

PEOPLE, GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT

A STUDY OF SILIGURI MUNICIPAL CORPORATION AREA

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Preface

The trajectory of the concept of development in the time-line framework has come under the most stressful period in the form of sustainable development. This particularly applies to urban conglomerations in India and the city of Siliguri is no exception to it. The manifold problem of urbanization has now compelled one to think over the question, 'Can city be a livable place?' This is in the context of human-induced damage to the physical environment of almost all cities in India which usually have harmful consequences for human welfare, either now or in the future. In a nutshell, if development of an urban area is to be done on a sustainable basis, there is an urgent need for the adoption of 'good practice' on the part of all stakeholders residing in a city/town.

Given this background, the present dissertation modestly seeks to explore some of the key issues of development within Siliguri Municipal Corporation area, one of the fastest growing cities of West Bengal. Due to its location advantage, this city in the northern part of North Bengal in the State of West Bengal has witnessed unprecedented growth from a Class V town in 1931 with a meager population of 6,067 to a big city today catering a population of about 0.58 million. Needless to say, this phenomenal growth, majorly in an unplanned manner, has led to the degradation of urban Siliguri's water, air, land and greenery and has transformed it into a concrete jungle on the one hand and innumerable spots of slum and squatter settlements on the other hand. The present work, thus, tries to deal with some of the relevant contemporary issues of development of Siliguri, namely, sanitation; water supply; transportation, pollution and social forestry; and slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation from two perspective: one, the efforts and inadequacies of Siliguri Municipal Corporation and other associated institutions'; and two, the level of participation of city-dwellers in the developmental process of Siliguri. The present study may be bracketed as an evaluative one with reformative suggestions.

The present dissertation is divided into six Chapters. Chapter One is an introductory one laying down the objective, theoretical framework, methodology and significance of the study. Chapter Two peeps into the framework of urban

development, urban governance and urban participation in the Indian context. Chapter Three seeks to provide an insight on the historical profile of Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area. Chapter Four looks into the efforts and inadequacies of Siliguri Municipal Corporation and associated institutions in the developmental aspects of Siliguri undertaken for study. Chapter Five makes a case of the level of and problems in participation of the city-dwellers in the above mentioned issues of development of Siliguri. Finally, Chapter Six concludes with the summary of the whole issue of development, governance and participation in the context of the city of Siliguri.

In writing this dissertation, the most distinctive contributions have been of my supervisor, Dr. M. Yasin, who motivated, supported and guided me during various stages of its preparation and my father, who used to send newspaper cuttings and copies of various Reports and Acts related to the topic from distant Mumbai on a regular basis. My special thanks go to the Principal and all teaching and non-teaching fraternity of my A.C.College, Jalpaiguri as well as to all my dear students for extending their warm support throughout my endeavour. I will always feel indebted to Sri Sujit Ghosh, Assistant Professor, Department of History, A.C.College; Sri Parimal Bapari, Assistant Professor, Department of History, A.C.College; Sri Joydeep Bhattacharya, Assistant Professor, Department of English, Kurseong College and my friends Sri Harendra Sharma and Sri Rakesh Jha, all of whom despite being busy in their assignments, accompanied me during my field surveys on several occasions and provided me with valuable inputs being natives of Siliguri. It would be unfair on my part if I do not mention the names of Dr. Sudip Chakraborty, Associate Professor, Department of Economics, A.C.College and Sri Prabir Panda, Assistant Professor, Siliguri Institute of Technology, both of whom have been a tremendous source of inspiration for me.

I must admit that before undertaking my case study of Siliguri Municipal Corporation, I had expected grudging cooperation from the political representatives and urban officials. To my surprise and delight, I found them eager to discuss, baring few aberrations, the manifold problems confronting Siliguri and they also suggested the ways in which the work might be utilized to help them. However, it is not possible to mention in this short space the names of all of them who gave their time, energy and hospitality. I am profoundly in their debt as without their enthusiastic cooperation and candid approach, I would not

have been successful in my objective. Nonetheless, I must mention the names of Sri Kajal Kanti Saha, Secretary, SMC; Sri Balaram Nath, Chairman, Borough Committee I, SMC; Sri Sujoy Ghatak, MMIC, Conservancy and Environment, SMC; Smt. Pampa Das, MMIC, Water Supply, SMC; Sri Sanjay Pathak, MMIC, Slum Development, UPE Cell, Child and Mother Welfare, SMC; Sri Anup Chakraborty, Conservancy and Environment Department, SMC; Sri Rajat Roy Choudhury, Sanitary Inspector, Borough Committee II, SMC; Smt. Bijita Choudhury, Town Project Officer, UPE Cell, SMC; Sri Subroto Biswas, UPE Cell, SMC and Community Organisers Sri Dipankar Saha, Smt. Bina Paul and Smt. Parbati Kar as well as Sri Tushar Kanti Ray, Asstt. Regional Planner, SJDA and Smt. Nandini Bhattacharya, Public Relation Assistant, SJDA.

People who responded my questionnaires need special thanks, particularly the Chairpersons of the CDSs, RCVs and citizens dwelling in slum pockets.

Finally, I do not want to belittle the status of my better half, Smt. Kakoli Ghosh, by extending formal thanks to her who throughout the work successfully shared my moments of doubt and frustration. How can I forget my source of trance, my son, Master Shlok Das, who perhaps felt my stress and never ever demanded paternal love, affection and care during the last stages of the work? Mention must be made of my brother and sister for their encouragement on a continual basis. In the end, I touch the feet of my father and mother who very often encouraged me on phone from distant Mumbai and I dedicate this work to them.

I cannot help submitting that the present work is a humble effort on my part. There may be few shortcomings in the work and I owe on to myself, mistakes committed unknowingly in the preparation of the material.

15th January, 2011

Chinmayakar Das
(CHINMAYAKAR DAS)

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ABBREVIATIONS

- ACA – Additional Central Assistance
ACHFs – Apex Cooperative Housing Federations
ADB – Asian Development Bank
AHIP – Affordable Housing in Partnership
AIH&PH – All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health
APL – Above Poverty Line
AUWSP – Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme
AUWSP – Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme
BARC – Bhabha Atomic Research Centre
BATF – Bangalore Agenda Task Force
BEUP – Bidhayak Elaka Unnayan Prakalpa
BMTPC – Building Materials and Technology Promotion Council
BOT – Build-Operate-Transfer
BPL – Below Poverty Line
BPO – Business Product Outsourcing
BRGF – Backward Region Grant Fund
BSUP – Basic Services to the Urban Poor
CAA – Constitutional Amendment Act
CBHI – Central Bureau of Health Intelligence
CBO – Community Based Organisation
CDP – City Development Plan
CD-ROM – Compact Disc – Read Only Memory
CDS – Community Development Society
CEP – Continuing Education Programme
CEPT – Centre for Environmental Planning & Technology
CGWB – Central Ground Water Board
CMP – Comprehensive Mobility Plan
CO – Community Organiser
CPCB – Central Pollution Control Board
CPHEEO – Central Public Health and Environmental Engineering Organisation
CPWD – Central Public Works Department
CRUPO – Central Regional and Urban Planning Organisation
CSR – Corporate Social Responsibility
CWC – Central Water Commission
CWR – Central Water Reservoir
DDA – Delhi Development Authority
DFI – Direct Foreign Investment
DFID – Department for International Development

DIF – Darjeeling Improvement Fund
DLB – Directorate of Local Bodies
DoMA – Department of Municipal Affairs
DoNER – Department of North Eastern Region
DPR – Detailed Project Report
DUAC – Delhi Urban Arts Commission
DWCUA – Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas
EIUS – Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums
ERP – Environmental Regional Planning
EWS – Economically Weaker Section
FIRE-D – Financial Institutions Reform and Expansion
GOI – Government of India
HG – Housing Guarantee
HRD – Human Resource Development
HSUI – Housing Start-Up Index
HUDCO – Housing and Urban Development Corporation
IDSMT – Integrated Development of Small and Medium Town
IGNDPS – Indira Gandhi National Disability Pension Scheme
IGNOAPS – Indira Gandhi Old Age Pension Scheme
IGNWPS – Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme
IHSDP – Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme
IL&FS – Infrastructure Leasing and Financial Services
ILCS – Integrated Low Cost Sanitation
ILGUS – Institute of Local Government and Urban Studies
INDSTT – Indian Society for Trenchless Technology
IP – Industrial and Economic Planning
IPNM – Integrated Plant Nutrient Management
ISHUP – Interest Subsidy Scheme for Housing the Urban Poor
JBIC – Japan Bank for International Cooperation
JNNURM – Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission
JRY – Jawahar Rozgar Yojana
JSY – Janani Suraksha Yojana
KMDA – Kolkata Metropolitan Development Authority
KUSP – Kolkata Urban Services for the Poor
LCPD – Litres Per Capacity Per Day
LICI – Life Insurance Corporation of India
LIG – Low Income Group
LSP – Liberation of Scavengers Programme
MDGs – Millennium Development Goals
MDM – Mid-Day Meal

MED – Municipal Engineering Directorate
MIS – Management Information System
MLD – Million Litres Per Day
MMIC – Member, Mayor-in-Council
MoA – Memorandum of Agreement
MoEF – Ministry of Environment and Forests
MoHFW – Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
MoHUPA – Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation
MoUD – Ministry of Urban Development
MoWR – Ministry of Water Resources
MPLAD – Member of Parliament Local Area Development
MRCP – Mahananda River Conservation Plan
MSW – Municipal Solid Waste
MUT – Metropolitan and Union Territories
NBCC – National Building Construction Corporation
NBO – National Building Organisation
NBPF – North Bengal Plastic Federation
NCHF – National Co-operative Housing Federation of India
NCR – National Capital Region
NCRPB – National Capital Region Planning Board
NEERI – National Environmental Engineering Research Institute
NFBS – National Family Benefit Scheme
NGO – Non Governmental Organisation
NHAI – National Highway Authority of India
NHC – Neighbourhood Committee
NHG – Neighbourhood Group
NICD – National Institute of Communicable Disease
NICMAR – National Institute of Construction, Management and Research
NIOT – National Institute of Ocean Technology
NIUA – National Institute of Urban Affairs
NIUA – National Institute of Urban Affairs
NMT – Non-Motorized Transport
NRCD – National Rivers Conservation Directorate
NRY – Nehru Rozgar Yojana
NSAP – National Social Assistance Programme
NSUP – National Strategy for the Urban Poor
NUDBI – National Urban Data Bank and Indicators
NUIF – National Urban Infrastructure Fund
NUIS – National Urban Information System
NUSP – National Urban Sanitation Policy

NUTIC – National Urban Transport Information Centre
 NUTP – National Urban Transport Policy
 O&M – Organization and Management
 ODP – Outline Development Plan
 PACS – Performance Appraisal Certification Scheme
 PEARL – Peer Experience and Reflective Learning
 PFDF – Pooled Finance Development Fund
 PHE – Public Health Engineering
 PHED – Public Health Engineering Directorate
 PPP – Public Private Partnership
 PSU – Public Sector Undertaking
 PUB – Public Utility Board
 R&D – Research & Development
 RAY – Rajiv Awas Yojana
 RCS – Registrar of Cooperative Society
 RCV – Resident Corps Volunteer
 RFD – River Front Development
 SEM – Socio-Economic and Monitoring
 SEZ – Special Economic Zones
 SHG – Self Help Group
 SJDA – Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority
 SJSRY – Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rozgar Yojana
 SMC – Siliguri Municipal Corporation
 SMT – Small and Medium Towns
 SP – Special Project
 SPCB – State Pollution Control Board
 SPHED – State Public Health Engineering Directorate
 SPM - Suspended Particulate Matter
 SPO – Siliguri Planning Organisation
 SSA/SSM – Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan/Mission
 STEP-UP – Skill Training for Employment Promotion amongst Urban Poor
 STP - Sewage Treatment Plant
 SUDA – State Urban Development Authority
 SWM – Solid Waste Management
 TAG - Technology Advisory Group
 TAG – Technology Advisory Group
 TCG – Thrift and Credit Groups
 TCPO – Town and Country Planning Organization
 TFC – Twelfth Finance Commission
 TNI – Training Network Institution

TPO – Town Planning Organisation
TPO – Town Project Officer
TULCI – Transforming Urban Living Conditions through Innovations
UASB – Upflow Anaerobic Sludge Blanket
UBS – Urban Basic Services
UBSP – Urban Basic Services for the Poor
UCD – Urban Community Development
UCDN – Urban Community Development Network
UE&PA – Urban Employment & Poverty Alleviation
UFW – Unaccounted For Water
UI&G – Urban Infrastructure & Governance
UIDSSMT – Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns
UK – United Kingdom
ULB – Urban Local Body
UMTC – Urban Mass Transit Company Limited
UNDP – United Nations Development Programme
UNDP-NSUP – United Nations Development Programme-National Strategy for Urban Poor
UNICEF – United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UPE – Urban Poverty Eradication
URIF – Urban Reform Incentive Fund
URIS – Urban and Regional Information System
US-AEP – United States Asia Environmental Partnership Programme
USAID – United States Agency for International Development
USEP – Urban Self Employment Programme
USHA – Urban Statistics for HR and Assessment Scheme
UUP – Uttar Banga Unnayan Parishad
UWEP – Urban Wage Employment Programme
UWSP – Urban Women Self-help Programme
UWSS – Urban Water Supply and Sanitation
VAMBAY – Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana
WBMC Act – West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act
WBPCB – West Bengal Pollution Control Board

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The issue of ‘development’ of Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area is the fulcrum of the study. This basic issue engages the aggregate of activities of the municipal authority and the city-dwellers of Siliguri. However, any effort towards in depth study and analyses of the manifold problems and solutions of each and every aspect of development of urban Siliguri carries the possibility of making the whole exercise in vain and superfluous. This is for the simple reason that such an attempt is beyond the scope of a dissertation. In order to provide relevance to the study, the researcher seeks to specifically highlight those issues of development which bear contemporary significance. Having said that, other aspects of development as have been highlighted in the Twelfth Schedule of the Constitution of India do come into discussion as appropriate support systems to the contemporary relevant issues to be studied.

If one peeps into the trajectory of the concept of development in the time-line framework, one finds that it has traversed a long way with its focus changing time and again. It started off with focus on economic development and meandering through various facets, like, alternative development, human development, neo-liberal development and the like, has come under the most stressful period in the form of sustainable development where the existence of the earth itself is at stake. This concept of ‘sustainable development’ got defined by the World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987 in its report, “Our Common Future” as thus, “development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs”. This particularly applies to urban conglomerations and Siliguri is no exception to it.

Since the advent of modern capitalist age, there has been a deep and intimate relationship between economic development based on science and technology and urbanization. The unprecedented urban growth can be attributed to massive industrialization process which contributed immensely in the push-effect migration from rural areas. Several studies indicate that by another quarter of a century, global urban population will stand at about sixty percent of the world’s total population. As far as developing countries are concerned, they will have over 135 cities with 4 million population, by 2025. In case of India, urban people are likely to account for nearly 40 per cent of the total population

of the country by 2021. The State of West Bengal presents a similar picture with 28.03 per cent of the State population residing in urban areas which is higher than the national average of 27.60 per cent according to 2001 Census. If one looks at the decadal urban growth rate of the city of Siliguri since 1941, one finds them to be much higher than those of both the national and the state figures. A comparison of such has been laid down in Table 1.2. All these gave rise to manifold problems of urbanization compelling one now to think over the question, 'Can city be a livable place?'

The contemporary key issues of urban development are squarely integrated with urban environmental, aesthetic and social equity concerns. The basic question in this regard is the meaning of the qualifier 'environmental', 'aesthetic' and 'social equity' in an urban context. These terms may be defined too broadly as well as too narrowly. Taking former perspective, almost all urban development initiatives can be labeled environmental and aesthetic as well as related with social equity. Narrowly speaking, it relates to the degradation of urban water, air and land on the one hand and a balance between concrete jungle and greenery as well as between well-to-do areas and squatters on the other hand. However, for the purpose of the present study, environmental, aesthetic and social equity related developmental issues would refer to human-induced damage to the physical environment of the city of Siliguri and efforts and inadequacies of the local self government of Siliguri and the common city-dwellers to tap such leakages which usually have harmful consequences for human welfare, either now or in the future.

When one speaks of 'sustainability' of urban agglomerations, it gets related to the aspect of 'good governance'. The latter, in turn, gets reflected in as to how efficiently and effectively management of the cities/towns is done. Better urban management requires 'innovative practices' and 'adaptability' to the needs of the changing times. The most important aspects of such practices becoming successful are better financing and cost recovery measures. On all the above, ultimately, depends the level of performance of infrastructure development and service delivery. In a nutshell, infrastructure development and service delivery in an urban area on a sustainable basis needs the adoption of 'good practice' on the part of all stakeholders residing in a city/town.

In the above context, the issues of development which the researcher seeks to highlight are all included in the Twelfth Schedule of the Constitution of India. At the same time, other aspects laid down in the said Schedule do provide the platform and support system to one or the other issues of development to be

taken up for the present study. The broad issues to be taken up for the study are laid down as under :

- (1) Sanitation with special reference to Solid Waste Management;**
- (2) Water Supply;**
- (3) City Transportation, Pollution and Social Forestry; and**
- (4) Slum Improvement and Urban Poverty Alleviation**

1.1 The Issue of Development and Municipal Authority

The advent of independence in India, far from improving municipal administration, witnessed a remarkable deterioration. With the increasing pace of urbanization, the demands made on municipal bodies have vastly increased. With time, though taxes and grants-in-aids have increased substantially but efficiency and effectiveness of municipal governance have, in general, declined. Further, very few attempts have been made to discard the 19th century framework of municipal administration, laws and bye-laws, rules and regulations, procedures and practices. This obsolescence has put a brake on urban development. While the cities today plan for the 21st century, the institutions which are supposed to implement these plans are a hangover of the early 19th century. Moreover, some top level institutional hangovers are that the Department of Urban Development in the Central Ministry does some superficial coordination work, the Town and Country Planning Organization does some editing of the master plans and the Planning Commission does not take note of individual cities in their planning process.

The municipal bodies are, by and large, centers of inefficiency, corruption and political nepotism. Most of them are bankrupt and cannot in any way tackle the big problems, in particular, in the field of solid waste management, drainage and sewerage system, pollution in ground water and air, slum improvement, urban forestry, traffic congestion and transportation, encroachments and aesthetic aspect, all of which have their bearing on the environment of the city and its periphery. Besides, they do not have administrative machinery to implement a modern master plan.

The problems faced by the municipal bodies have been reverberated in the United Nations report, 'World Urbanization Prospects: The 2001 Revision', which reveals the year 2007 as a milestone in the history of human settlement with equal number of urban and rural dwellers. This population growth has been particularly rapid in developing countries with an average growth of 2.4 percent

per year. This has created manifold problems and strain before the cities (Hust 2005), like,

- (a) infrastructural inadequacies leading to deficiencies in the supply of housing, water and electricity; sewerage systems, health, education and public transport;
- (b) gradual widening of the gap between the haves and the have-nots in terms of both quantity and quality;
- (c) environmental degradation.

1.2 The Issue of Development and the People

Though the 74th Constitution (Amendment) Act, 1992 completed the process of creating local self government at the urban levels, yet urban decentralization has received far less attention in the country than its counterpart in rural India in the form of panchayati raj institutions. The base of the federalist pyramid is expanding primarily for rural local government. On the other hand, urban dwellers are finding themselves in a governance vacuum. This becomes all more pertinent in the backdrop of the fact that India is projected to be 46 percent urban by 2030 (United Nations 1996). Table 1.1 lays down in this regard the political representation ratios in urban and rural India, urban and rural West Bengal and urban and rural Siliguri.

The Table amply shows the grave limitation in Indian Federalism as far as rural-urban approach to decentralization is concerned. The lopsided approach towards urban decentralization can be traced to Article 40 under Chapter, 'Directive Principles of State Policy' of the Constitution of India which requires the state to organize panchayats as the units of self-government in the rural areas. It failed to include urban areas in its ambit. Later on, even the recommendation of the National Commission on Urbanization to expand the article to include urban areas as well was not implemented.

Ramanathan (2007) buttresses the point that not only the constitutional fallout, the difference in attitude of the people in government towards the rural and urban forms of local self-government was evident even in the two drafting of legislations which ultimately culminated in the passage of the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments Acts. The passage of 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 promoting panchayati raj institutions was the result of intense debate and struggle of over four decades, including the constitution of two national committees, namely, Balwantrai Mehta Committee in 1957 and

Table 1.1. : Political Representation Ratios

Particulars		Rural India	Urban India	Rural West Bengal	Urban West Bengal	Rural Siliguri	Urban Siliguri
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Population Level		742,617,747	286,119,689	57,748,946	22,427,251	533979	472370
Gram Panchayats	No. of Units	233606	-	3354	-	22	-
	Total Representatives	2678183	-	49545	-	405	-
Intermediate Panchayats	No. of Units	6094	-	341	-	4	-
	Total Representatives	157973	-	8563	-	64	-
District Panchayats	No. of Units	543	-	18	-	1	-
	Total Representatives	15583	-	720	-	7	-
Total No. of Units		240243	-	3713	-	27	-
Total No. of Representatives		2851739	-	58828	-	476	-
Citizen : Representative Ratio		1 : 260.4	-	1 : 981.6	-	1:1121.8	-
Municipal Corporations	No. of Units	-	-	-	6	-	1
	Total Representatives	-	-	-	364	-	47
Municipalities	No. of Units	-	-	-	118	-	-
	Total No. of Representatives	-	-	-	2422	-	-
Notified Areas	No. of Units	-	-	-	2	-	-
	Total No. of Representatives	-	-	-	25	-	-
Total No. of Units		-	-	-	126	-	1
Total No. of Representatives		-	70,000*	-	2811	-	47
Citizen : Representative Ratio		-	1:4087	-	1:7978.3	-	1:10050.4

*Approximation (Borrowed from Sivaramkrishnan 2007)

Sources: Census of India, 2001; www.pib.nic.in ;

Municipal Statistics, 2007-08, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Govt. of West Bengal;

Administrative Report of Municipal Affairs Department, 2001-05, Govt. of West Bengal;

District Statistical Handbook, Darjeeling, 2007, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Govt. of West Bengal

Ashok Mehta Committee in 1977. As such, there is enough documentary evidence related to the evolution of rural decentralization in India. Even the original 64th constitutional amendment bill concerning panchayati raj institutions during the Prime Minister ship of Rajiv Gandhi which though failed to pass, saw a protracted debate on the issue across the country.

As against this, urban decentralization was bereft of such lengthy debates and discussions which got manifested in the dearth of documentary compilations till recently. No doubt, some voices were raised through 'All India Council of Mayors' and 'the National Commission on Urbanization' demanding greater urban autonomy. Yet, there was utter lack of those advocates who yielded national impact. Even the original 65th Constitution (Amendment) Bill related to urban decentralization – which, too, like the 64th Amendment Bill failed to pass – was drafted on an urgent basis within a period of few months. As such, urban decentralization in some ways mirrored the structural aspects of rural decentralization with inclusion of unique needs of urban areas. However, such effort missed the essential spirit of the rural amendment – 'the centrality of the citizen' and the bottom up nature of local self-government (Ramanathan 2007). This structural drawback of urban decentralization continued with the 74th Constitutional (Amendment) Act, 1992. All these failed to create more proximity between the citizen and their urban local government. This gap, further, plagues the 'accountability' aspect of funds, functions and functionaries of local governance directly to the city-dwellers. As of now, accountability of urban local governance lies to some other level government. Thus, one form of such accountability is to provide formal opportunity for citizens to participate in local governance. Citizen engagement is one of the critical success factors for federalism. (Hosp 2003)

Rights are only one side of the coin of city-dwellers empowerment. These must be corresponded and complimented with equal seriousness with 'duties' to provide urban empowerment and development a true meaning. Duties of a city-citizen majorly implies four aspects – (a) duty to comprehensively avail the existing rights laid down by constitutional provisions, acts, laws, bye-laws and government notifications; (b) duty to press for more justified rights; (c) duty to practice and follow the urban rules and regulations; (d) duty to protest against undutiful behavior of others in public life; and (d) duty to vision and initiate newer ideas of development.

One of the purpose of the researcher is to find out the level of awareness and the level of dutifulness and responsiveness of the city-dwellers as far as

urban rights and duties are concerned, in particular, with regards to the issues to be taken up for study. Besides, the objective is to elicit opinions of the city-dwellers themselves as to how to improve upon the existing situation. To add to this, the researcher would himself lay down reformative recommendations in these regards from his own perspective based on his readings, observations and formal and informal conversations.

1.3 Objective of the study

It is due to the above reasons that the studies and research of selected municipal bodies in different states of India have become necessary which would help highlight not only the administrative problems encountered by these municipal bodies, but also the role of the urban-dwellers in urban development. It is in this context that the researcher seeks to undertake a comprehensive study of some of the key issues of Siliguri Municipal Corporation area, one of the fastest growing cities of West Bengal. The issues in focus as has already been mentioned would be (a) sanitation with special reference to solid waste management; (b) water supply; (c) city transport, pollution and social forestry; and (d) slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation. These issues would be dealt from two perspectives : one, from the perspective of the municipal governance, i.e., Siliguri Municipal Corporation's and other associated institutions' efforts and inadequacies; and second, from the perspective of city-dwellers, i.e., their role, duty and participation. The present study is thus an evaluative one with reformative suggestions.

Researches in the field of urban areas have started in the early 1960s in this country. However, very few researches show the cause and affect relationship among the people living in cities, the urban governance and its developmental aspects. The study assumes significance as it deals with the Siliguri Municipal Corporation area which is a very fast developing city with its unprecedented strategic, political and economic importance.

The proposed research seeks to show that "urban development is the judicious blending of the infrastructural development, uniform development, sustainable development, and development with social justice" in the context of the issues to be studied so that each and every person living in it feels a sense of belongingness, feels that the city is better organized for better living. The study seeks to evaluate as to what extent Siliguri has achieved the above judicious blending of urban development as well as what options are available and what measures should be adopted to take urban development of Siliguri to its optimal

level. It is in this context that the researcher seeks to address the above mentioned issues taking note of the followings :

1. The urban legislations applicable to Siliguri;
2. West Bengal's Urban Development Policy;
3. Identification and correlation of the most appropriate instruments of revenue;
4. Addressing capital funding and development of infrastructure in the municipal corporation area;
5. Adoption of privatization and principles of involvement of private enterprises where feasible and beneficial;
6. Involvement of NGOs in the development process and the guiding principles thereof;
7. Addressing the concern for the poor;
8. Information gathering on the problems faced by various localities and residents and prioritizing them;
9. Involvement of city dwellers in the developmental process and their assessment of the authorities;
10. Assessing their behaviour in terms of their rights and duties;
11. Assessing the public relations functions of the authority.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

The urbanization process involves a transformation of the rural characteristics of people, their activities and settlements into urban ones. It results in concentration of people engaged in non-agricultural activities as well as concentration of non-agricultural land uses in selected human settlements that in turn provide the necessary economies for the production and provision of specialized goods, infrastructure facilities and services.

If one takes note of the urban growth in terms of population since the first Census in 1901 of India, West Bengal and Siliguri (which was inducted as class V town in 1931 with a meager population of 6,067), one can easily come to the conclusion that Siliguri has registered an unprecedented urban growth and much faster than the national and the West Bengal urban growth rate. Table 1.2 is indicative of the phenomenal urban growth of Siliguri.

Table 1.2 : Urban Population Growth (1901-2001), India, West Bengal and Siliguri

Year (1)	Total Population (in Million)		Urban Population (in Million)		Urban Population (%)		Siliguri Town Population (7)	Decennial Urban Growth Rate (%)		
	India (2)	West Bengal (3)	India (4)	West Bengal (4)	India (5)	West Bengal (6)		India (8)	West Bengal (9)	Siliguri (10)
1901	238.39	16.94	25.85	2.07	10.84	12.20	738	-	-	-
1911	252.09	17.99	25.94	2.35	10.28	13.05	-	3.5	13.7	-
1921	251.32	17.47	28.09	2.52	11.18	14.41	-	8.3	7.2	-
1931	278.98	18.89	33.46	2.89	11.99	15.32	6067	19.1	15.0	822.1 [#]
1941	318.66	23.23	44.15	4.74	13.85	20.41	10487	31.9	63.7	72.4
1951	361.09	26.30	62.44	6.28	17.30	23.90	32400	41.4	32.5	209.7
1961	439.23	34.93	78.94	8.54	18.00	24.40	65471	26.4	35.9	101.6
1971	548.16	44.31	109.11	10.97	19.90	24.70	97484	32.9	28.4	48.9
1981	683.33	54.58	159.46	14.45	23.30	26.50	153825	38.7	31.7	57.8
1991	844.32	67.98	217.18	18.62	25.70	27.48	216950	31.6	29.5	41
2001	1028.74	80.18	286.20	22.43	27.80	27.97	470275	31.8	20.5	216.8*

Growth for Three Decades

*The high percentage of Decadal Growth has been due to the upgradation of Siliguri Municipality to Siliguri Municipal Corporation in 1994 and subsequent inclusion of 17 new Wards.

Sources : Census of India

Gazetteer of India, West Bengal, Darjiling, March, 1980

The growth of Siliguri helped in up gradation of its status from a Municipality to the Municipal Corporation in 1994. Its population in 1994 was estimated at 3,76,492 – a growth of about 78.8% from what was in 1991. Urbanisation in a country can be broadly identified as a process of three-stage migration. In a developed country, urbanization takes place because of the ‘pull affect’. Industrialisation needs the employment of labour who can be pulled from the rural sector. Moreover, a developed city provides an infrastructure for further investment by entrepreneurs. In other words, there is a linkage between urbanisation and industrialization. So far as urbanisation in a developing country is concerned, it is not the ‘pull affect’ but the ‘push affect’ is vigorously present. In fact, the surplus labour that subsists on agriculture is being pushed out of it. But to study the urbanisation process in a developing country like India, it is to be pointed out that it cannot be explained entirely by ‘pull affect’

or 'push affect'. In reality, both the 'pull affect' and 'push affect' are combined so as to explain the phenomenon of urbanisation in India. Siliguri is no exception to this. Its growth can be attributed to both 'pull affect' and 'push affect'.

The need, therefore, is to follow such strategy of development which can sustain people who are there and who are migrating due to push affect as well as pull those people who are vital for further investment and development. Through such strategy, urban development of Siliguri tinged with social justice can be realized. It is, thus, needless to say that sustained, environment-friendly, controlled and planned urban infrastructure development and better service delivery calls for urgent and committed concern for the issues of sanitation and solid waste management; regulation of water supply; regulation of transportation, promotion of urban social forestry and minimization of pollution; and slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation as well as imparting education and creating awareness in urban administration to city-dwellers.

With regard to the above urban issues in the context of Indian cities, including Siliguri, one finds several bottlenecks like, scarcity of financial resources and the resultant low effectiveness; excessive state control; problems in personnel management; low level of participation; ineffective leadership; structural lacunae; ad hoc and discretionary planning; etc. All these results in a series of paradoxes – growth and decay, slums and mansions, illiteracy and educational excellence, parochial groups and universalistic associations, hope and despair. As such, there is a need for the municipal institutions to bridge these anomalies by judiciously blending infrastructure development, uniform development, sustainable development and development tinged with social justice, thereby, enhancing encompassing development of the issues to be discussed. Here comes the need for "good governance". It calls for such system where those selected for operating the system should be endowed with character and competence and are motivated by the spirit of service to the people.

Good governance which will open up the path for required development with respect to the issues laid down include clarity in respect of the following :

1. Vision : where we want to go
2. Objective : the new desirable situation
3. Mission : our work guide to approach the vision
4. Doctrine : our professional code of ethics
5. Leadership : the directing force

6. Setting : our operating environment
7. Strategy : our general measures to approach the vision

The preceding paragraph indicates the need for ‘capacity building’ of the municipal institutions for good governance and requisite development. Any strategy for ‘capacity building’ needs to address the following :

1. Institution of systemic capacity : implementation of the constitutional provisions regarding establishment of the institutional framework for urban service delivery- defining functions, finances and the framework for responsive service delivery for local government institutions;
2. Designing an enabling framework for making the system operational : internal municipal organization – balancing of political and executive power;
3. Technological and procedural capacity building : adoption of appropriate technology for the production and distribution of services and procedures to facilitate efficiency and accountability;
4. Manpower capacity building : up gradation of manpower for improving service planning, production and delivery – research and training;
5. Establishment of checks and balances : ensuring that municipal institutions and officials are faced with appropriate incentives to deliver results and do not deviate from the mandated tasks.

One should take note of the fact that the assignment of functions is only the first step towards building a good municipal government system. The second step is to ensure that the assigned functions are matched by adequate sources of finance. But the pervasive inability of the municipal institutions to finance and manage the large volume of municipal tasks makes out a strong case for privatization and public-private partnerships in the case of some municipal services.

The present study on Siliguri Municipal Corporation area seeks to find out the strategy of the municipal authority with regard to capacity building, mobilization of resources and involving private enterprises in the above-mentioned developmental process.

City-dwellers, regardless of their occupation or profession, get affected by the city’s products, values and lifestyles as developed and regulated by the municipal authority. In short, the urban environment determines the behavior of the city-dwellers. But the influence should not be one-sided. Rather, it should be

from both sides. As the citizens are shaped by the urban environment developed and regulated by the municipal authority, similarly, the citizens, too, should shape urban environment according to their needs and aspirations and which are beneficial to the majority of the city-dwellers. In order to make the relationship a never-ending cycle of mutual influence, the need is for active participation in the developmental process by the city-dwellers.

However, participation can only be described in the real sense of the term when the citizen who participates is fully conscious of the responsibility that he assumes in doing a thing. In a democratic society, participation gives the ordinary citizen a means of voicing his opinion and of showing by his behavior and action that he is able to take responsibilities. It gives the ordinary citizen to demonstrate his good citizenship by other means than only periodically exercising his right to vote. Participation, thus, signifies self-motion.

Participation does not mean only demand and fulfillment of rights. But it entails corresponding duties, too. Duties must be voluntary and self-contributory rather than enforced by the authorities. The study, thus, focuses on the rights and duties of the citizens in the context of the issues mentioned above, viz., sanitation and solid waste management; water supply; transportation, pollution and urban social forestry; and slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation. Besides, the study also seeks to find out the measures to make citizens more conscious, participative and dutiful from the perspective of the municipal authority, citizens themselves and the researcher.

1.5 Methodology

The study was descriptive and diagnostic in nature along with exploration of the intricacies of developmental aspects of a growing city of Siliguri. As part of the design of the study, four interrelated steps were followed.

Step One: An overview of urban development, urban governance and urban participation in the context of India and a brief historical investigation and existing status of the four parameters of development laid down above within Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area. These were collected from various sources, i.e., (i) books concerning Siliguri, gazetteers, newspapers' and magazines' articles and papers, municipal acts and government reports, theses and dissertations on the concerned area, minutes of conferences and seminars, Siliguri city plans; (ii) interacting with officials at various levels; (iii) interacting with citizens residing in the SMC area.

Step Two: A brief sample survey of the common people eliciting their roles, duties, interests and suggestions with regard to the four parameters of development were collected. Besides, opinions of urban officials were undertaken through interview schedules. The survey primarily included participant and non-participant observations; structured and non-structured interviews; and structured and non-structured schedules.

Step Three: The sample for the study was drawn following the procedures of probability sampling. The Wards were considered as clusters and from each cluster a sizeable number was drawn following the method of the draw of lots. However, besides the probability sampling, in some cases compromises were made by selecting the respondents on the basis of the judgement of the researcher due to non-availability of the selected respondents on repeated occasions as well as the kind of reluctance and unwillingness of the people of some areas to respond to issues of development of Siliguri Municipal Corporation. The reason for this seems to be political as well as low level of awareness to grapple with technicalities of urban development.

Step Four: Laying down reformative suggestions for strengthening further developmental process of Siliguri in general, and with regard to the four parameters laid down, in particular. These suggestions are based on the analysis of the views given by the sample respondents and personal observations, literary readings and knowledge and insight of the researcher.

1.6 Survey of the Literature

In India, research in the field of public administration was not very encouraging till recently in comparison to other areas of academics. This may be attributed largely to the fact that public administration, including urban administration, was not taught as an exclusive subject in Indian Universities until recently. Moreover, institutions engaged in research on administration of urban local bodies are numbered. It is therefore not surprising that there are not much research contributions in this field. Nevertheless, it is also a fact that vast amount of materials on urban issues exist which need to be fruitfully explored.

One can note that the process of urbanization is a leading world-wide phenomenon. India is no exception to that, though the process has been slow in comparison to other countries. Needless to say, academicians and researchers have found a blooming and fertile area of study in this sphere. As such, various aspects of urban affairs are being dealt with by scholars of late. However, the

progress in research in this area has been slow in comparison to its counterpart, i.e., rural administration and rural issues. Thus, there is a need for extensive and comprehensive evaluative studies of the existing set up, besides exploring untouched issues of urban administration and development.

With respect to the present study, then, a comprehensive survey of the existing literature on the related subject and issues with regard to India, West Bengal and Siliguri is a prerequisite. The researcher tried his level best to go through these as much as possible in order to get an in depth understanding of the issues to be studied, well before writing the synopsis as well as during the compilation of the dissertation. The survey of literature included (a) Historical Studies; (b) Books and Monographs; (c) Biographical Materials; (d) Government Reports, Municipal Acts, Commissions, Selected City Plans; (e) Institutional Research on Municipal Administration and Municipal Issues; (f) Papers presented at Conferences and Seminars; (g) Articles from Journals and Reports from Newspapers; (h) Ph.D. Theses on Urban Issues available in the Library of University of North Bengal; and (i) host of official and other Websites related to Urban Issues. It is not possible to lay down all the works went through by the writer. However, the worth-mentioning titles can be enumerated in brief.

(A) HISTORICAL STUDIES

Let us begin the survey of literature by referring to the important historical studies on the evolution of municipal administration in India. Hugh Tinker's "Foundations of Local Self Government in India, Pakistan and Burma" (1954) is the outcome of the author's Ph.D. theses. On the basis of his extensive review of municipal administration ever since the foundations of modern local government in India were laid during the period 1687 to 1880 to the emergence of the national Government in India in 1947, Tinker draws conclusions which are of particular relevance to planners and administrators. His main conclusion is that the comparative lack of success of local authorities in India " has been due partly to failures in British and Indian leadership, and partly to certain other adverse factors which were both fortuitous and yet in escapable (such as poverty, political ferment, social flux and economic chaos). As regards leadership, British administration had its Ripon and Indian public opinion had its Gokhale, but apart from the efforts of a few men like these two, the challenge offered by local government did not bring forth a courageous

response from either British officials or Indian leaders, in the formative half-century leading up to the First World War.

Finally, Tinker makes an observation which is of topical interest today especially in the context of several state governments super ceding corporations and municipalities on various grounds. To quote him at length, "The first reaction of contemporary observers of local bodies at work was to condemn the whole experiment as unsuccessful or as in the case of some Indian and Burmese writers, to hold the administrative machinery responsible for the shortcomings of those who worked it. The disillusioned supporter of representative institutions often adopts this attitude if a system of government fails, than it must be abolished and a better form of government devised. It is possible that present - day Indian and Burmese politicians, when they find local bodies unfit for the discharge of their programmes, or when they find their political opponents utilising local bodies to build up opposition to the government may react by restricting local boards' powers, or even by abolishing them. Certain trends in present-day Indian government policy point to an increased centralisation of power, and it would not be surprising to see a considerable transfer of powers from local bodies to district officials under ministerial control....."

The next important work is R. Argal's "Municipal Government in India" (preface written in 1954, the date of publication not given) which was a D.Litt. theses of Allahabad University. His study is based on the materials collected by him personally from 1946 to 1950 from state secretariats and municipal offices. He consulted the vast amount of materials that were lying in the government reports, circulars, notifications, proceedings of the Legislative Councils and Assemblies and in the judicial decisions.

From the point of view of source materials for historical studies on municipal administration, the problems faced by Argal deserve to be mentioned. He says, "The National Archives has some reports on the working of municipal government but there are wide gaps and since the reports only up to 1924 are available, one can have only fragmentary material on the development of municipal government in India and nothing more. The Municipal Manuals and Acts, which form the basic materials for such work are generally out of print Had some work on the subject been published in various states, there would have been at least a framework for the development on the subject. But there was nothing to fall back upon."

Argal, in his Bibliography at the end of his book lists numerous municipal

Acts and also gives a list of judicial cases which have a bearing on the subject. Argal, however, fails to draw conclusions on the basis of his study except to suggest certain remedies like provision for a “municipal inspectorate”.

(B)BOOKS

These are number of books which are essentially descriptive and refer to the functioning of municipal government as well as different parameters of urban development. There are analytical books, too, which refer to good governance and people living in cities.

A book titled "Urbs Indis - A Plan for Municipal Reform" (1947) by H.D. Shourie contains reflections on the subject of municipal administration. Shourie says “For a purposive effort,.....The failures of the present system have essentially to be envisioned in their entirety. These skeletons would need to be taken out of the town hall cupboards, for their being trotted out to the public gaze and condemnation”.

In a booklet, “A Study of Local Self Government” (1958), P. K. Mattoo pleads for reform of local bodies which have inherited a weak and insufficient administrative set-up. In his words, “A static state of existence invariably leads to decay. Local bodies have been static for such a long time that they reek of decay. There has been no serious effort by the local bodies to examine their own weakness and to boldly speak out the same. Local bodies have been persistently following the same old rot.”

R. K. Khanna, in his book, “Municipal Government and Administration in India” (1967) discusses the structure of municipal government and organization of municipal authorities. One of his interesting contributions is in respect of defects and deficiencies in the municipal services in India. He lists 14 such defects and makes 12 recommendations for improving municipal personnel administration in India. He laments, “The weakness of our municipal administration is due, among other reasons, to the fact that the administrative personnel of municipal bodies in the country has not been always recruited by a system of merit or trained adequately in the techniques of municipal administration. Nor are men of talent attracted to the municipal service because of the low salaries paid to municipal employees in general”.

Another notable contribution is R.K. Bhardwaj's “The Municipal Administration in India - A Sociological Analysis of Rural and Urban India” (1970). Like other authors on municipal administration, Bhardwaj also

comments on the unsatisfactory state of affairs. To quote him, "The way in which the people have dealt with the local bodies in India does not bring credit to the smooth functioning of municipal administration. The social and political groups have not developed emotional attachment with local problems. Their allegiance was rather to the caste and religious interests than towards the community and local considerations with the result that there was never meaningful interaction between various groups for solving the civic problems."

"The Study of Urbanization" (1965), edited by Philip M. Hauser and Leo F. Schnore is a book which originated in an inter-disciplinary conference held by the Social Science Research Council in 1958. The gaining point of this book is that it seeks to promote inter disciplinary and cross cultural research, especially in the developing areas. The book not only deals with the study of urbanization from the political science point of view, but also from historical, geographical, economical as well as sociological points of views.

"Urban Problems: Psychological Inquiries" (1976), edited by Neil C. Kalt and Sheldon S. Zalkind is a compilation of thirty six research reports documenting psychology's contribution to the quest for solutions to our most serious urban problems, like, prejudice, poverty, housing, education, drug use, crime, riots, and the effects of the urban environment. Taken together, the studies suggest that a variety of strategies can lessen the severity of many urban problems. For example, the findings indicate that token reinforcement can improve the school work of poor children and that public housing can be designed in ways that reduce the incidence of crime. The book presents evidence from a wide range of well designed studies, and with its emphasis on data, avoids ideological argument. It is an important source of information for researchers and the people who make or implement urban policy.

Another worth mentioning text book is "Indian Urbanization and Planning Vehicles of Modernization" (1977), edited by Allen G. Noble and Ashok K. Dutt. The book discusses the modernization in India as revealed by the process of urbanization and planning. The book is quite helpful due to the fact that not only Indian but also the perspectives of American scholars have also been incorporated. The book is divided into two parts. The first part gives more attention on structure while in the second part more consideration is given to process.

"Process of Urban Fringe Development : A Model" (1978) by K.N. Gopi deals with the problem of development of fringe areas of the rapidly growing metropolitan cities of India. He has examined the entire phenomena of the

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transformation of the fringe of a metropolitan settlement in the light of structural changes in the metropolitan economy and society. He has established in his study that not only the land use patterns change but the entire societal structure of the fringe area is radically metamorphosed because of its strong linkage with the metropolitan economy. The process of transformation is gradual and directly related to distance and accessibility from the metropolis. In his words, "Economic integration and interdependence of the fringe community with the city is undeniable. This is evident from the commuter traffic and commodity flows between the fringe and the city..... While the fringe community finds a ready market for its agricultural products in the city, it depends on the latter for all higher order goods and services". The author takes Uppal, a fringe settlement of Hyderabad as his area of study. The author has suggested a typology of fringe settlement which is evolutionary in character for he points out that each type is characterised by a specific set of economic activities, social system and morphological features. Further, these characteristics are dynamic in nature and are susceptible to change under the compelling influences of the expanding metropolis. The pattern of fringe development is also strongly related to the prevailing social, political and economic systems.

"Urban Development in India since Pre-historic Times" (1979) by B. Bhattacharya traces urban development in India for over four-and-a-half millenia. In this book, he divides urban development into five phase, viz., urban phase of the Harappan Culture; the period of transition and the fresh beginning of urbanization in the early historical period; urban development during the medieval period; the rise of the European settlements; and urban progress in the twentieth century. The book focuses on the underlying forces that contributed to the unchecked growth of towns and cities over centuries. To the author, urbanization is a natural rather than an accidental phenomenon. Especially, the topics related to the growth of urban population (1901-1971) and the nature of existing urban development is quite useful.

Another useful text in this context is Baleshwar Thakur's "Urban Settlements in Eastern India" (1980). Though the regions selected for the study are the Bihar plain, the Chotanagpur plateau, the lower Ganges plain, the Orissa highland region, and the Utkal Coastal plain, it is worthy in the sense that it examine the spatial aspect of the evolution of urban system by focusing, primarily upon the accompanying changes in the distributional pattern of urban places. The study uses two techniques: nearest neighbourhood and entropy,

based entirely on a quantitative analysis in the field of quantitative geography.

Another notable book is "People in Cities: The urban environment and its effects" (1985) by Edward Krupart . This book emphasises as to how people act and why they act as a function of their past and present environments. In other words, human beings are products of their social and physical backgrounds. It provides a more sophisticated understanding of the relationship of environment to behavior and the reasons why city people act the way they do. The whole book is divided into two parts - the first deals with the idea of the city including the city as environment and various definitions and models of urban life; and the second part concerns with the actual living in the city and its consequences, such as, crowding, noise, stress, isolation, etc. and to cope with such situations. In the concluding remarks, the author maintains that the city can be a livable place if people are encouraged in, and rewarded for, assuming control over their environment, which of course, require considerable effort and planning.

Ashok Mukhopadhyay in his book, "Municipal Personnel System" (1985) observes on the basis of an empirical study of municipal personal system in Gujrat and Rajasthan that the unified personnel system cannot be said to have scored definitely over the separate personnel system. However he concludes that, "For too long, the municipal services have been treated as 'inferior' services and, hence, have not attracted 'superior' talent. Therefore, the need is to improve pay scales, allowances, leave conditions, terminal benefits, career prospects, scope for self-improvement and incentives of these personnel in such a manner that competent and motivated personnel enter and stay in the municipal services. One of the devices for effecting these improvements is an innovative system of position classification that can rationalise the pay grades and privileges of the municipal personal in terms of their duties and responsibilities".

E. S. Savas in his book, "Privatisation: The Alternative to Government" (1987) advocates for public-private partnership for qualitative and efficient service provision to city dwellers. He maintain, "While complete ownership and control of production and distribution of services is one extreme, complete privatisation is the other and there can be numerous intermediate arrangements including contracting, franchising, self-help modes."

Pardeep Sachdeva in "Urban Local Government and Administration in India" (1993) specifically deals with the acute scarcity of finance facing the urban local bodies, besides other aspects. He says, "Generally, their sources of income are inadequate as compared to their functions. Their chief sources of

income are the varied types of taxes. However, most of the income generating taxes are levied by the Union and State governments and the taxes collected by the urban bodies are not sufficient to cover the expenses of the services provided. Though they can impose certain new taxes, the elected members of these urban bodies hesitate in doing so for fear of displeasing their electorate. The administrative machinery, at the disposal of these local bodies, is insufficient and ineffective. The staff, which is often underpaid, indulges in corrupt practices which lead to loss of income: Quite often, failure in collecting taxes leads to accumulation of areas running into crores of rupees. As a result, many urban bodies are on the brink of bankruptcy.....Many civic bodies have not been able to provide even the basic civic amenities in the areas which have been included in their jurisdiction during the last couple of decades”.

H.M.Golandeg suggest that the states should set up agencies which would monitor the performance of municipal bodies and guide them regarding distribution of funds and in other financial areas. He cites the examples of Kerala Urban Development Finance Corporation and Gujarat Municipal Finance Board in this respect and urges other states to follow the same in order to help the municipal bodies overcome their financial problems.

Another book on the provisions of the Municipal Acts of some states vis-a-vis the constitutional provisions is U.B. Singh's “Urban Local Government” (1997). He divides the history of urban local self-government into seven phases characterised by a definite aim and purpose with the first phase convening the period up to 1882 and the seventh phase starting from 1992 onwards after urban local self-government got a constitutional status with the enactment of the 74th Constitution Amendment Act, 1992. The book is highly informative and useful to those working in the field of urban management such as, administrators, policy makers and researchers. The author covers areas such as the demographic profile, constitutional set up, personnel system in terms of recruitment procedures, terms and conditions, responsibilities, power, functions and duties. The book also deals in detail with the urban finances like municipal funds, budget, taxation procedures, accounts and audit.

Another very useful book with regard to whole lots of problems facing urban agglomerations is Evelin Hust and Michael Mann edited, “Urbanization and Governance in India”, published in 2005. Several authors have contributed articles on contemporary relevant issues like supply of housing, electricity and water supply, sewerage system, health, education, slums, public transport, etc. which are putting enormous strain on the Indian cities’ infrastructure. In

particular, the write up by Martin Fuchs, “Slum as Achievement” is quite enlightening in the sense that he has sought to promote slum pockets not as a nuisance but an integral part of the city.

Mention may be made of K.C. Sivaramkrishnan’s, “People’s participation in Urban Governance : A Comparative Study of the Working of Wrd Committees in Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra and West Bengal” (2006) which measures the level of participation of the urban people in the process of development. In particular, his field survey in Siliguri has helped the writer in several ways in penning down this work.

So far as books on Siliguri are concerned, they are rare in number. From the books written by two Europeans, Hooker (1969) and Hunter (1974), it becomes clear that the overall unhealthy conditions in the region were always been dreaded by Europeans. Hooker in his account described Siliguri as a terrible and unhealthy place in the British days. He wrote, “Siliguri stands on the verge of the Terai, that low malarious belt which skirts the base of the Himalayas,.....flora, fauna and topography here were different from other places.....the Mahanuddee, flowing in a shallow valley, over a pebbly bottom; it is a rapid river.....Its banks are fringed with bushes”.

Similarly, W. W. Hunter depicted the town and its adjoining areas as a dense forested tract during the capture of Bengal by the Britishers and only saints (sanyasis) could reside here. These 'Sanyasis' were defeated by the British during their march and that can be traced from the naming of Siliguri by Hunter as “Sanyasikata”. The names of ‘Gosaipur’ and ‘Sanyasisthan’ justify the inhabit of Siliguri as stated above.

Besides, another useful book is B. Ghatak's “History of Siliguri” (1983) written in Bengali language. The book traces the history of the Siliguri town since the British days and encompasses political, social, cultural and economic faces of the township. Also, a booklet, “Finances of Siliguri Municipality” (1983) by K.P. Deb provides an in depth understanding of the financial position and problems of Siliguri till early 1980s. Besides Ghatak, booklets on the history of Siliguri have also been written in Bengali by authors like Shib Prasad Chattopadhyay, Haren Ghosh, and few others. On the whole, one can say that books on various facets of city life of Siliguri, in recent times are conspicuous by its absence. However, mention may be made of a survey conducted by the Institute of Social Sciences on Siliguri slums and published that in the form of book in 1995. This was “Basic Services for the Urban Poor : A Study of Baroda, Bhilwara, Sambalpur and Siliguri” written by Archana Ghosh, S.Sami

Ahmad and Shipra Maitra. This book provided an insight to the researcher as to how and why slums grew in abundant numbers in Siliguri despite non presence of any slum in Siliguri till 1970.

(C) BIOGRAPHICAL MATERIALS

During the British rule, a number of prominent national leaders were associated with municipal work. Notable among them were Surendra Nath Banerjee, Pheroz Shah Mehta, Lala Lajpat Rai, G.K.Gokhle, Vallabhbhai Patel, J.L.Nehru, C.R.Das and Subhas Chandra Bose. In understanding the evolution of municipal administration in India, it is very necessary to take help of their biographies as well as their speeches, writings and other municipal documents available in unpublished form.

A recent material in this context is Patwant Singh's "Of Dreams and Demons: An Indian Memoir" (1994). Though it emphasises on Delhi in particular, but his canvas of reference is India. As such, the book can be useful for researcher of different urban areas. The author started 'Design' magazine to get himself involved with design and planning. Writing about his first visit to the U.S.A., Patwant wrote in the 'Design' magazine, "What is more important for our planners is to see how the real-estate operators take over the cities, so that similar takeovers can be prevented here, even though Bombay is already half - way ground under their heel."

Through the 'Design' magazine and author's close proximity with architects and planners, Patwant has been able to point out the monumental lapses of our planning process at the national and local levels; about the serious lack of appreciation and application regarding the physical-spatial dimensions in India's national planning exercise that has, by and large, remained 'space less' and at time has led to the serious consequences causing avoidable environmental degradation and ecological imbalance. These are now becoming apparent.

To him, a healthy nation cannot exist without healthy cities and towns. And, the future of India would be to a large extent determined by the manner the state is able to cope up with the incoming urbanization. He comments, "The greed of our real estate operators unleashed urban chaos in Bombay, Delhi, Bangalore, Madras, and Pune and other once – graceful cities of India, littering them with crass commercial constructions – symbols of and indifference to India's great building traditions."

He further adds, “No amount of critical writing on urban mismanagement, high rise buildings and dishonest land use policies would help India’s urban development (on saner lines), so long as criticism was leveled only at the architects and planners. The real culprits were the unscrupulous politicians in league and backed by corrupt officials and so-called developers: and since politicians only respond to criticisms which threaten their political existence, the general press – not the Design Magazine was the place for it.”

The author argues that new vandals in the form of land developers and promoters of unauthorised colonies have begun to emerge on the Indian urban scene. These ‘new predators’, in league with the politicians and the strategically placed officials, are able to circumvent the norms of planned development as they manage to enroll the ruling cliques as partners-in-crime, “A disgraceful bunch of political godfathers came into being who, to keep themselves in power, learned to promote their own vote banks by specially marked constituencies packing them with the seemingly unwanted new migrants to the Indian metropolis in the form of Jhuggi-jhonpadis (squatter’s clusters) in our burgeoning cities.”

He concludes, “Government and real estate developers are not the only ones to blame. Many well off citizens joined in the plunder by getting permission to convert their villas into high rise properties....”

However, the author is also an optimist and feels that people are again waiting for person of quality, with resolution, courage, fortitude and drive, to provide India with dynamic leadership.

(D) GOVERNMENT REPORTS, ACTS, COMMISSIONS, PLANS, ETC.

The first attempt to introduce municipal administration in India goes as far back as 1687 when the Madras Corporation was constituted on the lines of the Borough of Portsmouth in England. The Madras Corporation was entrusted with the running of a number of public services including upkeep of a town - hall and a school. However, it was unsuccessful as the residents objected to the imposition of new taxes. In 1726, a second Municipal Charter was issued under which the Madras Municipality was reconstituted and Calcutta and Bombay Municipalities were established. In the pre-independence period various commissions and committees were appointed from time to time. Important among them can be enumerated as follows :

(1) Royal Army Sanitation Commission (1863) - It emphasized strongly the

need for local institutions to deal with local problems .

(2) Lord Mayo's resolution on Provincial Finance (1870) - It made arrangements for strengthening the municipal institutions, especially in terms of finances, and increasing the association of Indians in these bodies.

(3) Lord Ripon's resolution on Local Self-Government (1882) - It was hailed as the Magna Carta of local government and got for Lord Ripon the title of "father of local self - government in India". Ripon suggested reforms for instilling life into the local bodies. He advocated the establishment of a network of local self-governing institutions, financial decentralization, the adoption of elections as a means of constituting local bodies and the reduction of the official element to not more than third of the total membership.

(4) The Royal Commission on Decentralisation (1907) - It examined the reasons behind the failure of local self-governing bodies and concluded that it was due to strict official control, excessive narrow franchise, meagre resources, lack of education and shortage of committed persons. It suggested that the chairman of an urban body should be elected non-official and that he should be given wider financial powers and the elected non-official members should comprise a majority in these bodies.

(5) The Government of India Act, (1919) - On the basis of the Montague-Chelmsford Report on Local Self-Government (1918), the Act made local self-government a transferred subject under the charge of a popular minister of the provincial legislature. The Act increased the taxation powers of local bodies, lowered the franchise criteria, reduced the nominated element and extended the communal electorate to a larger number of municipalities. This experiment was a success as well as a failure. It was a success because the local bodies became popular bodies and they imparted a certain amount of political education to the people. It was a failure because communal representation dampened the spirit of unity, the system of dyarchy was very confusing and the municipal personnel were untrained.

However, many provincial legislatures enacted Municipal Acts under this Act. In Bengal, the first minister- in-charge of the portfolio of local government was Sir Surendra Nath Banerjee. He drafted a new Act, the Bengal Municipal Act of 1932. This Act gave birth to the second generation Urban Local Bodies in non-presidency towns. It was under this Act that Siliguri was made a municipality in 1949.

(6) The Government of India Act (1935) - Like the Act of 1919, this Act also declared local government as a provincial subject and provided more and less

similar powers to them.

Besides the above, there were Reports like, the Taxation Enquiry Commission Report (1918), Report on Local Taxation and Local Government (1925), and the Indian Statute Commission Report on Local Self-Government (1928).

In the post-independence period, the Central Government has, from time to time, showed its concern for the need to improve the urban bodies by appointing several committees and commissions. The most important ones and their contribution are :

(1)The Local Finance Enquiry Committee (1949-51) – It chiefly suggested the widening of the sphere of taxation of urban bodies.

(2)The Taxation Enquiry Commission (193-54) – It recommended the segregation of certain taxes for exclusive utilization by or for local government.

(3)The Committee on the Training of Municipal Employees (1963) – It emphasized that training institutes be set up both at the central and the state levels to train municipal personnel.

(4) The Rural- Urban Relationship Committee (1963-66) – It submitted a most comprehensive report on the subject and enquired into all aspects of municipal administration such as personnel, planning, and taxation and dwelt upon inter dependence between the town and its surrounding villages. This report needs to be mentioned in some detail. It is a three volume report. The main report of this committee discusses at length urban development and planning machinery, the structure of urban local bodies, public municipal personnel, finances of urban local bodies, public participation in urban community development, and relation between the state government and local level administration. The second volume contain a number of notes on urban local government practices in various states in India and also gives a list of Municipal Acts and state-wise lists of different types of urban local bodies. It also provides some details about local governments in different countries of the world. The third volume of the Report is concerned with the analysis of replies given to the questionnaires issued by the Committee by various persons and organizations throughout the country. As such, these three volumes constitute an important source material for the study of the administration of urban areas.

(5)The Committee of Ministers on Augmentation of Financial Resources of Urban Local Bodies (1963) - It pointed out that the urban bodies were not levying even in the fields earmarked for them and urged the local bodies to set up Statutory Urban Development Boards to undertake town planning.

(6)The Committee on Service Conditions of Municipal Employees (1965-68) - It recommended the constitution of a statewide cadre of municipal employees.

(7)The National Commission on Urbanization (1988) - The Commission gave wide-ranging suggestions for revitalizing the urban government. In August 1988, the Commission was set up under the chairmanship of C.M. Correa, with the purpose of reviewing and analysing the urbanization process and formulating policies for integrated urban development. The Commission examined several issues and problems relating to urban government. Some of these related to urban management, spatial planning, resource allocation, urban housing, conservation, urban poverty, legal framework, information system etc. Some of the recommendations of the Commission were :

- (a) The Ministry of Urban Development be restructured to make it the nodal ministry to deal with urbanization.
- (b) A National Urbanization Council (NUC) be set up to formulate urbanization policies and monitor and evaluate the implementation of policies.
- (c) An Indian Council for Citizens' Action (ICCA) be created to encourage citizens through organized voluntary effort.
- (d) Every town, with a population of more than 50,000, be provided with an urban community development department through which development programmes may be implemented. Its 'New Deal for the Urban Poor', incorporating 13 points of action, is worthy for consideration. Besides, it gave a large number of recommendations on the efficient administration of urban areas.

Apart from the above, there were some other task forces, committees and commissions, appointed by the Government of India, have examined the problem of urban development in India, such as, the Task Force on Planning and Development of Small and Medium Towns and Cities (1975); the Study Group on Strategy of Urban Development (1982); the Report of the Working Group of Reorganization of Family Welfare and Primary Health Care Services in Urban Areas (1982); the Task Force on Housing and Urban Development (1983); the Report of the West Bengal Municipal Finance Commission (1982); etc.

A landmark event in the municipal affairs came with the Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992. The Act which received the assent of the President on 20th April, 1993 and introduced a new part, namely, Part IX A, in the Constitution and also the Twelfth Schedule, seeks to ensure that municipal

bodies are rested with necessary powers and removal of their financial constraints to enable them to function effectively as units of local government. The Twelfth Schedule includes 18 items and provides an illustrative list of functions. The state governments were accordingly expected to review the functions entrusted to municipalities and expected to formulate a new set of municipal functions while amending conformity legislation. In this regard, the West Bengal Municipal Act, 1993 were amended through the West Bengal Municipal (Second Amendment) Act, 1994 and the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Laws (Third Amendment) Act, 1994. The various Acts in West Bengal has an elaborate list of 49 obligatory functions and 40 discretionary functions.

Besides, several recently enacted Acts which have relevance to the present study may include Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956; Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1974; Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Cess Act, 1977; Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981; Environment (Protection) Act, 1986; Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993; and National Environment Tribunal Act, 1995. Moreover, a Model Municipal Law has been devised by the Central Government to be imbibed by the State Governments in order that ULBs may function in a better manner.

A host of National Policies have been formulated to lay down the vision and objectives on various aspects of urban development, such as, National Urban Sanitation Policy, National Urban Transport Policy, National Housing Policy, National Policy on Street Vendors. Apart from these, in order to promote sustainable development of cities, guidelines for proper implementation of schemes on poverty alleviation, housing, SWM and sanitation, water, etc. have been formulated.

Moreover, comments have been sought on 'Model Real Estate (Regulation of Development) Act, 200_'. Apart from these, a number of task forces and advisory groups have been formed to examine the problems of urban governance and development in India.

So far as Siliguri is concerned, it was provided the status of a Municipal Corporation in 1994 under the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990. Amendments have been made in this Act from time to time. However, this Act has been repealed. At present, the Siliguri Municipal Corporation is guided by the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006.

Besides, several studies have been conducted from time to time for the

development of Siliguri. Mention may be made of Interim Development Plan for Siliguri, Siliguri Planning Organisation, Govt. of West Bengal (1965); Comprehensive Developments Plan for Siliguri, Siliguri Planning Organisation, Govt. of West Bengal (1967); Report on Traffic Survey (1975) by Siliguri Planning Organization; A Study on the Trend of Land Values within Siliguri Municipal Area (1975-80) by Siliguri Planing Organization; Report on Problem of Siliguri's Urban Development (1984), submitted to SJDA by M. Dasgupta; Outline Development Plan for Siliguri and Jalpaiguri, SJDA, Govt of West Bengal (1986); 'Siliguri Municipality : A Brief Report of Problems and Possible Solution of Siliguri Town' (1976); etc.

Further, RITES conducted "Traffic Engineering and Management Study, Siliguri Urban Area' in 1998. It identified the major traffic and transportation problems of Siliguri and recommended several solutions to solve the immediate traffic problems. Keeping a futuristic five year perspective in mind, they identified major problem areas and stretches like Mahabirsthan, Khalpara Area, Hill Cart Road, Station Feeder Road, Burdwan Road, Bidhan Road and Sevoke Road. Some of its recommendations with regard to traffic management were junction improvement of Mahananda More, Sevoke More and Panitanki More; relocation of parking of public transport within the town area; road widening; widening of bridges and construction of new bridges; proposals of new links; etc. The latest in the line is the "Perspective Plan 2025 : Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area", prepared by Department of Architecture and Regional Planning, IIT, Kharagpur for SJDA. Though this Plan covers a wide area but main focus has been attached to Siliguri. Besides, the SMC and SJDA comes out with Annual Reports which are quite helpful for the purpose of research.

(E) INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH ON MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION

Several institutions have been established which undertake researches on municipal administration. Some such organizations are Centre for Urban Studies, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi; Indian Council for Social Science Research, New Delhi; National Institute of Urban Affairs; New Delhi; Institute of Town Planners, New Delhi; Centre for the Study of Developing Countries, Old Delhi; Centre for Human Settlement, Calcutta; Unnayan, Calcutta; Institute of Local Government and Urban Studies, Calcutta; and the National Library, Calcutta.

In 1961, the Institute of Public Administration, New York sponsored a

series of studies on Calcutta in collaboration with the Calcutta Metropolitan Planning Organization. Thirteen studies were prepared under this. The study by Ali Ashraf on the City Government of Calcutta attracted considerable attention. Ashraf pleads for a strong Mayor in order to overcome the problems facing the Calcutta Corporation.

Mohit Bhattacharya and Abhijeet Dutta contributed in this area a lot while working at the Centre for Training and Research in Municipal Administration established in 1966 at the Indian Institute of Public Administration in New Delhi.

In particular, Bhattacharya's "Essays in Urban Government" and Dutta's "Urban Government, Finance and Development" are worth mentioning. Bhattacharya, while discussing state-local relations in urban development observes that "Our five year plans have so far consistently kept comprehensive municipal development out of their scope. The approach has been towards functional stimulation rather than co-ordinated development of urban areas. It is high time that the latter approach is adopted and municipal development schemes are integrated into the five year plans via the state plan schemes."

Abhijeet Dutta, while discussing administration for urban development, refers to a significant development since independence, namely, the increasing fragmentation of executive responsibility for the various components of urban development. He discusses the different types of new agencies for urban development, namely, State Departments, special purpose bodies and state undertaking.

One of the important contributions of the Centre for Training and Research in Municipal Administration of IIPA, New Delhi is a study of "State Directorates of Municipal Administration" (1969). This report is based on the field trips undertaken by Bhattacharya to study the Directorates of Municipal Administration in different states of India. It may be mentioned here that Rural-Urban Relationship Committee had recommended the setting up of such Directorates mainly with a view of providing an agency which would act as a mouth piece of the urban local bodies in their dealings with the state governments. However, as G. Mukherjee, the director of the centre for Training and Research in Municipal Administration, points out in his preface to the study, "Unfortunately, in most cases this has not happened. On the contrary almost exactly the opposite is beginning to appear. In fact the Directorate has begun to function as superior authorities at the bureaucratic level.....The general picture is one of urban local government having lost some of their

vigour and initiative, partly because of greater interests as such in the state and central levels of political institutions, and partly because of greater interference by the state government in local administration.”

In his report, Bhattacharya points out that “What we have been following so far in our Municipal Acts are all due to uncritical and irrational continuation of old practices that belonged to a very different political regime.” He recommends that, “ A policy cell consisting of real experts on different aspects of municipal government and administration should be set up within the secretariat department, in charge of municipal government and there must be a continuous feedback of full information from a well organised inspectorate to the secretariat department.”

Another significant institution in this regard is the Indian Council of Social Science Research based in New Delhi. The institution mainly conducts projects sponsored by itself. However, the anomaly is that most of the sponsored work relates to either neighbouring states like Delhi, Haryana, Rajasthan, Punjab, Maharashtra, U.P., M.P. or the North-East. West Bengal, by and large, have been neglected. Among various case studies, only Calcutta has been the focus of study in West Bengal. Again, most of them have been done by geographer and sociologist. And majority of the projects deal with improvement of slum areas and squatter settlements. Notwithstanding, they are commendable and useful for the purpose of the present study.

“Effectiveness of Slum Improvement Programs and Patterns of Slum Proliferation: A Case Study of Rahmatnagar” by M. Bharath Bhushan is a project study of nine chapters. It maintains that the growth of slums is due to inadequacy of shelter. The study estimated housing shortage in India at around 39.1 million units by 2000 A.D. and the amount required to meet the need of RCC housing was estimated around Rs. 1,250 billion. According to him, between 22% and 55% population in Indian metropolitan and 'A' Class cities lived in slums and squatters. The commendable portion of the work is its evaluation of the state policies with respect to the slums.

V. Keerthi Shekhar's " Rapid Urbanization and Satellite Townships: A study in urban sociology" dealt with the growth of satellite townships.

“Metropolitan set-up for Delhi” by Dr. Prabhu Chopra deals with the historical aspect of the set up in Delhi as well as some of the metropolitan set up of other capital cities like Washington and Tokyo. The study also suggests as to how metropolitan set-up can be organised.

One of the important taxes of the municipal area is the property tax. In

this regard, the research under the auspices of ICSSR – “Property Taxation of Calcutta Corporation : A Study of Loss of Potential Revenue” by Mrinal K. Bhattacharya is quite useful. The whole work is divided into four parts. The first part deals with the state of Property Tax which includes among other things definition and role of property tax, its assessment, its demand and collection, and property tax arrears. The second part deals with the review of tax assessment. The third part deals with tax demands and includes supplementary demand gap and fresh demand gap. Finally, part four provides certain valuable tips as to how property taxation of Calcutta can be improved.

T.V.Subramanias’s “Planing for Computer-based Management Information Systems for Municipal Corporations” is also a useful work. This work is a consequence of the recommendation of the Administrative Reforms Commission, and following this work, some serious attempts have been made to introduce formal management information system in government departments. The study confines itself to planning of computer-based MIS for municipal corporations. ‘MIS’ as the name implies, is a system to provide informational support for the managerial activities for an organization. ‘MIS’ proposed a federation of the following sub-systems: (1) Subsystem for comprehensive planning; (2) Subsystem for project management/control; (3) Subsystem for performance evaluation of services; and (4) Sub-system for administrative control.

“Local Finance and Economic Development - A Case Study of the Local Bodies in the District of the Hazaribagh” by P.S. Mukherjee attempts to form a clear background for the proper understanding and appreciation of the financial ills of the urban local authorities. The author seeks that there should be integration of functions between the three layers of government – Union, State and Local – and thus they should develop a healthy fiscal partnership in place of rivalry and competition for powers and finance.

“Research Report on Evaluation of a Government Slum Up gradation Programme : A Case Study of Dharavi – Bombay” prepared by I.P.Srivastava is another notable work on slum improvement. It is basically a field work involving collection of data from the Bombay City Improvement Project Cell, holding discussions with concerned officials of the cell, inspecting Dharavi slums and conducting interviews with the slum dwellers, etc.

“The Urban Poor : A Study on the Beggars” by Sumita Chaudhari deals with trends of urbanization in India and the consequent growth of urban poor. It emphasises begging on two respects, viz., the beggars in a religious place and

beggars in a public place.

“The Development of Marginalised Settlements – An Outline Proposal to the Calcutta Metropolitan Development Authority” prepared by Unnayan, Calcutta in June 1980’ emphasises on the working structure, phasing and project prerequisites. It also provides a sketch of field action for the development of the marginalised settlements.

Ashok Mukhopadhyaya in his “Municipal Government and Urban Development – A Study of the Reforms in West Bengal” maintains that in practice, every Municipal Corporation functioning in the country does not enjoy adequate powers to undertake their functions. He argues, “Several studies have pointed out that in most of the states, the Municipal Corporation Acts are liberal in listing the functions to be undertaken by those Corporations but functions like transport, electricity and fire fighting were either never assigned to these bodies or have been given to some functional agencies. The current tendency of transferring water supply management, sewerage, community health services, roads and primary education to other governmental bodies or special agencies has gained impetus. Such a trend of de-municipalising the management of certain local services is defended on technological grounds and on the grounds of economy of scale, maintenance of a uniform and efficient standard of services. The argument of the incapability or inefficiency of municipal government has proved to be a handy one for the State Governments that wish to de-municipalise the management of certain local services.”

The National Institute of Urban Affairs is another premier institution for conducting studies in urban affairs. One of its memorable studies was “The Study of Master Plans of Towns and Cities in India”. The Principal Investigator was Mr. M.N.Buch, IAS. In another important study, viz., “The Nature and Dimension of the Urban Fiscal Crisis, samples from as many as 210 municipalities were taken. The study concluded that “.....the one unmistakable conclusion that emerges from the analysis.....is that the state of municipal finances deteriorated during the period 1979-80 and 1983-84.....One of the most disconcerting features of the state of finances was an absolute decline in the per capita incomes of urban local bodies.”

Presently, a host of other institutions apart from the above ones are there who are engaged in studies of urban areas, such as CPHEEO, NEERI, NBO, etc.

The Institute of Local Government and Urban Studies, Department of Municipal Affairs, Government of West Bengal brings out booklets as well as

conducts studies on urban affairs from time to time. One of the important publications is "Urbanization and Urban Governance in West Bengal" (2000) by Prabhat Datta. It deals with the evolution of institutional instrumentalities of urban governance in West Bengal and what has the government done to conform the Seventy fourth Amendment Act. It is useful in the sense that it provides an understanding of the composition and functions of the institutions, viz. Central Valuation Board, Directorate of Local Bodies, Municipal Engineering Directorate, State Urban Development Agency and District Urban Development Agency. Prabhat Datta concludes, "Finally, the institutional innovations and changes in the internal structure of urban governance,, cannot be called administrative reforms in the conventional sense. The entire exercise has been process-oriented and sustained over a long period of time. The West Bengal experience suggests that sustained efforts are more effective than one-shot exercise, particularly because urban areas are very sensitive and urban social and political life is more exposed to number of internal and external influences than the rural social and political life."

The Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Government of West Bengal annually brings out "Municipal Statistics of West Bengal" which are quite helpful in several studies.

As regards theses related to urban affairs, scholar and teachers of various colleges and universities have been submitting them from time to time. But it is not possible to make a comprehensive survey of Ph .D. theses submitted to various universities. As far as the University of North Bengal is concerned, not much has been written on the subject. In all, eleven theses have been awarded on this fertile area of study. One of them is "Urban Development in North Bengal: its process, character and future trends" by Shyamal Mukhopadhyaya gives an insight on the urban areas of North Bengal. In particular, Chapter I dealing with the historical background of urban development in North Bengal provides some valuable facts regarding the increase in population in Siliguri since its inception under class V category town in 1931.

(F) SEMINARS AND CONFERENCES

Soon after independence, the first conference of the State Local Self Government Ministers was convened by the Union Ministry of Health in 1948 and six years later the Central Council of Local Self-Government was established. Since then, a huge number of all-India and regional conferences and

seminars have been held, such as, Annual Conference of Ministers of Local Self-Government, the Annual Conference of Mayors and Corporation Members, etc.

The list of seminars and conferences is a lengthy one. However, one of the first such Seminars may be referred which was organised by the Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi in 1958. The subject was "Improving City Government". A series of papers were presented at this conference which dealt with the relations between deliberative and executive agencies, trends in municipal financing of cities, the development and redevelopment of cities and citizens' participation. Inaugurating this seminar, T. Subramaniya referred to the address given by Mahatma Gandhi to the city Municipal Council of Bangalore in 1927. Subramaniya pointed out that Mahatma Gandhi told the city fathers that "he was not very much interested in the fine parks and the wide roads that have been laid or in the city beautification and enquired what the Municipal Council had done for the poor and the homeless of the city. A satisfactory answer could not be given at that time, and I am afraid, cannot be given even now. In the interval the problem has grown in dimensions rendering a satisfactory solution much more difficult than it was at that time."

In 1960, an international Seminar on "India's Urban Future" was held at Berkeley, California. The proceedings of the seminar (published in 1962) contained a series of papers on government and planning. Of particular importance was P.R. Nayak's paper on "Challenge of Urban Growth to Indian Local Government". Nayak discussed, among other things, the adequacy of the local government structure and pleaded for an urgent re-examination of the functions of the local government.

It has been no stopping since then as far as seminars, conferences, workshops, panel discussions and lecture sessions on urban governance, development and participation is concerned at the international, national, state and city levels.

Apart from the above, the researcher went through over a hundred articles from journals like Indian Journal of Public Administration, IIPA; Nagarlok, IIPA; Urban India, NIUA; Administrator; Administrative Change, Economic and Political Weekly, etc. and news reports on cities contained in several leading newspapers and magazines like India Today, The Economic Times, The Hindustan Times, The Times of India, The Telegraph (North Bengal Edition), The Statesman (North Bengal Edition), Uttar Banga Sambad, Ananda Bazar

Patrika, etc. in order to remain updated about the happenings in cities all over the country. However, the list is too exhaustive to lay down here due to constraints of space.

1.7 Significance of the Study

It is a sorry state of affairs that very few scholars of public administration have touched upon the different dimensions of urban affairs. It is worth noting that since the advent of the First Five Year Plan and with emphasis on community development and 'panchayati raj', there have been numerous studies on local self-government in rural areas. One of the premier research institution, the Indian Council of Social Science Research, gives more attention on the studies in the field of 'panchayati raj'. Thus, there are far more rural studies than urban studies with regard to local self-government. Though there have been some important contributions to the study on the administration of urban areas in recent years but the overall picture is one of neglect of such studies.

It is further surprising to note that majority of the works done in this sphere have come down from the pens of Geographer, Sociologist or Economist. If the instance of the theses registered with the University of North Bengal to which the researcher is associated is taken, one finds that out of the eleven theses awarded on urban affairs till the time of submitting the synopsis of the present work, only two belonged to the scholars and teachers of the Department of Political Science. It is in this context that the researcher chose to study urban affairs so as to minimize the paucity of research work done in this specific area.

Another significance of the study lies in the fact that the present work buttresses the importance of the contribution of people living in cities – both at the individual and collective levels – in the developmental process of the city. It is not only the urban authority which is responsible for initiating and sustaining urban development but the role of city-dwellers is equally important. Various researches till date have primarily emphasized on the various dimensions of urban authority and urban finance in urban development. There is dearth of studies highlighting the integration of people in that process. Thus, the present study assumes significance in the sense that it does not only deals with the role of urban authority in urban development but also highlights the role of the people themselves living in the city. In other words, the study focuses on the fact that city-dwellers should not only demand rights but should correspondingly fulfill their required duties.

Besides, the present study seeks to highlight the utility, role and contribution of non-governmental organizations in the issues of development of the city to be undertaken as there are limitations on the part of the municipal institution to finance and manage the large volume of these municipal tasks.

Finally, the study assumes great significance for the fact that it undertakes the study of above-mentioned contemporary relevant developmental issues in the context of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area. The city of Siliguri is developing at a phenomenal pace as an important trading centre, besides being strategically very important due to its geographical proximity with four countries – Bangladesh, Bhutan, Nepal and China. The influx of migrants with the creation of Bangladesh and the problems of insurgency in the North-East has contributed to the rapid growth of Siliguri in the last two decades or so and has made it the most important economic center of North Bengal. Other contributory factors for its thriving are that it is the gateway of tourism for Darjeeling and Sikkim hills; and it is situated in the tea and log belt.

The rapid process of urbanization of Siliguri can be gauged from the fact that since its inception as 'Class V' town in 1931, it rose to earn the status of Municipal Corporation in just about six decades in 1994, though still being a sub-division of Darjeeling district. This rapid urbanization of Siliguri calls for an effective infrastructural, uniform and sustainable development as well as development tinged with social justice so that it does not become a place of squatter guided by few well-to-do areas. It is very necessary to anticipate problems and offer solutions in advance rather than wait for the problems to reach serious proportions. Herein lies the utility and inevitability of the micro study of Siliguri Municipal Corporation area with particular emphasis on the contemporary issues of sanitation and solid waste management; water supply; transportation, pollution and urban forestry; and slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation.

The ultimate purpose of the research is to provide a proposal for making Siliguri a model city to be imbibed by other cities for better urban living.

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CHAPTER TWO

URBAN DEVELOPMENT, URBAN GOVERNANCE AND URBAN PARTICIPATION : THE CONTEXT OF INDIA

2.1. URBAN DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

It is quite difficult to lay down an accurate time of the beginning of 'settlement clusters' large enough to be labeled as 'urban'. However, these clusters have been in existence for at least five-and-a-half millennia. The historical landmark in the remarkable rapid pace of urbanization has been the industrial revolution. According to the United Nations estimates about 3 percent of the world population lived in towns and cities by the end of the 18th century (United Nations 1998) which would rise to about 50.6 percent of the total world population by the end of 2010 (United Nations 2008). From Table 2.1., it becomes clear that by 2050, about 69.6% of the world's population would be inhabiting in urban agglomerations. In absolute figures, it would stand at about 6398 million. The interesting fact which comes out of the table is that this urban increase would mostly take place in the less developed regions or the developing countries. While it is estimated that there would be an increase of about 147 million in urban population in more developed regions between 2010 and 2050, the figures for the same period in case of less developed regions would be about 2757 million. However, McGee and Griffiths (1995) and Potter (1985 : 20-22) makes a relevant point that estimates of the world's urban population would change significantly if China, India and a few other populous nations were to change their definition of urban centres. They, thus, suggest that cross-country comparisons should be made with caution as national definitions of the term 'urban' vary greatly. Nonetheless, the population has been changing and would continue to do so from a predominantly rural situation to a predominantly urban one.

Though only a recent invention, the cities are the ultimate creation and its activities are unparalleled in the history of human civilization. Their values, products and lifestyles affect us all no matter where we live. Having said so, cities encompass complexities. To some, these are bad place to live in which isolates people, creates environmental witches and weigh against the poor dwellers. The other extreme view makes them a good place which integrates people and provides ample opportunities of livelihood for both rich and poor. The simultaneous existence of contrasting realities should not be concluded,

Table 2.1 : Projections of Urban Population of the World, More Developed Regions and Less Developed Regions

Year	World			More Developed Regions*			Less Developed Regions**		
	Total Population	Urban Population	% of Urban Population	Urban Population	% of Urban Population	% of Urban Annual Growth Rate	Urban Population	% of Urban Population	% of Urban Annual Growth Rate
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
2010	6906558	3494607	50.6	924702	75.0	-	2569905	45.3	-
2015	7295135	3844664	52.7	948836	76.2	0.52(2010-15)	2895828	47.9	2.39(2010-15)
2020	7667090	4209669	54.9	972322	77.5	0.49(2015-20)	3237347	50.5	2.23(2015-20)
2025	8010509	4584233	57.2	994720	79.0	0.46(2020-25)	3589513	53.2	2.07(2020-25)
2030	8317707	4965081	59.7	1015630	80.6	0.42(2025-30)	3949451	56.0	1.91(2025-30)
2035	8587050	5341341	62.2	1033945	82.1	0.36(2030-35)	4307396	58.8	1.74(2030-35)
2040	8823546	5708869	64.7	1049176	83.5	0.29(2035-40)	4659693	61.6	1.57(2035-40)
2045	9025982	6063186	67.2	1061507	84.8	0.23(2040-45)	5001679	64.3	1.42(2040-45)
2050	9191287	6398291	69.6	1071393	86.0	0.19(2045-50)	5326899	67.0	1.26(2045-50)

*Comprises all regions of Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan

**Comprises all regions of Africa, Asia (excluding Japan), Latin America and the Carribean plus Melanesia, Micronesia and Polynesia

Sources : Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, World Population Prospects : The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects : The 2007 Revision, <http://esa.un.org/unup>

however, in terms of 'good *versus* bad'. Rather one should feel and understand cities in terms of 'good *and* bad'.

India is one of the least urbanized countries in the world. In 2001, her urban population estimated at only 27.8 percent which was nearly 5 percent less than the projection of 33.1 percent made in 1991(GOI 1991). One of the vital reasons for the low rate of urbanization in India lies in her history. The precondition of urbanization at a larger scale lies in the rapid advances in both industrialization and agricultural productivity so as to sustain an ever growing population not engaged in agriculture. However, in case of India, large industries were concentrated in few pockets like Bombay or Calcutta and other cities like Kanpur, Allahabad and Lucknow specialized more in small scale industries. As a result, India started the twentieth century under- industrialized (Hust 2005 : 3) and under urbanized.

Taking Indian cities as terms of reference, the query – “Are Indian cities a livable place?”– seems pertinent considering the different index of infrastructure and services in the city life in India. Big cities in India, in particular, have frustrated more than have attracted majority of dwellers. This makes city dwelling a matter of compulsion rather than choice for the majority. It is needless to say that urban growth along with rural-urban migration would continue in India, as elsewhere, as an inevitable consequence of economic development. Table 2.2 (along with Table 2.1) amply exemplifies that though the share of urban population to total population in India by the year 2050 would be less than the average percentage in less developed regions and more developed regions, but the percentage of annual growth rate of urban population in India would be higher than the average percentage of both the regions mentioned. At the same time, the Tables also indicate that urban growth would slow down everywhere with time. This reduction in urban and population growth rates with time represents a significant opportunity for the institutions and structures in these cities to catch up and make urban areas more livable for all (Bhattacharya 2002 : 4227). This scenario is true for India, too. As such, instead of pondering too much over urban developmental stress as well as making futile attempts to regulate the size of mega-cities, the governments at all levels in India – central, state and city – should look for and undertake viable policies to manage urban agglomerations.

