# Local Government Quarterly

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## About All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG)

All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG), established in 1926 has been actively working in the field of urban development management and is a diligent partner in promoting the cause of local governance in India and overseas.

The Institute has been the steadfast friend, philosopher and guide to Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) across the Country. For more than eight decades it has contributed to the principles and practice of urban governance, education, research and capacity building. It has designed and developed a vast array of training literature and courses and trained more than 1.5 million stakeholders in diverse areas of urban governance and urban services delivery.

These activities of the AIILSG are practiced through 30 regional centres located in different regions of the Country. The Institute anchors the Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) of the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India for Western India region. This Centre is actively involved in building capabilities of municipal officials, staff and elected members from the States of Goa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and the Union Territories of Diu, Daman, and Dadra & Nagar Haveli by upgrading their knowledge and skills required for effective administration and implementation of various urban development programmes.

With a view to cater to the growing requirement of ULBs in regard to services, the AIILSG runs specialized capacity building institutions such as the National Fire Academy, the Nrupur Institute of Nursing Science and Research and the Centre for Environment & Disaster Management at Vadodara, PRUDA at Ahmedabad, National Resource Centre for Urban Poverty, International Centre of EQUI-T, the Disaster Management Cell and the Centre of GIS at Pune. It runs the Solid Waste Management Cell of the Government of Maharashtra. In recent years, AIILSG has ventured into rural and tribal capacity building and hand holding of rural institutions of self-governance.

In addition to the domestic activities, the Institute organises several tailor-made capacity building programmes for various countries in South Asia, viz, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka and in other regions, including South Africa, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Malaysia, China, etc. The Institute has linkages with renowned international organizations including UNCHS (Habitat), UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, WHO, DFID, CITYNET, CLGF, US-AEP and the Ford Foundation. It is the anchor institution for Urban Management Programme (UMP-UNCHS-Habitat) for South Asia.

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# Fight food waste; fight hunger

931 million tonnes of food was wasted in the year 2019 globally. This piece of statistic should make us all sit up. To put the figure in perspective, India's food grain production in the crop year 2020-21 is estimated to be about 303 million tonnes - a record. 931 million tonnes represents 17 percent of global food production. The food waste data are compiled by the United Nations Environment Program and reported in its **Food Waste Index Report 2021**.

Given the precarious condition of millions of the world population with respect to hunger and malnutrition, the humongous quantity of food waste is extremely disappointing and will surely be of great concern to policy makers around the globe. As per FAO estimates, some 690 million people went hungry in 2019 with a staggering 3 billion unable to afford a healthy diet. The situation has likely got exacerbated during these COVID-19 times.

The report further provides some startling data on the subject. It identifies the household sector as the one accounting for the largest share of the waste at 61 percent; 26 percent of waste takes place in food service, and the remaining 13 percent at retail level. A detailed analysis of regionwise and countrywise performance on food waste has been provided. These findings present more uncomfortable facts. The per capita annual food waste at the household level has been classified according to World Bank income categories and is as follows:

High Income countries 79 Kgs

Upper middle income 76 Kgs

Lower middle income 91 Kgs

These are category averages which comprise medium and high confidence estimates. For countries in the low income category, the data are reportedly insufficient and hence not reported. In any case the findings as in the above paragraph demolish some long-held beliefs. One, that food waste at the household level happens more among affluent countries; the report found no such evidence. Two, that food wastage among lower middle income countries could be at retail level due to inadequate storage infrastructure; while data is inadequate, it is unlikely as the share of retail waste at the global level is just 13%. To put it bluntly, countries that suffer the most in terms of hunger and malnutrition seem to be also high wasters of food at the household level.

Against the global average of 74, Sub-Saharan Africa averages 108 Kg/capita/year at the household level (Nigeria 189, Rwanda 164). Among the South Asian countries, India fares rather well at 50 Kg (Afghanistan 82, Sri Lanka 76).

While there are intricacies and several difficulties in accessing and compiling high confidence level data across the globe given the differences in approach at country level, the findings even at a broad level paint a dismal picture and call for urgent, sustained and wide-ranging actions to cut down on food waste everywhere. Since the household sector contributes the highest share of the waste, maximum gains are to be realized by action on this front.

We believe that food waste represents a bigger problem than what appears at first reading. Surely it is unacceptable that such large quantities of food are wasted at the household level, particularly in poorer countries which have still such a large number of mouths to feed, such large numbers of starvation deaths, and wide-ranging underdevelopment due to malnourishment. This should be reason enough to address the problem urgently. But there are other dimensions too. Agriculture in most scenarios is water intensive. By several estimates, agriculture consumes 75 to 80 percent of all freshwater on earth. It is a pity if large amounts of water are consumed to grow food and then this food is lost/wasted. Ditto for greenhouse gas emissions. The report notes that "An estimated 8-10 per cent of global greenhouse gas emissions are associated with food that is not consumed (Mbow et al., 2019, p. 200) – and yet none of the Nationally Determined Contributions to the Paris Agreement mention food waste (and only 11 mention food loss) (Schulte et al., 2020). "

Yet another impact of household (and food service, and retail) food waste is on the waste management systems of our cities, Our cities are in any case overburdened with municipal waste from households. Food waste can add significantly to the

burden. Urban local bodies are encouraging citizens to set up decentralized bio-composting, bio-energy generation facilities to address this bio-degradable waste. Yes these can reduce the burden somewhat and help in extracting some value out of wasted food; but it does not solve the problem of eliminating waste in the first place.

*The SDGs recognize the central role of food - and impacts of food waste. Target under 12.3 states „By 2030, halve per capita global food waste at the retail and consumer levels and reduce food losses along production and supply chains, including post-harvest losses.‰*

We may note that two terms – food waste – and – food loss – are used here. Broadly food loss is that loss which happens when edible output does not reach the retail stage, is destroyed in between, and does not re-enter the chain; like losses in transportation and storage. Food wastage is that which occurs at later stages.

While the above definition is useful to understand and appreciate the report fully, the fact remains that any food that is produced, is edible, but does not end up feeding the population is a loss with multidimensional implications for the environment, for the grower in terms of lost incomes, and for the poor in terms of their going hungry. This must change!

# Urban Local Government and Capacity Building: A Study from a Theoretical Perspective

**Manas Chakrabarty**

## Introduction

India is experiencing the process of rapid urbanization and that too at a much faster pace. With the rising levels of urbanization and the growth of urban population, the pressure on development of cities is increasing in India. (Nallathiga, 2014). Accordingly, it has become a necessary factor that the Urban Local Governments should harness human resources and build their capacity in order to meet the mounting pressures of urban development. It can be done through urban reforms and better governance. With the rapid growth of its population, India is increasingly becoming urban ever since 1980s. Steady growth in number of urban areas is clearly discernible although India's urbanization is often termed as taking place at steady pace, short of the required pace at which the Western countries have experienced it. (Kundu 2006). Naturally, in view of the rising urban population and steady increase in the number of urban localities, demands for providing and maintaining infrastructure for an increasing number of people is growing. It is more so because of the fact that in the context of steady increase of urbanization and at the same time the rising urban population growth, the Indian cities are gaining greater economic importance, particularly due to globalization. Accordingly, it has become necessary to upgrade and modernise the urban infrastructure at a faster pace in order to cope with the new and emerging challenges. In order to meet the challenges, urban local governments need to have not only financial capacity but also adequate and capable human resources (Mohanty 1997). It is therefore clear that the development and maintenance of urban infrastructure services requires human resources in terms of adequate staff, appropriate staffing structure and requisite skills and capacities to face the new and emerging situation.

The new situation and development has forced the municipal bodies to undertake skill development and capacity building of their staff on a regular basis so that they can efficiently and effectively meet the new challenges. This highlights the need and importance of capacity building and skill development so that it becomes easier to mobilise human resources to face the various complex issues which are arising from rapid urbanization.

There is no denying the fact that local governments play an important role in developing and implementing community goals. In reality, the local governments are very much instrumental in shaping the quality of life for all residents of the urban areas and help the economy to thrive. Accordingly, the municipalities and other local governments have been put at the forefront for implementing ON TO 2050 through the methods of designing local plans, regulations, infrastructure investments, programs, and various services. But it is a fact that many of these groups work with limited staff strength and funds. Again, in most of the cases, they are devoid of the necessary knowledge, training, or technical resources which are sine qua non for achieving the goals that might lead to a favorable quality of life. It is therefore necessary that the local leaders should initiate efforts in order to build and boost local capacity that

might be helpful for the municipal staff and officials, community organizations and others to govern in a proper way. The task of capacity building is broad in nature and it ranges from training and building technical knowledge to the ensuring of sustainable funding to networking. It is well nigh impossible to deny the importance of training for the staff as well as elected and appointed officials. But a survey of the ground reality would reveal the fact that the local planning and the governance system have to face several challenges with regard to finance and shortage of staff. It can be said that 'Capacity' building trainings can help in a significant way to stretch local governments' resources by enhancing expertise despite limited staff strength and increasing responsibilities. In this regard, it should be said that the lack of staff, funding, technical knowledge, and other resources can limit the ability of municipalities to achieve quality of life goals. Training and professional development for local government officials and staff is of high importance for attaining the local and regional goals. Therefore, the local governments need to schedule regular trainings for staff and officials. At the same time, the local governments should create professional development plans for them and financially support relevant training programs. Therefore what is necessary, is 'capacity building'. At this point, let us throw some light on 'capacity building'.

## Capacity Building

The term 'Capacity' refers to the ability of a person to perform his/her tasks and roles effectively, efficiently and sustainably. In order to achieve any developmental objective individually and collectively, appropriate capacity both at the individual and organizational levels is important and essential. Further, capacity building is the task of equipping all actors in the process so that they can be effective both in performing their own tasks in their own field and level of operation, and at the same time working in collaboration or partnership with others who operate in other fields and at other levels. It has rightly been said that it is an essential component of both empowerment and enabling. In most general terms, capacity consists of a party's ability to solve its problems and achieve its objectives (Bush). Taking into account all aspects, it can be said that the concept of capacity building is a combination of several dimensions which include : efforts, initiatives and performance in order to enhance and properly utilize the skills and capabilities of the people and organization or that of the institutions at local, national, regional and global levels. Further, the term 'capacity building' refers to enabling the indigenous people of developing countries to carry out development processes successfully by empowering them through strengthened domestic institutions, provision of domestic markets, and improvement of local government efforts to sustain infrastructures, social institutions, and commercial institutions. (Awofeso, 2017). The most important aspect that needs a special mention is that capacity building encourages a "bottom-up" or grassroots effort for sustainable development. The grass root effort begins with the family unit. Capacity building addresses all areas of social, economic and health, and environmental processes through a holistic approach. (Awofeso, 2017). In this connection it should be referred that "capacity building" and "capacity development" are used synonymously. However, they are used in numerous contexts with a view to describe a wide array of activities. It is important to note that capacity building is a matter of development at all levels of the society. It is an integral part of development theory and practice. (Deborah, 1997). It includes institutional development, community development and economic development as well. In the process of capacity building, some central assets like individuals, organizations, communities, and governments need to develop their full potential which include knowledge and technical skills, institutional and organizational capacity and the ability to prevent, manage and resolve conflicts.

It should be pointed out that one central component of capacity building of the individuals at the local level is popular education. There is no denying the fact that popular education greatly helps to strengthen local citizens' awareness of their rights and responsibilities. At the same time, it helps to keep them informed about the current legislations of the country. It should be mentioned that literacy significantly helps to build awareness, raise political consciousness and give people the information they need to think critically and become independent. When individuals have the ability to read, write and can access information, it is quite natural that they would be in a better position to make better decisions and articulate their demands for bringing about social change. In capacity building, the most important task is defining, designing, creating and implementing a process to solve a challenge or meet an objective and it is the most valuable role. (Blokdyk, 2018). Capacity building is therefore concerned with human resource development (people), institutional development (local government system) and the overall policy environment within which the local governments (as public service organizations) operate and interact. (Vincent and Stephen, 2015).

In this connection, it should be referred that some theorists regard capacity building as an important part of development work. They describe it as a matter of strengthening the ability of individuals, groups, institutions, and organizations to identify and solve development problems over time. (Lusthaus, et.al, 1999). In short, capacity building involves skill transfer, training, human resource management, organizational development and the strengthening of communities and social networks. It is also important to train the individuals in order to serve in national or international technical assistance programs and also to train policy makers and practitioners to implement sustainable development strategies. It may be stated that the national programs are sometimes implemented to develop the capacities of institutions to address people's needs. Through the process of institutional capacity building, individuals and organizations attempt to strengthen their abilities to mobilize the resources necessary to overcome that nation's economic and social problems. The goal is to bring about a better standard of living within that society by putting in place institutional reform, altering accepted rules of behavior, and developing new policies. This typically requires the strengthening of the core institutions of government, the private sector and civic organizations to build their capacity for economic and social transition. Another way to build the capacities of lower income

nations is to support the growth of academic and scientific communities in these countries and link up these communities with international academic networks. We should always remember that capacity building is a long term and a continuous, ongoing process. While we speak of capacity building we should also remember that there are some other important factors. If this is our aim that the decision-makers, managers, professionals and technicians should function with full capacity, it is also necessary that there should be a proper institutional and organisational environment which is conducive and supportive of their efforts, energies and capacities. In practice, the institutional and organisational constraints stand as great an impediment for the effective management of cities and on the part of the professionals, technicians and the ordinary people. In order to achieve effective capacity building, three important dimensions must be given due attention. They are: (1) Human resource development; (2) Organisational development; and (3) Institutional development.

**Human Resource Development**

So far as Human Resource Development (HRD) is concerned, it is the process of equipping people with the understanding and skills, and the access to information and knowledge to perform in an effective manner. It includes the most important aspect of motivating the people so that they can operate constructively and efficiently through the development of positive attitudes and progressive approaches to responsibility and productivity. To achieve these aspects of HRD, the organisational environment must be dynamic and responsive in nature.

**Organisational and institutional development**

If we take the aspect of Organisational Development, it is the process by which things get done collectively within an organisation, be it a Central Government Ministry, a local authority department, a private sector enterprise, a non-governmental organisation (NGO) or a community group. This is done with the management practices and procedures; rules and regulations; hierarchies and job descriptions: how things get done. Other important dimensions in this regard include working relationships, shared goals and values, team-work, dependencies and supports. In view of the fast changing and novel situation, there is always an increasing demand for a flexible and adaptable management system for a proper development of cities. It calls for new and unique organisational structures and relationships in the main organs of the local government. At the same time it also calls for new pattern of relationships that fits in the new and

emerging situations between different organisations which are instrumental and play a catalytic role in the process of urban development and its management. But this is not an easy task. To bring necessary organisational changes mainly depends upon the institutional changes. In order to undertake institutional development, it becomes necessary for initiating legal and regulatory changes so that the organizations are enabled in this regard. It is also necessary that the institutions and agencies at all levels and in all sectors should enhance their capacities.

In fact, for proper development and management of all dimensions, the aspect of 'Capacity' needs to be built at each and every level and across all fields of activity which are directly or indirectly concerned with the development and management of cities. There is no second opinion on the matter that municipal governments and administrations are the key actors in the management of towns and cities. With the passage of time and several new developments, it has become imperative to re-build and restructure the capacity of local government as well as of the administration. This objective can be achieved by: (1) equipping municipal governments and administrations; (2) re-tooling and re-structuring the local authorities, enterprises and citizens' organisations to enable them to initiate and sustain a new style of operation. This includes the processes of decentralisation, devolution and the privatisation of the delivery and maintenance of urban infrastructure; and (3) the task of developing an enterprising and challenging work environment and career structure within local government that attracts and motivates the best professionals, technicians and managers and rewards their creativity and innovation. It is important to note that the Community-based organisations and local NGOs can become highly instrumental in the task of capacity building. It is not a one-off event that is undertaken and 'ticked off'. With the emergence of new situations and new problems several new dimensions appear which needs to be taken into account. It should be specifically mentioned that the training institutions play a dominant role in the matter of human resource development component of capacity building and they should be continuously engaged in this regard. It is so because the authorities of the municipal urban administration should continue to do so for being equipped to face the new and emerging challenges at every stage.

One most important area that needs a special mention in this regard is that in most of the cases, many of the training institutions follow the traditional methods and they are not in contact with the practices of the fast changing world. This greatly affects

the activities of the municipal and metropolitan development and management system. Therefore, it is an urgent necessity to focus on this area. There is an urgent need to review and re-define the role and practices of the training institutes and these institutes must be made capable of adapting to the changes that are taking place all around. They should be made capable in such a way so that they can adopt and adapt and become equipped to play a dynamic role with the changing situations of the urban management. It should always be kept in mind that such actions for redesigning the training system require fundamental changes not only in the approaches with regard to the training but also with the agencies of local governance and management. For proper implementation and to achieve success in this regard it would require a substantial support system which is equipped and competently able to build the capacity of the capacity builders. The new role must be much more proactive so that it can provide necessary assistance to the municipal organisations for initiating and implementing managerial structural changes which will properly enable them to operate in an effective manner within the new paradigm.

