Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy In Select Cities of India

Supported by

**GoI-UNDP Project
National Strategy for Urban Poor**

NIUA

National Institute of Urban Affairs

I & II floor, Core 4B, India Habitat Center, Lodhi Road
New Delhi – 110003
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Submitted to

Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation
And
United Nations Development Programme

Prepared by

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Partners

Partners	*Cities*
1. National Institute of Urban Affairs, New Delhi	Project Coordinator
2. Centre for Studies in Social Sciences, Calcutta `	Kolkata
3. Madras School of Economics, Chennai	Chennai
4. Wilbur Smith Associates Pvt. Ltd, Bangalore	Bangalore
5. Centre for Good Governance, Hyderabad	Hyderabad
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11. CRRID, New Delhi	Ludhiana
12. CRRID, New Delhi	Ambala

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Preface

Urbanisation and economic progress are concomitant processes. As we progress through the new millennium, the country is faced with the challenge of providing equitable services and opportunity to its millions of urban residents. To sustain the pace of economic growth India is pivoted towards, the immediate challenge before all development practitioners is how to harmoniously integrate the needs of the vulnerable and have inclusive and well-governed cities.

As an endeavor to achieve this, the Government of India has been making continuous efforts through implementation of number of policies and programmes. In response to the most recent flagship reform linked policy of the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India, City Development Plans (CDPs) have been prepared for 63 mission cities. To further augment the efforts of CDPs for achieving sustained and inclusive city development, Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies have been prepared for eleven out of the 63 cities, as part of the GOI-UNDP Project on National Strategy for Urban Poor. NIUA partnered with nine locally based agencies to prepare the eleven UPRSs. In addition to task managing the coordination between all the agencies, NIUA has also prepared the UPRS for Jaipur.

This report presents a brief summary and analysis of the eleven UPRS prepared as part of this project. It attempts to comprehensively understand local conditions, identify core issues and challenges set out an inclusive perspective and vision for the future development of a city in India.

Prof. Chetan Vaidya

Director

Acknowledgement

The Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) project report is a culmination of the efforts and contributions of a wide group of stakeholders – all of whom have been instrumental in bringing this report to its present shape. At the outset I would like to thank Dr. H.S. Anand, Secretary, Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA), Dr. P.K. Mohanty, Joint Secretary (MoHUPA) for their valuable comments and direction provided during the continuous review of the project. Mr.Alkesh Sharma National Project Coordinator (GOI-UNDP Project) deserves a special mention for his supervision and attention to details as the project progressed. The guidance, continuous help and endorsement from Dr. Suraj Kumar, Ms. Prema Gera and Mr. Ashok Malhotra from UNDP are worth mentioning. Prof. Chetan Vaidya, Prof. M.P Mathur and Dr. Shreekant Gupta who have headed NIUA at different points of time since the inception of the project and seen it through completion have provided the leadership for the UPRS project. I am grateful to all of them for their direction and guidance in the project activities. I would like to thank Prof. V.K. Dhar for his help whenever I sought his advice.

I acknowledge the contributions made by the team members of all the partner institutes who have shown great enthusiasm and collaborative team effort throughout the project. I am also grateful to all those who helped in the completion of the project in various ways and put up with the odd working hours and regular outstation trips. I also acknowledge the help and assistance of all those whose names do not appear explicitly.

Paramita Datta Dey
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CONTENTS

Annexure	
Annexure 1: Executive Summaries of each city	
1.	Chennai
2.	Kolkata
3.	Bangalore
4.	Ahmedabad
5.	Hyderabad
6.	Ludhiana
7.	Chandigarh
8.	Pune
9.	Indore
10.	Jaipur
11.	Ambala

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

Executive Summary

The current approach of the Government of India is to tackle urban poverty is three pronged. The first is to provide urban poor with housing and infrastructure. The second is to ensure institutional reforms to facilitate decentralization as envisaged in the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (74th CAA) and to ensure accountability of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) to the citizens. The third approach is to facilitate access to livelihoods / employment through policies like the National Policy for Urban Street Vendors (NPUSV) and programmes like the Swarn Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY).

City Development Plans (CDPs) have been prepared for all the 63 JNNURM cities. There is a clear need, however, for CDPs to promote integrated strategies for the urban poor in these cities. In order to address this lacuna, as a first pilot, Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRSs) for 11 cities have been prepared under the GOI-UNDP Project on National Strategy for the Urban Poor. These eleven cities comprise two mega cities (Kolkata and Chennai) three cities with 4 million plus population (Ahmedabad, Bangalore and Hyderabad) and five cities with 1 million plus population (Ludhiana, Chandigarh, Jaipur, Pune, Indore) and Ambala (a non-JNNURM city for an alternative perspective). The main focus of the UPRS is to improve the living conditions of the urban poor and advance their quality of life.

The main objectives are:

1. Sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources for addressing the needs of the urban poor.
2. Promoting participation of the urban poor in the UPRS.
3. Promoting pro-poor institutional reforms.

NIUA partnered with nine locally based agencies to prepare the eleven UPRSs. The partner agencies included research organizations like Madras School of Economics (MSE) and Centre for Good for Governance (CGG) for Chennai and Hyderabad, NGOs like Gujarat Mahila Housing SEWA Trust and Shelter Associates for Ahmedabad and Pune, and Consulting organizations like Wilbur Smith Associates for Bangalore. In addition to task managing the coordination between all the agencies, NIUA has also prepared the UPRS for Jaipur. The UPRSs were prepared through extensive stakeholder consultations – involving the officials of the ULBs, parastatal agencies, development authorities, experts and the local people. The draft final reports is a culmination of a series of interim reports which were peer reviewed and presented to the group of eminent experts lead by the Secretary, Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation experts from UNDP and other distinguished professionals.

In collaboration with the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA), convened a consultative meet at the Institute on 24th April 2008, to disseminate the findings of all the citywide Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRS). The workshop was chaired by the Secretary of MoHUPA, Dr. H.S. Anand. Other eminent panelists were Dr. P. K. Mohanty, Joint Secretary, MoH&UPA and National Project Director (NSUP), Shri. Alkesh Sharma, National Project Coordinator (NSUP), Prof. Chetan Vaidya, Director NIUA, State Secretaries, City Commissioners and representatives of the partner agencies working under the project. Participants to the workshop also included representatives of the State Government, Municipal Corporations, members of Urban Poverty Cells of various cities, experts and representatives from bi-lateral and multi-lateral organizations.

Based on the outcome of the workshop, MoHUPA suggested that a combined report of all UPRS's be prepared. This report has been collated based on the suggestions bought out from the workshop. The main idea behind this UPRS is to understand local conditions, identify core issues and challenges, set out an inclusive perspective and vision for the future development of a city.

Chapter 1
Introduction to Poverty

Poverty has many faces, changing from place to place and across time. Poverty is not only about having income below the "poverty line", but it is also about the inability to sustain a specified level of well-being.

There are many working definitions of "poverty," with considerable debate on how to best define the term. Income security, economic stability and the predictability of one have continued means to meet basic needs as all serve as absolute indicators of poverty. Box 1 shows the definition as accepted by the World Bank. More recently, numerically non-measurable aspects such as 'quality of life[1]' parameters and 'dignity of one's life[2]' have gained importance in assessing poverty. Such assessments include within them a larger range of needs and are flexible enough for the minimum standards to be revised from time to time depending on social, economic and technological changes.

1.1 Trends in Poverty

> **Box 1: Definitions of Poverty:**
>
> **Extreme (or Absolute) poverty**:
> Living in extreme poverty (less than $1 a day) mean not being able to afford the most basic necessities to ensure survival. 8 million people a year die from absolute poverty.
>
> **Moderate poverty**:
> Moderate poverty, defined as earning about $1 to $2 a day, enables households to just barely meet their basic needs, but they still must forgo many of the things-education, health care-that many of us take for granted. The smallest misfortune (health issue, job loss, etc.) threatens survival.
>
> **Relative poverty**:
> Lastly, relative poverty means that a household has an income below the national average.
>
> Source: World Bank, 2000

Source: World Development Report 2000/2001

Globally, the proportion of people living in poverty declined from 29 % in 1987 to 26 % in 1998, although the total number of poor remained almost unchanged at around 1.2 billion[3]. The reduction in the incidence of global poverty is attributed to progress made in East Asia, most notably in the People's Republic of China. In East Asia the number of people living under poverty line fell from around 420 million to around 280 million between 1987 and 1998.Yet in Latin America, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa the number of poor people have been rising. Similarly, in the countries of Europe and Central Asia, the number of poor people rose more than twenty fold [4]. Figure 1 shows the distribution of population living on less than $1 a day in 1998.

The Millennium Development Goals Report for 2007 speaks about the proportion of people living in extreme poverty that fell from nearly a third to less than one fifth between 1990 and 2004. Living standards had risen dramatically over the decades. Figure 2 shows the map of world poverty by country, showing percentage of population below national poverty line during the period 1990-2005.

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1 - Included as an indicator in the Human Development Index developed by UNDP
2 - Amartya Sen defines poverty as restriction of the capabilities of a person or of the freedom s/he enjoys to lead the kind of life s/he values as dignified way of living
3 - Global Poverty Report, G8, Okinawa Summit, July 2000
4 – World Development Report: Attacking Poverty 2000/2001

Figure 2: Map of world poverty by country, showing percentage of population below national poverty line.
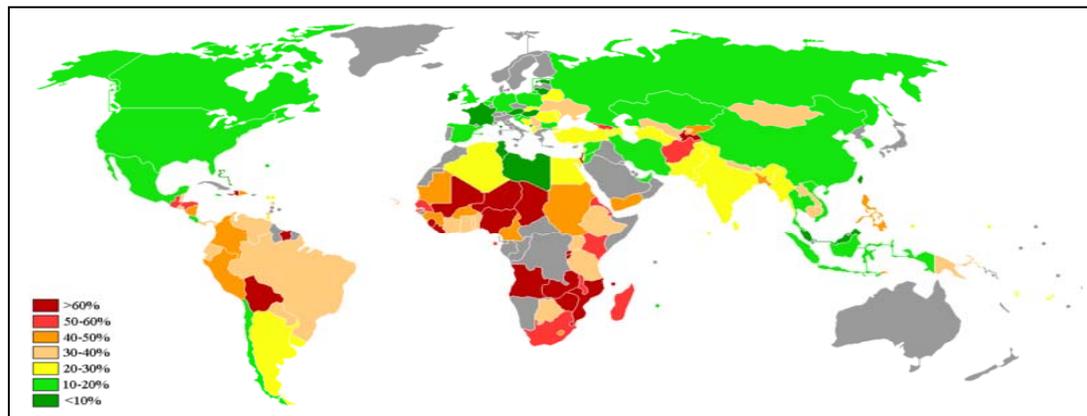
Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_percentage_of_population_living_in_poverty

The proportion of the developing world's population living in extreme economic poverty -- defined as living on less than $1 per day ($1.08 in 1993 dollars, adjusted to account for differences in purchasing power across countries), had fallen from 28 percent in 1990 to 21 percent in 2001. Global trends in poverty reduction had been dominated by rapid growth in China, the East Asia and Pacific region. Almost 45 million people were living in extreme poverty by 2001. But in Sub-Saharan Africa, where GDP per capita shrank 14 percent, poverty rose from 41 percent in 1981 to 46 percent in 2001, and an additional 150 million people were living in extreme poverty[5].

However, recently in August 2008, the global poverty numbers have been revised because of cost of living in the developing world got higher than earlier thought and therefore indicated that the number of poor people in the world is higher than previous estimates though the pace of poverty reduction remained the same. The survey conducted by the World Bank sets a new poverty line of US$1.25 a day. It finds that 1.4 billion people (one in four) in the developing world were living below US$1.25 a day in 2005, down from 1.9 billion (one in two) in 1981. The number of poor people was however higher than an earlier estimate based on the 1993 best available cost of living data which found that 985 million people were living below the former international dollar a day poverty line in 2004. Nonetheless, the world has made significant progress in the fight against poverty. The percentage of people living below $1.25 a day was halved, falling from 52% to 26% over 1981-2005.

1.3 Goals for the 21st Century

Faced with the picture of an increasing global poverty and inequality, the international community had set itself several goals for the opening years of the century, based on discussions at various United Nations conferences in the 1990s. The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – which range from halving extreme poverty to halting the spread of HIV/AIDS and providing universal primary education, all by the target date of 2015 – form a blueprint agreed to by all the world's countries and the entire world's leading development institutions. They have stimulated extraordinary efforts to meet the needs of the worlds poorest.

The Millennium Development Goals Report for 2007 points out that the years since 2000, have seen some visible and widespread gains.

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5 - World Development Indicators 2004

6 - World Bank paper – "The developing world is poorer than we thought but no less successful in the fight against poverty"; 27th August 2008.

Box 2: Millennium Development Goals

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education

Goal3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality

Goal 5: Improve maternal health

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability

Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development.

These accomplishments testify to the unprecedented degree of commitment by developing countries and their development partners to the Millennium Declaration and to some success in building the global partnership embodied in the Declaration[7].

Currently, the projected shortfalls are most severe in sub-Saharan Africa. Even regions that have made substantial progress, including parts of Asia, face challenges in areas such as health and environmental sustainability. More generally, the lack of employment opportunities for young people, gender inequalities; rapid and unplanned urbanization, deforestation, increasing water scarcity, and high HIV prevalence are pervasive obstacles.

The following are some of the key challenges that need to be addressed:

- Over half a million women still die each year from treatable and preventable complications of pregnancy and childbirth.
- The number of people dying from AIDS worldwide increased to 2.9 million in 2006, and prevention measures are failing to keep pace with the growth of the epidemic.
- Half the population of the developing world lack basic sanitation.
- To some extent, these situations reflect the fact that the benefits of economic growth in the developing world have been unequally shared.
- Most economies have failed to provide employment opportunities to their youth, with young people more than three times as likely as adults to be unemployed.
- Warming of the climate is now unequivocal. Climate change is projected to have serious economic and social impacts, which will impede progress towards the MDGs.

1.4 Urban Poverty in India

Over the last 62 years since independence, India is rapidly transitioning into a nation of cities and according to UN projections, urban India is expected to race ahead of rural India in terms of population by 2025. The new millennium has presented India with an increasingly grim challenge of providing opportunity; empowerment and security to millions of disadvantaged urban residents, failing which the urbanisation gains achieved till date may soon recede into oblivion.

7- Millennium Development Goals Report for 2007
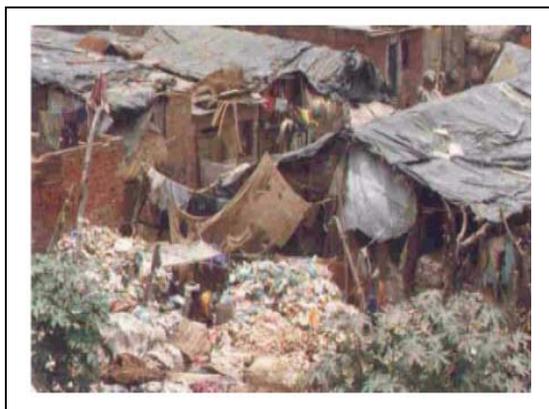
Figure 3: An Indian Slum

Urban growth is influenced by both the "pull" forces of economic opportunities in cities and the "push" factors of rural poverty and unemployment[10]. According to the Census of India 2001, in the last decade, as India grew at an average annual growth of 2%, urban India grew at 3%, mega cities at 4% and slum population rose by 5%. Though urbanization is a sign of economic progress, the resources needed to meet the increasing demand for facilities and public services in urban areas are lost to potential productive investment elsewhere in the economy[11]. The transfer of rural poverty to urban environment has led to mushrooming of slums in several Indian cities, which are lacking basic infrastructure, public services, water supply and sanitation. Poverty in India has been the focus of many debates and policies for decades. Most of this focus has been on rural poverty issues, but urban poverty being as prevalent as it is today, seeks equal attention.

The biggest cities are growing faster than smaller towns. India's mega-cities have the highest percentage of slum-dwellers in the country. This indicates that as big cities grow even larger, their slums will swell. The urban poor population in India is estimated to be nearly 8 corers currently, while the slum population is only 4 crores[12]. Our knowledge about the urban poor outside of slums is superficial. If there are as many urban poor living outside of slums, as there is living in slums, the focus of poverty alleviation should differ considerably from those aiming mainly to upgrade slums and provide job training. Policy makers need to understand the phenomenon of urbanisation in relation to economic growth and migration to address issues arising out of the growth in cities. Urban population and economic output tend to grow together. It is predicted that nearly 50% of India's population will be urban by the year 2030[13].

In India, urban poverty is defined in terms of minimum calorie intake, at 2100 calories per capita per day. The Planning Commission's revised methodology of 1997 results in an average poverty line for India of Rs. 353 per capita per month for 1996-97. This equals approximately Rs. 21,180 per household per annum.

On this basis, Planning Commission data indicates that the urban poor were estimated to be 7.5 crores, comprising 38% of the total urban population in 1988. This number rose to 7.63 crores in 1993-94, i.e. 32% of the total urban population. The number of Government sponsored Urban Poverty Alleviation Initiatives (UPAIs) being introduced year after year has increased, indicating that urban poverty has seen a gradual rise in importance for the policy-maker. The interest in addressing urban poverty peaked when the Planning Commission allocated a separate section to urban poverty in the 9th Five-Year Plan (1997-2002), putting focus on urban development and urban poverty alleviation. Urban poverty was until then considered an extension of rural poverty or part of general urban development issues.

However, even this scenerio has currently changed by the results of the new study conducted by the World Bank[14]. India, according to the new estimates, had 456 million people or about 42% of the population living below the new international poverty line of $1.25 per day in 2005.

10 - *Harpham, 1988.*
11 - *Lob Levyt, 1990.*
12 & 13 - *Urban Poverty Alleviation Initiatives in India: A General Assessment and a Particular Perspective (2002), a publication of the Ramanathan Foundation.*
14 - *The Developing World Is Poorer Than We Thought, But No Less Successful in the Fight against Poverty; The World Bank; August 2008*

The estimates are based on recently recalculated Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) exchange rates, which make comparisons across countries possible. They are based on national household surveys, but make adjustments for the purchasing power over goods across countries. Compared with previous years, new evidence on prices across countries suggests that life in India is more expensive than previously thought. That also means poverty is greater than previously estimated for the purpose of international comparison. But this makes no difference to India's internal assessment: it does not change anything for the official Indian poverty line. The poverty rate i.e. those below $1.25 per day, for India had come down from 59.8% in 1981 to 51.3% by 1990 or 8.5 percentage points over nine years. Between 1990 and 2005, it declined to 41.6%, a drop of 9.7 percentage points over 15 years, clearly a much slower rate of decline[15].

1.5 Role and Impact of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) & Five Year Plans in Eradication of Poverty in India:

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as adopted by the United States in September 2000 reiterated its mission to the right of development and peace, eradicate poverty, bring about security and gender equality and last but not the least, overall sustainable development. The goals, target and indicators had been set to stimulate effective action from all countries to achieve the development goal and eradicate poverty, inequality, illiteracy, hunger, disease, environmental degradations as indicated in the Declaration. This shall also provide concrete measurements of the progress the countries are making towards achieving the Goals.

In India, poverty reduction has always been an important goal. Consequently, a number of anti-poverty programmes have been launched to reduce the incidence of poverty in the country.

Table 1: shows the different schemes adopted by the Government during these three phases.

The Housing Phase (1952 – 1997)
1952: Subsidized Industrial Housing Scheme
1952: Housing for the Economically Weaker Sections
1954: Low income Group Housing Scheme
1954: National Building Organisation (NBO) was established
1956: The Slum Areas Improvement and Clearance (SAIC) Programme
1970: Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) founded
1980: The focus of the Minimum Needs Programme was shifted to urban affairs targeting BPL families and landless labourers.
1980: HUDCO's SS Sites and Services Scheme.
1988: The National Housing Policy
1988: The National Housing Bank was established as a subsidiary of the RBI
1988: The National Network of Building centres
1988: The Night Shelter Scheme
1990: Building Materials and Technology Promotion Council took over NBO's functions
1994: Estimates made by PC's Modified Expert Group.

The Welfare Phase (1952 – 2002)
1956: The SAIC (also an attempt to provide BSUP)
1958: Urban Community Development Programme
1961: Urban water supply and sanitation scheme
1962: Mid-Day Meal Programme (MNP)
1970: Special Nutrition Programme (MNP)
1979: Non Formal Education Programme
1979: Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT)
1982: National Health Policy (NHP)
1990: Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP)
1993: Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibited)
1996: National Slum Development Programme (NSDP)
1997: Targeted Public Distribution System
2001: Valmiki Ambedkar Malin Basti Awas Yojana (VAMBAY)

The Credit and Employment Phase (1977 – 1997)
1977: The Differential Rate of Interest expanded to include the urban poor
1989: Nehru Rozgar Yojana
1989: The NRY Scheme of Wage Employment for public assets creation
1993: The Scheme of Liberation and rehabilitation of Scavengers
1993: The Prime Minister's Rogar Yojana
1997: The Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana
a) The SJSRY Urban Self Employment Programme (USEP)
b) The SJSRY-USEP Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas (DWCUA)
c) The SJSRY-USEP Thrift and Credit Societies (TCS)

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15 – Growth Matters; the Financial Express; August 2008

The Government of India has from time to time adopted many Urban Poverty Alleviation Strategies. This can be divided into three main phases such as (1) The Housing Phase (1952 – 1997), (2) The Welfare Phase (1952 – 2002) and (3) The Credit and Employment Phase (1977 – 1997) [16].

The evolution in Urban Poverty Alleviation Strategies (UPAS) since Independence shows that the Government has progressed in understanding the needs of the urban poor and designing more appropriate schemes to alleviate urban poverty. In order to facilitate a better understanding of UPAS's a critical analysis of the life cycle of the various strategies adopted by the Government highlights that –

Pre Design

- UPASs do not have an empowerment approach
- The economics of urban poverty are not understood
- Housing programmes enjoy the highest level of priority
- The political power of others groups work against the interests of the poor
- Announcing new UPAS is more beneficial to politician than improving old schemes
- Eradicating urban poverty is a lower priority than eliminating rural poverty

Design

- Community participation is being increasingly included in design
- Urban poverty eradication programmes lack innovation
- Heterogeneous households are the basis for the delivering benefits.
- Training is not broad enough to prepare beneficiaries for self-employment.
- Programme designing is beginning to include NGOs, but their role can be more robust.
- Land use patterns are overlooked.

Implementation

- Allocated budgets are not spent.
- Results fall far short of expectation
- Information about schemes is limited
- Implementing agencies do not strictly follow financial and reporting rules and guidelines
- Planning and budgeting is faulty
- The focus on quantitative performance targets is too strong
- Releasing new or renamed schemes reduces continuity

However, as a result of implementation of the urban poverty eradication programmes, the incidence of poverty had declined in the country over the past few decades[17]. Poverty declined from 55% in 1973-74 to 26% in 1999-2000.

The reduction of proportion of people living below poverty line has been particularly sharp in the 1990s, when there has been a 10% points decline between 1993-1994 and 1999 – 2000[18]. These trends therefore indicate that India is on track with respect to the target of halving the proportion of people below poverty line as indicated in Goal 1 of the MDG.

16- Urban Poverty Alleviation in India, Vol. 1, Ramanathan Foundation 2002
17 - Urban Poverty Alleviation in India, Vol. 1, Ramanathan Foundation 2002
18 - Millennium Development Goals India Country Report 2005, Government of India.

The Tenth Plan (2002-2007) had for the first time taken note of the MDGs and included a number of targets to be achieved during the plan period. The Tenth Five-year Plan is firmly set within the Human Development framework. The Plan's stated objective is `to enhance human well being' (Tenth Plan, Volume 2, pp.3). Further, the Tenth Plan has set 11 monitorable targets most related to human development. These targets are more ambitious than the MDGs. Box points out the monitorable targets set out for the Tenth Plan and beyond. To achieve MDG 1, India must reduce by 2015 the proportion of people below poverty line from 37.5 % in 1990 to 18.75% and prevalence of underweight children is of the order of 47%[19].

The Eleventh Plan (2008-2012) also addresses the issues of urban poverty alleviation in a systematic, scientific and time-bound manner adopting the Mission approach with target orientation with focus on skill up gradation, entrepreneurship development. Wage employment etc.

Table 2: Monitorable Targets – Tenth Plan (2002-2007)

Monitorable Targets – Tenth Plan			
Indicators	1999-2000	2007	2012
Poverty Ratio	26%	21%	11%
Access to Primary Education	94%$	100%	-
Literacy Rate for 2001	65%	72%	80%
Infant Mortality Rate*	72	45	28
Maternal Mortality Ratio*	4	2	1
Increase in Forest/Tree Cover	19%	25%	33%
Decadal Population Growth#	21.3%		16.2%
* Per thousand live birth $ - for 1995 # - for 1991-01 & 2001-11			

Source: http://planningcommission.gov.in/plans/planrel/pl49ndc/pl49dcsp.htm

The convergence of service delivery to the urban poor through various Central and State Government programmes targeting the urban poor needs hardly any emphasis.

1.6 Approaches to urban poverty eradication actions in India

In a country as large and diverse as India, the proportion of those living below the poverty line is not uniform throughout the country. There are States like Bihar and Orissa in the eastern part of the country where the poverty ratio was estimated to be 40% in 1999-2000, while in States like Haryana, Himachal Pradesh and Punjab, the ratio is under 10%. It needs to be noted that India has got different poverty line at the sub-national level. One uniform poverty line for the country as a whole would underestimate poverty levels in the urban areas and overestimate poverty levels in rural regions. In fact, the US 1$ per day poverty line being used for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) tends to significantly overstate poverty in the country despite the fact that it is roughly equal to the weighted average of the India poverty line. However, rates of increase of urban poverty have marked urbanisation statistics in India. Presently close to 80 million poor live in urban areas, constituting 30 per cent of the urban population[20].

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19 - Millennium Development Goals India Country Report 2005, Government of India.
20 - The slum census of India 2001

If such trend continues there will be close to 200 million urban poor in India in the next quarter of the century. The slum census of India 2001 records socio-economic details of urban poor residing in slums in 640 cities and towns having 50,000 populations or more but similar information for small and medium towns is scanty. Figure shows the slum population in million plus cities in India.

Figure 4: Slum Population in million plus cities in India
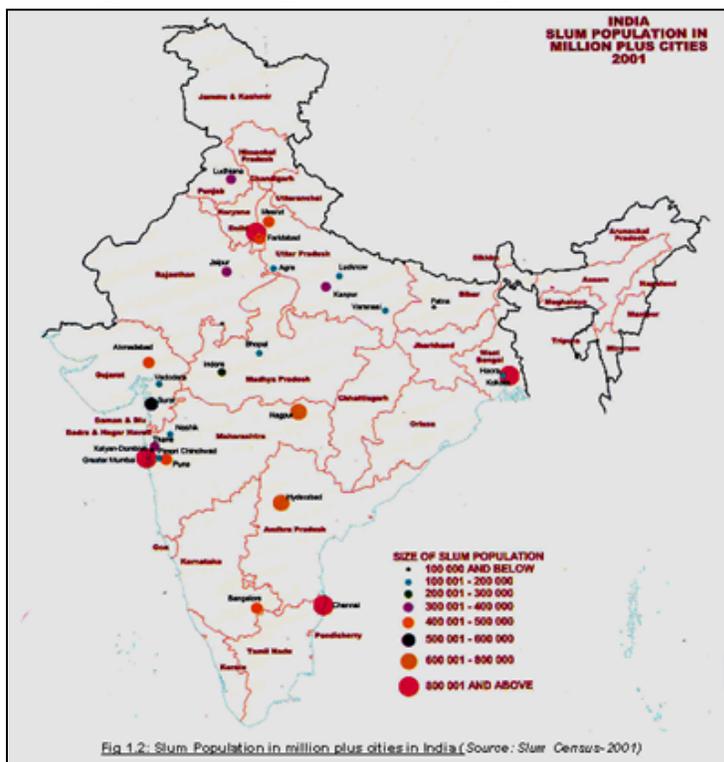
Source: Slum Census-2001

Therefore, It is clear that governmental and institutional frameworks have to be designed in place of piece-meal approaches (a slum improvement here or a drain repair there) to achieve efficiency of deliverance.

Such well intentioned but scattered efforts needed convergence, strength and scale under a comprehensive umbrella. Such convergence could be easily achieved under the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act that was ratified in 1992, but is still a long way from becoming fully functional due to limited capacities of ULBs, conflicting political interests and overlapping powers and jurisdictions of ULBs and development authorities. The concept of local government institutions being responsible for local service delivery in India goes back to 1870 when the concept of elected representatives in the municipalities was introduced and the Resolution of 18 May 1882 on local self- government dealt with the constitution of local bodies, their functions, finances and powers and laid the foundation of local self-government in modern India. Post-Independence, the structure has not changed much, though urban areas and their problems have magnified. Efficient local self-government is increasingly being recognized as the most effective solution to all urban problems including poverty. The 74th CAA proposes a uniform local governance structure for urban areas throughout the country.

The basis behind decentralization of powers is the local knowledge that equips ULBs to efficiently deliver services and improve quality of life of people of that city/town and their capacity to enhance peoples' participation. The Twelfth Schedule of the 74th CAA lists the

functions of the local bodies. Slum up gradation and improvement and Poverty Alleviation are directly stated as two of the eighteen functions. Only with the 74th CAA fully operational, can urban poverty be tackled effectively.

Recently, a significant paradigm shift has been observed in the frameworks of multilateral agencies and NGOs and civil society, where, slum level improvements have been replaced by city level strategies and state/national level policies so that the latter can lead to the former. All projections and studies with regard to urban poverty in India point at the need of policies and strategies oriented towards amelioration of the status of urban poor. Since 1998, several leading donor agencies like United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), World Bank, The European Commission, DFID and others have emerged with a common understanding regarding overall sustainable development. These are:

- Encouraging partnerships between private sector, government and civil society.
- Developing employment creation involving the urban poor.
- Promoting urban governance including engagement with civil society.
- Strengthening urban management at local (municipal), state and national level.
- Undertaking sector specific interventions.
- Improving environmental Quality.

Therefore, to bring about a better provision of affordable civic services and better opportunities for employment and other entitlements for the urban poor urban poverty reduction strategies are needed to be grounded and implemented at the local/city level.

However, scaling up requires simultaneous efforts by both national and local governments to eliminate impediments at both levels. While central government addresses policy matters and regulatory impediments nationally and initiate nationwide programmes, local authorities should design strategies to make appropriate interventions and regulatory changes in the cities. Local experiences should also be fed back to the central governments to influence their support to cities as well as for redesigning national programs.

Figure 5: National Local Feedback processes for Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies
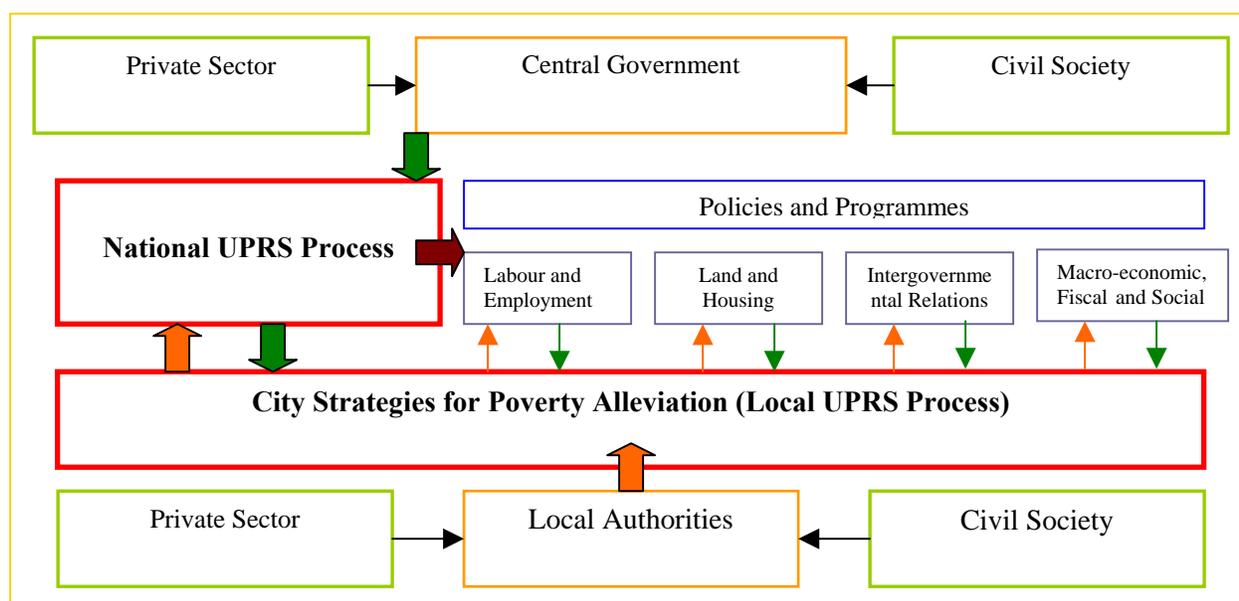
1.7 The UPRS Project –

1.7.1 Background

The current approach of the Government of India to tackle urban poverty is three pronged. The first is to provide urban poor with housing and infrastructure. This aspect is covered under the ambit of the flagship urban development programme–the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM). The second, also a part of JNNURM, is to ensure institutional reforms to facilitate decentralization as envisaged in the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (74th CAA) and to ensure accountability of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) to the citizens. The third approach is to facilitate access to livelihoods / employment through policies like the National Policy for Urban Street Vendors (NPUSV) and programmes like the Swarn Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY).

The **Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM)** tries to address the problem of urban poverty, is sub-divided into two sub-missions: the sub-mission on urban infrastructure and governance and the sub-mission on basic services to the urban poor. The objectives of the JNNURM with respect to urban poor are:

- Focused attention on integrated development of basic services to the urban poor (BSUP) in the 63 mission cities. BSUP includes security of tenure at affordable prices, improved housing, water supply, sanitation and ensuring delivery through convergence of other already existing universal services of the government for education, health and social security. Ideally, the urban poor should be provided housing near their place of work.
- Effective linkages between asset creation and asset management so that assets created in mission cities are not only maintained efficiently but also become self-sustaining over time.
- Ensure adequate funds to fulfill deficiencies in BSUP.
- Scale up delivery of civic amenities and provision of utilities with emphasis on universal access to urban poor.

The multidimensional character of poverty needs to be analysed both with reference to the framework of asset ownership and to the cumulative impacts of poverty in its many dimensions. Having established the intricacies and complex relations and cumulative impacts of the different dimensions of poverty, one of the ways to address urban poverty is through a 'livelihood perspective'.

The discussion on Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRSs) revolves around the two moot questions - the reasons 'why people are poor' and how can they be 'brought out of poverty'. Therefore, it is important that strategies for poverty alleviation are appropriately targeted, involve community participation and are innovative.

In partnership with **UNDP**, the **Government of India** (Ministry of Poverty Alleviation) aims to strategically address the various dimensions of urban poverty resulting in concrete projects for improvement of conditions of urban poor pan-country. Under the broad umbrella of the **"National Strategy for Urban Poor",** theoretical understanding of urban poverty, statistical projections and on-ground realities have to be brought together to arrive at poverty reduction strategies for urban poor that will be city-specific. These will strengthen the ULBs by facilitating exchange of information at various levels, setting up of urban poverty resource centres and developing an organized institutional framework within the state and ULBs that will lead to proper implementation of the 74th CAA.

12

In addition to the other initiatives under NSUP, Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies have been prepared for eleven Indian Cities (10 of which are 'mission' cities) National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) has been monitoring and evaluating the strategies being prepared by various partner agencies under the guidance of UNDP and Ministry of Poverty Alleviation. NIUA has also prepared the Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy for Jaipur in addition to being the coordinating and monitoring agency for the project.

It may be pointed out here that City Development Plans (CDPs) have been prepared for all the 63 JNNURM cities. However, there is a clear need for CDPs to promote integrated strategies for the urban poor in these cities. In order to address this lacuna, it has been decided that Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRSs) for 11 JNNURM cities will be prepared under the GoI-UNDP project on National Strategy for the Urban Poor. These eleven cities comprise two mega cities (Kolkata and Chennai) three cities with 4 million plus population (Ahmedabad, Bangalore and Hyderabad) and five cities with 1 million plus population (Ludhiana, Chandigarh, Jaipur, Pune and Indore) and Ambala (a non-JNNURM city for an alternative perspective).

1.7.2 Main objectives of UPRS

The UPRSs focus on improving the living conditions of the urban poor and advancing their quality of life. Emphasis has been laid on providing a broader spectrum of livelihood options for the poor. It is expected that this will, in turn, improve the quality of life of the city as a whole. The focus of the UPRS has been on promoting the following:

1 Sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources for addressing the needs of the urban poor.
2 Promoting participation of the urban poor in the UPRS.
3 Promoting pro-poor institutional reforms

1.7.3 Methodology

In order to fulfil the objectives, mentioned UPRS for 11 cities have been prepared. The preparation of UPRS was undertaken by NGOs working with the urban poor in each city.

The 11 cities selected for UPRS are:

11 Selected Cities
1. Kolkata
2. Chennai
3. Ahmedabad
4. Bangalore
5. Hyderabad
6. Ludhiana
7. Chandigarh
8. Jaipur
9. Pune
10. Indore
11. Ambala

The UPRS prepared are a culmination of a series of interim reports prepared through consultations. Each stage of preparation is summarised below.

Stage 1: Inception Report

The first step in the preparation of the UPRS has been the collection of secondary data related to the urban poor in all the 11 cities. This involved collection and analysis of secondary data from various sources – Census of India 2001, Municipal Corporation (MC), Development Authorities, Public Health Engineering Department, Town and Country Planning Organization (TCPO), Local Self Government office, office of the Collect orate, NGOs etc.

Secondary data on the details related to the urban poor on - demography, socio-economics, status of basic services in the slums and livelihood has been collected at the ward level from secondary sources. Maps on the same were prepared. The ward-wise distribution and concentration of slums and basic socio-economic analysis is presented in this report. The issues identified as per the City Development Plan (CDP) were also analysed.

The questionnaire for carrying out the primary survey in stage 2 was finalized based on local conditions. Detailed Approach, Methodology and Work Plan were also prepared.

Stage 2: Snapshot Study

The 'snapshot' of the urban poor in each city is a documentation of the entire range of issues of urban poor that needs to be addressed. This involved collection, collation and presentation of data about the urban poor according to the following broad categories:

- **Living conditions**: location and condition of residence, quality of construction of residence, proximity and ease of access to basic services (water supply, sanitation, waste disposal, electricity); transportation, health and educational facilities; other problems such as social security.

- **Livelihood conditions**: sectors employing the urban poor, income earned, existing level of education and skills etc.

- **Existing government programmes** which affect the urban poor: objectives, present status and desired linkages.

- Based on the above, **slum - wise fact sheets** were prepared. After a vulnerability assessment of the slums in the city, six slums were taken up for detailed study through a household survey based on stratified random sampling.

Stage 3: Detailed slum study: Report of case studies

The case studies were taken up in three to six different locations of the city so that a variegated and fairly comprehensive idea of the conditions of the urban poor could be looked into. The case studies have been built on the data already collected during stages 1 and 2 above, by going into greater detail into the thrust areas defined in the previous stage 2: basic services, housing and livelihood. This included:

- Detailed household level surveys and analysis of data gathered for the selected settlements

- A comparative tables of the six case studies

- Detailed analysis of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT analysis)

Stage 4: Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy

The baseline survey and detailed sample survey of select slums have been used as pointers to arrive at the interventions required for improving the existing situation in each city. Each of the strategies is based on problems and issues identified in the previous stages. This is followed by phased action plan for each city.

1.7.4 Consultations & Workshops

The series of interim reports have been peer received at various stages of preparation by a committee of experts comprising of representatives from the MoHUPA, UNDP, State Government, Municipal Corporations, members of Urban Poverty Cells of various cities, experts and representatives from bi-lateral and multi-lateral organizations and other related stakeholders.

In collaboration with the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA), convened a consultative meet at the Institute on 24th April 2008, to disseminate the findings of all the citywide Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRS). The Secretary of MoHUPA, Dr. H.S. Anand, chaired the workshop. Other eminent panellists were Dr. P. K. Mohanty, Joint Secretary, MoH&UPA and National Project Director (NSUP), Shri. Alkesh Sharma, National Project Coordinator (NSUP), Prof. Chetan Vaidya, Director NIUA, State Secretaries, City Commissioners and representatives of the partner agencies working under the project.

In the three technical sessions, the representatives of partner agencies involved in the preparation of the citywide UPRSs made presentations. Mr. Manohar Kant, Commissioner Jaipur Municipal Corporation, Mr. P.K.Jha, Special Secretary (UD), Goa and Mr. Vikas Pratap Singh, Commissioner Ludhiana Municipal Corporation chaired the technical sessions of the workshop. At the end of each technical session, the panel members gave brief comments. Subsequently the floor was left open for interactions on each presentation.

The following points came up across all presentations

- Pro-poor schemes should be self-sustained
- With regard to skill development, the extent of "value added services by urban poor" should be looked upon.
- In-situ slum up gradation should be stressed upon vis-à-vis relocation. Relocation should be carried out only in places where it is not at all possible to carry out in-situ measures
- Issues related to urban poor in the current CDPs and DPRs find mention only in a couple of UPRS reports.
- Up scaling of best practices at the city level

Based on the outcome of the workshop, MoHUPA suggested that a combined report of all UPRS's be prepared. This report has been collated based on the suggestions bought out from the workshop. The main idea behind this UPRS is to understand local conditions, identify core issues and challenges, set out an inclusive perspective and vision for the future development of a city.

