

Research Study Series
Number 99



Swarna Jayanti Shahri Rozgaar Yojna in Rajasthan An Impact Assessment

National Institute of Urban Affairs
Core 4B, First Floor, India Habitat Centre, Lodhi Road
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PREFACE

As part of its urban poverty alleviation strategy, the government of India launched in 1998 December a programme for economic empowerment of the poor living below the poverty line in cities across the country, the Swarna Jayanti Rozgar Yojna. The programme aimed at targeting urban poor with credit assistance through subsidized loans, capacity building for income generation activities and wage employment. Financial intermediation was targeted both at individuals and women's organizations to undertake self-employment ventures. The programme was founded on a strategy for community organization and building of community structures from the Urban Basic Services for the Poor programme, the Community Development Societies and self-help groups.

Although the programme has been in operation since 1998, no systematic evaluation was undertaken to assess the impact of the programme in alleviation of poverty and empowerment of the poor, particularly women, to cope with their extenuating circumstances. Informal feedback of programme implementation suggested that up scaling the programme to all cities and towns of the country had not been followed by adequate capacity building efforts resulting in ineffective programme implementation.

In 2001, the Government of India launched a series of state evaluations of the SJSRY programme. The National Institute of Urban Affairs was invited to evaluate programme implementation in the State of Rajasthan, in five selected cities through on-site field observations and interviews with project functionaries, community groups and programme beneficiaries. This study has not only evaluated the effectiveness of programme implementation but has made recommendations that have significant policy implications both at the national level and specifically for the State of Rajasthan.

The project was coordinated and the report prepared by Ms. Renu Khosla, Associate Professor at the Institute. Assistance in report preparation was provided by Ms. Shweta, Project Associate and data for the study was gathered by Mr. Rajat Sharma and Mr. Sandeep Gangar.

We are grateful to the State Local Self Government Department in Rajasthan and the officials in the five cities for their support in data collection.

June 2002

Vinod K. Tewari

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Poverty as a product of low income has been the officially accepted definition in the country and all persons or households earning a per capita income below the poverty line are deemed to be poor and unable to meet their basic subsistence needs of food, shelter and clothing. The all India poverty line for urban areas has been estimated by the Planning Commission (1999-2000) as Rs.454.11p. per capita per month.¹ It has been further unbundled such that each state has a different poverty line, for both rural and urban areas, with the latter dependent upon the level of urbanization and expenditure distribution at the state level. For Rajasthan, the urban poverty line has been estimated at Rs.465.92p per capita per month. Based on this economic criterion number of persons living below the poverty line in the cities of Rajasthan was deemed to be 26.78lakhs or 19.85 percent of the state population (GOI, 2001)².

As per the 2001 Census of urban slums, 607 towns reported existence of slum with 22.76 percent or 406.1lakh people living in squatter settlements. 25 towns in Rajasthan State reported a population of 12.06lakh persons or 16.18 percent people living in under-serviced/slum settlements³. While all people living in slums are not poor, a majority are believed to be in informal, irregular, exploitative employment with low incomes. They need to be supported with income augmentation strategies. Others living in these settlements, earning over the poverty line income, are however extremely vulnerable due to lack of basic services in these settlements and their marginalisation from mainstream city development processes that reduces their economic potential.

Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojna: Addressing Income Poverty

The national urban poverty alleviation programme or the Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojna (SJSRY) was started in December 1997 to reduce income-based poverty in cities. Its primary

¹ GOI. Feb. 2001. Poverty Estimates for 1999-2000. Press Information Bureau, New Delhi.

² *Ibid*

³ Census of India, 2001. Slum Population in States/UTs - Part A (Provisional), New Delhi.

objective was to make available credit assistance to the poor for setting up individual enterprises and to provide opportunities for building capacities of the poor to engage in skilled employment. SJSRY improved upon its predecessor, the Nehru Rozgar Yojna (NRY) by linking the income generation programme with the Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP) Programme and its community development strategy.

SJSRY has two major components:

- Urban Self-employment Programme (USEP)
- Urban Wage Employment Programme (UWEP)

Urban Self-employment Programme (USEP)

Urban Self-employment Programme (USEP) is targeted at under and unemployed youth educated up to ninth class among the poor to set up self-help enterprises. While there is no minimum educational qualification for beneficiaries under this programme, to avoid overlap with the Prime Minister Rozgar Yojna (PMRY), the scheme is not applicable to those who are educated beyond the IX standard. The scheme is also open to groups of males, females or both. It provides credit assistance up to Rs.50000 to individuals and multiples thereof to groups depending upon the membership, with a 15 percent or maximum Rs7500 subsidy per individual/group member. The beneficiary is expected to contribute 5 percent of the project cost as margin money. The scheme also has a provision for capacity building on local skills or crafts to enable the poor to set up self-enterprises with support from local bodies for marketing through Nagar Palika Seva Kendras (community centres) or local markets, and tool kits.

In order to specifically focus on women, the scheme provides for the Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas (DWACUA). DWACUA or groups of ten women are enabled with credit assistance of Rs.250000 and a 50 percent subsidy to set up an economic activity.

Women's groups /DWACUA can also be set up as thrift and credit groups and are entitled to receive a lump sum grant of Rs.25000 as revolving fund at the rate of Rs.1000 per member, after it has been in existence for a period of one year and begun informal lending and borrowing activities. This revolving fund is available to a Thrift and Credit (T&C) society even when the society is not engaged in any income-generating project under DWACUA.

Members of the T&C groups are entitled to a health / life/ accident insurance for themselves and one member of the family, either the spouse or a girl child.

Self-employment component of the scheme is universally applicable in all cities and towns and to people living below the official poverty line or identified as poor using a defined set of socio-economic indicators such as nature of shelter and access to basic services, level of education and health status of the family. Identification of the poor through a whole town socio-economic survey in 1998 paved the way for setting into motion processes for community organisation, capacity building and setting up micro enterprises through financial inter mediation and cementing marketing linkages.

Banks are the financial intermediaries that review proposals forwarded by the ULBs for micro enterprises and provide funds as per guidelines/ financial demands of the proposal. Employment options too, are determined on the basis of a survey done by the ULB. The latter is also responsible for contracting with appropriate training institutions /NGOs to build capacity of poor in selected trades and establish linkages between training and credit assistance.

Urban Wage Employment Programme (UWEP)

Urban Wage Employment Programme is applicable in towns with a population less than 5lakhs as per the 1991 Census, where members of BPL households are to be engaged as labour for the construction of socially and economically useful public assets. This component of the programme is linked to other development programmes such as the EIUS (Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums) and the NSDP (National Slum Development Programme).

Community Development Strategy

Both components, UWEP and USEP, of the programme were to be administered using an inclusive approach, by building communities into neighbourhood groups, neighbourhood committees and Community Development Societies (CDS), with the latter being the focal point for identification of beneficiaries, preparation of applications, ensuring/ monitoring recovery of loans and identification of suitable projects. Empowerment of women and community members is linked to contractual arrangements between the municipal bodies and the CDS for UWEP activities.

Facilitated by Community Organisers especially trained for the purpose through a network of state/city training institutions, communities organise into neighbourhood groups, neighbourhood committees and Community Development Societies. CDS groups organised as DWACUA groups are entitled to credit for co-operative ventures as also matching grants against savings. Like DWACUA, CDS is also permitted to set up thrift and credit groups and avail of matching funds after one year of sustained thrift activity, and receive Rs.100 per member for the first year and Rs.75 per member for the subsequent years for its operations.

Neighbourhood Groups (NHG) are informal associations of urban poor women living in an under serviced mohalla or a basti or neighbourhood of spatially contiguous households of manageable size (preferably 10 to 40 households). Geographic proximity and homogeneity have been suggested as the basis for carving out NHG boundaries. At least one woman resident among the NHG, who is willing to serve as a volunteer, is to be selected as a Resident Community Volunteer (RCV) through community consensus or election or any other democratic process and may be changed or rotated, if need be. As a representative of the group an RCV is responsible for; routing information about employment and other opportunities available to the poor under the scheme; representing views/ needs of the group in the neighbourhood committees, CDS and other forums; supporting planning, implementation and monitoring of activities at the neighbourhood level; fostering and encouraging participation of group in community improvement activities; and motivating women to initiate thrift and credit activity and contribute towards a community development fund.

Neighbourhood committees (NHC) are more formal associations of neighbourhood groups, located in the same settlement or in settlements that are geographically contiguous, preferably within the same electoral ward. The NHC may be registered under the Societies Registration Act or other appropriate Acts, if desired. All RCVs from the neighbourhood groups comprise an NHC as executives with voting rights. NHCs have provision for honorary membership without voting rights for Community Organisers (COs) and representatives from other sectoral programmes in the community like the ICDS supervisor, school teacher, ANM, etc. The President of the NHC is selected/ elected by the executive members of the NHC. An NHC is responsible for identification of local problems/ priorities/ beneficiaries, setting of community goals and development of mini-plans; supporting local action and carrying out community contract activities; providing feedback to implementation agencies on programme effectiveness and out-reach, especially in coverage of children and women; developing community capacity in association with COs, NGOs and other sectoral departments; developing community based thrift and credit systems and mobilising resources for a neighbourhood development fund; and facilitating recovery of loans from beneficiaries. Registered NHCs could apply for grants-in-aid under various other schemes.

Community Development Society (CDS) is a registered federation of all NHCs at a town level with a set of common goals and objectives. A CDS consists of elected/selected representatives of NHCs with voting rights. It may include community organizers, NGO and sectoral department representatives, citizens, elected area representatives and experts. Registration empowers a CDS to access grants under various schemes and increase their financial/ credit base. Its main responsibilities are: to represent to the ULB needs of all poor communities, especially women and children in the city; liase with other agencies, departments and financial institutions for meeting a range of community needs; to support capacity building, socio-economic surveys and identification of beneficiaries under various development programmes; to develop community plans and proposals, mobilize resources from the community, town or other sectoral departments; facilitate loan recovery and create community assets in partnership with the UPE cell in the Urban Local Body (ULB).

Diagram 1 is a graphic representation of community structures as envisaged under UBSP and to be built under the SJSRY programme.

THE UBSP ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE A BOTTOM UP APPROACH

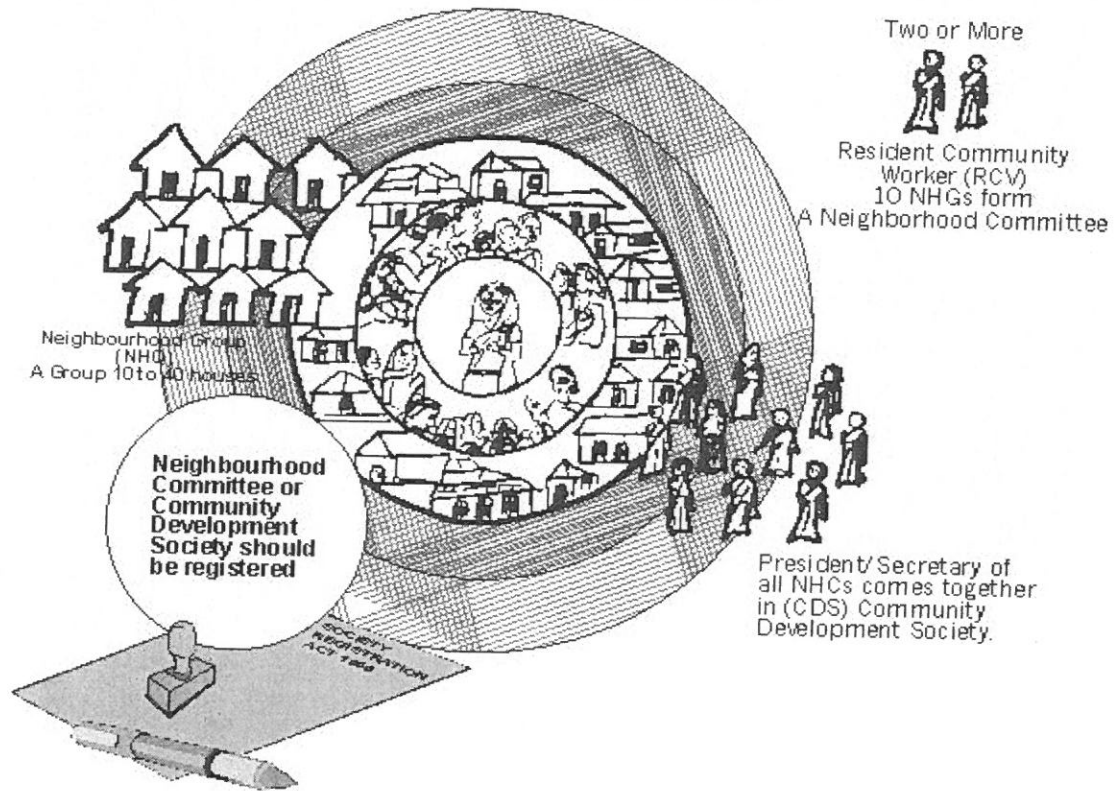


Diagram 1: Community Organization Strategy and Community Structures under the UBSP Programme

Capacity Building

Up to 5 percent of total budgetary allocations under the programme at all levels (SUDA; State Urban development Agency, DUDA; District Urban Development Agency; UPE, Urban Poverty Eradication Cell) are provided for training of personnel engaged in the programme. A 2 percent allocation is also available for Information, education and communication activities (IEC).

Project Administration Structures

Community structures are facilitated by Women Community Organisers (CO), whose tasks are to support community level planning based on prioritised needs by community members, establish

linkages with appropriate sectoral departments, identify beneficiaries and self-employment enterprises and monitor programme implementation.

The UPE Cell at the town level is the nodal point for coordinating implementation of the SJSRY programme and is managed by a Project Officer. Apart from guiding the work of COs, Project Officers are responsible for development of city convergence plans based on community development plans prepared by the CDS.

At the district level, a District Project Officer at the DUDA is responsible for development of district level plans and policies, promotion of information and experience exchange and monitoring convergence of activities. SUDA's at the state level are responsible for programme implementation at the State level.

Review of Literature

Although SJSRY programme has been in existence for over four years, no formal evaluations have happened. However, there has been some critical assessment of programme implementation in some of the papers presented at different forum and articles in different journals as also some evaluations of the Nehru Rozgar Yojna that had paved the way for SJSRY. A summary of some of these critical comments and relevant literature is presented below.

Community Development Strategy

SJSRY has been conceptualised upon the highly successful and acknowledged strategy of community organization in the Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP) Programme. Community structures under UBSP had begun at the household level as neighbourhood groups (NHG), federated into neighbourhood committees (NHC) and Community Development Societies (CDS). Resident Community Volunteers or RCV were chosen by the neighbourhood group members to represent their priorities to the NHC and the CDS. Although, SJSRY implementation was to be layered over such a community edifice, by and large community mobilisation activities under the programme have not been rooted to neighbourhood groups or built as a bottom up strategy. Rather, it has been found to be a top down, local-body driven process with CDS groups formed at the city level for the primary purpose of endorsing loan applications. No funds have been allocated

for supporting community processes under the programme, nor has training backed community-building efforts. No space has been created in the program for NGOs to work with poor communities (Khosla and Sheoran, 2001⁴).

State of Kerala has achieved some success in community organisation under the SJSRY programme by converging SJSRY funds with resources available under the National Slum Development Programme (NSDP) into a comprehensive poverty alleviation programme called Kudumbashree. Kudumbashree has focussed on identification of economically viable enterprises, establishing market linkages to ensure sustainability of incomes, addressing basic services needs of poor households based on an 'at-risk index' or socio-economic parameters for targeting vulnerable groups, and creating thrift and credit groups that have generated huge amounts of savings. Accumulated savings by the T&C groups are used as revolving funds for small credit assistance to members and have been converged into a bank on the lines of SEWA Bank, Ahmedabad. An NGO-technical support system has been factored into the programme to strengthen community organizations and ensure full cost recovery of loans. It has also established a rural urban marketing continuum.

CDS structures under Kudumbashree have generated awareness and served as effective instruments for targeting, convergence of sectoral inputs and preparation of demand-based-pro-poor, mini-micro and city plans. They have allowed public patronage and contracting of physical works to women's groups. Bank confidence levels have been high as CDS structures act as pressure groups for loan recovery that is over 90 percent. CDS groups also undertake social audits through public hearings that demand accountability from elected representatives and manage delivery of services such as referral and education, programmes for the disabled, and operation of revolving funds. CDS structures in Cochin have become the channel for receiving and directing funds under poverty alleviation programmes to households. Through the CDS mechanism, women have been empowered and are demanding representation on ward level committees, managing

⁴ Khosla, Renu and Sheoran, Shweta. October 2001. Integrating Urban Informal Settlements: revisiting UBSP and the Role of Women. *Shelter: Cities without Slums*. Vol. IV, No.3

their own thrift and credit activities, building latrines and creating general awareness about personal rights (Vijayanand and Balakrishnan, 2001)⁵⁶.

States such as Punjab and Himachal Pradesh on the other hand have made little effort to organise poor beneficiaries into associations/ guilds/ co-operatives for contracting out the wage component (GOI, 1996⁷). According to Jain (1994⁸), Chief Executives of local bodies and Staff assigned to IGA work lacked both attitude and skills of working with the poor. In the absence of any training on social development, they end up working in comfortable niches of standardised procedures (Jain, 1994).

Coverage

Levels of achievement, according to an evaluation of the Scheme for Micro Enterprises under NRY done by NIUA (1999⁹) have followed the law of diminishing returns, with highest achievements reported in the initial years of the scheme. Coupled with low within city coverage of poor populations, financial targets under the programme were not fully achieved. While lack of sufficient funds was argued as a factor responsible for low achievement under employment programmes, paradoxically, even these meagre allocations were found to have remained unutilised with huge unspent balances resting with the State Governments (ORG, 1995¹⁰). A GOI report (1996¹¹) attributed low allocations to States to incorrect poverty estimates by cities.

The ORG (1995¹²) study isolated lack of preparedness of implementing agencies and their inability to develop state and city level administrative structures as critical factors responsible for low utilization. This was corroborated by a recent study on SJSRY undertaken by IIPA (2001¹³), which

⁵ Cochin Corporation. September 1999. UPA Department, Mid Year Review Report, Cochin Urban Poverty Reduction Project. In Susan Loughhead and Onkar Mittal. Urban Poverty and Vulnerability in India: A Social Perspective. **Social Change: Issues and Perspectives**. Vol.30, No.1&2, March-June 2000.

⁶ Vijayanand, S.M. and Balakrishnan, T. September 2001. CDS System of Kerala: Participation of Poor in the Governance of Poverty Alleviation. In **Good Urban Governance Campaign: India Launch, Learning from One Another**. GOI and UN Habitat, New Delhi.

⁷ GOI. September 1996. Implementation Of Nehru Rozgar Yojana: An Evaluatory Study Report. Department Of Administrative Reforms And Public Grievances, New Delhi.

⁸ Jain, S.C., Gupta, M.L. and Kamat, M.S. Urban Poverty Alleviation: Citizen's Management as a Alternative. **Nagarlok**, XXVI (3), July-September, 1994

⁹ NIUA. 1999. Scheme for Urban Micro Enterprises: An Impact Assessment. New Delhi

¹⁰ Op cit

¹¹ Op cit

¹² Op cit

¹³ Op cit

noted that in the three years of the operation of the programme no serious effort had been made to draw a time bound perspective plan for achieving the physical and financial targets.

Other reasons identified by NIUA (1999¹⁴) for poor coverage under the programme related to delayed release of funds from the centre to the State and onwards to the ULBs, leakage of allocated funds (Pathak, 1997¹⁵), prolonged processes for loan release and insufficient advocacy to the scheme (Reddy, 1994¹⁶). Other escape routes for resources according to Pathak (1997¹⁷) were; diversion of poverty funds to other uses, flawed targeting and draining off of funds in commissions to brokers who facilitated the process for illiterate poor.

Resources for employment generation programmes are shared between GOI and the States. But because of their poor fiscal health, ULBs have shied away from incurring financial liabilities. Municipal offices have disbursed loans without developing project profiles of viable enterprises and hence applications for all/ any occupations have been accepted with maximum amount of loan permissible/ requested for, released irrespective of the trade. Experience, capability, technical know how, physical infrastructure and marketing potential did not receive any consideration in sanctioning of loans, influencing the slow rate of loan processing, recovery and default; particularly as ULBs had little motivation to recover costs (Reddy, 1994¹⁸).

Targeting

A set of non-economic parameters is included in the programme design for identification of beneficiaries. However, credit assistance and capacity building has targeted the income poor and non-economic indicators were rarely used for identification of vulnerable groups. There is considerable ambiguity about use of non-economic characteristics in identification of beneficiaries

¹⁴ Op cit

¹⁵ Pathak, P. Review of Income Earning Opportunities for the Urban Poor in Indian Cities. ODA (Unpublished) 1997.

¹⁶ Op cit

¹⁷ Ib id

¹⁸ Reddy, I.U.B. 1994. Poverty Alleviation Programmes: A Case of Self-employment Programmes for Urban Poor in Bombay. *Nagarloka*, XXVI (2), April-June.

under SJSRY (IIPA, 2001¹⁹). As a result, at-risk families were generally missed under the programme, except in Kerala.

Employment benefits under IGA schemes seem to have accrued mainly to the resource rich, who are better informed and the poorest have not been effectively targeted. Reddy (1994²⁰) found only one third of loan applicants to be unemployed. In large cities such as Bombay, according to Reddy, poor were required to earn more for mere survival than the prescribed income ceiling under IGA schemes. Although vulnerable, since they did not fall below the conventional poverty line, they remained outside the scope of financial intermediation. Assessment of incomes, according to ORG (1995²¹) was subjective, using time and labour intensive surveys that did not yield adequate and timely data. Often city governments organised joint identification camps with banks for targeting and did not engage in community consultations/processes where poor identified deserving candidates using their own criteria. Civil society agencies too, have not been engaged in identification of the poorest beneficiaries due to lack of public confidence (GOI, Working Group on Urban Poverty, 1996²²) despite conclusive evidence of citizen participation leading to a halving of management costs, improved service satisfaction through better needs assessment, information, utilization, resource supplementation and repayment (Jain, 1994²³). Working with communities using participatory techniques have been seen as time consuming processes and set-aside in an effort to push targets.

In Ludhiana, yellow cards were assigned to the income poor for efficiency in identification of low-income households for loan assistance under the SJSRY. However, the Municipal Corporation Ludhiana (MCL) admitted to not using these cards as these seemed to have been issued to affluent persons in the city as well. Findings of the GOI-Department Of Administrative Reforms And Public Grievances Study indicated that while MCL used RCVs and NHCs for identification of beneficiaries and an income affidavit, at Jagraon and Shimla local bodies had not used any

¹⁹ Saran, K.S.R.N. 2001. Concurrent Evaluation of the SJSRY in Andhra Pradesh. Centre for urban Studies, IIPA, New Delhi.

²⁰ *Ib id*

²¹ Operations Research Group. 1995. Study on Management and Organisation Aspects of Nehru Rozgar Yojna. Summary report submitted to the Planning Commission.

²² *Op cit*

²³ Jain, S.C., Gupta, M.L. and Kamat, M.S. 1994. Urban Poverty Alleviation: Citizen's Management as a Alternative. *Nagarlok*, XXVI (3), July-September.

indicators for identification of beneficiaries under the wage component and instead hired wage labour from the market. The whole process of financial intermediation was thus seen to lack transparency that had led to wrongful selection (GOI, 1996²⁴).

Targeting of women under the programme was found to be low in Punjab, HP, Haryana and Delhi with only one-fifth beneficiaries being women (GOI, 1996²⁵; NIUA, 1999²⁶). Reach among scheduled castes and youth, particularly girls, too fell short of target. More beneficiaries from class I towns tended to access loans.

Poverty Line, concluded most studies, was an inadequate instrument for identification of urban poor, as it 'invisibilised' vulnerabilities that accrued from a lack of basic services, shelter, insecurity and powerlessness among the poor households. Just about half the loanees were found to be below the official poverty line by NIUA (1999²⁷) at the time of loan sanction. In large cities like Delhi and Faridabad, poverty lines were set too low, abbreviating the target group to be reached.

Financial Intermediation and Intermediaries

SJSRY was essentially designed by a merging of the income generation programme, Nehru Rozgar Yojna (NRY) with UBSP. Problems with regard to flow of credit to the poor through banks that were seen as key reasons for reduced efficiency of NRY have persisted in the SJSRY. Banks have continued to show reluctance in release of credit to the poor due to low rates of loan recovery (ADB, 2001). Lack of bank enthusiasm has only been exacerbated by the low capacities of urban local bodies to absorb funds and provide matching grants under the programme (WSP, 2000²⁸).

Reserve Bank of India's circular no. 1182/09.16.01/99-2000 has expressed RBI's dissatisfaction with the slow pace of processing of loans and fund release by the banks. According to RBI, loan releases had been capped at Rs.25000 or less and took far too long to process. RBI's time line to the banks demanded that applications for less than Rs.25000 be sanctioned within a fortnight of application submission, whereas requests for bigger amounts were to be processed within a period

²⁴ Op cit

²⁵ Op cit

²⁶ Op cit

²⁷ Op cit

²⁸ WSP. Flow and Utilisation of Urban Poverty Funds. Nagri. WSP, New Delhi

of 8 to 9 weeks. This fact was confirmed by the NIUA study (1999²⁹) that found loan disbursement to be in multiples of five thousand with a ceiling of Rs.20000. IIPA (2001³⁰) too, noted that banks sanctioned less than the requested amounts of loans which beneficiaries considered necessary for their enterprises. Larger amounts of loans were sanctioned only against assurance from municipal authorities with regard to repayment. Although no gender bias was evident in loan disbursal, women were found to apply for and receive smaller credits.

The study undertaken by the Department Of Administrative Reforms And Public Grievances, GOI (1996³¹) while commenting upon the Scheme for Housing and Shelter Up-gradation in Punjab is indicative of the malaise in programmes such as SJSRY that require financial intermediation, accruing from the end of financial institutions. According to these research findings, beneficiaries were sanctioned a uniform loan of Rs.4000 (Rs.3000 as loan and Rs.1000 as subsidy) irrespective of the nature of work that needed to be undertaken in shelter improvement. In Ludhiana, banks also expected beneficiaries to deposit Rs.1000 in advance, which was to be placed in a fixed deposit to ensure loan recovery. In order to deposit this amount, people were borrowing money from local moneylenders at high interest rates, defeating the very objective of the programme. Credit money was deemed as inadequate by the recipients and led to several improvement activities remaining unfinished. Beneficiaries also complained about difficulties in cheque encashment, as the poor did not have any saving bank accounts. Banks were unwilling to open accounts for the poor as these were being opened with the specific purpose of loan cheque cashing. Once the money was withdrawn the accounts were likely to become defunct, increasing bank paperwork. In HP, SHASU loans had not been linked to credit for income generation, leading to poor loan recovery further influencing recycling of funds by banks/ HUDCO. While loanees did not have to pay 'extra inducement payments', banks did expect quotations from recognised/ listed agencies/ shops, opening up a possible window for fund misuse. According to banks though, this eliminated the probability of bogus applications.

²⁹ Op cit

³⁰ Op cit

³¹ Op cit

Loan release procedures according to NIUA (1999³²) were people “unfriendly” and designed to protect the interests of the banks. Rejection rate of applications was high with half the applications turned down by the banks. Onus of providing proof of residence / income rested with the beneficiary. Documentary evidence to substantiate requests included ration card, income certificate, a no objection certificate from other bank(s) and in some cases collateral surety such as an FDR or house/ shop ownership papers. Time taken to process loans, expected to take one month, stretched over 4-6 months. Scrutiny of applications was done twice, once by ULB officials and once by the bank, compounding the delay. Several visits to banks were needed to give energy to the process, which meant a loss of daily wage for the poor seeking the loan.

About half the loanees had not defaulted on repayments although preference for longer repayment plans on lower interest rates was articulated. Regularity of repayment was highest in the first year of loan receipt. Large number of recipients were quite unaware that these were loans and not grants (Jain et. al., 1994³³).

Loan recovery according to NIUA (1999³⁴) was slow with about twenty percent having fully paid back the loan and one in every ten persons not repaying at all. Average repayment instalment was Rs.335 per month, with most people returning up to Rs.400 per month. Loanees who had requested for and received larger loans were found to be in better positions to repay loans in comparison to those who had selected enterprises such as bangle or vegetable selling. Latter were activities that women generally opted for. Almost two third respondents complained about administrative bottlenecks that increased with the type of profession for which credit was being sought. Even after clearing the administrative hurdles, people received less than the required cost of the project as loan (Reddy, 1994³⁵); a factor responsible for diversion of funds for consumption purposes. Responsibility of loan recovery rested with the banks with ULBs absolving themselves of any role; their task concluding on release of subsidy to banks.

³² Op cit

³³ Op cit

³⁴ Op cit

³⁵ Op cit

Intervention of local councillors and their partisan/short-sighted electoral ends had added to default problems. Loan waiver schemes of past governments were seen to have weakened repayment enthusiasm (ORG, 1995³⁶).

Legal constraints added to the disadvantages urban poor faced in accessing credit. Unauthorized status of their settlements, lack of ownership of the house and land, insecurity of tenure, insufficient space for setting up the micro enterprises, inadequate infrastructure and low level of services for maximising output was seen to reduce productivity/deny people access to credit (ORG, 1995³⁷).

Capacity Building of Programme Functionaries

Lack of institutional sensitivity with regard to people's participation in planning was compounded by insufficient investment in capacity building of municipal workers despite availability of fund (Khosla, 1999³⁸, ADB, 2001³⁹). NRY managers in the ULB were found to lack knowledge with regard to loan applications and other formalities connected therewith such as expediting secretariat approvals, finalisation of agreements etc., furnishing of utilization certificates, maintenance of beneficiary accounts for loan repayment etc. (GOI, 1996⁴⁰).

Skill Training

Training for employment was being offered through select training institutions identified by city UPA cells in largely typical /traditional vocations such as tailoring and embroidery, beauty courses, computer training, food processing etc. All training centres ran programmes on tailoring. Size of training batches ranged between 15-40 persons. With several such batches trained in one city, surplus labour had been created reducing earning potential (NIUA, 1999⁴¹).

In Ludhiana and HP, a few local NGOs had been identified for training of beneficiaries under the NRY, although the concept of civil society involvement was yet to be clearly understood (GOI, 1996⁴²). However, in the NIUA study (1999⁴³) on NRY and the IIPA study (2001⁴⁴) on SJSRY, none

³⁶ Op cit

³⁷ Op cit

³⁸ Khosla, R. Planning with the Poor: Towards People Friendly Cities. Seminar on Social Dimensions of Urban Poverty in India, NIUA & World Bank, March 1999, Mimeo.

³⁹ ADB. June 2001. Reducing Poverty in Urban India. Final Report.

⁴⁰ Op cit

⁴¹ Op cit

⁴² Op cit

of the loanees had been provided training under the programme, with training and income generation being perceived as two discrete activities. This further confirmed the finding that not much had changed between NRY and SJSRY.

Metros had more training opportunities to offer, though not necessarily more options than class II towns. No systematic field studies by training institutes were noted to assess the market requirements and to provide training in related professions for integration with the city's economy (NIUA, 1999⁴⁵).

More women had opted for training in IGA skills signifying a felt need among women for economic independence. Women enrolled primarily for vocational courses such as tailoring, charkha and handloom weaving, food processing etc. which lacked market potential unless high levels of proficiency were attained. Inadequate levels of expertise were attributed to insufficient budgets for purchase of raw material, lack of training on management, accounting and marketing (NIUA, 1999⁴⁶).

Linkages between training for skill building, enterprise selection and marketing were tenuous (IIPA, 2001⁴⁷); with bulk of loans being sanctioned to the commonest of enterprises such as tailoring, vending, grocery, tea stalls, pan shops etc. Too many similar enterprises in one community reduced venture profitability. Capacity building for skill based enterprises was of low quality, non competitive, non marketable, superficial and without adequate integration with the labour market (NIUA, 1999⁴⁸). Follow up systems were not institutionalised at the training institutes and it was difficult to assess how often training had resulted in income generation activities (IIPA 2001⁴⁹). Trainees were rarely assisted to obtain loans, set up enterprises, establish linkages with markets or provided processing/transport facilities for moving raw stock/finished products as per the scheme

⁴³ Op Cit

⁴⁴ Op cit

⁴⁵ Op cit

⁴⁶ Op cit

⁴⁷ Op cit

⁴⁸ Op cit

⁴⁹ Op cit

(NIUA, 1999⁵⁰). In fact training seemed to be a major attraction for unemployed youth in terms of the stipend that was provided during the training programme (IIPA, 2001⁵¹).

Convergence

Singular focus of the programme on employment has meant that other vulnerabilities of the poor in cities due to poor access to basic services have continued to be un-addressed with cities unable to work out a poor friendly plan (NIUA, 1999⁵²). According to Thamarajakshi (1998⁵³), urban sector policies must therefore be differential/ flexible allowing for adjustments to all segments of the poor; unskilled workers, illiterate women, semi skilled persons and educated youth and integrated with other social development/ infrastructure programmes of housing, environmental improvement, water and sanitation, health, education, nutrition etc. for a concerted impact on poverty.

Administrative Structures

In most urban local bodies, the Secretary/ Executive Officer of the Municipal Corporation/ Municipal Committee is designated as Project Officer for programme implementation. According to the GOI study team, these official had heavy work loads, in particular, handling of day-to-day affairs of the local body, which left with them very little time and energy to devote to supervising/guiding implementation of the Yojana. Other ULB officials had not been trained to manage the programme with greater sensitivity. As a result the Yojana was getting less attention than was desirable both at the city and the district level. Attitude of programme managers was half-hearted as they felt that funds provided were far too small. Attention was focussed on implementation of more lucrative schemes like dairy farming, orchard plantation etc. Besides, hardly any interaction between State officials and urban local bodies on programme implementation was visible. Multiple implementation authorities tended to make the programme disjointed and eroded the authority of the ULB (GOI, 1996⁵⁴; Jain, 1994⁵⁵).

⁵⁰ Op cit

⁵¹ Op cit

⁵² Op cit

⁵³ Thamarajakshi. 1996. **Micro Interventions for Poverty Alleviation, Country Study, India**. Prepared for the South Asia Multidisciplinary Advisory Team, ILO, New Delhi.