Another dimension that should be mentioned is that in the field of institutional development, intermediary capacity building organisations have a very important role to play to exert pressure on the government to initiate reforms as and when necessary. Further, they should assist in the process of formulation of national and local capacity building strategies and also chalk out the design of sustainable implementation programmes and procedures. The United Nations Organisation highlighted the need for both national and local governments to formulate coherent and sustainable capacity building strategies as part of a programme for institutional and organisational reform for the development and management of cities. The UN also called for the commitment of funds for capacity building by both national and local governments and for the endorsement of support to capacity building by both multi and bilateral aid agencies. The UN further recommended the establishment of an operational network linking local, national and international education and training institutions.

It was strongly highlighted that the function of the 'Network' should be to provide institutional and professional support to all the levels of capacity building. It would be done through the exchange of information and experience and generating pressure for necessary changes in the approaches and the content of capacity building programmes. It would mainly focus on the aspect of training and education.

The UN also stressed on the issue of E capacity building strategies, curricula and syllabi for imparting training and education to the urban management and planning personnel. Again, the other important areas that were highlighted include the training of the trainers, the design and management of responsive demand-based training programmes, the use of state-of-the-art training techniques and aids, and the implementation of new curricula. The preparation, production and dissemination of high quality generic E training materials in order to use the advantages of the ICT was also suggested.

**Conclusion**

All around there is a fundamental question as to why the local governments fail in providing proper capacity building. A thorough scrutiny over the entire affairs would perhaps lead to the deduction that it is due to the lack of a comprehensive strategic framework towards capacity development. Accordingly, it is the prime necessity to adopt several measures on priority basis to raise the executive capacity of the local governments if they are truly dedicated for the development of the urban areas of the country. It is therefore necessary so that the experience in capacity building in relation to accelerated and sustainable development at the local government level must be loaded in the body of the strategic framework. It would definitely enhance the sustainability of capacity development and would serve as a complement towards success potential. In order to realise the objectives of capacity building, the following measures can be taken up. (1) Outline the aspects of governance and accountability; (2) To build institutions which must be viable and credible; (3) The human skills must be linked to institutional development. In order to gain all these, it is necessary to give proper attention to: (1) Staff development at all the levels; (2) Arrangement of proper training in planning and management of local development must take place which would accelerate the process of enhancing human capacity. (3) It is also necessary to maintain continuous monitoring. This will show the areas where there is excess of staff and where there is a shortfall. This must be addressed in a proper way. 4) The recruitment process must be done in such a way so that it can procure properly qualified persons which would improve the quality of manpower. Finally, there must be: (5) Capacity of the persons so that they are in a position to derive the benefits of past experiences to chalk out the program for future in a proper and scientific way. If all these are undertaken with sincerity and dedication, only then proper capacity building would be possible.

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# Slums in India: Issues related to Land and Labour

**Mahalaya Chatterjee**

## 1. Introduction:

In India, slums are part of urban reality. It is officially acknowledged that slums are the manifestations of urban poverty. This statement is debatable as there may be other pockets of poverty in urban area which are less visible. But any discussion about urban economy is incomplete without a discussion about the economic situation in the slums.

Generally speaking, slums are the low-quality housing found in the urban areas. Historically, slums came up in the colonial era. The migrants came to the emerging urban areas (port cities, factory towns, plantations, etc.) in search of jobs. Sometimes, they came to serve the emerging middle class households as domestic workers. Some of the employers arranged for residential accommodation for their workers – but the supply of amenities and services were too little compared to the demand. Sometimes, local landlords raised hutments and gave them on rent.

Except for the domestic workers which had a substantial female component, generally the flow of migrants was male-dominated. So, the issue of sanctity in terms of provision of separate bathing chamber/latrine/kitchen was not so serious. The overall supply of such low-priced housing was too inadequate compared to the demand. So, the density of such settlements was generally higher than the average population density of the urban area. The mal-functioning of the urban housing market and stagnant income did not allow the settlers to move to better quality housing with the passage of time. The slums became permanent features of urban India. With second and third generation migrants, the female component in the slums increased. Then the basic necessities and provisions became more and more inadequate over time.

The UN Habitat defined a slum in terms of the characteristics it possesses. It defined a slum as a contiguous settlement where inhabitants do not

have adequate housing or basic services. The slum households are characterized as a group of individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of the following conditions: access to improved water, access to improved sanitation, sufficient-living area, durability of housing and security of tenure. This definition of UN Habitat does not give much idea about the type of house / roof / wall structure or environment. According to the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) of India, a compact settlement of at least 20 households is considered as a slum if it comprises poorly built tenements with inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities. For the purpose of survey, NSSO has defined the house structure, the availability of basic services, the garbage disposal facility and also the distance of the settlement from important facilities such as government primary school, government hospital / health centre, etc. The survey categorised the slums into notified and non-notified according to the recognition given by the local or state governments to those crowded settlements The Census of India has defined slums according to the Slum Area (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956, which says a slum is a residential area where dwellings are unfit for human habitation. The area was regarded unfit for human habitation because it is affected by "…….dilapidation, overcrowding, faulty arrangements and design of such buildings, narrowness or faulty arrangement of street, lack of ventilation, light, or sanitation facilities or any combination of these factors which are detrimental to the safety and health". For the first time in 2001, the slum area survey was conducted by the Directorate of Census, India. In 2011, the definition was revised and slums have been categorized into Notified, Recognized and Identified. Notified slums are the ones which are notified by the state or local governments, and or that may be considered under the Slum Area Act. Other than *notified slums*, there are some slums that are recognised by Housing and Slum Boards of the respective governments and are called 'recognized slums'. The definition for the 'identified slums' is given as an area with *„ÿ ÿ .. congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities‰*and that should house 300 people or 60-70 households living in the said condition.

The main obstacle to research on slums was the absence of reliable data. Most of the studies depended on primary surveys at the micro-level. Apart from personal initiatives, the development authorities in the late sixties or early seventies collected data on infrastructural situation of the slums in big cities for carrying out their legal mandate. There was no information on the human aspect in the official database. The impact assessment of different slum improvement projects

was also relied upon in primary surveys. Another genre of surveys concentrated on the health and well-being of the slum-dwellers. For the first time in 2001, the Census authority published separate population and housing data for slums but that was limited to million-plus cities. In 2011 Census only, we have data for most of the urban local bodies (ULBs) of the country spanning over 31 states. Some of the states reported 'no slum'. This is one of the motivations behind this article.

## 2. Slums as integral part of urban India

At one time, it was believed that slums are found in big cities. The malfunctioning of the land market, high price of land or non-availability of rental housing with affordable rent forced the urban poor to live in slums. Another belief was that slums are the habitation of the migrants – male dominated bastions. But official statistics show that slums are found in urban areas of all size classes and the gender ratio of the slums of a town is not much different from the urban area itself. Both of them point to the changing nature of slums in the country. The slums are no more temporary shelters of the illiterate, unskilled migrant from the villages. They have become permanent residences for the people working mostly in the tertiary informal economy of the urban area. The following table (Table 1) gives an idea about the existence of slums in urban landscape of the country.

**Table 1**
**Urban Areas Reporting Slum in Indian States, 2011**

| States | Total Towns | Towns With Slums | I | II | III | IV | V | VI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 122 | 40 | 2 | 4 | 9 | 12 | 11 | 2 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 59 | 22 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 12 |
| Punjab | 217 | 73 | 21 | 15 | 16 | 15 | 5 | 1 |
| Chandigarh | 6 | 1 | | | | | | |
| Uttarakhand | 116 | 31 | 6 | 3 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 1 |
| Haryana | 153 | 75 | 21 | 9 | 30 | 14 | 1 | |
| Nct Of Delhi | 145 | 22 | 8 | 5 | 5 | 4 | | |
| Rajasthan | 299 | 107 | 25 | 15 | 51 | 15 | 1 | |
| Uttar Pradesh | 910 | 293 | 50 | 37 | 114 | 71 | 21 | |
| Bihar | 197 | 88 | 24 | 21 | 39 | 4 | | |
| Sikkim | 9 | 7 | 1 | | | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 27 | 5 | | | 2 | 3 | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nagaland | 26 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Mizoram | 23 | 1 | 1 | | | | | |
| Tripura | 42 | 15 | 1 | 5 | | 8 | 1 | |
| Meghalaya | 22 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | | |
| Assam | 210 | 31 | 7 | 5 | 8 | 9 | 2 | |
| West Bengal | 913 | 122 | 58 | 31 | 26 | 6 | 1 | |
| Jharkhand | 228 | 31 | 9 | 8 | 12 | 2 | 0 | |
| Odisha | 223 | 76 | 10 | 16 | 30 | 18 | 2 | |
| Chhattisgarh | 190 | 94 | 10 | 5 | 28 | 28 | 21 | 2 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 477 | 303 | 33 | 28 | 87 | 118 | 37 | |
| Gujarat | 349 | 103 | 30 | 22 | 44 | 7 | | |
| Maharashtra | 535 | 189 | 43 | 44 | 91 | 10 | 1 | |
| Andhra Pradesh | 349 | 125 | 45 | 62 | 18 | | | |
| Karnataka | 357 | 206 | 26 | 37 | 98 | 37 | 7 | 1 |
| Goa | 70 | 3 | | 2 | 1 | | | |
| Kerala | 520 | 19 | 6 | 8 | 5 | | | |
| Tamil Nadu | 1097 | 507 | 32 | 79 | 153 | 159 | 78 | 6 |
| Puducherry | | 6 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | | |
| Andaman & Nicobar Islands | | 1 | 1 | | | | | |
| India | 7764 | 2613 | 474 | 466 | 886 | 554 | 203 | 29 |

*Source: Calculated from Census 2011, Slum PCA*

The table makes it clear that slums are present in urban scenario of India, irrespective of size. Though the prevalence is higher in bigger cities, it is there even in the smallest town size. So, it basically indicates the malfunctioning of the land and housing market and failure of the civic administration to provide basic amenities. This takes us to the question about the residents of the slums. As the next table (Table 2) shows, about 17% of the urban population of India lives in slums, the variance is high – from 1% in Kerala to 36% in Andhra Pradesh and it is difficult to ascertain the actual reasons behind the size of the slum population. The states with the original three metropolitan port cities were the first centres of industries also. So, Kolkata, Mumbai and Chennai had their share of slum population from the colonial period. But smaller states also have a sizeable proportion of their urban population living in the slums. A planned city like Chandigarh could not be kept free from slum dwellers.

The second perception about slum was that it was mainly inhabited by male migrant workers. But Table 2 shows that except for Chandigarh, the gender ratio is on the higher side for most of the states. In fact in Nagaland and three southern states, females outnumber men. So in the later

generations, slums are family houses contrary to our belief. This takes us to the important question about the females in the urban slums. The existing literature dwells on health and related issues about the women in the urban slums, mainly from the sociological discourses. There were case studies, and primary surveys of selected slums but, there was no country-wide perspective about the workers of the slums. Hardly, any academic discussion was happened about the economic performance/contribution of the workers in the urban slums in India. This is one of the motives behind this paper, remembering the fact that Census data is deficient in reporting occupational distribution. To supplement, we will use a survey data of Kolkata Municipal Corporation to look at the livelihood of the slum-dwellers in one of the oldest and largest metropolises of India.

**Table 2**
**Population Percentage, Gender Ratio and Literacy Rate**
**in Urban Slums, 2011**

| State | Slum Population as % of Urban Population | Gender Ratio | Literacy Rate | Female Literacy rate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 19.28 | 933 | 58.34 | 51.78 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 8.90 | 883 | 78.43 | 75.87 |
| Punjab | 14.04 | 881 | 65.23 | 60.93 |
| Chandigarh | 9.27 | 784 | 56.11 | 45.18 |
| Uttarakhand | 15.99 | 872 | 66.45 | 61.06 |
| Haryana | 18.80 | 872 | 65.56 | 58.65 |
| NCT of Delhi | 10.91 | 832 | 65.52 | 59.38 |
| Rajasthan | 12.13 | 917 | 59.43 | 50.23 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 14.02 | 892 | 59.44 | 53.37 |
| Bihar | 10.53 | 906 | 56.68 | 50.22 |
| Sikkim | 20.43 | 935 | 79.06 | 74.95 |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 4.90 | 938 | 59.47 | 52.94 |
| Nagaland | 14.42 | 930 | 76.85 | 74.69 |
| Mizoram | 13.74 | 1022 | 85.09 | 85.20 |
| Tripura | 14.54 | 993 | 81.13 | 78.83 |
| Meghalaya | 9.64 | 998 | 76.24 | 74.77 |
| Assam | 4.48 | 945 | 72.38 | 67.73 |
| West Bengal | 22.06 | 932 | 73.06 | 68.75 |
| Jharkhand | 4.70 | 934 | 64.69 | 58.11 |
| Odisha | 22.28 | 948 | 69.39 | 63.27 |
| Chhattisgarh | 31.98 | 965 | 69.61 | 62.66 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 28.35 | 924 | 66.77 | 60.21 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gujarat | 6.53 | 841 | 60.39 | 52.01 |
| Maharashtra | 23.32 | 872 | 74.36 | 69.22 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 36.10 | 996 | 66.82 | 61.32 |
| Karnataka | 13.93 | 994 | 66.02 | 60.75 |
| Goa | 2.89 | 898 | 72.26 | 66.36 |
| Kerala | 1.27 | 1074 | 83.74 | 82.26 |
| Tamil Nadu | 16.61 | 1008 | 73.36 | 68.34 |
| Puducherry | 16.95 | 1051 | 72.38 | 67.88 |
| Andaman & Nicobar Islands | 9.88 | 919 | 73.52 | 67.95 |
| India | 17.37 | 928 | 68.13 | 62.48 |

*Source: Calculated from Census 2011, Slum PCA*

Table 2 also shows that the average literacy rate is quite high in the slums in most of the states. It is highest in Mizoram and nowhere is it below 55%. Secondly, though there is evidence of gender gap in literacy rate, it follows the same pattern. The lowest female literacy rate is in Bihar, but there also 50% of the females are literate. Given this perspective of the human resource, we would like to look into the worker profile of the slums.

**3. Workers in slums**

As we have already stated one of the main objective of the paper is to look at the occupation/livelihood issue of the slum dwellers. The general perception is that slums are the place from where the supply of manual labour comes in the urban areas. This is especially true for the females. Every middle class/upper middle class household depends on the slums for the supply of their domestic helps. Here comes the deviation from reality. A look at Table 3 will show that the Work Participation Rate (WPR) in the slums is not at all high, rather it is almost at par with the state WPR. And the Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR) is as usual low, not different from the urban FWPR in the country. This is a revelation as our detailed econometric investigation has shown that the state FWPR and female literacy rate are the two most important determinants of FWPR in the slums all over the country. The states with higher FWPR has the same trend in the slums also as in case of north-eastern states and some southern states. But in northern India, especially the Hindi heartland, it is abysmally low.

Here let us concentrate on male employment. In India, 80% of employment is in the informal sector. It is difficult to get proper estimate of the slum-dwellers engaged in informal sector jobs. Instead we can have a look at the main-marginal division of workers, available from Census 2011. Let us have a look at Table 3. Here the Male Work Participation Rate (MWPR) for slum-dwellers is reported for both main and marginal even at the cost of repetition of information.

**Table 3**
**Male Work Participation Rate for Slum Dwellers, 2011**

| States | MWPR Main | MWPR Marginal |
|---|---|---|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 80.98 | 19.02 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 90.14 | 9.86 |
| Punjab | 90.80 | 9.20 |
| Chandigarh | 93.47 | 6.53 |
| Uttarakhand | 88.70 | 11.30 |
| Haryana | 87.38 | 12.62 |
| NCT of Delhi | 94.27 | 5.73 |
| Rajasthan | 89.60 | 10.40 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 81.17 | 18.83 |
| Bihar | 80.84 | 19.16 |
| Sikkim | 88.06 | 11.94 |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 89.52 | 10.48 |
| Nagaland | 89.05 | 10.95 |
| Mizoram | 86.56 | 13.44 |
| Tripura | 89.11 | 10.89 |
| Meghalaya | 92.01 | 7.99 |
| Assam | 89.55 | 10.45 |
| West Bengal | 90.06 | 9.94 |
| Jharkhand | 84.72 | 15.28 |
| Odisha | 88.70 | 11.30 |
| Chhattisgarh | 92.12 | 7.88 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 84.51 | 11.96 |
| Gujarat | 94.44 | 5.56 |
| Maharashtra | 93.36 | 6.64 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 88.21 | 11.79 |
| Karnataka | 88.73 | 11.27 |
| Goa | 89.03 | 10.97 |
| Kerala | 89.85 | 10.15 |
| Tamil Nadu | 90.58 | 9.42 |
| Puducherry | 92.47 | 7.53 |
| Andaman & Nicobar Islands | 93.14 | 6.86 |
| India | 89.42 | 10.58 |

*Source: Calculated from Census 2011, Slum PCA*

It is surprising to find that most of the male slum-dwellers in India (89.42%) are main workers. Only about 10% are marginal workers, i.e. they have worked between three to six months in last one year. And even in the slums of less developed states like Bihar and Madhya Pradesh, nowhere it exceeds 20%. So, it is not that slums are infested by workers with irregular employment and daily earnings. This is supported by the next two tables 4 and 5. These two tables give the breakup of occupations of the male slum dwellers. The difference in occupations between the main and marginal farmers becomes clear from these two tables. For the main workers, the major percentage of the workers are in other services, which includes the non-household industries, mining, trade, transport, services and allied primary activities. Baring the last one, the other four are typically urban and there is a strong mix of formal-informal employment. The aggregate of cultivators and agricultural labourers is quite low in all the states of the country. People in this category are migrants in the urban areas with strong rural roots. Disaggregation across city size would show that these two categories are more in smaller towns. Bihar and Madhya Pradesh are two backward states, where the percentage of agricultural labourers is quite high among main workers.

