

Local Government Quarterly

April - June 2018

A Journal of the All India Institute of Local Self-Government

Brought out by its
International Academy of Urban Dynamics



- ★ Welfare Lab a model for collaborative learning and mutual exchange between social workers welfare professionals in different countries
- ★ Local Governance matters for Urban Housing
- * Metropolitan Cities in India: Growth and Distribution
- ★ NGOs and Rural Development
- Population Composition in Rural Areas: A Spatio Temporal Analysis with reference to Mysuru District
- * Youth Development: Situating Civil Society Organisations in Developmental Paradigm
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International Academy of Urban Dynamics (IAUD) has been conceptualized and set up at the AIILSG with a view to support countries and cities and their stakeholders in their decisions towards a bright urban future.

The Academy offers strategic contribution to urban vision, policy and planning across countries and cities through multi-level research, documentation, debate, advocacy and

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All India Institute of Local Self-Government

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block, TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai – 400051.

Tel: +91-22-2657 17 13 / 2657 17 14 / 6180 56 00 Fax: +91-22-2657 21 15 E-mail: dg@aiilsg.org Website: www.aiilsg.org

Ranjit S. Chavan *President*

Rajiv Agarwal (I.A.S. Retd.)

Director General

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Printed by Rajiv Agarwal (I.A.S. Retd.), The Director General, All India Institute of Local Self-Government, at Copytronics, Bandra (E), Mumbai - 400 051 and published by him at the All India Institute of Local Self-Government, 11, Horniman Circle, Mumbai - 400 023.

Editorial

International Yoga Day; asanas and more

"Yoga teaches us to cure what need not be endured and endure what cannot be cured." said the globally renowned and revered practitioner of Yoga, the Late B.K.S. Iyengar. His Yoga Centre in Pune is thronged by a vast multitude of students of the art, both Indian and foreign, wanting to pick up the finer nuances of the asanas, meditation and other practices in order to live a more holistic and satisfying life. Several overseas students spend time in the city to learn the art and later to spread the knowledge in their own countries for the benefit of their fellow citizens. Yoga is possibly one art or practice, or some say even a philosophy, to enable the practitioner meet the challenges of day-to-day living and in due course transform oneself into a more complete being.

United Nations observes 21st June every year since 2015 as International Day of Yoga. This was declared unanimously by the United Nations General Assembly in December 2014. It is recognition of the holistic benefits that Yoga is believed to confer on its practitioners rather than being viewed as some obscure, unproven, ritualistic practice sometimes associated by the Western world with this part of the globe. Yoga is believed to originate from India since ancient times and the international recognition is acknowledgement of the validity of the practice. Yoga is more than physical exercise; it teaches one to work towards and achieve unity of mind and body. It enables live in harmony with nature. 21st June is celebrated in several countries and cities across the globe with hundreds of participants jointly performing asanas, often in serene, tranquil outdoor locations. This year was no different. In India, of course, Yoga Day was celebrated with great vigour and enthusiasm across the length and breadth of the country. The Prime Minister himself participated in the public celebrations in Dehradun.

The annual international celebration of Yoga Day could become an occasion to reinforce the immense potential of ancient, traditional Indian practices especially in the field of healing and medicine to contribute to the holistic well-being of people all over. Renewed interest in several parts of the world in the virtues of traditional organic farming and foods has put the spotlight on many countries including India where traditional forms of food, healing and overall well-being have their roots. Within our country too, local populations have found great value in daily-use products made based on the traditional knowledge and sciences. Mainstream FMCG companies including multinationals operating in the country have been drawn to the opportunity and are vying with each other to offer 'natural' products. Some companies specializing in such products have achieved noteworthy economic success and continue to grow rapidly.

Ancient Indian sciences have drawn people from different countries, especially the western world, to visit some of the prominent centres in India to avail of the benefits offered by the practices, thus promoting vast opportunities in 'medical tourism'. But the opportunity need not be limited to economic exploitation of the tourism potential. In a larger sense it can enable showcase the vast repertoire of ancient Indian knowledge and wisdom and to offer to the world something unique and substantial.

Traditional Indian way of life could possibly help address some of the chronic challenges the world faces today. Waste, for example. Indians are known to have always led a frugal lifestyle which embodies the philosophy of reuse and recycle. This attitude is prevalent in our daily lives as we prefer not to throw away anything which has even a small chance of reuse or any residual value. Note for example how families preserve old newspapers, books and magazines and have enabled a huge paper recycling industry in the country at great benefit to the environment. The extensive use of metal, glass and earthenware vessels and containers in homes rather than plastic ones is a blessing particularly in today's times where the world if struggling to fight the plastic menace. While economic considerations gave rise to the development of resource-efficient solutions in everyday life, frugality is seen as a virtuous trait in the socio-cultural fabric of the nation. These practices are prevalent more widely in rural India whereas urban India, especially the metros, has to some extent succumbed to a so called 'modern' lifestyle. There is a pervasive philosophy of 'doing more with less' a clarion call in today's world marked by environmental degradation and severe threat of climate catastrophes. Environment protection is an important pillar of the Yoga teachings contained in Ahimsa or nonviolence or not causing harm to any living entity. This reflects in not cutting trees unnecessarily and protecting fragile ecosystems.

India's frugality and penchant for cost-effective solutions is also evident in the country's hi-tech space mission. The Mangalyaan Space Mission to Mars was launched successfully, reportedly at about one-tenth the cost of a similar project in an advanced country. To make a point, our real life Mars Mission cost even less than it cost to make the Hollywood space mission movie Gravity. The outcome, we believe is less on account of paucity of resources than in an ingrained culture of minimising costs and expenses.

Yoga Day, an occasion when the world embraces the art and science of physical asanas and meditation for individual well-being, can also teach us nongreed and moderation which can help eschew overindulgence and thus enable bring about balance and equilibrium in the environment. There could be opportunities to look at and gain from several other systems, beliefs and practices of India such as low-cost innovation, waste elimination, reuse and recycle and in general 'doing more with less'. These could certainly contribute to a more livable and sustainable future.

Welfare Lab a model for collaborative learning and mutual exchange between social workers welfare professionals in different countries

Gunnel Östlund, Mehrdad Darvishpour, Mukesh Kanaskar, Shweta Gupta, Usha Verghese & V. V. Kulkarni

Acknowledgement: The authors deeply acknowledge the valuable contribution of Late Professor Elinor Brunnberg.

Introduction:

From an everyday perspective, welfare is a concept that can be linked to the good life. Harald Swedner, who in 1979 became the first professor of social work in Sweden, saw professional welfare work as a process of societal change with the goal of inviting all people to have 'a good journey through life' (Swedner, 1996, pp. 33). The Welfare Committee, which issued a statement on the development of welfare in Sweden in the 1990s, characterized the concept of welfare as "based on the individual resources that citizens can control and consciously use" (SOU, 2001: 79, pp. 16). Sweden's welfare system has been based on using high taxes to reduce socioeconomic gaps and enable the State to assist vulnerable persons in a professional manner and take into account the needs of the population. The Swedish model began to take shape in the 1930s, when the idea of the

welfare state was launched by Per Albin Hansson. In 1934, Alva and Gunnar Myrdal published "Crisis in the Population Question" which launched the first radical social policies and advocated social welfare measures for families. In the 1960s, the concept of welfare replaced that of the welfare state and the social democratic welfare model. A more dynamic welfare state began to take shape in the late 1900s and early 2000s (Holgersson, 2008). Provision of support and care in various forms with satisfactory coverage and quality to the well-being of all age groups was central. It is also vital that children have access to a good upbringing and a good education system. Welfare policy also aims to increase the individual's autonomy and independence, and to provide support during the aging process (Holgersson, 2008). In international comparison, Sweden is a country with strong universal welfare coverage, a robust economy and a

well-developed democratic system based on civil rights. The Swedish welfare system's distinguishing features are its egalitarian nature and promotion of equal democratic and social rights for citizens (De los Reyes, 2006). The Indian welfare system does not provide universal basic public services like public health, clean water, and sanitation to all citizens (Kapur and Nangia, 2015). There is no universal welfare coverage, as exists in Sweden. During the last decades, India has focused more on expanding existing social protection programs and creating new ones.

To get a broader perspective on the Swedish welfare system, it is important to be able to make international comparisons with countries like India. Similarly, to get a broader perspective on the Indian system it is important to make comparisons with egalitarian services in countries like Sweden. It is especially valuable for teachers who train professionals in the health and welfare professions, such as social workers and nurses, to learn from other approaches to and conditions for promoting human well-being. A Welfare Lab meeting and discussions with representatives from different countries can deepen participants' understanding of how health and welfare are constructed in a country, and whether this can lead to a good journey through life.

Aim and participants

The aim is to describe and evaluate Welfare Labs, a new methodological approach for international exchange and collaborative learning in the area of health and welfare. The examples presented are taken from social work in India and Sweden. Welfare Lab consists of joint meetings, study visits and discussions where the participants can be researchers, practitioners, teachers, and students, as well as representatives of NGOs. Together they will try to find a creative approach where it is possible to discuss sensitive issues, both general and more specific, related to various topics in the field of health and welfare.

In 2014 Welfare Labs were organized between Bharati Vidyapeeth Deemed to be University (BVU), Social Work in Pune, India, and Mälardalen University (MDH), the Academy of Health and Welfare, Social Work in Eskilstuna, Sweden. On three previous occasions in 2012 and 2013, the parties had met to plan and discuss the idea of common Welfare Labs to be carried out and evaluated in both countries in 2014.

Welfare Lab mutual exchange

The concept of Welfare Lab was introduced in 2012/2013 by new cooperation partners BVU and MDH. Welfare Lab is a working method that

tries to weave reciprocity into international exchanges and to reflect on the basis of a combination of theory and practice. A formulation in a report from the Welfare Center in Eskilstuna in the 1990s can deepen our understanding of what can be included when combining theory and practice. In it, the scientist and the poet are both described as "rhyme-smiths", trying to create an understanding of reality, but also as differing, with poets often speaking about feelings and scientists trying to speak to reason (Sidebäck and Vuorinen, 2000). The interconnection of theory and practice related to emotion and reason is sometimes more visible in international exchanges, where examples from two countries can provide in-depth understanding of welfare practices and social justice. The intention of the Welfare Lab was to stage mutual exchanges of experiences and ideas where the parties deliberately do not maintain a specific face (Goffman, 2014). The intention was not to play a role as a professional Indian or Swedish social worker but to be open minded of the issues discussed. In this way, Welfare Lab contributes to a form of learning based on the individual's curiosity, commitment and interests, that is, on the foundation of active learning (Dewey, 1929/2008). Another hope was that Welfare Lab would create a local meeting culture based on equal and horizontal relations (Jansson, 2011) and enable collaborative learning for the participants (Göransson, 2011).

Welfare Lab methodology

The methodology used in Welfare Lab is to share examples from each country's welfare practices including social work, nursing, public health and community work. To gain knowledge and transparency in relation to the execution and organization of activities, visits and participatory observations were used or, alternatively, examples from placements in different areas of health and welfare. The Welfare Lab was applied to discussing private companies, voluntary organizations, and state and municipal activities. The close connection through mutual experiences from visits and specific examples developed a platform for brainstorming the strengths and difficulties in the different countries. It is through discussions based on a specific practice that practitioners, educators, and researchers can share experiences, exchange ideas and gain insights into the use of various health and welfare interventions and theories. In addition, practice-oriented seminars were given on specific themes to help teachers, professionals, and students to develop critical reflections and participate in in-depth discussions of the problem areas of social work, public health, and nursing. These discussions can help in generating new ideas and knowledge of various subjects of mutual interest and concern. Welfare Lab can also be compared with a workshop, where the participants'

ability to critically reflect is practiced, and ethics and professional values are debated from multiple perspectives.

Components of the Welfare Lab

Essential Components of the Welfare Lab are thematic discussions, field visits, skill labs, seminars, and research conferences where teachers, welfare professionals and students from the different countries meet. In the Welfare Labs the participants from each country also collaborated by making diary descriptions every day of the Welfare Labs and how their general knowledge developed.

Focus Group Discussions: Discussions provide a platform for brainstorm possibilities and feasibilities. It is through discussions that welfare professionals can share experiences, exchange ideas and gain insights into the functioning of welfare mechanisms at various levels.

Observations / Field Visits: The observation visits aim to make the welfare professionals oriented to the objectives, administrative structure and process in the client system in the other country. Visits can be in various organizations and fields of social welfare, such as non-governmental organizations involved in social welfare and health, hospitals and health care organizations engaged in the care of aged.

Skill Labs: Skill labs promote the application of knowledge, values, and skills in the general methods used in problem-solving. Preparation in the general method focuses on the application of the method to client/consumer systems of various sizes (individuals, families, groups, communities, organizations). Key to this problem-solving approach is its applicability to multi-cultural contexts, with a focus on empowering the client/consumer and systems. Developing the anchoring in ethics and values of the social work profession in practice.

Seminars/Conferences: Theme-based symposia can be helpful when presenting new learning and insights into areas of concern for both the partner countries. Further focus on practical examples generates new ideas and sharing on a variety of topics of mutual interest and concern.

Collaborative Research: During the course of the Welfare Lab, it is envisaged that a variety of hitherto unexplored and exciting possibilities will arise for possible research in areas of common interest.

Making Welfare Lab come true

In this study the Welfare Lab model was developed and tested in an international exchange between India and Sweden focusing on social work in the area of health and welfare. Research questions of the study:

- Do professionals from different welfare systems make their assessments using the same or different core values?
- What aspects of welfare were discussed by professionals in the delegations from Sweden and India?
- How did the participants from different countries experience the Welfare Lab process?
- Was it possible to achieve mutual cooperation and co-production of knowledge and understanding despite diametrically different welfare contexts?

When opinions and values were reflected upon in the discussions, new perspectives and ways of understanding were developed and hitherto unexplored issues became visible and were formulated. In the cooperation, areas of common interest were identified and made amenable to critical analysis. Causative factors of social problems and their consequences were discussed and more in-depth knowledge was created of the socioeconomic, cultural and political environments in the partner countries. This could, for example, take the form of providing an opportunity to apply

new theories or to use already existing theories in a new way in practical situations, or of examining aspects and perspectives that professionals need to identify in planning and implementing social interventions and assessing their impact on the client. The Welfare Lab provided more opportunities to critically examine practical situations based on human rights and social justice.

The Welfare Lab in Pune, India

In February 2014, fourteen people from Sweden went to India for a week to meet Indian counterparts in a Welfare Lab. The Swedish group included employees of Mälardalen University (MDH) and Eskilstuna municipality who met people from Bharati Vidyapeeth Deemed to be University (BVU), non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private companies working with social projects in both urban and rural areas in India. The NGOs were the International Center of Equity and Inclusion for Transformation (ICEQUI-T) of the All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG) and other organizations providing a variety of services and humanitarian interventions and organized around specific issues such as support for vulnerable women and children.

Themes that arose in the Welfare Lab in India were: children's rights and needs, women's health and welfare; gender dynamics, poverty and exclusion; minority groups, multicultural issues and integration; community work and rural development; the role of interest groups in social work; and using Gandhi's philosophy as a foundation for democracy and social work.

Welfare Work as highlighted in the Welfare Lab in India

There have been three waves of welfare work in India, with more social interventions since the independence in 1947. The first wave was based on private initiatives to improve the situation of socially vulnerable groups, and can be likened to the American model of welfare work. The second wave of social work consisted of more bureaucratically controlled poverty projects initiated by the Indian government; these were above all efforts to curb poverty and promote rural development. The goal was to give all the citizens of India, irrespective of caste, two meals a day a welfare goal that today is considered to have been achieved. An example of the rural poverty projects that were visited during the Welfare Lab is the development of the local community Ralegan Sidhi Village, where changes are being made on the basis of a private initiative. Assumed change processes were based on common basic rules accepted by the inhabitants like including a prohibition against

drinking alcohol; a maximum of having two children per family, prohibited free grazing for animals of the households and prohibition of cutting down trees in the area. In addition, all residents were contributing practical work for local community development such as improving the water conditions. The local community is governed democratically by a group with a majority of women. The residents also now have a well-functioning school that offers daily lessons for girls and boys as well as providing a boarding school for disadvantaged boys from other villages who have dropped out of school.

The third wave of welfare work is ongoing and is performed primarily by Non-Government Organizations (NGOs). Their work focuses on strengthening public health and contributing to civil rights for all, such as the right to education for both girls and boys. In India, it is not the responsibility of the municipality to care for the welfare of the population by building homes or investing money to provide good conditions for all. Social workers provide assistance with selfhelp and have limited resources to contribute, so the people themselves bear the primary responsibility for their health and their livelihood. For example, an intervention may be about teaching women and men the importance of washing their hands.

Although poverty has largely been remedied in rural areas, huge problems remain, especially for so-called De-Notified Tribes (DNT), nomadic people who are not registered in Indian society and are excluded. This means that they largely live outside the Indian society and lack such rights as maternity care, school for their children and the right to vote. In the excluded group DNT, barely about 10%–20% can read and write; for this illiterate population, the public health goal of two meals a day have not been reached nor learning to read and write for children.

In India, social work often takes the form of welfare projects run by NGOs or private companies' corporate social responsibility. Practitioners were included in the Welfare Lab, leading to interesting encounters. India seemingly needs to build about 500 new cities, for which the sanitation and public transport systems must be designed from scratch. These are now missing in most cities, which leads to the proliferation of open sewers and toilets, traffic congestion, and sprawling slums that cannot be regulated. More than half of the inhabitants of the cities are living in the slums. Right now the company is planning a new city with housing for both wealthy and poor people. The representative also suggested that the large cities, which have more inhabitants than the entire country of Sweden, will not have the possibility to develop sanitation and public transport because there is too little land and too many inhabitants.

