

MAR GREGORIOS COLLEGE OF ARTS & SCIENCE

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Affiliated to the University of Madras
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PG DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

SUBJECT NAME: URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

SUBJECT CODE: HAWBB

SEMESTER: III

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Objectives

- To enable students to gain an understanding about the urban poor.
- To develop sensitivity and commitment for working with the urban poor.
- To provide knowledge on various developmental efforts.
- To expose students to skills and techniques of working with urban poor.

Unit 1

Basic Concepts: Concept of Urban, Urban Development, Urban Community Development, Urbanization. Urbanism, Differences between urban development and Urban Community Development. Principles and Approaches of UCD.

Unit 2

Slum: Definition, characteristics, types, causes and consequences of growth of slums. Theory of slums, Power structure of Slums. The Tamil Nadu Slum Areas (Slum Clearance and Improvement) Act, 1971 – Policies, structure and functions of the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance. Problems of slum dwellers, squatter settlement dwellers, street children. – programmes for the development of slum dwellers. Critical analysis of the Programmes and approaches.

Unit 3

Urban Community Development in India: Delhi and Hyderabad projects – Urban Community Development in Tamil Nadu – MUDP and TNUDP
Governmental agencies in Urban Community Development – structure and functions of the Tamil Nadu Housing Board, HUDCO, Corporation of Chennai, CMDA – Non-Governmental agencies in Urban Community Development.

Unit 4

People's participation in Urban Community Development: concept of involvement – importance and scope of people's participation – factors hindering promoting people's participation.

Unit 5

Conscientization – goal settings; identifying and developing leadership, resource mobilization; human resource development resolving group conflicts, programme planning and service delivery, eliciting people's participation, monitoring and evaluation.

Urban Community Development

Unit I

Concept of Urban

For the Census of India 2011, the definition of urban area is as follows;

1. All places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.
2. All other places which satisfied the following criteria:
 1. A minimum population of 5,000;
 2. At least 75 per cent of the male main working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits; and
 3. A density of population of at least 400 persons per sq. km.

Community Development

The United Nations defines **community development** as "a process where **community** members come together to take collective action and generate solutions to common problems."

1. Defined by United Nations Organizations - "Community Development refers to the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those Governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress."

Urban Community

An **Urban Community** is a big city or town. It is considered an **Urban Community** if there are more than 2,500 people living in the **community**. **Urban communities** are often busy and crowded. Normally, the city is the most central location in a region. ... In cities there are often skyscrapers, which are very tall buildings.

In **urban** areas like cities, homes and buildings are very close together. Suburban areas are places outside of cities. People who live in suburbs often travel to the city for work. In this movie, you'll explore how populations are different in different **communities**.

Urban Development

The development or improvement of an urban area by building

One of the negative impacts of urban development is the non-farm ownership of farmland.

An urban area that has been developed and improved by building

The area is as unlike an urban development as could be conceived.

Large cities, towns and even small neighborhoods do not spring up overnight. They are the result of careful planning by civil and design engineers, project managers, architects, environmental planners and surveyors. The integration of these disciplines is known as urban

development. Urban development is a system of residential expansion that creates cities. Residential areas are the primary focus of urban development. Urban development occurs by expansion into unpopulated areas and/or the renovation of decaying regions.

Urban Community Development

Urban community is something which an individual thought as, an area with high density of population, an area with the availability of basic requirements, an area of good resources, the area has lots of opportunity of employment and such an area which can be considered as life-giving for luxurious desires of human or individual. The word urban community has many meanings, the term ‘community’, only, denotes two conditions:

- **Physical condition**
- **Social condition**

Generally, by an urban area, we mean an area with a high density of population. Density is not the only a term which may be considered as a definite term to confer a name of “urban city” to the particular village, area, land, city, town etc. two main factors must be kept in mind while declaring a community as urban, i.e.

- **Absolute population:** – it is an accurate numerical value with which the population of a society can be estimated or known.
- **Absolute area:** – Refers to a specific, fixed point on the earth’s surface expressed by a coordinate system.

Other standards which are considered by different countries are: – presence of local authority; base of density of population and quality of population. The social condition of people in life is expressed as the fashionable living of people, the acquaintance of peoples with luxury and the fashionable life of people.

Urban lifestyle is such a style which has the effect of the act, done by an individual, on the other member of the same society; but is it true or is it not a full truth that only those, who are members of society does get affected? Or the other part of society also does get affected? Or the other societies have the effect of the particular activity? Or the rural areas are also experiencing the effects of vibes of the act of an individual?

Rural areas may get converted into urban areas. A government, taking into account the need of development, may change a society living in a rural area to such a society which is developed and educated.

Definition of urban is not completely explainable and not much clear, but the difference between the word “rural” and “urban” is clear from the above explanation. Rural areas differ from urban areas In many ways, such as population density, quality and educated population, institution, requirements and the availability of sources.

The areas where resources are available to get converted into a point of attraction and the area around the resource become an area of settlement of people and crowd. A crowd, with it, brings many needs, desires; thus, to complete the task of completing wishes and demands of

an individual opportunity of employment are provided. Thus, this opportunity attracts more people.

For example – the area near London, Mumbai or Calcutta; any city which is developed today, has its past like an area, considered as a rural area, shall have. Urban area's population may possibly or with a very small probability shall have the fee schedule, which decreases their social interaction.

Urbanization

Urbanization refers to the population shift from rural to urban residency, the gradual increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas, and the ways in which each society adapts to this change. It is predominantly the process by which towns and cities are formed and become larger as more people begin living and working in central areas. The United Nations projected that half of the world's population would live in urban areas at the end of 2008. It is predicted that by 2050 about 64% of the developing world and 86% of the developed world will be urbanized. That is equivalent to approximately 3 billion urbanites by 2050, much of which will occur in Africa and Asia. Notably, the United Nations has also recently projected that nearly all global population growth from 2017 to 2030 will be absorbed by cities, about 1.1 billion new urbanites over the next 13 years.

Urbanization is relevant to a range of disciplines, including urban planning, geography, sociology, economics, and public health. The phenomenon has been closely linked to modernization, industrialization, and the sociological process of rationalization. Urbanization can be seen as a specific condition at a set time (e.g. the proportion of total population or area in cities or towns) or as an increase in that condition over time. So urbanization can be quantified either in terms of, say, the level of urban development relative to the overall population, or as the rate at which the urban proportion of the population is increasing. Urbanization creates enormous social, economic and environmental changes, which provide an opportunity for sustainability with the “potential to use resources more efficiently, to create more sustainable land use and to protect the biodiversity of natural ecosystems.”

Urbanization is not merely a modern phenomenon, but a rapid and historic transformation of human social roots on a global scale, whereby predominantly rural culture is being rapidly replaced by predominantly urban culture. The first major change in settlement patterns was the accumulation of hunter-gatherers into villages many thousand years ago. Village culture is characterized by common bloodlines, intimate relationships, and communal behavior, whereas urban culture is characterized by distant bloodlines, unfamiliar relations, and competitive behavior. This unprecedented movement of people is forecast to continue and intensify during the next few decades, mushrooming cities to sizes unthinkable only a century ago. As a result, the world urban population growth curve has up till recently followed a quadratic-hyperbolic pattern.

Today, in Asia the urban agglomerations of Osaka, Karachi, Jakarta, Mumbai, Shanghai, Manila, Seoul and Beijing are each already home to over 20 million people, while Delhi and Tokyo are forecast to approach or exceed 40 million people each within the coming decade. Outside Asia, Mexico City, São

Paulo, London, New York City, Istanbul, Lagos and Cairo are, or soon will be, home to over 10 million people each.

Urbanism

Urbanism is the study of how inhabitants of urban areas, such as towns and cities, interact with the built environment. It is a direct component of disciplines such as urban planning, which is the profession focusing on the physical design and management of urban structures and urban sociology which is the academic field the study of urban life and culture

Many architects, planners, and sociologists investigate the way people live in densely populated urban areas. There is a wide variety of different theories and approaches to the study of urbanism.^[1] However, in some contexts internationally Urbanism is synonymous with Urban Planning, and the Urbanist refers to an Urban Planner

Urbanism's emergence in the early 20th century was associated with the rise of centralized manufacturing, mixed-use neighbourhoods, social organizations and networks, and what has been described as "the convergence between political, social and economic citizenship".

Urbanism can be understood as place making and the creation of place identity at a citywide level, however as early as 1938 Louis Wirth wrote that it is necessary to stop 'identify[ing] urbanism with the physical entity of the city', go 'beyond an arbitrary boundary line' and consider how 'technological developments in transportation and communication have enormously extended the urban mode of living beyond the confines of the city itself.'

Differences between urban development and Urban Community Development

UD	UCD
General:- Related to infrastructure development like construction of buildings, schools, libraries, roads etc.	Specific:- Development of social cultural, attitudes and skills.
Physical development	Social development like higher standard of living, new ways of life and better life.
There is no self-help and motivation but economic development does take place.	Self-help and motivation.

Principles of UCD

Community Engagement For any community development project to succeed, a project must have the support of its community

Leadership Not only must each initiative have community buy-in, it must also have one or more leaders—those who champion the effort from day to day and whose job it is to make sure it succeeds.

Collaboration A successful community development project isn't the work of a single individual or even a handful of people; it takes a village to bring a project to fruition. Knowing how to collaborate and with whom to network to build a successful team is a critical part of any community development project.

Evaluation How do you build a strong project plan that clearly articulates your intended goals and outcomes? What are funders looking for before choosing to invest?

Adaptability What tools are available to get your project financed? What happens when funding gaps exist? As any veteran of this work knows, projects rarely go as planned. People move, missions change and funding sources dry up. But that doesn't mean good initiatives need to be canceled or put on hold. Find out how flexibility and resilience are often the answer to the question, "How did this community development project finally get off the ground?"

1. Drawing programmes for fulfilling various needs of the community.
2. Involving the people in planning and developmental activities.
3. Bringing about material as well as psychological betterment.
4. Teaching the people the political set up in democracy.
5. Creating the local leadership.
6. Drawing up of national policy for the development of the country.
7. Setting up of cooperative societies for carrying developmental works.

Approaches of UCD

There are numerous overlapping approaches to community development. Some focus on the processes, some on the outcomes/ objectives. They include:

- **Women Self-help Group**; focusing on the contribution of women in settlement groups.
- **Community capacity building**; focusing on helping communities obtain, strengthen, and maintain the ability to set and achieve their own development objectives.
- **Large Group Capacitation**; an adult education and social psychology approach grounded in the activity of the individual and the social psychology of the large group focusing on large groups of unemployed or semi-employed participants, many of whom with Lower Levels of Literacy (LLs).
- **Social capital formation**; focusing on benefits derived from the cooperation between individuals and groups.
- **Nonviolent direct action**; when a group of people take action to reveal an existing problem, highlight an alternative, or demonstrate a possible solution to a social issue which is not being addressed through traditional societal institutions (governments, religious organizations or established trade unions) are not addressing to the satisfaction of the direct action participants.
- **Economic development**, focusing on the "development" of developing countries as measured by their economies, although it includes the processes and policies by which a nation improves the economic, political, and social well-being of its people.
- **Community economic development (CED)**; an alternative to conventional economic development which encourages using local resources in a way that enhances economic

outcomes while improving social conditions. For example, CED involves strategies which aim to improve access to affordable housing, medical, and child care.

- **Sustainable development**; which seeks to achieve, in a balanced manner, economic development, social development and environmental protection outcomes.
- **Community-driven development (CDD)**, an economic development model which shifts overreliance on central governments to local communities.
- **Asset-based community development (ABCD)**; is a methodology that seeks to uncover and use the strengths within communities as a means for sustainable development.^[10]
- **Faith-based community development**; which utilizes faith-based organizations to bring about community development outcomes.
- **Community-based participatory research (CBPR)**; a partnership approach to research that equitably involves, for example, community members, organizational representatives, and researchers in all aspects of the research process and in which all partners contribute expertise and share decision making and ownership, which aims to integrate this knowledge with community development outcomes.
- **Community organizing**; a term used to describe an approach that generally assumes that social change necessarily involves conflict and social struggle in order to generate collective power for the powerless.
- **Participatory planning** including community-based planning (CBP); involving the entire community in the strategic and management processes of urban planning; or, community-level planning processes, urban or rural.
- **Language-based development**; or Language revitalization focuses on the use of a language so that it serves the needs of a community. This may involve the creation of books, films and other media in the language. These actions help a small language community to preserve their language and culture.
- Methodologies focusing on the educational component of community development, including the community-wide empowerment that increased educational opportunity creates.
- Methodologies addressing the issues and challenges of the Digital divide, making affordable training and access to computers and the Internet, addressing the marginalisation of local communities that cannot connect and participate in the global Online community. In the United States, nonprofit organizations such as *Per Scholas* seek to “break the cycle of poverty by providing education, technology and economic opportunities to individuals, families and communities” as a path to development for the communities they serve.

