

Research Study Series
Number 66

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Urban Sector Profile: Rajasthan

Sponsored by
Asian Development Bank, Manila, Philippines
Urban Sector Profile Project
ADB TA No. 2098-IND

National Institute of Urban Affairs
New Delhi, India
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PREFACE

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) has provided a technical assistance (TA) Grant to the Ministry of Urban Affairs and Employment, Government of India, for preparation of an Urban Sector Profile. The primary objectives of the TA are to address the urgent sectoral issues and to guide ADB's future sectoral investment and technical assistance programming in India. The National Institute of Urban Affairs, New Delhi, has been entrusted with the responsibility of coordinating all the activities of the TA.

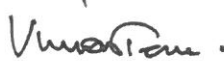
As a part of the Urban Sector Profile Project, State Urban Profiles have been prepared for five states, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu. Each State Profile also focuses on a city which either has significant potential for urban-economic development and/or has acute urban problems which need immediate attention.

The focus of the current urban reforms in India is on improving governance at the state and local levels. The state and city profiles would enable identification of specific needs for reforms as well as areas of strategic interventions. The state and city profiles cover analysis of urbanisation trends and patterns, the legislative and institutional framework for urban development, status of urban infrastructure and services, review of municipal finance and estimates of flow of finances for urban development in the state. These profiles also make an attempt to identify critical areas for urban sector reforms and potential sub-sectors/areas which require further investment and development as well as major strategies for urban development.

The state and city profiles have been prepared with the help of regional institutions and local resource persons. I very much appreciate the cooperation of the regional institutions and contribution made by the resource persons. At the Institute, Dr. Pushpa Pathak, Associate Professor, has coordinated the research work that was undertaken by the regional institutions and local resource persons as well as the preparation of these reports for publication by the Institute staff.

I am grateful to the Ministry of Urban Affairs and Employment, Government of India and the Asian Development Bank, Manila for their support. I hope that these studies will provide useful insights for formulating their state-level interventions for urban development.

April 1998


Vinod K. Tewari
Director

FOREWORD

Rajasthan State Urban Profile and that of Pali City have been prepared by the faculty of the institute under the guidance and supervision of Shri N.K.Verma, IAS formerly Principal Secretary, Urban Development and Housing, Government of Rajasthan, Jaipur and presently Chairman cum Managing Director, Rajasthan State Warehousing Corporation, Jaipur. The National Institute of Urban Affairs, New Delhi provided the financial support for this study. Raj Bala and Neeraj Gupta of the institute have co-ordinated the work of this report and made a presentation in the seminar on Capacity Building for Urban Governance, Bangalore, 3-4 April, 1997. But for their hardwork it would not have been possible for the Institute to complete this study.

Shri Abdul Matin Managing Director, Avas Vikas Limited who has a rich experience in the field of urban development has contributed immensely to the effort through assimilation and analysis of data collected.

Shri B.G. Sharma, Ex-secretary, Public Works Department, presently Senior Honorary Fellow of Institute with his vast experience in the field of infrastructural development and policy formulation has provided invaluable support in further refinement and bringing out the final report.

This report with its consolidated information base on State of Urbanisation in Rajasthan and related aspects is expected to serve as an important document in the preparation of the National Profile on Urbanisation and also for policy formulation and other decisions related to planned development of urban areas of Rajasthan.

I.S. Kavdia
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

For preparation of this report we wish to thank Directorate of Local Bodies, Departments of Urban Development and Housing, Public Health Engineering, Town Planning, Transport , Public Works, Tourism; Rajasthan Housing Board, Rajasthan State Electricity Board, and Regional Office of HUDCO and other agencies who provided valuable information without which this report could not have been possible.

A large number of persons have extended help in making available the requisite data from different sources. We are thankful to all, specially R.K. Sharma, Chief Town Planning (National Capital Region); B.S. Sharma, Addl. Chief Engineer and A.K. Jain, Asstt. Engineer, PHED; S.C. Soni, Supdt. Engineer, Directorate of Local Bodies; Viresh Jhalani, Dy. Town Planner, P.Kapoor, Asstt. Town Planner and Subhash Sharma, Asstt. Town Planner of Department of Town Planning; N.C. Nakra of Regional office, HUDCO and S.C. Vijay, Project Director, Directorate of Local bodies.

Last but not the least, we would like to express gratitude to our colleague and staff of the institute for their support in putting this report together.

Neeraj Gupta

Raj Bala

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AVS	Avas Vikas Sansthan
BOT	Built-Operate-Transfer
BPE	Bureau of Public Enterprises
BT	Bituminous/Black Top
CAA	Constitution Amendment Act
Corpn.	Corporation
CPR	Couple Protection Rate
DLB	Department of Local Bodies
EIP	Environment Improvement Programme
EO	Executive Officer
EWS	Economically Weaker Section
GOR	Government of Rajasthan
HDFC	Housing Development Finance Corporation
HIG	Higher Income Group
HRD	Human Resource Development
HUDCO	Housing and Urban Development Corporation
IDSMT	Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns
IGNP	Indira Gandhi Nahar Pariyojana
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
ITI	Industrial Training Institute
JDA	Jaipur Development Authority
KL	Kilo Litre
L&B	Land and Building
LIC	Life Insurance Corporation
LIG	Lower Income Group
LPCD	Litres Per Capita Per Day
LSG	Local Self Government
MIG	Middle Income Group
MLA	Member of Legislative Assembly
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MP	Member of Parliament
Mt.	Metric tonnes
NEERI	National Environment Engineering Research Institute
NGO	Non-government Organisation

NHB	National Housing Board
NOC	No Objection Certificate
NRI	Non-resident Indian
NRR	Net Reproduction Rate
NRY	Nehru Rozgar Yojana
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
O&M	Operation and Maintenance
OBC	Other Backward Classes
PHC	Primary Health Centre
PHED	Public Health and Engineering Department
PMIUPEP	Prime Ministers Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme
PSU's	Public Sector Undertakings
PWD	Public Works Department
RAS	Rajasthan Administrative Services
RB	Rain Basera
RHB	Rajasthan Housing Board
RIICO	Rajasthan State Industrial Development and Investment Corporation
RPCB	Rajasthan Pollution Control Board
RSEB	Rajasthan State Electricity Board
RSRTC	Rajasthan State Road Transport Corporation
S.E.	Superintending Engineer
SC	Scheduled Caste
SFC	State Finance Commission
SHASU	Scheme of Housing & Shelter Upgradation
SSI	Small Scale Industry
ST	Scheduled Tribe
SUME	Scheme of Urban Micro Enterprises
SUWE	Scheme of Urban Wage Employment
TRYSEM	Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment
UA	Urban Agglomeration
UBSP	Urban Basic Services for Poor
UDH	Urban Development and Housing
UIT	Urban Improvement Trust
ULB	Urban Local Body
ULCAR	Urban Land Ceiling and Regulation Act
UPA	Urban Poverty Alleviation
UTI	Unit Trust of India
WBM	Water Bound Maccadam
X.En.	Executive Engineer

SECTION - I

RAJASTHAN STATE PROFILE

I. TRENDS AND PATTERNS OF URBANISATION

INTRODUCTION

Rajasthan had a population of 44 million as per the 1991 Census of India. It has 32 administrative districts, 100 sub-divisions, 229 tehsils and 237 development blocks. With 342,239 sq. kms. of area, Rajasthan is the second largest state in the country, accounting for over 10 per cent of the total geographical area. It has a 1040 km. long international frontier with Pakistan and is adjoining the states of Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat. About 77 per cent of population resides in rural areas. The population of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes is 17.29 per cent and 12.44 per cent of the total population respectively.

Rajasthan is a large and unusually diverse state, and presents a number of contrasts. Its topography is dominated by the Aravalli hill system which divides the more fertile east from the desert in the west. Over 61 per cent of the state's area, carrying about 40 per cent of its population, lies west of Aravallis in the Thar Desert. The tribal area constitutes 5.85 per cent of state's land mass and 8 per cent of its population. The other remaining area, i.e., 33.04 per cent habituates 52.21 per cent of the total population. Density of the population varies from 84 persons per sq. km. in the desert area to 203 in other areas, the state average being 129.

The western desert area is characterised by extremes in temperature and scanty rainfall, varying from 20 to 40 cms. The geographical diversities of this area have made it most vulnerable to drought and scarcity conditions. However, areas east of Aravallis have comparatively fertile soil and good rainfall, varying from 40 to 80 cms. The state with 10.41 per cent area, 5.2 per cent population and 10.6 per cent of the area under cultivation of the country has barely 1 per cent of the total water resource of the country.

Agriculture is still the main stay of the economy of the state with about two-third of its population being dependent on it. Out of the total geographical area of 342,440 sq. Km., the area under cultivation was around 162,000 sq. Km. in 1993-94. Agriculture is

mostly rain-fed, the irrigated area being about 28 per cent of the net area cultivated while the gross irrigated area is 29 per cent.

Another peculiar feature of the state is its recurring drought and scarcity conditions, the degree and intensity of which varies from year to year.

PLANNED DEVELOPMENT : RETROSPECT

Basic objectives during the planned era have been the attainment of economic self reliance through an increase in the rate of economic growth; raising the living standards of the people; provision of employment opportunities; and provision of basic social services, within the overall framework of economic growth and social justice. Removal of poverty, provision of basic infrastructure facilities and reduction in regional disparities have also been accorded priority in formulating the five year plans.

The efforts of planned era have no doubt resulted in the improvement in the rate of growth of the state, increased agricultural production, increased irrigation and power facilities and the creation of a congenial atmosphere for industrial development. Moreover, the educational and medical and health care facilities have increased many-fold and basic facilities like rural water supply, rural electrification, etc. have been extended substantially.

Looking at the peculiar problems of the state and its resource endowment, basic thrust during the planned era has been on development of irrigation, power and transport sectors and expanding social services like education, medical and health, and drinking water. Even during the eighth five year plan over 80 per cent of the outlay has been spent on these sectors.

Eighth Five Year Plan

The eighth five year plan (1992-97) was preceded by two annual plans, i.e., 1990-91 and 1991-92. The plan emphasised the need to keep up the pace of growth in order to generate adequate employment opportunities, alleviation of poverty and to meet the most essential social needs. Progressive reduction in the rate of growth of population and completion of on-going projects on time to avoid cost and time over-run during the stage of capacity creation and its subsequent utilisation, particularly in irrigation, were priority areas. Emphasis was laid on diversification of the agricultural base with greater thrust on sectors like horticulture, livestock, fisheries, agro-processing, etc.

The eighth plan was a watershed in the history of planned development of the state. The per capita plan outlay was below the all states average till 1994-95, when it jumped to Rs. 557 from the level of Rs. 265 in 1991-92, as against the all states average of Rs. 466 and Rs. 324 for the same period respectively. For the eighth plan, as a whole, the per capita plan outlay works out to Rs. 2614 as against the all states average of Rs. 2101. While there has been a substantial shortfall in the utilisation of outlay in other states, Rajasthan has been able to utilise the entire plan outlay.

During the eighth plan, the national economy witnessed tremendous changes. The year 1991 was a watershed in the economic history of the nation when the new economic policy was launched by the Government of India. The reform process initiated in the country during 1991 has affected all segments of the economy. The reforms include major policy changes such as delicensing of a large number of industries, opening up of various sectors for private investment which were earlier within the exclusive domain of the public sector, changes in the import-export regime, etc. State governments were required to play a major role in catalysing foreign as well as domestic investment in diverse areas.

With this in view, the state government has taken certain innovative measures and policy decisions. The industrial policy and the new mineral policy were brought out in 1994. The road development policy was also announced in 1994.

The industrial policy, 1994 aims at rapid industrialisation of the state through procedural simplification for hassle free entry, speedy clearances, creation of a congenial environment, financial incentives directed to greater exploitation of natural endowments of the state and promotion of specific industries. A revised improved industrial policy with further liberalisation will soon be brought out.

The new mineral policy, 1994 aims at adopting modern technologies for exploiting mineral resources and scientific mining, value additions through processing of mineral based industries, boosting export of minerals, further development of human resources, simplification of rules and procedures, enhancing employment opportunities in the mining sector and achieving greater transparency in decision making.

The road development policy, 1994, besides outlining the targets for eighth plan, also lays down the broad framework for the ninth five year plan. It aims at greater

resource mobilisation and initiatives in private sector participation in road construction as well as institutional financing for road projects.

A process of comprehensive reforms in public sector undertakings (PSUs) was initiated. In principle, decision has been taken to create a state renewal fund on the pattern of the national renewal fund to facilitate industrial restructuring. PSUs have been granted more autonomy and operational freedom through MOUs and review of BPE guidelines. Steps have also been taken to create awareness about the cost of money in PSUs.

Increasing stress on privatisation necessitated reorientation of the state's development strategy. The state government has taken all possible measures to ensure that impediments in the faster growth of the state's economy are removed so that there is a greater private participation in the development process. Private participation would also be encouraged in the development of infrastructure like power, roads, transport, etc.

With concerted efforts during the plan era, the state made significant strides in many fields. Important highlights of development efforts over the plan era can be seen from the following :

- (a) Near self sufficiency has been achieved in the production of food grains.
- (b) The state merged as a leading producer of oilseeds (3.2 million tonnes in 1994-95) particularly rape and mustard, in the country.
- (c) Irrigated area has increased from a level of 5.3 million hectares in 1991-92 to 5.8 million hectares in 1994-95.
- (d) Installed capacity of power has reached 3,049 mw. by 1995-96.
- (e) Rural electrification programme made a significant impact; 31,501 villages have been electrified and 0.5 million wells energised by 1995-96. This was against 28,563 villages and 0.4 million wells in 1991-92.
- (f) The process of industrial development, though less significant, gathered momentum in recent years. Some sectors, particularly synthetic textiles, cement and building stones have done particularly well. Number of registered factories in 1993 numbered 12,580 compared to only 168 in 1952.

- (g) Large deposits of rock phosphate, lignite, zinc and other base metals have been identified. The state is a major producer of cement grade limestone and gypsum in the country. Exploitation of mineral wealth has been stepped up after the new mineral policy.
- (h) Total road length as per Nagpur plan has increased to 74,229 kms. by the end of 1997-98. By March 1997 about 19,700 villages, out of 37,889 inhabited villages (1991 census) in the state, have been linked by roads. During the eighth plan period, about 19,000 kms. of road length was added.
- (i) As per the 1991 census, as many as 37,274 villages out of a total of 37,889 villages, have been provided safe drinking water by the end of 1995-96.
- (j) Educational and medical health care facilities were expanded. Primary and upper primary schools have increased to 34,680 and 11,070 by 1995 respectively. During the eighth plan period, 5,730 primary schools, 2,649 upper primary schools, 445 secondary schools and 341 senior secondary schools have been opened. Under medical and health care facilities, 243 PHCs and 45 CHCs were opened. The number of allopathic medical institutions was 10,819 in 1995.

URBANISATION IN RAJASTHAN

Population in Urban Centres

The state registered a total population of 44.01 million in 1991, which represents an increase of 28.44 per cent over 1981 when the population was 34.26 million. Rajasthan's share is 5.2 per cent of the entire population of the country and it ranks 9th amongst the various states of the country in terms of population size. There were 215 urban centres in 1991. This is an increase from 151 in 1971 and 195 in 1981. The share of urban population in total population is 22.88 per cent in 1991 which again is an increase from 17.63 per cent in 1971 and 21.04 per cent in 1981. Thus, urbanisation in Rajasthan is lower as compared to the country average of 25.72 per cent. Table 1.1 gives the total and urban decadal growth rates and the growth of towns/UA in the state during the period 1901-1991.

Table 1.1 Urban Population of Rajasthan, 1901-1991

Year	Total population (in million)	Growth rate (%)	Total urban population (in million)	Urban growth rate (%)	No. of towns/ UA in the state	% of urban population to total population
1901	10.29		1.55		99	15.11
1911	10.98	6.70	1.47	-4.80	102	13.40
1921	10.29	-6.30	1.47	-0.30	110	14.30
1931	11.75	14.15	1.73	17.20	113	14.70
1941	13.86	18.00	2.12	22.40	118	15.30
1951	15.97	15.20	2.95	27.50	142	16.20
1961	20.15	28.20	3.28	26.50	145	16.30
1971	25.76	27.80	4.54	38.50	151	17.63
1981	34.26	32.97	7.21	58.70	195	21.04
1991	44.00	28.44	10.07	39.60	215	22.88

Source : Census of India, Rajasthan.

Urban Growth Patterns

The percentage of urban population has shown an increasing trend. This implies that there is a significant amount of migration of population towards urban centres. In the past 10 years alone more than 2.5 million persons were added to the urban centres showing an increasing trend for urbanisation. The urban-rural demographic balance is thus undergoing a process of significant change. This trend is in conformity with the situation in other states of the country. The reason for this is quite obvious. In spite of a number of development activities and schemes for employment and occupation generation in rural areas, the fact remains that growth opportunities in rural areas have remained limited. Industrial and social sector development, be it in education, health, tourism or in any other sector also remains concentrated in urban areas due to the availability of better opportunities and facilities. Another reason is the growing number of landless and marginal farm hands in agricultural operations in rural areas which, with the increase in population in general, are finding it difficult to sustain their livelihood on

practically non-existent land holdings and therefore migrate to the cities and towns in search of livelihood. This situation is going to increase with further addition in population

In 1994, Rajasthan registered a growth rate of 28.44 per cent as compared to the growth rate of 32.97 per cent during the previous decade. The declining trend in the population growth rate is remarkable and a welcome sign. The growth of population during 1981-91 has declined in all the districts of the state except Alwar, Bharatpur, Jhalawar, Sikar and Nagaur as compared to the growth rate in 1971-81. Bikaner district had the highest growth rate of 42.7 per cent during 1981-91 closely followed by Jaisalmer district with 41.73 per cent (Table 1.2). Other districts which have recorded higher decadal growth rates than the state average are Jaipur, Sikar, Kota, Nagaur, Churu, Banswara, Alwar, Jhunjhunu, Ganganagar, Jodhpur, Dausa and Bundi. The remaining districts have recorded lower growth rates than the state average, the lowest among them being Pali district (16.6 %).

Because of widely varying topographical factors, all parts of the state are not equally habitable. There is a great variation in the area as well as the population among the districts. The state area is 10.41 per cent of the total area of the country but it supports only 5 per cent population of the country. The national average for the density of population is 267 persons per sq.km., but in the state of Rajasthan it is only 129 persons per sq. km.. The state density has risen from 100 to 129 persons per sq. Km. during the decade 1981-91.

Among the districts the lowest population density of 9 persons per sq. Km. has been recorded in Jaisalmer. Population growth basically has been in the eastern half of the State which is endowed with better rainfall and soil conditions and less in the western half due to the prevalence of a harsh climate and soil conditions along with scanty rainfall.

Urban growth rate has been the highest in Bhilwara followed by Jhalawar, Alwar, Jaisalmer, Banswara and Bundi, Kota and Jaipur. The reasons for these are different in each case. Whereas Alwar and Bhilwara are industrial towns, having registered a very high growth in industrial activity, Jaisalmer is a tourism centre which is also coming up due to the irrigation potential being created by the Indira Gandhi Canal

Project. It is also a border town and has a large military presence. Banswara on the other hand, has created very high job opportunities due to the advent of agriculture, and the presence of agro-based industries and related activities. Jaipur, the capital of Rajasthan is an important growth centre. Besides performing administrative functions, there is a strong prevalence of industrial, education, health and tourism activities. The district-wise population and urban growth is given in Table 1.2.

Each town has its own peculiar situational advantage of potential for growth. However, the state has been making rapid strides in development since 1990, and more particularly since the eighth plan came into effect which was for Rs. 120 billion, an increase of nearly 300 per cent over the Seventh plan. With the industrial, mineral and agricultural development in the state, there has been a simultaneous increase in the development of the infrastructure sector and its capability therein. Therefore, the importance of different places in which the cities and towns are situated has also undergone a change towards an increase in the potential for growth thereof.

Classification of Towns and Growth Trends

The census of India classifies the cities and towns of India into six class sizes on the basis of their population size (Table 1.3). While a class I town is also referred to as a 'city', an urban centre with a population of more than a million is referred to as a 'metropolis'.

Table 1.2 District-wise Population and Urban Growth, 1981-91

S. No.	District	Area (Sq.Km.)	Population 1991	% of SC&ST pop.	Growth rate (%) 1981-91	Urban growth rate (%) 1981-91	% of urban pop. 1981-91
1.	Ganganagar	20634	2622777	29.92	29.20	31.99	21.05
2.	Bikaner	27244	121140	18.91	42.70	43.59	39.73
3.	Churu	16830	1543211	20.64	30.84	29.41	28.90
4.	Jhunjhunu	5928	1582421	17.30	30.61	29.36	20.54
5.	Alwar	8380	2296580	25.84	29.66	63.24	13.95
6.	Bharatpur	5066	1651584	23.95	27.14	37.94	19.42
7.	Dholpur	3034	749479	24.76	28.10	44.53	17.19
8.	Sawai Madhopur	10527	1963246	44.45	27.83	41.33	14.84
9.	Jaipur	11168	3887895	23.10	39.51	50.38	45.64
10.	Sikar	7732	1842914	16.66	33.81	38.93	21.03

11.	Ajmer	8481	1729207	20.80	20.05	14.14	40.69
12.	Tonk	7194	975006	32.09	24.42	32.38	19.53
13.	Jaisalmer	38401	344517	19.40	41.73	62.78	15.56
14.	Jodhpur	22850	2153483	18.10	29.12	31.85	35.50
15.	Nagaur	17718	2144810	19.96	31.69	44.53	15.98
16.	Pali	12387	1486432	23.55	16.63	37.73	21.75
17.	Barmer	28387	1435222	21.57	28.27	46.77	10.04
18.	Jalor	10640	1142563	26.22	26.52	14.31	7.20
19.	Sirohi	5136	654029	42.64	20.66	31.39	19.51
20.	Bhilwara	10455	1593128	26.14	21.58	65.01	19.53
21.	Udaipur	12610	2066580	52.94	24.52	41.73	19.15
22.	Chittorgarh	10856	1484190	34.910	20.42	42.61	15.61
23.	Dungarpur	3770	874549	70.45	28.07	44.62	7.30
24.	Banswara	5037	1155600	78.48	30.34	61.62	7.72
25.	Bundi	5550	770248	39.05	31.22	61.62	7.72
26.	Kota	5152	1220505	29.8	32.20	50.59	50.53
27.	Jhalawar	6219	956971	29.12	21.91	64.96	15.78
28.	Baran	7281	819326	40.02	27.30	39.03	15.19
29.	Dausa	2900	834656	47.92	31.70	30.70	11.04
30.	Rajsamand	4469	822721	25.44	17.97	29.19	11.9
	Rajasthan	342036	44005990	29.73	28.44	39.62	22.88

Source : Census of India, 1991, Rajasthan, General Population Tables, Part II A.

Table 1.3 : Size-class of Towns

Size Class	Population
Class I	Above 100,000
Class II	50,000-99,999
Class III	20,000-49,999
Class IV	10,000-19,999
Class V	5,000-9,999
Class VI	Less than 5,000

In 1991, the state had 14 class I towns, 20 class II towns, 72 class III towns, 86 class IV towns and 23 class V and VI towns, the total adding upto 215 (Table 1.4).

The growth rate in different classes of towns over 1971-81 and 1981-91 has been varying. Some of the reasons for the prevailing trend are given below:

- a. Number of class-I towns has increased from 11 to 14 during the last decade. However, the growth rate of population has decreased from 77.48 in the decade

Table 1.4 Distribution of Urban Population in Different Sizes of Towns, Rajasthan

Class of town	1 9 7 1			1 9 8 1			1 9 9 1		
	No. of Towns	Pop. (million)	% of pop.	No. of Towns	Pop. (million)	% of pop.	No. of Towns	Pop. (million)	% of pop.
Class I	7	1.90	41.87	11	3.38	46.80	14	5.05	50.19
Class II	7	0.45	10.75	11	0.72	10.00	20	1.37	13.65
Class III	31	0.93	20.47	52	1.57	21.80	72	2.16	21.47
Class IV	64	0.89	19.77	98	1.35	18.74	86	1.29	12.85
Class-V & VI	42	0.33	7.14	23	0.19	2.66	23	0.19	1.84
Total	151	4.54	100.00	195	7.21	100.00	215	10.07	100.00

Source : Census of India, Rajasthan.

ending 1981 to 49.70 for the decade ending 1991. There had been a marked reduction in the growth rate of Ajmer, Pali, Jodhpur, Kota and Beawer (Table 1.5).

In Ajmer, Beawer and a number of other cities of district Ajmer, there was a persistent shortage of water, the supply being twice in a week. As a result, the city of Ajmer and towns around it could not develop as was expected. However, now the water problem has been solved to some extent and an increase in supply is expected by the decade ending 2001.

Pali town is besotted with the problem of pollution. The government has therefore decided not to allow the development of new industries unless the pollution control measures are followed by the industrialists. This has created a dampening effect on the development of the town. Another reason is the non-availability of government land around Pali town. The agricultural land around Pali is costly and is difficult to acquire from the cultivators. The cultivators go for litigation whenever acquisition is attempted and the cases remain pending in the court for years. Pollution combined with

non-availability of land seems to be the main reason for the slow pace of development of Pali town, though the town has a great potential for economic development.

The growth rate of population during 1971-81 and 1981-91 and the sex ratio of class I towns is given in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5 Population, Growth Rate and Sex Ratio of Urban Agglomerations/ Cities with Population of 1,00,000 and Above

S.No.	UA/City	Population 1991	Growth rate %		Sex ratio 1991
			1971-81	1981 - 91	
1.	Jaipur UA	1,514,425	59.42	49.18	868
2.	Jodhpur	6,48,621	59.42	28.10	867
3.	Kota	5,36,444	68.20	49.74	864
4.	Bikaner	4,15,335	37.73	44.36	862
5.	Ajmer	4,01,930	42.10	7.01	909
6.	Udaipur	3,07,682	44.22	32.29	876
7.	Alwar UA	2,11,162	45.25	44.83	851
8.	Bhilwara	1,83,791	49.26	49.88	874
9.	Ganganagar	1,61,377	37.77	30.47	842
10.	Bharatpur UA	1,56,844	50.60	48.99	848
11.	Sikar	1,48,235	45.05	43.96	909
12.	Pali	1,36,797	83.75	49.39	857
13.	Beawer	1,06,715	36.13	18.57	913
14.	Tonk	1,00,176	39.00	29.00	935

Source : Census of India, Rajasthan, 1971-1991.

b. Number of class II towns has increased from 11 to 20 with population growth rates rising to 90.40 per cent in 1981-91 as compared to 60.94 per cent in 1971-81. A noticeable increase has been observed in Dholpur. Dholpur, a newly carved out district has a great potential for mining. Besides this, a thermal power station is also being established. All these factors have added to an increase in the growth of this town. Some other district headquarters, i.e., Jhunjhunu, Nagaur and Churu, also experienced higher urban growth rates compared to the previous decade. Gangapur city has shown a high growth rate because of the inclusion of industrial area and other peripheral growths in the town area in 1991. Population growth rate in all the other class II towns has decreased from the previous decade.

c. While the number of class III towns has increased from 52 to 72, the growth in population has decreased from 69.25 to 37.29 per cent during 1971-81 and 1981-91

respectively. An increase in the number of towns has occurred because 19 towns, having a higher growth potential, which were in class IV have now been changed to class III towns. The population of other towns has not increased with a fast rate. Amongst the towns which have registered a higher growth rate in 1981-91 as compared to 1971-81, Jaisalmer is noticeable which experienced 75.74 per cent growth in 1981-91 as compared to 32.95 per cent in 1971-81. Tourism and increased agricultural potential of the region due to Indira Gandhi Nahar Pariyojana have contributed to its growth.

D. Class IV towns have decreased from 98 in 1981 to 86 in 1991. The population decline was 4.08 per cent in 1981-91 as compared to the increase of 50.22 per cent in 1971-81. The number of class V and VI towns have remained unchanged between 1981 and 1991. Out of the total 23 towns, 15 are census towns. The population of these towns shows a decline of 0.40 per cent during 1981-91.

Functional Classification of Towns

Towns of Rajasthan exhibit mainly secondary and tertiary functional characteristics. As per the 1991 census, services is the main function of workers in urban areas where about 27 per cent workers are engaged, followed by the industrial sector which provides employment to about 25 per cent workers. Trade and commerce employed 18.4 per cent of the total workers. About 9 per cent of the workers in urban areas are employed in the transport sector. Thus, trade and commerce, services and industry are the main functions of urban areas in Rajasthan. Table 1.6 shows towns classified according to their predominant function.

Table 1.6 Functional Classification of Towns, Rajasthan

Functions	No. of Towns
Industry	38
Trade and Commerce	19
Services	27
Industry-cum-Trade & Commerce	35
Services-cum-Trade & Commerce	22
Services-cum-Industry	31
Industry-cum-transport	2
Industry-cum-Commerce-cum-Service	41
Total	215

Source : Urban Development Strategy for Rajasthan, State Town Planning Department, GOR.

It is observed from Table 1.6 that services is the major function in towns. The reason for this is that majority of the towns before independence had been administrative centres of state or thikanas. The other important function is trade and commerce, since most small towns in the state function as growth centres for the hinterland. Industrial development in the state is a post-independent phenomenon and it has now become one of the important functions.

Major Economic Generators Promoting Urban Growth in Rajasthan

The major growth centres in the state have emerged as a result of improvements carried out in the following sectors:

Agriculture

The districts in which irrigation potential from Bhakra canal system, Gang canal system and IGNP Canal system has been created or is being created are Ganganagar, Hanumangarh, Bikaner, Jaisalmer and Barmer. In the districts of Kota, Bundi, Jhalawar and Baran, the Chambal command canal system has benefited these areas. Similarly, the Mahi canal system has benefited Banswara and Dungarpur districts. All these areas have, therefore, become very important in agricultural and agro-based activities.

Minerals

Practically, the entire area of the state in some way or the other has potential for mineral exploration and this has led to the development of activities in mining and industries based on mining. Particularly important are the districts of Jaisalmer, Udaipur, Bhilwara, Chittorgarh, Rajsamand, Kota, Sawai Madhopur and Karauli.

Industries

With increasing power availability and the growth of mineral and agricultural activities, industries have come up in all districts. The major urban centres for industrial activity are Kota, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Ganganagar, Hanumangarh, Udaipur, Bikaner and Pali. The growth of industries in the state has led to the deterioration in environment due to affluent discharge and smoke emissions from industries and power plants. Urban centres facing problems of pollution include Jaipur, Kota, Bhiwadi, Pali, Udaipur, etc. The main polluting industries in these centres are chemical, dyeing, printing, alcohol producing, etc. Similarly, thermal power plants, such as in Kota, is a great nuisance

creating the problem of ash discharge over a very large area of the city. There is a need, therefore, to establish industries with greater caution and with proper safe-guards for pollution control and treatment.

Tourism

Tourism is a very important activity in the state. The total tourist arrivals from 1985 to 1989 increased from 3.39 million in 1985 to 4.25 million in 1989. This figure increased during 1996 to 6.07 million. The cities experiencing high tourist inflows are Jaipur, Udaipur, Jaisalmer, Jodhpur and Bikaner apart from various medium and small towns. Important tourist circuits identified in the state are : (a) Desert Triangle Circuit - Jodhpur, Bikaner, Jaisalmer; (b) Mewar Circuit - Udaipur, Rajasamand, Pali, Sirohi; (c) Ajmer-Pushkar Circuit - Ajmer; d) Jaipur; (e) Hadoti Circuit - Kota, Jhalawar, Bundi, Baran; (f) Sekhawati Circuit - Sikar, Jhunjhunu & Churu districts; and (g) Mount Abu.

These circuits have been drawing large number of tourists with consequent growth of urban centres in the influence areas for providing services.

II. STATE URBAN DEVELOPMENT POLICY AND STRATEGY

URBAN DEVELOPMENT POLICY

The state does not have a urban development policy but is in the process of formulating one. The policy will be directed towards assessing the deficiencies, constraints and building up on these for improvement in urban infrastructure and services. Increased urbanisation has given rise to the necessity of treating urban centres with more care so that living conditions do not deteriorate below acceptable levels. There is also an urgent need to introduce reforms in the working of the municipal bodies so that these are able to discharge the funds available to them in a better way. Besides undertaking development works and re-generation of assets, what is essentially required is the provision of adequate level of municipal services.