Process and gender dynamics in the India Welfare Lab

Interesting discussions of experiences took place at the Welfare Lab meetings during the day and in more informal meetings while traveling or during meals in the evenings. Equal, horizontal meetings occurred during parts of these meetings in or in series of discussions where commitment to social justice, welfare and equal rights were debated. These shared understanding were sometimes expressed without words, being conveyed instead by gestures between people from different contexts. The tight schedule of the India Welfare Lab limited the time available for critical discussions. Anyway, all participants in Welfare Lab agreed that they had increased their understanding and knowledge about welfare work. This knowledge and understanding was acquired through experiences of practical social work, which formed the basis for most discussions that occurred between participants from different contexts and from different welfare professions.

The Indian participants expressed a positive attitude towards Welfare Lab in their descriptions of how the

discussions within the project had enriched their work. Participants from India emphasized, however, that the exchange of knowledge at times challenged their ways of thinking, even if the discussions contributed insightful reflections. The Indian participants believe that the Welfare Lab has deepened their understanding of how various social contexts in both countries are of importance for broadening their understanding in a global context. The discussions also gave added value and extended the perspectives of the social and welfare dynamics. Especially of interest to some of the Indian participants were the experiences of interactive research, which bears similarities to interactive public health and social work for illiterate women and men. To reach the illiterate group, the Indian social workers need to interact with them, and they often use interactive theater or pictures as means to achieve this.

The gender dynamics in both countries were discussed during Welfare Lab, although the female participants discussed these issues somewhat more amongst themselves. Within the Swedish delegation, the prevailing gender order in academia and in Indian society was a matter of debate. For example, Swedish female participants reacted to a meeting with students in the Master's program where girls sat on one side of the classroom and boys on the other side. Also, more

boys than girls were active and answered questions. This social hierarchy was much more evident in the classroom than typically is the case in Sweden. Some of the Swedish women actively tried to change the unequal situation that prevailed in the teaching situation. The interpretation of the classroom situation created conflicts among the Swedes. Gender differences were also apparent during a discussion with a professional organization, where a Swedish participant asked questions about the situation for women, especially about young girls' educational possibilities. The Indian man and woman representing the organization had differing opinions on this question.

The Welfare Lab in Eskilstuna, Sweden

A key component of the scheduled week in May 2014 for teachers in higher education in India to visit Sweden beside visiting the university and taking part in education – was field visits to various municipality sponsored welfare organizations to gain a better understanding of social work practice and education. Sweden is one of the most highly developed and welfareoriented countries in the world and the municipalities are responsible for providing support and assistance to people in vulnerable situations through the social services. One such visit was to an institution run by Eskilstuna Municipality called Laurus, which is a residential home care for unaccompanied minors between the ages of 16 and 18 years. This organization accepts both young asylum-seekers and unaccompanied minors with residence permits. Its main purpose is to support and guide minors to an independent and self-sufficient life, whether their future is in Sweden or elsewhere. Another visit was to Marielund's elderly care institution MOA, which provides elderly care with a focus on enabling elderly people to live in dignity and to feel a sense of well-being. It provides home care services as well as special housing for the elderly. A visit was also made to a women's shelter, Kvinbo Ragersborg. Taken together, these visits gave broad experiences of value for understanding social work initiatives in Sweden related to different types of vulnerable groups.

Welfare Work as highlighted in Welfare Lab in Sweden

The insights and experiential sociocultural learning gained during the study visits in Sweden were truly valuable and formed the foundation for future Welfare Labs. The heart of the Welfare Lab is the experiential learning which is its fundamental component. This active learning is the central mechanism for transmitting theoretical knowledge into the practical level of work. Practical

learning through social welfare training plays a pivotal role in providing education for welfare professionals (Teachers / Social W or k ers / B e h a v i or a l Scientists/Nurses), giving them an opportunity to explore, learn and develop the professional skills in working with people that are the essence of these professions. This type of learning has several components that help the participants to develop a holistic understanding of problems, situations, their causative factors and possible strategies of intervention.

Knowledge Development for Social Welfare Educators

The opportunity to experience how welfare institutions and academic programs function in other countries broadens practitioners' perspectives about their own context. It provides them with valuable exposure to different ideas about core values that will develop their skills for improving the quality of social work back home. Broadened perspectives based on experience will help them to think outside the box and understand socio-cultural realities in another milieu. It will prepare them for today's global challenges and develop their ability to confront socio-cultural situations outside their comfort zone. Sharing professional practices and understanding similarities and differences between the Indian and

Swedish situations and practices can benefit welfare professionals from both countries and help them to develop and incorporate best practices. An understanding of another country's professional knowledge and of cultural differences between one's home country and the host country also gives greater appreciation of one's own country's specific knowledge.

New knowledge for the India Faculty

The Welfare Lab is an opportunity to gain first-hand experience of different approaches to higher education, teaching styles, research, student services and support functions. Working, teaching or conducting research in a different environment always presents new and rewarding challenges. For the social work and nursing faculty from a pluralist country like India, teaching and sharing professional experiences with their Swedish counterparts has in itself been an enriching experience. It has been an opportunity to experience social work and field realities from very different socio-cultural settings. It is expected to stimulate both personal and professional development, inculcate creative ideas, and strengthen multi-cultural understanding. The Welfare Lab provided the faculty with a chance to interact and engage in dialogue with their Swedish counterparts both professionally and informally. India is a country steeped in

rich teaching and learning practices that undoubtedly benefit the host country of the Welfare Lab. India has several best practices in social work as well as forms of alternative medicine such as Ayurveda, Homeopathy, and Naturopathy, which were shared with the Swedish welfare professionals in social work and nursing care.

Summary of participants' reactions

Welfare Lab's active learning methodology has helped participants from India and Sweden by broadening their experience of the welfare practices, institutions and professional training programs. The participants believe that this experience inspired them to develop the skills needed to make socio-cultural adjustments regarding the content of teaching and research in social welfare, including providing a more personal understanding of global differences. The experience of Welfare Lab has forced them to think outside the traditional "box" and to try to understand different socio-cultural realities, helping to prepare them for today's global challenges. By developing the ability to respond to new socio-cultural situations beyond their comfort zones, they hope to find more opportunities for dealing with everyday problems. By sharing experiences and perceptions regarding the welfare practices and professional methodology they can identify and

understand some of the similarities and differences between India and Sweden. The Swedes were impressed by the Indian quota of 30% for women in political participation at all levels.

Participating in and implementing a project such as Welfare Lab, which brings together participants from two universities in completely different parts of the world, offers a great opportunity to experience different viewpoints and situations and to gain new knowledge. This applies not only to gathering knowledge about teaching students to work more ethically, but also to further developing all aspects of the academic world, from the organization of higher education to teaching styles, research methods, student services and support functions. Being able to meet outside the University in open places in a pluralistic society like India stimulated the colleagues from different countries and made it possible for them to share professional experiences. These meetings were enriching experiences that stimulated both personal and professional development, created new ideas, and enriched multicultural understanding. Welfare Lab also gave the Indian faculty a chance to interact and converse with Swedish colleagues both professionally and informally. India is a country steeped in a wealth of teaching and learning methods, which undoubtedly benefits the Swedes. For example, the Swedish participants also

gained insight into the nature of medical therapies such as Ayurveda, Homeopathy and Naturopathy. The Indian colleagues are working to develop an interactive methodology for social work and health promotion to use when working with populations that have low rates of literacy. Interactive methodology using visualization and practical measures from daily life gave the Swedish participants new insights into creative teaching methods in social work education.

Reflections on Welfare Lab as a successful platform in international cooperation

The Swedish welfare system is completely different from that of India, although both countries are democratic. A central and fundamental perspective in Indian social work, discussed during Welfare Lab, was how Gandhi's philosophy is expressed in social work and whether this ideology could be put to use in Sweden. Gandhi's philosophy includes the idea that individuals - from an ethical, moral and democratic perspective should react to injustices and promote social rights for all human beings (Gandhi, 1996; Parel, 2006; Gandhi, 2014). The Swedish participants favored the idea and saw several possible ways that Gandhi's philosophy could be useful in Sweden. Not least for the students and teachers

in the social work program when reflecting on democratic processes and professional ethics in social welfare. Despite our countries' differences, as welfare professionals we have a common view of promoting human rights and welfare needs for all people. Gandhi's philosophy fits well with the Swedish setting, with its statutory equal rights for all people. However, neither Sweden nor India live up to these ideal goals. Gandhi's philosophy inspires and guides social workers in India (Parel, 2006). But, for the Swedish delegation, it was hard to believe that social work could be carried out mainly by volunteers and based on Gandhi's philosophy of helping each other and through this achieve enough social change. To achieve significant social change from a Swedish perspective, it is necessary to make use of incremental improvement and to employ the value system of equal rights, rather than carry out modification of the resource allocation system.

In recent decades, the welfare system in Sweden has increasingly developed social welfare practices within the third sector. At the same time ideas from new public management have influenced the Swedish welfare model. The Indian social workers' way of working together with people in need through NGOs inspired Swedish students, practitioners, and teachers. The Social Work Program at

Mälardalen University aims to offer education in social work that broadens students' international outlook. Indian social workers also have a tradition of working with illiterate children and adults. This formed a basis for mutual exchange and critical reflections. Similarly, the welfare professionals from Sweden gave the Indian social workers a new starting point for reflecting on gender equality and hierarchies within the educational system. Despite India's socioeconomic gaps and health differences between castes and groups, the country has a well-developed democratic tradition to include women as representatives on all political levels.

The discussions about welfare and conditions for social change gave a deeper knowledge and understanding of social work from an international perspective. Welfare Lab is a potential educational tool, or approach that worked to expand the participants' knowledge about social justice and democracy. Nomadic tribes in India and Roma people in Sweden have a common Indian background, and also resemble each other in terms of their exclusion in society and common struggle to achieve inclusion, which today is beginning to receive increasing attention in both countries. How welfare is made available for the different groups in society is essential knowledge for both students and teachers in welfare professions.

Meeting with Indian vulnerable people and learning about their everyday life was emotionally challenging for the Swedish students and professionals, although they all had experienced meeting with vulnerable people in Sweden. The Welfare Labs did not leave anyone unmoved. Personal experiences of injustice may facilitate the development of ethically reflective practitioners (Schön, 1983). Professionals who maintain their ability to reflect both during and after treatment, who do not switch off their sense of commitment, but retain their sensitivity to people's different life stories. A general objective of Welfare Lab was to expand participants' knowledge about various aspects of well-being; and this objective, according to all participants, has been reached.

Some suggestions are worth considering for those who wish to use the Welfare Lab methodology. First of all, participants must agree on the conditions for cooperation and the form that a co-production of knowledge and understanding might take. The participants also need to agree on scheduling and content. One should strive for horizontal meetings, where reciprocity and equality are sought, and one must expect that repeated meetings will be needed to further develop understanding. Of course, there must be a discussion on how to do this. The goal that Welfare

Lab above all should contain equal and horizontal conversations was perhaps too ambitious, but it was nevertheless a good goal. Even so, there were some equal conversations, perhaps especially when the discussion heated up a bit with intense feelings and commitment. In mutual meetings, participants can jointly reach a broader horizon, shared experience, and new knowledge (Jansson, 2011). Thus, co-produced knowledge and understanding are possible to reach through international cooperation, and Welfare Lab is a methodology to accomplish this.

Conclusion – a coproduction of understanding and knowledge of welfare dynamics.

Welfare Lab has led to increased reflection and discussion of the situation in different countries in how to bring about justice and welfare. The in-depth reflections on power issues in different social and political systems were an important part of the discussion for the included countries India and Sweden. The critical reflections concerned equal rights, democracy, gender equity, and empowerment of women and children. In addition, the values of Gandhi's philosophy of non-violence and democratic rights compare to rightsbased approaches such as the Swedish welfare system as basis for welfare and health are relevant discussions for all societies in the 21st century.

Declaration of interests: The authors have no conflict of interests.

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Local Governance matters for Urban Housing

S. K. Kataria

A house is made of walls and beams; a home is built with love and dreams. Yes, home is an emotional matter which is directly related with the feelings of love, security, dedication and belongingness. Nevertheless, the fact is that the feeling of 'home' relies upon 'own house'. Housing is one of the biggest problems of human beings and welfare states. Since ages, food, clothing and shelter (housing) have been primary needs of human life. The availability of these necessities in sufficient quantity and quality increase the physical and mental efficiency, productivity and satisfaction of the people. Industrialization, service sector, education and healthcare facilities, employment avenues and modern life styles accompany rapid urban growth but such urban growth has resulted in a civic mess which is a challenge for all municipal bodies.

The term 'urban' in India is defined as a human settlement with a minimum population of 5000 persons,

with 75 % of the male working population engaged in non-agriculture activities and a population density of at least 400 persons per sq.km. Further, all statutory towns having a Municipal Corporation, Municipal Council or Nagar Panchayat as well as a Cantonment Board are classified as 'urban'. It is very evident that our villages are converting into towns or their geographical area is entering into urban boundaries very fast.

Urban Housing in India

In a broader meaning, housing may be defined as an architectural unit for accommodation to protect the occupant from the forces of nature and society. However, in a wider sense it includes all the ancillary services and community facilities which are essential to human well-being like water, electricity, sanitation, transport, communication and recreation. When it comes to affordable housing then it represents a housing which is

reasonably adequate in standard and location for lower and middle income households and does not cost so much that a household is unlikely to be able to meet other basic needs on a sustainable basis. In fact, India needs more of affordable housing.

At the beginning of the 12th Five Year Plan the government of India estimated shortage of about 18.18 million housing units in the country which has now reached 20.10 million. It is estimated that 88 % of urban housing shortage comes from economically weaker sections (EWS). Around 11 % of shortage is from lower income groups (LIG). As per KPMG report released at Real Estate Banking Conclave (August, 2014) organized by National Real Estate Development Council (NAREDCO), almost a fifth of urban and rural households in India have limited access to housing facilities and the country needs to build 30,000-50,000 housing units per day for the next eight years. A majority of these houses need to be in the affordable segment requiring investment of more than US dollar 2 trillion. The report further says "large-scale development of affordable housing projects is still a challenging proposition for many private developers because it is related with economically weaker sections, the urban slums etc."

According to the Times of India "a majority of Indians have per capita space equivalent to or less than a 10 feet x 10 feet room for their living, sleeping, cooking, washing and toilet needs. The average space available is 103 sq feet per person in rural areas and 117 sq feet per person in urban areas." The news story says that 33 % of Indians live in less space than US prisoners. On the other hand, it is generally said that 'Indian property bubble' is going to burst any time. The problem is that newly rich or upper middle class families generally prefer to invest in plots, flats and gold. When a Delhi or Mumbai based person does not find property in the metro city, in his financial range, he or she prefers to invest in nearby cities like Jaipur or Surat. In this situation, the rates of land and houses go high unnecessarily and the properties bought by these outsiders remain unused.

Many committees constituted by the government on the issues related with urban housing problems reveal that no systematic and synchronized efforts have been made to solve the problem. The Delhi Government's Tejendra Khanna Committee (2006) on unauthorized constructions, Mathur Committee (2006) on Farm Houses and Unauthorized Colonies, and Dogra Committee (2007) on DDA Group Housing Society Flats etc. have raised many chronic issues of *Lal Dora*.

Actually the term 'lal dora (red thread) is used to determine the boundary of a village agriculture land and housing or residential area. The land earmarked for village abadi and the agriculture land of the village were duly demarcated in the land settlement of 1908-09 and abadi site was circumscribed in the village map in red ink. That is how it came to be commonly known as lal dora. The land falling within lal dora is not assessed to land revenue. Those falling outside the village abadi (lal Dora) are meant for purposes connected with agriculture and are subject to land revenue. Many legislations including 'East Punjab Holdings (Consolidation and Prevention of Fragmentation) Act, 1948, The Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954 and Delhi Municipal Corporation Act, 1957 deal with such issues. Almost similar problem is being faced in Rajasthan's urban areas where agricultural land is converted into residential purpose under section 90-A and B of Rajasthan Land Revenue Act, 1956.

The main constraint in urban areas is the lack of availability of land. Lack of access to finance for low income people, rising cost of construction, low interest by private developers, unsystematic urban planning, high rate of cheating cases, land mafias' terror and poverty-related side effects are some other adverse factors in urban affordable housing.

Policy Initiatives for Urban Housing

National Housing and Habitat **Policy** was framed in 1998 which was aimed at ensuring that basic need 'Shelter for All' is fulfilled in a time bound manner and a better quality life is provided to all the citizens of the country by harnessing the unused potential in the public, private and the household sectors. Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM, 2005-2014) has been a holistic and integrated programme for the development of urban infrastructure and amenities. Now, National Urban Housing and Habitat Policy, 2007 is operational with the intention to promote sustainable development of habitat in the country with a view to ensuring equitable supply of land, shelter and services at affordable prices to all sections of society.

The Union Cabinet in its meeting on June 17, 2015 gave its approval for launch of "Housing for All by 2022 -National Mission for Urban Housing" aimed to address urban areas with following components/options to States/Union Territories and Cities:

Slum rehabilitation of slum dwellers with participation of private developers using land as a resource;

- b) Promotion of affordable housing for weaker sections through credit linked subsidy;
- Affordable housing in partnership with public & private sectors, and
- d) Subsidy for beneficiary-led individual house construction or enhancement.

