

ISSUES OF INFORMAL SECTOR AND URBAN POVERTY IN INDIA: CRITICAL INSIGHTS FROM ALLAHABAD CITY (U.P.)

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ABSTRACT

Urban poverty poses the problems of housing and shelter, water, sanitation, health, education, social security and livelihoods along with special needs of vulnerable groups like women, children and aged people. Poor people live in slums which are overcrowded, often polluted and lack basic civic amenities like clean drinking water, sanitation and health facilities. There has been an upsurge of interest in micro-level studies on the urban informal sector in recent years. Keeping in view the broader problems analyzed from the Indian society especially Allahabad city of U.P. state regarding various aspects of living for the informal sector workers, following suggestions needs urgent attention, Urban health should be taken up in mission mode, much on lines of the NRHM, to facilitate programmatic focus, resource commitment and accountability for effectively addressing the health needs of the urban population, The states should incorporate initiatives for urban health needs in their Programme Implementation Plan. Need to convert the vast pool of human resources in informal sector into productive assets in such a manner that they become ultimately wealth creators and job providers instead of mere survivors or job seekers through promoting micro and small business entrepreneurship.

KEYWORDS: Urban Poverty, Informal Sector, Slums, Allahabad (India)

INTRODUCTION

No doubt, economic development and urbanization are closely linked. In India, cities contribute over 55 % to country's GDP and urbanization has been recognized as an important component of economic growth. With India becoming increasingly globalized and urban, there is also an increase in the number of poor people living here. As per the latest NSSO survey reports there are over 80 million poor people living in the cities and towns of India. The Slum population is also increasing and as per TCPO estimates 2001; over 61.80 million people were living in slums.

It is interesting to note that the ratio of urban poverty in some of the larger states is higher than that of rural poverty leading to the phenomenon of 'Urbanization of Poverty'. Urban poverty poses the problems of housing and shelter, water, sanitation, health, education, social security and livelihoods along with special needs of vulnerable groups like women, children and aged people. Poor people live in slums which are overcrowded, often polluted and lack basic civic amenities like clean drinking water, sanitation and health facilities. Most of them are involved in informal sector activities where there is constant threat of eviction, removal, confiscation of goods and almost non-existent social security cover. With growing poverty and slums, Indian cities have been grappling with the challenges of making the cities sustainable i.e. inclusive, productive, efficient and manageable. The sustainability of urban development in India is seen in the context of shelter and slums, Basic urban services, Financing urban development and Governance and Planning.

Simultaneously, Indian economy has preponderance of informal and unorganized sector both in terms of number of workers and enterprises. This segment of economy has inbuilt vulnerabilities, and the study of unorganized sector based on reliable data is important for informed decision making and addressing the problems faced. No doubt, unorganized or informal sector constitutes a pivotal part of the Indian economy. More than 90 per cent of workforce and about 50 per cent of the national product are accounted for by the informal economy. A high proportion of socially and economically underprivileged sections of society are concentrated in the informal economic activities. The high level of growth of the Indian economy during the past two decades is accompanied by increasing informalisation. It is also increasingly realized that “lack of reliable statistics on the size, distribution and economic contribution of the sector has been a major constraint in providing a realistic understanding of the significance of the Indian economy, leading to its neglect in development planning.

It is realized that the causes of poverty and its perpetuation are much more subtle and complex than the assumption that the poor are the unsuccessful people in society. Slum and poverty go hand in hand in towns and cities. This situation, however, does not indicate that there are no poor people living outside the slum nor does it imply that everyone who lives in the slum is poor. In India, slums are found in all urban settlements, large or small, old or new, unplanned or planned. As a matter of fact, the slum problem is ubiquitous in cities all the world over, although with variable dimensions.

As per 2011 population census, the urban population of India was about 377.1 million representing 31.16 percent of the country’s total population of 1210.2 million. The ever increasing number of slum dwellers causes tremendous pressure on urban basic services and infrastructure. The supply of land for housing has failed to keep pace with increase in urban population resulting in large number of households without access to basic services, poor housing and proliferation of slums and widespread poverty. The Ministry of Housing & Urban Poverty Alleviation is the apex authority of Government of India at the national level for formulation of housing policy and programme, review of the implementation of the plan scheme, collection and dissemination of data on housing, building materials/techniques and for adopting general measures for reduction of building costs. In addition, it is entrusted with implementation of the specific programmes of urban employment and urban poverty alleviation, including provision of basic amenities to the urban poor and support for establishment of micro-enterprises by skill development of the poor. In the federal structure of the Indian polity, the matters pertaining to the housing and urban development have been assigned by the Constitution of India to the State Governments. The Constitutional 74th Amendment Act has further delegated many of these functions to the urban local bodies. Although these are essentially State subjects yet the Government of India plays a coordinating and monitoring role and also supports these programmes through centrally sponsored schemes.

Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation has also formulated a scheme, viz. “Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme” (IHSDP) which is applicable to all cities and towns as per 2001 census, except those cities which are covered under BSUP component of JNNURM. This scheme was created combining the VAMBAY and NSDP programmes, for having an integrated approach in ameliorating the conditions of urban slum dwellers that do not possess adequate shelter and reside in dilapidated conditions. The Ministry has a business allocation that is fairly focused, being the formulation of housing policy and programmes, the implementation of specific programmes of Urban Employment (UE) and Urban Poverty Alleviation (UPA) and policy, planning and monitoring of matters related to human settlements and urban development “including Slum Clearance Schemes and the Jhuggi and Jhompri Removal Schemes”.

In the 8 years of the existence of this Ministry, the Government’s vision and policy towards urban development

has seen considerable change. The emphasis of the 11th Plan on inclusive and equitable growth has led to a greater urgency for municipal reforms and effectiveness of the third tier of governance, greater emphasis on community participation and the implementation of the flagship programme of JNNURM with 40% of its considerable budget devoted to slum redevelopment and rehabilitation (see Annual Report, 2012-2013, Ministry of Housing & Urban Poverty Alleviation, Government of India).

Thus, it is to be emphasized that the urban centres have a vital role in India's socio-economic transformation and change. Most cities and towns area severely stressed in terms of infrastructure and service availability, and their growth and development is constrained by indifferent implementation of the 74th Constitution Amendment Act (CAA), 1992, and continuation of statutes, systems and procedures that impede the operation of land and housing markets. As this is incompatible with the country's socioeconomic objectives, the Government of India (GoI) launched the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM/ Mission) in 1995 fiscal year. The Mission aims at encouraging cities to initiate steps to bring about improvement in the existing service levels in a financially sustainable manner.

INFORMAL SECTOR AND THE URBAN SPACE

There has been an upsurge of interest in micro-level studies on the urban informal sector in recent years. These are mostly carried out at the level of a city or a segment of it, covering a sample of industrial establishments, household based enterprises, or activities requiring no fixed location. It is believed that identification of informal sector units at the micro-level using multiple criteria, based on Census or NSS data, is an impossible task. Further, any assessment of the size of the informal sector directly through the enterprise surveys of NSS or CSO, covering OAE, NDE and DE, would be gross underestimation, at any level. This has forced researchers to go in for primary surveys. Scholars have argued that it is only through household based surveys that one can hope to capture the entire gamut of informal activities (Datar, 1986; Singh, 1990). Importantly, some of the informal workers are employed by formal enterprises (through sub-contracting) that can only be captured through these household surveys (Unni, 1997).

An overview of the existing literature on pathetic conditions of informal economy suggests that certain activities have attracted the researchers much more than others, owing to their low productivity, low capital stock, exploitative labour relations, etc. These are (1) building construction, (2) rickshaw pulling, (3) hawking and vending, (4) textile and garment related activities, (5) carpet making, (6) beedi making and (7) garbage collection.