**Table 4**
**Main Workers in Slums**
**Occupational Categories**

| States | Cultivator | Agricultural labourers | Household workers | Others |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 4.25 | 3.09 | 4.49 | 88.16 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 2.31 | 1.38 | 2.68 | 93.63 |
| Punjab | 1.91 | 3.89 | 4.55 | 89.65 |
| Chandigarh | 0.35 | 0.25 | 1.50 | 97.90 |
| Uttarakhand | 1.54 | 3.12 | 3.98 | 91.35 |
| Haryana | 2.40 | 4.98 | 3.37 | 89.24 |
| NCT of Delhi | 0.15 | 0.56 | 3.25 | 96.03.. |
| Rajasthan | 2.74 | 3.05 | 3.70 | 90.50 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 3.84 | 6.73 | 7.37 | 82.07 |
| Bihar | 5.98 | 17.38 | 4.50 | 72.14 |
| Sikkim | 0.21 | 0.19 | 2.69 | 96.91 |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 4.11 | 1.2 | 1.75 | 92.91 |
| Nagaland | 5.54 | 1.30 | 1.63 | 91.53 |
| Mizoram | 7.04 | 3.61 | 1.97 | 87.38 |
| Tripura | 3.40 | 2.80 | 1.42 | 92.38 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Meghalaya | 2.39 | 0.67 | 1.03 | 95.92 |
| Assam | 0.88 | 0.83 | 2.23 | 96.05 |
| West Bengal | 1.17 | 1.77 | 4.45 | 92.60 |
| Jharkhand | 1.73 | 2.94 | 2.65 | 92.68 |
| Odisha | 2.39 | 2.77 | 3.69 | 91.15 |
| Chhattisgarh | 2.57 | 3.90 | 2.49 | 91.03 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 5.55 | 6.04 | 4.07 | 84.34 |
| Gujarat | 0.74 | 3.91 | 1.33 | 94.01 |
| Maharashtra | 0.67 | 2.60 | 2.63 | 94.11 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 1.75 | 6.75 | 3.89 | 87.62 |
| Karnataka | 2.98 | 5.54 | 3.39 | 88.08 |
| Goa | 0.75 | 0.75 | 1.00 | 97.51 |
| Kerala | 0.32 | 1.33 | 1.63 | 96.73 |
| Tamil Nadu | 2.02 | 8.88 | 2.25 | 86.85 |
| Puducherry | 0.98 | 8.45 | 0.92 | 89.64 |
| Andaman & Nicobar Islands | 0.58 | 0.20 | 0.43 | 98.79 |
| India | 2.12 | 4.80 | 3.63 | 89.45 |

*Source: Calculated from Census 2011, Slum PCA*

**Table 5**
**Marginal Workers in Slums: Occupational Categories**

| States | Cultivator | Agricultural labourers | Household workers | Others |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 19.04 | 15.32 | 9.12 | 56.52 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 39.99 | 7.84 | 2.07 | 50.10 |
| Punjab | 2.15 | 7.02 | 8.21 | 82.62 |
| Chandigarh | 0.95 | 3.13 | 4.12 | 91.80 |
| Uttarakhand | 1.89 | 7.48 | 6.90 | 83.72 |
| Haryana | 2.15 | 13.40 | 4.01 | 80.44 |
| NCT of Delhi | 0.85 | 1.51 | 3.83 | 93.80 |
| Rajasthan | 3.63 | 12.88 | 6.94 | 76.55 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 2.63 | 14.27 | 9.76 | 73.34 |
| Bihar | 3.30 | 36.20 | 8.34 | 52.17 |
| Sikkim | 1.05 | 7.27 | 5.42 | 86.26 |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 1.62 | 3.24 | 5.15 | 90.00 |
| Nagaland | 19.47 | 18.40 | 8.13 | 54.01 |
| Mizoram | 4.29 | 10.52 | 4.22 | 80.96 |
| Tripura | 1.89 | 7.75 | 7.70 | 82.65 |
| Meghalaya | 5.45 | 1.24 | 2.86 | 90.45 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Assam | 1.71 | 3.47 | 7.68 | 87.14 |
| West Bengal | 2.94 | 5.78 | 10.81 | 80.47 |
| Jharkhand | 3.08 | 16.80 | 5.26 | 74.87 |
| Odisha | 2.96 | 14.15 | 7.33 | 75.56 |
| Chhattisgarh | 6.38 | 26.26 | 3.66 | 63.70 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 3.88 | 21.37 | 6.96 | 67.79 |
| Gujarat | 1.37 | 10.83 | 5.47 | 82.33 |
| Maharashtra | 1.94 | 7.44 | 6.16 | 84.45 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 2.18 | 14.10 | 7.53 | 76.18 |
| Karnataka | 1.74 | 12.41 | 8.58 | 77.26 |
| Goa | 1.38 | 1.09 | 1.82 | 95.71 |
| Kerala | 0.91 | 3.87 | 2.08 | 93.14 |
| Tamil Nadu | 1.95 | 22.22 | 5.20 | 70.63 |
| Puducherry | 0.96 | 14.06 | 2.67 | 82.31 |
| Andaman & Nicobar Islands | 3.04 | 0.00 | 0.20 | 96.76 |
| India | **2.92** | **14.14** | **7.51** | **75.43** |

*Source: Calculated from Census 2011, Slum PCA*

The present reporting procedure of the Census of India does not give us the chance to have a more detailed break up of occupations. This creates problem especially with the formal-informal parts of the urban labour market. In the next table (Table 6), we have listed the twenty main occupations (in terms of numbers engaged) in Kolkata slums. Kolkata being one of the major metropolises of the country, this can be of a representative sample of the occupation of slum workers in Indian cities.

**Table 6**
**First Twenty Occupations of Workers of Kolkata Slums**
**Both Genders**

| Sl No. | Male/Occupation | Number | Female/Occupation | Number |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Service | 236206 | Service | 19312 |
| 2 | Temporary service | 18146 | Maidservant | 6798 |
| 3 | Small Shop | 14108 | Labour | 2592 |
| 4 | Small Business | 9870 | Servant | 580 |
| 5 | Business | 8689 | Temporary service | 481 |
| 6 | Tailor | 7558 | Tailor | 338 |
| 7 | Hawker | 7061 | Small business | 307 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | Shopowner | 4110 | Shopowner | 274 |
| 9 | Grocery | 3215 | Tutor | 272 |
| 10 | Maidservant | 3018 | Business | 236 |
| 11 | Tea shop | 2929 | Hawker | 147 |
| 12 | Printing | 2912 | Small Shop | 141 |
| 13 | Veg. Shop | 2253 | Veg. Shop | 116 |
| 14 | Pan (Betel)shop | 2237 | Tea shop | 97 |
| 15 | Fish business | 1822 | Pensioner | 94 |
| 16 | Hotel | 1477 | Pan shop | 64 |
| 17 | Tutor | 1409 | Fruit business | 43 |
| 18 | Fruit business | 1393 | Fish business | 26 |
| 19 | Pensioner | 1277 | STD booth | 22 |
| 20 | Driver | 1055 | Cook | 16 |

*Source: Calculated from Bustee Survey*
*Kolkata Municipal Corporation (unpublished)*

This table clearly shows that service in the formal sector emerges as the main occupation of the slum dwellers for both the genders, though there is extreme gender gap which is a reflection of low FWPR in India. The next important occupation for the male is 'temporary jobs' and for females, it is domestic work (maidservant). Both are followed by self-employment of different varieties like small business, shopkeeping, vending, tailoring, hawking, driving, and cooking. A bit more educated person goes for the job of private tutor. The number of pensioners is an indicator that formal sector employment is quite old for slum dwellers. This also shows that slums are not temporary residing place for migrant workers and secondly they are engaged in jobs which are essential for the sustenance of the urban lifestyle in India. And it is also the fact that they are not the 'poorest of the poor' of the urban area. Then the question is why do these people live in slums and not search for decent homes elsewhere.

## 4. Why slums?

In the previous section, we have shown that most of the workers in the slum are in the service sector and a majority of them belong to the main workers category. From the profile of the marginal workers we can find out the latest trend of working in India. The percentage of cultivators and agricultural labourers is quite high among marginal workers and that is a proof of the short term migration between urban and rural areas. They go back to rural areas during the agricultural season, specially harvesting and come back to towns for temporary jobs during the lean season.

But there is no evidence that these are family migration.

So, it can be conclusively said that slum-dwellers are permanent residents of urban areas and slums are not temporary residents by any means. In such a situation, one would like to explore the reasons behind the emergence and growth of slums especially in the post-independence years. And there is a distinct difference between the origin and growth of slums in the colonial and the post-independence period.

In the colonial period, there were two distinct reasons for the origin of such settlements in the newly-growing colonial urban centres. The first was done directly by the colonial rulers and their businessman-factory owner counterparts. They created different types of hierarchical residential structure for the migrant labourers coming to work in the factories - jute mills in around Kolkata or cotton-textile mills in Bombay. There were coolie lines for manual labourers and *babu* quarters for lower level clerical staff. The second set came from the initiative of Indian land owners of different forms. They started to build low cost residential structures for renting them again to the rural migrants but non-factory workers. They were mainly workers in the domestic sectors, serving the bulging English-educated middle class. They were joined by workers in the growing urban sectors like retail and wholesale trade, and transport. The common feature of the two sets was the lack of basic amenities like potable water, bathrooms and latrines and sometimes separate kitchen, not to talk about electricity also. These were called by different names in different cities but conclusively these were the original slums of Indian urban centres. They were densely populated human settlements with very little amenities. There was hardly any repair and maintenance and deterioration continued. Ultimately, all these residential structures got a generic name 'slum',

At the time of independence, only 17% of the country's population lived in urban areas. The rural part of the country was steeped in poverty, bound by feudal relations. Rural and agricultural development got priority in the national development process through the Five Year Plans initiated in 1951. Urban development was a part of the Ministry of Works and Housing. Deficiency of water supply and slums were thought to be the main problems of urban areas in the First Five Year Plan. With the industrialisation drive in the Second Five Year Plan (1956-61), the urban issues came into the forefront. Among other things, this Plan will be remembered for construction of new urban centres of different genre. There were steel towns, capital cities, towns around thermal power plants, towns

around multi-purpose river valley projects, and towns for refugee rehabilitation. Till then, there was no plan to look into the condition of the existing urban centres. Most of these planned townships were based on Western principles of planning, especially segregation of land use. The first set of migrants in these towns under construction were the construction workers along with other informal sector workers like those who provided cooked food to the workers. And they constructed their own living spaces. This is the origin of the new set of slums in the independent country. However, without looking at this reality, the then government passed The Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act in 1956. It was meant for Union Territories and the state governments were asked pass similar Acts. It gave immense power to the authority to clear the slums, acquire land and improve the buildings unfit for human habitation. So, the slums in the city core were demolished and the slum-dwellers were rehabilitated in two/three-storied buildings. Popular movies of late fifties and early sixties were reflections of such efforts. After some time, it was seen that some other people from a higher income group had taken possession of the residences and the original dwellers were back to unauthorized settlements grown along the roads, canals and railway lines. This approach was flawed on two grounds –

slums were understood to be residences only and not as places of livelihoods also. An anecdote went on that an old woman lived on selling milk from her goats and goats were tied to the trees around the slums and lived on the leaves of the trees. She was allotted a single room apartment in the second floor. She could neither keep her goats there nor could feed them and she left that apartment again for some *jhuggi-jhopri*. Secondly, when rehabilitation was given away from the city core, their level of income could not afford the transport cost to their working places and they came back to the city core. So, it happened that more and more slums were born. The Master Plan led approach to urban renewal and development could not eradicate slums.

The alternative approach was initiated by Calcutta Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA now KMDA) in early seventies. It was in-situ redevelopment of slums with construction of toilets, latrines and water taps along with paved roads and street lights. The success of the project led the central government to adopt a similar scheme in 1974 – Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums (EIUS). But again studies show that the policy-makers idea of slum development did not match with the perception of slum dwellers in most of the cases.

From the seventies of the last century, if we take the case of one of the most ambitious project of the UPA II, the Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY) in 2010, we will understand the basic flaw in India's approach to slum redevelopment / rehabilitation. RAY thought of creating slum-free cities by 2020. This scheme was about in-situ development of slums with government subsidy, the only condition being clear title of land. The NDA governments Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana was also on the same lines. None of them had a major impact on the slum scenario. Table 7 gives an idea about the number of urban areas reporting slums in Indian states and also identifies the towns with maximum and minimum percentage of people living in slums. It is clear that there are seven towns where all the people live in slums. And there are eight towns where more than 85% of the population lives in slums. This takes us to examine the issue of slums more deeply – it is rooted in the failure of both land and housing market and generally of urban planning.

**Table 7**
**Highest and Lowest Percentage of Population Living in Slums**
**Towns in States**

| States | Total Towns | Towns With Slums | Towns with Highest Percentage of Population in Slums (percentage within brackets) | Towns with Lowest Percentage of Population in Slums (percentage within brackets |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 122 | 40 | Hajan, Magam, Beerwah (100) | Jammu (1.15) |
| Himachal Pradesh | 59 | 22 | Naina Devi (89.45) | Shimla (1.95) |
| Punjab | 217 | 73 | Phillaur (69.27) | Patti (0.67) |
| Chandigarh | 6 | 1 | | |
| Uttarakhand | 116 | 31 | Landahura (86.29) | Bajpur (4.45) |
| Haryana | 153 | 75 | Ladwa (64.48) | Nernaul (1.47) |
| NCTof Delhi | 145 | 22 | Tigri (54.68) | K S Nagar (0.39) |
| Rajasthan | 299 | 107 | Pilibanga (74.53) | Nagaur (0.14) |
| Uttar Pradesh | 910 | 293 | Ugu, Safipur, Nyotni (100) | Kanpur CB (0.54) |
| Bihar | 197 | 88 | Ramnagar (70.77) | Munger (0.80) |
| Sikkim | 9 | 7 | Nayabazar NAA (100) | Mangan (4.17) |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 27 | 5 | Nansari (33.71) | Sippi (6.17) |
| Nagaland | 26 | 11 | Zunheboto (49.77) | Dimapur (8.36) |
| Mizoram | 23 | 1 | | |
| Tripura | 42 | 15 | Amarpur (47.96) | Agartala (11.75) |
| Meghalaya | 22 | 6 | Jowai (67.92) | Tura (5.00) |
| Assam | 210 | 31 | Bijni (43.21) | Tinsukia (0.64) |
| West Bengal | 913 | 122 | Titagarh (96.57) | Arambagh (0.63) |
| Jharkhand | 228 | 31 | Seraikella (41.69) | Phusro(1.13) |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Odisha | 223 | 76 | Hirakud (67.74) | Kendujhar (2.82) |
| Chhattisgarh | 190 | 94 | Ahiwara (85.91) | Bhatgaon (3.74) |
| Madhya Pradesh | 477 | 303 | Sirmour (97.98) | Gorum  (2.57) |
| Gujarat | 349 | 103 | Amod (33.33.) | Botad (0.29) |
| Maharashtra | 535 | 189 | Kamptee  (91.59) | Ramtek (0.78) |
| Andhra Pradesh | 349 | 125 | Rayadurg (97.67) | Vicarabad(14,42) |
| Karnataka | 357 | 206 | Yelandur (82.72) | Mangalore (1.55) |
| Goa | 70 | 3 | Murmagaon (25.03) | Margao (1.87) |
| Kerala | 520 | 19 | Thrissur (25.26) | Tiruvananthapuram(0.44) |
| Tamil Nadu | 1097 | 507 | Chengalpattu (97.73) | Valaparam (0.52) |
| Puducherry | | 6 | Puducherry  (76.57) | Mahe (9.7) |
| Andaman & Nicobar Islands | | 1 | | |
| India | 7764 | 2613 | | |

*Source: Calculated from Census 2011, PCA Slums*

In India, urban planning was never a priority in the post-independence period. But a number of development authorities were created in late fifties and early sixties of the last century. They were given charge of planning and development of urban areas, to start with metropolitan areas. These development authorities created Master Plans (may be Kolkata Metropolitan Development Authority was the only exception). These Master Plans were remnants of western models based on segregated land use. But no land was demarcated for low-cost housing meant for economically weaker section. If one looks at the population growth pattern of Chandigarh, the first planned city of independent India) and its peripheries, it could be seen that the growth of the rural areas surrounding the city, was much higher than the city itself.  The migrant workers did not have any access to the main city and they settled there. And this happened in every other urban area of the country.