Chapter 2
General Profile of Select Cities

There is a large variation in terms of spatial spread, population size and geographical location of the cities for which UPRSs have been prepared – each city is located in a different state. Almost half of them have a population of around one million each. The list of cities is given below. This chapter presents a brief of the UPRS of each city.

Mega Cities	*Cities with 4 million plus population*	*Cities with 1 million plus population*
1 Kolkata 2 Chennai	3 Ahmedabad 4 Bangalore 5 Hyderabad	6 Ludhiana 7 Chandigarh 8 Jaipur 9 Pune 10 Indore 11 Ambala
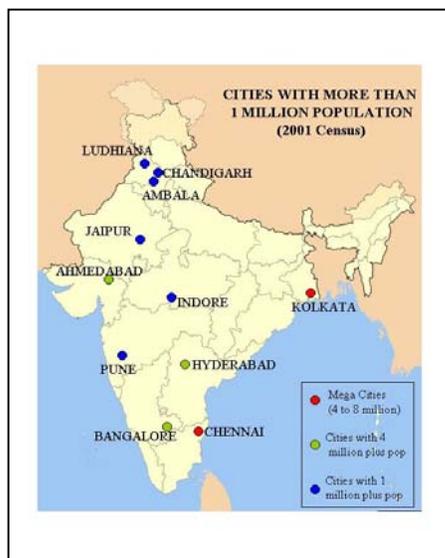
Figure6: Locational Map of the 11 select cities

2.1 Mega Cities – Kolkata and Chennai

Kolkata and Chennai are the elite cities of India. They are elite not only because of their size, population and coastal location but also because of the role they play in all aspects of human endeavour. Among the most important cities of modern India, first there was Kolkata- the political, cultural, educational and economic capital of British India. Chennai, too steadily gained in stature. The two cities are also among the first metro cities of India.

The Kolkata Metropolitan Area (KMA) stretching over 1851 sq km and enveloping as many as 41 Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) including three Municipal Corporations and 24 Panchayat Samities is the largest metropolis in Eastern India with a disproportionate demographic and economic predominance. The infrastructural profile does indicate severe deficits in basic infrastructure provision as well as spatial inequality thereof within the boundaries of KMA. Kolkata being one of the oldest cities in the country does exhibit blighted areas within the old city areas. That calls for renewal and redevelopment
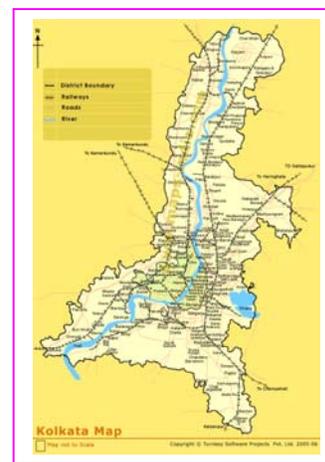
Figure 7: Kolkata Metropolitan Area

16

Figure 8: Chennai Urban Agglomeration

so as to provide a better environment and organized facilities for future growth.

Chennai Urban Agglomeration (CUA) is spread over an area of 571.93 sq. km and Chennai City (present study area), which covers an area of about 174 sq. km accounts for major portion of it. Chennai City had a population of 4.22 million in 2001, accounting for 15.48 percent of State's urban population of 27.24 million. It is the fourth most populous metropolitan city in India. According to the Census of India - 2001 out of 42.16 lakhs persons who live in Chennai, 8.2 lakhs persons are reported to have inadequate access to shelter and basic services. Most of them are slum dweller. In Chennai Municipal Corporation Area, a total of 1473 slums, 242 slums housing 71840 slum families were classified as undeveloped slums. 122 slums were categorized as slums located in objectionable areas, which include those owned by the private parties.

2.2 Cities with 4 million plus population – Ahmedabad, Bangalore and Hyderabad

These are the modern elite cities of India. During 1970s, Bangalore and Ahmedabad entered common acceptance as one of the driving forces of modern India. 1980s and 90s have seen the emergence of Hyderabad into this select club.

Ahmedabad is one of the largest cities in western India, located in the highly industrialized and urbanized state of Gujarat on the west coast. The city has sprawled from 108.24 sq. km. in 1971 to 190.85 sq. km. in 2001. The area within Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation (AMC) boundary was 190.84 sq. km in 2001, while total urbanised area outside the AMC boundary was 67.79 sq. km totalling to 258.63 Sq. km. The urban area surrounding AMC comes under Ahmedabad Urban Development Authority (AUDA). Ahmedabad has a population of 3.52 million in 2001 as against 2.87 million in 1991.
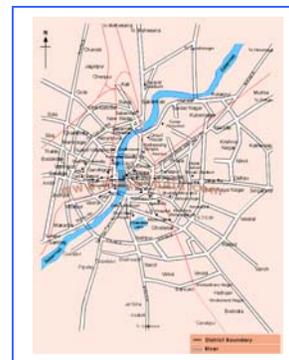
Figure 9: Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation
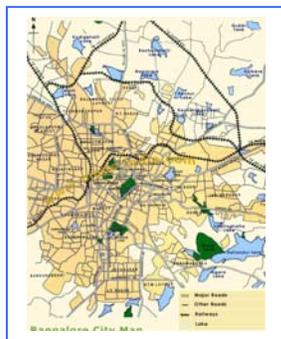
Figure 10: Bangalore Development Authority

Bangalore has been witnessing exponential growth in population (with an estimated population of 5.7 million as per Census 2001). It is the fifth largest city in the country and amongst the fastest growing. It is now recognized as a Global city and a preferred destination of many global corporations to position their businesses. The challenge before Bangalore Municipal Corporation is to meet the unprecedented demand for a high level of 'citizen services' and the need to address equity issues in service provision. Slums are an integral part of Bangalore and contribute significantly to the city economy both through their labour market contributions and informal production activities and therefore merit integration in a long-term plan.

17
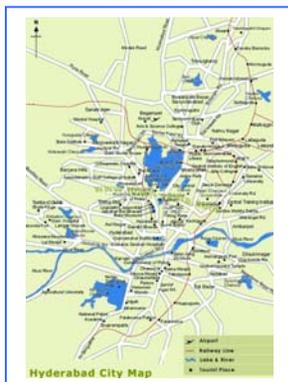
Figure 11: Hyderabad Metropolitan Area

Hyderabad is the capital of Andhra Pradesh - the fifth largest state in India, both in area and population. In absolute figures, it had swelled from 1.83 millions in 1901 to 20.5 millions in 2001. It is one of the fastest growing cities in the country. The growth patterns and trends of Hyderabad Urban Agglomeration (HUA) reveal some interesting insights. There has been an overall moderation in the growth rate of HUA and its constituent areas, which clearly indicates that much of the growth has shifted to the areas/jurisdictions outside the HUA, which constitute a part of the proposed larger Hyderabad Metropolitan Area (HMA). Much of the growth in Hyderabad is now taking place due to the growth of information technology, BPOs etc. which are increasingly concentrating in the outer area. Besides, large manufacturing and integrated Special Economic Zones (SEZs) are expected to come up here. The city is characterized by a very significant presence of the slum population. Slum settlements have multiplied over decades and the living conditions of the poor have not improved. They are scattered across the city and surrounding municipalities, with high population densities and the number of people inhabiting them are estimated to be around two million.

2.3 Cities with 1 million plus population – Ludhiana, Chandigarh, Jaipur, Pune, Indore and Ambala
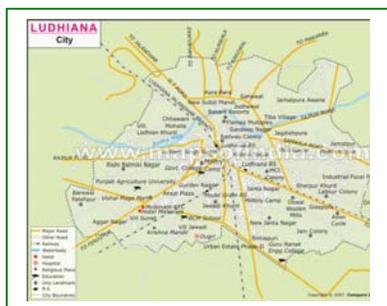
Figure 12: Ludhiana Municipal Corporation Area

These are cities that can be. They can eventually be the elite centres of India like Pune, Chandigarh and Ludhiana. Many of these cities are state capitals like Jaipur that need better infrastructure and public services. Some such as Indore have been threatening to break into the big league for many years but never quite managed it. Others like Ambala are technically not a single city; rather a collection of small towns clustered around each other and is dependent on elite cities.

Ludhiana is a major industrial town of northern India. The city is spread over an area of 159.37 sq. km and accommodates approximately 14.00 lakhs persons (Census of India 2001). The city has the largest population in Punjab accounting for 1.39 million persons according to the Census of India, 2001. Ludhiana had an urban population of 13.98 lakh, consisting of 2.68 lakh households. (Census of India, 2001) With the increase in population and expansion of city limits, it was made a Class I Municipality in 1949 and a Municipal Corporation in 1977. Now it is the largest Municipal Corporation of Punjab with an area of more than 169 sq. kms. The rapid and immense industrialization of Ludhiana city has resulted in the emergence of several slum colonies in and around the city. Many people migrate to Ludhiana for employment in industries (from other cities of Punjab as well as other States of India). There is no formal housing for industrial workers, due to which there are
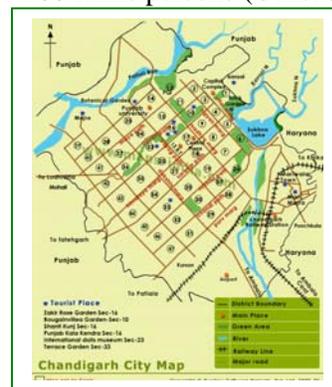
Figure 13: Chandigarh City Map

many slums that have come up near the industrial areas.

The Union Territory of Chandigarh has been regarded as a model experiment in urban planning and modern Indian architecture of the twenty first century and thus commonly referred as "the city beautiful" It is derives its name "Chandigarh" from the temple of "Chandi Mandir" located in the vicinity. Chandigarh is a major city in north India, which covers over an area of 114 sq km or 15000 acres of land to the North of Delhi. It includes 18 villages, eighteen rehabilitated colonies and 22 labour colonies within its bounds. Presently the city has the total population of 9,00,635 according to 2001 census amounting to high population density of 7,900 persons /sq. km. This coupled with the city's ideal living conditions, good health and educational opportunities for families, makes Chandigarh a preferred city. Ideal place where people establish their families while they work in adjoining states, which is termed as "out migration". Reasonably good living conditions and availability of resources in offering diverse employment opportunities and means of livelihood is the chief cause of migration to the city. Since migration of this scale was not factored in the planning process, it has resulted in haphazard growth of settlements, giving rise to mushrooming of slums. Settlements of the migrants most often were based on the low cost criteria, which were in the vicinity to working places.
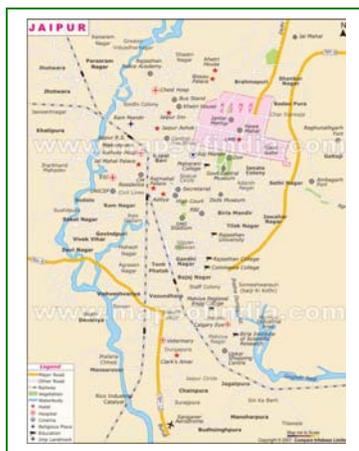
Figure 14: Jaipur Municipal Corporation Area

Jaipur is one of the first planned cities of India. Jaipur City was planned and constructed by Sawai Jai Singh II, in seven years starting in 1727. His reign was the most glorious phase in the growth of the city. The Jaipur municipality was reorganized in 1926 and a new municipal act was prepared in 1929. Post independence, planned development of the city was taken up by the Jaipur Development Authority after the city became the capital of Rajasthan. Jaipur ranks 11th with a total of 2.3 million population in India. It is one of the fastest growing mega cities of the country with an annual average growth rate of 4.5% as compared to the national urban growth rate, which is only 2%. The Jaipur region/Jaipur Development Authority (JDA) area has an extent of 1464 Sq. Km and the area of Jaipur Municipal Corporation has grown from 200 sq.km in 1981 to 218 sq. km in 1991 to 288 sq.km in 2001. In terms of share, 87% of the total population lives in the JMC area, of which 7% lives in the walled city. Its high rate of urbanization is attributed to its institutional, administrative, trading and tourism based economic activities. It provides one with better employment opportunities and living conditions. The urban-urban inter-state migration (53.4 %) to Jaipur is more than rural-urban (46.6 %) migration, implying population migration from smaller urban centers. Slums in Jaipur are known as 'kachhi bastis'. From 1971 onwards, there has been a rapid growth in kachhi bastis due to rapid urbanization in the whole city. Most of the slums lack basic amenities like drains, sewerage system and solid waste management.

Pune is one of the major cities of Maharashtra State and is located on the Deccan Plateau. It is close to Mumbai the state's administrative and financial capital. The city covers a total area of 243.96 sq.km i.e. more than double the area of
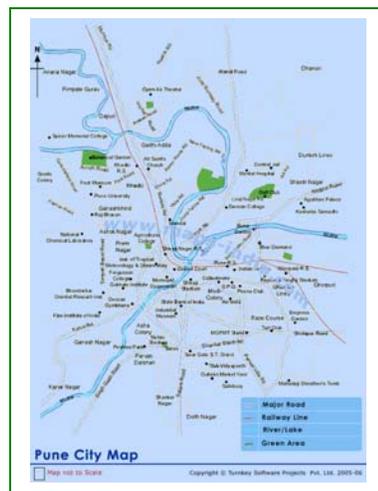
Figure 15: Pune Municipal Corporation Area

Chennai Municipal Corporation. About 42% of the land in Pune is zoned residential. The population of Pune has increased from 4,88,419 in 1951 to 25,40,069 in 2001. This increase in the population has resulted in urbanization of the city's fringe areas and their subsequent incorporation into the city limits. The decadal growth of Pune's population shows a 50% increase in the population within the last decade. Pune is considered one of the fastest growing cities in the country today and its economic growth is accompanied with the growth in the urban poor population of the city. It is estimated that currently about 35-40 percent of Pune's total population lives in slums. Of the 2,538,473 population of Pune, 40% are living in slums (i.e. more than 10 lakh persons). The size of the slums varies from a few hutments to highly consolidated slums having more than 500 hutments. The Municipal Corporation has been working for the urban poor in the city, such that the conditions of basic services and livelihood are seen to be much better than in other parts of the country.
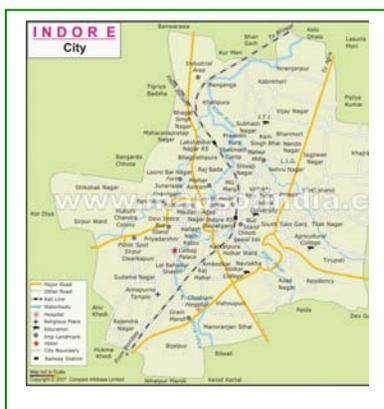
Figure 16: Indore Municipal Corporation Area

Indore is one of the fastest growing Tier II cities in India and is the commercial capital of central India. It is the largest city in the state with a population of 1,597,441 in 2001; its rate of growth, except in one decade (1981-91) has been higher than the national average and was higher than the state average in 1991-2001. The city is growing fast. Indore is strategically located as a business centre between Gujarat, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and the city of Bhopal. Migrations from its hinterland and other states of India to Madhya Pradesh have resulted in a large slum population, with mixed socio-economic profile. Spread over 130.17 sq. km, the city's average population density was 12,290 persons per sq. km. in 2001, with a disproportionate high number of 33,742 persons per sq. km. in the 19.42 sq. km. slum area. Slums or poor settlement colonies are usually devoid of basic amenities and infrastructure . A few of the slums have concrete housing structures while in most of the slums semi-pucca and temporary shelters are the norm.

Ambala is one of the historically famous and strategically important towns of Haryana. The city was explored and developed during British period. It is surmised that Ambala was founded by Amba Rajput during the 14th century AD. Another version is that the name is a corruption of Amba Wala or the mango-village judging from mango groves that existed in its immediate neighborhood. Ambala is a major railway junction. G.T. Road (NH-1, National Highway 1) passes through Ambala cantt and Ambala city. This town is surrounded by two rivers namely Ghaggar and Tangri. Ambala is 45 kms from Chandigarh and 200 kms from the national capital. Ambala is bifurcated in Ambala City and Ambala Sadar. There are two Municipal Councils in Ambala, which manage the local affairs separately in both the towns. Ambala city has a total population of 1, 39,279 as per 2001 census. The overall urban density in Ambala has grown from 4134 to 5159 persons per square km. With the growing urban population, slum population has also been growing in the city. The Census has reported 22,043 persons (15.83% of total population of the city) in slums. As per 2005-06 survey by District Urban Development

Figure 17: Ambala City and Ambala Sadar

Agency (DUDA), it stands at 62,346. Ambala Sadar is not as large as Ambala city, but its

20

population has also grown rapidly in the recent past. According to Census of India 2001, the number of people living in slums was 41,443, which according to Municipal Council survey conducted in 2005-06 increased to 62,346.

2.4 Comparative Study Of The Cities

The next few pages present a synthesis of the primary and secondary data collated for the UPRS cities. Attemp has been made to arrive at inferences after clubbing the cities into three braod categories – mega cities, those with 4 million plus population and lastly those with one million plus population.

2.5 Slum Profile

For the first time systematic information on slum population was collected in the Census of India, 2001. About 42.6 million persons are reported to live in slums of 640 cities/towns spread over 26 states that constitutes nearly 15% of urban population of the country. 26 million plus cities accounted for nearly 42 % of total slum population in cities/towns. The percentage of slum population varies considerably among million plus cities. The table below shows percentage of slum population to the total population and the educational level. According to Census of India 2001 figures, one in three persons in Kolkata is a slum dweller (about 33% of the urban population). This is the highest among the cities studied. Bangalore had the lowest slum population of 10%. On an average, in almost all the cities more than one third male slum dwellers are literate and more than 60% female are literate (Table 4). The tables presented below are an outcome of the secondary data collected as part of the study.

Table 4: Percentage of Slum Population to total population and literacy

Cities	Total Population of the city in 2001 (in million)	Slum Population in 2001 (in million)	% of slum population to total population	Literacy rate of slum population	
				Male	Female
Mega Cities:					
Chennai	4.34	0.82	18.9	82.9	69.6
Kolkata	4.58	1.49	32.6	77.7	67.8
Cities with 4 million plus populations:					
Ahmedabad	3.52	0.47	13.5	74.9	53.8
Hyderabad	3.63	0.62	17.2	77.1	64.5
Bangalore	4.3	0.43**	10	75.3	63
Cities with 1 million plus populations:					
Ludhiana	1.39	0.31***	22.5	80.6	74.3
Chandigarh	0.9	0.11*****	13.2	64.9	39.5
Jaipur	2.32	0.37	15.9	73	47
Indore	1.47	0.26	17.7	87	69.7
Pune	2.53	0.49	19.4	83.6	65.8
Ambala (City + Sadar)	0.24	0.06	25.73	NA	NA

Source: Census of India 2001
* HUDA Master Plan 2011, Hyderabad Vision 2020,
**0.61 according to Karnataka Slum Clearance Board (2005) and 1.49 according to CDP (2007) (estimated)
***0.16 in 2006 according to City Development Plan, Ludhiana (2006)
****Tenth Five-Year Special Component Plan 2002-2007 and Annual Special Component Plan 2002-03 for Scheduled Caste, Government of Punjab (June, 2002).
*****3.5 lakhs according to Municipal Corporation of Chandigarh 2007
******Project Director, SJSRY Cell, Department of Urban Development, Haryana

Table 5: Number of slums surveyed in select cities

Cities	Number of Slums in the city	Number of slums surveyed	% slum surveyed to total number of slums
Mega Cities			
Chennai	1473	242	16.43
Kolkata	5072	669	13.19
Cities with 4 million plus population			
Ahmedabad*	710	40	5.63
Hyderabad	1001	792	79.12
Bangalore	614	115	18.73
Cities with 1 million plus population			
Ludhiana	209	209	100
Chandigarh	40	40	100
Jaipur	184	182	99
Indore	604	604	100
Pune	564	100	18
Ambala (City + Sadar)	78	78	100

*Note: 40 slums and 45 chawls have been surveyed in Ahmedabad
Source: Primary Survey conducted by each Agencies in 2007

Table 5 gives an overview of the proportion of the slums surveyed in the cities. In some smaller cities, the total number of slums were lesser. They also comprised fewer households. In such instances, attempts were made to survey more slums. In larger and sprawling cities, it was difficult to survey all slums, due to resource constraints. In such cases, when the case study of slums were taken up, larger number of household were surveyed. It may be noted that in Chennai, Hyderabad and Indore, a large majority of slum dwellers are BPL families. But in other cities, the proportion of BPL in slums varied from 12% to 39%, the lowest in Kolkata.

2.6 Location Of Slums And Ownership Of Land

Spatial distribution of slum across the municipal ward reveals concentration in some wards in most cities. Slums continue to grow for various reasons. It needs to be recognised that the continuos urban growth, prevailing speculative trends in the urban land market and inadequate formal supply of housing has perpetuated haphazard and informal growth. The poor are then perceived as illegal residents of city. Notification of a slum by local bodies or development authorities under the slum act is an official recognition and bestows significant benefits. Mega cities like Kolkata and Chennai, have reported 80% of notified slums in the city. Cities like Ludhiana and Chandigarh the number of notified slums is very less.

An aggregate picture of ownership of slums in the cities surveyed reveals that 53% of land belonged to public sector, 41% to private and 3% to pother bodies like temples, mosques, etc. In cities like Chennai, Chandigarh, Pune and Bangalore, most of the slums were situated on public land.

Figure 18: Distribution of Land Ownership in the 11 select cities

Land Ownership (%)
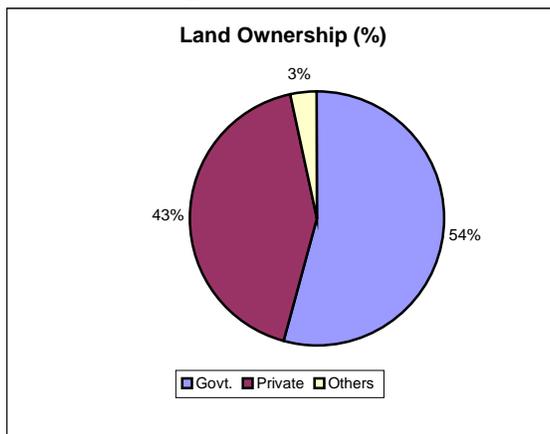
Source: Primary Survey ,2007

2.7 Environmental Sensitivity Of Slum Areas

River margins, seashores, areas adjoining roads and railway lines, nallahs or drains, valleys, low-lying areas, forests, waterlogged areas, industrial areas, etc. are environmentally sensitive. Land areas adjoining low-lying areas, rivers, waterways and nallahs are prone to frequent flooding and subsidence.

On an overall across cities, a vast majority of slums are located in such areas as the diagram below shows. In Kolkata about 20% slums are located on waterlogged areas. Around 8% slums are located in the hilltops, along railways and are in the industrial areas like in Ahmedabad, Hyderabad, Jaipur and Ludhiana. In Chennai, a number of them exist along the seashores.

Vijay Nagar – A slum located on the foothills of the Aravalies. Mostly comprising semi-pucca houses and pucca houses
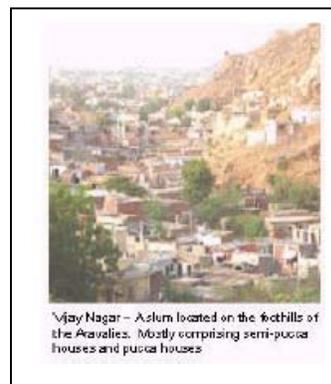
Figure 19: Categories of Environmentally Sensitive Slum Areas in the 11 select cities.

Environmental Sensitive slum areas (%)

Source: Primary Survey ,2007

23
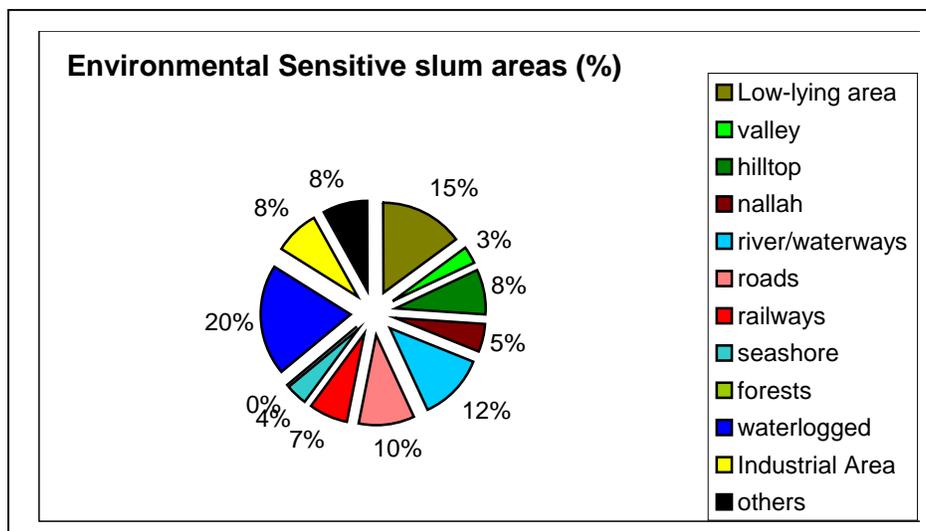
2.8 Housing Condition

Despite the exterior appearance of chaos, slum life is highly structured with many economic, religious, caste and other interests expressed in daily life. Living conditions are extremely difficult and slum dwellers fear a constant threat and feeling of insecurity in "their home".

In Chennai, about quarter of the total slum housing stock is pucca in nature. The composition of semi-pucca and kutcha was 52 percent and 26 percent respectively. Across the city, families with own houses ranged from 65 percent to 85 percent. Several house owners (about 84.5 percent) did not enjoy patta (ownership deed) for their houses but this also varied across the city. In Kolkata, the dwelling houses can barely accommodate the members and most household activities including cooking and washing are performed in very unhygienic environs, thus exposing the members to various health hazards. In Bangalore, those living in kutcha and semi-pucca houses have a greater tendency to defecate in the open. The positive point is that a number of them realise this and are willing to pay for a new house or improvement of house, and a toilet. In Chandigarh more than two third of slums houses are pucca, nearly one fourth are kutcha and only a slight proportion is semi pucca. Almost all (nearly 95%) of the slum houses are being used for residential purpose and only a fraction of houses are being used for commercial purpose. Of the total houses being used for commercial purpose, 90 % are owned and only about 10 % run on rented premises. Similar situations are seen in other cities like Ludhiana, Pune and Ambala.

Figure 20: Ownership of Dwelling Units

Ownership of Dwelling Units

34%

66%

□ OWNED
□ RENTED
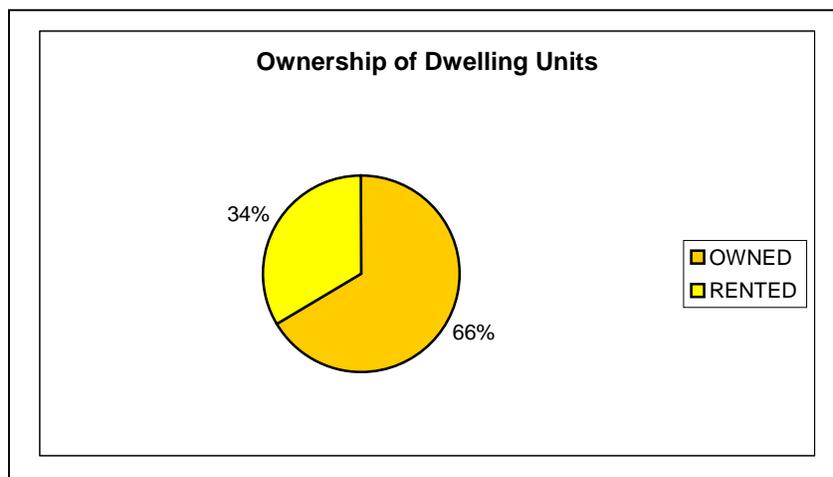
Source: Primary Survey conducted by each Agencies

Chapter 3
Infrastructure Status – An Overview

The large and continuous increase in India's urban population and the related growth of the population residing in slums has resulted in overstraining of infrastructure and deterioration in public health. The link between urbanization, a degraded environment, inaccessibility to healthcare and a deteriorating quality of life is significant. It is hence, relevant to address the appalling inequalities in the distribution and access to basic amenities and health services with a focus on enhanced service coverage, improved sanitation and water supplies in urban slums.

With this food of thought a comparative analysis of the Infrastructural status of all the select cities has been carried out to gather a better picture of the physical conditions of the slums exists there.

3.1 Basic Services to Urban Poor

For poor people, access to land, shelter and basic services is not only essential for their physical well being, but is also vital for their ability to earn a living. Yet in many of these cities, access is highly inadequate for those living in poverty and indeed is one of the main reasons why they continue to live in poverty. The poor survive by being able to access, shelter and services in a variety of ways, usually irregular and often illegal.

According to an estimate, India stands second among the worst places in the world for sanitation after China[21]. Government figures claim that India is well intentioned to achieve MDG 7 target 10. However, a vast majority of poor inhabitants still remains among the unserved population. Rapid urbanization has put a strain on already stressed urban sanitation systems. Slums are rarely connected to cities' sanitation infrastructure and the sanitation situation is deplorable.

3.1.1 Access to Water

A detailed analysis of the services in the surveyed cities is briefed here. Among all the sources of water, though individual tap water is the most preferred. However, due to unreliable and limited supply, people have to depend on other sources.

Table 6: Source of Water						*(Figures in percentage)*	
Name of the city	Individual Tap	Public stand posts	Water tanker	Hand pump/bore well	Bore well	Others/no response	**Total**
Mega Cities							
Chennai	1	4	90	4		2	100.0
Kolkata	41	59	-	-	-	-	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population							
Ahmedabad	66	14	-	9		11	100.0
Hyderabad	30	55	3	6		6	100.0
Bangalore	43	50	5	2		-	100.0
Cities with more than one million population							
Ludhiana	87	10	0	3		0	100.0
Chandigarh	65	33	2	-		-	100.0
Jaipur	43	50	6	1		-	100.0
Indore	28	52	-	12		9	100.0

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[21] *Depinder S Kapur, Country Representative, Water Aid India, November 19, 2007*

| Pune | 61 | 39 | - | - | - | - | 100.0 |
| Ambala (City + Sadar) | 64 | 23 | 0 | 12 | | - | 100.0 |

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

Despite the availability of individual taps in a number of cases, more than 50 percent of the population in slums across the cities surveyed depend upon public stand posts, water tankers, bore well etc. This is because the supply is inadequate, infrequent, erratic and hence unreliable. The overall picture reveals that in most of the surveyed cities, water is supplied to slum areas for less than four hours a day (Ref. table 7).

Table 7: Availability of water (in hours)

Name of the city	0-4	4-8	8-12	12-24	No supply	Total
Mega Cities						
Chennai *						
Kolkata	4	24	8	5	60	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	100	0	0	0	0	100.0
Hyderabad	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Bangalore	100	0	0	0	0	100.0
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana	0	0	100	0	0	100.0
Chandigarh	8	8	84	0	0	100.0
Jaipur	84	5	0	3	8	100.0
Indore	48	10	0	14	28	100.0
Pune	15	10	10	65	0	100.0
Ambala (City + Sadar)	0	100	0	0	0	100.0

Note: * In Chennai more than 90 percent population of the slums depends on water tanker. So it is not possible to provide the data for the availability of water in hours.
Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

Among the cities studied the condition of slum dwellers in Pune is best of the lot. They receive water daily for 10 hours a day. Ludhiana & Ambala are next with regular supply of water for 8 to 10 hours a day. In Hyderabad and Bangalore it's for less than 4 hours a day. Hyderabad is the worst affected city as supply of water is on alternative days and there is no fixed time and most of the people depend on public stand post.

Table 8: Distance to Source of Water (in meters)

Name of the city	<50	50-100	>100	No response	No distance	Total
					(Figures in percentage)	
Mega Cities						
Chennai	56	21	12	11	0	100.0
Kolkata	49	8	3	0	40	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	20	14	0	0	66	100.0
Hyderabad	80	20	0	0	0	100.0
Bangalore	69	27	4	0	0	100.0
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana	100	0	0	0	0	100.0
Chandigarh	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Jaipur	50	7	0	0	43	100.0
Indore	42	40	18	0	0	100.0
Pune	61	39	0	0	0	100.0
Ambala (City + Sadar)	100	0	0	0	0	100.0

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

In most of the cities people walk 50 to 100 meters to fetch water. In some cities like Jaipur people often walk as long as 500 meters to collect the water. While in Kolkata, in about less than half of the slum population, water taps are very close to people's home. Scarcity of water has resulted in frequent water fights. There is a very high rate of wastage of water because of lack of maintenance of public taps. Most of the slums dwellers depend on their own resources for repair and maintenance of even public taps.

Table 9: Frequency of Water Supply

						(Figures in percentage)	
Name of the city	**Daily**	**Alternative day**	**Twice a week**	**Weekly**	**Irregular**	**No response/ Non-availability of Water**	**Total**
Mega Cities							
Chennai	62.4	32.8	0.6	1.0	-	0.7	100.0
Kolkata	95.5	3.7	0.0	0.0	-	0.9	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population							
Ahmedabad	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	100.0
Hyderabad	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	100.0
Bangalore	94.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	100.0
Cities with more than one million population							
Ludhiana	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	100.0
Chandigarh	48.0	10.0	27.0	15.0	-	0.0	100.0
Jaipur	92.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	8.0	100.0
Indore	2.0	54.0	17.0	27.0	-	0.0	100.0
Pune	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	100.0
Ambala (City + Sadar)	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	100.0

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

Data reveals that water supply in some of the slums of Ahmedabad, Bangalore, Ludhiana, Pune and Ambala is reliable and there is a daily supply of water to these slums. Data regarding duration of supply of water has also been collected by the cities. The overall picture is that in all the surveyed cities supply of water is available daily or on alternative days. In the case of Chandigarh 27% of water supply is available twice a week. However, in most of the surveyed cities supply of water is available for less than four hours a day. In the case of Kolkata more than half of the slums population do not have proper supply of water. People spent as much as 30 minutes to 4 hours to collect the water and the scarcity of water resulted in frequent water fights. There is a very high rate of wastage of water due to the state of disrepairs of public taps. In fact, they would be willing to pay to some extent for new facilities.

3.1.2 Sewerage System

Sanitation is one of the most neglected and slow progressing of the UN MDG targets. There is compelling evidence that sanitation brings the greatest public health returns on investment of all development interventions. With the pace at which sanitation coverage is increasing, as claimed by the government, it's likely that India will meet the sanitation target. The MDG 7, Target 10 aims to halve by 2015, from 1990 levels, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation. The survey conducted revealed a very grim picture of the sewerage and toilet facilities in slums. Most of the slums in all the cities are not sewered and wherever a network exists, it does not connect to the main trunk line.

Table 10: Availability of Sewer Connection

Name of the city	Yes	No	No response	Total
Mega Cities				
Chennai	32	68	0	100.0
Kolkata	41	6	54	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population				
Ahmedabad	69	31	0	100.0
Hyderabad **	0	100	0	100.0
Bangalore *	35	65	0	100.0
Cities with more than one million population				
Ludhiana	80	20	0	100.0
Chandigarh	27	40	33	100.0
Jaipur	72	28	0	100.0
Indore	55	40	5	100.0
Pune	100	0	0	100.0
Ambala (Sadar)	55	45	0	100.0
Ambala (City)	0	100	0	100.0

Note: *Percentage denotes percentage of slums out of sample of 115 slums.

**Partially

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

Data reveals that in six cities more than fifty percent slums are connected with city sewerage network system and in four cities more than 25 percent slums have this facility. In only Hyderabad and Ambala none of the slums are connected to the city sewerage network.

Data collected for cities depicts that in Pune most slum houses have sewer connection. In general, in most of the cities, slums are not connected with the main network of sewerage system or are partially connected. Most of the slums in all the cities lack sewerage facility and those exist are not adequate to cater to these localities.

3.1.3 Toilet Facility

Table 11: Type of Toilets

							(Figures in percent)
Name of the city	Individual toilet	Community toilet	Open defecation	Dry latrine	Septic tank	Others	Total
Mega Cities							
Chennai	29	48	23	-	-	-	100.0
Kolkata	9	-	4	13	41	33.21*	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population							
Ahmedabad	70	16	14	-	-	0	100.0
Hyderabad	34	24	30	-	8	4	100.0
Bangalore	35	35	16	-	14	-	100.0
Cities with more than one million population							
Ludhiana	87	3	10	-	-	-	100.0
Chandigarh	67	23		-	-	-	100.0
Jaipur	70	10	20	-	-	-	100.0
Indore**	-	20		-	-	-	
Pune **	-	-	16	-	-	-	
Ambala (City + Sadar)	58	7	35	-	-	-	100.0
Note: * one pit latrine. ** Detail is given in the write up.							
Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007							

28

The above table shows that in all the surveyed cities individual toilets facility is a preferred choice. However, due to lack of access to a reliable water supply in toilets, people are compelled to defecate in the open. More than 50 percent slums have individual toilets in four cities but in rest of the cities less than fifty percent slums have individual toilets and in the case of Kolkata it is only 9 percent. Despite its ban in India, dry latrines are still in use in Kolkata (13 percent of the samples surveyed still have such toilets in their premises). In most cities, people are hesitant to use community toilets due to several reasons – lack of privacy for females, inadequate maintenance due to lack of water and other management issues. People are also reluctant to opt for pay and use toilets on a regular basis. The above data shows that except in the case of Kolkata less than 35 percent people used community toilets in most of the surveyed cities. Community toilets located at about 50 meters distance in most of the cities and for a majority 50 to 100 meters away from their house. Worse still, in Indore people have to go more than 150 meters to use community toilet. In all the surveyed slums across cities women expressed a strong need for toilets because of the perceived risk to personal security and infection for them and their children. Many slum residents use the riverfront as a defecation area leading to pollution. Though a large number of female slum dwellers did realise the convenience of a personal toilet and risk of open defecation, many felt that they were constrained by resources - funds, spaces etc.

Public Toilet Block

Children's Channel

Figure 21: A Public Toilet Block in Pune

In Pune, their toilet construction programme implemented by the Slum Improvement Department since 2000, has vastly improved the sanitation condition within the slums. Under this programme toilet blocks has been constructed where one can pay and use the toilets. Number of toilets blocks varies from slum to slum. No individual toilet provision is there. Wherever it is available, it is through efforts of slum dwellers and such cases are very few. Some of the slums do not have toilet blocks. They either use the neighbourhood toilet blocks or resort to open defecation. As these toilet blocks are constructed under the schemes, it all connected with city sewerage network and water and electricity in these blocks were satisfactory as well.

Table 12: Distance to Community Toilet

								in meters
Name of the city	**<50**	**50-100**	**100-150**	**150-200**	**200-250**	**>250**	**No response**	**Total**
Mega Cities								
Chennai	25.90	20.70	6.40	1.50	1.80	1.60	42.20	100.00
Kolkata	79.56	10.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.19	100.00
Cities with more than 4 million population								
Ahmedabad	75.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Hyderabad	75.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Bangalore	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA**
Cities with more than one million population								
Ludhiana	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Chandigarh	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA*
Jaipur	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA**

Indore	17.50	23.00	33.30	26.20	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Pune	0.00	84.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	84.00
Ambala (Sadar)	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (City)	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00

Note: *NA - Not Available

**Not Available from data collected using formats provided for the UPRS Study

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

3.1.4 Availability of Drainage Facilities

In a large number of slums in all the cities, drainage facility is lacking and where the drainage network exists, they are mostly kutcha or semi pucca. Open drains are mostly used by children for defecation due to which its chokes and overflows during rains.

Table 13: Type of Storm Water Drainage System

Name of the city	Kutcha	Semi-pukka	Pukka	Others	No response	Total
Mega Cities						
Chennai *	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Kolkata	3	29	66	0	2	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	0	0	30	0	70	100.0
Hyderabad	75	0	25	0	0	100.0
Bangalore **	30	20	26	24	0	100.0
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana	89	0	11	0	0	100.0
Chandigarh	44	23	18	0	15	100.0
Jaipur	50	30	0	20	0	100.0
Indore	21	13	23	0	43	100.0
Pune	5	12	83	0	0	100.0
Ambala (Sadar)	0	0	100	0	0	100.0
Ambala (City)	70	0	10	0	20	100.0

Note: * Data not collected in this manner.

**Percentage denotes percentage of slums out of sample of 418 slums.

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

Data shows that most of the slums in all the surveyed cities have mixed drains. In Pune, Kolkata and Ambala (sadar) more than sixty percent slums have pucca drains as compared to other cities where 10 to 30 percent drains are pucca. On the other hand in Hyderabad, Ludhiana Jaipur and Ambala (city), more than 50 percent slums had kutcha drains.

Ludhiana and Pune more than 80 percent households reported that drains are cleaned on regular basis and in Jaipur, Chandigarh and Kolkata 10 to 45 percent households also have the same opinion. On the other hand in Indore and Ambala (city) drains are cleaned on weekly basis. In Jaipur and Bangalore more than forty five percent households complained that drains are hardly cleaned.

The drainage networks in slums are hardly maintained and are often blocked by solid waste and plastic bags etc. Clogged drains cause flooding during monsoons, especially in low lying and flood prone areas where most slums are located. Stagnant water from drainage becomes the breeding place for mosquitoes & other vectors.

The drainage network in most slums of all the cities lacking drainage facility and where it exists are mostly kutcha or semi pucca.