⁵⁴ Op cit

⁵⁵ Op cit

IGA programmes besides being low in the list of ULB priorities were administered with strict 'centrally issued guideline' discipline and adjudged by target achievement. As a result they were people unfriendly. Since local officials lacked capacity to engage with the poor, they felt comfortable with standardised procedures (Jain, 1994⁵⁶). Only those states that were able to develop decentralised systems of administration and build community friendly approaches could reflect better performances (Thamarajakshi, 1998⁵⁷).

Weak interface between local institutions and banks had resulted in poor coordination for loan sanctioning, recoveries and resource use as well as collusion between loan givers and loan takers with the latter even prepared to forgo the subsidy (Jain et al, 1994⁵⁸). ULBs also did not attempt to follow up loan use.

Advocacy

Although NRY was operational for 6 years at the time of the GOI study (1996⁵⁹), its media or communication strategy was ineffective/missing. Likely beneficiaries were being missed due to a lack of awareness and non-participation of NGOs. IIPA (2001⁶⁰) noted the same flaw in the SJSRY programme after 3 years of being functional. No proper dissemination of information among the BPL community about the scheme's details and skill training had happened.

Impact of Credit on Poverty of Households

Access to credit was found to have led to increases in incomes of beneficiaries as indicated by the shift in spending patterns and increased investment in education, health and shelter up-gradation. Households had spent money on individual toilets and tap connections and could manage health/family emergencies without resorting to borrowing (NIUA, 1999⁶¹). Money was also invested back into the business enhancing sustainability of the venture. About 6 percent beneficiaries though had converted the loans into consumption purposes. In real terms incomes had increased between Rs.100 to Rs.500 per family and people who borrowed for traditional occupations in which they had

⁵⁶ Op cit

⁵⁷ Op cit

⁵⁸ Op cit

⁵⁹ Op cit

⁶⁰ Op cit

⁶¹ Op cit

been engaged tended to do better in terms of income improvements; especially in the low skill, low technology and low productivity informal sector (Papola, 1994⁶²).

Women beneficiaries benefited the most by moving above the poverty line. In the case of women these were largely home-based occupations however, with limited opportunities for upward mobility (Jain, 1980⁶³). No incidence of child workers was reported in women dependent families. Beneficiaries from larger cities benefited more than small town borrowers (NIUA, 1999⁶⁴).

Rise in incomes did not however commensurate with inflationary pressures in the economy. When measured against the revised poverty lines of 1997 (Planning Commission, 1997⁶⁵), families below the poverty index in fact had swelled in number (NIUA, 1999⁶⁶).

Wage Employment Component

Under the wage employment component of NRY, assets were not being created in the poorest sections of the towns/communities. The material labour ratio used, hindered rather than helped in the creation of sustainable assets. Creation of employment avenues, an end objective of the IGA schemes, was thus un-reached (Reddy, 1994⁶⁷).

Women and Employment Trends

IGA schemes under poverty alleviation programme are aimed at enabling women to become 'economic actors'. However studies indicated that gender consciousness often stopped at delimiting a quota for women beneficiaries, not necessarily in proportion to their presence in the population, especially among urban poor communities and SC/ST populations that have a high incidence of women dependent households (World Bank, 1991⁶⁸).

⁶² Papola, T.S. 1994. Employment of Women in South Asian Countries. The Indian **Journal of Labour Economics**. Vol. 36, No 1.

⁶³ Jain, D.1980. **Women's Quest for Power**. Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi.

⁶⁴ Op cit

⁶⁵ Op cit

⁶⁶ Op cit

⁶⁷ Op cit

⁶⁸ World Bank. 1991. **Gender and Poverty in India**, Washington.

Women workers according to ILO, earned lower wages (less than half) in comparison to men due to low literacy and professional skills. They entered the labour market largely between the ages of 30 and 44, because of their exclusive child bearing, child-care and household responsibilities. They did not get opportunities to learn productive skills or gather relevant work experience and were driven to work by sheer penury. They tended to accept inferior dead-end jobs; especially widows, divorced or deserted women, in the informal sector (ILO-ARTEP, 1990). Urban poor women's chances of obtaining regular employment were low and only about 12% women held permanent jobs (Acharya and Jose, 1991⁶⁹).

Most self-employed women were seen to be either single earners or working as family labour in household enterprises with incomes less than Rs.500 per month in the case of former. Low incomes were due to lower levels of investment and poor access to organised credit as women lacked assets for collateral. Common ceilings and interest rates for all enterprises, exorbitant rates of interest on credit from informal sources, reluctance of financial institutions to waive considerations of credit worthiness owing to poor recovery rates, superficial training in stereotype professions/ being confined to local petty vending/ unsuitable choice of enterprises, lack of basic infrastructure and space for setting up home based enterprises were some other reasons for women's lack of economic empowerment (Acharya and Jose, 1991⁷⁰). Lack of time and eligibility requirements for training prevented women from taking on income earning pursuits in slum areas (AMDA, 1996⁷¹), which was aggravated by want of knowledge on gender issues among officials. Women also applied for proxy loans for the men (Banerjee, 1992⁷²).

Organization of women and small credit options bringing about change

Thrift and credit activities provide a financial service to the urban poor to build small savings into large sums as they lack access to formal banking systems (Rutherford and Arora, 1997⁷³).

⁶⁹ Acharya, S and Jose, A.V. 1991. *Employment and Mobility: A Study among Workers of Low Income Households in Bombay City*. ARTEP-ILO, New Delhi.

⁷⁰ *Ib id*

⁷¹ AMDA and CMDA. 1996. *Action Plan cum Training Module for Potential Durable Employment Generation for Slum Women of Calcutta with Special Reference to Credit Flow, Marketing and Management*. NCW and ODA, 1996.

⁷² Banerjee, N. *A Note on Informal Sector in the Indian Economy*. Paper presented at the Workshop on Contribution of the Unorganised Sector. NCAER and SEWA, New Delhi 1997.

⁷³ Rutherford, S. & Arora, S.S. *City Savers*. DFID, Urban Poverty Office, New Delhi, 1997.

Improved access to credit can greatly improve employment output and add to the visibility and empowerment of women (Jhabvala, 1996⁷⁴). Savings are a fungible reservoir, an insurance against ill health, a safety net during emergencies to back up loans without straining the income (Rutherford and Arora, 1997⁷⁵).

Organised women's groups formed under UBSP or by citizen's initiatives had enabled women to access small loans for income generation activities, greatly reducing their dependence on moneylenders. Such informal groups have had a loan recovery rate of 99 percent because of peer pressure (NIUA, 1999) enabling women to not only set up micro enterprises but improve housing with better sanitation options (World Bank, 1991).

Rationale For the Current Evaluation

SJSRY has been operational for over four years since December 1997 in nearly 4000 cities and towns of the country. Tasks envisaged under the programme were socio-economic survey for identification of poor households, formation of NHGs, NHCs and CDS groups, as also T&C societies and DWACUA groups for group employment ventures, skill training for micro enterprises and credit assistance to set up self-employment ventures.

Department of Urban Poverty Alleviation and Employment (UPA&E) decided to evaluate the programme in terms of its achievements; outreach, targeting and impact; processes for community inclusion; administrative structures and capacity building activities. The objective of the evaluation was to identify gaps and bottlenecks in programme implementation/ delivery and to seek solutions to some critical concerns.

UPA&E commissioned a series of studies to critically evaluate the SJSRY programme. The National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) was assigned the study for the state of Rajasthan.

⁷⁴ Jhabwala, R. And Jumeni, U. Ahmedabad 2001: Planning for the Poor: A Focus on Self employed Women. **Nagarlok**. Vol. 22, No.4, Oct-Dec 1988, p 75.

⁷⁵ Op cit

Objectives

Main objectives of the evaluation were to:

- Assess the nature and adequacy of the administrative arrangements for implementation of the programme, particularly coverage and outreach in Rajasthan.
- Observe the impact of the programme in terms of coverage and increasing employment opportunities for the poor.
- Evaluate change in income levels of beneficiaries both as a result of credit assistance, contracts to DWACUA groups, T&C activity and wage employment.
- Understand processes used for building community structures and to identify gaps.
- Examine the training infrastructure both for skill training and training of Community Facilitators in terms of its adequacy.
- Review the extent and nature of involvement of NGOs in the SJSRY programme for community organisation, skill training, marketing etc.
- Provide guidelines for improving programme effectiveness.

Some research questions that the study proposed to answer were:

- Process of organization of Community Structure and their over all functioning.
- Establishment and functioning of Thrift and Credit Groups and DWCUA Groups
- Capacity building of Community organizers, Resident Community Volunteers and the community at large.

- Capacity building and convergence of activities achieved under SJSRY and the other line department functionaries.
- Level of Community empowerment achieved as measured by status of women, girl child and working children.
- Role of banks, perception of urban poor, perception of banks and other stake holders
- Role of NGOs in SJSRY
- How can monitoring of SJSRY be improved
- Can we simplify procedures in SJSRY/ loaning procedures
- Relative advantages and disadvantages of the three component of the SJSRY i.e. USEP, UWEF & Community structure
- Effectiveness of training under USEP.

CHAPTER 2

SAMPLING

Selection of Cities /Towns

The evaluation study was undertaken in five towns in the state of Rajasthan. Two towns each from among Class I and Class II cities, and one from among Class III towns, were selected for the study. Reason for selecting different size-class of towns was the varying nature of poverty that is deemed to exist in large and small cities. While in class I towns, vulnerability among the urban poor households stems more from a lack of basic services, insecurity of tenure and disempowerment rather than insufficient income, in smaller cities, poverty is generally income related and is not concentrated in slum-like settlements. Because of their size and nature, arrangements for programme delivery are therefore more complex in class I cities. Also, a key component of the scheme, UWEP, is not applicable in class I cities.

A purposive, two-stage sampling design was used in the selection of towns. Based on a list of cities drawn up by the Directorate, Local Bodies, Rajasthan with detailed information on number of community structures built in each city i.e. CDS, DWACUA and T&C groups (Annexure 1), cities where these structures had been created were identified. From among the selected cities, those where groups had been provided financial assistance were selected. Two class I, two class II and one class III town was selected from the short listing. Care was taken to ensure regional representation. Jaipur was selected, even though it did not appear to have very active community organisations, as it was the state capital and as part of the study, there was a need to interview the Director, ULB, responsible for project implementation at the state level.

Five cities that finally fell into the sample are given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Sample Cities

Size/Class of Town	Class I	Class II	Class III
Sampled Cities	Jaipur Jodhpur	Merta Raisingh Nagar	Nimbahera

Although Nimbahera was a class III town, as per the list prepared by ULB, during the visit to the town the investigators were informed that its population as per Census 2001 had increased to 53000 and the town reclassified as a Class II town.

Selection of Beneficiaries

A two stage sampling technique was used for selection of beneficiaries in the study.

Stage I

Selection of slums/urban poor areas: As per the sampling design, two poor communities were to be selected in each city with a T&C and a DWACUA group, established or in the process of formation, in consultation with the ULB. While in Jaipur and Jodhpur, Class I cities, ULBs were able to identify specific slum clusters with organised communities, in the smaller towns the poor households were spread out and not crowded together. Therefore, it was decided to visit individual households who were members of the above societies/ who had been provided access to credit under the programme. Communities visited in Jaipur were the Jal Mahal Kachi Basti and Amagarh and in Jodhpur, Shifat Hussain Colony and Sur Sagar Colony.

Stage II

- **Selection of beneficiaries:** Nine beneficiaries per community, three each from the following three categories were randomly identified from the selected settlements in large cities.
 - Beneficiaries who had received credit assistance,
 - Beneficiaries who had received training,
 - Beneficiaries who had received both training and credit assistance.

In the case of smaller cities, 18 beneficiaries were interviewed from different parts of the city. In the case of Merta, since no one had been imparted training, no beneficiary in that category could be interviewed.

- **Selection of DWACUA Members:** As per the sampling plan, all ten members of a DWACUA group from the selected settlement were to be included in the sample. However, in Jaipur and Nimbahera, there were no DWACUA groups. In the case of Merta, the CDS overlapped with the T&C group and had recently been designated by the local body as a DWACUA group. Therefore all three groups had common members (CDS and DWACUA: 25 members, T&C: 12 members). Ten members of the CDS cum DWACUA were interviewed and 11 members of the T & C group were interviewed.

In the case of Jodhpur, of the 2 DWACUA groups, the group that had prepared its project report and was due to receive funds shortly was included in the sample.

Raisinghnagar had just 1 DWACUA group that was included.

- **Selection of Thrift and Credit Group Members:** Ten members of T&C groups in the city were to be included as per the sample design. Jaipur had 19 self-help groups (SHG) that had yet to formally receive the revolving fund that officially designated them as a T&C unit under SJSRY. Two SHGs that had been in existence over 2 years were identified in consultation with the ULB. Five members of the 2 selected SHGs were randomly chosen by the research team and included in the sample.

Jodhpur had 3 T&C groups, of which 2 were selected in consultation with the Jodhpur Municipal Corporation.

As mentioned earlier, in Merta the CDS overlapped with the T&C group and had 12 members of which 11 were interviewed.

Raisinghnagar and Nimbahera had 2 T&C units. Five members each from the two groups were randomly selected in the sample.

- **Selection of CDS Members:** Ten CDS members were to be interviewed in each city. While class II cities had one CDS each, Jaipur and Jodhpur had 2 and 3 CDS groups respectively. At Jaipur five members each from the 2 CDS groups were interviewed. In Jodhpur since there were 3 CDS groups, it was decided to include all three in the sample. 5 and 4 members of the 2 selected CDS groups and the President of the third CDS group formed a part of the sample.

In the other three cities with only 1 CDS, 5 members each were interviewed.

- **Other Officials in the Sample:** One bank official, all the Community Organisers and Project Officers were also interviewed (Table 2.2). NGOs responsible for training in Jaipur and Jodhpur were also visited and their training coordinators interviewed. Merta had no training activity and hence no NGO could be identified. In Nimbahera, no NGO was active in the city. Training under SJSRY had been provided by Khadi Gram Udyog that was located at the district level and at a considerable distance from the town. Raisinghnagar depended on an NGO in Ganganagar for its training activity and hence could not be included in the sample.
- **Wage Employment Component:** This component of the scheme is applicable only to class II towns. At the time of the field visit, no wage employment project was underway. Some activities had been supported under this component in Merta and Raisinghnagar. However, no addresses of people employed under the project were available with the ULB and hence beneficiaries could not be interviewed.

Table 2.2 Respondent in the Sample Cities

CITY GROUP	Jodhpur	Jaipur	Merta	Raisingh Nagar	Nimbahera
	I	I	II	II	II
CDS	10	10	10	5	6
T&C/SHG	10	10	10	10	10
DWACUA	5			5	
Credit	6	6	10	6	6
Training	6	6		6	6
Credit & Training	6	6		4	
Bank Representatives	1	1	1	1	1
NGOs (Training)	1	2			
Project Officers	1	1	1	1	1
Total	46	42	32	38	30

In order to ascertain the validity of the sample selected, sample size as a percentage of the total beneficiary population in the sample city is given in Table 2.3. Between 5 and 53 percent of the sample was included in the study. In case of community organizations, almost 100 percent of the groups in these cities had been included in the study.

Table 2.3 Sample Size as Percentage of Total Beneficiaries in the Sampled Cities

Beneficiaries	Jaipur		Jodhpur		Merta		Raisingh Nagar		Nimbahera	
	Sample	% of total	Sample	% of total	Sample	% of total	Sample	% of total	Sample	% of total
Credit	18	7	23	5	17	57	18	53	11	6
Training	12	6	24	5			12	16	6	20
Total	30		47		17		30		17	

Methodology

Structured interviews were held with the beneficiaries to gather data. The interview schedule used is at Annex 3. The schedule was pre tested in poor settlements of Faridabad, Haryana and modified based on the pre test results. Interviews were complemented with data from records of local bodies and on site observations of micro enterprises.

Limitations

A major limitation of the sample has been that despite a random selection, in the absence of a proper documentation of beneficiaries, investigators were dependent on project functionaries to help identify the sample. Functionary bias was therefore likely to have been responsible for some of the findings of the study, even though effort has been made to look beyond the obvious.

CHAPTER 3

Findings of the Study

ACHIEVEMENTS UNDER SJSRY IN THE SAMPLE CITIES

Counting the Urban Poor

Incidence of urban poverty in the State of Rajasthan as per official estimates has declined from 52.13 percent in 1973-74 to 19.85 percent in 1999-2000 (Planning Commission, 2001¹), although number of urban poor in absolute terms has remained almost constant (2.71 million in 1973-74 to 2.68 in 1999-2001).

Varying estimates of urban poor population have been reported from different sources. As per estimates of the Planning Commission, NSS 55th Round (1999-2000), population below poverty line in Rajasthan was 19.85 percent of the total state population or 26.78 lakhs, when the official poverty line for the State had been set at Rs.465.92p per capita per month. Reported population living in under serviced settlements or slums in 25 cities of the State as per Census 2001 is 12,06,123, less by more than 50 percent as computed in the NSS 55th Round. The fact that slum population in the 25 Census towns is smaller by more than half the total BPL population of the State seems to be surprising, particularly as slums generally exist in the large cities and are home to households above the poverty line who are unable to afford better-serviced shelter and are deemed vulnerable. Besides, the 25 cities in the Census are likely to have included the 3 Corporation towns in the State. Also, incidence of poverty outside the slums is generally more visible in class II and smaller nagar palikas and hence share of poverty from these towns is by and large small. Estimates of urban poverty need to be revisited by the State, if appropriate strategies for poverty alleviation in cities have to be designed.

¹Planning Commission. GOI, 2001, Poverty Estimates, Press Information Bureau. New Delhi.

ULB estimates of BPL and slum settlements are given in Table 3.1. According to SJSRY data, there are over 9.4 lakh poor living in the State and 7.67 lakh slum households. This data differs from other poverty estimates for the State. Even if one assumes that only the larger cities report slum population, the number of BPL families in these cities has been estimated at just under 2 lakhs.

Table 3.1 State Data on Urban Poor in Rajasthan

Size/class of Town	No of Cities	Population (in lakhs)	BPL Households (1998 SJSRY survey)	No of Slums	Slum households
Corporation (Class I)	3	27.22	17214	222	55162
Municipal Councils (Class II)	11	23.17	21443	154	21763
Class III	39	19.73	NA	NA	NA
Class IV	58	14.11	NA	NA	NA
Total	72	11.62	44253	NA	NA
Total Urban Poor Population with average family size of 5	183		189127	1329	153438
			945635		767190

Below Poverty Line Estimates in Sampled Cities

According to Directorate Local Bodies, the estimated slum population in the five sampled cities was 5,09,477. Number of BPL households however, as per the SJSRY Survey in the five cities was 11272 households or 56,360 persons when multiplied by an average household size of 5 (BPL Survey, 1998). The surveyed BPL population accounts for only 11.02 percent of the total slum population and only 2.37 percent of the total urban population in these cities which is in marked contrast to the reported 19.85 percent estimated to be below the poverty line according to the Planning Commission and presenting a gap of nearly 17 percent. This gap seems far too wide, suggesting huge data inaccuracies and need for recounting the poor (Figure 3.1).

Table 3.2 BPL and Poor Settlement Population in the Sample Cities

City	Class	BPL HHs	Poor Settlements				City Population
			Authorised	Unauthorised	Total	Population	
Jodhpur	I	3698	123	96	219	256000	856000
Jaipur	I	5066	-	-	178	247207	1400000
Merta	II	744	10	-	10	2525	41000
Raisingh Nagar	II	276	12	-	12	1380	27000
Nimbahera	II	1488	2	4	6	2365	53321
Total		11272	147	100	425	509477	2377321

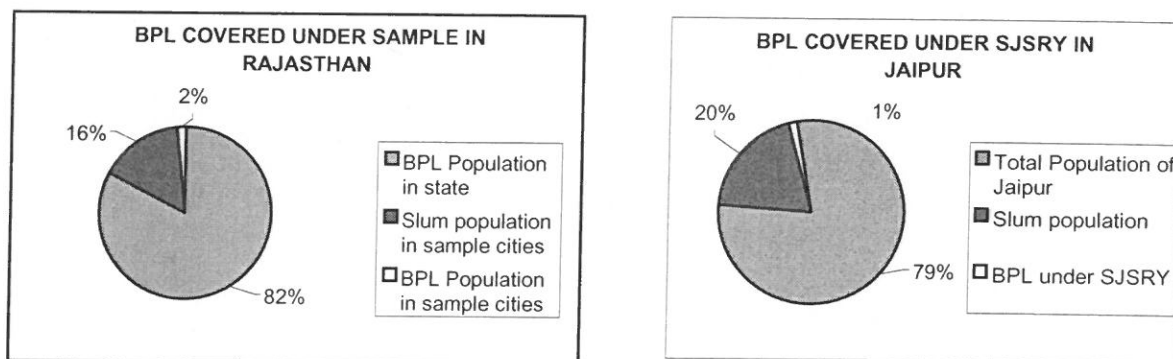
Source: Department of local Bodies

That there has been gross under estimation of the urban poor population in the cities can be further gauged by examining data available for the city of Jaipur.

Two data sources have provided information on numbers living in squatter settlements. A headcount under Census 2001 noted 3,50,353 people living in the slums of Jaipur. An MIS (Management Information System) developed under the UBSP programme in 1997 had estimated Jaipur's urban poor living in squatter settlements at 3,33,590.² On the other hand the SJSRY survey has identified only 5066 households or 25330 persons as BPL in the city, which is only 7.22 percent of the slum population in Jaipur (Figure 3.1). Almost 93 percent people living in the city slums are thus estimated to be over the poverty line. Whereas the overall urban poverty estimates at 19.85 percent by the Planning Commission are nearly three times high. Class I cities such as Jaipur according to Census studies account for nearly 60 percent of the urban population. By the same argument, these cities should have about the same share contribution to poverty as well.

²GOI. *Management Information System for UBSP. Final Report, Vol. I, pp. A2.9-12, 1994.*

Figure 3.1: Number of Identified Poor Households: Some Data Contradictions



Two conclusions can be drawn from this. Either the poverty line has been set too low for the State pushing most vulnerable groups above it, or the survey methodology has been inaccurate. In the case of Rajasthan both reasons appear to be valid. While the poverty line may be reasonable in the case of councils and nagar palikas, it may be far too low for Corporation cities. Urban poverty alleviation being a State subject, it is important for the State to set city specific poverty lines.

Achievements Under SJSRY in the State

Data available with the State Department was examined to analyse achievements under the programme across the State (Table 3.3).

Reports available with the MOUD&PA on financial and physical progress is enclosed as Annexure 5.

Table 3.3: Achievements Under SJSRY in the State

Class	T&C groups	T&C groups provided matching grants	No. of beneficiaries provided loans		Amount given in Loans (in lakhs)	No. of DWACUA	No. of RCVs	Persons trained	
			Male	Female				Male	Female
I	100	17	1009	354	253.23	10	1387	179	672
II	49	3	1052	217	264.92	6	938	71	399
III	77	7	1412	327	302.975	10	1094	197	643
IV	109	8	1428	315	269.38	2	1426	76	108
Total	335	35	4901	1213	1090.505	28	4845	523	1821

Source: Directorate of Local Bodies Rajasthan

According to data provided by the DLB, nearly 335 thrift and credit groups had been created in the 182 towns in the State, although only 35 were provided matching grants under the programme. Twenty-eight DWACUA groups were formed.

Total amount of loan disbursed in the state for the year 2000-2001 has been 10.9 crore rupees. More men than women have been provided loans in Rajasthan, with males constituting 4 times the number of females or 80 percent of all beneficiaries. On the contrary, the number of women that have been provided skill training under the programme is more than three times the number of men.

Data provided by the state does not match with the data available with the MOUD&PA as per annexure 5.

Gender based inconsistencies in training versus credit assistance could be due to the following reasons:

- Women prefer to/are persuaded by COs/NGOs to undergo training but traditionally are not expected to be involved in an employment other than home based enterprise.
- Women are unable to engage in outside employment because they lack support systems for child care and household activities.
- Women are unable to provide collaterals for obtaining loans due to low asset ownership.
- Women undergo training in order to take proxy loans for their husbands for setting up micro enterprises
- Selection of trades/ nature of training imparted to women may not be in commercially viable enterprises, but in conventional genetically stereotyped professions

Achievements Under SJSRY in the Sample Cities

As per data provided by the respective Departments dealing with SJSRY in the five cities, 978 persons had been provided credit for income generation activities and 851 had received skill training since the start of the programme in 1997 (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Achievements Under SJSRY in the sample Cities

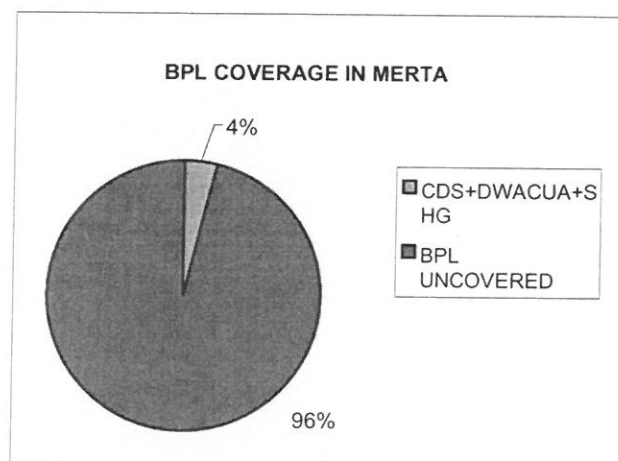
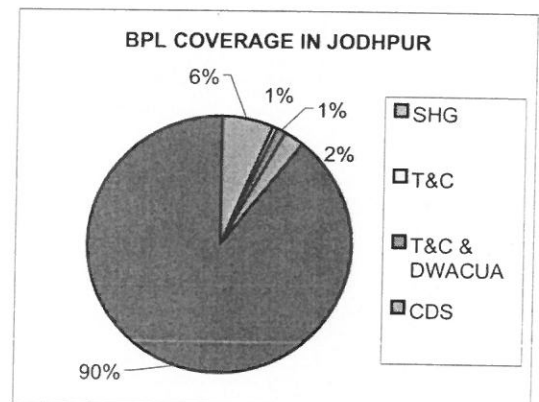
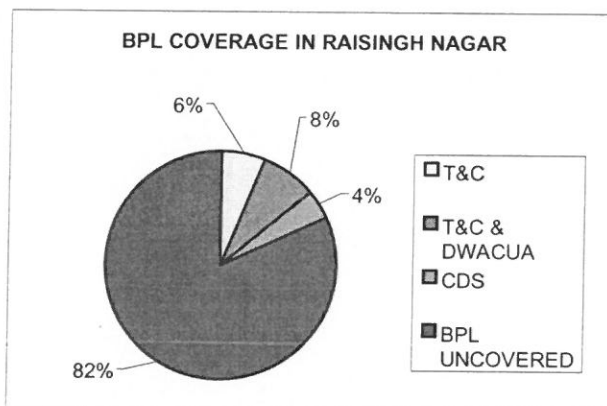
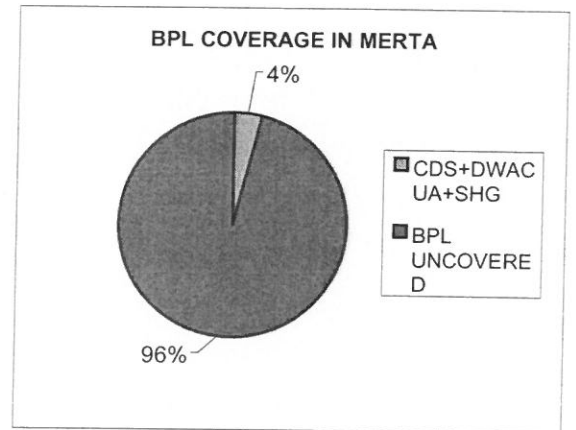
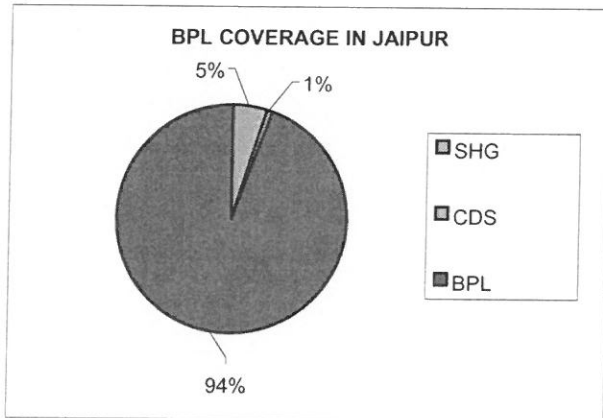
City	Class	Beneficiaries		SHG		T&C		DWACUA		RC Vs	CDS	
		Loan	Training	No.	Members	No.	Members	No.	Members	No.	No.	Members
State			8929					22		183	186	
Jodhpur	I	472	532	14	171	3	20, 15, 14	2	20,14	61	3	22,23,15
Jaipur	I	245	214	19	214	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	45	2	14, 23
Merta	II	30	Nil	1	12	Nil	Nil	1	25	28	1	28
Raisingh Nagar	II	34	75	Nil	Nil	2	13, 10	1	13	7	1	7
Nimbahera	II	197	30	6	63	1	13	1	13	30	1	12
Total		978	851	40	460	6	85	5	51	170	8	144
Percentage to Total No of BPL Households (11272) as per SJSRY		8.68	7.55		4.08		0.75		0.45			60.32*

Source: DLB and Local Bodies in the Five Cities

* Calculations have been made from the total number of Households that each RCV is expected to represent.

This accounts for only 8.67 percent and 7.55 percent of the total share of BPL as per the SJSRY survey and only 0.19 percent and 0.17 percent of the estimated slum population of the city (Figure 3.1). City wise achievements under both credit assistance and skill training range between nil and about 8 percent (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2: BPL Benefited Through SJSRY In Sample Cities



Quantitative Achievements Under Community Organisation

The sampled cities had 8 CDS groups with 144 CDS members and an additional 26 RCVs representing the entire BPL population of the city. If one assumes that 1 RCV represents up to 40 households, number of poor households that seem to be spoken for were about 6800 or 60percent of the total BPL households identified in the five cities. In almost all cities RCVs and CDS members were the same women who had been identified by the local bodies from the different wards, except in the case of Nimbahera and Jaipur where number of RCVs was more than the CDS members

Forty self-help groups were in existence in the selected cities with 460 women members that accounted for 4.08 percent of BPL households in all five cities (Table 3.4). Six SHGs with 85 members had been upgraded into thrift and credit societies with revolving funds, reaching a dismal 0.75 percent of poor households in the cities. Even these percentages may be over predicted if alternative estimates of urban poor are taken into account or when numbers living in slums in these cities are used.

Only 5 DWACUA groups had been formed in the five cities, none in Jaipur, with a total membership of 85 women, some of whom overlapped with the CDS/T&C groups.

Outreach under the SJSRY programme has been very low in terms of the number of community structures i.e. Thrift and Credit societies, CDS and DWACUA groups that have been formed in the five sampled cities. It is estimated that over 90 percent BPL households as per the SJSRY have been left un-reached. According to field observations, CDS structures have lacked basic building blocks in terms of neighbourhood groups and neighbourhood committees that were envisaged under UBSP as a means of organization and participation at the community level, and which were to represent priorities of the poor communities in mini plans. Jodhpur was the only city that had an NHC. With one NHC for 3698 households its effectiveness in representing the needs of the poor is doubtful.

Discussions with field functionaries and state officials as also an examination of city plans indicate that there are no plans for accelerating the pace of coverage under the programme in the city.

Quantitative Achievements under Training and Credit Assistance

Financial intermediation and training for self-entrepreneurship are two key components under the SJSRY programme. Annual targets are set by the Municipal Officials in consultation with local Bank officials for credit assistance. These are not linked to requirements but to resource availability with the financial institutions.

Achievements against proposed training and credit targets can be seen in Tables 3.5 and Table 3.6. Under credit assistance, realization of targets has been less than desirable in all cities except for Jodhpur. Of all cities, Jaipur has reported the poorest achievement rate.

Table 3.5 Target Achievement Under Credit Assistance by Cities

CITY	1999-2000		% T/A	2000-2001		% T/A	2001-2002		% T/A
	T	A		T	A		T	A	
JAIPUR	292	139	48	500	82	16	400	24	6
JODHPUR	175	177	101	180	204	113	400	91	23
MERTA	30	21	70	20	9	45	30	Nil	0
RAISINGH NAGAR	Nil	Nil	-	30	14	47	30	20	67
Nimbahera									

Source: Local Bodies of the Sample Cities

Table 3.6 Target Achievements Under Training by Cities

CITY	1998-1999		% T/A	1999-2000		% T/A	2000-2001		% T/A	2001-2002		% T/A
	T	A		T	A		T	A		T	A	
JAIPUR	Nil	Nil	-	105	214	49	150	Nil	-	200	Nil	-
JODHPUR	Nil	Nil	-	150	158	95	150	174	86	200	200	100
MERTA	Nil	Nil	-	Nil	Nil	-	Nil	Nil	-	Nil	Nil	-
NIMBAHERA	Nil	Nil	-	Nil	Nil	-	30	30	100	Nil	Nil	-
RAISINGH NAGAR	30	30	100	Nil	Nil	-	30	45	67	Nil	Nil	-

Source: Local Bodies of the Sample Cities

Provision of Training

Situation vis-à-vis training varies across cities. While there has been near hundred percent achievement in Jodhpur towards reaching the training target, Merta City did not even have a training component. As usual Jaipur presented the poorest achievement rate among the other four cities.

Coverage under the programme is based on the target set by the ULB in consultation with the Banks and resource availability. At present target setting also appears to be based on ULB capacity to undertake community building activities which is insufficient even as per norms of the programme (1 CO for every 2000 households), rather than on a strategic plan and vision of universal outreach.

Box 1: City Profiles

Jaipur with a population of nearly **23.24** lakh people as per Census 2001 is a Class I town. Its BPL households of 5066, according to the survey appears small when compared to the overall city population and population of people estimated to be living in the under serviced areas of the city as per Census 2001, it is still the highest for Rajasthan. However, there is no separate cell in the Jaipur Municipal Corporation for management of SJSRY. The revenue department has been assigned the dual charge of managing the programme and for revenue collection, too distinctly different fields of operation, under the leadership of the Jaipur Revenue Commissioner.