The projected urban population of India which shows a declining trend in growth rate in future times to come is corroborated by the actual figures of urban growth from the various Census Reports. Table 2.3 shows in this respect

the fluctuating trend of urbanization in India between 1901 (when regular Census started being conducted) and 1981 and declining trend in growth rate since then. The annual exponential growth rate of urban population has actually gone down from 3.8 % during 1971-81 to 3.1 % during 1981-91 to 2.7 % during 1991-2001. Thus, the projections for 1981-91 and 1991-2001 computed by various committees of the Government of India including the Planning Commission on the basis of the high urban growth rate observed during 1971-81 suffered from 'overestimation'. Further, the data laid down in the Table prove both the proponents and critics of 'economic liberalization and structural reforms' wrong who for their own different reasons approve of the boost in the pace of urbanization in times to come, primarily due to accelerated rural-urban migration (Kundu, 2003 : 3079).

Table 2.2 : Projected Total Population, Urban Population, Percentage and Growth Rate of Urban Population and Number of 0.5 Million Cities in India(2010-2050)

(Population in Thousands)

Year (1)	Total Population (2)	Urban Population (3)	Urban Population (%) (4)	Annual growth Rate of Urban Population(%) (5)	Total Number of 0.5 Million Plus Cities (6)
2010	1220182	366858	30.1	-	99
2015	1302535	415612	31.9	2.50(2010-15)	109
2020	1379198	472561	34.3	2.57(2015-20)	124
2025	1447499	538055	37.2	2.60(2020-25)	135
2030	1505748	611407	40.6	2.56(2025-30)	-
2035	1554182	686835	44.2	2.33(2030-35)	-
2040	1596719	763905	47.8	2.13(2035-40)	-
2045	1631920	840681	51.5	1.92(2040-45)	-
2050	1658270	914888	55.2	1.69(2045-50)	-

Source : Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations Secretariat, World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision, <http://esa.un.org/unup>

Two clear aspects emanate from the figures laid down in Tables 2.2 and 2.3. First is the declining trend in the urban growth rate in India since 1981 which is likely to continue in future with some fluctuations. Second is the steady and gradual increase in the share of urban population to total population in India in absolute figures. Thus, the popular theories of 'urban explosion', 'over urbanisation', etc. made by various expert groups set by the Government

of India and international agencies (Kundu 2003 : 3079) may be dispelled. Besides, there is not much truth in the popular imagination of a massive population shift from rural to urban areas (Kundu 2001). The disappearance of such fear needs to be urgently utilized as a significant opportunity by the institutions and structures related with the developmental process of Indian cities to adopt viable management and developmental policies keeping in mind the sustainable and environmental aspects as well as the context of impact of economic liberalization and globalization.

Table 2.3 : Total Population, Urban Population, Percentage and Growth Rate of Urban Population and Number of Towns since 1901 in India

Census Year	Total Population	Urban Population	% of Urban Population to Total Population	Annual Exponential Growth Rate of Urban Population	Total Number of Towns
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1901	238396327	25851873	10.84	-	1827
1911	252093390	25941633	10.29	0.03	1815
1921	251321213	28086167	11.18	0.79	1949
1931	278977238	33455989	11.99	1.75	2072
1941	318660580	44153297	13.86	2.77	2250
1951	361088090	62443709	17.29	3.47	2843
1961	439234771	78936603	17.97	2.34	2365
1971	598159652	109113977	19.91	3.21	2590
1981	683329097	159462547	23.34	3.83	3378
1991	844324222	217177625	25.72	3.09	3768
2001	1027015247	285354954	27.78	2.73	4368

Sources : Various Census Reports and Paper 2, Rural Urban Distribution, 1981, 1991 and 2001 (Unpublished)

Nevertheless, the increase in urban population in absolute terms (composed out of natural population growth and migration) puts formidable challenges to the cities' administrations. Increasing urbanisation in absolute terms conclusively proves that cities and towns are centres of agglomeration economies, investments, technology, innovation, creativity, economic growth, and reservoirs of skills, capital and knowledge. Urban agglomerations contribute immensely to the countries' GDP. They also provide hopes to the millions of migrants from the rural hinterland and smaller settlements. Having said so, these positivities are squarely integrated with the negative consequences

of rapid urbanization and population pressure on cities. These negativities are in the form of polarization of population in large cities, high density, acute shortage of housing and basic civic amenities, degradation of environment, traffic congestion, pollution, poverty, unemployment, crime, social unrest and above all, slums and squatter settlements. The slums and squatter settlements provide a picture of inhuman conditions and those living in these are denied dignity, shelter, security and right to basic civic amenities or social services. These create such an environment which harbors crime, ill-health and disease. Furthermore, the urban growth taking place is neither uniformly distributed across the city.

While formulating urban development and management policies, two important aspects need attention. Unlike developed countries of the West, a spatially dispersed urban growth in developing countries like India suffers from constraint of the relatively high cost of providing urban infrastructure and services. On the other hand, too much of densification has its own environmental hazards, besides raising the costs of management of infrastructure and services beyond a certain limit. Thus, judicious and cautious treading on the part of authorities concerned is required while formulating urban developmental policies. Another aspect is the solemn adoption of the partnership-based model for service provision that incorporates the dynamism of the private sector and community groups into public planning because experience shows that performance alone by the public authority has been unsatisfactory to a large extent.

2.1.1 A Brief Trajectory of Urban Development since Antiquity till Independence

When one peeps into the urban history of the Indian sub-continent, one finds larger village settlements with distinct urban attributes flourished in the Indus and Ghaggar river valleys in the Punjab and Sindh regions of present Pakistan, in north-west India bordering Pakistan and in Kutch and Saurashtra in Gujrat around 2500 B.C. It is not in place to go into the debate on the theories of the origin of such settlements, but the fact is urban living ideas were surprisingly matured in places like Mohenjodaro and Harappa (in present Pakistan) and in Lothal, Kalibangan, Dholavira, Surkotda and Rakhigarhi (in India). These cities are the first surviving evidence of town planning in the sub-continent.

The most outstanding features of these places was their unique town planning with well regulated streets. The twin cities of Mohenjodaro and Harappa were divided into three zones – the citadel, the lower city and the housing. Archaeological excavations reveal that there were fortified walls, palatial residences, granary, streets with definite hierarchy, elaborate drainage system and common public areas. Drains started from the bathrooms of the houses and joined the main sewer in the street which was covered with brick slabs or corbelled brick arches, depending on its width.

City of Lothal was zoned into industrial, commercial and residential areas. Smaller towns had no citadels, probably indicating their low status in urban hierarchy. These sophisticated settlements sustained on production of goods, luxury items, artistic ware, etc. and trade, both domestic and foreign.

The Aryan invasion which led to the decline of the Indus Valley Civilisation by *circa* 1700 B.C., encountered little or no resistance from the Harappan people. As a result, city after city fell with the remaining Harappan people either got assimilated into the conquerors way of life or fled further south. The invaders were a nomadic people unused to urban life. As such, in terms of achievements in urban planning and urban administration, this invasion was a major setback in the sense that more than a thousand years were to pass before anything of this magnitude was accomplished in India again.

It is curious though that the Aryans did not settle in the well-planned cities of the Harappan civilization. Instead, they preferred to settle in small villages along the river banks of the Gangetic plains. Two probable reasons may be attributed to this – one, inherent dislike of a pastoral people to settle in one place for too long, and another, alien value of the architecture that they found and preferred to stick to it. However, with the conversion of early Vedic people into agriculturists, there started rivalry for precious fertile land. As a result, group of villages banded together which led to the growth of several fragmented settlements in upper plains of the river Ganges and some of such settlements excavated were Ahichchhatra, Hastinapur and Purana Quila in Delhi. In general, the cities of the Vedic period were rectangular in plan and divided into four quarters – the citadel, the residential area, the merchant area and the tradesmen area – by two main thoroughfares intersecting at right angles, each leading to a city gate. Southern part of India during this period which is termed as Painted Grey Ware Culture, witnessed the predominance of Megalithic Culture.

The Second Urbanization phase ranging between 6th Century B.C. and 4th Century A.D., underwent profound transformation. The changing social,

economic and political framework which first evolved in the upper plains of the Ganges steadily shifted to most parts of the country. Some of the important urban settlements of this period were Koshambi, Sarnath, Banaras, Nasik, Paithan, Mathura, Ujjain, Patliputra, Vaishali, Rajgriha, Bodhgaya, Tamralipti, Chandraketugarh, Sisupalgarh, Dharanikota, Arikamedu, Kanchi, Nevasa, Bidisha, etc.

The Sultans of Delhi and their ruling elite, consciously or unconsciously, accelerated the process of urbanization in medieval period. No doubt, the Turkish conquerors made their settlements in India as urban people. However, because of their different living style, food habits, social customs and attitudes, they did not like to stay in the midst of the hindu urban classes in the old towns nor were they welcomed by the highly caste-ridden and closed hindu society. Thus, the Sultans and their ruling elite had to build new townships at their military cantonments or in the vicinity of the old hindu cities and towns. It led to a sort of revolution in the process of the urbanization of the country (Mehta 1987 : 84-85). First such evidence is the laying of foundation of the so-called 'seven cities' of Delhi by Qutubuddin Aibak. Besides erecting Qutb Minar, he constructed several public utility buildings, palaces and mosques. His successors and their nobility showed same zeal and enthusiasm and as a result, the whole of sultanate witnessed growth of beautiful towns/cities which formed the central, provincial and local headquarters of the Turkish bureaucracy. Along with in due course, almost all towns of the pre-muslim India received face-lift.

With time, the hindu businessmen, bankers and the hindu 'city labour' which comprised of artisans, untouchables and other low-castes began to settle as dwellers in these towns. As the muslims did not practice discrimination against the so-called hindu 'city labour', the centuries-old social seclusion and caste barriers between the various sections of the hindus were obliterated to some extent through the medium of these composite urban habitats (Mehta 1987 : 85).

Down south during the sultanate period flourished cities like Ahmadnagar, Bijapur, Golkonda, Bidar, Vijayanagar, and others. The detailed description of the city of Vijayanagar by foreign travellers like Nicolo Conti, Duarte Barbosa, Fernao Nuniz, Domingo Paes and Abdur Razak speaks volumes of its magnificence and trade.

The legacy of the Sultanate period continued during the Mughal period in terms of planning of forts, palaces, tombs, public-utility buildings, new townships through free amalgamation of the foreign and indigenous styles.

However, in one particular respect, it outstand its predecessors in urban design. They laid out magnificent gardens, fruit orchards and green parks around their palaces, central and provincial headquarters, public places, river banks and valleys. These famous Mughal Gardens which were laid out in every corner of the country are even today reflects the cultural and urban architectural heritage of the imperial mughals. Moreover, several urban centres were set up by the mughal emperors on the basis of specialized trade and services, such as, Varanasi for silk and silk embroidery, Mysore for special silk and sandalwood work, Moradabad for brassware, Calicut for jewellery, Aligarh for locks, Agra for footwear and marble works, etc. These may be related to contemporary Special Economic Zones (SEZ). It is not out of place to mention that there were ambitious kings, too, who planned ambitious cities. One of the significant examples is Jaipur which was laid in a very scientific manner with entire city being painted in one colour for which it earned the epithet of 'Pink City'. Besides, specific sectors grew within the cities, known as 'mohullas', such as Kapra Bazar (cloth market), Sarafa Bazar (jewellery market), Katras (grains and eatables maket) and so on.

During the British period, India was still divided into administrative districts as under the Mughals and urban planning was mostly done in the cities/towns functioning as district headquarters. Besides, a number of new towns and suburbs were built to house the British. However, the pattern of town planning changed, in particular in the post-1857 period. The basic principles which were followed by the British in the urban design policies were : (i) their perceptions of the nature of the Indian cities; (ii) the fear of further revolts on the lines of the 1857 revolt; (iii) demolishing old city centres to make space for new constructions; and (iv) planning techniques already in vogue for Britain's industrial cities (Nangia, internet version without pagination).

The main effort was directed towards segregating the Europeans from the indigenous populace, both physically and socially. Though some efforts were made to enforce sanitary and developmental guidelines in old towns, these had little effect mainly because they failed to take into account traditional ways of indigenous community life. The urban planning in British India was very much influenced by the precedents in Britain. As such, huge circulars in main thoroughfares in big cities like Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Chennai, Lucknow, etc. were constructed.

In addition, it was the civil lines and the cantonments which remain today the major evidence of 19th century British presence. Both these colonies of the

elite were generally laid out in gridiron planned communities pattern with central thoroughfares, popular as Mall Roads. The streets were neatly lined with trees and there were regularly divided building plots and bungalows as the main housing type. Soon after, the amenities of leisure civil life, like, clubs, golf courses, race courses followed. This British scheme influenced much middle class housing development in modern India.

2.1.2 Urban Development in National Planning

Urban planning and urban development in the post-independence period primarily started with solving the refugee problem created in the aftermath of partition. It diverted the attention of planners majorly towards dealing with the challenge of housing problems in the urban sector in the **First and Second Five Year Plans**. Planned urban development, though recognized, was not paid due attention.

The resultant haphazard urban growth led the government to formulate an urban planning and land policy in the **Third Five Year Plan** (1961-66). The need for town planning and master plans of cities were highlighted in this plan. Almost all the states since then have introduced town planning legislation with varying scope (GOI 1961 : 689). The Third Plan was instrumental in the public control of urban land, i.e., acquisition, development and sale (granting of leasehold and not ownership rights) of urban land. This need for public intervention in the urban land market was justified on the grounds of the need to “achieve an optimal social use of land” to control land prices, and to ensure a widening base of land ownership (GOI 1961 : 690). Thus, the Third Plan was critical with regard to urban policy making in the country as far as public management of land and its rational use in individual cities is concerned.

The **Fourth Plan** (1969-74) period saw the constitution of Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) to provide funds for housing and urban development projects to metropolitan authorities, state housing boards and other institutions. It provided most of the funds to the larger industrial cities to house the working class. Under this plan, improvement of urban legislation was also emphasized (Shaw 1996 : 224-228).

The **Fifth Plan** (1974-79) detailed out the problems faced by urban areas. The objectives of the urbanization policy as laid down in the plan were:

- i) augmenting civic services in cities and towns;

- ii)tackling the problems of metropolitan cities in a more comprehensive and regional perspective;
- iii)promoting the development of small towns and new urban centres including industrial towns;
- iv)assisting the metropolitan development projects having national significance.

Besides, in this plan, suggestions were made to control land prices, including differential taxes on land based on its use, higher taxes on vacant lands to discourage speculation, tax on change of land use and enhanced stamp duty on transfer of lands (GOI 1974). For this purpose, The Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act, 1976 was enacted. However, this act was repealed in 1999 as it failed to get the desired results due to a number of legal and procedural loopholes.

The **Sixth Plan**(1980-85) laid emphasis on the development of small and medium level towns. This was done with the view to reduce migration from the rural areas to larger cities and thereby leading to a balanced urban development. As such, a centrally sponsored scheme – Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) was launched for developing towns with less than 100,000 population. However, the scheme did not make much progress during the Sixth Plan ‘due to lack of appreciation of its aims and objectives at the state and local levels, inadequate experience in project formulation process at the local levels and, more significantly, absence of institutional linkages at the operational levels’ (GOI *Sixth Plan* quoted in Shaw 1996).

The **Seventh Plan** (1985-90) saw a departure from the earlier plans in more than one way. It sought for more devolution of funds and powers to the urban local bodies for their revitalization. It laid emphasis on greater community participation (GOI 1985 : 297). It felt the need for more private initiative and investment in urban development as without such an approach, it was not possible to provide basic public services to everyone. This plan also stressed on the mobilization of additional resources by the urban local bodies themselves given the limited resources at the disposal of the government (GOI *Seventh Plan* quoted in Shaw 1996).

The **Eighth Plan** (1992-97) tried to converge IDSMT , the housing programme HUDCO and employment generation programme NRY. Thus, under this Plan, focus was put on employment generation, access to urban basic services for the poor, and development of small and medium towns (GOI 1992) Though most of the programmes during the Eighth Plan were an extension of

the Seventh Plan, the content, coverage and funding pattern were revised in accordance with the policy thrust of the Eighth Plan.

It was during the Eighth Plan period that municipal bodies were provided constitutional status through the **Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992** which came into force on 20th April, 1992. The Act introduces a new part, namely, Part IX A, in the Constitution and new articles were added under Article 243. A new schedule, i.e., the **Twelfth Schedule** was added in the Constitution laying down the powers and responsibilities of the municipalities. This Schedule specifically lists out the following 18 functions to be performed by the municipal bodies :

1. Urban Planning including town planning.
2. Regulation of land-use and construction of buildings.
3. Planning for economic and social development.
4. Roads and bridges.
5. Water supply for domestic, industrial and commercial purposes.
6. Public health, sanitation, conservancy and solid waste management.
7. Fire services.
8. Urban forestry, protection of the environment and promotion of ecological aspect.
9. Safeguarding the interests of the weaker sections of society, including the handicapped and mentally retarded.
10. Slum improvement and upgradation.
11. Urban poverty alleviation.
12. Provisions of urban amenities and facilities, such as, parks, gardens, playgrounds.
13. Promotion of cultural, educational and aesthetics aspects.
14. Burials and burial grounds; cremations, cremation grounds and electric crematoriums.
15. Cattle ponds; prevention to cruelty to animals.
16. Vital statistics including registration of births and deaths.
17. Public amenities including street lighting, parking lots, bus stops and public conveniences.
18. Regulation of slaughter houses and tanneries.

The **Ninth Plan** (1997-2002) made submission that “the lack of comprehensive urban planning in the past to promote regular upgrading and renewal has resulted in a backlog of development activities” (GOI 1997 : 262)

The Plan maintained that lack of maintenance of civic amenities along with the problems of high population density and commercial activities at the locations where these amenities are located have hampered their operational efficiency. As such, the Plan laid high priority to the renovation, upgradation and development of urban infrastructure to bridge the growing gap between demand and supply of basic services. Besides, the Plan also discusses the issue of improvement of urban environment by giving more attention to certain environmental indicators like water supply, sewerage and sanitation. Moreover, it also highlighted the issues of urban development laid down in the previous Plans.

The **Tenth Plan** (2002-2007), like previous two Plans, emphasized on giving more responsibilities to the ULBs as ‘institutions of self government’ (GOI 2003 : 611). It maintained that ULBs required both functional as well as financial autonomy to be more effective. It also reiterated the Ninth Plan’s need for better maintenance of civic amenities. The Plan sought to promote public-private partnerships for improving efficiency and better service delivery (GOI 2003 : 620). With regard to urban poverty alleviation and slum improvement, the Plan admitted problems confronted in implementation and laid down in this context, “The problem of inadequate funding has been compounded by under utilization of Central funds, diversion of funds released for specific programmes and infructuous expenditure” (GOI 2003 : 627). As such, it stressed on the need for a comprehensive National Policy on Slums.

It was during the **Tenth Plan** period that the Government of India launched the flagship programme on urban infrastructure on a national level – Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) – on 3rd December, 2005. The basic purpose of JNNURM is the integrated development of urban infrastructure and services with emphasis on basic services to the urban poor, including housing, water supply, sanitation, road network, urban transport, development of inner (old) city areas, etc. The Programme not only caters to the selected 65 (originally 63) Mission Cities through its components UI&G and BSUP, but also other cities/towns not covered under the Mission City through its components UIDSSMT and IHSDP. The period of the Mission is seven years beginning from 2005-06. One notable aspect of the Mission is that the provision of Central Assistance is linked to the implementation of certain mandatory and optional reforms at the State and ULB/parastatal levels during the Mission period. Several earlier programmes related to urban development have been subsumed in JNNURM, such as, Integrated Development of Small and Medium

Towns (IDSMT), Mega City Scheme, Urban Reform Incentive Fund (URIF), and Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme (AUWSP).

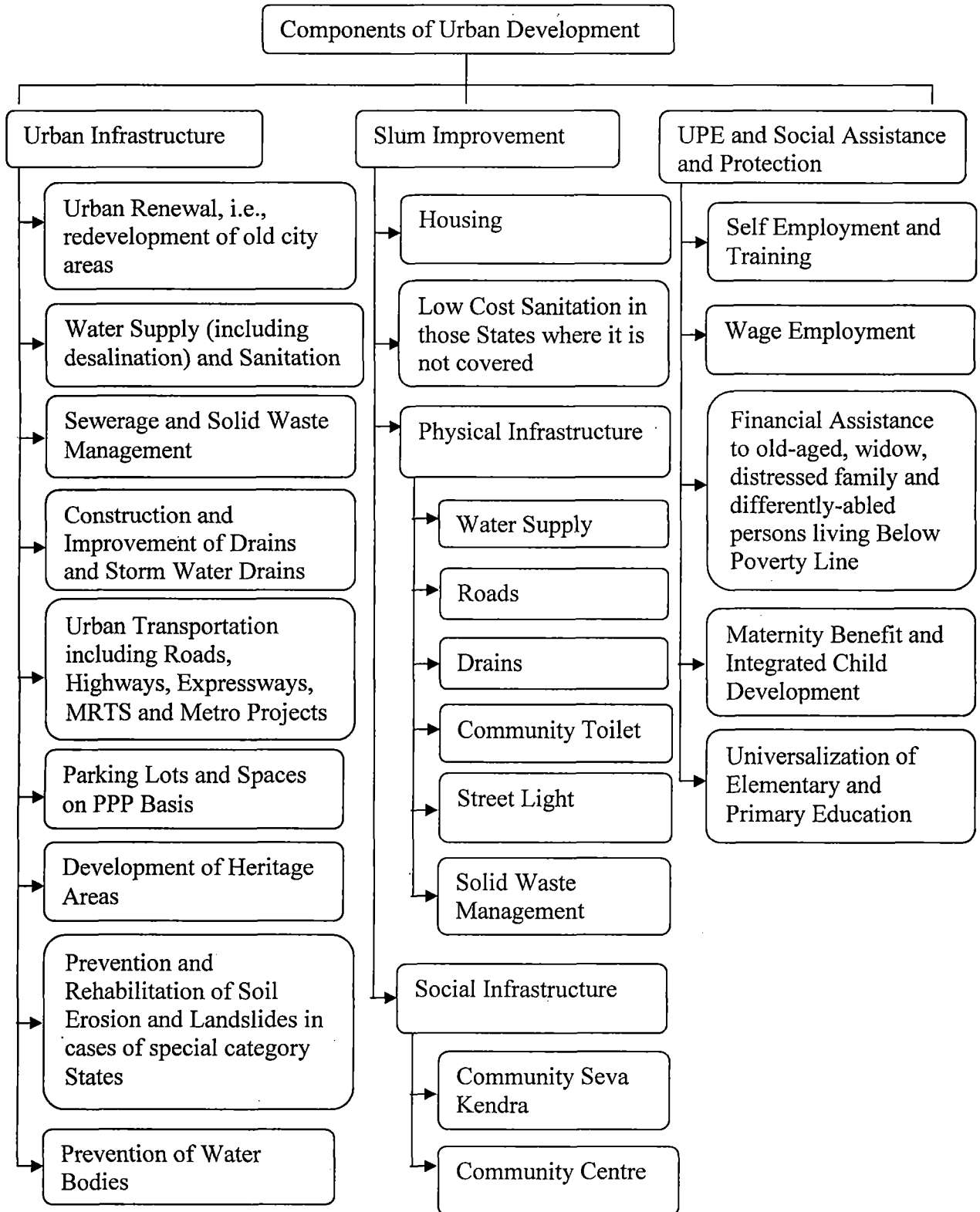
The **Eleventh Plan** (2007-2012) while highlighting the tremendous pressure on civic infrastructure system calls for the need to formulate a long-term 'National Urbanization Policy' for the achievement of balanced and sustainable development by reducing spatial disparities. It also stresses the need for Regional Development Plans at the State levels. The new initiatives taken during the Plan period till date are Pooled Finance Development Fund (PFDF), Development of Satellite Cities/Counter Magnet Cities, National Urban Information System (NUIS) and E-Governance in Municipalities. Besides, the process of consultation for setting up of National Urban Infrastructure Fund (NUIF) is in the advanced stage.

The Eleventh Plan while highlighting the constraints of JNNURM, lays down the measures undertaken and sought to be undertaken to strengthen JNNURM processes. One of the notable efforts is the preparation and dissemination of 'Best Practice Documents' through the websites, workshops and seminars. Apart from this the government has launched an initiative called Peer Experience and Reflective Learning (PEARL) to facilitate networking among JNNURM cities to encourage cross learning and knowledge sharing (GOI 2008).

2.1.3 Approaches in Urban Development

If one looks at the National Planning with regard to urban development, one finds two broad approaches being followed. The approach undertaken in the first two Five Year Plans has been termed as 'single-purpose planning'. Under this, the basic civic services like water, drainage, sewerage, roads, housing, and so on, were sought to be met and augmented separately. The linkages between various facilities were not considered too much. National planners, being far removed from the local situations found it easier to undertake the simplest job of financial allocation function wise. It was in the Third Plan that a sudden awareness of the need for an 'integrated planning' for solving urban problems got generated which marked a distinct shift from a single-purpose to multi-purpose planning. The functional approach to urban development which was followed earlier was sought to be replaced by comprehensive integrated strategy of area development. The Third Plan, thus, sought to depart from the piecemeal infrastructural development policy. Urbanization has been visualized in the Plan

Figure 2.1 : Components of Urban Development in India through Integrated and Specific Functional Programmes/Schemes/Missions



as “an important aspect of the process of economic and social development” and urban planning as “a balanced development between large, medium-sized and small industries, and between rural and urban areas” (GOI 1961 : 689-93). One of important action plans suggested in the Third Plan is the preparation of land use plans and master plans of the cities/towns. Mohit Bhattacharya (1973) contends in this regard that since Third Plan though conceptually, urban planning and development has been thought of in comprehensive and integrated terms rather than in piecemeal functional terms, but practically, however, a series of specific functional programmes on water supply and sewerage, urban housing and related functions have been sedulously pursued. His contention has been true till recently except for the operation of IDSMT. The launch of JNNURM in 2005 has, to a large extent, made integrated development of cities/towns in functional terms. Having said so, some specific functional programmes related to urban development are also in operation besides JNNURM.

2.1.4 Components of Urban Development

Presently, the various aspects of urban development in Indian cities/towns can be broadly classified into three categories, namely, (i) urban infrastructure development; (ii) slum improvement; and (iii) urban poverty alleviation and social assistance. Figure 2.1 seeks to provide a picture of these. The core components of urban development highlighted in the Chart have been reiterated time and again since independence with revisions and modifications on several occasions to tap the leakages experienced in various programmes/schemes/missions meant for augmenting the performance of the components. These also justify the relevance of the present study which seeks to peep into all these issues with reference to the city of Siliguri. Besides these components, the other functions of the ULBs highlighted in the twelfth schedule either form part of the above components or act as the necessary support systems to these. The current approach and strategy on the various components of urban development has been highlighting environmental concerns and seeking ways for sustainable development. The problems relating to water supply, drainage, waste water treatment, sanitation, solid waste management, city transport and traffic management, pollution from urban wastes and vehicular emissions form the most critical environmental concerns in Indian cities. One has to painfully admit, however, that there are contradictions between sustainability and

development. In the words of Bhaskar Vira and Siraz Vira (2005 : 45), “Many of the cities which can be judged positively by development criteria (where social, economic and political goals are met) have amongst the highest per capita draws on environmental capital (in terms of non-renewable resources, draw on watersheds, forests and agricultural systems, ecosystems waste absorption capacities and per capita emissions of green house gases). The least draw on environmental capital is often by those cities which perform worst in development terms”.

The need, thus, is to devise such a framework which can meet development goals without compromising not only local sustainability but also national and global sustainability.

2.1.5 No Dearth of Concepts

Conceptually, there is no dearth of ideas on the components of urban development as well as on sustainable and equitable development of Indian cities. The rich and visionary academic treasure on urban development gets highlighted in the guidelines of voluminous programmes/schemes/missions on various components of urban development; in the annual reports of several institutions and structures involved in urban development; in a number of legislative enactments; in the vision laid down in a host of policy documents; in the suggestions/recommendations of several related Commissions and Committees; in vast number of city master plans/perspective plans; and in innumerable number of books, journals, seminars, workshops, etc. The saddening part is when these ideas come to ‘implementations’, nobody seems to be in hurry. The situation reminds one of Fred Riggs who laid down the concept of ‘formalism’ as one of the characteristics of developing nations. It denotes the extent of discrepancy between ‘prescription’ and ‘description’. The urgent need, then, is bridging the gap to the maximum possible extent between what are prescribed and what one witnesses at the implementation and operational levels.

Studies have revealed that the municipal bodies are, by and large, centres of political nepotism, bankruptcy, inefficiency and corruption, as well as they lack the administrative machinery to implement a modern master plan. All these stand as stumbling blocks in tackling the big problems in the field of land use, housing, roads, health, education, transport, water supply, sanitation, environmental pollution, etc. The city-dwellers, on their part are fast experiencing metamorphosis into a mad crowd losing human touch and

sensitivities in public life. Here lies the importance of ‘good governance’ and ‘participative governance’.

2.2 URBAN GOVERNANCE IN INDIA

2.2.1 The History

The urban local body is the responsible institution and the authority to bring about qualitative changes in an urban area through fulfilling the functions as enlisted in the Twelfth Schedule of the Constitution of India. While tracing its history, one finds the urban government in India has been in existence since ancient times. The earliest evidence of such governance is found in the towns of the Indus Valley Civilisation which flourished some five millennia back. Megasthenes, while describing the administration of the town in the 3rd century B.C. mentions that the city was administered by a group of six bodies, each consisting of five members. Each of these bodies looked after industrial arts; entertainment of foreigners; registration of births and deaths for the purpose of levying taxes; trade and commerce; manufactured articles; and collection of the tenths of the prices of the articles sold (The Imperial Gazetteer of India 1909 : 282 quoted in Maheshwari 1993 : 11). Besides, Kautilya’s Arthashastra, too, details out on the management of cities. During Mughal period, the administration of a town was vested in an officer, called ‘Kotwal’. He performed several municipal functions, besides holding supreme authority in magisterial, police and financial matters. Abul Fazl’s ‘Ain-i-Akbari’ provides a vivid picture of town life and administration of the glorious Mughal days.

However, the present structure and style of functioning of urban local government owes its existence to the British rule in India. The method of town government which was in existence in prior to British period did not visualize the type of periodically elected representative government responsible to the electorate that had evolved in the West and was planted in India by the British government (Maheshwari 1993 : 13). In this sense, the roots of municipal administration in India can be traced to the colonial days when in 1687, a Municipal Corporation was set up at Madras with a view to transfer the financial burden of local administration to the local city council. Since then, its history has been rather chequered. Maheshwari (1993 : 14) has divided the development of municipal governance into the following five periods, each period characterized by a definite aim and purpose :

1. 1667 – 1881 : Local government was viewed and utilized to ease central and provincial finances and, thus, to sub serve imperial needs;
2. 1882 – 1919 : Local government began to be used as self-government;
3. 1920 – 1937 : Local government came within the jurisdiction of provinces and, further, was transferred to popular control;
4. 1938 – 1949 : Local government was in a state of repair and reconstruction; and
5. 1950 – present day : Local government has been keyed to the requirements of the Constitution.

The Royal Charter of 1726 established a Mayor's Court in each of the three Presidency towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. Thus, the Municipal Corporation of Madras established in 1687, too, got replaced by a Mayor's Court, which was more a judicial body than an administrative one. It was in 1793 that the urban local government acquired statutory status when the Charter Act of 1793 established municipal administration in the three Presidency towns headed by Justices of Peace. Their function was primarily to levy taxes on houses and lands, to provide for scavenging, to carry policing activities, and maintenance of roads. In 1850, an Act was passed for the whole of British India permitting the formation of local committees to make better provisions for public health. Following the Royal Army Sanitation Commission's (1863) concern over the filthy conditions of towns in India, a series of Acts were passed empowering provincial governments to constitute municipal committees charged with the responsibility for sanitation, water supply and lighting. Thereafter, Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 made arrangements for strengthening the municipal institutions and increasing the association of Indians in these bodies.

Yet, it was Lord Ripon's Resolution of 18th May, 1882 that is hailed as the Magna Carta of local government and got for Lord Ripon the title of "the father of local self government in India". He advocated the establishment of a network of local self governing institutions, financial decentralization, the adoption of election as a means of constituting local bodies and the reduction of the official element to not more than a third of the total membership. Sadly enough, the reforms proposed by Lord Ripon were significantly whittled down by the provinces which enjoyed the freedom to interpret the resolution according to local conditions. The too strong bureaucracy also played its role admirably in frustrating the noble intentions of Lord Ripon. Moreover, the

successors of Lord Ripon lacked his liberalism and who were not prepared to put political education above administrative efficiency (Maheshwari 1993 : 18).

Then the report of Royal Commission on Decentralisation published in 1909 examined the reasons behind the failure of local self governing bodies and provided some suggestions to improve upon the situation. The Government of India Act, 1919 introduced the system of dyarchy and the local self government became a transferred subject under the charge of a popular minister of the provincial legislature.

Lastly, the Government of India Act, 1935 again declared local government as a provincial subject. However, the provision of provincial autonomy under the act provided stability to the local self-government. Enquiry Committees were set up by several provinces to look into the deficiencies and drawbacks with respect to local self-government.

2.2.2 The Post-Independence Period

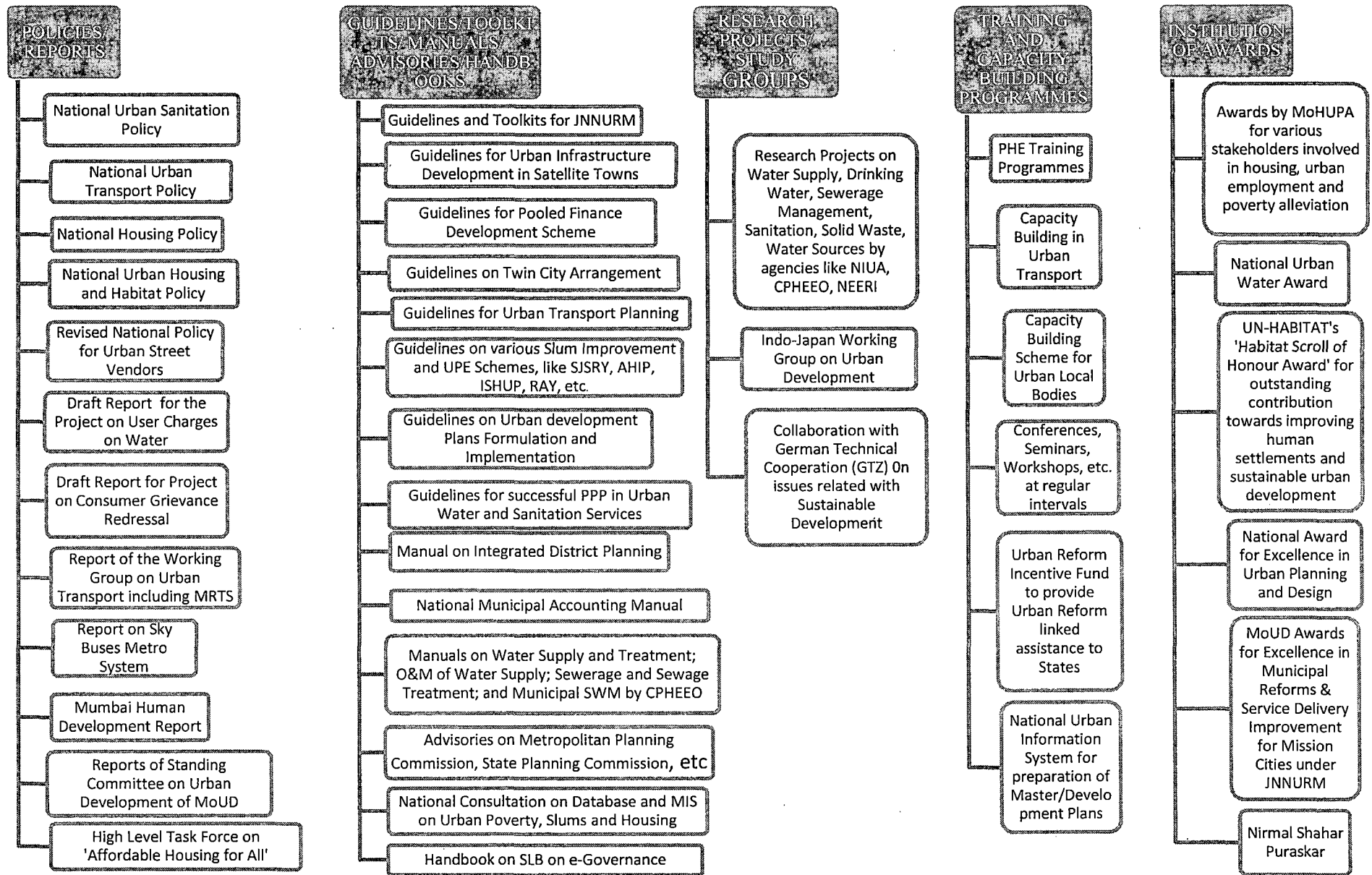
The Constitution of India which came into effect on 26th January, 1950 directs the state through Article 40 to organize panchayats but does not give a corresponding duty to the state with regard to the creation of urban bodies. The only reference to urban self government is to be found in two entries: (1) Entry 5 of the state list of the Seventh Schedule, viz., “Local Government, that is to say, the constitution of and powers of Municipal Corporations, Improvement Trusts, Districts Boards, mining settlement authorities and other local authorities for the purpose of local self government or village administration”; and (2) Entry 20 of the concurrent list, viz., “Economic and Social Planning”. Urban planning would fall within the ambit of both Entry 5 of the state list and Entry 20 of the concurrent list. As the constitution of the local self-government was kept within the domain of List II of the Seventh Schedule, the states adopted it one by one with their own regional variations. Moreover, as Entry 20 of the Concurrent List relates to economic and social planning, therefore the Five Year Plans also periodically highlighted the problems of the municipal bodies and the inability of these bodies to meet the growing demands of urbanisation. If one looks at the Acts concerning urban areas, one finds the Federal Government in pre-independent period enacting not less than twenty Acts between 1850 and 1947. In the post-independence period, over forty Acts related to urban areas and issues have been enacted by the Central Government of India – a large number being related to the national capital (calculated from

the official website of the Ministry of Urban Development). Acts having relevance to the present study may include Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956; Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1974; Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Cess Act, 1977; Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981; Environment (Protection) Act, 1986; Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993; and National Environment Tribunal Act, 1995. However, above all lay the Constitution Seventy-Forth (Amendment) Act, 1992.

Besides, the Central Government has, from time to time, showed its concern for the need to improve the urban bodies by appointing several commissions and committees, such as, The Local Finance Enquiry Committee (1949-51); The Taxation Enquiry Commission (1953-54); The Committee on the Training of Municipal Employees (1963); The Committee of Ministers on Augmentation of Financial Resources of Urban Local Bodies (1963); The Rural-Urban Relationship Committee (1963-66); The Committee on Service Condition of Municipal Employees (1965-68); The Committee on Budgetary Reform in Municipal Administration (1974); The Study Group on Constitution, Powers and Laws of Urban Local Bodies and Municipal Corporations (1982); The National Commission on Urbanisation (1988); The Committee on Slum Statistics/Census, NBO (2010). Of late, three Committees have been set up who are yet to submit their reports. They are the High Powered Committee to rejuvenate Housing and Urban Development Corporation Limited (HUDCO), the Committee to estimate the number of households that need affordable housing; and the Committee to explore, examine and recommend setting up of a dedicated Micro-Finance Company with focus on micro housing finance. Moreover, comments have been sought on 'Model Real Estate (Regulation of Development) Act, 200_'. Apart from these, a number of task forces and advisory groups have been formed to examine the problems of urban governance and development in India.

In order to facilitate private sector participation in urban infrastructure, the process of preparing a model legislation by the Central Government is underway which would help involvement of the private sector in urban infrastructure on the lines of BOT Centre in Phillipines or the PPP in the Ministry of Finance in South Africa. Figure 2.2 outlines the present efforts of the Ministry of Urban Development and Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation in enhancing the capacities of ULBs as well as keeping

Figure 2.2 : Major Efforts of MoUD and MoHUPA to Help ULBs Deliver Better



them well informed on issues related to urban development so that they can serve the city dwellers better.

It was Rajiv Gandhi who introduced the Constitution 65th Amendment Bill in the Lok Sabha on August 7, 1989 which sought to ensure municipal bodies being vested with necessary powers and removing their financial constraints to enable them to function effectively as units of local government. Three types of Nagar Palikas were envisaged : Nagar Panchayat for a population between 10,000 and 20,000; Municipal Council for urban areas with a population between 20,000 and 3,00,000; and Municipal Corporation for urban areas with a population exceeding 3,00,000. However, the bill was not passed by the Rajya Sabha largely due to the misgivings of the State Governments which saw it as a means of central interference in their areas of jurisdiction. Finally, it was passed by the both the houses in December, 1992 with a few modifications. The Bill received the Presidential assent on 20th April, 1993 and was published in the gazette on the same day as the Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992. The Act introduces a new part, namely, Part IX A, in the Constitution and new articles were added under Article 243. A new schedule, i.e., the Twelfth Schedule was added in the Constitution laying down the powers and responsibilities of the municipalities.

2.2.3 Why Statutory Recognition through 74th CAA?

The question arises was there a need at all of this statutory recognition when it was functioning in almost all the states. The answer lies in the fact that the statutory recognition has led to certain achievements which would strengthen and further the functioning of these institutions.

One of the most important aspects is their 'right to exist', i.e., the institution of local government was made mandatory in municipal constituencies. It gives a term of five years to the urban local bodies. If they are to be dissolved prior, they must be given an opportunity of being heard. In case of dissolution, fresh elections are to be held within a period of six months. Thus, this provision will prevent the supersession for years together which has been the case in many cases earlier. Moreover, the Twelfth Schedule which lays down the functions to be performed by the ULBs gives the impression that henceforth the gradual state encroachment on municipal functional domain will come to an end.

As far as financial sphere is concerned, the noteworthy feature is the mandatory constitution of the Finance Commission by the state government once in every five years. They make recommendations with regard to sharing of the state taxes, duties, tolls and the fees between the state government and the urban local self governing bodies. It also suggests the principals for the grants-in-aid to be given to the municipal authorities out of the Consolidated Fund of the State. It also suggests ways and means for improving the financial position of the municipal authorities. A salient feature in this regard is that the Governor is required to lay before the State Legislature, the recommendations made by the Finance Commission with an explanatory note containing the action to be taken on it.

However, the question is that despite above mentioned achievements, has the ULBs become a self-reliant and able agencies for development. The second process of democratization in municipalities which started off with the Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992 has also introduced a 33 percent quota for women and also proportional quotas for group like SCs and STs. Real change in the governance of a municipality is yet to be experienced which such provision had foreseen. Besides wider representation and participation, additional functions have been added to the municipalities, like, poverty alleviation, town planning, environment, and the like. The 74th Amendment Act also called for fiscal decentralization, though the process is not very encouraging. Thus, the additional functions demands even greater problem solving capacities. All these make the role of NGOs, CBOs, or SHGs instrumental in the cities' governance.

Apart from the political democratization through the 74th CAA, another process which has been instrumental in increasing the importance of cities is the policy of economic liberalization that picked up momentum especially in the aftermath of the collapse of the Soviet Union. The importance of the Indian cities got enhanced in the post-1991 period due to the opening up of the Indian domestic market. Cities became attractive destination for Direct Foreign Investment (DFI). Furthermore, opportunity was provided for exploring new possibilities in the management of the cities, e.g., involving private service providers. In this context, the Bangalore Agenda Task Force (BATF) is an exemplary example of fruitful public-private partnership.

2.2.4 Urban Local Governance at the Crossroads

Three basic criteria have to be fulfilled in order for an area to be considered urban in India. These are in respect to demographic features

(population > 5000), employment patterns (male population engaged in non-agricultural activities > 75 percent), and settlement patterns (density of population > 400 persons per sq. km.) (Visaria 1997 : 266). In India, for the administration urban areas, several types of municipal bodies are created for the towns and cities, depending on their size, population, industrial development, or other importance. These bodies are :

- (a) Municipal Corporation
- (b) Municipal Council/Committee/Municipality
- (c) Notified Area Committee
- (d) Town Area Committee
- (e) Township
- (f) Cantonment Board and Special Purpose Agency/Authority

Whatever may be the type of municipal body, the problems confronted by the urban local government are manifold and more or less similar. They are:

- (a) Financial inadequacy;
- (b) Vested interests;
- (c) Too much of state interference;
- (d) Questionable accountability of municipal personnel and state appointed administrators and bureaucrats;
- (e) Lack of sense of commitment on the part of municipal personnel resulting in failure to create emotional bond with peoples' grievances.
- (f) Problems of slums and civic amenities like water supply, sanitation including solid waste management, drainage system, roads, traffic congestion and parking spaces, etc.;

So, it can very well be said that urban governance is placed at the crossroads- both heaven and hell. Heaven in the sense, that it has the potential to become institution of freedom. But if the present legal constitutional system which leads to bottlenecks continues, it may have dangerous propositions. Sooner these are addressed, the better.

Bhaskar Vira and Shiraz Vira (2005) observe that "A realistic assessment of urban policy in India since independence needs to recognize the fact that much of what has been written on paper has remained ineffectual in practice or has not affected a large part of the urban environment. This is especially true with reference to small towns and non-metropolitan areas. These have grown on their own and in their own way" (Shaw 1996 quoted in Vira 2005 : 33).

As urban policy and planning are laid down in the state list in the seventh schedule of the Indian Constitution, the central government can play only

advisory role in this respect. It can set up model legislation and fund programmes for helping out states. However, it is voluntary on the part of states to follow them. In order that the central government passes legislation on urbanization and urban planning and development, constitutional amendment is required. It is also a fact that very few state governments have taken initiative in this regard and they virtually depend on central government's policies and allocation of resources to the urban sector. All these provide considerable importance to the urban policy and resources laid down in the National Five Year Plans and have been instrumental in the waning of the importance of municipal councils as local self government on a cumulative basis.

Table 2.4 : The urban sector in the five year plans

(Rs. in Millions)

Plan (1)	Total Outlay (2)	Housing & Urban Development (3)	Percent Share (4)
First Plan (1951-56)	20688	488	2.1
Second Plan (1956-61)	48000	1200	2.5
Third Plan (1961-66)	85765	1276	1.5
Annual Plan (1966-69)	66254	733	1.1
Fourth Plan (1969-74)	157788	2702	1.7
Fifth Plan (1974-79)	394262	11500	2.9
Annual Plan (1977-80)	121765	3688	3.0
Sixth Plan (1980-85)	975000	24884	2.6
Seventh Plan (1985-90)	1800000	42295	2.3
Annual Plan (1990-92)	1338350	3001	2.2
Eighth Plan (1992-97)	4341000	105000	2.4
Ninth Plan (1997-2002)	8592000	158800	1.8
Tenth Plan (2002-07)	12943250	405000	3.1
Eleventh Plan (2007-12)	36447180	368700	1.0

Source: www.mhupa.gov.in

2.2.5 Administrative Framework of Urban Governance at the Central Level

A host of Ministries of the Government of India are involved with different aspects of urban development. However, the most important and direct role is played by the Ministry of Urban Development and the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, along with their subordinate, associated and attached offices and organizations. Besides, there are other Ministries and Departments who play their significant role in various urban

aspects. Mention may be made of Ministries of Environment and Forests, Rural Development, Health and Family Welfare, Social Justice and Empowerment, Water Resources, Finance (in particular Department of Expenditure), Legislative Department and Planning Commission (www.indiaurbanportal.in).

The Ministry of Urban Development (MoUD) – The present institutional set up of The Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India has had rather a voluminous and complex past. Its history can be traced to Ministry of Supply and Works in the pre-independence days. In 1948, the nomenclature was changed to Ministry of Supply, Works and Rehabilitation. Since then, the Ministry has witnessed crisis on several occasions, at least, as far as appropriate name is concerned. It became Ministry of Works, Housing and Supply (1952); Ministry of Works and Housing (1954); Ministry of Urban Development (1985); Ministry of Urban Affairs and Employment (1995); renamed Ministry of Urban Development (1999); Ministry of Urban Development and Poverty Alleviation (2000); and finally again as Ministry of Urban Development (2004).

The Ministry administers the Constitution Seventy-Forth (Amendment) Act, 1992. Besides, several subordinate legislations are administered by it, the majority of which concerns the national capital. As urban local governance is a state subject, the Parliament does not have the powers to legislate upon urban issues. However, the Ministry of Urban Development, GOI has taken initiative to prepare 'model legislations' on several urban issues and circulated to the States with the objective that the State Governments would make legal and regulatory reforms in their respective legislation so that uniformity can be brought about in various state laws. Such model legislations are :

- I. Model Municipal Law
- II. Model Rent Control Legislation
- III. Model Property Regulation Legislation
- IV. Model Urban and Regional Planning and Development Legislation
- V. Model Legislation Regarding Housing Cooperatives
- VI. Model Building Bye-laws
- VII. Model Chapter on Property Tax for inclusion in State Municipal Laws

Not only the Ministry formulates model legislations, it also advises other ministries of the GOI for legal reforms in those areas which have legal bearings on the urban sector. As such, it has recommended amendments in the Transfer

of Property Act, 1882; Land Acquisition Act, 1894; Indian Stamp Act, 1899; and Indian Registration Act, 1908.

The Ministry of Urban Development is assisted in its works by a host of Attached and Subordinate Offices; Statutory and Autonomous Bodies; Public Sector Undertakings; Joint Ventures; Technical Wings; and Field Offices. The Attached Offices are Central Public Works Department (CPWD); Directorate of Estates; Directorate of Printing; Land and Development Office; Principal Accounts Office; and Town and Country Planning Organization (TCPO). The two Subordinate Offices are Department of Publication and Stationary Office. There are three Statutory Bodies, namely, Delhi Development Authority (DDA); Delhi Urban Arts Commission (DUAC); and National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) and two Autonomous Bodies, namely, National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) and Rajghat Samadhi Committee. National Building Construction Corporation (NBCC) is the Public Sector Undertaking under the administrative control of MoUD. The Ministry has involved itself in several Joint Ventures like, Urban Mass Transit Company Limited, Delhi Metro, Kolkata Metro, Chennai Metro and Bangalore Metro. The Technical Wing of the Ministry is Central Public Health and Environmental Engineering Organisation (CPHEEO) and the Unit of the Ministry is the Central Government Holiday Home and Touring Officers Hostel. Finally, there are seven Field Offices across the country related to CPWD and Directorate of Estates (www.urbanindia.nic.in and www.india.gov.in).

Among the above voluminous institutions related to the MoUD, five of them require a brief discussion (UMTC Ltd. is discussed in Section on Transportation, Pollution and Urban Social Forestry) as they are directly related to urban infrastructure development. They are as follows :

(I)Town and Country Planning Organisation (TCPO) - It was set up in 1962 by merging the erstwhile Town Planning Organisation (TPO) and Central Regional and Urban Planning Organisation (CRUPO). Headed by the Chief Planner, TCPO is the nodal agency for monitoring UIDSSMT, NUIS Scheme and Pilot Scheme for Funding Infrastructure in Satellite Towns Around Seven Mega Cities. The National Urban Information System (NUIS) Scheme launched in 2006 presently covers 152 cities/towns. The Scheme has a component, namely, National Urban Data Bank and Indicators (NUDBI). The objective is to prepare spatial and attribute databases which in turn would help the ULBs in the preparation of the Master Plans/ Development Plans and

detailed town planning schemes. The seven mega cities under the last scheme include Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Hyderabad, Bangalore and Ahmedabad. TCPO also advises other central ministries and agencies on various urban aspects. Besides, it has prepared a number of reports and research projects on urban topical issues as well as it organizes workshops and training programmes at regular intervals and contributes articles in 'Niyojan Sandesh'. TCPO functions through several Divisions, namely, Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT) Division; Urban and Regional Information System (URIS) Division; Metropolitan and Union Territories (MUT) Division; Special Project (SP) Division; Small and Medium Towns (SMT) Division; Environmental Regional Planning (ERP) Division; Socio-Economic and Monitoring (SEM) Division; and Industrial and Economic Planning (IP) Division (www.urbanindia.nic.in).

(II) Central Public Health and Environmental Engineering Organisation (CPHEEO) – It is the technical wing of the Ministry of Urban Development, GOI and it assists the Ministry in matters related to 'Urban Water Supply' and 'Sanitation including Solid Waste Management' in the country. Though water supply and sanitation are state subjects, CPHEEO acts as an advisory body at the Central level in their implementation, operation and maintenance and helps the States to adopt latest technologies in these sub-sectors. It performs a vast number of functions related to urban water supply and sanitation including SWM. Some of them are : (a) technical scrutiny of schemes submitted by the State Governments/ULBs and UTs, including schemes seeking assistance from external funding agencies like, JBIC, ADB, World Bank, UNDP, Bilateral Agencies, etc.; (b) guidance to State Governments with regard to formation of Statutory Water Supply and Sewerage Boards; (c) technical assistance to States in preparation of project identification reports and DPRs; (d) designing and implementation of PHE training programmes and assistance to States in setting up PHE Training Centres and laboratories; (e) to work in collaboration with research and educational institutions in the field of environmental engineering as well as preparation of standards in environmental engineering in association with Bureau of Indian Standards; (f) organization and co-sponsoring of seminars and workshops in the field of public health and environmental engineering; (g) preparation of draft materials for Five Year Plans and Annual Plans in respect of water supply and sanitation as well as furnishing materials for Parliament Questions; (h) to examine R&D proposals submitted by various agencies for financial support; (i)

Monitoring and Management Information System of water supply and sanitation including SWM; (j) technical issues related to Twelfth Finance Commission's Grants for SWM in 423 Class-I cities; (k) looking into the setting up of Common Bio-Medical Waste Treatment Facility; (l) issues related to Millennium Development Goal as well as Eco-City Programme, the latter along with Ministry of Environment and Forests; (m) technical assistance to other Central Ministries/Departments on water supply and sanitation as well as representing the MoUD in various technical committees of other Ministries/Departments; and (n) any other work assigned by MoUD with respect to environmental engineering.

CPHEEO has published four Manuals which help SPHED/State Water Bodies/ULBs as basic documents in planning, designing, construction and maintenance water supply and sanitation schemes, including SWM. These are : (i) Manual on Water Supply and Treatment; (ii) Manual on Sewerage and Sewage Treatment; (iii) Manual on Municipal Solid Waste Management; and (iv) Manual on Operation and Maintenance of Water Supply Schemes. Besides, it constituted which prepared a Report on appropriate technologies and other allied issues Technology Advisory Group (TAG) for management of Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) in scientific and hygienic manner by ULBs. Moreover, CPHEEO deals with matter related to Integrated Plant Nutrient Management (IPNM) which was laid down in the Report of an Inter-Ministerial Task Force on 'Integrated Plant Nutrient Management using City Compost' which was constituted with the objective recovering wealth from municipal waste.

(III) National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) – National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) was established in 1976 as an autonomous body under the Societies Registration Act for carrying out research, training and information dissemination in urban development and management. The Institute enjoys the support of the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India, State Governments, urban and regional development authorities and other agencies concerned with urban issues. There is a Governing Council which formulates policies and gives direction to the Institute. This Council consists of a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Director, three ex-officio members appointed by the Government of India, and twelve other members (2 representing State Governments, 4 Corporate members, 1 founder-member and 5 co-opted members representing different disciplines). The Director who is the member-secretary of the Council acts as the Chief Executive of the Institute.

The core activities of the Institute are carried out by an experienced team of urban planners, economists, geographers, statisticians, sociologists, systems analysts and management experts. The main functions of the NIUA are: (i) to undertake, promote and coordinate advanced studies on urbanization and urban problems; (ii) To evaluate the social, administrative, financial and other aspects of the implementation of urban development plans and programmes; (iii) to offer technical and consultancy services; (iv) to promote the purpose of the institute by constituting or giving affiliation to regional, state or local centres; (v) To organise and sponsor training courses, workshops and seminars in various fields; (vi) To undertake publication and distribution of books, research papers, monographs, a journal and other communication material pertaining to urban affairs.

The NIUA plays a significant role with regard to JNNURM. It is one of the agencies entrusted by the MoUD for appraisal of City Development Plans (CDPs) prepared by the cities. Till date, the institute has appraised about fourteen CDPs. Besides, it has been assigned the task of monitoring reforms at the city-level as has been laid down in the tripartite Memorandum of Agreement (MoA) signed between the Central government, State government and Urban Local Body and (or) parastatal body. Besides, NIUA is playing a pioneering role with respect to the Indo-USAID programme on Financial Institutions Reform and Expansion (FIRE-D). This programme which was launched in 1994, is funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and seeks to develop a long-term debt market for viable urban infrastructure projects. The USAID has provided the Housing Guarantee (HG) funds of US \$125 million for a period of 30 years to develop an urban infrastructure finance system. HUDCO and IL&FS acted as the financial intermediaries to channel the funds along with a matching amount of locally raised funds to municipalities or private sector entities to finance selected commercially viable urban infrastructure projects relating to water supply, sewerage, solid waste management and area development. (NIUA), with regard to FIRE-D programme, was assigned by Government of India, the nodal role and responsibility to promote, analyse and disseminate the policy change agenda and also to coordinate and conduct capacity building training workshops in the demonstration states/cities. Presently, there are 18 Training Network Institutions (TNIs) conducted by NIUA under the FIRE (D) Training Network. Another thematic area where NIUA is performing commendable task is the Government of India (GOI) – United Nations Development Programme

(UNDP) Project titled National Strategy for the Urban Poor (NSUP) which seeks to empower the urban poor so that they can contribute effectively to decisions in the public domain that impact their lives. The National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) is implementing two components of this project, viz., Transforming Urban Living Conditions through Innovations (TULCI) and the NCR components. The former gives technical and financial support for innovative and promising livelihood initiatives already started by urban poor communities and their supporters so that these get broadened and deepened more systematically across the country. The latter provides targeted support to 21 community associations and NGOs active in the NCR of Delhi in promoting concerns of the urban poor and grounding interventions to address multiple vulnerabilities of urban poor (www.niua.org).

Apart from publication of annual reports, research works, working papers, books, NIUA publishes three well known journals on issues related with urban development and governance, namely, Urban Finance, Urban India and Urban News. Urban Finance is a quarterly newsletter of NIUA and Indo-USAID FIRE (D) Project. Urban India, a bi-annual publication, is an important forum for highlighting issues, promoting research, and disseminating information on the research findings and experiences of researchers and practitioners in the area of urban development and related matters. Urban News is a compilation of fifteen major English and Hindi newspapers clippings on urban issues in hard copy. Such compilations have been disseminated to researchers and policy makers since 1992. Since March, 2006, NIUA has been publishing the compilations even as a searchable CD-ROM. Besides, the institute is engaged in imparting trainings and conduct of seminars, workshops and presentation series on topical urban issues at regular intervals.

Among the nine projects presently run by the NIUA including Indo-USAID's FIRE (D) Project and GOI-UNDP's NSUP Project, one which stands out unique is the initiative titled, 'Peer Experience and Reflective Learning' (PEARL), launched on 31st January, 2007 in Hyderabad. This initiative help the Mission Cities under JNNURM to share their experiences and knowledge on urban reforms and city governance. No doubt then that this cross learning has emerged as a potential area for capacity building of cities which would ultimately result in making city more livable, economically vibrant and environmentally sustainable. It may be noted that though this initiative was launched as a major support system to Mission Cities under JNNURM, but PEARL can be meaningfully utilized even by cities/towns not covered under

the Mission. As far as NIUA is concerned, it functions as National Network Coordinator and as such, it coordinates the overall PEARL activities among the JNNURM cities.

(IV) National Building Construction Corporation (NBCC) – NBCC is a Public Limited Company incorporated in November, 1960. It is a wholly owned Government of India Enterprise and functions. It is ranked as the number one PSU construction company of the country. Its areas of operation can be categorized into institutional, health, housing, industrial, marine structure, office-cum-shopping complex, power, real estate, transmission line, energy efficient and environment, water and effluent treatment, roads, bridges and airports, and consultancy. Though it has to its credit over 240 major projects catering to several ministries/departments, PSUs, development bodies, ULBs, etc., the projects with regard to urban development are in the spheres of solid waste management, integrated physical and social infrastructure of slums, housing for urban poor, slum rehabilitation, markets and rehabilitation for evicted hawkers and urban poor, bio-tech parks, improvement of city roads and construction of flyovers and parking places, sewage treatment plants, water treatment plants, drainage system, pipeline projects, earthquake resistant buildings etc.

NBCC has also been engaged vigorously in developing new technologies so as to maintain competitive edge in the market. Two of its technologies need mention which may be useful for the ULBs – (i) Upflow Anaerobic Sludge Blanket (UASB) and (ii) Trenchless Technology. The first one is useful in environmental engineering plants, such as sewage treatment plants. The domestic waste water treated in a UASB reactor is suitable for discharge in river water or for irrigation purposes. Besides, the bio gas generated can be utilised for generating electricity and Sludge cakes obtained after de-watering and drying on sludge dry beds is suitable for use as manure. Some of the sewage treatment plants completed by NBCC are at Faridabad, Sonapat, Ghaziabad, Agra and Shimla. NBCC has developed and adopted environment-friendly Trenchless (No-Dig) Technology for the laying of underground utility services, like, optic fibre cables, pipelines, municipal utilities, electric cables, etc. The adoption of this No-Dig technology by cities in place of conventional open-cut method would help avoid disruption of traffic, avoid disfigurement of existing surface status and reduce social costs. In order to promote this technology, NBCC in association with MoUD has taken lead in setting up Indian Society for Trenchless Technology (INDSTT).

NBCC has been recognized on several occasions for its meritorious activities. Some of these include MOU Excellence Award (2004-05 and 2005-06); SCOPE Excellence Award (2005-06); SCOPE Meritorious Award for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Responsiveness (2007-08); Rotary Vocational Excellent Awards (2008-09); adjudged Best Public Sector Unit (2006). Besides, it also figures in the top 225 international construction companies of the world.

The Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA)

MoHUPA is the nodal ministry for slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation in India. As with the Ministry of Urban Development, its institutional set up, too, speaks of the same voluminous and complex case. Figure 2.3 indicates the same which have been constructed from the K.C.Sivaramkrishnan’s paper, “Municipal and Metropolitan Governance : How Relevant is it to the Poor” and the official website of the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation. The Ministry is entrusted with the responsibility to administer ‘Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993’. In order to provide services to the urban poor efficiently, the Ministry is assisted by a host of offices, undertakings, bodies, companies, organizations and programmes. The following Figure 2.4 lays down so :

Figure 2.4 : Assisting Agencies of MoHUPA

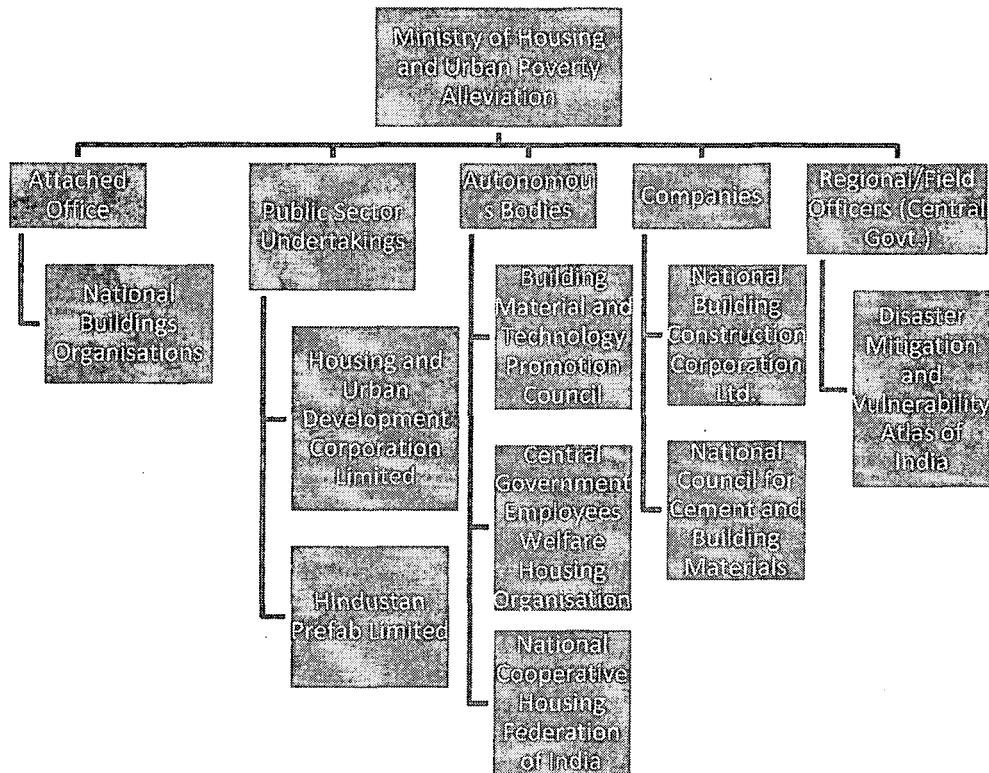
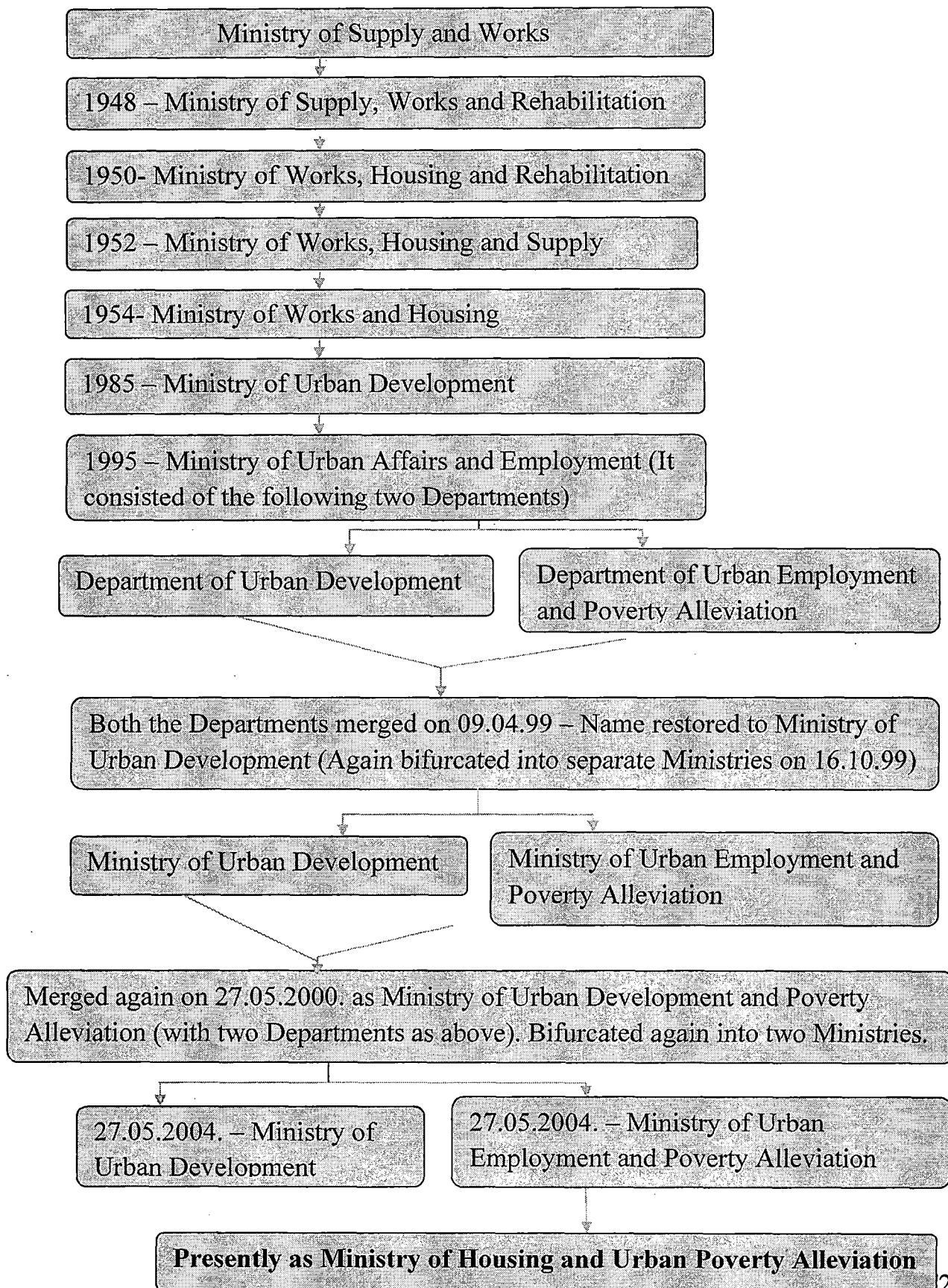


Figure 2.3 : Development of Institutional Set-up of MoUD and MoHUPA



Besides, MoHUPA, the Ministry of Rural Development and Department of Family Welfare, too, administers and monitors some of the welfare programmes for the urban poor. The attached offices, PSUs, autonomous bodies, companies and field offices operating under the aegis of MoHUPA and play significant role in slum improvement and UPE efforts need brief discussion. They may be laid down as under :

(I) Building Materials and Technology Promotion Council (BMTPC)

The Council was established in 1990 with the purpose of bridging the gap between laboratory development and field application of innovative building materials and technologies. It endeavours to develop and promote innovative, cost-effective, environment-friendly and energy-efficient building materials and technologies.

The Council had embarked upon the field level application of innovative building materials and technologies by way of implementation of the mass housing projects under the VAMBAY Scheme. For the North Eastern Region, it has developed technology for the use of bamboo in housing and building construction and has constructed demonstration structures. It has also set up Bamboo Mat Production Centres. Besides, it is assisting the State Governments in modifying their Building Bye-Laws for safety against natural hazards. Most important of all, the Council has been designated as one of the Appraisal Agencies for appraisal of Detailed Project Reports (DPRs) received under BSUP and IHSDP under the JNNURM. It also monitors these projects.

(II) National Building Organisation (NBO) – NBO was established by the Government of India in 1954 as an attached office under the control of the then Ministry of Works and Housing. It was restructured twice in 1992 and 2006. The restructured NBO function as an attached office under the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation and it is headed by the Director/Deputy Secretary of Indian Economic Service. The main objectives of the Organization include (a) collection, collation, validation, analysis, dissemination and publication of housing and building construction statistics; (b) organization of training programmes for those engaged in collection and dissemination of housing and building construction statistics; (c) creation of a documentation centre relating to housing, poverty, slums and infrastructure related issues; (d) coordination with the State Governments/Research Institutions/International Bodies, etc. to cater to the needs of the planners, policy makers and research organizations in the field of housing and related infrastructural facilities; (e) conduct of at least two short term sample surveys in

various pockets of the country to study the impact of the plan schemes which are run by the MoHUPA; (f) undertake special Socio-Economic studies evaluating the impact of policies and programmes in the field of housing and infrastructure; and (g) undertake any work assigned by the MoHUPA from time to time.

The MoHUPA has designated NBO as the nodal agency for coordination of appraisal, sanction, monitoring, capacity building programmes and review of projects under BSUP and IHSDP components of JNNURM. Till financial year 2008- 2009, more than 75 Regional/State level training and capacity building programmes/workshops/review meetings were organized for the effective implementation of JNNURM.

(III) HUDCO - It was constituted by the Government of India in 1970 with the purpose of assisting various government and semi-government organizations in implementing housing and urban development programmes in the country.

The Ministry of Environment and Forests - All the areas which have been taken up for study bore intimate relationship with urban environment. The Ministry plays a significant role in overseeing the effective implementation of the various urban environmental acts in order to achieve the prime objective of sustainable development of cities. These Acts mainly are Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1974; Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Cess Act, 1977; Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981; and Environment (Protection) Act, 1986.

Besides these three Ministries which owe direct bearing on urban developmental and governance aspects, several other Central Ministries/Departments, too, play their role in urban issues. The Ministry of Finance is responsible for release of funds with respect to various urban related programmes, the Ministry of Rural Development monitors the implementation of NSAP in both rural and urban areas, the Ministry of Water Resources is involved in preparation of informatics on surface water and ground water resources in the country, the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare looks after Janani Suraksha Yojana – the scheme related with maternity benefits, and the Planning Commission formulates the Five Year Plans and Annual Plans and lays down projected investments in different sectors of Central Government, including urban development, housing and urban poverty alleviation.

No doubt, the institutional structure related to urban development has been expanding with time and most of the Indian cities today are inclined to

make long-term perspective plans, yet several studies reveal the legacy of colonial attitude when it comes to actual functioning. Besides, it is observed that top level concerned institutions, such as, MoUD, MoHUPA and MoEF in the Central Ministry, despite engaging in abundant efforts on paper to improve urban environment, practically ends up doing some superficial coordination work, Town and Country Planning Organisation under MoUD does some editing of master plans and the Planning Commission does not take note of individual cities in their planning process.

2.2.6 A Peep into Good Urban Governance

UN Habitat states in a treatise on principles of “Good Urban Governance” that “Urban governance is the sum of the many ways individual and institutions, public and private, plan and manage the common affairs of the city. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and cooperative action can be taken. It includes formal institutions as well as informal arrangements and the social capital of citizens.” (<http://www.unhabitat.org/campaigns/governance/principles.asp> 19.12.2002)

In a nutshell, the art of “good urban governance” is about devising strategies through which the various actors or stakeholders come together to solve problems of urbanization, each taking on issues for which they are well equipped and thus contributing in a constructive way to the governance of a city (Evelin Hust 2005 : 8).

Governing a city engages the government agencies, the corporate sector and the citizens and good urban governance seeks to solve conflicting or diverse interests in a more or less harmonious way. But this is not easily accomplished and at times this might be even impossible considering one major variable, i.e., power. The actors contributing to the governance of a city are equipped with very different resources- economic, social and political- which impinge tremendously on the part they actually play in the decision- making process. The pertinent question then seems to be who is going to establish priority of one interest over the other as well as the legitimacy of interests, especially if new actors are introduced, like companies or NGOs, who are not necessarily representative. No doubt, one goal of good governance should definitely be to accommodate diverging interests. However, this is not obviously possible in all cases due to ‘either-or’ situations while making decisions and as such, the

outcome would very much depend on the power of those promoting certain interests (Hust 2005 : 8-10).

Neera Chandoke (2003), too, argues that the concept of governance has led to a scenario where the state has become pluralized, and shares power now with the lower level governments, a variety of quasi public and private organizations, or civil society networks. She asks how to democratize bodies that are out of reach of representation, which is basically a question about the legitimacy of those 'non-elected actors'.

Again, city governance will fall short of labeling as 'good' if the complex nature of city life and processes of urbanization in its political, social, economic and cultural dimensions are neglected. This is in the context of slums. They are by no means should be regarded inherently as something good or desirable. But, in the absence of other support for the communities' physical as well as psychological survival, they have to be treated as legitimate. But the general picture is that efforts to promote better governance put the major brunt on the poor like, e.g., through their resettlement to the urban fringes without prospects of income generation or disregard for their social and cultural aspirations and needs. In this context it is to be mentioned that even the richer section flout rules with impunity, like, major power theft by companies or encroachment of public land (Hust 2005 : 11).

This is to be admitted that various strategies and activities of the poor are indeed a nuisance for other city dwellers and there has been complaints by many richer citizens about the filthy and ignorant villagers flooding the city. The need, however, is to acknowledge that the slum dwellers as well as squatters are a very important economic factor, either through their services in the domestic sector or through the production of goods at competitive prices. Yet, if they are not accepted as full-fledged citizens, their interests are not treated as legitimate ones (Hust 2005 : 11).

On the whole, good urban governance engages itself with analyzing and devising forms of negotiation and coordination of interest while taking care of power differentials, and work out strategies to balance them. Further, this will be necessary at all levels. However, it is to contend that the quest for good governance has received peripheral attention in India so far. At the outset, it needs to be appreciated that the concept of good governance is much larger than mere administrative reforms in the conventional sense of the term. In fact, it covers much more ground and substance than administrative reforms. Good governance has much to do with the ethical grounding of governance and must

be evaluated with reference to specific norms and objectives as may be laid down. It looks at the functioning of the given segment of the society from the point of view of its acknowledged stakeholders and beneficiaries and customers. It must have firm moorings to certain moral values and principles. A Mission Statement of good governance will thus read quite differently from the Mission Statement of administrative reforms.

Good governance, as a concept, is applicable to all sections of society such as the government, legislature, judiciary, the media, the private sector, the corporate sector, the co-operatives, societies registered under the Societies Registration Act, duly registered trusts, organisations such as the trade unions and lastly the non-government organisations (NGOs). Public accountability and transparency are as relevant for the one as for the other. It is only when all these and various other sections of society conduct their affairs in a socially responsible manner that the objective of achieving larger good of the largest number of people in society can be achieved. However, in view of the present study, let it be confined to good governance in government.

It must be admitted that there is widespread disenchantment with the functioning of not only central and state governments, but also local self government, both rural and urban. In the perception of a common person, the government is seen to be exploitative. From the viewpoint of the citizens, government at all levels epitomises corruption, inordinate delays, long-winded procedures, lack of transparency, and extreme rudeness and insensitivity, often bordering on callousness.

As the experience shows, it is not easy to tame this wild animal. There are no shortcuts or easy answers. For any perceptible results to be achieved, the exercise will call for political and administrative will of the highest order, apart from all ingenuity, innovativeness and persistence, none of which have been particularly evident so far.

Taking clue from this, good urban governance would mean the ULBs taking all actions to retain its firm hold over people, their institutions and the situations arising from day to day urban life and activities. No one should take ULBs for granted. Unfortunately, looking around the country, not many urban agglomerations would pass this test.

The foremost test of good governance is the respect for rule of law by every stakeholder of the city. It is unfortunate that even after fifty years of Independence, one cannot say with confidence that the governance at various levels, including urban, is based on rule of law.

In any discussion on good urban governance, attention must be focussed on the primary responsibilities of the government. These call for solemn commitment not only for the construction, development and maintenance of urban infrastructure and services but also welfare of economically and socially weaker sections of society in terms of provision of safety net for them. Here again it is seen that, in its anxiety to do thousand and one other things, these primary responsibilities have been neglected over the years. As a result, squalor, filth, pollution, lack of awareness and poverty have been solved half-baked even fifty years after Independence. The main question is whether we are prepared to learn lessons for the future from our experience of the past.

The principle of subsidiarity must become the guiding principle in the governance. This would imply doing things at the level at which they can be best done. Thus, as much of legislative, executive and administrative actions must be decentralised as possible. No decisions must be taken at levels higher than the level at which they ought to be appropriately taken. Decentralisation of powers and functions must be adjudged on the basis of this criterion. As is evident, we have a long way to go to reach anywhere near such an objective, in spite of the 73rd and 74th amendments of the Constitution.

It has to be admitted that the governance in India has not changed much though over half a century has elapsed since Independence. We have certainly made some gestures and 'noises' such as adoption of citizen's charter, passing of (retrograde) laws on right to information, mouthing the platitudes of downsizing of the government and promoting the 'mantra' of public accountability and transparency. But, the impact of these measures is hardly perceptible to the common person.

There is a widespread disenchantment with the functioning of urban governments all over the country, irrespective of which political party is in power. It is not, therefore, surprising to see the anti-incumbency factor in operation in most of the municipal elections. People, at large, seek a clean, open, transparent, accountable, corruption free and sensitive administration. Such administration is not as utopian as it may appear if one underlines that good governance can also be good politics. The prior needs in this respect are restructuring of the cells of the ULBs, redefining jobs in concrete terms and fixing of accountability and transparency in decision-making. It is to be further noted that without adequate attention in these aspects, the process of economic liberalization and globalization will not go far enough. Unfortunately, the suggestions of various pay commissions with regard to improve upon the

governance in general have received very perfunctory attention at the hands of the governments, except in regard to revision of pay-scales, allowances and other benefits to employees.

Finally, thriving and robust civil society is necessary for exercise of checks and balances in respect of good governance. A spate of public interest litigations by socially conscious and alert citizens have kept the government on its toes. Everything must, therefore be done to strengthen the civil society institutions.

2.3 URBAN PARTICIPATION IN INDIA

Urban development needs the involvement of three stakeholders – one, the urban local body authorities; two, the private entrepreneurs in urban development; and three, the city dwellers, individually as well as collectively. Urban participation in the main involves the city dwellers who act like a conscious watchdog over the activities of the other two. It was the Seventh Plan (1985-90) which for the first time laid emphasis on greater community participation.

City or town is an aggregation of people and their activities. The city's products, values and lifestyles affect all regardless of what occupation or profession one is engaged in. But it is a sorry state of affair that different researches on urban affairs have primarily taken into account either parameters of development or the municipal authorities. There has been neglect in studying the role and contribution as well as apathy of the urban dwellers in the developmental process.

2.3.1 Levels of Person-in-Environment Relationship

There are a number of levels of analysis which describes person-in-urban environment relationship. The first of these is the 'physical' or 'objective' level. This type of objective description involves units that are well defined, can be counted, and do not depend on any personal evaluation. At this level, a place could be defined according to its latitude and longitude, its average monthly temperature or rainfall, its square mileage, or its population size. The physical level may be an important determinant of behaviour in terms of heat, cold and density.

The second is the socio-economic level. A dome-like structure, made of lakhs of bricks and tons of mortar, and may have a name- temple, mosques, church. But this name would bring to them a new and different significance. Defining a place at the socio-cultural level, endows it with certain characteristics known to most if not all of the members of a given social group. At this level of description, one can speak of signs, symbols and meanings. Congregants at a religious place know where they should go and when they should avoid going, when to stand and when to be seated, when to be silent and when to chant in full voice. They are also likely to feel uplifted and inspired by the contents of the service. This level accomplishes two things. First, it gives meaning and significance to places. Second, it implies what forms of behaviour are appropriate and encouraged and what forms of behaviour are inappropriate and discouraged.

The third level of analysis is that of the personal or subjective description of a place. Places and things with specific definitions for a culture in general may take on different meanings for certain of its members as a result of the personal or subjective filters through which they pass. Depending on differing needs, goals, interests, expectancies, past experiences or emotional states of a pair of individual, the same thing out there may be perceived quite differently. To an atheist, a religious place is quite different from those who are true believers.

Thus, the urban environment as developed by the municipal authority, determine the behaviour of the city dwellers. But the influence should not be one-sided. Rather, it should be from both sides. As we are shaped by the environment, similarly we in turn should shape our environment according to our needs and aspirations and which are beneficial to the majority of the city dwellers. In order to make the relationship a never ending cycle of mutual influence, the need is for active participation by city-dwellers.

Since the time of ancient Greeks, the question of relationship between participation and social and human development has been much debated. However, one of the most extended considerations of the effects of participation is that of Aristotle. He analysed the Greek city states to assess what arrangements most likely contributed to the human happiness and good life. According to him, participation in the affairs of state as a citizen was essential to the development and fulfillment of human personality.

2.3.2 Participation Squarely Integrated with Responsibility

Thus, participation comprises every kind of citizen intervention in administrative action. However, participation can only be described as such in the real sense of the term when the person who participates is fully conscious of the responsibility that he assumes in doing so. In a democratic society, participation gives the ordinary citizen a means of voicing his opinion and of showing by his behaviour and action that he is able to take the responsibilities. “It gives the ordinary citizen to show his willingness to carry out constructive public works and to demonstrate his good citizenship by other means than periodically exercising his right to vote. Participation involves a factor of determination on the part of the persons participating : participation means self-motion”.

Briefly, participation signifies ‘responsibility’. It is required in two spheres – (i) acquiring rights and (ii) performing duties. Both rights and duties can be at two levels- (i) individual level and (ii) public level. Former means that a person is individually involved in gaining rights (political, social, economic and consumer) from the state as well as from other persons. Apart from gaining rights, individuals should perform duties, too, which must be voluntary and self contributory rather than imposed and enforced by the authorities. These may be with respect to keeping pollution level to the minimum; encroachments; in avoiding heaping of garbage; in abstaining from damaging public property; following traffic rules and other rules and regulations of the city concerned; as the watchdog of the workings of municipal authorities; etc. Duties also include whether or not people have taken any initiative in the sphere of ‘rain water conservation’, energy conservation, etc..

Public life signifies when a person involves himself in protecting the rights of others (individually or through any NGO, welfare organizations, etc.) and make others to perform duties as above and also help the sick (in taking to hospitals), old aged, handicapped, destitute, underprivileged individually or through any organization.

So far as the Indian cities are concerned, public participation in urban bodies has been negligible. The attitudes of ‘not interested’; ‘don’t have time to spare’; ‘not my responsibility’; ‘responsibility of the local body’, etc. are quite perceptible among the majority of city-dwellers. This may be largely attributed to an acute lack of civic consciousness. While one understands the reasons behind the low level of participation of the rural population in the management

of their politico-administrative institutions, it is difficult to appreciate a similar, if not identical, phenomenon in the urban areas. Why is it that, despite a relatively higher level of literacy and educational standards, city dwellers do not take adequate interest in the functioning of the urban government bodies? A perceptible apathy on their part towards participating in the governance system pushes such institutions into a state of complacency and irresponsibility.

2.3.3 Urban Dwellers in Governance Vacuum vis-à-vis Rural Brethren

No doubt, the federal puzzle in India came to an end with the 73rd and 74th CAAs in 1992. However, the uncomfortable truth is that the base of the federal pyramid is expanding only for rural local government. Such leadership is sorely lacking in urban decentralization (Ramanathan 2007 : 674). This gets very well reflected in the proximity between people and their elected representatives in cases of rural local bodies and urban local bodies. The following table is an indication to that.