Sociologist Jan Breman provides a picture through his study 'An Informalised Labour System, End of Labour Market Dualism' (2002) focusing on Ahmedabad. He points out that in the early-1970s the informal sector was estimated to account for around half of all work in the urban economy and by the end of the 20th century it had grown to between three-quarters and four-fifths. He defines informal sector work as work on one's own account which generates income but is not regulated by an explicit employment contract and enjoys no protection. This includes people who work in the street, in homes, small-scale enterprises, powerloom workshops etc. The informal sector workers work for as long as their employers require them to. Sometimes, these workers may be working in the context of a secure, organized workplace but their relationship is contractual and therefore classified as informal. According to him, the move from formality to informality in the work context almost immediately means a fall in the standard of living. The lower-income classes are mainly visible in these new neighbourhoods as domestic servants, street vendors, repair and odd-job men, cleaners, day or

night guards.

A study by sociologists Sharit K Bhowmik and Nitin More, 'Coping with Urban Poverty – Ex-Textile Mill Workers in Central Mumbai ', provides a vivid portrayal of the state of the urban poor: "Workers engaged in the urban informal sector form the bulk of the urban poor. Workers in this sector get low wages or if they are self-employed, their income is meager. This implies that their living conditions are low and, if employed, their wages are less than the stipulated minimum wages. There are hardly any regulations on their working conditions and social security is virtually non-existent. A large section of this population consists of low-skilled rural migrants or migrants from smaller towns. Hence, for these people, right from the time of their entry to the city they become a part of the informal sector as they have neither the skills nor the opportunities to enter better-paid and more secure formal sector jobs. They thus move from one level of poverty, at their place of origin, to another level of poverty, at their destination. At the same time there is a growing section of workers in the formal sector who have lost their jobs and are compelled to work in the informal sector. For these people and their families this change means a reduction in their standard of living and insecure, unregulated employment."

'The poverty ratchets model suggests that sickness impoverishes already poor households, which are plunged into a progressive spiral of declining health and economic status' (Corbett, 1989:60). The low capabilities of poor individuals (low nutritional status, hazardous living and working conditions, inability to afford to adequately treat illnesses) mean that ill-health shocks are more often repeated for poor individuals (Goudge and Govender, 2000) and they take longer to recover from.

Contrastingly, in India, workers employed in the formal (especially public) sector are adequately covered by legal provisions, but they constitute only a minority of the labour force. Over 90 per cent of the total workforce is in the informal sector, including 99 per cent of those involved in agriculture and related occupations. These workers have always been exposed to an open market unprotected either by labour legislation or by the state administrative machinery. Their employment and conditions of work are conditioned purely by supply and demand. In a labour surplus market, they are forced to accept the most exploitative terms of employment. The wages of unskilled and semi-skilled workers are far below fixed minimum wages despite the 1948 Minimum Wages Act. The provisions of the 200 or more labour laws enacted by central and state governments are only paper commitments for such workers.

Apart from the above reviews and observations, one can pinpoint the understanding of the pathologies of informal sector as specified by Sinha (2004). To him the Indian labour market is characterized by the following features:

- The predominance of the informal economy, which accounts for over 90 per cent of the workforce.
- A high proportion of self-employed and part-time workers.
- The virtual absence of unemployment benefit and other social wages.
- The phenomenon of 'the working poor', whereby official unemployment rates (5 per cent) are artificially low and many people work for an extremely low income, as shown by the high rates of poverty.
- High rates of open unemployment among the educated population.
- Large numbers of working people earning insecure incomes, e.g. those involved in casual labour.
- The importance of social background (including gender, kinship, caste, and tribe) in determining access to

employment and income from employment, particularly in the informal sector.

- The prevalence of socially unacceptable forms of employment e.g. bonded labour and child labour.
- A gender bias in education and other human development indicators, leading to its adverse implications for women in the labour market.
- Migrant labour (both within the rural sector and from the rural areas to the towns), often seasonal, and relating both to push and pull factors.

Government approaches and programmes have focused mainly on livelihood issues and slum improvement. Although urban development, including urban poverty alleviation is a state subject, the central government plays a significant role by providing policy support as well as central funding in priority areas. More recent programmes have depended on additional central assistance (ACA) for implementation. Until 2009, the M/o HUPA ran four major programmes targeted at urban poverty reduction and improving access of the urban poor to basic services. These include: (i) Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY); (ii) Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP) under JNNURM; (iii) Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programme (IHSDP), also under JNNURM; and (iv) Programmes of housing and sanitation. In 2009 with the President's announcement, the new scheme of Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY), the M/o HUPA evolved the scheme to achieve the goal of a slum-free India with a focus on reforms, the key reform being property rights to slum-dwellers. In addition to these, other government schemes, such as Targeted Public Distribution System (T-PDS) and the Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDS) also focus on the urban poor within the ambit of the scheme.

DEMOGRAPHIC FEATURES AND URBAN POVERTY IN INDIA AND UTTAR PRADESH

As per 2001 census report the slum population of India was 42.6 million, which constitute 15 per cent of the total urban population of the country. Only 12.7 percent of total Indian towns have reported slum. As per the data 11.2 million of the total slum population of the country is in Maharashtra followed by Andhra Pradesh 5.2, Uttar Pradesh 4.4 and West Bengal 4.1 million what is India's performance on poverty? Although systematic efforts have been made to alleviate poverty over the past six decades, and poverty incidence declined from about 55% in 1973-74 to 27.5 % in 2004-05, the number of the poor has remained more or less same, owing to population growth, persistence of poverty and poverty dynamics. As the Eleventh Plan notes, poverty remains high and the rate of decline has not accelerated along with growth in GDP: 'because the population has also grown, the absolute number of poor people has declined only marginally, from 320 million in 1993-94 to 302 million in 2004-05' (Planning Commission, 2008).

Being poor can be described as follows (IBRD, 2000): 'To be hungry, to lack shelter and clothing, to be sick and not cared for, to be illiterate and not schooled. [...] Poor people are particularly vulnerable to adverse events outside their control. They are often treated badly by institutions of the state and society and excluded from voice and power in those institutions.' Chronic poverty describes people (individuals, households, social groups, geographical areas and territories) who are poor for significant periods of their lives, who may pass their poverty on to their children and for whom finding exit routes from poverty is difficult. Large proportions of those who are poor in India are stuck in poverty or are chronically poor. The very size of problem, combined with the fact that many of them will remain poor over time, makes

this the most important development issue facing the nation.

The new framework of inclusion apparently builds on ideas about urban poverty from earlier regimes and perhaps even from other frameworks. Official definitions of poverty reveal two, almost contradictory, trends. On the one hand, definitional lines and contours are drawn through an expanded use of individuating technologies such as poverty line measurements and headcount ratios, UID systems and biometrics, all of which apprehend poverty as an objective, empirical attribute of discrete subjects. On the other hand, there is a broadening of the definitional scope of poverty to encompass conditions of poor infrastructure and services, suggesting a collective, experiential, spatial phenomenon. The discussion of urban poverty in the HPEC report is a good example of this. It begins with Planning Commission statistics that present a decline in the incidence of urban poverty in headcount ratio terms, and goes on to argue that “individual poverty can be overcome more easily, but an environment of poor access to basic services, public health, and other inputs into human development is harder to change. The latter perpetuates individual poverty.” (HPEC 2011: 17).

The reframing of urban poverty as a function of housing and basic services is, thus, part of what scholars refer to as the “financialisation” of cities. This term refers to the overarching determinism of financial disciplines over the tools and technologies of everyday urban policymaking and governance. All elements of the urban thereby become part of the problematic of a radically enhanced demand for infrastructure, bringing governments to comply with the ratings protocols of global capital markets, and inscribing new forms of order – legalized, formalized, and commodified – onto the urban social. Financialisation, in this sense, refers not so much to volumes of market finance or scales of investment, but to new government mentalities, and thus, to a new politics of urban governance. Within this paradigm, the problem of urban poverty is more or less entirely subsumed into the problem of slums – spatial units of concentrated poverty, the targets of urban community development in post- Independence India. Provision of housing and basic services, in pursuit of the goal of slum-free cities, is then framed as the touchstone of “inclusive” urban development, signalling at once continuity and rupture with past regimes of development (see Coelho & Maringanti; 2012).