The local bodies have a very poor resource base as a result of arrears in revenue realisation, low and inadequate tax base and problems in augmentation. There are leakages in revenue collection and poor financial management. Lack of competition, absence of proper direction and low commitment levels in the municipal bodies coupled with a sense of complacency in the urban population has given rise to this deterioration.

There is a large subsidy on the provision of services and service charges even on those services which can pay for themselves. This has created a situation in which further funds for development and re-generation are not available. Due to the poor financial base of local bodies, institutional finance for projects is not easily available because of the difficulty in cost recovery.

This situation calls for urgent reforms in the working of the municipal bodies with special emphasis on privatisation of services so that efficiency is increased and better services are provided. For this, policy changes are needed which may attract the private sector. There is a necessity of levying charges on providing services to the consumers. Government is thinking on these lines very seriously and reforms in urban services are under active consideration. Workshops are already being held at various levels to sensitise municipal officials and elected representatives on the need and extent of reforms. Many improvements have been made in several towns and cities in municipal services and the structure of local bodies. These are also being looked into for emulation and in the policy reforms to be introduced.

The state government created a State Finance Commission and the recommendations of the Commission have been accepted by the state government. Positive recommendations have been made to strengthen the finance base of the municipalities and these will be kept in view while formulating the urban development policy.

POLICY ON LAND AND SHELTER

There is no explicit policy on land and shelter. However, urban lands are managed and regulated not only under the provision of Rajasthan Municipalities Act, 1959; Urban Improvement Act, 1959; and Jaipur Development Authority Act, 1982, but also under the Rajasthan Land Revenue Act which is applicable on all agricultural land including the ones falling in notified urban areas.

The compulsory acquisition of land is resorted to by the concerned agency through state government under the Land Acquisition Act. This has been a major hurdle in making land available for different urban uses. The state government by an administrative order issued guidelines whereby 12 per cent developed land is given to the farmer as compensation in lieu of land acquired for various schemes. This has met with substantial success in obtaining land by local bodies. The RIICO obtains land through negotiations with land holders and often pays negotiated market price for the land.

Since 1981 schemes of housing co-operative societies carved out on agricultural lands are being approved and converted for residential uses. The conversion is done under revenue laws and the sub-division of land is examined by the Town Planning Department under sub-division rules framed under Urban Improvement Act, 1959.

Rajasthan Housing Board (RHB) is the premier agency involved in the development of housing and is operative in all major towns of the state. Land acquisition has been a major problem for RHB also but compared to urban local bodies, RHB has been quite successful in land acquisition. However, housing for the economically weaker section is developed by local bodies also which otherwise make land available for plotted housing.

There are no uniform building regulations governing the use of land in urban areas. The concept of floor area ratio, etc. is governed indirectly through percentage ground coverage and the number of stories. Jaipur city has duly notified building regulations under provisions of JDA Act, 1982. There is, thus, a need to prepare building regulations keeping in view the pace of urbanisation.

Private participation in land development can be seen in terms of residential schemes of housing co-operative societies, which in most cases are operated by land developers under the garb of societies. Contribution of the private sector in construction activities in some of the major towns like Jaipur, Jodhpur, Kota, Udaipur can be seen where flatted development has come up. JDA has recently formulated rules whereby entrepreneurs can develop townships. This has, however, not met with much success. The private sector has also been opened up for development of industrial estates since 1994, an activity which was earlier the monopoly of RIICO. The state government is contemplating active involvement of the private sector for development of housing, infrastructure and services in urban areas.

The state government is now in the process of formulating a uniform policy governing urban lands in a manner that affordable shelter is made available and land is available in adequate quantity at the right time for development by state agencies, private entrepreneurs and also the individuals.

STATE INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT POLICY AND ITS IMPACT ON URBAN GROWTH

Industrial Policy of Rajasthan

Though Rajasthan state has abundance of potential resources for industrial development, however, because of the earlier administrative structure of the state, industrial development was at a slower pace during the pre-independence period. Thus, the post-independence industrial policy of the state stressed the need to draw up a strategy to explore the inherent resources for industrial development. The industrial policy of 1978 was a major step to achieve the desired goals, which provided an impetus to the process of industrialisation in the state. The present industrial policy, announced in June 1994, provides a new dimension to industrial development.

Aims and Objectives of the Policy

The aims and objectives of the industrial policy of 1994 are : i) Faster industrialisation in the state; ii) Optimal utilisation of the state's resources; iii) Creation of additional employment opportunities; iv) Removal of regional imbalances; v) Promotion of arts; vi) Providing support to khadi and village industries, handlooms, handicrafts and small and tiny industries.

Strategy Adopted

The strategy adopted by the state for achieving the objective of rapid industrialisation includes: i) Improving investment climate; ii) Expanding and strengthening physical and social infrastructures; iii) Simplifying rules and procedures; iv) Ensuring speedy inputs/clearances to industries; v) Increasing role of private sector in infrastructural development; vi) Providing encouragement to employment oriented investments as well as to rural industries and the small scale sector; vii) Improving stability of skilled manpower and support to quality improvement; and viii) Focusing on thrust areas, including exports and promoting resource based development.

Infrastructure Development

The state government has planned for the development of basic infrastructural facilities for regulating the future growth and distribution of industries in the state. In order to achieve this, the following steps are being taken at different places having the potential for sustained industrial development:

- i) The state shall pay special attention in the development of physical, social and financial infrastructure for industries. The RIICO has developed more than 200 industrial estates at different places in the state with proper infrastructure like water, grid station, roads, alongwith social amenities. Other government agencies also develop infrastructure like housing, educational, medical and other facilities.
- ii) Four growth centres are being developed at Abu Road, Bikaner, Dholpur and Jhalawar where Rs. 300 million shall be spent on infrastructure development in each town.
- iii) The state government has also formulated projects for the development of special areas for small scale units.

- iv) The government will allow the participation of private sector to establish and maintain industrial areas.
- v) For polluting units, viz. dying and printing, leather tanning, etc. special areas would be carved out in the industrial areas of RIICO to set up common effluent treatment plants.

Land Availability

- i) Sufficient plots shall be available in RIICO industrial areas.
- ii) Rajasthan Land Revenue (conversion of agricultural land for non-agricultural purposes) Rules, 1992 provides conversion of any land for industrial purpose. The rule has now been amended to authorise revenue authorities to convert land upto 30 hectares for industrial units. The allotment procedure shall also be simplified.
- iii) Now powers for granting exemption under section 20 of ULCAR Act shall be transferred to the Department of Industries.

Financial and Technical Support

- i) The Rajasthan Finance Corporation and Rajasthan State Industrial Development and Investment Corporation Ltd. (RIICO) are state level institutions providing financial assistance to industrial entrepreneurs.
- ii) A special programme shall be launched to provide equity support to professionals having requisite knowledge of technology to set up industrial units.
- iii) Assistance and knowledge shall be made available to persons willing to set up tiny and small industries.

Simplified System and Speedy Clearance of Licenses

- i) Simplification in the procedure, with regard to land allotment, ULCAR Act, etc. shall be done.
- ii) State Pollution Control Board has liberalised the procedure for issuing NOC. About 115 small scale industries have been exempted from NOC preview.
- iii) Except 26 highly polluting red category industries and those industries which are not generating waste water, air pollutants need not apply for NOC. The RPCB will identify these industries.

- iv) The inspection shall be carried out only once during a year and by one agency.
- v) The SSI units will be required to send only one annual return.
- vi) The changes in the Factories Act shall be made with regard to the inspection norms.
- vii) Now only three items have been included to be registered under Section 85 of Factories Act. Thus, a large number of small units will be excluded and will not be subject to inspection.
- viii) The validity period of license under Factories Act has been increased from 3 to 5 years.
- ix) Nodal officers in every state government department shall be identified to speed up the clearance.
- x) A high power group at the state level under the secretary industries would be constituted to supervise early clearances.
- xi) A district level committee shall also be constituted under the collector for local clearance.
- xii) A time frame has been prescribed for various inputs and clearances.

District Industries Centres

District Industries Centres have been opened at all the district headquarters to deal with the problems of entrepreneurs as well as carry out surveys and studies in this regard.

Incentives and Concessions

- i) The state policy is to develop infrastructure and provide promotional indirect subsidy.
- ii) A subsidy of 15 per cent is given to the maximum of Rs. 1.5 million to large and medium industries @ 20 per cent subject to the maximum of Rs. 2 million to small scale industries.
- iii) The large and medium industries which are 100 per cent export oriented or resource based get a subsidy of 20 per cent to a maximum of Rs. 2 million.
- iv) In areas with no industry and tribal areas, an additional 5 per cent subsidy is given for large, and medium units and 10 per cent for SSI.
- v) The units financed by NRI funds shall have 20 per cent subsidy.

- vi) Sale tax concessions are given to new units, sick units and units having expansion. The period of benefit shall be for 7 to 11 years.
- vii) Tiny industries set-up by women shall have a tax exemption of up to 100 per cent for 3 years.
- viii) Government has introduced a self assessment scheme under which the assessment by the owner is accepted and only 10 per cent sample checking is done.
- ix) Sale tax exemption on the purchase of machineries by specified industrial units.
- x) Subsidy on purchase of Diesel Generator sets is given.
- xi) Exemption from electricity duty for captive power units.
- xii) Special assistance to SC/ST entrepreneurs is given on : a) 50% rebate on plots; b) 2% on interest of loan; c) 50% concession on fee charges for application processing; and d) Power connection on priority.
- xiii) Mahila Udyog Nidhi Scheme has been introduced by RFC under which a special training programme for women shall be undertaken by various organisations.

Promotion of Special Industries

In view of resource availability, skilled labour and market, special attention shall be given to : i) Leather based; ii) Ceramic and glass; iii) Wool; iv) Electric; v) Mineral based; and vi) Agro and food processing industries.

Facilities like training centres, tax concessions, quality improvement, loan from financial institutions, concessions in granting mining lease, subsidy, etc. shall be provided.

Single Window System

Efforts shall be made for the simplification of procedures for granting license to the entrepreneurs for setting up of new industries. Single window service shall be available at District Industries Centres. RIICO has already established a separate cell called Bureau of Industrial Promotion, where all matters are dealt with relating to industrial establishment at one place.

Impact on Urban Growth

- i) Industrial corridors are developing along the national highways, thereby indicating an increase in urbanisation along these highways in future. An

example of this is the N.H.8 along which industrial centres of Nimrana, Shajahapur, Behror, Kotputli, Shapura, Jaipur, Kishangarh, Ajmer, Beawar, Kankroli and Udaipur are emerging. The stretch of N.H. 8 between Delhi and Jaipur is rapidly coming up as an industrial corridor due to the fact that industries are being pushed out of Delhi and investors from Delhi and Jaipur want to open up new industrial units at a convenient location.

- ii) Some of the rural centres where industrial estates are coming up due to their locational advantage and availability of mineral or agriculture produce in surrounding area will emerge as new urban centres.
- iii) The district headquarters where industrial investments are increasing will tend to grow faster.
- iv) The small and medium sized towns known for their traditional handicrafts may experience fast urban growth, e.g., Sanganer, Barmer, Laxmangarh, Jaisalmer, Churu, etc.
- v) The growth centres where huge investment for industrial development is planned will grow fast in the coming decade. At present four growth centres at Abu Road, Bikaner, Dholpur and Jhalawar are coming up.
- vi) The places where concentration of polluting industries has occurred may experience slow growth if adequate measures are not taken to control pollution largely due to increasing awareness amongst citizens.

DECENTRALISATION AND URBAN SECTOR REFORMS INITIATED WITHIN THE 74TH AMENDMENT FRAME WORK

74th Amendment Act

With a view to strengthen and provide more powers to municipalities, the Constitution (74th) Amendment, was passed making the amended provisions mandatory. The state government has also passed Rajasthan Municipalities (Second Amendment) Bill, 1994. In Rajasthan state, elections were conducted during 1994 and 1995 in all 182 municipalities and presently elected municipal bodies are functioning. Jaipur corporation had an elected body after 25 years. The elected municipalities are headed by a Chairman. The main features of the amended Act are as follows :

Definitions

New substitution and insertion has been made in the various definitions in Rajasthan Municipal Act (38 of 1959) for more precision and clarification.

Constitution of Municipalities

- i. Municipalities were reclassified into three categories based on population, non-agricultural employment and revenue generated by the area.
- ii. In Rajasthan, now there are municipal corporations, municipal councils and municipal boards.
- iii. There are 3 municipal corporations having a population of more than 500,000, 11 municipal councils having a population of 1 to 500,000 and 168 municipal boards having population less than 100,000.
- iv. The chair person of municipal corporation is known as a Mayor, that of municipal council as a President and that of municipal board as a Chairman.

Composition of Municipalities

- i. The minimum number of wards in a municipality is thirteen and maximum is seventy.
- ii. Election of ward member known as Councillor, is direct.
- iii. Chair person election is indirect.
- iv. Reservation for chair person's seat is based on lottery.
- v. MLA's and MP's are representing in the municipal council and corporation respectively according to their constituencies.
- vi. Three persons or 10 per cent of elected members of municipality, whichever is less, with special knowledge in municipal administration would be co-opted members of the municipal body.
- vii. The co-opted members shall not have the right to vote in the meeting of the municipalities.

Constitution and Composition of Committees

- i. Every municipality will have an executive committee. The president and vice president is elected amongst the elected councillors and secretary will be the municipal official known as Municipal Commissioner or Municipal Executive Officer.

- ii. Beside the executive committee, every board shall have councils corporations and committees. Each committee may have seven members. An elected board should constitute the following committees for various activities. Some of the main committees are: (i) Finance; (ii) Health and sanitation; (iii) Building and works; (iv) Rules and bye laws; and (v) Public conveyance, etc.
- iii. The municipality having a population of 300,000 or more shall have ward committees consisting of one or more wards.
- iv. In case the committees are for two or more wards, the chairperson of ward committee would be elected by members. The tenure of chairperson is one year. The committee may have non-voting nominated members not exceeding five. The age of nominated person should not be less than 21 years.

Reservation of Seats

- i. The total reservation of seats for women/SC & ST/OBC should not be more than 50 per cent. For women, 33 per cent and for OBC, 15 per cent reservation is scheduled.
- ii. The wards shall be numbered in anti-clockwise direction starting from the north-west corner and nearly consecutive numbers are assigned to contiguous wards.
- iii. The percentage of population of scheduled caste in each ward according to the latest census is calculated, wards arranged in descending order, numbered and then reserved for scheduled castes out of which one-third are for scheduled castes women. The same process is followed for scheduled tribes.
- iv. After reserving the wards for SC and ST, the next reservation is made for backward classes, including OBC women, by draw of lots.
- v. The wards to be reserved for women shall be one-third of the total number of wards in a municipality by draw of lots.
- vi. In draw of lots, the MLA's and recognised political parties are invited at district level.
- vii. The wards reserved for women and OBC by draw of lots in the first election shall be excluded in the succeeding election till the cycle is completed.

Duration of Municipalities

- i. The tenure of elected municipal bodies is five years.
- ii. In cases of municipality where the elected board is dissolved, the next elected board would continue to the period for which the dissolved municipality would have continued.
- iii. In case of reserved category, the vacancy occurred due to any reason shall be filled up by the same category.

Dis-qualification for Membership

Section 26 of Rajasthan Municipality Act (38 of 1959) is followed.

Powers, Authority and Responsibilities of Municipalities, etc.

There is a scope for making appropriate changes. At present Rajasthan Municipal Act (38 of 1959) is followed.

Power to impose taxes by, and funds of the Municipalities

There is a scope for making appropriate changes which would be based on the report of Rajasthan Finance Commission.

Finance Commission

The Commission constituted by GOR submitted its report in December 1995.

Audit of Accounts of Municipality

No changes made.

Election to the Municipality

State Election Commission is constituted and functioning according to the rule made under article 243-ZA & K.

Committee for District Planning

Four-fifth members of district planning committee shall be elected by and from the elected members of panchayat and municipalities in the district in proportion to the ratio between the population of rural and urban area in the district.

- i. Besides elected members, the MLA's and MP's and government officials shall be nominated as members of district planning committee. Chair person of this committee and his powers will be prescribed by GOR.
- ii. Every district planning committee in preparing the draft development plan should have regard to the matter of common interest between the panchayat and municipalities.
- iii. Integrated district plan will be prepared by this committee and shall be forwarded to the Governor.
- iv. The functions are similar as indicated by the 74th Amendment Act.
- v. In Rajasthan the district planning committee is constituted according to the mandatory provisions of the 74th Amendment Act.

Committee for Metropolitan Planning

- i. Two-third members of the committee shall be elected by and from the elected members of the municipalities and chair person of panchayat of that area in proportion to the ratio between the population of municipalities and panchayat in that area.
- ii. The nominated persons will be from the Government of Rajasthan and Government of India. Representation from organisations and institutions, as may be necessary, for metropolitan planning will be proposed by the Government of Rajasthan.
- iii. This committee shall have regard to objectives and priorities set by the Government of India and Government of Rajasthan.
- iv. Committee for metropolitan planning will work as prescribed by the Government of Rajasthan.
- v. The draft development plan prepared by this committee should be forwarded to the Government of Rajasthan.

Continuance of Existing Laws and Municipalities

Improvement in the Existing Municipal Act of 1959 is made.

Bar to Interference by Courts in Electoral Matters

After the beginning of election process, district Judge and additional district Judge should hear the petition.

Amendment of Article 280

The report of State Finance Commission has been submitted in December, 1995 and accepted by the state government. The details of State Finance Commission Report is discussed in the chapter of municipal finance. To facilitate the elected municipal board, council and corporation, administrative and financial decisions have been taken. These are discussed in the following section.

Administrative Changes After the 74th Amendment Act

- i. Financial powers of Chairman and Mayor have been enhanced to take up development activities. The mayor, president and chairman have been given the power to undertake development activities upto a cost of Rs. 10 million, Rs. 2.5 million and, 500,000 respectively.
- ii. The number of various committees have been increased to have a better representation of elected members.
- iii. Technical, financial and administrative powers have been delegated to the district level to have greater efficiency of implementing urban poverty alleviation programmes. The collectors have been empowered to monitor programmes of UPA (NRY and PMIUPEP).
- iv. In the district planning committee, representation of urban sector is made proportionate.
- v. Massive training programmes are organised to acquaint the elected representatives with the working of local bodies.
- vi. Municipal bodies are being encouraged to privatise the urban services and mobilise resources at their own level.
- vii. Octroi rates have been revised and rate lists for standard items have been prepared.

- viii. Honorarium is given to the mayor (Rs. 5,000 per month), president and chairman (Rs. 1,000 per month). Beside this in the 1997-98 budget, provision of some allowances to Councillors/Corporators have been made.
- ix. Functional domain of municipal bodies have by and large remained the same even after the implementation of 74th CAA. Some planning functions have been commenced by the Jaipur Municipal Corporation with the placement of a small town planning unit under a chief town planner. Here also, the preparation of master plan for Jaipur still continues to be under the Jaipur Development Authority. Similarly, no other municipal body is yet undertaking the exercise of preparation of master plans or comprehensive development plans for their towns. Efforts in the name of urban environment have been limited to slum improvement programmes as was being done earlier.
- x. User charges on water, electricity and local transport have been revised in the recent past to make these more in conformity with the cost of providing such services.

The first State Finance Commission of Rajasthan has made its recommendations to the state government in December 1995 which have been accepted by the Government. It is suggested that adequate reforms will be introduced and more powers delegated to the local bodies on its basis. The Commission has also taken favourable note of the privatisation efforts for services by various municipal bodies and has recommended increasing these still further.

Urban Agenda for the Future

The Government of Rajasthan has identified the following areas, for action in the future :

- i. Preparation of Municipal Corporation Act / Nagar Nigam Act.
- ii. House tax simplification.
- iii. Devolution of powers and functions to local bodies according to the Constitution (74th) Amendment Act.
- iv. Preparation of state urban policy.
- v. Preparation of manual to take up technical works in ULB's.

- vi. Finalising norms and legal provisions related to sanitation, street lights, slaughter houses etc.
- vii. Framing guidelines for the management of urban services through private sector and community participation.
- viii. HRD effort for municipal fonctionnaries including elected representatives.

STRATEGIES FOR PROMOTION OF URBAN-ECONOMIC GROWTH

On Going Programmes Under Urban Local Bodies

The municipal bodies have been engaged in implementing various centrally sponsored and other programmes in urban areas. The state has faired well in terms of implementation of various centre sponsored programmes. Moreover, monitoring at all levels has helped in the effective utilisation of resources available. A review of the efficiency of various on going programmes and innovative measures taken by the state to optimise the available resources, is presented here.

Low Cost Sanitation Programme

The scheme aims to achieve at least the minimum basic sanitation requirements and liberation of scavengers. The financing pattern of this programme is given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Financing Pattern of Low Cost Sanitation Programme

(figures in per cent)

S.No.	Particulars	EWS	LIG	MIG and HIG
(a)	Share of Govt. of India	45	25	-
(b)	Loan to Municipalities from HUDCO on the guarantee of state government	25	35	75
(c)	State Govt. Share	25	25	-
(d)	Beneficiaries contribution	05	15	25
	TOTAL	100	100	

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

As per the 1981 survey, there were 400,000 dry latrines in the state which were to be converted into flush latrines. Table 2.2 gives the number of flush latrines upto 1995-96.

Table 2.2 Conversion of Dry Latrines

(figures in 100,000)

Plan period	No. of dry latrines converted into flush
Upto 31.3.92	1.42
1992-93	0.26
1993-94	0.26
1994-95	0.09
1995-96	0.35

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

Another 40,000 latrines were converted in the year 1996-97. During the ninth plan period a total of 407,000 dry latrines (balance 122,000 and newlycreated, 285,000) are to be converted. For this task a sum of Rs.366 million is proposed. The state government is doing its best to implement the programme.

Under this scheme nearly 5,000 community toilets and urinal complexes are to be constructed. The places chosen for their construction include slum areas, railway stations, bus stands, mandi towns, tourist places and pilgrim centres. An additional plan allocation of Rs. 200 million (Rs. 400,000 for each complex of 4 toilets, 4 urinals, septic tank, water facility etc.) is proposed for the ninth five year plan.

Environment Improvement Programme in Katchi Basties

This programme is an important part of the minimum needs programme. The Department of Local Bodies is monitoring this programme since 1981-82. In 1981, 1,758 katchi basties were identified in 173 municipalities with 1.22 million persons. This population contributed 16.94 per cent of the total urban population in 1981. Slum population was estimated to be about 1.6 million in 1991. Due to rapid urbanisation, the number of slums by the end of eighth plan will increase further with the population size reaching 2.4 million. Till now about 1.2 million persons have benefited. Thus, the remaining 1.19 million persons are to be covered in the ninth five year plan. In this programme initially an amount of Rs. 300 per capita was given. This was revised to Rs. 525 per capita from the year 1991-92. In the year 1995-96 the per capita amount was enhanced to Rs. 800. A sum of Rs. 1.32 billion to cover 1.19 million persons is

proposed in ninth five year plan. The details of proposed outlay for the ninth plan covering 1.19 million persons is given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Proposed Outlay for Environment Improvement Programme in the Ninth Plan

Year	Coverage (per cent)	Population (100,000)	Per capita expenditure (Rs.)	Estimated expenditure (in million Rs.)
1997-1998	10	1.19	880	104.7
1998-1999	20	2.38	968	230.4
1999-2000	20	2.38	1065	253.5
2000-2001	25	2.975	1171	348.4
2001-2002	25	2.975	1288	383.2

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

Katchi basties, once surveyed and developed, need to be treated as regular schemes and funds should be provided for the development of infrastructure like any other development scheme in the town. A master plan for the resettlement of katchi basties should be prepared for all municipal towns. Also better housing needs have to be provided to the poorer section of the population so that slum problems are overcome to a greater extent.

Rain Basera Programme

This programme was started in the year 1987-88. Its main aim is to provide a protective sleeping place to the poor people and beggars who spend their night on footpaths, verandas and under the open sky. For this purpose, the work of constructing rain baseras was taken up.

A provision of Rs. 16 million was made for this programme in eighth plan which has been spent upto March, 1997. The state government has made available funds for constructing rain baseras in all 32 district headquarters. So far construction of rain baseras has been completed in 10 districts. Work is in progress in the remaining districts.

Rajasthan is committed to construct rain baseras in all municipalities but funds are a constraint. Under this scheme in the ninth five year plan, it is proposed to construct 72 rain baseras. The break-up is given below :

3	Rain baseras in each Nigam	9
2	Rain baseras in 11 towns of 1st category	22
1	Rain basera at large district headquarters	18
1	Rain basera in class II and Municipal Board not covered at district headquarter	23
	Total number	<u>72</u>

To achieve the above target, a plan allocation of Rs. 75 million (about one million per unit cost of rain basera) would be required. The average cost includes the cost of construction of rain baseras and the necessary community facilities.

Modernisation of Municipal Sanitation Equipments

Under this scheme, municipalities are provided assistance for the purchase of new sanitation equipment like wheel barrows, tractors, trollies, dumpers, night soil tankers etc.

In view of the rapid growth in urban population, there is a need to modernise the sanitation arrangements. During eighth plan a provision of Rs. 21 million was kept which was fully utilised. This programme is also required to be continued during the ninth plan period. A provision of Rs. 100 million is proposed to undertake cleaning operations in municipalities with modernised equipments.

Fire Fighting Equipments in Municipalities

This programme was introduced in the seventh plan but till now the available fire fighting equipments are insufficient. A provision of Rs. 24.5 million in eighth plan was kept under this programme and a sum of Rs. 21.5 million was spent by the end of this plan. To equip municipalities with modern fire fighting equipments and provide a wider coverage to cope with the local demand and requirement, a provision of Rs. 45 million is kept in ninth five year plan.

Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme

The Prime Minister announced the programme on 15 August, 1994 for alleviation of poverty in class II towns having a population of 50,000 to 100,000. This is

a consolidated programme where schemes of NRY, UBSP and EIP have been merged. Under this programme various works like providing employment to low income group people in small industries, utility works, development of female and children and environment improvement in katchi basti would be taken up.

The programme package seeks to address the problem of urban poverty with a multi-pronged and long term strategy. It includes the following features: i.) Community structures to be constructed with direct participation and contribution by the beneficiary groups; ii.) through the whole town approach, the object is to attack several root causes of urban poverty simultaneously and in an integrated manner with convergence of line departments and non-government organisations; iii.) the programme will not depend on traditional financial institutions and mobilise resources through community, municipalities, NGO's and private participation.

The programme follows a city level approach on non-locational basis of urban poor communities, e.g., identified and unidentified slum dwellers, street children, pavement dwellers and all urban households falling below the poverty line with an annual income of Rs. 11,850/-. The programme will be applicable to all the 20 class II towns of the state. While the target group of the programme is urban poor, especially women, SC and ST, not less than one-third of the beneficiaries will be women, and SC and ST beneficiaries will be atleast in proportion to the total population.

In the year 1995-96, Rs. 47.53 million of the state's share and Rs. 48.09 million of Centre's share was released to the municipalities. The share of state and centre spent on this programme during 1996-97 increased to Rs. 70 million and Rs.100 million respectively. For the ninth plan period a sum of Rs. 500 million is proposed. To implement this programme a survey was initiated in 20 towns to select poor families.

Nehru Rozgar Yojana (NRY)

Nehru Rozgar Yojana (NRY) is being implemented in Rajasthan since 1989-90. Under this scheme, families having an annual income of Rs. 11850 or less are benefited for establishing their own trades. This includes employment for constructing public assets and giving loan and subsidy for housing and shelter upgradation. The following are the various schemes under this programme :

(a) Scheme of urban micro enterprises (SUME) : Under this programme those families whose annual income is Rs. 11,850 or less are given loans by banks and subsidies @ 25 per cent by municipal bodies for establishing their own small trades. The maximum amount of subsidy for SC/ST/Women is Rs. 5000 and for other castes it is Rs. 4000. By the end of the eighth plan, nearly 51,200 persons were benefited. A sum of Rs. 106.24 million is proposed in the ninth plan for benefiting 66,400 persons.

Under this scheme, members of poor families are given training in different trades by various institutions so as to set-up their own trade. A stipend of Rs. 250 per month is given to all trainees. A sum of Rs. 50 per month and Rs. 100 per month towards raw material per trainee is given to the training institute. In the eighth plan nearly 10,670 persons were covered under the training scheme.

A shortfall in the desired pace under this scheme was due to the less amount of stipend given to trainees in comparison to TRYSEM and SKYTE scheme. Moreover, trainees after completing their training are not provided with free tool kits which are being provided in other schemes. For SUME training, it is recommended that ITIs should be opened in atleast 53 large municipalities of Rajasthan. In the ninth plan, 53,000 persons are to be trained for which a sum of Rs. 21.25 million would be required.

(b) Scheme of urban wage employment (SUWE): This scheme is applicable to municipalities having a population of less than 100,000. Under this programme, the urban poor are given employment in activities related to roads, drains, community centres, creches, toilets, playing parks, etc. In the ninth plan, a sum of Rs. 689 million is proposed to be kept for generating 3.4 million man days of employment.

(c) Scheme of housing and shelter upgradation (SHASU): This scheme is an integral part of NRY, however, for the last five years it could not be implemented in Rajasthan because of the inadequate quantum of advance and subsidy given to the beneficiaries. For the year 1995-96 the quantum of loan under this scheme was enhanced and the coverage of the scheme was extended to all municipalities. Under this scheme, loan facility is provided to those families having an annual income of less than Rs. 15,000 for upgrading the shelter. The loan amount of Rs. 9,950 and a subsidy of Rs. 1000 is

provided to the beneficiaries. In the year 1995-96 project reports have been sent to HUDCO for approval, out of which 64 projects have been cleared and the necessary action for distribution of loans is under progress. For better results, it is suggested that the regional offices of HUDCO should issue sanctions and the government guarantees for loans should not be insisted upon. In this scheme, training is provided for shelter upgradation by Awas Vikas Sansthan and funds are provided by the central government to HUDCO.

Urban Basic Services for Poor (UBSP)

The UBSP programme was launched in the year 1990-91 as a centrally sponsored scheme with UNICEF assistance in the state. The basic aim of the programme is to improve and upgrade the quality of life of the urban poor, specially women and children through active participation of the community, creation of community based organisations and co-operation and convergence with other schemes and activities for the urban poor.

The programme is being implemented in 11 towns of the state, viz., Jaipur, Ajmer, Kota, Udaipur, Chomu, Kotputli, Phulera, Dausa, Lalsot, Badi and Rajakheda. Dholpur, earlier covered under UBSP, has now been included under PMIUPEP. As per UBSP approach, the community should be involved in the progress of planning, monitoring and implementation. But community based organisation have not yet emerged in the state.

The present ceiling, to spend 25 per cent of the total outlay on infrastructural development activities, needs to be raised upto 50 per cent because Rajasthan, being a desert state, the costs of infrastructure development are much higher as compared to other states. It is also suggested that a permanent community hall with toilet facilities could be erected where people could gather periodically. These community centres can be used for other purposes also.

Sahbhagi Nagar Vikas Yojana

Rajasthan has come up with a new proposal of inviting and encouraging people participation in the process of urban development in this scheme. Under the scheme the process of receipt of donations from public for public utility works has been formalised

and the state government has shown its and the local bodies eagerness to implement by way of 50 per cent and 20 per cent cash equity participation respectively. Thus, the scheme offers 50 per cent of the state share, 30 per cent of private donors or public share and 20 per cent of municipality share. In some special cases the municipality and state share the cost of works on a 50:50 basis.

The scheme was launched in Rajasthan from September, 1994 and implementation started in the year 1995-96.

Under this scheme, any construction works, new or additions with existing building of public use, viz., government hospitals, dispensaries, colleges, schools, public latrines, veterinary hospitals, balbari buildings, community centres, hostels, parks, hand pumps, other drinking water facilities, roads, sewerage and rain basera's etc., can be undertaken. The proposals for the said works are submitted to the respective District Collectors through municipal corporation, councils, boards, urban improvement trust, housing board, JDA, voluntary and non-government organisations. Works are sanctioned by the District Collectors.