Table 2.5 : Proximity of People with their Representatives

Population	Rural (2001 Census)	742,617,747
	Urban (2001 Census)	286,119,689
Number of Representatives	Rural (GP+IP+ DP)[#]	2,851,739
	Urban	70,000[*]
Citizen : Representative Ratio	Rural	260 : 1
	Urban	4087 : 1

#GP=Gram Panchayats; IP=Intermediate Panchayats; DP=District Panchayats

*Approximation (Borrowed from Sivaramkrishnan 2007)

Sources : (1) Census of India

(2) Basic Statistics of Panchayats and Elected Representatives, Annexure I (www.pib.nic.in)

It may be noted that the urban leadership also fails to inspire any confidence among the people and, once elected, they hardly visit their wards to learn about the gravity of the problems in their constituencies. Moreover, the urban bodies do not have proper public relations machinery, through which the achievements of the urban bodies can be communicated to the people. As such, in India, people experience a lot of disappointment and inconvenience in obtaining civic amenities. As it is, most of them are so used to facing water,

electricity and sanitation problems, that they feel that it is futile to look up to the urban bodies for any solution.

2.4 AN OVERVIEW OF THE ISSUES UNDERTAKEN FOR STUDY IN INDIAN CONTEXT

Four specific issues have been undertaken for study with special reference to the Siliguri Municipal Corporation area. They are : (i) Sanitation including Solid Waste Management; (ii) Water Supply; (iii) City Transportation, Pollution and Urban Forestry; and (iv) Slum Improvement and Urban Poverty Alleviation. Though Siliguri Municipal Corporation is the nodal body at the city level for development and maintenance of the above-mentioned aspects of urban development, the governments at the Central and State level are intimately related with these for obvious reasons.

2.4.1 THE ISSUE OF SANITATION IN INDIAN CITIES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT

A third of India's urban population does not have access to adequate sanitation. The situation is even grim with respect to the urban poor. To address this situation and building on earlier initiatives, the Government of India formally approved the National Urban Sanitation Policy in 2008 which envisions the creation of totally sanitized cities and towns.

National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008, lay down, “Sanitation is defined as safe management of human excreta, including its safe confinement treatment, disposal and associated hygiene-related practices. While this policy pertains to management of human excreta and associated public health and environmental impacts, it is recognized that integral solutions need to take account of other elements of environmental sanitation, i.e. solid waste management; generation of industrial and other specialized / hazardous wastes; drainage; as also the management of drinking water supply.”

Sanitation is primarily related to management of liquid and solid waste as well as personal, domestic and environmental hygiene. In the early part of the 20th century and even today, open defecation is practiced in both rural and urban India. In urban areas open ditches, pit latrines and bucket system were used. Scavengers from the downtrodden communities were used for the dehumanizing practice of removal of night soil by human hands which undermined their social position in society and health. The first sanitation bill in

India was introduced in 1878 which made the construction of toilets compulsory and also proposed the construction of public toilets. Later on, Mahatma Gandhi laid the foundation for a rural sanitation movement by establishing the 'Harijan Sevak Sangh' for the liberation of scavengers. Subsequent to this, on October 15, 1947, a private member bill was moved in Greater Bombay to abolish the practice of manual scavenging. This was followed by the setting up of several commissions and debates in Parliament. It was in 1954 that the rural sanitation programme was introduced for the first time in India. During the Third Five Year Plan, a Centrally-Sponsored Scheme for liberation and rehabilitation of scavengers was introduced in both urban and rural areas. However, the scheme failed and was discontinued during the Fifth Five Year Plan following realization that practice of scavenging was inextricably linked to the evils of a stratified social structure. Later on through the successful implementation of schemes like ILCS, VAMBAY, UI&G under JNNURM and UIDSSMT, sanitation scenario of cities, including eradication of open-defecation and elimination of manual scavenging was sought to be improved. The Government of India, in consultation with the States, constituted a National Urban Sanitation Task Force in 2005. It comprised of eminent policy makers, practitioners, experts and NGOs. The purpose of this task force was to take stock of the sanitation situation and formulate a policy to comprehensively deal with the challenges in urban sanitation in Indian cities. Based on its recommendations, the National Urban Sanitation Policy was approved by the Government of India in October 2008. The vision for Urban Sanitation in India as laid down in NUSP reads thus:

“All Indian cities and towns become totally sanitized, healthy and livable and ensure and sustain good public health and environmental outcomes for all their citizens with a special focus on hygienic and affordable sanitation facilities for the urban poor and women.”

On the whole, sanitation, often referred to as 'environmental sanitation', includes interventions for the safe management and disposal/re-use of waste. The delivery of safe sanitation services includes infrastructure (e.g. latrines, sewers), associated behaviors (e.g. toilet usage, hand-washing) and a requisite enabling environment (e.g. public health regulations, fiscal incentive schemes for achieving sanitation outcomes). Safe sanitation prevents waste from coming into contact with humans. This is linked to reduced burden of disease and illness-related expenditure, improved water quality and a cleaner environment, ultimately resulting in a better quality of life.

The purpose of the policy, thus, is to cover those urban households which do have access to improved sanitation as well as to provide proper sanitation facilities in public places. There is an urgency to make cities open-defecation free as India is a signatory of The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Goal Number 7) which enjoins to extend 100% access to improved sanitation by 2025.

Since the early 1990s, India has made satisfactory progress in developing sanitation infrastructure in urban areas. According to the information published by World Bank in 2006, if access to sewers and septic tanks was about 43% in 1990, the MDG target should be about 82% at the end of the 12th Plan (2017). There is all possibility that India should be able to exceed the MDG target if the official figure of 62% in 2001 is to be believed. However, Government of India envisages providing access to water supply facilities and sewerage and on-site sanitation facilities to 100% of the urban population by the end of the 11th Five Year Plan (March 31 2012) (SACOSAN III, 2008 : 36). It is unlikely though that the target envisaged by the Government would be met within the stipulated time-frame. Even if the target gets achieved, there is all possibility of a question mark on the 'effectiveness' of the vision getting translated into reality.

BOX 2.1: INDIA'S URBAN SANITATION FACTSHEET	
○	Total Urban Households – 55 million
○	Urban Households without access to latrines and defecating in the open – 12.04 million
○	Urban Households using community latrines – 5.48 million
○	Urban Households using shared latrines – 13.4 million
○	Urban Households not accessed to a drainage network – 12.47 million
○	Urban Households connected to open drains – 26.83 million
○	% of Notified Slums without latrines – 17%
○	% of Non-Notified Slums without latrines – 51%
○	% of availability of Septic Tanks in Notified Slums – 66%
○	% of availability of Septic Tanks in Non-Notified Slums – 35%
○	% of unsafe disposal of human excreta generated – 37%
○	Medical expenditure due to diseases caused by poor sanitation for children under 14 years in urban areas – Rs. 500 Crores at 2001 prices
○	% of urban population having access to Sewerage facilities – 30%
○	% of urban population having access to low cost sanitation and septic tank facilities – 33%
○	% of Waste Water Treatment capacity in Class I cities and Class II towns – 27%
○	% of Untreated and Partially Treated Waste Water polluting rivers, lakes and ground water – 73%
Sources : Census of India ; CPHEEO; CPCB; UNICEF, 2006	

2.4.1.1 Governance in Urban Sanitation

It is the responsibility of the State Governments to manage the affairs of sanitation. Entry 6 and Entry 17 of the List II (State List) of the Seventh

Schedule of the Constitution of India lay down such powers. The former relates to 'Public and Sanitation, hospitals and dispensaries' while the latter relates to 'Water, that is to say, water supplies, irrigation and canals, drainage and embankments, water storage and water power subject to the provisions of entry 56 of List I' (Entry 56 of List I deal with regulation and development of inter-state rivers and river valleys).

With the passage of the Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992, Urban Local Bodies were given constitutional recognition. Following this, the States may give the responsibility and powers with regard to water supply (and sanitation) to the ULBs. However, the Centre has been guiding much of the investments in the sector through the Five Year Plans. It derives such power under Entry 20 of List III (Concurrent List) which is related with 'economic and social planning'.

Though the States/ULBs are the main institutions with regard to the water supply services in the urban areas, the Centre has seen the need for coordination and harmonization of standards over many years. Entry 20 of List III (Concurrent List) provides it with such powers which are related with 'economic and social planning'. As such, the Centre, through the Five Year Plans has been guiding much of the investments in the sector. Besides, there are a number of government departments and institutions at the centre which play an active and important role with respect to the management of urban sanitation. Further, there are several central level organizations who act as support systems to the States/ULBs in this respect. They have been instrumental in recommending styles of sanitation organizations as well as promoting the needs for training and research programmes, human resources development programmes, sanitation quality monitoring programmes, and the like.

The Ministries, Departments, Institutions and Organizations at the Central level which are directly or indirectly involved in urban sanitation are similar to those related with urban water supply and thus are laid down in the section on 'water supply'.

2.4.1.2 Efforts of the MoUD and MoHUPA with regard to Sanitation including Municipal Solid Wastes

Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (HUPA) initiated a Centrally Sponsored Scheme for Integrated Low Cost Sanitation (ILCS) in 1980-81 for the replacement of service-latrines and the rehabilitation of workers

engaged in the occupation of manual cleaning. Under this scheme, the ratio of Central subsidy, State subsidy and beneficiary contribution is 75:15:10. About 2.3 million service latrines (of the 5.4 million reported by NSSO 1989) were converted into sanitary ones by July 2007, and more than 50,000 scavenging workers rehabilitated. Even conservative estimates of the MoHUPA show that more than 0.12 million workers remain to be rehabilitated.

With a view to meet the challenge of unsatisfactory achievements, the guidelines were revised in 2008 with the objective to convert 600,000 dry latrines into complete two-pit pour flush units with superstructures by 31st March 2010. 75% of the central allocation is to be used for conversion and the remaining 25% is to be used for construction of new toilets for EWS households who have no toilets in urban areas. The scheme is on 'All Town' coverage basis but limited to EWS households. As a result, presently only four states, namely, Bihar, U.P., Uttarakhand and J&K have reported the existence of dry latrines. The Ministry also administers the legislation framed in this regard, namely, the Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993

However, this scheme focuses on the provision of latrines/toilets and the elimination of open defecation and scavenging. It does not cover the problem of inadequate sanitation, including treatment and disposal of sewage and solid waste management, which has considerable environmental and health implications. Besides, under the Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY, a successor to the National Slum Development Program) Scheme during the Tenth Plan (by Jan 2006) around 40,000 community toilet seats have reportedly been constructed.

As the scope of urban sanitation is much larger than the issues covered under the Scheme for Integrated Low Cost Sanitation, there are other schemes to cover other issues of sanitation. The Ministry of Urban Development is implementing schemes such as the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (Urban Infrastructure and Governance (UIG) component) and the Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT). Both these schemes have a time span of 7 years (2005-12) with a budget of Rs. 1,00,000 crore of which the share of the central government is Rs. 50,000 crore. Out of 324 projects sanctioned up to 31.03.08, 125 pertain to sewerage, storm water drainage and solid waste management. In addition, this Ministry is also responsible for the scheme for new satellite townships and counter magnet cities and 10% lump sum provision for North Eastern states

including Sikkim which provide funds for the creation of urban infrastructure facilities, particularly projects in the sewerage, solid waste disposal and storm water drainage sector.

Besides, it is recognised that in spite of access to these schemes, there may be a deficit of funds in which case the option of approaching bilateral and multilateral agencies will be explored.

The general problems associated with urban sanitation as has been highlighted by the NUSP, 2008 are poor awareness; social and occupational hazards faced by sanitation workers; overlapping in institutional roles and responsibilities at the national, state, and city levels; lack of an integrated city-wide approach; limited technology choices; limitations in reaching out to the un-served and poor; and lack of demand responsiveness.

The problems with respect to sanitation in Indian cities as highlighted by NUSP get well reflected in the ratings and categorization of cities done by the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India during 2009-2010 which was revised later on the basis of inputs received after 10th May, 2010. The 'rating' or simply ranking of cities was done on the basis of their performance in sanitation improvements. The performance of a city was measured by a set of three objective indicators, namely, (i) Outputs-Related (a total of 50 marks); (ii) Processes-Related (a total of 30 marks); and (iii) Outcomes-Related (a total of 20 marks). On the basis of this rating scheme, the cities were categorized into four 'colour code' categories, namely, (i) 'Green' indicating 'healthy and clean city' (if the score of a city is between 91 and 100); (ii) 'Blue' indicating 'recovering but still diseased' (if the score of a city is between 67 and 90); (iii) 'Black' indicating 'needing considerable improvements' (if the score of a city is between 34 and 66); and 'Red' indicating 'cities on the brink of public health and environmental emergency and needing immediate remedial action' (if the score of a city is less than 33).

The results of the survey which was first published on 10th May, 2010 and subsequently revised, show that none of the cities could be categorized in 'Green' category. Only 4 of the cities (Chandigarh, Mysore, Surat and NDMC) got place in 'Blue' category of cities. The number of cities placed under 'Black' and 'Red' categories was 230 and 189 respectively (www.indiaurbanportal.in). Almost all cities reported complete elimination of manual scavenging. More than 50 cities reported 90 percent or above safe collection of human excreta. Twenty four cities collect more than 80 percent of their solid wastes - another six show an outstanding performance of nearly 100 percent primary collection.

While treatment is a big challenge for most, 17 cities have achieved treating at least 60 percent of their wastes. Most cities have performed well in the process indicators, especially the larger cities, but results for the output and outcome indicators are mixed. The exercise also highlights that considerable efforts are required to improve access to community and public toilets for the urban poor and to stop open-defecation. Wastewater treatment poses considerable challenges. 380 cities collect and treat less than 40% of their human excreta, though there are six cities that treat more than 90% of their human excreta (Ministry of Urban Development, GOI 2010).

Chandigarh which topped the list with score of 73.48, was far behind the minimum '91' score required for earning the tag of 'healthy and clean city'. Obviously, then, the ratings of other cities creates serious doubts about the achievement of goals visualized in NUSP. One can very well imagine the ratings of cities if more stringent conditions like, no-urination or no-spitting in open/public places, etc. get introduced as indicators at the time of revision of indicators.

2.4.1.3 Municipal Solid Waste

Waste may be defined as any unwanted material intentionally thrown away for disposal. However, certain wastes may eventually become valuable resources to others once they are removed from the waste stream. Eight major classifications of solid waste generators can be done, though this classification is not followed on a standard basis. These eight solid waste generators are: residential; industrial; commercial; institutional; construction and demolition; municipal services; process; and agricultural. However, Municipal Solid Waste does not include the last category. The two most important factors for rising waste generation rates are urbanization and rising income which lead to more use of resources and therefore more wastes.

It has been witnessed that low income countries like India which have a low percentage of urban population generates low municipal solid wastes. It ranges between 0.4 to 0.9 kg. per capita per day. On the other hand, countries with middle income and high income countries generates from 0.5 to 1.1 kg per capita per day and from 1.1 to 5.07 kg per capita per day municipal solid wastes respectively.

Table 2.6 : A Comparison of Urban MSW Generation Rates of Three Asian Countries

Country (1)	1995			2025		
	GNP per capita (1995 US \$) (2)	Urban Population in 1995(% of Total) (3)	Urban MSW Generation in 1995(kg/capita/day) (4)	Expected GNP per capita(1995 US \$) (5)	Expected Urban Population in 2025 (6)	Urban MSW Generation in 2025(kg/capita/day) (7)
India(low income)	340	26.8	0.46	620	45.2	0.7
Indonesia (middle income)	980	35.4	0.76	2400	60.7	1.0
Japan(high income)	39640	77.6	1.47	53500	84.9	1.3

Sources: 1. GNP per capita for 1995 & 2025 – World Bank, 1997b

2. Urban Population for 1995 & 2025 – United Nations 1995

If a comparison of solid waste management practices in low, middle and high income countries is made, it becomes clear that the low and middle income countries where Indian cities fall suffer from fundamental financial, institutional, social and environmental problems. Despite problems, it is also true that these countries have witnessed increasing awareness with regard to waste and waste management. Of late, they have been showing positive attitude towards reducing greenhouse gas emissions and sustainable development, increased involvement of private and informal sectors in recycling, creating awareness of the value of source separation, and marketability of good quality compost.

Despite positive attitude of low and middle income countries towards solid waste management is evident of late, analysis of SWM costs in high, middle and low income countries shows that in high income countries, a high percentage of total budget is spent on intermediate treatment facilities, final disposal and research activities. On the other hand, in low and middle income countries, majority of the solid waste management budget is allocated to collection and transportation services. Final disposal costs are minimal because disposal is usually accomplished through open dumping.

Waste quantities are inextricably linked to economic activity and resource consumption. It is obvious that low income countries like India is expected to experience continued and gradual growth in capital accumulation and

productivity in the years to come. Due to these, the cities, too, would experience unprecedented population growth as they provide on average, greater economic and social benefits than do rural areas. In fact, rural-to-urban migration is estimated to account for 40 to 60 percent of annual population growth in the developing world (McGee and Griffiths 1995).

With economic growth and unprecedented urbanization, not only the quantity of municipal waste would dramatically increase, but the consumption trend also would experience change. The composition of the solid waste would have predominant percentage of glass, plastic and paper packaging in the waste stream than compostable organic matter – a reflection of improved living standards. The change in lifestyle would be seen in terms of more newspapers, magazines, advertising, fast-service restaurants, beverages, more packaged foods, disposable diapers and products of conveniences like mobile phones, electronics, etc. Thus, negative sides of greater affluence are more wastes of higher volume, rise in the amount of litter, and making waste collection more expensive. The problem becomes more compounded in poor countries where development of waste management systems woefully lags behind the realities of a quickly changing waste system.

As of now, low-income countries like India generates high percentage of high density organic matter and ash residues in their waste streams which weighs more, but are not as voluminous as generated by packaging materials and household goods. However, by 2025, it is expected that the waste stream would have unprecedented waste volume along with mass. No doubt, this will place enormous stress on Indian cities' limited financial resources and inadequate waste management system in the years to come. Moreover, solid waste if managed improperly leads to air, soil and water pollution which in turn adversely affects the human health.

2.4.1.4 Urban Governance in Solid Waste Management

It is within the jurisdiction of the State Government to frame laws, rules and regulations on the subjects included in the 'State List' of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution of India. Local Self Government falls within the ambit of the 'State List' which is laid down in Entries 5, 6 and 17. Entry 5 is related to the constitution of local authorities. Entry 6 and Entry 17 are concerned with Public Health and Sanitation; and Water Supply respectively and both of them are listed as the obligatory duties of the local authorities. It may be mentioned that as Solid Waste Management (SWM) is of a local nature

and forms part of sanitation, so it is entrusted to the local authorities. Thus, the management of solid waste is carried out by the local authorities out of their own funds, staff and equipments. However, the management did not prove to be satisfactory. Besides, the states, too, were unable to take concrete measures to rectify the management process of solid waste. As such, the Central Government took initiative by appointing committees from time to time and launching schemes and projects on the basis of the reports of the committees.

In 1945, the Central Government sponsored a scheme on an all-India basis for preparation of compost from urban waste. Though the effort proved beneficial, it suffered from limitations in terms of the quality of the compost and the SMW services provided to the urban population. The various major studies conducted, workshops organized, committees constituted and rules framed with regard to solid waste in India can be briefly laid down as follows :

Study Conducted by CIPHERI(1971-73) – It is worth mentioning here that an extensive surveys were carried out by CIPHERI (Central Public Health Engineering Research Institute), Nagpur during 1971-73 about the existing quantities, characteristics and management practices of the Municipal Solid Waste in 33 Indian cities scattered all over India. The study team submitted its final report ‘Solid Waste in India’ where critical analysis of the data collected was laid down and the report is still regarded as a basic referral in any study on the Solid Waste Management practices in India (CIPHERI 1973).

Committee on Urban Wastes(1972) – The Ministry of Health and Planning constituted a ‘Committee on Urban Waste’ on 6th May,1972 to look into the whole problem of urban solid waste and suggest possible solutions. Mr. B. Sivaraman, Vice-Chairman, National Commission on Agriculture was appointed as the Chairman of this Committee. The Committee included a number of experts from various fields. The Committee completed its study in three stages. Firstly, it prepared a questionnaire seeking detailed relevant information on solid waste and was circulated to 230 urban local bodies. The second stage involved verification of the information gained. This was done by the visits of the members of the Committee to different local bodies. The final stage was the critical analysis of the data. For this purpose several Sub-Committees were formed to suggest upon different aspects like collection, transportation equipment, garages, mechanical composting plants. A Sub-Committee even visited countries like Thailand, Singapore, Hong Kong, Phillipines and Japan to get acquainted with the Solid Waste Management policies and practices there. The Committee submitted its comprehensive report

in December, 1975 on various aspects of Solid Waste Management like collection, transportation, manual composting, mechanical composting and disposal. The report also laid down the need for enactment of a 'model legislation' for the States to amend and improve their existing Municipal Acts so that some kind of parity is observed throughout the country. The Central Government launched a scheme on Solid Waste disposal based on the findings of this report in 1975 during the Fifth Plan period which is laid down in the subsequent section (Ministry of Works and Housing 1975).

High Power Committee on Urban Solid Waste Management in India(1994) – The scheme launched on the basis of the Report of the 'Committee on Urban Waste'(1972) catered to only few large urban centers. As a result, the condition of solid waste management in a majority of towns continued to deteriorate. It is well known that a plague broke out in the city of Surat in September, 1994 due to the insanitary conditions. This resulted in temporary migration of nearly 70 percent of the city dwellers and the resultant financial loss to the extent of Rs.200 crores per day. Besides, the epidemic created scare among the urban dwellers in other cities of the country as well as reduced tourist traffic to the country.

In its aftermath, the Central Government appointed a 'Committee on Urban Solid Waste Management in India' in October, 1994. The Chairman of this Committee was Prof. J.S.Bajaj, Member, Planning Commission. It also included three other members of the Planning Commission, viz., members in charge of Agriculture, Ocean Development, and Science and Technology. Besides, there were a host of outside experts in this high power committee. After detailed deliberations, it submitted its Report in September, 1995 wherein a long term strategy on all aspects of solid waste management was laid down (Planning Commission 1995).

National Workshop on Solid Waste Management(1995) – This Workshop was jointly sponsored by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare and CPHEEO in association with WHO in April, 1995. This Workshop stressed the need to deal with the solid waste on a priority basis. Moreover, there was a strong unanimity among the participants that the action on the recommendations should be taken in a time-bound programme (Ministry of Urban Development and WHO 1995).

Study conducted by NEERI(1996) – The World Bank in collaboration with Ministry of Environment and Forest and Ministry of Urban Development sponsored the study to critically evaluate the existing of the Solid Waste

Management practices in India, identify lacunae in it, and devise the strategy to be adopted in future. The final report 'Strategy Paper on Solid Waste Management in India' which was completed in February, 1996 laid down the alternate best practices and approaches to be adopted on immediate, short and long term basis (NEERI 1996).

Burman Committee(1996) – The Supreme Court appointed this Committee in response to a public interest litigation filed in 1996 to direct the Central, State and Local Governments to improve the Solid Waste Management practices. This Committee reviewed all aspects of the problem in Class I cities and made several recommendations in its interim Report of June, 1998 and the final Report, 'Solid Waste Management in Class I Cities in India' which was submitted in March, 1999. Two of the major recommendations were authorization to the Government to exercise powers under the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986; and the constitution of a technology mission for improving SWM practices in the country within five years (Solid Waste Management in Class I Cities in India, 1998 and 1999).

Expert Committee on Municipal Solid Waste Management(1998) – As a follow up of the National Workshop held in 1995, the Ministry of Urban Development constituted an Expert Committee in February, 1998. It had in it members who had expertise in solid waste management. It was a large body with members drawn from all over the country. The prime task of this Committee was to prepare a detailed manual on Municipal Solid Waste Management. The Committee after twelve meetings came out with a detailed 'Manual on Municipal Solid Waste Management' covering all aspects of solid waste management. The Manual was published in 2000 and are serving as the main reference for the local bodies (CPHEEO 2000).

Technology Advisory Group on Solid Waste Management(1999) – Following the recommendations of the Burman Committee, the Ministry of Urban Development constituted this TAG in August, 1999. The tasks of this Group were as follows :

- i. Collection of information of proven technologies for processing and disposal of solid wastes;
- ii. Identification of cost effective and appropriate technologies suitable to Indian conditions;
- iii. Suggestion of pilot projects wherever felt necessary;
- iv. Provision of technical guidance to the State Governments and Urban Local Bodies for adopting feasible technologies;

- v. Development of capacity and human resources and for that purpose identification of training needs, development of training mechanisms and designation of institutions in States/Regions as resource centers for providing such training;
- vi. Creation of mass awareness through print media with the cooperation of State Governments and Urban Local Bodies and for that purpose development of IEC material;
- vii. Development of capacity and human resources and for that purpose identification of training needs, development of training mechanisms and designation of institutions in States/Regions as resource centers for providing such training; and
- viii. Suggestion for optimum use of funds earmarked for solid waste management in various Ministries, Financial Institutions and International Donors.

The Group constituted three Sub-Groups for carrying out its work orderly, effectively and timely. They were : (i) Appropriate Technologies and R&D; (ii) Financial Resources and Private Sector Participation; and (iii) Capacity Building, Human Resource Development, Information, Education and Communication.

The TAG after exhaustive interaction with various interest groups and after discussions in a number of meetings, finalized and submitted its Report in November, 2002. This Report consist detailed and exhaustive recommendations on SWM (CPHEEO 2002).

Municipal Solid Waste (Management & Handling) Rules, 2000 – The Ministry of Environment and Forests promulgated these rules on 25th September, 2000 on the basis of the recommendations of the various Committees. The Rules were devised under the ‘Environment (Protection) Act, 1986. These Rules reflect the latest national policy on solid waste in India and lays down detailed guidelines on various aspects of Solid Waste Management. Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) has been identified as the nodal agency to monitor the implementation of the Rules directly in the Union Territories and through State Pollution Control Boards (SPCBs) in the States.

It is to be noted that the Local Bodies faced various difficulties while implementing these Rules. In order to overcome these, the CPCB constituted a Committee consisting of representatives of some Municipal Agencies, representatives of various Pollution Control Boards, representatives of Ministries and experts in Solid Waste Management. The Committee suggested

several modifications to the Rules. These are presently lying with the Ministry of Environment and Forests for final notification.

As of now, the Municipal Solid Waste (Management & Handling) Rules, 2000 are the basic guidelines for the management of the solid waste with respect to organizational structure, waste segregation, waste collection, waste handling, waste transport, waste processing, disposal of compost rejects and debris, and landfill siting (Ministry of Environment and Forests 2000).

2.4.1.5 Schemes on SWM

It was in 1945 itself that the Central Government sponsored a scheme on an all-India basis for preparation of compost from urban waste. Due to such effort about four million tonnes of compost was produced in 1970-71. There were 3100 compost producing centers and among them 2300 were urban centers. As has been mentioned above, though the effort proved beneficial, it suffered from limitations, too. The limitations were basically two-fold: one, the quality of the compost and two, the SMW services provided to the urban population. As such, efforts started on a cumulative basis to improve SWM practice in the country. A brief trajectory may be laid down thus :

Scheme based on the Report of the 'Committee on Urban Waste' –

The Central Government launched a scheme on Solid Waste disposal based on the findings of this report in 1975 during the Fifth Plan period. The scheme involved provision of grants for effective and efficient collection and transportation of solid waste and for the construction of compost plants. Two Ministries of the Central Government played pivotal role in this regard. The then Ministry of Works and Housing was to provide financial assistance (between 25% and 50%) to the Municipal authorities with the purpose of improvement in collection and transportation of solid waste. Besides, a recurring grant of Rs. One Lakh was also earmarked by the Ministry as a financial support for the training of technical personnel. Again, the Ministry of Agriculture was to provide capital subsidy to the extent of 33% of the capital cost of the compost plants. It was upon the Municipal authorities to bear the remaining cost either from their own resources or by raising loans from the nationalized banks.

This scheme was primarily aimed at cities with more than 3 lac population. During the Fifth Five Year Plan period, about 10 mechanical

composting plants were set up under this scheme. However, at present, out of these only one is in operation at Delhi.

'Ecocity' Programme of the Ministry of Environment and Forests –

The Central Pollution Control Board is the nodal agency of this project. It will execute the project through the concerned State agencies. The Solid Waste Management is one of the areas to be covered in this programme. The purpose of the programme is to provide the requisite guidance and expertise to the municipal agencies through setting up of model facilities which could later on be replicated. The objectives of the scheme are : (i) Demonstration; (ii) Replication; (iii) Institutionalization; and (iv) Spread of experience gained.

Under this programme, modern facilities are proposed to be set up in those towns where the quantity of solid waste ranges between 300-500 tonnes per day. The State Pollution Control Boards are the facilitator of this programme. They are also to share a part of the cost. It would be their responsibility to oversee the proper implementation of the scheme, to monitor the progress, and to maintain the accounts both during execution and a few years during operation.

Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) –

The main objective of JNNURM, launched on 03.12.2005., is fast track development of the identified cities so that the urban service delivery mechanisms get improved. Besides, it also seeks to ensure accountability of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) towards citizens and community participation in the developmental process of the city. It may be noted that earlier Infrastructure Development for Mega Cities Scheme has been attached to JNNURM.

Solid Waste Management is a part of the 'Sub-Mission on the Improvement in Urban Infrastructure and Governance'. At the helm of the affair is the Central level 'National Steering Committee' on whose approval the Ministry of Urban Development releases the fund for the scheme. At the State level, the State Government forms a locally constituted State level 'Steering Committee'. Its work is to identify, decide and prioritize the projects for funding for various cities and recommend the same through the State Government to the 'National Steering Committee'. As soon as the Memorandum of Agreement is signed by the State Government, 25% of the fund is released. The remaining amount is released in three installments after receipt of necessary utilization certificates. The progress of the sanctioned scheme in a given State is monitored by an identified State level nodal agency. Besides, a Technology Advisory Group (TAG) will be constituted comprising

of experts in all relevant fields for providing assistance to Central and State level Committees, nodal agencies and urban local bodies. The funding pattern under JNNURM is as follows :

Table 2.7. : Funding Pattern Under JNNURM

Category (1)	Population (2)	No. of Cities (3)	Funding Pattern		ULBs Share
			Grants from Central Govt.	Grants from State Govt.	
A	>4 million	7	35	15	50
B	1-4 million	28	50	20	30
C	Selected cities/ULBs with <1 million population	28			
	For North East States, J&K		90	10	0
	Others		80	10	10

Source : <http://www.jnnurm.nic.in>

The schemes under JNNURM are meant for all infrastructural projects of a city, such as, solid waste management, sewerage, water supply, roads, etc. In order to avail funds, the city should prepare and submit two things – (i) city development plan; and (ii) specific DPR for specific funding proposal. The Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India has laid down the detailed guidelines as how to prepare the city development plan and the specific DPR.

Solid Waste Management in Airfield Towns – Besides the above, this centrally sponsored scheme, launched in 2002-03, covers 10 towns, namely, Sirsa, Jodhpur, Gwalior, Hindon, Pune, Tezpur, Ambala, Adampur, Dundigal and Bareilly. The total capital expenditure under the scheme will be provided by the Central Government as grant. However, the operating expenditure will be borne by the concerned State Governments or Local Bodies. The objective besides environmental concerns is to help avoid air crashes.

2.4.1.6 Problems of Governance in SWM

On analyzing the institutional structures, their corresponding functions, laws, reports, workshops, schemes and projects related to Urban Solid Waste Management with regard to Indian cities, one comes across a number of limitations with respect to the proper and successful implementation of the solid waste management practices. These can be laid down as follows :

1. Presently more than one Ministry are responsible for providing the administrative and financial support to the solid waste management activities in the urban areas which results in problems of inter-sectoral

coordination and retards the process of solid waste management. Thus, there should be identification of a Nodal Ministry responsible for identification of actions, implementation of actions and provision of financial resources.

2. In majority of the Projects under Central Schemes, solid waste management forms only a part of the specific Project on improvement in the urban infrastructure. Experiences show that it has received only a minor allotment of such projects than other infrastructure activities, such as, water supply, waste water disposal and treatment, roads, etc.
3. One of the limitations of the Solid Waste Management activity is the lack of active participation of citizens in this process. This may be primarily attributed to the social stigma attached to this activity. Thus, to make citizens participate, there is the need for the provision of specific funds for citizens' education and participation in the solid waste management projects.
4. There are problems at the level of the Municipal Authority, too. Firstly, the Local Body often suffers from paucity of properly trained personnel for operating latest equipments for managing the solid waste. Secondly, there have been improper decisions being taken by persons who did not have the necessary expertise. As such, there should be an independent Department at the Municipal level headed by a trained Engineer and provided with requisite organizational and financial support. This will help ensure a successful and effective solid waste management.
5. The Municipal Solid Waste (Management & Handling) Rules, 2000 needs to be modified in several respects to ensure proper guidance to the Local Bodies for proper implementation of solid waste management activity. In particular, laws should be incorporated with regard to provisions for levying of user charges, its recovery and penalty for non-compliance and non-payment. In this regard, the changes recommended by the Committee of CPCB with regard to the Municipal Solid Waste (Management & Handling) Rules, 2000 are required to be expeditiously incorporated to overcome the problems faced by the Municipal Authorities in successful implementation of the solid waste management activity.

2.4.2 THE ISSUE OF WATER SUPPLY IN INDIAN CITIES

Provision of water supply to the urban residents is one of the obligatory functions of the Urban Local Body. The figures of urban water supply may deceive one to believe that it is more than satisfactory. As on March, 2004, about 91% of the urban population had access to water supply facilities. The following table lays down the population coverage with water supply facilities:

Table 2.8 : Percentage of Population Covered with Water Supply Facilities

Year (1)	Urban Population (Millions) (2)	Percentage of Population Covered with Water Supply (3)
1981	152	78
1991	217	84
2001	285	89
2004	308(projected)	91

Source : CPHEEO

However, water supply in urban areas is far from satisfactory if one looks into the aspects of quality, adequacy and equitable distribution. The per capita availability is not as per norms in many areas. The situation is worse in slums and squatter settlements where poor people are generally deprived of these basic amenities. The figures further suggest that average access to drinking water is highest in Class I towns with 73%, followed by Class II, Class III and Other towns with 63%, 61% and 58% respectively (Eleventh Five Year Plan, Volume II, 2007-2012 : 162).

Quite obviously, with the continuous and sharp increase in the urban population, the Indian cities and towns are increasingly suffering from water crisis due to mounting demand and inadequate measures to meet such demand. Besides, the crisis is worsening further because of depletion of nearby water sources, inefficient use of water, inefficient management of water supply systems, multiple institutional arrangements and above all, water pollution.

Table 2.9. : Increasing Urbanisation

Particular (1)	1951 (2)	1991 (3)	2001 (4)	2021(Estimated) (5)
No. of Agglomerations/Towns	2795	3768	4378	-
Urban Population(In Millions)	62.0	217.0	285.0	550
As Percentage of Total Population	17.3%	25.7%	27.8%	41%

Source : CPHEEO

Table 2.10. : Growth of Metro Cities

Particular (1)	1981 (2)	1991 (3)	2001 (4)
No. of Metro Cities(Population: 1 Million+)	12	23	35
Population(Million)	42	70	108
% of Total Urban Population	26	32	37.8

Source: CPHEEO

2.4.2.1 Facts and Figures

As per the figures of the 54th Round of NSS, 70% of the urban households are being served by tap and 21% by tubewell or hand pump. Besides, 66% of the urban households reported have their principal source of water within their premises. 32% of them had it within 0.2 km. Again, 41% of the households had sole access to the principal source of drinking water and 59% were sharing a public source (Eleventh Five Year Plan, Volume III, 2007-2012 : 402).

The Eleventh Plan (2007-2012), thus, seeks to give special attention on the quality and distribution of water with the objective of '100% coverage'. Table 2.11 shows the status of access to drinking water in urban agglomerations.

One of the major reasons for the unimpressive and inadequate coverage of urban population with water supply facilities in the past has been the inadequate investment in this sector. The Eleventh Plan(2007-2012) lays down in this regard, "The Tenth Plan projected a requirement of Rs. 28240 crore for achieving population coverage of 100% with drinking water supply facilities in

the 300 Class I cities by 31.03.2007. The estimated outlay for the Tenth Plan period, however, was only Rs. 18749 crore in the State sector, and Rs. 900 crore in the Central sector making a total outlay of Rs. 19649 crore only.” (Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-2012), Volume II : 167)

Table 2.11 : City/Town-wise Average Access to Drinking Water

City/Towns (Population) (1)	Average Access to Drinking Water (%) (2)
Class I Cities (100000 & above)	73
Class II Cities (50000 – 99999)	63
Class III Cities (20000 – 49999)	61
Other Cities/Towns	58

Source : Ministry of Urban Development, GOI

Besides the projection of financial requirements, the Tenth Plan also laid down measures to improve upon the existing water supply in urban areas. These were in the spheres of : (i) augmentation of water supply in urban areas in order to reach the prescribed coverage and norms; (ii) assurance of higher degree of water quality; (iii) more accountability to customers; (iv) levy and recovery of user charges for maintenance and further investment in this sector; (v) special arrangements to the meet the needs of the urban poor; (vi) adoption of rainwater harvesting in places of acute shortage; and (vii) water conservation, reuse and recycling of waste water. However, it depends on the extent of the willingness of the State Governments and Urban Local Bodies to achieve these tasks and create credit for themselves to generate market funding. Besides, PPP efforts are on the cards to attract financing of water supply projects. However, as of now there are only few cases of PPP in such projects.

2.4.2.2 Urban Governance in Water Supply : The Role of the Centre

The issue of ‘Water Supply’ (and Sanitation) is a matter of State responsibility. They derive such power from Entry 6 and Entry 17 of the List II (State List) of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution of India. The former relates to ‘Public and Sanitation, hospitals and dispensaries’ while the latter relates to ‘Water, that is to say, water supplies, irrigation and canals, drainage and embankments; water storage and water power subject to the provisions of entry 56 of List I’ (Entry 56 of List I deal with regulation and development of inter-state rivers and river valleys).

With the passage of the Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992, Urban Local Bodies were given constitutional recognition. Following this, the States may give the responsibility and powers with regard to water supply (and sanitation) to the ULBs.

Though the States/ULBs are the main institutions with regard to the water supply services in the urban areas, the Centre has seen the need for coordination and harmonization of standards over many years. Entry 20 of List III (Concurrent List) provides it with such powers which are related with 'economic and social planning'. As such, the Centre, through the Five Year Plans has been guiding much of the investments in the sector. Besides, there are a number of government departments and institutions at the centre which play an active and important role with respect to the management of urban water supply. They strive to fulfill its responsibilities with regard to water resources coordination, pollution control, financing of infrastructure development through various schemes, research and development of database. The Ministries, Departments, Institutions and Organizations at the Central level which are directly or indirectly involved in urban water supply are as follows:

(I)The Ministry of Urban Development (MoUD), Government of India – It is the nodal Ministry for policy formulation and guidance for the 'Urban Water Supply and Sanitation' (UWSS) sector. The Ministry's main responsibility includes – (i) broad policy formulation with respect to urban water supply; (ii) setting standards and norms; (iii) devising and promoting new strategies; (iv) supportive institutional and legal frameworks; (v) coordinating and monitoring; (vi) supporting State programmes through finance and institutional expertise; (vii) managing international sources of finance.

Support Organizations of the Ministry – The Ministry is ably assisted in the sphere of urban water supply by three organizations – (a) the Central Public Health and Environmental Engineering Organisation (CPHEEO); (b) National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA); and (c) the National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (NEERI).

(a)CPHEEO is one of the attached offices of the Ministry. It was created in 1953 as the technical wing of the Ministry. It gives advices to the Ministry on technical matters, i.e. setting design standards and norms for urban water supply (and sanitation); collaborates with the State Agencies about water supply (and sanitation) activities; and gives technical sanction to externally funded programmes, special programmes and those parts of any programme funded by the Life Insurance Corporation of India (LICI).

(b)**NIUA** is one of the statutory and autonomous bodies attached with the Ministry. One of the main function of this body is to conduct studies on the status of urban water supply from time to time and suggest recommendations for augmentation of urban water supply and conservation of urban water.

(c)**NEERI** is based in Nagpur, Maharashtra. Though it is not directly attached to the Ministry of Urban Development, the latter sponsor researches relevant to the sector, largely through NEERI. The main areas of research include urban water treatment plant evaluation, optimization of water treatment, water distribution system performance evaluation, low cost methods of flocculation, drinking water in urban slums as well as ‘demand management’ of urban water involving metering of water supply, urban water supply tariffs, leak rectification, leak detection equipment, etc.

HRD Aspect of the Ministry – Human resource development for efficiently managing urban water supply is another major area of Central Government assistance to the States. In this respect, the ‘Public Health Engineering (PHE) Training Programme’ was launched way back in 1956. The Ministry jointly with DFID (Department for International Development, Government of the UK and Northern Ireland) has been sponsoring ‘Management Programme’ for Senior Public Health Officials. Besides, the Ministry is also supporting the establishment of ‘HRD & Training Cells’ for the water sector in each State.

Schemes Run by the Ministry – The Ministry launched the Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme (AUWSP) in March, 1994 with the purpose of extending financial support to the State Government/Local Bodies so that water supply facilities can be provided in towns with population less than 20,000 as per 1991 census. The scheme was being administered through the CPHEEO at the centre. Under the programme, 50% of the estimated cost of the scheme in a town was provided by the Ministry as grant after evaluating the detailed project report. The remaining 50% was to be borne by the concerned State government and the ULB. However, there was also provision of 100% finance by the centre in special cases. Since its inception, water supply schemes have been sanctioned for 1244 towns. AUWSP continued till 2005-06 when it was merged with Urban Infrastructure and Governance (UI&G) and Urban Infrastructure Development Scheme for Small and Medium Towns (UIDSSMT) under Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM).

(II) Ministry of Water Resources (MoWR), Government of India – The Ministry is involved in urban water supply through two of its organizations,

namely, the Central Water Commission (CWC) and the Central Ground Water Board (CGWB). The CWC regulates the use of 'surface water' for water supply, drinking water, industry and irrigation purposes. Besides, it is also responsible for mediating inter-State water allocation disputes. On the other hand, the CGWB has the overall responsibility for the monitoring of ground water levels and the rates of depletion. It is also involved in the production of water resource inventories and maps. With regard to ground water, the Government of India has circulated a comprehensive model bill for ground water regulations.

(III)The Ministry of Environment and Forests (MoEF), Government of India – The Ministry has set up the Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) to formulate and promote water pollution control strategies. It also lays down the standards for treatment of sewage and effluents. The Board has been authorized to take action in case of non-compliance. The Ministry also oversees the implementation of Action Plans to improve upon the quality of the polluted stretches of 27 major rivers of the nation through its directorate, the National Rivers Conservation Directorate (NRCD). The Directorate's activity is spread over 149 towns in 16 States.

(V)Ministry of Finance (MoF), Government of India – The Ministry through its Planning Commission has been preparing a series of Five Year Plans since 1951 (with occasional variations). These Plans have been tremendously helpful with respect to urban water supply (and sanitation) as they have laid down allocations and have provided useful recommendations in order to improve upon urban water supply system.

(VI)Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC) – It is the statutory requirement that this public enterprise owned by the Government of India has to invest 25% of net accretion from its controlled funds in socially oriented schemes and programmes like water supply, housing, education and road transportation. As such, it has been advancing loans at concessional rates of interest to local bodies and State level Water Supply and Sewerage Boards within the amount allocated by the Planning Commission for each State every year. However, the loans are sanctioned in lieu of the security guarantee of the concerned State Government.

(VII)Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) – It was constituted by the Government of India in 1970 with the purpose of assisting various government and semi-government organizations in implementing housing and urban development programmes in the country.

However, it has accorded topmost priority to financing water supply schemes, in particular, in small and medium towns. It has been estimated that about 37% of the total cumulative loan sanctioned by HUDCO for urban infrastructure has gone for the augmentation, rehabilitation, extension to unserved areas and development of resources with respect to water sector.

(VIII) Involvement of the Supreme Court of India – The Supreme Court, though not formally involved with the management of urban water supply sector, it has ordered the introduction of ‘treatment schemes’ in a number of cases, in particular public interest litigations.

2.4.2.3 Graveness of Problem related to Water Supply

There are major problems related with the issue of urban water supply which need to be addressed. The Planning Commission in its Eleventh Five Year Plan and the Twelfth Finance Commission has highlighted these in terms of overlapping of responsibilities; weak financial position of the ULBs; sustainability and equity; Unaccounted For Water (UFW) and illegal tapping; huge gap between demand and supply and need for demand management; problems related to long distance water transfer; lack of management efficiencies; problem of good quality water meter on a large scale; and the like.

However, there are several ways through which the problems facing urban water supply can be substantially minimized, if not mitigated completely, such as, realistic pricing of urban water services; demand management of water for discouraging excessive use of treated/potable water; increase in central assistance under JNNURM and UIDSSMT; water supply augmentation in coastal areas by establishing desalination plants at various places; and the like.

2.4.3 THE ISSUE OF CITY TRANSPORTATION, POLLUTION AND URBAN SOCIAL FORESTRY IN INDIAN CITIES

City transport consists of two forms – private and mass public transport. Private transport consists of transport by two-wheelers, cars, autos or cabs, while public transport relates to travel by buses, trams, local rail system or share autos.

Both modes of transportation have their relative advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of mass transport system are- it is cheaper; it is more environment-friendly as it economizes on the number of vehicles used; and it lowers congestion. On the other hand, private transport has its own

advantages, viz., it is more comfortable; it is more convenient as it takes user from door to door; and it helps in avoiding inconvenience caused due to waiting for buses and other modes of public transport.

From the above discussion, it becomes clear that public transport is viable and feasible for high density urban regions. Table 2.12 provides an idea about the density estimates of some major Indian and international cities.

The table makes it clear that Indian major cities are characterized by higher population density and smaller areas than those of developed western world. Still, mass public transport network is more comprehensive in the latter case. Indian cities are characterized by more reliance on private transport. The following

Table 2.12 : Population, Area, and Population Density in Major Indian and International Cities

Cities		Population(Million)	Area(Sq. Km.)	Density(persons per sq. km.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
Indian	Bangalore	5.4(2001)	534	10100
	Chennai	5.95(2001)	414	14350
	Delhi	12.3(2001)	1295	9500
	Kolkata	12.7(2001)	531	23900
	Mumbai	14.35(2001)	484	29650
Inter national	Moscow	10.5(2003)	2150	4900
	London	8.2(2001)	1623	5100
	Paris	9.65(1999)	2723	3550
	Berlin	3.7(2001)	984	3750
	Athens	3.7(2001)	684	5400

Source: Demographia, US (2005) : World Urban Areas (Agglomerations) : Population and Density Estimates

Table 2.13 shows the composition of vehicles used in large cities of India. Though the table amply indicates that the private modes of transport have substantially increased but in comparison to that the increase in length of road has however been at a slower rate. An indication in this regard is that between 1991-1997, road length in urban areas had an increase of about 25%, i.e., from 1,86,799 kms. to 2,32,234 kms. (Handbook of Management Information, Ministry of Surface Transport), whereas number of private vehicles increased to the tune of about 30% in Kolkata and Mumbai, about 45% in Bangalore, about 50% in Delhi, about 55% in Ahmedabad and about 60% in Chennai between period 1990-1995. This situation calls for the planners and policy makers to

increase urban roads and increasing the existing road wherever feasible. New parking areas are built. This policy further attracts more vehicles which would further lead to more congestion, shortage of parking places, increasing pollution level, high energy consumption, increase in average travel time and retardation of productivity. One can imagine the pressure on urban roads and the resultant congestion in view of the fact that automobile companies in India are thinking in terms of reducing their car prices substantially. One such instance is the Nano cars of the Tata Motors Limited which are priced from Rs. 1 lakh onwards. The spurt in private vehicles in India in the last decade and so can also be attributed to the policies of easier loan disbursement procedures and to some extent cheap or free parking spaces. On the whole, it can be said that it would become harder and harder for the road-building to win race against traffic growth. Moreover, wider roads mean cutting through mature parts of the city. Again, traffic jams are not actually cleared but simply moved round to the next corner.

Table 2.13 : Private and Public Vehicle Count in Major Indian Cities

City	Years	Two and three wheelers (1)	Cars (2)	All Private Transport (1+2)	Change over Previous Period (1)	Change over Previous Period (2)	Change over Previous Period (1+2)	Public Transport (Buses)	Ratio of Private and Public
Bangalore	1985	207585	58971	266556				3812	69.93
	2002	1248272	259001	1507273	619298	138898	758196	10077	149.58
Chennai	1985	128238	55529	183767				2945	62.40
	2002	1033401	250080	1283481	447101	100184	547285	4541	282.64
Delhi	1985	609081	166263	775344				13522	57.34
	2002	2265955	989522	3255477	573242	401213	974455	47578	68.42
Mumbai	1985	199689	236186	435875				22506	19.37
	2002	1000389	547224	1547613	463990	233687	697677	20718	74.70
Kolkata	1985	165524	177736	343260				15736	21.81
	2002	494759	380079	874838	190503	110040	300543	28923	30.25
Pune	1985	158213	25065	183278				2625	69.82
	2002	922984	130289	1053273	408842	65850	1645570	10000	222.43
Ahmedabad	1985	175125	22632	197757				15023	13.16
	2002	1001055	68064	1069119	444176	25800	469976	22106	48.36

Source : Auto Fuel Policy Report (2002)

Table 2.14 proves that the specific area requirement for car is 20 times greater than bus even at low occupancy levels (German Association of Public Transport 1990 quoted in Rao 1993 : 29).

Table 2.14 : Theoretical Area Requirement Per Person : Car and Bus

Means of Transport		Square Meters Per Person		
		Stationary	30 KMPH	50 KMPH
Car (Occupied by 4 Persons)		3.75	26.40	59.30
Bus	36 Seater 100% Full	0.41	1.63	3.47
	36 Seater 40% Full	1.03	4.12	8.77

Source : German Association of Public Transport

Thus, the vicious circle of more roads and traffic growth can be checked through provision of adequate, economic, and attractive alternatives of public transport by the local authorities. It may be argued that increasing mobility through individual transport is a symbol of economic prosperity of a city. But this may not hold good. For instance, in Zurich the proportion of motorized individual transport in the city's total volume of traffic is just half that of other European cities. While its economic power is higher than the latter (Rao 1993 : 29). The need thus is to create public opinion and awareness in this regard. Not that the individual transport should be abandoned altogether. But both should act as a coordinated whole which can solve the traffic problems of the future.

Apart from this, mass public transport is cheaper than private transport as already mentioned. Central Institute of Road Transport, Pune carried out one of the major surveys of cost of operations and energy cost of different modes of transport way back in 1991. It found out that a bus is 15, 5, and 4 times lower than car, two-wheeler and three-wheeler respectively as far as cost of operations in terms of passenger kilometer is concerned. As far as energy cost is related, it is 21, 12 and 10 times lower (Central Institute of Road Transport 1989-91). The following table would amply make it clear.

As a matter of fact, more and more reliance on mass public transport would be the most viable mode of transport seeing the high population density of the Indian cities and towns. It would entail three-fold benefit- (a) in terms of less expenditure for the common man; (b) in terms of reduction in import of crude oil which would benefit our economy; and (c) in terms of employment generation in its own way with the increase of mass public transport vehicles.

Moreover, the private modes of transport have a telling effect on the environment, too. Besides carbon emissions, pollution is caused due to suspended particulate matters caused by the vehicles. Indian cities have the highest dust load in the world due to the dusty conditions of the roads in Indian cities (Jagmohan 2005 quoted in Mitra 2006 : 473). A vehicle generates about 12^{10} particles per km. So, encouragement to use public transport among the

common public would help in substantially reducing particulate pollution. Moreover, diesel driven vehicles are comparatively less toxic and less harmful to human health than the petrol driven vehicles in the sense that the latter emits carbon monoxide, un-burnt hydrocarbons and nitrogen oxides (lead particles have been reduced substantially) while the former pollutes in terms of only smoke and nitrogen oxides. The following table gives an idea of the mass emissions from different types of vehicles per passenger kilometer.

However, it is not that easy to shift to public transport system in a country like India where it is rot with several lacunae. At the same time, it can be improved by introducing incentives for public transport and disincentives for private transport. The disincentives to private transport may be raising the parking fees, toll and registration charges as well as promoting park and ride facilities. But this disincentive has to be corresponded with incentive to public transport, such as, more attractive densification of networks, increase in frequency of services and unification of bus, rail and other modes of public transport. With this people may be attracted to public transport rather than choosing to travel less. In this way, there would be reduction in congestion, environmental degradation, travel time, waiting time and uncertainty.

2.4.3.1 Efforts of the Central Government to Streamline City Transport System

It was realized by the Central Government that in the absence of an efficient transportation vision, the majority of cities in India was suffering from several problems, such as, loss of billions of man hours due to people getting stuck in traffic snarls; explosive growth in the number of motorized vehicles; less amount of road space; and the like. It has been estimated by several surveys that while the population of India's six major metropolises increased by about 1.9 times during 1981-2001, the number of motor vehicles went up by over 7.75 times during the same period. Besides, such situation has adversely affected the lives of the urban poor. Their cost of travel has increased considerably. This is largely attributed to the fact that the use of cheaper non-motorized modes, like cycling and walking, has become extremely risky in the absence of same right of way with motorized modes. It has been witnessed that majority of those killed in urban road accidents happen to be cyclists, pedestrians or pavement dwellers.

Under the circumstances, a policy was felt to be devised by the central government to deal with this rapidly growing problem as well as to offer a clear direction and a framework for future action. Although the responsibility for management of urban areas (and thus urban transport) rests with the State governments, a Central policy is considered necessary because several key agencies that would play an important role in urban transport planning work under the Central government; several Acts and Rules, which have important implications in dealing with urban transport issues, are administered by the Central Government; a need exists to guide State level action plans within an overall framework and in the backdrop of central financial assistance towards improving urban mobility under NURM; a need is there to disseminate information to raise the overall level of awareness and skills.

National Urban Transport Policy, 2006 – In such backdrop, the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India formulated the National Urban Transport Policy in 2006. The objective of this policy is to ensure safe, affordable, quick, comfortable, reliable and sustainable access for the growing number of city residents to jobs, education, recreation and such other needs within our cities. This is sought to be achieved by:

- Incorporating urban transportation as an important parameter at the urban planning stage rather than being a consequential requirement;
- Encouraging integrated land use and transport planning in all cities so that travel distances are minimized and access to livelihoods, education, and other social needs, especially for the marginal segments of the urban population is improved;
- Improving access of business to markets and the various factors of production;
- Bringing about a more equitable allocation of road space with people, rather than vehicles, as its main focus;
- Encourage greater use of public transport and non-motorized modes by offering Central financial assistance for this purpose;
- Enabling the establishment of quality focused multi-modal public transport systems that are well integrated, providing seamless travel across modes;
- Establishing effective regulatory and enforcement mechanisms that allow a level playing field for all operators of transport services and enhanced safety for the transport system users;

- Establishing institutional mechanisms for enhanced coordination in the planning and management of transport systems;
- Introducing Intelligent Transport Systems for traffic management;
- Addressing concerns of road safety and trauma response; and
- Reducing pollution levels through changes in traveling practices, better enforcement, stricter norms, technological improvements, etc.

Urban Mass Transit Company Limited – UMTC is a joint venture of Ministry of Urban Development, Government of Andhra Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh Surface Road Transport Corporation and Infrastructure Leasing and Financial Services (IL&FS). It has been set up with a vision to serve its clients with socially desirable and economically sustainable outcomes in urban transport system which is characterized by a high degree of congestion due to increasing number of motorized vehicle, noise pollution, accidents and above all, faulty land use and transit planning. . In this regard, providing sustainable urban transit solutions keeping in mind quality, safety, time and budget is a core competency at UMTC. It plays a leading role in the development, application and transfer of processes and technologies for the design, construction, maintenance and management of transit infrastructure. The Company specializes in and caters to various regional, state and central agencies in (i) preparation of comprehensive mobility plans; (ii) preparation of detailed designs of mass transit modes with respect to BRT, monorail and metro rail; (iii) planning, designing and operations and management of city bus systems; (iv) non-motorized planning, such as, pedestrian and bicycle plans and walk routes; (v) transit planning and design; (vi) parking projects; and (vii) structuring PPP formats for urban transport projects.

UMTC also specializes in training local bodies by imparting them relevant skills and knowledge so that they may address the public transit needs of the city in a better manner. It aids the Government and local bodies with regard to making transit plans which are sustainable, realistic, cost effective and viable. Besides, UMTC proposes to assist local governments and agencies in preparing urban transport related documents, such as, Comprehensive Mobility Plans, Comprehensive Traffic and Transportation Plans, Detailed Project Reports, etc. which are required for project approvals and funding assistance from the Central Government authorities (www.umtc.co.in).

Besides, UMTC, mention may be made of Institute of Urban Transport, India which was set up in 1997 as a registered society, manages the affairs of National Urban Transport Information Centre (NUTIC) of the Ministry of

Urban Development. NUTIC has been set up to compile data on urban transport in scientifically designed formats and maintain it methodically. A library of books and magazines on urban transport has also been set up in the NUTIC (www.iutindia.org).

Suggestions for Urban Transport Planning for the Eleventh Plan Period – Planning Commission in its Eleventh Five Year Plan has laid down the following suggestions with regard to planning of urban transport in Indian cities :

- (1) All cities need to prepare a comprehensive mobility plan which includes a Master Plan for non-motorized transport taking into account projected growth in the next ten years.
- (2) Proposals for preparation of DPR should be preceded by professional evaluation by technology neutral agencies.
- (3) A comprehensive program of capacity building should be implemented.
- (4) All cities should formulate a realistic ‘hawker/vendor policy’.
- (5) Cities may prepare a plan for traffic calming to reduce emissions and road accident rates.
- (6) All million plus cities may prepare plans to introduce/upgrade existing bus services as also introduce BRT systems on selected arterials during the Eleventh Plan period.
- (7) All cities may have a parking policy. State governments need to amend building by-laws so that adequate parking space is made available for all residents/users. FAR norms may be modified. Multilevel parking complexes may be made mandatory in mega cities. All cities may upgrade taxi and three wheeler fleets.

However, mere policies and incentives to promote urban public transport system would not be enough unless disincentives to private modes of urban transportation are not put in place. These disincentives may be with respect to : high parking charges on major arterial roads; no parking zone for automobiles on the major arterial roads for a day in a week; park and ride facilities; substantially high fine charges for violation of traffic rules and discipline; segregating some narrow lanes in the market place exclusively for pedestrians and no entry for automobile vehicles for specified time; and the like.

2.4.3.2 Urban Motorized Transport System Squarely Integrated with Air Pollution

Despite the presence of National Urban Transportation Policy with its objective of promoting public transport in the cities, the fact remains that, at

present, personal vehicles are increasing at a very alarming pace. The incentives of public transport system in most of the cities are too poor to attract the attention of those urban dwellers who can afford personalized modes of transport. As such, the present scenario of Indian cities weigh heavily in favour of private motorized vehicles. Even if it is presumed that public transport system will have an edge in future times to come, it may reduce air and noise pollution to an extent but not substantially. As of now, increased use of personal vehicles has increased air pollution to an alarming level.

Most of the cities in India suffer from extremely high levels of urban pollution, particularly in the form of suspended particulate matter. Urban air pollution is estimated to cause over 2,50,000 deaths and billions of cases of respiratory illnesses every year (World Bank 2006). Air quality data suggests that the pollutant of most concern from the point of view of environmental health risk is the airborne particulate matter. Costs to society arising from urban air pollution include damage to human health, buildings, and vegetation, lowered visibility and heightened greenhouse gas emissions. Of these, increased premature mortality and morbidity are generally considered to be the most serious consequences of air pollution, both on account of their human and economic impacts. It is common and appropriate, therefore, to use damage to human health as the primary indicator of the seriousness of air pollution.

The principal pollutants emitted by the vehicles are carbon monoxide (CO), hydrocarbons (HC), oxides of nitrogen (NO) and suspended particulate matter (SPM). The resultant health effects of such pollutants are irritation, bronchitis, lungs problem, cardiac diseases, nervous disorder, respiratory diseases, cancer, etc. As such, there is an urgent need to control these harmful pollutants through integration of urban social forestry into the planning process of infrastructure development of transportation system.

2.4.3.3 Need for Planned, Integrated and Systematic Urban Social Forestry

There is no doubt that promotion of public transport system in the cities, adoption of appropriate and cleaner vehicular emission technologies, and special consideration in designing pedestrian and non-motorized transport (NMT) facilities along the roads will go a long way in reducing urban pollution caused by vehicles. However, these alone are not sufficient unless and until urban forestry is given due space in the overall planning process. It is so

because it provides one of the most significant environmental and material benefits to the urban dwellers.

Primarily, the subject of urban forestry focuses on trees for landscape and amenity purposes of the urban settlements, and, increasingly, on how trees may be used to modify specific aspects of the urban environment like, noise and air pollution, heat, air currents, etc.

Miller has defined urban forestry as “an integrated, city wide approach to the planting, care and management of trees in the city to secure multiple environmental and social benefits for urban dwellers.” (Miller 1988 : 28)

Urban forestry management, thus, requires a ‘planned, integrated, and systematic’ approach. Planning is important because trees are very often considered as an afterthought once development has taken place. It is generally not incorporated at the original design phase. An integrated approach implies the participation of many different organizations - local councils, municipal and national planning bodies, departments, etc. Systematic management entails regulated tree management; operations such as planting, pruning, and felling must all be conducted in an organized manner and at the appropriate time.

2.4.3.4 Problems of Governance in Urban Forestry

Urban forestry in majority of Indian cities lack planned, integrated and systematic approach. This is perhaps the least concerned aspect of urban governance despite having great environmental benefits in terms of reduction of air and noise pollution, heat and air currents. It basically suffers from ad hoc arrangement and tree saplings are generally planted to mark important occasions like observance of forest weeks, World Environment Day, etc. Post-plantation care is almost absent which results either in the death of such saplings or in the improper growth of trees. The urban authorities need to understand that besides improving upon environment, it is significant aesthetically in terms of landscaping. As such, urban forestry in Indian cities has been confined to urban parks and very less effort has been demonstrated regarding extensive roadside tree plantings. No doubt, some of city governments, such as, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Chandigarh, and few others, have shown serious concern with respect to urban forestry and do have a separate department or cell in the Corporation. However, such concerted efforts in this regard have not been forthcoming from most of the ULBs in the country. Two major problems of governance encountering urban forestry are (i) lack of detailed and strongly enforced legislation concerning the management of trees in Indian cities,

including ones growing on private lands; and (ii) non-availability of urban tree databases and inventory techniques for most of the Indian cities.

2.4.4 THE ISSUE OF SLUM AND URBAN POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN INDIAN CITIES

K.C.Sivaramkrishnan (2004) has very well said that 'Cities without Slums' may be an attractive slogan but in India 'Slums without Cities' may emerge as a stark reality. One of the major problems confronting slums in Indian cities is the different definitions provided by different organisations and institutions which results in data gaps in various slum reports. However, the most widely accepted and adopted definition is what is used by the NSSO, i.e., "A slum is a compact settlement of at least 20 households with a collection of poorly built tenements, mostly of temporary nature, crowded together usually with inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities in unhygienic conditions." Even the NBO (2010 : 3), MoHUPA has adopted this definition in its report regarding conduct of slum census, 2011.

The 31st Round Enquiry – "Conditions of Slum Areas in Cities" – of the NSSO (July 1976-June 1977) was the first nationwide survey on slums. However, the coverage was only confined to Class I cities with population of one lakh or more (according to 1971 Census) and two Class II cities, namely, Shillong and Pondicherry. According to the Survey, 15.7 % of the total population lived in slum areas (excluding the big eight big cities – Greater Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Ahmedabad and Kanpur). In these eight big cities, nearly 17 % of the population lived in declared slums.

It was in the Census of India, 2001 that the Registrar General of India enumerated slum population in the country for the first time. A total of 1961 (640 in the first phase and 1321 in the second phase) cities/towns with more than 20,000 population were covered for identification of slums. Out of these, 1743 cities/ towns reported having slums. As per the Census of India, 2001, the number of people living in slums stood at 52.4 million in 1743 cities/towns spread over 26 State/UTs all over the country. This constitutes 23.5 % of the population of these cities/towns. The latest survey in this regard is the 65th Round of Survey on urban slums which was conducted in 2008-2009 by NSSO. This last Survey put the figures of slums at 49,000 in the country.

Though data gaps are there regarding urban slum population across India, one may conclude that there has been a decline in the percentage of urban slums to the total urban population as well as lower slum growth rate vis-à-vis urban growth rate. According to NSSO figures, the number of slums has decreased from fifty-six thousand in 1993 to fifty-two thousand in 2002 to forty-nine thousand in 2008. Again, as per Census data, the percentage of 'notified' slum population to urban population in 1991 was 18.38 (the data collection covered 13 States and 2 UTs). The percentage of 'notified' slum population of the same urban agglomerations declined to 14.24 % in 2001. Notwithstanding, the total slum population as a percentage of urban population of 1743 cities/towns who reported having slums stood at 23.5 % in 2001. One very interesting data which gets revealed is that the State of West Bengal saw the sharpest decline in the percentage of 'notified' slum population in urban population between 1991 and 2001. It declined from 36.04 % in 1991 to 14.12 % in 2001, i.e., an unprecedented decline of 21.29 %.

From the Census figures of 1991 and 2001, one notices a significant negative correlation between urban growth rate and the percentage of slum population, implying that cities/towns with high urban growth rates reported low percentage of slum population. Interestingly, slum population has increased in those cities/towns where the percentage of slum population is low (Kumar 2010).

2.4.4.1 Urban Slums and Urban Poverty

It is a well known fact that urban slum and urban poverty are squarely integrated to one another as most of the urban poor inhabit in slums and squatter settlements. In India since 1972, urban poverty has been defined on the basis of the money required to buy food worth 2100 calories. However, measuring urban poverty only in terms of calorific intake has serious shortcomings. The fact is that poor access to services, health care and environmental deficiencies critically affect the economic well-being not only of the households below the poverty line but lesser income families across a large spectrum.

Though exercises for estimating urban poverty by various expert groups and institutions have been going on since 1960 but as far as census is concerned, it was in Census 2001 that the slum population in towns and cities with population of more than 50,000 was counted for the first time. The Census

laid down the figures at 40.6 million in 607 towns/cities. Even Chandigarh, the dream town, contained 13% of its population in the slums.

Though there are a number of reasons for urban poverty, but in case of most of the cities the main reason is the impoverishment of rural peasantry that forces them to move out of villages to seek some subsistence living in towns and cities. If a comparison is made between the living conditions of poor in rural and urban areas, it is found that while in villages, poor people have access to open space but without food and other basic amenities, in urban agglomerations, they get access to some food but loose open space and other sanitary facilities. Moreover, the urban poor, though fundamentally, belonged to the same class as the rural poor but they live long enough in urban poverty to acquire characteristics of their own.

S.D.Tendulkar has divided the available evidence of urban poverty into two sub-periods – (a) upto 1973-74 for which a fairly continuous time series is available; and (b) post 1973-74 period for which the data is not continuous. The following table is an illustration of that :

Table 2.15 : Trajectory of Urban Poverty in India

Year (1)	% of Urban Population below Poverty Line (2)	Size of Urban Population below Poverty Line (In Million) (3)	Urban+Rural Population Below Poverty Line (In Million) (4)
1960-61	40.40	32	173
1961-62	39.36	32	177
1962-63	NA	NA	NA
1963-64	42.52	37	208
1964-65	45.74	42	226
1965-66	46.43	44	234
1966-67	48.38	47	278
1967-68	48.32	49	285
1968-69	45.53	47	264
1969-70	44.40	48	262

1970-71	41.50	46	256
1971-72	NA	NA	NA
1972-73	44.58	53	280
1973-74	38.70	48	264
1977-78	39.50	58	262
1983	34.87	62	245
1993-94	31.8	NA	NA
2000	NA	67.1	260.3
2004-05	25.7	NA	NA
2009	38	NA	NA

Sources : S.D.Tendulkar, "Economic Inequalities and Poverty in India : An Interpretative Overview" in P.R.Brahmananda and V.R.Panchomukhi (ed), "The Development Process of the Indian Economy, Bombay, Himalaya Public House. (This Table is based on Ahluwalia's estimates)

For 2000 Estimates : Planning Commission

For 2009 Estimates : 'Expert Group to Review the Methodology for Estimation of Poverty' chaired by Prof. S.D.Tendulkar

Thus, from the above table it becomes clear that one cannot discern any trend as far as urban poverty is concerned. There was a marked rise in its incidence from about 40 percent in 1960-61 to about 48 percent in 1967-68. It declined thereafter to about 39 percent in 1973-74. Thus, the percentage of urban people below poverty line in 1973-74 was only marginally lower than in 1960-61. In the post 1973-74 period, it hovered around 40 percent and Tendulkar's estimate put it at 38 percent in 2009.

2.4.4.2 Model Municipal Law's Failure to Emphatically Highlight UPE

A 'model municipal law' was released by the Ministry of Urban Development and Poverty Alleviation, Government of India in October, 2003. This model law acknowledges at the outset that India's 74th Constitutional Amendment Act is a "bold initiative to help make local self-government work, better and the Government of India wants to fully implement the promise of the Amendment".

One of the subjects among the list of functions assigned to the ULBs in the 12th Schedule of the Constitution of India is 'urban poverty alleviation'. It is to be noted that this issue was not new in the 12th Schedule but prior to the Amendment, there were several schemes, programmes and projects pertaining to urban poverty alleviation were in vogue. However, the said amendment by including it buttressed the fact that ULBs should have a major role in the alleviation of urban poverty. However, the plain truth is that the first model law prepared by the Government of India failed utterly to give space to this very important aspect of urban governance.

Chapter 6 of the model law lays down certain 'core municipal functions' (Section 47), such as, water supply, drainage, sewerage, solid waste management, etc. The law identifies 'other functions' in Section 49. This Section starts with a caveat as follows :

"A municipality may, having regard with the satisfactory performance of its core functions which shall constitute the first charge on the municipal fund, and subject to its managerial, technical and financial capabilities, undertake or perform or promote the performance of any fo the following functions:" (Sivaramkrishnan 2004 : 1)

The list of 'other functions' enumerated in Section 49 has been divided into six broad categories, namely, town planning, protection of environment, public health and sanitation, education and culture, public welfare and community relations. It is interesting to note that 'poverty alleviation' is not even mentioned as an item in any of these descriptions (Sivaramkrishnan 2004 : 2). One finds mention of only 'provision of shelter to the homeless and relief works for destitute persons'. Again, though the words economic development and social justice are repeated in Section 47 but they have not been amplified. It is pertinent to note that the model law failed to lay down what poverty alleviation measures could be and how the municipal law should provide for a local government to implement these measures.

On the whole and in a nutshell, the model municipal law makes one believe that the Municipalities would continue to perform mainly conventional functions like water supply, sanitation and garbage disposal and the presumption is that urban poverty alleviation schemes will be the responsibility of the non-municipal agencies and at best, the Municipalities, would only have, if at all, an agency role (Sivaramkrishnan 2004 : 2). All these tend to make the ULBs a 'lesser government' and its mandate is what is dictated by the State Government.

As far as urban poverty alleviation is concerned, these have been treated as a largesse from the Central or/and State Governments, rather than the basic responsibility of the ULBs, despite elaborate constitutional amendment and its proclamation as a breakthrough in democratic decentralization. No doubt then, the relegation of local government to a secondary position is an essential key to understanding urban governance in the country and how relevant is it to the poor sections residing in a city.

2.4.4.3 Slums and their improvement prior to Independence

Prior to independence, the issue of urban poor was primarily looked in terms of workers migrating to cities in search of employment in the industries. As the industries were privately-owned, so the housing of the workers was also left to be organized by the entrepreneurs. As such, 'bastis' of Calcutta, 'chawls' of Bombay, 'ahatas' of Kanpur cropped up. The conditions in these housing clusters were poor. But with gradual increase in density and neglect in maintenance, these settlements turned up into 'slums' rapidly. Neither the imperial nor the provincial governments were much concerned about the conditions of workers. It was, thus, left to the municipalities to look after the public health implications of these workers. As such, Corporation Acts of Calcutta and Bombay included provision for regulating sanitary conditions in the 'bastis' and 'chawls' respectively and also requiring the owners to conform to certain standards. Whether this actually happened or not is a different story but, at least, the Municipal Governments had the responsibility to deal with the slums. (Sivaramkrishnan, 2004 : 4-5)

2.4.4.4 Slum Improvement and UPE Programmes since Independence

With regard to slums in the country, the first political reaction of the first Prime Minister, J.L.Nehru was as such, "They are a blot on the society's conscience" He once remarked, "It is bad enough to inherit slums but to allow them to grow is the society's fault, the government's fault" (Sivaramkrishnan 2004 : 5). Thus, slum improvement and UPE programmes commenced with active involvement of the Central and State Governments with respect to designing, implementing and monitoring of the programmes, thereby gradually relegating the ULBs to the 'lesser government' position with regard to slum improvement and UPE programmes.

Following partition and independence of the country, there was huge influx of refugees in several cities of India. Delhi's population doubled from about 7 lakhs to 1.4 million between 1941 and 1951. The population of other cities like Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Hyderabad crossed one million mark. As a result, innumerable makeshift refugee colonies and shanty settlements cropped up and the conditions of daily life was getting worse with time. However, the limited urban infrastructure got severely strained by this unprecedented flow of refugees.

The first attempt at slum development started in 1956. The name of the programme was 'Slum Improvement and Clearance Programme'. The scheme strived to rehouse slum dwellers in 2-roomed tenements of less than 200 sq. ft. floor area. In pursuance of this programme, several states set up Slum Clearance Board or special wings in the housing departments. The harsh reality was that the responsibility of the implementation of the programme was taken away from the municipalities in various stages. The figures between 1956 and 1971 show that about 89,000 rehousing tenements were constructed in the whole country which accounted for less than half percent of the total slum households in the cities. Most of the local governments were asked to take the responsibility for the upkeep of the slum rehousing and in most cases, they declined. However, such effort at the removal of the slums proved a failure.

Mention may be made here that to tackle the situation of refugees, the Ministry of Health, Government of India, made a request to the Ford Foundation in helping to set up an Urban Community Development (UCD) Programme in the refugee colonies and other parts of Delhi. This was partly inspired by the CDP launched in the rural areas. Delhi Municipal Corporation, through setting up of a separate department of UCD, covered nearly one lakh people in Delhi within a span of 7 years. In the following years, the UCD evolved as the programme for urban basic services and was taken up in several cities.

In 1966, Calcutta Municipal Corporation came out with the 'Basic Development Plan for Calcutta' which provided for 'slum upgrading' as an alternative to 'slum removal' under the 'Slum Improvement and Clearance Programme'. This plan regarded slums as a part of the existing housing stock and thus should be improved and conserved. As such, in 1970, a massive slum improvement programme commenced in Calcutta and this approach was adopted by city planners and officials elsewhere, too.

Countless initiatives have been taken up by the Central Government with regard to slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation. K.C.Sivaramkrishnan (2004) has laid down the figure at 57. One can add to these figures, the major schemes of JNNURM (2005) and Rajiv Awas Yojana (2010). As such, any attempt to chart out the various programmes of slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation is indeed a tortuous task. The interesting fact in these regards is that there has been renaming, redesigning and repackaging of programmes in most cases rather than changes in the contents of the programmes. The following table seeks to find out the main trajectory of slum improvement and UPE programmes:

Table 2.16 : Slum Improvement and UPE Programmes Since Independence

Sl. No. (1)	Name of the Programme (2)	Year of Commencement (3)	Subsumed In/ Converged With (4)
1	Slum Improvement and Clearance Programme	1956	Discontinued
2	Urban Community Development (UCD)	1958	Urban Basic Services(UBS), 1986
3	Mid Day Meal	1962	Minimum Needs Programme (MNP), 1980
4	Public Distribution System (PDS)	1965	Continuing
5	Basic Development Plan for Calcutta	1966	Discontinued
6	Special Nutrition Programme	1970	Integrated Child Development Services(ICDS), 1975 and Urban Basic Services of the Poor(UBSP), 1990
7	Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums(EIUS)	1972	Minimum Needs Programme (MNP), 1980; Urban Basic Services of the Poor(UBSP), 1990; and Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIUPEP),1995
8	Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS)	1975	Urban Basic Services for the Poor(UBSP),1990
9	Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT)	1979	Urban Basic Services(UBS), 1986
10	Minimum Needs Programme (MNP)	1980	
11	Integrated Low Cost Sanitation (ILCS) for the Liberation of Scavengers Programme (LSP)	1981	Urban Basic Services(UBS), 1986
12	Urban Basic Services(UBS)	1986	Urban Basic Services for the Poor(UBSP), 1990
13	Nehru Rojgar Yojana (NRY)	1989	Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP),1990; and Schemes for micro-enterprises and wage employment with Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rojgar

			Yojana (SJSRY), 1997
14	Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP)	1990	Implementation Structure with Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rojgar Yojana (SJSRY),1997
15	Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIUPEP)	1995	Employment Scheme and UPE Cell of PMIUPEP with Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rojgar Yojana (SJSRY), 1997
16	National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), implemented both in rural and urban areas	1995	Modified 7 times since inception and presently has five components instead of three at the time of inception.
17	Continuing Education Programme (CEP) along with TLC and PLC under National Literacy Campaign (NLM)	1995	Continuing
18	Mid May Meal (MDM)	1995	Continuing
19	National Slum Development Programme (NSDP)	1996	Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), 2005; and Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP), 2005 for mission cities under JNNURM
20	Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rojgar Yojana (SJSRY)	1997	Continuing
21	Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY)	2001	IHSDP,2005; and BSUP, 2005
22	Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY)	2001	Initially NMBS (launched in 1995) as a component of NSAP. Since 2001, a part of National Rural Health Mission (NRHM). Continuing
23	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)	2001	Continuing
24	Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP) – a sub-mission under JNNURM for the Mission Cities	2005	Continuing
25	Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP) – a parallel strategy similar to BSUP for cities not covered by JNNURM	2005	Continuing
26	Backward Region Grant Fund (BRGF)	2006	Continuing
27	Interest Subsidy Scheme for Housing the Urban Poor (ISHUP)	2008	Continuing
28	Affordable Housing in Partnership (AHIP)	2009	Continuing
29	Rajiv Awas Yojana	2010	Continuing

Sources : Ramanathan Foundation, Bangalore

K.V.Sivaramkrishnan (2004)

Official Website of the MHUPA

Eleventh Five Year Plan, Planning Commission

Besides the various schemes implemented for the purpose of slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation, the government has come out with a number of policy documents though with limited impact. To name a few are the National Health Policy (1982); the National Housing and Habitat Policy (1988); the National Housing Policy (1988 and 1994); the National Policy of Manual Scavenging (1993); the National Urban Sanitation Policy (2008); and Revised National Policy on Urban Street Vendors (2009, initially framed in 2004). The Ministry is also credited with bringing out two Model Bills, namely, (i) The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2009; and (ii) Draft Model Real Estate (Regulation of Development) Act, 200__.

2.4.4.5 The Existing Programmes of Slum Improvement and Urban Poverty Alleviation

The major programmes of the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation which are in operation at present for the purpose of slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation are :

(A) Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) – Under the new Guidelines which started during the financial year 2009-2010, SJSRY Scheme has five major components, namely, (i) Urban self Employment Programme (USEP); (ii) Urban Women Self-help Programme (UWSP); (iii) Skill Training for Employment Promotion amongst Urban Poor (STEP-UP); (iv) Urban Wage Employment Programme (UWEP); and (v) Urban Community Development Network (UCDN).

(B) Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) : Dr. Manmohan Singh while launching of the Mission had said, “A major failure of city governance has been our inability to address the needs of the poor..... Cities need people to provide services and our people need a decent place to live”. JNNURM, a flagship programme of the Government of India, was launched on 3rd December, 2005 to address the deficiencies in infrastructure and basic service delivery to the poor in cities/towns in a holistic manner. The duration of the Mission is seven years beginning from 2005 to 2012. The Mission has two sub-component as far as slum improvement is concerned – the Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP) for the 65 Mission Cities and the Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP) for other

cities. The targeted beneficiaries under BSUP and IHSDP are slum dwellers, urban poor, EWS and LIG categories.

The pre-requisites for the States/UTs for accessing funds under JNNURM are (i) preparation of City Development Plans (CDPs) for the Mission Cities under BSUP which represent planned urban perspective for a period of 20-25 years with 5 yearly updates and indicating the policies, programmes and strategies of meeting fund requirements; (ii) preparation of Detailed Project Reports (DPRs) under BSUP/IHSDP; (iii) signing of tripartite Memorandum of Agreement (MoA) between the ULBs/Parastatal agencies, the State Government and the GOI committing to implement reform programme (23 such reforms at State/ULB level have been stipulated under JNNURM); and (iv) putting in place elected local bodies.

The admissible components under BSUP are (i) integrated development of slums, i.e., housing and development of infrastructure projects in the slums in the identified cities; (ii) projects involving development / improvement/ maintenance of basic services to the urban poor; (iii) slum improvement and rehabilitation projects; (iv) projects on water supply /sewerage / drainage / community toilets/baths, etc.; (v) houses at affordable costs for slum dwellers/urban poor/EWS/LIG categories; (vi) environmental improvement of slums and solid waste management; (vii) street lighting; (viii) civic amenities like community halls, child care centers, etc.; (ix) operation and maintenance of assets created under this component; (x) convergence of health, education and social security schemes for the urban poor.

The admissible components under IHSDP are (i) shelter including up gradation and construction of new houses; (ii) physical amenities like water supply, storm water drains, community bath, widening and paving of existing lanes, sewers, community latrines, street lights, etc.; (iii) community infrastructure like community centers to be used for pre-school education, non-formal education, recreational activities, etc.; (iv) provision of Primary Health Care Centre Buildings; (v) social amenities like pre-school education, non-formal education, adult education, maternity, child health, primary health care, immunization, etc.; (vi) model slum demonstration projects; (vii) sites and services at affordable costs for EWS/LIG categories; (viii) slum improvement and rehabilitation projects. In a nutshell, the components under BSUP/IHSDP can be categorized into three categories – housing, physical infrastructure and social infrastructure. The State Government is to ensure a separate provision for upkeep and maintenance of the public assets created under the Scheme. One of

the stipulated reform under JNNURM is levying of user charges on public assets created. The experience of JNNURM shows that BSUP/IHSDP entails a 2:1 ration between housing and locality infrastructure.

Beneficiaries under the Programmes are not provided houses free of cost. A Beneficiary Contribution is charged in order to inculcate in them a sense of ownership. This contribution is 10 % of house cost for the people belonging to SC/ST/OBC/PH and other weaker sections. For others, this amount is 12 % of the house cost. Individuals are required to approach concerned ULBs/Parastatal agencies or implementing agencies for getting benefit under the Schemes. The Ceiling Cost of a dwelling unit provided under IHSDP has been revised from Rs. 80,000/- to Rs. 100,000/- w.e.f. 01.04.2008. Besides, 12.5 % additional cost is permitted for special category States and difficult and far-flung areas. Under the Scheme, the minimum dwelling area should not be less than 25 sq. meters and preferably with two room accommodation plus kitchen and toilet.

(C)Interest Subsidy Scheme for Housing the Urban Poor (ISHUP) -

IHSUP was launched in 2008-09 with the aim of providing a subsidy of 5 per cent per annum on interest on home loans up to Rs. One Lakh for fifteen years period taken by the urban poor. The basic purpose of the scheme is to make housing affordable and within the repaying capacity of EWS/LIG. This subsidy is admissible over the full period of the loan. Under the Scheme, the net present value of the current rate is calculated, capitalized and given to the bank. Eligible borrowers get the facility of choosing either fixed or floating rates. If fixed rate loans are extended after a minimum period of 5 years, the Housing Finance Companies (HFCs)/Banks are permitted to charge an additional 1 % per annum.

Seventeen commercial banks and six housing finance companies have signed MoU with MoHUPA in this regard. Two Central Nodal Agencies, viz., National Housing Bank (NHB) and Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) Limited are the financial intermediaries for release of subsidy to Banks/HFCs who act as Primary Lending Institutions (PLIs) under the scheme. The target is to construct 2.13 lakh dwelling units for EWS housing and 0.97 lakh dwelling units for LIG housing during 2008-2012 with the total interest subsidy requirement projected at Rs. 1100/- crores.

(D)Affordable Housing in Partnership (AHIP) – The Government has launched this Scheme in 2009 to encourage land assembly and creation of affordable housing stock for construction of one million houses for EWS/LIG/MIG segments of which at least 25% must be earmarked for the Economically

Weaker Sections category. The Scheme aims to encourage partnership between various agencies for this purpose, such as, Central and State Governments, Parastatal like Housing Boards and Development Authorities, Urban Local Bodies, Developers. The Scheme provides subsidy towards infrastructure on average at the rate of Rs. 50,000/- for affordable housing units (per dwelling with carpet area of less than 80 sq.ft.).

(E)Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Scheme (ILCS) – The ILCS Scheme, launched in 1981, basically aims at conversion of dry latrines into pour flush latrines. The Guidelines of the Scheme were completely revised by the MoHUPA in January, 2008. Under the new Guidelines, the Ministry provides a subsidy of 75% of the cost of a complete two-pit pour flush unit with superstructure. However, in case of those States falling under the difficult/hilly areas category, an extra cost of 25% per unit is provided. The purpose of the revised guidelines was to convert 6 lakhs dry latrines by March, 2010. As of now, only four States, namely, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Nagaland, have reportedly dry latrines. As for other States, there are no dry latrines existing in the urban areas. The Scheme is limited to Economically Weaker Section households.