Units and Workers in Manufacturing and Repair Activities in the Unorganized Sector (in millions)

Table 1

Source			Units			Workers			
			Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	
Population Census, 1971	I	Primary Census abstract	-	-	-	4.8	1.6	6.4	
	1	Establishment Tables	a	1.69	0.39	2.08	2.93	0.87	3.80
			B	2.15	1.04	3.19	3.57	2.11	5.68
			c	2.23	1.16	3.39	4.20	3.00	7.20
Population Census 1981	I	Primary Census abstract	-	-	-	5.5	2.4	7.9	
	II	Economic Census 1981	A	3.28	1.36	4.65	5.70	2.40	8.11
			B	3.67	1.91	5.58	6.60	3.97	10.57
			C	3.83	2.14	5.97	9.86	10.23	20.10
Primary Census 1991	1	Primary Census	-	-	-	4.8	2.00	6.8	
	II	Economic Census	A	2.78	1.02	3.80	5.08	1.93	7.01
			C	3.43	1.92	5.35	11.01	10.81	21.82

National Sample Survey	14 th Round 1958-59		10.83	2.17	13.00	12.63	4.21	16.84
	23 rd Round 1968-69		6.57	2.00	8.57	9.99	3.93	13.92
	29 th Round 1974-75		6.49	2.32	8.81	10.27	4.64	14.91
	33 rd Round 1984-85	A	5.72	1.45	7.17	9.22	2.40	11.62
		B	6.23	1.91	8.13	10.62	3.78	14.42
	40 th Round 1984-85	A	13.44	3.65	17.09	21.91	5.32	27.23
		B	14.46	4.78	19.24	24.27	7.97	32.25
	45 th Round 1989-90	A	11.28	2.82	13.10	19.53	4.98	24.51
		B	12.01	3.71	15.79	21.70	7.91	29.61

Notes

- The all India figure for the year 1991 from the Population Census include the estimated value for Jammu and Kashmir where the Census could not be conducted. The same method has been used in the case of the Census estimate of 1981 for Assam.
- The figures within brackets for 1981 include marginal workers, the estimates of which are not yet available for 1991. The 1961 and 1971 census did not canvass the concept of main and marginal workers.
- Economic Census (1980 and 1990) based estimates (a), (b) and (c) are roughly comparable with the corresponding figures from the Establishment Tables of 1970. The figures for Own Account Enterprises, may be treated at par with the Household Industries and their figures are given in (a). The estimate (b) is obtained by taking the units with less than six workers and estimate (c) is for units with less than 10 workers.
- Two estimates have been obtained from the NSS data. The estimate (a) include only the "own account enterprises" and may therefore be conceptually comparable with that of household industries. The estimate (b) has been obtained by adding the figures of own account enterprises with those of non-directory units to make it comparable with estimate (b) from Establishment Tables.

Average Annual Growth Rate by State between 1999-2000 and 2004-05

Table 2

State	Estimated Number of Informal Sector Worker Per Thousand Population		Share of Informal Sector Workers to Total (in Percent)		Growth Rate (%)
	1999-00	2004-05	1999-00	2004-05	
Andhra Pradesh	420	443	88.45	88.28	1.01
Assam	267	326	76.70	84.41	7.17
Bihar*	313	315	93.71	93.59	1.53
Gujarat	380	386	85.06	82.83	2.32
Haryana	279	334	82.44	83.45	6.82
Himachal Pradesh	437	438	88.47	83.66	2.85
J&K	368	322	87.69	81.65	-2.87

Karnataka	378	424	84.51	86.58	2.88
Kerala	258	250	67.56	63.40	1.98
Madhya Pradesh*	384	398	90.47	89.24	2.52
Maharashtra	344	380	81.51	82.00	3.05
Orissa	362	393	89.62	90.08	3.25
Punjab	331	355	85.60	85.23	3.68
Rajasthan	373	393	91.04	91.16	5.51
Tamil Nadu	381	391	81.85	80.76	0.39
Uttar Pradesh*	306	338	90.95	92.20	3.91
West Bengal	312	327	86.79	85.42	3.65
Other North Eastern states	314	346	85.13	83.72	5.83
Other states & UTs	197	210	60.39	60.85	1.46
Total	341	362	86.36	86.32	2.88

Source: NSSO 55th (1999-2000) and 61st (2004-05) Round Survey on Employment-Unemployment.

Above table indicates the distribution of estimated number of informal sector workers per thousand populations and share of informal sector workers to total workforce across states. In Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh the estimated number of informal sector workers per thousand populations was highest in descending order. But both in 1999-00 and 2004-05 the share informal sector worker was highest in Bihar followed by Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Orissa. The mentioned four states are very poor in comparison to others states of India. The incidence of poverty or the percentage of poor living below poverty line in these states much above the national average. It seems there is a positive correlation between poverty and informal sector. The estimated correlation coefficient between percentage of population below poverty line and share of informal sector workers to total workers by state is .47 in 2004-05. Between the study period the growth rate of informal sector workers in these poor states is more than national average annual growth rate (2.88 percent) except Bihar (1.53 percent). There is no clear pattern among the developed states in the share of informal sector workers. Except Gujarat in other developed states i.e. Haryana, Maharashtra and Punjab the share of informal sector workers to total workers increased between 1999-00 and 2004-05 whereas in Gujarat the share decreased from 85.06 to 82.83 percent in the respective time period. In Kerala the share of informal sector workers is the lowest among all states both in 1999-00 at 67.56 percent and it further declined to 63.40 percent in 2004-05. Highest growth rate in informal sector workers is record in Assam (7.17 percent), Haryana (6.82 percent), Other North Eastern states (5.83 percent) and Rajasthan (5.51 percent).

Estimated Number of Informal Workers, Percentage share of Informal Workers to Total Workers and Average Annual Growth Rate by Industry Group between 1999-2000 and 2004-05

Table 3

Industry Group	Estimated Number of Informal Worker (in Millions)		Share of Informal Workers to Total (in Percent)		Growth Rate (%)
	1999-00	2004-05	1999-00	2004-05	
Agriculture	234.79	256.07	98.79	98.89	1.75
Mining	1.56	1.78	71.75	67.39	2.68
Manufactur	36.85	49.30	83.65	88.38	5.99

ing					
Electricity	0.21	0.24	18.75	18.72	2.74
construction	16.90	25.32	96.40	97.33	8.42
Trade	35.41	42.54	96.69	98.11	3.74
Hotels	4.35	5.80	94.30	95.02	5.89
Transport	11.44	15.28	78.30	82.70	5.95
Finance	0.63	1.21	27.80	39.24	14.15
Real estate	2.24	3.73	83.73	80.09	10.75
Administration	1.60	1.19	15.27	13.46	-5.75
Education	3.24	5.29	38.22	46.28	10.32
Health	1.50	2.18	52.51	58.80	7.79
Community	9.28	7.97	95.15	94.99	-3.01
Household & Extra	1.74	4.72	93.86	99.23	22.08
Total	361.74	422.61	91.17	92.38	3.16

Source: NSSO 55th (1999-2000) and 61st (2004-05) Round Survey on Employment-Unemployment.