The workers mostly engaged in informal sector and even workers engaged in lower strata of formal sector need to live near their places of work for two reasons. The first is to minimise transport cost, which is a part of their meagre income. And the second, mainly for the informal sector workers, to be near the place of work is absolutely essential is a highly competitive market. In the absence of any alternative, they have to live in slums near the city core, where such jobs are available. Traditionally, new urban slums grew in public land. But NSSO data shows that recent increase of slums is on private land. Table 8 is a snapshot of the ownership status of urban slum land in India. It can be clearly seen that new slums are coming up on private land and land of unknown ownership rather than on public land.

**Table 8**
**Slum Land by Ownership of Land (%)**

| Year | Private | Railway | Public Local Bodies | Others | Unknown |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2002 | 35.3 | 4.9 | 41.2 | 17.5 | 1.1 |
| 2009 | 39.3 | 4.4 | 40.9 | 11.7 | 3.7 |

*Source: NSSO Slum Survey, 2002, 2009*
*Table 3.9 from Mohanty (2019). p.65*

This is one of the reasons behind the failure of most of the slum rehabilitation programmes of the country. When KMDA started the in-situ slum improvement programmes in early seventies, entry was not allowed in the slums by private owners. Legal provisions had to be made to ensure entry of the development authorities within the slums. The existing Thika Tenancy Act was revised in 1980, not only for easing the entry for re-development but also for registering the existing residents, to protect them for eviction.

There are instances of slum developments being stalled for disputes over land ownership all over India. So, when the UPA II government proposed the Rajiv Awas Yojana, for renewal of slums in 2009, one of the necessary conditions of the project to be sanctioned was clear title on land. Legally, it was absolutely correct. But in reality, it backfired. Most of the private owners of land did not like the idea of renovated slums on their land. And they used this opportunity to evict the slum dwellers and transfer of land to real estate developers for construction of apartments. As a result, instead of slum dwellers getting improved living quarters, they went out in search of a new slum. The same fate was waiting for its later incarnation Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana under the NDA government (2014-19). This particular project had four components, of which ISSR (IN-situ Slum Renewal) benefitted the least number of people as slum dwellers were not owners of land. Data reveal in some states like Delhi and Assam, the figure is zero. Another problem with all such schemes are for recognized and notified slums, which houses only 36% of total slum population. Surely, the private land owners are motivated by the market guided land price, on which the government, neither the Central nor the state, have any control. So, automatically more than 60% of total slum-dwellers are out of any government project/scheme.

Till now, the author has discussed the failure of most of the slum eviction

or redevelopment schemes. If the first failed because of lack of understanding of the needs of the slum-dwellers, the second failed because of failure of urban planning and no control over the dynamics of land market. Thus even in 2019, dream for zero slum city remains distant.

But the analysis shows that slums are integral part of the urban areas of India, in terms of the participation of the slum dwellers in the urban labor market. So, what can be the way out in terms of a workable positive solution? Rather than evicting the poor and sending them out of the city boundary, experts are now thinking of inclusive zoning. Public land need to be identified in each urban area and that is to be used for economically affordable and comfortable to live housing for the economically weaker section (EWS).

## 5. Conclusion

Slums are generally thought to be low quality housing for the poor. They were thought to be transitory homes for migrant labourers. So, with increase in income, they can shift to better homes with more amenities like water, drainage and sanitation. Over the years, it has been seen that there has hardly been any such shift. These are permanent homes for decades, if not across generation. Most of the slum clearance attempts by the government, be it central or state, has failed because of not understanding the socio-economic reality of the slums. Now, most of the slums are occupied by people working in the tertiary sector (both formal and informal sector). With average income in the lower side, they want to live near their place of work to minimize daily transport cost, in the process sacrificing better lifestyle with more provision of amenities. Most of the slums are on private lands, so recent attempts of in-situ redevelopment also failed because of unwillingness of those landowners. We conclude that slums are basically results of failure of urban planning as Master Plans failed to demarcate land for the economically weaker section of the population. This takes us to the issue of inclusive urban development – we have to admit that these people are integral part of urban scenario of India and they are economically active helping to ensure the prosperity of the city. And there lies their claim to better quality of living.

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# Urban Policing in India: Issues and Predicaments

**S. K. Kataria**

*Abstract*

*India is one of the fastest growing economies of the world and it is directly linked with rapid urbanization and urbanization is posing numerous threats and challenges to the police system of the country. The present paper is an effort to analyze these issues especially the VIP culture, cyber-crimes and COVID-19. Police Commissionerate system and the recommendations of 2nd ARC which may help in better and effective urban policing.*

*Key Words -* *Urban policing, Cyber-crimes, VIP culture, COVID-19, Police Commissionerate System and Second ARC.*

*„Laws without enforced consequences are merely suggestions‰*
                    *-Ron Brackin*

The police in modern administrative states and civilized societies are an indispensible tool to enforce the public policies, laws, rules, regulations and orders from all three organs of the government i.e. –legislature, executive and judiciary to ensure maintenance of law and order as well as the feeling of security among the citizens. Similarly, the efficiency and efficacy of the judiciary relies highly upon police machinery. However, the effectiveness of the police is mainly dependent on cooperation and involvement of local community in various roles. Urban policing is becoming more tedious and a herculean task in modern globalized world especially in developing societies including the Indian one. It is estimated that by 2050 about 60% population of India will reside in the cities.

The urban societies are economically and culturally more heterogeneous groups of service and business -class people on one hand, on the other hand the slum inhabitations of urban areas have very typical and severe socio-economic and politico-administrative problems of poor labourer class etc. Such mixed group

communities present challenges for modern policing.

Urban policing in India faces mainly the following challenges-

1. Over population, crowd and congestion in most of the market places and old city areas and slums as well.

2. Industrialization and its bye –products like pollution, crimes, economic disparity mushroom growth of slums and industrial hazards and disasters.

3. Fast increasing number of all types of vehicles and traffic congestion.

4. Crime including white collar crime.

5. Cyber crimes and I.T. related other issues and social media misuse.

6. Increased risk of terrorist attacks, soft targeting and vulnerability of urban areas.

7. Political and religious rallies, strikes, cultural processions, election gatherings and mob related issues.

8. Extra security efforts at places like- air port, dock yard, railway stations, bus stand, circuit houses, daak bungalows, hotels, financial institutions, government offices, universities, research institutes, industries, trading sites (mandis), malls, shopping complexes, multiplexes, markets, parks, medical and health institutions, tourist places, religious places, historical and heritage units etc.

9. 24x7 patrolling and vigilance as well as intelligence activities.

10. Security issues of jails and movement of under custody persons.

11. Natural and man-made disasters and crisis management issues.

12. Beggary, vagrancy, prostitution, rain- baseras (night shelters), child labour, human trafficking, old age issues and other human rights violation matters.

13. V.I.P. movements and security of designated persons, state-guests and various delegates.

14. International, national and other mega events as well as sports activities and its management.

15. Control over city-specific crimes e.g.-smuggling, horse -trading, gang wars, underworld, kidnapping, chain-snatching, eve teasing, land mafias, property and cheque-bounce type cases.

16. Quick dissemination of information and fast proactive response of media and civil society on various issues.

17. Easy outbreak of communal riots and very sensitive communities.

18. Big election rallies and election results, religious and political events, government campaigns etc.

**Cyber- crimes in the Cities**

Although cyber-crimes are increasing very rapidly in every corner across the globe, some cities of India are receiving more complaints of such crimes. Punjab Chief Minister Capt. Amarinder Singh's wife was reported to have fallen prey to a cyber fraud losing a large sum to a scamster who duped her through a mobile phone, posing as a bank manager in August, 2019. The scamster apparently managed to get the MP's account number, ATM pin, CVC number and OTP sent on her mobile number. However, a team of Punjab Police arrested the fraudster after tracing his mobile number in Ranchi. Same type of incidences has been reported with many highly placed and well aware persons like IPS, IAS officers, Professors, Judges, Engineers, Doctors, Chartered Accountants, Sports Persons, Businessmen, Contractors, Artists, Advocates and even Bank managers. The mega and metro cities like Mumbai, Bengaluru, Hyderabad, Kolkata, Delhi and Chennai have been more prone to cyber-crimes. Bengaluru was the first city which established a separate police station for cyber-crimes in 2001 and unfortunately this city has become cyber-crime city of the country. Cyber-crime remains a problem for citizens and the police. In keeping with a nearly decade-long trend, Bengaluru once again recorded the maximum number of cyber-crime cases 10,668 in 2019 among all the metros in India. While the crime rate was 470.4 per lakh of population in 2018, it went up to 492.5 for 2019.

The statistical data on cyber-crimes in India has been published by NCRB only from 2002 onwards. In 2002, total 809 cyber -crimes were reported, in which 70 cases were related with the Information Technology Act, 2000 and 739 cases were related to the various sections of IPC. Most of IT Act cases were related to the hacking, pornography and fraud and tampering of digital signatures etc. In 2009, a total 696 cases were reported on cyber issues in which 420 cases were of IT Act and 276 related to the IPC. As per the information reported to and tracked by the Indian Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT-In), a total number of 44,679, 49,455, 50,362 and 53,081 cyber security incidents were observed during the years 2014, 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively, IT Minister Mr. Ravi Shankar Prasad said in a written reply to the Rajya Sabha in February, 2018. These cyber security incidents included phishing, scanning/probing, website intrusions and defacements,

virus/malicious code, ransomware and denial of service attacks, etc. Approximately one cyber crime takes place every 10 minutes in India.

Deccan Chronicle reports "In a major revelation, **Jamtara** in Jharkhand has been identified as a new hub for cyber-crime. More than fifty per cent of cyber-crimes in India are traced back to this sleepy town of Jharkhand. This revelation was made by Union Home Secretary Rajiv Gauba who himself is a 1982 batch IAS officer from Jharkhand. Jamtara is a sleepy town in the tribal region of Santhal Pargana. It still continues to be an obscure town. But has gained notoriety as cyber-crime hub," Gauba said while addressing a FICCI conference on internal security. According to him, more than half of India's crimes committed by fraudsters posing as bank managers were traced back to this town. Expressing concern over the new age crime, Gauba admitted that the government is still not ready to tackle the increasing rate of cyber -crimes. He said "Cyberattack is one of the important security challenges that the country is facing today or the world is facing. The cyberattacks can pose wide-ranging threats to power grids, they can impact and cripple financial institutions, that can result in leakage of sensitive information and so on," Gauba also conceded that the government has to enhance its capabilities "Generally we do good in assessment but the same cannot be said

for readiness. Because readiness entails investment and expertise. We need sound legal assessment and state of the art technical capabilities. That is where the private sector and government agencies have to work together," The home secretary said one has to have speed, agility for countering the threat of cyber attacks. The phenomenon of increase in cyber espionage by corporates, by hostile governments to steal trade secrets and information to gain economic advantage or military advantage was highlighted by the home secretary.

The country has a separate law (IT Act, 2000) on handling the cyber-crimes, however the problem is that any law of the land has a specific area of its applicability. If a criminal sitting in another country commits online fraud on an Indian person's account then how can our local police take direct action? Ultimately these issues will be addressed by collective international efforts only.

**VIP Culture and its Complicacies**
This very peculiar Indian system has been raising many questions since independence. This culture is mainly noticed in urban areas due to government offices, formal programmes, residence and movements of top officials. It is typically characterized by accompaniment of special security guards provided to a designated person, motorcades, sirens

and road blocks, queues, VIP lounges at Airports and other places like circuit houses, and so on.

In India, on average 3.25 policemen are deputed to each VIP. While the number of VIPs has decreased from 20,828 in 2016 to 19,467 in 2019, the number of police personnel deployed to these VIPs has increased 16 percent. There are different categories namely X, Y, Z, and Z+ and accordingly the security measures are determined.

## COVID-19 Pandemic: A Unique Experience

Corona or COVID-19 impacted urban societies more seriously across the globe and village population was less affected. There may be numerous causes for this, however the notion of more aware, scientific, resourceful and health-conscious urban people has been washed out by Corona completely in India and other developing countries too. COVID-19 or Novel Corona Virus Disease also known as SARS Cov-2 is the most severe pandemic of recent decades which has affected almost all the countries (220 countries till Jan.10, 2021, with 9 crore patients and 19.37 lac deaths) sparing some very small and isolated territories. Started from Wuhan City of China in December, 2019 the disease spread across the globe in the next six months. India witnessed its first case of Corona on January 30, 2020 through a medical student who came

from Wuhan to Thrissur, Kerala and on the same day the WHO declared it Global Health Emergency. The first death occurred on January 11, 2020 in China, and in India the first Corona casualty was reported in March 10 in Karnataka, when a 76 year old man returned from Saudi Arabia, comorbid with diabetes, asthma and hypertension.

The COVID-19 virus spreads primarily through droplets of saliva or discharge from the nose when an infected person coughs or sneezes. So, face mask, social distancing *(2 gæz ki doori)* and sanitizing the hands became the worldwide practice during this pandemic. All the countries had initiated strict measures including imposing national emergency, lock down, closing of schools, hotels, markets and religious places with sealing of international and domestic movements, mass tracking, tracing and testing of suspected contact persons and following of protocols of isolation and quarantine, etc. The Government of India initiated '*janata curfew*' on March 22, 2020 and two days later first lock down was imposed and it was extended in many phases with certain guidelines; process of unlocking was started from June 08, 2020.

The lock down resulted in severe anxiety among all segments of society; especially in labour class, mass migration took place from big cities to the rural and remote areas amid non

availability of transport facilities, therefore the GDP dipped sharply due to closure of manufacturing units and non-consumption of goods. Economies of all the countries faced a historic jolt and disrupted from their pace on one hand, and on the other hand the life style of modern societies was forced to adopt a new social order of distancing. Rapidly increasing number of infected persons from Corona was a serious concern and challenge for every State especially for their economy, health machinery as well as law and order enforcing agencies. The security personnel or police across the country faced most serious challenges of this pandemic due to many reasons including sudden announcement of lockdown, ban on public transport facilities, prohibition on various services delivery mechanism and supply chain logistics, imposition of curfew, emergency and lockdown pass, management of food supply to labourers, road and street dwellers and quarantine places, tracing and tracking of infected persons, barricading and checking of vehicles, stranded migrants, industry workers, unmasked people, management of mass gathering at railway stations and bus stands, health centres, quarantine and isolation centers, etc. It is estimated by the World Economic Forum that there are about 14 crore migrants in India and as per the information furnished by the Union Labour and Employment Minister Shri Santosh Gangwar in the Parliament (14

Sept. 2020) 1 crore migrants had attempted to return home during lockdown. One can easily calculate that every migrant had to face at least two check points during this migration and it has been an additional workload for entire police machinery with numerous sentimental issues. Undoubtedly, the medical and police staff has been among the 'Corona - Warriors' who saved the nation by their exemplary and committed duty.

Nowhere in the country the police departments were able to provide sufficient surgical masks, quality sanitizer and proper training to face such pandemic, to police personnel. As per the data displayed by the Indian Police Foundation there are 30,35,632 police personnel in all the civil police departments of State governments and para military forces of Central government. Out of these 1,92, 656 policemen got COVID-19 positive report and 1107 had died due to this pandemic (as on January first week, 2021). It is very sad to analyze that about 6.34 % policemen of the country got infected due to this disease which is ten times more to the ratio of entire population, which was. 74 % in January, 2021. In the first week of January, 2021, there have been about 1 crore total infected COVID patients (and 1,49,218 deaths) in the country out of 135 crore population. The most affected police departments were Maharashtra Police (28500), CRPF

(15010), BSF (14511), Andhra Pradesh Police (13262), Uttar Pradesh Police (12202) and CISF (11099). The mortality rate in police has been. 57% which is three times less than country's rate (1.5%) perhaps due to age factor, daily physical exercise practices and mostly healthy body of these security personnel.

