development. The important of these we covered here are: issues and challenges related to migration and homelessness, growing need for housing in urban areas, unemployment, poverty, slums, land, water and air pollution resulting from industrialisation and urbanization, safe drinking water, sanitation and health care, waste and garbage management, vehicles and traffic management, safety, security and crime control and the inequalities in educational opportunities and the child labour.

Addressing the above discussed issues and challenges call for effective urban policies and programmes which we will discuss in Unit 13 that follows.

12.5 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS' QUESTIONS

- 1) The important causes or determinants of migration from rural to urban areas include the following.
 - i) Rural-push factors such as:
 - high population growth rate in rural areas that produced surplus labor causing increased pressure on agricultural land as well as unemployment leading to out migration;
 - low income, low literacy, dependence mainly on agriculture and high poverty;
 - slow pace of technological and economic changes in the rural agriculture and rural economy as a whole that limited the employment opportunities in rural areas. On the contrary, in many cases, even improved and mechanized form of farming practices has led to loss of agricultural labor leading to distress-migration; and
 - ii) Urban-pull factors such as industrialisation, employment opportunities, high income,

high literacy, dominance of industries and services, and expected prospects of economic advancement of the migrants in the city.

- 2) The important implications of urban poverty include the following.
 - Settlement by the urban poor in informal housing;
 - Absence of safe drinking water facility, sanitation, and involvement of the poor in garbage-collection services makes the poor communities living in informal settlements vulnerable to communicable diseases and epidemics;
 - Eroding human assets, since health impact is one significant outcome or consequence;
 - Participation of the poor confining only to the informal economy: as hawkers, vendors, labourers, house-hold workers, scavengers, and so on.
 - Disproportionate suffering of the poor from environmental hazards as a result of their poverty. Environmental burdens include lack of basic environmental services due to over-pumping of water on the one hand, and environmental degradation caused by air, soil and water pollution and their vulnerability in the event of natural disasters such as floods, earthquakes, fire, etc., on the other.
- 3) Main sources of air pollution in cities include the following.
 - Air-borne particulate materials which contain both solid and liquid particles like dust, sprays, mist and smoke.
 - Smoke emitted by chemical and paper factories, brick-kilns, refineries and smelting plants, and burning of fossil fuels in big and small factories that ignore pollution norms.
 - Toxic gas leaks which can be hazardous with long-term effects. Example, the Bhopal Gas tragedy.
 - Vehicular emission which has become a major source of air pollution in urban areas. Exhaust from vehicles, dust from construction debris, industrial waste, burning of municipal and garden-waste are all on the rise in the city which cause respiratory diseases including asthma.
- 4) Following are the goals of National Urban Sanitation Policy.
 - Awareness-generation targeting behavioral change.
 - Creation of open defecation-free cities.
 - Sanitary and safe disposal of all human and liquid-waste.
 - All states and cities to develop state sanitation-strategies and city sanitation-plans.

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UNIT 13 URBAN DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

Structure

- 13.0 Introduction
- 13.1 Objectives
- 13.2 Urban Development Policies and Programmes: An Overview
 - 13.2.1 Urban Community Development Programme, 1958
 - 13.2.2 Constitution (Seventy-Fourth) Amendment Act, 1992
 - 13.2.3 Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), 1997
 - 13.2.4 National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004
 - 13.2.5 Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), 2005
 - 13.2.6 Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT), 2005
 - 13.2.7 Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), 2005
 - 13.2.8 National Urban Transport Policy, 2006
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 - 13.2.10 National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008
- 13.3 Urban Administration: Urban Local Bodies
 - 13.3.1 Nagar Nigams (Corporations): Structure, Powers and Functions
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 - 13.3.3 Nagar Panchayats: Structure, Powers and Functions
- 13.4 Urban Reforms
 - 13.4.1 Changes in Functions and Resources of Urban Local Bodies
- 13.5 Disaster Management in Urban Areas
 - 13.5.1 Types of Disasters
 - 13.5.2 Issues and Measures of Disaster Management
- 13.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions
- 13.8 References

13.0 INTRODUCTION

We have discussed the issues and challenges related to urban development in the preceding Unit. But, the urban development issues and challenges can be effectively addressed only through proper policies and programmes of urban development. In India, the Ministry of Urban Development is responsible for formulating policies, supporting and monitoring programmes and coordinating the activities of various Central Ministries, State Governments and other nodal authorities in so far as they relate to urban development in the country. Hence, in the present Unit we attempt to present to you a broad picture of the policies and programmes of urban development and their relevance to addressing of the issues and challenges of urban development in India.

13.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, we expect you to be able to:

- Explain the significance and scope of urban development policies and programmes;
- Describe different policies and programmes of urban development; and
- Analyse or critically examine these policies and programmes in the context of different challenges of urban development.

13.2 URBAN DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES: AN OVERVIEW

Urban development policies and programmes have been vogue in independent India as can be seen through the Five Year Plans. In this section we will discuss these policies and programmes in holistic manner and, thus, attempt to present you an overview of the same.

Since the First Five Year Plan the Government of India has been laying focus, among other things, on the issues of urban development including poverty alleviation. The first three five-year plans focused on housing up-gradation and slum clearance programmes. During fourth to seventh Five Year Plans the focus was on urban community development and environmental improvement of slums. From eighth plan onwards urban poverty began to get attention and a series of programmes relating to basic services and livelihoods and employment-generation were launched (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>).

A three pronged strategy of 'inclusive growth' is being followed at present to address the various problems of urban poverty and slums. It includes provision of housing and services through Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), institutional reforms as given in 74th Constitutional Amendment Act and through programmes like National Urban Sanitation Policy, National Urban Transport Policy, Policy for Urban Street Vendors and Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT) and Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), among others.

The important policies and programmes of urban development implemented in India include the following.

- Urban Community Development Programme, 1958.
- Constitution (Seventy-Fourth) Amendment Act, 1992.
- Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), 1997.
- National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004.
- Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), 2005.
- Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT), 2005.
- Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), 2005.
- National Urban Transport Policy, 2006.
- Capacity-Building for Urban Development Project for India, 2006.
- National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008.

These policies and programmes are discussed, in brief, below.

13.2.1 Urban Community Development Programme, 1958

In India, the first Urban Community Development Project was initiated in 1958 in Delhi with the help of grant from Ford Foundation. It was subsequently followed by Ahmedabad (1962), Baroda (1965) and Calcutta (1966) Projects. The Rural-Urban Relationship Committee Report (1966) did some detailed thinking on urban community development programme and made recommendations about the lines on which urban community development programme could be undertaken on nation-wide scale.

During the last year of third Five Year Plan, the Union Ministry of Health initiated 20 pilot projects in selected cities with a population of 1,00,000 or more. Each project was designed to cover a population of 50,000 split into approximately 8 mohalla-level committees with a population of 6,000 each, to be further sub-divided into 12 primary units each consisting of a small population of 500. The scheme provided a specific staffing pattern of a Project Officer and 8 Community Organisers supported by some voluntary workers for which a sum of Rs.50,000 per annum was allotted. A separate grant of Rs.15,000 was provided for local developmental activities undertaken by the neighbourhood community on the basis of matching contribution. It was, however, decided that the expenditure would be shared on the basis of 50% to be paid by the Central Government and the remaining 50% to be met by the State Government and the local body concerned. The expenditure on training, evaluation and research was to be borne by the Central Government (Subhash Chandra, See <http://cdj.oxfordjournals.org/content/9/3/191.extract>).

13.2.2 Constitution (Seventy Fourth) Amendment Act, 1992

The Constitution of India has detailed provisions for ensuring protection of democracy in Parliament and in State Legislatures. Hence, democracy in these institutions has survived and flourished. However, the Constitution did not make Local Self-Government in urban areas a clear-cut Constitutional obligation. As a consequence of inadequate Constitutional provision for Local Self-Government, democracy in municipal governance was not stable. Though the respective municipal acts of the States provided for regular elections to municipal bodies, they were frequently suspended for indefinite periods, thus, eroding the very basis of local self-government and had a negative effect on democracy at the grassroots level. The Constitution (Seventy Forth Amendment) Act, 1992 was hence introduced with a new Amendment, Part IXA in the Constitution, which deals with the issues relating to municipalities (http://www.urbanindia.nic.in/programme/lsg/74th_CAA.pdf).

The main provisions introduced by the above Act are given below.

- **Constitution of Municipalities:** For constitution of 3 types of municipalities depending upon the size and area, namely: i) *Nagar Panchayat* for an area in transition from rural to urban area; ii) *Municipal Council* for smaller urban area; and iii) *Municipal Corporation* for larger urban area.
- **Composition of Municipalities:** The seats shall be filled by direct elections. Besides, some seats may be filled by nomination of persons having special knowledge and experience in municipal administration.
- **Constitution of Wards Committees:** This provides for constitution of Wards Committees in all municipalities with a population of 3 lakhs or more.
- **Reservation of seats:** In order to provide for adequate representation of SC/ST and of women in the municipal bodies, provisions have been made for reservation of seats for them.

- ***Duration of Municipalities:*** The municipality has a fixed term of 5 years from the date appointed for its first meeting.
- ***Powers and Functions of the Municipalities:*** All municipalities would be empowered with such powers and responsibilities as may be necessary to enable them to function as effective institutions of self-government.
- ***Finances of Municipalities:*** It has been left to the Legislature of a State to specify by law matters relating to imposition of taxes.
- ***Committee for District Planning:*** Planning and allocation of resources at the district level for the Panchayati Raj institutions are normally to be done by the Zilla Parishad.

13.2.3 Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), 1997

The Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) has been in operation since 01.12.1997. The Revised Guidelines have come into effect from 1.4.2009. The three *key objectives* of the revised Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) are as follows:

- Addressing urban poverty alleviation through gainful employment to the urban unemployed or under-employed poor;
- Supporting skill development and training to enable the urban poor have access to employment opportunities provided by the market or undertake self-employment; and
- Empowering the community to tackle the issues of urban poverty through suitable self-managed community structures and capacity-building programmes.

The delivery of inputs under the Scheme shall be through the medium of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) and community structures. Thus, SJSRY calls for strengthening of these local bodies and community organizations to enable them to address the issues of employment and income-generation faced by the urban poor.

The revamped SJSRY has *five major components*, namely:

- i) Urban Self-Employment Programme (USEP).
- ii) Urban Women Self-help Programme (UWSP).
- iii) Skill Training for Employment Promotion amongst Urban Poor (STEP-UP).
- iv) Urban Wage Employment Programme (UWEP).
- v) Urban Community Development Network (UCDN).

The above programmes have to be implemented in convergence with other programmes relating to slum development/urban poverty alleviation such as Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), Prime Minister's Employment Generation Programme (PMEGP), Aam Aadmi Bima Yojana (AABY), Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY), National Rural Health Mission (NRHM), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Mid-day Meals Scheme (MMS), Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS), Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSS), National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), Skill Development Initiative Scheme (SDIS) Modular Employable Skills (MES), etc.