Table 14: Frequency of Cleaning of Drains

Name of the city	Daily	Alternate	2-3 times	Weekly	Never/NA	Total
Mega Cities						
Chennai *						
Kolkata	31	20	26	16	7	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	Only as and when required					
Hyderabad	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA**
Bangalore	0	6	49	0	45	100.00***
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana	95	0	0	0	5	100.0
Chandigarh	44	15	23	0	18	100.0
Jaipur	16	9	24	0	51	100.0
Indore	0	0	0	100	0	100.0
Pune	80	10	10	0	0	100.0
Ambala (Sadar)	0	5	20	75	0	100.0
Ambala (City)	0	0	0	100	0	100.0

Note: * In Chennai nearly 30 percent slums did not have any drainage facility but of the rest, 14 percent had open drainage facilities.
**NA - Not Available
*** Percentage denotes percentage of slums out of sample of 115 slums.
Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

3.1.5 Solid Waste Management

Piles of Garbage and wastes of all kinds littered everywhere have become sight in slums in most Indian cities. Data collected for the selected cities depict that in none of the slums in any city have organized solid waste management system. Only in three cities Pune, Bangalore and Kolkata 60% to 90% households used municipal bins for dumping waste. In Ahmedabad nearly 3/4th slums used private bins for dumping waste. The general trend in most slums among all the surveyed cities is garbage being dumped either in the drains or on adjoining open spaces / vacant plots.

Table 15: Method of Disposal of Solid Waste

						(Figures in percentage)
Name of the city	Dumped at municipal bins	Open space/ water body	Private Bin/ Collection	Burnt	Others	Total
Mega Cities						
Chennai	33	55	-	-	12	100.0
Kolkata	62	21	14	2	1	100.0
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	19	10	70		1	100.0
Hyderabad	31	44	22	-	3	100.0
Bangalore	95	5	-	-	-	100.0
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana						
Chandigarh	40	55	5			100.0
Jaipur	-	58	-	-	42	100.0
Indore	13	74	13			100.0
Pune	70	10	19	-	1	100.0
Ambala (City + Sadar)	-	-	-	-	-	

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007.

In Ahmedabad and Ambala waste is collected weekly. Though most of the slum dwellers said that waste is collected daily or on alternate days, the culture of disposing off waste just outside the house is a habit, which needs to change. The prolonged dumping of garbage in many areas causes rain-induced choking of drains and consequent flooding in slums, particularly those located in low-lying areas.

In many slums, solid waste is not properly collected. Most of the slum dwellers throw their trash in open spaces outside the slum. Very few dispose garbage directly in the common containers. Others dump their garbage on the streets. Some have dustbin facility within or near the slum. In some cities garbage is collected in the wheel barrows/small cycle carts. Ghantagadis, widely used in Pune, are cycle rickshaws manned by two persons who move through a neighborhood collecting the garbage by ringing a bell. The residents are supposed to bring out their waste and give them to the garbage collector. This prevents the garbage from accumulating in the open and the consequential unhygienic condition. The Municipal Corporation in Chandigarh has also entered into an agreement with a private company for setting up a solid waste treatment plant for conversion of garbage into pellets. Most people felt that the job of keeping the neighborhood clean was that of the Municipal Corporation's and not theirs.

Table 16: Frequency of Collecting Solid Waste

Name of the city	Daily	Alternate day	Twice a week	Weekly	No. Response/ No Connection	Total
Mega Cities						
Chennai	54.30	7.50	0.20	10.50	27.40	100.00
Kolkata	71.81	5.00	16.69	5.81	0.25	100.00
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	30.00	0.00	0.00	70.00	0.00	100.00
Hyderabad	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Bangalore	6.00	55.00	38.00	0.00	1.00	100.00*
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana	95.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.00	100.00
Chandigarh	47.00	30.00	15.00	8.00	0.00	100.00
Jaipur	51.00	10.00	16.00	19.00	4.00	100.00
Indore	55.00	45.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Pune	87.00	0.00	0.00	2.00	10.00	100.00
Ambala (Sadar)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00
Ambala (City)	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00

Note:

*Percentage in Table above denotes percentage of slums out of sample of 115 slums.

Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

3.1.6 Availability of Electricity and Street Lights

Most of the slums surveyed across cities have electric supply. However, all connections are not legal because many slums are not recognized by the state and are therefore not entitled to electricity connections. In most cases, a middleman who has official connection supplies electricity to slum dwellers and obtain payment through informal means. It is therefore incorrect to assume that slum dwellers enjoy electric connections free of cost. The above table shows that more than 85 percent slums in all the surveyed cities have electric supply. This figure is inclusive of illegal connections. Most slums have a provision of streetlights. Due to unplanned and haphazard street layout in slums, streetlights do not follow any pattern and are placed irregularly. Survey shows that in most cities slums are not adequately lit by streetlights. The problem is particularly prominent in Kolkata, Ahmedabad and Ambala, where most of the slums are devoid of operational streetlights. Comparatively fewer slums in Chennai and Hyderabad complained of

irregular streetlights and inadequate lighting within slums. In some of the other cities, that there is no provision of streetlight in slums.

In Chennai, more than 87 percent of the slum families covered under the assessment survey are provided with electricity facility. Again in Ahmedabad, most slum dwellers have their own electricity meters and on an average household spend Rs. 200 per month on electricity costs.

Table 17: Availability of Electricity

Name of the city	Yes	No	No. Response	Total
Mega cities				
Chennai	87.00	13.00	0.00	100.00
Kolkata	98.00	2.00	0.00	100.00
Cities with more than 4 million population				
Ahmedabad	94.00	6.00	0.00	100.00
Hyderabad	NA	NA	NA	NA*
Bangalore	Access to electricity was found lacking in ~10 percent of households in case study slums.			
Cities with more than one million population				
Ludhiana	NA	NA	NA	NA**
Chandigarh	92.00	8.00	0.00	100.00
Jaipur	90.00	10.00	0.00	100.00
Indore	91.00	9.00	0.00	100.00
Pune	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (Sadar)	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (City)	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00

* NA - Not Available
** Not Available from data collected using formats provided for UPRS study
Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

In Chandigarh, the situation with regard to supply of electricity in slums has shown a mixed picture where the households in which the Electricity Department has installed meters for supply of electricity have expressed satisfaction. The only concern raised was that some of the residents need more than one electricity meter connection but the department allows only one connection to one unit or house. Secondly, there are slums where the electricity is being provided to the colony's residents through a private contractor who has installed a bulk supply electricity meter and charges Rs.200 to Rs 350 (different rated in different slums) from each household as fixed charges. Here people were dissatisfied because of the reasons given below:

- Sometimes due to some technical fault the supply gets disrupted and is not restored for days together and even then the residents have to make full payment.

- The wiring done by the contractor in the colony is loose and naked wires could be seen here and there. These are quite risky and could lead to any causality especially at night or during rains.

- The voltage of the supply is too erratic. Most of the times it is so low that no tube light functions in the colony. Though very few residents have procured refrigerators but due to low voltage they are of no use.

Table 18: Frequency Of Street Lighting

Name of the city	Daily	No street lights	Irregular	No response	Total
Mega cities					
Chennai	53.40	23.20	17.10	6.40	100.00
Kolkata	12.56	1.95	85.36	0.13	100.00
Cities with more than 4 million population					
Ahmedabad	11.50	23.00	64.00	1.50	100.00
Hyderabad	75.00	0.00	25.00	0.00	100.00
Bangalore	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA*
Cities with more than one million population					
Ludhiana	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA*
Chandigarh	35.00	50.00	15.00	0.00	100.00
Jaipur	80.00	20.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Indore	80.00	20.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Pune	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (Sadar)	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (City)	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00

NOTE:
* Not Available from data collected using formats provided for UPRS study
In Chandigarh, almost half of the total slums do not have any streetlights.
Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

However, the case is opposite in some of the surveyed cities. Slums dwellers even steal electricity directly from the pole of the streetlight. In Ambala streetlights and electric poles are grossly inadequate. Installation of streetlights in all the slums is a necessity to make the life of the residents easier and safer.

3.1.7 Access to Roads and Street Sweeping

The approach road or the main road in majority of the surveyed slums is pucca or semi-pucca. Data shows that less than 40 percent roads are kutcha roads. The widths of the by-lanes are quite narrow, and difficult to access. These alleys are not laid out properly and it is very precarious during emergencies such as fire hazards or accessibility of ambulance.

In some of the larger cities, the approach roads to the slums are tarred or made up of asphalt and by lanes are kutcha. In Hyderabad, the access road condition is somewhat better with more than 50% being pucca road and more than 60% accessible to main roads. In some smaller cities like Ambala, facilities such as bus stop, railway station, market, and telephone booths are located comparatively farther than those in bigger cities.

Table 19: Frequency of Street Sweeping

Name of the city	Everyday	Every alternate day	Once in a week	Never/ Longer	Others	Total
						(Figures in percentage)
Mega Cities						
Chennai	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA**
Kolkata	23.35	18.52	46.58	10.69	0.86	100.00
Cities with more than 4 million population						
Ahmedabad	`30.00	0.00	70.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Hyderabad	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Bangalore	11.00	48.00	40.00	1.00	0.00	100.00*
Cities with more than one million population						
Ludhiana	95.00	0.00	0.00	5.00	0.00	100.00
Chandigarh	48.00	27.00	10.00	15.00	0.00	100.00
Jaipur	51.00	10.00	16.00	4.00	19.00	100.00
Indore	0.00	4.00	13.00	83.00	0.00	100.00

Pune	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (Sadar)	30.00	70.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Ambala (City)	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00

Note:
*Percentage in table above denotes percentage of slums out of sample of 115 slums.
**Data not collected in this manner
Source: Base line survey by respective cities for UPRS, 2007

Serious deficiencies have been noticed in sweeping, collection and disposal of garbage from the streets, by lanes and roads near the slums. In some cities like Pune, the slum residents themselves sweep bylanes.

3.2 Socio-Economic Profile

Social infrastructure is important for the overall well being of the urban poor. The coverage of educational institutions, health facilities and other necessary social infrastructure facilities are grossly inadequate in slums. Even physical infrastructure in terms of housing and basic amenities is not adequate to support the urban poor, unless social infrastructure and services are made availability. The integrated development and growth of physical infrastructure and social infrastructure is an important necessity for sustainable growth of urban settlements. Keeping in view all these factors, an effort was made to assess the availability of social infrastructure in and around slums.

3.2.1 Educational Facilities

Education is one of the most important constituents of social infrastructure and it has tremendous importance in terms of social and human development of the population. The larger cities are endowed with a range of educational facilities - primary, secondary and higher secondary schools, colleges and other private institutions. Though adult education centres and vocational training centres are present, they are not proportionate to the population. They are also not adequately equipped in terms of infrastructure. Although there are some primary schools, but the enrolment rates are rather low. Drop out rates, particularly among girls, in these schools is rather high.

The Sarva Shiksha Abhyan and Mid-day meal schemes have not achieved the targeted level of progress. This is because the upgradation of infrastructure, human resource and financial support has not kept pace with the targets set. In many cities, slum children attend schools to get mid-day meals. Due to the absence of good teachers, well-equipped classrooms and adequate motivation, drop out rates are very high. In most cities, *Anganwadi* centres were present within the slum or within a radius of 1.0 km. from the slum.

3.2.2 Health

The insanitary conditions, lack of sufficient social infrastructure, coupled with high population density are a definite recipe for the spread of infectious diseases. Urban poor are also exposed to vagaries of nature and pollution, which adversely affects their health. The availability of adequate medical facilities and health services is an important necessity in slums to improve the health status of urban poor. In most of the larger cities, the Urban Local Bodies manages general and some referral hospitals and dispensaries. Distance of health facility centres from slums and chawls on an average is 1to 3kms away.

Consequent to the factors mentioned, data on disease pattern reflects high incidence of vector borne diseases like jaundice, typhoid, diarrhoea, malaria, TB etc. Immunization, which is one of the key investments towards child health, can be used as one of the basic indicator to gauge the access and utilization of health services. The desegregation of the immunization status in slums has revealed that less than half of slums dwellers in the age group 0 – 6 yrs are immunized.

3.2.3 Occupational Profile

People have been migrating to cities in search of livelihood opportunities. The rapid migration to tcities for better employment opportunities has resulted in emergence of large number of slums, as cities do not have capacity to provide housing to all. Since the formal sector is unable to provide employment to all migrants and local population, people are forced to take up informal employment activities with nominal earnings. The livelihood and settlements pattern have close linkages. The livelihood patterns decide the pattern of habitation in the cities and vice versa.

During the course of primary survey in cities, data collected revealed that the most demanding occupation among slum dwellers is that of construction workers followed by daily wage labourers. A substantial number of females and children living in slums also work as domestic servants. Large groups of people are engaged in activities that involve seasonal employment.

3.2.4 Source of Credit

Less than a quarter households in the surveyed cities, saved regularly. However, the proportion of the population saving in formal banks was relatively low. More than half of the total surveyed households reported having a loan. Within this less than a quater had taken the loans from formal banks. Others were currently indebt to private moneylenders. Sources of credit for urban poor in Bangalore vary from traditional moneylenders to chit funds, pawnbrokers and relatives. While the informal credit market in Bangalore offers the poor access and convenience, they pay a high price to borrow and end up in debt for considerable period of time. In smaller cities like Ambala, the story is quiet different where micro financing facility by government; private or any other source is almost negligible in slums. The banks do not seem to be interested in providing loans to the urban poor for starting their self-employment ventures. The urban poor find difficulty in receiving their subsidy for self-employment and there is considerable leakage in the loan meant for the urban poor. The absence of collateral further accentuates their lack of credit –worthiness.

Urban Poor seem to suffer most due to poor availability of credit facilities for self-employment ventures. The constitution and participation of Self Help Groups (SHGs) of urban poor could be quite successful in reducing leakages in the delivery system. At the same time, it could create a sense of ownership among the people benefiting from centrally sponsored slum development and poverty alleviation schemes. In Ambala, not even a single operational SHG was reported from slums. It clearly indicated that neither state government nor the municipalities have taken any interest towards formulation of SHGs in slums.

People have shown willingness to pay for housing, water supply, sewerage, drainage, solid waste management, roads, street lights, toilets, education, health services and also for skill improvement.

3.3 Estimates Of Financial Investment For Citywide Slum Upgrading

A vulnerability assessment of slums across cities was carried out for all cities based on a set of indicators like location of slums, ownership of the land on which the slum is located, access to infrastructure facilities and other basic amenities etc. The details are provided in the individual UPRS. The summaries given in Annexure also give the same in brief.

All the UPRS have reinstated the fact that the immediate response to improving the living conditions of slum dwellers is either through in-situ upgradation or relocating slum residents to resettlement sites.

In-situ upgradation may be carried out in two ways. It may involve clearance and redevelopment, which means temporarily moving the slum residents, clearing the land and building new housing on the same site. The other alternative is not to move people and upgrade. Upgrading rejuvenates the existing community with minimum disruption and loss of physical and social assets. Typically, approaches consist of providing security from eviction and improving the existing infrastructure, e.g. water and sanitation, garbage collection, storm water drainage, street lighting up to an appropriate, basic standard. It also involves the improvement of footpaths and streets, playgrounds and community facilities. Usually upgrading excludes home construction, since the residents can do these themselves, but instead sometimes, offers optional loans for home improvements. An essential part of upgrading is transferring these tenure rights.

Relocation has been recommended only in cases where slums are located in environmentally sensitive areas like along drains, on floodplains, in low-lying areas, along railway tracks or busy expressways etc. Historically, moving the poor or replacing their physical facilities with public housing have created more problems - for the poor and for the cities. Governments then needs to spend resources resettling inhabitants, but also later had to finance public transportation to facilitate access to employment in the central city.

The above approaches require a substantial amount of funds. In order to do so, it is important to leverage available funds from the Government and other sources like private finance and household resources innovatively and optimally. Not only is it necessary to arrange for funds for building the infrastructure but involving people to sustain it, through best use of their own finances.

The scope of the UPRSs prepared is limited to recommending a strategy and physical action plan. Based on macro-level assumptions broad estimates of the finances required to improve the living conditions of slums in the cities studied has been worked out. The following table outlines the total investment, which is a collation of the succeeding citywide tables that follow.

Table 20.: Total Investment needed for citywide slum improvement

	City	Investment (in Rs. Cr.)
1	Chennai	2290
2	Kolkata	2127.57
3	Bangalore	3801.49
4	Hyderabad	165.7
5	Ahmedabad	2100
6	Indore	343.5
7	Jaipur	2287.35
8	Chandigarh	NA
9	Pune	3145
10	Ludhiana	157.17
11	Ambala (Ambala Sadar + Ambala City)	21.9
	Total	**16439.68**

The above is a costing of the amount of money required for relocation and in-situ upgradation of slums. For relocation, the cost per house ranges from Rs. 1.5 lakh to Rs.3 lakh. This depends on whether the cost of social infrastructure has been included or not. The individual tables for each of the cities are presented in the subsequent pages.

3.3.1 Chennai

A. Financial estimation for relocation and in-situ development and need of investment:

Srl. No.	Name of city: CHENNAI	
A	**Number of households to be relocated**	
(a)	New Construction in-situ (nos.)	25,592
(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (nos.)	40,167
(c)	To be provided tenure and improved services	
B	**Cost per house (Rs. 31.9 sqm) (in Lakhs)**	
(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	1.65
(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	1.3
(c)	Tenure and improved services (Rs.cr)	160
C	**Sub-Total** **Cost of providing social infrastructure (day care centres, schools - primary & secondary, college, vocational centres, primary health care centres, hospitals, community halls etc.) for households (Rs.Crore)**	**162.95** 1186
(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	
(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	
(c)	Tenure and improved services	
	Sub-Total	1186
	TOTAL COST (in Rs. Crore) (B+C)	**2290**

Note:

1. Services include water supply, toilet, drainage, SWM, street lighting and internal roads)
2. Cost information is based on Chennai Municipal Corporation's estimates for 2007-08
3. The estimates in this file are a little different as area per dwelling unit is 31.9 sqm
4. "Further cost for new electricity connections as well as provision of other services like rainwater harvesting, parks, community center and crematorium are included"
5. However cost of land acquisition for new construction is not included here

B. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

Rs. In cores

Sl. No	Services	Amount
1	Water	15.20
2	Sewerage (Drains and Solid Waste management)	15.75
3	Drains	
4	Streets	3.52
5	Street Lights	1.35
6	Community Toilets	46.00
7	Housing	1529.63
	Total	1611.45

C. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure:

Sl. No.	Particulars	Capital Investment Requirement (Rs. In Cores)
I.	Dwelling Units	
a.	Cost of Up gradation	166.22
b.	Cost of Land Acquisition/Purchase (325sqft)	1122.85
c.	Cost of Land Development	16.63
d.	Cost of Construction of New Dwelling Units (250sqft)	223.93
	Total Cost for Housing	**1529.63**
II.	Water Supply (Public Sources)	15.20
III.	Sewerage and Sanitation	73.56
IV.	Solid Waste Management	0.75
V.	Roads and Pavements	0.80
VI.	Streetlights	1.28
2	**Total Investment Estimate**	**1621.22**
3	Add: Provision for Cost Escalation and Unforeseen Expenses (5.00% of 2)	81.06
4	Add: Provision for Expenses on Contingencies (5.00% of Sum of 2 to 3)	85.11
5	Add: Provision for Design, Maintenance, Supervision and Management Charges (4.50% of Sum of 2 to 4, but excluding Cost of Land Acquisition/ Purchase)	80.43
6	Add: General Administration Charges (8.00% of Sum of 2 to 5, but excluding Cost of Land Acquisition/ Purchase)	149.43
Total Capital Investment Requirement		**2017.25**

3.3.2 Kolkata:

A. **Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:**

Srl. No.	Name of city: Kolkata		
A	**Total Number of slum households**	278868	
(a)	**Slums households to be relocated**	13943	
(b)	**Slums households to be upgraded in-situ**	133857	
(c)	**Slums households to be provided tenure and improved services**	77246	
B	**Cost**	**Cost per house (in Rs.)**	**Total Cost (in Cores)**
(a)	to be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	150000	209.15
(b)	to be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	100000	1338.57
(c)	Tenure and improved services	75000	579.35
C	**Cost of providing social infrastructure (day care centres, schools - primary & secondary, college, vocational centres, primary health care centres, hospitals, community halls etc.) for households**		
(a)	At the site of relocation		0.2
(b)	At the site of in-situ up gradation		0.2
(c)	At the sites of Tenure and improved services		0.1
B + C	**TOTAL COST (in Rs. Crore)**		**2127.57**

Note:

1. Services include water supply, toilet, drainage, SWM, street lighting and internal roads)

3.3.3 Ahmedabad:

A. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

(Rs. In lakhs)		
Sl. No	Services	Amount
1	Water	
2	Sewerage	Rs. 20,000 per households x 1,50,000 families
3	Drains	i.e. Rs. 300,00,00,000 cores
4	Streets	
5	Street Lights	
6	Community Toilets	
7	Housing	Rs. 60,000 x 3,00,000 families i.e. Rs. 1,80,00,00,000
	Total	**Rs. 21,00,00,00,000**

3.3.4 Hyderabad:

A. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

Sl. No	Services	Amount (in Rs Lakhs)	Remarks
1	Water	798.67	12 circles
2	Sewerage	572	12 circles
3	Drains		
4	Streets		
5	Street Lights	15200	All 18 circles
6	Community Toilets		
7	Housing		
	Total	**16570.67**	

3.3.5 Bangalore:

A. Financial estimation for slum improvement:

1.1	**Total Slums (No.)**	**614**
1.2	**Total Households (No.)**	**123,956**
2.1	Slums to be upgraded in situ (No.)	580
2.2	Households to be upgraded in situ (No.)	102,940
2.3	Cost per household: House Infrastructure (Rs. in Lakhs)	3.4
2.4	**Cost of upgrading slums (Rs. in Lakhs)**	**349,996**
3.1	Slums to be relocated (no.)	34
3.2	Households to be relocated (No.)	7,758
3.3	Cost per household: House Infrastructure (Rs. in Lakhs)	3.5
3.4	**Cost of relocating slums (Rs. in Lakhs)**	**27,153**
4.0	**Cost for providing Social Infrastructure (Rs. in Lakhs)**	3,000
	Total Cost (Rs. in Lakhs)	**380,149**

Note:
1. Land cost is not included in the above cost estimates.

B. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

		Rs. in lakhs
Sl. No	**Services**	**Amount**
1	Water	45,618
2	Sewerage	30,412
3	Drains	15,206
4	Streets	38,015
5	Street Lights	3,801
6	Community Toilets	19,007
7	Housing	228,089
	Total	**380,149**

3.3.6 Ludhiana:

A. Need of investment for providing Urban Infrastructure and Municipal services to Urban Poor in the city (Rs. in Lakhs)

Sl. No	Services	Amount (Rs. in Lakhs)
1	Water	40.06
2	Sewerage	50.79
3	Drains	65.33
4	Streets	115.76
5	Street Lights	110.8
6	Community Toilets	Nil
7	Housing*	15335.13
	Total	**15717.87**

Note:
*Housing includes costs of dwelling units, stairs, community centres, primary health centres, primary schools, and compound walls

B. Housing details is given below:

Sl. no.	Particulars	Amount (Rs in Lakhs)
1	Dwelling Units	14710.41
2	Stairs	429.03
3	Compound Walls	133.56
4	Community Centers	31.7
5	Public Health Centers	10.15
6	Primary Schools	20.28
	Total	**15335.13**

Source: Ludhiana Municipal Corporation (DPR I, II, III, IV and V)

3.3.7 Jaipur:

A. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

Srl. No.	Name of city: Jaipur	
A	**Total Number of slum households**	102295
(a)	**Slums households to be relocated**	61700
(b)	**Slums households to be upgraded in-situ**	40595
(c)	**Slums households to be provided tenure and improved services**	
B	**Cost**	**Cost per house (in lacs)**
(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	350000
(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	300000
(c)	Tenure and improved services	
C	**Cost of providing social infrastructure (day care centers, schools - primary & secondary, college, vocational centers, primary health care centers, hospitals, community halls etc.) for households**	**Total Cost (In Crores)**
(a)	At the site of relocation	2159.5
(b)	At the site of in-situ up gradation	1278.5
(c)	At the sites of Tenure and improved services	
B + C	**TOTAL COST (in Rs. Crore)**	**2287.35**

3.3.8 Indore:

A. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

	Name of city: INDORE	
1	**Number of households**	15000
1(a)	To be relocated	4500
1(b)	To be upgraded in-situ	10500
1(c)	To be provided tenure and improved services	3750
2	**Cost per house (Rs.)**	
2(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	675000000
2(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	1575000000
2(c)	Tenure and improved services	562500000
3	**Cost of providing social infrastructure (day care centers, schools - primary & secondary, college, vocational centers, primary health care centers, hospitals, community halls etc.) for households**	
3(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	149400000
3(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	348600000
3(c)	Tenure and improved services	124500000
4	**TOTAL COST (in Rs. Crore)**	**3435000000**

3.3.9 Pune:

A. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

Sr.No.	Name of city	Pune
1	**Number of slum households**	175000
1(a)	To be relocated	40000
1(b)	To be upgraded in-situ	135000
1(c)	To be provided tenure and improved services	135000
2	**Cost per house (Rs.)**	280000
2(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	40000
2(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	100000
2(c)	Tenure	50000
3	**Cost of providing social infrastructure (day care centres, schools - primary & secondary, college, vocational centres, primary health care centres, hospitals, community halls etc.) for households**	_
3(a)	To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	1120 crores
3(b)	To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	1350 crores
3(c)	Tenure and improved services	675 crores
4	**TOTAL COST (in Rs. Crore)**	**3145 crores**

3.3.10 Ambala:
A. Financial estimation for relocation and in-situ development and need of investment:

Particulars	Ambala Sadar Number/ cost	Ambala City Number/ cost	Total Number/ cost
1. Number of slum households to be relocated			
1a. To be relocated	192	--	192
1b. To be upgraded in-situ	422	495	917
1c. To be provided tenure and improved services	--	--	--
2. Cost per house (Rs.)			
2a. To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	Rs 1,25,000	--	125000
2b. To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	Rs 80,000	80,000 per	80000
2c. Tenure and improved services	--	House	--
Sub total of 2 (240000 (192x125000)+73360000 (917x80000)=97360000)	--	--	973.60 Lakhs
3. Cost of providing social infrastructure (day care centers, schools - primary & secondary, college, vocational centers, primary health care centers, hospitals, community halls etc.) For households			
3a. To be relocated (Housing and infrastructure services)	Rs 197.20 Lakhs	--	Rs 197.20 Lakhs
3b. To be upgraded in-situ (Housing and infrastructure services)	1021.91 Lakhs	--	Rs 1021.91 Lakhs
3c. Tenure and improved services	--	--	--
TOTAL COST (in Rs. Lakhs)			**Rs 2192.71 Lakhs**

Note: 1. Services include water supply, toilet, drainage, SWM, street lighting and internal roads.

B. Financial estimation for providing urban infrastructure and municipal services to urban poor in the city:

Sl. No	Services	Ambala Sadar * (Amount in Rs in Lakhs)	Ambala City # (Amount in Rs in Lakhs)	Total
1	Water	109.53	153.55	263.08
2	Sewerage	343.68	410.48	754.16
3	Drains	142.5	127.93	270.43
4	Streets	275	392.15	667.15
5	Street Lights	80	-	80
6	Community Toilets	79.7	60	139.7
7	Housing	338.4	396	734.4
	Total	**1368.81**	**1540.11**	**2908.92**

Note:
"*The amount is for 43 slums for Ambala Sadar.
The amount has been calculated only for 34 slums in Ambala City.
Data for rest of the 31 slums is being compiled to ascertain the total funding requirement.

Chapter 4
Conclusion

After a detailed and comparative study and analysis of the slums in the select 11 cities under this project, it can be concluded that mostly the slums are unplanned and under-served neighborhoods typically settled by squatters without legal recognition or rights. The slum residents lack the most basic municipal services, such as water supply, sanitation, waste collection and thus are exposed to disease, crime and natural disasters. They also lack schools, clinics, as well as places for the community to meet and socialize.

State governments and ULBs have tried to deal with this fact and have responded to the poor in different ways. But often they failed because the poor cannot pay for the services, lack of land and housing, etc. Even in many cases the poor were seen as a problem to be eliminated rather than an asset with a great-untapped potential to be unleashed.

Going by the history, the first response was to stop the growing numbers of poor by ***eradicating*** and ***relocating*** slum residents to resettlement sites that were usually outside the city. This is not viable because the poor need to be close to city centers where there are more informal income opportunities and the cost of transportation is unaffordable to the poor. Consequently, moving the poor or replacing their physical facilities with public housing created more problems-for the poor and for the cities. Governments not only had to spend resources cleaning slums and resettling inhabitants, but also later had to finance public transportation to facilitate access to employment in the central city.

A second approach was ***clearance*** and ***redevelopment***. It meant temporarily moving the slum residents, clearing the land and building new housing for the on the same site. High-rise buildings are often proposed in order to house more people for eg. Pune. However, experiences have shown that the residential density of a high-rise development is not much greater than that of a central city slum community. In addition to that, high-rise developments do not provide much ground-level space for low-income families to operate small businesses, which these families need to supplement their incomes. In addition to the high social, the economic costs of these approaches are unaffordable: at least 10-15 times the cost of improving the infrastructure in the slums.

Recently, in some cities as an alternative to moving people or replacing their homes is *slum upgrading*. Upgrading rejuvenates the existing community with minimum disruption and loss of physical and social assets. Typically, approaches consist of providing security from eviction and improving the existing infrastructure, e.g. water reticulation, sanitation, garbage collection, storm drainage and security lighting, up to an appropriate, basic standard. It also involves the improvement of footpaths and streets, playgrounds and community facilities. Usually upgrading excludes home construction, since the residents can do these themselves, but instead sometimes, offers optional loans for home improvements of clinics and schools. An essential part of upgrading is transferring these tenure rights has been shown to motivate occupants to invest two to four times the amount of funds that the government invests in infrastructure improvements in a slum area.

4.1 General Consensus on the Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy

Past experiences emphasize that an integrated policy is necessary to vanguard development to be "pro-poor". There is, however, a general consensus on the major elements of an overall poverty reduction strategy. These include:

- Assessing the varying vulnerability of slums located in different locations within a city. There is a need of establishing an operating structure that supports and encourages the Municipal Corporations to deal with these various problems with different local solutions and different local implementations.

- The network of physical infrastructure required in slums has to be linked with the city-wide network. No city level investment in infrastructure should be allowed unless it is linked with all slums. Only thus can development of the city be inclusive.

- Improvement through inclusion in the citywide network has to be demand driven. The citywide infrastructure must include the demand of all slums. Demand driven signifies that the service delivery will have to be in response to requests from consumers rather than targeted by the Municipal Corporation.

- The strategy has to be physically and financially sustainable. Financial sustainability means that the funds required operating and maintaining each of the services shall be based on recovery of costs. This can be undertaken through ensuring cross-subsidy between the poor and non-poor and having a system of token payment amongst the poor. As long as the land tenure issues are resolved between the slum dweller and the municipality, the municipality should be allowed to tax the slum dwellers for the services provided. This shall lead to physical sustainability.

- Partnership of the stakeholders will have to be built in into the strategy. In order to ensure partnership, the existing institutional structure to deal with slums will have to be strengthened. Having a formal coordinating body, which will have suitable powers and community level representation, can ensure this. This body can then hold regular meetings to ensure that all partners are working collectively towards the same objectives.

- Investment in the social sector such as education and health is the most widely accepted way of improving the asset base of the poor.

- A minimum infrastructure services especially safe water, sanitation, transport, electricity, small irrigation, information and communication are necessary for the poor in creating healthy living conditions and engaging in productive economic activities. Therefore, efforts in building community-based infrastructure should be made. Local community participation in small-scale infrastructure projects has proven to be effective, as well as have positive spillovers to the local economies.

- Local governments are particularly important because, through decentralization, the local governments are the implementers, and successful implementation of the poverty reduction strategy depends largely on this level.

- The social security and safety net mechanism is very important to protect the vulnerability of the poor. In the implementation of social safety net, a collaborative relationship between government, local government, and civil society groups has to be developed.

- There is a need to acquire reliable and accurate database on the slum population within each city. This should involve all the illegal, invisible, unidentified, disadvantaged households as well.

4.2 Lessons Learnt

The ultimate objective of urban poverty reduction strategy is to reduce urban poverty on a sustainable basis. The main lessons learnt for the urban poverty reduction are:

- Political commitment is fundamental - A large-scale program will need even more clearly expressed support, commitment and leadership from politicians and opinion makers.

- Build on existing experience to go from projects to program - The scaling up challenge is to work with existing institutions, under arrangements at all levels (local and central government, private sector, etc.) with clearly assigned responsibilities that in concert will accomplish this task.

- Upgrading is affordable if done right - The poorest of the poor will be unable to pay for full level of services, so lower, more affordable standards need to be considered. One alternative is to start with low standards but build up incrementally as their affordability increases.

- The poor can and are willing to pay for services - Scaled up programs must rethink and plan appropriate policies for cost recovery and subsidies commensurate with the scope of the program.

- Security of tenure is essential - One of the first steps in designing a large scale upgrading program may well be the upfront work needed to move quickly and to scale on the land regularization front, thereby ensuring the tenure status of communities being upgraded.

- There are no one-size fits all - What is needed is an operating structure that supports and encourages different local solutions and different local implementation.

- Keep it simple - Local definition of the list of improvements and how to subdivide the task for their simplified delivery at the local level yields quicker and more appropriate large-scale results.

- Include and strengthen municipalities - Programs that move upgrading to scale need to evaluate and plan for helping local governments respond to the additional demands to be placed on them.

- Communities must participate - Ideally large scale upgrading programs will find ways to help the poor move from powerlessness to inclusion; from vulnerability to assets from violence to security.

- Citywide networks must be able to support the upgrading program - A large scale-upgrading program must start with a well-conceived plan of network expansion and expanded service delivery.

- Improving basic services and infrastructure is the necessary base - Scaling up implies planning for a sequence of actions, many of which can come on stream by sequencing.

- A coalition of actors is needed - Large scale (city-wide and/or national) upgrading programs call for: a) a broad coalition of participants (see box), each with its area of contribution and agreed to role; and b) a convergence of action among the participants based on a shared vision and goal, and agreement on a process.

- Emphasis on quality of service. Periodic verification of the quality of water from various sources needs to carry out. The ground level tanks or overhead tanks too also need to be periodically cleaned. Solid waste disposal and street sweeping is clearly a matter of concern in all slums.

- Focus on unidentified, invisible and disadvantaged households within slums. It is necessary that targeted attention is made even to those smaller proportions of households (disadvantaged households) facing problems in terms of housing and livelihoods. Equity issues need to be addressed to the extent possible.

4.3 Way Forward

Given the multidimensional approaches between *eradicating* and *relocating, clearance* and *redevelopment and slum upgrading,* the strategies that is required for improving the living conditions of the urban poor as well as sustaining their improved status the policy areas that were identified along with the strategies to go about achieving them are –

Housing: Provision of security of tenure to slum dwellers, relocation / resettlement of slums in objectionable/non-slum locations to suitable places, provide security of tenure to women, better access to Night Shelter for homeless are among the few priority areas within the housing sector. Improve the dwelling units into multistorey complex for better living.

> **Box 4: Upgrading has significant advantages:**
>
> - It is not only an affordable alternative to clearance and relocation (which cost more than 10 times more as upgrading), but it minimizes as well the disturbance to the social and economic life of the community.
> - The results of upgrading are highly visible, immediate and make a significant difference in the quality of life of the urban poor.

Basic Amenities: Provide adequate liquid waste disposal facilities in slum areas even in objectionable locations. Installation of alternative water supply and sanitation systems for un-served/under-served areas either providing septic tank facility or interlinking with city's underground sewerage system. Construction of Sanitary Latrines in Slum areas with proper disposal facility under BOT or under PPP mode. Utilize slum dwellers in Recycle, reduce and reuse process of industrial and other solid wastes. Increase community awareness of good hygiene practices relating to collection and storage of drinking water, use and maintenance of sanitary facilities and other environmental sanitation issues. The institutionalization of sustainable service delivery approach needs to be situated in the context of either a specific project or the regular programme of service delivery to the poor. In the absence of this poor communities may find it difficult to relate it to the process. Moreover, a sustainable approach requires substantial involvement of the community and its resources, and this requires the programme to be credible which will depend on its direct impact on the existing level of services.

Livelihood: Setting up of large-scale production units (say, assembly line jobs or garment making units), where the youth and women may be employed in large numbers. This does not have to be publicly provided, but incentives may be granted to private initiatives at an initial stage. In fact, our case studies show that there are several such units all over the place employing a large number of people but in a very irregular fashion, leaving a huge potential virtually under-utilised.

Provision of vocational training institutes and training workshops on manufacturing of handicrafts etc. There are sporadic initiatives from various NGOs in this direction, but these are clearly insufficient.

Education: Provide developmental care to children from birth and provide it free to all urban poor families. Adopt a policy of encouraging pre-schools attached to primary and community level schools to be operated by the Government, NGOs and community organizations. Ensure that every slum locality has a primary and secondary school. Explore ways of supporting skill development in the informal sector. Improve coordination and develop a common policy and regulatory framework among various public and private sector (including NGOs) providers of

education in slum areas. Provision of properly functioning public schools or upgrading the corporation schools which have virtually lost their importance and purpose.

Introduction of training providers agreements with industries, companies and NGOs Set up an education management information system that will improve educational data collection, information systems and monitoring and evaluation citywide. Community college with facilitation for setting this up and regulation should be with the ULBs and the management by the community with the involvement of NGOs.

Health: Establish an effective partnership among all health service delivery agencies in the city. Decentralise the health care management system by ensuring community participation in slum based programs. Promote outreach/ awareness programmes on negative traditional practices. Make all government health facilities women friendly and enhance women's knowledge of hospital services and facilities. Enhance the logistics and supply of essential drugs & equipment for women's at health facilities in slum localities. Provide health insurance at cheaper rates.

Vulnerable Sections: Formulate and implement a National Social Protection Policy. Policy that will identify vulnerable groups and consider access to food security, access to social services and other social safety nets for these groups. Set up transparency mechanisms at the ULB level so that the employees can report about defaulting employers when social security benefit is not provided. Support child protection agencies to collectively develop and implement the child rights policy. Provide foster homes that are well monitored for orphans and street children. Conduct sensitisation programmes to discourage drug and substance abuse as well as alcoholism.

Micro-credit: Give additional financial products with credit like insurance. Link commercial operations of banks via separate branches dedicated for this purpose rather than having an apex bank. Public-private partnership in both delivery of credit and setting up micro-enterprise. Making micro credit operationally more effective and reachable to the chronic poor. Make rules of credit disbursements and repayment more flexible. Examine further reduction of interest rates and provide support to micro credit providers. Establish a regulatory mechanism through coalition of ULB-NGO/community organisations for stricter non-overlapping and savings and deposit management.

Good Governance: Develop and maintain capacity for data collection, analysis and reporting for evidence-based policy-making. Build capacity to ensure the effective implementation of the decentralisation programmes. Build capacity at community level for the coordination of data collection and compilation to support the monitoring and evaluation of the poverty reduction strategies.

Local government resources: The local governments and other implementing agencies should find a way to raise resources locally instead of depending on the donor agencies. This not only increases their commitment but also ensures that the resources for the continuation of the programme are available even after the donor agency withdraws from the programme. One way of achieving this is to earmark certain percentage of annual budget exclusively for community development and service delivery to the poor.

Capacity building of the stakeholders: The success of the process depends on the ability of the stakeholders and agencies to understand and contribute to the process and also on their willingness to work with each other. The stakeholders need to understand the overall programme process, project design, planning and implementation issues.

Environment: Formulate and implement sound environmental policies for slums in objectionable locations. Surveillance mechanisms in disaster prone regions like proximity to the seashore or riverbed.

Building partnerships: A sustainable approach to service delivery can be institutionalized only through a partnership approach involving the local government, other service providing public agencies, non governmental organizations, community based organizations, donor agencies and the poor communities. The state and national governments should also be involved to gather political, legal and institutional support.

Community participation: A key factor in designing the sustainable program of service delivery is to involve the communities in planning, implementing and monitoring the process. Participatory planning approaches including micro planning and stakeholder consultations are quite useful in designing the community participation. The objective of community participation should be to ensure community ownership of the created infrastructure. Work out Strategies Promoting Knowledge base to promote and disseminate best practices and advocate at different levels to influence policies, practices and decision making processes for ensuring sustainable access, health, education and hygiene benefits to the slum dwellers. Another aspect of upgrading is the positive effect of the community participation in the process of *regeneration*. Upgrading, when done well, can strengthen the communities' voice and ability to transform its condition.

 Land Release Mechanisms. Another way to reduce the formation of new slums is to work on mechanisms to release sufficient affordable land into the market. In Peru, for example, land was made available in a reasonably orderly way. This helped to avoid the worst long-term problems of squatter settlements, even though services take a long time to come to an area. Land release mechanisms are an important element in any urban upgrading strategy, and a crucial one in cases in which there is need for much involuntary resettlement.

Cost recovery approaches: Sustainability of service delivery requires that project is viable to meet at least the operation and maintenance expenditures. Most of the times, the pricing and cost recovery approaches including the subsidies are inefficiently designed and poorly targeted. There is a lack of willingness to charge among the project implementing agencies due to the erroneous assumption that the poor can not pay for the services. However, research studies show that the poor has the willingness to pay for improved services and they are already paying high amounts for alternative sources of service delivery. Hence, there is a need to develop appropriate tariff policies to ensure cost recovery for better operation and maintenance with targeted subsidies for those who are really poor.

Master Plan for housing strategies: Currently there is no Master Plan released by the ULB to show a comprehensive strategy for slum development. A Master plan of the whole city needs to be drawn up which would give clarity regarding location and spread of slums across the city zones, with land ownership, densities, vulnerable slums which probably need to be relocated etc.