(F)Projects/Schemes for the Development of North Eastern States, including Sikkim – This initiative was launched by the Government of India in the financial year 2001-2002. Under the Scheme, 10% of the total budget provision for the Ministries/Departments is spent for the development of eight States of North Eastern Region including Sikkim. Funds under this provision is non-lapsable and the unspent balances under this provision in a financial year are pooled up in the non-lapsable central fund meant for these States and are governed by the Department of North Eastern Region (DoNER). The total funds released up to 31.03.2009 has been Rs. 429.88 Crore as against total Project Cost of Rs. 492.88 Crore for the 64 Projects sanctioned under the scheme. As far as MoHUPA is concerned, it monitors the Centrally-sponsored Programmes/Schemes in the areas of housing projects, poverty alleviation projects and slum improvement/upgradation projects.

(G)Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY) – This Scheme is the latest addition in the long list of slum improvement programmes. It was launched on 4th June, 2009 with the vision of a ‘Slum Free India’ that aims at encouraging States and Union Territories to beyond JNNURM and tackle the problem of slums in a

holistic manner. The Scheme seeks to address in this regard – (i) bringing of existing slums within the formal system and enabling them to avail of the same level of basic amenities as the rest of the town; (ii) redressing the failures of the formal system that lies behind the creation of the slums; and (iii) tackling the shortages of urban land and housing that keep shelter out of the reach of the urban poor and force them to resort to extra-legal solutions in a bid to retain their sources of livelihood and employment.

RAY is similar to JNNURM in the sense that it is also driven by the provision of Central support for slum redevelopment conditional to a set of reforms necessary for urban development to become inclusive. However, RAY departs from JNNURM in the sense that the former seeks to extend support to those States that are willing to assign property rights to people living in slum areas. The Scheme seeks to adopt a whole-city approach in two phases in each State – preparatory phase and operational phase. The former involves the preparation of Slum-free City and Slum-free State Plans. In this respect, the Ministry would be providing assistance to the State Governments/ULBs for slum survey, GIS mapping of slums, capacity building, etc.

Apart from the MoHUPA, GOI, the Ministry of Rural Development monitors NSAP, a centrally sponsored programme to provide public assistance to its citizens in case of unemployment, old age, sickness, disablement and in other cases of undeserved want within its economic means. This programme caters to the people living below poverty line in rural as well as in urban areas. This programme, presently, has five components, namely, IGNOAPS, NFBS, Annapurna, IGWPS and IGNDPS.

Besides, the Department of Family Welfare monitors the Janani Suraksha Yojana to ensure better linkage with nutrition and national population control programmes.

Moreover, there are other flagship programmes of the Central Government to meet the needs of the urban poor, such as, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan/Mission (SSA/SSM), Mid-Day Meal (MDM), Continuing Education Programme (CEP); and Backward Region Grant Fund (BRGF).

2.4.4.6 Support Systems to the Urban Poverty Alleviation Programmes

The Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, Government of India, is ably supported by institutions and other programmes in order to

implement the various urban poverty alleviation programmes in a smooth and effective manner. Their contributions are immense for the success of the programmes. These are :

(I) UNDP Assistance for National Strategy for Urban Poor (NSUP)

The Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation undertook the implementation of National Strategy for Urban Poor (NSUP) with assistance from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in November, 2003. It specifically targets the poorest and most marginalized within the urban population. The basic objective of NSUP is to promote sustainable socio-economic growth and development in select urban locations through a community-owned and managed participatory process by enhancing the understanding of urban poverty and urban livelihood issues, by supporting efforts to improve the provision of basic urban services and livelihood opportunities, and by strengthening local capacities to manage a much more broad-based process and effort of urban development. The project supports the Centre and the State Governments in adoption of a new national strategy for urban poverty reduction as well as institutional reform based on informed debates, local/international experience and research findings on the causes and potential responses to urban poverty. The management and administration of NSUP is done through Programme Management Board (PMB) as per the National Execution (NEX) guidelines of the Government of India governing UNDP assisted projects.

Among the various activities of NSUP include preparation of India Urban Poverty Report, research papers on urban poverty related issues, documentation of best practices on urban poverty, establishment of National Resource Centre on Urban Poverty (NSCUP), preparation of urban poverty reduction strategies, formulation of entrepreneurship development strategy on micro enterprises, establishment of Urban Poverty and Livelihood Cells in the ULBs, support to National Core Group on Urban Poverty (NCGUP), establishment of Researchers' Colloquium and Mayors' and City Managers' Forums, establishment of E-Library, support to NGOs/CBOs to promote urban poor concerns, etc.

(II) Urban Statistics for HR and Assessment Scheme (USHA)

This Central Sector Scheme was approved the Secretary (HUPA) on 22nd August, 2007 and is being implemented by National Building Organisation (NBO). It aims at the development and maintenance of a national database, MIS

and knowledge repository on urban poverty, slums, housing, construction and other urbanization related activities. USHA supports database development, survey, MIS including hardware, software and networking, capacity building, impact assessment and active research involving collaboration with reputed research and training institutes. It acts as a major support system for JNNURM. Under USHA, a National Resource Centre for Urban Poverty and Slums has been established at NBO. Besides, there has been uplinking of Directorates of Economics and Statistics/ Municipal Administration and Urban Development Departments in State Governments with NBO for direct data flow from States to NBO. In order to disseminate information on building construction, housing, urban poverty and slums, NBO has implemented a state-of-the-art fully computerized system called MIS 'BRIKS' under the Scheme. Under this Scheme, NBO has released funds to cities/towns covered under JNNURM (BSUP & IHSDP) for the purpose of slum/livelihood/household surveys.

(III) Housing Start-Up Index (HSUI)

The construction of new houses (or housing starts) is regarded as a lead economic indicator. In this respect, HSUI is a tool being developed by the Ministry of HUPA in collaboration with the Reserve Bank of India for tracking the changes in the construction activities in the housing sector. HSUI seeks to identify the growth or reversionary tendencies in the housing sector on a city-wide/national basis. The activities relating to computation of HSUI is being done by the NBO on behalf of the Ministry.

2.4.4.7 Problems of Governance in Slums and Poverty Alleviation

One of the major problems with respect to slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation is the data gaps in various reports on slum statistics across the country. While the RGI lays the slum population at 52.4 million (covering 1743 cities/towns with population more than 20,000), the TCPO (for the year 2001) and the UN Population Report (by mid-year 2001) estimated India's urban slum population at 61.8 million and 158.42 million respectively. The main reason for such discrepancies is the use of different definitions of slums for the purpose of collecting slum statistics in the country. These slum estimates, thus, do not reflect the real picture on slum population. One of the reasons for gross under estimation of slum population in the Census of India, 2001, is the RGI's definition of Enumeration Block (EB). It considers only

those areas as slums which has at least 300 population or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements. However, in many States/smaller towns, slums may exist with 20-25 households. Moreover, the Census of India, 2001, report on slums has left out smaller states like Himachal Pradesh, Sikkim, Nagaland, Manipur, Mizoram, etc. Besides, RGI did not consider non-notified/non-recognized slums where there were land disputes. Again, some States/districts/towns did not report all enumeration blocks that needed enumeration.

If one analyses the vast number of initiatives launched by the various Ministries of the Government of India, in general, and MoHUPA, in particular, for the upliftment of the urban poor, one may come to the conclusion that except with regard to few such programmes, the ULBs were involved marginally in the design and implementation of these initiatives which majorly included housing, welfare and social assistance, credit and employment, child care, nutritional schemes, mid day meals, public distribution of food grains, etc.

One can easily assume with the pace of designing and redesigning of the urban poverty alleviation programmes that there has been lack of serious effort to access ground needs and conditions needed for the success of the schemes. K.C. Sivaramkrishna (2004) mentions the instance of Nehru Rojgar Yojana (NRY) launched in 1989 as a self-employment scheme for the urban poor on the pattern of Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY) implemented in rural areas. This scheme was announced when the Nagarpalika Amendment Bill was debated in the Parliament. However, such announcement did not help in the passage of the bill. Moreover, the Scheme faced difficulties in implementation as it was hastily announced without considering much on the operational aspects minutely. The need, therefore, is for careful and participative design for bringing about the real impact of the UPE Schemes. Otherwise, the exercise would have the possibility of ending up in futility.

No doubt, urban poverty is a nationwide matter of concern. However, solutions to urban poverty need to be devised within the context of a given locality as these settlements cannot be kept apart from the surrounding area.

It has already been laid down that BMTPC is engaged in development and promotion of non-conventional building technology and materials. However, there are major constraints in the large scale promotion of such non-conventional technology and materials of building construction. One of the most identifiable constraint is the increasing tendency of the domestic entrepreneurs to bring in building technologies from abroad consequent to

economic liberalization policies. This has further marginalized the competitive edge of home-grown technologies in which BMTPC is engaged.

TABLES HIGHLIGHTING PROGRESS OF SOME OF THE MAJOR PROGRAMMES OF POVERTY ALLEVIATION

Table 2.17 : Central Funds Released to the States, UTs (Year-Wise) under SJSRY

Year (1)	Amount (Rs. in Crore) (2)
1997-1998	98.63
1998-1999	158.47
1999-2000	118.77
2000-2001	85.13
2001-2002	38.31
2002-2003	100.91
2003-2004	100.74
2004-2005	122.01
2005-2006	155.88
2006-2007	248.68
2007-2008	336.92
2008-2009	540.67
2009-2010 (under the revised SJSRY)	515.00

Source : MoHUPA, GoI

Table 2.18 : Physical Cumulative Progress under SJSRY upto 31st March, 2009

Sl.No. (1)	Components (2)		Numbers (3)
1	USEP	people assisted to set up individual micro-enterprises	946537
		women assisted to set up micro enterprises (DWCUA Group enterprises)	327355
		people given skill development training	1482399
		DWCUA Groups formed	80631
		T&CSs formed	309851
2	UWEP - Number of man-days of work generated		69157000
3	Assistance for CS - Number of beneficiaries covered		36203000

USEP-Urban Self Employment Programme; UWEP-Urban Wage Employment Programme; CS - Community Structure

Source : MoHUPA, GoI

Table 2.19 : JNNURM : Cumulative Physical Progress (as on February, 2010)

Description (1)	BSUP (2)	IHSDP (3)	Total (4)	UI&G (5)	UIDSSMT (6)	Total (7)
No. of Projects Approved	468	862	1,330	523	753	1,276
No. of States/UTs Covered	31	31	-	31	35	-
No. of Cities/Towns Covered	63	761	824	65	636	701
No. of Dwelling Units Approved	10,09,791	4,69,757	14,79,548	-	-	-

Source : Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, GOI

Table 2.20 : JNNURM : Cumulative Financial Progress (as on February, 2010)

Rs. in Crores

Description (1)	BSUP (2)	IHSDP (3)	Total (4)	UI&G (5)	UIDSSMT (6)	Total (7)
Mission (2005-12) Allocation	16,356.35	6,828.31	23,184.66	31,500.00	11,400.00	42,900.00
Total Project cost Approved	26,297.49	8,662.18	34,959.67	58,147.31	12,824.63	70,971.94
ACA Committed	13,283.84	5,961.80	19,245.64	27,189.05	10,346.46	37,535.51
Total ACA Released	4,671.69	3,194.25	7,865.94	10,570.73	5,862.05	16,432.78

Source : Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, GOI

Table 2.21 : Sharing Pattern between the Centre, States and ULBs under BSUP and IHSDP

Description (1)	BSUP (2)	IHSDP (3)
Cities with Million Plus Population	50 % Centre 50% State /ULB / Beneficiary	-
Special Category States*	90 % Centre 10% State/ ULB / Beneficiary	90 % Centre 10% State / ULB / Beneficiary

Other Cities	80 % Centre	80 % Centre
	20% State/ ULB / Beneficiary	20% State/ ULB / Beneficiary

*North Eastern States including Sikkim, J&K, Himachal Pradesh and Uttarakhand

Source : Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, GOI

Table 2.22 : Project Details and Financial Details under BSUP and IHSDP

Year (1)	Programme (2)	Projects Approved (3)	Total Cost (4)	Nos. of Dwelling Units Sanctioned (5)	Central Share Approved (6)	Central Share Released (7)
2005-06	BSUP	9	698.95	54764	349.33	72.14
	IHSDP	3	9.03	136	7.22	0.00
2006-07	BSUP	151	8796.15	435788	4435.86	901.77
	IHSDP	194	1938.00	144415	1404.56	492.61
2007-08	BSUP	114	7926.02	296559	3975.84	1192.80
	IHSDP	225	2062.87	114649	1459.48	792.24
2008-09	BSUP	188	7860.11	201334	4009.27	651.39
	IHSDP	406	4391.36	19399	2732.68	659.88
Total	BSUP	462	25281.32	988445	12770.30	2818.10
	IHSDP	828	8401.26	372599	5604.94	1944.73

Source : Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, GOI

Table 2.23 : Additional Central Assistance (ACA) under NSAP and Annapurna

Rs. in lakhs

Year (1)	Combined Allocation (2)	Total Released (3)	Expenditure Reported by the States/UTs					Total (9)
			NOAPS* (4)	NFBS (5)	Annap urna (6)	IGNWP S** (7)	IGNDP S *** (8)	
2002-03	68000.00	65709.86	45402.67	7325.21	6613.16	-	-	59341.04
2003-04	67987.00	60226.79	53942.46	6993.45	4667.36	-	-	65597.35
2004-05	118987.00	103201.74	68104.52	13840.54	4892.28	-	-	86837.34
2005-06	119000.00	118971.00	85630.56	13435.20	4323.47	-	-	103389.23
2006-07	280054.25	248961.44	172620.90	19178.81	5027.90	-	-	196827.61
2007-08	289148.20	288973.21	289460.79	17612.00	3995.20	-	-	312307.75
2008-09	450000.00	450000.00	354690.75	32895.85	4684.94	-	-	392271.54
2009-10 [#]	520330.00	429578.65	165101.60	14921.35	1399.75	19834.06	3279.96	204536.72

*Renamed as IGNOAPS since 19.11.2007; **Introduced in 2009-10; ***Introduced in 2009-10; #Figures as on 14.12.2009. **Source** : NSAP Annual Reports 2002-03 to 2009-2010

Table 2.24 : Financial Status under NSAP and Annapurna in West Bengal

Year (1)	Proposed Combined Allocation (2)	Total Release (3)	Expenditure Reported by the State					Total (9)
			NOAPS* (4)	NFBS (5)	Annapurna (6)	IGN WPS** (7)	IGN DPS*** (8)	
2002-03	4155.73	4155.73	2250.26	626.71	279.78	-	-	3156.75
2003-04	4154.94	4154.94	2617.00	737.42	334.22	-	-	3688.64
2004-05	7988.73	7988.73	2934.54	998.17	430.56	-	-	4363.27
2005-06	7993.56	7993.56	4605.06	1335.59	594.80	-	-	6535.45
2006-07	18914.86	15220.45	12200.23	2634.40	589.94	-	-	15424.57
2007-08	17012.92	17012.92	13881.20	4813.66	594.42	-	-	19289.28
2008-09	27842.45	27842.45	NA	NA	NA	-	-	22819.08
2009-10 [#]	39722.40	33124.00	12034.76	1652.54	48.00	-	-	13735.30

*Renamed as IGNOAPS since 19.11.2007.

**Introduced in 2009-10

***Introduced in 2009-10

[#]Figures as on 14.12.2009.

Sources : NSAP Annual Reports 2002-03 to 2009-2010

Table 2.22 : Number of Beneficiaries Reported under NSAP Schemes

Year (1)		NOAPS* (2)	NFBS (3)	Annapurna (4)	IGNWP S** (5)	IGNDP S*** (6)
2002-03	All States & UTs	6697509	85209	774129	-	-
	West Bengal	332876	6243	36327	-	-
2003-04	All States & UTs	6624000	209456	937155	-	-
	West Bengal	309896	7322	43367	-	-
2004-05	All States & UTs	8079386	261981	820583	-	-
	West Bengal	291671	9954	56049	-	-
2005-06	All States & UTs	8002598	276737	851509	-	-
	West Bengal	451579	13296	78256	-	-
2006-07	All States & UTs	8708837	243972	871424	-	-
	West Bengal	467846	15503	77555	-	-
2007-08	All States & UTs	11514026	334153	1050885	-	-
	West Bengal	451845	48132	78182	-	-
2008-09	All States & UTs	15020640	423292	1011240	-	-
	West Bengal	1039041	35261	71647	-	-
2009-10	All States & UTs	15695334	125118	740417	2303739	510354
	West Bengal [#]	1191716	16525	65068	-	-

*Renamed as IGNOAPS since 19.11.2007; **Introduced in 2009-10

***Introduced in 2009-10; [#]Reporting Month : August, 2009.

Sources : NSAP Annual Reports 2002-03 to 2009-2010

2.5 A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF URBANIZATION AND URBAN GOVERNANCE IN WEST BENGAL

2.5.1 A Brief History of Urban Governance

The urban governance in West Bengal dates back to the East India Company's rule when, as mentioned above, the Royal Charter of 1726 constituted the Mayor's Court in the Presidency town of Calcutta. Thereafter, as already laid down, the Act of 1850; Lord Mayo's Resolution, 1870; Lord Ripon's Resolution, 1882; the Royal Commission on Decentralization, 1907; the Government of India Act, 1919; and the Government of India Act, 1935 gradually developed local self government in urban areas in Bengal, as in other parts of the country.

The most significant among the Acts and Rules were made with regard to municipal governance in Bengal in pre-independence times was the Bengal Municipal Act, 1932. This Act formed the basis of municipal governance in West Bengal after independence till the passage of the West Bengal Municipal Act, 1993. However, several amendments were made in the Act of 1932.

It may be noted that with independence, municipal governance in West Bengal came under bureaucratic control. It continued in the sixties and seventies. It was with the recommendations of the 'Urban Development Strategy Committee' in the early eighties that the process of decentralization began in municipal governance (www.wbdma.gov.in). The noteworthy recommendations of this Committee were as follows :

- Reduction of the difference within the development grants and per capita development expenditure earmarked for Kolkata (erstwhile Calcutta) metropolis area and that of outside urban centres;
- Utilization of regional resources at municipal level;
- Giving priority to the improved quality of life of the urban poor and weaker sections of society;
- Decentralization of the developmental projects;
- Make the municipalities capable to provide urban services as well as micro planning for their area.

The recommendations of the Committee was sought to be implemented seriously with the result that whereas in 1976-77, the per capita development grant was Rs. 61.54 within core Kolkata, Rs. 19.88 for the KMA municipal

areas outside KMC and Rs. 0.87 for the urban areas outside KMA area, in 2004-05, it was Rs. 259.25 for all the urban areas (www.wbdma.gov.in).

The 126 ULBs (6 Municipal Corporations, 117 Municipalities and 3 Notified Area Authorities) in the State of West Bengal are governed by the West Bengal Municipal Act, 1993 in case of Municipalities; individual Acts for each of the two Municipal Corporations of Kolkata and Howrah; and the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 for the remaining four Corporations of Siliguri, Asansol, Durgapur and Chandernagore. The criteria for constituting a Municipality are (a) total population of more than 30,000; (b) population density of not less than 750 per square km; (c) engagement in non-agricultural activities of at least 50% of the adult population; and (d) adequate income from the area to meet day to day expenditure of the proposed Municipality.

The West Bengal Town & Country (Planning and Development) Act, 1979 was enacted for the purpose planned development of the urban (and rural) areas. Under the Act, 10 Development Authorities have been constituted with the objective of bringing about integrated development of specific areas through the preparation of development plans and supervision of their implementation. One among them is the Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority (SJDA) covering northern part of North Bengal with an area of 1266.64 Sq. Km. and a population of 1.6 million (2001 Census) and spread over the jurisdiction of six police stations of Siliguri, Matigara and Naxalbari (in Darjeeling District) and Jalpaiguri, Bhaktinagar and Rajganj (in Jalpaiguri District) and five Community Development (CD) Blocks, namely, Jalpaiguri and Rajganj in Jalpaiguri District and Matigara, Naxalbari and part of Phansidewa in Darjeeling District. The area under the present study is by far the most important component of the SJDA and as such, the latter assumes great significance for the present study.

No doubt, the 126 ULBs and the 9 Development Authorities are the fulcrums who steer the infrastructural development and provision of civic services to the urban dwellers of West Bengal. However, there are a host of other Departments of the State Government who work as the support system in fulfilling the endeavour of the ULBs and Development Authorities. Relevant to the present study, these are the Department of Development and Planning, Department of Environment, Department of Forests, Public Works Department, Transport Department, Public Health Engineering Department, and above all, the Department of Municipal Affairs and Department of Urban Development.

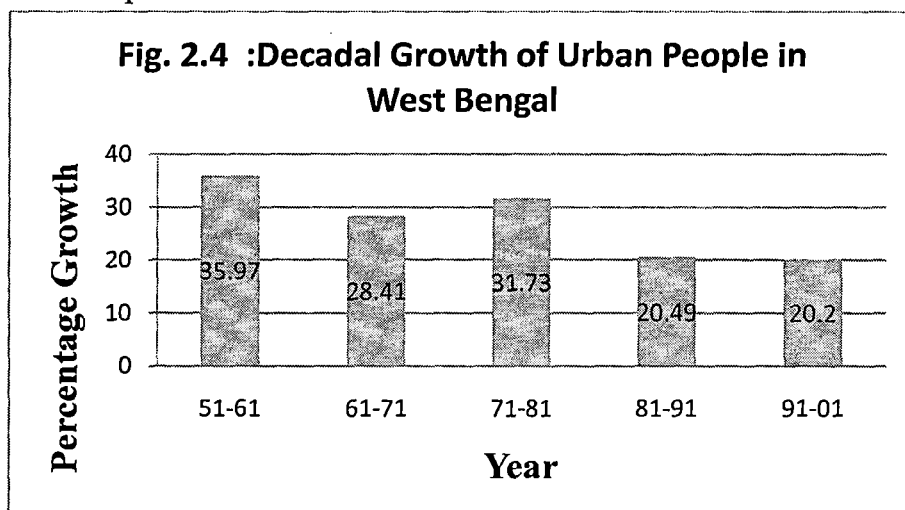
There has been a realization on the part of the concerned Departments to go for Public Private Partnership (PPP) to meet the challenges for further

development initiatives of urban areas in order to cater to the raised expectations of the common people. In this regard, the State Government has also framed a policy and provisions have been made for private sector participation in the form of Build-Transfer (BT) Agreement Basis; Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT) Agreement Basis; and Build-Own-Operate-Transfer (BOOT) Agreement Basis. However, for the present; most of the schemes for joint ventures and private sector participation are primarily centred round Kolkata Metropolitan Development Authority (KMDA) which urgently needs to be spread over other ULBs and Development Authorities for an equitable development of urban infrastructure and civic amenities throughout the State.

Another salient feature of urban governance in West Bengal is giving priority to GIS based assembly of data and information of each ULB. Such documentation would save the time, energy and cost in setting up required infrastructure.

2.5.2 Salient Features of Urbanization in West Bengal

The trend of urbanization process in West Bengal is faster than the national average. The index of urbanization in the State was 28.03% in 2001 which is higher than the national average of 27.60% in the same year. In absolute terms, the total urban population in 2001 was 22.5 million. At present, there are 126 Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) in the State which includes 6 Municipal Corporations, 117 Municipalities and 3 Notified Area Authorities. It has been estimated that about two-third of the SDP of the State comes from cities and towns. The decadal growth rate of West Bengal in the post independence period is as follows :



Source : www.wburbandev.gov.in

The official website of the Department of Urban Development, Government of West Bengal cites the reason of agrarian prosperity and the resultant declining trend of migration from rural to urban areas for the decline in the percentage of growth rate of urbanization in the last decade. Besides, it has been noticed that the urban population of Class 'A' towns of the State has also declined from 81.7% in 1991 to 75 % in 2001. The same website attributes this to the dispersal of urban growth due to the emergence of new towns and the outgrowths of the existing towns. It is worth mentioning that the population of KMA has revealed a declining trend, i.e., from 69% of the total urban population of the State in 1981 to 64% in 1991 and 59% in 2001.

Another feature of urbanization in West Bengal is that the average density of the urban population is the highest in the country with 6798 persons residing per square kilometer. 28.03% of the total population of the State who resides in the urban areas acquire only 2.93% of the land of the State.

Urban Governance in West Bengal

2.5.3 West Bengal's Urban Development Policy

The prime objective of the Policy is to provide reasonable livelihoods and acceptable levels of liveability to its urban populace within an environmentally sustainable framework. The focus is to make available equitable opportunities to the urban poor and other socially disadvantaged sections, including women and children who are the major stakeholders in the developmental process. As such, the policies of urban development as laid down by the Town and Country Planning Department, Government of West Bengal are (Perspective Plan 2004 : 2) :

- (i) Constitution of institutional framework for Metropolitan Planning with participation by elected People's Representatives;
- (ii) Preparation of Master Plans for development as well as traffic and transportation with a long-term perspective;
- (iii) Development of small and medium towns to arrest the growth of population in Kolkata;
- (iv) Creation of Intercity Transportation Links with the same objective arresting the growth of population in Kolkata and promoting regional growth centres;
- (v) Development of water supply infrastructure and creation of source;

- (vi) Improvement of standard of living in 'bustees' to create a healthy environment;
- (vii) Introduction of a broad-based structure for allotment of land for individual and institutional purpose;
- (viii) Joint Venture with private sector towards infrastructure projects to attract private capital in developmental activities particularly infrastructural development;
- (ix) Collaboration with foreign governments in infrastructure projects;
- (x) Imposition and realization of user charges for civic amenities;
- (xi) Construction of infrastructure projects on BOT basis; and
- (xii) Development of growth centres throughout the State for decentralized development.

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CHAPTER THREE

SILIGURI MUNICIPAL CORPORATION AREA: A HISTORICAL PROFILE

3.1 A General Geography

The city of Siliguri, situated at 396 feet above sea-level and on the banks of Mahananda river (length of 91.7 Kms. and earlier name was Mahanadi – a Bengali corruption of Mahaldi, the Lepcha name of the river), is a witness as to the importance of ‘geographical location’ in the growth and development of a place. Siliguri is situated at the base of the Himalaya Mountains in the plains. It is the largest city in the area of North Bengal and the third largest city in West Bengal, after Kolkata and Asansol. Presently, 33 Wards of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation falls within the district of Darjeeling and the remaining 14 Wards within Jalpaiguri district. It connects the hill station towns of Darjeeling, Gangtok, Kalimpong, Kurseong and Mirik with the rest of India. Siliguri has three main seasons, summer, winter and monsoons. Summer temperatures rarely exceed 38°C. It is considerably cooler than the southern and central regions of West Bengal. During this season, tourists from all over India stop in Siliguri en route to the cooler climes of the northern hill stations. Winters are relatively cool and temperatures range from a high of 15°C to a low of about 3°C. Light rain and dense fog are seen during this season. During the monsoon season between June and September, the town is lashed by heavy rains often cutting access to the hill stations and Sikkim. The climate is suitable for growing tea and the surrounding region has many tea gardens.

3.2 Few Pages from the History of Siliguri

There has been no archaeological excavation in the district of Darjeeling. As such, the surface finds do not clearly add to the knowledge of pre-history of the place (Walsh 1904 : 20-21). The present district of Darjeeling is a creation of 19th century and a result of the almost accidental involvement of the British Indian Government in the affairs of the neighbouring Himalayan States. The origin of the history of Darjeeling can be traced to the Treaty of Titaliya of 1817 which enjoined

upon the Raja of Sikkim to refer to the arbitration of the British Government all disputes between his subjects and those of the neighbouring states. It was the disputes on the Sikkim-Nepal frontiers eleven years later in 1828 that one of the two officers, Captain Lloyd, deputed to deal with the situation, spent six days in Darjeeling, a large village at that time and got attracted by its advantages as a site for a sanatorium. Persuasion began and finally after the approval of the Court of Directors, General Lloyd succeeded in obtaining the execution of a deed of grant by the Raja of Sikkim on 1st February, 1835. By 1840, a road was made from Pankhabari. Slowly and gradually, markets, hotels, private residences came up and above all buildings for accommodation of the sick were built around 1849. The area of Darjeeling further expanded with the annexation of the 'Terai' (foothills of the Himalayas) and a portion of the Sikkim Hills in 1850 owing to the internal rebellion in Sikkim. Finally, what is now Kalimpong subdivision was ceded to the British by a treaty in November, 1865 (Banerjee et al 1980 : 93-94).

The district was administered by the Deputy Commissioner and was divided into two subdivisions – the Headquarters Subdivision (960 sq. miles) comprising the hill areas and the Terai Subdivision (274 sq. miles) comprising the whole of the country at the foot of the hills. Hanskhawa near Phansidewa was the headquarters of the Terai Subdivision between 1864 and 1880. In 1880, the headquarters was shifted to Siliguri which at that time, a part of Jalpaiguri district, was transferred to Darjeeling district with a small surrounding area. With this, the Darjeeling district reached its present shape (Banerjee et al 1980 : 94).

The administrative history of Siliguri, thus, can be traced to 1880 when it was made the headquarters of the Terai Subdivision. It is to mention here that between 1891 and 1907, the Terai Subdivision was absorbed into the Kurseong Subdivision, with Kurseong being the headquarters. Thus, upto 1907, there had been a Deputy Magistrate at Siliguri working under the Subdivisional Officer, Kurseong. Besides, he was also responsible to manage the Terai Government Estate under the Deputy Commissioner of Darjeeling. Finally, in 1907, the subdivisional headquarters of the plain area was shifted again to Siliguri, thus re-establishing the Terai Subdivision which had been absorbed into the Kurseong Subdivision (Dash 1947 : 42-43).

From time immemorial this place was situated on the communication map between eastern and western India. Besides, it bore importance as a route to

Sikkim and China via Bhutan and Tibet. Notwithstanding, one does not find any mention of the place in any of the ancient literature.

The etymological meaning of the term 'Siliguri' are varied. However, two of them are worth mentioning. One is 'sili' or 'rock' plus 'guri' or 'place', i.e., a rocky place. Another is 'sili' signifying heavy rainfall and 'guri' referring to place, i.e., place of heavy rainfall. The original village of Siliguri was to the south of where we have the Saktigarh Colony today. The area was under Jalpaiguri District and Rajganj police station. It was a small village at that time.

The growth and importance of Siliguri started when the North Bengal State Railway (operating under the Eastern Bengal State Railway Company) was extended to Siliguri with meter guage in 1878 with the purpose of promoting the interests of European tea planters. Very soon, a narrow guage was completed between Siliguri and Darjeeling by the Darjeeling Himalayan Railway. Besides, the Cart Road to Darjeeling was steadily improved. Thus, Siliguri became the transshipment point from the meter guage railway to the narrow guage railway and the Cart Road. Later on, the opening of the roads and railways in the Terai as well as road connection with the Western Duars and Assam via the Coronation Bridge over the Tista, gradually and rapidly increased the business importance of Siliguri.

Siliguri's position as a focus of communication and the resultant growth of its business activities helped secure its administrative importance. From a small village with a population of 784 in 1901, it rapidly rose to the status of the Subdivisional Headquarters in 1907; the Union Board in 1938; the Municipal Council in 1949; and finally to that of the Municipal Corporation in 1994. With the establishment of the Subdivisional Headquarters, various inspection bungalows were erected as well as few rice milling and timber sawing industries were established. A sub post office came up in the year 1907. Later on, it was upgraded to the Head Post Office in 1968. The Siliguri Hospital was established sometime in the last decade of the 19th century. However, with the growth, Siliguri witnessed the usual urban problems. As Dash (1947 : 264) writes, "Its growth has been rapid, haphazard and without proper direction. The result is an unhealthy urban area with deplorable drainage and inadequate water-supply. Adequate remedies for these defects have not yet been devised." At another place, he maintains that in spite of the fact that Siliguri urban area was expanding as an important communication and distributing centre, the sanitation and drainage system of the town was not adequate and at par with its rapid expansion. The defective sanitation and drainage

system was most evident in and around Siliguri Bazar area. Dash (1947 : 245) mentions in this regard, "The Siliguri Bazar was originally managed by an Officer of the Northern Bengal State Railway for the Benefit of the Railway employees. But in 1887 it was transferred to the District authorities in the expectation that the defective sanitation and drainage would be remedied and some control exercised over its expansion. It then came under the management of the Darjeeling Improvement Fund.....Drainage and water-supply problems have not yet been solved and need much more resolute treatment than so far they have received."

Regarding mode of communication in the past, in and around Siliguri, Hooker (1854 : 282) describes during the second half of the 19th century in this way, "A more uncomfortable mode of conveyance was surely never adopted; the camels pace is more fatiguing, but that of the elephant is extremely trying after a few miles, and is so injurious to the human frame that the Mahouts (drivers) never reach an advanced age, and often succumb young to spine disease, brought on by the incessant motion of the vertebral column." From this, one may very well discern that the whole region, including Siliguri, was densely forested. During O'Malley's time (1907 : 136), the modes of conveyance had improved a bit. He wrote, "Strong bullock carts equal to very rough work ply along the few roads where the gradient is not too severe for wheeled traffic....." It was only after the First World War that a passenger automobile service was introduced between Siliguri and Darjeeling. Road administration in the past was the responsibility of both the Public Works Department and the District Road Committee. The former maintained more important roads in the District. The latter derived funds from the road cess and there existed District Road Fund and one of its Branch was located in Siliguri which collected cess within the Siliguri police station. Besides, there were six numbers of roads measuring about 67.9 kms. were maintained by the Siliguri Local Board.

The land measurement of Siliguri and adjoining areas started in the year 1891. During those days, the whole area was covered with deep forest and there was abundance of wild animals like tiger, leopard, elephant, deer, reptiles and birds. Besides, the area was prone to different types of diseases, the most fatal being malaria-kalajwar.

Table 3.1 : Increase in the population of Siliguri Subdivision

Year (1)	Population (2)	Increase Percent (3)
1872	47,985	
1881	63,038	31
1891	72,993	16
1921	75,787	4(for three decades)
1931	80,258	6
1941	90,014	12

Source : Bengal District Gazetteers, 1947

At the time of independence, the Siliguri Subdivision had an area of 22 percent of the District area and a population of 24 percent of that of the District. The population density was 349 and it was almost evenly distributed throughout the Subdivision with density varying from 342 in the Siliguri Thana to 366 in the Phansidewa Thana. The area of the subdivision under forest cover was small and large areas were well cultivated, much being under tea. As it lay almost wholly in the plains, a much higher density of the population might have been expected in the context that the neighbouring Sadar Subdivision of the Jalpaiguri District with many points of similarity carried a population of 540 persons to the square mile. Dash (1947) mentions that one of the reasons of this low density might be the unhealthiness of the Terai, rendering the importation of aboriginal tribes from the Chota Nagpur and the Santhal Parganas to develop tea gardens.

Despite the low density of population of the Siliguri Subdivision, one remarkable aspect was the abnormally high expansion of the Siliguri urban area. Dash in his 1907 edition of the Gazetteer had described Siliguri as a swampy malarious village close to the foot of the hills with a population of 784. In 1941, it had a population of 10,487 – a 73 percent increase over the 1931 figure of 6,067. In 1941, Siliguri had an area of 3.6 square miles and the population density of 2,913 persons per square mile. Dash lay down in this regard, “An indication of rapid expansion is found in a remarkable disparity between the number of males (7,121) and of females (3,366). This expansion has taken place in spite of unhealthy and insanitary conditions and has no doubt been due to Siliguri’s increasing importance as a focus of communications. The town’s population is just under 12 percent of the population of the Subdivision.” (Dash 1947 : 55)

The administrative head of Siliguri Subdivision was known as the Subdivisional Officer. He had the powers of a Munsiff and Small Causes Court Judge up to Rs.50. Besides, he had powers to depose of rent and other suits under Act X of 1859 (Dash 1947 : 43) His civil work was, however, light. Under him was a Sub Deputy Magistrate who looked after the government estates, D.I.Fund (Darjeeling Improvement Fund), treasury and registration. In 1887, Mahabirsthan Market grew up out of the D.I.Fund.

Administration in the Darjeeling District which also included Siliguri Subdivision suffered from peculiarities due to the special application of various enactments. The Bengal Tenancy Act was not in force and Act X of 1859 and Act VIII of 1879 regulated the rights and liabilities of the rural population. The Bengal Village Self-Government Act, 1919 was in force only in Siliguri Town area in the whole district (Dash 1947 : 44).

Darjeeling, which included Siliguri Subdivision had no representative in the Legislative Council constituted under the Government of India Act, 1919. It was excluded and declared a backward tract. As such, the expenditure for the internal administration of the district, including Siliguri Subdivision was not subject to the vote of the legislature. The overall administration of the district was vested in the Governor-in-Council. However, any Act passed by the legislature which extended to the whole of Bengal automatically applied to the Darjeeling District, unless the Governor-in-Council directed otherwise.

Under the Government of India Act, 1935, Darjeeling started sending representatives to the Bengal Legislative Assembly. However, it is worth noting here that for the purpose of election to that body, Siliguri Subdivision was excluded from the District and was included in the Jalpaiguri-cum-Siliguri General Constituency.

As the region was earthquake-prone, the practice of making brick and RCC houses was almost absent. Almost all the houses were made out of wood which was easily available. The only buildings made of brick at the time of independence in 1947 were the Siliguri Town Station Building, adjacent Railway Quarters, Post Office, Court, Treasury Building, Prison Building and the house of Harsunder Majumdar- 'Harhari Kutir'(presently demolished)- on the Station Feeder Road. However, on the other side of the Mahananda river in 1947, there stood the most beautiful RCC two-storeyed house of Siliguri called 'Padma Niwas' owned by

Santbir Lama. Presently, it houses the Guest House of Indian Oil Corporation (Chattopadhyaya 2000 : 17).

As far as residential areas are concerned, Hakimpara developed as a conglomerate of government officers and officers of private tea and jute companies who settled in Siliguri after it earned the status of sub-division in 1907. Similarly, Babupara developed as the residential area of the clerks of these concerns. The habitat which developed in the vicinity of the police station came to be known as Thanapara. Perhaps Milanpally, on the western side of the Station Feeder Road, got its name because of its mixed population which included lawyers, petty traders and businessmen, small jotdars, few marwaris and some bengalis. Besides, there were Mahanandapara on the skirts of river Mahananda and Tikiapara- the area of coal-ball makers (Chattopadhyaya 2000 : 17).

3.3 Local Governance in Siliguri in Pre-Independence Period

The first form of official self-governance in Siliguri town area was the constitution of the 'Union Board' in March, 1938. However, prior to that some form of locally organized institution was present which looked after the public utility services, though in a meager way.

Sanitary Committee – It was in the year 1915 that a Sanitary Committee was formed under the presidentship of a renowned lawyer Surendranath Bhattacharya. Its initial activities involved overseeing the sweeper in the disposal of night soil near the banks of Mahananda and Phuleswari rivers and later to Tikiapara. The method of disposal was simple – digging the ground, depositing and covering it (Chattopadhyaya 2000 : 16). It was under the presidentship of George Mehbart that during 1926-29, provision was made for night lamps on wooden poles on the major roads.

Local Board – Till 1921, there was no District Board, Local Board or Union Committee in the Darjeeling District unlike other districts. As such, many of the responsibilities of the District Board, medical and veterinary relief and village sanitation were met by the Darjeeling Improvement Fund under the Deputy Commissioner of Darjeeling (Dash, C.I.E. 1947 : 243). This D.I.F. existed even after the formation of District Board and Local Boards. The District Board in the Darjeeling District was introduced in the year 1921 under the Bengal Local Self-Government Act, 1885. This Board came into effect from 1st of April, 1922. Under

the same Act, three 'Local Boards' were also constituted and one of them was 'Siliguri Local Board'. Out of the 10 elected members in the District Board of Darjeeling, three were elected by the Siliguri Local Board.

The Siliguri Local Board consisted of 12 members and all of them were nominated members. Out of these twelve members, two were officials as ex-officio members, four were representatives of the Tea Industry, and the remaining six were non-officials. In 1940-41, three out of the twelve members were Europeans. This Board had 'elected official' as the Chairman (Dash, C.I.E. 1947 : 243).

The Siliguri Local Board acted as agent of the District Board. It did not have any independent source of income. Among its activity, the most important work was the repair and maintenance of minor roads. The following table 3.2. shows its main heads of expenditure in the year 1940-41.

Table 3.2 : Heads of Expenditure of the Siliguri Local Board, 1940-41

Main Head (1)	No. of Sub-heads (2)	Expenditure in Rs. (3)
General Administration	18	1,600
Minor(Veterinary) Departments	26	1,000
Civil Works	45	30,500

Source : Bengal District Gazetteers, Darjeeling, 1947

Union Board – The first form of self-governance in Siliguri town area was the constitution of the 'Union Board' in March, 1938 and its first president was advocate Laxminarayan Mazumdar (Chattopadhyaya 2000 : 16). It was constituted under the Bengal Village Self-Government Act, 1919. It is noteworthy that it was the only Union Board in the district. It consisted of nine members. Dash (1947) mentions that in the year 1940-41, the Union Board of Siliguri raised Rs.5,400 in taxation and received grants of about Rs.1,600. Dash lays down the main items of expenditure in that year as follows :

Table 3.3 : Main Items of Expenditure of the Union Board of Siliguri, 1940-41

Heads (1)	Expenditure in Rs. (2)
Roads	350
Drainage	325
Conservancy	4,500

Sanitation	540
Schools	400
Dispensaries	200
Miscellaneous	1,300

Source : Bengal District Gazetteers, Darjeeling, 1947

Before independence, the Union Board was responsible for providing public utility services. During those days, water supply were not available beyond Railway Station and Railway Colony despite the fact that the quality of drinking water was unhealthy during that time and thus the region was prone to many deadly diseases like malaria and kalajar. The same was true with provision of electricity.

During this period, Burdwan Road, Station Feeder Road, Hill Cart Road and Hospital-Court Road till prison had stone and brick surfaced roads. The other areas of the present Corporation area had a sporadic habitation, uninhabited land and jungles. Mention may be made of the present economic hub Khalpara, which was covered with water and water-hyacinth for most part of the year. The major roads near court, treasury, prison, post office, hospital and police station were lighted during night hours with kerosene-lamps. Besides, there was a wooden bridge on the river Mahananda which was constructed way back in 1878.

Regards education, the first school was founded in 1890 by an indigenous Christian Sashibhushan Chakraborty. The name of the school was Missionary Public Primary School and was located in the premises of the D.I. Fund Hat. Besides, two other schools were there in the pre-independent time, namely, Bengali Girls M.E. School in Babupara and Siliguri High School near Court. The present Additional District Library was the only public library and it was then known as Terai Harsundar Library. The only cultural institution was Mitra Sammilani on the Hill Cart Road and the only motion picture theatre was Tripti which is now extinct. The markets were Mahabirsthan and D.I.Fund Hat.

However, it is to be noted that though a Union Board was constituted in Siliguri in March, 1938 under the Bengal Village Self-Government Act, 1919, it was not endowed with enough technical knowhow and financial strength to cope effectively with the pressing problems of sanitation and drainage, particularly in the Bazar area. It is worth noting here that the Darjeeling Improvement Fund

realized nearly Rs. 12,000 from the Siliguri Bazar but its contribution to the Union Board was too meager (Dash, C.I.E. 1947 : 245).

Nonetheless, with regard to the conservancy system, the activity of the Board was fair enough. The operation involved 'hand removal to the trenching ground' type. In 1938, the conservancy of the Bazar area was handed over to the Union Board by the Darjeeling Improvement Fund. A contribution of Rs.2000 was made in this regard by the Fund (Dash, C.I.E. 1947 : 245).

3.4 Urban Governance and Development in Siliguri in the Post-Independence Period (1947-1994) : The Period of Siliguri Municipality

At the time of independence in 1947, the population of Siliguri was about 10-12 thousand. The Siliguri Municipality was established on 24th May, 1949 through a gazette notification under the Bengal Municipal Act of 1932. Initially, it was located in an abandoned wooden house of Md. Khuda Baksha on the Hill Cart Road, opposite of Meghdoot Cinema Hall. The first chairman of the municipality was the then Sub Divisional Officer (SDO), Mr. Sachindra Mohan Guha and the Vice-Chairman was Birendra Nath Roy Sarkar. Besides, State Government nominated other Commissioners were Abaninath Bhattacharya, Prodyut Kumar Basu, Bimal Kumar Mukhopadhyay, Digendranath Roy Sarkar, Mangturam Agarwala, Bindeswari Mishra, Ramapada Chattopadhyay, Haricharan Majumdar, George Mahbert, Dr. Kshirodnath Chattopadhyay and Dr. Gopal Chandra Ghosh. (Shibprasad Chattopadhyay, Purobarta, SMC, 2010, pg.29-30)

On 26th October 1952, the then Governor of West Bengal, Mr. Harendra Kumar Mukhopadhyaya laid the foundation stone of the Pour Bhawan at its present location which was inaugurated by Mr. Bireswar Majumdar (father of Naxal leader, Charu Majumdar) on 26th January, 1960 (Ghatak 1983).

With the amendment of the Municipal Act in 1956, provision was made for three-fourth elected Commissioners and the remaining one-fourth members nominated by the Deputy Commissioner of the Darjeeling District. The first elected Chairman under the amended Act was Jagdish Chandra Bhattacharya. Thereafter, leaving aside administrator Chairman on few occasions, the successive Chairmen of the Siliguri Municipality were Jiban Krishna Dutta, Krishnendra Narayan Choudhury, Swapan Kumar Sarkar, Ashok Narayan Bhattacharya and

Bikash Ghosh. In 1994, with the conversion of Siliguri Municipality to Siliguri Municipal Corporation, the nomenclature of Chairmen changed to Mayor.

The Siliguri Municipality started off with 8 wards and gradually increased to 16, 19, 30 and finally 47 in 1994 when it was elevated to the status of a Corporation. It had no Standing Committee functioning in the 1950s and 1960s. The administrative set up of the Municipality comprised of five departments – General Administration, Collection, License, Public Works and Sanitation and Public Health.

In the post-1947 period, Siliguri's population started increasing at a very fast pace beginning with the settlement of thousands of refugees from erstwhile East Pakistan following the partition of the country in 1947 and the communal riots in 1950. As a result, during 1951-61, Siliguri town witnessed a 101.5 percent population growth. This unprecedented influx to Siliguri town was mainly due to the urbanization process which started taking place prior to independence and expansion of the tertiary sector. Thus, total number of workers employed in industry and construction in Siliguri urban area during this period rose from 2,194 to 5,744 persons, i.e., a rise of 162.6 percent in a decade (Siliguri Planning Organization 1965 : 9). From 1931 onwards itself, Siliguri Subdivision in general and Siliguri town in particular began to attract more and more immigrants from the Indian plains, particularly from Bihar and Rajasthan, in search livelihood and fortune. The bulk of these immigrants were traders, transport workers and white-collar employees. This immigration was witnessed because Siliguri town was an entrepot market and the most important transport node in north-eastern India. Thereafter, events like the Indo-China war in 1962, Indo-Pakistan war in 1965 and 1971; and the disturbances in Assam contributed in a major way for the inflow of settlers in Siliguri. As a result, the importance of Siliguri as a business and trading hub grew in leaps and bounds. This growth was further compounded due to its strategic position and entry points for the tourism

BOX - 3.1
FACTSHEET OF SILIGURI MUNICIPALITY
AS ON 31st MARCH, 1967

- Date of Establishment - 24th May, 1949
- Area In Sq. Miles - 6.00
- Number of Wards - 19
- Number of Holdings - 6,808
- Annual Rateable Value - Rs. 52,92,780
- Population (1961 Census) - 65,360
- Number of Rate-payers - 7,326
- Percentage of Rate-payers to Population - 11.2
- Total Income - Rs. 7,62,264
- Total Expenditure - Rs. 7,21,077

Source: Bengal District Gazetteers, Dangeeling, 1980

map of North Bengal which provided an impetus to attract big business houses and entrepreneurs to this booming city.

Talking of refugee influx in the district from former East Pakistan in the aftermath of partition, the number increased from 15,738 (8,931 males and 6,807 females) in 1951 to 38,162 (21,194 males and 16,968 females) in 1961. Out of these, over 57%, i.e., 21,794 (12,053 males and 9,741 females) lived in urban areas, mainly Siliguri town. Out of the total 8 refugee colonies in the district, 4 were in Siliguri town. This refugee influx helped in the growth of Siliguri town in many ways. The Refugee Rehabilitation Department made donations to colleges and schools for the construction of more buildings to meet the ever-increasing demand for education from the new settlers. In addition, the Department opened a market on a 3-acre plot of land at an expense of more than Rs. One Million for the benefit of about 800 refugee traders and named it Bidhan Market. Besides, the State Government advanced more than Rs. 1.5 lakh for the construction of roads, making sanitary arrangements and arranging water supply in the refugee concentrations within the Siliguri Municipality limits. (Subdivisional Officer, Siliguri quoted in Banerjee et al 1980).

This influx continued unabated in the aftermath of Indo-China War, creation of Bangladesh and disturbances in Assam. Besides, it attracted tradesman, businessman, labourers, job-seekers from other states, too. It was late realization on the part of the Siliguri Municipality to envision a development plan in the context of fast pace of urbanization of Siliguri town. The obvious result was the unplanned, haphazard growth with its bearing on the public and utility services.

It was after fifteen years of the establishment of the Siliguri Municipality that on 13th June, 1964 'Siliguri Planning Organisation' was established under the Development and Planning Department of the Government of West Bengal. At that point of time the population of Siliguri was about 65 thousand. For the purpose of future land use pattern of Siliguri, the Organisation prepared an 'Interim Development Plan for Siliguri' in 1965. This plan also sought to provide a futuristic mapping of the Environmental Impact Assessment of the town. Later on, in 1967, SPO prepared a 'Comprehensive



Development Plan' of the town. However, in due course, it was rightly felt that SPO was unable to deal effectively the manifold urban problems facing Siliguri primarily due to two reasons – one, SPO was a recommending authority and not an implementing authority and two, the area of the town was not confined to administrative jurisdiction of Siliguri Subdivision as urbanization process resulted in its expansion to the neighbouring Jalpaiguri district.

Thus, on 1st April, 1980 Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority was established under the West Bengal Town and Country (Planning and Development) Act, 1979. The earlier SPO got subsumed into this newly formed SJDA. The SJDA prepared an 'Outline Development Plan' in 1986 for 260 sq. km. of the SJDA's area (about 22.47 % of the Authority's area) which included the whole of 15.5 sq. km. of the Siliguri Municipality. This plan got the approval of the State Government in 1992. In 1994, Siliguri Municipal Corporation and SJDA jointly brought out an 'Approach Paper' on urban development of Siliguri. This paper highlighted the need for 6,100 new residential units every year to meet the problems of housing in the city. However, it failed to identify the areas where such complexes would come up as well as for which income-group such complexes would be constructed.

Finally, SJDA came up with the 'Perspective Plan 2025 : Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area' in February, 2004. The effort of such plan was initiated in May, 2002 and the task of the preparation of the plan was given to the Department of Architecture and Regional Planning, I.I.T., Kharagpur. The project was funded by UNICEF. The vision of the Plan as laid down reads thus, ".....There will be improved infrastructure and services, shelter for all, health and hygiene along with social amenities, encouraging the development of the body and the mind within an ecologically sustainable framework."(SJDA 2004 : xiii)

A brief overview of the efforts of the Siliguri Municipality with regards to the issues undertaken for study are as follows :

Sanitation – With regard to conservancy, manual scavenging was the primary mode. There

BOX : 3.3
Fact Sheet of Sanitation in Siliguri in 1967

- Number of Nightsoil Tanks – 13
- Number of men and women deputed for nightsoil removal - 108
- Number of coolies deputed for removal of sullage – 9
- Per day production of sullage – 3,250 gallons
- Number of refuse-trailers for road-cleansing – 5

Source : West Bengal District Gazetteers, Darjeeling, 1980

were men and women of various denominations for collecting nightsoil from service latrines. The Municipality maintained nightsoil tanks for the purpose of transportation of nightsoil. It also maintained personnel and refuse trailers for cleaning of public roads and drains. There were coolies deputed for the removal of sullage. However, road-side drains in the 1950s and 1960s in Siliguri utterly failed to serve the purpose of carrying waste water and excess rain. According to Siliguri Planning Organisation, "Five out of six drains are kutcha and are to no specification in shape or gradient; nor are they maintained properly to fulfil their dual roles. This has resulted in the patches of filthy drains interspersed with dry and partially-blocked stretches." Besides, haphazard construction of houses had also added to the difficulties of the drainage system. It may also be mentioned that during these decades, storm water from the area 8 to 9 km. north of the town used to enter Siliguri posing grave drainage problems. As such, the Interim Development Plan prepared by the SPO sought to improve upon the drainage system thus, "A network of open brick and mortar storm-water drains will be constructed to carry the rain-water to suitable outlets. An inlet time of 10 minutes will be adopted for major road drains, with less inlet time for minor roadside channels, depending on the area drained. The latter would have pitched trapezoid sections while the former would be paved ones. A self-cleansing velocity would be maintained.....The river Mahananda is the obvious drainage outfall for the municipal area.....the Fuleswari may be properly trained to serve as the trunk drain" (Siliguri Planning Organisation 1965 : 20). Siliguri Municipality reported no 'khatals' and slaughter houses till 1967.

Water Supply – Interim Development Plan for Siliguri, 1965 laid down the then position of water supply arrangements in Siliguri. The Report maintained that 3 out of every 10 houses did not have any drinking water supply of their own; 8 out of every 10 houses do not find their present source of supply sufficient to meet their requirements conveniently and would welcome additional supply, especially for drinking; 65.5 % of water supply came from individual shallow ring wells; and Siliguri Municipality provided 30 such wells for public use. The Plan of the SPO recommended the followings with regard to improvement of water supply in the town :

- (i) In the initial stages, an average per capita per day consumption of 10 gallons was proposed for 75 percent of the population through street taps;

- (ii) About 25% of the population would be supplied 30 gallons per capita per day through individual house connections;
- (iii) It recommended the then scheme of water supply to be extended by the addition of another four 80,000-gallon reservoirs to the only existing reservoir erected by the Public Health Engineering Department.

Transportation, Pollution and Urban Forestry – It was after the partition that need was felt to directly connect Siliguri with Calcutta and as such National Highway No. 31 was constructed. The estimated figure of carts and pack animals in urban Siliguri in August 1947 were 300 and 414 respectively (Banerjee et al 1980 : 313). Though the figures of motorized vehicles is not available exclusively for Siliguri town but in the District, there were 202 taxis, 101 trucks, 42 buses in public service and about 381 private vehicles (287 cars, 34 motor cycles and 60 lorries), all licensed in 1944 (Banerjee et al 1980 : 313). One may, however, discern that a sizeable number of them might have plied in Siliguri. In 1961, the Siliguri Local Board maintained 14 village roads, two of which were pony tracks and the rest jeepable, though unmetalled. (Banerjee et al 1980 : 311). The figures of 1967 show that there were 33 nos. of buses plying daily within the Siliguri (local) route covering route length of about 32 kms. It may be noted that during the decade of 1960, there were no leading transport operator based in Siliguri. Almost all of them operated from Darjeeling and Kalimpong. It was on 15 May, 1968 that the North Bengal State Transport Corporation started a daily express bus service between Siliguri and Calcutta. From the above figures on motorized vehicles, one may make an assumption that pollution from vehicular emission would have been too meager to attract attention of the Municipality regarding urban social forestry. Moreover, the town was sparse and one may assume that a whole lot of mature trees would have been present along the streets. This is evident from the fact that Siliguri Municipality did not maintain any park till 1967 (Banerjee et al 1980 : 455). However, the haphazard urbanization process, the fast pace of population growth and unprecedented growth in the number of motorized vehicles resulted in the cutting of tree tracts available as well as increase in the volume of air pollution, in particular, the suspended particulate materials. The time has, thus, come to seriously give attention to include urban social forestry in the developmental planning process of Siliguri rather than planting saplings for the sake of planting those only on some important days in a year.

Slum Improvement and Urban Poverty Alleviation – The Siliguri Municipality had no ‘*bustee*’ at least till 1967 as reported by the Chairman (Banerjee et al 1980 : 450). However, the early years of 1990s saw 48 recognized slums in Siliguri. This can be attributed to the inflow of migration into the city, even more vigorously, in the decades of 70s and 80s which outweighed the natural growth of the city due to Bangladesh war, Assam disturbances and establishment of some important State Government offices. This becomes evident with the growth in population density (persons per square km.) from 4193 in 1971 to 9903 in 1981 to 14624 in 1991 (ILGUS 1992-93).

It is to be noted that Siliguri has experienced a very slow pace of industrialization in the decades of 70s and 80s and actually the total number of industrial units declined between 1971 (174 number of units employing 8324 persons) and 1985 (162 number of units employing 8338 persons) (Ghosh et al 1995 : 192) Thus, lack of industrialization has made a service and market town with majority of employment avenues in the tertiary sector. Again, one finds disguised unemployment in the tertiary sector in 1992 with 3 shops per 100 population, making majority of shops operate at the subsistence level. Ghosh et al (1995) maintains that “Lack of expansion of the organised sector associated with the ever expanding informal sector has resulted in serious unbalanced economic growth. The informal sector can expand absorbing unskilled labour without any major capital expenditure..... The major occupations in the informal sector in Siliguri are the following – street corner vendors, hawkers, rickshaw pullers, road-side repair shop workers, lottery ticket sellers and suchlike. The average earning of a worker in the informal sector vary between Rs. 15 and Rs. 40 per day.” They further lay down, “As urban infrastructure trails behind the growth of population, slums have emerged in plenty throwing a serious challenge to the local body as well as the state government.”

BOX 3.4

Factsheet of Slums in Siliguri based on ISS Survey, 1992

- Number of Recognized Slums – 48
- % of Population in Slums to the Total Population – 21.57
- Slum Dwellers living Below poverty Line – 47
- % of slum population without any formal education – 40
- % of slum population being migrants – 80
- Distribution of migrants in 24 sample slums in the ISS Survey – Bangladesh (38); Orissa (19); Bihar (18); West Bengal other than Darjeeling District (17); Nepal (5); and Sikkim (3).

The slums in the early years of 1990s could be classified into three categories – (i) refugee colonies in the heart of the town (relatively better off and the municipality was obliged to provide physical and social infrastructure in these areas); (ii) squatter settlements in the encroached railway land (the municipality had no control over this land and consequently reluctant to provide physical infrastructure in these areas); and (iii) squatter settlements in the river beds (poorest among slums and unfit for human settlements)

The attempt for slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation in Siliguri was the Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums (EIUS). It was launched in 1981 and was locally known as '*basti*' development programme. The components of EIUS were paving the lanes within slum area, street lighting, low cost sanitation on community basis, drainage improvement and supply of potable water from spot sources.

In 1984, UNICEF assisted Urban Community Development (UCD) Programme was launched. It was the first town in West Bengal where this Programme was launched. This programme emphasized on providing basic social services, such as, pre-natal care for women, training programme for skill formation for women, pre-school facilities, immunization of children below one year, etc. The name of the programme was changed to Urban Basic Services (UBS) scheme in 1986 with the structural changes like, district, rather than town, being the unit of operation; appointment of district co-ordinators; and constitution of monitoring committees at the town, district, state and national levels. From 1991-92, UBS was changed into Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP). Ultimately, the institutional structure of UBSP was subsumed with Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rozgar Yojana in 1997.

The Nehru Rozgar Yojana, an income generating programme, was launched in 1989 which had three major components – micro-enterprises; urban wage employment for the unskilled workforce (Siliguri was not eligible for it as it was restricted to towns with population less than one lakh); and the creation of employment through shelter upgradation scheme. The micro-enterprise component provided for bank loans upto Rs. 35,000 and a subsidy of 25 %. The shelter upgradation component provided for assistance up to Rs. 4,000 per household which included 75% HUDCO loan and 25% government subsidy.

Besides, a state sponsored programme Liberation of Scavengers Programme (LSP); eradication of illiteracy programme in cooperation with the Department of

Mass Education of the Government of West Bengal; and low cost sanitation component of the Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) were also in operation in Siliguri to improve the appalling living conditions of the slum dwellers in pre-1994 period when Siliguri Municipality was elevated to the status of the Municipal Corporation.

3.5 Siliguri Municipal Corporation : A Brief Profile

The Siliguri Municipal Corporation was constituted on 12th January, 1994 under the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990. The provisions of this Act was similar to that of the West Bengal Municipal Act, 1993 with the following variations :

- (a) The Mayor is the First Citizen of the Corporation.
- (b) The Mayor nominates one of the Councilors as the Deputy Mayor.
- (c) The Chairman, elected by the Councilors, will exercise the powers in the Corporation similar to that of the Speaker of the Legislative Assembly.
- (d) The administration of the Corporation is to be run by the Mayor-in-Council consisting of the Mayor, the Deputy Mayor and maximum of 10 other elected members of the Corporation.
- (e) In order to run the administration of the Corporation in a smooth and decentralized manner, there will be the provision of Borough Committees at the intermediate level between the Corporation and the Ward. These are groups of contiguous wards. Each Borough Committee, constituted by the Councilors of the wards of the concerned Borough, is to supervise the civic administration of the Borough area.
- (f) The Chief Administrative Officer of the Corporation is to be known by the designation Chief Executive Officer.

Thus, the variations were mainly related to changes in nomenclature rather than structural and functional changes, except for the provision of constitution of Borough Committee as an intermediate level between Corporation and Wards.

However, with the enactment of the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 (West Bengal Act XXXIX of 2006 and the assent of the President of India was first published in the *Kolkata Gazette, Extraordinary*, of the 29th May, 2008), the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990 was repealed (along with the respective Corporation Acts of Asansol, Chandannagore and Durgapur). As such,

at present, the basic legal framework for municipal governance of SMC is the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006. In all, this Act consists of 8 Parts, 25 Chapters, 403 Sections and 5 Schedules. In 2007, an amendment was made to this Act and is known as the West Bengal Municipal Corporation (Amendment) Act, 2007 (West Bengal Act XXIX of 2007).

The upgradation of Siliguri from a Municipality to a Corporation was announced in the West Bengal Legislative Assembly on 12th May, 1990. It was on 15th May, 1994 that the first election to the Siliguri Municipal Corporation was held. Late Bikash Ghosh was elected the first Mayor of the city and remained to be so till 2008. Mr. Nurul Islam took him over as the Mayor. The present incumbent is Mrs. Gangotri Datta.

Since the creation of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation on 12th January, 1994, the administration of municipal affairs was carried out as per the provisions of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990. However, with the enactment of the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006, the earlier Act was repealed. As such, at present, the municipal affairs of Siliguri are conducted in accordance with the provisions of the latter Act. Besides, there are a host of other Acts and Rules of the Central Government and State Government which aid and provide guidelines in the management of the affairs of Siliguri.

The Municipal Corporation of Siliguri was constituted with 47 wards, adding 17 wards more to the erstwhile 30 wards of the Siliguri Municipality. At the time of its establishment as Corporation, its population was approximately 0.37 million (as per 1991 census). However, the population of 30 wards of the earlier Municipality was a high 2.27 lakhs (1991 census) with area being 15.54 sq. km., thereby maintaining a high population density (person per sq. km.) of 14624. On the other hand, the added area constituting 17 wards (14 in Jalpaiguri district and 3 in Darjeeling district) consisted of 1.49 lakhs population within 26.36 sq. km. area, thereby maintaining a population density of 5652 per sq. km. As a result, the population density of Siliguri at the time of its elevation to Corporation came down drastically to about 8985 persons per sq. km. (as per 1991 census). With further increase in the pace of urbanization, the population density of Siliguri as per 2001 census increased to 11271 persons per sq.km. The fast pace of urbanization process has, thus, put a formidable challenge before the SMC authority with regard to the provision of basic public services. This task is to be further seen in the backdrop of 48 notified slum pockets before the establishment of the Corporation and their

substantial increase to 154 nos. at present. Few basic information and the Ward-wise population status of Siliguri are laid down in Tables 3.4 and 3.5.

Table. 3.4. : Basic Information on SMC and SMC Area

Sl. No. (1)	Particulars (2)		Figures/ Names (3)	Sl. No. (1)	Particulars (2)		Figures/ Names (3)		
1	Longitude		44.26	19	Nos. of Government Libraries		6		
2	Latitude		26.43	20	Nos. of Children benefitting under MDM Scheme		30340 (appr.)		
3	Hieght above Sea-level (in metres)		122	21	Nos. of Markets	Under SMC	6		
4	Area (in sq. km.)		41.91			Under D.I.Fund	1		
5	Av. Annual Rainfall (in cm.)		323			Others	19		
6	Population (2001 census)		472374	22	Nos. of Stadiums		2		
7	Population Density (per sq.km.)		11271	23	Nos. of Parks		47		
8	Decadal Growth Rate of Population (1991-2001)		4.8 %	24	Nos. of Lodgings and Hotels	Under SMC	4 (2 in Siliguri & 2 in Kolkata)		
9	Literacy Rate		79.31 %			Others	153 (appr.)		
10	Nos. of Households		96496	25	Nos. of Community Halls	Under SMC	1		
11	Nos. of BPL Families		22889			Others	56		
12	Nos. of Wards		47	26	New Trade Licences (2009-10)		18551		
13	Nos. of Boroughs		5	27	Birth Registration (2009-10)		12122		
14	Nos. of Employees	Permanent	789 (sanctioned)	28	Death Registration (2009-10)		2206		
		Temporary	1200 (appr.)	29	Slum Statistic (2001 Census)	Nos. of Notified Slums	154		
15	Nos. of Electricity Poles		23680			Slum Population	173111		
16	Rivers flowing across Siliguri	Mahananda, Phuleswari, Jorapani, Panchonai and Mahishmari				Nos. of Slum Households	33231		
		17	Length of Roads (in km.)	Under NHAI	3 (appr.)	30	Nos. of TCGs under SJSRY		875 (Upto March, 2010)
				Under PWD	17 (appr.)		31	Nos. of Beneficiaries under IGNOAPS	
Under SMC	1397.56 (appr.) both pucca & kutch	32		Nos. of Hospitals	Govt.	1			
18	Nos. of Educational Institutional		Govt. Aided Colleges		4	Private Nursing Homes	33		
		Private Colleges		1	33		Under IPP-VIII Extension Scheme	Matrisadan	11
		Polytechnic College		1		Health Centre		8	
		I.T.I.		1		Sub-Health Centre		61	
		Govt. Aided H.S.Schools		12		OPD Centre under SMC		1	
		Govt. Aided Secondary Schools		19					
		Govt. Aided Primary Schools		94					

Source : Purobarta, 2010, Siliguri Municipal Corporation

Table 3.5 : Ward-Wise Data of Siliguri Municipal Corporation as per Census**2001**

Ward No. (1)	Area in Acres (2)	Area in Sq. Km. (3)	Total Population (4)	Male (6)	Female (7)	Total SC (8)	Male SC (9)	Female SC (10)	Total ST (11)	Male ST (12)	Female ST (13)
1	570.5	2.3	17843	9990	7853	2796	1471	1325	191	100	91
2	371.5	1.5	11436	5835	5601	677	353	324	299	136	163
3	251.25	1.02	11753	6469	5284	580	336	244	176	90	86
4	280.75	1.13	20028	11238	8790	1337	715	622	56	27	29
5	301.05	1.22	15326	8502	6824	2468	1333	1135	54	28	26
6	50.95	0.2	9023	5483	3540	181	95	86	16	10	6
7	81	0.32	9889	5239	4650	288	174	114	6	4	2
8	49.5	0.2	7843	4572	3271	172	96	76	0	0	0
9	70.5	0.28	7306	3960	3346	71	50	21	29	22	7
10	191	0.77	4720	2558	2162	211	91	120	49	31	18
11	41.05	0.16	2933	1648	1285	67	33	34	4	1	3
12	58.95	0.24	3772	2050	1722	108	66	42	7	3	4
13	69.25	0.28	5070	2623	2447	252	129	123	79	39	40
14	80.75	0.32	6407	3258	3149	373	184	189	54	26	28
15	84.05	0.34	8103	4094	4009	373	180	193	7	3	4
16	60.05	0.24	5984	2967	3017	232	106	126	8	7	1
17	49.95	0.2	5485	2821	2664	343	171	172	39	22	17
18	40.65	0.16	8440	4431	4009	2770	1491	1279	52	27	25
19	49.35	0.2	3233	1670	1563	293	146	147	0	0	0
20	60	0.24	9869	5110	4759	2508	1280	1228	9	5	4
21	80.55	0.32	5875	2897	2978	1124	555	569	21	13	8
22	119.45	0.48	10293	5232	5061	1532	791	741	15	6	9
23	70	0.28	6205	3127	3078	959	490	469	153	71	82
24	120.05	0.48	11165	5740	5425	1847	940	907	48	26	22
25	129.95	0.25	8525	4486	4039	310	174	136	130	67	63
26	60.85	0.24	4873	2521	2352	438	219	219	14	10	4
27	89.15	0.36	5630	2866	2764	291	139	152	37	15	22
28	170	0.69	9578	5070	4508	2042	1029	1013	27	12	15
29	170	0.69	4783	2462	2321	144	82	62	17	7	10
30	108	0.43	6510	3238	3272	853	419	434	15	7	8
31	200.05	0.8	13414	6881	6533	2853	1473	1380	64	31	33
32	319.95	1.29	11845	6333	5512	1137	614	523	311	164	147
33	280.15	1.13	13543	7217	6326	1713	974	739	126	82	44
34	319.85	1.28	16560	8671	7889	3779	1955	1824	79	43	36
35	481	1.94	14945	8142	6803	3740	1929	1811	115	53	62
36	239	0.96	13553	7026	6527	4636	2413	2223	273	136	137
37	160	0.64	14431	7468	6963	3531	1828	1703	51	24	27
38	161.45	0.65	11235	5768	5467	1243	634	609	40	19	21
39	194.07	0.78	11237	5911	5326	579	304	275	38	22	16
40	579.03	2.43	18164	9448	8716	2446	1255	1191	163	87	76
41	800.45	3.24	12951	6836	6115	1756	933	823	229	118	111
42	1029.68	4.15	14711	7741	6970	6592	3426	3166	435	215	220
43	439	1.77	9661	5291	4370	1208	653	555	46	25	21
44	182	0.73	11522	6017	5505	2092	1089	1003	74	32	42
45	66.23	0.26	7117	3754	3363	438	236	202	238	116	122
46	900.21	3.63	21222	11569	9653	2316	1222	1094	648	317	331
47	170.22	0.68	8363	4415	3948	1313	690	623	382	196	186
Total	10452.4	41.9	472374	250645	221729	67012	34966	32046	4924	2495	2429

Source : Siliguri Municipal Corporation

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CHAPTER FOUR

GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT : SILIGURI MUNICIPAL CORPORATION AREA

4.1 Introduction

Governance is a complex process and it works in a web. It demands proper webbing of the whole gamut of activities within the governmental apparatus – at the central, state and municipal level – to achieve the desired goal. Good governance thus entails proper coordination and efficient and optimum utilization of financial and manpower resources at all levels of governance. All these efforts have behind them the basic purpose of serving the people in an environment-friendly way.

The issues under study, as mentioned earlier, relate to Sanitation with special reference to Solid Waste Management; Water Supply; City Transportation, Pollution and Urban Social Forestry; and Slum Improvement and UPE. These are to be undertaken in the context of Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area. The ideals of these issues are well laid out by the Parliament and the Legislative Assembly of West Bengal in the form of Acts and Rules. What shape these ideals would take depends squarely on the Central and State Governments in general and SMC in particular. It would be interesting to observe as to what extent the gap occurs between the ideal and the real situation in each of the above issues within the SMC area, though, of course, taking into consideration the limitations of all levels of associated officials as human beings who are bound to err and can never be perfect. In similar vein, margin of error to some extent with regard to the personal observations and surveys made by the researcher himself cannot be ruled out. Having said so, the personal observations, data collection and the sample survey would definitely give an indication of the existing status of the issues undertaken for study in the backdrop of their historical development, the limitations of the concerned developmental issues as far as their governance are concerned, and the possible solutions to mitigate those problems which would help make a better environmental future of the city. Due help have been taken in this regard of various central, state and municipal level laws, rules, bye-laws and notifications; various central, state and municipal level schemes, plans, reports, surveys and inventories; relevant books, relevant articles from journals and newspapers; sample survey of

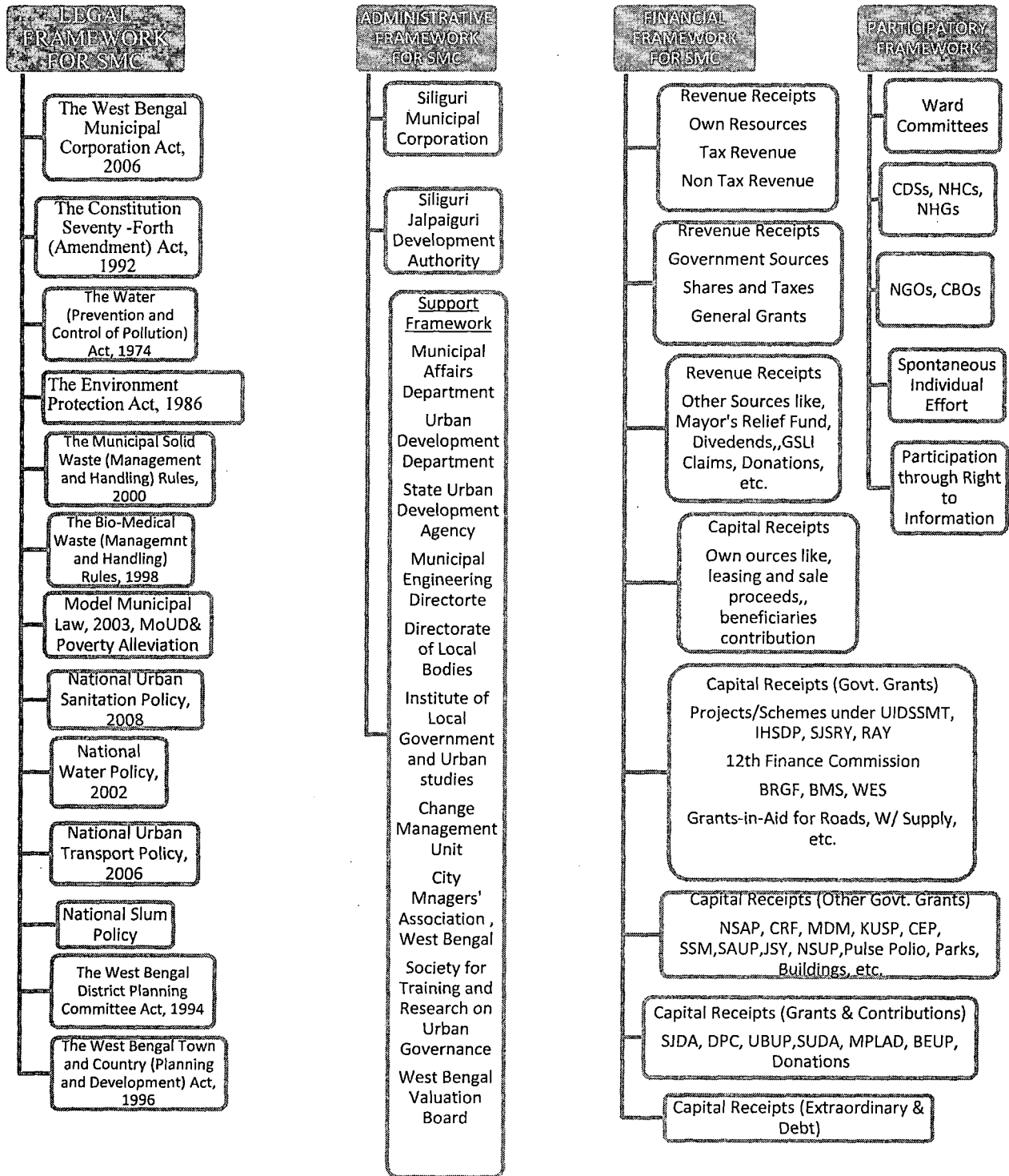
different levels of concerned officials and peoples' representatives; sample survey of city-dwellers regarding the services; and last but not the least, personal observations – participant-non participant and formal-informal – of the researcher himself.

It is well known that municipal body serves as the basic unit of governance in a town/city. In the case of the present study, then, it is the Siliguri Municipal Corporation which holds the key with respect to the above mentioned developmental issues. It functions through the Mayor as the political head and Commissioner as the administrative head, ably supported by Deputy Mayor, Chairman, MMICs and Ward Councillors at the political/representative level and the Secretary, Executive Engineer, Finance Officer and a host of staff at the administrative level. In order to serve the people efficiently, there are Borough Committees at the intermediate level, each consisting of a number of wards and headed by a Chairman. Finally, the basic unit is the Ward which functions through the Ward Councillor and the Ward Committee.

Serving approximately estimated 0.58 million people (SJDA 2004 : 54) in 47 wards of SMC area is truly a stupendous task, particularly in terms of infrastructure. However, through proper planning following legal framework; proper coordination within the administrative framework; proper management of financial framework; and proper development of citizens' awareness and participation through participatory and awareness framework would help SMC authority to bring about the four basic essentials of urban development, i.e., sustainable development, infrastructure development, uniform development and development with social justice. No doubt, if the attitude of all, associated with SMC administration are guided by the above, the hope laid down by the present Mayor of the SMC in her Budget (2010-11) speech would mean sense. In her words, "I hope for elevation of future Siliguri to a complete modernized 'DREAM CITY' through our activities honouring hope and desire of the citizen of Siliguri" (SMC Budget 2010-11).

There are a host of Acts, Rules, Regulations, Bye-Laws and Notifications; host of Departments of the Government of India and West Bengal; host of public and private financial institutions; and host of civil society groups which are directly or indirectly involved in serving the people of Siliguri with respect to the issues undertaken for study. Figure 4.1 lay down a recap of it.

Figure 4.1 : Operational Frameworks of Siliguri Municipal Corporation



4.2 Governance in Siliguri Municipal Corporation

Since the creation of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation on 12th January, 1994, the administration of municipal affairs was carried out as per the provisions of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990. However, with the enactment of the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006, the Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990 was repealed. As such, at present, the basic legal framework for municipal governance of SMC is the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006. In all, this Act consists of 8 Parts, 25 Chapters, 403 Sections and 5 Schedules. In 2007, an amendment was made to this Act and is known as the West Bengal Municipal Corporation (Amendment) Act, 2007 (West Bengal Act XXIX of 2007).

The municipal affairs of Siliguri are managed by SMC through three categories of functionaries, namely, (A) the Municipal Authorities; (B) the Officers; and (C) the Establishment.

(A)The Municipal Authorities of Siliguri Municipal Corporation – In accordance with the provision of the Act of 2006, it consists of (a) the Corporation; (b) the Mayor-in-Council; and (c) the Mayor (Section 9, Chapter III, Part II). The Corporation means the Board of Councillors charged with the authority of the Municipal Government of the SMC area and shall consist of the (a) Ward Councillors (47 at present) and (b) persons having special knowledge or experience in municipal administration as may be nominated by the State Government from time to time but without voting rights in the meetings of the Corporation (Sub-Section 1, Section 10, Chapter III, Part II). The present Board was constituted in September, 2009 with 47 Ward Councillors.

The Mayor-in-Council consists of the Mayor, Deputy Mayor and such number of other elected members of the Corporation, not exceeding seven, as the State Government may from time to time determine [Section 19(1)]. It exercises the executive powers of the Corporation as may be delegated to it by the Corporation/BOC under Section 47(1). However, the powers are subject to the provisions of the WBMC Act, 2006 [Section 41(1)]. All executive actions of the MIC are expressed to be taken in the name of Corporation [Section 41(2)]. Besides, all proceedings of the meetings of the MIC are placed in the next meeting of the Corporation for consideration [Section 41(3)]. The Mayor nominates the Deputy Mayor and other members of the MIC from amongst the elected members

of the Corporation within a period of thirty days of his entering upon office. However, the State Government may extend the period of nomination for a maximum period of thirty days if an application with reasons is made by the Mayor [Section 19(2)]. The Mayor-in-Council is collectively responsible to the Corporation [Section 19(5)]. The following table 4.1. lay down the present (2009-) portfolios existing in SMC :

Table 4.1. Members of MIC, Siliguri Municipal Corporation

Designation (1)	Portfolios (2)
Mayor	General Administration, Finance & Accounts, Planning & Development, Assessment-Collection, Building
Deputy Mayor	Education & Culture
Member, MIC	Conservancy & Environment
Member, MIC	Public Works Department
Member, MIC	Slum Development & UPE Cell, Child & Mother Welfare
Member, MIC	Water Supply
Member, MIC	Electricity & Sports
Member, MIC	Trade License & Self Employment
Member, MIC	Health & Parking

Source : Official Web Site of Siliguri Municipal Corporation, www.siligurismc.com

This is to be noted that the present portfolios have remained unchanged with those of the previous MIC (2004-2009), except that of the reconstitution of the portfolios with one another.

As far as the powers and functions of the Mayor are concerned, Section 42 of the WBMC Act, 2006 details them out. The Mayor is the whole time functionary of the Corporation and presides over the meetings of the MIC. The agenda of the meetings are prepared under his direction. He allocates business of the Corporation among the members of the MIC. The Mayor may direct the execution of any work if that is necessary in her opinion. However, he is required to report forthwith to the BOC or the MIC as the case be, about the action taken. In case vacancy occurs in the office of the Mayor due to latter's death, resignation, removal or otherwise, the Deputy Mayor acts as the Mayor until a new Mayor is elected [Section 43(1)]. If the Mayor is unable to discharge his functions owing to

absence, illness or any other cause, the Deputy Mayor acts as the Mayor until the latter resumes his duties [Section 43(2)].

The Act provides for the formation of three types of Committees, namely, (a) Municipal Accounts Committee (Section 21, Chapter III, Part II); (b) Borough Committee (Section 22, Chapter III, Part II); and (c) Ward Committee (Section 23, Chapter III, part II). The Municipal Accounts Committee consists of not less than three and not more than five members and they are elected by the Board of Council from amongst its members by secret ballot and in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote. However, the members of the Mayor-in-Council are not eligible to vote. Besides, any member of the opposition in the Corporation is its Chairman. A Municipal Accounts Committee is constituted every year at the first meeting of the BOC or at its next meeting to be held within a period of next thirty days. The duties (Sub-Section 4, Section 21) of this Committee are (i) examination of the annual financial accounts of the SMC as well as accounts showing the appropriation of sums granted by the Corporation for its expenditure; (ii) examination of the report of the auditor on the accounts of the SMC and satisfying itself that the money disbursed were available for and applicable to the specified services or purpose as well as expenditure incurred in accordance with the authority governing the same; (iii) submission of report to the Corporation every year as well as from time to time; (iv) to consider the report of the special audit of any receipt or expenditure of SMC; and (v) discharge of such other functions as may be prescribed. However, the duties are to be performed subject to the other provisions of the Act. The present (2010-2011) Municipal Accounts Committee consists of three members, besides the Chairman. The composition of Borough Committee and Ward Committee are dealt with subsequently.

Section 24(1) of the Act provides for the constitution of the following five Standing Committees :

- (a) Finance and Resource Mobilisation Standing Committee;
- (b) Solid Waste Management Standing Committee;
- (c) Water Supply, Public Health and Sanitation Committee;
- (d) Public Works Standing Committee;
- (e) Health, Education and Urban Poverty Alleviation Standing Committee.

Besides these mandatory Standing Committees, other Standing Committees may be constituted by the SMC if it so think fit. However, the previous BOC (2004-09) had constituted the Public Works; Conservancy and Sanitation; Education and Culture; Water Supply; and Health as Standing Committees as per the provision of the earlier Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990. Thus, there has been a structural changes in the formation of the Standing Committees with the enactment of the new Act of 2006. The Finance and Resource Mobilisation Standing Committee has been inserted by the Act of 2006 which was earlier not constituted. It seems that the framers of the Act sought to make the municipal authorities of SMC to be more pro-active in terms of visioning different strategies for generating their own resources rather than to be majorly dependent on grants of the State and Central Governments for carrying out developmental and civic works of Siliguri. Further, more emphasis has been laid on solid waste management by separating it from other aspects of sanitation of Siliguri. As public health is related to sanitation, so the framers thought it prudent to strike the word off. Besides solid waste management, focus has been put on urban poverty alleviation considering the necessity of 'development with justice'. As such, it was inserted in the Act as part of the constitution of Standing Committees and got it tagged with two other related issues, namely, health and education. It was conspicuous by its absence earlier. It is to be noted that the aspect of culture has not been included as a part of the Standing Committee in the new Act which was earlier present.

On the whole, the departure with respect to constitution of Standing Committees laid down in the repealed Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990 are in the following respects :

- (a) Inclusion of Finance and Resource Mobilisation Standing Committee;
- (b) Inclusion of Urban Poverty Alleviation Standing Committee;
- (c) Segregating Solid Waste Management from the earlier Conservancy and Sanitation Standing Committee;
- (d) Non-inclusion of Culture as part of the Standing Committee.

These structural changes with respect to the Standing Committees seem to have been done in the Act of 2006 with the purpose of restructuring the Standing Committees of the SMC keeping in mind contemporary relevance. It needs to be seen as to how the municipal authorities of SMC have utilized the Act in respect to

the Standing Committees which functions as a recommending body to assist the Corporation in discharging its functions properly.

Each Standing Committee shall have not less than three and not more than nine members and are nominated by the Corporation from among its elected members. The Mayor, the Chairman and the Deputy Mayor shall not be a member of any Standing Committee. Besides, the Corporation may associate any person, any officer or employee of the Corporation, and any officer of the Government with any Standing Committee having requisite expertise for development of civic services, municipal finance and other areas related to municipal administration. The President and the Vice-President are nominated by the Mayor.

Section 25 of the Act lays down the functions of the Standing Committees. Their main function is to give recommendation with respect to possible measures for the removal of difficulties in implementing development programmes under their respective jurisdiction. Besides, the Corporation may refer to a Standing Committee for inquiry or report or opinion on such subjects relating to the powers or duties of the Corporation.