Delivery Mechanism and Administrative Support: The SJSRY Guidelines envisage the setting up of a dedicated cadre / service of officers specializing in urban poverty alleviation / community mobilization and development for supporting the implementation of urban poverty alleviation and related programmes in States/UTs. These officers are to be appointed at ULB / District / State levels, with suitable promotion avenues for implementation of various urban poverty alleviation schemes including SJSRY with a professional approach. The instant guidelines aim at guiding the creation of an appropriate programme administration structure, supported by experts engaged on outsourcing / contract / deputation basis to effectively implement SJSRY and other urban poverty alleviation programmes in cities and towns (http://mhupa.gov.in/w_new/SJSRYAdmnMechanism-OperationalGuidelines-2009-2010.pdf).

13.2.4 National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004

The National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, introduced by the Government in 2004 and revised afterwards first in 2006 and then in 2009, claims to give legitimacy to the vast population of crores of street vendors. The National Policy recognises the 'positive role' of the street vendors, their Constitutional right to livelihood as well as the right to be able to practice trade or business as a fundamental right. "This policy recognises that street vendors constitute an integral and legitimate part of the urban retail trade and distribution system for daily necessities of the general public." And "the street vendors assist the Government in combating unemployment and poverty, it is the duty of the State to protect the right of these micro-entrepreneurs to earn an honest living. Accordingly, the Policy aims to ensure that this important occupational group of the urban population finds due recognition at national, state and local levels for its contribution to the society." But, "At the same time, it will be impracticable that every hawker be provided a permanent site because most cities / towns suffer from severe constraints of land for commercial vending." Therefore, there is need to 'regulate' vendors by earmarking restriction-free, restricted and no-vending zones in cities (reasons given are flow of traffic, pedestrians, cleanliness and hygiene, etc) (http://www.cpiml.org/liberation/year_2009/nov_09/policy_watch.html).

Street vendors form a very important component of the urban informal sector in India. In most Indian cities, the urban poor survive by working in the informal sector primarily due to poverty, lack of gainful employment in the rural areas, shrinkage of employment in the formal sector, and low levels of skill and education required for the better paid jobs in the formal sector. Street vendors are mainly those who are unsuccessful or unable to get regular jobs. They try to solve their problems through their own meager resources. Street vendors are regarded as public nuisance and it is said that they encroach public spaces. The objective to be achieved through the National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004 is to provide and promote a supportive environment for earning livelihoods to the vast mass of urban Street Vendors. Street Vendors provide valuable services to the urban population while trying to earn a livelihood and it is the duty of the State to protect the right of this segment of population to earn their livelihood. This Policy also aims to ensure that this important section of the urban population finds recognition for its contribution to society, and is conceived of as a major initiative for urban poverty alleviation.

For the purposes of this Policy, a Street vendor is broadly defined as 'a person who offers goods or services for sale to the public without having a permanent built-up structure in a street'. This Policy recognises three basic categories of Street Vendors. *First*, those Street Vendors who carry out vending on a regular basis with a specific location; *Second*, those Street Vendors who carry out vending not on a regular basis

and without a specific location, for example, Vendors who sell goods in weekly bazaars during holidays and festivals and so on; *Third*, the Mobile Street Vendors. Thus, the overarching objective to be achieved through this Policy is to '*Provide and promote a supportive environment for earning livelihoods to the vast mass of urban Street Vendors while ensuring that such activity does not lead to overcrowding and unsanitary conditions in public spaces and streets*'.

13.2.5 Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), 2005

Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) was launched in 2005-06. Some of its details are as follows (<http://jnnurm.nic.in/wp-content/uploads/2011/01/UGIOverview.pdf>).

- 1) **The Mission Statement:** The aim of JNNURM is to encourage reforms and fast-track planned development of identified cities. Focus is to be on efficiency in urban infrastructure and service delivery mechanisms, community participation, and accountability of ULBs / Parastatal agencies towards citizens.
- 2) **Objectives of the Mission:** The objectives of the JNNURM are to ensure that the following are achieved in the urban sector.
 - a) Focussed attention to integrated development of infrastructure services in cities covered under the Mission;
 - b) Establishment of linkages between asset-creation and asset-management through a slew of reforms for long-term project sustainability;
 - c) Ensuring adequate funds to meet the deficiencies in urban infrastructural services;.
 - d) Planned development of identified cities including peri-urban areas, outgrowths and urban corridors leading to dispersed urbanisation;.
 - e) Scale-up delivery of civic amenities and provision of utilities with emphasis on universal access to the urban poor;.
 - f) Special focus on urban renewal programme for the old-city areas to reduce congestion; and
 - g) Provision of basic services to the urban poor including security of tenure at affordable prices, improved housing, water supply and sanitation, and ensuring delivery of other existing universal services of the government for education, health and social security.
- 3) **Scope of the Mission:** The Mission shall comprise the two following Sub-Missions.
 - i) **Sub-Mission for Urban Infrastructure and Governance:** This will be administered by the Ministry of Urban Development through the Sub-Mission Directorate for Urban Infrastructure and Governance. The main thrust of the Sub-Mission will be on infrastructure projects relating to water supply and sanitation, sewerage, solid-waste management, road network, urban transport and redevelopment of old-city areas with a view to upgrading infrastructure therein, shifting industrial and commercial establishments to conforming areas, etc.

- ii) *Sub-Mission for Basic Services to the Urban Poor:* This will be administered by the Ministry of Urban Employment and Poverty Alleviation through the Sub-Mission Directorate for Basic Services to the Urban Poor. The main thrust of the Sub-Mission will be on integrated development of slums through projects for providing shelter, basic services and other related civic amenities with a view to providing utilities to the urban poor.
- 4) **Strategy of the Mission:** The objectives of the Mission shall be met through the adoption of the following strategy:
- i) *Preparing City Development Plan:* Every city will be expected to formulate a City Development Plan (CDP) indicating policies, programmes and strategies, and financing plans.
 - ii) *Preparing Projects:* The CDP would facilitate identification of projects. The Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) / parastatal agencies will be required to prepare Detailed Project Reports (DPRs) for undertaking projects in the identified spheres. It is essential that projects are planned in a manner that optimises the life-cycle cost of projects. The life-cycle cost of a project would cover the capital outlays and the attendant O & M costs to ensure that assets are in good working condition. A revolving fund would be created to meet the O & M requirements of assets created over the planning horizon. In order to seek JNNURM assistance, projects would need to be developed in a manner that would ensure and demonstrate optimisation of the life-cycle costs over the planning horizon of the project.
 - iii) *Release and Leveraging of Funds:* It is expected that the JNNURM assistance would serve to catalyse the flow of investment into the urban infrastructure sector across the country. Funds from the Central and State Government will flow directly to the nodal agency designated by the State, as grants-in-aid. The funds for identified projects across cities would be disbursed to the ULB / Parastatal agency through the designated State Level Nodal Agency (SLNA) as soft-loan or grant-cum-loan or grant. The SLNA / ULBs in turn would leverage additional resources from other sources.
 - iv) *Incorporating Private Sector Efficiencies:* In order to optimise the life-cycle costs over the planning horizon, private sector efficiencies can be inducted in development, management, implementation and financing of projects, through Public-Private Partnership (PPP) arrangements.
- 5) **Duration of the Mission:** The duration of the Mission would be seven years beginning from the year 2005-06. Evaluation of the experience of implementation of the Mission would be undertaken before the commencement of Eleventh Five Year Plan and if necessary, the programme calibrated suitably.
- 6) **Expected Outcomes of the JNNURM:** On completion of the Mission period, it is expected that ULBs and parastatal agencies will have achieved the following:
- i) Modern and transparent budgeting, accounting, financial management systems, designed and adopted for all urban service and governance functions.
 - ii) City-wide framework for planning and governance will be established and become operational.
 - iii) All urban residents will be able to obtain access to a basic level of urban services.

- iv) Financially self-sustaining agencies for urban governance and service delivery will be established, through reforms to major revenue instruments.
- v) Local services and governance will be conducted in a manner that is transparent and accountable to citizens.
- vi) E-governance applications will be introduced in core functions of ULBs / Parastatal resulting in reduced cost and time of service delivery processes.

Thus, with a view to bridge the resource-gap that cities and towns were facing, the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) was launched. JNNURM is a Mission mode approach that integrates the two vital needs – massive investments / resource required for infrastructure development, and urban reforms required to sustain big investments. The Mission has helped focus attention on all three tiers of the government about the challenges faced by the cities and towns of India. *The aim is to encourage reforms and fast-track planned development of identified cities. Focus is to be on efficiency in urban infrastructure and service delivery mechanisms, community participation, and accountability of ULBs / Parastatal agencies towards citizens.*

13.2.6 Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT), 2005

Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small & Medium Towns was launched on 3.12.2005 for improvement in urban infrastructure in towns and cities in a planned manner. It is one of the components of JNNURM. The Mission is the single largest initiative of the Government of India for planned development of cities and towns (http://urbanindia.nic.in/programme/ud/uidssmt_pdf/overview.pdf).

The higher productivity of any urban area depends on the availability and quality of infrastructure services. Urban economic activities are dependent upon urban infrastructure like roads, water supply, power, telecommunication, mass transportation and other civic infrastructure like sanitation and solid-waste management. JNNURM would provide grant to 63 identified large cities in the country and Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT) will cover all other census towns. The Mission aims to encourage reforms and fast-track infrastructure development. Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small & Medium Towns (UIDSSMT) scheme subsumed the existing schemes of Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) and Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme (AUWSP). The *objectives* of the scheme are to:

- Improve infrastructural facilities and help create durable public-assets and quality-oriented services in cities and towns;
- Enhance public-private-partnership in infrastructural development; and
- Promote planned integrated development of towns and cities.

13.2.7 Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), 2005

Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme aims at integrated approach in improving the conditions of the urban slum-dwellers that do not possess adequate shelter and reside in dilapidated conditions. The scheme is applicable to all cities and towns as per 2001 Census, except cities/towns covered under Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM). The scheme seeks to enhance public and private

investments in housing and infrastructural development in urban areas. The basic objective of the Scheme is to strive for holistic slum development with a healthy and enabling urban environment by providing adequate shelter and basic infrastructure facilities to the slum-dwellers of the identified urban areas. The programme runs on a project mode. The financing pattern is in the ratio of 80:20 by Central and State Governments. Beneficiary share (12% for General and 10% for SC/ST) is stipulated for beneficiaries of housing projects. Out of 20% State share the balance fund after deducting beneficiary share will be borne equally by the ULB and State (Maximum state share is 10% of the total Project Cost) (<http://www.kudumbashree.org/?q=ihsdp>).