There are a myriad of job titles for community development workers and their employers include public authorities and voluntary or non-governmental organisations, funded by the state and by independent grant making bodies. Since the nineteen seventies the prefix word 'community' has also been adopted by several other occupations from the police and health workers to planners and architects, who have been influenced by community development approaches.

Unit II

Slum

Definition of Slum

The definition of slum, adopted in the Census of India 2001 is as follows:

A compact area of at least 300 population or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities.

Characteristics of Slum

- (i) High rate of poverty;
- (ii) High incidence of unemployment;
- (iii) Huge extent of urban decay;
- (iv) Breeding grounds for social problems like crime, drug addiction, alcoholism etc.;
- (v) High rates of mental illness and suicide etc.;
- (vi) Low level of economic status of its residents;
- (vii) Inadequate infrastructural facilities;
- (viii) Acute problem of malnutrition
- (ix) Lack of drinking water;
- (x) Lack of basic healthcare;
- (xi) Unsanitary and unary environment;
- (xii) Low standard of living or poor quality of life.

Types of Slum

- **Notified slums:** All notified areas in a town or city notified as 'Slum' by State, Union territories Administration or Local Government under any Act including a 'Slum Act' are considered as Notified slums.
- **Recognized slums:** All areas recognized as 'Slum' by State, Union territories Administration or Local Government, Housing and Slum Boards, which may have not been formally notified as slum under any act are considered as Recognized slums.
- **Identified slums:** A compact area of at least 300 population or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities are considered as Identified slums.

Causes of growth of slums

- Urbanization
- Industrialization
- Higher productivity in these condary/tertiary sector against primary sector makes cities and towns centres of economic growth and jobs
- Cities act as beacons for the rural population as they represent a higher standard of living and offer opportunities to people not available in rural areas . This results in large scale migration from rural to urban areas.
- Negative consequences of urban pull results in up coming of slums characterized by housing shortage and critical inadequacies in public utilities, overcrowding, unhygienic conditions,
- It is vicious cycle of population growth, people migrate to cities for job opportunities but are not well educated and get low income.
- Unable to find housing which they can afford, they decide to build their own shelter close to office. First one shelter then two and then ten thousand.

- Conniving governments look at slums as vote bank. They provide electricity and drinking water. They organise unauthorised dwellers into political purposes hence slums took a bit of a permanent shape.
- The key reason for slums is the slow economic progress

Consequences of growth of slums

- **Shortage of space:** About 77.6% of the urban dwellers in Mumbai reside in one room and lakhs of them sleep on the footpath. About 62% of the households of the metropolis reside in these slums. This gives rise to the problem of shortage of space.
- **Prone to natural and man-made hazards:** As in slums, houses are crammed in a little space, they are often prone to dangerous hazards like floods, water logging, fire etc. Extent of hazard is increased because of high population density. The slum areas of Delhi specially Yamuna-Pushta are affected by flood-water of Yamuna every year. The Kutcha houses of slums frequently catch fire in summer.
- **Poor living conditions:** Slums are not planned hence they lack basic amenities. Slums have invariably extreme unhygienic conditions. There are no toilets and people defecate in open. Slums have practically no drainage. Most of the slums are located near drains which contain filthy stagnant water.
- **Health hazards:** The poor living condition in slums affects the health of people mentally and physically. Water contamination causes disease like blood dysentery, diarrhoea, malaria, typhoid, jaundice etc. Children with bloated bellies or famished skeletons, many suffering from polio, are common sight. People are not aware of health problems.
- **Social problems:** Socially, slums remain isolated from rest of the urban society and exhibit pathological social symptoms like drug abuse, alcoholism, crime, vandalism and other deviant behavior. The lack of integration of slum inhabitants into urban life reflects both, the lack of ability and culture barriers.

Theory of slums

1. The concentric zone theory
2. The sector theory
3. The multiple nuclei theory

The concentric theory

The concentric theory was first conceptualized by Fredric angles in 1844 at Manchester. Although angles was the first to describe the spatial pattern of city in class stratification most geographers and other sociologists consider E.W Burgess, a university of Chicago sociologist is responsible for concentric theory in 1925.

According to Burgess the growth of any town or city occurs through a radical expansion from centre so as to form a series of concentric zones or circles. Concentric zone theory is divided into zones of small sections. They are

1. The central business district- the inner zone according to Burgess, comprises is central business district- like stores hotels, theatres etc.
2. The zone of transition- The zone that control business district was designed as the zone of transition. Because being in the immediate path of business expansion it is populated by the lower income classes
3. The zone of working men's homes- This zone was designated as some of working men's homes, it is populated by middle classes of workers
4. The zone of middle class dwellers- Populated y professional people, owners of small business, clerks etc. There are hotels apartments, residence yard, and gardens
5. The commuter's zone - An area consisting of satellite towns and suburbs. These areas are called as bedroom communities as workers vacate during the day and occupy in night

2. The sector theory

- The sector theory was developed in 1939 by Homer Hoyt, an economist
- Hoyt examined spatial variations in household rents in 142 American cities
- Hoyt observed that the high rent residential areas tend to be located along established transportation routes. Usually on high ground s and away from flats.

3. The multiple nuclear theories

- This theory was developed in 1945 by two geographers. Chauncy Harris and Edward Willman
- Their theory postulates not centre for the city but several
- Each of the centres tend to specialize in a particular kind of activity

Multiple centres develop for the following reasons

1. Certain activities require specialized facilities
2. Certain related activities to cluster in the same district
3. Certain dissimilar activities may be disadvantages to another
4. Certain activities unable to generated enough income to pay high rents of cities
5. The Harris and Willman approach suggests that seeking an ideal urban pattern may be fruitless.

Power structure of Slums

Power is ability to influence other social powers structure
Organization

NGO's

1. Political power structure
Legitimate power holder they are the important persons of power holders in urban area
2. Economic power structure
More importance is given. They occupy important place in urban
3. Religious leader
Religious leaders hold important powers
4. Gundas
Gundas also vested certain powers on slum people
There are two theories of powers structure

ELITE

- People who have influence in the society and ruling classes are elite caste
- Elites are class of people who has the highest grades
- Three types of elites -1. Specialized elite 2. Social elites 3. Governing elects
- Among these governing elites hold important place in government

PLURALISM

It is alternative theory, here power is shared and large number of people especially individuals private groups, interested organization.

The Tamil Nadu Slum Areas (Slum Clearance and Improvement) Act, 1971

Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board was established in September 1970 and has been implementing various Housing, Slum Development and Rehabilitation and Resettlement programmes to ameliorate the living conditions of the slum families in Tamil Nadu. The Board initially started its activities in Chennai and its activities were gradually extended to other urban areas of Tamil Nadu since 1984 onwards in phased manner.

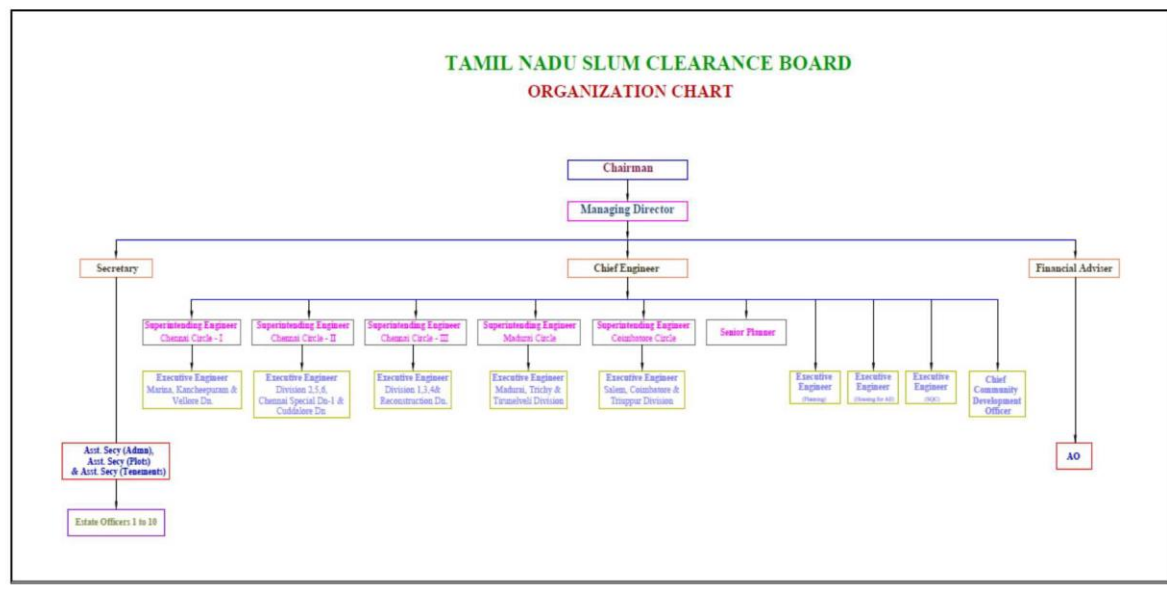
The motto of Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board is "***GOD WE SHALL SEE IN THE SMILE OF THE POOR***". The Board has been implementing various programmes like In-situ tenemental schemes, In-situ plotted and infrastructure development and Rehabilitation and Resettlement schemes to improve the environs of the slums and the living standards of the urban slum families to achieve the Slum Free Cities Vision before 2023.

Policies of Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance

The slum families are protected from calamities like fire, floods, etc.
Each tenement built will have a multipurpose room, bed room, kitchen, an independent toilet, with water supply and sewerage arrangements.
Paved access, street light, surface drain are provided.

These tenements are allotted to the slum families on a heavily subsidized hire purchase system, at the rate of Rs.250/- per month for a period of 20 years.
The slums located in unobjectionable areas, wherein equitable distribution of space to all is not feasible, are cleared and tenemental schemes put up.

Structure Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance



Functions of the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance

1. acquisition by purchase, exchange of any property or improvement develop ent clearance of buildings for carrying out the purpose of the act
2. laying out of any land comprised in the scheme of the
3. distribution of sites, buildings tenements of the board
4. demolition of dwellings, unit human habitation
5. construction and re construe of any property
6. construction of roads, streets back lanes, bridges, culverts, cause ways
7. providing drainage, water supply, lightings of the in the slum areas
8. providing open parks play fields and open spaces, benefit of any comprised any scheme
9. providing sanitary, prevention of injury, contamination to rivers and means of water supply
10. providing accommodation for any class of inhabitants
11. advancing money for the purpose of the scheme
12. collection of information and statistics as many is necessary for the purpose of the act
13. Reservation of lands for pools, restaurants, shops, markets, fuel, depots, laundries, hair dressing saloons and other amenities
14. other remunerative enterprise

Projects

- Employment Training Programme
- Institute Skill Training Under Part Ii Scheme (2012-2013)
- Youth Development – Xii & Xiii Finance Commission
- Job Meals for Resettlement & Rehabilitation Schemes.
- Enumeration And Verification Of Slum Families / Encroachments Under Jnnurm
- Resettlement And Rehabilitation Scheme (R&R Scheme)
- Income Restoration Programme”Chennai Metro Rail Project
- Livelihood Support Programme – Tsunami Emergency Assistance Project (Teap)Period
- ” Community Based Management Of Hygiene Promotion Activities In Tenemental Schemes” – Corporation Of Chennai
- Community Development Activities At Rk Nagar Constituency, North Chennai In Progress
- Skill Development Training

Problems of slum dwellers

1. High rate of poverty
2. High incidence of unemployment
3. Huge extent of urban decay
4. Breeding grounds for social problems like crime, drug addiction, alcoholism ect.
5. High rates of mental illness and suicide etc.
6. Low level of economic status of its residents
7. Inadequate infrastructural facilities
8. Acute problem of malnutrition
9. Lack of drinking water
10. Lack of basic healthcare
11. Unsanitary and unhygienic environment
12. Low standard of living or poor quality of life
13. Slums are associated with poor sanitation due to lack of proper garbage and sewage disposal
14. Many of houses in slums are semi - permanent.
15. Houses in slums are very cheap since they are of poor quality and also due to low income of people living in slums
16. Slums are associated with high crime rate
17. Houses in slums are very close to each other and are unplanned
18. Slums do not have enough supply of water and power due to their location on the edge of cities
19. Many people living in slums are unemployed
20. There is problem of overcrowding in slums
21. Lack of basic services
22. Substandard housing or illegal and inadequate building structures
23. Overcrowding and high density
24. Unhealthy living conditions and hazardous locations
25. Insecure tenure; irregular or informal settlements

Squatter settlement dwellers

Definition of a Squatter Settlement:

A squatter settlement therefore, can be defined as a residential area which has developed without legal claims to the land and/or permission from the concerned authorities to build; as a result of their illegal or semi-legal status, infrastructure and services are usually inadequate.

