Rural and urban community development

Unit 1.

Community meaning types and characteristics

Social Community: Meaning, Types and Features

The Meaning of Community:

The social life of the people is affected by the kind of community in which they live.

It was defined as an area marked by the sentiment of common living.

It includes:

- A group of people
- Within a geographic, area
- With a common culture and a social system
- Whose members are conscious of their unity, and who can act collectively in an organized manner.

In the concept of community, the two basic elements are those of a geographic area and sentiment of unity.

The Community as Locality:

The community is a territorial group which shares a common soil as well as shared way of life. II is no accident that people concentrate at a particular place and cluster together. Nearness facilitates contact, furnishes projection and makes easier the organisation and integration of the group. People living in the same locality come to have a distinctive community life.

Once a group of people gets sallied, an element of space enters into the social relationship. Local groupings become more important than even blood relationship. People who live in the same locality though they belong to different bloods, form a community. Even an immigrant who does not belong to kinship may become a member of the local community.

An important aspect of the physical structure of the community to which attention may be drawn is its unplanned physical structure. No long-range preconceived plan stands behind the

different areas of modern community, the village, the city and the region. The result has been congestion, use of physically deteriorated habitations and other buildings, unbalanced development of various areas of living and of business activity. This situation so general of large cities needs proper community planning for its solution. Some of the leading countries like Great Britain, United States, Soviet Russia have put into operation some of the proposals for planning the community.

In Punjab the town of Chandigarh has been built according to a plan dividing the town into numerous sectors earmarked for specific habitations. But the task of rehabilitating the physical structure of a community is a complex one being faced with several difficulties of a practical nature like scarcity of materials, design difficulties, opposition of vested interests. It may be easy to design the shape of a new community but it is all the more difficult to redesign one already established.

The Community as Sentiment:

Community is more than the locality it occupies. It is also sentiment. The people living at a common place and leading their lives in one another's company come to develop 'we-feeling'. The place they occupy is to them much more than a portion of earth's surface-it is their 'home'. Living together makes them share common memories and traditions, customs and institutions.

It shapes their attitudes and interests. The sense of community becomes impressed in the depths of their personality. The community sentiment becomes a part of his own individuality. The individual identifies his interest with larger interest of the group. He feels indissolubly bound up with it so that to him the community is "bone of his bone and flesh of his flesh". He carries a sense of dependence upon the community, which is both physical and psychological since his material wants are satisfied within it and since it sustains him and provides him solicitude.

In the community, every individual has his own status and he should make his contribution towards the working of the community in accordance with this status. The community sentiment induces this desire for contribution because this is a part of the community sentiment. Thus, community sentiment is marked by three ingredients of we feeling, sense of dependence and role-feeling. Every community has its own customs, interests, beliefs, superstitions, folktales, myths and folkways.

It may, however, be noted that community sentiment is a changing phenomenon. Today none of us belongs to one inclusive community, but to wider communities at the same time. Man

today is a member of several groups, which satisfy the diverse needs of his personality. He feels attached lo these groups which replace the community sentiment.

This is most observable in a large city where neighbourhood as a community may not exist at all. The development of local transport also has lessened the coherence and intensity of community sentiment. Then the developing physical contacts of the rural people with the urban people facilitated by the modern rapid means of transport have weakened the attachment to the village community and reduced the extent of dependence upon it. In short, under modern conditions attachment to local community is decreasing. Man today has tended to find it in the appeal of larger groups.

Types of Community Organisation:

Human communities may be classified on the basis of many different criteria. A large number of classifications of human communities have been made and have been found useful for different purposes. A very broad and familiar classification is based on the size and density of the population, in terms of which we classify communities as neighbourhood, village, city, region and world community. The first two types of communities devoting more space to village community.

The Neighborhood:

The neighbourhood is the first community with which the child comes into contact. It is a "loose integration of several family groups". In large cities it is largely a group of "neigh-dwellers" characterized chiefly by the fact that the members reside within a particular geographic area.

City Neighborhood:

In a city neighbourhood the people generally do not come in close contact and sometimes do not even know each other. Some of you must have experienced the difficulty of finding the house of your relative in a big city if you did not know it already. We may say that in cities neighbourhood as a community does not exist.

Village Neighborhood:

As opposed to city neighbourhood a rural neighbourhood involves persons living close to and well acquainted with each other. Though in a village neighbourhood people may not live in close proximity to each other, but may live somewhat apart, yet unlike city neighbourhood they know each other well. There are immediate contacts between the neighbours in a village.

It depends upon human nature whether the individual prefers to live in neighbourhood or he wants to live in a solitary house. There are some people who want to live near other people; while others may not like to live so. Dr. Bessie A. Mc Cleanham quotes some one:

"I don't know anything about the neighbourhood. I don't like it and take no interest in it. We have been here a year and bought only for investment. We have nothing whatsoever to do with our neighbours. I don't even know their names or know them to speak to. My best friends live in the city but by no means in this neighbourhood. We belong to no clubs and we do not attend any local church. We go auto-riding, visiting and up town to the theaters. I know nothing about the neighbourhood and I never did have anything to do with my neighbours. I lived in apartments for ten years and never spoke to a neighbour in the house. I find it best not to, you are much safer. Then no one knows your business and I don't care to know anyone else."

Generally, women and children like to live in neighbourhood more than do the men. A neighbourhood is a loose group, if it can at all be called a group. Therefore, it does not possess any specific form of group control except neighbourhood opinion or gossip.

Neighbourhood Feud:

The neighbourhood feud is common. We often while passing on the road come across a quarrel among the neighbours. This quarrel usually begins over children, over livestock, over a boundary wall or over an insulting remark reported to have been made by one member about the member of another's family. Sometimes, an ordinary quarrel takes serious proportions and divides the neighbourhood into opposing camps. It may even lead to murder.

History and evolution of community development:

Concept of Community Development

Concept of community development has come from about two hundreds years. The democratic political revolution of France and Britain as well as the Second World War played a vital role in the existing of community development.

The above three events were the major reasons for the emergence of community development. After the heavy destruction in these occasions, the community filed with social problems for which rehabilitation and construction was felt. From that point the sociologists, anthropologists, social workers and technocrats were activated to develop a program named community development program for the assistance and cooperation of the community people. The development of the community is not possible without the participation of the people. Community development is essential for national as well as international development for his purpose various countries launched community development program in the multi sector of under developed countries.

The development of community is not so easy, it required full zeal, time and work determination. The word community was first introduced by UK at the "As Bridge Conference" in 1945. In this year IMF was also established for mass education. The main purpose was to give loans to the poor and needy countries for developmental purpose.

During Second World War community development programs were started for the rehabilitation of the affected and victims. In 1940-1945 World Bank introduced to give loans. In 1950 USA introduced technical assistance program for the assistance of rural areas.

During the same year United Nations also study community development and in 1951 with the instructions of USA and United Nations started technical assistance and ICA (International Cooperation Administration) programs. In 1953 other agencies of United Nations began to introduce coordination development programs all over the world.

Rural community development .

Rural community development encompasses a range of approaches and activities that aim to improve the welfare and livelihoods of people living in rural areas. As a branch of community development, these approaches pay attention to social issues particularly community organizing. This is in contrast to other forms of rural development that focus on public works (e.g. rural roads and electrification) and technology (e.g. tools and techniques for improving agricultural production).

Rural community development is important in developing countries where a large part of the population is engaged in farming. Consequently, a range of community development methods have been created and used by organisations involved in international development. Most of these efforts to promote rural community development are led by 'experts' from outside the community such as government officials, staff of non-governmental organizations and foreign advisers. This has led to a long debate about the issue of participation, in which questions have been raised about the sustainability of these efforts and the extent to which rural people are – or are not – being empowered to make decisions for themselves. The international association for Community Development (IACD) is the main global network for practitioners and scholars working in this field www.iacdglobal.org

Rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in rural areas, often relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas.

1. Rural development has traditionally centered on the exploitation of land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, changes in global production networks and increased urbanization have changed the character of rural areas. Increasingly tourism, niche manufacturers, and recreation have replaced resource extraction and agriculture as dominant economic drivers.

2. The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agricultural or resource based businesses. Education, entrepreneurship, physical infrastructure, and social infrastructure all play an important role in developing rural regions.

3. Rural development is also characterized by its emphasis on locally produced economic development strategies.

4. In contrast to urban regions, which have many similarities, rural areas are highly distinctive from one another. For this reason there are a large variety of rural development approaches used globally.

5. Rural development is a comprehensive term. It essentially focuses on action for the development of areas outside the mainstream urban economic system. We should think of what type of rural development is needed because modernization of village leads to urbanization and village environment disappears.

Rural development actions are intended to further the social and economic development of rural communities.

Rural development programs were historically top-down approaches from local or regional authorities, regional development agencies, NGOs, national governments or international development organizations.[8] However, a critical 'organization gap' identified during the late 1960s, reflecting on the disjunction between national organizations and rural communities led to a great focus on community participation in rural development agendas.[8] Oftentimes this was achieved through political decentralization policies in developing countries, particularly popular among African countries, or policies that shift the power of socio-politico-economic decision-making and the election of representatives and leadership from centralized governments to local governments. As a result, local populations can also bring about endogenous initiatives for development. The term rural development is not limited to issues of developing countries. In fact many developed countries have very active rural development programs.

Rural development aims at finding ways to improve rural lives with participation of rural people themselves, so as to meet the required needs of rural communities. The outsider may not understand the setting, culture, language and other things prevalent in the local area. As such, rural people themselves have to participate in their sustainable rural development. In developing countries like Nepal, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, China, integrated development approaches are being followed up.[11] In this context, many approaches and ideas have been developed and implemented, for instance, bottom-up approaches, PRA- Participatory Rural Appraisal, RRA- Rapid Rural Appraisal, Working With People (WWP)] etc. The New Rural Reconstruction Movement in China has been actively promoting rural development through their ecological farming projects.

Participation in rural development

Participation:

In the decade since the notion of participation become so dominant in the literature, there have always been two broadly different schools of thought.

Participation is the key to inclusion of human resources in development efforts; previously, development planners had overlooked the contributions that people could make and the skills that they could bring to development projects. If, therefore, one could incorporate the human element in such project in persuade people to participate in them, and then there would be stronger change that these projects would be successful.

On the other hand other school saw this participation in very different light-as more linked to tackling the structural causes of people's poverty, rather than as yet another input into a development project. People are poor because they are excluded and have little influence upon the forces which affect their livelihoods.

Participation is part of the process where by such people seek to have some influence and to gain access to the resources which would help them sustain and input their living standards.

People's Participation:

'Aristotle observed that if liberty and equality are to be found in democracy, people need to be involved.'

The term participation is very often used to cover all the forms of action by which citizens take part in the operation of administration. It is also understood in that sense in United Nations document. The word people's participation is used broadly to refer to the role of members of the

general public as distinguished from that of appointed officials, including civil servants, in influencing the activities of government or in providing directly for community needs.

'Participation does not refer simply to voting … [but] requires that individuals have a voice in the decisions that affect them' – Joseph Stiglitz.

People's participation implies the active environment in development of the rural people, particularly disadvantaged groups that form the mass of the rural population and have previously been excluded from the development process.

The World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD): In 1979 stated that "participation by the people in the institutions and systems which govern their lives is basic human right and on also essential for realignment of political power in favor of disadvantaged groups and for social and economic development."

People's participation should be viewed as an active process in which people take initiatives and action that is stimulated by their own thinking and deliberation and which they can effectively influence."

Typology of Participation:

Participation which means the degree of influence exercised by the people on decision making process in government and administration can assume different typology. The major typologies are democratic, social, administrative and community development.

S. N. Mishra mentions two parallel approaches to participation.

These are political participation and programmatic participation.

D. P. Fauri describes 4 types of participation. These are:

- Democratic participation
- Social protest participation
- Community development participation
- Programme participation

1. **Democratic participation:**

Democratic participation may be called political participation. It is the basis of democracy and political modernization or development. According to S. P. Huntington and John M. Nelson, "political participation is the activity by private citizens designed to influence governmental decision making."

2. **Social participation:**

It includes all types of participation. Social participation sometimes takes the form of social protest. The deprived section people have less access to the center of authority to influence the decision making process in government and politics. In this situation social protest can be an effective form of communication between social and political system.

3. **Administrative participation:**

Various scholars called it in different forms as "programme participation" and "community development". It is used synonymously with decision making process. Such as policy planning, programme planning, implementation and evaluation of policies and programmes.

4. **Community development participation:**

Community development is the process by which the people combine their efforts with a view to improving the socio-economic and cultural life of the communities. Community development in South Asian countries primarily mean encouraging rural people to become self reliant making them capable of enlighten their participation in socio-economic development and nation building measures through mobilization and utilization of resources.

For rural development activities together, these 4 kinds of participation may be treated as something like a cycle.

Unit 2

Sustainable development.

About the MDGs: Basics

What are the Millennium Development Goals?
The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are eight goals to be achieved by 2015 that respond to the world's main development challenges. The MDGs are drawn from the actions and targets contained in the Millennium Declaration that was adopted by 189 nations-and signed by 147 heads of state and governments during the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000.

The eight MDGs break down into 21 quantifiable targets that are measured by 60 indicators.
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality
Goal 5: Improve maternal health
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development

The MDGs:
synthesise, in a single package, many of the most important commitments made separately at the international conferences and summits of the 1990s;
recognise explicitly the interdependence between growth, poverty reduction and sustainable development;

acknowledge that development rests on the foundations of democratic governance, the rule of law, respect for human rights and peace and security;
are based on time-bound and measurable targets accompanied by indicators for monitoring progress; and
bring together, in the eighth Goal, the responsibilities of developing countries with those of developed countries, founded on a global partnership endorsed at the International Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey, Mexico in March 2002, and again at the Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development in August 2002.

Implementation of the MDGs

In 2001, in response to the world leaders' request, UN Secretary General presented the Road Map Towards the Implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration, an integrated and comprehensive overview of the situation, outlining potential strategies for action designed to meet the goals and commitments of the Millennium Declaration.

The road map has been followed up since then with annual reports. In 2002, the annual report focused on progress made in the prevention of armed conflict and the treatment and prevention of diseases, including HIV/AIDS and Malaria. In 2003, emphasis was placed on strategies for development and strategies for sustainable development. In 2004, it was on bridging the digital divide and curbing transnational crime.
In 2005, the Secretary-General prepared the first comprehensive five-yearly report on progress toward achieving the MDGs The report reviews the implementation of decisions taken at the international conferences and special sessions on the least developed countries, progress on HIV/AIDS and financing for development and sustainable development.Click here for additional information on the 2005 Summit.

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are an agreed set of goals (objectives) that can be achieved if all actors work together and do their part. Poor countries have pledged to govern better, and invest in their people through health care and education. Rich countries have pledged to support them, through aid, debt relief, and fairer trade. The Goals that were formulated in 2000 at the UN Millennium Summit are set to be achieved by 2015. These are not mere development objectives; they encompass universally accepted human values and rights such as freedom from hunger, the right to basic education, the right to health and a responsibility to future generations.

GOAL1
India's achievement in poverty reduction is one of the leading factors in the global action against poverty. With more than 2.3 billion people in India and China alone, their major

advances in poverty reduction drive developing world averages. The target set for poverty reduction is 19% population below the poverty line by 2015. The Indian Planning Commission expects to meet the poverty target and miss the target for hunger eradication.

GOAL 2

It is easy to track outcomes such as the construction of school facilities, the filling of vacancies and training of teachers, success in enrolment, and reductions in drop out rates. However the real outcome is quality of education. Literacy in India varies among states, regions and social groups. Scheduled Tribes and Schedules Castes have the lowest literacy rates, whereas Christians have the highest.

GOAL 3

India's approach to bridging the gender divide is improving women's literacy. Female literacy has gone up from 39% in 1991 to 54% in 2001. This is still below the 75% literacy rate for men in 2001. The male-female literacy gap has reduced from 25% in 1991 to 22% in 2001. The literacy gap between the sexes is also higher in rural than in urban areas. The National Literacy Mission that started in 1988 has been working to improve women's literacy and reducing the gender gap.

GOAL 4

Malnutrition accounts for nearly 50% of child deaths in India. According to the Planning Commission, India is unlikely to achieve the targets for child mortality and infant mortality by 2015. IMR has been steadily declining in India from 146 in 1951 to 58 in 2005. However, the rate of decline in IMR slowed after 1993. Infant Mortality Rate is higher in rural areas than urban and higher for girls than boys.

GOAL 5

As of 2001-03, India's MMR is 301 with over a little over 48% births being attended by skilled health personnel. The Planning Commission projects that India will miss the MMR target for 2015, which is less than 109. Hospital based data shows that states that have relatively better socio-economic status and higher educational levels (such as Kerala, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, and Maharashtra) also have lower rates of MMR. The Government of India has launched the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) in 2005 to improve basic health care delivery system in India.

GOAL 6

Over 60% of all HIV cases in Asia live in India. According to the National AIDS Control Organisation's estimates, India had about 25 lakh HIV infected people in 2006. HIV cases are high among commercial sex workers, injecting drug users, and men having sex with men. However, infection from blood transfusions and transmission from mother to newborn is low. The National Health Policy (NHP) sets out a number of goals to address HIV/AIDS, malaria and other major diseases. NHP aims to reduce mortality by 50% on account of TB, malaria, other vector and water-borne diseases, to achieve zero level growth of HIV AIDS, and to increase health expenditure by govt to 2.0% of GDP by 2010.

GOAL 7
India has 16% of the world's population, but its share of fresh water sources is only 4%. However, the Planning Commission is confident that India will meet the target of halving, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water. The National Water Policy (2002) emphasises conservation and sustainable use of water, and prioritises its use for drinking, hydro-power, agriculture, industries and ecology. Government programmes on water relate to extension of irrigation systems, watershed programmes and rainwater harvesting.

GOAL   8
India's target focus within this goal is to make available the benefits of technology to a wider mass in cooperation with the private sector. The country's growth story of Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) has put India in the lead in the global services trade. There has also been marked progress in the telecom sector. The share of private telecom operators has increased to over 65% by the end of March 2007 due to positive and proactive government policies. The number of internet users has also increased to 3.5 persons per 100 from 2001 to 2006.

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BRIEF HISTORY OF PANCHYATI RAJ IN POST INDEPENDENCE INDIA

THE BALWANTRAI MEHTA COMMITTEE (1957)

In 1957, Balwantrai Mehta Committee studied the community development projects and the National Extension Service and assessed the extent to which the movement had succeeded in ecentral local initiatives and in creating institutions to ensure continuity in the process of improving economic and social conditions in rural areas. The Committee held that community development would only be deep and enduring when the community was involved in the planning, decision-making and implementation process The specific recommendations of the committee are:

1. Establishment of a 3-tier Panchayati Raj system-Gram Panchayat at the village level, Panchayat Samiti at the block level, and Zila Parishad at the district level. These tiers should be organically linked through a device of indirect elections.
2. The village Panchayat should be constituted with directly elected representatives, whereas the Panchayat Samiti and Zila Parishad should be constituted with indirectly elected members.
3. All planning and developmental activities should be entrusted to these bodies.
4. The Panchayat Samiti should be the executive body while the Zila Parishad should be the advisory, coordinating and supervisory body.
5. The District Collector should be the Chairman of the Zila Parishad.
6. There should be a genuine transfer of power and responsibility to these democratic bodies.
7. Sufficient resources should be transferred to these bodies to enable them to discharge their functions and fulfil their responsibilities.
8. A system should be evolved to effect further devolution of authority in future.

These recommendations were accepted by the National Development Council in January 1958

Â K. SANTHANAM COMMITTEE (1963)

One of the prime areas of concern in this long debate on panchayati raj institutions was fiscal ecentralizedon. The K. Santhanam Committee was appointed to look solely at the issue of PRI finance, in 1963. The fiscal capacity of PRIs tends to be limited, as rich resources of revenue are pre-empted by higher levels of government, and issue is still debated today. The Committee was asked to determine issues related to sanctioning of grants to PRIs by the state government, evolving mutual financial relations between the three tiers of PRIs, gifts and donation, handing over revenue in full or part to PRIs. The Committee recommended the following:

1. Panchayats should have special powers to levy special tax on land revenues and home taxes, etc.,
2. People should not be burdened with too many demands (taxes),
3. All grants and subventions at the state level should be ecentral and sent in a consolidated form to various PRIs,
4. A Panchayat Raj Finance Corporation should be set up to look into the financial resource of PRIs at all levels, provide loans and financial assistance to these grassroots level governments and also provide non-financial requirements of villages.

