Working Paper

Resource Mobilisation for Urban Development: Some Options for and Experiences of ULBs in India

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Abstract

With the rising levels of urbanisation and growth of urban population, the pressure on development of cities is increasing in India, as elsewhere in the world. The development of cities primarily constitutes the development of land and housing as well as the provision of community infrastructure services (both physical and socioeconomic) for the growing population. The creation of urban development infrastructure (land, shelter and civic services) would require dispensing a large amount of resources by the urban local governments. The addition of other functions viz., urban poverty alleviation, urban transport, urban forestry and animal welfare, has further compounded the resource needs. Therefore, the Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) need to mobilise resources for meeting the pressures of urban development. Apart from reforming and strengthening conventional resources, it is suggested that the ULBs have to exploit the potential of non-conventional means of resource mobilisation.

Key Words: Urban development, municipal revenue, resource mobilisation, nonconventional approaches, land based resources

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Introduction

India has been experiencing a rapid growth of urban population since 1980s. and increasingly becoming urbanized, albeit at a steady pace. In terms of percentage of total urban population, according to the Census 2001, around 28 out of every 100 persons in the country reside in cities and towns as compared to only 11 per cent people living in urban areas in 1901. Table 1 provides data on the number of urban agglomerations/towns, total population, urban population and urban population as a percentage of total population for these units in India for various census years from 1901 to 2001. It clearly shows a steady growth in number of urban areas and the share of urban population to total population.

Census Year	Number of UAs/Towns	Total Population	Urban Population	Urban Population as % of Total Population
1901	1,830	238,396,327	25,851,873	10.8
1911	1,815	252,093,390	25,941,633	10.3
1921	1,944	251,321,213	28,086,167	11.2
1931	2,066	278,977,238	33,455,989	12.0
1941	2,253	318,660,580	44,153,297	13.9
1951	2,822	361,088,090	62,443,934	17.3
1961	2,334	439,234,771	78,936,603	18.0
1971	2,567	548,159,652	109,113,977	19.9
1981	3,347	683,329,097	159,462,547	23.3
1991	3,769	846,387,888	217,551,812	25.7
2001	4,378	1,028,610,328	286,119,689	27.8

Table 1: Number and Population of Urban Agglomerations and Towns in India

Note: 1. Urban Agglomerations, which constitute a number of towns and their outgrowths, have been treated as one unit.

2. The total population and urban population of India for the year 2001 includes estimated population of those areas of Gujarat and Himachal Pradesh where census could not be conducted due to natural calamities.

3. The total population and urban population of India for the year 1991 includes interpolated population of Jammu & Kashmir where census could not be conducted.

4. The total population and urban population of India for the year 1981 includes interpolated population of Assam where census could not be conducted.

Source: Census of India 2001

Table 2 also implies that that India has been growing very rapidly in the twentieth century, particularly after attaining independence, and it is characterized by rapid urbanization, particularly during the two decades of 1961-91. Table 2 also shows that the annual growth rate of India's total population as well as urban and rural population during this period were historically larger. The growth rate of urbanization during the latter half of the century almost doubled as compared to the first half of the century.

Census	Average Annual	Exponential Grov	vth in Population of
Decade	UAs/Towns		
	Total	Rural	Urban
1901-11	0.6	0.6	0.0
1911-21	0.0	-0.1	0.8
1921-31	1.0	1.0	1.7
1931-41	1.3	1.1	2.8
1941-51	1.2	0.8	3.5
1951-61	2.0	1.9	2.3
1961-71	2.2	2.0	3.2
1971-81	2.2	1.8	3.8
1981-91	2.1	1.8	3.1
1991-2001	1.9	1.7	2.7

 Table 2: Growth in Population of Urban Agglomerations/Towns: 1901-2001

Source: Census of India 2001

The rising population and the growth of urban areas raise an important question of how to provide and maintain the development infrastructure for an increasing number of people. The levels of income and expenditure of local governments are often abysmally low to take care of the responsibilities. The revenue base and expenditure levels of municipal corporations in India are far less when compared to that of the State and Central government. The revenue of municipal corporations accounts for less than 1% of the country's GDP (Other countries could contribute to 5% of the GDP) and the expenditure incurred by them is far less than the norms of service delivery¹.