Generating Housing stock to meet the housing needs of future urban poor*:* Strategies such as earmarking at least 20-25% of developed land in all housing projects (both Public and Private Agencies) for EWS/LIG category with a system of cross subsidization; Inclusio nary Housing and reservation of land in the newly incorporated areas and while preparing a DP for EWS section housing are recommended.

The actionable measures under each heading mentioned above are a select list from the different strategies and action plans adopted by the different parastatals in each city. The principles underlying the selection of priority actions are:

- Expected impact of activities on the poor;
- Geographic location of activities (e.g. rural vs. urban);
- Involvement and empowerment of the poor (to ensure direct benefits to them);
- Gradual contribution over time to achievements of the MDGs;
- Expected availability of resources, and
- Institutional capacity and need to sequence activities over the timeframe of the action plans.

It is well understood that not all of it can be achieved within a short span of time. Some of these need immediate attention while for some the process should begin right away while the results may bear fruit after a few years. For some others there has to be sustained efforts for about 5-6 years so that monitoring and evaluation procedure gets well ingrained into the system.

Thus, poverty reduction can happen only in the presence of robust institutional arrangements that can support and sustain monitoring and evaluation processes through the active collaboration of key stakeholders in government and civil society.

ANNEXURE

Annexure 1:

Executive Summaries of each city

This Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) has been prepared for the 11 select cities, to identify core issues related to urban poor and city challenges, to set out a perspective and vision for the future development of a city along with the urban poor making it an inclusive city and lastly, its present stage of development & current status regarding the upliftment of the urban poor. The UPRS also focuses on the development of economic and social infrastructure, policies and programmes addressing the specific issues of urban poor. Therefore to set out a direction of change in these 11 select cities, an Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) for each city was prepared.

The objective of this report is to accumulate and formulate a National Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS), by incorporating the lessons learnt and action plans adopted for all the 11 select cities by the individual parastatal agencies, as required under the project. Therefore, to understand the diversity and issues related to urban poor in the 11 different cities from different part of India, the executive summaries of each report is being provided to give out a better picture and understanding of issues related to urban poor in each city and therefore, the strategies/action plans adopted to eradicate poverty from the cities.

1. CHENNAI

In the past few decades, urbanization and urban growth have accelerated in many developing countries. In 1970, 36 percent of the world's population lived in cities; in 2007 this figure has gone up to 49 percent; in 2030, the urban areas of the less developed regions will absorb more than 60 per cent of the world's population growth[22].

The UN estimates that as many as 55% of the world's poor currently live in urban areas; this proportion is expected to increase as population rises[23]. A recent study by the UNDP in 2005 estimates that 900 million people presently lived in slums[24]. That is one in six of the world's population live in what amount to a health- and life- threatening environments, largely excluded from city life and from achieving their political, social, and economic rights.

The challenge of urban poverty will grow in line with population growth trends in urban areas, unless urban development issues are taken more seriously by national governments in developed regions, donors and international development agencies. Thus, in recent times the focus on urban poverty has increased without under emphasizing rural poverty.

Reducing urban poverty not only requires an assessment of livelihood options available to poor and their income generating capabilities but also an assessment of the access to basic services, like water and sanitation as well as to schools and hospitals. In this sense the conventional economic definition of the poor in terms of a minimum income or consumption is to be complemented by a range of other social indicators such as life expectancy, infant mortality, nutrition, the proportion of the household budget spent on food, literacy, school enrolment rates, access to health clinics or drinking water, to classify poor groups against a common index of material welfare.

Further extensions to the assessment of urban poverty is also being attempted by adding qualitative dimensions such as security, self-respect, identity, non-exploitative social relationships, decision-making freedom and legal and political rights. In other words, poverty is defined not just in terms of limited accessibility to goods and services but is broadened to include activities and resources that are associated with human dignity and self-respect.

Added to this commonly held notion of poor in terms of their current poverty status, there is now engagement with those who are under the risk of being exposed to poverty that is, the vulnerable. Vulnerability is not synonymous with poverty, but refers to defenselessness, insecurity and exposure to risk, shocks and stress.

Vulnerability is reduced by assets, such as: human investment in health and education; productive assets including houses and domestic equipment; access to community infrastructure; stores of money, jewellery and gold; and claims on other households, patrons, the government and international community for resources at times of need.

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22 - United Nations (2008), World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision Population Database from http://esa.un.org/unup/.
Tibaijuka, Anna (2002)
23 - Opening statement at workshop on urban policy implications of enhancing food security in African cities. Nairobi, Kenya, May 2002.
24 - UN Millennium Project (2005a) Investing in Development: A practical plan to achieve the millennium development goals. New York: UNDP

The question then shifts to not just asking who are the poor or where are the poor but also what increases the risk of poverty and the underlying reasons why people remain in poverty. An understanding of depth, breadth and duration of poverty becomes essential in this perspective.

On the one hand it may not be possible to study urban poverty as completely different from rural poverty because of the inter-linkage of the urban economy to the rural economy either through issues like terms of trade, or rural-urban migration some of which is seasonal and interrelated aspects like migration and support networks. On the other hand urban poverty has certain features that are completely different from rural like high dependence on cash-based economies, lack of social insurance from relatives, importance of shelter and access to basic infrastructure, associated health and environmental risks, exposure to urban violence some of which could be perpetrated due to high inequality, bad governance and social exclusion.

It is now widely recognised that the rapid growth of urban populations has led to a worsening in absolute and relative poverty in urban areas. Urban poverty has, until recently, been low on the agenda of development policy because of dominant perceptions of urban bias and the need to counter this with a focus on rural development policy. However, policy interest in urban issues is increasing as a result of two phenomena:

• Projections of a large and increasing proportion of poor people living in urban areas, partly as a result of urbanization; and

• Claims that structural adjustment programmes - which should have removed some of the urban bias, by removing price distortions - have in fact led to a much faster increase in urban poverty than rural poverty.

In order to alleviate the urban poverty in the country, the Union Ministry of Urban Affairs and Employment (formerly known as Ministry of Urban Development) has launched a number of slum improvement and Urban Poverty Alleviation Programmes (UPAPs). Some of such prominent programmes include:

• Environment Improvement of Urban Slums (EIUS),
• Swarna Jayanthi Sahari Rojgar Yojana (SJSRY)
• Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT),
• Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Scheme (ILCS),
• Comprehensive Slum Improvement Programme (CSIP)
• Urban Community Development (UCD),
• Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIUPEP),
• Small Enterprise for Urban Poor (SEUP),
• Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP) and
• Nehru Rojgar Yojana (NRY)

These programmes are based on the recognition of the potential contribution that urban poor are capable of making in society and the alarming proportion they are going to assume in the future. They also seek to link employment generation with infrastructure development.

Objective of the study

The objective of this assignment has been to prepare an urban poverty reduction strategy (UPRS) for 12 cities and this report is based on Chennai City. In preparation of UPRS four major tasks were undertaken through (i) an inception report, (ii) a snapshot of city-specific urban poverty, (iii)

case study of selected pockets of poverty within the city and finally (iv) strategies for reduction of urban poverty that is specific to the city under study.

The slum population has seen a substantial growth both in Chennai as well as in other major cities in Tamil Nadu, on account of growing urbanization, industrialization and mobility of population.

As per the latest Census (2001 Census) Report, the slum population in Chennai City alone was about 1.08 million whereas that of other districts in the State of Tamil Nadu was about 5.76 million. We understand that the current approach of the Government of India to tackle urban poverty is three pronged. The first is to provide urban poor with housing and infrastructure. This aspect is covered under the ambit of the flagship urban development programme – the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM). The second, also a part of JNNURM, is to ensure institutional reforms to facilitate decentralization as envisaged in the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (74th CAA) and to ensure accountability of urban local bodies (ULBs) to the citizens. The third approach is to facilitate access to livelihoods / employment through policies like the National Policy for Urban Street Vendors (NPUSV) and programmes like the Swarna Jayanthi Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY).

In response to the above-mentioned thinking on poverty, a GoI-UNDP project on Urban Poverty "National Strategy for Urban Poor" was conceived. The main objective of the projects is to empower the urban poor so that they can contribute effectively to decisions that impact their lives. The project strategy aims to provide the urban poor with a forum to discuss their needs and the obstacles to meeting them. The project seeks to build capacity for implementation of innovative urban poverty alleviation plans, with the thrust on basic services and improvement in the socio-economic condition of slum dwellers.

Methodology

The methodology mainly involved assessing the poverty in slums of Chennai's Metropolitan Area. The data based for the poverty profile was analysed in terms of the secondary data sets like the census and National Sample Survey as well as through primary survey of a sample of slums. These formed the basic information on the poverty profile and subsequently three slums had been identified based on the primary survey and a more detailed study had been carried out based on which a SWOT analysis has also been done. This was followed up with a discussion with the stakeholders both in the government and non-government sectors who were involved with urban poverty reduction work.

Data Collection - Secondary Data: The following information was collected at the level of the city:

- Physical growth of the city - city size over the decades, pattern of change etc.
- City level details - Location aspects, Demography like population growth, density etc., physical characteristics, employment & income pattern, details on the Development Plan (if already available), land use, population projections,
- Economic Base (Economic base in the various sectors including industries and commerce and spatial structure, employment and manpower)
- Land use and intensity of land use details,
- Details on existing informal settlements and informal commercial activities and
- Existing level of infrastructure services, prevailing norms for the delivery & planning of such services like water supply, sanitation, solid waste management, traffic & transportation, street lighting, social infrastructure, etc.,

- Organization and financial aspects and details on available arrangements / mechanism for implementing developmental/ poverty reduction projects, details on the functions and responsibilities of the existing mechanism for coordination, monitoring and evaluation of the project execution at state / city level.

Data Collection - Primary Data: Based on the information available on the maps of slums that had been made available by the pertinent authorities, necessary field surveys were undertaken to supplement the information obtained from the secondary surveys. The process involved

- Listing of Slums with respect to the Administrative Jurisdiction of the Urban Local Body
- Based on Master Plan Document and Development Control Rules; Land Ownership Records from the State Revenue Department (for Revenue Lands); and Private Land Ownership Records from Property Registration Offices located in respective urban local bodies, slums were categorized as below:

1. Slums in Objectionable Areas - for those slums located/ formed in land like river/canal margins, RoW of roads, catchments of drains, greenbelts, etc., which do not confirm to the land use assigned in the approved Master Plan;
2. Slums in Unobjectionable Areas - for those slums that do not encroach upon any kind of land intended for specific purposes or which do not affect the environment of nearby structures, habitations, etc., but do not fall under the first category; and
3. Slums in Private Lands - for those slums located/formed in land owned by the private individuals/institutions/firms, but do not fall under the first category.

- Spatial demarcation of slums including mapping to show the actual dimension of each of the slum areas as per the revenue records and to know the extent of the proposed site as it serves as the basic sketch for any proposed development.

An urban poverty profiling of the city in-terms of housing, basic services, livelihood options and the interventions had been undertaken so as to shortlist and identify 3 case studies based on delineation of priority zones from the maps prepared. The activities for the 3 case study slums included a demand assessment survey along with an assessment of the existing situation and service deficiency analysis.

Apart from this, focus group discussions with the slum dwellers and their community leaders had also been carried out to get their feedback. Based on these discussions and the data collected from the primary survey a SWOT analysis had been carried out which indicated the strengths and the weakness in the current policy initiatives as felt by the slum dwellers in Chennai.

Subsequently these findings were discussed in a workshop involving a few agencies – government and non-government as well as academic institutions- who are engaged with slum rehabilitation and issues of urban poverty in Chennai city. This draft final report has been prepared based on all these information and hopes that it will be useful for further improving the service delivery mechanisms in the city and reducing vulnerability of the slum population particularly those living in denotified and objectionable slums.

General profile of Chennai city

Chennai Urban Agglomeration (CUA) is spread over an area of 571.93 sq. km and Chennai City (present study area), which covers an area of about 174 sq. km accounts for major portion of it.

Chennai City had a population of 4.22 million in 2001, accounting for 15.48 percent of State's urban population of 27.24 million.

The decadal population growth rate was 47% in 1971 and has come down to about 11% in 2001 due to a decline in fertility rates in the city. This has kept the density of population under limited growth, which was about 21,294 persons per square km in 1971 and increased to 24,231 persons per square km in 2001.

Chennai's worker participation rate (within the Municipal Corporation limits) was about 34.19 percent of the total population as per the 2001 Census, and this population was predominantly (98.36 percent of total workers) engaged in tertiary sector, followed by about 1.53 percent in secondary sector.

The master plan for Chennai city envisages strategies for providing adequate shelter to the poor slum dwellers involving the following factors:

- Improvement of physical surroundings by public agencies so that it has adequate basic services such as water supply, drainage, sanitation, street lighting, and other physical conditions leading to better hygienic environment.
- Improvement of the actual structures that the slum dwellers live in, preferably by themselves (extending assistance in terms of financial and physical resources).
- Improvement of economic and social environment beyond the mere physical conditions they live in.

Chennai City is the fourth most populous Metropolitan City in India. The Census report of 2001 has revealed that 42.16 lakhs persons are living in Chennai City out of which 8.2 lakhs persons are reported to have inadequate access to shelter and basic services and they are categorized as slum dwellers in Chennai.

In Chennai Corporation Area a total of 1473 slums were identified out of which 242 slums were identified as undeveloped slums. It was observed that there were 71840 slum families located in these slums. Further 122 slums have been categorized as slums located in objectionable areas, which include all slums including those owned by the private parties.

- 120 slums have been categorized as slums located on unobjectionable areas, which has the ownership brake-up as follows:
- 58 slums under this category were located on lands owned by the Government (State/Central) agencies;
- 17 slums under this category were located on lands owned by Municipal Corporation;
- 1 slums under this category were located on lands owned by other agencies like TNSCB and TNHB;
- 9 slums under this category were located on lands owned by Temple/Mosque; and
- 32 slums under this category were located on lands owned by private agencies.

Snapshot of urban poverty in Chennai city

The basic objective of the primary survey is to get feedback from the users of public services and the problems encountered in accessing such services. The specific objectives of the study are:

- Assess the state of major public services from a user's perspective
- Assess the livelihood options of urban poor in Chennai City

- Create public awareness, and influence the urban government to improve the quality of public services and to expand outreach to benefit the poor

Slums, which are located in the objectionable locations, are taken up for the study purposes. Number of slums selected for study in a particular zone is based on the percentage contribution of total number of slums in the city. All zonal areas were covered as part this sampling methodology.

Annual Income: In order to assess the economic condition of the slum dwellers 1,391 samples were covered during the base line survey. From the Base line survey, it was found that more than 63% of the respondent's annual earnings ranged between Rs. 2500 to Rs. 5000 at the city level.

Livelihood Options: About 38% of the population was in the workforce and among these about 75% was unskilled while a small proportion was involved in jobs in the private or public sector. The skilled population also included a few professionals like doctors. The majority of the unskilled had no formal education.

Caste: From the primary survey it was found that more than 50% of the respondents belonged to SC community. Its share varying from zone to zone, especially in Zones II and IX where OBC community was predominant in comparison with other zones.

Below Poverty Line: From the assessment of 1391 respondents it was found that more than 95% of them were below poverty line (BPL) based on the information that they held a BPL cards. This is a vital finding that most of the slum dwellers were considered to be poor by the state.

Housing Structure and Tenure: It may be noted that about quarter of the total slum housing stock were of pucca in nature. The composition of semi-pucca and kutcha was 52 percent and 26 percent respectively. From the demand assessment surveys, it was found that a majority of families (about 77.9 percent) had 'own' houses, even though it is clear from the above that most of them were of kutcha in nature. Across the zones, families with own houses ranged from 65 percent to 85 percent. It was also observed that several house owners (about 84.5 percent) did not enjoy patta (ownership deed) for their houses but this also varied across zones.

Water: For all zones in the Chennai City, about 73.8% of the respondents had access to daily water supply and another 24 percent of respondents had supplies on alternate days. 95% of respondents were not provided with the house service connection, only public taps/tanks fulfilled the water supply needs of the slum dwellers while metered connections were available in about 2.3% of households in selected zones. It was also reported that a majority of slum dwellers (about 71.64 percent) were purchasing drinking water across all zones, 11.35 percent were using public water for drinking whereas about 17.01 percent did not respond to the query.

Sanitation: About 29.2 percent of the households reported that they were using individual latrine/pit, another 48.3 percent of the households revealed that they used community / public latrine and the remaining 22.5 percent of the households were using other means including open defecation. The monthly expenditure on maintenance of public latrine had to be borne by the slum dwellers and was under Rs. 25 for about 16 percent of the households, between Rs. 26 to Rs. 50 for 23.3 percent of the households and above Rs. 50 for another 2.7 percent of the households.

Sewerage and Drainage facilities: More than 40 percent of the slum families covered under the primary survey disposed sewage waste into open land. Only 28% of the respondents were provided with sewer facility. For the query on the willingness-to-pay for the improved sewerage

and drainage, a majority of the respondents (about 54.6 percent) responded unfavorably while about 41 percent were willing to pay less than Rs. 50 per month.

Solid Waste Management: A majority of the households (about 54.5 percent) had found the easy way out of throwing the solid waste at road side/ open spaces. About 33.3 percent of the respondents reported that they deposited the waste generated in the municipal bins. Others (about 12 percent) revealed that they threw garbage into the drains. About 52 percent had not seen temporary waste storage point/ dustbin in the vicinity while about 26.4 percent of the respondents reported that the temporary waste storage point/ dustbin were available within 50 m of distance. Interestingly, on a query regarding problems of solid waste management, an overwhelming majority of households (60.4 percent) indicated that there were no problems while a small proportion (21.4 percent) of the households indicated that the dustbins were inadequate and even a smaller proportion (about 12.2 percent) complained about irregular collection.

Health and Education Facilities: 82.3 percent of the households reported non-availability of health facilities within the slum and about 64.8 percent of the households indicated the availability of Medical Facilities within 2kms. 9.3 percent of the Households reported zero expenditure on health; others indicated a monthly expenditure on health ranging from under Rs. 100 to over Rs. 250 per month. More than 88 percent of the slum families covered under the primary survey revealed that education was based only on government schools. Primary schools were present in most slums while secondary school availability was lesser. 36.1% of the households did not incur any expenditure on education and others incurred expenditure ranging from under Rs. 100 to over Rs. 250 per month.

Access to Credit: More than half of the loans borrowed were for consumption purposes and about one-quarter was for ceremonies. In case of small loans, 31 % of the people borrowed money from pawnbrokers, Self Help Groups (SHG) and relatives. In case of larger sums of loan, a maximum of 22% of people borrowed money from banks, pawnbrokers, SHG, chit funds and others. About 21% and 15% of the respondents were dependent on SHGs for small and large loans respectively. More than one-third households revealed borrowing for education purposes in recent years. Otherwise the frequency of borrowing ranged between three months to a year by most households. SHGs were used by 23% of the urban poor in the city for employment opportunities, 19% used only for credit facility, while 20% of the people reported, to use for both the purpose.

Other amenities: Cement concrete road or black top road was available within several slums but the road width was very small ranging from 3m to 5m. More than 87 percent of the slum families covered under the assessment survey had electricity in their homes. A majority of the respondents (about 53.4 percent) reported that the streetlights were lit daily whereas another 23.2 percent responded that the streetlights were not lit. About 17.1 percent had stated that the streetlights were lit irregularly. The survey showed that more than 72.4 percent of the households reported the security post/ police post at a distance more than 500 m. The incidence of petty theft seems to be high and more than three-quarter households were unwilling to pay for more security.

Thus, overall the baseline survey indicated that basic facilities dealing with sanitation and sold waste management needed lot of improvement in both access and quality of service delivery, while water supply, roads and performance of street lighting needed some improvements as well. There was not much dissatisfaction expressed by the respondents in accessing either the schooling or health care services. The vulnerability assessment based on demand gap survey further strengthens these findings.

Findings from case study of three slums

With the information from the baseline survey a ranking of various amenities in the slums was created and the slums were classified as "poor", "average" and "above average". Only 20 slums could be classified as above average (rank 1) category followed by 136 slums in the average category (rank 2) and rest 86 slums fall under poor category (rank 3). Based on this four slums were picked up: two from rank 2 slum and one each from rank 1 and rank 3 slum. These slums were Annai Sathya Nagar, Siva Sakthi Nagar, Rotary Nagar and Odaima Nagar. The four slums chosen belonged to different geographical zones with the location being either a waterway, seashore or a roadside.

The case study had two components. First, a detailed survey of the sampled households was carried out asking questions on provision of various services linked with infrastructure, social and economic characteristics of the households including education, health and livelihoods and the willingness to pay for the services where it was inadequately provided. Second, a discussion was also organized with the prime members of the slum to get additional views and feedback that would make the living conditions in these slums better.

Most of the findings from the baseline survey were corroborated while in some instances the magnitude of the problem in water supply, sanitation and sold waste management were intense.

Most respondents were unskilled and reported themselves as coolies. Also the social security measures for the old age and widow/single woman was not available and so were the disability related social security schemes.

Though education level of most of the slum dwellers above 15 years was up to middle school and not many were reported to be in skilled jobs and no special schemes were in place for improving the skills. Given this education level, the average income earned by the families seemed well beyond the poverty line values. Despite this they continued to stay in poor conditions and with insecure livelihood options. This in way indicates that to assess urban poverty a multidimensional approach was needed which assigned adequate weight for human capital along with physical infrastructure as well an assessment based on relative poverty rather than on absolute poverty alone.

The SWOT analysis based on focus group discussion emphasized on livelihood options, improvement of education level and provision for skill training so that the employability could be improved upon. Provision of basic amenities is perhaps better than many poorer regions but being in a large metropolitan city and with several schemes in place the grievances mentioned by the people could be redressed through regular interactions of the government staff in synergy with NGOs.

Way forward

Given the multidimensional approach that is required for improving the living conditions of the urban poor as well as sustaining their improved status the policy areas were identified along with the strategies to go about achieving them.

Housing: Provision of security of tenure to slum dwellers, relocation / resettlement of slums in objectionable locations to a suitable places, provide security of tenure to women, better access to Night Shelter for homeless are among the few priority areas within the housing sector.

Basic Amenities: Provide adequate liquid waste disposal facilities in slum areas even in objectionable locations. Installation of alternative water supply and sanitation systems for un-served/under-served areas either providing septic tank facility or interlinking with city's underground sewerage system. Construction of Sanitary Latrines in Slum areas with proper disposal facility under BOT or under PPP mode. Utilize slum dwellers in Recycle, reduce and reuse process of industrial and other solid wastes. Increase community awareness of good hygiene practices relating to collection and storage of drinking water, use and maintenance of sanitary facilities and other environmental sanitation issues.

Education: Provide developmental care to children from birth and provide it free to all urban poor families. Adopt a policy of encouraging pre-schools attached to primary and community level schools to be operated by the Government, NGOs and community organizations. Ensure that every slum locality has a primary and secondary school. Explore ways of supporting skill development in the informal sector. Improve coordination and develop a common policy and regulatory framework among various public and private sector (including NGOs) providers of education in slum areas.

Introduction of training providers agreements with industries, companies and NGOs Set up an education management information system that will improve educational data collection, information systems and monitoring and evaluation citywide. Community college with facilitation for setting this up and regulation should be with the ULBs and the management by the community with the involvement of NGOs.

Health: Establish an effective partnership among all health service delivery agencies in the city. Decentralise the health care management system by ensuring community participation in slum based programs. Promote outreach/ awareness programmes on negative traditional practices. Make all government health facilities women friendly and enhance women's knowledge of hospital services and facilities. Enhance the logistics and supply of essential drugs & equipment for women's at health facilities in slum localities.

Vulnerable Sections: Formulate and implement a National Social Protection Policy. Policy that will identify vulnerable groups and consider access to food security, access to social services and other social safety nets for these groups. Set up transparency mechanisms at the ULB level so that the employees can report about defaulting employers when social security benefit is not provided. Support child protection agencies to collectively develop and implement the child rights policy. Provide foster homes that are well monitored for orphans and street children. Conduct sensitisation programmes to discourage drug and substance abuse as well as alcoholism.

Micro-credit: Give additional financial products with credit like insurance. Link commercial operations of banks via separate branches dedicated for this purpose rather than having an apex bank. Public-private partnership in both delivery of credit and setting up micro-enterprise. Making micro credit operationally more effective and reachable to the chronic poor. Make rules of credit disbursements and repayment more flexible. Examine further reduction of interest rates and provide support to micro credit providers. Establish a regulatory mechanism through coalition of ULB-NGO/community organisations for stricter non-overlapping and savings and deposit management.

Good Governance: Develop and maintain capacity for data collection, analysis and reporting for evidence-based policy-making. Build capacity to ensure the effective implementation of the decentralisation programmes. Build capacity at community level for the coordination of data collection and compilation to support the monitoring and evaluation of the poverty reduction strategies.

Environment: Formulate and implement sound environmental policies for slums in objectionable locations. Surveillance mechanisms in disaster prone regions like proximity to the seashore or riverbed.

It is well understood that not all of it can be achieved within a short span of time. Some of these need immediate attention while for some the process should begin right away while the results may bear fruit after a few years. For some others there has to be sustained efforts for about 5-6 years so that monitoring and evaluation procedure gets well ingrained into the system.

Thus, poverty reduction can happen only in the presence of robust institutional arrangements that can support and sustain monitoring and evaluation processes through the active collaboration of key stakeholders in government and civil society.

2. KOLKATA

The Kolkata Metropolitan Area (KMA) stretching over 1851 sq km and enveloping as many as 41 Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) including three Municipal Corporations and 24 Panchayat Samities is the largest metropolis in Eastern India with a disproportionate demographic and economic predominance. The contribution of KMA transcends the boundaries of the metropolis and extends over the entire country. The analyses of the existing city profile of KMA point to enormous potentiality of growth of the city, especially in the context of rising economic parameters for the State as a whole. The manufacturing and service sector industries are projected to grow at relatively high rates in KMA. Alongside, the population of KMA is also set to grow, even with nominal migration and reduced CBR. The population projected for 2025 is 21.07 million, projected to rise from about 15 million at present. The infrastructural profile does indicate severe deficits in basic infrastructure provision as well as spatial inequality thereof within the boundaries of KMA. It is indisputable that if the projected population has to be provided with a decent urban living and the supportive economic activities, the need for augmentation of infrastructural facilities is a sine qua none. Kolkata being one of the oldest cities in the country does exhibit blighted areas within the old city areas. That calls for renewal and redevelopment so as to provide a better environment and organized facilities for future growth.

And, among these notable points exists the highly skewed and unfavourable economic and social conditions influencing the livelihood of a large number of urban residents living in the slums of the city. We provide a detailed analysis of the conditions of these residents subject to severe environmental infrastructure deficiencies and vulnerability. It turns out that a larger percentage of inhabitants in these slums suffer from lack of access to educational, health-related and occupational opportunities. The project provided us a serious opportunity to target the poor in the notified and non-notified slums, as well as the homeless in the city as an important element in the best practices for poverty alleviation.

While the detailed report follows, as highlights of the study, it may be pointed out that, the residents in the slums of Kolkata suffer from various chronic problems, including water logging, lack of health facilities, malfunctioning public distribution system and so on. The dwelling houses can barely accommodate the members and most household activities including cooking and washing are performed in very unhygienic manner, thus exposing a larger share of the members to various health hazards. The livelihood opportunities facing the slum dwellers are limited to a few lowpaying choices, in various informal occupations including domestic helps and it is one of the prime factors why the low level equilibrium is not easily broken by outside interventions that aim at redistribution alone. There is strong insecurity among the slum dwellers in terms of their residence, and especially so for inhabitants of the non-notified slums; forceful occupancy of land often leads to serious tension in the localities. There are enormous irregularities in the manner KMC officials handle issues pertaining to conditions in the slums. Residents suffer from low morale and believe that they cannot be treated at par with other residents. The younger, and the more exposed generation is however quite aware of their rights and tend to connect to the ruling local parties for protecting their causes. Urge for acquiring school education is high at the initial stage, but the children tend to drop out of school by the time they reach age of 10-12 on average. Most residents thrive on very small-scale activities and pay bribes at every stage, even to the extent of obtaining a vending permit. Given the strong policy orientation of this project, there may be room for some of these policies intending to create a better atmosphere of existence for a large number of slum residents that comprise almost 45 per cent of the total population in the city. Admittedly, none of these policies seem feasible without direct public intervention, partly as public consumption expenditure and partly as public investment expenditures. The spirit behind the policy propositions is to create the right conditions

and institutions that can sustain the livelihood of the urban poor and can serve as viable alternatives to volatile direct public transfers.

1. Provide health insurance at cheaper rates.
2. Improve the dwelling units into multistorey complex for better living.
3. Setting up of large-scale production units (say, assembly line jobs or garment making units), where the youth and women may be employed in large numbers. This does not have to be publicly provided, but incentives may be granted to private initiatives at an initial stage. In fact, our case studies show that there are several such units all over the place employing a large number of people but in a very irregular fashion, leaving a huge potential virtually under-utilised.
4. Provision of properly functioning public schools or upgrading the corporation schools which have virtually lost their importance and purpose.
5. Provision of vocational training institutes and training workshops on manufacturing of handicrafts etc. There are sporadic initiatives from various NGOs in this direction, but these are clearly insufficient.

3. BANGALORE

Overview

The Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy for Bangalore initiated by the National Institute of Urban Affairs aims to empower the urban poor so that they can contribute effectively to decisions that impact their lives. The project strategy aims to provide the urban poor with a forum to discuss their needs and the obstacles to meeting them. The project seeks to build capacity for implementation of innovative urban poverty alleviations, with the thrust on basic services and improvement in the socio-economic condition of slum dwellers.

The UPRS focuses on improving the living conditions of the urban poor and their quality of life. A greater emphasis would be laid on providing a broader spectrum of livelihood options for the poor. It is expected that this will, in turn, improve the quality of life of the city as a whole.

Study Objectives and Scope of Work

The specific objectives of the study are:

(i) Formulation of sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources to address the needs of the poor
(ii) Promoting participation of the urban poor in the Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy
(iii) Promoting pro-poor institutional reforms.

The envisaged scope of work encompasses
(i) Preparation of city level profiles of the urban poor;
(ii) Assessment of urban poor's access to services, livelihood options available and status of urban poverty alleviation programs;
(iii) Case studies of selected pockets to arrive at a detailed understanding of the status of the poor;
(iv) Preparation of a city-specific urban poverty reduction strategy

Profile of Bangalore

Bangalore has been witnessing exponential growth in population (with an estimated population of 5.7 million as per Census 2001). The city hosts several major public sector units of the nation and has seen tremendous growth in high-technology business activities in the last two decades. It is the fifth largest city in the country and amongst its fastest growing cities. It is now recognized as a Global city and a preferred destination of many global corporations to position their businesses. The challenge before the Urban Local Body (BBMP) and Government agencies involved in provision of services to the poor is to meet the unprecedented demand for a high level of 'citizen services' and the need to address equity issues in service provision.

Along side the high-tech industries, the proliferation of slums and attendant problems coexist. The city attracts large migrant populations in search of employment, who have established settlements on available land. Bangalore presents a typical urban agglomeration, experiencing the problems of rapid urbanization and unplanned growth in all directions. Unplanned development of the city, especially in the last two decades has left the city falling far below accepted norms for service levels in delivering citizen services be it good roads or clean environment, especially in its slums.

Slums are an integral part of Bangalore and contribute significantly to the city economy both through their labour market contributions and informal production activities. Thus, it is important that slums and informal settlements should also be an integral part of the planning and development framework of the city.

Profile of Bangalore Slums

While it is understood that not all residents of slum settlements in Bangalore are poor and that not all the urban poor reside in slums, it is also recognized that slums are essentially manifestations/products of urban poverty. Hence, for the purpose of this study, slums have been considered as an appropriate representation of the urban poor.

1. Slum Population

Slum population in Bangalore has more than doubled from an estimated 300,000 in 1981 to ~680,000 in 2001 (Census of India). Current estimates of slum population in Bangalore vary widely, between 10 and 26 percent of the urban population. While the census figures include slums within erstwhile BMP area, CMCs and TMC, Karnataka Slum Clearance

Board records only slums under its jurisdiction i.e., the declared slums (several slums do not exist on ground any more, having been relocated, or, exist in another name, as revealed during field visits for verification by WSAPL staff). Hence, there is a clear ambiguity in the (a) list of slums, and (b) urban poor population.

Table 3.1: Varying Estimates of Slum Population in Bangalore

Sl. No.	Source	Slum Population of Bangalore	Proportion of Slum Population to Total Population
		No.	%
1	Census (2001)	6,80,516	12
2	KSCB (2005)	6,10,030	11
3	CDP (2007) (estimated)	14,89,950	26

Below Poverty Line Population: As per preliminary data available from Janaagraha's ongoing project, "Creating a Common BPL List in Bangalore", the Below Poverty Line population in the city is roughly 10 lakhs1. Since this figure is higher than the total slum population (as per Census 2001), it suggests that there are overlaps in estimation of BPL population.

A 2003 study on Bangalore Slums conducted by the NGOs, Janasahayog and CIVIC, records that "No one single government department has the complete slum profile or even the data about the number of slums in Bangalore."

As per data presented in the CDP for Bangalore, slums in the city comprise declared slums and undeclared slums. The total area under slums listed by KSCB is 687.68 sq. km. Out of this area; 323.20 sq. km. area is under declared slums while 364. 49 sq. km. is under undeclared slums. Available secondary data needs to be updated and verified, as it does not match on ground. Moreover, there is a category of 'unlisted' or 'unrecognised' slums that need to be identified and their needs addressed.

Table 3.2: Details on KSCB recognized slums (declared and undeclared) in Bangalore

Details on KSCB recognized slums (declared and undeclared)				
Sl. No.	Type of slum	Population	No. of huts	Area
		No.	No.	Sq. km.
1	Declared	287773	52195	323.20
2	Undeclared	322257	55292	364.49
	Total	610,030	107,487	687.69

Source: KSCB

Table 3.3 : Number of Slums and Households under KSCB, BMP, CMCs and TMC in Bangalore

Number of slums and households under KSCB, BMP, CMCs and TMC		
Agency	No. of Slums	Remarks
	No	
Karnataka Slum Clearance Board (KSCB)	218	Declared
Bangalore Mahanagar Palike (BMP)		Out of 420 slums, 237 slums are declared, 127 are undeclared and 56 are unlisted slums.
North zone	82	
East zone	44	
South zone	145	
West zone	99	
Central zone	50	
Total	420	
City Municipal Council (CMC)		Out of 188 slums, 101 slums are declared and 55 slums are undeclared and 32 are unlisted.
Byatarayanapura	54	
Krishnarajapura	39	
Mahadevapura	24	
Bommanahalli	37	
R R Nagar	11	
Dasarahalli	13	
Yelahanka	10	
Total	188	
Town Municipal Council (TMC)		Undeclared
Kengeri	6	
Grand Total	614	

Visits by the study team to slums in Bangalore revealed that housing conditions / levels of services vary considerably across different geographical locations in the city, particularly between the erstwhile BMP area versus the erstwhile CMC/TMC areas (which now form part of BBMP). Preliminary reconnaissance visits to slum areas in the city also revealed that the lists provided by BMP and KSCB needed updation. Hence, a reconnaissance survey was conducted by WSAPL through which a total of 614 slums were identified within BBMP area. The number of slums identified / surveyed within erstwhile BMP area is 420, while those within CMC and TMC are 194.

For the identification of slum settlements in the city, the definition of slums adopted for primary survey was similar to that adopted by Census of India 2001: (i) All areas declared / recognized as

71

slums by KSCB/BMP/ULBs, (ii) All areas recognized as slums but not formally declared as slums by the concerned authorities, and (iii) any settlement with at least 50 households and poorly built congested tenements with inadequate infrastructure (water and sanitation in particular). The methodology for identification was – contacting ward level municipal officials and seeking their help in identification of all settlements conforming to the definition given above. Hence, three categories of slums were identified. It is interesting to note that the primary survey revealed the existence of 88 additional slums in the erstwhile BMP area, apart from those in BMP's / KSCB's list of declared and undeclared slums. A total of 194 slums were surveyed in the adjoining CMC and TMC areas. However, no list of declared and undeclared slums for the CMCs and Kengeri TMC was available from the ULBs / KSCB, which could be used to ratify the declared and undeclared slums in the CMCs and Kengeri TMC (as mentioned in the CDP). Slums in the CMCs and TMC were identified using a similar methodology and the lists submitted to the ULB for final ratification.

Stakeholder Consultation in UPRS Process

Stakeholder consultation was undertaken in the form of individual meetings with stakeholders (agencies/officials, civil society and slum dwellers) as well as a joint consultation meeting of stakeholders held on August 6, 2007 at the office of the Principal Secretary, Urban Development. Stakeholder consultation was undertaken in the form of individual meetings with stakeholders (agencies/officials, civil society and slum dwellers) as well as a joint consultation meeting of stakeholders held on August 6, 2007 at the office of the Principal Secretary, Urban Development. Stakeholders gave various suggestions related to UPRS, which were documented and incorporated. The final recommendations of the study have been shared with stakeholders and their feedback sought.

City Level Snapshot

A City-level Snapshot of slums was prepared, using a representative sample of slums. The assessment mainly focuses on the status and condition of slums and slum households' access to basic services and livelihood options. The Multi-Stage Stratified Random Sampling (MSRS) technique was used for the selection of sample slums from a total of 614 slums in Bangalore. Stratification of slums was undertaken in four stages as given below: (i) In the first stage, slums were stratified by their location and categorized as per the region they are located in viz. North, South, East, West and Central; they were also stratified into erstwhile BMP and CMC/TMC slums; (ii) In the second stage, the identified slums were further categorized into declared and undeclared slums based on their administrative status as per BBMP, BDA or KSCB records; (iii) In the third stage, slums were further classified as per their year of origin; (iv) In the final stage, slums were classified as per their size in terms of population and area.

A total of 115 slums, which is about 19 % of the total number of slums (614 slums) as per primary survey conducted and 25 % of the total number of slums as per secondary data quoted in the CDP-2005 (542 slums) present in the BBMP area were selected for sample surveys. Of the total sample slums, 82 are notified, 44 are non-notified and the remaining two are unlisted slums. Fact Sheets prepared on each sample slum provide details on the following: (i) General information on slum (Area, location, topography, ownership, establishment, notification, population, BPL population, SC/ST population, houses etc.); (ii) Economic Profile (Percentage of worker population, distribution of workforce); (iii) Housing (Condition of housing); (iv) Access to Basic Services. Water supply, sanitation and drainage, solid waste disposal, educational and health facilities; (v) Access to Other Services (Bus stop, railway station, telephone booth, market etc.). Table Ex 4 provides a summary of levels of slum households' access to housing and basic services in Bangalore.

Table 3.4: Access to Basic Services in Bangalore

Access to Basic Services			
Sr. No	Service	Description	Access to Households (%)
1	Water supply	Individual WSC	43
		Community Taps	50
		Open/Bore Well	2
		Tanker	5
2	Sani-tation	Individual Toilets-UGD	35
		Individual Toilets-Others	14
		Public Convenience	35
		Open Defecation	16
3	Solid Waste Disposal	Daily/Alternate Day Clearing of Waste	61
		Daily/Alternate Day Clearing of Drains	5
		Daily/Alternate Day Sweeping of Roads	59
4	Drainage	Roadside Drains	56
5	Housing	Pucca	13
		Semi-pucca	49

Vulnerability Assessment

The data collected for 115 slums in the City-level Snapshot study was used to undertake a vulnerability assessment. The definition of vulnerability is defined largely in terms of their (extent of) access to support by the state: these are attempted to be captured by having scores assigned to each of the slums on several counts: access to water, health facility, drainage, sanitary facilities, waste disposal, school, etc., and whether or not the residents in possession of titles to the site on which their houses are built; to whom the land on which the slum is located belong to; and extent to which the houses are in good pucca conditions, as well as in terms of whether or not the residents have cards for PDS, the share of economically active population, etc. Each of these indicators is assumed to have one or the other type of relationship with their conditions of poverty, and therefore, upon their vulnerability. For example, dependent population, extent of population below poverty line, population covered by PDS, distance to various services from place of residence, etc. The specific value for each indicator was statistically assigned by the software package 'Definite.' Such an assignation is determined by the specific slum's value for the given indicator in relation to the pattern of distribution of values for all the slums in that respect. Levels of vulnerability were defined as under: (1) High Vulnerability: Slums that have the least access, if any at all, to most services and facilities listed. Because they lack them, or because they have much less per capita availability of such services, they are considered to be most vulnerable – thereby giving little opportunity for them to raise above poverty line; (2) Low Vulnerability: Slums that have on an average most facilities as listed above or have access to them in a relatively better position than the rest; and (3) Medium Vulnerability: Slums that have not too high, but not too low ratings in respect of having access to most facilities as listed above. Although poor or missing out on many services, slums thus defined are found to be faring better than the rest who will be classified as of High Vulnerability.

The statistical software package, Definite is programmed to assign values in relation to the pattern of distribution of percent ages or extents for each indicator. It also suggests the percentiles, which enables us to arrive at different levels of vulnerability. An average score of up to 25 per cent was seen as relatively a better off position in terms of vulnerability; while from 26 to 50 per cent was seen as medium vulnerability. Any thing above 50 per cent was seen as having greater vulnerability. After assigning the widely ranging items of information a score from 0.1 to

0.9, the average score was calculated and then converted to percentage terms. The statistical package itself tells us what is the critical point at which there can be a systematic grouping (from one group to another).