Jodhpur city has a population of 8.5lakh with 3698 households identified as living below the official poverty line. The District Project Office manages SJSRY in Jodhpur. Of the five cities in the study, Jodhpur was the only city with a separate SJSRY cell responsible for its implementation, unlike the other cities where it's either the Revenue Department or the Birth and Death registration department that has been assigned the responsibility of SJSRY. Three Community Organisers (CO) work with the poor and have mobilised one CDS each. However, all have dual responsibility, both as COs and Revenue Inspectors. They are therefore, disinclined and unable to spend time on SJSRY.

Merta is a small town in Nagaur District of Central Rajasthan with a population of 41,000. By this counting Merta is actually a Class III town. However, due to its high per capita income it has been upgraded to the status of a Class II town. It has only 744 BPL households. In Merta, SJSRY is managed by the Birth and Registration Department. Merta's poor live in 10 poor settlements, all of which are authorized. Of the 744 households, 505 households live in these settlements with the rest spread through the city.

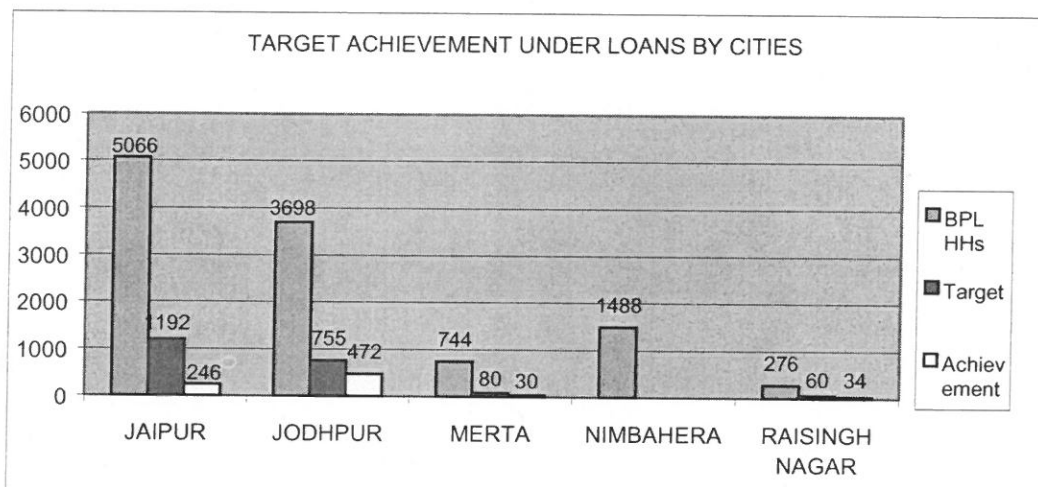
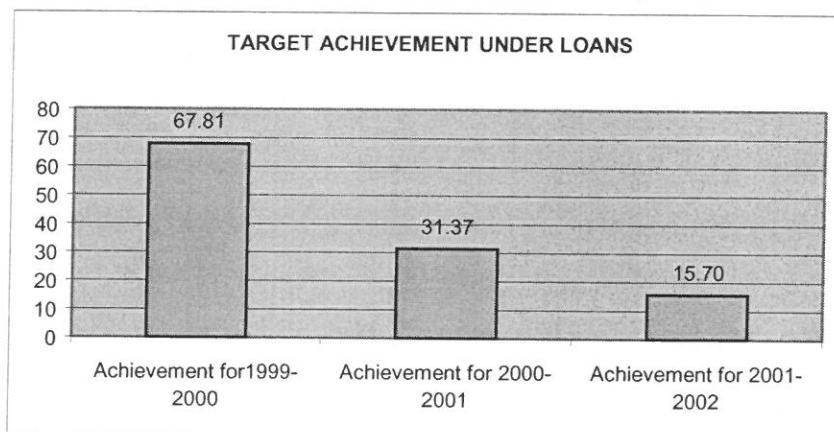
Nimbahera is located in the Chittorgarh district of Rajasthan and has a population of 53321. As per the 1991 Census, the town was listed as a class III town. However, by 1998, the population of the town had grown and the town reclassified as a Class II town. Nimbahera has some big industries like JK cement that employ many casual workers and labourers. BPL households in the town number 1488. 2365 people live in 6 kuchi bastis of which only 2 kuchi bastis are authorized. Nagar Palika, Nimbahera looks after the SJSRY scheme that was started in the town in 1998.

Raisingh Nagar is a class II city in Sri Ganganagar district of Rajasthan. It has a population of 27000 and by the population criteria does not fall into the class II category. It has been included in class II towns on the basis of the economic criteria that have been used by the Rajasthan government to classify cities. Raisingh Nagar has a huge grain market 'mandi'. As per the survey, the town has 276 BPL families. Number of poor settlements is 12 and all are authorized. A Lower Division Clerk in the Revenue Department is responsible for the implementation of SJSRY and has been doubling up as a Community Organiser since July 2000 although the project began in the town in October 1998.

Coverage for Credit Assistance among the Poor

In the three and a half years of programme implementation, the scheme has provided credit to only 8.67 percent of the total BPL households in the five cities. Across cities, the scheme has reached credit to 13 percent BPL households in Jodhpur and Nimbahera (Figure 3.3), 12 percent in Raisingh Nagar and only 5 and 4 percent respectively in Jaipur and Merta.

Figure3.3: Credit Assistance Combined and by Cities



Time series data on target achievement and loan assistance was also examined. In Jaipur the target achievement for credit assistance has not only been less than 50 percent for all three years, it has also been diminishing over time. On the other hand Jodhpur has over a hundred percent achievement for all the project years. Further, pooled target for credit assistance in the city of Jaipur over the four-year programme period proposed to reach only 20.55 percent or one fifth of the identified beneficiaries.

Setting of targets does not appear to have any rational basis. Targets are set low when compared to the identified BPL population in cities. Even these, the municipalities have failed to achieve.

ULBs lack a long range strategic vision that can help them to set appropriate targets towards a complete coverage of the poor population. At the present rate of target setting and achievement it would take the State nearly two Plan periods for universal coverage. With revised lists of BPL families and addition of new poor families due to migration/city internal growth, target backlog can only rise.

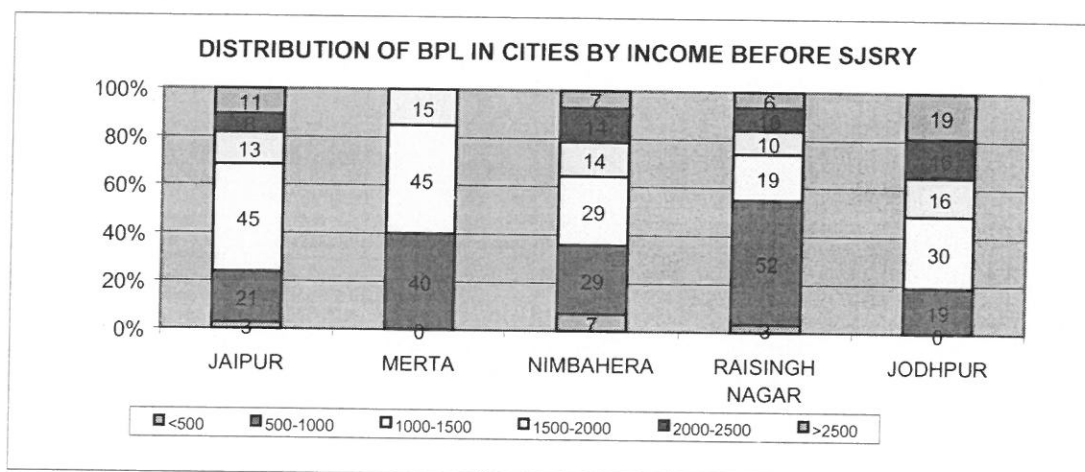
Distribution of loanees by size class of towns indicates that more loans had been issued in larger towns. In real terms the gap between the two classes of towns may be much wider as all CDS and T&C members in Corporation towns who had also been granted loans were included in the sample, thereby inflating the figure.

Beneficiaries supported under each of the components under SJSRY are examined independently in the following sections.

Profile of Beneficiaries under SJSRY

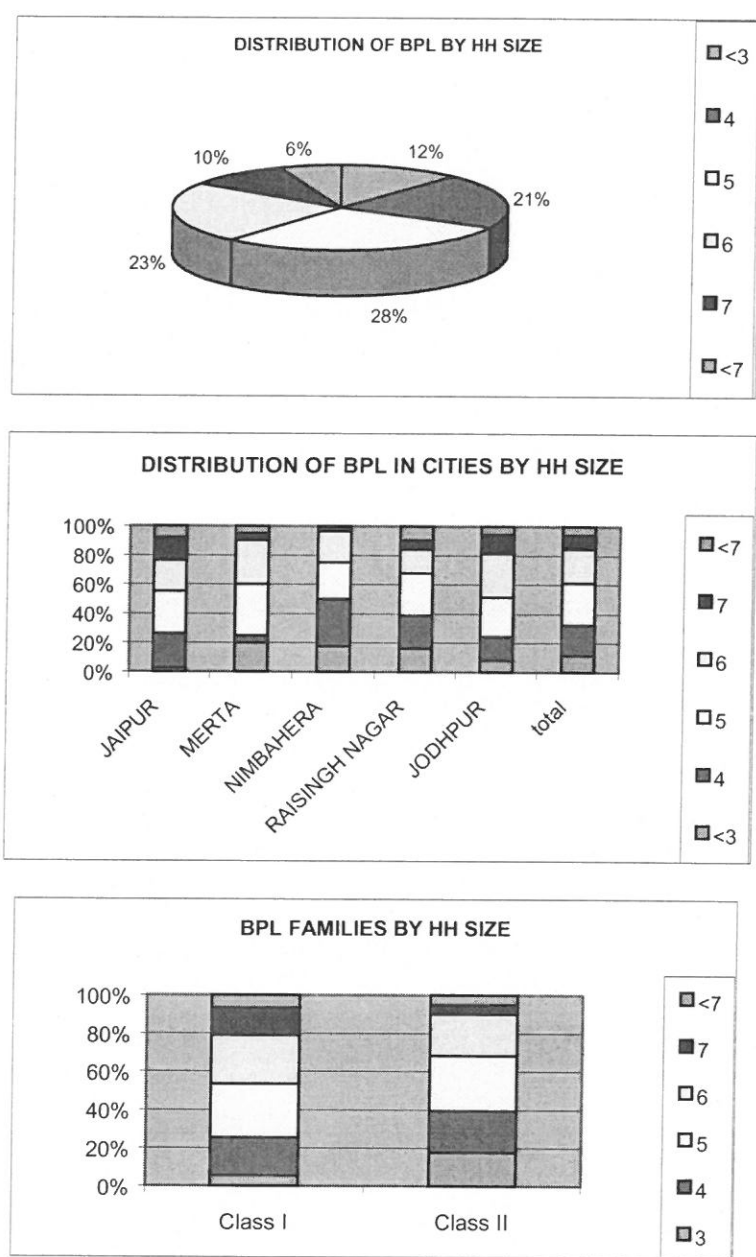
A profile of beneficiary families included in the sample is given below in figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Profile of Beneficiaries



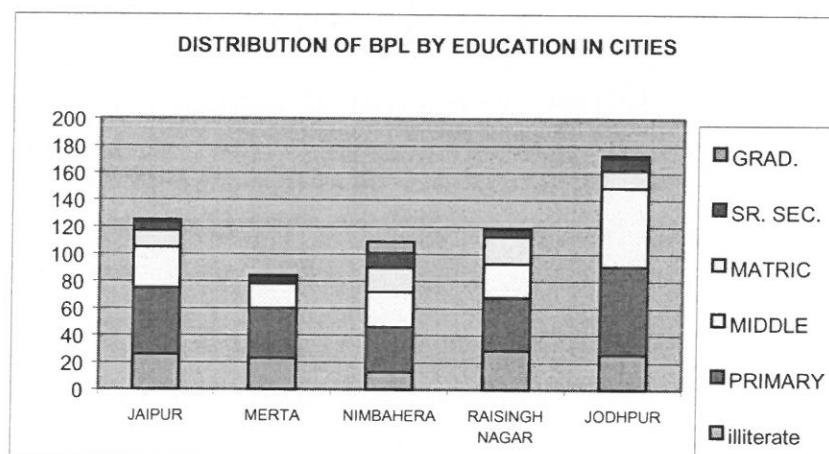
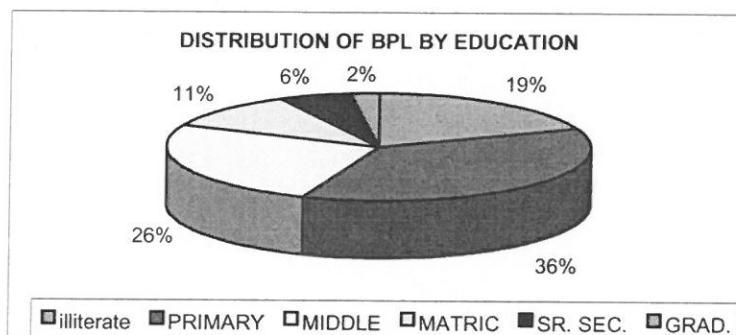
Of the 154 households in the sample, only 56.49 percent had an average per capita income below Rs.454 or were below the poverty line before the SJSRY. Jodhpur reports the highest number of above poverty line families in the sample at 24.3 percent and Jaipur the least at 13.2 percent. The other three ranged in between.

Figure 3.5: Profile of Beneficiaries by Household Size across City Class and Size



The 154 households had 791 family members with an average family size of 5.14. Male-female distribution in the sample indicated that there were 51.6 percent men and 48.4 percent women. Age distribution patterns indicated that the households comprised 27.18 percent children under 10 years, twice the average presence in the rest of the population confirming that poor families are young and that growth in low income settlements is higher than in the rest of the city. Children and youth over 10 years and under 20 years comprised 32.9 percent of the sample and equal percentage were above 30 years of age.

Figure 3.6: Profile of Beneficiaries by Education across cities



One fifth or 17.82 percent people in the households were illiterate, one third or 28.91 percent were educated up to the primary level and 18.84 percent had studied till middle school. Only about 1.8 percent members were graduates, 4.3 percent had studied up to the senior secondary level and 8.22 percent were matriculates suggesting a better education status among the beneficiary group. Since nearly half the beneficiary households were above the poverty line, this status of education is not surprising.

Average duration of stay in the city ranged between 14 to 22 years, suggesting that they were not recent migrants to the city and were likely to have availed of earlier opportunities under various governmental programmes.

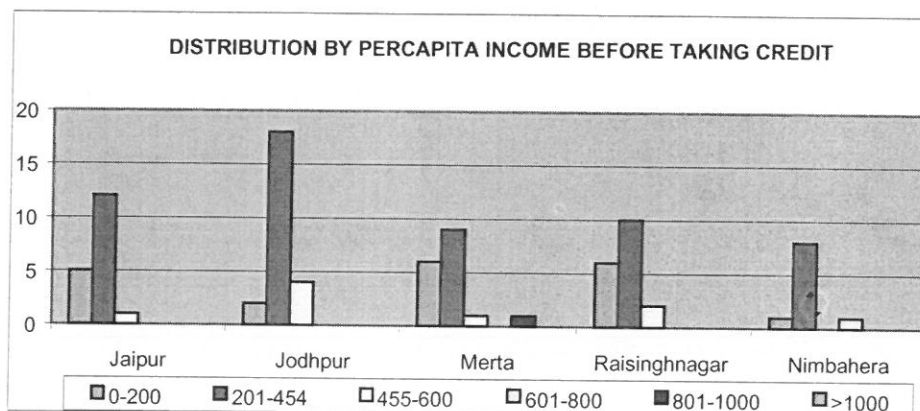
Profile of Beneficiaries Provided Loans under SJSRY

This section presents a profile of the 87 beneficiaries in the sample provided credit assistance in the five cities.

Outreach among the Poor Number of beneficiaries provided loans under the programme, by cities is indicated in Table 3.5. Of those provided loans, 88.5 percent were below the state poverty line of Rs.454 per capita income, suggesting a fairly accurate targeting under the programme.

Almost an equal number of loanees belonged to Class I and class II cities. Fewer loanees from class I cities were poor according to the official criteria (42.53%) when compared with class II cities (45.98%). More of the non-BPL families belonged to Jodhpur.

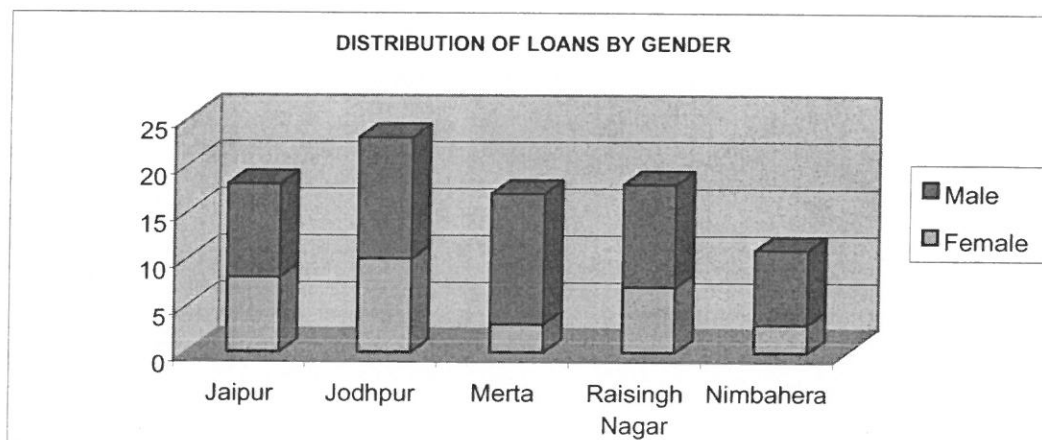
Figure 3.7: Distribution of Loanees by Per Capita Income



Apparently, while the overall programme benefits seem to be shared equally between the above and below poverty line households, for individual credit assistance, majority of families were below the income poverty line. However, there is a need to interpret this data with caution, as incomes prior to SJSRY have been determined on the basis of reported income using the recall method. Income data has therefore been matched with asset profiles of the households later in this section to assess the nature of poverty of the beneficiary households.

Gender Differences in Credit Provision: Classification of respondents by gender suggests that more men (67%) than women (33%) had been issued loans under the programme, the gap being widest in smaller towns such as Merta and Nimbahera (Figure 3.8).

Figure 3.8: Gender Differentials in Credit Assistance by Cities



Gender gap, unlike the overall state/city data on beneficiaries presented in Table 3.2, appears to be less pronounced in the sample cities because of a sampling bias. Community groups included in the sample comprised exclusively of women. As women among the community structures had also received loans, data on their employment was also gathered and is the reason for data skewing on gender.

In case of Class I cities, Jodhpur had issued an equal number of loans to men and women (50%) whereas in Jaipur 43 percent of loanees were women. In Class II cities only one fifth (22%) of all

loanees were women with Merta being the most gender unfriendly. In case of Class II towns, gender differentials perhaps continue to persist due to the traditional value system and male hegemony that Rajasthan state is known for. Incidence of women seeking loans on behalf of their husbands or male family members was noted with 18 percent women having applied for and receiving proxy loans. Women from corporation areas appeared to be more aware and tended to access credit for themselves.

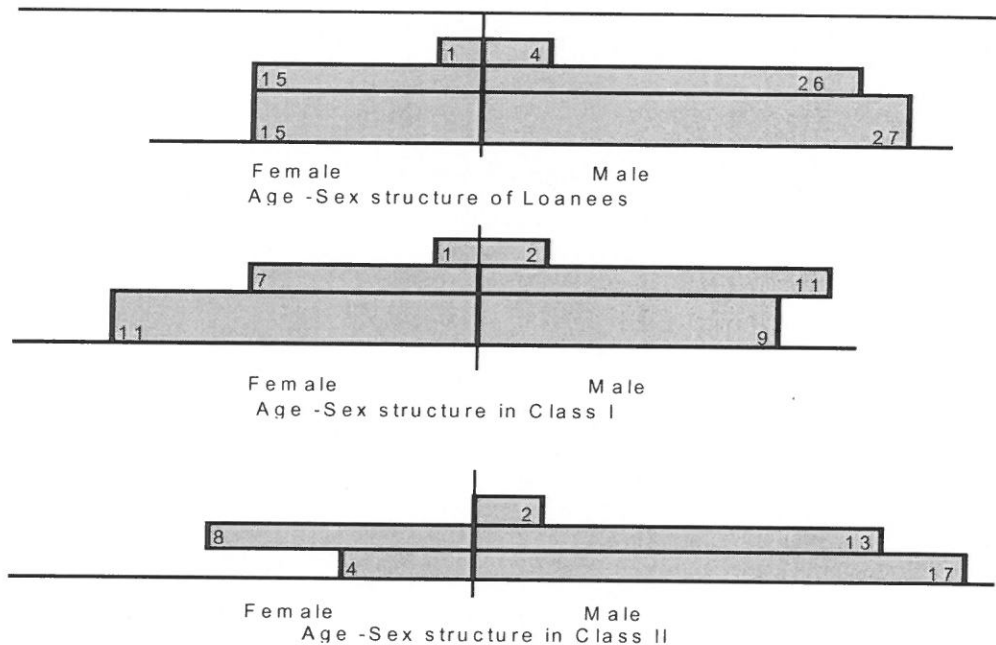
Table 3. 7: Distribution of Loanees by City, Class and Gender

Distribution of Loanees by City and Gender									
City		Total Number of Loanees	Loanees below BPL	Female Loanees			Male Loanees		
				Total no.	Total amount of loan given	Average loan per member	Total Number	Total amount of loan given	Average loan per member
Class I	Jaipur	18	17	8	170000	21250	10	78000	7800
	Jodhpur	23	20	10	290000	29000	13	415000	31923
Average amount in Class I					230000	25125		246500	19862
Class II	Merta	17	15	3	44000	14667	14	316000	22571
	Raisingh Nagar	18	16	7	85000	12143	11	156000	14182
	Nimbahera	11	9	3	100000	33333	8	180000	16364
Average amount in Class II					76333	20048		217333	17706
Grand Total		87	77	31	690000	22079	56	1145000	18568

Women on an average had received larger loans when compared with men. Average loan amount received by women was Rs.23900 in comparison to Rs.22500 in case of men.

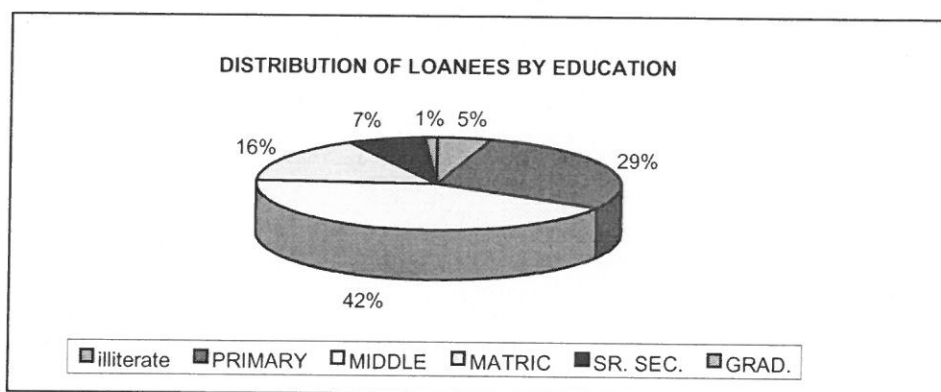
Age of Loanees: Most beneficiaries belonged between the ages of 18 and 45 years. A few loanees were still older, i.e. between 45 and 56 years of age. An equal number of men and women fell into each of the age category (Figure3.9) While class I cities had more elderly people opting for loans, class II cities had issued loans to the younger age group.

Figure 3.9: Age wise Distribution on Loanees by City and Class



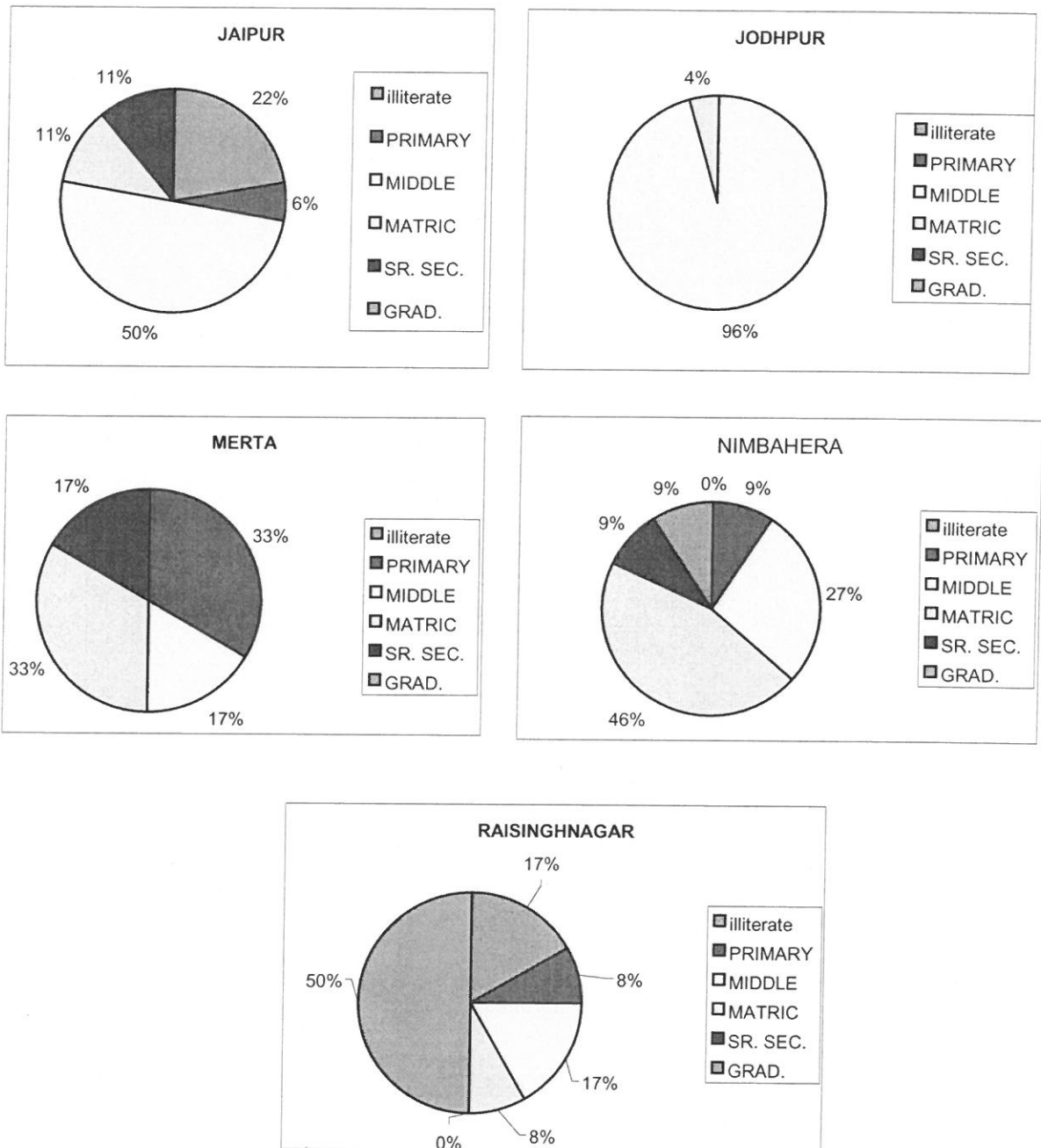
Educational Status: Eligibility criteria for granting a loan under the programme under the scheme is ninth class or below, the cut off used in the programme guidelines to make a distinction between SJSRY and the PMRY. While a majority of beneficiaries had studied up to middle school (71.26%), 16.09 percent had completed their matriculation. Only 8.04 percent people (all men) appeared to have studied beyond matriculation (Figure 3.10).

Figure 3.10: Distribution of Loanees by Educational Qualifications



Targeting in Merta and Jaipur seemed to have been more flawed than in other cities with 17 percent and 11 percent beneficiaries having been educated beyond class ninth. Jaipur also had the highest share of illiterate persons in the list of beneficiaries provided loans (Figure 3.11).

Figure 3.11: Distribution of Loanees in cities by Education



Surprisingly almost 12 percent of borrowers in the Class II category in contrast to 5 percent from class I cities were educated above tenth class. Most of those who were educated beyond class tenth belonged to Nimbahera, Raisingh Nagar and Jaipur.

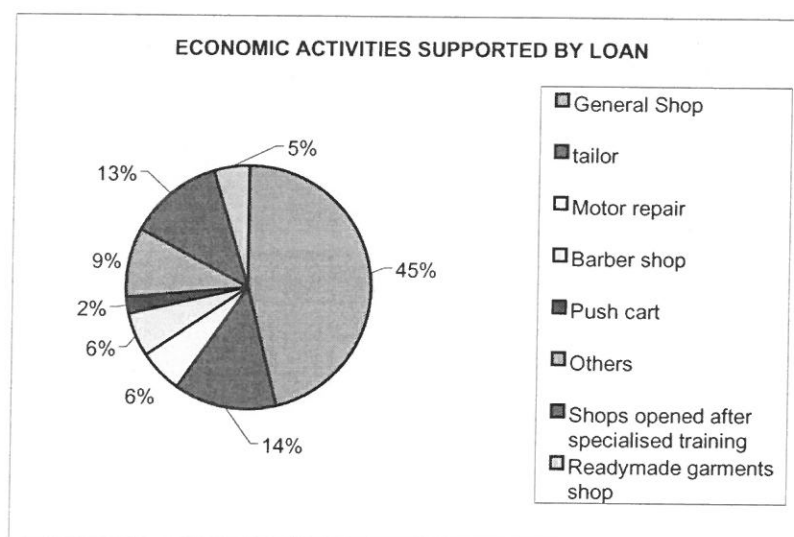
Economic opportunities provided in small cities are more limited than in larger cities and therefore beneficiaries in these cities are likely to be over the prescribed education level. Data suggests that a separate set of guidelines /norms need to be developed for smaller class cities that respond to the nature of poverty in these areas.

SC/ST families appeared to be unwilling to borrow under SJSRY, as the State Government had a more attractive scheme called POP, where the subsidy amount was 50 percent.

Nature of Economic Activities Supported

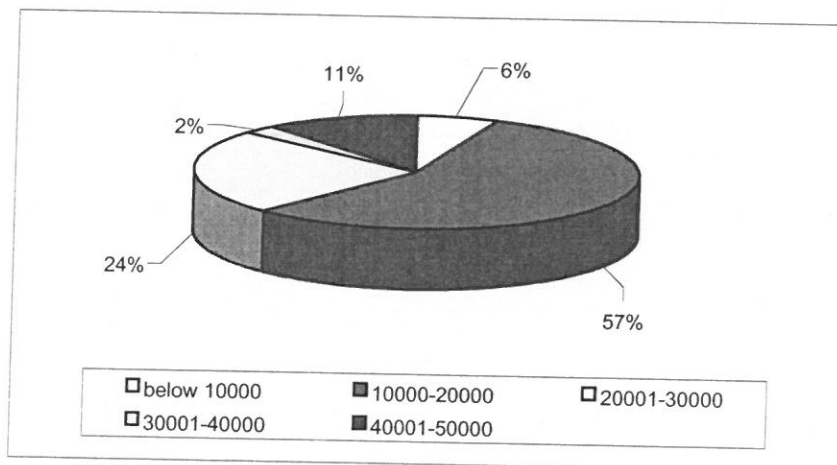
Majority of loans were provided for setting up shops; either general merchant stores, tea-stalls, welding, woodcutting, barber shops, gem cutting, etc.(Figure 3.11). Tailor shops were also popular, particularly with female borrowers, who had been issued loans up to Rs.20000 for setting up a tailor shop (Annex 4).

Figure 3.12: Nature of Economic Activities Supported by Loan under the Programme



Amount of Loan Sanctioned: Nearly 58 percent loanees had been issued loans up to Rs.20000, with maximum number receiving between Rs10000 and Rs.20000 (Figure 3.13). Another one fourth (26%) had been granted higher loan amounts of Rs.30000. Issuing of loans was based on an RBI circular that had delimited the economic activities for which loans could be sanctioned and the loan cap under each activity. In most cases loans issued were less than the ceiling proposed, although the amount issued has varied for the same economic activity and was de-linked from actual need (Annex 2).

Figure 3.13: Distribution of Loans in Cities by Amount Sanctioned



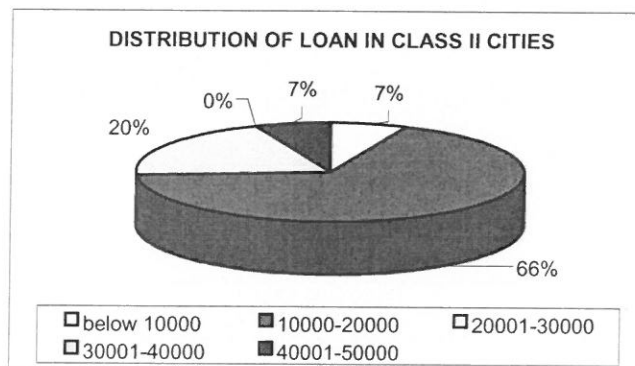
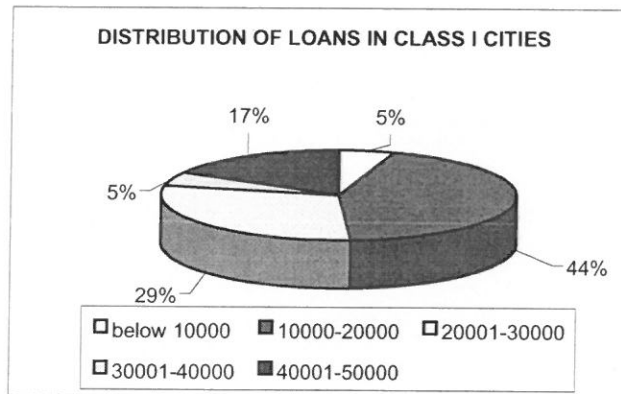
For example, as per the circular a tailor shop could be provided a loan of Rs.20000 of which the cost of sewing machines was set at Rs.20000 and the rest was working capital for space rental, purchase of fabric, threads etc. However, most tailor shops do not need to buy fabric as people generally bring their own. Obviously, any amount that was provided over and above the cost of sewing machines is likely to have been converted into a consumption loan and may possibly be the reason for the improved income of beneficiaries.

