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URBAN GOVERNANCE

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Abstract: The pace and growth of urbanization in India poses enormous challenges to urban governance. The institutional features and devolution mechanisms of the federal framework within which cities have to deliver better quality of life for their residents and generate an invest- ment climate that is capable of sustaining the rapid growth. It argues that though planned urbanization is needed for the industry and services sectors and also for rural rejuvenation, the lack of empowerment of cities is con- straining their ability to translate the urban development agenda into action. The article emphasizes the importance of bridging the urban infra- structure deficit and argues that institutional reforms are crucial for reach- ing out to the private sector for sharing the financing burden and ensuring that it results in improved service delivery. The experience of a pioneering national mission for urban renewal and the design of new national missions are reviewed to highlight the importance of strengthening reforms and capacity for planning and management at the local level. Though the Government of India will have to provide strategic leadership, some fund- ing, and assistance in building capacity for urban planning and manage- ment, state governments will be the principal players in creating an environment in which city governments can discharge the responsibilities assigned to them by the constitution.

Keywords– Growth of Urbanization, Rejuvenation, Empowerment of city, Strategic Leadership, urban Infrastructure.

I. INTRODUCTION

The world is observing a rapid pace of urbanization and realizing the importance of cities for growth in national economy & development. Rapid urbanization is considered both as an opportunity as well as a global challenge. Around 54% of the world population: today resides in towns or cities and it is estimated that by 2050, the figure will become 66%. However, cities fill up only 0.5% of the total land in the world but approximately accounts for seventy per cent of economic activity, seventy per cent of global waste, sixty per cent of energy consumption, and almost three-fourth of greenhouse gas emissions. As it is estimated that by 2050, 66% of the world population will be living in urban areas, it is expected that the rapid increase of urban growth shall be observed mostly in the low and middle income countries. India, China and Nigeria together are estimated to contribute approximately 37% in the growth of urban population. This demand for an effective and adequate framework for governing the cities with modernized administration mechanisms enhanced transparency and service delivery. It is necessary to adopt new methods and techniques for administering the cities, that are comprehensive and capable of facilitating active & productive participation of stakeholders. Further, it is also evident that prevailing capacities of the urban local bodies are not absolute and require substantial enhancement. But before we discuss more on urban governance, let us first understand the reason behind urban growth without which there would never have been the need for urban governance.

II. DEFINITION

Urban governance is primarily concerned with the processes through which government is organized and delivered in towns and cities and the relationships between state agencies and civil society, a term that is used to include citizens, communities, private-sector actors, and voluntary organizations.

III.HISTORY OF URBAN GOVERNANCE

Origin of Good Governance The World Bank introduced the concept in its 1992 report entitled "Governance and Development". According to the document, good governance is an essential complement to sound economic policies and is central to creating and sustaining an environment which fosters strong and equitable development.

IV. CURRENT STATUS

Approaches to urban governance are changing rapidly as cities struggle to adapt to the challenges of the 21st century. Climate change, migration, security, and a more fragile global economy are all driving urban change at a time when national governments continue to hesitate with a full commitment to cities and urban development. In many jurisdictions, financial transfers from national to subnational governments have mostly been stable or even slightly increasing (in absolute terms) over the years, but these transfers are often not proportionate to the increasing responsibilities and challenges that cities have to meet. Resources rarely come with augmented authority for cities, meaning that even where cities are secure in budgetary terms they often have little autonomy for developing policy responses to meet these new and intractable challenges.

V. ROLE OF URBAN GOVERNANCE:

Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) are small local bodies that administers or governs a city or a town of specified population. Urban Local Bodies are vested with a long list of functions delegated to them by the state governments. These functions broadly relate to public health, welfare, regulatory functions, public safety, public infrastructure works, and development activities. There are several types of Urban Local bodies in India such as Municipal Corporation, Municipality, Notified Area Committee, Town Area Committee, Special Purpose Agency, Township, Port Trust, Cantonment Board etc.