13.2.8 National Urban Transport Policy, 2006

Need for a national policy: Although the responsibility for management of urban areas (and thus urban transport) rests with the State governments, a Central policy is considered necessary as (<http://www.urbanindia.nic.in/policies/TransportPolicy.pdf>):

- Several key agencies that would play an important role in urban-transport planning work under the Central government, with no accountability to the State government
- Several Acts and Rules, which have important implications in dealing with urban-transport issues, are administered by the Central Government.
- A need exists to guide State level action-plans within an overall-framework.
- The launching of the NURM has provided a timely platform for providing significant financial support from the Central Government for investments in urban-transport infrastructure. As such, this offers an opportunity for a meaningful national policy that would guide Central financial assistance towards improving urban mobility.
- A need exists to build capacity for urban-transport planning as also develop it as a professional practice.
- A need exists to take up coordinated capacity-building, research and information dissemination to raise the overall level of awareness and skills.

The objective of this policy is to ensure safe, affordable, quick, comfortable, reliable and sustainable access for the growing number of city-residents to jobs, education, recreation and such other needs within the cities. This is sought to be achieved by: incorporating urban transportation as an important parameter at the urban planning stage rather than being a consequential requirement; encouraging integrated land use and transport planning in all cities so that travel distances are minimized and access to livelihoods, education, and other social needs, especially for the marginal segments of the urban population is improved; improving access of business to markets and the various factors of production; and bringing about a more equitable allocation of road space with people, rather than vehicles, as its main focus specially, it promotes the following.

- Equitable allocation of road space.
- Priority to the use of public transport.
- Quality and pricing of Public Transport.
- Integrated public transport systems.
- Priority to non-motorized transport.

- Parking.
- Freight traffic.
- Legal and Administrative Issues.
- Capacity building.
- Use of cleaner technologies.
- Innovative financing mechanisms using land as a resource.
- Association of the private sector.

13.2.9 Capacity Building for Urban Development Project for India, 2006

The development objective of the Capacity-Building for Urban Development Project for India is that: selected Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) will have improved their systems and skills for urban management and urban poverty reduction. The project has three components as given below (www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSServlet?pcont=details).

- 1) The first component of the project is capacity-building for strengthened urban management. This component will help states and ULBs to improve systems for: i) financial management (FM); ii) urban planning; iii) service delivery; and iv) governance in ULBs.
- 2) The second component of the project is capacity-building for effective urban poverty monitoring and alleviation. This component will help states and ULBs: i) to improve skills of practitioners; ii) to recognize and incorporate innovative programmes and best practices; and iii) to diagnose urban poverty and prepare alleviation strategies in ULBs. This component will also strengthen Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation's (MOHUPA's) capacity for urban poverty monitoring and evaluation.
- 3) The third component of the project is implementation support. This component will support implementation via outreach-activities with ULBs as well as project procurement, FM and administration.

13.2.10 National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008

Government has identified 100% sanitation as a goal during the 11th Five Year Plan. The ultimate objective is that all urban dwellers will have access to and be able to use safe and hygienic sanitation facilities and arrangements so that no one defecates in the open. The vision for Urban Sanitation in India is to make all Indian cities and towns totally sanitized, healthy and livable and ensure and sustain good public health and environmental outcomes for all their citizens with a special focus on hygienic and affordable sanitation facilities for the urban poor and women (<http://pib.nic.in/newsite/erelease.aspx?relid=43437>).

In order to achieve the above Vision, following key policy issues must be addressed:

- *Poor Awareness:* Sanitation has been accorded low priority and there is poor awareness about its inherent linkages with public health.
- *Social and Occupational aspects of Sanitation:* Despite the appropriate legal framework, progress towards the elimination of manual scavenging has shown

limited success, Little or no attention has been paid towards the occupational hazard faced by sanitation workers daily.

- *Reaching the Un-served and Poor:* Urban poor communities as well other residents of informal settlements have been constrained by lack of tenure, space or economic constraints, in obtaining affordable access to safe sanitation.
- In relation to “*Pay and Use*” toilets, the issue of subsidies inadvertently reaching the non-poor should be addressed by identifying different categories of urban poor.
- *Lack of Demand Responsiveness:* Sanitation has been provided by public agencies in a supply-driven manner, with little regard for demands and preferences of households as customers of sanitation services.

The overall goal of this policy is to transform Urban India into community-driven, totally sanitized, healthy and livable cities and towns. Its *objectives* are:

- Awareness Generation and Behavior Change.
- Open Defecation Free Cities.
- Integrated City-Wide Sanitation.
- Reaching the Un-served and Poor Households.
- Knowledge Development.
- Capacity-Building.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

1) List out important policies and programmes of urban development in India.

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2) State the objectives of JNNURM.

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13.3 URBAN ADMINISTRATION: URBAN LOCAL BODIES

The above policies and programmes are implemented through Urban Local Bodies.

So, in this section, we will focus on Urban Local Bodies touching upon their structure, powers, functions, resources and responsibilities.

Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) of India are the constitutionally-provided administrative units that provide basic infrastructure and services in cities and towns. These bodies include the following.

- Nagar Nigams or Municipal Corporations or Mahanagar Palikas.
- Nagar Palikas or Municipalities.
- Nagar Panchayats or City Councils.

These are part of the over all administrative structure of India as shown in the Figure below.

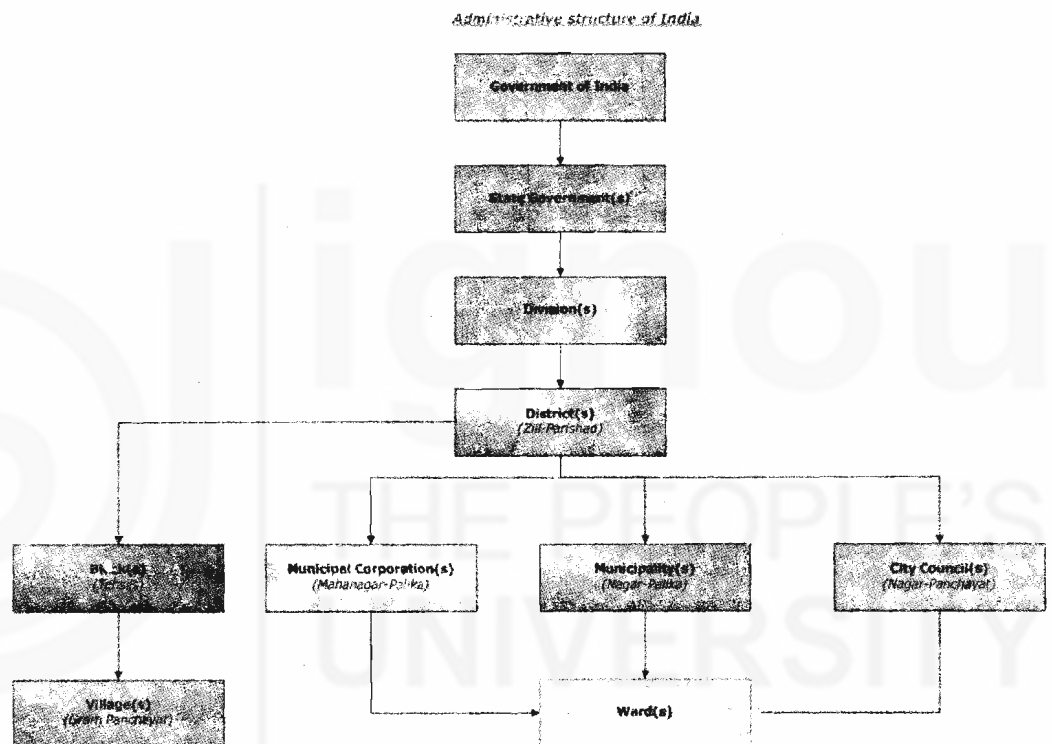


Figure 13.1: Administrative Structure of India

The Composition of the Municipal Corporation and Municipal Council is as given below.

Category	Municipal Corporation	Municipal Council
Elected Members	Mayor; Deputy Mayor Councillors / Elected Ward Representatives	Chairperson / President; Vice-President, Councillors / Elected Ward Representatives
Ex-officio Members	MPs, MLAs, MLCs	MPs, MLAs, MLCs
Appointed Staff	Municipal Commissioner, Subordinate Staff	Executive officer, subordinate staff
Nominated Members	Selected Citizens	Selected Citizens

Source: State Municipal Acts.

Now, we present to you, in brief, about the structure, powers and functions of different Urban Local Bodies.

13.3.1 Nagar Nigams (Corporations): Structure, Powers and Functions

Large urban areas are governed by *nagar nigams*, often simply called *corporations*. The area under a corporation is divided into *wards*. Individual wards or collections of wards within a corporation sometimes have their own administrative body known as *ward committees*.

The Mayor heads the Nagar Nigam, the President heads both Nagar Palika Parishads and Nagar Panchayats. The elected representatives, namely, Mayors/Presidents exercise their powers and discharge the duties through committee of elected members, i.e. corporators, councillors and members of Boards. *Nagar Ayukts* in case of Nagar Nigams, and *Executive Officers* in case of Nagar Palika Parishads and Nagar Panchayats are administrative heads.

The ULBs execute their functions through various committees viz. Planning and Development Committee, Education Committee, Water Management Committee, Works Committee, Health and Welfare Committee, Administrative Committee, etc. They also identify the beneficiaries under various schemes, e.g. housing, self-employment, etc., based on the income criteria and social backwardness.

Councillors act by committee, the most powerful being the Standing Committee with its role of the steering committee exercising executive, supervisory, financial and personnel powers. It is composed of elected members varying in number between seven and sixteen through a system of proportional representation of councillors.

The Municipal Commissioner is the Chief Executive Officer and head of the executive arm of the Municipal Corporation. The Commissioner is appointed for a fixed term as defined by state statute. The Commissioner's term in office can be extended or reduced. The powers of the Commissioner are those provided by statute and those delegated by the Corporation or the Standing Committee. All executive powers are vested in the Municipal Commissioner. Although the Municipal Corporation is the legislative body that lays down policies for the governance of the city, it is the Commissioner who is responsible for the execution of the policies.

13.3.2 Nagar Palikas (Municipalities): Structure, Powers and Functions

Smaller urban areas are governed by *nagar palikas*, often simply called *municipalities*. Municipalities are also divided into wards, which may be grouped together into *ward councils*. One or more representatives are elected to represent each ward.

The Nagar Palika is responsible for water supply, hospitals, roads, street-lighting, drainage, fire-brigade, market places, solid-waste management and records of births and deaths.

Municipal Councils are units designated for smaller areas than the Municipal Corporations. State statutes govern Municipal Councils. The Municipal Council, the President elected by the councillors from among themselves, the Committees and the Executive/Chief Officer constitute the structure of this type of municipal government. The size of each Municipal Council varies from state to state, with the municipal acts prescribing both the maximum and the minimum number of councillors with terms of office varying from three to five years. In some states, the council Presidents are elected directly by the citizens. In a number of states, the term of the President varies from one to three years and is not co-terminus with that of the council.

