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Urbanisation

FOCUS

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SPECIAL ARTICLE

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Urbanisation and Informal Sector

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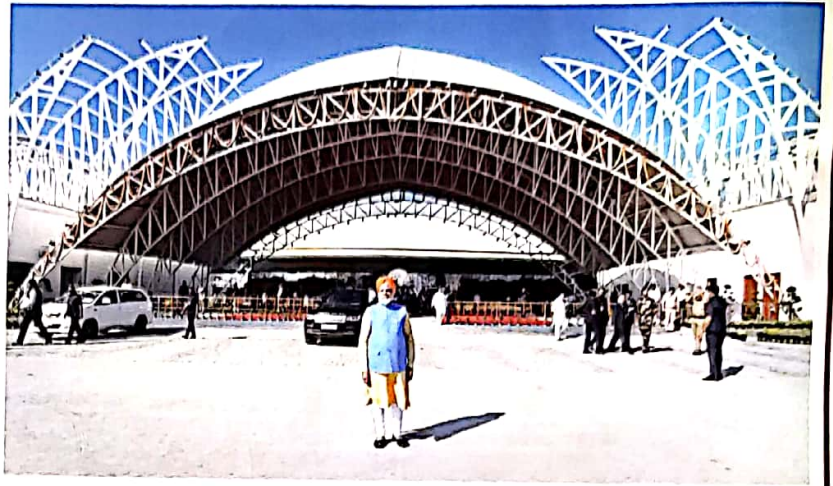


PM Inaugurates Integrated Check Post and Flags off First Batch of Pilgrims at Kartarpur Sahib Corridor

The Prime Minister inaugurated Integrated Check Post and flagged off first batch of pilgrims at Kartarpur Sahib Corridor in Gurdaspur, Punjab on 9 November, 2019. He took a guided tour of digital installation on life of Guru Nanak Dev Ji, and the Passenger Terminal Building prior to the inauguration of Kartarpur Corridor. He also interacted with the first batch of pilgrims just before their departure.

Integrated Check Post, Kartarpur Corridor

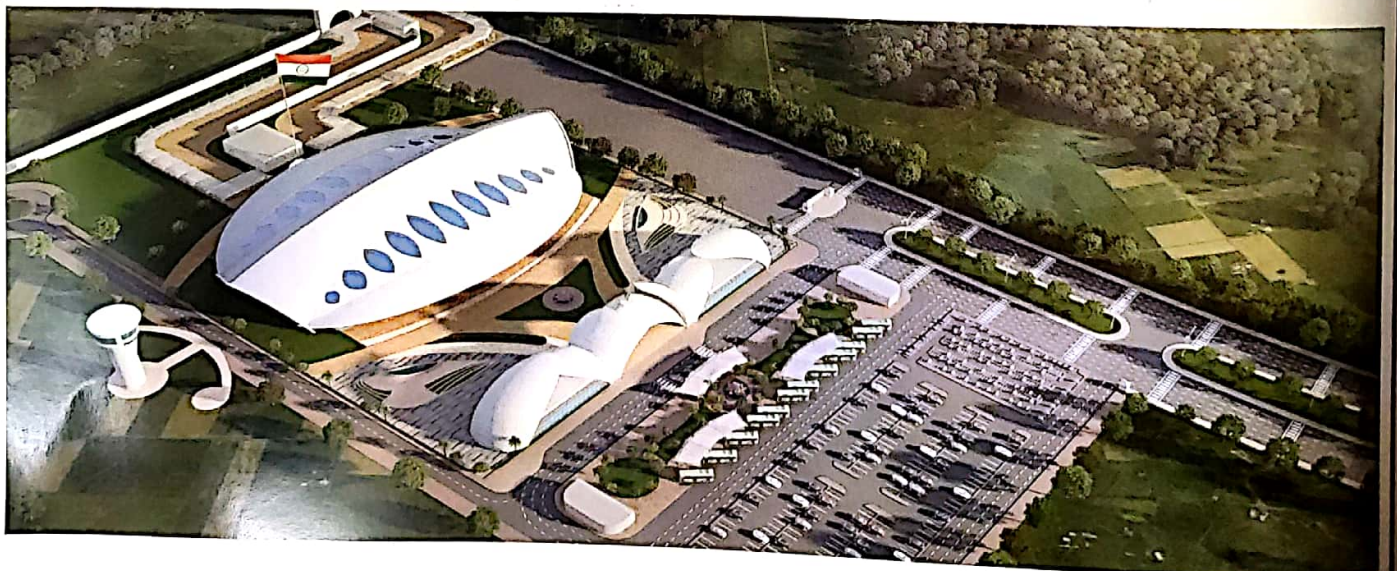
Integrated Check Post would facilitate Indian pilgrims to visit to Gurudwara Kartarpur Sahib in Pakistan. India has signed the Agreement with Pakistan on 24 October, 2019 on modalities for operationalisation of the Kartarpur Sahib Corridor at Zero Point, International Boundary, Dera Baba Nanak. It may be recalled, the Union Cabinet passed a resolution on 22 November, 2018 to celebrate the historic occasion of 550th Birth Anniversary of Guru Nanak Dev Ji in a grand and befitting manner throughout the country and across the globe. The Union Cabinet also approved the building and development of the Kartarpur Sahib Corridor from Dera Baba Nanak to the International Boundary, to facilitate pilgrims from India to visit Gurdwara Darbar Sahib Kartarpur, round the year, in a smooth and easy manner.



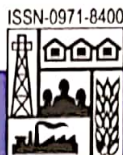
The highlights of the Agreement and provisions for the pilgrims are

- The 4.2-km four-lane highway connecting Dera Baba Nanak from Amritsar–Gurdaspur Highway is constructed at a cost of Rs. 120 cr;
- The state-of-the-art Passenger Terminal Building is on 15 acres of land. The fully-air-conditioned building akin to an airport has over 50 immigration counters for facilitating about 5000 pilgrims a day;
- It has all the necessary public amenities like kiosks, washrooms, child care, first aid medical facilities, prayer room and snacks counters inside the main building;
- Robust security infrastructure is put in place with CCTV surveillance and public address systems;
- Indian pilgrims of all faiths and persons of Indian origin can use the corridor;
- The travel will be visa free and pilgrims need to carry only a valid passport;
- Persons of Indian Origin need to carry OCI card along with the passport of their country.

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Let noble thoughts come to us from all sides
Rig Veda

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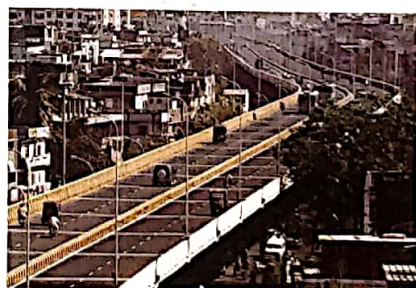
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We Shape Our Cities, Thereafter the Cities Shape Us



The cities grow with their people. They are made of aspirations, dreams, and opportunities. They offer the lifestyle millions aim at, providing them a platform to climb up the ladder of development. People come to cities in search of employment, profit, better lives, quality education, larger markets and similar prospects which their native environment lack or show little chance of providing in future as well. Not all of them find in the growing city what they dreamed of. And yet they stay on, hoping to have a better future or giving better opportunities to their children.

With this constant mobility of people, the cities become mobile as well. Influx from rural to semi-urban, semi-urban to urban, and urban to metro cities is a continuous cycle. The villages and suburbs serve the cities as tributaries to the river, with streams of people coming from near and far places to eventually settle down and become a part of this urbanisation. This follows a multitude of problems for the individual as well as for the community. Limited resources and stress on the existing infrastructure lead to investment, which in turn gives way to more industries, and inevitably, bringing even more people to the cities.

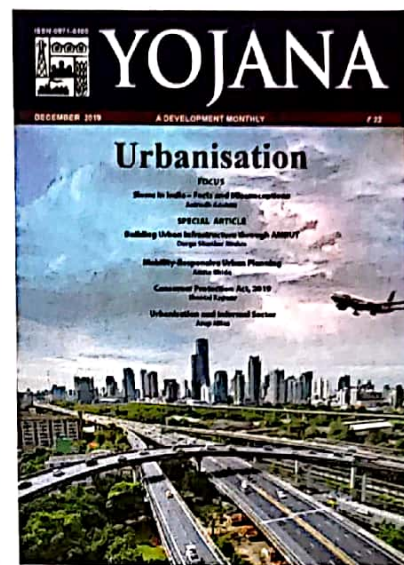
This leads to expansion of cities which has its own limits. The closer the city is to coastal areas, the more limited this option is. Also, carving out extended arms and wings of the cities from the rural hinterlands has its own merits and demerits. With these limited choices, cities have a collective challenge to meet the ever-growing demands of a burgeoning population in a sustainable manner and remain the growth centre to realise the vision of New India.

In the past few years, most of the metros have reached to the brink of their resources with surging land prices and haphazard vertical development leading to more disaster-prone cities. A city can grow only if its villages sustain and vice versa. Sub-urban regions and village areas therefore have to be focused for investment in quality education, healthcare and infrastructure so that the unnecessary influx to the cities may be tamed.

The cities also have a responsibility towards their adjacent rural regions to act as their service centres. The editorial piece written in 26 January, 1965 issue of the journal, this desk raised points which are relevant even today. "Urbanisation can be prevented from turning ugly not by keeping people away from the cities but by taking cities to where people already live." This needs a holistic approach of developing urban and rural India in a mutually-symbiotic manner.

The initiatives taken in the last few years are in a direction to bridge this gap, both in terms of physical ones through infrastructural push and also the societal gaps in terms of equal opportunities through better healthcare, education, use of technology, and employment. Technology is also helping immensely in planning the cities better through satellite imagery, and decongesting the existing road networks. The idea is to de-stress the cities and let them bring world-class infrastructure, amenities, and ease of living to their people. For those who can afford, close-walled luxury societies, hospitals and malls exist; but there is a need for complementing public amenities of similar nature for the marginalised city dwellers, as well as in the rural regions with quality, affordable services leading to a reverse migration in a positive sense.

This issue of Yojana brings together views and opinions from a diverse range of domain experts who have worked extensively in the field of urban planning and development. They discuss the key drivers in the transformation of Urban India pointing out the possible lacunae and suggesting practical solutions to a challenge of otherwise complex nature. As they say, we shape our buildings and cities, thereafter they shape us. □



Building Urban Infrastructure through AMRUT

Durga Shanker Mishra

Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) has been initiated by the Government of India to address the challenges of water supply and sewerage/septage in cities across the country, providing non-motorised transport and public amenities, bringing reform through 54 milestones and to harness the associated opportunities of economic growth. The article takes the readers on the journey of urban transformation through this initiative.

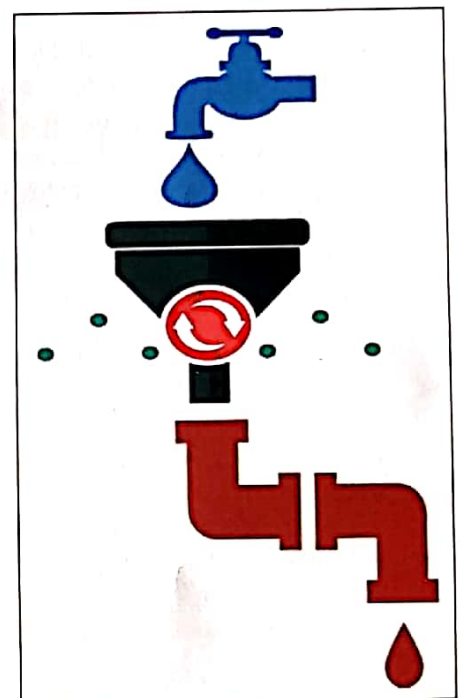
Urban India: Key challenges and opportunities

India is witnessing a rapid increase in the urban population. As per the United Nations World Urbanization Prospects Report 2018, around 34% of India's population lives in cities – an increase of about three percentage points since 2011. By 2031, it is expected to grow by another 6% and by 2051, more than half of the nation's population will be living in cities. Such a surge poses significant challenges in terms of demands for basic infrastructure services such as water supply, sanitation, wastewater management, and solid waste management. At present, cities contribute nearly 65% of the country's GDP, which is likely to go up to 70% by 2030 (McKinsey Global Institute, 2010). In view of this, basic infrastructure will play a vital role in enabling the cities to adequately provide civic services to improve quality of life of citizens in becoming true engines of economic growth.

Government of India has undertaken significant investments in these areas in the last five years, as a result of which there have been notable improvements in basic services. However, challenges

remain. For instance, as per Census 2011, while 70% of urban households had access to water supply, only 49% had access to water supply within premises. Further, due to lack of adequate treatment capacity and partial sewerage connectivity, more than 65% of the wastewater was being discharged untreated in the open drains resulting in environmental damage and pollution of water bodies (CPCB, 2015). Water and Sanitation Program (WSP) of the World Bank (2011) estimated that the total annual economic impact of inadequate sanitation in India amounted to a loss of Rs. 2.4 trillion in 2006, which was equivalent to about 6.4% of India's GDP. Access to safe drinking water and scientific treatment of wastewater including septage are essential for the country in order to accomplish Sustainable Development Goal 6 (SDG 6.1 and 6.3 in particular).¹

In light of the above, Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) was initiated by the Government of India to not only address the challenges of water supply and sewerage/septage in cities across the country but also to harness the associated opportunities of economic growth.



AMRUT, one of the flagship Missions of the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs (MoHUA) was launched by the Hon'ble Prime Minister on 25 June, 2015 in 500 cities across the country with the aim of providing basic services like water supply to all households, significantly upgrade sewerage and septage and provide for non-motorised transport and public amenities like parks and green spaces at least one in each city, thus improving the quality of life for all, especially the poor and

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the disadvantaged. It is a centrally sponsored scheme with a total outlay of Rs. 1,00,000 crore including Central Assistance of Rs. 50,000 crore spread over 5 years from 2015-2020.

Besides creating basic infrastructure, the Mission has a reform agenda spread over a set of 11 items comprising 54 milestones to be achieved by the States/Union Territories (UTs) over a period of four years. These reforms broadly cover offering online services to citizens; establishing single window for all approvals; establishing municipal cadre; achieving at least 90% of billing and collection of taxes/user charges; developing at least one park for children every year; establishing maintenance system for parks and play grounds; credit rating of urban local bodies (ULBs) and issuance of municipal bonds; implementing model building bye-laws; and audit of energy and water.

Coverage of the Scheme

- i. 476 cities/towns with a population of one lakh and above as per 2011 Census;
- ii. State/UT capitals not covered in (i) above;
- iii. Heritage cities classified under Heritage City Development and Augmentation Yojana (HRIDAY);
- iv. Certain cities on banks of main rivers and from hill States/islands and tourist destinations.

In all, 500 cities were covered under this scheme.

Allocation of funds

- The Mission has allocation of Rs. 1,00,000 lakh crore including central share of Rs. 50,000 crore. Balance is to be shared by the States/UTs. Of the total allocation, Rs. 77,640 crore have been allocated to projects. Ten per cent of central share is for Administrative and Office Expenses (A&OE)

and another 10% is for reform incentive.

- The projects in the UTs are fully funded by the Centre. In North East and Hill States, 90% of the project cost is shared by the centre. In case of other States, one-third of the project cost in the cities with population above 10 lakh and half of the project cost in other cities is shared by the Central Government.
- The Central Assistance (CA) is released in three instalments of 20:40:40. First instalment is released immediately on approval of the State Annual Action Plan (SAAP). Subsequent instalments are released on receipt of utilisation certificates for 75% of CA and corresponding State/ULB share along with report of Independent Review and Monitoring Agency (IRMA).

AMRUT: Aligned with the needs of Urbanising India

Cooperative federalism: Keeping in line with cooperative federalism, State Governments have been empowered to appraise, approve, and sanction projects for their AMRUT cities – a departure from the erstwhile Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JnNURM) wherein individual projects were sanctioned by the then Ministry of Urban Development.

Framework for institutional reforms: AMRUT lays major emphasis on institutional reforms which aim to improve governance and institutional capacities of ULBs. Reforms are targeted for better service delivery and enhanced accountability and transparency. A framework of reforms (including reform types and milestones) has been prescribed to the States and AMRUT cities.

Principles of 'incrementalism' and prioritisation:



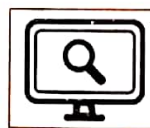
In the pursuit of ensuring universal coverage of water supply and improving sanitation coverage for the citizens, a step-wise approach towards service-level benchmarking by the ULBs, a principle of 'incrementalism' has been introduced under the Mission, which is a gradual process of achieving the benchmarks. Recognising the urgent water and sanitation needs, States had to prioritise water supply and sewerage projects – water supply being the first priority.

Incentivising over penalising:



During the erstwhile JnNURM, 10% of the Additional Central Assistance (ACA) for projects was retained for non-completion of reforms. This led to all States/UTs losing this 10% as none could achieve 100% of reforms; hence, several projects were starved of funds and remained incomplete. In order to encourage States and reward their initiatives constructively, reform implementation is incentivised under AMRUT – 10% of the budgetary allocation is earmarked for reform incentive and it is over and above the allocation for projects. Incentive of Rs. 400 crore, Rs. 500 crore, Rs. 340 crore, and Rs. 418 crore were distributed during 2015-16, 2016-17, 2017-18 and 2018-19 to States/UTs, respectively, as incentive amount for the reforms achieved against benchmarks in last four fiscal years of implementation. This amount is untied and can be used on any item recognized under AMRUT with or without State/ULB share.