Above Table indicates around 61 percent of informal workers are from agricultural sector and within the agriculture the share of informal sector to total workers is 98.89 percent in 2004-05. Household and extra activities industry group's share of informal workers to total workers (99.23 percent in 2004-05) is more than agriculture but the size is quite less in comparison to other industry group. Next to agriculture other industry groups whose share of informal workers to total workers is more than 90 percent are Trade (98.11 percent), Construction (97.33 percent), Hotels & restaurant (95.02 percent) and community activities (94.99 percent) in 2004-05. In the informal sector workers next to agriculture sector maximum number of workers worked in Trade sector but in the case of informal workers manufacturing industry group came after agricultural with 49.30 million and the 42.54 million in Trade in 2004-05. The growth rate of informal workers by industry group shows that highest growth rate was recorded at 22.08 percent in the household and extra activities industry groups between 1999-00 and 2004-05. Other industry groups where more than 10 percent growth rate of informal workers taken place between the study period are Finance (14.15 percent), Real estate (10.75 percent) and Education (10.32 percent). Significant growth rate of informal sector recorded in Construction, Manufacturing, Hotel and Transport industry groups.

The labor contribution in the economic activities is generally seen from two main dimensions: (i) population share in workers, their nature and type of participation, and (ii) number of jobs/positions in the enterprises. The estimates of workforce and jobs in unorganized sector may be worked out from workforce participation rates (WPRs) of NSSO Employment Unemployment Surveys (EUS) and population estimates from the Population Census, separately for rural and urban areas and also by gender. Once the industry-group wise total workforce is estimated by using workforce participation rates (WPRs) from EUS, the workforce is divided between organized (comprising public sector and private organized sector) and unorganized sectors. The total labour input and the share of organized sector is presented as follows:

Estimated Workforce and Number of Jobs from the 61st Round of EUS Adjusted for Census Projected Population for the Year 2004-05 (in millions)

Table 4

Items	61st Round –EUS (2004-05)					Final Estimates After Upward Correction as Per RGI-Population
	Rural Male	Rural Female	Urban Male	Urban Female	Total	
Usual status worker as per NSS definition ⁸	202	116	71	20	408	456
Labour Input (jobs)	263	142	75	21	500	556
Jobs, <i>minus</i> , workers	62	25	4	1	92	100 (22%)

Share of Labour Input in unorganized Sector (%)

Table 5

Tabulation Category/Description	Share of Unorganized Sector (2004-05)
A: Agriculture and forestry	99.9
B: Fishing	98.7
C: Mining	64.4
D: Manufacturing	87.7
E: Electricity, Gas, Water supply	12.4
F: Construction	92.4
G: Wholesale and Retail Trade,	98.3
H: Hotel & Restaurants	96.7
I: Transport, Storage & Communication	82.2

ABOUT UTTAR PRADESH

The state of Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) has a population of approximately 166.2 million, which accounts for nearly 16 percent of India's total population (2001 Census). Around 21 percent of the population (34 million) is living in urban areas and urban areas are growing faster than rural areas. It is estimated that by 2016, almost 30 percent³ of the population would be urban. Further, thirty-one percent, or 11 million people, are estimated to be living in poverty in urban Uttar Pradesh, which is the largest number of urban poor in a single state (Agarwal et al., 2006)

Demographically, U.P. is one of the least advanced states of the country. When comparing health indicators in UP to national averages, UP is often much worse off; total fertility rate (TFR) of 3.8 as compared to the country average of 2.7 (NFHS-3)⁵; birth rate of 30.1 as against the national average of 23.5 (SRS 2007)⁶; infant mortality rate (SRS 2007) of 71 as compared to the nationwide 57. Though the urban average for these indicators suggests that urban dwellers are better off than their rural counterparts, urban averages often fail to elucidate differences that exist within the urban population, namely the inequalities between the urban poor and non-poor. NFHS-3 indicates large disparity between the urban poor and urban non-poor. With low contraceptive use (poor – 36 percent, non-poor - 56.5 percent) and high unmet need (poor – 19, non-poor – 6.7 percent), the urban poor of UP have high TFR (3.9) compared to non-poor (2.3).

Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) is one of the largest and most backward states in India with a diverse composition. U.P. has suffered from regional disparities and inequality despite many prime ministers representing the state in Parliament. Even more than six decades after independence, some of the regions of this state are very backward and the abode of the largest proportion of poor in the country. The challenges rose by intra-regional disparities and their compounding implications on living conditions and governance are enormous. This exercise is intended to identify the dimensions of intra-regional disparities, inequality and deprivation in poor households of the state.

Intra-Regional Distribution of Coefficient of Variations of Per Capita Income among the Districts of Uttar Pradesh

Table 6

Regions	TE 1993-94	TE 2003-04
Western	0.658922	0.351971
Central	0.260658	0.560746
Bundelkhand	0.503084	0.26898
Eastern	0.737584	0.445788
Uttar Pradesh	0.531616	0.406104

Source: Based on analysis by D. M. Diwakar (2009).

Division level distribution of rural poverty suggests that Vindhyachal had the highest degree of poverty (54%) followed by Azamgarh (51.45%), Basti (40.65%) and Bareilly (40.01%). Poverty ranging from 30% to 40% was found in Gorakhpur, Allahabad, and Devipatan. Between 20% and 30% poverty was seen in Lucknow, Kanpur, Faizabad, Chitrakootdham and Varanasi and below 20% but above 10% in Saharanpur, Moradabad, and Agra. The distribution was below 10% in Meerut and Jhansi divisions. Estimates of urban poverty in divisions suggest the highest poverty was in Azamgarh (78.4%) and Vindhyachal (77.7%). Divisions having 60% and above poverty were Bareilly, Allahabad, Devipatan, Basti and Gorakhpur, between 50% and 60% were Lucknow, Kanpur, Chitrakootdham, Faizabad and Varanasi, between 40% and 50% were Agra and Moradabad, followed by Saharanpur (39.3%), and the lowest was Jhansi (17.1%).

Estimates suggest four districts experience acute rural poverty, namely, Sonbhadra (67.38%), Kaushambi (67.13%) Shahjahanpur (65.44%) and Mirzapur (63.49%). Between the range of 50% and 60% were Azamgarh, Deoria, Sant Kabir Nagar, and Basti. The seven districts between 40% and 50% were Balia, Mau, Kushinagar, Faizabad, Etawah, Rae Bareilly, and Badayun, and between 30% and 40% were Chandoli, Gonda, Balrampur, Chitrakootdham, Auraiya, Farukhabad, Sitapur and Pilibhit. The 20 districts in the range of 20% to 30% were Sant Ravidasnagar, Varanasi, Gorakhpur, Maharajganj, Behraich, Sultanpur, Ambedkarnagar, Allahabad, Fatehpur, Banda, Mahoba, Hardoi, Unnao, Khiri, Etah, Firozabad, Hathras, Aligarh, Kanno and Bijnor. The 19 districts between 10% and 20% were Gazipur, Jaunpur, Siddharthnagar, Shrivasti, Pratapgarh, Barabanki, Hamirpur, Kanpur Nagar, Kanpur Dehat, Lucknow, Bareilly, Agra, Bulandshahar, Meerut, JP Nagar, Rampur, Moradabad, Mujaffarnagar and Saharanpur. The cluster of eight districts up to 10% poverty included Lalitpur, Jhansi, Jalaun, Mainpuri, Mathura, Gautambuddhanagar, Gaziabad and Bagpat. Identifying districts for poverty alleviation need to be prioritized accordingly and special packages designed according to the intensity of poverty. Urban poverty in six districts was in the range of 80% and above, while in seven it was in the range of 70% to 80%. In 16 districts it was between 60% and 70%, in 12 districts between 50% and 60%, in 14 districts between 40% and 50%, and in 10 districts between 30% and 40%. Five districts were below the 30% level. Thus, poverty at the division and district level is much higher than the aggregate level (Diwakar; 2009).

It is to be emphasized that of all the states in India, Uttar Pradesh has the highest rate of out-migration. Upon their return, these migrants risk spreading the epidemic from high prevalence states and cities to their home district. According to a mapping exercise carried out in Uttar Pradesh, the state has 456 in-migrant sites with a population of 58,909, and 319 out migrant sites with a population of 47,406. In Allahabad, according to a mapping study by TNS Mode for Care India and NGO partner Lok Smriti Seva Sansthan, there are 14 migrant sites with a total population of 7,150.