These issues have been debated over the last three decades and have been taken up by the State Finance Commissions which are required to select taxes for assignment and sharing, identifying the principles for such sharing and assignment, determine the level of grants and recommend the final distribution of state's transfers to local authorities.

ASHOK MEHTA COMMITTEE (1978)

With the coming of the Janata Party into power at the Centre in 1977, a serious view was taken of the weaknesses in the functioning of Panchayati Raj. It was decided to appoint a high-level committee under the chairmanship of Ashok Mehta to examine and suggest measures to strengthen PRIs. The Committee had to evolve an effective ecentralized system of development for PRIs. They made the following recommendations.

1. The district is a viable administrative unit for which planning, co-ordination and resource allocation are feasible and technical expertise available,
2. PRIs as a two-tier system, with Mandal Panchayat at the base and Zilla Parishad at the top,
3. The PRIs are capable of planning for themselves with the resources available to them,
4. District planning should take care of the urban-rural continuum,
5. Representation of SCs and STs in the election to PRIs on the basis of their population,
6. Four-year term of PRIs,
7. Participation of political parties in elections,

8. Any financial devolution should be committed to accepting that much of the developmental functions at the district level would be played by the panchayats.

The states of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal passed new legislation based on this report. However, the flux in politics at the state level did not allow these institutions to develop their own political dynamics.

G.V.K. Rao Committee (1985)

The G.V.K.Rao Committee was appointed to once again look at various aspects of PRIs. The Committee was of the opinion that a total view of rural development must be taken in which PRIs must play a central role in handling people's problems. It recommended the following:-

1. PRIs have to be activated and provided with all the required support to become effective organisations,
2. PRIs at the district level and below should be assigned the work of planning, implementation and monitoring of rural development programmes, and
3. The block development office should be the spinal cord of the rural development process.

L.M.Singhvi Committee (1986)

L.M. Singhvi Committee studied panchayatiraj. The Gram Sabha was considered as the base of a ecentralized democracy, and PRIs viewed as institutions of self-governance which would actually facilitate the participation of the people in the process of planning and development. It recommended

1. Local self-government should be constitutionally ecentrali, protected and preserved by the inclusion of new chapter in the Constitution,
2. Non-involvement of political parties in Panchayat elections.

The suggestion of giving panchayats constitutional status was opposed by the Sarkaria Commission, but the idea, however, gained momentum in the late 1980s especially because of the endorsement by the late Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi, who introduced the 64th Constitutional Amendment Bill in 1989. The 64th Amendment Bill was prepared and introduced in the lower house of Parliament. But it got defeated in the Rajya Sabha as non-convincing. He lost the general elections too. In 1989, the National Front introduced the 74th Constitutional Amendment Bill, which could not become an Act because of the dissolution of the Ninth Lok Sabha. All these various suggestions and recommendations and means of strengthening PRIs were considered while formulating the new Constitutional Amendment Act.

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act

It was a political drive to see PRIs as a solution to the governmental crises that India was experiencing. The Constitutional (73rd Amendment) Act, passed in 1992 by the Narashima Rao government, came

into force on April 24, 1993. It was meant to provide constitutional sanction to establish "democracy at the grassroots level as it is at the state level or national level". Its main features are as follows:

1. The Gram Sabha or village assembly as a deliberative body to ecentralized governance has been envisaged as the foundation of the Panchayati Raj System.
2. A uniform three-tier structure of panchayats at village (Gram Panchayat – GP), intermediate (Panchayat Samiti – PS) and district (Zilla Parishad – ZP) levels.
3. All the seats in a panchayat at every level are to be filled by elections from respective territorial constituencies.
4. Not less than one-third of the total seats for membership as well as office of chairpersons of each tier has to be reserved for women.
5. Reservations for weaker castes and tribes (SCs and STs) have to be provided at all levels in proportion to their population in the panchayats.
6. To supervise, direct and control the regular and smooth elections to panchayats, a State Election Commission has to be constituted in every State and UT.
7. The Act has ensured constitution of a State Finance Commission in every State/UT, for every five years, to suggest measures to strengthen finances of PRIs.
8. To promote bottom-up-planning, the District Planning Committee [DPC] in every district has been accorded constitutional status.
9. An indicative list of 29 items has been given in Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution. Panchayats are expected to play an effective role in planning and implementation of works related to these 29 items.

Techniques in rural development planning;

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): Participatory rural appraisal evolved from rapid rural appraisal-a set of informal techniques used by development practitioners in rural areas to collect and analyze data. PRA is a label given to a growing family of participatory approaches and methods that emphasize local knowledge and enable local people to make their own appraisal, analysis, and plans.

This tool is efficient in terms of both time and money. PRA work intends to gather enough information to make the necessary recommendations and decisions.

Even though these tools have been standardized and defined, they have to be tailored to the local requirements. Importance has to be given to what extent these methods contribute to a process of self-analysis, at both local and institutional levels and whether they facilitate local planning and proper designing of project interventions.

Steps in participatory planning in Local Governance

1. Conduct gram sabhas to identify the needs of the people

   o Mobilization of people

   o Adopting small group approach

   o Preparation of a model agenda for gram sabhas

   o Adopt a Semi-structured questionnaire approach derived from the PRA techniques for discussions

2. Assessment of the local resources and problems and accordingly formulate development reports

   o Generate a comprehensive database for every locality for local level planning

   o Identification of significant ecological variations in the village through RRA and PRA

   o Preparation of development reports that includes the information about the local economic, social, geographical and human resources information

3. Preparation of project proposals through specific task forces

o Preparation of a common project format that clearly defines the objectives, beneficiaries, activities, organizations involved, financial analysis, assessment and monitoring arrangements

4. Formulation of local plans by elected bodies

o Choice of the projects and programmes to be included in the annual plans

o Design the structure of plan document and the procedures for its adoption by the decision makers

o Adoption of resolution by the elected representatives of the local bodies that enunciates the inter-sectoral and the intra-sectoral priorities

5. Formulation of plans at the higher levels

o Higher levels have to coordinate, integrate, and fill in gaps of the local plans.

o Integration of local level plans with the block or district level plans.

6. Appraisal and approval of plans by an expert committee

Who can use the toolkit?

The use of participatory approaches in Local Governance is now well established especially in Kerala. The decentralisation programme in Kerala is based on the principles of participatory planning. Participatory planning is applicable to all the projects where community involvement in planning, design and implementation is essential. This is especially true in rural development where participatory approaches form the entry point for understanding local society and their construction of local reality, with the view of tailoring interventions which have greatest possibility of acceptance.

> Best practices in Kerala's decentralization process
>
> Kerala's unique decentralization process – People's Campaign
>
> The people's planning campaign was launched to empower the local elected bodies with departmental officials, experts, volunteers and the people rallying around them.
>
> Planning as an instrument of social mobilization
>
> In Kerala, planning has been made an instrument for social mobilization in support of decentralization. One of the characteristic features of the decentralization process was the emphasis placed on mass participation and transparency.
>
> Campaign for the creation of a new civic culture
>
> The people's campaign followed a highly participative approach aimed at creating demand for the democratic reforms from below and to actively nurture a civic culture that promotes grassroots democratic institutions.

Identification of national, rural development goals

Bharat Nirman

A time-bound plan for rural infrastructure by the Government of India in partnership with State Governments and Panchayat Raj Institutions 2005-2009

Tasks

- Every village to be provided electricity: remaining 1,25,000 villages to be covered by 2009 as well as connect 2.3 crore households
- Every habitation over 1000 population and above (500 in hilly and tribal areas) to be provided an all-weather road: remaining 66,802 habitations to be covered by 2009
- Every habitation to have a safe source of drinking water: 55,067 uncovered habitations to be covered by 2009. In addition all habitations which have slipped back from full coverage to partial coverage due to failure of source and habitations which have water quality problems to be addressed
- Every village to be connected by telephone: remaining 66,822 villages to be covered by November 2007
- 10 million hectares (100 lakhs) of additional irrigation capacity to be created by 2009
- 60 lakh houses to be constructed for the rural poor by 2009 While the agenda is not new, the effort here is to impart a sense of urgency to these goals, make the programme time-bound, transparent and accountable. These investments in rural infrastructure will unlock the growth potential of rural India.

Administrative and organizational framework for planning

Planning Commission - Steering Committee/ Wokring Group on 11th Plan

Ministry of Rural Development

State RD Departments.

DRDAs/ ZP's.

NIRD / SIRD.

BDO

Planning Commission

Sector: Rural Development

Divisions

1. Agriculture
2. Decentralized planning, Panchayati Raj and Special Area Programme (Including Western Ghat Secretariat)
3. Development Policy & Perspective Planning
4. Rural Development

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http://rural.nic.in/i1.htm

India has been a welfare state ever since her Independence and the primary objective of all governmental endeavors has been the welfare of its millions. Planning has been one of the pillars of the Indian policy since independence and the country's strength is derived from the achievement of planning. The policies and programmes have been designed with the aim of alleviation of rural poverty which has been one of the primary objectives of planned development in India. It was realized that a sustainable strategy of poverty alleviation has to be based on increasing the productive employment opportunities in the process of growth itself. Elimination of poverty, ignorance, diseases and inequality of opportunities and providing a better and higher quality of life were the basic premises upon which all the plans and blue-prints of development were built.

Rural development implies both the economic betterment of people as well as greater social transformation. In order to provide the rural people with better prospects for economic development, increased participation of people in the rural development programmes, decentralization of planning, better enforcement of land reforms and greater access to credit are envisaged.

on 31st March 1952, an organization known as Community Projects Administration was set up under the Planning Commission to administer the programmes relating to community development. The community development programme inaugurated on October 2, 1952, was an important landmark in the history of the rural development.

DISTRICT RURAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

ADMINISTRATION:

District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) is a principal organ at the District level to manage and oversee the implementation of different anti-poverty programmes of the Ministry of Rural Development. Since its inception the administrative cost of the DRDAs was met by setting apart a certain percentage of the allocation from each programme. However, keeping in view the need for an effective agency at the District Level to co-ordinate the anti-poverty programmes, a new Centrally Sponsored Scheme for strengthening the DRDAs was introduced w.e.f 1st April 1999. Under this scheme, the staff costs of DRDA establishments are met by the Central and State Government in the ratio of 75:25.

OBJECTIVES:

The primary objective of the Scheme of DRDA Administration is to professionalise the DRDA so that they are able to effectively manage the anti-poverty programmes of the Ministry of Rural Development and interact effectively with other agencies. The DRDAs are expected to coordinate effectively with the line departments, the Panchayat Raj institutions, the banks and other financial institutions, the NGOs as well as technical institutions with a view to gathering support and resources required for poverty reduction effort in the district.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE:

- Each district will have its own District Rural Development Agency. Ordinarily it would be a society registered under a Societies Registration Act. In respect of such states where DRDA does not have a separate identity a separate cell should be created in Zill Parishad which maintains a separate identity and separate accounts, so that the accounts are capable of being audited separately. This Cell should be directly under the charge of CEO or alternatively an officer who has the qualifications to be a Project Director

- The DRDA would be headed by a Project Director, who should be of the rank of an Additional District Magistrate, in respect of such States where DRDA does not have a separate identity, a cell will be created in the Zilla Parishad to maintain a separate account so that these are capable of being audited separately

- Role of DRDA will be to facilitate the implementation of the Programmes, to supervise/oversee and monitor the progress, to receive and send progress report and maintaining accounts of funds received for various rural development programmes.

- DRDAs also need to develop synergies among different agencies for the most effective results.

- The DRDAs are expected to deal only with the anti-poverty programmes of the Ministry of Rural Development. If DRDAs are entrusted with programmes of

other Ministries or those of the State governments, it should be ensured that these have a definite anti-poverty focus.

- The Chairman Zilla Parishad would be the chairman of the Governing Body of the DRDA. The DRDA shall also have an Executive Committee.

National Level Monitors

With a view to ensuring transparency and efficacy in the implementation of Rural Development Programmes, the Ministry has prepared a panel of 179 National Level Monitors involving Senior Level Ex-Servicemen and Retired Civil Servants to Monitor the policy and implementation environments of the programmes at grass root level.

District Level Monitoring

A new initiative of District Level Monitoring of the Rural Development Programmes in 128 Districts in 26 States through locally based independent external agencies has been taken up on a pilot basis.

Evaluation Mechanisms

In order to assess impacts of the Rural Development Programmes, the Ministry of Rural Development has undertakes Concurrent Evaluation, Impact Assessment Studies and Quick Evaluations from time to time, through reputed and independent Research Institutions/Organisations.

Data base for planning and analysis;

Database

Secondary data from Census of India, and also

from Economic Review and Statistical Abstract, Government

National sample survey organisation - NSSO

Family Health Survey - ICMR

The data may be collected pertain to (a) Land use pattern, (b) Population by sex, age and caste, (c) Birth and mortality, (d) Education, (e) Livelihood pattern of population, (f) Livestock, (g) Infrastructure. Primary and secondary data have been analyzed by using simple statistical tools.

In what follows we have tried to make a structural presentation of database of the district at three levels, namely village, gram panchayat and block.

1. Resources: Natural (land, forestry, fishery), Physical (infrastructure and amenities) and population (human and livestock).

2. Utilization of resources (Economic and non-economic activities in agriculture, agri-allied, processing and manufacturing, and services),

3. Success stories and concerns (on own resource mobilization of panchayats and municipalities, Nirmal gram panchayat, productivity, industry, poverty, employment, SHGs),

4. Potentials, realization, constraints, and prospects, innovative lines of development.

identification of problems, felt needs, resources and development constraints;

priority setting and problem analysis;

formulation of strategies and proposals;

Major Rural Development Programmes in India

Monitor Mechanism

National Level Monitors

With a view to ensuring transparency and efficacy in the implementation of Rural Development Programmes, the Ministry has prepared a panel of 179 National Level Monitors involving Senior Level Ex-Servicemen and Retired Civil Servants to Monitor the policy and implementation environments of the programmes at grass root level. The National Level Monitors shall also be required to look into various specific complaints regarding implementation of programmes, as and when required by this Ministry. All the National Level Monitors have been asked to visit in districts and submit report by the end of September, 2003.

District Level Monitoring

A new initiative of District Level Monitoring of the Rural Development Programmes in 128 Districts in 26 States through locally based independent external agencies has been taken up on a pilot basis. This mechanism enables the Ministry to obtain not only monthly physical and financial progress reports from different Implementing Agencies but also generates periodic qualitative reports on the policy and implementation environment for the programmes in the districts and verification of physical achievement under different programmes. Such close monitoring helps in the improving quality of implementation of the programmes.

Evaluation Mechanisms

In order to assess impacts of the Rural Development Programmes, the Ministry of Rural Development has undertakes Concurrent Evaluation, Impact Assessment Studies and Quick Evaluations from time to time, through reputed and independent Research Institutions/Organisations. The main objectives of these studies are to evaluate the performance of the Schemes at the field level, and to assess the impact of the programmes and to identify the problems in course of implementation so as to make mid-course corrective measures, wherever necessary.

Rural Development

Through the Plans

Five Year Plans : <u>First</u> <u>Second</u> <u>Third</u> <u>Fourth</u> <u>Fifth</u> <u>Sixth</u> <u>Seventh</u> <u>Eighth</u> <u>Ninth</u> <u>Tenth</u> <u>Eleventh</u>

The function of the Rural Development Division is primarily to provide overall policy guidance in formulation of plans and programmes for Rural Development. This is the nodal Division for matters relating to poverty eradication, employment generation in rural areas, development of watershed & degraded land. The following specific activities are undertaken by Division;

    i.   To assist in formulation of rural development programmes to be included in Five Year Plans and Annual Plans and to make periodic assessment of progress achieved.

    ii.   To analyse and prepare comments on the EFC Memoranda and Cabinet Notes paper for Group of Ministers pertaining to rural development programmes.

    iii.   To maintain liaison with Ministry of Rural Development, National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD) and other allied organisations mainly and participating in the meetings.

    iv.   To collect information from various Divisions of the Planning Commission, State Governments and also from the Central Ministries which are implementing various schemes related to rural development.

    v.   To organize Working Group meetings to finalise the Draft Five Year Plan proposals of the State Governments. This involves the preparation of background papers, discussions on inter-se plan priorities, critical examination of plan proposals in relation to plan objectives and approaches, preparation of Working Group Reports giving, inter-alia, outlays and physical targets.

    vi.   Finalisation of the Five Year Plan outlays of the Ministry of Rural Development. Finalisation of Annual Plans of the Central Ministry of Rural Development and State Governments. This includes assessment of progress both in physical and financial terms, in relation to the approved targets and outlays, scheme-wise examination of proposals and reviewing targets and finalizing allocation for next Annual Plan.

    vii.   To provide comments, materials etc. for Public representations, VIP references, Parliament Questions and Agenda items for the meetings of Consultative Committee/ Standing Committee for the Planning Commission pertaining to rural development sector are also attended to.

The Rural Development Division looks after the following programmes being implemented by the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD):

National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA)

       The NREG was launched on February 2, 2006 and the first full year of operation was 2006-07 covering 200 districts. The programme was expanded to 330 districts in 2007-08 and covers the whole country from 1.4.08. The primary objective of the scheme is to provide guaranteed work for 100 days for any household wishing to have such employment. Although all households are eligible, the expectation is that only the poorer sections, i.e., landless labour and

marginal farmers would actually seek work. The secondary objective is to ensure that employment generated is from works that raise land productivity.

Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY)

SGSY is a major on-going scheme for the self-employment of the rural poor. The basic objective of the scheme is to bring the assisted poor families (swarozgaris) above the poverty line by providing them income generating assets through a mix of bank credit and government subsidy. Credit is the critical component of the scheme whereas the subsidy is an enabling element. The scheme involves organisation of the poor into Self Help Groups (SHGs) build their capacities through a process of social mobilization, their training, selection of key activities, planning of activity clusters, creation of infrastructure, provision of technology and marketing support, etc. Under the scheme focus is on the group approach. However, individual Swarozgaris are also assisted. The SGSY is being implemented by the District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) with the active involvement of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), banks, line Departments and the Non-Government Organisations (NGOs).

The credit mobilization under SGSY has been abysmally low. Further, a large number of SHGs are formed but fizzle out midway after availing the revolving fund. To make the scheme more effective it is being re-structured with a sharper focus on poorest of the poor people. A suitable mechanism will be put in place for higher social mobilization, capacity building and institution building among the target population

Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY)

The IAY is being implemented as an independent scheme since 1996. It aims to provide assistance for construction / upgradation of dwelling units to the Below Poverty Line (BPL) rural households, with special emphasis on SCs, STs and freed bonded labor categories. A maximum assistance of Rs 35,000 per unit is provided for construction in plain areas and Rs 38,500 per unit for hilly/difficult areas. Rs 15000 is given for upgradation of a dwelling unit for all areas. The funding of IAY is shared between the Centre and State in the ratio of 75:25. (100% in the case of UTs).

National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP)

The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) was launched with the aim to provide social assistance benefit to poor households in the case of old age, death of primary breadwinner and maternity. The programme supplements the efforts of the State Governments with the objective of ensuring minimum national levels of well being and the Central assistance is an addition to the benefit that the States are already providing on Social Protection Schemes. With a view to ensure better linkage with nutrition and national population control programmes, the Maternity Benefit Component of the NSAP was transferred to the Department of Family Welfare, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare with effect from 2001-02. The schemes of NSAP and Annapurna have been transferred to the State Plan with effect from 2002-03 with a view to provide requisite flexibility to the State / UT in the choice and implementation of the schemes.

Integrated Watershed Management Programme (IWMP)

During the Eleventh Plan, the three area development programmes, namely, Integrated Wasteland Development Programme, Drought Prone Area Programme and Desert Development Programme have been integrated and consolidated into a single programme called Integrated Watershed Management Programme (IWMP). This consolidation is for optimum use of resources, sustainable outcomes an integrated planning. The common guidelines for the Watershed Development Programme have been formulated and are effective from 1.4.2008. An amount of Rs.1825 crore has been allocated for IWMP during 2008-09. The ongoing projects sanctioned prior to 1.4.2008 under DADP, DDP, and IWDP would be continued to be implemented as per old guidelines.