Monitoring of the Mission:



Programme monitoring is being done at various levels to understand progress and gaps in implementation. At State level, State High Powered Steering

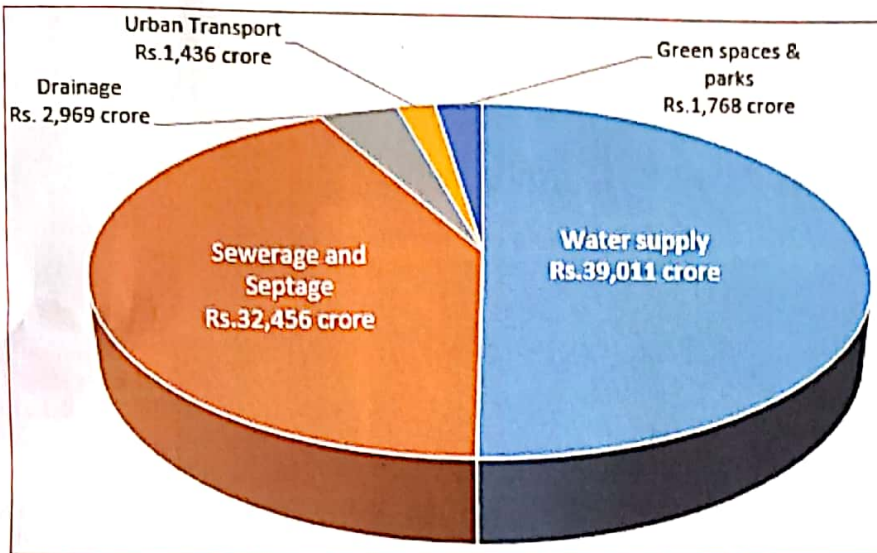


Figure 1: Sectoral Allocation under AMRUT

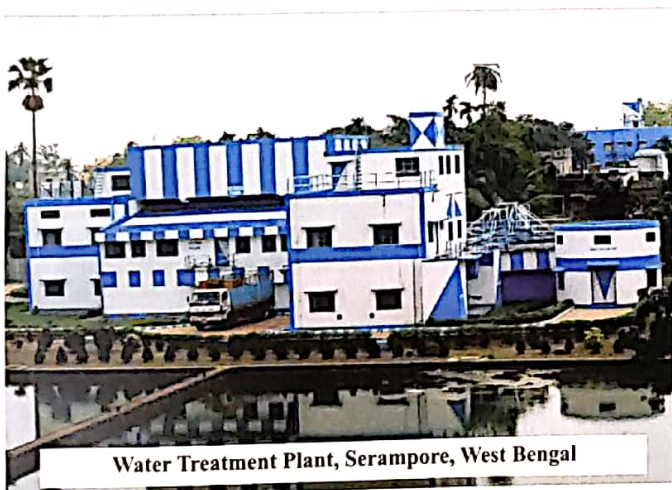
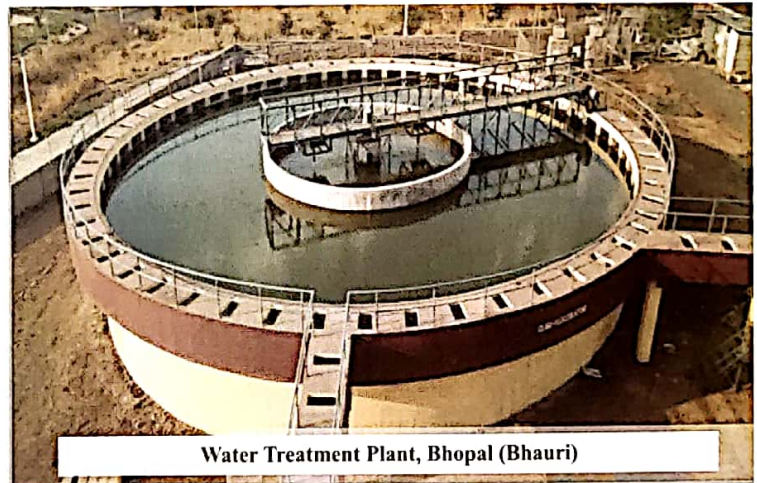
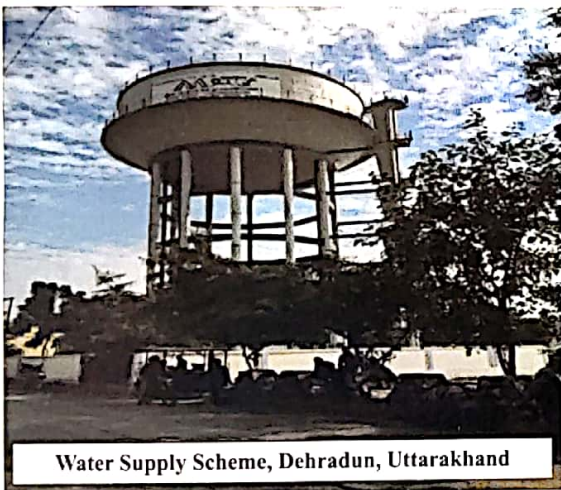
Progress so far

MoHUA has approved the SAAPs for all States/UTs worth Rs. 77,640 crore for the entire Mission period in first three years itself. Of this, Rs. 39,011 crore (50%) has been allocated to water supply, Rs. 32,456 crore (42%) to sewerage and septage projects, Rs. 2,969 crore (4%) towards storm-water drainage projects, Rs. 1,436 crore (2%) for non-motorised urban transport, and Rs. 1,768 crore (2%) has been allocated for green spaces and parks.

Against approved plan size of Rs. 77,640 crore, contracts for 5,230 projects worth Rs. 70,969 crore have been awarded of which 2,111 projects worth Rs. 6,469 crore have been completed and for remaining work is in progress. Further, projects worth Rs. 10,945 crore are under tendering, which includes additional works taken by the States/cities.

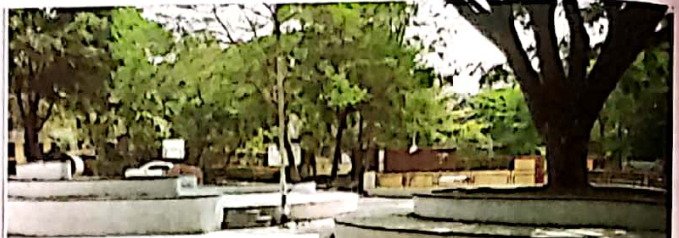
Committee (SHPCS) chaired by the Chief Secretary monitors and approves the Mission projects in its entirety. At Central level, Apex Committee chaired by the Secretary, MoHUA, approves State Annual Action Plans (SAAPs) and monitors the progress. Also, projects are monitored on real-time basis via Mission

MIS Dashboard with geo-tagging of all projects. In addition, District Level Regional Review and Monitoring Committee (DLRMC) conducts detailed scrutiny of the projects. IRMA appointed for each State reviews and monitors the progress of the Mission on ground as a third party.

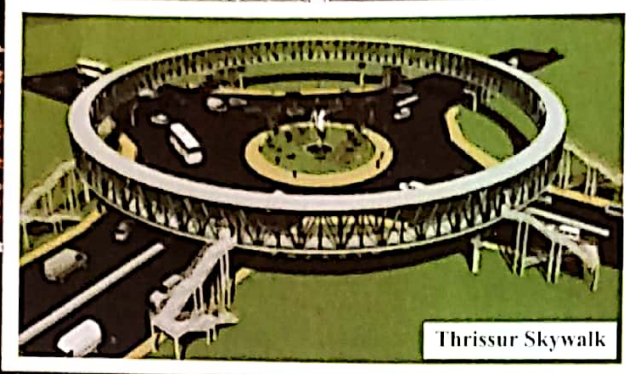




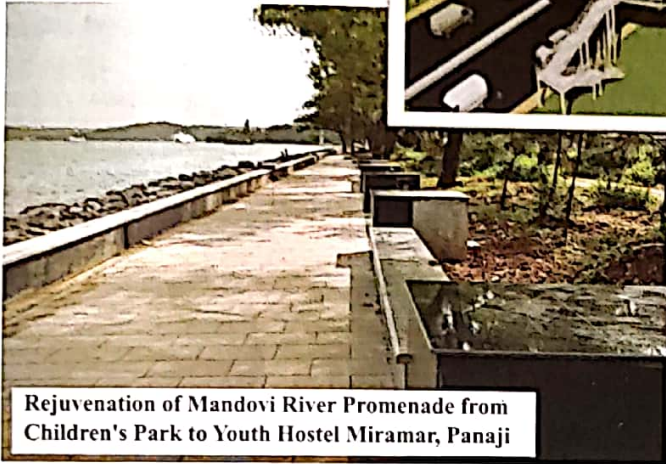
Development of the Walkway along Central Library Side of the Creek, Panaji, Goa



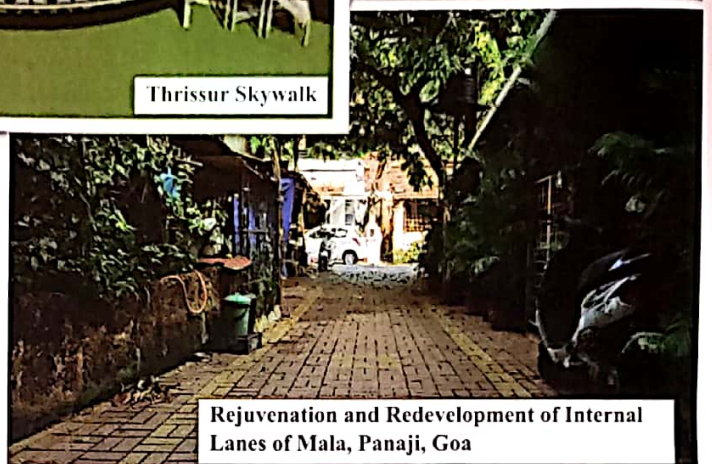
Development of Open Spaces at Altinho, Panaji, Goa



Thrissur Skywalk



Rejuvenation of Mandovi River Promenade from Children's Park to Youth Hostel Miramar, Panaji



Rejuvenation and Redevelopment of Internal Lanes of Mala, Panaji, Goa

As per Census 2011, out of total 4.68 crore urban households, 2.98 crore households (64%) were covered with tap water supply in 500 Mission cities. Through an investment of Rs. 39,011 crore under AMRUT, 60 lakh households have been provided new water tap connections till August 2019. Another 79 lakh new water tap connections are likely to be provided through ongoing projects and convergence. Similarly, investment of Rs. 32,456 crore is underway under AMRUT to enhance coverage of sewerage from 31 per cent in 2011 to 62 per cent by the end of Mission period. So far, 40 lakh sewer connections have been added at household level in cities and additional 105 lakh sewer connections will be provided under the Mission.

In addition, AMRUT has helped cities in developing green spaces and parks, footpaths, walkways, skywalks etc. to enhance ease of living and quality of life of citizens.

Urban Reforms

Some of the significant reforms are as under:

Online Building Permission System (OBPS)

With a view to facilitate Ease-of Doing Business in construction permits, an Online Building Permission System (OBPS) with Common Application Form and seamless integration of all clearances/

No Objection Certificates (NOCs) from internal/external agencies has been made operational in Delhi and Mumbai since April 2016.

As a result, India's rank in Ease of Doing Business (EoDB) in construction permits has recorded an unprecedented jump of 158 spots in last 3 years as per latest World Bank Doing Business Report (DBR). India's rank improved to 27 in DBR 2020 as against 185 in DBR 2017.

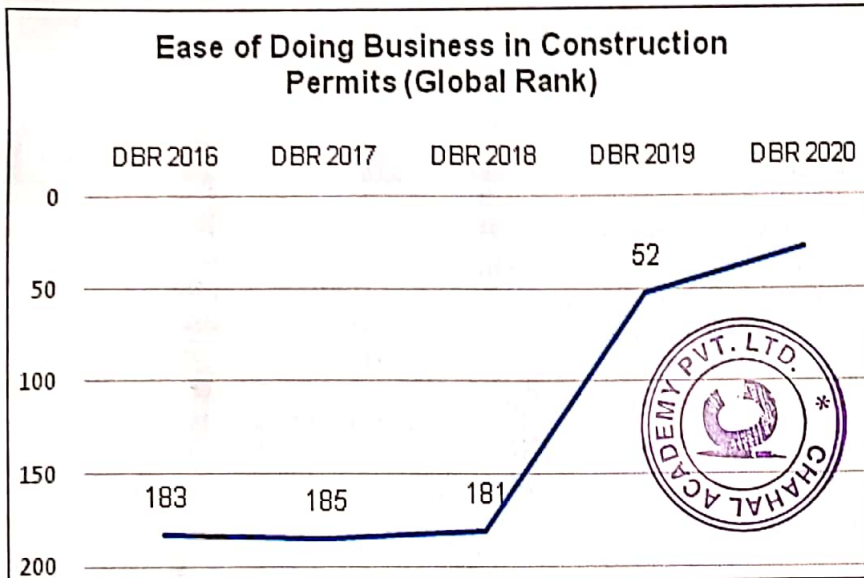


It has been targeted to get OBPS implemented in all cities/towns across the country by 31 March, 2020. So far, it has been implemented in 1,832 cities including 440 AMRUT cities. In 13 States/UTs namely Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Andhra Pradesh, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh,

Maharashtra, Punjab, Telangana and Tripura, OBPS has been implemented in all the ULBs.

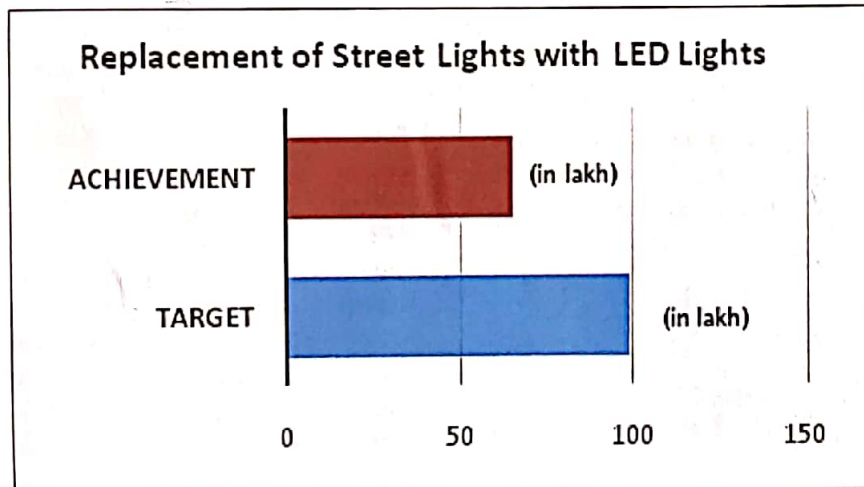
Replacement of street lights with LED lights: 65 lakh conventional streetlights have been replaced with energy efficient LED lights. It has led to energy savings of 139 crore KWH per annum and reduction in

Government of India has undertaken significant investments in the last five years, as a result of which there have been notable improvements in basic services. AMRUT was launched in 500 cities across the country with the aim of providing basic services like water supply to all households, significantly upgrade sewerage and septage and provide for non-motorised transport and public amenities like parks and green spaces in at least one in each city.

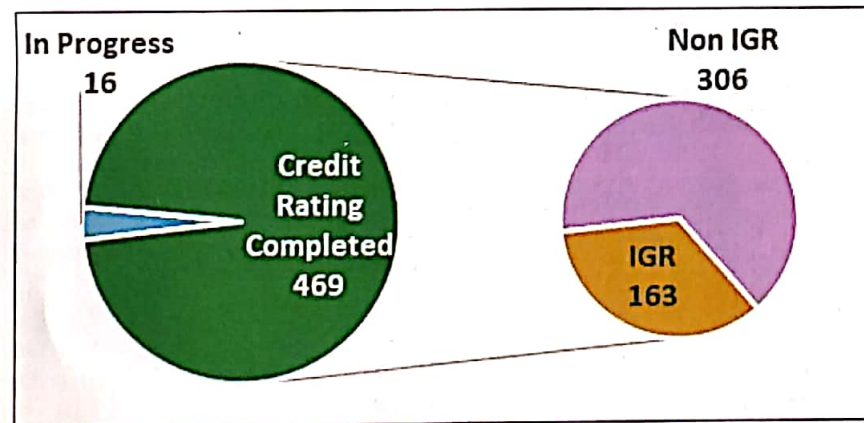


CO₂ emission by 11 lakh tonnes per annum.

Credit Rating: Four hundred and sixty-nine AMRUT cities have been credit rated out of the total 485 cities where the credit rating work had commissioned. One hundred and sixty-three cities have been rated investible grade (IGR) of which 36 cities have A and higher rating. Cities with lower rating are following measures to improve their performance so that they become credit worthy and raise funds for their projects.