There are essentially three defining characteristics that helps us understand squatter settlement: the Physical, the Social and the legal with the reasons behind them being interrelated.

a. *Physical Characteristics:*

A squatter settlement, due to its inherent "non-legal" status, has services and infrastructure below the "adequate" or minimum levels. Such services are both network and social infrastructure, like water supply, sanitation, electricity, roads and drainage; schools, health centres, market places etc. Water supply, for example, to individual households may be absent, or a few public or community stand pipes may have been provided, using either the city networks, or a hand pump itself. Informal networks for the supply of water may also be in place. Similar arrangements may be made for electricity, drainage, toilet facilities etc. with little dependence on public authorities or formal channels.

b. *Social Characteristics:*

Most squatter settlement households belong to the lower income group, either working as wage labour or in various informal sector enterprises. On an average, most earn wages at or near the minimum wage level. But household income levels can also be high due to may income earners and part-time jobs. Squatters are predominantly migrants, either rural-urban or urban-urban. But many are also second or third generation squatters.

c. *Legal Characteristics:*

The key characteristic that delineates a squatter settlement is its lack of ownership of the land parcel on which they have built their house. These could be vacant government or public land, or marginal land parcels like railway setbacks or "undesirable" marshy land. Thus when the land is not under "productive" use by the owner, it is appropriated by a squatter for building a house. It has to be noted here that in many parts of Asia, a land owner may "rent" out his land for a nominal fee to a family or families, with an informal or quasi-legal arrangement, which is not however valid under law.

In general, there are several attributes that act as generative forces and determine the quality and size of a settlement. Such attributes could be either internal to the settlement or external:

Internal Attributes	External Attributes
Religion/Ethnicity	Land owner
Work place	Tenure security
Place of origin	Municipal/city government policies
Language	Length of stay in city
Length of stay in settlement	
Investment in housing	
Construction activity	
Presence of renters	

Historical Development of the term, "Squatter Settlement":

Squatter settlements have been in existence from a long time, in the sense that an individual other than the land owner has built houses with or without the consent of the land owner. But they were not illegal "squatter" settlements as we define and categorize them today. The term "squatter settlement" is infact a more recent western-initiated development, which came about by the writings of Charles Abrams and John Turner and particularly during and immediately after the Habitat Conference of 1976 in Vancouver, Canada. This delineation of

such informal or spontaneous settlements as "squatter" settlements represented a growing change in attitude from outright hostility to that of support and protection.

Abrams (1964) illustrates the process of squatting as a "conquest" of city areas for the purpose of shelter, defined both by the law of force and the force of law. Turner (1969) takes a positive outlook and portrays squatter settlements as highly successful solutions to housing problems in urban areas of developing countries. Payne (1977) similarly puts the development of squatter settlements in the overall perspective of urban growth in the third world and its inevitability. A vast number of case studies at the Habitat Conference at Vancouver in 1976 highlighted the conditions in squatter settlements, calling for a concerted and committed approach towards solving the problems.

The Squatter

A "squatter" (in The Concise Oxford Dictionary) is a person who settles on new especially public land without title; a person who takes unauthorized possession of unoccupied premises. Therefore, a residential area occupied by squatters becomes a squatter settlement. But the narrow generalization, especially of settlement type is evident: everything from a brick-and-concrete multistoried house to a "occupied" cardboard carton become "squatter settlements". The need is so much more necessary to understand such settlements so that a concerted action can be taken.

Squatter Settlement - Alternative Names:

One common confusion regarding squatter settlements is its relation to the term "slum". Encyclopedia Britannica defines a slum as "...a residential areas that are physically and socially deteriorated and in which satisfactory family life is impossible. Bad housing is a major index of slum conditions. By bad housing is meant dwellings that have inadequate light, air, toilet and bathing facilities; that are in bad repair, dump and improperly heated; that do not afford opportunity for family privacy; that are subject to fire hazard and that overcrowd the land, leaving no space for recreational use....." Therefore, while a slum settlement refers to the condition of a settlement, squatter settlement would refer to the legal position of the settlement. There are a number of names by which squatter settlement are described by various authors, which highlight the attitudes and approaches towards them, ranging from a positive to neutral to negative outlook. These are:

- Informal settlements
- Low-income settlements
- Semi-permanent settlements
- Shanty towns
- Spontaneous settlements
- Unauthorized settlements
- Unplanned settlements
- Uncontrolled settlements

The key question to be asked here is why do people squat? There are two reasons for this: one is internal to the squatter, and the other is external. Internal reasons include, lack of collateral assets; lack of savings and other financial assets; daily wage/low-income jobs (which in many cases are semi-permanent or temporary). External reasons include, high cost of land and other housing services; apathy and anti-pathy on the part of the government to assist them; high "acceptable" building standards and rules and regulations; loopsided planning and zoning legislation.

These reasons leave no option for the low-income householder to squat on a vacant piece of land. The actual squatting is done either by a "slum lord" or simply a initial small group of core squatters . The slum lord appropriates a piece of vacant land, subdivides it and "sells" it to various households for the purpose of building a house. Services like water-supply or electricity may be provided either by this person or by the organization of the squatters, usually at the community level. The core group squatters are a small number of families who, almost overnight, occupy a piece of land and build a rudimentary and temporary shelter. Later, depending on the degree of threat of eviction, this may be upgraded to a permanent and more families may join this group. There are two distinct processes involved in the formation of a settlement. One is the organic and induced processes. The organic process refers to the forces and pressures which are initiated from within the settlement and squatter. They evolve naturally, without any outside intervention and using internal resources of the family or settlement for development, such as labour, locally available materials etc. The induced process refers to the "inducement" set up by agencies and organizations which are external to the settlement. Operating with objectives and goals on a larger, city-wide scale, they initiate programmes and projects for the overall development of the settlement. Both these put together act on the growth of a squatter settlement, through a series of consolidative stages of development. These stages are conclusive in their outcome, in the sense that they represent a continuum with one stage or process overlapping and even running parallel to each other. They are also cumulative in their effects and not exclusive.

Approaches towards a Squatter Settlement.

Considering the magnitude and scale of the housing deficit and the lack of concerted action or inadequate response of government agencies, there is no doubt of the positive role that squatter housing plays in housing the millions of poor families. The main question of land ownership and overutilized infrastructure and services will, however, always remain unanswered. Successive generation of governments have recognized this and a number of approaches have been adopted in finding a solution to the dilemma of squatting. The two popular approaches used by the public authorities have been settlement upgradation and sites-and-services. Settlement upgradation has been an option where a compromise has been reached by the land owner and on a sharing basis, the squatter has been allowed to continue on the land parcel, but with a significant upgradation of the settlement's infrastructure and services, including, in some cases, land leases or ownerships. Where such land compromises or sharing has not been possible, the squatters have been relocated to another location, where varying levels of "sites"-and-"services" have been provided, with, again land lease or ownership. Land sharing is an approach which has brought about considerable settlement improvement by the initiative of the people themselves. The squatter, after having organized themselves into a viable organization, have initiated negotiations with the land owner and have "shared" the land, giving the prime locations of the land (for example, the side facing a road) to the owner and using the remaining for their housing, but in a more organized and improved manner. The role of non-governmental and voluntary organizations has to be emphasized in this respect, in mobilization of the people into an organization, in training and educating them, in forming a link with the authorities, and in various other catalytic ways. As a complement to this, the participation of the community of squatters, in improving the quality of their settlement is also an important resource that has to be tapped for improvement. Commonly, community credit programmes, for example, are used as a rallying point for bringing the squatters not only because money itself is important, but also because of the externalities that it can generate.

Future Role of Squatter Settlements in Urban Housing.

Squatter settlements in urban areas are an inevitable phenomena. As long as urban areas offer economies of scale and agglomeration economies, large cities will always continue to grow attracting migrants from rural and smaller urban areas, leading to more squatting. There is no universal "quick-fix" solution that can solve all the problems of squatting in all parts of the developing world. Considering the inevitability of squatting, the need is primarily for a change in attitude towards squatting, squatters and squatter settlements. One such approach that has been receiving considerable attention from various government and public authorities has been the "enabling" approach, where instead of taking a confrontationist attitude, governments have strived to create an enabling environment, under which people, using and generating their own resources, could find unique local solutions for their housing and shelter problems.

Street children.

A street child is someone "for whom the street (in the widest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland, etc.) has become his or her habitual abode and/or source of livelihood; and who is inadequately protected, supervised, or directed by responsible adults". India has an estimated one million or more street children in each of the following cities: New Delhi, Kolkata, and Mumbai. Mainly because of family conflict, they come to live on the streets and take on the full responsibilities of caring for themselves, including working to provide for and protecting themselves. Though street children do sometimes band together for greater security, they are often exploited by employers and the police. Their many vulnerabilities require specific legislation and attention from the government and other organisations to improve their condition.

In the early years of research on street children, the term "street child" included any child that worked on the street. From research, however, different categories of children on the streets have been distinguished, while still recognizing that children's complex experiences are difficult to define. Mark W. Lusk, a prominent researcher of street children, developed four categories of children on the street from his research: children who work on the street but return to their families at night, children who work on the street but whose family ties are dwindling, children who live and work with their families on the street, and children who work and live on their own on the street.

The term "street child" has come to refer only to the last group. UNICEF defines a street child as, "...any girl or boy... for whom the street (in the widest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland, etc.) has become his or her habitual abode and/or source of livelihood; and who is inadequately protected, supervised, or directed by responsible adults". It is important to distinguish the group of children that live on their own on the streets because their lives vary greatly from those of children who simply work on the streets; they thus have different needs and require targeted attention.

While 18 million children work on the streets of India, it is estimated that only 5–20 percent of them are truly homeless and disconnected from their families.^{[4][5][8]} Because the street children in India have unique vulnerabilities – the amount of time they spend on the street, their livelihood depending on the street, and their lack of protection and care from adults – they are a subgroup of the Indian population that deserve specific attention in order to ensure that their needs are known.^[9] As the most vulnerable group of children in India according to UNICEF, they need to be understood as much as possible.

Characteristics

It is difficult to obtain accurate data about them because of their floating character. Street children usually have no proof of identification and move often.^[10] Of the 50,000 people in India that are officially reported as leaving home annually, 45 percent are under 16; this number, though, is likely very low. Various studies have formulated estimates of certain cities. In the late 1980s, for instance, it was estimated that there were at least 100,000 street children in both Kolkata and Bombay. Overall, estimates for the total number of street children in India range from 400,000-800,000.

Age

Because it is difficult to obtain precise and accurate statistics about street children, information about their ages is approximate. Most of the street children in India are over 6, and the majority is over 8. The mean age of street children in a National Institute of Urban Affairs study in 1989 was 13 years. Another study in 1989 by UNICEF found that 72 percent of the street children studied were ages 6–12 and 13 percent were under 6 years of age.

The majority of street children in India are boys with little or no education.

Causes

The street children in India choose to leave their families and homes for strategic reasons.^[1] Three hypotheses have been put forth in an attempt to explain their choices: urban poverty, aberrant families, and urbanization. Evidence can to some degree support all three of these hypotheses. In one study of 1,000 street children living in Bombay conducted in 1990, 39.1 percent of street children said they left home because of problems and fights with family, 20.9 percent said they left because of family poverty, and 3.6 percent said that they wanted to see the city. The street children and children running away from home are connected. A child running away from home ends on the street in most situations. There is lot of data available on why children run away, revealing many reasons for doing so. Some reasons are simple, some complex. Some time the reasons are because of the child's behavior, and some times the causes are because of parents. A child not going to school or not doing home work and thus fearing beatings, is a very common cause. A child stealing money, fighting with siblings are reasons too

This study illustrates the trend found by most researchers: most children leave their families to live on the street because of family problems. Family problems include such things as death of a parent, alcoholism of father, strained relationships with stepparents, parent separation, abuse, and family violence.^{[5][8][12]} Additionally, street children usually come from female-headed households.