The modified IWMP would adopt a three tier apporch in which the upper reaches which are mainly forested and hilly would be treated with the support of Forest Department. For land situated intermediate slopes above the agriculture lands, the IWMP would address all the necessary issues of land treatment by adopting best possible options including cropping pattern, horticulture and agro-forestry etc. In the lower tire, which are plains and mainly agricultural lands, the IWMP would be dovetailed with the employment generating programme such as National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) an would fill the critical gaps of NREGS and vice versa.

Under the new programme, a cluster approach would be followed with a broader vision of natural hydro-geographical unit of average size of 4,000 to 10,000 ha. comprising of clusters of micro-watershed to be selected as project area. The progrrame would be implemented by dedicated institutional agencies at state and central level. Professional support (in the form of multidisciplinary expert team) would be provided to support these institutions with proper fund allocation. A core GIS facility with spatial and non-spatial data augmented with satellite imagery data would be set up for giving Controlled access/distributon for local project planning.

The project period is proposed in the range of 5 to 7 years in three distinct phases, i.e. Preparatory, Watershed works and Consodilation phase. The consodilation phase will include livelihood activities, marketing, processing and value addition activities.

National Land Records Modernization Programme (NLRMP):

The National Land Records Modernization Programme (NLRMP) has been conceptualized as a major system and reform initiative that is concerned not merely with computerization, updating and maintenance of land records and validation of titles, but also as a programme that will add value and provide a comprehensive database for planning developmental, regulatory and disaster management activities by providing location-specific information, while providing citizen services based on land records data.

Under the NLRMP, the following three layers of data will be integrated on a geographic information system (GIS) platform: Spatial data from satellite imagery/aerial photography, Survey of India and Forest Survey of India maps, and Revenue records: cadastral maps and RoR details. All cadastral maps will be digitized, and data included with plot numbers and unique id for each land parcel. Administrative unit boundaries from village level upwards (including panchayat, block, tehsil, circle, sub-division, district, division, State and national boundaries), forest, water bodies and other physical attributes of land and land use details will be overlaid, and other developmental layers (e.g., watersheds, road networks, etc.) added to the core GIS.

The activities to be supported under the Programme, inter alia, include survey/resurvey using modern technology including aerial photogrammetry, updating of land records including mutation records, completion of computerization of the records of rights (RoRs), computerization of registration, automatic generation of mutation notices, digitization of maps , integration of the entire system digitization of maps and training and capacity building of the concerned officials and functionaries. Connectivity amongst the land records and registration offices and land records management centers at tehsil/taluk/circle/block level would be supported. Access to land records data would be provided to Cooperative and other financial institutions for facilitating credit operations.

A major focus of the Programme will be on citizen services, such as providing records of rights (RoRs) with maps; other land-based certificates such as caste certificates, income certificates (particularly in rural areas), domicile certificates; information for eligibility for development programmes; land passbooks, etc.

In addition, the Programme will be of immense usefulness to the governments - both Central and State Governments - in modernizing and bringing efficiency to the land revenue administration as well as offering a comprehensive tool for planning various land-based developmental, regulatory and disaster management activities needing location-specific information. Even the private sector will be able to benefit from this comprehensive tool for planning business and economic activities.

As indicated above, the NLRMP has been approved by the Cabinet in its meeting held on 21.8.2008. The budget provision for the Scheme during the current year (2008-09) is Rs.473.00 crore. Accordingly, it is proposed to implement the NLRMP across the country and to make it fully operational over the next five to eight year period. The components of the scheme will become integrated with the Revenue Administration of the States/UTs and will continue as such on an ongoing basis.

Steering Committee/ Wokring Group on 11th Plan

**Rural
Development**

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Database:

i) Consider the database for land. The evaluations of land reforms carried out in mid 1950s and 1990s have pointed out glaring weaknesses, unreliability and carelessness in updating records. The database continues to be in the same state even today. If one goes by this database, there is no scope for any substantial redistribution of land. On the other hand, villagers can readily identify those with large ownership evading the law with the provisions existing within the law itself! Recently, a minister in the Union government publicly called the land records as garbage!

ii) As regards irrigation, the present irrigated area is only about a half of the potential estimated by experts. I have yet to see any concrete plan about when the full potential will get utilized.

Meanwhile, there are persistent gap between irrigation statistics given by the two different ministries of the Government of India! If half of the irrigation potential remains unutilized after six decades of development planning in a country suffering from periodic severe droughts, the policymaker would indeed have a lot to explain.

Millennium Development Goals & India

K. S. Jacob

India's vast population, its diversity, the variability of services and the differing baselines across regions complicate the achievement of the MDGs.

The Millennium Development declaration was a visionary document, which sought partnership between rich and poor nations to make globalisation a force for good. Its signatories agreed to explicit goals on a specific timeline. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) set ambitious targets for reducing hunger, poverty, infant and maternal mortality, for reversing the spread of AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria and giving children basic education by 2015. These also included gender equality, environmental sustainability and multisectoral and international partnerships.

The 10th anniversary of the declaration was used to review progress and suggest course corrections to meet the 2015 deadline. The glittering banquets, the power lunches and the rhetoric at the formal meetings, attended by many celebrities, ambassadors of different nations, international charities and the media, in New York belied the stark reality in many poor countries. While the declaration and the MDGs were a clarion call and mobilised many governments into concerted action, a review of the achievements to date and projections for 2015 suggest some success and much failure. Most rich nations failed to meet the targets on promised aid. While progress has been made, much more needs to be done.

Government's claims

The Government of India claims that the country is on track to meet the MDG targets by 2015. It argues that the number of people living below the poverty line has reduced. It claims that child and maternal mortality rates are reducing at a pace commensurate with its plans. It maintains that many government-sponsored schemes have increased public resources in several key sectors. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme has increased rural employment. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, a national policy to universalise primary education, has increased enrolment in schools. The Reproductive and Child Health Programme II, the Integrated Child Development Services and the National Rural Health Mission have resulted in massive inputs in the health sector. It states HIV rates are low and that deaths due to

tuberculosis and malaria show downward trends. It asserts that the Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission and the Total Sanitation Campaign address crucial MDGs.

It is, however, difficult to endorse the government's confidence and optimism. Experts argue that the poverty reduction claims are the result of a sleight of hand, which employs debatable measurements and methods for assessment. The existing rates of malnutrition, affecting half of all children under 5, do not support the claims of hunger reduction.

While many agree with the figures for reduction in maternal mortality, they feel the target set is unachievable, as are those for reduction of child mortality and for universal primary education. Gender equality remains elusive. The emergence of an extremely drug-resistant tuberculosis and the high incidence of malaria in certain regions are worrying.

The impressive growth and the creation of wealth with economic liberalisation have not resulted in social development, what with stagnation in key social indicators, particularly among the disadvantaged. There has been an uneven expansion of social and economic opportunities with growing disparities across regions, castes and gender. While India's Gross Domestic Product argues for its middle-income nation status, it also hides massive poverty and much inequity. The challenge to convert India's commitments and resources into measurable results for all its citizens, especially those belonging to socially disadvantaged and marginalised communities, remains gigantic and unmet.

Illusory measurements

The Millennium Declaration, unlike many other documents, set out measurable aims instead of the usual vague platitudes of many international agreements. The MDGs focus on specific and measurable outcomes. However, employing proxy and surrogate variables to measure the country's success may not reflect actual progress. The focus on the massive inputs related to the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) while discussing child and maternal mortality, for instance. Most NRHM documents describe in detail particulars of the increased funding, new infrastructure, additional health personnel and the many new initiatives. However, they are silent on their impact on the health of people. The Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY), a conditional cash transfer scheme for safe motherhood, is operative and is part of the drive to increase institutional deliveries. The impressive number of women who have given birth to children in hospitals and the amounts utilised under the scheme measure its success. However, the system does not collect and collate data on the number of safe deliveries, the number of live births and measures of the health of mothers and babies. Data on the person who actually conducted the delivery, post-delivery complications, duration of stay at health centres and the status of the mother and child are not available. System failures related to transport, functioning of facilities, referral and emergency obstetric care are not rare but go undocumented.

While there is no doubt that the NRHM has made a positive impact on primary and secondary health systems, we need proof of improved functioning in addition to evidence of enhanced infrastructure and increased personnel. Specific measurements of outcomes will allow for course corrections and targeted inputs.

Similarly, while enrolment rates have improved, the question of retention of girls in primary education is yet to be established, posing a threat to meeting the targets for universal education. While the figures for hunger reduction look better, those for malnutrition in children suggest otherwise. The figures for poverty reduction are contested. Patriarchy is firmly established and shows little signs of change, especially in rural India, making gender equality and justice elusive. Many reports suggest that environmental sustainability of many development projects is not adequately evaluated.

While there are many gains, the question to be answered is: "Is India on track to meet the MDGs in 2015?" Its vast population, its diversity, the variability of services and the differing baselines across regions complicate the achievement of the MDGs. There is evidence that while some States are on track, many others lag behind and will lower the country's overall achievement. This demands a more detailed assessment of the impact of the many schemes introduced rather than the use of only input variables to predict MDG outputs.

Rhetoric-reality divide

India's vast geography and its diversity are major reasons for significant variations across regions. They mandate the need for separate targets, governance, a focus on public health and changes in social structures. The variability across regions mandates dedicated goals and specific targets tailored to regional baseline rates, for both specific regions and marginalised populations. Periodic assessments of specific outputs required to meet the MDGs are necessary rather than highlighting of new inputs. The many new schemes need to audit their actual, rather than their presumed, impact.

Any survey of regional data clearly documents that poor outcomes are in regions with poor governance. While the NRHM divides the country into high-focus and non-high focus States, the inputs to improve the situation are not directed at improving governance. The federal structure means that improving local governance is the responsibility of individual States. Many States have not fully exploited the increased funding and the newer schemes. Good governance is an effect multiplier and will have a much greater impact on the country's MDGs than just increases in finance, infrastructure and health personnel. Corruption is a deadlier disease which needs urgent attention than most of the medical conditions affecting the people.

The focus on improvement in health continues to employ perspectives of curative medicine rather than concentrate on public health approaches. Clean water, sanitation, nutrition, housing, education, employment and social determinants seem to receive a lower priority despite their known impact on the health of populations.

Feudal social structures continue to oppress millions of people. Health and economic indices of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes show much lower rates of health and greater poverty. Patriarchal society places much burden on girls and women, especially in rural India. Without changes in social structures, improvements in health and economic status will remain a distant dream for the many millions who live on the margins of a resurgent India.

The 10th anniversary assessment of the MDGs and its rhetoric left many wondering if they were just warm words, business as usual. Millions live in poverty, hunger is common, half the children under-five are malnourished, maternal mortality is unacceptably high, and a significant number of girls will not receive primary education. The sense of urgency, born of the moral conviction that extreme poverty is unacceptable in our inter-connected world, should not be lost. The time for action is now.

(Professor K.S. Jacob is on the faculty of the Christian Medical College, Vellore.)

Urban sociology is the sociology of urban living; of people in groups and social relationship in urban social circumstances and situation. Thompson Warren has defined it as the movement of people from communities concerned chiefly or solely with agriculture to other communities generally larger whose activities are primarily centered in government, trade, manufacture or allied interests. Urbanization is a two-way process because it involves not only movement from village to cities and change from agricultural occupation to business, trade, service and profession but it also involves change in the migrants attitudes, beliefs, values and behavior patterns. The process of urbanization is rapid all over the world. The facilities like education, healthcare system, employment avenues, civic facilities and social welfare are reasons attracting people to urban areas. The census of India defines some criteria for urbanization. These are:

Population is more than 5000

The density is over 400 persons per sq.km

75% of the male population engages in non-agricultural occupations.

Cities are urban areas with population more than one lakh.

Metropolises are cities with population of more than one million.

An important aspect of social change and population growth over the centuries has been urbanization, or the rise and growth of cities. Urbanization has had important consequences for many aspects of social, political, and economic life (Kleniewski & Thomas, 2011).

The earliest cities developed in ancient times after the rise of horticultural and pastoral societies made it possible for people to stay in one place instead of having to move around to find food. Because ancient cities had no sanitation facilities, people typically left their garbage and human waste in the city streets or just outside the city wall (which most cities had for protection from possible enemies); this poor sanitation led to rampant disease and high death rates. Some cities eventually developed better sanitation procedures, including, in Rome, a sewer system (Smith, 2003).

Cities became more numerous and much larger during industrialization, as people moved to be near factories and other sites of industrial production. First in Europe and then in the United States, people crowded together as never before into living conditions that were often decrepit. Lack of sanitation continued to cause rampant disease, and death rates from cholera, typhoid, and other illnesses were high. In addition, crime rates soared, and mob violence became quite common (Feldberg, 1998)

.Are cities good or bad? We asked a similar question—is modernization good or bad?—earlier in this chapter, and the answer here is similar as well: cities are both good and bad. They are sites of innovation, high culture, population diversity, and excitement, but they are also sites of high crime, impersonality, and other problems.

In the early 20th century, a group of social scientists at the University of Chicago established a research agenda on cities that is still influential today (Bulmer, 1984). Most notably, they began to study the effects of urbanization on various aspects of city residents' lives in what came to be called the human ecology school (Park, Burgess, & McKenzie, 1925). One of their innovations was to divide Chicago into geographical regions, or zones, and to analyze crime rates and other behavioral differences among the zones. They found that crime rates were higher in the inner zone, or central part of the city, where housing was crowded and poverty was common, and were lower in the outer zones, or the outer edges of the city, where houses were spread farther apart and poverty was much lower. Because they found these crime rate differences changed over time

even as the ethnic backgrounds of people in these zones, they assumed that the social and physical features of the neighborhoods were affecting their crime rates (Shaw & McKay, 1942). Their work is still useful today, as it helps us realize that the social environment, broadly defined, can affect our attitudes and behavior. This theme, of course, lies at the heart of the sociological perspective.

Urbanism and Tolerance

One of the most notable Chicago sociologists was Louis Wirth (1897–1952), who, in a well-known essay entitled "Urbanism as a Way of Life" (Wirth, 1938), discussed several differences between urban and rural life. In one such difference, he said that urban residents are more tolerant than rural residents of nontraditional attitudes, behaviors, and lifestyles, in part because they are much more exposed than rural residents to these nontraditional ways. Supporting Wirth's hypothesis, contemporary research finds that urban residents indeed hold more tolerant views on several kinds of issues (Moore & Ovadia, 2006).

Life in U.S. Cities

Life in U.S. cities today reflects the dual view just outlined. On the one hand, many U.S. cities are vibrant places, filled with museums and other cultural attractions, nightclubs, theaters, and restaurants and populated by people from many walks of life and from varied racial and ethnic and national backgrounds. Many college graduates flock to cities, not only for their employment opportunities but also for their many activities and the sheer excitement of living in a metropolis. On the other hand, many U.S. cities are also filled with abject poverty, filthy and dilapidated housing, high crime rates, traffic gridlock, and dirty air. Many Americans would live nowhere but a city, and many would live anywhere but a city. Cities arouse strong opinions pro and con, and for good reason, because there are many things both to like and to dislike about cities.

Types of Urban Residents

The quality of city life depends on many factors, but one of the most important factors is a person's social background: social class, race/ethnicity, gender, age, and sexual orientation. As earlier chapters documented, these dimensions of our social backgrounds often yield many kinds of social inequalities, and the quality of life that city residents enjoy depends heavily on these dimensions. For example, residents who are white and wealthy have the money and access to enjoy the best that cities have to offer, while those who are poor and of color typically experience the worst aspects of city life. Because of fear of rape and sexual assault, women often feel more constrained than men from traveling freely throughout a city and being out late at night; older people also often feel more constrained because of physical limitations and fear of muggings; and gays and lesbians are still subject to physical assaults stemming from homophobia. The type of resident we are, then, in terms of our sociodemographic profile affects what we experience in the city and whether that experience is positive or negative.

This brief profile of city residents obscures other kinds of differences among residents regarding their lifestyles and experiences. A classic typology of urban dwellers by sociologist Herbert Gans (1962) is still useful today in helping to understand the variety of lives found in cities. Gans identified five types of city residents.

The first type is cosmopolites. These are people who live in a city because of its cultural attractions, restaurants, and other features of the best that a city has to offer. Cosmopolites include students, writers, musicians, and intellectuals. Unmarried and childless individuals and couples are the second type; they live in a city to be near their jobs and to enjoy the various kinds of entertainment found in most cities. If and when they marry or have children, respectively, many migrate to the suburbs to raise their families. The third type is ethnic villagers, who are recent immigrants and members of various ethnic groups who live among each other in certain neighborhoods. These neighborhoods tend to have strong social bonds and more generally a strong sense of community. Gans wrote that all of these three types generally find the city inviting rather than alienating and have positive experiences far more often than negative ones.

In contrast, two final types of residents find the city alienating and experience a low quality of life. The first of these two types, and the fourth overall, is the deprived. These are people with low levels of formal education who live in poverty or near-poverty and are unemployed, are underemployed, or work at low wages. They live in neighborhoods filled with trash, broken

windows, and other signs of disorder. They commit high rates of crime and also have high rates of victimization by crime. The final type is the trapped. These are residents who, as their name implies, might wish to leave their neighborhoods but are unable to do so for several reasons: they may be alcoholics or drug addicts, they may be elderly and disabled, or they may be jobless and cannot afford to move to a better area.

Problems of City Life

By definition, cities consist of very large numbers of people living in a relatively small amount of space. Some of these people have a good deal of money, but many people, and in some cities most people, have very little money. Cities must provide many kinds of services for all their residents, and certain additional services for their poorer residents. These basic facts of city life make for common sets of problems affecting cities throughout the nation, albeit to varying degrees, with some cities less able than others to address these problems.

Fiscal Problems

One evident problem is fiscal: cities typically have serious difficulties in paying for basic services such as policing, public education, trash removal, street maintenance, and, in cold climates, snow removal, and in providing certain services for their residents who are poor or disabled or who have other conditions. The fiscal difficulties that cities routinely face became even more serious with the onset of the nation's deep recession in 2009, as the term fiscal crisis became a more accurate description of the harsh financial realities that cities were now facing (McNichol, 2009).

Crowding

Another problem is crowding. Cities are crowded in at least two ways. The first involves residential crowding: large numbers of people living in a small amount of space. City streets are filled with apartment buildings, condominiums, row houses, and other types of housing, and many people live on any one city block. The second type of crowding is household crowding: dwelling units in cities are typically small because of lack of space, and much smaller than houses in suburbs or rural areas. This forces many people to live in close quarters within a particular dwelling unit. Either type of crowding is associated with higher levels of stress, depression, and aggression (Regoeczi, 2008).

Housing

A third problem involves housing. Here there are several related issues. Much urban housing is substandard and characterized by such problems as broken windows, malfunctioning heating systems, peeling paint, and insect infestation. At the same time, adequate housing is not affordable for many city residents, as housing prices in cities can be very high, and the residents' incomes are typically very low. Cities thus have a great need for adequate, affordable housing.

Another housing issue concerns racial segregation. Although federal law prohibits segregated housing, cities across the country are nonetheless highly segregated by race, with many neighborhoods all or mostly African American. Sociologists Douglas S. Massey and Nancy A. Denton (1998) termed this situation "American apartheid." They said that these segregated neighborhoods result from a combination of several factors, including (a) "white flight" into suburbs, (b) informal—and often illegal—racially discriminatory actions that make it difficult for African Americans to move into white neighborhoods (such as real estate agents falsely telling black couples that no houses are available in a particular neighborhood), and (c) a general lack of income and other resources that makes it very difficult for African Americans to move from segregated neighborhoods.

Massey and Denton argued that residential segregation worsens the general circumstances in which many urban African Americans live. Several reasons account for this effect. As whites flee to the suburbs, the people left behind are much poorer. The tax base of cities suffers accordingly, and along with it the quality of city schools, human services, and other social functions. All these problems help keep the crime rate high and perhaps even raise it further. Because segregated neighborhoods are poor and crime-ridden, businesses do not want to invest in them, and employment opportunities are meager. This fact worsens conditions in segregated neighborhoods even further. Consequently, concluded Massey and Denton, racial segregation helps perpetuate the urban "underclass" of people who live jobless in deep poverty and decaying neighborhoods.

URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT – BLOCK 1

Introduction

The 21st century is the Century of the City. Half of the world's population already lives in urban areas and by the middle of this century, most regions of the developing world will be predominantly urban. Urban growth rates are highest in the developing world, which absorbs an average of 5 million new urban residents every month and is responsible for 95 per cent of the world's urban population growth. Urban growth is as a result of a combination of factors: geographical location, natural population growth, rural-to-urban migration, infrastructure development, national policies, corporate strategies, and other major political, social and economic forces, including globalization. In the 1990s, cities in the developing world grew at an average annual rate of 2.5 per cent. More than half of the urban areas in the developing world grew at the high annual rate of between 2 and 4 per cent or more during this period, while more than one-third grew at the moderate or slow rate of less than 2 per cent a year. Although urban growth rates are slowing down in most regions of the developing world, levels of urbanization are expected to rise, with the least urbanized regions of Asia and Africa transforming from largely rural societies to predominantly urban regions during the course of this century. By 2050, the urban population of the developing world will be 5.3 billion; Asia alone will host 63 per cent of the world's urban population, or 3.3 billion people, while Africa, with an urban population of 1.2 billion, will host nearly a quarter of the world's urban population.

Classification of Urban Areas

Functionally, the urban areas may be classified into administrative, religious, military, commercial and cultural centres. Any particular city may fulfil any one of these functions or any

Combination thereof. Needless to say, such a classification simply emphasizes the origin of a particular town, therefore, such classification should not be treated as water tight since many

towns, once established, performed a variety of functions simultaneously. Nonetheless, this classification at least reflects the stress on the most pronounced character of a particular town in the process of its emergence and growth. At any rate, the sustenance and growth of a town depended largely on the multifarious activities it could perform in the long run.

A town is certainly a part of some realities and processes, certain repeated and regular characteristics. In most of the times, division of labour was one of the dominant features of a town. Market is an integral part of the town and no regional or national markets can be without the towns. The inhabitants of the city or town always get their food supply and other items of Consumption through the market, the town in other words generalises the market into a widespread phenomenon. Moreover the market provides the imperative dividing-line running through the middle of societies and economics. While describing the urban places, the Indian census records consistently employ population size to classify the urban area into six classes as shown below.

Class l with 1,00,000 and more population

Class ll with 50,000 to 99,999 population

Class lll with 20,000 …. 49,999 population

Class lV with 10,000 …. 19,999 population

Class V with 5,000 …. 9,000 population

Class Vl with less than …. 5,000 population

In India, urban places with less than 1,00,000 population are referred to as "towns", while urban places with 1,00,000 or more population are referred to as "cities". Urban centres with more than one million population are categorized as metropolitan cities. The metropolitan centres are a class by themselves characterised by large-scale consumption, and large quantum of inflow of people, goods, services and information

Town

It is very difficult to define a town on the basis of extent of area under habitation or large size of population or any one particular function because there is a lot of variations in size, population or the background of its rise and the nature of functions it performed. However, broadly speaking, the town generally was a human settlement bigger in area than a village (in general not always), having developed crafts, established markets and an administrative set up which was different from a rural settlement. Major segment of its population was engaged in professions other than agriculture and was dependent for its food supply and provisions on its hinterland of villages.

In the Census of India 2001, the definition of urban area adopted is as follows:

a) All places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.

b) A place satisfying the following three criteria simultaneously:

i) A minimum population of 5,000;

ii) At least 75 per cent of male working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits;

iii) A density of population of at least 400 per sq. km. (1,000 per sq. mile).

City

Cities become possible when an agricultural surplus develops together with improved means of transportation and tend to be located at breaks in transportation. The most significant current developments in city structure are the metropolitan area including the suburb which accounts for current population growth. The city pulls people from various corners towards its nucleus. The rural people faced with various economic problems are attracted by the city and start moving towards the cities. The city provides ample opportunities for personal advancement. It is the centre of brisk economic, commercial, artistic, literary, political, educational, technological, scientific and other activities. Cities are not only the controlling centers of their societies but also

the source of innovation and change. They act as the source of new ideas for production, the pace -setters for consumption, guardians of culture and conservers of order in society. Consensus and continuity in a society are maintained from the city centres. Urban culture has become the legitimation for control.

Walter Christaller explained the location of urban cities in terms of their functions as service centres.The basic assumption was that a given rural area supports an urban centre which in turn serves the surrounding countryside. There are smaller towns for smaller areas and bigger cities for larger regions. This concept permitted Christaller to build up an integrated system of cities according to their size.

His views conceiving a city as a central place within a rural area was elaborated by Edward L. Ullman with considerable modifications. He admits the vulnerability of the scheme for larger places. In highly industrialized areas the central place schemes is generally distorted by industrial concentration in response to resources and transportation that it may be said to have little significance as an explanation for urban location and distribution.

Hyot in his sector theory talked about the growth of cities taking place in sectors and these sectors extend from the centre to periphery.

The concentric zone theory given by Park and Burgess suggested that modern cities consisted of a series of concentric zones. There are five such zones

- ➢ Central business district
- ➢ Zone in transition
- ➢ Zone of working population
- ➢ Residential zone
- ➢ Commuter's zone

Gans and Lewis through compositional theory hold that the composition of a city's population differs from that of a small town in terms of factors such as class, education, ethnicity and marital status.

Multiple Nuclei theory given by Harris and Ullman discuss that there is not one centre but several centers for the city. Each of the centers tend to specialize in a particular kind of activity-retailing, wholesaling, finance, recreation, education, government. Several centers may have existed from the beginning of the city or many have developed later in a division from one centre.

According to Castells to understand cities and urbanism one has to understand the process by which spatial forms are created and transformed. The architecture of cities expresses the struggles and conflicts between different groups in society. City is not only a distinct location but also as an integral part of processes of collective consumption.

Towns with population of 1,00,000 and above are called cities.

Urban Agglomeration

Urban agglomeration is a continuous urban spread constituting a town and its adjoining urban outgrowths (OGs) or two or more physical contiguous town together and any adjoining urban out growths of such towns. Examples of out growths 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 atleast 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). With these two basic criteria

(R.G 2001) having been met the following are the possible different situations in which urban agglomerations could be constituted.

    i)   A city or town with one or more contiguous outgrowths;

    ii)   Two or more adjoining towns with or without their outgrowths;

    iii)   A city or one or more adjoining towns with their out growths all of which form a continuous spread

Metropolis

Metropolis is a big city, in most cases with over half a million inhabitants in the city proper, and with a population of at least one million living in its urban agglomeration. Big cities belonging to a larger urban agglomeration, but which are not the core of that agglomeration, are not generally considered a metropolis but a part of it. A metropolis is usually a significant economical, political and cultural center for some country or region, and an important hub for regional or international connections and communications. The plural of the word is most commonly metropolises, though metropoleis is sometimes used as well.

In India, the Census Commission defines a metropolitan city as one having a population of over 40 lakh (4 million). Mumbai, Delhi, Chennai, Kolkata, Bangalore, Hyderabad, and Ahmedabad are the seven cities that qualify. As defined in most countries, a metropolitan area is a central city taken together with its suburban areas and towns. These are often defined by criteria such as population density and commuting patterns. In India, such metropolitan areas are defined as Urban Agglomerations (UA).

Megalopolis

A Megalopolis (sometimes called a megapolis or megaregion) is defined as an extensive metropolitan area or a long chain of roughly continuous metropolitan areas. The term was used by Lewis Mumford in his 1938 book, The Culture of Cities, which described it as the first stage in urban overdevelopment and social decline. Later, it was used by Jean Gottmann in 1957, to

describe the huge metropolitan area along the Eastern seaboard of the U.S. extending from Boston, Massachusetts through New York City; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and ending in Washington, D.C.. A megalopolis is also frequently a megacity, megapolitan area, or a metropolitan area with a total population in excess of 10 million people.

- The National Capital Region of Delhi, Noida, and Gurgaon can be considered as a megalopolis with a population of about 1.2 crore (12 million).

- The industrial-IT hub between Mumbai and Navi Mumbai with a total population of around 1.6 crore (16 million) can also be considered a megalopolis.

- The Kolkata metropolitan region with a population of 1.4 crores (14 million)

- The Bengaluru-Hosur corridor with a population of 70 lakh (7 million) may soon be a megalopolis with the current rate of increase in population.

- The Hyderabad-Secunderabad stretch which is called is Greater Hyderabad is having the population of 10 million

RURAL URBAN CONTINUUM

The process of urbanisation has not been an isolated phenomenon. At present, along with the whole gamut of occupational diversification, spread of literacy, education, mass communication etc., continuity between rural and urban areas has increased. Urban jobs and other amenities of living have become status symbols in the rural areas. Many modern techniques of agricultural development and many of the institutional frameworks for rural development also generate from the urban centres. The large-scale commercialisation of agriculture has also been facilitated by the process of urbanisation.

Some sociologists have used the concept of rural-urban continuum to stress the idea that there are no sharp breaking points to be found in the degree or quantity of rural urban differences. Robert Redfield has given the concept of rural -urban continuum on the basis of his study of Mexican peasants of Tepoztlain. The rapid process of urbanization through the establishment of industries, urban traits and facilities have decreased the differences between villages and cities.

There are some sociologists whose treat rural-urban as dichotomous categories have differentiated the two at various levels including occupational differences, environmental differences, differences in the sizes of communities, differences in the density of population, differences in social mobility and direction of migration, differences in social stratification and in the systems of social interaction.

A third view regarding rural and urban communities has been given by Pocock who believe that both village and city are elements of the same civilization and hence neither rural urban dichotomy, nor continuum is meaningful. M.S.A. Rao points out in the Indian context that although both village and town formed part of the same civilization characterized by institution of kinship and caste system in pre-British India, there were certain specific institutional forms and organizational ways distinguishing social and cultural life in towns form that in village. Thus, according to Rao, Rural Urban continuum makes more sense.

Ghurye believes that urbanization is migration of people from village to city and the impact it has on the migrants and their families. MacIver remarks that though the communities are normally divided into rural and urban the line of demarcation is not always clear between these two types of communities. There is no sharp demarcation to tell where the city ends and country begins. Every village possesses some elements of the city and every city carries some features of the village. R.K Mukherjee prefers the continuum model by talking of the degree of urbanization as a useful conceptual tool for understanding rural-urban relations. P.A Sorokin and Zimmerman in 'Principles of Rural-Urban sociology have stated that the factors distinguishing rural from urban communities include occupation, size and density of population as well as mobility, differentiation and stratification.

In India, urbanisation along with westernisation and modernisation has furthered the process of rapid social change both in the rural and in the urban areas. One of the important results of urbanisation is the rural to urban migration. Migration has become a continuous process affecting the social, economic and cultural lives of the villagers widely. Rao (1974) distinguishes three different situation of urban impact in the rural areas. In the villages from where large number of people migrate to the far off cities, urban employment becomes a symbol of higher social prestige. Villages, which are located near the towns, receive influx of immigrant workers and face the problems of housing, marketing and social ordering. Lastly, in the process of the growth of metropolitan cities some villages become the rural-pockets in the city areas. Hence the villagers directly participate in the economic, political, social and cultural life of the city.

Srinivas pointed out that urbanisation in southern India has a caste component and that, it was the Brahmin who first left the village for the towns and took advantage of western education and modern professions. At the same time as they retained their ancestral lands they continued to be at the top of the rural socio-economic hierarchy. Again, in the urban areas they had a near monopoly of all non-manual posts. However, the anti-Brahmin movement and the economic depression of the nineteen thirties led to the migration of Brahmins from the south and rural areas to metropolitan cities. As a result of migration there has been a flow of urban money into the rural areas. Emigrants regularly send money to their native villages. Such money facilitates the dependants to clear off loans, build houses and educate children. The urban centres of India have become the centres of national and international linkages. At present, many cultural traits are diffused from cities to the rural areas. For example, dress patterns like pants, shirts, ties, skirts, jeans etc. diffuse from cities to the rural areas. Besides these, new thoughts, ideologies are also diffused from the cities to the rural areas due to increase in communication via radio, television, newspaper, computer, the Internet and telephone. The urbanism, which emerges in the cities gradually, reaches to the rural areas, depending on their proximity to the cities.

Urbanization

Urbanization, urbanisation or urban drift is the physical growth of urban areas as a result of global change. Urbanization is also defined by the United Nations as movement of people from rural to urban areas with population growth equating to urban migration. The United Nations projected that half of the world's population would live in urban areas at the end of 2008. Urbanization is closely linked to modernization, industrialization, and the sociological process of rationalization.

Urbanization can describe a specific condition at a set time, ie. The proportion of total population or area in cities or towns, or the term can describe the increase of this proportion over time. So the term urbanization can represent the level of urban relative to overall population, or it can represent the rate at which the urban proportion is increasing.

As more and more people leave villages and farms to live in cities, urban growth results. The rapid growth of cities like Chicago in the late 19th century and Mumbai a century later can be attributed largely to rural-urban migration. This kind of growth is especially commonplace in developing countries.

The rapid urbanization of the world's population over the twentieth century is described in the 2005 Revision of the UN World Urbanization Prospects report. The global proportion of urban population rose dramatically from 13% (220 million) in 1900, to 29% (732 million) in 1950, to 49% (3.2 billion) in 2005

According to the UN State of the World Population 2007 report, sometime in the middle of 2007, the majority of people worldwide will be living in towns or cities, for the first time in history; this is referred to as the arrival of the "Urban Millennium" or the 'tipping point'. In regard to future

trends, it is estimated 93% of urban growth will occur in developing nations, with 80% of urban growth occurring in Asia and Africa.

Urbanization rates vary between countries. The United States and United Kingdom have a far higher urbanization level than China, India, Swaziland or Niger, but a far slower annual urbanization rate, since much less of the population is living in a rural area.

Urbanization occurs naturally from individual and corporate efforts to reduce time and expense in commuting and transportation while improving opportunities for jobs, education, housing, and transportation. Living in cities permits individuals and families to take advantage of the opportunities of proximity, diversity, and marketplace competition.

People move into cities to seek economic opportunities. A major contributing factor is known as "rural flight". In rural areas, often on small family farms, it is difficult to improve one's standard of living beyond basic sustenance. Farm living is dependent on unpredictable environmental conditions, and in times of drought, flood or pestilence, survival becomes extremely problematic. In modern times, industrialization of agriculture has negatively affected the economy of small and middle-sized farms and strongly reduced the size of the rural labour market.

Cities, in contrast, are known to be places where money, services and wealth are centralized. Cities are where fortunes are made and where social mobility is possible. Businesses, which generate jobs and capital, are usually located in urban areas. Whether the source is trade or tourism, it is also through the cities that foreign money flows into a country. It is easy to see why someone living on a farm might wish to take their chance moving to the city and trying to make enough money to send back home to their struggling family.

There are better basic services as well as other specialist services that aren't found in rural areas. There are more job opportunities and a greater variety of jobs. Health is another major factor. People, especially the elderly are often forced to move to cities where there are doctors and hospitals that can cater for their health needs. Other factors include a greater variety of entertainment (restaurants, movie theaters, theme parks, etc) and a better quality of education,

namely universities. Due to their high populations, urban areas can also have much more diverse social communities allowing others to find people like them when they might not be able to in rural areas.

These conditions are heightened during times of change from a pre-industrial society to an industrial one. It is at this time that many new commercial enterprises are made possible, thus creating new jobs in cities. It is also a result of industrialization that farms become more mechanized, putting many labourers out of work. This is currently occurring fastest in India. Urbanization can be planned urbanization or organic. Planned urbanization, ie: planned community or the garden city movement, is based on an advance plan, which can be prepared for military, aesthetic, economic or urban design reasons. Examples can be seen in many ancient cities; although with exploration came the collision of nations, which meant that many invaded cities took on the desired planned characteristics of their occupiers. Many ancient organic cities experienced redevelopment for military and economic purposes, new roads carved through the cities, and new parcels of land were cordoned off serving various planned purposes giving cities distinctive geometric designs. UN agencies prefer to see urban infrastructure installed before urbanization occurs. Landscape planners are responsible for landscape infrastructure (public parks, sustainable urban drainage systems, greenways etc) which can be planned before urbanization takes place, or afterward to revitalize an area and create greater livability within a region.

Urban population has significantly increased in the post Independence period. For the forty years period from 1901 to 1941 the increase of urban population from 25.85 to 44.15 million has been quite modest compared to the 62.44 million of the next decade. There has been an increase of 115.05 million in urban population from 1941 to 1981. Note that 64.8 percent of this population has grown in the two decades between 1961 and 1981. Similarly the urban population has almost doubled in the decades 1971 (109.11 million) to 1991 (217.18 million). Spatial disparities have marked the Indian urban scenario. These disparities emerged mainly due to regional disparities, imbalanced population concentration and some times because of the change in the census definition of "urban areas". When towns get over-crowded by population, it may result in sub-urbanisation. Delhi is a typical example (among others) where suburbanization trend is taking place around it. Sub-urbanisation means urbanization of rural areas around the towns characterised by the following features:

a) A sharp increase in the 'urban (non-agricultural) uses' of land

b) Inclusion of surrounding areas of town within its municipal limits, and

c) Intensive communication of all types between town and its surrounding areas.

Urbanisation is a natural and inevitable consequence of economic development. Urbanisation accompanies economic development because economic development entails a massive shift of labour and other inputs from predominantly rural sectors to those predominantly urban. The National Commission on Urbanisation of India recognises the economic importance of the Indian cities and towns. It considers "urbanization as a catalyst for economic development and that the towns and cities despite their problems are for the millions and millions of our people the road to a better future".

In the process of urbanisation the towns and cities of India have achieved heterogeneous character in terms of ethnicity, caste, race, class and culture. In the urban areas there has always been coexistence of different cultures. Studies show that though various ethnic and/or caste groups have adjusted themselves with each other in the city, they have also tried to maintain their traditional identity. The migrants have maintained distinctive cultural traditions in the towns. Various migrant groups have maintained their own cultural identity.

Urbanism

Louis Wirth developed the first urban theory in US. He defined the city as large area, dense with permanent settlement and socially and culturally heterogeneous people, and so urbanism was a function of population density, size and heterogeneity:

1)   Population size: creates great diversity because large numbers of people coming together logically increase potential differentiation among themselves, and with migration of diverse groups to city; creates need for formal control structures, e.g. legal systems; supports proliferation of further complex division of labour specialization; organizes human relationships on interest-specific basis, i.e. "social segmentalization", where secondary relationships are primary, in essence urban ties are relationships of utility; creates possibility of disorganization and disintegration.

2)   Population density: intensifies effects of large population size on social life; manifests quality of separateness, e.g. economic forces and social processes produce readily identifiable distinct neighbourhood, "ecological specialization"; fosters a loss of sensitivity to more personal aspects of others, instead tendency to stereotype and categorize; results in greater tolerance of difference but at same time physical closeness increases social distance; may increase antisocial behavior.

3)   Population heterogeneity: with social interaction among many personality types results in breakdown of the rigidity of caste lines and complicates class structure, thus increased social mobility; with social mobility tend to have physical mobility; leads

to further depersonalization with concentration of diverse people.

URBAN DEVELOPMENT

The unplanned and uncontrolled growth of large cities has had negative effects on urban dwellers and their environment. The provision of infrastructure and services required for large and concentrated populations lags far behind the pace of urbanisation. Consequently, the urban environment, particularly in large cities, is deteriorating rapidly. Cities and towns are facing serious shortages of power, water, sewerage, developed land, housing, transportation, communication, and other facilities.

Urban development focuses on improving the infrastructure and living conditions in urban areas by adopting several strategies, mainly by the Government. It involves the following areas of intervention.

Urban Planning: periodically updating Master Plans and Zoning Plans which should, inter- alia adequately provide for housing and basic services for the urban poor. Promoting balanced urban-rural planning by following the Regional Planning Approach.

Housing: Accelerating the pace of development of housing and related infrastructure. Creating adequate housing stock both on rental and ownership basis with special emphasis on improving the affordability of the vulnerable and economically weaker sections of society through appropriate capital or interest subsidies.

Land: Facilitating accessibility to serviced land and housing and suitable restructuring for enabling both institutions at the State and Centre levels as well as the private sector for increasing supply of land.

Healthy Environment: Developing cities/towns in a manner which promotes a healthy environment, encouraging use of renewable energy resources and ensuring effective solid waste management. Protecting cultural heritage and architecture as well as promoting traditional skills with suitable adaptation to modern technologies.