It is expected that about 20 million housing units are required in 4041 cities and towns of India. Initially the scheme (Pradhan Mantri Awaas Yojana) has been launched in 500 cities. Central grant of rupees one lakh per house, on an average, will be available under the slum rehabilitation programme. A state government would have flexibility in deploying this slum rehabilitation grant to any slum rehabilitation project taken for development using land as a resource for providing houses to slum dwellers. The scheme will be implemented as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme except the credit linked subsidy component, which will be implemented as a Central Sector Scheme. The Mission also prescribes certain mandatory reforms for easing up the urban land market for housing, to make adequate urban land available for affordable housing. Houses constructed under the mission would be allotted in the name of the female head of the household or in the joint name of the male head of the household and his wife.

AMRUT (Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation) was initiated in 2015 to develop basic facilities i.e., water supply and robust sewerage system for urban transformation. Smart Cities Project, Swachh Bharat Mission, Deendayal Antodaya Yojana and Affordable Housing Scheme are some other efforts for strengthening urban housing. Smart cities are intended to enhance the quality of urban life by providing a clean and sustainable environment with 24 hour water and electricity supply. Sanitation and solid waste management, efficient urban mobility and public transportation, affordable housing for poor and robust information technology connectivity among others are essential features which expect proactive role of municipal bodies.

Real Estate Regulation

The term 'real estate' is comparatively a new entry in Indian housing sector since 1980s. Coming from USA, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, this term gives the meaning of profession of making, selling, buying, renting, etc. of residential and commercial buildings by private parties. The traditional identification of real estate including very big land along with its natural resources, crops, minerals and water, etc. has been diminished and now it is more popular with apartments, flats,

villas, duplexes, multiplexes, complexes and shopping malls, etc. The real estate sector has 9% share in India's GDP and is the second largest employer after agriculture sector. About 76,000 companies are working in the real estate sector and every year one million people purchase a house and collectively make an investment of 3.5 lakh crore rupees.

The waves of liberalization, privatization and globalization (LPG era) have compelled us to make a comprehensive law to handle the issues of real estate.

The Real Estate (Regulation and Development) Act, 2016 is operational since May 01, 2017. This law (as a bill) was first introduced in Rajya Sabha on August 14, 2013 by the UPA government. Meanwhile, the bill was referred to the departmental committee. During Prime Minister Narendra Modi's regime it was passed by the Rajya Sabha on March 10, 2016 and five days later it was passed by the Lok Sabha. The President of India gave his approval on March 25, 2016 and on the next day it was published in the Gazette of India.

Some sections (59-92) were made effective from May 01, 2016 and the whole Act was enforced from May 01, 2017. The Maharashtra Housing (Regulation and Development) Act, 2012 was repealed by this Act. This law is made for establishment of Real Estate Regulatory Authority (RERA) for regulation and promotion of the real estate sector and to ensure sale of plot, apartment or building, as the case may be, or sale of real estate project, in an efficient and transparent manner and to protect the interest of consumers in the real estate sector and to establish an adjudicating mechanism for speedy dispute redressal and also to establish the Appellate Tribunal to hear appeals from the decisions, directions or orders of the Real Estate Regulatory Authority and the adjudicating officer and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto. This law will cover about 7957 developers and their 18,562 projects at present. A turnover of Rs. 197757 crore will be regulated. This Act makes compulsory registration of each company, project and deal with customers. There is a provision of online monitoring as well as penalties in case of default and cheating.

Plan Outlay in Housing and Urban Development Sector (Rupees million)

S.No.	Plan	Total Outlay	Housing and Urban Development	Percentage share in total	
1.	First Five year plan	20688	488	2.1	
2.	Second Five year plan	48000	1200	2.5	
3.	Third Five year plan	85765	1276	1.5	

S.No.	Plan	Total Outlay	Housing and Urban Development	Percentage share in total	
4.	Annual plans (1966-69)	66254	733	1.1	
5.	Fourth Five year plan	157788	2702	1.7	
6.	Fifth Five year plan	394262	11500	2.9	
7.	Annual plans (1977-80)	121765	3688	3.0	
8.	Sixth Five year plan	975000	24884	2.6	
9.	Seventh Five year plan	1800000	42295	2.3	
10.	Annual plans (1990-92)	1338350	3001	2.2	
11.	Eighth Five year plan	4341000	105000	2.4	
12.	Ninth Five year plan	8592000	158800	1.8	
13.	Tenth Five year plan	15256390	405000	2.6	
14.	Eleventh Five year plan	36447170	368700	1.0	
15.	Twelfth Five year plan	37165460	1640780	4.4	

Possible Remedies

It has become almost imperative to provide urban affordable housing facilities to each needy family, not because India is a welfare state, but because shelter is a primary need of a person and it is also a duty of the State. The **Right to housing** has been recognized in a number of international human rights instruments. Article -25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights declares the right to housing as part of the right to an adequate standard of living. It states:

"Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, and housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control."

India is a signatory of this declaration and other international conventions on housing.

Similarly, Article 11(1) of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) also guarantees the right to housing as part of the right to an adequate standard of living. Even the Constitution of Nepal (2015) makes the provision (Article-37) of the right to housing to each citizen. Government of India must take the appropriate and proactive course of action to resolve the very urgent issue.

- All the land and housing properties must be linked with 'Aadhaar' and it must be on family basis not merely individual record, so that government can have a database to identify the families possessing unnecessary lands or houses as well as the benami properties.
- A nation -wide survey must be undertaken to know the occupancy and non-occupancy of all the individual, group, private and government residential properties. Presently, about 10 % government hostels, guest houses, shelters, transit hostels, rest houses, bungalows and night camps, etc. are not in working condition or not being used on daily basis. Likewise, the flats, housing board residential units and even individual plots are either unoccupied or not being used by the owner and others.
- The Parliament of India may initiate a national legislation and bind each private and government company, organization, enterprise, factory or unit to provide housing facilities to their employees.
- Shelter and sanitation facilities for footpath dwellers in urban areas must be ensured as per the guidelines framed in August,

- 1992 by the then Ministry of Urban Development. These guidelines are now renamed as 'Night Shelter for Urban Shelter less' with following two components-
- A. Construction of community night shelter with community toilets and baths.
- B. Construction only for community 'pay and use' toilets /baths for homeless.

The apex court of the country in its decision in January, 2012 has said that night shelter is a fundamental right under Article-21 of the Constitution of India.

- Master plans must be chalked out by each city well in time and these should be followed by every government and private agency and failure must be made a cognizable offence under a specific law.
- Rehabilitation of slums must be a top priority and, at the same time it must be ensured that no new slum is developed in any area.
- No outsider should be allowed to buy a piece of land or house in a city. Only the persons actually residing or earning the livelihood in the city or town should be allowed to do so.

Although no direct responsibility has been given to municipal bodies to solve the issue of urban housing in India, the Twelfth Schedule of the Constitution of India entrusts urban planning, regulation of land use and construction of buildings, etc. to these institutions. The major task and concern is effective coordination between municipal bodies, urban development authorities, housing boards, town planning departments and other government agencies. Effective co ordination must be ensured at higher levels enabling urban local bodies to work to their potential.

Undoubtedly, any issue related with human development and civic facilities in urban areas primarily seeks attention of municipal body of the town. Since housing is a basic need and its paucity leads to other side effects, it is better to involve municipal bodies at every step of urban planning and its implementation.

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Metropolitan Cities in India: Growth and Distribution

Gursharan Kaur

1. Introduction

India is the second most populous country in the world, with over 1,180 million people. One in six people or 17.5% of global population lives in India. India is projected to be the world's most populous country by 2025, surpassing China, with a population exceeding 1,600 million by 2050. The unique feature of India's urbanization is continuous increase in number of Class-1 and metropolitan cities. This paper makes an attempt to study the development of metropolitan cities as a component of urbanization and history of metropolitan development in India. The distribution pattern of metro cities among different regions of the country is also studied in order to know the regional variations in the growth of metro cities.

2. Metropolitan as a component of urbanization

Before understanding the term "Metropolis" there is a need to

understand the concept of urbanization. Demographically, the urbanization is measured by the percentage of population living in urban areas. (Bhagat, 2011& Sadashivam & Tabassum, 2016) Urbanization is an index of transformation from traditional rural economies to modern industrial economies. (Jaysawal and Saha, 2014) As per Census of India (2011), an urban area can be defined based upon the two criteria, first, all places with a Municipality, Corporation, Cantonment Board, or Notified Town Area Committee, etc. so declared by State law are known as Statutory Towns. Second definition says towns which have a minimum population of 5000, at least 75% of male working population engaged in nonagricultural activities, and a density of at least 400 persons per sq. km. are known as Census Towns.

There exists a close relationship between urbanization and economic growth. The Eleventh Five Year Plan argued that urbanization should be seen as a positive factor in overall development as the urban sector contributes about 62% of the GDP. In 2012 Urban India contributed 57% to the country's gross domestic product (GDP). (India's growth engine and gateways - Livemint) The nation's economic growth has moved from about 6% during the 1990s to about 7% per annum during the first decade of the 2000s, the potential of economic growth giving rise to the relatively higher urban growth during the last decade. (Haque & Patel, 2017)

As per 2011 census, about 377 million Indians comprising about 31.16 per cent of the country's population, live in urban areas. Indian urbanization is characterized by continuous concentration of people and activities in large cities. The leading factor behind it is rural push instead of urban pull. There is growth of population in a few large cities leading to formation of metro cities without a corresponding increase in their economic base. (Jaysawal & Saha, 2014; Haque & Patel, 2017) The Metropolis is also termed as Mothercity as it feeds its inhabitants as well as its surroundings. As per Census of India, a city with population more than 10 lakh is termed as Metro city. Continuous movement of people from rural areas towards Class-I cities (population more than 1 lakh) as well as from lower order urban areas

towards these cities (Class-I cities) leads to increase in number of metro cities. As per Census of India, the number of Class-1 towns increased to 465 in 2011 from 393 in 2001; similarly the number of metro cities increased to 53 in 2011 from 35 in 2001.

3. Metropolitan development in India

At the beginning of the twentieth century there was only one metro city, namely Kolkata, the then Capital of British India with a population of 1.52 million. In 1911 Mumbai became the second metro city of India. In the year 1951, the number of metro cities increased to 5 with the addition of Chennai, Delhi and Hyderabad. Subsequently the number of metro cities continued to rise to 23 in 1991, 35 in 2001 and to 53 in 2011. Table no.1 shows the list of million plus cities in India as per Census of India 2011. It is estimated that by the year 2025, the number of metro cities will increase further to 69 accommodating 78% of India's urban population and will contribute 77% to urban GDP. (India's growth engine and gateways -Livemint). As per Sadaashivam and Tabassum 2016, it is estimated that by 2021, there will be 71 cities in the country with million plus population with addition of 19 new cities in the current list of metro cities.

Table No.1: List of million plus cities in India - Census 2011

Rank	UA	State/Territory	Population (2011)
1	Mumbai	Maharashtra	18,394,912
2	Delhi	Delhi	16,349,831
3	Kolkata	West Bengal	14,057,991
4	Chennai	Tamil Nadu	8,653,521
5	Bangalore	Karnataka	8,520,435
6	Hyderabad	Telangana	7,677,018
7	Ahmedabad	Gujarat	6,357,693
8	Pune	Maharashtra	5,057,709
9	Surat	Gujarat	4,591,246
10	Jaipur	Rajasthan	3,046,163
11	Kanpur	Uttar Pradesh	2,920,496
12	Lucknow	Uttar Pradesh	2,902,920
13	Nagpur	Maharashtra	2,497,870
14	Ghaziabad	Uttar Pradesh	2,375,820
15	Indore	Madhya Pradesh	2,170,295
16	Coimbatore	Tamil Nadu	2,136,916
17	Kochi	Kerala	2,119,724
18	Patna	Bihar	2,049,156
19	Kozhikode	Kerala	2,028,399
20	Bhopal	Madhya Pradesh	1,886,100
21	Thrissur	Kerala	1,861,269
22	Vadodara	Gujarat	1,822,221
23	Agra	Uttar Pradesh	1,760,285
24	Visakhapatnam	Andhra Pradesh	1,728,128
25	Malappuram	Kerala	1,699,060
26	Thiruvananthapuram	Kerala	1,679,754

Metropolitan Cities in India: Growth and Distribution 31

Rank	UA	State/Territory	Population (2011)
27	Kannur	Kerala	1,640,986
28	Ludhiana	Punjab	1,618,879
29	Nashik	Maharashtra	1,561,809
30	Vijayawada	Andhra Pradesh	1,476,931
31	Madurai	Tamil Nadu	1,465,625
32	Varanasi	Uttar Pradesh	1,432,280
33	Meerut	Uttar Pradesh	1,420,902
34	Faridabad	Haryana	1,414,050
35	Rajkot	Gujarat	1,390,640
36	Jamshedpur	Jharkhand	1,339,438
37	Jabalpur	Madhya Pradesh	1,268,848
38	Srinagar	Jammu and Kashmir	1,264,202
39	Asansol	West Bengal	1,243,414
40	Vasai-Virar	Maharashtra	1,222,390
41	Allahabad	Uttar Pradesh	1,212,395
42	Dhanbad	Jharkhand	1,196,214
43	Aurangabad	Maharashtra	1,193,167
44	Amritsar	Punjab	1,183,549
45	Jodhpur	Rajasthan	1,138,300
46	Raipur	Chhattisgarh	1,123,558
47	Ranchi	Jharkhand	1,120,374
48	Gwalior	Madhya Pradesh	1,117,740
49	Kollam	Kerala	1,110,668
50	Durg-Bhilainagar	Chhattisgarh	1,064,222
51	Chandigarh	Chandigarh	1,055,450
52	Tiruchirappalli	Tamil Nadu	1,022,518
53	Kota	Rajasthan	1,001,694

 $Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_millionplus_urban_agglomerations_in_India$

³² Local Government Quarterly April - June 2018

It is to be noted that not only these million plus cities increased in number but their share in the nation's total population has also registered considerable increase. In 1901, only one and half million urban Indians lived in metro cities as against 159.57 million today, while the per cent share of the urban population has increased from 6% in 1901 to 31.2 % in 2011. (Haque & Patel, 2017) The major contributor to this explosive growth of metro cities is migration from rural as well as from lower order urban areas towards the metro cities. That further leads to emergence of outgrowths in the form of haphazard development at the periphery of metros.

Metropolitan cities distribution in India

The growth and distribution pattern of metropolitan cities in India is helpful to understand regional disparities in India. Table No. 2 shows the number increase in metropolitan cities and their distribution among different regions decade wise. The table shows that although Kolkata was the first metropolitan city of India from the Eastern region of the country, this region lacks in metropolitan development. Patna became second metro city from East in 1991 after a gap of 90 years depicting the slow pace of metropolitan development in this region. But in 2001 there was an addition of 3 new metropolitan cities namely Asansol, Dhanbad & Jamshedpur. With addition of Ranchi in 2011, the Eastern region has 6 metropolitan cities.

Table no.2: Distribution of Metropolitan cities in different Regions

Census Year	Metropolitan cities					Total Number	
Icai	Northern	Central	Western	Southern	Eastern	North- Eastern	of new metro cities
1901					Kolkata		1
1911			Mumbai				1
1951	Delhi			Hyderabad Chennai			3
1961			Ahmedabad	Bangalore			2
1971	Kanpur		Pune				2
1981	Jaipur Lucknow		Nagpur				3
1991	Ludhiana Varanasi	Bhopal Indore	Surat Vadodara	Coimbatore Visakhapatnam Kochi Madurai	Patna		11

2001	Agra	Jabalpur	Nashik	Vijayawada	Asansol		12
	Allahabad		Rajkot		Dhanbad		
	Amritsar				Jamshedpur		
	Faridabad						
	Meerut						
2011	Ghaziabad	Gwalior	Aurangabad	Kannur	Ranchi		18
	Jodhpur	Durg-Bhilai	Vasai-Virar	Kollam			
	Kota	nagar		Kozhikode			
	Srinagar	Raipur		Malappuram			
	Chandigarh			Thiruvananthapuram			
				Thrissur			
				Tiruchirappalli			
Total	16	6	10	15	6	0	53

Source: Haque & Patel, 2017

Mumbai became the second metropolitan city of India in 1911 from the Western region of the country. But it took 50 years for Ahmedabad to become next metropolitan city from the West in the year 1961. Thereafter, Pune and Nagpur joined the list in 1971 and 1981 respectively. In 1991, Surat and Vadodara joined the list of metropolitan cities. In the year 2001, Nasik and Rajkot, and in 2011 Aurangabad and Vasai-Virar became metropolitan cities from the West. Overall, till 2011, there were 10 metropolitan cities from the West.

In the year 1951, Delhi (the later capital of British) became first metropolitan city from the North. Kanpur became the second metro city in the region in 1971. In 1981 Jaipur and Lucknow joined the list and in 1991, Ludhiana and Varanasi became metropolitan cities. In 2001 Agra, Allahabad, Amritsar, Faridabad and

Meerut became metropolitan cities and in 2011 Ghaziabad, Jodhpur, Kota, Srinagar and Chandigarh became metropolitan. Overall there are 16 metropolitan cities in the North.