Apart from the Standing Committee, the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 lays down the Constitution of an Education Committee and a Poor Fund Committee. The former is responsible for general control and supervision of primary and secondary schools maintained by the Corporation (Sub-Section 1, Section 26, Chapter III, Part II). The latter administers the Poor Fund, if any (Sub-Section 1, Section 27, Chapter III, Part II). It may be, however, noted that Siliguri Municipal Corporation, presently, do not have any such Education Committee and Poor Fund Committee.

The Board of Councillors may constitute Special Committees for the discharge of any specific function or for making enquiry and report on any specific matter (Sub-Section 1, Section 29, Chapter III, Part II). In the previous Board of SMC (2004-09), there were six such Special Committees constituted, namely, Review Committee, Selection Committee, Promotion Committee, Road Naming Committee, Building Committee and Business Advisory Committee.

(B)The Officers of Corporation – The Act of 2006 [Section 30(1), Chapter IV, Part II] lays down that the Corporation shall have the following Officers : (a) the Commissioner; (b) the Chief Engineer; (c) the Deputy Commissioner, Revenue; (d) the Health Officer; (e) the Finance Officer; (f) the Chief Auditor; and

(g) the Secretary. Besides, the same section provides for such other officers as may be designated by the State Government.

The earlier Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990 provided for only the posts of the Chief Executive Officer, the Secretary, the Executive Engineer and the Finance Officer. Thus, the new Act provides for the Chief Engineer in place of the Executive Engineer. Besides, new posts of the Deputy Commissioner, Revenue; the Health Officer; and the Chief Auditor; have been added. Further, the designation of the CEO has been changed to the Commissioner in the new Act. It is to be noted that though the designation of the CEO has been redesignated in SMC w.e.f. 01.11.2008. (SMC 2007-08 : 12), the status of other officers remain the same as earlier and the posts laid down by the new Act have not been created as yet. The officers so appointed are to be paid salaries and allowances out of the Municipal Fund [Section 32(1), Chapter IV, Part II].

The powers and functions of the Commissioner are dealt with under Section 44, Chapter IV-D, Part II. As the principal Executive Officer of the SMC, his main powers and functions are (a) performance of those functions specifically conferred or imposed on him by the WBMC Act, 2006 or by any other law for the time being in force; (b) assignment of duties and supervision and control over all officers and employees of the Corporation; (c) custodian of all records and papers and documents related with the proceedings of the Corporation, MIC and Municipal Accounts Committee as well as preservation of those in such manner and for such period as may be determined by regulations; and (d) preparation of annual report on the working of the Corporation as soon as may be after the first day of April each year and not later than such date as may be fixed by the State Government.

The financial powers of the BOC, the MIC and the Commissioner are such as may be prescribed [Section 46, Chapter IV-D, Part II].

In case a doubt arises as to whether any particular power or function appertains to BOC or the Commissioner, the Mayor shall refer the matter to the State Government and the decision of the latter thereon shall be final [Section 48, Chapter IV-D, Part II].

The Secretary is the Secretary of the BOC and the Municipal Accounts Committee and of other committees, if any, and shall exercise such powers, and shall discharge such functions, as are conferred on him by or under WBMC Act, 2006 or may be assigned to him by the Commissioner [Sub-Section 1, Section 45, Chapter IV-D, Part II]. Section 45(2) of the said Act requires the Secretary to act as

the custodian of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of the BOC and Municipal Accounts Committee and of other Committees, if any, as well as preservation of the same in such manner, and for such period, as may be determined by the regulations. The Secretary of the SMC is also the SPIO of the Corporation.

(C)The Establishment of Corporation – The post of officers and other employees of the SMC other than those referred to in Section 30(1) above constitute the Establishment of the Corporation [Section 33(1), Chapter IV, Part II]. The State Government fixes the norms regulating the size of establishment of the Corporation from time to time [Section 33(2)]. Besides, the Corporation may determine what officers and other employees of the establishment of SMC are necessary with the prior sanction of the State Government [Section 33(3)]. Further, upward revision of the size of establishment may be done if such proposal of the Mayor-in-Council is approved by the Corporation/BOC, but not without the prior sanction of the State Government [Section 33(4)]. The BOC of the SMC may also appoint officers and other employees of the establishment on a contractual basis with the prior approval of the State Government [Section 34(3)]. The same section further stipulates that the remuneration for and terms and conditions of such engagement shall be such as the State Government may approve.

Under the establishment of Siliguri Municipal Corporation, there are 789 sanctioned posts under 66 categories of officers and employees. Table 4.2 lays down the names and numbers of sanctioned posts under the establishment of SMC.

4.2.1 Conduct of Business of SMC

In the first meeting of the Corporation after the general election which is convened within thirty days (the period may be extended by the State Government) after the publication of the election results and presided over by a member nominated by the State Government, the elected Councillors elect a Chairman from amongst themselves [Section 51, Chapter V, Part II]. The Chairman exercises powers in the Corporation similar to that of the Speaker of the Legislative Assembly. The Chairman, at the beginning of each calendar year, nominates a panel of not more than three Presiding Officers specifying sequence from amongst the elected members of the Corporation so that one of them may preside over the meetings of the Corporation in the absence of the Chairman [Section 49, Chapter V, Part II]. The panel of Presiding Officers for the year 2010-11 consists of two members.

**Table 4.2. Names and Numbers of Sanctioned Posts under Establishment in
Siliguri Municipal Corporation**

Sl. No	Name of the Posts	Number of Sanctioned Posts
(1)	(2)	(3)
1	Accountant	1
2	Addl. Head Clerk	1
3	Assessment Inspector	1
4	Assessor	1
5	Asstt. Conservancy Inspector	3
6	Asstt. Assessment Inspector	2
7	Asstt. Cashier	1
8	Asstt. Engineer	2
9	Asstt. Tax Collector	3
10	Asstt. Teacher	2
11	Asstt. License Inspector	1
12	Attendant	4
13	Care Taker 1	2
14	Care Taker 2	1
15	Carpenter	1
16	Cashier	6
17	L.D.Clerk	51
18	Collecting Sarkar	28
19	Conservancy Inspector	3
20	Daftari	3
21	Deputy Accountant	1
22	Driver	25
23	Drummer	1
24	Electrician	9
25	G.D.A.	7
26	Guard	15
27	Head Clerk	1
28	Head Master	1
29	Health Assistant	1
30	Health Officer	1
31	Helper (Electric)	2
32	Jamadar	4
33	L.I. In Charge	1

Sl. No	Name of the Posts	Number of Sanctioned Posts
(1)	(2)	(3)
34	Law Assisstant	1
35	Librarian	1
36	License Inspector	1
37	Light Sarkar	3
38	Market Inspector	2
39	Market Superintendent	1
40	Mate	10
41	Mistri (Water Works)	1
42	Office Cleaner	1
43	Officer on Special Duty(Legal)	1
44	P.A. to C.E.O.	1
45	P.A. to Mayor	1
46	Mazdoor/ Labourer	95
47	Peon	35
48	S.A.E. (Electric)	2
49	S.A.E. (Mechanical)	1
50	S.A.E. (Civil)	15
51	Sanitary Inspector	4
52	Sr. Clerk (UDC)	17
53	Steno Typist	1
54	Store Keeper	1
55	Sub-Overseer	1
56	Surveyor	1
57	Sweeper	362
58	Tahashildar	3
59	Tax Collector	1
60	Tax Collector-in-Charge	1
61	Vaccinator	2
62	Vehicle Superintendant	1
63	Vehicles Cleaner	5
64	Ward Supervisor	19
65	Work Assistant	3
66	Work Supervisor	9
TOTAL		789

Source : Siliguri Municipal Corporation

Section 50 of the WBMC Act, 2006 provides that the Corporation shall meet not less than once in every month for the transaction of business. However, the Chairman may convene a meeting of the BOC whenever she may think fit or upon a requisition in writing by not less than one-third of the elected members of the SMC. It is the responsibility of the Commissioner of SMC under the direction of the Chairman to notify about the meeting of the Corporation at least seven days before the specified date. The Commissioner shall send the list of business to be transacted at every meeting to the members of the Corporation at least seventy-two hours before the time fixed for the meeting. No business other than those specified shall take place, except if any resolution is delivered to the Commissioner by any member of the Corporation at least forty-eight hours before the time fixed for the meeting [Section 53]. Besides, any Councillor may give notice (signed by at least two other elected members) of raising discussion on a matter of urgent public importance to the Secretary at least forty-eight hours before the date on which such discussion is sought. The latter shall place it before the Chairman (or the Presiding Officers in absence of the Chairman) and circulate the same among the members [Section 56]. The quorum at the meeting of the Corporation is one-third of the total members of BOC and its absence, the meeting is adjourned or suspended until there is a quorum [Section 4].

A Councillor may ask not more than two questions on any matter relating to the administration of the Corporation and the Mayor or any member of the MIC shall answer all such questions [Section 57]. Besides, Section 58 provides that any Councillor may ask for a statement from the MIC on an urgent matter relating to the administration of the Corporation by giving a notice to the Secretary at least one hour before the commencement of the sitting on any day. The Mayor or any member of the MIC may make a brief statement on the same day or fix a date for the same.

Minutes of the proceedings of each meeting of the Corporation shall be circulated to each member of the Corporation and the minutes of a meeting are confirmed at the subsequent meeting [Section 59(1)&(2)]. The WBMC Act, 2006 lays down that minutes shall be made available to any person on payment of such fee as the Corporation may determine [Section 59(1)].

Leader of the Opposition – Section 15 of the WBMC Act, 2006 provides that there shall be a leader of the Opposition in a Corporation, who shall be a Councillor and who is, for the time being, the Leader of the recognized political

party in opposition in the Corporation, having regard to the greatest numerical strength and recognized as such by the Mayor. However, if there are two or more parties in opposition in the Corporation having the same numerical strength, the Mayor recognizes the Leader of the Opposition considering the status of the political parties and such decision of the Mayor is final and conclusive.

4.2.2 Control of the State Government over SMC

The State Government can dissolve the Corporation basically on three grounds – (a) incompetence; (b) persistent default in the performance of duties or in the exercise of functions imposed on it by or under the WBMC Act, 2006 or any other law; and (c) exceeding or abusing its powers. However, before making such dissolution, a notice has to be served to the Corporation specifying therein a period within which the Corporation may submit representation against the proposed order of dissolution. As such, the State Government provides a reasonable opportunity to the Corporation of being heard [Section 60(1)&(2)]. With such dissolution all members of the Corporation, the MIC and any Committee shall vacate their respective offices and their powers and duties shall be exercised or performed by such person or persons as the State Government may appoint and subject to the direction by the State Government [Section 61(1)].

4.2.3 Sections / Departments of Siliguri Municipal Corporation

The administration of the Corporation is conducted and various civic services are provided through twenty-five sections/departments. However, for the purpose of the present study, the following departments require brief description :

Public Works Department – This Department is responsible for the execution of developmental schemes and projects like construction and maintenance of houses and buildings, roads, bridges, culverts, drains, parks and gardens. These are funded under general fund as well as Government-sponsored schemes like IHSDP, UIDSSMT, BRGF. These developmental schemes also include funding under SJDA, UUP, MPLAD, BEUP, etc.

Conservancy, Sanitation, Public Health and Environment Department – This Department is responsible for (i) sweeping of streets; (ii) drain cleaning including high drains; (iii) house-to-house collection of segregated waste; (iv)

collection, transportation and disposal of garbage; (v) anti-mosquito measures like fogging/MLO spraying; (vi) removal of unauthorized khatalas; (vii) cleaning of rivers; (viii) awareness against unauthorized plastic carry bag; (ix) food inspection and sampling work as well as regular inspection of markets, nursing homes, hotels, sweetshops, meat shop, etc.; and (x) observance of World Environment Day.

Water Supply Section – This Section looks after (i) implementation of water supply projects and schemes and operation and maintenance of water supply through PHED; (ii) house connection of drinking water supply; and (iii) collection of water charges.

Urban Poverty Eradication Cell and Urban Poverty Alleviation and Livelihood Cell – Reduction of poverty and ultimate eradication of poverty within SMC area are managed by these two Cells. The former Cell implements various Government-sponsored schemes as well as schemes initiated by Corporation itself. Some of the Government-sponsored schemes are SJSRY, NSAP, NFBS, JSY, MDM Programme, etc. Besides these, the SMC itself carries out social welfare schemes like old age pension, assistance to the differently-abled persons, providing rice to the poor persons, etc. out of its own resources.

The latter Cell has been formed under “National Strategy for Urban Poor and Urban Development” in December, 2007. The main responsibility of this Cell is to find out the critical gaps of the various schemes and policies of urban development. Such insight would help in understanding urban poverty and urban livelihood issues better. Ultimately, these would provide a base for strengthening the local capacities with the aim of sustainable socio-economic growth and improvement in the provision of basic urban services through community-owned and managed participating process.

Besides the above two Cells, mention may be made of Health Department and IPP VIII (Extension) Project Department, both of which primarily cater to the health needs of the urban poor of Siliguri. The former organizes regular immunization programmes; health check up camps, particularly in Harizan colonies; training and awareness programmes on various diseases and health issues; distribution of Vitamin-A Oil, ORS, etc., particularly in slum based wards; observance of important health related days, etc. The IPP VIII (Extension) Project started in Siliguri in 2000 with the financial assistance of World Bank and such assistance is being provided through Kolkata Urban Services for the Poor (KUSP). Under the Project, necessary health care services are provided to the patients

belonging to BPL families (also to APL families at nominal charges) through Maternity Home cum OPD (Matrisadan) situated in Ward No. 23, eight health posts and sixty-one sub-health posts in different areas populated by economically weaker sections.

Moreover, there is a Self Employment Section which deals with assisting unemployed youths to undertake self-employment schemes through the concerned departments like Youth Services Department, SC/ST Development and Finance Corporation, District Industries Centre, etc. Further, the Education and Culture Section deals with the implementation of schemes and programmes under Sarva Shiksha Mission.

License Section – Besides trade licenses, this section grants licences for rickshaws, vans, advertisements, hoardings and parkings.

Besides the above sections which owe direct relevance to the issues under study, the other sections/departments of the SMC, too, have their role to play in one way or the other, namely, General Department, Establishment Department, Accounts Department, Collection Department, Registration of Births & Deaths Department, Law Section, Census & GIS Section, Vehicle Section, Electricity Department, Purchase Section, Assessment and Review Section, Market Section, Guest House Booking Section and above all Draft Development Plan Section.

However, at the time when environmental and sustainable development is the buzz word, the presence of any exclusive section/department on urban or social forestry is conspicuous by its absence in the SMC. Though PWD of the SMC looks after the construction of parks in different wards of the city, the efforts towards social forestry along streets suffer from adhocism. Besides, there is utter lack of post-plantation maintenance, resulting in either death or improper growth of the street side trees. Absence of any planned and concerted effort towards social forestry has its tremendous bearing on air, noise and visual pollution of Siliguri. The urgent need, thus, is to have a separate department/section on social/urban forestry under the establishment of SMC.

4.2.4 Finacial Status of Siliguri Municipal Corporation

Table 4.3 lays down income-expenditure pattern of SMC since its elevation to the status of a Corporation.

Table 4.3. Statement Showing Income-Expenditure Pattern of SMC since its conversion to Corporation from Municipality in 1994

Sl. No.	Year	Total Receipts (Revenue Receipts+Capital Receipts) Rs. in Lakhs	Total Expenditure (Revenue Expenditure+ Capital Expenditure) Rs. in Lakhs	Yearly Growth Rate in Receipts (%)	Yearly Growth Rate in Expenditures (%)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	1994-1995	NA	NA	NA	NA
2.	1995-1996	1077.00	1015.72	-	-
3.	1996-1997	1684.99	1921.82	56.45	89.21
4.	1997-1998	1947.32	1963.37	15.57	2.16
5.	1998-1999	2526.98	2469.35	29.77	25.77
6.	1999-2000	2746.71	2679.29	8.70	8.50
7.	2000-2001	2909.03	2859.36	5.90	6.72
8.	2001-2002	2948.41	2635.96	1.35	-7.81
9.	2002-2003	2773.00	2613.00	-5.95	-0.87
10.	2003-2004	2206.40	2206.28	-20.43	-15.57
11.	2004-2005	2741.08	2740.94	24.23	24.23
12.	2005-2006	2394.56	2377.97	-12.64	-13.24
13.	2006-2007	3510.46	3273.29	46.60	37.65
14.	2007-2008	7477.77	5229.07	113.01	59.75
15.	2008-2009	7088.39	7037.44	-5.21	34.58
16.	2009-2010 *	8870.60	8873.75	25.14	26.09
17.	2010-2011 **	18123.88	18288.45	104.31	106.10

*Revised Budget Estimate

**Proposed Budget Estimate

NA means Not Available with the Researcher

Sources : (a) Figures of Receipts and Expenditures for the Financial Year 1995-96,1996-97,1997-98,1998-99,1999-2000,2000-01 and 2001-02 – Perspective Plan 2025, Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area, SJDA, Vol.I, February, 2004.

(b) Figures of Receipts and Expenditures for the Financial Year 2002-03,2003-04,2004-05 and 2005-06 – District Statistical Handbook, Darjeeling, 2007, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Govt. of West Bengal.

(c) Figures of Receipts and Expenditures for the Financial Year 2006-07 and 2007-08 – Municipal Statistics 2006-07, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Govt. of West Bengal and Municipal Statistics 2007-08, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Govt. of West Bengal respectively.

(d) Figures of Receipts and Expenditures for the Financial Year 2008-09,2009-10(Revised Estimate) and 2010-11(Proposed) – Statement on Budget, 2010-11, Siliguri Municipal Corporation.

**Table 4.4. Statement Showing Income of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation
during the Financial Years 2004-05; 2005-06; 2006-07; and 2007-08**

(Figures in Rs. Lakhs)

Sl. No. (1)	Heads of Receipts (2)		2004-05 (3)	2005-06 (4)	2006-07 (5)	2007-08 (6)
1.	Municipal Rates and Taxes	Taxes on Houses & Lands	402.96	368.50	359.76	394.57
		Taxes on Animals and Vehicles	6.67	NA	6.28	6.75
		Taxes on Profession & Trade	38.42	NA	49.94	46.55
		Water Rate	22.65	NA	100.51	96.79
		Others*	10.41	87.47	31.59	36.85
Total Rates & Taxes (A)			481.11	455.97	548.08	581.01
2.	Realisation under Special Act (B)		—	—	725.56	4.57
3.	Non-Tax Revenue	Rents of Lands & Houses	42.13	NA	36.24	24.75
		Sale Proceeds of Land & Produce of Lands	27.05	NA	—	19.05
		Fees & Revenues from Markets and Slaughter Houses	21.05	NA	23.37	—
		From Burning Ghats & Burial Grounds	10.92	NA	11.98	12.19
		Others**	259.36	NA	73.57	614.52
Total Non-Tax Revenue (C)			360.51	538.63	145.16	670.51
4.	Grants & Contributions	From Government	721.80	712.18	1804.66	6065.30
		From Local Fund	90.78	NA	39.12	2.84
		From Other Sources	—	NA	197.88	77.42
Total Grants & Contributions (D)			812.58	NA	2041.66	6145.56
5.	Miscellaneous Income (E)		1063.18	NA	—	1.50
6.	Total Ordinary Income (F) = (A+B+C+D+E)		2717.38	NA	3460.46	7403.15
7.	Extraordinary Income & Debt	Loans	—	NA	—	—
		Advances	—	NA	—	1.56
		Deposits	—	NA	—	18.00
		Others***	—	NA	50.00	55.06
Total Extraordinary Income & Debt (G)			—	NA	50.00	74.62

8.	Total Receipts Excluding Opening Balance (H) = (F+G)	2717.38	2394.56	3510.46	7477.77
9.	Opening Balance (I)	477.97	524.86	566.72	803.94
10.	Total Income Including Opening Balance (H+I)	3195.35	2919.42	4077.18	8281.71

*Other Rates & Taxes include Lighting Rate, Conservancy (including Scavengi, Taxes on Persons, Miscellaneous Receipts & Penalties, and any other Receipts.

** Other Non-Tax Revenue includes Conservancy Receipts other than Taxes & Rates, Fees & Revenue from Educational & Medical Institutions, Tramways, Fines, Interest on Investments, Premium of Loans

*** Others includes Sale Proceeds of Government Securities and Withdrawal from Savings Banks, raised in open market

'_' means Nil

'NA' means not available with the Researcher

Sources : (a) Municipal Statistics, 2004-05, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(b)(i) Revenue Income & Revenue Expenditure for 2005-06, DLB, MoMA, Govt. of West Bengal

(ii) Total Receipts, 2005-06, District Statistical Handbook, Darjeeling, 2007, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(c) Municipal Statistics, 2006-07, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(d) Municipal Statistics, 2007-08, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

Table 4.5. Statement showing Expenditure of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation for the Financial Years 2004-05; 2005-06; 2006-07; and 2007-08

(Figures in Rs. Lakhs)

Sl. No. (1)	Heads of Expenditure (2)		2004-2005 (3)	2005-2006 (4)	2006-2007 (5)	2007-2008 (6)
1	General Administration & Collection Charges	General Administration	185.62		199.88	401.15
		Collection of Taxes including bonded ware houses	64.90	-	59.67	58.24
		Pension & Gratuities	80.02	-	108.36	106.44
		Others*	-	-	-	5.94
	Total of General Administration & Collection Charges (A)		330.54	-	367.91	571.77
2	Public Safety	Lighting	131.79	-	191.46	209.06
	Total of Public Safety (B)		131.79	-	191.46	209.06
3	Public Health & Convenience	Water Supply (Capital Outlay & Establishment, Repairs, etc.)	177.61	-	251.17	1305.89
		Drainage (Capital Outlay & Establishment, Repairs, etc.)	174.22	-	247.23	370.24
		Conservancy	592.51	-	805.60	913.92
		Charges on Hospitals, Dispensaries, Vaccination & Other Sanitary Requirements)	-	-	135.25	68.96
		Markets & Slaughter Houses)	66.12	-	44.04	21.65
		Registration of Births & Deaths	4.45	-	5.04	6.24
		Public Works (Construction of Roads, Buildings, Stores & Establishment)	1069.28	-	842.62	1670.14
		Others**	-	-	60.40	52.92
Total of Public Health & Convenience (C)		2084.19	-	2391.35	4409.96	
	Public Instruction	Expenses on Schools & Colleges	76.64	-	234.45	164.61

4		Others***	—	-	—	—
	Total of Public Instruction (D)		76.64	-	234.45	164.61
5	Contribution for General Purpose, Hospitals & Museums (E)		—	-	—	27.02
6	Miscellaneous	Provident Fund	—		—	—
		Burning Ghat & Burial Ground Charges	8.33		9.50	11.82
		Others****	39.00		38.37	70.37
	Total of Miscellaneous (F)		47.33		47.87	82.19
7	Total Ordinary Expenditure (G) = (A+B+C+D+E+F)		2670.49		3233.04	5464.61
8	Extraordinary Expenditure & Debt Investment, Repayment of Loans, Deposits & Others (H)		—		40.20	264.46
9	Total Disbursement (G+H)		2670.49	2377.97	3273.24	5729.07
10	Total Income (Including Opening Balance)		3195.35		4077.18	8281.71
11	Balance in Hand (Total Income – Total Expenditure)		524.86		803.94	2552.64

*Others include Survey of Land & Refund (Other than Octroi)

**Others include Ponds, Public Gardens, Veterinary Charges, etc.

***Others include Contribution of Sports, Libraries, Civic Reception, Advertisement

****Others include Printing, Law Charges, Election Charges, Disposal of Pauper & Dead Bodies

'_ ' means Nil

NA means Not Available with the Researcher

Sources : (a) Municipal Statistics, 2004-05, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(b)(i) Revenue Income & Revenue Expenditure for 2005-06, DLB, MoMA, Govt. of West Bengal

(ii) Total Receipts, 2005-06, District Statistical Handbook, Darjeeling, 2007, Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(c) Municipal Statistics, 2006-07, Bureau of Applied Economic & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(d) Municipal Statistics, 2007-08, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

Table 4.6. Statement Showing Income (Revenue and Capital Accounts) of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation during the Financial Years 2008-09 (Actuals); 2009-10 (Actuals up to Dec. 2009); 2009-10 (Budgets Estimates); 2009-10 (Revised); 2010-11 (Proposed)

Sl. No.	Heads of Receipts	Actual Receipts, 2008-09	Actual Receipts for 9 months, 2009-10	Budget Estimates, 2009-10	Revised Budget Estimates, 2009-10	Proposed Budget Estimates, 2010-11
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Revenue Accounts					
1A	Own Source					
1Ai	Tax revenue	54,102,051	42,557,731	103,601,000	53,350,000	116,301,000
1Aii	Non Tax Revenue	78,179,307	53,301,194	110,760,000	69,968,000	139,125,000
	Total of 1A	132,281,358	95,858,925	214,361,000	123,318,000	255,426,000
1B	Government Sources					
1Bi	Share Taxes	24,752,000	11,050,000	30,000,000	20,510,000	32,500,000
1Bii	General Grants	95,802,314	134,885,590	175,116,000	205,191,000	282,024,000
	Total of 1B	120,554,314	145,935,590	205,116,000	225,701,000	314,524,000
1C	Other Sources	29,674,637	16,475,922	26,800,000	22,738,000	26,035,000
	Total of (1A+1B+1C)	282,510,309	258,270,437	446,277,000	371,757,000	595,985,000
2	Capital Accounts					
2A	Own Sources	15,666,840	266,071	83,623,000	8,650,000	56,953,000
2B	Government Grants	252,037,348	332,906,539	799,059,000	438,483,500	857,700,000
2C	Other Govt. Grants	34,087,090	12,000,000	177,140,000	19,500,000	77,500,000
2D	Grants & Contr. from Dev. Auth.	15,102,953	40,504,207	111,470,000	47,170,000	100,250,000
2E	Contr. from Other Sources	4,325,000	1,150,552	6,200,000	1,500,000	8,500,000
	Total of 2A to 2E	321,219,231	386,827,369	1,177,492,000	515,303,500	1,100,903,000
3	Extraordinary and Debt					
3A	Loan Account	524,445	0	2,500,000	0	22,500,000
3B	Encashment of Invest./Withdrawal from Bank Dep.	104,585,450	0	0	0	93,000,000
	Total of 3A & 3B	105,109,895	0	2,500,000	0	115,500,000
4	Grand Total of Income (1+2+3)	708,839,435	645,097,806	1,626,269,000	887,060,500	1,812,388,000

Source : SMC Budget, 2010-11

**Table 4.7. Statement Showing Expenditure (Revenue and Capital) of the
Siliguri Municipal Corporation during the Financial Years 2008-09 (Actuals);
2009-10 (Actuals up to Dec. 2009); 2009-10 (Budget Estimates); 2009-10
(Revised); 2010-11 (Proposed)**

Sl. No. (1)	Heads of Expenditure (2)	2008-2009 (Actuals) (3)	2009-2010 (Actuals up to Dec. 2009) (4)	2009-2010 (Budget Estimates) (5)	2009-2010 (Revised Estimates) (6)	2010-2011 (Proposed Estimates) (7)
1	Gen. Adm.&Fin.	65,087,877	65,935,088	144,726,000	95,006,000	153,588,000
2	Collection	5,787,095	5,308,340	8,167,000	6,840,000	8,775,000
3	Street Light	38,742,418	26,855,526	64,515,000	37,494,000	61,196,000
4	Public Works	210,849,194	137,263,857	351,322,000	227,197,000	378,322,000
5	Conservancy	103,401,868	91,732,627	141,100,000	128,741,000	171,556,000
6	Edu.&Culture	17,796,836	13,439,560	39,339,000	28,434,000	41,707,000
7	UPE&Slum Impr.	138,582,365	128,441,277	532,591,000	214,335,000	566,936,000
8	Water Supply	85,616,896	70,523,459	272,200,000	109,654,000	365,736,000
9	Market	3,012,772	2,628,551	6,505,000	3,486,000	6,480,000
10	Health&Sanitation	12,124,351	9,310,071	23,660,000	14,880,000	26,415,000
11	Assessment	657,295	424,463	968,000	701,000	1,435,000
12	Guest House	5,943,881	1,175,234	6,352,000	1,790,000	11,176,000
13	Birth&Death	725,243	1,371,521	934,000	1,917,000	2,198,000
14	License	1,063,712	892,041	1,370,000	1,163,000	1,410,000
15	IPP-VIII	10,781,018	8,818,090	22,670,000	12,425,000	17,500,000
16	Sports	888,645	1,269,312	7,810,000	2,110,000	5,915,000
17	Literacy	1,912,402	572,837	4,800,000	645,000	1,570,000
18	Indoor Stadium	770,734	334,581	1,685,000	557,000	2,910,000
19	Extraord.&Debt	0	0	0	0	4,020,000
TOTAL		703,744,602	566,296,435	1,630,714,000	887,375,000	1,828,845,000

Source : SMC Budget, 2010-11

Table 4.8. Statement Showing Population, Number of Rate Payers and Percentage of Rate Payers to Population in SMC and West Bengal (excluding KMC)

Sl. No.	Particulars	2004-2005		2006-07		2007-08	
		SMC	All ULBs of WB	SMC	All ULBs of WB	SMC	All ULBs of WB
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1	Population (As per 2001 Census)	284602*/ 472370	14727155	472370	14914983	472370	14914983
2	No. of Rate Pay	86125	2013973	70000	2207199	66000	2161338
3	% of Rate Payers to Total Population	30.26**/ 18.23	13.68	14.82	14.80	13.97	14.71

Sources : (a) Municipal Statistics, 2004-05, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(b) Municipal Statistics, 2006-07, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(c) Municipal Statistics, 2007-08, Bureau of Applied Economics & Statistics, Government of West Bengal

(*&**Discrepancy in figures : In all possibility, the figures of population of SMC laid is faulty. Probably, the population figure of 14 wards which falls in Jalpaiguri has not been included. Based on the actual figure of 472370, the percentage of rate payers to total population would come to 18.23. As such, the percentage of rate payers to total population is wrong. However, in terms of total no. of rate payers, it may be correct.)

On analyzing the figures of the receipts and expenditures of Siliguri Municipal Corporation, one comes across few noticeable things. First of all, the growth pattern of the total receipts of SMC since its inception as a Corporation as laid down in Table No. 4.3 provides a fluctuating trend. One may notice high rises in some financial years and may observe nose diving in some of the financial years. This is obviously not the case of efficiency or inefficiency of the personnel of the SMC as the tables thereafter show a more or less smooth upward movement as far as revenue receipts from own sources are concerned. There seems to be no trend of any radical transformation in the work culture as far as collection of different tax, rates, charges, fees, etc. is concerned, in particular, the property tax which forms the major share in the revenue receipts from own sources of the SMC. This gets corroborated from the amount of arrears accumulating with respect to property tax. The available figures of the financial years 2007-08 and 2008-09 show that arrears on property tax were Rs. 71,291,411 and Rs. 74,990,666

respectively and the consequence of demand on property tax far exceeding the collection is the cumulative accumulation of arrears with every passing year. The more or less similar scenario can be witnessed with regard to other rates, fees, charges, etc. Taking clue from this, one may safely say that the rise and fall in the annual growth rate of the receipts of SMC get squarely integrated with the launch of new government sponsored schemes, such as, NSDP, SJSRY, VAMBAY, IHSDP, UIDSSMT, etc. Whenever assistance from such programmes have stopped due to the end of the programme itself or its merger with other programmes or whenever assistance have been less, the growth rates of receipts of SMC have suffered. One may take note of negative growth rates at least on four occasions in this regard which amply drive the point home.

Another problem witnessed in case of proposed budget estimates of Siliguri Municipal Corporation is that they have been highly inflated budgets without taking into account the real considerations from the past experiences. If the last two budgets of 2008-09 and 2009-2010 in the following column diagrams are observed, one may come across this aspect.

Figure 4.2.i

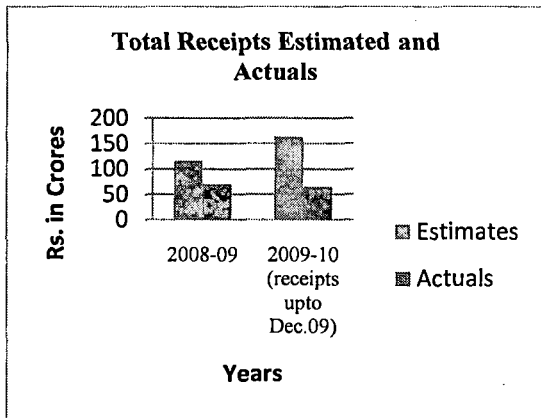
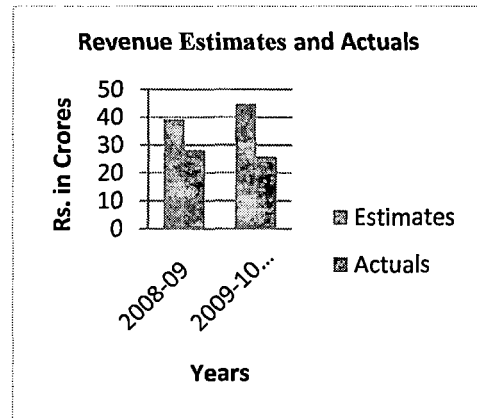


Figure 4.2.ii



Thus, from the columns above, it becomes clear that the percentage of total receipts as to the estimates in the financial years 2008-09 and 2009-10 (receipts up to Dec. 2009) were an abysmal 61.43% and 39.67%. If we consider the revenue receipts, they come to about 72.08% and 57.88%. This proves beyond doubt that the estimated capital receipts could not be garnered as expected. The obvious reason for this anomaly in capital receipts is the dependence on and mercy of the State and Central Governments as well as other financial institutions. The only way

out, then, seems to be the concerted efforts on the part of SMC to increase revenue receipts from its own sources. There may be three ways in this regard : (i) solemn effort for the collection of arrears; (ii) judicious increase in various taxes, charges, rates, fees, etc. to meet the costs of investment, operation and maintenance; and (iii) to find out newer ways and means of increasing revenue receipts from own sources.

The present budget (2010-2011) is, as usual, devoid of any innovative vision as far as augmentation of the own finances is concerned, despite laying down tall promises in all aspects of public life of Siliguri. Further, it is not free from populism, despite realization of the grave financial crisis SMC is undergoing. It is worthy here to lay down few lines from the budget speech (2010-2011) of the Mayor in this regard. She maintains at one place, “.....Though the total project cost of the schemes taken up under the Central and State assistance like IHSDP, UIDSSMT and other projects have increased considerably, total allocation has not yet been increased and therefore it is difficult to complete these projects....During the current financial year the salary and wages of the employees and workers of the Corporation has been increased due to implementation of the recommendation of the 5th Pay Commission but income of this Corporation has not been increased to meet additional financial liabilities....Expenditure of this Corporation has been increased remarkably due to rise of rate of energy bill and in other major heads Collection from property tax (which was fixed during General Assessment of Holdings in the year 1997-98) has remained unchanged. The valuation and assessment of property tax in respect of the new Buildings & Commercial Complexes which have come up in the intervening period has not been done and as a result collection of property tax from those holdings have not been possible & income from property tax in the last few years has remained almost same.....Moreover, we have taken the liability of Rs. 16 crores (approx.) to meet earlier dues.”

Despite highlighting the above problems with regard to financial situation of SMC, the Mayor in the next section of the speech mentions, “....No additional property tax burden to the rate payers in the next financial year 2010-2011. We shall lay emphasis for tax restructuring and realization of arrear dues”. This kind of populist strategy seems obvious for political reasons. But, nowhere in the budget has been detailed out as to how to restructure the tax structure and how to realize arrear dues. Notwithstanding, the Mayor in the subsequent sections of her speech

announces a host of welfare activities and developmental schemes for the citizens of Siliguri. It is astonishing, then, as to how to reconcile and judiciously blend the grave financial situation and populist measures on the one hand and the developmental aspects of Siliguri on the other. Under the circumstances, it would not be surprising if the present proposed budget receipts of about Rs. 181.23 Crores would meet the similar fate as those of the earlier budget estimates.

It is apt here to quote Pardeep Sachdeva (1993) who specifically deals with the acute scarcity of finance facing the urban local bodies, besides other aspects. He says, "Generally, their sources of income are inadequate as compared to their functions. Their chief sources of income are the varied types of taxes. However, most of the income generating taxes are levied by the Union and State governments and the taxes collected by the urban bodies are not sufficient to cover the expenses of the services provided. Though they can impose certain new taxes, the elected members of these urban bodies hesitate in doing so for fear of displeasing their electorate. The administrative machinery, at the disposal of these local bodies, is insufficient and ineffective. The staff, which is often underpaid, indulges in corrupt practices which lead to loss of income. Quite often, failure in collecting taxes leads to accumulation of areas running into crores of rupees. As a result, many urban bodies are on the brink of bankruptcy.....Many civic bodies have not been able to provide even the basic civic amenities in the areas which have been included in their jurisdiction during the last couple of decades" .

One aspect is unique as far as the attitude of local media as well as the common psychology of the people is concerned. Media, in general, highlight and give more space to the budget estimates proposed every financial year and people, too, seem to be more concerned with the promises made in the budgets. Hardly, the print and the visual media give serious attention to the question of whether or not the proposed budget estimates were realized and if not, what were the gaps. Critical evaluation by the media of the actual situation after the end of every financial year should be seriously promoted for the knowledge and concern of the common citizens of Siliguri. Such limitation on the part of the media gives ample scope to the Corporation to present unrealistic budgets without attracting criticisms.

4.2.5 Borough Committees and Ward Committees

Section 22 of the WBMC Act, 2006 (earlier Section 11 of the repealed Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990) enjoins upon the Siliguri Municipal Corporation to constitute a Borough Committee for each Borough which shall consists of not less than six contiguous Wards. The Councillors of the Ward constituting the Borough shall be the members of the Borough Committee and they shall choose among themselves a Chairman/Chairperson, the latter being not a member of the Mayor-in-Council or the Chairman of the Corporation. As per provision of the Act, five Boroughs have been formed grouping contiguous Wards under the SMC.

The purpose of formation of the Borough Committees is to decentralize the functions of the Corporation and establish an intermediary structure between the Ward and the Corporation. The Borough Committees under the SMC provides civic services to the citizens like collection and removal of garbage, removal of accumulated water on the streets and public places, connection, collection and supervision of water supply, street lights, health immunization services, implementation of mid-day meal, old age pensions and other schemes, collection of property tax and other functions as assigned by the Corporation through regulations. The Borough Committees functions under the general supervision and control of the Corporation.

Ward Committees are formed under Section 23 of the WBMC Act, 2006 (earlier Section 11A of the repealed Siliguri Municipal Corporation Act, 1990). Though constitution of Ward Committees has been an essential and regular feature under SMC, it is strange that under the new board, constituted in October, 2009, was not able to form Ward Committees in most of the total of 47 Wards till November, 2010. As such, in many of the Wards, the earlier Ward Committees are carrying out the functions. The Ward Committee consists of the elected Ward Councillor of the Ward as Chairperson and other members

BOX 4.1: WARDS UNDER THE BOROUGH COMMITTEES

Borough No. I – Wards 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 45, 46 & 47

Borough No. II – Wards 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 & 15

Borough No. III – Wards 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 & 28

Borough No. IV – Wards 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 & 35

Borough No. V – Wards 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44

nominated by the Councillor and the Corporation ranging from 4 to 14 depending upon the population of the Ward.

The Ward Committee functions under the general supervision and control of the respective Borough Committee/SMC and helps the Borough Committee/SMC in identifying the problems of the Ward, fixation of priority of problems so identified, monitoring the proper execution of the works, motivating the people of the Ward in the matter of the payment of taxes, rates and charges, organization of greater civic participation by holding periodical meetings, etc.

The Borough Committees and Ward Committees seek to promote the vision of the Municipal Affairs Department of West Bengal which lays down as thus, "The emphasis of the state's urban development policy has been laid to create a livable, responsive, transparent, dynamic, environmentally balanced and investment friendly municipal system".

4.2.6 Siliguri-Jalpaiguri Development Authority

Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority was established under the West Bengal Town and Country (Planning and Development) Act, 1979 on 1st April, 1980. The earlier Siliguri Planning Organisation (SPO) got subsumed into this newly formed SJDA. The planning and development activities of SJDA cover Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area (SJPA) and is spread over Siliguri, Jalpaiguri, Naxalbari and Phansidewa. However, due to its unique geographical location, Siliguri has been the focal point of the SJDA. The latter prepared an 'Outline Development Plan' in 1986 for 260 sq. km. of the SJDA's area (about 22.47 % of the Authority's area) which included the whole of 15.5 sq. km. of the Siliguri Municipality. This plan got the approval of the State Government under section 36(1) of the T&CP Act in 1991. In 1994, Siliguri Municipal Corporation and SJDA jointly brought out an 'Approach Paper' on urban development of Siliguri. This paper highlighted the need for 6,100 new residential units every year to meet the problems of housing in the city. However, it failed to identify the areas where such complexes would come up as well as for which income-group such complexes would be constructed.

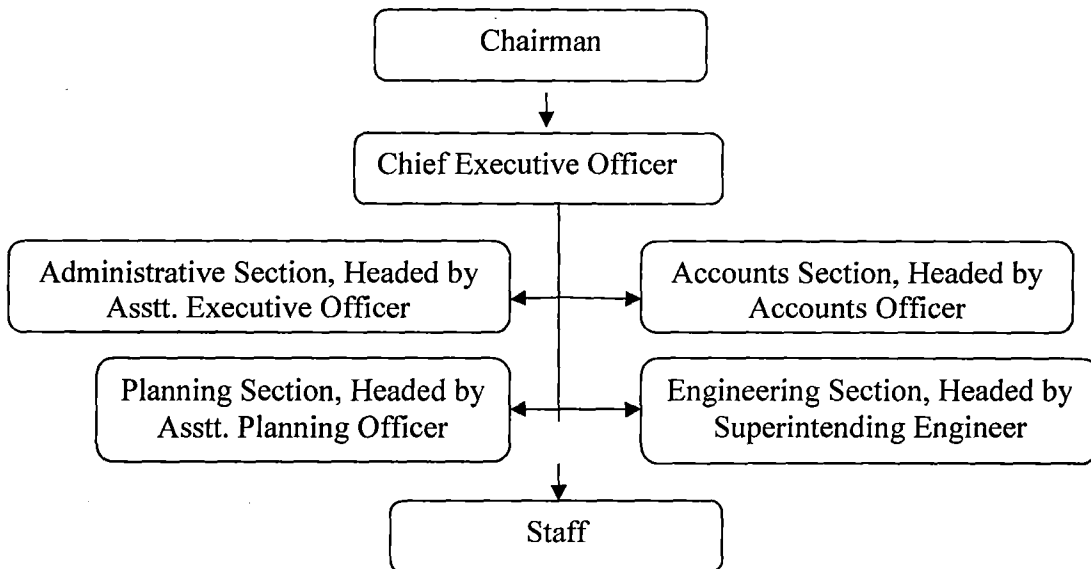
Finally, SJDA came up with the 'Perspective Plan 2025 : Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area' in February, 2004. The effort of such plan was initiated in May, 2002 and the task of the preparation of the plan was given to the Department of

Architecture and Regional Planning, I.I.T., Kharagpur. The project was funded by UNICEF. The vision of the Plan as laid down reads thus, “.....There will be improved infrastructure and services, shelter for all, health and hygiene along with social amenities, encouraging the development of the body and the mind within an ecologically sustainable framework.”(SJDA 2004 : xiii)

SJDA, a statutory body under the West Bengal Town and Country (Planning & Development) Act, 1979, derives its powers and functions from Section 13(1)(ii) of the said Act. The main powers and functions of SJDA are :

- (i) to prepare a Land Use Map;
- (ii) to prepare and enforce an Outline Development Plan;
- (iii) to prepare and execute development schemes;
- (iv) to co-ordinate development activities of all Departments and agencies of the State Government or local authorities within the Planning Area;
- (v) to carry out such works as are contemplated in the Development Plans;
- (vi) to acquire, hold and manage such property, both movable and immovable, as the Development Authority may deem necessary for the purposes of any of its activities and to lease, sell or otherwise transfer any property held by it;
- (vii) to purchase by agreement or to take on lease or under any form of tenancy, any land and to erect thereon such buildings and to carry out such operations as maybe necessary for the purposes of carrying on its undertakings;
- (viii) to enter into and perform such contracts as may be necessary for the performance of its duties and for exercise of its powers under this Act;
- (ix) to provide facilities for the consignment, storage and delivery of goods;
- (x) to perform any other function which is supplemental, incidental and consequential to any of the functions aforesaid or which may be prescribed.

Figure 4.3 : Organizational Structure of SJDA



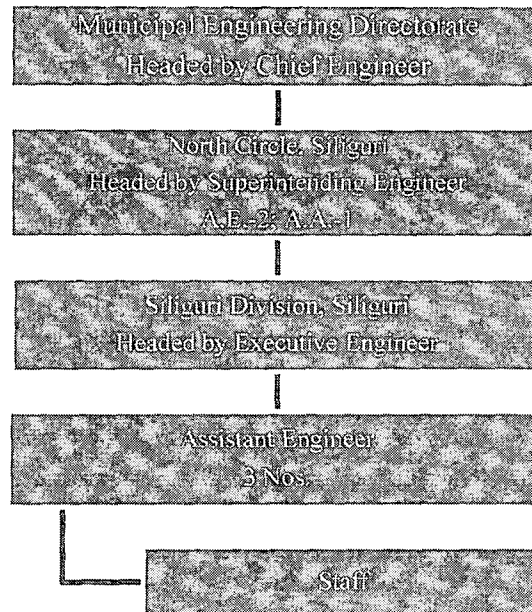
4.2.7 Municipal Engineering Directorate, Siliguri Division

It was in 1978 that the State Government decided to transfer the Municipal Engineering Stream of the T&CP department to the Local Government and Urban Development Department. In 1981, this Cell under the latter Department was reconstituted as a full-fledged Directorate, namely, Municipal Engineering Directorate (MED). The Siliguri Division of this Directorate provides technical assistance to the Siliguri Municipal Corporation with respect to planning, execution and monitoring of various developmental programmes within the SMC area. The main functions of the Siliguri Division, MED are :

- (i) to prepare of base maps and contour maps of the SMC area;
- (ii) to prepare of Master Plan as well as short and long term development plans;
- (iii) to render all types of technical assistance to the SMC with regard to planning, execution and monitoring of drainage system, solid waste management scheme, sewerage scheme and other development schemes under the Central and State Governments and under foreign assistance;
- (iv) to undertake surveys;
- (v) to approve high rise buildings above 13.5 meters within SMC area.

The organizational structure of the MED is as follows :

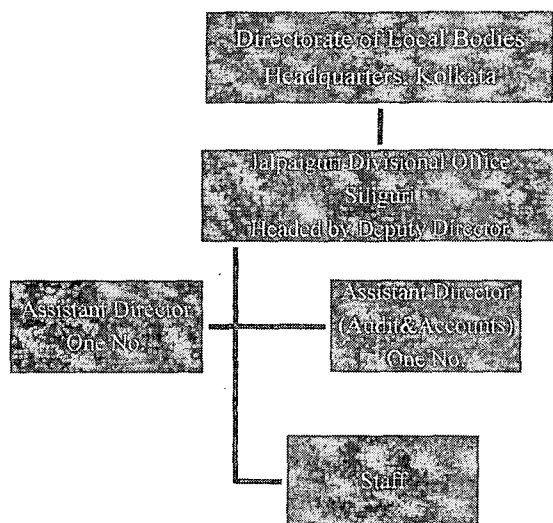
Figure 4.4 : Organizational Structure of MED



4.2.8 Directorate of Local Bodies, Siliguri Division

The Directorate was set up in 1978 for the purpose of performance of the functions like overseeing the working of the municipal bodies; analyzing their budgets; assessing their fund requirement; undertaking regular inspection and evaluation of the progress of the ongoing schemes; collecting and compiling staff statistics; collecting and compiling figures relating to demand and collection of property tax; examining the statutory reports like budget, annual administration report, annual financial statement, etc.; enquiring various complaints and allegations related to the ULBs; monitoring DFID assisted KUSP project under the guidance of CMU; dealing court cases pertaining to all matters of ULBs; preparation of various statistical documents; and performing general counseling wherever needed. The organizational structure of the Directorate is as follows :

Figure 4.5 : Organizational Structure of DLB, Jalpaiguri Divisional Office, Siliguri



4.2.9 WBPCB, Siliguri Regional Office

The West Bengal Pollution Control Board was constituted in 1974 and is responsible for implementing a series of environmental Acts and Rules, such as, The Water (Prevention and Control) of Pollution Act, 1974; The Air (Prevention and Control) of Pollution Act, 1981; The Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 and amendments and several Rules made there under; The West Bengal ground Water Resources (Management, Control and Regulation) Act, 2005; The West Bengal Trees (Protection and Conservation in Non-Forest Areas) Act, 2006; etc.

The main functions and responsibilities of the WBPCB are : (i) to plan comprehensive programme for, to advice the State Government on, to collect and disseminate information relating to, and to conduct and promote research relating to water and air pollution; (ii) to inspect sewage or trade effluents and to lay down specifications on sewage plants and water treatment plants; (iii) to evolve economical and reliable methods of treatment of sewage and trade effluents; (iv) to inspect whenever necessary industrial plants and manufacturing process; (v) to collaborate with CPCB in organizing training programmes and mass education programmes on water and air pollution; (vi) to control pollution in 17 categories of

highly polluting industries; (vii) to prepare inventorization of polluting industries; (viii) to manage municipal solid waste as well as bio-medical, plastic and hazardous wastes; (ix) to provide consent to establish, consent to operate and authorization for management of different types of wastes; and (x) to perform all other functions as may be prescribed by the CPCB or the State Government.

The Regional Office of WBPCB, Siliguri was established in January, 1998 to perform the above functions within its jurisdiction. The Organizational Chart of the Siliguri R.O. is as under:

Figure 4.6 : Organizational Structure of WBPCB, Siliguri R.O.

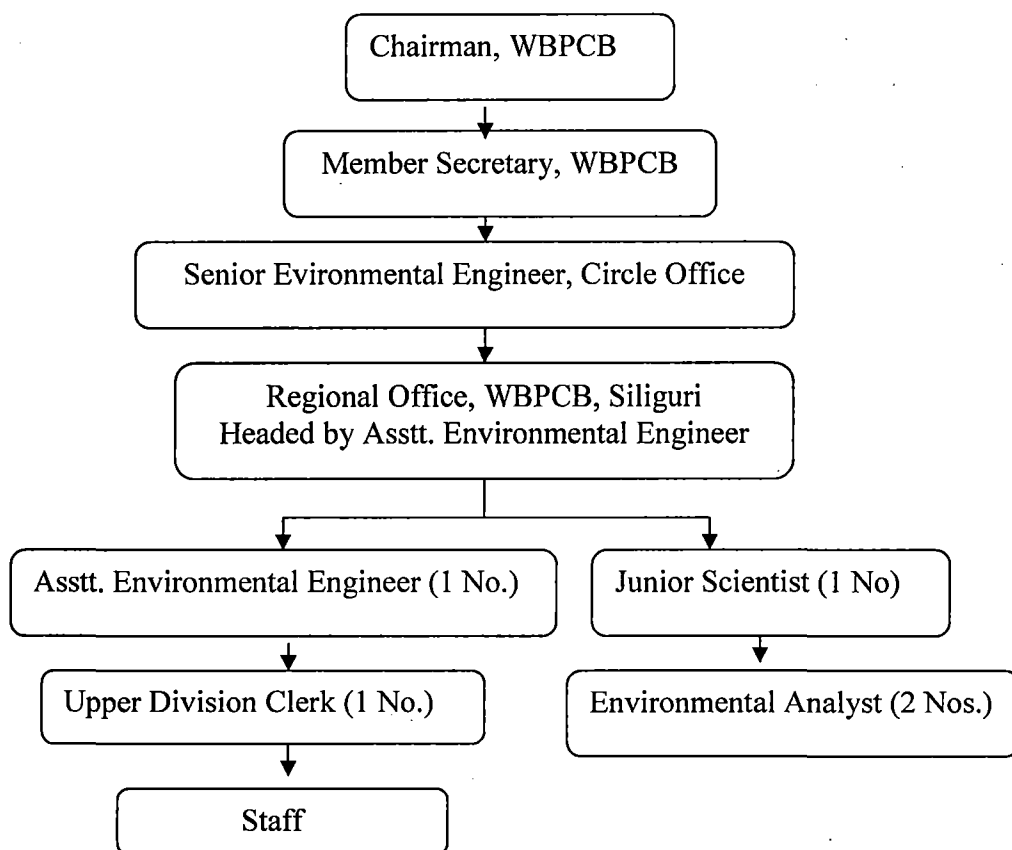
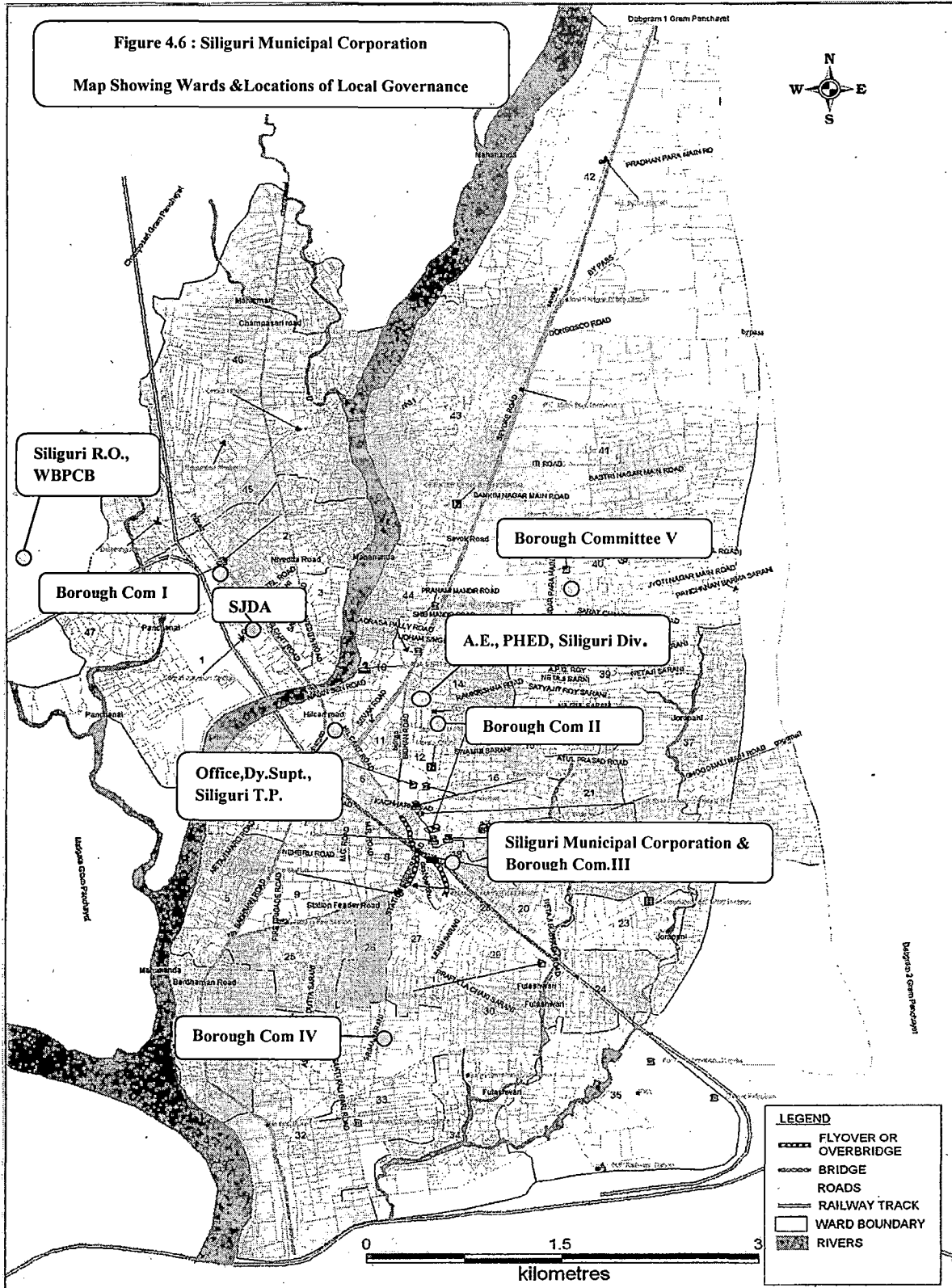


Figure 4.6 : Siliguri Municipal Corporation
Map Showing Wards & Locations of Local Governance



4.2.10 The General Problems facing SMC

The Siliguri Municipal Corporation has been confronting several problems which are creating bottlenecks in the development of infrastructure and provision of public services. Let us peep into some of them:

- (i) Paucity of Staff - Talking to several officials of the SMC, one thing that came out was the acute shortage of staff. The ratio of staff:citizen comes out to be 1:599 as per 2001 census and about 1:735 if the present estimated population of 5.8 lakhs is taken into account. However, these figures may be deceiving if the ratio is taken out section wise (where the actual specified work is done for the whole of Siliguri) which poses a serious challenge with regard to efficiency. The stress of overwork has its effects on the proper documentation of the previous and ongoing activities of the Corporation. As such, the Corporation has been at fault on several occasions in providing data not only to the interested persons for perusal but also to various government agencies.
- (ii) Need for Library and Documentation Centre – Taking clue from the above, there is an urgent need of a library and documentation section within the SMC. This will not only cater to the needs of perusal for the academicians, researchers, institutions and interested common citizens, but will also be helpful in easing the workload while providing data to the various government agencies. Further, such section has become necessary keeping into consideration the strict conditionalities (in particular with regard to data inputs) imposed by the Central Government in releasing ACA for various developmental and infrastructural projects. It is worth noting in this regard the statement of the Mayor in her Budget Speech, 2010-11, “We have taken initiative for setting up of a library of the Corporation where books, journals will be available for the Councillors, officers, employees of the Corporation and other interested persons and I have no doubt that all of us would be much benefitted after setting up of the same.” However, it is a big question mark as to when such initiative would become a reality and even if it gets opened, there are doubts as to its proper management and updating.

- (iii) Need for Augmentation of Own Financial Strength – Siliguri Municipal Corporation suffers from major financial crisis as far as its own resources are concerned. Besides the problems of timely recovery of arrears, inflated budget and populist budget as have been laid down in the earlier paragraphs, there have been instances of accounting gaps as well as diversion of funds. Audit Report (Civil) for the year ending 31st March, 2009 highlights diversion of funds meant for UIDSSMT Scheme. A total of Rs. 32.44 lakhs were diverted between February and December, 2008 for the construction of boundary wall of a building, erection of power transmission line, and purchase of equipment. Such wrath of audit reports can be avoided if serious attention is given towards the augmentation of its own resources. Scarcity of resources also has its adverse effects on the timely completion of the projects. After all, budget proposals are directly related to the aspirations of the people of Siliguri. As such, there is a need to blend in a proper manner populism and concern for genuine development on the one hand and serious effort to recover arrears on the other hand. Further, other measures of resource growth like issuance of municipal bonds, etc. should be contemplated for avoiding sole dependence on Central and State Governments for capital receipts. Moreover, such dependence limits the freedom of action of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation to provide public services in its own ‘milieu’ as it has to abide by the conditionalities of such capital receipts.
- (iv) Huge gap between Prescription and Description – The enormity of promises spelt out in the Budget Speeches amount virtually to utopianism in the backdrop of the financial and staff position. As a result, at the end of the financial year, the budget gets substantially revised, the capital works are half completed and the different public services end up patchy. Such uncontrolled budget formulations render them unreliable and as a result a huge gap is noticed between what is prescribed in the budget and what one actually sees in real ground situation.
- (v) Lack of Coordination between SMC and SJDA – Lack of coordination and arguments and counter-arguments between the Development

Authorities and the ULBs are evident everywhere. Though the problems between them generally lie under the carpet if the political parties following the same ideology are at the helm of affair at these two levels, the confrontation gets more pronounced when political parties following different ideology administers these two sets of institutions. As such, SMC and SJDA are no exception to the rule. On several occasions, such attitude has been witnessed through visual and print media briefs. This creates bottlenecks in the smooth functioning of both the institutions which are directly involved in the developmental aspects of Siliguri.

- (vi) Lack of Incentive to the Personnel – It has become customary in Budget Speeches to thank all staff members for cooperation in bringing about development of Siliguri. However, the SMC has not instituted any kind of incentive or annual awards based on the performance of personnel in different categories. This area needs to be looked into to instill urge among the staff members to optimize performance.
- (vii) Lack of much Attention on Urban Forestry – Social forestry / urban forestry in Siliguri suffers from adhocism, in particular, plantation of road side trees. The exercise of planting saplings on street sides have become a matter of occasions, such as, observance of forest week, World Environment Day, etc., thereby utterly lacking in post-plantation maintenance. As such, this very important sector for protecting and promoting environment require immediate attention. There is no separate MMIC for urban forestry in Siliguri as is present in other big cities like Hyderabad, Bangalore, Chandigarh, etc. Though MMIC, Conservancy and Environment is there but they are hard pressed with time to look into the matter with concerted effort as they are primarily engrossed with maintenance of sanitation in the city. Thus, neglect of this sector is not only environmentally harmful but is aesthetically unpleasing.

4.3 GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN SANITATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT IN SILIGURI

The Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India conducted a survey with respect to sanitation in Indian cities under NUSP during 2009-2010. The rating and categorization of cities was published on 10th May, 2010 which, of course, was later revised on the basis of inputs provided by the cities thereafter. Talking of Siliguri, the name of the agency which conducted the survey in the city was Development and Research Services Pvt. Limited, New Delhi. Siliguri was ranked 132 in terms of sanitation among 423 Class I cities surveyed securing a score of 38.597 out of a total point of 100. The performance of the city was measured on the basis of three objective indicators, namely, (i) Outputs-Related (a total of 50 marks); (ii) Processes-Related (a total of 30 marks); and (iii) Outcomes-Related (a total of 20 marks). The break-up of the scores of Siliguri in these categories were 13.167; 19.83; and 5.6 respectively. Later on, after revision of the ratings, Siliguri slipped one rank below to 133 as the score of Haldwani cum Kathgodam rose from 32.65 to 42.897. Among the cities of West Bengal, Siliguri stood 24th and among the cities/towns of North Bengal, it found itself on the 3rd spot after Darjeeling and Balurghat. In terms of categorization, the city was placed in the 'Black' category signifying the need for considerable improvements with regard to sanitation scenario of Siliguri.

There are host of issues that come under the purview of sanitation. In the main, they are (i) prohibition of open defecation; (ii) rehabilitation of manual scavengers; (iii) construction of individual toilets, community toilets, and public toilets; (iv) conversion of dry latrines into two-pit pour flush units; (v) proper sewerage system and reduction of ground water contamination; (vi) sewage treatment and reduction in pollution of water bodies; (vi) proper drainage system; (vii) regular cleaning of drains; (viii) regular street sweeping and washing; (ix) timely anti-mosquito measures through fogging/MLO spraying; (x) proper cesspool services; (xi) control over keeping of cattle and other animals within SMC area and sterilization of street dogs; (xii) regular food inspections at manufacturing units, markets, nursing homes, hotels, sweet shops, meat shops, etc.; and (xiii) proper solid waste management. Besides, it is also the responsibility of the authorities of SMC to create awareness among the populace on sanitation. It is

to be noted that the governance and management of municipal solid waste in Siliguri is differently patterned than those of other aspects of sanitation. Thus, it would be prudent to discuss the sanitation issue of Siliguri under two heads : (i) Sanitation in Siliguri excluding SWM; and (ii) Solid Waste Management in Siliguri

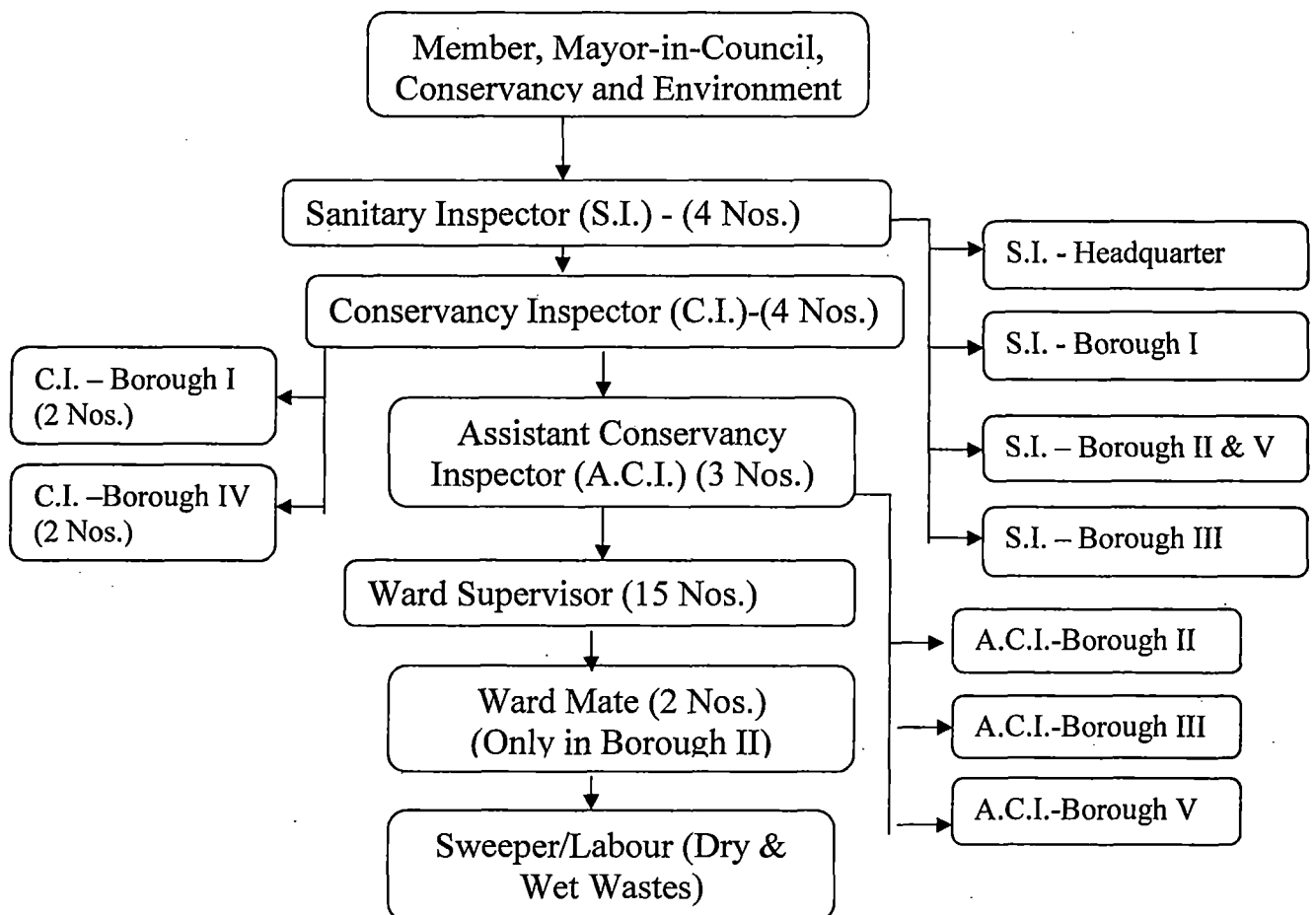
4.3.1 Sanitation in Siliguri excluding SWM

Both the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 and the National Urban Sanitation Policy, 2008 act as the present basic guidelines for improving upon sanitation scenario of Siliguri. The WBMC Act deals with different aspects of sanitation under Sections 222-225 (drainage and sewerage); Sections 226-234 (drainage of premises); Sections 235-239 (privies, urinals, bathing and washing places); Sections 240-243 (cesspools and other filth receptacles); Section 300 (solid waste); and Sections 317-318 (food inspection). Besides, NUSP lays down as to what measures should be adopted to make the city totally sanitized, healthy and livable and ensure and sustain good public health and environmental outcomes for all their citizens with a special focus on hygienic and affordable sanitation facilities for the urban poor and women.

The following Figure 4.8 lay down the organizational structure for the governance and maintenance of sanitation in Siliguri. If one looks at the organizational structure of governance in sanitation in Siliguri, one would come across patchy workout at some levels and the structure lacks uniformity. In Borough IV, for instance, there is no Sanitary Inspector appointed to head the sanitary activities. As such, the sanitary works in this Borough is headed after by a Conservancy Inspector. Moreover, the chart reveals that there is no C.I. for the Boroughs II, III and V. On the other hand, Borough I and IV do not have any Asstt. Conservancy Inspector at present. Ward Mates have been found only in Borough II. As such, SMC has not maintained uniformity in its hierarchical structure with regard to governance in sanitation. However, some of the S.I.s and C.I.s revealed that the organizational structure is in the process of getting revamped to suit the provisions of the West Bengal Solid Waste Management Mission. The latter provides for 5 Sanitary Inspectors – one for each Borough – and 5 SWM Inspectors – one for each Borough.

4.3.1.1 Construction of individual toilets and community toilets, conversion of dry latrines into two-pit pour flush units and public toilets – The Central and the State Government initiated such effort in order to put an end to the unhealthy and degradable practice of manual scavenging of the night soil and providing alternative employment to the liberated scavengers. As such, the Central Government in 1993 passed the ‘Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993’ with the solemn resolve to completely eradicate manual scavenging from the country. Another purpose of such initiative was to stop the practice of open defecation.

Figure 4.8 : Organizational Structure of MIC, Conservancy and Environment, Siliguri Municipal Corporation



Source : Siliguri Municipal Corporation

In Siliguri, the Central Government sponsored ILCS Scheme started in 1986. To add to this, a state-sponsored programme 'Liberation of Scavenger Programme (LSP) also contributed in this regard. Under the latter, 1600 individual household two-pit latrines, 8 (4 seater) two-pit community latrines, and 10 two-pit latrines in pre-school education centre were constructed. (Ghosh et al 1994 : 201-202). On the other hand, a total of 12,547 low cost sanitation units were constructed under ILCS Scheme and a total 80 % of the slum dwellers were provided access to safe mode of sanitation due to this program. It was in the financial year 2008-09 that the Government of West Bengal announced that it had no dry latrines, implying that manual scavenging has effectively been abolished in Siliguri. However, it is to contend that though there is no existence of manual scavenging in Siliguri, open defecation, particularly on the riverbeds of the river Mahananda, continues unabated, thereby contributing immensely in the increase in water pollution of the river. Survey done by NUSP in early months of 2010 confirms prevalence of such practice. It goes to the credit of the SMC which got 4 out of 4 marks with regard to elimination of manual scavenging in the survey conducted. However, the general populace, in particular those residing in slum pockets let the efforts of SMC down in terms of use of toilets and not defecating in the open. In this category, Siliguri was awarded a poor 0.92 points out of the total of 8 points. Thus, the onus falls majorly on the shoulders of the common people to improve the sanitation scenario of the city with respect to use of individual and community toilets and avoid defecating in the open.

Though ILCS Scheme has ended in Siliguri but the slum population is growing with every passing year. The way out is the construction of as many community toilets as possible. This has been rightly given due attention in DPRs of IHSDP. However, with regard to public toilets in public places, SMC seems to be lagging behind. The authority has to take note of the fact that every day thousands of daily commuters and tourists visit the place and it is extremely necessary to have such facilities in substantial numbers, in particular, in places like bus stops, taxi stands, parking areas and markets. The women folk specially suffer in absence of such facilities. Moreover, urinating on road sides in public places does not provide a pleasing site as well as it goes against the principle of proper sanitation. It is surprising to note in this regard that within Borough II where the commercial hub of Siliguri is situated, there are only 5 such community toilets – 3 maintained

by the SMC and 2 by the Sulabh International. However, two other such toilets are under construction.

Though the SMC has taken steps to construct three Sulabh Complexes – near Kanchanjungha Stadium, Air View Hotel and Jalpai More – on PPP basis in the financial year 2010-11, the efforts are not enough considering the enormity of the problem. One real problem facing the SMC in this regard is the availability of land (SMC 2011-11).

Another area where the sanitation standard needs to be improved is in educational institutions. Generally, the cleanliness of urinals and toilets in schools and colleges are invariably neglected. It is absolutely essential that this aspect is given immediate attention. It is in the schools that the mind and thought process of the future decision makers are shaped. Thus, in order to have marked effect on the society as a whole, the improvement in the hygiene of the schools is the prerequisite. The Perspective Plan (2004) suggests that all schools and colleges may be instructed to maintain cleanliness of toilets and urinals and the sanitary inspector may impose strict fines on flouting the rules by erring school and college authorities.

Functions, fairs and large gatherings are regular features of this city. After such events end, the area emanates foul smell due to urinating as well as defecation in the makeshift urinals and toilets. In some gatherings, even those are absent. Siliguri Municipal Corporation should consider purchasing ‘mobile toilet vehicles’ and give those on rent for such functions, fairs and gatherings. This way, the sanitation scenario of the city can be substantially improved.

4.3.1.2 Sewerage System and Sewage Treatment - Presently, the city of Siliguri does not have any kind of sewerage system. The unplanned growth of the town, illegal constructions and mushrooming of slum and squatter pockets made it rather impossible for the SMC to go for a planned and concerted effort towards proper sewerage system. In the absence of any formal sewerage system, generally it is the septic tank which is used for the disposal of human excreta and other waters. As such, though in the underground tank the solids get digested by various bacteria and get transformed into sludge, there is all possibility of contamination of ground water with the liquid portion overflowing into a soak-pit from where it seeps into the ground. However, one of the area stressed upon in the Budget of 2010-2011 is taking up of construction of underground sewerage system in

consultation of the experts. Hopefully, Siliguri may see formal sewerage system becoming a reality in near future.

It is not only the ground water that is threatened with contamination but rivers Mahananda, Phuleswari, Jorapani and Panchonai which cuts through the city, too, are victims of water pollution. The study conducted under Mahananda Action Plan showed concern over the discharge of untreated wastewater effluents in the rivers, primarily through storm water drains which leads to water pollution of the rivers in a major way (Ref. Perspective Plan). The figure of the survey conducted by Central Pollution Control Board show that the total sewage generated in Siliguri in 2005-06 was 63.5 MLD and majority of this got disposed in the Mahananda river (CPCB 2005-06). However, the NRCD has put the figures at 59 MLD. Moreover, the defecation by the slum dwellers and squatters on the river beds, too, contribute to the water pollution in the rivers.

In this regard, SMEC India Pvt. Ltd. prepared the 'Detailed Project Report for Conservation of River Mahananda & other major Streams at Siliguri town' in 2003 for SJDA. In its Mahananda River Conservation Plan (MRCP) Report, suggestion was made for laying of trunk sewer lines intersecting the surface drains and directing the effluent to sewage treatment plants before discharging the flow to the river Mahananda. The sewer lines were proposed in the Report to run more or less parallel to the river Mahananda along its left and right banks. With regard to Jorapani and Phuleswari streams which were virtually transformed into sewage drains, the DPR suggested intercepting the flow for treatment through an STP and releasing it back to their course. The STPs in the Report were designed on the basis of an immediate design capacity (for year 2015) and an ultimate design capacity (year 2035).

On the basis of the DPR submitted by the SJDA, National River Conservation Directorate (NRCD), Government of India agreed to fund the works related to Mahananda Action Plan in order to enhance the Mahananda River water quality to Class 'C' Category of Inland Surface Water Quality as per Central Pollution Control Board specifications. In other words, the water quality will be made fit enough for outdoor bathing and as sources for water supply. The STPs has been proposed to comprise screening chamber, collection sump, sewage pumping, anaerobic pond and facultative pond.

Table 4.9. : Quantity of Effluent Disposed in Rivers of Siliguri

Name of the Rivers/Place (1)	Quantity of Effluent Disposed (MLD) (2)	Wards Nos. Disposing Effluent (3)
Drains on Southern Side of River Mahananda	8	46, 45, 2, 3, 1
Drains on Left Side of River Mahananda	21	42, 43, 44, 10, 4, 5, 31
Drains on the Sides of Rivers Phuleswari & Jorapani	30	15, 16, 17, 21, 22, 23, 19, 29, 24, 30, 35, 34, 39, 38, 37, 36

Source : SJDA

The components of MRCP consists of (i) Interception and Diversion (I&D) Plan; (ii) Main Pumping Station (MPS) Plan; (iii) Sewage Treatment Plant (STP) Plan ; and (iv) River Front Development (RFD) Plan. These activities are proposed to be completed in three Phases. Tables 4.10 and 4.11 lay down the details of STPs and the financial and physical status of the plan.

Table 4.10 : The Description of the STPs

Name of the STP (1)	Capacity of the STP (2)	Amount of Land Required(in Acres) (3)	Annual O&M Expenditure(in lakhs) (4)	
STP-1	Immediate Design Capacity (2015)	8	29	8
	Ultimate Design Capacity (2035)	13	38	5.5
STP-2	Immediate Design Capacity (2015)	21	31.5	4.5
	Ultimate Design Capacity (2035)	29	42	6
STP-3	Immediate Design Capacity (2015)	30	85	15
	Ultimate Design Capacity (2035)	45	115	22.5

Source : SJDA

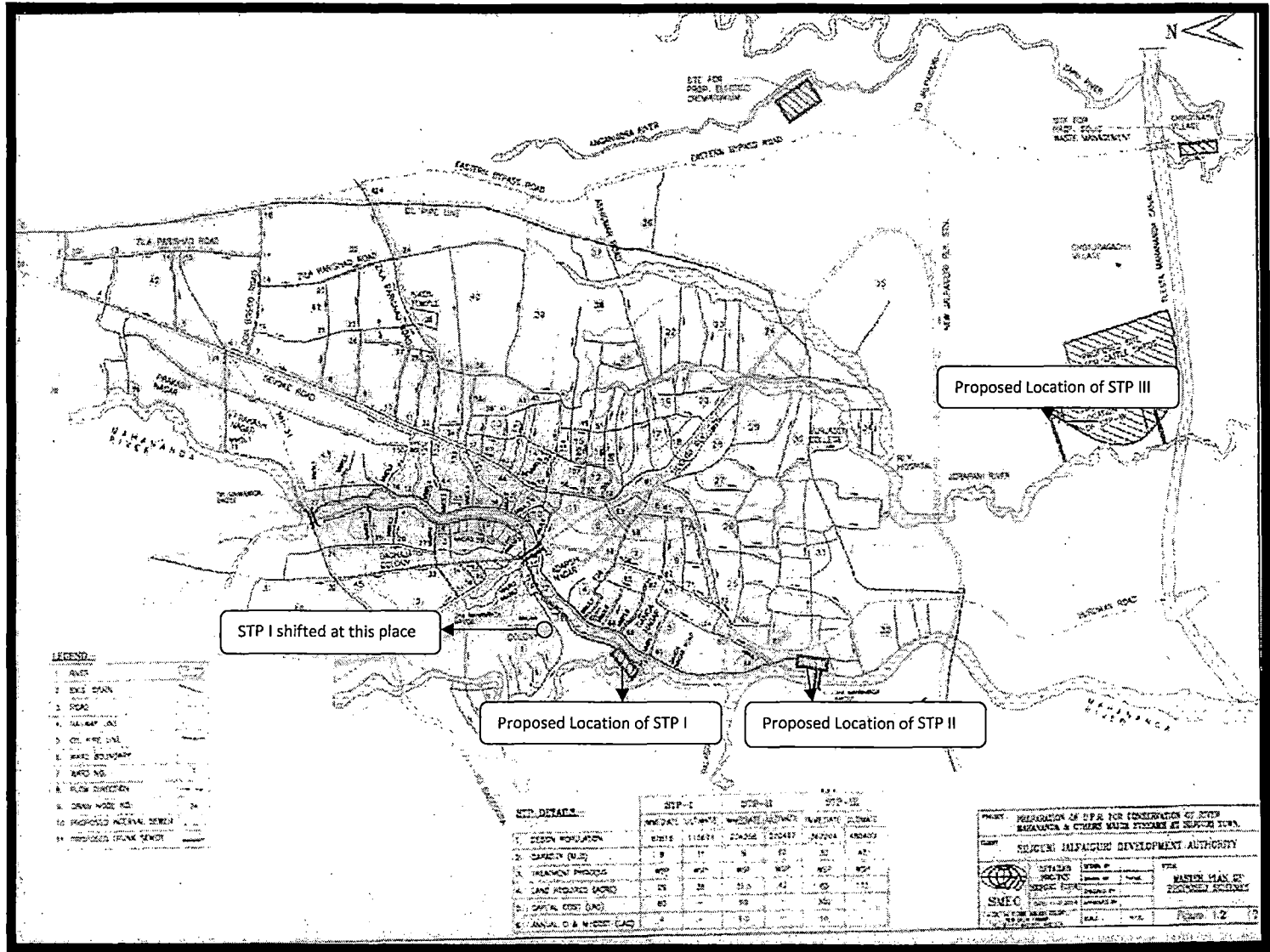
Table 4.11 : Financial and Physical Status of MRCP

Phases of MRCP	Total Amount Sanctioned (in Rs.lakhs)	NRCD, GOI Share	Govt. of West Bengal Share	Works to be Undertaken		Physical Status as on March, 2010
Phase 1	4039	2827.3	1211.7	I&D	South side of River Mahananda	2.5km.completed out of 3.5 km.
					Left Side of River Mahananda	3.5km. completed out of 6km
				STP	STP-1(South side ofMahananda)	Tender Process in progress
					STP-2(Left Side of Mahananda)	50% work completed
					STP-3(Left side of Jorapani)	90% work completed
				RFD	South side of River Mahananda	In Progress
					Left Side of River Mahananda	In Progress
On the sides of Rivers Jorapani& Phuleswari	In Progress					
Phase 2	1449	1014.3	434.7	I & D on both sides of River Jorapani (11 Km.) and on both sides of River Phuleswari (6 Km.)		Work in progress at different places on the sides of the Rivers
Phase 3	4039 (Demand as per DPR)	-	-	Linings, Desiltation and RFD of Rivers Jorapani, Phuleswari and Panchonai		DPR Submitted

Source : SJDA

However, in course of implementation of MRCP, the SJDA has been facing various problems, in particular related to acquiring land both for the purpose of I&D and STP. For instance, in case of I&D, it has become extremely difficult to lay down sewer lines between Mahananda Bridge at Hill Cart Road and STP at Nouka Ghat due to the mushrooming of illegal structures and hutments in the way. In the similar vein, the original selection of land for the construction of STP-1 was Patiram. However, due to the resistance by encroachers out there, the venue was ultimately shifted near Diesel Loco Shed. All this led to the delay in the implementation of the project. Similar problems are being faced with regard to STP-2 as well as River Development Plan. Nonetheless, the Mahananda River Conservation Plan seems to be dream come true for the city of Siliguri as far as sanitation scenario is concerned.

Mahananda River Conservation Plan (Source: MRCP, SJDA)



4.3.1.3 Drainage System

The Outline Development Plan, 1986 prepared by SJDA maintains that “The uneven topography of the Terai region with heavy rainfall during monsoon and absence of proper drainage system create serious water-logging problem in the ODP area. The three rivers viz., Mahananda, Fuleswari and Jorapani serve as natural outlet in the Siliguri-Dabgram urban area; but the internal drainage system do not serve as proper links. They are not maintained according to sound public health engineering standards.

A nominal drainage system is in existence within the municipal areas; there is not even minimum drainage system in the urbanizing peripheral areas. Moreover the municipal effluents get discharged into downstream areas intensifying the problems further. The comprehensive drainage scheme for the urban and urbanizing area being prepared by the LGUD and NBFC Commission require to be implemented early.”

As such, the drainage system of Siliguri was poor at the time of its constitution as the Corporation. However, slowly and gradually, the situation got improved. At present, the total length of drains in Siliguri is approximately 910 kms. (272 km. pucca and 638 km. kutch) The main funding agencies for construction of surface drains and storm water drains have been UIDSSMT, BRGF and SJDA. Besides, SMC has been using its own fund for the purpose. The works related to drainage system sanctioned in the near past and have been completed or are in progress are laid down in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 : Drainage Works within SMC Area

Funding Agency	Amount Sanctioned (Rs. in Lakhs)	Year	Wards/Areas Covered	Status (As on March, 2010)
UIDSSMT (ACA being 80% of the Total Cost)	3386.39	2007-08	All except 11, 13, 17, 18, 19, 23 & 32	75 Kms. completed out of total of 80.775 Kms.
BRGF	55.70	2007-08	33, 34, 37, 38, 39, 40	3.308 Kms. proposed and completed
	66.19	2009-10 (Upto Dec.'09)	31-44	Work completed

	125.00 (Proposed)	2010-11	31-44 (To be covered)	-
SJDA (Under Plans & Schemes)	11.83	2007-08	Khanik Sangha More to Jorapani Bridge	Work Completed
	7.91	2008-09	RUB near IOCI	Work Completed
SJDA (Under UUP)	90.00	2010-11	Saradapally	Proposal sent to UUP

Sources : Annual Report, SMC, 2007-08; SMC Budget, 2010-11; Annual Report, SJDA, 2009-10.

One of the major problems facing most of the drains in Siliguri is their loss of capacities due to the irresponsible behavior of common public like throwing garbage, plastics, etc. in the drains instead of specified garbage collection bins. Another problem is the rapid urbanization of Siliguri resulting in construction of residential and commercial units in much of the open fields, plots and ponds. This has affected the rainwater falling over the surface and getting absorbed directly into the ground. Rather, due to urban development, a large amount of water is being directed to the drains, thereby resulting in the increase in the volume of the flow. Thus, though a lot is being done by the SMC and SJDA with regard to drainage system, future planning should incorporate a scientific review on the sizes and slopes of the drains keeping in mind the undulating topography of the areas within SMC.