Sustainable urban development specifically means achieving a balance between the development of the urban areas and protection of the environment with an eye to equity in employment, shelter, basic services, social infrastructure and transportation in the urban areas. With rapid expansion of urban population around the world there has arisen a wide awareness about minimizing the environmental costs of urbanization. Concerns are raised at environmental damages and depletion of nonrenewable resources and rising levels of pollution in urban areas. In recent times cities have become places of urban environmental degradation and wasteful use of resources, which is proving to be costly to generations present and future. In order to mitigate the problem we require to minimizing the depletion of non-renewable resources and resort to environmentally sustainable economic development. But this has to be done in ways that are socially, economically and politically acceptable. While planning for sustainable development of the towns, we should also take into account the factor of climate change. According to this, ensuring environmental sustainability means taking steps, which include a) integration of the principles of sustainable development in the policies and programmes of the country, b) reversal of loss of environmental resources, c) reduction of the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water, d) improving the lives of slum dwellers.

Urban Community Development

The term community development has come into international usage to connote the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, into the life

of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress. Urban community development aims to organize and stimulate community leadership to handle problems on a mutual aid and self help basis.

Urban community development means the working together of two factors the collective initiative of families living in the same neighborhood and support of their effort through services rendered to them by a higher level of government. It means integrating the organized popular effort and governmental services for the improvement of conditions in the urban neighborhood. Urban community development is a strategy of intervention to combat urban problems through citizen's participation. It is a process by which the city dwellers can become more competent to live with and gain some control over local aspects of a frustrating and fast changing world. It aims to arouse and organize among urban dwellers recognition of the need for self help, a wider participation in civic affairs and the more effective use of civic amenities.

Objectives of Urban Community Development:

1. Creating a sense of social coherence on a neighborhood basic through corporate civic action and promoting sense of national integration.

2. Developing a sense of belonging to the urban community through increased participation of people in community affairs and creating a way of thinking which concentrates first on solving problems with their own initiative, organization, self help and mutual aid.

3. Bringing about a change in attitudes by creating civic consciousness and by motivating people to improve their conditions of life particularly those affecting social and physical environment.

4. Developing local initiative and identifying and training of local leaders and

5. Ensuring fuller utilization of technical and welfare services by helping the community to locate what help can be had from the municipality or other organizations and how to get it; and what assistance and guidance can be obtained from governmental and higher authorities and how to approach them.

Unit.4

Urban social problems

While urban areas provide opportunities for socio-economic development for its residents, they are also characterized by several problems and specific issues. The development that is supposed to improve quality of life appears to be double edged sword as it leaves in its wake serious problems that affect a large number of marginalized communities. As various infrastructure development projects are implemented in cities, they give rise to displacement of people. Chennai as well as other major metropolitan cities have also witnessed eviction of slum dwellers as a part of city beautification programmes. The high cost of land prevents migrants to the city from acquiring decent housing and hence they begin to reside on pavements. The city also is home to street families and children who live and work on the streets. Domestic employment of children as laborers is witnessed in cities. Conditions in urban areas are also conducive to the growth of vices such as beggary and prostitution. The large size of the urban population and density of population gives rise to pollution and challenges in solid

waste management. The infrastructure such as roads and transportation and water supply are also overburdened and frequently break down. Similarly, disasters can have a multiplier effect in urban areas as they are likely to affect a large number of persons. This block examines the above issues and outlines the government and NGO measures in addressing these problems.

MARGINALIZED GROUPS IN URBAN CENTRES

Urban displaced/evicted

The majority of the world's population already lives in towns and cities – with nearly 1.5 billion people living in precarious informal and slum settlements. Climate change and the natural disasters linked to it, rising global food crises and higher costs of living, and the proliferation of hostilities and complex emergencies are global trends. They incite the movement of millions of people to new urban locations from rural areas or other cities, and are causing the issue of urban displacement to come to the forefront of both our humanitarian and development efforts.

Urban displacement has emerged as a new dimension to the challenges we face in meeting the humanitarian needs of IDPs and refugees. Besides disrupting the family life of the displaced and the social fabric of communities, the movement of people to non-camp, urban settings is further exacerbating the

vulnerability of the already resident urban poor. The arrival of new IDPs and refugees further stresses already inadequate water and sanitation infrastructure, shelter and access to land. Competition for resources and livelihoods among the urban displaced and host populations increases social tension and can result in new conflict.

The arrival of displaced people in a city or town may not only generate problems for the city but also jeopardise its ability to plan for its future. Overcrowding, use of space and amenities for living that should be available for education or recreation, for example, and uncontrolled urban sprawl are a drain and a burden on the ability of a city and its residents to see that conditions improve or at least do not deteriorate. Poorer cities undoubtedly are more vulnerable to this than wealthier ones.

Development-induced displacement is the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purposes of economic development. It is a subset of forced migration. It has been historically associated with the construction of dams for hydroelectric power and irrigation purposes but also appears due to many other activities, such as mining and the creation of military installations, airports, industrial plants, weapon testing grounds, railways, road developments, urbanization, conservation projects, forestry, etc. Development-induced displacement is a social problem affecting multiple levels of human organization, from tribal and village communities to well-developed urban areas.

Development-induced displacement or the forced migration in the name of development is affecting more and more people as countries move from developing to developed nations. The people that face such migration are often helpless, suppressed by the power and laws of nations.

The lack of rehabilitation policies for migrants means that they are often compensated only monetarily – without proper mechanisms for addressing their grievances or political support to improve their livelihoods.

Displaced people often internalize a sense of helplessness and powerlessness because of their encounter with the powerful external world, although there are also several examples of active resistance movements against development-induced displacement. In every category, particularly among marginalized groups, women are the worst hit and pay the highest price of development. A study carried out by the national commission for women in India (NCW) on the impact of displacement on women reveals that violence against women is increased. An increase in alcoholism due to displacement has led to a marked rise in domestic violence in India. Displacement has made men feel helpless or insecure and turned women and children into scapegoats. Displacement also leads to deterioration in health and high mortality rates as services in those selected areas are the first to be cut. The nutrition and health of women, which is worse than that of men even under normal circumstances, is bound to go down in the event of an overall worsening in health caused by displacement.

Although the 2007 National Policy for Rehabilitation and Resettlement lays down the principle of 'minimising displacement' there have been no visible attempts to implement it. The policy fails to examine the process of displacement, which is taken for granted. The draft makes no attempt to question the need for displacement in the first place, or to seek out and actively promote non-displacing or least-displacing alternatives. Minimising displacement does not mean simply altering the size of the project; it implies questioning the choice of technology, whether the project is needed at all, and whether the subsequent displacement of people can be avoided.

Pavement Dwellers

The census of India defines homeless population as persons who are not living in census houses. A census house is referred to a structure with a roof. The homeless population is likely to live in areas such as on pavements, pipes, under stair cases or in the open, temple mandapams and platforms. Homeless is the condition and social category of people who lack housing as they cannot afford or/are unable to maintain a regular safe and adequate shelter.

All major cities of India have huge number of pavement dwellers. In Delhi alone 1000000 people are pavement dwellers. Though Delhi government claims to offer Rain shelters to the homeless, this could accommodate only 6000 and that too only during the winter season. It's true that pavement dwellers need shelter during winters desperately than other season, but during monsoon their situation becomes pathetic. Many homeless die every year because of chilling cold.

The factors contributing to pavement dwelling include structural problems such as lack of affordable housing, changes in the industrial economy leading to unemployment, inadequate income supports, the deinstitutionalization of patients with mental health problems and the erosion of social and family support. Factors related to the individual are physical or mental illness, disability, substance abuse, domestic violence and job loss. Extreme poverty topped the list of reasons for why people come to the streets with the highest being 73 % in Chennai. One research study has reported strong ties with families back home in the villages. Many pavement dwellers interviewed choose the street because paying a rent would mean no savings and therefore no money to send back home and hence the street was the only option for them.

In an attempt to explain survival on the pavement through the seasons, it is noticed that the most disagreeable season for pavement dwellers were the monsoons followed closely by winter.

The majority of the pavement dwellers survive through unprotected, uncertain and hard labour through a range of occupation like daily wage work, constructuion labour, pulling rickshaws, carrying and pushing loads, domestic work and street vending. A small number also earn as professional blood donors and commercial sex workers. Most children and single women were observed as heading household awhile the aged and disabled people lived mainly by begging. Work in itself is not assured on a regular basis; the figures for Delhi are 70 % followed by 61% in Chennai and 59 % in Patna. Only in Madurai, where begging is the dominant occupation did 90 % of the pavement dwellers report regular earning.

The urban homeless have little and troubles access to the most elementary public services – every visit to the toilet, every bath has to be paid for in cash and immediately. The number of homeless using such facilities is thus low leaving them vulnerable to disease. Drinking water while not potable and erratic in supply is still freely available at roadside taps.

The quantities of food may sometimes, though not always be sufficient, the quality tends to be rather monotonous, very elementary and of poor nutritional value and unhygienic. Except those with families on the streets, they rarely get home cooked food. However a large portion of their income is spent on food varying from 50 – 90 %.

The relationship between the pavement dwellers and the State was one of mutual acrimony and distrust. This was especially seen in Delhi where police and civil officials believe that pavement dwellers give the city a bad name. Most pavement dweller sin cities, are widely seen by authorities as people with no rights, as undeserving poor who choose to live on the street even though job are widely available. In addition, they are widely perceived to be criminals. The laws that criminalize the urban homeless include laws against vagrancy and begging.

In its attempt to examine the psychology of the street by looking at the coping strategies use by the homeless to deal with loneliness and social isolation, the researchers pint out the ,majority of people in all cities, and across all ages and gender, find solace in drugs or intoxication. The most common being thinners freely available from stationery shops followed by smack. At an emotional level, the homeless try a variety of coping strategies. If they are with their families, on the street, then these families form a mutual protective bond of support. Where families are not immediately available, close ties are maintained with families in the villages. In case no other is available, and this is true especially in the case of teenagers or the aged, a number of interesting social bonds are developed. Many adopt relatives where the aged on the street are looked after by younger people as in another case an old woman was taken care of by a young widow ad a pseudo-mother –daughter bond was formed. More often in the case of teenagers, especially street boys, gangs are formed sharing everything- food, cloths, intoxicants, sleeping under the same sheets and even teaching each other trades.

National Agenda of Governance (India) has identified housing for all, both in urban and rural sectors, as a priority area with particular emphasis on the needs of the vulnerable groups. Although shelters or housing for the economically weaker sections, low income groups, slum dwellers and shelter less may be a common concern in both these sectors alike, the problems of the pavement dwellers are more acutely pronounce din the urban sector, particularly in the wake of large scale migration and the phenomena of rural, urban transition.

Street Children

Street children is a term used to refer to children who live on the streets of a city, deprived of family care and protection. Most children on the streets are between the ages of about 5 and 17 years old, and their population between different cities is varied. Street children live in junk boxes, parks or on the street itself. A great deal has been written defining street children, but the primary difficulty is that there are no precise categories, but rather a continuum, ranging from children who spend some time in the streets and sleep in a house with ill-

prepared adults, to those who live entirely in the streets and have no adult supervision or care.

A widely accepted set of definitions, commonly attributed to Amnesty International, divides street children into two main categories:

1. Children on the street are those engaged in some kind of economic activity ranging from begging to vending. Most go home at the end of the day and contribute their earnings to their family. They may be attending school and retain a sense of belonging to a family. Because of the economic fragility of the family, these children may eventually opt for a permanent life on the streets.

2. Children of the street actually live on the street (or outside of a normal family environment). Family ties may exist but are tenuous and are maintained only casually or occasionally.

Street children exist in many major cities, especially in developing countries, and may be subject to abuse, neglect, exploitation, or even, in extreme cases, murder by "cleanup squads" hired by local businesses or police. Estimates vary but one often cited figure is that the number of children living independently in the streets totals between 100 million and 150 million worldwide. In 1989, UNICEF estimated 100 million children were growing up on urban streets around the world. 14 years later UNICEF reported: 'The latest estimates put the numbers of these children as high as 100 million'. And even more recently: 'The exact number of street children is impossible to quantify, but the figure almost certainly runs into tens of millions across the world. It is likely that the numbers are increasing'. The 100 million figure is still commonly cited, but has no basis in fact.

Children may end up on the streets for several basic reasons: They may have no choice – they are abandoned, orphaned, or disowned by their parents. Secondly, they may choose to live in the streets because of mistreatment or neglect or because their homes do not or cannot provide them with basic necessities. Many children also work in the streets because their earnings are needed by their families. But homes and families are part of the larger society and the underlying reasons for the poverty or breakdown of homes and families may be social, economic, political or environmental or any combination of these.

In a 1993 report, WHO offered the following list of causes for the phenomenon:

- Family breakdown
- Armed conflict
- Poverty
- Natural and man-made disasters
- Famine
- Physical and sexual abuse
- Exploitation by adults
- Dislocation through migration
- Urbanization and overcrowding
- Acculturation
- Disinheritance or being disowned

India is home to the world's largest population of street children, estimated at 18 million. The Republic of India is the seventh largest and second most populous country in the world. With acceleration in economic growth, India has become

one of the fastest growing developing countries. This has created a rift between poor and rich; 22 percent of the population lives below the income poverty line. Owing to unemployment, increasing rural-urban migration, attraction of city life and a lack of political will, India now has one of the largest numbers of child laborers in the world.

Street children are subject to malnutrition, hunger, health problems, substance abuse, theft, commercial sexual exploitation of children, harassment by the city police and railway authorities, as well as physical and sexual abuse, although the Government of India has taken some corrective measures and declared child labor illegal.

Trafficked Women and Children

Trafficking in Women and Children is the gravest form of abuse and exploitation of human beings. Thousands of Indians are trafficked every day to some destination or the other and are forced to lead lives of slavery. They survive in brothels, factories, guesthouses, dance bars, farms and even in the homes of well-off Indians, with no control over their bodies and lives.

The Indian Constitution specifically bans the traffic in persons. Article 23, in the Fundamental Rights section of the constitution, prohibits "traffic in human beings and other similar forms of forced labor". Though there is no concrete definition of trafficking, it could be said that trafficking necessarily involves movement /transportation, of a person by means of coercion or deceit, and consequent exploitation leading to commercialization. The abusers, including the traffickers, the recruiters, the transporters, the sellers, the buyers, the end-users etc., exploit the vulnerability of the trafficked person. Trafficking shows phenomenal increase with globalization. Increasing profit with little or no risk, organized activities, low priority in law enforcement etc., aggravate the situation. The income generated

by trafficking is comparable to the money generated through trafficking in arms and drugs.

Trafficking in human beings take place for the purpose of exploitation which in general could be categorized as (a) Sex -based and (b) Non-Sex-based. The former category includes trafficking for prostitution, Commercial sexual abuse, Pedophilia, Pornography, Cybersex, and different types of disguised sexual exploitation that take place in some of the massage parlors, beauty parlors, bars, and other manifestations like call girl racket, friends clubs, etc. Non sex based trafficking could be for different types of servitude, like domestic labor, industrial labor, adoption, organ transplant, camel racing marriage related rackets etc. But the growing traffic in women is principally for the purpose of prostitution. Prostitution is an international problem which can be found in both developing and industrialized nations. Unfortunately, society remains tolerant of this abominable crime against women. There are ways of getting women into prostitution that are common to many countries; then there are particular methods unique to a country. Probably the three most common methods are false employment promises, false marriages and kidnapping. But what makes women and girls vulnerable are economic distress, desertion by their spouses, sexually exploitative social customs and family traditions.

In a recent survey in India, prostituted women cited the following reasons for their remaining in the trade, reasons that have been echoed in all concerned countries. In descending order of significance, they are: poverty and unemployment; lack of proper reintegration services, lack of options; stigma and adverse social attitudes; family expectations and pressure; resignation and acclimatization to the lifestyle. A dysfunctional home environment ⏤ break-up of the family, marital discord, physical abuse, sexual abuse, drug use, family pressures, large families, families facing uncertain times, children in substitute care, gender discrimination within the family, desertion by husbands, husbands' acquiring a second or a third wife ⏤

makes people vulnerable to trafficking. Studies by CSWB and others have shown that most trafficked women were unmarried, divorced, separated or widowed. Environments lacking livelihood options or economic opportunities, with the accompanying pressures to work and earn, make peoples' lives on ongoing 'battle for survival'. The structural factors influencing and determining these circumstances are listed as industrialization and globalization, economic crises, decline, disruption or underdevelopment; economic policies like privatisation, liberalisation, promotion of sex tourism, withdrawal of subsidies and commercialisation of agriculture; the consequent erosion of subsistence agricultural practices, loss of traditional livelihoods and inflation. Labour demand and policies also influence vulnerability. In a global market, women and girls are increasingly being hired as service providers, which put them at risk.

The population of women and children in sex work in India is stated to be between 70,000 and 1 million. Of these, 30 per cent are 20 years of age. Nearly 15 per cent began sex work when they were below 15, and 25 per cent entered between 15 and 18 years. A news item published in Statesman (12 August 2002) states that roughly 2 million children are abused and forced into prostitution every year in India. A rough estimate prepared by an NGO called End Children's Prostitution in Asian Tourism reveals that there are around 2 million prostitutes in India; 20 per cent among them are minors. A study conducted in 1992 estimates that any one time, 20,000 girls are being transported from one part of the country to another.

The modus operandi of traffickers includes luring their victims by means of attractive promises such as high-paying jobs, glamorous employment options, prosperity, and sometimes fraudulent marriages. Parents and other family members are fooled or otherwise blinded by false promises and deception. It has been widely perceived that in many cases family members and other relatives play an important role in recruitment by colluding with the traffickers for which they may receive payment. In Nepal this is particularly prevalent in regions where

girls have traditionally been sent knowingly by families as entertainers or CSWs, which is perceived as an important source of income for the families. Along the borders between Bangladesh and India, and Nepal and India, the enforcement officers and checkpoints are few in numbers and widely dispersed. Thus it is hard to maintain strict vigilance of who is crossing the border. Border security forces are well aware of the problems of illegal/irregular migrants and trafficking, but do not have facilities or resources to quickly distinguish between different types of migrants.

Trafficked persons are usually afraid to admit to their circumstances or are confused, and interviewers may require skillful questioning that takes time to uncover the extent of coercion or deceit involved in each individual circumstance. Enforcement officers sometimes resort to pushing back at night irregular or illegal migrants picked up during the day without distinguishing between trafficked persons and illegal migrants. Although the State is aware of loopholes in the border, systems are unable to adequately address the problem due to institutional, political, and international influences. Those who have been trafficked remain at risk of being found again by the traffickers and sent back across the border, and are generally unable to return home anyway.

Trafficked persons are reportedly traumatised by their experiences. Depression and suicidal thoughts are commonly reported. The mental and emotional state of the survivors may include malevolence, helplessness and withdrawal; disassociation; self-blame and identification with the aggressor; distraction; a foreshortened view of time; normalisation and shaping, whereby the victims convince themselves that their experiences had to happen instead of viewing them as traumatic. Some of the psychiatric disorders among survivors of trafficking are listed as posttraumatic stress disorder, depressive disorder, dissociative disorders, psychotic disorders and eating disorders.

Domestic Child Labour

Child domestic labour (CDL) is culturally accepted and widely prevalent in India. The classification of CDL applies to children who are engaged to perform domestic tasks in the home of a third party or employer and not their family. As defined in the International Labour Organization (ILO) Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (No. 182), 1999, where child domestic labour is exploitative and includes trafficking, slavery, or practices similar to slavery, or work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is hazardous and likely to harm the health, safety, or morals of the child, it constitutes a worst form of child labour.

Despite legislation, child labour continues to flourish in both rural and urban India. On October 16, 2006 two important notifications to the existing Child Labour Prohibition (And Regulation) Act 1986 came into effect. The notifications ban the employment of children below the age of 14 as domestic servants and in the hospitality trade such as in roadside dhabas, restaurants, hotels, motels and spas. Two decades after a nationwide ban on child labour in hazardous industries was introduced, over 12 million Indian children, aged between 5 and 14, continue to work in dangerous occupations like construction, and the manufacture of beedis (an indigenous cigarette in which tobacco is rolled in a tendu leaf), bangles and fireworks. Based on the 2001 census, 252,000 children are engaged in beedi manufacturing and 208,833 in the construction sector. An estimated 185,595 children are employed as domestic help and in dhabas (small roadside eateries); 49,893 children work in auto-repair workshops.