Table 3.5: Particular Indicators of Vulnerability in Bangalore

Particuler Indicators of Vulnerability

Sl. No.	Indicators of Vulnerability	Unit/Response	Score
1	Employed Persons	Per Cent	Statistically Assigned#
2	Density of Population	Per Hectare	Statistically Assigned
3	Land Belongs to	Government, Private, Mixed	(0.6); (0.1); (0.3) Respectively

Case Studies

For the purpose of selecting slums for case studies (three in number), slums first stratified by vulnerability score (high, medium, low), were then followed by location (central, outlying, former CMC/TMC areas), age, legal status (notified/non-notified) and ownership of the land (private/government). Three slums were selected taking into consideration the average population in Bangalore slums (~ 2100), where one slum was selected with population above average, another with size of population below average and a third having population closer to the average population in Bangalore slums.

Additionally, suggestions given by stakeholders to select one slum from the erstwhile BMP area (currently under BBMP's jurisdiction), another from BBMP area but under KSCB's jurisdiction (an older slum) and the third from any of the erstwhile CMCs/TMCs was followed, while making the final selection. A short-list of 16 slums was prepared, of which three slums meeting the criteria discussed above, were selected for case study. Case study slums include: (1) Anjanappa Garden, (2) Nellur Puram, and (3) Indira Gandhi Nagar. A sample size of ~30 percent households was adopted for each case study slum.

Each case study analyses the status of households living in the slum in terms of access to housing and basic services and livelihood patterns. The Case Studies also include a section on access to government programs and benefits. The purpose of each case study is to arrive at an in-depth analysis of the status of the urban poor in Bangalore, based on primary data. The case studies provided insights for formulation of recommendations as part of preparation of urban poverty reduction strategies for the city of Bangalore. The Case Studies helped arrive at the following important observations:

Sl. No.	Indicators of Vulnerability	Unit/Response	Score
4	Status of Slum Notification	Notified, Not Notified	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively
5	Ecologically Sensitivity Location	Sensitive, Normal	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively
6	Housing Condition	Per Cent Kuchcha	Statistically Assigned
7	Status of Title Deeds to House Sites	Patta Issued; Not Issued	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively
8	Availability of Drinking Water	Per Cent With House Connection	Statistically Assigned
9	Availability of Sanitation Facilities	Per Cent with Sanitary Facility	Statistically Assigned
10	Availability of Drainage Facilities	Yes/No	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively
11	Availability of Waste Disposal Facilities	Yes/No	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively
12	Availability of Educational Facility	Within Slum; Minimum 1 Kilometer away	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively
13	Availability of Health Facility	Within Slum; Minimum 1 Kilometer away	(0.1); (0.9) Respectively

Table 3.6: Classification of Slums in terms of their Vulnerability in Bangalore

Classification of Slums in terms of their Vulnerability

Percentile Values Computed	Frequency	Percent
Less than 0.4125 "Low vulnerability"	31	27
Between 0.4126-0.5150 "Medium vulnerability"	31	27
More than 0.5151 "high vulnerability"	53	46
Total	115	100

(i) Below poverty line population. As is well known, whether in rural or urban areas, or in slums or elsewhere, there is a greater tendency for people who do not actually belong to households that may be classified as being under poverty line tend to claim to be so. This is not only a mindset, but also resorted to in order to be eligible to obtain several of the welfare schemes and subsidized essential goods such as food grains, kerosene, etc. There is a need for a better system of poverty identification that is required, especially in slums. This observation comes after examining the mismatch between income and claimed poverty status of residents of the slum, as also those who do not possess any PDS Cards. Although other forms of evidence is required to confirm the following statement, one observation may be made in relation to the type of PDS card possessed and the length of stay in the slum. The older households have a greater tendency for possessing a ration card that is meant to support those above poverty line (APL), while the newer settlers tend

to have, mostly, the cards meant for those below poverty line. Assuming that the PDS card-issuing pattern is in keeping with the actual economic status of households, one may find evidence that the older residents of slums tend to be getting out of poverty conditions than the new settlers.

(ii) Ability and Willingness to Pay. Even those who had not admitted to pay any 'tax' for water had given accounts for spending money on water. This seeming contradiction points to the prevalence of a market for water in the slums. This may be in terms of 'purchasing' water from other households, which have a residential connection and/or making payments to the touts for enabling supply of water. A majority of households in case study slums were willing to pay for better water supply facilities; but much less than what they are currently spending (opportunity costs). On an average they are now spending Rs. 44.06 per month on water, but would be willing spend an average of Rs. 19.71 for better water facility.

The expected pattern of association between household income and willingness to pay for usage of toilets was found: Lower the income, lower the willingness to pay; while with the increase in income, there had been an increase in the proportion of households willing to pay for the service. Health, education and improvement in facilities for water are the ones for which there is a greater willingness to pay. Indeed, willingness to pay for 'improvement' than for 'new connections' is more in regard to water.

(iii) Emphasis on quality of service. Periodic verification of the quality of water from various sources needs to carried out. The ground level tanks or overhead tanks too also need to be periodically cleaned. Solid waste disposal and street sweeping is clearly a matter of concern in all slums.

(iv) Need for a Special Contributory Housing Programme. The case studies helped conclude that if indeed, our concern is to promote good toilet habits, focus is to be given on improving the house structures, for those kutcha and semi-pucca houses have a greater tendency for open defecation or defecation on community facilities. To the extent community facilities are well maintained and affordable, they may be used more than other unhealthy means. About 70 per cent of households expressed a willingness to pay for use of a common toilet facility, provided it had the requisite supply of water for cleaning. A high proportion of those willing to pay for this purpose is indicative of the quality of prevailing service. The more well-to-do households were ready to contribute much more than those with lower income. It is the owners of Kutcha and semi-Pucca houses who are more in number in offering to pay for a new house or improvement of house, and a toilet.

Considering such willingness, it would be worthwhile to promote a Special Contributory Housing Programme for the Urban Poor on much wider and larger scale than at present. Such voluntary movement out of established slum may also result in a gradual decongestion of houses in the slums besides reducing the pressure on services such as water, sanitation, schooling etc.

(v) Focus on disadvantaged households within slums. It is necessary that targeted attention is made even to those smaller proportions of households (disadvantaged households) facing problems in terms of basic service access, housing and livelihoods. Equity issues need to be addressed to the extent possible.

4. HYDERABAD

Background

The rapid rise of urban poverty in the recent past has made it imperative to concert efforts to poverty reduction. The multidimensional nature of urban poverty calls for a paradigm shift in the approach to its reduction e.g., from needs-based approach to rights-based approach, which calls for a different strategy. Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) is an attempt to bring about such strategies for urban poverty alleviation that can be appropriately targeted, involve community participation and are innovative in their design and approach.

The UPRS came in the background of current approach of the Government of India (GoI) to tackle urban poverty in a three pronged manner through (a) Basic services under JNNURM, (b) Institutional reforms under 74th CAA and (c) livelihood generation under SJSRY. JNNURM is the latest programme undertaken by the GoI in 63 major Indian cities with a mission approach to tackle several urban problems, including those relating to urban poverty. To promote integrated strategies for the reduction of urban poverty in the cities, Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) was decided to be drawn for the 12 JNNURM cities under the GOI-UNDP Project on National Strategy for the Urban Poor (NSUP). It was conceived under the NSUP that Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) will be prepared by 12 cities as a first step and that would provide inputs to the NSUP. The main objectives of UPRS are:

- Sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources for addressing the needs of the urban poor.
- Promoting participation of the urban poor in the UPRS.
- Promoting pro-poor institutional reforms

The Study

The current study of urban poverty profile and reduction strategy of Hyderabad city is aimed at addressing the socio-economic status of the urban poor, their access to shelter and services, policies and programs and their impacts etc. The broad objectives of the study are:

- To develop sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources for addressing the needs of the urban poor
- To promote participation of the urban poor in the UPRS
- To promote pro-poor institutional reforms.

The specific objectives of the study include the following:

- To prepare a status report on the nature, magnitude and characteristics of urban poverty
- To examine the nature and access of the poor to basic services, such as water, sanitation, solid waste management, roads etc, and also to support services such as health and education
- To examine the poverty linkages with physical aspects such as land tenure-ship and its impact on services as well as economic aspects such as income, employment and access to credit
- To document and review the past and present initiatives and the development programs aimed at the urban poor and their impact on improving the standard of living .
- To examine the institutional arrangements for the delivery of services to the poor and for the implementation of other socio-economic and welfare schemes with a particular focus on institutionalization of service delivery process at MCH.

- To develop and evolve a set of strategies for reducing urban poverty that lay down the suitable approach, institutional arrangement, financial mechanisms and implementation strategy for up scaling service delivery to the urban poor.

The study is confined to the geographical boundaries of Hyderabad Urban Agglomeration (HUA), which accounts for a population of 5.75 million according to 2001 census and which is spread over a geographical area of 778 sq km. The geographical area of HUA comprises the areas of:

- Municipal Corporation of Hyderabad (MCH) Area
- Twelve Adjoining Municipalities
- Osmania University Area
- Secunderabad Cantonement Area

City Profile

Hyderabad is the capital of Andhra Pradesh, which is the fifth largest state in India, both in area and population. The urban population of the state is 20.5 million out of total population of 75.72 million, as per the provisional population tables of Census 2001. The percentage of urban population to total population in Andhra Pradesh is 27.08 per cent as against the all India average of 27.78 per cent. The share of urban to total population has increased from 9.65 per cent to 27.08 per cent during the period 1901 to 2001. In absolute figures, it had risen from 1.83 millions in 1901 to 20.5 millions in 2001.

Hyderabad is one of the only two million-plus cities in Andhra Pradesh. It became a metropolis in 1951 and joined the rank of metros in 1991 with a growth rate of 67%, higher than any other metro in the country. Hyderabad is one of the fastest growing cities in the country. Its annual growth rate of 5.34% during the period of 1981-91 is the second largest growth rate in the last decade.

The growth of population was more than 50 % during 1981-91 and 27% during 1991-2001. Much of the growth was seen in neighboring areas of MCH.

The growth patterns and trends of Hyderabad Urban Agglomeration (HUA) reveal some interesting insights. MCH has gradually been accommodating lesser overall population growth. Much of the population growth has taken place in the neighbouring municipalities during 1981-91, but even they could not sustain the growth in the succeeding decade. There has been an overall moderation in the growth rate of HUA and its constituent areas, which clearly indicates that much of the growth has shifted to the areas/jurisdictions outside the HUA, which constitute a part of the proposed larger Hyderabad Metropolitan Area (HMA).

Much of the growth in Hyderabad is now taking place due to the growth of Information Technology (IT), BPO and other software services, which are increasingly concentrating in the outer areas, which are designated for them by the Government. Besides, large manufacturing and integrated Special Economic Zones (SEZs) are expected to be coming up in these areas. Film industry is also a major driver of the various services and of employment generation. Recently, large real estate and construction activity has been playing a major role in the economic development and employment generation, and much of it is occurring in the areas outside the urban agglomeration.

Urban Poverty Profile

As per the Census of India estimates, the urban poverty in Hyderabad is measured at 23% of total population. This level is comparatively high as against Delhi (8%), Kolkata (6%) and Chennai (20%) but slightly better than that of Mumbai (27%). However, as per the data available from urban development/planning authorities, the number of people living below the poverty line (BPL) is 5.40 lakhs of which about 4.30 lakhs live in the MCH area and the rest in surrounding municipalities. The BPL population is quite substantial and it constitutes around 13 percent of the total population.

Hyderabad is characterized by a very significant presence of the slum population, with a growing number of them. Slum settlements have multiplied over decades and the living conditions of the poor have not improved. Slums are scattered across the city and surrounding municipalities, with high population densities and the number of people inhabiting them estimated to be around two million. It is estimated that more than half of these slums are on private land, and the rest on lands belonging to various public entities.

More than 9 lakh population lives in the 770 notified slums in HUA. Out of these 811 slums, 387 have been recognized as developed and are recommended for de-listing. The spatial distribution of the slums in the city is quite sporadic and scattered all across the city.

The concentration of slum settlements is generally more near (a) railway lines, (b) Musi River, (c) nallas flowing into either Musi river or Hussain Sagar lake and (d) other water bodies. Though slum settlement is concentrated in the inner city, mainly in the old Hyderabad city, they are spreading in the outskirts of the city as well. The number of slum households at present is more than 1.7 million, which has increased from a 1.15 million in year 1991.

Slums have been an integral part of the city of Hyderabad since long and have now become an integral part of the urban system. Slums in HUA are located on state government, municipal and quasi government land, Abadi land, central government land, private land and unclaimed land. Access of slum population to the basic infrastructure services is a key indicator of the quality of life in slums in particular. The following table coverage of various basic infrastructure services in the slums of both MCH and surrounding municipalities.

Table 4.1: Basic Infrastructure in Slums of Hyderabad

Basic Infrastructure in Slums			
Services	Units	MCH	Surrounding ULBs
Roads	Km	1175	473
Sewer Lines	Km	548	124
Storm Water Drains	Km	366	236
Community Latrines	Seats	111	42
Street Lights	No.	35824	16506
Drinking Water Supply Piped Supply	Km	107	261
Drinking Water Supply Public Stand Posts (PSPs)	No.	508	1623
LCS Units	No.	6659	13216
Community Centres	No.	380	135
Schools	No.	340	332
Water Supply Coverage	%	70	52
Sanitation Facility	%	55	70
Electricity	%	70	77

Issues of Urban Poverty

The issues relating to poverty and poverty alleviation have been receiving attention from urban planners, policy makers, implementing agencies, research institutions at national and international levels. A drastic difference in the incomes of people and their distribution in urban centers has been leading to a small and increasingly wealthy group separating both socially and even physically from the poorer sections of the population, which is leading seggretation of the poor and poorer areas from that of the rich. Such segregation may itself act against the poor as the infrastructure services and urban development may confine to the areas lived, owned and governed by the rich and make the poor marginalized.

International experience clearly emphasizes the persistence of multidimensional and dynamic nature of urban poverty. Apart from the lack of adequate income, poverty is associated with the lack of access to basic services including water and sanitation, poor access to education and health and tenure insecurity and inadequate housing, all of which lead to deprivation of the poor. The characteristics of poverty are interlinked. For example, unemployment, underemployment and vulnerable occupations are perceived as linked to the absence of basic infrastructure and services to support their livelihoods.

In any urban area, slums and squatter settlements are considered as visible manifestation of poverty due to their lack of access to basic services and poor housing conditions. Nearly one-third to one-half of urban population in Indian cities is estimated to be living in slums and squatter settlements. Any strategy aiming at poverty reduction needs to focus on provision of basic civic infrastructure in slums and squatter settlements. The main issues of urban poverty reduction in Hyderabad are:

- Low-Income Settlements of sizeable number
- Notified slums which are in a good number
- Non-Slum Areas which require recognition
- Houseless Population which is not getting counted
- Tenure Regularization which has to be accelerated
- Gender Issues making the women vulnerable
- Vulnerability of the people to several hazards
- Community Organization that is skewed

Case Study of Slums

Three slums, located in three different zones of Hyderabad city, were selected for the survey to make an assessment of all households in three slums with respect to the availability of basic amenities like housing, drinking water, sanitation and livelihood opportunities. The three slums that were surveyed belonged to different regions of the city and were representative of slums in those areas.

Demography and Housing details

- The three slums were located in three completely different regions of the city. Indiranagar is situated in the northern end of the city and the majority residents are Hindu. Gulshan Nagar slum is located in the centre of the city and has a Muslim majority with a very few Hindu families. Arsh Mahal is located in the southern end of the city that is also the older part of the city and is referred to as old city.

- The highest number of structures was found in Arsh Mahal (328) followed by Indiranagar b Colony (210) and Gulshan Nagar (177). The structure wise density is the lowest in the case of Indiranagar b Colony at 7.64, followed by 7.98 in the case of Arsh Mahal. The highest density per structure was found in the case of Gulshan Nagar at 12.27.
- The total population in absolute terms is highest in the case of Arsh Mahal at 2618 followed by 2173 in Gulshan Nagar and 1605 in Indiranagar b Colony.
- Rough estimate of the area of slum shows that Arsh Mahal is the largest slum with an area of 70000 sq m, followed by Gulshan Nagar with an area of about 50000 sq m and Indiranagar b Colony with an area of about 20000 sq m.
- The majority of the population (96%) in Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal fell below the poverty line while the condition was slightly better in the case of Indiranagar b Colony (77%).
- The distribution of households by household size shows that the highest percentage of nuclear households are in Arsh Mahal (92.3%) followed by Gulshan Nagar (83.8%) and Indiranagar (78.4%). The highest percentage of joint families is seen in the case of Indiranagar (18.8%).
- The slum of Arsh Mahal had the highest percentage of illiterate population followed by Gulshan Nagar and Indiranagar b colony. The percentage of salaried/employed population was highest in the case of Indiranagar b colony.
- Most of the houses in Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal were of semi-pucca type. The number of kutcha houses in the three slums was quite low. The highest percentage of pucca houses was seen in the case of Indiranagar b colony. The highest percent of own houses was seen in the case of Arsh Mahal while it was found that one-third of the houses in Gulshan Nagar were rented out. The houses in Indiranagar b colony were slightly vulnerable with a huge nala flowing through the slum; however the slum is less cramped with houses having better space as compared to those in the other two slums. The houses in Arsh Mahal are located on a hillock and thus are built on an uneven terrain. The houses in Gulshan Nagar are built in a very small area and are cramped. The roofing material used in semi-pucca houses comprises mainly asbestos

Drinking water

- The major source of drinking water in all the three slums was individual piped water connections. Those residents residing on rent also collected water from the connection that the house owner had. The drinking water pipes of the individual connection were laid superficially in Arsh Mahal as a drainage pipe was being laid.
- The residents in all the three slums received water on every alternate day. On the day of supply water was supplied for 1-2 hours. The residents felt that the water supply was reliable except during the months of summer when there is general water scarcity in all areas.
- Residents of the three slums are willing to pay more for an additional hour of supply on the day of supply.
- All residents of the slum as a good option accept the process of installing meters for the individual water connection, however installing meters has not been completed in the slums of Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal. About 30% of the households having piped connection had meters installed in Indiranagar b colony.
- The residents of the three slums were happy with the quality of water supplied in all the months of the year except in the case of summer where there is a fall in the purity of water, which however is not a serious problem according to the slum dwellers.

Sanitation

- Open defecation is close to nil in all the three slums. Most of the residents have a private toilet.
- Tenants staying in the slum either have a toilet attached to their house or share it with the toilet owned by the owner and other tenants.
- Houses situated close to a nala in Gulshan Nagar and Indiranagar b colony have service latrines installed, which drain directly into the nala. In cases of houses situated away from the nala, pit latrines (single and double pit) were being used.
- In the case of Arsh Mahal a new septic tank is being constructed and has already started functioning.
- Community toilets are not existent and are not preferred. There is a need for promoting and constructing community toilets as a lot of households do not own a latrine and are forced to share it with their neighbours.
- Gantagadi's were commonly used for waste collection and disposal in the case of Indiranagar and Gulshan Nagar. However, in the case of Arsh Mahal big dustbins were being used for disposing waste. The slum of Arsh Mahal had poor collection of wastes from the dustbins and this resulted in scattering of filth in the vicinity.
- Roads and street lighting
- The roads in the three slums ranged from kuccha roads to CC roads. The best roads were seen in the case of Indiranagar where the main road had metalled roads and the bylanes had CC roads. The road condition in the main lanes of Gulshan Nagar was not up to the mark while the by lanes had no roads (kuccha). The terrain of Arsh Mahal was a hurdle in laying good roads. The main roads here were metalled while the bylanes where kuccha.
- Streetlights were installed in Indiranagar b colony and were replaced and repaired within a week's time of lodging a complaint. The repair and maintenance was poor in the case of Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal. The willingness to pay was low for better services w.r.t streetlights as the residents were of the opinion that it was the government's responsibility to repair and provide good streetlights.

Electricity and cooking fuel

- Almost all houses in Indiranagar and Gulshan Nagar had electricity connection. Up to 6% in Indiranagar and 10% in the case of Gulshan Nagar had no meters for the electricity connection.
- The preferred source of fuel for cooking is kerosene in the case of Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal, while it is LPG in the case of Indiranagar. Firewood is also being used for cooking.

Livelihoods

- The livelihood and education scenario was better in the case of Indiranagar b colony as compared to Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal.
- The percentage of population working as private salaried employees was the highest in the case of indiranagar. This can be supported by the fact that the slum is in proximity of BPO/call centers. Overall level of education is better in the case of Indiranagar as compared to Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal.
- The percentage of people working as casual labour was higher in the case of Gulshan Nagar and Arsh Mahal as compared with Indiranagar. This is comparable with the level of education in these slums.
- Most of the residents fell below the poverty line and survived on small loans followed by a repayment cycle.

Health

- Health related problems were higher in the case of Gulshan Nagar and Indiranagar as compared to Arsh Mahal. The lesser number of health related problems have been correlated by the local residents with the type of water connection that they had.
- Access to health services was better in the case of Gulshan Nagar and Indiranagar with a hospital located within 1-2 km.
- All the slum dwellers had access to government doctor but preferred visiting a private clinic in spite of higher fees charged, as they believed in better services of the private clinic.
- The three slums had no large out break of any disease in the past one year, except a few cases of chikungunya.

Pro-Poor Policies and Programmes

To achieve sustained reduction in the incidence of poverty, it is vital to embark upon a series of pro-poor growth policies, programmes. At the macro level, this would require undertaking economic reforms and embarking on a rapid process of trade liberalization. However, at meso and micro levels, it is essential that pro-growth policies must have a pro-poor focus. The city of Hyderabad has been a pioneer in implementing approaches for urban poor. It has been a role model for other Indian cities for a successful and sustained community development program for the urban poor. Some major initiatives taken to this effect are:

- Slum Improvement Act
- Strategy Papers for Poverty Alleviation: Andhra Pradesh
- Notification and De-notification of Slums

There are several ongoing poverty reduction initiatives as shown below. List of Poverty Alleviation Programs:

- Central Government (inter–governmental)
- State Government
- Quasi-Government organizations
- Private sector
- Universities & other academic institutions
- NGOs and other Community based organizations
- Multi-lateral & bilateral agencies, e.g. World Bank, Asian Development Bank, DFID (UK), Water & Sanitation Program, World Bank, UNCHS "Cities Alliance Program", and Urban Management Program, etc.

Institutional Coordination

There are a large number of agencies responsible for implementing programmes aimed at poverty reduction and service delivery as shown in table below. A serious problem in this arrangement is the overlapping jurisdiction and absence of coordination and convergence of programmes and activities. There is need for integrated and unified arrangements for addressing the problems of poverty reduction comprehensively. This will facilitate better targeting of programmes, effective identification of beneficiaries, facilitates participation of community based organizations, better institutional coordination, etc.

Table 4.2: Institutional Mapping, Hyderabad

Institutional Mapping		
S. No.	Institutions	Programmes
1	MCH/ULBs	Implementation of poverty programmes Notification and denotification UCD Health and Sanitation Town Planning Infrastructure
2	District Collector	Issue of Pattas
3	Scheduled Caste Corporation	Provision of loans and subsidy for livelihoods
4	Minorities Development Corporation	Provision of loans and subsidy for livelihoods
5	Women Welfare Development Corporation	Provision of loans and subsidy for livelihoods
6	Housing Corporation/Board	House Development
7	Education Department	School education
8	Health Department	Health care and ICDS
9	Social Welfare Department	Welfare of backward sections
10	HUDA, QQSUDA	Planning and development
11	Urban Health Posts/Centres	Primary health care
12	NGOs	Livelihoods and services
13	Research and Training Institutions	Studies and surveys Training Impact assessment Policy advice and support
14	CBOs	Articulating needs and priorities Planning and implementation

Institutionalisation of Service Delivery to the Poor

The following are the key factors that could contribute to institutionalization of sustainable service delivery mechanisms for replication and up scaling at city level.

Provision of infrastructure/basic services: The institutionalization of sustainable service delivery approach needs to be situated in the context of either a specific project or the regular programme of service delivery to the poor. In the absence of this poor communities may find it difficult to relate it to the process. Moreover, a sustainable approach requires substantial involvement of the community and its resources, and this requires the programme to be credible which will depend on its direct impact on the existing level of services.

Building partnerships: A sustainable approach to service delivery can be institutionalized only through a partnership approach involving the local government, other service providing public agencies, non governmental organizations, community based organizations, donor agencies and the poor communities. The state and national governments should also be involved to gather political, legal and institutional support.

Community participation: A key factor in designing the sustainable program of service delivery is to involve the communities in planning, implementing and monitoring the process. Participatory planning approaches including micro planning and stakeholder consultations are quite useful in designing the community participation. The objective of community participation should be to ensure community ownership of the created infrastructure.

Cost recovery approaches: Sustainability of service delivery requires that project is viable to meet at least the operation and maintenance expenditures. Most of the times, the pricing and cost recovery approaches including the subsidies are inefficiently designed and poorly targeted. There is a lack of willingness to charge among the project implementing agencies due to the erroneous assumption that the poor can not pay for the services. However, research studies show that the poor has the willingness to pay for improved services and they are already paying high amounts

for alternative sources of service delivery. Hence, there is a need to develop appropriate tariff policies to ensure cost recovery for better operation and maintenance with targeted subsidies for those who are really poor.

Local government resources: The local governments and other implementing agencies should find a way to raise resources locally instead of depending on the donor agencies. This not only increases their commitment but also ensures that the resources for the continuation of the programme are available even after the donor agency withdraws from the programme. One way of achieving this is to earmark certain percentage of annual budget exclusively for community development and service delivery to the poor.

Capacity building of the stakeholders: The success of the process depends on the ability of the stakeholders and agencies to understand and contribute to the process and also on their willingness to work with each other. The stakeholders need to understand the overall programme process, project design, planning and implementation issues.

There is also a need for the stakeholders to be conversant with participatory planning approaches. This requires strengthening of the capacities of officials, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations and the poor communities.

Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy for Hyderabad

The ultimate objective of urban poverty reduction strategy is a reduction in urban poverty in Hyderabad on a sustainable basis. The main levers and sub-levers of the urban poverty reduction strategy for Hyderabad are:

1. Adequate living conditions for the urban poor

- Regularization and upgrading of urban poor settlements
  - Security of tenure
  - Regularization criteria
  - Neighborhood improvement
  - Housing improvement
  - Cost recovery

- Relocation of settlements that cannot be regularized
  - Relocation
  - Land for relocation
  - Infrastructure
  - House construction
  - Cost recovery

- Low-income housing
  - Increasing upward housing mobility
  - Reducing the need for new squatter settlements
  - Sites-and-services schemes
  - Private-sector low-cost housing
  - Low-cost rental housing
  - Access to social infrastructure (education and health care)
  - Innovative approaches

2. Adequate economic opportunities for the urban poor

- A vibrant urban economy
- Vocational and entrepreneurial training and education
- Regulations and procedures
- Micro-finance
- Market information
- Space for micro-enterprises
  .

3. Improved local governance with partnerships for urban poverty reduction

- Participation by the urban poor
- Community organization
- Community development councils
- Community action planning
- Special interest groups
- Support for the poorest of the poor
- A framework for poverty reduction partnerships
- Recognition of complementary roles
- Institutionalized collaboration between urban actors
- Information and transparency

4. An effectively and efficiently operating municipality

- Capacity building
- Human resources development, i.e. the improvement of the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the staff of the organization
- Organizational development, i.e. the improvement of the internal structure of the organization
- Institutional development, i.e. the improvement of the role and responsibilities of the organization in relation to the roles and responsibilities of other organizations.
- Economic Development Unit in the Municipal Corporation
- Management information systems
- Housing and Micro-Enterprise Development Funds
- Human resources development

5. CHANDIGARH

Introduction

Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) launched by Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India is one of the innovative programmes initiated with the mission to encourage reforms and fast track planned development of identified cities with efficiency in urban infrastructure and service delivery mechanisms, community participation, and accountability of ULBs/ parastatal agencies towards citizens. Under this programme – United Nations Development Programme (UNDP led project titled 'National Strategy for the Urban Poor') aims to empower the urban poor so that they can contribute effectively to decision making in the public domain that impact their lives and to innovative urban poverty alleviation plans. Under this initiative PRIA has been entrusted with the task of preparation of Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy (UPRS) for the city of Chandigarh for improvement of basic services and improvement in the socio-economic conditions of slum dwellers.

Methodology and Approach

PRIA undertook Participatory Poverty Analysis1 in the city of Chandigarh with the aim to understand poverty from the perspective of poor people – and to know what their priorities to improve their lives are. The methodology provided the urban poor with a forum to discuss their needs and the obstacles to overcome them. Benefiting from an understanding of what poor people, as primary stakeholders see as the causes of poverty and deprivation, it facilitated the analysts to identify causes of poverty (and policy actions that might address them) for addressing the situation in an acceptable and comprehensive manner. Thus focus group discussions were held in all the identified forty slums in which more than three hundred residents participated and shared their views and opinions. This was supplemented by in-depth primary research in four slums and consultations with the stakeholders working at the secondary level as service providers and people's representative.

Our approach to the PPA was to view urbanization as an opportunity for integrated human development and poverty reduction rather than the conventional approach of viewing it as necessary evil which views urbanization as a process resulting in haphazard growth and creation of slums as pockets of misery, chaos and ill health. Through a positive approach the increasing urban population is viewed as a huge human resource potential, which fuels the growth ambitions of the city. The process was inherently consultative in nature and essentially pro poor in its whole intent. But at this juncture it would be necessary to add that pro- poor need not necessarily mean anti- administration. It needs to be seen in an affirmative manner where the aim is to minimize the skepticism and maximize the acceptance of pro-poor policy mechanisms.

Brief about the City

The Union Territory of Chandigarh has been regarded as a model experiment in urban planning and modern Indian architecture of the twenty first century and thus commonly referred as "the City Beautiful". Encompassing over an area of 114 sq km or 15000 acres of land to the North of Delhi, Chandigarh is a major city, which includes number of villages, rehabilitated colonies and labour colonies within its bounds. The city has the current projected Population of 10.98 Lakhs (9,00,635 according to 2001 census) amounting to high population density of 7,900 persons /sq. km. Out of this 450,122 are male and 358,393 are females. The population is Primarily Urban in nature-808515 (89.8%) and rural population is limited to adjoining villages, A cursory glance at the demographic desegregation of the city indicates that it has a high proportion of population in the growing phase and productive phase. More than half of the population is in the productive

phase .i.e 15 years to 60 years. More than one third of population 345000 is in growing phase .i.e 0-19 years.

In spite of being capital of two major states, it retains a distinct identity as an administrative unit, administrated by UT Administration through an Administrator assisted by an Advisor. Chandigarh is one of the fastest growing cities in India and has second highest Human Development Index. In 2005 Chandigarh has been rated as the "Wealthiest Town" of India. With a highest Per Capita Income of Rs. 67,370. In terms of family wealth, it was rated as the sixth most prosperous city. In contrast to this situation it is to be noted that still nearly one tenth of total city population and one third of its slum population survives below poverty line. While on one hand according to one of the recent study, the proportion of people having annual income of more than 10 lakhs is highest in Chandigarh ,on the other hand more than forty thousand households have reported annual income below Rs10000 in a snapshot survey done across slums.

The average annual exponential growth rate at 3.39 is fourth highest in the country. The decadal growth of 40.33 % is 5th highest in the country reflecting its growing importance as one of the major upcoming city in North India. Industrially the city has limited potential due to land constraints, but the city's vision to focus on promotion of environmentally safe Information Technology (IT) industry needs to be matched though suitable human resource planning. Slums have reported over 36000 unemployed youth whose skills needs to be upgraded through suitable vocational training avenues. Similarly Software Technology Park / Complex under development at Mohali would need skilled manpower, which needs to be planned by the departments of education / vocational education and higher education.

Poverty in the city

The strategic location of city as major progressive city of North India, major administrative juncture owing to its status as capital of two major states and its economic vibrancy makes it a lucrative destination for people. Reasonably good conditions and availability of resources in offering diverse employment opportunities and means of livelihood becomes the chief cause of migration to the city termed as "in migration". This coupled with city's ideal living conditions and good health and education opportunities for families, makes Chandigarh an ideal place where people establish their families while they work in adjoining states, which is termed as "Out migration". Since migration of this scale, resulting from both the types, was not factored in the planning process, it resulted in hap-hazardous settlements of people, giving rise to mushrooming of slums. Settlements of the migrants most often were based on the low cost criteria, vicinity to the working place and cultural homogeneity offered.

- The current informal estimates of slum population are to the tune of 73500 families or 3.5 lakhs persons living in 40 slums (18 notified and 22 non notified). This amounts to more than one third of population living in slums.
- Number of BPL families are 23514 which are about 1/3rd of the total number of slum households. Thus nearly one third of Chandigarh population stays in slums and one third of it is below poverty line. It is estimated that 10-12 % of population of Chandigarh is poor.
- In terms of area the slums in Chandigarh occupy 18.42 % of the total land area or nearly fifth of total land area thus impeding the development process.
- Most of the slums are established on the government land, which are now planned to be developed under phase 3 and phase 4.
- In terms of topography, 70 % of the slums are located on the plain areas, 8% on sloppy areas, 8% on low lying areas, 11% on the banks of nalah and around 3% on river bed.

- Nearly half of the slums have less than 1000 households and only a limited number of slums have households more than three thousand or more. Large numbers of slums have population of less than 5000.
- The slums having large population more than 20000 are few and are the ones, which are situated near the industrial areas as labour colonies.
- Migrants from UP& Bihar constitute approximately 90% of total slum population.
- More than one third of the slum population belongs to scheduled caste category.
- 1806 households are women headed.
- Number of people reported to be physically challenged in slums are 870.

Scenario pertaining to basic service /housing / livelihood

The real picture of Chandigarh as a city of contrasts where the twain of haves and have-nots do exist side by side has been reinforced through the participatory poverty assessment. The outcomes of assessment clearly indicated that even when the infrastructure for basic services is available; it does not ensure equitable access by all sections of society.

Chandigarh is a planned city, with a high standard of civic amenities, but these high standards of civic amenities are not spread uniformly across the city. The slums, which have become integral part of city have plethora of problems. First of all the influx of people due to accelerated economic activities has led to scarcity of housing resources in the city. Then provision of basic service of safe drinking water, sewerage, solid waste management, cost effective transport means, parking lots, roads, streetlights etc has proved to be a daunting task. Few instances of the deplorable conditions that can be mentioned are:

Housing

- In Chandigarh more than two third of slums houses are Pucca Houses, nearly one fourth are Kutcha and only a slight proportion is semi Pucca.
- Almost all (Nearly 95%) of the slum houses are being used for residential purpose and only a fraction of houses are being used for commercial purpose
- Of the total houses being used for commercial purpose, which are 2100, 90 % are owned and only about 10 % run on rented premises.

Livelihood and Economic conditions

- The profile of economic status of slum residents in Chandigarh reveals that more than forty percent of the households have annual income below Rs 10000
- Government sector employs more than 10% of people living in slums, while industrial sector employs nearly 30% of slum population.

They constitute menial and casual labour in the industries. Building and Construction sector is the most prominent sector, which becomes livelihood to maximum number of slum residents.

Basic Services

Water

- Nearly 65 % of household as well as same proportion of population in slums is getting their supply through individual taps, nearly one third of slum population depend on public taps and minor proportion of two percent depends on other sources of supply like bore wells, open wells,. Water tankers etc

- The settlements of Adarsh Colony, Gursagar Bhatthal, Madrasi colony, Majdoor colony, Pandit colony, Rajiv colony, Shahapur colony, have reported no access to piped water, which is one of the basic amenities for survival.
- 80 % of the slum colonies are getting water supply 4-8 hours per day. Three colonies of Mazdoor colony, Labour colony 4 and 5 are getting supply 8-12 hours a day and thee colonies of Ambedkar colony, SBS colony Gursagar Bhattal have supply less than 4 hours a day.

Sewerage

- Only about one fifth (approximately 15700) of total slum households are connected to the sewer.

Toilets

- Out of the total slum households, 48900 households or nearly sixty seven percent of houses do have individual toilets.
- Nearly one fourth of slum population or approximately 14445 households have to depend on the community toilets. For which there are roughly 360 seats for men and women each.
- 8765 Households or nearly 10 % of total slum population has to opt for open defecation.

Solid waste management

- Out of forty slums, twenty-two slums do not have any door-to-door garbage collection system at the household level.

Road sweeping

- Nearly half of the slums reported that the roads are being cleaned every day; little more than one fourth said they are being cleaned on alternate days.
- One tenth or four slums said that the roads are being cleaned only twice a week.
- More than one sixth of slums are not having any road cleaning because they do not have any roads.

Frequency of collection and lifting of garbage-

- 7 % of slums have daily collection and lifting of garbage, 8% of them have the same on alternate days and 15 % on weekly basis.
- Nearly 30 % of slums do not have regular system of collection and lifting of garbage from the collection point.

Frequency of cleaning of drains

- Less than 1/5th of slums are having the drains cleaned on daily basis, 15% were being cleaned on alternate days and 23 % only twice or thrice a week. Nearly half of them did not have any drains and thus no cleaning in that aspect.

Electricity

- Electrical supply 22 slums have supply through govt department and are more of less satisfied, but expressed desire to have option of having two household connections.

- 14 slums being provided through private contractors are dissatisfied and are willing to pay for individual connection through govt department.
- The slums of Kabari Market, Sanjay colony do not have electric connections through individual meters or private contractor. Most of the inhabitants use candles, kerosene lamps and lanterns.

Streetlights

- 14 colonies have reported availability of streetlights.
- 6 slums have streetlights but are not maintained properly
- 22 slums have no streetlights

Transport and connectivity

- In twenty-eight slums Public transport is easily available to the residents of the colony, either near to their settlements or in the vicinity of 1km.
- The residents of Kabari Market, Labour Colony-4, Palsora have identified some scope for improvement by enhancing the frequency of bus services, relocation of stop etc.
- The Slums of Bapu Dham, EWS-52, Indira colony, Labour Colony-5, Madrasi Colony, Mouli Complex, Sanjay colony, Shaheed Bhagat Singh Colony (SBS) have reported poor transport connectivity

Education

- The city ranks 6th highest in terms of literacy but noticeable segment of slums of its population remain illiterate.
- Many slums in the city have reported less than 20% literacy rate for women. Nearly twelve slums have reported less than 50% overall literacy.
- 26 slums have more than 50% literacy rate among men are, while only 12 slums had more than 50% literacy among women.

Health

- 18 slums have expressed satisfaction with the available health facilities, since the health facility is either available in their locality or available nearby.
- 10 slums reported that even though the PHC is available but the quality of services are not satisfactory.
- 9 slums have reported that they do not have PHC either in the slum or in their vicinity. In the absence of any organized health services people are largely dependent on quacks and registered medical practitioners.

E-governance

- In 20 slums residents are not aware of the e-governance initiatives, facilities are not available in their locality and expectantly people are not using it.
- In 17 slums facilities are available, and people are aware and availing such facilities.
- In 3 slums facility is not available in the locality but is available nearby. People here have reported using these facilities.

Findings and recommendations

The city has overall better socio economic indicators and is well endowed with the resources of all types, be it geographical, political, financial or human resource, the equitable distribution of benefits of these resources remains a big challenge. To bring the discourse about the slum population at the centre stage and assert that it is important to invest resources of all nature (Human as well financial) for this section is in the city's ultimate interest. Some of the steps in this direction could be:

Housing

1. Strengthening information base:

One of the main obstacles to effective urban planning is a lack of up-to-date, comprehensive and sufficiently detailed information about urban areas. This, in turn becomes is a major reason behind the failure of urban municipalities to involve slums in citywide planning and urban development. Thus one of the basic prerequisite for any initiative is to have a system where the correct information about the situation as it exists on ground is retrieved and updated automatically and systematically.

Slums in Chandigarh are mushrooming sporadically due to intermittent migration from other states that It is administratively difficult to keep track of this dynamic scenario on day to day basis.

In such a scenario It would be advisable that the administration opts for GIS mapping the city which would help the administration to get the updated scenario about slum proliferations taking place and also act as a tool for integrating low-income settlements into urban planning and development.

2. Involve people in planning for rehabilitation:

Project planning and implementation authorities should involve and consult the people representatives of the affected slums, including women and members of disadvantaged groups, in all phases of planning, execution and monitoring of the RR Plan. The entire decision-making process must be completely transparent and draft plans for resettlement must be made public through such channels like the local language media, local exhibitions, local meetings, etc.