Municipal Bonds: Rs. 3,390 crore have been raised through municipal bonds during 2017-19 for upgrading urban infrastructure by 8 Mission cities (Ahmedabad, Amaravati,² Bhopal, Hyderabad, Indore, Pune, Surat, and Vishakhapatnam). As an incentive, Ministry pays Rs. 13 crore for raising bonds to the tune of Rs. 100 crore, up to the limit of Rs. 200 crore per city. This translates into interest subvention of 2% over the bond period. Rs. 181 crore has been released for raising bonds in 8 cities. Raising of bonds leads to improved governance, accounting systems, finance, transparency, accountability and delivery of services in the ULBs. We target to get at least 50 cities raise



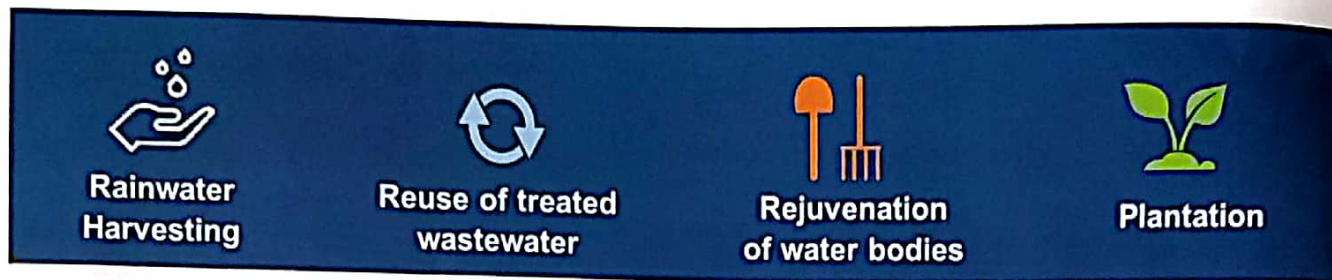
bonds in next 4 years. That will also enhance their self-dependence and confidence to serve the citizens.

In order to strengthen capacity of Municipal functionaries, technical trainings have been imparted to 52,673 functionaries.

1 July, 2019 and 15 September, 2019 and Phase 2 between 30 September, 2019 to 30 November, 2019, for the States which receive retreating monsoon. The key thrust areas of Jal Shakti Abhiyan (Urban) are as follows:

rejuvenate defunct wells and water bodies.

- d. **Plantation:** ULBs have taken up the mantle to mobilise the local community members to conduct plantation drives across the cities.



Jal Shakti Abhiyan - Urban

In order to address the national issue of water scarcity, Ministry of Jal Shakti (MoJS), Government of India has undertaken Jal Shakti Abhiyan (JSA) from 1 July, 2019, driving a campaign on water conservation, restoration, recharge, and reuse of wastewater. MoHUA has participated actively in the JSA along with States/UTs/ULBs to make water conservation measures a Jan Andolan, through extensive Information, Education and Communication (IEC) activities across the country in 754 water-stressed cities.

The campaign has been undertaken in two phases: Phase 1 between






- a. **Rainwater Harvesting (RWH):** ULBs have taken measures for establishing Rainwater Harvesting Cell, construction and installation of RWH structures to recharge ground water sources and to store water.
- b. **Reuse of treated wastewater:** ULBs have undertaken construction of dual piping structure in public buildings and reuse of secondary treated water for horticulture, car washing, fire hydrants, etc.
- c. **Rejuvenation of water bodies:** Multiple interventions have been initiated by ULBs to clean and

Way Forward:

AMRUT has made remarkable strides in improving water and sanitation coverage in urban areas. During the Mission period, it envisages to cover over 60% of the urban population living in 500 cities with universal coverage of water supply and over 60% coverage of sewerage and septage services. However, more than 3,500 smaller cities/towns out of 4,378 statutory towns at present are not covered under any central scheme for water supply and Faecal Sludge and Septage Management infrastructure. Keeping in view SDG Goal 6 for ensuring sustainable management of water and sanitation for all and announcement of Jal Jeevan Mission for conserving and judiciously using the precious water by Hon'ble Prime Minister and special needs of 115 Aspirational Districts, to be addressed on priority, it is imperative to take forward the achievements of this Mission to smaller cities as well. □

Endnotes:

1. SDG 6.1 entails access to safe drinking water and 6.3 is "By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimizing release of hazardous chemicals and materials, halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and sustainability increasing recycling and safe reuse globally."
2. In case of Amravati, incentive has been given to Andhra Pradesh Capital Region Development Authority (APCRDA) as it is discharging the functions of ULB there. ■

 52344 new rainwater harvesting structures have been installed	 1372 water bodies have been rejuvenated across the country
 More than 3.3 crore participants have been a part of the Jan Andolan	 More than 6.7 lakh saplings have been planted
 40099 establishments have started using Treated Waste Water	

Progress under JSA

Slums in India – Facts and Misconceptions

Anirudh Krishna

Slums in the modern cities are usually looked upon as places having lesser aesthetic value in urban planning. In reality, they are self-sustaining micro-cities within larger cities helping sustain the industries as well as households through the services they provide. Slums are further classified in terms of their social, economic and legal status. So, implementing a common slum policy does not represent a good use of resources. This article presents a series of facts and misconceptions which give a holistic picture calling for a multi-pronged approach to manage a heterogeneous and complex ecosystem called slums.

This article draws upon a database of over 10,000 household interviews from a diverse sample of 279 slums in three Indian cities – Bengaluru, Jaipur, and Patna. Six waves of original surveys were undertaken between 2010 and 2016; four waves in Bengaluru in 2010, 2012, 2013 and 2015 and the next two waves in Jaipur and Patna in 2016. We accumulated information using a variety of methods – comparing individual slums’ satellite images over a 15-year period, compiling oral histories, interviewing community leaders and local property brokers, and surveying thousands of randomly selected households in diverse slums within each city. Several facts and some misconceptions were revealed in these examinations. I will focus here on three important facts and three frequent misconceptions.

FACT: Official lists under-identify slums and undercount slum populations.

Following a track taken by prior research, I conducted the first survey in 2010 by obtaining a list

of slums from the Karnataka Slum Development Board (KSDB). I randomly selected 14 slums from this official list. Interviews with a random sample of 1,481 households showed that slums on the official list are home not so much to the poorest people as to a settled lower-middle class. Multi-storied permanent constructions prevail; electricity

connections and clean drinking water are commonly available; most households have TVs, pressure cookers, and electric fans; poverty is lower than the average for the city (Krishna, 2013). However, there are many other ‘slummier’ settlements, not mentioned in the government list, where the conditions of living are very different.



Sixty six per cent people in slums have lived in the same home for three or more generations.

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The official record of slums is incomplete. Government agencies have only recently started to count the number of people who live in slums. Census 2001 first included slums but only in a small number of cities. Census 2011 was the first to look at this category of settlements in all urban centres.

The definition of slums and enumeration methodologies differ among official agencies, but commonly they underestimate the slum population. Adopting one definition of slums, the National Sample Survey Office counted 44 million slum dwellers in 2008, but adopting another (and also partial) definition, the Census of India counted 65 million slum dwellers in 2011. UN-Habitat (United Nations Human Settlements Programme), the international authority on slums, found that in 2014, India had as many as 104 million slum dwellers, and these numbers align more closely with what independent researchers have found in different cities.¹

With the help of satellite image analysis, we found many slums, not mentioned on the official lists for the city, where living conditions are worse than in slums that have been officially recorded. One type of missed-out settlements are the “blue polygon” settlements, so termed because clusters of such homes – four poles surmounted by a blue plastic sheet – appear as blue rectangles in satellite images (Image i, Figure 2). Covered by blue tarps (or black or gray ones, or sometimes, as in Patna, by straw roofs), these crude settlements, representing the lowest type of urban slum, have become widely prevalent. Atypical abode is a 7'x7' tent shared by families of three to five individuals. Other slums with poor living conditions also do not find place in the official record.

By omitting these and other poorer settlements, the Census and other official records present a

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picture than is warranted about slum conditions but not always the case.² Many states report no slums at all, which is unrealistic.

FACT: Slums in each city have a variety of living conditions that fall along a continuum. People's needs vary at different points of the continuum. Standardised slum policies are, therefore, not helpful.

The UN-Habitat employs five criteria to identify slums, each related to a living condition that households in slums usually lack: durable housing

of a permanent nature; sufficient living space; easy access to safe water; access to adequate sanitation; and security of tenure. We operationalised these criteria using our household- and neighbourhood-level information, and combined the scores for each criterion to arrive at a consolidated score for each slum settlement. Figure 1 presents the results of this analysis. It divides the continuum of slums into four quartiles.

A range of slums exists within every city. Though Bengaluru and Jaipur slums cluster along the top half of the continuum, every city has slums with the most squalid living conditions. These are the ones that are usually missing from the official record.

Figure 2 shows pictures from individual slums that are located, respectively, toward the bottom, middle and top of the slum continuum in Bengaluru. All of these settlements are regarded as slums but they are visibly different from one another.

Living conditions vary considerably along the slum continuum. In the bottom quartile, households allocate an average of 59 per cent of all expenditures to food, which decreases to 47 per cent in the

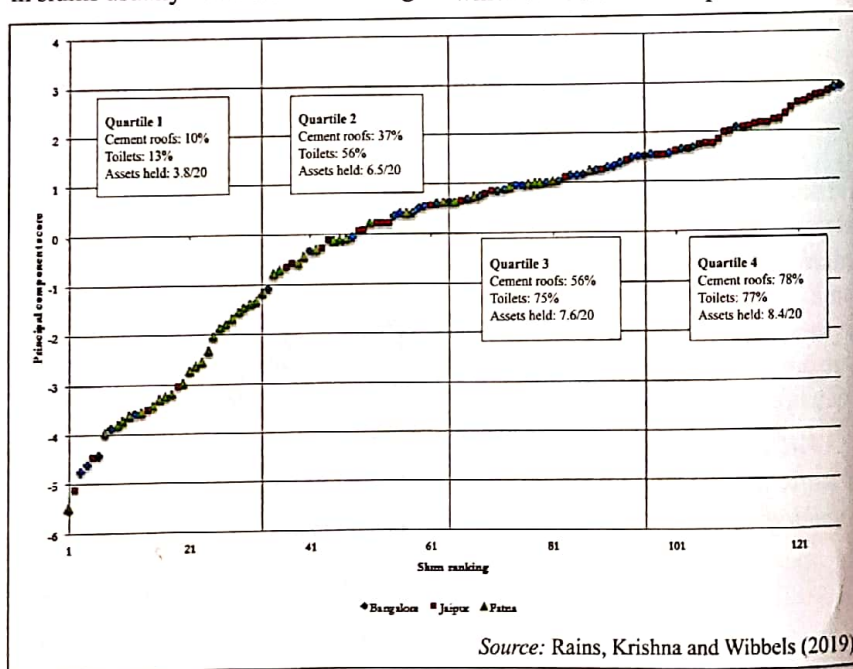


Figure 1: Slum rankings and associated continuum score

Source: Rains, Krishna and Wibbels (2019)



Figure 2: Different conditions along the continuum of slums

top quartile. Occupations, incomes, and education levels are also different.

Residents of slums at different points have diverse needs and require different kinds of public support. For slums in the bottom quartile, the most pressing public needs are drinking water (27 per cent of reporting residents), housing (27 per cent), and toilets (25 per cent). Neighbourhoods in the top quartile have different concerns: waste management (30 per cent) followed by employment training (14 per cent).

Implementing a common slum policy does not represent a good use of resources. Knowing where along the continuum a slum is located helps make public expenditures more relevant and effective.

FACT: Traditional survey methods are inadequate to keep up with rapid changes. Satellite image analysis helps generate slum maps and sort slums into types.

Consider Figure 3. It shows rapid change over 10 years in one slum settlement of Bengaluru. Comparing satellite images of individual settlements over the period 2000-2015, revealed other instances of rapid change: new slums have been constituted; some older ones were disbanded or demolished; boundaries have changed as new homes were built on slums' peripheries; inner streets have been realigned and new landmarks added. Keeping up with such rapid changes occurring simultaneously in hundreds of slums across a city overwhelm the rudimentary surveying capacities at the hands of urban improvement boards and municipal bodies, one reason why the official record is partial and outdated.

Employing satellite image analysis can help remedy the situation. Coarser-grained images, useful for a number of purposes, including initial

slum identification, are available free of charge on Google Earth and finer-grained images, available for purchase, cost only a tiny fraction of what a typical municipality spends, or should spend, on mapping its tax base accurately.

Our research, undertaken in a multi-disciplinary team, composed of computer scientists, urban geographers, and social scientists, demonstrated the utility of satellite image analysis for these purposes.³ Through successive iterations between image analysis (overseen by the computer scientist and the urban geographer) and ground verifications (overseen by the social scientists), we developed protocols and algorithms for semi-automatic slum identification, demarcation of boundaries, and slum classification. We found this method much cheaper than what it would have cost to undertake the same exercise manually. It is also more accurate

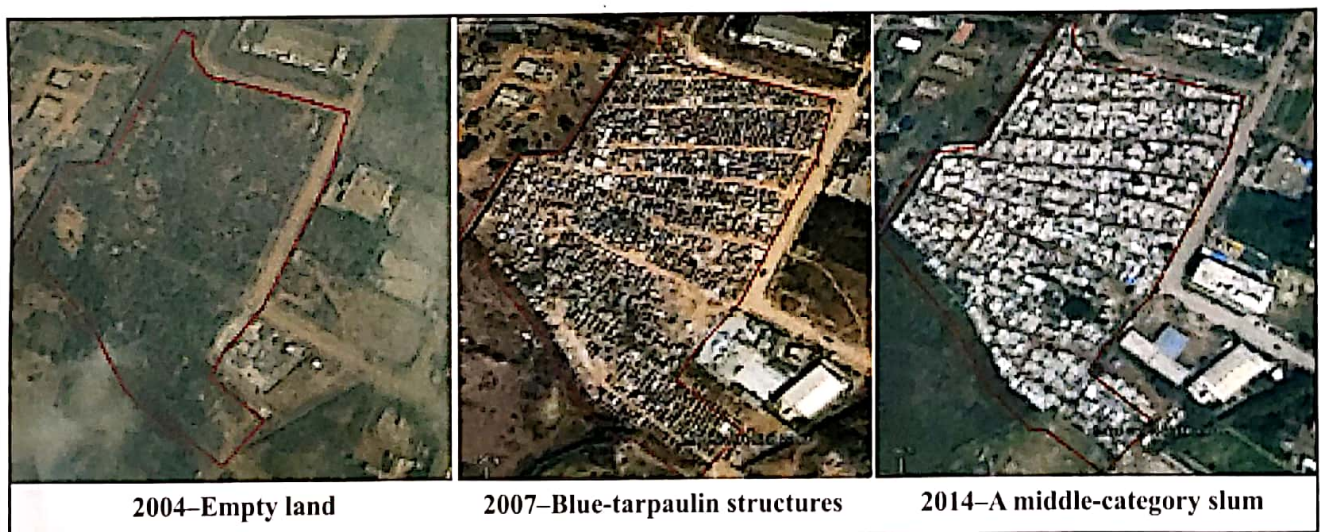


Figure 3: Tracking change over time - Ashrayanagar, Bengaluru

and less prone to human errors (of omission and commission). Other researchers have employed image analysis effectively for mapping and studying slums in South Africa, Brazil, and other countries.

Regularly and reliably updating the settlement record requires making use of image analysis. If it is serious about creating a reliable record of slums, the Government needs to invest in developing and utilising investigative capacities that make use of image analysis in combination with other methodologies.

MISCONCEPTION: *Official notification is required for getting basic services and saleable property titles.*

The law lays down that slum residents can only avail themselves of municipal services and property titles after their slum has been officially notified following a prescribed procedure. The process leading to slum notification in Bengaluru is laid out in the Slum Act. (Figure 4 represents the stages in this procedure).

As laid down in the law the process is straightforward. In practice, notification can be an ambiguous status.

Cities differ in this respect, but in Bengaluru, three lists of slums are maintained by three separate government agencies.⁴ We took a random sample of 75 slums from our database, and we looked for these slums on each of the three official lists, also asking slum dwellers about their

perceptions of their neighbourhood's notified status.

The mismatches vastly outnumbered the matches. There are only two slums out of the 75 we considered for which the three government lists are in agreement with one another. Each of the remaining 73 slums is classified as a notified slum in one of the lists and as a non-notified one in each of the others.

Overlapping jurisdictions and the multiplicity of agencies have led to this situation. The result is that what is, and what is not, a notified slum is difficult to verify with confidence. Residents' perceptions about the notified status of their slum matter more for their behaviours than what is stated in any government record.⁵

The slippage between legal provision and everyday practice does not end here. Eighteen different property documents have been given to the residents of the slums in Bengaluru by KSDB, by BBMP (the municipal corporation), and by erstwhile village panchayats. These papers were issued at different stages of the notification process (as shown in Figure 4).

Each of these papers is commonly perceived to be a property title, but these documents can be classified into three broad types that convey progressively greater property rights. Type 1 papers (including Biometric Card, Parichaya Patra, Gurutina Chitthi, and Thiluvallike Patra), issued before notification, convey a right of abode and a right of inheritance but no right to sell or otherwise alienate

the property. Type 2 papers (issued after slum notification) convey not only the right of possession but also the right to get a saleable title 10 or 30 years later, after fulfilling some conditions. Examples include Hakku Patra, Possession Certificate, Lease deed, and Hanchike Patra. Type 3 papers (saleable titles) convey clear ownership rights, particularly when accompanied by proof of property tax payments. A fourth type, Type 0 – no papers, is found in slums at the lower end of the continuum, many of which are entirely undocumented. Among slum residents in our Bengaluru sample, 35 per cent have Type 3 papers, 40 per cent have Type 1 or Type 2 documents, and 26 per cent have no property documents (Type 0).

By law, notification is a prerequisite for having a Type 2 or a Type 3 paper. In practice, the law is unevenly implemented. There are slums that had not been notified but where a significant share of residents has Type 2 or Type 3 papers. Conversely, there are slum which have not been notified (according to at least one of the government lists) but where residents still have only Type 1 papers.

Similarly, in theory, a city should provide municipal services – such as garbage pickup, piped drinking water, sewerage, internal roads, and street lighting – only after a slum has been notified. Public expenditures cannot be justifiably incurred for places that do not exist in the official record.