Most children who leave home to live on the streets come from slums or low cost housing, both which are areas of high illiteracy, drug use, and unemployment. Children usually transfer their lives to the streets through a gradual process; they may at first only stay on the street a night or two. Gradually they will spend more time away from home until they do not return.

Once on the streets, children sometimes find that their living conditions and physical and mental health is better than at home; however, this fact speaks to the poor conditions of their homes rather than good conditions in the street. Street conditions are far from child-friendly. Once they leave home, many street children move around often because of the fear that their relatives will find them and force them to return home. Sadly, many children are

kidnapped and treated as slaves by the kidnappers. The kidnappers make them beg for money the whole day on the streets and enjoy themselves with the money they get from the children.

Economic activity

Work

Street children in Mumbai, India selling snacks and drinks to bus passengers

As street children must provide for themselves, work is a very important aspect of their lives. Unfortunately, working conditions for street children are often very poor because they are confined to working in the informal sector, which is unregulated by the government. In Bombay, 50,000 children are illegally employed by 11,750 hotels, restaurants, canteens, tea shops, and eating places. Because of street children's lack of protection from a family and the law, employers often exploit them, making them virtual prisoners, sometimes withholding pay, and abusing them. Employers that would not mistreat the children often will not hire them because they are seen as too great of a risk.

Because of the low pay from employers, street children in India often choose to be self-employed or work multiple jobs. In fact, the majority of them are self-employed. One of the most common economic activities done by the children is scavenging for recyclable materials, such as plastic, paper, and metal.

Other jobs include cleaning cars; petty vending, selling small items such as balloons or sweets; selling newspapers or flowers; begging; shining shoes; working in small hotels; working on construction sites; and working in roadside stalls or repair shops. Street children, especially the older children, are also sometimes engaged in activities such as stealing, pick-pocketing, drug-peddling, and prostitution, though this is a small proportion. Most of the street children work 8–10 hours total each day in their various economic activities

Spending

The earnings of street children fluctuate greatly, but they usually only make enough for subsistence. Most street children in India earn between 200 (\$4.00) and 830 rupees a month, with older children making more than younger children. Self-employed children also typically make more than children who are employed under an employer. The largest expense in a street child's budget is food, which often costs 5–10 rupees a day. In order to cut down on food expenses, many children drink tea to dull hunger.

The money street children earn that is not spent on food is usually quickly spent on other things because older children and police frequently steal their money. This lack of ability to save causes severe financial insecurity. While children occasionally send some of their earnings home to their families, they spend most of their extra money on entertainment.

Many street children spend 300 rupees a month on movies, though older children also use their money to buy cigarettes, chewing tobacco, alcohol, and drugs. Street children often spend very little on clothing because their employers often provide clothes for work or their families occasionally give them clothes if they know where they are living. Also, the boys among them do not mind wandering fully or partially naked in public because it adds to the people's sympathy for them.

Education

The education of street children in India is very poor and often nonexistent. A study of street children in Bombay in 1989 found that 54.5 percent had never been enrolled in school and 66 percent of the children were illiterate. A 2004 study of street children in Bombay revealed that

circumstances were largely the same: 60 percent of the children had never attended school and approximately two-thirds were illiterate.

Thirty percent had been to elementary school, while only 10 percent had been to middle or high school. In fact, many children in the 2004 study said that one of the reasons they ran away from home is because they did not want to be forced to work and unable to attend school. Obviously, however, the demands of living alone make it very unlikely that they will be able to obtain education through leaving.

Relationships and coping

The street children in India are especially vulnerable among low-income children because they do not have the support structures that other children normally have, namely families and the psychological and monetary support they offer. Thus, street children adopt strategies to cope with the harsh realities of their lives. For many, these strategies include developing a tough exterior and strong independence to hide their vulnerability. They live in survival-mode, constantly having to be aware of their surroundings and fight for their safety. These circumstances lead children to engage in behaviors that children in families typically do not, such as creating a new identity, using aggression frequently, and valuing relationships based on what can be gained from them.

While the majority of street children in India have been found to use positive coping mechanisms to deal with the stress of their lives, some choose maladaptive strategies, such as drinking alcohol, using drugs, and visiting prostitutes. When questioned about their substance use, many street children in Bombay reported that the cause was frustration concerning living on the street or conflicts in their family which caused them to leave home.

Fortunately, street children are not entirely on their own. Many form groups with other street children to protect themselves.^[4] These groups normally have a leader and specific territory; unfortunately, though these groups bring safety to most, younger children are sometimes used by the leader to steal or do other illegal activities. Street children in Bombay report relying on their friends for help when they are sick, money when they run out, and information about work when they need a job. Street children spend much of their free time with their friends, often going with them to the movies.

Among the most important deprivations faced by street children is the lack of a protective and guiding adult, but some street children manage to find individuals to fulfill this role. Though most live on their own or with friends, some street children form connections with families that live on the streets or in slums and see these families as their substitute families. Many of these children find a "mother-figure" that cares for them when they are ill and is interested in their well-being.

Health and nutrition

Street children in India face additional vulnerability because of their lack of access to nutritious food, sanitation, and medical care.^{[8][11]} Street children lack access to nutritious food because many are dependent on leftovers from small restaurants or hotels, food stalls, or garbage bins.^[8] In a study of street children in Bombay in 1990, 62.5 percent of the children obtained food from hotels.^[11]

Lack of sanitation in bathing, toilets, and water also contributes to poor health. In the same study of street children in Bombay, 29.6 percent of children reported bathing in the sea and 11.5 percent reported bathing in pipes, wells, or canals. Open air bathing of street children is in fact a very common sight in all parts of India. These children have to put their naked bodies on display for a very long time before, during and after bathing. As a result, they

develop hardly any sense of modesty. They as well as the onlookers have a casual approach to this phenomenon. Street children also lack restroom facilities, demonstrated by the fact that 26.4 percent of the children used the roadside or railway line for their toilet. For water, the children reported asking restaurants or hotels for water (69.1 percent) or using pipes and water taps (15.6 percent).^[11]

Most of the street children in India also lack access to medical care, which is especially detrimental during times of illness or injury.^[8] The study of street children in Bombay found that 34.9 percent had an injury and 18.9 percent had a fever in the past three months.^[11] Only about a third of the children received any help with their illness or injury, though some were able to receive help at a government clinic.^[11]

Other studies have found that many illnesses are very prevalent among street children. A study conducted in 2002 on the street children in Kolkata found that six in every 554 street children from ages five to fourteen are HIV positive.^[7] In Bangor Basti, 98 percent of children are estimated to have dental caries.^[7] Additionally, most street children do not have winter clothing, leaving them more vulnerable to illness during the winter.^[8]

Abuse

Street children in India are frequently exposed to abuse and extortion.^[4] According to UNICEF, violence against children in India includes neglect, emotional abuse, sexual abuse, and exploitation. The rate of child abuse increased to nearly 8000 in 2007.^[14] An Indian government study in 2007 stated that two out of every three children in India were physically abused and that 50% of the nearly 12,000 studied children testified one or more forms of sexual abuse.^[15] This increase is probably due to increased awareness and reporting of abuse. Other studies include that 7,200 children, including infants, are raped every year in India, and the government refuses to comment on these serial child abuses that continue. Many child activists believe that cases go unreported.^[16]

Because they have no social status and no adults to protect them, street children identify being physically threatened and intimidated by adults as the one factor that contributes most to the misery of living on the streets.^{[3][4]} The primary cause for this treatment is the views that the police and general public hold toward them: most scorn them and react to them with hostility.^[5]

Abuse by the Indian police is often reported by street children.^{[3][4][10]} Many street children have reported that police will beat them in order to coerce them into giving them a "cut" for working in certain areas.^{[3][4][10]} Police often arrest street children under the Vagrancy Act, and, having no formal way to appeal their arrest, the children must bribe or work at the police station until their "debt" has been paid.^[8] Under a government-sponsored programme called "Operation Beggar," street children in Bombay were rounded up and given into what was essentially indebted servitude.^[5]

Many factors contribute to the police abuse of street children, including the police perceptions of the children, widespread corruption, a culture of police violence, the inadequacy and non-implementation of legal safeguards, and the level of impunity that the police enjoy.^[10] Though the Juvenile Justice Act, which applies to all the states and Union Territories in India except Jammu and Kashmir, prohibits detaining neglected or delinquent juveniles in police lock-ups or jails, it is rarely enforced.^[10]

One study that looked at the abuse of street children in Jaipur City, India in 2009 provided new insight into the abuse that street children in India suffer by studying the types and

prevalence of abuse and how these things were related to other factors.^[12] The street children in the study reported all five types of abuse: general abuse and neglect, health abuse, verbal abuse, physical abuse, psychological abuse, and sexual abuse. Verbal and psychological abuse were reported the most. Older children and children with higher incomes were abused more than younger children and children with lower incomes, respectively.^[12]

Government involvement

Street children in India are "a manifestation of societal malfunctioning and an economic and social order that does not take timely preventative action".^[4] Thus, many scholars believe that fixing the problems of street children depend on addressing the causal factors of their situations.^{[1][4]} Additionally, as these causal factors are addressed, help for the immediate situation of street children must also be given.^[4]

India has set in place various forms of public policy concerning street children over the past two decades, but they have largely been ineffective because they are uninformed by sociological, anthropological, and geographical research on street children, meaning they do not always correctly assess and address needs.^[1]

Prior to 1997, the "Official Vocabulary" of post-independence India did not contain the term "street child", and street children were only helped because they were grouped with other children that worked on the streets.^[4] For instance, the Coordination Committee for Vulnerable Children worked to give identity cards to children working on the streets in order to help protect them from police violence.^[4] In the early 1990s, facing pressure from non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the Indian government created the "Scheme for Assistance to Street Children," which launched in February 1993.^[7] Though many NGOs had meetings with the government to give feedback about the scheme and suggestions to improve it, none of these recommendations were included in the final draft, making it very difficult for NGOs to participate in it.^[7]

Since their entrance into the policy arena and the Scheme was set in place, street children have been included in some other policies and programmes as well. The Indian Council of Child Welfare has included street children in their programmes, and in the 8th Five Year Plan a scheme for children in 6 metropolitan cities was set in place.^[3] The Ministry of Labour has also included street children in their livelihood training programmes, though this has been met with minimal success because many street children do not have the education necessary to participate in the programmes.^[13]

Recommendations

Scholars and agencies have suggested various strategies to help street children, many of which focus on the use of NGOs. A.B. Bose of UNICEF and Sarah Thomas de Benitez of the Consortium for Street Children suggest that the main responsibility of assistance should be given to NGOs, which should be backed financially by the government.^{[1][4]} Because NGOs have the ability to be more flexible than the government, they are better able to meet the needs of street children in varied circumstances.^[3]

The Human Rights Watch suggests that censuses of street children should be taken in various cities in order to help NGOs have accurate data about the street children population and plan programmes accordingly.^[10] The Human Rights Watch also makes various legal suggestions for the protection of street children in their study of police abuse and killings of street children. These suggestions include the amendment of Sections 53 and 54 of the Code of Criminal Procedures to make a medical examination necessary when a street child is detained, ratifying the United Nations 1984 Convention Against Torture and Other Forms of

Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, and to amend the Juvenile Justice Act in order to create a mechanism for complaints and prosecutions for abuse.^[10]

Programmes for the development of slum dwellers

- Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission(JNNURM)
- Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP)
- Integrated Housing & Slum Development Programme(IHSDP)
- Swarna Jayanti ShahariRozgarYojana (SJSRY)
- Affordable Housing in Partnership (AHIP)
- Interest Subsidy Scheme for Housing the Urban Poor (ISHUP)
- Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Scheme (ILCS)
- Rajiv AwasYojana (RAY)
- Pradhan MantriAwasYojana (PMAY)

Critical analysis of the Programmes and approaches of Slum

1) Insufficient Resources: Current government allocations for urban slum programs cannot achieve a significant reduction in the numbers living in sub-standard housing unless further contributions from beneficiaries, local governments or the private sector can be mobilized. According to the Government of India, current programs result in less than 100,000 new units a year. Since there are approximately 12 million households dwelling in slums, this funding covers less than 1 percent of the need for better shelter. Leverage is essential if conditions in slums are to be measurably improved. Given the relatively high cost of housing even for the poor, there is ample evidence that contributions from beneficiaries can be a part of this leverage. For example, in the Sanitation Program in Pune and in the Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan, by moving the responsibility of maintenance to the beneficiaries and by levying user charges, the fiscal burden on the state is reduced drastically. In the long run, the capital costs are only a small percentage of the total cost building and maintaining better sanitation facilities. Beneficiary participation makes such programs feasible and allows to increase the coverage of the programs. Such a move will also have beneficiary effects on targeting by reducing the probability of manipulation by interested parties as well as increase efficiency by reducing the per unit subsidies.