Two beneficiaries had applied for and been sanctioned loans twice by the ULB, one each at Nimbahera and Jodhpur. In the case of the former the amount had exceeded the overall credit ceiling of Rs.50000.

While almost all loans have been in multiples of Rs5000, in a few cases loans have been less than Rs10000 and in no case the individual loan has exceeded Rs.50000, although percentage sanctioned the highest amount was relatively low (13%).

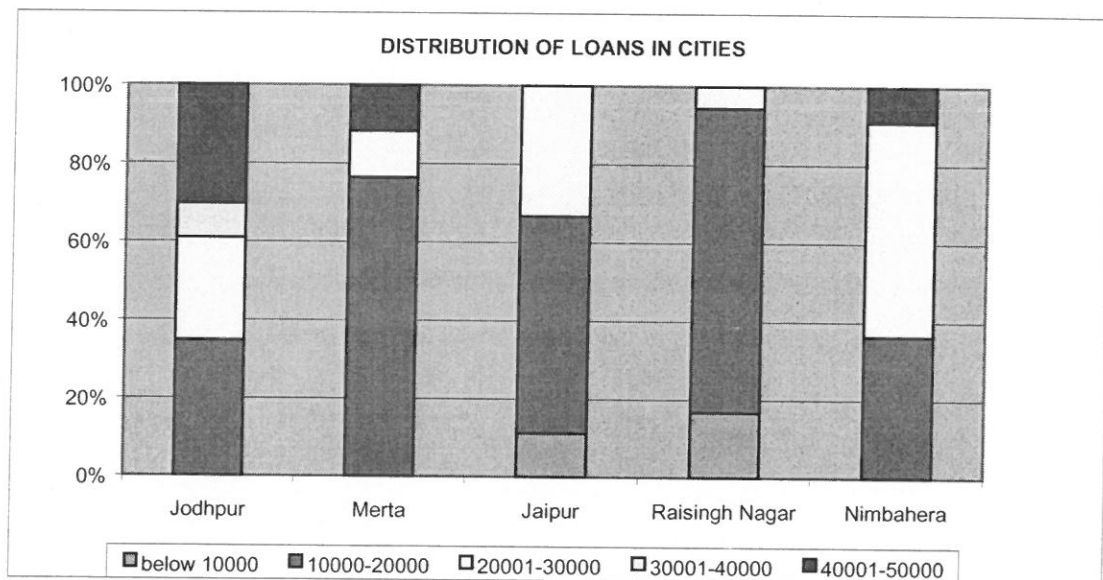
Of all the loans issued, the amount of credit has varied even under the same profession and in the same city. For example, at Nimbaheera credit for setting up a tea stall provided to two different beneficiaries was Rs.20000 and Rs.25000 respectively. Similarly at Raisingh nagar, women have been granted only Rs.12000 for tailor shops where as men have received Rs.20000 for the same profession. Reason for this difference may be because a. the applicant had requested for and received differing amounts and b. in most cases fixed capital costs that have been estimated by the RBI under a profession have included rental/purchase of space for the activity and loanees with their own space may have opted for lower loan amounts.

Fig 3.14: Distribution of Loans by City Class



No clear pattern seems to have emerged on the basis of size class of towns. Financial intermediation in smaller towns is smaller (Percentage receiving loans less than Rs.20000; Class I: 49%, Class II: 73%),(Figure 3.14) because the cost of enterprise setting up is likely to be low in these areas. Jodhpur had issued the highest number (30%) of Rs40000 and more credits. However, a small percentage (12%) in Merta too had been provided with large credit assistance.

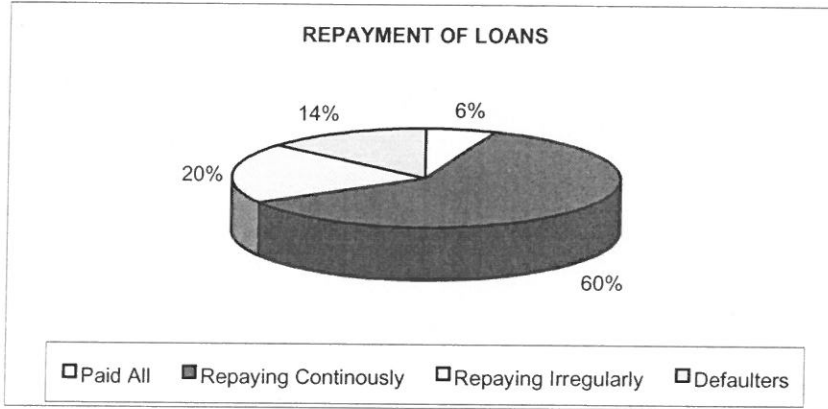
Fig 3.15: Distribution of Loans in Sample Cities by Amount



Jaipur and Merta had equally high percentage of beneficiaries with smaller loan denominations (Figure 3.15). Banks in small towns hesitated to release large amounts for some of the enterprises.

Repayment of Loans: Majority of loans (66%) are being repaid regularly (Figure 3.16). As a result banks should have greater confidence vis-à-vis loan recovery and be more efficient in granting loans. On the contrary, banks continue to complain of poor loan recovery and use that as a reason for low rate of financial intermediation. With Nagar Palikas unable to transfer subsidy money received from the Centre / State to the banks, the process of loan provision is further decelerated.

Fig 3.16: Repayment of Loans in cities



While Merta had the maximum number of defaulters, Nimbahera followed by Jaipur had the most number of defaulters and irregular loan repayment rates. Raisingh Nagar had no defaulters although a high percentage of irregular loan repay back, close to Nimbahera. Number of beneficiaries who had repaid their loans fully was highest in Jodhpur, followed by Merta and Nimbahera. None of the loans had been fully paid up in Raisingh Nagar and Jaipur (Figure 3.17). Class II towns had greater share of people who were either defaulters or paid back irregularly (Figure 3.18).

Fig 3.17: Repayment of Loans in sample cities

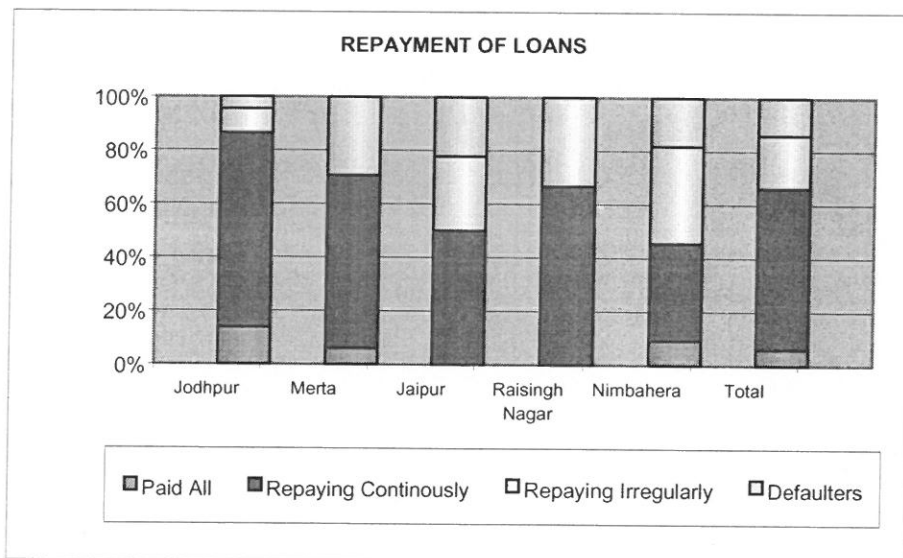
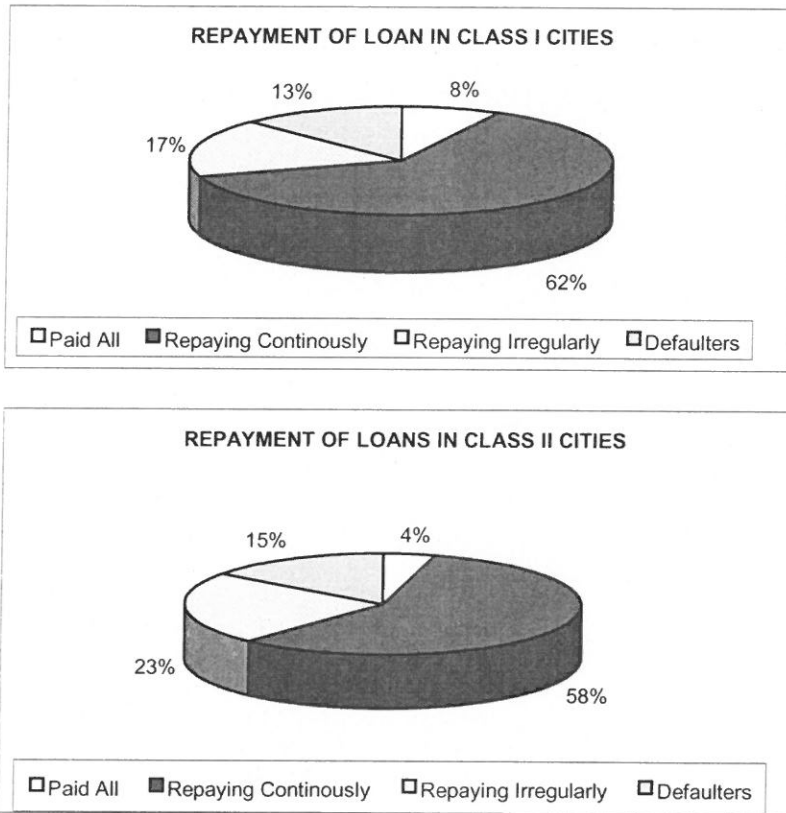
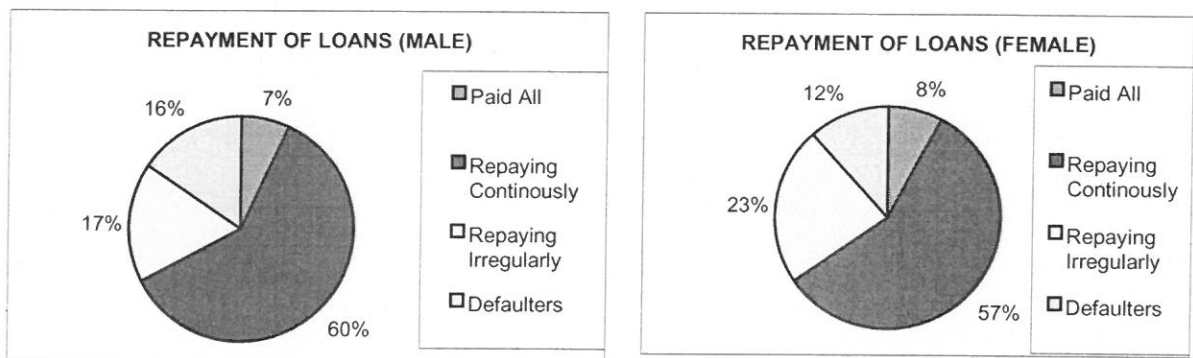


Fig 3.18: Repayment of Loans by City Class



Loan repayment amount on an average has been Rs.557 per loanee with hardly any gender differences between loans repaid by men and women. (Figure 3.19)

Table 3.19: Gender wise Distribution of Repayment of Loans



Skill Training and Credit Assistance: In the case of people who had been provided skill training many were yet to initiate the income generating activity. None of the trainees had been linked to credit and hence their unemployment.

Targeting the Poor below the Poverty Line for Credit Assistance

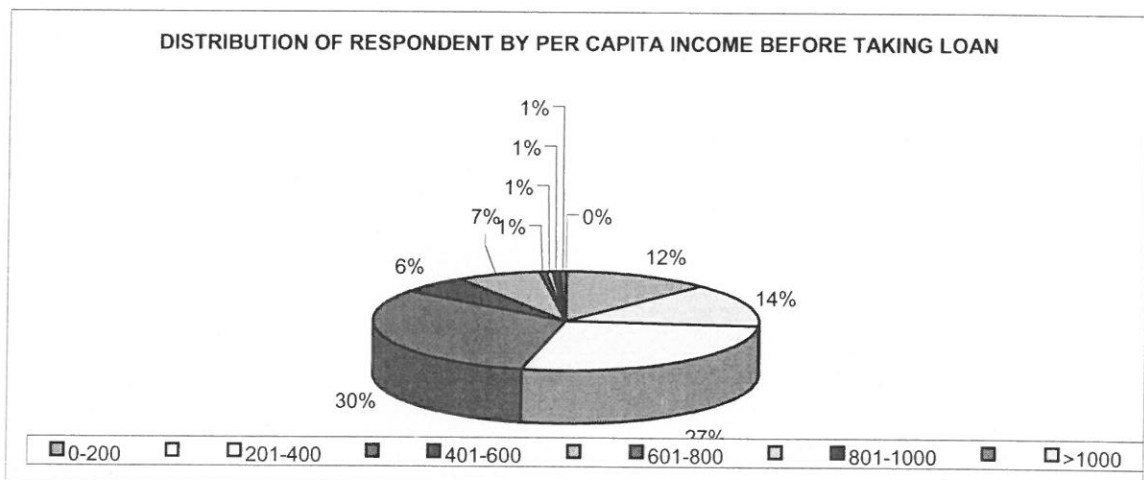
Targeting under the programme appears to have been accurate with nearly 90 percent of those provided loans being below the poverty line. However, these estimates are based on people's reported incomes and in the absence of a before profile, it is difficult to assess whether the households were really poor prior to being provided loans.

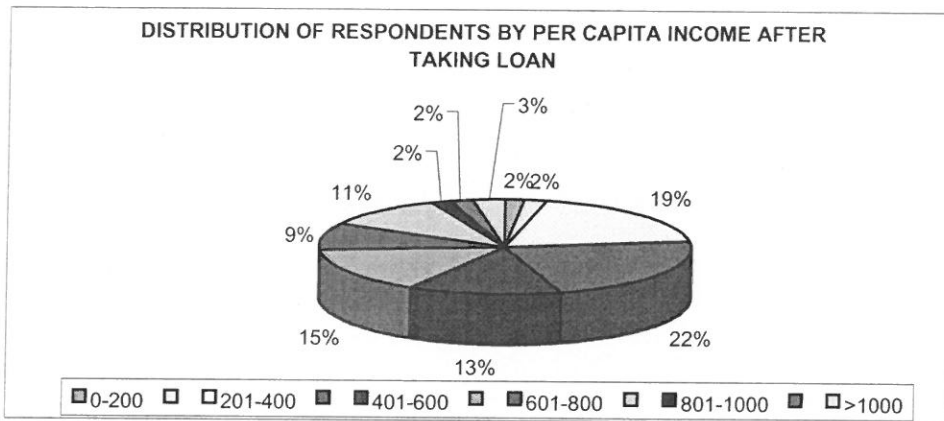
Impact on the Poor of Credit Assistance

There was a drop in families below the poverty line as a result of credit assistance. Data on change in family incomes before and after credit assistance has been analysed by cities, city class and housing and asset status. (Figure 3.20)

Nimbahera and Jodhpur showed the maximum reduction in households below the poverty line. Merta, Raisingh Nagar and Jaipur however continued to have significantly high numbers below the poverty line even after having received loans.(Figure 3.21)

Figure 3.20: Improvement in Per Capita Income with Credit Assistance





More poor in class I cities moved above the poverty line when compared with class II towns where only 30 percent people moved out from under poverty after being granted loans, suggesting that poor in bigger cities were able to self-help with a little assistance, whereas in smaller areas, they needed more and different kind of support. (Figure 3.22)

Figure 3.21: Improvement in Per Capita Income with Credit Assistance by City Size

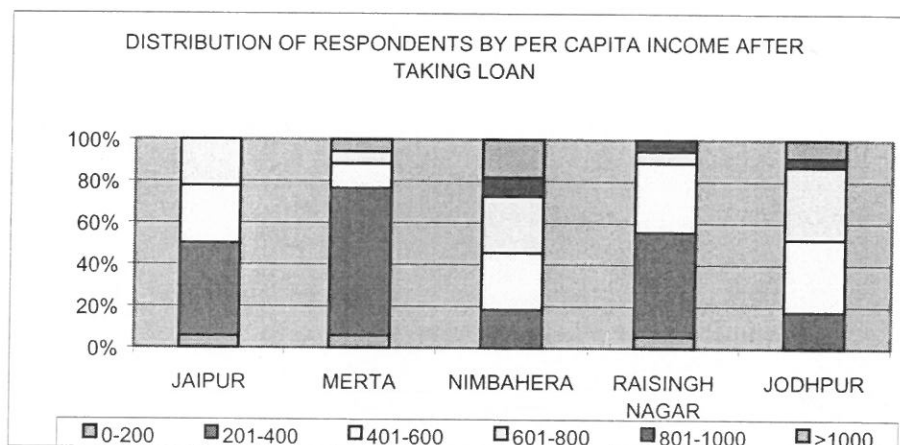
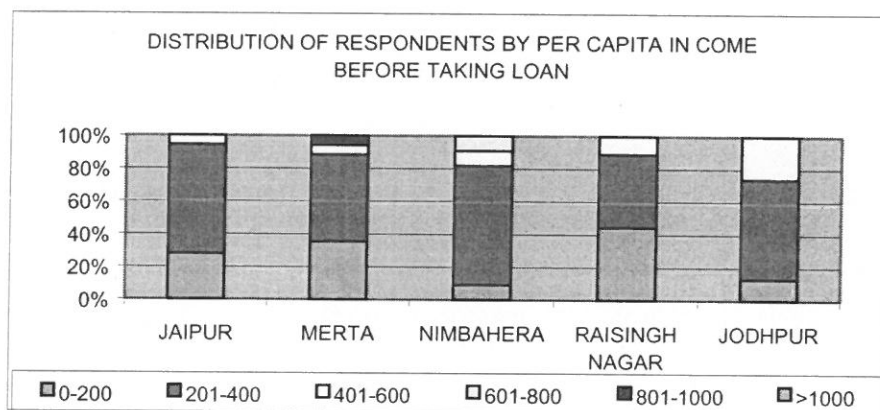
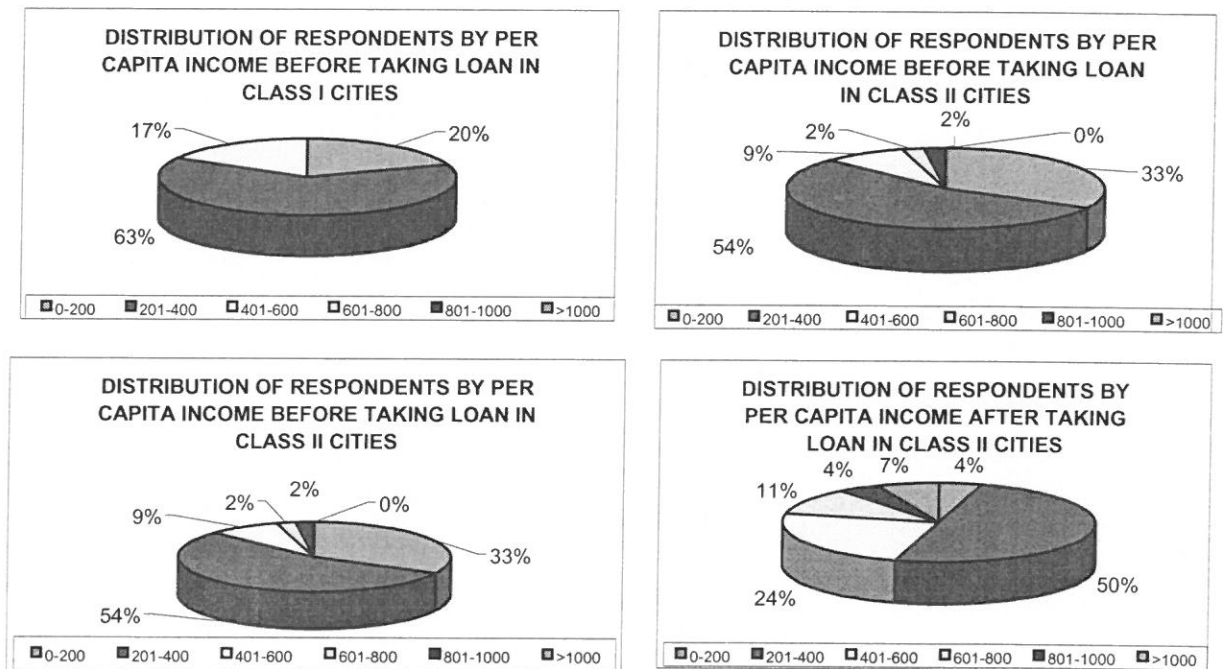


Figure 3.22: Improvement in Per Capita Income with Credit Assistance by City Class



In order to measure the change in incomes of those who had been provided loans under the programme a two level analysis was undertaken. First the per capita income of beneficiaries after the loan was computed and compared with reported income prior to setting up the enterprise. Next an asset and shelter profile of the households was developed based on the nature of shelter, access to basic services and ownership of technological tools. The latter was expected to filter away households who may have deliberately reported BPL incomes. The analysis is presented below.

Average Change in Per Capita Income

There has been a reduction in poverty levels of households provided loans under the programme as gauged from their per capita monthly income before and after financial intermediation.

Per capita income of the sampled population prior to financial intermediation was found to range from less than Rs200 to Rs.1000 per month (Annex 2). Majority of beneficiaries (59%) had incomes between Rs.201 and Rs.400 per capita, 26 percent had incomes less than Rs.200 per capita whereas 15 percent had incomes over Rs.401 per capita (Figure 3.23).

Per capita income before loans was highest in Jodhpur followed by Nimbahera, Jaipur, Merta and Raisingh Nagar (Figure 3.24). In fact Nimbahera and Merta had been upgraded on the basis of better economic status to a higher size class of towns even though by the population criteria they belonged to the lower size category. No difference in per capita income was noted by size class of cities prior to credit assistance(Figure 3.25).

A shift in income patterns was clearly visible with the percentage of respondents earning less than Rs.200 per capita declining significantly from 26 percent to 3 percent and those between Rs.201 and Rs.400 reducing from 59 percent to 40 percent. On the other hand, families earning better per capita incomes i.e. over Rs.401 per month increased from 15 percent to 57 percent with 6 percent people actually earning over Rs.1001 per capita.

Figure 3.23 Change in Per Capita Incomes of Beneficiaries after Financial Intermediation

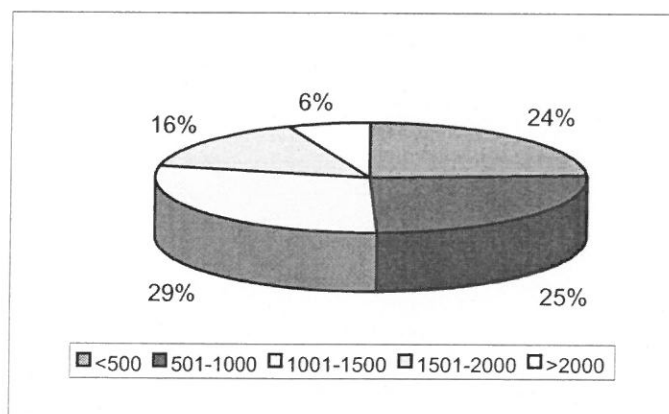


Figure 3.24 Change in Per Capita Incomes of Beneficiaries after Financial Intermediation by City

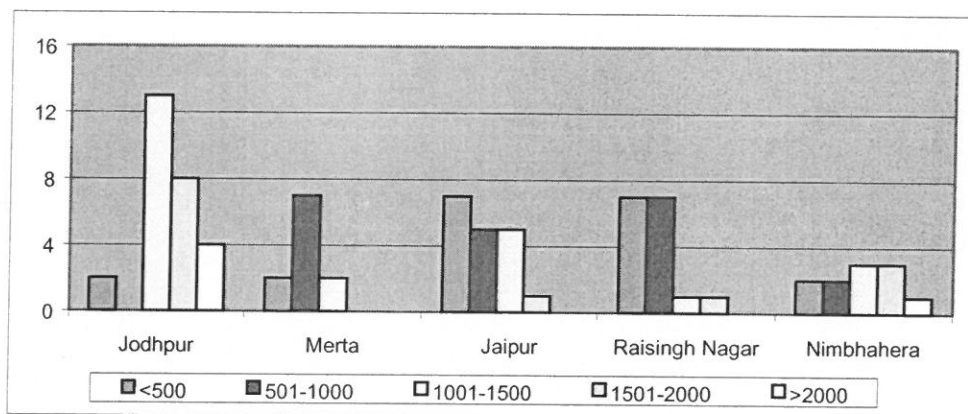
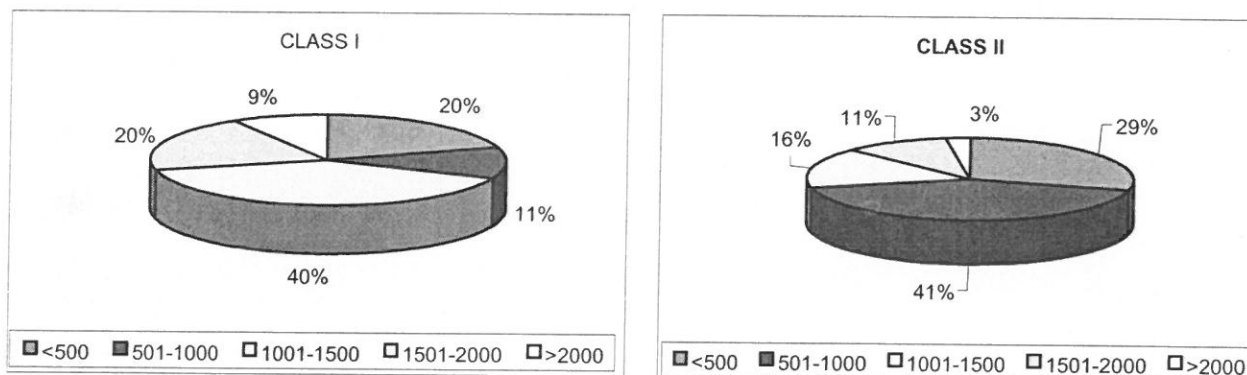


Figure 3.25: Change in Per Capita Incomes of Beneficiaries after Financial Intermediation by City Class



Increases in income happened across board with smaller towns witnessing larger increases in incomes, although they continued to lag behind Class I cities in terms of average household income(Figure 3.26). Poorest among the sample reduced from 20 percent in class I cities to only 2 percent after the loans. In class II cities, poorest category reduced from 33 percent to 4 percent.

Figure 3.26: Changes in Numbers of Respondents Below Poverty Line after Credit Assistance by Cities

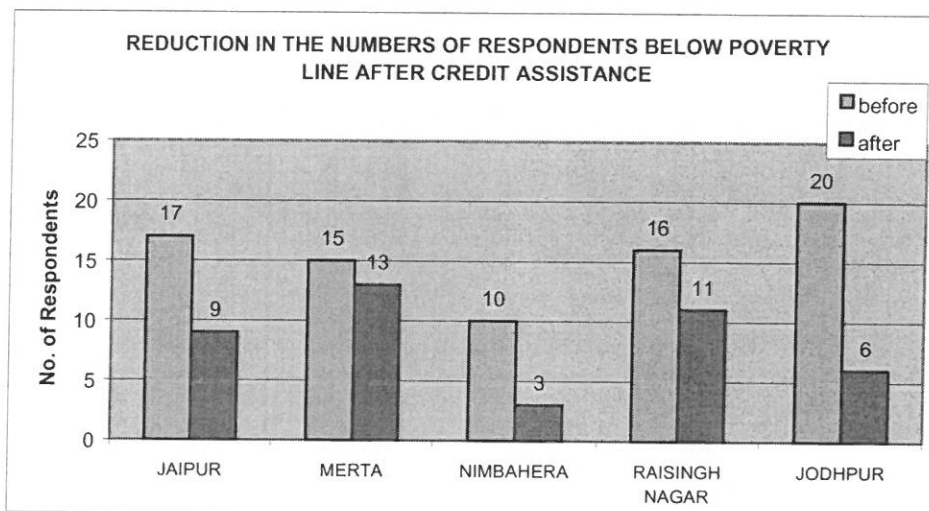
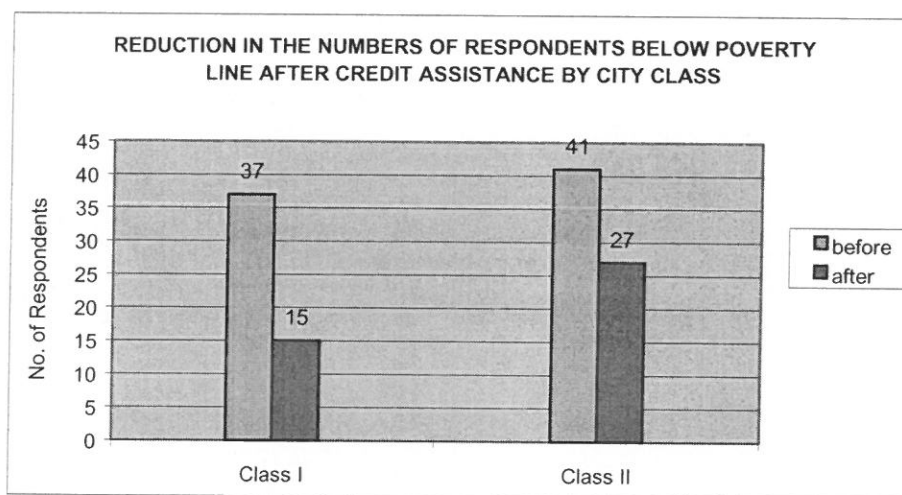


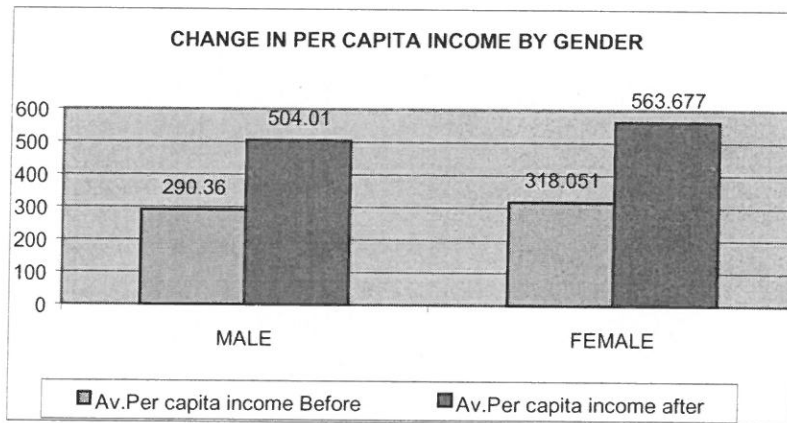
Figure 3.27: Changes in Numbers of Respondents Below Poverty Line after Credit Assistance by City Class



Incomes above Rs.401 per capita were highest in Jodhpur (83%) followed by Nimbahera (71%), Jaipur (50%), Raisingh Nagar (45%) and Merta (24%).

Further, data indicated that incomes of poor households had gone up on an average to Rs.567 per capita per month. Interestingly, women who had been provided loans gained more from financial assistance than men, particularly where previous incomes were over Rs.201.

Figure 3.28: Change in per capita income by Gender

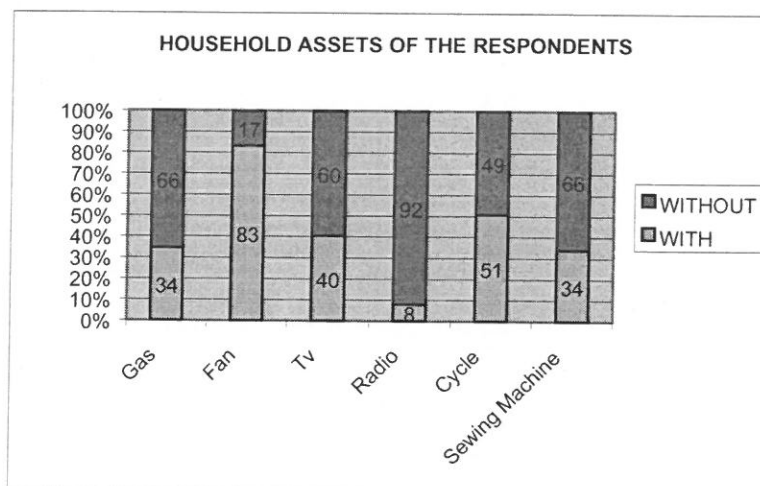


Average increase in male incomes in the first three income categories was Rs.327.60p, Rs.552 and Rs.760 respectively, whereas in the case of women the increase was Rs.282.25p, Rs.608 and Rs.859 respectively in the same categories. Larger the loan amount more was the increase in income.