Parallel to North, the Southern region also got its first metropolitan cities namely Hyderabad and Chennai in 1951. Later Bangalore joined in 1961. After 3 decades, i.e., in 1991, Coimbatore, Visakhapatnam, Kochi and Madurai became metropolitan cities from the South. Vijayawada joined the list in 2001, and in 2011, Kannur, Kollam, Kozhikode, Malappuram, Thiruvananthapuram, Thrissur and Tiruchirappalli also became metropolitan cities of the South. The total number of metro cities is 15 in Southern region.

Central region got its first metropolis cities in 1991 with Bhopal and Indore crossing the threshold. In 2001 Jabalpur became the third metro city from the Central region. Gwalior, Durg-Bhilainagar and Raipur joined the list in 2011. There are a total of 6 metropolitan cities in central region. Whereas Northeastern region is still a metropolis deprived region of the country, development there is dominated by small and medium towns.

It is observed that nearly 57% of the urbanites of the Western region are living in only 10 of its metro cities, followed by 43.26%, 39% and 37% in 15 southern, 16 northern and 6 eastern metro cities, respectively (Haque & Patel, 2017). It is also observed that metropolitan cities have emerged in a few well-off states/UTs, for instance in the Northern region (Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Punjab and Haryana), Western region (Maharashtra and Gujarat) and Southern part (Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka). However the comparatively backward regions (especially Orissa, the northeastern states and Uttarakhand) remain devoid of inputs and facilities, leading to their sluggish metropolitan development over the decades.

From the above table it can also be observed that till 1981 the metropolitan growth was quite slow with addition of 2 or 3 metro cities in each decade. There was a sudden increase in number of metro cities in 1991 census with an addition of 11

new metro cities. The reason behind it was the economic reforms of 1990s marked by globalization, liberalization and privatization. In 2001, as many as 12 new metro cities from different regions of India entered the list increasing their total number to 35 from 23 in 1991 and 53 in 2011 with addition of 18 new metro cities. The proportion of the urban population living in the million-plus cities has increased progressively from 32.5 percent in 1991 to 42.6 percent in 2011. There has been an almost fourteen fold increase in India's urban population since independence growing at a rate of more than 50 percent.

5. Conclusion

This paper tried to examine the factors leading to development of metropolitan cities as a component of urbanization as well as the distribution of metro cities among different regions of India. It is found that in case of India the urbanization is more inclined towards the development of Class-1 or metro cities. It is also observed that rural push is more responsible for migration of people from rural areas to Class-1 cities rather than urban pull.

Urban India contributed 57% to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) in 2012. Paper also highlighted the growth of metro cities in India with Kolkata as first metro city. The growth

of metro cities remained steady till 1981 with addition of 2 or 3 metro cities in each census. In 1991 the number of metro cities jumped to 23 with addition of 11 new metros due to economic reforms of 1990s.

As far as distribution of metro cities is concerned, Northern and Southern regions have more number of metro cities that is 16 and 15 respectively followed by Western region having 10 metro cities. Central and Eastern regions each have 6 metropolitan cities whereas the Northeastern region does not have any such large city. This depicts the regional variations in distribution of metro cities. It is further estimated that by 2021, there will be 71 metro cities in the country.

In order to check this unmanaged growth of metro cities there is need to concentrate on the growth of small and medium towns. Priority should be given to the development of rural/backward areas of the country.

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NGOs and Rural Development

R. N. Mareppagoudra, B. M. Ratnakar

Mahatma Gandhiji said "India lives in its villages." Mahatma Gandhi was probably the first among our greatest national leaders to promote rural development in India. His concept of rural development meant self-reliance with least dependence on outsiders. For Gandhi, rebuilding villages in accordance with the principles of self-sufficiency and decentralization was very important. To quote him, "I would say that if the village perishes, India will perish too." (Harijan, August 29, 1936).

Gandhiji projected trusteeship theory for rural development and social change. Rural development is concerned with economic growth and social justice, improvement in the living standard of the rural people by providing adequate and quality social services and minimum basic needs.

India being a socialistic democratic Republic adopted welfare state concept and ever since her

Independence, the primary objective was the welfare of its population. The Constitution makers gave stress to elimination of poverty, removal of inequality and providing a better dignified quality of life to its citizens. Government of India has taken many steps to develop rural India and for this, Department of Rural Development has been setup under the control of Ministry of Rural Development. In order to achieve this, various plans and programmes were designed by the subsequent governments. According to Ministry of Rural Development, 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. Initially, main thrust for development was laid on agriculture,

industry, communication, education, health and allied sectors but later on it was realized that accelerated development can be provided only if governmental efforts are adequately supplemented by direct and indirect involvement of people at the grass-root level. Keeping in view the needs and aspirations of the local people, Panchayati Raj Institutions have been involved in the programme implementation and these institutions constitute the core of decentralized development of planning and its implementation. The present strategy of rural development mainly focuses on poverty alleviation, better livelihood opportunities, provision of basic amenities and infrastructure facilities through innovative programmes of wage and selfemployment. The above goals are being achieved by various programme support initiatives being implemented creating partnership with communities, non-governmental organizations, community based organizations, institutions, PRIs and industrial establishments, while the Department of Rural Development provides logistic support both on technical and administrative side for programme implementation.

NGOs' role in development:

As development actors, NGOs have become the main service providers in countries where the

government is unable to fulfil its traditional role. NGOs have the capacity to innovate and adapt more quickly than national governments. Therefore, their actions can undermine government initiatives. Research on NGOs is vast, and NGOs have been subject to rich academic debates related to global governance, democratization and development. Potentially, NGOs can participate in all phases of the policy cycle and at all levels of the public sector - as contributors to policy discussion and formulation, advocates and lobbyists, service deliverers (operators), monitors (watchdogs) of rights and of particular interests, and as innovators introducing new concepts and initiatives. Some NGOs combine two or more of these activities, whereas others choose to focus on one. Rural development includes measures to strengthen the democratic structure of society through the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). It also includes measures to improve the rural infrastructure, improve income of rural households and delivery systems pertaining to education, health & safety mechanisms. In light of the above an attempt is being made to study the NGOs and their role in bringing about rural development. As a matter of fact it is to be noted that the government alone cannot reach the people at large. It looks for some dedicated non-profit NGOs which can help the governments in achieving the

development goals. Several non-profit socio economic and religious institutions began to get involved in such a noble activity of rural development and Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala, a renowned religious institution took initiatives to involve itself into the rural development activities in the State of Karnataka. Recently a historic event took place in Karnataka, Sri. Narendra Modiji, Hon'ble Prime Minister of India visited Dharmasthala on 29.10.2017 and offered prayers at the Lord Manjunatheshwara Temple in Dharmasthala. At Ujire, the Prime Minister attended a function of the Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala's Rural Development Project, where he distributed Rupay cards and launched the 'Digitized SHG (self-help group) Member Transaction' and 'Preserve Mother Earth' campaigns. The State Bank of India and SKDRDP signed an agreement to enable cashless transactions for members having Rupay cards and this event attracted the attention of scholars in social sciences to look into the achievements of a religious institution creating an environment of self-help and mutual growth which in turn leads to the overall development of the rural masses in specific, and others in general. As a matter of fact, since ancient times religious institutions have been involved in several kinds of public welfare activities irrespective of caste, creed and religion. People being

god fearing kept on following different religions of their choice which was later guaranteed by the Indian Constitution under fundamental rights.

An attempt is made in this paper to present the facts as to how a religious institution in its true spirit transformed the concept of Dharma into a rural development concept which in turn is helping crores of people. Dharmasthala is a house hold name in the state of Karnataka in specific, and the world at large.

Shree Kshethra Dharmasthala is a renowned Hindu religious shrine having 700 years of history of conducting charity. The deity of Dharmasthala is Lord Manjunatha Swamy and the temple is run by the Heggades. The Heggade family who were and are the caretakers of Shree Kshetra (a religious place) were involved in a number of social welfare activities and of these, the 'Daanas' or charities were quite significant. Dharmasthala, a powerful religious sacred place is known for executing social responsibilities through the four traditional Daanas – Anna Daana. Aushadha Daana, Vidya Daana and Abhaya Daana. These are the traditionally observed charities of granting food, medicine, education and ensuring freedom from fear. Anna Daana i.e. free food to lakhs of devotees visiting Dharmasthala every

day, free mass marriages for the less privileged couples, financial assistance for medical care to lakhs of poor rural patients and 'Vidyadana' or imparting education and 'abhayadana' or assuring protection.

Rajarushi, Padmabhushan Dr. D. Veerendra Heggade, Pujya Dharmadhikari (Religious Head) of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala took initiative and transformed the traditional viewpoint of Dharma. He thought of an institution which would go beyond charity. In 1982, Pujya Shri Heggadeji made sincere efforts to convert the benevolent activities of the Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala into a rural development activity, which would facilitate the overall development of the rural people to lead a better life, without losing their faith in the temple. Pujya Shri Veerendra Heggadeji, a visionary and a progressive thinker studied the agriculture situation in the region as due to various reasons people were moving away from agriculture. The situation was precarious and Heggadeji understood the predicaments of farmers and in 1982 he adopted two villages through Shree Kshetra so as to help them to gain confidence and rejuvenate the farming sector. He assured them that Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala would take care of their basic needs i.e. food, shelter and clothing till they get settled. In return the farmers were to promise that they would go back to tilling and

farming their lands. This plan worked wonders. The farmers went back to their fields and began tilling their barren lands. In the meanwhile Pujya Shri Veerendra Heggadeji called eminent agriculture experts to work out a better realistic formula to make the villagers lands fertile. The agriculture experts group went around the region and guided the farmers with the right techniques to cultivate quick return crops like vegetables, pulses and paddy. While these helped the farmers to meet their daily needs, he realized these short term plans would have to be augmented by long term plans. The farmers were motivated to plant trees like coconut, areca nut and fruit trees which would yield returns after a few years and provide them a sustained income. Within a short span the farmers of these two villages earned a level of self sustenance, beyond imagination. One significant point to be noted here is that the people of these areas have a lot of faith in the Shree Kshetra's holiness. These God fearing followers of Shree Kshetra with utmost shraddha and bhakti responded to the words of Pujya Heggadeji. By 1984, the Shree Kshetra Dharmasthala Rural Development Project (SKDRDP) went ahead to support both traditional and non-traditional activities, such as the development and management of enhancing productivity of the land and manpower resources in Belthangady taluk. The non-traditional activities identified were sericulture, dairy

farming, piggery, etc. Within a span of nine years a marvellous large scale social change was noticed in and around Belthangady taluk. People were happy with the performance of the Shree Kshetra and by 1991 SKDRDP gained the legal status as a registered charitable society.

Shri. Veerendra Heggadeji's family's dedication has been immensely responsible for the grand success of SKDRDP. Today, SKDRDP a non profit making NGO, is performing in different parts of Karnataka State through its Community Development Project and is providing fundamental support to the villagers. This Community Development Project is basically a participatory activity in nature where people are being motivated to participate in the rural development activities. The Community Projects are concentrated in the field of education, health, creation of community assets, rural infrastructure and community welfare. SKDRDP is supporting the cause of rural development through financial assistance and once the financial support is extended then the officials monitor the beneficiaries regularly in order to bring about financial discipline among the beneficiaries.

The Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala Rural Development Project (SKDRDP) was initiated and carried

forward by Padmabhushan Dr. D. Veerendra Heggade, Pujya Dharmadhikari (Religious Head) of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala which has completed more than four decades in the service of the rural poor. He is of the opinion that the rural masses must be empowered so that the country can prosper. He had a clear idea of strengthening traditional agriculture sector. As a matter of fact SKDRDP has brought in several pro-people, pro-farmer development activities with special reference to rural development. To mention a few, Grama Kalyana, Nammuru-Namma Kere, Shudhaganga Project, women empowerment programmes such as Jnanavikasa flagship women empowerment programme. Gelathi – a counselling programme are prominent.

In order to drive out rural poverty, SKDRDP designed a well-knit idea of providing loans, insurance and pensions. SKDRDP cultivated the habits of small savings and promptness in loan repayments. Since these activities were taken up by the religious head Pujya Shri Dharmadhikari (Religious Head) of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala, people developed sincerity and utilised the funds judiciously. Rural people developed a sense of responsibility as it was tagged with a belief in Lord Shri Manjunath the deity of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala. These microfinance activities were popularised and the banks provided loans

to farmers. SKDRDP brought banking sector closer to people with its innovative BC Suvidha Scheme. The BC Suvidha also mobilises people to inculcate the habit of saving. To make the families stronger to face the uncertainties of life, SKDRDP provides insurance and pensions. SKDRDP acts as an aggregator/ collection agency for National Pension Scheme designed by Central Government. Being a very important programme NPS works as a division of SKDRDP. It has two insurance programmes for the rural community called Jeevan Madhura Life Insurance and Sampoorna Suraksha Health Insurance.

Community Development Project was taken up in 1990 in order to generate and enlarge rural assets and to create basic infrastructure. Along with providing basic infrastructure, Grama Kalyana is a community programme created to motivate public and organisations towards rural development activities. It creates awareness about the facilities available in Gram Panchayat and other government institutions. Under this project, funds have been released for various projects, which have helped the rural population at large. A financial assistance between Rs 50,000 and Rs 1,00,000 is extended in this project to achieve village development.

Nammuru-Namma Kere: (Our village-Ourtank):

Water is precious and understanding the importance of water for both drinking and farming the visionary Dharmadhikari, Dr. D Veerendra Heggadeji is of the opinion that the present generation must protect the water resources keeping in view the future generation. This innovative idea was assigned to SKDRDP for rejuvenating tanks involving local people. Removal of the silt, repairing the surrounding land, road, canals, etc. were undertaken under this project. Villagers were convinced to contribute for meeting the expenses. Lake rejuvenation and lake development committees were formed at the village level. Along with the implementation of the scheme, the responsibility of maintenance was also assigned to these committees.

Shudhaganga Project:

As is well known, many of our villages are deprived of pure drinking water. Water table has gone down beyond expectations and surface water is found to be contaminated. It is estimated that nearly 90% of the villages suffer from problems of accessing pure drinking water, including availability and quality issues. Understanding this grave situation and in order to find a concrete solution, SKDRDP introduced

Shudhaganga Project which is a unique community effort to provide pure drinking water in the villages by purifying the drinking water at source by a process called 'Reverse Osmosis'. SKDRDP has installed 80 plants in Chikamagalur, Gadag, Haveri, Dharwad, Tumkur and Hassan districts and is providing pure drinking water every day. This project has attracted the attention of the government too.

Pujya Shri Dharmadhikari (Religious Head) of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala being a progressive thinker gave preference for women empowerment. He chalked out programmes to improve their standard of living and laid stress upon involving women in a formal way in the process of microfinance and encouraged them to take a lead in the decision making process. SKDRDP has adopted empowering approach that substituted charity. Partly this change reflected the development at the macro level because by the dawn of 1990s, microfinance, owing to the interest evinced by NABARD, gained utmost importance. In the meantime a number of activities began in order to empower women and microfinance became the major instrument. This situation was utilised by SKDRDP. By 1996, SKDRDP used microfinance as a powerful tool to make it complementary to the overall development of small and marginal farmers and landless labourers.

SKDRDPInitiatives:

Shri Kshethra Dharamasthala Rural Development Project has so far promoted 3.17 lakhs SHGs involving 35 lakhs members. More than 80% of SHGs are women SHGs. The organisation is working in 25 districts of Karnataka State. The members of the SHGs are engaged in various livelihood activities which fetches income to their family. More than Rs.20000 crores have been disbursed among these SHGs and presently Rs.4000 crores is the outstanding amount. Presently, Women are playing a leading role in maintaining their families as they are financially sound. The woman has come forward to take up livelihood activities and this is now supported by micro finance on a large scale. The SHG movement enabled women easy access to finance for income generating activity and enabled them to contribute for the family with dignity. SKDRDP motivates women to engage in livelihood activities which earn additional income for her family. SKDRDP is promoting and nurturing the women SHGs since 1993. SKDRDP helps in the formation of SHGs and once SHGs are formed, steps are taken for enrolment of the members for opening bank account. The data is captured in the device and bank account opening form is filled. The SHGs are provided with bio-metric cards for account operation. SKDRDP has made weekly meetings mandatory.

In the meeting several activities such as understanding financial transactions, books writing, discussion with regard to borrowing by the members takes place. The discipline is maintained throughout the meeting and the discussion takes place in a very democratic way. This has basically contributed towards the confidence building among women. The weekly meeting has contributed for the overall personality development of the members also. In order to inculcate financial discipline and credit culture, SKDRDP has designed 6 training modules which are very much essential for the smooth running of the SHG. SHG Concept and Weekly Meeting, Leadership, SHG Book Keeping and Resolution Writing, Submission of Loan Proposals to the Bank, SMS, and Preparation of Farm Plan/Family Financial Budgeting are the 6 training modules developed by SKDRDP for SHG members. It is mandatory for the SHG members to acquire all the training before applying for any financial proposal to the bank. This approach has really brought amazing results. Through proper training women are made economically independent and thereby they are empowered.

Micro Finance (Pragathi Nidhi Programme):

SKDRDP started its micro finance operations in the year 1996 on

a very small scale to see the impact. As such, Rs. 4.00 crore was dispersed to the groups as revolving fund for 8 years tenure. The performance of the groups was excellent. There was 100% recovery rate every month from the groups. Encouraged by this, SKDRDP increased its volume of micro finance and presently, the total outstanding loan is Rs. 60.00 crore with 100% recovery rate. Today SKDRDP has 411000 Self Help Groups 3827000 SHG members and 7420 outstanding loans with 100% recovery. This marvellous participatory approach initiated by SKDRDP within a decade has attracted many scholars and government agencies to learn lessons.