2) High per-unit subsidy rates: Subsidy rates ranging between 80 to 90 percent of total cost of housing (see Annex 4) are very high. It is very probable that the government can achieve the same housing objectives with far less direct outlay. By eliminating, the unbudgeted subsidies embodied in free land and loan defaults, the scope of slum programs might be increased three to four-fold. 0 1 2 3 4 Targetting Transparency Administrative Simplicity Efficiency Sustainability VAMBAY NSDP Urban Ashraya IAY MythriBhavanashree Pune Program NBA 9

3) Increase Administrative Simplicity: Reducing the subsidy element in central schemes offers scope for administrative simplification, thus improving effective targeting to poorer states with weak capacity to make use of these programs.

4) Reducing reliance on supply-driven design: Such a move increases beneficiary satisfaction and increases efficiency. This means that using the kind of self-help groups used by the Kudumbashree program in Kerala might be useful not only in furthering the shelter solutions but also in other aspects of poverty eradication.

5) Mobilize alternative mechanisms for beneficiary contributions: Many of the current programs try to increase beneficiary contributions by having a loan component as part of housing subsidy program. Even when these loans are not heavily subsidized through lower than market interest rates, the very poor repayment performance functions as a hidden subsidy. This has undesirable side effects on the viability of state finances and central funding agencies. Therefore, alternatives for mobilizing beneficiary contributions are urgently needed.

6) Prioritised and Demand-driven Programs: In all slum related schemes, specific projects will have to be identified by municipalities in consultation with slum dwellers and given priority. This will ensure that only viable projects are taken up and that community participation is forthcoming. As argued earlier, community participation often optimizes resource use. Furthermore, it might be important to prioritize various projects on set criteria due to the constrain on resources.

7) Land Monitoring and Control: Very often, slums develop on public land. The governmental regulatory/enforcement mechanism that governs these lands has to be strengthened. For instance, as a policy, the concerned department (on whose land the slum has come up) should have to take stock of the land afresh and take care of rehabilitation of the slum dwellers on their own because it was the poor enforcement mechanisms of the department that resulted in the slum. This would trigger a debate on the issues like land management, land-holdings as per requirements, inventory costs and more importantly, exploring the possibilities to sacrifice some land for rehabilitation of slum dwellers. Moreover, it might force the department to retrieve parts of the unused land which could then be commercially exploited to finance the slum rehabilitation programs.

Suggestions

1. Undertake a series of studies and preparatory activities for slum improvement strategies. To do this, a methodology similar to the one described in this paper should be agreed upon in consultation with the MoUDPA and the state government to evaluate the various slum upgrading programs. Furthermore, concrete monitorable steps should also be agreed upon to improve the performance of these projects.

2. Develop appropriate monitoring mechanisms that allows concerned parties to evaluate, modify and/or redesign these programs to improve efficiency, transparency, targeting and administrative simplicity.

3. Develop funding schemes for slum improvement and sanitation that provide incentives to use resources more effectively as well as to expand the reach and coverage of these programs.

4. Strengthen the national resource Cell at the MoUDPA so that it can assume its role as repository of information for policy making. This cell should be supported by a research cells at the national and state levels.

5. Implement GIS based urban planning systems for slum identification and management as well as develop a database of slum dwellers, squatting areas, land policy regulating the area, ownership status to prioritize projects. A mechanism for developing and updating this database will have to be worked out with state and local government bodies.

6. Explore mechanisms for involving public or private sector financial institutions to enlarge the resource base for taking up various slum development programs.

Unit III

Urban Community Development in India

Delhi projects

The project instituted in Delhi was made possible by a grant from the Ford Foundation to the Delhi Municipal Corporation, through the Health Ministry, and work was initially started in September, 1958, with the appointment of a director and consultant. The original grant was for \$25,000, with a subsequent grant of \$155,539 for the continuation of the experiment until March, 1962. Over the three-and-a-half years the Delhi Municipal Corporation contributes an increasing share of the cost annually.

Goals and objectives

The goal of the Delhi Pilot Project has been to promote the growth of healthy, harmonious, and satisfying community life, and to encourage the development of citizens' participation in programs of civic improvement. The objectives are:

1. The social integration of the communities on a local neighborhood basis through participation in *self-help* and mutual aid programs
2. Development of a sense of *civic pride* by stimulating local interest in civic betterment campaigns
3. Preparation of the ground for *democratic decentralization* of municipal services through the organization of VikasMandals (people's development councils) fostering local leadership
4. Creation of the necessary climate for undertaking programs of *economic betterment*, based on maximum use of community resources and local initiative

PLAN:

The Delhi Pilot Project involves seven types of improvements:

- (1) The creation of a Department of Urban Community Development as part of the Delhi Municipal Corporation;
- (2) The organization of the first six citizens' development councils or VikasMandals;
- (3) The establishment of neighborhood councils involving the organization of 32 VikasMandals into three large neighborhoods;
- (4) Improvement of the typically poor sanitary conditions and general disorder in the local bazaars, through community organization;
- (5) An attempt to improve the work of the local voluntary groups, called mohalla committees;

(6) The development of a health and welfare council and community chest to coordinate the welfare services in Delhi and integrate them with the citizen development councils;* and

(7) Various civic campaigns to improve the physical appearance and conditions of the city.

VIKAS MANDALS:

Each project area has a distinctive population composition and physical condition, with local factors which might help or hinder community organization; and each project varies in caste, religion, occupation, and length of residence. On the whole, the projects were designed to recognize the social differentiation and the complexity of life which generally exist in most large urban areas in India. The six areas are as follows:

- A colony built for rehabilitation of squatters from shack bustees,
- Slum area in a highly congested, low-income part of the city with relative unity in occupation and religious background (Muslim).
- Slum area in a highly congested part of the city in a lower-income bracket, with relative unity in occupational and religious background (Hindu).
- An area of predominantly industrial workers.
- Slum area in a highly congested, low-income part of the city with considerable diversity in occupation, caste, and religion.
- Housing colony for displaced persons xvilh chiefly cultural and recreational problems.

Each organizer follows certain specific procedures in organizing an area:

1. A preliminary study is made of the area. Information is secured about physical features, such as lanes, schools, temples, playgrounds, and community centers; the types of dwellings, the physical amenities, and the cleanliness of the area; population
2. composition according to caste, religion, region, and occupation; organized groups; common activities or celebrations and the nature of social relations in the area. A detailed survey is not possible because of time, and also is not advisable because it might unduly arouse among the residents suspicions which could interfere with later organizational work.
3. Following this general survey the organizers call on all residents, door to door, to discover what they think of the area and its problems and whether they would like to do something about them. In addition to securing some factual data, six questions are asked on the initial interview. Tfie questions are phrased to stimulate the people to think about self-help in relation to local problems, and to discover natural leaders in the local area.

4. Natural leaders of the area, through whom the organizers can work, are identified. These are persons who want to see improvement and changes made in the local community, are resourceful and articulate, tolerant of others' opinions, and whose judgment is highly regarded.
5. Regular meetings of the council are held, committees appointed, and citizen discussion-groups organized—particularly at the zone level.
6. Finally, there is the development and implementation of specific action programs devised by the local community and carried out by them.

STIMULATING SELF-HELP

In nearly all projects the initial contacts were met with suspicion, hostility, and apathy. The people of the slums have been so exploited by political parties and welfare organizations and have become so dependent upon government that, in the beginning, they did not believe in the workers or visualize the possibilities of self-help. This situation improved after about three weeks of daily visits to the local areas. **The** workers found that some small incidents often stimulated the people

SOME TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS

Although the period of experimentation has been short, the results have been encouraging. People have responded readily to self-help. Although slum people are largely illiterate, they possess common sense, shrewdness, and ability. With encouragement and stimulation, they show interest in their own betterment. Though poor, they are not happy to live in filthy surroundings or remain illiterate, and they are aware of the contrasts between their own lives and those of many others they have seen in the city. Much knowledge has been gained about the nature of slum life and the difficulties of developing an organization for self-help. The generalizations outlined below will require further testing by the evaluation and research unit.

- Initial suspicion.
- The poverty of the Indian slums is not as great as it first appeared.
- Political feelings are skin deep.
- Improvements in caste and regional relationships must be primarily on a geographical basis.
- Closer Muslim-Hindu relationships can be promoted through Vikas Mandate.
- Limited mobility of people in Indian cities is favorable for the formation of organized activities on a local basis.
- Women are more highly motivated for self-improvement than men.
- Organizing the Vikas Mandate on the basis of zones rather than on the total group of people.
- Should economic improvement be the major objective of the Vikas Mandate?

Hyderabad projects

A number of goals and objectives covering the various facets of the project's work were outlined by project staff. They are given below in four categories:

Self help activities

- To promote self reliance without too much dependence.
- To bring about awareness in the community of its capacities, and develop initiative through young, dynamic and democratic leadership.
- To make people realize that it is they that can carve the nation's future through united effort.
- To create a sense of participation, pride and satisfaction through self experience in community action.

Educational activities

- To create in the people a new outlook and desire for better standards of living
- To broaden their horizon and acquaint them with the latest technological development
- To bring about changes in their behavioral pattern in accordance with the changing values.
- To promote better understanding and healthy neighborhood relations.
- To enlighten the citizens on government policies and programmes so that they can effectively play their role in the nation building activities.

Economic activities

- To provide job opportunities through training courses in better skills
- To assist people in securing jobs and introduce leisure time activities to supplement home income.
- To encourage cottage industries through cooperatives and loans.
- To develop the habit of thrift.
-

Civic amenities

- To promote better living conditions and establish new patterns of civilized behavior.
- To improve slums and other backward areas by providing basic physical needs.
- To develop civic consciousness for greater civic responsibilities.

Content / Component of urban community development program:

A. Environmental change / improvement programmes:

- Slum improvement scheme
- Provision of adequate latrines and urinals
- Provision of street lights
- Provision of adequate water supply / maintenance of water taps.
- Construction of drains / cleanliness of the drains
- Placing dust bins with area name on them / garbage disposal
- Encouraging the people to keep the houses clean
- White washing of the public buildings

- Paving lanes & other community works
- Construction of community halls

B. Family welfare programmes

- Immunizations
- Health and first Aid classes
- Comprehensive medical checkup scheme
- Maternal & Child Health programmes
- Organizing eye camps & family planning work
- Cooking and home making demonstrations
- Supplementary feeding programme, special nutrition programme & mid day meal programme

C. Non formal education programmes

- Balwadis and primary schools
- Night schools
- Libraries and reading rooms
- Community listening sets
- Wall news papers and bulletins
- Organizing study / sight tours
- Cultural, recreational and youth activities
- Cultural programmes & celebrations

D. Self employment programmes:

- Vocational training, - sewing centers, type writing and short hand, auto rickshaw driving photography, radio, television mechanics and other apprenticeship programmes.
- Arranging bank loans housing loans, loans for cobblers, self employed women vendors.
- organizing co operatives, production centers

E. Miscellaneous:

- Civil defence programme
- Emergency relief Gardening and flowering plots
- Beautifying the area
- Zone demarcation and name plates
- Guide map of the area
- Citizen's advisory bureau.

Metropolitan Development Program

The NSW Government has, since the early-1970s, maintained the supply of new home sites to accommodate Sydney's growing population through its urban development program. Since 2001, this has been known as the Metropolitan Development Program (MDP).

The MDP is the Government's key program for tracking and managing housing supply and covers major infill sites in existing urban areas as well as the release of land not previously urbanised, known as greenfield areas, typically on the metropolitan fringes.

The MDP develops an indicative ten-year dwelling supply forecast, which is an important tool in tracking the likely future availability of land for housing purposes, thereby ensuring the demand of the housing market can be adequately met, and the affordability of housing maintained.

It is also a valuable resource for Government agencies which are responsible for the provision of infrastructure by keeping them informed of likely future land release areas that will require infrastructure services such as connection to sewerage, electricity and transport networks.

To assist with these functions, it is a typical requirement that proposed land releases in the metropolitan region are included on the MDP before they can proceed to formal rezoning.

MDP Monitors

The Government is now also releasing MDP reports, providing up to date information on green field land and dwelling supply. These updates are based on information and consultation with local councils, service agencies and industry.