Asset Profile

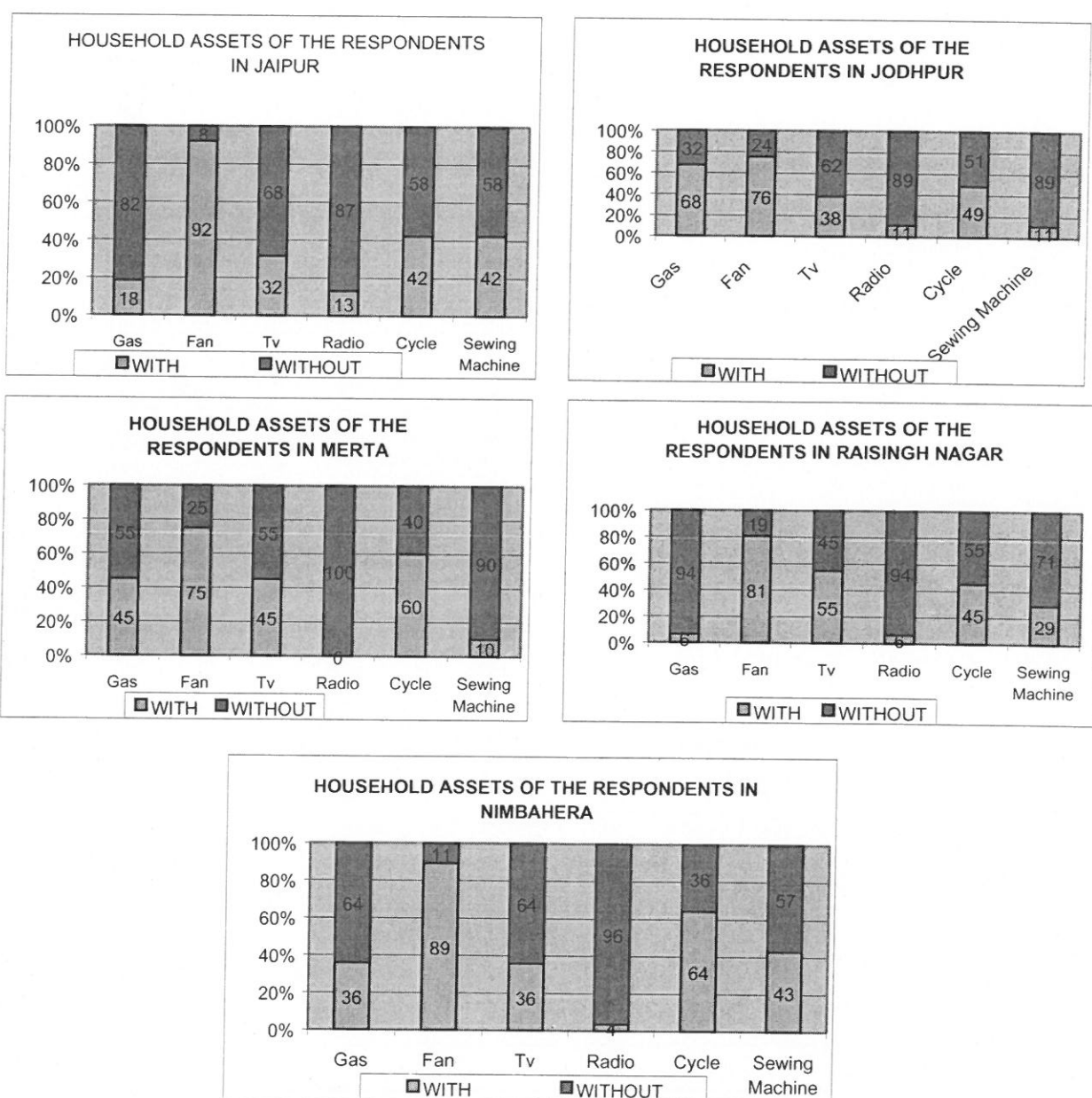
The second measure used for assessing change in poverty levels was the asset and shelter profile.

Figure 3.29: Household Assets of Beneficiaries



At the time of the survey it was noted that 7 percent beneficiary households had no assets at all, indicative of their low socio economic status (Figure 3.28). Over eighty percent households had fans at home, half the people owned cycles, 40 percent owned a television set and an equal number (34%) had gas and sewing machines. Of all the assets, a TV is the most expensive item that a family may own. Surprisingly, Jaipur had the least ownership of television sets and Raisingh Nagar the highest (Figure 3.29).

Figure 3.30: Household Assets of Beneficiaries by Cities



Housing Status

Tenure Status: Housing status of the sampled beneficiaries at the time of the survey indicated that 64 percent lived in their own housing on legal land, 22 percent lived in rental accommodation both on illegal and legal land and 14 percent lived in their own huts, although these were on unauthorised land (Figure 3.31). Legally occupied housing was higher in class II towns and the least in Jaipur where 58 percent of beneficiaries reported living in their own houses albeit without land pattas (Figure 3.32). In all other cities, none of the beneficiaries lived on illegally occupied land. While for smaller cities this situation may hold true, in the case of Jodhpur perhaps data needs to be reviewed. Jodhpur like any other large city is likely to have poor living in slum like settlements without legal tenure. The fact that none of the respondents belonged to such areas is indicative of missed groups under the survey.

Figure 3.31: Tenure Status of Households

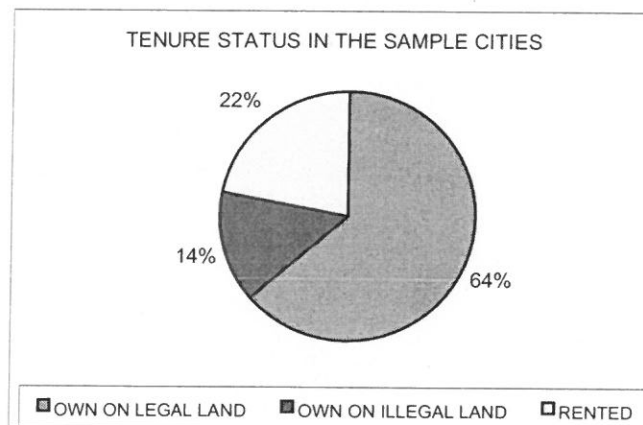
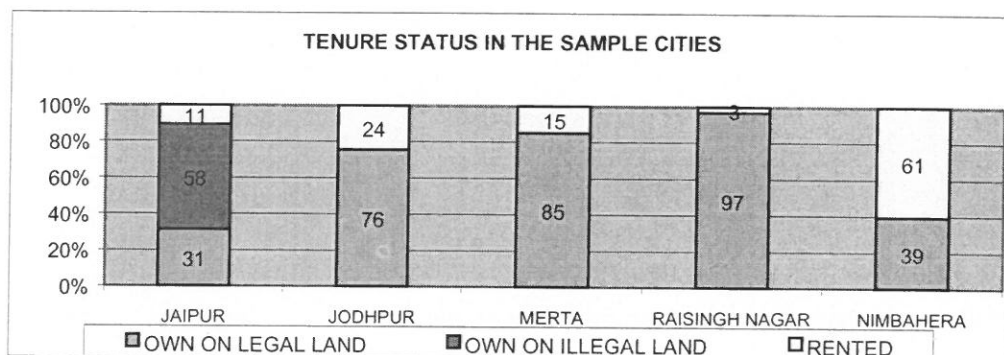


Figure 3.32: Tenure Status of Households by Cities



Possible low enumeration of the BPL households in larger cities may also be because the surveys may not have been conducted in unauthorized settlements, as these generally do not appear in Corporation listings. Large number of households on illegally occupied unauthorized lands or lands owned by the Central Government, railways, industries etc. often comprise the core poor or the most vulnerable who are in need of financial intermediation.

Although non-economic criteria were collected under the SJSRY survey conducted at the outset of the programme in 1998, that data has obviously not been used for identification the poor/vulnerable families.

Nature of Shelter: Only 22 percent of housing had thatched roofing and the rest were either pucca cement roofs or those made with asbestos/ roof tiles (Figure 3.33). Pucca roof is generally an indicator of better economic status as a. cost of putting a pucca roof is generally high, b. people with a reasonable sense of security i.e. ownership of land and little likelihood of being relocated are likely to invest in building pucca roof structures.

Figure 3.33: Nature of Shelter: Condition of Roofs of Houses

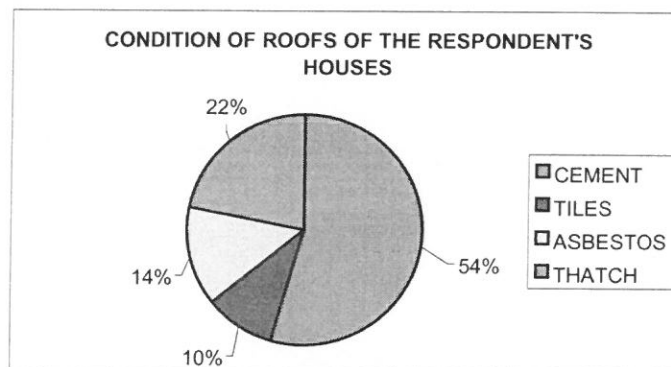
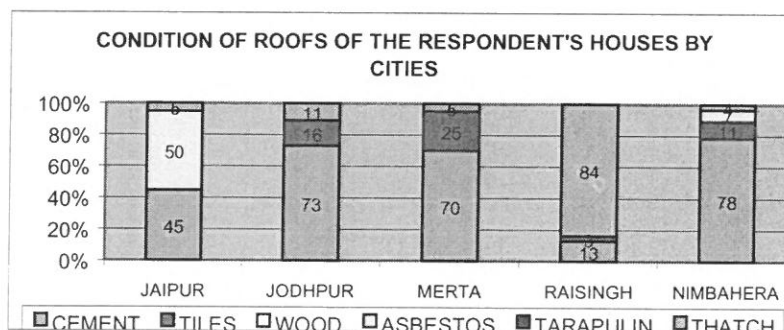


Figure 3.34: Nature of Shelter: Condition of Roofs of Houses by Cities



Raisingh Nagar had most beneficiaries living in thatched roofed houses with earth floors, indicative of their low economic status (Figure 3.34). In contrast, all other cities had higher percentage of poor who seemed to have invested in securing their houses with better construction material. Better-constructed housing among the beneficiaries suggests that while people targeted under the programme were possibly income poor as per their reported incomes, they were not necessarily vulnerable due to poor quality of housing.

Figure 3.35: Nature of Shelter: Condition of Flooring of Houses

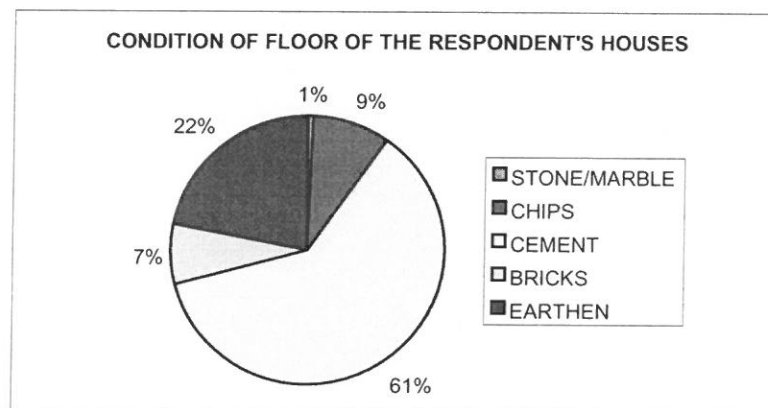
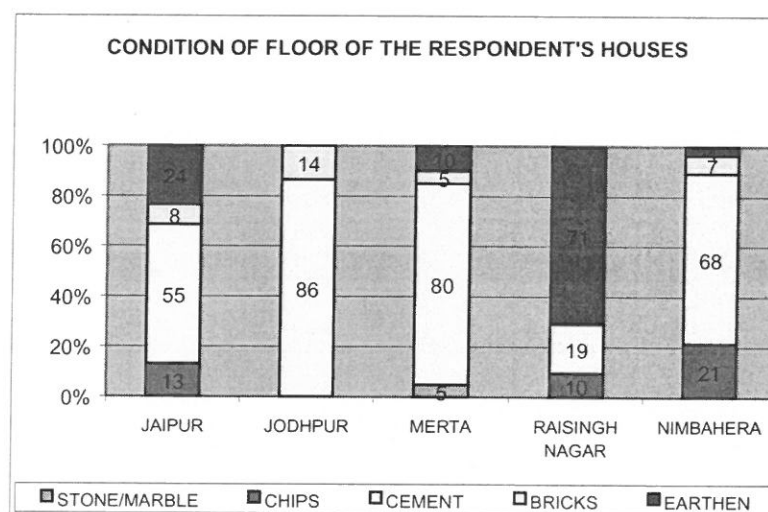


Figure 3.36: Nature of Shelter: Condition of Flooring of Houses by Cities



Floor conditions of houses indicated that almost 71 percent houses had pucca flooring made from marble, chips or cement (Figure 3.35). The other 29 percent had floors made from bricks or were plastered with mud. Raisingh Nagar had the most houses with earthen floors followed by Jaipur, whereas Jodhpur had none(Figure 3.36).

Investment in housing is deemed to be a good proxy indicator for determining the effectiveness of targeting under the programme. Since housing improvements demand lump sums, these take longer to show up. Since loans had been issued to the poor only recently obviously in a majority of cases, people who may have accessed loans were in effect not from among the core poor families. Credit provided to the people when matched with the year of assistance and nature of housing indicated that over 50 percent in all cities had pucca housing except in the case of Raisingh Nagar where over 80 percent loanees were living in kucha housing. Over half of those who had been provided credit in the same year when data was collected lived were also found to be living in pucca structures suggesting that their reported below poverty incomes may not have been very accurate.

Availability of Basic Services

Nature of basic services generally improves with income and people begin to depend less on community resources and invest in private taps/toilets etc. Half the beneficiaries had individual water supply either as a piped connection or hand pump. The rest of the families relied on community stand posts/community pumps, generally located at a distance of 500 meters from the house.

Figure 3.37: Availability of Water Supply

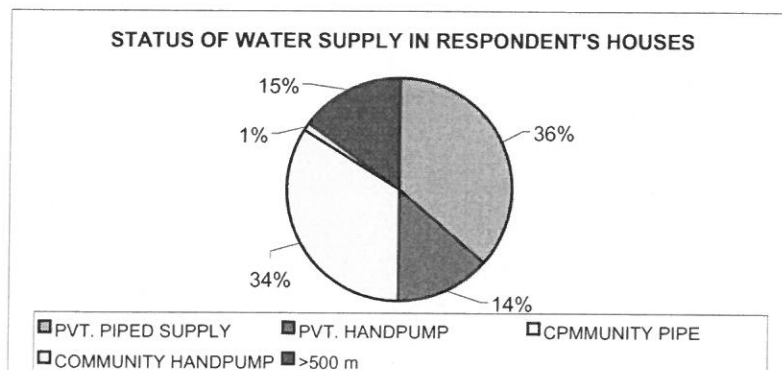
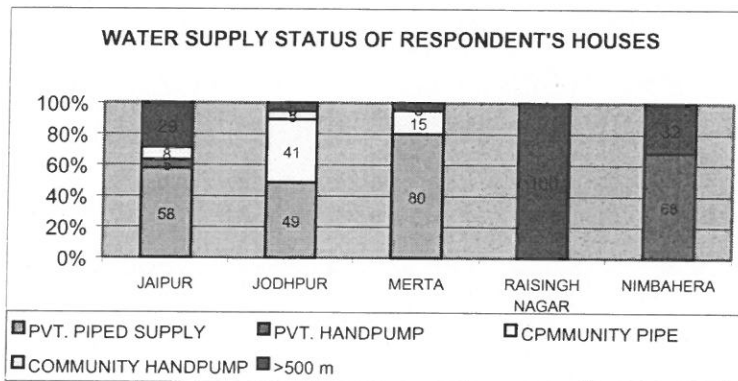


Figure 3.38: Availability of Water Supply by Cities



As expected, in Raisingh Nagar all beneficiaries depended on community taps that were located outside their homes with maximum incidence of private/piped water supply being in Merta, Nimbaheera followed by Jaipur and Jodhpur(Figure 3.38).

Figure 3.39: Nature of Shelter: Availability of Toilets

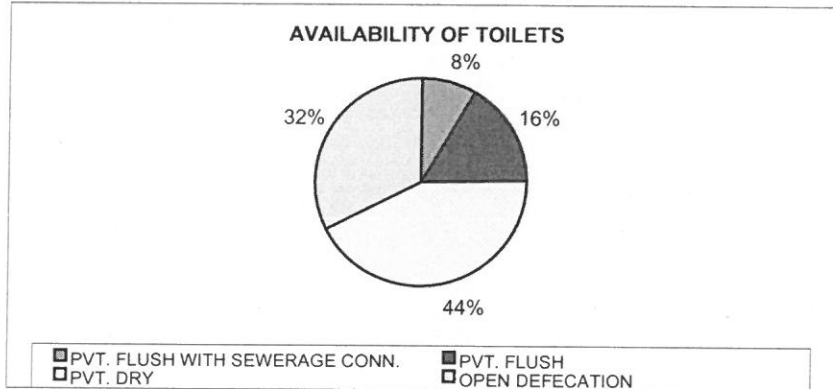
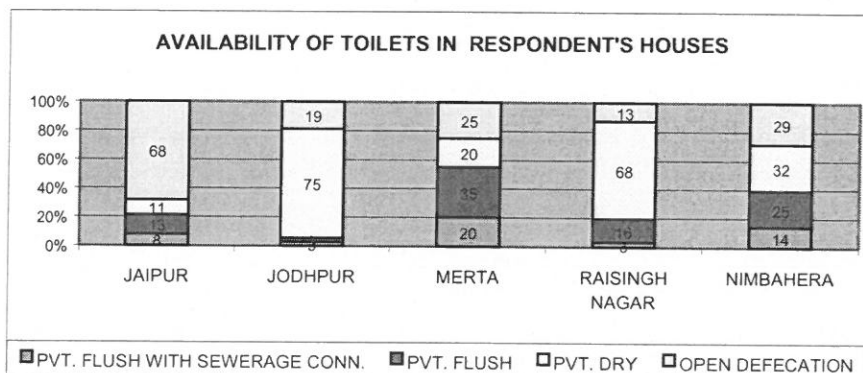


Figure 3.40: Nature of Shelter: Availability of Toilets by Cities

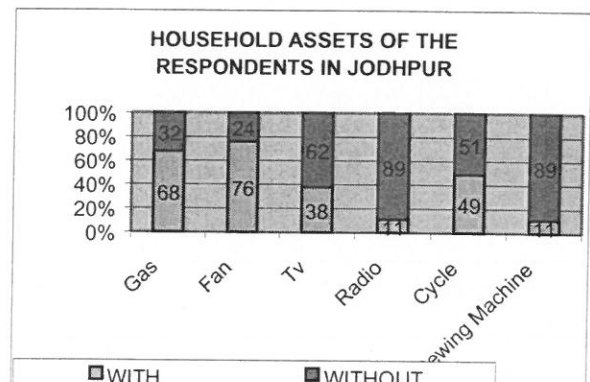
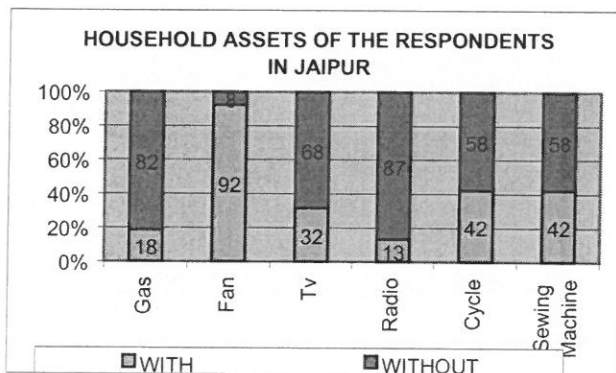
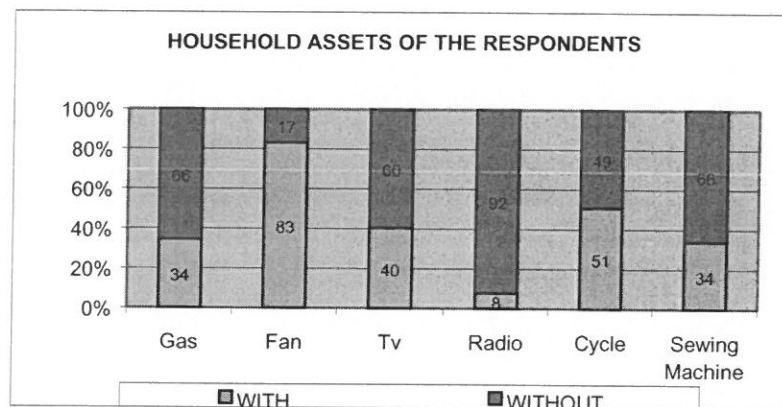


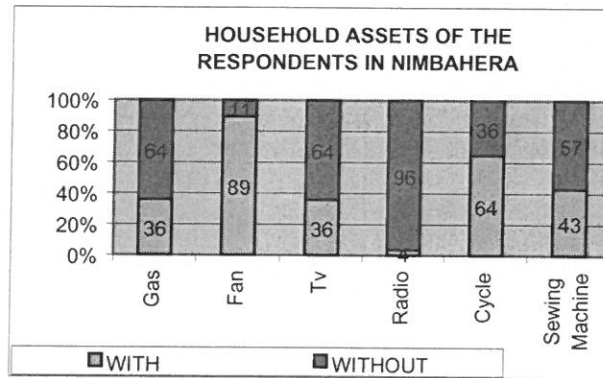
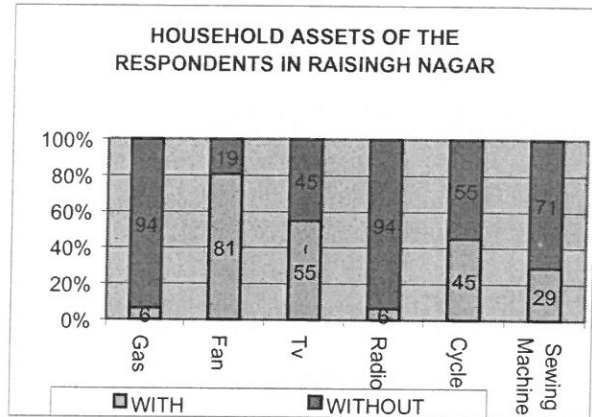
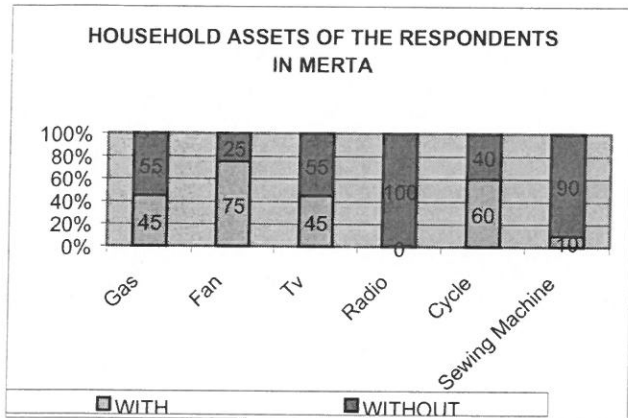
Only one third of beneficiaries were without access to any toilet services and resorted to open defecation (Figure 3.39). Rest of the families had their own toilets, either with sewerage connections, as pour flush with pits or dry latrines. Although incidence of dry latrines was high (44%), the fact that people had created space inside their homes to address this very important need, suggested that people had the income to respond to such a need.

Incidence of open defecation was highest in the city of Jaipur where space in over crowded slums is a major constraint to building one's own private toilet. In the other cities, Raisingh Nagar, surprisingly had the least incidence of open defecation even though the nature of their housing was largely kuccha (Figure 3.40).

The shelter-asset data for each city was pooled together to get a wider view of the poor who have been granted loans under the programme. A look at the emerging picture indicates that of all five cities loanees in Jodhpur had the best asset profile followed by Merta, Nimbahera, Jaipur and Raisingh Nagar (Figure 3.41).

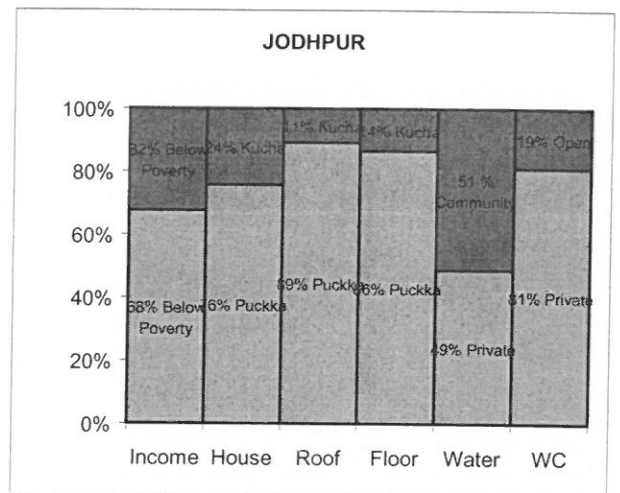
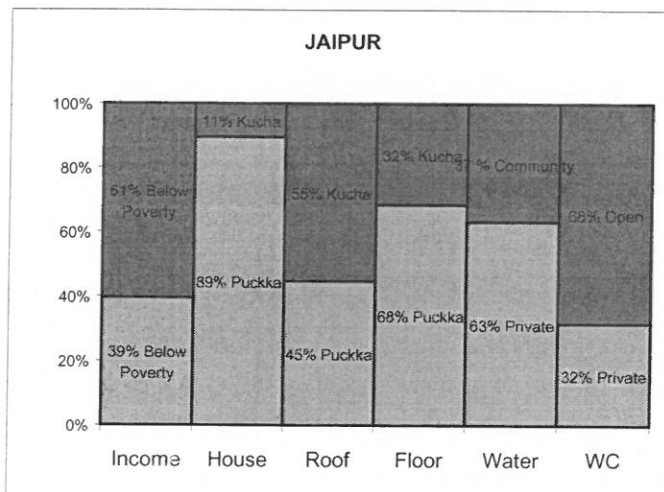
Figure 3.41: Asset Profile by Cities

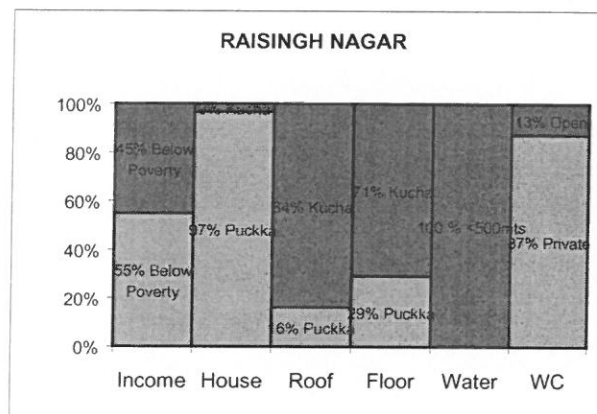
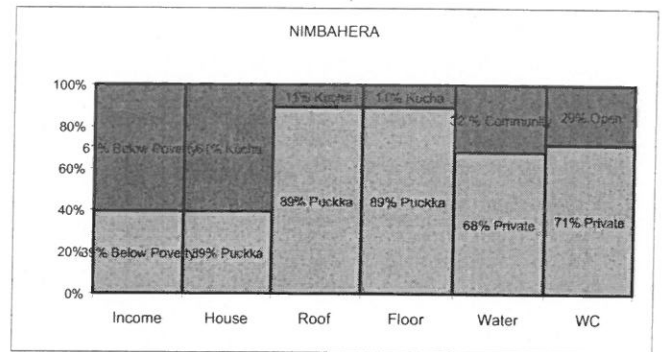
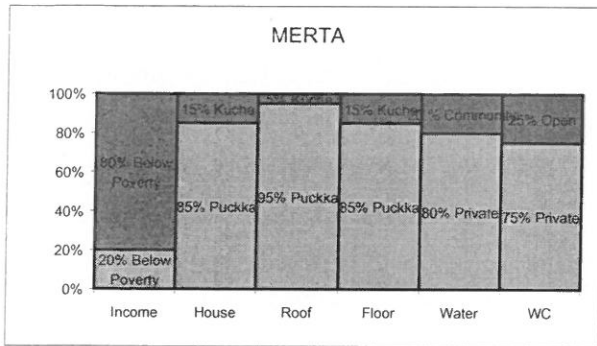




Incidence of better housing with individual toilets and water supply and household assets being extremely high among the loanees implies that possibly targeting has not been as accurate as appears from the income data, and when based on people's own reported incomes.

Fig 3.42: Asset Profile by Income





It was decided to compare the asset and shelter profile of other beneficiaries under the programme, i.e. those who were part of the CDS groups and thrift and credit societies but had not applied for / granted loans with the loanees. The second set of graphs suggests that non-loaneees too belong to better off households (Figure 3.42). In the case of Merta while all hundred percent reported BPL incomes, almost all had pucca housing with individual basic services. Nimbahera too had high percentage of BPL families and an equally high percentage of families with better housing and other individual facilities. Jodhpur on the other hand showed non loanees to be largely below the poverty line but with good shelter and physical services. People in Jaipur and Raisingh Nagar on the other hand were the worst off, although in the latter, self owned housing on legal land was a hundred percent.

Identification of Vulnerable Groups under the Programme

Observations of the research team indicated that there appeared several households within the slum settlements, particularly in the larger cities, that were visibly poor, had poor quality housing and would clearly have benefited from financial intermediation, but appeared to have been missed

in the BPL listing. Reason for their being left out could be that they had recently moved into the settlement whereas the BPL survey had been undertaken almost four years ago and not updated since. Official comments about the authenticity of the survey were that when the survey was done the poor households in all probability had inflated their incomes under the impression that the survey was aimed at granting of land tenure. Officials on the other hand had deliberately suppressed the reason for doing the survey, so as to prevent upper income families from slipping through.

Survey as an instrument for estimating the family income is dependent on family's estimation of their income. It does not take into consideration factors of irregular employment, seasonal employment, lack of economic safety nets, borrowings and savings, dependents in the family etc. that determine the real disposable income that a family may earn. Had participatory tools such as household mapping or wealth ranking been used, estimation of number of poor and accuracy in terms of the real poor being included in the listing may have been better. Community based selection process done at a neighbourhood level, as in Kerala, is also seen to be more effective in appropriate targeting. In the absence of any NHGs in the cities, such a process of identification of the poor has failed to take off.

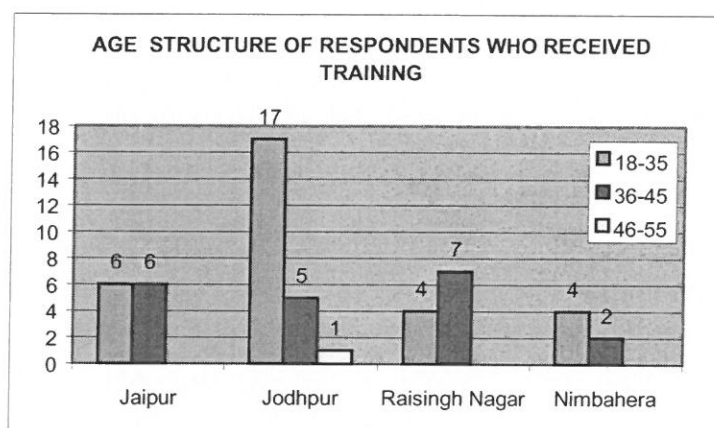
Training for Self-Entrepreneurship

The second main component of SJSRY relates to building capabilities of the poor for self-entrepreneurship. Of the respondents in the sample, 54, all women, had been provided skill training for a range of income generation activities. Data from the sample is analysed here.

Only women had been provided training under the programme. However, in some instances while women in the same family had been trained, it was the man who had been provided the loan. Of the 28 households where women had been trained and provided loans, only in 32 percent cases both the trainee and the loanee was the woman. The other 68 percent women underwent the capacity building exercise whereas the man applied for and was sanctioned the loan. Since the objective of SJSRY is to reduce household poverty, such respondents, even though different

persons, were treated as single unit under the category of those who had received both training and loan.

Figure 3.43: Age wise Distribution of Respondents who received training by Cities



Majority of trainees were in the age range of 18 and 35 years, largely from Jodhpur city. In case of Raisingh Nagar, older women between 36 and 45 years had been provided training. Jaipur city had an equal number of younger and older trainees (Figure 3.43).

Effectiveness of Training

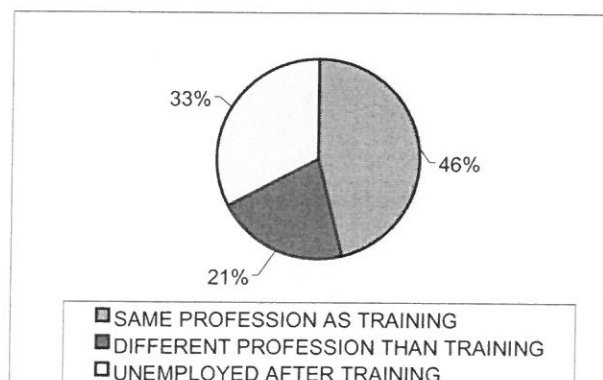
Of those imparted training, less than half (46%) were engaged in the same profession in which the training had been provided, 33 percent had switched to an alternate profession, with 21 percent still unemployed at the time of the study, suggesting poor utilisation of capacity building efforts (Figure 3.44).

Raisingh Nagar had the maximum number of trainees unemployed after training followed by Nimbahera and Jaipur. While Jodhpur had the least attrition rate, Merta had not organised even a single training programme (Figure 3.44).

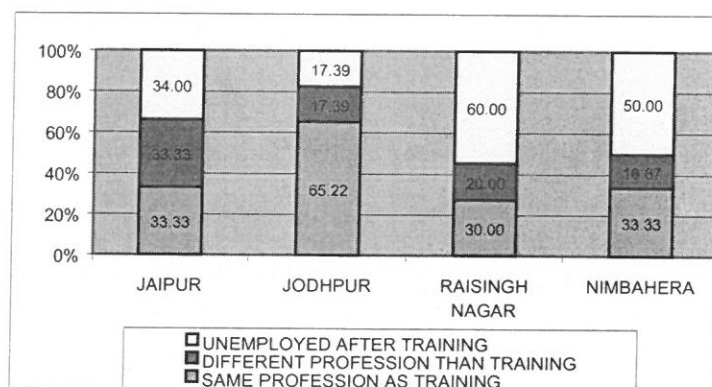
More people in class II towns such as Raisingh Nagar and Nimbahera were unemployed after training in comparison to those in class I cities. In Jaipur, more number of trainees had switched to an alternate profession whereas Jodhpur had the highest retention rate. Large cities generally offer a much wider range of income generating activities, and in the absence of any loans to those who had been trained the tendency to move into other trades was common. On the other hand the fact that Jodhpur managed to sustain those who had been trained in the profession of their training, suggests a more careful selection of the activity by the ULB.

Reason for switching professions or remaining out of employment was partly because the trainees had not been provided credit for setting up the enterprise. Other reasons for this could be the inadequate level of skill imparted to improve employability of the poor are lack of sufficient capacity to set up personal micro enterprises. Low-income generation potential of the trade selected such as a beauty parlour in a small city like Raisingh Nagar were other factors responsible for training ineffectiveness. In some cases, women had used training as a route to accessing credit for themale family member and personally remained unemployed.