While child rights activists in India say the notifications are an important step in the battle to stop child labour, the major concern is that the government is still not doing enough to provide alternative options for families that depend on

income from their children. Besides, the ban does not address the reasons that compel children to work: poverty, family debts, marginalization, and migration of their parents. NGOs are demanding that the ban be extended to include all children below the age of 18. It is estimated that 74 percent of child domestic workers in India are between the ages of 12 and 16.

There is also a need to change the mindsets of people who traditionally employ young children, typically the middle-class and the affluent. The widely prevalent notion that it is actually benevolent to employ children in households and thereby provide them shelter, food and clothing. The long-term harm done to them in terms of denying them opportunities to go to school and develop their own capabilities and eventually contribute as citizens is generally overlooked. In actual fact, a majority of domestic working children work long hours for low wages and are exploited and abused physically and mentally.

According to a recent Ministry of Labour press release (09.05.07), 2,229 violations of the recent notification banning employment of children under 14 as domestic help and in hospitality sector were detected. 38,818 inspections were carried out by some State Governments from whom reports were received and 211 prosecutions were filed. The Government of India has been implementing a successful programme, the National Child Labour Project (NCLP) since 1988 where in 7,328 special schools were opened for the children withdrawn from work.

The National Child Labour Project scheme is implemented in 250 districts of 20 states of the country. Under the Scheme, children withdrawn from work are provided education, nutrition, vocational training, stipend and health care etc. and are finally mainstreamed to regular education system. The highest number of 1,651 schools opened so far under the National Child Labour Project Scheme

State-wise is in Orissa followed by 1,347 in Uttar Pradesh and 1,126 in Andhra Pradesh. The project is targeted at children working in the unorganized sector such as construction sites, carpet weaving, brick-making and other labour-intensive industries.

Beggary

Associated with the problems of poverty and unemployment is the problem of beggary which is a social problem of great magnitude and grave concern in developing countries. Begging is a problem for society in as much as a large number of beggars means non utilization of available human resources and drag upon the existing resources of the society. According to a survey by Delhi School of Social Work there has been a phenomenal increase in the numbers of beggars in India. In a decade since 1991 their number has gone up by a lakh. There are some 60,000 beggars in Delhi, over 3, 00,000 in Mumbai according to a 2004 Action Aid report; nearly 75000 in Kolkata says the Beggar Research Institute; 56000 in Bangalore according to police records. In Hyderabad one in every 354 people is engaged in begging according to Council of Human Welfare in 2005.

It is common to find beggars at rubbish dumbs, road sides, and traffic lights and under flyovers. The frail, crippled and mentally ill share space with children, women and able bodied men. The line that separates beggars from the casual poor is getting slimmer in a country where one in every four goes to bed hungry every night and 78 million are homeless. Over 71% of Delhi's beggars are driven by poverty. More than 66% beggars are able -bodied. The survey reveals that begging as a livelihood wins over casual labour. For 96% the average daily income is Rs 80 more than what daily wage earners can make. Spending patterns also reveals a unique pattern: 27% beggars spend Rs 50-100 a day.

Mumbai is home to majority of beggars. According to the Maharashtra Government they are worth Rs. 180 crore a year with daily income ranging between Rs 20-80.Almost every survey profiles beggars as a largely contented lot unwilling to take up honest labour. Nearly 26% in the DSSW survey claimed they were happy.81% claimed that they do not face any problem during begging and only 15% mentioned humiliation from public and police. A survey done in 2004 by the Social Development Centre of Mumbai revealed similar attitude. The majority of beggars see it as a profitable and viable profession.

However study published in the International Journal of Psychological Rehabilitation by Dr Yogesh Thakker reveals that 39% of the 49 beggars surveyed in Gujarat's Baroda district by a group of medicos suffer from one or other psychiatric illness. Nearly 74% of them had a history of addiction, psychiatric illness in the family and poor attitude of family members towards them. Over 68% admitted to feeling of shame and losing self-esteem, 25% to guilt, 4% to suicidal tendencies and 8% to anti-social activities.

There is no proper enumeration of beggars in the country. According to United Nations estimates, about 40% of the population as around 150 million live under poverty line and forceable to do begging. As per the latest estimates available for the year 1999-2001, Jammu and Kashmir has the lowest percentage of people living below the poverty line (3.48%) and Orissa has the highest percentage of people living below the poverty line (47.15%).

Moreover the number of women and children is ever increasing. The 1931 census mentioned just 16% women beggars. The figure shot up to 49% in 2001.There are 10 million street children many among who beg for livelihood.

The biggest problem lies in the changing attitude towards beggars. According to Mr Upendra Baxi former vice-chancellor traditionally begging has been an accepted way of life in India. Giving alms to the needy was built into the social fabric. That changed with the colonial rule. To the Victorians beggary embodied laziness and moral degeneration. Colonial laws held a beggar punishable for his condition. The newly independent nation imbibed this attitude towards poverty. In the new millennium the Government doesn't want them lying around middle class regards them as a nuisance.

India's beggary laws are a throwback to the centuries old European vagrancy laws which instead of addressing the socio-economic issues make the poor criminally responsible for their position. The definition of beggar in law states as anyone who appears poor. The anti-beggar legislation is aimed at removing the poor from the face of the city. The beggars who have spent years on the street find it very difficult to live in confined space. There are provisions for vocational training in the government run beggar homes. But these are worse than the third rate jails where convicts can spend up to 10 years.

India as a nation needs to think for its begging population. With the nation aspiring to achieve world standards in every field socio-economic measures are needed to curb the begging problem in India. The solution calls for a comprehensive programme and reorientation of the existing programmes. Philanthropic approach to beggar problem should be replaced by therapeutic and rehabilitative work.

Prostitution

India is a receiving, sending, and transit country for prostitution. Due to its geographical proximity to Nepal and Bangladesh as well as Pakistan, all of which are economically less developed than India, the constant illegal movement of people is a perpetual phenomenon. Every day, about 200 girls and women in India enter prostitution, 80% of them against their will. Prostitution is widely rampant in India and its main markets are in the big cities. The statistics available on the number of prostitutes operating in the country is not exact because there is so much of clandestine prostitution, in spite of such undetected prostitution the situation is horrifying. A very accurate, comprehensive picture of prostitution in India is not available since sexual exploitation and sale of women and children are mostly unreported crimes; since many cruel episodes are caused by middlemen and procurers who act secretly and in a very organized, criminal manner. However, some intensive project studies and research work reveal following facts: According to a recent publication on trafficking, (The Coalition against Trafficking in Women – Asia Pacific. www.catwinternational.org) there are about 2.3 million prostitutes in India. This data may seem to be on the higher side but authentic data of a survey of Bombay (Mumbai) city alone indicates an alarming figure of more than 0.1 million prostitutes in its 12000 brothels. Approximately 20% women in prostitution are under 18. A sample survey of 12 states and 2 union territories reveals that women who are sexually exploited and sold are usually children (under 18 years) at the time of their initial exploitation or abduction.

Prostitution is increasing in India where there have been fears over the spread of AIDS and reports of young girls being abducted and forced into prostitution (Reuters, 1998). It takes up to fifteen years for girls held in prostitution via debt-bondage to purchase their freedom (Freidman, 1996). Children of prostituted women are victims of sexual abuse as well. Children are forced to perform dances and songs for male buyers, and some are forced to sexually service the males (Menon, 1997).There are three routes into prostitution for most women in India. 1) Deception; 2) Devadasi dedication and 3) Bad marriages or families. For some

women their marriages were so violent they preferred prostitution. Husbands or families introduced some women to prostitution. Many families knew what the women had to do, but ignored it as long as they got the benefits from it (Karkal, 1997).

According to Human Rights Watch, there are approximately 15 million prostitutes in India. There are more than 100,000 women in prostitution in Bombay, Asia's largest sex industry center. Girls in prostitution in India, Pakistan and the Middle East are tortured, held in virtual imprisonment, sexually abused, and raped. Girl prostitutes are primarily located in low-middle income areas and business districts and are known by officials. Brothel keepers regularly recruit young girls. Girl prostitutes are grouped as common prostitutes, singers and dancers, call girls, religious prostitutes or devdasi, and caged brothel prostitutes. Districts bordering Maharashtra and Karnataka, known as the "devadasi belt," have trafficking structures operating at various levels. The women here are in prostitution either because their husbands deserted them, or they are trafficked through coercion and deception. Many are devadasi dedicated into prostitution for the goddess Yellamma.

A survey of prostituted women in India reveals their reasoning for staying in prostitution (in descending order of significance): poverty/ unemployment; lack of proper reintegration services, lack of options; stigma and adverse social attitudes; family expectations and pressure; resignation and acclimation to the lifestyle. (CATW – Asia Pacific, Trafficking in Women and Prostitution in the Asia Pacific). Most of the research done by Sanlaap (an NGO) indicates that the majority of sex workers in India work as prostitutes due to lacking resources to support themselves or their children. Most do not choose this profession out of preference, but out of necessity, often after the breakup of a marriage or after being disowned and thrown out of their homes by their families. The children of

sex workers are much more likely to get involved in this kind of work as well (Wikipedia contributers, 2006).

An oft-repeated cause of prostitution is poverty. But poverty is only one of the reasons. The helplessness of women forces them to sell their bodies. Many girls from villages are trapped for the trade in the pretext of love and elope from home only to find themselves sold in the city to pimps who take money from the women as commission. The other causes of prostitution include ill treatment by parents, bad company, family prostitutes, social customs, inability to arrange marriage, lack of sex education, media, prior incest and rape, early marriage and desertion, lack of recreational facilities, ignorance, and acceptance of prostitution. Economic causes include poverty and economic distress. Psychological causes include desire for physical pleasure, greed, and dejection.

Globalization, professionalisation of trafficking syndicates, feminization of poverty and rise in sex tourism – all have contributed to an increase in prostitution. This problem is further compounded because of two factors: linkages of trafficking with the spread of HIV/AIDS and the clandestine nature of the activity. Studies now show that while women of all ages are more vulnerable to the infection than men, young girls are even more at risk because their genital tracts are immature. In addition, they have absolutely no control over sexual relations and sexual health. So a physical vulnerability is compounded by gender vulnerability. The study done in 13 districts of Uttar Pradesh shows that in a sample of 1,341 sex workers, brothel-based prostitution was 793 and family-based prostitution came close at 548. Since prostitution is not legal, the police can arrest sex workers at any time.

The police, whose main function is to protect and serve, turn out to be robbers stealing the little money that these workers "earn." Interventions are increasingly based on issues like combating stigma related to HIV/AIDS, developing

empowering strategies for victims and involving communities in the rehabilitation of rescued women and girls. But there is a lot that still needs to be done. Involvement of communities is of the greatest significance here since it has been seen that their families and communities do not accept rescued women and girls. The situation becomes worse if someone tests positive for HIV because she is immediately labeled a prostitute – a perception that creates a complex situation in the rehabilitation programmes. Even if trafficked returnees can avoid such treatment, they have few options for survival. What is needed is a multi-pronged strategy which can help in curbing trafficking and empowering communities and which also has scope for rescue and rehabilitation processes.

SPECIAL ISSUES

Pollution

It is basically the collection of pollutants created by cities, the number and dangerousness of these pollutants which would certainly surprise city dwellers everywhere ! Air, water, ground the entire environment is involved. Certainly, the situation is different in western countries versus in poorer countries, in countries with warmer climates as opposed to colder ones, but a global consciousness must definitely be engaged in order to make cities less polluted and hence less dangerous for their inhabitants.

Cities are the source of numerous dangerous gases, particularly vehicles (passenger cars, lorries, buses, etc) which produce, in particular, carbon dioxide (CO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), sulphur dioxide (SO_2), nitrous oxides (Nox), benzyne, ozone, etc. in addition to fine particles emitted by diesel motors which represent a serious threat to human health.

Heating installations use fossil fuels which also pollute the air of our cities. However, in numerous urban agglomerations, the main source of the deterioration of air quality is from industrial facilities which spew out veritable poisons into the air, which is then breathed by riverside residents. Smog, which so commonly caps our famous megalopolises is a terrifying palpable demonstration of atmospheric pollution.

For more than a century, cities have functioned as super magnets, attracting millions of rural residents to their proverbial shores. Each of these individuals has needed water to live, that is, to drink, to prepare food, and also to wash up and for other basic needs. Cities under constant development must therefore constantly increase their water resources and their water treatment capacities. In numerous countries, this has created nearly insurmountable problems and hundreds of millions of human beings are not guaranteed daily access to potable water ; as regards wastewater the lack of effective collection and treatment facilities means that wastewater is often quite simply dumped back into Nature, often into the ocean, which creates serious and lasting pollution problems. Lest we not forget the cleansing effect of rainwaters which wash numerous pollutants into the ground and other water sources, including lakes and oceans.

By grouping millions of individuals on small surfaces, cities in fact multiply problems related to waste management, this waste yet another source of ground pollution. As such, we find great amounts of numerous pollutants in the ground including : lead, arsenic, chromium, mercury, hydrocarbons, dioxins, acids, solvents, etc. It is probably superfluous to mention the great dangers that these toxic substances present to humans, animals and to Nature, more generally.

Unfortunately, there are other sources of pollution created by cities, notably noise and light pollution.

Automobile traffic, in addition to creating considerable gaseous emissions, is also a source of considerable noise. In cities, millions of people live in an environment which is never quiet as cars, motorcycles, buses, lorries add to the noise created by trains, tubes, planes, etc. A lack of privacy and inhabitant density exposes citizens to additional bothersome noise – from their neighbors as they engage in professional or recreational activity, as the case may be. The result is an increased level of stress for persons that are exposed to this, and a considerable decrease in their quality of life.

Permanent illumination in cities (public lighting, automobile traffic, signs, etc.) is another source of pollution to which many people are exposed. The absence of nighttime makes it impossible for some to even sleep. As for the stars, they long ago disappeared from city skies.

Solid Waste Management

India produces 42.0 million tons of municipal solid waste annually at present. Per capita generation of waste varies from 200 gm to 600 gm per capita / day. Average generation rate at 0.4 kg per capita per day in 0.1 million plus towns. Collection efficiency ranges between 50% to 90% of the solid waste generated. Urban Local Bodies spend around Rs.500/- to Rs.1500/- per ton on solid waste management of which, 60-70% of the amount is on collection alone; 20% - 30% on transportation and hardly any fund is spent on treatment and disposal of waste. Crude dumping of waste in most of the cities.

Storage of waste at source is lacking and domestic waste is thrown on streets while trade waste is thrown on roads / streets. Construction debris is left unattended and bio-medical waste is disposed in municipal waste stream. Industrial waste is very often disposed of in open areas. Segregation of recyclable waste at source not done and primary collection of waste not done at place of generation. Apart from this design and location of municipal waste storage depots are inappropriate, resulting in littering of garbage. Street sweeping is not done everyday. Waste transportation done in open vehicles.

Waste processing is partially practised in 35 urban local bodies only. Final disposal is done through crude dumping and rag pickers collect recyclables from municipal bins / dumpsites and litter the waste causing insanitary conditions

Poor, inaccessible, and marginal urban areas suffer most from deficiencies in service and infrastructure, thus worsening poverty, ill health, and social marginalization. In low-income or squatter settlements, waste collection is often nonexistent, either because the settlements are informal, unplanned, and possibly unauthorized or because the strategies and technologies adopted for service provision are inappropriate for operating in settlements with narrow and unpaved streets and lanes.

In urban areas, solid waste is generated by domestic households, commercial and industrial enterprises, and health care and institutional activities, as well as on the streets. Street refuse contains a mixture of refuse from many sources, because streets are used as dumping grounds by all generators of waste. Where sanitation facilities are lacking and a large animal population roams the streets, street refuse contains a lot of human fecal matter and manure. Streets are also often used for extensive dumping of construction and demolition debris—attracting further dumping of solid waste.

The term municipal solid waste refers to solid waste from houses, streets and public places, shops, offi ces, and hospitals. Management of these types of waste is most often the responsibility of municipal or other governmental authorities. Although solid waste from industrial processes is generally not considered municipal waste, it nevertheless needs to be taken into account when dealing with solid waste because it often ends up in the MSW stream.

A typical waste management system in a low- or middle-income country includes the following elements:

• Waste generation and storage

• Segregation, reuse, and recycling at the household level

• Primary waste collection and transport to a transfer station or community bin

• Street sweeping and cleansing of public places

• Management of the transfer station or community bin

• Secondary collection and transport to the waste disposal site

• Waste disposal in landfills

• Collection, transport, and treatment of recyclables at all points on the solid waste pathway (collection, storage, transport, and disposal)

In the past, these important elements of waste management were often regarded only from an engineering and technical viewpoint. It is essential to realize that these elements are embedded in the local institutional, sociocultural, and economic context, which is further influenced by national politics, policies, and legislation as well as national and global and economic factors. Physical handling of solid waste and recyclables (storage, collection, transport, treatment, and so on) is just one SWM activity; it alone cannot fulfill the requirement for sustainable and integrated solutions. Other activities are equally important:

• Making policy, as well as setting and enforcing standards and regulations

• Evaluating data on waste generation and characterization for the purposes of planning and adapting system elements

• Ensuring that workers and planners get training and capacity development

• Carrying out public information and awareness and education programs

• Identifying and implementing financial mechanisms, economic instruments, and cost-recovery systems

• Incorporating formal and informal elements of the private sector as well as community-based activities and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

Rain Water Harvesting

The concept of rain water harvesting lies in tapping the rain water where it falls. A major portion of rainwater that falls on the earth's surface, runs-off from streams to rivers and finally to the sea. An average of 8% of the total rainfall recharges the ground water aquifers. Therefore, most of the rainfall goes waste in the form of surface run-off. The technique of rainwater harvesting involves catching the rain from localized catchment surfaces such as roof of a house, plain and sloping ground surface etc. The rainwater that falls on these catchment is diverted into dugout ponds, vessels or underground tanks to store for long periods. Construction of small barriers across small streams to check and store the running water is also an example of small catchment water harvesting.

Water harvesting means to understand the value of rain and to make optimum use of rain water at the place where it falls. In scientific terms, water harvesting (broadly) refers to collection and storage of rain water and also other activities such as harvesting surface water, extracting ground water prevention of losses through evaporation and seepage.

In general, water harvesting is the activity of direct collection of rain water. The rain water collected can be stored for direct use or can be recharged into the ground water.

The annual rainfall in Chennai is in the range of 1200 – 1300 mm. This is higher compared to the India's average rainfall of 800 mm. However, this rainfall occurs in short spells of a few days – on an average we receive rainfall for 300 hours throughout the year. The characteristics of our rainfall demands not only to conserve large quantity of rainwater during these few days but also to store wherever it rains in Metropolitan cities like Chennai, preferably for direct use and alternatively as ground water. Failure to do so results in flooding of low lying areas and wastage by means of run-off into the sea during rainy season and water scarcity during summer months. Also, due to the fast rate of urbanisation, the city has become a concrete jungle and it is very difficult to find open surfaces which would enhance the recharge of ground water. Even the open space left is paved with concrete or bitumen which does not allow the natural recharge of ground water. This highlights the need to implement measures to ensure that the rain falling over a region is tapped as fully as possible through appropriate water harvesting techniques for recharging the ground water aquifers as well as for direct storage and use of rain water.

Considering the importance of Rainwater harvesting in conserving the precious ground water resource, the Chennai Metropolitan Water and Sewerage Board has taken initiative to constitute a fully dedicated "Rainwater Harvesting Cell". The main objective of the Cell is to create awareness and to offer technical assistance free of cost to the residents and also to provide to the citizens 'cost effective solutions'. CMWSSB has created several models, detailed designs etc., which are available in the form of brochures, booklets and are being distributed to the public. In the recent past, we have also tried to disseminate related information

through electronic and print media quite vigorously. An Information Centre on RWH was opened from 10.8.2001 onwards at the CMWSS Board Head Office.

Efforts were taken to convert the Rainwater Harvesting campaign launched by the Government as people's movement. A number of seminars/ workshops and exhibitions were organised involving various Government agencies, NGOs and private individuals. As a result of this intensive campaign the Rainwater Harvesting has become popular in Chennai city and the people are adopting it on their own. Realizing the importance on regulatory mechanism for providing rainwater harvesting CMWSSB has made the installation of Rainwater Harvesting structures as a compulsory pre-requisite for providing water and sewer connections for all the new buildings.