Urban Community Development in Tamil Nadu

MUDP

Municipal Development Funds provide a much needed link between civic infrastructure financing needs and domestic capital markets. The urban financing challenge for Tamil Nadu, given the high urbanization trends and undersupply of civic infrastructure is self-evident.

Since 1988, Government of Tamil Nadu has been implementing the Tamil Nadu Urban Development Project (TNUDP) which was financed by International Development Agency (IDA) of World Bank, of which one of the components was the Municipal Urban Development Fund (MUDF).

The successful track record of MUDF encouraged Government of Tamil Nadu to broaden the scope of the Fund, with a view to attracting private capital into urban infrastructure and facilitate better performing ULBs to access capital markets.

TNUDP

TNUDF was established on November 29, 1996, as a trust under The Indian Trust Act 1882., for development of urban infrastructure in the state of Tamilnadu. TNUDF was formed by conversion of Municipal Urban Development Fund (MUDF), with contribution from *Government of Tamil Nadu* along with all India financial institutions viz., *ICICI Bank Limited* (formerly ICICI Ltd), *HousingDevelopment Finance Corporation Limited* and *Infrastructure Leasing and Financial Services Limited*. TNUDF is the first public-private partnership providing long term debt for civic infrastructure on a non-guarantee mode. TNUDF is managed by a Corporate Trustee viz., Tamil Nadu Urban Infrastructure Trustee Company Limited (TNUITCL). The Board of Trustees periodically review the lending policies and procedures.

Tamil Nadu Urban Infrastructure Financial Services Limited (TNUIFSL) is the Fund Manager of TNUDF

FUND OBJECTIVES

- Fund Urban Infrastructure projects, which improve the living standards of the urban population
- Facilitate private sector participation in infrastructure through joint venture and public-private partnership
- Operate a complementary window, the Grant Fund, to assist in addressing the problems of the urban poor
- Improve the financial management of urban local bodies enabling them to access debt finance from markets

ELIGIBLE BORROWERS

- Urban Local bodies (Corporations, Municipalities & Town Panchayats)
- Any Private Institutions who creates urban infrastructures

RESOURCES

- A sum of Rs.1441.85 crores is available with TNUDF for providing financial assistance for implementation urban infrastructure projects:

Sl.No.	Sources	Available (Rs. in crores)	Availed (Rs. in crores)
1.	Units	199.60	199.60
2.	World Bank - TNUDP II	157.56	157.56
3	World Bank – TNUDP III	602.60	431.82
4.	JICA - TNUIP	180.50	143.60
5	KfW – SMIF -	271.20	191.00

	TN		
	Total	1411.46	1123.58

Tamil Nadu Urban Development Project – III (TNUDP-III) assisted by World Bank

TNUDP III was launched on 19th October 2005. The objectives of TNUDP III are as follows:

- To develop Tamil Nadu Urban Development Fund as financial intermediary to provide financing for infrastructure to ULBs on a sustainable basis.
- To strengthen urban reforms and consolidate the achievements under TNUDP-II in institutional strengthening and capacity building.
- To provide a grant to the Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) to take up traffic and transportation sub-projects in the Chennai Metropolitan Area.

The Project consists of two components namely (i) Institutional Development Component (IDC) managed by Commissionerate of Municipal Administration and

- (ii) Urban Investment Component (UIC) managed by TNUIFSL. The funds under IDC is used towards technical assistance and the funds under UIC is used to finance sustainable urban projects implemented by ULBs. The total outlay of the project is US \$ 434 mn (equivalent to about Rs.1996 crores), of which World Bank line of credit is US \$ 300 mn (equivalent to about Rs.1380 crores).

The project completion period TNUDP III is 31 st March 2012. Considering the time required for completion of the sub-projects under implementation the project period has been extended up to 31st March 2014.

The funding assistance available under TNUDP III to provide term loan to ULBs for implementation of urban infrastructure projects is Rs.602.60 crores. A sum of Rs.564.05 crores has been committed for 101 projects and the balance amount available is Rs.38.55 crores. Of the above 101 projects, 72 projects have been completed and 29 projects are under implementation. As on 31.03.2012 a sum of Rs.384.57 crores has been disbursed as term loan to the projects based on the progress of the projects.

Tamil Nadu Urban Infrastructure Project (TNUIP) assisted by Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA)

TNUIP was launched on 25 th March 2008. The Project implementation period is five years. The objective of the Project is to provide safe and reliable water supply and sewerage services in ULBs by providing long-term financial assistance to construct and improve water supply and sewerage facilities, thereby contributing to improvement of living conditions of local residents in the concerned areas.

The total outlay of the Project is JPY 9824 million (equivalent to about Rs.345 crores), of which JICA's line of credit is JPY 8551 million (equivalent to about Rs.300.04 crores). The line of credit consists of Rs.283.23 crores (Rs.180.50 crores in the form of term loan and Rs.102.73 crores in the form of capital grant) towards implementation of water and sewerage projects and Rs.16.81 crores towards technical assistance.

The funding assistance available under TNUIP to provide term loan to ULBs for implementation of water and sewerage projects is Rs.180.50 crores and the entire amount has been committed for 6 water supply projects. All the 6 projects are under implementation. As on 31.03.2012 a sum of Rs.88.30 crores, has been disbursed as term loan to the projects based on the progress of the projects.

Governmental agencies in Urban Community Development

Structure of the Tamil Nadu Housing Board

Structure and Functions Of The Tamil Nadu Housing Board:

TNHB was formed in 1961 to cope up with the increasing demand in housing sector all over the state of Tamil Nadu due to urban growth leading to migration to urban areas in search of employment opportunities. It is also the principal town planning and city & Suburb development arm of the Tamil Nadu Government. It is under the Department of Housing and Urban Development (Tamil Nadu)

TNHB has created self-sustaining townships in late 1970s and early 1980s like Anna Nagar, Besant Nagar, KK Nagar, Ashok Nagar, Tambaram, Thirumullaivoyal and Shastri Nagar. Owing to the elevation in economic activity to the south of Chennai, it has created self-sustaining township in Sholinganallur with wide roads, residential plots, apartments, school and park zones. It has also completed mid size neighborhood developments in Velachery, Mogappair and Chitlapakkam. Other promotions are also seen as small and mid sized neighbourhoods in tier-II cities like Coimbatore and Madurai.

All residential township developments of TNHB have been a success due to their compliance to the development rules and their not-for-profit motive. As the land required for TNHB layouts are either owned or acquired by the government, they do not cut corners in layout developments which results in suburbs with wide roads and all amenities such as schools, parks, play ground and bus terminuses. The organization caters to all sectors of the society through their HIG, MIG and LIG offerings.

Functions of the Tamil Nadu Housing Board

HUDCO(Housing and Urban Development Corporation)

First Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru's deep commitment to modernity meant that he toyed with the idea of building a genuinely modern city that could act as a role model for modern urban dwellers. The city was Chandigarh, but there are grand debates within the architectural world whether even this was a success or a disaster.

In the **First Five Year Plan (1951-56)**, the government concentrated on institution-building and on construction of homes for government employees and the weaker sections of society. Interestingly, a good part of the Plan outlay was spent on rehabilitation of the refugees from Pakistan and on building the new city of Chandigarh. An Industrial Housing Scheme was also initiated. Chandigarh, with its obvious modernist edge, in some perverted way became the model for the low-cost yellow buildings that were so ubiquitous during the two decades after Indian independence and continue to remain so today.

In the **Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)**, the scope of housing programmes for the poor was expanded. The Industrial Housing Scheme was widened to cover all workers. Three new schemes were introduced: 1) Rural Housing, 2) Slum Clearance and 3) Sweepers Housing. Town and country planning legislations were enacted in many states and necessary organisations were set up for the preparation of Master Plans for important towns. Once again, these schemes were not quite seen to be in tandem with other vital inputs that create habitats -- good roads, deep connections with rural hinterlands and facilities such as hospitals and education.

In the **Third Plan (1961-66)** efforts were made to co-ordinate all agencies and help orient the programmes to the needs of the low-income groups. A scheme was introduced in 1959 to give loans to state governments for a period of 10 years for acquisition and development of land in order to make available building sites in sufficient numbers. Master Plans for major cities were prepared and the state capitals of Gandhinagar and Bhubaneswar were developed. The architectural fetish for starting afresh got a fresh lease of life. The dominant idea became to invest in new townships that often had no connections with earlier built forms and traditional urban habitats.

The Fourth Plan (1969-74) stressed the need to prevent the further growth of population in large cities and the need for decongestion or dispersal of population. This was envisaged through the creation of smaller towns. The Housing & Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) was established to fund housing and urban development programmes. A scheme for environmental improvement was undertaken with a view to providing a minimum level of services, like water supply, sewerage, drainage, street pavements in 11 cities with a population of 800,000 and above. The scheme was later extended to nine more cities. This was in principle a good move, but for reasons to do with the general inability to actually implement grandiose plans, remained excellent ideals.

The Fifth Plan (1974-79) reiterated the policies of the preceding Plans to promote smaller towns in new urban centres, in order to ease the increasing pressure of urbanisation. This was to be supplemented by efforts to augment civic services in urban areas with particular emphasis on a comprehensive and regional approach to problems in metropolitan cities. The Urban Land (Ceiling & Regulation) Act was enacted to prevent concentration of land holdings in urban areas and to make urban land available for construction of houses for the middle- and low-income groups. The fact that historically urban centres sprout organically along trade routes, roadways and food markets was often not grafted on to many of the choices made. The tendency to plan from the above was the standard perspective for many years, and some would say continues to exist even today.

The Sixth Plan (1980-85) focused on integrated provision of services along with shelter, particularly for the poor. The Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) was launched in towns with population below 1 lakh for roads, pavements, minor civic works, bus-stands, markets, shopping complexes etc. Positive inducements were proposed for setting up new industries and commercial and professional establishments in small, medium and intermediate towns. Many of the 4,000-plus townships and urban agglomerations that are part of the 2001 census are a legacy of these moves.

The Seventh Plan (1985-90) stressed the need to entrust the major responsibility of housing construction to the private sector. The National Housing Bank was set up to expand the base of housing finance. The NBO was reconstituted and a new organisation called Building

Material Technology Promotion Council (BMTPC) was set up to promote the commercial production of innovative building materials. A network of Building Centres was also set up during this Plan period. The Seventh Plan explicitly recognised the problems of the urban poor and for the first time an Urban Poverty Alleviation Scheme known as Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP) was launched. Since then, much of the tendency has been to allow for the industries around building materials, mainly cement and steel, to determine the allocation of resources for building environments. This was also the period when private builders got an enormous boost to enter the mass housing market and make materials even more expensive for the poor.

The Eighth Plan (1992-97) for the first time explicitly recognised the role and importance of the urban sector for the national economy. While the growth rate of employment in the urban areas averaged around 3.8% per annum, it dropped to about 1.6% in the rural areas. Therefore, the urban areas have to be enabled to absorb larger increments to the labour force. The Plan identified the key issues in the emerging urban scenario, viz: the widening gap between demand and supply of infrastructural services, which hits the poor, whose access to the basic services like drinking water, sanitation, education and basic healthcare is shrinking; the unabated growth of the urban population, aggravating the accumulated backlog of housing shortages and resulting in the proliferation of slums and squatter settlements and decay of city environments. Once again, we are back to square one: the need to attack poverty in urban areas with the same urgency that motivated anti-poverty rhetoric in the early years of India's modern growth, the need to provide spaces for the poor to enter into economic transactions without fear of harassment from organised markets and local state machinery, the need to make building materials cheap and subsidise land for the poor, create inexpensive medical and health facilities and give priority to primary health. All familiar inputs, which would have qualitatively changed the way the economy would have been had similar investments been made in the rural sector itself, decades ago.

Corporation of Chennai

About Greater Chennai Corporation

Brief Note on Greater Chennai Corporation

The Greater Chennai Corporation (previously Madras) is the Oldest Municipal Institution in India established on the 29th September 1688. A charter was issued on the 30th December, 1607 by East Indian Company constituting the "Town of Fort St. George" and all the territories thereunto belonging, not exceeding the distance of ten miles from the Fort, into a Corporation. The Parliamentary Act of 1792 gave the Corporation power to levy Municipal Taxes in the City. The Municipal administration properly commenced from the Parliamentary Act, 1792 making provision for the good order and administration of the city. The Municipal Act has been amended introducing from time to time major changes in the constitution and powers of the Corporation. The Madras Municipal Corporation Act, 1919 (as amended) provides the basic Statutory authority for the administration now.