Figure 3.44: Impact of Training on Employment Status



Impact of Training on Employment Status by Cities



Training Agencies

Jodhpur had six NGOs that were responsible for providing skills training (Table 3.8). In the absence of any NGOs in the city, no one had received IGA training in Merta. At Nimbahera 30 persons were trained in 2000 with the assistance of an NGO commissioned from Chittorgarh; 15 in making handicrafts and 15 in making readymade garments. At Raisingh nagar, 75 persons were trained under SJSRY in 1999 and 2001 with the help of an NGO from Sri Ganganagar. Trades included leatherwork, beauty craft and embroidery.

Table 3.8 Training Given In The Five Cities

CITY	CLASS	TRADES	NGOs GIVING TRAINING
Jaipur	I	Nursing Sewing Handicraft	Shradha Mahila Training Centre Tagore Bal Mandir Raj Education and Welfare Society Bahudeshya Women Training Centre
Jodhpur	I	Handicraft Beauty Parlour Hindi typing Embroidery Plastic Bangles Embroidery on Leather Computer Plastic mouldings Readymade garments	Jai Bhim Shikshan Sansthan, Jwahr Shikshan Sansthan Sant Ladaram Shikshan Sansthan Jodhana Institute of Electronic Research Centre Paryavaran Gramin Vikas Vigyan Sansthan Thar Voluntary Health Society
Raisingh Nagar	II	Beauty Parlour Leather Bags	Divya Jyoti Silai Kadai Sansthan S. R. Silai Kadai Prashikshan Kendra
Nimbahera	II	Handicraft Readymade Garments	Rajya Khadi Gram Udyog Seva Sansthan Sarvodaya Jan Seva Sansthan

No training programme was underway in any of the cities at the time of data collection and hence quality of training imparted could not be assessed.

NGOs interviewed in the study indicated that the amount provided for training was highly inadequate to provide appropriate skills in the selected trades. Even these small funds were not released on time making it difficult for the NGO to provide training. In order to manage in the small budgets, the NGOs usually hired trainers from within the communities on ad hoc basis, such as those who were skilled in embroidery etc. on very low rates. Such trainers lacked adequate skills for effective training.

Since the NGO did not receive timely payment, in turn they did not pay the trainers honorarium for the task. Trainers alleged that even after the NGO had been released its funds, they had not paid the trainers and pocketed the money. In Jodhpur, the community organiser in charge of SJSRY in the city, originally on deputation from the education department and who had opted to continue with the programme, was taking keen interest in identification of appropriate trades and NGOs for building capacities of poor. In Jaipur, one of the NGOs offering training in nursing had also helped women to get employment in nursing homes and hospitals.

However, in most cases training courses were not closely monitored. Due to inadequate monitoring during the actual training, quality controls /checks have not been maintained. Respondents mentioned that in connivance with the project staff and on considerations of speed money, money for training was transferred by ULB to the NGO without actual training taking place.

Because of the difficulties in identification of appropriate NGOs in the cities, the larger cities have decided to link training with self-help group formation. NGOs who being engaged for community mobilisation for thrift and credit activity are also proposed to be given grants for training, ensuring better targeting of the poor by the NGOs.

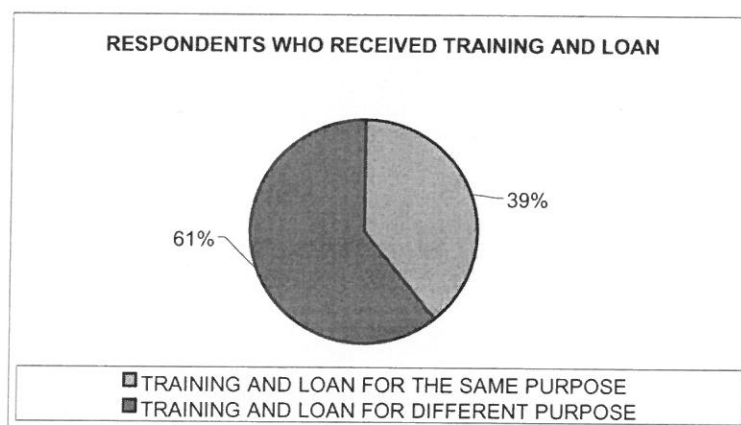
Economic Activities Identified for Training

Training had been provided for garment making, embroidery, beauty culture, nursing, etc. List of skills in which training has been provided is at Table 3.8. Women agreed that they had benefited from the training that had increased their proficiency. However, their marketing potential was confined to their own communities and their products largely absorbed within it (for example tailoring and embroidery) except in Jodhpur where trainees had been linked to the local market.

Linkages with Credit Assistance

Of the respondents who had received both training followed by loans, only 39 percent had been granted loans for the same profession in which they had been trained (Figure 3.45). These beneficiaries belonged to three cities of Jaipur, Jodhpur and Raisingh Nagar. Jaipur followed by Raisingh Nagar and then Jodhpur had high percentages of loanees whose training did not match the trade for which loan had been provided. As in the case of NRY, this suggests that people used training as an income generating activity per se rather than a process of capability improvement for better employment and income. This was largely due to the fact that training was both free and linked to a substantial honorarium.

Figure 3.45: Matching Training and Credit Assistance



Training strategy under the programme by and large is not very well thought out and lacks vision. List of trades in which training is to be imparted is decided by the ULB without consultation with the communities. ULBs also identify NGOs with sufficient expertise in the selected trade to organise the training. In some instances, NGOs have directly approached the local body with proposals to

provide training under specific trades. Trade selection therefore seems to be conditional to the presence of an NGO with skills in the particular area rather than an actual market demand. For example cities like Merta with their huge grain market and Nimbahera with industries such as JK cements have not attempted to explore these economic opportunities that exist in the city.

Urban Wage Employment Programme

Of the three towns with the wage employment programme, only two had undertaken any capital works under the scheme; Raisingh Nagar and Merta. While Raisingh Nagar has been regularly spending money under UWEP, Merta began spending under the component only in 1999. Works executed under UWEP consisted primarily of building pukka roads and laying of drainage lines. Expenditure on wage employment activities by the two ULBs is given in Table 3.9. Of the total funds received by the two local bodies had spent nearly 95 percent on the public works.

Table 3.9 Amount (In Rs.) Spent under UWEP in Raisingh Nagar and Merta City

City		Funds under NRY	97-98	98-99	99-2000	2000-01	2001-02	TOTAL	Total Expenditure in Percent
Raisingh Nagar	Received	639500	70000	239000		25000		973500	
	Spent			312103	179109	222210	187240	900662	92.51
Merta City	Received					50000			
	Spent				240350	240000		480350	96.07

At the time of the visit, no wage employment activity was underway. Besides, the two municipalities did not have the list of poor people who had been engaged under the scheme for executing the building activity nor the number of person days of employment generated, hence it was not possible to track and interview any of the poor who had been employed under UWEP.

Discussions with the ULB staff and programme managers indicated that the process of contracting under UWEP had remained unchanged, with the ULB contracting out work to private contractors without guaranteeing employment for the poor under the civil works. Merta had not received any funds in the year 1999-2000 under UWEP. However, the municipality had used funds from other sources for undertaking physical works under the component.

Wage employment is not seen as a continuous activity and remains linked to the duration of the civil work after which the poor may once again become unemployed. It therefore cannot bring about a sustainable change in the income of the household unless allied with skill training and financial intermediation that changes the nature of employment from wage to entrepreneurship.

Community Structures Under the SJSRY Programme

Community Development Society (CDS)

Implementation of the SJSRY programme is supposed to be done through a process of community organization and creation of community structures as envisaged under the UBSP programme. Community structures begin at the neighbourhood level with a group of about 40 neighbourhood women brought together into neighbourhood groups. Each NHG identifies one RCV or community volunteer to represent their needs. Ten RCVs are federated into a neighbourhood committee with an elected President. Presidents of NHCs are joined at a community (in case of large settlements) or city level into a Community Development Society or CDS. CDS elects a President, Secretary and Treasurer as key leaders ensuring increased visibility of the poor into city plans.

Responsibilities of NHGs, NHCs and CDS include identification of appropriate beneficiaries using non-economic parameters, assessment of community needs and their prioritisation, and development of mini plans that can be integrated into city development plans. They are also expected to mobilise resources for improving community services and serve as pressure groups to improve loan recovery. Community structures are to be facilitated by a Community Organiser backed by capacity building on participatory tools and processes.

Under UBSP, this strategy of community organisation was recognised as a best practice towards addressing needs of urban poor communities.

Community structures built under the programme in Rajasthan in the five cities were examined and are analysed below.

- None of the cities except Jodhpur (NHC=1), had formed NHGs or NHCs. CDS groups were formed using a top down, ULB driven strategy with ward level representation. As a result these groups did not embody the interests of the poor communities.
- Except in Jodhpur, RCVs and CDS Presidents, who were to be chosen through a democratic selection procedure by the poor themselves, were appointed by the ULBs.
- CDS members had not been trained except at a one-day training mela organised in the cities at the inception of the programme and hence were unfamiliar with their roles and responsibilities as also the purpose for which they had been brought together as groups.
- CDS was not being seen as a means of women's empowerment and leadership building nor did it have a representation of the civil society such as the NGOs, experts, resource persons etc.
- None of the CDS groups were registered.
- CDS members met infrequently and had no knowledge of community development plans although they were expected to be developing them through a process of community consultation, except in Jodhpur and Nimbahera. Community Action Plans were generally prepared by the Municipal officials and only endorsed by the CDS president.
- BPL community was largely unfamiliar with the CDS leadership.
- Benefits under the programme were seen to be accruing primarily to the group leaders/members.
- As CDS leaders were not repaying loans, they could hardly be expected to serve as icons or put pressure on other defaulters.

All cities have followed a common, undemocratic procedure for CDS formation suggesting that the concept of community participation is not clearly understood at all levels of programme functionaries. Community structures that have emerged in each of the cities have been described in greater detail here.

Jaipur

CDS formation in Jaipur was top down rather than process oriented. Municipal Corporation officials identified 45 literate women as RCVs from among the BPL population, ensuring that they were dispersed across all city wards. Their leadership abilities to represent community interests and needs was not a criteria used in identification of the women. There were therefore, no NHGs or NHCs in Jaipur.

These 45 RCVs were arbitrarily divided at the city level into two CDS groups. RCVs were therefore unaware of their role in the programme. Although expected to meet more frequently/ on a needs basis, the CDS groups were meeting once a year (last two meetings of CDS were held on 26/12/2000 and 5/12/2001). Only 3 and 6 members of the CDS group attended these meetings respectively. CDS groups in Jaipur seemed to have been formed in response to the programme guidelines rather than for the purpose of community involvement.

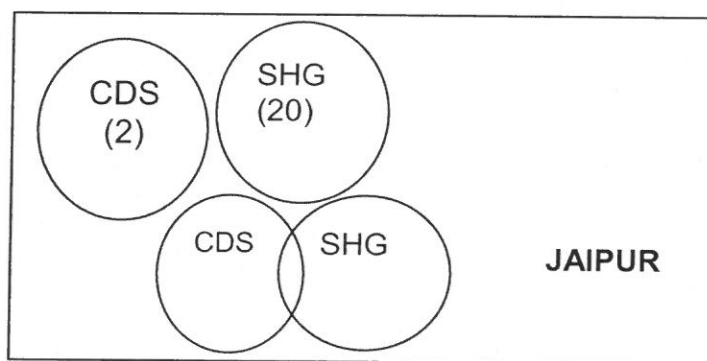
As per the programme guidelines, representation of community organizers, NGOs, sectoral department, leading citizens and other resource persons in the CDS was missing.

Both CDS presidents had applied for and received a loan of Rs.50000 each and both had defaulted repayments. Even one defaulter leads to a negative attitude among bank functionaries delaying all further loan releases. When the defaulter is the CDS President herself, message to other borrowers down the line is obvious.

CDS Presidents according to other poor families in the slum were charging Rs.50 for endorsing loan applications. CDS presidents in return indicated that this money was being passed on to programme functionaries.

CDS is expected to be the voice of the people in city annual Action Plans for provision of basic services/community improvement. In Jaipur, this did not seem to be happening. Officer concerned provided to the investigators a list of development works to be carried out. Despite that no work was visible on the ground when the investigators visited the slum sites and the CDS President had no knowledge of physical works undertaken in their areas by the Municipal Department.

Figure 3.46: Community Structures in Jaipur



Jodhpur

As in Jaipur the process of CDS formation was driven by the Jodhpur Municipal Corporation in 1999, except that the officials brought together all poor living in a ward/identified under the survey at a meeting to choose their RCV. 60 RCVs were selected in the city, one from each ward. Selected RCVs were divided into 3 CDS groups.

Jodhpur was thus the only city where the poor in each ward had selected the RCVs. Even though more democratic than other cities, Jodhpur lacked neighbourhood groups, except for one Neighbourhood Committee (NHC) in the city in Maha Mandir area (Figure 3.47).

CDS groups in Jodhpur were a mix of communities, castes, and religious groups. However, they were not representative of the social structure that existed in each of the communities, because of their weak foundation.

Research Study Series

Number 99

II

**Swarna Jayanti Shahri Rozgaar Yojna
in Rajasthan
An Impact Assessment**

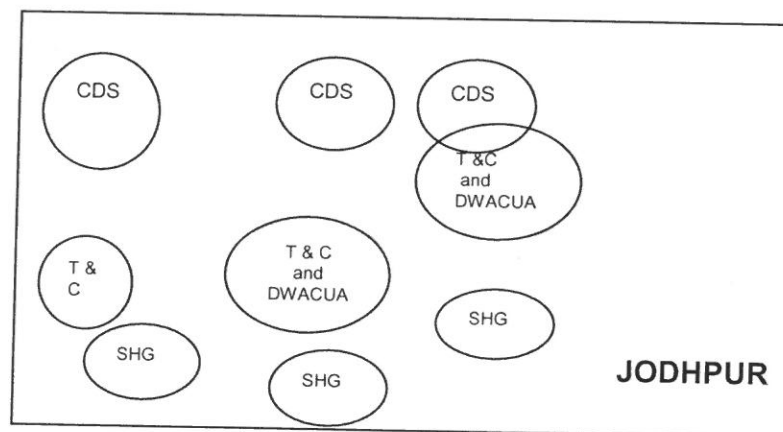
**National Institute of Urban Affairs
Core 4B, First Floor, India Habitat Centre, Lodhi Road
New Delhi**

This report can be downloaded at www.niua.org

Of the five cities visited, Jodhpur CDSs appeared to be the most active and were supporting poor households to fill in loan applications, and bank officials to recover loans. They visited BPL homes regularly till the payment was received. CDS also assisted in the organization of Health Camps and Jan Chetna Shivars. Ten Jan Chetna Shivars had been organized in the city covering about 500-800 BPL families.

Here too, the CDS met just about twice a year, although the CDS President visited the municipality every week to discuss issues like community infrastructure, income generation activities, training, loans, etc. Last two CDS meetings were held on 5/7/2000 and 12/3/2001. At the CDS meetings slips are handed out to the members and each writes a problem or development concern, which is then discussed at the meeting and built into an Action Plan that is formally approved and submitted to the municipal officials. The CDS also recommended BPL households for IGA loans. A review of the actual minutes of the meeting however indicated that the CDS was more an official meeting of the SJSRY that took stock of the city problems rather than the neighbourhood issues.

Figure 3.47: Community Structures in Jodhpur



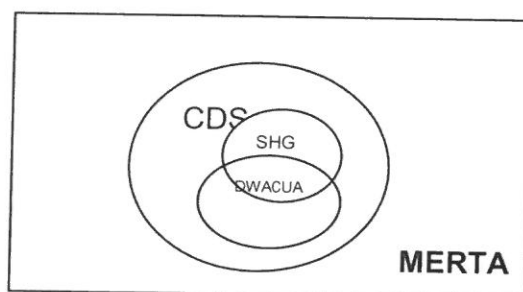
Merta

CDS in Merta had 28 members selected by the Municipal Council from among the BPL families with ward level representation. CDS members were selected at ward level meetings of BPL households and anyone who volunteered to become a CDS member was chosen (Figure 3.48).

CDS in Merta is not registered and lacks NHG or NHC linkages. CDS met once in 6 months and that too when called by the CO. The last two meetings were held on 27 August 2001 and 1 February 2001.

CDS in Merta is not just inactive, poor households are not even aware of its existence. The CDS President has no knowledge about her responsibilities other than her role in endorsing loan applications. On her own she had never recommended anyone for grant of loan. While her signature was mandatory on the Community Action Plans, the Municipal Council prepared these without consulting the poor or her.

Figure 3.48: Community Structures in Merta



Nimbahera

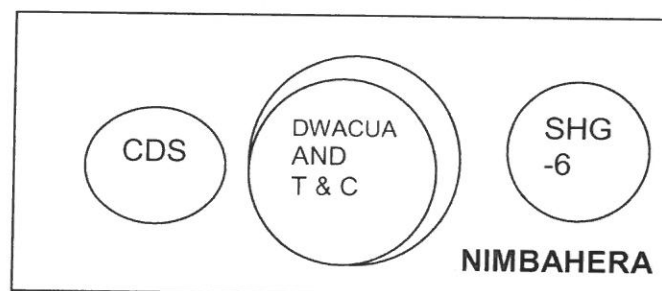
CDS in Nimbahera was formed in 1998 when officials of the local body contacted the selected BPL community. Only women from these households were invited to the meeting for RCV selection from each ward. Following the prescribed procedure by the LSG, an RCV each was selected arbitrarily from each of the wards. Of the 30 RCVs thus chosen, 12 were elected to the CDS. RCVs received a one-day training under SJSRY at the programme launch by the District Project Office, Chittaurgarh that focused on formation of community structures and need for self-employment.

CDS in Nimbahera too was not backed by NHGs or NHCs (Figure 3.49). CDS president was recognised by only those people who had received loans or training or those who wished to apply for credit or training, as it was mandatory to get their loan and training applications forwarded through her. Apart from these people, BPL community was unfamiliar with the CDS leadership.

CDS at Nimbahera too was not registered. It met only when needed with the last meeting in July 2000, and largely at the behest of the CO. All members, the CO and the Executive Officer of the Nagar Palika had attended the last meeting nearly two years ago and discussed problems with regard to loan release and proposed development works. Some proposals made at the meeting had been included in the community development plan and were followed up by action such as road construction and building of a community centre (barat ghar) in Kucchi basti. However, the CDS president had no knowledge about the specific community requests included into the action plans or physical works executed under the programme. On the other hand municipal officials contested that while the proposals were included, they couldn't be implemented due to lack of funds.

On its own CDS has not facilitated any work in the community, neither for physical development nor to mobilise communities. CDS members are unaware of their important role in this program. At present the CDS President's role is confined to a. signing loan application forms, which she does without even knowing who the person is, and b. going to meet the CO as and when he summons her and the CDS members for a meeting which in any case is most irregular. Other members of the CDS had even smaller roles to play and little contribution in the SJSRY programme implementation.

Figure 3.49: Community Structures in Nimbahera



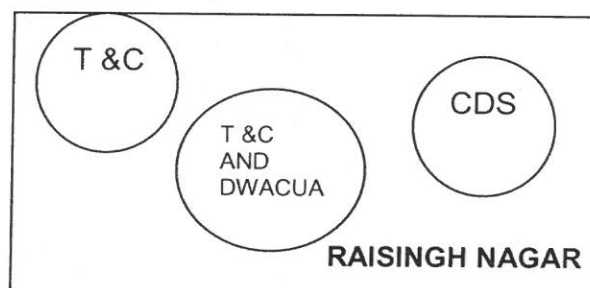
Raisingh Nagar

CDS at Raisinghnagar is small with only 7 members, elected by the poor households in the city. However, the CDS president does not belong to the BPL category and is inactive and disinterested

to participate in any meetings. Although the CO is aware of the fact that the President comes from an upper income family, there have been no replacements (Figure 3.50).

CDS in this town forwards loan applications, discusses problems of under serviced settlements or kuchi bastis and monitors the training centres. It meets once every 6 months and had last met in October 2001 in the presence of the CO and the EO. A range of issues was discussed at that meeting relating to loan releases, training, self-help group formation, DWACUA formation, organisation of a health and public awareness camp and suggestions made at the meeting were integrated into the city level action plan. Some roads and drains have been built under the programme as an outcome of these decisions.

Figure 3.50: Community Structures in Raisingh Nagar

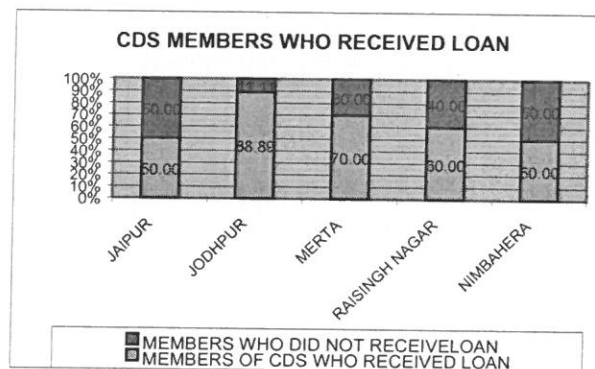
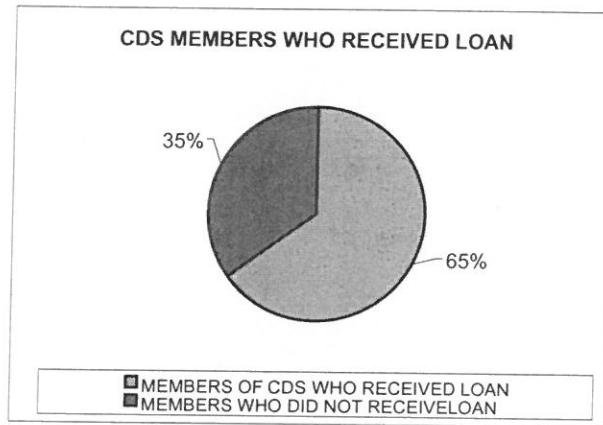


Empowerment of CDS

Community mobilisation strategy under the programme is expected to empower communities, particularly women, to identify, prioritise and address their own needs. It seeks to inform the poor of their rights and to enable them to negotiate with local officials, using CDS as a platform, to obtain basic services for an improved quality of life.

Membership of CDS had however only vested its members, particularly the President, with additional powers that related to loan sanctioning. In Jaipur there were indications that members were abusing these powers and demanding speed money to forward applications, corrupting the system. Since non listed BPL families had not been included in the sample, it was not possible to assess the extent of dissatisfaction with the CDS groups

Figure 3.51: CDS Members Who Received Loan.



However an examination of the data on number of CDS members who had availed of loans indicated that nearly 64 percent CDS members had been sanctioned loans. Across cities, the percentage ranged from nearly 90 percent in Jodhpur to 50 percent in Jaipur and Nimbahera. About 32 percent of members from the thrift and credit groups had also applied for and received loans (Figure 3.51).

Clearly the benefits of the programme were accruing to a small segment of key actors from the communities. Of the rest who had not availed of credit assistance many were women whose economic status was clearly above the poverty line and who were disinclined to take a loan.

UBSP: Efforts Lost

Although Jaipur was a UBSP city and had a reasonable amount of success in community mobilization, no institutional memory of UBSP structures appears to have been retained in the city and all UBSP structures had all but disappeared. Reason for this may be due to the fact that the entire team of project functionaries had changed, in particular the redeployment of surplus revenue/octroi staff for a social development programme, had further erased any public memory of UBSP in the city.

In contrast, Jodhpur, which was also a UBSP city, has done better than the other cities in building community structures. Although no UBSP institutional structures were noted in Jodhpur as well, the stability of the community development staff, even though most were from the revenue department, had been responsible for more effective implementation. Jodhpur also had the advantage of having a Community Organiser who had originally belonged to the education department, with greater sensitivity to social issues. His presence had made a significant difference to the process of community mobilisation and participation.

Disintegration of community structures that had been nurtured under UBSP over several years due to change in the overall programme strategy, rapid up scaling of the programme across the country without being backed by capacity building efforts are important reasons for the nature of community participation under the programme. Such changes in programmes lead to tremendous wastage of resources and talent pool that had been generated under UBSP.

Thrift and Credit Societies

All thrift and credit societies in Rajasthan begin as Self-help groups (SHGs), a group of ten women who begin saving Rs.50 per month for a year. After a year they become eligible to receive a revolving fund from the government @ Rs.1000 per person subject to a ceiling of Rs.25000. Once an SHG receives the matching grant, it is referred to as a Thrift and Credit Society.

Thrift and credit societies in the five cities of Rajasthan were examined and are analysed below:

- While some SHGs formed in the State were provided money under the revolving fund, not all were given matching funds even though some, as in Jaipur, had been functioning for over two years.
- Inability of the ULBs to provide matching resources to the SHGs has led to some groups disintegrating, particularly in Jaipur. Instructions have now been issued by the LSG to the ULBs on eligibility criteria for release of matching grants to T&C groups.
- Lack of sustainability of these groups suggests that these were lured to come together so that they could receive ULB funds and not mobilised on a need's basis, to save and borrow for small family emergencies.
- Although SHG members came from the listed BPL households, in reality they were non-poor and hence did not feel the need to save through such a savings group.
- Groups in small towns, unlike the bigger cities have had the flexibility to decide on the amount they wished to save based on their saving capacity. However, not all groups had matured to the stage of providing credit to members for addressing personal emergencies.
- The practice of converting SHG groups into T&C groups and then into DWACUA groups as in Nimbahera has meant limited outreach and possibility of double accounting.

T&C activity in the five sampled cities is described below.

Jaipur

Oldest SHG group in Jaipur was formed in 1998 with 17 members depositing Rs50 per person per month. The group was functional for one whole year without any outside support. At the end of the mandatory one-year when the anticipated revolving fund from the ULB did not materialise, six of its members stopped contributing to the savings group. The SHG could not be converted into a T&C under the SJSRY. Currently its remaining 11 members deposit Rs100 per month in the hope of receiving the government grant. As even after 2 years and 4 months of group formation no funds had been released to them, the group appeared to be on the verge of breaking apart. Since the SHG had been saving together for over two years it could have easily sustained itself. However,

since its motivation to save had come from the lure of receiving financial assistance from the government and the fact that there was no perceived need to form an SHG among the group members, the SHG was seen to flounder.

None of the SHG members had received any training. Other 19 SHGs in Jaipur too had not received any matching funds.

Jodhpur

Formation of Self Help Groups (SHG) in Jodhpur began in August 2000 and the city has 14 SHGs, of which 3 have been elevated to Thrift and Credit (T&C) groups, having received the revolving fund of Rs.1000 per member. In order to mobilise groups, BPL families were informed that regular savings for a year and credit assistance to members during that period would make the group eligible to receive government funds. T&C members save Rs.50 per month, a sum that was decided upon by the group members themselves. All T&C groups in Jodhpur were issuing loans to its members at an interest rate of 2% for income generation activities/ emergencies. Group members also decided upon the repayment amount and duration of loan.

Merta City

Merta had just one SHG with 12 members, overlapping with the CDS. The group was formed in September 1999. Each member deposited Rs.30 per month and the group had saved Rs.5112. Although the group had built sufficient capital it had not loaned money to its members so far and hence was not a fully mature T&C group. Member of T&C were spread across the city and found it difficult to meet regularly. They had a bank account with three signatories.

Nimbahera

Nimbahera too had just one thrift and credit group with 13 members that had been in existence for over two years. Each member saved Rs.50 per month and no lending was taking place from the kitty. The group had two signatories, the President and the treasurer. Although they had a bank account, no individual passbooks were maintained by the members.

The group had been provided a matching grant of Rs.13000 at Rs.1000 per member. After receiving the grant, group members who had not been withdrawing funds from their own savings began to borrow money. The group had taken a decision that money will be lent only for income generation activities and that this money was to be returned within a fixed time period. Although people were regular in making repayments, there had been few instances of default due to personal emergencies. No rules had yet been framed in the group to address the issue of default. Members lacked clarity about the rules of running a T&C society.

Even after receiving the money, the group has held together and was motivated to do so by the Nagar Palika officials. The latter also helped them to open their bank account. According to officials, they proposed to upgrade the thrift and credit group into a DWACUA by the year-end, although the group had yet to decide on the nature of activity that DWACUA proposed to undertake with the money.

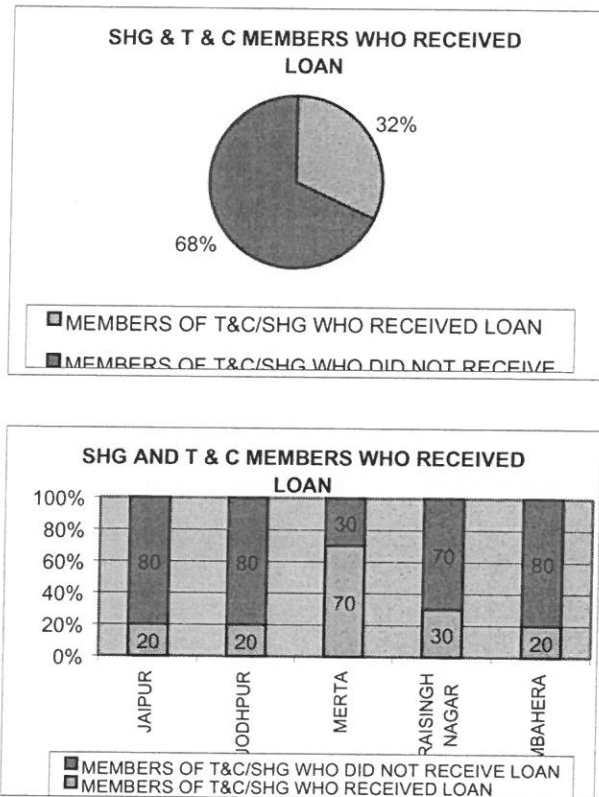
Besides this T&C there were 6 self-help groups in Nimbahera with 63 members who save Rs.50 each. All groups had a bank account and were into lending within the group.

Raisingh Nagar

Raisingh Nagar had two thrift and credit societies with 10 and 13 members respectively mobilised by the Community Organiser and formed in October 2000 and February 2001 respectively. While one group was able to save Rs.100 per month the other saved only Rs.20 per month. These amounts were decided in consultation with all the group members. The groups had received Rs.10000 and Rs.2600 respectively, based on the number of members and amount contributed by each member per month even though they had not initiated the process of providing credit assistance to the members as per the programme guidelines nor had been in existence for the stipulated one-year period. Since the SHG had not initiated internal lending activity, it was not clear as to the reason for providing them the matching funds.

Besides the two T&C groups, there were no self-help groups in the town.

Figure 3.52: SHG and Thrift and Credit members having received loans



One third of all T&C group members had also received loans under USEP.

Development Of Women And Children In The Urban Areas (DWACUA)

State capital Jaipur, the centre for all SJSRY activities in the State, had no DWACUA group. Jodhpur had two and Merta one. Raisingh Nagar had one in the making but was yet to receive any financial assistance.

In most cases T&C or CDS groups had been upgraded into DWACUA groups. One of the DWACUA groups in Jodhpur was currently engaged in embroidery work and had submitted a project report applying for a bank loan to expand their activities, however, the loan was yet to be issued. Even without the loan, the Corporation had assisted them in procuring raw material from

shops and to supply the finished goods back to the shop owners by providing an assurance to the latter.

In Merta, the CDS has been upgraded into a DWACUA group but had yet to select an enterprise and prepare a project report. Interviews with the CDS members indicated that these women were unaware that they had been grouped under DWACUA.

In Raisingh Nagar, where the T&C group with its 10 members was converted into a DWACUA group, too had yet to receive the grant for a dairy project it had proposed.

The State Government had issued guidelines to the ULBs on release of loans to DWACUA groups and had developed a model loan application form that could be adapted by the ULB in case of need and submitted to the banks.

ULB was not seen to provide any marketing support to the DWACUA groups and they were managing their own marketing according to the group members.

Institutions Under SJSRY

Banks

Loans for self-employment are provided through the local banks. Target for providing loans in each district are set by the State Local Bodies Committee (SLBC). The district lead coordinating bank manager further allots the targets to individual ULBs.

In Rajasthan 27 banks are participating in the SJSRY programme. However, banking problems have persisted in the SJSRY programme as in the case of NRY. These relate both to issuing of loans and opening of accounts in banks for SHGs. While some banks are more efficient in loan processing, others create enormous problems for loanees.

Opening SHG Accounts

In Jaipur poor women were reluctant to form an SHG, both because they had not been convinced of its utility and also because in large cities heterogeneity among the poor population led to a lack of trust and confidence in saving with each other. Even after a group has been convinced to come together, and despite circulars from the RBI and the involvement of the local bodies and the LSG as guarantors, banks reluctance to open an SHG bank account was an important reason for their hesitation. Women members of the groups feel more secure if their money is placed with banks rather than held by individuals whose presence in the community may be uncertain.

Banks lack of confidence in opening SHG accounts was due both to the high rate of default as also apathy towards the scheme, even though the study shows a fairly high rate of loan repayment.

Time for Loan Sanction

Procedure of sanctioning loans was seen to be a tedious process taking up to 3 to 4 months and 7-12 trips to the banks according to beneficiaries in Jodhpur, Raisingh Nagra and Nimbahera. Even the ULB officials admitted that it might take up to one year for loans to be released.

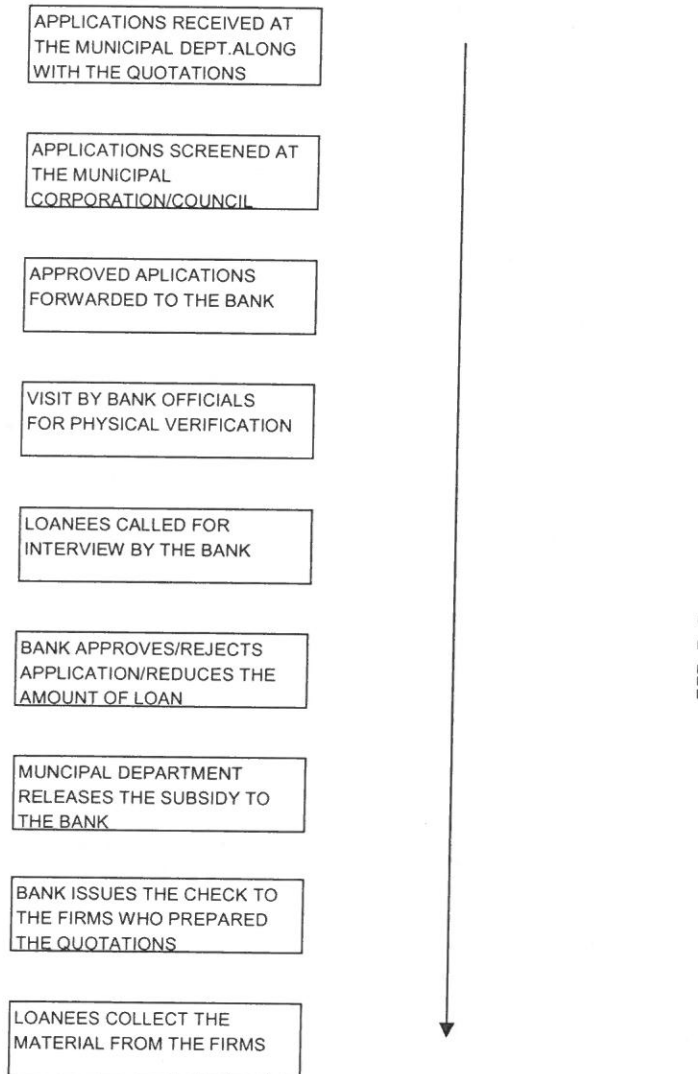
Although bank officials in the city indicated that they helped in filing the applications, instances of bank officials demanding speed money for releasing loans and their lack of cooperation were reported.