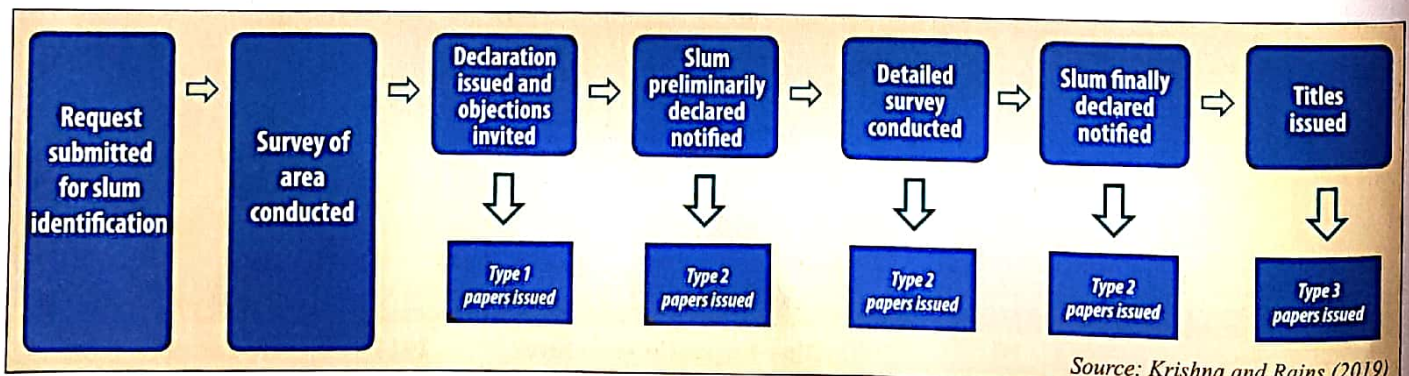


Figure 4: Official notification process (Bengaluru)

Source: Krishna and Rains (2019)

In practice, many non-notified slums are provided with services and infrastructure, while many notified slums are left uncovered. The scope of corrupt practices gets accelerated by such administrative indiscretions.

MISCONCEPTION: *Lacking property titles, slum residents cannot sell or mortgage properties.*

In theory, only properties with Type 3 papers should be saleable. Other paper types do not come with the right to alienate the property in question. In practice, slum properties with all types of papers are freely transacted. The usual vehicle in Bengaluru is a general power of attorney executed between the seller and buyer, to which other documents are annexed in which the seller transfers all future rights to the buyer and promises to help the seller with any related transactions in the future. Every family member signs these documents, their photos and IDs

Lack of movement more accurately characterises slum conditions. On average, slum dwellers have lived in their current homes for 21 years. The majority (66 per cent) have lived in the same home for three or more generations. Across the three cities and the continuum of slums, only 27 per cent are first-generation migrants and only about half of them have come from rural areas.

are attached, there are witnesses, and always, there are lawyers. An active informal market exists that produces official-looking documents and helps buyers and sellers transact informal properties, overcoming the limitations of their property papers.

Properties are sold all across the slum continuum, though less often in blue-polygon settlements and areas under litigation.

On average, two per cent of slum properties are bought and sold in this manner in any given year. No taxes are paid on these transactions, leading to a loss of potential municipal revenue.

MISCONCEPTION: *Slums are temporary halting points that work as conveyor belts leading rural migrants into the urban middle class.*

Lack of movement more accurately characterises slum conditions. On average, slum dwellers have lived in their current homes for 21 years. The majority (66 per cent) have lived in the same home for three or more generations. Across the three cities and the continuum of slums, only 27 per cent are first-generation migrants and only about half of them have come from rural areas.



Nearly all slum residents find employment in the informal sector.

Intergenerational advances in terms of occupational status are minimal. We compared father's and son's occupations using a six-class occupational classification adapted for urban India. Most commonly, individuals work in the same occupational class as their fathers, both in Class 1 positions (construction, daily wage labour or factory work, and garbage collection). Some in the next generation have experienced upward mobility (29 per cent) but the most common upward trend was from a Class 1 father to a Class 2 son, positive but limited upward mobility. Conversely, in 14 per cent of cases, the trend was downward, from a Class 2 father to a Class 1 son.

Overall, a situation of stasis – stuck-in-placidness – is characteristic of slums, whether examined at the household or at the neighbourhood level. Satellite images examined over a 15-year period show that few neighbourhoods develop from slum to non-slum areas in terms of physical characteristics. As illustrated in Figure 3, some neighbourhoods experience positive physical changes over time, most commonly in roof material. Very few neighbourhoods (1%) exhibit positive changes in more than one visible feature. Many neighbourhoods have experienced deterioration.

Nearly all slum residents, even in the best-off slums, find employment in the informal sector. Fewer than 5% of respondents have jobs that come together with tenure security, healthcare, and retirement benefits. Improving their prospects for upward mobility requires progressively reducing the risk and vulnerability that are induced by living and work in informal conditions. □

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1. A government report forthrightly acknowledges these and other lacunae in the official record. See GOI. (2010). Report of the Committee on Slum Statistics/Census. New Delhi: Government of India, Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation. Available at http://mhupa.gov.in/W_new/Slum_Report_NBO.pdf; <http://unhabitat.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/WHD-2014-Background-Paper.pdf>.
2. Census 2011 reports, for instance, that 94 per cent of slum dwellers live in sturdy or semi-sturdy households, but only 72 per cent of our sample live in houses made of bricks, wood, or cement, and the rest live under tarp or in mud or tin huts. The census also estimates that 53 per cent of homes store money in banks, but our sample reports approximately half that number.
3. This research team was led by Raju Vatsavai (computer science, North Carolina State University), Nikhil Kaza (urban geographer, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill) and Erik Wibbels and I (social scientists, Duke University). We are grateful for the grants we received for different parts of this research from Duke University, International Growth Center, and Omidyar Foundation, and DigitalGlobe, for their grant of satellite images.
4. Respectively, KSDB (the slum board), BBMP (the municipal corporation), and Aasha Kiran Mahiti (the State Government's department of municipal administration).
5. This point is developed by Wibbels, Krishna and Sriram (2018). ■

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Urbanisation and Informal Sector

Arup Mitra

The article discusses how urban issues like migration affect the informal sector and the overall standards of living in urban as well as in rural India. It dwells upon how migration, urban informal sector, employment, and the incidence of socially backward population in the urban and rural areas are all connected with each other.

Wellbeing, one of the crucial dimensions of which is access to productive employment opportunities, is pertinent particularly in the present context of globalisation. Growth that is currently taking place is accompanied by informalisation, e.g., sub-contracting in the production process and various other mechanisms that tend to leave labour with less bargaining power. On the whole, the informalisation process is feared to involve substantial welfare losses and deterioration in terms of governance. However, in the face of inadequate livelihood opportunities in the rural areas, even the urban informal sector which is grossly characterised by low productivity, tends to attract migration. This in turn has serious challenges in terms of urbanisation. Though in the Indian context rural-urban migration rates are moderate, rural-to-large city population-flow has always been alarming. Thus, city growth, informal sector employment, and low living standards including slum inhabitation involve considerable overlaps.

Quite clearly, while the new Urban India by introducing various smart strategies to attract investment from all quarters unfolds opportunities

for those who are highly skilled, it also tends to continue with certain urban ills that have been perceived over the decades.

Migration and Opportunities

Higher rural literacy and improvements in educational level may raise the rural-to-urban migration rate. The presence of disadvantaged social categories in the rural areas also has motivated migration rate, supporting the view that they migrate to escape their vulnerability.

However, the most interesting part is that migration reduces both rural and urban poverty. In other words, rural poor by shifting to the urban location are able to access better livelihood opportunities and thus, poverty declines. Looking at it through non-myopic lens, the urban informal sector, notwithstanding the manifestation of low productivity activities, appears to be better in comparison to the rural job market scenario (Mitra, 2019). Higher urbanisation and work participation rate in both rural and urban areas are



Inadequate livelihood opportunities in the rural area tend to attract migration.

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Cities are much better off in terms of infrastructure compared to the new small towns.

positively associated with migration, suggesting that those in the labour market are more likely to migrate, and after migration they are expected to continue in jobs rather than moving outside the labour force. Since open unemployment rate is unaffordable by a large majority of those from low income households, the improvement in standards of living, howsoever meagre it may be, is noteworthy. In fact, such patterns are prevalent in States which are more urbanised than the others.

Migration, urban informal sector employment, and the incidence of socially backward population in the urban and rural areas are all positively connected with each other, suggesting that such groups are more likely to migrate and land up in the urban informal sector. However, this pattern is accompanied by a decline in the incidence of poverty in both rural and urban areas. Urbanisation is associated positively with the percentage of the rural and urban workforce engaged in non-household manufacturing and services, which may be underlying the pattern of reduced rural and urban poverty being correlated with urbanisation. Concentration of poor in the rural agricultural sector is prevalent; hence any diversification with or without migration is desirable

from the point of view of poverty reduction. Though there is no definite relationship between the size of the informal sector and the extent of urbanisation, the role of the urban informal sector in providing sources of livelihood cannot be undermined. In fact, with rapid urbanisation the rural transformation is faster as the positive spill-over effects initiate new activities and opportunities.

Some of the earlier literature suggested that informal trade and services are of residual type (Udall, 1976), though informal manufacturing may be connected with the large-scale industrialisation. However, with a few exceptions we noted from the empirical data that manufacturing, trade, and services all show a strong association inter-spatially. Besides, their concentration in relatively advanced States tends to suggest that the dynamics of growth influence all the three activities positively. Higher per capita income, urbanisation and industrialisation can impact small manufacturing and trade simultaneously, as both the activities are complementary to each other. Though, services or trade may not be connected to manufacturing, higher incomes generate demand for new services which may be provided by the informal segment (Rakshit, 2007).

Own Account Enterprises (OAEs) form a large majority of the units located within the informal sector. However, the establishments seem to be more employment generating as labour per enterprise in the establishments is much higher. Again, within the establishments manufacturing is relatively more employment intensive compared to trade and services. Across States, the correlation between manufacturing and trade establishments in terms of worker per enterprise is significant (0.89) in the rural areas while in the urban areas trade and services establishments show a positive association in terms of employment size (0.65). We may infer that the production dynamics resulting in trading requirements is evident in the rural areas while income dynamics resulting in trading of goods and demand for services is noticeable in the urban areas.

In terms of gross value added per worker, however, the rural-urban differences are significant, the urban units being on an average characterised by higher levels of labour productivity. However, within the rural areas the establishments are more productive than the OAEs. And within the establishments, the trade and services sector are more productive. On the other hand, in the urban areas though the establishments are again better performer than the OAEs, the trade sector is the most productive one followed by the services sector. These patterns are significantly different from much of the traditional literature which perceived the trade and services components as least productive.

The other new challenge for urban India can be envisaged in terms of the emergence of the census towns.

The constituents of urban areas are statutory towns, census towns, and outgrowths. The major distinction between statutory and census towns are as follows: All places with a municipality, corporation,

cantonment board, or notified town area committee constitute statutory towns. On the other hand, the census towns are defined on the basis of the following criteria: (a) a minimum population of 5000; (b) at least 75 per cent of the male workers are engaged in non-agricultural pursuits; and (c) a density of population of at least 4000 per square km. Even without having an urban local body, an area can become a census town if the process of transformation is fast. The results from 2011 census show a huge number of census towns which emerged in the last ten years (2001-2011). A little above 2,500 new towns cropped up during this period while it had taken India almost sixty years (since independence) to experience only 1,362 census towns which is nearly double the number emerged in

Are the census towns well equipped with infrastructure and basic amenities to assure a reasonable quality of life? Extraction of resources in these towns might have taken place in a completely unplanned manner. The residential and infrastructural facilities in these towns are inadequate to keep pace with the new activities that are spilling over as a result of saturation of the large urban centres.

just ten years. What can explain such faster growth?

We may start the analysis by looking into the locational aspects of these new towns. Are they mostly situated in the neighbourhood of very large cities? If so, we can then explain their emergence and growth in terms of the second best solution, as already mentioned, that the firms seek when a large urban settlement tends to get saturated. If new activities come up in nearby small towns in a big way

due to want of space in the large cities, it is natural that migration of population will also be directed to these towns. On the whole, these towns may be treated as the satellite towns growing in response to the spur of economic activities.

A regional distribution of new census towns is indicative of the fact that most of them are concentrated in Kerala, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal (placed in alphabetical order).¹ Of these, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, and West Bengal are relatively industrialised, whereas Kerala's growth dynamics is unique with a lead role played by the plantation sector. So, it is only Uttar Pradesh which

has experienced very many new towns notwithstanding moderate growth. However, it can partly be attributed to its sheer size – one of the States having a very large number of districts.

On the whole, the number of statutory towns of all sizes is rather positively associated with the number of census towns (though the correlation is only moderate), implying that urbanisation as a whole seems to be expanding from the spillover of the existing urban localities into the rural hinterland. As Bhagat (2011) points out, urbanisation increased faster than expected over the decade 2001-2011. It is stated that "... for the first time since independence, the absolute increase in the urban population was higher than that in the rural population. The non-statutory Census towns numbered 1,362 and were home to 21.0 million people in 2001. These numbers increased to 3,892 and 58.6 million, respectively, in 2011. This growth of 37.6 million people amounts to 41 percent of the total growth of urban population in the decade, 2001-2011" (Bhagat, 2011).

But are these census towns well equipped with infrastructure and basic amenities to assure a reasonable quality of life? Extraction of resources in these towns might have taken place in a completely unplanned manner. The residential and infrastructural facilities in these towns are inadequate to keep pace with the new activities that are spilling over as a result of saturation of the large urban centres. The new towns do not have enough living space to accommodate the migrant workers who are supposed to move in with an



Most of the Census towns are concentrated in five states.



Urban units have higher levels of labour productivity.

increasing concentration of activities. As migration is usually more than the actual number of job vacancies it would mean that the surplus labour would get residually absorbed in low productivity jobs. Does it not then mean that the problem of slums would be severe sooner or later? Though the very large cities also have had the similar problems, there have been several support mechanisms at the same time. Besides, the real earnings in the informal sector have been higher in the large cities than in small towns. The capacity of the small towns to provide for the population is highly limited even after discounting for the scale factor that the large cities enjoy. There are problems relating to generation of resources required for sustainable development.

Other way of looking at these towns is to understand the changing land use pattern in the rural areas adjacent to the large urban centres. If the agricultural land is being increasingly used for non-agricultural purposes as the city limit tends to expand, such new towns come up in the vicinity of the very large cities. If such new towns grow purely in response to the dynamics of agricultural growth and the subsequent demand for trading or other non-agricultural activities, the outcomes are desirable.

But the urbanisation spill-effect which ushers in a major change in land use patterns may pose threat not only in terms of food security in short run but also sustainable livelihood for those who lose their agricultural land. However, in long term, technological interventions can help the agriculture to get the value it deserves. The mismatch between the demand for and supply of labour can be serious in these towns keeping in view the employability issue. Trade-offs to certain extent between growth and loss of agricultural land are inevitable

If new towns grow purely in response to the dynamics of agricultural growth and the subsequent demand for trading or other non-agricultural activities, the outcomes are desirable. But the urbanisation spill-effect which ushers in a major change in land use patterns may pose threat not only in terms of food security but also sustainable livelihood for those who lose their agricultural land.

here. However, sufficient safety nets need to be created to meet the deficiencies and the new challenges.

The next question is whether these new towns as a spill of very large cities are the proper substitutes of the second rank cities which are expected to play the role of engine of growth once the megalopolises or very large cities meet the saturation point. Usually in the urban economics literature, we have learnt that once the largest cities exhaust the economic opportunities the second rank cities come up to replace them in terms of investment, growth, and employment generation. These cities are certainly much better off in terms of infrastructure compared to the new small towns. But for them to take over the lead role, a proper coordination between the State and those who have a thorough understanding of the growth dynamics of the urban space is essential. In the Indian context, a clear-cut initiative for urban investment or planning is yet to emerge on the basis of the growth potential of different cities and towns with an economic-geographic perspective. □

Endnote:

1. West Bengal accounts for 20.74 per cent, Kerala, 14.3 per cent, Tamil Nadu 10.47 per cent, Uttar Pradesh 7.94 per cent, Maharashtra 6.24 per cent and Andhra Pradesh 5.33 per cent of the new census towns.

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Maps of newly formed Union Territories of Jammu Kashmir and Ladakh, with the map of India

On the recommendation of the Parliament, the President of India effectively dismantled Article 370 of the Indian Constitution and gave assent to the Jammu and Kashmir Reorganization Act, 2019. Under the leadership of Prime Minister and supervision of Union Home Minister, the former State of Jammu & Kashmir has been reorganised as the new Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir and the new Union Territory of Ladakh on 31 October, 2019.

The new Union Territory of Ladakh consists of two districts of Kargil and Leh. The rest of the former State of Jammu and Kashmir is in the new Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir.

In 1947, the former State of Jammu and Kashmir had the following 14 districts - Kathua, Jammu, Udhampur, Reasi, Anantnag, Baramulla, Poonch, Mirpur, Muzaffarabad, Leh and Ladakh, Gilgit, Gilgit Wazarat, Chilhas and Tribal Territory.

By 2019, the State Government of former Jammu and Kashmir had reorganised the areas of these 14 districts into 28 districts.