Regular training programme are being conducted at the Metrowater Resources Centre for the benefit of public, private engineers and building workers. A list of Resource Persons has been prepared and made available. Details on RWH have also been put up on the Metrowater website. The initiatives taken by CMWSSB can be categorised into macro level and micro level initiatives. At macro level the Board has constructed a number of check dams to recharge ground water in wellfield area and also have constructed injection wells to arrest saline water intrusion in one of its wellfield close to coast.

At micro level, this Board have taken a number of steps to popularise RWH at individual house hold level in Chennai city. This Board has also implemented RWH in the public buildings such as Raj Bhavan, Children's Park, Egmore Museum, Presidency College, Stanley Hospital, Nochikuppam slum and Lady Willingdon Higher Secondary School to create models for demonstration.

Urban Transportation

Economic efficiency of cities and well-being of urban inhabitants are directly influenced by mobility or the lack of it. The increasing rate of urbanization and city size already put the urban transport system under great stress. The urban population in India has increased significantly from 62 million in 1951 to 285 million in 2001 and is estimated to be around 540 million by the year 2021. In terms of percentage of total population, the urban population has gone up from 17% in 1951 to 29% in 2001 and is expected to increase up to around 37% by the year 2021. Consequently, the number of metropolitan cities with a population exceeding one million has increased from 5 in 1951 to 23 in 1991. This is expected to increase to 51 by the year 2021. These changes have exacerbated the demand for transport – a demand that many Indian cities have not been able to meet. The main reason for this is the prevailing imbalance in modal split besides inadequate transport infrastructure and its sub-optimal use. Given the current urban transport scenario in India, transport policy should aim at improving the economic efficiency of cities and well-being of urban inhabitants. Adequate transport policy should assist in alleviating endemic traffic congestion which causes significant disruption to business and commercial activities. Furthermore, policy should aim at reducing social costs of accidents and pollution.

Although mobility and accessibility have increased tremendously in the urban areas, there are severe problems such as delay, congestion, accidents, air and noise pollution, energy wastage, etc. Public transport systems have not been able to keep pace with the rapid and substantial increases in demand over the past few decades. Bus services in particular have deteriorated, and their relative output has been further reduced as passengers have turned to personalized modes and intermediate public transport (such as three-wheelers and taxis), adding to traffic congestion which has had its impact on quality as well. It is often thought to be inegalitarian to provide special services such as air-conditioned

buses, express buses, and premium or guaranteed seats in return for higher fares. In other words, variety is usually curbed. Experience shows that the public welcomes a wide choice of transport, but despite the clear need for greater variety in public transport, there is a tendency in established monolithic corporations to offer very limited choice.

The city cannot afford to cater only to the private cars and two-wheelers and there has to be a general recognition that without public transport cities would be even less viable. Much needs to be done if public transport is to play a significant role in the life of a city. Measures need to be taken in the short-run to enhance the quality of public transport service and to impose constraints on the use of private vehicles in cities. In the long-run, there needs to be effective land use planning and the introduction of new transit systems to keep the city moving. It must not be forgotten that cities are the major contributors to economic growth and movement in and between cities is crucial for improved quality of life.

Although Indian cities have lower vehicle ownership rate (number of vehicles per capita) than their counterparts in developed countries, they suffer from worse congestion than cities in industrialized countries. In Kolkata, for example, the average speed during peak hours in CBD area goes down as low as 7 km per hour. This indicates both the amount of time and energy that are wasted and the scale of opportunity for improvement. Spending on transport is too often influenced by a notion of political prestige than by rational calculations of economic growth. Most Indian cities spend too much on politically attractive but costly facilities, such as elevated roadways and mass rail transit systems, instead of making modest labor-intensive road improvements, extending city streets, and promoting low-cost bus operations. Since, according to a World Bank Study, rail subways can cost as much as $100 million per kilometer, the money spent building just a few meters of subway could be used instead to construct or upgrade several miles of streets. Transport demand in most of the Indian cities has increased

substantially due to an increase in population as a result of both natural birth rates and migration from rural areas and smaller towns. Availability of motorized transport, increases in household income, and increases in commercial and industrial activities have further added to it. In many cases, demand has outstripped road capacity. Congestion and delays in both passenger and commercial traffic are widespread in Indian cities and indicate the seriousness of their transport problems. As a result, costs – particularly fuel costs – increase substantially, affecting commerce and industry. A high level of pollution is another undesirable feature of overloaded streets. The result has been a serious decline in productivity and city efficiency, a drain on city and national budget, and a strain on urban institutions. The transport crisis also takes a human toll. Statistics indicate that traffic accidents are a primary cause of accidental deaths in the Indian cities.

In view of the above issues in urban transport, there is an urgent need for a transport strategy that should support the following objectives:

- Provide and promote sustainable high quality links for people, goods, and services to, from and within the city to benefit economic growth, and the urban fabric and environmental quality of city;

- Improve the efficiency, effectiveness, and reliability of city's transport systems;

- Integrate transport, spatial, and economic development policies, to ensure sustainable access

For people and goods;

Planning development in a way which reduces the need to travel by personalized modes and increase of public transport system;

- Reduction of consumption of scarce energy resources and pollution for ensuring a healthy

Living environment;

- Improvement of public transport system and its efficiency;

- Improve travel choice and quality;

- Promote transport services and patterns of movement that will contribute to improvements in air quality, reduction in greenhouse gas emissions, and enable visual amenity;

- Optimization of existing transport infrastructure and give precedence to low cost and affordable technology, at least as a short-term measure, especially bus technology.

- Promote the health of the people by encouraging more walking and cycling; and

- Ensure that the development of the transport system contributes to the protection and

➢ Enhancement of the natural and built environment.

Health Care in Urban Areas

Health Care System in India in the last 45 years has focused on increasing coverage in the rural areas. There has been little or no development of organized health care services for the vast urban areas. The 3,600 odd cities and towns of

India with some 40 million people living in slums have to depend largely on private practitioners (mostly quacks) for their health care needs. Out of the 3,000 plus urban local bodies in India only about 100 have been some semblance to a health care service while the rest have only a sanitary inspector or even a lower functionary to look after the health care system. Although urbanization is one of the indicators of development, very fast growth of urbanization in developing countries has created problems of proliferation of slums. Slums have become the unavoidable and evil symbols of industrial and urban growth. The rate of urban growth cannot match housing, educational and health service facilities including drinking water and sanitation.

There is constant deprivation, particularly of children among urban poor. Deteriorated houses crowded together, open sewer, uncollected garbage, poor sanitation, files, starling water and poor lighting are common. People face threat of eviction if they are squatting on someone else's land. Joblessness and alcoholism make men angry or hopelessly drunk and lead to abandoned wives and children. Women must go to work to survive without a male breadwinner or to help him make both ends meet. For some of them, domestic service and prostitution are virtually the only options. Older children, some no more than 10 year old, take care of their younger siblings while the adults are away.

Consequently, children remain undernourished and underweight with their growth stunted from insufficient food. Diarrhea, gastro enteritis and respiratory ailments are common illnesses to which many succumb during their first year of life.

Among the major public health programmers, the Maternal and Child Health Services constitute an integral part of the family welfare programmes and occupy

an important place in the socio economic development planning. It also plays a crucial role in human resource development and in improving the quality of life of the people. The Government has sponsored immunization schemes for infants and children against nutritional anemia among mothers and children and prophylaxis against blindness due to vitamin A deficiency are also in operation. Programme for oral rehydration therapy is another important child survival scheme. Diarrhea disease is a major health problem in India especially among children below five years of age.

To liberate the children from common communicable diseases, the expanded programme of Immunization (EPI) was started by the Governments of India in 1978. The objectives of the programme are to reduce morbidity and mortality due to diphtheria, pertussis and tetanus, poliomyelitis, tuberculosis and typhoid fever by making vaccination services available to all eligible children and pregnant women.

Universal Immunization Programme (UIP) is an important step towards achieving the goal of Health for All by the Year 2000. The programme was dedicated to the memory of the former Prime Minister, Mrs. Indira Gandhi. Under the UIP, it was proposed to cover all eligible infants and pregnant mothers by the end of 1990. A Technology Mission on Immunization has been launched covering all aspects commencing from research and development to actual delivery of services to the affected population.

Urban Malaria Scheme was initiated in November 1971. The main objective of the scheme is to control malaria transmission by eliminating aquatic stages of vector mosquitoes by weekly application of larvicides in breeding sources. The scheme has at present been sanctioned for 133 towns distributed over 17 states and two

Union Territories. National Filarial Control programme was taken up in urban areas from 1955 in order to contain the diseases. Anti-larval and antiparasitic measures are being taken in 199 towns distributed in 13 states and four Union Territories.

Tuberculosis is a major public health problem in the country. The National Tuberculosis Programme was launched in 1962. A total of about 46,000 beds are functioning in the country for treatment of seriously sick and emergent TB patients. Leprosy control programme has been in operation since 1955 but it was only after 1980 that it received a high priority and it was redesigned as National Leprosy Eradication Programme (NLEP) in 1983 with the goal of arresting the disease in all known leprosy patients by the year 2000.

Kala-azar which was almost on the verge of eradication, reappeared in Bihar in 1970s and in West Bengal during 1977. Later it spread to more states. The Kala azar unit of National Malaria Eradication Programme (NMEP) is monitoring the Kala-azar situation along with the incidence of Japanese Encephalitis in the country. National AIDS Control Programme has emerged as a devastating fatal disease. Up to April 1989, as many as 2, 55,589 risk persons were screened. Of these, 941 have been HIV positive. Amongst these, as many as 29 are the full blown cases of AIDS which include 11 foreigners. The Government of India constituted a task force in the year 1985 under Indian Council of Medical Research and established two surveillance centers, viz., National Institute of Virology, Pune, and Christian Medical College, Vellore to screen high risk people for AIDS. An AIDS cell has been established in the Directorate General of Health Service to coordinate all activities pertaining to AIDS control. At present, 40 surveillance centers and four referral centers are available in the country.

Apart from the above national health programmes, there are programmes like, National Programme for Control of Blindness, National Mental Health Programme, Sexually Transmitted Diseases Programmes and National Goiter Control Programme.

Disaster Management

The largely unplanned expansion of cities to accommodate rapid population growth, combined with inappropriate land-use planning and the failure of urban authorities to regulate building standards, contribute to the vulnerability of urban populations. In addition, inadequate living conditions of poor populations – including poor health, inadequate nutrition, poverty, illiteracy, and deficient or non-existent sanitation – constitute a permanent threat to their physical and psychological security and create "everyday risks" which cause small-scale disasters on an ongoing basis.

Disaster risks from extreme natural hazards are compounded by these everyday risks, resulting in a process of "risk accumulation" specific to urban areas, where risk is amplified by human activities. Urbanization, therefore, often increases the exposure of people and economic assets to hazards and creates new patterns of risk, making the management of disasters in urban areas particularly complex. Urban development itself may contribute to disaster vulnerability.The accelerating growth of cities has contributed to the ecological transformation of their immediate areas, which even in well-established cities, can be self-destructive. The demand for space in fast-growing cities has led to the use of land which is fraught with hazards when developed. For example, according to the WMO (1995), urban development often increases the risk of flasn flooding.

Urbanization of land increases the volume and speed of runoff thereby significantly increasing the severity and the speed of the flood. Other impacts of urban development on the environment indude: lowering or rising of the water table; subsidence; loss in bearing capacity of soil foundations; instability of slopes and underground excavations, contamination of soil waters.

Population density is one of the variables that determines the severity of a disaster. Where people are concentrated in a limited area, any single cataclysmic event can cause more injury and death than would occur if these people were more dispersed. People with different income levels are likely to be affected differently by the same event. The vulnerability to disaster tends to lessen with increasing income. This is partly because more expensive buildings have been engineered to a higher standard. Higher-income households are also more likely to live in areas that are less vulnerable to natural hazards. On the other hand, low-income groups are likely to live in marginal areas, the low value of which reflects their vulnerability.

The poorest people live in the lowest quality housing on the most hazard prone locations, and have the fewest opportunities to lessen potential disaster impacts. They simply have fewer options because of their lack of resources. The urban poor are a very large and growing category: In 1988 it was estimated that approximately 330 million people, or 27.7% of the total urban population of developing countries, live below the poverty line. In Africa, which is urbanizing at an extremely rapid rate of about 7% per annum, this percentage is estimated to be about 42%. The largest number of urban poor is found in Asia: 136.5 million people in urban areas live below the poverty level.

There are four main policy directions that need to be pursued in order to reduce the risks of disasters in urban areas:

(i)   Striving for development that takes account of the risks imposed by natural disasters, and thus is more sustainable;

(ii)   Establishing city management that is prepared and ready to cope with potential disasters;

(iii)   Having a community that is alert and prepared to cope with disasters by their realistic assessment of the risks and the knowledge, ability and resources to take adequate protective measures;

(iv)   Addressing high risk situations, particularly related to critical infrastructures and high risk informal settlements, through special disaster mitigation programmes.

These policy directions need to be underpinned by essential requirements, of which the following are considered the most critical:

(a)   Political commitment: The most important is the political commitment made at the national and local levels to address disaster risks on a pro-active basis. As a direct consequence of this commitment, resources need to be mobilized for preventive measures.

(b)   Understanding the risks: Any action to reduce disasters in urban areas needs to be based on an understanding of the hazards and the vulnerability of the communities and facilities at risk. An understanding of differences in vulnerability and of the mechanisms which cause risk is required. Systematic assessment of risks is necessary as a basis of all

disaster related programmes, both before as well as during and after disasters.

(c) Community based programmes:Disaster reduction policies need to be focused on communities at risk, and built upon an increasing ability for inhabitants themselves to be directly involved in their own protection. Solutions for disaster reduction will only be effective if they are based on the needs and resources of the people at risk

Unit 5
Role of government and NGO in development

Role of NGOs in Urban Community Development

The process of urban development involves an improvement in the productive economy of urban areas. This is generally taken to mean the generation of employment and more remunerative economic livelihoods, through increased investment in businesses and economic infrastructure which is relevant to business (particularly transport, power, telecommunications, and water). A broader definition of urban development will also include investments in social and environmental services, including infrastructure which critically affects urban residents quality of life. There is a clear recognition that improved infrastructure is a prerequisite for increased economic growth in India. With the projected increase in the urban population over the next 15 years, poverty can only be reduced quickly with rapid urban development. In India, the government is the primary agent of urban development. It creates policies and special programs aimed at development of urban areas. Some of the key urban development programs are highlighted below.

TAMIL NADU URBAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT – III (TNUDP-III)

Based on the 74th Constitution Amendment Act,1992 and the recommendations of the two State Finance Commissions, urban sector reforms in Tamil Nadu have been formulated and expedited. Tamil Nadu has been a fore-runner in urban sector reforms in the country with introduction of accrual based accounting system, e-governance accounting and engineering reforms in Urban Local Bodies. The infrastructure backlog experienced in Urban Local Bodies has been addressed to an extent under Tamil Nadu Urban Development Project-II (TNUDP-II). The investment support under Municipal Urban Development Fund (MUDF) and TNUDP II projects, primarily supported investments in basic services and to some extent remunerative projects also. While TNUDP I focused on investments with limited capacity building measures, TNUDP II based on observation of SFCs on the need to build municipal capacity and management improvements, focused on a large scale state driven capacity building and management improvement programme with the objective of augmenting finances and service delivery. Through the investment component, capacities of Urban Local Bodies in managing design and supervision of infrastructure were enhanced which benefited sectors such as underground sewerage and roads.

While TNUDP I was a launch pad for management improvements, TNUDP II resulted in management improvements by way of new accounting system, e-governance and skill transfer to the staff of ULBs with significant and positive results. The focus of the State Government through these informations is to provide a better living environment to the citizens. Under TNUDP III, the urban sector reforms will gather further momentum.

Objectives of the TNUDP III

The objectives of the project are as follows:

(i)   To develop the Tamil Nadu Urban Development Fund (TNUDF) as a financial intermediary to provide financing for infrastructure to ULBs on a sustainable basis;

(ii) To strengthen urban reforms and consolidate the achievements under TNUDP II in institutional strengthening and capacity building;

(iii) To provide a grant to the CMDA to take up traffic and transportation sub-projects like road widening, ROBs and RUBs in the Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) area

The components of TNUDP III are as follows:

Institutional Development Component:

(1) Capacity Building of Municipal Staff and elected representatives
(2) Information and Communication Technology
(3) ULB Debt Monitoring Cell
(4) Project Preparation Facility
(5) Project Management, Incremental Operating Costs

Urban Investment through TNUDF

(a) Loans to ULBs
(b) Capital Grants to ULBs
(c) Grants to CMDA for Traffic and Transport projects

JAWAHARLAL NEHRU NATIONAL URBAN RENEWAL MISSION

The Mission

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.

Objectives of the Mission

The objectives of the JNNURM are to ensure that the following are achieved in the urban sector.

i. Focussed attention to integrated development of infrastructure services in cities covered under the Mission.

ii. Establishment of linkages between asset-creation and asset-management through a slew of reforms for long-term project sustainability;

iii. Ensuring adequate funds to meet the deficiencies in urban infrastructural services;.

iv. Planned development of identified cities including peri-urban areas, outgrowths and urban corridors leading to dispersed urbanisation;

v. Scale-up delivery of civic amenities and provision of utilities with emphasis on universal access to the urban poor;.

vi. Special focus on urban renewal programme for the old city areas to reduce congestion; and

vii. 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.

Scope of the Mission

The Mission shall comprise two Sub- Missions, namely:

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.

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.

Strategy of the Mission

The objectives of the Mission shall be met through the adoption of the following strategy:

Preparing City Development Plan: Every city will be expected to formulate a City Development Plan (CDP) indicating policies, programmes and strategies, and financing plans.

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.

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.

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.

Expected Outcomes of the JNNURM

On completion of the Mission period, it is expected that ULBs and parastatal agencies will have achieved the following:

- Modern and transparent budgeting, accounting, financial management systems, designed and adopted for all urban service and governance functions

- City-wide framework for planning and governance will be established and become operational

- All urban residents will be able to obtain access to a basic level of urban services

- Financially self-sustaining agencies for urban governance and service delivery will be established, through reforms to major revenue instruments

- Local services and governance will be conducted in a manner that is transparent and accountable to citizens

- E-governance applications will be introduced in core functions of ULBs/Parastatal resulting in reduced cost and time of service delivery processes.

TAMIL NADU URBAN DEVELOPMENT FUND

The Government of Tamil Nadu had established the Tamil Nadu Urban Development Fund (TNUDF) on a 'Public Private Partnership' mode, with the participation of ICICI, HDFC and IL&FS to provide long term debt for civic infrastructure on a non-guarantee basis and to make the urban local bodies sensitive to market conditions.

Investment financing for TNUDP is provided through the Tamil Nadu Urban Development Fund which is managed by an asset management company Tamil Nadu Urban Infrastructure Financial Services Limited (TNUILFS), a joint venture between Government of Tamil Nadu and three leading domestic private financial institutions . the latter being the majority equity partners. TNUDF also provides project development support and strategic advice to local governments in developing and implementing commercially structured infrastructure projects and accessing capital markets. So far the experience of this initiative has been encouraging. This is particularly in terms of capacity building for strengthening urban management. ULBs are increasingly formulating and developing projects on their own. Most of them have moved to computerized, accrual based accounting systems. By instituting accounting, auditing and disclosure practices that are compatible with market standards, local governments for their part are improving their attractiveness to lenders. This is the first such effort in the country covering all ULB functions in one go. TNUDF is mandated to link city civic needs to the capital market, and to promote innovative methods of funding urban infrastructure. To this effect, TNUDF has done three such market issues and has promoted and designed projects, which have attained financial closures using co-financing from institutions and the users of the facility. Besides the above, TNUDF also handles plain vanilla loan funding to the ULBs on a non-guarantee mode.

TNUDF has the distinction of the first financial intermediary to raise Bonds from the capital market on a nonguaranteed basis. The Bond, of Rs 1100 million, was raised at a competitive rate of 11.85 percent, and was oversubscribed.