HISTORY

Sir Josiah Child, one of the directors of the East India Company was responsible for the formation of the Greater Chennai Corporation, on the model of Dutch Government in the East Indies. On 29th September 1688, the corporation was inaugurated with power to decide petty cases, levy rates upon the inhabitants for building of schools, a town hall and a jail. Mr. Nathaniel Higginson was nominated as First mayor with 12 aldermen and 60 burgesses.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET UP

The Council of 200 councilors is headed by the Honorable Mayor and Council meets ordinarily once in a month. The executive wing is headed by the Commissioner. There are Deputy Commissioners and various Heads of Departments and 15 Zonal Officers at present.

AREA & POPULATION

Chennai is located on the Coromandel Coast on the Northern end of the State of Tamil Nadu. The city stretches along the Coromandel Coast much of its superb sandy beach and extends inland. Its irregular shape covers about 426 Sq. Km. The estimated present population of Chennai is 7.1 Million.

SALIENT FEATURES OF Greater Chennai Corporation

Greater Chennai Corporation is Maintaining 1160 roads to a length of 370 Km and storm water drain to a length of 962 Km. Total numbers of street lights in Chennai city under the maintenance of Greater Chennai Corporation is 2, 13, 045 and using 19 megawatts per day, and spending 2 lakhs for electric consumption per day. Greater Chennai Corporation having 260 parks and constructed 113 community halls for public purpose. Greater Chennai Corporation is removing 5000-5200 MT of solid waste per day through 966 conservancy vehicles and maintaining Kodungaiyur and Perungudi dumping grounds for dumping the solid waste. The total birth reported in Chennai city is 400 per day and death is 180 per day. Currently 23,538 staffs are working in it.

The Annual Budgetary estimate of Greater Chennai Corporation in 2012-13 revenue is 1326.11 crores and expenditure is 1232.97 crores. Surplus income is 93.14 crores.

INDUSTRIES

Over the years, the City has developed in trade, commerce and industry. Chennai City is the biggest industrial and commercial centre of South India. There are about 15,000 industries and factories licensed in the Chennai City.

CLIMATE

Chennai climate varies from humid to hot humid with 24° C mean temperature.

CMDA

Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA)

ABOUT CMDA

Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) was constituted as an ad-hoc body in 1972 and become statutory body in 1974 vide the Tamil Nadu Town and Country Planning Act 1971. It was established under the sub-section 1 of the section 9 –A (2) of the Act.

FUNCTIONS

- i. To carry out a survey of the Chennai Metropolitan planning area and prepare reports on the surveys so carried out.
- ii. To prepare a Master Plan or Detailed Development Plan or New Town development Plan as the case may be for the Chennai Metropolitan planning Area.
- iii. To prepare an existing land use map and such other maps as may be necessary for the purpose of preparing any development plan.
- iv. To cause to be carried out such works as are contemplated in any development plan.
- v. To designate the whole of Chennai Metropolitan planning area or any part thereof with in its jurisdiction as a new town and to perform the following function viz.
 - a. To prepare a New Town development plan for the area concerned , and
 - b. To secure the laying out and development of the new town in accordance with the New Town development plan.
- vi. To perform such other functions as may be entrusted to it by the Government.
 - a. The Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority may by order, entrust to any local authority or other Authority as may be specified in such order, the work of execution any development plan prepared by it.

- b. The Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority may by order, authorize any local authority or other authority as may be specified in such order, to exercise any of the power vested in by or under the Town and Country Planning Act -1971 and may in like manner with draw such authority and the exercise of any power delegated in this behalf shall be subject to such restrictions and conditions as may be specified in such order.
- vii. *List of local bodies covered under the CMA are Chennai Corporation, 16 Municipalities, 20 Town Panchayats and 214 villages covered in 10 Panchayats Unions*

VISION

The vision of Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority is to provide people friendly administration in the process of ensuring better quality of life in Chennai Metropolitan Area through environmentally sustainable, economically progressive, technologically innovative management policies and programs.

MOTTO

Better Chennai

MEMBERS

1. Hon'ble Minister for Housing and Urban Development	Chairman
2. Vice- Chairman, CMDA	Vice Chairman
3. Member-Secretary, CMDA	Member
4. Secretary to Government H&UD	Member
5. Secretary to Government, Finance Dept.	Member
6. Secretary to Government, Industries Dept.	Member
7. Secretary to Government, Transport Dept.	Member
8. Commissioner, Corporation of Chennai	Member
9. Managing Director CMWSS Board	Member
10. Director, Town & Country Planning	Member
11. Chief Urban Planner, CMDA	Member
12. Chief Engineer, Highways & Rural Works Department	Member
13. Chief Architect to Government	Member
14. Joint Director, Town & Country Planning	Member
15. Chairman, Tamilnadu Housing Board	Member
16. Chairman Tamilnadu Slum Clearance Board	Member
17. Member of the State Legislative Assembly	2 Members
18. Representatives of Local Bodies in CMA	4 Members
19. Member-Secretary Tamil nadu Pollution Control Board	Special Invitee

CMDA UNITS**CITIZEN'S CHARTER**

Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) hereby makes known its commitment in delivering services to the Citizens of Chennai Metropolitan Area (CMA) through this charter.

AREA PLANS UNIT

Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority has jurisdiction over the Chennai Metropolitan Area (CMA) covering 1189 sq.km which includes Chennai City Corporation, 16 Municipalities, 20 Town Panchayats, 214 Villages in 10 Panchayat Unions and 2 Cantonments.

Area Plans Unit in CMDA performs the statutory functions of Regulation of development.

AREA DEVELOPMENT UNIT

For implementing one of the strategies of the first Master Plan for the Chennai Metropolitan Area (i.e. decongestion of the city core by shifting some of the wholesale trades concentrated in the George Town area), a separate unit Viz. Area development Unit (ADU) is functioning with in CMDA. This unit is having, a Planning Wing, Construction Wing and Allotment Wing, apart from Administration and Finance Divisions.

The Planning wing formulates the projects by selecting suitable locations to implement decongestion projects (for example shifting the perishable markets, Iron and Steel markets, Truck terminals and Muffisil Bus stand).

The Construction Wing attached to this unit is executing the civil works; the Allotment wing takes care of Estate Management including identifying the beneficiaries and making allotments to the target groups

MASTER PLAN

The Government of Tamil Nadu has constituted Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) in 1974 statutorily under the **Tamil Nadu Town and Country Planning Act, 1971**. Chennai Metropolitan Area (CMA) extends over 1189 sq.km.and comprises of **Chennai Corporation, 16 Municipalities, 20 Town Panchayats and 214 villages covered in 10 Panchayats Unions**

MASTER PLAN

The Government of Tamil Nadu has constituted Chennai Metropolitan Development Authority (CMDA) in 1974 statutorily under the **Tamil Nadu Town and Country Planning Act, 1971**. Chennai Metropolitan Area (CMA) extends over 1189 sq.km.and comprises of **Chennai Corporation, 16 Municipalities, 20 Town Panchayats and 214 villages covered in 10 Panchayats Unions**

CONSTRUCTION WING

The regular Engineering Departments like PWD, Highways, Housing Board, Slum clearance Board, Metro water, TWAD Board, etc., are involved in the implementation of their own specified nature of work. But after the formation of a Developmental Authority for Chennai namely CMDA the prime objective of this organization was the decongestion of the Central Business District (CBD). To achieve this goal, the concept of New Town in the periphery of Chennai , shifting of the wholesale trade activity out side CBD, formation of Truck terminal on all major corridor entering the city, relocating the Bus Terminus etc., were planned. Since the above said agencies were not involved in such infrastructure development, CMDA took up these projects by having its own Engineering Wing during 1984.

Non-Governmental agencies in Urban Community Development.**Unit IV****People's participation in Urban Community Development**

Social work from its initiation is rooted in a participatory manner. But unfortunately, community participation has not got its status in the social work circle. The ultimate aim of the social worker should be the empowerment of the people in the society, so as to deal with their problems in an effective manner by using their resources fruitfully and effectively. It is the social worker in his/her various roles must elicit the participation from the clientele group and various levels of community. So it is a must for every social worker to have ground level knowledge on community participation. The intention of the article is to bring a basic level understanding about the concept of community participation, its underlying dimensions, and supporting theories and so on.

Concept of involvement

Participation is a concept understood and conceptualised differently by its users. Here are some of the common definitions for participation. Participation is defined as a voluntary contribution by the people in one or another of the public programmes supposed to contribute to national development, but the people are not expected to take part in shaping the programme or in criticising its contents. (Leyland, 1991, Economic Commission for Latin America, 1973) ·Participation includes people's involvement in decision making process, in implementing programmes, their sharing in benefits of development programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes (Cohen and Uphoff)

Importance and scope of people's participation

- Efficiency: Participation can ensure effective utilisation of available resources.
- Effectiveness: People's participation can make the projects more effective by granting them a say in deciding the objectives and strategies, and by participating in implementation, thereby ensuring effective utilisation of resources
- Self reliance: With the active involvement of the local people, the mentality of dependency can be broken as well as to increase their awareness, self-confidence, and control of the development process.
- Coverage: People's participation can be a potent way of ensuring the flow of the benefits to the target group.
- Sustainability: People's participation is regarded as an essential prerequisite for the continuity of the activities.

Factors hindering promoting people's participation

- Participation may lead to a delayed start and slow progress in the initial stages of field work, thereby delaying the achievement of physical as well as financial targets.
- An increased requirement of material as well as of human resources to support participation may become necessary because in a participatory process and hence costly method.
- Since participation is a process, once it is initiated the process has to be allowed to take its own course and hence may not move along the expected lines.
- Lots of expectations are generated when community participation takes place, but however that may not be realised.

Unit V

Conscientization

Conscientization

The process of developing a critical awareness of one's social reality through reflection and action. Action is fundamental because it is the process of changing the reality. Paulo Freire says that we all acquire social myths which have a dominant tendency and so learning is a critical process which depends upon uncovering real problems and actual needs.

Codification

This is a way of gathering information in order to build up a picture around real situations and real people. De-codification is a process whereby the people in a group begin to identify with aspects of the situation until they feel themselves to be in the situations and so able to reflect critically upon its various aspects thus gathering understanding. It is like a photographer bringing a picture into focus.

History

Paulo Freire was born in 1921 in Recife Brazil. In 1947 he began work with adult illiterates in North- East Brazil and gradually evolved a method of work with which the conscientization has been associated. Until 1964 he was Professor of History and Philosophy of Education in the University of Recife and in the 1960s he was involved with a popular education movement to deal with massive illiteracy. From 1962 there were widespread experiments with his method and the movement was extended under the patronage of the federal government. In 1963-64 there were courses for coordinators in all Brazilian states and a plan was drawn up for the establishment of 2000 cultural circles to reach 2,000,000 illiterates.

Freire was imprisoned following the 1964 coup d'état for what the new regime considered to be subversive elements in his teaching. He next appeared in Chile where his method was used and the UN School of Political Sciences held seminars on his work. In 1969-70 he was visiting Professor at the Centre for the Study of Development and Social Change at Harvard University.

He then went to the World Council of Churches in Geneva where, in 1970, he took up a post as special consultant in the Office of Education. Over the next nine years in that post he advised on education reform and initiated popular education activities with a range of groups.

Paulo Freire was able to return to Brazil by 1979, Freire joined the Workers' Party in Sao Paulo and headed up its adult literacy project for six years. When the party took control of Sao Paulo municipality following elections in 1988, Paulo Freire was appointed as Sao Paulo's Secretary of Education. Freire died in 1997. He was not social worker but social thinker.

Concepts used by Paulo Freire

Praxis (Action/Reflection)

It is not enough for the people to come together in dialogue in order to gain knowledge of their social reality. They must act together upon their environment in order critically to reflect upon their reality and so transform it through further action and critical reflection.

Generative Themes

According to Paulo Freire, an epoch " is characterized by a complex of ideas, concepts, hopes, doubts, values and challenges in dialectical interaction with their opposites striving towards their fulfilment". The concrete representation of these constitute the themes of the

epoch .For example, we may say that in our society of the elderly and disabled. In social analysis these themes may be discovered in a concrete representations in which the opposite theme is also revealed (i.e. each theme interacts with its opposite).

Quotes by Paulo Freire

From the ‘‘Pedagogy of the Oppressed.....’’

‘‘the oppressed instead of striving for liberation tend themselves to become oppressed.’’

‘‘liberation is thus a childbirth and a painful one’’.