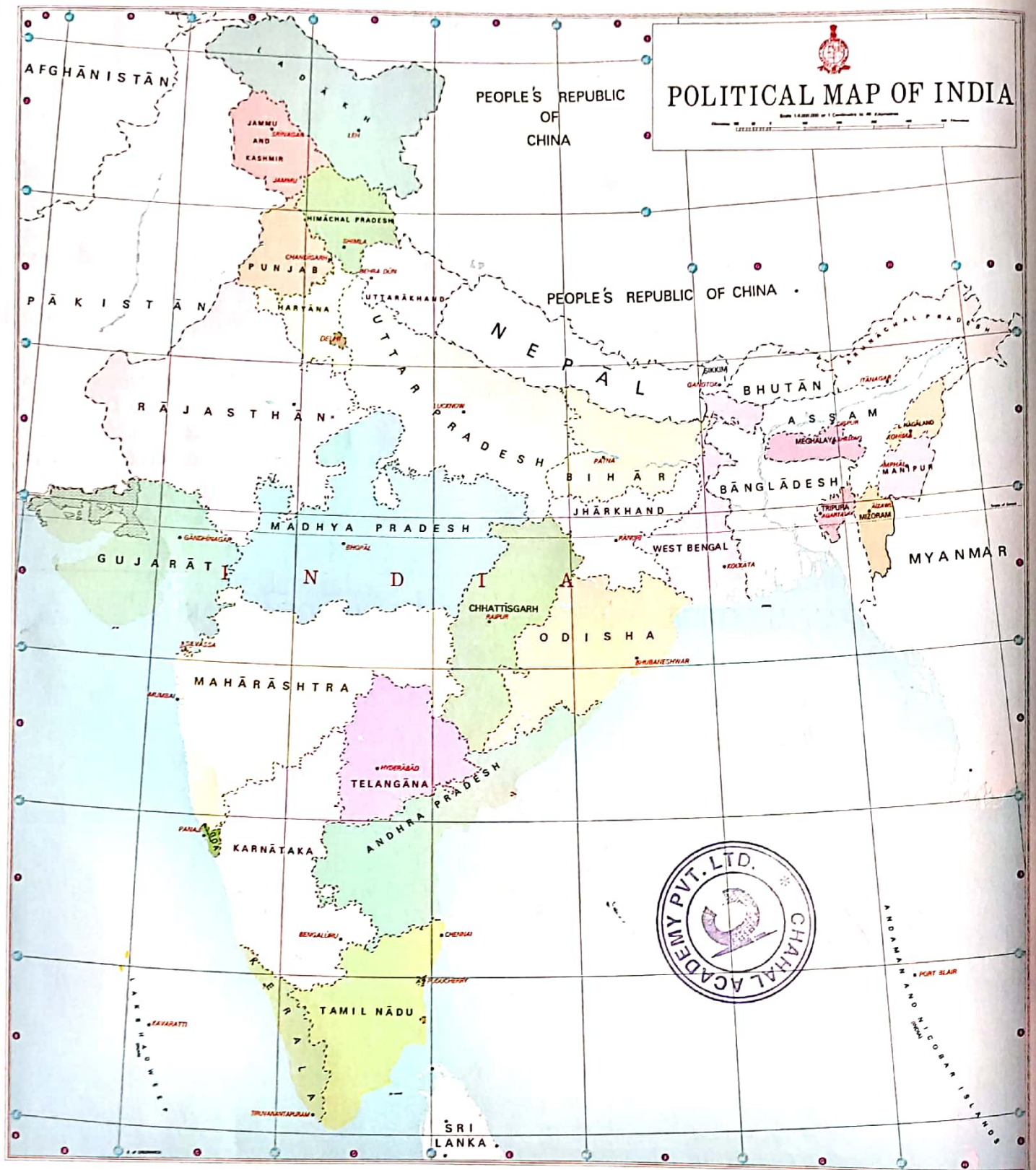
Out of these, Kargil district was carved out from the area of Leh and Ladakh district. The Leh district of the new Union Territory of Ladakh has been defined in the Jammu and Kashmir Reorganization (Removal of Difficulties) Second Order, 2019, issued by the President of India, to include the areas of the districts of Gilgit, Gilgit Wazarat, Chilhas and Tribal Territory of 1947, in addition to the remaining areas of Leh and Ladakh districts of 1947, after carving out the Kargil District.

On this basis, the maps prepared by the Survey General of India depicting the new Union Territories of Jammu & Kashmir and Ladakh, as created on 31 October, 2019, along with the map of India, are as follows:

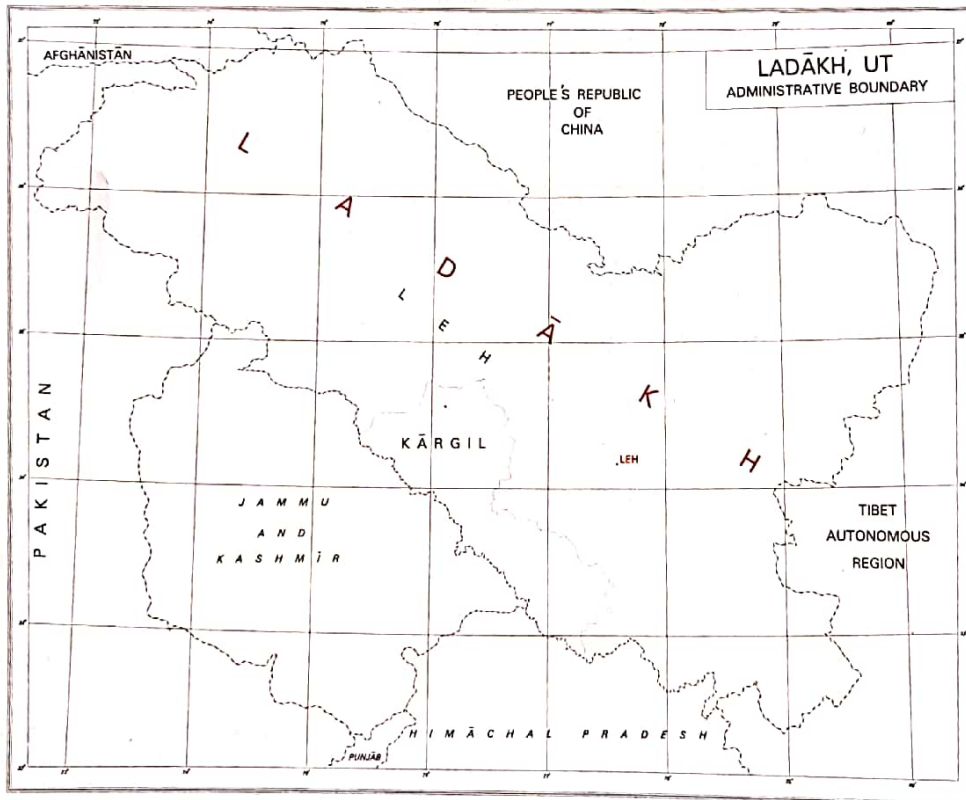
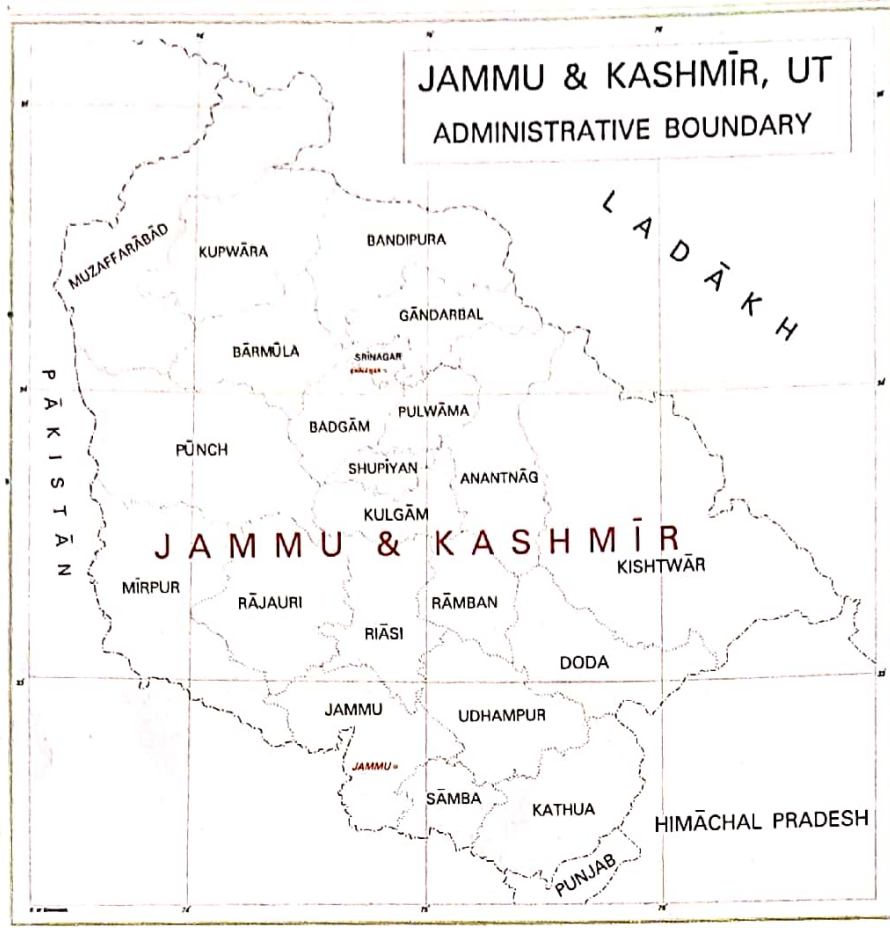
MAP OF UT OF JAMMU & KASHMIR AND UT OF LADAKH



Source: Press Information Bureau



Source: Press Information Bureau



Source: Press Information Bureau



Mobility-Responsive Urban Planning

Amita Bhide

A proactive approach to migration can lead to significant benefits for the city economy and city vibrancy. The last decade has seen a substantive increase in varied forms of mobility in India. These forms of mobility stretch way beyond the stoic imagination of migration as reflected in definitional aspects or its directions as rural-rural, rural-urban and urban-urban migration.

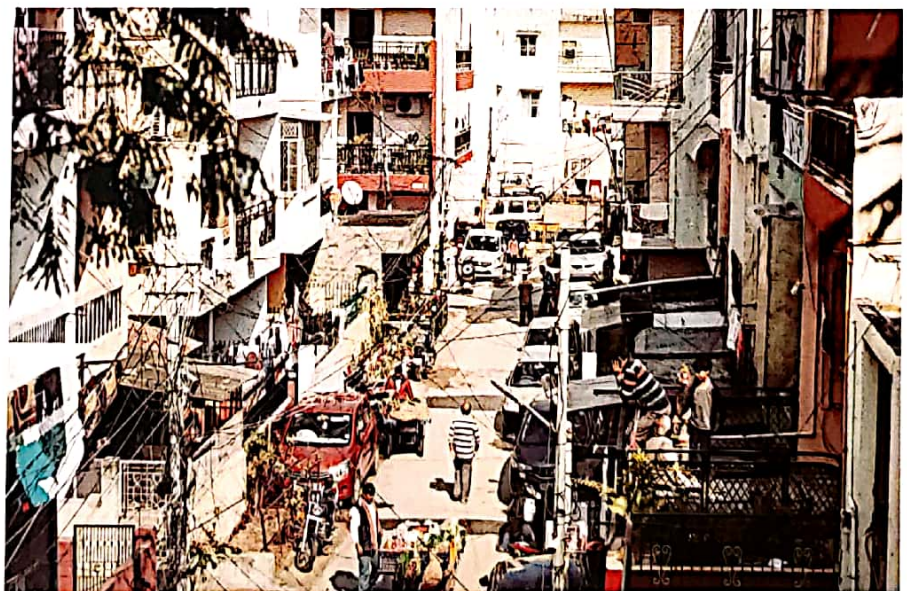
Mobility is increasingly circular, semi or non-permanent, and though a bulk of it is regional, many stream of migration are also long-distance and interstate. This dynamic situation of mobility is at variance with public policies in cities, big and small, that are being transformed by the presence and contribution of these migrants. This article analyses housing policies in particular and how they are not in sync with the presence and needs of migrants. This gap in public policy compels migrants to find solutions outside the formal system. Such patterns generate a vicious cycle in which both cities and migrants get trapped. There is an urgent need to equip city governments with necessary capacities, resources and powers to recognise and respond to issues of migrants.

Introduction

While the census data estimates the number of migrants at 3.3 million; several studies including the Economic Survey of India 2017 suggest that this is a significant underestimation. The scale of underestimation of migration is a concern in itself because it

leads to potential neglect of policy (Chandrasekhar and Dore 2014). A second related concern is about the places or destinations that are transformed through the presence and activities of migrants. This concern forms the focus of this article. Assumptions that city dwellers are sedentary and linkage of citizenship to long-term residence do not fit the emergent pattern of migration that is largely circular, temporary and non-permanent. Most urban policies, initiated at the central or state level,

seemed to have overlooked these emerging forms of mobility. In fact, a sedentary bias is found even in special policies that are initiated for migrants. On their part, most migrants then are compelled to find solutions that are accessible to them and secure them outside the formal system. Such solutions in domains of shelter, basic services, education, and healthcare not only create difficult living conditions for the migrants, but more importantly most of these solutions lead to new challenges for the city government.



Housing policies need to be in sync with the presence and needs of migrants.

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Mobility-responsive, local government driven policy is important for urban transformation.

This article argues the case for a mobility-responsive, local government-driven policy environment as a significant part of urban transformation.

Changing Scale and Forms of Mobility in India

The last decade has seen a significant rise in the scale and form of mobility in India as well as the modes of studying the same. The conventional mode of understanding migration is based on census definition and attempts to understand the causes of the same. The census defines a migrant as a person whose residence has shifted from the place of residence enumerated in the previous census or one who has shifted from her birthplace. Of these, 64 per cent moved more than ten years ago to their present destination. This, however, is only part of the picture of mobility in India. Recently, several scholars and even the Economic Survey of India has pointed out that there is a significant underestimation of migration in census data as well

as National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) data and that both these official data sources tend to neglect the short-term and circular migration. Some of these studies include those by Deshingkar and Akter (2009) who derived their estimation of 100 million

Some gaps in public policy compel migrants to find solutions outside the formal system. Such patterns generate a vicious cycle in which both cities and migrants get trapped. Such solutions in domains of shelter, basic services, education, and healthcare not only create difficult living conditions for the migrants, but more importantly most of these solutions lead to new challenges for the city government.

migrants, based on sectoral analysis. Other studies by Chandrashekhar and Sharma (2014) estimate that the number of urban commuters was more than 10 million in 2009-10, and Tumbe (2016) points out that nearly 20 per cent rural households had at least one out-migrant. Other estimates on the share of migrants in the workforce place the estimation of migration to be somewhere close to the 100 million as suggested by Deshingkar et al. It may also be noted that the Economic Survey of India (2016-17) places the estimation of interstate migration at 60 million and inter-district migration at 80 million. However, it is important to recognise that there are clear indications that mobility in India is significantly increasing and that the forms of this mobility are varied and do not correspond to a permanent move. Two forms which are particularly significant are a) commuting and b) circular migration. Both these forms of mobility have implications for the way in which cities are shaped.

How Mobility Transforms Places?

Naik and Randolph (2018) assert that it is important to pay attention to transformations in places through migration as much as migrant flows. They introduce the concept of migration junctions in relation to the same. Large-scale migration has significant implications for places. Conventional data measuring more permanent movement would estimate such implications in terms of burdens on infrastructure and housing. However, the more transient forms of migration compel us to pay attention to the specific kind and form of infrastructure or housing as well as the terms at which the same is created. Temporary forms of migrants are people who contribute to the city economy while they are there but their effort is directed at places which they come from, i.e., the source areas. This is where they contribute in terms of remittances, investments, asset building, and state revenues. On the other hand, they contribute significantly to the economic flows and outputs, extract less resources from the city, and bring in new ideas and ways of doing things.

While work and economic reasons may be the largest drivers

While work and economic reasons may be the largest drivers for such migration, education and health resource seeking may also be supplementary reasons for the same. A proactive approach to migration can lead to significant benefits for the city economy and city vibrancy as they contribute significantly to the economic flows and outputs, extract less resources from the city, and bring in new ideas and ways of doing things.

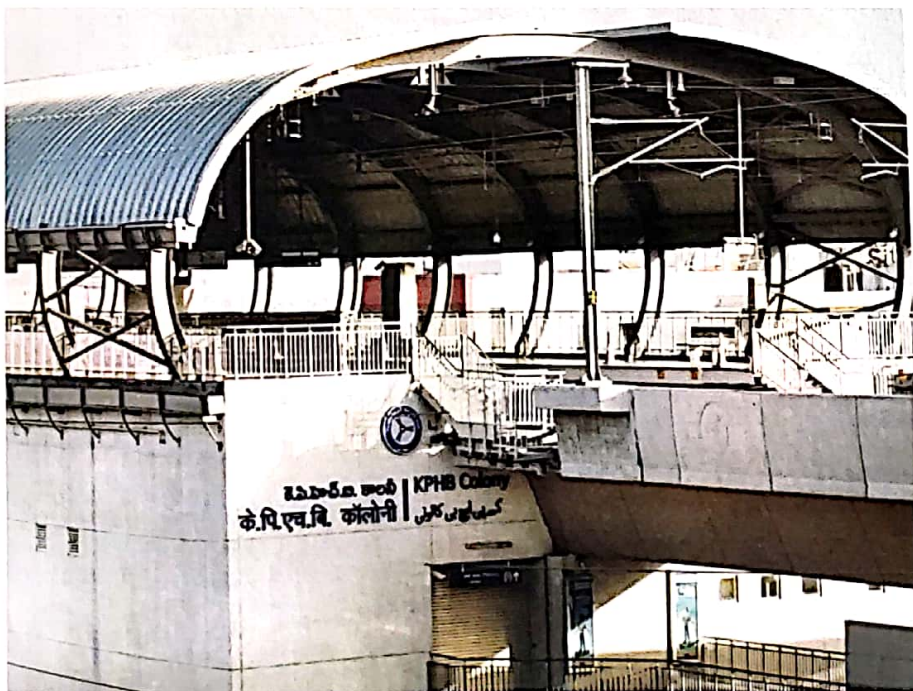
for such migration, education and health resource seeking may also be supplementary reasons for the same. These create specific demands on city infrastructures and services. Further, such demands may be locality-intensive. For example, hospitals attract many patients requiring long-term treatment and hence may emerge as nodes for such migrants (patients and caregivers). Similar nodes are also seen around colleges and areas where migrant-heavy economic activities

such as construction, recycling etc. happen. Demands on services may range from requirements of transport infrastructure and making it amenable to large-scale and long-distance commuting to creating a range of accessible basic services in assembly areas to accessible nutrition and to creating shelter options that are accessible and proximate to such nodes. School level education in languages familiar to the migrants and a local administration and services that also use these languages in their communication is needed as well.

