Chapter - 7

Summary and Conclusion

This is a study on “Politics of access to drinking water in urban areas in India: State and market interventions – A case study of Hyderabad.” It is divided into seven chapters. Chapter-I is an Introduction; Chapter-II is about Urbanization and Challenges of Water Provisioning; Chapter-III presents a discussion on Indian State and Provisioning for Drinking Water; Chapter-IV critically analyses Involvement of Private Sector and Civil Society Organizations; Chapter-V highlights arguments for Provisioning Drinking Water in Hyderabad; Chapter-VI presents Case Study, while Chapter-VII Summarises the study with recommendations.

This chapter is divided into two sections; section one is a summary of the earlier discussions, two lists the findings. What follows is a summary focussed on the politics, the issues and the debates on the provisioning for water to the people in urban areas.

7.1 Summary

A comprehensive discussion preceded the issue of provisioning drinking water in urban areas in India with special reference to the role of State, private sector and civil society organisations. The endeavour of this exercise is to know the politics of inter-relation in provisioning for drinking water to the people and highlight people’s access to drinking water vis-a-vis State policies.

The debates include changing perspectives on drinking water policy from the known past to the present; how water provisioning is perceived differently at different times. From being a community managed property or a common property resource (CPR), water policy metamorphosed into a commodity to be bought and sold! The process got impetus with the globalisation process. At the macro level though a think tank started with a more holistic approach in the 1970s’ for water resource development, by the early 1990s’ the tone had changed for more market centric approach and commercially viable projects. The neo-liberal policies after the
1980s’ called for withdrawal of the state as the primary service provider to the citizens. The withdrawal of the state from public provisioning and its implications has been cautioned by several authors. In an interesting work Vandana Shiva, *Water Wars: Privatisation, Pollution and Profit* (2002) cautioned against the free market and the process of globalisation which eventually leads to the shift of control of resources from local communities to the private sector and the transnational global operators. Going a step forward Amita Baviskar in her important work *Waterscapes: the Cultural Politics of a Natural Resource (ed)* (2007) argues that neo-liberal prescriptions about water management have not only encouraged privatisation, but also “refashioned the State into the image of a corporation.” The debate is further continued in an important observation by Amit Bhaduri in his article on the “Predatory Growth” (2008). He argued that the market-based approach is biased in favour of the rich and often involves irreversible damage to the environment. The debate is further enriched by Ramaswamy Iyer in his interesting work *Water: Perspective, Issues and Concerns* (2003). He argues that issues of equity, social justice and sustainability are not necessarily the concerns of the market. Therefore in a market system, whoever has ability to purchase will be the first to be served leaving the majority to compete for little resource. While the neo liberal policies are pursued in the name of efficiency, the results of efficiency do not guarantee distributional equity in basic social services is argued by Amarty Sen in his pioneering work *Development as Freedom* (1999). The argument is further strengthened by Joseph Stieglitz in his work *Globalisation and its Discontents* (2002). He argued that as a consequence of the fast implementation of liberalisation and the globalisation, there is discernible increase in destitution and social conflict. The argument here is that the neo-liberal policies have an adverse impact on the marginalised section.

However, contrary to this there are also authors who supported policies that give the market an upper hand. They argue that the state institutions are unable to handle a vast area of operation such as provisioning of services to the people. There is no efficiency, economy or effectiveness and red tapism is widely prevalent in the functioning of state agencies. Among those who demand attention are the works of Terence R Lee. In an important work, *Water Management in the 21st Century: the Allocation Imperative* (1999) Lee argued that water needs to be both priced and traded
in the interest of water use and efficiency. Ruet, Saravanan and Zerah in their work entitled, “The Water and Sanitation Scenario in Indian Metropolitan Cities: Resources and Management in Delhi, Calcutta, Chennai, Mumbai” (2002) argued that failure of public systems in terms of the duration, regularity and dependability of supply and the quality of the water provided, made water markets flourish in cities. They suggest that the challenges of future water demand can be met through water markets. Work of Pereira, Maravall and Prezeworski, *Economic Reforms in New Democracies: A Social Democratic Approach* (1993), elaborated that state must be market oriented to be successful and market must replace state. Continuing the trade in water argument Saleth and Dinar in their work, “Satisfying Urban Thirst: Water Supply Options and Pricing Policy in Hyderabad City” (1997), opined that water is expected to be transferred from less efficient uses such as irrigation which has less value to more efficient use in urban areas having higher returns. Dinar and Subramanian in an important publication entitled, “Policy Implications from Water Pricing Experiences in Various Countries” (2002), argued that trading in water rights promotes water use efficiency as markets allocate water to the highest paying user. The argument is supplemented by Rogersa, DeSilva and Bhatia in their work, “Water is an Economic Good: How to Use Prices to Promote Equity, Efficiency, and Sustainability” (2002). They argued that price of water reflects its true cost. The best way in their opinion is to utilize water is by putting a price on water, and evolve appropriate tariff structures to meet different social, political and economic goals in different situations.