Municipalities of Rajasthan have taken up the following works under Sahbhagi Yojana: i.) Parks development; ii.) Hand pumps; iii) Public toilets; iv) Beautification of road junctions; v) Development of grave yard and cremation grounds; vi) Augmenting water supply during peak summer; vii) Community centres and other buildings providing public facilities. Nearly all municipalities of Rajasthan have utilised the funds provided by the state government under this scheme.

For implementing this scheme, Rs. 200 million were provided by the state government in the year 1995-96 and the amount was released to District Collectors. A sum of Rs. 159.5 million were also mobilised from public contribution. A total of 1,317 works were sanctioned out of which 130 works were completed under this programme during 1995-96. A sum of Rs. 100 million was utilised for this programme in the year 1996-97. Thus, the concept of local people participation has expedited the process of urban development in the municipal areas of Rajasthan.

A sum of Rs. 2.5 billion is proposed for the ninth plan for Sahbhagi Nagar Vikas Yojana.

Training of Elected Members and Municipal Officers

Presently training is being imparted to elected representatives of all municipal bodies, officers and staff of municipalities under UBSP and PMIUPEP, through the urban development cell of Harish Chandra Mathur Rajasthan State Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur. The institute also organises training programmes at its Udaipur Campus. Doorstep training programmes have also been organised by the institute as per the requirement of the Directorate of Local Bodies.

Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT)

Present Status

Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) programme, a scheme sponsored by the central government, was initiated in sixth plan with the objectives of reducing rural migration to urban/metropolitan centres. Its main objective is to provide infrastructural facilities and to evolve resource generating schemes for local bodies. Projects worth Rs. 838.5 million, spread over 43 towns of the state have been approved up to March, 1996. Financial assistance released by the central and state government amounts to Rs. 152.2 million and Rs. 72.03 million respectively. Upto now an expenditure of Rs. 287.91 million has been incurred. About 20,144 plots with infrastructural facilities have been developed out of which 13659 plots have been disposed giving an income of Rs. 232.93 million.

The position of repayment of loans under IDSMT has been quite satisfactory. Out of 43 towns where IDSMT schemes have been taken up, 32 towns have shown good performance. In 11 towns the progress has been slightly slow due to various hurdles. These hurdles are primarily related to land not being available for development due to litigations. In some cases execution has been delayed due to non availability of technical staff with the local bodies. In these 11 towns, schemes were sanctioned after 1990-91.

Under IDSMT programme two types of projects have been taken up in the state, i.e., non-remunerative and remunerative. The remunerative projects include residential schemes, commercial centres, transport terminals and bus stands while link roads, parks, street lighting and drainage works fall under non-remunerative category. These projects have helped individual local bodies to provide planned housing and other infrastructural

facilities for these towns. However, in the absence of comprehensive development plans or state level programmes for the towns, these schemes have been operating in isolation. Cities like Jaisalmer owe bulk of their street lighting to IDSMT project. Religious centres like Pushkar have managed to develop the much needed public parking and other facilities due to funds available under IDSMT schemes.

A city monitoring committee under the chairmanship of District Collector regulates and monitors the progress of IDSMT schemes. Deputy Town Planner of Town Planning Department is the member secretary of this committee. Other members are Executive Engineer, PWD, PHED, RSEB, Executive Officer of the concerned local body.

Small and Medium Towns : Development Potentials

In view of IDSMT strategy of integrated development of small and medium towns, there are vast development potentials. In a large state like Rajasthan, where the level of development in most areas is low, the role of these small towns is quite significant to function as growth centres and act as a catalyst for promoting all around development in their vast hinterland.

In Rajasthan up to now, the main emphasis under the programme, has been to solve the problem and shortfall in housing, commercial and traffic and transportation sectors of the town only. However, issues like town level development (water supply, sewerage, drainage, sanitation, parks, etc.) and regional level development of the towns (economic and physical linkages with the hinterland) are yet to be taken up.

It is understood that in order to have significant impact of this programme there is a need of higher financial allocations for small and medium towns (SMT) and integrating the IDSMT programme with the activities of agencies such as housing board, PHED, PWD, electricity board, tourism department, RIICO, etc. While preparing district level development plans, as envisaged under the 74th Amendment of the Constitution, efforts to rope in funds under programmes like NRY, slum improvement and upgradation programme, etc. can also make this programme truly integrated. Special emphasis needs to be laid to develop towns having tourism potentials.

The main constraints under the programme are the meager financial allocations to towns by the central government. For example, 11 towns covered in the sixth plan

and 13 in the seventh plan and the 1990-91 annual plan have received maximum eligible central assistance of Rs. 4 million and Rs. 4.6 million each only from the central government and that too as a loan. Only 4 towns were allocated with a budget of Rs. 11.5 million in the year 1995-96. In 1996-97, Rs. 15 million were approved for the towns of Udaipur and Bikaner.

Besides, as per IDSMT Guidelines (August, 1995), towns covered under the sixth plan were not eligible to take up town and regional level development programme, as mentioned above. Financially weak local bodies are reluctant to go in for institutional loan in view of a high rate of interest. The programme has not made much impact therefore in view of these shortcomings.

It would be necessary that preferably two towns or at least one town of each category as enumerated in IDSMT Guidelines and the corresponding financial assistance, be allocated to the state each year. However, this would require an annual financial assistance of Rs. 25.6 million and Rs. 17.07 million from the central government and the state government respectively (total plan assistance as Rs. 128 million and Rs. 85.33 million respectively) in case one town of each category is allotted. Towns covered under the sixth plan should also be covered under the revised IDSMT Guidelines (August, 1995) and the financial assistance given to the local bodies for the development of small and medium towns from sixth plan onward, be treated as a grant.

URBAN SECTOR PRIORITIES

The following priority areas will be addressed during the ninth plan period (1997-2002) in urban development.

Wide Coverage of Sewerage and Drainage System

In order to cover all municipalities with the sewerage and drainage network, a survey will be conducted to identify areas to be covered. In the first phase class I and II towns can be taken up. It is proposed to launch a comprehensive scheme for implementation. Due to paucity of funds this programme could not be carried out with the desired pace, therefore, adequate funds will have to be provided in the ninth plan. This work can partly be entrusted to the private sector which will work jointly with a government agency like PHED.

Urban Transport, Maintenance and Development of Parking Sites

The municipalities (corporation and council, 14 in number) will provide urban transportation (bus services) in these cities. For transport services some routes can be reserved for municipal corporation and councils. In order to improve the traffic condition in cities, bye passes, ring roads with provision of bus stands, depots, parking public places, etc. will be developed. Private multi-storeyed parking complexes should be developed on BOT basis. Besides this, areas having busy rail-road crossings will have rail and road over-bridges. Funds will be provided in ninth plan for Mass Rail Transit System (MRTS) in Jaipur on the report prepared by RITES. For this adequate plan funds will be allocated in the ninth plan.

Shifting and Construction of New Slaughter Houses

Presently, slaughter houses in cities are located in the main streets and roads and in populated areas. Chopped meat is thrown in the main drains or scattered by shop wners which create unhygienic conditions. These also attract big birds that cause air accidents. To improve the situation it will be made compulsory for slaughter houses to be shifted in the outskirts of cities and equipped with modern machines. It is proposed to construct three mechanised slaughter houses in the towns of Udaipur, Kota and Jaisalmer which are having air link facilities. Adequate funds will be provided in the ninth plan for this programme.

Master Plans

At present master plans of 48 towns have been completed. During the ninth plan, work of preparation of master plan for 60 towns is to be taken up. Their estimates are being currently worked out in the Town Planning Department.

Welfare Centres

It is proposed to establish welfare centres like working women hostels, baby care centres and homes and recreation centres for the aged people in class I cities.

Solid Waste Disposal

The possibility will be explored to utilise solid waste for generating power and for various other uses, as is being done in some states. A study in this regard will be conducted. In the first phase, 6 divisional headquarters will be covered. It will be a tripartite arrangement where, (i) UIT will give land at token prices, (ii) other functional duties of municipalities will be assessed and there will be a sharing on return, and (iii) investment by private investor or institutional finances will be promoted. Also improved systems for collection and transporting solid waste will be introduced.

Human Resources Development

Planning of manpower available in urban local bodies to upgrade their professional skills and managerial capacity has been envisaged in the report of the State Finance Commission given to state government on 31st December, 1995. It is suggested that Rs. 5 million will be provided for this purpose annually.

Development of Parks and Road Side Plantations

In every new locality a park and recreation facilities for children will be developed for providing a healthy environment.

Road Lights

Providing road lights in urban areas is the basic function of ULBs. But it is noticed that these lights are not regulated in terms of their proper utilisation. In order to control wastage of electricity, modern techniques like timers, etc. for regulating road lights are proposed.

Privatisation

Privatisation of various urban municipal services will be introduced to improve the resource base and work load of municipal bodies.

Recovery

Recovery of house tax and octroi will be improved.

GENERAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVE

The state's ability for faster development in the ninth plan has increased with the completion of eighth plan. The economy has shown inherent strength and resilience in the face of frequently occurring scarcity conditions in the past. The gains of development efforts would have to be consolidated as they would act as a stepping stone for a leap forward to a higher growth path. The vast unexploited potential, in particular, horticulture, cattle wealth, sheep and goats, mineral wealth, etc., would have to be exploited. The ninth plan has been formulated keeping in view the state's economy and the development scenario. Thus, efforts made in the past, i.e., the gap in key socio-economic indicators at the state level, the constraints in the path of quick development and advantages which the state's economy enjoys, have to be kept in mind.

Constraints in Development

The state's economy still suffers from handicaps in many fields, which have to be kept in view while shaping the future strategy. Some of these bottlenecks are:

- (a) Over 60 per cent of the state's total area, carrying about 40 per cent of its population, is under desert. The population is sparsely distributed entailing a very high unit cost of providing basic services.
- (b) Water, both surface and ground water, is a critical resource for the state. The available surface water resources are confined to certain parts of the state. Ground water, at many places, is of poor quality and the water table is steadily declining.
- (c) Agriculture, the source of livelihood of 70 per cent of the population, still continues to be susceptible to vagaries of the monsoon. Geophysical disadvantages, coupled with the dependence of agriculture on monsoon has resulted in frequent crop failures. Kharif production continues to fluctuate.
- (d) Growth of population continues to be higher than the national average.
- (e) Growth in the labour force continues to outpace employment generation.
- (f) The state is deficient in its own sources of power generation which has led to an increasing gap between demand and supply of power.

- (g) Social and economic infrastructure is still poor. The state continues to lag far behind the national average in terms of literacy.
- (h) The level of transport and communication infrastructure is still below the national average.
- (i) Sub-regional differences within different parts of the state are also a cause of concern.

A comparison of Rajasthan with the all-India average and the highest level achieved among the non-special category states, given in Table 2.4 below, clearly shows the existing gap between the level of development in the state and the country :

Table 2.4 Comparison of Rajasthan with All India Average and the Highest Level among Non-special Category States

S. no	Indicator	Unit	Year	Rajasthan	All India	Highest among non-special category states	Rank non-special category states
1.	Per capita income at 1980-81 prices	Rs.	1992-93	1993	2239	3952	10
2.	Per capita consumption of power.	KWH	1992-93	320	331	863	9
3.	Per hectare consumption of fertilizers.	Kg.	1992-93	27.4	67.1	162.2	13
4.	Per capita consumption of petroleum products.	Kg.	1993-94	60.7	69.2	545.6	9
5.	Per capita advances by scheduled commercial banks	Rs.	september 1995	1023	2557	6728	10
6.	Road length/100 sq. km.	Km.	1988-89	32.7	60.8	547.7	13
7.	Railway route/1000 sq. km.	Km.	1992-93	16.8	19.0	43.1	11
8.	Hospital, dispensary/1000 sq. km.	No.	1990	3	12	120	13
9.	In-patient beds/100,000 persons	No.	January 1991	78	92	343	8
10	% of villages electrified	%	March 1995	83.42	85.3	100	10
11	Infrastructure development co-efficient	%	1992-93	80	100	205	14

Source : Memorandum of Tenth Finance Commission, Finance Department, Government of Rajasthan.

This manifests that Rajasthan still continues to lag behind other states and the national average in case of most key socio-economic indicators. The investment in Central Government undertakings in Rajasthan is 1.8 per cent of the total investment in the country. In infrastructure development index, Rajasthan stood at the 14th place in 1992-93.

Demographic Perspective

The eighth five year plan document prepared by the Planning Commission states that "on the assumption that the family planning efforts will be turned into an effective people's movement during the eighth and the ninth plan, the standing committee of experts on population projection has estimated that the annual growth rate of population during the period 1991-96 would be 1.81 per cent which will further come down to 1.65 per cent during 1996-2001". With the Net Reproduction Rate (NRR) achieving unity 5 years later than expected at the time of the seventh plan, the zero population growth goal has also shifted further.

Rajasthan is among the states experiencing a high fertility. The population of the state has been increasing at a faster rate. The 1991 census registered a population of 44 million for Rajasthan, with a decadal growth rate of 28.44 per cent (compared to 23.56 per cent for the country). Rajasthan has consistently recorded a higher rate of growth than that of all-India. Such a high growth of population is the most serious challenge before the state. Population growth figures of state vis-à-vis the country for the period 1931-91 are given in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Growth of Population in Rajasthan and All India

Year	Population (in million)		Decennial growth (per cent)	
	Rajasthan	India	Rajasthan	India
1931	11.7	279.0	14.15	1.00
1941	13.9	318.7	18.00	14.22
1951	16.0	361.1	15.20	13.31
1961	20.2	439.2	28.20	21.51
1971	25.8	548.2	27.80	24.80
1981	34.3	684.3	32.97	24.66
1991	44.0	846.3	28.44	23.56

Source : Census of India, Rajasthan, 1991.

The growth rate during the 1981-91 decade in Rajasthan declined as compared to the previous decade. This is an encouraging sign and seems to be the result of family welfare efforts. However, it is still higher than the national average. Even the rural population grew at a higher rate when compared to the national level. During 1981-91 the growth in rural population was 2.55 per cent annually; the increase at the national level being 1.97 per cent.

The birth and death rates in the state have not shown the anticipated decline, as shown in Table 2.6

Table 2.6 Birth, Death and Infant Mortality Rates in Rajasthan and India

Year	Birth rate		Death rate		Growth rate		IMR	
	Raj.	India	Raj.	India	Raj.	India	Raj.	India
1981	37.1	37.2	14.3	15.0	2.28	2.22	108	110
1982	38.0	33.8	12.1	11.9	2.59	2.19	97	105
1983	40.1	33.7	13.6	1.9	2.65	2.18	109	105
1984	39.7	33.9	14.3	12.6	2.54	2.13	22	104
1985	39.7	32.9	13.2	11.8	2.65	2.11	108	97
1986	36.4	32.6	11.7	1.1	2.47	2.15	107	96
1987	35.1	32.2	11.6	10.9	2.35	2.13	102	95
1988	33.3	31.5	14.0	11.0	1.93	2.05	103	94
1989	34.2	30.6	10.7	10.3	2.35	2.03	96	91
1990	33.6	30.2	9.6	9.7	2.40	2.05	83	80
1991(P)	35.0	29.5	10.1	9.8	2.49	1.97	77	80
1992(P)	34.7	29.0	10.4	10.0	2.43	1.90	89	79
1993(P)	33.6	28.5	9.2	9.2	2.44	1.93	92	74

Source : Vital Statistics of India.

Note : (P) Provisional; Raj. - Rajasthan.

The rising population has wider implications. The fairly high rate of growth of population neutralised to a significant extent the fruits of economic growth. It also increased the requirement for education; medical and other social amenities. There are social, economic and traditional reasons for such a high growth rate of population, which need to be dealt with. Important among them are a low level of literacy, particularly female literacy which is the lowest in the country; early marriage; low coverage under family welfare programme; and high age of acceptors of family welfare methods.

Although the growth rate of population in the state, which was 32.97 per cent in 1971-81, has come down to 28.44 per cent in 1981-91, it is highest among the major states and more than double of that observed in Kerala (14.06 per cent).

The Couple Protection Ratio (CPR) is 30.2 per cent in Rajasthan, as against the all-India average of 43 per cent. The estimated population of Rajasthan is likely to reach 49.8 million by March, 1996 and 56.1 million in March, 2001. The comparatively higher pace of population growth exerts a tremendous pressure in the labour market; on social institutions like schools, hospitals, etc., to cater to the increased demand for these facilities; and for meeting the needs of food, clothing and shelter.

Initiatives for Population Control in the State

To bring about a decline in the growth of population and attain the goal 60 per cent of Couple Protection Rate (CPR) by 2000 AD, the natural decline in birth rate should be 3 per cent points per year and this can be achieved only when CPR increases by 7.5 per cent annually. The mid term appraisal of seventh plan stated that once CPR goes beyond 40 per cent, the much awaited dip in birth rate can be expected, since the average age of acceptors would decline. To attain this level still more concerted efforts would need to be made.

A study of the various aspects of the family welfare programme reveals that apart from the mean age at marriage of female being low, the acceptors of the more commonly-used terminal methods are largely from the older age-group who are in the low fertility range.

As the terminal method did not produce the desirable impact on population growth, the emphasis on spacing methods was stepped up. The age of beneficiaries, however, continues to be high. Efforts have to be concentrated towards covering people in the 25-29 years age-group, with lesser number of children so that the visible impact on population explosion can be felt.

Rajasthan has initiated various measures for propagation of a small family norm. The state government has introduced the Raj Laxmi Scheme in collaboration with the Unit Trust of India for couples having one or two daughters, adopting small family norm. This is being done with the aim of improving the status of the girl child as also to recondition the preference for a male child. The state government has ventured to

demonstrate its intentions to focus attention on the need to control population through an amendment in the Rajasthan Panchayati and Municipal Act, disqualifying persons who have additional children in case they already had two or more children, when elected.

The state government has initiated a new programme, 'VIKALP', in the field of family welfare in Dausa and Tonk districts, which are among the 90 districts in the country with extremely high fertility rate. VIKALP seeks to replace the medical mode by a need based approach to family welfare.

Financial incentives have so far failed to achieve the stipulated goals. The emphasis should be on publicity and education to reach the masses. To attain the much talked about dip in the growth of population, a frontal attack on illiteracy should be a priority item. It is difficult to think of attaining the birth rate and death rate of Kerala without attaining the literacy levels of Kerala. The state has, therefore, launched a very vigorous literacy programme and has targeted full literacy by the year 2000.

The path to population stabilisation is long, arduous and elusive. A sharper effort on family planning is called for in the state. Efforts are required to be directed towards reaching and influencing younger couples with high fertility potential and with lesser number of children; reducing infant mortality rate, which has a direct impact on family size; raising the literacy rate, particularly female literacy; raising the age of marriage; providing social security; and effective implementation of Child Marriage Restraints Act which has an important role in raising the mean age at marriage.

III. STATUS OF URBAN INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES

INTRODUCTION

This section presents an assessment of the basic urban services available in the state of Rajasthan and attempts to identify the future requirements of various services to meet the desired levels. The services discussed include water supply, sewerage, drainage, solid waste management, roads, transportation and housing. Appendix I to V give town/city level data on each of the services. Appendix VI presents the total urban development investment required for the various services by size class of towns.

In Rajasthan all the towns are covered with safe drinking water supply schemes of the Public Health Engineering Department (PHED). The per capita water supply, cost of providing water in different towns varies and depends on the water availability and distance from source. However, the water charges are uniform for all towns. Only 5 per cent of the urban centres have 100 per cent water supply level as per the accepted norms of PHED.

Sewerage and drainage works in urban areas are taken up by PHED, municipal bodies, UIT's, JDA, Rajasthan Housing Board and RIICO but maintenance is done only by the local bodies. No town in Rajasthan is fully covered by an integrated sewerage system. There is only one sewage treatment plant in the state. Sewage charges are collected by PHED alongwith the water supply bill.

Solid waste management is the prime responsibility of municipalities. There is a three - tier system for the collection, transportation and disposal of solid waste. On an average the collection performance is around 60 per cent of the total waste generated.

In the old areas of towns the roads are pucca. Wards/colonies developed after independence have a mixed pattern of pucca and katcha roads. The villages which have experienced a change in their civic status and have become towns mostly have kutchha lanes.

Housing is developed primarily by RHB. However, land for individual houses or for apartment housing is made available by JDA, UITs, and municipal bodies. Besides these, individual developers operating under the garb of housing co-operative societies have been making available plots for residential purposes. Construction of houses for economically weaker section is done by all the state agencies under the Department of Urban Development and Housing (UDH).

WATER SUPPLY

The Public Health and Engineering Department of the Government of Rajasthan is the premier agency responsible for the supply and distribution of water in the state. The per capita water supply of towns varies from 25 to 150 LPCD, depending upon the availability of raw water in the vicinity of the towns. A constant improvement in the living standards of people, specially urban dwellers, after independence has also been a factor in the increase in water consumption. These factors necessitate a regular upgradation of water supply schemes under operation and maintenance. Over exploitation of ground water resources is a general feature which results in a fall in production or failure of existing sources and, therefore, new sources have to be developed to keep pace with the increasing demands. The alternative left is to tap all available surface water sources of the state or create them if possible, for future augmentation of water supply schemes. The PHED is emphasising on the development of surface sources wherever possible and is trying to shift the raw water source from groundwater to surface sources, such as rivers, lakes, ponds, etc.

As per the 1991 census, the urban population of the state is 10.06 million which is 23 per cent of the total population of the state. There are approximately 1.2 million water connections through which the water is being distributed in these towns. Approximately 75 per cent of the population of these towns is covered with piped water supply and the rest is dependent on public stand posts and hand pumps. The total length of distribution system in these towns is approximately 10,000 kms. During 1995-96 the total production of water from ground water sources was approximately 50 crore litres and from surface sources it was approximately 65 crore litres. The ratio of ground water to surface water is around 77 per cent. During the

same year, the revenue realisation against an expenditure of 133 million on the maintenance of water supply schemes was Rs. 43.3 million which is only 32.4 per cent of the expenditure. This is causing extensive financial burden on the state exchequer. These can be minimised by: i.) increasing the efficiency of the system by reducing the leakages in the distribution lines which is estimated to be of the order of 40 per cent of the total production; ii.) adopting modern low cost techniques; iii.) increasing the tariffs; iv.) identifying the theft and charging them.

The statistics for urban water supply schemes as on 31st March, 1996 are given in Appendix I. This lists 222 towns as against 215 towns and cities (1991 census) wherein urban agglomerations accommodate seven townships which are treated separately by PHED. Though water supply is available in all the towns, the appendix does not give statistics of some of the towns as these figures were not available.

Within the urban area, in some of the industrial estates, water supply is being operated and maintained by either RIICO or the industry. Similarly, in some of the cantonment towns, water supply is being handled by the defence estate. The present service levels of six major towns are given in Table 3.1, and for the remaining towns are given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.1 Water Supply Service Levels of Six Major Cities

Name of Town	Population	Service Level (LPCD)	
		Actual	Desired
Jaipur	1,458,483	157	180
Jodhpur	666,279	168	180
Kota	537,371	200	180
Bikaner	416,289	100	150
Ajmer	402,700	102	150
Udaipur	308,571	95	150

Source : Background Paper for IX Plan, PHED.

Table 3.2 Water Supply Service Levels of Towns other than Six Major Towns

Population of town	Desired service level as per norms (LPCD)	Actual service level				Total towns
		100%	75-100%	50-75%	<50%	
Above 100,000	100-180	00	02	06	00	08
50,000 - 100,000	100	02	04	13	01	20
20,000-50,000	100	02	17	37	18	74
Below 20,000	70	22	29	43	20	114
Total		26	52	99	39	216

Source : Background Paper for IX Plan, PHED.

The state government has assigned a very high priority to the programme of providing safe drinking water to the people. During the year 1996-97, an amount of Rs. 3.02 billion was made available under the state plan for this purpose out of which Rs. 1.57 billion was earmarked for urban areas.

Recently the augmentation of water supply schemes for Jodhpur, Ajmer, Beawar, Kishangarh, Sarwar, Nasirabad and Kekri have been completed and augmentation for other major towns such as Kota, Bikaner, Udaipur and Jaipur is under progress.

Due to inadequate financial resources of the state government, it is not possible to augment the schemes of all the towns. Therefore, financial assistance is being obtained from agencies such as LIC, HUDCO, and other bilateral agencies. In addition to this the Government of India also extends substantial grants to augment water supply in both rural and urban areas under various programmes such as, accelerated rural water supply projects and decentralised urban water supply projects.

The cost of water supply varies from Rs. 2.00 per KL to Rs. 10 per KL depending upon the distance of source, depth of water available (for underground sources) and supply systems. In some towns direct supply is made from borewells connected to the distribution system, while in other towns service reservoirs and overhead reservoirs collect water from different sources which is supplied in the distribution system. In the towns of Ajmer and Beawar, water is transported from

surface sources located at a distance of 100 km. which causes heavy expenditure in terms of electricity bills and operations & maintenance of pumping stations.

The cost recovery position of PHED is quite dismal. As per latest reports available, the department's expenditure in 1995-96 was Rs. 2.6 billion as against a revenue of Rs. 650 million. In the year 1996-97, the total expenditure was Rs. 3.38 billion out of which Rs. 1.3 billion were spent only on electricity bills, while revenue was only 770 million. It is estimated that 57 per cent of the department's expenditure goes towards wages and allowances while 38 per cent is spent on the payment of electricity bills. A meagre 5 per cent amount is available for maintenance works. The state government has recently decided to form a separate reserve for the maintenance and improvement of services. Tariffs for domestic water supply have been revised with effect from 1st November, 1997 after 10 years for residential use and after 3 years for commercial and industrial use. This revision is expected to yield an additional 41 per cent revenue. A comparative view of the old and revised water charges is given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Domestic and Commercial Water Charges

Slab	Old rates		New rates (effective from November 1997)	
	Domestic	Commercial	Domestic	Commercial
Upto 15000 litres	1.00	3.00	1.25	3.75
15000 to 40000 litres	1.20	5.00	2.40	6.60
More than 40,000 litres	1.20	8.00	3.20	8.80

Note: All figures in Rs. Per KL.

Plot owners engaged in the schemes of group housing societies will now be required to pay @ Rs. 15 per sq. metre of plot area towards installation charges since the development charges initially recovered from these colonies did not include the provision of water supply.

SEWERAGE

The PHED is also responsible for the provision and maintenance of sewerage system in the state. The sewerage sector had been neglected during the previous

plans because the priority was to make drinking water available to everybody in the state, which has still not been achieved completely. But in towns where comparatively better supply is available, the demand of providing sewerage facilities is increasing. Therefore, in order to maintain hygienic conditions it has become necessary to dispose the waste water generated by the community in a safe manner.

Any activity undertaken in this sector has been mainly executed during the seventh plan period. Partial sewerage schemes of Jaipur, Jodhpur and Bikaner, Kota, Udaipur and Abu were executed under IDA water supply and sanitation project and surface drainage schemes of Sujangarh, Sardarshahar, Sikar and Banswara were also taken up during the same plan.

At present, local bodies such as Municipalities, UIT's and the Development Authority are also executing sewerage works in many towns due to which some of the newly developed colonies in selected towns/cities are being provided with sewerage. The local bodies are not providing or maintaining any treatment plant for their township.

The preliminary comprehensive sewerage schemes of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Ajmer, Kota, Udaipur and Bikaner have been prepared by PHED which tentatively amount to Rs. 9.07 billion. In the first phase sewerage schemes have been prepared for towns with a population of more than 100,000 and for 5 towns of tourist importance, cost of which is estimated to be about Rs. 2.25 billion.

The status of sewerage in class I to class IV towns of the state given in Appendix II.

In urban areas of the state only about 10 per cent population is covered by the sewerage system which is largely restricted to class I cities. In 14 class I cities, 60 per cent municipal wards do not have any sewerage system. The availability of sewerage systems in Rajasthan is shown in following Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Availability of Sewerage System in Class I Cities

Per cent Availability	Percentage of total wards
100	3.0
50	15.8
Less than 50	21.8
Not Available	59.4

Source : Based on Sample Survey of DLB in 1997.

In all these class I cities, sewage is disposed off without any treatment into natural drains and water courses except in the case of Jaipur city, where a very small quantity of sewage is disposed off after treatment.

Virtually, no sewerage systems exist in class II and below categories of ULBs. In some towns of religious/tourist interest, sewerage schemes are now being taken up.

At present the charges of sewerage system are linked with water bills and recovered from users by PHED alongwith water charges.

The final disposal of sewage is one major area of concern as the water sources, both surface and underground, are being polluted by various effluents. Also, there is a need to evolve a suitable technology for the sewerage system keeping in view the low water availability as against the requirements of conventional systems. The subject of provision of sewerage facilities must also be viewed in the context of huge expenditure being incurred on low cost sanitation systems and development and maintenance of community toilets.

DRAINAGE

Drainage is another essential facility to be provided in urban areas. However, this service cannot be provided by the private sector because there is no way in which charges, at least for domestic operations, can be recovered. Besides, this is one activity in which there is collective consumption and can not be related to any one community group. The responsibility for provision of this services will, therefore, lie on the municipal body itself.

However, charges for providing drainage services can be recovered from industrial units located in several cities which discharge harmful effluents leading to large scale contamination of drinking and ground water. To quote an instance, standing crops in 14 villages in Bichhri in Rajasthan were wiped out by the discharge of H-acid effluents from chemical industries producing dyes. The use of this chemical is banned in developed countries. These effluents alongwith a highly toxic sludge seeped into the ground water, polluting all wells in the vicinity. A report on water sampling in 1996 showed massive contamination of well water in the area. A case was filed by the Indian Council for Enviro-legal Action on behalf of the affected

people; a NEERI report estimated that eco-restoration of the area would cost Rs. 400 million. The Supreme Court in March, 1996 ordered the closure of these rouge industries for flouting the law.

Similar cases of untreated pollutants being discharged openly are being observed in practically all printing and dyeing industries, fertilizer industries and the like. Towns like Sanganer (Jaipur), Bhiwadi (Alwar), Khetri (Jhunjhunu), Kota, etc. are a few instances where this phenomena is noticed. The Rakesh Mohan India Infrastructure Report enunciates the "polluter should pay" principle stating that operations which create waste water should be charged with heavy levies and the returns there of be used to finance waste water treatment and disposal as well as for waste water disposal from domestic and other areas.

To ensure the recovery of such levies and charges from polluting units, one method suggested is that these should be combined with the electric charges of such units, since without electricity it will be difficult for such units to operate (none can run on captive power alone). On the other hand, if such a polluting unit establishes a treatment facility, then reconsideration can be made depending on the situation.

The status of drainage in class-I to class IV towns of the state is given in Appendix III.

It is observed that while only 55 per cent area of class I towns is served by drainage, in class II towns this service was available only in 33.7 per cent of the area.

By and large the provision of drainage facility in most urban areas is based on ad-hoc decisions due to the absence of any integrated plan. Moreover, the drainage system is not inter linked which causes localised collection of waste water. For example, Jaipur, capital of Rajasthan and largest city of the state, experiences flooding of streets with the slightest downpour.

In most towns of the state, storm water drains also carry domestic and other effluents which are a major source of pollution.

SOLID WASTE

Solid waste basically consists of putriscible garbage, non-putriscible rubbish, ash, dead animals, street sweepings, industrial solid waste, etc., all forming refuse.

The Center of Development Communication, Jaipur estimates that the city generates 5 to 20 gms. refuse from paper, 5 to 20 gms. from plastic, 10 to 15 gms. from glass and the remaining from kitchen waste and garbage. Restaurants and dhabas in the city contribute about 40 to 50 kg. per day. It is pertinent to point out that 80 per cent of the entire solid waste management cost goes as payments for collection and transportation of waste.

House storage of garbage prior to disposal is not a regular practice in Indian cities. House waste is generally thrown on the streets. Refuse collection on the premises is the individual's responsibility but it is hardly felt. Absence of enforcement, lack of a proper collection system, inadequate communal bins and their improper location and distance are causes of a lack of participation from residents in this task. Public or communal bins are not visible even in the most newly developed housing colonies of cities. Transportation of waste from points of collection to the site of disposal is done by trucks and tractors.