5.1 Provision of Water :-:

Water is essential to production and to life itself. Poor water quality, frequent and sometimes lengthy disruptions in supply, inconveniently located sources and high costs typify water-supply services in most urban areas. Often, the rich receive subsidized piped services, and the poor must buy from vendors at expensive prices.

The general inadequacy of water supply and the inequity of its pricing and distribution signal a prime failure of urban management in most places. This failure is across the range of management processes. The scale of new water needs is not anticipated; additional sources are not located and secured; new treatment facilities are not built until demand has long outstripped supply; existing sources are too often not protected, whether they be ground-water sources, requiring the limitation of development on recharge areas, or rivers in danger of pollution; there is commonly much wastage in current supplies from improperly installed distribution networks and inadequate maintenance; frequently, there exist pricing policies which favor large consumers and encourage wastage in consumption.

Thus, shortcomings in water quantity and quality are generally not due to technical problems but to poor management: for example a study in Manila claimed that 48 percent of water supplied in 1977 was "unaccounted for". Although there could be leaks, about half the current losses could be attributed to administrative weaknesses such as lack of metering or unauthorized connections. (Roth, 1987) Furthermore, many payments are in arrears because of inadequate accounting and enforcement: such ineffective administration together with low water tariffs, has starved water providers of the finances to meet unsatisfied demands. In many cases, water agencies are unable to recycle whatever revenue is produced by user-charges into maintenance of the water service, and this eventually results in substantial losses through leakages and, thus, further losses in revenue. Few public water agencies have been able to obtain sufficient revenues to finance a substantial portion of their investment requirements.

Many authorities find it difficult to enforce payment for piped water or to deny water to nonpayers because it is so essential. Aside from the moral problems, the administrative difficulties of collection can be enormous. Sometimes, no attempt is made to charge for the amount used, but charges are billed at rates related to property values or to the supply-pipe diameter.

Low-income communities are frequently served with communal standpipes which are operated and maintained by residents' groups or by franchised individuals.

Where piped water supplies are not available, urban dwellers obtain water from nearby wells or from stagnant or flowing surface water bodies. Many of these are traditional sources which can no longer serve properly the urban populations which have grown around them. Even where supplies are adequate, contamination can be severe and a major source of ill health. Safer deep wells are too expensive to bore and maintain for general use, although communities have contributed labor to the development and maintenance to reduce costs. Little is done to promote rain-water collection where this is feasible.

Where water supplies are extremely insufficient and additional sources are too expensive to tap, recycling of water is not promoted by authorities. Even recycling by industries is rare. Little is done to protect local sources of water from contamination or from actions which will block the recharging of aquifers. Should the need be recognised and policies agreed, as in the strategic land use plan for Madras, building construction is not actually stopped from covering aquifers.

5.2 Provision of Drainage :-

The preservation of natural drains and the creation of artificial ones is a task common to urban governments of all sizes. Simple technology is adequate for basic facilities, and common-sense usually discourages widespread construction in drainage channels. In most low-income residential areas, costs have been saved by using open and, often, earth-lined channels, but, in the poorest neighborhoods of fast-growing settlements, there are simply not enough drains built. In most urban areas, the prevailing lack of adequate drainage presents special problems for the poor. The sites they occupy are often cheap and affordable because they are liable to flooding. Storms can turn unsurfaced roads and paths into impassable mires, erode roadbeds so that they are difficult to traverse even when dry again and, in some cases where the prevailing sanitation technology does not provide adequate protection, bring about surface dispersion of untreated human feces.

Inadequate maintenance is all too common, with the result that unclean or collapsed drains fail to channelise flows, and puddling and flooding result. Where drains are concrete-lined and, possibly, closed or covered, it remains a problem to keep them free from blockages by solid wastes and repaired against the crush of carelessly driven motor vehicles. Regular street-sweeping is not performed, where this would reduce drainage blockages as well as remove solid wastes. These tasks typify the classic problems of urban public-systems maintenance: they are the responsibility of a low-level agency starved for funds, which gives care and cleaning of drains low priority, because there is little immediate consequence of failing to take such action, especially where rains are seasonal. The construction and maintenance of drains do not lend themselves to financing by means of user-fees, because use is general, and the degree of individual use unassessable.