3. Ensuring rehabilitation process to be smooth and transparent:

The city harbours a positive vision to make Chandigarh a slum free city. For actualizing this vision Chandigarh Administration has designed a slum rehabilitation policy, which it claims to be founded on scientific approach, and research based evidence. However the participatory assessment of the same with slum residents as well as the elected representatives highlights the fact that this has not been designed in a participatory manner. It is felt that in spite of all the strengths and strong theoretical basing, lack of participation and transparency in the implementation can cause a disarray and distrust of the magnitude that it can tarnish the well-intentioned scheme to great extent. In view of the same suitable clauses of the "DRAFT NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT, DISPLACEMENT AND REHABILITATION POLICY (January, 2006)" must essentially be kept in mind

- To obtain informed consent" prior to shift to the new site instead of forced displacement.
- To ensure full transparency and justice in the processes of displacement.
- To integrate rehabilitation concerns into the development planning and implementation process by ensuring that all those who are displaced are brought above the poverty line and made significantly better off than they were prior to displacement, not just in economic terms, but also in terms of human development and security, in a reasonable time frame, and in accordance with their aspirations.

a. Ensure Basic amenities

Ensure Basic amenities infrastructural facilities for en masse resettlement-Twenty six basic amenities, such as roads, safe drinking water, plantation of inhabited areas, educational facilities, community hall, and basic child care facilities must be ensured in the resettlement of colonies at project cost.

b. Ensure Rights and equity based rehabilitation

The special needs of particularly vulnerable communities, like isolated groups, dalits, persons with disabilities or other marginalized groups, must be catered for. Special care is taken for protecting the rights of, and ensuring affirmative state action for, the weaker segments of society, especially members of scheduled castes to ensure that they are treated with special concern and sensitivity.

c. Suitable compensation

The person's house, however old or ramshackle it might be, is providing shelter. When it is forcefully acquired/demolished, it must be ensured that the compensation is enough to provide an alternate and equal shelter. Not only should lost property and assets be compensated for, but lost livelihoods and lost opportunities should also be compensated for.

d. Ensure continuity of livelihood and employment

It must be ensured that displaced slum rehabilitants are not forced to change their occupations and professions, there must, of course, be the flexibility to allow relocated slum residents to choose from among other viable alternatives. They must also have a first right to get employment in the project. The need for trained and experienced personnel should not be a constraint, as training should be organized for interested slum residents even before the project is initiated .The PAPs must also have the first right to specific benefits arising out of projects.

e. Skill building

The city administration should provide necessary training to develop entrepreneurship and assist the adult members of the displaced families to take up economically viable self-employment projects. All projects must systematically ensure full literacy as well as the creation of necessary skills to make them eligible for employment for semi-skilled positions, and for those with sufficient educational qualifications for skilled positions. Even those private enterprises that benefit from the project would be charged in the same manner with responsibility for providing skills and jobs to such people.

f. Time frame

The time frame for the displacement process should be sensitively determined and people given enough time to adjust to their new locations and life styles. Delays in finalizing the details of the policy related to rehabilitation and other aspects of specific projects, and delays in initiating the planning process, can seriously affect the well being of the affected people. Therefore, these activities must also be done according to a pre-determined time frame that statutorily gives adequate time for the concerned persons to give inputs and intervene in the process of policy formulation and planning.

g. Progressive planning

It is to be ensured that the resettlement site and the resource-base is large enough to accommodate the natural growth in population, over a minimum time perspective of 20 years, and to generate income to provide for a progressive rise in standards of living.

h. Cultural and social homogeneity

Whenever whole villages, slum localities, neighbourhoods and communities are uprooted, there is total disturbance of structure and network of social relationships, which support an ethos and a way of life. Any plan of resettlement must be sensitive to this loss and aim at creating afresh a community ethos and a way of life. It is only such a dynamic living community that can successfully cope with the challenge of mobility and development in the new surroundings. For

smooth and effective resettlement, the principle of geographical continuity, cultural homogeneity and ready adaptability must be accepted in choosing and planning resettlement units and sites.

i. Gender sensitive
Rehabilitation packages and processes must be gender sensitive and they should be involved in the planning and aware generation efforts. Women headed households must be given priority in the allotment of houses/ and other benefits of skill up gradation, employment etc.

Livelihood

Chandigarh has been promoted as a knowledge hub, which also includes the setting up of a world class IT Park. The RGCTP has been planned keeping in view the aspirations for the citizens of the whole Region for getting integrated with the world community, The main focus of the establishment of RGCTP is to create employment for the youth of the Region apart from bringing in investment, which would thereafter lead to software exports. This opportunity needs to fully utilized through systematic efforts mentioned below:

1. Providing avenues for educational up gradation

Even though the city does have a reasonable good educational infrastructure, but regular options of education have been found to have limited value for marginalized sections that are caught up in the livelihood concerns. Hence exploring avenues for more open and distance education programme would help to meet the needs of youth striving to move up the social ladder. The opportunities for online education also need to be expanded.

2. Systematic Manpower forecasting

Chandigarh's own growth together with the growth in adjacent areas of Punjab, Haryana and Himachal Pradesh has made the city highly attractive to the industries specially IT Industry. To keep pace with the growth, optimisation of human resources would be a challenge as well as opportunity. The employment exchange can be strengthened to be able to carry human resource forecasting in more scientific and systematic manner. The demands on each type of activities like constructions and development activities need to be studied in depth and manpower needs of each skill category such as labourers, masons and domestic helps, technical persons, secretarial etc has to forecast so that the human resource can be planned and strategically addressed. Three major areas for which manpower forecasting is required are:

- IT and electronic Sector- In view of the city vision for becoming major IT hub in North India,
- Hospitality and Hotel – In view of the fact that city is located at the opportune place to be the transit hub for three states having large influx of tourists of Himachal, Jammu and Kashmir , Punjab , It has large scope for expansion of hotel industry, affordable inns etc
- Human care- the city having large population of retired personnel is commonly referred as " Pensioners' paradise ". These people normally are staying alone and independently want to have skilled personnel for nursing care and looking after their daily needs in the advanced age. Similarly due to large number of working women population, the need for childcare centres and their efficient handling cannot not be underestimated.
- Construction and allied – The expanding city would need skilled manpower in the construction sector to have esthetic and balanced growth and keep its title of "the city beautiful" intact.

3. Fine-tuning of skill development programme

The vocational training programme has the onerous responsibility to bring about the required match between the available skills and required skills. In this view the technical training institutes, vocational training institutes and other educational institutes have to be geared up to be able to provide suitable qualified manpower from the city. This would contribute to minimization of migration. Three major sectors and skills identified broadly are:

- IT and electronic Sector-
- Computer (hardware and software)
- Satellite and Internet,
- Mobile repair
- TV/Video / radio

- Hospitality and human care
- Child care
- Nursing care
- Geriatric care
- Hotel management
- Hospital administration
- Office management

- Construction and allied
- Masonry
- Plumbing
- Carpentry
- Painting

- Whitewashing Other miscellaneous activities
- Vehicle repair
- Dry cleaning
- Courier service s/ security services

4. Promoting public private partnerships

As more and more corporate bodies are coming and setting up their base in the city the values of corporate social responsibility can be emphasized right from the beginning where the culture of employee sensitivity is inbuilt and propoor initiatives are welcomed. Each corporate may be encouraged to invest in the socio economic benefits of the neighbouring community.

5. Promoting Self employment avenues through Micro credit

The vision and ambition of the city to be IT hub and knowledge centre is bound to offer lot of economic activities with a variety of micro enterprises. These micro enterprises are very often relying on the informal sources for their initiation and sustenance. Informal source like moneylenders thus use exploitative norms and exorbitant rates. Micro finance has proved to be an unquestionable tool for empowering people in overcoming their barriers and breaking the vicious circle of deprivation and disempowerment. Since the acceptability of subsidy government programmes like PMRY and SJSRY is not very good, there is ample opportunity for the city to brainstorm and devise its own Microfinance scheme/ institutions. These can be built on the basis of client's needs and preferences with the active help of SHGs/CSOs. Presently very few NGOs are working in this area.

6. Capacity building of Civil society organization

The city has noticeable presence of CSOs/ NGOs. But most of these organizations are working with in their limited area, in their defined themes, which limits their role and contribution to the city. The presence of vibrant and strong civil society networks is necessary for providing voice to the marginalized. Thus the networks of thematic civil societies need to be initiated and strengthened.

7. Integrating the Urban poverty reduction efforts

Presently various department and agencies are working for the improvement of the lives of people living in slums. Each department has its rules and procedures, which are cumbersome and complex thus making them inaccessible for the poor. Secondly they all are working in their defined roles and responsibilities but fail to see the things in entirety. To integrate all such efforts it would be advisable to create a mechanism, which facilitates easy and single window approach for all their livelihood and poverty reduction concerns.

Basic Services / social service

1. Building commitment to Basic service

Even though the state has reasonably fair amount of infrastructure for provision of basic service, but the administrative will for provision of basic services in the slum areas is hindered by the attitude that ultimately these slums are to be demolished and relocated. It must be recognized that the rehabilitation process is a slow and time taking process and till then the access of basic services like water, sanitation, drainage is a fundamental obligation of the administration .The provision of service at "present" cannot be kept at bay in lieu of its vision for future. The present cost of this denial in terms of bad health, high morbidity, missed educational and livelihood opportunities, weakening of social life can endanger the sense of belongingness among the masses who are building it and maintaining it. In view of this fact provision of water, sanitation, electricity, toilets etc should be taken up as a priority even if it is on the temporary basis.

The analysis of budget in last two years presents a dismal picture in this regard. The component of "Improvement and Augmentation of Infrastructural facilities to Rehabilitation Colonies" as well Improvement and Augmentation of Infrastructural facilities in villages of Chandigarh have shown decreased share allotment. Even though the share of population residing in these areas are much more in proportion and are increasing.

2. Community participation to ensure Universalisation of Education.

The Chandigarh administration has taken the lead in providing free and compulsory education to all children of the age group 6-14 years. The fee upto class VIII chargeable from students has also been abolished in all government schools. Also, the system of collection of funds from the students in the government schools has been abolished from December 2005 and the requirement of the government schools is be met from the budget of the administration. In spite of all these notable steps, the city does not have 100 % enrolment and retention. This distinguished administrative step should be complemented by suitable community mobilization in the slums so that the vision of universalisation becomes a reality.

3. towards complete Literate city

The city ranks 6th highest in terms of literacy but large segment of its population remain illiterates. Nearly twelve slums have reported less than fifty percent overall literacy .In terms of literacy the City of Chandigarh should aim for 100% literacy. Since it is already in top brackets (5th in rank in the overall literacy ranking) and the primary enrolment figure are already high. Specific steps towards enhancing women literacy in slums would contribute significantly to this aim since it is lagging behind in female literacy (11th rank nationally). Many slums in the city have reported less than 20% literacy rate for women.

4. Enhancing access to Health

A cursory glance at the indicators reveals how Chandigarh is not just well performing place but has the potential to be the best. It is quite near to the health indicators of Kerala, which are supposed to be best not just in the Indian Context, but also global context. Though it trails a bit on the birth rate and infant mortality rate, it is better than Kerela on the parameters of death rate and net growth rate. Viewing the situation with the acknowledgement that Kerala has achieved notable health indicators with lesser resources, the City of Chandigarh must aim for better health indicators since it has one of the best health infrastructures. It need to enhance the access to health services through intensive behaviour change communication and community mobilization strategies for complete ANC, complete Institutional delivery and complete immunization.

5. Present a model as disabled friendly city

Chandigarh being a planned effort has infrastructure that has under gone the rigour of technical scanning at various levels. Hence most of the city infrastructure would either already be differently-abled friendly or has the scope for upgradation and modification to make it so. In new infrastructure be it public or commercial institute that is under planning, adherence to Guidelines and Space Standards for Barrier free built environment for disabled and elderly Persons, should be kept as mandatory clause.

Ensuring gender sensitive and gender enabling environment

1. Gender sensitive policies

As the city gears up to gain position of major IT hub in North India, it would be well visioned to plan for scheme and means to have gender-balanced workforce in the upcoming new multinational companies. It can be through advocating, promoting and ensuring gender sensitive policies and working norms. Further, various sectoral policies have been put in place relating to information technology, and ensuring gender focus in these policies and having gender empowerment policy for the city would be highly desirable. A campaign for Zero tolerance to early marriage, sexual harassment and female feticide also needs to be taken up.

2. Gender segregated data /Gender status report

The lack of gender disaggregated data with respect to education, employment and livelihood enforces and encourages invisibility of women in the city and minimizes contribution of women in the city's economic growth. This suboptimal utilization of "women resource" becomes a major contributing factor to suboptimal human resource utilization. The creation of gender segregated data in the form of Gender status report, which includes data pertaining to education;

skills, health, morbidity, mortality and employment would be a first step towards assessment of situation.

3. Gender budgeting

The city should set a model for gender responsible budgeting through Gender Budgeting, which involves analysis and planning of the City budget on gender lines to establish its gender-differential impacts and to translate gender commitments into budgetary commitments. Gender Budgeting is a process that entails maintaining a gender perspective at various stages like programme / policy formulation, assessment of needs of target groups, review of extant policies and guidelines, allocation of resources, implementation of programmes, impact assessment, reprioritization of resources to finally result in a gender sensitive budget and provide a way for assessing the impact of government revenue and expenditure on women.

4. More working women hostels

For creation of gender enabling environment, it would be highly desirable for the city to have facilities such as working women's hostels which encourage more and more educated women to work fearlessly and contribute meaningfully to the city economy. This would have positive impact on the gender norms of the city as well as a desirable spill over effect on the neighbouring states of Punjab and Haryana, which are notorious for adverse sex ratio.

5. More childcare centres

The initial years of children being the formative years in every aspect, they become crucial for laying the healthy foundation for the personality thereafter. Thus the need to have more child care centers in the slums is most hard pressing since a very high proportion of slum women go out for earning their livelihood to the factories or nearby homes for working as domestic helps.

Advance Institutional reforms w.r.t 74th amendment

1. Enhancing civic participation in the city development

There is little interest or awareness and therefore little active participation in urban governance by the slum residents. Their only concern seems to be survival and access to basic minimum level of basic services in their locality, besides which there is little expectation or desire to interact with the local administration among the people. Through the process of civic empowerment process, it needs to be inculcated among the people that better participation will generate better services and therefore they cannot be passive to their municipality any more. For deepening of democracy and involvement of poor in the city planning and management the adoption and implementation of Model Nagara Raj Bill is highly recommended.

2. Formation and capacity building of Area Sabhas

In accordance with Model Nagara Raj Bill the municipal corporation should initiate and support the process of formation of Area Sabhas. Area Sabha means, the body of all the persons registered in the electoral rolls pertaining to every polling booth in the Area, in a Municipality. An Area Sabha can be made responsible for performing and discharging important functions.

3. Capacity building of Ward Committees

The city does have a mechanism of civic participation in governance but poor of the city are not represented at all. Hence their issue remains unrepresented and unsolved Even though the ward meetings are held regularly but the decisions taking place are hardly being heard or implemented The planning function of the local bodies cannot be seriously devolved until the ward committees are functionalized. Their capacity to prepare budgets and Ward infrastructure index[2] of their areas specially need to created and up graded. That would create pressure on the PRIs and ULBs to take up local level planning earnestly.

4. Enhancing the capacities of elected representatives

As per 74th amendment ERs are expected to play a crucial role in the functioning of local bodies as vibrant institutions of local governments. However, the reality is often not as envisioned. People who suffer deficiency in service automatically turn to their local Councillors seeking a solution. They in turn find themselves helpless against agencies not accountable to the local government in any way. Councillors feel helpless against parastatals in conveying the citizens' demands and in pressing for better service delivery. It is observed that ERs are often passive observers of municipal administration. This situation can be from two sides one reluctance from the Municipal Administration to engage the ERs and secondly the lack of competency of the ERs .to negotiate and assert their constitutional position They lack any teeth to enforce any development in their constituency or to influence decision making at the municipal level. Women ERs are specially disadvantaged. Most of them are not able to actively participate in local governance because of the restriction imposed on them by their male relatives. Keeping in mind the expanded functional domain of ULBs after the enactment of the 74th CAA, there is a strong need to build the capacity of municipal staff so that they are able to perform functions like urban development and planning more effectively.

5. Enhancing interface between Municipal body and citizens

Proactive disclosure and e-governance are other tools, which impart transparency in municipal functioning and facilitate direct interface between the citizen and the local government. Municipalities need to be sensitized to display key information at prominent places as part of their proactive disclosure. However, most of the citizens are unaware of municipal procedures and also vital documents like the budget.

6. AHMEDABAD

About Ahmedabad

The Ahmedabad city accommodates 23 percent of the Gujarat's urban population and 7 percent of the state's total population. The city of Ahmedabad also ranks sixth in India in terms of population size (2001). As per the 2001 census, 4.5 million people are residing in Ahmedabad, of which 3.5 million are residing within the AMC limits. In 1981-91, owing to the inclusion of 92 sq.km area, the city experienced a record high growth rate of 40 per cent. Ahmedabad accounts for almost 19 percent of main urban workers in the state and 60 percent in Ahmedabad District. The city of Ahmedabad has had great importance in the economy of Gujarat owing to the large concentration of economic activities and their high growth rates and productivity. In 1995, with 8 percent of the total population, Ahmedabad contributed 17 percent of the state income.

The economy of Ahmedabad has passed through phases of transformation. The city once called 'Manchester of India' for its unparallel excellence in textile sector is no more the same. The city has witnessed impacts of liberalization in 1990s after the unprecedented woes it suffered from closure of textile mills in late 80s. The share of secondary sector has fallen from 50 percent to 42 percent. Economy of the city is gradually shifting from a secondary one to tertiary sector which absorbs 56 percent of the total main workers of the city (1991 census). Thus, the economy of Ahmedabad is slowly being dominated by the tertiary sector. The infrastructure requirements for the tertiary sector economy are much higher than the secondary sector based economy, and would thus have to be attended to. The downtrend in the textile industry has led to the weakening of the industrial base. The industries like chemical, petrochemical, engineering existing in the GIDC estates are less labour intensive and hence have much lower employment rates. This has led to the redundancy of major section of the labour force.

Project Background

The National Strategy for Urban Poor (NSUP) project is a joint initiative of the Ministry of Housing & Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA), Government of India and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) aimed at addressing the key concerns in rooting urban poverty eradication and sustainable urban livelihoods. The main objective of the project is to empower the urban poor so that they can contribute effectively to decisions that impact their lives. The project seeks to build capacity for implementation of innovative urban poverty alleviation plans, with the thrust on basic services and improvement in the socio-economic condition of slum dwellers. The UPRS is also an attempt at reaching out to the goals set out in the Millennium Development Goals for India. The MDGs are geared towards eradication of poverty and has a shorter time frame given the urgency of the situation. The UPRS attempts to work towards goal 7 in particular and other goals on an overall

Poverty in Ahmedabad

There are different estimates regarding the population of poor in Ahmedabad city. The 2001 census reported 12 percent of total population being poor in Ahmedabad. This is argued to be unrealistic. According to CDP of Ahmedabad, 2006-2012, SJSRY survey conducted in Ahmedabad in 1998 showed that 32.4 percent of city's population living in the slums. This means that the population living in slums and chawls had almost doubled within ten years from 1991 to 2001.

100

Location of Slums and Chawls in Ahmedabad

The city of Ahmedabad has 710 slums and 910 chawls spread across five different zones of Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation. There are about 1.75 lakh households residing in the slums and 1.49 lakh households in the chawls in city.


Zone-wise Share of Population Living in Slums and Chawls
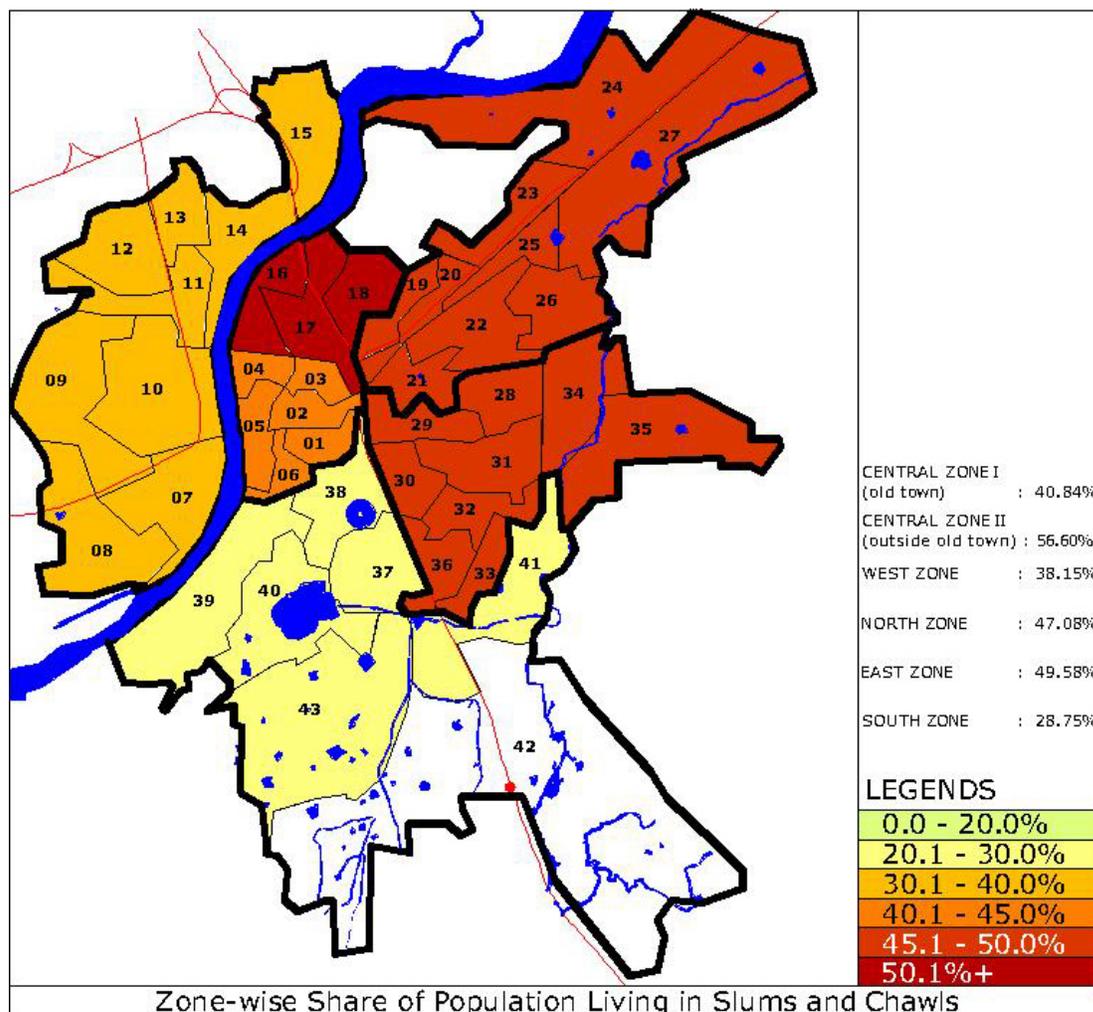
Table 6.1: Slums and Chawls in Ahmedabad

Zone	Slums			Chawls		
	No.	%	Houses	No.	%	Houses
East	52	7.3	22351	406	42.4	64053
West	156	22.0	41642	82	8.6	14120
North	129	18.2	25106	303	31.6	56472
South	209	29.5	39142	81	8.5	5771
Central	164	23.2	46883	86	8.9	8606
Total	710	100	175124	958	100	149022

Source: AMC-MHT Survey, 2000

Socio-economic Profile in Slums and Chawls

To prepare and understand socio-economic profile of slums and chawls detail household survey was conducted in 40 slums and 44 chawls. Total 12,773 household were selected from these 40 slums and 44 chawls for detailed questionnaire survey. The survey yielded information on the socio-economic profile of the households living in these settlements, their livelihoods, access to basic services etc. The majority of slums and chawls are dominated by Hindu population. Survey findings shows that 95 percent are Hindus, 4 percent are Muslims and less than 1 percent is Christians community. The Muslim community is concentrated in the Central zone, with 19.5 percent of the population in this zone being Muslim. Around 87 percent of total slum population belongs to Schedule Caste, Schedule Tribe and Other Backward Caste communities in that nearly 50 percent belongs to SC/ ST communities. Average household size in the slums is 4.5 percent. Around 50.02 percent males and 68.23 percent females are literates in Slums and Chawls.

Data collected in survey on occupational structure revealed that 24.5 percent slum dwellers are construction worker and 20.5 are casual labours. Nearly 14.2 percent are working as domestic servant in that maximum are women. Persons who are street vendors are clubbed in hawker's category nearly 5.6 percent persons are in this category. Another big category is of seasonal employment 7.4 percent persons are seasonal labours.

Table 6.2: Occupational structures in Slums and Chawls

Sr. No	Occupation	Persons (%)
1	Hawker	5.6
2	Domestic Servant	14.2
3	Construction worker	24.5
4	Plumber	2
5	Electrician	1.5
6	Petty Trader	8
7	Casual Labourer	20.5
8	Tourism related activity	0
9	Handicraft sector	2.8
10	Seasonal employment	7.4
11	Other	2
12	Unemployed	11.5

Basic Services in Slums and Chawls

Overall, 66 percent of the households had an individual water tap in their homes. In the West Zone however, only 44 percent reported having a private tap in their homes; in the other zones it ranged from 68 percent to 84 percent. Water was available on average for 2.5 hours each day. The next most common primary water source was a public tap (14.02 percent) followed by tube-well/hand pump (9.37 percent). In most slums the storm water drainage is not well planned. It is seen that the storm water is led into the sewerage network either at household level or at street level. Storm water drainage, especially during the monsoons, is of critical importance in the slums. 30.6 percent households reported having no storm water drainage facilities in their settlements, and 69.1 percent reported having drainage problems despite having storm water drains in the settlement.

Access to individual toilets was available to 69.59 percent of the households. Access to individual toilets is much higher in the chawls; 80 percent of the chawls households have individual toilets compared to 58 percent of the slum households. Another 16 percent used public toilets or someone else's toilet. This still left 14 percent households who did not have access to any toilets. While the majority of households that had individual toilets were connected to the sewer lines, almost 10 percent of these households were not connected to a covered sewer line. This leaves 38 percent of all households without improved sanitation, i.e. individual toilets connected to a covered sewer.

In many slums, the solid waste is not properly collected. AMC has provided collection bin to some of the slums. That collection bin was provided among 10 households or 5 households. Most of the slum dwellers throw their trash in open spaces outside the slum. As per the survey 69.6 percent household dispose garbage in containers kept in their home, which was later collected by AMC. 19.4 percent disposed garbage directly in the common container. 10 percent of the total household dumped their garbage on the streets. Collection of solid waste is not proper in the west zone nearly 21 percent households disposed garbage on the street. Collection system in central zone is very efficient only 0.8 percent of the total household dispose garbage on the street.

Street sweeping is responsibility of health department in AMC. As per AMC records sweeping frequency is daily. In survey only 30 percent household responded that frequency is daily and 70 percent household responded that sweeping frequency is weekly.

Electricity is widespread in Ahmedabad slums/chawls, with 94 percent houses having electricity. 88.7 percent have their own electricity meters, and another 5 percent have informal connections. On an average, households spend Rs. 200 per month on electricity costs. 88.7 percent have their own electricity meters.

In 82.5 percent slums approach are made up of Asphalt/ Tar and in 12.5 percent slums roads are dirt and kutcha. Nearly all surveyed slums have pucca road network.

Community Development Index and Vulnerability Assessment of Slums and Chawls in the Ahmedabad

We have prepared a Community Development Index (CDI) for settlements based on the status of housing, infrastructure and basic services in each settlement. For preparation of Community Development Index four variables were considered and weightage was assigned to each variable.

Table 6.3: Vulnerability Index

Sr. No	Variables	Weightage
1	Population Characteristics	53
2	Access to Public Facilities	16
3	Access to Basic Services	40
4	Community Participation	10

Each of these four variables has a set of Indicators and sub-indicators. Each set has been assigned a weight. The weights range from 1 to 20 to accommodate the highly variable importance of the various indicators for quality of life. The weights assigned to each set are therefore based on the importance as perceived by the residents and from the point of view of city planning and the well being of the entire urban population.

The CDI for each settlement is thus equal to the sum of the score of each sub-indicator multiplied by its weight and then the sum is divided by the sum of all the weights assigned to the indicators in that settlement.

It is important not to confuse the meaning of "weight" and "score". While the score tells us about the performance, e.g. how many houses are made of kutchha, the weight tells us how important we consider that there are X.X percent kutchha houses in the area. The different meaning is shown by the CDI formula:

$$\textbf{CDI} = (w_1*SC_1+w_2*SC_2+\ldots+w_3*SC_3+\ldots w_n*SC_n) / (\Sigma w_i)$$
$$= \Sigma (wi*SCi) / (\Sigma w_i).$$

W being the weight (importance);
SC being the respective score (performance).
Σw_i being the total sum of weights available.

To assess the vulnerability level for each of the 84 settlements surveyed, the CDIs have been categorized into four categories:

1. 'Highly vulnerable' if the CDI is less than or equal to 0.527
2. 'Vulnerable' if the CDI is greater than 0.527 but less than or equal to 0.623
3. 'Mildly Vulnerable' if the CDI is is greater than 0.623but less than or equal to 0.719
4. 'Nearly decent' if the CDI is above 0.719.

Table 6.4: Vulnerability Index of Surveyed Slums and Chawls

Sr. No	Vulnerability	No. of Slums and Chawls
1	Highly Vulnerable	13
2	Vulnerable	23
3	Mildly Vulnerable	29
4	Nearly Decent	14

Way Forward

Livelihoods among the Poor in Ahmedabad City – Issues, Policies and Strategies
Issues

The urban poor constitute the majority of the urban workforce, and most are part of the informal economy. In a study conducted in Ahmedabad city, it was found that the informal sector contributed around 47% of the city's GDP.[1]

Most poor cannot afford not to work, and are therefore engaged in some type of income generating activity. Most of the slum dwellers in Ahmedabad city work in the informal economy. Their earning opportunities are limited due to lack of employment opportunities, compounded by a lack of education, modest skills and limited access to credit, among other things. The unhygienic living conditions have a negative effect on their health and well-being, and cut into their work productivity.

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1 Unni, J and Rani, U, "Informal Economy Center Stage"

Until the 1970's, Ahmedabad had a thriving textile industry. It is reported that from 1982 to 1996 nearly 67,541 workers were retrenched due to the closure of 35 mills. Most of these workers had low skill levels, and in the absence of other opportunities joined the informal economy as casual or self-employed workers.[2] This has resulted in the marked increase in the numbers of informal economy workers in Ahmedabad.

Diversity is another important characteristic of the urban poor, in terms of their habitat, culture, social capital, bargaining capacities and economic opportunities. The strategies that are devised to address livelihoods among the urban poor must recognize this diversity to ensure that the strategy is inclusive and builds on the existing strengths among the poor.

MHT, in collaboration with the Center for Environmental Planning and Technology, Ahmedabad and Care India, carried out a research study aimed at understanding livelihood options among the poor in Ahmedabad city. Table 1 below lists some industries that have high or moderate employment potential for the urban poor. It also indicates the types of inputs required to enhance the livelihood potential in these industries.

Table 6.5: Industries with high and moderate employment potential in Ahmedabad city

	Industry	**Potential for employment of urban poor**	**Activities to be carried out**
1	Construction	Very high	• Training, and upgrading skills of masons, plumbers, carpenters, painters etc.
2	Retail	High	• Training persons for sector • Linking with organized retailing outlets
3	Garments	High	• Training persons for sector • Linking with production units
4	Hospitality	Moderate	• High demand for food and processing industry. Need to professionalize activity
5	Horticulture and floriculture (including urban agriculture)	Moderate	• Promote urban agriculture • Promote links with organized retail
6	Handicrafts	Moderate	• Upgrade skills of certain sectors, e.g. idol making, kite-making etc. • Provide market linkages • Develop special area for display and marketing
7	Khadi and village industries	Moderate	• Can be linked with handicraft promotion
8	Gems and Jewelry	Moderate	• Training persons for sector • Linking with production units

Two categories of workers that constitute a large proportion of the urban poor in Ahmedabad city today are construction workers and vendors. We take up these two occupational categories for an in-depth illustration of the issues and strategies for promoting livelihoods among the poor.

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2 "Livelihood options amongst the vulnerable groups in informal economic sectors of Ahmedabad city" Care India, 2007

Construction workers

Construction workers are the largest category of casual labour in Ahmedabad city. 50% of these workers are women. Increasing mechanization in industries like dyeing, chemicals and screen printing and closing down of textile mills has led to even more people moving into construction. According to an estimate in 2000, Ahmedabad city has about 50,000 construction workers. The main issues concerning construction workers are listed below

1. No work security. In fact in the last five years there has been increased competition as the workforce increased due to closure or mechanization of other industries. Even within the construction industry, there is increasing mechanization. Migrant workers from other areas further add to increased competition, lower wages and exploitation by contractors.

2. Low skill level among the majority

3. High degree of occupational risk due to nature of work, leading to high incidence of accidents resulting in temporary or partial disabilities

4. They have no identity cards and the majority are not organized

5. Poor working conditions, with drinking water being the only facility provided to the workers.

Vendors

Vendors are a critical part of the urban economy. One of the major livelihood related concerns of workers in the informal economy, and particularly vendors, is the harassment and exploitation by authorities while pursuing their trade. According to the National Policy on Street Vendors formulated in 2004, Ahmedabad had 100,000 vendors around that time. A large proportion of vendors are women.

Existing Policies

Testing and certification of skills of workers acquired through informal means: This scheme was initiated by the Government of India in 2004 and aims to certify informally trained workers who can demonstrate competency. It also has provision for skill upgradation.

Skill Development Initiatives: The Government of Gujarat has launched the Gujarat Diamond Industries Training Institute. This was established in 1988 for workers who were retrenched from the shutdown textile mills. In 1999 this was opened for the general public, and currently trainees come from all over Gujarat.

Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY): In December 1997, the Government of India launched SJSRY. This scheme seeks to provide gainful employment to the urban poor (living below the urban poverty line) through wage employment or self-employment.

Ummeed: The Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation piloted a skill training project " Ek Mauka Udaan" in 2005 in partnership with Saath and Heritage Livelihood. Saath is an Ahmedabad based NGO working in the city's slums. The Heritage Livelihood is a Hyderabad based organization working to promote livelihoods. This programme was first piloted in Andhra Pradesh (AP) by Dr.Reddy's group. This programme has now been adopted by the State Government and named '*Ummeed*'.

Given the large numbers of workers in the construction industry and those working as vendors, we give below some details of the policies that have been formulated for these workers.

Construction Workers

The Government of India formulated a Bill for Construction Workers in 1985 which was finally passed in 1996 and known as the Construction Workers' Act.   Under the act, construction workers should get:

1. Formation of a tripartite for Construction Workers' Welfare Board, with representation from the State, employers and workers

2. Social security including medical aid, maternity benefits, life insurance, financial support for children's education, provident fund.

3. Immediate compensation in case of accidents

4. Identity cards

5. Housing loans

The Government of Gujarat has set up a Construction Workers' Welfare Board. Additional steps should be taken to safeguard the livelihoods of this growing category of workers. For example, the state of Andhra Pradesh has made a progressive move of certifying construction workers. It also gives tax breaks to persons that hire certified construction workers. A similar strategy should be adopted by Gujarat.

Vendors

The central government formulated a national policy for street vendors in 2004.   Under the policy, municipal authorities are supposed to provide sufficient space for vendors to enable them to make a living. The policy also has provision for forming a Town Vending Committee to oversee the interests of the vendors. All vendors are required to be registered with the local bodies and be issued family identity cards.

Strategies

Strategies need to address both direct and indirect factors that have an impact on livelihoods. Indirect factors include housing, access to basic services like water and sanitation, infrastructure and transportation. Women particularly are able to enhance their livelihood options and earnings if these indirect factors are addressed.

Direct factors relate to skills, working spaces and work availability. The strategies for promoting livelihoods of the urban poor thus need to address a range of issues as discussed below.

1. Developing data base of skill availability and nature of work carried out in different slums: The poor are engaged in a heterogeneous set of occupations and work under diverse contractual arrangements. Some are home-based, others work in factories, and yet others are self-employed. As a first step it is critical to prepare an inventory of all the economic activities. Such an inventory will help identify activities which have the potential to be promoted in the market.

2. <u>Skill training and up gradation in high-potential sectors/industries</u>: Low literacy and educational levels impede the acquisition of skills among the poor. Skill training therefore has to be preceded by non-formal education with a focus on basic literacy and numeracy. The infrastructure of municipal schools can be used to impart this non-formal education and training.

3. <u>Multi-skilling to combat seasonality of many occupations</u>: As mentioned in the point above, many types of work carried out by the poor are seasonal in nature. Offering training in more than one skill will provide the 'multi-skilling' to provide income stability to the poor. This strategy is being adopted by some ITIs in India.

4. <u>Employment guarantee programmes for urban areas</u>: Many types of work carried out among the poor are seasonal in nature, e.g. kite-making or retailing of fire crackers. Training programmes or employment guarantee programmes like the NREGP in rural areas will reduce the vulnerability of the urban poor.

5. <u>Creating appropriate institutional structures</u>: One of the limitations of several livelihood support programmes is unsatisfactory institutional support provided for the activities. Institutional support is important to enhance skills, improve habitat and negotiate and bargain with other stakeholders. In some areas NGOs provide this type of support. However, this type of support is needed to cover the entire target population if the objective is to be achieved. The implementation of the 74th Amendment Act and the newly proposed Nagara may be effective in this regard. Local civic bodies to provide good governance of all the development programmes are critical.

6. <u>Ensuring information dissemination</u>: Weak information about the labour market among the poor is a major livelihood constraint. They are unaware of the market situation, demand for services, wages and skill requirements. Information about several programmes for skill upgradation and training do not reach the target groups. In this regard, it is important to have centers for making such information available to the urban poor. The Urban Resource Center run by Saath in Ahmedabad is an important step forward in this direction.

7. <u>Convergence of pro-poor programmes</u>: It is important that there be coordination between all the pro-poor programmes aimed at strengthening the livelihoods of the poor.

8. <u>Legal protection for self-employed workers</u>: Land use planning does not identify and allocate spaces for the poor to carry out their livelihood activities. For example, special hawking zones are often ad hoc and the vendors continue to be harassed. The Development Plan and the City Plan should recognize this need to and ensure protection of the livelihoods of the urban poor.

9. <u>Building alliances with new stake-holders</u>: Building livelihoods among the poor requires a multi-pronged approach as indicated in the strategies listed above. There are a number of private and public players who can contribute to this effort. There has been an increasing movement towards forging public private partnerships for a variety of programmes. For promoting urban livelihoods among the poor, it will be useful to build alliances amongst the multiple stake holders such as training institutes, private businesses, civil society organizations and government departments.

10. <u>Mapping vulnerable areas to permit rapid action in case of disturbances</u>: When there are social and political disturbances in a city, informal sector workers are the first to be affected and their earnings are immediately affected. They can also suffer loss of their meager livelihood assets such as pull carts and carry baskets. To minimize such losses, it is

important to map the vulnerable areas in the city. This will enable rapid action at times of such disturbances.

11. <u>Involvement of civil society/NGOs in outreach and implementation</u>: A recent evaluation of the SJSRY programme for instance recommended this for helping in prioritization of local trades and helping beneficiaries make the required linkages with banks etc.

Further, the more direct requirements that should rightfully be given to all workers are listed below. Though not an exhaustive list, it gives certain key areas that need to be taken care of.

1. Identify cards that are proof of their worker identity

2. Social security: The poor face a number of crises in their lives and many of these drive them deeper into poverty. The state should have a policy for protecting the poor from crises like death of an income earner, accident, sickness and natural and man-made disasters. For e.g., the State Government of Gujarat is proposing to launch a health insurance programme for BPL families to be implemented by NGOs and civil society organizations.

3. Safe working conditions (by identification of safety measures and equipment to minimize Organizing workers

4. Skill training to ensure their employability

There is a need to review the functioning of the ITIs, both in terms of course content and admission criteria. The courses need to be revised in line with market demand for skilled persons. In addition, the current admission criteria of completion of 7th grade should be removed. There are many competent persons who can acquire marketable skills even though they have not been to formal schools.

As listed in Section B on policies, the government has formulated several policies to promote livelihoods among the urban poor. Satisfactory implementation of these schemes will go a long way in improving the incomes of the urban poor.

Housing and Basic Services – strategies and issues

Urban settings have extremely good targeting characteristics. Due to high population densities, the delivery, production and consumption of basic infrastructure can be undertaken in high cost effective manner, as they are high-density pockets of poverty. On a per household basis it is there fore more efficient to serve informal urban settlements then serving the equivalent number poor rural households scattered through out countryside. There fore any urban local body should take advantages of these factors.

The section below profiles some of the specific issues and strategies related to housing and infrastructure provision of the poor in Ahmedabad.

Definition of a Slum

A broad and inclusive definition of a slum settlement may be evolved by developing a matrix on the lines of Kudumbshree model under the slum networking project a slum settlement having more than 50 percent permanent pucca structures is not being considered as the slum pocket this should be suitably amended.

In-situ upgradation of slums

In-situ upgradation should be preferred to relocation. In our sample of AMC household any second slum or chawl household had invested Rs. 50, 000 or more into their real estate property one half of the household earned Rs. 3,000 or more, these poor AMC household invest near one half annual incomes in their housing assests also about two third household have at one time or the other paid taxes to the Government. All the here described facts indicate that demolishing informal settlements is not economically or socially sensible policy. Layout Planning: Where in-situ upgradation projects are taken up, proper layout planning including plot re-alignment and equalization of land may be undertaken as necessary in consultation with local residents.

Upgradation of Slums

A package of physical service at household level, comprising of water supply, sewerage, disposal of solid waste matter and toilets, street- lighting, street paving, on the lines of slum networking project has a maximum impact. However individual services could be provided on a need basis using some of the programmes already existing at the city level. Upgradation should also include provision of social services such as health, education, income generation activities, etc and facilitating electric connections. Where individual services are not possible, common services will be provided.

At places where individual toilets cannot be provided, Pay & Use community toilet facilities will be provided especially by repairing community toilets constructed earlier. National schemes such as Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan sanitation scheme of maintenance of community toilet blocks by community based groups and family pass for 1 or 2 household @ Rs.20 per month per family for daily use of such toilets, will be considered. Such charges will be subject to change from time to time to meet the costs of services rendered.

Delinking Service Provisions from Nature of Land Ownership

75 percent slums in Ahmedabad are on private land providing a service on private land has always been a debatable issue in the ULBs. Ahmedabad however has an excellent example in the slum networking project when majority of the slums up graded, are on private lands the slum networking project however cannot be implemented on land owned by the states due to nature of its design. A dialogue had already been initiated by the AMC on these issues with the state to make the programme more inclusive. Service provision under the fifteen hundred NOC programme should also be upscale.