Calling for a more vibrant private sector participation in the water service delivery sector they called for a smaller role for State and the penetration of market in the provisioning of basic services.

Here it is of interest for any student of public policy to understand; (1) the penetration of market to the social service provisioning to the people, (2) what is the degree of market penetration, and (3) why market penetrated into the social sector?

It is in this context that the researcher has taken up the study in water sector. However, the implication of the study is not only confined to water sector but also to other social sectors such as transport, energy etc. It will be of interest to anyone that the globalization process has called for ‘return on investments’. Investment here is the allocation to a particular social sector by the State. In other words, it is the cost
recovery approach to service delivery, which further gets strengthened with the World Bank and IMF’s conditionalities for loans. Further, citizens who were referred to as ‘users’ or ‘beneficiaries’ earlier are now called as ‘customers’ or ‘consumers’.

Slowly the political control over decision making got diluted and sometimes dictated by non-state actors. The elected representatives are less responsive towards people’s problems and are more tuned to the voices of aid agencies. This led to the segmentation and identification of people according to their economic capability. Consequently the distribution of water has taken an inequitable character resulting in social conflicts among the users. The dynamics of conflicts revolved around the need for survival and marketisation of the same.

On the other hand, there is demand for declaring water as a right. While the debate continues, the issue remains inconclusive owing to noncommittal stand of nation states which are more comfortable with the identification of water as a basic human need. The fact that drinking water found a place in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) making it as a sort of policy obligation consequent to declaring it as a right has a political dimension to it.

Apparently the inclusion of the access to drinking water as a right suggests a new concern on the part of ‘nation states’ legitimised by UN’s MDGs. However a closer look at its inclusion and subsequent expectation of the UN and other agencies that nation state has to evolve a new policy regime for realisation of the right according to critical observers’ smacks of politics. If one goes by the budgetary and other constraints it will be clear that the rights based approach towards water has to take into account new policy regimes which spell privatisation of water sources, public private partnerships and a host of other policy instruments which may eventually lead to comodification of water. On the other hand, the civil society organisations as the undeclared champion of the marginalised class are vying for some accommodation and constantly keep a vigil on the process.

The process gets its legitimacy on the face of inability of state provisioning for drinking water to urban people. The rapid pace of urbanisation has fuelled the demand for drinking water needs. The policy response is by identifying new sources with big budgetary schemes such as Krishna River and Godavari River. Since the State lacks
the financial ability to execute such schemes, it is often taken up with the assurances of financial assistance from the World Bank.

On the other hand, this reflects the weak planning capacity of the State. Yet the people are made to believe that government cannot do beyond this. Since consumption of water is directly linked to health a situation is created in which people are compelled to opt for buying purified water. This automatically created a demand for such provisioning which is in the private sector. The argument of efficiency, economy and effectiveness is brought here to justify the claim. It is argued water needs to be priced and traded to bring efficiency and economy in water uses.

It is a well known fact that people prefer to have an independent water connection mainly for better access to water. State policy is expected to facilitate universal access to water. However, it is seen that at the micro level there are several administrative and other bottlenecks to get connected to the organised water supply system. For example, the primary requirement for water connection is the legal land tenure in the absence of which a person is not entitled to have a valid individual water supply connection. In this process, a large section of people in urban areas had to remain outside the purview of the organised water supply. Further people are expected to pay a hefty amount of money towards water connection fee! While for the rich it may be common but for poor, it is beyond their reach! Therefore, the poor get excluded. Further water supply is based on the people’s ability to pay for it. In this way, State policy has created segmentation of the society in terms of economic capability. Hence people having higher economic capability, has easier access both through state and market mechanism. This is the case perhaps with other essential services too.