Apart from this SKDRDP has designed two significant programmes called, Jnanavikasa - Flagship Women Empowerment Programme, and Gelathi - a Counselling Programme. In coastal areas majority of the women especially rural women are involved in Beedi (hand-rolled cigarettes) rolling and farm labour activity which are the major revenue sources for them, and they earn up to Rs 800 per month from these activities. However, women do not retain much in savings and continue to remain socially backward. SKDRDP recognized the need to empower women into developing a habit of saving money and thus the Jnanavikasa programme was introduced. Jnanavikasa Kendras are considered as unique centers of socioeconomic empowerment for uneducated, unemployed, rural women with no land. In the Jnanavikasa Kendras, women empower themselves through weekly two-hour group sessions sharing knowledge on health, family welfare, hygiene, children's education and clean surroundings. Besides finding inspiration from each other, women also learn about inculcating family values and developing savings habit. Such participation has brought confidence and transformed them into selfrespecting, determined women. Jnanavikasa Kendras are involved in training women in floriculture, dairying, vegetable cultivation and home industries.

Pujya Shri Dharmadhikari (Religious Head) of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala was aware of the fact that rural masses lack working capital to invest. It is learnt that he held several rounds of talks with financial advisors to provide financial support for the rural upliftment. He had understood the mindset of the common man and paid attention towards developing savings habit on, giving security to rural masses through insurance. He also appealed to the rural masses to repay their debts in time and taking cue from this SKDRDP chalked out a programme of providing loans, insurance and pensions. These activities provided a strong ground for poverty alleviation. The loans are

provided by the banks and SKDRDP acts as bank linkage to members. Further in order to enable the families to come out of the uncertainties of life, SKDRDP provides insurance and pensions. SKDRDP acts as an aggregator/collection agency for National Pension Scheme of the Central Government. Being a very important programme NPS works as a division of SKDRDP. SKDRDP has two programmes pertaining to insurance - Jeevan Madhura Life Insurance and Sampoorna Suraksha Health Insurance. The Jeevan Madhura is sponsored by LIC and SKDRDP acts as insurance broker. Sampoorna Suraksha is a Section 25 company and subsidiary of SKDRDP. Sampoorna Suraksha provides health insurance. SKDRDP initiated a micro-financing scheme known as Pragathinidhi in 1996, which provides loans to members in order to support their livelihoods or develop infrastructure. The linkage to the bank provides adequate funds without any administrative formalities, a convenient tenure, easy accessibility and easy weekly repayment instalments. The funds required for lending are sourced from bank loans or the savings of the members which are deposited with the group's account. In 2003, with plans to extend linkage to the banks on a larger scale, SKDRDP devised the programme with systematic procedures. The groups so formed can utilize it for agricultural

purposes, infrastructure development, non-formal sector development activities and group enterprises. SKDRDP has been acting as Business Correspondent for achieving financial inclusion. This model envisages financial inclusion at the door step of the poor by opening village offices known as the customer service point. SKDRDP took an active part in implementing the Financial Inclusion plan of the Government of India by working as Banking Correspondent and Business Facilitator across the state of Karnataka. Under the programme SKDRDP is promoting Self Help Groups enabling the poor people in the remote villages to access banking facilities at their door steps. SKDRDP is working as BC for the last five years covering almost 17,500 villages and towns. As a BC, SKDRDP is using POS (Point of Sale) machines in the villages extensively to conduct the transactions of the poor people with the bank. At present on a weekly basis almost Rs. 80.00 crores is being transacted through this system.

Management and Leadership Issues in the Governance of NGOs:

The success or failure of an institution largely depends upon Management and Leadership issues in the governance. Drucker, David Hussey, Robert Perrin, Michael Edwards and Alan Fowler have discussed the governance and

leadership issues in the functioning of NGOs. Drucker believes in leadership which can lead to planning for performance. David Hussey and Robert Perrin are more vocal about management and leadership issues. Voluntary organizations or NGOs need to have a shared vision and clear supporting strategies. There is a need to periodically modify that vision to meet the requirements of changing conditions. Strong leadership from the top is vital in charity management both to inspire staff and volunteers and to maintain the high motivation among the beneficiaries of the programmes of NGOs. The performance of NGOs is to be assessed with their success in improving the ability of the rural residents. The roles of the NGOs in rural development get multiplied over the years. The leaders involved in these NGOs must be able to find a dynamic balance between these roles. By using the right strategies in the right combinations, the leaders in NGOs can produce the multiplier effect of strengthening local institutions to take on more responsibility for management and decision making. SKDRDP is performing successfully because of the leadership of His Holiness Pujya Dr. Veerendra Heggadeji. His constant supervision, monitoring and encouragement have yielded good results. He has ideas for the welfare of the people and he believes in change.

He has adopted Respect and care for People, Team Spirit and Innovation as core values. The opportunities generated by SKDRDP have been documented in Kothai's work. The Programme rehabilitated the rural artisans. New skills were imparted to unemployed youths who could be rehabilitated in various vocations; there was considerable empowerment of such youths. Kothai writes, "The valuable experience gained by the SKDRDP can be used for rural development activities elsewhere..... SKDRDP probably is one of the very few programmes in the field of rural poverty alleviation taken up by a religious institution. Jayavanth Nayak in his Ph. D. thesis submitted to Mangalore University in 2007 pointed out the fact that the SKDRDP acted as liaison between the farmers and the research centers. Agricultural Extension Programmes were linked to Agricultural Development Programmes designed with the objective of helping the small and marginal farmers.

Today the success of SKDRDP is due to its professional management. Harper makes a specific mention of the role of L. H. Manjunath who has sound knowledge of banking sector who is presently the Executive Director of SKDRDP. Manjunath with his enormous experience integrated individual farmers, farmers' groups and general community development

outside the Belthangady area as SKDRDP expanded its operation and jurisdiction. Each project under SKDRDP is guided by a director at head office at Dharmasthala. There are different departments for different projects, with an effective internal audit system. SKDRDP is managed by a trust which attends to all issues related to the functioning of the projects targeting expansion and development. Regular weekly and monthly meetings, use of the local language as medium of discussions and deliberations, open debates, maintenance and recording of the proceedings of the meetings and the active involvement of Veerendra Heggade in all important meetings have been accepted as good management practices. The professional management which Manjunath introduced with commitment and dedication became fruitful under the leadership of Veerendra Heggade. In SKDRDP, Harper noticed a unique combination of development, divinity and dharma which became possible on account of inspiring leadership qualities of Veerendra Heggade. SKDRDP staff is actively involved in motivating rural people and village based youth and women organisations to get involved in village development activities. Villagers and local organisations, along with the cooperation of the government departments and

SKDRDP develop the basic infrastructure like school buildings, hospital buildings, rural veterinary hospitals, anganwadi buildings, drinking water projects, rural connecting roads, rural hygiene and youth organization building.

In the words of Harper, "SKDRDP is essentially a traditional community-based institution, inspired by a local God, and relying on a local institution and locally recruited staff, to serve local people. Its competence is home grown rather than by professionals, and Dr. Heggade has whenever possible resisted the employment of development professionals." The practical wisdom of Veerendra Heggade is coupled with the deep concern and care of his wife, Hemavathi Heggade for the rural poor. Her contribution to the welfare of women in almost all chosen fields of SKDRDP has been documented. Therefore when we assess the major factors for the success of SKDRDP we can do no better than quote Peter Drucker who said, "management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things."

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M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block, TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai - 400051, India. Tel: +91-22-2657 1713 / 2657 1714 / 6180 5600 E-mail: aiilsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com, info.algq@gmail.com Fax: +91-22-2657 2115

Population Composition in Rural Areas: A Spatio-Temporal Analysis with reference to Mysuru District

Sowmyashree K. L., B. N. Shivalingappa

1.0 Introduction

Population composition (rural –urban composition and age wise sex composition) is one of the most important characteristics of population studies. Almost all the characteristics of any population vary significantly with the composition. Decade after decade, our society has been experiencing changes in age specific sex structure. During earlier times, the share of young age population was higher especially in rural areas; but, it has been decreasing drastically in recent years.

Population composition indicates the contribution which a group of people makes to the society. It also influences every aspect of socio-economic phenomenon. Moreover, the future needs of a population can also be determined on the basis of its present age structure. For instance, the future needs of people such as educational, health, social and economic facilities in a

region can be estimated on the basis of the present age structure of the population (Tripati – 1989).

2.0 Objectives:

The main objectives of the study are:

- 1. To analyse the trend and pattern of age wise sex composition of rural areas in Mysuru district from 1971 to 2011.
- 2. To examine the growth and distribution of rural age wise sex ratio of Mysuru district between 1971 and 2011.
- 3. To find out the growth pattern of age wise sex composition of rural areas in Mysuru district from 1971 to 2011.

3.0 Methodology:

The study covers rural areas of Mysuru district as a whole; taluks are units of analysis. The present study is based on the secondary data during the period 1971 to 2011 collected from

census reports. Simple statistical techniques like percentage and averages have been used for data analysis and ternary diagram used to show the age-wise population distribution. In addition to this Choropleth technique is also confined to show the age-wise sex ratio of Mysuru district.

4.0 Study area:

Mysuru district forms a distinct land unit, besides being a cultural entity lying between 11°30' N to 12°50' N latitudes and 75°45' E to 77°45' E longitudes. The district covers an area of 6269 sq. km. that is, 3.29 per cent of the state's total geographical area. According to 2011 census the district had population of 29,94,744 (male -15,11206 and female – 14,83,538) and sex ratio of 982.

In the year 1997 Mysore district has been divided into two districts namely Mysore and Chamarajanagara.

After the formation of Mysore district it comprised of 7 taluks namely Nanjangud, H.D. Kote, T.Narasipura, Periyapatna, Hunsur, K.R.Nagara and Mysuru.

5.0 Discussion

5.1: Age-Sex Composition of Rural Areas of Mysuru District: A Spatio – Temporal Analysis at Taluk Level

The concentration of the proportion of different age group population varies from taluk to taluk. It is necessary to measure the present ageing situation in the different taluks of the district. Hence, it is attempted below to plot spatial variation from 1971 to 2011.

It has been found that the distribution of taluks wise age-sex composition is uneven in rural areas from 1971 to 2011 (Table.1.1 and ternary diagram1.0).

Table 1.1 - Trend and Pattern of Talukwise Age—Sex Composition in Rural Areas of Mysuru District

Taluks	Years	Proportion of Young Age Population (0-14)			Proportion of Adult Age Population (15-59)			Proportion of Old Age Population (60 +)		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
	1971	43.0	45.0	44.0	51.0	49.5	50.1	6.0	5.5	5.9
Periyapatna	2001	31.3	30.7	32	60.7	61.6	59.6	8.0	7.7	8.4
	2011	26.4	25.8	27	64.5	66	63	9.1	8.2	10

Taluks	Years	Proportion of Young Age Population (0-14)			Proportion of Adult Age Population (15-59)			Proportion of Old Age Population (60 +)		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Hunsur	1971	44.0	43.0	45.0	50.0	50.8	48.9	6.0	6.2	6.1
	2001	31.2	31	31.4	60.6	61.2	60.0	8.2	7.8	8.6
	2011	25.8	25.9	25.7	64.7	65.4	64	9.5	8.7	10.3
K. R. Nagara	1971	43.5	42.7	44	50	50.5	49.4	6.5	6.8	6.6
	2001	28.5	28.6	28.3	62	62.7	61.2	9.5	8.7	10.5
	2011	24	24.5	23.6	65	66.2	63.7	11	9.3	12.7
Mysuru	1971	42.3	41	43.0	50.8	51.7	50.3	6.9	7.3	6.7
	2001	32.1	31.5	32.6	59.8	60.6	58.9	8.1	7.9	8.5
	2011	27.9	27.7	28.1	63.4	64.5	62.3	8.7	7.8	9.6
	1971	42.6	40.6	44.5	51.4	53.1	49.5	6.0	6.3	6.0
H. D. Kote	2001	32.4	30.3	33	61.6	45.8	58.8	7.7	5.6	8
	2011	28.3	28.2	28.3	63	63.7	62.4	8.7	8.1	9.3
Nanjangud	1971	40.1	38.6	41.5	52.5	53.8	51.3	7.4	7.6	7.2
	2001	29.7	29.4	30	61.2	62	60.4	9.1	8.6	9.6
	2011	25.8	26.1	25.7	64.4	65	63.6	9.8	8.9	11
	1971	41.2	40.3	42.4	51.4	52.1	50.3	7.4	7.6	7.3
T.Narasipura	2001	28.9	29	28.9	62	62.6	61.3	9.1	8.4	9.8
	2011	24.6	25	24.2	65.8	66.6	65.1	9.6	8.4	10.7
Mysore	1971	42.2	40.9	43.4	51.0	52	50	6.8	7.1	6.6
	2001	30.4	30.0	30	61.6	62.3	61.0	8.0	7.7	9.0
	2011	26.2	26.2	26.1	64.4	65.3	63.5	9.4	8.5	10.4

Source: Computed by the authors based on Census data

Table 1.1 exhibits a taluk wise age-sex composition of children (0-14), adults (15-59) and old age (60+) population in the rural areas of Mysore district. There is a great variation found in the composition over the four decades. Mysuru District has undergone major changes in the field of socio-economic development in the

recent years which have led to changes even in the field of age-sex composition.

According to Census 2011, the percentage of child population in rural areas (0-14 years) is 26.2% of the total population. In 1971 and 2001, it was 42.2% and 30.4% respectively. It is

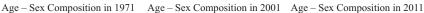
found to have decreased about 15.9 percentage points over forty years. It is noticed from the table 1.1 that taluk wise distribution of 0-14 year age group population in H.D.Kote, Mysuru and Periyapatna taluks are 28.3%, 27.9% and 26.4% respectively during 2011. This is a little more than the district average. The population of children in other taluks such as Hunsur, K.R.Nagara, Nanjangud and T.Narasipura are 25.8%, 24%, 25.8% and 24.6% respectively. Here the strength of child population is below the district average. The percentage of child population drastically decreased 19.5% points in K.R.Nagara (1971 -43.5%; 2001–28.5%; and 2011–24%) and 18.2% points in Hunsur taluk from 1971 to 2011 (1971- 44%; 2001-31.2%; and 2011–25.8%) respectively.

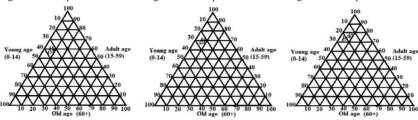
Table 1.1 also shows that, the proportion of adult age (working age) population has increased from 1971 to 2011. During 1971, working age population was 51% to the total population; it increased to 61.6%

during 2001 and further increased to 64.6% in 2011. The proportion of increase of adult age population in all the taluks of the district is almost the same. In 1971 the proportion of child population was higher, which has led to a corresponding increase in the adult age population at present. Therefore, the proportion of old age population is likely to gradually increase in future decades. The ternary diagram (1.0) clearly indicates that all the taluks have been shifting from young to working age group along with growing ageing of population for the last forty years.

It is evident from the table 1.1, that increase in old age population was high in taluks such as K.R.Nagara, Hunsur and Periyapatna from 1971 to 2011. The old age population was more than the district average in K.R.Nagara, Nanjangud, T.Narasipura and Hunsur taluks. The highest old age population was found in K.R.Nagara (11%) and the lowest in Mysuru and H.D.Kote taluks (8.7%) in 2011.

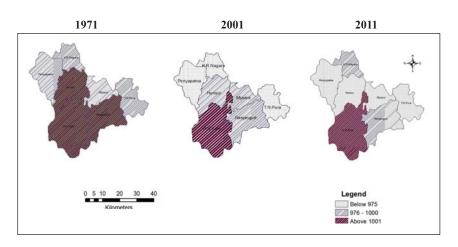
Ternary Diagram.1.0 - Trend and Pattern of Taluk wise Age – Sex Composition in Rural Areas of Mysuru District



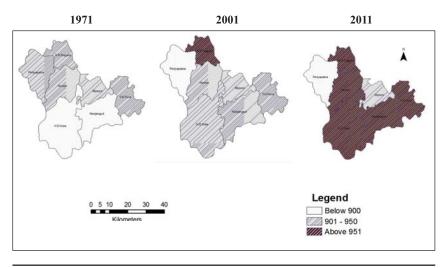


Population Composition in Rural Areas: A Spatio-Temporal Analysis with reference to 53 Mysuru District

Map 1.0 - Taluk wise Young Age Rural Sex Ratio of in Mysuru District from $1971\hbox{-}2011$



Map 1.1 - Taluk wise Adult Age Rural Sex Ratio of Mysuru District from 1971-2011



1971 2001 2011

Map 1.2 - Taluk wise Old Age Rural Sex Ratio of Mysuru District from 1971 to 2011

5.1.1 Sex Ratio of Rural Areas of **Mysuru District:**

The age wise sex ratio has been changing between1971 and 2011 (Table 1.2). In 1971 three taluks had better child sex ratio (more than 1000), no taluks had less than 950 female child populations over 1000 male child population, but this trend has been reversed in 2011, with only one taluk having better sex ratio. Adult sex ratio has increased in all the taluks except Periyapatna taluk. K.R.Nagara and H.D.Kote taluks had high adult age sex ratio in 2011 (Map 1.1).