**Some Basic Data on Indian Police Administration (as on 01-01-2019)**

| S.N. | Indicator | Number |
|------|-----------|--------|
| 1. | Area of the country | 31,66,414 sq. km. |
| 2. | Projected population | 1, 32,41,20,000 |
| 3. | Sanctioned Civil Police force | 16,51, 379 |
| 4. | Sanctioned strength of State Armed Police force | 6,26,631 |
| 5. | Total State Police force | 25,65,435 |
| 6. | Population per policeman | 503.40 |
| 7. | Police ratio per lakh population | 198.65 |
| 8. | Police ratio per 100 sq km area | 78.95 |
| 9. | Number of Police Zones | 104 |
| 10. | Number of Police Ranges | 181 |
| 11. | Number of Police Districts | 777 |
| 12. | Number of Police Sub divisions | 2,312 |
| 13. | Number of Police Circles | 3021 |
| 14. | Total number of Police Stations | 16,671 |
| | - Urban police stations | 4,819 |
| | - Rural police stations | 10,021 |
| | - Railway/Traffi8c/Specialized police stations | 1,831 |
| 15. | Total Police Out –posts *(chowki)* | 8,592 |
| 16. | State Armed Police Battalions | 417 |
| 17. | Number of Cyber cells | 137 |
| 18. | Number of Social media monitoring cells | 39 |
| 19. | Number of Women Police stations | 613 |
| 20. | Cities with Police Commissionerate system | 65 (02 added in Jan.,2020 in U.P.) |

As per the facts published by BPRD and available in 'Data on Police Organizations' (as on Jan.01, 2019) there are only 1.30 lac computers, 11591 laptops, 1548 servers, 4.27 lac CCTV cameras, 2 lac vehicles, 1776 speedometers, 17607 breath analyzers, 1470 sniffers, 790 tracker dogs, and 7 lac family quarters available to the police of Indian States. All the data prove that still there is a severe paucity of general infrastructure and technical resources of the police. The situation is so grim that even today 200 police stations in the country are not equipped with wireless facilities and 85 do not have even a single vehicle.

**Sound Police Commissionerate System: A Way out?**

Under the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution of India, the 'Police' as an entry or subject is under the State list, meaning individual State typically legislates and exercises control over this subject. In the arrangement in force at the district level, a 'dual system' of control exists, in which the Superintendent of Police (SP) has to work with the District Magistrate (DM) for supervising police administration. At the metropolitan level, many states have replaced the dual system with the Commissionerate system, as it is supposed to allow for faster decision-making to solve complex urban-centric issues. In the Commissionerate system, the Commissioner of Police (CP) as the head of a unified police command structure, is responsible for the force in the city, and is accountable to the state government. The office also has magisterial powers, including those related to regulation, control, and licensing. This system was initially started by Britishers in three presidencies i.e., Bombay, Calcutta and Madras and after independence it was adopted by many States especially metropolitan or industrial cities.

In 2010, there were 35 cities in India having Police Commissionerate system. The figure has reached to 65 in 2020. The fast-increasing number is an evidence of its efficacy and reliability in modern complex Indian urban structure.

**States and Cities with Police Commissionerate System ( As in Dec.2020)**

| S.N. | State | Cities |
|------|-------|--------|
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 1.Vijaywada City 2.Vishakhapattnam City |
| 2. | Assam | 1.Guwahati |
| 3. | Gujarat | 1. Ahemdabad City 2. Rajkot City 3.Surat City 4.Vadodara City |

| 4. | Haryana | 1. Faridabad 2. Gurugram 3. Panchkula |
|---|---|---|
| 5. | Karnataka | 1.Bengluru City 2.Hubli- Dharwad City 3.Mangalore City<br>4. Mysore City 5. Belagavi City 6. Hubbali-Dharwad |
| 6. | Kerala | 1.Thiruvananthpuram City 2.Kozikode City 3.Kochi City<br>4. Kollam City 5.Thrissur City |
| 7. | Maharashtra | 1.Amravati 2. Nagpur 3. Pune 4. Thane 5. Aurangabad 6. Nasik<br>7. Navi Mumbai 8. Mumbai 9. Solapur 10. Pimpri-Chinchwad |
| 8. | Nagaland | 1.Dimapur |
| 9. | Odisha | 1.Bhubneshwar- Cuttack (Twin city) |
| 10. | Punjab | 1. Amritsar 2. Jalandhar 3. Ludhiana |
| 11. | Rajasthan | 1.Jaipur   2. Jodhpur |
| 12. | Tamil Nadu | 1.Chennai City 2. Coimbatore City 3. Madurai City 4.Salem City<br>5.Tiruneveli City 6. Tiruppur City 7. Trichy City |
| 13. | Telangana | 1. Cyberabad 2. Hyderabad 3.Karimanagar 4.Khammam 5.Ramgundam<br>6.Rachakonda 7.Nizamambad 8. Siddipet 9.Warangal |
| 14. | West Bengal | 1.Asansol –Durgapur City 2.Bidhannagar City 3.Howrah City<br>4.Kolkata 5.Barrackpore City 6.Siliguri City 6. Chandan nagar |
| 15. | Uttar Pradesh | 1.Lucknow 2. Noida |
| 16. | Delhi | 1.Delhi |

## Conclusion

The rate of urbanization in India is very high and obviously the future of law-and-order machinery and police personnel is going to be tougher and challenging. 'Community policing' may be an ideal tool to handle most of routine urban police issues but again it requires committed citizens who can spare time and take pain willingly. Robert Peel says- "The police are the public and the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence".

The Fifth Report (Public Order) submitted by the Second Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) also  gives many concrete recommendations on the issue and some of that include – abolition of constabulary system and starting recruitment of graduate constables as ASI directly, creation of 'Municipal Police Service' in the cities having more than 10 lac population, recruitment of 33 % women in every level of police machinery, creation of a new category as 'Federal Crimes' for inter-state and national level crimes, establishment of 'local courts' on every 25,000 population, adoption of zero

tolerance policy in criminal administration, provision of separate and fixed budget for police training, rationally fixing of duty hours of police personnel, interference in justice be treated as a crime, handing over traffic system to local bodies in big cities, full authority to police in case of riot management and collection of compensation amount of property damage from the organizers of events or processions etc. Time has come to act upon these recommendations to make urban policing more effective and contemporary.

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The journal is dedicated to governance and developmental issues. Therefore, submissions could be related to governance and development related subjects – urban, rural or tribal, i.e., issues confronting cities, villages, peri-urban areas, issues related to urban and rural local bodies, issues related to education, public health, livelihood, urban and/or rural poverty, gender equality, etc. We however do not wish to limit the scope of authors' contributions to these areas. These are only indicative.

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The publication aims to contribute to the development effort in these and related areas by taking a positive approach so that achievement of favourable outcomes is made possible. The aim is to enable positive impacts in all sections of society including the poor, vulnerable and disadvantaged. The publication aims to add value to the efforts of all stakeholders particularly those working in these and related fields from all sectors - government, non-government organisations, academia, research and industry.

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Local Government Quarterly is being published by All India Institute of Local Self-Government by incorporating research papers and articles contributed by diverse stakeholders including academicians, urban planners, practitioners and others with, among others, the following objectives:

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# Local Government and Good Governance:
# The Nigerian Experience in Perspective

**Gabriel Favour Eke, Oghator Ekhosuehi**

*Abstract*

*This study focuses on local government and good governance in Nigeria, emphasizing that what determines good governance is dependent on the rate at which the Local Government system is developed. The paper examines what has led to the present deterioration of the local government area in Nigeria. It states that in place of good governance what we experience is poverty, ignorance, unemployment and hunger; these have made the present local government system in Nigeria an aberration that has negated development. The paper employs the efficiency development theoretical framework of analysis to explain and determine the relevance of local government in Nigeria. The paper is of the opinion that local government in Nigeria which ought to be the government closer to the people has been neglected and abandoned, hence the present sordid state of affairs. The*

*objective of the paper is to gain insight into the factors at the local government level in Nigeria required for Good Governance. The paper concludes by stating that good governance will involve a strategy of reorientation of values that will bring about reduction in poverty, hunger and Unemployment. It is recommended that there be a conscious reorganization and adaptation of social and political institutions of the state to suit the needs of the rural population and provide the enabling environment for the creation of wealth.*

*Keywords: Local government, meagre resources, rural development, abandonment, poverty, corruption and good governance.*

## Introduction

Local government in Nigeria has become a kind of caricature in the sense that the actual operation and definition have become very elusive. The actual

location and operation have not been properly defined. This is the reason why both the federal and the state governments are using them to play a game of rhetoric. Today, it is under the state, tomorrow it is under the federal and next day they are independent. The actual location is yet to be defined. Local government is supposed to be one of man's oldest institutions, but now they are still to find their location.

Despite the entire provisions guarding the existence and independence of the local government, it is still being tossed up and down by various governments of the day in Nigeria. It is still a serious debate among Nigerian constitutional lawyers about the position and state of Nigeria local government system. Some are of the view that it should not be allowed to be independent leading to instances of democratically elected local governments sometimes being misused. This has taken place in many states in Nigeria, not minding that they were democratically elected by the people, people now are beginning to question the essence of democracy and the real meaning of Nigerian democracy and the real state of our independence of local government. To those who are in support of this, to them, there is no need talking about local government as an independent body and the government closest to the people while persons like (Adeyemo 2005) sees local government as a

system of local administration under local communities that are organized to maintain law and provide some limited range of social amenities. To him local government is a political and administrative system of government that is empowered by law to administer a specified locality where citizens can participate in governance as an underlying important aspect of democracy.

**The History of Local Government in Nigeria**

The earliest form of local government existed in the form of clans and village meetings, this is how local government itself originated and developed (Wikipedia 2012).

The local government system under the colonial masters was based on native authority ordinance of 1914. Under the ordinance the whole region was based on the British model. The ordinance had the native authority system; the native authority treasury, the native authority court. The native authority law was re-enacted to further modernize the native authorities system (Mogobe, 2003).

It was the period 1976-1979 military era that serious efforts were made to articulate the position and real nature of the local government administration in Nigeria (Awotokun 2005), local government was not only

accorded its special place in the socio economic affairs, it was believed to be a government closer to the people. Therefore, a uniform system and a single tier structure were used for the whole of the country.

In a system where the local government chairman can be removed at will and be replaced with caretaker committees who are responsible to the governor, that means that the local government has a long way to go in Nigeria. In fact it is still a serious debate in most houses of Assembly in Nigeria whether local government should be independent and autonomous or not, despite the position and the declaration in the Nigerian constitution.

While it is believed that the issue of decision making and consultations are tenets of good governance but the idea of freedom or independence of the local government system became very relative. Although it is agreed by some that good governance at the local government area is quite important since it makes room for social and economic progress, the idea of independent autonomy becomes very secondary (Oburota 2003).

**The Importance of Good Governance**

To Madhav (2007) good governance has much to do with the ethical ground of governance and must be evaluated with reference to specific norms and objectives as may be laid down (Mogobe 2003), sees good governance from the political and ethnic point of view that intend to challenge and replace the reality of bad government. Therefore, according to him good governance is the manner in which power is exercised by those in government in the management and distribution of the country's social and economic resources. The nature and manner of this distribution makes governance a bad or good one.

Any government that decides to promote equality in resources sharing, freedom of expression, and availability of good services to the common man would be regarded as good governance. A situation where the distribution of goods and services, and jobs made available to the people to reduce unemployment and reduce ethnic agitation, encourage physical federalism would be said to be pursuing good governance. However, most of these are lacking in the Nigerian local government areas.

In summary, good governance relates to equitable provision of resources, goods and services, social amenities including the creation of jobs and proper funding of education and health centers (Madhav (2007).

**Statement of the Problem**

Local government was supposed to be the best organized mechanism for generating motivation, encouraging

and mobilizing for self help efforts in the local communities. It is better described as the best government closer to the people with grassroots mobilization to reduce the rate of poverty and underdevelopment and equally reduce the rate of migration to the urban centers. These have not been achieved in the Nigerian local government system. The issue of good governance has become history and seems unachievable. Good governance supposes to bring about improved infrastructure, growth and development. It is supposed to spur spirit of commitment, motivation, transformation and development of social structures and spirit of sustainable growth that will guarantee effective local participation in grass root construction and development.

This failure in the area of service delivery and mobilization of the local people in the area of skill acquisition, construction of good roads, development of farm settlement and quality of education and lack of loan scheme to small farmers, has brought a massive agitation and demands for a change in the local government system in Nigeria. The present situation in the local government is nothing to write home about; it could be very little compared to the period of the colonial times. Despite all the social and economic policies that have been made and pronounced by the past governments of Nigeria or leaders,

nothing has actually changed in the Nigerian local government area. You still notice the same rate of abject poverty, massive youth unemployment, unprecedented high crime rate, poor health centers with the syndromes of out of stock medical supplies. The reason for all these is lack of good governance. The indices of good governance according to Ogundiya (2010) are public participation in decision making in matters that affect the people. The local government operation in Nigeria is very slow with weak economy. They lack access to good roads, information or communication system. The facilities to increase local participation and mobilization are very poor and in fact severely lacking. Most of the reforms carried out in the local government area to bring about and to improve the situations in the areas have not been able to yield any positive results because of party politics and the nature of Nigerian democracy. A democracy that does not encourage freedom of expression and choice; this is the reason at elections the people are not interested or are not willing to participate because of lack of proper mobilization and undue influence by the politicians who have resorted to vote buying as a strategy to win elections. These are the same people that have made it impossible and ineffective for development to get to the local areas. The people are poor,

oppressed and not enlightened, they are economically poor, down and frustrated, and they have no power to resist oppression. This is because in the local government areas people are poor and have no reliable means of livelihood, they have no choice but to take what they see.

In some local government areas, in this 21st century, piped water is not available, in areas where it is available, it is a luxury as it attracts large gathering of people for water and the water is polluted. This is the reason we notice constant outbreak of diseases and serious ill health in the rural areas. Therefore, the major thrust, of this paper is to underscore the fact that local government in Nigeria is far from experiencing good governance. That is to say that as far as good governance is concerned, local governments in Nigeria are far from it.

The paper is structured into the following subheadings, introduction, and the history of local government system in Nigeria, the importance of good governance, conceptual clarification, theoretical framework of analysis, conclusion, and way forward.

**Conceptual Clarification**

Good governance according to Ogundayo (2010) is government that fulfils the aspiration of the people in terms of economic objectives and accomplishes the political, economic and current expectations of the governed; according to him, good governance is the one that depends on the effective use of public communication, Iyoha (2003), agreeing with him stated that good governance relates with and deals with those working with local associations, town union, nongovernmental organizations and community based organizations which makes public communication very imperative. According to Iyoha (2003), good governance deals with opportunity for mutual understanding, community relations, and conflict management.

While Oburota (2003) believes that some of the principles of good governance include justice, equity, freedom, liberty, accountability, openness and transparency in government, according to him, good governance stands where there is public participation, accountability and transparency. This is the principle that is used in most countries to judge whether a government is good. This is based on the legitimacy of government, whether the government acquires power and authority through free and fair elections and how they exercise power whether it is based on moral and ethical justification towards democratic means.

Good governance cannot exist in the presence of high level of poverty,

acute youth unemployment, corruption, underdevelopment, ethno-religions conflicts, and general economic and political decay at all the levels of government. This is the reason why Adeyemo, (2005) in Izueke (2010) sees accountability as the hall mark of good governance. It brings in or leads to transparency as one of the principles of good governance since it insures openness and adheres to due process which is lacking in this government of Nigeria.

Where there is good governance, everybody or greater percentage of the citizens will be happy with the government. There will be freedom of expression, equitable distribution of goods and services. The government of the day will ensure high level provision of economic and social securities. Youth unemployment will reduce drastically. Health services will be provided for the poor and economic lives of the people will improve. There will be free and fair elections to a very greater instance. But in Nigeria these are lacking.

Izueke (2010) sees good governance as the existence of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It includes mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interest and exercise their rights, meet their obligations. According to him good governance is the process of

executing coherent governing plan for the interest of the people in other words good governance is the process employed to achieve the noble causes as well as aspirations of the state.

**The Nigerian experience**

A cursory look at the prevailing situation in the local government areas according to Vaicinieneu (2012) will show an unprecedented confusion. The local government which is expected to be in the best position to understand the needs of the grass root population as well as to render resolution of their priorities has been neglected. In Nigeria, research has shown that local governments have not been put in the correct position to promote development, partly because of officials and lack of effective management of resources.

Despite all the reforms carried out to change the situation at the local government area the situation still remains the same. Ikelegbe (2004) outlined some of the problems facing the local governments in Nigeria to include

(1) Lack of development projects and improved service delivery because of excessive politicking.

(2) The issue of financial recklessness and irresponsibility, indicated in frivolous and unnecessary expenditures including inflated contracts.

(3) Most of the local government chairmen have been accused of corruption, financial miss-management, theft and fraud.

(4) Some have been known to perform very poorly, though some of them complain of non co-operation and non chalant attitude of the state governments in the area of fund control and release of funds meant for them.

However, it has been said times without number that no development effort can yield any success in the midst of the current situation including financial recklessness. No wonder Fadia and Fadia (2009), opine that the mismanagement all over the world in both developed and developing countries at different times, are too many and too well-known to need any enumeration. It has its serious effects in the local government area particularly in the distribution of wealth and malfunctioning of institutions. The good things and finance meant for the rural communities are hijacked by others in our society. Every time they are calling for reforms and reorganization of the rural areas; whenever an attempt is made to make the rural areas and the local government area autonomous they always fight against it hence the rural communities have continued to remain where they are.