Even though the scheme did not recommend provision of guarantee by the beneficiaries, banks tended to ask for collateral, ignoring the RBI directive. Bank officials also found it difficult to release loans as subsidy from Nagar Palikas was generally delayed.

All Bank officials complained about loan defaulting although according to the respondents only about 30 percent people were not paying back their loans. In order to make recoveries defaulters were normally approached jointly by the bank officials, Nagar Nigam officials and CDS members.

Bank officials also felt that the scheme lacked teeth and it was difficult for them to ensure recovery in case repayment stopped. No provision for attachment of assets of defaulters existed under the programme's guidelines making loan recovery a difficult process (Figure 3.53).

Figure 3.53: ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURE FOR THE SANCTION OF LOANS



Administrative Structures under the Municipalities

A clear cut administrative structure exists in the State for programme management. Roles of different officers and staff associated with the programme have been clearly defined. Functionaries are responsible for the implementation and execution of all components of the SJSRY programme and related correspondence, maintenance of records, monitoring and preparation of progress reports, contact coordination and liaison with related stakeholders.

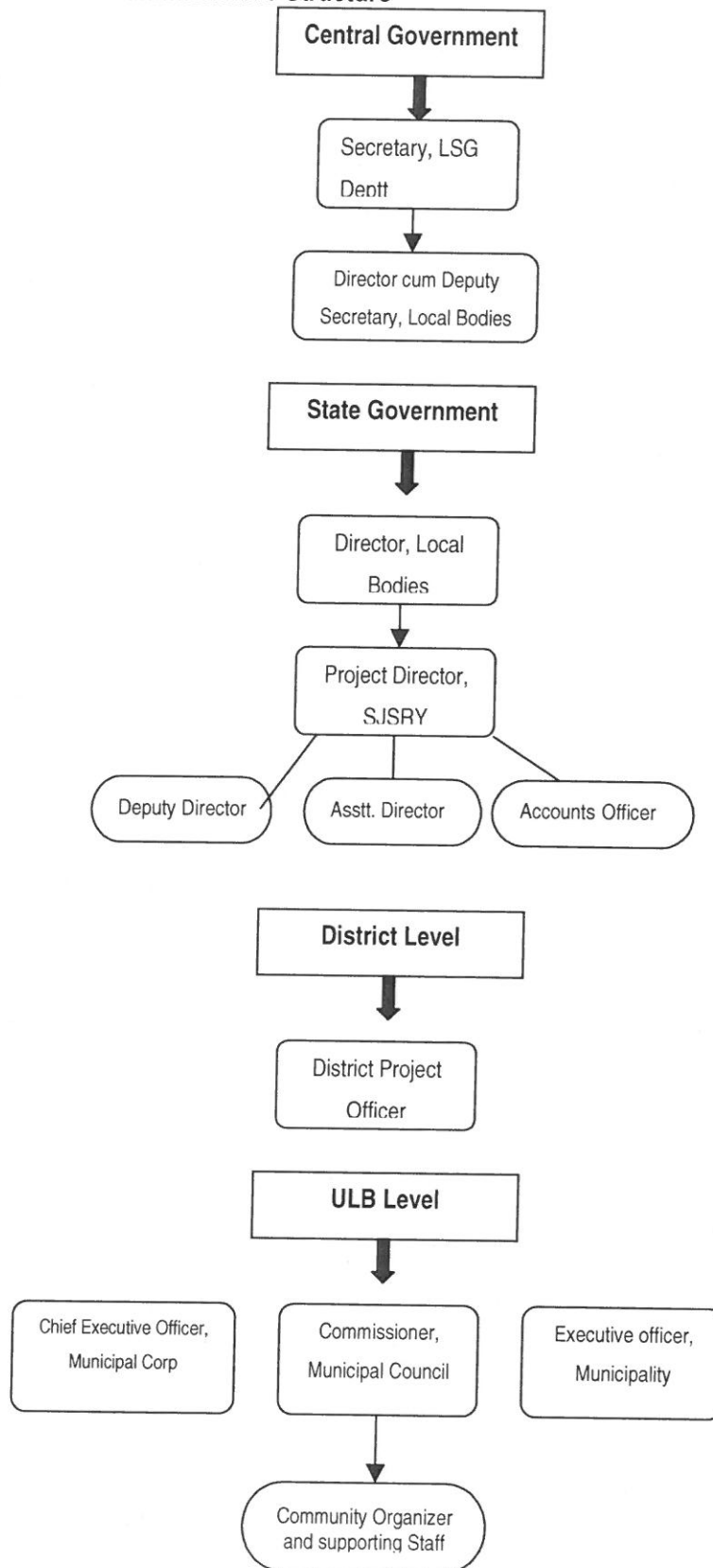
The SJSRY programme is managed by the Secretary, Local Self Government with the support of a Director cum Deputy Secretary, LSG. The Secretary is the chair for a State level High Level Policy Formulation Standing Committee that discharge the function of a State Urban Development Agency (SUDA) in the state.

At the state level, Director Local Bodies, a Project Director, SJSRY are in charge of the Project Cell and assisted by a Deputy Director, an Assistant Director, one Accounts Officer and support staff.

At the District level the programme is managed by a District Project Officer/Project Officer in the bigger districts and a nodal officer nominated by the Department in smaller districts discharging the function of a district officer. At the district level a Poverty Alleviation Coordination Standing Committee has been constituted in each district under the chairpersonship of the respective District Collector and discharges the function of the District Urban Development Agency or DUDA.

At the ULB level, the Chief Executive Officer in the Municipal Corporation, Commissioner in the Municipal Council and Executive Officer in the Municipalities has been designated as Project Officer for the implementation of SJSRY and is assisted by supporting staff and a community organiser. An Urban Poverty Cell is constituted under the Project Officer SJSRY in each ULB that interfaces with the community structures.

Figure 3.54: SJSRY Administrative Structure



In Raisingh Nagar an LDC has been appointed as the Community Organiser for SJSRY. He was appointed in July 2000. He was the only person associated with the scheme who had any prior experience of handling such programmes before as he had also worked under Nehru Rojgar Yojna.

In Jaipur two Statistical Inspectors had been charged with the responsibility of administering the SJSRY. They had been handling the scheme since August 2000 and had no prior experience of handling such programs.

Jodhpur Nigar Nigam handled SJSRY in Jodhpur city. There was a separate department for SJSRY that was managed by the District Project Officer for Jodhpur. DPO was handling the programme for the past two years, and had no previous experience of handling any social development scheme. Project implementation was supported by two project officers, one on deputation from the education department and other redeployed from Revenue Services. One statistical assistant also provided support. Actual project implementation started in Jodhpur in 1999.

Nimbahera has one Community Organiser who is managing the programme since 1998. Prior to this he did not have any experience of managing developmental programmes.

Monitoring of SJSRY

SJSRY and Bank officials in their monthly meetings monitor programme jointly, where problems are debated.

The District Magistrate monitored provision of loans. Banks and the Collector monitored loan repayments. The Collect orate also monitored the training component.

None of the municipalities had computerised their information on BPL households or those that had been sanctioned loans/undergone training. Municipal officials complained of delayed release of

subsidy. Paradoxically municipalities also admitted to having unspent balances under the programme.

No one is monitoring the impact on incomes of the poor.

NGOs Under SJSRY

While none of the smaller cities had NGOs to support the SJSRY initiatives, Class I cities had NGOs assisting the city government in SJSRY implementation, particularly in Jodhpur where the NGOs were actively engaged in formation of Self Help Groups and providing training in a range of occupations.

Jaipur had a network of four NGOs whose major task was to mobilise the poor to come together as self-help groups. They were also responsible for preparing lists of BPL members that should in reality be the task of the people themselves, for training and recommending them to the concerned Department. After the Corporation approved the names, the NGOs were provided funds for conducting the training.

While cities such as Nimbahera and Raisingh Nagar were involving NGOs available at the district level, Merta had made no effort to link itself to any NGO.

Convergence with Sectoral Agencies

SJSRY programme had made no attempt to link up with other social sector agencies and programmes except in the case of Raisingh Nagar where CDS groups were engaged with the Health department for arranging health camps, even though the programme was being managed by the ULB that is also responsible for implementation of health, education, nutrition and basic service delivery programmes in the city.

Linkages between programmes such as NSDP and EIOUS too were not very visible.

Capacity Building of Programme Functionaries

Apart from lack of institutional memory there has been low attention to building capacities of the staff in nurturing communities.

There have been four training programmes and review meetings in the State since the inception of the programme (Annex 1). RCVs have been trained once in a one day orientation programme held in the respective ULBs. Municipalities also organise Jan Chetna Shivars for all BPL households in the cities 2-3 times a year, however attendance in these programs is fairly poor resulting in lack of awareness among the poor. For example in Raisingh Nagar two such shivars organised last year had 45 and 60 participants respectively.

The trainings have been managed either directly or with the support of HCM RIPA the premier institute responsible for training of administrative officers in the State. Training has focussed on programme components for senior officials, district and ULB functionaries and NGOs. It has been primarily in the form of short duration training programmes lasting between 1 and 3 days.

Training of project officers has been managed centrally in either the state capital or district headquarters and is de linked with actual training needs assessment.

Training, where staff under the programme comes from such a diverse background as revenue, becomes even more important if the participatory programme strategy has to succeed. In every city people who are working on the ground are never sent for training sessions organized by Directorate of Local Bodies or any other institution. It's always the senior officers who rush for training just to have a break and never pass the information they receive to the people who really need them.

CHAPTER 4

Summary and Recommendations

An estimated 27 lakh people or 19.85 percent of the total state urban population in Rajasthan lives below the poverty line. The State reported a population of 12.06lakh persons or 16.18 percent people in 25 cities as living in under serviced /slum settlements.

Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojna (SJSRY) began in Rajasthan in December 1997 to reduce income-based poverty in all its cities. Its primary objective was to provide credit assistance to the poor for setting up individual enterprises or as DWACUA groups and build their capacities to engage in skilled employment. Targeting of services was to be managed through a process of community organization. In small towns, wage employment for the poor was to be generated through capital works contracted to community based associations. The process of community organization was to be facilitated through Community Organisers especially trained for the purpose through a network of state/city training institutions. CDS groups organised as Thrift and Credit groups were entitled to matching grants against savings.

The present study was conducted with the primary objective of assessing the impact of the programme on poverty alleviation in Rajasthan.

Data was gathered from Jaipur and Jodhpur among the Class I towns and Merta, Nimbahera and Raisingh Nagar among the Class II towns. Towns were selected from a list of cities drawn up by the Directorate, Local Bodies, Rajasthan and was based on presence of CDS, DWACUA and T&C structures present /created in the city. From among the selected cities, those where groups had been provided financial assistance were selected.

Major Findings and Recommendations

Estimates of urban poor

Incidence of urban poverty in the State of Rajasthan as per official estimates has declined although its estimates vary from 26.78 lakhs (Planning Commission) to 12.06 lakhs (Census of India survey of 25 cities). In the five cities selected for the study the number of poor was estimated as 56,360 in the five sampled cities which is 2.43 percent of the Planning Commission estimates. Incidence of slum based poverty generally being more visible in large towns, the comparison of the three databases suggests huge inaccuracy in estimation of and targeting under SJSRY.

Three data sets of people living in squatter settlements of Jaipur; Census 2001 (3.5lakhs), UBSP MIS report of 1997 (3.33lakhs) and SJSRY-BPL survey (25330 persons or 7.22% of city slum population) further confirms that the latter may have miscalculated the number of poor.

Recommendations

Estimates of urban poverty need to be revisited by the State using a more sensitive set of indicators that can assess vulnerability. Poverty line is not an efficient targeting instrument and needs to be seen in tandem with socio economic parameters in the study for reaching the poorest beneficiaries. State Urban Poverty line may be used for identification of poor only in case of small towns. In case of corporation areas, separate poverty lines may be set by the State in consultation with the Planning Commission.

SJSRY achievements at the State and in Sampled Cities

State achievements under the programme have been low, both for outreach and credit assistance. More males have received loans under the programme while more females have been provided skill training. Outreach in the sampled cities was only about 8 percent of the identified BPL in the city and just about 0.2 percent of the estimated city slum population.

Community structures (CDS) formed under the programme are largely at a city level without the basic building blocks (NHG and NHC) and have overlapping membership.

Achievements against proposed targets for training have ranged from hundred percent in Jodhpur to nil in Merta. In case of credit assistance, realization of targets has been less than desirable in all cities except for Jodhpur in the year 2000-2001. There is however a declining trend in target achievement in the three years of project implementation across all cities. With just about 9 percent of the identified BPL households reached under the programme universal outreach may take two Plan periods. Recounting the poor using vulnerability criteria and migration/internal city growth can only enhance the overall state target. Despite targets being set too low and without any rational basis, there is under achievement.

At present target setting appears to be based on ULB capacity to undertake community building activities which is insufficient even as per norms of the programme (1 CO for every 2000 households), rather than on numbers to be covered.

Recommendations

The State needs to set a time frame within which it will achieve universal coverage. This plan should be based on a more accurate assessment of the number of poor in each city. LSG would need to work in partnership with civil society groups and other agencies in the State to identify those below the poverty line. LSG may like to examine data with other departments/NGO groups working in low-income settlements to arrive at more realistic estimates. Partnership with well-reputed civil society agencies can help to reduce incidence of inaccurate targeting and inclusion of non-poor beneficiaries in the BPL lists.

Survey data may be updated as it is over four years since the survey was first undertaken and those provided loans under the programme de-listed. Before de-listing though there would be a need to make a household vulnerability assessment.

Municipal capacities, both in terms of staff and their skill in working with urban poor settlements needs to be enhanced.

Profile of Beneficiaries Provided Loans

More loans were disbursed in larger cities and more men received loans in smaller cities. SC/ST beneficiaries preferred to borrow under the more attractive lending scheme of the State Government with higher subsidy. Incidence of proxy loans by women on behalf of male family members was noted in one fifth of cases, particularly in small towns. Women on an average had received larger loans when compared with men. Most beneficiaries belonged between the ages of 18 and 45 years. One fourth of all loan beneficiaries had studied beyond matriculation, largely men from smaller towns, and were ineligible for receiving credit under the scheme.

Recommendations

Erroneous targeting for loans is a primary reason for fund leakage under the programme. Income based targeting must therefore be replaced by vulnerability based targeting and be the responsibility of neighbourhood groups. NHGs need to be strengthened to perform their roles in appropriate identification of beneficiaries using wealth-ranking techniques since CDS groups formed at a city level are hardly able to perform this function. Municipal functionaries need training on use of socio-economic parameters in selection of beneficiaries. Greater transparency loan sanctioning procedures is necessary which can only be possible when the neighbourhood community is involved in the process of selection.

Even while redeploying /rationalising excess staff from other projects, staff qualifications must be non-negotiable. In the case of Rajasthan surplus octroi staff has been sourced under the programme and were inappropriately qualified to work with poor

communities. Besides, they had also not been provided any training to equip them to handle the activities more sensitively.

Nature of Credit Assistance and Repayment

Financial intermediation in smaller towns is smaller because of low cost of enterprise. Most loans have been for setting up shops; general merchant, tea-stalls, welding, woodcutting, barber, gem cutting, tailoring, etc. the latter predictably more popular with female borrowers. Loan amounts have varied from Rs5000 to over Rs40000 with majority between Rs10000 and Rs.20000. An RBI circular has capped loan amount according to enterprise de linking it from individual need. Loan is provided both for capital costs and recurring expenses. Incidence of beneficiaries having applied for and received two loans was reported.

Majority of people were repaying loans regularly yet bank confidence vis-à-vis loan recovery remained low, reducing the efficiency of the loan release system already stressed by the delayed release of subsidy from the local office. Class II towns had greater share of people who were either defaulters or paid back irregularly. Average repayment rate per month per individual was Rs.557. Beneficiaries provided skill training had not initiated any income generating activity as they had been de-linked from the credit mechanism.

Recommendations

State/cities may develop a Management Information System to keep track of loans provided. Quarterly meetings with Bank Officials to share data about loan recovery need to be organised.

Targeting

Accuracy of targeting BPL families for credit assistance was high at nearly 88.5 percent. However, income estimates being based on reported incomes rather than socio-economic surveys are questionable when seen in tandem with household asset and housing profile. Majority of loanees lived in their own housing on legal land, largely pucca in nature with individual water supply and

personal toilets, and owned fans, cycles, television sets, gas stoves and sewing machines. Better house construction in cities suggests higher level of incomes than that reported as such housing improvements demand money in lump sums and security of tenure. Not sufficient time had elapsed since the loan was issued for families to build up savings and invest in housing.

A comparison of the asset profile of those provided financial intermediation and members of CDS / thrift and credit groups societies who had not applied for / granted loans suggests a higher housing and hence income status. Jaipur city had the lowest housing-asset-infrastructure status.

A significant change in income levels was noted with a drop in families below the poverty line following credit assistance. This change was more pronounced in class I cities, suggesting that poor in smaller cities may need more and different kind of support.

Per capita income before financial intermediation rose from to Rs.567 per month. Smaller towns witnessed larger changes in incomes even though they lagged behind Class I cities in terms of average household income. Both men and women benefited from the loan. Increase in income was dependent upon the size of the loan.

Majority of CDS members had received loans. Benefit of the programme was accruing to a small segment of key actors from the communities. CDS members who had not availed of credit assistance were from above poverty line families and disinclined to take loan.

Recommendations

Credit assistance has a significant impact in improving household incomes. However, under programmes like SJSRY, it is imperative that targeting be carefully managed so that benefits of the programme are not leaked away to upper income households. Socio economic surveys may therefore be undertaken using participatory tools such as wealth ranking by the community members themselves or with the assistance of active NGOs /academic institutions/ urban training institutions such as RIPA in the cities.

Surveys need to be regularly updated to include new migrants to the city.

As economic potential of cities tends to vary by their size class, it is suggested that a separate set of guidelines/norms be evolved for smaller towns in consultation with the poor based on the nature of poverty in these cities.

ULB staff in smaller cities must be trained to identify activities with greater economic potential and establish linkages with bigger cities /rural areas for marketing of products.

Survey data for Jodhpur needs to be reviewed as none of the BPL families were found to be from slum like settlements that are the hallmark of large cities. Since it has been over four years since the survey was first undertaken, it needs to be updated with the help of consultants/professional agencies. Non-economic parameters must be used in conjunction with economic criteria for identification of beneficiaries.

The new surveys must be undertaken in all low-income settlements rather than the whole town including unauthorized settlements, newly emerging settlements on city fringes or occupying central government lands.

Cities need to prepare a strategic plan for universal coverage based on which annual targets and budget allocations may be prepared. This plans need to take into consideration growth rate in the city on the basis of migration, in particular in the larger urban areas.

Overlapping schemes with different rates of subsidy targeting the same set of communities need to be merged into a single window programme to reduce resource wastage and duplication.

Training for Self-Entrepreneurship

Training component has been weak in the State vis-à-vis target, demand and choice of enterprises. Only women, that too in small numbers have been provided training, although in majority of cases loans had been applied for and sanctioned in the name of their male family members. Less than half the trainees continued in the profession in which training had been provided, one third switched to an alternate profession and one fifth were unemployed. While more people in class II towns were unemployed after training more had switched professions in class I cities except in Jodhpur, where sustainability was high due to better trade selection.

Reasons for poor utilisation of capacity building efforts may be due to poor connectivity between training and credit, inadequate level of skill, low-income potential of selected trade, absence of training in management and marketing, inadequate supervision of training agencies and funding limitations/delays. Lack of appropriate agencies in small towns is an added reason for lack of training in these cities. As in case of NRY people have used training as an income generating opportunity due to its substantial honorarium.

Recommendations

State needs to clearly articulate its strategy for capacity building in consultation with the cities and stakeholders to identify a much larger range of enterprises that has employment potential. The strategy must include linkages with rural and big city markets.

Private sector participation in on-the-job training would lead to better capacity and utilization, and needs to be explored. Training potential of small cities may be increased by use of master trainers (attached to the ULB) and local artisans for locally relevant skills.

Capacity of DWACUA groups to provide training may be explored. This may be treated as an enterprise with credit assistance. DWACUA groups may also be developed as marketing units to support marketing linkages as in Kerala with financial assistance.

An MIS needs to be developed under the programme to ensure better targeting and follow up of training/credit assistance and supervision of training agencies. ULB staff capacities need to be enhanced both in terms of manpower and skills for this task.

Urban Wage Employment Programme

Very few works have been undertaken under the wage employment programme. No record of person days /names of poor engaged in the civil works was available. Process of contracting under UWEP remains unchanged from NRY, with work contracted to private contractors without guaranteeing employment for the poor. Merta had not been provided funds under UWEP since 1999.

Wage employment is an intermittent activity with cycles of employment and unemployment and as envisaged in the programme is unable to make a sustainable impact on poverty.

Recommendations

UWEP needs a clear strategy for implementation. A scheme for civil works may be drawn up. Contracts for civil works should be awarded only to DWACUA groups (without the process of tendering) who should engage poor women/men from the community for the task and be supported with credit assistance as in Hyderabad.

ULBs will need to change civil work contracting norms for provision of basic services in under serviced/slum settlements accordingly and ensure greater transparency in contracting procedures to

ensure genuine groups are provided the contracts. Waivers may be granted to DWACUA groups with regard to minimum guarantee/ernest deposit.

Wage employment must be linked with skill training and financial intermediation to ensure that nature of employment changes from wage to entrepreneurship in due course.

Community Development Societies

CDS groups were formed using a top down, ULB driven, selection process with ward level representation. None of the cities, except for one in Jodhpur, had NHGs or NHCs and the city level CDS did not represent interests/needs of poor communities. None of the CDS groups were registered. No training had been imparted to CDS members who were largely unfamiliar with their roles and responsibilities. CDS was not seen as a means of women's empowerment and leadership building. Civil society partners were not engaged with in the process of CDS formation.

CDS Presidentship imbued women with additional powers over loan seekers, which they were found to be abusing.

CDS members met infrequently and had no knowledge of community development plans that were generally prepared by Municipal officials and only endorsed by the CDS president. Benefits under the programme were seen to be accruing primarily to group leaders/members.

CDS leaders were not repaying loans under the SJSRY.

Although Jaipur was a UBSP city and had a reasonable amount of success in community mobilization, no institutional memory of UBSP structures was retained in the city due to complete change in project team. Frequent changes in programmes lead to tremendous wastage of resources and talent pool that is generated. Redeployment of surplus revenue/octroi staff for a social development programme further erased UBSP memory.

While no UBSP institutional structures were noted in Jodhpur stability of community development staff, from education department had brought greater sensitivity to social concerns.

Lack of involvement of the senior officials in community organization and low priority given to development programmes was another reason for the poor success of the programme.

No convergence of sectoral efforts was visible in the cities.

Recommendations

Process of group formation and creating CDS community structures is not clearly understood by SJSRY officials. Officials engaged for organising community activities must have appropriate skills and attitude for working with poor communities. State must appoint community facilitators with appropriate qualifications and ensure that they are trained to manage the process of community building.

CDS groups may be re-formed at the settlement level with NHGs and NHCs clearly defined and not on a wards basis as being done at present. Leadership among women may be nurtured through the NHGs/NHCs. CDS groups may be formed only when the lower tiers are sufficiently strong.

CDS leaders must serve as models for loan repayment so that they can bring pressure upon the others. Defaulting CDS presidents should be removed from the group membership.

Need for leadership in the programme at the city level is evident. Senior officials who are deputed to manage such programmes must have some experience of the developmental sector.

Thrift And Credit Societies

Some SHGs have been formed in the State however, only a few had been provided matching funds leading to disintegration, as they had been lured by the prospect of government financial intermediation. Most women members did not belong to poor households and hence did not feel the need to save through such a savings group.

While groups in small towns had flexibility /choice over saving amount based on saving capacity, larger cities had fixed norms rendering it difficult for the poorest to participate.

None of the T&C groups had provided credit to members for addressing personal emergencies.

T&C, CDS and DWACUA groups overlapped with common membership, reducing further coverage under the programme.

Recommendations

Programme officers need to clearly understand the purpose behind T&C group formation.

Matching grant provision needs to be dispensed with as it leads to unsustainable groups.

Savings groups must be brought together to address small emergency needs and encouraged to give loans to individual members for small group enterprises.

Development Of Women And Children In The Urban Areas (DWACUA)

Only four DWACUA groups were found in the selected cities indicative of a dismal success rate. In most cases T&C or CDS groups had been upgraded into DWACUA groups and not all had started the enterprise/received loans for the project. Reasons for poor performance under DWACUA were:

lack of community confidence in working together, lack of awareness on choice of enterprise and its management, lack of skills in marketing, delay in fund release from the banks.

Recommendations

State needs to identify the bottlenecks with regard to formation of DWACUA groups and assisting groups in coming together and accessing loans. DWACUA groups organised on spatial or common interest networks would be useful as confidence building measures.

Problems with regard to financial institutions need to be sorted out by discussing with banks delay in loan releases.

Banks

Banking problems of NRY have persisted in the SJSRY programme; both vis-à-vis loan issue and opening SHG accounts in spite of reasonably high repayment rate. Bank officials feel that the scheme lacks teeth for loan recovery.

Procedure of sanctioning loans was tedious taking up to 3 to 4 months and 7-12 trips to the banks. Instances of bank officials demanding speed money/collateral for releasing loans were reported.

Delay in release of funds by banks is due to time lag in release of subsidy from Nagar Palika to the bank.

Recommendations

State must take initiative to resolve banking problems to speed up the process of loan releases, particularly for DWACUA groups.

Bank confidence can be enhanced through improved peer pressure for loan recovery. It is imperative therefore that NHG and NHC groups be organised along the lines envisaged under the programme rather than build city level CDS groups.

Capacity of ULB Functionaries

Capacity of ULB functionaries responsible for programme implementation was low both in terms of required staff, staff qualifications (Statistical assistants, LDC and redeployed octroi officials) and training to discharge their roles. Induction into the programme has not been backed by training that is largely managed through state decisions.

Recommendations

State must examine the qualifications of personnel deployed for managing SJSRY. Functionaries without masters in social work/extension should not be made responsible for managing poverty alleviation programmes.

All officials under SJSRY programme must be provided training in community organisation, identification of poor etc. RIPA may be involved in developing the course contents for training of project officers.

Community Organisers must be inducted into the programme using the proposed norm of 1 CO for every 2000 households to ensure more intensive intervention.

Involvement of NGOs

Smaller cities unlike Class I do not have NGOs to support training, SHG formation or employment generation activities under the programme. As a result capacity building activities have suffered in these towns.

Recommendations

State needs to prepare an action plan for NGO participation under the SJSRY programme. In the absence of local NGOs, NGOs from nearby Corporation areas may be assigned the task of working with poor on a sustained basis.

A SWOT analysis study may be undertaken for identification of NGOs followed by a rigorous training and networking process. NGOs must frequently meet with each other to share experiences and develop action plans. ULB cell at the city level must monitor NGO activity.

Monitoring of Programme Implementation

Monitoring is generally done by the ULBs along with Bank officials who meet on a monthly basis to discuss problems. None of the municipalities have computerised the information. The District Magistrate monitors provision of loans while banks monitor loan repayments.

Recommendations

There is a need to computerize the database under SJSRY and to develop a Management Information System to keep track of loans and make impact assessments.

Annexure I

SJSRY - ULBs wise Information of Selected Items

Proposed Impact Study	Class	Thrift & Credit Groups		Urban Self Employment Prg.		Information of DWACUA Groups			
		No. of T&C Groups	No. of T&C grp. Providing matching grants	No. of Beneficiaries		No. of DWACUA formed	No. of Neighbour hood groups	No. of person trained by training institutes	
				Male	Female			Male	Female
1. Distt. Ajmer									
Ajmer	13 (41)	11 (114)	40	45	14.22	25			105
Beowar	17 (77)		27	8	3.07				
Kishangarh	13 (48)		40	16	10.36	12			100
Kekri	32 (30)		24	12	6.93	1		4	11
Pushkar	31 (10)		11	2	3.17				
Sarvar	31 (15)		26	9	2.42				
Vijaynagar	31 (15)		13	3	2.62	10	10		2
2. Distt. Alwar									
Alwar	14 (48)	2 (21)	47	25	9.7	2	72		118
Cherli	3		9	13	3.61		15		
Raigarh	32 (25)		10	20	3.69		15		35
	34 (57)		26	8	4		38		
Tiwara	41 (10)		21	5	2.86				
Behroar	42 (22)		34	6	5.77		20		17
3. Distt. Barmer									
Barmer	1								
Valotera	2								
4. Distt. Banswara									
Banswara	22 (20)		57	18	14.23		29		
Kushalgarh	31 (10)		10	2	2.35		10		
5. Distt. Bikaner									
Bikaner	11 (13)		87	21	25.24		203		
Deshnok	41 (15)		27	7	7.45		145		
Nokha	43 (33)	1	55	8	10.54		43		15

Proposed Impact Study	Class	Thrift & Credit Groups		Urban Self Employment Prg.		Information of DWACUA Groups				
		No. of T&C Groups	No. of T&C grp. Providing matching grants	No. of Beneficiaries	Amount given in loans	No. of DWACUA formed	No. of Neighbour hood groups	No. of person trained by training institutes	Male	Female
6. Distt. Bhiilwara	Bhilwara	15 (51)	22	41						
	Shahpura	32 (20)			14	14.87	136	8	2	
	Ganganagar	45 (50)			6	4.15	18			
	Jahajpur	42 (20)	3		26	5.02	21			
	Asind	45 (50)	10		19	4.15	22			
	Gulabpura	43 (30)			34	9.45	23			
					23	5.93	11			
					27	7.4	10			
7. Distt. Bharatpur	Bharatpur									
	Bayana	3			99	6.99	262	15	105	
	Deeng	3			18	2.38	50			
	Kama	3			11	2.52	26			
	Nandvai	3			3	0.55	18		25	
	Vair	4			24	3.28	35		19	
	Kumher	4					21			
	Bhusawar	4					16			
	Nagar	4			4	0.5	20			
						3	0.54	26		
8. Distt. Bora	Bora									
	Anta				22	5.01	127	15	30	
	Chawara				4	0.62	30		30	
	Mangrol	2 (25)			11	0.82	40		30	
					17	3.02	27		20	15
Distt. Bundi	Bundi	21 (15)								
	Lakheri	31 (15)			20	3.88	162			
	Keshevrai Patan	32 (22)	1 (11)		24	5.1	35		30	
	Nenwa	4			32	3.55	20		15	
	Kapren	41 (14)	1 (11)		18	3.5	29		30	
	Indergarh	41 (10)			32	3.55	20		30	
					16	3.4	13			

Proposed Impact Study	Class	Thrift & Credit Groups		Urban Self Employment Prg.		Information of DWACUA Groups			
		No. of T&C Groups	No. of T&C grp. Providing matching grants	No. of Beneficiaries	Amount given in loans	No. of DWACUA formed	No. of Neighbour hood groups	No. of person trained by training institutes	
				Male	Female			Male	Female
10. Distt. Chittorgarh									
Chittorgarh	2 3 (30)			56	42	31.97	35		30
Pratapgarh	2	2		24		6.25	25		30
Nimbahera	3 4 (51)	1 (13)		78	29	28.46	25		31
Choti Sadthi	4	1		12		1.8			
Badi Sadthi	4	1		12		1.8			
Kapasan	4	2		38		11.59			
Beng	4	2		8	2	4.04	12		
Ravatbhata		1		2	3	2.5			
Distt. Churu									
Churu	1 5 (75)			40	8	15.05	778		22
Ratangarh	2 1 (10)			25		8.5	99		
Sujangarh	2 1 (11)			72	13	19.12	104		
Sardarshehr	2 1 (10)			27	2	6.65	167		
Shridagargarh	3 1 (10)			45	13	11.19			
Chapar	4 1 (12)			15	2	3.07	na		
Bidasar	4			19	2	3.98			
Ratannagar	4 1 (10)			13	3	2.57	22		
Taranagar	4			18	4	6.96	19		
Rajaldeser	4 1 (10)			18		0.8	71		
							38		
12. Distt. Dungrupur									
Dungrupur	2	1		43	28	na			
Sagwara	4	1		24	26	na	16		
13. Distt. Gholpur									
Gholpur	4 (40)			78	5	8.06	108		59
Badi	2(35)			75	7	13.89	46		35
Rajkhera	3 (42)			51	1	11.14	25		20
14. Distt. Dausa									
Dausa	2 (20)			47	27	9.94		17	13
Bandikui	1 (15)		42	10	11	1.49	75		15
Lalsoat	2 (30)			26	1	3.83	125		