4.3.1.4 Street Sweeping and Cleaning of Drains

There is no PPP mode in operation with regard to cleaning of streets and drains in Siliguri. The whole exercise is owned by the SMC itself. The coverage is claimed to be 100 percent. The officials associated with sanitation maintained that while street sweeping is done on a daily basis, cleaning of sludge and other rubbish from the drains is done on a weekly basis. Sweeping approximately 1400 kms. of roads (pucca, semi puca and kutcha) (Pourbarta 2010) and cleaning approximately 910 kms. of drains (both 272 km. puca and 638 km. kutcha) falling within SMC area are far beyond the capacity of the permanent sweepers. As such, a huge number of temporary (both casual and man-days) sweepers and labourers have been employed for this purpose. Though the Ward Councillor and the Ward Committee employs the temporary sweepers/labourers, the payment is done through the respective Boroughs and the salary/wages are reimbursed by the SMC.

There are 265 (approximately) nos. of hand driven carts and 94 nos. of cycle-vans (as of 30.11.2010) employed for the purpose of sweeping and cleaning. Besides, the SMC owns a motorized and automated vacuum cleaner for the purpose of sweeping the arterial roads. With respect to the use of safety equipments by the sanitary workers, it was found during field survey that none of the workers were using them. The S.I.s and C.I.s, who were interviewed confirmed the findings of the field survey, but at the same time maintained that such equipments are provided by the Corporation. The obvious question, then, arises as to why the sanitary workers are not dictated upon to use them.

However, with regard to cleaning of drains in the city, one paradoxical situation is generally observed. The sludges in the drains are cleaned and are kept on the side of the roads, thereby making the roads dirty. Before those are finally transported to their destination, the dirt in the form of sludge gets spread all over the road by the passing by vehicles making the sight very unpleasing and the place unhygienic. To spread dirt in order to clean one is not at all a noble practice on the part of SMC. This practice should be stopped immediately. The proper method would be to transfer the sludge from the drains directly in to the hand cart or cycle-van provided for the purpose.

4.3.1.5 Anti-mosquito measures through fogging/MLO spraying

The choked drains at several places, the heaps of garbage on road sides, the irregular cleaning of drains at many places result in the growth of mosquitoes. However, there is no regularity maintained in terms of fogging/MLO spraying. The good sign in this respect is that in the last financial year, the SMC has purchased 3 small sized fogging machines which will hopefully strengthen anti-mosquito measures in Siliguri.

4.3.1.6 Cesspool Service

This service is rendered to the rate-payers with the help of 7 nos. cesspool vehicles owned by the SMC – 2 for headquarters and 1 each for the five borough offices. Besides, one cesspool vehicle is privately owned by the Baba Ambedkar Sanitary Mart but maintained by the Corporation. All the vehicles have the capacity of 6,000 litres. The maximum number of trips allowed per day per vehicle

has been fixed at three. The charges for this service are (i) General – Rs. 400/-; (ii) Tatkal – Rs. 700/-; and (iii) BPL Family – Rs. 150/-.

Though the maximum number of trips has been fixed at three per day per vehicle, there are instances of illegal trips as have been highlighted during survey. These trips are not entered at the disposal site in lieu of some financial benefits. The sanitary workers associated with cesspool services have their own justified answer when queried about this. Their argument lies in the fact that they are paid a paltry consolidated salary of Rs. 3,200/- per month which is not enough for running their family. The Sanitary Inspectors and the SMC should find out a judicious solution to this so that such illegal trips can be stopped and the financial losses of the SMC can be tapped.

4.3.1.7 Control over keeping of Cattle and other Animals within SMC area and Sterilization of Street Dogs

The illegal cow sheds or khatalas on the banks of the Mahananda River are one of the polluting agencies of the river. On several occasions, notices have been served to the khatal owners to vacate the place by the Irrigation Department and several times, the SMC has swirled into action for the eviction of illegal khatalas and their owners as a step to beautify the river front and to check flow of pollutants into the river. However, on every occasion, the exercise ended up half-hearted due to the protests under the banner of some Committee. Besides, political considerations and compulsions also helped dampening the move. As such, one may notice khatalas lining the river Mahananda even today. It may be noted that the Mahananda River Conservation Plan (MRCP), too, suggests effective measures for relocation of these cattle sheds and the blue print of this Plan has included construction of such cattle shed near STP III on the side of Jorapani-Phuleswari rivers.

With regard to sterilization of street stray dogs, the SMC in collaboration with a local organization Animal Link has sterilized 39 such dogs in the financial 2009-10 at the Dog Sterilization Centre of SMC. Though this programme is continuing even in this financial year, but the exact figures are not available. One of the problems encountered by the SMC is the lack of trained personnel for capturing stray dogs. There is, thus, the need to train SMC's dog-catchers and volunteers on the finer points of catching them without harming either the dogs or themselves. Besides, there is also the Siliguri Chapter of the People For Animals

(PFA), a national animal rights' group formed by Maneka Gandhi, which strives to provide care to ill animals as well as home for the strays in the city.

One positive proposal in the budget of the financial year 2010-11 is the construction of a modern abattoir in Siliguri as per guidelines and with the assistance of the Ministry of Food Processing Industries, GOI.

4.3.1.8 Regular food inspections at manufacturing units, markets, nursing homes, hotels, sweet shops, meat shops, etc.

Though there is no available data with the researcher to show as to the number of times food inspections have been conducted this financial year, but the general observation at the sweet shops, meat shops, hotels and, in particular, the road side eateries do suggest lack of efforts on the part of SMC in this aspect.

4.3.2 Solid Waste Management in Siliguri

Though Section 2 of the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 which deals with definitions of various terms used in other parts of the Act, does not exactly lay down the definition of the term 'solid waste', but definitions laid down for terms 'filth' (Sub-section 37); 'offensive matter' (Sub-section 69); and 'rubbish' (Sub-section 89) may be taken as the meaning of municipal solid waste. Besides, the definition of the term 'trade refuse' (Sub-section 103) may mean commercial waste, bio-medical waste and hazardous waste. By the definition laid down, filth includes offensive matter (and sewage); offensive matter includes animal carcass, kitchen or stable refuse, dung, dirt and putried or putrefying substance other than sewage; rubbish means ashes, broken bricks, broken glass, dust, malba, mortar, plastic bags and refuse of any kind which is not filth; and trade refuse means the refuse of any trade or industry.

The collection, removal and disposal of solid waste are dealt with under Section 300 of Chapter XVI of Part VIII of the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006. However, the 7 Sub-sections of Section 300 of the Act are of general in nature and do not lay down the details for the management of municipal solid waste.

The collection, segregation, storage, transportation, processing and disposal of municipal solid waste generated within Siliguri Municipal Corporation area

mandatorily require the application of rules detailed out in the Municipal Solid Wastes (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000 which was enacted by the Ministry of Environment, GOI in exercise of the powers conferred by Sections 3, 6 and 25 of the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 (Act 29 of 1986).

Besides the household, institutional and commercial waste which are to be managed and handled by the above mentioned Act and Rules, there is generation of a large quantity of bio-medical wastes within SMC area due to the presence of a large number of institutions generating bio-medical waste which include hospitals, nursing homes, clinic dispensaries, veterinary institutions, animal houses, pathological laboratories and blood banks. The collection, receipt, storage, transportation, treatment, disposal or handling of such wastes mandatorily require to follow the Bio-Medical Waste (Management and Handling) Rules, 1998 and the three amendments made there under – twice in 2000 and once in 2003. These Rules were also enacted by the Ministry of Environment, GOI in accordance with the powers conferred by Sections 3, 6 and 25 of the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 (Act 29 of 1986).

Another type of wastes which are generated particularly from the industrial and manufacturing units are known as hazardous wastes and the management of such wastes are done following the Hazardous Waste (Management, Handling and Trans-boundary Movement) Rules, 2008 repealing the earlier Hazardous Waste (Management and Handling) Rules, 1989 and the amendments made thereupon in 2000 and 2003. The present rules are more practical and effective in implementation. Though there are very few such industrial and manufacturing units within the SMC area and need to be managed under the mentioned Rules to prevent environmental pollution, yet it is not directly related to the study as municipal solid waste includes basically household, commercial, institutional, construction and demolition and municipal service wastes as well as treated bio-medical waste. However, it may be noted that some wastes generated from industrial and processing units, such as, housekeeping wastes, packaging, food wastes, construction and demolition materials are to be treated as municipal solid wastes and to be handled as per MSW (Management & Handling) Rules, 2000 by the SMC authority. On the other hand, some hazardous wastes generated from households, commercial, institutional and medical establishments are to be dealt separately under the Hazardous Waste (Management, Handling and Trans-boundary Movement) Rules, 2008 by the SMC authority. Besides, the plastics are

regulated by the Recycled Plastics Manufacture and Usage Rules, 1999 as amended in 2003. Further, the used batteries are managed and handled under the Batteries (Management and Handling) Rules, 2001.

The following Table 4.13 lays down the types of solid wastes generated within SMC area:

Table 4.13 Sources and Types of Solid Waste within SMC Area

Source (1)	Typical Waste Generators (2)	Types of Solid Waste (3)
Residential	Single and Multifamily Dwellings	Food Wastes, Papers, Cardboards, Plastics, Textiles, Leather, Yard Wastes, Woods, Glasses, Metals, Ashes, (Household hazardous wastes and Special wastes(i.e., Bulky items, consumer electronics, battery, oils, tyres, etc). (The last two items are dealt separately and not included under MSW)
Commercial	Stores, Hotels, Restaurants, Markets, Office buildings, etc.	Papers, Cardboards, Plastics, Woods, Food wastes, Glasses, Metals, Hazardous wastes and Special wastes (The last two items are dealt separately and not included under MSW)
Institutional	Schools, Hospitals, Prisons, Government centres	Same as commercial
Construction and demolition	New construction sites, Road repair, Renovation sites, Demolition of buildings	Woods, Steels, Concretes, Dirts, etc.
Municipal Service	Street cleaning, Landscaping, Parks, Beaches, Other recreational areas, Water and waste water treatment plants	Street sweepings, Landscape and tree trimmings, General wastes from parks, Beaches, Other recreational areas, Sludge
Industrial	Light and Heavy Manufacturing, Fabrication, Construction Sites, Power and Chemical Plants	Housekeeping wastes, Packaging, Food wastes, Construction and demolition materials, Hazardous wastes, Ashes, Special wastes (The last three items are dealt separately and not included under MSW)
Process	Heavy and light manufacturing, Refineries, Chemical plants, Power plants, Mineral extraction, and Processing	Industrial process wastes, Scrap materials, Off-specification products, Slag, Tailings (All the items are dealt separately and not included under MSW)
Bio-Medical	hospitals, nursing homes, clinic dispensaries, veterinary institutions, animal houses, pathological laboratories and blood banks	Human anatomical wastes, animal wastes, Microbiology and Biotechnology wastes, Waste Sharps, Discarded Medicines and Cytotoxic Drugs, Soiled, Solid, Liquid and Chemical Wastes, Incineration Ash (The treated wastes are included under MSW)

4.3.2.1 The Studies on SWM in Siliguri - The Siliguri Municipal Corporation is the agency in whom the management and handling of municipal solid waste within the SMC area is entrusted. As far as 'municipal solid waste' is concerned, the Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000 lays down that it includes residential, institutional and commercial wastes generated within the area in either solid or semi-solid form excluding industrial hazardous waste but including treated bio-medical wastes.

It was in the early years of this decade that a study, the Mahananda River Corporation Plan (MRCP), was undertaken by SMEC India (Pvt. Ltd.) for SJDA. Though this study primarily focused on and addressed upon the improvement of water quality of the river Mahananda and the streams Jurapani and Fuleswari, it also laid down some useful suggestions on SWM for the town of Siliguri.

Thereafter, another study was undertaken on SWM under the auspices of the United States Asia Environmental Partnership (US-AEP) Programme of United States Agency of International Development (USAID).

In February, 2004, the Department of Architecture and Regional Planning, Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur came out with the 'Perspective Plan 2025 : Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area'. This two volume compendium was prepared for Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority and the study was funded by the United Nations Children's Fund. The first volume deals with the 'Status Report' and the second one with the 'Proposals'. Though the study encompasses a wide spectrum of developmental activities covering a wide space – both urban and rural falling within Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area, it does throw some valuable insights on SWM practices in Siliguri and as to how those may be improved upon.

4.3.2.2 Governance and Management of MSW in Siliguri

The Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000 has laid down in details as to how to manage MSW properly. Accordingly, it has laid down compliance criteria and implementation schedules. In case of Siliguri, however, the implementation schedules have not been strictly complied with. The solid waste management in Siliguri took off as late as January, 2006 much behind the schedule laid down in the Act. Moreover, initially, the mission was launched in some of the wards on a pilot basis and thereafter, gradually it covered other wards

of the city. The governance and management patterns at different levels are handled by different institutions and agencies. Siliguri Municipal Corporation is responsible for the capital investment for the purchase and development of primary collection system, secondary storage facilities and transportation of the MSW to the disposal site. Besides, SMC is also responsible for fixing conservancy charges.

The house-to-house collection of MSW is the responsibility of the Ward Solid Waste Management Committee. Every Ward in the city (except Ward No. 47 where such system is not in operation) has such Committee and the membership varies from 15 to 25 depending on the population of the Ward. It is the responsibility of the Ward SWM Committee to employ the sanitary workers for house-to-house collection of household wastes; employ collectors for collection of conservancy charges; and arrange for the payment of sanitary workers and charge collectors from the conservancy charges that are collected from the Ward. The job of sanitary workers is to transfer the collected garbage at the designated secondary storage facilities.

The SMC is responsible for the transfer of the MSW from the secondary storage site to the trenching ground through tractors and dumpers. Besides, the Corporation also transports street sweeping wastes, sludge from drains and septic tanks, green waste, debris and construction wastes, littered garbage on the roadside to the disposal site through employing its own trucks as well as hired trucks.

The biological processing of waste is done on a PPP mode and for the purpose of producing organic compost from bio-degradable waste, a Manure Compost Plant has been set up at the SMC Trenching Ground nere Don Bosco School in association with M/S Hindustan Jayba Rasayan , Kanchrapara, West Bengal. Further, recyclable and dry waste is being collected by North Bengal Plastic Federation from the Trenching Ground with the sale price being Rs. 3.50 per kg. (Ref. MIC, Conservancy and Sanitation, SMC)

4.3.2.3 Facts and Figures on MSW Management in Siliguri

The Siliguri Municipal Corporation area generates waste garbage to the tune of 450 mt. on an average daily basis at present. However, the quantity of waste exceeds during the season of cauliflower, pineapple etc. and during festivals. They originate from residential areas (household garbage, waste food, eatables, etc.); commercial areas (discarded packaging from shops, waste food from eateries,

waste generated from vegetable, fruit and fish markets, etc.); and treated bio-medical waste. The garbage is collected from the 11 (eleven) listed markets (D.I.Fund Market and Bidhan Market are cleared by contract system regularly), Cinema Houses (8 nos.), hospitals (4 nos. including T.B. Hospital), nursing homes (33 nos.), 50-60 nos. pathological laboratories, bus terminus, regulated market (fish, vegetable, fruit, potato & onion), hotels and restaurants (approx. 200 nos.). Besides, the Corporation is providing 'Night Conservancy Service' on the main arterial roads, viz., Hill Cart Road, Bidhan Road, Sevoke Road and Bidhan Market areas. This service is likely to be introduced in some other congested areas like Naya Bazar, Khalpara, Vivekananda Road, S.F. Road, Bus Terminus area and some other Commercial areas (www.siligurismc.com).

Under the solid waste management mission, the Corporation has introduced the 'Poly Bag System' in all the 47 wards with the purpose of house to house collection of solid wastes. Under this scheme, two poly bags – one green coloured for bio-degradable waste and another black coloured for non bio-degradable waste – were distributed to each household on payment of Rs. 50/- so that organic and inorganic waste could be segregated at the level of household itself. However, from the number of sale of the poly-bags (only 60881 households out of total of 96496 households in SMC Area), it is clear that nearly 40% of the households are not participating in the mission following rules.

Efforts are also on to segregate the plastic and recyclable materials at the doorsteps involving the rag pickers. With that end in view a number of meetings have been held with Paschim Banga Vigyan Mancha and North Bengal Plastic Federation (NBPF). However, as of now, nothing concrete has materialized. The financial facts and figures related to Municipal Solid Waste Management in Siliguri are laid down in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 : Financial Status of Siliguri Municipal Corporation with regard to

Conservancy

Particulars (1)		2007-08 (Actuals) (2)	2008-09 (Actuals) (3)	2009-10		2010-11 (Proposed Budget Estimates) (6)
				2009-10 (Actuals for 9 months upto Dec.'09) (4)	2009-10 (Revised Budget Estimates) (5)	
Revenue Receipts from Conservancy (Own Sources)	Garbages Cleaning Charges	1,892,087	1,672,414	1,793,952	1,950,000	2,000,000
	Cleaning of Septic Tank	1,322,039	1,626,780	1,410,755	1,900,000	2,000,000
	Special Conservancy Charges	567,232	497,945	505,100	510,000	750,000
	Debris Cleaning Charges	756,230	1,102,442	486,358	725,000	1,500,000
	TOTAL	4,537,588	4,899,581	4,196,165	5,085,000	6,250,000
Total Revenue Receipts from Own Sources (Tax Revenue + Non Tax Revenue)		104,340,271	132,281,358	95,858,925	123,318,000	255,426,000
Percentage of Revenue Receipts from Conservancy to Total Revenue Receipts from Own Sources		4	3.70	4.38	4.12	2.45
Revenue Expenditure on Conservancy	Establishment	-	65,487,324	68,563,562	93,535,000	102,400,000
	Maintenance	-	21,289,329	16,997,954	24,531,000	53,606,000
	Miscellaneous	-	192,102	77,233	125,000	300,000
	TOTAL	-	86,968,755	85,638,749	118,191,000	156,306,000
Total Revenue Receipts : Own Sources (TR+NTR) + Govt. Sources (S&T+GG) + Other Sources		269,116,593	282,510,309	258,270,437	371,757,000	595,985,000
Total Revenue Expenditure		-	250,623,410	253,353,799	371,034,000	525,117,000
Percentage of Revenue Expenditure on Conservancy to Total Revenue Expenditure		-	35	34	32	30
Revenue Receipts from Conservancy '>or<'Revenue Expenditure on Conservancy		-	<82,069,174	<81,422,584	<113,106,000	<150,056,000
Total Capital Expenditure on		-	16,433,113	6,093,878	10,500,000	15,250,000

Conservancy					
Total Expenditure on Conservancy (Revenue + Capital)	34,443,376	103,401,868	91,732,627	128,741,000	171,556,000
Total Receipts of SMC (Revenue + Capital + Extraordinary & Debt)	737,356,934	708,839,435	645,097,806	887,060,500	1,812,388,000
Total Expenditure of SMC (Revenue + Capital + Extraordinary & Debt)	564,497,717	703,744,602	566,296,435	887,375,000	1,828,845,000
Percentage of Total Expenditure on Conservancy to Total Expenditure of SMC	6.1	15	16	15	9

Sources : Budgets of Siliguri Municipal Corporation, 2008-09, 2009-10, 2010-11; Annual Report of SMC, 2007-08

4.3.2.4 The Future Plans with regard to Municipal Solid Waste Management in Siliguri

The existing dumping ground which is situated about 8 kms. from the centre of the city near Baikunthapur Forest (landmark being Don Bosco School and falling under Ward Nos. 41 and 42) has an area of 28 acres. However, only approximately 20 acres are being used for the purpose of disposal of garbage as the remaining portion has been encroached upon. As of now, this dumping ground is filled to the optimum level. Keeping the situation in mind, the SJDA undertook a study way back in 2003 for setting up a compost plant and landfill site at Putimari near Sahudangi in Binnaguri Mouza, some 10 Kms. away from the city. A detailed 'Project Report' was prepared in this regard and submitted for authorization to the WBPCB. The latter has already approved the project and has sanctioned a grant of Rs. 25 lakhs for the same. The area of this new site is proposed to have 35 acres and 19.67 acres of land at the site has already been purchased and registered (SMC 2010-11). For the purpose of setting up a solid waste processing plant at the venue, expression of interested and reputed organizations has already been obtained through tender by SJDA and final selection is in process. However, despite acquisition of land in 2004, nothing concrete has progressed and the land is still lying vacant primarily owing to the opposition of the local populace.

According to one of the press briefs of SMC, as only 30% of the garbage is used for producing fertilizers, the rest organic waste can be burnt to generate an estimated 5 to 7 mw power which would help save the civic body Rs. 7 to 9 lakh

per month which is paid as electricity bills for street lights and pumping stations. As such, the Corporation on 26.03.2008 endorsed the proposal of the West Bengal Renewable Energy Development Agency for setting up of a power generation plant for generation of power from municipal waste. For the purpose of the project, the SMC identified a 13 acre plot at Putimari near Sahudangi in Rajganj block. According to the then MMIC (Conservancy), the SMC would donate 13 acres of land and set up infrastructure like boundary wall, housing for employees, drainage, road, electrification and water. It was decided that the Agency would provide technical assistance in the generation of power. However, the power generation is yet to take off.

The present incumbent of MIC (Conservancy and Environment), SMC, in a press release on 05.11.2009., had announced launching of awareness campaigns for the residents of Siliguri on the systematic disposal of waste. For the purpose, decision was taken to distribute CDs to all 47 Ward Councillors, who, in turn, will show them in their wards using LCD projectors and other audio-visual mechanisms to the residents. The CDs would contain information and guidelines on waste disposal and proper collection of garbage. The content of the documentary would be 'dos' and 'don'ts' for the residents on conservancy, guidelines for collecting garbage, the necessity of solid waste management and how a resident can help civic employees dispose the waste (The Telegraph 2009). However, the survey of the people on the issue reveal that no respondent ever got to see any such documentary. Hopefully, such noble project would be disseminated with genuine effort among the masses in near future.

4.3.2.5 Problems Associated with SWM in Siliguri

Siliguri Municipal Corporation is the ultimate authority in Siliguri responsible for the collection, temporary storage, conveyance and ultimate and safe disposal of solid waste originating from residential, commercial areas and hospitals, nursing homes and pathological laboratories. Despite having infrastructural arrangements and regular attempts for the augmentation of the same, the solid waste management seems to be far short of the desired standards as have been reported by various sources as well as observed by the researcher himself.

As has already been mentioned that as solid waste may be categorized into hazardous and non-hazardous, bio-degradable and non bio-degradable, and

recyclable and reusable or non-recyclable and non-reusable, the methods for their final disposal require different management practices. However, it has been observed that these practices are mostly environment-unfriendly which may be harmful to the Siliguri dwellers through pollution of air and water in the long run. The main deficiencies of the governance aspect in the present system of solid waste management may be laid down as under :

(i) Lack of Proper Training to Sanitary Workers and Non-scientific Collection of Solid Waste at Source – The first and foremost pre-requisite for making the SWM Scheme a success in Siliguri is the proper training of sanitary workers on the finer aspects of garbage collection. It has been observed by the researcher that generally they do not put pressure on the inhabitants to deposit their compostable and non-compostable garbage in the two different poly bags provided for the purpose. Moreover, those citizens who prefer to use two poly bags, it has been observed that sanitary workers, on most of the occasion, mix them up in one bin. There is a need to make them understand by the Sanitary Inspectors, the Ward SWM Committee members as well as the educated citizens about the problems in composting and recycling as well as cost escalation on mixing different types of wastes. Thus, the major problem of primary collection is the non segregation of reusable and recyclable waste material at source. Besides, hazardous domestic wastes, such as, used batteries, cosmetic items, broken bulbs, paints, aerosol cans, etc. are dumped together with other waste. This practice may lead to harmful health hazards for the sanitation workers.

(ii) Improper Management of Waste at Storage Points – The secondary forms of waste storage depots are not scientifically designed. It is observed that the sanitation workers generally deposit the waste on the ground just outside the storage bins as they find it quite difficult to transfer the waste efficiently in the bin. Even if they do so, there remains the possibility of some garbage being strewn on the ground. Besides, the dwellers, too, avoid going near the bins to deposit their waste. They find the sites very unhygienic and generally throw the waste in the bin from a distance. As a result of all these, the garbage is strewn all over the place around the masonry bins and vats instead of being confined within the demarcated area.

(iii) Unhygienic Transportation of the Waste to the Dumping Ground – The loading of waste from the storage bins/vats onto the conveyance vehicles is manually done which again causes strewing of the waste all around. Besides, this

method is injurious to the health of the sanitation workers and reduces their productivity. Again, most of the vehicles which transport the garbage are uncovered. Not only this gives unsightly appearance and emanates foul smell all the way, it also causes nuisance because of littering of waste on the streets on the way to disposal site.

(iv) Deficiencies at the Landfill Site – The general practice is simply dumping the waste at the landfill site. They are neither covered nor spread. This may lead to environmental pollution in the form of sub-soil water contamination. Moreover, another aspect which may pose serious health hazard is the unscientific method of disposal of treated bio-medical waste.

(ii) Inadequacy of Vehicles and Equipments – The fleet of vehicles arranged for the transportation of the waste to the dumping ground or to the processing and disposal sites is inadequate. The trucks and trailers which are generally used for conveying the waste are quite old and meet frequent breakdown and require frequent repairs. Besides, private trucks are also hired for the purpose. Despite these, the combined fleet falls short of the requirement to transport all the waste of the city on day-to-day basis, causing backlog for removal of garbage. No doubt, if the situation is not urgently improved upon, the solid waste transportation would worsen further as the volume of solid waste generation is expected to rise with the passage of time seeing the fast pace of urban growth of Siliguri.

Besides, there is acute shortage of community bins. These are few in number and disproportionate to the population and the quantity of solid waste generation. Most of the localities do not have any. This creates problems for those residents (single and leave for work, working couples, for some reason absence from house, and the like) who are not present at home when the sanitation workers visit the area for collection of garbage. Thus, these sections of people generally tend to throw the household garbage on to the streets or in the drains.

(v) Irregular Collection – The collection of garbage is not extended on Sundays and public holidays. The collection of waste through street sweeping is also quite irregular.

(vi) Illegal Practice of Dumping Waste at Improper Place – It has been noticed on several occasions that the MSW are not properly deposited at the stipulated secondary storage facility. More so, newspaper reports confirm (Ananda Bazar Patrika, 8 November, 2010) that at one place, nearby to the army transit camp, garbage have been deposited in an unauthorized way to help facilitate construction

of a taxi and auto stand. This practice needs to be checked to maintain cleanliness in the surroundings.

(viii) Constraints of Funds – This is one area which needs to be urgently attended to. SWM is a capital intensive programme. Not only in terms of coverage, but also in terms of fund, a large amount is required for replacement of vat bins at regular intervals. This only relates to the collection aspect of SWM. Proper and final disposal demands huge investment on the part of the SMC. The fact is that about 80 to 90% of the expenditure goes into only collection and transportation of the garbage. As such, virtually nothing remains at the disposal of the SMC to think about its proper and safe disposal. The SWM service charges, as laid down above, are too meagre to sustain it in proper manner. Table 4.14 amply shows the poor status of the revenue receipts in this regard. While the percentage of total revenue receipts from conservancy to total revenue receipts hovers between 2.45 to 4%, the percentage of revenue expenditure on conservancy to total revenue expenditure is somewhere between 30 to 35. This huge gap requires to be filled in order to successfully sustain the project.

4.4 GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN WATER SUPPLY

Before 1994, ring wells and tube wells were the main source of water for the people of Siliguri residing within Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area. These traditional sources of water were qualitatively poor and unhygienic. Though recommendations were given and plans were formulated with regard to water supply by the Siliguri Planning Organization (Interim Development Plan and Comprehensive Development Plan), The Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority (Outline Development Plan) and Siliguri Municipal Corporation along with SJDA (Approach Paper) in the pre-1994 period, but the efforts undertaken were far from satisfactory (the details laid out in Chapter 3). As such, the city was prone to different types of health hazards, the most prominent being dysentery and diarrhea. One of the top priorities, then, of the civic body after its up gradation from Municipal Council to Municipal Corporation was the supply of potable water through a systematic distribution system among the urban dwellers of Siliguri.

4.4.1 Facts and Figures

It was in October, 1993 that 'Siliguri Comprehensive Water Supply Project: Phase I' was sanctioned. This project started in May, 1994 and was completed and

commissioned on 31.12.1998 with the active support of the Public Health Engineering Directorate, Govt. of West Bengal. The total cost of the project came at Rs. 4617.55 lakhs and the components of the project were laying of pipelines, establishment of treatment plant and construction of reservoirs. The sources of funding were HUDCO, State Government and Siliguri Municipal Corporation. The supply of potable water to the residents of Siliguri finally started from September 1999 and it covered Ward No. 1 to Ward No. 30 of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation (www.siligurismc.com)

The IInd Phase of Water Supply Scheme for the Siliguri Added Area (Ward 31 to Ward 44 falling under Jalpaiguri district) was started under UIDSSMT with an approved cost of 2271.00 lakhs being shared by the Central Government and the State Government (Departments of Municipal Affairs and Public Health Engineering). Subsequently, the Additional Central Assistance (ACA) of Rs. 1850.87 lakhs was released for the project in two installments of Rs. 942.47 and Rs. 908.40 lakhs by the Department of Expenditure, Ministry of Finance, GOI. The first part of the IInd Phase was completed during the year 2007-2008 and the supply of water started for the wards 31 to 35 on 23.03.08 (SMC 2007-08). The supply of water in the remaining Wards 36 to 44 is nearing its completion, though partially, it has already started.

In the remaining Wards of 45, 46 and 47 falling under Zone X, though water supply has started in Ward No. 45 recently, the residents of Ward Nos. 46 and 47 are still to get household water connection. The project of water supply in this Zone has been taken up at an approximated cost of Rs. 13 Crores. A sum of Rs. 2.50 Crores, Rs. 2.80 Crores and Rs. 1.00 Crores have already been received from SJDA; from Department of Municipal Affairs, Government of West Bengal; and under BMS respectively. Provision of the remaining fund (including SMC's own fund) is being contemplated so that the work gets completed by the end of the financial year 2010-2011 (SMC 2010-2011)

The present source of 'Raw Water' is Mahananda River Barrage Pond and the location of intake is on the left bank upstream of the barrage. It is pumped through 900 mm diametre C.I / M.S Pipe to the Treatment Plant at Fulbari, located at about 1 Km. away from the intake site on the left side of the road towards barrage from Siliguri. The treatment Plant has the following units:

- (i) Chemical House
- (ii) Flash Mixer

- (iii) Clariflocculator - 2 nos.
- (iv) Rapid sand Filtration with Back – Wash arrangement – 12 beds.
- (v) Disinfections

The Chemical House of the Plant accommodates 3 Alum Dosing Tanks to administer a continuous alum solution dosing of 55.02 MLD of water. The Chemical House has also the arrangement of dosing coagulants and PH correction if necessary. Besides, arrangement is there for continuous dosing of disinfectants. Raw water after being treated is stored in a CWR of capacity 4000 m³.

PHED is the water quality monitoring agency of both the raw and treated water. The monitoring of raw water is done on a weekly basis, of treated water at the treatment plant on daily basis and of distribution network on a weekly basis.

The treated water is pumped and transmitted through transmission main of 900 mm diameter C.I / M.S pipe to CWR at Jhankar Head Work, about 9 Km. away from the Treatment Plant. The reservoir has the capacity 6000 m³.

The distribution system of Siliguri Comprehensive Water Supply Scheme is divided into 10 (ten) zones and the treated water from Jhankar CWR is pumped through the raising main to different zonal elevated reservoirs. Finally, piped water reaches the consumers through distribution main through Street Stand-Posts and Household connections.

The following table seeks to lay down a trajectory of basic facts with respect to water supply scheme in Siliguri :

Table 4.15 : A Comparison of Water Supply Scheme in Siliguri : 1999 and 2010

Sl. No.	Particulars	September, 1999 (Commissioning of the Water Supply Project)	2010 Figures	
			As on 31.03.2010 (Figures of PHED)	As on 30.11.2010 (Figures of MIC, Water Supply, SMC)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Population (Estimated) in lakh	3.67	4.93	4.93
2.	Capacity of Treatment Plant	55.02 MLD	55.02 MLD	55.02 MLD
3.	Quantity of Supply	8.00 MLD	32 MLD	40 MLD
4.	Remaining Quantity	47.02 MLD	23.02 MLD	15.02 MLD

5.	Per Capita Supply	Based on Treated Quantity	150 LCPD *	112 LCPD*	112 LCPD*
		Based on Supplied Quantity	21.8 LCPD*	64.9 LCPD*	81.1 LCPD*
6.	Total Number of House Connection provided		4,662	11,500	15,074
7.	Total Number of Households		-	-	98,000 (appr.)
8.	Coverage	Population	-	-	95 %
		Area	-	-	95 %
9.	Nature of Source of Water		Surface	Surface	Surface
10.	Length of Pipe-line	Transmission Main	9.00 km.	-	-
		Rising Main	11.00 km.	-	-
		Distribution Main	180.00 km.(New) 50.00 km. (Old)	-	-
11.	Number of Stand Posts		648	878	1188
12.	Total Number of Zones		6	-	13
13.	Daily Supply through Tankers		Nil	Nil	Nil
14.	Average Hours of Supply Daily		-	-	4
15.	Number of Times Supplied Daily		-	-	2

*Calculated

Sources : www.siligurismc.com

www.wbphed.gov.in

MIC, Water Supply, Siliguri Municipal Corporation

From the above Table, it appears that the position of water supply within the Siliguri Municipal Corporation area seems to be satisfactory as presently there is still a surplus of about 15 MLD of treated water. Moreover, the C.I / M.S Pipe laid down is capable of carrying 60.52 MLD of treated water, which was projected to be the water demand for the year 2011. The original design of the water treatment plant at Fulbari was fixed for a projected population for the year 2011 of the Phase I area (Wards 1 to 30) considering a demand of 150 Litres Per Capacity Per Day (LCPD). Later on, the design was made along with Phase II area (Ward 31 to 44) and the projected demand was calculated to be 84.85 MLD for the year 2021 keeping in consideration the demand of 185 LCPD. Thus, there is a need to look into the matter as to why there is not enough demand for the Corporation's water supply which is very much evident in case of majority of other Class I cities.

It is to be noted that the entire population of Siliguri was already having adequate water supply through individual tube wells and dug wells prior to the construction of the piped water supply scheme for the town. Moreover, the populace was not facing much difficulty in extracting ground water as the levels of ground water in Siliguri did not go beyond four metres. As a result, there were very few people who applied for a piped connection since that meant paying an extra water tax and an extra burden on the budget of a household. Besides, the supply of water by the SMC through substantial number of public stand-posts at street corners without charging any fees also desisted the populace from taking house connections.

Nonetheless, if the figures provided by PHED (31.03.10) and MIC, Water Supply, SMC (30.11.10) are to be believed, there has been a substantial increase in the number of water supply connections within last six months. This may be largely attributed to the mandatory requirement to have piped water supply connection for any new residential or office complex coming up within the Corporation area. Besides, slow but steady change in the social psychology of the people at large has also been witnessed. Keeping these considerations in mind, there is a need to have a long-term vision of municipal water supply so that the dwellers do not face any sort of scarcity in future times to come even though such scarcity is unlikely to crop up in coming few years. Realizing these, the SMC has given some thought with respect to water supply, though not comprehensive, in its Draft Development Plan (2008-2013). The following Table lays down the immediate future plans of the SMC with regard to urban water supply.

Table 4.16 : Immediate Future Plans of SMC on Water Supply

Particulars		<u>Scheme 1</u> Extension of Pipe Line covering Wards 31 to 44 (2)	<u>Scheme 2</u> Construction of Stand Posts- 335 Nos. in all Wards (3)	<u>Scheme 3</u> Alternate Source of Water Supply from Teesta River at Gazoldoba (4)
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)
Start and End Date		September, '08- September, '13	September, 2008 – March, 2113	N.A.
Project Cost (in	TCR	250.00	142.00	-
	ARE	7.00	14.20	-

Rs. Lakhs)	Total	257.00	156.20	82.07
Fund Name	BRGF	Spot Source	Central Government	

Source : Draft Development Plan, SMC, 2008-2013

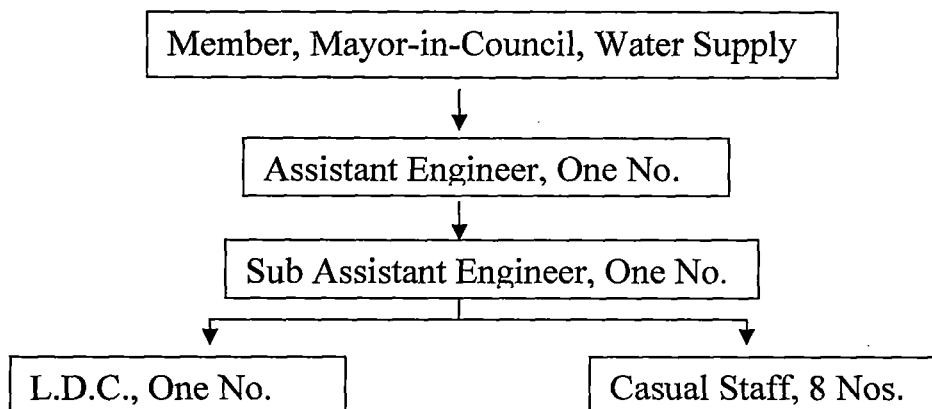
4.4.2 Governance in Water Supply in SMC

The West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 (commenced on 29th May, 2008) is the legislative framework for provision of water supply within the jurisdiction of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation. Part I, Chapter I, Section 2 and Sub-Sections 64 and 108 of the Act lay down the definitions of the term 'Municipal Waterworks' and 'Waterworks'. The former means a waterworks constructed, operated, maintained and managed by the Corporation or purchased or taken on lease by the Corporation. The latter includes all lakes, tanks, streams, cisterns, springs, pumps, wells, reservoirs, aqueducts, water-trucks, sluices, mains, pipes, culverts, hydrants, stand-pipes, conduits, and things, which are used, or are intended to be used, for the purpose of supplying water. Sections 175 to 221 [Part VI (Civic Services), Chapter XI (Water Supply and Drainage)] of the Act details out the provisions related to water supply within SMC area and Section 176 in this regard enjoins upon the SMC to supply wholesome water for the domestic use of the inhabitants. Besides the above Act, the Corporation is also deemed to comply with the provisions of the Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution), 1974 and Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Cess Act, 1977, both of them enacted by the Government of India. Moreover, the concerned authorities with regard to SMC water supply system take reference of the National Water Policy, 2002 and the Model Ground Water Legislation brought out by Central Ground Water Board (CGWB) as and when necessary.

The institutional arrangement of 'Water Supply' in SMC area involves Public Health Engineering Directorate (PHED) and Siliguri Municipal Corporation (SMC). Whereas the capital works and O&M is dealt by the PHED, the collection of revenue is the responsibility of the MIC, Water Supply, SMC.

The organizational structure of Water Supply Department of the SMC is as follows :

**Figure 4.10 : Orgnizational Structure of Water Supply Department of
SMC**



For the purpose of convenience in water supply, the city of Siliguri has been divided into 10 Zones and each of the Zones 7, 8 and 9 have been further divided into two Sub-Zones. The following table lays down the details of the zonation of water supply service in Siliguri.

**Table 4.17 : Number of Zones with Regard to Water Supply in Siliguri
(As on 30.11.2010)**

Sl. No. (1)	Name of the Zone (2)	Number of Reservoirs (3)	Capacity of the Reservoirs (4)
1.	I	2	Old – 0.80 Lakhs Gallons ; New – 1.75 Lakhs Gallons
2.	II	1	2.5 Lakhs Gallons
3.	III	2	Old – 1.00 Lakhs Gallons ; New – 1.50 Lakhs Gallons
4.	IV	1	2.00 Lakhs Gallons
5.	V	1	2.50 Lakhs Gallons
6.	VI	1	2.50 Lakhs Gallons
7.	VIIA	1	3.5 Lakhs Gallons
	VIIIB	1	Under Construction
8.	VIIIA	1	3.5 Lakhs Gallons
	VIIIB	1	Under Construction
9.	IXA	1	1.75 Lakhs Gallons
	IXB	1	Under Construction
10	X	1	Tender Procedure in Process

Sources : Water Supply Department, SMC
PHED, Planning Circle II, Siliguri

The water supply charges for household connection started in the year 1999 and since then, it has never been revised. Besides, there is no charge imposed on water supply through street stand-posts. As far as the water supply charges are concerned, it is levied at the monthly rate of 1 % of the deposited money for water supply connection, except those of bulk supply and industrial establishments. The connection charges within Siliguri Municipal Area have been categorized into three categories, namely, (i) Domestic; (ii) Commercial; and (iii) Industrial. Table 4.18 lays down the connection charges for these categories of consumers.

Table 4.18 : Connection Charges and Monthly Water Charges within SMC

Area

Sl. No. (1)	Categories (2)		Connection Charges (3)	Water Charges (4)
1.	Domestic	Up to 3000 sq. ft.	Rs. 3,000/-	Rs. 30/ month
		Between 3000 and 4000 sq. ft.	Rs. 4,000/-	Rs. 40/ month
		Between 4000 and 5000 sq. ft.	Rs. 5,000/-	Rs. 50/ month
		Above 5000 sq. ft.	Rs. 5,000/- plus Re.1/ sq. ft. for additional area	Depending on total area
2.	Commercial	Guest House up to 20 beds	Rs. 10,000/-	Rs.100/ month
		Guest House above 20 beds	Rs. 10,000/- plus Rs. 500/- per additional bed	Depending on total no. of beds
		Hotel up to 20 beds	Rs. 15,000/-	Rs.150/ month
		Hotel above 20 beds	Rs. 15,000/- plus Rs. 1,000/- per additional bed	Depending on total no. of beds
		Restaurant up to 1000 sq. ft.	Rs. 5,000/-	Rs. 50/month
		Restaurant above 1000 sq. ft.	Rs. 5,000/- plus Rs.2/- per sq. ft. for additional area	Depending on total area
		Hall up to 5000 sq.ft. for commercial and social purpose	Rs. 10,000/-	Rs. 100/month
		Hall above 5000 sq. ft. for commercial and social purpose	Rs. 10,000/- plus Rs. 2/- per sq.ft. additional area	Depending on total area
		Nursing Home up to 20 beds	Rs. 10,000/-	Rs. 100/month

		Nursing Home above 20 beds	Rs. 10,000/- plus Rs. 1,000/- per additional bed	Depending on total no. of beds
3.	Industrial			Dealt on Individual Basis

Source : www.siligurismc.com

With respect to bulk water supply, it is at present provided only to the North Bengal Medical College @ Rs. 5 Lakhs per month as water charges.

The detailed list of street stand posts and their locational pattern is laid down in Table 4.19 as under.

Table 4.19 : Detailed List of Street Stand Posts within SMC Area (As on 30.11.2010)

Zone No.	Ward No.	Present Nos. of Stand Posts	Population of the Ward (as per 2001 census)	Street Stand Post: Citizen Ratio in the Ward	Total Nos. of Stand Posts in the Zone	Provision as per DPR	New Proposals
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
I	6	17	9023	1 : 531	87	130	-
	10	22	4720	1 : 215			-
	11	9	2933	1 : 326			-
	13	14	5070	1 : 362			-
	14	25	6407	1 : 256			-
II	4	34	20028	1 : 589	125	130	-
	5	32	15326	1 : 479			-
	7	20	9889	1 : 494			-
	8	25	7843	1 : 314			-
	9	14	7306	1 : 522			-
III	25	21	8525	1 : 406	129	130	-
	26	19	4873	1 : 256			-
	27	31	5630	1 : 182			-
	28	22	9578	1 : 435			-
	29(P)	18	4783	1 : 266			-
	30	18	6510	1 : 362			-
IV	12	22	3772	1 : 171	228	105	-
	15	26	8103	1 : 312			-
	16	22	5984	1 : 272			-
	17	26	5485	1 : 211			-
	18	44	8440	1 : 192			-

	19	12	3233	1 : 269			-
	20	43	9869	1 : 230			-
	21	33	5875	1 : 178			-
V	22	40	10293	1 : 257	129	120	-
	23	31	6205	1 : 200			-
	24	42	11165	1 : 266			-
	29(P)	16	4783	1 : 299			-
VI	1	16	17843	1 : 1115	136	125	-
	2	33	11436	1 : 347			-
	3	30	11753	1 : 392			-
	45	21	7117	1 : 339			-
	46	18	21222	1 : 1179			-
	47	18	8363	1 : 465			-
VII A	31	32	13414	1 : 419	76	42	-
	32	26	11845	1 : 456			-
	33	18	13543	1 : 752			-
VII B	34	42	16560	1 : 394	81	47	-
	35	39	14945	1 : 383			-
VIII A	39	10	11237	1 : 1124	47	30	10
	40	28	18164	1 : 649			8
	41(P)	9	12951	1 : 1439			4
VIII B	36	18	13553	1 : 753	49	38	-
	37	17	14431	1 : 849			-
	38	14	11235	1 : 803			5
IX A	41(P)	33	12951	1 : 392	60	5	
	43 (P)	12	9661	1 : 805			
	44	15	11522	1 : 768			
IX B	42	27	14711	1 : 545	41	NIL	
	43(P)	14	9661	1 : 690			

'P' denotes Partial

Source : Water Supply Department, SMC

The table above on street stand posts for municipal water supply provides a vivid picture on non-maintenance of uniformity as far as location pattern is concerned. The number of stand posts in three of the Wards is striking – Ward Nos. 1, 39 and 46. In these Wards, there is one street stand post for an average of 1115, 1124 and 1179 persons respectively. On the other hand, in some of the Wards, the number of posts exceeds far more than the requirement, for instance, Ward No. 12 (1:171), Ward No. 18 (1:192), Ward No. 21 (1:178) and Ward No. 27 (1:182). Not only is the question of uniformity, but the location pattern of stand

posts also goes against the principle of social justice. If one looks at the number of slum pockets in each Ward, one finds them highest in Ward Nos. 1 (13 notified slums) and 46 (14 notified slums). It is in these Wards that the majority of the people are poor and cannot afford to have an individual household connection for water supply. Moreover, there are problems with what number of stand posts has been prescribed in the DPR and what number actually exist in each zone. Disparity is evident in this respect, too, as in some zones, the number has exceeded too far than prescribed in the DPR and in some, it is too less. One glaring instance is Zone No. IXA where the actual figure of stand posts is twelve times than that laid down in the DPR. With respect to new proposals, one may note that the most needy Wards 1 and 46 have not been considered.

The financial status of last three years of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation with regard to water supply is laid down as under :

Table 4.20 : Financial Status of Siliguri Municipal Corporation with regard to Water Supply

Particulars		2007-08 (Actuals)	2008-09 (Actuals)	2009-10		2010-11 (Proposed Budget Estimates)	
				2009-10 (Actuals for 9 months upto Dec.'09)	2009-10 (Revised Budget Estimates)		
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	
Revenue Receipts from Water Supply (Own Sources)	Tax Revenue	Water Tax	3,866,482	4,440,797	4,338,580	5,000,000	6,000,000
	Non Tax Revenue	Water Connection Charges	5,812,602	10,196,875	8,608,316	10,000,000	10,000,000
		Water Tank Charges	183,925	214,975	108,650	165,000	250,000
	TOTAL		9,863,009	14,852,647	13,055,546	15,165,000	16,250,000
Total Revenue Receipts from Own Sources (Tax Revenue + Non Tax Revenue)		104,340,271	132,281,358	95,858,925	123,318,000	255,426,000	
Percentage of Revenue Receipts from Water Supply to Total		9.45	11.22	13.62	12.30	6.36	

Revenue Receipts from Own Sources						
Revenue	Establishment	-	312,264	529,537	695,000	916,000
Expenditure on Water Supply	Maintenance	-	12,224,537	10,089,598	16,810,000	30,100,000
	Miscellaneous	-	40,464	35,000	50,000	100,000
	TOTAL	-	12,577,265	10,654,135	17,555,000	31,116,000
Total Revenue Receipts : Own Sources (TR+NTR) + Govt. Sources (S&T+GG) + Other Sources		269,116,593	282,510,309	258,270,437	371,757,000	595,985,000
Total Revenue Expenditure		-	250,623,410	253,353,799	371,034,000	525,117,000
Percentage of Revenue Expenditure on Water Supply to Total Revenue Expenditure		-	5.02	4.21	4.73	5.93
Revenue Receipts from Water Supply '>>or<'Revenue Expenditure on Water Supply		-	>2275382	>2401411	<2390000	<14866000
Total Capital Expenditure on Water Supply		-	73,039,631	59,869,324	92,099,000	334,620,000
Total Expenditure on Water Supply (Revenue + Capital)		130,289,864	85,616,896	70,523,459	109,654,000	365,736,000
Total Receipts of SMC (Revenue + Capital + Extraordinary& Debt)		737,356,934	708,839,435	645,097,806	887,060,500	1,812,388,000
Total Expenditure of SMC (Revenue + Capital + Extraordinary& Debt)		564,497,717	703,744,602	566,296,435	887,375,000	1,828,845,000
Percentage of Total Expenditure on Water Supply to Total Expenditure of SMC		23.08	12.17	12.45	12.36	20.00

Sources : Budgets of Siliguri Municipal Corporation, 2008-09, 2009-10, 2010-11; Annual Report of SMC, 2007-08

4.4.3 Problems of and Possible Solutions to Water Supply System in Siliguri

The population of Siliguri Municipal Corporation has been estimated to be about 4.93 lakhs according to the estimates of PHED as on 31.03.2010. If the trend of urbanization of Siliguri continues at this rate, the total population of Siliguri may stand at about 5.86 lakhs in 2011 and about 7.03 lakhs in the year 2021 (Perspective Plan, Volume II 2004 : 54). In this context, it may be noted that out of about 98,000 households in the city, water connection is prevalent only in 15,074 households as on 30.11.2010. As such, even today, the sources of water for the

majority of the households are dug wells and tube wells. Besides, as there is no provision presently of any kind of sewerage system in the city, the sanitation system is solely dependent on underground septic system with soak pit. Moreover, majority of plots in Siliguri are smaller in size. In this backdrop, crops up the first problem with regard to ground water as the recommended spacing between the soak pit and the dug wells and tube wells are more often violated which invariably poses a serious threat of contamination of water by the underground effluents from the sewer.

As to why a meager 15.4 (approximate) percentage of households have water supply connections, there is a need to understand the general social psychology of the Siliguri dwellers. It was observed while surveying and talking to several dwellers in different localities that a large percentage of population use water from the street stand-posts as a source of drinking water. It is to be noted that this treated water is being utilized without paying any charge. More so, a huge number of such users do have the financial stability to go for connection of SMC's water supply system. Instead, they meet other requirements of water through individual water supply like tube wells or dug wells fitted with small pumps. This issue needs to be addressed in order to reduce contamination of ground water as well as conservation of ground water.

However, despite the abysmally low percentage of household water supply connections, one very striking feature in this regard is that there has been a phenomenal increase in water supply connections between April, 2010 and November, 2010. During these eight months, the number increased from 11,500 to 15,074 – an increase of about 4,600 connections. Thus, though lately, the mindset of the populace seems to be changing in this respect. This situation needs to be usefully tapped by the Water Supply Department of the SMC. Increase in number of connections would not only reduce the threat of contamination of ground water but at the same time, it would substantially increase the revenue receipt of the Corporation.

If the trend of increase in connectivity as witnessed above continues, the supply side augmentation would be the inevitable consequence. Keeping such consideration in mind, the SMC pursued the matter with the State Government and the follow up action resulted in the formation of a Committee comprising of representatives from Municipal Affairs Department, Govt. of West Bengal; Irrigation Department, Govt. of West Bengal; Public Health Engineering

Directorate, Govt. of West Bengal; Water Supply Department of KMDA; MED; Teesta Barrage Authority; and Siliguri Municipal Corporation. The Committee has come out with the identification and survey of alternative intake source at Gazaldoba, some 27 kms. away from Siliguri. This distant water source and its transfer to Siliguri through gigantic and heavy pipes involve huge capital investment as well as it is time-consuming. In a way, this huge engineering-oriented augmentation plan is a common practice and is more acceptable at all levels. Nonetheless, in all probability, SMC would succeed in receiving the proposed huge fund of Rs. 25 crores for the project from the government and other institutions. This is primarily due to the hard fact that no strict conditionalities are laid down with regard to reforms in water supply system while sanctioning funds. This seems to have attributed largely for the sense of complacency on the part of Water Supply Department, SMC and the PHED as far as vision and innovation in this sector is concerned.

For the last ten long years when water supply first started in Siliguri through 'Siliguri Comprehensive Water Supply Project', it has remained comprehensive only in terms of area coverage. There is no denying the fact that about 95 percent of the total area of SMC has been covered under the system. But then, establishment of water supply infrastructure and maintenance of the same is not enough. It is realized that reforms are like blood in the body and are necessarily needed to sustain the system. On same principle, numerous reforms are to be executed to make water supply reliable, self sustainable and last for longer period. However, the sad story with SMC is that the other measures needed to conserve water, to reduce contamination of ground water and to augment revenue resources to the optimal level have not been forthcoming. In order that water supply system in Siliguri become comprehensive, the followings need to be addressed :

(i)Need to Augment Revenue Receipts – Though SMC has made compulsory consent for connection of municipal water supply before sanctioning any new building plans, the need is to extend it and make it mandatory for all households, except for the slum households for the present, to obtain individual house connections. Even if slum households, which constitute about one-third of the total households, are exempted from this mandate for the time being, it would help SMC quadruple its revenue income from water supply which can be usefully utilized in O&M without being dependant on grants. Slum households may be

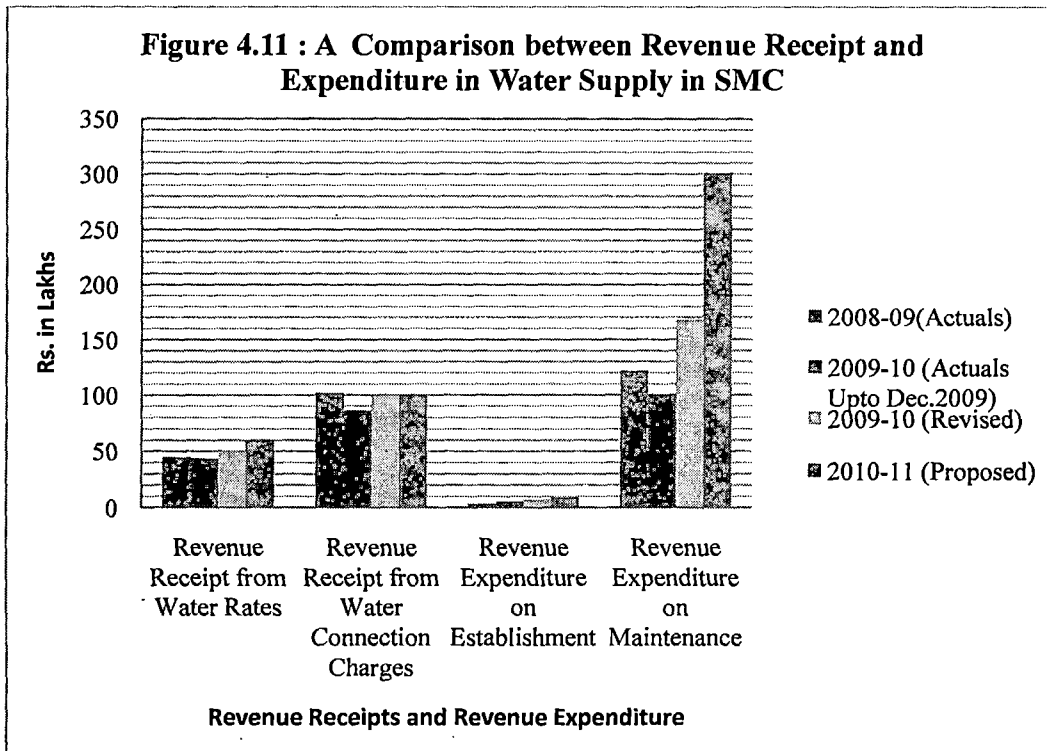
incorporated in due course under the purview on the basis of lesser or subsidized water connection charges and water rates.

(ii)Need to Do Away with Populist Measures – The sorry state of affairs with the executing agency of the SMC is that it is rarely involved when it comes to the question of amount of water charges. Though the capital and O&M expenditures on water supply have increased manifold, the water connection charges and water rates have not been revised since the inception of water supply system in Siliguri. The concerned authorities of SMC should strive out to revise the charges judiciously from time to time keeping in consideration the need to augment its resources for serving people better.

(iii)Need to Restructure the Existing Water Connection Charges and Water Rates – The water connection charges for the domestic consumers of Siliguri seem to be a bit impracticable. The baseline connection charge has been kept at Rs. 3000/- for houses up to 3000 sq.ft. It is to be kept in mind that a very less percentage of people of Siliguri own houses with plinth area above 1,500 sq.ft. As such, one time connection charge of Rs. 3000/- for all households upto 3000sq.ft. appears to be huge enough for many to get connection of SMC's water supply system. It would be advisable to keep the connection charge commensurate with the square footage of the house. This would be within the reach of the common populace and would also promote the principle of equity. The loss of revenue can be made up by enhancing the water rate from the existing 1% of the connection charge to 2 or 3% of the connection charge or through alternative methods of water rates.

The above three issues highlighted are inter-related to one another. No doubt, the basic objective of any water supply system is cost recovery to the maximum possible limit. For this, the simple theory is to get more and more households within SMC area connected to the water supply system. However, increase in the number of connections is majorly dependent on the judicious water connection charges and water rates which call for measures rising above populism. Figure 4.11 seeks to substantiate the point with regard to water supply system in Siliguri. Let us examine the scenario. Firstly, it becomes clear from the Chart that the revenue receipts from water rates and water connection charges have remained almost constant without any major fluctuations in the last two financial years and have been proposed in the budget to remain more or less similar in this financial year. This amply proves that the collection of water rates by the SMC and Borough

Offices under it lacks efficiency. This is for the simple reason that while receipts from connection charges is a one time affair, water rates are received on a cumulative basis and, as such, more and more accumulation is the natural expectation with every passing year.



The second noticeable thing in the Figure above is that the revenue receipts from water connection charges is almost double the amount than that of the revenue receipts from water rates in the preceding two financial years. The almost similar case has been proposed in the current financial year. This can be attributed to the existing huge connection tariffs. However, the negativity of such charges is the low percentage of household connections. One of the many possible solutions is to reduce the household area and amount of baseline connection charges and to increase the water rates by a percent or two. This would lead not only in the growth of household connections but also would result in the substantial growth of revenue receipts in the form of water rates in the long run.

These considerations are to be addressed sooner than later by the SMC as the cost of maintenance of water supply system has been increasing gradually as is evident from the figures in the Chart. One, it is the escalating costs of equipments

and electricity charges and two, it is old water pipe lines which results in regular breakage and interruption in steady water supply. The Mayor of SMC rightly showed her concern in this regard in her Budget Speech on 29th March, 2010 when she says, “....., we have taken measures to solve the problem due to breakage of underground old water pipe lines for steady water supply, which is another main cause of interruption of water supply. For this purpose a total sum of Rs. 32.83 crores has been proposed in the present budget.” (SMC 2010-10 : 17)

Coupled with the above reasons, there is another reason as to why urgency is to be felt in augmentation of number of household connections of water supply in Siliguri. Presently, the city does not have any kind of sewerage system and waste water treatment plant. Perspective Plan 2025 (2004 : 141-142) for the Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area maintains that, “....for the town of Siliguri there is no formal sewerage system and mostly it is the septic tank that is being used for the purpose. This method of sewage disposal requires that all the human excreta and other waters be directed to an underground tank, where the solids are digested by various bacteria and gets transformed into sludge with the liquid portion overflowing into a soak-pit from where it seeps into the ground. It is understood that this water, which seeps into the ground may not be free from pathological germs. Although the tube wells for the supply of water to any building would be drawing water from an aquifer much below the level of the underground septic tank, there should be a regular monitoring of the pumped water quality for organic contaminants in the different wards of the town, especially those with high population density. For the dug-wells, it is most likely that the source is the shallow water aquifer that may be polluted beyond the limits prescribed for human consumption. Hence, the checking of water quality of wells is an absolute necessity.”

The Plan further lay down, “The ground water may also contain undesirable chemical impurities. Iron is a major nuisance in the SJPA as many of the chemical analyses of water show. Arsenic is not yet a problem, but could emerge in places where there is heavy withdrawal of ground water.....it is absolutely essential that strict monitoring should be done for the water table levels at various points within the municipality.” The above arguments laid down in the Perspective Plan favour more and more connections of household water supply system in order to reduce depletion of ground water levels and contamination of ground water.

Not only ground water, rivers Mahananda, Phuleswari, Jorapani and Panchonai which cut through the city, too, are victims of water pollution. The study conducted under Mahananda Action Plan showed concern over the discharge of untreated wastewater effluents in the river, primarily through storm water drains which leads to water pollution of the river in a major way. The figure of the survey conducted by Central Pollution Control Board show that the total sewage generated in Siliguri in 2005-06 was 63.5 MLD and majority of this (about 30 MLD) got disposed in the Mahananda river (CPCB 2005-06). Moreover, it has been claimed that there is no prevalence of open defecation in the city and that all poor dwellers have been covered under ILCS scheme. However, the survey conducted under NUSP in the early months of 2010 revealed open defecation being practiced in the city, in particular along the banks of river Mahananda. As such, the defecation of the slum dwellers and squatters on the river beds, too, contributes to the water pollution in the river.

Right now, the demand for household connection of piped water is still low and the demand capacity of the water intake and treatment plant which is 55.02 MLD is not running to its full capacity. The Perspective Plan (2004, Volume II : 59) observes in this regard, "It is observed that since the households are usually having their own source of water, like tube wells and dug wells, there is general reluctance amongst many to adopt piped water connection for their houses. However, since most of these household-owned sources tap the shallow ground water, the quality of which is affected usually with excessive iron content, the residents nevertheless obtain water for cooking and drinking from the public stand posts available in the locality. Even then, there is substantial use of ground water for various domestic purposes. This is not a very healthy practice since it may be concluded that due to dense network of septic-tank and soak-pit, that the ground water must be affected by microbial pollution. Although no quantitative data was available to substantiate the hypothesis, it is common knowledge that the effluent of the soak-pit pollutes ground water, especially if it is quite high, as in the SJPA region. The high reported incidences of gastro-intestinal diseases from the region indirectly confirm to the degraded quality of the shallow ground water table."

In case the SMC makes it mandatory for every household to have individual municipal piped water connection (as of now it is applicable only to the new buildings and houses), it may be expected that the present intake capacity may not suffice. Keeping this in mind, the SMC has already surveyed an alternative source

at Gazaldoba near Siliguri. The projected population of the SMC area for 2025 is estimated to be around 8,34,600 (Perspective Plan, 2004 Vol.II : 60), of which about one-tenth, specially slum dwellers, may still be expected to depend upon public stand-post supply of water. The Perspective Plan considers this a reasonable assumption on the basis of the current slum population being about one-third of the total population of Siliguri. The Plan assumes that the remaining population would meet their filtered water demand from house-connections. Considering a supply value of 40 lcpd for the stand posts and 70 lcpd for the house-supply (in accordance with the norms adopted in the National Water Policy, 2002), the total water demand works out as 3.3 MLD and 52.5 MLD respectively. Since the capacity of the present water supply plant is 55.02 MLD, it may be expected that the existing capacity of water supply would suffice up to 2025. However, beyond that, not only the capacity of the pumping and treatment plant would require augmentation but measures would be required in terms of 'demand management', too. This has to be done keeping in consideration the rise in affluence and people tending to use filtered water for gardening, car washing, etc.

The Siliguri Municipal Corporation, thus, should gear itself seriously for the years to come in terms of sustainability of quality and quantity of water. The measures, some of them highlighted in the Eleventh Five Year Plan, need to be adopted in this regard in coming years may be enumerated as under :

(a) Demand Management of Water – This can be done by evolving realistic water tariff which would help discourage excessive use of treated/potable water. This may be done through installation of water meters for consumers. However, this should be done in a phased manner. This would not only help conserve water but also would generate revenue on a realistic basis. A metered system of water supply is a better option than the existing water rate system based on the valuation of the house property. The Perspective Plan (2004) has laid down another viable option for fixing water rates in Siliguri. It suggests that the tax for each house may be based on two rates – the lower one up to a certain limit and the higher rate for any consumption beyond that. The threshold value could be decided by considering the consumption possible for a family consisting of, say, five members. If a demand of 70 lcpd is assumed for each member, the monthly consumption for a household should be around 10850 litres. Taking this as a threshold value, the water tax may be worked out based on the actual consumption.

However, the pricing of urban water services should be realistic and should be based on the assessment of 'demand' and 'willingness to pay' by the communities.

Other measures for reducing demand and conserve water can be done by adopting measures like, recycling and reuse of water; rainwater harvesting; water-efficient household equipments, like, 'low volume flushing cisterns', 'waste not taps', etc.; holding information campaigns; and the like.

(b)'Full Cost Recovery' Policies – From the financial status, low number of household connections and high number of street stand posts laid down above, one may conclude that Siliguri Municipal Corporation do not have any concrete vision and policy for full cost recovery with regard to municipal water supply. Thus, the need is to adopting 'full cost recovery' policies to achieve financial sustainability.

(c)Plugging Unaccounted For Water (UFW) – As of now, the SMC does not have any kind of data on UFW which causes reduction of water availability substantially. Despite having plenty of water at the disposal of SMC at present, still it should start adopting measures to plug this leakage which would help the Corporation in future.

(d)Need for Developing a Strong Database – There is a need on the part of the SMC to develop a computerized MIS. This would help it in future in exchange of information with other ULBs and other levels of governance and thereby help it in planning, decision-making as well as mid-course corrections.

To end on a positive note, the Mayor announced in her Budget (2010-11 : 17) that steps would be taken against misuse and overflow of water on roads and buildings. Besides, she made a commitment for mitigating the problem of frequent interruption in water supply by replacing the old and broken underground pipeline and for this purpose, a total sum of Rs. 32.83 crores has been proposed in the Budget. Further, from her speech, one may draw that making rainwater harvesting arrangement compulsory while passing the new building plans is under consideration of Siliguri Municipal Corporation.

4.5 CITY TRANSPORTATION, POLLUTION AND URBAN SOCIAL FORESTRY IN SILIGURI

The total road length within Siliguri Municipal Corporation area is about 1417 kms. (Pourbarta 2010), combining both kutchha and pucca roads. Out of these, about 3 kms. are managed by the NHAI, about 17 kms. by the PWD Department,

Government of West Bengal and the remaining are under the control of Siliguri Municipal Corporation. The increase in the length of roads within SMC area has been phenomenal in the last decade in the backdrop that the road coverage was only 650 kms. in 1999-2000 (Urban West Bengal 1999-2000).

Despite having such a vast network of roads in Siliguri, the city suffers from tremendous congestion, owing primarily to the unplanned growth and unprecedented rise in the number of vehicles. It was in 1998 that for the first time RITES conducted 'Traffic Engineering and Management Study, Siliguri Urban Area'. The major findings of the study are laid down in the following Table 4.21.

Table 4.21 : Functional Classification, Right of Way Classification, Surface Condition of Roads within SMC

		Percentage
Road Hierarchy	Arterial	22.7 %
	Sub-arterial	26.5 %
	Intercity/ NH	11.8 %
	Other Roads	38.7 %
Total		100 %
Right of Way Width	<10 M	51.8 %
	10-15 M	15.4 %
	15-20 M	2.2 %
	20-25 M	4.9 %
	25-30 M	3.4 %
	>30 M	22.3 %
Total		100 %
Road Condition	Poor	51.3 %
	Fair	34.5 %
	Good	14.2 %
Total		100 %

Source: Traffic Engineering and Management Study, Siliguri Urban Area; Rites, 1998

4.5.1 Transportation System and Traffic in Siliguri

The recommendations laid down by the RITES to streamline transportation system in Siliguri and to ease traffic congestion seemed not to work. As such,

thereafter, few other studies were undertaken in this respect. One among them was conducted by the Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority. Another one was done by the Department of Architecture & Regional Planning, IIT, Kharagpur under the study 'Perspective Plan 2025 : Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area'. Besides, a lot of seminars and workshops have also been conducted by various agencies, not only as to how to manage traffic better but also to create awareness among the general public the benefits of following the norms of safe driving and following traffic rules and regulations. The traffic department of Siliguri has been annually conducting 'Road Safety Weeks' (in 2011 between 1st and 7th January) in this regard. The latest in the line of such efforts was the organization of the Workshop on 07.10.2011 for the purpose of preparing a 'Traffic and Transportation Master Plan for Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area' as well as to devise a Comprehensive Mobility Plan (CMP) for Siliguri. Despite efforts with respect to management of city transportation of Siliguri, nothing seems to be working as of now, thanks to the narrow lanes, less number of major arterial roads, increased number of vehicles, less number of parking facilities, encroachments on the roads, etc. The transportation system of Siliguri, thus, can be bracketed as 'in disarray'. The situation is likely to become grave if the traffic volume is not controlled urgently on the main arterials roads like Hill Cart Road, Burdwan Road, Sevoke Road, Station Feeder Road and Bidhan Road. At least, the estimation of RITES, laid down in Table 4.22, shows so. Of late, City Mini Buses and City Autos have been introduced within SMC area. Besides, a large number of cycle-rickshaws and cycle carts are used for para transits. Again, it has been observed that pedestrian movements are significantly high at important locations, such as, Hospital More, Mahabirathan, Court Road, Bidhan Road, Thana More and Hill Cart Road, and, thus, requires well-planned pedestrian facilities at these locations.

As far as parking facilities are concerned, problems are acute especially during peak hours at Hill Cart Road, Bidhan Road, Sevoke Road, Burdwan Road, Station Feeder Road, Mahabirathan, Vivekananda Road, Nehru Road and Court Road. Though truck terminals have been built at Matigara (Paribahan Nagar Truck Terminal) and at Phulbari, roadside truck parking are prevalent.

Some of the the measures proposed to be undertaken by the SMC as have been laid down in the Budget of 2010-11 with regard to the improvement of roads and transportation system are installation of modern traffic signaling system; scientific restructuring of the bus and auto rickshaw routes; widening of roads;

removal of encroachment from roads and footpaths, in particular, footpath below the Mahabirsthan Fly Over & opening of the closed Railway Gate at Mahabirsthan; setting up of traffic booth; erection of railing at the footpath of different roads on need basis; welcome gate at the entrance of our city; road indicator & electronic board; modern footbridges near Air View Hotel and Sevoke More at Ashrampara under PPP model; modern parking arrangement on PPP model; construction of Bus and Auto Rickshaw Stand near Bagrakote; and to solve the problems of unlicensed rickshaws.

4.22 Estimation of Daily Traffic Volume on Important Roads Within SMC

Area

Name of The Road	Total no. Of vehi- cles(1999)	Total PCU (1999)	PCU of FMV (1999)	PCU of FMV (2007)	PCU of FMV (2013)	PCU of FMV (2025)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Hill Cart Road	47549	54505	21696	34497	42086*	60015*
Burdwan Road	11116	17920	10250	16297	19883	28353
Sevoke Road	29763	32942	12406	19725	24064	34316
DBC Rd.	14801	19907	9694	15414	18805	26816
S.F.Road	6653	8907	4316	6863	8373	11940
Bidhan Road	21393	23132	8371	13310	16238	23155

* PCU of FMV (2013&2025) on Hill Cart Road have been worked out considering improvement of alternative routes through which traffic may be diverted

Source: Traffic Engineering and Management Study, Siliguri Urban Area; Rites,1998

4.5.2 Possible Solutions for Effective Transport System

From the above available data, one may discern that traffic volume within SMC area is significantly high and the roads are not commensurate with the vehicle demand. Thus, Siliguri suffers from 'capacity problem'. To solve this problem, some of the urgent requirements are as follows:

- widening of roads;
- planning for alternative routes;

- improving surface conditions of roads;
- restricting heavy vehicles on roads not designed for such vehicles;
- segregating slow and fast moving vehicles on some major roads;
- increasing modern parking facilities;
- constructing flyovers wherever feasible.
- planning proper pedestrian crossing to avoid capacity restrictions;
- upgrading existing and constructing new truck and bus terminals.

However, having laid these, it is also the hard truth that these measures cannot be the only viable way out for solving capacity problems in the long run. It is extremely difficult on the part of authorities to match the demands for roads with that of the supply of vehicles. The number of vehicles would be increasing at a fast pace in this city in the coming years, seeing the importance, Siliguri has commanded in recent years; the incentive of easy availability of vehicle loan facilities; and competition to economise the prices of vehicles by the automobile manufacturers. No doubt, the above considerations are to be looked into, but at the same time one should give thought to another dimension to ease out congestion and pollution, gripping this city. The concerned authorities should promote 'public transport system' in such a way that people would voluntarily prefer that in lieu of private mode of transport. Measures need to be worked out for providing incentives to the public transport system and disincentives to the private mode. This would definitely help in lowering down level of pollution as well as congestion and traffic snarls on major arterials. After all, promotion of public transport system in a planned manner is what the vision and objective of the National Urban Transport Policy is.

Again, one should not lose sight of the social justice aspect of development which holds true even in the transportation sector. It is often seen that the rickshaw and cart pullers, majority of who are poor, bear the maximum brunt whenever traffic management plans are carried out on major arterials of the city. It is unfair on the part of authorities to lessen their already crunched finances for running their families. They should be provided their due share for earnings on the major arterial roads. Measures need to be devised in this regard too as true development demands caring for the needs of all sections of society in a judicious manner. One should not

forget that these modes of transport substantially contribute in lessening the pollution level of the city.

5.7.4 Carrying Out Suggestions for Improvement of Traffic System in Siliguri

The above section suggests that traffic system may be improved in Siliguri which would not only lessen pollution, congestion, traffic snarls and traveling-time but also help generate employment by implementing the following two sets of measures in a judicious manner:

- (a) capacity building; and
- (b) promotion of public transport system.

(a) Capacity Building

The concerned authorities, SMC and SJDA have laid down in their policies to implement future transport infrastructure plan in phased manner during coming years within SMC area. This would definitely help in capacity building of the transport sector. The proposed improvements in transport infrastructure are indicated in the following Table 4.22 :

Table 4.23 : Proposed Improvements in Transport Infrastructure in Siliguri

Sl. No. (1)	Details (2)	Phase I Period (3)	Phase II Period (4)	Cost at 2003 Prices (Rs.lakhs)	
				2003-13 (5)	2013-25 (6)
1	Upgrading of narrower portion of Burdhan road	4-lane with divider		1100	
2	Upgrading of Sevoke road	4-lane with divider	6-lane with divider	770	770
3	Upgrading of Vivekananda Road	2-lane	4-lane with divider	110	220
4	Extention of Vivekananda Road to the other side of the Mahananda River	2-lane	4-lane with divider	598	598

5	Connecting SH12A to the proposed upgraded Eastern Bypass intersecting the road from NJP skirting the boundry of Binnaguri and Dabgram Mouzas	2-lane		1352	
6	New truck Terminal by the side of Eastern Bypass at the intersection with the road connecting NJP Rly. Station with Warehousing		√		600
7	Upgrading of existing Fulbari Truck Terminal	√		600	
8	Bus stand at Siliguri Jn. Rly. Station near upgraded old Matigarah Road bus terminal	√		500	
9	Bus Stand at south of NJP station bus terminal	√		500	
10	Flyover over the intersection of S.F.Road, Hill Cart Road and over the broad guage railway line in the heart of the city	Already completed		1300	
11	Flyover over the intersection of the broad guage railway line with the Eastern Bypass		√		1100
12	Flyover over the intersection of the broad guage railway line with the road on the north of NJP Rly. Station connecting Eastern Bypass	√		1100	
13	Pedestrian Flyovers/Underpasses at (i) Hashmi Chowk (ii)at the junction of Sevoke Road and Hill Cart Road (iii)near Tenjing Norgey Bus Terminus	√		600	
14	Bridge over Mahananda River on extention of Vivekananda Road		√		1200
15	Traffic engineering and operation schemes in five areas- (i)around Siliguri Jn. Rly. Station including Hill Cart Road (ii)around Hashmi Chowk (iii)around Panitanki More (iv)near Mahabirsthan More (v)near NJP Rly. Station	√		800	
16	Junction improvement in terms of channelisation, intersection lighting,, pedestrian crossings, road markings	15	15	450	450
17	Dispersal plans at: (i)Siliguri Jn. Rly. Station (ii)Siliguri Town Station (iii)NJP Rly.Station	√		900	
18	Off Street Parking facilities at: (i)Near Hill Cart Road(2 in no.) (ii)near Bidhan Road	√		2000	

(iii)near Sevoke Road				
(iv)near Bagrakote				

Source: Perspective Plan 2025 for Siliguri Jalpaiguri Planning Area: Volume II

The above data shows that the authorities are expected to spend a grand total of about Rs. 17618 lakhs for capacity building till 2025 to improve transport sector within SMC area. These would significantly help in solving the problems of traffic and transportation, besides contributing to the economic development of Siliguri. However, it is to contend that it is a long drawn affair and need to be managed and improved on a continual basis. Moreover, this capacity building alone would not serve the ultimate objective of containing and lessening vehicular congestion and pollution. This needs to be complemented and supplemented by the urgent implementation of above laid down second strategy.

(b)Preference to Public Transport System

It has already been discussed in Chapter Two that both private and public modes of transportation have their relative advantages and disadvantages. Whereas mass transport system is cheaper; is more environment-friendly as it economises on the number of vehicles used; and lowers congestion, private transport is more comfortable; is more convenient as it takes user from door to door; and helps in avoiding inconvenience caused due to waiting for buses and other modes of public transport. But on comparing, one may conclude that the advantages of public transport system far outweigh the advantages of private transportation in view of overall urban development. It is rather unfortunate that Indian urban authorities, including Siliguri, have failed to take serious note of this.

International cities like Moscow, London, Paris, Berlin, etc. have greater area and less density of population. On the other hand, Indian major cities are characterized by higher population density and smaller areas than those of developed western world. Still, mass public transport network is more comprehensive in the latter case. Indian cities are characterized by more reliance on private transport. Siliguri is no exception to this rule.

It is not that city public transport is non-existent in Indian cities, but the fact is that the ratio between private and public modes of transportation is dismal as

well as the quality of service is too unattractive for those who can afford to use private motorized vehicle on their own means.

It may be noted in this regard that city planners and policy makers tend to increase urban roads wherever feasible to ease traffic congestion. Besides, new parking areas are built. But then, such planning and policy further attracts more vehicles which further leads to more congestion, shortage of parking places, increasing pollution level, high energy consumption, increase in average travel time and retardation of productivity. This vicious circle of more roads and traffic growth can be checked if public transport system is made more attractive which would act as incentive to even those who can afford private means of transportation. At the same time, urban authorities should come out with certain disincentive measures for private mode of transportation so that people would restrict their use for each and every purpose. Not that the individual transport should be abandoned altogether, but both should act as a coordinated whole which can solve the traffic problems of the future.

The detail laid down in Chapter Two proves that the specific area requirement for car is 20 times greater than bus even at low occupancy levels. Apart from this, a bus is 15, 5, and 4 times lower than car, two-wheeler and three-wheeler respectively as far as cost of operations in terms of passenger kilometer is concerned. As far as energy cost is related, it is 21, 12 and 10 times lower respectively.

Siliguri Municipal Corporation should urgently come out with a massive blueprint of mass public transport which would entail manifold benefits like, (a) less expenditure for the common man; (b) reduction in energy consumption; (c) employment generation in its own way; (d) lesser congestion; (e) lesser pollution; (f) lesser accidents; and (g) lesser stress.

As far as Siliguri is concerned, the concept of city buses, which took off few years back with 13 routes and 42 mini buses (Perspective Plan 2004) could not become successful. This may be primarily attributed to the civic authorities' policy to introduce shared auto services on the same routes as city-buses. The method of provision of licenses to shared autos was applied in such an indiscriminate manner that these took over the city-buses in popularity as public transport system. This lack of vision on the part of civic authorities has demonstrated in due course that Siliguri have become infamous for rash driving, utter violation of traffic rules, and

making the major thoroughfare utterly chaotic, highly polluted and accident-prone than those of city-buses.

In order to make public transport system viable, popular and acceptable by the people as well as keeping in consideration problems of pollution, congestion and accidents, there is a need on the part of SMC and SJDA to go for two sets of measures :

- (I) Incentives for making public transport system popular among people;
- (II) Disincentives so that people shift to public transport system under normal conditions.

The first category includes would include measures like (i) segregation; (ii) densification; (iii) high level of frequency; (iv) different classes of buses; (v) art of the state originating and terminating points with specified bus stops at manageable distances; (v) publication, dissemination and display of route charts and other information on traffic rules; (vi) strict enforcement of discipline for those associated with public transportation system, and the like.

On the other hand, the second category of measures may include (i) high parking charges on major arterial roads; (ii) no parking zone for automobiles on the major arterial roads for a day in a week ; (iii) park and ride facilities; (iv) substantially high fine charges for violation of traffic rules and discipline; (v) segregating some narrow lanes in the market place exclusively for pedestrians, and the like.

4.5.4 Vehicular Pollution and Need for a Planned Urban Social Forestry in Siliguri

Even if the mindset of people change more towards public transport system on account of pursuance of strategy of incentives and disincentives, mentioned in the preceding section, vehicular pollution is going to stay considering the growth of population of Siliguri. As of now, vehicular pollution in Siliguri is gradually getting alarming. The main cause of urban pollution in Siliguri is the abundance of vehicular traffic movement in the localized zones along the major roads. Along the Hill Cart, Sevoke Road, Bidhan Road and Bardhaman Road, the traffic movement is extensive. In particular, pollution near the Tenzing Norgye Bus Stand and the SNT Bus Stand seems to be more because the average speed of the vehicles is very low due to frequent congestion and waiting passenger vehicles, producing high quantity of hydrocarbon. Generation of HCO is usually much higher when the

vehicle is on the idling mode. Traces of air pollution are also high near the truck terminal along the Vivekananda Road. Besides carbon emissions, pollution is caused due to suspended particulate matters caused by the vehicles. A vehicle generates about 12^{10} particles per km. (Jagmohan 2005). Besides air pollution, noise pollution is also significantly higher along the heavy vehicular traffic roads.

As has already been mentioned in Chapter Two that promotion of public transport system in the cities, adoption of appropriate and cleaner vehicular emission technologies, and special consideration in designing pedestrian and non-motorized transport (NMT) facilities along the roads will go a long way in reducing urban pollution caused by vehicles, but these alone are not sufficient unless and until urban forestry is given due space in the overall planning process. It is so because it provides one of the most significant environmental and material benefits to the urban dwellers.

Urban forestry management requires a 'planned, integrated, and systematic' approach. Planning is important because trees are very often considered as an afterthought once development has taken place. It is generally not incorporated at the original design phase. An integrated approach implies the participation of many different organizations - local councils, municipal and national planning bodies, departments, etc. Systematic management entails regulated tree management; operations such as planting, pruning, and felling must all be conducted in an organized manner and at the appropriate time.

4.5.5 Is Urban Social Forestry in Siliguri Planned, Integrated and Systematic?

As planning denotes incorporation of urban social forestry in the original design phase of planning, so, one may not prefer to call urban social forestry in Siliguri, a planned exercise. It suffers from ad hoc efforts and perhaps the least concerned aspect of urban governance despite having great environmental benefits in terms of reduction of air and noise pollution, heat and air currents. Tree saplings are generally planted to mark important occasions like observance of forest weeks, World Environment Day, etc. One may find surprising that the establishment of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation have twenty five different sections to properly govern the city, but there is no exclusive section on urban social forestry. It is the PWD section which looks after the parks of the city which is not enough at all. Moreover, this section hardly gets any time to think over street side forestry as its

time is primarily consumed in construction activities. Moreover, the Department of Forest, Government of West Bengal, do not have any division on urban social forestry based in Siliguri. It is looked after by the Divisional Forest Officer, who again is short of time to ponder seriously over this question. Moreover, there has been tendency to plant saplings jointly by the Forest Department and SMC which results in problems of coordination and question of responsibility. It is in the absence of any planned and concerted effort, the Mayor cannot but only ask for whole hearted cooperation from all concerned in this regard. It may also be laid down that the role of Regional Office of WBPCB is also not very encouraging.

Urban social forestry in Siliguri also falls far short of being called an integrated approach as participation of different organizations - municipal, state and national planning bodies, departments, etc. – is lacking.

It is, however, in the third respect that the lack of commitment and seriousness is most discernable. Under no circumstance, urban social forestry in Siliguri can be termed systematic which entails regulated tree management; and conduct of operations such as planting, pruning, and felling in an organized manner and at the appropriate time. No doubt, hundreds of saplings were planted along the main arterial roads in Siliguri in 2009 jointly by the SMC and the State Forest Department, but the saddening part is that post-plantation care is completely absent. As a result, one may notice that most of the saplings have either died or have poor growth.

The SMC Budget of 2010-2011 has proposed allotment of a sum of Rs. 10 lakhs for plantation of variety of trees in association with the Department of Forest, Government of West Bengal, but it would be loss of time, energy and money if attention is not given to make urban social forestry planned, integrated and systematic. Two other major problems of governance encountering urban forestry in Siliguri are (i) lack of detailed and strongly enforced legislation concerning the management of trees in Indian cities, including ones growing on private lands; and (ii) non-availability of urban tree databases and inventory techniques for most of the Indian cities.

However, at the same time, it has to be mentioned that one of the major practical problems with regard to urban forestry in Siliguri is that the space is precious, and subject to many competing land use pressures. Much of the challenge of urban forestry in Siliguri, thus, would lie in making optimal use of the limited area available for urban trees.