The President has a substantive position in the municipal administration and enjoys significant authority and power both in the deliberative and executive arms of the municipality. *The powers and functions of the Municipal Council Committees are the same as those of the Municipal Corporation.* In most states, the state government appoints the Executive Officer. In some states, the council makes the appointment, but his or her independence has been confirmed by making removal from office difficult, generally by a three-quarter majority vote.

13.3.3 Nagar Panchayats: Structure, Powers and Functions

Besides the traditional core functions of municipalities, Nagar Panchayats also include development functions like planning for economic development and social justice, urban poverty alleviation programmes and promotion of cultural, educational and aesthetic aspects. However, conformity legislation enacted by the state governments indicate wide variations in this regard. Whereas Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Haryana, Manipur, Punjab and Rajasthan have included all the functions as enlisted in the Twelfth Schedule in their amended state municipal laws, Andhra Pradesh has not made any changes in the existing list of municipal functions. Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal states have amended their municipal laws to add additional functions in the list of municipal functions as suggested in the Twelfth Schedule.

There is a lot of difference in the assignment of obligatory and discretionary functions to the municipal bodies among the states. Functions like planning for the social and economic development, urban-forestry, protection of the environment and promotion of ecological aspects are obligatory functions for the municipalities of Maharashtra, whereas in Karnataka these are discretionary functions.

Provision of water supply and sewerage in several states has either been taken over by the state governments or transferred to state agencies. For example, in Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat water supply and sewerage works are being carried out by the state level Public Health Engineering Department or Water Supply and Sewerage Boards, while liability for repayment of loans and maintenance are with the municipalities. Besides these state level agencies, City Improvement Trusts and Urban Development Authorities like Delhi Development Authority (DDA) have been set up in a number of cities. These agencies usually undertake land acquisition and development works, and take up remunerative projects such as markets, commercial complexes, etc.

The crucial problem of the urban local bodies has been disproportionate funds in comparison to their responsibilities which led to complete lack of financial viability and accountability of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) and consequently their inadequate service delivery. It calls for urban reforms.

13.4 URBAN REFORMS

The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 was the first step towards Urban Reforms which mandated setting up of elected municipalities as 'institutions of self-government' and specified the function of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs).

13.4.1 Changes in Functions and Resources of Urban Local Bodies

12th Schedule (Article 243W) of the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 specifies the following functions for the ULBs.

- 1) Regulation of land use and construction of building.
- 2) Planning for economic and social development.
- 3) Roads and bridges.
- 4) Water supply for domestic, industrial and commercial purposes.
- 5) Public health, sanitation conservancy and solid-waste management.
- 6) Fire services.
- 7) Urban forestry, protection of the environment and promotion of ecological aspects.
- 8) Safeguarding the interests of weaker sections of society including the physically-handicapped (differently-able) and mentally-retarded.
- 9) Slum improvement and up-gradation.
- 10) Urban poverty alleviation.
- 11) Provision of urban amenities and facilities such as parks, gardens and play grounds.
- 12) Promotion of cultural, educational and aesthetic aspects.
- 13) Burials and burial-grounds, cremations, and cremation grounds, and electric crematoriums.
- 14) Cattle pounds, prevention of cruelty to animals.
- 15) Vital statistics including registration of births and deaths.
- 16) Public amenities including street lighting, parking lots, bus-stops and public conveniences.
- 17) Regulation of slaughter houses and tanneries.

These functions require finances. However, without assigning a list of local taxes to the municipal authorities, the Constitution (74th Amendment) Act, 1992 left the matter to the State Governments. It inserted Article 243X, which provides that a State Legislature may, by law (Mohanty, 2005 www.cgg.gov.in/ASCII_Collectors.doc):

- a) authorise a Municipality to levy, collect and appropriate such taxes, duties, tolls and fees in accordance with such procedure and subject to such limit;
- b) assign to a Municipality such taxes, duties, tolls and fees levied and collected by the State Government for such purposes and subject to such conditions and limits;
- c) provide for making such grants-in-aid to the Municipalities from the Consolidated Fund of the State; and
- d) provide for the constitution of such Funds for crediting all moneys received respectively by or on behalf of the Municipalities and also for the withdrawal of such moneys therefrom, as may be prescribed by law.

Article 243Y inserted into the Constitution through the 74th Amendment Act makes it mandatory on the part of the Governor of a State for constitution of State Finance Commission to review:

- a) The principles which should govern:
 - i) the distribution between the State and the Municipalities of the net-proceeds of the taxes, duties, tolls and fees leviable by the State, which may be divided between them and the allocation between the Municipalities at all levels of their respective shares of such proceeds;
 - ii) the determination of the taxes, duties, tolls and fees which may be assigned to or appropriated by the Municipalities;
 - iii) the grants-in-aid to the Municipalities from the Consolidated Fund of the State;
- b) The measures needed to improve the financial position of the Municipalities; and
- c) Any other matter referred to the Finance Commission by the Governor in the interest of sound finance of the Municipalities.

While the 74th Amendment Act aims at ushering in a strong local democracy through the establishment of key institutions, it leaves the issues of their empowerment and operationalisation to the wisdom of the State Governments. In fact, even in mandatory matters such as the establishment of District and Metropolitan Planning Committees, the 74th Amendment does not prescribe any time limit. This is presumably due to the fact that under the country's Constitution, India is a Union of States and it is under state laws that Municipalities are constituted. However, the spirit of the Constitution (74th Amendment) Act calls for a critical role on the part of State Governments to create a conducive environment to steer the decentralization process, facilitate municipal reforms and enable the elected municipal councils to function effectively, undertaking planning for economic and social development and being the custodians and champions of local socio-economic development plans. This requires, among other things, reforms in the municipal finance system in the country, starting first within the civic systems. (Mohanty, 2005, See www.cgg.gov.in/ASCII_Collectors.doc).

But, this did not necessarily meant transfer of funds and financial power leading to dependence on central finance for implementation of their projects, thus, undermining the idea of decentralization which is integral to 74th CAA. Local bodies under the JNNURM have to implement the following reforms:

- Double-entry accrual-based accounting system;
- E-governance;
- Property tax reforms;
- Implementation of GIS;
- Levying user charges;
- Providing basic services for the urban poor at affordable prices; and
- Other administrative and structural reforms.

Local bodies have limited resources and power to generate revenue and taxes. Thus, under the current reform the urban local bodies can generate taxes through the following, some of which has to be shared with the state:

- Property tax;
- Vacant-land tax;
- Entertainment tax;

- Motor Vehicle tax;
- Stamp Duty;
- Professional tax.

Local governments should, therefore, focus on generation of revenue, enhancing their service delivery through public-private partnership and upgrading their accounting systems. It is, thus, important for the urban local bodies to streamline its projects, instill accountability and match its revenue-generated with expenditures for successful maintenance of municipal finance.

The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 was followed by several reforms at the state level. Launching of JNNURM -- a programme for promoting reforms and investment in select cities by the Government of India in 2005, has brought a paradigm shift in urban development strategy. One of the objectives of JNNURM is to ensure improvement in urban governance and service delivery to facilitate Urban Local Bodies to become financially sound and sustainable.

Similarly, the Government of India launched two other programmes – Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT) and Integrated Housing and Slum Development Program (IHSDP) – for non-mission cities. These programmes have mandatory reform component to improve city. Thirteenth Finance Commission also recommended several reforms – some mandatory and others discretionary – to improve municipal finances and to strengthen urban governance. Reforms like 74th Constitutional Amendment Act, reduction of stamp duty, rent control laws, enactment of community and public disclosure laws, etc., have been implemented in most states. But, there has been slow progress in the case of transfer of functionaries and finances, integration of service delivery functions with the ULBs, disclosure of information, etc. Efforts are being made by state and local governments and administrative reforms committees in the reform of building regulations, promotion of Public-Private Partnership (PPP) projects, etc. It is through PPPs the urban growth and quality of urban life can be improved very much.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

3) Name different Urban Local Bodies in India.

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4) What are the functions of Urban Local Bodies specified by the 74th Constitution Amendment Act, 1992?

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13.5 DISASTER MANAGEMENT IN URBAN AREAS

Disaster can occur anywhere and it is unpredictable. Urban areas are seeing huge influx of population in recent years. This has led to concentration of population, buildings, infrastructure and economic activities into small areas, and the greater interplay that exists between the different urban elements creates higher vulnerability. A multiplying effect occurs in urban areas, creating severe loss and damage to life and property. Thus, it is very important to focus on the issues of disaster management and urban planning.

13.5.1 Types of Disasters

Though, all kinds of disasters require more or less similar skill-sets and rescue-efforts at least a few days after the event, it is important to understand various kinds of disasters. Depending upon the actual nature of disaster, the immediate reaction needs to be different. Also, the first few moments of disasters are distinctly different for each kind of disaster. Thus, understanding of each kind of disaster might also help in identifying the onset of a disastrous event, so that a trained person can undertake some key actions during the initial few moments. This could have a major impact on the final outcome in terms of amount of final loss. The disasters are either natural or man-made; they generally include the following (<http://www.disastermgmt.org/type/types.html>).

- i) **Natural disasters:** These are primarily natural events. It is possible that certain human activities could aid in some of these events, but, by and large, these are mostly natural events such as the following.
 - Earthquakes.
 - Volcanoes.
 - Floods.
 - Tornadoes, Typhoons, Cyclones.
- ii) **Man-made disasters:** These are mostly caused due to certain human activities. The disasters themselves could be unintentional, but are caused due to some intentional activity. Most of these (barring coordinated terrorist activities) are due to certain accidents – which could be prevented – if sufficient precautionary measures are put in place against:
 - Nuclear Leaks.
 - Chemical Leaks / Spill-over.
 - Terrorist Activities.
 - Structural Collapses.

The *major effects or consequences of the disasters* include the following.

- The vulnerable groups which could get most affected include women and children.
- Loss of livelihood.
- Loss of property and house.

In view of the above, among other things, it is essential that appropriate disaster-mitigation measures are put in place to face any of such eventualities.

13.5.2 Issues and Measures of Disaster Management

Urban development plans must incorporate in them the effective measures that contain effects or consequences of disasters in the urban areas. Urban areas could be able to minimize disasters' effects by putting in place proper plans encompassing adequate land-use regulations, building regulations and engineering works, among others. Moreover, sustainable communities can only be achieved by incorporating disaster management into their economic, environmental and social programmes such as the following.

- **Mitigation:** make policies on zoning, early-warning systems, structural-codes, insurance, etc.
- Follow systematic approach which should have long-term planning towards disaster identification and mitigation.
- Leadership, training, readiness, exercise to provide support for vulnerable communities.