Proposed Impact Study	Class	Thrifty & Credit Groups		Urban Self Employment Prg.		Information of DWACUA Groups				
		No. of T&C Groups	No. of T&C grp. Providing matching grants	No. of Beneficiaries		Amount given in loans	No. of DWACUA formed	No. of Neighbour hood groups	No. of person trained by training institutes	
				Male	Female				Male	Female
15. Distt. Shriganganagar										
	Shriganganagar	17 (71)	30	13	10	3.02	2	25		
	Raysinghnagar	22 (23)	23	10	4	3.46	1	259		
	Gajsinghpur	3	12	16		2.08		7		45
	Shrikanpur	2		7	3	1.78		12		
	Anupgarh	32 (28)	28	20	3	2.54		12		30
	Sadulshahr	32 (22)		11	2	2.19		9		30
	Suratgarh	33 (35)	23	36	13	8.59	3	27		45
	Padampur	31 (16)		7		1.38		23		105
	Kesrisinghpur	33 (40)		11		1.41	na	10		30
	Shrivijaynagar	32 (20)	10	12	6	2.38	na	30		30
16. Distt. Hanumaangarh										
	Hanumaangarh	4 (62)	10	89	31	21.05	3	40		1
	Nohar	22 (20)		57	3	10.45	1	19		15
	Sagaria	31 (10)		11		1.45	na			30
	Nadra	31 (12)		11	7	3.45		12		
	Polibanga	31 (11)		18	4	5		24		26
	Ravatser	41 (10)		19	7	2.45		23		30
17. Distt. Jaipur										
	Jaipur	1	5	59	23			45		
	Chomu	31 (10)		61		6.53		21		
	Sambhar	3		20	2	3.1		11		
	Chakus	33 (40)		63	5	17.82	1	125		
	Kathputli	32 (27)		42	13	8.73		34		
	Fulera	41 (25)		25	6	4.53		11		
	Jovner	4						17		
	Kishangarh-Reinwal	42 (32)		31	10	5.08		15		
	Shahpura	41 (10)		26	4	5.44		22		
	Viratnagar	4		25	7	4.1		17		
	Bagru	425 (31)		51	1	10.82		40		

Proposed Impact Study	Class	Thrift & Credit Groups		Urban Self Employment Prg.		Information of DWACUA Groups				
		No. of T&C Groups	No. of T&C grp. Providing matching grants	No. of Beneficiaries	Amount given in loans	No. of DWACUA formed	No. of Neighbour hood groups	No. of person trained by training institutes	Male	Female
18. Distt. Jaisalmer	Jaisalmer	2	1 (14)	13	5	2.31				
	Pokhran	4	2	23	11	4.95				
19. Distt. Jalloar	Jalloar	3		57		26.37				
	Meenmaal	4	2 (20)	37	15	6.69				
	Sanchoar	4	1 (10)	28	1	1.85				
19. Distt. Jhalawar	Jhalawar	2	1 (15)	17	2	3	141			
	Bhawanimandi	3	1 (10)	16	4	3.37	20	10	30	
	Jhalarapatan	3		11	2	1.98	26		29	
	Pidawa	4	1 (15)	21	1	2.6	25	45		
	Aklera	4	2 (24)	50	1	6.8	34			
	Jhunjhunu						309			
	Navalgarh	2	7 (80)	95	12	30.06	62	17	15	
Chidawa		2	3 (41)	55	10	10.82	45		30	
		3	2 (23)	40		7.66	35	9	31	
Bisau		4	2 (20)	25	6	4.19	20		20	
		4	1 (10)				18			
Betri		4	2 (29)	17	9	3.29	15			
	Mandava	4	2 (28)	9	4	1.75	11			
Mukandgarh		4	3 (41)	34	3	7.71	20	3	15	
	Pilani	4	2 (24)	10	2	2.73	18		1	
Surajgarh		4	3 (35)	24	7	4.69	37			
	Udaipurvati	4	2 (20)	28		2.96	30	18		
Vidyavihar		1	1 (10)	6		1.25	1			
22. Distt. Jodhpur	Jodhpur	1	10 (124)	161	43	59.93	1	60	69	81
	Falodi	3	1 (12)	30	55	5.33	1	25	30	
	Pipar-siti	3	2 (20)	36	11	6.54	1	44		
	Bilara	3	1 (12)	32		5.25	1	15		

Proposed Impact Study	Class	Thrifty & Credit Groups		Urban Self Employment Prog.		Information of DWACUA Groups			
		No. of T&C Groups	No. of T&C grp. Providing matching grants	No. of Beneficiaries		No. of DWACUA formed	No. of Neighbour hood groups	No. of person trained by training institutes	
				Male	Female			Male	Female
23. Distt. Kota									
Kota	1 16 (216)	15	211	69	38.9	220	58	111	
Ramganjmandi	3 2 (15)		1	24	2.75	1		28	29
Sangoad	4 2 (20)		16	1	3.26	45			
Kaiyoon	4 2 (35)		3	2	1.1	1		41	
24. Distt. Nagoar									
Nagoar	2								
Ladoon	2 1 (15)		34	3	9.59				
Merta-siti	2 2 (24)		58	2	14.62	38			
Kuchaman-siti	3 1 (16)		19	6	6.46	1		30	
Deedwana	3 1 (15)		38	8	4.56			25	
Makrana	3 1 (16)		61	11	8.89	na			
Parvatsar	3 2 (20)		17	3	5.27				
Nanva	4 1 (10)		3	1	0.77			15	
Kuchera	4 1 (13)		7	1	1.28			13	
Mundva	4 1 (13)		9	2	1.33			10	
25. Distt. Pali									
Pali	1								
Sojat-siti	3		42	21	9.3	49		35	
Sadri	4			25	5.45			20	
Wali	4			8	1.05			27	
Takthgarh	4			8	1.8			20	
Sumerpur	4			18	1.96			15	
Ranikhurd	4			6	1.91			14	
Jaitaran	4			12	1.66			19	
Faina	4			20	1.7			10	
				16	1.93			26	
26. Distt. Rajasmund									
Rajasmund	3 (33)								
Nathdwara	3 (41)		40	6	8.2	16		30	
Devgarh	1 (10)		39	6	3.5	12		30	
Aamet	2 (20)		16	4	3.99	10			
			31	8	9.95	15		30	
26. Distt. Swaimadhpor									
Swaimadhpor	1 2 (27)								
Gangapur siti	2 1 (10)		50	9	16.16	1		14	35
			A38	7	13.01			35	

Annexure 2

JAIPUR

S. No.	HH		HH Income before	HH Income after	Per Capi	MONTHLY SAVING	LOANEE SEX	EDUC.	LOAN Rs.	CHANGE IN INCOME
	Male	Female								
1	1	5	1300	1800	216.66667		F	12	30000	500
2	2	2	1000	1500	500	500	F	10	20000	500
3	3	2	2000	4000	400	800.00	F	12	25000	2000
4	2	2	2500	2500	625	625.00				
5	2	2	1500	1500	375	375.00				
6	5	5	1500	1500	300	300.00				
7	1	3	1500	2000	375	500.00				
8	3	1	1500	3000	375	750.00	M	10	25000	1500
9	2	3	1500	3000	300	600.00	F	8	20000	1500
10	3	1	2500	2500	625	625.00				
11	3	2	1500	3000	300	600.00	M	0	18000	1500
12	3	2	1500	1500	300	300.00				
13	3	2	1500	1500	300	300.00				
14	3	2	1500	1500	300	300.00				
15	3	4	1700	1700	242.85714	242.86				
16	4	2	2000	2000	333.33333	333.33				
17	3	4	3000	3000	428.57143	428.57				
18	2	4	1500	1500	250	250.00				
19	4	1	2000	2000	400	400.00				
20	3	3	3000	3000	500	500.00				
21	2	2	1000	1500	250	375.00	M	6	25000	500
22	4	5	1000	1500	111.11111	166.67	F	0	10000	500
23	3	4	1500	2500	214.28571	357.14	F	8	20000	1000
24	2	3	1500	2500	300	500.00	F	5	25000	1000
25	2	5	1000	1500	142.85714	214.29	M	0	10000	500
26	4	2	1500	2000	250	333.33	F	5	20000	500
27	2	3	3000	3000	600	600.00				
28	3	3	2500	5000	416.66667	833.33				
29	5	7	2000	3000	166.66667	250.00				
30	3	3	1500	2000	250	333.33				
31	4	2	1500	2000	250	333.33				
32	4	3	2500	2500	357.14286	357.14				
33	5	2	1000	1500	142.85714	214.29	M	7	13000	500
34	1	3	1500	2500	375	625.00	F	0	20000	1000
35	4	1	1000	2000	200	400.00	M	5	20000	1000
36	2	2	1000	2000	250	500.00	M	2	20000	1000
37	4	5	1500	3000	166.66667	333.33	M	5	25000	1500
38	2	2	1000	2500	250	625.00	M	5	20000	1500

JODHPUR

S. No.	HH		HH INCOME		per cap	SEX	LOANEE EDUC.	LOAN Rs.	SUBSIDY Rs.	Year	CHANGE IN INCOME	
	Male	Female	before	after								
1	2	2	4	1000	250	2500	F	3	35000	5250	01/01	1500
2	2	2	4	1500	375	5000	M	5	50000	7500	07/00	3500
3	3	4	7	3500	500	5500	F	1	30000	4500	01/01	2000
4	2	2	4	1000	250	2000	F	3	25000	3750	12/00	1000
5	4	1	5	2000	400	2000						
6		5	5	2000	400	3500	F	4	50000	7500	07/00	1500
7	3	5	8	2250	281.25	2250	F	1	15000	2250	12/01	
8	3	3	6	1500	250	3000	F	2	25000	3750	05/00	1500
9	3	3	6	1500	250	2500	F	2	20000	3000	12/99	1000
10	3	2	5	1000	200	3139						1714
11	3	3	6	2000	333.33	2000	F	2	20000	3000	05/00	1000
12	2	2	4	1500	375	1500						
13	4	2	6	3000	500	3000						
14	4	1	5	1000	200	1500						500
15	4	2	6	3500	583.33	5000						1500
16	1	4	5	900	180	2400						1500
17	2	5	7	1500	214.29	4000	M	1	35000	5250	07/00	2500
18	5	1	6	3000	500	4200						1200
19	3	1	4	1500	375	3500						2000
20	4	3	7	2000	285.71	2970						1700
21	2	2	4	1500	375	4000	M	2	20000	3000	12/99	2000
22	4	2	6	2700	450	3000	M	3	50000	7500	07/00	1500
23	3	3	6	1000	166.67	3700	M	1	10000	1500	12/00	1000
24	2	3	5	2500	500	2000	M	3	30000	4500	10/01	1000
25	2	1	3	1500	500	4500	F	2	20000	3000	12/01	2000
26	3	6	9	4000	444.44	4000	M	4	50000	7500	07/01	2500
27	2	3	5	1200	240	3533						
28	5	2	7	2500	357.14	4500						500
29	2	3	5	1500	300	5000	M	2	25000	3750	05/00	2500
30		1	1	800	800	1500						
31	1	1	2	2700	1350	800						
32	3	2	5	2000	400	2700				0		
33	4	2	6	2500	416.67	2616						
34	4	2	6	1300	216.67	4000	M	3	25000	3750	06/00	2000
35	3	4	7	2500	357.14	3000	M	2	10000	1500	02/01	500
36	4	1	5	2300	460	2300	F	3	15000	2250	12/00	1000
37	2	4	6	2000	333.33	4000	M	2	50000	7500	08/01	1000
						4000	M	5	45000	6750	07/00	
						666.67	M	5	50000	7500	01/00	2000

RAISINGH NAGAR

S. No.	HH		Total	HH INCOME		per cap	MONTHLY SAVING	LOANEE		LOAN	SUBSIDY	CHANGE IN INCOME
	Male	Female		before	after			SEX	EDUC.			
1	2	3	5	2500	2500	500	0					
2	3	1	4	2000	4000	1000	0			15000	2250	2000
3	3	2	5	1500	2500	500	0			15000	2250	1000
4	1	3	4	2000	3000	750	0			15000	2250	1000
5	3	1	5	1500	1500	300	0					
6	3	3	6	2200	3200	533.33	100			20000	3000	1000
7	1	2	3	800	800	266.67	100					
8	2	6	8	1500	2000	250	100			15000	2250	500
9	2	2	4	1500	1500	375	100					
10	3	2	5	1800	2300	460	100			20000	3000	500
11	3	2	5	1000	1000	200	20					
12	3	1	4	2500	2500	625	20					0
13	3	3	6	3000	3000	500	20					0
14	3	3	6	3000	3000	500	20					0
15	5	2	7	700	700	100	20					0
16	2	1	3	1000	1500	500	0			15000	2250	500
17	2	2	4	1000	1500	375	0			8000	1200	500
18	3	2	5	500	1500	300	0			15000	2250	1000
19	1	3	4	1000	1250	312.5	0			6000	900	250
20	3	4	7	1000	2000	285.71	0			25000	3750	1000
21	1	1	2	700	1200	600	0			12000	1800	500
22	2	3	5	1500	2500	500	0			12000	6000	1000
23	1	2	3	1000	1000	333.33	0			0	0	0
24	3	3	6	1000	1000	166.67	0			0	0	0
25	2	1	3	1200	1200	400	0			0	0	0
26	3	5	8	2000	4000	500	0			12000	6000	2000
27	3	2	5	1500	1500	300	0					0
28	3	2	5	1000	2000	400	0			20000	3000	1000
29	3	3	6	1000	1500	250	0			20000	3000	500
30	4	4	8	1000	2200	275	0			16000	2400	1200
31	3	2	4	1000	2000	500	0			10000	1500	1000

NIMBAHERA

S. No.	HH		Total	HH INCOME		per cap	after	per cap	LOANEE SEX	EDUC.	LOAN Rs.	SUBSIDY Rs.	CHANGE IN INCOME
	Male	Female		before	after								
1		3	3	HH 800	HH 800	266.67	800	266.67					
2	3	3	6	1300	2500	216.6667	2500	416.67	M	10	20000		1200
3	3	2	5	1200	1200	240	1200	240					
4	2	2	4	2500	5000	625	5000	1250	F	10	20000		2500
5	3	3	6	1500	1500	250	1500	250					
6	2	2	5	1000	2000	200	2000	400	M	8	25000		1000
7	3	2	5	1200	1200	240	1200	240					
8	3	3	6	900	900	150	900	150					
9	1	2	3	300	300	100	300	100					
10		2	2	500	2500	250	2500	1250	F	3	20000		2000
11	4	1	5	2000	2000	400	2000	400					
12	4	2	6	5500	916.6667	916.6667	5500	916.67					
13	3	1	4	3300	3300	825	3300	825					
14	2	2	4	1000	3000	250	3000	750	M	Grad	20000		2000
15	3	2	5	2100	2100	420	2100	420					
16	2	4	6	2500	416.6667	416.6667	2500	416.67					
17	3	1	4	1700	3200	425	3200	800	M	10	25000		1500
18	2	2	4	1000	2500	250	2500	625	M	12	20000		1500
19	4	1	5	1500	2500	300	2500	500	M	10	30000		1000
20	2	4	6	1500	2000	250	2000	333.33	M	10	25000		500
21	1	2	3	1000	333.3333	333.3333	1500	500	M	9	15000		500
22	2	1	3	1000	3000	333.3333	3000	1000	F	7	60000		2000
23	3	1	4	1500	1500	375	1500	375					
24	2	2	4	1500	1500	375	1500	375					
25	1	4	5	2200	2200	440	2200	440					
26	2	2	4	2000	2000	500	2000	500					
27	1	3	4	550	550	137.5	550	137.5					
28	5	2	7	1700	242.8571	242.8571	1700	242.86					

Merta

S. No.	HH			HH INCOME		MONTHLY SAVING	LOANEE		LOAN		SUBSIDY		Year	CHANGE IN INCOME
	Male	Female	Total	before			Sex	Education	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
				HH	per cap									
1	5	3	8	1200	150	2400	F	2	30000		4500		02/01	1200
2	2	3	5	2000	400	2000					0			
3	3	2	5	700	140	1200	M	2	16000	2400			01/00	500
4	4	2	6	1000	166.67	1000	M	2	20000	3000			04/01	
5	3	2	5	2000	400	2000	F	1	12000	1800			08/00	
6	3	3	6	1000	166.67	1500	M	2	15000	2250			03/00	500
7	2	2	4	1500	375	1500								
8	4	1	5	1500	300	2000	M	2	10000	1500			04/01	500
9	3	3	6	1500	250	2000	F	1	2000	300			10/01	500
10	2	3	5	1500	300	1500								
11	3	4	7	1500	214.29	1500	M	1	20000	3000			03/01	
12	2	3	5	2000	400	2000	M	3	50000	7500			11/01	
13	1	4	5	1000	200	2000	M	3	25000	3750			10/01	1000
14	5	1	6	1500	250	1500	M	1	20000	3000			06/01	
15	5	1	6	1500	250	1500	M	1	20000	3000			09/01	
16	2	1	3	1000	333.33	1500	M	2	15000	2250			06/00	500
17	1	2	3	1500	500	2000	M	4	50000	7500			02/00	500
18	1		1	1000	1000	1500	M	3	20000	3000			03/01	500
19	2	1	3	1000	333.33	1800	M	4	20000	3000			03/01	
20	3	3	6	1000	166.67	2000	M	4	15000	2250			10/01	1000

Annexure 3

Evaluation Study of SJSRY Programme

Questionnaire for members of CDS Groups (separate information sheet for each member to be filled, other information can be gathered jointly)

Background Information

Name:

Name of Project Area:

Age:

Position in the CDS Group:

Duration of stay in the settlement:

Number of years of membership in CDS:

Husband's position in the community/city:

Profile of Children

No	Age	Sex	Education	Income

Family Assets

House	Owned with ownership papers on legal land Illegal land but with hut owned Rented
Living condition i) Roof ii) Floor iii) Water iv) Sanitation	Thatch/ Tarpaulin/ asbestos/ wooden/ tiles/ cement Earthen/bajri /bricks/cement/chips/stone No supply for 500 yards/ community handpump/ community tube well/ pvt. Handpump/ pvt. Tubewell/ pvt. Piped supply Open defecation/ community dry latrine/ community pour flush laterine/ pvt. Dry laterine / pvt. Pour flush latrine / pvt. flush latrine with sewer connection
Educational Level	Illiterate/ Primary pass/ Middle pass/ Matric pass/ 10+2 pass/ Graduate
Type of Employment	Unskilled casual labourer/ Unemployed/ Semi skilled / Self Employed Street/ Push cart/ Own work place/ Own work place & Selling place/ Organised sector with social security
Status of children in a house	Working children & not attending any school/ NFE/ Literacy classes/ Working children but attending school/ NFE/ Literacy classes sometimes Working children but attending school/ NFE/ Literacy classes regularly Children not working as well as not attending any classes Children not working and attending school/ NFE/ Literacy classes sometimes Children not working as well as attending school/ NFE/ Literacy classes regularly
Productive assets owned (list)	Work tools Carts/rickshaws etc.
Household assets	Gas Fan Cooler Refrigerator TV Radio Cycle Any other
Ration Card	

Are CDS and DWACUA group common? How many members are common between the two?

Questions for CDS members or community women

Occupation of CDS member

Income of CDS member

Ask these questions only when DWACUA group and CDS group members are different

Production Tools

List tools used for IGA	Tools purchased through loan funds	Donated/ available previously	Rented

Education level

Any Training received for IGA

Training provided by SJSRY/other

Marketing of products

Do you market the goods yourself or some agency is doing it?

Name of agency who is doing the marketing.

If contracted through an agency, is the payment on piece rate basis? How much?

Is the payment on piece rate basis? How much?

What is your average production per day?

Where do you sell your goods?

How did you make the market contact?

How much profit do you have per month?

What support have you received for marketing your products?

Training

Do you need training for IGA activities? If yes

Who is providing the training	Duration of training	Component of training	No. of members trained	Were members trained on different aspects? If yes what are they?

What are your monthly savings?

Where do you save?

- Bank
- Chit fund
- T&C
- Home
- Any other

Individual Loans

Have you taken credit for Income Generation Activities?

Name of Bank

How much?

In how many installments did you receive the loan?

Have you got any subsidy for that?

When?

Enterprise?

Installment to be paid

How many installments have been paid till now?

Information regarding spouse

Husband's Occupation

Is he working with DWACUA group?

If yes, what is his role in the activity?

If not, what is his income?

What are his productive assets ?

Education level

Has he received any skill based training?

Has received individual loan under SJSRY?

In whose name?

How much?

Subsidy
When?

Enterprise?

Installment to be paid

How many installments have been paid till now?

Name of Bank

Questionnaire for CDS Group Member

Procedure for Loans in Banks

Date of application

Date of sanction of loan

Who filled the application for you?

How /why did you select the enterprise?

Do you receive lump sum or in installments?

Break up of loan items requested?

In whose name is the loan cheque issued?

How many trips did it take to the bank to release loan?

How would you describe the attitude of bank officials?

What has been done to the subsidy?

Has the subsidy been given to you or has been held by the bank/SJSRY official?

How did you procure the productive assets?

How do you procure the raw material?

What problems do you face in running your enterprise?

What support did SJSRY/ BANK officials provide in accessing loan?

What do you suggest to simplify the process?

How many people have you supported for obtaining loan from your community?

Number/name	Loan Sanctioned	Loan released	Enterprise	Loan amount	Subsidy	Average Income

Wealth ranking of people with loans/people without loans

- Assets in the home
- Income level
- Basic services; tap, toilet, legal electricity
- Housing

What is your role in ensuring that the families return the loan amount?

Process of formation of CDS group

- When did the CDS group start- 1994/1995/1996/1997/1998/1999/2000/2001
- If in 1994 was it under the UBSP
- Who contacted you at the start- CO/NGO/any other
- Who else in the community was contacted- Neighbour/ Pradhan/ Local area councilor, husband
- How did other members of CDS get selected – Community meetings followed by election/ CO selected/ You volunteered

Obtain a list of names of members of Thrift & Credit group, CDS and DWACUA.

Community Structures

Neighbourhood Groups

- Are there NHGs in the community- Yes/ No
- If yes- how many?
- Does an NHG represent – a lane/ households (25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50, 55>)
- How were NHG representative chosen- selected by CO/ election
- Are all NHGs linked with an NHC- Yes/No

Neighbourhood Committees

- How many members does your NHC have- 10/11/12/13/14/15
- Posts in NHC?

- What happens to the rest of members who are not part of the NHC

- Is NHC registered – Yes/ No
- If yes what is its name

CDS

- Is there a CDS? Yes/ NO
- If yes how many members does a CDS have?
- Is the CDS only from - one community/ more than one community
- Is the CDS registered?
- Posts in a CDS

- How are women selected on the post

- Are there male members in the CDS? How many men and how many women are there?

CDS Functioning

- How often does your CDS meet- weekly/ fortnightly/ monthly/ only when CO comes/ visitors come
- What issues do you discuss, list (awareness/ community infrastructure problems/ Income generation activities/ personal problems/ any other)- Describe

- Do you plan any solutions to the problem? Give examples.

- Have any problems been successfully resolved?
- What has the CDS done in the settlement- IGA/ Water/ Sanitation/ Community contracts
- Describe
- PLA Time Line

Issue	Status earlier	Status Now

- Community Problems

Problem	Solutions planned	Results

Representativeness

- Do other women in the community recognize most CDS members- Yes/ No
- Do other women in the community recognize CDS President only? Yes/ No
- Do other women in the community recognize the existence of NHC? Yes/ No
- (Investigator Observation-IO) Does the CDS appear to be from the upper income/ better off groups within the settlements? Yes/ No
- (IO) How did you judge? Clothes/ education/ asset ownership/ highly connected family/ health status

Role of CDS

- Why did you form a CDS
- What can a CDS do?

- Do you develop Community Action Plans?

- If yes, are these implemented?

- Who monitors service availability/ implementation of Community Action Plans?
- Do you meet Corporation officials? Where? Why? How? Who?

- Is there a fixed meeting day with officials?

DWACUA group member

- Is there a DWACUA group?
- Who are the members? Number
- How many members are common to the CDS and DWACUA group?
- How was the group formed? When and by whom?
- What prompted the women to come together?
- How did the members get chosen?
- What is the enterprise selected? Who selected?
- When was the enterprise started?
- When was the loan issued?
- How is the loan repayment done? In how many installments is it repaid?
- What is the amount of each installment?

Credit received under the programme

Subsidy

When was credit received?

Installments to be paid

How many installments have been paid till now?

Name of Bank

Income of each DWACUA member
Productive Assets purchased/taken on rent

Rental

Space for enterprise

Where do you get the raw material from?

How is it transported?

Education level of all group members

Name	Education level	Role of each member in the enterprise	Training provided under SJSRY	Where/Duration/Usefulness

Marketing of products

- Where do you sell the goods?

- How did you make the market contact?

- How much profit do you have per month?

- What support have you received for marketing your products?

- What are the monthly savings of the group?

- Where are these kept?
 - Bank
 - Chit fund
 - T&C
 - Home
 - Any other

- Who manages the accounts?
- What are the problems faced in running the group/enterprise
- What suggestions do you have for DWACUA?

Thrift and Credit Group Member

- Is there a thrift & credit group in the settlement? Yes/ No
- How many thrift & credit groups are there in the settlement?

- How many members are there in the thrift & credit group?
- Are the members of CDS & thrift & credit group common? Yes/ No

- If yes, how many common members are there?
- How long has the group been functional?

- Why did you form a thrift & credit group? (CO asked/ needed to save/ needed to take credit at low interest rate)
- How much does each member save?

- What is the total savings of the group?
- How often do you make the collection?

- Where has it been deposited?
- Does the group have a bank account/ Yes/ No (collect copy of passbook)

- If not, why? Problem in opening account/ not aware/ need not felt
- Problems faced in opening account- (too much paper work/ refusal/ registration

- Do individuals have passbook?

- Have all member of the group been issued passbooks?

- Is there flexibility in the amount you save?
- Do you have rules for giving credit?

- What are these rules?
- Who all can access credit?
- What is the rate of interest?
- How do you ensure that the money is returned back?
- How many loans have been issued so far?

Number/name	Credit amount	Purpose	Is credit being repaid	Installments

- Do you have any rules for ensuring members return credit prepared by CDS?
- What are these?
- Has any one defaulted yet?
- What was/were the reason for default?
- Have you received any contribution under SJSRY?
- Amount of fund?
- What has the group planned to do with the amount?

Urban Local Body

Back Ground Information:

Post- community Organizer/ Project Officer/ SUDA/ DUDA or Municipal Officer
Incharge of SJSRY Implementation

Name of City

Name of Official

General

- Since how long have you been handling SJSRY?
- Have you been handling such programmes before?
- When did the actual project implementation begin in the city?

About Poor Settlements

- What is the total number of poor settlements in your area?
- What is the nature of these settlements? Authorized/ unauthorized/ on central Govt. land/ on State Municipal land
- What is the total population residing in these poor settlements (collect list)?

Community Building

- In how many communities is the work going on presently?
- What are the processes followed in forming CDS?
- How are CDS member selected?
- How do you ensure its representative ness?
- Is there a uniform processes followed or it varies depending on community worker and people of the community?
- Are there NHGs & NHCs at the community level?

- Are there any registered NHCs?
- If Yes, how many?
- In how many communities have you been able to form CDS?
- How many members does a CDS have?
- Is the CDS only from - one community/ more than one community
- Is the CDS registered?
- What is the role of a CDS?

Capacity building

- Training programmes organized

Level	Frequency	Duration	Name of Training Institution	Key Objectives	Impact, indicators used for assessing effectiveness

- Total numbers trained under each category
- How many have you attended? When? Where?
- Which were the broad areas that the training programmes focussed on?

City level Data

Number of CDS groups in the city	Number of DWACUA groups in the city	Total Number of slum settlements		Total number of poor in the city	Percentage coverage to city population
		Recognized	Unrecognized		

DWACUA

- How many DWACUA groups have been formed on an average in each community?
- How are the DWACUA members made?

DWACUA group enterprise	Type of vocational training provided		Loan provided		Income per DWACUA member		Marketing opportunities
	Duration	Name of Agency	Subsidy amount	Installments	Before repayment of loan	After repayment of loan	

- How is the total cost of a project estimated?
- Where is the raw material obtained from/
- How is the marketing strategy developed?
- Who is responsible for
 - marketing
 - getting orders
 - delivery of goods
 - sale of goods
- How is the transportation to market managed?
- How is the loan repayment decided among the members?
- Do they face any problems in accessing loans?
- How many loans are being repaid to the bank?

CDS Functioning

- How often does CDS meet- weekly/ fortnightly/ monthly?
- Who organizes the CDS meeting- community itself/ CO
- Which are the issues taken at the CDS?
- On what dates were last two meetings held?
- How many members are present for those meetings?
- Are any officials also present for those meetings?
- What topics are discussed at those meetings?
- What decisions are taken?
- What is the outcome of those decisions?
- How do you integrate these decisions into the city plan?
- What alternatives did you suggest?
- What are the changes in the community that you have noted?

Representation in the CDS

- What kind of groups live in the community?- caste/ religion / state / any other
- Does the CDS have a member from each section?
- Can you provide a list of their names, their castes and income levels?
- Does the whole community recognize the presence of CDS?

Thrift and Credit Societies Member

- How may settlements have thrift & credit societies formed?
- Why did they form a thrift & credit society?
- Was there a need?
- How did you identify the need?
- How many members are there in each group?
- Are the members of CDS & thrift & credit group common? Yes/ No
- What is the saving done by each member?
- What is the total saving made?
- What is done with these savings?
- Is there any flexibility in the amount saved by the community members or is it fixed?
- How is the amount to be contributed decided?
- Have any of the Thrift & Credit societies been provided matching funds by SUDA?
- What are the rules of giving credit to members?
- How many members have been given loans?
- What is the purpose of taking loans?
- How is the repayment done?

- Does thrift & credit society have a bank account?
- Have they face any problem in starting an account?
- Who goes to the bank to do paper work?
- Signatories?

Involvement of NGOs

- Name NGOs associated in the programme
- What is their role?
- Do they also respond to Health/ IGA/ Sanitation/ Water/ Infrastructure need of people?
-

Convergence with Sectoral Agencies

- Is there a Task Force of different sectoral /line departments/agencies in the city?
- Do the officials dealing with health, education etc. work together with the SJSRY staff?
- How often do the different departments get together? 1 st meeting called by the Commissioner
- Problems in bringing together sectoral agencies
- Successful examples of partnerships with agencies

Assessment of Community Empowerment

Incident/event	What was the problem? What was the action planned? Who planned the action? Who took action? What was the outcome?		Indicator used for assessing extent of empowerment

Empowerment

Status of girl children

Numbers of girls in the poor communities

Numbers enrolled at school

Status of regular participation

What percentage of girls are still out of school?

CHILD LABOUR

Number of children in the city/community working

Type of work in which children are engaged

Incomes earned by children?

Is there any data on children enrolled at schools recently from the community?

Scheme for Wage Employment

How many poor have been provided wage employment in the city? By year

Project	Year	Numbers employed by sex		Wages per day by sex		Number of days of employment
		Male	Female	Male	Female	

- Nature of projects undertaken
- Wage amount
- Duration of each project
- Selection of beneficiaries (name the communities)
- Overlap in beneficiaries for the same project
- Training under SUWE

Monitoring

What is the system of monitoring that is being used in the following fields:

- Loans provided
- Loan repayments
- Training provided
- Training impacts
- Impact on incomes of the poor
- Selection of beneficiaries

Is data computerized?

How can you improve the system?

What do you think are the major problems faced in the Programme?

What do you think can be the solutions to them?

Banks Officials

Have you received any guidelines from the Govt. for loans to be provided under the SJSRY programme?

Which are the enterprises for which you provide loan? How do you take a decision on that?

How many such loans have been processed upto now?

Is there any list available with you for the same?

Is the loan provided in installments?

How is the loan paid back? In how many installments?

How do you ensure recovery of loan?

Have you faced any problem in that?

Do you find community people have problem in fulfilling bank documents?

How do you help them with that?

Suggestions for simplification of procedures

Annexure 4

Economic Activities supported by Loan in Sample cities

Occupation	Jaipur	Jodhpur	Merta	Raisinghnagar	Nimbahera	Total
General Shop	7	12	11	5	5	40
Tailor	5	1		4	1	12
Carpet making	1					1
Plastic Mould Making	1	1				2
Gem-cutting	2					2
Teaching	1	1				2
Embroidery		4				4
Welding shop		2				2
Flour mill		1				1
Motor repair			2	2	1	5
Barber shop			2	3		5
Readymade garments			1	1	2	4
Push cart				2		2
Others		1	1	1	2	5
Total	17	23		18	11	87

Annexure - 5
SWARNA JAYANTI SHAHARI ROJGAR YOJANA (SJSRY)

FINANCIAL & PHYSICAL PROGRESS

NAME OF STATE: RAJASTHAN

FUNDS RELEASED TO: LOCAL SELF GOVT.

SUDA FORMED: HIGH LEVEL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

INCHARGE: SECRETARY D/O LOCAL BODIES

NO. OF DISTT.: 32

NO. OF DUDAs FORMED: 32

PHYSICAL PROGRESS		FINANCIAL PROGRESS		M.I.S. REPORT	
		Central funds released 1997-2001 (Rs. in lakhs)	Expenditure reported (Rupees in lakhs)	Received	Due Quarter (s)
COMMUNITY STRUCTURE		234.50	205.86	JUN-01	1
No. of Towns	183				
No. of Town UPE Cell formed	110				
No. of beneficiaries identified (in lakhs)	9.46				
No. of CDSs formed	186				
No. of towns, BPL Survey conducted	183				
No. of Community Organisers appointed	183				
URBAN EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMME		734.33	517.88	JUN-01	1
No. of beneficiaries assisted	20014				
No. of persons trained/under training	8929				
No. of DWCUAs formed	22				
No. of Women Beneficiaries (DWCUAs)	71				
URBAN WAGE EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMME		687.91	1597.99	JUN-01	1
No. of mandays created (in lakhs)	14.09				
TOTAL		1656.74	2321.73		

A) Total Central Share released under SJSTY (All components)		1656.74
B) State Share required under SJSRY on 75:25 basis		552.25
C) State Share released under SJSRY		456.91
D) Shortfall under State Share (B-C)		95.34
E) Unspent Balance available under old UPA Prog.	i) Central	1325.56
	ii) State	1831.61
F) Total funds available with the State (Old+New) (A+C+E)		5273.82
G) Expenditure incurred under SJSRY	i) Central	2326.82
	ii) State	1130.04
H) Balance funds available with the State (F-G)		1816.96
I) Utilisation Certificate received		2154.87
J) Balance Utilisation Certificates Due [G(i)-I]		171.95
K) Closure of Accounts of Old UPA Programmes	NRV	YES
	UBSP	YES
	PMIUPEP	YES

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