ABOUT ALLAHABAD CITY

Allahabad (25°28' N latitude, 81°54' E longitude; 98 masl), founded by Moghul Emperor Akbar in the year 1575 AD by the name of 'Illahabas', is the modern Allahabad to today, and a typical third tier city of north India. It is today an important city where history, culture and religion create a magical confluence, much like the sacred rivers that caress this blessed land. The city is located in alluvial plains of Rivers Ganga and Yamuna. The climate of Allahabad is characterised by a long and hot summer, a fairly pleasant monsoon and the winters. The winter season usually extends from mid-November to February and is followed by the summer which continues till about the middle of June. The southwest monsoon then ushers in the rainy season which lasts till the end of September. October and the first half of November constitutes the post-monsoon season. The railway station is an important junction of the Indian Railways. Spread over an area of approximately 67 km, Allahabad is an important centre of education and business, and one of the least industrialized and least polluted cities in east Uttar Pradesh (UP).

Allahabad is well connected with other parts of the country by rail and road networks. Existing NH-2 (Grand Trunk Road) divides the city into two parts. NH-27 provides a direct link with Madhya Pradesh. This corridor has a heavy vehicular traffic because it serves as a passage for the movement of cement, grains and pulses to Lucknow, Kanpur and several parts of UP. In the northern part of the city, Pratapgarh Road (SH) provides connectivity to Lucknow and Rae Bareilly.

The city lies on Delhi-Calcutta rail route of Eastern Railways and has direct rail connections with important cities viz. Kolkata, Delhi, Patna, Guwahati, Chennai, Mumbai, Gwalior, Meerut, Lucknow, Kanpur and Varanasi. There is no air link to Allahabad. The nearest airports are Varanasi (147 km) and Lucknow (210 km).

Allahabad district is divided into eight Tehsils named as Sadar, Karchhana, Phulpur, Bara, Koraon, Meja, Soraon and Handia. Tehsils are divided into Development Blocks. There are twenty development blocks. Kaudihaar, Holagarh, Mauaima, Soraon are the development blocks in the Soraon tehsil, Bahria, Phulpur, Bahadurpur are the development blocks in the Phulpur Tehsil, Pratappur, Saidabad, Dhanupur, Handia are the development blocks in the Handia tehsil, Jasra, Shankargarh are the development block of Bara tehsil, Chaka, Karchhana, kaundhiyara are the development block in the Karchhana Tehsil, Uruwa, Meja, Manda are the development block in the Meja tehsil and Koraon is the development block in the Koraon tehsil.

According to a separate report by the Registrar General of India, the total number of in-migrants in Allahabad district is 696,243. Among them, 48,259 are males and 647,984 are females. Rural areas contain 643,902 migrant, while 52,341 reside in urban areas. The major destinations of out-migrants from the district are Jharkhand, West Bengal, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Punjab, Delhi, Assam, and Rajasthan. There is also a large amount of movement between Allahabad and other districts of UP state, as well as between Allahabad and Nepal. Allahabad's mobile population is largely composed of groups such as seasonal migrants, truck drivers, and traveling workers, as well as cross-border migrant laborers,

professionals, and itinerant traders.

Along with the above cited issues and flux population, Allahabad city carries following crucial socio-demographic features as mentioned below:

- The population of Allahabad is growing at a constant rate;
- The sex ratio in the city is declining every year and is much lower than the State average. One of the reasons might be the in-migration trend but this is a point of concern;
- The city attracts a lot of in-migrants, largely for the purpose of education. The migrant population, though will be floating in nature, is likely to increase the demand for housing. The people coming in for settling in the city and service are likely to increase demand in the EWS/ LIG sections of housing. If not planned, increase in slum settlements/ population and the unplanned growth shall increase;
- The abnormally high density within the inner city has led to unhygienic living conditions and is a potential health hazard. The low density in the remaining part of the town has led to urban sprawl thus increasing the distribution network of the urban services;
- The positive feature of Allahabad is that large parcels of vacant lands are available and currently the densities are low, except for the core of old city.
- Land availability is not in question, but affordability definitely is;
- The growth in population is also likely to stress already stressed public transport and will have impact on other services, hence planned efforts are required to guide the growth in right direction;
- The literacy data for the city indicates bias against the fairer sex, when even though it has 80% literates (which is highest compared to other KAVAL cities), the male-female gap is 11%; i.e. 11% more males are educated compared to the females. Overall efforts have to be made stressing on education of the female child;
- The annual *Kumbh mela* is held, when a huge influx of people is expected so lots of arrangements need to be made. This is the time when people from rural areas in vicinity of the city travel here in search of work and many of them tend to settle down. This is the time when new slums mushroom.
- A large chunk of workforce categorized as non-workers indicates poor economic condition of the city and this is a major point of concern;

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The Census of India (GoI) 2001 has considered the city of Allahabad in three regions namely the Municipal Corporation of Allahabad (MCA), the city outer growth (OT) and the Allahabad Cantonment (CB). The municipal area of the city, which is approximately 82 km², has a population of 975,393 (JICA report⁷ however quotes it at 1.1 million) and is divided into 70 wards for administrative convenience. The continuum of urban development in the municipal limits is fragmented by the interception of multiple cantonment areas. The CB area has 7 wards and supports a population of 24,137 persons. Apart from these areas; the city is bound on three sides by Ganga and Yamuna and its growth spills across the river

by the virtue of transport connectivity of bridges to the Phaphamau area to north, Jhusi to east and Naini to south.

Continuous growth westwards is limited by the presence of a part of cantonment. These areas are considered as the outer growth areas and consist of 17 wards. Therefore including the CB area, the city has 87 wards and a population of 1,018,092. If taken alone the city has a population of 975,393 persons and is divided into 80 wards (till late, there were only 70 wards). Also, due to its religious sanctity and importance, there is a large influx of tourists for pilgrimage and performance of last rites.

Although Allahabad is only the fifth largest district in Uttar Pradesh, it is the most populous. It is often called the second capital of Uttar Pradesh, as the headquarters of several important judicial and administrative offices are located there. Administratively, the district is divided into 20 development blocks, 12 towns, 1,425 village panchayats, and 3,064 villages. Allahabad city is one of the largest commercial centers in the state. It is also one of the most prominent industrial towns, with 18 medium and large industrial units, and more than 3,000 small scale industries operating there. The Third All India Census for Small Scale Industries shows that there are more than 10,000 unregistered small scale industry units in the district, employing thousands of people. The major industries that have units in Allahabad are ITI Naini, Raymonds Synthetics-Karchana, Hindustan Cables-Naini, Triveni Sheet Glass Ltd-Naini, IFFCO-Phulpur, and GEEP industries.

According to the 2001 census, Allahabad's total population is 49.41 lakhs, of which 26.26 are male and 23.15 are female. The district accounts for 2.97 percent of the state's total population and has a higher population density (911) than the state average (689). While one in four people living in Allahabad reside in an urban area, the state average is one in five. More than four-fifths of the district's population is Hindu and about one-eighth are Muslim. Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) constitute 21.66 percent of the population. Between 1991 and 2001 the district's growth rate (26.72%) was slightly higher than the state average (25.80%). The district's sex ratio of 882 females per 1,000 males is lower than the state level (898 per 1,000). Allahabad's child sex ratio in the zero to six age group is higher (936 females per 1,000 males) than the state average (914). The district's literacy rate is also slightly higher than the state average.