The political culture that has entrenched into the society and people is how to get things done even without processes. To get early access to water, what seems to work more efficiently is personal contacts and money power. William Reno (1995) in an interesting work on Shadow State comprehensively analyses this phenomena. According to him, it is the product of personal rule constructed behind the disguise of de jure state sovereignty. Here the state functions outside formal institutions. The rulers have vital interest in making the lives of their population less secure and more
materially impoverished, since this encourages individuals to seek the ruler’s personal favour to secure exemption from these conditions. Therefore governance bears the characteristics of traditional authority where the obedience of a population is owed not to enacted rules but to the person who occupies a position by authority. Such growth outside the arena of state institutions has a negative impact for healthy growth of democracy.

It is often held that state is unable to meet the ever increasing demand for water. The inability of the State agencies to meet the ever increasing demand for water has left the people at the mercy of private sector. They are primarily the informal water suppliers through tankers or the more organised water markets. There is no worthwhile regulating or monitoring authority on the water quality that is being marketed by such agencies.

The major sufferers of the emerging situation are the middle class and the low income groups staying in improvised conditions. When there is unrest over supply of drinking water the elected leaders grant some arrangement for water supply such as providing a tanker or a Public Stand Posts (PSPs). However, there is no political commitment to back the provisioning and make permanent arrangement. Therefore the problem recurs again and again. This creates conducive atmosphere for nurturing leadership and constituency due to scarcity. For example in Adikmet, the study area the number of public stand posts in the last two years has come down to 37 from 57 forcing the people to buy water even though there is increase in population.

While the State provisioning deprives assured and easy access to the marginalised, the market mechanism has further led to massive deprivation. The process has become more insidious with the market making inroads directly into the houses of people through expensive mechanisms such as bore wells and other equipments to draw water in an unsustainable manner in the absence of a secured State water supply. This has put question mark to the sustainability of the resource itself.

Therefore it is clear that access to water in urban areas is in an anarchic situation. The details of water supply are not appropriate but are based on approximation which can be contested. On the other hand, the mismanaged migration of people to urban areas has challenged the State’s ability to provide water to all.
There is no mechanism to control and manage the migrant people neither there is any mechanism to keep a record. The emerging situation is chaotic. Therefore, we don’t know when the crisis blows off.

Let’s examine it from another dimension. It is seen people who have voting right have no problem in accessing State provisioned civic services. Especially in the issue of water it works in two ways. One, since some people are termed as illegal occupants they are not given a voter Id card neither any state official is concerned for their need nor there is anyone on their behalf to demand. On the other hand, since they do not have voting right, the elected representatives and the political parties see it worthless effort to provide them with civic services such as water! It may be mentioned here that, today it is voter ID cards tomorrow it may be water ID cards issued by water supply bodies such as the Hyderabad Metropolitan Water Supply and Sewerage Board (HMWS&SB). Those not having water ID cards will not be supplied water. There is already a move to issue Unique Identification cards (UID) by the Government of India in addition to the already issued ones like voter Ids, ration card, PAN card etc. The question is how many ID cards a person is expected to have. Moreover, the State authorities are liberated of any responsibility towards these people terming them as illegal occupiers not counting as valid citizens for planning. There is no mechanism to monitor the migrants from places around urban areas. So, the plans do not include them. Therefore access to democratic institutions and people’s Right to vote can be directly linked to right to water. The same has been proved in the case of Comrade Ramakrishna Huts in Adikmet where neither politicians nor officials of the HMWS&SB visited before issuance of voter Ids. As they are voters now, they receive some attention. Needless to mention that those without voting rights stand excluded.

Therefore to examine and to understand the debate in its entirety, the researcher took up a study and selected Hyderabad which is the fifth largest metropolis in India. Provisioning basic services to the people in a city like Hyderabad is not an easy task. The Government of Andhra Pradesh opted for reforms as part of an attempt to meet the new challenges in this sector. Provisioning of drinking water to the people in Hyderabad is not immune to the process of globalization.
The impact of reforms, policy response at a macro level and its effects cannot be understood without a primary, field-based, micro level study which involves direct contacts with the users or beneficiaries. Therefore, the study is an empirical study and involved extensive field level survey, interviews and discussions for 107 days with the residents of the sample area, i.e. Adikmet in Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh. Further details of the method and instrument employed for pursuing the objectives are discussed subsequently.

The next section presents chapter wise summary of the thesis.