The outcome of Asia's high-rate of urbanization has been the expansion of urban populations into geographic areas which are frequently affected by disaster events. The result is an increased vulnerability of populations and infrastructure.

Disaster-mitigation measures such as the following are very essential.

- Earthquake- and cyclone-resistant buildings and infrastructure,
- Flood and landslide-control measures,
- Incorporation of disaster vulnerability into land-use planning, and
- Introduction of regulatory measures in industrialized zones.

But, these have rarely been attempted in most Asian countries. Cross-cutting issues which are directly influencing the vulnerability of urban population such as rapid urbanization, environmental degradation, climate-variations, etc., also have contributed negatively to national economies and infrastructure (<http://www.adpc.net/udrm/udrm.html>).

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions."

5) Mention the natural and man-made disasters.

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6) Specify some disaster-mitigation measures

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13.6 LET US SUM UP

This Unit has presented you an overview of urban development policies and programmes. Here, we have discussed the types, structure, functions and resources of urban local bodies. An attempt has also been made to emphasise the importance and strategies of disaster management in urban areas. Further, we have highlighted various on-going efforts in respect of urban reforms in India.

13.7 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS' QUESTIONS

- 1) The important policies and programmes of urban development implemented in India include the following.
 - Urban Community Development Programme, 1958.
 - Constitution (Seventy Fourth) Amendment Act, 1992.
 - Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), 1997.
 - National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004.
 - Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), 2005.
 - Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT), 2005.
 - Integrated Housing and Slum Development Program (IHSDP), 2005
 - National Urban Transport Policy, 2006.
 - Capacity-Building for Urban Development Project for India, 2006.
 - National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008.
- 2) The objectives of the JNNURM are to ensure that the following are achieved in the urban sector.
 - a) Focused attention to integrated development of infrastructure services in cities covered under the Mission;
 - b) Establishment of linkages between asset-creation and asset-management through a slew of reforms for long-term project sustainability;
 - c) Ensuring adequate funds to meet the deficiencies in urban infrastructural services;
 - d) Planned development of identified cities including peri-urban areas, outgrowths and urban corridors leading to dispersed urbanisation;
 - e) Scale-up delivery of civic amenities and provision of utilities with emphasis on universal access to the urban poor;
 - f) Special focus on urban renewal programme for the old-city areas to reduce congestion; and
 - g) Provision of basic services to the urban poor including security of tenure at affordable prices, improved housing, water supply and sanitation, and ensuring delivery of other existing universal services of the government for education, health and social security.

- 3) *Urban Local Bodies (ULBs)* of India are the constitutionally provided administrative units that provide basic infrastructure and services in cities and towns. These bodies include the following.
- Nagar Nigams or Municipal Corporations or Mahanagar Palikas.
 - Nagar Palikas or Municipalities.
 - Nagar Panchayats or City Councils.
- 4) 12th Schedule (Article 243W) of the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 specifies the following functions for the ULBs.
- i) Regulation of land-use and construction of building.
 - ii) Planning for economic and social development.
 - iii) Roads and bridges.
 - iv) Water supply for domestic, industrial and commercial purposes.
 - v) Public health, sanitation conservancy and solid-waste management.
 - vi) Fire services.
 - vii) Urban forestry, protection of the environment and promotion of ecological aspects.
 - viii) Safeguarding the interests of weaker sections of society, including the physically-handicapped and mentally-retarded
 - ix) Slum improvement and up-gradation.
 - x) Urban poverty alleviation.
 - xi) Provision of urban amenities and facilities such as parks, gardens and play-grounds;
 - xii) Promotion of cultural, educational and aesthetic aspects.
 - xiii) Burials and burial-grounds, cremations, and cremation-grounds and electric crematoriums.
 - xiv) Cattle pounds, prevention of cruelty to animals;
 - xv) Vital statistics including registration of births and deaths;
 - xvii) Public amenities including street-lighting, parking lots, bus-stops and public conveniences.
 - xvi) Regulation of slaughter houses and tanneries.
- 5) *Natural disasters:* These are primarily natural events. It is possible that certain human activities could aid in some of these events, but, by and large, these are mostly natural events such as the following.
- Earthquakes.
 - Volcanoes.
 - Floods.
 - Tornadoes, Typhoons, Cyclones.

Man-made disasters: These are mostly caused due to certain human activities. The disasters themselves could be unintentional, but are caused due to some intentional activity. Most of these (barring coordinated terrorist activities) are due to certain accidents – which could be prevented – if sufficient precautionary measures are put in place against the following.

- Nuclear Leaks.
 - Chemical Leaks / Spill over.
 - Terrorist Activities.
 - Structural Collapse.
- 6) Important disaster mitigation measures include the following.
- Earthquake and cyclone-resistant buildings and infrastructure,
 - Flood and landslide control measures,
 - Incorporation of disaster-vulnerability into land-use planning, and
 - Introduction of regulatory measures in industrialized zones.

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UNIT 14 URBAN PLANNING, GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT

Structure

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14.0 INTRODUCTION

Urban planning, management and good governance will ultimately determine the effect of urban policies, strategies and programmes. Even if the planning is good, bad governance can jeopardize the effect of the good plans and eventually leads to distortions and imbalances in the urban development. Application of effective urban planning methods and techniques, and good governance for effective implementation of urban plans will only provide solutions to the urban problems, issues and challenges. So, in this Unit, which is the last one of this Block as well as the course MAEE-001, we will focus on all the above aspects of urban planning, management and governance.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the concept, process, modes, need and significance of urban planning;
- Identify the essential elements or aspects of urban planning;
- Describe methods and techniques of management of urban land, finance and services;

- Discuss the role of decentralized urban planning in promoting balanced regional growth; and
- Analyse and appreciate the place of good governance and management in urban development.

14.2 URBAN PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

Urban development essentially depends upon urban planning and management. Therefore, in this section, we will focus on the important aspects of urban planning and management.

14.2.1 Concept of Urban Planning

Urban planning is the branch of architecture dealing with the design and organization of urban space and activities. Architecture is the discipline dealing with the principles of design and construction and ornamentation of fine buildings; “architecture and eloquence are mixed arts whose end is sometimes beauty and sometimes use”. Urban planning determines drawing-up plans for the future physical arrangement and condition of a community (<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/urban+planning>).

While some use urban planning and urban design interchangeably, some use it distinctly. A definition of urban design has been offered in an article on *Planning* by Kevin Cambell and Robert Cowan (1999, see http://www.civictrustwales.org/plan_design/design.htm): Urban design can be considered to be “the art of shaping the interaction between people and places, environment and urban form, and nature and built-fabric, and influencing the processes which lead to successful villages, towns and cities.” Or, more succinctly, how do buildings fit together to make quality spaces? We need to concentrate on this objective rather than on the design of individual buildings which has so occupied our minds in the past. The roles and skills involved included those of the landscape-architect, the architect, the planner, the engineer and the urban designer. Where the ‘urban designer’ is absent from a project, the wider context of a building is likely to be ignored.

Urban planning (also city and town planning) is a technical and political process concerned with the control of the use of land and design of the urban environment, including transportation networks so as to guide and ensure the orderly development of settlements and communities. It concerns itself with research and analysis, strategic thinking, urban design, public consultation, policy recommendations, implementation and management (Taylor, 2007, See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urban_planning). A plan can take a variety of forms including strategic plans, comprehensive plans, neighbourhood plans, regulatory and incentive strategies, or historic preservation plans. Also, planners are often responsible for enforcing the chosen policies.

The modern origins of urban planning lie in the movement for urban reform that arose as a reaction against the disorder of the industrial city in the mid-19th century. Urban planning can include urban renewal, by adapting urban planning methods to existing cities suffering from decline. In the late-20th century the term ‘sustainable development’ has come to represent an ideal outcome in the sum of all planning goals (Wheeler, 1998, See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urban_planning).

Sustainable development and sustainability influence today’s urban planners. Some planners argue that modern lifestyles use too many natural resources, polluting or destroying ecosystems, increasing social inequality, creating urban-heat-islands, and

causing climate-change. Many urban planners, therefore, advocate sustainable cities (ibid).

14.2.2 Need and Significance of Urban Planning and Management

The present often springs from the lessons of the past – a fact that forms the imagery around us as we live in the India of today. Our cities hold traces of our incredible history – a past that delved deep into several issues and brought out solutions relevant to this day. Right from the ancient cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro on the Indus valley, which were planned in a grid-like pattern with clearly thought out and demarcated roads, efficient sewage systems, and organized distribution of public and private spheres to the pink city of Jaipur, whose design was based on the Indian system of Vastu Purusha Mandala, with great importance given to the functional, aesthetic, and social patterns of the city – our tradition in urban planning has been noteworthy (Rina Rafi, See http://www.chillibreeze.com/articles_various/the-need-for-urban-planning-in-Indian-cities-511.asp).

However, in the increasingly globalized world of today and at this crucial point in the history of our country, our cities face tremendous pressure. Urbanization, as we know today, began under the British and continued with independence – but gained momentum with the liberalization of our economy in 1990. With international attention on the huge potential of investment in various sectors within the country, the importance of cities grew. It is now estimated that Indian cities will provide shelter to 40 percent of our population and generate 70 percent of employment opportunities within the country by the year 2030. With the number of cities with a population of more than one million predicted to go up to 68 from the present 42, the pace and extent of urbanization in our country becomes evident (Ibid).

Our cities are now caught in an eternal dichotomy – catering to the increasing population of affluent while struggling to provide the bare minimum to the average Indian. The increasing number of slums in the country is a direct consequence of lack of planning, leading to ad-hoc distribution of land area, in turn causing a high-real estate value which makes housing a very costly affair. Similar is the case of basic services such as sewage treatment, storm-water disposal, solid-waste management and drinking water supply. The lack of vision in the transportation sector has created gross shortage in public transportation and lack of infrastructure facilities to accommodate the huge increase in the number of private vehicles. The abysmal social planning has led to congested cities with little or no open spaces, parks and green pockets which are necessary for the city to breathe. Planning is necessary to provide a clear link between the demographic pattern and the urban infrastructure to ensure that the city functions effectively for all its citizens (Ibid).

Urban planning is a task that requires vision coupled with research activities to effectively predict the socio-economic factors such as population and GDP. Land-use planning – zoning and the laws that dictate the development of the city – need to be revised to reflect the changing social and economic climate. The infrastructure and service development plans need to be made with broad framework and achievable goals – all that require effective governance, both at the micro and macro level (Ibid).

However, our country is one of great diversity and our cities have developed in a fairly organic manner, as a living organism which embodies life. This sensitivity to our cultural heritage is of utmost importance while creating a vision of our cities. A sustainable development involving the preservation of our identity and the character of our cities

should be of prime importance in today's world of faceless globalization. Urban design is hence a collective activity – involving planners, architects, administrators, economists and most importantly – the community. A collective effort can turn around our cities and create safe havens for us, as our country begins to gain prominence in the flattening world of today (Ibid).