TAMIL NADU HOUSING BOARD

The main aim of Tamil Nadu Housing Board is to cater to the Housing needs of the people of different income groups such as Economically Weaker Section, Lower Income Group, Middle Income Group and Higher Income Group. Tamil Nadu Housing Board provides developed plots with all infrastructure facilities and individual houses and flats for all the income groups at affordable prices. Tamil Nadu Housing Board has been in the field of land development and construction of houses for the past 44 years. So far Tamil Nadu Housing Board has developed 3,93,684 housing units, out of which developed plots are 2,04,813 and balance 1,88,871 are houses and flats etc.

Tamil Nadu Housing Board reserves 18% to Schedule Caste and 1% to Schedule Tribes for allotment of the plots developed, houses/ flats constructed in all its schemes (except self financing scheme). This preferential allotment will be continued in future schemes also. The Tamil Nadu Housing Board has been implementing and maintaining rental- housing scheme for Tamil Nadu Government Employees. Tamil Nadu Housing Board has constructed 29,055 rental flats under above scheme.

Due to existence of large number of unsold stock of plots /houses/ flats, Tamil Nadu Housing Board has consciously decided not to take up new housing scheme

and give thrust to disposing all the unsold stock of plots/ houses/ flats. Several marketing strategies like forming of separate sale teams in each division, participating in property fair/exhibitions, organizing sale camps in the offices of Government/ Public Sector Departments, announcing 1% discount on the amount paid to those who register in the property/ trade fairs and employing commission agents for the sale of houses/plots are adopted. As a special marketing initiative, approval of high level committee was obtained for reducing the prices of plots/houses in certain select schemes by rolling back to the original price by removing capitalization of interest. Further reduction of prices, in addition to removal of capitalization was also got approved for the disposal of stock. By means of the special steps taken, plots/houses/flats to a value of Rs.517.45 Crore have so far been sold since 1.4.2001 and effective steps are continued for disposal of balance available stock also.

HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION

The establishment of HUDCO in 1970 as a sectoral institution for comprehensively dealing with the problems of growing housing shortages, rising number of slums and for fulfilling the pressing needs of the economically weaker section of the society was one of the significant steps in the series of initiatives taken by Government. Thus the setting up of HUDCO was aimed at accelerating the pace of construction and elimination of housing shortages and for orderly development of urban centres.

The vision of HUDCO is to be among the leading knowledge hubs and financial facilitating organizations for habitat settlement and the mission is to promote sustainable habitat development to enhance the quality of life.

The Article of Memorandum of HUDCO stripulates the Major Objective of HUDCO as under:

1. To provide long term finance for construction of houses for residential purposes or finance or undertake housing and urban development programmes in the country.

2. To finance or undertake, wholly or partly, the setting up of new or satellite town.

3. To subscribe to the debentures and bonds to be issued by the State Housing (and or Urban Development) Boards, Improvement Trusts, Development Authorities etc., specifically for the purpose of financing housing and urban development programmes.

4. To finance or undertake the setting up of industrial enterprises of building material.

5. To administer the moneys received, from time to time, from the Government of India and other sources as grants or otherwise for the purposes of financing or undertaking housing and urban development programmes in the country.

6. To promote, establish, assist, collaborate and provide consultancy services for the projects of designing and planning of works relating to Housing and Urban Development programmes in India and abroad.

Type of Services provided by HUDCO

HUDCO provides loan assistance to its institutional clients which include central & state government agencies, private agencies and Non Government Organisations/Micro Finance Institutions for the following purposes:

a.) Housing

- Urban Housing
- Rural Housing
- Staff Rental Housing
- Cooperative Housing
- Repairs & Renewals
- Slum upgradation & Environmental Improvement Schemes
- Night Shelter for Urban Shelterless.
- Working Women Ownership Condominium Housing
- VAMBAY
- ILCS

b.) Infrastructure

- Land Acquisition
- Integrated Land Acquisition and Development
- Urban Infrastructure
- Water Supply and Sanitation (Sewerage & Drainage)
- Social Infrastructure

- Solid Waste Management

- Ecologically appropriate Infrastructure

- Environmental Improvement of Slums

- Commercial Infrastructure

- Area Development Programmes

- Transportation – Roads, Bridges,Transport Terminal, Port & Airports

- Telecom Industrial Infrastructure

c.) Subsidy for establishment of building centres

d.) Loan assistance for building material industry

Public Deposit Scheme

HUDCO accepts deposits under Public Deposit Scheme (PDS) from Resident Indians, Non-resident Indians (On Non-repatriable Basis), minors through guardians, Hindu Undivided Families (HUF), Trusts, Co-operative Societies Domestic Companies, etc.

Under the Public Deposit Scheme in HUDCO offers following three deposit schemes:

- HUDCO Regular Plus-Periodic Income Scheme

- HUDCO Multiplier Plus- Cumulative Income Scheme

- HUDCO Cash Certificate – Cumulative Income Scheme

Technical & Consultancy Services

The technical services provided by HUDCO to its clients for various housing and urban development projects include.

- Design & development services

- Civil engineering services

- Feasibility studies & project formulation

- Cost effective & disaster resistant technology

The above technical services are provided to the institutional clients seeking financial assistance from HUDCO or as exclusive consultancy assignment.

Training & Capacity Building Services.

The Human Settlement management Institute (HSMI) of HUDCO has been providing training to clients of HUDCO on various issue related to housing, human settlement management, urban development, infrastructure, urban poverty alleviation and urban governance. HSMI has trained more than persons in the

past. The Habitat Polytech set up by HUDCO as a grass root level training centre for informal sector is involved in dissemination of cost-effective technology through training programmes for the master craftsman and masons.

Technology Promotion

HUDCO has played instrumental role in promotion of cost effective and disaster resistant technology in the country. HUDCO promotes above technologies by

• Establishment & promotion of building centres

• Providing financial & technical assistance to building material industry

URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The term community development has come into international usage to connote the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

Urban Community Development – Definitions

Urban community development aims to organize and stimulate community leadership to handle problems on a mutual aid and self help basis. It means the working together of two factors the collective initiative of families living in the same neighborhood and support of their effort through services rendered to them by a higher level of government. It involves integrating the organized popular effort and governmental services for the improvement of conditions in the urban neighborhood (UN)

Urban community development is a strategy of intervention to combat urban problems through citizen's participation (B.Chatterjee)

Urban community development is one the strategy of intervention to solve some of the problems of the city in general and of the depressed areas in particular. It is a process by which the city dwellers can become more competent to live with and gain some control over local aspects of a frustrating and fast changing world. It aims to arouse and organize among urban dwellers recognition of the need for self help, a wider participation in civic affairs and the more effective use of civic amenities.

Urban community development seeks to involve the people and to create in them an urge to change and improve their conditions of living by their own efforts and resources supplemented by utilizing all the opportunities and assistance that are offered by governmental and other voluntary agencies.

Scope of Urban Community Development (UCD)

U.C.D programmes provide an almost unlimited scope for the practice of professional social work.

1. On a person to person basis

• Locating and motivating key individuals i.e., local leaders, with the objectives of helping them to overcome their narrow loyalties; helping them to come out from the clutches of customs and traditions whose blind pursuits may be inimical to an urban way of life.

• Helping the truants, drop outs, hide bound school teachers, alcoholics, drug addicts, socially handicaps.

• Helping the rural migrants to when away from their rural way of thinking to an urban one which instills in them, slowly but surely, a sense of urban and urbanity leading ultimately to the development of responsible citizenship which is sin qua non for healthy and happy urban life.

2. On group basis

• Organizing the street urchins in the community into a well knit groups then can develop their numbers personality.

- Organizing responsible groups from youth, women and adult.

- Developing responsible leadership from the groups.

   3. Macro level

- Inter group work

- Inter group rivalry elimination and posturing of inter group co-operation i.e., synchronization of group and community objectives.

- Resource person or repository of knowledge

- Liaison work with civic administration i.e., enabling the people and their representatives muster enough skill and courage to constructively approach and utilize their elected representatives and government for making the community voice heard.

- Management expert – imparting skills to local leaders in office management, accounting, public relations, fund raising.

- Organizing civic groups …, when lokashakti or janashakti is not awakened and channelised, it provides a field day for unscrupulous "opportunists" to exploit fellowmen.

Objectives of Urban Community Development

1. Creating a sense of social coherence on a neighborhood basic through corporate civic action and promoting sense of national integration.

2. Developing a sense of belonging to the urban community through increased participation of people in community affairs and creating a way of thinking which concentrates first on solving problems with their own initiative, organization, self help and mutual aid.

3. Bringing about a change in attitudes by creating civic consciousness and by motivating people to improve their conditions of life particularly those affecting social and physical environment.

4. Developing local initiative and identifying and training of local leaders and

5. Ensuring fuller utilization of technical and welfare services by helping the community to locate what help can be had from the municipality or other organizations and how to get it; and what assistance and guidance can be obtained from governmental and higher authorities and how to approach them

In simple terms the objective of UCD is to promote the growth of community life and to promote the growth of community life and to encourage the development of citizens' participation in programmed of self help and civic improvement.

Elements of Community Development

(1) Participation of the people

(2) Local initiative

(3) Technical & other support to reinforce initiative, self help and mutual help

Urban Community Development (UCD) in its proper form originated in the following projects:

Delhi Pilot Project (1958) Ford Foundation Aid

Jamshedput (1958) TISCO

Ahmedabad (1962) Ford Foundation Aid

Baroda (1965) American Friends Service Committee

These projects were experimental and voluntary in nature. After careful observation of earlier projects and experiments, a Rural – Urban Relationship Committee was set up by the Ministry of Health, Government of India to plan and initiate Urban Community development projects on a nation-wide scale specifying the role of local bodies while implementing them. The committee observed that there was lack of awareness and interest among urban poor and suggested the need to motivate change and encourage people to exercise their own initiative in planning and carrying out improvement projects based on their felt needs.

Technical and welfare resources would then be directed to these communities to support them in their effort.

The committee submitted an interim report on the programme of urban community development to facilitate the implementation of urban community development in the Third Five Year Plan itself. The Third five-year plan (1965-70) drew pointed attention to the social and economic consequences of the rapid growth of urban population. The plan laid particular emphasis on the need and potentialities of UCD for bringing about social and economic changes in urban communities and create conditions for a better life for its citizens.

URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES OF TAMIL NADU SLUM CLEARANCE BOARD

Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board was constituted by the Government of Tamil Nadu exclusively for the upliftment of the slum dwellers living in Chennai, other major cities and towns of Tamil Nadu. The Community Development Wing functioning in the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board plays a vital role in liaisioning between the Board and the beneficiaries. The policies and programmes formulated by the Board are brought to reality to the slum dwellers only with the committed involvement of Community Development Wing. The Community Development Wing came into existence in 1978 through the initiative of the then Madras Metropolitan Development Authority to ensure community participation in the Slum

Improvement Programme funded by the World Bank.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT WING

While the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board has been initially concentrating on construction of houses and provision of basic amenities, it was realised that these structures could not transform the lives of the slum dwellers who were used to living in the slum conditions. If real development was to be brought amongst the erstwhile slum dwellers, the answer lie in community based humane approach. The Community Development Wing comprising Social Workers and Sociologists coordinate the Engineering, Planning and Revenue aspects. The programmes aim at holistic approach to housing and rehabilitation.

I.   EMPLOYMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME

The main objective of this programme is to upgrade the skills of slum youth to make them more employable through Formal and Non formal courses with need based employment opportunities. The beneficiaries of the programme are slum youth and women in the age group between 16-40 years with educational qualification ranging from ability to read and write to XII std depending on the nature of the course.

The Courses are conducted by competent Government and Non Governmental organisations that have skilled personnel, adequate infrastructure and placement provisions. These organisations shall send their proposals with budgetary requirements for the courses for sanction. The training institutions are selected based on the infrastructure facilities and placement provision available with the institution. The candidates are provided with stipend to meet their transportation

cost to attend the programme. All the candidates selected for the courses must complete the course failing which the dropped out candidates must remit the training cost to the Board. The Period of Training is One week to 6 months.

3. YOUTH DEVELOPMENT

Youth is an important resource for the future development of the society. They have great energy which needs to be diverted for concrete purposes. Slum youth are eager to learn a skill and participate in their self development and community at large. The youth need to be supported with life skill training and personality development and leadership skills. Keeping this in view, Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board is the pioneering department to develop a project exclusively for the welfare of slum youth emphasizing on personality development and life skill education under XII Finance Commission.

The objectives of the programme are

i.   To strengthen the youth through skill training, gender equality and sensitivity, awareness creation on sex and sexuality

ii.   To develop and promote dignity through the proposed training

iii.   To make the youth realize their self and their contribution for the well being of the society

iv.   To motivate youth to serve as role models in the society

The following activities are organised in coordination with Non Governmental Organisations and established institutions

i.   Residential training

ii.   Sports materials for Youth clubs and schools in Resettlement and rehabilitation areas

iii.   Organising Slum Olympics

iv.   Talent Shows

v.   Job Fairs

4. RESETTLEMENT AND REHABILITATION SCHEME

Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board has developed five rehabilitation schemes to resettle households living in river margins, low lying areas and slums affected due to Mass Rapid Transit system alignment, road margins and families affected by Tsunami. So far, 24,692 families have been resettled and rehabilitated in Velachery, Kodungaiyur, Pallikaranai Pavement Dwellers Rehabilitation Scheme, Okkium Thuraipakkam R & R Scheme, Semmancheri R & R Scheme. The CD staff are playing facilitator's role in the provision of upgradation of shelter units,

community facilities viz. Pre-Schools, Primary Schools, Public Distribution System, Public Health Centre, Milk Booth, Police Outpost, Community Hall, Burial Ground, construction of Vocational Training Centre, Income Generation Programmes, awareness creation, formation of women Self Help Groups and provision of other socio economic facilities in general and Livelihood Support Programme for the Tsunami affected families in particular for integrated development of the resettled families. The Community Development Wing Personnel are involved in the three stages of R & R process viz., preliminary phase, implementation and post resettlement stages. Under Solid Waste Management, the Green friends are involved in door to door collection of garbage, segregation and producing and sale of vermicompost manure. This maiden initiative has not only provided an alternative livelihood to the SHG women, but also paved way for a clean, healthy and eco friendly environment. This model is to be replicated in the R & R sites by TNSCB.

5. LIVELIHOOD SUPPORT PROGRAMME – TSUNAMI EMERGENCY ASSISTANCE

PROJECT (TEAP)

The Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board carried out Asian Development Bank assisted Tsunami Emergency Assistance Project during 2005-09 to rehabilitate the tsunami affected at North, Central and South Chennai coastal slums by adopting a special initiative and providing them with livelihood support. The Government have sanctioned and released Rs.498.00 lakhs for the programme and livelihood activities were carried out benefiting 22,521 families. However, since more Tsunami affected families resettled at Okkium Thoraipakkam and other areas like AIR land and Semmancheri were not covered under TEAP, the Government has allocated one Crore to implement alternate livelihood activities besides extending financial and technical support to maintain the area focusing on Solid Waste Management. The strategies viz., i) formation of SHGs and Federations ii)

Providing Revolving Fund to SHGs iii) Entrepreneurial Development Programme iv) Skill Development and Training programme v) Support for Smaller Economic activities and major livelihood ventures vi) Capacity Building vii) Community empowerment are proposed to be adopted for the rehabilitation of these families.

6. ACADEMIC FIELD WORK TRAINING AND RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

The Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board has been one of the pioneering organisations offering Field based academic training, Research/project guidance and observation visits programmes in the field of Urban Community Development since 1981.

The Institutions sending students for observation visits to the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board are charged Rs.250/- as service charges to the Board. The other training programmes are offered free of cost since the students and the Board are benefitted mutually. With regard to students/ Scholars undertaking research/ project works they are directed through their institutions to provide a copy of their dissertations to the Board for reference purpose. They are also instructed to avail the data and information of the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board strictly for academic purpose.

7. ENUMERATION AND VERIFICATION OF SLUM FAMILIES/ ENCROACHMENTS

As part of Community Planning and baseline survey of slums, the Community Development staff are involved in identification of Project Affected Families (PAFs) in objectionable locations such as road margins, pavements, railway track margins, and river margins where the lands are required for development purposes. Apart from this, the CD staff also are involved in community consultations and rapport building to facilitate better networking and coordination.

ROLE OF NGOs in URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

NGOs are professionally-staffed organizations aiming at contributing to the reduction of human suffering and to the development of poor coun¬tries. They do this in various ways, e.g. by funding projects, engaging in service provision and capacity building, contributing to awareness, and promoting the self-organization of various groups. NGOs have an important role to play in supporting women, men and households, and expect that they can meet the welfare services such as counseling and support service, awareness raising and advocacy, legal aid and microfinance. These services help the people to achieve their ability, skill and knowledge, and take control over their own lives and finally become empowered. NGOs can promote the organization and "empowerment" of the poor, particularly poor women, through a combination of micro-credit, awareness-raising, training for group members, and other social services. Empowerment is the ability of individuals to gain control socially, politically, economically and psychologically through (1) access to information, knowledge and skills; (2) decision making; and (3) individual self-efficacy, community participation, and perceived control. In the long term, the aim of NGOs is to promote sustainable

community development through activities that promote capacity building and self-reliance. NGOs through capacity building help to sustain community development. NGOs are often created in order to expand the capacities of people. Furthermore, NGOs are praised for promoting community self-reliance and empowerment through supporting community-based groups and relying on participatory processes.

NGOs play an important function in promo¬ting sustainable urban community development. Sus-tainable community development emphasizes on a balance between environmental concerns and development objectives, while simultaneously enhancing local social relationships. Sustainable urban communities meet the economic needs of their residents, enhance and protect the environment, and promote more humane local societies. Sustainable community development includes five dimensions. The first dimension emphasises on increasing local economic diver¬sity. The second is self-reliance which entails the development of local markets, local production, local processing of previously imported goods, and greater cooperation among local economic entities. The third dimension involves a reduction in the use of energy, coupled with the careful management and recycling of waste products. The fourth dimension focuses on the protection and enhancement of biological diversity and careful stewardship of natural resources. Finally, the fifth dimension is related to the commitment of the sustainable communities to social justice. Through the functions of providing micro-finance, initiating capacity building and self -reliance, NGOs could promote empowerment among community members, and eventually community sustainable development.

These are the areas in which NGOs can contribute in the urban community development process.

1. Policy Formulation: There is a marked increase in NGO participation in policy processes as invited participants. Their representatives have had seats at the table in formulation of specific policies, district development plans and on technical committees and sub-committees at all levels. This is highly commendable.

2. As Pressurisers/Agenda Setting: NGOs sometimes exert pressure from outside `the tent' on both formulation and implementation of policies, programmes and plans. They use campaigning – a visible activity directed at a certain constituency, often media – mediated; and lobbying – a direct and often private approach to individuals or small groups of people, as an attempt to influence the decisions of the institutional elite on behalf of a collective interest. NGOs are supposed to act as counter weight to state power – protecting human rights, opening up channels of communication and participation, providing training grounds for activists and promoting pluralism.

3. As Service Deliverers: NGOs engage with policy makers at implementation or field/ Action level. Implementation is an important policy phase as it is often at that stage that failures in the policy processes occur. Here NGOs play a bridging role between government and the people.

4. As Monitors: NGOs can provide an independent assessment of how public resources are being allocated at the national and local level. After NGOs have advocated for equitable distribution of national resources during the budget process, they monitor whether these resources reach the intended beneficiaries and whether they translate into `value for money' (getting the best outcome using limited financial and human resources) for end users. NGOs also have a role to play in assessing how quickly and effectively the private sector is moving into space created for it by liberalization and rolling back of state institutions from direct production and whether the

premises on which this model is based hold for our type of economies.

5. As innovators: NGOs are sometimes instrumental in the introduction of new approaches and techniques which, when adopted, bring considerable benefits to the poor. Examples include introduction of new technologies, farming methods, resolution of conflicts etc.

6. As Partners: NGOs work in partnership with Governments and Donors in the planning process by offering expertise, experience and whether possible logistics and other resources. NGOs are agents of change but their ability to effect change rests on organizational independence, closeness to the poor, representative structures and a willingness to spend a large amounts of time in awareness-raising and dialogue. NGOs particularly those working closely with CBOs and which believe in the efficacy of `empowerment' approaches can be an important asset when government wants to mobilize people.