The capacity of vehicles, number of vehicles, distance and route of travel, frequency of operation are major parameters to be planned for better efficiency. There is a need for optimisation of the system. The problem of solid waste can be minimised if the problem is conceived in a comprehensive manner. An assessment of the current status of solid waste in the state leads to the fact that the following aspects need immediate attention :-

- (i) Waste generated in individual houses and institutions needs proper collection. The separation of waste in degradable or non-biodegradable form done at individual source results in a better disposal of waste. Segregation of paper, plastics and glass bottles and promoting direct collection of these things will result in reducing the volume of solid waste.
- (ii) It is necessary to conceive solid waste management alongwith urbanisation rather than tackling it after the problem appears. Proper location of community bins, their sizes, frequency of cleaning, etc. is necessary to have a clean environment.
- (iii) Scientific studies are needed to optimise the system of collection and disposal, such as to fix the capacity of vehicles, routes of movements, distances of

travel from the point of collection to the site of disposal and manpower needs so as to achieve efficiency with minimum costs.

- (iv) The sites and mode of disposal are required to be well planned and the disposal of waste has to be done scientifically so as to have no adverse effects on the environment.
- (v) Privatisation of solid waste management to the maximum, through involvement of the "informal" and "formal" sector, needs to be undertaken to reduce costs and provide more efficient services.

The status of solid waste in class I to class IV towns of the state is given in Appendix IV.

In the urban areas of Rajasthan more than 40 per cent of the solid waste remains uncollected. The city of Jaipur alone generates nearly 1,000-1,200 Mt. of solid waste out of which around 100 Mt. remains uncollected as per official claims. In the 14 class I towns nearly 3,400 Mt. of garbage is generated and for every metric ton about 5.7 employees are engaged by the local bodies. Class II and III towns generate approximately 850 Mt. of garbage for which nearly 5000 employees are engaged, i.e., 5.8 employees per metric ton. The total per capita garbage generation given in Table 3.5 is the highest in class I cities.

Table 3.5 Per Capita Garbage Generated by ULB Category

Category of ULB	Employees per 1000 population	Per capita garbage generation (kg.)
Class I	3.5787	0.6755
Class II	2.9709	0.5026
Class III	3.0369	0.5474
Class IV	4.0866	0.4322

Source : Based on sample survey of DLB in 1997.

About 28 per cent of the income of municipal bodies is spent on solid waste management (Table 3.6). In recent years, a better management of activities related to the management of solid waste has helped in reducing the percentage of total income spent towards this work.

Table 3.6 Expenditure on Solid Waste Management

Year	Amount (in million Rs.)	% of total income
1992-93	701.57	33.20
1994-95	926.48	32.04
1995-96	1105.64	27.76
1996-97(Estimated)	1271.49	28.25

Source: Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

The method of final disposal of solid waste is dumping into land fills. Keeping in view the future demands, alternative methods of solid waste disposal including recycling and energy generation are required to be seriously considered.

ROADS

Good roads are crucial for the development of an area. Due importance has been attached to road construction since inception of the plan era. Rajasthan is, however, still far below the National average in respect of road length. The road length per 100 sq. km. is estimated to be 40.31 km. at the end of 1996-97. It was 39.29 kms. at the end of 1995-96, which was much below the national average of 62.1 km. per 100 sq. km. The total length of roads administered by PWD was estimated to increase to 73,729 km. by the end of 1996-97 from 70,229 km. in 1995-96. Besides this, 64,220 km. of roads have been constructed by the local bodies, UITs, Krishi Upaj Mandies, Housing Board, RIICO, etc. Till the time, the area is handed over to the municipal bodies, these bodies maintain the lengths also. The surfaced and unsurfaced road lengths during the period 1994-95 to 1996-97 are given in Table 3.7.

Funds are generally less with almost all agencies both for construction and maintenance due to which the condition of constructed roads is not satisfactory. The private sector also is not interested to construct roads in urban areas because of the problems faced in return of investment.

Status of Roads According to the Category of Municipalities

The status of urban roads in class I to class IV towns is given in appendix V. Table 3.8 gives the status of roads in the different category of ULBs.

Table 3.7 Category-wise Road Length, 1994-1995 to 1996-97

(figures in km.)

Category of roads	1994-95			1995-96			1996-97 (estimated)		
	Sur-faced	Unsur-faced	Total	Sur-faced	Unsur-faced	Total	Sur-faced	Unsur-faced	Total
A. P.W.D. roads									
1. National Highways	2846		2846	2846		2846	2846		2846
2. State Highways	9734	76	9810	9920	86	10006	9946	60	10006
3. Major District Roads	5372	177	5549	5533	174	5707	5557	150	5707
4. Other District roads	10254	1889	12143	10860	1755	12615	10980	1635	12615
5. Village Roads	24460	8640	33100	26998	9818	36816	28728	11588	40316
6. Border Roads	2239		2239	2239		2239	2239		2239
Total (A)	54905	10782	65687	58396	11833	70229	60296	13433	73729
B. Other Deptt. Roads			46438			64220			64220
Total (A+B)			112125			134449			137949

Source : Economic Review, 1996-97, GOR.

Table 3.8 Status of Roads in the Different Category of ULB

Category of ULB	BT as % of total roads	WBM and kutcha roads as % of total roads	Road length in km./ per 1000 population
Class I	55.69	44.31	1.1700
Class II	49.64	50.36	2.0382
Class III	45.99	54.01	2.3941
Class IV	65.54	34.46	1.3108

Source : Based on information collected by DLB.

The total road length in the 14 class I cities is 5895.78 km., out of which 44.31 per cent is WBM and kutcha and 55.69 per cent is tarred/BT surfaced. The road length works out to 1.17 km. for every 1000 persons in class I cities of the state.

In the class II category towns the total length of roads is 2487.57 km., 50.36 per cent is WBM and kutcha 49.64 per cent is BT surfaced. The road length per 1000 population in class II towns is 2.04 km.

In the class III towns, 2.39 km. of roads per 1000 population are available with municipalities of which 54.01 per cent is WBM and kutcha roads and 45.99 per cent is BT/ tarred.

In the class IV municipalities 65.54 per cent are BT roads and 34.46 per cent are kutchra roads. The road length in this category works out to 1.31 km. per 1000 population.

To give more emphasis towards improving the network of roads, policy on road development is being implemented in the state. Besides this, as many as 10 bridges, 4 by-passes and one tunnel have been sanctioned by HUDCO under institutional finances, out of which 6 bridges have been completed and works on the remaining 4 bridges are in progress. Under the World Bank assisted programme, upgradation and widening works of two state highways, viz., Udaipur - Dabok - Chittorgarh and Sirohi - Mount Abu have been completed. Work on two state highways, viz., Alwar - Bhiwadi - Mandrayal and Ajmer - Chittorgarh is in progress. Widening of national highway no. 8 to four lanes between Jaipur and Delhi is in progress. Rail over-bridge at Bais Godown, Jaipur has already been completed and opened for traffic. In six major cities infrastructure upgradation, including urban roads, is being taken up by the state with ADB assistance.

TRANSPORTATION

The total number of registered vehicles of all types upto December, 1993 in the entire state was 1,217,705. Regional disparities in the distribution of vehicles is markedly noticeable. Jaipur (283,438 vehicles), Jodhpur (157,445), Kota and Baran (134,343) are the leading districts having the highest number of vehicles. This is on account of a larger population size, better density of roads per square kilometre of area and the development of industries and trade centres in these districts. The other districts which have a higher number of registered vehicles are Udaipur, Ganganagar, Bikaner, Ajmer, Bhilwara and Alwar, indicating their progressive march for better transport facilities and economic prosperity. A significantly low number of vehicles are found in Jaisalmer, Churu and Jhalawar.

The availability of vehicles per 1,000 persons is an important indicator of vehicular traffic in a region. Computations indicate that Jodhpur district has the highest number of vehicles (73 per 1,000 persons) followed by Kota and Baran (66 per 1,000 persons), Jaipur (60 per 1,000 persons) and Ajmer (34 per 100 persons). Conspicuously low availability exists in Churu (4 per 1,000 persons), Sawai

Madhopur (6 per 1,000 persons) and Jhalawar (7 per 1,000 persons) as also in other western arid districts of the state like Barmer, Sikar, Jhunjhunu and Jaisalmer, thus reflecting low standards of economic development.

Figures of vehicles separately for urban areas is not maintained and hence not available. However, in urban areas transportation is provided by multiple modes such as public and private buses, three-wheelers, tempos, cycle rickshaws and individually owned cars, scooters, motor-cycles, cycles, etc. Public transportation system in most of the cities and towns is missing. In Jaipur city, RSRTC operates city buses on some routes while on the other routes private mini buses are permitted to operate. The urban poor are worst affected by the lack of efficient public transport system. Some studies have been initiated for operationalising mass transportation system in Jaipur city but so far due to the paucity of funds nothing concrete has emerged.

HOUSING

General Housing Character

In the urban centres of the state, housing stock is classified under the following major groups :

- (a) Core city;
- (b) Residential areas developed immediately after independence catering to the influx of migrant population;
- (c) Planned residential colonies of RHB, UITs/ JDA and local bodies;
- (d) Residential colonies developed by the private co-operative sector or individual developers;
- (e) Slums and kutchi basties;
- (f) Planned rental housing for various government functionaries; and
- (g) Residential colonies of large industrial houses.

The situation in these aforesaid groups is quite similar to other urban centres of the country and the pattern all over the state is quite uniform, except for local variations, in terms of the magnitude of problems. The important groups are discussed below:

Most of the old established core area of urban centres have experienced densification and also diversification of use of land. With the passage of time and the centrality of location, core areas have also become like central business districts of these urban centres. In fact, mixed land use pattern, as seen in the present situation, was not conceived when these towns were established. With the increasing economic pressures, more and more available floor space has been put to non-residential uses. This coupled with densification has put an acute pressure on the available services of the core areas, resulting in constantly deteriorating housing conditions. Lack of open spaces and recreational areas; undesirable levels of noise and air pollution and insanitary conditions are common to all the urban centres dating back to princely era. Nevertheless, the feeling of security, community bondage, easy accessibility to place of work and facilities, ownership attachments and non-availability of suitable housing in planned outer areas have been the driving force in restraining people to move out of these congested residential areas. Houses in these areas are mostly two to three storied with a central courtyard which is the main source of light and ventilation and is suitable in the hot climate of the state.

The towns located on major rail or road routes experienced a massive migration after independence. Cities like Jaipur, Ajmer, Beawar, Kota, Jodhpur, Bikaner and Ganganagar experienced a major influx due to which residential colonies ("Model Towns") close to the core areas were established. Over a period of time non-residential activities, largely trade, commerce and service industry developed in residential areas. For various reasons no attention was paid to regulate these activities in residential areas and most of these areas have now become congested. The situation warrants immediate intervention of local bodies in terms of regulating development and not allowing unauthorised uses to come in which cause a heavy burden on the services and facilities.

Houses developed in these colonies were mostly constructions by individuals on independent plots. The houses are generally detached or semi-detached buildings. The front open spaces facing roads have now been covered partially or fully to accommodate business in most of the houses. Constructions are restricted from one to three stories with sporadic out-growth of unauthorised four to five floor buildings in major cities. Building stone or baked bricks have been used in the

construction of walls depending upon local availability. Stone slab roofing, with or without steel section supports wherever required, is found in these constructions. After mid sixties, reinforced brick work or reinforced cement concrete work was also used in construction.

Planned residential colonies have been developed by RHB, UITs, JDA or local bodies. It is estimated that the contribution of these residential colonies towards housing stock in urban centres of the state is around 15-20 per cent. Apartment housing is an uncommon phenomenon in the state and except for a few isolated examples of plots for flatted housing in recent schemes the residential schemes developed by UITs/JDA and local bodies provided plots for detached or semi-detached houses. Low rise flatted development has been tried by RHB in cities like Jaipur but the response for the same is rather poor. These residential colonies can be said to be amongst the best so far as general housing in the urban centres are concerned which has resulted in a price escalation of these areas at a faster rate as compared to other residential colonies. In the past six to seven years, residential colonies of UIT/JDA/local bodies close to city core have experienced a growth of approved flatted housing by private developers on plots which were originally meant for single dwelling units. One major bottleneck in the development of housing by state agencies has been the availability of land in ownership of the state or after acquisition. Due to various compulsions and litigations, the agencies responsible for the provision of housing have not been able to perform well as they were expected. The RHB has been most successful in terms of acquiring land and developing housing. However, the construction quality of RHB houses has always been eyed with suspicion by the public at large and these housing colonies take a long time to be fully inhabited. There has been a long gap in registration and delivery of houses by RHB and people who have made alternate arrangements tend to keep these house for speculation.

During the decade 1971-81 when the urban growth was very high (58.7%) and the state agencies were not able to provide for affordable housing, unorganised private sector emerged in the field of housing. This private sector operated under the garb of housing co-operative societies to avail benefits of taxation, stamp duties, etc. and went ahead acquiring agricultural lands on the periphery of

established residential colonies. Individuals were made members of the duly registered housing co-operative societies and unserviced plots were allotted even before the schemes were approved by the concerned agencies. None of these schemes had a provision for even the basic infrastructure facilities like roads, electric lines and water supply distribution systems. However, proximity to fully developed colonies and low prices of unserviced land prompted a large number of people to acquire plots through these societies and many persons of low or middle income group have resorted to the construction of unauthorised houses. The scenario is common to the towns of the state. The intensity of such activity has been very high in six major cities of the state with Jaipur taking the lead. The state government on many occasions brought out guidelines and has moved campaigns for regularisation of such housing colonies but complex legal provisions and speculative tendencies of land market have not permitted the situation to resolve. These societies can be said to have catered to the demands of houses but the overall housing conditions are far from satisfactory in terms of available infrastructure, services and community facilities. In fact some of these colonies in cities like Jaipur can be termed as 'Pucca Slums'.

Quality of Housing

Qualitatively, housing has several parameters that need to be considered. For instance, many of the existing housing units are barely fit for human habitation. A large number of the existing stock of houses are dilapidated structures, many are kutcha and some are semi-pucca. There are a number of slums surrounded by most deplorable conditions of sanitation and hygiene. Houses in many towns do not have even individual latrines and other basic infrastructure like drains etc. Upgradation and qualitative improvement is, therefore, required in the following areas :

- i. Improvement in the quality of shelter, i.e., construction of pucca houses in place of kutcha houses. This also includes providing permanent houses including tenure to the slum dwellers;
- ii. Expansion or addition or alterations in the existing houses to relieve congestion;
- iii. Providing water, sewage disposal and drainage facilities for the houses;

- iv. Environmental improvement; and
- v. Slum improvement or upgradation or resettlement.

The household size in the state was 5.88 in 1981 which is higher than the average household size of 5.6 for the country. The total number of households increased from 4,531,889 in 1971 to 5,824,961 in 1981 and to 7,289,839 in 1991. The household size in urban areas varies between 6.95 in Sikar to 4.95 in Chittorgarh and in rural areas it is between 6.78 in Churu to 5.02 in Bhilwara district during the year 1981. The average household size (5.74) in urban areas was less than the average household size (5.92) in rural areas of the state. It is interesting to note that the household size was more than 6.5 in both urban and rural areas of Churu, Jhunjhunu and Sikar districts.

The household size in urban areas for as many as 20 districts is between 5 and 6 and it is 6 and above in 5 districts. In rural areas, the household size is 6 and above in 11 districts (Table 3.9).

Table 3.9 Number of Districts in different Household Size

Household size	Number of districts		
	Urban	Rural	All
Below 5.0	1	-	-
5.0 - 5.5	12	6	8
5.5 - 6.0	8	9	7
6.0 - 6.5	2	7	8
6.5 and above	3	4	3

Source : AVS, Rajasthan.

Growth of Housing Stock

There is a marked variation in the relative growth of housing stock in different districts. In the nine districts of Ganganagar, Jhunjhunu, Jodhpur, Pali, Banswara, Bhilwara, Udaipur, Jalore and Kota, the growth rate is more than the average for the state, i.e., 51.8 per cent. It was very low in the districts of Churu (24.4%), Sawai Madhopur (24.6%), Jaisalmer (17%) and Sirohi (15%).

A study conducted by Avas Vikas Sansthan in 1989-90 on the housing sector titled. 'Urban Housing Needs in Rajasthan State' that the housing situation in the state as a whole has deteriorated because the increase in households (53.8%) was more than the increase in the housing stock (51.8%). The housing situation as revealed from the study improved in the districts of Ganganagar, Jodhpur and Bhilwara, while during the same period, it deteriorated in Jaisalmer, Pali, Barmer and Sirohi districts.

Urban Slums

According to a survey conducted in 1981, slum problem was more dominant in 22 cities and towns having a population of more than 50,000. Municipalities were asked to reassess the position of slums in their cities and towns. A sample survey of 48 towns was conducted. Out of the 14 class "A" cities, 11 cities are facing slum problem. Of the 18 class II towns surveyed, 16 are facing the slum problem while of the 13 class III towns surveyed, 10 are facing slum problem. The slum problem in class IV towns is considerably less except at Anta where thermal power station has been recently installed.

A comparison has been made between the slum population of 1991 and 1996, where the population has been estimated but not actually accounted. The results show that the slum population of class I cities has increased from 22.91 per cent in 1991 to 23.5 per cent in 1996. The maximum percentage of slum population was recorded in Jaipur and Udaipur closely followed by Pali in 1991. In 1996, the maximum population was again recorded in Jaipur and Udaipur closely followed by Kota. In the surveyed class II towns, the slum population has increased from 23.29 per cent in 1991 to 25.82 per cent in 1996. The maximum population in 1991 and 1996 has been observed in Hanumangarh which is 42.98 per cent and 62.07 per cent respectively. It seems to be so because, Hanumangarh besides being a big mandi (market place), has recently acquired the status of a district headquarter. In the surveyed class III towns, the slum population has decreased from 20.03 per cent in 1991 to 18.65 per cent in 1996.

The total slum population of Rajasthan as per the Town and Country Planning Organisation is estimated to be about 2 million, out of which about 1.42 million

alone lives in class I cities. Considering the average household size of 5.22 persons and giving the allowance for the slum areas, where there are large families, the household size can be taken as 5.5 persons. The number of households in class I cities are, therefore, 363,636.

In Rajasthan the condition of slums, generally in class I cities can be upgraded either through environmental improvement or by relocating the slums. The expenditure on environmental improvement has generally been incurred on providing water, electricity, drains and on paving the streets. But most slum houses do not have toilet facilities, bathing places and legal water connections. Moreover, houses are not in a planned manner due to which drainage becomes difficult. The maintenance is expensive and has to be attended to every year.

Shortage of Houses

As per the 1981 census, in 20.21 per cent of the households the per room occupancy was more than four persons which is not a very healthy sign. The removal of over-crowding needs either addition of new rooms or a new house. The estimated number of such houses in the state is 421,731.

It is observed that about 3.38 per cent households in the urban areas of Rajasthan have more couples than the number of rooms. The number of houses required for this group are estimated to be 70,365 in 1991 for Rajasthan. There are 20.48 per cent households in Rajasthan with more than two married couples per household and are not in need of new housing units because of the tradition of living in a joint family. As per the 1981 census, total number of households in urban areas were 1,281,680 while occupied residential houses were 1,036,000 and the household size was 5.74. The shortage of houses is, therefore, about 0.3 million which is 23.41 per cent of the total households in the state. Considering the above figures the spurt in construction activities during 1981-91, housing shortage is estimated to be about 20 per cent of the total households in 1991. Total number of households in 1991 in the urban areas of the state have been estimated to be about 2,011,928, the shortage for which shall be of 402,386 houses.

Housing Requirement

The study on housing sector conducted by AVS in Rajasthan has used data from census and NSSO. The details mentioned hereafter are based on this study which remains to be the last consolidated study of this kind in the state. The shortage of houses in urban areas of Rajasthan assessed as 402,386 in 1991. An additional 1.55 million houses will be needed by 2001. Thus, a total of 1.95 million houses to be raised in the period 1991-2001. The category-wise requirement of new houses in the state during the period 1991-2001 is given in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 Housing Assessment in Rajasthan, 1991-2000

Income Category	EWS	LIG	MIG	HIG	Total
Shortage in 1991	73,234	177,855	59,956	91,342	402,386
Total requirement upto 2001	355,660	863,746	291,172	443,598	1,954,176
% in each category	18.2	44.2	14.9	22.7	100.00

Source : Survey of Urban Housing Needs in Rajasthan, Avas Vikas Sansthan, 1989-90.

To meet this demand of construction of new houses the requirement of funds in the different income categories has been assessed in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 Fund Requirement for Housing

Income category	Fund requirement (in billion Rs.)
EWS	07.12
LIG	37.14
MIG	42.95
HIG	133.08
Total	220.29

Source : AVS, Rajasthan.

The land requirement to meet this demand is as high as 32,600 hectares. As per the present town planning norms, this will be required in different urban areas of the state as given in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Land Requirement for Housing in different Class of Towns

Size class	No. of houses required	Land required (hectares)
Class I	1,043,900	17,400
Class II	222,200	3,700
Class III	426,900	7,100
Class IV & Below	261,000	4,400
Total	1,954,000	32,600

Source : Urbanisation Housing & Related Facilities, A.K. Gupta, UK Shrivastava, RHB.

Agencies Engaged in Housing Provision

Concerted efforts are necessary to achieve these targets. Presently the main agencies engaged are Rajasthan Housing Board, Urban Improvement Trusts and Municipalities. In addition to these main agencies, the state, central government department, government undertaking and various private agencies and houses co-operatives are also providing houses and housing plots in varying extents to the people. Housing Board is constructing houses in 43 towns of the state which covers all major urban centres.

The Rajasthan Housing Board has so far constructed nearly 118,000 houses out of which about 100,000 have been completed and handed over to the beneficiaries. The remaining houses are in the process of completion.

Urban Improvement Trusts and Municipalities are also constructing houses mainly for the LIG and EWS. These agencies develop residential areas and allot plots for the construction of houses. Nearly 88,000 plots have so far been provided and 20,000 dwelling units have been constructed. The Government has provided loan assistance for nearly 21,000 houses more to individuals in low and middle income category. In addition to this, about 65,000 plots have been allotted in Kacchi basties and another 22,000 plots have been developed under IDSMT schemes. During the ninth plan also it is expected that the housing programme will be given greater attention.

URBAN DEVELOPMENT INVESTMENT REQUIRED IN VARIOUS TOWNS

The total urban development investment required for each service in the different class I to IV cities/towns is given in Appendix VI. It is observed that class I cities require the maximum expenditure of Rs. 5204.08 million during 1995-96 followed by class II towns (Rs. 2752.37 million), class III towns (Rs. 1216.49 million) and class IV towns (Rs. 252.36 million). Among individual services it is seen that the highest expenditure (60 to 86 per cent) is required by roads and sewerage in class I to class IV cities/towns.

Some of this investment can be made by the private sector in addition to the public sector and municipal bodies where fund availability is limited. But for this to happen, major policy changes will be required in order to attract private sector investment so as to ensure return on investment.

IV. INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR URBAN INFRASTRUCTURE

Infrastructure provision and maintenance in an area is a combined effort of a number of bodies. In Rajasthan, this responsibility lies mainly with the Department of Urban Development and Housing, Public Health and Engineering Department, Public Works Department, State Electricity Board, Rajasthan State Industrial Development and Investment Corporation, etc. Besides this, the urban local bodies are also performing a variety of functions to insure the quality of services in their area.

This section gives an account of the various bodies responsible for providing infrastructure in urban areas, their nature of activities, functions and the inter-departmental co-ordination.

URBAN DEVELOPMENT AND HOUSING DEPARTMENT

Urban Development and Housing (UDH) Department of the state is the key agency responsible for the development of land and housing in urban areas. The bodies under its purview are : i.)Town Planning Department; ii.) Directorate of Local Bodies (DLB); iii.) Urban Improvement Trusts (UITs); iv.) Rajasthan Housing Board (RHB); and v.) Jaipur Development Authority (JDA).

Town Planning Department

The Town Planning Department of the state, headed by a chief town planner is the sole agency responsible for the preparation of master plans for urban areas of the state. For this purpose, the urban areas are notified under section 3 or 8 of the Urban Improvement Act, 1959. The other major functions of this department are : -

- (a) Works related to National Capital Region's sub-Region in the state;
- (b) Planning , monitoring and co-ordinating IDSMT projects executed by the local bodies;
- (c) Preparation of schemes and projects for local bodies;
- (d) Regulating use of urban lands in terms of granting various no-objection certificates under revenue rules as applicable for urban areas. (under

revenue rules, agricultural lands are converted to non-agricultural uses including residential, commercial, industrial, etc.); and

- (e) Advisory role with reference to all matters connected with planned urban development.

Directorate of Local Bodies

The Directorate of Local Bodies, headed by the director who usually is a senior state administrative service officer, is the controlling body of all municipalities for administrative purposes. It also performs monitoring and co-ordination functions at the state level for all the 182 municipal bodies of the state, as discussed in detail, in the subsequent sections.

Urban Improvement Trusts

UITs in ten cities were created under the provision of the Urban Improvement Act, 1959 (4.2 Act) for improvement of urban areas in the state. The constitution of the Trusts, term of office, termination, etc. are all governed by the provisions of the Urban Improvement Act. The trusts are chaired by public representatives appointed by the state government or by district collectors. The trusts are responsible for preparation of schemes and projects for their towns in conformity with the master plans which are sanctioned by the state government. Qualified engineering personnel are available with all UITs and at present UITs of Jodhpur, Kota, Udaipur, Bhilwara, Bikaner and Ajmer have town planners posted for various planning functions.

Rajasthan Housing Board

The Rajasthan Housing Board is an autonomous body constituted on 24th February, 1970 through an ordinance No. 3 of 1970 by the Government of Rajasthan with an aim to deal with and satisfy the need of housing accommodation in the state of Rajasthan. At present it is the leading agency involved in tackling the housing problem in the state. The RHB, having undertaken construction of about 141,000 houses (out of which nearly 60% are for the economically weaker section and low income group), is developing planned colonies with provision of infrastructure like water supply, electrification, sewerage and other community facilities such as parks and open spaces. The RHB is headed by a chairman who is appointed by the state government and has a

strong engineering cadre besides a Planning and Architecture Cell. The Board has a good track record of raising loans for funding housing projects from various financial institutions like HUDCO, LIC, HF Ltd., Canfin Homes, NHB, HDFC, UTI, BOB Housing Finance Ltd. and certain banks also. The RHB is operative in 34 major cities and towns of the state where it is developing housing for all categories of people. Different types of houses are made available to the people either on outright sale or under self financing schemes or under hire purchase schemes.

Jaipur Development Authority

The JDA was constituted under the Jaipur Development Authority Act, 1982 for the purposes of planning, co-ordinating and supervising the proper, orderly and rapid development of the Jaipur Region. Jaipur region includes the core city of Jaipur and the abutting towns of Amer and Sanganer. It consists of 342 revenue settlements covering an area of approximately 1,460 sq. km. Hon. Minister for Urban Development and Housing is the chairman of the authority. Jaipur Development Commissioner is the chief executive of the authority and is appointed by the state government under the provisions of the Act. The JDA has played a pivotal role in planning and development of the Jaipur region. In its one-and-a-half decades of existence it has catered to the needs of the city in terms of providing developed land for various urban uses either through schemes executed by it or by granting approval to various private housing co-operative societies as per state Government guidelines.

The JDA has been undertaking comprehensive area development schemes besides upgrading infrastructure like sewerage, roads, street lights, parks, playgrounds and open spaces. The JDA is at present embarking upon a major urban extension scheme to the west of Jaipur which is expected to accommodate a population of nearly 500,000.

ROLE OF OTHER DEPARTMENTS/ORGANISATIONS IN URBAN DEVELOPMENT

There are many other agencies which have a role to play in the development of urban areas and provision of urban services (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Institutional Arrangement for Urban Infrastructure

Department/Organisation	Activities
Public Health and Engineering Department (PHED)	Urban water supply, sewerage and sanitation
Rajasthan State Industrial Development and Investment Corporation (RIICO)	Development of industrial estates, industrial finance
Rajasthan State Agricultural Marketing Board (RSAMB)	Development of marketing yards, construction of roads connecting marketing yards to rural hinterlands
Rajasthan State Electricity Board (RSEB)	Supply and distribution of power
Revenue Department	Providing land to local bodies for various uses and also to individuals under revenue rules
Public Works Department (PWD)	Development and maintenance of national and state highways, bye passes and urban roads. Construction and maintenance of government public buildings, rental housing for various government departments.
Rajasthan State Bridge and Building Construction Corporation (RSBCC)	Construction of bridges and buildings for various government sector and other agencies.
Awaz Vikas Sansthan (AVS)	Collection and dissemination of information on low cost technologies; nodal agency for training under NRY and TRYSEM; developing cost effective building materials; construction of housing and other buildings for various government sector and other agencies.
Awaz Vikas Limited (AVL)	Construction of buildings and infrastructure.

STATE LEVEL FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS SERVING THE URBAN SECTOR

There is no state level financial institution which caters to the demands of the urban sector. However, the state government is contemplating the constitution of a corporation which can raise finances for meeting the demands of various infrastructure projects of urban local bodies and other agencies working towards urban infrastructure development. Funds for various schemes and projects executed by UITs, JDA, RHB and

municipalities are raised largely through HUDCO. Besides HUDCO, finance is obtained from other financial institutions, bilateral agencies and under various schemes of the Government of India.

To cater to the needs of finance in the housing sector, besides the core agencies like HUDCO, LIC, HDFC, Dewan Housing Finance, Canfin Homes, BOB Housing Finance Ltd., many other banking and non-banking institutions are available.

INTER-DEPARTMENTAL CO-ORDINATION

Complaints of duplication of efforts by various agencies involved in urban development and also a lack of co-ordination amongst them are often reported. These complaints seem to have increased because the role of municipal bodies has been recognised and elected bodies have come to power. Mostly the complaints are of minor nature and are primarily caused due to communication gaps of plurality of activities and of UITs/JDA and municipal bodies. There are general complaints such as that of the PHED commencing digging of roads for laying of lines immediately after the local body has finished carpeting the same. Though some truth may exist in such complaints but they seem to be blown up out of proportions in most cases. In all district headquarters, the district collector heads a co-ordination committee. This committee is represented by senior level executive officers of all departments, boards and local bodies involved in developmental works through which convergence of resources and under taking of co-ordinated development in urban areas is attempted. In other administrative headquarters, the administrative head performs similar functions.

The district administration also co-ordinates and monitors the efforts of various local bodies and other organisations in terms of implementation of various centrally sponsored schemes in urban areas. In order to remove differences amongst municipal bodies and UITs, largely related to settlement of accounts and clearance of arrears arising out of transfer of schemes from UITs to municipal bodies, the state government has recently decided to hold interface sessions under the chairmanship of secretary UDH, Government of Rajasthan.

URBAN LOCAL BODIES

There are 3 municipal corporations (now called nagar nigams), 11 municipal councils (now called nagar parishads), 20 class II municipalities, 68 class III municipalities and 80 class IV municipalities (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Classification of Urban Local Bodies by State Finance Commission

S. No.	Population Range	Class of ULBs	No. of ULBs	Total population (1991)
1.	4,500 - 9,999	IV	8	69,040
2.	10,000 - 19,999	IV	72	1,098,202
3.	20,000 - 49,999	III	68	2,010,595
4.	50,000 - 99,999	II	20	1,339,244
5.	100,000 - 499,999	I	11	2,317,168
6.	5,00,000 & above	Corporation	3	2,721,885
	Total		182	9,556,134

Source : SFC, 1995.

Earlier, the classification of ULBs was brought in existence in September, 1993 before which the criteria of per capita income was not applied. The first State Finance Commission Report furnished to the state government in December 1995 recommended that the classification of ULBs should be in conformity with census classification of towns to ensure uniformity and availability of analytical data by the census of India.

The grant-in-aid to ULBs is based on population and hence there will be no problem in the classification to be as per census classification of towns. The grant-in-aid to ULBs is given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Criteria for Grant-in-aid to ULBs

S.No.	ULB	Grant-in-aid
1.	Corporations and Councils	Rs. 12.50 per person
2.	Class II	Rs. 25.00 per person
3.	Class III and IV	Rs. 37.50 per person

Source : DLB, GOR, 1997

Functions of Urban Local Bodies

The functions of the municipalities listed under Section 98 and Section 101 of the Rajasthan Municipal Act are broadly classified into : (i) obligatory duties (section 98), and (ii) discretionary duties (section 101).