Role of urban planning and management is, thus, becoming more and more significant due to the increase in urban population and consequent problems. It is extremely relevant in the current scenario when it is being projected that in the coming decade more than half of the world's population will live in urban centers. Thus, quality of life cannot be achieved without appropriate spatial information and planning. Urban problems like affordable housing, traffic congestion, livelihood, crime, poor living-conditions, degraded environment, etc., need to be addressed appropriately.

In India, the Town and Country Planning Department/Directorate of the concerned State is responsible for preparation of the master / development plans of urban settlements under the Regional and Town Planning Act of that particular State. Regional and urban planning have an important role to play in generating new spaces and in rejuvenating existing city spaces so that a healthy socio-economic environment can be created in which the fast-growing urban population of India can live with higher standards of public-service delivery and contribute to national growth and development.

14.2.3 Urban Planning Process

Prior to 1950, urban planning was seldom considered a unique profession (Hodge, 2007). Planning focused on top-down processes by which the urban planner created the plans. The planner would know architecture, surveying or engineering, bringing to the town planning process ideals based on these disciplines. They typically worked for national or local governments.

Changes to the planning process over past decades have witnessed the metamorphosis of the role of the urban planner in the planning process to Strategic Urban Planning. More citizens calling for democratic planning, development processes have played a huge role in allowing the public to make important decisions as part of the planning process. Community organizers and social workers are now very involved in planning from the grassroots level (Forester John, 1987). Developers have also played huge roles in development, particularly by planning projects. Many recent developments were results of large and small-scale developers who purchased land, designed the district and constructed the development from scratch. The Melbourne Docklands, for example, was largely an initiative pushed by private developers to redevelop the waterfront into a high-end residential and commercial district. Recent theories of urban planning, espoused, for example, by Salingaros, see the city as an adaptive system that grows according to process similar to those of plants. They say that urban planning should, thus, take its cues from such natural processes. Such theories also advocate participation by inhabitants in the design of the urban environment, as opposed to simply leaving all development to large-scale construction firms.

In the process of creating an urban plan or urban design, carrier-infill is one mechanism of spatial organization in which the city's figure and ground components are considered separately. The urban figure, namely, buildings are represented as total possible building volumes, which are left to be designed by architects in successive stages. The urban ground, namely, in-between spaces and open areas, are designed to a higher level of detail. The carrier-infill approach is defined by an urban design performing as the carrying structure that creates the shape and scale of the spaces, including future building

volumes that are then in-filled by architects' designs. The contents of the carrier structure may include street pattern, landscape-architecture, open space, waterways, and other infrastructure. The infill-structure may contain zoning, building-codes, quality guidelines, and solar access based upon a solar envelope (Capeluto and Shaviv, 2001; and Nelson, 2009). Carrier-infill urban design is differentiated from complete urban design, such as in the monumental axis of Brasília, in which the urban design and architecture were created together. In carrier-infill urban design or urban planning, the negative space of the city, including landscape, open space, and infrastructure is designed in detail. The positive space, typically building-sites for future construction, are only represented as unresolved volumes. The volumes are representative of the total possible building-envelope, which can then be in-filled by individual architects (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urban_planning).

The core objectives of urban planning and management are to understand dynamic urban processes and to develop effective interventions that contribute to sustainable urban development. The domain which is focused under urban planning includes urban poverty, transport, infrastructure, public services, disaster preparedness and mitigation, environmental planning, land-use and land-tenure, participatory geographic information system (GIS), and spatial planning. The planning process must finally lead to sustainable urban development. Sustainable urban development may be defined as a process of synergetic integration and co-evolution among the great sub-systems making up a city (economic, social, physical and environmental), which guarantees the local population a non-decreasing level of well-being in the long-term, without compromising the possibilities of development of surrounding areas and contributing by this towards reducing the harmful effects of development on the biosphere.

So, the planning system should have the *overall* responsibility for delivering a sustainable quality urban environment. Since urban planning has the statutory and democratic framework there is a need for accommodating all necessary skills to be present within the planning process so as to reflect a community's aspirations for its area.

14.2.4 Modes of Urban Planning

In this sub-section, we will present you various modes of urban planning that are followed in our country (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>).

- **Master Plan or Perspective Plan:** A master plan is prepared for a time period of ten to twenty years keeping in view the future growth of population, economic development potential and ecological improvements likely to come up during the plan period. The plan should keep in consideration regional and national factors, which have bearing on the development of different areas. Master plan, therefore, is a statutory instrument for controlling, directing and promoting sound and rational development and/or redevelopment of an urban area with a view to achieving maximum economic, social and aesthetic benefits.
- **Development Plan:** The objective of a development plan is to provide further necessary details and intended actions in the form of strategies and physical proposals for various policies given in the perspective plan depending upon the economic and social needs and aspirations of the people, available resources and priorities. A development plan is a statutory plan, approved and adopted by the local authority for implementation with the help of schemes and projects.
- **City Development Plan under JNNURM:** A City Development Plan (CDP) is a comprehensive document outlining the vision and development strategy for future development of the city, prepared in consultation with a wide range of stakeholders. It helps in identifying the thrust areas to be addressed on priority basis to achieve

the objectives and the visions. It, thus, provides an overall framework within which projects are identified and put forward in a City Investment Plan.

The Comprehensive Development Plan (CDP) or Master Plans prepared by cities in the earlier context were largely land-use regulation and monitoring documents, while the CDP under the JNNURM programme has wider objectives that emphasize the following:

- a) guided growth of the city,
- b) citizen's participation,
- c) reform in governance leading to a well-managed society, and
- d) clear estimates of financial investments and sustainability.

The CDP also takes care of urban poor in the JNNURM for slum redevelopment under a new programme, called the Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY). The Government of India has announced the goal of making India slum-free in a time-bound manner by preparing a strategy of redeveloping all existing slums and redressing the land and housing shortages to prevent growth of new slums.

14.2.5 Essential Elements/Aspects of Urban Planning and Management

Urban planning requires projection and a vision for the future. Some of the causes of urban population growth are natural increase or organic growth, rural to urban migration, reclassification, and boundary changes of the existing urban centers. Accordingly, projections are made pertaining to population, land requirement, economic and social sectors. It also entails financial and sectoral allocation plans in keeping with the requirement.

Essential elements or aspects of urban planning and management include the following (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urban_planning).

- i) **Aesthetics:** Successful urban planning considers urban character and local identity, and respects heritage, pedestrians, traffic, utilities and natural hazards. Planners can help manage the growth of cities by applying tools like zoning and growth management to manage the uses of land. Historically, many of the cities now thought the most beautiful are the result of dense, long-lasting systems of prohibitions and guidance about building-sizes, uses and features. These allowed substantial freedoms, yet enforce styles, safety, and often material in practical ways. Many conventional planning techniques are being repackaged using the contemporary term 'smart growth'.
- ii) **Safety and security:** Historically, within the Middle East, Europe and the rest of the Old World, settlements were located on higher ground (for defense) and close to fresh water sources. Cities have often grown onto coastal and flood plains at risk of floods and storm surges. Urban planners must consider these threats. If the dangers can be localised then the affected regions can be made into parkland or green-belt, often with the added benefit of open-space provision. Extreme weather, flood or other emergencies can often be greatly mitigated with secure emergency-evacuation routes and emergency operations centres. These are relatively inexpensive and less intrusive, and many consider them a reasonable precaution for any urban space. Many cities will also have planned, built-safety features such as levees, retaining walls and shelters.

In recent years, practitioners have also been expected to maximize the accessibility of an area to people with different abilities, practicing the notion of “inclusive design,” to anticipate criminal behaviour and consequently to “design-out crime” and to consider “traffic calming” or “pedestrianisation” as ways of making urban life more pleasant. Some city planners try to control criminality with structures designed from theories such as socio-architecture or architectural determinism a subset of environmental determinism.

- iii) **Slums:** The rapid urbanization of the last century caused more slums in the major cities of the world, particularly in developing countries. Planning resources and strategies are needed to address the problems of slum development. Many planners are calling for slum-improvement, particularly the Commonwealth Association of Planners. When urban planners work on slums, they must cope with racial and cultural differences to ensure that racial steering does not occur.
- iv) **Decay:** Urban decay is a process by which a city, or a part of a city, falls into a state of disrepair and neglect. It is characterized by depopulation, economic restructuring, property abandonment, high unemployment, fragmented families, political disenfranchisement, crime, and desolate urban-landscapes.
- v) **Reconstruction and renewal:** Areas devastated by war or invasion challenge urban planners. Buildings, roads, services and basic infrastructure like power, water and sewerage are often damaged, but with salvageable parts. The existing population needs are to be managed with scarce resources. Historic, religious or social centers also need to be preserved and re-integrated into the new city-plan. A prime example of this is the capital city of Kabul, Afghanistan, which, after decades of civil war and occupation, has regions of rubble and desolation. Despite this, the indigenous population continues to live in the area, constructing makeshift-homes and shops out of salvaged materials. Any reconstruction plan such as Hisham Ashkouri’s City of Light Development needs to be sensitive to the needs of this community and its existing culture and businesses. Urban Reconstruction Development plans must also work with government agencies as well as private interests to develop workable designs.
- vi) **Transport:** Transport within urbanized areas presents unique problems. The density of an urban environment increases traffic, which can harm businesses and increase pollution, unless properly managed. Parking space for private vehicles requires the construction of large parking garages in high-density areas. This space could often be more valuable for other development.

Good planning uses transit-oriented development, which attempts to place higher densities of jobs or residents near high-volume transportation. For example, some cities permit commerce and multi-story apartment buildings only within one block of train stations and multilane boulevards, and accept single-family dwellings and parks farther away.

City authorities may try to encourage higher densities to reduce per-capita infrastructure costs. In the UK, recent years have seen a concerted effort to increase the density of residential development in order to better achieve sustainable development. Increasing development density has the advantage of making mass transport systems, district heating and other community facilities (schools, health centres, etc.) more viable. However, critics of this approach dub the densification of development as ‘town cramming’ and claim that it lowers quality of life and restricts market-led choice.

- vii) **Economics:** Urban spatial structure and the location of households and firms and related issues such as crime, education, public transit, housing and local government finance require thorough consideration in urban planning.
- viii) **Suburbanization:** In some countries, declining satisfaction with the urban environment is held to blame for continuing migration to smaller towns and rural areas (so-called urban exodus). Successful urban-planning supported regional-planning can bring benefits to a much larger hinterland or city region and help to reduce both congestion along transport-routes and the wastage of energy implied by excessive commuting.
- ix) **Environmental factors:** Environmental protection and conservation are of utmost importance to many planning systems across the world. Not only are the specific effects of development to be mitigated, but attempts are made to minimize the overall effect of development on the local and global environment. This is commonly done through the assessment of sustainable urban infrastructure and microclimate. In Europe, this process is known as a *Sustainability Appraisal*.