**Theoretical Framework of Analysis**

There are some emerging theories of local government. However most of these theories can be broadly divided into two according to Gboyega (1987). The theories that attempt to justify the need for local government, and the ones that argue that the institution of local government is not in harmony with the purpose of democratic governance. The efficiency school according to Mills (1975) was that local government exists to provide services that are beneficial to the people within the areas of their jurisdiction, which means that local government will be judged according to the level of people's expectation whether it is up to the standard measured by the national expectation. This is also agreed as recorded by Markenzie (1954) and in Tonwe (2003) the local government is not for bringing about democracy, nor is it for provision of a base for political participation and political education rather local government exists only to provide services, and it must be judged by its success in this.

The development school as recorded by Egonwan et.al (2001:25) is that local government in developing countries has peculiar development and national integration challenges which need to be addressed. Under this category the local government has the following roles to perform which include decongesting the centers of

unnecessary local issues, increasing the people's understanding and economic development, making programmes to foster social and economic betterment of the local level and more importantly durable and at the same time training people in the art of self-governance and strengthening national unity.

One of the major problems of developing nations is to achieve integration in societies that are culturally plural. Local government in developing areas should be centres with the development of the local people, this will include the creation of a clean water system, the establishment of public transportation system within the area and the building of schools, dispensaries town hall, health centres and recreational grounds.

All the above functions and roles notwithstanding, the local government being the government closest to the people should support and encourage economic growth in the area. The local people should be properly mobilized for effective governance. The people should be protected against unnecessary intrusion of the state in the local affairs. Democracy and Democratic institutions should be taught and allowed to develop, while poverty and underdevelopment should be eradicated. With the provision of services and amenities in the local areas, youths will not be migrating to the towns and other developed areas for

means of livelihood. One of the most important roles the local government should perform is that of education and training which will help to wipe out illiteracy in the rural areas, because one of the most dangerous problems of the local people is that of ignorance and disease.

**Conclusion**

The importance of local government cannot be over emphasized. That makes it very relevant and necessary for the constitutional operation of local government in line with the guiding principles that establishes it. This will guarantee the autonomy of the local government which presupposes that local government must exist not as an appendage of the federal or state government. The autonomy that will be granted to them will make them to conduct their affairs free without undue intervention from other levels of government.

This autonomy will translate into good governance and this will guarantee and foster better leadership performance which is the hallmark of good governance. This will eradicate poverty, unemployment, illiteracy and promote development. It will ensure accountability, transparency, equity and honesty in the local area. This will ensure democratic principles and practices and proper mobilization of the youth for effective local

communication, planning and decision making. As stated earlier, it will guarantee the provision of social amenities and establishment of smaller projects that will attract other developmental issues like pipe-borne water, electricity, rehabilitation of schools and public health centres.

**The Way Forward**

As stated earlier, good administration depends on the extent to which government is accepted by the people. Good governance is accepted and judged by its provision of social amenities to the citizenry. In Nigeria, there is a wide gap between the citizens and the government in terms of provision of good governance. The following are some of the factors to judge good governance, proper mobilization for effective leadership.

The reason why there are problems and apathy in election and others, is lack of mobilization. The youths are not mobilized hence there is no plan for them by the government. They are left on their own and that is the reason for lack of development. Other issues include lack of provision of social amenities, and therefore the problem of poverty, hunger and under development will continue. This is the major factor that will determine whether government is effective.

Yet another consideration is that pertaining to training and retraining of the council staff for administrative competence. This will help to build public confidence in local government administration. Public enlightenment and capacity building of the local area personnel should be undertaken earnestly.

Furthermore, proper implementation of programs requires due consideration; this cannot be done unless there is a proper relationship between the stakeholders in the local government areas. There have been cases of confusion and disagreement among the executive and the legislators. This situation does hinder proper implementation of the policies and programs. Finally there should be regular meetings and proper consultations within and between the leaders and the local chiefs or traditional rulers. If this forum takes place more frequently, it will afford the chiefs or traditional rulers as the leaders of the people, to communicate to the local government council officials the views and problems of the people and this will go a long way in bringing unity and peace.

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# Sustainability and Internal Migrants: A study of NCT of Delhi Readiness toward SDG11- "Sustainable Cities and Communities"

**Anuja Sharma, A. M. Jose**

*Abstract:*

*India and the rest of the world are currently facing a pressing need to work to expand infrastructure to meet the challenges of COVID-19. Amidst urbanization at a faster pace India needs to meet the challenge of population growth alongside the pandemic and work towards achieving SDG 11 to make cities and communities 'sustainable'. National Capital Territory (NCTD) with a population of over 17 million (2011) is the second-fastest-growing Urban Agglomeration (UA) in the world with 8 million in-migrants; it is the city of migrants in India. In the backdrop of UN SDG-11, the city is analyzed in this paper to discuss the issues about NCTD arbitrary urban spread and the measures taken so far by the government to maintain the city's 'inclusiveness and sustainability'. Secondary data were used to analyze these questions. The results underline the need to strengthen and implement policies effectively and should be followed up and amended promptly.*

## 1. Introduction

At this moment, when the pandemic (COVID-19) has created havoc in the world, there is an urgent need to work towards better healthcare services and urban-infrastructure to give support to the informal-sector internal-migrant labourers who are waging a vigorous and biting fight with hunger and disease. When many countries including India have opted in for lockdowns, the situation has become very painful for the ones who are homeless or are living in dilapidated conditions especially in the urban informal settlements, those who have arrived in cities in the hope of a better

and improved living. India is currently in a phase of rapid urbanization and is expected to have an urban population of over 600 million by the year 2031 (High Powered committee, 2011) and the figure of in-migrants is also increasing in every census count. In order to maintain the pace of economic growth and to minimize the impact of infection, the governments (both State and Centre) have a herculean task. Alongside, the SDGs (Sustainable Development Goals) set by the United Nations are also key objectives.

Until recently, migration was not perceived positively but as a failure of development, and policymakers were discussing measures to reduce migration (Bhagat, 2018). Although at the time of declaration of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in the year 2000 at the UN summit the topic of migration was not taken into consideration, in 2015 at the time of declaration of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for the year 2030 migration was given prominence and it is a part of the 17 goals set by the UN. The 11th goal emphasized '**Sustainable Cities and Communities**' which is to make urban human settlements inclusive, safe and resilient whereas goal eight stresses upon the protection of labour rights and promotion of a safe and secure working environment for all workers including migrant workers (Taran, 2016). Cities are the focus of

innovations that allow migrants to maximize their contribution to the economic and social well-being of urban communities. As migration within a country has been an easy option with more transport and communication facilities, it has become a part of and process of urbanization and industrialization (Ansari, 2016). Most people do not move across borders, but inside a country (UN, 2020). Indian states like Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, and Orissa are home to 65% of the poor and are the largest migrant-source states.

However, the pandemic has made migrant workers vulnerable and has exacerbated the situation particularly for those engaged in manual labour. NCT of Delhi with a migrant population of over 8 million (GNCTD, 2017) and one of the fastest-growing cities of the world, ranking second below Tokyo (World Urbanization Prospects, 2018), the scenario is no different as many people could be seen walking to homes amidst lockdown. They are not afraid of COVID-19 but fear starvation without jobs or work. This paper aims to study the urban expansion in the NCTD along with city preparedness towards 'SDG11-Sustainable cities and communities' to provide safe and secured sustenance to internal migrants and explore the progress and challenges being posed to

the Government to integrate the new population (Internal migrants) into the existing one... More specifically the paper has the following objectives.

## 2. Objectives of the study

i. Study of Urban Expansion in Delhi's National Capital Territory.

ii. Explore NCTD readiness to maintain the sustainability and inclusion of internal migrants in the UN SDG 11 "Sustainable Cities and Communities" roadmap.

iii. Identify policy gaps in current city planning and implementation and provide inputs.

## 3. Methodology

The research is based on data collected from secondary sources such as reports of the Government of India, Economic Surveys of various years, journal articles, publications of NGOs, and information available from reliable websites of government ministries and other organizations along with newspaper articles. Primary service delivery data will be added through telephone conversations with service delivery officials. The approach is descriptive and analytical in nature to draw inferences on the current urban conditions of the NCT of Delhi especially in the backdrop of internal migrants along with the preparedness of a State towards SDG11.

## 4. Background to the study

### 4.1 SDGs under UN

To meet the needs of current and future United Nations Member States, 17 objectives have been adopted under the SDGs (Sustainable Development Goals) for the year 2030. They are the extended version of MDG (Millennium Development Goals) and to meet the targets like water, health, education, poverty, prosperity, sanitation, and inclusive growth these were framed and adopted by all developed and developing countries. Key global challenges, including extreme poverty, environmental security, peace, and prosperity at a global level, were adopted to achieve these 17 targets. Table 1 shows India's performance against all 17 SDGs. Many goals still require significant attention and careful implementation to be achieved in the "decade of action" (Government of India, 2020).

SDG11 'Sustainable cities and communities' stresses creating urban spaces that are inclusive, safe, and resilient to meet the demand of the increasing urban population and especially to handle the migrant population and to give them an environment of opportunities, safety, urban infrastructure, housing facilities, healthcare services, and manage them in a more inclusive and contributing manner (UN, 2020).

**Table 1- Performance of India on Various SDG Targets for the year 2020**

| SDG Number | Target | Status/Trend |
|---|---|---|
| SDG1 | No Poverty | On Track or maintaining SDG achievement |
| SDG2 | Zero Hunger | Moderately improving |
| SDG3 | Good Health and Well-Being | Moderately improving |
| SDG4 | Quality Education | Stagnating |
| SDG5 | Gender Equality | Stagnating |
| SDG6 | Clean Water and Sanitation | On Track or maintaining SDG achievement |
| SDG7 | Affordable and Clean Energy | Moderately improving |
| SDG8 | Decent Work and Economic Growth | On Track or maintaining SDG achievement |
| SDG9 | Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure | Moderately improving |
| SDG10 | Reduced Inequalities | Information unavailable |
| SDG11 | Sustainable Cities and Communities | Stagnating |
| SDG12 | Responsible Consumption and Production | Information unavailable |
| SDG13 | Climate Action | On Track or maintaining SDG achievement |
| SDG14 | Life below Water | Stagnating |
| SDG15 | Life on Land | Decreasing |
| SDG16 | Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions | Stagnating |
| SDG17 | Partnerships for the Goals | Stagnating |

*Source: UN, 2020*

At this moment when the pandemic (COVID19) has broken out in the world, there is more need to work towards healthcare services, infrastructure, and put up a vigorous fight with hunger. Now when many countries including India have opted for lockdown. Many are homeless or live in dilapidated conditions where hygiene and sanitation is the gigantic challenge and with this pace of infection and India being one of the more densely populated countries (31st rank) in the world (Registrar General of India, 2011), it is necessary to implement these goals effectively.

In view of the pandemic UN has transformed these 17 goals into 6 conclusive objectives as shown in Figure1 which is followed by twin principles of *'LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND'* and *'ENSURE CIRCULATING AND DECOUPLING'*. The previous 17 goals of the SDGs could now be achieved thanks to 6 societal transformations. These societal transformations will help countries to gain economic balance and would help to face such challenges in the future by creating more inclusive settlements and to achieve that, there is a need for an active government role to articulate Smooth transition at the local level (UN,2020).

**Figure1: Transforming Goals of SDG**



Source: SDG Report, 2020 (Retrieved from https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2020/#)

However, there is a need to review how well the governments (center and state level) take up this challenge and make the renewal happen. Countries like India and China with large populations have shown major SDG gaps in performance in the past (World Migration Prospects, 2018).

**4.2 Review of progress on the implementation of the SDGs in India.**

**4.2.1. SDG Index- India**

Working towards Target 11 "Sustainable Cities and Communities" or the SDG agenda, the Government of India has developed this index to measure each state's progress to date towards each target. It is measured and

scaled by NITI Aayog on overall 62 indicators and States were given a score on a range of 0-100, a score below 49 (Aspirant state), 50-64 (performer), 65-99 (front runner), and 100 for an (achiever).

Since the year 2018, India has successfully launched two SDG reports for the year 2018 (indicators for 13 targets) and the year 2019 (with relevant indicators on all SDG targets) with India scoring 57 and 60 respectively in these reports. However there is an apprehension regarding progress made so far with accelerated urbanization. The challenge of meeting demands of urban population with better infrastructure, sewage, waste management, and education and healthcare services poses a big challenge for local governments (Government of India, 2019) as urbanization is double-edged; on one hand it has raised the standard of living, income opportunities, and decreased poverty and on another, it has put pressure on already overburdened infrastructure which needs immediate attention (High Powered Committee, 2011).

### 4.2.2 VNR Report: India

Voluntary National Review (Government of India, 2020) is a report which reviewed challenges on the path of SDGs in addition to the COVID19 crisis worldwide and talks about taking challenges from 'Global to local level' to ensure participation at the individual level and to ensure the success of 'the decade of action'. It thus seeks to solve challenges of Healthcare, Education and Urban space in which now COVID is added. We need to forge ahead with the best action plan and a robust approach towards these challenges and should look up to them as an opportunity to prepare with the realism and optimism with hope of a better future.

### 4.2.3 Ease of Living Index (EOL): India

This index is framed to measure the ease of living of people in three piers namely Quality of life, Economic ability, and Sustainability scaled and measured by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs (EOL Index, 2019). With an influx of people towards cities with a hope of better livelihood it is becoming challenging for government to transform the infrastructure at the same pace considering limited resources, therefore, this framework would help economies to plan and efficiently manage the change and assess their overall preparation, performance, challenges and possible threats, and sort them out in a timely manner.

The implementation of SDGs is the main concern at a time when we are at the up-surge of urbanization along with

the rising demand for infrastructure. And to achieve these goals and to implement the transformation, countries need to be prepared at the state and local levels to work towards the achievement of the targets to make them substantive and achievable (Kundu, 2019). All SDG targets are interconnected and are of utmost importance to achieve a systematic change. The programs and initiatives taken so far to achieve the SDG targets will ensure participation at the local level with proper accountability along with management of progress reports of cities and managing capacity building programs. It can be a stepping stone towards the achievement of that goals; however, it will not be that easy in a country as large as India as the resources, management and most importantly the execution of the plans play a vital role.

## 5. NCT of Delhi: An Overview

The National Capital Territory of Delhi (NCTD) is a territory of the Union in India which is jointly administered by the State and the Centre. It became the capital of India, replacing Kolkata in 1911. In 1991, it became NCT after the law was passed in Parliament and applied in 1993. In recent years Delhi has transformed in terms of economic and community expansion and it has been one of the megacities of the world ranking second below Tokyo as per the latest estimates (UN, 2018). Over the years, its population has grown to 16.31 million according to the 2011 Census and will soon reach 38 million (Figure 2).
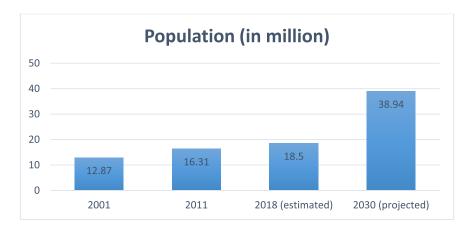
**Figure2: Population of Delhi over the years**



*Source: Registrar General of India, 2011*

The NCTD, unlike other UTs (Union Territories), did not enjoy the right of an independent State as the powers are shared jointly by the Centre, the State, and local agencies (see Figure 3). The local bodies primarily known as MCD (Municipal Corporation of Delhi) now trifurcated into three local bodies namely East Delhi Municipal Corporation (EDMC), North Delhi Municipal Corporation (NDMC), South Delhi Municipal Corporation (SDMC) are all headed by Mayors and one is Delhi Cantonment Board (DCB) which is managed and administered by Ministry of Defence. All the decisions except for land, law, and police are headed by the Chief Minister (CM) with 70 members of legislative assembly (MLA's), and the powers of the land, public order and police lies in hands of Central Government which appoints Lt. Governor in Aid of GNCTD (Govt. NCT of Delhi) to take decisions on all urban issues. This power-sharing nature of NCTD often creates hurdles, delays decision, and implementation of policies; it is sometimes a stumbling block in the achievement of SDG targets as discussed in a report (The Hindu, 2019).
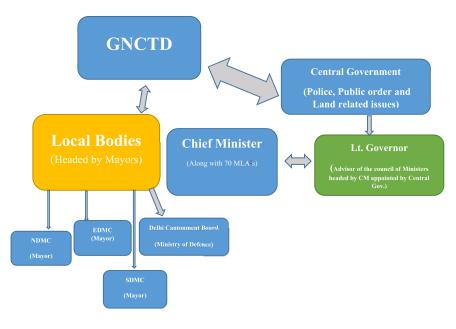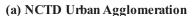
**Figure3: Power-sharing structure of NCTD**



*Source: Own compilation*

Over the years, the NCTD has been a favourite destination for immigrants since the growing concentration of slums is evident in one state (GNCTD, 2017). Increasing per capita income may be the reason that it is a hot spot for migrants (GoI, 2018-19). As per the Economic Survey of Delhi for the year 2018-19; North-West, South, and West districts are home to more than 53% of the total population of Delhi and the same goes for slum concentration (DUSIB, 2019). These slum clusters have been occupied mostly by migrants, occupying over 799 hectares of land of Delhi with more than 4 lakh Jhuggies (Recognised and un-recognized) and a population of 17 lakh and above making it a total of 10.91% of Delhi total population (Census of India, 2011).