In the case of old age sex ratio in 2001 and 2011, it was observed that female old age population is higher than the male old age population. The district average of old age sex ratio was 872 during 1971, which increased drastically to 1077 and further increased to 1203, in 2011. This trend shows that in the old age, female population is very high, which leads to feminization at older ages (Table 1.2). Very high old age sex ratio in 2011 was found in K.R Nagara (1377) and T.Narasipura (1251). It was higher than the district average (1203), whereas lower old age sex ratio was found in Periyapatna (1119). (Map 1.2)

Table 1.2 - Taluk wise Rural Sex Ratio of Mysuru District

Taluks	Years	Young Age Sex Ratio	Adult Age Sex Ratio	Old Age Sex Ratio				
	1971	997	938	930				
Periyapatna	2001	973	900	1046				
	2011	963	880	1119				
	1971	1023	901	890				
Hunsur	2001	988	937	1068				
	2011	967	959	1171				
	1971	988	938	927				
K. R. Nagara	2001	973	966	1204				
	2011	978	980	1377				
Mysuru	1971	994	908	778				
	2001	977	915	1017				
	2011	970	919	1166				
	1971	1033	878	884				
H. D. Kote	2001	1012	949	1045				
	2011	1003	980	1142				
	1971	1010	891	853				
Nanjangud	2001	993	949	1074				
	2011	987	978	1201				
	1971	995	908	883				
T. Narasipura	2001	959	942	1187				
	2011	947	958	1251				
	1971	1005	907	872				
Mysore district	2001	982	937	1077				
	2011	974	951	1203				

Source: Compiled by the authors based on census data

5.3 Age and Sex wise Population Growth in Mysuru District

According to Chandana (1999), "Growth of population is often used to connote the change in the number of inhabitants of a territory during a span of

time, irrespective of the fact whether the change is negative or positive". Therefore, growth of population is an important indicator because growth highlights the intensity of the process, regarding which specific age group of population has higher growth over a period of time.

The present section is an attempt to trace the growth of different age group population in rural parts of Mysuru district from 1971 to 2011.

Table 1.3 shows the growth of different age group population from 1971 to 2011 in rural parts of Mysuru district. There is big difference in the growth of different age group

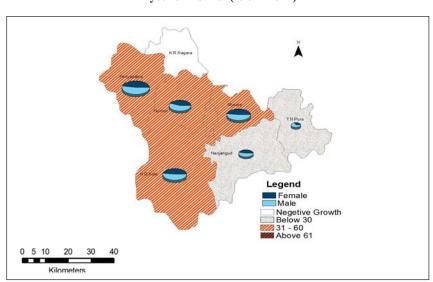
population in the district. The very significant points of the table; the growth in young age (0-14 years) population is lesser when compared to working age (15-59) and old age (60+) population during 1971-2011; the growth in female population is more than that of the male population especially in working and old age groups.

Table 1.3 – Taluk wise Growth of Different Age and Sex Group Population of Mysuru District (Rural) Percentage

Taluks	Growth of Young Age Population (0-14)			Growth of Adult Age Population (15-59)			Growth of Old Age Population (60 +)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Periyapatna	60	63	57	232	242	221	294	259	332
Hunsur	38	42	34	206	202	222	278	229	333
K. R. Nagara	-3	-2	-3	127	122	132	192	137	253
Mysuru	45	46	43	174	172	175	181	131	246
H. D. Kote	46	48	44	169	155	185	220	181	263
Nanjangud	17	18	16	122	112	132	142	104	186
T. Narasipur	7	10	5	131	125	137	130	92	172
Mysore	27	29	25	159	153	166	190	146	240

Source: Compiled by the Authors based on Census Data

The district has witnessed tremendous changes in the socioeconomic and medical facilities, which in turn led to the decreasing birth and death rates and increasing longevity. As a result of this, growth in the young age population is decreasing and correspondingly growth in old age population is increasing drastically. Due to a significant increase in adult migration, the working age population in the district is increasing.



Map 1.3 - Taluk wise Young Age Population Growth in Rural Areas of Mysuru District (1971- 2011)

In 1971, the young age population was more which has at present reached the working age. Thus the share and growth of working population is higher. That is the reason Indian society is called 'young India'. But in future (after 20-30 years) the same working age group people move on to next step namely, old age. Thus old age dependency on the population is set to increase. Therefore, government and non – government organizations have to take necessary steps to decrease the burden of ageing from the present itself.

In Table 1.3 it is observed that during 1971-2011, the rural part of Periyapatna taluk (60%) had more

children population growth (0-14 years), whereas K.R.Nagara taluk (-3%) had negative child population growth and T.Narasipura (7%) taluk registered lower child population growth. Similarly, urban parts of Hunsur, Mysuru and Nanjangud taluks revealed higher growth rate of about 97%, 92% and 91% respectively. On the other hand, H.D.Kote taluk (-5% for total growth, -3% for male and for female -6%) had negative children population growth in the district between 1971 and 2011.

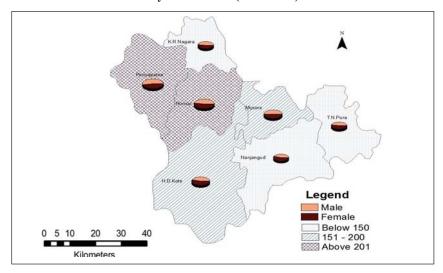
Another significant point is that, there is a variation even in the male and female children population growth. The rural areas of Periyapatna taluk registered a high male and female child population growth compared to other taluks (63% for male and 57% for female), may be because of high birth rate in the taluks.

The second age group in the population is, the working or adult age population, which is between 15-59 years of age. The working age population had increased from 1971 to 2011 compared to young or child age group. But it is less compared to old age population growth. The female and

male working population growth in rural Mysore district is 153% and 166% respectively and all the taluks of the district had a similar pattern.

The rural part of Periyapatna (232%) had a high working population growth rate, whereas it was lower 122% in Nanjangud taluk. Another important point is that, except Periyapatna (242% and 221%), all the taluks of the district have a high female working population growth compared to that of male (Map 1.4).

Map 1.4 - Taluk wise Adult Age Population Growth in Rural Areas of Mysore District (1971-2011)



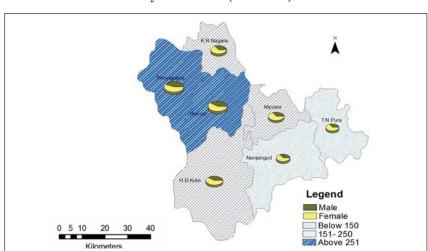
The old age population growth is very high in comparison with other two age groups. The growth rate of old age population is influenced by the migration of old age parents along with

their children to urban areas. The rural parts of Mysuru district have less old age population growth (190% total growth, 146% for male and 240% for female), it was high with 392% total

growth, 342% male growth and 447% female old age population growth in the district. It means that the females outnumbered their male counterparts.

Map 1.5 clearly shows that, rural parts of Periyapatna (294% total, 259% male and 332%% female growth rate)

and Hunsur showed a high old age population growth (278% total growth rate, 229% for male and 333% for female growth rate), whereas T.Narasipura taluk displayed lesser old age population growth when compared to other taluks of a total at 130%, 92% male and 172% female growth).



Map 1.5 – Taluk wise Old Age Population Growth in Rural Areas of Mysore District (1971-2011)

6.0 Conclusion and Recommendations:

It is clear from the analyses made in this paper that Mysore District has undergone major changes in the field of socio-economic development in recent years, which led to changes even in the area of age-sex composition. The proportion of adult and aged population has been increasing while

correspondingly, the young age population has been decreasing in the district. The study reveals that both male and female young population, especially female population, has decreased from 1971 to 2011. There is a wide gap between child sex ratio in 2011. This trend naturally raises some doubts about prevalence of higher female infant mortality and possible female foeticide which need further

investigation. On the other hand, the proportion and growth of both working age and old age population has been increasing drastically in the district, which needs to be attended to with the successful implementation of necessary policies and programmes for the development of the District.

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Acknowledgement

The content and data used in this study were collected for Ph.D thesis entitled "Determinants and Implications of Population Ageing: A Spatio-Temporal Analysis with reference to Mysore District" submitted to Department of Geography, University of Mysore. The authors acknowledge the opportunity given by Department of Geography, University of Mysore.

Youth Development: Situating Civil Society Organisations in Developmental Paradigm

Vikram Singh

Introduction

Youth are a valuable human resource in every country. They carry the aspirations and bear responsibility for change, progress and innovation. Youth can make or mar society. There is always a tussle between tradition and modernity because of which youth are often misunderstood by the older generation. Immaturity, inexperience and thoughtless actions are some of the characteristics attributed to them by their elders.

'The term "youth development" can be seen in three different ways: as the natural process through which youth grow into adults; as a set of principles underlying youth programs that encourage thriving among youth; or as a set of practices that foster the development of young people' (S.F. Hamilton 2004). 'Youth development is a process that prepares a young person to meet the challenges of adolescence and adulthood and

achieve his or her full potential. Youth development is promoted through activities and experiences that help youth develop social, ethical, emotional, physical, and cognitive competencies'. Youth form an integral part of any society and are an essential part of the development process. India is a 'young' nation with youth population of 465 million as per Census of India 2011.

Civil society in contemporary times has led a wider impact in the society in the form of social and political mobilization. It has impacted people's participation in the democratic sphere of raising their voice for the rights which are often denied or neglected by the State. 'The roots of an Indian autonomous civil society are not to be found in the contemporary rise of a modern state but foremost in the ancient and medieval history of the country' (Mohanty 2004).

'Indian society had been characterized in pre-colonial times by a form of insularity that thus ensured a certain independence from state power but also resulted in stagnation and an impossible unity of the population. However, the modern definition of an Indian civil society has to confront the radical transformation of the State and its consequences on the role of the nonstate actors' (Ibid). The role of civil society has influenced the masses and institutions to come together and bring social change in the form of advocating for the rights of the people, demanding justice and execution of rights from the state and influencing public policies.

Civil society has influenced youth development in diverse spheres thus mobilizing them for participation in social and political action. In recent times active participation of youth has resulted in a pro-active force voicing for good governance and rights of the people. Youth participation in social, civic and political processes is increasingly recognized as an important developmental objective for them. Nonetheless, evidence that sheds light on the extent to which youth participate in such processes, and the factors that facilitate it remains limited in most developing countries including India.

Objectives of the paper: To find out the nature, characteristics and size of civil society organizations in the process of youth development in Bilaspur. Later, it aspires to know about the factors, nature and process of participation of civil society organization and people in the youth development. It also analyses the views and perception of civil society organization about the youth development in Chhattisgarh.

Theoretical Frameworks - Linking Youth and Civil Society

The term 'civil society' is used in this paper to refer to social activists, social movements, social action groups, NGOs, and social workers. Civil society constitutes diverse agencies, advocacy groups, activists, professionals which form the network to bring social mobilization and good governance for the fulfilment of people's rights. Civil society as one of the stakeholders of development plays an influential role in public policies, programs and fulfilling entitlement of social, economic and political rights of the people. 'At an elementary level, the concept of civil society pinpoints and values associational life - interest group professional and other associations, voluntary agencies, grass root organisations, social movements and all other social orders - because it brings people together in networks and shared concerns' (Chandoke 2004).

'In the thirteenth century when the established Roman Catholic Church exercised considerable hegemony over the social and political life the concept 'societas civlis' was coined to depict a zone which was free from papal influence and was governed by laws that were not of divine origin. As such, civil society symbolized the autonomy of the temporal realm in relation to the ecclesiastical. Within civil society, people had the right to choose their king and be governed by laws that pursued the minimum shared interests of the people' (Colas 1997). In historical context civil society has been related to the conception of civil society engaged with politics, educating citizens, facilitating communication and making government more effective.

According to the World Bank (1999a) civil society gives a voice to the people, elicits participation and can pressure the State. The World Bank (1999b) and the United Nations (1997; 1998) consider civil society to be separate from the government. Both focus on the number of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs) within a country'2. Hence the role of the CSOs/NGOs is not only to disseminate awareness among youth but also to help youth as an integral part of the society to form opinions and make sound decisions towards their development. In this way, the CSOs play an important role in governance of the nation as an essential part.

'The transition to independence was accompanied by the rise of a welfare state, extending state powers into areas that had been previously left to civil society. This intrusion of the State and its monopoly on new spheres as education, health or security resulted in a form of state monopoly in almost all public goods, giving to the State the role of the first employer of organized workers in the country. The generalization of taxes, the ownership of public utilities transformed the state into an arbiter between individuals. But this rise of a welfare state pointed out at the same time its dysfunctions and its failures' (Mohanty 2004).

In India during the few last decades, political scientists have been repeatedly pointing to the declining legitimacy of the State. Commenting on the social and political erosion in the country in the late 1980's Kothari highlighted the polarization between a state increasingly unwilling to carry out its constitutional obligations and a people not knowing who else to turn to and identified this polarization as setting the stage for the growing incidence of violence, injustice, destruction of moderate modes of dissent and articulation of people's discontent and disenchantment' (Jayaram 2005).

'In India, the recent interest in civil society has arisen less from a natural curiosity about changes in the

inner life of society than from a concern over the problems and prospects of Indian democracy. It has arisen because many persons have begun to feel that democracy is facing a crisis and that this crisis has been created or at least intensified by the State' (Beteille 2000).

'In contemporary social and political theory, civil society is almost associated with democracy. John Locke theorizes the civil society paradigm; the term 'civil society' became a part of the general political discourse in sixteenth century Europe. At this time theorists of democracy invoked this concept to define a democratic form of government rooted in the rights of citizens' (Mahajan 2003).

Political scientist related the 'theory of democracy' to the rights of the people, their participation in political and civil processes and to have liberty and freedom to follow their own perception, faith and paths. 'At this stage, civil society heralded the process of secularizations which paved the way for the construction of a democratic polity. It questioned the centrality that was previously accorded to religious institutions and religious explanations and allowed for the emergence of an alternative pattern of society and government' (Mahajan 2003).

Consequently, a political society in which the basic rights of citizens are not recognized or given priority by the sovereign does not constitute a civil society. 'Locke's theory provided a principle namely, the primacy of rights that was subsequently used to challenge existing patterns of social and political discrimination while simultaneously curtailing the arbitrary use of power by the political sovereign.

'As civil society signifies a collective body that cherishes individual rights and legally protects the freedom of its members, it symbolizes a condition that is necessary for the existence of a democratic state' (Mahajan 2003). The emergence of a political society that gives precedence to the natural and inalienable rights of citizens thus heralded the emergence of a secular democratic state - one where the concern for individual liberty could be combined with social equality.

In the luminosity of various survey literature, one can understand the sovereignty of the state, the identity of civil society, the perception of people about civil society and contribution to civil society in translating conceptual provisions of rights into reality. Since youth as a vibrant and active group in itself is eager to identify its own role in the democracy it is important to research on the dimensions of youth and civil

society. Therefore it is important to investigate the dimensions of civil society in bringing social change, hence the contemporary development discourse as well as gaps and limitations of civil society in Youth Development.

This paper specifically looks into the perception of the youth about civil society and agents of mobilization, their active participation in reducing disparity and justice. Hence it seeks how civil society is influencing youth. Later, it explores the perception of youth about civil society organisations and their contribution in development and empowering process. Finally, it attempts to draw linkages among driving forces of social change which are facilitating the participation of youth for development.

Typology of Participation vis-à-vis Youth Development

Nowadays, it is no longer litigious to say that without the active involvement of civil society organisations citizens of any state would be able to live in a world ridden with much more human rights violations, burdened with greater social injustice, unemployment and equipped with less sensitivity towards the social problems which they face.

In the 1970s, social scientists, grassroots groups and nongovernmental development organizations (NGOs) began promoting popular participation in the construction and use of knowledge for social transformation. 'USAID defines participation as the active engagement of the partners and customers in sharing ideas, committing time and resources, making decisions, and taking action to bring about a desired development objective'(CIDA, 1997).

Hence it is required to discuss strategies in the belief that the involvement of civil society is vital in association of youth for their development. It is the philosophy, however, that for dealing with this overwhelming problem of employment among unskilled youth, the best position for civil society organisations is a coalition consisting of three pillars: government, the private sector and civil society. All three partners have to be involved for effective and sustainable livelihood through skill development.

Civil society organisations increasingly become active where the government does not reach and where the forces of the market leave people with unwanted results. It is conventional wisdom that the forces of the market are socially blind. They may produce untenable social inequality, even injustice, and, in the case of generating/promoting livelihood through skilling youth, they may become overwhelmed and destructive when they go unchecked by ethical

standards and legally enforceable rules. Civil society also is a guarantor that the interests of those people governments claim to represent are not being neglected. It is the manifold groups making up a civil society which can remind governments and ensure that skilling youth for livelihood will be in the interest of those that can least

afford to defend themselves; the poor, the uneducated and illiterate, the unorganised, and the weak. Finally, civil society is the watchdog, the whistleblower and the vanguard to warrant that government and - to a lesser extent - the private sector respect their borders.

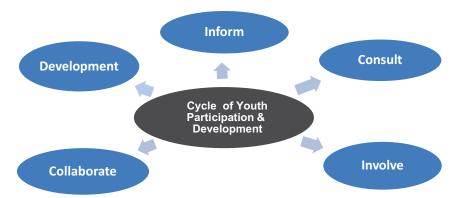


Figure 1: Levels of Participation

The issue of participation in youth development activities has been a matter of intense interest for civil society for the need to find ways to build the capacity of people which will mobilize them to participate effectively in decision-making process. Because in contemporary situation civil society has led a wider impact in the society in the form of social and political mobilization, it has impacted youth participation in the democratic sphere of raising their voice for the rights which are often not fulfilled by the State.