POPULATION DENSITY

Overall the city of Allahabad is an averagely populated city barring few wards of the old city. The following table depicts the current status of population densities across the city: the maximum number of wards (41) have a density less than 200 persons per hectare (pph) followed by 27 wards where density ranges between 200 and 400 pph; 6 wards have populations between 400 and 600 pph while it is only 6 wards where the density crosses 600 pph. Muthhigang Part I is one ward where the density of 1253 pph is the maximum in the city

Table 7

Density	No. of Wards	Ward Reference (No.)
< 200 pph	41	1,2,3,6,7,8,9,10,11,13,14,17,18,19,20,21,22,26,27,28,29,31,32,33,36,38,40,42,44,45,46,47,48,49,50,52,54,56,59, 67,76
200 – 400 pph	27	4,5,12,15,16,24,25,30,34,35,37,39,43,51,53,55,58,62,63,64,65,66,68,69,70,71,72
400 – 600 pph	6	23,41,73,75,77,80
>600 pph	6	57,60,61,74,78,79

Source: Analysis of data from DUDA

HEALTH SERVICES

Health services in Allahabad city are mainly provided by the Public sector, including the Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare, and the Private sector (hospitals, nursing homes, and clinics). In addition, charitable hospitals provide subsidized health services to the poor. Additionally, there are Central Government health facilities, which include Railways hospital, ESI hospital/dispensaries and Cantonment hospitals/dispensaries. Primary health care is provided by first tier centres including 12 urban health posts, 3 urban Family Welfare Centers, and 30 dispensaries. Though public health infrastructure is fairly extensive, the private sector is an important player in the city. There are 1421 health practitioners, 272 Maternity /Nursing Homes, 6 Certified Abortion Providers and 10 Certified NSV/DMPA Providers. Various indigenous systems of medicine health facilities such as Ayurvedic, Unani and Homoeopathic are also available. Allahabad city also has many charitable health care providers offering services.

LITERACY RATE

The city of Allahabad has always been known for the presence of premier educational institutes and the trend of education seems to reflect in the literacy rate as well. The Census of India, 2001 records 80.9% of city population to be literate, which is the highest in the region (*Table 6*); the prevailing gender gap however is an issue of concern. There is an overall improvement from the past decade (1991) when the literacy rate in the city has been 62.8%⁹. Male population has a higher literacy level with 70% being reported as literate and only 53.7% of females reported as literates. It is shared that the lack of livelihood opportunities in the rural areas of Allahabad district has driven many families to move to Allahabad city. Rural migrants live in overcrowded slums with poor hygiene and sanitation, and they experience the many social problems and vulnerabilities associated with extreme urban poverty (Kantor and Nair 2003).

Decadal Growth of Population

Table 8

Year	Uttar Pradesh	Growth Rate	Allahabad	Growth Rate
1951	63200000	--	332,295	--
1961	73800000	16.77%	430,730	29.62%
1971	88300000	19.65%	513,036	19.11%
1981	110900000	25.59%	650,070	26.71%
1991	32000000	19.03%	844,546	29.92%
2001	166200000	25.91%	1,081,622	28.07%
2011	--	--	1,216,719	12%

Source: Census of India, 2001 & JICA Report

MIGRATION STATUS

According to a separate report by the Registrar General of India, the total number of in-migrants in Allahabad district is 696,243. Among them, 48,259 are males and 647,984 are females. Rural areas contain 643,902 migrant, while 52,341 reside in urban areas. The major destinations of out-migrants from the district are Jharkhand, West Bengal, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Punjab, Delhi, Assam, and Rajasthan. There is also a large amount of movement between Allahabad and other districts of UP state, as well as between Allahabad and Nepal. Allahabad's mobile population is largely composed of groups such as seasonal migrants, truck drivers, and traveling workers, as well as cross-border migrant laborers,

professionals, and itinerant traders.

The UNICEF study showed that the highest level of male permanent migration in Allahabad is from Bahadurpur and Uruwa blocks. The Shankargarh block has the highest number of truck drivers, as there are a large number of stone and silica sand quarries in the area. These truck drivers travel both short and long distances and some are reported to engage in high-risk behaviors (for details see; Allahabad District Aids Prevention And Control Unit; Uttar Pradesh State Aids Control Society, Lucknow, April 2009).

Migration in Allahabad

Table 9

<i>Rural/Urban</i>	<i>Persons</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>
Total	41,495	29,470	12,025
Rural	23,367	17,490	5,877
Urban	12,065	7,287	4,778

Source: Census of India 2001

One of the principal reasons for rural-urban migration is the quest for better education. This is followed by employment seekers and people who have moved with their households (*Table 8*). 66% of the migrant population is from rural areas. Of these, a large chunk (43%) comes to the city for the purpose higher education. The other reason where the communities from the two areas differ is marriage: 16% and 8% of population in urban and rural areas is migrating for matrimony.

Table 10: Migration in Allahabad with Reasons for Migration

Reason for Migration	M/F	Total	Rural	Urban
Work/employment	Persons	6762	4259	2216
	Male	5936	3812	1908
	Females	826	447	308
Business	Persons	649	387	223
	Male	525	323	170
	Females	124	64	53
Education	Persons	14344	10188	3613
	Male	13420	9761	3129
	Females	924	427	484
Marriage	Persons	3899	1863	1897
	Male	137	48	84
	Female	3762	1815	1813
Moved after birth	Persons	278	125	145
	Male	138	62	72
	Females	140	63	73
Moved with households	Persons	7403	4326	2770
	Male	3114	1854	1115
	Females	4289	2472	1655
Others	Persons	8160	2219	1201
	Male	6200	1630	809
	Females	1960	589	392
Total		41495	2367	12065

Source: Census of India 2001

SEWERAGE AND SANITATION

Sewerage system of Allahabad is very poor. The city as a whole does not have sewerage system. Wherever exists, it is not an exclusive sewerage system. It is a combined wastewater and storm water collection system. The collection system is neither complete nor efficient. It exists only in the central core of Allahabad city (sewerage district A & D). Most of the existing sewers are old brick sewers which have outlived their design life. The structural condition of sewers in most stretches is poor. Hydraulic capacities are insufficient even for the present flows. All existing lines have heavy silt depositions. Sewers are severely choked due to ingress of solid waste. All lines have large variations in constructed slopes. Due to inadequacies of the existing system, as described above, most of the city's wastewater ends up in surface drains which convey it to Ganga/ Yamuna rivers. Unlined drains are found choked by garbage and solid wastes like polythene, papers, wrappers etc. Wastewater flowing through the unlined drains is producing foul smell in the city due to putrefaction of the organic matter and is polluting the environment. Since the wastewater remains stagnant in the drains for 24 hours, it is good place of breeding for mosquitoes, flies and harmful bacteria and viruses. This may cause unhygienic condition to the extent of epidemic in the city.

ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY

Rapid population growth coupled with poor infrastructure facilities has led to poor environmental quality in the city. The roads/ streets are dirty, littered with used plastic bags, wrappers and other kinds of municipal solid wastes. Local inhabitants are in general, observed to be having the habit of throwing wastes on streets which leads to an ugly and unhygienic environment in the city. During heavy rainfall, these wastes flow into the drains and sewers thereby aggravating the problem of sewer blocking. The poor infrastructure system in the city *viz.*, narrow roads, insufficient parking spaces, erection of electric pole and electric transformers on ROW/ intersections, encroachment on roads etc results in traffic jams and poor environmental situation in the city. Location of bus stands in the old city area and passage of highways give rise several bottlenecks in the city area. The heavy traffic causes rise in temperatures and is responsible for air and noise pollutions. The overall environment of Allahabad city is not good and needs be improved by providing proper infrastructure facilities like separate sewerage and storm water drainage systems, roads and parking places, green parks, tree plantation, efficient solid waste management system, rehabilitation of slum people and an efficient potable water supply system. Major population of the city lives in slum areas where infrastructure facilities are very poor even absent in some areas. Due to shortage of individual and community toilets, people practice open defecation. This adds to poor and unhealthy environment. Sewerage system of the city is very poor. Large untreated sewage is disposed of in the rivers Ganga and Yamuna through *kutchha nallas*, which pollutes the river water. In the areas where sewerage system is absent, the households have connected their wastewater directly in to the open drains which is causing an ugly and unhygienic condition in the city.