The introduction chapter discussed at length current debates on the issue of access to drinking water in urban areas in India. India being a heterogeneous society consisting of rich-poor, divisions on the basis of caste, class, provisioning water to all unarguably is a daunting task. A review of main arguments noted that newly independent State started with a welfare approach and reached a situation where it found inherent difficulties in it. While there is pressure on the State from its citizens to deliver services like water, it came under increased pressure from diverse forces to downsize its role in less than 50 years. Consequently, the expectation from private sector increased resulting in a more ‘market-centric’ approach to service delivery. On the other hand, the demand for a rights’ based approach to water planning and policy is strengthened as the deprivation level increased in urban areas. Large number of writers commented on it. Some of them include; Shiva (1991), Sen (1999), Ramchandriah and Prasad (2004), Singh (2006), Baviskar (2007), Banerjee and Somanathan (2007), Dubash (2007), Mosse (2007), and Mehta (2008).

There is an increasing demand for water in urban areas. Neither it can be ignored nor sidelined because the contribution coming from urban areas constitutes 60% of the country’s GDP. The increase in the demand for water in urban areas is consequent to an increase in migration to urban areas and a rapid urbanisation is discussed in chapter two. It has thrown new challenges for water provisioning. Authors like Biswas (1976), Rao (1985), Kundu (1983), Rangaswamy (1993), Shivaramakrishnan (1998), Ruet, Saravanan and Zerah (2002), Llorente and Zerah (2003), Rao and Dev (2003), Mohan and Dasgupta (2004), Gujja and Shaik (2005),
Gupta (2005), Iyer (2005), and Kundu and Singh (2005) have discussed on these issues.

In response to a growing demand for water, the state has attempted to adopt adequate policy at appropriate time. A detailed examination of the policy and schemes that the government had adopted over the past decades is taken up in chapter three. However, it is realised that providing water to all has remained an unfinished agenda of the government. Several writers who argued on this include, Singh (1991), Ramanathan (1992), Nandy (1998), Ruet, Saravan and Zerah (2002), Iyer (2003), Llorente and Zerah (2003), McKenzie and Ray (2004), Banerjee and Somanathan (2007), Panickar (2007), and Ballabh (2008).

The inability of the state mechanism to meet the growing demand for water has led to different judgments. While one section put pressure on the State mechanism to deliver other argue for non-state actors (such as the private and voluntary sector) to deliver services such as water. The second set of argument surpassed owing to the reform in state sector is deliberated in chapter four. A number of authors have debated on this. Some of them include; Bardhan (1984), Maheswari (1986), Leftwich (1994), Pereira, Maravall and Prezeworski (1993), Williamson (1993), Saleth and Dinar (1997), Atack (1999), Abrahamsen (2000), Briscoe and Garn (2002), Gleick (2002), Rogersa, de Silva and Bhatia (2002), Saleth (2002), Shiva (2002), Ghosh (2003), Iyer (2004), Holland (2005) and Iyer (2005).

Chapter five analysed the provisioning of drinking water to the people of Hyderabad. While debating the rapid demographic growth of Hyderabad it identified the consequent challenges it posed for the civic authorities. The inability of the Hyderabad Metropolitan Water Supply and Sewerage Board (HMWS&SB) to meet the ever growing demand for water of the people in Hyderabad has fuelled the private players in the form of packaged water and tanker water supply to proliferate rapidly. On the other hand, several civil society and voluntary organisations in the city have continuously campaigned putting pressure on the HMWS&SB as well as the government for better water delivery to the people.

Chapter six analysed the data collected from the field, Adikmet Sub Zone – 1 of Adikmet Water Supply Zone (O&M Division no – 5 of HMWS&SB). An analysis of different aspects of water supply in Adikmet area is done.
7.2 Objectives

The chapters discussed in brief above are consequent to the objectives set for the study. The following are major objectives of the study.

- To present the changing role of the State in providing drinking water to its citizens in urban areas and also the politics involved.
- To examine the politics of inter-relations between the State and the market.
- To analyse the State policies on water.
- To discuss stages of private provisioning of drinking water.
- To explore the role of civil society organisations vis-a-vis right to water.