The definition of 'participation' has been widely contested, with widely differing conceptions offered by parties with dissimilar political, ideological and economic interests and perspectives. In this way participation can be defined as the organized efforts to increase control over resources and regulative institutions in given social situations, on part of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from such control and this is only possible when the process is facilitated by someone as researcher who has studied the people's participation in

the livelihood promotion because in that the mass mobilisation or people's participation has taken place due to the facilitation process of civil society.

From the perspective of people's participation, the elements of power and control over key decisions are the core issue of participation. Participation necessarily raises questions about mutual influence and the control of resources and decisions. Civil society which has diverse components of NGOs, advocacy groups, social action, awareness campaign, etc. has a vibrant impact on the society and on the social, economic and political environment. 'NGOs and other CSOs play a crucial role in bridging the gap between people and different sets of structure existing in the different environment¹³. They bring about people's participation by facilitating them through diverse mediums, to raise people's consciousness in order to receive their rights and function through them in different structures of the state, society, ecology and economic spheres. CSOs construct collective mobilization, individual mobilization, group mobilization to facilitate people's role in democracy, society and other areas.

NGOs and CSOs have facilitated people's role and participation through constructing, knowledge, awareness, valuing people's worth and existing cultural and societal relationships and their interaction in their respective environment. It is the result of power equations in different structures which manipulate people's natural worth to achieve higher social functioning and play their roles effectively. Civil society facilitates people to overcome such manipulations and bring about social mobility and social functioning.

Research Design:- Case Study Design has been used in this paper. Hence the major goal of this paper was to describe events, phenomena, and situation of selected NGOs working on issue of youth development. Therefore this paper describes the phenomenon of youth participation in the movement and reflects on the multiple realities of the youth development as described by NGOs and youth who participated in the process.

Sampling:- Non-probability, purposive sampling technique has been employed. Therefore samples of organisations have been purposively chosen.

Source of Data Collection:- Two major sources have been used in data collection.

Primary Sources:- NGOs functionaries.

Secondary Sources:- Books, journals, and reports related to the topic

Tools of Data Collection: - Selfadministered interview schedule has been used for collection of data.

Data Collection and Data Analysis: The data has been collected with the help of a self-administered interview schedule employed to extract data from the office bearers and executive employees of the NGOs. The data is analyzed qualitatively on the basis of the objectives of the paper. Data has been analyzed on the basis of sub themes of the paper objectives and collectively analyzed the case studies developed through the interview. These case studies depict the nature, characteristics and major functioning of NGOs taken for the study. Hence they illustrate the area of functioning in area of Youth Development.

CSOs vis-à-vis NGOs: Youth Participation for Development (Profile of the Organizations):

1. PRIA-Participatory Research in Asia:

Established in 1982, PRIA (Participatory Research in Asia) is a global centre for participatory research and training based in New Delhi. PRIA has field offices in 5 states and linkages with 3000 NGOs to deliver its programmes on the ground. PRIA's work is focused on empowerment of the excluded through capacity building, knowledge building and policy advocacy. Over three decades PRIA has promoted 'participation as empowerment', capacity building of community organisations, and people's participation in governance.

SYM (Shikhar Yuva Manch):

Shikhar Yuva Manch is located in Bilaspur Chhattisgarh. Shikhar Yuva Manch is registered as a Society at Bilaspur of Chhattisgarh State with NGO unique registration ID 'CG/2009/ 0005037'. The NGO registration is by Registrar of Societies with Registration No. 1983 on 16th December 1997. Its parent organization is Paul Foundation. Shikhar Yuva Manch NGO is working on Key Issues of Agriculture, Art & Culture, Children, Dalit Upliftment, Drinking Water, Education & Literacy, Environment & Forests, Human Rights, Legal Awareness & Aid, Land Resources, Panchayati Raj, Rural Development & Poverty Alleviation, Tribal Affairs, Urban Development & Poverty Alleviation, Vocational Training among rural youth, and Water Resources.

Matrabhoomi:

It focuses on self-help groups, youth skill development and working with unorganized labour. It also provides vocational training and employment. Moreover, it runs non-formal education centres and youth empowerment centres and provides linkage with education.

4. MSKPP (Mahila Shiksha Kalyan evam Parikshan Parishad):

MSKPP is non-governmental, non-profit, non-political and non-religious organization mainly working for the empowerment of women. It was established on 25th September 1986 and started work on selfemployment, vocational training, and entrepreneurship development of both rural and urban women. The organization had been registered on 21/03/91 under Madhya Pradesh Society Registration Act 1973 with registration number 25273. MSKPP is registered under Foreign Contribution Regulation Act (FCRA) 1976 on date 18/10/2002 with Registration no. 327480011. MSKPP is committed to well-being of women through their economic and social empowerment. It targets engagement of women with income generating activities. MSKPP works on capacity building, skill and entrepreneurship development

among rural & tribal female youth and women that bring them into their sustainable existence.

5. MMKSS-(Mitwa Mahila Kalyan evam Seva Samiti):

Mitwa Mahila Kalyan evam Seva Samiti (MMKSS) is a leading non-governmental organization which works with grass root people aiming at their all-round development emphasizing on youth, women and children's issues. It is a team of young and dynamic youth who are determined to bring about social change through the behaviour change of people and to change their prospects. MMKSS extended its target to Bilaspur district. Its interventions are on child rights, sustainable livelihood, environment and gender equality. MMKSS believes in people's power so it works as a facilitator of people's power through empowerment and as a promoter of the alternative mechanism at grass root through PRIs and People's organizations.

Profile of the Respondents: The respondents consist of Executive Director Development, Programme Manager, Founder and Project coordinators.

Analysis & Interpretation: Five organisations are included in the study, of which four are located in Bilaspur and one is located in Raipur (i.e. PRIA).

Table 1: Functioning Areas of NGOs in Reducing Poverty

	NGOs working on Youth Development in Bilaspur					
Issues of Youth Development	PRIA	SYM	Matrabhoomi	MSKPP	MMKSS	Total No of NGOs working on issue
Advocacy	\checkmark	✓		✓	✓	4
Capacity Building	\checkmark		✓	✓	✓	4
Education & Literacy		✓	✓	✓	✓	4
Drinking Water		✓				1
Vocational Training		✓	✓	✓	✓	4
Water Resources.	✓	✓				2
Housing and homeless	✓	✓				2
Participatory governance	✓					1
Empowerment				✓	✓	2
Legal Awareness & Aid		✓		✓		2
Urban Development & Poverty Alleviation	✓	√		✓	√	4
Community mobilization, awareness			√	√	✓	3
SHG formation		✓		✓	√	3
Livelihood Support & Promotion				√	√	2
Total no. of issues NGO working on	6	9	4	10	9	

Table 1 depicts the various issues addressed by NGOs to promote Youth Development; hence it is clear that MSKPP, MMKSS & SYM are using all Issues of Youth Development.

Table 2: Approaches adopted by NGOs

	NGOs working on Youth Development					
Approaches of the NGO	PRIA	SYM	Matrabhoomi	MSKPP	MMKSS	No. of NGOs adopting the approach
Rights based	\checkmark	✓		√	✓	4
Service delivery		✓	✓		✓	3
Community development		✓	✓	✓	✓	4
Networking	\checkmark	✓		✓	✓	4
Total no. of approaches of the NGO	2	4	2	3	4	

The above table explains the kind of approach adopted by the NGOs.

Table 3: Monitoring & Evaluating Mechanisms adopted by NGOs

	NGOs working on Youth Development						
Evaluating Mechanisms	PRIA	SYM	Matrabhoomi	MSKPP	MMKSS	No. of NGOs adopting same Evaluating Mechanisms	
Feedback		✓	✓	✓	✓	4	
Documentation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	5	
Research	√					1	
Record keeping		✓	✓	✓	✓	4	
Meeting with target group	✓	✓		✓	√	4	
Survey					√	1	
Media reports				✓		1	
Public Consultation	✓				✓	2	
Total no. of Evaluating Mechanisms followed by NGOs individually	4	4	3	5	6		

The above table explains the mechanisms adopted by NGOs to evaluate their work. 4 NGOs use Feedback, 5take-ups up Documentation to evaluate their work, 1NGO uses Research, 4 NGOs use Record keeping, 4 meet with their target group, one uses survey and one NGO evaluates through the media reports.

NGOs and Youth Development: **Comparative Analysis**

This section comprises the comparative analysis of the data collected from NGOs and youth who participated in the process of development. It reflects and discusses the major trends, techniques, tools and methods of participation of CSOs as well as people and also highlights the differences on views and perceptions of the different sample sets. The five organizations which formed the respondent group have a point of commonality as well as have differences in terms of opinion. These five organizations form the commonality in terms of participation for the unity and in support of civil society being an agent of participation and organizing to get a transparent and accountable system. Out of these five organizations, three participated in public consultations and public debates. The major reason for participation of the three organizations comprises the nature of the organization too as the three are social

action groups, a research group working on the objective of bringing transparency and accountability in the system. Therefore, they actively participated in the consultation and public debates. Though strategy of conscientization has brought participation of youth from each class, NGOs responded that participation and conscientization to different sections of society needed different approaches to bring the masses together.

Youth: Out of these five, three respondents feel that they are not sure about the results of the movement but believe that something better than the present system will be created, either in terms of transparency or the demands of the movement will be fulfilled to some extent.

Comparative Analysis of NGOs and Youth: Youth and NGOs who are participating had a different level of consciousness. There are different agendas and different lens to analyze and believe/disbelieve in the process of development. On the one hand, NGOs have point of disagreement with the process but they also have ways to contribute meaningfully e.g. consultation meetings, status, work of the organization within the ambit of civil society makes them more responsible entities to raise their voice for agreement or disagreement with the movement; whereas general youth are

attracted by the strategies of the developmental process. Among the respondent group some level of consciousness, critical analysis and awareness exist but they are not aware of the multiple realities. They do not have focused understanding of different approaches and bringing about people's participation from all sections of the society, Therefore the role of civil society becomes extremely crucial and responsible. This paper itself is revealing multiple realities. NGOs have knowledge, skills and competency to make an informed choice. There is difference in opinion of larger civil society. One section of civil society is leading, organizing and promoting the movement, where there is lack of comprehensive and critical analysis of diverse Indian society and the importance of their true involvement in the movement. The other sections of civil society can critically analyze multiple realities but still, there is a gap to cover. Civil society organizations make a difference in national development. They give caring assistance and basic services, innovate in service deliverance, build capacity and advocate with and for the youth. Recent years have also seen their role and spheres of youth development. By performing unaided, however, CSO coalition is inadequate in extent, degree and sustainability. It can be seen that, eventually, effectual states are imperative for sustained

developmental progress among youth. Progressive government strategy and efficient execution matter a lot. But there is mixed outcome across India with respect to Youth Development. CSOs require connecting with policy processes more efficiently as a pressure group. This also reflects on how larger civil society or all sections of civil society need to develop democratic, responsible and just culture within them.

Conclusion: A major trend that can be seen is that majority of the CSOs focus on youth development. It can be seen that high focus on areas related to youth development like livelihood, income-generating activities and employment is really helpful in holistic development of youth. It was found that all CSOs strongly believe in the rights of the youth towards their wellbeing. And the approach they have adopted is primarily rights-based approach and there are elements of service delivery and community development. Their rights-based approach can be reflected in the high level of participation of youth in different levels of their work; youth participates at all levels from the phase of designing of the programme till the evaluation. It was found that CSOs adopt an approach towards youth development and also for service delivery. Moreover, CSOs worked at all, micro, mezzo and macro levels that is individual, family, community,

national, and influencing policy making related to youth development. Furthermore, it was also found that CSOs, both with major and common focus on health and education worked on micro and mezzo level. And one organisation worked in all levels except the individuals, from family, community, city, state, national to influence policy making. Models of advocacy, lobbying, campaigns and movements, capacity building were adopted by all organisations to develop the youth.

End-Notes and References

http://nasetalliance.org/youthdev/ind ex.htm/ retrieved on 6th September 6, 2017, 13:00hrs.

²http://www.bhojvirtualuniversity.com /slm/bswc14.pdf/retrieved on 6th September 6, 2017, 13:00hrs.

³Several abet actors, mainly in the midst of governments in developing countries; refer to 'NGOs' and their role in national aid and development collaboration. But the expression 'NGO' is contested expressions, and for numerous has been subsumed inside a broader group of 'civil society organizations' or 'CSOs'. This paper has selected to use the term 'CSO'. There are several kinds of CSOs occupied in delivering help, including faith-based groups, professional associations, nationally allied organizations with branches in many different areas etc. In this paper 'NGO' is used interchangeably with 'CSO', but NGOs in this paper is properly understood as a subset of CSOs involved in development cooperation.

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Good Practices - Water Supply & Water Reuse/Recycle

Fazalahmed B. Khan

Water is life because there is no life without water. There are amazing facts about water. There is more or less the same amount of water on Earth now as there was millions of years ago. About 75% of our planet is water. A substantial quantity i.e. 68.70% of the freshwater is trapped in glaciers. Approximately 30% of freshwater is in the ground. Less than 1% of the water supply on earth can be used as drinking water. About 85% of the world population lives in the driest half of the planet. As per a report, 80% of all illnesses in the developing world are water related. Unsafe water kills 200 children every hour. More than half of the water used in a home is used in the bathroom. Less than 1% of the water treated by public water suppliers is used for drinking and cooking. These are a few facts out of hundreds of amazing facts about water cited from authentic researches of the scientific bodies.

Water facts of India are also no less amazing, though they present some painful facts also when it comes to their pollution. India is blessed with twelve major river systems, a large number of smaller rivers/tributaries and natural and artificial lakes. The perennial Himalayan rivers of Ganga, Yamuna, Indus and Brahmaputra flow through the northern States making those regions fertile. Central India and Southern India have rainfed rivers of Narmada, Tapi, Mahanadi Krishna, Godavari and Cauvery. In India, lakes are also an important source of water for drinking, agriculture, and even industries. Lakes meet the water needs of the population around them, act as flood cushion and recharge the ground aguifers. There are 2,01,503 wetlands across India occupying 4% of the land area. All these facts place India among water rich nations, having about 4% of world's freshwater resources. However, anomaly is that on one hand India

suffers from damage due to floods, on the other hand it has large tracts falling dry and drought prone zones. Pollution of rivers and water bodies is a huge problem. Another task is to take the water to cities where more than 30% of population of the country resides and which are hotbeds of economic activities inter alia in need of water. Water is one of the most wasted things. Therefore there is no option left but to recycle and reuse the wastewater for which technologies are developed.

Water supply is one of the core functions of municipalities. Municipalities bring water through pipe lines from dams, reservoirs, rivers, lakes, etc. often from a distant source. The distance could be long even more than 100/200 kms. Similarly, its distribution to various points in the city and from there to the households requires a huge network of pipelines to be laid. As the water supply depends upon various factors and limitations, municipalities decide a minimum norm. In India, large tracts of areas are water deficient and fact remains that by the start of summer, the water sources become deficient and a hard fact of life is that a large number of municipal councils in such areas cannot make daily supplies. They are always in short supplies in relation to requirement. On account of these facts. a municipality has to take lot of efforts for water supply in cities. These efforts

require innovative ideas, which become inspiring for others. The Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies has compiled good practices with innovative ideas and efforts by some municipalities. This article summarises the same.

The Introduction of the compilation presents the background scenario of water supply in India and drives home the point that in order to meet their mandate of water supply, the local bodies have no option but to go innovative by 1) seeking new sources of water, 2) saving and redistributing supplies, 3) doing wastewater treatment for recycling and reuse and 4) harvesting rain water. This calls for individual and communities, governments, local bodies, industry and Non-Government Organizations to play coordinated role. The Introduction contains a good write up on water treatment of fresh water as to how the water supply goes through various methods and processes before it is supplied to households. The hardly exploited source of Rain Water Harvesting is explained as to its practicability and immense potential both in urban and rural areas. A section on 24 X 7 Water Supply System as mentioned therein shows that though it is a challenge requiring strong leadership and special skills, it is achievable and generates its own advantages once it is started.

It has been well established that there is no such thing as waste, as a waste is a resource if properly utilized. This is more so in case of wastewater. Section 2 of Part 1, section clearly explains the concept of wastewater, its increasing generation, treatment processes, its recycling and reuse with the help of flow chart and other graphics. The technologies of treatment of grey water (generated from bathrooms, kitchens, etc.) and black water (generated from toilets) are well established. This section further shows that while there are specific uses of black water after treatment, the use of treated grey water can be used for a number of purposes of daily activities like toilet flushing, floor cleaning, irrigation, gardening, construction, car washing, etc. and if this route is employed there can be substantial saving of the regular water supply.

Part II of the compilation is on Good Practices in Water Supply showcasing the success stories of some municipal corporations/councils. The story of Ambernath Municipality is remarkable because after the water supply system had collapsed in 2005 due to flooding, the municipality and the Maharashtra Jeevan Pradhikaran (MJP) took up the challenge of transforming the old system into a new system with international standards and working for 24 X 7 Supply. Its motto is "Ensuring sustainable water service delivery through innovative

approaches and quality management systems for NRW Reduction & cost recovery." The works are taken up under a State scheme with the latest technology; the emphasis is also on reducing the water losses (technically called Non-Revenue Water reduction strategy), which came down from 52% to 28%. Collection efficiency of water charges is very vital to the success of such projects. The Council has achieved a level of above 90% recovery.