¹ This was revealed in the RBI-DRG (2008) study on "Municipal Finance in India: An assessment".

An important reason for low level of spending on urban development infrastructure is the low importance given to it in the three-tiered system of government, which also affects its fiscal base and performance to a good extent. The 74th amendment to constitution was aimed at giving a boost to the importance of urban sector, but it contributed to the rise in mismatch of revenue resources and expenditure, as it specified only functional base (expanded the list) but remained silent on the fiscal resources to meet the same.

Along the increasing levels of urbanisation and rising urban population growth, the economic importance of Indian cities is also increasing in an era of globalisation; the development of urban infrastructure has to take place at a greater pace so as to absorb these pressures. In the absence of the same, a large number of people are forced to live in slums and squatter settlements, without adequate basic amenities and shelter. Yet, few municipal corporations in India have budgeted adequate fiscal resources for the urban infrastructure in general, and that for the benefit of urban poor in particular. This, in turn, brings forth the need for the cities to mobilise adequate resources to deal with the issues arising from urban poverty, which is increasing at a greater pace.

This paper reviews the current revenue sources of the Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) for undertaking urban infrastructure development and for the urban poor first. Later, the conventional resource mobilisation means of the ULBs is explained in terms of the municipal finance base. Suitable options for resource mobilisation – both conventional and non-conventional methods – in the cities in order to finance the development projects and programmes in general and in order to the provide basic service for the poor, in particular. Finally, the experience of undertaking some of the reforms for improving resources/special efforts of resource mobilisation is also discussed.

2. Resource requirements of Urban Development

The investment requirements for development of urban infrastructure in India are colossal. Estimates of fund requirements for urban infrastructure are available from several sources. The Rakesh Mohan Committee Report (1996) (also known as India Infrastructure Report) had estimated that the total investment requirements of urban infrastructure were in the range of Rs.79,300 crores to Rs.94,000 crores for the period 1996-2001. The fund requirements for water supply and toilet facilities in urban areas was estimated at Rs.21,000 crores for 2001-2011 and Rs 22,800 crores for 2011-2021. The Report had also assessed that the total annual investment needs of water supply, sanitation and road sectors in urban area at Rs.28,036 crores per year for the period 1996-2006.

Water supply and sanitation are important basic needs that affect the quality of life and productive efficiency of the people. Provision of these basic services continues to be among the core activities of the ULBs. About 89 per cent of urban population has access to water supply and 63 per cent of urban population has access to sewerage and sanitation facilities (Economic Survey, Government of India, 2004-05). These data, however, only relate to access, which is different from quantity of water and quality of service. The quantity as well as quality of water and the services provided often fall short of the relevant norms.

The Tenth Five Year Plan also emphasized upon the provision of these important urban infrastructure facilities with the norms of 100 per cent coverage of urban population with water supply facilities, and 75 per cent of urban population with sewerage and sanitation by the end of Tenth Plan period i.e., March 31, 2007. The funds required for water supply, sanitation and solid waste management during Tenth Plan period (2002-2007) were estimated at Rs 53,719 crores. As against this, the likely availability of funds from different sources has been estimated at Rs 35,800 crores, which will fall short of the required funds by 33.4 per cent (Table 3).

Estimates of Requirements of Funds		Likely Availability from Different Sources	
Water Supply	28,240	Central Government	2,500
Sanitation	23,157	State Governments	20,000
Solid Waste Management	2,322	HUDCO	6,800
Total:-	53,719	LIC	2,500
		Other PFs & External	4,000
		Funding Agencies	
		Total	35,800

 Table 3: Funds Requirement/Availability for Water Supply, Sanitation and Solid

 Waste Management in the Tenth Plan (Rupees Crores)

Source: Economic Survey, 2004-05, Government of India.

The Central Public Health Engineering Organisation (CPHEO) has estimated the requirement of funds for 100 per cent coverage of urban population under safe water supply and sanitation services by the year 2021 at Rs 1,72,905 crores. Estimates by Rail India Technical and Economic Services (RITES) indicate that the amount required for urban transport infrastructure investment in cities with a population of 1,00,000 or more during the next 20 years would be of the order of Rs 2,07,000 crores (RBI-DRG 2008). Obviously, the resources of these magnitudes cannot be easily mobilised from within the budgetary resources of Central, State and Local Governments.