‘‘The oppressed want at any cost to resemble the oppressors.’’

‘‘ Attempting to liberate the oppressed without their reflective participation in the act of liberation is to treat them as object that must be saved from a burning building.’’

‘‘Implicit in the banking concept is the assumption of a dichotomy between human beings and the world a person is merely in the world not with the world or with others the individual is spectator

‘‘Problem-posing education affirms men and women as beings in the process of becoming.’’

‘‘To speak a true word is to transform the world.’’

‘‘ Welfare programme as instruments of manipulation ultimately serve the end of conquest. They act as an anesthetic, distracting the oppressed from the true causes of their problems and from the concrete solutions of these problems.’’

‘‘ Leaders who do not act dialogically, but insist on imposing their decisions, do notorganise the people they manipulate them. They do not liberate, nor liberated: theyoppress.’’

Goal settings

Setting goals is a great way to give yourself direction, focus and motivation. Whether your goals are big or small, the first step in achieving them is deciding what they are! Learn how to define your goals and to put together a plan for how you'll achieve them.

This can help if:

- you feel overwhelmed by how much is going on in your life
- you feel like you're lacking direction
- you have a big project or dream that you want to get started on.

Why goal setting is useful

Making something you want in life an actual goal is a really great way to make it happen. That's because you're making a decision to act in order to get what you want. Goals give you direction, keep you focused and motivated, and increase your chances of achieving things.

The goals you set need to be meaningful to you; they shouldn't be things that you think you 'should' be doing. You'll get the most benefit out of achieving goals that are important to you.

How to define your goals

To set a goal, you need to know what it is you want in the first place. Failing to identify what you're hoping to achieve can be a huge stumbling block. Here are some tips for helping you to work out what you want:

1. Start with the things you enjoy. We are happiest when we're using our strengths. Write down the five things you enjoy most in life. Can you identify any goals associated with using these strengths?

2. Don't get too caught up in 'big' things. A lot of the time when we think about goals, we think they need to be really big – and this can be overwhelming. Change how you think about goals. A goal can be anything you want to do or achieve – big, small or completely random, such as learning how to tell a great story at a party, or taking part in a fun-run dressed as a stormtrooper.

3. Think about what you don't want. Write a list of five or ten things that you don't want. Then turn them around to become positive goals. For example, turn the negative goal 'I don't want to be stuck at home' into a positive one: 'I want to travel.'

Three steps to effective goal setting

When you have an idea about what you want, there are three simple steps you can take for setting a goal for yourself.

1. Define your goal. Remember, you need to make your goal specific *and* realistic. This means that your goal should be achievable, measurable and have an end point. If you're not sure whether your goal is realistic, talk to someone you trust about it.

2. Set sub-goals. Breaking up your goal into sub-goals will help you stay motivated, particularly in the case of a larger goal that will take time to achieve. Write down your sub-goals and make them milestones, so you can recognise and celebrate the progress you've made in achieving them.

3. Set a time frame. Deadlines keep you on the go and help you to stay motivated. For each written sub-goal, add a deadline to prevent you from putting things off or losing sight of your main goal.

Identifying and developing leadership

Strong leaders have an enormous impact on the success of an organization. In fact, according to data from CEB Global, teams with enterprise leaders are 68% more innovative, 35% more engaged, 21% more adaptable, and have 20% better customer satisfaction than teams with weaker leadership. Other research shows that companies with top-tier leadership outperform others by 19% overall.

Unfortunately, many organizations struggle to find and promote effective leaders within their organizations. Surveys of HR professionals conducted by OnPoint show that many do not believe their organizations have the ability to reliably identify and develop employees with a high potential for leadership.

This assertion is backed up by other research from Gallup, which states that "Companies fail to choose the candidate with the right talent for the job 82% of the time" and that "only one in 10 people possess high talent to manage."

The lack of high-potential employees and the frequent misidentification of leadership candidates contributes to enormous amounts of wasted time, money, and effort developing people who are not a good fit for the role. This, in turn, leads to *more* wasted time, money, and effort fixing the problems—such as increased employee turnover, reduced productivity/engagement, and the need to find suitable replacements.

With these issues in mind, how can your business improve its approach to identifying and developing future leaders in the here and now?

Best Practices for Identifying Tomorrow's Leaders, Today

If only one in ten people have the right combination of talent and aptitude to be effective leaders, how can your organization make sure that it's identifying the right people to develop? There are several components to creating a robust and reliable process for identifying high-potential leaders in your organization, including:

- **Developing a Success Profile for Each Position.** What does success look like for a given role in your organization? Creating a comprehensive profile of the skills and behaviors that contribute to success in a given position—based on input from both stakeholders and employees—can help you identify high-potential employees who possess those characteristics.
- **Conduct Behavioral Interviews.** Conducting interviews with candidates helps you assess what they've done and how they did it. They also allow you to determine how self-aware the candidate is by comparing their self-assessment to the assessments of those around them.

- **Collect 360 Feedback.** Gather feedback about leadership candidates from stakeholders, supervisors, and other employees to assess the candidate's strengths and weaknesses as perceived by others.
- **Administer Leadership Questionnaires.** These questionnaires allow you to measure the key characteristics, preferences, and motivations of leadership candidates in an objective, data-driven manner. They're particularly useful for identifying potential warning signs of a poor-fit candidate.
- **Have Candidates Participate in Simulations.** Live simulations of real-world challenges and situations that leaders face help you assess a candidate's judgement and adaptability in a controlled setting.
- **Provide Feedback to Stakeholders.** Key stakeholders should be kept apprised of assessment results and counseled for their input on the leadership development process. This helps inform organizational decisions about succession management moving forward.
- **Review Assessment Results with Leadership Candidates.** Discussing results with the participants helps keep them informed about where they are in the leadership development process and what they need to do to keep moving forward.

These steps help to create a comprehensive leadership assessment process that can be used to reliably identify high-potential leadership candidates. The information gathered in the assessment can also be useful for customizing the development program content to best address a candidate's strengths and weaknesses.

Best Practices for Leadership Development

Following the leadership assessment, you will have a pool of high-potential leadership candidates to develop. However, just having high-potential employees isn't enough—those employees have to be developed in a way that sets them up for success in a leadership role.

Some best practices for leadership development programs include:

- **Adapting Program Content to Specific Development Needs.** The leadership assessment provides you with a comprehensive understanding of a candidate's strengths and opportunities for growth. Using this information, it is possible to shape program content to help developing leaders grow.
- **Using a Variety of Learning Approaches.** If learning isn't engaging, it may not provide much benefit. One of the keys to creating an engaging learning experience is to offer a variety of learning opportunities, such as action learning teams, webinars, leadership workshops, educational articles, and cross-training sessions.
- **Focusing On Critical Behaviors.** To drive success after the program is complete, companies need to focus on the critical behaviors that they've identified as necessary for success in a given role—such as influencing skills, change management, decision making, and trust-building. Prioritizing these behaviors is crucial for leadership success at all levels.
- **Leverage Technology to Increase Scalability While Reducing Costs.** Technology tools for employee learning and development have grown by leaps and bounds over the last few decades. Not only can multimedia tools such as online videos and podcasts help you deliver a variety of engaging content, they make it easier than ever to distribute learning resources to employees who are working remotely so they can access resources at a time of their choosing.
- **Focus On “Out of the Classroom” Learning Opportunities.** Research shows that formal training programs account for as little as 10% of employee learning at work. The bulk of employee learning occurs on the job (70%) or through coaching/mentoring at work (20%). Because of this, focusing on creating on the job learning opportunities massively increase the effectiveness of your leadership development efforts—while also linking learning content to real-world work situations. Mentorship programs that pair developing leaders with current leaders can also expose learners to effective examples of leadership early on.

- **Evaluate the Impact of Learning Content.** Top-tier leadership development programs use frequent assessments to track the progress of high-potential employees and constantly tweak program content to their needs. By continually collecting data, it is possible to see what is and is not working in the program and refine it to minimize wasteful spending and improve ROI by focusing on what works.

Being able to identify the high-potential leaders within your organization and prepare them for future leadership roles is crucial for the long-term success of your business. With a strong pipeline of candidates who are prepared to take over leadership roles when necessary, the task of managing succession when leaders leave the organization is made easier and disruptions from sudden vacancies are minimized.

A strong succession management process that includes leadership assessments can help prevent your company from wasting time and money on investing in and promoting the wrong employees. Likewise, a strong leadership development program that leverages best practices can help to improve the ROI from your investments in your future leaders by improving the program's success rate.

Get started on improving your company's succession management strategy by using the best practices outlined above. If you want to learn more about identifying and developing future leaders, please read our free guide on the subject.

If you have any questions, please contact OnPoint Consulting today. We have years of experience in helping organizations meet their goals and overcome the challenges of developing their future leaders—including global organizations that have to orchestrate learning and development for remote employees and offices.

Resource mobilization

Resource Mobilization

Definition

Resource Mobilization is a process, which will identify the resources essential for the development, implementation and continuation of works for achieving the organization's mission. In real terms, Resource Mobilization means expansion of relations with the Resource Providers, the skills, knowledge and capacity for proper use of resources. Resource Mobilization does not only mean use of money but it extensiveness denotes the process that achieves the mission of the Organization through the mobilization of knowledge in human, use of skills, equipment, services etc. It also means seeking new sources of resource mobilization and right and maximum use of the available resources.

Studying the various structure and areas of Resource Mobilization, it is to seeking out resources that are essential and can be used to achieve one's mission and it maximum use. There are mechanisms that can be used to develop and expand relations with the resource providers (INGOs, Government, Private Sector, Community or any Organization) and receive resources. The importance of Resource Mobilization becomes less and questions are raised on the proper use of available resources. Resource Mobilization will be meaningless for the NGO leadership that has not thought of making the organization sustainable. Resource mobilization collects resources from the various resource providers by expanding the relation of the Organization, which in turn brings down the financial risk, gives diversity to the program and enhances the managerial capacity of the program.

Importance of Resource Mobilization

- To diversify and expand resources.
- Resource Mobilization helps to formulate an independent budget.
- To decrease dependency on others.
- For sustainability of the Organization and program.
- For maximum use of domestic capital and skills.
- To expand deep relations with the stakeholder and community.
- To clean the image of the Organization and expand relations.
- To fulfill responsibilities towards the community.
- To run programs based on the genuine needs of the community
- To enhance the dignity of one's Organization.
- Features of Resource Mobilization
- Resource identification
- Identification of Resource Provider
- Identification of mechanism to receive resource 16
- Expansion of relations with the Resource Provider
- Right use of resource
- Knowledge and skills to Resource Mobilization
- Human skills, service, information, equipment
- Seeking out new resource
- Thought of institutional sustainability
- Lower financial risk

Human resource development resolving group conflicts

Human Resource Development

Human Resource Development (HRD) is the framework for helping employees develop their personal and organizational skills, knowledge and abilities. A set of systematic and planned activities designed by an organization or HR department to provide its members with the necessary skills to meet current and future job demands.

Relationship between HRM and HRD

- Human Resource Management (HRM) has many functions.
- Human Resource Development (HRD) is just one of the functions within HRM functions of HRD
- Training and development (T&D)
- Organizational development
- Career development

Training and Development

- Training – improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of employees for the short-term, particular to a specific job or task.
- Employee orientation
- Skills & technical training
- Coaching Training and Development
- Development– Preparing for future responsibilities, while increasing the capacity to perform at a current job

Programme planning and service delivery

Eliciting people's participation

Monitoring

Monitoring is an accompanying process through the various steps of the community development spiral and is essential to adjust the process so that the ultimate goal is achieved. It involves critical observation and analysis of emerging phenomena throughout the process and provides insights to take corrective measures as necessary.

The community has to be encouraged to concentrate not only on the immediate outputs of their activities but also on the contribution of the achieved outputs regarding desired outcomes and impacts. The development of the capacity of the community to practise outcome-oriented monitoring can contribute significantly to improve their livelihood. In some cases unexpected outcomes that are not desirable arise and corrective measures have to be taken. Again it is the community that has to develop the necessary monitoring abilities, always supported by facilities.

Continuous monitoring by different stakeholders, including external actors, contributes to continuous improvement of community development activities and to the achievement of short-medium and long-term goals.

Evaluation.

At the end of such a community development cycle systematic evaluation is helpful to improve the next projects but also to systematically strengthen the abilities of communities and other involved actors to work more and more effectively in improving the situation at the community level. Insights gained through such evaluations can also contribute to improvement of community development practices in general and to the formulation of guidelines or policy frameworks at a higher level.