On changing role of the state vis-a-vis provisioning for drinking water many writers commented. It may be recalled here that the State since 1980’s has been showing a marked departure from public provisioning of drinking water. It needs to be stated that authorities like Vandana Shiva (1991), Kapur & Webber (2000), Sen (1999), Kohli (1991) and others have extensively worked on this trend. The researcher reviewed the works of Saleth and Dinar (1997), Ramchandriah and Prasad (2004), Singh (2006), Baviskar (2007), and Banerjee and Somanathan (2007). Discussion on this can be found in the thesis in Chapter-1 (pp. 1-34), Chapter-2 (pp. 55-61) and Chapter-3, (pp. 81-103). The departure made way for other agencies such as the market or private sector and the civil society to step in. Detailed discussion finds a place in Chapter-4 (pp.114-39) and Chapter-5 (pp. 164-70).

The second objective of the study describes how downsizing of State agencies took place with consequent rise in the market oriented reforms and greater role for the private sector. This led to the commoditisation of water resources. This ignited the debate on the publicness of water. Discussion on this can be found in Chapter-1 (pp. 3-13, 24-5) and Chapter-4 (pp.115-18, 125-30) in the thesis.

The distribution of drinking water to the people as a consequence of state policy is examined. It may be mentioned here that the State segmented people based on their economic ability in order to access water. Apparently it is clear that people who are able to pay demand first priority in water supply. A detail deliberation can be seen in Chapter-2 (pp. 62-71), Chapter-3 (pp. 103-08), Chapter-5 (pp. 158-63) and Chapter-6 (pp. 179-200).
The adoption of reforms post 1980s’ for a smaller State role, the role of private sector is emphasised which is echoed in the State’s planning for water. Since the Eighth Five Year Plan, the involvement of private sector from planning to delivery of drinking water is emphasised. On the other hand, there are several MNCs and small time private water suppliers catering to the needs of people in urban areas. Therefore, the private sector apart from playing a partnership role is also involved in direct supply of water to the people. A detailed debate is taken up in Chapter-2 (p. 61), Chapter-3 (p. 94), Chapter-4 (pp. 116-27) and Chapter-5 (pp. 164-65, 167-68).

Civil society organisation and its role are re-invented with the emergence of governance reforms. They are regarded as the third sector and are playing an important role for the cause of access to basic services by the marginalised section. They primarily work as pressure group putting pressure on government machinery to effectively deliver services but also sometimes involved in direct service delivery to the people. An analysis of this trend can be found in Chapter-3 (p. 94), Chapter-4 (pp. 130-39) and Chapter-5 (pp. 168-69).

7.3 Method

To test the above objectives the researcher has chosen stratified sampling method. The target groups are divided into three categories, i.e. independent households, slum households with individual water connection and slum dwellings without individual water connection. For selecting the exact sample systematic sampling is applied i.e. every 50th household in case of first two category and every 10th households in case of the third category. The sample is without replacement. Therefore there is non-coverage because of the non-availability of people in some households even after repeated visits. The number of actual sample studied is 246 (the estimated sample is 290), 136 independent households, 78 slums households with water connection and 32 slum dwellings without individual water connection constitute the slum. It constitutes 5% of the total households in case of first two categories and 10% in the third category. Income wise the sample belongs to higher income groups, middle income groups and low income groups. An interview schedule is administered to the respondents. A majority of the respondents are women. Three Focussed Group Discussions with selected residents are carried out to supplement the
field data. Several officials of the Hyderabad Metropolitan Water Supply & Sewerage Board (HMWS&SB) are interviewed which helped in crosschecking the data. Descriptive statistics is applied to analyse the data collected. The area selected for the study is Adikmet and Comrade Ramakrishna Huts, in Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh. A map of Adikmet is presented in chapter six (p.177).

The next section highlights the major findings from the field.

7.4 Findings

Irregular and erratic water supply, inequitable distribution, lack of adequate allocation to this sector and poor physical infrastructures continue to plague the system. On the other hand, the losses owing to poor distribution and transmission practices are enormous and sometimes as high as half the water actually delivered. The people most affected in such a system are the powerless. It is observed that people of all strata especially lower are migrating to the urban areas for better livelihood options. It has rapidly increased the process of urbanisation and population growth in urban areas compounding the problems of already problem ridden state agencies dealing with water distribution. While the agencies attempted to provide drinking water to all, lack of adequate infrastructure and low financial allocation prevents them from any concrete result.