**Figure4: Administrative Map of NCTD**



**(a) NCTD Urban Agglomeration**



**(b) NCTD Slum Concentration**

*Source: GNCTD and Own compilation*

These growing numbers indicate a need for immediate up-gradation and expansion in terms of availability and maintenance of infrastructure to meet the demand of new and existing populations. The rapid pace of urbanization has also given rise to the need for urban expansion which is discussed in the next section of this paper.

### 5.1 Urbanisation and NCTD

As the world is moving towards urbanization, India is expected to have an additional population of 416 million urban dwellers with China and Nigeria ranking 2nd and 3rd with a population of 255 and 189 million respectively (World Urbanization Prospects, 2018).

Amongst the major Urban Agglomerations (UAs) Tokyo (Japan) ranks first, followed by Delhi (India) and Shanghai (China) with the maximum number of inhabitants (Table 2). Delhi is projected to overtake Tokyo by the year 2030 with over a 36million population (World Urbanization Prospects, 2018).

**Table 2: Population of major UAs around the World**

| UA's | Population (In Million) |
|---|---|
| Tokyo | 37 |
| Delhi | 29 |
| Shanghai | 26 |
| Mexico city and Sao Paulo | 22 |

*Source: World Urbanization Prospects, 2018*

Delhi became the capital of the British Indian Empire in 1911. Since then, the population of the city rose from 238,000 in 1911 to 696,000 in 1947. After Independence, Delhi became the capital of the newly formed Indian Union and had to face a massive transfer of population following the partition. During the 1941-51 period, the population size grew to about 1.4 million in 1951., In the later census Delhi experienced a high growth rate which still continues as seen from Table 4 Among the metropolitan cities, Delhi's growth rate was the highest 26.69% (this was true in the previous Census of India too: 1981-1991 43.2%; 1991-2001 36.2%)

**Table 3: Biggest cities of India**

| Serial No | City | Population (Metropolitan) 2001 | Population (Metropolitan) 2011 | The population Growth rate of 2001-2011 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Mumbai | 16,434,386 | 18,414,288 | 12.05% |
| 2 | Delhi | 12,877,470 | 16,314,838 | 26.69 % |
| 3 | Kolkata | 13,205,697 | 14,112,536 | 6.87% |

*Source: Registrar General of India, 2011 http://www.censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/paper2/data_files/India2/Table_3_PR_UA_Citiees_1Lakh_and_Above.pdf*

Over the years Delhi has been the nucleus of all movements and transformations; it is also one of the fastest urbanizing states in India with over 97.5% of it being urbanized (Table 4). Along with its movement towards urbanization, the NCTD has also added slum dwellers into its existing population; it's true that from 16.3% of the population living in slums it has narrowed down to 11.3% but this change is not large looking at the massive influx of (approximately 1 lakh) annual in-migrants in the city. The project of Governmentt of NCTD the in-situ slum rehabilitation is an initiative to make a change and improve lives of slum dwellers by providing them pucca houses where there is Jhuggi in a scheme caller 'Jahan Jhuggi, wahan makaan'. But this transformation is needed at a large scale which obviously will need funds and planning in view of the challenges posed by rapid urbanisation.

**Table 4: Delhi Urbanization Trends over the Years**

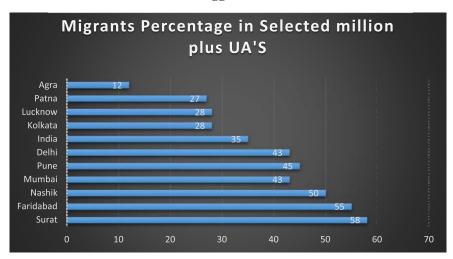| Years | 2001 | 2011 |
|-------|------|------|
| Percentage of Urban Population | 93.18 | 97.5 |
| Percentage of Urban growth | 52.34 | 26.8 |
| Percentage of Population Living in Slums | 16.3 | 11.3 |

*Source: Handbook of Urban Statistics, 2019*

**5.2 Migrants' Capital**

Urban population growth has three main indicators namely natural increase, migration, and reclassification. In the case of NCTD, migrants is the largest contributing factor with over 43 percent (Fig 5) of the population (Registrar General of India, 2011). In the last few years, Delhi has been a major attraction for a large section of people and the number of migrants has shown an increase gradually from 2013-2016. Delhi is one of the top destinations for inter-state migrant labour.
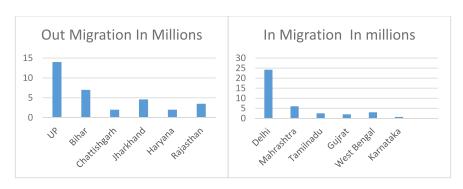
Another set of information is shown in Fig.6. Here the average net flow of internal migrants at state level is shown. The largest recipient of in-migration was Delhi, which accounted for more than half of total in-migration for the year 2015-2016 while UP and Bihar taken together cover almost half of out-migrants. The top 10 movement streams are estimated to be as follows: UP to Delhi Bihar to Delhi UP to Maharashtra Bihar to West Bengal Tamil Nadu to Kerala Bihar to UP Haryana to Delhi  UP to Gujarat Kerala to Tamil Nadu  Andhra to Karnataka (IIHS, 2011).

**Figure 5: Percentage of Migrants in selected Million-plus Urban Agglomerations**



*Source: WMR, 2015(https://www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ICP/MPR /WMR-2015-Background-Paper-RBhagat.pdf*

**Figure 6. Average Net Flows at State Level**



*Source: Economic Survey of India 2016-17, (Economic Survey 2016-17 - Volume 1 [PDF 5.54 MB]*

As per the Economic Survey of Delhi for the year 2019-20 Delhi has reported an increase in the population of around 2.17 lakh for the year 2018 whereas the change in population due to migration is recorded to be around 1.62 lakh (Fig 7). Along with the natural increase, the migration too has played a vital role in change of population and was also showing trends of high Rural-Urban shifts over the years.

**Figure 7: Trends of Migration in Delhi**



Source: GNCTD, 2018-19

### 6. Preparation of NCT of Delhi towards SDG11 'Sustainable Cities and communities'

As per SDG 11 'Sustainable cities and communities' set by the UN to make cities inclusive, safe and resilient for people including migrants has indicators like Housing (Slum up-gradation), Water, Waste, and Energy management along with effective infrastructure for mobility (transportation) and urban management providing safe and resilient system (Fig 8). The next section will discuss and analyze the progress and preparation of NCTD towards SDG-11 and will also discuss the needs and challenges on the road to the success of this aim.

**Figure 8: Conceptual framework of SDG-11**



- Housing
- Water Management
- Waste Management
- Transport Management
- Urban Management
- Safety Management

Preparation for SDG11

- Complicated Governance structure
- Pace of Urbanization
- Gap in Planning and Implementation
- Finance
- Identification of Indicators

Challenges to SDG11

Sustainable cities and communities

*Source: Own compilation*

### 6.1 Towards SDG-11 'Sustainable cities and communities'

Being the capital of India and with an abundant amount of resources of healthcare, education, jobs and other infrastructures, NCTD has become the popular destination amongst migrant workers from all around India especially of neighbouring states like UP, Bihar, and Haryana. The influx of migrants not only increased its population but also increased the rate of urbanization. Erratic and massive growth has placed enormous pressure on existing infrastructure, as well as continued demand for their expansion. Livelihood opportunities being the crux and with the expansion of transportation options and infrastructure development, it attracts both short-term and long-term internal migrants throughout the year resulting in an intensifying parallel and steep urban expansion. And to ensure sustainable and equitable growth, urban expansion must be scaled up.

The large number of in-migrant become part of the informal job sectors and mostly live as urban squatters or in slums. Of the population of about 1.40 crore people a substantial chunk of about 30 lakhs reside in over 6 lakh Jhuggies (DUSIB, 2017) in adverse and inhuman living conditions with no

proper availability of water, sanitation, electricity, waste management and are more prone to health risks and are generally sequestered from the rest of the city. As shown in (Table 5) There is a big gap in conditions of slum households vs regular urban households.; in the availability of basic amenities and services like bathroom, kitchen, or drainage. Many studies in the past have also highlighted the variation in slums and urban NCTD living conditions as in almost 48% of slum households, 7 or more people sleep in one room (NFHS-3, 2005/06) living in filthy and crowded conditions (Sheikh et. al., 2016). This raises a concern in terms of services in slums and urban locations of NCTD and also raises the point of inclusion of these people (mostly migrants) in a city so that not only they prosper but also contribute to the growth of NCTD.

**Table 5: Houses with Access to Basic Amenities and Services, Assets holding and Housing Characteristics**

| Access to Basic Amenities and Services | Slums | Urban Delhi |
|---|---|---|
| Treated tap water | 73.27 | 75.18 |
| In house drinking water | 50.89 | 66.51 |
| Electrified HHs | 97.27 | 99.11 |
| In house bathroom | 58.99 | 91.06 |
| In house kitchen | 44.14 | 78.83 |
| Closed drainage | 48.69 | 89.14 |
| LPG/PNG | 65.10 | 89.92 |
| **Housing Characteristics** | | |
| Concretized roof | 24.08 | 63.74 |
| Concrete wall | 3.46 | 5.51 |
| Cemented floor | 76.76 | 64.68 |

| No exclusive room | 2.76 | 1.31 |
|---|---|---|
| Having only one room | 58.55 | 32.17 |
| **Access to Finance and Assets** | | |
| Personal Bank Account | 54.54 | 77.69 |
| TV | 74.36 | 87.99 |
| Computer with Internet | 5.16 | 17.63 |
| Mobile Phone | 66.14 | 68.24 |
| Two-Wheeler | 38.50 | 69.46 |
| Cars | 5.42 | 20.72 |

*Source: Author Computation based on Census 2011 data*

It is, therefore, necessary to strengthen policy implementation along with an increase in quality amenities and services. So far, various steps have been taken to revamp NCTD and meet the pace of urban growth and development like the constitution of DUSIB (Delhi Urban Shelter Improvement Board) which comes directly under the Chief Minister of Delhi and is framed to revamp slums and work towards their redevelopment and up-gradation.

## 6.2 Sustainability

Housing: 'Land' belongs to the DDA (Delhi Development Authority) which is managed by the Ministry of Urban Development and all issues related to land for the construction of houses are a function of the DDA. The population of Delhi has increased by 21.2 percent in the last 10 years with the approximate addition of a migrants population of 1,00,000 every year and is highly dense with 11,320 persons per square kilometre (Registrar General of India, 2011). As a result lack of housing facilities and steady increase in the population of Delhi has created a wide gap which has given birth to encroached and unauthorized colonies in NCTD (GNCTD, 2018-19). There has been a wide gap between housing demand and supply in Delhi but until recently there has been a decrease in housing shortage (Figure 9 c) with 2.37 lakh in the year 2001 to 1.65 lakh in the year 2011

(GNCTD, 2019). The number of houses has increased over the years but still, the gap is wide as per MPD-2021. Delhi requires approximately 24 lakh new houses by the year 2021) of which 10 lakh would be for the redevelopment of current residential areas.

Lower housing availability and high cost of urban households (HH) increased spread of slums and aggregations that are mostly concentrated with the migrant population. However, in these suburbs (slums) there is a huge gap in urban and slum HH even in access to basic amenities like toilets (fig 9 b. And on the other hand figure 9 (a) has highlighted a positive sign as slums share in 'ownership' has been more (71%) as compared to urban HHs (68%) which indicates the absorption of migrants into the city as most of the migrants make their living by renting slums when they enter the city (GNCTD, 2017). However these numbers may not tell the whole story as there are many slums which are on un-authorized land and are not in a regulated category as mentioned by slum boards and are lacking basic amenities which again adds to shortage of houses and to sustain growing population it is paramount to expand infrastructure.
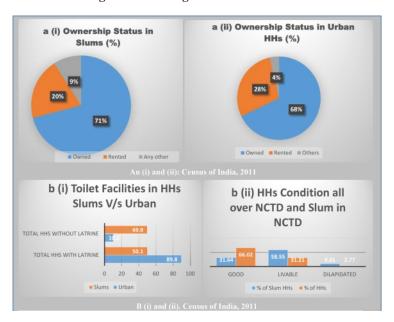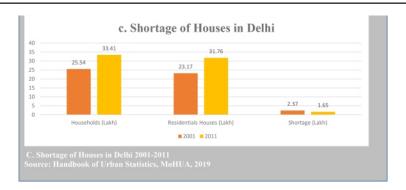
**Figure 9: Housing conditions in NCTD**

**c. Shortage of Houses in Delhi**

C. Shortage of Houses in Delhi 2001-2011
Source: Handbook of Urban Statistics, MoHUA, 2019

**Air pollution**

Air pollution in NCTD has been a major issue in recent years. Pollution is mainly caused by industry or vehicles and it is generally associated with the elite class but in NCTD there is one more reason i.e. crop residue (burnt in northern parts of India) and that residue is carried to NCTD by winds resulting in smog and pollution. DPCC (Delhi Pollution Control Committee) which is empowered to control pollution levels in Delhi has taken various initiatives in the past whether, in form of sprinkling water, or the odd-even date operation of motor vehicles by CM to minimize the pollution level. So far, the impact has been very limited and air quality remains at dangerous level causing dangers to senior citizens and kids. There is an urgent need to control and minimise this keeping in mind the rapid growth and urbanisation on NCTD.

**Waste Management**

Another important aspect of sustainability is the management of waste. Heaps of waste lying in the open is also a cause of poor air quality. At the national level there are programs like "Swachh Bharat" which need to be adopted and practised at the local level as full-fledged programs where people are encouraged regarding cleanliness and waste disposal system and must be sensitized to segregate waste at source into green and blue bins (recyclable and others). As regards waste collection it is also a cause of concern as merely 37 % of slum HHs' waste is collected as compared to urban wards where many have a 100 % waste collection rate (GNCTD, 2018-19).

**Water and Energy Management**

So far, NCTD has accomplished the target of 100% electrification but with the involvement of PPPs over the

years (like TPDDL, BYPL, and BRPL) for expansion in terms of capacity and infrastructure; but this has also added cost to the consumers and makes it difficult to bear for the low-income category. And talking about a movement towards a sustainable future of power there is an initiative taken by NDMC to promote the use of solar energy and has incentivised usage of solar panels in HHs which will slowly but steadily will work towards a more sustainable future.

## Water Supply

Management of water is an important issue too. NCTD could only meet half of the demand for water and for the remaining half, it depends on its neighbouring states. DJB has been witnessing a supply gap over the years and couldn't meet the demand of people and there is a huge gap in demand and supply of water (Table 6). This is expected to remain in the year 2021 to and to meet this demand there is a project named 'Delhi water supply and sewerage project' which is expected to meet this gap.

**Table 6: Water Supply Gap in Delhi over the years**

| Year | Total Water Demand Volume (MLD) | Total Water supply Volume (MLD) | Total Water supply Deficit |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2004 | 2685 | 2265 | 420 |
| 2005 | 3763 | 2362 | 1401 |
| 2006 | 4090 | 2461 | 1629 |
| 2011 | 5181 | 3573 | 1608 |
| 2021 (Tentative) | 6272 | 5259 | 1013 |

*Note: MLD - Million Litres per Day Source: Delhi Jal Board*

## Sewerage System

Another issue persisting is the sewerage system which has not been consistent and there is an evident gap in total numbers of colonies to total colonies having sewerage (Figure10). Lack of sewerage in rural areas and unauthorized colonies is a cause of concern as more influx of migrants makes these places their second home due to affordability and availability. These un-authorized colonies cannot have a proper sewerage network without being regularized which, of course, will take time and in the meantime, they have to suffer as this issue will continue to persist.
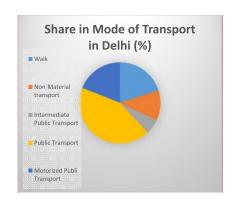
**Figure10: Sewerage system of Delhi**



**Progress of Sewerage System in Delhi**

- Total Colonies
- Colonies with Sewerage system

Un-Authorized regularised colonies: 567, 541
Urban villages: 135, 130
Rural villages: 219, 54
Un-Authorized colonies: 1639, 265
Resettlement colonies: 44, 44

*Source: GNCTD, 2018-19*

## Transportation

In Delhi there are two major components of public transport one is bus transport (average daily ridership of 43 lakh) and another is Metro rail (with an average daily ridership of 25 lakh). There are 109.86 lakh motorized vehicles registered in Delhi (GNCTD, 2018-19). Yet public transport has been a major mode of commuting amongst people with 43 percent of people of Delhi using public transport (Figure13). However, with the increase in population and the continued increase in the number of immigrants to the city, the demand for urban infrastructure including transportation in Delhi has been booming.