The Central Government, having realized the seriousness of urbanization pressures and having understood the importance of urban areas in promoting economic growth, started an attempt to provide investment support to the tune of Rs 4,000 crores in the annual budget of year 2004 through National Urban Renewal Mission (NURM). This has been later renamed as Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) with the pledging of support to an extent of Rs 50,000 crores over 5 years time period. However, the budgets of State governments do not pledge such large commitment as they have a number of development priorities on which a large amount is spent by them.

3. Revenue Sources of ULBs

Apart from the fund flows from upper tiers of government in the form of grant or development funds, the ULBs would require adequate funds from their own sources to meet the objectives of facilitating urban development. Table 4 shows category-wise sources of revenue of ULBs in India. Most of the ULBs use tax sources and grants to finance their activities, while the other sources of revenue are often ignored or not tapped to the potential that exists. For example, public debt available from market – both institutional and individual/retail investors – is rarely accessed to finance the creation of new urban development infrastructure.

<i>Revenue Head/ Category</i>	Sources of revenue
	Property Tax, Octroi, Advertisement Tax, Tax on Animals, Vacant Land Tax, Taxes on Carriages and Carts
Non-Tax revenue	User Charges, Municipal Fees, Sale & Hire Charges, Lease amounts
	Sundry receipts, Law charges costs recovered, Lapsed deposits, Fees, Fines & Forfeitures, Rent on Tools & Plants, Miscellaneous Sales etc.
Assigned (Shared) revenue	Entertainment Tax, Surcharge on Stamp duty, Profession Tax, Motor Vehicles Tax
	(i) Plan Grants made available through planned transfers from upper tier of Government under various projects, programmes and schemes (ii)Non-Plan Grants made available to compensate against the loss of income and some specific transfers
	Loans borrowed by the local authorities for capital works etc. – HUDCO, LIC, State and Central Governments, Banks and Municipal Bonds

Table 4: Municipal Revenue Sources in India

The RBI-DRG Study (2008) pointed to several inadequacies in raising resources by the Urban Local Bodies (ULBs). The finances of ULBs clearly reflect a sorry state of affairs – the revenue receipts grow at a slow pace with a declining contribution of own sources, whereas the total expenditure grows at the rate equal or more than revenue. Much of the expenditure (almost 50-60% of total) goes towards staff salaries and O&M expenses². Several ULBs do not have any revenue account surplus to transfer to capital account. This situation needs to be corrected through augmentation of resources at ULB level. It is imperative that the ULBs themselves make special efforts to mobilize the available resources within their jurisdiction and channel them effectively towards laying down the urban infrastructure services and their maintenance.

RBI – DRG Study (2008) also pointed that tax and non-tax resources have not been tapped upto their potential by several ULBs in India, for which reform initiatives need to be undertaken. Property tax is an important tax resource wherein some cities have undertaken reforms to improve the base, but these innovations were limited. User charges are yet to be risen to such levels that they contribute adequately to the resource base of the municipal corporations. The intergovernmental transfers/grants should be used to help them in providing better infrastructure service delivery, particularly with respect to the urban poor.

While raising resources for urban development and for infrastructure service delivery to the poor, the golden rules of Bahl and Linn (1992) shall be referred:

- Where benefits and beneficiaries are identifiable, levy user charges
- Where benefits are identifiable and beneficiaries are not identifiable, levy benefit taxes
- Where neither benefits nor beneficiaries are identifiable, levy general taxes
- Where administration and other expenses are involved, levy fees & charges
- Where long gestation capital works are undertaken, use bonds/ debt

² This was revealed in the RBI-DRG (2008) study in which the author was in research team.