In most advanced urban or village planning models, local context is critical. Gardening and other outdoor activities assume a central role in the daily life of many citizens. Environmental planners focus now on smaller and larger systems of resource-extraction and consumption, energy production, and waste disposal. A practice known as arcology seeks to unify the fields of ecology and architecture, using principles of landscape-architecture to achieve a harmonious environment for all living things.

An urban planner can use a number of quantitative tools to forecast impacts of development on the environment including roadway air-dispersion models to predict air-quality impacts of urban-highways and roadway-noise models to predict noise pollution effects of urban highways.

Tall buildings in particular can have a substantial effect in channelling winds and shading large areas. The microclimate around the building will typically be assessed as part of the environmental impact assessment for the building. The placement and design of buildings may also be affected by the land on which they are placed. Soil and rock considerations such as depth to bedrock may influence the height of very tall structures, as in Manhattan, though there is less impact than previously supposed and geological conditions such as fault-lines may affect building requirements.

- x) **Light and sound:** The urban *canyon effect* is a colloquial, non-scientific term referring to street-space bordered by very high buildings. This type of environment may shade the sidewalk level from direct sunlight during most daylight hours. *Light pollution has become a problem in urban residential areas*, not only as it relates to its effects on the night sky but also as some lighting is so intrusive as to cause conflict in the residential areas and, paradoxically intense, improperly installed security lighting may pose a danger to the public, producing excessive glare. The development of the full cutoff fixture, properly installed, has reduced this problem considerably.

In urban planning, sound is usually measured as a source of pollution. Another perspective on urban-sounds is developed in sound-scape studies emphasising that sound aesthetics involves more than noise abatement and decibel measurements.

14.2.6 Management of Urban Land, Finance and Services

Urban land management has become the primary area of concern due to increasing population in urban centers. Land requirement for housing and other activities has multiplied due to the same. It also entails more financial investment particularly in the service sector. Services in the urban areas include water, sanitation, traffic, infrastructure and other public utilities.

14.2.6.1 Urban Land Management

Urban land management actually faces many problems in most developing countries as well as in countries in transition which hamper a sustainable urban development. There is rarely a clear urban land policy that takes into account activities of all agencies involved in land management. Land administration and urban planning are often over-centralised. For example, conventional centralised procedures limit the effects of regularisation programmes. This situation is worsened by the limited enabling-capacity of central governments and the absence of a clear distinction of responsibilities between sector policies (ministries), between national, intermediate and local level as well as between State and Civil Society which together leads to the duplication of some efforts while ignoring others. Besides the weak institutional and professional capacity to manage land, there is a lack of adequate financial resources, especially at the local level. In addition, complex land regulations and lengthy procedures, e.g. for land regularisation, are hindering fast and cost-effective solutions (Magel and Wehrman, See http://www.landentwicklung-muenchen.de/mitarbeit/magel/aufsaeetze_englisch/magel_wehrmann_good_gov.pdf).

Multiple land-tenure systems (legal pluralism) often lead to tenure-insecurity and can result in severe land-conflicts which is aggravated by the lack of (adequate) land conflict-resolution procedures. Further, often, there is a lack of information about land-tenure rules, regulations and practices which limit transparent land-market activities as well as a lack of reliable information on land use and ownership because of non-existing or uncoordinated record-keeping systems and a lack of institutional co-ordination and, as a consequence, a lack of land information systems. Referring to the urgently needed sharing of data necessary for a functioning land administration, Dale (1997) argues – with reference to countries in transition – that the opportunities created by data-sharing are over-shadowed by perceived threats and long traditions of vertical rather than horizontal distribution of data. Information flows upwards within a Ministry more easily than it flows downwards or outwards. Finally, corruption and illicit practices often hamper improvement of the land delivery system for the urban poor (Badiane, 1997; Durand-Lasserve, 2001; Oworund Bartle, 1997; Ibid).

Planning in urban areas is affected because of artificial constraints on land availability and other factors such as litigations on land that prevent productive-use and the lack of information on government land-assets which otherwise can be utilised for effective social housing or public amenities. This leads to distortion of land-market.

Under the JNNURM the following instruments have been introduced for urban land management, although its implementation differs from state to state.

- a) Secure land-tenure.
- b) Implementation of Urban Land Ceiling and Regulation Act (ULCRA), 1976.
- c) Deregulation and land-use zone conversions.
- d) Cadastral maps in GIS format.
- e) Rent control reforms.

14.2.6.2 Urban Finance Management

The concept of financial management generally includes financial resources mobilization, planning and expenditure management. “Financial management can be said to be the muscle and substance of the whole job of management, which is to get things through the co-ordinated efforts of people, purchased goods and services. It is the system that provides funds for an organisation, and ensures the maintenance and control of the funds, as well as reports on the use of funds”. One could say that we have been engaging in sound financial management (Awaitey, See <http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/114925/eum/docs/eum/ghana/Module3UrbanFinancialManagementGha.pdf>):

- if we can identify clearly what financial resources we need;
- if we can plan and execute well the strategies to obtain them;
- if we can sensibly allocate the funds we receive;
- if we can control well their resulting use; and
- if we can justify everything we have done to those entitled to call for an accounting of our stewardship.

Urban finance, and for that matter urban financial management, hinges basically on the level of decentralization of the government machinery of a country. Fiscal decentralisation consists primarily of devolving revenue-sources and expenditure-functions to lower levels of government. By bringing the government closer to the people, fiscal decentralisation is expected to boost public sector efficiency as well as accountability and transparency in the service delivery and policy-making. However, decentralisation also entails greater complexity in inter-governmental fiscal relation and coordination. To enhance fiscal decentralisation, the following requirements must be maintained (Ibid):

- Sources of finance must be specified for projects or areas of expenditure;
- Central Government must keep the fiscal decentralisation rules that it makes;
- Administrative capacity of the sub-national levels to deliver on their mandate;
- Establishment of monitoring mechanism to ensure accountability;
- Quarterly financial report to regional and national levels;
- Develop performance service and accountability standards;
- Develop formats to guide regional and local policy monitoring.

14.2.6.3 Urban Services Management

The challenges of the urban sector in India are growing rapidly, and government agencies at various levels are taking steps to address the gaps in service delivery. One of the important steps towards this is introduction of appropriate systems for information management, performance monitoring and benchmarking (<http://urbanservices.gov.in/>).

Benchmarking is now well recognized as an important mechanism for introducing accountability in service delivery. Sustained benchmarking can help Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) and utilities in identifying performance-gaps and effecting improvements through the sharing of information and best practices, ultimately resulting in better services to people. Recognizing its importance, the Ministry of Urban Development (MoUD), Government of India constituted a Core Group on Benchmarking under the chairmanship

of Joint Secretary (UD), MoUD with the aim of developing a framework for water supply, waste-water management, storm-water drainage, solid-waste management services and urban transport. This group has finalized a Handbook of Service Level Benchmarks (SLB), which provides: i) a common minimum framework for monitoring and reporting on service-level indicators; and ii) guidelines on how to operationalise this framework in a phased manner.

MoUD has recently released the Handbook of Service Level Benchmarks which it hopes will facilitate a shift in focus in ULBs and utilities from infrastructure-creation to delivery of service-outcomes. In keeping with its progressive approach to sector reform, Government of India has extended implementation support for the SLB framework in about 26 pilot-cities so that they can serve as role models for other cities across the country.

Through the Pilot Initiative, the MoUD made an attempt to address institutional and operational aspects for ensuring long-term sustainability of the benchmarking activity. Accordingly, the initiative encompassed two aspects: i) Collation of performance data using the indicators and methodologies outlined in the SLB Handbook; and ii) Implementation of appropriate management information systems at the city (and if required at the state) level to support provision of this data on an on-going basis.

In addition, the pilot initiative also facilitated development of Performance Improvement Plans using information generated by the benchmarking exercise. By doing so, it was expected that ULBs and utilities will begin to integrate the benchmarking into their decision processes leading to improved quality of planning and project development.

The pilot initiative covered the critical components of a benchmarking system, namely, data sources, performance indicators, targets and institutional arrangements. It also addressed both, performance monitoring for internal decision-making and reporting to higher levels of government and external stakeholders.

There is a general acknowledgement of the prevalent capacity constraints at the ULB level. In order to address the same, MoUD in partnership with other development agencies, proposes to extend technical and financial assistance for training, capacity-building, design and implementation of requisite information systems at the city/ULB level.

Mandatory Requirement under 13th Finance Commission: The Thirteenth Finance Commission recommended that the urban local bodies (ULBs) in India accord priority to service delivery and shall put in place benchmarks for essential civic services. As part of this condition, the ULBs should notify every year the standards to be achieved by the end of the next fiscal year and publish the same in the State Gazette. It also suggested that the ULBs should follow the consultative process of benchmarking as outlined in the Handbook on Service Level Benchmarks of the MoUD, Government of India.

The MoUD, Government of India, has formulated benchmarks for key performance indicators for water supply, waste-water/sanitation, solid-waste management and drainage to enable cities to measure and improve their own performance vis-à-vis the benchmarks. It is now well recognized that a sustained process of benchmarking comprising of: i) developing comprehensive and disaggregated baseline-data on service levels, ii) information system improvement to enhance quality of planning, and iii) performance improvement plans to attain new standards is critical to ensure optimal use of investment and to sustain outcomes in service delivery. Benchmarking enables urban local bodies to identify strengths and weaknesses in their own practices and to

reach out and learn from the practices of others to achieve excellence in service delivery. It also increases accountability and transparency to citizens.

It is expected that future investment decisions on infrastructure provision will prioritize cities that undertake benchmarking. Further, the performance grant under 13th Finance Commission stipulates that states establish and conform to service level standards for basic services. The process of undertaking benchmarking entails development of institutional capacities and skills. In the context of the recommendations of the 13th Finance Commission, the MoUD, GoI proposes to rollout service level benchmarking programme and build capacities across states and ULBs, specifically Municipalities and Municipal Corporations. This would enable the States to access performance grants recommended by the 13th FC.

As a part of the SLB framework, 28 service-level performance indicators were identified covering four basic urban services, viz. Water Supply, Sewerage Management, Solid-Waste Management and Storm-Water Drainage.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

1) Explain the concept and significance of urban planning.

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2) What are the core objectives of urban planning and management?

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3) Mention different modes of urban planning.

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4) List out essential aspects of urban planning and management.

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14.3 DECENTRALIZED URBAN PLANNING

Urban development in many parts of a vast and very diverse country like India with different resources in different parts cannot be uniform. As a result, the regional imbalances in urban development are evident. But, the need to reduce the inequalities or imbalances cannot be ignored and the solutions can be found through decentralized urban planning that takes into account the local needs and resources of the concerned urban localities.