A neglect of these needs pushes people into creating their own makeshift solutions. A road junction is then converted into an 'adda' with tea-food stalls, rest places, footpaths, and roads are subsequently taken over as assembly places. Similarly, a street near a hospital may be converted into an informal settlement. Areas around colleges with outstation students may see emergence of rental housing and fast food stalls. Highly temporary shacks come up around recycling spots. In the absence of public conveniences, roads may become defecation or urinal spots; edges may become waste dumps, and the intensity of slum formation or homelessness may increase. On the other hand, a proactive approach to migration can lead to significant benefits for the city economy and city vibrancy. A good example is that of Hyderabad Metro that uses four languages in its written messages.

Need for Vision for Supporting Migrants in Urban Policy: Short-term Housing

Short-term housing is perhaps one of the most critical and unmet needs of migrants to Indian cities. This is often seen as the need for rental housing; but needs for temporary housing go way beyond rental housing that extends to several months. Short-term visitors to cities include all those groups that use the city as a resource. Needs for



Hyderabad Metro uses four languages as a mobility-responsive measure.

stays longer than hotel stays and lesser than rental housing are the most neglected. Housing markets have begun to recognise this need and cater to it through serviced apartments. However, there is a complete absence of options when it comes to the low-income end. In older days, cities had *dharamshalas*. Contemporary Indian cities lack such options. This leads to unfortunate situations. A moving example of this is of how cancer patients and their caregivers at Tata Memorial Hospital, Mumbai are compelled to seek shelter on the streets outside the hospital for a few months while the treatment is on.

The other significant barrier to creating short-term housing solutions lies in the current imagination of housing. Contemporary housing policies rest upon two broad principles—the first is ownership-based housing and the other is use of land as a resource. The first principle creates citizenship; it is a useful instrument to secure sustained commitment and

Needs for stays longer than hotel stays and lesser than rental housing are the most neglected. Housing markets have begun to recognise this need and cater to it through serviced apartments. However, there is a complete absence of options when it comes to the low-income end. In older days, cities had dharamshalas.

investment in a place. The second helps to monetise land and contribute to state revenues in a dynamic manner. However, a negative impact of both these policy instruments is that they limit the possibilities of short-term housing and undermine the needs for space for shelter in cities. Unless a concerted attempt is made by governments, the tendency would be to overwhelm the entire city space by investment-oriented

housing blocks. This mindset linked to economic incentives is a powerful force to counter; but unless this is done, cities will also see the rise in examples such as the one described earlier.

There are some examples of civil society response to such issues. However, these are far too few and limited in proportion to the needs. Further, the prevailing land and housing market dynamics also act as a constraint to undertaking such initiatives. There is a definite need for governmental action in this sphere. The question is clearly then, which level of government has the capacity to recognise such needs and respond effectively to them? Only local governments with an on-ground knowledge of realities will be able to respond to these as opposed to State Governments who have a more top-down and homogenising view of housing and other issues. It is therefore essential to move away from the current State Government-based policy onus and equip local governments in terms of capacity to cognize such issues, collect data, and to possess the powers and resources to respond to dynamic phenomena such as migration. □

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People on streets seeking treatment at Tata Memorial Hospital, Mumbai.

Mission Indradhanush 2.0: Reiterating India's Commitment to Vaccines for All

An Intensified Mission Indradhanush (IMI) 2.0 is being carried out between December 2019–March 2020 to deliver a programme that is informed by the lessons learnt from the previous phases and seeks to escalate efforts to achieve the goal of attaining a 90% national immunisation coverage across India. The programme will be delivered in 271 districts of 27 States and 652 blocks of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar among hard-to-reach and tribal populations.

The Government of India is dedicated to achieving the highest standards of health and well-being for the nation. Immunisation programme is a critical component of its commitment towards Universal Health Coverage. It is integral to India's efforts of reducing the burden of vaccine preventable diseases and achieving universal care for children. Over the years, efforts have been fruitful and proved India's belief in quality, equitable, and affordable health care for all.

Government of India had launched 'Expanded Program for Immunisation' in 1978, which was later termed as the 'Universal Immunisation Program' (UIP) in 1985 aiming to reduce mortality and morbidity among children from vaccine preventable diseases. India's immunisation programme is the largest in the world, with annual cohorts of around 26.5 million infants and 29 million pregnant women. Despite steady progress, routine vaccination coverage has been slow to increase. According to the National Family Health Survey-4 2015-16 (NFHS-4), the full immunisation coverage is around 62%. The factors limiting

vaccination coverage include the rapid urbanisation, presence of a large migrating and isolated populations that are difficult to reach, and low demand from underinformed and unaware populations.

India has achieved groundbreaking success in eradicating/eliminating life-threatening vaccine preventable diseases by systematically implementing vaccination programmes. These include small pox, polio and more recently, maternal and neonatal tetanus. Despite persisting challenges such as a vast

population, poor sanitation and hygiene, and a difficult geographical terrain that make containing outbreak of disease and increasing access to vaccines difficult. The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare has employed an effective approach – such as involving the community, seeking support from other Ministries and partner agencies, establishing an organised surveillance system, and employing mass campaign management strategies to reach every unreached child for vaccination.



Owing to low childhood vaccination coverage, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare launched Mission Indradhanush (MI) in 2014, to target under-served, vulnerable, resistant, and inaccessible populations. These included pregnant women and children who had previously been left out, or had dropped out, of immunisation programmes. This contributed to an increase of 6.7% in full immunisation coverage after the first two phases of Mission Indradhanush. In October 2017, the Prime Minister of India launched Intensified Mission Indradhanush (IMI)—an ambitious plan to accelerate progress. It aimed to achieve 90% Full Immunisation Coverage (FIC) with focus towards districts and urban areas with persistently low levels. IMI was built on MI, using additional strategies to reach populations at high risk, by involving sectors other than health. It was an effort to shift routine immunisation into a *Jan Andolan*, or a “peoples’ movement”. It aimed to mobilise communities and deal with barriers to seeking vaccines.

Nationally, coordination between health and 12 non-health ministries was facilitated by the Cabinet Secretariat. In the districts, participation was coordinated by the District Magistrate through a District Task Force. In subdistricts, direct interaction between field workers from health and other departments was facilitated.

IMI has contributed to a significant increase in fully immunised children in 190 selected districts in India. IMI showed that cross-sectoral participation can be effective in vaccinating children at the highest risk of infection. However, a number of systemic and practice-related changes, particularly with regards to the communications strategy, are needed for this approach to be even more effective. Overall, around 3.39 crore children and 87.18 lakh pregnant women received

Salient Features

- Immunisation activity will be in four rounds over 7 working days excluding the RI days, Sundays and holidays;
- Enhanced Immunisation session with flexible timing, mobile session and mobilisation by other departments;
- Enhanced focus on left outs, dropouts, and resistant families and hard to reach areas;
- Focus on urban, under-served population and tribal areas;
- Inter-ministerial and inter-departmental coordination;
- Enhance political, administrative and financial commitment, through advocacy;
- Intensified Mission Indradhanush Immunisation drive, consisting of 4 rounds of Immunisation will be conducted in the selected districts and urban cities between December 2019- March 2020;
- After the completion of the proposed 4 rounds, the States will be expected to undertake measures to sustain the gains from IMI, through activities like inclusion of IMI sessions in routine Immunisation plans. The sustainability of IMI will be assessed through a survey.

vaccination under all phases of the program, and effected a tremendous improvement in the quality of life of thousands of pregnant women and children.

Now the government is poised to launch Intensified Mission Indradhanush (IMI) 2.0 between December 2019–March 2020 to deliver a programme that is informed by the lessons learnt from the previous phases and seeks to escalate efforts to achieve the goal of attaining a 90% national immunisation coverage across India. The Programme will be delivered in 271 districts of 27 states and 652 blocks of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar among hard-to-reach and tribal populations. Several Ministries, including the Ministry of Women and Child Development, Panchayati Raj, Ministry of Housing & Urban Affairs, Ministry of Youth Affairs, among others, will come together to make the mission a resounding success and support the Central Government in ensuring the benefits of vaccines reach the last mile.

In order to mobilise the identified beneficiaries, there is intensive collaboration with other

Ministries/ Department/Agencies for working closely with the community, civil society and the youth. In addition, NGOs, CSOs, NSS, NCC, Nehru Yuva Kendra, and MSW will be involved as mobilisers. Development partners such as WHO, UNICEF, UNDP, IPE Global, Rotary International shall be supporting the government efforts, and Technical Support Units (TSUs) will be established in select states as per program needs.

With the launch of Intensified Mission Indradhanush 2.0, India has the opportunity to achieve further reductions in deaths among children under five years of age, and achieve the Sustainable Development Goal of ending preventable child deaths by 2030. By building on successes of the past, learning from challenges, and consolidating efforts across stakeholder groups, the country can fulfill its aim of attaining a disease-free India. Vaccines are a truly critical intervention in this journey, and are the key to safeguarding our present, and building a healthier tomorrow for our future generations. □

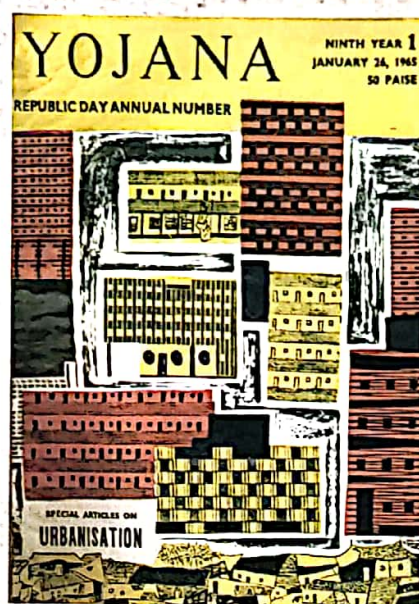
Source: Ministry of Health & Family Welfare, GoI

Cities, Suburbs, the Region and Hinterland

V Nath

Our cities are growing very fast; but does this reflect the economic growth of the regions to which they belong? This article published in the 26 January, 1965 issue of *Yojana* had raised the above question. Did they foresee it? Are we addressing it? In this 'Urbanisation' issue of the journal, we are revisiting this article to see how urban planning of today reflects these five-decade-old ideas and vision on the growth of cities and their hinterland.

Cities all over the world are expanding rapidly. As their populations keep on increasing, their territorial limits are also expanding, encroaching on areas of the countryside. This expansion of cities, which began in Europe after the Industrial Revolution, was greatly accelerated with the advent of the automobile which made suburban living possible, and has been further accelerated by economic growth in the two decades since World War II. In parts of western Europe, eastern U.S.A and Japan, the process has gone so far that large numbers of adjoining cities and towns are coalescing to form gigantic urban complexes and the distinction between urban and rural areas is being obliterated. All the earlier terms used for distinguishing a city from its surrounding rural area—city, metropolitan area, conurbation—have become obsolete and the new concept of megalopolis has been formulated to describe this new phenomenon. Indeed, if present trends continue, it is not unlikely that 'megalopolis' may emerge in some areas like coastal Gujarat (between Ahmedabad and Surat) or in north-east India between Dhanbad and Calcutta, where a number of adjoining cities and towns are experiencing rapid growth.



A major factor which contributes to the rapid growth of cities is the location of industries. Cities with their large markets and reservoirs of capital, entrepreneurial and technical skills, act as powerful magnets attracting industries, especially market-oriented consumer goods industries and those using the latest technology and materials (e.g., electronics, plastics) which have been growing very rapidly in recent years. This locational pull is specially strong in countries like India, in which cities have had a disproportionately large share in the growth of modern industry. However, since further concentration of industries

within city centres is undesirable, or is in some cases impossible, there is a growing tendency to locate industry on the urban periphery. This development is sought to be directed by those concerned with urban planning, by developing industrial areas outside the cities or by encouraging growth of satellite industrial townships. The development of industrial areas in the Thana-Kalyan region outside Bombay city and of industrial townships like Faridabad, Shahdara and Ghaziabad around Delhi, are examples of such direction.

One result of the demographic and physical growth of cities is that city planning is increasingly becoming regional planning, with its chief concern changing from policies of location of particular institutions or facilities within a city to a clearer definition of the pattern of land use and functional relationships within a metropolitan region. Secondly, as cities are getting more closely linked with the regions in which they are situated—through transport and communications and diverse economic relations—much greater attention has begun to be given in city planning to analysing developments within the regions. These trends are reflected in plan policies for the large Indian cities. In the master

Dr. V. Nath was a renowned development economist and former IAS, who had worked extensively in Planning Commission, Census of India and the United Nations.

plan for Delhi, for instance, the unit of planning was the entire area of Delhi State, consisting of the cities of Delhi and New Delhi, the town of Shahdara, and a large rural area. Further, the plan gave considerable attention to the relation between growth of the city and its surrounding (peripheral) region in Punjab and UP. It took into account the developments which were taking place in this region (e.g., ribbon development along the main roads) and made a number of recommendations for directing this development. Its most important recommendation related to development of the satellite towns are mentioned above. The relation of Delhi with its hinterland in the north-western parts of India was also examined in the plan.

Plans for City and Suburban Areas

In the proposed plan for Calcutta now being worked out, the unit of planning is not the city of Calcutta, but the Calcutta Metropolitan District—an area of about 450 square miles comprising the area of the corporations of Calcutta and Howrah, about 35 municipalities and a large number of villages. The Bombay Corporation has recently drawn up a plan for the Greater Bombay Area including Bombay city proper and a large suburban and semi-urban area, totalling about 170 square miles. In addition, the Maharashtra Government has initiated action on formulating a regional plan for a much larger area of about 1,250 square miles, which includes large parts of Thana district besides the Greater Bombay Area.

The Metropolitan Region

The 'region' adopted as the unit of physical planning in these cases may be called the 'metropolitan region'. It consists of the city proper and surrounding suburbs and rural areas. The city is already expanding into its suburbs and will expand more in the future because of the compulsive demands of growth, requiring land for housing, industries, various social services, transport, and

communications and recreational facilities. Demarcation of the "metropolitan region" is the first step in drawing up the physical plan for a city. A major object of the plan is control of land use, i.e., allocation of land for various urban uses. The plan decides the pattern of location of economic activity within the metropolitan region and influences its functioning as an economic and social unit mainly through control of land use.

The Role of a Peripheral Region in Urban Development

In addition to the metropolitan region, it is useful to distinguish for purposes of city planning two other regions—the peripheral region and the hinterland. The peripheral region is the area beyond the metropolitan region. It is essentially rural or semi-urban in character but is strongly affected by the economic and social influences emanating from the city. Its economic life is closely connected with that of the city because employment in industries or service institutions, located within the metropolitan region, is a major source of economic activity for its people. Agriculture and allied vocations in the region are directed towards supplying milk, vegetables, meat, poultry, and other perishable farm products needed by the city. The attitudes and values of the people of the region are also affected more by urban influences than those of rural people farther away from the city. The boundaries of the peripheral region are not well defined. At the inner margin, they are subject to change through periodic invasion by industries and service facilities—roads, rail or air terminals. In time, this inner part of the region may be absorbed by the expanding metropolis. Where a number of rapidly expanding cities and towns are located close to one another, their peripheral regions may eventually join to form part of a 'megalopolis'.

But a clearly defined concept of the peripheral region is essential for

city planning, because it distinguishes an area outside the metropolitan region but, all the same, deeply affected by urban influences. Trends in land use within its peripheral region are of considerable importance for the future growth of a city. These should be closely watched and directed to the extent necessary. The need for location of industries in the peripheral region, in order to prevent concentration within the city area, is one reason which may make such direction necessary. For instance, the regional planning work for the area outside Greater Bombay, recently initiated by the Maharashtra Government, is a reflection primarily of this need. Demands for land for various other non-agricultural uses also increase within the peripheral region as the city grows and the metropolitan region gets filled up. Ribbon development along the main roads and railway lines, haphazard growth of industry or location of noxious industries which will be difficult to shift later, destruction of large areas of productive land by brick kilns, lands being bought up for speculative purposes, are some of the dangers of unplanned land use in the peripheral region.

Planning of land use in the region is beneficial for another reason also. Parts of the region afford exceptionally good opportunities for intensive agricultural development directed towards producing perishables of high value for the city market. This development will lead to higher rural incomes and levels of living and will make these products available to the people of the city at lower costs. It is therefore essential that large areas of land are not unnecessarily taken out of agricultural use.