4. Resource Mobilization at Local level: Some Options

Municipal Resource mobilization needs not only strengthening the existing revenue sources but also using other sources of revenue. Therefore, both conventional and non-conventional sources need to be tapped to the extent possible within the City. The ULBs may benchmark their levy and utilization with reference to the better performing peers within the State as well as outside it. The ULBs may use the general principles of users pay, beneficiaries pay and polluters pay to the justification such that the citizens are well aware of the need for their contribution towards larger societal cause. Table 5 shows conventional and non-conventional resources that can be tapped by the ULBs.

S. No.	Service Revenue		Non-Conventional Source
	Source	Source	
1	Property related	Composite	Vacant Land Tax, Service Taxes,
		Property Tax	Surcharge on Land Registration Duty
2	Water Supply	Water Charges	Water Supply Donations, Water
	Related		Supply Connection Charges, Water
			Benefit Tax, Water Betterment
			Charges
3	Sewerage Related	Sewerage	Sewerage Donations, Sewerage
	_	Charges	Connection Charges, Sewerage
		_	Benefit Tax, Sewerage Betterment
			Charges
4	Solid Waste	Conservancy	Bulk Garbage Collection Charges
	Management	Charges	
	Related	U	
5	Town Planning	Building	Betterment Charges; External
	Related	Permit Fee,	Betterment Charges; Open Space
		Development	Contribution; Impact fee;
		Charges	Transferable Development Right;
		0	Premium FSI, Sub-division charges;
			Planning Permission Betterment
6	Engineering	No Sources	Road Cutting Charges, Street Tax,
	Related		Frontage Tax, Cess on Infrastructure,
			Motor Vehicle Tax/Surcharge on
			Tax on Petrol and Diesel

 Table 5 Conventional and Non-conventional revenue sources

7	Trade Licensing	Trade	Business License Fee
	Related	Licensing Fee	
8	Advertisement	Advertisement	Hoarding Charges, Advertisement
	Related	Tax	Placement Fees, Cable TV Fee, TV
			Advertisement Charges
9	Shops and	Shop Room	Royalty on Auctions
	Establishment	Rent	
	Related		

The ULBs need to exploit various land based revenues, which have greater implication to urban growth and development and concomitant problems like slum formation, redevelopment, rehabilitation and resettlement. The funds realized from land based revenue sources can be effectively deployed for the improvement of urban poor people living in the slum areas. Several of these sources may already exist in the ULBs but the potential of the same may not have been exploited to fullest extent. Also, there are several other forms of revenues (or, variants of revenues) that need to be tapped and exploited. Table 6 lists out the various land related revenue sources that can be exploited by the ULBs for mobilizing resources.

Table 3: Exploiting Land-related Revenues in ULBs

Tax Variant	Base of Source
Site Value Tax	Current land rental or capital value of land
Land Gains Tax	Land capital gains – accruals in land Values
_	Increment in land values due to specific public expenditures including infrastructure
Development Gains Tax/Conversion Tax	Change of "Lower" to "Higher" land use (Once–and–for-all levy)
Purchasable Development Right	Purchase of development right
Auctionable Development Right	Purchase of development right in open auction – Land with FSI in auction in centres

Zoning	Obligation on Developers to install infrastructure or make certain land/facility available for community purpose e.g. Free land assignment
Land Transfer Tax	Stamp Duty connected with change of 'ownership' rather than change of `use'
Vacant Land Tax	Capital value of land not used for any purpose
Property Tax	Rental value or capital value of property – Self-Assessment

5. Resource Mobilisation of ULBs: Experience of Some States

There are few municipal corporations in India that have managed to turn around their financial position and positioned themselves as successful cases that are emulation worthy. Ahmedabad and Indore are two such cities, which came out with some innovative methods of improving resource mobilisation:

- Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation was the first ULB in India to raise resources to the tune of Rs 100 crores through a general obligation bond. It has streamlined its octroi operations and reformed property tax levy in order to back up the debt service obligations of the bond. Though the resources raised from bond remained idle for two years due to procedural bottlenecks, the work tenders have shown a 10-15% decline in the costs quoted that resulted in some savings.
- Indore Municipal Corporation has prepared a city development strategy and undertaken a series of reform measures to raise revenues, particularly the property tax revenue, which helped it to turn around from a losing municipal corporation. The reform initiatives of Indore Municipal Corporation were largely kept simple but doable so that the time and ground do not get lost. Also, it focused on the management innovations, such as better decisions based on information systems, which made a quality difference.