Contrary to the common belief that municipalities are meant for cleaning and lighting streets there are 22 items of works listed in Section 98 as their obligatory duties. As the name suggests, these are compulsory duties which ought to be performed by the municipalities. On the other hand, the 25 items of works listed under Section 101 are discretionary and depending on the resource position of the ULBs these functions may be performed.

The State Finance Commission, looking at the large number of activities assigned to the ULBs, deemed it necessary to categorize these activities into the following : (i) public health and hygiene; (ii) public safety and security; (iii) development; (iv) regulatory; and (v) miscellaneous.

A comprehensive classification of both the obligatory and discretionary functions under the above heads is given in the first Finance Commission Report. A brief description of these functions would be necessary to appreciate the financial commitments of the municipalities.

Obligatory functions

- (i) Public health and hygiene functions include cleaning public streets, sewers, removing filth, rubbish, night-soil, noxious odour, public vaccination, etc. Most of the municipal efforts and resources are committed to public health and hygiene. The task of maintaining civic standards in cities and towns has become gigantic with the steady increase in urban population and shortage of resources. Sanitation has a direct correlation with the outbreak of diseases and pestilence. Therefore, this is the most sensitive and demanding function which the ULBs are discharging.
- (ii) Regulatory functions include regulating offensive and dangerous trades, removing dangerous buildings, regulation of cattle, etc. This function also has a bearing on ensuring civic sense amongst the inhabitants. The efficacy of this

function depends on the man power available with the ULBs and its sincerity and sense of purpose in imposing the regulations.

- (iii) Public safety and security comprises of functions such as protection of life and properties from fire, street lights, raising voluntary force for the protection of persons, etc. This is one of the most neglected municipal functions. The security of citizens has been relegated to the police and the ULBs have hardly any resources for supplementing the state's efforts to ensure the safety and security of their inhabitants. As many as 134 ULBs in Rajasthan have no fire fighting equipment to provide their inhabitants with fire safety.
 - (iv) Development functions include constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, drains, sewers, tanks, wells, markets, etc. As the resources of ULB's are not sufficient even to cater to sanitation and public health, no substantial investment is made in infrastructural development.
- E. Miscellaneous functions like registering births and deaths, printing annual reports, etc., are also covered under Section 98.

Discretionary Functions

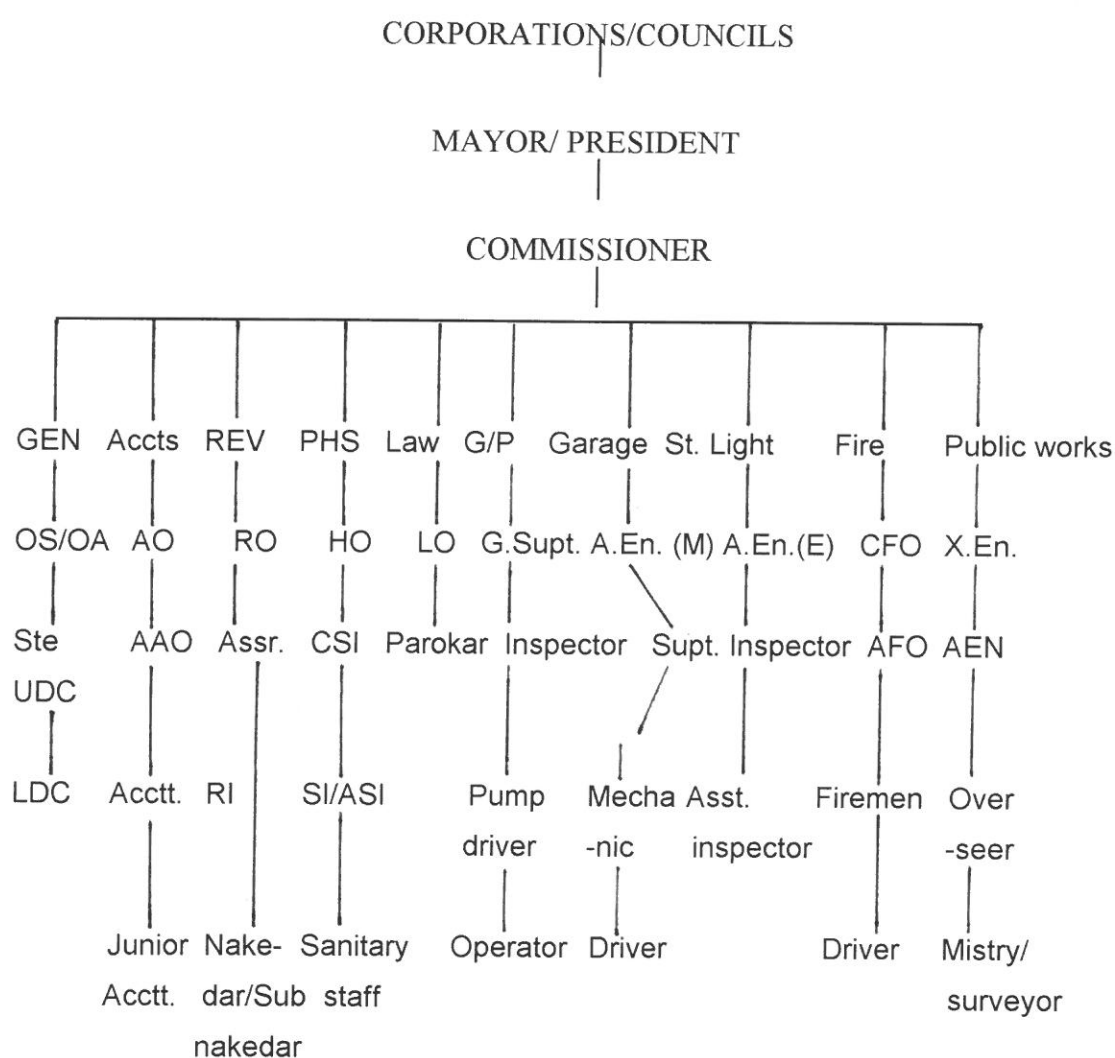
Most of these functions are developmental in nature like construction of parks, libraries, asylums, etc. Other activities like plantation of trees, building sanitary houses for poor, providing music to people, helping people during conditions of scarcity are also included. Basically there is a provision for committing municipal resources to development, beautification and for supplementing welfare measures within the municipal area.

It is apparent that the reality on ground regarding the achievement of objectives of ULBs is far from the expectations of the people. Leave alone the fact that the municipalities are not able to cover the majority of functions assigned to them, they are not able to ensure the quality of services in the limited sphere of activities undertaken by them. Several causes could be attributed to the insufficient and inefficient services rendered by the municipalities.

Organisational Structure of Urban Local Bodies

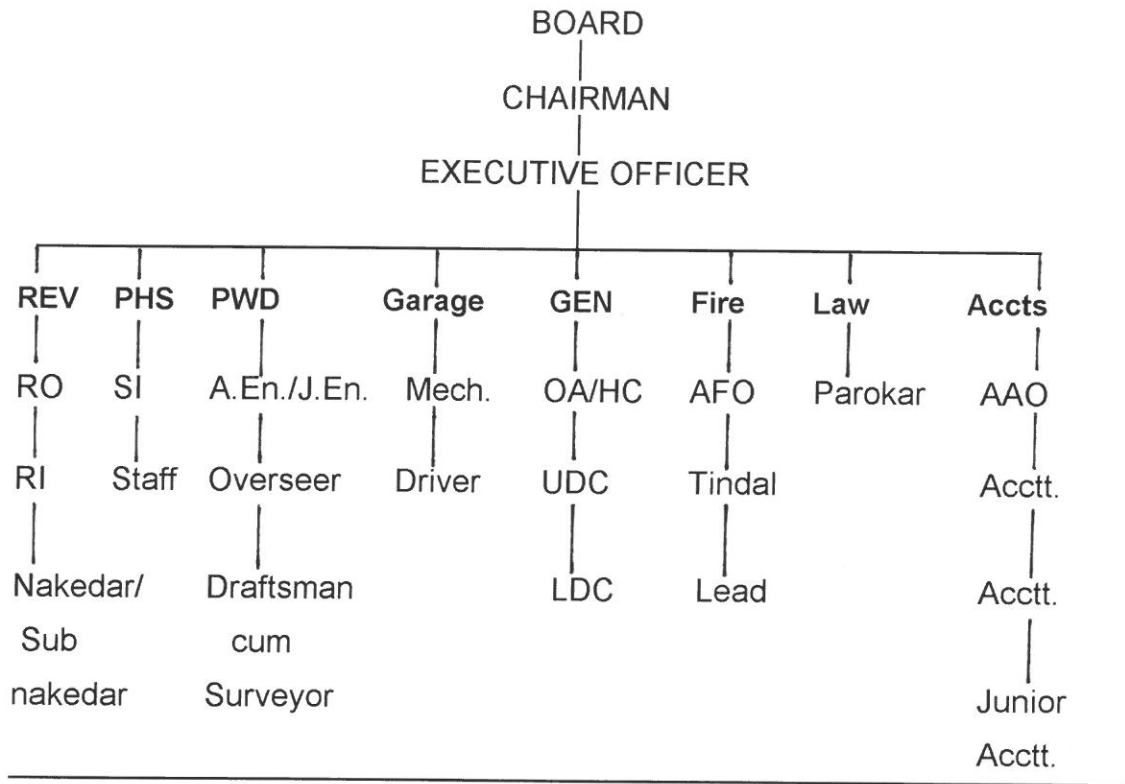
The organisational structure of an average municipal corporation, council and board have been represented herein shows that while the corporations and councils have ten sections to look after a variety of municipal functions, the lower level municipal boards (class III and class IV) have only five sections to look after the municipal functions (Fig. 4.1 and 4.2).

**Fig 4.1: ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS/
COUNCILS**



- Note : 1. In Jaipur municipal corporation, the public works section is headed by a superintending engineer and the accounts section by the chief accounts officer. One post of senior accounts officer was also created. Jaipur municipal corporation also has a planning cell headed by a chief town planner.
2. At present, the post of chief fire officer exists only in Jaipur.

Fig. 4.2 : ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF MUNICIPAL BOARDS



Legend :

GEN -	General administration	RO -	Revenue officer
PHS -	Public health & sanitation	HO -	Health officer
PWD -	Public works department	LO -	Law officer
G/P -	Garden/parks	AO -	Accounts officer
St. Light	Street lighting	X.En. -	Executive engineer
A.En. (M)	Assistant engineer (mechanical)	CFO -	Chief fire officer
A.En. (E)	Assistant engineer (electrical)	AFO -	Assistant fire officer
G.Supt.	Garden superintendent	UDC -	Upper division clerk
Ste	Stenographer	LDC -	Lower division clerk
Accts.	Accounts	SI -	Sanitary inspector
REV	Revenue	ASI -	Assistant sanitary inspector
AAO	Accounts and administrative officer	Supt. -	Superintendent
Acctt.	Accountant	OS/OA -	Office superintendent/office Assistant
Mech.	Mechanic	Assr. -	Assesor
Acctt. RI-	Accountant/Revenue Inspector		
OA/HC	Office assistant/Head clerk		
CSI -	Chief Sanitary Inspector		

Table 4.4 Municipal Functions by Different Class of Local Bodies

Sl. no.	Section	Corporations/ councils	Class II	Class III	Class IV
1.	Revenue	V	V	V	V
2.	Health & Sanitation	V	V	V	V
3.	Public Works	V	V	V	V
4.	Garage	V	V	V	V
5.	Garden & Parks	V	X	X	X
6.	Legal	V	V	X	X
7.	Street Lighting	V	X	X	X
8.	Fire Fighting	V	V	X	X
9.	Accounts	V	V	X	X
10.	General administration	V	V	V	V

Source : SFC Report, 1995.

Note: V - section exists; X - section does not exist.

Municipal Functionaries

The staff in the municipalities have been drawn from the following cadres : (a) Rajasthan municipal services; (b) Rajasthan municipal subordinate and ministerial services; (c) Rajasthan municipal class IV service and sweepers; and (d) Other staff (isolated posts for libraries, power house, gardens, etc.).

While the corporations and councils at the official level are headed by the commissioners belonging either to RAS or municipal service, the boards are headed by executive officers. Depending on the class of the board, the class of executive officer also varies.

Staffing Pattern

The staffing pattern for different class of municipal boards and municipal councils have been spelt out clearly in the notifications, No. 24 (2) DLB. 64-65/42298-42554, dated 27/28-12-1965 and No. 24 (2)/integ/DLB/66/57817, dated 31/10/1966 respectively.

It is important to identify the gaps in the requirement and availability of staff in ULBs to discharge their obligatory functions. However, the gap in prescribed norms and availability cannot be construed as absolute necessity of ULBs to effectively discharge their functions. With the current trend in privatising services there is a lot of scope for maximising efficiency without increasing establishment. The State Finance Commission in its report has recommended norms for staff of various category in municipal bodies.

The ULBs should seriously consider the issue of staff cost for mustering revenue to the municipalities and ensure that there is a positive correlation between expenditure and income. In other words, they cannot afford to spend more in order to earn less. If the ULBs' income is not even able to meet the expenditure for raising revenue, the expenditure commitments on providing services to people will suffer badly. Perhaps many ULBs are caught in this vicious circle and exist primarily to pay salary to their staff.

Inadequacy of human resource coupled with poor training has led to a deterioration of municipal services. This problem was further compounded by weak financial position of ULBs that promoted the Director of Local Bodies (DLB) to impose a ban on recruitment in 1985. As a result the vacancies increased with every retirement and ULBs had to grapple with worsening shortage of staff. The training facilities are inadequate and needs to be strengthened. There should be a clear cut placement and transfer policy. Keeping in mind the modern technology and management practices, there is an urgent need to go into the human resource problems of ULBs. There is a need for constituting a service selection board to select municipal employees upto ministerial services level.

V. URBAN INFRASTRUCTURE FINANCING

MUNICIPAL FINANCE

Most of the municipalities in Rajasthan are financially weak and are not in a position to meet the rising demand for municipal services. They are, therefore, unable to discharge their obligatory functions satisfactorily, leave aside the discretionary functions. Moreover, a rapid growth of cities and towns is not matched by a corresponding increase in their revenue. While the functional responsibilities of ULBs increased several folds inflating their resource needs, their performance on augmentation of revenue to carry out these functions was dismal. Even the statutory avenues provided for municipal revenue remained unexploited or under-exploited. The constant fear of annoying the electorate loomed large and prevented the ULBs from tapping even the existing sources of income.

Sources of Municipal Revenue

The sources of municipal revenue can be broadly classified into : (i) tax; and (ii) non-tax revenue. The tax revenue is generated from various taxes levied and collected by the ULBs, while the non-tax income is derived from fees, charges, penalties, sale of land, income from properties, loans, assistance, etc. For the purpose of convenience, tax revenue has been classified into obligatory and discretionary tax revenue while non-tax revenue has been classified as revenue from internal and external sources.

Municipal Taxes

The Rajasthan Municipal Act, under Sections 104 and 105, provides for obligatory and discretionary taxes which are similar to the two categories of functions that the ULBs are expected to discharge. The obligatory taxes that can be levied by the municipalities are : (i) land and buildings tax on the annual letting value; (ii) octroi on goods and animals brought into the municipal area for consumption or use or sale; and (iii) tax on professions and vocations.

Discretionary taxes, for example, on hired vehicles plying in ULB areas, on draught animals, dogs, boats, scavenging tax, lighting tax, water tax, tax for construction and/or maintenance of public latrines and for the removal and disposal of refuse, tax on trade and callings, etc. may be imposed by ULBs subject to any general or special orders of the state government. In any elected local body there is a reluctance to decide in favour of taxing the voters and hence the discretionary taxes have negligible contribution to the ULBs' revenue.

In Rajasthan, only two of the three obligatory taxes, viz., octroi and lands and buildings tax (popularly called house tax or property tax) have been levied. Profession tax is not levied in any of the ULBs. Even amongst the obligatory taxes, house tax is not levied or collected by as many as 60 ULBs (Table 5.1). Even the big ULBs, such as Kota municipal corporation and Bhilwara and Udaipur municipal councils have not exploited this source. While the larger municipal bodies can get compensated by a higher cash inflow from octroi, the smaller ULBs cannot fulfil this deficiency through octroi.

Table 5.1 Municipalities not Levying and Collecting House Tax

S.no	Class of ULBs	Number with no house tax revenue
1.	Corporation	1
2.	Councils	2
3.	Class II	5
4	Class III	20
5.	Class IV	32
	Total	60

Source : SFC, 1995.

It is not out of place to mention here that even the obligatory taxes assigned to ULBs not strictly obligatory because the state has the power to interfere in the levy of obligatory taxes. In other words, these taxes are imposed by the state government and levied and collected by ULBs. The rates of these taxes and the date of imposition is decided by the government in each case. This has resulted in the non-levy of house tax by a number of ULBs and a total absence of profession tax. In some cases the state government had permitted ULBs to withdraw the house tax.

Municipal Receipts

Taking 1991 population as a base, the per capita revenue of ULBs has increased from an average of Rs. 201.80 in 1991-92 to Rs. 252.60 in 1993-94. As per figures available for 1995-96, the actual revenue of all ULBs was Rs. 3.98 billion which works out to Rs. 416.60 per capita (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Per Capita Revenue and Expenditure, 1991-92 to 1995-96

Year	Per capita income (In Rs.)	Per capita expenditure (in Rs.)
1991-92	201.80	190.20
1992-93	221.10	211.80
1993-94	252.60	251.80
1994-95	302.60	279.80
1995-96	416.60	361.90

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

A statement of category-wise per capita receipts is given in Table 5.3. In order to support the smaller ULBs (category III and IV) it has been decided by the state government that these will be given a general government grant at the rate of Rs. 37.50 per person after April, 1997. The grant for category I and II ULBs, on the other hand, will be at the rate of Rs. 12.50 and Rs. 25.00 per person respectively (Table 4.3).

Table 5.3 Per Capita Income of Urban Local Bodies, 1993-94 to 1995-96

(in Rs.)

Category of ULB	Per capita income		
	1993-94	1994-95	1995-96
Class I Corporations and Councils (14)	259.90	322.60	407.80
Class II Municipalities (39)	141.70	308.80	460.80
Class III Municipalities (58)	350.90	281.90	440.10
Class IV (71)	250.10	228.50	349.80
Rajasthan (182)	252.60	302.60	416.60

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

An overview of the municipal revenue in Rajasthan from various sources in 1993-94 is given in Appendix VII. It is observed that obligatory taxes are the prime source of municipal revenue in the state, contributing 61.64 per cent (Rs. 1487.91 million) of their total revenue. The discretionary taxes are the least utilised source of income to the ULBs, netting just Rs. 12.11 million (0.5 per cent). In other words, receipts from own taxes are about Rs. 1500 million of the total receipts in 1993-94. The per capita income from own tax revenue is higher in corporations and class I and III category of ULBs (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 : Revenue Receipts of Urban Local Bodies by Sources , 1993-94

Category ULBs	Own tax revenue		Non-tax revenue		Grants in aid from state		Total	
	Actual (in million Rs.)	Avg. per capita (in Rs.)	Actuals (in million Rs.)	Avg. per capita (in Rs.)	Actuals (in million Rs.)	Avg. per capita (in Rs.)	Actuals (in million Rs.)	Avg. per capita (in Rs.)
Corpn.	589.37	216.52	214.83	78.92	52.02	19.11	856.22	314.56
Class I	380.81	164.34	77.03	39.05	41.51	17.91	499.36	215.50
Class II	155.32	78.73	82.48	58.45	41.70	21.14	279.50	141.68
Class III	251.04	177.92	149.03	105.62	95.10	67.40	495.17	350.94
Class IV	123.47	108.93	105.96	93.48	54.07	47.70	283.51	250.12
Total	1500.02	156.96	629.34	65.85	284.41	29.76	2413.76	252.58

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

During the same period, in some of the ULBs of class III, the octroi collection has been started through contract system. Appendix VII also shows that, the non-tax sources contribute 37.86 per cent (Rs. 913.75 million) of the income, of which external sources by way of loans and assistance contribute 11.78 per cent (Rs. 284.41 million).

Contribution of Obligatory Taxes

Though the major source of revenue from amongst the obligatory taxes is octroi (58.77 per cent), the proportion widely fluctuates from 40.06 per cent in class IV ULBs to 73.99 per cent in the case of municipal councils (Appendix VII). It is apparent that the revenue efforts saturate and stagnate with a good cash flow from octroi. House tax does not get adequate attention as a source from the lower tiers of the municipalities. Except for the corporations, the contribution of house tax to the total revenue in other categories is less than 2 per cent. Even the corporations and councils can ill afford to ignore house tax, should they desire to improve municipal services. Hence, all categories

of municipalities have to focus on house tax as a good source of revenue, irrespective of the quantum of cash inflow from octroi.

An analysis of revenue in different classes of ULBs shows a marked difference in the pattern of revenue earnings between the bigger ULBs upto class II and the smaller ULBs comprising of class III and class IV levels. While the obligatory tax revenue of the bigger ULBs is substantial, it progressively reduces with the reduction in the class of municipalities. The corporations, councils and class II ULBs own as much as 68.83 per cent, 75.89 per cent and 55.50 per cent of their income to obligatory taxes while class III and class IV ULBs have less than 51 per cent of their income through these taxes.

Yield from Other Taxes

As it is evident from Appendix VII, the contribution of discretionary taxes is very insignificant. Only class IV ULBs have a nominal contribution of 2.50 per cent from this source to the total revenue. It is apparent that significant contribution from octroi desists the ULBs from levying and collecting other taxes. In smaller municipalities lack of sufficient tax base for octroi obviously led to improving their other sources of income.

Non-tax Receipts

Non-tax revenue sources can be broadly classified into revenue from internal sources and external sources. Income from properties, sale of land, fines, penalty, fee, etc. are generated from the own (internal) sources, while income from external sources are mainly subsidy and assistance and loans from the state government. The contribution to total revenue from non-tax sources is given in Table 5.5 and Appendix VII. Income from internal non-tax sources among the different class of ULBs shows an irregular pattern. While the other class of ULBs account for more than 25 per cent of their income to these sources, the municipal councils account for only 15.43 per cent. Hence, there is a need for the councils to harness this source for additional income. The class IV ULBs, perhaps for want of a strong base of octroi, tap their own non-tax sources substantially to rise up to 37.37 per cent of their total income.

In so far as the state government's assistance to ULBs is concerned, the pattern is again irregular. The major benefactor of the external source of income is class III municipalities which account for Rs. 95.10 million, followed by class IV ULBs which received Rs. 54.07 million in 1993-94 (Table 5.6).

The per capita flow of funds from external sources shows that there is no fixed pattern of funding the ULBs under special assistance and special subsidy for roads and drainage. Though the annual subsidy is released to the municipalities, there are many problems regarding its release.

Table 5.5 Non-tax Revenue of Urban Local Bodies, 1993-94

S. No	State/ULB	Non-tax internal revenue		Non-tax external revenue	
		in million Rs.	Percentage	in million Rs.	Percentage
1.	Corporations	214.83	25.09	52.02	6.08
2.	Councils	77.03	15.43	41.51	8.31
3.	Class II	82.48	29.51	41.70	14.92
4.	Class III	149.03	30.10	95.10	19.20
5.	Class IV	105.96	37.37	54.07	19.07
	Total	629.34	26.08	284.41	11.78

Source : SFC report.

Table 5.6 Funds from External Sources, 1993-94

S.No.	Category of ULBs	Funds from external source	
		Total (Rs.in million)	Per capita (Rs.)
1.	Corporation	52.02	19.11
2.	Councils	41.51	17.92
3.	Class II	41.70	21.14
4.	Class III	95.10	67.40
5.	Class IV	54.07	46.33
	Total	284.41	29.76

Source : SFC report.

Plan and Non-plan Assistance to ULBs

The external assistance from government to municipalities under plan and non-plan funds clearly indicate that urban development is not getting sufficient attention from both central and state governments. Even amongst those allocations, core municipal services like sanitation, urban roads and street lighting with which ULBs in Rajasthan are directly concerned get inadequate funds, as is evident from Table 5.7 and 5.8.

Table 5.7 Plan Allocations for Core Services

(in million Rs.)

	Items	Allocation	
		VIII plan (1992-97)	1994-95
P L A N			
1.	Urban sanitation		
	a. Sewerage scheme & treatment plant (PHED)	86.60	5.00
	b. Low cost sanitation	176.50	40.00
2.	Environmental improvement	204.00	40.00
3.	Modernisation of municipal sanitation	21.00	4.00
4.	Fire fighting equipment in municipalities	24.50	5.00
5.	Nehru Rozgar Yojana	271.99	40.00
6.	Urban Basic Service for Poor	24.00	-
	Total	808.59	134.00

Source : UDH Department, GOR, 1995.

Table 5.8 Non-plan Allocation for 1994-95

(in million Rs.)

S. no.	Item	Provision
1.	General assistance to municipalities and municipal councils	97.93
2.	Special assistance to municipalities and municipal councils	3.00
3.	Other assistance	15.00
	Total	115.93

Source: UDH Department, GOR, 1995.

Total allocations for urban services in 1994-95 under both plan and non-plan heads is Rs. 249.93 million which works out to Rs. 26.15 per capita. If the PHED and employment component of the plan is removed to arrive at allocations for core municipal services, the combined allocation under plan and non-plan is Rs. 204.93 million or Rs. 21.44 per capita. The municipalities, being the engines of economic growth in the country in general and the state in particular, deserve more allocations under plan and non-plan funds. Data for different categories of ULBs with reference to plan and non-plan allocations are not available.

Municipal Expenditure

The existing pattern of municipal expenditure at various levels reveal that the areas of municipal spending vary with the class of ULBs. Category-wise expenditure of ULBs under different heads is given in Appendix VIII and Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Expenditure of Urban Local Bodies, 1989-90 to 1993-94

(in million Rs.)

S. no.	Item	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92	1992-93	1993-94
1.	Establishment	254.3	278.2	343.1	393.2	444.9
2.	Public health & sanitation	457.8	531.4	598.1	703.8	816.5
3.	Provision and maintenance of public facilities	24.2	141.1	171.1	195.9	263.2
4.	Development and asset creation	185.9	193.9	393.5	479.1	537.2
5.	Miscellaneous	149.3	182.8	310.8	310.8	310.8

Source : SFC, 1995.

The expenditure pattern is more or less uniform in the municipal corporations, councils and class II ULBs, however class III and IV ULBs show higher establishment charges which are even more than the development expenditure. This clearly denotes the over-staffing and sickness as well as the scarcity of resource with this class of ULBs. It is observed from Table 5.10 and Appendix VIII that the proportion of establishment expenditure drastically increases with reduction in the level of municipalities. The class IV municipalities spend 30.95 per cent of their total expenditure on establishment while it is only 11.06 per cent in the case of corporations. In the higher level municipalities to the level of class II, major proportion of their expenditure is on sanitation and public health, while class III and class IV municipalities spend more on development and asset creation (27.22 per cent and 24.73 per cent respectively).

The larger municipal bodies, because of their high volume of revenue, are able to keep a low proportion of establishment expenditure. But the smaller municipalities have a low level of income and, therefore, their proportion of establishment expenditure to total expenditure is high.

The municipal boards (class II to class IV), because of their low level of income, incur less than 10 per cent of their total expenditure on the provision and maintenance of public facilities like water, education, electricity, gardens, etc. Funds committed to general maintenance of municipal infrastructure is a negligible sum of Rs. 62.04 million (Rs. 6.49 per capita per annum) in the state during 1993-94, which explains the crumbling urban facilities in the state. Class IV municipalities spend less than 1 per cent on general maintenance.

Table 5.10 Proportion of Revenue Expenditure by Items, 1993-94

(in million Rs.)

S. no	Item	Corporation	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	Total state
1.	General supervision and collection	(11.06) 92.48	(17.55) 84.64	(20.29) 62.62	(24.83) 121.78	(30.95) 83.38	(18.75) 444.89
2.	Health & sanitation	(40.22) 336.45	(46.66) 200.86	(32.90) 96.78	(24.74) 121.36	(22.66) 61.08	(34.42) 816.54
3.	Maintenance of public facilities	(14.68) 122.76	(13.38) 64.54	(8.70) 25.60	(6.84) 33.33	(6.24) 16.82	(11.08) 263.25
4.	Development	(19.40) 162.29	(17.36) 83.70	(20.95) 61.62	(26.32) 129.07	(23.10) 62.23	(21.03) 498.95
5.	Remunerative services (purchase of property)	(2.78) 232.71	(0.73) 35.02	(0.92) 27.02	(0.90) 44.07	(1.63) 43.91	(1.61) 383.73
6.	Miscellaneous	(11.86) 992.42	(9.31) 44.88	(15.25) 44.86	(16.37) 80.26	(15.42) 41.56	(13.10) 310.81
	Total	(100.00) 836.49	(100.00) 482.12	(100.00) 294.19	(100.00) 490.40	(100.00) 269.49	(100.00) 2372.79

Source : DLB, GOR.

* Figures in parentheses indicate percentages.

The per capita expenditure of different categories of ULBs given in Table 5.11 shows that class IV ULBs have spent less than the other categories. There are minor variations amongst other categories. In the year 1995-96, the per capita expenditure of class II ULBs was the highest mainly because of funds available under PMIUPEP.

FINANCIAL VIABILITY OF MUNICIPAL BODIES

The question of municipal viability at the current level of functional capability of ULBs could be better understood by comparing the income and expenditure pattern at

various levels and by ascertaining whether these ULBs are in surplus or in deficit. The financial performance of ULBs during the period 1989-90 to 1993-94 is given in Table 5.12. It is observed that most ULBs were doing well until the year 1990-91 however, there was a subsequent decline in the year 1993-94. In the year 1990-91, out of a total of 182 ULBs in the state, 133 showed a surplus and only 49 municipalities showed a deficit, i.e., a meagre 26.92 per cent of the municipalities. After 1990-91, their performance has deteriorated gradually and by 1993-94 as many as 109 ULBs, i.e., 59.89 per cent of the municipalities showed less income than their expenses.

Table 5.11 Per Capita Expenditure of Urban Local Bodies, 1993-94 to 1995-96

(in Rs.)

Category of ULBs	1993-94	1994-95	1995-96
Class I	266.80	299.00	368.30
Class II	235.60	295.30	396.30
Class III	246.40	261.60	353.90
Class IV	219.80	190.60	283.50
Rajasthan	251.80	279.80	361.90

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

Table 5.12 Number of ULBs in Surplus/Deficit, 1989-90 to 1993-94

Category of ULB	Total number of ULB	Year									
		1989-90		1990-91		1991-92		1992-93		1993-94	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Corpn.	3	2	1	3	0	2	1	2	1	2	1
Councils	11	6	5	8	3	6	5	6	5	3	8
Class II	20	11	9	13	7	14	6	15	5	7	13
Class III	68	35	33	50	18	45	23	31	37	26	42
Class IV	80	41	39	59	21	49	31	29	51	35	45
State	182	95	87	133	49	116	66	83	99	73	109

Source : SFC report.

Note : + - surplus; - deficit.

The major reasons for the poor financial performance of ULBs in the state are :

- i. Poor exploitation of revenue sources;

- ii. Excess expenditure on revenue collection;
- iii. Wastage and leakage of revenue;
- iv. Poor recovery efforts;
- v. Total lack of cost consciousness in expenditure;
- vi. Spiralling establishment expenditure;
- vii. Absence of a mechanism for periodical revision of fees, charges, fines and penalties to bring them in tune with changing times;
- viii. Lack of will for taking hard options to augment revenue; and
- ix. Inadequate financial support from the state government.

Revenue Trend

The general trend in municipal revenue can be discerned from Table 5.13. It is clear that the municipal councils, with an average increase of 19.48 per cent in octroi and 3.09 per cent in house tax, are not paying enough attention to their tax revenue. Their non-tax revenue also shows the lowest trend increase when compared to other categories of municipalities. Though the trend increase in discretionary tax of councils is 91.28 per cent, because of its very low share (0.37 per cent) to total income, it has no significance in the context of improving the financial condition of the councils.