5.3 Provision of Sanitation Services and Disposal of Wastes :-

Waterborne sewerage systems are usually the focus of governments' interests, despite the fact that they serve a minority of the residents and hardly exist outside the largest urban areas. Their capital costs are very high, and where sewage is treated, operational and maintenance costs are usually high as well. In most cases where sewers do exist in developing countries, they are not properly maintained and protected from damage. As a result, sewage is sometimes able to penetrate water-distribution systems, where these have cracks and leaks. Treatment of sewage is commonly not adequate, poor maintenance being a frequent cause.

Health risks are not necessarily increased where very few are served by sewers, for pit latrines and septic tanks can be safe, if properly used and maintained. Perhaps because widespread use of these is seen to take direct provision of sanitation largely out of the hands of public authorities, governments neglect to give technical guidance on the choices of available technology, construction of facilities, and their proper operation and maintenance. Where pit latrines or septic tanks are not suitable because of urban densities or soil conditions, public authorities sometimes operate collection systems. These are rarely sufficiently financed to provide an adequate frequency or quality of service. In many urban extensions, especially squatter and other illegal housing areas, no sanitation systems exist at all and residents use nearby fields and vacant lands as outdoor toilets.

Funding of collection and disposal is usually from general municipal revenues. Direct user-charges are not common, because residents consider waste management a basic responsibility of the government, and there is no practical way to shut off service to one who does not pay. Where the service is tied to another service which can be stopped, such as water supply, user- fees are possible.

Solid-waste management often suffers more than other municipal services when public funds are in short supply. Refuse collection and disposal services can take as much as 40 percent of municipal revenues (Cointreau, 1982): yet few municipalities have a system for generating funds for regular maintenance, replacement and expansion of the vehicle fleet. There are substantial capital costs involved for equipment which is usually imported, creating problems of spare parts and maintenance, but, because they lack funds, administrations are attracted by credit arrangements aimed at selling them expensive high-technology vehicles and mechanical equipment.

VI. STATE OF URBAN GOVERNANCE IN INDIA

Like many modern nation states, India is a democratic, sovereign republic with a federal governance structure bearing a center-state system. The division of powers is defined in Article 246 of the Indian Constitution (available at http://india.gov.in/govt/constitutions india.php, along with all of the amendments) under which 97 subjects of national importance-such as defense, foreign affairs, rail and highways, and interstate disputes-are under the Union List, 66 subjects are in the State List and 47 subjects are in the Concurrent List. It is worth noting that town planning, city planning, and civic or municipal management are not mentioned in any of these lists. Yet the subjects relevant to cities have been interpreted from the state list (public health and sanitation, hospital and dispensaries, land, works, taxes on land and buildings) and from the concurrent list (economic and social planning) to further legislate in the field. While City Improvement Trusts (the first institutions established in modern India to manage civic functions) have existed in India since the 19th century, it was the model Town and Country Planning Law of 1960, prepared by the TCPO under the government of India, that led to various state acts, forming the basis to establish town and country planning offices in the states and districts across the country.

The enactment of the Delhi Development Act (1957) was followed by a spate of formation of development authorities for cities and special areas to further planned urban development. However, the roles and responsibility of development authorities in the execution of essential municipal functions was not clear. As such, municipal bodies were formed by states under respective state acts to perform basic civic functions. As per the most recent report of the Central Finance Commission (CFC), out of 7,935 census towns in India there are 3,842 ULBS in the form of municipal corporations, municipalities, municipal councils, municipal boards, nagar panchayats, town councils and notified area councils exercising authority, powers and functions delegated by the state (CFC, 2010). In addition to the above, depending on certain specific needs of defense, industry, infrastructure, socioeconomics and shelter, center or state governments constitute countless boards, authorities and trusts to plan or manage particular areas, such as cantonments, special economic zones, industrial estates. estates, export regions or urban functions (e.g. city improvement, housing. shelter, heritage, power, water and sewerage). A sea change occurred in 1993 when, in order to decentralize power, the government conferred constitutional authority to the ULBs through the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (CAA), making them pillars for Tier-Ill governance, below the tier of the center and the states. This added Article 243 W (the 12th Schedule) defining 18 functions:

1. Urban planning including town planning
2. Regulation of land use and construction of buildings
3. Planning for economic and social development
4. Roads and bridges
5. Water supply for domestic, industrial and commercial purposes
6. Public health, sanitation conservancy and solid-waste management
7. Fire services
8. Urban forestry, protection of the environment and promotion of ecologi.
9. Cal aspects
10. Safeguarding the interests of weaker sections of society, including the mentally and physically disabled
11. Slum improvement and upgrading
12. Urban poverty alleviation
13. Provision of urban amenities and facilities, such as parks, gardens and playgrounds
14. Promotion of cultural, educational and aesthetic aspects

15. Burials and burial grounds cremations and cremation grounds and electric crematoriums
16. Cattle pounds: prevention of cruelty to animals
17. Vital statistics, including registration of births and deaths
18. Public amenities, including street lighting, parking lots, bus stops and public conveniences
19. Regulation of slaughterhouses and tanneries.

As is evident, most of the above provisions have a considerable influence on the mitigating capacities of a city. But without actual functions, jurisdictions and so on devolved to them by line departments, parastatal authorities, boards or trusts already functioning in urban areas, the CAA remains a law in spirit only

6.1 COMPONENTS OF EFFECTIVE URBAN GOVERNANCE

There are four key elements of effective urban governance

The city-national interface the effectiveness of urban governance is as much dependent on actors and local institutions as is on the interface set up by the government to connect the city with regional borders and national development. City level initiatives can only be effective when: national policies promote favorable policy ambience.

The accountability of the local governments varies across cities and countries, with institutions and frameworks being influenced by political, social and historical context. Responsibilities are allocated by the national government to different levels of administration, establishing electoral arrangements, designating territorial jurisdictions, developing proper accountability mechanisms and planning internal management structures.

Municipal Capacity - amplifying the capacity of municipal corporations to design, administer and finance urban growth is a primitive element of effective urban governance. It is crucial that every level of government has adequate capacity for ensuring that socio-economic planning and physical processes are legally enforced, well-coordinated, inclusive & cross-sectoral. However, there are multiple municipalities that lack resources, skill and capacity to meet their obligations.

Political systems and institutions-politics play a vital role in urban governance. It influences the development and operations of political organizations, government capacity to formulate and implement decisions & determines the magnitude to which these decisions acknowledge and reciprocate to the interest of the poor. Often the most valuable are ignored or excluded while making decisions. There are big lacunas between the poor and better-off urban inhabitants' access to political, economic and social opportunities and their capability to take part in and leverage the advantages of living in urban regions.

Additionally, key political economy limitations in urban sectors include the administration framework. urban poor's political agency, service delivery dynamics, opportunities for collective action, the prevalence of violence & conflict and the involvement of vulnerable groups.

6.2 URBAN GOVERNANCE POLICY AND FRAMEWORK

As Sheng (2010) abstractly explains, governance is 'the quality of the relationship between the government and the citizens' (p. 134). Operationally, it is defined as 'the quality of the process by which decisions are taken that affect public affairs, as well as the quality of the implementation and outcome of these decisions (Sheng, 2010, p. 134). The mute question is how responsible urban governance can also lead to CC mitigation.

First, mitigation of CC in a city is relevant to many of activities and governance matters, such as public health, transport, land use, development controls, local taxes, waste management and public which the local bodies are already committed to Second, there is growing recognition that investments in mitigation are particularly important in rapidly urbanizing middle-income countries because long-lived capital stock, once established, can lock in emissions for long periods (potentially centuries) (World Bank, 2010).