Profile of Allahabad City (Municipal limit Area) as on 2011

Table 11

Items	Magnitude
Total Population	1,216,719
Population density	7,419 persons per sq km
Literacy Rate	86.50%

Sex Ratio	858
Total Households	206,784
Total slum population	429,674 (35%)
Total area (in sq km)	164
Total no. of administrative zones	5
Total no. of municipal wards	80

Source: Census of India, 2011 & Allahabad Nagar Nigam, 2011

ISSUES OF URBAN PROBLEMS IN ALLAHABAD CITY

The existing urban setting and growth trends of Allahabad can be classified into three main categories:

- The Old City consisting of Chowk, Ghantaghar, Bans Mandi, Katghar, Kotwali, Gaughat etc. This shall also include certain areas, though not contiguous but with similar character, like Daraganj, Bairhana, and Katra;
- The New City (conceived during British rule and thereafter) – This includes Civil Lines, Mumford Ganj, Ashok Nagar, Cantonment; and
- The OG areas (satellite towns and ribbon developments) along major corridors including Phaphamau, Jhunsi, Naini, Bamrauli, Manauri etc.

The old city is the economic centre of the city. Major arterial roads are wide and suggest little application of Urban Planning in the past but the secondary roads and physical development along these has been fundamentally organic. The characteristic features of the old city are as follows:

- High density;
- Major roads are being used as transport corridors as well as bazaar streets;
- Congestion, dead-slow traffic speed and utter chaos are the definitive features.
- Lack of proper parking lots, haphazard parking on streets, traffic bottlenecks;
- Major concentration of business – at least 70% of retail and wholesale business is conducted in this area;
- Needs major intervention in terms of services and provision of parking lest it will choke itself;
- Major entertainment centres (At least 8-10 Cinema Halls are situated here) are in quite a shabby condition; Encroachment, by in the form of temporary and permanent
- structures, is a major problem;
- The major Trading Zone – Muththiganj lies in this area (proposed for shifting to Transport Nagar;
- Absence of decent commercial structures. The buildings are old and stinking;
- The skyline is greatly dominated by wires of all kinds and specifications. The electricity cables, satellite TV cables, telecom wires, and their respective poles, transformers etc are haphazardly located/ laid without proper planning and consideration of safety aspects;
- Most of the small scale industries like furniture, clothing, sweets, and food materials are situated in this area;

- The hardware market, timber market, and furniture market are mis-appropriately located;
- The Zero Road bus station is a nuisance and creates traffic jams;
- Khusru Bagh, a monument with significant green space is ill-maintained and unsafe for ladies and children.
- The distinguishing characteristics of the new city are as follows:
 - Low density development;
 - Wide roads – major arterial roads are wide (good ROW) with ample space for future widening;
 - Generally well drained. Only a few areas like Allahpur are low lying and are faced with water logging problem;
 - The usual condition of drains and big *nallas* is bad. Major improvement/ augmentation is required;
 - Underground sewer-line is absent and needs be provided;
 - Pedestrian pathway is non-existent in majority of the area;
 - Company Bagh and the cantonment areas – New Cantonment, and Old Cantonment act as green belt but roadside vegetation needs be strengthened;
 - Major educational institutions and offices are located here – Collect orate, Railways office, University, High Court, AG office, ADA, MCA, MNNIT etc;
 - Civil lines and Katra are the two main business areas and are highly specialized. While Civil Lines is hip and posh, Katra is economical yet trendy, mainly catering to students' community;
 - Parking and encroachment is a big problem at all important place;
 - Growth is rapid in terms of construction activities but majority construction is illegal or openly flouting/ defying the norms. Multi-storied constructions of apartments are most popular with private builders;
 - The land prices are abnormally high in the new city, and exceptionally high in the Civil Lines and adjoining areas. The reason is short supply of land within the river area and non availability of well developed and well connected land/ plots in the satellite towns;
 - The streetlights are few, insufficient, and call for a major revival;
 - Unsatisfactory public transportation. Majority of people either rely on personal vehicles or rickshaws;
 - Dependence on personal vehicles is major cause of pollution;
 - The biggest problem is passage of heavy vehicles throughout the city;
 - Improper placing of electric poles and transformers is a constant feature throughout the city;
 - Ill managed parks/ absence of amusement centres;
 - Sangam lies in this area;

- Pollution of rivers is a big problem. A majority of untreated sewage water is directly dumped into the two sacred rivers.

Thus, Allahabad city is marked by unchecked growth of squatter settlements, roughly around 30% of the total population. It has high floating population leading to stress on the city's infrastructure. The urban space is marked by poor rate of provision of facilities, flood susceptibility due to absence of drainage network and large number of low lying localities, deterioration of heritage buildings due to lack of maintenance, disposal of large untreated sewage into river water bodies, unplanned development in residential areas and much more.

The above mentioned issues are the area concerned motivates any researcher to focus on such issues, its historical understanding as well as improvement in lifestyles of population in the urban space.

KEY STAKEHOLDERS ON THE URBAN POVERTY IN ALLAHABAD CITY

Urban centers have a vital role in India's socio-economic transformation and change. Most cities and towns area severely stressed in terms of infrastructure and service availability, and their growth and development is constrained by indifferent implementation of the 74th Constitution Amendment Act (CAA), 1992, and continuation of statutes, systems and procedures that impede the operation of land and housing markets. As this is incompatible with the country's socioeconomic objectives, the Government of India (GoI) launched the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM/ Mission) in 1995 fiscal year. The Mission aims at encouraging cities to initiate steps to bring about improvement in the existing service levels in a financially sustainable manner.

The JNNURM consists of two sub-missions –

- The Urban Infrastructure and Governance; and
- The Basic Services to the Urban Poor.

The Mission believes that in order to make cities work efficiently and equitably, it is essential to –

- Create incentives and support urban reforms at state and city levels;
- Develop appropriate enabling and regulatory frameworks;
- Enhance the credit worthiness of municipalities; and
- Integrate the poor with the service delivery system.

The ever-increasing number of slum dwellers causes tremendous pressure on urban basic services and infrastructure. In order to cope up with massive problems that have emerged as a result of rapid urban growth, it is imperative to draw up a coherent urbanization vision and strategy for implementation of projects aimed towards achieving the outlined vision. The aim of the Mission is to encourage reforms driven, fast track, planned development of identified cities with focus on efficiency in urban infrastructure and service delivery mechanisms, community participation, and accountability of Urban Local Bodies (ULB)/ parastatal agencies towards citizens. The primary objective of the JNNURM is to create productive, efficient, equitable and responsive cities. In line with this objective, the Mission focuses on –

- Integrated development of infrastructure services;
- Securing linkages between asset creation and maintenance for long-run project sustainability;

- Accelerating the flow of investment into urban infrastructure services;
- Planned development of cities including the peri-urban areas, outgrowths (OG), and urban corridors;
- Renewal and redevelopment of inner city areas; and
- Universalisation of urban services so as to ensure their availability to the urban poor.

At Allahabad the various stakeholders responsible for the amelioration of the vulnerable populations in the informal sector and slums are:

ALLAHABAD MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

Under the Municipal Act, road/ street sweeping and drain cleaning are the obligatory responsibilities of the MCA and the solid waste generated in the town shall be collected and removed by the sanitary workers of the Public Health Division. About 2021 permanent and 500 temporary sanitary workers are deployed at Allahabad city. The break-up of the staff available is as follows:

- Health Officers : 2
- Supervisors : 110
- Sanitation Inspector : 11
- Sweepers : 1900 (Permanent); 500 (Part time/ contract)

There are 111 existing CTCs at various locations in the city which are grossly inadequate given the size of slum population calling for open defecation in many places. Salient features of these are identified below:

- 84 CTCs are connected to sewer lines while 27 have individual septic tanks;
- 103 CTCs are operational and 8 un-operational;
- 23 CTCs have no reliable water supply; and
- 30 do not have any electricity supply.