Table 5.13 Average Increase in Revenue among Different Class of ULBs, 1989-90 to 1993-94

(in per cent)

S. no	Category of ULB	Tax revenue			Non-tax revenue	
		Octroi	L&B	Discretionary	Internal	External
1	Corpns.	25.95	52.31	-	37.82	13.34
2	Councils	19.48	3.09	91.28	60.4	6.84
3	Class II	15.20	8.82	26.35	9.44	1.67
4	Class III	15.82	10.84	64.69	20.56	20.99
5	Class IV	14.61	15.51	7.79	22.05	24.99
6	State	20.00	33.43	18.54	21.39	14.85

Source : SFC report.

The trend in revenue from external sources, consisting mostly of government assistance, reveals that class IV ULBs are the major beneficiaries (24.99 per cent). While the corporations had incremental assistance from the government during 1989-90 to 1993-94 (average increase of 13.34 per cent), class II ULBs registered a poor 1.67 per cent increase.

Thus, there is need to make an effort towards income generation by ULBs : firstly, through introduction of certain policy changes; secondly, through devolution of maximum functions to the private sector for which service delivery at cost charges will be necessary; and lastly, through assistance from financial institutions and external borrowing agencies.

RESOURCE REQUIREMENT OF URBAN LOCAL BODIES

Investment Norms

The Zakaria Committee in its report identified certain essential functions to be discharged by ULBs and further suggested the requirement of financial resources for discharging these functions. These include core civic services such as water supply, sewerage, storm water drains, solid waste disposal and street lighting. The cost providing core municipal services were estimated according to 1956-57 prices. However, subsequent updation was done and the cost has now been revised to 1990-91 prices (NIUA, 1993). Table 5.14 lists investment norms for the provision of core civic services at 1990-91 prices as suggested by the Zakaria Committee and Planning Commission.

Zakaria Committee norms for core services like roads, street lighting and drains have been recommended by the State Finance Commission. The norm for solid waste disposal has, however, been adopted from the Planning Commission. The Table 5.15 gives the per capita fund requirement in different class of ULBs for providing core municipal services.

Table 5.14 Suggested Investment Norms and Standards for Provision of Core Civic Services, at 1990-91 Prices

(Rs./capita)

S.no.	Core services	Zakaria committee (as per class of ULBs)		Planning Commission	
				Low	High
1.	Water supply	A. 403 C. 257 E. 154	B. 334 D. 189	568	812
2.	Sewerage	A. 556 C. 385 E. 240	B. 642 D. 291	464	696
3.	Storm water drains	A. 249 C. 189 E. 146	B. 223 D. 171	114	232
4.	Solid waste disposal	N. A	N.A.	58	93
5.	Roads	A. 600 C. 249 E. 137	B. 351 D. 180	464	696
6.	Street lighting	A. 214 C. 171 E. 124	B. 189 D. 163	139	139

Source : NIUA (1993): Urban Development Strategy for the state of Gujarat, Vol. 1, Research Study Series No. 55.

- Note: (i) Planning Commission has suggested two levels of norms - at low level and another at high levels of service standards.
(ii) Class of ULB - A: 5-2,000,000 pop.; b: 1 - 500,000 pop.; c: 50,000 - 100,000 pop.; D: 20,000-50,000 pop.; E-5,000-20,000 pop.
(iii) N.A. - comparative norms (per capita) are not available/not provided.

Table 5.15 Per Capita Fund Requirement for Providing Core Services

(in Rs.)

Category of ULB	Roads	Street lighting	Solid waste disposal	Drains	Total
Corpns.	351	189	93	223	856
Councils	249	171	58	189	667
Class II	180	163	58	171	572
Class III	137	124	58	146	465
Class IV	104	87	58	125	374

Source : SFC, 1995.

Note: Per capita fund requirement has not been calculated for water supply and sewerage because there is no proposal at present to transfer these functions to ULBs. These services are currently within the domain of PHED, Rajasthan.

Resource Gap

It is imperative to ascertain the gap in resource requirement before considering any measures for augmenting resources. It is also relevant to match the income of ULBs

to their resource needs in order to assess their existing capability of delivering services. Table 5.16 shows the per capita requirement of funds for all categories of ULBs along with their per capita income and gap.

Table 5.16 Category-wise Per Capita Resource Requirement and Gap

(in Rs.)

S. no.	Category of ULB	Resource required	Per capita	
			Income	Gap
1.	Corporations	856.00	314.56	541.44
2.	Councils	667.00	215.52	451.48
3.	Class II	572.00	208.74	363.26
4.	Class III	465.00	246.23	218.77
5.	Class IV	374.00	242.94	131.06

Source : SFC, 1995.

Note: Per capita income figures are for 1993-94.

The category-wise total per capita financial requirement of ULBs inclusive of their non-recurrent arrears is given in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 Category-wise Total Per Capital Resource Requirement of ULBs, 1993-94

(in Rs.)

S. no.	Category of ULB	Resource gap	Per capita	
			Arrears	Total
1.	Corporations	541.44	43.10	584.54
2.	Councils	451.48	10.66	462.14
3.	Class II	363.26	29.02	392.28
4.	Class III	218.77	28.19	249.96
5.	Class IV	131.06	30.92	161.98

Source : SFC, 1995.

Note: Arrears are a one time liability and not an annual liability.

Bridging the Gap

If the municipalities have to overcome their financial problems and provide services according to the prescribed investment norms, concerted efforts of ULBs and the state government would be required. Serious internal efforts for resource mobilisation coupled with a need and performance based external assistance would go a

long way in meeting this resource gap. It is, therefore, essential to explore the scope of mobilising additional resources by the ULBs.

RESOURCE MOBILISATION

The funding requirements of ULBs can essentially be categorised (i) capital costs for major new activities; and (ii) operational and maintenance costs.

Possible Sources for Capital Funding

Budgetary support for capital works is not easily available due to the existing state of public finance and the ambitious requirements in this regard. Therefore, possible sources which can be explored will have to be a combination of: (i) private sector investment; (ii) domestic borrowings from local financial institutions; and (iii) borrowings from multilateral and bilateral donors.

Private Sector Involvement

The funds required to develop urban infrastructure exceed funds available with the government. Thus, there is a need to involve the private sector in the design, construction and operation of infrastructure projects. The private sector involvement is typically in the form of built-operate-transfer basis. The extent of private sector investment will primarily depend upon the expected returns. Generally, the private sector is interested in those projects where it has a reasonable degree of control on the success or failure of the project. To increase the financial attractiveness of some projects, it is possible to give the existing network to the private sector with a fixed selling price structure, and agree on an economically reasonable schedule for renovation and new investment. In the present circumstances, this does not seem to be an easy proposition.

External Assistance

External assistance from multilateral and bilateral agencies in the form of a combination of loans and grants is another useful funding source which needs to be tapped. Generally, 30 per cent of the total assistance is extended as a grant while the remaining 70 per cent is given as a loan with interest and with an initial grace of five years on the principal.

No such project has yet been funded by an external aid agency in the state. A comprehensive project proposal for the development of urban infrastructure in six principal towns of Rajasthan namely Jaipur, Kota, Udaipur, Ajmer, Jodhpur and Bikaner is presently being considered by the Asian Development Bank for assistance. As estimated by the Department of UDH, the total project cost is about Rs. 10.12 billion.

For both domestic and foreign loans, the burden of loan repayments has to be borne, at least in part, by the urban local bodies (ULBs) and urban improvement trusts (UITs, including JDA). However, since the cost recovery mechanisms adopted, at present, by both ULBs and UITs are far from adequate, major changes would be required to be made in order to have an overall impact.

Avenues for Resource Generation

Even in the case of loan repayment of recurring costs regarding O&M for want of budgetary support from the state government, new avenues for resource generation will have to be identified and exploited. The main source of revenue is octroi. However, with reference to the scope for improvement in receipts, these sources in order of their priority are discussed below :

Sale of Land

The largest source of non-tax income to ULBs is by sale of land, which constituted 8.91 per cent of the total income of ULBs. The municipal corporations and councils have lesser proportion of income through this source than the lower level municipalities. Class IV ULBs have 16.26 per cent of their income from sale of land. The reason for a low return from this source in corporations and councils is that in larger towns and cities, developmental authorities and UITs have their jurisdiction over vast urban land and the municipal area is mainly restricted to the old city with a few vacant plots for sale.

According to the existing provisions, 15 per cent share of revenue generated (cash) by sale of land vesting with UIT is transferred to the corresponding ULB. It may be mentioned here that this arrangement is not by way of a statutory provision but due to an administrative order. It is also a fact that huge arrears have piled up on this

account because even the share of 15 per cent is not being transferred to the ULBs timely on time. This is one of the reasons for the lowest pwer capita expenditure (Rs.208) in the municipal councils. Even class IV municipalities spend Rs. 230.93 per capita in their towns.

Any improvement in the basic infrastructure facilities of towns will benefit, directly or indirectly, the concerned UITs. Although, the financial condition of the UITs is not satisfactory, it is only logical that a marginal share of the cost towards infrastructure improvement projects should be borne by the UITs also. In view of the above, the share of transfer (from UITs to ULBs on proceeds of the sale of land) from 15 per cent to 25 per cent has to be enhanced, while simultaneously earmarking the 10 per cent additionality for the improvement in services.

The modalities of land development for residential purposes by UITs and JDA also needs re-thinking. For example, emphasis should be on front end payment by the allottee, i.e., if land is being acquired, the scheme should ideally be floated at the award stage of the land acquisition proceedings. Advance bookings can be done and land should be sold simultaneous to development. The charges may be recovered in phases. The initial registration fee and subsequent instalments might be determined on the basis of field realities and the prevailing market conditions. Also, processes within the community and participation models like Jan Sahbhagita Model, prevalent in the state, need to be quickened in order to improve its efficacy. Curbing procedural delays and simplification of procedures has become essential. The presently existing lease system also needs to be reviewed. While the rationalisation of rates needs to be looked into, the merits of freehold vis-à-vis leasehold also need to be examined to assess its suitability.

Regularisation of Slums/Kacchi Basties

Another important component is the proceeds through slum improvement by way of regularisation of slums or Kacchi basties. For squatters on government land, a proposal is already under consideration by the state government for introducing a regularisation policy for the surveyed squatters of 1981. An instance of the existing proposals is given in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18 Regularisation Proposals for Encroachments

Area occupied by squatters	Amount to be paid for regularisation
Upto 50 sq.yds.	25 per cent of the reserve price
50-100 sq.yds.	50 per cent of the reserve price
100-200 sq.yds.	100 per cent of the reserve price
More than 200 sq.yds.	Market price

Source : IX Five Year Plan, Proposals of the Working Group on Housing & Urban Development, UDH, GOR, 1996.

By applying certain modifications in the above pattern, more resources can be generated. For the regularisation of kacchi basties, a holistic approach may be adopted by networking services and other infrastructure which may benefit rest of the city also. In this process, resources can be generated through land made available for commercial and other remunerative uses as a part of the integrated development of kacchi basties. Relocation of some kacchi basties may have to be done specially in case the basties are located on government, municipal or other public land required for planned development of the town. Such relocation often tends to cause an initial resentment among the oustees, but with adequate rehabilitation measures and suitable long term alternative housing arrangements, the situation has been tackled successfully in the past.

House Tax

House tax/land and building tax is an important source of revenue for local bodies. It is a mandatory tax under Section 104 of the Rajasthan Municipality Act, 1959. It is charged at the rate of 6 per cent of the annual letting value of the house. It may be mentioned that this tax is not collected at all in many towns, prominent among which are the divisional headquarters of Kota and Udaipur. Even in other towns, the amount collected is meagre and contributes to an abysmally low percentage of the total revenues generated by these ULBs.

There are 60 ULBs with no house tax income. In the municipalities of Kota, Barmer, Mangrol, Taranagar and Chittorgarh, there was no income from house tax during the period 1993-94, but they still spent Rs. 1.39 million, Rs. 0.02 million, Rs. 0.51 million, Rs. 0.06 million and 0.05 million respectively on the collection of house tax.

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As mentioned earlier, procedure for assessment of house tax is complicated because it is based on the annual letting value of the building. The real rent fetched by the market is different from the revealed rent. Moreover, application of the provisions stated in the Rent Control Act, in assessment, has further complicated the matter. It is commonly known that discretion exercised by the inspectors in assessment results in a wide variation in the rent assessed for comparable houses in the same locality. The imbalance created by this fluctuation is one of the important causes of non-payment of house tax.

The State Finance Commission recommended that ULBs should demystify the assessment procedures by simplifying them and by making them more transparent. In this respect, categorisation of areas on the basis of value of properties in those areas and reasonable per square foot rate of tax on the constructed and vacant area would help in reducing the monopoly of municipal inspectors and in ensuring payment of tax. Assessment procedure should be so transparent that an average literate citizen can work out his house tax liability without any problems.

The State Finance Commission also suggested that ULBs with a very high growth rate in the housing sector can consider a one-time payment of house tax, so that the staff could be deployed for new assessments.

Apart from initiating a better collection mechanism, some alternative modes of assessment of this tax are being proposed so that the gross realisation is better. The present arrangement is such that an assessor of the municipality assesses the annual letting value of the house. In such a situation, the house holder as well as the municipal body are at the mercy of the whims and fancies of the assessor specially for want of fixed norms. There are often situations where, in the same locality, two similarly built houses are assessed at entirely different values for no reason. In order to bring more objectivity in the system the following alternatives can be thought of :

Alternative I: A one time tax, as in the case of motor vehicles can be levied. The corpus generated can be kept in a bank and the interest from that can be transferred to the concerned ULB. The periodic interest receipts would be more or less commensurate with the existing revenues being generated in the municipality on such account.

Alternative II : Instead of the annual letting value of the house, the total covered area of premises can be the basis for assessment of house tax. In order to make this change, amendments would be required in the Rajasthan Municipality Act and Rules. The element of self assessment can be introduced in this with 10 per cent random checks provided that these taxes can be collected efficiently.

Alternative III : This alternative can be a combination of alternative I and II discussed above, implying that a one time tax should be levied on the basis of covered area. Prima facie, alternative III is the most suited and would generate additional revenues of a substantial order if the collection is administered properly.

For better collection of taxes, charges can be pegged with either electric or water bills so that on non-payment of house tax, these services get disconnected.

Octroi

There is a need to devise a system for augmenting octroi as an important source of revenue. It is believed that there is considerable leakage of octroi income. Moreover, the expenditure on collection of octroi is more than the octroi collected in 6 ULBs during 1993-94. (Table 5.19). The mounting cost of collection with no substantial increase in the yield from these taxes could be collected through a private contractual arrangement. The State Finance Commission received a favourable view in this regard from majority of the non-officials. But some reservations were expressed by municipal officials in a few districts visited by the Commission. However, there was no effective alternative suggested for preventing leakage or to improve the yield. The State Finance Commission is, therefore, in favour of privatising the collection of octroi.

The efforts already taken in this regard by the state government have yielded good results. In some ULBs, like Bikaner, the highest bid quoted for octroi is three times the current level of income from this source. Against the average income of Rs. 40 million per annum, the final bid is for Rs. 120 million per annum. Encouraged by this result, over 60 local bodies have opted for privatised octroi collection. If this is any indication, streamlining the method of collection alone can double, if not triple, the octroi income. Mere doubling of octroi income can yield an additional income of about Rs. 1.41 billion per annum.

Table 5.19 Expenditure on Collection of Octroi Exceeding 100 per cent by Urban Local Bodies, (1989-90 to 1993-94)

(in per cent)

S. no.	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92	1992-93	1993-94
1.	Pushkar (117.5)	Puskhar (107.38)	Pushkar (327.9)	Pushkar (109.42)	Pushkar (122.75)
2.	Mandalgarh (154.76)	Mandalgarh (161.69)	Bali (130.45)	Bali (106.31)	Bali (119.61)
3.	Abu (145.53)	Abu (167.92)	Abu (165.11)	Abu (137.24)	Abu 125.51)
4.	Mangrol (147.53)	-	Pindawa (109.42)	Mangrol (154.26)	Pindawa (149.83)
5.	Weir (147.53)	-	Kanour (108.82)	Weir (103.04)	Kanour (196.88)
6.	Ratannagar (293.10)	-	Deoli (107.87)	-	Indergarh (152.17)
7.	Rajakera (100.64)	-	Bhinmal (327.9)		
8.	Mundwa (168.01)				

Source : Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

Note: In the municipality of Abu, DLB clarified that the octroi staff collects toll tax which more than covers the low yield of octroi. This argument, however, does not justify the poor collection of a levied tax.

Tax on Profession

Regarding the obligatory tax on profession, the State Finance Commission recommended that elected bodies should be left with the discretion to levy and collect this tax.

Discretionary Tax

Discretionary taxes still remain unexploited or grossly under- exploited. Without covering the majority of inhabitants, taxes could be levied on sectors which strain municipal services to their limits or substantially contribute to the sanitation problems of towns. In this respect, areas like subzi mandis, private hospitals and dispensaries, barber shops, dhabas, road-side restaurants and industries are a few to name. A sanitation tax could be levied on them. Parking tax and hoarding tax could also earn a good revenue for the larger ULBs.

Other Unexploited Tax Avenues

- a. Some provisions like those existing in Sections 65 A & B of JDA Act, also need to be exploited in order to generate revenues for such an activity which directly relates to the improvement of urban infrastructure. Section 65 A provides for a levy on subsequent transfer. This is yet to be imposed. The government may consider levying such a tax for subsequent sales of a plot of land with the arrangement that 50 per cent of such proceeds are earmarked towards infrastructure projects. Similarly, Section 65 B provides for a vacant land tax. The government may also consider levying such a tax. This will help in reducing the practice of occupying huge areas of land by investors who keep this land vacant for long periods of time, blocking the development of the housing sector.
- (b) Augmentation of revenue from hoardings and advertisements by revision of fee and rates.
- (c) Additional facility charges on multi-storied flats, based on per square metre for the burden caused on civic services.
- (d) Pollution tax on vehicles, particularly on four wheelers.
- (e) Surcharge on transfer, sales, fee, etc. on immovable properties.
- (f) Taxes on hospitals, restaurants, diagnostic clinics, private nursing homes and contractors based on their turn-over.
- (g) Since industrialisation contributes to the pressure on urban services. The industry sector can also be charged to some extent for improving the civic amenities of towns.

Additional Resource Mobilisation (ARM)

Only those ULBs deserve to get government funds who have optimally exploited their own resource base. It is, therefore, expedient to assess the resource gap left unbridged after accounting for the ARM measures of ULBs, for external funding. There is still, however, plenty of scope for mobilising resources internally, Table 5.20 gives details of existing tax and non-tax income and the proposed incremental income from internal efforts.

Table 5.20 Proposed Income Generated in Various Categories of ULBs at the end of 1999

(in million Rs.)

Category of ULB	Octroi	House tax	Discretionary	Non-tax	Total
Corpn.	632.40 (540.05)	29.09 (49.21)	9.42 (Nil)	56.18 (214.83)	727.09 (804.20)
Councils	380.53 (369.45)	9.78 (9.49)	5.74 (1.86)	22.22 (31.39)	418.28 (457.85)
Class II	91.49 (152.48)	1.71 (2.63)	3.51 (0.19)	9.73 (82.42)	128.11 (237.80)
Class III	128.76 (242.94)	1.39 (5.15)	3.29 (2.95)	47.78 (149.03)	181.21 (400.07)
Class IV	61.32 (113.56)	.76 (2.82)	0.00 (7.09)	27.58 (105.96)	89.67 (229.44)

Note : Figures in parentheses indicate actual revenue in 1993-94, excludes grants-in-aid from state.

The projection of municipal deficit even after their ARM measures on per capita basis are given in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21 Per Capita Municipal Deficit

(in Rs.)

Category of ULB	Requirement as per norms	Income	ARM	Deficit
Corpn.	856.00 (2,330.03)	314.56	267.00	274.44
Council	667.00 (1,545.44)	215.52	181.00	270.48
Class II	572.00 (745.91)	208.59	96.00	267.26
Class III	465.00 (935.12)	246.23	90.00	128.77
Class IV	374.00 (436.46)	242.94	77.00	54.06

Source : SFC, 1995.

Note: Figures in parentheses are Rs. in million required.

Devolution of Funds to ULBs

The State Finance Commission recommended that the criteria of grant in aid should be allocated proportionately to the population on of ULBs in the following manner: Municipal corporation (28.48%); Municipal council (24.25%); Class II ULBs (14.02%); Class III ULBs (21.04%); and Class IV ULBs (12.21%).

The Commission also fixed the devolution into 5 major divisions as :

- | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|---|--|
| (i) | General Purpose Grant | - | Based on population |
| (ii) | Development grant | - | Assistance for development needs |
| (iii) | Development loan | - | Based on development needs |
| (iv) | Incentive grant | - | Based on performance |
| (v) | Matching grant | - | Unspent of total after
(i) to (iv) above. |

The total devolution to ULBs projected by the State Finance Commission during the period 1995-96 to 1999-2000 is given in Appendix IX. The projection of total revenue of ULBs, also by the State Finance Commission, is given in Table 5.22.

Case for Revision of Tariffs and User Charges

At present, the state provides heavy subsidy on various social and economic services where returns are very low. The upward revision in tariffs and user charges of various services needs a general consideration, especially in the present changing circumstances. In some projects being considered by the external agencies, for example, Jaipur water supply scheme from Bisalpur (World Bank), water resources consolidation project (World Bank) and the drinking water project in Churu being assisted by FRG, the issue of revision in tariffs has been of primary concern. The model agreed in Churu project, envisaging gradual upward revision over the project implementation period in order to meet a fixed percentage of the cost of providing the service, is an acceptable model.

Table 5.22 Projection of Total Revenue of ULBs, 1995-96 to 1999-2000

(in million Rs.)					
Category of ULB	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-2000
Corpns.	1408.85	1978.96	2673.96	3642.42	4890.89
Councils	833.97	1180.54	1596.29	2177.73	2890.79
Class II	351.39	442.66	530.27	606.14	731.25
Class III	701.38	958.78	1246.05	1576.79	2053.72
Class IV	338.59	418.45	494.99	568.76	677.01
Non-Plan & Own	3634.18	4979.38	6541.56	85718.36	11243.66
Plan	169.60	206.70	222.60	270.30	318.00
Grand Total	3813.78	5186.07	6764.16	8853.14	11561.66

Source : SFC, 1995.

Water charges have been revised to some extent, however, there is a need for further upward revision. Sewage disposal charges at present are levied alongwith drinking water charges in Jaipur and collected by PHED. Road toll needs to be coupled with some associated charge like a surcharge on petrol and diesel or alongwith other such taxes charged at the time of registration of motor vehicles.

PRIVATE SECTOR PARTICIPATION

Availability of funds in the public sector will be always limited due to the increasing pressure of providing urban services. The condition seems to be progressively worsening in ULBs. The only recourse is to generate maximum finances internally by restructuring and formulating such policies which can attract the private sector to enter and provide services, which the government and ULBs are currently doing from their own funds. For this, charges from consumers for providing services have to be on actual cost basis so that the return of investment by the private sector is ensured.

Some privatisation efforts were initiated by ULBs, not primarily as a measure to improve services but as a last resort to strike a balance between the rising demand for services and their poor financial condition. The financial position of ULBs is in a precarious condition and there is a need to deliver services economically in order to assuage the community feelings. As the scope for augmenting revenue is limited, it is essential for ULBs to develop a cost consciousness in the delivery of services which would result in saving money to improve the spread of municipal services. However, this approach will create an adverse effect amongst the employees. It should be kept in mind that improvement in services could not be brought about by alienating the employees. It is, therefore, essential to safe guard the interest of the existing employees while launching any scheme to privatise services.

Thus, following alternatives will have to be adopted to minimise employees' resentment in the ULBs privatisation efforts : (i) while assigning the responsibilities of sanitation, street lights, etc. on contract basis, it is essential to optimally use the existing staff in specified areas and wards which are outside the working area of the contractors. This will help in engaging manpower gainfully and will also serve as a comparison for contract work and instil a sense of competition; (ii) existing staff could be used for supervising the activities of the contractors to ensure that they do not violate the

conditions in the agreement; and (iii) excess staff could be employed in areas where vacancies exist, if need be, after training.

There are several pros and cons to the issue of privatisation. Several states have opted for this alternative to provide services and to keep their operational costs from mounting. This has also become a convenient via-media for mollifying adverse public feelings on inadequacy of municipal services. In Rajasthan too, the trend in privatising municipal services has started. The activities related to collection of taxes and sanitation have already been chosen for contractual execution by the municipal corporation of Jaipur, municipal councils like Ajmer and Bikaner and boards like Rajakera, Bandikui, etc. Areas like Street lighting and road maintenance could also be considered for privatisation.

In the states of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Kerala, municipalities have also played a promotional role in ensuring a high quality of sanitation service to the community. Each household contributes a nominal sum of Rs. 10 per month to the garbage collector who picks up waste from the premises of individual houses and takes it to the municipal bins for disposal. The garbage collector covers 100 to 200 houses in the locality and collects his monthly fee. The ULBs provide them with the where-with-all for garbage collection and uniforms in token of giving recognition to these garbage collectors. Encouraging, community participation in municipal functions will go a long way in improving the quality of services in Rajasthan. Efforts are being made in this direction among the Municipal corporations which will be extended to at least 11 Municipal councils also.

In Rajasthan, several ULBs have contracted out collection of octroi. This has greatly increases revenue and checked leakages.

SECTION - II
PALI CITY PROFILE

I. CITY PROFILE

INTRODUCTION

Pali town, popularly known as 'Pali Marwar' is located in the south-western part of Rajasthan on the right bank of river Bandi. It is at a distance of about 75 kilometres south-east of Jodhpur. The town has an ancient origin with a number of Jain and Hindu temples. Few temples like Parswanath and Somnath date back to the 10th century A.D. The legends and inscriptions indicate that Pali was a centre of pilgrimage and worship during the ancient days. Moreover, availability of water from the river and tanks made its location more strategic.

The old town developed along zig-zag lanes leading to the main temples. Pali was an important trade and distribution centre for the regional population. Prior to the merger of erstwhile Jodhpur state into Rajasthan in 1949, Pali was a very important town of the princely state. It is now a district headquarter. It has a municipal council and most of the district level government offices are located here.

The early development of the town was compact and concentrated on a comparatively higher ground between the river in the south and the tanks towards the north and the east. The extension of railway line to Pali in 1885 A.D. provided a new direction for its growth towards the north but it was limited to the railway station only. Due to lack of sufficient infrastructural facilities and a low level of economic development, growth of Pali was more or less stagnant till 1940. There had been practically no increase in its population from 1901 to 1941. After 1941, Pali grew tremendously in all directions. The establishment of Umed Mills during 1941 in the north, along with its offices and labour colonies, provided great impetus for the growth of the town. Pali's significance in textile industry was not limited to Umed Mills only, a large number of cotton printing and dyeing units were also established in the town. Today, Pali is one of the important industrial centres of Marwar region and to a visitor, it gives a vision of a propulsive growth centre with a bright future. The construction of Jawai dam, during the post-independence period, brought a

revolutionary change in the agrarian economy of Pali district. Consequently, activities like manufacturing and marketing of agricultural implements grew rapidly and agro-based industries were established. During the 10 year period from 1970 to 1980, employment under registered industrial units increased from about 4,700 in 1970 to over 10,000 workers in 1980.

Although, growth rate in the decade 1981-91 is less (49.44%) than the growth rate of 1971-81 (83.74%), however, it is in time with the position in other decades (Table 1.1). A high growth rate in the decade ending 1981, can be attributed to an increased industrial activity, which declined in the next decade due to deterrent pollution control measures. Thus, the town of Pali has grown from a small size of 12,360 persons in 1941 to 91,568 persons in 1981 and 1,36,482 persons in 1991.

Table 1.1 gives the decadal growth rates and projections of Pali town from 1951 onwards to 2011.

Table 1.1 Decadal Growth Rates and Population Projection, 1951 to 2011

Year	Population	Variation	Decadal growth (%)
1951	24100	-	-
1961	33303	9203	49.64
1971	49834	16531	49.64
1981	91568	61734	83.74
1991	136482	45274	49.44
2001	202427	65585	47.93
2011	296000	93573	48.28

Source : Census of India, 1991,Rajasthan, Projections computed by the Town Planning Department, GOR.

The municipal area of Pali extends over an area of 9,320 acres, of which only about 5,000 acres is urbanised. There are four rural settlements within the municipal limit. Its urban area, as notified for master plan purposes, consists of 6 revenue villages covering an area of 26,092 acres.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

Occupational Structure

Table 1.2 shows the occupational structure of Pali town during the period 1981 and 1991. It is observed that the town of Pali experienced a marginal decline in its work participation rate from 29.11 per cent in 1981 to 28.06 per cent in 1991. While the share of workers in the primary and secondary sectors has increased manifold, their proportion has drastically fallen in the tertiary sector. It is interesting to note that, workers in the secondary sector have increased by almost ten times during 1981 and 1991.

Table 1.2 Occupational Structure, 1981 and 1991

Category	Work force		% of total work force	
	1981	1991	1981	1991
Primary sector	1035	2507	3.88	6.54
Secondary sector	1477	19517	5.42	50.96
Tertiary sector	24146	16,271	90.57	42.50
Total	26658	38295	100.00	100.00

Source : Census of India, 1981 and 1991, District Pali, Rajasthan, Town and Village Directory.

Major Economic Activity

There is a presence of fertile agricultural land in hinterland of Pali town. Due to availability of irrigation facilities by Jawai canal, Hemawas dam and Sardar Samand dam, cash crops like rayra (mustard, til in oil seeds), bajra, millet and wheat among grains and cotton in fibers, etc. are produced in large quantities. People of rural areas bring these commodities for sale in the markets of Pali town and get good returns. Thus, growth of cotton in the hinterland areas has given rise to the development of industrial activities in the textile sector like cotton ginning, processing, weaving and manufacturing of clothes.

Wholesale and Retail Markets

For trading different agricultural commodities, there is an agricultural market (krishi mandi) in the town. There is also a wholesale fruit and vegetable market, near Bandi river. Retail business activities are performed along major roads in the old city and retail trade of fruits and vegetables is carried out near Suraj Pole. Sadar bazar is famous for retail business of various items, whereas Suraj Pole is the major dealing centre of motor parts.

Industries

There are 1,603 industrial units in the town. Of these, about 900 units are of dying and printing, textile, etc. Maharaja Umed Mill is a large scale textile unit which has its own identity at the national level. About 351 unauthorised factories are operating on agricultural lands, among which 40 granite units were established in 1995-96. As many as 15,000 labourers are engaged in the different industrial units. The industries are spread in different parts of the town, namely: (i) industrial area, north of railway line; (ii) Maharaja Shri Umed Mills complex; (iii) Mandiya road industrial area, west of the city; (iv) Sumerpur road industrial area, South-west of city; (v) Dadabari industrial area (unauthorised), along upstream of Bandi river; and (vi) small household units inside the city.

Offices

The important district level government offices located in the town are the District Collector's office, S.D.O. office, Tehsil office, Offices of S.E., PWD, X.En., PWD, Superintendent of Police, Police Station, Pali District Labour Office, Assistant Registrar (Co-operative societies), Dy. Director (Agriculture), X.En. (Irrigation), Courts of Sessions, District Judge and District Public Relation Office.

There are a number of semi-government offices existing in the town. These include the Zilla Parishad, Pali Panchayat Samiti, Pali Municipal Council, Pali District Rural Development Authority and many other registered institutions.

Financial/Banking Institutions

Branches of various banks like S.B.B.J., State Bank of India, Pali Central Co-operative Bank, Marwar Gramin Bank, Oriental Bank of Commerce, Rajasthan Bank, etc., and other financial institutes such as Rajasthan Finance Corporation and Bhumi Vikas Bank are located in the town.

URBAN LAND DEVELOPMENT

Industrial Estates

RIICO has been developing industrial estates in the city since mid-sixties. Table 1.3 shows the development of land for industrial units over a period of time.

Table 1.3 Development of Industrial Estates by RIICO

S.no.	Scheme	Declaration year	Area (in acres)	No. of plots	Major types of industries
1.	Industrial Estate	Prior to 1969	2.60	38	Gwar gum and looms
2.	Phase I	1969	21.97	41	Cloth
3.	Phase II	1970	78.80	124	Cloth
4.	Mandiya Road Industrial Area	1978	360.0	500	Cloth
5.	Sardar Samand Road Industrial Area	1994	144.65	213	Granite

Source : RIICO.