Shelter Improvement

Shelter improvement shall be the responsibility of individual settlers. The Urban Local Body may facilitate through NGOs, economic empowerment through formation of local self – help groups (SHGs), particularly women's groups, and train them for savings and thrift mechanisms so as to make such SHGs cognizable by micro finance institutions for extending further financial support. The ULBs may also promote NGOs to establish material banks to facilitate shelter up gradation.

Operation and Maintenance

The ULB will carry out regular O&M of services laid within the slums as done in other parts of the city or facilitate provision of operation and maintenance through private sector and /or NGOs.

Land-use Classification

Land use for in-situ upgradation projects will be designated as high density mixed use. This will be subject to the condition that any commercial or trading ventures existing on such lands shall only be those that are non – polluting, enviorment friendly and which provide services/employment opportunities to local slum dwellers.

Residents' Association

It should be pre requisite for the residents to form an association or a cooperative housing society that must be recognized by the concerned urban local body. This association or society should consist of all resident families in that area where at least 33% families will be represented by women and it should have at least 33% women in their governing council. Its office bearers should have the authority to interact with the ULBs and other governmental agencies for the well being of the slum dwellers.

Necessity of Building Decentralised Structures and CBOs

The study based on analysis identifies that only 2 percent of total respondents were aware of ward committees. It is not only desirable to build community based organizations (with at least 33 percent reservation of women) but it is required to involve them in the wards committees where they be given relevant voice. The AMC might evaluate the option two pilot Community Action Planning (CAP) in one ward. In the case of CAP the AMC should delegate some degree of public decision making to the ward committees and local CBOs.

Investing in Community Mobilisation Organisation and Formulation of CBOs

Due to limited resource of AMC (relative to immense work load implied in building CBOs on a city wide basis) it is necessary to involve intermediary NGOs. Futher more some NGOs have a long tradition in working with local communities an involving them would therefore include their expertise and additional value to the process. However, high costs are involved in community mobilization. It is therefore necessary to assess the correct cost and include in the budgetary provision.

Financing Mechanisms

The financing mechanisms will be participatory in nature. ULB shall endeavour to create partnerships between communities, NGOs, social and charitable institutions, business houses and ULB to meet the costs of the projects.

Share of ULB

The Municipal Corporation will meet their share of cost for slum upgradation within their means. For this purpose, ULB shall set apart a minimum of 20% of the revenues and capital budget available for developmental work for slum upgradation activities after meeting the establishment cost and other fixed costs. The BPMC Act will be suitably amended. The Act could also be amended to enable local bodies to levy a cess for slum improvement.

Share of community

The slum dwellers may share the cost of internal infrastructure to the extent as mutually decided.

Micro – Finance

Micro-finance facilities will be made available through NGO organized financial institutions.

Devoting the grants of MLA's/MP's/Councilors

The finances available with the MPs, MLAs and municipal councilors for providing infrastructure facilities in their constituencies/cities could be dovetailed and they could be made partners. They could be encouraged to contribute a fixed amount per dwelling unit.

Relocation of Slums

Many urban poor communities may not be able to stay where they are because their settlement cannot be improved relocation can create many problems for urban poor communities. Housing has to demolished and rebuild income earners may loose their employment transport cost may increase. There are many different kinds of urban poor even in one community. Some may not want to move to new site some renter may not want to become house owners. The best approach is to provide rang of options.

All relocation processes will be carried out in consultation with the affected slum dwellers, keeping in mind the distance from workplace and other livelihood facilities and after the Government considers such re-location as unavoidable. The relocation should be preferably within 2 km of original location. Where slum dwellers are to be re-located, they will be given shifting assistance as mutually decided.

Multiple approaches to housing the urban poor

Most poor households are satisfied with their house, which they progressively built over time, though desperately awaiting formal service delivery the announcement that Sharif Khan Pathan Ki Chali was being considered for SNP let to rent increase of 43 percent. Addtionally any other SNP communities the scope and scale of housing loans significantly increased after basic infrastructure and services become available in communities. Provision of basic infrastructure by the AMC promote the investment of poor into housing and should be encouraged as an alternative approach to improve habitats for the poor.

Need to develop a more flexible housing menu for urban poor household

There exist the needs to develop more flexible and easier affordable housing menu from which the poor can choose. Though we might think that the poor should live in a minimum stardard 25 sq m apartment this standard may be to low for some of the poor. During the course of the study it evident from focus groups that people where ready to pay between the range of Rs. 25, 000 to Rs. 1,00,000. According to our case in Soria nagar slum 45 percent of the total household had a carpet area of 45 sq m or more. Household those are willing to contribute more for larger apartment nearer to the city could be allowed to do so.

Allocation of Land for Housing

The Government shall allot all the land that have been rendered surplus under urban land ceiling act for housing the slum dwellers preferably. In the town planning schemes maximum permission land shall be reserved for weaker section of the society delivery mechanisms to provide the poor and access to such land will be evolved. Such land should be made available at a concessional

rate to housing cooperatives or associations of the urban poor. Such land should be identified at locations where provision of infrastructure could be made easily.

Private Sector Low-cost Housing

The Government should promote the construction of housing stock by the private sector for the economically weaker sections. As far as possible cooperative and associations of the urban poor should be preferred for such constructions. The SRA model of Mumbai city is actively being promoted as housing strategy however in interactions with the AMC officials it has been understood that it can be successfully undertaken only on large land plots and where the difference between costs of land and construction is more then 3 times.

Transfer of Titles to Slum Dwellers

Private Land

As the slum dwellers are to be given title of land, which they occupy, they could collectively buy the private land under their occupation. Cases where there is adverse possession of 12 years or more can be taken up in the initial phase. In other cases, the ULB shall endeavor to facilitate transfer of the land through negotiated settlement with the owner at the price not exceeding 33% of the market value as may be ascertained from the stamp duty records. The representatives of all the stakeholders should be invited to participate in the negotiations to promote transparency. Such a transfer shall be in dwelling a registered association or housing cooperative society of the slum dwellers. Slum dwellers may be required to pay the amount upfront by taking loans from micro finance institutions, if needed. The contribution for each dwelling units shall be worked out after adding the proportionate cost of open land, streets,etc……., to each square meter of land occupied by the slum dwellers.

- The association or cooperative society of slum dwellers may allot sub plots in the joint name of the wife first and then husband. If such an arrangement is not possible, the same may be done in the joint name of the main earning member and a female member of the family.
- The sub plot allotment will be for the portion of the land occupied.

Other forms of Tenure

Other forms of tenure may also be considered, if so desired by the community. This may include – group tenure, collective tenure, co-operative tenure etc.

Access to Social Infrastructure

Families in urban poor communities may have problems of access to education and health facilities. The problem may be the absence of such a facility in the area (availability); it may be the formal or informal cost of admission to the facility (affordability); it may be the complexity of the procedure, the timing or the documents required for admission (accessibility). The Municipality should (a) check the availability of education and health facilities for urban poor families, (b) review the formal and informal costs of admission to make sure that the service is affordable, and (c) review admission procedures, documentation requirements, timings etc. to make sure that there are no obstacles for the urban poor to have access to education and health care.

Regularization of sales transactions made without a valid sale deed

The state government shall make suitable amendments in law to the effect that the documents made on plain paper or stamp paper of any low denomination for the sale of land on which eligible slums shall be treated as valid. The short fall in stamp duty payable for such transactions shall be either waved or an amount as may be prescribed by the state government shall be levied for regularizing such transactions from time to time, and that any further sale of such property in favour of slum dwellers will be made on a stamp paper of a lower value as may be prescribed by the government.

Relaxation in rules for building permission

It will be permissible for the slum dwellers to upgrade their built environment and or shelter without insisting on obtaining the permission for construction of building under municipal or town planning act.

De-Notification

Once basic amenities and services are provided in a slum pocket it shall be de-notified.

Legal Reforms

To achieve this objective of this policy, the state will endeavor to bring about amendments in the various Acts, Rules and Regulations that shall include, among others, the following:

  a. Gujarat Slum Act, 1973
  b. Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879
  c. Bombay Provincial Municipal Corporation Act 1949
  d. Bombay Stamp Act, 1958
  e. The Gujarat Town Planning and Urban Development Act, 1976
  f. Government policies in form of various resolutions (GRs).

7. LUDHIANA

Economic vibrancy of Ludhiana city demonstrated by its strong industrial base has been overshadowed by the emergence of large number of slums, which have rather grown over a period of time. The poor migrants who come to the city for employment opportunities and other means of livelihood find themselves in a peculiar situation as costly housing and land are beyond their affordability. Not finding the affordable shelter, they are forced to encroach vacant land to build their temporary hutments. Although migrants seem to have played an important role in boosting economic growth in the city, they also seem to have created socio-economic and environmental problems in the city. The planned urbanization has been marred to an extent by the excessive demand for housing, land, basic amenities and services resulting in deterioration in the human settlement and overall physical environment. The quality of life in the city has been suffering due to gap in the pace of migration and growth of infrastructure and services. The gap in demand and supply of housing, basic amenities and civic services is visible. The boom in informal sector activities, meager income of slum dwellers, insecurity of land tenure, poor access of housing and basic amenities and many other factors show that poverty is looming large in this largest metropolitan town of Punjab.

The availability of adequate health facilities and educational institutions has important role in the well being of urban poor. Similarly, water and sanitation are basic human needs and better access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation helps to raise standards of living, and a steady water supply of better quality helps the people to be more productive. Various international and national reports indicate growing pressure on water resources. Also parks, playgrounds, streetlights, community halls, sports facilities etc play vital role in people friendly environment in cities. The quality of social fabric of cities depends on equitable distribution of resources among all sections of urban society.

According to the LMC, there are about 209 slums in the city. The huge increase in urban population amounts to a crisis of unprecedented magnitude in urban areas. These people need to be provided with shelter, employment, and urban services. With the stretched fiscal capacity, the Municipal Corporation is unable to meet these needs. As a result, informal sector is providing employment to these persons and they are forced to live in filthy environment that have come to be known as urban slums, where most of the population of the city is currently living and working with low wages to fulfill their daily needs which lead them to live below poverty line.

As per the City Development Plan of Ludhiana, the numbers of persons living below poverty line are 1.62 lakhs and the poverty line has been defined on the basis of annual family income (less than Rs.20,000/- per annum). There is no reliable database on urban poverty at city level as state government and Ludhiana Municipal Corporation do not carry regular surveys for identifying BPL population.

But on the basis of size of slum population living in Ludhiana, it could easily be argued that city has large number of BPL families.

Areas of Concern Relating to Urban Poverty in Ludhiana (Snapshot of Slums)

- Only 3 slums have Storm Water Drainage facility.
- 78 slums suffer from water logging/stagnation every year.
- 43% of slum households are without sewerage.
- 10% slum population goes for open defecation.
- Only 3% slum households have access to community toilets.
- 56 slums do not have streetlights.
- No government scheme of door-to-door collection of garbage in operation.
- No provision of lifting of the garbage in 22% of the slums.
- Around 22% have reported no sweeping of the roads.

- No provision of cleaning of drains in 32% slums.
- 90 slums are located in environmentally sensitive areas.
- 28 slums have *kutcha* approach road.
- Only 24 slums have anganwari centers.
- About 100 slums have government medical facility beyond 5 kms.
- Only 20% of the slum children were reported as fully immunized.
- Around 31% of the households in the slums have less than 30,000 as their annual income.
- No Self Help Groups or provision for Micro finance was reported in any of the slums.
- Financial Assistance/ Pension benefits were given to only 41% of the old people, 44% widows and 20% disabled persons under the various social security/welfare schemes.
- 39% slum population was without any kind of ration card.
- Only 6 slums have a community centre in their localities.
- No government scheme related to urban poverty alleviation is in operation in slums since the last five years.

Vulnerability Index (prepared on the basis of 14 indicators) shows that out of 20% of slums, 11 slums (5.3%) are extremely vulnerable, 45 slums (21.5%) are highly vulnerable and 57 slums (23.3%) are moderately vulnerable. Only 96 slums (45.9%) have low vulnerability. Majority of the people belonging to the economically weaker section residing in the 209 slums identified in Ludhiana City work as industrial labour, casual labour, construction labour, petty traders, hawkers and domestic servants and rag pickers. Although the proportion in the 'other category' seems high, it however includes varied occupations like rickshaw pullers, beggars and rag pickers etc.

The major issues in three slums, selected for the purpose of case studies, are insecurity of land tenure, water-scarcity, poor sanitation, unavailability of toilets. Majority of houses are Kutcha and very small in size. The livelihood options are inadequate in and around the slum. The level of income of most of the households is very poor.

Jamuna Colony represents human deprivations in its starkest form. Most of the slum dwellers belong to socially underprivileged sections and are migrants from Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. Majority of the households are below poverty line and livelihood options are not available to most of the people. The condition of housing, basic amenities and civic services is very bad and important basic services such as water supply is grossly inadequate. Unsanitary conditions prevail in and around the slum. There is no sewerage, no individual toilets and no streetlights in the slum. The availability of health and education facilities is also negligible. All the households are willing to pay for the services such as water, toilets, drainage, education, health and conveyance and about one-fourth of the sampled households travel more than 5 kms to their work places every day. The income of the households is meager to meet the day-to-day requirements. The multiple deprivations in the slum is affecting overall well being of the people. Their segregation from mainstream urban society is a critical issue and their integration, a major challenge for urban policy makers. The drastic measures need to be initiated to improve the quality of life in the slum.

Majority of the jhuggies in Labour Colony are kutcha. The access to water supply, sewerage, sanitation and drainage are grossly inadequate. The slum doesn't have adequate livelihood options. All slum dwellers are migrant from the other state and majority of them are living in the colony for more than 10 years. The mode of transport is cycle for of the slum dwellers. People spend considerable time to reach their working place. The number of illiterate is high.

The prevalence of illness is also very high in the slum. Daily wages of the slum dwellers are very low. Some women have opted self employment in the form of embroidery work.

The Labour colony, situated in the neighbor of urban residential area lacks basic infrastructure and quality of life. All the slum dwellers are migrants from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar states. More than half of the slum dwellers are provided with either BPL or APL cards. All the households belong to Scheduled Castes category. There is no sewerage, no individual toilets and no streetlights in the slum. The availability of health and education facilities is negligible.

Although the Kitchlu Nagar Colony is centrally located, it lacks basic infrastructure and amenities to have a good standard of living. The slum dwellers despite living there for many years have no ration cards for availing the ration at reduced prices. Majority of the work force being unskilled is prone to exploitation and low wages, which in turn inhibit the slum dwellers to better quality of life. The case studies of slums represent deprivation in starkest form. The segregation is visible in all the cases. Lack of housing, in security of land tenure, inadequate access to water supply, sewerage/drainage, streets, streetlight, and education and health facilities is affecting quality of life of urban poor and with meager income due to unavailability of adequate livelihood options, urban poor find it difficult to cope with growing deprivation The three cases demonstrate many similarities with the issues highlighted in previous sections based on snapshot analysis of slum in Ludhiana.

The state government and LMC have not made serious efforts in evolving city level policies to eradicate urban poverty and develop slums. LMC, despite having strong fiscal base has not taken any appropriate initiative to address various dimensions associated with urban poverty. Some of the poverty alleviation initiatives, which were initiated in 1997, were discontinued with in three years and posts of community organizers created under SJSRY were abolished. Several attempts for relocation of slums have received only partial success and most of the slum dwellers who were relocated/resettled returned to the original slum areas after disposing off their plots.

The institutional mechanism for implementing poverty eradication, housing and livelihood programmes is very weak in the city. At the time of survey, no efforts were being made to either conduct a survey of people living below poverty line or create an institutional/organizational structure at city or at neighborhood level to identify the crucial needs of slum dwellers and implement the poverty alleviation and slum development schemes. Similarly, no efforts have been made by LMC to create community-based organizations such as Community Development Society (CDS), Area Development Societies (ADSs) and Neighborhood Groups (NHGs) to take benefit of SJSRY.

The only important development that has taken place two years back is the preparation of City Development Plan (2006) for guiding the future growth, development and planning of the city. According to the CDP prepared by the MCL 'As the economic base of the city is relatively sound and the hinterland is well developed the population below poverty line is low at 10%. Out of 209 slum pockets identified in the city, 57 have already been provided with the basic amenities including – water supply through house taps, sewerage, individual toilets, roads, street lights. There are 68 partially upgraded slum pockets in the city where, water supply, roads and street lights have been provided. Rest of the 84 slum pockets are to be considered for provision of services. A total amount of Rs. 222 Crores (5.6% of total investment proposed) has been proposed exclusively for urban poor housing and services. MCL (in collaboration with the Improvement Trust) intends to build about 7000 pucca houses of about 30 sq. meters area each to relocate the slum dwellers (Investment of Rs. 139 Crores proposed at Rs. 1.97 Lakh per unit-inclusive of land cost). Upgrading basic infrastructure facilities (housing, water supply, sewerage, toilets, roads and street lights) in slums is on the priority list of projects (Rs. 27.62 Crores investment proposed). The Municipal Corporation of Ludhiana proposes social development activities such as adult education, awareness programmes, vaccination etc. in slum areas (Rs. 56 crores investment proposed). The Ludhiana City Development Plan (Vision 2021) seeks to address the issues of unplanned growth of the city and find a solution to the concerns regarding water, power, sewage and transport services looming over the city.

LMC seems to be slow in preparing DPRs for slum development under BSUP for providing housing, basic amenities and livelihood. So far DPRs have been prepared only for four slums (Bhagat Singh Nagar, Rajiv Gandhi Colony, Labour Colony, Sharabha Nagar) which were approved by the Ministry in September 2007. MCL should prepare DPRs for all the slums. The most deprived slums can be picked up first for preparing DPRs for critical infrastructure and services.

The Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) has provided large number of mandatory and optional reforms for addressing various problems relating to urban poverty. Three reforms under JNNURM having direct impact on urban poverty are given below:

1. Internal earmarking of funds for services to the Urban Poor
2. Provision of Basic services to the Urban Poor
3. Earmarking at least 20-25% of Developed Land in all housing projects (both public and private) for EWS / LIG category with a system of cross subsidization.

Although no good practices were noticed in slums in Ludhiana but it will be worth to consider following innovative practices for tackling problems of multiple deprivations relating to poverty in Ludhiana.

1. Urban Poverty Reduction and Women Empowerment Scheme (Kudumbashree), Kerala
2. Andhra Pradesh Urban Services for the Poor (APUSP)
3. Ashray Nidhi or Shelter Fund (Madhya Pradesh)
4. Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA), Ahemdabad
5. Slum Networking Project of Ahmedabad:
6. Rajiv griha kalpa project for good quality housing for lower income groups (Andhra Pradesh)
7. The Society for the promotion of area resource centre (SPARC) for providing housing and infrastructure to the urban poor (Mumbai).
8. Access to water for the urban poor (Andhra Pradesh)
9. Indore habitat improvement project for providing adequate shelter and services (Madhya Pradesh)
10. Slum networking project through mobilization of internal resources (Baroda)

There is tremendous scope for introducing good practices in the field of housing, basic services and livelihood options. The strong political will at state and municipal level is necessary to introduce various initiatives necessary for overall development of slums and generation of employment opportunities for the urban poor. The JNNURM, if taken seriously by the State and the local Government can pave way for addressing crucial issues relating to urban poverty in Ludhiana.

The vision of the city envisages Ludhiana to be a leading economic centre of the country and providing best possible 'Quality of Life' to its citizens. These are to be achieved through a set of actions aimed at transforming the city into an internationally competent urban area. The set of actions are:

▪ To make provisions for the supply of basic services at optimum levels for the entire city,
▪ To provide housing and services to the homeless and slum dwellers on priority basis,
▪ Taking actions to prevent deterioration in Environment, and
▪ To effectively manage urban growth.

Our vision regarding city's urban poor emanates from the vision of the city which envisages Ludhiana to be providing best possible quality of life to its citizens including the urban poor. Our

vision of Ludhiana is of an economically, socially and environmentally vibrant city with no or negligible segregation in human settlements in terms of provision of housing, basic services and livelihood. The city will be full of innovations and actions meant for improving the quality of life of urban poor. The city's residents particularly urban poor will be better housed have greater access to basic services and livelihood options and are more educated and healthier. The rising level of education, employment and income will help city to improve the ecological fabric of the city. A prosperous city will have far less vulnerable number of people and more transparent, efficient, accountable, decentralized and stronger local governance. The realization of this vision will depend on many things including our shared will and commitments, determination for helping the socially, economically and culturally neglected section of the society. We will need to evolve people specific, location specific, context specific solutions to most of the problems of urban poor. The significant reduction in poverty in Ludhiana on a sustainable basis is the ultimate objective of the strategy for urban poverty reduction. The immediate objectives of UPRS, which are inline with the basic services to the urban poor (BSUP), one of the two important sub-missions under JNNURM is as below:

1. Good living conditions / quality of life for the urban poor
2. Better livelihood options / economic opportunities
3. Greater participation of poor in planning, governance and development
4. Provision of pro poor institutional reforms: efficient and strong local self government

The phased action plan for in situ development and relocation of slums has been described in Chapter 10. We suggest that extremely vulnerable slums may be taken for in situ development and relocation in the first phase (2008-11). In the second phase (2011-14), highly vulnerable slums may be selected for providing housing basic amenities and livelihood options. The slums which are having comparatively better availability of services (moderately vulnerable) may be selected in the third phase (2014-17). The slums, which have low level of vulnerability, should be selected in the last phase of 2017-2020. These phases are based on the level of vulnerability in slums.

We have recommended that most vulnerable slums (35) should be developed immediately and DPRs should be prepared accordingly. The projects should be prepared on the basis of vulnerability index given in the report.

The strategy for poverty reduction in Ludhiana comprises following important initiatives under three broad parameters of housing, basic services and livelihood:

Strategy for Housing

- Regularization and relocation of slums
- Security of land tenure at affordable prices
- Low cost rental housing and night shelters/community centres
- Emphasis on labour housing
- Adequate and separate earmarking of funds for housing
- Greater role of PUDA/Improvement Trust
- Amendment in building bye laws and simplification of legal and procedural framework
- Preparation of Master Plan/District Plan and Metropolitan Plan
- Promotion of cost-effective building material/technologies
- Public Private Partnerships (PPPs)
- Promotion of innovative financial instruments
- Preparation of perspective plan for housing for the urban poor
- Devising tools to control comodification of land and housing

Strategy for basic services

- Focused attention to provision and integrated development of basic services
- Separate earmarking of funds for basic services
- Low cost services programmes.
- Neighbourhood development approach.
- Convergence of existing services available to the urban poor under various departments such as education, health and social security.
- Establish effective linkages between asset creation and asset management.
- Canalization of adequate investment for basic services.
- Public Private Partnerships (PPPs).
- Levy of reasonable user charges.
- Streamlining institutional mechanism for delivery of basic services.
- Creation of regulatory mechanism.
- Mobilization of beneficiaries contribution.
- Delinking municipal services from land tenure.
- Ensuring involvement of urban poor.
- Tax incentives to the private sector/real estate developers for providing cost-effective services to the urban poor.
- Priority to environmental concerns.

Better Livelihood Options / Economic Opportunities

- Strengthening urban economy
- Promotion of self employment ventures
- Micro financing
- Provision of space for micro-enterprises
- Vocational and entrepreneurial training.

8. PUNE

The Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies for Pune have been recommended by Shelter Associates under the NIUA program. The program aims at identifying sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources for addressing the needs of the urban poor.

Poverty Profile of Pune

Pune's steady population growth has lead to almost 42% of the city's population, that is a more than 10 lakh persons (approximately 2 lakh households) living in degraded areas, comprising of 564 slum pockets.[31] The size of the slums varies from a few hutments to highly consolidated slums having more than 1000 hutments. This 40% of the population occupies 6 % of the cities land. The expected economic growth in the city and the increasing land prices will likely aggravate this situation unless major interventions are made.

The Municipal Corporation has been working for the urban poor in the city, such that the conditions of basic services and livelihood are seen to be much better than in other parts of the country. At the same time, not much has been achieved in terms of providing secure housing conditions for the poor living in the slums or for those expected in the future.

The survey of the 100 slums has provided information that depicts the true status of the urban poor in Pune. It has revealed several facts regarding the living conditions of the urban poor and has also set the order of priority of the different issues that concern Pune's urban poor.

a. Housing conditions

A majority (60) of the slums are located on Public lands where as 36 are located on private lands, and four on public- private land. All the slums formed before 1995 have been considered eligible to be declared. The declaration is essential for slums located on private lands than for those located on public lands. Of the 100 surveyed, 75 were declared slums, 3 were partly declared and 22 were undeclared. The number of hutments per slum varies to a large extent within the city, with 40% of those surveyed having households between 100-200 range and around 6% are large slums having more than 1000 households. From the 100 slums survey it is seen that the density varies from 176 tenements/hectare to 963 tenements per hectares.

The conditions of the houses improve gradually as the income of the householder improves progressively. It was seen that almost 41 slums have almost 75% of pucca houses, 22 slums had almost 50% as pucca, and 37% have more than 50% kuccha. Based on the poverty indicators rating system it was seen that for housing conditions 57 % of the slums are in good condition, 33% are in average condition and 10 are in poor condition.

Provision of basic services/utilities

Water is supplied to all the slums from the PMC water supply systems. The survey shows that of the 100 slums, as many as 61 slums have all the households having individual water connections, i.e. 100% individual connections. The remaining has a mix of individual and community water

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[3] Environmental Status Report 2006

taps. In terms of hours of supply, there is a inequitable distribution of water within the city. Although 47% of the slums have 24 hours water supply, there are 15% who receive water for only 1-4 hours a day.

All the slums surveyed showed the existence of a drainage system, with most of them disposing of its water to nearest available watercourse or water body. The lack of proper maintenance leads to clogged drains causing flooding in some slums, especially those located in low-lying areas.

The Toilet construction program implemented by the Slum Improvement Department in 2000, has vastly improved the sanitation situations in the slums. Although unlike water supply, individual toilets provision is not as yet available, the access to community toilets in the slums is improving. Of the slums surveyed there were 16 that did not have a toilet block.

The ratio used for provision of toilet blocks is 1:50 persons, but it is seen that in almost 34 % of the slums the ratio is much above the 1:50 persons, leading to cases of open defecation especially in children.

The approach roads or the main arterial roads to these slums in a majority (89) of the cases surveyed are tar roads. The by lanes within the slums are concrete or paved for almost 83 slums. In all the slums electricity is available. Streetlights are also provided within the slums, but the distance between poles varies as per the haphazard growth of the slum.

Most of the slums have a preprimary school within the slum under the ICDS program. The PMC has more than 300 primary schools and only 12 higher secondary schools in the city, the location of these schools is not evenly distributed, such that some slums have good access, where as in other access to school becomes a issue. The quality of education in the public schools is also very poor.

Similarly the government Health facilities although available in each ward are few compared to the need, thus although more expensive many slum dwellers have to go to a private doctor for their medical needs.

As per the rating system for Basic services it is seen that 38 slums are in the good category and four slums have the maximum 90 points. Of the rest 38 are in the average category with a majority of these slums showing a poor indicator in the person to toilet ratio. Twenty-four slums are in the below 60 category.

Livelihood

When we consider the working population in all wards, the construction labor category gives maximum employment (out of which almost 30% constitute skilled/unskilled construction labor for all wards) followed by Semiskilled Unskilled and Miscellaneous category. In fact both together constitute over half (54%) of the total working population. Employment in public sector constitutes only 5%. The other three categories namely Private Sector, Self Employed and Professional & Skilled share more or less equal proportion of the balance (41%).

However when we consider individual wards, this proportion changes dramatically in many of them. Depending on the location of the slum, the livelihood pattern is seen to change for, e.g. in the center city slums of Bhavani Peth has 31% employed in private jobs, for these slums the location plays a important role in livelihood. For the ones that are employed as unskilled labour, location is not seen as a major criterion for work.

Issues and Concerns

The issues and priority areas of concern that emerge for the urban poor of Pune are:

1. Housing: The numbers of slums in the city have steadily been increasing at almost the same rate as the rise in real estate market. The persons living in Pune slums may not be poor if defined by asset-based indicators, but the inability to afford a legal house in the city makes them a urban poor.

The PMC has been constructing houses or providing financial assistance through schemes likes VAMBAY and others, but the number of houses provided is miniscule compared to the need. Since 1994 in situ -rehabilitation projects were taken up through private builders under Appendix T guidelines, but till date only 8-10 projects have been completed.

Following in the footsteps of Mumbai the Slum Rehabilitation Authority (SRA) has been established in 2005, to address this vast low income housing need, but its regulations do not address the needs of the urban poor adequately.

2. No Security of Tenure: A majority of the urban poor in Pune live in illegally encroached settlements commonly called slums or shanties. They have no legal right to the place, other than that many have been residing there for more that 10-15 years now.

The Government of Maharashtra's GR to recognize and declare the slums and slum dwellers prior to 1995 is the only succor. Thus it is seen that older slums, have over the time well laid out pucca houses, but without legal right to the land, it is still a slum. The urban poor have the financial capability to construct their own pucca houses but not the capacity to afford land in the city.

3. Land Ownership: In Pune there are four main types of lands as per ownership on which the slums are located. There are the private lands, public lands that belong to the city or state, public lands that belong to the central government agencies and a combined ownership of public and private owners. Each of these relates to its own issues in terms of trying to provide security of tenure to the slum dwellers. An overall plan for in-situ rehabilitation or relocation plan would not resolve the issues of housing.

4. Tenement Density: The tenement density in the slums can be a major factor in terms of identifying solutions for its rehabilitation or improvement. In slums with densities lesser than 360 per hectare, the lesser densities itself result in better living conditions. For slums with higher densities, rehabilitation on site for the higher densities with min 25sq.m area as mandated by the regulations also becomes a challenge.

5. Increase Health Awareness & Facilities: Although the urban poor might prefer to go to a govt. hospital, they cannot if it is not located in the near vicinity. Also it is more time consuming and as people i.e. at least workers cannot spend days without going to work, they have no alternative but to go to a private doctor.

6. High Rate of Employment in Informal Sector: Lack of skills and education, results in a majority of the urban poor being dependant on unskilled labour services in the informal market. The employment in the service sector in the residential areas is also very high. These are jobs that are low paying and although the demand is steady, the variations of the economy can greatly affect the income earning capacity.

7. Community Mobilization: Community mobilization is required to push the urban poor to take initiatives to better their conditions. But this seems to need an external continuous push. Self-motivation is very low as the urban poor are bogged down with day-to-day existence issues.

8. Sanitation: Although the toilet project has provided some relief towards the sanitation issues it is not a complete solution. With a charge of Rs.20 per family only routine maintenance is possible, any major maintenance would have to be funded separately. It is thus not a long-term solution to provision of sanitation for the urban poor.

Urban Poverty Alleviation Strategies

Policies that the city needs to adopt to provide a comprehensive overview to urban poverty alleviation have been suggested along with Strategies for the areas of housing, basic services and livelihood.

Housing:

1. Master Plan for housing strategies: Currently there is no Master Plan released by the ULB to show a comprehensive strategy for slum development. A Master plan of the whole city needs to be drawn up which would give clarity regarding location and spread of slums across the city zones, with land ownership, densities, vulnerable slums which probably need to be relocated etc.

2. Generating Housing stock to meet the housing needs of future urban poor: Strategies such as earmarking at least 20-25% of developed land in all housing projects (both Public and Private Agencies) for EWS/LIG category with a system of cross subsidization; Inclusionary Housing and reservation of land in the newly incorporated areas and while preparing a DP for EWS section housing are recommended.

Basic Services:

A two-step approach is recommended to prioritize slums where the need for improving basic services is critical.

Step 1 - Categorization as per Type of Housing options available - based on the type of ownership of land there are three types of long term housing options for any slum. Relocation, in situ Rehabilitation and Slum improvement.

Step 2 - Standards of Basic Services to be provided as per the three housing options.

Strategies for each of the basic services are:

Water Supply
• Move towards 100% individual water connections.

Sanitation
• Re implementation of the Community toilet block project to meet the existing gap.
• Program for sustainable Maintenance of Community Toilets
• Program for Individual Toilets

Solid Waste Management

- Ghanta gadi system
- Vermicomposting near Toilets

Health
- Program to increase the number of Health Facilities
- Periodical awareness campaigns

Livelihood

A. Strategies for Education - PMC has certain educational and financial assistance schemes, additionally the following are proposed:
- Good quality teachers
- Adequate Coverage of Primary Schools in all of Pune
- Access to Higher Secondary Schools
- Provision of quality Infrastructure at the schools
- Monitoring of the School Drop outs at primary and secondary levels
- Night Schools
- Adult Literacy Campaign

B. Skill up gradation
- Vocational training
- Women training workshops
- Evening workshops in the settlements
- On Job training or Earn and Learn programs

C. Income generating and employment opportunities
- Self Employment Opportunities
- Entrepreneurship development
- Women employment opportunities
- Incubation cell for in house businesses
- Shops - place in rehabilitation schemes.

D. Formalizing the informal Sector.

E. Micro-credit systems: The above-mentioned strategies under Housing, basic services and livelihoods are area specific strategies. The Action Plan has to incorporate these and merge it with the overall planning perspective of the city. The city needs to evolve the Action Plan for Poverty Alleviation through a long range planning perspective.

9. INDORE

Setting targets for national & global achievement is not new. To reduce urban poverty, Government of India has set up approach under urban poverty reduction Strategies (UPRS) project. It is being prepared under GOI-UNDP project. These strategies will be later incorporated in the "National Strategy for Urban Poor"- a project that was conceived under GOI-UNDP project. The project is addressing the concern of urban poor and facilitating the sustainable Urban Livelihood. The project objective is to support urban poor and people living in slums to organize themselves – at local level and assert their rights / entitlements. In the Introduction Chapter, the report has related the objective of JNNRUM with MDGs. The report has specially correlated the MDGs – 7 and highlighted the current status towards attainment of MDGs at National Level.

The UN estimates that as many as 55% of the world's poor currently live in urban areas; this proportion is expected to increase as population rises. A recent study by the UNDP in 2005 estimates that 900 million people presently lived in slums. That is one in six of the world's population live in what amount to a health-and life- threatening environments, largely excluded from city life and from achieving their political, social and economic rights. Livelihood enhancement strategy should not be only indicator for assessment of reducing urban poverty, but also an assessment of the access to basic services, like water and sanitation as well as to schools and hospitals. So conventional economic definition of the poor in terms of a minimum income or consumption is to be completed by a range of other social indicators such as life expectancy, infant mortality, nutrition, the proportion of the household budget spend on food, literacy, school enrolment rates, access to health clinics or drinking water, to classify poor groups against a common index of material welfare.

Assessment of Urban Poverty is also being attempted by adding qualitative dimensions such as security, self-respect, identity, non-exploitative social relationship, decision-making, freedom and legal and political rights. In other words, poverty is defined not just in terms of limited accessibility of goods and services but it is broadened to include activities and resources that are associated with human dignity and self-respect. There are community members who are under the risk of being exposed to poverty that is, the vulnerable. Vulnerability is not synonymous of poverty, but refers to defenselessness, insecurity and exposed to risk, shocks and stress. Vulnerability is reduced by assets, such as: human investment in health and education; productive assets including houses and domestic equipment; access to community infrastructure; store of money, jewellary and gold; and claims on other households, patrons, the government and international community for resources at times of need. There is a need to understand that who are the poor or where are the poor and what increases the risk of poverty and underlying reasons why people remain in poverty. An understanding of depth, breadth and duration of poverty becomes essential in this perspective.

Urban poverty is completely different from rural poverty as inter-linkages of the urban economy to the rural economy either through issues like trades, or rural-urban migration and support networks. On the other hand Urban poverty has certain features that are completely different from rural like high dependence on cash-based economics, lack of social insurance from relatives, importance of shelter and access to basic infrastructure, associated health and environmental risks, exposure to urban violence some of which could be perpetuated due to high inequality, bad governance and social exclusion.

In urban areas the rapid growth of urban populations has led to a worsening in absolute and relative poverty in urban areas. Urban poverty has, still recently, been low on the agenda of development policy because of dominant perceptions of urban bias and the need to counter this

with focus on rural development policy. However, policy interest in urban issues is increasing as a result of two phenomena:

- Projections of a large and increasing proportion of poor people living in urban areas, party as a result of urbanization; and

- Claims that structural adjustment programmes – which should have removed some of the urban bias, by removing price distortions – have in fact led to a much faster increase in urban poverty than rural poverty

In order to alleviate the urban poverty in the country, the Union Ministry of Urban Affairs and Employment has launched a number of slum improvement and Urban Poverty Alleviation Programmes (UPAPs). Some of such prominent programme include: Environment Improvement of Urban Slum (EIUS), Swarna Jayanthi Sahari Rojgar Yojna (SJSRY), Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT), Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Scheme (ILCS), Comprehensive Slum Improvement Programme (CSIP), Urban Community Development (UCD), Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIUPEP), Urban Basic Services for Poor (UBSP) and Nehru Rojgar Yojna (NRY). These programmes are based on the recognition of the potential contribution that urban poor are capable of making in society and the alarming proportion they are going to assume in the future. They also seek to link employment generation with infrastructure.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this exercise has been to prepare an urban poverty reduction strategy (UPRS) for 12 cities and this report is based on Indore City. In preparation of UPRS four major tasks were undertaken through – (i) an inception report, (ii) a snapshot of city-specific urban poverty, (iii) Case study of selected pockets of poverty within the city and finally (iv) Strategies for reduction of Urban Poverty that is specific

The Slum population has been a substantial growth both in Indore city, on account of growing urbanization, industrialization and mobility of population. The slum population in the Indore City is ....., where as that other districts in the state of Madhya Pradesh was about .... .The current approach of the government of India to tackle urban poverty is three pronged. The first is to provide urban poor with housing and infrastructure. This aspect is covered under the ambit of the flagship urban development programme – the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), is to ensure institutional reforms to facilitate decentralization as envisaged in the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (74th CAA) and to ensure accountability of urban local bodies (ULBs) to the citizen. The third approach is to facilitate access to livelihoods / employment through policies like the National Policy for Urban Street Vendors (NPUSV) and programmes like the Swarna Jayanthi Shahari Rozgar Yojna (SJSRY).

In this context, a GoI-UNDP project on Urban Poverty "National Strategy for Urban Poor" was conceived. The main objective of the projects is to empower the urban poor so that they can contribute effectively to decisions that impact their lives. The project strategy aims to provide the urban poor with a forum to discuss their needs and the obstacles to meeting them. The project seeks to build capacity for implementation of innovative urban poverty alleviation plans, with the thrust on basic services and improvement in the socio-economic condition of slum dwellers.

Methodology

The methodology mainly involved assessing the poverty in slum of Indore. The data based for the poverty profile was analyzed in terms of the secondary data sets like the census and National Sample Survey as well as through primary survey and a more detailed study had been carried out based on SWOT analysis has also been done. This was followed up with a discussion with the stakeholders both in government and non-government sectors who were involved with urban poverty reduction work.

Data Collection – Secondary Data

The following information was collected at the City level

- Physical growth of the city – city size over the decades, pattern of change etc.
- City level details – location aspects, Demography like population growth, density etc, physical characteristic, employment & income pattern, details on the development plan, land use, population projections,
- Economic base in the various sectors including industries and commerce and spatial structure, employment and human power
- Land use and intensity of land use details
- Details on existing informal settlements and informal commercial activities
- Existing level of infrastructure services, performing norms for the delivery & planning of such services like water supply, sanitation, solid waste management, traffic & transportation, street lighting, social infrastructure, etc.,
- Organization and financial aspects and details on available arrangements / mechanism for implementing developmental / poverty reduction projects, details on the functions and responsibilities of the existing mechanism for coordination, monitoring and evaluation of the project execution at state / city level

Data Collection – Primary Data

Based on the information available on the maps of slums, necessary field survey was undertaken to supplement the information obtained from the secondary surveys. The process involved

- Listing of slums with respect to the Administrative Jurisdiction of the Urban Local Body
- Land Ownership information of slums
  - o Slums in objectionable areas
  - o Slums in Unobjectionable areas
  - o Slums in private land
- Spatial demarcation of slums including mapping to show the actual dimension of each of the slum areas as per the revenue records and to know the extend of the proposed site as it serves as the basic sketch for any proposed development.

An urban poverty profiling of the city in terms of housing, basic services, livelihood options and the interventions had been undertaken so as to shortlist and identify 3 case studies based on delineation of priority zones from the maps prepared. The activities for the 3 case study slums included a demand assessment survey along with an assessment of the existing situation and service deficiency analysis.

Focus group discussion with the slum dwellers and their community leaders had been also carried

out to get their feedback. Based on these discussions and the data collected from the primary survey, a SWOT analysis had been carried out which indicated the strengths and the weakness in the current policy initiatives as felt by the slum dwellers in Indore.

Findings have been discussed in the stakeholder's workshops involving a few agencies – government and non-government, who are engaged with slum rehabilitation issues and issues of urban poverty in Indore City. The draft final report has been prepared based on all these information and hopes that it will be useful for further improving the service delivery mechanisms in the city and the reducing vulnerability of the slum population particularly those living in denotified and objectionable slum.

General Profile of the City

Indore Municipal Corporation is spread over an area of 130.17 sq. km, the city's average population density was 12290 person per sq. km in 2001 with a disproportionate high number of 33,742 persons per sq km in the 19.42 sq. km slum area. Indore city had a population of 1597441 in 2001.

Indore is the largest City in the state with a population 1597441 in 2001, its rate of growth expect in one decade (1981-91) has been higher than the national average and was higher than the state average in 1991-2001.