Next success story is that of Badlapur town whose water supply system was also damaged during the flooding of 2005. After sustained efforts and employing various technical methods and strategies, water supply switched to continuous regime (24 X 7) with reduced water contamination. Elaborate metering system was employed for effective leakage control. This in turn increased consumer satisfaction and enhanced their willingness to pay water bills in time. The availability of good quality water has had good impact on the overall economy of the town.

The Pimpri Chinchwad Municipal Corporation had a water supply system operated on judgmental and manual communication till 2011. The Corporation utilized the grants under JnNURM for strengthening transmission and distribution system, augmenting treatment and storage

capacity and consumer metering. It supplies 428 MLD water to 1.73 million population spread in 177 Sq. Km. The water system is designed for population for the year 2031 and hallmark of the project is SCADA system which monitors water supply in real time basis by remote monitoring using state of the art gadgets in the control room, pumping stations, water treatment plan and distribution networks.

Valsad Municipality has its own captive dams for city water supply with an added advantage that the water source point is at a higher altitude than the city. Thus water flows by gravity through the rising main and distribution system. The municipality has laid emphasis on operation and maintenance activities and efficient water charges recovery, with the result that the dam site commissioned in 1963 is still efficiently working and could withstand deluge in 2004. The municipality earns revenue by allowing a company to lift water from the dam. Considering the population growth, a new project for Rising Main, Distribution Network, Elevated Storage Tank, etc. are proposed under AMRUT.

In water scarce places, equity of water distribution matters most and key to success of such projects lies in participation of the community. The water supply project at Thangaon (Dist. Nasik) is a bright example of the same. Under the scheme a Water Committee is set up consisting Sarpanchs of four villages presided over by the Sarpanch of Thangaon. The project is overseen by MJP for its technical aspects, the operation and maintenance of water supply is carried by the staff appointed by the water committee of five villages. When water in the reservoir falls short, a stand by arrangement is made from the nearby river and village wells with filtration processes. Water supply is at the doorstep of villagers and there is no issue in recovery of water charges.

Some of the intelligent solutions of water supply in rural areas with limited sources of water are as under:

- Compounding rain fall for recharging the ground water. In this way run off of rainwater on surface is minimized and it is allowed to percolate.
- 2) Efficient water management through community participation.
- Community having a sense of ownership and role in the operation and maintenance of the water conservation and supply project works wonders.
- Reusing the water and avoiding the losses by using pipes and drip irrigation.

5) Often NGO with technical expertise and spirit of service have delivered best results.

These principles have been employed in the water supply projects in Hiwarebazar (Dist. Ahmednagar), Shergarh (Dist. Jodhpur), Kholadiyad (Dist. Surendranagar) and Motipura (Dist. Gandhinagar). The compilation presents their success stories in a very attractive way with appealing narratives and fine graphics.

A Sewage Treatment Plant (STP) requires substantial power for its operations. In Jaipur there are two STPs. In order to avoid big expenditure on power consumption, in one STP bio-gas generated in the STP is used to run the STP process which has become self-sufficient. In another unit, the biogas generated is used for production of liquid natural gas, which has become a good source of revenue. After commissioning of these plants, the power consumption from the grid has come down from 208653 Kwh/month to 55479 Kwh/per month. Only 26% of power demand is met from the grid and the rest is met by the power generated at site.

It is well established that in order to meet water needs for industrial and other non-potable purposes, full utilization of wastewater through treatments and recycling is the right solution. This gets exemplified from the narration of the Rajkot experience. The Rajkot Municipal Corporation has set up various plants for treatment of drainage water and industrial effluents and supplying the same for irrigation purposes. The dried sludge is used as compost. The RMC has framed mandatory 'waste water recycling bylaws as part of local development control, which is estimated to result in saving of 40% of water needs of the buildings. Beginning with the prohibition of the use of potable water for non-potable uses, the by-laws outline stringent standards for the reuse of grey water to the extent of 100%.

A lot is spoken and written about wastewater treatment and utilizing treated water for other than potable purposes. A shining example of this is brought in implementation in Surat city, which is the 8th largest city in India. The Corporation set up a sewage treatment plant in 2002 with a UASB technology. It was upgraded in 2008 for second stage treatment, which made it one of the largest such plants in the world. As a complementary to the process, bio-gas power plants and tertiary sewage plants were also set up by employing latest technology from abroad. The result is that today Surat Corporation supplies 40 MLD treated water to the industrial units, which accounts to a substantial saving of the freshwater. The industries have to pay less for the water. This has also enabled Surat to attract new industries to Surat besides conserving natural resources and reducing pollution.

The compilation also showcases good practices in wastewater treatment and reuse by an institute and of a location. The former is the example of Environmental Sanitation Institute; Sughad (Gujarat) where the entire waste generated in a campus of 50 personnel is treated in the campus only and reused there without any bad odour. The institute utilizes most of the rain water by storing it and recharging the wells. The whole technology is simple with low-cost. The example of Bhatewara premises in Nasik is also exemplary for treating and re-using both grey water and black water which is in operation for last 11 years.

Part IV of the compilation containing Conclusions and Recommendations sums up the successful experiences of all the projects included in the compilation, with expert recommendations of high practical significance on water supply and water reuse/recycle. It is now a well established fact that the ground

water in India is depleting fast, rainfall has become erratic and pollution in water bodies is high. This situation has put severe limitations on fresh potable water resources. This makes open the highly feasible and logical option of water recycling by treating the wastewater for reuse.

The compilation is highly useful document as it shows good technologies and methods of water supply, water treatment, wastewater recycling and reuse are now available and have been successfully implemented in meeting water needs in various cities and institutions. These technologies can be replicated in almost all the cities, towns, premises and locations as they are proved as effective solutions to water shortages. The compilation showcases the successful implementation of technologies and methods for efficient water supply, wastewater treatment for recycling and reuse in various situations. F.B. Khan

Book Review

Urban Reforms in India (Fast Track and Slow Motion), Kalpaz Publications, Delhi. pp. 361.

How are the cities governed? How reforms are articulated and implemented? What is the impact of reforms in improving urban governance, service delivery, and overall quality of urban life? etc., are serious questions being raised in the context of India's urbanization. Urban governance in India, however, did not receive serious attention at the hands of the policy makers, urban executives and scholars for study and evaluation over decades. The studies are mostly on urban development programs and schemes and less on urban policy, governance and reforms. With India's fast urbanization, urban governance and reforms is attracting attention of policy makers as well as scholars; more so after the Seventy-fourth Constitution Amendment Act, 1992. The book under review is timely and a welcome addition to the literature on urban governance; urban reforms in particular.

The book deals with urban reforms in the areas of policy and governance followed by an analysis of Gnaneswar. V. and Singh U.B. (2017), reforms in critical areas of finance, land use, urban planning and housing. It is divided into ten chapters covering diverse areas like urban policies including sector policies, governance, participation, finances, accounts, planning, land use and shelter. Each chapter includes an introduction to the reform, historical perspective where needed, policy frame, implementation and constraints and impact of reforms. Presentation of best practices and cases studies is an important and valuable addition to the book. The authors provide suggestions for further reforms based on experience in each chapter.

> Introductory chapter provides a backdrop of urban growth and urban policies and sector policies like sanitation, solid wastes and poverty in a historic perspective taking the readers through the planning era. Second chapter covers the urban reforms in India since Independence and provides a historical perspective. The chapter covers reforms articulated at the instance of the external aid agencies like World Bank, USAID and DFID. It also covers different reform initiatives including pooled finance, public-private partnerships and urban reforms incentive fund. Citizen charters, grievance mechanism, service centers, reforms under thirteenth finance commission and

AMRUT are discussed, though succinctly. While the narrative covers the reform framework including objectives, components, funding and criteria, the implementation and evaluation did not receive needed space.

Governance

Forms of municipal government, Seventy Fourth Constitution Amendment Act, functional domain and e-governance are covered. But the status of implementation or states' reluctance which continues to be a major hurdle in the implementation of Seventy Fourth Constitution Amendment Act did not get adequate space. The ward committees under 74 CAA and later as part of JNNURM reforms as units of decentralization and participation are covered in detail. A very welcome feature is the presentation of case studies from different states which provide useful information to the practitioners and scholars. But why the states are reluctant to operationalise the constitutional provisions like wards committees as also Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission reform on community participation law covering ward committees and area sabhas is not discussed from the state's perspective which would have provided a better understanding for the readers. The authors could have presented different models of ward committees

that emerged in states in a conceptual form to help the states to initiate and implement this major reform of decentralisation and participation.

Property Tax

The chapter on property tax explains different models of property taxation under implementation in different states like plinth area system in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu; rental and capital value model, area based approach of Bihar; Madhya Pradesh's built-up area system and selfassessment system in different states along with its limitations. Cases from different cities like Kanpur, Hyderabad and Bangalore are presented lucidly. The need for standardization of property tax system is underpinned to gain advantage. The chapter covers GIS applications with focus on Bangalore and its advantages. Rent control laws, which have serious implications for property tax reforms, is covered in this chapter. Collection of property tax, which is a major problem in all cities across the country, along with was measures to improve collection management and efficiency are covered with examples.

Accounting Reforms

Municipal accounting is a major problem and successive finance commissions - both central and state have been repeatedly suggesting reforms through adoption of double entry accrual based system. But the states are slow and where efforts are made there are several problems of implementation either because of constraints of institutional or human resources or capacity limitations. The chapter discusses conceptual aspects and advantages of reform and presents cases in cities which adopted the double entry accounting system successfully and presents integrated solutions.

Urban Land

With increasing urbanization, land has become very significant for planning and development. The authors cover urban land policies and legal and administrative issues in land management in detail. They also cover potential of land as an important resource. Policy regarding regularization of unauthorized colonies, land monetization, land auction, land as a resource, impact fee to prevent mushroom growth, floor area ratio, etc., are discussed and a sustainable framework for land as a resource is presented.

Urban Planning

Haphazard urban growth, absence of rational development control regulations or their inadequate implementation are the major problems of urban planning in India - particularly the metro cities and their hinterland. The chapter includes reforms in master planning, development controls, building regulations, problems of unregulated growth, energy conservation, interinstitutional coordination, etc. Most importantly cases relating to single window system of building plan approvals, automatic building plan approval systems of Pune, Indore and Bangalore are presented. Similarly, the working of district and metropolitan planning committees are discussed very succinctly.

Housing

Housing policies since Independence, reforms in housing sector in the context of economic liberalization, housing programs both general and for the poor, their implementation, impact and issues are covered. Housing programs for the poor, affordable housing, land reservation for housing, housing finance, land reforms, etc., are covered in detail.

Some Limitations

There are a few limitations that need to be commented upon. The authors could have discussed population projections and link the reforms and their implementation in the context of their adequacy to the emerging challenges to the projected population. Governance of metros, which are growing phenomenally, was not discussed even cursorily. The book covers Urban Transport Policy, 2006 instead of 2014 though there are many commonalities. Though policies were discussed, their implementation, issues, outcomes, etc., did not get adequate space and attention. For example, under housing policy, evolution of housing policies and their objectives and features are covered but not their implementation, outcomes and issues. Thirteenth Finance Commission recommended nine reforms including constitution of State Property Tax Board and accounting reforms, and their implementation is conditional to access performance grant of Rs.8,000 crore. Many states not accessing the grant is an indication of states' approach to urban reforms. But the book did not refer to this important aspect except listing the nine reforms. Several state finance commissions devoted a full chapter on urban governance reforms but the book has no space for them. Nonconstitution of Metropolitan Planning Committee, weak organization and functioning of District Planning Committees in many states and reluctance of states and the ULBs to constitute and empower wards committees and area sabhas got sidelined in the discussion. So is the case with a major reform like service level benchmarking focused upon by the thirteenth and fourteenth finance

commissions. A major limitation of the book is the absence of a discussion on reform implementation, impact and reasons for slow and sometimes delayed or no implementation. The book is more descriptive than analytical.

The authors of the book with more than three decades of experience in urban sector working directly with states and cities across the country as researchers and trainers pooled their experience in this volume. Intense interactions with the practitioners during training and research studies seem to have enabled them to test different reforms under implementation and draw conclusions.

The study engages urban governance and reforms landscape over a seven decade period - post Independence. The authors argue that the urban reforms are being initiated no doubt on a fast track in recent years but the implementation is too slow to make any discernible impact. The authors cover a wide canvass on urban reforms but seem to be reluctant to engage on some fronts like implementation and impact as also as to why reforms under Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission failed to adhere to reform timelines, as to why the states are reluctant to initiate and implement reforms in cities and towns despite problems of urbanization confronting the city and state governments. Finally,

it is not clear as to why the sub-title of the book Fast Track and Slow Motion was put in brackets. Without brackets the title would have sent a clear message as to the status of urban reforms in India.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the book provides a ready reference on urban reforms in India to students, scholars and practitioners with a historical perspective and presents cases in each reform area. It provides the needed framework to policy makers and practitioners to look

into the past experiences, problems and pitfalls in reform strategies and implementation in improving urban governance in the country. The book is probably a first comprehensive one on urban reforms and a very good addition to the literature. It is a useful book for researchers, practitioners, students and scholars of urban affairs, planners and architects, disciplines of public administration, urban and development studies and social sciences in general.

Prof. D. Ravindra Prasad

Our Contributors

☐ Gunnel Östlund

Dr. Gunnel Östlund is Associate Professor, Division of Social Work, School of Health Care and Social Welfare, Mälardalen University, Sweden.

■ Mehrdad Darvishpour

Dr. Mehrdad Darvishpour is Associate Professor in Social Work, School of Health Care and Social Welfare, Mälardalen University, Sweden.

■ Mukesh Kanaskar

Prof. Dr. Mukesh Kanaskar is Deputy Director General, All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG) and Director of its International Center of Equity and Inclusion for Transformation.

□ Shweta Gupta

Shweta Gupta is Executive Director, International Center of Equity and Inclusion for Transformation, All India Institute of Local Self-Government.

□ V. V. Kulkarni

Dr. V.V. Kulkarni is Dean, Arts, Commerce and Social Science, Bharati Vidyapeeth Deemed to be University, Pune.

□ Usha Verghese

Dr. Usha Verghese is Associate Professor, Social Science Center, Bharati Vidyapeeth Deemed to be University, Pune.

Contd...

Smt. R.N. Mareppagoudra Dr. (Smt.) R.N. Mareppagoudra is Permanent Guest Faculty, Karnataka State Rural Development and Panchayat Raj University, Gadag. B. M. Ratnakar Dr. B. M. Ratnakar is Professor, Department of Political Science, Karnatak University Dharwad. S. K. Kataria Prof. S. K. Kataria is Professor, Department of Public Administration, UCSSH Mohanlal Sukhadia University, Udaipur. Vikram Singh Vikram Singh is Assistant Professor and Head, Department of Social Work, Guru Ghasidas Vishwavidyalaya, Koni, Bilaspur. **Gursharan Kaur** Gursharan Kaur is Assistant Professor, Guru Ramdas School of Planning, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar. Sowmyashree K.L. Dr. Sowmyashree K.L. is Post Doctoral Fellow, D.O.S in Geography, University of Mysore, Manasagangotri, Mysuru. B. N. Shivalingappa

Prof. B.N. Shivalingappa (Rtd.), D.O.S in Geography,

Contd...

University Of Mysore, Manasagangotri, Mysuru.

	Fazalahmed B Khan
	Fazalahmed B Khan is Advisor (Urban and Legal Services) All India Institute of Local Self-Government,
	Mumbai.
	D. Ravindra Prasad
	Prof. D. Ravindra Prasad is Former Director, Regional
	Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies, Osmania
	University, Hyderabad.
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OBJECTIVES

The main emphasis of the Institute's work is to see that the local bodies can contribute more effectively to the development process and provide the citizens with better living conditions by meeting their aspirations in terms of required amenities, infrastructure and better environmental conditions, thus contributing to social and economic development of the society as a whole by better management of the human settlements. While these are the long-term objectives, the immediate ones are:

- To advance knowledge of the principles and practices of Local Government by conducting research and by organising training courses and programmes at various centres in India for officials and elected representatives in the local bodies.
- To strengthen and improve Local Government Institutions by improving their performance through education, orientation and bringing them together for common endeavor by organising specialised conferences, conventions and seminars.
- To make available a platform for members of local bodies and officials for exchange of views and ideas related to urban development and administration.
- To represent the views of local authorities supported by research work to the concerned higher authorities from time to time.
- To publish bibliographies, articles, books and other literature on matters of interest to local bodies.
- To publish journals, bulletins and other literature on different aspects of Local Government and on the working of Local bodies in different states.
- To undertake research studies in public administration, problems of local bodies and also in related topics of urban and environmental factors and arrange for their publication etc.
- To establish and maintain an information-cum-documentation service for local bodies.
- To undertake consultancy assignments in various areas of urban development and problems of local bodies with a view to improve and develop organisational, managerial and operational efficiency.

In view of the above, the Institute has been collaborating with the relevant government departments, Central and State, Universities, Organisations and Research Institutions. The work of the Institute covers several aspects involving a multi-disciplinary teamwork.

All India Institute of Local Self-Government

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block, TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai – 400051. Tel: +91-22-26571713 / 4, 6180 5600 Fax: +91-22-26572115 E-mail: aiilsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com, info.algq@gmail.com Website: www.aiilsg.org