The Concept of Hinterland

The hinterland is the region for which the city acts as a service centre rendering various commercial, administrative and other services. Bombay, for instance, is the major port and commercial centre for

Western India, including the whole of Maharashtra and Gujarat and parts of Mysore, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. Similarly, Delhi is the commercial and service centre of North-West India. An analysis of trends in economic development within its hinterland should form part of planning for every city, because this analysis would indicate the demands likely to be placed on the city in future. Large increases in agricultural, industrial or mineral production in the hinterland of a city like Bombay will increase the demands on its port and on the roads and railways leading to it. They will also mean larger demands on its banking, insurance and other services. These demands will be greater if industrial expansion depends upon use of imported fuels like petroleum or visualises large exports.

Small Towns are 'Tributaries' of Metropolitan Cities

A large metropolitan city is linked with its hinterland through a number of smaller cities and towns. The links between the large city and these smaller urban centres are similar to those of a river with its tributaries and smaller rivulets. Most towns in Western India have this kind of relationship with Bombay. Each, in turn, has its own tributary and sub-tributary towns reaching down to small towns which serve a group of villages. The economic and social influences of the large city percolate to the hinterland through these smaller cities and towns, and on that account its role as a base of services for the hinterland becomes real and meaningful. Industrial development undertaken in towns which are found suitable for it will help reduce pressure for industrial location in or near the metropolitan city. Expansion of educational, cultural and other service facilities in the hinterland would similarly reduce pressure on the facilities available in the city. Both these developments are being currently advocated by some to relieve the pressure on large cities like Calcutta and Bombay.

Cities and Towns as Service Centres

The "service" role of an urban centre for its surrounding area becomes most obvious in the case of small towns. The growth of these towns is intimately linked with economic growth in the rural areas served by them. Further, they are themselves major instruments of rural growth because they are the foci of modernisation. People from the villages go to them for commercial, administrative, educational or health services. New ideas, processes and techniques radiate from them into the villages. Such towns may well be called 'rural service centres'. They have a growing importance in the economic and social life in the countryside. The latter are using the service facilities located in them far more than they did 10 or 20 years ago and they will use them even more in future, as education spreads among them, modern health services are accepted more widely and agriculture becomes more commercialised. Technological change in agriculture will also be a powerful factor in making the service roles of these towns more important, because the various facilities needed for accomplishing such change—distribution points for chemical fertilisers, pesticides, cement and diesel oil, workshops and facilities for servicing of agricultural implements etc., cannot be located in every village and must be confined to small towns or large villages. Agricultural processing industries and other industries specifically related to agriculture (e.g., manufacture of agricultural implements) have similarly to be located in such towns because of advantages of transport, availability of skilled workers, etc. The more specialised services rendered by the larger towns like district and divisional headquarters and large *mandis* will also be used more and more by the people in the villages as their economic and social levels rise. An increasing number among them would wish to go to

colleges or universities, for instance, and to use the specialised facilities provided by a large hospital.

It is important that this service role of small and medium-sized towns is adequately appreciated and provided for in their development plan. It will also be an advantage to establish suitable relationships between municipal bodies which are concerned with planning for these towns, and the panchayati raj institutions which have the responsibility for planning in rural areas. This relationship can be best established at the district level. The provision for association of municipalities with the Zilla Parishads, which has already been made in some States, is a recognition of this need. But there is need for further progress in this direction.

The regional approach will have to be given an increasingly important place in urban planning in future. The unit of long-term physical planning for a city or town should not be the area included within its municipal limits but the larger, metropolitan region. The relation of the city with its peripheral and hinterland regions should be adequately visualised and provided for in its plan. This is essential for direction of economic growth in the peripheral region and achieving a better balance between growth within the city and its hinterland. In areas where large, expanding cities and towns are located close to one another, it will be an advantage to draw up a plan for the entire region, in addition to plans for individual cities. This regional plan may be less detailed and more flexible than the plans for individual cities; but it should visualise the general direction of development of the area and the interaction of the different cities within it. The service role of the small and medium sized towns for their surrounding rural areas should be adequately recognised. This recognition is important for both urban and rural progress because these towns are the foci of modernisation in rural India. □

Developing Natural Forest Cover: A Case Study from Yadadri, Telangana

G Chandrashekar Reddy

With pollution becoming a seasonal nightmare across a large part of India, our cities need additional lungs in the form of green covers. The State of Telangana has taken such an initiative using technology and planning to leave greener footprints for the future generations through natural forest restoration.

A systematic approach of forest management to sustain the ecological balance and stability of the forest is gaining momentum in India. Innovative reforestation approaches are explored to increase the forest cover and climate amelioration. So far, no significant scientific study on natural forest restoration has been taken up due to diverse climatic condition and soil profile in India.

With the enthusiasm generated across all sections of the society to plant and protect the saplings planted under 'Telanganaku Haritha haram,' a flagship programme of the State to create an entire forest instead of mere plantation. It is also thought that forests that have been cleared in diversion cases can be compensated by creating forests instead of plantation. This leads to exploration of the principles of Professor Akira Miyawaki, a well known Japanese botanist, plant ecologist and expert in restoration of natural vegetation on degraded land. He invented the Miyawaki restoration technique to protect the lowland areas against natural calamities like tsunami. The

basic principle of Miyawaki is to initiate high density plantation in small piece of land with native tree species that can protect the low-lying areas from natural disaster.

A method of developing a natural forest in the degraded forest areas is developed in a cost effective manner and is known as Yadadri Natural Forest (YNF) Establishment Model. The principles of Miyawaki method and local practices and local materials are utilised in developing this model.

Miyawaki Principles of Natural Forest:

- No defined spacing between plants;
- Soil enrichment must be done before taking up plantation;
- High density planting of herbs, shrubs and tree species up to 10000 plants per hectare;
- Further supplementation of site by seed dibbling of native species;
- Watering should be done at least up to next rainy season after planting;



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- Mulching should be done after planting to suppress weed and prevent evaporation;
- No existing tree in the area should be removed while doing soil enrichment;
- Watering is to be done with tankers and pipe sprinkling instead of flood irrigation;
- Periodical weeding is to be done till the end of next rainy season after planting;
- Huge crown developing tree species like Ficus should be avoided;
- Seedlings or saplings of all sizes can be planted to give the plantation a 3-tier look of a natural forest;
- Analysis of soil properties done in advance so as to choose the best soil enrichment practices; and
- Except weeds no other naturally grown species shall be removed from the plots.

Miyawaki Principles are applied in this model for the accomplishment of the goal of creating a man-made forest. The methodology adopted is described here from the systematically documented record of the previous year's plantation and the results. It is also been witnessed by apex-level Government officials and scientists from different institutes. Hence, the successful YNF model can be a revolutionary intervention towards increasing the greenery, climate amelioration and wasteland

development. Establishment cost of the YNF model is arrived at Rs. 2 lakh/acre or Rs. 5 lakh/hectare.

Methodology

The basic principle behind the YNF model is high-density plantation in small areas. There is no defined spacing between the plants and required number of plants per hectare may go up to 10000. Success of the model depends on various sequences of events, like site selection, site development, soil nutrient enrichment, species selection, pits dimension, planting pattern, usage of organic bio-fertilisers and post-planting management including irrigation schedule.

▪ Site demarcation and clearance

It is necessary to demarcate the area and clear the site of existing unwanted vegetation (except trees). The quantification of biomass and saplings requirement of the area is calculated based on the site demarcation.

▪ Soil testing and site enrichment

To ensure long-term sustainable growth, soil testing and soil enrichment and soil amendments are very important, specially to support high density planting during the establishment years. Site enrichment is done through the following steps:

- A total of one acre area is to be dug up to the depth of 30 cm and the soil is to be kept on all four sides.
- The dug up area has to be

ploughed to the depth of 10 cm in a criss-cross manner.

- Dry and/or green leaves and grass of around four tons is to be used to cover the ploughed area at the thickness of 5 cm.

Next, the area is to be covered with the soil which was kept aside up to a thickness of 10 cm and the total area is to be watered for three days to promote the decaying of the dried leaves and grass.

Two tons of vermicompost with earthworms and around 4 tons of Farmyard Manure (FYM) are to be spread over the area.

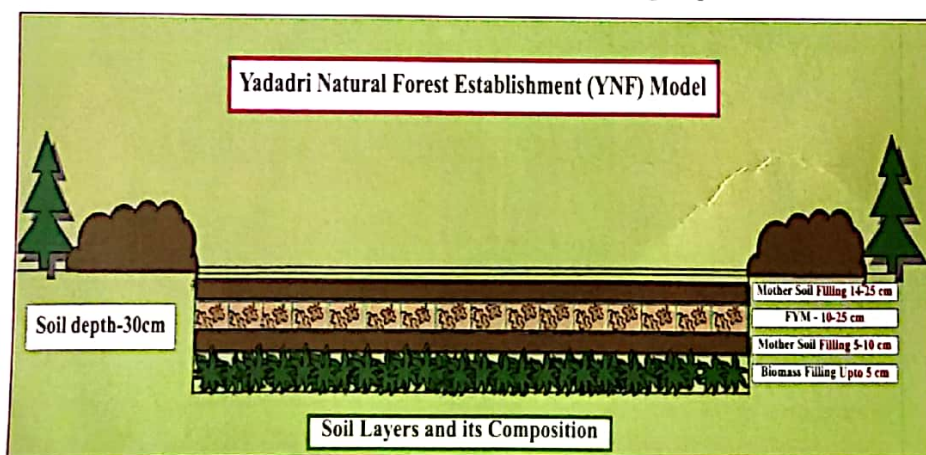
- The entire area is then covered with soil as top layer with the soil which was kept aside.
- A small bund is formed with the left over soil on all the four sides.
- After covering the area with the soil the entire area is watered for three days continuously.
- After 3 weeks, this one acre area is ploughed completely.
- Pits measuring 30 cu cm are used for planting saplings. Small seedlings are planted by scooping the soil.

Other Methods for Soil Enrichment

First method: Community lands

Cattle/Goats/Sheep are kept during nights for at least 3 months during summer months (March to May) to cover the entire area with cattle dung and urine that will enrich the soil. Local farmers are offered financial support for keeping the cattle to enrich the soil fertility in this process.

- During the first rains in the month of June, plots are ploughed and green manure seeds are sown. After 2 months, the plot is ploughed again.
- To take up plantation in 30-cu cm pits.
- For mulching, instead of using rice stubble, young



branches of Neem/Glicidia (*Gliricidiasepium*) can be used as they retain soil moisture and improve the soil fertility.

Second method: In the reserved forest areas/protected areas

- a) Identify the degraded forest areas/forest restoration areas and start with soil plugging.
- b) Use agricultural/crop waste and add domesticated animal dung for decomposing. The waste will improve the soil fertility.
- c) Sow the green manure crop during first rains and plough it back after 2 months.
- d) Planting is to be done in 30-cu cm pits.
- e) For mulching instead of rice stubble Neem or Glicidia (*Gliricidiasepium*) young branches may be utilised.

Third method: Development of forest in urban areas

- a) Identify the degraded habitats/ forest restoration areas and go for soil ploughing.
- b) Use leaf litter in large quantities collected from the institutions, vegetable waste from the weekly markets/*rithubazarrs* (farmers' market), lawn grass waste etc. for enriching the soil. Decomposers like earthworms are then used for decomposing the waste. This way, burning of waste can be avoided.
- c) After another ploughing planting is to be done in 30-cu cm pits.
- d) For mulching Neem/Glicidia (*Gliricidiasepium*) young branches will be utilised.

▪ **Selection of native species**

The quality of the plants used and selection of species are vital. For better survival percentage, native species are to be chosen after conducting detailed study on the local areas. The species with straight bole and medium canopy are preferred.



Sapling requirement for one acre of land and pattern of planting are given below:

- i. Seedlings or saplings of all sizes can be planted to give the plantation a 3-tier look of a natural forest;
- ii. 4000 seedlings of various sizes of 20 different species are planted in one acre;
- iii. Huge crown developing tree species like Ficus can be avoided;
- iv. Deciduous species and evergreen species can be planted scattered evenly all over the area;
- v. After completion of the planting the dry grass is to be spread on top soil for mulching.

▪ **Irrigation schedule**

Watering with tankers and pipe sprinklers is to be done instead of flood irrigation.

▪ **Post-planting management**

Periodical weeding has to be done till the end of next rainy season and saplings are to be protected from browsing and grazing animals. It can be with a fencing or watch and ward. Trench can be avoided as it draws all nutrients by seepage.

Outcomes

- ♦ Higher biodiversity compared to plantation in a unit area;
- ♦ It can be a home for wildlife like butterflies, squirrels, birds, reptiles, etc. within one year;
- ♦ Natural forest look with multilayered evergreen trees;
- ♦ More carbon fixing per unit area and
- ♦ Self-sustainable forests.

Possible Areas for Implementation

- ♦ Areas with less than 0.1 density class areas in natural forests;
- ♦ It serves as a vegetative measure for soil and water conservation due to its high density of plants and thick root system;
- ♦ Cost effective measures of water harvesting and a permanent asset than a cement concrete structures like check dam and percolation tank which require periodical maintenance;
- ♦ Every year 10 Ha natural forest can be created in every village with one lakh plants. It is an opportunity to develop a natural capital of 50 Ha with 5 lakh plants over a period of 5 years in every village. □



Addressing Stubble Burning with Cooperative Model

S S Chhina

Pollution by stubble burning has become an annual phenomenon in large parts of northern India. Rice-growing States including Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, and Delhi add to the problem of stubble burning. Managing the stubble becomes a constraint for the farmers because of the adopted cropping pattern. The only reason to burn this asset that can yield income and fertility to the soil is the small gap of time between harvesting of paddy and sowing of wheat, the other main crop. Also, the farmers have limited access to dispose the straw, clean the land and prepare the seed bed for wheat well in time.

But looking at the whole issue, one can easily understand increase in the area under cultivation of paddy in Punjab was not a reckless affair and it helped solve food shortage in the country. Rice was not a traditional crop of Punjab; but with increased availability of electricity, the number of tube wells increased, which in turn increased the areas for cultivation of paddy replacing the areas under cultivation of pulses and other commercial crops in the kharif season. Punjab had been contributing about 60 per cent of the share in the food stocks of paddy even with only 1.5 per cent of the area. Apart from burning of paddy straw, the State has other problems like overuse of chemicals, depletion in the water table, etc.

Disposing the paddy straw is not a problem that has no solution; rather, it is simple and remunerative and must be adopted at the earliest. Farmers of Punjab are known for their ability, initiatives and entrepreneurial spirits. They would immediately adopt anything that is remunerative, but sometimes the encouragement and sponsorship of the State become imperative. The Minimum Support Price (MSP) was provided to paddy along with its marketing assurance by State procurement. There are only two crops, wheat and paddy, that

have assured marketing through State procurement. But for 23 other crops for which MSP is announced, State procurement is not assured. Reduction of the sizeable area under paddy would not be a feasible alternative in order to ensure enough food stock. Therefore, the issue of straw burning has to be settled through other measures like manufacturing of paper and cardboard, production of mushroom where paddy straw can be used as raw material, etc. But there is scepticism that an individual farmer may not install such a unit irrespective



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of the size of the farm he is holding. Also, a single unit even of the largest size cannot be economical because the straw is spread throughout the area and transportation to a single point would be a big constraint. Therefore, the cooperative model already experienced in the dairy is the most viable and prudent option in addressing this problem. There is a need of at least two cardboard and paper manufacturing units in every block. A cooperative society in the area with the membership of local farmers and farm labourers can be formed and such units must be affiliated to the apex body of the State federation of cooperative for rice straw management. The Cooperative Department is already in the field to sponsor and help cooperative ventures. Such patronisation can yield the most desirable results not only to tackle this problem but also to generate income and employment in the State.

Production of bio-gas needs technical help and extension services. The cooperative umbrella of the same pattern can however help the farmers

and farm labourers throughout the State in this venture.

Dr. G.S. Bhalla, renowned economist, in his study had concluded that a holding with less than 10 acre is unable to provide the sufficient income to maintain their moderate standard of living but in Punjab 89% of the farmers have their holding less than this size. These farmers are therefore unable to take any risk either of volatile price or of marketing. In case of rice, price and marketing is assured. The same assurance has to be granted for the alternative crops to increase the area of cultivation under them.

Basmati is a variety of rice that is grown on the river banks, India and Pakistan being its major producers. It is much demanded in the Middle East, European and America. The supply cannot fulfil the demand of foreign orders. Punjab cannot discard this single much paying export crop, albeit it involves the problem of stubble burning. Basmati is the single crop that is exported worth about Rs 2688 million (Raj Kumar and Singh 2019)

in the year 2017-18, where Punjab is a main contributor.

Stubble burning has to be stopped. But looking into the real problem at micro as well as macro level concerned with food security and concerns of the farm community at large, it should be dealt sympathetically with the alternative measures, and cooperative model stands out to be the most appropriate approach to address this problem, which is more viable and sustainable. Small-scale farmers would be satisfied with less but assured income than to drift towards commercial crops irrespective of their profit that have any risk of fluctuating price and yield. □

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Consumer Protection Act, 2019: A New Milestone in Empowering Consumers

Sheetal Kapoor

National Consumer Day is observed on 24 December every year. This day highlights the importance of the consumer movement and the need to make consumers more aware of their rights and responsibilities. The article elucidates on the new Consumer Protection Act 2019 which deals specifically with the new-age marketplace issues thus ensuring effective resolution of disputes.

The Indian consumer market has gone through a drastic change over the last two decades with the advent of digital technologies internet, rapid penetration of e-commerce, smart phones, and cloud technologies. The Consumer Protection Act (CPA), 1986 being the foremost legislature for protecting the rights of the consumers had become archaic and does not cover rapid changes in the consumer marketplaces, especially those dealing with online shopping, teleshopping, product recall, unsafe contracts, and misleading advertisements. Therefore, it was felt to replace it with the Consumer Protection Act, 2019.