Schemes of Pali Municipal Council

Pali municipal council has developed 14 residential schemes covering 743.4 bighas of land, 5 commercial schemes in 2.8 bighas of land and a transport nagar spread over 145 bighas of land. Besides these, some small isolated pockets of land have been provided for the use of government and semi-government organisations. The municipal council has also built about 100 EWS houses in Tagore Nagar area.

IDSMT Projects

Pali was one of the first towns of the state where schemes under IDSMT programme were taken up in the sixth five year plan. The major scheme under IDSMT was scheme 'A', wherein 1,775 plots were developed and by March 1996, 1,729 plots had been sold. The total expenditure in this scheme amounted to Rs. 14.27 million and by March 1996, Rs. 14.33 million had been generated. A super market commercial scheme and transport nagar scheme were also taken up under the IDSMT project.

Market Yards of RSAMB

Rajasthan State Agricultural Marketing Board has developed two wholesale markets in Pali. The 'main mandi yard' is spread over 105 bighas of land and the wholesale fruit and vegetable market yard covers 25 bighas of land. These two wholesale market yards are a hub of activity for farmers of the hinterland and enhance trade and commerce activities in the town.

HOUSING

Housing Typology

The old city consists of row houses with narrow lanes and are mainly double or triple storied. New construction, particularly in colonies developed by Housing Board and the municipal body, are, however, independent houses existing on semi-detached or detached plotted development with adequate road widths. Few 3-4 storeyed flats have also been constructed. The city also has government housing near the dak bungalow in Veer Durgadas Nagar and in the narrow strip between the railway line and Jodhpur road, west of the railway station.

Rajasthan Housing Board is the key agency responsible for housing development in the state. The Board developed Kamla Nehru Colony on Pali road and has recently acquired 297 bighas of land for construction of houses. The status of houses constructed and those under construction by the RHB as in September 1997 is shown in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4 Houses Constructed by Rajasthan Housing Board

Status	HIG	MIG(B)	MIG(A)	LIG	EWS
Houses constructed	35	123	296	496	936
Houses under construction	08	64	-	95	60
Total	43	187	296	591	996

Source : RHB.

Besides the organised and institutional structure, which caters to the demand of developed land for housing and other activities, Pali city has experienced a spurt of colonisers operating in the garb of housing co-operative societies. These colonisers purchase agricultural land in proximity to the town, mostly along national or state highways, and carve out small parcels of undeveloped land. The land is then sold at attractive prices. No authentic data on such schemes is available. However, according to a rough assessment made by the local officials, approximately 1200 bighas of agricultural land has been engulfed by such schemes of private colonisers and housing co-operative societies. Most of these schemes are on paper and only about 10 per cent of the land area has some scattered development in the form of boundary walls and small houses.

Housing Shortage and Requirement

According to the 1991 census, there were 25,730 occupied residential houses for 25,804 households in total. This implies that there is a shortage of only 74 residential houses. However, due to the emerging crisis of land availability, finance and proper housing programme, the situation may demand attention in the future. Moreover, with the natural increase of population, along with the growth of economic and industrial sector, the municipal corporation, RHB or such agencies will need adequate resource mobilisation to deal with the future housing demand.

Kacchi Basties

Growth of kacchi basties is one of the foremost problem in any town and need special attention. The problems faced by these basties are not new and are related to

drinking water, public latrines, drainage, paved pathways, street lights, etc. The municipal council has taken up the task of bringing an improvement in the living conditions and rehabilitation of these basties.

GROWTH POTENTIALS

Pali city has great importance in the region by virtue of being a district headquarter and the only class I town of the district. It is an important industrial and trade centre in the region. The success of dying and printing industry has brought it in limelight as important supplier of cloth to almost all the country. Good connections by rail, road and air and the prevailing industrial set up make the city a potential spot for investment. Industrial units which have contributed to the problems of water pollution have found it difficult to continue under the stringent pollution control measures. For most small industrial units, setting up of water treatment plants is an unviable proposition in terms of costs and other technical requirements related to capacity. Efforts are being made at the state level to set up a common water treatment plant which can cater to these units. Once the problem of water pollution is resolved, the dying and printing industry is expected to grow at a faster pace.

RIICO is planning to acquire approximately 675 bighas (1 bigha=3025 sq. yds.) of land near Naya Gaon on national highway No. 14 for the development of industries. The cost of the project is about Rs. 150 million. Besides the development of industrial estates, there are plans to construct a bye pass road by the PWD and construction of a transport nagar which may contribute to the planned growth of the city.

II. STATUS OF URBAN SERVICES

This section presents an over view of the level of services present in Pali town. The basic essential services of water supply, sewerage, drainage, solid waste and roads have been briefly discussed here. This is followed by a listing of the numerous institutions responsible for urban land and housing development and provision of services.

WATER SUPPLY

The total quantity of water supplied to the town in August 1997 is 14 million liters per day. The main source of water for Pali is Jawai dam from where Jawai canal carries water to Jodhpur via Pali and serves as a source of raw water for the city. Raw water is taken to the head works from where filtered water is supplied to the town by PHED distribution network. The distribution network gives full coverage to 40 wards, while 5 wards are partly covered by protected water supply. The city has 272 hand pumps (September 1997) which also cater to areas devoid of protected water supply. Water supply in most areas is only once in a day.

PHED is responsible for the supply and distribution of water in the town. According to PHED, the population of 154,000 in 1995 was receiving 86 LPCD of water. In 1996, an augmentation scheme was sanctioned under HUDCO assistance for the projected population of 252,000 by the year 2011. The cost of this augmentation project is 139.9 million, out of which HUDCO's loan is Rs. 97.9 million. With this augmentation, it is expected that the service level of the projected population will be maintained at 140 LPCD.

SEWERAGE

The town has no sewerage system. Most of the houses use septic tank and soak pit systems. The system of waste disposal is either directly into storm water drains or into soak pits through septic tanks. Industrial effluents are disposed in Bandi river flowing near the city.

One treatment plant of 1.0 MGD capacity was installed at Mandiya road in the year 1983. One more plant of 1.5 MGD capacity has been commissioned on Mandiya road recently and another treatment plant of 2.0 MGD capacity is under construction at Punayta road. NEERI is currently undertaking a detailed study for the treatment of industrial effluents in the city.

DRAINAGE

As many as 40 wards of the city are fully covered by a pucca drainage system, while 5 wards are partly covered by pucca drains. However, the drainage system is not efficient and is affected by the discharge of domestic effluent in many parts of the city.

SOLID WASTE

Pali municipal council spends approximately Rs. 1.49 million per month towards the payment of salaries to its employees and contract labour engaged in the process of solid waste collection, transportation and disposal. A total of 578 employees are involved in solid waste management. The municipal council has on its rolls, 389 sweepers, 16 jamadars, 6 sanitary inspectors, 1 chief sanitary inspector and 1 health officer besides the contract labour. Three tractors, two trucks, one dumper and two JCBs are deployed by the council for solid waste transportation. Solid waste is disposed in sanitary land fill sites located towards the north-west side of the town on Mandiya road spread over an area of 5.2 hectares. However, quite often garbage is dumped on other low lying lands. The total expenditure on solid waste management has been Rs. 11.3, Rs. 11.4, Rs. 14.6, Rs. 17.1, Rs. 18.6 million during the five year period from 1992-93 to 1996-97 respectively.

ROADS

Table 2.1 shows category-wise length of roads under PWD, municipality and RICCO. The total road length in the urban area is 232 km. The municipality has 65.5 per cent roads under its control followed by PWD (24%) and RICCO (10.3%). Among the different categories of roads, BT roads account for as much as 50 per cent of the total roads in the city.

Table 2.1 Category-wise Length of Roads

S.No.	Department	Road length (in km.)					
		C.C.	B.T.	MIR	Stone chips	Kutchha and gravel	Total
1.	PWD	-	51	-	-	5	56
2.	Municipality	17	41	40	15	39	152
3.	RIICO	-	24	-	-	-	24
	Total	17	116	40	15	44	232

Source : P.W.D., Pali city.

Maintenance of roads is the responsibility of PWD and municipal council. Their total expenditure on road maintenance during the period 1992-93 to 1996-97 is given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Expenditure on Road Maintenance

(in million Rs.)

Year	PWD	Municipal council
1992-93	3.39	0.29
1993-94	6.14	0.34
1994-95	7.70	0.48
1995-96	8.33	0.48
1996-97	5.36	0.50

Source : P.W.D. and Pali municipal council.

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

Like in other major cities of Rajasthan, developmental activities in the town of Pali are undertaken by different agencies. A list of various agencies involved in urban land and housing development alongwith their sphere of activities is given below.

Agency	Activity
Public Health and Engineering Department (PHED)	Water supply and sewerage
Public Works Department (PWD)	Development and maintenance of government housing, offices, and roads (national and state highways and bye passes)
RIICO	Industrial estate development
Rajasthan State Agriculture Marketing Board (RSAMB)	Development of agriculture marketing yards, access roads linking villages to city's market yards
Rajasthan Housing Board	Construction of houses for all categories
Municipal Council	Comprehensive area development; residential, commercial and other schemes; sanitation; solid waste management; street lighting; city road network development and maintenance; slum upgradation; implementation of various centre assisted schemes for urban areas; fire fighting and other civil amenities.
Town Planning Department	Preparation of master plans;
	preparation of schemes and projects;
	regulation of different land uses through grant of NOC for framing of schemes and agriculture land conversion cases
Revenue Department	Allotment of government land for use of local body and other organisations;
	conversion of land from agriculture to non-agriculture use
Rajasthan State Electricity Board	Electric power supply and distribution

It is thus seen that there are many agencies responsible for the development and provision of urban services. Facilities like medical and health care, education, etc. Are, however, catered to by their respective departments. Nevertheless, municipal council is the key agency responsible for providing developed land for housing and other construction in urban areas.

III. FINANCING AND COST RECOVERY OF URBAN SERVICES

MUNICIPAL FINANCE

The financial position of Pali municipal council is generally weak. An assessment of the income and expenditure statement during the last five years reveals that receipts have been more than the expenditure for all years, however, the difference between the two has declined (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Receipts and Expenditure, Pali Municipal Council

(in million Rs.)

Item	1992-93	1993-94	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97
Receipts	57.1	50.9	60.0	79.5	105.0
Expenditure	46.2	41.4	55.5	73.8	100.4

Source : Pali Municipal Council.

Upto now, the municipal council has been surviving on its own resources or state grants, and no loans for any projects and schemes have been taken during the last five years. Octroi, which is the main source of revenue for the municipal council, contributed Rs. 35.5, Rs. 50.6 and Rs. 51.7 million in the years 1994-95, 1995-96 and 1996-97 respectively. The other sources of income are rentals, sale of land and grants and assistance from the state government.

Property tax collection by the council is quite poor. In fact, the amount spent on the collection of this tax is more than the total property tax collected, as is reflected from Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Collection of Property Tax by Pali Municipal Council

Year	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97
Total no. of employees deployed	13	13	13
Total expenditure	58.0	66.0	85.0
Total Revenue	39.7	41.1	59.0

Source : Pali Municipal Council.

Note: Revenue and expenditure figures are in million Rs.

PRICING AND COST RECOVERY OF URBAN SERVICES

There is no mechanism of charging for general municipal services provided by the municipal council at present. The population is by and large sceptic of payments for using services and there is no conscious effort on the part of municipal council to charge for services like solid waste collection and disposal. Municipal services are, thus, managed through resources generated from octroi, property tax and other sources.

Water supply, which is under the purview of PHED, is through metered connections. However the PHED only manages to collect charges for about 55 per cent of the total supply of water. Water charges for the different category of users are given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Water Charges

Category of user	Consumption upto first 15,000 litres	Consumption between 15,000 and 40,000 litres	Consumption beyond 40,000 litres
Domestic	1.25	1.50	2.00
Commercial	3.75	6.25	10.00
Industrial	10.00	12.50	15.00

Source: PHED.

IV. CRITICAL AREAS FOR REFORM AND INVESTMENT

MUNICIPAL COUNCIL

Pali municipal council has 45 wards. There are 16 committees of councillors which are expected to look after the various functions of the council. A city monitoring committee under the chairmanship of district collector looks after the aspects related to inter-departmental co-ordination.

The municipal body lacks in expertise to undertake planning exercises and prepare schemes and projects for land development and delivery of services. The exercise of preparation of the master plan and other spatial plans is done by the Town Planning Department, with its office at Jodhpur. There is a general perception that these spatial plans take too long to see the final shape, and in the process, do not quite cater to the local needs and aspirations of the people.

The municipal council has to look upto the district administration to fulfil their land requirement, either from available government land or after acquisition. In the absence of ready availability of land, The council is not able to cater to the needs of the city in time which is one of the major cause of haphazard development.

The financial resources of the council are limited and the system of collection of revenue from sources such as, octroi and property tax is inefficient. The burden of provision of services is mounting and the council is not able to discharge the basic functions to a satisfactory level due to various reasons, including improper financial management. The total expenditure on payment of salaries to the staff engaged in house tax collection is more than the tax collected. Collection from rentals of municipal properties is also meagre. There are no proposals to augment the resources to a level that municipal services can be improved to come up to desired levels. There have been no attempts to privatise municipal services or collection of revenue. Pollution of Bandi river and ground water through domestic and industrial effluents is a major concern for the city. In the absence of co-

ordinated efforts to network all the city services, the problem of disposal of waste has not been solved and the city continues to pollute the water sources.

Multiplicity of various agencies engaged in land development and provision of services often poses a problem of co-ordination and shifting of responsibility from one organisation to another. Also, functioning of a specific department may be governed by its own priorities which may not be in tune with the city's priorities.

In view of the prevailing situation in Pali town, the major areas for reform identified are given below:

- (i) There is a need to formulate clear policy guidelines at the state level for better management of resources of the municipal bodies. City specific provisions can also be considered depending on the specific local needs. These may include provisions for contracting out or privatisation of various services.
- (ii) There is a need to rationalise the various acts, rules, regulations and procedures which have become redundant or ineffective with the passage of time. This may help in a better efficiency in the delivery of services.
- (iii) In Pali city and other district headquarters a team consisting of a group of experts and municipal functionaries can be set up to supervise planning exercises, not only for the city but also for other smaller cities and towns of the district. To begin with, such units may be placed jointly between a few districts.
- (iv) The district administration is required to be more sensitive to the developmental needs of the city and, thus, adequate mechanism should be build so that the local body is able to acquire land for the purposes of planned development. Also, for the purposes of essential urban services, government land must be made available by the district administration on priority.
- (v) The developmental efforts should be co-ordinated amongst all departments functioning in the city. Duplication of efforts, in terms of studies conducted, can thus be avoided and faster implementation of projects can be achieved. The district co-ordination committee can work as an effective tool for co-ordinating the efforts

of all departments and also for pooling of resources of various agencies to achieve the development targets.

POTENTIAL PROJECTS FOR INVESTMENT

Pali city has a strong potential for industrial growth primarily due to its location and the long established industrial base. However, investors have hesitated to establish projects in the city due to poor infrastructure availability, specially absence of proper disposal of waste. The existing industrial set up and the forthcoming industries can be a base for taking up a joint programme for the disposal of waste. Collaborative efforts are required to be made by PHED, municipal council, RIICO and industries which will benefit not only the whole city and the existing industries but would also attract investment in the industrial sector.

At present RIICO undertakes development of industrial estates which houses only the industrial units. This has put a burden on the housing and resulted in the growth of unauthorised developments. Along with the development of infrastructure, a comprehensive area development project for the industrial township can also be taken up. This may provide housing and other facilities, besides the industrial units. The provision of housing may be large enough to cater to the natural growth of rest of the town also. Such a project may not only generate enough revenue to sustain itself but may also feed other projects.

APPENDIX

STATUS OF URBAN WATER SUPPLY AS ON 31.03.96

APPENDIX -I

S.NO	NAME OF DISTRICT	NAME OF TOWN	POPULATION		PER CAPITA SUPPLY AS PER 1996 (LPCD)	AREA SQKM	NO.OF HOUSE SERVICE CONNECTIONS	NO.OF STAND POST	POP. COVERED BY PIPED WATER	DISTRIBUTION LENGTH (KM)	NO. OF HAND PUMPS
			1991	1996							
1	AJMER	AJMER	402700	523510	102.00	241.58	49847	720	85	300.00	1815
2	AJMER	BEAWAR	106721	138737	58.00	17.69	15000	284	90	74.00	485
3	AJMER	KEKRI	25573	33245	67.00	8.00	3400	72	90	16.00	80
4	AJMER	KISHANGARH	81948	106532	49.00	25.10	6879	63	85	35.00	540
5	AJMER	NASIRABAD	42208	54870	45.00	0.91	3450	105	55	7.00	140
6	AJMER	PUSHKAR	11506	14958	108.00	16.34	1674	37	85	22.00	7
7	AJMER	SARWAR	12316	16011	70.00	5.00	934	11	80	9.00	24
8	AJMER	BIJAYNAGAR	20603	26784	39.00	10.00	2811	9	95	25.00	86
9	ALWAR	ALWAR	210146	273190	90.00	48.40	27609	150	80	145.00	221
10	ALWAR	BEHROR	16238	21109	70.00	15.12	1589	22	90	10.65	40
11	ALWAR	KHAIRTHAL	22741	29563	62.00	21.09	1537	48	90	16.40	48
12	ALWAR	KHERLI	12263	15942		5.00					
13	ALWAR	RAJGARH (ALWAR)	20224	26291	70.00	25.00	2359	36	80	36.00	36
14	ALWAR	TIJARA	15399	20019	61.00	10.00	1391	42	88	9.44	31
15	ALWAR	BHIWADI *	15285	19871							
16	ALWAR	GOVINDGARH *	7991	10388	40.00						
17	BANSWARA	BANSWARA	67908	88280	117.00	16.01	8954	76	92	29.00	124
18	BANSWARA	KUSHALGARH	9341	12143	68.00	1.00	1475	25	90	8.50	59
19	BANSWARA	BORKHERA *	2468	3208			996	5	80	4.70	9
20	BANSWARA	PARTAPUR *	9477	12320			2167	11	80	15.00	17
21	BARAN	ANTAH	18526	24084	38.00	23.48	560	16	60	8.00	30
22	BARAN	BARAN	57719	75035	94.00	13.88	4890	180	70	24.00	80
23	BARAN	CHHABRA	16384	21299	85.00	9.00	1570	24	84	9.00	29
24	BARAN	CHHIPABAROD	13489	17536	74.00	6.00	1200	20	72	8.00	24
25	BARAN	MANGROL	16957	22044	31.00	27.45	850	8	60	6.00	30
26	BARMER	BALOTRA	46858	60915	50.00	12.00	4821	150	80	60.00	47
27	BARMER	BARMER	68625	89213	62.00	10.29	9498	143	80	180.00	47

STATUS OF URBAN WATER SUPPLY AS ON 31.03.96

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			1991	1996							
55	BUNDI	K. PATAN	15748	20472	34.00	25.90	1394	20	80	10.50	26
56	BUNDI	KAPRAIN	13370	17381	37.00	64.00	688	7	65	4.65	25
57	BUNDI	LAKHERI	22891	29758	74.00	25.00	1708	45	86	32.90	61
58	BUNDI	NAINWA	12148	15792	40.00	14.00	1465	10	90	27.00	52
59	CHITTORGARH	BAGUN	15641	20333	64.00	13.03	1460	75	72	32.00	64
60	CHITTORGARH	BARI SADRI	13318	17313	43.00	13.00	1510	36	70	9.50	42
61	CHITTORGARH	CHHOTI SADRI	14621	19007	30.00	7.00	1650	40	70	29.00	32
62	CHITTORGARH	CHITTORGARH	71569	93040	84.00	41.76	8560	140	85	95.00	180
63	CHITTORGARH	KAPASAN	16028	20836	37.00	26.75	1711	19	80	19.00	52
64	CHITTORGARH	NIMBAHERA	41921	54497	46.00	5.00	4150	141	98	49.25	124
65	CHITTORGARH	PRATAPGARH	29443	38276	37.00	24.50	4031	96	80	33.00	115
66	CHITTORGARH	RAWATBHATA	29086	37812		21.53	1150	129	60	13.00	13
67	CHURU	BIDASAR	23256	30233	50.00	9.00	2914	67	90	35.00	
68	CHURU	CHHAPAR	15535	20196	40.00	10.00	1880	37	90	41.00	
69	CHURU	CHURU	82852	107708	120.00	28.00	12106	64	90	110.00	
70	CHURU	RAJAL DESAR	19538	25399	70.00	5.00	2394	35	85	34.50	
71	CHURU	RAJGARH (CHURU)	43696	56805	65.00	12.80	5592	33	92	68.00	5
72	CHURU	RATAN NAGAR	9346	12150	112.00	5.00	1125	10	80	25.00	
73	CHURU	RATANGARH	55079	71603	70.00	50.20	7608	270	80	67.00	
74	CHURU	SARDAR SAHAR	67954	88340	53.00	16.20	9722	120	82	75.00	
75	CHURU	SRI DUNGARGARH	36463	47402	65.00	42.80	4929	45	67	49.00	
76	CHURU	SUJANGARH	70843	92096	70.00	5.18	7670	87	90	94.00	
77	CHURU	TARA NAGAR	21477	27920	85.00	6.25	2783	18	95	62.00	
78	DAUSA	BANDIKUI	16452	21388	69.00	3.18	2044	24	80	12.00	50
79	DAUSA	BASWA	16153	20999	28.00	28.09	859	15	80	6.00	62
80	DAUSA	DAUSA	38576	50149	66.00	9.11	5208	99	90	39.00	71
81	DAUSA	LALSOT	20975	27268	70.00	9.42	2047	28	70	12.00	79

STATUS OF URBAN WATER SUPPLY AS ON 31.03.96

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			1991	1996							
109	JAIPUR	CHOMU	38523	50080	82.00	22.53	3457	22	30	50.00	117
110	JAIPUR	JAIPUR	1458483	1896028	157.00	200.40	191170	1170	85	915.00	1546
111	JAIPUR	JOBNER	9546	12410	30.00	10.00	1476	10	40	18.00	19
112	JAIPUR	K. RAINWAL	21601	28081	45.00	39.27	2136	18	60	20.00	31
113	JAIPUR	KOTPUTLI	31749	41274	50.00	20.00	2456	41	60	32.00	78
114	JAIPUR	MANOHARPUR	20754	26980	30.00	4.37	1264	10	40	6.00	62
115	JAIPUR	NARAINA	12231	15900	20.00	36.00	899	12	80	9.00	72
116	JAIPUR	PHULERA	19106	24838	48.00	10.50	1896	16	80	27.00	17
117	JAIPUR	SAMBHAR	20684	26889	54.00	10.24	2936	40	60	28.08	5
118	JAIPUR	SANGANER	36463	47402	56.00	12.86	3367	54	80	17.00	118
119	JAIPUR	SHAHUPURA	17833	23183	40.00	10.00	1721	6	50	10.00	65
120	JAIPUR	VIRATNAGAR	13169	17120	22.00	31.07	823	10	48	7.00	53
121	JAISALMER	JAISALMER	38735	50356	90.00	126.27	6234	34	95	53.00	
122	JAISALMER	POKRAN	14865	19325	48.00	8.00	1734	41	60	22.00	17
123	JALORE	BHINMAL	30731	39950	54.00	14.70	4431	21	75	66.00	93
124	JALORE	JALORE	33650	43745	80.00	16.99	6682	37	65	35.00	85
125	JALORE	SANCHORE	18827	24475	60.00	16.00	2152	36	60	40.00	5
126	JHALAWAR	AKLERA	14490	18837	41.00	5.85	692	8	60	5.60	38
127	JHALAWAR	BHAWANIMANDI	29740	38662	30.00	6.20	1855	45	80	16.00	56
128	JHALAWAR	JHALAWAR	38671	50272	91.00	12.95	3377	78	80	24.00	75
129	JHALAWAR	JHALRAPATAN	23067	29987	100.00	20.17	1885	65	80	19.50	27
130	JHALAWAR	PIRAWA	9594	12472	33.00	7.00	741	25	65	6.50	15
131	JHALAWAR	SUNEL	11364	14773	25.00	2.98	1058	25	90	9.00	15
132	JHALWARA	KHANPUR *	10657	13854	160.00	0.00	972	10	90	4.00	9
133	JHALWARA	MANOHARTHANA *	7161	9309	42.00	0.00	648	16	80	4.00	15
134	JHALWARA	KOLVI RAJENDRAPURA	6219	8085	51.00	0.00	769	15	65	4.00	18
135	JHUNJHUNU	BAGGAR	12088	15714	62.00	4.00	1536	10	80	12.00	5

STATUS OF URBAN WATER SUPPLY AS ON 31.03.96

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			1991	1996							
163	NAGOUR	MAKRANA	66720	86736	32.00	2.30	4855	38	60	52.00	97
164	NAGOUR	MERTA CITY	31728	41246	90.00	24.00	4242	36	90	15.00	
165	NAGOUR	MUNDWA	12521	16277	64.00	47.00	1127	72	91	15.00	6
166	NAGOUR	NAGOUR	68194	88652	74.00	37.81	8712	130	82	78.00	193
167	NAGOUR	NAWA CITY	13967	18157	57.00	35.00	1763	9	70	16.00	6
168	NAGOUR	PARBATSAR	10134	13174	35.00	16.24	1318	28	80	10.00	21
169	NAGOUR	GOREDICHANCHA *	7059	9177	70.00		1570	4	90	17.00	
170	PALI	BALI	15446	20080	46.00	8.00	2217	13	85	19.00	49
171	PALI	FALNA	16154	21000	47.00	5.00	2366	16	90	21.00	38
172	PALI	JAITARAN	14532	18892	41.00	36.23	2190	8	80	17.00	9
173	PALI	MARWAR JUNCTION	9637	12528	42.00	13.81	1629	6	70	20.00	32
174	PALI	NIMAJ	14653	19049	29.00	8.00	930	11	75	11.00	21
175	PALI	PALI	136842	177895	89.00	83.97	16629	705	84	64.00	240
176	PALI	RAIPUR	12582	16357	57.00	10.00	878	12	75	11.50	52
177	PALI	RANI	9556	12423	48.00	8.00	1675	10	80	15.00	50
178	PALI	SADARI	21151	27496	56.00	85.62	2198	23	75	13.00	32
179	PALI	SOJAT CITY	30168	39218	58.00	11.46	4336	50	80	91.50	105
180	PALI	SUMERPUR	21221	27587	73.00	9.30	3732	30	80	36.00	61
181	PALI	SOJAT ROAD *	9100	11830	47.00		1288	12	80	12.00	26
182	PALI	TAKHATGARH	12305	15997			2412	65	70	23.70	25
183	RAJSAMAND	AMET	14614	18998	41.00	8.00	1523	14	65	29.14	81
184	RAJSAMAND	DEOGARH	13933	18113	100.00	24.00	1676	31	85	24.00	56
185	RAJSAMAND	NATHDWARA	30878	40141	68.00	42.00	4146	67	90	35.50	64
186	RAJSAMAND	RAJSAMAND (KANKROLI)	38831	50480	115.00	55.00	4600	28	75	38.50	175
187	S.MADHOPUR	GANGAPUR CITY	68886	89552	73.00	3.45	5981	46	100	42.00	110
188	S.MADHOPUR	HINDON	60780	79014	51.00	48.00	4345	60	65	48.00	12
189	S.MADHOPUR	KAROLI	49008	63710	86.00	35.00	4560	60	80	39.00	86

STATUS OF URBAN WATER SUPPLY AS ON 31.03.96

APPENDIX -I

S.NO	NAME OF DISTRICT	NAME OF TOWN	POPULATION		PER CAPITA SUPPLY AS PER 1996 (LPCD)	AREA SQKM	NO.OF HOUSE SERVICE CONNECTIONS	NO.OF STAND POST BY PIPED WATER	POP. COVERED	DISTRIBUTION LENGTH (KM)	NO. OF HAND PUMPS
			1991	1996							
217	UDAIPUR	KANOR	11303	14694	28.00	6.00	1142	15	80	9.00	86
218	UDAIPUR	RIKHABDEO	7435	9666	60.00	1.00	982	6	75	9.00	42
219	UDAIPUR	SALUMBER	13981	18175	50.00	4.00	1908	19	80	12.00	53
220	UDAIPUR	UDAIPUR	308571	401142	95.00	64.28	35517	516	90	400.00	1481
221	UDAIPUR	REWA TALAI *	7588	9864							
222	UDAIPUR	BHALERIYA *	6849	8904							
TOTAL			10067113	13087247	13252	4628	1200200	15419	16804	9417.41	18540
NOTE :-											
* = NEW CENSUS TOWN ADDED AS PER 1991 CENSUS.											

Appendix II

Status of Sewerage in Surveyed Class I Towns, 1997

S. no	Town/City	No. of Wards	Availability of sewerage system				Disposal by	Future planning
			100%	50%	Below 50%	Not available		
1	Jaipur	70	18	12	13	27	TP/ST/O	T.Plant
2	Jodhpur	60	-	60	-	-	Sew. Farm	T. Plant
3	Kota	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Bikaner	55	-	-	-	55	None	T. Plant
5	Ajmer	55	-	-	-	55	None	None
6	Udaipur	50	-	25	25	-	None	T. Plant
7	Alwar	50	-	-	50	-	None	T. Plant
8	Bhilwara	45	-	-	-	45	-	-
9	Ganganagar	45	-	-	-	45	Pumping	Drainage
10	Bharatpur	45	-	-	-	45	None	None
11	Sikar	45	-	-	45	-	None	Sew. Line
12	Pali	45	-	-	-	45	River	T. Plant
13	Beawar	45	-	-	-	45	None	Sew. Line
14	Tonk	-	-	-	-	-	None	Sew. Line

Status of Sewerage in Surveyed Class II Towns, 1997

S. no	Town/City	No. of wards	Availibility of sewerage system				Disposal by	Future planning
			100%	50%	Below 50%	Not available		
1	Churu	40	-	-	-	40	Sp. Tank	-
2	Hanumangarh	40	-	-	-	40	None	Sew/ Drain
3	Kishangarh	40	-	-	-	40	None	Sewerage
4	Sawai Madhopur	35	-	-	-	35	Soak-Well	Sewerage
5	Jhunjhunu	35	-	-	-	35	None	Sewerage
6	Chittaurgarh	35	-	-	35	-	Sp. Tank	Sewerage
7	Sujangarh	35	-	-	-	35	None	Sew/ T. Plant
8	Barmer	-	-	-	-	-	None	T. Plant
9	Gangapur City	35	-	-	-	35	None	None
10	Dholpur	35	-	-	-	35	None	Sew/ T.Plant
11	Nagour	35	-	-	-	35	None	None
12	Sardarshahar	35	-	-	-	35	None	Sewerage
13	Banswara	35	-	-	-	35	None	None
14	Makrana	30	-	-	-	30	None	Sewerage
15	Fatehpur	35	-	-	-	35	None	Sewerage
16	Hindon	35	-	-	-	35	Sp. Tank	Sew/ T. Plant
17	Ratangarh	30	-	-	-	30	None	Sewerage
18	Nawalgarh	30	-	-	-	30	Sp. Tank	Sulab Lav.

Status of Sewerage in Surveyed Class - III Towns, 1997

S. no	Town/City	No. of wards	Availability of sewerage system				Disposal by	Future planning
			100%	50%	Below 50%	Not available		
1	Karauli	30	-	-	-	30	None	Sewerage
2	Ladnu	30	-	-	-	30	None	Sewerage
3	Nimbahera	30	-	-	-	30	None	None
4	Abu Road	25	-	-	-	25	Sp. Tank	Sp. Tank
5	Rajsamand	25	-	-	-	25	None	Sewerage
6	Jaisalmer	25	-	-	-	25	Sp. Tank	Sewerage
7	Jhalawar	25	-	-	-	25	None	Sewerage
8	Dausa	30	-	-	-	30	Sp. Tank	Sewerage
9	Dungarpur	25	-	-	-	25	None	None
10	Jalore	25	-	-	-	25	None	Sewerage
11	Pratapgarh	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	Sirohi	25	-	-	-	25	Sp. Tank	Sewerage
13	Raisingh Nagar	20	-	-	-	20	None	Sewerage

Status of Sewerage in Surveyed Class - IV Towns, 1997

S. no	Town/City	No. of wards	Availability of sewerage system				Disposal by	Future planning
			100%	50%	Below 50%	Not available		
1	Anta	20	-	-	-	20	None	Sulab Lav.
2	Deoli	20	-	-	-	20	Sp. Tank	Sewerage
3	Mount Abu	20	-	-	2	18	None	Sewerage

Source : Data collected from individual ULBs, 1997.