14.3.1 Urban Development: Regional Imbalances

Among all the States and Union Territories, the National Capital Territory of Delhi is the most urbanized with 93 percent urban population, followed by Union Territory of Chandigarh (89.8 percent) and Pondicherry (66.6 percent). Among the major States, Tamil Nadu is the most urbanized state with 43.9 percent of the population living in urban areas followed by Maharashtra (42.4 percent) and Gujarat (37.4 percent). The proportion of urban population is the lowest in Himachal Pradesh with 9.8%, followed by Bihar with 10.5 percent, Assam (12.7 percent) and Orissa (14.9 percent). In terms of absolute number of persons living in urban areas, Maharashtra leads with 41 million persons which is 14 percent of the total population of the country. Uttar Pradesh accounts for about 35 million followed by Tamil Nadu 27 million (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/urbanscene/levelofurbanisation/urblevel.htm>).

Different policies, programmes and strategies vis-a-vis the resources in these States and Union Territories are responsible for these regional variations in urban development.

14.3.2 Decentralisation of Urban Planning: Balancing Regional Growth

In a vast country like India, decentralized urban planning is a recognized phenomenon. We have already discussed the structure, powers and functions of the Urban Local Bodies in Unit 13 of this Block. Decentralized planning helps in planning and decision-making at different territorial and sectoral levels of the planning process. It also helps in decision-making, which becomes easier with information sharing and dissemination. The 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Acts have been an important step towards this decentralized decision-making process. It helps in regional growth because the local administration is capable of and has power to make decision for their development process. Realising that the planning machinery and competency are not yet developed at the district level, efforts were redirected in the later years to strengthen State level planning process.

The urban local self-governments are the prime instruments of decentralization at the grassroots level. The intention of local self-government is to have a shift from bureaucratic administration to democratic administration and to formulate and execute development programmes through people's participation and instill political consciousness among the people. This brings in participation and makes programmes sustainable. In most cases, people migrate to bigger urban centers in search of livelihood and better living conditions. Through the process of decentralization income-generating opportunities emerge in these smaller centers and also leads to improved living conditions.

Check Your Progress

- Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.
- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”
- 5) Highlight the regional imbalances in urban development in India. What do you think is the solution to these imbalances?

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14.4 URBAN GOVERNANCE

Governance involves mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. Urban governance has, therefore, assumed increasing importance as a means to ensure that economic growth is equitable, sustainable and improves the living conditions. In this regard, apart from the government, private sector and civil society have a critical role to play. Good governance ensures broad consensus among the three stakeholders – the state, the private sector and the civil society.

14.4.1 Good Governance: Criteria and Practices

Good urban governance is a process which helps in improving quality of life in the cities and in efficiently and effectively responding to urban problems by making local government accountable to the people in running the cities in partnership with civil society. It also aims to promote civil society participation in city management along with municipal institutions in an inclusive process to achieve a quality of life as desired by the citizenry, particularly the poor and the disadvantaged. It promotes inclusiveness, reduces poverty and involves all stakeholders in the political process of governing the city.

There are different institutions involved in urban governance at different levels. These Governance institutions at different levels include the following (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>):

- **At state level:** Departments of urban administration, housing, water supply, public health, environment, welfare, education, health, home, planning, etc., and state finance commission, state election commission and other institutions.
- **City level:** urban local bodies, city police department, pollution control boards, and others.
- **Para-state agencies:** Jal Sansthan, Development Authorities, housing boards, etc.

Urban governance would entail the following, which give an idea of the scope of urban governance:

- Administrative Reforms.
- Planning of Cities/Towns.

- Metropolitan and Regional planning.
- Reforms for Service Delivery.
- Community Participation and Transparency.

Criteria of Good Governance: When and how can we say that there is good governance? In this context, you may recall our discussion in Unit 12 titled “Problems and Issues of Governance in Development” of Course MAE-004. For ready reference, just the criteria of good governance are mentioned below (For details see Unit 12 of MAE-004).

- Participation
- Transparency
- Effectiveness and Efficiency
- Responsiveness
- Accountability
- Consensus-oriented
- Equity and Inclusiveness
- Rule of Law
- Predictability
- Centralization and Decentralization
- Absence of Corruption

The same criteria can also be used to determine Good Practices in implementing various policies, schemes, and programmes. For example, some cases of good practices in the urban poverty reduction and social development include the following (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>):

- Self-Employed Women’s Association (SEWA).
- Access to water to the poor in Andhra Pradesh.
- Achieving open-defecation-free status by Kalyani Municipality, West Bengal.
- Slum Networking Programme, Ahmedabad.
- Slum sanitation, Pune.

14.4.2 e-Governance

E-governance is the use of information and communication technology to support government operations, engage citizens and provide government services to them. It helps in the following ways:

- Reduces cost.
- Enhances the reach and transparency.
- Increases efficiency.
- Improves service quality.

- Contributes in achieving economic objectives.
- Acts as major contributor to reform and build trust between citizens and government.

In view of such advantages, among others, the Government of India has launched e-governance plan and projects.

14.4.2.1 National e-Governance Plan (NeGP)

The Plan seeks to lay the foundation and provide the thrust for long-term growth of e-Governance within the country. The National Mission Mode Project (NMMP) for Municipalities is one of the Mission Mode Projects that has significant citizen interaction, since municipalities provide a large number of basic services for millions of citizens living in India's urban centers. Some of the areas covered under it are (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>):

- Registration and issue of birth and death certificate,
- Payment of property tax,
- Utility Bills and Management of Utilities that come under ULBs,
- Water Supply and other Utilities,
- Grievances and suggestions,
- Procurement and monitoring of projects.

National Information Center (NIC) is an institution of the government established in 1976 for providing e-governance solutions. It has conceptualized, developed and implemented many Projects for Central and State Governments, Ministries, Departments and Organizations. Following are some of the e-governance projects done by NIC (<http://urbanindia.nic.in/moud.htm>).

- MNREGS.
- Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.
- Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikaran Yojana.
- PM Gram Sadak Yojana.
- Community Information Centers.
- Land Records.
- Property Registration.
- Food Grains Management.
- National Horticulture Mission.
- Electronic Post (e-Post).

Thus, e-Governance has become increasingly popular and irreversible and it is the order of the day and the future.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

6) What are the criteria for good governance?

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7) What are the advantages of e-Governance?

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8) List out some e-Governance projects done by NIC.

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14.5 LET US SUM UP

We have explained, in this Unit, the concept, need, significance, essential elements, modes, and methods and techniques of urban planning and management. Regional imbalances in urban development and the importance of decentralized urban planning for balanced growth of urban development have been highlighted. We have also touched upon the criteria and practices of good governance and place of e-governance in improving the effectiveness and efficiency of urban governance. We hope you have enjoyed studying this course.

14.6 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’ QUESTIONS

- 1) Urban planning is the branch of architecture dealing with the design and organization of urban space and activities. Architecture is the discipline dealing with the principles of design and construction and ornamentation of fine buildings; “architecture and eloquence are mixed arts whose end is sometimes beauty and sometimes use”. Urban planning determines drawing-up plans for the future physical arrangement and condition of a community. Urban planning (also city and town planning) is a technical and political process concerned with the control of the use of land and design of the urban environment, including transportation networks, to guide and ensure the orderly development of settlements and communities. It concerns itself

with research and analysis, strategic thinking, urban design, public consultation, policy recommendations, implementation and management.

Planning is necessary to provide a clear link between the demographic pattern and the urban infrastructure to ensure that the city functions effectively for all its citizens. Urban planning is a task that requires vision coupled with research activities to effectively predict the socio-economic factors such as population and GDP. Land-use planning – zoning and the laws that dictate the development of the city need to be revised to reflect the changing social and economic climate. The infrastructure and service development plans need to be made with broad-framework and achievable-goals – all of which require effective governance, both at the micro and macro levels.

- 2) The core objectives of urban planning and management are to understand dynamic urban processes and to develop effective interventions that contribute to sustainable urban development. The domain which is focused under urban planning includes urban poverty, transport, infrastructure, public services, disaster preparedness and mitigation, environmental planning, land use and land tenure, participatory geographic information system (GIS), and spatial planning. The planning process must finally lead to sustainable urban development. Sustainable urban development may be defined as a process of synergetic integration and co-evolution among the great sub-systems making up a city (economic, social, physical and environmental), which guarantees the local population a non-decreasing level of well-being in the long-term, without compromising the possibilities of development of surrounding areas and contributing by this towards reducing the harmful effects of development on the biosphere.
- 3) Different modes of urban planning are as given below.
 - Master Plan or Perspective Plan.
 - Development Plan.
 - City Development Plan under JNNURM.
- 4) Essential aspects of urban planning and management are as follows. i) Aesthetics, ii) Safety and security, iii) Slums, iv) Decay, v) Reconstruction and renewal, vi) Transport, vii) Economics, viii) Sub-urbanization, ix) Environmental factors, x) Light and sound.
- 5) Among all the States and Union Territories, the National Capital Territory of Delhi is the most urbanized with 93 percent urban population followed by Union Territory of Chandigarh (89.8 percent) and Pondicherry (66.6 percent). Among the major States, Tamil Nadu is the most urbanized state with 43.9 percent of the population living in urban areas followed by Maharashtra (42.4 percent) and Gujarat (37.4 percent). The proportion of urban population is the lowest in Himachal Pradesh with 9.8% followed by Bihar with 10.5 percent, Assam (12.7 percent) and Orissa (14.9 percent). In terms of absolute number of persons living in urban areas, Maharashtra leads with 41 million persons which is 14 percent of the total population of the country. Uttar Pradesh accounts for about 35 million followed by Tamil Nadu 27 million. Different policies, programmes and strategies vis-a-vis the resources in these States and Union Territories are responsible for reducing regional variations in urban development. Decentralized urban planning is the only solution to reduce these regional imbalances.

6) Following are the criteria for good governance.

- Participation
- Transparency
- Effectiveness and Efficiency
- Responsiveness
- Accountability
- Consensus-oriented
- Equity and Inclusiveness
- Rule of Law
- Predictability
- Centralization and Decentralization
- Absence of Corruption

7) The advantages of e-Governance are that it:

- Reduces cost,
- Enhances the reach and transparency,
- Increases efficiency,
- Improves service quality,
- Contributes in achieving economic objectives, and
- Acts as major contributor to reform and build trust between citizens and government.

8) Some of the e-governance projects done by NIC are given below.

- MNREGS
- Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
- Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikaran Yojana
- PM Gram Sadak Yojana
- Community Information Centers
- Land Records
- Property Registration
- Food Grains Management
- National Horticulture Mission
- Electronic Post (e-Post)

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