**Share in Mode of Transport in Delhi (%)**

- Walk
- Non Material transport
- Intermediate Public Transport
- Public Transport
- Motorized Publi Transport

*Source: National Transport: Development Policy Committee, 2013*

The major stumbling block in urban mobility is the gap in availability and requirement of public transport as there are currently 5771 DTC buses (Handbook of urban statistics, MoHUA, 2019) against the demand of 11,000 buses which makes

it difficult for people as they have to wait for long hours for bus service and taking cabs or metro is more expensive. Other issues such as traffic jams for long hours, and the resulting rise in pollution levels as well as parking issues are of concern.

### 6.3 Safety and Resilience

Talking about safety and resilience in NCTD, it has been raised time and again by many geologists that it lies in a high-risk seismic zone and is more susceptible to earthquakes. This is a problem as many buildings don't follow the mandatory guidelines of the Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS) for earthquake-resistant construction. The city ranks third on the list of 5 most earthquake-prone cities in India which makes resilience a priority and calls for strict regulations to ensure safety of lives and property from possible future events.

A major step taken by the Government of NCTD is the installation of CCTVs under the scheme named 'Eyes within the Sky' with a target of 1.50 lakh CCTVs including in inner areas, blocks, Govt. run schools and other primary locations to enable surveillance and thereby ensure safety. But, the success of these schemes can only be evaluated in time to come. Safety has been time and again raised as a priority particularly for women, the elderly, kids more so with those from the marginalized sections of society (Narayanan, 2012). This was also predominantly raised in a people's perception survey (GNCTD, 2006) where safety was a significant concern together with other vulnerabilities.
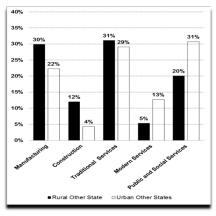
### 6.4 Inclusive Governance

World Bank defines inclusion as "a process by which people's role is enhanced to make them participate in society, improves their ability and above all allows them to come out from being the disadvantageous group and perform" (World Bank, 2020).

It is a removal of barriers that prevents one from performing and participating in a society. It is indeed a role of government to ensure that each one whether a migrant or from any other disadvantaged group is able to participate in an economy whether in an economic, political or social manner. It should be essentially tied to equal opportunities, amenities, and affordable services for everyone in a city. Opportunities to prepare and contribute, opportunities to work and participate, not to be discriminated against in any way, gender, caste, culture, or place to which they belong.

NCTD which accounts for the most important share of in-migrants in India (GNCTD, 2017) incorporates a housing shortage of 1.65 lakh households and there has been an understandable gap in housing stock

over the years as there is not only a shortage of homes but also of quality housing conditions. As almost 1/3rd of the population of Delhi lives in slums which are mostly overcrowded, filthy, and socially unacceptable whereas merely 31% of individuals live in HHs categorized as 'good' against the 66% for urban Delhi which indicates a significant housing shortage suffered by this marginalized section of society. Measures are taken so far like AMRUT, PMAY, are still in their implementation phase with results to come in some years. Rehabilitation and up-gradation of slums has been is happening while in the meanwhile large numbers live in night shelters ; NCTD has the maximum amount as over 2,00,000 homeless people.

**Figure12: Migrants employed in different sectors of NCTD**



*Source: Government of India, 2017 http://mohua.gov.in/upload/uploadfiles/files/1566.pdf*

As regards to jobs, 'migrants' which move to the city in the hope of improved livelihood mostly become part of unorganized informal job sector (also comprising street hawkers, vendors); the one most vulnerable characterized with low wages, lack of job security and exploitation which not only affect their economic and physical strength but also deprives them of getting access to city's other opportunities. The situation is marked by unequal distribution of income and big disparity.

As regards gender bias, a lot needs to be done with respect to WPR (Workers Participation Rate). The same at65% and 11% for males and females respectively which raises a point of equal opportunities for women... Figures indicate that migrants employment rate is rather high in construction sector which is marked by limited regulation and poor wages due to unskilled nature of work. There is a need for an increase in government role to enhance employment opportunities not only for the existing population but also for those moving with hopes. GNCTD has mentioned a need for good employment opportunities for a population of 17 lakh which are below the poverty line and for that government needs to work as a facilitator to improve their living and ensure better inclusion.

### 7. Conclusion and way forward

But, despite all this surge it's yet to become a sustainable and inclusive city. Metropolis of Delhi being the capital of the country, has always been synonymous with diversification with mixed cultures, languages, and a city that brings exclusiveness within the same palette. The progress and development achieved thus far in education, healthcare and infrastructure also are one among the reasons for making it an epicenter for the migrant population all-round the country. While growing at a rapid pace alongside economic boom,  there are spatial inequalities in terms of the housing shortage, access to amenities and services, and also the economic well-being of its people together with huge gap in society in terms of deteriorating and inhumane slum condition. Moreover, many issues were posing challenges in the path of constructing NCTD as a sustainable and inclusive city: inadequate coordination between deciding bodies (the Centre and therefore the State), delayed implementation of policies, financial constraints, the growing pace of urbanization, mismanagement of waste, electricity and water resources, environmental issues, traffic and parking challenges together with overburdened and restrained public facility and practices which deny migrants social and economic benefits together with densely concentrated slums lacking even with basic amenities.

The paper put various recommendations to make NCTD more inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable:

a. A necessity to confirm the participation of individuals within the governance together with reforms within the governing structure to spot and eliminate the loopholes within the existing structure and to ensure the problems of vulnerable and migrants populations are addressed properly.

b. As all SDG goals are integrated it's, therefore, important to reframe the urban planning process and amalgamate policies and approaches e.g. to fulfill the housing demand for new houses and also to upgrade the prevailing slum conditions to supply basic amenities and services.

c. To eliminate spatial inequalities there's a necessity for specified schemes and welfare programs for quality dwelling units and availability of amenities like water and electricity.

d.  As public transport remains the primary preference of a large section of individuals, it's necessary to expand it to satisfy the

demand of existing and new populations to cut down commuting hours between work and residence.

e. The supply of potable water could be another essential requirement of individuals living within the slums of NCTD.

f. Pollution, and waste management are other considerations that require the immediate attention of authorities while developing city plans to confirm proper management and preparedness to beat environmental hazards.

g. Another issue to deal with is 'safety' from disasters (proper disaster risk reduction plans and building of quality houses) and safety from thefts (CCTV installations) to make sure resilience and inclusion of all including differently-abled and elderly.

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**Ease of Living Index Report 2020**

**Read the full report here: https://eol.smartcities.gov.in/resources**

Bengaluru most liveable among large cities, Shimla among smaller cities. Similar announcements grabbed headlines of several national newspapers earlier this year, indicating the level of interest among citizens to know how their cities are doing vis-à-vis others in the race for liveability. The ranking is carried out by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, Government of India biennially. Such surveys and rankings made available in public domain are particularly significant in the current context of rapid urbanisation in India and the resulting issues, including those relating to meeting the aspirations of the additional millions that move into cities every few weeks in search of better livelihood opportunities. Launching the Ease of Living Index 2020, Hardeep S Puri, Minister of State (I/C), Housing and Urban Affairs, Government of India states in his message "The Central government is committed to planned urbanisation with the aim of providing a high quality of life for the people. The COVID-19 pandemic has reminded us that people are our most valuable resources. Our cities cannot be prosperous if people do not have access to housing, water and other basic amenities."

Ease of Living Index 2020 is the second such effort at ranking, the first being the 2018 edition. The exercise assesses 111 participating cities (49 large + 62 smaller) across 4 pillars – Quality of Life, Economic Ability, Sustainability, and Citizen's Perception Survey. These 4 pillars cover 13 categories including, Health, Education, Housing & Shelter, WASH & SWM, Mobility, Safety & Security, Recreation, Economic Development, Economic Opportunities, Environment, Green spaces & Building, Energy Consumption, and City Resilience. This second edition draws from the first edition and incorporates inputs from several stakeholders. One notable new feature is the Municipal Performance Index 2020 published separately which ranks 114 local bodies in an attempt to decipher how various input factors determine Ease of Living.

The Executive Summary of the Index puts the subject in perspective given the context of urbanisation, its inevitability, its role in economic growth and the accompanying challenges. It makes note of the rising concentration of urban population which vastly outpaces the ability of local administrations to provide for the needs of the people. With the ranking mechanism, the effort aims to promote healthy competition among cities while at the same time enabling peer learning to accelerate improvement. Splitting cities among million-plus and smaller ones makes such comparison fair and meaningful, the ES notes.

The compilation is divided into several chapters - introduction, framework & methodology, overall rankings, analyses (region level, pillar level) key findings, and then discussions and conclusions.

The introduction outlines the key objectives of the EOL Index as follows:

1. Catalyse action to achieve broader developmental outcomes including the Sustainable Development Goals

2. Generate information to guide evidence-based policy-making

3. Assess and compare the outcomes achieved from various urban policies and schemes

4. Obtain the perception of citizens about their view on the services provided by the city administration, and serve as a basis for dialogue between them.

The Framework & Methodology chapter describes the significance of the four pillars used, namely, Quality of Life – this assesses the various determinants such as housing, access to clean water, healthcare, education safety/security and recreation. This pillar has a weightage of 35%.

Economic Ability, the second pillar with a weightage of 15% covers level of economic development and economic opportunities.

Sustainability. This pillar has a weightage of 20% and assesses the availability of green spaces, green buildings, energy consumption and quality of air/water.

And finally the fourth pillar Citizen's Perception Survey validates the scores on above based on what citizens have to say about these. Not surprisingly, this pillar has a high weightage of 30% in the final rankings.

The Methodology section of this chapter goes on to describe the classification of cities, scoring methods, etc. It mentions the use of 49 indicators on which to score the cities.

The next chapter Overall Rankings tabulates the 49 large (million plus population) cities and 62 smaller cities along with scores on a 0 to 100 scale. One notes that the average score of the 111 cities comes to 53.51 which one may say leaves lots of scope for improvement in the future. The top ranks with scores are as follows:

**Million plus**

| Rank | City | Score |
|------|------|-------|
| 1 | Bengaluru | 66.70 |
| 2 | Pune | 66.27 |
| 3 | Ahmedabad | 64.87 |
| 4 | Chennai | 62.61 |
| 5 | Surat | 61.73 |

**Smaller cities**

| Rank | City | Score |
|------|------|-------|
| 1 | Shimla | 60.90 |
| 2 | Bhubaneswar | 59.85 |
| 3 | Silvassa | 58.43 |
| 4 | Kakinada | 56.84 |
| 5 | Salem | 56.40 |

Further are given national average scores across pillars and indicators. These are quite revealing.

The average score on Quality of Life pillar is 51.38. That on Economic Ability is a low 13.17. Given that our cities are to act as engines of economic growth, this score leaves a lot of scope for improvement. The score on Sustainability is 53.63. The Citizens Perception Survey (CPS) score is a high 76.08. There is also a separate score for EOL without taking into account the high CPS score. This is unsurprisingly a low 30.69.

In a later section, the report also includes a region-wise analysis, clubbing the cities under six regions – North, East, West, South, Central and North East. The Ease of Living scores are averaged out for each of these regions with the following resulting scores:

| | |
|---|---|
| North | 52.59 |
| East | 50.75 |
| West | 56.75 |
| South | 54.38 |
| Central | 52.72 |
| North-East | 50.10 |

These figures and the states within different regions are well depicted in a coloured map of India.

There are then several tables two for each region – one for million plus cities and another for smaller cities giving the individual scores of each city on all the 4 pillars and the composite. These tables are very informative and provide a comparison of cities within each region.

The subsequent pages contain detailed rankings of each of the 111 cities (49 + 62 separately) on each of the 4 pillars and within each pillar the various indicators. These findings are well presented in tables and maps.

The final section contains city profiles of each of the 111 participating cities, in alphabetical order, 49 and 62 cities (million plus and smaller) grouped together. There are also candlestick charts for each city. The interpretation of these and their significance could possibly have been explained for the lay reader who may not be well conversant with this technical representation.

All in all, the Ease of Living Index is a very useful tool for city administrators and policymakers of a city to see the performance of their city with scores and rankings for each of the 4 pillars, 13 categories and 49 indicators. The rankings and scores also provide detailed comparisons with other cities of the nation as also of the region. The exercise fosters a sense of much-needed competition among cities to perform better with each subsequent ranking by plugging shortcomings in parameters showing weakness while building on strengths in other parameters.

One hopes there would be more cities included in the rankings in coming editions of the report so that this spirit of competition reaches out to more cities and they all vie with each other to secure higher ranks by providing better services and amenities to their citizens. We could then see constant improvements of each of the cities' scores and thereby the national average too.

Along with the Ease of Living Index Report 2020, the ministry also released the Municipal Performance Index 2020.

**Municipal Performance Index 2020**

**Read the full report here: https://eol. smartcities.gov.in/resources**

The Municipal Performance Index 2020 has been published along with the Ease of Living Index Report 2020. It is an effort to examine and record the state of municipal governance across the nation as such assessment is a precursor to improving their efficiency and accountability. Launching the Report, Union Minister for Housing and Urban Affairs, Hardeep S Puri observes, "This Index confers a data driven-approach to verticals that facilitate urban governance in municipalities across India and assist local government authorities, policymakers and urban planners and practitioners in identifying and tackling gaps in development measures thus driving cities towards better socio-economic outcomes."

Describing the MPI 2020, the Executive Summary notes that it assesses the sectoral performance of municipalities thus serving to promote informed decision-making and contribute towards the realisation of objectives including the SDGs. The Index uses 5 key verticals – Services, Finance, Planning, Technology, and

Governance across 20 sectors and 100 indicators. The 20 sectors covered in the 5 verticals are:

**Services**:
Education, health, water & wastewater, SWM & sanitation, registration & permits, infrastructure

**Finance:**
Revenue management, expenditure management, fiscal responsibility, fiscal decentralisation

**Planning:**
Plan preparation, plan implementation, plan enforcement

**Technology**:
Digital governance, digital access, digital literacy

**Governance:**
Transparency & accountability, human resources, participation, effectiveness

The report is compiled into different well-defined chapters, namely introduction, framework & methodology, overall rankings, regional analysis, vertical & sector analysis, key findings & discussions, index to action, conclusion and city profiles.

The introduction describes the challenges which urban settlements encounter in the face of relentless urbanisation and the fact that several urban renewal measures and interventions have been put in place to address these challenges. Poverty alleviation, affordable housing and cleanliness are being addressed through DAY-NULM, SBM (U), AMRUT, PMAY-U and Smart Cities Mission, among others. At another level, service delivery is sought to be tackled though various measures including some of the above. The final level seeks to improve ease of living through improved urban governance, by using digital technologies in service delivery and citizen engagement. Since municipalities are central to the achievement of these objectives, the MPI seeks to assess the performance of 111 local bodies on various parameters described above. The process includes citizens and other stakeholders, thereby promoting grassroots democracy, accountability, and transparency.

The next chapter describes the framework and methodology adopted for developing the index. The weightages for the 5 verticals are:

| | |
|---|---|
| Services | 30%. |
| Finance | 20% |
| Planning | 15% |
| Technology | 15% |
| Governance | 20% |

The chapter goes on to describe the city classification (million plus and smaller), scoring methods and other technical aspects of the compilations of scores.

The next chapter – Overall rankings contains the findings of the effort and is of much interest to readers.

Among million plus cities, the rankings are as follows;

| Rank | Municipality | Score |
|------|--------------|-------|
| 1 | Indore | 66.08 |
| 2 | Surat | 60.82 |
| 3 | Bhopal | 59.04 |
| 4 | Pimpri-Chinchwad | 59.00 |
| 5 | Pune | 58.79 |
| 6 | Ahmedabad | 57.60 |
| 7 | Raipur | 54.98 |
| 8 | Greater Mumbai | 54.36 |
| 9 | Visakhapatnam | 52.77 |
| 10 | Vadodara | 52.68 |

The ranking for the smaller (less than million) municipalities is as follows:

| Rank | Municipality | Score |
|------|--------------|-------|
| 1 | New Delhi MC | 52.92 |
| 2 | Tirupati | 51.69 |
| 3 | Gandhinagar | 51.59 |
| 4 | Karnal | 51.39 |
| 5 | Salem | 49.04 |
| 6 | Tiruppur | 48.92 |
| 7 | Bilaspur | 47.99 |
| 8 | Udaipur | 47.77 |
| 9 | Jhansi | 47.04 |
| 10 | Tirunelveli | 47.02 |

The average score for the 111 cities, the compilation finds, is a modest 43.13 "showing that Indian municipalities still have a long way to go and have immense potential for achieving their urban development goals", the report says.

As in the case of the Ease of Living Index, the MPI 2020 also has a regional analysis where the 111 municipalities are divided into 6 groups based on their regions – North, East, West, South, Central, & North-East

Thereafter, there is given a vertical-wise and sector-wise analysis and rankings of the 111 municipalities. These analyses would be of much interest to urban planners, policy makers, municipal administrations and city managers to understand where, on which parameter a particular municipality is doing better or worse, by how much, and also to enable comparison parameter-wise with other municipalities.

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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.