Further the issue of water is not only concerned with engineers and bureaucrats. For example, in Adikmet the engineer whose designation has since been changed to manager is more concerned with managing people. His primary responsibility is not engineering related but management of people. Moreover, by creating a separate specialised agency the HMWS&SB in Hyderabad independent of Municipal Corporation, the State has violated the spirit of constitutional provision. Neither the city level elected representative nor the community is a part in the formal organisational structure of the HMWS&SB. By making the distribution of water a techno-bureaucratic affair has left people without a platform to demand better service. Moreover the techno-bureaucratic officials are not directly accountable to the people and are permanent government servant. This makes the issue of accountability a mockery where responsibility is diluted from the elected representatives.
This brings us to the discussion about the new role of emerging political leaders. It may be mentioned again that access to water is also a cumulative result of how well people are connected to the state authorities. Where there is no formal supply or inadequate supply, it is observed people are coming together for a common cause. Such actions paid well and have brought some sort of provision for them. The community members are individual actors, they are unorganised in terms of formal associations but they come together as need arises. According to Anirudh Krishna (2002) it is called as active social capital. This is a new emerging trend in ensuring people’s access to water.

In this context the role of new social leadership is significant. There is a positive trend in terms of people’s access to water. The role of street leaders some with political affiliations and some without has worked well. It is what according to Public Choice Theory maximisation of self-interest, where local political leader or groups are working for their votes and support base while the public is utilising the service of the leader for accessing basic resources.

Further, the head of the HMWS&SB is the Chief Minister of the state. The point here is if the Chief Minister who is politically most powerful in a state is heading the water supply organisation, it is virtually a one man affair because whatever the Chief Minister says will be final. Therefore the technical and human details and expertise generally gets lost.

Moreover, in the name of downsizing the government made no recruitment of new personnel even at crucial skilled level for the past few years. This leaves a vacuum in the operational level and implementation of schemes owing to lack of skilled personnel. With dwindling personnel it can be stated that the grievances of users goes unattended. Based on the field study and taking into consideration a number of interviews organised by the researcher and taking into consideration the views of the general public living in the study area using Focussed Group Discussions, the researcher presents the following findings:
7.4.1 Individual water connection

- In the independent households, 68% respondents have one water connection, 30% have two and 2% have three water connections. In the slums with individual water connection 97% of the respondents have one and 3% have two connections. In the third category sample none has an individual water connection.

7.4.2 Duration of water supply

- In the independent households, 70% respondents get water for upto two hours on alternate days and 30% get for 4 hours or more. In the slums with individual water connection 74% respondents get water for less than 2 hours and 26% gets upto 4 hours on alternate days. In the third category sample with no individual water connection water comes for upto 2 hours on alternate days, gets accumulated in the tank from where people collect.

7.4.3 Quantity of supply

- While 74% of the respondents in independent households said they get sufficient water for consumption, only 31% in slums with individual connection agreed on this. However an overwhelming majority of respondents said they didn’t even get the minimum.

7.4.4 Quality of water

- In independent households, 66% respondents use filter water, 27 per cent prefer to boil and 7% prefer mineral water. In slums with water connection, 59% respondents either use filter or boil before consumption. Dwellings without connection consume as it is since they cannot afford to buy filter nor have resources to boil.

7.4.5 Pricing and user perception

- In independent households, 26% respondents pay below Rs 100, 49% between Rs 100 to Rs 200 and 20% more than Rs 200 as monthly
water charges. It is also observed that 8% of the respondents pay more than Rs 300 per month. In slums with water connection 93% respondents’ pay around Rs 100 and 7% between Rs 100 to Rs 200 per month. Many respondents have complaint regarding excess bill. In the third category, they do not pay anything to the HMWS&SB.

7.4.6 Grievance redressal

- In independent households, 49% respondents get their water related problem solved within one day, 29% three days and 24% more than three days. In the slums with water connections, 21% get their water related problem solved within one day, 72% three days or more and 7% gets no response from the HMWS&SB.

7.4.7 Coping with water insecurity

- Most of the respondents are making use of different kinds of additional arrangements to cope with water insecurity. Since they are not informed in advance regarding any disruption in water supply, they feel that they need to be prepared for any unforeseen circumstances such as water shortages, or irregular supply.