Historically, cities have been places of social, economic and political innovation. Though in high-income nations many city officials have demonstrated a stronger commitment to GHG reduction than national politicians (Satterthwaite, 2011), the case for an urbanizing India shows small and fragmented beginnings.

Yet it has been observed that deficient intergovernmental relations, inadequate popular local representation processes, weak subnational institutions and poor financing mechanisms to support subnational government forms pose critical questions for various stakeholders (McCarey, 2012). If the challenges of GC and reduced GHG emissions are to be met, then it is essential that we understand how to reduce energy demands and their undesirable environmental impacts in cities (Lindfield. 2010). To reduce the energy demand in the operation of cities, it is essential that we understand the way PROOF in which urbanization, city form, design, development density, logistics and urban-management systems can be made more efficient and effective.

In order to explore mitigation-inclusive urban governance, the most extensively mandated framework globally by UN Habitat and the OECD is followed. This reviews different modes of governance - that is, through self-governance, provision, regulation and enabling across various sectors, as discussed in detail below, and recommends suitable mitigation mechanisms therein.

6.3 MISSING METROPOLITAN PLANNING AND GOVERNANCE

A significant development in India’s structural transformation is that metropolitan regions are being created by default and not by design. The Constitution of India provides considerable discretion to state governments in determining the administrative boundaries of metropolitan regions, and these have not typically been set keeping in mind the need to create a unified market forging strong economic linkages between the core city and the periphery of the region. The constitution also requires that metropolitan

planning committees (MPCs) and district planning committees (DPCs) prepare development plans for their respective areas, although there is lack of clarity on how these plans will fit into a larger picture and how they will be financed. Though MPCs and DPCs have been formed in some states, even there they have not forged links with city planning authorities. They have also not been effective as regional planning agencies (Sivaramakrishnan, 2015).

6.4 THE URBAN SCENARIO IN INDIA

As the discussion in the preceding sections makes clear, India has been facing a major transforma- tion of its urban landscape. Because urbanization is not only a consequence of faster growth and development but also an instrument in promoting development through the economies of agglom- eration which characterize cities, the cost of unplanned urbanization is borne by not only the cities but the whole economy.

6.5 NATIONAL MISSION ON URBAN RENEWAL

The Government of India has taken a number of proactive steps toward urban rejuvenation in the past decade. The first step was taken in December 2005 by launching the JNNURM, which was designed to help urban renewal with partial investment support from the Government of India (JNNURM, 2005). The mission ran its course until April 2014. Subsequently, a number of new initiatives were announced by the Government of India in 2014 and 2015; that is, Clean India Campaign (Swachh Bharat), Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT), the Smart Cities Mission, and Housing for All, which are currently at different stages of planning and implementation.

In a federal framework, the challenges in the implementation of the national missions arise both from the resistance on the part of state governments to devolve functions, finance, and power to the local governments and from weak local government capacity to plan and manage new projects and programs. Because the metropolitan regions are becoming increasingly more important in the economic geography of India in its current stage of development, the missing middle of a functional metropolitan institutional framework poses an additional challenge for implementing projects with due regard for metropolitan and regional connectivity (Matkin & Frederickson, 2009). An assess- ment of JNNURM is presented below with a view to highlighting the lessons that must be incorporated in the design and implementation of the new urban missions.

VII.CONCLUSION:

The analysis in this article has highlighted the central importance of strengthening urban governance in India, especially in its current stage of development when the economy is going through a major structural transformation. It has argued that for India, as one of the largest and fastest growing economies in the world, and one in which urban population is only 33% of the total population but gathering momentum, planned urbanization is crucial for the sustainability of rapid growth and for improving the quality of life of the 420 million people living in Indian cities and towns.

Though investing in urban infrastructure to bridge the infrastructure investment deficit and upgrading its quality is very important, the analysis clearly suggests that institutional reforms are crucial both for reaching out to the private sector for sharing the financing burden of infrastructure and for ensuring that the expansion of infrastructure results in improved service delivery.

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