4.5.6 A Model for Urban Social Forestry in Siliguri

The first and foremost requirement on the part of SMC with regard to urban social forestry is to divide urban settlements into broad spatial categories and accordingly suitable plant types may be planted. One type of zonation may be dividing the city into (i) Core - the city centre; (ii) Corridors – areas along which the town/city is expanding, usually along communication routes; (iii) Wedges - areas unsuitable for buildings and habitation; and (iv) Periphery - the urban fringe.

The second step is careful thought and forward planning for the cultivation of trees. These, in the main, include deciding upon the tree species and the sites for the plantation of trees.

The third step involves management requirements, both before plantation and after plantation. The requirements before planting trees are proper preparation of the site and plantation of the tree stock following proper plantation technique. The requirements after plantation are watering at regular intervals, weeding, staking, tree surgery and protection and removal of tree waste at regular intervals.

Finally, it may be laid down that neglecting urban forestry would definitely entail in depriving the urban dwellers of the manifold benefits accruing from them. The most important being the environmental benefits in terms of reduction in air pollution and noise pollution. Besides, urban forestry leads to improvement in landscape. The concept of a “green city” can be a source of civic pride, and used to attract investment into an area. As such, there is a need to plant variety of trees with different foliage, blossoms, heights, colours and shapes which will not only help enhance the economy and visual character of the city, but will also reduce glare and reflection.

(Ulrich, 1990:29) mentions that people derive quantifiable benefit from the passive experience of viewing trees, the positive effects being both psychological and physiological.

It may, however, be argued that for many urban dwellers of Siliguri, issues such as landscape, amenity and a sense of well-being are an irrelevance. That the urban poor have pressing needs cannot be disputed, but it should not be assumed that these entirely erase from them any aesthetic appreciation of their surroundings. Street trees may also have an important recreational role at the site of tea shops and a gathering spot for poorer people to sit and chat.

Not only environmental and aesthetic benefits, trees also provide human comfort, such as, protection from heavy rain as well as shelter to the urban poor during night for sleep.

4.6 GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN SLUM IMPROVEMENT AND URBAN POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN SILIGURI

The WBMC Act, 2006 has laid down improvement of ‘bustees’ (slums) as one of the obligatory functions of the Corporation [Clause(c), Sub-Section(3), Section 97, Chapter VIII, Part IV]. The term ‘bustee’ has been defined in the Act as an area containing land, being not less than seven hundred square metres in area, occupied by, or for the purposes of, any collection of huts or other structures used or intended to be used for human habitation [Sub-Section 9, Section 2, Chapter I, Part I]. Further, the hut has been defined as any building, constructed principally of wood, bamboo, mud, leaves, pressed cloth or thatch, and includes any structure of whatever material, declared by the Corporation to be a hut for the purposes of this Act [Sub-Section 49, Section 2]. Besides, the Census of India, 2001 defines ‘slum’ as : (i) all areas notified as ‘slum’ by State/Local Government and UT Administration under any Act; (ii) all areas recognized as ‘slum’ by State/Local Government and UT Administration which have not been formally notified as slum under any Act; and (iii) 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.

The improvement of ‘bustees’ (slums) involves several other obligatory functions [Section 97] and discretionary functions [Section 98] of the Corporation mentioned in the same Act.

Part VII, Chapter XV of the WBMC Act, 2006 is dedicated to ‘Bustee’ covering Sections 296-299. These Sections lay down that the Corporation may define the external limits as well as alter the limits of any ‘bustee’. It is the responsibility of the Corporation to execute improvement schemes of ‘bustees’ like water supply, sinking of tubewells, laying of water-pipe lines, installation of overhead reservoirs, pathways, lighting, sanitation, provision of flushing of privies and sewers, laying of drains, conversion of service privies into connected privies or septic tank privies, removal of solid or liquid wastes, sewers and sludge from

septic tank, cleaning of squatting platforms, and the like. Besides, the Corporation has the power to acquire the right of user in land or around 'bustee' for the purpose of effecting improvement. Again, the Corporation may sanction building plan for renovation, addition or alteration of huts or conversion of existing huts into 'pucca' structures upon payment of such fees as may be determined by the Corporation by regulations. However, before such sanction, a lay out plan of the 'bustee' shall be prepared by the Corporation.

Slum (to be used subsequently in place of 'bustee') development involves two-pronged programmes – (a) infrastructural development programmes, both social and physical; and (b) income generating programmes. It is with the combination of both these programmes that the slum dwellers can be pulled out of the vicious circle of poverty and overall improvement in the quality of life of slum dwellers can be achieved, thereby providing them a dignified living. The above two types of programmes for slum development, together, are known as the urban poverty alleviation/eradication programmes. Before going into the details of urban poverty alleviation/eradication programmes for slum development of Siliguri, it is pertinent to lay down facts and figures of slums within SMC area as well as the organizational structure at the Corporation, Borough, Ward and Departmental level responsible for slum development and UPE.

4.6.1 Facts and Figures

The reasons for the development of slums in Siliguri and its facts and figures before conversion of Siliguri from Municipality to Municipal Corporation in 1994 have already been laid down in Chapter Three. As such, this chapter confines itself to post-1994 period with regard to slum development and UPE, though at times old facts and figures may come in for the purpose of giving relevance.

It has already been laid out in the last Chapter that the roots of slums in the towns of North Bengal can be attributed to the insufficient agricultural development to sustain the increasing growth of population as well as inability of the existing tea gardens to plough back enough money for the economic development of the region. This forced migration from rural to urban areas of the region. However, with the process of industrialization being very slow, the rate of rural-urban migration continued to exceed rates of urban job creation and surpassed the absorption capacity of the industry. Further, the events of Indo-China War and the creation of Bangladesh in the 1960s and 1970s respectively resulted in

huge influx of people from outside the region, particularly in the urban agglomerations. All these combined together led the majority of the urban dwellers to earn their livelihood from the tertiary sector, with slum dwellers engaging themselves as scavengers, non-agricultural labourer, petty businessmen, rickshaw and van puller and motor and auto rickshaw driver.

Table 4.24 lays down the basic facts related to notified slums in the city of Siliguri.

Table 4.24 : Facts and Figures on Slums in Siliguri

Ward No (1)	Total Population of the Ward as per 2001 Census (2)	Total Nos. of BPL Families in the Ward* (3)	Total Slum Population as per 2001 Census (4)	Total Nos. of Slums in the Ward* (5)	% of Slum Population to Total Population of the Ward (6)	Average Population Size of each Slum in the Ward (7)
Ward No.1	17853	1588	8744	13	48.98	672.62
Ward No.2	11436	534	4533	5	39.64	906.60
Ward No.3	11753	436	3477	3	29.58	1159.00
Ward No.4	20028	1368	8365	8	41.77	1045.63
Ward No.5	15326	927	9755	3	63.65	3251.67
Ward No.6	9023	434	1254	1	13.9	1254.00
Ward No.7	9889	426	2437	2	24.64	1218.50
Ward No. 8	7843	38	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No. 9	7306	9	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.10	4720	46	760	1	16.10	760.00
Ward No.11	2933	0	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.12	3772	1	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.13	5070	45	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.14	6407	8	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.15	8103	24	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.16	5984	19	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.17	5485	20	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.18	8440	714	3816	5	45.21	763.20
Ward No.19	3233	62	301	1	9.31	301.00
Ward No.20	9869	459	6162	6	62.44	1027.00
Ward No.21	5875	99	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.22	10293	315	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.23	6205	245	1181	2	19.03	590.50
Ward No.24	11165	218	3799	4	34.03	949.75

Ward No.25	8525	48	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.26	4873	118	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.27	5630	28	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Ward No.28	9578	1439	8607	6	89.86	1434.50
Ward No.29	4783	162	2180	2	45.60	109.00
Ward No.30	6510	86	1482	2	22.76	741.00
Ward No.31	13414	524	5103	3	38.04	1701.00
Ward No.32	11845	355	3216	2	27.14	1608.00
Ward No.33	13543	302	3038	2	22.43	1519.00
Ward No.34	16560	908	9150	9	55.25	1016.67
Ward No.35	14945	1230	10085	9	67.48	1120.56
Ward No.36	13553	956	5305	5	39.14	1061.00
Ward No.37	14431	363	10976	5	76.06	2195.20
Ward No.38	11235	317	2006	1	17.85	2006.00
Ward No.39	11237	136	1305	1	11.61	1305.00
Ward No.40	18164	743	5809	10	31.98	580.90
Ward No.41	12951	947	3550	5	27.41	710.00
Ward No.42	14711	909	4689	4	31.87	1172.25
Ward No.43	9661	1558	6807	7	70.46	972.43
Ward No.44	11522	1139	7260	4	63.00	1815.00
Ward No.45	7117	294	4335	3	60.91	1445.00
Ward No.46	21222	1626	13245	14	62.41	946.07
Ward No.47	8363	675	5482	6	65.55	913.67
TOTAL	472384	22898	168214	154	-	-

*Figures as on March, 2010

Source : SMC

The table above shows that 14 out of the total of 47 wards have no slum pockets. However, in other wards of the city, slum population constitute a sizeable percentage of the total population of the respective ward. It constitutes about 35.61 percent of the total population of the city as per figures of 2001 census. However, the Annual Report, 2007-2008 of Siliguri Municipal Corporation lays the slum population figures at 1,73,111, thereby accounting for 36.81 percent of the total population (4,72,384 as per Census 2001) of the city. 80% of the slum dwellers are migrants from Bihar, Assam, West Bengal, Bangladesh, Nepal and Bhutan and 69 % of them are staying for more than 10 to 15 years. Except for some slums on railway lands, all other slums are notified slums.

Slums are located along the River Mahananda, Fuleswari and Jorapani on the Railway lands and in the heart of the city near railway town station. Due to

ineffective development control regulations, slums have developed on the riverbeds and on the railway lands resulting into degrading urban environment and unhealthy living conditions. Siliguri Municipal Corporation has been engaged in undertaking a numbers of developmental activities under various Government projects to upgrade their living standards as well as to provide better livelihood opportunities through various self-employment programmes. However, the huge number of slums and squatter colonies present a tremendous challenge to the municipal authority for bringing about their overall development and achieve the vision of infrastructural, uniform and equitable development of the city. The stupendous task has to be seen in the backdrop of absence of any slums in Siliguri till 1971 (Banerjee et al 1980) and only 48 slums as per 1991 census (1 – 30 wards as other wards were included in 1994).

From the table above, one may discern that the slums are not uniformly distributed among the wards. Besides, the average population size and social composition of population in the slums in different wards are also varied. As such, any solemn effort for the up gradation of the slum pockets calls for keeping these considerations in knowledge. Tables 4.25 and 4.26 take a look at that.

Table 4.25 : Categories of Slum Pockets*

Percentage of Slum Population to Total Population of the Ward (1)	Nos. of Wards (2)	Population of Slum Pockets in a Ward (3)	Nos. of Wards (4)
No slum existing	14	No slum existing	14
Upto 20 %	6	Below 500	2
Between 20% and 40%	12	Between 500 and 1000	12
Between 40% and 60%	5	Between 1000 and 2000	16
Between 60% and 80%	9	Between 2000 and 3000	2
Above 80%	1	Above 3000	1

* Constructed from Table 4.24

4.6.2 Slum Improvement and Siliguri

As far as slum improvement within Siliguri Municipal Corporation area is concerned, it primarily consists of four major components, namely, (i) housing; (ii) low cost sanitation; (iii) physical infrastructure; and (iv) social infrastructure. The physical infrastructure has its sub-components in the form of (a) water supply; (b)

roads; (c) drains; (d) community toilets; (e) community baths; (f) street lights; and (g) solid waste management. Finally, the social infrastructure in slum pockets consists of sub-components of (a) community seva kendras; and (b) community centres.

The efforts to solve the housing problems in slum areas of Siliguri started under the shelter upgradation scheme whereby the slum dwellers, having titles to the huts they lived in, were made eligible for taking up repair works for their shelter. For this purpose, the Siliguri Municipality took a loan of nearly Rs. 5 crores from HUDCO. As such, during 1992-93, nearly 5,000 families in the slum area were provided with the loan of Rs. 3,000 each and the subsidy of Rs. 1,000 each. The loan amount was repayable in 10 years with an annual interest rate of 7.25%. The monthly instalment payment, thus, came at Rs. 39/- (Ghosh et al 1994). Thereafter, the provision of shelter to the urban poor was made under the NSDP launched in 1996. Under the National Slum Development Program (NSDP), the UPE Department of SMC constructed/renovated 368 dwelling units by 2001. A total number of 881 families have benefited under shelter for shelter less scheme of NSDP till its merger with IHSDP. With the advent of VAMBAY in 2001, construction of new dwelling units in the slum pockets was vigorously pursued. Ultimately, with the launch of Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme in 2005, both the NSDP and VAMBAY were subsumed in it. IHSDP was launched with the basic objective of having an integrated approach in ameliorating the conditions of urban slum dwellers who do not possess adequate shelter and reside in dilapidated and sub-human conditions. It may be noted that despite efforts to solve the housing problems of urban poor of Siliguri, the results have not been very encouraging as the number of dwelling units constructed under programmes like NSDP and VAMBAY were far too less to cater to the needs of a huge number of kutcha and semi-pucca houses of the slum pockets. This is well confirmed by the Perspective Plan (2004) of the Siliguri-Jalpaiguri Planning Area which maintained that only 6% of the slum houses were pucca. About 18% of the houses were semi-pucca and about 76% of the slum dwellings were kutcha. This scenario is becoming grave with time due to the fast pace of the growth of slum population without any commensurate increase in the area of the slums, thereby resulting in constraints of space and making the living conditions more and more unhygienic. The latest figure suggests the number of total slum households in Siliguri to be 33,231 with average household size being 4.9 (Purobarta, 2010 : 66).

It needs to be seen as to how far the IHSDP solves this problem with the sanctioning of 5063 numbers of dwelling units to be constructed in three phases between 2009 and 2012. Indeed, under the present circumstances, the authorities of SMC would be facing mounting challenges to overcome this uphill task.

4.6.2.1 ILCS and Siliguri

Integrated Low Cost Sanitation (ILCS) for the Liberation of the Scavengers Programme (LSP) was initiated in 1981 by the Ministry of Home Affairs with the purpose of converting dry latrines into two-pit water seal pour flush latrines; constructing new sanitary units in those households which practiced open defecation; putting an end to the unhealthy and degradable practice of manual scavenging of night soil from the dry latrines; and providing alternative employment to the liberated scavengers. The prime objective, thus, was improvement of the overall sanitation scenario of the urban poor following a demand-driven Total Sanitation Campaign Programme

. In 1986, it was converged with UBS and the latter, in turn, got subsumed in UBSP, launched in 1990. The Central Government in 1993 came out with the 'Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993' with the solemn resolve to completely eradicate manual scavenging from the country.

The ILCS Scheme started in Siliguri in 1986 under UBS with funding from the Central Government, State Government and UNICEF and contributions by the beneficiaries (in case of individual toilets). Under the Scheme, SUDA has been the nodal agency in the State and SMC through MED has been the implementing agency. Under UBS, till 1990, 350 individual households two-pit were constructed. Besides, under the same programme, 8 (4 seater) two-pit community latrines were

BOX 4.1: FACT SHEET OF NSDP IN SILIGURI	
○	Nos. of Families benefitted under Shelter for Shelterless Programme - 961/381
○	Nos. of Leprosy Shed Constructed - 35
○	Number of Tube Well Installed - 640
○	Nos. of Ring well Platforms constructed - 185
○	Nos. of Women Bathing Place constructed - 115
○	Nos. of Community Toilets Constructed - 8
○	Nos. of Community Centre constructed - 8
○	Number of Service Privy Converted into Low Cost Sanitary Latrines - 12547
○	Concrete Drains constructed - 72 Km
○	Bituminous Roads constructed - 90 Km
○	Concrete Cement Roads constructed - 18 Km
○	Extension of Street Light Facilities - 35 Km

Source: Report on UPL in SMC Area 2006-07 (Data gap with regard to housing in two different Reports)

constructed. To add to UBS, a state-sponsored programme 'Liberation of Scavenger Programme (LSP) also contributed in this regard. Under this, 1600 individual household two-pit latrines, 8 (4 seater) two-pit community latrines, and 10 two-pit latrines in pre-school education centre were constructed (Ghosh et al 1994 : 201-202).

With the launch of UBSP in 1990 and the passage of the above-mentioned Act, the ILCS Scheme was intensified in Siliguri. An assessment of the situation based on Municipal data of 1990 showed that out of 21,000 holdings, 2,575 service privies were existing at that point of time. However, within the allotted fund for this purpose amounting to Rs. 100.71 lakhs, only 1302 service privies could be converted to LCS latrines. Thus, for the remaining 1,273 dry latrines, a further fund of about Rs. 32 lakhs was provided by the HUDCO in the form of loan. But with the abnormal growth of the city and its conversion to the status of the Corporation, the slum population grew to an unmanageable proportion. As such, much more construction of household toilets and community toilets were needed. Finally, a total 12,547 low cost sanitation units have been constructed under this scheme and total 80 % of the slum dwellers have access to safe mode of sanitation due to this program. It was in the financial year 2008-09 that the Government of West Bengal announced that it has no dry latrines, implying that manual scavenging has effectively been abolished in Siliguri. However, it is to contend that though there is no existence of manual scavenging in Siliguri, open defecation, particularly on the riverbeds of the river Mahananda, continues unabated, thereby contributing immensely in the increase in water pollution of the river. Survey done by NUSP in early months of 2010 confirms prevalence of such practice.

The funding pattern under ILCS Scheme for EWS for Siliguri was as laid down in Table 4.26

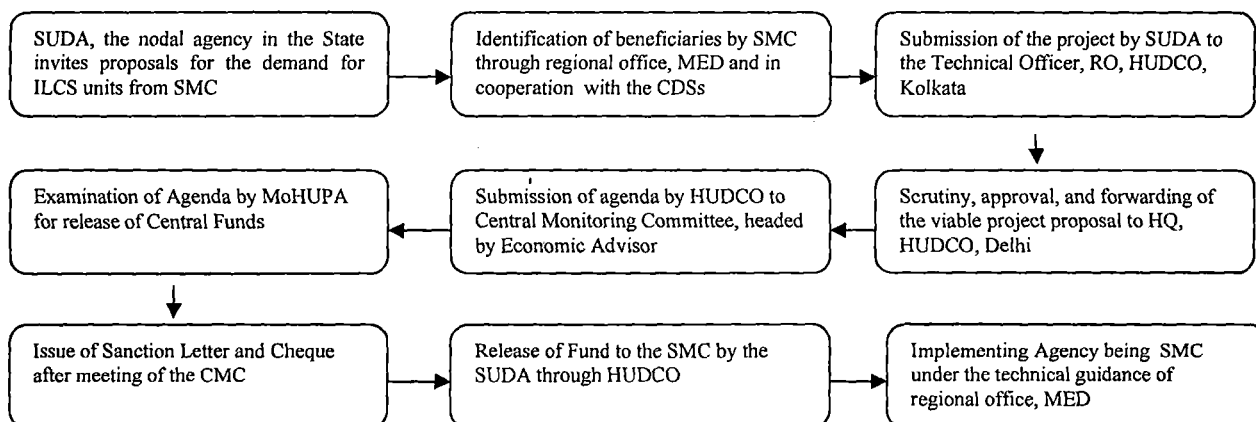
**Table 4.26 : Funding Pattern under ILCS Scheme applicable in case of
Siliguri**

Particulars (1)	GOI Subsidy (2)	GOI Loan (3)	State Subsidy (4)	Beneficiary Contribution (5)	Corporation's /Beneficiary Contribution (6)
All-India Before Revised Guidelines, 2008	45%	50%	-	5%	-
All-India After Revised Guidelines, 2008	75%	-	15%	10%	-
In Case of West Bengal till 2001-02	45%	-	50%	5%	-
In Case of West Bengal after 2001-02 till Revised Guidelines, 2008	45%	-	Addl. Grant of Rs. 400/- per unit as well as Addl. Amount for the construction of the superstructure	-	55%

Source: Evaluation and Impact Assessment of ILCS Scheme, Agricultural Finance Corporation Ltd.

Further, the implementing mechanism under the ILCS Scheme with respect to Siliguri which was followed can be understood in the form of following Figure 4.12.

**Figure 4.12 : Implementing Mechanism under the ILCS Scheme in
Siliguri**



It may be noted that though the numbers and areas of slums have remained same, the population has increased substantially, resulting in major space constraints. As such, while implementing ILCS Scheme, one of the major problems faced by the implementing agencies of SMC was the space constraints. Besides, at many places, the soil composition was not suitable for the construction of the pits. All these created major limitation in the construction of septic tanks. It was also experienced by the authorities concerned that on many occasions appropriate location of tank as per technical specifications falls to other beneficiary's boundary which, in turn, resulted in resistance. Thus, one of the major suggestions put forward was regarding the flexibility in the adoption of design of the latrines to be constructed. Apart from these, other problems which were highlighted were more or less similar to those experienced by other cities, such as, low amount of GOI subsidy norm as the target household beneficiaries were from the very poor category, delay in the process of fund release by HUDCO, allocation of funds for awareness generation about the usage and maintenance of the latrines, and the like.

However, declaration of no-scavenging in Siliguri by the SMC does not mean that there is complete eradication of open defecation in Siliguri. On the other hand, slum population, as always, is on the rise without increase in the areas of the slums with the consequence of acute space crisis. With the end of the ILCS Scheme in Siliguri, it is beyond the financial capability of the Corporation to go alone for the construction of new household toilets. Under the circumstances, the only viable option is the construction of community toilets on a priority basis. Moreover, there is a need for regular and vigorous door-to-door campaign in the slum pockets highlighting the negative environmental effects of open defecation on river water.

4.6.2.2 Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP) and Siliguri

The funding pattern under the Scheme is 80:15 among the Central Government and the State Government. The remaining 5% is to be contributed by the individual beneficiary. A total of Rs. 1 Lakh has been earmarked for the construction of a dwelling unit. The Government of India has approved projects

under IHSDP in 3 Phases to SMC. Table 4.26 lays down the approved Schemes of housing under IHSDP.

Table 4.26 : Housing Scheme under IHSDP for SMC

Sl. No.	Phase	Sanctioned Amount (In Crores)	Date of Sanction	Nos. of Dwelling Units	Description of Other Works	Time Limit for Implementation of the Project
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1.	Phase I	36.82	31.03.07.	1998	Construction of roads, drains, electric poles, water supply, community centre/bath/toilets, etc.	2009- 2010
2.	Phase II	19.99	12.05.08.	1206	Do	2010- 2011
3.	Phase III	35.98	19.01.09.	1859	Do	2011- 2012

Source : SMC Budget, 2010-2011

The following Table 4.27 lays down the Additional Central Assistance (ACA) status of IHSDP under JNNURM with regard to Siliguri.

Table 4.27 : 'On' Account Payment of Grant Component of ACA for the IHSDP under JNNURM

(Rs. in Lakhs)

Year and Date	Name of the Project/ Particular	Total Project Cost	Central Share (CS)	Amount Recommended for Release
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2005-06	-	-	-	-
2006-07 31.03.2007.	IHSDP Scheme for the town of Siliguri, West Bengal (Phase I)	3682.10	2945.68	665.99 (Part of the 1 st installment of Rs. 1472.84, i.e. 50% of the Central Share)
2007-08 28.06.2007.	Remaining balance of the 1 st installment of Rs. 1472.84 of the Phase I	-	-	806.85
2008-09 29.04.2008.	In-situ construction of 1206 DUs in 29 slums in Siliguri, West Bengal (Phase II)	1999.24	1406.43	703.22 (1 st Installment)
2008-09 27.03.2009.	Balance amount of ACA of Phase I released as 2 nd installment	-	-	1472.84

2008-09 27.03.2009.	IHSDP Scheme for the town of Siliguri, West Bengal (Phase III)	3598.74	2581.55	1290.78 (1 st Installment)
2009-10 29.07.2009.	VAMBAY (Scheme No. 18665, Agency- SJDA)	64.00	32.00	15.00
2010-11 14.06.2010	Revised CS approved for DUs under Phase III = 1487.20 (Originally CS approved = 1189.76)		297.44 (Increased ACA approved)	148.72

Source : www.mhupa.nic.in

The Efforts of the SMC with regard to Proper Implementation of IHSDP

In order that IHSDP gets implemented properly in accordance with the guidelines of the MoHUPA, GoI, the officials of the SMC, MED, PHE along with the CDSs functionaries and respective Ward Councillors have conducted a detailed survey of the slums for the purpose of identification of the beneficiaries. Besides, a number of meetings have been organized with the beneficiary families in order to explain them the details of the Scheme as well as their role and involvement in its implementation. The Corporation has taken pains to ease the burden of the beneficiaries' own contribution for dwelling units by making a request to the nationalized banks to extend finances on easy terms. In this regard, the State Bank of India and the Union Bank have given their consent to provide loan of Rs. 10,000/- at a rate of interest of 4% per annum for the maximum tenure of five years. Thus, the beneficiaries have the option of contributing either the whole amount of Rs. 16,000/- (20% of the project cost per dwelling unit) or to contribute Rs. 6,000/- and apply for the bank loan for the remaining amount of Rs. 10,000/-. For the smooth implementation of the schemes under IHSDP, a Cell has been constituted at the Corporation level. Further, in order to closely monitor the implementation of the works under the Programme, Ward level and Slum level Committees involving the CDS members and other slum dwellers have also been formed.

Problems Confronted in the Implementation of IHSDP

Some of the problems has been highlighted by the SMC in its Report, 'Urban Poverty Alleviation and Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area, 2006-07'

with respect to the proper implementation of IHSDP. In the area of infrastructure development of slums, National Slum Development Programme was the main source of funds along with VAMBAY. Roads, drainage, water supply, electricity and housing were provided to the poor in all slums irrespective of their land title. On the contrary, IHSDP guidelines lay down that no scheme should be taken up in those slums which are existing on the railway and other government lands. Moreover, the Programme requires selection of slums on the criterion of backwardness. Further, it prescribes implementation of the Programme in phases. All these have left SMC with no government fund at its disposal to undertake housing and infrastructural activities in those slums which could not be included under IHSDP. As a result, some of the Wards of SMC which have majority of population living in slums have been deprived of the benefits of IHSDP. Mention may be made of Ward No. 1 and Ward No. 46 where there are 13 and 14 slum pockets respectively. Due to the criterion of land title laid down under IHSDP, only 1 slum pocket from Ward No. 1 and only 2 slum pockets from Ward No. 46 were chosen under the Programme. It may also be noted that for the same reason, four Wards with a sizeable number of slum population, namely, Ward Nos. 18, 28, 32 and 33 were completely left out. Besides, in some of the Wards, some slum pockets were included and some were left out due to same limitation. In all, out of the total of 154 notified slum pockets, only 94 got included under IHSDP. It may, however, be noted that SJDA has decided to bring about comprehensive development, out of its own funds, on the pattern of IHSDP in those slums pockets which have been left out.

Problems have been noticed with regard to proper implementation of the housing scheme under IHSDP in Siliguri. The writer came to know from the slum dwellers that in several cases, the work have been completed only up to plinth area even after the lapse of about three years of the first phase. In some other cases, it was reported that there have been changes in the contractors several times which attributed in the delay of the completion of the dwelling units.

4.6.3 Urban Poverty Alleviation in Siliguri

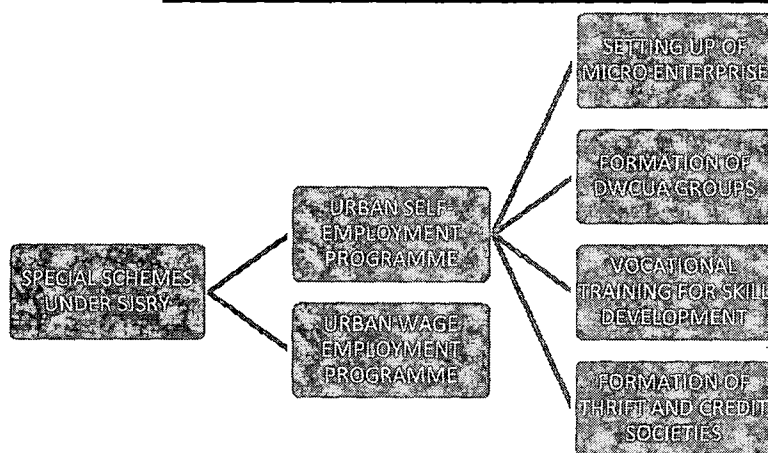
Among the several programmes of urban poverty alleviation in Siliguri, the most important is Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY). Among other

programmes/schemes, mention may be made of National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) and Mid Day Meal (MDM).

4.6.3.1 Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) in Siliguri

This centrally assisted poverty alleviation programme was launched on 1st December, 1997. It seeks to provide gainful employment to the unemployed and underemployed urban poor. So, though the programme is implemented on a whole town basis but special emphasis is given on urban poor settlements. Again, among the target groups, special attention is given to women, people belonging to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and disabled persons. The programme provides that not less than 30% of the beneficiaries should be women. Besides, the percentage of SC/ST beneficiaries should be proportionate to the total population of the town. Finally, 3% of the beneficiaries should belong to disabled (differently abled) category. Figure 4.13 lays down the special schemes of the SJSRY originally devised and were in operation within SMC area between 1997 and 2008-09:

Figure 4.13 : The Original Components of SJSRY



The guidelines of the SJSRY schemes got revised w.e.f. the financial year 2009-2010. As such, at present, SJSRY Scheme has five components which are in operation in Siliguri, as elsewhere in the country. They are :

- (1) Urban Self Employment Programme (USEP);
- (2) Urban Women Self help Programme (UWSP);

- (3) Skill Training for Employment Promotion amongst Urban Poor (STEP-UP);
- (4) Urban Wage Employment Programme (UWEP); and
- (5) Urban Community Development Network (UCDN).

The main features after various changes affected in the components of the revamped SJSRY are as follows :

- (1) USEP – (i) the eligibility criterion of ‘not educated beyond 9th Standard’ has been removed; (ii) assistance is given to individual poor beneficiaries for setting up gainful self-employment ventures; (iii) project cost ceiling has been increased from Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 2 lakhs and subsidy component from 15% to 25% of the project cost; and (iv) provision is there for Rs. 80 lakhs (Rs. 60 lakhs as one time capital grant and Rs 20 lakhs for the running cost for 3 years on a tapered scale) as infrastructure component for setting up Micro Business Centres (MBC), Informal Sector Markets, Common Housing Facilities.
- (2) UWSP – (i) minimum number of women in a Women Self-Help Group has been reduced from 10 to 5; (ii) subsidy amount of group enterprises of urban poor women has been increased to 35% of the project cost or Rs. 3 lakhs or Rs. 60,000 per member of the group, whichever is less; (iii) revolving fund assistance to the T&CS increased from Rs. 1000 to Rs. 2000 per member subject to a ceiling of Rs. 25,000 per T&CS; and (iv) if any member of the T&CS saves at least Rs. 500 in a fixed deposit for 12 months with the society, she is entitled to a subsidy of Rs.30 in a health/life/accident/any other insurance scheme for herself.
- (3) STEP-UP – (i) skill training is now linked to ‘certification and accreditation’ and emphasis is on PPP (Public-Private Partnership) mode with the involvement of reputed institutions like IITs, NITs Industry Associations, reputed Engineering Colleges, Management Institutes and other reputed agencies; (iia) training is to be provided in service business, manufacturing activities and local skills and local crafts, such as, construction trade and allied services like carpentry, plumbing, electrical as well as manufacturing low-cost building materials based on cost-effective technology using local materials for setting up self-employment ventures or for securing salaried employment; (iib) for the purpose of construction related training, provision is there for using the services of the Building Centres sponsored by HUDCO

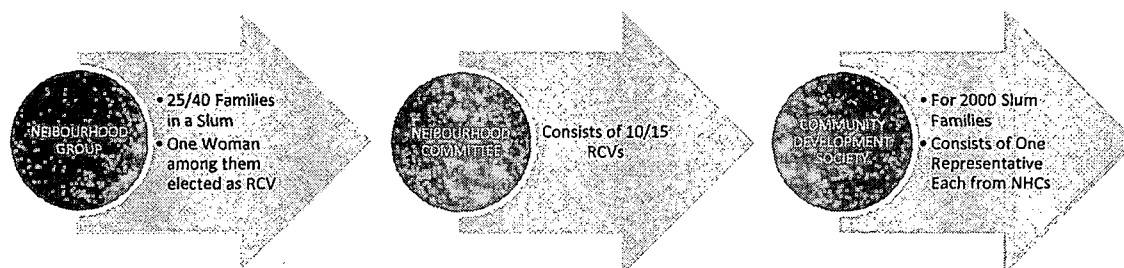
(Housing and Urban Development Corporation) or BMTPC (Building Material Technology Promotion Council) within the States/UTs; (iii) among the beneficiaries, not less than 30% would be women, the percentage of SCs and STs should be at least to the extent of the proportion of their strength in the city/town population below poverty line and 3% reservation is for the differently-abled person; (iv) average expenditure ceiling per trainee has been enhanced from Rs.2,600 to Rs.10,000 which include material cost, trainers' fees, tool kit cost, other miscellaneous expenses and the monthly stipend paid to the trainee; and (v) 15% of the total financial and physical targets under STEP-UP at the national level has been earmarked for the minority community in pursuance of the Prime Minister's 15-Point Programme for the Welfare of Minorities.

(4) UWEP – (i) provision is there for generation of wage employment to beneficiaries living below poverty line through construction of socially and economically useful public assets like community centres, storm water drains, roads, night shelters, kitchen sheds in primary schools under Mid-day Meal Scheme and other community requirements like parks, SWM facilities, as decided by the community structures themselves; (ii) special emphasis is to be given on the construction of community assets in low-income neighbourhoods; (iii) this component is application to towns/cities with population up to 5 lakhs as per the 1991 Census; (iv) the material:labour ratio is 60:40, relaxable upto 10% either way; and (v) beneficiaries to be paid prevailing minimum wage rate, as notified from time to time for each area.

(5) UCDN – it supports and promotes community organizations like NHGs, NHCs and CDSs to facilitate sustainable local development.

The most important feature of SJSRY programme is the active participation of the women from BPL families in the formulation, implementation and supervision of the schemes. For the purpose of this, a three tier structure has been formed which is presented as follows:

Figure 4.14 : The Three Tier Structure under SJSRY



Under the scheme of SJSRY, the CDSs share the prime responsibility for the identification of beneficiaries, preparation of applications, monitoring of recovery, identification of suitable projects for that particular area as well as other necessary support. The following table indicates the formation of NHGs, NHCs and CDSs in the slum pockets within SMC area:

Table 4.28 : Physical Status of NHG, NHC and CDS in Siliguri

Years (1)	No. of NHG/RCV (2)	No. of NHC (3)	No. of CDS (4)
Upto 1999	1100	151	15
Upto 2008	1216	154	15
As on 15.12.2010.	1216	154	15

Sources : SMC Five Years: 1994-1999; SMC Annual Report, 2007-2008

Town Project Officer, UPE Cell, SMC

Each of the 15 Community Development Societies (CDSs) in Siliguri is a registered body under Society Act. Besides, there are 15 Community Organisers (COs) appointed by the SMC for the maintenance of liaison between the CDSs and the UPE Cell of the SMC. These 15 COs act as the Secretaries of the 15 CDSs. The suggestions put forward by the CDSs reach the UPE Cell through the COs. The various suggestions are discussed and prioritized keeping in consideration the financial aspect by the MMICs under the Chairmanship of the Mayor and in presence of the MMIC, UPE, IPP-VIII & Mother and Child Care and associated officials.

4.6.3.1.1 Performance of SMC under Earlier Version of SJSRY

By the end of 1999, vocational training under SJSRY were provided to 303 women and 1,920 youths and loans on low interest and subsidies were given to 1,361 persons under USEP of SJSRY (SMC 1994-1999).

During 1999-2003, out of about 600 women who were provided training, 450 got self employed. Besides, about 400 TCGs (Thrift & Credit Groups) were formed and about 7000 women got associated with these. Out of these, some 4000 women received loans for establishing business. It was estimated that about Rs. One Crore thrift got collected from the Group Members (SMC 1999-2003).

The financial year 2006-07 saw the number of TCGs increasing to 610 with 583 of them availing revolving fund (DoMA 2006-07). Besides, there were 3 nos. of DWCUA in Siliguri. Further, under the USEP (micro-enterprise) scheme, 37 individuals were provided loans.

There was further improvement witnessed during financial year 2007-08. While the number of TCGs grew from 610 to 855 (with 815 groups availing fund) and the number of DWCUA from 3 to 4, another 12 beneficiaries were added under USEP (micro-enterprises). Besides, the total number of persons provided vocational training rose up to 860 by the end of the year (SMC 2007-08).

4.6.3.1.2 Present Status of SJSRY in Siliguri under the Revised Version

As on 15.12.2010, under the USEP (Individual Micro-Enterprise), five individuals have so far applied for loans, but they are yet to be sanctioned by the banks. Under UWSP, only one group consisting of 5 members has been provided with credit under UWSP (Group Micro-Enterprise). At present, 825 nos. of groups have been assisted with revolving fund under UWSP (Revolving Fund). Under STEP-UP, a total of 1064 persons have been provided with skill training for wage/salaried employment. Out of these, 651 are general, 247 SCs, 137 STs and 29 of them belong to minority section. Out of the total number of persons given training, 1034 are women. It was only with regard to one BPO Training session that 30 boys were selected for the purpose as not much women were interested to go for such training. It may be noted that the latter training was provided on Public Private Partnership (PPP) mode by involving Orion Edutech Pvt. Ltd., Kolkata. Among other areas where training are provided under STEP-UP in Siliguri,

mention may be made of beautician course, food processing, crystal bag making, soft doll making, chow chow and chowmin, tailoring, embroidery, etc. Further, there is a micro-business centre, 'Srishti' present in Siliguri.

With regard to the functions of the Town Project Officer (TPO), UPE Cell, SMC, they are (i) coordination of the activities of all the CDSs and Cos; (ii) identification of the urban poor clusters and areas for setting up of community structures like Neighbourhood Groups (NHGs), Neighbourhood Committees (NHCs) and Community Development Societies (CDSs); (iii) conduct of households and livelihood surveys of slum pockets; (iv) identification of beneficiaries for various schemes under SJSRY; (v) provision of training to COs; and (vi) ensuring SHG-Bank linkage. However, as of now, there is no such arrangement in the UPE Cell for the TPO to monitor programme activities by deploying suitable MIS/e-Governance tools.

The coverage of each CDS in Siliguri are laid down in the following Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 : Physical Status of CDSs in Siliguri

CDS No. (1)	Wards Covered (2)	Total Nos. of Slums Covered (3)	Total Slum Population Covered (4)
CDS No. 1	Ward 4	8	8365
CDS No. 2	Ward 28,29	8	10787
CDS No. 3	Ward 19,20,23,24	13	11443
CDS No. 4	Ward 6,7,18	8	7507
CDS No. 5	Ward 2,3,45	11	12345
CDS No. 6	Ward 1,47	19	14226
CDS No. 7	Ward 42,43	11	11496
CDS No. 8	Ward 46	14	13245
CDS No. 9	Ward 10,44	5	8020
CDS No. 10	Ward 36	5	5305
CDS No. 11	Ward 35	9	10085
CDS No. 12	Ward 30,33,34	13	13670
CDS No. 13	Ward 5,31,32	8	18074
CDS No. 14	Ward 37,38,39	7	14287
CDS No. 15	Ward 40,41	15	9359

Source : TPO, UPE Cell, SMC

4.6.3.1.3 Limitations in Proper Implementation of Schemes under SJSRY in Siliguri

One of the major problems confronting training programmes under STEP-UP is that it is the State Urban Development Agency (SUDA), the nodal agency for SJSRY in West Bengal, who decides as to areas in which training is to be provided. As such, the role of SMC in this regard has been rendered non-existent. The TPO and several COs maintained during interview schedules that while choosing areas for training, the milieu of a particular city should be kept in mind. Otherwise, the whole exercise would end up in futility as well as result in loss of time, energy and above all, money. The issue that came up through discussions with regard to training programmes is that the UPE Cell is dictated upon to carry out the directives of the SUDA, based in Kolkata. One such example highlighted by several of the interviewees was the training programme organized during 2009-10 on making of 'Crystal Bags'. Out of the 25 beneficiaries imparted training, none of them reportedly got employed or is encouraged to initiate their own small business of crystal bags as the demands for such bags are minimal in Siliguri. In their opinion, it would be wise enough if the responsibility to identify the areas of training lie with the UPE Cell, SMC. The COs who were interviewed were unanimous in demanding more training sessions in tailoring as that was more popular among the beneficiaries.

Another problem highlighted was that it is again the SUDA who chooses the institution for imparting training from a panel prepared by it. In this regard, too, no consultation is done with the UPE Cell, SMC. More often than not, the institutions chosen for the purpose happens to have their base in Kolkata. If majority of the interviewees are to be believed then local trainers are capable enough to impart such trainings to the beneficiaries which would help save valuable public money.

One of the major demands of the authorities concerned was the increase in the number of beneficiaries stipulated for a training session. As of now, the number of beneficiaries to be imparted training in a particular session is normally fixed at 50. As a result, the share of each Ward under the SMC comes to an average of 2 beneficiaries. It becomes extremely difficult, sometimes, for the COs and Chairpersons of CDSs in identification of beneficiaries, in particular in those areas of training which are quite popular among the beneficiaries.

There are problems with regard to trainers, too. It was alleged that though at the initial stage of training, classes do run regularly, but with the passage of time, irregularity steps in the conduct of classes. Besides, allegation was also made as to the use of proxy by the trainers. There are instances of trainers deputing better students in the batch for the purpose of imparting training which obviously lowers the standard of training. Instances were highlighted where the beneficiaries, after completing training under STEP-UP, got trained again from privately-run institutions in order to initiate business.

With regard to the Thrift and Credit Groups (TCGs) under UWSP (Revolving Fund), one suggestion put forward by majority of the Resident Corps Volunteers (RCV), Chairpersons of the CDSs, COs as well as TPO herself was to increase the credit from the existing Rs. 2000/- to at least Rs. 5000/- in order to run the Groups successfully. The amount laid down under the revised SJSRY is not enough to start any sort of self-employment seeing the commercialization of Siliguri. Moreover, a demand was also put forward that the tenure of loan payment should be increased from existing 10 months to 15 months. This would help ease the burden of the beneficiaries to a large extent.

As far micro-enterprise scheme under USEP is concerned, it was observed that the banks generally are averse to the idea and generally show disinterest in sanctioning loans for any such enterprise. This is also to mention here that there is a justification on the part of the banks to show disinterest as it has been experienced that the number of defaulters in such cases are substantial.

As of now, the role Cos, CDSs, NHCs, RCVs is confined to formation and monitoring of TCGs. Even in case of selection of beneficiaries for various training programmes, their role is very limited and in most of the cases, it is the Ward Councillor and Ward Committee who play the leading role in this regard. Those in the UPE Cell are of the opinion that slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation programs would be better managed if planning and execution come under one umbrella. They seek that UPE Cell and CDSs should be given the sole responsibility in this respect. In their opinion, this would further better coordination in the implementation of the slum improvement and UPE programmes. However, they also held out that prior to any such move, proper training should be provided to the COs and members of the CDSs.

4.6.3.2 National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) in Siliguri

This programme was launched on 15th August, 1995 and is implemented in rural as well as in urban areas. It is monitored by the Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India with regard to effective implementation of the programme by the concerned States/UTs. In the State of West Bengal, SUDA is the nodal agency for its implementation in the urban areas.

NSAP is a significant step towards the fulfillment of Directive Principles of State Policy enshrined in Article 41 of the Indian Constitution. It enjoins upon the State to provide public assistance to its citizens in case of unemployment, old age, sickness, disablement and in other cases of undeserved want within its economic means. The Programme has been modified 7 times since its inception and presently has five components instead of three at the time of inception.

Thus, NSAP presently consists of the five following schemes :

(i) Indira Gandhi Old Age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS) entitling BPL persons aged 65 years or above to a monthly pension of Rs. 200/-.

(ii) Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme (IGNWPS) entitling BPL widows aged 40-64 years to a monthly pension of Rs. 200/-

(iii) Indira Gandhi National Disability Pension Scheme (IGNDPS) entitling BPL persons aged 18-64 years with severe and multiple disabilities to a monthly pension of Rs. 200/-.

(iv) National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS) entitling a BPL household to lump sum amount of Rs. 10,000/- on the death of primary breadwinner aged between 18 and 64 years.

(v) 'Annapurna' scheme providing for 10 kg of food grains per month free of cost to those senior citizens who, though eligible, have remained uncovered under NOAPS/IGNOAPS.

The physical status of the Schemes under NSAP in Siliguri as on February, 2010 is laid down in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29 : Physical Status of Schemes under NSAP in Siliguri as on February, 2010

Sl. No.	Name of Schemes	No. of Beneficiaries
1	IGNOAPS	3129
2	NFBS	41
3	Annapurna Yojona	224
4	IGNWP	196
5	IGNDPS	9

Source : UPE Cell, SMC

Apart from these, several number of applications for financial assistance under IGNOAPS, IGNWP etc. have been forwarded to SUDA for approval. Besides, 6038 families are being provided assistance under the Antyoday Anna Yojana. Under Janani Suraksha Yojana, 315 beneficiaries have been provided with assistance.

It may be noted that only BPL families can avail the benefit of the above schemes. However, many people are there who are poor but their names have not been included in the BPL list. As such, the Siliguri Municipal Corporation has extended helping hand towards them by running several social assistance schemes out of its own resources. Table 4. 30 lists out those schemes.

Table 4.30 : Social Assistance Under Own Resources of SMC

Sl. No	Name of the Scheme	Category of Beneficiaries	Rate of Assistance per month	Nos. of Beneficiary	
				Present	Proposed
1	Old Age Pension	Supportless persons above 60 years	Rs. 300/-	500	1000
2	Pension for Widows	Supportless Widows	Rs. 300/-	300	500
3	Pension for Physically handicapped	Mentally & Physically Handicapped Persons belonging to Poor Family	Rs. 300/-	400	500
4	Special Assistance to Eminent Persons	Eminent Persons in the fields of Sports and Cultural Activities	Rs. 500/-	50	50
5	Distribution of Rice	Supportless Persons above 60 yrs who do not posses BPL Card	@10 kgs/ Month	1500	2000
6	Financial Assistance to the Students	Poor & Meritorious Students for Higher Studies from H.S. to M.A.	Rs. 4000 (One Time)	500	500
7	Financial Assistance to the Students	Poor & Meritorious Students for studying Engineering, Medical, etc.	Rs.15000 (one time)	10	15

7	Financial Assistance for Renovation and Reconstruction of Shelter	Poor & Supportless persons not able to reconstruct or repair their shelter	Rs. 5000 (one time)		
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Source : Budget, 2010-11, SMC

4.6.4 Some Other Initiatives and Proposals of SMC with regard to Slum Improvement and UPE

Some other initiatives and proposals of the SMC as laid down in the Budget, 2010-2011, with regard to slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation may be enumerated as follows :

- Proposal for setting up of a self shelter in Siliguri for at least 100 orphans, and destitute children to provide for safe shelter as well as for making arrangement for their education & vocational training for appropriate physical and mental growth;
- Proposal for launching of the 'Housing for the Urban Poor' during this financial year with the objective to provide financial support to the urban poor for the construction of new dwelling units (Rs. 1 Lakh per unit) as well as up gradation/extension of existing units (up to Rs. 60,000/- per unit);
- Proposal for taking initiative for providing skill training, marketing assistance, and extending benefits of government sponsored schemes, assistance from non-government organisations and financial institutions like banks etc.;
- Proposal for providing assistance for treatment of female diseases and pregnant mothers;
- Initiation of measures, like free legal aid and other assistance against women atrocities and social injustice;
- Securing land tenure to the urban poor;
- Implementation of the Rajib Awas Yojana from the financial year 2010-2011;
- Proposal to construct two night shelters for the poor and shelter less people in the financial year 2010-2011.

Figure 4.15 : Map Showing Location of Overhead Tanks within SMC Area

Source : Perspective Plan, SJDA

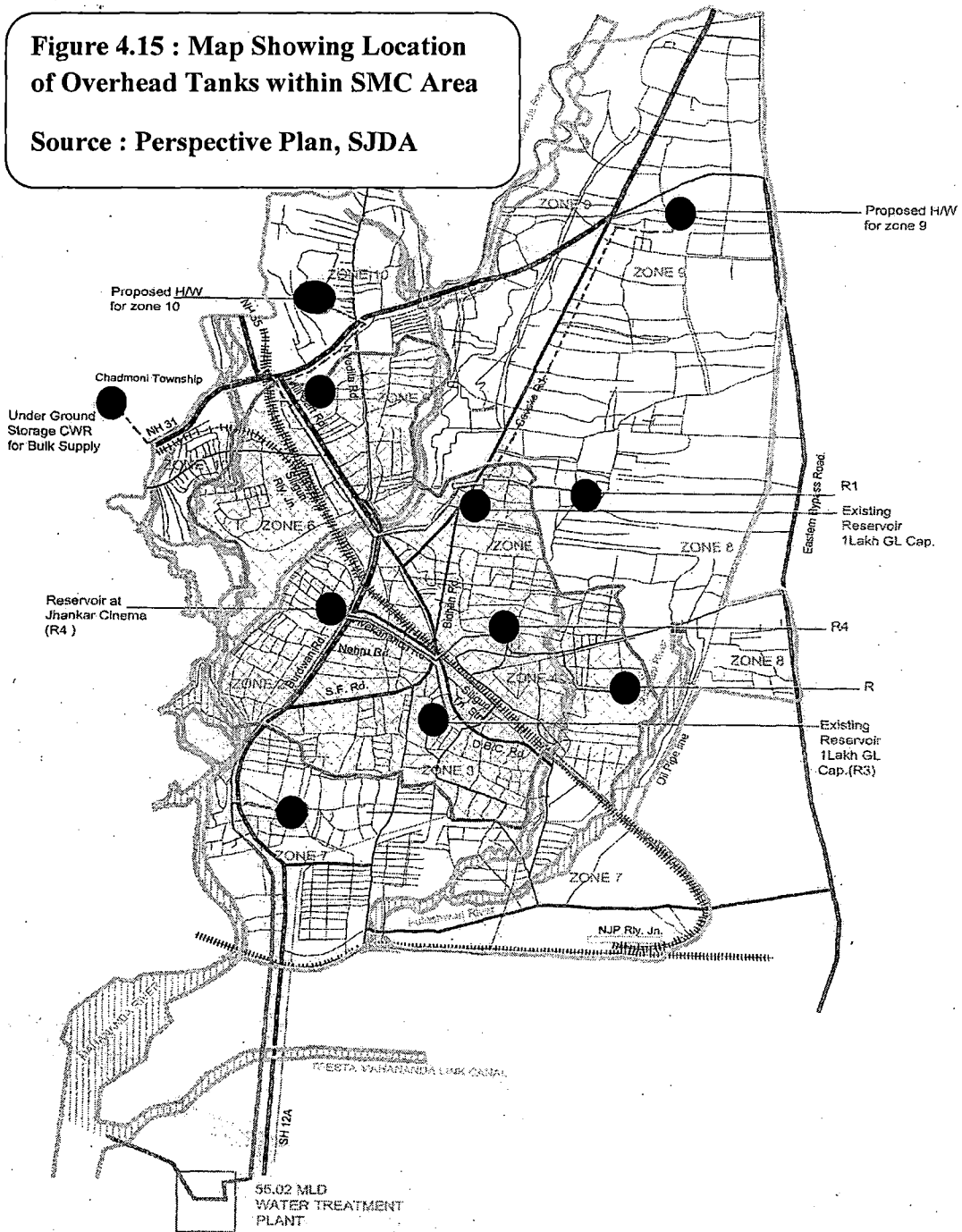


Figure 4.16 : Map Showing Areas of Traffic Congestion Within SMC Area

Source : Perspective Plan, SJDA

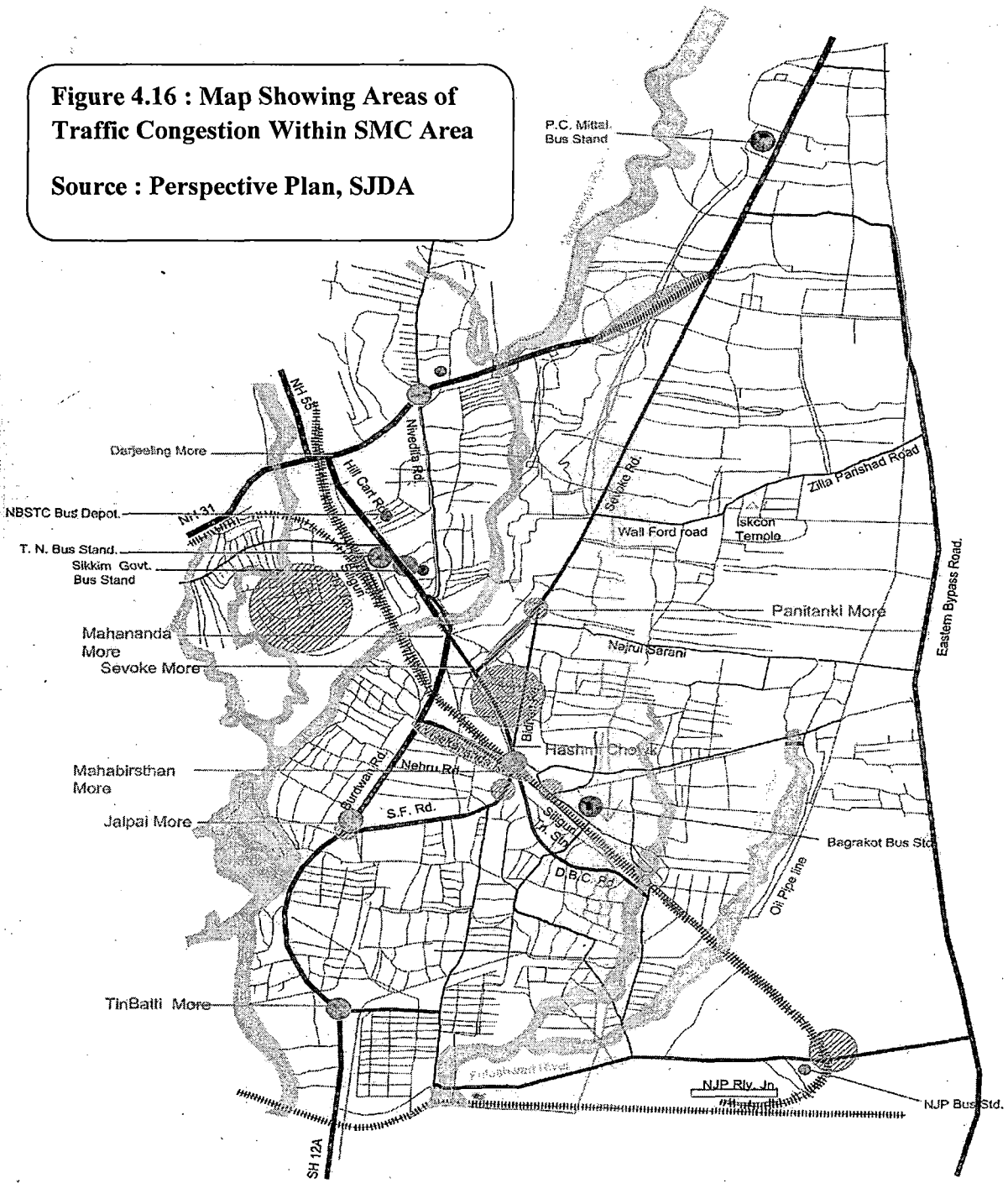
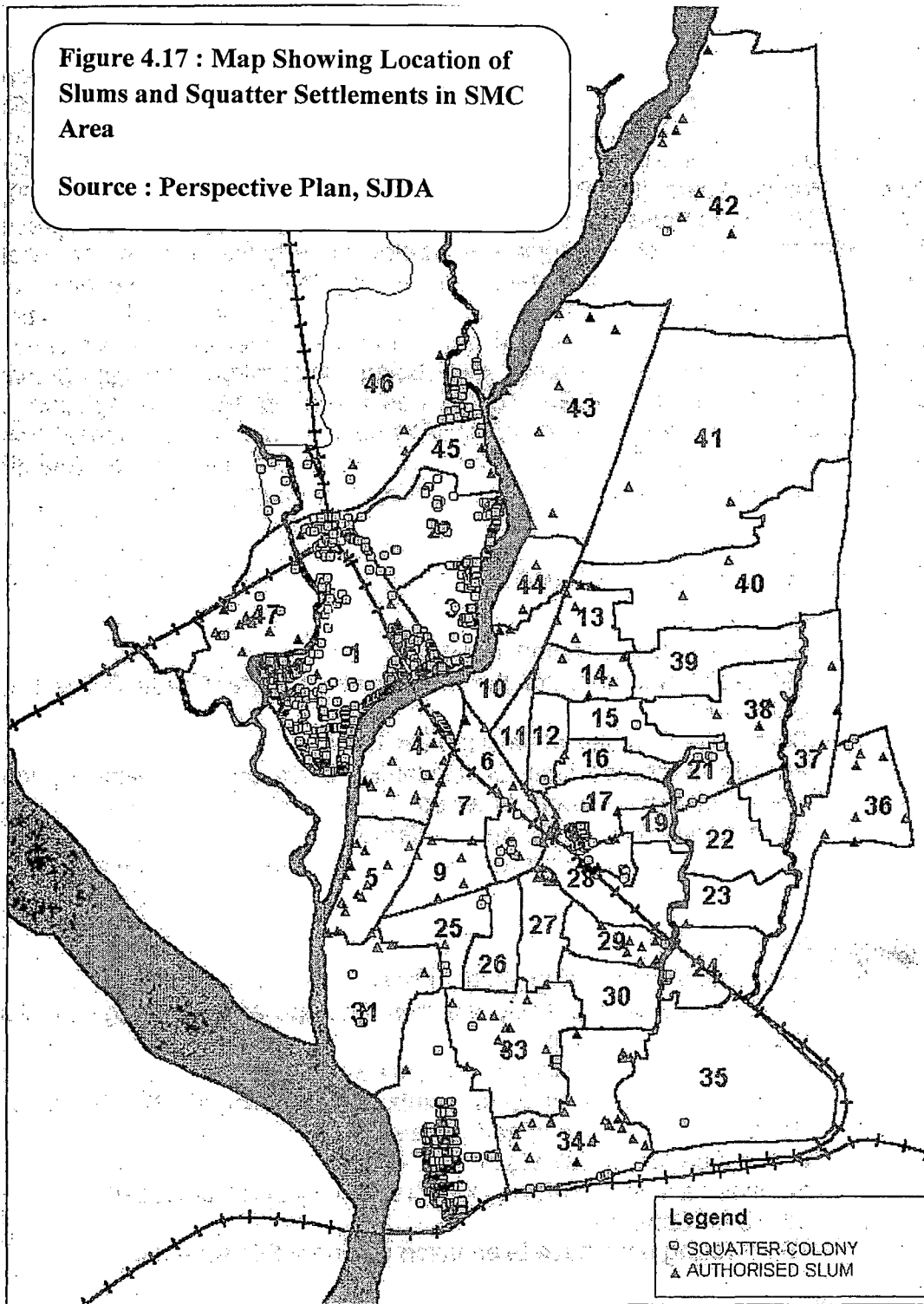


Figure 4.17 : Map Showing Location of Slums and Squatter Settlements in SMC Area

Source : Perspective Plan, SJDA



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CHAPTER FIVE

PEOPLE AND DEVELOPMENT : SILIGURI MUNICIPAL CORPORATION AREA

Participation of a city-citizen in development of a city/town majorly imply five aspects – (a) duty to comprehensively avail the existing rights laid down by constitutional provisions, acts, laws, bye-laws and government notifications; (b) duty to press for more justified rights; (c) duty to practice and follow the urban rules and regulations; (d) duty to lodge protest against undutiful behavior of others in public life and (e) duty to vision and initiate newer ideas of development.

Let us begin with a unique example of participation of Siliguri dwellers unheard of, perhaps, in any other ULB of the country. **It was in Siliguri and first time in India, perhaps, that a formal referendum was used by any ULB to decide the fate of an important municipal project** (The Update 2003 : 2). Its history can be traced to the visit of the Municipal Affairs and Urban Development Minister of the State, Shri Ashok Bhattacharya to the United States in June, 2002 to gain knowledge about better urban environmental management, solid waste management policy and technology options that could benefit ULBs of West Bengal. The tour was sponsored by the US-AEP. There the Minister was introduced to the system of ‘referendum’ employed by many U.S. States. Such system allows the public to vote on specific initiatives requiring more immediate resolution outside the traditional election periods. This system forced the Minister to comment it as ‘real democracy at the grassroots’ which was in contrast to what prevailed in India where urban planning decisions are usually not open to public discussion at all, except for electing representatives based on a five-year election system.

On returning back, the Minister advised the then Mayor of SMC (Siliguri happens to be the Minister’s local constituency) to use the system of referendum for arriving at decisions on upcoming urban planning issues. The Mayor, as such, held a public referendum on 4th January, 2003 to decide “whether or not old trees (122 nos.) should be felled in order to widen Siliguri’s main thoroughfare (Sevoke Road) to ease traffic congestion”. Such effort on the part of SMC is truly commendable as it solemnly tantamount to make the citizens genuinely participative.

However, the sad part of the story was that the percentage of turnout in the referendum (conducted in 4 Wards surrounding the said road) by the citizens eligible to vote was an abysmal 15% (The Update 2003 : 2). Nonetheless, the majority (2754 out of about 3000) voted in favour of removal of trees in order to widen the thoroughfare. Boosted by the success of this experiment, the Minister indicated to formalize the system into an official policy by West Bengal's municipal administration.

Two things come out of this event with respect to people's participation in urban affairs of Siliguri. One, the low turnout at the referendum; and two, non-implementation of the indication of formalizing the referendum system into an official policy in municipal administration in West Bengal.

There may be three broad interpretations of low turnout. Firstly, there might have been some lack of effort on the part of the SMC authority to convince people believe in the importance of the referendum system. Secondly, the fast and changing lifestyle of the Siliguri dwellers might have desisted a vast majority of them from taking their some time out and participate in the public and civic issues concerning their own city. Finally, one derivative may be that the people of Siliguri are too conscious of their surrounding environment to volunteer to participate in the referendum which involved felling of trees. The researcher feels that the first interpretation may be ruled out for the simple reason that this was the first of its kind and unique experiment in Indian municipal history and possibly the SMC authority would not have left any stone unturned to aware citizens through various communicative means and through its own channels like, Ward committees, Community Development Societies, NGOs, and the like. The last one is also not plausible with the attitude of 'who cares' of the majority of citizens which is perceptible in all spheres of public life of Siliguri to demonstrate their anger towards civic authority by voluntarily not casting vote on an environmental issue involving felling of trees. Thus then, the second reason seems to the researcher to be most acceptable. It is the lack of dutifulness of the majority of the people towards civic activities of Siliguri that resulted in the low turnout.

As for non-implementation of making the referendum system into an official policy, there may be a mix of reasons, such as, political; municipal authority's apathy towards the system; loss of time, energy and money in carrying out the system; and the like.

On the whole, this event may force one to believe that majority of the citizens of Siliguri are not too much concerned about their duties as citizens (dutiful in their own behavior in civic life and dutiful to participate in their demanding rights for better civic services) which would help make the tasks of the SMC authority much easier. There is a need of mental revolution in the attitude of public towards civic activities. However, it is easily said than achieved but by no means impossible. The question is from where to start. The onus for making people aware of their duties in public life lies at the base with the SMC authority. No doubt, there are different mechanisms at the disposal of the SMC to elicit people's participation, such as participation through Ward Committees and Area Committees, participation through Community Development Societies, participation through Citizens' Convention held every year and participation through Ward Conventions. But more often than not, these become politically motivated than a platform for genuine participation involving all sections of the society. Besides, there are a host of NGOs operating in Siliguri involved in its developmental aspects. Positive role is being played by the local print and visual media but more space and coverage need to be given by them concerning developmental aspects of Siliguri by judiciously striking a balance between their business considerations and social responsibilities. Again, several citizens' forum, clubs, etc. are there which serves Siliguri in their own way. Despite these, the physical and environmental ambience of Siliguri, in particular, the interior parts of the city would make one come to the conclusion that a lot need to be done in creating awareness of the majority of the citizens with regard to the performance of their civic duties and eliciting their public participation. It would require proper and effective planning; untiring zeal, urge and endeavour; and change in attitude of those who are running formal institutions of governance. Besides, the SMC authority must exemplify explicit boldness wherever necessary to give veiled threat of punitive action for non-compliance of rules and regulations of civic life. No doubt, the task is stupendous and involves gradual process in this regard. It is then only that there would be gradual increase in the population of dutiful and participative citizens in Siliguri and resolution of 'participative development' reverberated in different documents of the SMC can be genuinely achieved.

5.1 Why low level of Direct Participation when Opportunity provided for Referendum by SMC?

It may be noted that the referendum on felling of trees to widen an arterial road (namely, Sevoke Road) was partially done and it involved those wards which lay on the sides of the said road. It may be further noted that the literacy of those wards are relatively higher than those of the other wards of the city. The researcher sought to go into deep to find out the reason behind this low turn-out. In such effort, he took the help of method applied by Edward Krupart (1985 : 39) in his research on understanding the peoples' feelings and experiences regarding the general environment of the city of varied sizes. Krupart adopted social climate approach, generally used by personality psychologists. The researcher has tried to adapt it as far as possible with regard to this case concerning Siliguri. Instead of preparing any pre-existing questionnaire, the researcher directly conversed informally with the residents of the related wards to extract their opinion on such poor turn-out at the referendum. The people approached (about 25 of them) included old-aged and those between 30 to 50 years of age and was conducted in the last month of 2005. Though few of them avoided talking on the issue, others showed their general agreement that it was paucity of polling booths (referendum conducted only at only one polling station located within the P.C.Mittal Bus Stand) that desisted people from casting their vote. However, another very important reason that came out from the conversations on low turn-out was the substantial change in the attributes of the city of Siliguri in contemporary times compared to those which were evident when it a small town two or three decades back.

The issue of change in attributes of the city from the days when it was a small-sized town provided a clue to the researcher to expand the horizon of conversation with a proper questionnaire and schedule. In this regard, the researcher took help from Krupart as far as attributes are concerned. Two wards from each borough were chosen for the purpose and an exact 80 citizens formed the sample size. This was undertaken in the early months of 2006 to understand the feelings of the people about Siliguri that guide their behavior in their everyday interactions within the city which, in turn, helped in understanding the level of their participation in public issues. The broad facts which came out from such exercise is enumerated in Table 5.1. From the table, one may discern, even though the sample size being less with respect to the total population, the perception of the

people of Siliguri, at large, about various attributes of city life. These do indicate, in a way, as to what is the expected level of participation of people in public life and do provide a base as to how to increase their participation so that the overall environment of Siliguri may be improved upon.

Table 5.1. : Perception of People about Siliguri

Particulars (1)		Town in the 1980s		City as at Present		
		People above 40 yrs. in Non- slum Areas (2)	People above 40 yrs. in slum areas (3)	People above 40 yrs. in Non- slum areas (4)	People above 40 yrs. in slum areas (5)	Students (6)
Population Characteristics	Heterogeneous	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
	Dense	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
	Crowded	N	N	Y	Y	Y
	Large	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Town Atmosphere	Competitive	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
	Much Entertainment	N	N	Y	N	Y
	Modern & allows choice of lifestyle	Y	-	Y	C	Y
	Much Activity	N	N	Y	Y	Y
	Fast Pace	N	N	Y	Y	Y
	Has Atmosphere of Culture	Y	C	N	-	C
	Makes one feel anonymous	N	N	Y	-	N
	Makes one feel isolated	N	N	Y	N	N
Peaceful (in terms of noise)	Y	Y	-	-	-	

	Dirty & Unhealthy	N	Y	-	Y	-
	Safe	N	N	Y	Y	Y
	Close-knit	Y	Y	N	Y	C
	Relaxed	Y	Y	N	N	N
	Sense of Intimacy	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Attributes of the People	Have Integrity	Y	Y	N	N	C
	Sentimental	-	-	-	-	-
	Friendly	Y	Y	-	-	-
	Law Abiding	Y	-	-	-	-
	Don't have problems with Outsiders	N	N	N	N	N
	Helpful	Y	Y	-	-	-
	Are Untrusting	N	N	-	-	C
	Are Often Lonely	N	N	Y	C	N
	Don't Interfere in Others' Affairs	-	-	-	-	-
	Participative in Public Affairs	Y	Y	C	Y	N

'Y' signifies 50% or more Agreement


'N' signifies 50% or more Disagreement

'C' signifies 50% or more Can't Say

'-' signifies a mix of 'Y', 'N' & 'C', i.e., no reply secured majority

5.2 Theoretical Framework of Participation of People in Public Life in Siliguri

It is well-known that in a democracy, the purpose of the administration is to serve the people. However, common people as client seem to have been kept out of the purview of administration, even in case of local administration despite constitutional promulgations to that effect. A huge gap is observed with regard to prescription and description in local governance, in particular, in urban local governance. The structural lacunae is seen when a comparison is made between rural local governance and urban local governance with respect to proximity of people with their political representatives. The average citizen:political representative ratio laid down in Box 5.1 (the details of which are laid down in the First Chapter) amply exemplifies the structural deficiencies and lack of effort on the part of law makers to provide space of genuine participation to the urban populace.



• Rural India	= 1:260
• Urban India	= 1:4087
• Rural West Bengal	= 1:982
• Urban West Bengal	= 1:7973
• Rural Siliguri	= 1:122
• Urban Siliguri	= 1:1050

It may, however, be noted that the Rajiv Gandhi government did propose formation of neighbourhood committees with elected members, parallel to the village panchayats. So, an effort was made to set up multi-tier structure for municipal governance. However, the elective principle had to be given up, as the Congress party itself feared this might not be easily digestible to the party. Accordingly in the first version of the Amendment Bill, it was proposed that committees for each ward should be set up in cities with more than 300,000 people. The Municipal Councillor elected from the ward would be the Chairman of each ward committee but its composition was left to be determined by the State governments (Sivaramkrishnan 2004 : 11). For various reasons the Amendments initiated by the Rajiv Gandhi could not be passed in the Parliament. Three years later in July 1992, when the Amendment initiative was revived a Joint Parliamentary Committee examining the draft observed as follows:

“There is a growing feeling that in the larger municipal bodies the citizens do not have easy access to the elected representatives since the ward-sizes become very large. The Committee therefore is of the view that within the

territorial area of Municipalities having a population of three lakhs or more Wards Committees should be constituted. The details relating to the composition and the territorial area of the Wards Committee and the manner of filling seats in such Committees can be left to the state legislatures” (Sivaramkrishnan 2004 : 11).

The Amendments eventually enacted in 1993 provided for committees to be set up for one or more municipal wards for cities with a population of 300,000 or more. As before the composition was left to be determined by the States through their conformity laws.

Despite the fact that constitution of Ward Committee were given formal recognition and have been complied with by most of the State Governments, including West Bengal, the doubt remains to the efficacy of such Committee, given the method of composition followed in this respect. It is necessary, therefore, that urban people are accepted as actors in urban administration and development by bringing about structural changes not only in case of ward committees but also in case of area committees. The same reformation applies for cities of West Bengal, including Siliguri.

Participation in Siliguri can be classified at several levels. At one level, it may be categorised into ‘popular participation’ and ‘community participation’. The former relates to applying one’s mandate through periodical elections held after every five years. Theoretically, this is to be exercised on the subjective evaluation of people regarding the city governance of Siliguri. However, more often than not, in practice, the political ideology comes in to prominence lest there is a strong anti-incumbency factor. By contrast, community participation connotes direct involvement of the people in the developmental affairs of Siliguri, in particular by the poorer and disadvantaged section of the population.

At another level, participation in Siliguri has been observed to be ‘pseudo’ rather than ‘authentic’. The former limits community participation and involvement to mere implementation and ratification of decisions already taken by external agencies. The composition and functioning of Ward Committees and Areas Committees/Sabhas in Siliguri, to a large extent, confirms this type of participation. Authentic participation is, by and large, lacking in case of Siliguri where the community as a whole is involved in all the processes of local development decisions in an autonomous fashion. This, however, may be primarily attributed to the structural limitations whereby the proximity and access of people

in a Ward with the Ward Councillor is difficult to maintain. It is appropriate to quote Paulo Friere (1978) in this regard, though he wrote it in another context : “Policies carried out by a rigid bureaucracy in the name of the masses to whom they are transmitted in as order are one thing; policies carried out with the masses are quite another thing with their critically conscious participation in the reconstruction of society, in which the necessary directions never become slogans”.

Yet another level of classification may be on the basis of motive force behind participation. In this case, it may be either coercive or induced or spontaneous. Coercive participation is one where people are forced to participate in spite of opposition or lack of willingness. Induced participation take place due to some kind of allurements and inducements like money or payment in kind. On the contrary, spontaneous participation gets characterized by peoples’ voluntary and autonomous action unaided by government or any other external agencies. With coercive or induced types of participation is not the scope of the study as these are generally witnessed in political rallies, spontaneous participation, too, can be regarded as an ideal type. Experiences of social workers show that communities, in particular deprived section, rarely function autonomously, and their capacity for collective action needs, at least initially, the leadership push from an external agent, be it a social worker or a political leader. Robert Chambers (1983) has said bluntly in this regard, though with regard to rural area but quite apt for urban place also : “However much the rhetoric changes to ‘participation’, ‘participatory research’, ‘community involvement’ and the like, at the end of the day there is still an outsider seeking to change things”.

5.3 Popular Participation in Siliguri

As far popular participation is concerned, the percentage of people exercising their voting rights in the elections of the Siliguri Municipal Corporation can be regarded as quite high. Table 5.2 on peoples’ turnout in the last election to the SMC held in September, 2009 is a pointer to the fact.

Table 5.2. : Percentage of Popular Participation in SMC Election, 2009

Ward No.	Total Electors	Votes Polled	Percentage of Votes Polled to Total Electors
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Ward No. 1	7255	5542	76.3887
Ward No. 2	7651	6002	78.4476
Ward No. 3	6564	4883	74.39062
Ward No. 4	9051	7705	85.12872
Ward No. 5	6374	5118	80.29495
Ward No. 6	4916	3695	75.16273
Ward No. 7	5081	4105	80.79118
Ward No. 8	4707	3353	71.23433
Ward No. 9	4650	3551	76.36559
Ward No. 10	3189	2561	80.30731
Ward No. 11	2544	1950	76.65094
Ward No. 12	2569	2010	78.24056
Ward No. 13	2743	2095	76.37623
Ward No. 14	4725	3622	76.65608
Ward No. 15	6091	4512	74.07651
Ward No. 16	3797	2915	76.77114
Ward No. 17	4002	2910	72.71364
Ward No. 18	4494	3563	79.28349
Ward No. 19	2349	1876	79.86377
Ward No. 20	4911	3812	77.62167
Ward No. 21	4005	3272	81.69788
Ward No. 22	7536	6128	81.31635
Ward No. 23	4634	3991	86.1243
Ward No. 24	6804	5683	83.5244
Ward No. 25	6006	4371	72.77722
Ward No. 26	3367	2425	72.02257
Ward No. 27	5121	3593	70.16208
Ward No. 28	4754	3815	80.24821
Ward No. 29	4033	3201	79.3702
Ward No. 30	5258	4066	77.32978
Ward No. 31	9125	7464	81.79726
Ward No. 32	6210	4538	73.07568
Ward No. 33	9758	7199	73.77536
Ward No. 34	9381	7484	79.77828
Ward No. 35	7500	5882	78.42667
Ward No. 36	7313	6369	87.09148
Ward No. 37	9233	7635	82.69252
Ward No. 38	8496	6423	75.60028

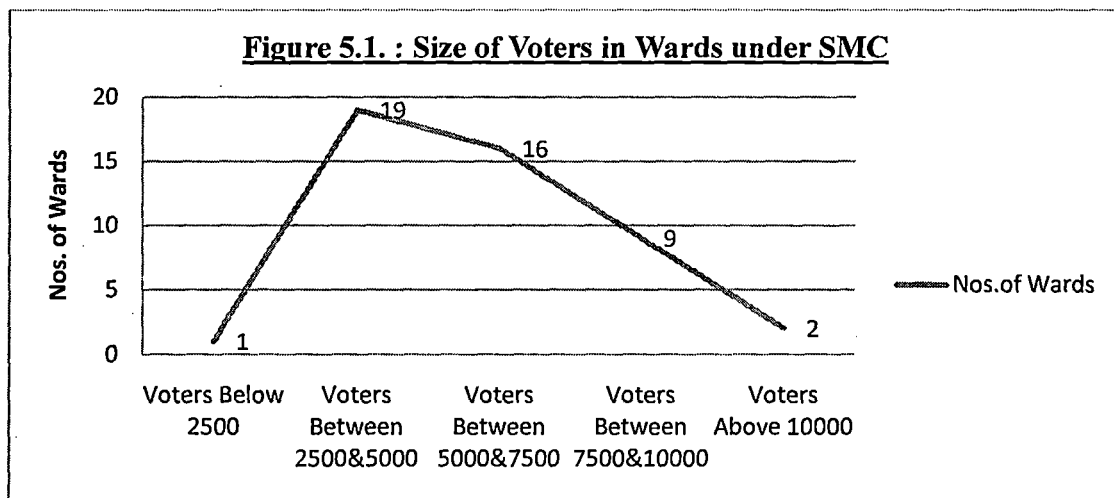
Ward No. 39	7456	5825	78.125
Ward No. 40	11660	9030	77.44425
Ward No. 41	8869	6592	74.32631
Ward No. 42	7979	6224	78.00476
Ward No. 43	7020	5257	74.88604
Ward No. 44	7630	6237	81.74312
Ward No. 45	3923	3315	84.50166
Ward No. 46	11653	9479	81.34386
Ward No. 47	5148	4420	85.85859
TOTAL	287535	225698	78.29382

Source : State Election Commission, West Bengal

From the above table, it is clear that the average participation of 78.29% in SMC election, 2009 has been phenomenal. However, one may come across few points on making analysis of the figures. A vast majority of those Wards which do not have any slum pocket have registered low turnout in comparison to those which own large share of slum population. For instance, out of the total of 14 Wards where there is no notified slum existing, only two of them (Ward Nos. 21 and 22) have registered marginally above 80% turnout. In the remaining 12 Wards without any slum pocket, the turnout hovers between 70% in Ward No. 27 and 78% in Ward No. 12. As such, the average turnout in these 14 Wards comes out to 75.5 percent. Contrary to this, those Wards having a sizeable number of slum population have registered far better turnout than the so called better-off Wards. Can it be concluded, then, with regard to Siliguri that poorer section are more concerned and conscious about exercising their rights despite facing odds in day-to-day life. Or it is the hardships in their life that have made them more conscious. Or it is the hardships in their life that have compelled them to become induced or coerced participant under the banner of one or the other political ideology in order to sustain their livelihood as well as settlements. It is important to note in this regard that out of the total of 154 notified slums in Siliguri, only in 92 slums, dwellers have land title. In the remaining ones, residents have been illegally occupying the lands, the majority of them belonging to the railways. Whatever may be the reason, the better-off Wards seem to be less motivated in exercising their due and very important right of franchise.

Another significant point which needs mention is the huge variation among Wards as far as proximity of citizens to their political representatives is concerned. While Ward No. 19 has only 2,349 voters, Ward No. 40 has a huge number of

11,660 valid voters. This amounts to injustice and undue stress on those Ward Councillors in whose Wards the population figure is too high as limitations are bound to arise in provision of basic public services. Thus, there is need for a matching proportion and should be seriously looked into by the concerned authority.



5.4 Community Participation in Siliguri

Community participation in Siliguri is observed both at the formal and non-formal level. The formal structure at the Ward level is the Ward Committee catering to overall development of the Ward. Besides, there are Area Sabhas within a Ward constituted at the booth level for the purpose of involving more people in the developmental process of the Ward. Along with the Ward Committees and Area Sabhas, there is presence of Community Development Societies for involving poorer section of people residing in the slum pockets with focus on urban poverty alleviation. At the non-formal level, a host of Non-Governmental Organizations, Welfare Organizations and Social and Cultural Clubs are present who not only participate in various aspects of development of Siliguri but at the same time seek to create awareness among the common populace and elicit their participation.

5.4.1 Ward Committees and Area Sabhas under Siliguri Municipal Corporation - Section 23 (1) of the West Bengal Municipal Corporation Act, 2006 lay down that there shall be a Ward Committee for each Ward of the

Corporation. Further, the Act also maintains that the Ward Councillor elected from the Ward shall act as the Chairperson of the Ward Committee [Section 23(3)]. However, the Act does not detail out as to the composition and functions of the Ward Committee.

In a Ward Committee in Siliguri, beside the Ward Councillor as the Chairperson, there are 9 to 11 members (depending on the size of the Ward) nominated by the Ward Councillor and 3 members nominated by the Siliguri Municipal Corporation. As such, the total number of members in a Ward Committee ranges between 12 and 14. The meetings of the Ward Committee are held once every month, though emergency meetings may be convened by the Councillor if need be. On a whole, 14 to 15 meetings are held in a year. Besides, there is an Annual General Meeting and Ward Committee Convention conducted once in a year. The AGM is open to all citizens of the Ward. Citizens are also duly invited in any special programmes organized by the Ward Committee, such as, cultural programmes, observance of special days, inauguration of any park, unveiling of statues, and the like.

The participation level in the meetings of the Ward Committee is very positive with presence being on an average 70-75%. The functions of the Ward Committee mainly are : (i) monitoring of municipal works and services within the Ward; (ii) monitoring unlawful construction; (iii) redressal of public grievances; (iv) monitoring of literacy expansion programmes and urban poverty alleviation programme; and (v) maintenance of sanitation, public health, parks, etc.

As far as the financial allocation to the Ward Councillor is concerned for carrying out Ward level activities, it has not been very encouraging. The Ward Councillor Local Area Development allotment is Rs. 3.25 lakhs which may be regarded miniscule considering the enormity of development task in the Ward. Moreover, a Ward Councillor is required to spend Rs. 1.25 lakhs for organizing sports and cultural activities; Rs 1 lakh for treatment, education and purchase of sports equipment for the Ward; and the remaining amount of Rs. 1 lakh are to be utilized for development works as per recommendation of the Ward Committee. However, it may be noted that the Budget, 2010-2011 has proposed the increase in the amount by Rs. 25,000/- for those Wards falling under the district of Jalpaiguri, i.e., Ward Nos. 31 to 44.

Apart from the Ward Committee, there is formal provision of the constitution of the Area Sabhas within a Ward with the objective of

institutionalizing citizen participation. It may be noted that the Legislative Assembly of West Bengal has made necessary amendments in the related Acts in 2008 to incorporate the provision related to the constitution of Area Sabhas in the ULBs. This has been done in order to fulfil one of the agenda of reforms under JNNURM, i.e., Enactment of Community Participation Law. With regard to Siliguri, Area Sabhas have been constituted at the booth level within a Ward.

5.4.2 Can Ward Committee and Area Sabha in Siliguri be termed as 'Participatory Structure'?

If the composition of the Ward Committee is considered, one finds that all the members are nominated. There is no element of election procedure with regards to its composition. As such, selection of majority of the members in the Ward Committee depends primarily on the personal choice of the Ward Councillor. Herein lay the problem in genuine participation at the root level in urban democracy of Siliguri. Such Ward Committee, more often than not, become motivation ground for a particular political agenda and in the process overall development of the Ward gets hampered. Table 5.3 lay down in this regard, the percentage of votes polled by the Ward Councillors and the margin of votes between the winning candidate and the first runner up candidate. This goes on to show that in actual numbers, in most cases, the Ward Councillor has the support of about 50 percent of the eligible voters. In this context, the method of nominations by Ward Councillors in their respective Ward Committees lack grass root democratic values. It may be rightly argued that conducting elections for choosing members of the Ward Committees would be an expensive affair. Thus, one of the most viable options with regard to the formation of a Ward Committee would be to adopt some kind of proportional representation mechanism whereby, the candidates in the fray for the SMC elections would get opportunity to nominate members in the Ward Committee proportional to the votes polled by them. However, some kind of 'threshold number of votes polled' may be kept to minimize complexities. In this way, participation may find its true meaning at the Ward level in Siliguri.