7.4.8 Economic capacity and access

- It is seen that while people with sound financial background and good contacts and influence have their access to water secured both through the State and market mechanisms. On the other hand, those who cannot afford entirely depend on State supply. However to bring effectiveness and economy in water use, HMWS&SB has removed Public Stand Posts (PSPs) on which poor people entirely depend. In the last two years, the HMWS&SB has removed 20 PSPs eventhough there is increase in population forcing people to buy.
7.4.9 Right to vote and access

- Neither politicians nor officials of the HMWS&SB visited Comrade Ramakrishna Huts in Adikmet before issuance of voter Ids. As they are voters now, they receive some attention. Conferring right to vote is a \textit{de facto} guarantee to access water.

In the slum Comrade Ramakrishna huts users do not have individual water supply connection. Presently, the residents are dependent on the water supplied through sintex tanks and neighbours or the hand pump for their daily water needs. Though there was no formal water supply to the Comrade Ramakrishna huts earlier, it is purely the efforts of local people and local leadership they got at least some access to water.

7.5 Towards Commercialisation: Trends and Issues

There is a slow tendency towards commercialisation. The HMWS&SB which is dependent on grants and loans from outside agencies is under the dictate of non-state actors. This has played the catalyst for rapid commercialisation of water sector in Hyderabad. However, in Hyderabad the process got slowed down with the change in regime from the Telugu Desam (TDP) to Congress party. The Congress party has taken a more populist stand as expected. There seemed to be a new political trend emerging with political parties accepting access to basic services such as water an agenda to fight elections.

7.6 Water as a basic right

The concept of water as a right continues to be a powerful slogan as right! But few envy its implementation. The State has a responsibility to ensure that no one is denied this right, even if the service provision is entrusted to a private agency.

Access to water is promised quite sometime ago, came up for implementation at last but there are quite a few issues that needs to be resolved. On a short notice water to be supplied, as it is central to health. Therefore there needs to be better provisioning for water.
7.7 Institutional arrangements

Local bodies must be strengthened to devise plan and not wait for a disaster to happen. Like in rural areas, the concept of Pani Panchayat can be thought of in urban areas too if not in the same format. They can be in urban wards to include the urban poor in decision making for better facilitating their access to water.

Insensitiveness on the part of the bureaucracy is leading to half hearted implementation of schemes. Therefore there must be advisory body at the city level consisting of general people regarding water. They can be consulted in matters of planning for water and better service delivery to the people.

In the light of MDGs, comprehensive overhaul of HMWS&SB is required and must be given a more holistic approach for water supply. Systemic change for HMWS&SB and MCH needs to be carried out, to have joint migration officer to identify the migrants and give them a temporary stay cards so as to keep records of people coming to the city and plan basic services like water.

It is seen that households connected to the formal supply network has some basic access. But for those not connected is highly insecure. Therefore, by giving everyone water connection some basic access to water can be ensured.

Reduction in physical losses must be undertaken. This will not only lead to increased water supply but also result in increased duration of supply. Ground water in future is likely to be the main supplementary source of water. Currently it is utilised in an unplanned and unregulated manner. There is a need to assess the present availability of the groundwater after registration of bore wells and putting a certain cap on the withdrawal of water.

State intervention has yielded positive results, however the efforts are insufficient in conjunction with the rapid demand. The inability of the State to meet the emerging demand for water has created fertile ground for social conflicts which the State is unable to deal with in a democratic manner. The problem has also stemmed from the segmentation of people in terms of economic capability. On the other hand, the efforts of State to privatise the Common Property Resource (CPR) such as water have negative externalities not only in terms of access to drinking water
but also with livelihoods of the people. Therefore, water must not be seen only as a techno-bureaucratic and commercial issue but also as a socio-political question.

The management of water has become a complex policy issue bringing into its fold state, market and civil society. Attempts of commercialisation of water are evident and there appears to be some justification in the criticism. The study started as an attempt to understand the politics of inter-relation between state and market in India for provisioning for water to the people. It shows that water is fast becoming a tradable commodity the consequences of which are seen and felt.

The study started with a purpose to figure out the changing role of State in the present context, the debates on which are presented earlier in the chapter. In the debate it is seen that several authors cautioned that a changed role of State in service delivery will have an adverse impact on the marginalised section. Further efficiency and effectiveness are the watchword for reforms without linking it to equitable distribution of resources. Certainly efficiency and effectiveness (in cost recovery) are visible. However what is missing is access to certain basic minimum services. This study shows strong indications of State agencies eagerness to opt for privatisation route in essential services like water. The outcome of such policy is seen in Adikmet, Hyderabad. More such studies perhaps are needed to conceptualise the phenomena in policy terms.