The responsibility of construction of these CTCs is with the MCA and DUDA. MCA directly constructs these through its engineering division while DUDA hires agencies like Sulabh and NEDA for so doing. The operation and maintenance is mainly done through the private contractors hired by either of the agencies or MCA itself in return to this people has to pay user charges.

Department of Medical, Health and Family Welfare

To provide subsidized health services to the poor. They were of the opinion that CMO, and the government hospitals should have regular camps in their places. They should also be provided with health insurance card for free check-up.

Allahabad Jal Sansthan

To them it is the main agency for water supply in the city. The slum settlements are not getting sufficient water to

fulfill their water demand and are therefore made to meet the requirement on their own. Moreover, slum settlements are scattered in the entire city and a separate arrangement of water supply system especially for them cannot be provided. They share that it is not looking after water pipe connections in our areas as we are not legalized. The vulnerable population has to request the local political leader to provide water supply and sewerage assets.

Government Slum Improvement Schemes

The data from the past three years reveals that money for slum improvement has been mainly spent under four schemes namely,

- Slum Improvement Scheme;
- Swaran Jayanti Shahri Rozgar Yojana;
- National Slum Development Program; and
- Valmiki Awas Yojna.

DIFFERENT DUTY BEARERS AND THEIR RESPONSIBILITY

Table 12

Institutions	Key Functions
<i>State Level</i>	
UP Pollution Control Board (UPPCB)	Pollution control and monitoring especially river water quality and regulating industries
Public Works Department (PWD)	Construction of roads main roads and transport infrastructure including construction and maintenance of Government houses and Institutions
State Urban Development Authority (SUDA)	Apex policy-making and monitoring agency for the urban areas of the state. Responsible for providing overall guidance to the District Urban Development Authority (DUDA) for implementation of community development programs
Town and Country Planning Department (TCPD)	Preparation of Master Plans including infrastructure for the state (rural and urban)
UP Jal Nigam (JN)	Water supply and sewerage including design of water supply and sewerage networks. In the last two decades 'pollution control of rivers' has become one of their primary focus areas
UP Avas Vikas Parishad (AVP)	Nodal agency for housing in the state. Additionally involved in planning, designing, construction and development of almost all types of

	urban development projects in the state. Autonomous body generating its own resources through loans from financial institutions
<i>City Level</i>	
Allahabad Jal Sansthan (JS)	Nodal agency for water supply in the city. Key functions include O&M of water supply and sewerage assets. AJS proposes tariffs and collects revenues – however, tariffs need to be approved by the UP Jal Nigam and the State Government)
Allahabad Municipal Corporation (MCA)	Nodal agency for municipal service delivery and O&M. Its key functions include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary Collection of Solid Waste • Maintenance of Storm Water Drains • Maintenance of internal roads • Allotment of Trade Licenses under the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act O&M of internal sewers and community toilets • Management of ghats • Construction of Community Toilets
Allahabad Development Authority (ADA)	Responsible for preparing spatial Master Plans for land use and development of new areas as well as provision of housing and necessary infrastructure
District Urban Development Authority (DUDA)	Implementing agency for plans prepared by SUDA. Responsible for the field work relating to community development – focusing on the development of slum communities, construction of community toilets, assistance in construction of individual household latrines, awareness generation etc.

Source: Rapid Baseline Assessment Allahabad City, CRISIL, 2013

Other Institutions Related to the Cause of the Vulnerable Population are

Allahabad has some civil society organizations like the ‘Allahabad Citizens Committee’ constituted by the Allahabad High Court after a PIL by some citizens following a flood in the year 2000. The monitoring committee meets every month to review condition of civic amenities and accountability of the officials. It is estimated that several hundred NGOs/ CBOs exist in the city. A few NGO’s known in the city and working in the field of environment The CBOs that exist in Allahabad have been constituted by DUDA in slum areas. These have a three-tier structure which comprises of –

- Community Development Societies (CDSs)

- Neighbourhood Committees (NHCs)
- Neighbourhood Groups (NHGs)

The CDSs or Samudai Vikas Samitis comprise 10 or more Neighbourhood Committees (NHCs) representing about 2500 families. These societies or samitis are created among communities to empower women in the decision-making. There are about 30 samitis in Allahabad. Typically, each samiti has 20 members, all of whom are women. Meetings are held every month and proposals for funding are presented to the Municipal Commissioner for possible financial support. These samitis also network with the Health Department of the Municipal Corporations and other urban development organizations. The duties attributable to the samitis include:

- Identification of beneficiaries;
- Preparation of community plans and mobilizing resources; Monitoring of repayment and recovery;
- Liaise with Governmental and non- governmental agencies; and
- Creation of community assets and maintenance of the same.

The NHCs comprise 10-12 Resident Community Volunteers (RCVs) representing about 250 families. They are responsible for identifying the local “problems”, motivating the NHG and developing community-based credit thrift societies. The NHGs comprise of women from 10-40 households with a RCV as its head. They facilitate the processes related to:

- Planning, implementation and monitoring of activities at the cluster level;
- Formation of credit and thrift society; and
- Collection of household data.

At present, there are no Ward Committees functional in Allahabad. Area representatives known as Ward Councilors are elected every 5 years and they represent citizens’ voice. Opinions about the effectiveness of this system vary. People feel that the arrangement is not effective and councilors focus more on activities that further their own goals.

CONCLUSIONS

As is evident, health access is poorer in cities from central and northern regions of the country, indicating poor health infrastructure, services and quality of providers. Health need for women (especially among SCs/STs and other marginalized groups) and adolescents are not prioritized, and services to these groups are almost non-existent. Costs of health services (direct cost, indirect cost and opportunity cost) continue as the single largest barrier to access for urban poor. The urban poor are out of coverage of any social security net.

Education infrastructure is poorer in cities with larger population base and higher urbanization, thus increasing the possibility of marginalizing children of urban poor from education. There is still a huge gap in achieving universal access to education in all cities, impacting the disadvantaged children the most. Million plus cities, which are hub of economic activities, need to improve access of girl children to education. A holistic and integrated approach in response to the specific needs of each area needs to be adopted along with adequate resource back-up.

Keeping in view the broader problems analyzed from the field as well as insecurity in various aspects of living for

the informal sector workers, following suggestions needs urgent attention:

- Urban health should be taken up in mission mode, much on lines of the NRHM, to facilitate programmatic focus, resource commitment and accountability for effectively addressing the health needs of the urban population.
- The states should incorporate initiatives for urban health needs in their Programme Implementation Plan.
- Systematic strengthening of the health department of the Municipal Corporation/Municipality.
- Increasing role of the corporate, private sectors and NGOs for health services to the poor.
- Development of a social security system that is pro-poor and is inclusive of groups like migrant population, socially marginalized groups and also adolescents.
- Effective monitoring and surveillance system for improving the student intake and issue of absenteeism in the government schools along with the compulsory attendance of teachers in the school
- Vigorous community mobilization campaigns need to be initiated in urban slums urging the poor households to send their children to schools. Innovative approaches to increase school enrollment at primary level and retention rate in schools, particularly for girls
- Convergence of health and education with other basic services for achieving synergy.
- Integrated development of infrastructure services.
- Universalisation of urban services so as to ensure their availability to the urban poor.
- Cities are getting spatially fragmented into high quality formal developments and informal areas marked by insecurity and acute deficiencies. Govt. needs to be play a more proactive role to provide for the poor rather than relying on and facilitating the 'Market'.
- Poverty Alleviation requires both attitudinal change and skill development among government and municipal officials. They need to regard poor as their partners, rather than the 'governed'. The role of municipal officials is to facilitate the creation of supportive institutional mechanism at local level. The skills of technical and managerial nature need to be strengthened.
- Need to convert the vast pool of human resources in informal sector into productive assets in such a manner that they become ultimately wealth creators and job providers instead of mere survivors or job seekers through promoting micro and small business entrepreneurship.

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