The states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka have come out with different institutional set-ups that leveraged the strengths of a pooled finance mechanism in order to raise resources through the issuance of bonds that helped them in successfully undertaking the water supply and sanitation projects and in meeting with the stipulated terms of the bond issuance.

The Gujarat experience has shown that (a) land being a scarce but important resource needs to be mobilised, such as through the awarding of development rights, town planning schemes (TPS), plot/layout readjustment and additional FSI/FAR, and (b) it needs to be used efficiently by the way of levy of various taxes, fees and charges for financing the development. Under the TPS of the Gujarat state, more than 250 schemes were implemented and 265 are being undertaken, in which land acquisition is made on awarding compensatory value of land – either land or development rights or money.

The Andhra Pradesh state has also used land based instruments for resource mobilisation to a good level to finance the urban development projects. A new but simplified system of property tax, based on 5 major parameters, was adopted. The public was informed about the rental value arrived from the simplified formula and objections were called for before property tax assessment returns filed by them. Vacant land tax, development charges, impact fee and goodwill auctions were also used widely to generate additional resources for the urban local bodies. Recently, based on the success of APUSP, Indira Kranthi Patham (IKP) Urban was launched that focuses on resource mobilisation for the urban poor organised under SHGs through bank linkages.

Mumbai has already a large resource base but there are numerous problems in the property taxation system, like the inequities present in the current method of levy which resulted in large number of litigations and political patronage to the affected. A new capital-based property tax system is now proposed in a simplified form so that some of these shortcomings could be overcome. Together with it, some interesting proposals were made like the accidental death insurance to tax payers through a welfare fund and exemptions to vulnerable groups. Ahmedabad has also simplified its property tax system which is now based on certain basic parameters and it has been delinked from the rent control act. An important step is also that the tax collection system has been improved by allowing payment through 16 city civic centres and 13 bank branches.

Maharashtra has shown a wide range of experience with respect to the mobilisation of resources for financing urban development. Land banking model was developed by the Magarpatta city with the active participation of the citizens, under which they would surrender land in lieu of an equal share of the development company. The development company would develop and sell land for the various uses and utilises the proceeds for further development of infrastructure. Pune has used transferable development rights (TDR) for acquiring land for development, which is modelled on the already successful experience of using TDR in Mumbai for wide range of purposes like road/ reservation/ slum development. Likewise, e-tendering in Aurangabad has resulted in better contract awarding system and lowered the cost by 5-10%.

6. Summary and Conclusions

Resource Mobilisation is important for meeting the challenges of growing urban population and their needs of municipal services. In the absence of supply of such urban development infrastructure, more number of people are forced to live with poor services and quality of life that hampers the economic and human development. Municipal services are critical for the urban poor, in particular. The municipalities and municipal corporations cannot afford to condone the resource mobilisation function, if they have to improve upon the above.

The conventional means of resource mobilisation i.e., tax and non-tax resources, themselves offer a great potential for improvement. The successful experience of several cities points to the potential for improvement in property tax revenue in terms of (a) rationalising property taxation, (b) reforming the levy and assessment methods, (c) periodic revision and even (d) correcting some inequities (as in Mumbai). Adoption by other cities has to be accelerated through some kind of incentive and disincentive measures, as is done to some extent under the JNNURM.

The non-conventional/ alternative means of resource mobilisation are more important when conventional resources have limited scope and when new means are required. Land banking, land readjustment, transferable development rights and e-procurement are some of the means by which financial resources on land acquisition can be constrained. The municipal bodies need to become aware of the potential.

Although resource mobilisation by alternative means of levy or by using different models can be used to generate adequate resources to the city/ urban local body, it is also important to make sure that this is linked to investments for the improvement of urban poor on one hand and to improve the municipal functioning on the other. It is important to come out with 'ear marking mechanisms' which ensure that the resources raised are adequately devoted to the up-gradation/ development of poor slum settlements, and equally to ensure that there is no slipping on the undertaking of the municipal reforms that actually drive the improvement in municipal performance with respect to service delivery.

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