In Indore Municipal Corporation a total of 604 Slums were identified – This is as per IMC Survey, out of which 406 are notified slum while 198 slums are not notified. The percent of slum population to total population is 17.7. The slum area comprises 19.42 sq. km, which is 15% of the city areas. 68% of slum dwellers live below poverty line. The Population Density of the Indore Slums is 33742 (2.7 higher than the city density), which is 471 / km sq. A survey of 120 slums reported that the average gross land area per family was 121 sq meters, of which only 33 sq meters was developed.

Snapshot of Urban Poverty In Indore City

The basic objective of the primary survey is to get feedback from the users of public services and the problems encountered in accessing such services. The specific objectives of the study are...

- Assess the state of major public services from the user's perspective – social welfare schemes
- Assess the infrastructure facility including Housing Status
- Assess the livelihood option of urban poor in Indore City
- Create public awareness, and influence the urban government to improve the quality of public services and to expand outreach to benefit of poor

Annual Income of the Urban Poor, Livelihood Options, Caste Structure, Below Poverty Line Status, Housing Structure, Water, Sanitation, Sewerage and Drainage facilities, Health and Education Facilities, Basic Services, Road, Solid Waste Management, Street Lighting, Access to credit and other amenities etc has been assessed during the exercise.

Thus, overall the baseline survey indicated that basic facilities dealing with sanitation and solid waste management needed lot of improvement in both access and quality of service delivery, while water supply, roads and performance of street lighting needed some improvements as well. There was dissatisfaction expressed by the respondents in accessing the schooling and health care services. The vulnerability assessment based on demand gap survey strengthens these findings.

Finding from case study of three slums...

Three Slums for case study has been identified with the basis of following indicators and vulnerability factors...
- Decrease in Infrastructure
- Infrastructure deficiency
- Social Category
- Spatial Distribution

These three Slums are - Chandraprabha Nagar, Bajrang Nagar and Rahul Gandhi Nagar The sample size were 480 in Chandraprabha Nagar, 195 in Bajrang Nagar, 325 in Rahul Gandhi Nagar. The questions asked were mainly broadening on population (number of households, number of families below poverty line, total population) etc, present of infrastructure (roads, street lights, school, anganwadi, balwadi, health centres, etc), access to water supply (hours of water supply, number of individual and community water connections, quality of water, etc) and access to sanitation (individual and community toilets, open defecation practice, solid waste management, etc).

Major findings were compiled on Population & Demographics, housing, water, toilets, drainage, solid waste management, education and health services. The study aloes assessed the work employment status with income and gender wise income distribution.

The SWOT analysis based on focus group discussion emphasized on securing Housing, Livelihood options, Social Security and Welfare Scheme / Services and Local Urban Governance issues.

Way Forward

The assessment has helped in designing the future action plan for addressing the issues of slum by adopting approaches of community development plan.

- Working out strategies for addressing the basic housing rights of the slum dwellers by location wise classification – urban poor living in notified slums, urban poor living in non – notified slums and urban homeless

- Assessment of Issues Specific intervention on Basic Services, Housing & Livelihood promotion

- Assessment of contribution of urban poor in city's economy.

- Analysis of Sector wise distribution of Urban Poor – members employed in industries, transport, crafts, domestic areas, small scale industries

- Work out Strategies Promoting Knowledge base to promote and disseminate best practices and advocate at different levels to influence policies, practices and decision making processes for ensuring sustainable access, health, education and hygiene benefits to the slum dwellers

- Strengthening of Local Self Governance structure & Urban Local Bodies and ensuring community participation in planning, implementing & monitoring process for ensuring accountability & transparency

- Mapping out of Urban Poor (habitation and work place) and based on the map, analyze the reasons as well as impact / effect of the urban poor being located in a particular area.

- To supplement the larger vision of JNNURM by introducing exclusive knowledge in poverty pockets of Indore City

The purpose of this report is to analyze and explain the vulnerable condition of the Urban Poor – Slum Dwellers of Indore City of Madhya Pradesh. The report has captured the approaches and strategies for Housing, Livelihood and Institutional Reform. Later on the report has captured the general profile of the Indore City and status of urban poor in terms of accessing the basic services, education & health facilities and other government run programmes and social security / welfare schemes. The report accounts the perceptions of slum dwellers, government functionaries & Urban Local Bodies representatives. In this section, attempt has been made to explain the background profile, Socio-economic Profile and facilities mapping of slum dwellers. The report has covered the three specific case study and presented the vulnerability and marginalization status of slum dwellers of three slums of Indore City.

This report contains significant secondary information, collected from government records and relevant websites, with a purpose to inform the readers about the dismal conditions of Urban Poor. This information also engages discussions to understand the on going work-in-progress for the well being of Urban Poor in the city of Indore. The on going efforts for addressing the concern of Urban poor by government and bi-lateral agency has been also highlighted. The report has also captured the Programmes and policies related to poverty alleviations and analyze it in the context of its objective and its accessibility in favour of eligible and potential beneficiaries. The report has also elaborated the existing institutional structure for poverty alleviation at the city level. However, the report is, in fact, a result of one to one discussion, focused groups discussion, analysis of structured interview with Urban Poor (Slum Dwellers) and diversified stakeholders including Representative of Government Functionaries / Urban Local Bodies / Indore Municipal Corporation. With this overall context, situational and vulnerability analysis, the report has highlighted the way forward, strategic action plan and specific recommendations on livelihood, housing and basic services. Issues, Policies and Strategies are made for addressing the issues so that government and bi-lateral agency should be able to make a more significant difference in the lives of Urban Poor under JNNRUM.

10. JAIPUR

The current approach of the Government of India to tackle urban poverty is three pronged. The first is to provide urban poor with housing and infrastructure. This aspect is covered under the ambit of the flagship urban development programme–the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM). The second, also a part of JNNURM, is to ensure institutional reforms to facilitate decentralization as envisaged in the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (74th CAA) and to ensure accountability of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) to the citizens. The third approach is to facilitate access to livelihoods / employment through policies like the National Policy for Urban Street Vendors (NPUSV) and programmes like the Swarn Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY).

The **Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM)** tries to address the problem of urban poverty, is sub-divided into two sub-missions: the sub-mission on urban infrastructure and governance and the sub-mission on basic services to the urban poor.

The objectives of the JNNURM with respect to urban poor are:

- Focused attention on integrated development of basic services to the urban poor (BSUP) in the 63 mission cities. BSUP includes security of tenure at affordable prices, improved housing, water supply, sanitation and ensuring delivery through convergence of other already existing universal services of the government for education, health and social security. Ideally, the urban poor should be provided housing near their place of work.
- Effective linkages between asset creation and asset management so that assets created in mission cities are not only maintained efficiently but also become self-sustaining over time.
- Ensure adequate funds to fulfill deficiencies in BSUP.
- Scale up delivery of civic amenities and provision of utilities with emphasis on universal access to urban poor.

In partnership with **UNDP**, the **Government of India** (Ministry of Poverty Alleviation) aims to strategically address the various dimensions of urban poverty resulting in concrete projects for improvement of conditions of urban poor pan-country. Under the broad umbrella of the **"National Strategy for Urban Poor",** theoretical understanding of urban poverty, statistical projections and on-ground realities have to be brought together to arrive at poverty reduction strategies for urban poor that will be city-specific[4]. These will strengthen the ULBs by facilitating exchange of information at various levels, setting up of urban poverty resource centres and developing an organized institutional framework within the state and ULBs that will lead to proper implementation of the 74th CAA.

It may be pointed out here that City Development Plans (CDPs) have been prepared for all the 63 JNNURM cities. However, there is a clear need for CDPs to promote integrated strategies for the urban poor in these cities. In order to address this lacuna, it was decided that Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRSs) for 11 JNNURM cities will be prepared under the GoI-UNDP project on National Strategy for the Urban Poor. These eleven cities comprise two mega cities (Kolkata and Chennai) three cities with 4 million plus population (Ahmedabad, Bangalore and Hyderabad) and five cities with 1 million plus population (Ludhiana, Chandigarh, Jaipur, Pune, Indore) and Ambala (a non-JNNURM city for an alternative perspective).

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[4] Under JNNURM, City Development Plans (CDPs) have been prepared for 63 Indian cities. Some cities out of these 63 have been selected for preparation of **Urban Poverty Reduction Strategies (UPRS)** under NSUP.

The UPRSs will focus on improving the living conditions of the urban poor and advancing their quality of life. Emphasis will also be laid on providing a broader spectrum of livelihood options for the poor. It is expected that this will, in turn, improve the quality of life of the city as a whole.

Approach to the Project

The above-mentioned objectives of BSUP under JNNURM are considered to be the necessary steps that will empower the urban poor with livelihood options, access to urban infrastructure and space that are necessary to improve quality of their lives and to enable their greater participation in local decision-making.

The UPRS of Jaipur is based on the analysis of the access to basic infrastructure and attempts to maintain a focus on the influence and importance of improved livelihoods in the lives of the urban poor. The preparation of the UPRS for Jaipur involves profiling the city's poor population in terms of their living conditions, their socio-ethnic backgrounds, their economic activities and the particular skill sets and labour potentials that they possess.

Jaipur is a prime tourism destination, centre of the Indian handicrafts industry as well as the wholesale hub for the state of Rajasthan. The urban poor are also employed in these areas of economic activity and tend to be physically concentrated around the areas where these activities are conducted. Slums have developed on the outskirts of the city and continually get shoved farther from the city centre. The problems of low mobility and accessibility (for the poor and for service providers including the government) and reduced quality of life are endemic among the poor of Jaipur.

The transportation modes used by the poor are mainly bicycles and buses. A large percentage also moves on foot. There is minimal public transport in the city, which further affects the earning capacities of the poor. Under the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) proposals for infrastructure projects (roads, mass transport, and utilities) are under active consideration with the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India. Adequate care has to be taken to ensure that such proposals are inclusive and sensitive to the needs of the urban poor residing in the city. The recommendations suggested in the Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy for Jaipur should be taken into consideration while these projects are being firmed up.

An important aspect of the spatial dimension of poverty in Jaipur is that a large number of slums are located on environmentally sensitive areas (e.g. along drains or nalas, low lying areas, along main roads) and on the foothills of the hills of Aravali range that skirt the northern and eastern fringes of the city and provide the spectacular setting for the city. Perceived environment damage and damage to historical structures like palaces, havelis, temples and step wells due to existence of slums is the reason that is used to uproot the poor and resettle them on the outskirts of the city. There is a dearth of availability of low cost accommodation and this has forced the poor to become squatters.

Jaipur presents a unique challenge for preparation of the UPRS because of its unusual mixture of tradition and modernity and its special geographical, historical and cultural character. The UPRS has attempted to emphasize on creating capacity within the population of the urban poor to live under better conditions, earn and spend better.

Objectives:

The focus of the UPRS is on promoting the following:

133

1. sub-sectoral strategies aimed at leveraging resources for addressing the needs of the urban poor
2. participation of the urban poor in the UPRS
3. pro-poor institutional reforms.

Methodology

The overall methodology that has been adopted for the preparation of the UPRS for Jaipur include a variety of data collection methods and tools for analysis, like the following:

- Numerical data regarding demography, socio-economic parameters, availability and access to basic services (primary and secondary data)
- Recorded observations
- Photographs
- Assessments by implementers and beneficiaries (e.g. government organizations, NGOs etc.)
- Mapping
- Detailed surveys and stakeholder consultations (e.g. focus group discussions, anecdotal interviews, community meetings)

The UPRS finally prepared is a culmination of a series of interim reports which were peer reviewed and presented to the group of eminent experts lead by the Secretary, Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation experts from UNDP and other distinguished professionals. The following stages were involved.

Stage 1: Inception Report

The first step in the preparation of the UPRS has been the collection of secondary data related to the urban poor in Jaipur. This involved collection and analysis of secondary data from various sources – Census of India 2001, Municipal Corporation of Jaipur (JMC), Jaipur Development Authority (JDA), Public Health Engineering Department, Town and Country Planning Organization (TCPO), Local Self Government office, office of the Collectorate, NGOs etc.

Secondary data on the details related to the urban poor of Jaipur on - demography, socio-economics, status of basic services in the slums and livelihood has been collected at the ward level from secondary sources like JMC, JDA and Census of India. Maps on the same were prepared. The wards-wise distribution and concentration of slums and basic socio-economic analysis is presented in the report. The issues identified as per the City Development plan (CDP) were also analyzed. The questionnaire for carrying out the primary survey in stage 2 was finalized based on local conditions.

The inception report comprised the following:

- An analysis of the City Development Plan for Jaipur especially with respect to the urban poverty component and other factors that have an impact on the livelihood and living conditions of the urban poor.

- Maps showing the ward-wise distribution and location of slums; ward-wise socio economic characteristics of the slum population.

- Analysis of the secondary data on slums with respect to the thrust areas – basic services, housing and livelihoods of the urban poor, briefly introducing the existing schemes

134

- Zone- wise poverty profile with the help of maps, charts and tables.

- Detailed Approach. Methodology and Work Plan

Stage 2: Snapshot Study

The 'snapshot' of the urban poor in Jaipur is a documentation of the entire range of issues of urban poor that needs to be addressed. This involved collection, collation and presentation of data about the urban poor of Jaipur according the following broad categories:

- Living conditions: location and condition of residence, quality of construction of residence, proximity and ease of access to basic services (water supply, sanitation, waste disposal, electricity); transportation, health and educational facilities; other problems such as social security.

- Livelihood conditions: sectors employing the urban poor, income earned, existing level of education and skills etc.

- Existing government programmes which affect the urban poor: objectives, present status and desired linkages.

- Based on the above, slum - wise fact sheets were prepared. After a vulnerability assessment of the slums in the city, six slums were taken up for detailed study through a household survey based on stratified random sampling.

Stage 3: Detailed slum study: Report of case studies

The case studies were taken up in six different locations of the city so that a variegated and fairly comprehensive idea of the conditions of the urban poor in Jaipur could be looked into. The case studies have been built on the data already collected during stages 1 and 2 above, by going into greater detail into the thrust areas defined in the previous stage 2: basic services, housing and livelihood. This included:

- Detailed household level surveys and analysis of data gathered for the selected settlements

- A comparative tables of the six case studies

- Detailed analysis of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT analysis)

Stage 4: Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy

The baseline survey and detailed sample survey of select slums have been used as pointers to arrive at the interventions required for improving the existing situation in Jaipur. The strategy has been based on certain guiding principles which will help achieve the ideal situation of having a 'slum free' Jaipur. The guiding principles focus on linkages of services for slums with the citywide network, a demand driven, physically and financially sustainable strategy where the poor are treated as partners. The Action plan is detailed out based on the underlying doctrines.

Stakeholder Consultations

During the course of preparation of the report, interactions were held with all stakeholders through zonal meetings at each of the six zonal offices of the Jaipur Municipal Corporation. With the support of the JMC and under the enthusiastic leadership from the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of Jaipur Municipal Corporation, the NIUA team had very meaningful discussions with the people's representatives, MPs, MLAs, officials of JMC and the slum dwellers living in those areas. These meetings proved to be a very useful platform through which the NIUA team was able to discuss and understand the problems and needs of all the stakeholders in one platform.

Profile of Jaipur

Jaipur is located at a strategic point on the National Highway-8 that connects Delhi and Mumbai. Amongst all the mega cities of the country, Jaipur ranks 11th with a total population of 2.3 million It is one of the fastest growing mega cities of the country with an annual average growth rate of 4.5% as compared to the national urban growth rate which is only 2%. The Jaipur CDP points out that residential land use is on the rise in the urbanizable limits of JDA region and other land uses in JMC area are showing propensity of conversion into residential use. The other functions of the city are mainly related to trade (commercial) and tourism (recreational) followed by institutional.

Jaipur is the only million plus city in the state. The population of Jaipur region is 2.7 Million as per 2001 census and it has been consistently rising in the past 50 years In fact, in the last decade, the population has increased by 8 lakhs. The area of Jaipur Municipal Corporation has grown from 200 sq.km in 1981 to 218 sq. km in 1991 to 288 sq.km in 2001.

In terms of share, 87% of the total population lives in the JMC area, of which 7% lives in the walled city. While the proportion of population living within the JMC has increased (primarily due to expansion in area), the proportion of population in the walled city has declined. The Urban Poverty Reduction Strategy has been prepared for the JMC area as that is the urban local body for the city of Jaipur. About 70% of the slums located in the JDA area have been transferred to JMC and the remaining 30% are in the process of being transferred.

The economic profile of the city suggests that although the city has tremendous potential for economic development, given its resources of heritage, crafts and tourism, it is beset by several constraints. Following are the issues listed by the Jaipur CDP that the city faces today:

- Increasing marginalisation and casualisation of labour
- High and rising levels of unemployment;
- Walled city is still the center of many economic activities despite poor infrastructure facilities;
- No organized commercial spaces for retail markets. Traditional bazaars in the walled city have reached saturation levels with respect to infrastructure and spaces;
- Parking and traffic management in the walled city is very poor which also requires to be improved.
- Industrial sector especially large industries have low development;
- Inflow of tourists is fluctuating. Tourism infrastructure needs to be augmented.
- Public Transport system needs to be improved and expanded with increasing city limits.
- The Urban Environment of Jaipur faces threats from numerous fronts. The status of sanitation, sewerage and safe water supply is alarmingly low for the city. Natural areas such as forests and open areas and lakes are threatened by thoughtless development and exploitation.

Poverty Profile

Slums in Jaipur are known as 'kachhi bastis'. The kachhi bastis have been in existence in the city from pre-independence period. In the 1940s, the kachhi bastis used to exist only on the periphery of the city, occupied by families of those who perform low-end jobs like sweepers, washer-men or dhobis, domestic workers etc. From 1971 onwards, there has been a rapid growth in kachhi bastis due to rapid urbanization in the whole city. Generally the word 'kachhi basti" is used in Jaipur for localities with slum-like conditions. In reality, however, relatively few of these settlements are actually 'kutcha' in nature. A majority of the slums in Jaipur have pucca houses and a substantial proportion of the roads within these slums are semi-pucca or pucca in nature, but the layout is completely organic without any planning. As one walks through the alleys of the slums of Jaipur, the most significant feature that one sees is that most of the slums lack basic amenities like drains, sewerage system and solid waste management.

Jaipur is divided into six zones namely Vidyadharnagar, Hawa Mahal East, Hawa Mahal West, Moti Dungari, Civil Lines and Sanganer. Each of these zones comprises a number of wards, which form the local administrative units under elected Councilors. Out of 70 wards in Jaipur, 47 wards have slums with highest concentration in wards 29, 63, 64 and 65. The largest proportion of slum dwellers are in Vidhyadhar Nagar Zone followed by Hawa Mahal East (that includes part of the walled city). A substantial majority of the slums in Jaipur are located in the northern, eastern and northeastern parts of the city on the foothills of the Aravali range that skirts the city in the northern and eastern fringes. Within the city, slums are located along the Amanisha nallah that is the main drain that traverses across the city from north to south. The other preferred locations on which people have squatted are along railway lines. The rest are located in pockets on private land. A large number of slum colonies are encroachments on environmentally sensitive land parcels like the low lying areas and valleys that are prone to frequent flooding and subsidence and on land owned by the forest department.

In terms of socio-economic characteristics, there are a large number of BPL households living in slums (about 40%) but the number of SC/ STs is very few. In only 4% slums almost all the people are Sc/ STs. In majority of slums there is a mix of socio-economic groups. The literacy level is noticeably low – male literacy hovers around 40% and female literacy about 20%

Issues

Most poor living in the slums of Jaipur lack legal land tenure that has resulted in high levels of insecurity among the poor. People living in these slums or kachi basties (as they are commonly known) are constantly demanding 'patta' or tenure ship from the Government in order to have legal right on land but there has been a stay order of the High court on the issuance of 'patta' to slum dwellers of Jaipur. Recently, in November 2007, an order has been passed by the High Court allowing the JMC to regularize slums and granting patta to slum dwellers, based on a survey carried out in 2004.

Our primary survey results show that nearly 65% of the houses are pucca structures built with brick & cement and nearly 30 percent are semi-pucca with roofs made of Mangalore tiles, tin sheets or bamboo and walls from half burnt bricks or lime mortar. Only 6% houses are kutcha structures with roofs made of tarpaulin sheets. The existence of a large proportion of pucca houses in the slums of Jaipur indicates that the residents have the capacity to pay for services provided they have the willingness to do so. It is therefore very important to sensitise them on the need to invest in such facilities. In Jaipur, surface water is supplied through pipelines and ground water that is obtained through tube wells and tankers. Though a large numbers of households

have access to taps at home, but the low water pressure and erratic supply has increased their dependence on public taps and other sources like tankers. In the better-off slums, many have dug bore wells. There is no Storm Water Drain (SWD) in 1/5th of the slums. In the remaining ones, 50% to 80% slums are connected to SWD. 44% slums have covered drains but not along all stretches. In more than 40% slums drains are cleaned twice a week only. The drains are very often choked.

One-third of slums surveyed are not sewered. The remaining is partially sewered. Though a large number of houses have individual toilets but due to lack of water in them, open defecation is rampant. In very few slums, community toilets are present. However these are plagued with inadequate water supply due to which they are dirty and are not used by most people.

Typical problems of solid waste management in slums are irregular street sweepings (26% slums are swept 2 to 3 times a week and none are swept fully). The dustbins are located in the fringes and therefore garbage is found strewn outside bins. Most slums residents complained about absence of door-to-door collection. The other very evident problem is that of stray animals.

In one-third of the slums all children are immunized and in 40% slums 75 to 90% children are immunized, our survey reveals. More than 60% slums have government dispensaries located close-by, but the infrastructure in the dispensaries is not satisfactory. About 85% people suffered from gastroenteritis, malaria and dengue, which have a direct link with the unsanitary conditions of the slums.

In Jaipur, out of all the slums surveyed, a large number of slums are located in the areas of the city where all facilities are easily available (like the densely populated northern part of the city) and are also close to the workplace of the people residing there. More than 44% slums have bus stops located at a distance of 500m to 1 km. So, the access to public transport facilities is not as much a problem as is the low frequency of public transport or bus service.

The primary survey conducted reveals that a large majority of the urban poor residing in kachi basties is employed as daily wageworkers in the construction industry. A large number of such people are migrants who do not have specific skills. They also take up any odd job (sometimes in vending, selling vegetables, in construction sites, as helpers in factories etc.) to earn a living. Most of the women who are employed work as domestic servants. Though Jaipur is one of the most popular tourist hubs of the country, the slum dwellers hardly form the workforce catering to tourists. This is because the tourist industry of the city requires people who have a basic level of education and who are skilled to do certain jobs – like tourist guides, waiters etc. A small group of people work in the handicraft sector, for which tourists form a large market. Most of the time, middlemen market goods made by craftsmen residing in the villages located close to Jaipur. As in other metro cities, in Jaipur too, the employment opportunities available are not in coherence with the skill set or the interest of the worker. It is this mismatch – large amount of unskilled and unemployable labour where there is a huge demand for those trained in simple skills that need to be corrected.

Strategy

It may be reinstated here that the main focus of this strategy is to improve the living conditions and livelihood of the urban poor of Jaipur city. The baseline survey and detailed sample survey of select slums are pointers to arrive at the interventions required to improve the situation. In order to achieve the ideal situation of having a 'slum free' Jaipur, four important guiding principles have to be kept in mind while formulating and carrying forward the strategy for poverty reduction

of Jaipur city: one, the network of physical infrastructure required in slums has to be linked with the city-wide network. Only thus can development of the city be inclusive.

The second important principle that has be kept in mind is that this improvement through inclusion in the citywide network has to be demand driven. Being demand driven means that the citywide infrastructure must include the demand of all slums. Demand driven signifies that the service delivery will have to be in response to requests from consumers rather than targeted by the Municipal Corporation. The above-mentioned guiding principles will be rooted in the strategy once the slums have been alleviated upto a basic minimum level.

Thirdly, the strategy has to be physically and financially sustainable. Financial sustainability means that the funds required to operate and maintain each of the services shall be based on recovery of costs. This can be undertaken through a twin approach – on one hand, ensuring cross-subsidy between the poor and non-poor and on the other hand, having a system of token payment amongst the poor. This may be illustrated with the following example - cross subsidy means, if the cost of operation and maintenance of a service is Rs.10 per units, the urban poor may be subsidized and they may pay Rs. 6 per unit as running cost. Token payment means, if the cost of providing connection for a particular service is Rs. 150, it will be Rs.100 for the slum dwellers and the poorest section of the poor e.g. BPL will be charged Rs. 50 only. Physical sustainability means as long as the land tenure issues are resolved between the slum dweller and the municipality, the municipality should consider taxing the slum dwellers for the services provided.

Fourthly, partnership of the stakeholders will have to be built in into the strategy. In order to ensure partnership, the existing institutional structure to deal with slums will have to be strengthened. Having a formal coordinating body, which will have suitable powers and community level representation, can ensure this. This body can then hold regular meetings to ensure that all partners are working collectively towards the same objectives.

It may be pointed out here that all the slums in the city are vulnerable. Only the degree of vulnerability varies. The basic approach to deal with the slums of Jaipur has to be two pronged – either the slums will have to be relocated or upgraded through in-situ improvement measures. This task cannot be taken up at one go. One of the rational ways of translating this concept into action is to first divide the slums into two groups – group one, those slums which can be upgraded through in-situ improvement measures and group two comprising those slums that need to be relocated. In case of slums where in-situ development measures will have to be taken up, three features have to taken care of – one, tenure security, two, housing and three, basic services (water supply, sanitation, solid waste management and street lights and social infrastructure facilities like health and education centres etc.) to meet the deficiencies. In case of slums that have to be relocated, all the above-mentioned features have to be ensured ab-initio.
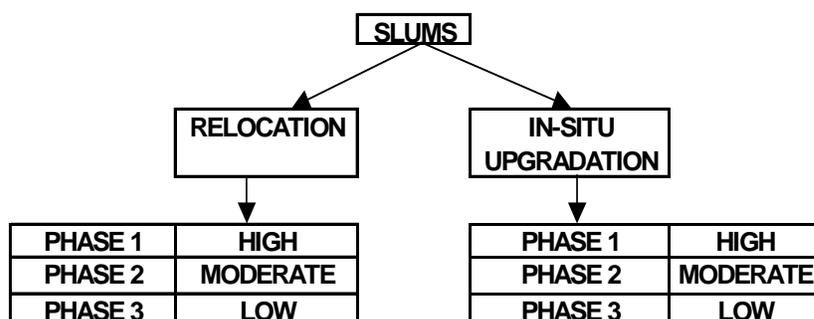
The task of improving the physical conditions of the two groups has to be bifurcated into three phases depending on the degree of vulnerability of the slums. The most vulnerable slums have to be taken up first. In phase

1, both in-situ and relocation measures will have to be taken up together. Slums that are most vulnerable will be taken up first. This will be followed by phases 2 and 3, where slums of moderate and low vulnerability will be taken up.

Based on the secondary information, primary survey, views of stakeholders, the following action plan for Urban Poverty Reduction in Jaipur is recommended:

Action Plan

Activity	Year									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Policy Decisions										
Setting up guidelines for slums that will be developed in-situ	█									
Setting up guidelines for slums that will have to be relocated	█									
Policy framework for tenure security for regularized and non-regularised slums	█									
Policy decision on land and housing policy at local and state level	█									
Policy decisions on reforms to be taken up in water and sanitation sector	█									
Policy decisions on reforms to be taken up in livelihood sector	█									
Establishment of a Department on Urban Poverty within JMC – single-window system for urban poor	█									
Design of a monitoring and evaluation system for assessing progress of programmes	█									
Actions to be taken										
Housing and basic services										
Creation of detailed household database of slums to include suggested parameters on service delivery and livelihood – link to existing database	█	█								
Detailed mapping (GIS enabled) of all slums	█	█								
Identification of land for slums to be relocated	█									
Completion of procedures for transfer of land (if land is under agency other than ULB)		█								
Implementation of water and sanitation sector reforms – defining standards and options for service delivery		█								
Implementation of integrated programme for in-situ up-gradation and relocation of most vulnerable slums		█	█							
Implementation of integrated programme for moderately vulnerable slums			█	█						
Implementation of integrated programme for less vulnerable slums				█	█					
Awareness and advocacy campaigns for sanitation, health and education	█	█	█	█	█	█	█	█	█	█
Community mobilization – creation and mobilization of of SHGs, CBOs and CDS for improved service delivery	█	█								
Implementation of reforms in water and sanitation for poor (charges, meter installation, low cost sanitation, solid waste management through CBOs)		█								
Livelihood										
Detailed survey for existing skill level and needs	█	█								

Activity	Year									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
assessment for upgradation and identification of new skills	▨	▨								
Ensuring basic education for all by linking to existing mission of *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* and related missions	▨	▨	▨							
Design of most appropriate Skill Development Initiative, suited to local conditions	▨									
Implementation of Skill Delivery model to be adopted		▨								
Capacity building of Urban Poverty Department of JMC	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨					
Regular awareness and advocacy campaigns on the agenda of the Urban Poverty Department of JMC	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
Implementation of Monitoring and Evaluation system			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨

11. AMBALA

Ambala city and Ambala Sadar have witnessed considerable growth of slum population over a period of time. Economic and social vibrancy of these towns have been overshadowed by the emergence of large number of slums. The poor migrants who come to the city for employment opportunities and other means of livelihood find themselves in a peculiar situation as costly housing and land are beyond their affordability. Not finding the affordable shelter, they are forced to encroach vacant land to build their temporary hutments. Although migrants seem to have played an important role in boosting economic growth in the towns, they also seem to have created socio-economic and environmental problems. The planned urbanization has been marred to an extent by the excessive demand for housing, land, basic amenities and services resulting in deterioration in the human settlement and overall physical environment. The quality of life in the towns has been suffering due to gap in the pace of migration and growth of infrastructure and services. The gap in demand and supply of housing, basic amenities and civic services is visible. The boom in informal sector activities, meager income of slum dwellers, insecurity of land tenure, poor access of housing and basic amenities and many other factors show that poverty is looming large.

Availability of adequate health facilities and educational institutions has important role in the well being of urban poor. Similarly, water and sanitation are basic human needs and better access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation helps to raise standards of living, and a steady water supply of better quality helps the people to be more productive. Various international and national reports indicate growing pressure on water resources. Also parks, play grounds, street lights, community halls, sports facilities etc play vital role in people friendly environment in cities. The quality of social fabric of cities depends on equitable distribution of resources among all sections of urban society.

According to the AMC, there are about 78 slums in the city. The huge increase in urban population amounts to a crisis of unprecedented magnitude in urban areas. These people need to be provided with shelter, employment, and urban services. With the stretched fiscal capacity, the AMCs are unable to meet these needs. As a result, informal sector is providing employment to these persons and they are forced to live in filthy environment that have come to be known as urban slums, where most of the population of the city is currently living and working with low wages to fulfill their daily needs which lead them to live below poverty line.

The data provided by the department of Urban Development indicates 10,833 households in Ambala City and 9,761 households in Ambala Sadar below poverty line. There is no reliable database on urban poverty at city level as state government and AMC do not carry regular surveys for identifying BPL population. But on the basis of size of slum population living in Ambala, it could easily be argued that city has large number of BPL families.

Areas of Concern

- Around 25% of population lives in Ambala slums.
- Out of 78 slums in Ambala, 68 are located in residential areas and remaining 10 are located in commercial or market area.
- No slum established in Ambala after the year 2000.
- 19 slums are on government land and 59 are on private land.
- 53 slums in Ambala have less then 200-house hold.
- 68 slums in Ambala have less then 2000 populations.
- Almost 25% of the slum population is below poverty line.

- 9 slums have kutcha approach road.
- Around 26% households in Ambala slums are in Kutcha condition.
- 72 slums are in low-lying areas and remaining is around nalla.
- No slum in Ambala has Storm Water Drainage facility. 69% of slum households are without sewerage and only 31% are fully or partially connected with sewerage.
- Almost all the slums suffer from water logging/stagnation once or twice every year.
- 36% population of Ambala slum depends upon public taps or hand pumps for their daily water requirements.
- Only 7% slum households have access to community toilets.
- In 13 slums more than 75% population go for open defecation and 35% population from slums goes for open defecation.
- No government scheme of door-to-door collection of garbage is in operation.
- No sweeping of the roads is reported in any Ambala slum.
- No cleaning of drains is reported in any Ambala slum.
- 63 slums in environmental sensitive areas.
- Only 48 anganwari centers are there in Ambala slums.
- There is no government medical facility in any slum in Ambala.
- No Self Help Groups or provision for Micro finance was reported in any of the slums.

Vulnerability Index (prepared on the basis of 14 indicators) shows that out of total slums, 3 slums are extremely vulnerable, 26 slums are highly vulnerable and 30 slums are moderately vulnerable. Only 19 slums have low vulnerability. Majority of the people belonging to the economically weaker section residing in the 78 slums identified in Ambala work as industrial labour, casual labour, construction labour, petty traders, hawkers and domestic servants and rag pickers. Although the proportion in the 'other category' seems high, it however includes varied occupations like rickshaw pullers, beggars and rag pickers etc.

The case studies were carried out by collecting primary data from three slums (namely New Grain Market, Kanch Ghar and Bandhu Nagar), selected on the basis of various deprivation indicators described in vulnerability index. The aim of the case studies was to get an in depth perspective regarding the issues of the urban poor in selected pockets of urban poverty in Ambala. The major issues in three slums, selected for the purpose of case studies, are insecurity of land tenure, water-scarcity, poor sanitation, unavailability of toilets.

Majority of houses are Kutcha and very small in size. The livelihood options are inadequate in and around the slum. The level of income of most of the households is very poor. The summary of findings of three case studies indicates highly deplorable conditions in the slums. The insecurity of land tenure, poor housing conditions, negligible access of safe drinking water, almost absence of solid waste management/sanitation/ toilets/sewerage/drainage and most importantly unavailability of alternative employment opportunities/livelihood options were reported from all three slums selected for the purpose of case studies. The multiple deprivations is visible in the form of poor coverage and quality of environmental infrastructure, inadequate access to health and educational facilities and lack of social welfare/safety nets. The social and environmental fabric of slums is under stress and the segregation/isolation of poor clusters is clear and wide. The slums specific issues are indicative of lot of similarities. All slums are deprived of essential municipal and civic services, and have poor housing conditions and negligible livelihood options. The slums selected for the purpose vary in several parameters such as their spatial location and proximity with residential and industrial areas, the level of deprivation etc.

The New Grain Market slum is non-notified as per the Municipal Council, Ambala and is situated on HUDA land and some part of its land is also owned by Wakf Board. The infrastructure facilities are very poor as there are no paved roads, no streetlights, no underground sewerage, no electricity, no drain and no primary health services. The slum doesn't have any proper school but a AIE center is running under a temporary shed. There is no public water taps in the slum and the slum has 8 hand pumps, people have to bring water for their domestic needs from. There is no system of waste management in the slum and all the garbage is thrown in the nearby nallah. There are no toilets either individual or community and slum dwellers use open areas for defecation. Women face the maximum problem. This practice of open defecation creates serious kind of health hazards for the slum dwellers.

The Kanch ghar is notified as per the Municipal Council, Ambala City and is located on a government land. The infrastructure facilities are very poor as there are no paved roads, no streetlights, no underground sewerage, no electricity, no drain and no primary health services. The educational facility is totally missing in the slum. It has one AIE/vocational centre run by MRD Shiksha Samiti. The slum doesn't have any school. There is no public water taps in the slum and the people have to bring water for their domestic needs from outside the slum. There is no system of waste management in the slum and all the garbage is thrown in the nearby area. There are no toilets either individual or community and slum dwellers use open areas for defecation.

The Bandhu Nagar is a notified slum. This slum is located on government land originally belonging to Indian Army but the dispute over occupancy has been settled by the court so the land has been handed over to the slum dwellers

The infrastructure facilities in the slum are very poor as there are no paved roads, no streetlights, no underground sewerage, no electricity, no drain and no primary health services. There is no system of waste management in the slum and all the garbage is thrown in the nearby area. There are no toilets either individual or community and slum dwellers use open areas for defecation. The slum has one Primary school and one Nehru Yuva Kendra.

The state government and AMC have not made serious efforts in evolving city level policies to eradicate urban poverty and develop slums. AMC, despite having strong fiscal base has not taken any appropriate initiative to address various dimensions associated with urban poverty.

The institutional mechanism for implementing poverty eradication, housing and livelihood programmes is very weak in the city. At the time of survey, no efforts were being made to either conduct a survey of people living below poverty line or create an institutional/organizational structure at city or at neighborhood level to identify the crucial needs of slum dwellers and implement the poverty alleviation and slum development schemes. Similarly, no efforts have been made by AMC to create community-based organizations such as Community Development Society (CDS), Area Development Societies (ADSs) and Neighborhood Groups (NHGs) to take benefit of SJSRY.

The IHSDP has provided large number of mandatory and optional reforms for addressing various problems relating to urban poverty. Three reforms under IHSDP having direct impact on urban poverty are given below:

- Internal earmarking of funds for services to the Urban Poor
- Provision of Basic services to the Urban Poor
- Earmarking at least 20-25% of Developed Land in all housing projects (both public and private) for EWS / LIG category with a system of cross subsidization.

Although no good practices were noticed in slums in Ambala but it will be worth to consider following innovative practices for tackling problems of multiple deprivations relating to poverty in AMC.

- Urban Poverty Reduction and Women Empowerment Scheme (Kudumbashree), Kerala
- Andhra Pradesh Urban Services for the Poor (APUSP)
- Ashray Nidhi or Shelter Fund (Madhya Pradesh)
- Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA), Ahmedabad
- Slum Networking Project of Ahmedabad:
- Rajiv griha kalpa project for good quality housing for lower income groups (Andhra Pradesh)
- The Society for the promotion of area resource centre (SPARC) for providing housing and infrastructure to the urban poor (Mumbai).
- Access to water for the urban poor (Andhra Pradesh)
- Indore habitat improvement project for providing adequate shelter and services (Madhya Pradesh)
- Slum networking project through mobilization of internal resources (Baroda)

There is tremendous scope for introducing good practices in the field of housing, basic services and livelihood options. The strong political will at state and municipal level is necessary to introduce various initiatives necessary for overall development of slums and generation of employment opportunities for the urban poor. The IHSDP, if taken seriously by the State and the local Government can pave way for addressing crucial issues relating to urban poverty in Ambala.

Our vision regarding city's urban poor envisages AMC to be providing best possible quality of life to its citizens including the urban poor. Our vision of Ambala is of an economically, socially and environmentally vibrant city with no or negligible segregation in human settlements in terms of provision of housing, basic services and livelihood. The city will be full of innovations and actions meant for improving the quality of life of urban poor. The city's residents particularly urban poor will be better housed, have greater access to basic services and livelihood options and are more educated and healthier.

The rising level of education, employment and income will help city to improve the ecological fabric of the city. A prosperous city will have far less vulnerable number of people and more transparent, efficient, accountable, decentralized and stronger local governance. The realization of this vision will depend on many things including our shared will and commitments, determination for helping the socially, economically and culturally neglected section of the society. We will need to evolve people specific, location specific, context specific solutions to most of the problems of urban poor. The significant reduction in poverty in Ambala on a sustainable basis is the ultimate objective of the strategy for urban poverty reduction. The immediate objective of UPRS, which are in line with the IHSDP, an important scheme under JNNURM is as below:

- Good living conditions / quality of life for the urban poor
- Better livelihood options / economic opportunities
- Greater participation of poor in planning, governance and development
- Provision of pro poor institutional reforms: efficient and strong local self government

The phased action plan for in situ development and relocation of slums has been described in Chapter 10. We suggest that most deprived slums may be taken for in situ development and relocation in the first phase (2008-11). In the second phase (2011-14), deprived slums may be selected for providing housing basic amenities and livelihood options. The slums which are

having comparatively better availability of services (partially deprived) may be selected in the third phase (2014-17).

The slums which are least deprived should be selected in the last phase of 2017-2020. These phases are based on the level of vulnerability in slums. We have recommended that most deprived slums (3) should be developed immediately and DPRs should be prepared accordingly. The projects should be prepared on the basis of vulnerability index given in the report.

The strategy for poverty reduction in Ambala comprises following important initiatives under three broad parameters of housing, basic services and livelihood:

Strategy for housing

- Regularization and relocation of slums
- Security of land tenure at affordable prices
- Low cost rental housing and night shelters/community centres
- Emphasis on labour housing
- Adequate and separate earmarking of funds for housing
- Greater role of HUDA
- Amendment in building bye laws and simplification of legal and procedural framework
- Preparation of Master Plan/District Plan
- Promotion of cost-effective building material/technologies
- Public Private Partnerships (PPPs)
- Promotion of innovative financial instruments
- Preparation of perspective plan for housing for the urban poor
- Devising tools to control comodification of land and housing

Strategy for basic services

- Focused attention to provision and integrated development of basic services
- Separate earmarking of funds for basic services
- Low cost services programmes
- Neighborhood development approach
- Convergence of existing services available to the urban poor under various departments such as education, health and social security.
- Establish effective linkages between asset creation and asset management
- Channelization of adequate investment for basic services
- Public Private Partnerships (PPPs)
- Levy of reasonable user charges
- Streamlining institutional mechanism for delivery of basic services
- Creation of regulatory mechanism
- Mobilization of beneficiaries contribution
- Delinking municipal services from land tenure
- Ensuring involvement of urban poor
- Tax incentives to the private sector/real estate developers for providing cost-effective services to the urban poor
- Priority to environmental concerns

Better livelihood options / economic opportunities

- Strengthening urban economy
- Promotion of self employment ventures
- Micro financing
- Provision of space for micro-enterprises
- Vocational and entrepreneurial training