Appendix III

Status of Drainage in Surveyed Class I Towns, 1997

S.No.	Town/City	Drainage available (%)	Drainage to be provided (%)	Cost required (in million Rs.)	Time frame (Years)
1.	Jaipur	52.75	47.25	122.60	2.00
2.	Jodhpur	30.00	70.00	25.50	5.00
3.	Kota	69.00	31.00	30.00	2.00
4.	Bikaner	30.00	70.00	902.70	5.00
5.	Ajmer	69.00	31.00	45.00	1.00
6.	Udaipur	80.00	20.00	10.00	2.00
7.	Alwar	25.06	74.94	496.00	5.00
8.	Bhilwara	70.00	30.00	1.20	2.00
9.	Ganganagar	73.00	27.00	19.30	4.00
10.	Bharatpur	-	100.00	9.40	1.00
11.	Sikar	50.00	50.00	15.00	2.00
12.	Pali	70.00	30.00	78.74	3.00
13.	Beawar	100.00	0.00	5.00	1.00
14.	Tonk	50.00	50.00	44.00	5.00
	Total			1804.44	

Status of Drainage in Surveyed Class II Towns, 1997

S.No.	Town/City	Drainage available (%)	Drainage to be provided (%)	Cost required (in million Rs.)	Time frame (Years)
1.	Churu	-	-	23.70	5.00
2.	Hanumangarh	62.00	38.00	47.12	4.00
3.	Kishangarh	-	-	66.79	5.00
4.	Sawai Madhopur	70.00	30.00	20.15	5.00
5.	Jhunjhunu	50.00	50.00	5.88	5.00
6.	Chittaurgarh	30.00	70.00	12.00	30.00
7.	Sujangarh	50.00	50.00	10.80	5.00
8.	Barmer	60.00	40.00	8.50	1.00
9.	Gangapur City	15.00	85.00	3.00	2.00
10.	Dholpur	30.00	70.00	9.50	5.00
11.	Nagour	20.00	80.00	10.00	2.00
12.	Sadarshahar	60.00	40.00	14.00	5.00
13.	Banswara	10.00	90.00	20.00	5.00
14.	Makrana	35.00	65.00	77.80	5.00
15.	Fatehpur	5.00	95.00	26.10	5.00
16.	Hindon	40.00	60.00	9.00	5.00
17.	Ratangarh	30.00	70.00	5.70	3.00
18.	Nawalgarh	40.00	60.00	7.50	3.00
	Total			377.55	

Status of Drainage in Surveyed Class III Towns, 1997

S.No	Town/City	Drainage available (%)	Drainage to be provided (%)	Cost required (in million Rs.)	Time frame (years)
1.	Karauli	40.00	60.00	6.00	-
2.	Ladnu	40.00	60.00	7.50	5.00
3.	Nimbahera	75.00	25.00	2.50	3.00
4.	Abu Road	-	-	57.01	5.00
5.	Rajsamand	40.00	60.00	28.80	5.00
6.	Jaisalmer	80.00	20.00	6.00	2.00
7.	Jhalawar	40.00	60.00	6.00	5.00
8.	Dausa	17.00	83.00	44.40	10.00
9.	Dungarpur	66.00	34.00	20.40	10.00
10.	Jalore	50.00	50.00	4.00	2.00
11.	Pratapgarh	60.00	40.00	0.90	2.00
12.	Sirohi	60.00	40.00	6.00	3.00
13.	Raisingh Nagar	60.00	40.00	3.00	5.00
	Total			192.51	

Status of Drainage in Surveyed Class IV Towns, 1997

S.No	Town/City	Drainage available (%)	Drainage to be provided (%)	Cost required (in million Rs.)	Time frame (years)
1.	Antha	80.00	20.00	0.50	5.00
2.	Deoli	70.00	30.00	2.50	3.00
3.	Mount Abu	50.00	50.00	11.68	3.00
	Total			14.68	

Source : Data collected from individual ULB'S, 1997.

Appendix IV

Status of Solid Waste in Surveyed Class I Towns, 1997

S. No.	Town/city	Total employees	Total garbage generated (in tonnes)	Employees engaged per tonne of garbage	Disposal (%)		Garbage collection (%)		Disposal depots		Additional help required		Money required (in million Rs.)
					Manual	Mechanical	Manual	Mechanical	Nos.	Area (sq. m.)	Persons	Machines	
1	Jaipur	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Jodhpur	2489	600.00	4.15	-	100.00	75.00	25.00	254	-	650	-	105.40
3	Kota	2229	200.00	11.15	-	100.00	80.00	20.00	127	114600.00	520	30	33.32
4	Bikaner	860	180.00	4.78	-	100.00	80.00	20.00	2	1350000.00	800	30	29.34
5	Ajmer	1603	500.00	3.21	100.00	-	75.00	25.00	-	-	1100	15	74.10
6	Udaipur	1096	150.00	7.31	13.33	86.67	10.00	90.00	1	1000.00	140	-	50.40
7	Alwar	650	190.00	3.42	90.00	10.00	100.00	0.00	1	50000.00	350	9	3.70
8	Bhilwara	905	40.00	22.63	-	100.00	25.00	75.00	1	12500000.00	205	4	9.38
9	Ganganagar	645	60.00	10.75	15.00	85.00	70.00	30.00	1	11770.00	275	356	14.90
10	Bharatpur	675	80.00	8.44	12.50	87.50	0.00	100.00	-	-	275	4	1.72
11	Sikar	255	75.00	3.40	66.67	33.33	75.00	25.00	-	-	338	15	20.10
12	Pali	578	84.00	6.88	-	100.00	30.00	70.00	1	52272.00	194	7	5.68
13	Beawar	360	35.00	10.29	8.57	85.71	50.00	50.00	14	-	61	7	6.30
14	Tonk	255	10.00	25.50	-	100.00	100.00	0.00	1	-	155	4	7.00
	Total	12600	2204.00	5.72									315.99

Status of Solid Waste in Surveyed Class II Towns, 1997

S. No	Town/city	Total employees	Total garbage generated (in tonnes)	Employees engaged per tonne of garbage	Disposal (%)		Garbage collection (%)		Disposal depots		Additional help required		Money required (in million Rs.)
					Manual	Mechanical	Manual	Mechanical	Nos.	Area (sq. m.)	Persons	Machines	
1	Churu	247	125.00	1.98	25.00	75.00	100.00	0.00	-	-	180	9	9.50
2	Hanumangarh	395	40.00	9.88	12.50	87.50	90.00	10.00	2	9775.00	76	8	5.99
3	Kishangarh	276	35.00	7.89	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	4	4075.00	52	5	3.20
4	Sawai Madhopur	190	28.00	6.79	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	-	-	100	206	6.90
5	Jhunjhunu	145	20.00	7.25	25.00	75.00	70.00	30.00	-	-	153	4	7.50
6	Chittaurgarh	371	50.00	7.42	0.00	100.00	70.00	30.00	2	1000.00	20	6	3.32
7	Sujangarh	145	32.00	4.53	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	-	-	138	8	12.07
8	Barmer	254	80.00	3.18	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	-	-	60	3	3.56
9	Gangapur City	149	30.00	4.97	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	21	2501.00	157	5	7.95
10	Dholpur	158	3.50	45.14	14.29	85.71	100.00	0.00	6	1250.00	114	3	5.10
11	Nagour	232	35.00	6.63	14.29	85.71	100.00	0.00	6	-	66	4	4.57
12	Sardarshahar	161	40.00	4.03	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	-	-	136	3	7.25
13	Banswara	295	20.00	14.75	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	8	-	100	6	9.10
14	Makrana	130	30.00	4.33	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	1	90000.00	137	158	7.53
15	Fatehpur	157	8.00	19.63	25.00	75.00	100.00	0.00	-	-	160	10	8.26
16	Hindon	129	20.00	6.45	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	3	2	191	6	9.70
17	Ratangarh	114	10.00	11.40	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	2	9075.00	116	5	6.68
18	Nawalgarh	78	7.00	11.14	7.14	92.86	100.00	0.00	10	10000.00	150	3	0.67
	Total	3626	613.50	5.91									124.89

Status of Solid Waste in Surveyed Class III Towns, 1997

S. No.	Town/city	Total employees	Total garbage generated (in tonnes)	Employees engaged per tonne of garbage	Disposal (%)		Garbage collection (%)		Disposal depots		Additional help required		Money required (in million Rs.)	
					Manual	Mechanical	Manual	Mechanical	Nos.	Area (sq. m.)	Persons	Machines		
1	Karauli	66	18.00	3.67	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	-	-	130	28	6.03
2	Ladnu	76	18.00	4.22	100.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	-	-	117	7	7.21
3	Nimbahera	146	60.00	2.43	0.00	100.00	60.00	50.00	50.00	9	-	26	2	1.54
4	Abu Road	99	9.00	11.00	0.00	100.00	60.00	50.00	50.00	4	1200	85	3	4.56
5	Rajsamand	158	20.00	7.90	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	3	500	23	3	2.23
6	Jaisalmer	135	25.00	5.40	40.00	60.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	-	-	76	5	5.04
7	Jhalavar	110	6.25	17.60	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	20	418.05	75	3	4.10
8	Dausa	143	14.00	10.21	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	4	-	170	150	13.18
9	Dungarpur	146	9.00	16.22	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	2	7200.00	57	4	4.05
10	Jalora	99	25.00	3.96	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	-	-	36	4	3.29
11	Pratapgarh	98	15.00	6.53	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	7	6190.00	20	2	2.42
12	Sirohi	84	30.00	2.80	6.67	93.33	100.00	0.00	0.00	1	1500.00	41	2	2.48
13	Raisingh Nagar	106	15.00	7.07	6.25	93.75	100.00	0.00	0.00	2	3025.00	14	58	1.68
	Total	1466	264.25	5.55										57.81

Status of Solid Waste in Surveyed Class IV Towns, 1997/212

S. no.	Town/city	Total employees	Total garbage generated (in tonnes)	Employees engaged per tonne of garbage	Disposal (%)		Garbage collection (%)		Disposal depots			Additional help required		Money required (in million Rs.)
					Manual	Mechanical	Manual	Mechanical	Nos.	Area (sq. m.)	Persons	Machines		
1	Antah	70	8.00	8.75	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	4	3000.00	46	57	2.36
2	Deoli	42	8.00	5.25	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	1	3600.00	36	2	2.00
3	Mount Abu	96	6.00	16.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	1	13680.00	-	10	1.70
	Total	208	22.00	9.45										6.06

Source: Department of Local Bodies, GOR.

Appendix V

Status of Roads in Surveyed Class I Towns, 1997

Road Length (Km.)						
S. No	Town/City	Pucca roads	WBM and kutcha roads	Total roads	WBM and kutcha as % of total roads	Money required (in million Rs.)
1	Jaipur	560.40	578.80	1139.20	50.81	146.40
2	Jodhpur	702.60	370.00	1072.60	34.50	141.50
3	Kota	502.50	97.00	599.50	16.18	40.60
4	Bikaner	60.00	120.00	180.00	66.67	87.60
5	Ajmer	94.70	204.40	299.10	68.34	75.28
6	Udaipur	709.00	64.00	773.00	8.28	23.20
7	Alwar	292.57	432.33	724.90	59.64	240.00
8	Bhilwara	170.61	108.92	279.53	38.97	42.80
9	Ganganagar	90.00	57.50	147.50	38.98	31.30
10	Bharatpur	183.00	53.50	236.50	22.62	10.00
11	Sikar	35.25	70.00	105.25	66.51	38.00
12	Pali	73.10	78.60	151.70	51.81	30.57
13	Beawar	27.00	10.00	37.00	27.03	7.20
14	Tonk	45.00	105.00	150.00	70.00	36.00
	Total	3545.73	2350.05	5895.78	44.31	950.45

Status of Roads in Surveyed Class II Towns, 1997

Road Length (Km.)						
S. No	Town/ City	Pucca roads	WBM and kutcha roads	Total roads	WBM and kutcha as % of total roads	Money required (in million Rs.)
1	Churu	64.50	297.50	362.00	82.18	378.30
2	Hanumangarh	115.02	116.73	231.75	50.37	10.99
3	Kishangarh	46.59	71.95	118.54	60.70	34.39
4	Sawai Madhopur	149.00	75.00	224.00	33.48	39.00
5	Jhunjhunu	98.80	48.90	147.70	33.11	26.20
6	Chittaurgarh	108.00	45.00	153.00	29.41	19.00
7	Sujangarh	77.00	27.00	104.00	25.96	21.00
8	Barmer	128.00	30.00	158.00	18.99	14.00
9	Gangapur City	9.00	71.00	80.00	88.75	42.00
10	Dholpur	71.68	53.50	125.18	42.74	15.00
11	Nagour	29.00	30.00	59.00	58.85	15.00
12	Sadarshahar	46.00	35.00	81.00	43.21	25.00
13	Banswara	44.75	37.30	82.05	45.46	50.00
14	Makrana	32.95	38.90	71.85	54.14	18.40
15	Fatehpur	25.00	52.00	77.00	67.53	30.40
16	Hindon	43.00	62.00	105.00	59.05	20.00
17	Ratangarh	56.00	214.00	270.00	79.26	128.40
18	Nawalgarh	22.00	15.50	37.50	41.33	8.50
	Total	1166.29	1321.28	2487.57	50.36	895.58

Status of Roads in Surveyed Class III Towns, 1997

Road Length (Km.)						
S. No	Town/City	Pucca roads	WBM and kutcha roads	Total roads	WBM and kutcha as % of total roads	Money required (in million Rs.)
1	Karauli	6.30	15.00	21.30	70.42	9.00
2	Ladnu	11.00	20.00	31.00	64.52	11.20
3	Nimbahera	37.00	30.00	67.00	44.78	10.00
4	Abu Road	34.62	162.32	196.94	82.42	75.70
5	Rajsamand	95.00	45.00	140.00	32.14	154.00
6	Jaisalmer	100.70	27.00	127.70	21.14	11.40
7	Jhalawar	12.10	28.75	40.85	70.38	17.43
8	Dausa	31.00	148.00	179.00	82.68	88.80
9	Dungarpur	111.00	102.00	213.00	47.89	60.40
10	Jalore	11.00	13.50	24.50	55.10	6.70
11	Pratapgarh	17.00	9.55	26.55	35.97	3.00
12	Sirohi	42.00	17.00	59.00	28.81	9.40
13	Raisingh Nagar	9.84	19.00	28.84	65.88	7.80
	Total	518.56	637.12	1155.68	54.01	464.83

Status of Roads in Surveyed Class-IV Towns, 1997

Road Length (Km.)						
S. No	Town/ City	Pucca roads	WBM and kutcha roads	Total roads	WBM and kutcha as % of total roads	Money required (in million Rs.)
1	Antah	12.10	5.00	17.10	29.24	3.00
2	Deoli	9.50	6.00	15.50	38.71	2.00
3	Mount Abu	22.03	12.09	34.12	35.43	10.69
	Total	43.63	23.09	66.72	34.46	15.69

Source : Data collected from individual ULB'S, 1997.

Appendix VI

Expenditure Required in Class I Towns, 1997

(in million Rs.)

S. No	Town / City	Roads	Drains	Sewerage	Electricity	Slums	Misc.	Total
1	Jaipur	73.20	122.60	200.00	35.90	113.90	-	545.60
2	Jodhpur	315.90	150.90	400.00	33.00	152.00	81.80	1133.60
3	Kota	40.60	30.00	-	42.60	10.00	33.32	156.52
4	Bikaner	87.60	9.03	921.60	28.82	103.56	41.84	1192.45
5	Ajmer	75.28	45.00	-	4.20	5.00	84.10	213.58
6	Udaipur	23.20	1.00	-	17.62	-	27.04	68.86
7	Alwar	240.00	496.00	130.00	11.30	21.30	7.50	906.10
8	Bhilwara	42.80	1.20	-	6.45	4.00	9.38	63.83
9	Ganganagar	31.30	19.30	50.00	29.30	7.00	32.40	169.30
10	Bharatpur	27.00	36.00	150.00	0.60	50.00	-	263.60
11	Sikar	38.00	15.00	12.00	51.00	-	20.10	136.10
12	Pali	15.00	59.05	143.80	8.89	8.60	1.26	236.60
13	Beawar	7.20	5.00	1.00	15.30	-	6.30	34.80
14	Tonk	36.00	17.00	20.00	5.14	5.00	-	83.14
	Total	1053.08	1007.08	2028.40	290.11	480.36	345.04	5204.08

Expenditure Required in Surveyed Class II Towns, 1997

(in million Rs.)

S. No	Town / City	Roads	Drains	Sewerage	Electricity	Slums	Misc.	Total
1	Churu	378.30	23.70	-	1.23	4.00	9.50	416.73
2	Hanumangarh	57.33	47.12	600.00	13.54	8.89	5.00	731.89
3	Kishangarh	34.39	66.79	-	11.31	4.50	3.20	120.19
4	Sawai Madhopur	39.00	20.15	30.00	4.95	2.50	6.90	103.50
5	Jhunjhunu	26.20	5.88	3.00	19.21	-	7.50	61.79
6	Chittaurgarh	19.00	12.00	-	3.20	3.00	3.32	40.52
7	Sujangarh	21.00	10.80	80.00	10.15	2.00	12.08	136.03
8	Barmer	14.00	8.50	10.50	5.00	2.50	3.56	44.06
9	Gangapur City	42.00	3.00	-	4.15	2.00	7.95	59.10
10	Dholpur	8.00	9.50	-	1.14	2.60	0.75	21.98
11	Nagour	15.00	10.00	20.00	24.71	5.00	4.58	79.28
12	Sardarshahar	25.00	14.00	75.00	2.50	2.60	7.25	126.35
13	Banswara	2.50	2.50	20.00	20.50	10.00	5.00	60.50
14	Makrana	18.40	77.80	200.00	3.00	2.00	7.53	308.73
15	Fatehpur	30.40	26.10	10.00	3.18	5.00	8.26	82.94
16	Hindon	15.70	9.00	75.00	8.00	14.50	-	122.00
17	Ratangarh	128.40	5.70	-	44.20	3.00	6.68	187.98
18	Nawalgarh	8.50	7.50	-	23.20	2.70	6.70	48.60
	Total	883.12	360.05	1123.50	203.16	76.79	105.75	2752.37

Expenditure Required in Surveyed Class III Towns, 1997

(in million Rs.)

S. No	Town / City	Roads	Drains	Sewerage	Electricity	Slums	Misc.	Total
1	Karauli	9.00	6.00	-	1.80	-	6.03	22.83
2	Ladnu	11.20	7.50	60.00	7.40	0.50	7.21	93.81
3	Nimbahera	10.00	2.50	5.00	7.20	1.30	1.54	27.54
4	Abu Road	75.70	57.01	215.72	4.30	9.13	4.56	366.42
5	Rajsamand	154.00	28.80	21.00	6.35	-	2.23	212.38
6	Jaisalmer	11.40	6.00	22.50	8.00	-	5.04	52.94
7	Jhalawar	17.43	3.36	-	0.65	3.86	4.10	29.40
8	Dausa	88.80	44.40	20.00	9.50	5.00	18.18	185.88
9	Dungarpur	60.40	20.40	20.00	3.15	2.00	4.05	110.00
10	Jalore	6.70	4.00	25.00	1.30	5.00	3.29	45.29
11	Pratapgarh	3.00	0.90	-	6.15	2.67	2.42	15.14
12	Sirohi	9.40	6.00	10.00	3.30	2.00	2.47	33.18
13	Raisingh Nagar	7.80	3.00	-	8.20	1.00	1.68	21.69
	Total	464.83	189.87	399.22	67.30	32.46	62.81	1216.49

Expenditure Required in Surveyed Class IV Towns, 1997

(in million Rs.)

S. No	Town /City	Roads	Drains	Sewerage	Electricity	Slums	Misc.	Total
1	Anthra	3.00	0.50	-	1.15	0.88	2.36	7.89
2	Deoll	2.00	2.50	30.00	0.42	-	12.00	46.91
3	Mount Abu	10.69	11.68	171.30	2.20	-	1.70	197.57
	Total	15.69	14.68	201.30	3.77	0.88	16.06	252.37

Source : Estimates prepared by Awas Vikas Limited.,Rajasthan, 1997.

Appendix VII

Receipts by Category of Urban Local Body, 1993-94

(in million Rs.)

Heads of receipts	Category of urban local body					
	State	Corporation	Council	Class II	Class III	Class IV
1. Tax receipts						
a. Obligatory taxes						
i. Octroi	1418.50 (58.77)	540.06 (63.07)	369.45 (73.99)	152.49 (54.56)	242.94 (49.06)	113.56 (40.06)
ii. Land & building tax	69.41 (2.88)	49.31 (5.76)	9.50 (1.90)	2.63 (0.94)	5.15 (1.04)	2.82 (1.00)
Total obligatory taxes	1487.91 (61.64)	589.37 (68.83)	378.95 (75.89)	155.12 (55.50)	248.09 (50.10)	116.38 (41.06)
b. Discretionary taxes						
i. Tax on vehicles	0.81 (0.03)	0.00 (0.00)	0.02 (0.00)	0.03 (0.21)	0.16 (0.03)	0.60 (0.21)
ii. Toll	1.93 (0.08)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.05 (0.02)	1.67 (0.34)	0.21 (0.07)
iii. Terminal tax	0.96 (0.04)	0.00 (0.00)	0.03 (0.21)	0.12 (0.07)	0.72 (0.15)	0.09 (0.03)
iv. Passenger tax	8.41 (0.35)	0.00 (0.00)	1.81 (0.36)	0.00 (0.00)	0.40 (0.08)	6.20 (2.19)
Total discretionary taxes	12.11 (0.50)	0.00 (0.00)	1.86 (0.37)	0.20 (0.07)	2.95 (0.60)	7.10 (2.50)
2. Non-tax receipts						
a. Internal sources						
i. By laws	59.57 (2.47)	38.00 (4.44)	4.66 (0.93)	2.84 (1.02)	6.67 (1.35)	7.41 (2.61)
ii. Properties	39.19 (1.62)	5.67 (0.66)	8.94 (1.79)	5.24 (1.89)	12.05 (2.43)	7.25 (2.56)
iii. Act	5.37 (0.22)	0.79 (0.09)	1.38 (0.28)	0.38 (0.14)	1.87 (0.38)	0.94 (0.33)
iv. Power	7.54 (0.31)	1.61 (0.19)	1.68 (0.34)	1.02 (0.36)	1.47 (0.30)	1.77 (0.62)

v. Water works	6.44 (0.27)	3.92 (0.46)	0.17 (0.03)	0.11 (0.04)	0.14 (0.03)	2.11 (0.74)
vi. Interest	19.49 (0.81)	1.84 (0.21)	4.17 (0.84)	1.75 (0.63)	8.54 (1.72)	3.19 (1.13)
vii. Sale of land	215.14 (8.91)	62.08 (7.25)	19.63 (3.93)	31.32 (11.21)	56.01 (11.31)	46.01 (16.26)
viii. Miscellaneous II	276.60 (11.46)	100.93 (11.79)	36.41 (7.29)	39.77 (14.23)	62.29 (12.58)	37.20 (13.12)
Total internal sources	629.34 (26.08)	214.83 (25.09)	77.03 (15.43)	82.48 (29.51)	149.03 (30.10)	105.96 (37.37)
b. External sources						
i. Annual govt. subsidy	68.53 (2.84)	18.80 (2.20)	16.49 (3.30)	9.55 (3.42)	14.59 (2.95)	9.11 (3.21)
ii. Special subsidy for roads & drainage	22.30 (0.92)	0.00 (0.00)	0.53 (0.11)	4.53 (1.62)	8.70 (1.76)	8.55 (3.02)
iii. Special assistance & loans	134.62 (5.58)	16.86 (1.97)	13.49 (2.70)	22.82 (8.16)	61.19 (12.36)	20.21 (7.15)
iv. Miscellaneous I	58.95 (2.44)	16.36 (1.91)	11.00 (2.20)	4.81 (1.72)	10.63 (2.15)	16.15 (5.10)
Total external sources	284.41 (11.78)	52.02 (6.08)	41.51 (8.31)	41.70 (14.92)	95.10 (19.20)	54.07 (19.07)
Grand total	2413.76 (100.00)	856.22 (100.00)	499.36 (100.00)	279.50 (100.00)	495.17 (100.00)	283.51 (100.00)

Source: State Finance Commission Report, 1995.

- Note:
- i. Figures in parentheses are percentages to grand total.
 - ii. Miscellaneous I consists of assistance from education department, receipts of entertainment tax share from the state, etc., received from external sources.
 - iii. Miscellaneous II consists of recovery of loans to employees and others.

Appendix VIII

Expenditure by Category of Urban Local Body, 1993-94

(in million Rs.)

Heads of expenditure	Category of Urban Local Body					
	State	Corporation	Council	Class II	Class III	Class IV
1. Establishment						
a. General administration	210.70 (8.88)	55.18 (6.60)	40.82 (8.47)	28.27 (9.61)	50.41 (10.28)	36.02 (13.37)
b. Recovery						
i. Octroi	201.46 (8.49)	19.82 (2.37)	35.12 (7.28)	33.00 (11.22)	67.02 (13.67)	46.50 (17.26)
ii. Land & building tax	18.55 (0.78)	8.87 (1.06)	5.01 (1.04)	1.29 (0.44)	2.66 (0.54)	0.72 (0.27)
iii. Other taxes	14.19 (0.60)	8.60 (1.03)	3.69 (0.76)	0.06 (0.02)	1.69 (0.34)	0.15 (0.05)
Total establishment	444.89 (18.75)	92.48 (11.06)	84.63 (17.55)	62.62 (20.29)	121.78 (24.83)	83.39 (30.95)
2. Health & Sanitation						
i. Public health and interest	812.54 (34.25)	336.01 (40.17)	198.40 (41.15)	96.26 (32.72)	120.91 (24.65)	60.97 (22.62)
ii. Dispensaries	3.99 (0.17)	0.45 (0.05)	2.46 (0.51)	0.52 (0.18)	0.45 (0.09)	0.12 (0.04)
Total health and sanitation	816.54 (34.42)	336.45 (40.22)	200.86 (41.66)	96.78 (32.90)	121.36 (24.74)	61.08 (22.66)
3. Provision/maintenance of Public facilities						
i. Civil defence	21.43 (0.90)	8.24 (0.99)	9.42 (1.95)	2.54 (0.86)	1.07 (0.22)	0.16 (0.06)
ii. Electricity	119.63 (5.04)	59.98 (7.17)	20.41 (4.23)	10.44 (3.55)	18.50 (3.77)	10.31 (3.83)
iii. Water	14.31 (0.60)	3.92 (0.47)	2.01 (0.42)	2.69 (0.91)	3.36 (0.69)	2.33 (0.86)
iv. Shelter house for animals	6.03 (0.25)	3.22 (0.38)	2.07 (0.43)	0.24 (0.08)	0.35 (0.07)	0.15 (0.06)
v. Education	7.38 (0.31)	3.60 (0.43)	0.95 (0.20)	1.41 (0.48)	1.20 (0.25)	0.22 (0.08)

vi. Gardening	32.43 (1.37)	11.28 (1.35)	11.54 (2.39)	3.71 (1.26)	3.95 (0.80)	1.95 (0.72)
vii. General maintenance	62.04 (2.61)	32.51 (3.89)	18.15 (3.76)	4.58 (1.56)	5.10 (1.04)	1.70 (0.63)
Total public facilities	263.25 (11.08)	122.76 (14.68)	64.54 (13.38)	25.61 (8.70)	33.33 (6.84)	16.82 (6.24)
4. Development & asset creation						
i. Development	498.95 (21.03)	162.30 (19.40)	83.70 (17.36)	61.62 (20.95)	129.08 (26.32)	62.25 (23.10)
ii. Purchase of property	38.37 (1.61)	23.27 (2.78)	3.50 (0.73)	2.70 (0.92)	4.41 (0.90)	4.39 (1.63)
Total development & asset creation	537.23 (22.64)	185.57 (22.18)	87.21 (18.09)	64.32 (21.87)	133.48 (27.22)	66.64 (27.73)
5. Miscellaneous						
i. Loan repayment	30.73 (1.30)	7.81 (0.93)	4.43 (0.92)	6.92 (2.35)	5.54 (1.13)	6.04 (2.24)
ii. Miscellaneous	280.08 (11.80)	91.43 (10.93)	40.46 (8.39)	37.95 (12.90)	74.72 (15.24)	35.52 (13.18)
Total miscellaneous	310.81 (13.10)	99.24 (11.86)	44.88 (9.31)	44.87 (15.25)	80.26 (16.37)	41.56 (15.42)
Grand total	2372.71 (100.00)	836.50 (100.00)	482.12 (100.00)	294.19 (100.00)	490.40 (100.00)	269.49 (100.00)

Source: State Finance Commission Report, 1995.

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages to grand total.

Appendix IX

Devolution of Funds to ULBs, 1995-96 to 1999-2000

(in million Rs.)

Item/Category of ULB	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-2000	1995-2000
ULB Share in Div. Pool	125.90	148.50	175.10	206.30	243.10	898.90
1. GENERAL PURPOSE GRANT						
Corporations	21.15	25.38	29.92	35.25	41.54	153.60
Councils	18.32	21.61	25.48	30.02	35.37	130.80
Class II	10.59	12.49	14.73	17.35	20.45	75.61
Class III	15.89	18.75	22.10	26.04	30.69	113.47
Class IV	09.22	10.88	12.83	15.11	17.81	65.85
Total I	75.54	89.10	105.06	123.78	145.86	539.33
2. (i) DEVELOPMENT GRANT						
(Distributable)	10.18	14.70	20.02	26.26	33.62	104.78
Corporations	01.37	01.99	02.70	03.55	04.54	14.15
Councils	01.17	01.69	02.30	03.02	03.86	12.04
Class II	02.26	03.27	04.45	05.84	07.47	23.29
Class III	03.40	04.91	06.68	08.77	11.23	34.99
Class IV	01.97	02.85	03.88	05.09	06.52	20.31
Total II	10.18	14.70	20.02	26.26	33.62	104.78
2. (ii) DEVELOPMENT LOAN						
(Distributable)	15.00	15.00	15.00	15.00	15.00	75.00
Corporations	06.08	06.08	06.08	06.08	06.08	30.40
Councils	05.17	05.17	05.17	05.17	05.17	25.85
Class II	01.11	01.11	01.11	01.11	01.11	05.55
Class III	01.67	01.67	01.67	01.67	01.67	08.35
Class IV	00.97	00.97	00.97	00.97	00.97	04.85
Total II	15.00	15.00	15.00	15.00	15.00	75.00

3. INCENTIVE GRANT						
Corporations	00.50	00.50	00.50	00.50	00.50	02.50
Councils	00.90	00.90	00.90	00.90	00.90	04.50
Class II	03.00	03.00	03.00	03.00	03.00	15.00
Class III	04.80	04.80	04.80	04.80	04.80	24.00
Class IV	05.40	05.40	05.40	05.40	05.40	27.00
Total IV	14.60	14.60	14.60	14.60	14.60	73.00
4. MATCHING GRANT						
(Distributable)	10.58	15.10	20.42	26.66	34.02	106.79
Corporations	03.01	04.30	05.82	07.59	09.69	30.41
Councils	02.57	03.66	04.95	06.47	08.25	25.90
Class II	01.48	02.12	02.86	03.74	04.77	14.97
Class III	02.23	03.18	04.30	05.61	07.16	22.48
Class IV	01.29	01.84	02.49	03.26	04.15	13.03
Total V	10.58	15.10	20.42	26.66	34.02	106.79
Total I to V	125.90	148.50	175.10	206.30	243.10	898.90
SFC	00.00	108.00	108.00	107.90	107.90	431.80
Grand Total	125.90	256.50	283.10	314.20	351.00	1330.7

Source : State Finance Commission Report, 1995.

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