Table 5.3. : Status of Winning Candidates at the SMC Election, 2009

Ward No.	Total No. of Voters	Total Nos. of Votes Polled	Nos. of Votes Secured by the Winning Candidate	% of Votes Secured by the Winning Candidate to the Total Nos. of Voters in the Ward	% of Votes Secured by the Winning Candidate to the Total Nos. of Votes Polled in the Ward	Margin of Votes between the Winning Candidate and 1 st Runner Up Candidate
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ward No. 1	7255	5542	2985	41.44	53.86	566
Ward No. 2	7651	6002	3466	47.77	57.75	1109
Ward No. 3	6564	4883	2841	43.28	58.18	1149
Ward No. 4	9051	7705	3741	41.33	48.55	340
Ward No. 5	6374	5118	3247	50.94	63.44	1894
Ward No. 6	4916	3695	2034	41.37	55.05	373
Ward No. 7	5081	4105	1544	30.39	37.61	24
Ward No. 8	4707	3353	1655	35.37	49.66	281
Ward No. 9	4650	3551	1805	38.82	50.83	152
Ward No. 10	3189	2561	1520	47.66	59.35	479
Ward No. 11	2544	1950	1497	58.04	76.77	1044
Ward No. 12	2569	2010	1286	0.06	63.98	562
Ward No. 13	2743	2095	726	27.78	36.37	73
Ward No. 14	4725	3622	2315	48.99	63.91	1008
Ward No. 15	6091	4512	2954	48.50	65.47	1396
Ward No. 16	3797	2915	1493	39.32	51.22	71
Ward No. 17	4002	2910	1784	44.58	61.31	658
Ward No. 18	4494	3563	2112	46.96	59.28	661
Ward No. 19	2349	1876	985	41.93	52.51	94
Ward No. 20	4911	3812	1957	39.85	51.34	102
Ward No. 21	4005	3272	1846	46.09	56.42	529
Ward No. 22	7536	6128	3602	47.80	58.78	1292
Ward No. 23	4634	3991	2278	49.16	57.08	752
Ward No. 24	6804	5683	3045	44.75	53.58	634
Ward No. 25	6006	4371	2060	34.30	47.13	528
Ward No. 26	3367	2425	1233	36.62	50.85	199
Ward No. 27	5121	3593	1837	35.87	51.13	81
Ward No. 28	4754	3815	2367	49.79	62.04	1040
Ward No. 29	4033	3201	1937	48.03	60.51	713
Ward No. 30	5258	4066	2404	45.72	59.12	742
Ward No. 31	9125	7464	3768	41.30	50.48	72
Ward No. 32	6210	4538	2284	36.78	50.33	30

Ward No. 33	9758	7199	3531	36.19	49.05	126
Ward No. 34	9381	7484	3978	42.40	53.15	472
Ward No. 35	7500	5882	2403	32.04	40.85	122
Ward No. 36	7313	6369	4114	56.26	64.59	2170
Ward No. 37	9233	7635	3153	34.15	41.30	665
Ward No. 38	8496	6423	4396	51.72	68.44	2539
Ward No. 39	7456	5825	3157	42.34	54.20	618
Ward No. 40	11660	9030	4566	39.16	50.56	487
Ward No. 41	8869	6592	3548	40.00	53.82	725
Ward No. 42	7979	6224	3660	45.87	58.80	1700
Ward No. 43	7020	5257	2884	41.08	54.86	511
Ward No. 44	7630	6237	3443	45.12	55.20	649
Ward No. 45	3923	3315	2219	56.56	66.94	1123
Ward No. 46	11653	9479	5013	43.02	52.89	846
Ward No. 47	5148	4420	3099	60.20	70.11	1778
TNoW*	TV#	TVP**	AVP-WC##	%AVP-WC to TV***	%AVP-WC to TVP####	AM bet. WC and FRUC^
47	287535	225698	123818	43.56	55.50	705.94

*Total Nos. of Wards; #Total Nos. of Voters; **Total Nos. of Votes Polled;

Average Nos. of Votes Polled by Winning Candidates; ***Percentage of Average Nos. of Votes Polled by the Winning Candidates to the Total Nos. of Voters;

Percentage of Average Nos. of Votes Polled by the Winning Candidates to the Total Nos. of Votes Polled; ^ Average Margin between Winning Candidates and First Runners Up Candidates

Source : Constructed from Siliguri Municipal Corporation Election Results, 2009, State Election Commission, West Bengal.

Another problem facing Ward Committees presently in Siliguri, as has been highlighted by several Ward Councillors during conversation, is the delay in the formation of several Ward Committees due to the failure on the part of SMC to nominate their quota of three members in each of the several Wards. As a result, development activities in such Wards are suffering as the old Ward Committees continue to monitor the developmental activities of the Wards without any legal sanctity.

On the financial front, the first problem, as has been laid down earlier, is the poor allocation with regard to Ward Councillor LAD Fund. Besides, there is no such formal arrangement or process under which the vision, inputs or proposals from the Ward Committees are used in formulation of the budgets of the SMC. It is observed that like any other city, the budget in Siliguri is laid down very much like

a national budget with lots of promises without considering the real ground situation. The process of budget is simply not participative. Under the circumstance, it is unthinkable, as of now, that the citizens of Siliguri will have a role to play in Corporation's financial governance through Ward Committees. Further, there is no provision of devolution of financial powers or the sharing of different types of taxes, rates, fees, etc. between the SMC and the Borough Committees, between the Borough Committee and Ward Committees and between the Ward Committee and Area Sabhas. As such, even if the vision and strategies for development of local area may be present among participative citizens, there is no scope for them to make those a reality.

The Area Sabhas within a Ward is constituted on a booth level basis. As such, the number of Area Sabhas is different in different Wards depending upon the number of eligible voters in a Ward. Its constitution, too, is the responsibility of the Ward Councillor and there is no provision of any kind of formal popular voting with respect to the selection of the President and the Secretary. However, what came out from the conversation with some of the Councillors is that generally, one of the senior eligible voter of the booth is selected as the President. Moreover, it was observed that in several Wards, Area Sabhas were not constituted for all the booths. The functions of the Area Sabhas, too, are not specifically carried out. On the whole, one may say that Area Sabhas in Siliguri is more of a symbolic nature.

5.4.3 Neighbourhood Groups, Neighbourhood Committees and Community Development Societies in Siliguri

The roots of NHGs, NHCs and CDSs lay in the launch of Swarna Jayanti Sahari Rozgar Yojana in 1997. This programme seeks active participation of the women from BPL families in the formulation, implementation and supervision of the schemes under SJSRY. For the purpose of this, a three tier structure, consisting of NHG, NHC and CDS, has been formed. It is proposed that a NHG would be the lowest tier in the structure, consisting of 25 to 40 families in a slum and one woman among them would be elected as Resident Corps Volunteer (RCV). The intermediate tier would be NHC which would be constituted of 10 to 15 RCVs. Finally, the topmost tier is the CDS. It would consist of one representative from each NHC and would cater to the needs of about 2000 families. Under the scheme of SJSRY, the CDSs share the prime responsibility for the identification of

beneficiaries, preparation of applications, monitoring of recovery, identification of suitable projects for that particular area as well as other necessary support. In Siliguri, at present there are 15 nos. of CDS, 154 nos. of NHC and 1216 nos. of NHG/RCV. Each CDS in Siliguri has a Chairperson, a Secretary and a Treasurer. On similar lines, each NHC is presided over by the President and has a Secretary and a Treasurer. Each of the 15 CDSs in Siliguri is a registered body under Society Act. For the maintenance of liaison between the CDSs and the UPE Cell of the SMC, there are 15 Community Organisers appointed. These 15 COs act as the Secretaries of the 15 CDSs. The suggestions put forward by the CDSs reach the UPE Cell through the COs. The various suggestions are discussed and prioritized keeping in consideration the financial aspect by the MMICs under the Chairmanship of the Mayor and in presence of the MMIC, UPE, IPP-VIII & Mother and Child Care and associated officials. The problems encountered by CDSs, NHCs and RCVs in Siliguri in promoting involvement of the slum dwellers in urban poverty alleviation under SJSRY are discussed subsequently in another section.

5.4.4 Non-Governmental Organizations, Welfare Organizations, Social and Cultural Clubs

As long as there are manpower, financial and motivational constraints in the formal structure of urban and municipal governance, there is always room for these non-formal organizations. Way back in September, 2002 (The Telegraph), around 50 nos. of NGOs of Siliguri formed an umbrella body/apex organization with the purpose of helping the authorities, like SMC, SJDA and UBUP in their developmental efforts in the region. Besides, there were also other logics put forward by the NGOs behind such formation. These were : (i) joining hands would strengthen their efforts and movement; (ii) joining hands would help keep check on the access of foreign players with little or no knowledge about local affairs; (iii) joining hands would help the nodal representative body to act as a watchdog over various developmental programmes of the government by virtue of its strength in number; and (iv) joining hands would help develop new idea pools which would act as a bridge between various government institutions and agencies. It was also expected that such nodal body would also help in keeping strict vigil on the activities of its members, thereby reducing the allegations of dubious functioning

of some of the NGOs. To name a few of them who are doing commendable job with regard to creating awareness on different aspects of development of Siliguri are Himalayan Nature and Adventure Foundation, Siliguri Welfare Organization, North Bengal Council for the Disabled, Lion's Service Foundation, North Bengal Rehabilitation Society, Rotary Club of Siliguri, Rashtriya Viklang Seva Kendra (Artificial Limb Centre), Siliguri Child Welfare Society, Siliguri Unemployed Welfare Organization, Siliguri Horticultural Society, Association for the Protection of Democratic Right, Animal Link and Siliguri Chapter of the People for Animals. Besides, there are about 25 such voluntary organizations in Siliguri who are associated under NGO Partnership System, Planning Commission. Some of these and there are areas of activity are laid down in the following Table 5.4. Moreover, there are a host of sports, social and cultural clubs in Siliguri who are involved in some way or the other in social service.

Table 5.4 : Major NGOs in Siliguri under NGO Partnership System, Planning Commission

Name of the NGO under NGO Partnership System	Areas of Activity
North Bengal Handicapped Rehabilitation Society	Differently Aabled
Siliguri Child Welfare Society	Child Welfare
Siliguri Bodhi Bharti Vocational Institute	Vocational Training
Indian Development Centre	Drinking Water, Education, Literacy, Vocational Training
Social Infrastructure for Proper Living and Education	Education, Literacy, Poverty Alleviation
Kanchanjungha Uddhar Kendra Welfare Society	Women's Development and Empowerment
East India Cooperative Agro-farming and Marketing	Micro-finance to SHGs
Babupara Prachesta	Aged, Children, Right to Information and Advocacy, Vocational Training, Micro-finance
Trinity Foundation Trust	Education, Literacy
Siliguri Aranyak	Environment, Education, Literacy, Drinking Water
Binapani Seva Chakra	Micro-finance
Association for Conservation and Tourism	Environment, Literacy, Poverty Alleviation, Vocational Training
Medichek Welfare Society	Aged, Children, Education, RTI and Advocacy, Vocational Training
Purvaja Educational Foundation	Education, Literacy

Source : Planning Commission

5.5 Sanitation and Participation in Siliguri

It was in the financial year 2008-09 that the Government of West Bengal announced that it had no dry latrines, implying that manual scavenging has effectively been abolished in Siliguri. However, it is to contend that though there is no existence of manual scavenging in Siliguri, open defecation, particularly on the riverbeds of the river Mahananda, continues unabated, thereby contributing immensely in the increase in water pollution of the river. Survey done under NUSP in early months of 2010 in Siliguri confirms prevalence of such practice. It goes to the credit of the SMC which got 4 out of 4 marks with regard to elimination of manual scavenging in the survey conducted. However, the general populace, in particular those residing in slum pockets let the efforts of SMC down in terms of use of toilets and not defecating in the open. In this category, Siliguri was awarded a poor 0.92 points out of the total of 8 points. Thus, the onus falls majorly on the shoulders of the common people to improve the sanitation scenario of the city with respect to use of individual and community toilets and avoid defecating in the open. Table 5.5 lay down the report card of Siliguri of the survey conducted on sanitation under NUSP.

Table 5.5 : Scoring Sheet of Siliguri Under NUSP

No. (1)	Indicators (2)	Points (3)	Points Scored by Siliguri (4)
1	OUTPUT -RELATED	50	17.17
1A	No open defecation	16	6.42
1Ai	Access and use of toilets by urban poor and other un-served households (including slums) – individual and community sanitation facilities	4	0
1Aii	Access and use of toilets for floating and institutional population – adequate public sanitation facilities	4	1.5
1Aiii	No open defecation visible	4	0.92
1Aiv	Eliminate Manual Scavenging and provide personnel protection equipment to sanitary workers	4	4
1B	Proportion of total human excreta generation that is safely collected (6 points for 100%)	6	4
1C	Proportion of total black waste water generation that is	6	0

	treated and safely disposed off (6 points for 100%)		
1D	Proportion of total grey waste water generation that is treated and safely disposed off (3 points for 100%)	3	0
1E	Proportion of treated waste water that is recycled and reused for non-potable applications	3	0
1F	Proportion of total storm-water and drainage that is efficiently and safely managed (3 points for 100%)	3	2
1G	Proportion of total solid waste generation that is regularly collected (4 points for 100%)	4	0.75
1H	Proportion of total solid waste generation that is treated and safely disposed off (4 points for 100%)	4	0
1I	City wastes cause no adverse impacts on surrounding areas outside city limits (5 points for 100%)	5	0
2	PROCESS - RELATED	30	19.83
2A	M&E systems are in place to track incidences of open defecation	4	0
2B	All sewerage systems in the city are working properly and there is no ex-filtration (Not applicable for cities without sewerage systems)	5	0
2C	Septage/sludge is regularly cleaned, safely transported and disposed after treatment from on-site systems in the city (Maximum 10 marks for cities without sewerage systems)	5	8
2D	Underground and Surface drainage systems are functioning and well-maintained	4	4
2E	Solid waste management (collection and treatment) systems are efficient (and in conformity with the MSW Rules, 2000)	5	2.83
2F	There is clear institutional responsibility assigned; and there are documented operational systems in practice for (B)/(C) to (E) above	4	3
2G	Sanctions for deviance on part of polluters and institutions is clearly laid out and followed in practice	3	2
3	OUTCOME - RELATED	20	5.6
3A	Improved quality of drinking water in city compared to baseline	7	4.2
3B	Improved water quality in water bodies in and around city compared to baseline	7	1.4
3C	Reduction in water-borne disease incidence amongst city population compared to baseline	6	0*
TOTAL POINTS		100	42.6

*As data not available

The score of Siliguri with regard to sanitation as has been laid down above has put the city in 'black category' signifying requirement of considerable improvement. The question may be asked as to who owes greater responsibility for this performance – the personnel of SMC associated with sanitation or the citizens at large. The glance at the scores in the three categories may one lead to believe that it is majorly the citizens who have let Siliguri down. It is basically so because the city has fared far better in the category of 'process-related' indicators which confirms the efficacy of the personnel of SMC to a large extent. The fairly efficient system of cesspool services helped the SMC to bag 8 out of 10 points. About 85% of the human excreta is safely collected and disposed of in Siliguri. However, in absence of any kind of sewerage system, there is always the possibility of contamination of ground water. Steps are needed in this regard and the SMC has also laid down positive indication in this regard in the present budget of 2010-11. Besides, full score was secured with regard to the pre-monsoon and other cleanings of the drains as well as for the presence of centralized database maps of the drainage system. Only at one place out of the 12 instances, drain overflow was observed. It is truly commendable on the part of the authority that about 90% of roads are covered with drainage system. However, one may find a nuisance with regard to the method applied in the cleaning of drains. In almost every Ward, it has been observed that the sludge from the drains is kept on the road side before being lifted away. Thus, the sludge gets strewed all over the road by the passing vehicles, thereby making the place dirty and filthy and the sight unpleasant. The opinion of the majority of respondents during field survey laid down subsequently confirms this. This method needs to be rectified. Another major problem facing several drains in Siliguri, in particular in interior lanes, is their loss of capacities due to the irresponsible behavior of common public like throwing garbage, plastics, etc. in the drains instead of specified garbage collection bins.

It has been observed in the survey that 88% area coverage is present as far as door-to-door collection of MSW is concerned and 90% area coverage in case of street sweeping. No doubt, it is a feather in the cap of SMC but it falters when the question of cost recovery comes. The gap between annual total operating revenue and annual total operating cost has been huge enough to garner any point in this aspect. As a result, under indicator number 2(e), it failed to secure points as it could have been. The need on the part of SMC is to be bold enough to give up

populist thinking and devise measures for cost recovery in this respect so as to provide far better sanitation services to the citizens. However, before pondering over increase in charges, people are to be taken into confidence by highlighting before them the financial position in this sector and create awareness so that they spontaneously participate in augmenting the finances of the SMC with regard to sanitation sector. It may be further noted that despite such coverage with regard to household garbage collection, one of the major negativities observed in the survey under NUSP is the littering of MSW on the road sides and in drains at several places. This behaviour of the people has to be tapped urgently as this practice may lead to harmful consequences. It may astonish one that on record though there are rules and regulations framed and duly implemented with respect to littering of garbage, there is no instance yet of fining people on this ground. The Sanitary Inspectors and Conservancy Inspectors must lead from the front in fining the errant householders which would definitely act as a deterrent to other nuisance makers. However, it may be contended that there are households where no one is available at the time when sanitary workers arrive to collect garbage. Those households genuinely face problem as to where to deposit the garbage as road side MSW Containers are very few and far away. Thus, onus lies on the SMC to provide at least one such Container (Vat Bin) at every street intersection. Another concern is the general social and psychological stigma with regard to garbage. It has been observed that even where there are vat bins available, people in general have the tendency to throw garbage from a distance which cause the waste get strewn all over the place. Awareness need to be created in this regard, too. Besides, the general non-compliance of segregating compostable organic waste and recyclable inorganic waste has been a major bottleneck in producing good quality compost, thereby effecting marketability of the compost produced.

As has already been mentioned that open defecation was found being practiced. It was found in the NUSP survey that on an average 15% of the people were seen practicing open defecation in four of the sample slums. This is truly a blot on the sanitation scenario of Siliguri. In stopping such practice, the Siliguri Municipal Corporation does not have any monitoring mechanism to track open defecation. Besides, no monthly data is collected on such practice Ward-wise. Thus, in this respect, it is a failure not only on the part of the citizens but also a failure on the part of SMC. Monitoring and Evaluation mechanism need to be devised urgently as well as some kind of incentives or awards must be incorporated

to stop open defecation. In the absence of such M&E mechanism, there are no instances yet for fining people practicing open defecation despite having rules and regulations framed by the SMC and containing such punitive action.

Another nuisance of the public is open urination. No doubt, there are paucity of public toilets in Siliguri and need to be looked into but people have been observed urinating even on those sites which are nearby to the public toilets. On several instances, it was observed by the writer people urinating in open even at those sites where signboards or writings on the wall have been displayed requesting people not to urinate. Thus, some citizens show awareness and participation by displaying such notices, while others defy them with impunity.

Another area which needs attention is the strict enforcement of the construction debris to be kept within one's own premises till its transportation and disposal by the SMC. It has been observed by the writer at several places that construction debris as well as construction materials are heaped by the households on the side of the road which not only block the road but also make the road dusty, thereby causing harm to health and the environment.

The above discussion highlighted the sanitation scenario of Siliguri as have been observed during survey under NUSP. The writer, too, conducted a brief field survey on the perception of Siliguri dwellers in various Wards about the sanitation services provided by the SMC as well as on their own awareness with respect to sanitation. The outcome of survey is detailed out in Table 5.6 .

It seems that both the urban officials and the city dwellers are at fault for average sanitation scenario in the city. However, the initiative and leadership role has to be played by the SMC through various mechanism at its disposal to create awareness among the masses about the harmful consequences of not keeping the city clean. At the same time, proper infrastructure should be created to desist people from littering on the roads and in the drains. It is hoped that if the administration leads the way, the general public would gradually get into a habit of maintaining these standards thereby help to make the city cleaner. For instance, the general habit of people to throw away the empty sachets, packets, envelopes, etc. on the road side after emptying its contents could change if road side bins and vats are provided and are regularly cleaned.

5.6 Role of the SMC to Promote Participation of People in Proper Management of MSW

The official website of the SMC very rightly highlights the value of self sustainable system of conservancy in the form of 3R, that is, Resource Conservation, Recycling and Reuse with regard to municipal solid waste. The objectives, thus, laid down can be successfully achieved only if the SMC personnel associated with sanitation and the Ward SWM Committee of each and every Ward considers participation not as a 'means' but as an 'end'. Participation as an end views participation as a process that unfolds over time and strengthens and develops the capabilities of the local people to deal development activities on a permanent basis. This would require on the part of the SMC and the Ward SWM Committees to adopt three-pronged strategy – (i) providing enough infrastructural facilities and regular training and satisfactory incentives to the sanitary workers; (ii) eliciting participation; and (iii) supporting and promoting volunteered participation.

It has already been laid down in the preceding Chapter that the numbers of roadside vat bin are too few and far away to cater to the requirements of the people at large and those citizens in particular who for various reasons fail to avail the facility of door-to-door collection. As such, for the fruitful management of the MSW, the pre-requisite is to place at least one vat bin at every street intersection. Secondly, strict directives should be given to the sanitary workers not to accept non-segregated garbage from the households. Thirdly, it has been found out from the field survey that almost all the sanitary workers do not maintain sanitary precautionary measures in terms of wearing of gumboot, gloves, nose covers, etc. Fourthly, a general resentment that came out from conversations with several sanitary workers is the abysmally low wages for carrying out this vital work. Majority of them felt that they do not find urge in requesting people to follow norms of SWM. Many of them even gave inkling to leave the job. While talking to a sanitary inspector, it was found that the exodus rate was rather quite high. However, he maintained that as primary collection of household garbage is the sole responsibility of the respective Ward Solid Waste Management Committee, so it is their concern as to how to improve upon the collection aspect. On conversation with some of the members of Ward SWM Committee in some of the Wards, it was revealed that the problem lay in the poor monthly charges that are levied upon the

households. As such, there is need to give due consideration to this aspect, too. Methods should be devised to judiciously increase the monthly charges of Rs. 10/- per month and provide a better wage structure to the sanitary workers to imbibe in them the urge to get involved not only in the proper primary collection but also in the maintenance of norms while depositing the garbage at the secondary disposal site.

With regard to eliciting participation of the people in following guidelines of the SWM, the SMC may take two steps. The first step is organize awareness campaigns through various means at its disposal , such as, Ward Solid Waste Management Committees, CDSs, NGOs/CBOs/Welfare Organizations / Youth Clubs, Regional Television, Local Newsprints, Roadside Hoardings, etc. One of the suggestions give by several respondents in this regard is the visit of households by well-known personalities of the locality on an awareness campaign mission. Many persons felt that this would lay more impact on the people than advertisements through regional television, local newsprints and roadside hoardings. Whatever may be the mode of creating awareness, it would be advisable to disseminate some vital statistical data to the citizens in this regard to generate positive impact upon them, such as, the extra cost the Corporation bears for not segregating the organic and inorganic waste; the poor marketability of the low quality compost produced due to non-segregation and the amount of loss in cost recovery; the number of trees one can save by adopting the habit of recyclable materials; the adverse effect of using plastic carry bags; the health cost for littering and maintaining unhygienic conditions, and the like. Besides, NGOs / CBOs / Welfare Organizations / Youth Clubs may be involved by the SMC for promotion of awareness and participation through street plays, puppetry, folk music, procession and rallies, slide shows, exhibition and mobile exhibition showcasing good practices and bad practices of garbage disposal, and the like.

The awareness campaigns, after initially highlighting on the negative environmental impacts of the improper disposal of household garbage, should demonstrate among public as to what to store in two types of poly bags which have been provided by the SMC. It should be clearly explained that in the green poly bag, food waste/bio-degradable waste should be stored and in the black one, other recyclable waste such as paper, plastic, metal, glass rags, and the like should be kept. In case of hazardous household waste, if any, should be separately kept. The

Corporation should make arrangement for a separate community bin for hazardous waste storage so that this waste can be carefully disposed off there.

In case of solid wastes from shops, offices, institutions, workshops, etc., there is the need to make them aware and direct them to collect their waste in containers that may be cleared by the municipal sanitary workers. In case the establishments are located in multi- storey buildings, they may be pursued to form association for managing the collection and transportation of garbage to a centrally located community vat. With regard to restaurants and hotels, instructions should be issued to store waste in closed containers which may be cleared daily by the scheduled visit of the locality's sanitary workers. The shopkeepers in the vegetable, fruit, fish and meat markets should not be allowed to throw in front of or around the shops. Awareness should be created among the vendors about the harmful effects of littering and pursue them to store the day's waste in closed containers to be collected by the sanitary workers or put them in large size container if there is any near the market. Further, the street food vendors must be enforced to maintain a bag or a container in their handcarts for storage of the waste. At the end of the day, they may be disposed off in the municipal garbage bins. The same should apply for social gatherings, like marriages, etc.

If, even after carrying out vigorous awareness campaign, non-compliance of the solid waste management guidelines is observed, the second step may be put into place in the form of legal enforcement like fines on the errant householders, etc. and in extreme circumstance, calling of all types of sanitation services from the locality as a community punitive action. It may be expected that the SMC may not have to resort to any legal course if awareness campaign is carried out properly following boost up measures of Information, Education and Communication (IEC).

More often than not it is seen that a Project is started with massive capital investment and much fanfare but sooner than later, the urge of continuous monitoring of the operation and maintenance of the Project, to rectify the problems observed, and to augment upon the existing infrastructure gets lost. As a result, the whole exercise suffers from staticism. The SWM Project of SMC is no exception to this rule. Thus, these limitations have to be overcome and leakages in the system need to be filled up lest this noble effort to minimize the environmental concerns will fail to produce the expected result in times to come.

The third strategy on the part of SMC would be to extend helping hand to those persons who volunteer participation. Any interested person seeking to know

about the Acts, Rules, Regulations, Laws, Bye-laws, etc. related to sanitation and, in particular, about solid waste management should be warmly welcomed and materials should be made available for their perusal. In case, anybody seeks to gather any information, the verbal response should be in a polite and hospitable manner. If SMC succeeds in developing in their work culture such human relations approach in dealing with the common public, it would surely generate spontaneous participation among the public towards keeping their city clean. Experiences and researches have shown that such approach makes common people feel elated and creates a positive impression among the people towards the authority. However, for this to happen, necessary infrastructure needs to be established first. The proposal for setting up a library within the SMC premises is a welcome step forward. It may also be noted that it would ease the burden of the SMC a lot if dissemination of information on various Acts, Rules, etc. as well the various activities being pursued by the SMC is done through the six government libraries present in the city. It, possibly, would not require much pain in distributing a copy of materials related to SMC to the libraries. While on a visit to the Additional District Library, the oldest one in the city, the writer failed to find any material related to SMC. The librarian, too, lamented on this sorry state of affairs. The conversation with him revealed that once they thought of carrying out research on the sanitation situation of the city but retraced their step as they were not very hopeful of getting cooperation of the Corporation in the endeavour. This situation needs to be urgently rectified if true meaning is to be given to the terms 'participative governance'.

5.7 The Field Survey

A brief sample survey was conducted to get a feeling of the city dwellers about how they rate sanitation services in Siliguri as well as to get an indication of their level of participation with regard to sanitation scenario of the city. The total sample size was categorized into two categories – (a) people residing in non-slum areas; and (b) people residing in slum areas. 400 persons constituted the sample size – 300 from non-slum areas and 100 from slum areas. The questionnaire was prepared in English for the non-slum sample and in Bengali for the slum sample.

For the purpose of survey in the non-slum areas, 15 nos. of Wards were selected, namely, 2, 4, 12, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 29, 32, 33, 37 and 38.

However, one limitation confronted while distributing the questionnaire was that several of them were not well acquainted with the English language. As a result, 66 nos. of people were surveyed through schedule method. Another limitation of the survey was that it was initially decided to distribute 20 questionnaires each in the selected 15 nos. of Wards, but in several cases such strictness could not be maintained. As such, variations in the distribution of the questionnaire did crop up to some extent. Yet another limitation of the sample survey was that out of the 234 nos. of questionnaires distributed, a huge number of 94 people did not return them duly filled. However, 47 of them returned them only after analysis of the received data got completed. Due to paucity of time, those were not incorporated. Nonetheless, the general analysis would have been more or less similar had those questionnaires, too, would have been included.

With regard to the slum pockets, it was initially decided to cover slums in 10 nos. of Wards and the total sample size was kept at 100. However, it feels sad that it was stopped mid way. Some Councillors reportedly raised objections to such kind of survey and the officials from the UPE Cell requested the writer to consider conducting such survey under the ensuing circumstances. The writer relented to their call and put an end to the sample surveying of the slum areas. However, the silver lining was that 67 slum dwellers were already surveyed by that time. Out of these, a huge number of 36 respondents filled these in on their own. In other cases, it was done through schedule method as several of them were either not literates or were non-Bengali. The Wards covered in this respect were 2, 3, 4, 5, 28, 33 and 45. Three other Wards which were also chosen for survey but could not be done were 1, 40 and 46. However, the striking part is that none of the slum dwellers defaulted in returning back the questionnaires duly filled.

Besides, interviews and discussions were conducted with several COs, Chairpersons of the CDSs, RCVs as well as municipal officials associated with sanitation, conservancy, environment water supply and UPE.

5.7.1 People and Sanitation : Findings of the Survey

Findings of the Sample Survey in Non-Slum Areas – The findings reveal that a vast majority of the respondents seemed to be satisfied with the primary collection of household garbage through door-to-door collection system. However, only about 55% of them felt that the drainage service in Siliguri was satisfactory.

As has also been observed by the writer that though the maintenance of storm water drains along the main arterial roads are well maintained, such attention is lacking in case of such drains passing through the interior lanes. More often than not, they are choked with different sorts of garbage. No doubt, the surface drains in various localities are cleaned up on a regular basis as has been revealed by the field survey.

About two-third of the respondents seemed to have no knowledge of the Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000. The SMC may adopt IEC measures in this regard through various NGOs/CBOs and the members of Ward SWM Committee. However, though not aware of the contents of the Rules, a huge 92% had the knowledge as to which type of waste is to keep in which poly bag. But the failure on their part is that only 57% of the respondents confirmed using both the poly bags regularly. This situation may be substantially improved if, besides organizing awareness campaigns, proper training is provided and strict directives are given to the sanitary workers engaged in door-to-door collection as to not to accept non-segregated garbage. One grievance which was highlighted by few of the respondents during informal conversations was that there is no provision at present to get those replaced in case of breakage.

The field survey revealed that though a huge majority availed the services of the door-to-door collection on cycle-vans, there were several of them who get compelled to dispose of the garbage by the side of the road or in the drains, primarily due to the mismatch of timing of the arrival of sanitary workers. This gap needs to be fulfilled. One way out in this regard is the provision of road side vat bins at every street intersection in order to restrain people from littering. 104 respondents did confirm having road side vat bins in their locality, but 50% of them maintained that those were placed too far from their house to avail their benefits. However, it may be pointed out that only provision of vat bins would not suffice the purpose. Necessary measures must be taken regarding its placements so that they do not encroach upon the roads and also that those are regularly washed with disinfectants in order to minimize foul smell emanating from them.

Another area of concern is the health hazards likely to be caused to the sanitary workers (*safai karmacharis*) due to the almost complete absence of use of any kind of protective equipments by them. About 80% of the respondents confirmed that they never saw them wearing equipments like gumboots, gloves, nose guard, etc. Even people, in general, do not show concern towards the health

of this hapless section who are engaged in great service to the society. The survey reveals that about 80% of the respondents never enquired as to why they are not using safety devices. Moreover, 9 respondents maintained that it is not their responsibility to aware the sanitary workers in this regard.

As far as awareness campaign programmes are concerned, it seems that it is the least concerned area of the authorities concerned. A total of 161 respondents maintained that no representative of the Corporation visited their house on an awareness campaign mission. One may also lament to the fact that 91% of the respondents, too, never approached any concerned authority to know much about sanitation and solid waste management.

Besides, awareness needs to be created with regards to cost-benefit analysis of segregation and non-segregation as most of the respondents were not aware of the fact that non-segregation of the wastes results in low quality compost and recyclable materials, thereby ultimately affecting their marketability.

The field survey further revealed that though most of the drains are cleaned up on a regular basis, the sludge are kept, initially, on the side of the roads in most of the cases. The striking feature in this respect is that one finds an element of spontaneous participation of people against such nuisance. If the result of the field survey is believed, then 65% of the respondents seem to have lodged protests against this nuisance. The SMC authority should welcome this rare gesture by the common people by urgently looking into the matter in order create among the people urge to be more participative.

The details of the responses of the people with regard to sanitation scenario of Siliguri are laid down in Table 5.6 .

Findings of the Sample Survey on Sanitation in Slum Areas – One very striking aspect came out from the field survey of the slum areas. Not a single respondent rated garbage disposal service as poor. Over 61% have affirmed satisfaction with the service. With regard to drainage service, too, similar trend has been observed. In comparison to only 21.36% in the non-slum areas, a substantial number of 45% have rated the drainage facility as good. However, such assessment goes in contradiction to the answer given to the query, “Whether or not waste water overflow from the drains during rainy seasons?” Over 60% maintained that they do flow during rainy seasons. The gap in their assessment of the service in the context of the above two response can lead one to a possible conclusion that

majority of the slum dwellers seemed to be happy because they, at least, have the drainage system in their locality.

The level of awareness seemed to be higher in slum areas as far as the basic rules of SWM is concerned. Even if, they may not know the details of SWM Rules, the fact is that all the respondents were aware of storage of household organic waste in the green poly bag. At least, the field survey reveals that. However, a sizeable number of respondents accepted not using both the poly bags regularly. Another important point noted in this regard was that only 67.16% of the people availed the services of the SWM door to door garbage collection through cycle vans despite 81.54% have been provided with the poly bags for the purpose. As such, a substantial 32% of them resorted to mixed steps for the disposal of the garbage. They responded using either drains or roadsides or sometimes vat bins for the purpose. Thus, there is a need for vigorous campaigns to make this section of people understand about the harmful effects of improper household wastes. The survey revealed that the physical status of the roadside vat bins is far from satisfactory in slum areas. More so, 71.43% of among those who responded having one in their locality, confirmed that those were too far away from their houses to avail.

The field survey also highlighted the point that the SMC is more concerned and rightly so, in paying more attention to the slum pockets as far as generating awareness is concerned. This get reflected when about 63% of the people confirmed having received representatives of the Corporation on campaign missions. If the finding is to be believed, the awareness to know about the civic services available is much higher among the people of the slums than those residing in better off localities. However, on one count they vented their displeasure and that was the irregular visits by the sanitary workers engaged in door-to-door collection of household garbage.

5.7.2 People and Water Supply : Findings of the Field Survey

In case of water supply service, while about 33% of the respondents in non slum areas affirmed it as being good, only 10.45% of the respondents in the slum areas felt so. The findings revealed that, on the whole, the service is satisfactory for the residents of both the slum and non slum area. The response seemed unusual to the researcher in the context that the water supply service is provided to the city

dwellers only for four hours in a day in two sessions of two hours each. Moreover, the supply has been observed to be erratic at times due to several of the reasons. One plausible conclusion from the responses may be that more credit lies in the abundant availability of ground water rather than the efficiency of the water supply department of the SMC and the PHED. People, in general, seemed to be using municipal water supply for the purpose of drinking and for other household works, they preferred motorized water pumps or ring wells or tube wells.

Taking the case of household municipal water supply connection, it was found that such number was abysmally low in the slum areas. The reason may be attributed to the very high connection charges as well as the burden of paying annual rates. This obviously is one of the reasons as to why the people, specially belonging to the poor section, are generally averse to the idea of such individual connections. Moreover, it is also failure on the part of the concerned authority to highlight the need for going for individual municipal water supply connection whose source is surface water as well as failure to create awareness among the populace to conserve ground water as much as possible. One another reason for less desire for such connection is the easy availability of water from street stand posts which comes free of cost.

One very interesting aspect which got highlighted in the survey is that though less number of people in non slum areas have access to the individual municipal water supply system, but they are quite aware of the importance of water. About 85% of the respondents in the non slum areas provided favourable response towards making individual municipal water supply connection compulsory. Besides, a large majority were also in favour of disconnection of water supply from street stand posts in the non slum areas. It was further revealed that many of the street stand posts do not have stop corks, thereby resulting in loss of huge amount of water.

The details of the responses of the people with regard to water supply scenario of Siliguri are laid down in Table 5.7.

5.7.3 People and City Transportation, Pollution and Urban Social Forestry : Findings of the Field Survey

With regards to the condition of the roads, majority in the non slum area felt them to be either satisfactory or in good condition. However, a marginally higher

percentage of slum population felt them to be in poor condition than the respondents of the better of localities. On the whole, it can be said that not many citizens have complaints about the surface condition of the roads within the town. As far as intra city transportation (city bus or auto service) is concerned, there was general unanimity among both the slum and non slum dwellers that it was far below the average. Their general opinion was in favour of increasing the routes of public transportation service as far as possible.

A major area of concern which got highlighted from the survey was the utter lack of presence of road side trees. Though about 47% of the people in non slum areas seemed to be have no problem with the general environmental conditions (air and noise pollution) in their localities, but a huge 74.61 percent of the respondents were critical of the local authorities for neglecting the important aspect of planting road side trees. However, in the slum areas, the opinion was divided with about half of them showing satisfaction and about similar percentage showing their dissatisfaction with respect to the condition of the urban social forestry in the city. However, if the citizens are critical of the authorities concerned, on several developmental issues of Siliguri, as has been revealed earlier with respect to sanitation, solid waste management, water supply, etc. and here in terms of urban social forestry, the citizens, too, are to be blamed for the sorry state of affairs of important environmental issues. Level of awareness can be calculated from the fact that a huge 65% of the respondents submitted of having no knowledge about the very significant Environment Protection Act. Besides, even the efforts of the SMC to generate environmental awareness among masses through a huge Billboard, at one of the main thoroughfares of the city, has skipped the eyes of a substantially large 71% of the respondents. The responses detail of the sample survey are laid down in Table 5.8.

5.7.4 People in Slums : Findings of the Survey

It was revealed during field survey that over ninety percent of the respondents were averse to calling their settlements '*bustee*', i.e., slum. Instead, a vast majority preferred to call their place either a locality developed out of the efforts of theirs or to call it a colony where all basic services of the city are available as these are in other areas. On the question of policy of the government towards the slums, a substantial number of people wanted the government to

recognize their livelihood by providing them the '*patta*' or the title deed of land free of cost. However, few of them were also of the opinion that such title deed should be given in lieu of a nominal charge. Regarding whether slums should be relocated or slums should be developed without relocating it to some other place, none of them responded in favour of the former. In the similar vein, no one sought to move to a better locality as they gave a feeling of belongingness to the place. One very interesting thing which came out of the survey was that the people residing in slums were more informed about the developmental activities being pursued by the Siliguri Municipal Corporation than those residing in non slum areas. As to their increased level of awareness and participation, credit should go to presence of formal community structure in the slum areas in the form of CDSs, NHCs and RCVs. The organizational involvement in Siliguri slums has been instrumental in increasing community awareness about the welfare programmes. Almost all of the residents had the knowledge of programmes like SJSRY, NSAP, social assistance programme run by the SMC out of its own sources. Thus, one may term RCVs as the silent harbingers of development. This is so because most of RCVs in Siliguri do the great social service of generating awareness without any kind of remuneration. However, some are paid a miniscule amount of Rs. 20/- per month which by no standards can be called remuneration.

Some of the general interesting facts which came out of the survey are (i) baring only 7 out of the total sample of 273 (both slums and non slum areas), all rated performance of their respective Ward Councillor as 'good' or 'satisfactory'. On the contrary, on several occasions they have highlighted the problems encountered in availing municipal services; (ii) the general lack of urge to participate in the developmental process of the city or lay out the vision of development when opportunity provided. This is so because out of the total number of 273 respondents, 257 left the column completely blank which sought to know their opinion as to how to eradicate poverty alleviation or as to how to make them more participative; (iii) over ninety percent of the respondents were in favour of structuring Area Sabhas on the basis of popular representation.

5.8 Role of the Centre, State and ULB in eliciting participation

The Central Government has instituted a number of awards like, 'National Urban Water Awards', 'Nirmal Shahar Puraskar' under NUSP, etc. to elicit

participation of the urban people. The awards are given to the ULBs in different categories and on the basis of performance on several parameters. However, though these are conferred upon the ULBs, it is ultimately the people's participation which makes an ULB bag the award. In similar vein, the Government of West Bengal, too, has adopted different methods of promoting public participation. At the formal level, they are participation through Ward Committees, participation through CDS, participation through Community Contracting, and the like. Besides, it has also instituted awards under Clean City Campaign Mission.

However, it may be lamented that while such incentives and awards are provided for ULBs by the governments at the central and state levels, it never percolated in a formal way below the ULB level. If ULBs, too, can formalize giving awards for best borough in the city, the boroughs adopts giving awards still down to the best ward in a borough, people's participation will take a turn for the better in order to outweigh other wards or boroughs, as the case may be. In this way, a whole lot of people would get an urge and motivation to keep the environs of their respective locality clean. Let Siliguri Municipal Corporation take the lead in this regard, too, as it has to its credit two firsts in the country with respect to promoting participation of the people – first ULB to hold a referendum on an important municipal project and perhaps first ULB to have constituted Ward Committees.

Table 5.6 : Responses of Siliguri Dwellers on Sanitation

Serial No. (1)	Particulars (2)		Response (Non Slum Area)		Remarks (5)	Response (Slum Areas)		Remarks (8)
			Nos. (3)	%* (4)		Nos. (6)	%* (7)	
1	Garbage disposal services in your locality	Poor	32	15.53				
		Satisfactory	117	70.80		41	61.19	
		Good	57	27.67		26	38.81	
2	Drainage services in your locality	Poor	48	23.30		5	7.46	
		Satisfactory	114	55.34		32	47.76	
		Good	44	21.36		30	44.78	
3	Are you aware of Municipal Solid Wastes (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000	Yes	67	32.52		36	60.00	7 left blank
		No	139	67.48		24	40.00	
4	Are you provided with plastic bins (two nos.) for the disposal of household wastes by the Siliguri Municipal Corporation	Yes	153	74.27		53	81.54	2 left blank
		No	53	25.73		12	18.46	
5	If Yes, what do you keep in the green bin?	Organic waste	133	91.72	8 respondent blank	49	100.00	4 left blank
		Inorganic waste	12	8.28				
6	Do you regularly use both the bins by segregating organic and inorganic wastes following norms?	Yes	77	57.89	20 respondent left blank	33	62.26	5 left blank
		No	20	15.04		20	37.74	
		Not possible everyday	36	27.07				
7	If no/not possible every day, has the sanitary worker (safai karmachari) ever made you aware of this?	Yes	12	23.08	4 respondent left blank			This question was not there
		No	40	76.92				
8	Where do you dispose of	In the cycle-van	145	70.38		45	67.16	

Table 5.6 : Responses of Siliguri Dwellers on Sanitation

	household wastes like food waste, paper waste, etc.?	In the Container (Vat Bins) placed on the side of the street	36	17.48	Respondent of 'in the drain' not provided with bins. Many without bins availed cycle van			
		Sometimes in the cycle-van and sometimes in the container						
		On the side of the street	9	4.37				
		In the drain	5	2.43				
		Mixed	11	5.34		22	32.84	
9	Is there 'Solid Waste Management Container' provided in your locality for disposal of waste by the Siliguri municipal Corporation?	Yes	104	50.48		21	32.31	2 left blank
		No	86	41.75		44	67.69	
		Don't Know	16	7.77				
10	If Yes, the location of such container from your house	Near	52	50		15	71.43	
		Far	52	50		6	28.57	
11	Does the sanitary worker (safai karmachari) wear safety equipments like the hand gloves, nose guard, etc.	Yes	18	8.74	Respondent of 'yes' in w20&21			This question was not put in slum area
		No	171	83.01				
		Sometimes	17	8.25				
12	If the answer is no or sometimes, have you ever made them understand about the ill-effects of not using them	Yes	28	15.30	5 respondent left blank			This question was not put in slum area
		No	146	79.78				
		Not my responsibility	9	4.92				
13	Has the Sanitary Inspector or any other representative of the Corporation ever came to your house on an awareness campaign on household solid waste?	Yes	28	13.60		42	62.69	
		No	161	78.15		25	37.31	
		Don't know	17	8.25				
14	If no / don't know, have you ever approached the local leadership or the Sanitary Inspector to get knowledge on solid waste management?	Yes	15	8.98	11 respondent s left blank.	12	70.59	8 left blank
		No	152	91.02		5	29.41	

Table 5.6 : Responses of Siliguri Dwellers on Sanitation

15	Are you aware that by not segregating wastes, you are putting nearly 30 percent extra cost burden on the Corporation?	Yes	100	54.64	23 respondent s left blank			This question was not put in slum area
		No	83	45.36				
16	Are you aware that by not segregating wastes, you are reducing the quality of both recyclable waste as well as compost which is produced?	Yes	42	22.95	23 respondent s left blank			This question was not put in slum area
		No	141	77.05				
17	What is the frequency of cleaning of drains in your locality?	Daily			48 left blank			7 left blank
		Weekly	60	37.97		50	83.33	
		Fortnightly	13	8.23				
		Monthly	62	39.24		10	16.67	
		Cannot Say	23	14.56				
18	What is the method adopted in cleaning the drains?	By keeping the sludge on the road	154	77.78	8 left blank Mostly from w20,21,33 opting for 2 nd choice			This question was not put in slum area
		By keeping the sludge directly in the van	44	22.22				
19	If the sludge is kept on the road side, have you ever lodged a protest to the concerned authority about this nuisance?	Yes	97	65.10	5 respondent left blank			This question was not put in slum area
		No	52	34.90				
20	What is the frequency of sweeping of streets in your locality?	Daily	112	54.37				This question was not put in slum area
		Every Alternate Day	3	1.46				
		Weekly	67	32.52				
		Cannot Say	24	11.66				
21	Your own rating as a participative and good citizen in public life with respect to disposal of	1 mark			4 left blank			
		2 mark						

Table 5.6 : Responses of Siliguri Dwellers on Sanitation

household waste (out of 10 marks)	3 mark	5	2.47			
	4 mark	6	2.97			
	5 mark	45	22.28			
	6 mark	48	23.76			
	7 mark	52	25.74			
	8 mark	23	11.39			
	9 mark	16	7.92			
	10 mark	7	3.47			

*Percentage of those respondents have not been included who had not responded

Questions exclusively put to slum dwellers

Serial No.	Particulars	Response		Remarks	
		Nos.	%*		
1	The frequency of the visit of sanitary worker for door-to-door collection	Daily	24	35.82	
		Alternate Day	9	13.43	
		Irregular	34	50.75	
2	Drain type in your locality	More Pucca	63	94.03	
		More Kutcha	4	5.97	
		No drainage system			
3	Does waste water overflow during rainy seasons from the drains	Yes	40	59.70	
		No	27	40.30	
4	Do you bring to the notice of the concerned official if the drain cleaning is irregular	Yes	55	83.33	1 left blank
		No	11	16.67	
5	Kind of toilet you use	Own	57	85.07	
		Community	10	14.93	
		No provision of toilet			

*Percentage of those respondents have not been included who had not responded

Table 5.7 : Responses of Siliguri Dwellers on Water Supply

Serial No.	Particulars		Response (Non Slum Area)		Remarks	Response (Slum Areas)		Remarks	
			Nos.	%*		Nos.	%*		
1	Water Supply services in your locality.		Poor	34	16.50		13	19.40	
			Satisfactory	104	50.49		47	70.15	
			Good	68	33.01		7	10.45	
2	What is the source of water in your house?		Individual**	31	15.05		60	89.55	
			municipal water supply	84	40.78				
			both	91	44.17		7	10.45	
3	If the answer is (a), the reason for not going for municipal water supply.		the connection charge is high	4	14.29	3 left blank			This question was not put in slum areas.
			ground water is easily available	20	71.43				
			No supply	4	14.28				
4	If the answer is (b), the problem that you face.		less hours of water supply	36	56.25	20 respondent left blank			This question was not put in slum areas.
			erratic water supply	4	6.25				
			Both	23	35.94				
			none	1	1.56				
5	With per capita revenue income of the Corporation being less than per capita revenue expenditure on water supply, do you think the Corporation should make water supply connection compulsory for each household?		Yes	176	85.44				This question was not put in slum areas.
			No	30	14.56				
6	Would you support disconnecting free water supply through street stand posts (except slum areas) as it is a huge loss to the exchequer?		Yes	171	83.01				This question was not put in slum areas.
			No	35	16.99				
7	Is the street stand post for public supply of water has cock fitted to it?*		Yes			This question was not	35	52.24	
			No				32	47.76	

Table 5.7 : Responses of Siliguri Dwellers on Water Supply

					put in non-slum areas.			
8	Have you ever brought to the notice of the Area Committee or Ward Committee or Councillor about loss of valuable water from the cock less street water stand post in your locality?	Yes	96	50.00	14 respondent left blank	19	67.86	4 left blank
		No	96	50.00		9	32.14	
9	Your own rating as a participative and good citizen in public life with respect to conservation of water (out of 10 marks).	1 Mark	-	-	6 respondent left blank			This question was not put in slum areas.
		2 Mark	4	2.00				
		3 Mark	15	7.50				
		4 Mark	24	12.00				
		5 Mark	52	26.00				
		6 Mark	41	20.50				
		7 Mark	33	16.50				
		8 Mark	16	8.00				
		9 Mark	12	6.00				
	10 Mark	3	1.50					

Table 5.8 : Responses of the City Dwellers of Siliguri on City Transportation, Pollution and Urban Social Forestry

Serial No.	Particulars		Response (Non Slum Area)		Remarks	Response (Slum Areas)		Remarks
			Nos.	%		Nos.	%	
1	Roads condition in your locality	Poor	48	23.30		23	34.32	
		Satisfactory	79	38.35		28	41.80	
		Good	79	38.35		16	23.88	
2	Transport Services(City Autos&City Buses)in your locality	Poor	94	45.63		56	83.58	
		Satisfactory	85	41.26		9	13.43	
		Good	27	13.11		2	2.99	
3	Condition of street side social forestry in your locality	Poor	147	74.61	9 left blank	30	44.78	
		Satisfactory	37	18.79		30	44.78	
		Good	13	6.60		7	10.44	
4	Condition of general environment (air & noise pollution) in your locality	Poor	96	47.52	4 left blank	12	17.91	
		Satisfactory	64	31.68		50	74.63	
		Good	42	20.80		5	7.46	
5	Are you aware of the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986	Yes	72	34.95				This question was not put in slum areas.
		No	134	65.05				
6	Are you associated with any NGO or any other organization engaged in the promotion of environment	Yes	9	4.37				This question was not put in slum areas.
		No	197	95.63				
7	Have you ever taken note of the billboard on	Yes	56	28.72	11 left			This

	environment protection of Siliguri put up by the Corporation on the intersection of Hashmi Chowk	No	139	71.28	blank		question was not put in slum areas.
8	Your own rating as a participative and good citizen in public life with respect to following traffic and parking rules in the town	1 Mark	8	4.10	11 left blank		This question was not put in slum areas.
		2 Mark	8	4.10			
		3 Mark	8	4.10			
		4 Mark	36	18.46			
		5 Mark	77	39.49			
		6 Mark	24	12.31			
		7 Mark	21	10.77			
		8 Mark	9	4.62			
		9 Mark	3	1.54			
		10 Mark	1	0.51			
9	Your own rating as a participative and good citizen in public life with respect to environment protection by planting trees in your locality as well as in your house (out of 10 marks)	1 Mark	8	4.10	11 left blank		This question was not put in slum areas.
		2 Mark	8	4.10			
		3 Mark	9	4.62			
		4 Mark	27	13.85			
		5 Mark	70	35.90			
		6 Mark	32	16.41			
		7 Mark	9	4.62			
		8 Mark	16	8.21			
		9 Mark	8	4.10			
		10 Mark	8	4.10			

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CHAPTER SIX

PEOPLE, GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN SILIGURI **MUNICIPAL CORPORATION AREA: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND** **CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS**

The city of Siliguri is both attracting and frustrating. It presents a series of paradoxes – growth and decay, slums and mansions, illiteracy and educational excellence, parochial groups and universalistic associations, hope and despair. On the governance side, if there are some unique credentials to be proud of, there are some serious lapses, too, to make one feel dejected. The same holds true for the citizens of this city.

Two striking positivities of the municipal governance in Siliguri are : (a) the holding of a referendum on a very sensitive but an important municipal project and (b) the constitution of Ward Committees for furthering peoples' participation in developmental process. Siliguri is perhaps the first city in India where a formal referendum was held in four Wards on 4th January, 2003 to decide “whether or not old trees (122 nos.) should be felled in order to widen Siliguri’s main thoroughfare (Sevoke Road) to ease traffic congestion”. Such effort on the part of SMC was truly commendable as it solemnly tantamount to make the citizens genuinely participative. The unfortunate side of the story is that such method of opinion seeking was never applied thereafter in Siliguri. Moreover, the announcement by the Minister-in-Charge of the Municipal Affairs Department, Government of West Bengal to formalize such exercise by incorporating it in the municipal governance policy of the State was also never implemented. The citizen, on their part, failed to understand the value and efficacy of such great opportunity which is evident from the abysmally low turnout on the stipulated day.

The second feather in the cap of municipal governance in Siliguri is related to the Ward Committees. Presently, the theme may not appear surprising as most of the urbanites in India, including Siliguri, are well aware of it. But many may not know that well before the passage of the Constitution 74th (Amendment) Act, 1992, such Committees were efficiently functioning in Siliguri. Such system of participative governance was in vogue in this city when urban local governance got streamlined in the State in the early years of 1980s. To surprise one, more, even the citizens of the State Capital, Kolkata, were devoid of such participation which was exemplified in this city. Perhaps, it was the first ULB in the country, as felt by one

of the great luminaries on municipal governance, K.C.Sivaramkrishnan, to have such participative structure.

While these two instances may provide the reason to the municipal officials and citizens alike to feel proud of their city Siliguri, there are lapses, too, in the kitty of Siliguri Municipal Corporation. The West Bengal Information Commission has bracketed SMC as one of the sixteen defaulting departments in West Bengal under the Right to Information Act (The Indian Express, 8th January, 2010). It has been indicted by the WBIC for allegedly harassing people seeking information under the Act. One of the main reasons attributed for this sorry state of affair is the poor state of record keeping which renders furnishing of information nearly impossible. With the archaic fashion of record keeping without any methodical categorization and indexing, the proposal of provision of e-governance would be a far cry for SMC. The writer personally experienced that the official website of Siliguri Municipal Corporation are not regularly updated. The materials which he downloaded some two years back for the purpose of this work have still not left the place for newer information to come in, except for the names of the new political and administrative heads, and of course, the Budget Speech of the Mayor, 2010-2011. Moreover, the writer cannot help but mention that the information are too few and too basic to be of any help to an academician or any other interested citizens in acquainting himself with the details of the activities being pursued by the SMC. The case of irregular updating of data on the official website may land one in an embarrassing situation. Here is a brief extract of an encounter between the writer and an municipal official of SMC :

Writer : "Hello Sir, I am, and I am lecturer in a college. I need your help in pursuing my research (and put forwards the formal application) "

Municipal Official : "(after going through the application) Mr...., You have come to a wrong person. The person whom you have addressed in the application is not me".

Writer : "But Sir, the designation and name displayed in the website....(interrupted by the urban official) "

Municipal Official : "(a bit annoyed) Have a look at the names displayed on the board behind you. Is this me? (showing the application to the writer) "

Writer : “(after looking at the names of the officials displayed on the board) Sorry Sir....Very sorry....extremely sorry (the person who was addressed in the application was already transferred some eight months back.....a completely embarrassing moment for the writer)”.

Municipal Official : “Anyway, its okay”

Writer : “If you could provide me the last Annual Report of the SMC”

Municipal Official : “ahhh.....I will ‘try’ to find it out. You visit me some other day.”

The crux of the encounter is that there is an urgent need on the part of the Corporation to keep its official website as updated and as enriched as possible so that the interested people do not have to frequent the office. Further, the inability of the municipal official to provide even the latest Annual Report on spot for perusal of the public completely goes against the principle of ‘participative governance’, reverberated every now and then by the SMC. Having said so, there is also a silver lining in this inaccurate method of maintenance of records. In the words of the Mayor, “We have taken initiative for setting up of a library of the Corporation where Books, Journals will be available for use of Councillors, officers & employees of the Corporation and other interested persons and I have no doubt that all of us would be much benefitted after setting up the same”. Besides, some other positive commitments laid down by the Mayor in her last Budget Speech which may go a long way in promoting participative governance are :

- Opening of a citizen-friendly Public Grievance Cell;
- Implementation of e-governance to ensure transparent, time bound and more improved municipal services;
- Decentralisation of municipal functioning by giving more powers to the Borough Committees;
- Implementation of demand-driven schemes as expressed by the community, such as, CDSs, NHGs, Resident Welfare Organizations, Youth Clubs, Market Committees, etc. through Community Participation Fund;
- Consideration of making rain water harvesting compulsory while passing the new building plans;

- Adoption of resolution for plantation of at least two trees at the time of sanction of building plan;
- Commitment to solicit active participation of educated and conscious people in developmental process;

One thing which clearly emanates from the Budget Speech, 2010-11 of the Mayor is that the 'vision' of the SMC reflects dynamism. On the contrary, the 'structure' to make such vision a reality mirrors 'static' image or to put it in an improved connotation – not as dynamic as the vision. The problems with the SMC are abound – paucity of manpower, dearth of own finances, lack of proper and regular training sessions, lack of incentives and awards to promote better work culture, and so on and so forth. On the whole, somewhere that urge and motivation is lacking among the personnel of the SMC as a result of which despite having vision, no one seems to be in 'hurry' when it comes to implementation.

Again, one may find data discrepancies on SMC between documents of different governmental agencies, such as, District Statistical Handbook, Municipal Statistics of Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics as well in its own documents. To make matter worse, a lot of after publication corrections have been noticed in several reports of the SMC, which raises doubt on the authenticity of the reports. One such example is the Booklet on Slum Improvement and UPE (2006-07) where innumerable post publication corrections have been made in the data originally published.

It has also been witnessed that there has been delay on several occasions in the timely constitution of the various standing committees and other committees as well as in the constitution of ward committees which limits the activities of development. There have been occasional complaints, too, by some of the members of the Board of Council that minutes of the proceedings are not regularly noted down.

Of late, allegations and counter allegations have been witnessed between the Siliguri Municipal Corporation and the Siliguri Jalpaiguri Development Authority over several issues of development and governance. All these results in the mutual distrust and should be avoided at all cost for the sake of development of Siliguri.

Development in true sense demands blending of infrastructure development, uniform development, sustainable development and development with social justice in a judicious manner by the Siliguri Municipal Corporation with tacit

cooperation and participation from the common masses of Siliguri. It may be understood that each of the above aspects of development works like a 'cog in the wheel'. If any of the above is neglected and left behind, the ride of the city of Siliguri towards development would not be smooth.

In the above context, then, one needs to summarize as to where Siliguri stands in terms of sanitation and solid waste management, water supply system, transportation and urban social forestry, and slum improvement and poverty alleviation efforts. The infrastructure development with respect to sanitation has been primarily confined to the street sweeping and cleaning of drains. No doubt, one can notice modern method being applied with regard to the sweeping of main arterial roads. One can even notice sanitary workers sweeping the main arterial roads on a regular basis. But when it comes to the inner lanes of the city, such application of modern method and regularity is conspicuous by its absence. The field survey reveals that uniformity is not maintained with regard to sweeping of streets in all the lanes of the city. There is no denying the fact that drains are cleaned up on a regular basis but it is also a fact that the method applied in most of the cases goes against the norms of sanitation. More often than not, the sludge from the drains are kept alongside the road before being transported to the trenching ground, which is not only a nuisance but also makes the whole stretch of road dirty as well as the sight is unpleasing to the passer by. Though there has been declaration that there are no dry latrines in Siliguri but people are seen defecating in the open, in particular alongside the River Mahananda. In this respect, there is lack of any kind of Maintenance and Evaluation infrastructure to deal with such practice. Laws are present for fining people for defecating in the open, but there is no instance as yet of it being applied. Such practice also goes against sustainability of the city as it contributes in the pollution of the river.

Another major problem facing most of the drains in Siliguri is their loss of capacities due to the irresponsible behavior of common public like throwing garbage, plastics, etc. in the drains instead of specified garbage collection bins.

Yet, another major shortage of infrastructure is with regard to public toilets. ✓ As a result of which, people are often seen urinating at different places making foul smell to emanate. Being a major business hub, thousands of people from the nearby settlements visit the city for different purposes. In absence of abundant numbers public urinals, they are compelled to adopt such practice. The worst sufferers in this regard are the womenfolk.

It may be noted that a large share of revenue of the SMC goes in the maintenance expenditure on conservancy. Despite this, the overall sanitation scenario in the city cannot be termed as more than satisfactory. This, however, may be primarily attributed to the quite high enrolment of sweepers in the municipal registers, but the administration fail to make them work. Field survey reveals this fact where several respondents were unhappy with the irregularity maintained by the sanitary workers, not only with respect to street sweeping but even with regards to door to door collection of garbage.

Further, though the prescription about MSW laid down in the official website of the SMC calls for the promotion of 3 Rs – Reduce, Reuse and Recycle, any well defined policy to implement such noble vision seems to be lacking. It has been observed through field survey that the prescriptions laid down in Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules are more often not complied with. Right from the collection to the final disposal, dysfunction is present.

Presently, the city of Siliguri does not have any kind of sewerage system, though this is being contemplated by the SMC. However, one credit worthy work in order to deal with sewage is the initiation of the Mahananda River Conservation Plan (MRCP) by the SJDA, which includes not only treatment of affluents by setting up three Sewage Treatment Plants in a phased manner, but also the river front development which is expected to go a long way in improving the environment of the city as far as sanitation scenario is concerned.

On a glance, one may not find much problem with the water supply system of the city and survey has revealed that majority of the people are satisfied with the water supply despite low hours of supply in a day. However, much credit for this should go to the abundant availability of ground water rather than on the efficient management of the authorities concerned. This seems to be the discredit of the SMC that only about one sixth of the households of the city have access to individual water supply connection which not only leads to cost recovery gap, but also has the adverse affect on the precious ground water. Besides, the populist measure to supply water through street stand posts even in areas of affluence has made matter worse for the SMC. However, the initiative by the SMC to make individual household water supply connection compulsory for any new building coming up and the proposal to make rainwater harvesting compulsory in times to come are welcome signs in this regard.

The traffic volume within SMC area is significantly high and though measures are being taken to widen the existing roads and constructing new roads, but they are not commensurate with the vehicle demand. As such, these measures cannot be the only viable way out for solving capacity problems in the long run. The concerned authorities should promote 'public transport system' in such a way that people would voluntarily prefer that in lieu of private mode of transport. Measures need to be worked out for providing incentives to the public transport system and disincentives to the private mode. This would definitely help, not only in easing the congestion and traffic snarls on major arterial roads, but would also help in lowering down the level of harmful vehicular pollution. At the same time, the authorities should not lose sight of the social justice aspect of development which holds true even while contemplating any policy on better management of traffic system. It has often been seen that the rickshaw and cart pullers, majority of who are poor, bear the maximum brunt whenever traffic management plans are carried out on major arterials of the city. This leads to paradox in the position of the authorities who, on the one hand, seeks to extend helping hand towards the poor through several social assistance programmes, and on the other hand, deprive them from their source of income in the name of controlling traffic. Measures need to be devised in this regard too as true development demands caring for the needs of all sections of society in a judicious manner. One should not lose sight that these modes of transport substantially contribute in lessening the pollution level of the city.

No doubt, promotion of public transport system in the cities, adoption of appropriate and cleaner vehicular emission technologies, and special consideration in designing pedestrian and non-motorized transport (NMT) facilities along the roads will go a long way in reducing urban pollution caused by vehicles, but these alone are not sufficient unless and until urban social forestry is given due space in the overall planning process. It is so because it provides one of the most significant environmental and material benefits to the urban dwellers. However, it may be noted that this area has been subjected to utter neglect by the SMC despite having tremendous environmental and sustainable benefits. The field survey is a pointer in this regard. It suffers from ad hoc measures and tree saplings are generally planted to mark important occasions like observance of forest weeks, World Environment Day, etc. Thus, as of now, urban social forestry in Siliguri falls far short of being called planned, integrated and systematic.

One may definitely give credit to the SMC with regard to urban slum improvement and urban poverty alleviation efforts. There is no denying the fact that there are limitations of Siliguri Municipal Corporation to carry out these works. One problem is that it has to carry out the welfare programmes announced by higher level authorities. This causes extra pressure on the existing administrative manpower. Any addition of responsibility without the necessary organizational flexibility adversely affects the quality of service. Despite such limitations, the SMC has seriously tried to involve itself to the maximum extent possible in carrying out the pro-poor programmes of the Central and State Governments. Not only these, the SMC itself is running several social assistance programmes out of its own resources.

Thus, one may say that the functioning of SMC evidences a mix of both the positivities and the negativities. Given the circumstances, it seems a long journey for the Siliguri Municipal Corporation before anomalies are bridged up and finances are made sound in order to go near to the prescription of judicious blending of infrastructure development, uniform development, sustainable development and development tinged with social justice. Borrowing from what has been laid out in Chapter One, there is the need for “good governance”, which also includes eliciting public participation and cooperation, calls for such system where those selected for operating the system should be endowed with character and competence and are motivated by the spirit of service to the people.

Good governance which will open up the path for required development with respect to the issues laid down include clarity in respect of the following :

1. Vision : where we want to go
2. Objective : the new desirable situation
3. Mission : our work guide to approach the vision
4. Doctrine : our professional code of ethics
5. Leadership : the directing force
6. Setting : our operating environment
7. Strategy : our general measures to approach the vision

All these again call for the need for ‘capacity building’ of the municipal institutions for good governance and requisite development. This becomes all more important considering the tremendous urban growth of the city which is likely to further at a fast pace in the backdrop of recently held treaty on border trade between India and China by opening up new trade route through Nathu-La Pass.

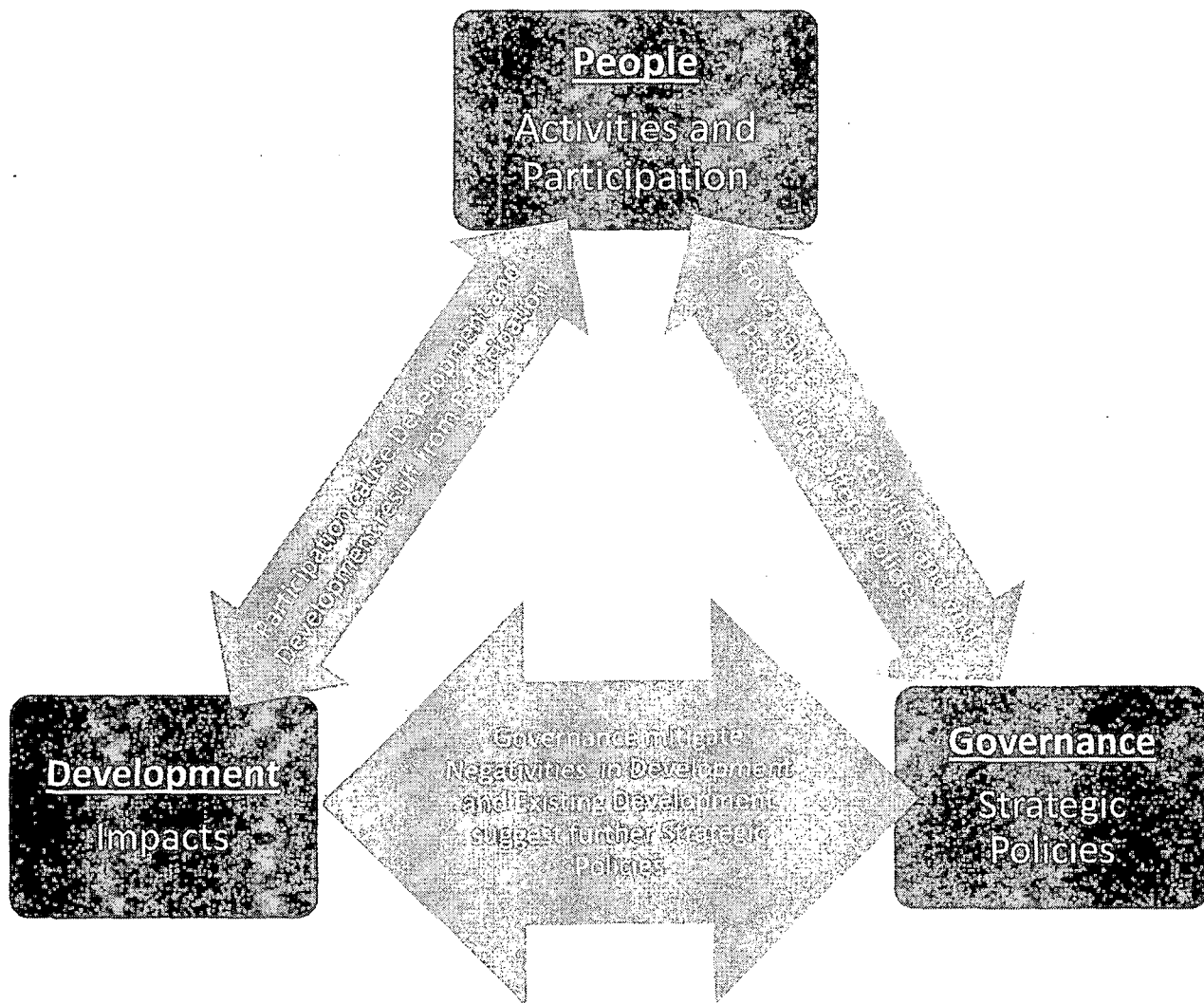
Thus, SMC along with SJDA need to tone up its administrative set up to meet the tougher challenges of good urban governance.

Any strategy for ‘capacity building’ and good urban governance need to address the following :

1. Institution of systemic capacity : implementation of the constitutional provisions regarding establishment of the institutional framework for urban service delivery- defining functions, finances and the framework for responsive service delivery for local government institutions;
2. Designing an enabling framework for making the system operational : internal municipal organization – balancing of political and executive power;
3. Technological and procedural capacity building : adoption of appropriate technology for the production and distribution of services and procedures to facilitate efficiency and accountability;
4. Manpower capacity building : up gradation of manpower for improving service planning, production and delivery – research and training;
5. Establishment of checks and balances : ensuring that municipal institutions and officials are faced with appropriate incentives to deliver results and do not deviate from the mandated tasks.

Destiny has provided the city of Siliguri with the advantage of a unique location which gets evident in its tremendous growth within a very short time space. This urban growth is likely to continue further and with that more urban challenges are to be confronted by the urban officials and common citizens alike. As such, it is the solemn responsibility of all stakeholders of Siliguri to work towards a perfect blending between infrastructure development, uniform development, sustainable development and development with social justice. No amount of administrative directives can make Siliguri a ‘DREAM CITY’ unless there is spontaneous participation of the citizens in the developmental process. Lack of genuine belongingness may ‘GRIND’ Siliguri down and concerted effort may ‘POLISH’ it up. The choice, then, remains before all those who love this great city as to which path to tread upon. The writer takes this opportunity to sum up with the quote of the great Winston Churchill, “We make a living by what we get, we make a life (in this case Siliguri) by what we give”.

Figure 6.1 : The Cycle Between Governance, People and Development



Adapted from

Bartone, Carl et al (1994 : 39) : *Toward Environmental Strategies for Cities : Policy Considerations for Urban Environmental Management in Developing Countries*, Urban Management Program, The World Bank,

POSITIVITIES OF SILIGURI



Promoting Environmental Concern



Managing Solid Waste



Cess Pool Service in Siliguri

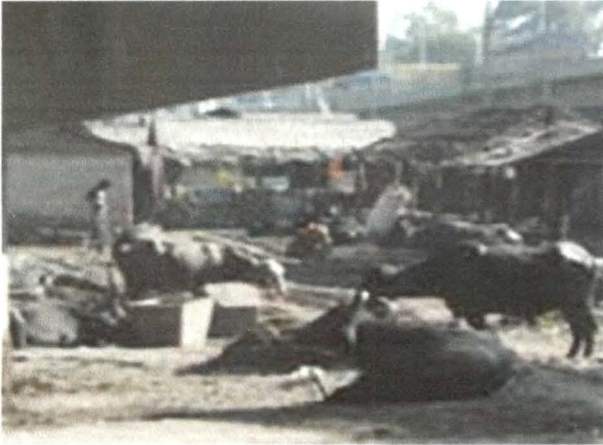


CDS at Work



Cleaning Garbage

NEGATIVITIES OF SILIGURI



Illegal Khatala



Littering on the Road Side



Drain Sludge on the Road Side



Lack of awareness

NEGATIVITIES OF SILIGURI



Slums on the Bank of River Mahananda



Improper disposal at Land fill site



No fencing at the land fill side

SAMPLE SURVEY, WARD NO.....

1. Name –

2. Language spoken in the house – Bengali / Hindi / Nepali / Others

3. Family Profile

Sl.No.	Age	Sex	Education	Marital Status	Occupation	Income (Rs. per month)
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

4. Type of family – Joint / Nuclear

5. Where do you hail from – West Bengal / Outside West Bengal

6. When did you come to settle in Siliguri (Year) -

7. When did you come to settle in this Ward (Year) -.....

8. Type of House – Own / Rented

9. You own in your house (Tick which are applicable) – Cycle / Two-wheeler / Three-wheeler / Four-wheeler

10. Garbage disposal services in your locality – Poor / Satisfactory / Good

11. Drainage services in your locality - Poor / Satisfactory / Good

12. Water Supply services in your locality – Poor / Satisfactory / Good

13. Roads condition in your locality - Poor / Satisfactory / Good

14. Transport Services(City Autos&City Buses)in your locality – Poor/ Satisfactory/ Good

15. Condition of street side social forestry in your locality - Poor / Satisfactory / Good

16. Condition of general environment (air & noise pollution) in your locality – Poor / Satisfactory / Good

- 17. Efforts of Ward Councillor with respect to overall development of your locality - Poor / Satisfactory / Good**
- 18. Are you a member of Ward Committee or Area Committee? – Yes / No**
- 19. If the answer is ‘No’, your communication with the Ward Councillor – Rare / Occasional / Frequently / Never**
- 20. Are you aware of Municipal Solid Wastes (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000? – Yes / No**
- 21. Are you provided with poly bags (two nos.) for the disposal of household wastes by the Siliguri Municipal Corporation – Yes / No**
- 22. If the answer is ‘Yes’, what do you keep in the green bin? – Organic waste(food waste) / Inorganic waste (paper waste)**
- 23. Do you regularly use both the bins by segregating organic and inorganic wastes following norms? – Yes / No / Not possible everyday**
- 24. If the answer is ‘no’, has the sanitary worker(safai karmachari) has ever made you aware of this? -Yes/No**
- 25. Where do you dispose of household wastes like food waste, paper waste, etc.? – In the cycle-van used for door-to-door collection / In the Container (Vat Bins) placed on the side of the street / Sometimes in the cycle-van and sometimes in the container / On the side of the street / In the drain / Mixed**
- 26. Is there ‘Solid Waste Management Container’ provided in your locality for disposal of waste by the Siliguri municipal Corporation? – Yes / No / Don’t Know**
- 27. If the answer is ‘Yes’, the location of such container from your house – Near / Far**
- 28. Does the sanitary worker (safai karmachari) wear safety equipments like the gumboots, hand gloves, nose guard, etc. – Yes / No / Sometimes**
- 29. If the answer is ‘No’ or ‘Sometimes’, have you ever made them understand about the ill-effects of not using them – Yes / No / Not my responsibility**
- 30. Has the Sanitary Inspector or any other representative of the Corporation ever come to your house on an awareness campaign on household solid waste?–Yes / No / Don’t know**
- 31. If the answer is ‘No’ or ‘Sometimes’, have you ever approached the local leadership or the Sanitary Inspector to get knowledge on solid waste management? – Yes / No**

- 32. Are you aware that by not segregating wastes, you are putting nearly 30 percent extra cost burden on the Corporation? – Yes / No**
- 33. Are you aware that by not segregating wastes, you are reducing the quality of both recyclable waste as well as compost which is produced? – Yes / No**
- 34. What is the frequency of cleaning of drains in your locality? Daily / Weekly / Fortnightly / Monthly / Cannot Say**
- 35. What is the method adopted in cleaning the drains? – By keeping the sludge on the road / By keeping the sludge directly in the van**
- 36. If the sludge is kept on the road side, have you ever lodged a protest to the concerned authority about this nuisance? – Yes / No**
- 37. What is the frequency of sweeping of streets in your locality? – Daily / Every Alternate Day / Weekly / Cannot Say**
- 38. What is the source of water in your house? – (a) individual / (b) municipal water supply / (c) both**
- 39. If the answer is (a), the reason for not going for municipal water supply – the connection charge is high / ground water is easily available**
- 40. If the answer is (b), the problem that you face – less hours of water supply / erratic water supply / both / none**
- 41. With per capita revenue income of the Corporation being less than per capita revenue expenditure on water supply, do you think the Corporation should make water supply connection compulsory for each household – Yes / No**
- 42. Would you support disconnecting free water supply through street stand posts (except slum areas) as it is a huge loss to the exchequer – Yes / No**
- 43. Have you ever brought to the notice of the Area Committee or Ward Committee or Councillor about loss of valuable water from the cock less street water stand post in your locality – Yes / No**
- 44. Are you aware of the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 – Yes / No**
- 45. Are you associated with any NGO or any other organization engaged in the promotion of environment – Yes / No**
- 46. Have you ever taken note of the billboard on environment protection of Siliguri put up by the Corporation on the intersection of Hashmi Chowk – Yes / No**

47. Your own rating (out of 10 marks for each category) as a participative and good citizen in public life :

(a) With respect to disposal of household waste -marks

(b) With respect to conservation of water -marks

(c) With respect to social service through individual effort or through any community organization -marks

(d) With respect to environment protection by planting trees in your locality as well as in your house -marks

(e) With respect to following traffic and parking rules in the town -marks

(f) With respect to attending Ward conventions, programmes, etc. -marks

48. “The citizen : political representative ratio in the Corporation area is 1:10005. On the other hand, this ratio is only 1:1122 in rural Siliguri under Siliguri Mahakuma Parishad.” Thus, it is not possible for the citizens of Siliguri to directly participate in the meetings on the developmental aspects of the respective Ward and lay down their views. In this context, would you support any kind of directly elected Area Councillor (working under the supervision of Ward Councillor) on the booth-wise basis so that it becomes much more easier for you to directly participate in the developmental issues – Yes / No

49. Your valuable suggestions as to how to make you more ‘participative’ citizen of Siliguri in public life (Use page if needed).

Sample Survey[#], Ward No.

- ১। আপনার নাম -
- ২। আপনার জাতি - সাধারণ / তপশিলী জাতি / তপশিলী উপজাতি / অন্ননত শ্রেণি
- ৩। আপনি বাড়িতে ভাষা ব্যবহার করেন - বাংলা / হিন্দী / নেপালী / অন্যান্য
- ৪। আপনার বাড়ির সদস্য সংখ্যা -
- ৫। আপনার বাড়ির রোজগার - (ক) পুরুষ - স্বনির্ভর / স্থায়ী / অস্থায়ী
(খ) মহিলা - স্বনির্ভর / স্থায়ী / অস্থায়ী
- ৬। পরিবারের মাসিক আয় (প্রায়) -
- ৭। আপনি কত বছর ধরে এখানে বসবাস করছেন -.....
- ৮। আপনার বাড়ি হল - (ক) নিজস্ব / ভাড়া ; (খ) পাকা / কাঁচা / পাকা-কাঁচা মিশ্রিত
- ৯। আপনার বাড়ি নির্মাণ হয়েছে - নিজস্ব অর্থে / সরকারি সাহায্য প্রাপ্ত অর্থে
- ১০। আপনার বাড়িতে রয়েছে - সাইকেল / মোটর-সাইকেল / টি. ভি. / ফ্রিজ
- ১১। আপনি আপনার এলাকাকে কি ভাবে বর্ণনা করবেন - (ক) মানুষের উদ্যোগে গড়ে ওঠা একটি এলাকা ; (খ) একটি কলোনি যেখানে শহরের সব পরিষেবা রয়েছে ; (গ) একটি বস্তি ; (ঘ) অন্যান্য
- ১২। আপনি এই স্থানে ভবিষ্যতেও বসবাস করতে চাইবেন - হ্যাঁ / না
- ১৩। আপনার মতে বস্তি উন্নয়নের ক্ষেত্রে সরকারের কি নীতি হওয়া উচিত - (ক) বস্তি ভেঙ্গে অন্য জায়গায় পুনর্বাসন / (খ) বস্তি না ভেঙ্গে মূল পরিষেবা আরো উন্নত করা / (গ) বিনা মূল্যে জমির পাট্টা দিয়ে বাড়িগুলি স্থায়িকরণ করা / (ঘ) স্বল্প মূল্যের বিনিময়ে জমির পাট্টা দিয়ে বাড়িগুলি স্থায়িকরণ করা
- ১৪। আপনার এলাকায় জঞ্জাল পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ১৫। আপনার এলাকায় নর্দমা ও নিকাশী পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ১৬। আপনার এলাকায় পানীয় জলের পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ১৭। আপনার এলাকায় রাস্তা-ঘাটের পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ১৮। আপনার এলাকায় বাজারের পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ১৯। আপনার এলাকায় রেশন পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২০। আপনার এলাকায় শিক্ষা পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২১। আপনার এলাকায় জনস্বাস্থ্য পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২২। আপনার এলাকায় পরিবহন (সিটি অটো / সিটি বাস) পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২৩। আপনার এলাকায় পৌর নিগমের বৃক্ষরোপণের পরিষেবা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২৪। আপনার এলাকায় পরিবেশের (বায়ু ও শব্দ দূষণ) অবস্থা - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২৫। আপনার এলাকায় উন্নয়নের জন্য ওয়ার্ড কাউন্সিলারের উদ্যোগ - খারাপ / সাধারণ / উন্নত
- ২৬। আপনার সঙ্গে স্থানীয় আর.সি.ভি-র যোগাযোগ - নেই / কম / বেশি / খুব বেশি

- ২৭। আপনি কি ‘সলিড ওয়েষ্ট ম্যানেজমেন্ট’ -এর ব্যাপারে অবগত ? - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩০। আপনাকে কি বাড়ির বর্জ্য পদার্থ ফেলার জন্য পৌর নিগমের তরফে দুটি প্লাস্টিকের বুরি (বিন) দেওয়া হয়েছে - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩১। যদি হ্যাঁ, তাহলে আপনি সবুজ বুড়িতে কি রাখেন - পচনশীল পদার্থ / অপচনশীল পদার্থ
- ৩২। আপনি কালো বুড়িতে কি রাখেন - পচনশীল পদার্থ / অপচনশীল পদার্থ
- ৩৩। আপনি কি দুটি বুড়ি নিয়ম মেনে নিয়মিত ব্যবহার করেন - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩৪। আপনি বাড়ির বর্জ্য পদার্থ কথায় ফেলেন - সাফাই কর্মচারীর সাইকেল ভ্যানে / রাস্তার ধারে / রাস্তার ধারে রাখা কন্টেনারে / নর্দমায় / মিশ্রিত
- ৩৫। আপনার এলাকায় বাড়ির বর্জ্য পদার্থ ফেলার জন্য পৌড় নিগমের কন্টেনার রয়েছে - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩৬। আপনার বাড়ি থেকে পৌর নিগমের কন্টেনারের দূরত্ব - কাছে / দূরে
- ৩৭। আপনাকে পৌর নিগমের তরফে পচনশীল ও অপচনশীল বর্জ্য পদার্থ মিশ্রিত করলে কি-কি অসুবিধা হয়, তা বোঝানো হয়েছে - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩৮। যদি না, তাহলে আপনি নিজেই কি বুঝতে চেয়েছেন - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৩৯। আপনার এলাকায় সাফাই কর্মচারী আসেন - দৈনিক / এক দিন অন্তরে / নিয়মিত আসেন না
- ৩৯। আপনার এলাকায় নর্দমা রয়েছে - বেশি ভাগ পাকা / বেশি ভাগ কাঁচা / নেই বললেই চলে
- ৪০। বর্ষায় নর্দমার জল রাস্তায় উপচে পরে - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৪১। নর্দমা পরিষ্কার করা হয় - দৈনিক / সাপ্তাহিক / মাসিক / অন্যান্য
- ৪২। নর্দমা যদি অনেক দিন বাদে-বাদে পরিষ্কার করা হয়, তাহলে আপনি কি এলাকার স্যানিটারি ইম্প্রুভমেন্টের নজরে আনেন - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৪৩। আপনার বাড়িতে জলের উৎস - নিজস্ব মোটর পাম্প / নিজস্ব হ্যান্ড পাম্প / নিজস্ব রিজার্ভ ওয়েল / পৌড় নিগমের আবাসিক জল সরবরাহ / পৌড় নিগমের রাস্তার ধারে স্ট্যান্ড পোস্ট
- ৪৪। আপনার বাড়ির পাশে জলের স্ট্যান্ড পোস্টে ট্যাপ লাগানো রয়েছে - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৪৫। যদি না, তাহলে কি আপনি জল নষ্ট হচ্ছে বলে কাউন্সিলার বা নিগমের কাছে আবেদন/প্রতিবাদ জানিয়েছেন - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৪৬। আপনার বাড়িতে পায়খানার ব্যবস্থা - নিজস্ব / সাধারণ (কমিউনিটি পায়খানা) / কোন স্থায়ী ব্যবস্থা নেই
- ৪৭। আপনার এলাকায় রাস্তার ধারে গাছের সংখ্যা - যথেষ্ট / যথেষ্ট নেই
- ৪৮। আপনার এলাকায় পৌর নিগম, এন.জি.ও., ইত্যাদি গাছ লাগানোর উদ্যোগ গ্রহণ করেছেন - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৪৯। আপনি কি সরকারের রোজগার যোজনা (এস.জে.এস.আর.ওয়াই) বা সামাজিক সুরক্ষা যোজনা (এন.এস.এ.পি.) সম্পর্কে অবগত - হ্যাঁ / না
- ৫০। দারিদ্র্য দূরীকরণের ক্ষেত্রে আপনার সংক্ষিপ্ত মূল্যবান মতামত -

৫১। পরিষ্কার-পরিচ্ছন্নতার দিক থেকে দেশের প্রায় ৪৩০ টি বড় শহরের মধ্যে (ক্লাস ১ শহরগুলি) আমাদের স্বপ্নের শহর শিলিগুড়ি স্থান ১৩৩। মোট ১০০ নম্বরে আমাদের শহর মাত্র ৩৮ শতাংশ পেয়েছে। এই ফল আমাদের জন্য দুঃখ জনক এবং উদ্বেগ জনক। ফলে, শিলিগুড়ির পরিবেশকে আরো বেশি উন্নত করার জন্য আপনার মূল্যবান সুপারিশগুলি -

Note : The term “Slum” was not incorporated for obvious reason. However, this questionnaire in Bengali version was meant for people living in slums.

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