Justice delayed is justice denied

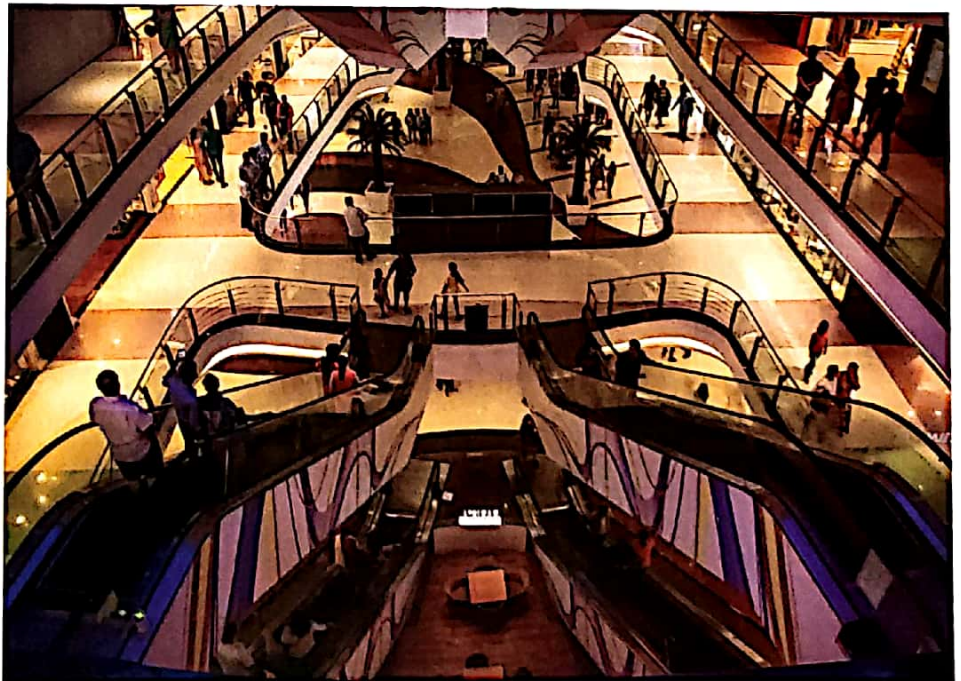
With the growing number of pending cases in the consumer courts and huge delays in providing speedy justice to the consumers for petty amounts, the need of the hour was to bring in a new legislature to empower the consumers. The Consumer Protection Act, 2019 (No. 35 of 2019) was passed by the Parliament and received the assent of the President on 9 August, 2019 and provides for the

protection of consumers and fast-track alternatives so that justice reaches to the aggrieved consumers immediately. The new Act repeals and replaces the older CPA, 1986 and provides mechanisms for making the consumer complaint system more robust. It envisages to remove anomalies and problems faced by the consumers. Innovative methods such as mediation, establishment of Central Consumer Protection Authority, class action suits

etc. would be part of the Consumer Protection Act, 2019. Since the rules of the New Consumer Protection Act, 2019 are yet to be framed and implemented it is time to look at what the new Act would deliver and draw a comparison with CPA, 1986.

Shortcomings in the CPA, 1986

After 33 years of enactment of the CPA, 1986 it is time to revisit its objectives and organisational structure



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and enlist its shortcomings in the present era. In 1986, when the CPA was enacted, a key milestone in consumer advocacy was achieved in India, which provided a legislative framework for better protection of the interests of the consumer by creating a formal but three-tier quasi-judicial dispute resolution mechanism at National, State, and District levels exclusively for consumers. The Consumer Courts were established with the twin objective for speedy redressal of consumer complaints and establish quasi-judicial authorities unlike civil courts to provide compensation to the consumers. But over the years there have been heavy pendency of cases in various consumer courts. Some of the lacuna of the CPA, 1986 are

- a) The CPA, 1986 has become outdated and does not consider rapid changes in consumer marketplaces. Section 13 (3A) of CPA, 1986 states that "every complaint shall be heard expeditiously as possible and endeavour made to dispose of complaint within a period of three months from the date of notice by the opposite party and five months if it requires testing of commodities." But it is seen that due to heavy pendency of cases and frequent adjournments delay in getting justice takes place.
- b) The consumer commissions have been overburdened with pending cases and the buyer-seller contract is tilted in favour of the seller. Further, the procedures are becoming expensive and time consuming.

After 33 years of enactment of the Consumer Protection Act, 1986 It is time to revisit its objectives and organisational structure and enlist its shortcomings in the present era. The Consumer Protection Act, 2019 was passed by the Parliament and received the assent of the President on 9 August, 2019. It aims at protection of consumers and fast-track alternatives so that justice reaches to the aggrieved consumers immediately.

- c) The presidents and members of the consumer courts constitute the backbone of the consumer dispute redressal system. They play a major role in establishing the faith of the consumers in the redressal mechanism. But it has been seen that there are more than 400 posts of President and members in various consumer forums which are lying vacant. The State Governments show less interest in immediately filling up the vacant posts and the issue of consumer protection is not always at the top of any political parties' agenda.
- d) Consumer commissions are functioning with staff deputed from other departments who do not have any experience in judicial practices. It is necessary

to provide intensive training to the members of the Consumer courts before putting them on the job. The present practice is to provide training after assuming charge as a member.

- e) Many times, it is seen that the award ordered by consumer commissions is very meagre and the consumer has to run from pillar to post to get the orders implemented.
- f) There has been lack of proper coordination among the President and members of the consumer commissions for timely adjudication of cases and quite often around ten or fifteen adjournments are allowed.
- g) The President of the National Commission/State Commissions are not empowered to take up suo motu action in consideration of the damages affecting a sizable number of population, e.g., misleading advertisements.

Analysis of the cases disposed by Consumer Courts

According to the data available from the Department of Consumer Affairs (Table 1), more than 4.3 lakh cases are pending in the various consumer courts, which is an alarming figure. When the consumer courts were formed, the main purpose was to provide inexpensive and speedy redressal to consumers, where a consumer could itself plead her/his case in the consumer courts. Since the law was complex in nature, many consumers started hiring lawyers and there were frequent adjournments by

Table 1: Total Number of Cases Disposed by Consumer Forums since Inception (Updated on 5.7.2018)

Sl. No.	Name of the Agency	Cases filed since inception	Cases disposed of since inception	Cases pending	% of total disposal
1	National Commission	122042	103520	18522	84.82%
2	State Commissions	788463	678124	110339	86.01%
3	District Forums	3903706	3605673	298033	92.37%
	TOTAL	4814211	4387317	426894	91.13%

Source: www.ncdr.nic.in



the consumer courts which started delaying the entire adjudicatory process.

Analysis of data regarding number of cases disposed by consumer courts shows that the performance of District Consumer Forums was better as 92.37% cases were disposed of.

Consumer Protection Act, 2019

The objective of the Act is to provide for protection of the interests of consumers and to establish authorities for timely and effective administration and settlement of consumers' disputes.

Some of the highlights of the Consumer Protection Act, 2019 are

- a) The definition of 'Consumer' would include both offline and online consumers. The expressions "buys any goods" and "hires or avails any services" would include offline or online transactions through electronic means or by teleshopping or direct selling or multi-level marketing.
- b) Establishment of the **Central Consumer Protection Authority (CCPA)** to promote, protect and enforce the rights of consumers, to investigate and intervene when necessary to prevent consumer detriment arising from unfair trade practices, and to initiate class action including enforcing recall, refund and return of products. Thus CCPA can act on:
 - i. complaints of unfair trade practices,
 - ii. issue safety guidelines,

- iii. order product recall or discontinuation of services,
- iv. refer complaints to other regulators,
- v. has punitive powers such as imposing penalties,
- vi. can file actions before consumer commissions, and
- vii. Intervene in proceeding in matters of consumer rights or unfair trade practices.

The Central Authority will have an Investigation Wing headed by a Director-General for the purpose of conducting inquiry or investigation under the Act. For false and misleading advertisements CCPA may issue a penalty up to 10 lakh on a manufacturer and endorser and includes online marketing. For a subsequent offence, the fine may extend to Rs. 50 lakh. For every subsequent offence, the period of prohibition may extend to three years. However, there are certain exceptions when an endorser will not be held liable for such a penalty. The CCPA has the authority to direct the removal of a misleading advertisement.

- c) The pecuniary jurisdiction of adjudicatory bodies increased in case of District Commission to Rs. 1 crore, in case of State Commission between 1 crore to 10 crore, and for National Commission, above Rs 10 crore. Further simplification of procedure for filing of complaints

In the Consumer Protection Act, 2019, the definition of 'Consumer' would include both offline and online consumers.

The expressions "buys any goods" and "hires or avails any services" would include offline or online transactions through electronic means or by teleshopping or direct selling or multi-level marketing.

and online filing of complaints has also been envisaged.

- d) The Bill also lists punitive actions against those who are found to be manufacturing, storing, distributing, selling, or importing products that are spurious or contain adulterants.
- e) Provisions for "product liability" action for or on account of harm caused by or resulting from any product by way of fixing the liability of a manufacturer to a claimant.
- f) Provision for "mediation" as an Alternate Dispute resolution (ADR) mechanism which aims at giving legislative basis to resolution of consumer disputes through mediation, thus making the process less cumbersome, simple, and quicker. This will be done under the aegis of the consumer fora.
- g) Several provisions aimed at simplifying the consumer dispute adjudication process in the consumer fora are envisaged. These include, among others, enhancing the pecuniary jurisdiction of the consumer disputes redressal agencies, increasing minimum number of members in the consumer fora to facilitate quick disposal of complaints, power to review their own orders by the State and district commission, constitution of 'circuit bench' to facilitate quicker disposal of complaints, reforming the process for the appointment of the President and members of the district fora, enabling provisions for consumers to file complaints electronically and file complaints in consumer fora that have jurisdiction over the place of residence of the complainant, and deemed admissibility of complaints if the question of admissibility is not decided within the specified period of 21 days.
- h) E-commerce guidelines would be mandatory under consumer

protection law which would include 14-day deadline to effect refund request. It would mandate e-tailers to display details of sellers supplying goods and services on their websites and moot the procedure to resolve consumer complaints. The e-commerce companies would also be required to ensure that personally identifiable information of customers are protected. Terms of contract between e-Commerce entity and the seller relating to return, refund, exchange, warranty/guarantee, delivery/shipment, mode of payments, grievance redressal mechanism etc. to be displayed to enable consumers to make informed decisions.

There are huge challenges faced by online buyers such as breach of data privacy and security, substandard and duplicate products, phishing, territorial jurisdiction. In case of misleading advertisements, especially digital, the consumer courts or the Consumer Protection Councils at Centre, State, and District level, till now do not have suo motu powers. Only when somebody complains in the consumer forums, action is being taken and also the compensation is given to only the aggrieved consumer who files a case in the consumer court. CCPA

would function on the same lines as the Federal Trade Commission in the USA and investigate into consumer complaints, issue safety notices for goods and services, and pass orders for recall of goods and work against misleading advertisements. Under the CPA, 1986 Central Government or State Governments are empowered to file a legal case against manufacturers if they come across defective products, deficiency in service, unfair trade practice, or a restrictive trade practice. But till date we have found that hardly any case has been filed by the Government suo motu.

Since the adjudication process in consumer courts is slow, setting up of mediation centres at District, State and National Commissions annexed to the consumer courts can play an important role in delivering justice.

Clauses 74-80 in the Consumer Protection Act, 2019 contain provisions for "Mediation" as an Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanism. It aims to provide legislative basis to resolution of consumer disputes through mediation thus making the process less cumbersome, simple, and quicker. The mediation centres would work under the aegis of the Consumer Commissions, and the State Government and the Central Government would decide the composition of the mediation cell.

Section 74 of the New Consumer Protection Act mentions that the State Government would establish a consumer mediation cell which would be attached to the consumer courts and each of the regional benches. Every consumer mediation cell would submit a quarterly report to the District Commission, State Commission, or the National Commission to which it would be attached. Thus, every consumer mediation cell would maintain:

- a. a list of empanelled mediators;
- b. a list of cases handled by the cell;
- c. record of proceeding; and
- d. any other information as may be specified by regulations.

The tenure of the panel of mediators would be valid for a period of five years, and the empanelled mediators shall be eligible to be considered for re-empanelment for another term, subject to such conditions as may be specified by regulations. The mediation shall be held in the consumer mediation cell attached to the various consumer Courts (Clause 75).

The Consumer Protection Act, 2019, with its innovative changes, would help in empowering consumers and provide justice to the needy in time. □

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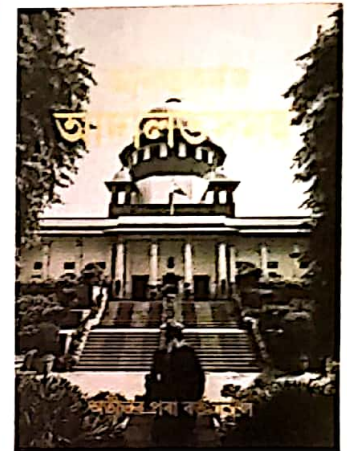


Assamese version of the book 'Courts of India: Past to Present' released



The Chief Justice of India Justice Ranjan Gogoi released the Assamese version of the book 'Courts of India: Past to Present' in Guwahati on 10 November, 2019. The book is a compilation of glimpses into the rich and complex history of the courts and judicial institutions of India. Releasing the book published by the Publications Division, Justice Gogoi termed it as the architecture of justice. He said, the book fabulously explains the Indian justice system.

Justice Gogoi also emphasised that the law students should go through the book. The Chief Minister of Assam, Sarbananda Sonowal, Chief Justice of India designate Sharad Arvind Bobde along with other dignitaries also attended the event. Addressing the gathering, Shri Sonowal said that the book will be provided to all government libraries in Assam. In his address, Justice Bobde termed the book as one of the finest compilations. Justice Bobde said, he is looking forward to see the book get translated in other languages too.



The event was also attended by the Principal Director General of All India Radio News and Publications Division Ira Joshi. The book earlier released in English has captured the historical developments which took place in the history of nation's courts.

Source: AIR, reported on 10 November, 2019

DO YOU KNOW?

New Chief Justice of India: Justice Sharad Arvind Bobde

At a ceremony held on 18 November, 2019 at the Durbar Hall, Rashtrapati Bhavan, Justice Sharad Arvind Bobde was sworn in as the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of India. He made and subscribed to the oath of office before the President.

Shri Justice Sharad Arvind Bobde has been a Judge of the Supreme Court since 12 April, 2013. Earlier he served as the Chief Justice of the Madhya Pradesh High Court for about six months since 16 October, 2012. He has also been an Additional Judge of the Bombay High Court from 29 March, 2000 and a Permanent Judge from 28 March, 2002.



Shri Justice Bobde, born on 24 April, 1956, was enrolled as an Advocate on 13 September, 1978. He started his practice at the High Court Bench at Nagpur and the District Court at Nagpur and occasionally at the High Court at Bombay and the Supreme Court of India in civil, constitutional, labour, company, election, and taxation matters.

Sources: www.nalsa.gov.in, Press Information Bureau accessed on 15 November, 2019.

21st North East Book Fair

The Publications Division participated in 21st North East Book Fair, 2019, organised by All Assam Publishers and Book Sellers' Association from 1-12 November 2019. This fair was inaugurated by Hon'ble Vice President in the presence of Assam Governor and Chief Minister. The Principal Director General, Publications Division and AIR News, Ira Joshi also visited the stall and congratulated the organiser for promoting art, culture and tradition of Assam through books.



Source: AIR, reported on 8 November, 2019

About Our Books



Guru Nanak

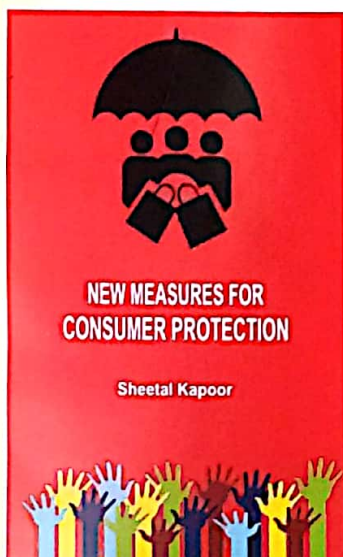
Author / Compiler – Publications Division

Founder of Sikhism, one of the youngest religions, Guru Nanak became the first Sikh Guru and his spiritual teachings laid the foundation on which Sikhism was formed. Revered as a religious innovator, Nanak travelled across South Asia and Middle East to spread his teachings. He advocated the existence of one God and taught his followers that every human being can reach out to God through meditation and other pious practices. Interestingly, he did not support monasticism and asked his followers to lead the life of honest householder.

This compilation was first brought out to commemorate the 500 years of Guru Nanak's birth and this revised edition is a tribute on his 550 birth anniversary.

ISBN- 978-81-230-3221-4, PDBN- CLI-ENG-REP-102-2019-20

Price: Rs. 185



New Measures for Consumer Protection

Author – Dr. Sheetal Kapoor

Consumerism is one of the important aspects of business or economy as it is related to a theory which helps in boosting up the consumption of goods and services among the pool of buyers and users. It is the protection of the rights and interests of this group. This book attempts to promote and protect the rights of consumers in times of consumerism and various other policies adopted in India and abroad. It will help consumers to make informed choices while preventing exploitation and illicit practices of suppliers. The book aims to facilitate consumer awareness and speedy redressal of the grievances, thereby safeguarding their rights and interests. Dr. Sheetal Kapoor, the author, teaches in Kamala Nehru College, University of Delhi.

ISBN- 978-81-230-3212-4, PDBN- SS-ENG-OP-099-2019-20

Price: Rs. 270